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SAVARY DES BRUSLONS, Jacques

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O Britain, chosen Port of Trade,
May Luxry neer thy Sons invade;
Whenever neighbring States contend,
'Tis thine to be the genral Friend.

What ist who rules in other Lands!
On Trade alone thy Glory stands.
That Benefit is unconfin'd,
Diffusing Good among Mankind;

That first gave Lustre to thy Reigns,
And scatter'd Plenty o'er thy Plains:
'Tis that alone thy Wealth supplies,
And draws all Europes envious Eyes.

Be Commerce then thy sole Design:
Keep that, and all the World is thine.

Gay, Vol: II. Fable VIII. To his Native Country.

C. Mosley sculp.

THE

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF

TRADE and COMMERCE:

WITH LARGE

ADDITIONS and IMPROVEMENTS,

Adapting the ſame to the

PRESENT STATE of BRITISH AFFAIRS in AMERICA,
ſince the laſt TREATY of PEACE made in the Year 1763.

With GREAT VARIETY of

NEW REMARKS and ILLUSTRATIONS

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ALSO,

All the Material **LAWS of TRADE and NAVIGATION**
relating to theſe KINGDOMS,

AND THE

CUSTOMS and USAGES to which all TRADERS are ſubject.

BY **MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT**, Eſq;

THE THIRD EDITION.

VOL. I.



LONDON:

Printed for H. WOODFALL, A. MILLAR, J. and R. TONSON, J. RIVINGTON, J. HINTON, R. BALDWIN, L. HAWES and W. CLARKE and R. COLLINS, R. HORSFIELD, W. JOHNSTON, T. LONGMAN, J. BROTHERTON, J. DODSLEY, T. PAYNE, J. ROBSON, T. LOWNDES, W. NICOLL, and J. KNOX.

MDCCLXVI.

WELLCOME HISTORICAL MEDICAL LIBRARY

TO THE

RIGHT HONOURABLE GEORGE NELSON, ESQ.

LORD MAYOR OF THE CITY OF LONDON;

AND TO THE

ALDERMEN, AND COMMON COUNCIL,

Who conſtitute the MAGISTRACY of the commercial METROPOLIS of GREAT BRITAIN.

MY LORD AND GENTLEMEN!

THE Magiſtracy of this ancient commercial City being compoſed of the different Ranks of Traders, comprehended in Miniature, within the Dominions of Great Britain; and being elected into their Office, by the Suffrages of the Citizens, who are conſtituted of the like Body of reſpectable Traders themſelves; the Author of this Performance upon Trade and Commerce, humbly conceives, that he could not addreſs his Labours with more Propriety than to the Corporation of ſo illuſtrious a Trading City.

Though the mercantile Order of Perſons, amongſt the ſeveral Degrees of the City Magiſtrates, is eſteemed the ſupreme Claſs of Traders in general; yet it is obſervable, that the Number of Merchants in the whole City, and even throughout the whole Kingdom bears but a ſmall Proportion to that of the London Tradeſmen contained only in the Metropolis. Nor, indeed, could Merchants ſubſiſt, was it not for theſe Tradeſmen in this City; who make a numerous Body in the Wholeſale and Retail Way. For they firſt purchaſe of the Merchants their foreign Imports, Wholeſale, and then vend and circulate them again by Wholeſale and Retail, amongſt all the other Country Tradeſmen, reſiding in the remoteſt Parts of the Kingdom. The Execution of this inland Circulation of Trade, does not fall within the peculiar Province of the Merchant, whoſe Buſineſs is, or ſhould be, to maintain his Dignity, reſtrained chiefly to Exportation and Importation in the maritime Branch by wholeſale Purchaſes, and Sales. But it is the Employment of the London Tradeſmen in general, to ſell and diſperſe their Imports from the Metropolis to other Parts of the Nation; and the London Tradeſmen are the great Paymaſters of the London Merchants. Of what Uſe could the London Merchant be, without their neighbouring Tradeſmen, Purchaſers, Cuſtomers, and Paymaſters, to take their foreign Commodities off their Hands?

In the like Manner, do not the London Tradeſmen, Warehouſemen, Factors, &c. take our native Commodities from all the Country-Manufacturers of every Appellation? And do not they ſell them in general to the Merchants, who export them? So that, as the London Tradeſman firſt purchaſes of the Merchant his foreign Imports, ſo likewiſe he ſells to him his Exports; and as the Merchant gives the London Tradeſman ſhort Credit for his Purchaſes; ſo does the London Tradeſman give the Merchant Credit for his Exports of native Commodities: And when our Exports exceed in Value our Imports, as they ever ought to do, and ever will, if the State is as wiſely governed as it ſhould be, the London Tradeſmen, Warehouſemen, and Factors, &c. give larger Credit to the Merchants, than the other Set of Tradeſmen receive from them.

In this Light, London Tradeſmen appear to conſtitute the very active Soul of the Commerce of the whole Britiſh State; and that they are an eſſential Medium between the Merchant, the Country Shop-Keeper, and the Conſumers. And although it may ſeem, at firſt Sight, ſomething aſſuming to aſſert, that the City-Tradeſmen, taken in every Degree, as contradiſtinguiſhed from the foreign Exporter and Importer, are the Support of all Country Shop-Keepers, and therefore of the greateſt Part of the whole Commerce of the Kingdom; yet it is nevertheleſs true: for we cannot go to a Shop-Keeper of any Repute, in the moſt diſtant trading Towns throughout Great Britain, but holds ſome Correſpondence with the Tradeſmen of London: And as all Country Shop-Keepers purchaſe more or leſs at London, ſo are they not all ever indebted to the London Tradeſmen? And

therefore, the whole Country may be juſtly ſaid to trade upon the City's Stock, ſeeing the London Tradeſmen, Factors, and Warehouſemen, give them all Credit.

Of ſuch high Concernment are the London Tradeſmen to the whole Traffic of the Nation, that all our native Commodities and Manufactures almoſt of every Sort, more or leſs, center at firſt in London, and amongſt the London Tradeſmen, brought to them from all the inland manufacturing and trading Towns; and are afterwards ſent again from London to the ſeveral different trading Towns and Cities throughout the Kingdom, where thoſe Commodities and Manufactures are not made or produced. The Countrymen ſheer their Sheep, ſell their Wool, and carry it from Place to Place; the Manufacturer ſets it to Work, to combing, ſpinning, winding, twiſting, dyeing, weaving, fulling, dreſſing, and thus they furniſh their numberleſs Manufactures in the whole Woollen Branch. But what muſt they do with them, if London did not take them firſt off their Hands, and the London Tradeſmen, Warehouſemen, Factors, and Wholeſale Dealers, did not vend and circulate them again amongſt the London Merchants, as well as to all the remote Parts of the Nation? London is the grand central Mart to which the groſs Body of all our native Commodities are firſt brought, and from whence they are again ſold; the London Tradeſmen purchaſe of the Country Manufacturers, and pay them, and then ſell them chiefly to the Country Tradeſmen and Shop-keepers. This is the Caſe, be it Mancheſter for Cotton Wares; Yorkſhire for Coarſe Cloth, Kerſies, &c. Wilts and Glouceſter for Fine Cloths; Norwich for Stuffs; Wales for Flannels; they all firſt go to London, and all have their Money, or other Goods in Return from London, and the London Tradeſmen pay and ſupply them.

Whence it appears, that except that Proportion of the inland Trade of the Nation, that is immediately carried on from the Out-Ports, the whole is carried on to and from London, and all through the Hands of London Tradeſmen: and ſo we have ſeen is the whole of the Trade of foreign Exports and Imports; and our London Tradeſmen have no ſmall Share in the whole mercantile Shipping of this Kingdom, as well as of all the coaſting Veſſels; which tends to the general Support of the Navigation of the Empire, its Brood of Seamen, and the Benefit of Freight, Ship-building, and Ship-victualling of the trading Part of the Nation.

Upon the whole, therefore, it is not at all to be wondered, that ſuch immenſe Eſtates have been acquired amongſt the London Tradeſmen, no leſs than London Merchants; ſince this magnificent City hath been, and we hope ever will remain the moſt opulent and ſplendid commercial Emporium in the whole World. Nor is it to be admired, that from London Traders, and from the Magiſtracy of ſo illuſtrious a Corporation, ſuch numerous noble Families ſhould ſpring, who reflect a brilliant Luſtre upon the Metropolis, as that does upon all the illuſtrious Perſonages who have been concerned in its Magiſtracy: from the Common Council, they frequently aſcend to Aldermen, and from Aldermen to Lord Mayors, whoſe Dignity, Power and Authority (occaſionally) is not inferior to any of the greateſt Nobility in this Kingdom.

If a Trader of this City arrives at the high Office of Lord Mayor, does not the Dignity intitle him to the diſtinguiſhed Epithet of Right Honourable? And is not his Lordſhip conſtitutionally inveſted with the ſacred Character of a Judge, as well in capital as civil Affairs? Does he not even precede the Chancellor, and other Judges and Officers of the Crown, upon peculiar Occaſions? In caſe of an Interregnum, does not the Lord Mayor of London, become the chief Magiſtrate in the Realm? Have not Numbers of wiſe and eminent trading Citizens arrived, even at the Honor of Lord Chancellor; been created Peers of the Realm, Knights of the Garter, Bath, Bannerets, and Privy Councellors? And what more can be ſaid of Divines, Lawyers or Soldiers?

To give a few Inſtances in Honor to the City of London——The Anceſtors of the following noble Families ſprung from Trade and the Magiſtracy of the City of London; viz. Legg, the Earl of Dartmouth; De la Pole, Earl of Suffolk, Chancellor of England, and Knight of the Garter; Brown, Lord Viſcount Montacute; Bullen, Lord Viſcount Rochfort, and Earl of Wiltſhire and Ormond; Holles, Earl of Clare, and afterwards Duke of Newcaſtle; Oſborne, Duke of Leeds; Hicks, Lord Hicks, and Viſcount Camden, Anceſtor to the Earl of Gainſborough; Dormer, Earl of Carnarvon, and Lord Dormer; Cromwell, Earl of Eſſex, and Knight of the Garter; Capel, Anceſtor to the preſent Earl of Eſſex; the Riches Earls of Warwick and Holland; Coventry, Earl of Coventry; Cranfield, Earl of Middleſex; Fitzwilliams, Earl Fitzwilliams; the late Lord Haverſham; the preſent Earl of Tilney, and the Grandfather of the Duke of Bedford; and numerous other of the moſt noble Families in the Britiſh Empire; with which this illuſtrious Liſt might be adorned, to the Honour of Trade and the Magiſtracy of this famous City—Nor ſhould it be forgot, that Henry VIII. thought it no Indignity, when he quitted his Queen, to marry Anne, the Daughter of Thomas Bullen, Lord Mayor of London: And the firſt William, who founded our Royal Race, was the Grandſon of a Tanner.

So far is Trade from being inconſiſtent with the Character of a Gentleman, that in England it makes Gentlemen, and hath peopled this Nation with Nobles and Gentlemen; for, after a Generation or two, have not the Children, or Grandchildren of Traders ſprung from the Magiſtracy of London,

become as good Gentlemen, Stateſmen, Parliament-men, Privy Councellors, Judges, Biſhops, and Noblemen, as thoſe of the higheſt Birth, and the moſt antient Families?

Hath not likewiſe the Magiſtracy of the Corporation of London produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed Friends to the Trading Intereſt of the Kingdom? And hath not the Parliament itſelf repoſed the greateſt Confidence in them? Was not this the Caſe of Philpot and Walworth, two very noted Aldermen of London; by placing the Money granted by Subſidy in the Minority of the Reign of King Richard II. in their Hands, to carry on the War, inſtead of thoſe of the Duke of Lancaſter, and the other Regents at that Time? Did not Alderman Philpot, at his own Expence, fit out a Fleet with a Thouſand Men to protect the Engliſh Merchants in his Days, becauſe the Regency had then ſhamefully neglected to do it? What important Service to Trade did the celebrated Citizen Sir Thomas Graham do in his Time? Was not alſo Mr. Sutton, the Founder of the Charter-Houſe, the chief Inſtrument in retarding the Sailing of the Spaniſh Armada, intended to enſlave theſe Kingdoms? Was not the Corporation of London remarkably zealous in bringing about the happy Revolution; to which we owe the preſent Felicity of this Nation? Have not the Citizens of London been ever loyally attached to the preſent auguſt Family regnant on the Throne of theſe Kingdoms? Were they not remarkably ſo, in the Time of the unnatural Rebellion in the Year 1745? What other Aſſociation for the Support of the Public Credit could have had the happy Effect that had?

From theſe few Obſervations, it appears how egregiouſly miſtaken in the Importance of the Trading Citizens, and of the Weight and Influence of the Corporation of London over the whole Kingdom, they muſt be who have affected to treat them in a Manner unbecoming their ſupreme Utility to the State? From the mean Indignities too frequently caſt upon the City Magiſtracy in its corporate Capacity, I have judged it not uſeleſs to diſabuſe thoſe who have been miſled to entertain a different Opinion to what I do of this illuſtrious Corporation: And this I hope will atone for dwelling ſo long on a Topic agreeable to myſelf.

Does not the Extent of the Traffic of the Citizens of London, with the remote Parts of the Kingdom, give them a notable Influence by their commercial Connections, and the Univerſality of their trading Correſpondence over the Nation? When the Citizens thrive in their Trade, can other Traders throughout the Kingdom do otherwiſe? When the far diſtant Britiſh Traders feel a Decline, do not the London Traders do ſo likewiſe? In conſequence hereof, it is apparent, that the Voice of London Traders is the commercial Barometer of the State of our Commerce: when they proſper, the whole Nation cannot do otherwiſe. Is it then to be wondered, when they complain that the whole Kingdom ſhould echo their Sentiments?

Theſe few Remarks will ſerve to ſhew, the miſtaken Judgment of thoſe who are too apt to cenſure, and often ridicule the Conduct of the Corporation of London in their publick Capacity. For what Motive can they have to complain, when there is no Occaſion? The moſt ſacred Cauſes that concern the Proſperity and Happineſs of theſe Kingdoms, are thoſe of Trade and Liberty. When the Corporation of London have felt and experienced them to be affected, they complain, they remonſtrate, they dutifully petition the Legiſlature. Is this unbecoming the Weight and Dignity of the commercial Metropolis? They never ſet up for Infallibility any more than other great Bodies. Yet it is rare, very rare, that they ever err, in Regard to what is the moſt dear to Britons! Do not thoſe who contemn the Corporation of London, diſhonour the nobleſt Families, who are deſcended from its Magiſtrates?

I have the Honour to be,

My Lord and Gentlemen,

With great Veneration,

Your moſt Humble

and moſt Obedient Servant,

Feb. 10, 1766.
Broad Street, London.

MALACHY POSTLETHWAYT

INTRODUCTION.

THIS DICTIONARY of TRADE and COMMERCE is the firſt of it's kind that was ever publiſhed in Great-Britain; and having obtained a reputation for above fourteen years, with thoſe eſteemed the beſt judges in the kingdom, amongſt the nobility and gentry; and it's credit and character alſo amongſt commercial people of the beſt underſtanding, as well merchants as tradeſmen, manufacturers and artizans of every reſpectable rank, render it the leſs neceſſary to urge any thing now in it's recommendation. With reſpect to the preſent NEW EDITION here offered to the public, it will be expected that ſome account ſhould be given of it.

The laſt WAR, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE made in the year 1763, having made a great alteration in the ſtate of the Britiſh trade and territories in America and Africa, ſince the publication of the SECOND EDITION, and the public calling for a THIRD, due notice is taken therein of the various changes made in the American and African trades by the ſaid DEFINITIVE TREATY. In conſequence of which, the ſame treaty having made a great variation in the territories of France and Spain, in favour of the Britiſh empire, it hath become neceſſary to repreſent thoſe changes and alterations, in regard to the dominions of their reſpective kingdoms.

That the candour and impartiality of the author may be the more conſpicuous in his repreſentations upon this occaſion, he hath continued his former REMARKS upon the trade and territories of the ſeveral before-mentioned potentates, which were made prior to the laſt war and treaty of peace; and hath made his ADDITIONAL REMARKS upon the ſame trade and territories ſince the peace hath been concluded, in the ſame manner and form as they were made in our former editions of this performance. By the method we have purſued, every one will be enabled to judge from plain facts, and natural deductions drawn therefrom, of the different ſtate and condition of the commerce and territories of the diverſe powers concerned in the laſt war, as well before its commencement, as ſince the peace of 1763.

The author being convinced how much the proſperity and the trade of this nation depend upon the mechanical and manufactural arts; and how greatly their ingenuity in working up their wares, commodities, and manufactures of a good quality, to recommend them to all foreign ſtates and empires; has been remarkably elaborate in his endeavours to excite and ſtimulate thoſe artiſts to make every ſort of improvement in their reſpective employs. He has ſanguinely pleaded their cauſe with the government and legiſlature, that all wiſe encouragement ſhould be given to this body of uſeful undertakers; to the end, that their induſtrious ingenuity may not be ſurpaſſed by any rival nation whatſoever, more eſpecially by France.

From this motive, the moſt judicious laws, edicts, and arrets of that kingdom, relative to the reſtriction and regulation of the meaneſt manufactures amongſt them, that every workman might be obliged, by ſuch rigid laws and regulations, to make his goods agreeable thereto, for the credit and reputation of that nation are duly repreſented. For by theſe wiſe regulations it is, that France has hitherto ſurpaſſed and out-rivalled all the world in their manufactures: and by theſe means they at preſent worm Great-Britain, more or leſs, out of every branch of trade in Europe, and elſewhere. Nor could any thing have ever ſo efficaciouſly accompliſhed this great end, ſince they add the cheapneſs of their commodities to their external qualities.

Some people being pleaſed to cenſure our taking ſuch notice of the regulations of the French in the above reſpects, as thinking them too trivial to be duly remarked on in a dictionary of commerce; we differ in ſentiment: and we have the judgment of the Britiſh legiſlature to confirm us therein. For whoever is converſant with our ſtatute-laws of trade, will find that every branch, at one time or other, has been very minutely ſifted into, and put under very minute and ſevere regulations, for the credit and honour of the commerce of the kingdom. But the difference between us and France conſiſts chiefly in this; that they take no leſs care in the execution of their laws of trade, than in making them: we are remarkable for good laws, but are ſhamefully neglectful in their execution. Is it not upon this account, that our bakers are ſuffered to adulterate their bread, to the injury of the public health; and to daily trick the poor in the weight, as well as the rich and poor in the quality of their bread? In France theſe things are better guarded againſt.

In the like manner, and for the ſame reaſons aſſigned, we have taken notice of the brewers of France. This being a reſpectable branch of trade in England, we have pointed out the regulation under which it is put in France; to the end, that if the Britiſh legiſlature ſhould think proper to adopt any of them, they are ready at hand. Moſt trades at one time or other have been abuſed; and it is, therefore, the parliament have been obliged to lay them under ſevere laws and reſtrictions. And can this nation be too well informed in the regulation of other countries, to furniſh them with every uſeful hint and intimation? They certainly cannot.

Will any one that underſtands trade ſay, that bakers and brewers have no connections with the ſubject? Why do the Britiſh ſtatutes abound with peculiar laws for their regulation? Why do we ſay, that bread is the ſtaff of life? Does not the landed intereſt greatly depend upon baking and brewing? May we not as well ſay, that corn is no article of trade, and not connected with it? Does the revenue gain no advantage by the malt-tax, or the exciſe in brewing? What would the induſtrious poor do without due regulations by law in baking and brewing? They would ſoon have bread unfit to eat, and beer to drink!

Abſtract of the laws of other nations reſpecting many trades as well as abſtracts of our own, has been eſteemed a very uſeful part of a dictionary of commerce: without due notice taken thereof, and without making the uſe and application of them as is done in this work, it would certainly have been judged very imperfect. And can the public expect a complete dictionary of trade without them.

This work abounds with no ſmall variety of ſuggeſtions and intimations for the advancement of numerous branches of the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms; which every diſcerning reader will make his proper uſe of, either for his own private benefit and advantage, or thoſe of the public. Many manufacturers have wrote letters to the author, returning him their grateful thanks for the ſervices he has laboured to do them; and he has been happily inſtrumental to ſet ſeveral new manufactures on foot for the public intereſts.

The peculiar intereſt of tradeſmen in every reſpectable branch of buſineſs is herein promoted to the utmoſt; and that of the merchant and mercantile affairs, was never ſet in the light they are throughout this performance; and we may appeal only to one ſingle article of it; that of MERCANTILE COLLEGE.

That a ſummary view of the deſign of this work may appear; we ſubmit the following brief ſketch of the contents to the impartial public.

A GENERAL IDEA of the CONTENTS.

THE preſent performance is compiled to anſwer the following purpoſes.

The peculiar benefit and advantage of Britiſh traders in general, in their practical concerns, from the ſupreme merchant to every other ſubordinate claſs of reſpectable traders in the community.

For the uſe of ſuch perſons of diſtinction, who are deſirous to obtain a political knowledge of trade and commerce.

For the ſervice of ſuch, who would become maſters of the nature and conſtitution of the finances of this kingdom.

For the ſatisfaction of ſuch who would acquire a knowledge of the political ſyſtems of commerce, that prevail in the ſeveral ſtates and empires of the world.

For the ſervice of thoſe who would be acquainted with the commercial and marine treaties, made between one potentate and another, for the maintenance of commercial intercourſe.

Concerning the commercial policy of ſtates, as relative to the mechanical and manufactural arts in trading nations; and of the emolument ariſing from the labour, induſtry, and ingenuity, of all commercial artiſts.

The mutual advantage of Great Britain and her American plantations, in divers moſt intereſting lights.

The reciprocal benefit of Great Britain and Ireland.

The landed and trading intereſts harmonized.

The monied intereſt conſidered in various important views, as compared with the landed and trading.—Of reductions of intereſt.—Of ſtockjobbing, bubbling, and gaming, the deſtruction of trade and traders.

The conſtitution of trading and monied corporations: their uſe and abuſe to individuals, as well as the community.

The immenſity of the national debts, and tax-incumbrances; and their deſtructive conſequences to the trade of the kingdom, if not ſpeedily prevented.

Qualifications of the Britiſh ſenator.

The commercial conſtitution of parliament.

The pernicious conſequence of taxes on native commodities.

Of the revenue from the conqueſt to the reign of George III.

Of importation and exportation, in a practical as well as political light.

Of the balance of trade.

Of augmentation and diminution of coin.

Of the ſeveral ſocieties for the diſcovery of new arts, trades and manufactures, and their progreſs.

The utility of the Royal Society to trade.

The juriſdiction of the admiralty relative to commercial concerns.

Of the office of ambaſſadors, reſidents, and conſuls, in foreign ſtates.

Of the computation of annuities on lives, leaſes, and reverſions.

Of commercial arithmetic; and of the foreign exchanges, and their arbitration, in a new and intereſting view.

The art of debtor and creditor exhibited in a new conciſe light; with the whole art of banking.

The new MERCANTILE COLLEGE, for training of young Britiſh merchants with greater advantages than ever. Alſo a new inſtitution for the education of young perſons of diſtinction for parliamentary buſineſs.

Of the conſtitution of the ſeveral banks throughout Europe, with illuſtrations.

The ſtandard of gold and ſilver throughout Europe; with the intrinſic value of foreign coins.

Of trading in bullion gold and ſilver, and foreign coins to advantage.

Of inſurances of ſhipping and merchandize; with great variety of curious caſes, relating to this eſſential part of the mercantile commerce—with the political diſcuſſion of the point of inſuring the ſhips and merchandize of enemies in time of war.

Of foreign weights and meaſures, and the converſion of the one into the other.

The laws, cuſtoms, and uſages, of merchants and traders, with reſpect to foreign and inland bills of exchange—with numerous important caſes adjudged in courts of law.

Of freight, bills of lading, maſters and owners of ſhips, charter-parties, averages, baratries, bottomree, ſhipwrecks, demurrage, and the laws relating thereto.

An ample repreſentation of the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe, and it's ſeveral departments; the method of computing the duties of import and export; with an explanation ſuiting all preſent and future books of rates: with abſtracts of the commercial laws relating to drawbacks, bounties, and premiums for the advancement of the Britiſh trade: alſo the penalties, as well as the rights and privileges to which traders are intitled, never before ſo repreſented.

The act of navigation.

An account of the foreign ſhipping frequenting the ports of England—with political conſiderations, concerning the intereſts of Britiſh merchants, owners of ſhips, and others, relative to the employment and increaſe of Britiſh ſhipping, and Britiſh navigators.

The ſuperior importance of the city of London, as the trading metropolis; the commercial connections of it's tradeſmen and citizens over the whole kingdom, as well as it's mercantile intereſt over the world—the great influence of the trading citizens over the nation, on all ſtate emergencies.

The ſupreme dignity of London, as a corporation: ſhewing that the greateſt families in the kingdom originally ſprung from our trading citizens, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves as it's chief magiſtrates.

Concerning the bad policy of want of harmony between the court and the city: the weight the city has given, and ever will give, to the conduct of government, both at home and abroad, in ſupport of the national power and dignity.

Anecdotes of the diſtinguiſhing ſervices to the ſtate of many eminent citizens of London, in commercial affairs.

Of it's incorporated city companies; and of the bodies of trade in the city of Paris.

Alſo all the various material French edicts, arrets, and laws, extracted from SAVARY, concerning the chief trades in France, from whence any uſeful intimations may be derived for the benefit of the Britiſh trade, as that nation have borrowed many good laws and regulations from this.

Many of the like laws, relative to the commerce of other foreign nations, from the ſame motives.

Of the peculiar regulations of the French trading corporations, to ſpirit up an emulation among their fraternities to excel in their reſpective branches.

Of the ſtrictneſs of ſeveral trading corporations of France, not to admit perſons to the freedom of their companies, without manifeſting their qualifications for the ſame, by the actual performance of ſome maſterpiece of workmanſhip, in the preſence of the beſt judges, ſworn for that purpoſe.—The ſevere penalties in caſes of connivance and corruption, on ſuch like occaſions.—Their particular care and vigilance to manufacture their goods of the beſt quality for foreign markets.—With REMARKS, ſhewing the political ſagacity of the French to propagate their trade throughout the world, by ſuch like wiſe meaſures.

On the circulating caſh requiſite to carry on the trade of a nation.

Of the nature and effect of paper credit in commercial ſtates and empires.

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The par and equation between gold and ſilver.

The repreſentation of Sir Iſaac Newton upon the neceſſity heretofore of lowering the price of guineas, from 21s. 6d. to 21s. in order to prevent the ſcarcity of ſilver coin in England.

The ſtate of the coin and coinage of England, from the revolution to the reign of his preſent majeſty king George III.

Of the practical arts of aſſaying gold and ſilver, neceſſary for the merchant or other traders, who may be concerned in trafficking therein, to determine upon their own judgment the value thereof, according to the current price of the ſtandard gold and ſilver in England.

Of the art of aſſaying gold and ſilver from their ores; together with the knowledge of all metallurgical operations to judge of mines and minerals of every kind, upon true philoſophical principles: as well for the uſe of private gentlemen as traders.

Of ſubterranean treaſures of all ſorts, and the art of mineralogy; and alſo of eſtimable earths, clays, boles, manures, and their utility in the improvement of landed eſtates.

Concerning the vegetable productions of nature, conſidered as the great objects of traffic throughout the world; repreſented under the various ſtates, kingdoms, and empires, geographically as well as commercially deſcribed.

Variety of philoſophical experiments, whereby an idea may be formed, of what ſort of experiments are neceſſary to be made, the better to judge of the quality and worth of certain natural productions.

Of the productions of art, reſpecting great variety of capital traffickable commodities and manufactures, as well in other countries as our own; in order to whet the invention of our artiſts to imitate or excel them.

Of the judges, inſpectors, and overſeers of the manufactures of France in particular, eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral provinces of that kingdom.—Many of the like kind of regulations for the advantage of the woollen manufactories of Great Britain; which are ſhamefully neglected, to the degeneracy of the Engliſh manufactures in quality.—The cauſes hereof; and the uſe and abuſe of ſuch kind of regulations.

The extraordinary wiſe and political meaſures taken by that able ſtateſman Monſieur Colbert, of France, while ſuperintendant and inſpector-general of the commerce and navigation of that nation; with intent to eſtabliſh the valuable manufactures there, and perpetuate their encouragement; which has had a tendency to extend the commerce of France over the whole globe.—Of patents granted in Great Britain for the like purpoſes; with intereſting obſervations on this head.

Public fairs, free and otherwiſe, kept in France, and in other the moſt remarkable places throughout Europe; alſo of the Aſiatic and African caravans, and how commerce is carried on by means thereof, and the caravanſeras.

The commerce of the Chineſe, and the Eaſt-Indies in general; by what means carried on.—Of the exceſſive cheapneſs of their arts, manufactures, and produce; whereby all European nations are attracted to trade with them, and reſort to them for their productions and manufactures. With pertinent obſervations to carry on this commerce both in a private and public way, the beſt to the advantage of Europe.

The peculiarities of the Turkey, Arabian, and Perſian trades, with ſuitable illuſtrations.

Wherein the Britiſh improvements in the African trade conſiſts; and by what means one part of that commerce may remain free and open to our ſeparate traders, and by what meaſures the inland trade may be more cultivated by this nation than it ever was, to the greater emolument of this kingdom, and our Eaſt-India company.

Monopolies in general and particular.—Britiſh laws relative thereto; with political animadverſions.

Political arithmetic, and it's application to commercial affairs and finances.

The funds of Great Britain conſidered in diverſe lights, reſpecting the trade of the kingdom.—The conſequences to the nation, if we continue the deſtructive practice of funding and borrowing in times of war.

The injurious effects of becoming tributaries to foreigners, by reaſon of the magnitude of the national debt.—Of the great detriment our trade ſuſtains by mortgaging the funds of the kingdom.—With various ſuggeſtions for their timely redemption.—The diſadvantage in rendering our funds irredeemable, when public exigencies required freſh loans.

That the exceſſive dearneſs of all Engliſh commodities and manufactures is occaſioned by the great weight of the public debts, and the oppreſſive incumbrances of taxes in conſequence thereof.—That this exceſſive dearneſs of Engliſh commodities and manufactures, is the principal cauſe of this nation being underſold at all the markets in Europe, by the French and Dutch; and that this national evil has been growing, as our national debts and taxes have increaſed; and is at preſent arrived to a greater pitch, than was ever before experienced by this kingdom.

That until the trade of England is freed from a conſiderable part of it's taxes, we ſhall never be able to ſell Engliſh wares ſo cheap at foreign markets, as our foreign competitors in commerce are at this time able to do.

That the dearneſs of Engliſh commodities, is the chief cauſe of ſmuggling being ſo univerſal in Great Britain as well as her American colonies.

That the preſent parliamentary proviſion made for the ſpeedy r demption of the numerous taxes on the Engliſh trade, is inadequate to the purpoſe intended.

That the height of the revenue of cuſtoms only proves, that our IMPORTS of foreign commodities and the foreign manufactures increaſe, to the ruin of our native ones; and that mortgaging that revenue, is greatly detrimental to the trade of our exports.

That the commercial grievances of England daily increaſe; and that the chief cauſes thereof ſeem quite unattended to.

That this performance is intended to ſuggeſt variety of ways and means, whereby the commercial grievances of the kingdom may be relieved.

That one great end deſigned to be anſwered by this work, is to promote a happy and laſting COMMERCIAL UNION between Great Britain and her American colonies at this critical juncture.

And as the author apprehends, that nothing has been, or is ſo detrimental to the whole trade of England, as the multiplicity of tax-incumbrances, which he conceives is the great cauſe of the general dearneſs of it's commodities and manufactures in foreign countries, notwithſtanding the drawbacks allowed; ſo he humbly conceives, that he cannot be of more ſervice to the nation, than ſtarting a deſign to ſave it the future expence of engaging in the CONTINENTAL WARS OF EUROPE; ſince they have hitherto contributed ſo greatly to the enhancement of taxes upon our trade in general.

With many other intereſting additions, of no leſs conſequence to private traders than to the whole Britiſh empire, never before publiſhed. The whole containing a greater fund of commercial knowledge, relating to univerſal trade and navigation, both practical and political, than ever appeared in any dictionary of commerce, in this, or any other ſtate or empire: and the great end aimed at by the author is to promote and advance, to the utmoſt of his abilities, the commercial proſperity and happineſs of the Britiſh empire, and her colonies and plantations in America.

THAT a better idea of this performance may be formed, than merely by the preceding ſketch of it's general contents, it may alſo be proper to obſerve, that our labours abound with occaſional animadverſions to ſhew, that the exerciſe of trade and commerce is the ſoul of the whole Britiſh empire; and as they have hitherto been the great inſtruments of rendering the ſame what it at preſent appears to be; ſo the continuance of the ſame cauſe can only tend to it's laſting ſupport and preſervation.

Upon the peculiar arts of carrying on trade, as well for the benefit and advantage of the community in general, as individuals therein employed, we have largely expatiated upon pertinent topics: for we look upon the arduous induſtry of traders, to be productive of the proſperity of the kingdom; and that commercial vigilance, activity, and induſtry, cannot be too much encouraged and inculcated.

If we conſult hiſtory, whether ancient or modern, we ſhall find that idleneſs and luxury have, in all ages of the world, been the nurſe and parent of voluptuouſneſs and effeminacy; which gradually increaſing in proportion to a conſtant diminution of labour and induſtry, finally brought an irreverſible deſtruction upon ſuch countries, wherever they gained the general aſcendancy.

The monarchy of the Aſſyrians is a pregnant and remarkable inſtance; which degenerating from thoſe maſculine and great atchievements which originally gave riſe to their univerſal greatneſs, into a libidinous and intemperate courſe of life, became an eaſy prey to Cyrus the Great.

Thus it fared with the Perſian monarchy; which being over-run with eaſe, luxury, and riot, with ſoft and effeminate delights and wanton pleaſures, with all manner of delicacy and licentiouſneſs, ſeemed to the great Alexander rather like beaſts fitted for the ſlaughter, than for labour, buſineſs, and induſtry; and gave his warlike Macedonians more trouble to diſrobe them of that pageantry and ſumptuous apparel, which, like ſo many theatrical grandees, they came vainly adorned with to battle, than they found in obtaining an eaſy conqueſt over thoſe puſillanimous and gaudy Perſians, who ſcarce gave any oppoſition.

But then, how quickly do we find the ſcene changed in this mighty conqueror, who no ſooner devoted himſelf to pleaſures, and to foſter himſelf in idleneſs and immoderate exceſs, but this very man, who had been the terror of the univerſe, became the ſcorn and contempt of his own ſoldiers? Whilſt he purſued the Macedonian ſtrictneſs, and following the genius of his native country, by a warlike activity, vigilance, and induſtry, ſo long they adored him as a god: when he began to wear the effeminate apparel of the Perſians, and to habituate himſelf to their vices, even his greateſt favourites hardly accounted him a man; whoſe debauchery and intemperance ſoon put an ignominious period to the life of that once illuſtrious prince, and to the Macedonian empire, which otherwiſe might have been of permanent duration.

The like ill deſtiny attended the Roman monarchy: when the Turks, who had been conſtantly inured to hardſhips and perpetual toil, found the others a people uneaſy with their plenty, and ſo burthened with their time, that it was difficult to find ways enough to ſpend it.

And it was, doubtleſs, foreſeen by that grand impoſtor Mahomet, that idleneſs and luxury would, if indulged, ſo gradually enervate that mighty empire, as ſoon to bring it to deſtruction: for the prevention whereof, like a ſubtle legiſlator, he enjoined it as a law, which even their very emperors were not to be exempted from; namely, to eat no more than the labour of his hands could purchaſe every day.

It would not be a taſk leſs arduous than diſagreeable, to repreſent the miſeries which at this day attend upon thoſe people, who are denied the unſpeakable benefits of arts, labour, trade and commerce. How do the wild Arabs live, and aſſociate with their herds? from whom, beſides the erectneſs of their ſtature, no other marks of diſtinction are ſo viſible upon them, as that they are the more careful beaſts in providing for their companions.

For want of arts, induſtry, and trade, to civilize the aborigines of America, how miſerably wretched are they, in compariſon to the commercial Europeans? What avail the immenſity of the richeſt territory to Indians and Caribbeans? Was it not for the perpetual exerciſe of the European arts, ingenuity, induſtry, and trade amongſt them, what chance would they ever have ſtood to become humanized?

To come nearer home: we find the Iriſh, by the accounts given us in their own hiſtories, written in their native tongue, to have been ſome of the moſt abject and miſerable people in the univerſe, when the Engliſh firſt arrived amongſt them. Before the Engliſh conqueſt they were not very numerous, and lived in great idleneſs and ſloth, being deſtitute of arts, labour, and commerce; which put them upon a neceſſity of committing rapine, and continually preying upon each other for ſubſiſtence: for another man's herd being more numerous than that of his neighbour, ſeemed juſt grounds of waging war with him. But the Engliſh laws and government having introduced arts, labour, induſtry, and trade among them, they have grown populous and wealthy, humane, civilized, and polite, in compariſon to what they were; excepting thoſe who, among that nation, will obſtinately adhere to their life of indolence, and ſavage brutality; of which the late and learned Dr. Berkeley, biſhop of Cloyne, greatly complained; and from which he took great pains to reclaim them.

As the progreſs of traffic hath advanced in every country, ſo hath that of arts and ſciences, civility, and urbanity. For when trade and induſtry adminiſtered wealth and honour, then was encouragement given to letters: in return for which, learning and ſcience have contributed to the general advancement of trade and commerce. In this iſland our ancient Britons, the Picts and Scots, were little better than other ſavages of the human race.

To evince how unſpeakably mankind in general are indebted to trade and commerce, we need only take a tranſient retroſpect of the hiſtorical ſtate of all civilized countries in the world, and compare them with the preſent ſtate of thoſe countries that have made no ſuch advances. The conſideration of the trifling degree of trade, which is carried on in the large territory of Barbary; is it any wonder, that the people remain ſavage, even to a degree of brutality? What further conviction can be required, that commerce with other nations, as well as within themſelves, has an apparent tendency to poliſh and civilize our ſpecies? In conſequence thereof, has not government been eſtabliſhed, and mankind ruled by ſalutary laws that have conduced to render them far happier than their original ſtate of nature, without commerce, ſeemed to admit of? The contemplation of the ſtate of our own country, when our commerce was in it's infancy; and to compare ourſelves then with what we at preſent are, there will appear to be almoſt as much difference as there is now between ſome of the Barbarian countries and our own. Should not this conſideration afford us juſt notions of the invaluable bleſſings of the commercial ſtate, beyond that of the Hottentot?

Since it is a true maxim, that by what means any thing is acquired, by the ſame it is preſerved; it muſt ever be for the intereſt and glory of this nation, to cheriſh and encourage to the utmoſt the commercial arts of every kind, which have hitherto been productive of our grandeur and felicity. Does it not hence follow, that ſtudies of this nature cannot be too warmly and zealouſly promoted by thoſe who wiſh well to mankind, and have any regard to the welfare and happineſs of their native country? What would our gentry, our nobility, or our ſovereign be better than thoſe of Barbary, was it not for our ſuperiority of traffic and navigation? Nay,

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were we quite deſtitute of trade, and as little acquainted therewith as any of the moſt unknown and intrafficable parts of Africa, what reaſon have we to imagine that we ſhould be better than they? Were the inhabitants of this iſland traded in, by the other European nations for ſlaves, as the negroes of Africa are, to the ignominy of all countries who carry on this inhumane commerce; what more ſhould we iſlanders have to boaſt of than thoſe wretched Africans? Can we civilized and polite Europeans think, that the people of ſo extenſive a territory as Africa, above 4000 miles in length from north to ſouth, and near the ſame in breadth from eaſt to weſt; were deſigned by the Supreme Being, either to be made ſlaves of by Europeans, or to enſlave them, as ſome parts of the piratical ſtates do the Europeans, in return for their ſuperlative humanity? Will not Africa admit of a commercial civilization no leſs than other barbarous parts of the globe have already done? Will not this quarter of the world allow of a far more extenſive, and lucrative trade with Great Britain, as well as other countries, than ever it yet hath done? Are not theſe people, notwithſtanding their colour, capable of being gradually nurtured in all the arts of humanity, by the means of trade, as well as many barbarous nations have been? Is there no probability, that the Africans in general, by the wiſe management of the Europeans, might become as induſtrious and ingenious in all the agricultural, mechanical, and manufactural arts, as the people of any other country? Are not their rational faculties in general, equal to thoſe of others of the human ſpecies? Would it not be far more beneficial for all the trading European ſtates, rather to endeavour to cultivate a friendly, humane, and civilized commerce, with thoſe people, into the very center of their extenſive country, than to content themſelves only with ſkimming a trifling portion of trade upon their ſea-coaſts? Has not the author of this performance, to no purpoſe yet, many years ſince ſuggeſted ways and means, whereby this might be done to the immenſe benefit of the Britiſh empire? What avails the inſignificant advantage we have received by driving the French out of the river Senegal, in compariſon to the great and important deſigns that have been propoſed by the author, to enlarge and extend the whole of that commerce in times of peace? Might not what he intimated on this head enrich a commercial corporation, as well as the kingdom, far more than any of their Aſiatic trade hath hitherto done? Might not this be effected, even conſiſtent with the preſent freedom of the African trade, and thereby give no umbrage to the ſeparate traders? This I have ſhewn; and ſome people may be ſooner obliged to take due notice of it, than they, at preſent, ſeem to be aware of.

Certain it is, that the effectual advancement of the whole African commerce, as the ſame might affect the intereſt of theſe kingdoms, would be attended with the increaſe of divers other branches, that would be connected therewith. Both our exports and lucrative imports might be very conſiderably augmented; by which our commercial induſtry would render the kingdom more and more proſperous, wealthy, and formidable.

The Germans are a people inferior to none in their veneration for antiquity, and due eſtimation of noble blood, that is derived from a race of virtuous and honourable progenitors; on which they ſet ſo ſuperlative a value, that they deſpiſe to an exceſs, an intermixtion with the plebeian crowd: yet amongſt their nobility, the younger of whoſe families are employed in their armies, there is rarely found one of them deſtitute of ſome manual art; by which, if reduced to extremity, he might be able to get a livelihood, rather than ſubſiſt upon the benevolence of others. For this they look on as moſt ignominious ſordidneſs of temper, to which they bear an abhorrence and deteſtation; having ſo much of that brave Roman ſpirit, which had rather loſe a life than hold it at the courteſy of another.

This brings to remembrance a ſtory that uſed to be told, at his time of unbending from regal concerns, by that illuſtrious prince King George the firſt. About the year 1615, there was a nobleman in Germany, whoſe daughter was courted by another young lord. When he had made ſuch progreſs in this affair, as is uſual by the interpoſition of friends, the old lord had a conference with him, aſking him, how he intended, if he married his daughter, to maintain her? He replied, equal to her quality. To which the father replied: That was no anſwer to his queſtion; he deſired again to know, what he had to maintain her with? To which the young lord then anſwered, he hoped that was no queſtion; for his inheritance was as public as his name. The old lord owned his poſſeſſions to be great, but ſtill aſked if he had nothing more ſecure than land, wherewith to maintain his daughter? The queſtion was ſtrange, but ended in this: that the father of the young lady gave his poſitive reſolve, never to marry his daughter, though his heir, and would have two ſuch great eſtates, but to a man that had a MANUAL TRADE, by which he might ſubſiſt, if drove from his own country. The young lord was maſter of none at preſent, but rather than loſe his miſtreſs, he requeſted only a year's time, in which he promiſed to acquire one: in order to which, he got a baſket-maker, the moſt ingenious he could meet with, and in ſix months became maſter of his trade of baſket-making, with far greater improvements than even his teacher himſelf: and as a proof of his ingenuity, and extraordinary proficiency in ſo ſhort a time, he brought to his young lady a piece of workmanſhip of his own performance, being a white twig baſket, which, for many years after became a general faſhion among the ladies by the name of DRESSING-BASKETS, brought hither to England from Germany and Holland.

To complete the ſingularity of this relation; it happened ſome years after this nobleman's marriage, that he and his father-in-law ſharing the misfortunes of the wars of the Palatinate, were drove naked out of their eſtates; and in Holland, for ſome years, did this young lord maintain both his father-in-law and his own family, by making baſkets of white twigs, to ſuch an unparalleled excellency as none could attain: and it is from this young German lord, the Hollanders derive thoſe curioſities that are ſtill made in the United Provinces, of twig-work.

It is a laudable practice in all nations, to manifeſt a fondneſs and ambition for arts and mechanical employments, whereby to avoid both idleneſs and future diſtreſs and difficulty. If we deſcend to the lower and meaner ſort among the Germans, we find their induſtry ſo remarkably great, that even children of four years old will earn their bread: add to this, that they are kept out of harms-way by the ſame diverſion, though more profitable, than we keep our children in this kingdom: that is, by making toys, painted boxes, pipes, &c. for our children to play with: they employ all the children of a town, from four years to eight. When they advance more in years, it is then uſual to pitch upon a trade; and generally they apply themſelves to that of their fathers, whereby you ſhall oftentimes find them to derive their pedigree and their uninterrupted ſucceſſion in the ſame trade or employment, in a continued line from father to ſon for ſome hundred years. And this genealogy, in many reputable families, as well in occupation as deſcent, is inſiſted upon by them with as much pride and oſtentation as can be ſhown by their nobility, in their continued tracings and derivations of themſelves from a numerous and ancient ſtock of their famous and heroic progenitors.

It is not their practice, as with us in this kingdom, to bind an apprentice to a trade for ſeven years; three or four is their common ſtandard: the reaſon is, becauſe they are educated from their cradle to ſomething of manual employment, which renders them the more apt and docible, and conſequently the more capable of attaining to a ripeneſs and quicker proficiency in buſineſs. Whereas our youth, here in England, being bred to no ſort of manual operation before they enter into their apprenticeſhip, make a very ſlow progreſs, and require much longer time wherein to reach the perfection of accompliſhed artiſts.

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Such as are of families uneducated in the mechanical or manufactural employments, are made uſe of either in affairs military, or elſe in ſtudies of genteeler and finer arts than either of theſe: by which admirable decorum, ſo regularly obſerved, in proportioning every order and degree of men among them to their ſuitable and reſpective vocations and capacities; it thence happens, that in whole provinces there is not a man that eats the bread of idleneſs, or of other mens labour and induſtry.

In the Hanſe-towns they ſtill ſhew a greater care and ſolicitude in concerns of this nature, not judging it expedient to admit of any more than an uſeful and competent number for the city, of any who profeſs the liberal ſciences; but, on the contrary, oblige all their natives and inhabitants, either to merchandize, navigation, or to manual arts and manufactures; inſomuch, that the famous mart of Hamburgh, to which belong more ſhips of burden, for all manner of trade and commerce, than to any city in Europe, London and Amſterdam excepted, admit, as we have been informed, of no more than one phyſician, of two civilians for the law, and of but one divine, beſides thoſe who are conſtantly employed in the city: yet on the contrary, they give great encouragement to men of all nations to inhabit among them, that are trained to mechanic labour and the ſea-ſervice, accounting him but a neceſſary evil, whoſe induſtry and parts lie only in his brain, or bound their ſituation in the head; and one of ſuch they deem ſufficient for thouſands, who work with their hands.

By reaſon of which orderly management of affairs, and the proviſion made to promote labour, and to diſcourage idleneſs and all uſeleſs and unactive men, it is very remarkable, that in this city we ſee no beggars: yet many aged and unfortunate poor there are, occaſioned by loſſes and accidents at ſea; but then ſo charitable a commiſeration of their condition is entertained by the government, that in all bargains and contracts in that city, ſomething is preſerved as a voluntary gift for the poor; and this is repoſited in the hands of the miniſter of the pariſh, who has church-wardens joined with him, in order to make a right diſtribution thereof among the proper objects.—A ſhip does not go to ſea, without an iron box for the uſe of the poor, of which the keeper has no key, but it is kept by the miniſter and church-wardens; and upon the return of the voyage, when the maſter receives the ſacrament, he brings to the altar his box, which he uſes all care to repleniſh; and there is not a ſeaman in his ſhip but puts ſomething into it, whenever he receives his wages.

It would be needleſs to inſtance the example of the United Provinces, which are ſo deſervedly famed throughout the whole univerſe for their eminent and induſtrious improvements, and for ſuch ſuperadditions of art to nature; which have been of far more utility to them than all their martial ſtrength and exploits, for the defence of their country againſt their enemies, and have advanced them from the poor and diſtreſſed, to the honourable title of the high and mighty ſtates of Holland. Is not this, formerly uſeleſs and ſmall ſpot of land, become the richeſt in Europe? Is not this a glaring demonſtration of the miraculous power of trade and induſtry, and of thoſe prodigious acquirements to which human nature is capable of attaining, by a laborious and indefatigable purſuit? Does not this reflect diſgrace and ignominy upon their neighbouring nations; whilſt enjoying fertile and profitable countries, both in their ſituation, and other abundant national emoluments, far ſuperior to the United Provinces; which ſuffer their land to lie waſte and uncultivated, and neglect all the opportunities both of art and nature, whereby to inrich and emprove them? On the contrary, are not the Dutch forced to change the very elements, having more inhabitants living upon the water, than they have upon the land; which is ſo plentifully ſtocked, that it admits of no more?

In Flanders they admit no young men to enter into the matrimonial ſtate, without firſt obtaining a certificate from the magiſtrate of the place of his reſidence and abode, ſetting forth his having planted ſuch a number of trees, &c. &c. The truth of this point might be demonſtrated from a great variety of other inſtances, both of countries and perſons, which are pertinent to the preſent deſign: but, aiming at brevity, theſe may ſuffice to ſhew the great care and laudable endeavours of foreign governments, to oblige their people to labour and induſtry, by the cultivation of uſeful arts, trade, and commerce?

It is matter that deſerves conſideration, what vocations and employments every part or claſs of the kingdom is moſt fit and proper for; and when there is not employment in manufactures, if it be near the ſea, to employ them in fiſhing or navigation; or if they do not take to either of theſe, and their native country does not afford them other employment, they ſhould then be duly encouraged by the ſtate to remove to other parts of the Britiſh territories, that they might not remain idle hands at home. For want of due attention to this policy, how many hundreds in the year are cut off by the hand of juſtice, that might have became more uſeful members of the kingdom? Nor is this the caſe of our numerous poor only, who may have been bred to ſome induſtrious employment; it is that of too many gentlemen's children, who not only oftentimes become a charge, but enemies to their native country, by being an annoyance to thoſe who are the bleſſings to it, by their honeſt labour and induſtry, in ſome uſeful employment. Is not this frequently owing to their education? Is it not a ſtrange piece of gentility, that looks upon it as an invaſion upon it's privileges if put to a trade, and will rather ſubmit to a halter than indentures.

The glory of a kingdom conſiſts in men and money: England enjoys, in a good proportion, the bleſſings of both, but might be improved to more than double. At the moſt moderate computation, it is not half peopled; and is not the beſt way to ſupply that deficiency, by excitements to general induſtry and trade? This would not only increaſe the treaſure of the nation, but that which is far more eſtimable, the treaſures of men. It is a matter as well of experience as lamentation, that want of employment puts men upon looſe and unwarrantable actions: idleneſs muſt be fed, and luxury indulged, and pride and gentility ſupported; and when profuſeneſs and diſſipation become habitual, and have deſtroyed the hereditary ſubſtance and patrimony, eſpecially where there is but little at firſt, which is commonly the caſe of younger brothers, then the genteel way of taking a purſe, is generally the prologue to the ſucceeding tragedy, whoſe ſcenes are as diſmal as they are common. If ſuch idle extravagants cannot maintain themſelves ſingly, without plunging into theſe deſtructive counſels, how can they provide for a family? Wherefore, if ſome happy expedient was thought of to prevent children who have not a certain degree of fortune, from being admitted to be kept longer at ſchool than fourteen or fifteen years of age, and they were then put to ſome trade or uſeful employment, there would be leſs work for the executioner; and probably, in twenty years to come, there would be a greater number of people than in fifty before.

If none under a handſome fortune were admitted to apply themſelves to literature, and to the ſtudy of the liberal ſciences, it might be looked upon as an unreaſonable limitation of ſuch whoſe natural genius and ability might intitle them to a very great proficiency in ſcience and learning; and conſequently to very eminent ſtations both in the church and ſtate, and yet come not under ſuch qualified degrees of fortune as might be propoſed. This, ſay ſome, would be a great obſtruction and diſcouragement to learning, which is as well the ornament, as the intereſt of every nation to promote; and there are not wanting inſtances of ſome conſiderable perſonages, patrons of this kind, who were men of mean birth, and of an inferior fortune in the world. To this it may be obſerved, that the limitation that might be ſuggeſted, would occaſion no want or decay of uſeful learning in any, much leſs in all ſorts, where there ſhould be many thouſands that would come under the qualification

qualification ſuppoſed: and that ought to be ſuch, as would render literature more reſpectable than it ſeems to be in our days. Beſides, uſeful trades and buſineſs have raiſed people to as high a condition from a very low one, as the greateſt learning, which we have ſhewn in many parts of this work, and far more in number.

That the ſons of diverſe very ordinary perſons have arrived to an eminent height by their diſtinguiſhed literature, is a truth too undeniable to be diſputed: and, indeed, by how much they have by their ſtudies advanced themſelves from a low and deſpicable ſtate, to an high degree in the world; by ſo much the more are they to be eſteemed perſons more honourable, and merit our greater reſpect; ſuch who raiſe themſelves by their own acquiſitions of virtue and induſtry, from the plebeian ſtate to that of ſome exalted ſtation, deſerve our regard more than thoſe who are derived from a long and uninterrupted line of heroical anceſtors, but baſely degenerate from thoſe noble and virtuous atchievements, which at firſt ennobled the blood of their predeceſſors. Theſe laſt are as great a reproach and infamy, as the others are a credit, both to themſelves, their progenitors, and their country. But then it muſt be conſidered, that though there may, and have been ſome rare learned men among the vulgar; yet there are hundreds for one amongſt them, who enter the ſtage of life like Pharaoh's frogs, that only croak and make a noiſe in the country, and not meeting proſperity for want of ability, become, inſtead of an ornament, a diſgrace and a nuiſance to the kingdom. Were it not for this, we ſhould not experience ſuch variety of enthuſiaſm and errors in religion; ſo many empirics in phyſic; nor ſo many pettifogers and barraters in the law; all which are a diſcredit to thoſe learned profeſſions, and a general detriment to the community: and, to complete our legions of ſcholars, who rob the mechanic and manufactural arts and trades of various kinds of the like number of uſeful hands, the nation ſwarms with beggars, who never having been bred to any of the uſeful arts connected with commerce, are unable or unaccuſtomed to turn to what would certainly gain them not only a comfortable ſubſiſtence, but probably a handſome fortune for themſelves and families, who, at preſent, become a burthen to the ſtate. Has not the knowledge of mechanics, manufactures, and commerce, proved infinitely more beneficial to the maſs of the people, than the ſubtilties and fooleries of the ſchools, the arts of pedantry, and the crack-brained altercations of enthuſiaſtic zealots?

There is ſcope enough for thoſe of the plebeian ſtamp, that are of a pregnant ingenuity, to employ it in the fine arts, and the moſt curious ſort of induſtry and labour; wherein they may not only arrive to great eminence, but become more profitable inſtruments to the good of the kingdom, as well as themſelves, than they can hope to be by their mere learning; of which we have no proſpect of any want, but may be thought to ſtand upon equal terms with any part of the univerſe. Nor are we yet arrived, in many of the mechanic and finer arts, to a ſuperiority beyond ſeveral other nations; and theſe improvements ſeem naturally to be the province for the middling people of this kingdom to be engaged in, leaving the ſtudy of human literature to thoſe who are able to maintain themſelves, if by an adverſe genius, or other obſtacles and exigencies, they ſhould happen to miſcarry therein.

Should it be ſaid, that if we educate the younger ſons of gentlemen to trade, it will hinder the nation from martial improvements, and ſo reduce it to the neceſſity of employing foreigners in the greateſt poſts of truſt in the army; it may be replied, that ſuch of the younger brothers as are addicted to the military turn, may be eaſily initiated into that employment, and ſo may be reaſonably accounted as if converſant in trade; and ſuch as ſhall affect the ſea, may be bred to navigation. So that if the method ſhould be purſued, of putting out all the youths of the nation upon ſome uſeful employment or other, this ſignal advantage would accrue from it; that whereas now armies are ſupplied out of the vagrants and refuſe of the kingdom, they would then be compoſed of a better ſort of men, though yet many of them ſo extravagant as to be impatient under ſober confinement and daily labour; but numbers of them would return to their reſpective trades, when diſbanded from the ſea or the army.

From what has been urged, we are inclined to think, that the uſe of trades, and of every kind of the mechanic and manufactural arts and induſtry, is more commodious, and more adapted to a trading ſtate, than the educating the poorer ſort only to learning and the ſciences,

The advantages that will ariſe to the kingdom in general, by breeding and keeping all hands at work, are numerous; the chief of which we ſhall briefly intimate.

We are, at preſent, ſupplied from foreign countries with a variety of commodities, which our very NUMEROUS IMPOSTS too ſufficiently indicate; with which, if the kingdom and it's colonies were repleniſhed with uſeful hands and artizans, they would amply furniſh us with. For what is it that makes the United Provinces ſo full of merchantable commodities, and of their own arts and manufactures, which they tranſport to all parts of the world, but that every one there is bred to ſome trade, and ſo forced to rack their inventions to obtain an honeſt livelihood? Notwithſtanding they abound, proportionably to their territory, with ſo many people as would be accounted a burden to us, as we are at preſent circumſtanced, yet they ſtill give encouragement for foreigners or fugitives that are artizans to live amongſt them. And this ſpirit for the advancement of trade and uſeful arts, diſſeminates itſelf more and more throughout all Europe.

As this employing of all ſorts of people in the uſeful trades, commerce, and arts, would increaſe the ſtrength of the kingdom by the number of it's inhabitants; ſo would it alſo as well the national riches and ſtock by it's treaſure, every bee then adding ſome honey to the hive of wealth; and at the ſame time would eaſe every individual man from a great part of the taxes under which he now groans: a matter than which nothing is more wanted in this kingdom at preſent.

Another happy effect it ſhould ſeem to promiſe is, to diſburthen the nation from beggars, who, by their multitudes, are become the ignominy, as well as the plague of it; whoſe children are begot, and ſo bred up in the trade of begging, as if they were embodied into a ſociety, and eſtabliſhed by law.

There ſeems to be no effectual way of doing this, but by laying a good foundation, in taking up the younger ſort, and putting them to working trades; and as for the elder and decrepit, that are quite incapable of any employment, ſuch ſhould be maintained by the pariſh, but ſo as to have no liberty for begging, as is too much the caſe: and will not the conſequence be, that we ſhall ſoon have no aged or decrepit poor, moſt of whom are rendered ſo, either by fraud and deſign of vagrants themſelves, or by being the children of ſuch, and ſo for want of due care and attendance become deformed and maimed?

It is alſo to be remarked, that plenty of laborious mechanical and manufactural people, and people in trade, prevent famine in a nation; however paradoxical, at firſt ſight, this may appear, that the multiplying of mouths that eat corn, whoſe hands ſow none, ſhould nevertheleſs increaſe food: yet matter of fact ſolves it; for who ever ſaw a famine in Holland? On the contrary, they who ſow none, do yet ſupply other parts of the world with corn, and this they effect by means of their trade and navigation, which drives the more lucrative plough of the two, that of the ſea.

It is obſervable, that no places are more frequently afflicted with famine, than thoſe countries which are employed in tillage; the reaſon of this ſcarcity is obvious; for if their corn fails, they have no other way whereby to ſupply their want; but it is otherwiſe with thoſe who depend upon arts and maritime trade, for the extent of

their harveſt reaches to the utmoſt confines of the known world; and if one place fails, they can eaſily have recourſe to another by their navigation.

Labour and arts are a means to purchaſe to us one of the greateſt bleſſings upon earth, health and the length of days; for it both prolongs life, and prevents untimely death. For proof of the firſt of theſe it is obſerved, as a matter of common experience, that there are more old men, who from their infancy have been employed in labour and trades, than there are of gentlemen; which is conſiſtent with what the phyſicians affirm with truth and reaſon, that the work of the body is not ſo deſtructive of, nor decays the vitals ſo much, as the ſtudy and labour of the head. And that labour and trade prevents untimely death, is a truth ſo undeniable as needs no arguments to confirm it, every day's experience ſufficiently evincing, that when youth are educated in the way and courſe of conſtant trade and buſineſs, their heads as well as their hands are ever employed; which leaves them no room for vicious plots and deſigns, nor for pinching neceſſity to enforce their breaking through the laws of God and man, to make proviſion for thoſe luſts and exorbitancies, that at length, bring them to the gibbet.

As men bred up to no uſeful trade or employment, and a ſuperficial degree of learning, have rarely any virtue or religion; ſo neither are they demeanable to the laws of the land, to which religion is the ſureſt tie or objection; and ſubordinately to that, buſineſs and employment have the next prevailing force: for thoſe naturally beget a property, which requires protection and ſecurity by thoſe laws; whereas he that hath nothing to loſe, nor endeavours to acquire any thing but by a manifeſt violation and infringement of the laws, his ſiniſter intereſts are ſuch as ſtrongly incline him to deſtroy them.

This work is deſigned throughout to raiſe the ſpirit of univerſal art and induſtry in this nation, that the labour and ingenuity of our people, being inferior to thoſe of no other ſtate or empire, the kingdom may not dwindle into poverty and ignominy; and from being the greateſt nation in the world, we may not become the leaſt and moſt contemptible. And really the face of things is ſo changed to what it was, that general induſtry and ingenuity ſeems to be at a ſtand among our mechanics and manufacturers; which muſt be owing to the general bankruptcies that prevail amongſt the trading part of the kingdom.

THE

PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE the FIRST.

The PRESENT COMMERCIAL GRIEVANCES of the NATION DELINEATED:

With their CAUSES and CURE briefly attempted.

Alſo Strictures upon the ILL STATE of the FINANCES of the KINGDOM; and a PLAN to cement a more intereſting COMMERCIAL UNION between GREAT BRITAIN, and her AMERICAN COLONIES and PLANTATIONS, according to their preſent extent of Territory.

HUMBLY ADDRESSED TO THE PARLIAMENT.

In tenui Res eſt. VIRGIL.

THAT trade which promotes the employment of our people, advances the ſale of our commodities and manufactures, and encreaſes our navigation, is profitable to the ſtate; but that which obſtructs the labour of our people, leſſens the conſumption of native wares, and employs the ſhipping of foreigners is detrimental. Whence the conſideration of exportation and importation ariſes.

To give effectual encouragement to the exportation of our product and manufactures, common policy directs, that we ſhall be able to ſend them abroad as cheap, or cheaper than other nations, which are our commercial competitors; for wherever different nations attempt to outvie each other in the ſale of the ſame kind of commodities, the loweſt price will be the governing market price, to which all other ſellers muſt be able to conform, or ceaſe to trade at all.

From this motive the Dutch exempt their exports from all port-duties: the French have nearly followed their example. So impolitic was this nation as to continue to burthen our exports with the ſubſidies of poundage, and other impoſitions, as laid on by the ſtatute of the 12th Car. II. till they were diſcharged therefrom in the year 1722, by the act of the 8th of Geo. I. cap. 15. § 7. where it is ſaid. "And for the "further encouragement of the Britiſh manufactures, that the ſeveral and reſpective *ſubſidies*, and all other "duties *whatſoever*, upon the exportation of any goods and merchandizes of the product or manufacture of "Great Britain ſhall ceaſe and determine, &c."

To what end was this act made by the Legiſlature, but to exempt our product and manufacture from all port-duties that render them dearer at foreign markets? But this exemption not being judged to reduce our wares to a price ſufficiently low to enable us, at that time, to cope with our riſing rivals in trade in foreign countries; we allow DRAWBACKS upon their exportation, of the inland duties, with which ſome of our commodities are loaded, and would ſtill render them too dear for foreign markets. Accordingly the ſtatutes which impoſe an exciſe upon various of our products and manufactures, are remitted upon exportation.

But it does not ſeem that the whole burthen of our exciſe and other inland duties that fall heavy upon our produce and manufacture, are drawn back on their exportation, whereby, it is feared, that the end of drawbacks is defeated; for is it not the intention of granting drawbacks to exempt our native commodities from ALL INLAND DUTIES AND TAXES WHATSOEVER, as the taking off the port-duties was, to exempt them from all ſubſidies and other impoſitions; to the end that we may not be underſold by any other trading nation? To this purpoſe ſhould not every duty, tax, or impoſition of any kind, that heightens the price of proviſions and labour, and every material towards a manufacture, and every ingredient uſed in the completion of the ſame be drawn back; ſince every burthen upon ſuch material or ingredient, will prove yet a heavier burthen upon the manufacture itſelf, no leſs than the high price of proviſions? Whereas our inland duties on our home conſumption, by augmenting the general price of living, neceſſarily augment the general price of all our other merchandizes: ſo that unleſs every ſort of taxation that tends to enhance the price of our commodities at home, was annihilated at their exportation, we cannot ſay the drawback is effectual, to exempt our product and manufactures from all ſort of duties and impoſitions whatſoever that enhance their prices. 'Tis not the drawing back of one ſimple exciſe duty, that will free the commodities from a multitude of compound of exciſe and inland duties with which a manufacture is directly or virtually loaded at its exportation. Whence it ſhould ſeem, that the ſuperior price of Engliſh manufactures to thoſe of our rivals at foreign markets, is owing to the multiplicity of tax-incumbrances wherewith they actually continue burthened at their exportation, notwithſtanding the ſimple drawback allowed to render them duly cheap.

Certain it is from the ſtatutes, which grant drawbacks, that it was the ſenſe of the Legiſlature above forty years ago, that we were then in danger of being underſold at foreign markets by foreign rivals; even when our tax-incumbrances on our trade were nothing like what they are at preſent, our public debts then not being much above one-third part of what they now are.

Notwithſtanding the taking off the old ſubſidy and the granting of drawbacks; in the year 1735, and for ſome time before, France began to underſell England, even in the ſtaple commodities of the nation, the woollen-manufactures, from ten to twelve *per cent.* at ſeveral European markets. Such being the precarious ſtate of public affairs from the years 1725, to that of 1735, our general taxes continued unreduced, and the kingdom received no general alleviation of its incumbrances upon trade, ſufficient to keep us upon an equality of price with our competitors.

After the great Spaniſh war, and the peace of Aix la Chapelle, when our public debts were increaſed about thirty millions more of principal money, and our tax incumbrances on commerce became conſiderably augmented to anſwer the additional debts, France then began to underſell England at ſeveral foreign markets, from twelve to ſixteen *per cent.* and upwards, and increaſed thereby in their number of foreign purchaſers at many

more new foreign markets. Since the further increaſe of public debts that have been contracted by the laſt war, and the further additional increaſe of tax-incumbrances on trade, is it to be wondered that France ſhall at preſent be in a condition to encreaſe their ſales in every foreign country in the world at our expence, by underſelling us? Can any one be ſurprized to hear this; when, as a belligerant power, the expences of France, and their taxes upon their commerce and navigation, have bore little proportion to thoſe of this nation, during the laſt war?

And, indeed, it ſeems to have been the determined policy of that kingdom to beat us in trade, though they have been worſted in war. And what means can prove more effectual to conquer us in both? If once they can by ſuch like meaſures, bring Engliſh commodities to ſuch an exceſſive height of dearneſs, that foreigners will naturally exclude them from their reſpective ſtates and empires, muſt not all Engliſh wares and manufactures give way to the more cheaper ones of France? Can any thing more effectually conduce to ſupplant us in all the foreign markets of the univerſe, than commodities from ten to twenty *per cent.* cheaper than Engliſh? What will any treaties of commerce avail to preſerve our foreign trade? For although we are upon a level with our competitors in point of duties of import in the like commodities into all countries, can ſuch treaties have any effect to prevent their giving the preference to the much cheaper commodities? It is impoſſible they ſhould; however we may be amuſed to the contrary. It would be an affront to the underſtanding to attempt to prove, what all mankind readily allow, that the cheaper commodities will ever and every where exclude the much dearer; and therefore, I ſhall think myſelf better employed by obſerving, that it is an undoubted truth, that France is able to underſell England in moſt of her ſtaple commodities and manufactures; and by that means ſhe will run away with our foreign trade, and aggrandize her own upon the ruins of that of this nation, provided effectual means are not ſoon taken to prevent it by reducing the price to a par with thoſe of our French and other rivals.

However obvious and glaring the cauſe of the high price of Engliſh commodities is, yet too many ſeem inclined rather to aſcribe it to any cauſe but the true one, which alone is adequate to the effect: and I am perſwaded, that no other adequate one can be proved to exiſt in this kingdom, except that alone of the weight of our preſent public debts, and of the oppreſſive load of our tax-incumbrances in all their detrimental conſequences occaſioned thereby. This appears to be the caſe to me; which makes it neceſſary to repeat a few of thoſe obſervations and arguments deduced therefrom, that are urged throughout all my writings upon this matter. For although there may occaſionally be divers other concurrent cauſes that have contributed ſtill to encreaſe the price of our commodities and manufactures in general; yet my ſentiments are, that thoſe cauſes being only temporary, if they were removed, as it is to be hoped the wiſdom of the Legiſlature will ſoon happily effect: notwithſtanding ſuch removal, it is to be feared, it may not greatly reduce the prices of Engliſh commodities and manufactures in general, not near ſo ſufficiently as to enable this nation to ſell her native wares upon a level in price with either France or Holland in particular; and therefore, as their commodities and manufactures will continue cheaper than thoſe of England, thoſe rivals will ſupplant us in the foreign commerce of Europe, if not of other parts of the trading globe.

The temporary cauſes that concur at preſent to make the prices of all Engliſh goods ſo dear, we apprehend to be thoſe of ſuffering the uniting of farms, monopolizing, foreſtalling and regrating: but the grand cauſes of all are our PERPETUATED TAXES, to ſpeak in parliamentary language, for the payment of intereſt of the national debts till their redemption; together with our great ANNUAL TAXES FOR THE CURRENT SERVICE, which the kingdom has long borne; we mean the land and malt taxes, in conjunction with our numberleſs perpetual ones. For lay the taxes where we will, they will all ultimately terminate on the COMMERCE OF THE NATION, as we are at preſent circumſtanced; and an annual land tax of four ſhillings in the pound, in time of peace, is detrimental to trade, though not ſo directly and apparently diſcerned and felt, with reſpect to raiſing the price of commodities and manufactures, as thoſe taxes that are impoſed directly on commodities, as we ſhall ſee by the ſequel.

That our preſent taxes of every denomination, and more eſpecially thoſe impoſed directly upon commodities, are the cauſe of the high price of Engliſh wares in general, appears from the following facts and apparent deductions.

Taxes laid upon native conſumptions by exciſes, conſiderably advance their prices: they are, indeed, more than doubled, if not in many caſes trebled in their price to the conſumer upon the merchandize by the augmentations, which the taxes make, in being paid and repaid by all the hands through which the merchandize paſſes; and by the augmentations, which this increaſed ſum adds to the price of the crude materials, to the price of workmanſhip, to the expence of the workmen and traders, which muſt come out of the price of the merchandize that has undergone, and comprehends all ſuch augmentations, and prove an enormous incumbrance upon Engliſh product and manufactures; ſeeing that our taxes upon taxes are ſo highly multiplied, by the immenſity of our national debts. It has become more neceſſary than ever to recapitulate a few particulars that run through this work.

This point has been moſt evidently and undeniably exemplified by the tax upon leather; by means of which it is found, that the price of ſhoes is charged with numerous diſtinct augmentations, which the leather hath paid, in paſſing ſucceſſively from the hands of the grazier, through thoſe of the butcher, tanner, and his workmen, the leather cutter, the ſhoemaker, and his workmen. Here are already divers proportional augmentations of DEARNESS for the ſhoes, which they themſelves uſe, as well as their cuſtomers; an expence, which every one of them muſt regain on LEATHER itſelf: then there is the augmentation of the tax itſelf, and ſeveral augmentations in proportion to the profits, which muſt be made by the butcher, the tanner, the cutter, and the ſhoemaker, out of the price thus ſwelled of the leather.

A like tax will operate the very ſame effect upon the candles and ſoap, the ſtarch, the beer, and other the numerous commodities, all which uſed by every hand through which the leather paſſed in ſhoes to the hands of the conſumer: here are again numerous other augmentations on the price of ſhoes, from every one of thoſe articles being likewiſe taxed.

All who contribute to the fabric and commerce of cloth, from the ſhepherd to the wholeſale merchant, wear ſhoes; and every one of them muſt charge the augmentations of them upon the wool, and upon the numberleſs faſhionings it muſt receive before it is manufactured into cloth. Thus the augmentations of the tax on the conſumption of neceſſaries of life will be repeated *ad infinitum*, till all thoſe ſums are ultimately paid in an accumulated lump by the laſt conſumer. It will not, therefore, be hard to believe, that before coming to him, the tax will have been more than doubled, if not trebled; eſpecially if it be obſerved, that the tax is, by every one of thoſe who pay it, and receive it again upon the merchandize, encreaſed at leaſt the intereſt of the enhancement he has made, reckoning from the firſt who pays the naked tax.

In like manner operates the exciſes on malt, beer, ale, ſalt, ſtarch, &c. &c. and on all other neceſſaries.

There is no propoſition more evident, than that every tradeſman, handicraftſman, labourer, or any other perſon, who ſubſiſts merely by the profits of trade or labour, muſt neceſſarily advance the price of the commodities he deals in, or the wages he earns, in proportion to every tax he is obliged to pay; more eſpecially,

cially, as we have ſeen, thoſe of exciſes upon all our native commodities, or he cannot poſſibly maintain himſelf.

This price muſt ſtill be further advanced, on account of every other tradeſman's taxes he is obliged to deal with for the common neceſſaries. So that when any perſon of fortune, or tradeſman, pays another tradeſman's bill, he not only pays a proportion of his taxes on candles, ſoap, ſalt, leather, beer, ale, ſhoes, &c. &c. &c. but alſo a further proportion of the ſame taxes, on account of every other perſon ſuch tradeſmen alſo deals with for neceſſaries. To corroborate what has been urged——The taylor is obliged to pay an enhanced price for meat, on account of the butcher's taxes; and a further enhancement on account of the taxes paid by the ſeveral tradeſmen the butcher deals with for neceſſaries, which he muſt charge on his meat, as it is the only article in which he deals. He alſo pays the like enhancements on the ſame account to the baker, ſhoemaker, and every other tradeſman he deals with for articles, neceſſaries, either for ſuſtenance, or for carrying on his trade; all which enhancements he muſt add to his own taxes, and charge the whole on the cloaths he makes.

As the taylor is obliged in this manner to enhance the price of cloaths, the ſhoemaker muſt enhance the price of ſhoes on the ſame account, and add a further enhancement on account of the dearneſs of cloaths—The tallowchandler enhances on the price of candles on account of his own taxes, and ſeveral further enhancements are made on account of the dearneſs of cloaths, ſhoes, &c. &c. &c. all which are abſolutely neceſſary for ſubſiſtence, and enhanced in their prices on account of thoſe taxes. So that each alternately lays the ſeveral enhancements on the commodity he deals in, or adds to the price of his labour, until the whole comes to the conſumer.

It may appear ſurprizing to thoſe who have not conſidered the conſequences of laying taxes on neceſſary articles, ſhould it be aſſerted, that they are paid ſometimes FIVE HUNDRED, AND SOMETIMES EVEN A THOUSAND FOLD by the conſumer; and yet it is often the caſe, though little attended to.

For inſtance, a pane of glaſs that does not weigh a pound, which coſt but a ſhilling before the laſt tax of a penny a pound was laid on glaſs, was immediately advanced to the price of eighteen pence, which is 600 *per cent.* advance on account of this tax. The ſhoemaker has in like manner advanced the price of a pair of ſhoes that do not weigh above a pound, two ſhillings and upwards extraordinary, on account of a tax of two-pence a pound upon leather, which is above 1000 *per cent.* advance on account of that tax.

When the parliament laid the additional tax of three ſhillings per barrel on beer, which is one farthing a pot, the brewers and victuallers in conjunction, raiſed the price of beer one half-penny per pot; ſo that by thus doubling immediately the duty, they accumulated into their own pockets a ſum full equal to what the legiſlature raiſed by this tax for the ſervice of the government; and at the ſame time the beer was generally reputed to be much worſe in quality than what it was before the tax. The journeymen and day labourers, who are the chief conſumers of beer, imagining that by this means they were ill uſed and oppreſſed, raiſed the price of their labour three-pence per day; the journeymen taylors, indeed, raiſed the price of their wages ſix-pence per day. Hence therefore, the public, by means of this ſmall tax being laid on one of the neceſſaries of life, pays above eight times the ſum that the government receives for the ſupport of the ſtate.

Three-fourths of the people have been computed to conſiſt of perſons without property, who work for their daily bread, and conſume three-fourths of our numerous exciſe commodities: wherefore, they pay three-fourths of the exciſe duties thereon. As theſe induſtrious people live but from hand to mouth, whatever taxes are laid on their conſumables, they are obliged to ſhift off, or they cannot ſubſiſt at all: and ſince theſe multiplied duties have been projected, they muſt earn enough to pay the taxes, the enhanced price of taxed goods, and of the enhanced prices of all other neceſſaries, viz. of meat, bread, cloathing, or whatever they muſt neceſſarily uſe. Conſequently ſuch taxes muſt occaſion the riſe of the wages of the working people, as well as the prices of all commodities.

Tradeſmen paying enhanced prices on every thing they conſume, as well as vend, muſt have enhanced profits: for whether they lay out their ſtocks of money in goods that bear their natural value only, or in goods that bear a double value, or merely the weight of taxes, ſtill a living profit muſt and will be obtained on the ſtock they employ. For the wages of the manufacturer, the mechanic, the labourer, and the general expences of the maſter-undertaker, and tradeſmen, being of neceſſity raiſed, the firſt coſt of goods muſt be ſo too: and conſidering the various tradeſmen's hands that goods paſs through in their circulation, from the workman and labourer, to the conſumer, charged as we have ſeen, with profit upon profit by each of them, on account of the tax (which in ſmall trades, that furniſh the induſtrious poor, muſt be very great, otherwiſe their returns being ſmall they could not live) the enhancement in price thereby occaſioned, may, at the moſt moderate computation be computed at double, if not treble the groſs, taxes on moſt goods to the conſumer.

This compelling people in general to live at a much greater expence than if there were no ſuch taxes, cauſes a proportionate general dearneſs of every thing throughout the whole kingdom, and amongſt every claſs thereof; and muſt not this general dearneſs of all our native commodities neceſſarily affect our foreign trade, ſince the ſame taxes are ſo great an oppreſſion upon our domeſtic? For although we are amuſed, I ſay, with the drawback of taxes upon the exportation of many of our native commodities, yet is it poſſible that the repayment of a ſimple tax ſhould exempt goods from various compound taxes, and the arbitrary enhancements upon enhancements thereby occaſioned?

Whence it appears, that notwithſtanding the temporary cauſes before intimated, ſuch as the ingroſſing of farms, and of monopolizing, foreſtalling and regrating, &c. being ſo long ſhamefully ſuffered to prevail, have certainly contributed to the general expence of living, and thereby raiſed the prices of commodities and manufactures; yet the combined weight of all thoſe unnatural and illegal practices are not alone adequate to account for the exceſſive height to which all Engliſh wares are grown, compared with thoſe of our trading competitors. But if we have recourſe beſides, to the multitude of taxes upon taxes of every ſpecies, with which the whole commerce of the kingdom is loaded, this will be found to be a cauſe amply adequate to anſwer the effect our trade experiences.

Nor is the effect wholly to be aſcribed to the fatal ſyſtem of PERPETUATED TAXATIONS, as before obſerved: ANNUAL ONES contribute their ſhare to the evil; and that not only by means of the malt but the land tax. For will not the continuance of four ſhillings on land ſo operate as to occaſion the landlord to raiſe his rents upon the tenant? Will not he be induced to alleviate ſuch an incumbrance upon his eſtate as well as the trader the like upon his commodities? To actuate hereto, does not the landowner bear his proportion of taxes on commodities as a conſumer, as well as every other claſs of the community? When the weight falls heavy upon him as well in his landed capacity as in his conſuming one, it is natural to eaſe the burthen as much as he can.

As this is the caſe of the landed man as well as the trader, have we reaſon to imagine, that if the tenant bears an advanced rent, that he will not in his turn alſo ſtrive as much as may be to ſhift it from his own ſhoulders? To this end, muſt we not expect that the tenant will reimburſe the extra expence of his ad-

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vanced rent by the impoſition of arbitrary taxes upon the produce of his lands? Whence at length does not the land tax terminate on the conſumer of land productions, in the like manner as taxes laid on all other commodities do? And will not the farmer and the grazier, &c. all concerned in agriculture, enhance their prices more than proportionate to the advanced rents upon them, as the trader does any tax upon his wares? Experience proves they all do this: nay, has it not grown a practice of late for the tenant to be ſaddled even with the whole land tax itſelf, as well as all other parochial taxes? And will not the tenant ſhift what proportion he can off himſelf upon the public? So that every ſpecies of taxes, lay it wherever you can, will fall at length upon the national trade; and when that is already overloaded, every addition thereto becomes very ſenſibly felt throughout the kingdom.

What occaſion would there be for a four ſhilling land-tax in time of peace, were not the public debts ſo greatly augmented as they at preſent are? Does any tax require more equalizing than the land tax; to the end, that in time of peace the landed intereſt might have due relief, the better to enable them to ſuſtain a greater burthen in time of war? Should an equal land-tax of two ſhillings in the pound produce what one of four ſhillings now does, what reaſon can there be to defer ſo national a benefit? In this caſe, a general equalized land-tax of four ſhillings in time of war might and would be neceſſary in our preſent circumſtances. And why ſhould we not prepare for it, by giving all requiſite eaſe to the land in time of peace? Why ſhould this ſalutary work be longer deferred; when we know not how ſoon we may ſtand in need of ſuch a meaſure? While every branch of the perpetuated part of the revenue is thought neceſſary to be put into a ſtate of improvement, what reaſon can be aſſigned why the annual part ſhould be neglected, when our finances in general require every kind of improvement poſſible? Procraſtinating a meaſure of this kind is deferring relief where and when it is manifeſtly required; for if that was immediately given, it might have no ſmall effect to lower the general prices of proviſions throughout the nation: an eaſement of two ſhillings in the pound to thoſe who have ſo long bore the burthen of four ſhillings, may prevent the raiſing of rents, and the conſequence will be obvious; and thoſe already raiſed may, after their contract is expired, fall, if that cannot be obtained before. Nor perhaps would any thing be conducive to lower the general price of the neceſſaries of life, next to that of regulating all public markets, and putting an effectual ſtop to monopoliſts, foreſtallers and regrators.

We cannot put an end to theſe few obſervations, without noticing that trite remark in the mouth of too many; that if the induſtrious poor can obtain enough to maintain themſelves in five days, they will not work the whole ſix. Whence they infer the neceſſity of even the neceſſaries of life being made dear by taxes, or any other means, to compel the working artiſan and manufacturer to labour the whole ſix days in the week without ceaſing. I muſt beg leave to differ in ſentiment from thoſe great politicians, who contend for the perpetual ſlavery of the working people of this kingdom: they forget the vulgar adage, all work and no play. Have not the Engliſh boaſted of the ingenuity and dexterity of her working artiſts and manufacturers, which have heretofore given credit and reputation to Britiſh wares in general? What has this been owing to? To nothing more probably, than the relaxation of the working people in their own way. Were they obliged to toil the year round, the whole ſix days in the week, in a repetition of the ſame work, might it not blunt their ingenuity, and render them ſtupid inſtead of alert and dexterous; and might not our workmen loſe their reputation inſtead of maintaining it by ſuch eternal ſlavery? Have not all wiſe nations inſtituted holidays, ſports and paſtimes, for the diverſion of the maſs of the people? To what end? Certainly to give them a freſh reliſh for their labour. And if they had not unbendings, we may preſume they would pine away, and become enervated as well in body as marred in underſtanding. And what ſort of workmanſhip could we expect from ſuch hard-driven animals?

However ſome London workmen may now and then impair their healths by drunkenneſs and debauchery, the bulk of the induſtrious artiſans and manufacturers throughout the kingdom do otherwiſe; and when they do make a holiday, they will eaſily fetch the loſt time up, as they term it, in caſes of piece work, and many of them will execute as much work in four days as a Frenchman will in five or ſix. But if Engliſhmen are to be eternal drudges, 'tis to be feared they will degenerate below the Frenchmen. As our people are famed for bravery in war, do we not ſay that it is owing to good Engliſh roaſt beef and pudding in their bellies, as well as our conſtitutional ſpirit of liberty? And why may not the ſuperior ingenuity and dexterity of our artiſts and manufacturers be owing to that freedom and liberty they enjoy to divert themſelves in their own way; and I hope we ſhall never have them deprived of ſuch privilege, and that good living from whence their ingenuity no leſs than their courage may proceed. However, ſome regulations may be requiſite, even for the diverſions of the induſtrious poor.

Did not the common working people find time to ſpend their earnings, what would become of the public revenue? If they may make three-fourths of the people of Great Britain, do not they pay three-fourths of the inland taxes? If ſo, have we not ſeen that every thing they conſume muſt be proportionably raiſed in price by being taxed; and how can it be expected that they ſhould ſubſiſt at rates they did before our taxes were ſo enormouſly encreaſed? When people complain of the wages of the induſtrious labourers, and level all their might at them, are we not apt to neglect the eſſentials? Should we not rather ſhow the neceſſity of the reduction and annihilation of taxes, than ſpend our political breath in vain againſt the poor labourer? If labour in general is too dear, why is not the real cauſes removed? The effect will ſoon follow.

The ſucceſs of a kingdom, ſays a ſhrewd politician, depends upon a wiſe regulation of its revenues; and particularly ſo in a trading nation. For when taxes are not laid and levied in the manner they ought to be, they are the ruin of the ſubject, a moth in the treaſury, the univerſal lamentation of a ſtate, and the intereſt and joy of our trading competitors. But a wiſe diſpoſition of them is the ſoul of a ſtate, the life of the people, glory to a prince, grief and diſtreſs to foreign rivals, and a perpetual fountain of the richeſt bleſſings to human life.——I could wiſh I had reaſon to ſay this was the caſe of the conſtitution and ſtate of the preſent revenue of this kingdom; but I am convinced it is highly exceptionable in its eſſentials.

As our mortgaged and perpetuated taxes on trade cannot be reduced or annihilated, 'till the public debts become ſo, without detriment to the public credit of the nation, ought not every other evil that can be removed be ſo, to reduce the price of things as much as may be, in order to give all poſſible relief to the general trade of the nation? But after all, 'tis to be feared, that till the reduction of taxes ſhall be accompliſhed, our trade will receive no extraordinary eaſe by every other method that is in our power, perhaps; though what is in the immediate power of the nation to do, ought by no means to be delayed for more reaſons than I chuſe to mention.

The only parliamentary proviſion made for the reduction of the public debts, and the annihilation of taxes, is the eſtabliſhment of the ſinking fund; and that having been inſtituted near fifty years, but inſtead of being out of debt by this time, as we have been long ago given to underſtand we ſhould have been, by means of the efficacious operation of that all redeeming fund, are not our public debts near trebled ſince the firſt eſtabliſhment of that fund? And are not the tax-incumbrances of the nation encreaſed to a degree beyond the credibility of any perſon who lived forty years ago? Was not that fund originally intended to have diſcharged public debts contracted before the year 1716? Inſtead thereof, has it not been applied to the cur-

rent ſervice, and now become mortgaged as a collateral ſecurity for freſh debts incurred ſince that year? When the intereſt of the public creditors became reduced in the year 1727, from ſix to four *per cent.* computations were made, that, by virtue of a ſinking fund of one million a year only being inviolably applied, to the diſcharge of the national debt, and the ſavings that might have been made by compound intereſt at four *per cent.* the nation might have been out of debt by the year 1756, ſuch fund diſcharging a debt of fifty millions by that time: and if the intereſt of fifty millions had been reduced in the ſaid year 1727 to three *per cent.* and there had been a million and an half ſacredly applied to the purpoſe of diſcharging the principal debt, it would have been paid off before the year 1752——And that an hundred millions of principal money might have been paid off by the year 1765: in conſequence of which, all our perpetuated taxes were to have been redeemed to the public.—But after fifty years experience, all theſe expectations having proved viſionary; and what reaſon can we at preſent have to truſt to this fund for our general redemption hereafter? Has it not alſo been boaſted, that this all redeeming fund was a greater ſecurity to the public creditors for the certain repayment of their principal? And was not that made a pretence to ſtrip the national creditors of one-third of their intereſt by the year 1727, and ſince of one-half? In this manner have the creditors of the nation been amuſed; and inſtead of their principal being rendered more ſecure by means of the ſinking fund, is it not become leſs ſo? And the more and more, the public debts ſhall increaſe, the more and more inſecure will the repayment of the principal be? And the more and more tax-incumbrances on trade ſhall augment, will not every ſpecies of Britiſh commodities grow dearer and dearer? Is it poſſible under ſuch circumſtances, that the trade of the nation can grow better and better? Muſt it not, on the contrary, grow worſe and worſe, and that of rival countries grow more and more proſperous upon the ruin of ours?

Of theſe things the author has long complained throughout the courſe of his writings: he in particular forewarned the nation, at the commencement of the laſt war, of what has come to paſs, in his tract called GREAT BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM. Herein he ſhewed the neceſſity of raiſing THE SUPPLIES WITHIN THE YEAR, though he, nor any man elſe then thought the ſupplies neceſſary would have been ſo enormous as they have been, and proved the ill conſequences of doing otherwiſe: and while the ANNUAL EXPENCE ſhall exceed the ANNUAL REVENUE, he repeats it again, is it poſſible our affairs ſhould mend? Is it not a pernicious practice to borrow money at intereſt on mortgaged funds? Is it not a ruinous practice to borrow on funds that ſhall not WITHIN THE YEAR BE APPLIED FOR THE PAYMENT OF THE PRINCIPAL AS WELL AS INTEREST? Is it not a deſtructive practice to load our commerce and manufactures with taxes in the manner that has been done, and to mortgage theſe deſtructive taxes for a time to come injudiciouſly as they have been? Hath not a total diſregard to theſe maxims been productive of almoſt every commercial evil we at preſent labour under? And muſt not a continuance in thoſe egregious political errors one day make this nation rue it; the landed, the trading, and monied intereſts, will all inevitably feel the fatal effects of a ſeries of ſuch perverſe and wrongheaded meaſures this nation has purſued by the influence of weak and wicked miniſters, ſince the revolution? And if there is not public virtue enough in the kingdom to relinquiſh ſuch a ruinous ſyſtem, and that without delay too, may it not be quite out of our power to do it, when the emergencies of ſtate may make it indiſpenſably requiſite to increaſe our public debts and our tax incumbrances?

The time of peace is the ſeaſon for every kind of national improvement to be made againſt that of war. Should we neglect the preſent opportunity to extricate the kingdom from every difficulty, how can we expect to do it when it ſhall appear impracticable? If the nation is not in times of peace put into a ſure and certain ſtate of redemption from its debts and taxes; I mean a conſiderable proportion of them ſpeedily, what reaſon can we have to expect the conſervation of our trade and commerce? And what a pitiful figure will the Britiſh empire make without them?

'Tis not paying off A FEW MILLIONS OF THE NATIONAL DEBTS, without THE REDUCTION OF TAXES, that will give any ſenſible relief to the commercial intereſt. It may, indeed, as ſuch expedients heretofore have done, give a temporary political puff to the public credit. But what end will that anſwer? Judge as we have repeatedly experienced. The conſequence will be this: public credit will be bloated for a time; and then advantage may, and very likely will again be taken of the happy criſis, to reduce the intereſt of the public funds to two per cent. and what will become of the ſaving? Will it not be transferred, as uſual, to the unfathomable gulph of the ſinking fund? When it is arrived there, can we be certain that it will not be applied to the current ſervice, if occaſion requires? Or, may it not become, as it has done, a new additional intereſt fund, whereby the more eaſily to increaſe the public debts, inſtead of paying any off, to a degree of ſignificance? And will ſuch payments avail the nation? Can we expect more advantage thereby than what we have received by the paſt payments ſince the inſtitution of the ſinking fund? And what eaſement will that be to the nation? None at all: I pronounce, if conducted upon the ſame principles of former payments; all which have terminated hitherto in the further reduction of the intereſt of the public creditors; and can we think they will eſteem that a benefit? The proprietor of 20,000*l.* in the funds will make a mighty figure in the world with his annuity of 400*l.* a year; and a lady with her 20,000*l.* fortune will appear in great ſplendor at Mrs. Cornelly's.

However agreeable ſuch a further reduction of intereſt may ſit upon the ſtomachs of ſome, what mighty emolument will the trade of the nation receive by this thread-bare expedient? Can taking away one-third more of the ſpending money of thoſe public creditors ſubject thereto, benefit trade? Can they ſpend the more the leſs they have to ſpend, without breaking in upon their principal? To what a hopeful condition will ſuch fund-holders be reduced, when they ſhall experience their income to be reduced, and the price of all things to grow dearer and dearer? When a third part more of their preſent annuity of three *per cent.* ſhall be pledged to pay intereſt to new annuitants, or become otherwiſe applied, and their ſpending money ſhall be curtailed, will not all the ſpecific funds feel the happy effects of ſuch profound policy? But it will be ſaid, perhaps, that our acts of parliament abound with proviſoes that obviate theſe trivial objections; for if any funds prove deficient, when once we have got ſuch funds eſtabliſhed, the bounty of the legiſlature oblige themſelves to make ſuch deficiency good the enſuing ſeſſion: ſo that any new funds, as well as our ancient ones, can never, in reality, become deficient, although their regular and commercial produce be annihilated. A very happy ſyſtem truly! An inimitable way of raiſing money, without the appearance of NEW TAXES, however much the old ones ſhall be reduced. An admirable prop this to the public credit! Does not every man ſee through this cobweb policy? What avails it, whether the funds, with which the public creditors are amuſed, anſwers the purpoſe for which they are pitched on or not, ſeeing their deficiencies are certain of being ſupplied by the legiſlature? But I would aſk, Do not theſe deficiencies as well as any ſpecific taxes fall upon trade? Does ſuch practice any way leſſen our burthens upon the commerce of the nation?

Though the deficiency is ſupplied, what becomes of the ſurplus? Does this go to the payment of the principal for which ſuch funds were new coined? We have ſeen what hath become of the old ſinking fund, conſtituted of the ſurpluſſes of the Aggregate, the South Sea, and the General funds. As thoſe ſurpluſſes have been thrown into the ſinking fund for the payment of debts contracted before the year 1716; ſo likewiſe have all the diſtinct ſurpluſſes which have aroſe from all the new funds that have been eſtabliſhed ſince, by the act of the 25th of George II. for conſolidating the funds. But what hath the nation been relieved of its taxes both by the means of the OLD or the NEW FUND-SURPLUSSES? I recol-

leſt but one ſingle appropriated tax that hath been taken off, except the old ſubſidy impoſed in Charles the Second's time, ſince the year 1716, when the old ſinking fund was firſt eſtabliſhed: that was the ſalt duty, in the year 1730; and that was again laid on in the ſucceeding year. So that however wiſe an inſtitution the ſinking fund might have been in the opinion of ſome for the diſcharge of the public debts, and at length for the redemption of taxes appropriated for payment of the intereſt thereof; yet we find, that after ſo many years trial and experience of its mighty effect for the national eaſe, we have received none at all. On the contrary, the public debts and taxes to anſwer them, are now brought to ſuch an enormous height, it appears that both the old and the ſubſequent ſinking funds have proved an encouragement to increaſe BOTH, inſtead of diminiſhing either. And why? Becauſe they have facilitated the raiſing of money by repeated loan after loan, and been made an INTEREST FUND, inſtead of a REDEEMING ONE, for freſh debts, or applied to the current ſervice.

If ever it is intended to get rid of the public debts, without violating the public faith, does it not ſeem neceſſary that another ſyſtem ſhould be eſtabliſhed for the purpoſe? A new fund, which ſhould never more be chriſtened a SINKING FUND, but a SOVEREIGN DEBT-PAYING, or rather a TAX-RELIEVING FUND, and never to be miſapplied.

If the public debts ſhall not be put into a ſure road of redemption, but the ſtate-creditors are to remain perpetual annuitants, it may not indeed be bad policy to think of reducing their intereſt as low as we can: in which caſe, the lower that is reduced, the nearer we ſhall be to get rid of a great part of the debt; for its magnitude will be no burthen, when we ſhall pay no intereſt for it; and the nearer we draw to a total exemption from the incumbrance of paying intereſt, that may effectually anſwer the end of a ſpunge, and then the kingdom will be in a happy ſtate to be ſure!

But perchance the wiſe ſcheme of reducing of intereſt further may defeat itſelf; for when the public creditors are ſo alarmed, can we be certain that they will not ſell out their funds as faſt as they can? And will a run on the funds make the reduction of intereſt more eaſily practicable? It will not only render the project abortive, but may give ſuch a blow to the public credit as will not facilitate our borrowing more money, when we ſhall have the utmoſt occaſion for it. Wherefore, it is to be hoped, that ſome ſuch conſideration may contribute to the laying ſuch a ſcheme aſide, if it ever was intended, as hath been lately talked of among ſome great politicians.

Let any gentleman reflect a moment upon the ſtate of the old ſinking fund ſince its commencement; and will he not be convinced that the public creditors have been fleeced of too many millions already to admit of more? Had we from the firſt eſtabliſhment of that fund to pay off the debts contracted before 1716, have been reſolute to have raiſed the ſupplies within the year, the old ſinking fund, as it increaſed, might have been made a permanent redeemer of the old debts.

Nay, although it had not been found practicable to have raiſed the whole of the ſupplies neceſſary withinthe year; and we had, therefore, been obliged to have contracted occaſionally ſome new debts, yet had the ſinking fund been made the right and proper uſe of, the nation need not, perhaps, have been near one moiety of the principal ſum indebted it now is; a great part of the load of our tax-incumbrances have been prevented, and the public credit bottomed on a more ſolid baſis than it at preſent is. But this matter hath been egregiouſly miſtaken, and by thoſe too who have been accounted ſuperlative financiers.

However well the ſinking fund has been improved to facilitate the encreaſe of the public debts and taxes, it has been badly ſchemed, as was at firſt intended, to eaſe the nation of the latter. And what benefit is it to the community to pay a few millions now and then of the principal money debt, without reducing at the ſame time our taxes?

But in ſuch manner is the ſinking fund conſtituted, that no taxes have been taken off, when any parts of the debt have been diſcharged: and, indeed, ſuch is the nature of that fund, that if taxes had been reduced, as we might have paid the principal by means of that fund beyond the ſavings made by the reduction of the intereſt money, ſuch reductions of taxes would have UNDERMINED THE VERY FOUNDATION OF THE SINKING FUND ITSELF. For the whole of that fund is conſtituted, as well of the continuance of taxes as of the ſavings by the paſt reductions of intereſt; the ſurpluſſes of the aggregate, the South Sea, and the general funds, compoſing a principal part of that fund, and being made up of taxes as well as the ſavings by intereſt: and the ſubſequent parts of the ſinking fund ariſing ſince the conſolidating act 25th of George II. are compounded of new taxes, and their diſtinct ſurpluſſes; ſo that if any taxes had been reduced and annihilated, the ſinking fund could never have ſwelled to the magnitude it hath done; and would not that have been a check to the extravagant profuſion of the public money? Would the nation have been the worſe for that?

Whence, it appears, that in the firſt conſtitution, perhaps, of the ſinking fund, it was illy contrived to give due relief to the nation, although it was a notable device to reduce the intereſt of the public creditors from ſix per cent. to its preſent ſtate; and might have been alſo deviſed to have eaſed the kingdom of its taxes, inſtead of augmenting them, as it has been made the means of doing; but that matter has been beneath the conſideration of our profound ſtateſmen hitherto.

The paying off a few millions of the national debt, without the annihilation of any tax-incumbrances that can prove an eaſement to the commercial intereſt, can only give a temporary blaſt, I again ſay, to public credit, and may thereby tend, as obſerved, ſtill to the further reduction of intereſt: nay, ſuch meaſures may be ſo practiced as to bring the irredeemable part of the debt into a ſtate of redemption, and thereby reduce the intereſt of that, as well as the redeemables; and in conſequence thereof, we may ſtill add more and more to the ſinking fund, and thereby provide freſh intereſt funds for the additional increaſe of freſh public debts, as hath been our caſe already. The repetition of this ſhameful policy may be carried to ſuch a degree, as we have ſeen, to deſtroy quite the credit of the funds and of the nation. But it is to be hoped, that all ſuch expedients will be treated as they ſhall merit, unleſs the ſaving by further reductions of intereſt on the funds ſhould be ſacredly applied to a proportionate reduction of taxes.

Were, indeed, all the funds reduced to a level of intereſt at three per cent. which cannot be done without an infraction of public faith, 500,000 *l.* more might be ſaved: but if that was ſwallowed up in the ſinking fund gulph, inſtead of being applied to the reduction of taxes, that would prepare the way to increaſe the public debt about ſixteen millions more, if converted into a freſh intereſt fund for the purpoſe, according to paſt example. In the like wiſe manner may the intereſt of the whole national debt be reduced from three to two *per cent. per annum*, and an additional intereſt fund be created of between one and two millions more, which may prove the happy means of ſwelling the national debt to above one-half as much more as it is, and make it up no leſs than the round ſum of TWO HUNDRED MILLIONS. Every one diſcerns how this wiſe Britiſh ſyſtem may be carried to ſtill greater and greater lengths, and bring the kingdom to a very proſperous ſituation at laſt; for by means thereof, we ſhall neither be able ever to pay what we owe, nor to borrow a ſhilling more; and thus will Great Britain be duly prepared for the firſt conqueror who ſhall make the attempt.

Whether the perpetrators of this allwiſe project will call themſelves friends to the preſent illuſtrious family upon the throne of theſe kingdoms; whether this is the grateful recompence that the beſt of ſove-

reigns

reigns deſerves from this kingdom, is ſubmitted to the reflexion of thoſe whom it may nearly concern; and whether they may think themſelves beholden to the author for thoſe remarks, is a matter of indifference to him; for let them be taken as intended, or otherwiſe, he is ſure to be not one farthing the better for it, unleſs by the enjoyment of that ſelf-felt ſatisfaction in having done his duty.

I could wiſh the ſubject I am engaged on was at an end, being tired of ſo diſagreeable a taſk that I have voluntarily impoſed upon myſelf.———But to reſume the ſubject of PAYING DEBTS WITHOUT REDUCING TAXES.

We have conſidered the ſcheme of diſcharging PUBLIC DEBTS WITHOUT EASING THE PUBLIC; or to ſpeak in other words, the ſcheme of paying public debts by being the worſe inſtead of the better for ſo doing. For have we not ſeen that this hath hitherto been our caſe; and what reaſon have we to believe the purſuit of this ſcheme of proceeding can ever mend our affairs, purſuant to the preſent conſtitution of the revenue?

Were we to continue in a ſtate of perfect peace and tranquillity for ten years together, and to pay off a million annually of principal money-debt, would the diſcharge of ten millions be any ſort of eaſement to the commerce of the nation, without the reduction of taxes? Was this ten millions paid by virtue of the ſinking fund, which, perhaps, would not be ſo eaſily practicable, we can expect no annihilation of taxes that conſtitute that fund; and whether that fund in ſuch caſe would admit of the payment of ten millions in twenty years, is to be queſtioned. Or were we to add the ſavings of the intereſt of the ſaid diſcharged million a year, either ſimple or compound, and pay the accumulated intereſt as principal, what hope ſhould we have of the reduction of taxes? Nay, ſhould we be enabled in virtue of the ſinking fund to pay off a million and one-half annually, for ten years uninterruptedly, with the accumulated compound intereſt, it would not diſcharge above 17,196,465*l.* with a continuance of taxes; and this could only affect the ſtockholders by reducing of their intereſt lower and lower.

As ſuch payment of the public debt would have a tendency to a further reduction of intereſt; and if that ſhould take place, the ſpending money of the nation would be diminiſhed, would not the tax-funds ſenſibly feel it? And though the deficiencies of funds ſhall be made good from year to year, by parliament, yet will not the public bear the weight of ſuch taxes, notwithſtanding the declenſion of its trade by ſuch fund-deficiencies?

Should it be ſaid, if the intereſt of the funds ſhould be further reduced, it might oblige many to enter into trade, who could not ſubſiſt upon their fund-annuities. It might be ſo, and they might then be quite ruined; for do we not find the Gazette abounds with bankrupts enough daily? And what has this been owing to? The decline both of our domeſtic as well as foreign trade; the one owing to the ſmuggling of foreign commodities and manufactures into the kingdom, and her plantations; the other to the exceſſive high price of Engliſh commodities by reaſon of our immenſe tax-incumbrances, as we have ſeen.

Moreover, can people unbred and unſkilled in the arts of carrying on trade obtain knowlege and experience ſufficient for the purpoſe inſtantaneouſly? Can they ſuddenly raiſe a fund of commercial credit, who never before had, or required any? But what trades are they to ſtrike into, that will admit of unexperienced people thriving in? If it be ſaid, that men who have been in trade and left it off, and live upon their annuities in the funds, may ſtrike into the ſame trades again; I aſk, can perſons advanced in years, as others ſeldom betake themſelves to live upon the intereſt of their ſtocks gained by trade, begin life again? We may as well pretend to make the aged young again. Who then are to be induced to engage in trade that were wholly out of it?

Beſides, provided further reductions of intereſt in the funds ſhould be thought of, in order to compel people into trade who are out of it, ſhould we not previouſly experience the inducement to be very engaging? Ought it not to admit of a certain greater profit than is to be made in the funds, even when reduced? How can raw and untrained people be ſure of this? Are not long and large credits given in trade as ſellers? But how will ſuch find the like as buyers? If they cannot, what hazards of ruin muſt they run?

Was the domeſtic and foreign trade of the nation greatly extended; and were the profits thereof inviting, the riſing generations might be encouraged to be bred thereto: but few ſtockholders would again engage therein, who had choſe to live at their eaſe; ſo that the further reducing ſcheme would give no great temptation to ſuch proprietors again to turn traders. Some few, perhaps, might rather incline to lend a part of their property on perſonal ſecurity for larger intereſt than they then could make in the funds. But thoſe to make any greater ſure advantage by ſo doing, would be people who had acquired experience in trade, and a good knowlege of the man they truſted, or the riſk would be great; and very few ſkilful people would chuſe to run it. Should the unſkilful be raſh enough to hazard their fund-incomes in trade with others, they might ſoon have occaſion to repent it. And female proprietors, however numerous, would not think of trade.

Notwithſtanding, therefore, the trade of the nation ſhould be ſomething enlarged, yet as the ſpending money of ſtockholders would be abridged, might not the general trade loſe as much the one way, as it acquired by the other? And how would the nation be gainers? How would ſtand the plight of the funds? Deficiencies upon deficiencies might be multiplied; and would not that prove a dead weight upon the enlarged trade?

But in what manner can the trade of the kingdom be extended, while our commodities and manufactures continue ſo exceſſively dear by the means of taxes? Were they indeed effectually reduced, it might be ſhewn how eaſily the trade of the nation might be largely extended. Let this be done, and we ſhall find people enough riſe up to carry it on, without depending upon the converſion of ſtock-annuitants into traders, by the means of reducing of their intereſt.

Were our taxes on trade competently reduced, and the price of every thing, in conſequence thereof, to ſuch a degree, that a ſtockholder could live as well upon his annuity of two *per cent.* as he at preſent does on that of three or four *per cent.* and our general commerce greatly increaſed, as it might be by wiſe management; if there did want more people in trade, experienced traders would the longer decline going out of it, and converting themſelves into ſtockholders; and the reduction of intereſt might and would conduce to this; and if the ſavings that might be made hereof were faithfully applied to ſupply the places of the moſt burthenſome perpetuated taxes, theſe latter might be reduced ſtill further and further, which would tend to the greater and greater increaſe of the general trade.

Nor is it the reduction of taxes to any ſmall degree that will give the trade of the nation ſubſtantial redreſs, as we are circumſtanced. The reduction of taxes of one hundred thouſand, or two hundred, or THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS A YEAR, would not be felt by a kingdom in general that pays above FOURTEEN MILLIONS *per annum*, in time of peace, with all enhancements on its commodities, although the impoſition of freſh annual taxes to the amount of TWO OR THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS A YEAR, would be grievouſly felt by the whole nation. There is a great difference at preſent between the laying on of NEW TAXES, and the taking off OLD ONES, to the ſame amount. Like the horſe overladen already, a very little more may ſink him. Being ſo highly tax ridden as we are, a ſmall addition to the number is very ſenſibly felt by trade, ſince traders are compelled to raiſe their wares in price, as taxes on them are increaſed, which ſoon diſſeminates itſelf through the whole community, when impoſed upon any commodity univerſally conſumed by the maſs of the people. And if once the general prices of commodities are greatly augmented by the multiplication of taxes upon taxes, as we have ſeen by various inſtances, it is not the annihilation,

nihilation, as has been ſaid, of a ſimple tax that will remove the evil entailed by numerous compound ones, which contributed to the greater enhancement the one of the other: they augment the prices of Engliſh goods in a ratio ſuitable to their number, as well as the weight of every particular tax. Remove, therefore, the ſimple tax on one commodity only, and not the others that proportionally contribute to raiſe the price of goods, which have an affinity therewith, can we expect THAT to lower the price of goods ſufficiently to advance our foreign and domeſtic trade?

We muſt give therefore ſuch general relief as the trade of the nation ſhould ſeem to require: that is to ſay, to enable England to ſell as good a commodity at any foreign market, and that at as cheap a rate, as any of our trading foreign competitors are able to do; which is the real relief that the foreign trade of this nation requires, if we mean to retrieve, preſerve, and extend it. And without foreign trade, will the mere domeſtic commerce of the nation render it opulent or formidable? Will not the maritime potency and glory of the Britiſh empire dwindle and degenerate from its dignity and ſplendor? Wherefore, if this kingdom will maintain its influence, weight and power in the world, ought any meaſure to be neglected that ſhall tend to the preſervation of its maritime trade, which is the permanent ſource of all we enjoy, as a great and powerful ſtate?

It is agreed on all hands, that the mere inland trade of the nation cannot ſuſtain its maritime proweſs. If we once loſe our power by ſea, how long can we avoid becoming a prey to the neighbouring conquerors, whoſe maritime trade and power muſt increaſe as ours ſhall decline? What can more effectually prevent the fatal cataſtrophe than the ſupport of our foreign trade? Can any thing do that to ſuch purpoſe like the being, and ever continuing upon an equality with any rival nation in all the prices of our manufactures? And if the multiplicity of our ſimple taxes upon ſimple taxes, and our compound taxes upon compound taxes, appear to be the chief and real cauſe of the high prices of all Engliſh wares; if this cauſe, and this only conſidered in its full weight and extent, ſhall be deemed the cauſe adequate to the general effect, the natural remedy for ſuch an national evil is certainly to remove the cauſe; and to remove it as effectually, and as expeditiouſly as we can. For the evil is daily growing upon us; our competitors are daily ſupplanting us at more and more foreign markets, and increaſing in their rivalſhip more and more at every particular foreign market; and therefore, the fulneſs of time ſeems now to be come, when ſound policy dictates an attention to every poſſible meaſure that can expedite the reduction and abſolute annihilation of as many of our perpetuated tax-incumbrances as we can; and thoſe ſhould be firſt annihilated that the moſt immediately affect the prices of all commodities and manufactures, that are the ſupport of our foreign traffic.

Could any perſon be weak or perverſe enough to deny the effectuality of the commercial policy to reduce the prices of Engliſh commodities for exportation, in order to preſerve and extend the foreign trade of the nation, let him only conſider the trade of the Eaſt Indies; let him conſider that it is the exceſſive cheapneſs of all ſorts of Eaſt India wares, commodities and manufactures in general, when compared with thoſe of the Europeans, that has induced moſt of the chief commercial ſtates to eſtabliſh great joint-ſtock companies to traffic in their productions and manufactures, and to export them from one European ſtate to another, or to their reſpective plantations in America, or their ſetttlements in Africa. This ſingle fact, relative to the general cheapneſs of Eaſt India commodities, and the eagerneſs of European ſtates in their purchaſe, and in their reſorting to the Indies by long voyages, and eſtabliſhing joint-ſtock companies for that end, is ſufficiently convincing, that the great article of cheapneſs is the governing principle of the trade of the world: and this is the great point of policy whereby the wiſeſt trading ſtates ſtudy to conduct themſelves; and therefore, it muſt be fruitleſs to ſpend more time to prove what is an affront to the underſtanding, to preſume that any man would diſpute the verity of the maxim, by which he is ſwayed himſelf in his purchaſes. Even people unconverſant with practical trade, know, that their ſelf-governing principle is that of cheapneſs, quality for quality; and traders daily experience both in their ſales and purchaſes, that one or two *per cent.* and ſometimes leſs, will govern the markets, as well at home as abroad.

Wherefore, the deduction of the following conſequences is obvious, and can be as little diſputable as the premiſes: while the French and the Dutch commodities, or thoſe of any other nation, that interferes in foreign ſtates and empires, with the ſale of the Engliſh, by being conſiderably cheaper than ours, can we ſuppoſe, that foreigners will give the preference to ours the dearer, unleſs there is ſome other intereſting inducement which ſhall compenſate for the dearer price given. When this, indeed, is the caſe, it will often force the ſales of our dearer commodities; when the luxurious returns taken in barter for Engliſh wares ſhall give the Spaniards and Portugueſe, &c. advantages ſuperior to what they ſhall receive from the French and Dutch, who ſtand in no need of their wines or their fruits, &c. &c.

Let it be ſuppoſed, that Engliſh woollen goods of divers ſorts arrive at the Spaniſh or Portugueſe market in Europe, and that of the like ſorts there are of the French or the Dutch, equally good quality for quality, and if ſold outright for caſh, could be afforded from ten to fifteen *per cent.* cheaper than thoſe of England; can we ſuppoſe the Spaniard or Portugueſe will give the preference to the dearer goods? But ſays the Spaniard or Portugueſe, the Frenchman or Dutchman will not purchaſe our wines or our fruits, and the Engliſhman will be fool enough ſo to do. Therefore, on the account of barter with the Engliſhman, I can afford, ſays the Spaniard or Portugueſe, to allow him five or ſix *per cent.* or conſiderably more than I need the Dutchman or the Frenchman, becauſe I get rid of the ſuperfluities of wines and fruit; and by ſo doing, I find, in the end of the account, that I get as much by the Engliſhman as by the French or the Dutchman. And what ſays the Engliſh merchant? Though I cannot afford to ſell my Engliſh woollen goods under eight or ten *per cent.* or more, dearer than the French or Dutch can, yet by the profits ariſing in England on the wines or the fruits in return, I find the gains on the concluſion of the voyage out and home will anſwer, upon the whole, in the way of barter.

But was not the Engliſhmen to take wines and fruit, what chance would he ſtand to diſpoſe of his goods, when his French and Dutch Competitor could ſo much underſell him? This we call forcing the markets, and putting off his dearer goods by the means of taking in lieu the Spaniſh and Portugueſe luxuries for our ſolid woollen goods. This does not render the gain of England, in trading with Spain or Portugal, equal to that of France or Holland, who take the Spaniſh and Portugueſe gold and ſilver inſtead of their ſuperfluities of wines and fruit——Nor would England, we may imagine, ſell any goods in Spain or Portugal, while they can have theſe ſo much cheaper of our rivals, unleſs we were to take their luxuries in return.

England, indeed, gains by the article of freight: and England gains to the revenue by the duties of Spaniſh and Portugueſe imports; but had not England mortgaged ſuch duties, and therefore ſtood in no need of them, if Spain or Portugal did not take our manufactures, ſhould we be under any national inducement to take their diſadvantageous luxuries? As things are, the Engliſh conſumer of wines and fruit pays, in effect, for the Engliſh woollen goods conſumed in Spain, and the duties of import laid on the nation, are more than equivalent to the benefits of freight; ſo that what mighty gainers can we be by this trade as we are at preſent circumſtanced upon the whole? We are not ſuch gainers thereby as France or Holland, whoſe ſales muſt be much larger, becauſe much cheaper than ours; and as they make uſe of their own bottoms as well as we, their profits by freight are only leſs by the returns, which they compenſate by other trading voyages from Spain or Portugal, and

make up amply the deficiency by having larger quantities of their cheaper goods in the flota and galleons, and in the Brazil fleets.——Whence it ſhould ſeem to follow, that our ſhare in the commerce of Spain and Portugal is of much leſs benefit and advantage to Great Britain, and of more to our rivals than many may imagine.

If it ſhould be objected, that the exchange between England and Spain, and between England and Portugal being in our favour, ſhews that we are gainers by thoſe branches of trade, and how can that be, if the ballance is not on our ſide? To which we anſwer, that although this is the caſe, and the courſe of exchange appears to our advantage; yet it does not follow that this criterion is an infallible one to prove, that it is on account of a greater value of Engliſh goods being conſumed in Spain and Portugal than we conſume of theirs, though it may indicate that we receive larger remittances from thence in value than we ſend thither from England; and for this plain reaſon, that Engliſh reſident merchants, or merchants reſident in England, may be intereſted in ſending French manufactures thither to a larger value than they do of Engliſh; and in conſequence of ſuch tranſactions from England, and remittances made to England from Spain and Portugal on account of French manufactures, wherein Engliſh merchants may be concerned, occaſion the exchange to appear in favour of this nation, when the ballance of trade is againſt us. For,

Do we not well know, that the French have now arrived at an extraordinary imitation of every art practiced in the Engliſh fabrics, particularly in the woollen and ſilken manufactures, and even in their lengths, breadths, marks, and package, &c. &c? Do we not likewiſe know, for a certainty, that French manufactures have been impoſed on foreign countries for Engliſh by Engliſh merchants? And pray what has induced to ſuch like practices? Hath it not been, that French goods ſell better there than Engliſh, becauſe they are cheaper?

A merchant is a citizen of the world; 'tis one of the chief mercantile arts to purchaſe any where, and of any one, the cheapeſt wares of any kind, and ſell them where ever he can the deareſt. Will not this tempt merchants reſident in England, to intereſt themſelves rather in cargoes of the cheaper French goods, that will eaſily vend in foreign ſtates, than in Engliſh, that will lay rotting in their factors warehouſes abroad? Our mere wine merchants, as we term them, are not the only merchants that trade to Spain and Portugal from hence; but does it follow, that they trade thither wholly in Engliſh goods, when they can no leſs eaſily trade thither in French? Cannot the Spaniſh or Portugal merchant reſident in England embark a large capital, either for his own ſole account, or in anonymous partnerſhips with French merchants in France, who will rejoice at their correſpondence for ſake of their commiſſions? Is it not eaſy for ſuch Engliſh merchant to conſign ſuch French goods either to his Engliſh or French factory from hence, who may impoſe them upon the Spaniards and Portugueſe for Engliſh manufactures, being made façon d'Angleterre? And may not ſuch merchant reſident in England have his remittances made to England for ſuch French manufacture; and will not this ſwell the exchange for money in our favour, when the real ballance for goods may be againſt England? This deception is as eaſy as natural; and the greateſt proportion of ſuch remittances hither may be drawn from England again, to pay for the French manufactures. Is not this the natural conſequence of France underſelling us as they do, and having arrived at ſo great an excellence in many of their fabrics? Is it poſſible by any laws to reſtrain, much leſs wholly prevent ſuch mercantile practices? No: nothing will hinder them, but an ability in the Engliſh nation to ſell their manufactures equally cheap with any rival nation. This will have the deſired effect; and is it not well worthy the moſt ſerious attention of a Britiſh legiſlature? For is not this one of the chief occaſions of the preſent groans and lamentations of our Engliſh artiſts, mechanics and manufacturers, notwithſtanding the ſhort-lived temporary ſtarts of employment they may occaſionally have, which are eaſily accounted for? If the ſkill, and ſtocks in trade of our Engliſh merchants ſhall be rather embarked in the encouragement of the commerce of France than England, is it not a very melancholy conſideration, when the idea is extended to the degree it will admit of?

If likewiſe our own merchants ſhall gain more by the legal and illegal practices of importing French or other cheap goods into England, and the former may cover the latter arts, muſt it not tend to the inevitable deſtruction of our own advantageous branches of trade, our exports? But while we parade it by our great imports, and the employment of our ſhipping in conſequence of ſuch imports, does not this dazzle the eyes of many with the idea of immenſe gains, while we may be going to ruin apace?

I am ſorry to have occaſion to dwell longer on a ſubject ſo diſagreeable. But is not he a better friend to the nation, who endeavours to probe a malady to the root, in order to excite to the thorough cure of it, than he that artfully labours to ſkin it over, that it will certainly break out again with incurable virulence?

The deareſt markets, or ſuch markets where every thing in general ſells at the deareſt rates, are the greateſt temptation to the conſumption of foreign imports, either legally or illegally. The former we encourage for the ſake of keeping in good plight a revenue mortgaged in perpetuity till its redemption: and when that will be, can any man in the nation ſay? I ſay, it can never be duly effected, till an entire change of the ſyſtem of our revenue we have ſo long and ſo ſhamefully adopted takes place: and in what manner this can be accompliſhed is the buſineſs of our rulers to think of, there being not the leaſt encouragement for any private man to think about it; for ſo ſure as he does, he may ruin himſelf by his endeavours to ſerve the nation: and will he not rather be laughed at, and deſpiſed, than pitied for his public ſpirit?

Some judge of the increaſe of the national trade by the increaſe of the DUTIES OF IMPORTS; and ſay the good plight of the revenue of cuſtoms is a criterion of a flouriſhing trade. Not ſure of a proſperous trade, a trade nationally advantageous; however the merchant may gain by it, the kingdom may loſe. It is a ſign of the increaſe of FOREIGN PURCHASES, and FOREIGN LUXURIES, and even of FOREIGN MANUFACTURES into this kingdom; but no one will ſay, that ſuch kind of traffic can be the touchſtone of a trade beneficial to the kingdom. Imports of foreign materials of utility to our manufactures are entered DUTY FREE; but other IMPORTS, unleſs they occaſion an equivalent export of native commodities are certainly detrimental, and ought to be diſcouraged, unleſs admitted for re exportation, but not domeſtic conſumption, when our own commodities and manufactures will do in their ſtead, and give employment to our own induſtrious poor. In this caſe, the revenue of cuſtoms is no great gainer, unleſs they are conſumed here; and this is too often the beſt market for them, becauſe foreign goods ſell to greater advantage here than elſewhere: ſo that what the kingdom may gain in point of freight and navigation, is in part, if not wholly loſt by ſuch domeſtic conſumption.

The duties of cuſtoms were originally deviſed to impede and diſcourage an inundation of foreign wares and luxuries being conſumed in the nation, and to promote the domeſtic conſumption of our own. This policy ſeems perverted in our enlightened age; and for the ſake of keeping up the revenue of cuſtoms to the higheſt pitch of produce we can; and to bring in as much as may be into the exchequer, and not to inrich the kingdom, all encouragement is given to the legal importation of foreign commodities that are charged with duties at the port. And why? Is not this becauſe the duties of cuſtoms are mortgaged to the public creditors? Is not this the greateſt misfortune that can attend a trading nation? To have its revenues impoſed upon foreign goods to prevent their conſumption inſtead of our native, pledged for the ſupport of the public credit! What is this, in effect, other than a declaration to foreign ſtates, that the purchaſe and im-

portation of their luxuries and their manufactures are become ſo abſolutely neceſſary to the maintenance of the PUBLIC CREDIT of Great Britain, that we are not able to pay intereſt for our public debts without them? Import them, therefore, ſay ſome we muſt, let the conduct of thoſe ſtates towards us be ever ſo detrimental, for the ſake of keeping up our revenues! Can any thing more ſtrikingly than theſe conſiderations demonſtrate the unſpeakable injury this nation receives from the weight of its enormous debts, and its oppreſſive mortgaged taxes in conſequence thereof? For as on the one hand, the burthen of our inland tax-incumbrances thereby occaſioned, obſtructs the ſales and exportation of our native commodities; ſo on the other, the neceſſity of continuing our duties of cuſtoms, makes it dangerous to diſcourage, or much leſs to prohibit the purchaſe or importation of foreign goods, foreign luxuries, and even foreign wrought manufactures. Becauſe we have ſuffered our revenues, and the natural effects and conſequences thereof, not only to be ſo immenſe a load upon all our trade, but that load to become ſo mortgaged and anticipated, that we are diſabled from removing it in part, much leſs in the whole. What an unhappy ſituation is this for a nation to be reduced to?

To ſpeak at preſent with relation only to our foreign imports, and the duties of cuſtoms laid thereon.—— While the public debts ſhall render it impracticable to annihilate any of theſe duties, how can we, without injury to the public credit, leſſen or prohibit ſuch importations to any conſiderable value; however neceſſary to the intereſt of the nation either the one or the other may be? How can we reſent any mal-treatment in a commercial way, that we may receive from any ſtate with whom we trade? Has not this been the reaſon, that inſtead of retaliating injuries in the way we ſhould do, without wars, we have been obliged to plunge headlong into them, when they might eaſily have been avoided by commercial reſtraints and prohibitions?

Let it be ſuppoſed, that Spain or Portugal declines in their purchaſes of Engliſh goods, owing to their greater dearneſs, or any other cauſe real, or pretended in time of peace, is it politic in England to continue to take the ſame value of their wines and their fruits, as we did before ſuch declenſion on their ſide took place? Do not the public intereſts require, that as they leſſen in their purchaſes of Engliſh goods, that England ſhould diminiſh in her purchaſes of theirs, to preſerve the ballance as equal as we can, if we ſhall not be able to keep it in our favour? To do otherwiſe, is to ſuffer ourſelves to carry on trade to no purpoſe but the exhauſtion of our treaſure; and is it not better to let ſuch diſadvantageous trade alone, unleſs it ſhall prove eſſential to the preſervation of the connections of ſuch branches as may be beneficial? Provided that is not the caſe, are we, for the ſake of keeping up the revenue of cuſtoms, ſtill to encourage a detrimental trade? Shall it be ſaid, that becauſe the revenues on their foreign goods are mortgaged to the public creditors, that we are obliged to permit ſuch imports, or ſuffer the public credit to be undone? For that if we lay any obſtruction, or a prohibition on ſuch branches of trade, and thereby annihilate ſuch a proportion of the revenue of cuſtoms, we know not how to ſupply that deficiency by new taxes.

Whence it ſhould ſeem, that we are reduced to the fatal dilemma; either the public credit muſt be hurt, or the kingdom muſt be exhauſted. Is not this a deplorable circumſtance? And to what is this owing, but to the enormous magnitude of the public debts, which have plunged us into ſuch a ſituation? For if the duties of cuſtoms remained unmortgaged, ſhould we not, or ought we not, to retaliate upon Spain or Portugal, in the like commercial way? If we leſſened our imports from them as they did theirs from us in the like proportion, we ſhould ſtill be upon an equality with them: if they prohibited our manufactures either by public laws or by excluding them, by giving the preference to thoſe of our competitors, which would be the ſame in effect to us, we ſhould deviſe ſome methods to diminiſh our imports, or legally prohibit them, as they had done ours. But does not mortgaging the revenues ariſing from foreign imports ſo tie up the hands of Britiſh government, as to make it difficult for the wiſeſt adminiſtration to know what ſteps to take upon the ſuppoſition ſuggeſted?

Hath not this mortgaging the revenues of cuſtoms on foreign wrought ſilks proved the cauſe, that our ſilk weavers have been, and ſtill continue to be reduced to great diſtreſs and calamity; becauſe the adminiſtration hath been at a loſs to ſupply, by new taxes, the deficiency that ſhall ariſe in the revenue by the PROHIBITION OF ALL FOREIGN-WROUGHT SILKS; thoſe revenues being mortgaged, as well as others, upon foreign imports. Whereas, 'tis not unreaſonable to believe, that if miniſters could have eaſily ſupplied any deficiency that might have happened in the revenue by new taxes, we ſhould before now have had foreign wrought ſilks prohibited. Could this alſo have been done, with reſpect to ſome other branches of our imports, we ſhould long ſince, perhaps, have leſſened or prohibited ſeveral, and by this time have ſupplied ourſelves with the like commodities, either at home or from our plantations.

'Tis of little weight to ſay, that if we did not import theſe foreign wrought manufactures, that tend to the ruin of our own, foreigners would not purchaſe our goods. We pay at leaſt A MILLION a year for foreign wrought ſilk, both legally and illegally conſumed in the nation. Did we ſave this, by the employment of our own ſilk manufacturers, would not this make a difference to the nation, between ſpending and ſaving, of TWO MILLIONS a year? Can any one prove that this loſs is compenſated any other way, in conſequence of our conſumption of foreign wrought ſilks in general? From what motive was the general wear of French Cambrics prohibited in the nation? Was it not by reaſon it coſt us between two and three hundred thouſand pounds a year? And that if we ſaved that annuity by the employment of our own weavers in the manufactures of blonds, gauzes, and the numerous other particulars which were encouraged in conſequence of the prohibition, the nation would gain half a million thereby? Has not this meaſure preſerved numbers of our weavers from periſhing? Has it not been from the like motives, that we have encouraged our linen manufactures in general inſtead of foreign? Has not Great Britain and Ireland experienced the unſpeakable emolument of this policy? Is not TWO MILLIONS a year worth ſaving, by giving bread to our own ſilk manufacturers inſtead of foreigners? To deny this, may it not with equal reaſon be urged, for the importation of French woollen manufacturers to deſtroy all Engliſh looms, and turn this great body of our people out of the kingdom?

Amongſt our ſeveral grievances, that of our manner of ſupplying revenue-deficiencies, as we have had occaſion to touch on that point, without the impoſing of new taxes, is one that ſhould by no means be paſſed over in ſilence, by reaſon the practice may be attended with bad conſequences. It is an increaſe of the politic arts of laying imperceptible burthens on the public, when the viſible and barefaced ones by laying new additional taxes are oppreſſive enough.

By ſuch arts as theſe it matters little what funds a miniſter may pitch upon; for if it does not produce a farthing, the ſum it is propoſed to anſwer for is made good the enſuing ſeſſion of parliament; and if it produces a ſurplus, that is not applied to make good the deficiency of other funds, but is transferred to advance the credit ſide of the ſinking fund. To ſuch a height have we now aroſe in the practice of making good deficiencies, that if millions are taken annually from the ſinking fund itſelf, and applied to the current ſervice, the deficiency of the ſinking fund is again made good the next year. Whence it appears, that this notable practice of raiſing large ſums without ſpecific taxes, may grow to ſuch an exorbitant degree, that the publick debts may be doubled inſtead of diminiſhed; for by ſuch arts freſh intereſt money may be found for freſh debts. Can ſuch practices be conducive to that annihilation of taxes the nation is ſo greatly in need of?

To ſuch a pitch of good policy have we at length arrived, by ſupplying deficiency upon deficiency, and adding ſurplus upon ſurplus to encreaſe the magnitude of the ſinking fund, that we find our annual tax-deficiencies no leſs than our perpetual ones are made good. But were not our annual taxes, as well as our perpetual, annually mortgaged and anticipated, what reaſon can there be to ſupply the deficiencies of annuals? Ought not the annual land taxes to be ever levied within the year to prevent any ſuch practices?

Is there not ſome degree of danger to the conſtitution attending this practice? 'Tis an eaſy tranſition from mortgaging annual taxes only for a ſingle year, to mortgage the ſame for two or three years; and after this, to convert the annual taxes of land and malt into perpetual ones, as we have done all the reſt of our taxes? Will not this practice produce a moſt notable augmentation to the ſinking fund, and make a freſh additional intereſt fund, ſtill more and more to increaſe the ſinking fund? It may be attended with a further alarming conſequence to the nation. For I would aſk, what then occaſion will there be for parliaments at all, when our annual taxes ſhall be changed into perpetual as all the reſt are?

Should the nation be once brought to this pitch of fund-policy, to convert our land and malt taxes into perpetual mortgaged ones, when are we likely to ſee their redemption any more than of the reſt of our tax-ridden oppreſſions? Is it not, therefore, a moſt dangerous practice to ſuffer money to be borrowed at all upon thoſe taxes, leſt future wicked or wrongheaded miniſters ſhould ſo abuſe it as to deſtroy the very being of parliaments? For the happy conſervation of their own exiſtence, does it not become the wiſdom of the legiſlature to pay ſome attention to theſe ſtrictures, and think ſeriouſly rather of converting the conſtitution of the revenue, and change our perpetual into annual taxes, than to ſuffer the prevalence longer of that dangerous and impolitic ſyſtem of perpetuation and anticipation we have fallen into? It is humbly hoped, that the great wiſdom, impartiality and candor of a Britiſh parliament will receive theſe few thoughts as they are honeſtly intended.——To reſume the conſideration of the revenue of cuſtoms.

Let it be ſuppoſed that the neat total produce of the revenue of cuſtoms yields TWO MILLIONS a year to the exchequer: and be it further ſuppoſed, that thoſe duties, on an average, amount to fifty *per cent.* upon the prime coſt paid for our imports, muſt we not lay out for ſuch imports four millions *per annum* at leaſt to raiſe two millions by cuſtoms? So that to raiſe a revenue of two millions by cuſtoms ſtands the nation in ſix millions.——If the duties of our imports are not ſuppoſed to amount on an average to fifty *per cent.* then the ſums paid for imports will be more than four millions to raiſe the revenue of two millions only.

Let it be reckoned that two millions of the ſaid four millions of imports come from the Britiſh plantations in general; and that we pay no more to foreign countries for our other imports than two millions *per annum*, from which we raiſe a neat revenue of cuſtoms of one million only, and that we raiſe the other million of the cuſtom-revenue from our PLANTATION IMPORTS, and that our plantations take of Britiſh commodities in return to the full amount of TWO MILLIONS; this trade between Great Britain and her plantations circulates the whole four millions amongſt Britiſh ſubjects, in Britiſh bottoms, and our plantation goods re-exported brings an additional profit to the nation.

And did, as our plantations are ſuppoſed to do, the ſeveral European ſtates take of Britiſh produce and manufactures to the amount we take from them, we ſhould be upon an equality with them, and not pay many of them a conſiderable ballance yearly to our great diſadvantage: a point that has been moſt ſhamefully overlooked, and even often for their being our enemies, when from the motive of being ſuch gainers by us in the way of trade, we had a right to their friendſhip.——Though we have had ſo juſt and reaſonable a plea and foundation for ſuch powers to join us in times of war, yet when have they done ſo? Inſtead of that, have they not entered into ſubſidiary engagements with our enemies, to enable them to hurt our intereſt more and more, by plunging us into greater and greater expences, to make a compenſation for theſe unſpeakable obligations they have too many years been under to the Britiſh nation?

This is our caſe with regard to the eaſt countries of Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark; to which we have not paid for many many years leſs for the ballance of trade than A MILLION AND AN HALF ANNUALLY; ſome have computed it at TWO MILLIONS PER ANNUM loſs to the kingdom in time of war: and do we not pay annually likewiſe A MILLION AND AN HALF more for intereſt money to foreign creditors on the continent of Europe? I ſhould be glad to ſee it ſatisfactorily proved, that we gain THREE MILLIONS YEARLY by our commerce with all the reſt of Europe, to compenſate for the exhauſtion we ſuſtain by the Eaſt countries and intereſt money paid to foreigners: I am afraid that cannot be very eaſily done. But if it could, where would be our national gain, if our outgoings by one part of our European trade and our money tranſactions equal our profits by the reſt?

If this is our preſent ſituation, conſidered in the moſt favourable light, reſpecting the intereſts of the nation in relation to our European traffic, will this ſupport the immenſe revenues raiſed throughout the kingdom, and leave any profits within the ſtate? As our exports may be forced to Spain and Portugal, as has been obſerved, and we pay ſo dear for their imports by heavy duties impoſed thereon, that there ſeems reaſon to apprehend the nation but in a very indifferent ſtate, however opulent it may appear to ſome people, by the external appearance of a few, compared with the maſs of the people: and by what means are theſe few enabled to ſupport their exorbitant ſplendor? Is it not by dint of the enormous revenues that have been raiſed in times of war as well as peace? The ſudden monſtrous eſtates acquired in time of war, have raiſed numbers from a mean to a magnificent condition. But have not all theſe riches been ſpun out of our own bowels! What princely revenues center in few hands by the calamities of war? What immenſe eſtates are daily acquired by circulating the millions upon millions through the exchequer!

However great gainers our Eaſt India company may become at preſent, their riſk ſeems to be proportionate in its conſequences, ſince they have commenced a kind of military company inſtead of a trading one. Be that as it may happen, the author is of opinion, that a commercial corporation might trade with greater certainty elſewhere, and perhaps with no leſs advantage, than they may expect altogether from the Eaſt, and promote the proſperity of the nation at the ſame time they did their own——But this is not my preſent buſineſs; that is chiefly to promote a further COMMERCIAL UNION between GREAT BRITAIN and her AMERICAN COLONIES and PLANTATIONS.

It is a doubt with many wiſe men, whether it is probable that the immenſe extent of territory acquired by this nation at the late peace, will operate towards the proſperity or the ruin of the iſland of Great Britain?

It has been long ago agreed upon by perſons of reaſon and obſervation, that it is not the extent of a country, but the number of inhabitants in proportion to its extent, that conſtitutes the opulence of a nation. The obſervation has not been found to be erroneous from experience.

So extenſive now are our American colonies, that they ſeem to threaten us with an evil not only dangerous but ruinous, viz. depopulation. Settling ſmall colonies may do ſuch ſervices as to counterballance an inconſiderable loſs of people; but ſettling vaſt tracts may exhauſt the mother-country of its inhabitants, and prove deſtructive. Letting a little blood may be not only harmleſs occaſionally, but ſalutary to the human body; yet exceſſive bleeding will as certainly kill as any diſeaſe to which it is liable. 'Tis not neceſſary to ſpend time by enumerating the various ways in which our colonies drain us of our people. Men of rank or wealth, who have obtained grants of lands, ſpare no pains to inveigle them away in crowds to ſettle their ſeveral

poſſeſſions,

poſſeſſions, becauſe without people what are theſe poſſeſſions worth? Multitudes go away of their own accord, allured by the enchanting proſpect of wealth; and either never return at all, or return in a frail diſeaſed ſtate, unfit for propagation. We ſuffer no inconſiderable loſs in the many thouſands of ſeamen and ſoldiers, which muſt now be ſent to all parts of the known world, to annoy our enemies in time of war, and to protect our friends in time of peace.

In proportion as the number of hands is leſſened, the price of labour, and the firſt coſt of our exported commodities muſt be increaſed; at the very ſame time the quantity of thoſe commodities muſt decreaſe, and the gain upon them centering here, muſt be diminiſhed by the two concurrent cauſes.

If, therefore, a trade to our plantations be highly profitable, we ought to be the more concerned, leſt by driving the matter too far, we leave next to nobody at home to trade with them.

The advantage is in danger of being loſt another way. Our plantations are becoming ſo extenſive, that it is probable they will ſpeedily ſet up manufactures of their own, and be our rivals inſtead of our cuſtomers. With this have they not lately threatened the mother kingdom, and indeed carried their deſign in a great meaſure into execution? Our commodities might not be ſufficient for them to conſume, as they augment in people; and they will be too coſtly for them to purchaſe, as growing dearer and dearer, as we grow leſs and leſs populous.

The only thing by which it has been ſaid it is retarded is, that as lands are cheap in America, and labour dear, it is a more immediate and ſure way for a family to get bread by cultivating the ground, than by fabricating goods which may be brought from Great Britain; but if at no cheaper a rate than they can fabricate them, can we ſuppoſe they will neglect ſo doing?

But this will ſoon be at an end: they will ſtrike into manufacturing, both from the number of people ſettled in places near the ſea, and from the unſatiable avarice of the proprietors of land, who will not part with them but at a very great profit. Nothing hath ſtood in the way hitherto, but the difficulties which attend the firſt ſetting up manufactures in every country. Whenever intereſt or neceſſity, therefore, ſhall overcome thoſe difficulties, it is eaſy to foreſee what an amazing and rapid progreſs will be made in every branch of manufacture, by an enterprizing and induſtrious people, as the North Americans in particular are.

We have had a confirmation of this, by the number of manufacturers who have gone, and are daily encouraged to go lately from different parts of the kingdom to America. It hath been ſaid, that a large number of ſtocking-weavers are gone from Nottingham, and that ſeveral different branches of manufactures have been ſet up in New England and in many of the other of our continental colonies, in conſequence of the ſtamp act. From what we have lately experienced, and the loſs Great Britain hath thereby ſuſtained, we have too much reaſon to apprehend the abilities in our North Americans to ſupply themſelves amply with every ſpecies of manufactures with which they ſhall ſtand in need. For what material for the purpoſe can they want, in territories from the extent of the Gulph of Mexico to the North Pole, with little exception? And their extent weſtward we are unacquainted with.

That we have been long apprehenſive of their ſetting up manufactures, and therewith to ſupply themſelves, appears by ſeveral of our acts of parliament to reſtrain them from ſo doing. To do this to the mutual intereſt both of the mother country and her plantations, herein conſiſt the difficulty of legiſlation.

Before we think of that point, it may be proper to examine another circumſtance in our ſituation with regard to the colonies, viz. our excluſive right to trade with them. It may be ſaid, let them be as extenſive as you pleaſe; let them ſet up as many manufactures as they ſhall think proper; ſtill their trade will be valuable, and it is wholly confined to this iſland; they are not permitted to carry on buſineſs with any other nation but through the medium of Great Britain. But what ſignifies a trade, if it comes to be a loſing trade? And that, from ſome of the above conſiderations, it may be ſooner than we are aware of.

Whenever they can ſupply themſelves with manufactures they will have no need of us; moſt of the luxuries and delicacies of life they can get nearer home from one another, they being, indeed, a kind of world amongſt themſelves in their variety of climates.

Beſides, this excluſive right to trade with them may operate ſlowly and ſilently indeed, but conſtantly, and at laſt fatally, to our prejudice. There is much ſelfiſhneſs in human nature; and it will be, nay, probably it has been, A TEMPTATION TO US NOT TO MAKE OUR MANUFACTURES AS GOOD AND AS CHEAP AS POSSIBLE TO PROCURE VOLUNTARY PURCHASERS, becauſe we THINK WE CAN SEND THEM TO THOSE WHO ARE OBLIGED TO TAKE THEM.

Let no man think this a ſlight circumſtance, or of no moment. The moral cauſes, ſays Monteſquieu, of the thriving or the decay of a nation, viz. ſuch as ariſe from the tempers or principles of the people, the ſpirit of their conſtitution, or the ſituation with regard to others, are unſpeakably more powerful than occaſional cauſes, ſuch as war, famine and peſtilence, or their contraries. The reaſon is plain——The effect of thoſe which he calls moral cauſes, though impracticable, is *univerſal and perpetual*. If, therefore, our excluſive right to trade to our plantations, tempts us to truſt or lean too much to it, it may ſink under the weight, and prove the cauſe of our deſtruction.

Another conſequence of our excluſive trade is, that our merchants will import from other nations what they can export to the Britiſh plantations with advantage. Such commodities paſſing through our hands make a great parade of commerce; and yet add next to nothing to OUR STRENGTH OR NUMBERS, AND NOT SO MUCH TO OUR WEALTH AS MAY PERHAPS BE SUPPOSED. Does not this, at leaſt, ſhow that our poſſeſſions may have the ſame effect upon us, that the conqueſt of Mexico and Peru had upon the Spaniards, who have become poor by means of the gold and ſilver mines? We may ſlacken our own induſtry, and ſupply our plantations by the induſtry of other nations. Great men and great merchants, who have eſtates and properties abroad, may make a ſplendid figure for a time, while the body of the kingdom is gradually loſing its nouriſhment, and falling into an incurable conſumption.

The ſpirit of commerce is of a very nice and delicate nature——It is of a very ſubtile and penetrating nature. The reaſon is the ſame for both. It is animated and conducted entirely by the intereſt of individuals: ſo that unleſs this happens to coincide with the public good, one part of the nation muſt be indefatigable in bringing on the ruin of the whole. Wherever intereſt leads, or ſeems to lead, trade will force its way over all obſtructions; neither can it almoſt be forced to go another way. Do we not daily hear of great outcries againſt theſe mercenary wretches, who, for the ſake of private gain, will ſuck the very blood of the poor, and riot in the ſpoils of their country?

Nothing but mutual intereſt can knit and cement mankind together in ſociety. Without this, ten thouſand legiſlatures conſtantly employed could not deviſe the means, and an hundred thouſand judges could not enforce the execution. The ſpirit of all laws on the commerce of a people, muſt be to make public and private intereſt not only really, but apparently and evidently the ſame.

Whence it follows, that an excluſive trade, preſerved by force againſt the inclinations of the people concerned, cannot be carried very far, and cannot continue very long. While we ſerve our plantations with as GOOD COMMODITIES, AND AS CHEAP as other people, we may expect they will chearfully trade with us: ſo ſoon as we either will not, or cannot do this, they will uſe every poſſible means either to ſupply themſelves, or be

ſupplied

ſupplied from another quarter. The Spaniards have the excluſive trade to their own colonies; and yet there are few branches from which we derive greater profit than an illicit trade with the Spaniſh ſettlements. If we are ſo partial to ourſelves, as to trample upon every law, and every national engagement, when we hope to do it with impunity or profit, why ſhould we expect others to be more honeſt than ourſelves, or that our colonies will continue to trade with us longer than it is their intereſt to do ſo? For this reaſon we ſhould bend all our force to the improvement of our own country, by increaſing the number, ſobriety and induſtry of its inhabitants. If there be any defect here, the moſt valuable diſtant ſettlements will do us no good; and if there be a viſible diſproportion between our colonies and our abilities to trade with them, upon juſt and equal terms, the more they are enlarged, the ſooner ſhall we be deſtroyed. —— All this, and much more might be ſaid with regard to our preſent large poſſeſſions in America. If thoſe fears are quite groundleſs, ſo much the better for us and our poſterity; but do they not carry too much weight with them to be treated with indifference? If they merit the moſt candid conſideration, as they certainly do, it were to be wiſhed, that the beſt means were pointed out for retarding our ruin as much, and as long as may be, if we cannot totally prevent it.

Without the mother country ſhall make it for the intereſt of her colonies and plantations to purchaſe her manufactures in preference to thoſe of all other rival nations, can it be reaſonably expected that our coloniſts will not rather become buyers of thoſe of our rivals, that are ſo much cheaper than Engliſh? We cannot expect a ſtop will be put to ſmugling in our Britiſh plantations any more than in Great Britain, while this diſproportion of prices continues.

Could Old Spain ſupply their American colonies with all the manufactures for which they have occaſion, as cheaply as they can purchaſe them of other European powers, would not there be an end of ſmuggling in the Spaniſh Indies? For people are not diſpoſed to run occaſional hazards of loſs, where they can ſupply their wants wholly without ſuch hazards.

Until, therefore, the Engliſh manufactures ſhall come as cheap to Britiſh coloniſts as thoſe they can obtain from our competitors, can we ſuppoſe that they will not give them the preference? If ſuch ſevere laws are made, that they ſhall not be able to obtain them, is it not natural to believe they will ſet up manufactures wherewith to ſupply themſelves on the continent of America? They are not deficient in one part or other of thoſe extenſive colonies in any materials for the purpoſe; and that to what extent they pleaſe; if they once reſolve ſo to do, they moſt certainly will ſo do, ſooner or later, if not timely otherwiſe diverted, let us amuſe ourſelves as we may with contrary notions. And if once they experience the benefits of ſo doing, can we flatter ourſelves that they will not become our rivals in the very ſtaple manufactures of this kingdom, more eſpecially in the Spaniſh Weſt India trade? When they were able to become ſuch, is it impoſſible that they ſhould ſupply the Spaniſh flota and galleons, or have a due ſhare therein as well as any European nation?

What can obſtruct this but the ſuperior dearneſs of North American manufactures? If this ſhall be the great impediment, can we imagine that they themſelves will not be actuated by the ſame motives to ſet up manufactures for their own ſupply at leaſt, ſince they daily experience the diſadvantage of doing otherwiſe?

That North America will daily grow more and more populous there can be no doubt, from all parts of Europe: and if they ſhall have plenty of people, as they have plenty of land to cultivate, what hinders but they may ſtrike deeply into all the manufacturing arts? Will not plenty of people, and plenty of land, render every thing elſe plenty? And if the Coloniſts ſhall find, that by the manufactural arts they can ſave the ſhare of property, which they now ſend out of the colonies for manufactures, how long can we ſuppoſe they will ceaſe to do ſo? If once manufactures take deep root amongſt them, and they experience thereby a currency of caſh inſtead of paper, may not their paper currency gradually approach nearer and nearer to a par with ſterling money? Will not this render the price of their manufactures cheaper and cheaper? Will they not ſoon fall to a price with thoſe which they at preſent take from the mother kingdom? And when this comes to be the caſe, how long after can we preſume that they will continue the importation of a ſingle manufacture from England? We muſt believe this beneficial part of our trade will ſoon abſolutely ceaſe.

Though the New England currency may now be at 525, New York 160, Penſylvania 170, Maryland paper currency 220, South Carolina 750, and North Carolina 1000 *per cent.* ſterling; yet that neither can, nor will be any long obſtruction to manufacturing, when once they commence in earneſt. For if they will content themſelves to wear their own manufactures, be they at firſt ever ſo ordinary, they will find themſelves grow more and more wealthy, as well as their people more and more expert in the manufacturing arts; whereby they will find the paper currency realized as they increaſe in wealth, and the conſequence will be, that they then will have manufactures full as cheap, if not cheaper than they at preſent can thoſe of England.

'Tis to be feared there is a deception in this point of dearneſs of things at preſent in North America, by which we are led to think, that they will not, becauſe of ſuch dearneſs, attempt manufacturing for themſelves. The deception ſeems to ariſe from an Engliſhman's conſideration of their paper currency. For if 1000*l.* in North Carolina is only equal to 100*l.* in England, then twenty ſhillings a day paper currency is equal only to two ſhillings Engliſh. Now, if a manufacturer can purchaſe as much of the neceſſaries of life for twenty ſhillings paper currency, as he now can in England for two ſhillings a day ſterling, why ſhould he not be as well contented in America as in England? And if a ſuit of cloaths ſhall coſt 50*l.* of paper currency for what we can purchaſe in England for 5*l.* is the man in a worſe ſituation in America than he is in England?

As England hath increaſed in manufactures and commerce, hath not the value of money grown leſs and leſs; and why ſhould it not do the like amongſt the Americans? Do we not know that this hath been the ſtate of all the trading nations of the world? As they have all had their ebbs and their flows, the time may come that 1000*l.* Engliſh paper currency may be only equal to 100*l.* of American hard money, if England ſhall decline in her manfactures and commerce, as America may advance?

If this ſhould ever come to paſs, will not the value of lands in Great Britain dwindle to the worth of money at preſent in America? Does not a matter of this weight and importance merit the ſerious attention of Britiſh legiſlation?

Should it be ſaid, that if the Britiſh colonies, we mean throughout theſe obſervations, chiefly thoſe on the continent, ſhould ceaſe to take our manufactures, in conſequence of ſupplying themſelves wholly therewith, and, perhaps, becoming our rivals in our very ſtaple fabrics, that we ſhall deſiſt in our turn from taking any of their produce; ſeeing we can have every thing abſolutely neceſſary that we now have from thence from European ſtates, particularly from the Eaſt countries.

This may be ſaid. But it is little ſatisfaction to be rather drained by Europe than America. The queſtion with us is, whether we could, when we had loſt our exports to America, ſuſtain the ſuppoſed drain from any other parts of Europe? And if we could not afford this drain for naval ſtores of every kind, as when we had loſt our navigation to and from America we ſhould not want, nor could we bear it, Great Britain would decline in wealth and power as Britiſh America would riſe in both? How long after the loſs of our commercial con-

nections with our plantations ſhould we be able to pay intereſt to our foreign, or indeed our Britiſh public creditors?

Hence it ſhould ſeem, that if the colonies ſupply themſelves with manufactures, and we ſhould continue to be ſupplied by them with what we at preſent take from them, that the ballance of trade muſt inevitably turn highly to our diſadvantage, even with our own colonies: and if this comes to be the ſtate of trade between Great Britain and her plantations, will they not be inſtrumental to exhauſt the mother kingdom of her treaſures no leſs than the Eaſt countries have hitherto done? Will not this ſo aggrandize thoſe colonies as the ſooner to enable them to fulfill the apprehenſions of many, and become abſolutely independent of Great Britain? And provided we ceaſe to take their product, as they ſhall ceaſe to take our manufactures, will not all intercourſe of commerce be deſtroyed between this kingdom and her colonies? When that is done, will they not be left to ſet up for themſelves, and what can then hinder their becoming a flouriſhing and potent empire? For if we do not trade with them, other nations will, and laugh at us for our ſuperior wiſdom and policy. If we ſhall attempt to compel our iſland colonies to have no trade with their brethren of the continent, will this be reliſhed by either? May it not create ſuch a coalition of intereſts, as to induce them both to unite in one American empire, as independent of the whole world as they would ſoon be of Great Britain; and ſhould not we then be in a fine condition to ſubdue them again to our obedience?

Such kind of a commercial union may not appear altogether of a viſionary aſpect, if we conſider the late union they ſtruck into upon the memorable occaſion of the ſtamp act. Ought not an attempt of this nature ſo to alarm us as to put us on our guard, and incline us to take every wiſe precaution to prevent the like again, leſt it ſhould prove the prelude to one of a more dangerous and formidable nature? For if once a commercial union ſhould take place between the Britiſh continental colonies and the iſlands, to a certain degree, they might think it worth their while, probably, to hazard the loſs of the Britiſh markets for the ſake of the gain ariſing from a general freedom of trade to all other parts of the world. What then may become of the Britiſh navigation to and from America? When that is loſt, will not all our revenues ariſing from our preſent American imports be annihilated; and what will be the ſtate of the public credit of this nation, when ſuch a cataſtrophe ſhall ever happen, will make a true friend to the intereſt of Britain tremble to think of.

The North Americans, as well as Britons, in general have a wiſhful eye upon the trade of Spaniſh America, and we well know that they diſlike every reſtraint thereon; and being now ſituated in the contiguous center, as it were, of the Mexican empire, from our poſſeſſion of the Floridas, our right of trade to the Miſſiſippi, and in the Gulph of Mexico; will not this conſideration be an inducement to the North Americans to cultivate trade with the Mexicans to the utmoſt? While they ſhall remain unable to ſupply the Mexicans with manufactures of their own, will they not uſe every art to have the European manufactures wherewith to ſupply them as cheap as they can obtain them? And will not this prove a prevailing motive with the North Americans to ſet up manufactures firſt, to ſupply their brethren of the Floridas with them, in order to bring in a quantity of ſpecie, and the ſooner enable them to annihilate their preſent paper currency amongſt them? Can the Floridas wiſh to be better ſituated for the purpoſe? And can our more northern coloniſts have a more lucrative temptation to eſtabliſh manufactures that will bring them in ſpecie, inſtead of taking it from them by the importation of Britiſh manufactures, which carries all their money away, and leaves them at preſent little elſe beſides paper? Is it unnatural to believe that our Americans will exert themſelves to partake of the treaſures of Mexico, at the firſt hand, that they may enjoy the whole profits of that money trade to themſelves, inſtead of letting the bulk of it ſlip through their hands for the emolument of the mother country, in conjunction with other nations, whoſe manufactures go by the flota to La Vera Cruz?

The contiguity of our colonies to thoſe of Mexico, may, one day, ſtrike more terror into the Spaniards, than can be done, perhaps, by any European potentate; and may not that be conducive to promote hereafter a commercial union between North America and Spain; the former to furniſh their galloons no leſs than their flota, with North American manufactures, to the excluſion of any ſupply from other ſtates? For the Spaniards knowing that the North Americans want nothing but ſpecie, and the Spaniards being able to furniſh that, and the Americans able in their turn to furniſh them with manufactures, may not ſuch like circumſtances, as well as their near neighbourhood, produce theſe natural effects before ſuggeſted?

If the Spaniards ſhall find it more for their intereſt to deal with the North Americans than the Europeans, and the North Americans more for theirs to cement an intercourſe of trade with them, there can be nothing ſtrained to apprehend extraordinary conſequences hereafter.

The diſcontents that at preſent appear in old Spain, as well as new, have, doubtleſs, their cauſe, and that, perhaps, a more influential and important one, than the idle ſtories we have had already concerning the troubles in that nation and their Spaniſh colonies. The late loſs of the Havanna may have made a deep impreſſion in old Spain, to the diſadvantage of the Spaniſh government there, and why not likewiſe in America? By this time the Peruvians, as well as the Mexicans, may, perhaps, be ripe for a revolt from the conception of a weakneſs in Spaniſh policy to ſuffer the prevalence of the French to promote the late rupture between Great Britain and Spain, which ended in the loſs of their great bulwark of the Spaniſh Indies. Something of this kind ſeems to have taken deep root amongſt the old Spaniards in Europe, ſeeing we hear of the revival of the proverb amongſt them, *paz con Angleterra con todos otros la guerra.* And does not this idea ſeem to be confirmed by the voice of the people, who have ſhown, and ſtill continue to ſhow, great reſpect to the Britiſh ambaſſador, and leſs than uſual to the French? Our accounts ſay, that the people are for rooting out all French faſhions, and introducing thoſe of England more and more. Theſe things may forebode ſome other conſequences not at a great diſtance poſſibly. And if the Spaniards ſhould be induced to call for the aid of the Britiſh North Americans, will not the North Americans then diſcern their important ſervice to the Spaniards? For they can have no immediate aſſiſtance in Mexico now, but from the Engliſh in North America.

Should our coloniſts once experience this, they will know how greatly the Spaniards are in their power; for thoſe neighbours who may prove of great ſervice on extraordinary occaſions, may alſo become great enemies, in conſequence of the fluctuating events of things. North America grows daily more and more populous, wealthy and potent, and they muſt inevitably become formidable. When that comes to paſs, may not theſe Americans be able to make a conqueſt of the Havanna, even without the aid of Great Britain? Their adjacency, as well in the Gulph of Florida as that of Mexico, will certainly adminiſter great advantage for ſuch an enterprize, as they increaſe in ſtrength. And to what degree might they not exert themſelves to obtain a prize of ſo invaluable a nature? For if once they obtain it, 'tis to be queſtioned, whether they will ever be prevailed on to give up ſuch a treaſure, if they aim at becoming an empire independant of Britain. And how will Spain be able to recover it out of their hands?

Here preſents a ſcene that may deſerve conſideration. For the key of the Spaniſh American treaſure will be no little temptation to thoſe Americans to ſtruggle hard to become maſters of it. And if a commercial union ſhould take place, for the reaſons before urged, between our North American colonies and our preſent

American

American iſlands, might not their conjoint power bid fair for ſuch conqueſt, notwithſtanding the aſſiſtance of the impotent Engliſh to prevent it, when they ſhall have loſt their American trade and navigation?

From theſe few reflections, it ſeems as if our territorial acquiſitions to the ſouthward of the American continent may be attended with ſtill greater and greater power, ſhould they ever become independent of their mother ſtate. And may not this conqueſt of the Havanna prove the eſtabliſhment of a very formidable new commercial empire in the American world? The great motive to the North Americans to ſet up manufactures of every kind, would be the proſpect of a ready vent for their wares of all kinds, no leſs than furniſhing themſelves amply therewith. And what better proſpect could they deſire, when maſters of the Havanna, than the ſupply of all Mexico and Peru with the manufactures they want? The Mexicans and Peruvians will purchaſe them much cheaper from the North Americans than they now do from the Spaniards, ſeeing there would be no exorbitant indulto impoſed on their manufactures outwards, that ſo extravagantly enhance their price to the Spaniſh Indies at preſent.

As there may be a revolution in the Britiſh plantations and colonies in America, unleſs due care in time is taken to prevent it; ſo likewiſe there may be one in the Spaniſh Indies to ſhake off their preſent dependency. Mexico and Peru may become diſtinct empires, kingdoms or ſtates, and may not be indifferent to commercial alliances with the North Americans, who, if they cultivate manufactures, and are once poſſeſſed of the Havanna, would be the beſt able to furniſh them with all they wanted for their money.

On the northern parts of the American continent, and its various iſland-dependencies thereon, as ceded to the crown of Great Britain, by the peace concluded in the year 1763, there offers another ſcene from whence great power may ariſe to the continental coloniſts. Should North America change maſters, alter their form of government, and ſet up for themſelves, it is not unnatural to ſuppoſe that they would extirpate not only the French wholly from the Newfoundland fiſheries, but the Engliſh, and monopolize them ſolely to their own uſe, if they ſhould ever be able; or oblige all who ſhall enjoy the privilege of fiſhing on the borders of any of their dependent dominions to become tributaries to them for ſuch privilege.

North America abounding with timber for ſhip-building, and New England and New York built-ſhips already not being of a deſpicable kind, but purchaſed occaſionally by the merchants of London and the iſland colonies, as great numbers are built for mere ſale, which are ſent to England and our iſlands for that purpoſe. They have all manner of materials for ſhip-building very cheap, and excellent timber, as alſo maſts and yards merely for cutting; ſo that they build ſhips to very great advantage. Their ſhips alſo have the reputation of being well built, are good ſea boats, and ſtrong bottoms: they have not heretofore, indeed, proved always the beſt ſailors, but that hath been owing to their building ſo very ſtrong; but they have greatly improved in this branch, and will, doubtleſs, excel herein as well as any other part of the world.

The colonies alſo of Virginia and Maryland are as well furniſhed with timber and plank, and all ſorts of materials for ſhip-building, as New England and New York, though they have deſtroyed infinitely more for clearing the land, their plantations being exceeding large, and extended ſo far over the country.

They indeed have not applied ſo much to ſhip-building as the New England people do, nor has it been ſo well worth their while; the planting of tobacco having hitherto been their chief care, and taken up all their hands, which hath occaſioned them to buy ſo many negro ſlaves, beſides tranſported felons from England, and all the other white ſervants, which they have got volunteers from England, and eſpecially from Scotland and Ireland, which have been a prodigious number.

But, as it ſeems that their tobacco trade of late hath not turned to ſo good account, they may, and doubtleſs will betake themſelves to other branches, and amongſt the reſt, doubtleſs to ſhip-building. For this is at any time in their power to extend. They build, at preſent, all their own ſloops, which, as they are ſo highly uſeful, that no plantation of any conſideration can be without them, as well to carry their tobacco and other product down the creeks and ſmaller rivers to the ſhips which are loading for England, or for the iſlands, and to land and bring home their returns of goods from the ſaid ſhips; 'tis ſcarce credible what a number of them are employed in this buſineſs, ſome ſmall, ſome large, that carry goods from one plantation to another, from 50 to 150 hogſheads; and theſe are loaded oftentimes with proviſions for the Weſt Indies, and bring back rum, ſugar and melaſſes, for the ſupply of the country, as is done in the other colonies. The number of ſhips employed for thoſe purpoſes is ſo great, that it would appear incredible; but there is no doubt of there being many thouſands of them, ſmall and large, the conſtant building of which makes the people as expert in the art of ſhip-building as any people in Europe.

The ſhip-building that is now going forward in Canada likewiſe, and in all parts of theſe colonies, where they are well ſituated for the purpoſe, and the ports for that convenience being very numerous, this muſt convey an idea to every one, that the art of ſhip-building, by reaſon of the conſtant navigation that is between North America and the iſland colonies, will arrive to great perfection, and that theſe coloniſts may become of themſelves a formidable maritime ſtate or empire: and what ſuch a mighty power may not one day be able to do, who can ſay?

That the idea of a great degree of maritime power muſt, and will certainly ſpring from the conſideration of North America, and their commercial connection with the iſlands, is obvious to every one, who conſiders that they now, and will ſoon have to a much greater degree, the command of the three great gulphs of St. Laurence and its great river, the gulph of Florida, and the gulph of Mexico, and the great river Miſſiſippi. Moreover, the immenſe lake-navigation, as well that of the very numerous great river internal navigation, muſt neceſſarily vaſtly contribute to the ſurprizing increaſe of ſhipping, ſeamen and navigation of every kind amongſt them. 'Tis ſaid, that we have lately authentic accounts from New York, that the ſpirit of adventuring has lately diſcovered the courſe of a river that branches out from St. John's, and extends ſouth-ſouth-eaſt all the way navigable to the confines of Florida, and within twenty miles land carriage of St. Auguſtine, from which great advantages are expected to ariſe.——Ports for ſhip-building they poſſeſs, or can have innumerable, and what can hinder the preſent Britiſh Americans from becoming a formidable maritime potentate? Had the Dutch, the Genoeſe, or the Venetians, any thing comparable to ſuch advantages? Has Great Britain itſelf now ſo many, comprehending every circumſtance that we have with all brevity noticed?

This ſketch of the potentiality of theſe colonies to become very formidable at ſea, ought to alarm this nation with apprehenſions that they actually will do ſo. Nay, we may preſume to ſay, it cannot be otherwiſe. Wherefore, can we be too early on our guard to prevent their growing independent of the Britiſh empire? We certainly cannot, ſince their territories are now ſo immenſe, and they grow daily more and more populous, and this not only at the expence of draining of many other parts of Europe, but at that of hazarding the depopulation of Great Britain in general, and England in particular. For the hardſhips of living, under which the induſtrious poor of England at preſent labour, are motives that drive thouſands continually to America; and the arts of kidnapping people for that purpoſe are ſaid never to have been ſo prevalent, particularly amongſt the artiſans and manufacturers of every denomination. Does not this merit the conſideration of our rulers?

From this view of things, and from the reaſonable indulgence lately given by the legiſlature, in the repeal of the ſtamp act, to the Britiſh Americans, it is no ſmall incitement for the people of England, and elſewhere, to flock away to America.

Since the Americans have deſervedly met with the favour of the Britiſh parliament, and have been moſt graciouſly gratified in what they have ſo warmly requeſted of their mother country to comply with on her ſide, in reſpect to the ſtamp act, we are of opinion, that there are ſome other eſſential compliances, wherein, 'tis conceived, Great Britain ought ſtill further to grant to her American ſubjects; to thoſe in North America in particular; provided a more intereſting commercial union between Great Britain and her colonies is really intended.

That the ballance of trade has been annually ſo much as A MILLION AND AN HALF at leaſt to the diſadvantage of Great Britain, during the laſt war, with the Eaſt countries, will not be diſputed;——and that we at leaſt pay A MILLION AND AN HALF more a year for intereſt money due to our foreign public creditors, is no leſs certain.——That the high prices of our Engliſh commodities at this time is a great obſtruction to our whole European commerce, and that our foreign competitors therein daily avail themſelves at all the European markets, to our unſpeakable detriment, are points likewiſe inconteſtible.

Upon theſe conſiderations, it becomes the wiſdom of this nation to exert every nerve of policy to diminiſh ſuch drains of our treaſures out of the kingdom. With reſpect to the annuity paid to our foreign creditors, there is no way to prevent that but being in a capacity to pay them off as faſt as we poſſibly can; and to contract for the future public debts only within ourſelves, if debts cannot be avoided, that the intereſt money may center in the kingdom, and not exhauſt it of its wealth. But theſe things ſeem to be at a diſtance.

What is in our power to effect immediately, ought not to be delayed, to compenſate for the commercial drains we now experience; and therefore, I would humbly propoſe, that whatever we import from the eaſt countries of Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark, ſhould be raiſed with all poſſible expedition in North America, there being no one thing that we import to our diſadvantage from the ſaid countries, but we may obtain from the continent of America to our advantage.

To this end every reaſonable encouragement ſhould be given by bounties, premiums, &c. to the raiſing of plenty of naval ſtores of every kind in our own plantations, and whatever elſe we take at a diſadvantage from other countries; and as faſt as we can be ſupplied therewith from thence; that we import them from America, and ceaſe to take any thing of that nature from the Eaſt countries, or from other countries, where the ballance of trade is not in our manifeſt favour.

That every encouragement be given to our American fellow ſubjects to ſupply Great Britain with every ſpecies of timber we at preſent take from Norway in particular.

England is certainly now in a capacity to turn the whole channel of the Norway trade from that country to North America, and to ſupply itſelf with fir, timber, balks, ſpars, poles and deal boards from North America, infinitely more to the advantage of the commerce of England in general, than it is ſupplied from Norway, and every way as cheap to the Engliſh purchaſer.

Moſt certain it is, that the trade in deals and timber, as at preſent carried on with Norway, and has been for too many years, is much to the loſs of Great Britain in the ballance of trade, becauſe almoſt all that trade is paid for in hard money, and very few Britiſh goods are taken in part of it; and which is ſtill worſe, the money exported for that purpoſe is generally not foreign ſilver, but Engliſh coin; crowns and halfcrowns, as is well known, have circulated far more plentifully in Norway than in England for many years paſt; the quantity is ſo great, that there is reaſon to believe more money in ſpecie is carried out of Great Britain by the trade to Norway, than by the trade to the Eaſt Indies, however popular the complaint has been of the one more than the other, eſpecially of late years, ſince the ſpirit of houſe-building has been ſo prevalent in this kingdom.

Great part of the Norway trade is carried on in Norway ſhips, navigated by Danes, whereas this trade would be carried on in Britiſh or North American ſhipping, which is all one, and theſe ſhips wholly navigated by Britiſh ſeamen; an advantage very conſiderable, the freight all centering amongſt ourſelves, while we ſhall preſerve a due commercial union with our colonies.

It might be further proved, if we could ſuppoſe that any one could doubt it, that with reſpect to hemp, pitch and tar, flax, and all thoſe things which fall under the name of naval ſtores, which have been ſo long fetched as far as from Riga, Narva, Peterſburgh and Archangel, all might be plentifully raiſed in and they brought from thoſe Engliſh colonies in America, highly to the reciprocal advantage of Great Britain as well as her colonies; and ſo plentifully and cheaply may they be raiſed there, as to vie with the Eaſt countries themſelves, whereby we might re-export quantities to other nations, beſides ſupplying ourſelves cheaper therewith than we ever have done.

Nay it is equally certain, or this nation has many years been moſt ſhamefully duped and impoſed upon, that we might long ago have raiſed RAW SILK in North America; but it is not to be queſtioned at preſent we may, as our territories have extended ſo much to the ſouthward of that continent. And if the prohibition of foreign wrought ſilks ſhall happily take place, and we ſhall likewiſe be able amply to furniſh ourſelves from our colonies with raw ſilk, and manufacture the whole up in Great Britain, the difference may be above TWO MILLIONS PER ANNUM advantage to the Britiſh empire. We cannot import ſo little in value of foreign wrought ſilk, either legally or illegally of every kind, as to the value of a million ſterling annually, as obſerved, and the difference between purchaſing foreign wrought ſilks and ſupplying ourſelves therewith, will make a difference to the nation of double the ſum.——To which muſt be added the expected benefit of furniſhing ourſelves from America with raw ſilk, inſtead of buying it from Turky, Italy and Perſia, by way of Ruſſia, which will ſtill conſiderably more augment our national emolument.

That we may be alſo furniſhed with plenty of wines of divers kinds from America is not to be doubted; I mean from the continent. But if that ſhould never prove the caſe, 'tis certain that we may be furniſhed amply from our ſugar colonies, if proper meaſures were taken for that purpoſe, the baſis of all wines being a ſaccharine ſubſtance, as the learned Doctor Shaw has proved.

In a word, there is no impartial man, who is well informed in the preſent ſtate of Britiſh America, but will allow we import a great variety of very coſtly particulars from Europe and other parts, that we might eaſily have for luxury no leſs than utility and convenience from our colonies, either from the continent or from our iſlands, to the mutual benefit of both Britain and her colonies.

One principal reaſon that may have been aſſigned for the neglect of this hitherto, is, that if we encouraged our plantations too much upon the old ſyſtem, we might and ſhould have loſt as much in the diminution of our exports to ſeveral European countries, as we gained by ſupplying ourſelves with variety of imports from our colonies: whatever weight ſuch reaſon might have, we ſay, upon the old ſyſtem of conduct between us and the colonies, and when we were leſs incumbered with public debts and taxes, and when our commodities and manufactures in general were conſiderably cheaper, and our European trade was far leſs injured by competitors: however ſubſtantial ſuch arguments might be heretofore, when our colonies were not ſo greatly extended, and not ſo capable of furniſhing our wonted imports, that reaſon which held good formerly

merly, when we were differently circumſtanced, has loſt all its force in our preſent ſituation; and the fullneſs of time ſeems to be come, which renders it now good policy to ſave every particular ballance of trade we pay, to enable the nation to get rid of its tax-incumbrances as expeditiouſly as we can; and we are of opinion that our colony trade rightly regulated, may be made the great foundation of ſo doing. Should this be happily effected, our colonies may prove the ſalvation, inſtead of the ruin and deſtruction of Great Britain: our vaſt continental and other colony acquiſitions may then anſwer the deſireable end of a laſting mutual proſperity.

However heretofore the power and dignity of the Britiſh empire hath been pretty happily ſuſtained, before the laſt two wars, when our debts and taxes were not much above one-third part of what they now are; however this nation has, by the dint of a ſtupendous ſcene of paper credit and paper currency, hitherto held up its commercial head, we cannot reaſonably preſume to do ſo long under the national burdens we at preſent are obliged to bear; unleſs every diſadvantageous channel of trade is ſtopped up, and every beneficial one ſhall be opened; and that of the colonies, 'tis humbly apprehended, may be made ſubſervient to our national ſupport, notwithſtanding our load of tax-incumbrances is ſwelled to an enormous magnitude; to a magnitude, I am perſuaded, far greater than has been duly conſidered.

The neat income of taxes perpetuated, till the redemption or reduction of the public debt, into the exchequer, does not amount to ſo little as FIVE MILLIONS A YEAR; and the groſs produce for the receipts and iſſues of charges of management upon this occaſion only does not come to leſs than twenty *per cent.* upon the neat revenue, which makes another MILLION for the collection and diſtribution of ſo large a dead national burthen on the ſtate.——It is reckoned by the beſt judges in the kingdom, that we do not owe leſs than one-third part of the public debt to foreigners, and conſequently that we are not tributaries to them for leſs than ONE MILLION AND AN HALF PER ANNUM as Britiſh annuitants, which is a conſtant drain of treaſure upon the nation.

By the account now before me delivered into parliament the 13th day of March 1766, of the money given for the ſervice of the year 1765, it amounts to the ſum of 7,969,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* together with deficiencies of grants for the current ſervice of the ſaid year 1765; which being added to the ſaid SIX MILLIONS, make 13,769,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* raiſed in time of peace, excluſive of his majeſty's CIVIL LIST REVENUE for the ſupport of his houſehold and the honour and dignity of the crown; which, if further added, will make the whole 14,569,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* beſides ſome other public expences we ſhall paſs over, beſides that great one in the raiſing and iſſuing the ſaid ſum of 7,969,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* which is extravagantly large, as I could ſhow.

If it be conſidered, that we further expend yearly, according to reaſonable eſtimation, not leſs than A MILLION AND AN HALF more by the poor's tax; what is alſo expended annually in all other parochial taxes together, it can hardly amount to ſo little as HALF A MILLION yearly more, which will make a total of 16,569,337 *l.* 12 *s.* 1 *d.* without reckoning any thing for the annual expences of TURNPIKE ROADS, which is alſo a charge on our commerce, as well on our foreign, as our domeſtic; which, that we may not be ſuppoſed to exaggerate, we will exclude from the total of our accumulated charges upon the national trade of this kingdom, which is the great fund of the public treaſure.

Now, let it be conſidered, diſpaſſionately conſidered, what may be preſumed to be the amount of the arbitrary enhancements of the public expence levied upon the whole traffic of the kingdom by ſo enormous a revenue.——From the example before given, it muſt certainly amount to ſomething very conſiderable, occaſioned thereby; and muſt inevitably raiſe the price of all things conſumable throughout the nation, by the way of trade and commerce; and this muſt proportionably affect the foreign no leſs than the inland trade of the whole Britiſh empire.——It may look too invidious to attempt any ſort of eſtimate of this matter, ſince the bulk of the arbitrary enhancements upon the general trade, in conſequence of ſuch an immenſe taxation, muſt be ſo very extraordinary, ſeeing it may be ſaid, we will ſuppoſe, that the chief part circulates and centers in the nation. But notwithſtanding that, as our domeſtic commerce alone will not enrich the ſtate, nor add any great matter to the maritime power of the kingdom without foreign trade; if our general foreign trade be ſo highly loaded with tax-incumbrances, moſt certainly ſuch an oppreſſive load muſt neceſſarily affect every foreign branch, as hath been ſhown, by raiſing the prices of all Engliſh commodities and manufactures to a degree that renders them unpurchaſeable in foreign countries, by reaſon of their exceſſive dearneſs, when compared with thoſe of rivals; and therefore can we reaſonably hope and expect to preſerve our foreign trade while this ſhall be the caſe?

In a word: the whole tax-incumbrances upon our trade (for there the whole terminates, that being now our great fund of property) comprehending all our arbitrary enhancements upon enhancements, cannot amount to near ſo little as TWENTY MILLIONS *per annum*. And if one moiety only of that immenſe tax-burthen was abſolutely annihilated, what an extraordinary eaſement would not this prove to the whole commerce and navigation of England? Would it not enable us to ſell our wares and manufactures in general to foreigners as cheap as any other nation? Who will take upon him to demonſtrate the contrary? Perſuaded I am, that if only all our appropriated and perpetuated taxes were juſtly and equitably aboliſhed, that pay intereſt money for the public debts, and thereby ſend a million and an half a year out of the nation as tributary debtors; perſuaded is the writer, if this was effectually done, conſiſtent with the preſervation of the public faith and credit, that we ſhould be able to ſell our goods as cheap at foreign markets as any nation in Europe.

This being the ſimple and unexaggerated ſtate of our enormous expence, I would pray leave to aſk, whether under ſuch circumſtances it can be eligible and politic for us to permit of an additional drain of treaſure of A MILLION AND AN HALF that we pay to the Eaſt countries, in our intercourſe of trade with them to our diſadvantage? For if we are tributaries to our foreign national fund-creditors to the amount annually of A MILLION AND AN HALF; and we pay a ballance of trade likewiſe to Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark, to the amount of A MILLION AND AN HALF more; will not this exhauſt the nation of THREE MILLION a year of the public wealth? Can we, under our preſent circumſtances, afford to ſuffer ſuch great outgoings? I ſhould be glad to know what certain national recruits we have conſtantly to ſupply ſuch large exhauſtions of treaſure?

The immenſe fortunes that have been acquired during the two laſt wars, have bloated the nation with fund-credit to an enormous degree, which hath centered amongſt a few families only, compared with the whole of the people. And becauſe our large fund-treaſures have ſo greatly ſwelled; and thoſe paper-credit-mongers make ſo ſplendid a parade, by their wealth wrung out of the bowels of the kingdom, inſtead of being brought into it, by fair and honeſt traffic with foreign ſtates and empires, we are dazzled with the gaudy and tinſel appearances. Of what, I aſk? Of PAPER-PROPERTY, PAPER-CIRCULATION, and PAPER-CREDIT: of theſe, indeed, we are full; we overflow. But what is all this ſhow of riches but the ſhadow of that ſolid wealth with which we have hitherto parted for fairy treaſures? Upon what a foundation this magnificent ſyſtem of paper-wealth ſtands, we may eaſily diſcern, from what hath been ſaid in theſe few ſheets. With what deſign do you aſk? The writer will frankly and honeſtly tell you. With a deſign that the maladies of the nation may be probed to the root: to the end that they may be radically cured, not ſkinned over only, as they have too long been, to feſter, gangrene, and break out in a ſtate of incurability.

We have ſeen the potentiality of our colonies to become capable of ſupplying this nation with many of thoſe valuable and expenſive imports we at preſent take from other nations at a diſadvantage; it is to be hoped, that the conduct of the colonies themſelves will enable the mother-ſtate to render them actually ſo.

It is apparently the preſent diſpoſition of the legiſlature, and, indeed, that of the whole kingdom in general, to adopt every meaſure that will promote the intereſt of the colonies: but this ſpirit of indulgence, if no equivalent returns ſhall be made on the ſide of the coloniſts, will ſoon diſable Great Britain from a continuance of thoſe indulgences. She will be compelled, from the principle of ſelf-preſervation, to contract, inſtead of inlarge and extend them; or what is ſhe about? Is ſhe not purſuing direct ways and means to render herſelf an impotent and beggarly nation, to raiſe her colonies to that ſtate of aggrandizement which has been repreſented, the ſooner? Will not ſuch conduct in this nation tend to make the colonies great and formidable at her expence and ruin; provided the colonies ſhall not, without a moment's delay, manifeſt their intention to return reciprocal advantages to the mother ſtate? The deſireable commercial union cannot be duly cemented between them, unleſs it is fixed upon the baſis of mutual intereſt and advantage: without this, it is impoſſible it ſhould be of any duration.

It remains then only to be conſidered, how and in what manner the colonies ſhall as effectually evince their regard to the mother kingdom as that has already done towards them? Every man will anticipate the anſwer, becauſe quite natural and unſtrained. The colonies deſire this kingdom to give their trade every ſort of encouragement, and take off every reſtraint thereon, that the coloniſts apprehend diſadvantageous to their riſing power and ſplendor. The mother ſtate rejoices in this promotion, provided they are aſſured that riſe in the colonies ſhall not injure or ruin her, as we have ſeen is not at all improbable. But with what reaſon can the coloniſts expect to be ſuffered to riſe to the pitch of grandeur they are capable of, unleſs the mother-ſtate ſhall riſe at the ſame time? If the riſe and magnificence of the Britiſh Colonies ſhall have any tendency to the impoveriſhment and deſtruction of Great Britain, is it not the intereſt of Great Britain to keep them in a ſtate of poverty, inſtead of elevate them to that independent wealth and power? The colonies have experienced the tenderneſs and affection of an indulgent parent. How ſhall they manifeſt their returns of duty and ſenſibility? If they do not, muſt they not look for an increaſe of obſtacles to their advancement, rather than further indulgencies to it? This is common policy, dictated by the ſovereign principle of God and nature.

We muſt preſume, that none are more ſenſible of this than the coloniſts themſelves; and that we cannot require them to grant more grateful returns than they are chearfully diſpoſed to do. What returns can the mother-kingdom require of them, for all paſt advantages received, and to encourage them to grant them more and more? The anſwer, I have ſaid, is natural and obvious. If the colonies expect a continuance of this happy diſpoſition in us to extend our good will and munificence, there is certainly reciprocal obligations due on their part. If this kingdom ſhall be diſpoſed to grant them every encouragement by largeſſes and premiums, to promote their intereſts in agriculture and planting in general, and in THE PRODUCTION OF EVERY THING THAT WE NOW TAKE FROM OTHER NATIONS, AND IMPORT THE SAME FROM THEM, is it not their intereſt to take whatever they can in return of us to compenſate for our outgoings on their account?

They cannot expect that we ſhould hazard the encouraging of them firſt in theſe productions we at preſent take from other nations, and take the ſame, in conſequence of ſuch encouragement from them, unleſs they ſhall think of taking an equivalent from us. This would be unequal; it would be impolitic; it would be reducing ourſelves to an abject ſtate of poverty to make them our maſters, ourſelves their dependent ſlaves; it would abſolutely undo our whole landed and trading intereſt, and deſtroy all hope of future proſperity. This the coloniſts know as well as we do; and cannot be ignorant of what would in ſuch caſe be in their power, and how much it would be out of ours to right ourſelves, ſhould we be ſo infatuated as to conſult their intereſt independent of our own. There ſeems no intention in this kingdom but to do all they can for the benefit of the colonies. This appears now too glaring to be denied; the coloniſts will acknowledge it, not only by words, but every other teſtimonial of gratitude in their power, it is not to be doubted. Our regard has been demonſtrated by actions that ſome think were unbecoming the wiſdom of the Britiſh nation. The writer hereof is of different ſentiments. He judges the repeal of the ſtamp act a right meaſure; and the other ſteps taken for the benefit of the colonies hitherto not altogether wrong: but why does he think ſo? Becauſe he doubts not of becoming returns from the colonies to their mother-country. This is his chief reaſon for adopting this opinion; and he hopes he ſhall not be therein miſtaken by experience.

Was he not morally certain of that, he ſhould think it the moſt impolitic ſtep the Britiſh legiſlature could have taken. From his opinion of the happieſt diſpoſition in our coloniſts to approve themſelves worthy of all regard that this kingdom has ſhown towards them, or ſhall be hereafter induced to ſhow them; he will take the liberty to declare what he thinks to be incumbent on their part to do, without delay, in order to cement that everlaſting COMMERCIAL UNION that he hopes may ſubſiſt between Great Britain and her American territories.

Before he declares himſelf, he deſires, that the reader will pleaſe to recollect what has been already urged.—That the dearneſs of Engliſh commodities and manufactures in general, and therefore the cauſe of our being underſold by our competitors at foreign markets, no leſs than that of ſmuggling in Great Britain, are owing to the weight and oppreſſion of our TAXES IN GENERAL. Wherefore, the writer has recommended the leſſening of our taxes as ſoon as poſſible, in order to lower the prices of our manufactures; to the end, that our American coloniſts, as well as any foreign European ſtate, may purchaſe them at as cheap a rate as they can do thoſe of France or any other rival nation; this being an inducement to the colonies as well as the mother-country to lay aſide ſmuggling.

Till our taxes can be ſufficiently reduced by certain means the writer conceives to be in our power, to enable us to ſell our manufactures upon an equality with our rivals, 'tis to be hoped that our coloniſts will not be averſe to co operate with their mother-country in the reduction of our taxes, as we have ſo readily reduced theirs, and obliged ourſelves to make good the deficiency of the ſuppoſed produce of the late ſtamp-act: ſeeing the mother-country has done this for the colonies, we cannot preſume but the colonies will as readily unite with the mother-country to eaſe her taxes in general. And, indeed, will not the colonies themſelves reap no leſs benefit by ſuch conduct than this kingdom will? Will they not purchaſe our manufactures the cheaper, if the general taxes of Great Britain ſhall be conſiderably reduced? And can they, or will they refuſe to lend their helping hand to forward a work ſo beneficial to themſelves no leſs than to Great Britain?

However impracticable the natural reduction of taxes may appear to ſome; yet the writer is of a contrary opinion; and that one great foundation for its accompliſhment may be laid, by promoting the commercial union he propoſes by theſe papers, between this kingdom and her American plantations. By what means ſuch an advantageous union may be effected, is by the plaineſt and ſimpleſt means; it not requiring any mighty complicated and myſterious ſcheme to bring the ſame to paſs. They are ſo obvious, that every man will, 'tis apprehended, readily diſcern their reaſonableneſs, and acquieſce therein upon the firſt hearing.

The ſhort plan, therefore, that I would propoſe is only as follows: viz. That Great Britain gives effectual encouragement to the colonies to produce whatever we at preſent import from the Eaſt countries; and as faſt as the colonies ſhall be able to afford the ſame, that Great Britain ſhall import them from theſe American colonies.

That Great Britain gives effectual encouragement to her colonies to produce every other ſpecies of materials for manufactures, that we do not, at preſent, import from the Eaſt countries: RAW SILK in particular, together with every OTHER MATERIAL that we import from any other parts of Europe, or elſewhere.

That this kingdom gives effectual encouragement to her colonies for the making of cochineal, and the raiſing every ſpecies of dyeing productions uſed in our manufactures, that we now import from any other parts of the world: alſo cotton and flax in plenty, and whatever elſe we take from other countries that is contained in our WHOLE CATALOGUE OF IMPORTS, where it cannot be demonſtrated that this nation is a gainer by ſuch importations.

That we give effectual encouragement for the productions in our colonies, as well in the iſland as the continental ones, of whatever in general we take for uſe, or convenience, or even luxury, from other ſtates, that will come to us in a little time cheaper than we import them from ſuch other ſtates, either for Britiſh conſumption or for re-exportation to other foreign countries.

What our own extenſive colonies in general may not be able to afford as objects of traffic, is hard to determine: provided, we ſay, that the encouragement we give them ſhall be effectual for the purpoſes of fair and repeated trials and experiments made there for that deſign. And, therefore, it is hard to ſay, what commodities we ſhall ſtand in need of within ourſelves, or for trade with other nations, that cannot be obtained from ſome or other of the preſent Britiſh colonies.

Should we carry this matter to the full extent it will admit of, we may certainly obtain a great variety of materials for manufactures more than we at preſent have; and ſuch, perhaps, with which we are quite unacquainted at preſent. And if theſe are obtained in that great plenty that the extent of our whole American dominions will now allow of, why may we not obtain ſuch materials at a rate as cheap as they can be from any other parts of the globe? They certainly may. When this great point ſhall be gained, the next we ought to aim at is to manufacture them as cheap as any nation under the ſun can do. But how can this be effected but by the ſpeedy annihilation of taxes to their proper degree? By what obvious means one good foundation for this can be obtained, we ſhall next animadvert on.

The ſuppoſed full and adequate encouragements being given to our colonies to raiſe every thing for traffic, that the great variety of climates abound with in America; we mean ſuch materials for Britiſh manufactures as can be raiſed there by agriculture, huſbandry, or planting in every reſpect, that ſhall be experienced to be practicable; and every thing elſe that we ſhall find our intereſt to conſume amongſt ourſelves, or re-export to any where elſe.——This is our general idea, without further expatiation on the matter.

Hereby we ſhall render, perhaps, Great Britain for every ſpecies of imports that we want for domeſtic uſe, convenience or luxury, or re-exportation, in a great meaſure independant, as it were, for imports of any ſort with every other part of the world: We ſay, as we would be ſo underſtood, that if we ſhould judge it politic to encourage our colonies to the full heighth they will admit of, we might have little occaſion for any ſort of foreign imports whatſoever: we might become ſellers to all the world of much more than we yet ever did, and buyers of much leſs. This will ſo inrich the nation as to enable her to reduce HER TAXES, and thereby PERPETRATE THE PROPOSED NATIONAL SYSTEM of COLONY-UNION.

But whatever we did import from any foreign country, ought we not to oblige ſuch foreign country to take an equivalent of our native products and manufactures in return? Or why not ceaſe to have any commercial intercourſe with them? Is it not more eligible to ceaſe to trade with any country, than to carry on a loſing trade with them? We mean, a loſing trade when the ſame ſhall be conſidered in all its circumſtances, relations and connections, with any other branches of trade; for one branch may be a looſing one, and yet that may prove inſtrumental to render ſome other branch or branches more beneficial than they otherwiſe could be, and therefore amply compenſate, or more than do ſo, for any loſs we might occaſionally ſuſtain. So that if we loſe by one branch of trade, yet that very branch giving being to, or tending to render ſome other advantageous, we ſhould not trade to our national injury upon the whole. For we can never expect to get rid of the bulk of our taxes, and preſerve the public faith, but by rendering our particular balances of trade as advantageous as we can, in order to make the general more ſo.

Our colonies then being actually brought to furniſh us as before repreſented, in as ample a manner as ſhall be judged politic on our ſide, we come now to the ſhort queſtion; What conduct ought to prevail amongſt all our coloniſts? To which we anſwer, that as we advance in their encouragement to furniſh us, is it not their intereſt to enable us to pay them for what they ſhall ſo be enabled to furniſh us? Without this, 'tis impoſſible we ſhould either be able to encourage them, and continue our imports from them.

But if our colonies determine one and all, and that alſo in the moſt effectual manner, that they will take and actually ſhall take, all their manufactures from Great Britain, whom they ſhall furniſh with all materials for that purpoſe, inſtead of taking them from the Eaſt countries, or elſewhere, &c. &c. this conduct on the part of the colonies will put Great Britain in a condition to pay them for every ſpecies of materials wherewith they ſhall ſupply them; and every ſort of production, which they at preſent import from any other ſtate, which does not take an equivalent value of Britiſh commodities and manufactures.

That the colonies duly indicate their intention to do this, is it at all unreaſonable, that they ſhould as much as poſſible, deſiſt from, lay aſide and forbear, every ſort of attempt to ſupply themſelves with ſuch manufactures, as they ought in juſtice to take from their mother-kingdom? We are of opinion, that it is incumbent upon the colonies to manifeſt immediately the ſincerity of their intention to lay aſide manufacturing, and that inſtantly, all thoſe manufactures lately ſet up upon the continent, and all other, except ſuch as ſhall be reaſonable to except. But this cannot be effectually evinced by the vague declarations that they have hitherto only made to this kingdom. During the dependence of the reconſideration of the late act before the legiſlature, they forbid their correſpondents in this nation to ſend Britiſh manufactures to America. This was done to ſhow their general diſguſt and diſſatisfaction the ſtamp act had given them: no ſooner was the ſame repealed, than theſe orders were gratefully and politicly countermanded, and the courſe of trade hath partly reverted to its wonted channel.

Notwithſtanding this, in conſequence of our humble opinion to inlarge and cement the commercial union to the degree we have propoſed, and to induce the mother-country to acquieſce in the meaſures ſuggeſted for that purpoſe, ſomething more ſhould ſeem requiſite to be done and performed on the part of the colonies; apprehending what they have hitherto done only to be a ſignificant prelude to what ought to ſucceed; which, we conceive, ſhould be ſomething bordering upon the following conduct, and that is humbly ſubmitted.

That the reſpective colonies in their legal aſſemblies, or by their deputies, authorized to convene for that purpoſe, come to ſomething like theſe reſolutions, viz.

That

That in conſequence of his Majeſty and the Parliament of Great Britain having, in their great wiſdom, been pleaſed to regard the remonſtrances of the Britiſh Americans againſt the late ſtamp-act, and have at their humble requeſt and ſollicitation repealed the ſame, the ſeveral and reſpective colonies have come to the following reſolutions:

1. It is reſolved, by and with the conſent of the ſaid ſeveral and reſpective Britiſh colonies in all his Majeſty's dominions in America: That they have unanimouſly reſolved, in conſequence of the repeal of the ſtamp-act in Great Britain, to make and enact ſuch law and laws in the ſeveral aſſemblies, as ſhall encourage the importation of Britiſh manufactures into the ſaid colonies.

2. It is reſolved, That all manufactures which interfere with the manufactures of Great Britain, and which have been at any time ſet up and eſtabliſhed in the ſaid colonies, ſhall be abſolutely aboliſhed, from and after the day of ——That proper laws be made by the ſeveral aſſemblies belonging to the reſpective colonies; and that all and every of his Majeſty's ſubjects reſiding in the ſaid colonies, ſhall be prohibited from manufacturing, from and after the ſaid day of any houſehold furniture, or wearing apparel of any kind or kinds, *except ſuch as ſhall be excepted, &c. &c. &c.*

3. It is reſolved, That no kind or kinds of manufactures ſhall be ſuffered to be made in the ſaid colonies, excepting ſuch only as have relation to agriculture, huſbandry, or to planting, and the raiſing of all ſuch materials for manufactures, and all ſuch other productions as Great Britain ſhall encourage to be produced within thoſe colonies; and excepting alſo the making of all ſuch utenſils as may be neceſſary *to the building of dwelling houſes, the erecting of plantations, &c. &c. &c.*

4. It is reſolved, That all diſcouragement ſhall be given to the illegal importation by ſmuggling of every kind of French or other foreign manufactures into the Britiſh colonies, purſuant to the laws that are, or ſhall be enacted for that ſalutary purpoſe in theſe colonies and in Great Britain.

5. It is reſolved, That proper meaſures be taken by the Britiſh colonies to repreſent to the parliament of England: that it is their deſire to enlarge and extend the COMMERCIAL UNION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND HER AMERICAN COLONIES, by their giving ſuch encouragement to agriculture and huſbandry, and to planting, and the raiſing of all ſuch other productions, &c. &c. as to their wiſdom ſhall ſeem meet; as well with reſpect to the commerce and navigation between her and her northern colonies, as between Great Britain and her whole American colonies in general.

Something like the preceding reſolutions being ſolemnly agreed upon, and formally and duly repreſented to the parliament of Great Britain, may probably be attended with all the happy conſequences briefly ſet forth in theſe papers. Certain it is, that ſuch meaſures being taken by the colonies, would manifeſt the diſpoſition of the colonies towards their mother-country; and the latter would, doubtleſs, make becoming returns towards ſuch a repreſentation. In a word, by ſuch ſteps as are hereby generally ſignified being taken on both ſides, will naturally bring about thoſe deſirable events aimed at by this diſcourſe. Let it be ſuppoſed, for a moment, that our plantations actually prohibited all manufacturing of houſehold furniture and apparel only; and this kingdom, in conſequence thereof, was only to give effectual encouragement for the productions in America, and the importation from thence of all thoſe ſeveral imports that we at preſent take from the Eaſt countries: this firſt ſtep would conſiderably enlarge our commercial connections with each other. If we look to the additional amount of a million and an half a year from our colonies, this would enable the colonies in their turn to take to the like additional value of our manufactures.

Was this the caſe, would not this create an additional circulation of trade and navigation between this nation and Britiſh America to the amount of THREE MILLIONS A YEAR? Is not this an object deſerving the attention of parliament? What conſiderations relative to the Eaſt countries can induce us to forego ſuch a national emolument? There are no alliances or treaties that we can make with thoſe powers, either in time of peace or war, that can be an equivalent advantage to Great Britain, for the loſs of ſuch a commercial union as theſe meaſures would inevitably produce between this kingdom and her American plantations. For this increaſe of union will be conducive to a further, not only with North America, but between our continental and our iſland colonies; and as the more opulent both grow, the more manufactures will they both be able to take from Great Britain, and inrich her likewiſe, as the commerce will increaſe her breed of ſeamen, and augment her maritime power to a degree far beyond any ſervice we can expect to receive from the Eaſt countries beneficial to theſe kingdoms. Moreover, every addition made to this branch of trade will be our own trade, under our own controul and direction, and will prove the increaſe of our own beſt ſtrength, the increaſe of employment amongſt the induſtrious poor, and the increaſe of our own national treaſure. Wherein can the Eaſt countries, I ſolemnly aſk, benefit Great Britain to ſuch like degree? They may tend, as they have hitherto done, to exhauſt us by ſubſidiary alliances, as well as by their commerce, if we continue in the lethargic ſtate we are in.

Should it be ſaid, that if we decline in our commercial connections with Ruſſia, Sweden and Denmark, our commercial rivals may think it the more politic in them to increaſe in theirs, and adhere alſo to that ſubſidiary ſyſtem we may find it our intereſt to relinquiſh. Let our rivals do this; let them trade with the Eaſt countries to the diſadvantage we have too long done: let them increaſe their ſubſidiary exhauſtions of treaſure, and let them purſue this trade for naval ſtores, &c. &c. to their detriment, while we augment ours with our colonies, to our high advantage; what will the conſequence be? While they ſhall behold us riſing in opulence, maritime ſtrength and ſplendor, by an extended commercial union between us and our colonies: while they ſhall behold this ſcene of proſperity on our ſide, will they not experience themſelves to grow poorer and poorer, and more and more impotent, while this kingdom grows more and more wealthy, potent and formidable? What need we then to dread their cloſeſt connections with the Eaſt countries, when our maritime ſtrength will be a match for their united naval force? Provided, likewiſe, ſome other meaſures ſhall be adopted by the court of England, that we may ſuggeſt, it is the humble opinion of the writer, that Great Britain will have little reaſon to apprehend any kind of injury from the preſumed connections that may probably take place between our competitors and the Eaſt countries.

Another objection that might be made againſt gradually declining in our diſadvantageous trade with the Eaſt countries, as we ſhall augment in that of our colonies, is, that the revenue of cuſtoms will ſuffer by the loſs of our imports from the Eaſt countries. Every one converſant with our ſubject will inſtantly obviate this objection, by obſerving, that the ſame duties will be laid upon the like commodities as gradually imported from our plantations, as at preſent come from the Eaſt countries; and the new duties may be appropriated as the old at preſent are. The revenue, therefore, can ſuſtain no diminution from ſuch a change of conduct; and as to the temporary expence to which the nation may be at firſt put for encouraging premiums, bounties, &c. &c. to the colonies; That when put into the ſcale againſt the national benefits, will be of no weight in the ballance, even with relation to the Eaſt country trade alone. But if the plan be farther extended, even to the production of raw ſilk, cochineal, and every other article of dying ingredients we have imported from other parts, the ballance of national advantages will not be inconſiderably augmented in our favour, without the enumerating a great variety of other imports we take from countries we are leſs beholden to than is generally imagined; that this nation ought to ſtudy how to have them from her American plantations, our circumſtances requiring this

policy to be carried to the utmoſt pitch it is capable of; for if we make the certain benefit and advantage of the kingdom our guide herein, we can never carry the principles upon which we reaſon to too great lengths. The more the colonies ſhall be enabled to take of our manufactures, the more they will take; and the more we ſhall be able to import from them, the more able will they be to increaſe their imports from us; and by this increaſe of commercial intercourſe, our navigation will be proportionably inlarged, by our own unprecarious traffic, independent of the caprice of all foreign ſtates whatever.

Be it ſuppoſed, we add no more than the article of raw ſilk to that of the Eaſt country trade, it will be well worth our while to exert our efforts to accompliſh it. Let the value of the import of raw ſilk be eſtimated, in conjunction with that of foreign wrought European ſilks, legally and illegally imported, at no more together than one million *per annum*; and that by means of our colonies, and the prohibition of European wrought ſilks, our weavers ſhall be enabled to ſupply us therewith, the difference to the kingdom between ſpending a million a year out of the nation, and ſaving the ſame ſum within it, will make two millions a year. If half a million only of raw ſilk be imported from the colonies, inſtead of Turky, Perſian and Italian, and the colonies ſhall in lieu thereof take half a million of our manufactures, this creates a circulation of a million between the kingdom and her colonies, and improves her navigation. And if by the prohibition of European wrought ſilks we preſerve at leaſt in the kingdom the other half million we pay for thoſe manufactured ſilks, this will ſave a million more to our internal circulation; ſo that together with the three millions before of circulation on account of the Eaſt country trade between this nation and her plantations, will occaſion a ſaving of five millions a year to this kingdom. Sure this is an object deſerving of our attention.

Let it be imagined, that by carrying our commercial connections to the degree intimated between Great Britain and her American colonies, and declining ſomething in thoſe between us and thoſe of Italy, will not the ſaving of the ballance we at preſent pay for Piedmonteſe raw ſilk, compenſate for any loſs we may be preſumed to ſuffer by our exports to the ſeveral other Italian ſtates, when the value of wrought ſilk imported from Italy hath been duly conſidered. The Italians cannot do without our lead, our tin, and our fiſh; and if they take the woollen goods they have hitherto done from us wholly from France, would this equalize the advantages, which we may derive from ſupplying ourſelves from our colonies with raw ſilk, and ſupplying ourſelves likewiſe and our coloniſts with wrought ſilks?

The Turkey trade is at preſent in our diſfavour, and has been ſo for ſome time; why ſhould we be anxious for the preſervation of a trade we are loſing by, unleſs at length to become gainers by it? Is it not better policy to turn every diſadvantageous branch of our foreign trade into a beneficial one, by means of increaſing our trading connection between us and our coloniſts upon the footing ſuggeſted, than to continue in the lethargic ſtate of diſadvantage for want of rouſing ourſelves to turn the channels of commerce into lucrative currents? If indeed by the change of channels our maritime power ſhould ſuffer by it, it might have ſome weight in a nation whoſe ſtudy ought to be to preſerve their mercantile navigation, for the ſake of maintaining a powerful royal navy. On the contrary, by cultivating a more extenſive navigation with our colonies, we ſhall certainly conſiderably more increaſe our naval proweſs than we ſhall diminiſh it by any imaginary loſſes in the decline of our trade with other European ſtates. And it ſhould not be forgot, candid reader, as before noticed, that our colony trade IS OUR OWN TRADE, UNDER OUR OWN CONDUCT AND CONTROUL; and while regulated upon the general principles herein propoſed, may be rendered conducive to the increaſe of our trade to all other parts of the world hereafter, as well as the immediate inrichment of the nation. For why may not we become SELLERS of all North American, as well as our iſland productions, to other nations? Under proper regulations, and by ſtrengthening the act of navigation in conſequence of what has been ſaid in the general, we may aggrandize the colonies no leſs than ourſelves; and they will then never be induced to attempt an independency, when they experience themſelves happy and proſperous in the reverſe ſtate and condition. Nothing will urge them to that but finding their intereſt neglected, inſtead of encouraged, from principles reciprocally beneficial to the mother-country, as well as to themſelves. To this both have a right; and without that right being duly maintained and perpetrated, the ſubſerviency and dependency of the colonies long upon this kingdom cannot be expected; the grand tie and cement of union being deſtroyed.

Willing to hope and believe, that ſomething like what has been ſuggeſted may take place, the conſequence muſt have a very pleaſing aſpect with relation to both. Provided the North Americans ſhall be encouraged to direct their whole efforts to the productions of all things that ſhall not interfere with thoſe of the mother-ſtate, but may interfere with thoſe of other European ſtates or any other country whatſoever: provided they ſhall chearfully acquieſce in the laying aſide all ſorts of Britiſh manufacturing, and will determine to take the moſt vigorous meaſures to promote the importation of Britiſh manufactures, and to diſcourage, by the moſt ſevere and ſalutary laws and regulations amongſt themſelves, the ſmuggling of any kind of foreign wares or manufactures into the Britiſh colonies in general, the iſlands as well as the continental plantations: if theſe meaſures ſhall be adopted, and reſolutely adhered to, their temptation to the purchaſe of foreign commodities and manufactures will ceaſe, becauſe thoſe of England may become as cheap as thoſe of France. For as ſuch like conduct will enrich the mother-country, as well as the colonies, will not this lay a SURE FOUNDATION for the annihilation of Britiſh taxes; and will not that prove the effectual means, if carried to its proper extent, to lower the price of all Engliſh wares to a level with thoſe of any European ſtate or empire? Where then will be the temptation to Britiſh coloniſts to prefer foreign commodities and manufactures to Britiſh?

Till a more deſirable commercial union than hitherto has taken place, between Great Britain and her colonies ſhall do ſo, to their mutual benefit and advantage, is it not the duty of our rulers to take every meaſure that ſhall tend to the reduction of taxes, in order to cheapen all Engliſh manufactures, that the coloniſts may be the more readily inclined to take them, and relinquiſh the ſmuggling of thoſe of our rivals? It is moſt certainly incumbent on them to forward and promote to the utmoſt of their power, whatever has a tendency to ſo happy an end. How, otherwiſe, can we imagine that the colonies will continue to prefer Engliſh manufactures to thoſe of our competitors, if the abolition of tax-incumbrances to ſome purpoſe is not zealouſly purſued?

Inſtead of any thing of this kind appearing to have been thought of by men in power for above theſe forty years paſt, we have ſeen, that the whole revenue is ſo conſtituted, in its preſent ſtate and condition, as to give either to ourſelves or our coloniſts very little hopes ſoon of ſo happy an event; however practicable ſuch a notable ſyſtem might be, and however ſoon ſuch might take place, were there public virtue and public ſpirit enough in the nation to encourage it. But private perſons have too long experienced difficulties and diſcouragements enough in conſulting the public intereſt. Prudence, therefore, directs every ſuch perſon to attend to his own avocations, and leave public concerns to thoſe who enjoy their THOUSANDS and their TEN THOUSANDS a year only to diſtract the kingdom, and increaſe the public debts and taxes, inſtead of ſtudying how to prevent the one or to leſſen the other. Unhappy Britain! What muſt be thy fate, if thoſe who have been ſo amply rewarded to raiſe thy proſperity, ſhall only ſtill think of their dear ſelves, and neglect thy welfare, ſplendor and glory! Is this the grateful return made to the beſt of ſovereigns for his gracious endeavours to make his ſubjects happy? Is it not one of the greateſt misfortunes of this kingdom that there are ſuch numerous lucrative

places for the great folks to ſtruggle for, by their party cabals and intrigues, inſtead of duly regarding the true national intereſts? It is to be queſtioned, whether his Majeſty and his kingdoms would not be better ſerved, were there fewer, much fewer places of profit and honour to beſtow? And on whom are the bulk of the public poſts of truſt, honour and profit beſtowed? Are they beſtowed on thoſe only who have performed any thing really meritorious? No: they are generally given to thoſe who have done no public ſervice: to thoſe ſometimes, who have done great miſchief; to thoſe who have lent their aid to make the worſt of laws, and have thereby contributed to alienate the affections of the ſubjects from the beſt of princes.

But what encouragement can any man in the kingdom expect from any ſuch idle ſchemes and projects as the diſcharge of public debts and the abolition of taxes; while ſome of our rulers themſelves think, and ſagely declare too, that the increaſe of public debts and taxes is a national emolument and bleſſing, inſtead of the reverſe? When ſuch deſtructive principles are embraced, by thoſe whoſe duty it is to diſcountenance them, is it any wonder that men in power ſhould be ſo lukewarm as they appear to be, about their reduction? This, however, may be one of their political pretences; becauſe there is ſomething more difficulty in the diminution and abolition of national debts and taxes, than in augmenting them.

It is extraordinary that a people ſo jealous of their liberties and their conſtitution of government as we affect to be, ſhould not ſet themſelves one and all againſt the continuance of national debts and taxes, from the imminent danger they apparently are to both; for as the judicious Mr. Hume obſerves, "The time may come "when the vile and infamous ſcheme of ſhutting up the exchequer may again happen, and all the funds may "be ſeized, by the advice of wicked miniſters." As the funds of this kingdom are ſo enormous at preſent, and we have experienced ſuch unparalleled profuſion of the public money, bad miniſters, if they cannot obtain parliaments to give a ſanction to their pernicious ſchemes, may adviſe the abſolute ceſſation of parliaments, and what then will become of our liberties and conſtitution? Though we are in no danger of ſuch like practices under the government, at preſent, of the beſt of ſovereigns, yet our preſent moſt gracious ſovereign cannot anſwer for his ſucceſſors, nor the miniſters they ſhall employ. If our public debts and taxes were equitably aboliſhed, we ſhould have no occaſion for perpetuated taxes of any kind; and bad princes and worſe miniſters could never have ſuch immenſe revenues at their command; and therefore could neither have it in their power to deſtroy the being of parliaments or the public credit; for no revenue being then raiſed but what ſhould be ANNUALLY ſo done, the parliament muſt ANNUALLY meet to raiſe THE WHOLE, or the prince would have none whereon ever to rely independant of parliaments.

To ſecure, therefore, to poſterity the EXISTENCE OF PARLIAMENTS, as well as the life of PUBLIC CREDIT, would it not be a ſovereign preſervative to both to diſcharge the PUBLIC DEBTS and reduce the PERPETUATED TAXES, and ſuffer no taxes in future to take place, but ſuch only as ſhall be ANNUALLY voted by parliament for the ANNUAL CURRENT SERVICE, and that ANNUAL DEFICIENCIES ſhall be made good the ſucceeding year, and all ANNUAL SURPLUSSES of particular taxes applied to make good their part, if not the whole of ſuch ANNUAL DEFICIENCIES.

Was this practice once happily introduced, and our fund-ſyſtem ſo changed as never to contract freſh debts to endanger our liberties or conſtitution, what halcyon days, what proſperous days might not the whole Britiſh empire enjoy? We might poſſeſs, upon the principles ſuggeſted, infinitely more commerce and navigation between Great Britain and her American colonies in general than we ever did, and by the cheapneſs of our Britiſh manufactures and our plantation productions, draw the whole world to trade with us, and be the general arbiters of their differences, without acting the belligerent part in any.

But while our public debts and taxes ſhall continue as they are, and be liable to an increaſe by every freſh war, we can never expect a permanent ſtate of peace or proſperity. While we ſhall remain in ſo precarious a ſtate, our neighbouring potentates will never permit us to continue long in a peaceful condition; for they will diſcern their true road to victory, is to put us under the fatal neceſſity to go on to augment our public debts and taxes, which will at length inevitably deſtroy all our trade; and when that is gone, what head ſhall we be able to make againſt any foreign enemy? What eternal broils, diſſenſions and rebellions at home ſhall we not be ſubject to? And will not our colonies then be liable to revolt, and ſhake off their dependency, from ſo miſerable and diſtracted a mother-country? May we not thank ourſelves for ſhamefully neglecting the means of ſafety which we have in our power, by a wiſe and honeſt public ſpirit being exerted and encouraged for our preſervation?

The public debt is attended with every dreadful conſequence that can accompany any national calamity. If it was payable only out of the rents of lands, and of ſuch as live on their means, it might be pretended, that ſince the induſtrious farmer muſt pay his rent, it is the ſame thing to the nation, whether it is wholly poſſeſſed by a lord, or one-half of it be enjoyed by a ſtockjobber. Even in that caſe there would be a wide difference. But the rents of lands are not ſo much in queſtion; and the farmer muſt pay his ſhare out of his own particular profits, independent of what the lord ſhall pay out of his eſtate. A tax of five or ten *per cent.* on any commodity, muſt raiſe the price of it above eight or ſixteen *per cent.* and as our artiſts, manufacturers and tradeſmen, work under the diſadvantage of paying taxes for every thing they conſume, either directly or virtually, it is impoſſible that they ſhould afford to ſell their workmanſhip and goods ſo cheap as thoſe who pay conſiderably leſs, as before ſhewn.

To judge fairly of the bad effects of our taxes, let us ſuppoſe ourſelves releaſed from them, or a conſiderable part of them, and a proportion thereof given in bounties to the artiſts, manufacturers and exporters; and then let one imagine how many more hands would be ſet to work at home; how many foreigners would be attracted hither; and whether we ſhould not be able to underſell all the European world at foreign markets, inſtead of being underſold by any ſtate in Europe.

If our people are grown more idle and leſs induſtrious than they were heretofore, as ſome will have it, may not our public debts and taxes have occaſioned it? The civil magiſtrate, whoſe chief office ought to be to reſtrain vice, is forced to connive at it. The large revenue cannot be ſupported without encouraging idleneſs and expence, by licenſing numberleſs more public houſes than ever before exiſted in the nation: moſt of which are to be conſidered as ſo many academies, for the acquiring and propagating the whole ſcience of iniquity. From theſe academies it is that Newgate is peopled, and Tyburn ſupplied; but it is likewiſe from theſe that a very conſiderable part of our great revenue ariſes; which otherwiſe, we may preſume, would be ſuppreſſed, the better to ſupport honeſt induſtry rather than ſloth and debauchery. Pulpits may thunder againſt vice, and juries may hang criminals to eternity, while every means of corrupting the morals of the bulk of the people is thrown in their way to intice them from their duty: it is in vain to expect reformation.

The public debt has opened the iniquitous traffic not only of ſtockjobbing, but that ſpecies of gaming has introduced the general ſpirit of the ſame deſtructive practices amongſt all degrees of people, even into their own families, by routing it at home, and aſſembling it abroad. The attention of the merchant is too much taken off from ſolid trade; he engages, through the prevalence of cuſtom, in what he fancies is the more lucrative buſineſs of Exchange-Alley, and leaves export and import to ſuch as have more patience to follow it. And what is too frequently the conſequence? Does it not fill our Gazette with bankrupts, and increaſe diſtreſs and poverty, inſtead of promote the national commerce or private gain in the general?

The trade of the Alley conſiſts too much in conſpiring to pick the pockets of every body not in the temporary ſecret. Thoſe who are, can make ſtocks riſe and fall at pleaſure, and pocket the difference. A has 5000 *l.* to lay out. India ſtock is at 180. B transfers 100 *l.* to C at 179. Next morning he transfers another 100 *l.* at 178 *l.* The price is ſet, and A buys 5000 *l.* at 178. In a week or two, A wants to ſell. If the object is conſiderable, an article in the Hague Gazette is made to confirm that the emperor of Monomotapa deſires to be comprehended in the alliance of Peterſburgh. C transfers his 200 *l.* back to B at 180; the market is ſettled again, and A ſells out at 180. Thus their induſtry brings two *per cent.* in a few weeks. But who do they get it from? From women, young brothers, and all ſuch of the well-meaning people of England as will dabble in ſtocks, without being in the ſecret, or without knowing how to carry on the lucrative ſcheme, if they are. It is from this ſcandalous commerce that numbers of theſe mere fund-jobbers have, in a few years, acquired millions amongſt them at the expence of the unknowing ones.

One would imagine, that nothing but our neceſſities could make us wink at a practice ſo iniquitous and detrimental; yet there are ſome men abſurd enough to fancy, that we are extremely beholden to thoſe money-mongers, for condeſcending to ſet up their trade amongſt us, for the circulation of public credit, as they affect ſhamefully to term it.

The city of Briſtol, or Birmingham, might with equal reaſon think itſelf obliged to a ſet of ſharpers, who ſhould bring a ſum of money along with them, and ſet a faro bank for all the citizens to pont at. Nor would it be more ridiculous in a country ſquire to think to improve his carp, by throwing in a parcel of pike amongſt them. We can only increaſe our people as we do our game, by diſcouraging poachers and deſtroying vermin.

There is a public detriment attending the public debts not inferior to any mentioned, which has eſcaped the notice of moſt. The public debt has produced a different intereſt in this nation, that we have greatly ſuffered by, and if not remedied, can have no end. It is the intereſt of the ſtockholders to involve the nation in wars, becauſe they are gainers thereby, although they ſhall in the long run ruin the kingdom: it is the intereſt of landed men and the merchant, the national merchant, whom the ſtate only ought to encourage, and not the ſtockjobbing merchant, whom the ſtate ought to diſcourage to the utmoſt rather than engage the kingdom in war upon his account; or the chief burthen and evils thereof will fall on land and trade.

However contemptible ſome may think the weight of the ſtockjobbing claſs, in compariſon to that of the ſolid trading one, it has been by their ſuperior influence, that the nation was involved in the two laſt great wars. The greater the public debt, the greater the weight of the public creditors, and the louder their cry for wars. And may we not expect that this worthy ſet of ſtockjobbing patriots will, on every the leaſt occaſion, renew their efforts to plunge us again into the like thraldom? Deplorably precarious muſt the ſituation be, where one claſs of people muſt be undone, even by a neceſſary war, and another, of perhaps equal influence, impoveriſhed by the beſt peace.

If England was obliged to pay a tribute to France, or to any other foreign country, of A MILLION AND AN HALF A YEAR, would not every man declare, that we could not ſuſtain ſuch a drain of treaſure long without being undone? And yet that tribute ſtands on a footing at preſent ſtill more deſtructive to the nation; becauſe there is no effectual proviſion yet made for getting free from that burthen paid to foreign creditors, without giving an extravagant purchaſe for our redemption, which we are incapable of doing, by the preſent ſtate of the kingdom. Beſides, foreign ſtockholders have a temptation to increaſe the tribute due to them, by applying their dividends daily to buy up more ſtock, out of the hands of the natives; who, as our foreign creditors grow richer and richer, ſo Britains in general grow poorer and poorer: than which nothing can be a greater confirmation than the numerous bankrupts we daily experience in the kingdom, and the very few that happen amongſt our chief foreign creditors in compariſon thereto.

To thoſe who are not reſolved to ſhut their eyes againſt indubitable truths, it muſt be obvious, that if the public debts and taxes were cleared off, the profits of the manufacturer, the tradeſman and the merchant, would be their own. They would be exempted from large diſburſements out of their gains. It would be equal, in every reſpect, to a bounty to that amount on all our productions of nature or of art, and of proportionable advantage to the day-labourer. With thoſe advantages, why ſhould we not be able to underſell our competitors? Our people would of courſe multiply, for which there is now all diſcouragement inſtead of the reverſe: our poor would find full employment, and live more comfortably, when we enjoyed greater plenty of every thing at cheaper rates: new arts and manufactures would be introduced, in conſequence of invention being on the wing, and the old ones brought to greater perfection: our moſt barren lands would be cultivated, both in Britain and America, to reciprocal benefit, provided a due commercial union took place between them, and our general produce of both would be inſufficient to ſupply ourſelves and our foreign cuſtomers: ſo large would be the demand.

In conſequence hereof, the ſtockjobbers, when paid off, would find employment for their money in trade and manufactures, and would find that turn to a more certain and better account than preying on the vitals of their country; which, if ſucceſsful, they do; and if otherwiſe, does not ſuch jobber ruin himſelf and numerous others who have connections with him, as is more or leſs daily experienced?

Men of narrow conceptions may, probably, object, there was a time when we owed no debt; and yet this country was never richer, nor had it more trade than at preſent. Let ſuch men recollect the ſtate of this nation ſixty or ſeventy years before king William's war, with reſpect to the numbers of people, the trade, ſhipping, wealth and manufactures; and let them compare it with our ſituation when that war broke out, and then let them give a reaſon why we have not increaſed in the ſame proportion ſince that period. Trade was then in its infancy; our colonies were hardly eſtabliſhed; thoſe times had all the expence of them, and we all the profit: Ireland was then but little better than our infant ſettlements in America are now; we had no union with Scotland, and Portugal afforded but little money; each of theſe has opened a new ſource of wealth to us; and with ſuch advantages, ought we not to have throve in the ſame proportion we did in the former period? Had it not been for the public debt, there can be no doubt but our improvements for the laſt ſixty years muſt have ſurpaſſed thoſe of the ſixty years preceding.

The enormity of the annual taxes we pay, together with all the enhancements upon enhancements we likewiſe pay on occaſion of our perpetuated and annual taxes, cannot amount to ſo little we affirm, as the full value of all the lands in England, if valued at twenty millions *per annum*; and if all the national taxes could at once be diſcharged by the landed property, what would the nation be worth may deſerve conſideration. 'Tis true we are ſwoln with a vaſt paper credit, and that dazzles us with imaginary inſtead of ſolid treaſures. Such an immenſe public debt, its perpetual ſales, purchaſes and transfers, and the circulation of its intereſt, occaſion a great parade of wealth; ſo does the circulation of other paper ſecurities, exchequer bills, bank notes, bankers notes, bills of exchange, perſonal notes, bonds and mortgages, and every other ſpecies of paper circulation property, make a ſhow of a prodigious magnitude of riches: but as the real treaſure of the nation cannot be eſtimated, till all public incumbrances ſhall be diſcharged, the deduction of twenty millions a year will make a conſiderable drawback upon the national property: and if to this conſideration we add thoſe other of the

ballance

ballance of trade we pay yearly to the Eaſt countries, together with the intereſt money ſent out of the kingdom to ſatisfy our foreign public creditors; all theſe diſadvantages under which the nation labours, put in ballance againſt the whole of its magnified paper wealth, ſhould incline us to think that theſe together ought to alarm us to retrench every expence we are able, and take every meaſure to aboliſh every tax-incumbrance that impedes the increaſe of the ſolid national property. Could we free ourſelves from the load of ſix millions a year we now raiſe for national debts, what might that be preſumed to eaſe the nation of annually, if it be conſidered the enhancements upon enhancements on our whole trade and navigation ſix millions groſs revenue occaſions? If every tax is no more than doubled, conſidered in its compound as well as ſimple light, as we have obſerved, the national expence will be ſo on our whole trade.

During the laſt two wars we beheld numerous opulent families to have ſprung up.—But whence came this mighty treaſure? Has it not been extracted from our own inteſtines; from the millions upon millions that have been raiſed in this nation during thoſe periods? Before thoſe æras, the nation was ſolidly wealthy, and daily increaſing therein, by enriching commerce and navigation, which diſperſed the treaſures more equally amongſt the people: ſince thoſe æras, that treaſure has been extracted from the pockets of all claſſes of people by the immenſity of taxes; and thoſe taxes have been converting into funds to pay intereſt for above thirty times ſuch annual tax amount, that has been only in paper property; which ſome wiſe men have termed imaginary or fairy property, and not real. This fabric of imaginary property, or, if you like it better, this PUBLIC DEBT PROPERTY, and its mighty circulations, furniſh the appearance of millions upon millions of ſuch ſort of property, and this PUBLIC DEBT PROPERTY will hold up its circulating head, while the nation ſhall continue able to pay intereſt for it. Will not every thinking man conſider, how long we can ſupport the paying ſo many millions a year as are raiſed upon our general trade, to pay intereſt only for ſuch public debts? For our arbitrary enhancements on the prices of every taxed commodity renders our burthen at leaſt of ten millions *per annum* on that account only. How long can this nation beſides afford to raiſe above ten millions more yearly, with additional enhancements for the current ſervice, and other expences; eſpecially if to the accumulated annual expence be tacked alſo that of the poor's tax raiſed throughout the kingdom, together with every other parochial tax, and the charge of turnpikes? If theſe ſhould all be conſidered as burthens on the trade of the nation, and certainly they ultimately center there, every man will allow this cauſe alone to be adequate to account for every commercial grievance we at preſent perhaps experience: this however is the grand cauſe. And why may not this be the natural cauſe even of that monopolizing and foreſtalling ſpirit that prevails?

If our debts and taxes do not diminiſh, they muſt increaſe; and if they do increaſe, we may pronounce with certainty, that nothing can preſerve us but our neighbours being in the ſame unhappy ſituation with ourſelves, and that we ſhall only continue a great nation as long as they do ſo.

When the art of funding, and borrowing thereon, was firſt introduced, the common talk of mankind was, that in time the people of England muſt be undone, by adhering to a ſyſtem ſo detrimental to the ſtate. Some tell us, that the event has proved the futility of that apprehenſion. The prediction has been verified, and that, perhaps, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. All that could be meant by the aſſertion was, that the then poſſeſſors, and their poſterity, muſt be undone, and their inheritance taken away from them, and become the property of other men. It could never be their meaning, that the land could run away, or ceaſe to be occupied by ſomebody. At preſent, that is above 70 years after the revolution, one tenth part of the lands of England is not poſſeſſed by the poſterity or heirs of thoſe who poſſeſſed it at that period of time; and if the extermination (as it may be juſtly termed) is not univerſal, it is only becauſe there were a few overgrown eſtates; ſuch as the Devonſhire, Bedford, Curzon, &c. which have been proof againſt the waſte of luxury and taxes.

Suppoſe the Turks were to over-run England, it might certainly be affirmed with propriety, that, if we did not drive them out, England muſt be undone; and yet, if they ſhould prevail, the land would ſtill remain, would ſtill be occupied and cultivated, and poſſibly the trade of England would receive ſome advantages from the favour of other Mahometan nations, who have been cuſtomers for the woollen and moſt other manufactures: and it is more than probable, that a greater proportion of the property of the country would remain in the poſſeſſion of the original inhabitants 70 years after ſuch a conqueſt, than is now to be found in the poſterity of thoſe to whom it belonged at the revolution. As the cauſe, I mean the public Debt, ſtill ſubſiſts, by its amazing magnitude, the preſent poſſeſſors muſt not expect a more durable eſtabliſhment. Was the plague to rage in a city, and all the rich to periſh, the poor would get poſſeſſion of their lands, houſes, and effects; but if the infection continued to prevail, they would ſoon make way for others in their turn.

We have ſeen that our debts and taxes have arrived at ſuch a height, that the nation hath at length ſufficient cauſe to be alarmed at the danger; the monied intereſt in particular ought to be ſo, ſeeing they are liable to be the firſt that will feel the fatal effects, provided they do not beſtir themſelves to procure the ſpeedy redemption of their monied property. The weight of taxes thereby occaſioned upon trade and navigation, may one day be thought to render their property ſo highly detrimental to the public intereſts, that future bad miniſters may take it into their heads to attempt to annihilate all their principal, by an abolition of the funds exiſting for their annuities; for if the public debts and taxes ſhall not be put into a train of more certain and more expeditious ſtate of redemption than they ſeem to be in at preſent, and thereby the latter ſhall be leſſened, they will both aſſuredly increaſe; and if they ſhall continue to increaſe, they may become inſupportable; and when things ſhall be brought to an extremity, it may occaſion ſuch convulſions in the ſtate as may conduce to the taking of ſuch violent meaſures as otherwiſe might never be thought of.——In a like extremity, when the clergy had ingroſſed too large a ſhare of the property of the country, Henry VIII. was obliged, for the relief of the people, to ſeize on their temporalties, and has ſince had the general approbation of the nation for ſo doing —Our continuance in the increaſe of public debts and taxes will reduce the nation to a condition much more intolerable than we were in before the days of Henry VIII. becauſe the clergy contented themſelves with poſſeſſions in land, without pretending to a ſhare in the general induſtry of the people, as the monied intereſt muſt have, and be intitled to, in conſequence of ſuch increaſe of taxes upon taxes.

As to a violation of laws and public faith, it may be in vain to urge thoſe in caſes of extreme neceſſity. The firſt of all principles is that of ſelf-preſervation; nor could the ties of law and public faith be ſtronger in favour of fund-holders now, than of the clergy at the reformation. As to public credit, we ſhould have no more occaſion for it, ſince people, relieved from ſo oppreſſive a burthen, would, on any future emergency, by ſubmitting to the former taxes, be better enabled to raiſe money WITHIN THE YEAR, than they can do under our preſent circumſtances be brought into the exchequer by anticipations; and the greateſt advantage of aboliſhing the debt would be, that it might ſecure us againſt running into debt for the future.

Should it be ſaid, that it might be dangerous to drive ſo powerful and ſo opulent a body of people as the proprietors of above 130 million to deſpair: true it is, they are powerful at preſent, while they poſſeſs ſo large a ſhare of national property, and their cry is loud, becauſe they are poſſeſſed of ſuch vaſt treaſure; but if they ſhould be ſtripped of that, as would then be the caſe, they muſt and would be as inconſiderable, and as little liſtened to, as any other ſet of beggars in the kingdom. We do not ſay it would be wiſe or equitable in any prince to act this part; and we are aſſured, that during the days of the preſent beſt of princes, he will never

ſuffer

ſuffer ſuch a melancholy cataſtrophe to happen; but we cannot anſwer for his ſucceſſors, nor the conduct of future miniſters, if the nation ſhould be driven to deſperation, from the increaſed magnitude, weight, and oppreſſion of our public debts and taxes.

The monied-intereſt will naturally infer from what has been obſerved, and it has been ſo obſerved on their account chiefly to remind them, that the greater and the greater the public debts ſhall grow, the greater and greater will the tax-incumbrances grow, or the greater and greater reductions of their intereſt muſt take place, to create new INTEREST FUNDS for NEW DEBTS, as we have before noticed, to the diſadvantage of the ſtock-proprietors, as well as to that of the nation in general: and yet, when we ſtand in need of more money, the ſtate muſt be ſupplied, and 'tis to be hoped ever will, be the temporary conſequence as it may.

Dangers of this nature have been ſuggeſted to attend the monied-intereſt; and thoſe not only in the manner above intimated, but by other injurious projects to which the ſtate of deſperation might drive a nation ſo circumſtanced. It has been obſerved, that the French, ſince the year 1613, have, in order to decreaſe their public debts, and to reduce the prices of their commodities, by frequent enhancements of their money, varied the relation between ſilver and commodities; that is, they have altered the meaſure of value; by which means, they do not give half ſo much ſilver for a day's labour as they did an hundred and fifty years ago. At that time they coined about eighteen livres out of eight ounces troy-weight of fine ſilver; and now they coin near fifty-four livres out of the ſame quantity; and yet they now give no more ſous for a day's labour than they did before ſuch enhancement of their money. Hence it is manifeſt, that, from this circumſtance alone, THEIR LABOUR IS FALLEN TWO THIRDS, whilſt our ſilver money has remained the ſame; and hence our labour has received no diminution; and ought not, and it is to be hoped never will, by ſuch like deſtructive projects. This circumſtance, however, added to their cheaper way of living, and our enormous tax-incumbrances, together with our arbitrary enhancements on all taxed commodities, will account for the diminution of our trade to Italy, Turkey, and Spain in particular, wherein the French are our potent rivals, and wherein they will ſoon become ſo univerſally, unleſs our public debts and taxes ſhall be reduced to a competent degree, as before ſignified throughout theſe obſervations.——The national detriment that would attend the enhancement of our coin, would prove highly ruinous to the whole monied intereſt, as well as to the nation in general. See our article C IN, where this matter is put in our intended general light; and wherever we have mentioned this French project, in any of our writings, the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that it is only done with a deſign to ſhew by what combinations of policy that rival nation is enabled to underſell us, but with no view whatſoever to recommend ſuch a deteſtable practice to this nation. Projects of this kind are inconſiſtent with the conſtitution of our government; and we hope that our public debts and taxes will never be ſuffered to increaſe upon us, as to make any ſuch kind of deſperate meaſures neceſſary: to prevent which is one principal view of my labours, by alarming the kingdom now in time of peace, of the intolerable magnitude of their incumbrance, and thereby exciting to the ſpeedy reduction of our taxes, by every poſſible meaſure that can be deviſed; and particularly to apprize the monied intereſt to contribute all in their power to ſuch an abolition of taxes, as may not put the nation under the neceſſity of practiſing any means for leſſening the public debts that ſhall be repugnant to the public faith, or any way detrimental to their intereſt in particular, as they are likely to be the moſt deſtructively and the moſt immediately affected thereby: and certainly they are the whole claſs of people who are the beſt able to prevent ſuch calamity, while their property and their power ſhall continue ſo great as it at preſent is. Is not this motive ſufficient for them in time to take what has been urged in their behalf in good part?

The monied intereſt, we ſay, is more particularly concerned to take care that their monied property be put into a more certain ſtate of redemption than it hitherto has been, as well for their own greater ſecurity as well as that of the nation. Can they expect that the nation will be anxious about what they themſelves ſhall be indifferent? We have ſeen the danger wherein their great eſtates may be, provided debts and taxes are not reduced. It has been ſeen, that it is no better than a political amuſement, to pretend to DISCHARGE ANY PART OF THE PUBLIC DEBTS WITHOUT THE REDUCTION OF TAXES; we have ſeen likewiſe, that all reductions of intereſt have been thrown into the ſinking-fund, and that this fund, inſtead of being made a debt, or a tax redeeming fund, for the decreaſe of national taxes, hath become only a public debt and tax-increaſing fund, by furniſhing intereſt money the more eaſily for ſuch detrimental practices.——We have had fifty years experience of the efficacious operation of this fund to eaſe the nation. Inſtead of that, are we not the worſe for the exiſtence of any ſuch fund at all? Have not our debts and taxes been by the means of that fund rendered ſo immenſely enormous as they at preſent are? For whatever hath facilitated the means of raiſing ſuch immenſe ſums as have been raiſed, hath made miniſters the more profuſe and extravagant of the national treaſure, and ever will. Such facilities rarely prompt to parſimonious meaſures, but ſtimulate to exorbitant diſſipation. We have ſeen the enormous height to which our ANNUAL SUPPLIES for the current ſervice in time of peace alſo have aroſe; and that they all ultimately terminate on the commerce and navigation of the empire; that our annual, no leſs than our perpetuated ſupplies, fall moſt heavily thereon; even without thoſe additional enhancements that traders in general are obliged to levy upon the nation, by the increaſe of the general prices of every thing throughout the kingdom——We have ſeen to what an amazing burthen theſe muſt inevitably amount, even excluſive of the poor's tax, and all other parochial taxes and turnpikes on our trade. We have ſeen, that the weight and oppreſſion of our taxes are amply ſufficient to account for the exceſſive prices of all Engliſh commodities, without having recourſe to any temporary cauſes which have likewiſe contributed thereto: this cauſe alone, conſidered in all its conſequences, is adequate to all our preſent grievances; and this is a ſtanding, a durable, not a temporary cauſe; and without the removal of this cauſe, the effect cannot ceaſe; it will grow worſe and worſe, and the national calamities more and more intolerable.

The annual ballance in trade that we pay to the Eaſt countries is, at the ſame time, a drain of national treaſure we ought not on any account to admit of, if we can poſſibly prevent it. We cannot ſupport it.——The other conſtant drain of treaſure that we ſuſtain on account of our public debts to foreigners, is another additional grievance that tends to our greater impoveriſhment. Does not common policy direct that ſuch mighty drains may ceaſe? And yet they ſeem to be never thought of by our very miniſters of ſtate, whoſe duty it is to do ſo! What! will not the preſent high price of gold and ſilver alarm them! Will not theſe barefaced deſtructive phænomena rouſe the nation from its lethargy! Will not **********

To contribute to bring about theſe happy conſequences we have recommended a more intereſting union between Great Britain and her American colonies; we have preſumed to ſketch in what manner ſuch a further union might take place, to their reciprocal benefit and advantage.——We have ſhown how ſuch an happy union, carried to its full extent, might ſo inrich the nation as to enable us to leſſen our public debts and taxes, and thereby augment our commerce and navigation with our plantations more and more, by reaſon of the greater cheapneſs of Engliſh commodities. When theſe national meaſures ſhall be duly purſued, our coloniſts will increaſe in their importation of them from us, and we in our importations from them. This will inlarge and cement the deſirable commercial union, and nothing elſe can or will effectually do it. We have ſhewed by what eaſy means theſe things may be accompliſhed——We have ſhown that the ſame duties may be levied upon our ad-

ditional plantation imports that are now levied upon thoſe detrimental ones from the Eaſt countries and elſewhere; ſo that the revenue cannot ſuffer in this reſpect, by the propoſed change of meaſures———We have ſhown what additional and extenſive a circulation of trade may be carried on between Great Britain and America by ſuch meaſures; eſpecially between her and her continental colonies——We have ſeen in what manner that commerce and navigation may be inlarged between the continent and the iſlands, to their mutual advantage.

From the increaſe of our iſland commerce in America that ſeems to be promiſed by our additional territories, we may expect conſiderable benefits; eſpecially if well regulated free ports ſhall take place, conſiſtent with the act of navigation.——We have intimated that our American trade is our own trade, and under our own controul and government, and if wiſely regulated by this kingdom, may and will anſwer ends of infinite emolument to this nation; regulated as well to the advantage of the colonifts as the mother kingdom; to ſuch a degree, perhaps, might the ſame be carried, that this nation might in time become not very anxious as to any other branch of maritime trade that ſhould not be apparently and unqueſtionably profitable to the nation as well as the trader; and therefore this commerce is an object well deſerving the moſt attentive legiſlative care and concern. By cultivating this trade to the pitch it will admit of, will furniſh innumerable articles for re-exportation to all parts of the European world, and augment our maritime power, and bring in treaſures from every quarter; it will amazingly increaſe our wealth and our maritime proweſs: as it will detach us from all commercial connections but ſuch as ſhall be evidently beneficial to the ſtate; ſo it will never ſubject us to the caprice and inſults of other potentates; for whenever they ſhall uſe us ill, by the infraction of commercial treaties or otherwiſe, we ſhall have nought to do but to return the treatment in a commercial way: that is to ſay, if they ſhall impede and obſtruct our trade with them in any unjuſtifiable manner, we ſhall reſent it in the like manner, without having immediate recourſe to the ſword.—On the contrary, every ſtate will be the more cautious how they ſhall dare to quarrel with us, when they ſhall behold us in a kind of ſtate of independency of trade with them all, and in a capacity to right ourſelves at any time, upon any kind of injurious treatment that ſound policy ſhall direct to reſent with our whole national force. And when we ſhall arrive at this happy ſtate of commercial independency, as it were, who have we to fear? What power, or what combination of powers will preſume to diſturb our tranquillity, eſpecially if ſome other points ſhall be regarded that we may hereafter, if our other avocations ſhall admit of it, ſuggeſt?

The increaſe of navigation and maritime power between the mother-kingdom and her colonies, may become very great; it may really become unſpeakably great, by means of the commercial union ſuggeſted: and as we ſhall then get into the ſure track of diſcharging the public debts and annihilating taxes, what will hinder but likewiſe then the happieſt commercial union may take place between Great Britain and Ireland? For nothing hath hitherto obſtructed that meaſure, but the immenſity of our debts, and the enormous burthen of our taxes. When once our tax-incumbrances ſhall be duly annihilated; and whenever, in conſequence thereof, all Engliſh commodities and manufactures ſhall be reduced in price to a level with thoſe of our competitors, may not Great Britain, Ireland, and her American plantations, become ſo happily united, as to bid defiance to almoſt any combined power that may dare to maltreat or inſult us? Theſe are the days that every true friend to his country ought to rejoice to ſee; and till the due reduction of our debts and taxes, we cannot expect to ſee, for more reaſons than I chuſe to mention; and although I am perſuaded, that I ſhall not be thanked for what I have ſaid; that gives me no manner of concern; independency is the ſtate I enjoy, and ſhall ever endeavour to maintain; perſons in other conditions giving themſelves no trouble to repreſent things in their true light, private intereſt ſwaying them to the contrary, or to be quite indifferent about public affairs, while they enjoy their lucrative poſts of profit and honour.

Then it is we may expect to ſee the enhanced price of proviſions and every thing elſe fall, to the comfort and relief of the induſtrious Britiſh artiſan and manufacturer, and to the renown and glory of the Britiſh empire. Bread alone is inſufficient to comfort the laborious heart; they muſt have meat alſo, and in plenty too, in order to repleniſh their exhauſted ſtrength; yet it is at preſent ſo dear, that even perſons of middling fortunes can hardly afford a joint of the beſt for their families. Does not this merit the moſt ſerious attention of legiſlation? Is not the worſt of confuſions always to be expected from an oppreſſed, a ſtarving, and a deſpairing people? Does not all hiſtory ſhow the tragical effects of the prevalence of want and famine, and prove that it is impoſſible to retain the obedience of any nation, while the people's bellies are empty? Will not people deſtitute of the comforts of life, refuſe to be bridled by laws? Will perſons in that forlorn condition be reſtrained from violence, by ſentiments of regard for ſuperior condition? Has not this been lately exemplified by our neighbours in Spain, where the general cry of the people ſeems to be againſt the government for impoveriſhing them? Will not the ſame cauſes have the ſame effect every where? Is it not full time to remove the cauſes of general diſcontent in this nation?

In Greece, Italy, Perſia and Egypt, whenever the public was obſerved to be aſſaulted by real or artificial famine, officers were employed both at home and abroad, to buy up the neceſſaries of life wherever they could be obtained, at the moſt reaſonable rates, and convey thoſe ineſtimable commodities, at the public charge, to the unfortunate cities where want raged, that the ſubjects might not be traded out of their lives and domeſtic quiet, by engroſſers, foreſtallers and regraters. All wiſe miniſters have always looked upon it as a matter of the laſt importance to pay a capital attention to the wants of capital cities, becauſe the working multitudes aſſembled in the ſervice of a large metropolis, can neither want, nor provide for themſelves. Why is every proper arrangement that can be made, till our taxes can be abated, neglected, to prevent the enormous price of butchers meat in our markets? The virtuous and humane may propoſe aſſociations of private men to provide for the wants of the public. Such deſigns are laudable, and merit every poſſible private encouragement. But 'tis to be feared, that no attempts of this ſort will be crowned with the wiſhed for ſucceſs, till a national reinforcement can be obtained againſt national evils. The ſame is the caſe at Birmingham; wheat has been lately near double the price it was about twenty years ago; ſo has beef, mutton, pork, veal; alſo cheeſe, butter, &c.—We hear the ſame melancholy accounts from the manufacturing towns of Leeds, Halifax, Mancheſter, &c. Thus our own induſtrious poor, who by their labour ſupport our manufactures, and even the kingdom itſelf, are in ſeveral parts almoſt ſtarving alive. Will not people, prompted by the irreſiſtible force of hunger and nakedneſs, endeavour, by ſome means or other, to get redreſs? May not calamities of this nature create a kind of deſperation amongſt his majeſty's ſubjects, and the conſequence prove of the moſt dangerous nature, if not ſoon put a ſtop to?

If miniſters are at a loſs to reduce our moſt burthenſome taxes themſelves, that oppreſs the oppreſſed, why do they not employ and reward well, thoſe who are able to do it in their ſtead? 'Till this can be done by ſomebody, why do they not put in execution what they have in their immediate power, to put a ſtop to monopolizers, foreſtallers and regraters? It will not be ſaid, that it is not in the power of the legiſlature to effect this. Why then do not our miniſters lay the matter before them without delay? Why have the moſt ſalutary meaſures that can be thought of been delayed ſo long? Can any thing be unequal to the wiſdom of a Britiſh parliament? Though we cannot be of opinion that the removal of thoſe cauſes, which we have termed temporary, will be ſtriking at the root of our grievances, yet ought not every thing be done that can be

be towards the lowering the price of proviſions in the firſt place, to pacify the maſs of the working people, till the moſt effectual meaſures ſhall be taken to leſſen the public debts and taxes? Is not the burthen of nett eight millions a year, beſides the vaſt expence of collection, burthen ſufficient for the nation to ſupport in time of peace, without bearing our enormous tax-incumbrances for public debts alſo; more eſpecially when it is conſidered, that the whole weight of national burthens fall upon trade, as the ultimate great fund that ſupports all other?

Let any impartial man duly conſider, what cannot be too often inculcated, to what an intolerable height our enhancements upon enhancements ſtill further augment the vaſt national expence; and to what a ſtill greater degree our poor's tax, and all other heavy parochial taxes incumber the whole commerce of the kingdom; and then let him judge, whether this cauſe alone is not adequate to every calamity the kingdom at preſent groans under?

'Tis no compenſation to the nation to attribute the cauſe of our misfortunes to this or the other adminiſtration; we may complain upon this head to eternity, without redreſs. Has it mended, or can it mend public affairs, merely to turn out one miniſtry and put in another raw and unexperienced? Can changes alone amongſt men of power relieve the kingdom from millions of the national taxes from which it requires to be relieved? Has granting ſome great men penſions, the ſons and relations of others places upon places, contributed one jot to render the nation more proſperous and more happy? Has not this political farce been too long acted to bear being brought upon the ſtage any more? Is not ſuch ſtate-craft grown quite ridiculous in the eyes of every wiſe and upright man? Does it not incline every one to think, that nothing more is meant thereby than mere miniſterial ſcrambles for places of profit and honour? Muſt not this prove a great affliction to the beſt of ſovereigns? Would he not enjoy a far greater ſhare of complacency and conſolation, we repeat it again, had he leſs inſtead of more lucrative places to beſtow, ſince they occaſion ſuch eternal wranglings, intrigues and diſtractions in the nation? Is it not ſcandalous to behold ſuch numerous profitable places ſaid to be in the gift of the crown; and yet the whole power of beſtowing them wreſted out of the royal hands by over-ruling cabals and intrigues, that ſeem to care as little for the honour and dignity of the crown, as they do for the felicity of the people? But if a ſtrict ſcrutiny is made into the poſſeſſors of all places of truſt, honour and profit, ſaid to be in the gift of the crown, for it is no more than a ſay-ſo, on whom ſhall we find them beſtowed, and for what public ſervice have they been beſtowed on their poſſeſſors in moſt reigns? Have they been given to men who have deſerved them; who have done any real ſervices to the ſovereign or the nation? Was this matter duly enquired into, where is the liſt of thoſe ſuperlative patriots who have laboured to keep the kingdom free from debts and taxes? Inſtead of recollecting any large catalogue of the names of thoſe worthies, I confeſs myſelf at a loſs to think of one ſingle great perſonage, who has for many years filled any of the great poſts of profit and honour, that has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in preventing thoſe grievances the nation now labours under. Were we happy enough to have been bleſſed with but a few of theſe, we could never have been reduced to the condition we are now in. On the contrary, it would be no difficulty to furniſh, within my own time, a very large liſt of perſons, among whom, and their relations and dependents, many millions upon millions of the public treaſure have been amaſſed, together with great titles of honour. But where are our celebrated financiers, who have annihilated our tax-oppreſſions? And wherein conſiſts the public virtue of heaping tax upon tax upon the nation, which has heaped calamity upon calamity upon it, till we are brought to the ſtate we are at preſent in?

The ſyſtem of multiplying debts and taxes is now carried to great lengths; and our ſtateſmen will not be convinced it is carried to its full extent, till it ſhall be out of our power to carry it further. But if we are to wait till that very day comes, before we ſhall begin to think of changing the ſyſtem, will it not then be too late to do it? How far diſtant that very day may be, is no great difficulty to prejudge, from the ſeveral national ſymptoms, that are ſo flagrant at preſent. What other prognoſtics of its near approach would we have, than what we at preſent experience, and are repreſented through the courſe of this ſhort diſcourſe?

The preſent money ſyſtem calls aloud for reformation: for this, added to the accumulated force of what has been here urged, occaſions the magnitude of our public calamity, by the exceſſive high prices of every thing in England; from thoſe of proviſions in general, to thoſe of all other commodities and manufactures.

If the effects of that great paper circulation which is now carried on in the nation be duly conſidered, we ſhall find that to be a cauſe that contributes to the evils we complain of; and indeed is a neceſſary effect proceeding from our mighty public debts and taxes. The price of labour, and the value of commodities, it is evident, would not be the ſame in this iſland, when there is twenty millions of pounds in circulation, as when there is forty millions of paper: but as the monied intereſt has aroſe to the pitch they are, and in conſequence thereof paper circulation has become ſo very extenſive, it has created this artificial kind of circulation. Add to this, the greatneſs of banking carried on in the kingdom, by the ſilent but inceſſant iſſuing of notes; this has more than doubled the new coined current ſpecie of the iſland; conſequently a crown will not go further than half a crown would have gone formerly. Thus they have in a manner ſtripped the landed gentlemen of a great part of their incomes, as one thouſand a year is now of little more value than five hundred pounds, through this artificial increaſe of paper money; for the price of labour and commodities has ariſen in a faſter proportion than the landed gentleman's property has been improved.

If we examine the extent of this circulation, we ſhall find it immenſe. It has been computed by ſome judicious perſons, that including our national debts, and every other kind of paper currency, there are notes exiſting in this kingdom at preſent, in the proportion of twenty, or rather twenty-four pounds in paper, for every pound in gold and ſilver. Almoſt the whole of this artificial ſpecie has been coined, year after year, by private perſons; and opportunities of loans to the government has been the very inlet by which they have inſinuated their nominal money into circulation. Neither the whole of the gold, nor of the artificial ſpecie, is kept up in actual currency; but from the ſlighteſt attention to money-matters at preſent, we may perceive, that there is above ten times greater quantity of the latter kind of money uſed, than of the former. All ſums of one thouſand pounds, or upwards, are now paid almoſt wholly in paper. It is nearly the ſame with ſums of one hundred pounds: nay even ſhop keepers and tradeſmens bills, of twenty or forty pounds, are now generally paid in bankers notes. The ſtewards of noblemen and gentlemen, in the remoteſt parts of the iſland, receive the rents chiefly in paper: and it is even ſaid, that a very few years ago, for ſome time, certain copper-plate preſſes have worked off many hundred of notes a day for circulation. Does not this demonſtrate the neceſſity of reſtraining ſomehow the power of ſuch artificial coinage in the hands of monied men, who ſeem not to care how ſoon they unnerve the nation, provided the public diſtreſs will afford them an opportunity of enlarging their fortunes? While there is a malady ſubſiſting in the ſtate, corrupting its very blood, in vain do we attempt to reſtore health by mere palliatives. If we would effect a cure, we muſt apply remedies to the very root of the evil.

This renders the order of monied men a very dangerous nuiſance, inſtead of an ornament, ſtrength, and advantage, to the kingdom. May not this, in time, conduce to their ruin, inſtead of their further aggrandiſement at the public expence? Formerly we had no conſiderable monied men out of the order of merchants and undertaking

manufacturers, (excluſive of the gentlemen of landed property;) but within this half century, numbers have ſtarted up great monied men, without having been concerned in manufacture or traffic, or being poſſeſſed of land. Can ſuch fortunes be otherwiſe raiſed, than by preying upon the neceſſities of the ſtate, or upon the induſtry of private perſons? Conſequently, ſhould not a buſineſs of ſo detrimental a nature be ſome-how reſtrained, if not totally ſuppreſſed, by every well policed government? And how can this be moſt effectually done, but by the equitable annihilation of the public debts and taxes, as ſoon as poſſible, and contract no perpetual taxes for ſuch debts evermore?

While monied men have been encumbering the ſtate, and ſinking the value of money, by their arbitrary increaſe of paper currency, the wicked practice of ſtockjobbing has added occaſionally to the confuſion and diſtreſs. The greateſt part of the profeſs'd money-jobbers may not unjuſtly be termed public robbers; for by their artifices they have, for theſe ſeveral years paſt, ſtripped innocent individuals of more of their property than all the highwaymen in Great Britain. Their practice is exactly ſimilar in its effects to that of houſe-breakers. A gentleman, we ſhall ſuppoſe, buys 1000 *l.* ſtock for 1000 *l.* and locks up his title thereto in the ſcutore, or has it legally tranſferred. Here he may reaſonably think it ſafe; yet the event has proved the miſtake; for the tricks of the money-jobbers ſhall have ſuch an influence upon its value, that when he offers it for ſale at market he will find it is not worth quite 700 *l.* Would it have made any difference to this gentleman, to have had his ſcrutore broke open at home, and out of 1000 *l.* caſh contained in it, to have found 300 *l.* carried off by thieves?

Had there been no annual loans, the ſtocks would have ceaſed to fluctuate as they have done; and by the eſtabliſhment that ought to take place, they ſhould be continually kept up at par, or very near it, till we can annihilate the whole, even in times of war. This would give new life to trade, ſave millions from going out of the kingdom. Though the fluctuating ſtate of the funds ſhould not really affect the public credit of the ſtate, yet their inſtability and low price has too frequently given an opportunity to foreigners to draw large ſums out of the kingdom, and tempted many manufacturers and traders to forſake their buſineſs, and go into Exchange-alley with their money; where for every eight-pence they could purchaſe a ſhilling, which has been a greater profit than they could expect by following their occupation. This profit, however, few of them ever receive; for not being able to wait to realize their ſhilling, by ſeeing ſtocks riſe to par, they are obliged, by the neceſſity of their affairs, to ſell out at much the ſame rate they bought in, and find themſelves ſufferers by having neglected honeſt induſtry. The broker, however, ſtill thrives, by a ſucceſſion of new bubbles; but trade, in the mean time, is daily receiving freſh wounds under ſuch a ſyſtem, and that ſpirit of induſtry, which is the very life of the ſtate, by continually ſupplying new reſources from agriculture, and the labour of artiſts, and the ſolid arts of commerce, declines more and more into a ſpirit of gaming, which ſubſiſts merely by devouring the ſolid reſources of opulence.

Part of every new loan is made up by deductions out of the old funds; for the money-lenders are gainers even by ſelling out of the old funds one *per cent.* leſs, when they ſubſcribe the ſame money into a new loan of two *per cent.* advantage. The funds, by this means, are kept gradually ſinking, and the government, on the other hand, is obliged proportionally to augment its premiums, the burthen of all deficiencies being laid at laſt upon the ſtate. The public funds are like a granary, with a hole at the bottom. While the grain is drawn out every day by that opening, it is no wonder that the heap ſinks down, notwithſtanding any ſmall ſupplies that may be poured in at top; but if the opening were once ſtopped up, the granary would ſoon be filled up, by the freſh ſtores brought to it from all parts.

In the like manner, the funds muſt immediately riſe, if the government once ceaſes to make any demands for ſupplies from the monied men; for no part of the yearly expence of government being drawn from thence, the number of ſellers would be very few in compariſon of the buyers, which is always the moſt certain means of raiſing the market. If there were to be no transfers or deductions from the funds, but thoſe occaſioned by real neceſſities of ſtockholders, leſs than half a million of money brought to market would be ſufficient to raiſe them to par at any time.

The miſchievous practices of ſwelling our paper circulation are far from ending with the war: even in time of peace, perſons not only aſſume the coinage, but the ſole direction of the circulation of all our paper money, which is a power too great to be left in the hands of private men, who are every day extending it more and more, to the great prejudice of the ſtate. Though the bad conſequences of this paper coinage have never been attended to at home, yet the colony of Connecticut have not only remarked them, but guarded againſt them by a wiſe law, which ordains, "THAT ANY SOCIETY, PRESUMING TO EMIT OR ISSUE BILLS OF CRE-" DIT, TO BE USED AS MONEY IN TRADE, SHALL BE PUNISHED AS IN CASE OF COUNTERFEITING; AND THE " UTTERER OF SUCH BILLS SHALL FORFEIT DOUBLE THE SUMS." Douglas's Summary of American affairs, vol. II. p. 200.

If bankers are ſuffered to proceed without any kind of legal controul, at this rate they alone will be in poſſeſſion of all the gold and ſilver in the nation; in which caſe, excluſive of the great power they would acquire, trade would be as much burdened by an over-abundance of paper ſpecie, as it is at preſent by taxes. Bankers, at preſent, by iſſuing notes, draw all the caſh to themſelves, which they offer in loans to the government; and as theſe loans are paid at eight or ten different payments, it renders it ſtill more eaſy to keep up their arbitrary paper circulation.

According to the vulgar prejudices, indeed, loans of ten or twelve millions have been raiſed for ſome years together, from the mere ſavings of our wealthy traders; but this opinion, from what has been urged, muſt appear to be falſe and abſurd in the higheſt degree.

Beſides the opportunity which a loan affords to the bankers of iſſuing notes, which exiſt as ſo much paper wealth, and lie as a burthen on the ſtate till they be redeemed by parliament, that is, till the debt be paid off.

The ſway and influence of our paper-monied men, as things have been unhappily managed for the nation, have been very formidable; but is not that entirely owing to their being made uſeful engines to the ſtate, to multiply the public debts and taxes? What would their power and intereſt be, if they were not ſupported by their connection with the government? Should the government wiſely detach themſelves from their old ſyſtem of raiſing money, they would become of all men the moſt dependent; for as the richeſt of them have iſſued more paper obligations than they can well anſwer at certain times, inſtead of being able to check others, they will be checked themſelves, with the perpetual apprehenſion of ſuch runs upon them for caſh, as might end in the ruin of numbers. This would force them gradually to abridge their dealings in paper, and turn themſelves to ſome other buſineſs, which would be doubly beneficial to the ſtate.

It would neither be cruel nor injurious for the ſtate to oblige any body of men, who thrive by diſtreſſing the public, under the appearance of ſerving them, to quit their pernicious occupations, and betake themſelves to ſome other means of living conſiſtent with the welfare of the ſtate. Hardly any public reformation can be effected, without interfering, in ſome meaſure, with the private intereſt of individuals: but that is never thought any juſt reaſon why ſuch reformation ſhould not take place. At the concluſion of the war, a hundred thouſand men were turned out of bread; that is, were deprived of their then means of ſubſiſtence, and

compelled to look for ſome other: but this was no reaſon why the war ſhould continue for ever, leſt thoſe who made it their profeſſion ſhould want employment. When the art of printing was invented, numberleſs perſons got their living by writing. This had no weight againſt the encouragement of the art of typography, ſince it has been judged, in all well-policied countries, that as many, or more, might get their living by printing, as ever had done by writing, and the world become infinitely better inſtructed. The intereſt of watermen who ply on the river Thames, was oppoſed to the general conveniency that would ariſe from the building of London, Weſtminſter, and Blackfriars bridges, and others; yet theſe uſeful undertakings have not been diſcouraged in the leaſt on account of that trifling objection. The intereſt of the water-carriers in London, who were formerly a very numerous body, was oppoſed to the ſcheme of introducing the New River water into the metropolis; but though it was eaſily foreſeen that their trade would be ruined, if the new ſcheme ſhould take place, yet the extraordinary convenience that would accrue to the public, from the conſtant and plentiful ſupply of water, outweighed all conſiderations of the private intereſt of theſe individuals, who could earn a livelihood by turning themſelves to ſome other employment. The ſociety of water-carriers, it will be allowed, is not much miſſed in this great city, the inhabitants of which are now better ſupplied with water by the New River company, and the Bridge Houſe, &c. who, for a ſmall expence, circulate it in pipes through the ſtreets and houſes, in great abundance. This circulation has been attended with ſo many conveniences, that the trade of the water-carriers has long been rendered uſeleſs and obſolete; and to thoſe who are accuſtomed to think only of modern times, it now ſeems odd that ſuch a ſociety ever exiſted.——If ever, therefore, this great point of paper-circulation in this kingdom ſhould be duly conſidered by the legiſlature, as perhaps may ſooner become the caſe than many are wont to apprehend, the whole ſyſtem may be reformed that we have too long been habituated to; and the intereſt of all the monied proprietors may be put upon a more ſecure eſtabliſhment than ever it will be without it. They will then think well and reſpect the memory of all who ſhall have endeavoured to promote the required reformation; and it is better it ſhould come upon them gradually, as the national incumbrances might very eaſily be leſſened, than ſuddenly, to their intire deſtruction. Before the late revolution, there was no diſtinction of monied-intereſt, nor ſcarce a ſingle banker in all London, much leſs a banking-houſe in every great city; yet in thoſe times trade flouriſhed, the people lived in plenty, the prices of things were in the general *extremely cheap* to what they at preſent are; which made our manufactures find every where a ready market, and the national ſtock of gold and ſilver kept annually increaſing. If the nation could then proſper without ſuch paper credit, and paper circulation, which has contributed its ſhare to the preſent ſtate of things in this kingdom, why ſhould it be thought that it could not ſtill flouriſh, though we were not incumbered with a ſhilling of national debt, nor a ſingle banker in the nation; eſpecially as our liberties and properties might then be better ſecured, and great improvements added to the arts, and the intercourſe between us and our colonies likely to be infinitely extended?

And whether the prevalence of ſuch a practice hath not contributed, in conjunction with our mighty tax-incumbrances, to the preſent high price of every thing throughout the kingdom, may one day well deſerve the moſt attentive deliberation of the legiſlature; for it is to be feared, that this has been none of the leaſt grievances under which the nation hath too long laboured, as it has facilitated the raiſing immenſe ſums of paper-money for the ſervice of the government, and thereby made it eaſy for miniſters to increaſe the public debts and taxes to the height to which we have ſeen they are arrived: And it is now full time to conſider, whether this uncontrouled arbitrary augmentation of paper circulation, to ſuch degrees beyond the ſolid wealth of the nation, will not one day ſo bloat the kingdom with imaginary treaſure inſtead of real, that the whole paper fabric muſt at laſt inevitably blow up, if it is ſuffered longer to prevail without any ſort of legal check or reſtraint.

And if to the vaſt ſtretch of private paper credit and paper circulation, we continue to add the ſtill further increaſe of public debts, we ſhall, at length, certainly arrive at an immenſe degree of paper riches. While ſuch ſorts of paper wealth and paper circulation ſhall be deemed as good as ſolid gold and ſilver, and merchandize of every kind, we have nothing elſe to do but to multiply this ſpecies of national treaſure: and if we can only deviſe ways and means to pay intereſt for paper public debts, both abroad and at home, with paper, what have we to do but to coin on? An admirable ſyſtem to grow rich as faſt as we pleaſe! There can be no end of ſuch a Babel of treaſure; we may tower it to what height we pleaſe; the larger the fabric grows the firmer it will be; the more our public paper debts, as well as private, augment, the ſafer will ſuch monied property become. This will doubtleſs be the infallible way to render every thing as cheap as we pleaſe and the nation moſt formidable, without further trouble!

Notwithſtanding what has been repreſented, the affairs of this nation are very far from being irremediable; yet we judge it requiſite to apprize our rulers of the difficulties with which, we apprehend, they have to encounter, to the end that they may be the better prepared to ſubdue every obſtacle to the common proſperity, and the more ſpeedily take every proper ſtep to act offenſively and defenſively againſt any enemies that may deſerve chaſtiſement from this nation.

We have at preſent a notable foundation laid in America for the moſt beneficial commercial union between Great Britain and her colonies; a union that might be as glorious as intereſting, if it ſhall not be obſtructed by a weak adminiſtration, but forwarded by a wiſe, an able, and an upright one. And on whom can the kingdom ſo ſecurely confide to accompliſh this happy deſign as a tried, a faithful, a wiſe, and a ſucceſsful miniſter; a miniſter beloved by the people, and will ever render his ſovereign univerſally ſo, while he himſelf ſhall retain the confidence of the people: the miniſter, whoſe weighty interpoſition at once united the hearts of the Americans with their mother country? Can any miniſter be prejudged ſo likely to carry the deſireable commercial harmony between this kingdom and her plantations to its pitch of ſupreme reciprocal emolument? No man in the nation is ſo fit to bring about this great work; and this event alone will conduce to bring about many other we ſtand in need of. It will rectify our affairs at home as well as abroad. For if his majeſty ſhall graciouſly condeſcend again to place the great commoner at the head of his affairs, what is it he will not be able to effect, if through his means a coalition of men of the beſt abilities ſhall act in concert with ſo wiſe and ſo weighty a guide at the head of public buſineſs, and an end is put to miniſterial cabals, intrigues and diſtractions? Such then may the laſt peace become, if duly improved, upon the principles herein ſuggeſted, that we ſhall have no leſs reaſon to eſteem the peace makers and the peace improvers, than the ſucceſsful war conductors.

The improvement of the laſt peace in America to the utmoſt ſtretch of ſound policy, is the great point this nation has to purſue; if that is ſteddily and wiſely done, a reform in the money-ſyſtem may ſoon be brought about, under an adminiſtration of apparent public virtue and true public ſpirit, let whoever will be at the head of it. And it is to be hoped, that we have many wiſe and good men in the kingdom fit to be ſo, ſhould the great commoner not chuſe to be ſo, and be rendered by any means incapable of ſo important a truſt, in the opinion of a wiſe ſovereign, and the voice of his loyal and well-intentioned people.

THE END OF THE FIRST PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE.

PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE the SECOND.

ANIMADVERSIONS ON THE FOUNDATION LAID FOR A MORE INTERESTING COMMERCIAL UNION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND BRITISH AMERICA, BY THE DEFINITIVE TREATY OF FRIENDSHIP AND PEACE BETWEEN HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY, THE MOST CHRISTIAN KING, AND THE KING OF SPAIN, CONCLUDED AT PARIS THE 10th DAY OF FEBRUARY, 1763: TO WHICH THE KING OF PORTUGAL ACCEDED ON THE SAME DAY:

Alſo

OF THE GOOD EFFECTS AND CONSEQUENCES SUCH UNION MAY HAVE TOWARDS THE BETTER ENABLING GREAT BRITAIN TO REDRESS THE NATIONAL GRIEVANCES REPRESENTED IN THE PRECEDING PRELIMINARY DISCOURSE:

With

CONSIDERATIONS UPON THE CONDUCT OF GREAT BRITAIN, WITH RESPECT TO ALLIANCES WITH EUROPEAN POTENTATES TO PRESERVE THE SAID PEACE, OR TO CARRY ON WAR, WHEN THE SAME SHALL BE NEEDFUL.

FROM what has been urged in the foregoing diſcourſe, ſome may imagine that it is not very likely to have any good tendency to preſerve the preſent tranquillity; inſtead of intimidating thoſe potentates diſpoſed to break through it, ſuch a melancholy repreſentation of the affairs of this kingdom, may rather encourage a rupture than prevent it.

Be the conſequence as it may, ſuch premonition will be of utility. If the repreſentation of our affairs therein given be true, could it anſwer any wiſe or good end to conceal it? Will it not, on the contrary, apprize our rulers of the difficulties they have to encounter: and will not that the better enable them to make proviſion, in time, for the purpoſe? If they ſhall prove falſe and groundleſs alarms upon due examination, and that we have no ſuch grievances to redreſs, of which we have complained, ſo much the better; our rulers may paſs them by as a kind of political romance; and they will have the leſs trouble upon their hands. But great care ſhould be taken that they are not deceived themſelves inſtead of the writer. If he happens to be ſo, the fallibility of a private man is not to be wondered at, and the conſequence is of little concern; but if men in power, if thoſe on whom the nation, and his Majeſty depend to redreſs every public grievance, ſhall diſregard what it is their duty to enquire into, can we admire that a general diſcontent ſhall ſpread itſelf throughout his Majeſty's dominions? Can we be ſurprized, that our gracious Sovereign has no ſooner made choice of one ſett of miniſters, than he ſhall experience the neceſſity of taking another into his royal ſervice? For if miniſters ſhall be diſinclined or indifferent about enquiring into the true cauſe of general murmurs, complaints, and diſſatisfaction in a ſtate, how is it poſſible that they ſhould ceaſe? The eternal changing of miniſters will never change the ſtate of the national grievances: it will increaſe, inſtead of redreſs them; and therefore miniſters are more obliged to them who lay the cauſes of public maladies before them, than to thoſe who ſhall ſtifle or palliate them: can the ſtate-phyſician cure ſtate diſtempers, unleſs the cauſes ſhall be expoſed to his view? Can he preſerve the affections of the people, or of his Sovereign, without he is able to effect the cure? He deſerves neither the one nor the other; nor will enjoy it in this kingdom. And how can he expect it? How then can we be ſurprized, that the nation ſhould be diſtracted with changes of men in power, when the people do not experience relief, relief ſufficient to render them eaſy, contented and joyous, inſtead of the reverſe? No miniſters can reaſonably expect to ſit eaſy in the ſeat of power, nor any ſovereign enjoy complacency of mind, unleſs the people do ſo too, in this kingdom.

National ferments will ſometimes ſpring from imaginary, and not real cauſes; theſe are only temporary in free ſtates, and ſubſide when the cauſe comes to be diſcovered. The preſent diſcontents of the people ſeem to proceed from cauſes every way adequate to them, in our humble opinion; and therefore, until thoſe cauſes ſhall be competently removed, 'tis greatly to be feared, that general murmurs, diſcontent and diſtraction will increaſe in the kingdom. I could heartily wiſh and rejoice at my miſtakes, as a private man, delighting in the general happineſs of my country. 'Tis from no other motive I write; as being unpaid, unpenſioned, and unplaced: I write not to diſtract, but to conciliate men in power to unite in a coalition of abilities and reſolution to ſtrike at the root of the public evils; for many there moſt certainly are, and I am willing to believe I have exhibited the principal.——But it is not talking or writing of them that will cure them, though theſe are previouſly neceſſary; for if our rulers are not convinced of the cauſe, they can never be able to cure them: if they are once convinced of that, they will preſcribe themſelves the method.

Leſt the foreign enemies of this kingdom ſhould preſume to take advantage of the preſent ſtate of our affairs, and break the peace, I take the liberty to ſay they will moſt aſſuredly repent it, far more than they have yet done the effects of the laſt war. For there is nothing repreſented as a grievance in all we have urged in the foregoing diſcourſe, but what, in our humble opinion, is to be redreſſed, and that ſoon too, notwithſtanding they may be judged otherwiſe. We apprehend that one ſure foundation for that purpoſe is already laid; we mean a foundation in the ſtate of our American affairs, as the arrangement thereof has been adjuſted by the laſt definitive treaty of 1763. This is our private ſentiment; and 'tis upon this foundation we would deſire to be underſtood, that we aim at the firm erection and eſtabliſhment of that further COMMERCIAL UNION we have attempted in theſe diſcourſes between this kingdom and Britiſh America.———This ſtep, 'tis conceived, carried to its due extent of policy, upon the general principles we have before ſuggeſted, will prove the ſecondary foundation, whereon the mutual proſperity of the mother-kingdom, and her colonies, may be laid for redreſs of grievances in both.

Should it be ſaid, that this is a work of long time, before it can ripen to ſuch maturity as is requiſite ſo to inrich the kingdom, as to enable it to reduce our public debts and taxes to any degree to be ſenſibly felt by the people: we are of a contrary ſentiment; more eſpecially if the proper coinciding ſteps be alſo taken in England to co-operate the more immediately and the more powerful to promote that happy commercial union we would intend.

But if our miniſters ſhall once reſolve upon the general meaſure, and our Northern coloniſts ſhall determine to act in concert with them, in ſome ſuch manner as has been intimated, every requiſite ſtep may then be previouſly thought of to render whatever we have in view effectual.

And if once France, and her allies in the FAMILY COMPACT, ſhall find that we are in earneſt to promote the propoſed union to the utmoſt, they will, doubtleſs, endeavour to thwart it, and that by an infraction of the laſt treaty of peace, and an open rupture.

We ſhall, therefore, at preſent, enquire how far it may be preſumed to be in the power of France and Spain to defeat our intentions.

In our former diſcourſe we have ſhewn the poſſibility of the independency of the Northern colonies from their mother kingdom, provided a more intereſting commercial union ſhould not take place between them and this nation. But, as we ſhall preſume, that no wiſe meaſure will be left untried to prevent an event of that kind, as well on the part of the colonies, as on that of Great Britain, it may be neceſſary to conſider how, and in what manner the foundation has been laid by the definitive treaty of 1763, to conduce to the further commercial union, the better to anſwer the purpoſe hereby honeſtly deſigned.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, all Canada, and its dependencies, the river St. Laurence, the coaſts of Acadia, or Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton, are ceded and annexed to the crown of Great Britain.——— Hereby is ſecured to this nation an uninterrupted intercourſe to the gulph and river St. Laurence, all the iſlands contiguous thereto, and to the ſtraits of Belle-Iſle. This, together with our freedom of navigation to and from Hudſon's Bay, renders us formidable in this part of the world.

By the ceſſion of all CANADA, and its dependencies, to this kingdom, and the very trifling poſſeſſions the French at preſent enjoy of the ſmall iſlands of St. Peter and Miquelon, for a ſhelter only for their fiſhermen at Newfoundland, cannot enable that nation to annoy us from thence in any of the territories of Canada and its dependencies. Stripped as France now is of the territory of CAPE BRETON, called very properly the Dunkirk of North America, as well as that of Newfoundland, they are deſtitute of every place, by the means whereof, they are not capable to rendezvous any formidable naval power to do us any great injury in this part of America, if we ſhall take due care to keep all our territories in thoſe parts in a proper plight and condition, and be able to ſuſtain our brave Americans with a due degree of maritime force.

And although the ſame definitive treaty grants the ſubjects of France the liberty of fiſhing and drying on a part of the coaſts of the iſland of Newfoundland, ſuch as is ſpecified in the thirteenth article of the treaty of Utrecht, which is renewed and confirmed thereby, except as therein excepted, &c. yet as they have no place to reſort to where they can form any degree of marine or military force, they being limited to a guard of fifty men only for the police in the ſmall iſlands of Miquelon and St. Peters, what hinders but we can, at any time, when they ſhall break treaties with us, deprive them of this fiſhery for ever after? So that as ſhe will be in no condition in thoſe ſeas to reſiſt us, if a due union ſhall be preſerved between this kingdom and North America, we, on the contrary, ſhall be able to do them the greateſt miſchief by turning them quite out of this valuable fiſhery.

By the ceſſion of Canada to the crown of England, and extirpating the French, we have alſo ſecured to us the internal navigation of all the great lakes and rivers within the extent thereof, and hereby laid the ſureſt internal foundation in North America to raiſe a more numerous race of ſeamen than we ever had there before: and the navigation of the gulph and river St. Laurence, and all our other dependencies upon Canada, will adminiſter conſtant employment for a great number to be employed externally as well as internally.

Had not the extenſive and valuable territories of Canada been ſecured to us by a free navigation to and from the great gulph and river of St. Lawrence; or had the French been left any other poſſeſſions in this part of the world, except the trifling iſlands of St. Peter and Miquelon, without force, we might have been liable to their inſults or interruption; but now we never can be ſo, without being enabled to chaſtiſe them for any inſolent conduct to us in thoſe ſeas.

Whence it ſhould ſeem, that France will not be able to prevent or interrupt our further deſirable commercial union between this nation and this part of North America, without being likely to ſuffer an eternal deprivation of the privilege of fiſhing in thoſe ſeas at all. And what Briton would not rejoice at this? To what degree would not our gallant North Americans exert themſelves to diſpoſſeſs them for evermore of that liberty they long to enjoy to themſelves, in conjunction with the reſt of their fellow Britons? France have always been loſers by waging war with us in America; and they will be infatuated to think they ſhall be gainers by another, let them attempt it as ſoon as they will.

By the definitive treaty we have likewiſe ſecured to ourſelves the ſafe and uninterrupted navigation to and from all our other colonies on the American continent, as well from Spain as France. By ſettlements at Mobille and Penſacola in Florida, and our right of navigation into the great river Miſſiſippi, in the other gulph of Mexico; by our ſettlements likewiſe of St. Auguſtine and St. Mattheo, in the gulph of Florida, together with our ſituation at the Bahama iſlands, and at Georgia and the Carolinas, we moſt certainly ſhall be far better able to protect and defend our ſouthern continental colonies from any attempts of the Spaniards, than we were before, if due care is taken of them for that purpoſe. And as we ſhall be able to do this, ſo we are alſo in a better condition to act offenſively againſt Spain than ever we before were in the gulphs of Florida and Mexico. Have we not therefore ſo well ſecured all our North American colonies by dint of a free navigation to and from them, as to afford us more encouragement than we ever before had to enlarge and cement a more intereſting commercial union with them? Were we not ſo ſecured by the navigation to and from the three great gulphs, we might be diſcouraged to make farther attempts to extend our union with them; but the definitive treaty has left us every motive, and every incitement to do it to the utmoſt of our power. So that as our North American colonies are ſecured to the more northerly parts from France; ſo are they from Spain to the more ſoutherly. For although ſince the concluſion of the ſaid definitive treaty, France has agreed to transfer New Orleans to Spain, for latent conſiderations, we apprehend will ſoon appear, yet we cannot look upon ſuch a ſtep as diſadvantageous to this kingdom, the Indian nations not being ſo much under the influence of the one as they have heretofore been under the other; there, indeed, having been an inveterate antipathy between them and Spain, inſtead of a friendſhip betwixt them and France.

'Tis true the Spaniſh American territories are nearer to ours on the continent than they ever were before; and are not ours nearer to theirs? May we not regard this rather as an advantage than otherwiſe?

We being now ſituated in the gulph of Mexico, as well as that of Florida, will not this in time of peace more facilitate our trade with this part of Spaniſh America, than when our dominions were at a greater diſtance? In times of war, do we not approach nearer to La Vera Cruz? Are we not more contiguous to the Spaniſh Mexican mines of treaſure? And will not the freedom of navigation in the Miſſiſippi give us advantage over the Spaniards here, when occaſion may make it eligible to take it? May not our adjacency to the Havanna render its conqueſt now more eaſy than ever it was before? Though we no leſs than the Spaniards, once thought that key of the Spaniſh wealth invincible, yet Spain, to their loſs, have experienced it otherwiſe; and what has happened may again more probably, from our nearer and our ſtronger neighbourhood thereto; and more eſpecially when a more formidable union between Great Britain and North America ſhall happily take effect. Can the Spaniards hinder it? We ſay, they now are not near ſo able as they were before we poſſeſſed the Floridas, the right of navigation in the Mexican gulph, and to and from the Miſſiſippi; they are not ſo able to do it, while we have the ports of Mobille and Penſacola in that great gulph, and thoſe of St. Auguſtine and St. Mattheo, in that alſo in the gulph of Florida. Are not alſo, in conſe-

quence

quence hereof, the Bahama iſlands become of more importance to this nation than ever we knew them before? When we ſhall be at war with Spain, is not the Havanna at preſent, as it were, quite ſurrounded with Britiſh dominions and Britiſh power? And are not thoſe dominions from their natural contiguity more able to give mutual aid and aſſiſtance to each other, and therefore to render the whole Britiſh maritime power more formidable in this part of the world than it ever was before the laſt definitive treaty of 1763? Port Royal, in South Carolina, together now with the ports of St. Auguſtine and the Bahamas, are all ſo contiguouſly ſituated, that they can ſoon give aſſiſtance to each other. Carolina-Port Royal is capable of receiving ſhips of any ſize or number; and theſe, with ſhips ſtationed at St. Auguſtine, and cruizers at the Bahamas, we now lie conveniently not only to guard our northern colonies on this ſide, but to aſſemble a maritime force, when occaſion, to attack any enemy in thoſe parts.

The Spaniſh galleons or flota, from the Havanna, in their paſſage through the Gulph of Florida, may now be eaſily intercepted by a ſquadron ſtationed at South Carolina-Port Royal and Auguſtine, aſſiſted by ſuch private advices as the cruizers belonging to Providence may conſtantly be able to furniſh them with; but there is no inſtance of the king's ſhips ſtationed at Jamaica having ever intercepted the Spaniſh galleons or flota in their return home; for they have either had notice from Jamaica before a Britiſh ſquadron appeared, or when they have ſeen our ſhips cruizing for them, they have lain ſafe and quiet at the Havanna till the Engliſh have been tired out and retreated through ſickneſs, or for want of proviſions, or elſe carried with the ſtream through the gulph, and then the Spaniſh fleets have ſoon followed and eſcaped us. Is not likewiſe our ſituation at Mobille and Penſacola, in the Gulph of Mexico, more likely to catch the flota from La Vera Cruz to the Havanna than ever it was before?

Britiſh ſhips bound to Jamaica from Great Britain or Ireland, or the plantations on the American continent, or from the coaſt of Africa, inſtead of paſſing through the Gulph of Florida, where the current is ſtrong againſt them, or through the Windward-Paſſage, which is equally hazardous, ſhape their courſe ſo as to fall down ſo far ſouthward, till they arrive ſomewhat eaſt of the Caribbee-iſlands, in a parallel latitude with Jamaica; to which end they generally make the iſland of Antigua, or others in that neighbourhood, from whence they alter their courſe due weſt, and bear away with the trade-wind to Jamaica.——But when ſuch ſhips are homeward bound to Europe, or the northern colonies on the continent of America, they have their choice of two courſes, viz. either through the Windward-Paſſage or through the Gulph of Florida.

From clearing the weſt point of Jamaica to the weſt of Cape St. Antonio, in the iſland of Cuba, the ſhip has the advantage of the trade-wind upon her ſtarboard quarter all the way; but when ſhe doubles Cape St. Antonio, and changes her courſe to bear away for the Gulph of Florida, which is in the teeth of the trade-wind, ſhe then loſes much more time and way than ſhe had gained in her quick paſſage from Jamaica to the leeward of Cuba: and while ſhe has been thus beating againſt the wind between the coaſt of Cuba and the Gulph, ſhe has been in great danger from the Spaniſh guarda coſtas from the Havanna; and ſuppoſing ſhe eſcaped them, and was juſt entered the Gulph, ſhe was ſtill in danger from the coaſt and current of Florida.—Now we are in poſſeſſion of Penſacola and Mobille in the Gulph of Mexico, and St. Auguſtine, we can diſpatch cruizers after them, and intercept the Spaniſh trade or their guarda coſtas much better than ever we could before; whereby the navigation from Jamaica is rendered more ſecure. Beſides, next to being in actual poſſeſſion of the Havanna itſelf, we are now as happily ſituated as we need be, as well for our own ſecurity as to annoy the Spaniards.

There is no other homeward courſe, except that through the Windward-Paſſage, in which the trade-winds blowing continually from eaſt to weſt, and the moſt difficult part of this paſſage being from Port Royal point in Jamaica to Morant, which is directly againſt the wind, often detains ſhips for a month or ſix weeks together; and even after that, many have been forced to return to Port Royal in Jamaica, and paſs through the Gulph of Florida. So that as our moſt conſtant courſe of mercantile navigation is through the Gulph of Florida; ſo likewiſe is that of the Spaniſh flota and galleons, though the latter have ſometimes ſteered through the Windward-Paſſage; but the unwieldineſs of thoſe ſhips making it rather more difficult than private merchants ſhips, they very rarely chuſe this paſſage.

Upon the whole, therefore, our ſettlements as well in the Gulph of Mexico as Florida, conſidered at preſent in conjunction with thoſe of the Bahama iſlands, and thoſe of Georgia and South Carolina, ſeem to be happily ſituated, as well to intercept the Spaniſh treaſure in the galleons and flota, in their courſe home to Old Spain, either before they may reach the Havanna, or when they ſhall ſail from thence for Europe. Next therefore, as obſerved, to our being in poſſeſſion of the Havanna itſelf, we could hardly be better ſituated for the purpoſe of ſuch interception of the Spaniſh American treaſure; eſpecially if we wiſely embrace every other advantage we may enjoy in theſe parts, in conſequence of the laſt peace, however badly it may have been repreſented by many, who do not ſeem to me to have duly conſidered the benefits we may derive from it by our preſent whole American ſituation.

The reaſon for my obſervations hereon at preſent, is owing to the conſideration of the prepared ſtate Britiſh America is now in for the commercial union herein ſubmitted. For if our colonies were not in that ſtate of ſecurity the laſt peace left them; if the French or Spaniards continued ſo ſituated on the continent of North America as they were before the laſt war, and we were liable to the ſame perpetual diſtraction by their machinations with the Indian nations, we could not have that encouragement we at preſent have to attempt that extenſive commercial union we have ſuggeſted in the foregoing diſcourſe. As we ſhall increaſe the trade on that continent, we ſhall find more commercial employment for the Indian nations in general; for we cannot proſper but they muſt do ſo likewiſe; and when once the arts of agriculture, planting, and raiſing every production which Great Britain ſhall find it her intereſt to encourage, the Indians themſelves, as well as the Europeans, may naturally fall into the like, there being ſo cloſe a connection and affinity with the preſent Indian way of life, and thoſe of agriculture, planting, &c. The wants of the Indians may, by good policy, be increaſed, and this inſtigate to their efforts to ſupply them; which, together with intermarriages between their people and our Europeans, will create a deſireable incorporation between them. This will produce harmony and affection, inſtead of ſcalping and wars: they will experience more felicity to ariſe from ſuch amicable and commercial connections than they ever did from the reverſe. May we not, therefore, preſume, that the whole face of things will ſoon be entirely changed on this continent, when a due commercial union ſhall be promoted? The Indians alſo may as eaſily be induced to ſtrike into the employment that will be afforded them, by a very extenſive inland navigation, as from a great increaſe of agriculture, huſbandry and planting, &c. &c. it is an eaſy tranſition from hunting to agriculture and planting, and from fiſhing to a trading navigation.

By the more intereſting commercial union between this kingdom and North America, we may create ſuch an univerſal ſpirit of commercial induſtry, as well amongſt the Indians as others, as will inſpire univerſal love and amity amongſt the people in general: and if wiſe regulations are made to prevent every ſpecies of the wonted fraudulent impoſitions upon the Indians, they will become one united people with us. This will remove the common cauſe of thoſe broils and miſunderſtandings we have too frequently had with theſe people.

On theſe conſiderations it very clearly appears, that we are better ſituated than ever this nation before was, to act offenſively as well as defenſively againſt Spain, in America; and in the former in the moſt important manner, and to the moſt important purpoſes. For as aſſuredly as we took the Havanna itſelf, ſo certainly are we better able

now to retake it than we ever before were, from the circumſtances of the preceding account. The contiguity of the ſituation of our moſt ſoutherly continental colonies is ſuch, that we may have aid much ſooner, and much more formidable, from the continent in thoſe parts than we ever had; and we may do much greater execution there againſt Spain than we could ever before do. From the Carolinas to the Floridas, we are in a capacity to raiſe a more conſiderable land and maritime force than was ever before in our power, from America alone; and, therefore, may we not reaſonably preſume, that we ſhall be able to do more execution againſt the Havanna itſelf in a few months than heretofore we have been ever able to do 'till the laſt war? Nay, upon any future rupture with Spain, it is to be hoped, that we ſhall level our whole maritime ſtrength, as well from the American continent as from Europe, directly againſt the HAVANNA; this being the ſhort cut to chaſtiſe them at once effectually, and by no means to trifle with ourſelves or them at all in Europe. Will not this ever prove the leaſt expenſive, the ſhorteſt, and the moſt formidable way to deal with that nation, without ſpending our ſtrength elſewhere? Will not this conduct in Great Britain be far more eligible than even waiting for the interception of their flota or galloons? For they may keep them a tedious while locked up in their other Spaniſh American ports at a great uncertainty to us: and therefore at a great expence to us, in waiting for them: whereas, if we once again poſſeſs ourſelves of the Havanna, how can that nation be able to get home their American treaſure? Or, how can they with ſafety bring any from Old Spain to New? With the greateſt difficulty will they be capable of doing either: and when the whole currency of this Spaniſh trade ſhall be ſtopped up, and obſtructed, what will become of the Spaniſh revenues ariſing from this the moſt valuable part of their whole commerce? By a reſolution in the court of London to level the whole of that force the Britiſh nation can apply againſt Spain, in any future rupture with that nation, wholly at once againſt the Havanna, we ſhall do more execution againſt that nation, when they ſhall deſerve it, in one twelvemonths, than in our former dilatory and vague ways of dealing with Spain we have done in ſome years: in ſuch a condition has the definitive treaty of 1763 put this kingdom with relation to that of Spain. And may not ſuch management ſave us millions upon millions of expence hereafter, which heretofore we have expended to right ourſelves againſt that inſolent Spaniſh nation?

As by means of the advantageous ſituation we at preſent have in North America, we are better enabled to take the Havanna again when that point ſhall be reſolved on by the government of Great Britain; ſo is there not the greateſt probability that we ſhall not be diſappointed in our attempt? Have we not now ſafe contiguous harbours for our fleets to fit and refit? Can we not reinforce them as we ſhall have occaſion, as much and as expeditiouſly as the Spaniards ſhall be able to guard or to defend themſelves at the Havanna? Are we not at preſent better able than ever we were to ſurround ſuch part of the iſland of Cuba as ſhall be conducive to our ſucceſs, as well from Jamaica, as from Port Royal in Carolina, the Bahamas, St. Auguſtine, Penſacola and Mobille? Can we not give aſſiſtance alſo from our logwood ſettlement in the river Baylis, if that ſettlement be made the proper advantage of? Can we not likewiſe very eaſily take poſſeſſion from Penſacola, and elſewhere, of the bay of Campeachy; and from thence carry a great maritime force to the Havanna? In ſhort: while the Havanna ſhall be open at top, as our brave Admiral ſaid formerly at the taking of Gibraltar, what is it that our gallant and magnanimous Britiſh ſeamen and ſoldiers will not chearfully attempt and ſucceed in? What is it they will not accompliſh, if wiſely conducted by harmony between our ſea and land officers, under a wiſe adminiſtration, which ſhall engage them by encouraging rewards to exert themſelves? By ſuch like animating meaſures, whatever is poſſible to be done, by the braveſt of men, we may take for granted will be done. They have been lately accuſtomed to conquer; and what is it they will not determine to conquer under an adminiſtration they have been wont to conquer? An adminiſtration beloved at home, and dreaded abroad; an adminiſtration judicious in the choice of officers of every kind to conduct our forces: officers tenacious to ſupport their honour as Britiſh ſeamen and ſoldiers; determined to live in friendſhip, and unanimouſly reſolved on victory?

We do not flatter ourſelves with impoſſibilities: the preſumption of ſucceſs, we may, with great truth, ſay, is more probable than ever, becauſe we are better ſituated to obtain it than ever of the Spaniards. And are we not in the like circumſtances with relation alſo to France in North America, as we have before briefly ſhown? Well then: as we have ſeen that France is not in leſs danger on a future rupture with this nation to loſe for ever the privilege of the Newfoundland fiſheries, from the happy ſituation we are in, by virtue of the definitive treaty in America: ſo is Spain of loſing the Havanna for ever on the like occaſion. Perhaps, France may think this a viſionary idea, that may appear plauſible upon paper only. We pretend to no divinatory gift of prediction: but we hope we are not diſpoſſeſſed of that of common ſenſe, which ſurpaſſes every enthuſiaſtic phantom. Let them judge from numerous things we foretold, from the principles of common ſenſe, for many years before the laſt war: whether we are likely to be miſtaken in our future, if they and Spain force us into one ſoon again. And this, we conceive, they will do: and ſo ſure as they do, they will rue it. For notwithſtanding the preſent ſtate of our domeſtic affairs may look with a melancholy aſpect, from the repreſentation given of them in the former Preliminary Diſcourſe, yet, we know, that every grievance, as before intimated, therein complained of may be redreſſed: and that ſoon too to their ſorrow. And although they may pleaſe themſelves with our preſent miniſterial diviſions; and think this the proper time to take advantage of us; let them remember, that all Britons will unite to ſcourge them when there ſhall be occaſion for it. This their great miniſter Richlieu ever foreſaw, though weaker ones may not.

We are happy in the enjoyment of the liberty of the preſs: we are happy even in the abuſe of that liberty; was it for no other reaſon than to deceive our enemies; for 'tis obſervable, that they rarely diſtinguiſh the difference between party and national writings. All we write is for the national ſervice, having nothing to do with party diſtractions of any kind: and if we put our rulers in mind of any grievances, 'tis only from a motive to have them redreſſed: not to ſhow that it is impracticable. We, however, ſhall have no reaſon to be ſorry if our enemies ſhall make another uſe of them than what we intend; they will repent it. Will not their loſs of Jamaica, and their loſs of the Floridas, and our gain of them, and the ports of St. Auguſtine, Penſacola and Mobille; and our gain of the freedom of navigation to and from the Miſſiſippi, make Spain dread the further conſequences of quarrelling with Great Britain? Let France too remain inſenſible to their loſſes of Canada, and all its dependencies, of Cape Breton, the iſlands of St. Johns, Miſcou, Richlieu, &c. &c. &c. let them remember that they are now poſſeſſed only of the trifling iſlands of St. Peters and Miquelon in their own right, and the privilege of fiſhing at our will and pleaſure under Britiſh reſtrictions; and let them judge what chance they will ſtand to retain this privilege upon another rupture with this nation; and they muſt be infatuated to quarrel with us ſoon again.

We not only behold with pleaſure, the ſtate of affairs at preſent in all North America, and the ability we are there in to act offenſively as well as defenſively, but we view alſo the riſing condition of our new acquired Iſland territories in America.

By the definitive treaty of 1763, the three iſlands of DOMINICA, ST. VINCENT and TOBAGO, are yielded in perpetual ſovereignty to the crown of Great Britain, and the iſland of ST. LUCIA is ceded to France, in exchange for the iſland of GRANADA, with the GRANADINES, and all their dependencies, which are alſo for ever yielded to this nation.

Such is the ſituation of the iſland of DOMINICA, that beſides the immediate aſſiſtance it may receive from our antient iſle of Barbadoes, a reſpectable ſquadron, on the firſt appearance of a rupture with France, might be ſent to Prince Rupert's Bay for its protection; and will ſerve as a place of arms, and the rendezvous of our forces, from all parts of the Weſt Indies; and from the nature of its ſituation, the whole of the French commerce in theſe parts will inſtantly become precarious, and all their ſettlements lie at BRITISH MERCY.

The iſland of ST. VINCENT is ſituated directly to the leeward of Barbadoes, and may in a few hours be reached from thence; and is, at the ſame time, ſo ſeated, as to cover and connect the ſmall iſlands that lie between it and Granada.——By the iſland of St. Vincent, Great Britain has likewiſe gained an additional check upon the French inland colonies in general; and particularly on that of St. Lucia. There can be no meaſure taken there, of which we may not have immediate notice; and if we conſider the ſituation of this iſland in reſpect to that, and the reſt of the French iſlands, now that Granada and all its dependencies are become Britiſh, it is apparent that we may from thence eſtabliſh a cruize; by which the French may be effectually blocked up, or at leaſt deprived of all commerce in caſe of a future war. This iſland may likewiſe ſerve us for a place of arms, by which forces may be tranſplanted from the other adjacent iſlands, and embarked very conveniently for our future expeditions in this part of the world. It alſo contributes to cover and connect all our other poſſeſſions, that together we have acquired by the peace; and from thence reinforcements and ſupplies may be ſent with equal eaſe and expedition to Dominica.

TOBAGO, the moſt remote of all our new acquired iſlands in America, being ſituated near to the Spaniſh main, is an advantage that may tend to render this iſle of important utility. It may open to us a correſpondence with the free Indians, who live upon the continent; and who would be glad to have commerce with us; and with good management we might thereby make an acquiſition of people as we have done of country. From hence we might be able to annoy the Spaniards, as well on the iſland of Trinidada as on the continent, if we ſhall find it worth our while in time of future war, as they have done us from that Spaniſh iſland during the laſt war.

Another advantage we have gained by the definitive treaty, is that of annexing the iſland of Granada to the crown of England. By our moſt accurate accounts, it appears to be about twice as large as Barbadoes, larger than St. Lucia, St. Vincent, or Tobago. The harbour, which lies to the north-weſt end of the iſland, and is called the Carenage, the harbour of Port Royal, or the Old Port, has been always reckoned one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt Indies, as poſſeſſing almoſt every advantage that can be deſired. It is ſo capacious as to hold, with eaſe, a ſquadron of TWENTY-FIVE SHIPS OF THE LINE, where they may ride with perfect ſafety, in reſpect to wind or weather. In time of war, this iſland will give us very great advantages againſt the Spaniards no leſs than the French: and if it ſhould ſo happen, that by a multiplicity of ſervices, our naval force ſhould be ſo divided as to leave us only an inferior ſquadron in thoſe parts, the CARENAGE would afford us a ſafe retreat, without obliging our ſhips to quit that ſtation: a circumſtance well worthy our regard, of which the French availed themſelves often, ſo long as this iſland remained in their poſſeſſion. Nor ſhould it be forgot, that our iſland of Granada, and its dependent Granadines, are free from hurricanes; to which alſo our iſland of St. Vincent is ſeldom expoſed.

By the arrangement of things in the Weſt Indies, in conſequence of the treaty of 1763, there is not now an iſland ſmall or great there, the right and poſſeſſion of which is not duly aſcertained. By virtue of this adjuſtment, we poſſeſs a NEW AND CONSIDERABLE PROVINCE IN THE WEST INDIES, compoſed of iſlands well ſituated; as well for the mutual protection of each other as for their offenſive annoyance of an enemy; and for their general intercourſe with Great Britain. This new diſtribution of territorial property has brought us much nearer to the Spaniſh main, and this in time of peace may enable us to furniſh them with ſupplies of negroes, and other neceſſaries, which they have long received from the French and Dutch. From theſe iſlands, we have in times of war effectual means of keeping ENEMIES FLEETS IN AWE, interrupting all correſpondence between their Weſt India ſettlements, and making deſcents upon their coaſts, let them break with us as ſoon as they will.

The French judged Martinico could not be ſecure without St. Lucia. They were ſtrangely prepoſſeſſed with the notion of St. Lucia, not to diſcern, that we poſſeſs in DOMINICA much more than we could poſſibly have had, if we had kept St. Lucia. For Dominica lies in the very middle of the channel, between Martinico and Guardaloupe, to the windward of the laſt of theſe iſlands, and not ſo much to the leeward of the former, but the veſſels can eaſily fetch the road of St. Peter, which is its principal town and port from Dominica. We have alſo in that iſland, to leeward, Prince Rupert's Bay, and to windward the Great Bay; ſo that, having Barbadoes to the windward of all, and Antigua to leeward of Guardaloupe, it is ſcarce poſſible in time of war, that EITHER TRADE, or SUPPLIES ſhould get into theſe French iſlands. Dominica is of large extent, and great natural ſtrength; and may be defended againſt any force: St. Lucia is ſo acceſſible on every ſide, that it muſt of neceſſity fall to a ſuperior maritime force. Dominica will ſerve to cut off the communication between Martinico and Guardaloupe in time of war, and reduce the inhabitants of both theſe French iſles to the laſt extremity.

Upon the whole: it appears, that the proportion between the property, and conſequently between the power of Great Britain and France in the Weſt Indies, is now extremely altered to what it was before and ſince the concluſion of the peace of 1763. Our property, in the former period, compared to theirs, was no more than one to five: whereas 'tis now as near as ten to fifteen, or nearly as two to three. If, therefore, when we were in ſo much a weaker ſtate, we were ſtill able to protect, even the ſmalleſt of our iſlands, during all the late wars between the two crowns, and in a condition to conquer almoſt all theirs; ſhall we have any reaſon to fear when we have acquired ſo large an acceſſion of UNITED FORCE in the Weſt Indies?

Beſides: the ſituation and diſpoſition of our iſlands give us, in reſpect to France, ſtill greater advantages. Our northern iſlands will remain what they always have been; a perpetual check on them on that ſide. Dominica lies, as ſhewn, in the very center of their poſſeſſions; ſo as to command and diſtreſs the navigation equally of Martinico and Guardaloupe. At the ſouthern extremity again we have Granada, and its dependencies, connected with St. Vincent; from whence we have an eaſy correſpondence with Barbadoes, and a number of ſafe and commodious ports, whereto our FLEETS may at all times reſort: all which conſiderations, taken with their united force, may baniſh the apprehenſions of danger, either to our old or new colonies in theſe parts, in caſe of another rupture with France.

From this conciſe view of our preſent ſituation, in point of ſecurity, to act defenſively and offenſively againſt the united powers of France and Spain, both in North America, as well as in the Weſt Indies: what can Great Britain have now to dread from thoſe mighty potentates? We have little to fear from theſe nations: but they have every thing to fear from the due exertion of the force of Great Britain once more being turned againſt them both.

But what will they not have to fear, from THE ADDITIONAL COMMERCIAL UNION PROPOSED to be made between Great Britain and her North American, and her iſland colonies; and as well between thoſe of our Britiſh colonies on the continent as our iſlands?

After this view of their ſituation for defence and offence, we ſhall now give an idea of the additional commerce we may derive from our new acquired iſland colonies.

Dominica is a large iſland, at leaſt twenty eight Engliſh miles in length, and about thirteen in breadth, in circumference about thirty leagues. It is not interſected by large inlets of the ſea, as many others, both of the larger and leſſer of our own, as the French Weſt India iſlands are, and of courſe contains more land. Some have judged it near twice as large as Barbadoes, and the French eſteem it near half the ſize of Martinico. The climate in general is reputed wholſome. The face of the country is rough and mountainous, towards the ſea ſide eſpecially, and within land, there are many rich and fine vallies, and ſome ſpacious and fair plains. The declivities of the hills are commonly gentle, ſo as to facilitate their cultivation, and the ſoil in general a deep black mould, and commended for its fertility, by the Spaniards and French, as well as the Engliſh. It is well watered, by at leaſt thirty rivers; ſome of which are ſpacious and navigable for ſeveral miles, the reſt commodious for planting, and variety of fiſh. It abounds in all kinds of TIMBER that are cuſtomary in the Weſt India iſles. Their fruits are ſuperior to thoſe in Martinico and Guardaloupe. Hogs, both wild and tame, are in plenty, as well as moſt ſorts of fowl. Ground proviſions in general are here as good as in any of the other iſles; ſuch as bananas, potatoes, maniac, from which the caſſada is made, the common bread of the Indians, Negroes, and even Europeans.

The ſettlements made here by the French upon the coaſt were eſteemed equal, if not ſuperior in produce, to thoſe in their own iſles. There are ſeveral ſafe ports and convenient creeks. On the north-weſt end of the iſland there is a deep, ſandy, large bay, well defended by the adjacent mountains from moſt winds, called Rupert's Bay, where our armament under the late lord Cathcart lay very commodiouſly, and which was of great ſervice to our ſquadron in the courſe of the late war. There is good anchoring ground along in all the LEEWARD COAST.

The French have acknowleged, that ſugar, cotton, coffee, cocoa, and indeed every thing, that either they, or we have been able to raiſe in any of the other iſlands, may be produced in large quantities, as well as in great perfection in this iſland. As it is greatly peopled already, it will induce to the diſcovery of that mine for which this iſland has been always famous, as believing it, from tradition, to be ſilver, but what the French well know to be gold; and though it ſhould not be judged expedient to open it; yet the certain knowlege of it could do us no injury, as the fame of it might invite numbers there, and prove of great benefit.

The iſland of St. Vincent is from north to ſouth about twenty-four miles in length, and about half as many in breadth; ſixty, or thereabouts in circumference. It is rather bigger than Antigua, and if no larger, at leaſt as large as Barbadoes, ſomewhat ſmaller than St. Lucia, and much about two-thirds of the bigneſs of Dominica. The warmth of the iſland is ſo tempered with ſea breezes, that it is looked upon as very healthful and agreeable, and on the eminencies, that are numerous, the air is pleaſantly cool.

The ſoil in general is extraordinary fruitful: though the country is hilly, and in ſome places mountainous. Amongſt the former there are pleaſant vallies; at the bottom of the latter ſome ſpacious and luxurious plains. No iſland of the like extent is better watered; from the mountains there deſcend rivers, and leſſer ſtreams run on both ſides from almoſt every hill. There are various fine ſprings at a ſmall diſtance from the ſea; and the ſlopes ſo eaſy and regular, that there are hardly any marſhes, and no ſtanding waters on the iſland. There are beſides large quantities of valuable TIMBER, as well as good fruit trees; ſome peculiar to this iſle. It abounds with wild ſugar canes, from which the natives make a pleaſant liquor; corn and rice, and all ſorts of ground proviſions are raiſed in plenty, and without great trouble. In the ſouth part, where the French have raiſed ſome large and flouriſhing ſettlements, they have coffee, cocoa, indigo, anatto and lignum vitæ, and very fine tobacco. They have plenty of cattle and poultry. The rivers are ſtored with divers ſorts of freſh fiſh; and the ſea contiguous to its coaſts abounds with thoſe proper to its element and the general nature of the climate. Land and water fowl are in great plenty.

With reſpect to its produce in general, it bids fair to become inferior to none of the other iſles, according to its extent: and it has many commodious bays on the north and north-weſt ſides, with abundance of convenient creeks and good anchoring ground on every ſide. At the ſouthern extremity there is a deep, ſpacious, ſandy bay, called St. Antonio, where ſhips of large ſize may lie ſafely and conveniently. The French for ſeveral years went on ſettling, planting, cutting timber, and raiſing every kind of Weſt India commodities, except ſugar, and carrying on a very lucrative trade to their other iſlands, in which a number of ſloops were employed.

Tobago is thirty-two miles from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, which is the greateſt length, and where broadeſt is about nine miles, from eaſt to weſt, ſomewhat more than ſeventy miles in circumference. It differs not a great deal in bigneſs from the iſle of St. Vincent, is rather larger than Barbadoes, and of conſequence than any of our leeward iſlands. The climate, though it lies only eleven degrees and ten minutes north from the equator, is not near ſo hot as might be expected; the force of the ſun's rays being happily tempered by the coolneſs of the ſea breezes. 'Tis another favourable circumſtance that this iſle lies out of the track of hurricanes.

There are many riſing grounds over this iſland, but they cannot be properly ſtiled mountainous, except, perhaps, in the north-weſt extremity, and even there they are far from being rugged or impaſſable. The ſoil is well diverſified; being in ſome places light and ſandy, in others mixed with gravel and ſmall flints, but in the general it is a deep, rich black mould. From the extraordinary ſize of the ſame ſort of trees that grow in the other iſlands; and from the trials made by the Courlanders and the Dutch, this iſland is eſteemed to be luxuriantly fertile; well ſuited to the different productions that are raiſed in the Weſt Indies; and from the concurrence of various circumſtances, may be wrought with eaſe, and is not liable to the blaſt, and other accidents, which are ſometimes fatal to the moſt promiſing crops in ſome of our leeward iſlands.

It is generally agreed, that hardly any country can be better watered than this is. Beſides ſprings that are found in plenty all over the iſland, there are not fewer than eighteen rivulets that run from the hills into the ſea, ſome on the eaſt, ſome on the weſt ſide. Some of thoſe take a ſerpentine courſe through the meadows; others pent up by rocky channels, roll with ſuch rapidity, as renders them very fit for driving of mills; but there are very few or no moraſſes or marſhes, or lakes, pools, or other collections of ſtanding water, which of courſe muſt render it more healthy, and in all parts of it alike habitable.

Yet this diſtribution of freſh water is not more commodious than the diſpoſition of the bays and creeks of the ſea upon its coaſts. At the ſouth end lies the bay of La Guira, and at a ſmall diſtance the leſſer and the great Rockley bays. The latter of theſe may, with propriety, be ſtiled a harbour, for it is land-locked on every ſide, and is very ſecure. In this bay, the Dutch and French fleets engaged in the year 1677, in which engagement the French ſhip called the Glorieux, of ſeventy guns, belonging to the ſquadron of count D'Etrees, was blown up; which ſhews that it is capable of receiving as conſiderable ſquadrons, and thoſe of as large ſhips, as are uſually ſent into thoſe ſeas. To the northward of theſe lies Fat Hog bay, and beyond that Grand River bay, Great Hog bay, Little Hog bay, and L'Ancre Batteau, covered by the iſland of Little Tobago ——Oppoſite to this, on the other ſide of the iſland, is John Moor's bay, now Man of War bay, very deep and ſpacious, with ten fathom water cloſe to the ſhore, with two fine rivulets running into the bay,

where

where our ſhips may careen, with the utmoſt conveniency and greateſt ſafety; it being ſurrounded by high hills, that come down cloſe to the ſhore, by which the veſſels lying there will be effectually ſheltered from both wind and weather. There are alſo ſeveral little commodious bays between this and Great Courland bay, and Sandy Point bay, which brings us again to the ſouthern extremity of the iſland.

Whence it evidently appears; that this iſland is in all reſpects moſt convenient for commerce, and affords many obvious and extraordinary advantages to provide for and preſerve its ſecurity.

This iſland is covered with all that vaſt variety of valuable TIMBER, that is to be found in moſt countries in the Weſt Indies; many ſorts of which are no leſs extraordinary in their ſize than excellent in their nature. The ſame may be ſaid with reſpect to fruit trees, and amongſt theſe there are ſome that are peculiar to Tobago. Such, for inſtance, as the true NUTMEG TREE, which the Dutch themſelves, who are good judges, affirm to have found there. They, indeed, ſay it is a wild nutmeg, that the mace is leſs florid, and the taſte of the nut itſelf more pungent, though larger and fairer to the eye, than the ſpice of the ſame kind brought from the Eaſt Indies by them.——The CINNAMON TREE grows likewiſe in this iſland, though the bark is ſaid to have a taſte of cloves as well as cinnamon.——Here alſo grows that tree which produces the GUM COPAL, reſembling that brought from the continent of America, and very different from what goes by the ſame name in the reſt of the Weſt India iſlands.

All ground proviſions are produced here in great abundance, as well as perfection. Here likewiſe are plenty of wild hogs and other animals, together with large quantities of fowl, and an amazing variety both of ſea and river fiſh. During the time the Dutch poſſeſſed this iſland, which was not many years, they exported large quantities of TOBACCO, SUGAR, CASSIA, GINGER, CINNAMON, SASSAFRAS, GUM COPAL, CACAO, ROCOU, INDIGO and COTTON, beſides rich WOODS, materials for DYING, DRUGS of different kinds, and ſeveral ſorts of delicious ſweetmeats. Thus we have a proſpect of raiſing here all the moſt valuable commodities which the Weſt India iſlands produce.——There is no ſort of improbability of our being able to produce a great part, if not all the variety of SPICES of the Eaſt Indies in this very iſland.

We ſhall now conſider what commercial advantages may be derived from our poſſeſſion of the iſland of Granada, and the Granadines. This iſland lies ſouth from St. Vincent ſeventeen or eighteen leagues; ſouth-weſt from St. Lucia about thirty-five leagues; ſouth-ſouth-weſt from Martinico fifty leagues; ſouth-ſouth-weſt from Dominica ſomewhat more than ſixty leagues; weſt-north-weſt from Tobago thirty-five leagues, or according to ſome charts forty leagues; ſouth from St. Chriſtophers one hundred leagues, and north from the Spaniſh main about thirty leagues. It lies in the latitude of eleven degrees thirty minutes north, the fartheſt to the ſouth of any of the Antilles. It is upwards of thirty miles in length, fifteen or ſixteen in breadth, in ſome places, though in others leſs, and is about twenty-five leagues in circumference. It is near twice as big as Barbadoes, larger than St. Lucia, St. Vincent or Tobago, and according to ſome French memoir writers, contains of cultivatable lands near one-third of what is to be found in Martinico.

Though the ſituation of this iſle is warm, yet the French writers aſſure us, that it is much moderated by the regular returns of ſea breezes, by which the air is rendered cool and pleaſant. From the ſame authority we may aſſert, that it is wholſome. The ſeaſons are remarkably regular; the blaſt has not hitherto been known in this iſland, and it lies out of the track of hurricanes; which, with reſpect to the ſafety of the ſettlements on ſhore, and the ſecurity of navigation, is an ineſtimable benefit in this part of the world.

There are in Granada ſome very high mountains; but the number is ſmall, and the eminencies ſcattered through it are in general rather hilly, yet gentle in the aſcent, of no great height, fertile and capable of cultivation. The ſoil is every where deep, rich, mellow, and fertile in the higheſt degree: ſo as to be equal in all reſpects, if not ſuperior, to that of any of the iſlands in the Weſt Indies, if the concurrent teſtimony both of French and Britiſh planters may be relied on.

It is perfectly well watered by divers ſtreams of different ſizes, and running in different directions, flowing from a large lake on the ſummit of a high mountain ſituated very near the center of the iſle. There are ſmall brooks running from moſt of the hills, and very fine ſprings almoſt every where, at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore. All theſe rivers abound with variety of good fiſh, and are reſorted to by multitudes of water fowl. There are likewiſe in Granada ſeveral SALT PONDS, which have their uſes and their value.

The great produce of this country, at our firſt poſſeſſion of it, was a prodigious variety of moſt ſorts of TIMBER that are to be met with in the Weſt India iſlands, which is of no little advantage. It abounds with many rich fruits, valuable gums, dying woods, and diverſity of vegetable productions; ſuch as oils, reſins, balſams, &c. which have always born an high price here. All the various kinds of ground proviſions, which are ſo requiſite to the ſubſiſtence of Weſt India plantations, are here in great quantities, and ſome kinds of grain ripen very kindly in this, which are not raiſed at all, or are raiſed with difficulty in other iſlands. River and ſea fiſh are here in great abundance; in reſpect to the latter, turtle of large ſize and fine flavour, as well as lamentins. They have plenty of all ſorts of fowl, and prodigious quantities of game, ortolans, and a kind of red partridge eſpecially. The woods are ſtored with many wild animals, that afford excellent food, and are very rarely met with in the other iſlands. They have much cattle; and as their hills yield excellent paſture, they increaſe daily.

But the diſtinguiſhing excellency of Granada does not lie ſimply in its great fertility, or in its fitneſs for a vaſt variety of eſtimable commodities, but in the peculiar quality of its ſoil, which gives a ſurprizing and inconteſtible perfection to all its productions. The SUGAR of Granada is of a fine grain, and of courſe more valuable than either that of Martinico or Guadaloupe. The INDIGO is the fineſt in all the Weſt Indies. While TOBACCO remained the ſtaple commodity, as once it was, of thoſe iſlands, one pound of Granada tobacco was worth two or three that grew in any of the reſt. The CACAO and COTTON have an equal degree of pre-eminence; nor is this founded ſimply in the opinion of the French, but is equally known and allowed by the Engliſh and Dutch.

By memoirs of the French, the true CINNAMON and NUTMEGS are here: this iſland, with Tobago, may render us maſters of valuable ſpice iſlands. In reſpect to ſituation, and thoſe expoſitions that are eſſentially requiſite to the proper cultivation of thoſe valuable productions, theſe iſlands are every way equal: or, if upon making the experiment, Granada ſhould be found preferable to Tobago, it will be preferred accordingly.

There is good anchoring ground on all the coaſt, and many commodious creeks and bays, both on the eaſt and weſt ſides; which will be infinitely advantageous to commerce, when this iſland ſhall be completely cultivated. There are beſides two large ports of great excellence, and which deſerve particular notice. The firſt of theſe is the harbour of CALIVENIE, at the ſouth-eaſt extremity of the iſland, and is ſingularly ſafe and ſpacious. It conſiſts of an outward and an inward port. The former is three quarters of a mile broad at its entrance, but widens as you advance, and becomes above a mile in extent within. As to the entrance of the interior port, it is above a quarter of a mile broad, but preſently expands itſelf on both ſides, ſo as to be very capacious, and has about ſeven fathom water, with a ſoft and muddy bottom; from whence ſeamen will judge of its utility. Ships lying here in the utmoſt ſafety, may from warehouſes take in their lading very conveniently, and may then with great eaſe be hauled into the outer port, which has this peculiar advantage,

that

that ſhips may either come into or go out of it with the ordinary trade wind. This port, ſuppoſing there was no other, in an iſland thus ſituated, and ſo very capable of being improved, would, in a trading nation like ours, render it a moſt important acquiſition.

But the worth of Granada muſt be highly enhanced, when we conſider, as before hinted, the other harbour, which lies at the north-weſt end of the iſland, and is called the CARENAGE, the harbour of Port Royal, or the Old Port, which has been always eſteemed one of the beſt harbours in the Weſt Indies, as poſſeſſing almoſt every advantage that can be deſired. It is a full quarter of a mile broad at its entrance, and, when once entered, is ſo capacious as to hold with eaſe a ſquadron of twenty-five ſhips of the line, where they may ride in perfect ſafety in reſpect either to wind or weather. There lies alſo, at a ſmall diſtance from this port, a lake of a conſiderable ſize, very deep, and which by cutting through a ſand bank, might be eaſily joined to the port, and would then make it one of the fineſt baſons in the world, and afford all the conveniencies that could well be wiſhed, for careening the largeſt ſquadron of the largeſt ſhips that are ever employed in this part of the world. The benefits that may be juſtly expected from ſuch a port, that may be fortified to what degree we pleaſe, in an iſland ſo well ſituated, and producing ſuch a diverſity of valuable commodities, are ſo obvious, that it is needleſs to enter into a detail of them. In time of war it will give us inexpreſſible advantage againſt the Spaniards as well as the French: and if at any time it ſhould ſo happen, that by a multiplicity of ſervices our naval force ſhould be ſo divided, as to leave us only an inferior ſquadron in thoſe parts, the CARENAGE would afford us a ſafe retreat, without obliging our ſhips to quit that ſtation; a circumſtance worthy attention, and of which the French availed themſelves often, ſo long as this iſland remained in their poſſeſſion.

The French, for ſome years before this iſland came into Britiſh hands, produced 12,000 hogſheads of SUGAR annually, beſides COFFEE, COCOA, and a large quantity of excellent COTTON. Yet they never ſettled above one-half the country, nor received above one-half the profit even that would admit of, had the inhabitants been better planters, and better ſupplied with ſlaves.

Excluſive of theſe productions, this iſland was of great utility to the French during the laſt war, when the ſingle ſhips of force they ſent to the Weſt Indies, with the tranſports under their care, came regularly hither, with little danger of falling into the hands of cruizers. Here they remained in ſafety, and from hence they ſent ſupplies of men, ammunition and proviſions, in ſmall veſſels, which creeping along the Granadines, St. Vincent and St. Lucia, arrived generally ſpeaking ſafely in the harbour of St. Peter's in Martinico. In this reſpect, as well as many others, the French will very ſenſibly feel the loſs of this iſland, as we ſhall the advantage ariſing from our poſſeſſion of it. A Britiſh ſquadron ſtationed here, will certainly be a ſevere check both upon the Spaniards and French in time of war.

From the ſouthern extremity there runs a long range of ſmall ISLETS, extending about twenty leagues. Their number is about twenty-three, capable of cultivation. Their ſoil is remarkably rich, and the climate pleaſant. They will afford large quantities of INDIGO, COFFEE and COTTON; nor are they unfit for SUGARS. They abound with excellent TIMBER. They were formerly ſerviceable to the planters of Barbadoes, who cut large quantities of MILL-TIMBER for their ſugar works. But for many years paſt the French have not only prevented this, as injurious to their property, but by ſtationing guard-ſhips upon the coaſt, made prizes, in time of full peace, of all Engliſh veſſels they found at anchor there, and even of ſuch as appeared in ſight of them, which was a great detriment to our navigation. For if veſſels bound to Barbadoes, either through thick weather, or being diſabled, miſſed that iſland, and run down the ſouth of it, which was the common rout, they came of courſe upon theſe iſlands, and fell into the hands of the French guard-ſhips; the apprehenſion of which made them ſo cautious, as to render their voyages to that Britiſh iſland longer and more tedious than it now need to be, which inhances the value of theſe iſlands.

There are beſides theſe, five larger iſlands dependent on Granada, covered with valuable timber, interſperſed with rich fruit trees, and are capable of variety of Weſt India improvements, which render them eſtimable. They are named CARRONACOU, which has a convenient and capacious harbour, iſle of L'UNION, CARMOEN, MOUSTIQUES, or MOSKITO ISLAND, and BEEOVYA, or BEKIA.

The conſideration of theſe ſmaller iſlands led to the queſtion, whether they might not, all circumſtances conſidered, be more proper for the introduction of SPICES than even that of TOBAGO? The five iſlands of the MOLUCCAS, which are TERNATE, TYDOR, MOTIER, MARQUIEN and BACHAM, were ſo many ſeparate kingdoms, before they were known to the Europeans. They lie in a line like theſe, and none of them larger than ſome of the five of ours. They have ſmall ſtraits of the ſea between them like the Granadines, bear the ſame TREES, HERBS and ROOTS, are ſome of them like thoſe, deficient in freſh water, and produced originally CINNAMON and NUTMEGS, as well as CLOVES, the uſes as well as the method of CULTIVATING and CURING of which were taught them by the Chineſe, as Dr. Angenſola, who wrote an excellent hiſtory of the MOLUCCA ISLANDS, informs us. BANDA, where the NUTMEGS originally grew, is not above half the ſize of BEKIA; and AMBOYNA, to which the Dutch ſeem at preſent inclined to confine both NUTMEGS and CLOVES, is rather inferior in point of extent to our GRANADA.

To judge of the true value, and to aſcertain the real importance of all our new iſland acquiſitions, we muſt view and contemplate them in all their different lights, from which they may every one of them become more or leſs, immediately or remotely, directly or indirectly, aſſiſting to the intereſts, increaſing the power and commerce, extending the navigation, and thereby promoting the welfare of Great Britain; or, in other words, conducing to the induſtry, the independency, and the happineſs of their fellow citizens and fellow ſubjects, who are the inhabitants of the MOTHER-COUNTRY.

In virtue of the general arrangement of things by the treaty of 1763, many of our old plantations will avail themſelves of thoſe ſupplies of TIMBER, from which they were for many years before precluded. The run away negroes will not be able to ſhelter themſelves any more in uninhabited iſlands, and thoſe impediments to, and embarraſſments of our navigation, which have often been ſeverely felt, and in conſequence of which ſo many frequent and loud complaints have been made to almoſt every government in our colonies, is now removed, by taking away the cauſe. For there is not now an iſland ſmall or great in the Weſt Indies, the right to as well as the poſſeſſion of which, is not clearly aſcertained.

Our old ſettlements will gradually diſburthen their ſupernumerary inhabitants on territories belonging to their mother-ſtate, inſtead of reſorting, as has been too notorious that great numbers have done, to DANISH and DUTCH ſettlements.

If we advert to the alterations this new diſtribution of territory has made, in regard to the French in thoſe parts, it appears plain enough from what has been already obſerved, that they have loſt the conveniency of raiſing vaſt quantities of freſh proviſions, as well as very conſiderable ſupplies of valuable commodities of the various kinds before enumerated, as belonging to our reſpective new acquiſitions in the Weſt Indies, which the French conſtantly received from thoſe that were ſtiled neutral, but ſo far as this went, were in reality made French iſlands. They have alſo loſt the advantage of felling TIMBER and building SLOOPS, and even larger veſſels in Dominica and St. Vincent, as they were accuſtomed to do; and all theſe benefits are now thrown into the Britiſh ſcale of wealth, power and ſecurity. Beſides, they are deprived of their communica-

tion with the Indians in the one, and with the Indians and the free Negroes in the other of thoſe iſlands, from whence they derived, by their own confeſſion, ſuch ſervices as were productive of variety of advantages, excluſive of the check they kept upon us. They no longer enjoy the turtle and lamentin fiſhing round the coaſt of Tobago, which was their annual reſort, but are now confined within the bounds and to the coaſts of their own iſlands.

Theſe conſequences, when conſidered together, have given very great advantages to our planters, and brought very ſenſible difficulties upon the French planters, and a larger number of hands for procuring thoſe neceſſary ſupplies, which they formerly received in great abundance, with little trouble and very ſmall expence. It will alſo follow, as all who are acquainted with thoſe countries muſt know, that from being thus ſtreightned they are compelled to employ more negroes; and yet, even with this increaſe of ſlaves, leſs will be done in their ſugar plantations than formerly, when almoſt all their wants with reſpect to ſubſiſtence, and even with regard to building, were ſupplied upon ſuch eaſy terms, as we have ſeen. In this ſituation likewiſe as many veſſels of different ſizes were continually occupied in their intercourſe with thoſe iſles, with which they can now have no further connections, their navigation of courſe declines.

By the arrangement made, the French have not only loſt the additional produce of ſugars, coffee, cotton, &c. of the ſeveral before deſcribed iſlands, which taken all together muſt be very conſiderable, with all title to any further improvements they have not only loſt there, but all the advantages of thoſe various ſafe and commodious ports before deſcribed, as belonging to our ſeveral new colonies; they have loſt the facility which they had from thence of ſuccouring all their iſlands, even when we had ſuperior ſquadrons in thoſe ſeas, to which for the future they muſt in caſe of future war with us be inevitably expoſed. They have alſo been deprived on one ſide of the intercourſe they had with the Spaniards, and muſt hereafter run much greater hazards than formerly, in receiving, when their neceſſities ſhall require them, ſupplies of proviſions and military ſtores from the Dutch.

As to the French having St. Lucia, they can receive no great benefit from that iſland, nothing comparable to what we do from the reſt before repreſented. For that iſland is far from being healthy. It is ſo full of venomous creatures of different ſizes, that the French can ſcarce ſtir abroad but in boots. It is not only very mountainous, but even the flat country is full of marſhes. Beſides, it lies ſo immediately within the view, and under the power of the well ſettled colony of Martinico, that without being at a great expence in fortifications, and keeping a conſtant military force there for its defence, we could ſcarce hope that it would ever have been thoroughly ſettled. If even with the aſſiſtance of fortifications and a regular force, it had been ſettled by us, it might have been found impracticable to have ſecured it, as there are ſo many landing places in different parts of the iſland; and as in caſe of a war, this ſmall ſettlement would have been immediately expoſed to the whole ſtrength of the French iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants might have been ruined before any aſſiſtance could have been ſent them; and this, if the country had been recovered, or quitted by the enemy, would certainly have diſcouraged our people from ſettling it again. As the caſe now ſtands, the French are liable to all theſe inconveniencies; and whoever conſiders the ſituation of this iſland, and of thoſe belonging to us in its neighbourhood, and reflects at the ſame time on the ſuperiority of our maritime force, will ſee, that in time of war it muſt be a very precarious poſſeſſion, more eſpecially if ſo thoroughly ſettled as to make the conqueſt of it a matter of much conſequence to us.

Our new Britiſh iſland colonies, like our old ones in America, muſt depend entirely upon us, and draw from hence every neceſſary, every conveniency that they want, either for their own ſubſiſtence, or for carrying on their plantations; and how extremely beneficial this is, and ſo conſiderable an increaſe of commerce muſt it be to the mother-country has ſufficiently appeared.

There can be no room to fear that our new ſettlers will not find wherewithal to make conſiderable returns, from the particular valuable Weſt India commodities before enumerated to be produced. So that the increaſed intercourſe of trade between the new colonies and their mother-country, as it has from the cauſes before repreſented began, ſo the advantages ariſing from it will diffuſe themſelves generally over the whole iſland of Great Britain; indeed through the whole ſphere of the Britiſh dominions in Europe, ſince very large quantities of linens and ſalt proviſions will be exported for the uſe of thoſe coloniſts and their ſervants from Ireland; their increaſed demand, we may reaſonably hope, will, in a great meaſure, abſorb thoſe ſupplies with which the inhabitants of that iſland have hitherto furniſhed the French and Spaniſh ſhips, and contributed thereby to their navigation much cheaper than otherwiſe they could have done.

But excluſive of the benefits flowing from their direct trade with us, they will bring in likewiſe conſiderable advantages by the encouragement they will afford to other branches of our commerce. The African trade has received a new ſpring from their demands, ſince all that they can do at preſent, or in future, muſt chiefly ariſe from the labour of negroes. The ſupplying them with ſlaves, therefore, will be a continual ſource of wealth in that ſhape to ſuch as are employed in that branch; more eſpecially to thoſe who have the largeſt ſhare therein, the merchants of London, Liverpool and Briſtol.

This trade is of importance to Great Britain, as it is carried on principally with our own manufactures, and more eſpecially with woollen goods of different kinds, to a large amount; and in all the incidental profits, excluſive of what is produced by ſlaves, which ariſe from our correſpondence with Africa, whether obtained by the purchaſe of elephants teeth and gold duſt, upon the coaſts of that country, or from the ſale of commodities to foreigners in the Weſt Indies, finds its way hither. On the winding up of the account, therefore, as the ſale of the negroes centers in the Weſt Indies, the profits ariſing from them, and every other acceſſion of gain centers ultimately here, and becomes the property of the inhabitants of Britain.——— This will appear with greater degree of evidence, when we reflect, that more than the moiety of that part of the cargo for the African trade, which is not made up of our own goods, conſiſts of the manufactures of the Eaſt Indies. Beſides the quantity of India goods employed on the coaſt of Africa, there is likewiſe no ſmall demand for the ſame commodities in our OLD SUGAR COLONIES, and of courſe there will be the like demand in our NEW.

From what we have ſaid, we may diſcern in what manner the comprehenſive chain of commerce is united, and in what manner the different products of the moſt diſtant parts of the world are carried to and brought from theſe diſtant countries in Britiſh ſhipping; and that all the emoluments ariſing from this extenſive navigation, which will be daily augmented, by our new acceſſion of territory, in the Weſt Indies only.

And if the further intereſting commercial union ſhall be promoted to the full degree and extent to which the ſame will now admit of with greater ſafety and ſecurity than ever it could do heretofore, what vaſt emolument muſt not inevitably from hence ariſe? To what an amazing height in trade and navigation may this kingdom not arrive by an increaſe of the circulation of commerce between Great Britain and her colonies and plantations in America and Africa? Nay, will not our Aſiatic trade likewiſe derive great advantage from the augmentation of general traffic that will hence enſue? And while theſe ſhall go on daily advancing, will not our European trade receive advantages proportionate hereunto? Eſpecially ſo, provided in conſequence hereof, we ſhall ſo increaſe in opulence as to become able to leſſen the public debts and taxes to that degree as

ſhall make our commodities of every kind cheaper for exportation, as well our plantation commodities in general, as our native manufactures in particular: eſpecially, we ſay, when our native commodities in general ſhall be reduced to a degree of cheapneſs equal to thoſe of our moſt detrimental competitors, by the due reduction of taxes in this kingdom?

The prodigious compaſs of this additional commercial circulation, will be eſſentially defective, if we ſhould omit mentioning the conſtant connection that will ſubſiſt between all the NEW BRITISH SUGAR COLONIES and our NEW NORTHERN COLONY ACQUISITIONS. A connection equally neceſſary, and reciprocally advantageous to thoſe of our ſubjects who ſhall be ſettled in both; a connection, that will be ever maintained between them, by which the daily increaſe of numerous ſubjects of Britain, who ſhall ſettle either in the continent of America or in the Weſt Indies, to their mutual benefit, as well as that of the mother empire.

The Britiſh northern colonies ſupply the ſugar iſlands chiefly with lumber and proviſions, which are articles capitally lucrative to both. Hereby, they diſpoſe of numerous bulky commodities, derive immenſe advantages from their fiſheries, ſupport an extenſive navigation, which is ſo much the more profitable to them, as it is carried on intirely with ſhips of the northern colony built; circumſtances which to the eye of a judicious reader, who extends his view to the whole circle of this commerce, will place this trade, and all its beneficial conſequences that attend it, in a very conſpicuous and intereſting point of light; and convince him, that nothing can be either more convenient for theſe people, or more to their profit: and therefore, the more the new iſland colonies ſhall take of the northern colonies, the more the new as well as the old northern colonies will be benefited.

On the other hand, the benefits that will reſult to the inhabitants of the new ſugar colonies, are not leſs conſiderable. They draw all theſe neceſſary ſupplies from the neareſt, and conſequently from the cheapeſt market; markets that by the additional advantages they have received by the peace, will become more and more inexhauſtible, more and more plentiful, and therefore more and more cheap on all their productions, if the additional commercial union ſhall take due effect, and upon which our ſugar iſlands may always depend for a cheap and ample ſupply. Theſe are brought to them both by their North American countrymen to their own doors; which is a circumſtance exceedingly ſuitable to their ſituation, as it ſpares them the pains and labour requiſite to provide them, which would otherwiſe be a great drawback on their induſtry in their ſugar plantations. Theſe ſupplies they pay for in their own productions of another kind, which is a great advantage, and no obſtruction to their different commercial improvements: from all which circumſtances, comprehended together, it is apparently obvious, that the convenience of this mutual correſpondence, and benefits reſulting from it, are equally on both ſides, and exactly ſuited to the genius, the temper, and the ſituation of the people by whom it is thus carried on.

By the attentive conſideration of this conjunction of intereſts, we cannot but plainly diſcern, that by theſe new acquiſitions in the Weſt Indies, new markets are opened, to which our new ſubjects on the continent may reſort. Theſe iſlands will more than replace to the people of Canada, the trade they formerly carried on to the French colonies; and will, at the ſame time, enable our other ſettlements upon the continent, to find new cuſtomers for all their additional commodities, without leaving them that colour of neceſſity which was the only plauſible excuſe they had to plead for ſupplying our rivals with the materials eſſentially neceſſary to the ſupport of their ſugar plantations, and of courſe detrimental in the ſame degree to thoſe of their fellow-ſubjects. Beſides, as the increaſe of our ſugar iſlands affords them the increaſe of commerce, ſo from their ſituation they will be a great bar to that illicit and injurious trade with the French and Dutch, which cannot for the future be carried on with the ſame facility as it has heretofore been.

As the inhabitants of the ſugar colonies are continual purchaſers from ſuch as are ſettled upon the continent of America, the amount of their purchaſes conſtitutes a ballance from them in the favour of all thoſe who diſpoſe of them. On the other hand, the inhabitants of the northern colonies, drawing large and conſtant ſupplies of commodities and manufactures from hence, we at preſent, for the ſame reaſon, have a ballance in our favour againſt them. And upon the promotion of the further commercial union between us and them, the mutual ſales and purchaſes may be highly augmented on both ſides, and the general equilibrium of trade between them rendered more equal than it ever yet has been.

There will be room in our new iſlands for attempting many things, and improving more. The planting COCOA walks cannot be conſidered as impracticable, ſince we ſee the French have ſucceeded in it; and ſo, no doubt, may we, at leaſt in a degree ſufficient to furniſh our own and our North American conſumption. We have coffee already in our iſlands, but it would certainly turn to more account if the culture of it was better underſtood; in order to which, pains ſhould be taken to be thoroughly informed of the manner in which it is managed in Arabia, ſince it is not at all improbable that the flavour, in which only our coffee is deficient, depends upon the culture and the method of curing it. Tea, if we may believe the French, is a native of the Weſt as well as of the Eaſt Indies; in reſpect to which it would be certainly right to make due enquiries, and in conſequence of them experiments; and if from thence it ſhould, if it is not already there, it might eaſily be carried thither, and a trial made whether it might not be cultivated to advantage. It has been no difficult matter to introduce black pepper, rhubarb and ſenna, and ſeveral other eſtimable DRUGS are ſaid to have been raiſed in the Weſt Indies by the curious to great perfection. If the culture of theſe, and other medicinal plants, were once underſtood, they might be rendered profitable articles of commerce. The laudable Society for promoting arts and manufactures, have given ſeveral premiums with reſpect to ſarſaparilla, and other things; and it is to be wiſhed, that thoſe endeavours, ſo well intended, may have good effects; for the increaſing the number of our commodities appears to be an affair of no little conſequence.

The ſucceſs attending theſe, or any other experiments of the like kind, might become the means of improving many ſpots of ground that would otherwiſe prove uſeleſs; as it is well known that either lands worn out, or which are utterly unfit for either ſugar or cotton, might be employed for cocheneal. The raiſing a variety of more commodities, would prevent the loſſes that ſometimes enſue from ſhort crops; a ſeaſon unfavourable for ſome things, might be advantageous to other. In reſpect to many articles that have been mentioned, the cultivation of them might be carried on with fewer negroes, and yet afford comfortable ſubſiſtence to white families; the increaſe of which in our colonies, is an object of great concernment, and is a matter conſtantly attended to by the French. Add to this conſideration, that though tea, coffee and chocolate are at preſent not improperly reckoned as articles of luxury, they would be much leſs ſo, if they only, or even if they principally, came from our own plantations; and the conſumption of them ſhould become much greater than it is at preſent, would likewiſe promote and increaſe the conſumption of our great ſtaple commodity of ſugar, and thereby augment the revenue thereon. In theſe, and in divers other lights, ſuch plantation improvements would be experienced of great conſequence, and are therefore extremely well worthy of conſideration for the extending our commercial union of trade between Great Britain and Britiſh America.

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The proſperous ſettlement of our new iſlands in the Weſt Indies, can be no detriment to our old ſugar colonies. It has been generally allowed, that there was a want of more ſugar-land in the Weſt Indies; and this being admitted, it is certain, that Britain is a great gainer by the peace of land fit for the cultivation of ſugar in our own plantations plentifully. This was not only an opinion, in reſpect to the truth of which the beſt judges agreed, but it was a point alſo decided from matter of fact; becauſe it is known, that numbers of Britiſh ſubjects reſorted to countries in the poſſeſſion of other powers. No one will deny, that many Engliſh ſubjects are ſettled in the Daniſh ſettlements of ST. CRUZ; that there are many reſident in EUSTATIA, and that many more are intereſted in the Dutch ſettlements upon the continent of America. Did it not, therefore, become highly neceſſary to remove this growing evil, by giving ſuch adventurers an opportunity of exerciſing their induſtry in countries belonging to their mother country; and to theſe many of them have returned?

Moreover, as from facts it has appeared, that old ſugar colonies began to be overſtocked, ſo as to afford little encouragement to new plantations, it ſeemed incumbent upon us to have an eye at making the peace to this circumſtance, to prevent ſuch enterprizing people, who were determined to ſeek their fortunes in thoſe parts, from being driven into foreign ſettlements; where their labour and induſtry, inſtead of benefiting us, would continue to have turned to the advantage of our rivals; and foreign markets would have been ſupplied, for the profits of foreigners, by commodities raiſed by the ſkill and pains of Britiſh ſubjects.

Nor can we but obſerve, from what has already fell out, that indigent people here, would go in ſearch of ſubſiſtence elſewhere; and we muſt alſo be ſenſible, that by providing countries for ſuch people to reſort to, their induſtry, though not their perſons, will ſtill be preſerved to Britain. By that increaſe of trade, which their labour abroad gradually produces at home, the number of our neceſſitous people here have been greatly leſſened. There have been alſo large quantities of our commodities and manufactures wanted, that are requiſite in our plantations; and to ſupply thoſe, numbers have been ſet to work, who were either idle before, or ſubſiſted by the poor's rate, or took methods of ſubſiſting more injurious to the public, and much leſs to their own advantage and comfort, than if they had betaken themſelves to honeſt labour here, or even went abroad to thoſe new iſlands.

From what has been ſaid, it muſt appear to every candid and impartial man, that our new Weſt India acquiſitions have contributed to lay a moſt notable foundation for that moſt lucrative commercial union we have recommended to be ſuperſtructed thereon. This has been accompliſhed by the laſt peace, likewiſe, with the reſpect to our continental colonies. We have already conſidered the points of ſecurity, and of acting defenſively and offenſively in virtue of the laſt peace againſt both Spain and France in North America, as well as in the Weſt Indies. There remains nothing more to be ſaid, than to ſpeak at preſent more fully with regard to the improvement of the commerce of the continental colonies between the mother kingdom and them, for the further extenſive promotion of our mutual commercial union, harmony and concord.

Were not our North American colonies acceſſible by our mercantile ſhipping and royal naval power, the vaſt extenſiveneſs of thoſe new acquired colonies would have rendered them rather a burthen than emolument to this kingdom. But ſo wiſely has the peace been deviſed, as to render them acceſſible on the NORTH, THE SOUTH, AND THE WEST, BY SEA, as our ancient colonies were before on the eaſt only, as we have before ſhown. And does not this maritime acceſſibility add an invaluable eſtimation to thoſe colonies, while Great Britain ſhall preſerve her ſuperiority of power on the ocean? While this ſhall be the caſe, will not this happy circumſtance adminiſter a more permanent ſtability and ſecurity, as well to our OLD AS OUR NEW acquired colonies and plantations, than they ever before had? Nay, will not the increaſe of mercantile navigation to and from the gulph and the great ſpacious river of St. Laurence; to and from the gulph of Mexico, and the great river Miſſiſippi, and to and from the gulph of Florida, contribute to the maintenance of that ſtability and ſecurity we have obtained? And will not this at all times enable us to act as well offenſively againſt France and Spain, as defenſively, in this part of America, as we have before ſhewn?

But to what degree our mercantile ſhipping in North America will increaſe, by virtue of that maritime acceſſibility, we, at preſent, enjoy, has not yet been duly repreſented. Wherefore, it will be neceſſary to give ſome idea of that matter, with relation to the additional internal mercantile navigation, that this vaſt continent will afford to our Britiſh traders. For provided our mercantile navigation ſhall daily increaſe there, as well as to and from the Weſt India iſlands, will not this give additional ſtrength to the whole royal maritime power of the Britiſh empire? Will not a vaſt additional increaſe of mercantile internal navigation in North America, greatly contribute to expedite and facilitate that further commercial union we plead for between the mother kingdom and thoſe colonies?

The whole country of North America, now annexed to the crown of Great Britain, abounds with every advantage to promote a more beneficial commercial union between them and the mother kingdom. It abounds with very large rivers, which it were endleſs to enter into the detail of. The river St. Laurence is the largeſt in all North America, and inferior to few in the world, it being computed about twenty-five or thirty leagues wide at the mouth, and two hundred fathoms in depth, and one hundred and ſixty leagues in length; and yet by the help of a good ſouth wind, and the currents, which are pretty ſtrong, may be ſailed, according to Charlevoix, in twenty-four hours. As to its ſource, though the European miſſionaries have ſailed up it above 700 or near 800 leagues, that is as far as the LAKE of ALEMIPIGON, yet it is ſtill unknown, unleſs it really ſprings from that lake, which no one hath yet been able to decide——That LAKE diſcharges itſelf into that called the UPPER or SUPERIOR, and this into that of HURON, and this again into that of ERIE, or CONTI, and this laſt into that of FRONTENAC, or ONTARIO; all this by means of the SAME RIVER, from which it ſeems to iſſue out with a ſmooth courſe during the firſt twenty leagues; after which it becomes more rapid during another thirty leagues; that is till it comes to MONTREAL. From this it reſumes its ſmooth flow quite to that of QUEBEC, growing ſtill wider as it runs, till it empties itſelf into the ſea above one hundred leagues below it: but according to the report of the Indians, this famed river ariſes out of another LAKE, farther up, and larger than any of thoſe we have mentioned, and which they call the LAKE ASSINIPOLIS, or ASSIBOUELS; and this laſt is ſaid by them to lie about fifty or ſixty leagues above that of ALEMIPIGON, and is ſuppoſed to have a communication with the NORTHERN SEA; and it is not improbable but a northern paſſage into it may be found by means of this LAKE. There are falls or cataracts, ſuch as that of NIAGARA. The river is, however, deep almoſt all the way, and hath a number of pleaſant iſlands in it; the moſt remarkable of which are COUDRES, ORLEANS, MONTREAL, ST. JOHN, MISCOU, RICHLIEU, and ſeveral others. The highland is well wooded, and ſome lowlands well inhabited and manured, inſomuch that they yield vaſt crops of corn and other grain, beſides fruits, pulſe, &c. The ſettlements, which are moſtly round the ſhore, are alſo well ſituated and built, and yield a noble proſpect as one ſails by them: the ſame may be ſaid of the reſt.

The river St. Lawrence receives ſeveral conſiderable rivers in its courſe, the chief of which are called DES-PRAIRIES, OR OF THE MEADOWS; the MONS, the TREBLE RIVER, and the large one of SANGUENAY, and

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ST. MARGARET, near the mouth of it. All theſe, and many other leſs remarkable, fall into it on the north ſide: there are others alſo on the ſouth.—The RIVER MISSISIPPI runs through the whole province, which was the French LOUISIANA, from north to ſouth, and overflows, at certain ſeaſons, a vaſt quantity of land, and renders the ſame the more fertile in the general: this great river is called by the Spaniards LA PALLISADA, from the prodigious quantities of TIMBER of divers kinds, which are ſent down upon it in flotas to the ſea. It is known to be navigable 450 leagues up from its mouth. The ſpring head remains ſtill unknown, though the natives ſay, that it flows from a large ſtream that comes down from a hill in the country of ISATI, about the fiftieth degree of latitude. We have extraordinary accounts of the numerous tribes of Indian nations met with on each ſide of this river, and they are repreſented as an hoſpitable civil people, and willing to commerce with Europeans. The French formerly made two ſettlements, the one near the LAKE ASSINIPOLIS, which is computed about thirty leagues round; the other among the Chogaſkades, or Stout People, who live in their neighbourhood.

The MISSISIPPI receives a great many ſpacious rivers into it; and the country on both ſides is fruitful enough, and inhabited, as obſerved, by a great variety of nations of different appellations, for which we refer to Monſieur Sale's account thereof, who ſailed down it in the year 1638, made ſome ſettlements on each ſide of it, and hath marked the diſtances between all thoſe rivers that fall into it, and the names of the ſeveral tribes that live between them on each ſide; the amount of which, from the river of the ILLINOIS, from which he firſt ſet out, down to the mouth of it, he computes to be 653 leagues. The river diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of MEXICO by two branches, which form an iſland of conſiderable length.

The moſt important place upon the Miſſiſippi is reckoned to be at the FORKS OF THAT RIVER, where the OHIO falls into the Miſſiſippi; which, like another ocean, is the general receptacle of all the rivers that water the interior parts of that vaſt continent. Here thoſe large and navigable rivers the *Ohio*, river of the *Cherokees*, *Wabache*, *Illinois*, *Miſſouri*, and *Miſſiſippi*, beſides many others, which ſpread over the whole continent, from the Apalachean mountains to the mountains of New Mexico, upwards of one thouſand miles, both north, ſouth, eaſt and weſt, all meet together at this ſpot; and that in the beſt climate, and one of the moſt fruitful countries, of any in all that part of the world, in the latitude of thirty-ſeven degrees, the latitudes of the Capes of Virginia and of SANTA FÉ, the capital of New Mexico. By that means there is a convenient navigation to this place from our preſent ſettlements to New Mexico; and from all the inland parts of North America, farther than we are acquainted with it: and all the natives of that continent, thoſe old friends and allies of the French, have by that means a free and ready acceſs to this place; nigh to which the French formed a ſettlement, to ſecure their intereſt on the frontiers of all our ſouthern colonies. In ſhort, this place is in the CENTER OF THIS VAST CONTINENT, and of all the nations in it, and ſeems to be intended by nature to command them both; for which reaſon it ought not to be neglected by Britain.

As ſoon as we paſs the Apalachean mountains, this ſeems to be the moſt proper place to ſettle at; and was pitched upon for that purpoſe, by thoſe who were the beſt acquainted with theſe countries, and the proper places of making ſettlements in them, of any we know. And if the ſettlements of this place had been made by the Engliſh, as they were propoſed, about twenty-three years ago, they might have prevented, or at leaſt fruſtrated, the late attempts to wreſt that country, and the territories of the river Ohio, out of the hands of Britain.

It may be ſaid, that thoſe inland parts of North America will be of no uſe to Britain, on account of their diſtance from the ſea, and inconvenience to navigation. That indeed might be ſaid of the parts which lie immediately beyond the mountains, as the country of the Cherokees, and Ohio Indians about Pitſburgh, the only countries thereabouts that we can extend our ſettlements to, which are inconvenient to navigation. For that reaſon, the firſt ſettlements we make beyond the mountains, that is, beyond thoſe we are now poſſeſſed of, ſhould be upon the Miſſiſippi, convenient to the navigation of that river; and in time theſe ſettlements may come to join to our preſent plantations; and we may by that means reap the benefit of all thoſe inland parts of North America, by means of the navigation of the Miſſiſippi and the other great rivers that fall therein, which will be ſecured by this poſt at the FORKS.

This great river the Miſſiſippi, is navigable upwards of two thouſand miles to the falls of St. Anthony, in latitude forty-five degrees, the only fall we know in it, which is ſixteen degrees of latitude above its mouth; and even above that fall, there is thirty fathom of water in the river, with a proportionable breadth. About 1000 miles from its mouth it receives the river OHIO, which is navigable 1000 miles farther, ſome ſay 1500 nigh to its ſource, not far from LAKE ONTARIO in NEW YORK; in all which ſpace there is but one fall or rapide in the OHIO, and that navigable both up and down, at leaſt in canoes. This fall is 300 miles from the Miſſiſippi, and 1300 from the ſea, with five fathom of water up to it. The other large branches of the OHIO, the river of the Cherokees, and Wabache, afford a like navigation from LAKE ERIE in the north, to the CHEROKEES in the ſouth, and from thence to the bay of Mexico, by the Miſſiſippi; not to mention the great river Miſſouri, which runs to the north-weſt part of New Mexico, much farther than we have any good accounts of that continent. From this it appears, that the Miſſiſippi affords the moſt extenſive navigation of any river we know; ſo that it may be juſtly compared to an inland ſea, which ſpreads over nine-tenths of all the continent of North America, all which the French, before the laſt peace, pretended to lay claim to for no other reaſon but becauſe they were poſſeſſed of a paltry ſettlement at the mouth of this river.

If theſe things are conſidered, the importance of the navigation of the Miſſiſippi, and of a port at the mouth of it, will abundantly appear. It is the only navigation for all the interior parts of North America, which are as large as a great part of Europe; no part of which could have been of any ſervice to Britain without the interior navigation of the Miſſiſippi, and ſettlements made upon it. It is not then without reaſon that we ſay, whoever are poſſeſſed of this river, and of the vaſt tracts of fertile lands upon it, muſt in time command that continent, and the trade of it, as well as all the natives in it, by the ſupplies, which this navigation will enable them to furniſh thoſe people. Had the French, therefore, or any others, been left in poſſeſſion of the Miſſiſippi, while we had neglected it, they muſt have commanded all that continent beyond the Apalachean mountains, and diſturbed our ſettlements much more than ever they did, or were able to do; the very thing they engaged in the laſt war to accompliſh, and we to prevent.

The Miſſiſippi, indeed, is rapid for 1200 miles, as far as to the Miſſouri, which makes it ſomething difficult to go up it by water. For that reaſon the French have been uſed to quit the Miſſiſippi at the river St. Francis, from which they had a nigher way to the FORKS OF THE MISSISIPPI by land. But however difficult it may be to aſcend the river, it is notwithſtanding done, and its rapidity facilitates a deſcent upon it, and a ready conveyance for thoſe groſs commodities which are the ſtaple of North America, from the moſt remote places of the continent abovementioned; and as for lighter European goods they are more eaſily carried by land, as our Indian traders do, over great part of the continent on their horſes, of which this country abounds with great plenty.

The worſt part of the navigation, as well as of the country, is reckoned to be at the mouth of the river, which, however, is from ſeventeen to eighteen feet deep, and will admit ſhips of 500 tons, the largeſt gene-

rally uſed in the plantation trade. And even this navigation might be eaſily mended, not only by clearing the river of a narrow bar in the paſſes, which Charlevoix, and others, think might be eaſily done; but likewiſe by means of a bay, deſcribed by Mr. Coxe, from the actual ſurvey of his people, lying to the weſtward of the ſouth paſs of the river, which, he ſays, has from twenty-five to ſix fathom water in it, cloſe to the ſhore, and not above a mile from the Miſſiſippi, above all the ſhoals and difficult paſſes in it, and where the river has 100 feet of water. By cutting through that one mile then, it ſhould appear, that a port might be made there for ſhips of any burden; the importance of which is evident, from its commanding all the inland parts of North America on one ſide, and the paſs from Mexico on the other, ſo as to be preferable in theſe reſpects even to the Havanna; not to mention that it is freſh water, and free from worms, which deſtroy all the ſhips in thoſe parts. And if we have another war with France and Spain, 'tis not unlikely that we ſhall leave neither of them any more footing here; and then we may obtain ſuch a valuable port independent of them.

If the ſtate and extent of our ancient colonies in North America, before the laſt peace, be conſidered, it will be found that we really ſtood in need of an increaſe of continental colonies, inſtead of poſſeſſing too much land there before the peace, as ſome people have aſſerted.

Our ancient poſſeſſions in North America, between the ſea and the mountains, appeared, from many ſurveys and actual menſurations, as well as from all the maps and other accounts of them, to have been at a medium about three degrees of longitude, or 140 miles broad in a ſtraight line: and they extended from Georgia, in latitude thirty-two degrees, to the bay of Fundi, in latitude forty-five degrees (which is farther than the lands appeared to be of any great value) which makes thirteen degrees difference of latitude, or 780 miles: this length multiplied by the breadth, 140, makes 109,200 ſquare miles. This is not much above the quantity contained in Britain and Ireland, which by Templeman's Survey make 105,634 ſquare miles. Inſtead of being as large as a great part of Europe, as we have been commonly told, all the lands we poſſeſſed in North America between the ſea and mountains, did not amount to much more than theſe two iſlands. This appears farther, from the particular ſurveys of each of our colonies, as well as from the general eſtimation of the whole.

Of theſe lands, which are thus poſſeſſed, both the northern and ſouthern parts are not of the extraordinary kind. It is only in our middle plantations, Virginia, Maryland and Carolina, that the lands produce any STAPLE COMMODITIES for Britain. It is only the more rich and fertile lands on and about Cheſapeak bay, with a few ſwamps in Carolina, like lands on the Miſſiſippi, that turns to any great account to this nation in all North America, or that were ever likely to do it. This made the quantity of lands that produce any ſtaple commodity for Great Britain in North America incredibly ſmall, and vaſtly leſs than what has been commonly imagined. It is reckoned that there are more ſuch lands in Virginia, than in all the reſt of our old colonies; and yet it appeared from the public records, about twenty-eight years ago, that there was not above as much land patented in that colony, which is at this time the oldeſt of any in all North America, than is in the county of Yorkſhire in England, to wit, 4684 ſquare miles, although the country was then ſettled to the mountains. Our colonies are already ſettled to the mountains, and have no lands, either to extend their ſettlements, as they increaſe and multiply; to keep up their plantations of ſtaple commodities for Britain, or to enlarge the Britiſh dominions by the number of foreigners that remove to them, till they paſs thoſe mountains, and ſettle on the Miſſiſippi.

This ſcarcity of land in the colonies proceeds from the mountains, with which they are environed, and by which they are confined to this narrow tract, and a low vale along the ſea ſide. The breadth of the continent from the Atlantic ocean to the Miſſiſippi appears to be about 600 miles, of ſixty to a degree, of which there is about 140 at a medium, or 150 at moſt, that lies between the ſea and mountains; and there is ſuch another, and rather more fertile tract of level and improveable lands, about the ſame breadth, between the weſtern parts of thoſe mountains and the Miſſiſippi; ſo that the mountainous country, which lies between theſe two, is equal to them both, and makes one-half of all the lands between the Miſſiſippi and Atlantic ocean; if we except a ſmall tract of a level champaign country upon the heads of the OHIO, which is poſſeſſed by the SIX NATIONS and their dependants.

Theſe mountainous and barren deſarts, which lie immediately beyond our ancient ſettlements, are not only unfit for culture themſelves, and ſo inconvenient to navigation, whether to the ocean or to the Miſſiſippi, that little or no uſe can be made of them, but they likewiſe preclude us from any acceſs to thoſe more fruitful lands that lie beyond them, which would otherwiſe have been occupied long ago, but never can be ſettled, ſo at leaſt as to turn to any good account to Britain, WITHOUT THE POSSESSION AND NAVIGATION OF THE MISSISIPPI, WHICH IS, AS IT WERE, THE SEA OF ALL THE INLAND PARTS OF NORTH AMERICA, BEYOND THE APALACHEAN MOUNTAINS, WITHOUT WHICH THOSE INLAND PARTS OF THAT CONTINENT CAN NEVER BE OF ANY ADVANTAGE TO THIS NATION.

This makes the poſſeſſion of the Miſſiſippi abſolutely neceſſary to reap the benefit of it. We poſſeſſed but one-fourth part of the continent between that river and the ocean; and but one-tenth part of what lies eaſt of Mexico, and can never enjoy any great advantages from any more of it, till we ſettle on the Miſſiſippi.

How neceſſary ſuch ſettlements on the Miſſiſippi may be, will farther appear from what we poſſeſs on this ſide of it. The lands in North America are in general but poor and barren; and if any of them are more fertile, the ſoil is light and ſhallow, and ſoon worn out with culture. It is only the virgin fertility of freſh lands, ſuch as thoſe on the Miſſiſippi, that will render them of any great and laſting value to Great Britain. Such lands in our colonies, that have hitherto produced their ſtaple commodities for this nation, are now almoſt exhauſted and worn out, and we meet with none ſuch on this ſide of the Miſſiſippi. But when their lands are worn out, neither the value of their commodities, nor the circumſtances of the planters, will admit of manuring them, at leaſt to any great advantage to this kingdom.

The ſtaple commodities of North America are ſo groſs and bulky, and ſo ſmall in value, that it generally takes one-half of them to pay the freight and other charges in ſending them to Britain; ſo that unleſs our planters have ſome advantage in making them, ſuch as cheap, rich and freſh lands, they can never continue to make any; their returns to Britain will then be neglected, and the trade will be gained by others, who have thoſe advantages, as the Germans, Ruſſians and Turks, who have plenty of lands and labour cheap: by which means they make more of our ſtaple of North American tobacco than we do ourſelves, while we cannot make their ſtaple of *hemp*, *flax*, *iron*, *pot-aſh*, &c. &c.—By that means our North Americans have been obliged to INTERFERE WITH THEIR MOTHER COUNTRY, for want of the uſe of thoſe lands of which there is ſuch plenty in North America, to produce theſe commodities that are ſo much wanted from thence.

The conſequences of this may be much more prejudicial to this nation than is commonly apprehended. The trade of North America, whatever may be the income from it, conſiſts in thoſe groſs and bulky commodities that are the chief and principal ſources of navigation, which maintain whole countries to make them, whole fleets to tranſport them, and numbers of people to manufacture them at home; on which account this trade is more profitable to a nation than the mines of Mexico and Peru.

Thoſe

Thoſe groſs commodities that afford theſe ſources of navigation, however valuable they may be to the public, and to this nation in particular, are far from being ſo to individuals: they are cheap, and of ſmall value, either to make or to trade in them by the planter, and for that reaſon they are NEGLECTED BY PRIVATE PEOPLE, unleſs the public take care to give them all due encouragement, and ſet them about thoſe employments; for which purpoſe good and proper lands, ſuch as thoſe on the Miſſiſippi, are become abſolutely neceſſary, without which we ſhall make no advancement but decline in this eſtimable trade.

The many advantages of ſuch lands that produce ſtaple commodities for Britain in North America, are inexpreſſible. The whole intereſt of the nation in thoſe colonies depends upon them, if not the colonies themſelves. Such lands alone enable the colonies to take THEIR MANUFACTURES AND OTHER NECESSARIES FROM BRITAIN, TO THE MUTUAL ADVANTAGE OF BOTH. How neceſſary that may be, will appear from the ſtate of theſe colonies in North America, which do not make one with another, as much as is ſufficient to ſupply them only with the neceſſary article of cloathing, not to mention the many other things they ſtand in need of, and would take from Britain, WERE THEY ENABLED TO DO IT BY PROPER ENCOURAGEMENT. In ſhort, it would appear that our colonies in North America cannot ſubſiſt much longer in a ſtate of dependance for all their manufactures and other neceſſaries, unleſs they are provided with freſh lands that may enable them to purchaſe them; and where can they find any ſuch lands, but ſuch as the peace hath given them upon the Miſſiſippi?

When their lands are worn out, are grown poor and barren, or are in an improper climate or ſituation, ſo that they will produce nothing to ſend to Britain, ſuch lands can only be converted into corn and paſture grounds; and the people in our colonies are thereby neceſſarily obliged, for a bare ſubſiſtence, to interfere with Britain, not only in MANUFACTURES, but in the very PRODUCE OF THEIR LANDS.

By this we may diſcern the abſurdity of the popular outcry, that we have already land enough, and more than we can make uſe of in North America. They who may be of that opinion, ſhould ſhow us where that land is to be found, and what it will produce, that may turn to any account to this nation. Thoſe people derive their opinion from what they ſee in Europe, where the quantity of land that we poſſeſſed in North America, before the peace, would maintain a greater number of people than we had there. But they ſhould conſider, that thoſe people in Europe are not maintained by the planting of a bare raw commodity, with ſuch immenſe charges upon it, but by *farming*, *manufactures*, *trade and commerce*, which our colonies would ſoon have been reduced to, had they continued confined to our antient ſettlements, between the ſea coaſt and the mountains that ſurround them.

Lands ſhould be made in North America both cheap and plentiful, by which they might reap much greater profit by PLANTING THAN BY MANUFACTURING. That is, moreover, a pledge for the ALLEGIANCE AND DEPENDENCE OF THE COLONIES; and at the ſame time makes their dependance become their intereſt. It has been found by experience, that the making of a ſtaple commodity for Britain is more profitable than manufactures, provided our colonies have good lands to work on.

There is an inconvenience attending ſome of our ancient colonies, with regard to any improvements on them for Britain, which is not to be remedied. The climate is ſo ſevere, and the winters ſo long, that the people are obliged to ſpend that time in providing for the neceſſaries of life, which ſhould be employed, in profitable colonies, on the making of ſome profitable commodity, and returns to Britain. They are obliged to feed their creatures for five or ſix months in the year, which employs their time in ſummer, and takes up the beſt of their lands, ſuch as they are, which ſhould produce their ſtaple commodities to provide for themſelves and their ſtocks againſt winter. For that reaſon the people in all our northern colonies are neceſſarily obliged to become *farmers*, to make corn and proviſions, inſtead of *planters*, who make a ſtaple commodity for the mother country, and thereby interfere in the moſt eſſential of all employments to a nation, agriculture.

Neither the ſoil or the climate of our ancient northern colonies will admit of any additional improvements for Britain. If they could produce any thing of that kind it muſt be hemp, which yet never could be made in them to any advantage, as appears from many trials in New England, according to Douglas's hiſtory of America, and Elliot's improvements of New England. The great dependance of thoſe northern colonies is upon the ſupplies of lumber and proviſions, which they ſend to the iſlands. But as they increaſe and multiply, their woods are cut down, lumber becomes ſcarce and dear, and the number of people inhances the value of land, and of every thing it produces, eſpecially proviſions.

If this is the caſe of thoſe northern colonies on the ſea coaſt, what can we expect from the inland parts; in which the ſoil is not only more barren, and the climate more ſevere, but they are, with all other diſadvantages, ſo inconvenient for navigation, on account of their diſtance off the river St. Laurence, that it is to be feared thoſe inland parts of the northern colonies will never produce any thing for Britain, more than furrs, which they will do much better in the hands of the natives than in ours.

However, theſe northern colonies are very populous, and increaſe and multiply very faſt. There are above one million of people in them, who can make but very little upon their lands for themſelves, and ſtill leſs for their mother country. For theſe reaſons it is preſumed, it would be an advantage to them, as well as to the nation, to remove their ſpare people, who want lands, to thoſe vacant lands in the ſouthern parts of the continent, which will turn to much better advantage than what they are poſſeſſed of. There they may have the neceſſaries of life in great plenty; their ſtocks maintain themſelves the whole year round, with little or no coſt or labour, "by which means many people have a thouſand head of cattle, and for one man to have "two hundred is very common, with other ſtock in proportion." See Deſcription of South Carolina, p. 68.

This enables them to beſtow their whole labour both in ſummer and winter on the making of ſome ſtaple commodity of the mother kingdom, getting lumber and proviſions for the iſlands, &c. which both inriches them and the whole nation. That will be much more preferable, ſurely, than to periſh in winter for want of cloathing, which they muſt do unleſs they make it, which will excite thoſe jealouſies, that will ever ſubſiſt between them and Great Britain in their preſent ſtate, and grow ſo much the worſe, the longer they continue in it.

The many advantages that would enſue, from the peopling of thoſe ſouthern parts of the continent from our northern colonies, are hardly to be expreſſed. We might thereby people and ſecure thoſe countries, and reap the profits of them, without any loſs of people, which are not to be ſpared for that purpoſe from Britain, or any of her dominions. This is one great uſe and advantage that may be made of the expulſion of the French from thoſe northern parts of America. They, before the peace, obliged us to ſtrengthen thoſe northern colonies, and confined the people in them to towns and townſhips, in which their labour could turn to no great account, either to themſelves or to the nation; by which we loſt, in a great meaſure, the labour of above one-third of the people in our colonies.

But as they are now free from any danger on their borders, they may extend their ſettlements with ſafety, diſperſe themſelves on plantations, and cultivate thoſe lands that may turn to advantage both to them and to the kingdom: they may now make ſome ſtaple commodities for the mother country, on which the intereſt of the colonies and of the nation chiefly depends, and which we could never before expect from thoſe colonies.

The ſtaple commodities we might get from thoſe ſouthern parts of North America will appear, when we mention HEMP, FLAX and SILK, thoſe great articles and neceſſary materials for manufactures, for which alone this nation pays one million and an half a year, if not two millions, and we could never get them from all the colonies we had. COTTON and INDIGO are equally uſeful: not to mention copper, iron, potaſh, &c. &c. which with HEMP, FLAX and SILK, make a great ballance of trade againſt the nation, and drain it of its treaſure; when we now might have thoſe commodities from our colonies for manufactures, and both ſupply ourſelves, our colonies and others with theſe manufactures from Great Britain——*Wine*, *oil*, *raiſins* and *currants*, &c. thoſe products of France, Spain and Portugal, on which Britain expends ſo much of her wealth to enrich thoſe nations, might likewiſe be had from thoſe her own dominions. Britain might thereby cut off thoſe reſources of her enemies, ſecure her colonies for the future, and act, when occaſion ſhall require, more powerfully againſt them in time of war.

The ſea coaſt in general is the ſame with all the reſt of the coaſt of North America to the ſouthward of New York, and indeed from thence to Mexico, as far as we are acquainted with it. It is a low flat ſandy beach, and the ſoil for ſome twenty or thirty miles diſtant from the ſhore, more or leſs, is a pine barren. But however barren this coaſt is in other reſpects, it is entirely covered with pines, which afford great ſtore of PITCH, TAR and TURPENTINE. Theſe pines likewiſe make good maſts for ſhips, which have laſted twenty odd years, when it is well known, that our common ſhip-maſts of the New England white pine, will often decay in three or four years. The CYPRESS, of which there is ſuch plenty in the ſwamps on this coaſt, is reckoned to be equally ſerviceable, if not more ſo, both for maſts (of which it would afford the largeſt of any tree that we know) and for ſhip building. And ſhips might be built of both theſe timbers for half the price, perhaps, of any other, both on account of the vaſt plenty of them, and of their being ſo eaſily worked.

In moſt parts of theſe coaſts likewiſe, eſpecially about the Miſſiſippi, there is great plenty of CEDARS and EVER-GREEN OAKS, which make the beſt ſhips of any that are built in North America. And it is ſaid, that of theſe CEDARS and the AMERICAN CYPRESS, the Spaniards built their ſhips of war at the Havanna. It is not without reaſon, therefore, that Monſieur le Page du Pratz tells us, the LARGEST NAVIES might be built in that country at a very SMALL EXPENCE. From this it appears, that even the ſea coaſt, barren as it is, from which the whole country has been ſo much depreciated, is not without its advantages, and thoſe peculiarly adapted to a trading and maritime nation.

All along the Miſſiſippi, Dumont tells us, the lands, which are free from inundations, are excellent for culture, and produce Indian corn, tobacco, &c. and all kinds of proviſions and eſculent plants, with little or no care or labour, and almoſt without culture, the ſoil being in all thoſe places a black mould of an excellent quality.——Theſe accounts are confirmed by our own people, who were ſent by the government of Virginia in 1742, to view the weſtern parts of that province; and although they only went down the Ohio and Miſſiſippi to New Orleans, they reported, that "they ſaw more good land on the Miſſiſippi, and its many large branches, than they judge is in all the Engliſh colonies, as far as they are inhabited; as appears from the report of that government to the board of trade. What makes this fertile country more eligible and valuable, is, that it appears both from its ſituation, and from the experience the French have had of it, according to Du Pratz, to be far the moſt healthy of any in all thoſe ſouthern parts of North America; a thing of the laſt conſequence in ſettling colonies, eſpecially in thoſe ſouthern parts of America, which in the general are not ſo very healthy. Thoſe lands on the Miſſiſippi are high, dry, hilly, and in ſome places mountainous at no great diſtance from the river; beſides the ridges of the Apalacheans before mentioned, that lie to the northward of them, which muſt greatly refreſh and cool the air over all the country, eſpecially in compariſon of what it is on the low and flat, ſandy and parched ſea coaſt of our ancient colonies. Theſe high lands begin immediately above the drowned lands, at the mouth of the Miſſiſippi; above which the banks of that river are from 100 to 200 feet high, without any marſhes about them, and continue ſuch for 900 miles to the river Ohio, on the eaſt ſide of the river. Du Pratz.

Such a ſituation on rich fertile lands in that climate, and on a navigable river, muſt appear to be of the utmoſt conſequence. It is only from the rich lands on the river ſides (which indeed are the only lands that can be called rich in all countries) that this nation reaps any thing of value from all its colonies it has in North America. How ought we then to value ſuch rich and healthful countries on the Miſſiſippi? As much ſure, as ſome would depreciate and vilify them. It may be obſerved, that all the countries in America are only populous in the inland parts, and generally at a diſtance from ocean navigation; as the ſea coaſts both of North and South America are generally low, damp, exceſſively hot and unhealthful, in the moſt ſouthern parts, of thoſe from which we can expect any conſiderable returns. Inſtances of this may be ſeen in the adjacent provinces of Mexico, New Mexico, Terra Firma, Peru, Quito, &c. and far more in our ſouthern colonies, which never became populous till the people removed to the inland parts, at a diſtance from the ſea. This we are prevented to do in a manner in our ancient colonies, by the mountains which ſurround them, and confine us to the coaſt; whereas on the Miſſiſippi the whole continent is open to them, and they have, beſides, this healthy ſituation on the lower part of the river, at a ſmall diſtance from the ſea.

It is by this means, that we have not been able to get in one hundred years, above twenty-five thouſand people in South Carolina. The low and drowned lands, indeed, about the mouth of the Miſſiſippi muſt, no doubt, be more or leſs unhealthful; but they are far from being ſo very pernicious as many would repreſent them.

The Floridas, eaſt and weſt, being annexed to the crown of Great Britain, and our colony of Georgia having them for a barrier, whatever can be produced here will, we hope, be encouraged in thoſe moſt ſouthern parts of our continental colonies, eſpecially as we are poſſeſſed of the ports of Penſacola and Mobille in the bay of Mexico for our further protection, the former in north latitude thirty degrees twenty-five minutes, and which is a road, wherein ſhips can be ſafe from all winds. It is land-locked on every ſide, and will hold a great number of ſhips, which have very good anchorage in it, in a good holding ground, and from twenty-five to thirty-four feet of water. There is not leſs than twenty-one feet of water on the bar, which is at the entrance into the road, provided you keep in the deepeſt part of the channel.

As there is but half a foot riſing on the bar of Penſacola, every ſhip of war, if it be not in a ſtorm, may depend upon nineteen, perhaps twenty feet of water, to go into the harbour, as there are twenty-one feet on the bar. Ships that draw twenty feet may be towed in. By this we ſee, that ſhips of ſixty guns may go into this harbour, and even ſeventy gun ſhips, the largeſt requiſite in that country in time of war, if they were built flat-bottomed, like the Dutch ſhips, might paſs every where in that harbour.

In the year 1719 Penſacola was taken by Monſieur Champmeſlin in the Hercules man of war of ſixty-four guns, but carried only fifty-ſix, in company with the Mars, pierced for ſixty-four guns, but had only fifty-

fifty-four, and the Triton, pierced for ſixty-four guns, but carried only fifty; with two frigates of thirty-ſix and twenty guns *.

The road is ſubject to one inconvenience; ſeveral rivers fall into it, which occaſion ſtrong currents, and make boats or canoes, as they paſs backwards and forwards, apt to run aground; but as the bottom is all ſand, they are not apt to founder. On the other hand there is a great advantage in this road, it being ſaid to be free from worms, which never breed in freſh water, ſo that veſſels are never worm-eaten in it. If we may credit F. Laval, royal profeſſor of mathematics, and maſter of the marine academy at Toulon, who was ſent to Louiſiana on purpoſe to make obſervations in 1719, and had the accounts of the officers who took Penſacola at that time, and ſurveyed the place.

F. Charlevoix ſeems to contradict this laſt circumſtance: "The bay of Penſacola would be a pretty "good port, ſays he, if the worms did not eat the veſſels in it, and if there was a little more water in the "entrance into it; for the Hercules, commanded by Mr. Champmelin, touched upon it." It is not ſo certain then, that this harbour is altogether free from worms; although it may not be ſo ſubject to them as other places in thoſe climates, from the many ſmall freſh water rivers that fall into the bay, which may have been the occaſion of thoſe accounts, that are ſeemingly contradictory.

However, in ſuch a place ſhips might be preſerved very probably from worms, by paying their bottoms with aloes, or mixing it with their other ingredients: that has been found to prevent the biting of thoſe worms, and might be had in plenty on the ſpot. Many kinds of aloes would grow on the ſandy lands about Penſacola and in Florida, which is the proper ſoil for them, and would be a good improvement for thoſe lands.

It has been objected, that the French Louiſiana country is not likely to turn to any account, becauſe the French made ſo little of it.

But that objection, however common, will appear to proceed only from the ignorance of thoſe who make it. No country can produce any thing without labourers, which, it is certain, the French never had in their *Louiſiana*, in any number, at leaſt, ſufficient to make it turn to any greater account than it has done. The reaſon of this appears not to be owing to the country, but to their proceedings and miſconduct in it. Out of the many thouſand people, who were contracted for by the grantees, to be ſent to Louiſiana in 1719, there were but 800 ſent; and of thoſe the greateſt part were ruined by their infamous ſchemes, which made them and others abandon the country entirely. The few who remained in it, were cut off by an Indian maſacre in 1729, which broke up the only promiſing ſettlements they had in the country, thoſe of the Natches and Yaſous, which were never afterwards reinſtated.

Inſtead of encouraging the colony, the miniſter, cardinal Fleuri, either from a ſpirit of oeconomy, or becauſe it might be contrary to ſome other of his views, withdrew his protection from it, gave up the public plantations, and muſt thereby, no doubt have very much diſcouraged others. By thoſe means, the French had few or no people in *Louiſiana*, but ſuch as were condemned to be ſent to it for their crimes, women of ill fame, deſerted ſoldiers, inſolvent debtors, and galley ſlaves; WHO, "looking on the country only as a place "of exile, were diſheartned at every thing in it, and had no regard for the progreſs of a colony of which "they were only members by compulſion, and neither knew nor conſidered its advantages to the ſtate. It is "from ſuch people that many have taken their accounts of this country, and throw the blame of all miſ-"carriages in it upon the country, when they are only owing to the incapacity and negligence of thoſe who "were intruſted to ſettle it."——Charlevoix Hiſt. N. France, tom. III. p. 447.

There remains nothing for our further conſideration immediately relative to our further commercial union with Britiſh America, than a view of the Canadian parts of the northern continent, from whence an idea may be formed of the commercial emolument we may derive from thence likewiſe.

Before the laſt definitive treaty of 1763, the boundaries of Canada and Louiſiana, and thoſe between the Britiſh and French colonies, were ever left vague and undetermined on the whole continent. At preſent, they are clearly and explicitly aſcertained, by the ſaid definitive treaty, without the leaſt uncertainty or ambiguity: an advantage this nation, nor her American colonies ever before enjoyed; an advantage that we have ever ſtood in need of ſince we have had any territory in the new world; an advantage from whence we may now raiſe a ſuperſtructure of invaluable other benefits, which were before not with ſafety to be attempted by Great Britain. See our article America, where the reader will find the definitive treaty at large, to which, together with our map of North America, we refer our readers to, that there may be the leſs interruption reſpecting our preſent animadverſions.

All that part of Canada and its dependencies, which before the treaty of 1763 lie on the eaſtern ſide of the Miſſiſippi, belonged to the French, being annexed to the crown of Great Britain, its extent is ſo great both in length and breadth, that its temperature, climates, ſoil, &c. cannot but vary accordingly. All that part which lies along the banks of the great river St. Laurence, is, generally ſpeaking, pretty cold in winter, though hot in ſummer, as moſt of thoſe American tracts commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The reſt of the country is interſected with large woods, lakes and rivers, and has no inconſiderable quantity of good fertile lands; which, by long experience, has been found capable of producing corn, barley, rye, and other grain, in abundancce, and tobacco, which it has yielded in large quantities.

There are plenty of ſtags, elk, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, caſtors, and numerous other ſpecies of wild animals in the woods, beſides great plenty of wild fowl and game. The ſouthern part in particular, breeds great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. and a prodigious variety of other animals, both wild and tame.

The meadow grounds, which are all well watered, afford excellent graſs, and breed great quantities of large and ſmall cattle; and where the arable land has been well manured, it produces large and rich crops. The mountains abound with coal mines, and ſome, we have been told of ſilver, and divers other metallic and mineral productions. The marſhy grounds, which are likewiſe very extenſive, ſwarm with otters, beavers, and other amphibious creatures, and the rivers and lakes with fiſh of moſt ſorts, and fine of their kind. We have before given ſome idea of their numerous and extenſive lakes, and of their vaſt interior navigation that may, and certainly will be carried on by means thereof.

We have alſo given a brief view of their prodigious river navigation, which it is endleſs to enter into a further detail of; the great rivers, thoſe of St. Laurence, the Miſſiſippi and the Ohio, &c. abound with great variety of fiſh, and receive conſiderable ſmaller rivers in their courſe.

CANADA PROPER, as 'tis called by geographers, includes all the north and weſt of the great river St. Laurence and lakes; hath on the north Terra de Labrador, Hudſon's Bay and New Wales. On the eaſt, the

* The admiral was on board of the Hercules, which drew twenty-one feet of water, and there were but twenty-two feet into the harbour in the higheſt tides, ſo that they deſpaired of carrying in this ſhip. But an old Canadian, named Gruneau, a man of experience, who was perfectly acquainted with that coaſt, boaſted of being able to do it, and ſucceeded; for which he was the next year honoured WITH LETTERS OF NOBLESSE (Dumont, an officer here at that time) II. 22.

river Sanguenay divides it from the province of that name. The numerous Indian nations of thoſe parts are enumerated by baron la Hotan, to whom we refer the reader for a particular account. We ſhall only obſerve, that between our European coloniſts and them, an immenſe ſcene of valuable trade may be cultivated. For why may we not bring them gradually, by humane and juſt uſage and equitable dealings, to conform to the cuſtomary European modes of living, and thereby induce them to induſtry and planting of divers kinds? Why may we not civilize perſons of ſuch ſtrong natural underſtandings, and incline them not only to afford us the material for manufactures of ſkins and furs, as they have for years done, but diſpoſe them to planting and agriculture, increaſe their wants, and thereby rouze their active induſtry to matters of more pleaſurable benefit and advantage to themſelves as well as to this kingdom? Can we pronounce this impracticable, eſpecially now we have no European competitor to diſturb and annoy our plantations here, without being able ſeverely to chaſtiſe them for ſo doing? Why may not our people intermarry with them, and we and they become gradually one people? May it not prove as good policy to think of every means of turning the aborigines of America to every European art of cultivating lands to advantage, as merely thinking of peopling of our new acquired territories with Europeans?

The THREE RIVERS, ſo called from the three rivers which form their currents near it, and fall into the great one of St. Laurence, was the capital of the French government formerly, and much reſorted to by ſeveral nations, who came thither to trade conſiderably in valuable furs of divers kinds. It was the common empory for the Indian trade. The country about it is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and hath a good number of lordſhips and handſome ſeats, and there is on each ſide of the river a vaſt number of genteel houſes, ſcarce above a gun ſhot from each other, and the river is full of pleaſure and fiſher boats, which catch vaſt quantities of fiſh.

MONT-REAL is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name in the river St. Laurence, about fourteen leagues long and four wide, where broadeſt, and is very fertile in corn, fruits, &c. This town drives a prodigious trade with the natives and Europeans. The great concourſe of Indian traders begins about June, and ſome of them are ſaid to come hither about 500 leagues. The fair is kept along the banks of the river, where thoſe natives barter their commodities with the European coloniſts.

SANGUENAY, a province in the Eaſtern Canada, is divided on the weſt from that properly ſo called, by the river of its name. It has adjacent ſeveral Indian nations. Its extent is computed from the Three Rivers, which is the frontier of Canada Proper, quite to the farther end of the bay called the Seven Iſles.

The territory and land on each ſide the river here were found ſo indifferent, and that the colony that had ſettled here ſuffered ſo much, that they were for a time diſcouraged; but at length, upon their ſailing up as high as Quebec, they found ſuch encouragement as produced great proſperity there.

The river Sanguenay ſprings from the lake St. John, and falls into that of St. Laurence, at the town of Jadouſſac. The haven is capable of containing twenty five men of war, and hath a good anchorage and ſhelter from ſtorms, it being of a circular figure, and deep, and ſurrounded at a diſtance with very high rocks.—'Tis needleſs to dwell longer in the deſcription of this province, it being much the ſame, as to its ſoil, climate and inhabitants, with that of Canada Proper. It is, indeed, remarkable for an extraordinary plenty of marble of ſeveral kinds, inſomuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches and palaces, but even the houſes of private men are built of it.

QUEBEC, the metropolis of Canada, is ſituate on the confluence of the great rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, and on the north ſide of the former, and about one hundred and forty leagues from the ſea. The haven is large, and capable of containing at leaſt one hundred ſail of ſhips of the line.

Without the enumeration of the ſeveral tribes of Indians, who inhabit contiguous to this part of Canada, it ſeems moſt uſeful only to take notice of the IROQUOIS, who are the moſt conſiderable, and the beſt known hereabouts. They are ſeated along the north ſide of lake Ontario, Frontenac, and along the river of that name, which is that which carries the water of the lake into the river St. Laurence. They are bounded on the north by the nations called Algonkins and Outavais, about Montreal; and on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by New England, New York, Jerſey, &c. on the ſouth by part of Canada Proper, and the lake Erie, and on the Weſt by that of the Hurons, and the canal between thoſe two lakes. Before Canada became Britiſh, the Iroquois were ſo advantageouſly ſituated between the Engliſh and French, that they could join forces either with the higheſt bidder, or with thoſe who could keep them in the moſt ſubjection. Now we have diſpoſſeſſed France of thoſe parts, it will be our own faults if effectual meaſures ſhall be neglected ſo to attach them to the Engliſh nation, that they may be inſtrumental to keep all the other Indian tribes, with our proper aid, in a ſtrict commercial alliance with us, as well for the general benefit of trade, as for defence and offence, when we may have occaſion. It ſeems they at preſent complain of the Engliſh at New York, having encroached greatly on their territories, wherein they ſhould be righted.

The ILLINOIS INDIANS inhabit near the lake and river of that name. They live in villages at a great diſtance from each other, on the marſhy plains, on both ſides of the river, near which are large woods and hills, covered with a delightful verdure about nine months in the year, whilſt the current thereof, which is moſtly ſouth-weſt, is ſo ſmooth and agreeable, that veſſels of a conſiderable ſize may ſail up and down it with eaſe and ſafety, for a courſe of one hundred and twenty leagues, before it falls into that of the Miſſiſippi.—The lands on each ſide afford ſuch plenty of paſture, that they are covered with herds of large and ſmall cattle, as well as goats, deer, and other animals of the wilder kind. The river ſwarms with water fowl of divers ſpecies, ſuch as ſwans, geeſe, cranes, ducks, &c.

The Illinois have been great friends to the French, as they were wont to protect them from the other Indian nations, with which they were at enmity; and the French always dealt with them with honour and honeſty, and inviolably adhered to their alliances with them. Were not thoſe the natural means to attach them to the intereſt of our enemies and rivals? Shall we not regard the like meaſures to engage them to us, now we have got rid of ſo troubleſome a neighbour, when it is more in our power than it ever was before?

The eternal diſputes that have heretofore ſubſiſted between Britain and France, relative to Acadia and Gaſpeſia, are finally adjuſted by the treaty of 1763, as being included in Canada and its dependencies; ſo that we are now in a condition to reap uninterruptedly all the benefits of Nova Scotia. La Hontan ſays, that almoſt every part of Acadia yields corn, fruit, peaſe and other pulſe; that in ſeveral places there are MASTS AS STRONG AS THOSE OF NORWAY, AND THAT ALL KINDS OF SHIPPING MIGHT BE BUILT HERE, THE OAK TIMBER THAT GROWS HERE BEING BETTER THAN THAT OF EUROPE.——Charlevoux ſays it abounds with all the neceſſaries of life, in every ſeaſon to ſubſiſt the inhabitants without much fatigue.——He alſo ſays, that Monſieur Denys, who publiſhed an accurate deſcription of this country, in which he reſided a long time, and was proprietary and governor for the French king of the eaſt coaſt, reports, THAT ONE SINGLE GRAIN OF WHEAT, SOWN NEAR LA HURVE, PRODUCED ONE HUNDRED AND FIFTY EARS, VERY LONG, AND SO LOADED, THAT THEY WERE FORCED TO SUPPORT THEM WITH IRON HOOPS.——The jeſuit adds, that here are mines both of copper and coal, and that about three-fourths of a league from the iſle of Monano, which ſhows the way into ST. JOHN'S river, on the north ſide of FUNDA BAY, there is a rock of LAPIS LAZULI,

 which

which is almoſt covered with the ſea; and Monſieur Denys, who ſaw a piece that had been taken off it and ſent to France, ſays it was valued at ten crowns an ounce. *The bay of Funda* breaks two hundred miles into the land from *Cape Sable*, the moſt ſouthern point of New Scotland, to the iſtmus, which joins the peninſula to the continent. According to Charlevoix, it is two French leagues over to the river of St. John, and has a clean ſhore, with depth of water enough to carry THE LARGEST SHIPS TO THE LESSER BAY.

Annapolis, which lies in a fair clean bay within the bay of Funda; Charlevoix ſays this harbour has but one fault, which is the difficulty of entering or coming out of it, ſo that only one ſhip can paſs in or out of it at a time. This, ſays he, excepted, nature has ſcarce omitted one thing to make it the fineſt harbour in the world. It is two leagues in length and one in breadth, having a ſmall iſland called Goat Iſland, almoſt in the middle of the baſon, which, it is ſaid, is able to contain ALL THE SHIPS IN AMERICA, where they may lie ſecure from all winds. In a word, by means of the iſle of *Cape Breton*, *St. Johns* and *Anticoſte*, &c. and all the *dependencies of Canada*, England now commands the navigation to Canada by the gulph and river St. Laurence, and a MOST EXCELLENT ADDITIONAL FISHERY on all this coaſt, together with ſeveral good harbours for our ſhipping; and when the natural commercial advantages ſhall be made of the whole of the territories here annexed to the crown of Great Britain, what increaſe of trade and navigation ſhall we not experience, at the coſt of the French?

By our poſſeſſion of all Canada and its dependencies, here is preſented to this nation an unſpeakable ſource of commercial benefit, even from what hath hitherto been ſet forth reſpecting this point. But if we conſider the numerous Indian nations that lie on the back of our ancient northern colonies, now within our own new ceded acquiſitions, with the countries they inhabit, and the vaſt productions that may be made to ariſe from thoſe countries; if we ſo happily manage the natives to fall into the arts of cultivating lands, and duly planting them by ſuitable encouragements, why may we not expect advantages no way inferior to thoſe we derive from the furr trade by their hunting? How glorious would it be for us to undertake the cultivation of men as well as lands within thoſe continental territories? To civilize ſo many nations, and improve ſo large and ſpacious a country from north to ſouth, as well as from eaſt to weſt, may be made to adminiſter an immenſity of wealth to this kingdom, and the reign of George the Third rendered the moſt conſpicuous æra that this nation ever yet beheld, by communicating our conſtitution and liberties, both civil and religious, to ſo many numbers of rational beings, whoſe delight and happineſs would increaſe at the ſame time that an increaſe of treaſure and power will be added to Britain!

Have we not experienced the benefit of inſtructing and civilizing the Mowhawks, amongſt the great nation of the Iroquois, who from a mere warlike people have been trained to trade, and entered into alliances with all the nations round the lakes Huron and Erie, to the weſtward of the Miſſiſippi; which trade is now firmly eſtabliſhed by the gain they make by it, and the advantages we have acquired by the poſſeſſion of Canada and its dependencies. The Engliſh from New York have fixed at Oſwego, Niagara, St. Joſeph, Miſiliacmac, at the bottom of the Illinoiſe lake, in their country, and 'tis to be hoped they will not act unequitably by thoſe people, who are diſpoſed to carry on a large trade with us, and with other numerous nations, whoſe names were unknown to us before.

By thoſe and many other ſettlements that we are now poſſeſſed of, we alſo may the more ſafely encourage the Hudſon's Bay traffic to unſpeakably greater benefit to this nation than we ever before did. We may now be effectually incited to lay open this monopoly for the general advantage, which would open a greater vent for Britiſh manufactures, as well for this trade as that in all North America. Whereas all the trade we have at preſent, whilſt it is confined to the company, is only the employment of about 130 men in all their confined factories, and two or three ſhips in the trade, manned with about 200 men in time of war, to enrich nine or ten merchants at their country's expence; at the ſame time it is ſaid that they have betrayed the nation, by allowing the French to encroach upon us at the bottom of the bay, they giving up heretofore the greateſt part of their trade there to the French, rather than their own countrymen ſhould reap the full emoluments of it, was this eſtimable branch laid open by parliament.

It is, therefore, humbly ſubmitted to the government, at preſent, whether it is not juſt, as well as prudent, as we are now ſo happily ſituated for the purpoſe, to open this whole trade to all Britiſh merchants, and reſume at the ſame time the charter, ſo far as to take from them all the lands they have not reclaimed or occupied, after eighty years poſſeſſion? leaving them only their factories, and ſuch lands as they have reclaimed adjoining to them, and to give grants, as uſual in other colonies, to all who ſhall go over to trade and make ſettlements in the country; for no grants were ever intended to be made to them, to enable them to prevent other ſubjects of Britain from planting thoſe colonies, which they themſelves would not plant or occupy; for ſuch a power, inſtead of being beneficial, is highly prejudicial to Britain.

All the objections that have ever been made to this great point by the company, have appeared to be frivolous, and it is to be hoped, will no longer be regarded, as 'tis needful for us to open every channel of advantageous commerce. For the whole ſtate of this matter, and anſwers to objections againſt it, the reader is deſired to turn to our article HUDSON'S BAY, where he will find, that ſince Canada and its dependencies are ceded to the crown of England, we can now do that with great benefit, which might before have been attended with great difficulty.———This affording us an additional field of trade, to which our Canadian ſettlements may become a grand barrier, we are willing to hope, it will be duly attended to, as well as every other branch that may be cultivated with the Indians, and to which they may in any ſhape be rendered lucrative to the Britiſh empire; ſince we have every inducement of ſecurity to promote it, from every part of the Britiſh American continent, in virtue of the late peace.

But above all, we ſhould not be unmindful of that moſt valuable branch of trade, which we may derive from our FISHERIES of every kind upon our preſent extended coaſts of North America, the definitive treaty having poſſeſſed us of greater advantages for that purpoſe than this nation ever enjoyed before. For although Britain has condeſcended to ſuffer the French to fiſh upon the coaſt of the dependencies of Canada, yet it is only while they ſhall keep within the limits to which they are by the treaty reſtrained. As ſoon as they ſhall deviate therefrom, we have a right to deprive them of that privilege. In the like manner, when they ſwerve from the ſpirit of the treaty that has granted them the liberty to fiſh on the coaſt of Newfoundland, we may with great juſtice ceaſe to grant them that liberty; and that without their being able to reſiſt us in thoſe ſeas. Their poſſeſſion of the trifling iſlands of St. Peters and Miquelon, is reſtricted to an inſignificant force merely for the police of thoſe iſlands, which are ſuffered only for a ſhelter for their fiſhermen there. Beſides, we have not excluded ourſelves from fiſheries where we have indulged France; ſo that we can always watch their motions and prevent their infraction of the treaty. We can, therefore, only look upon this privilege granted to France of fiſhing at all in thoſe ſeas in the light of a trial for their good behaviour; the moment they ſhall tranſgreſs the treaty, they being liable to have that privilege taken from them, by a far ſuperior force in thoſe parts, as we have before ſhown. And if we ſhall be again provoked to turn them out of theſe whole fiſheries, they will hardly ever be reinſtated again; as we ſhall endeavour further to ſhew before we have finiſhed theſe obſervations.

But

But firſt we deſire the reader to recapitulate in his own mind, from what has been repreſented, the foundation laid in America by the treaty of 1763, for that future enlarged commercial union between Great Britain and Britiſh America that we recommend; and then let him judge, whether we have not, at preſent, the greateſt inducement and the greateſt encouragement to attempt to raiſe a moſt notable ſuperſtructure of commercial proſperity, by the means of our happy ſituation in America? Whether we could well wiſh to be better circumſtanced than we are there, to act either defenſively or offenſively againſt France and Spain, ſhould they diſturb us in extending our commercial union in thoſe parts? Whether we can have any thing to fear from France in North America? Whether, on the contrary, that nation has not every thing to fear from us on the whole ſea coaſts? Whether we have any thing to fear from France, with reſpect to the interior parts of the American continent? What can we have to intimidate us there from increaſing our commercial union? Have the French now power there to do it themſelves? No one will ſay this. On whom then muſt France depend to do this great work for them? It will be ſaid, perhaps, the Indians. That ſome of the Indians, who had been many years in the friendſhip of the French, may by their occaſional machinations be influenced to miſbehave to the ſubjects of Great Britain reſident the moſt contiguous to them. But have we not more numerous Indians already attached to our intereſt, who will take up the hatchet againſt our Indian enemies? Are we not daily making freſh friendſhips amongſt thoſe people, and drawing great numbers into our ſcale of power? And as all the eaſtern parts of the Miſſiſippi belong to the crown of England, and thoſe parts grow more and more populous with our European ſettlers, will not this make the ballance of dominion greatly preponderate in Britiſh favour? If not by dint of amicable alliances more for the Indian intereſt than is now in the power of France to do, by the dint of our arms, we can reduce every Indian enemy to our ſubjection; though I am perſuaded that the moſt friendly, juſt and equitable meaſures will be practiced towards the natives, as being meaſures by far the moſt eligible for both parties. Beſides, are not we maſter of the navigation of all the lakes, and the great and ſmall rivers contained within our own territories? Can we not by means thereof greatly humble the Indian powers, which conſiſts only of disjointed nations, whoſe intereſts lie different to each other? But have not theſe Indians experienced that Great Britain has conquered her great European enemies there; and that we are now in poſſeſſion of all their lands they before enjoyed? Can it be ſuppoſed, that this has not ſtruck a great awe into all the Indians in general? And will not their good ſenſe lead them to diſcern, that thoſe who have been able to conquer and extirpate the French themſelves from thence, will be able, if provoked to it, to do the ſame much eaſier by them? Muſt they not know, therefore, that it is their natural intereſt to maintain friendſhip and harmony with us, who are ſo much their ſuperiors in power?

Well: but if the French, at preſent, have it not in their power, with the aid of ſome few of their deluded Indians, to hurt us, may not the union with them of the Spaniards, who are now poſſeſſed of New Orleans on the American continent? What can the Spaniards do to irritate Indians againſt us, who are ſo remarkably abhored by them? Is it not far more likely, that the Indians would rather join with us againſt the Spaniards than them againſt us? Has not this giving up New Orleans by France to Spain, precluded France from any ſettlement on the eaſt of the Miſſiſippi? And whether this very ſtep hath not alſo precluded them from all navigation to and from the river Miſſiſippi, in virtue of the definitive treaty may be queſtioned? For by the ſeventh article it ſhould ſeem that France had left to them New Orleans only for the ſake of the navigation of that river, as well as the Engliſh; and if they give up the poſſeſſion with which the privilege was given, do they not give up the privilege itſelf? For we have not heard of any new treaty made by Britain to grant the right to France of that navigation to Spain as well as France. And if we granted France that privilege, it does not follow that Spain ſhall enjoy the ſame, although France may have given them up New Orleans; and therefore, the Spaniards, without the conſent of the crown of England, can have no right to the navigation of the Miſſiſippi. And although the good behaviour of the Spaniards towards this nation may induce us, to continue the privilege to them; yet when they ceaſe to deſerve it, can they expect we ſhall longer grant it? No; nor the poſſeſſion of New Orleans itſelf; and then we ſhall have no competitors on the American continent that can injure this nation. It does not ſeem that this gift of France can be any detriment to us, but it may be of ſome to Spain, eſpecially if they have given up the Spaniſh part of Hiſpaniola, or any other equivalent to obtain it, ſeeing Spain may one day loſe New Orleans, without any reſtoration of ſuch equivalent.

From the united weight of what has been urged, it appears, that the way is quite clear now for us to make what further additional commercial union with our colonies we ſhall judge eligible, without fear of any obſtruction either from France or Spain, or from the Indians. What hinders then that we ſhould not do it to the utmoſt ſtretch of good policy? Have we not every motive to induce thereto, as we have ſhewn in our firſt diſcourſe, and that upon the broadeſt bottomed ſyſtem that we can?

Have we not ſeen how eaſily evaſible all treaties of commerce are with European potentates in our prior preliminary diſcourſe? For what avails the moſt ſeemingly beneficial treaties of commerce with any European potentates whatſoever, while we ſhall be underſold in the dominions of that very potentate, by a foreign rival in trade? Had we, indeed, an excluſive treaty of commerce with a nation, it might, perhaps, be of ſome extraordinary advantage, whilſt our commodities continued as dear as they at preſent are, and thoſe of our competitors as cheap as they are; yet this extraordinary advantage would be greatly diminiſhed by the ſmuggling trade of our rivals into ſuch country? But we can never expect ſuch excluſive trade with any country; and therefore we can never expect to make a beneficial treaty of commerce with any ſtate, while we ſhall be liable to be underſold; the underſelling nation ever ſupplanting us, and depriving us of any imaginary advantages we may flatter ourſelves with having obtained; and this they will do, without having any treaty of commerce ſubſiſting with the ſame nation at all. How then ſhall we deceive ourſelves with great expectations from any extraordinary commercial treaty with Ruſſia or any other power, while France ſhall be permitted to ſell the very ſame ſort of goods in their empire as we ſhall be permitted to do?

Inſtead of amuſing the nation with ſuch ſort of advantageous treaties, would it not be far more eligible to put the kingdom into a condition to be able to ſell our commodities upon an equality of price with our rivals? For that is the previous ſtep requiſite to render any treaty of commerce beneficial; and without it, we are lulled with imaginary gain for our real loſs, becauſe as ſuch treaties always ſtipulate mutual advantages to both ſtates, if we grant any to our diſadvantage, and we are diſabled to reap any to our benefit, we are certainly deceived, and the nation is injured inſtead of advantaged by ſuch ſort of treaties of commerce, however common it has been to impoſe ſuch conduct on the nation for ſuperlative ſtrokes of Britiſh policy.

But in the name of truth, wiſdom and ſound policy, why are we ſolicitous to make treaties of commerce with foreign countries, whoſe advantage muſt at beſt be doubtful, as our trade is at preſent loaded with tax-incumbrances, and to neglect them with our own colonies and plantations; where we may be certain to reap the full benefit of them, if grounded on the maxims we have urged throughout theſe diſcourſes? And, indeed, the additional commercial union hereby intended, may not improperly be conſidered as a NEW TREATY OF COMMERCE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND HER AMERICAN COLONIES AND PLANTATIONS, for the

ſolid mutual permanent intereſt of both. In this light, we ſay, what hath been ſuggeſted may be conſidered: nay, it is the only rational view wherein the matter ought to be conſidered; it is in that, however, it is deſigned by the writer, let others put what conſtruction they pleaſe thereon. For herein we have not leſs comprehended the intereſt of the colonies than that of the mother-ſtate; judging it a weak and ſandy foundation to ground our new commercial ſuperſtructure upon the intereſt of Great Britain alone, without including that of our colonies at the ſame time: we would be underſtood to be advocates as well for the one as the other, eſteeming their intereſts inſeparable.

Without entering, with all poſſible brevity, into the detail we have exhibited, and without exhibiting the ſame in the divers lights wherein we have done it, no true judgment could have been made of the foundation that is laid in America for that extenſive commercial union we have recommended between this kingdom and her colonies. Speaking in general would have carried no conviction, nor have anſwered the purpoſe we have in view, which is to ſhew to what degree ſuch further union might be preſumed to contribute towards the redreſs of thoſe grievances, of which we have complained in our firſt preliminary diſcourſe.

That our new acquired continental as well as iſland colonies, are daily increaſing in Europeans from various parts is certain.——That the Indian tribes in both are extremely numerous is no leſs ſo; and that they daily grow more and more friendly and tractable, and have a better reliſh for the Britiſh government and conſtitution, and are more inclined to civilization, is not to be doubted. On the continent, they have experienced our ſuperiority of power and dominion; and this muſt have impreſſed on them a formidable idea of the magnitude of our ſtrength in war, ſeeing we have obtained the maſtery over both France and Spain, and left them no more territory on the whole eaſtern part of the Miſſiſippi, than the trifling ſpot of New Orleans. Muſt not this give the numerous Indian tribes an excellent conception of the mighty ſway and ſupreme power and authority of the Britiſh nation, by which ſuch great feats have been accompliſhed? Than ſuch events ſo illuſtrious to this kingdom, nothing can have a more happy effect to excite in them the ideas both of dread and attachment. And will not theſe operate, by kind, humane and equitable treatment, to cement concord and harmony between us? They aſſuredly will promote a laſting friendſhip between us and all the Indian tribes; and perhaps they are not in the whole leſs numerous at preſent on that continent, than all the Europeans taken together. Nay, if we once gain the hearts of all the Indians within our own boundaries, will not this naturally draw them to us from remoter parts? Whence it appears, that we have not only gained an extent of territory, but we have gained numerous people, which muſt render ſuch territories proportionably lucrative to the mother empire. For now we have no weighty European competitor to deal with on the continent; we have, or ſoon may put an end to all machinations to irritate the Indians againſt this nation. This being done, may we not expect, that theſe ſenſible Indians can by good policy on our ſide, be brought to the cultivation of lands, as they have been naturally diſpoſed to hunting and fiſhing for their maintenance? The tranſition from the one to the other is ſo familiar, that the one may ſoon become as pleaſing to them as the other: and then they will divide their time into a more delightful variety of objects; and their old men may direct agriculture, farming and planting, with due inſtructions, while their youths ſhall execute the laborious part. Why not? They lay claim to large territories; and if they are put into a more ſure way of preſerving them to their poſterity, by cultivation, and having them ſecured and guaranteed to them by Britiſh laws, may they not be convinced that their intereſt is inſeparably united with ours? Will not this prove the means of preventing thoſe broils and miſunderſtandings in future about the extent and rights of lands, more effectually than by any other whatſoever? They will not want underſtanding to be made ſenſible hereof; and when once they become convinced that no injury, but benefits ſhall be intended them, why cannot their native robuſtneſs and activity be turned into channels to increaſe their felicity? Cannot the wiſdom of the Britiſh government deviſe ways and means to render thoſe people more beneficial to the ſtate, as well as happier within themſelves, than they yet ever have been? As it is beneath the dignity as well as intereſt of Britain to neglect this, we will not ſuppoſe it; we will, on the contrary, pleaſe ourſelves with the agreeable idea, that Indian labour and induſtry may be converted to the Britiſh no leſs than Indian happineſs. And why not intermarriages between them and Europeans become as faſhionable as heretofore between them and the French? When ſuch conſanguinity and incorporation of families ſhall take effect, will they not become a more united and civilized people amongſt our Europeans? When theſe things ſhall be effected, will not the Indian tribes be eaſily brought to habit in the European modes; and this increaſe of their wants, and ability to ſupply them, will increaſe their demand for Britiſh manufactures, as it will our demands for the productions of their materials for every purpoſe of that kind.

We look upon it as not the leaſt advantage to have ſuch a body of new Britiſh ſubjects united to this kingdom, provided we ſhall be wiſe enough to make the right uſe of them. If we do not, it will not be the fault of the Indians; but it will be an eternal ignominy to this nation. Who will believe that good huntſmen and fiſhermen ſhould not make good planters, vine-dreſſers, flax and hemp-dreſſers? Who will credit that even their women and children cannot nurſe the ſilkworms in their proper clime, as well as raiſe flax and hemp, and food? Will not olives grow in America, as well as flax, hemp and cotton? Why ſhould we not be ſupplied with oil as well as wine and raiſins from Britiſh America, no leſs than ſugars? Let any man caſt his eye on the Book of Rates, and let him view the thouſands of articles that we import from other countries at a great expence, that we may now have from Britiſh America, at a far greater advantage, as might be ſhewn in numerous particulars? Is it not bad policy to neglect it as we are at preſent circumſtanced, when we ſhall be certain that the more we take from America, the more the Americans will be able to take in return from us upon the plan propoſed? But how are we certain of this from any foreign country, as the dearneſs of our commodity almoſt exclude us from too many markets? Is it not wiſer to enjoy a certain lucrative degree of foreign trade and navigation of our own, and under our own direction and management, than to be liable to the will and caprice of any foreign ſtates and empires ſolely? I could wiſh to ſee this point duly weighed and conſidered by our rulers, being perſuaded it would turn to the unſpeakable intereſt of the Britiſh empire, and their eternal glory at this time.

Let me not be underſtood to contend for an excluſion of this nation from all trade with other European countries except with Britiſh America; this would be repugnant to the whole ſpirit of my writings: but this I would be underſtood to mean and intend, that ſince we are poſſeſſed of ſuch great advantages in America, it is right that we ſhould not neglect them; if we do, we have ſhewn how ſuch neglect may tend to the detriment of the nation, by rendering America independent of Britain.——If we embrace them to the full extent they will now admit of, it will make the Britiſh colonies more and more dependent on Britain, and ſtrengthen and aggrandize both to a degree beyond what this nation ever before experienced. This is what we contend for; and we alſo contend for the diminution of our foreign imports from every nation we have dealings with, as they ſhall diminiſh in the importation of our commodities, let it proceed from what cauſe it will. This will be the way to prevent many of our particular balances of trade being ſo much to our diſadvantage, and will contribute to turn the general balance to our general advantage.———This is what I have ever aimed at in all my labours for the public ſervice, and what I would be judged to deſign at preſent. For by this means only can the nation become ſolidly wealthy; by this means only can we be put into a condi-

tion to reduce the public debts honourably; and by this means only can we obtain a competent annihilation of our taxes, and enable us to ſell our native as well as our plantation commodities at cheaper rates.

The reader will hardly forget, that we have endeavoured to ſhow the improbability of France and Spain obtaining any advantage by a freſh rupture with us in America. However, leſt theſe nations ſhould again think of quarrelling with Britain, the ſooner ſhe extends her commercial union with her own colonies, the better will ſhe be prepared to cope with them; and therefore it will be impolitic to be dilatory in a matter of ſuch immediate important concern.

But if we ſhould be again forced into a war, it may not be inconſiſtent with this work to ſay a word with reſpect to every other preparatory ſtep requiſite to be purſued, as well in regard to Europe as to America: indeed this will be expected, ſeeing we have promiſed ſome conſiderations upon this point, which we call

A New Design to render the Peace of Europe more lasting, and to save Great Britain the future Expence of engaging in the Continental Wars of Europe.

NO man in the kingdom, we apprehend, no more than ourſelves, ever imagined that the ſupplies to carry on the laſt war could ever have roſe to the height they did, nor the ſucceſſes of the war have been ſo extraordinary as they proved.

Wherefore, at the commencement of the laſt war, the writer drew up a tract, which was intitled Great Britain's True System; wherein is endeavoured to be ſhewn, 1. That the increaſe of the public debts and taxes muſt, in a few years, prove the ruin of the monied, the trading and the landed intereſts. 2. The neceſſity of raiſing the supplies to carry on war, within the year. 3. That ſuch a deſign, however ſeemingly difficult, is practicable; and 4. An expedient to ſupport the public credit in all times of public danger.

The fundamental principles whereupon the raiſing the ſupplies within the year was grounded, was, that the government ſhould deal with all contractors for the navy and army, &c. payable within the year, or rather, if poſſible, at three months credit, which is eſteemed equal to ready money dealings, if punctuality could be depended on.—That to enable the government to have complied therewith, the ſupplies ſhould be raiſed as early in the year as poſſible, and that all contractors ſhould have been paid as ſoon as poſſible; ſo that by the money collected from the people returning into their hands again as ſoon as poſſible, ſuch a quick circulation from and to the hands of the public, the ſupplies might have been raiſed without running the nation further in debt, and the nation oppreſſed with no additional taxes after the war had been ended.

This propoſition was ſupported by a variety of reaſonings in divers lights, all which ſeems to have corroborated the rectitude of the meaſure. Though the manner of handling the ſubject was well received by the greateſt men in the kingdom, yet party diſtractions prevented that being carried into execution, which every one approved and applauded. And this may poſſibly prove the fate of the extensive commercial union between Great Britain and her colonies the writer has propoſed in theſe diſcourſes; and that from the like party broils and diſſentions, there appearing a ſimilitude of circumſtances between our great men at preſent as heretofore; and there may be the ſame cauſe to repent the neglect of the one as there has been that of the other. For,

Had public affairs been ſo happily conducted as to have left the nation exempt from thoſe great additional tax-incumbrances, we now ſuſtain, in conſequence of adhering to the deſtructive ways of funding and borrowing, the circumſtances of the kingdom would have been widely different from what they are at preſent; not only the induſtrious poor would have been in a much happier condition, but every rank of people in the community.

As things have happened otherwiſe, the writer is not weary of well-doing; and therefore taking the ſtate of our affairs as they are, he is willing to hope that he has fallen upon the moſt natural way to extricate the nation from the preſent difficulties under which it groans. Though ſuch policy may be preſumed to operate but ſlowly to redreſs the public grievances, yet he preſumes to ſay the effects will be ſure. Beſides, this capital ſtep, the writer apprehends, may be aided by ſome others, that will both facilitate and expedite it, and that much ſooner, perchance, than may be judged practicable, by thoſe unacquainted with what he may poſſibly hereafter have leiſure to conſider. The writer's other daily avocations not admitting of his digeſting, at preſent, what he conceives will co-operate with what he has already ſuggeſted, he is obliged to defer it, till he ſhall have time to execute it to his intentions. And if he ſhall be able to accompliſh his end to his own ſatisfaction, he may probably ſubmit the ſame to the conſideration of the legiſlature, provided he ſhall be aſſured previouſly, that he ſhall be intitled to an adequate parliamentary recompence for his public ſervice, which, he humbly apprehends, would be very important, whether the nation continues in peace, or is compelled to go to war. Without this he is obliged to attend his private affairs, take care of his family, and damp inſtead of cheriſh that public ſpirit which is ſo natural to him, as appears throughout all his labours.——But there being in theſe our happy days no encouragement for any private man to ſerve his country, he has no hopes to be enabled to execute what he judges of the most important concern to the kingdom at this time.

In the beforementioned treatiſe of raiſing the ſupplies within the year, the writer has in the Introduction intimated a new plan of British politics, with respect to our foreign affairs, and our connections on the continent of Europe.—This plan of foreign affairs, before the laſt war, was intended in aid of the plan to raiſe the ſupplies within the year without increaſing the public debts or taxes, and was never yet made public; but the writer put it into the hands of the miniſtry, it being then not proper for publication. But as it may prove of public uſe hereafter, he will communicate a part of the ſubſtance of it, preparatory to what he ſhall ſubmit upon the ſame topic at preſent.

It never being imagined that we ſhould attempt to increaſe the territories of Great Britain to the degree we have done, the foreign plan was adapted to render the war as ſucceſsful againſt the enemy as we could, at the leaſt expence to this nation. The new foreign ſyſtem offered for that purpoſe was to have formed, at the beginning of the war, a general protestant commercial confederacy againſt France, and all the Catholic allies she should join with against Great Britain and her confederates.

The new commercial protestant confederacy was founded on the eventual ſucceſs againſt the enemies; and each power was to be intitled to its due ſhare of new acquired territory that ſhould be taken from the enemies of the confederacy, and that in proportion to the ſtipulated quota of maritime or landed force that each confederate ſhould be able to advance to promote the ſucceſs of the common cauſe.——Thus the intereſt of every confederate being concerned in the eventual ſucceſs of the war, no one would be backward in furniſhing the full degree of force ſuch confederate ſhould be in a capacity to advance, according to their

ſituation

ſituation or their circumſtances ſo to do; and that the diviſion of the new acquired territory that ſhould be obtained from the enemies, ſhould be made by the congreſs appointed for that purpoſe in the moſt equitable manner, as well as every circumſtance of conducting the confederate war to a ſucceſsful iſſue.

That as Great Britain was at the head of the Proteſtant commercial confederacy, and was preſumed to be the moſt capable to contribute a ſuperior ſhare or quota of maritime ſtrength; ſo her ſtipulated ſhare ſhould be ſettled at the congreſs; and ſhe ſhould be intitled to no more of the new acquired territory, or other commercial wealth, than ſhould have been proportionate to her quota of men, ſhips, &c. In a word, every preliminary article was to have been ſtipulated by the congreſs of the confederate powers, before the ſword ſhould be drawn, and after the ſame ſhould be ſheathed, the moſt advantageous peace ſhould be made for their mutual benefit.

That the Proteſtant commercial confederacy ſhould ever ſubſiſt for the preſervation of the tranquillity of Europe, againſt any Catholic ſtate whatever that ſhould interrupt it, and for the due preſervation of perfect amity, concord and unity between the Proteſtant confederates.

That no Catholic ſtate whatever ſhould be admitted amongſt the Proteſtant commercial confederates, leſt ſuch ſtate ſhould have been any way inſtrumental to have diſſolved the Proteſtant alliance, &c.

That ſuch of the Proteſtant confederates who ſhould not then be in a capacity to raiſe as much degree of force as they were deſirous of doing, ſhould have the liberty to have raiſed what money they required amongſt any of the confederated ſtates, for which they ſhould pay four *per cent.* intereſt till the principal ſhould be repaid to the lenders; and that the whole confederacy ſhould have been guarantees for the diſcharge of both the principal and intereſt.——And that as a further collateral ſecurity to the lenders, the new acquired ſhare of territory, or any other ſort of acquiſition by the capture of ſhips and merchandizes, &c. ſhould have been mortgaged for the ſame loans, &c. to the whole confederacy, &c. That the confederates agreed, that all the acquiſitions of wealth or territory made by the united force SHOULD NEVER HAVE BEEN RESTORED.

Theſe were the outlines of the NEW FOREIGN BRITISH SYSTEM intended: the whole may one day, perhaps, ſee the light.

That a more adequate idea of the whole may be at preſent formed, be it ſuppoſed, that the millions which were raiſed by Great Britain alone, had been raiſed amongſt the whole body of Proteſtant confederates; and that the acquiſitions that were made, had been done by the united aid and aſſiſtance of the whole confederacy, inſtead of Britain alone.

Suppoſe alſo, that there were SIX PROTESTANT STATES confederated for the purpoſe aforeſaid, and that Great Britain was admitted to bear two-ſixths, equal to one-third of the whole expence, and the other five ſtates two-fifteenths each of them, and the whole acquiſitions made were to be equitably divided amongſt the confederates, by the congreſs ſettled for that purpoſe: this ſuppoſed, then all the captures and territory obtained by the laſt war would have belonged to, and have been divided amongſt the ſeveral parties intereſted therein.

Thoſe who are of opinion, that we have obtained too large a ſhare of territory, may not judge the preceding plan of foreign politics a romantic or viſionary ſyſtem. Had the caſe been, as ſubmitted by the new plan, we could have been intitled to no more than one-third of the conqueſts the whole confederate force ſhould have made; and then we ſhould have been at no more than one-third of the expence we have been at, and ſhould have ſaved the other two-thirds. Which of the two might have been more eligible for Great Britain, is a queſtion that others may think of; we are certain, that the whole Proteſtant cauſe would have been a much more conſiderable gainer in general than this kingdom has been, and the Catholic ones would have been a much greater loſer. For the Proteſtant intereſt would have gained the Havanna amongſt them, as well as the French ſugar iſlands, except their part of Hiſpaniola.

Had the poſſeſſion of the Havanna, the key of the Spaniſh Indies, together with the whole fiſheries of Newfoundland, amongſt other parts of the conqueſts, been allotted to the ſhare of Great Britain, and the States General of the United Provinces, for their ſeven-fifteenth parts, and had the reſidue been as equitably proportioned as could have been, between the other confederates, would not this have drawn the teeth and have pared the nails both of France and Spain? Would not nine-tenths of the whole ſugar trade of the world have been poſſeſſed by the Proteſtant intereſt, as well as the principal fiſheries of America?

With reſpect to the American continent, and all to the eaſtward of the Miſſiſippi, ſuch parts might have been appropriated as would have tended to the ſecurity and due enlargement of the antient Britiſh colonies, and the remainder might have been diſtributed amongſt ſuch other of the confederated powers as might have choſe it; and the whole diſtribution of territory might have been made under the guarantee of the whole confederated Proteſtant allies; and who would have wreſted the ſame out of their hands? So likewiſe might the American conquered iſlands have been diſtributed amongſt the Proteſtant ſtates. In virtue of the proportion coming to Pruſſia, might not that monarchy have been conſtituted a maritime power, and Sweden and Denmark have received their proportion of eſtimable commercial conqueſts taken out of the enemies ſcale of power, and thrown for ever into that of proteſtantiſm?

Be it further preſumed, that the Engliſh and Dutch had, in conjunction, poſſeſſion of the Havanna, and in conſequence the whole iſland of Cuba, as the French and the Spaniards poſſeſs the iſland of Hiſpaniola, might not England and Holland have made the Spaniards for ever tributaries to them, for permiſſion to have traded to Spaniſh America, had the Proteſtant confederates choſe to continue to them that privilege under ſuch certain regulations and reſtrictions as they ſhould have granted it, as a check upon them for the future? And by the Spaniards being obliged to have paid England and Holland for the privilege of trading to their American colonies, through the medium of the Havanna; and the reſort thither of the galleons and flota, the advantages ariſing from thence, would have well enabled Britain and Holland to have maintained the Havanna, and have virtually conſtituted them maſters of the whole Spaniſh American commerce, under the guarantee of all the Proteſtant confederates.—This might have proved the high importance of the Proteſtant confederated intereſt againſt Spain; and with relation to France, when they had been deprived of the whole of the Newfoundland fiſheries, and the ſugar colonies, and all the neutral iſlands, what injury could they have ever after been able to do to any of the Proteſtant powers in Europe, while the ſame commercial confederacy ſubſiſted, as it was propoſed to have always done? They could not have dared to have maltreated the leaſt reſpectable Proteſtant ſtate in Europe, the confederacy rendering every individual as powerful as the whole.

Moreover, thoſe ſtates would, doubtleſs, have had DUNKIRK abſolutely demoliſhed and razed to the ground, and all the BARRIER TOWNS put into Proteſtant hands, and effectually upheld and maintained at the joint charge of the whole Proteſtant confederacy, and not ſupported in ſuch a ſcandalous condition as they have been between a Catholic and a Proteſtant ſtate, whoſe intereſts are ever incompatible. Had this taken place, what future danger could the Proteſtant intereſt have been in as well in Europe as America, when Auſtrian no leſs than French Flanders had been at the mercy of the Proteſtant confederates? Could France and the houſe of Auſtria have ever more been able to have waged wars in Germany, provided a *potent barrier Proteſtant ſovereign* had been ſettled in the Auſtrian Netherland, as was further propoſed by the new Proteſtant Syſtem, by the conſent of the confederates? Need Great Britain, or the States General, or his Pruſſian

majeſty, Sweden or Denmark, or our ſovereign's GERMAN DOMINIONS been longer in danger; or this nation obliged to expend more money on the continent to prevent wars there with Catholic ſtates?

Or, if a powerful proteſtant barrier prince had not been judged eligible to have been ſettled, by the conſent of the confederates, in Auſtrian Flanders, and duly ſupported and guarantied by them, the States General of the United Provinces might have more naturally, perhaps, had their dominions extended thither, and they have undertaken to have maintained the Proteſtant barrier againſt the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, under the permanent ſupport and maintenance of all the Proteſtant confederates: that is to ſay, that the ſaid confederacy being preſumed to be perpetual, that whenever the Proteſtant barrier ſhould have been attacked, the active union ſhould inſtantly take place, to withſtand ſuch attack, and the quota of each confederate being ſtipulated in the alliance, it might have rendered the barrier impregnable: and Dunkirk being abſolutely demoliſhed, French Flanders would be open to the penetration of the confederates on one ſide, and the Auſtrian dominions on the other. For, as ſoon as the tranquillity of the barrier ſtate had been diſturbed, the confederates would have inſtantly taken the alarm; Great Britain might, in conjunction with the States General, immediately have had forty or fifty, or even one hundred ſail of men of war ready, with a competent military force, ready encamped in the Iſle of Wight, to have poured into French Flanders, and prevented the junction of France and Auſtria, by ravaging all the coaſts of France. On the other ſide, the Proteſtant confederates alſo would have been prepared to have kept the Houſe of Auſtria in due ſubjection, and hereby have maintained the peace of Germany. This, however, was the writer's plan, and the deſign of the new confederacy; and whether the ſame might not have been ſo improved upon by the joint wiſdom of the confederates, is humbly ſubmitted to thoſe who are judges of it, from the ſketch exhibited.

But it did not end here. It was extended to Africa no leſs than Aſia, as well as America and Europe, wherein ſuch a confederacy might have been rendered ſucceſsfully formidable to any Catholic compact that could have been formed againſt it. The deſign, in a word, was ſo deviſed as to have preſerved the tranquillity of Europe in all probability far more durably than it ever had been before, and would have lowered the creſt of all oppoſers to as great a degree, perhaps, as might have been found requiſite.

The reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that this new ſyſtem at the beginning of the war was bottomed upon the prevailing ſentiment, that Great Britain did not ſtand in need of any extraordinary addition of territory, if that ſhare of which ſhe was poſſeſſed had been made the beſt uſe of. As it has ſo fallen out, that we have obtained a far greater ſhare of valuable territory than was ever before thought neceſſary, we have ſeen the foundation that is laid to reimburſe us the great expence we have been at to gain it: and it is wiſdom to make the beſt advantage we can of it.

The writer had taken no notice of the former propoſed foreign confederacy at this time, did he not conceive, that if another rupture ſhould take place between this kingdom and the Catholic ſtates, this plan might either in part, or in the whole, be adopted. Should the FAMILY COMPACT extend itſelf to a far greater degree than we may at preſent be apprized of, we have ſeen in what manner it may be effectually matched for the benefit of the Proteſtant cauſe. And a Proteſtant commercial confederacy might, perhaps, ſtand a fairer chance for greater ſucceſs, than they could have done in the laſt war, had it then taken effect; ſeeing Great Britain is at preſent ſo happily ſituated in America to act offenſively for the benefit of the confederates; and ſuch being more likely to be benefited by their alliance with Great Britain than the latter with them, their intereſt might probably prompt them chearfully to enter into ſuch alliance, to inlarge their commerce and territory, if the ſame ſhould be properly repreſented to them.

Another principle whereon the Proteſtant confederacy was grounded, was that of its being unnatural for any Proteſtant ſtate whatever to league with a Catholic one.

There have been no more inveterate animoſities between ſtates, than thoſe which have ſprung from the differences of religion; the preſent neceſſity may, indeed, diſſemble them, but it is ſcarce poſſible that time ſhould not diſcover them; and how is it to be imagined that amity can ever be maintained between them, when the one cannot truſt the other? When the ruin of this is the intereſt of that? Confederacy with thoſe of a different religion is lawful, when its end is the intermiſſion of war and liberty of commerce, ſuch as that was which Iſaac made with Abimelech. 'Tis the well known maxims of Popiſh ſtates, that no obligations are to be kept with Heretics, as they ſtile all Proteſtants. Hence has the Gallica fides towards England and other proteſtant potentates become proverbial.

In the reign of Charles II. there was a tract publiſhed, entitled Chriſtianiſſimus Chriſtianandus, in which the author endeavoured to prove, that the moſt Chriſtian king was himſelf void of all the common principles of Chriſtianity; and this very treatiſe was encouraged to be printed by Lord Danby, then Lord Treaſurer; yet this very treaſurer ſuddenly changed ſentiments, and by his councils, his maſter in the cloſet formed a moſt dangerous alliance with that crown. We never gained any advantage by leaguing with that nation, as we experienced alſo when we allied with them in conſequence of the treaty of Hanover in the year 1725; for when Gibraltar was attacked by the Spaniards, they gave us no manner of aſſiſtance. How we have ſuffered by our alliances with the houſe of Auſtria, let our national debts declare. Nor did they give us any ſort of aſſiſtance at that time, though we were put to a great expence to prevent the conſequences of the treaty of Vienna, notwithſtanding the Spaniards ſeized the effects of the South Sea company, to a very great value, at La Vera Cruz, and took our merchants ſhips at ſea.

Our former alliances even with Proteſtant powers having never been deviſed upon the principles of the New Syſtem, were never of any great advantage either to Great Britain or her allies. They were grounded upon temporary, ſubſidiary or auxiliary treaties only. Had they, on the contrary, been bottomed upon commercial and territorial acquiſitions, the tranquillity of Europe might have been of far longer duration than it uſually has; for ſuch intereſting ties and inducements would have made the confederates more faithful to each other than ever they were, it being once reſolved that every commercial advantage they could obtain by war ſhould never be given up at a peace. Our former alliances have only proved a rope of ſand, being left always of a very vague and precarious nature, and never calculated but as temporary expedients to anſwer merely the preſent purpoſe. The New Syſtem we ſee was quite otherwiſe projected.

If any thing of the kind here planned ſhould ever take place amongſt the Proteſtant ſtates, it will be firſt previouſly neceſſary to ſecure their mutual ſafety in Europe, before they turn their eyes on the inlargement of their trade and territories in America, or elſewhere. To contribute to that, Great Britain would advance her reaſonable quota of expence chearfully, and certainly could be more aſſiſting therein, by the aid of her maritime force, than by exhauſting herſelf by any continental expence: ſo that if it again ſhould become neceſſary to oppoſe continental meaſures, the other powers moſt likely to ſuffer thereby ought to take care of that matter for their own ſakes; or, be the conſequence as it might, Great Britain will be obliged to take care of herſelf and her Britiſh territories, and not intermeddle with the continent, if thoſe who are more nearly concerned do not think proper to do ſo. If the reſt of the Proteſtant ſtates will neglect their own ſafety, they can never again expect ſupport from this nation, be the conſequence in regard to the king's German dominions what it may. For by dint of our maritime power, we ſhall be in a condition to oblige any Catholic ſtate to reſtore them again to the elector, his Britannic majeſty, though the Germanic body and conſtitution would hardly ſuffer them

to be wreſted out of our monarch's hands, while they ſhould embrace a neutrality, if the reſt of the Proteſtant ſtates themſelves ſhall chuſe to prefer a ſtate of inaction upon ſuch an occaſion.

Should a GENERAL PROTESTANT COMMERCIAL CONFEDERACY be thought uneligible or impracticable at firſt, the next point that may concern Britain to conſider with reſpect to alliance, will be, whether that of a commercial one with the States General of the United Provinces might take place, ſuch having been ever judged a natural alliance preſervative of both powers. And is there no way to bring this about? If, indeed, it is not in the power of Britain to make it as much for the commercial intereſt of Holland to engage offenſively in conjunction with her againſt any Catholic ſtate, it will be in vain to expect them to relinquiſh their neutrality as well hereafter as they have done heretofore. Unleſs, we ſay, the States General can be thoroughly convinced of this, they cannot be expected to break with France or any other power by whom they will gain more advantage by their neutrality. Should Britain, therefore, think at all of any offenſive alliance in caſe of a future rupture with France, &c. and Holland be thought of for the purpoſe, it ſeems to be in our power to offer the United Provinces terms that they may probably accept.

The fiſheries of Holland are juſtly eſteemed by the Dutch as more valuable than mines of gold. They were the firſt riſe of that republic, and have been the grand prop and ſupport of their commerce and navigation. The moſt eſtimable of all their fiſheries is their herring fiſheries, which the Dutch carry on upon the coaſts of Great Britain and Ireland. Sir Walter Raleigh informed king James, that the Dutch fiſhed on the coaſt of Great Britain with no leſs than 3000 ſhips and 50,000 men, and that they employed and ſet to ſea, to tranſport and ſell the fiſh ſo taken, and to make returns thereof, 9000 ſhips more, and 150,000 men beſides: and, if we hereunto add what he ſays further, viz. that twenty buſſes maintain 8000 people, and that the Hollanders had in the year 1618 no leſs than 20,000 ſhips at ſea, as alſo their fiſhing, navigation and traffic by ſea, with its dependencies, ſince that time to the year 1667, increaſed to one-third more; if this be ſo, we may then eaſily conclude, he obſerves, that the ſea is a ſpecial means of Holland's ſubſiſtence, ſeeing Holland by this means alone yields, by its own induſtry, above 300,000 laſts of ſalt fiſh.

The French too make great advantage by the herring fiſhery on the coaſts of Britain and Ireland. When the French king was moved, in the wars of queen Anne, to admit the Dutch and Engliſh fiſhing boats into Dieppe, Dunkirk, St. Vallery, and other ports, with their herrings, the king anſwered, No! BY NO MEANS: IF MY PEOPLE WILL HAVE HERRINGS, WHY DO THEY NOT CATCH THEM, AS THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH DO? Upon which, the merchants of thoſe parts immediately fitted out veſſels, and took herrings ſufficient for all the country, and have continued to do ſo ever ſince upon our coaſts.

There is no treaty ſubſiſting between Great Britain and the United Provinces that grants the Dutch the privilege of fiſhing on our coaſts, neither is there any that grants the French that privilege; they both enjoy this liberty only as a matter of favour and indulgence, and not as a matter of right, as is ſhown under our article Fiſheries.

Now, as neither of the ſubjects of either of thoſe powers have any ſuch right by treaty; be it ſuppoſed, that in order to lay the foundation between Great Britain and the United Provinces, for a better PROTESTANT COMMERCIAL CONFEDERACY, it was propoſed by this nation to grant by TREATY, amongſt other commercial articles to be ſtipulated between the contracting parties, the ſubjects of the UNITED PROVINCES THE FULL LIBERTY OF FISHING ON THE COASTS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, in the ſame manner as is done to the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty, without being liable to any moleſtation.

II. That the ſubjects of France, or any other power, ſhall be EXCLUDED from carrying on the ſaid fiſheries upon the coaſts of Britain and Ireland, and the ſubjects of all other powers, unleſs thoſe who ſhall be invited and accede to this Proteſtant commercial alliance.

III. That the ſubjects of the United Provinces ſhall be intitled to the right of fiſhing on the coaſts of NEWFOUNDLAND; and that the ſubjects of France, and of all other ſtates, ſhall be for ever EXCLUDED from the Newfoundland fiſheries, unleſs thoſe who ſhall be invited and accede to this commercial alliance.

IV. That this alliance ſhall be extended to what other branches of their fiſheries the contracting parties ſhall judge proper, and alſo the ſubjects of thoſe powers who ſhall accede hereto.

V. That this alliance may be alſo extended for the mutual protection of the commerce and territories, both offenſively as well as defenſively, of the contracting parties, in all parts of the world, and all other Proteſtant ſtates who ſhall be invited and accede to it.

VI. That this alliance ſhall ſubſiſt in time of PEACE, as well as WAR; and that in times of war, the quotas choſen to be ſtipulated by the ſeveral contracting parties, ſhall be explicitly agreed on to act offenſively or defenſively.

VII. That the ſeveral parties to this alliance ſhall have the privilege to BORROW ANY SUM OR SUMS OF MONEY IN THE DOMINIONS OF EACH OTHER, to enable them to advance their reſpective quotas at —— *per cent.* intereſt.

VIII. That it be agreed, that all COMMERCE OR TERRITORY the allies ſhall be able to take from their enemy or enemies, ſhall be DIVIDED AMONGST THEM AS EQUITABLY AS POSSIBLE, according to the proportion of the expence which they have been at jointly with the reſt.

IX. That the EVENTUAL TERRITORIES taken from the enemy ſhall be a ſpecial SECURITY to the LENDING PARTIES in the ſeveral ſtates, and that the whole confederacy ſhall be a COLLATERAL SECURITY for all ſuch ſums of money that ſhall be borrowed for the purpoſe of annoying and diſtreſſing their common enemies.

X. That no Catholic ſtate whatever ſhall be admitted to accede to this Proteſtant commercial alliance.

XI. That no new acquired territory ſhall be given up at the end of the war.

XII. That this alliance be PERPETUAL, and ſhall exiſt as well in time of PEACE as WAR, and ſhall be further cemented by ſuch ſtipulations as ſhall be judged neceſſary by the contracting parties.

XIII. That no TREATIES OR ALLIANCES ſhall be entered into by any of the confederates without COMMUNICATING THE SAME TO THE REST, for their conſent and approbation; and without their unanimous conſent, no treaty or alliance either between themſelves or with any Catholic ſtate ſhall be entered into.

Theſe will ſerve as a ſketch of the outlines of this new Proteſtant alliance to counteract the FAMILY COMPACT made amongſt the Catholic ſtates, to preſerve peace, and to extend the commerce and navigation of all the Proteſtant ſtates.

Without entering into a further detail of other ſtipulations for the PERPETUATION OF THE PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY, and for the common ſecurity of their trade and territories, and for the extenſion thereof, the writer judges that he has intimated ſufficient to convey the general idea of his intention, leaving any additions or amendments thereto to the wiſdom of thoſe who may think the future preſervation of the Proteſtant intereſt againſt the FAMILY COMPACT, &c. merits attention.

It will be naturally obſerved, that the propoſed commercial alliance between Great Britain and the United Provinces, may be made to terminate in a grand general Proteſtant commercial alliance, as before ſhewn.

The writer being of opinion, that it is unnatural for Proteſtant ſtates to ally with Catholic ones, has reſtrained what he has humbly ſubmitted to the former, the latter having already entered into a COMPACT, that may make ſuch a counter-alliance ſooner neceſſary than many may be inclined at preſent to conceive. Wherefore, he apprehends the time of peace is the proper time to ruminate on what may be done to preſerve the tranquillity longer than has been hitherto the caſe of Europe.

Notwithſtanding the United Provinces, during the two laſt wars, have not been induced to relinquiſh their neutrality, and join with Britain offenſively againſt her enemies; yet it is not improbable that the time may ſoon arrive, when the States General may poſſibly be glad to ally both offenſively and defenſively with this nation. For the United Provinces are ſituated between two fires; and they may, perhaps, one day be attacked on the one ſide by a warlike m—h, as well as by France and her allies on the other: in ſuch caſe, on whom can the States depend for protection but their old friends Great Britain? who, let them remember, have ſacrificed many advantages on their account, ſince the treaty of Utrecht, which ought to wipe off any ill impreſſion which that treaty juſtly made on them. And if this nation ſhows a due regard, without injury to herſelf, to promote the commercial intereſt of the United Provinces, ſomething in the manner that has been ſhown, it may contribute to revive and cement that ancient friendſhip that ever ought to have ſubſiſted between theſe maritime powers, for their mutual benefit.

Being upon the topic of commercial union, it is no way repugnant to our ſubject juſt to mention that of Ireland with Great Britain, which is not leſs deſireable than that with her colonies and plantations.

The great obſtacle hereto has been that of Britain's public debts and taxes; and while theſe ſhall remain to the degree they are, 'tis no wonder that ſhould be ever deſpaired of. Whereas, were they duly diminiſhed, that Ireland might be induced to acquieſce and ſollicit this kingdom for ſuch union, that ſhe might be exempt from thoſe reſtraints in trade to which ſhe is liable, it would contribute to their mutual emolument, by taking that ſhare of trade out of the hands of our rivals, which we of this nation are not able to do at preſent, or rather to put both nations on a level in trade. Wherefore, ought not this to be a further motive to us to try every poſſible meaſure to accompliſh that deſireable end? For the advantages thereby ariſing to Ireland, would in a great meaſure center in Britain, and add to the inrichment and ſtrength of the united empire.

To leſſen the public debts and taxes, we have ſhown in the former diſcourſe the indiſpenſable neceſſity of, as well to promote and extend the further commercial union between this kingdom and her plantations, as between us and Ireland. For when we ſhall be able to ſell our manufactures cheaper to our coloniſts, they will the more readily decline every ſpecies of ſmuggling therein; in which caſe, they will take larger quantities of Britiſh manufactures; which will enable us to give them greater encouragement to ſupply us with every ſpecies of material, and every kind of production that they ſhall be capable to raiſe.

In order to advance theſe ſeveral commercial unions which we recommend, there is another kind of union that ſeems to be the ſource, and indeed the grand baſis of all the reſt: we mean a union between thoſe BRITISH PERSONAGES WHO ARE LIKELY TO BE THE RULERS OF THE STATE, under his majeſty's gracious choice and authority. This is a union at home amongſt ourſelves, of which we highly ſtand in need; and which to our grief be it ſaid, that the beſt of ſovereigns has not enjoyed to his deſireable content ever ſince his reign, except juſt at the commencement of it. To what cauſes can this be attributed? 'Tis much to be feared, that our late diviſions, diſtractions and animoſities, that have ſubſiſted amongſt the great people, have been owing to his majeſty's having in his power too many favours to beſtow. This may be a greater misfortune poſſibly to the beſt and wiſeſt of princes, in a free ſtate, than is commonly conſidered; for if a monarch has leſs to beſtow, he may have leſs ſollicitations for his liberality, and conſequently there will be leſs ſtruggling for the loaves and fiſhes, than where he has more to give by lucrative places and penſions. This creates jealouſies and envy, and at length invidious cabals and intrigues amongſt the great folks, to ſupplant each other in the favour of their ſovereign.

Another reaſon of thoſe diſſentions may be, that the road to poſts of truſt, profit and honour, hath not always been made ſo reſpectable as could be wiſhed; for when the prince is eternally diſtracted with thoſe perſonal intrigues, to gain them, it is impoſſible for the beſt intentioned monarch always to beſtow them upon the moſt deſerving and the moſt meritorious objects; whereby, oftentimes, the greateſt places have been wreſted out of the prince's hands by objects the leaſt deſerving of them. Whereas, were there much fewer very profitable places in the gift of the crown, and were thoſe filled only by ſuch perſonages that had, in the opinion of all wiſe and good men, earned them by their meritorious ſervices to the king and kingdom, where is the Briton that would expreſs his diſpleaſure at ſuch choice? Would not the people have reaſon to confide in the future behaviour of thoſe, whoſe advancement had been owing ſolely to their public and private virtues? Would not this render the people ever happy and contented as well as their monarch?

Moreover, by cuſtom, not reaſon, it is uſual, when ſovereigns have been, as it were, forced to beſtow one great place upon a great bad man, and a very weak man, and this great man ſhall have in his gift a ſcore, or perhaps many more places belonging to his department, will ſuch a great bad man beſtow his ſubordinate places, by whom the whole of the public buſineſs is oftentimes tranſacted, on good and able men? Will he not, on the contrary, beſtow his liberality upon underſtrapping wretches of the ſame kidney with himſelf? Perſons who ſhall be ready to do every ſpecies of dirty work their worthy patron ſhall put them upon? And will not ſuch people blood-ſuck the public from ſecret combination, to aggrandize themſelves at the expence of the nation? Will not this make the people feel the oppreſſion of, and magnify every tax-burthen that is levied on them, far more grievouſly than otherwiſe they would do? This has been another great ſource of national diſcontents.

What can be expected from the ſale of places, but the purchaſers will make the moſt of them at the public expence? Has not this rendered the perquiſites of offices ſo exorbitantly great upon the public, that a petty clerk of 100 *l.* a year ſalary, ſhall out-ſpend the country gentleman of 500 *l. per annum?* Do not all ſuch like burthens fall upon the public, and render every thing dearer and dearer in the kingdom?

Were there much fewer places in the diſpoſal of government, and thoſe for life, beſtowed on ſuch only who had done ſome diſtinguiſhed public ſervice, the government and the nation would be well ſerved. While alſo adminiſtrations are eternally upon the change, who will accept of places as changeable as thoſe of miniſters themſelves? The glory and intereſt of the ſtate being thus made the certain road to preferment, what unſpeakable emolument might not the community expect from ſuch policy? The whole nation would then become genuine patriots; nor would the public want a ſucceſſion of thoſe who ſhould ſtudy the public proſperity and happineſs.

What a univerſal emulation to ſerve the nation would not ſuch conduct in government create throughout the whole Britiſh empire; as well within doors as without, when meritorious deeds were made the only way to obtain all places of truſt, profit and honour? Inſtead of our moſt gracious ſovereign being eternally tormented by miniſterial changes, cabals and intrigues, the prince would inſtantly pitch upon ſuch men for his miniſters, who had themſelves done the greateſt public ſervices? And would not ſuch men ever have the voice of the people on their ſide? Would not ſuch a prince ever attach to himſelf the hearts and affections of his ſubjects?

What

What way could be ſo effectual to unite the king with his people, and the people with his miniſters? There is, perhaps, no art of government that could do it to ſuch good purpoſe, as there is no ſurer method to extricate the nation out of every difficulty, as ſoon as any was ſeen growing. Inſtead of miniſters being everlaſtingly on the ſtretch to deviſe new taxes, we ſhould have no occaſion for them Every head would then be at work to aboliſh moſt of the old ones, which we ſhould ſoon be able to do, if due rewards and honours were ſure to attend the doing ſo.

To bring a deſign of this kind to the ultimate perfection, every man ſhould print any thing for the public ſervice; and if his majeſty made his miniſters, who had the moſt public merit themſelves, judges thereof, no private man would be ſhamefully tricked out of the merit of his own labours by thoſe who had none of their own to boaſt of. For that, in our happy days, is the common practice of the PRETENDED PATRONS of private perſons. And have not many great men made themſelves greater by ſuch deteſtable perfidy, and increaſed both their honours and eſtates by ſuch like nefarious practices? Was this the caſe, private people then need not dance attendance and dependance upon the unworthy. They need only make their intentions public in print, and ſend them to thoſe, whom the wiſe and good prince ſhould authorize to examine into their utility, and have their reward accordingly. And ſuch who might not chuſe their recompence by places of profit and honour, as might be the caſe of many advanced in years, ſhould have it in money, for the benefit of their families. What honour would not the miniſter deſerve, who ſhould adviſe the adoption of ſuch a deſign for the encouragement of public merit? What ineffable public advantages would not the ſtate derive from ſuch a wiſe inſtitution? What glory would the prince obtain, who ſhould wiſely countenance an eſtabliſhment of this kind, ſo as not to be abuſed? Might not this be inſtrumental to call forth, or raiſe numbers of great genii of every claſs and degree for the national ſervice and ſplendor? We ſhould not then ſee men of the firſt rate underſtanding buried in obſcurity, lamenting their ill treatment received from ſome SUPERLATIVE SCOUNDREL OF GREAT DIGNITY WITH HIS BORROWED TRAPPINGS, DERIVED FROM THE LABOURS OF THOSE THEY HAVE ABUSED AND DECEIVED.

But while this nation ſhall be unhappily diſtracted by party cabals, only from mercenary and ambitious principles, we can never expect that any noble deſigns will take root in the kingdom.

When diſcord reigns amongſt thoſe who ought to unite for the public ſervice, the conſequence is generally no leſs unhappy for the people than the prince: they will catch the flame of diſcontent when kindled amongſt their ſuperiors; and has not that frequently terminated in inſurrections and civil wars? The ſmalleſt things increaſe by concord; by diſcord the greateſt fall to the ground. Thoſe, which being divided, were weak and impotent, when united reſiſt any force whatever. Theſe have been repreſented in various ſimilitudes. The many-fold cord is not quickly broken. What arm can pull off the horſe's main, when the hairs ſhall be well twiſted, or break a bundle of arrows? And yet either of theſe, of itſelf, is unable to withſtand the leaſt violence. By emblems of this kind, Sertorius and Scilurus, the Scythian, expreſſed the ſtrength of concord, which of many diſtinct parts make one united, and conſequently ſtrong body. All the works of nature are preſerved by amity and concord; and when this fails, they decay and die. What is the cauſe of death but the prevalence of diſcord in the human body? The very ſame happens in commonwealths; as common conſent made them a ſociety, ſo a diſſention between the greateſt or moſt powerful part diſſolves again, and diſſociates, or new models them. This diviſion engenders hatred, whence revenge ariſes, and from that a diſreſpect to laws, without the authority of which, juſtice loſes its efficacy; and where that fails, arms are taken up, and inteſtine wars breaking out, the order of the ſtate, wholly conſiſting in unity, is confounded. The bees no ſooner fall out, but their commonwealth is deſtroyed. If it has the ſame effect between citizens, how will they be able to unite for the common defence and intereſt? Plato uſed to ſay, nothing was ſo pernicious to commonwealths as diviſions. Concord is the wall and guard, no leſs than the ornament of ſtates. Domeſtic diſſentions are ſo many victories for the enemy, as thoſe formerly of the Britons were to the Romans, *noſtris illi diſſentionibus, & diſcordiis clari, vitia hoſtium in gloriam exercitus ſui vertunt*, ſays Tacitus in vit. Agric. and elſewhere, *converſis ad civile bellum animis, externa ſine cura habentur.*

What differs from, and is at variance with itſelf, muſt of neceſſity ſuffer, and what ſuffers can never be laſting. Who, when a republic is divided, can keep the flames of diſſention within certain bounds? Who will afterwards quench it, when all are involved in them? For theſe, and ſuch like reaſons, ought not diſcords to be nipped in the bud, and union encouraged in a ſtate? And is not that eaſily maintained, if none be advanced to places of truſt and honour but thoſe who ſhall have deſerved them, as well in the eye of the people as the prince? Where the equal diſtribution of favours and gratuities are made amongſt the meritorious, they will be a true ſupport and aid to the good prince under the greateſt difficulty and diſtreſs. Under the adminiſtration of ſuch a monarch, the whole executive part of government will be faithfully obſerved; the laws duly obeyed and inforced; the induſtrious poor duly kept to their honeſt toil, by the encouragement of trade and commerce, and have corn and proviſions cheap and plentiful; the nobility in government employed in arms and uſeful literature, will diſcourage and ſtifle cabals and clandeſtine meetings to diſtract the ſtate; the great ones will be kept frugal and modeſt, and the inferiors peacefully and univerſally contented; all which will conduce to a greater mediocrity in wealth, and a general poverty prevented amongſt the maſs of the people. From the reformation and regulating of thoſe things, reſults good government; and where that is, there peace and concord ever flouriſh.

There is but one caſe wherein it ſeems warrantable to kindle diſcords in kingdoms; that is, when they are already troubled with ſeditions and inteſtine broils; for then to diſtract them into factions, will be a means to weaken the power of the bad, the only end in that being to render peace to the good. And it is a piece of ſelf-preſervation, not to ſuffer diſturbers to be at quiet, in as much as the concord of ill men is to the prejudice of the good; as it is to be wiſhed that theſe may live peaceably, ſo it is that thoſe may be in diſcord; for good men and good ſubjects always come by the worſt, when bad men are united. *Concordia malorum contraria eſt bonorum, & ſicut optandum eſt, ut boni pacem habeant ad invicem, ita optandum eſt, ut mali ſint diſcordes. Impeditur enim iter bonorum, ſi unitas non dividatur malorum.*

When the ſame thing is done occaſionally between miniſters, it may have its uſe; ſome kind of emulation and diffidence one of another, might make them more attentive to their duty; for if once through a neglect of this, they diſſemble and conceal each others faults, or with one conſent are ſuffered to join the purſuit of their own intereſts, there is as great danger to the prince as to the ſtate, without remedy; in that none can be employed but by their hands. But if a public ſpirited and generous emulation to ſerve the nation ſhall degenerate into averſion and enmity, it will create the ſame inconveniencies; for they will then be more intent on contradicting and thwarting one another, more ſollicitous to overthrow each others councils and actions, than to promote the public good and their prince's ſervice. Every one has his friends and creatures, and the common ſort of people are apt to be led into factions; whence generally ariſe tumults and inſurrections. For this reaſon, Druſus and Germanicus joined themſelves, leſt the flame of diſſention kindled in the palace of Tiberius, ſhould be increaſed by the blaſt of their favour.

The arts of ſowing diſcord, and procuring the riſe of one miniſter by the fall of others, are too much in uſe in courts and palaces. They proceed from ambition; for rewards being already divided, and there being no means to introduce new forms but by the corruption of others, they procure it by ſcandal and violence. Sometimes 'tis the envy of one miniſter towards another, for ſome excellent qualifications, endeavouring to prevent his continuance in poſt where they may become the more conſpicuous; or elſe to ruin the reputation he has already acquired by falſe and inflammatory accuſations: and when he cannot obſcure the truth, he ſneers, jokes at, and ridicules it, under pretence of a kind of friendſhip; that loſing his credit in things of ſmall concern, he may afterwards gain it in things of greater moment. Such malicious ſly tricks are at length ever pernicious to their author. *Perniciem aliis*, ſays Tacitus, *ac poſtremum ſibi invenere.* Notwithſtanding ſays the ſame hiſtorian, Lucinus Proculus ſucceeded well, by accuſing others——*Ut cuique erat, criminando, quod facillimum factu eſt, pravus & callidus, bonos & modeſtos antiebat.* This happens ſometimes, when goodneſs and modeſty are ſo reſerved as to live privately, deſpiſing the honours and favours of princes, as it befalls thoſe, who, through diſtruſt of their own abilities, are thought unfit for the management of public affairs: ſuch as theſe, aſſiduous malice, ſuch as are intent upon gaining men's opinion, eaſily robs of the due rewards of their virtue. But ſuch artifices fall with the ſame ſpeed they riſe; of which we have numerous examples in hiſtory.

Whether this nation may be again upon the brink of a freſh war or no, we cannot be too early in our preparations for it. If our condition ſhall not require it, for military purpoſes, ſuch proper preparation may be applied for the redreſs of other grievances. Occaſions do not always happen as we could wiſh; ſometimes it is not in our power to retard or haſten them. It will, therefore, be the part of political prudence to conſider, whether it is better to execute our reſolutions with leiſure or expedition; for that ſome affairs require ſpeed in their reſolutions, others, time and mature conſultation; and to offend on either hand, will be to the prejudice of the government. Conſideration, when of worſe conſequence than raſhneſs, is to be avoided. In ſudden emergencies, counſels are better ſnatched than dilatorily deliberated. Whatever time is ſpent in deliberation, will either overcome the danger, or loſe the opportunity. The greateſt part of our deliberations are upon things already paſt, and the counſel comes after the event. Our affairs run with ſo much ſwiftneſs, that counſel muſt be ſpeedy to purſue them; nay, even that will be too ſlow, it ought to be in readineſs to expect them. Our affairs, which allow time, ſhould be tranſacted with maturity; for nothing is more oppoſite to prudence than precipitation. Impetuouſneſs is ſeldom ſucceſsful, and examination and attention are confounded by it. Whence it is that hot raſh counſels almoſt always pleaſe at firſt ſight; are difficult in the execution; in the event oftentimes grievous, and the perſons who ſuggeſt them, though they may appear at firſt daring, yet when they come to execute are at a ſtand, being embroiled by their own counſels, for haſte is blind, and without forecaſt.

The common people love to ſee effects before they do cauſes, and ſo always condemn ſlow counſels; yet wiſe rulers will ever be proof againſt theſe murmurings, which, upon ſucceſs, will ever redound to their glory. Nevertheleſs, delay muſt not be ſo great, as to let ſlip the opportunity of execution. This is a general error in imprudent counſellors, who, perplexed with the weight of affairs, can neither judge of the danger, nor come to any concluſion; whence they ſtart at the leaſt ſhadow, and think by theſe doubts to paſs for profound ſtateſmen. They ſuſpend their counſels, till time itſelf furniſh them; and then begin to reſolve, when the opportunity is loſt. Counſels, therefore, ſhould be ripened, not hurried; for maturity errs neither in exceſs nor defect of time, either in affairs of peace or war.

We have throughout theſe preliminary diſcourſes given our humble ſentiments, and we hope not without decency, upon what the writer apprehends to be the general cauſes and cure of the chief of our public grievances; we mean more particularly thoſe relative to our commerce and our finances. He has done it with an honeſt, and he flatters himſelf not with an unbecoming zeal, for the true ſervice of his king and country.

The general ſyſtem of our money affairs that he has cenſured, he attributes to no perſon in being; but he is of opinion, that it cannot be too ſoon rectified, the proſperity of our whole commercial intereſt depending upon a wiſer regulation of the revenue upon ſolid commercial principles, not temporary expedients; which has been too much the caſe of this nation for theſe fifty years paſt.

The further commercial union of Great Britain and her colonies upon the principles herein ſuggeſted, the writer judges to be a right meaſure, and that there is a broad bottomed foundation laid to carry the ſame to a very proſperous extent; which will facilitate a reform in the money ſyſtem, and the former alſo expedite the more ſucceſsful execution of the latter, the one being mutually helpful to the other.

The ſketch here given of the new Proteſtant commercial confederacy, is done with a view to anſwer the following purpoſes. 1. To counterballance the power and ſtrength of any Catholic compact or confederacy, to the diſadvantage of the general cauſe of Proteſtantiſm and the liberties of mankind. 2. That as the new conqueſts annexed by the laſt peace to the crown of Great Britain, render her more capable than ſhe ever before was to promote the commercial intereſts of all the Proteſtant ſtates, ſhe propoſes to be at the head of the ſaid confederacy, to increaſe their joint intereſts by adding to their reſpective territories more for that purpoſe. 3. That a general confederacy now of all Proteſtant powers, would prove an overmatch for any confederacy that could be made by the Catholic ſtates to oppoſe it. 4. That ſuch a kind of Proteſtant league might be perpetual, and ever ready to unite, for their joint advantage. 5. That ſuch an alliance between Proteſtant ſtates alone, would not be ſo liable to be diſſolved, as if any Catholic power was united therein. 6. That ſuch a league may be naturally commenced firſt between Great Britain and the United Provinces, upon the baſis of the fiſheries. 7. That the United Provinces would diſcern their commercial advantage to be better and more laſtingly advanced by the Proteſtant confederacy, than by a neutrality in times of war between this kingdom and Popiſh powers. 8. That it would be more beneficial to the Proteſtant ſtates than making temporary ſubſidiary treaties, either with this nation or any Catholic power. 9. That it would render the peace of Europe more laſting than it has generally, if ever been before. 10. That the liberty of the leſs opulent and powerful Proteſtant ſtates borrowing money wherewith to ſupply their quotas of expence, will defeat any objection of inability to accede thereto. 11. That it will prove more likely to advance the trade and increaſe the territories of any Proteſtant power who ſhould deſire to extend both, or become a maritime ſtate. 12. That Spaniſh, French and Portugueſe America would afford the confederates ſuch acquiſitions as would increaſe the commerce and navigation of them all, wholly at the expence of the Catholic powers, and the more permanent increaſe of the Proteſtant intereſt in the world. 13. That as Great Britain has now a conſtitutional militia eſtabliſhed, fifty or ſixty ſail of men of war, and tranſports, with thirty or forty thouſand of the confederated Proteſtant troops encamped at the Iſle of Wight, would be able to ravage the coaſts of France, and defend thoſe of the Proteſtant ſtates in Europe. 14. That the confederates, who were the beſt ſituated for the purpoſe, might act in Germany, if needful, on one ſide, and the States General, in conjunction with them, on the other, with far leſs additional expence than was ever done before, and with far more ſucceſs againſt the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. 15. That great advantages are to be gained by a Proteſtant con-

federacy, as well in Africa, Aſia and America, as in Europe, to their mutual intereſt. 16. That they may greatly increaſe their commerce amongſt each other in virtue of ſuch a confederacy, and that at the expence of their opponents, by retaining all the conqueſts made. And laſtly, that a confederacy of this kind may be made inſtrumental to keep Great Britain ever after from engaging in the manner ſhe has hitherto done, ſince the revolution, in wars upon the German continent, and thereby ſave in future thoſe millions of public debt, and thoſe millions of tax-incumbrances, with which ſhe is at preſent oppreſſed.

A commercial confederacy firſt begun between this kingdom and the United Provinces, might be preſumed to terminate in that general Proteſtant one ſuggeſted by the writer at the commencement of the laſt war; and might, probably, upon another taking place, enable Great Britain to raiſe the ſupplies neceſſary for her quota, WITHIN THE YEAR, and prevent the contraction of any future public debts, or perpetual taxes. This was the writer's great aim in drawing up his GREAT BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM to raiſe the ſupplies within the year for the laſt war, by the aid of this new *foreign Proteſtant ſyſtem*. Had this been then done, the nation would have been leſs in debt than it now is by ſixty MILLIONS OF MONEY, and have been leſs taxed than it is by two millions *per annum* at leaſt.

Indeed, had a general Proteſtant commercial confederacy taken place at the beginning of the laſt war; and had they, by means of their united forces, made no more conqueſts than they did, and ſtipulated amongſt themſelves not to have given any territories up which they had taken from the enemies, not only Great Britain, but every other Proteſtant ally, would have been greatly advantaged, as might eaſily be made appear by their poſſeſſion of the Havanna amongſt the confederates.

But although that has not proved the caſe, by the Proteſtant confederacy being adopted, the nation may poſſibly be compelled to embrace it, ſhould another war ſoon take place. Should then ſuch a confederacy take place, it might, and moſt certainly would be productive of unſpeakably commercial advantages to the whole Proteſtant intereſt, as will be eaſily diſcerned, by any one, who has duly attended to what has been urged upon that head already, without ſaying more.

The advantages reſulting to Proteſtant nations in general from ſo extenſive a confederacy, will hardly be denied by men of impartiality; but it is to be apprehended, that too many ſovereigns, imagining they ſhall thereby be reſcinded from the imperious pleaſures of diſturbing the tranquillity of human kind, ſo frequently as they could wiſh to do, and of waſting the blood and treaſure of their ſubjects to ſatisfy ſanguinary reſentments, and of acquiring of falſe glory by filling the world with terror and deſolation, may renounce the calmer means of rendering their ſubjects happy, where peace and abundance would long accompany their footſteps.

Whatever may be the inclinations of princes, it is more to be dreaded, that miniſters will exert every effort to diſappoint ſuch a plan for the future tranquillity of Europe; becauſe, by removing the cauſes of after contention, they may loſe the power of working on the paſſions of princes, and nothing remaining to be purſued but the public intereſt, can no longer acquire that powerful aſcendancy over them, which is generally obtained by daring to injure their native country, in obedience to the deſtructive inclinations of their maſters; and which bear them on into immenſe riches and diſtinguiſhed honours, for actions to which, in the eye of juſtice, the moſt ignominious deaths are only due.

It is not unnatural to think, that the military exploits of the Greeks and Romans being rendered more illuſtrious by the writers of thoſe nations than their legiſlative inſtitutions, have, in a great meaſure, contributed to ſtamp on the deeds of arms, a ſuperior worth to that of legiſlation and ſound policy, and particularly on the minds of princes; but were it reflected on, how much the genius of a legiſlator is ſuperior to that of the moſt conſummate general, how much more arduous the taſk of planning and perfecting government, is than that of defeating armies, that intellect and virtue can alone be equal to the former, and caſualty may, and frequently does, give victory to inferior underſtandings and vicious hearts: was this duly conſidered, ſovereigns might be induced to relinquiſh the clamorous joy of triumph from the ſilent and ſelf-approving enjoyment of ſpreading happineſs for many years on millions, and by that means the ambition of writing their renown in blood on half the plains of Europe, might yield to the long continuance of peace, by a wiſe eſtabliſhment thereof by the means propoſed.

Would it not redound more eminently to a ſovereign's immortal fame, to have it inſcribed on his tomb, Here lies the prince who firſt exerted himſelf in eſtabliſhing a GENERAL PROTESTANT CONFEDERACY, by which all Europe was rendered happier? than to have a ſumptuous monument, adorned with trophies, and all the military inſtruments of death, embelliſhed with pompous inſcriptions of thouſands ſlain, cities ranſacked, kingdoms laid waſte, and empires ruined? Millions unborn, at the hour of thoſe eternal military atchievements, have ſince deplored the ruin which was brought upon them by the loſs of thoſe fathers who fell in victory; millions to come ſhall feel the bliſs and bleſs that Proteſtant power which gave long reſt and happineſs to mankind in general, and tied the hands of the ſanguinary powers of popery to root heretics from the face of the earth. The latter reſemble the ſupreme parent, the former the implacable deſtroyer of man.

Happy will be that PROTESTANT POTENTATE, who ſhall firſt endeavour at the execution of a deſign of this kind; and when ſo many ſovereigns, friends to the felicity and the liberties of mankind in general, ſhall unite in a congreſs for the UNSHAKEN ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PROTESTANT INTEREST IN THE WORLD; we may imagine that our preſent wiſe and beloved Britiſh prince would chearfully be the foremoſt in promoting this univerſal happineſs and long tranquillity, in freeing the ſubjects of all Proteſtant ſtates from being eternally liable to be involved in cares, impoſts and oppreſſion, in contributing to extinguiſh for many years the rage of war, and profuſion of national treaſure, in acquiring immortal glory by acts of public virtue, and delivering down a more permanent felicity to a people who may have reaſon to bleſs him through many ſucceeding generations.

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Mr. POSTLETHWAYT, Author of this *Dictionary of Trade and Commerce*, offers his ſervice to any young nobleman, or other perſons of quality, to initiate them into the national and parliamentary knowlege of TRADE and FINANCES.

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A.

A A M

A, The firſt letter of the alphabet, not only in the Engliſh, but moſt other languages. Merchants, bankers, and book-keepers uſe it, either alone, or followed by ſome other initial letters, as an abridgment of certain terms in trade for ſaving time, and room in their journals, and other books of account.

Being ſet alone, after mentioning a bill of exchange, A ſtands for accepted; in French accounts A. S. P. ſignifies, 'accepté ſous proteſt, i. e. accepted under proteſt.' A. S. P. C. 'accepté ſous proteſt, pour mettre à compte; i. e. accepted under proteſt, to be placed to account.' A. P. ſignifies to proteſt. Merchants commonly diſtinguiſh their ſetts of accounts by the letters A, B, C, &c. which anſwers the end of No. 1, 2, 3, &c. in order to refer by theſe letters, from new ſetts of books to the old, to certain articles which had their riſe in the preceding books.

AAGGI-DOGGII, a Perſian word, ſignifying 'The bitter mountain.' It is ſo called, on account of being a very dangerous paſſage for the trading caravans, which travel into Perſia, and take their route of Conſtantinople to Iſpahan. It is ſituated a day's journey from Louri, on the frontiers of Perſia, near Chaouqueu.

When theſe caravans are arrived at the paſs of this mountain, all the camels and horſes are numbered, for each of which the caravan-bachi takes a duty, which he employs partly for the pay of ſoldiers that guard the caravans, and partly for other ſmall charges: but he detains the greateſt part for himſelf.

AAM, or HAAM, is a meaſure of 4 ankers, or 2 ſtekans, or 32 mingles, the mingle being of 2 pints of the meaſure of Paris. 6 Aams make one ton of 4 hogſheads of Bourdeaux, each hogſhead making at Amſterdam 12 ſtekans, and 50 ſtekans the ton, or 800 mingles of wine and lees; which amount to 1600 pints of Paris, and conſequently the aam contains about 250 to 260 pints of Paris.

The aam is alſo a meaſure which the Dutch uſe generally in the ſeven united provinces of the Low Countries; it agrees to that of the hogſhead, barrel, or ton, provided the contents of each of theſe veſſels be 128 mingles, which is a Dutch meaſure alſo, uſed for liquids, and which weighs about 36 ounces avoir-dupois.

The Bourdeaux and Rheniſh wines, brandies, and the different ſorts of oils, are ſold in the ſame provinces by the aam. Mr. Savary is miſtaken in ſaying, that the mingle makes two pints of Paris meaſure, it making only one pint, and about $\frac{1}{8}$. His error was occaſioned by Ricard's Treatiſe of the trade of Amſterdam, which he made uſe of, where in page 19 it is ſaid, that it is divided into two pints. Mr. Ricard, not having explained what pint he meant, occaſions foreigners to miſtake him; it is the Engliſh pint that he intended, which makes a little more than the half pint of Paris, whoſe difference is not above half an ounce; for the Paris pint, filled with common water, weighs 31 ounces, and that of England

A B A

16 ounces. According to this, the aam, filled with common water, weighs 288 pounds, and makes of Paris pints 148$\frac{2}{3}$, and not 250, to 260, as Mr. Savary ſays: it makes in Engliſh pints the ſame number as that of pounds, viz. 288 pints, the Engliſh pint of water being a pound.

From hence it is plain, that the mingle makes more than two Engliſh pints, by about four ounces; but retail traders in the ſame provinces make uſe of the diviſion of two pints, as Monſ. Ricard ſays, by way of obtaining good meaſure.

Laſtly, the aam of oil, among the retail traders, is reckoned no more than 120 mingles, by reaſon of the waſte to which it is liable.

ABACA, a kind of flax or hemp, gathered in ſome of the Manillas or Philippine iſlands.

There are two ſorts of it, the white and the grey. This plant is a ſort of Indian plantane, which is ſown every year, and, being gathered, it is ſteeped in water, and beaten as hemp is. The white abaca ſerves for making very fine linnen; but the grey is employed for nothing but cordage.

ABAGI. See ABASSI.

The abagi (which ſeems to be the ſame thing as the abaſſi, although of different value) is worth at Teflis, and throughout all Georgia, about 36 ſols French money; four chaouris, which are alſo called ſains, make one abagi. An uſalton is worth half an abagi, or two chaouris. Forty aſpers, or carbequis, make one abagi. Finally, the ſequin of Venice is worth ſix abagis, or three chaouris.

ABASSI, a ſilver coin in Perſia, in figure and ſize very much like the ancient pieces of fifteen ſols in France. The abaſſi takes its name from Shah-Abas II. king of Perſia, who ordered the coinage of it. It has on one ſide, for legend, the profeſſion of the Mahometan faith, 'There is no God but God, and Mahomet is his prophet;' and on the other the king's name, and that of the city where it was coined.

This coin, which has a great currency in Perſia, is worth two mammoudis or four chayes; the chaye being eſtimated at the rate of nine ſols ſix deniers of French money, makes the abaſſi worth thirty-eight ſols, or ſeventeen ſols of Holland. They have alſo pieces of five abaſſis, in value nine livres, and from twelve to thirteen French ſols; and likewiſe pieces of two abaſſis, which are in value one half of the former. Of theſe they coin but few, and they are ſcarce current in commerce, being commonly accounted a ſort of pocket-pieces. The pieces of five abaſſis are round, a little thicker and larger than a French crown, and the half of theſe in proportion.

In trade, both at Iſpahan and in the reſt of Perſia, the ſilver coin paſſes by weight, not by tale: the bags contain 50 tomans, which make 2500 abaſſis: they are weighed by weights of one toman, or fifty abaſſis each. If they ſuſpect that there are any light or counterfeit pieces, they diſcover them by weighing 25 of them againſt 25, and ſo on.

ABATELEMENT, a term uſed by the French in the ports of the Levant, ſignifying a ſentence of the conſul, which imports a prohibition of commerce to all merchants and traders of the French nation, who will not ſtand to their bargains, or who refuſe to pay their debts. This prohibition is ſo ſevere, that thoſe againſt whom it is iſſued, are not ſuffered to ſue any perſon for the payment of their debts, till they have made ſatisfaction, according to the conſul's ſentence, and have got the abatelement taken off, by the execution of its full contents.

ABATEMENT, otherwiſe REBATE, a term in uſe among traders, for a diſcount or abatement in the price of certain commodities, when the buyer advances the ſum directly, for which he might have taken time.

As traders are not always inclined to pay ready money, an abatement or deduction of ſo much per cent. per ann. has been deviſed to induce them thereto, that they may take the advantage of the cuſtomary diſcount.

'Tis alſo the practice of ſeveral great trading companies in foreign countries, to allow diſcount for payment of ready money, and of that of the Engliſh Eaſt-India company in particular, to allow 6 per cent. to the buyer for prompt payment, as it is termed.

ABATEMENT. It ſometimes happens, that goods upon delivery at the cuſtom houſe are found to have received damage. In this caſe, the ſurveyor and landwaiter are to make their report on the back of the warrant, and return it to the collector and principal officers; who are then to chuſe two indifferent and experienced merchants to view the goods, and upon oath to determine the quantum of the damage. Then the ſurveyor and landwaiter certify, that the goods viewed by the merchants are the ſame for which duty was paid: whereupon a certificate of the whole proceedings is made out, and a proportional abatement of the duty is made, and repaid to the merchant upon his ſigning the receipt.

ABB, ſo the clothiers call the yarn of a weaver's warp. They alſo ſay abb-wool in the ſame ſenſe.

ABBAASIES, a ſilver coin current in Perſia. See ABASSI.

ABEL-MOSC, which the French call ambrette, or graine de muſc, (muſk-ſeed) is the ſeed of a plant growing in Egypt, and in the Antille iſlands, having greeniſh and velvet leaves, very much reſembling thoſe of the marſh-mallows; for which reaſon the modern botaniſts have given it the name of the velvet marſh-mallow of the Indies. The ſeed is ſcarce bigger than a very large pin's head, formed like a ſmall kidney, of a greyiſh colour, and, as it were, ſhagreened on the upper ſide, of a ſcent like a compound of amber and muſk. Its principal uſe is in the compoſition of ſome perfumes, with which it is difficult to incorporate, without knowing how to manage it. The Italian perfumers uſe a great deal of it; and in France the nuns and pater-noſter makers uſe it to make chaplets, or bead-ſtrings. This plant is ſtiled by Monſieur Tournefort, 'ketmia Ægyptiaca, ſemine moſchato, Ægyptian ketmia, with ſeeds ſmelling like muſk;' and the ingenious Mr. Miller (Gardener's Dictionary) obſerves, that it is commonly called muſk-ſeed in the Weſt-Indies.

The ambrette of Martinico is the beſt of all. It ought to be choſen new, plump, dry, neat, and of a good ſcent.

ABERDEENSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the ſouth with part of Angus and Merns, or rather with the river Dee and the Grandſbain mountains; with part of Bamf on the north-weſt; part of Murray on the north; the German ocean on the eaſt; and the river Spey and part of Badenoch on the weſt. The chief places of trade in Aberdeenſhire are;

1. ABERDEEN, one of the principal cities in this ſhire; there are two towns or cities of that name, the old and the new; the old lies about a mile northward from the new, and is ſituated in the mouth of the river Don, which is remarkable for its extraordinary plenty of ſalmon and perch.
2. NEW ABERDEEN is ſituated at the mouth of the river Dee. It exceeds all the cities in the north of Scotland for largeneſs and beauty. It ſtands in a fine air, and has a great revenue ariſing from its ſalmon fiſhery. The adjoining ſea not only furniſhes them with plenty of fiſh, but reproaches them with their negligence, when they ſee the Dutch fleets perpetually fiſhing on their coaſts, to very great advantage: but it has been till lately the humour of the inhabitants to apply themſelves chiefly to the ſalmon-fiſhing, and to neglect that of all other ſorts.

The quantity of ſalmon and perch, taken in both rivers, is a kind of prodigy. The proprietors are united into a company, there being ſo many ſhares, of which no perſon can enjoy above one at a time. The profits are very conſiderable, the ſalmon being ſent abroad into different parts of the world, particularly into England, France, the Baltic, and ſeveral other parts.

The herring-fiſhing is a common bleſſing to all this ſhore of Scotland, and is like the treaſure of the Indies at their door, were it properly uſed by the Scots in general: by this, however, the merchants of Aberdeen are enabled to carry on a trade to Dantzick and Koningſberg, Riga and Narva, Wybourg and Stockholm.

They have alſo a very good manufacture of linnen, and worſted ſtockings, which they ſend to England in great quantities. They make ſome ſo fine as to be ſold from 14 to 30 ſhillings a pair. They alſo ſend them over to Holland, and into the north and eaſt ſeas, in great quantities; yet the poor who knit them, if they get two pence ſterling a day, think they make a good day's work.

They have a great exportation of pickled pork, packed up in barrels, which they ſend chiefly to the Dutch for victualling their Eaſt-India ſhips, and their men of war, the Aberdeen pork having the reputation of being the beſt cured, for keeping on long voyages, of any in Europe.

They alſo export corn and meal; but they generally bring it from the Firth of Murray, or Cromarty, the corn coming from about Inverneſs, where they have great plenty.

The people of Aberdeen are indeed univerſal merchants, ſo far as the trade of the northern part of the world will extend; and it may be juſtly eſteemed the third city in Scotland; that is to ſay, next after Edinburgh and Glaſgow.

3. PETERHEAD, in this ſhire, on the ſouth ſide of the water of Ugie, is a ſea-port of conſiderable trade, and has a bay or road that will contain 100 ſail of ſhips with good riding in 8 or 9 fathoms. 'Tis high water here when the moon is directly ſouth.
4. STRATHBOGY, in this ſhire, is fruitful in corn and paſture, has black cattle, ſheep, and horſes for exportation; and is remarkable for its fine linnen yarn, ſpun here by the women, and ſold to the merchants.

REMARKS.

The trade of Scotland, particularly the linnen manufacture, being at a very low ebb, before the year 1725, the royal boroughs, who are the guardians of the trade of Scotland, took under their conſideration the ſtate of their trade and manufactures, in their general annual convention, held at Edinburgh, in July 1725, and in ſeveral ſubſequent meetings of their grand annual committee in that year.

The ſociety alſo for the improvement of agriculture, and many perſons well ſkilled in trade and manufactures, formed propoſals and ſchemes for encouraging the manufactures and fiſheries: the reſult of which was, that, in their meeting of February 1725-6, they reſolved to addreſs his majeſty, to have the monies, ſettled by law for the encouraging of their manufactures applied for that purpoſe, in ſuch a manner, as that all miſapplication might be prevented.

The effect of this was, that his late majeſty was graciouſly pleaſed to write the following letter to the royal boroughs, which was preſented to the convention by his majeſty's advocate, upon the 6th of July 1726, and has had very happy conſequences in regard to their manufactures in general ever ſince.

Superſcribed GEORGE R.

Truſty and well beloved, we greet you well. We having obſerved, that the ſeveral ſums of money reſerved and provided by the treaty of union, and by divers acts of parliament, to be employed for the improvement of fiſheries and manufactures in Scotland, have not hitherto been applied to the uſes for which they were intended; principally, becauſe no particular plan or method hath been concerted, directing the manner in which theſe ſums ſhould be applied for the ſaid purpoſes. And being deſirous to remove that hindrance, as ſpeedily as may be, we have thought good to recommend to you, that, at your firſt general meeting in the month of July next, you do take into your conſideration the ſtate of the ſaid fiſheries and manufactures, and of the monies provided for encouraging the ſame; and that by yourſelves, or by committees of your number, you do deviſe and propoſe the particular methods, rules, and regulations, which to you ſhall ſeem the moſt proper, for the application of the ſaid ſums towards the encouraging and promoting fiſheries, and ſuch other manufactures and improvements in Scotland, as ſhall moſt conduce to the general good of the united kingdoms; and that you do return to us the propoſitions in which you ſhall have agreed, to the end, that, upon due conſideration thereof, a certain method may be ſettled for the application and management of theſe ſums for the future. The welfare of our loving people of Scotland, and the proſperity of the royal boroughs, is ſo much concerned in what we recommend to you, that we doubt not you will go on in the execution of what is expected from you, with the utmoſt diligence, unanimity, and impartiality: and, on our part, we aſſure you of our countenance and encouragement in what you ſhall propoſe for the real good of your country, conſiſtent with the general intereſt of our united kingdom, &c.

HOLLES NEWCASTLE.

In conſequence of this letter from the throne, the convention agreed upon an anſwer, wherein they expreſſed their joy and gratitude to his majeſty, for his tender concern for the welfare of Scotland; which filled the hearts of the moſt knowing people, with great gratitude and loyalty, and animated them zealouſly to exert themſelves to obtain ſeveral acts of parliament for regulating their linnen manufacture, and promoting the fiſheries in general of this part of the united kingdom. And, ſince this period of time, the linnen manufactures of Scotland have aroſe to a very extraordinary perfection; and 'tis now to be moſt ardently wiſhed and de-

fired, that their fiſheries will meet with ſuch ſucceſs and proſperity, as to employ numberleſs of the diſtreſſed poor, and prove as good a nurſery for our Britiſh ſeamen as the coal trade has been.

The reaſon for taking notice of his late majeſty's regard to the improvement of the Scots manufactures and fiſheries, is with a view to obſerve, what great and happy effects proceed from proper encouragement being given by authority to any particular branch of trade. The commiſſioners and truſtees appointed in Scotland, in conſequence hereof, for the care of their trade, were ſo affected with his majeſty's tender concern for their proſperity, that they beſtowed their time and attendance upon the ſervice of the public, without fee or reward. Their meetings were frequent and regular. Every ſederunt manifeſted, that their ſervice was of great uſe and importance to their country, by contributing greatly to advance the improvement and extenſion of their fiſheries and manufactures of every kind. Numberleſs letters were received by their ſecretary from every corner of their country, for the ſolution of doubts and queſtions, and as petitions and applications for encouragement of various kinds upon different branches of trade; alſo memorials and complaints of abuſes, defects, ſlovenly and unprofitable practices in the management of many parts of their manufacture, and propoſals of improvements, and of the moſt frugal and expeditious methods of carrying on ſeveral branches of trade to the beſt advantage. Theſe the commiſſioners duly weighed, and gave full ſatisfaction thereto by regular anſwers, according to the beſt information they could poſſibly receive. And ſuch have been the good effects of this correſpondence, and zeal for the intereſt of trade ſince, that we may truly ſay, that the whole face of Scotland is changed. But, under the head of Scotland, we ſhall repreſent the general ſtate of the trade of that part of the united kingdom, as we ſhall the particular branches carried on in the ſeveral ſhires or counties.

ABLAQUE, as la ſoye Ablaque, or Ablaque ſilk, is the Ardaſſine ſilk, which comes from Perſia by the way of Smyrna. It is very beautiful, and hardly inferior in fineneſs to the Sourbaſtis. It is but little uſed, however, in the manufactures of ſilk ſtuffs made at Lyons and Tours, becauſe it will not bear hot water in the winding. The French have given it the name of Ablaque ſilk.

ABORTIVE VELLUM, is made of the ſkin of an abortive calf. See VELLUM.

ABOUCOUCHOU, a ſort of woollen cloth made in France, particularly in Provence, Languedoc, and Dauphine, deſigned for Egypt. See the article CLOTH, where mention is made of thoſe that are ſent to the Levant by the way of Marſeilles.

ABRA, a ſilver coin in Poland, worth from 24 to 25 French ſols. The abra is current at Conſtantinople, and in all the dominions of the Grand Seignior: it is received there upon the foot of one fourth of the aſlani, or Holland's dollar. See ASLANI.

ABRIDGMENT, a ſummary or contraction of a writing, &c. wherein the leſs material things being omitted, or more briefly mentioned, the whole is brought into a leſſer compaſs.

ABROHANI, or MALLEMOLLE, the name of a certain muſlin, or clear, white, fine cotton-cloth, brought from the Eaſt Indies, and particularly from Bengal, being in length 16 French ells and 3 quarters, and in breadth five eighths.

ABRUZZO, a province in the kingdom of Naples in Italy. It is divided into two parts; the one called the Farther Abruzzo, the other the Nigher Abruzzo. The former of theſe is bounded on the north-weſt, by the Marca d'Ancona; on the ſouth-weſt, by Sabina and Campagnia de Roma; on the ſouth-eaſt, by the Nigher Abruzzo; and on the north-eaſt, by the Adriatic ſea.

This country is cold and mountainous, being croſſed by the Apennines; yet is fertile in grain, fruits, and eſpecially in ſaffron; and breeds great quantities of beaſts both wild and tame. It is healthy, pleaſant, and well inhabited, and the people are induſtrious, given to traffic, and ſome manufactures, particularly the woollen.

The Nigher Abruzzo, is more mountainous and cold than the other, and yet is far from being ſo healthy as that. The rivers of it are the Lenta, Foro, Moro, Feltrino, Sangro, Aſignella, and Irigno. The country watered by them produces great plenty of corn, rice, wines, fruit, and eſpecially ſaffron; but here are many large woods, that ſhelter great number of wolves, bears, and other wild creatures, which oblige travellers to go always in troops and well armed: which prevents improvements in trade.

Ortona al Mare, in this province, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from Ortona di Marſi in the ſame province, is an ancient town belonging to the Frentani, and ſituate on the Adriatic gulph, between the rivers of Foro and Moro. It had formerly a convenient and ſafe harbour for ſhipping, but is now thinly inhabited and little frequented, becauſe the Venetians ſpoiled the haven.

REMARK.

We may here obſerve, that, in places where there is no trade, they are hardly worth taking notice of, unleſs to manifeſt the neceſſity of cultivation in our own country, wherever it appears practicable.

ABUCCO, ABOCCO, or ABOCCHI, a weight uſed in the kingdom of Pegu. One abucco is twelve teccalis and a half; two abuccos make an agiro, which is alſo called giro; two giri make half a biza, and the biza weighs 100 teccalis; that is to ſay, 2 pounds 5 ounces the heavy weight, or 3 pounds 9 ounces light weight of Venice. See VENICE for its weights, &c.

ABUKESB, or ASLANI. See ASLANI.

ABYSSINIA, or upper Æthiopia, is bounded on the north by Nubia or Sennar. On the eaſt it had formerly the Red Sea, and the coaſt of Abex; on the ſouth by Alaba, Jendero, or Gingiro, as the Portugueſe write it; on the weſt by the river Maleg, which falls into the Nile, and by this laſt quite to the boundary of Nubia. For the more tedious diſputable deſcriptions with reſpect to its boundaries, we refer to thoſe who have profeſſedly written thereon; our view being only to take a ſurvey of what commerce they have, and this is very trifling for ſo extenſive a kingdom.

REMARKS.

Trade and manufactures are wholly wanting here; and, tho' their way of living makes them need the fewer, yet even thoſe that are moſt neceſſary, they are ſupplied with by the Jews; ſuch as weaving ſtuffs for dreſs, and forging heads for their lances, &c. They have a natural averſion for all ſmiths, as people that deal in fire, and live in a kind of hell as they conceive of it; and yet their princes are not inſenſible of the great advantages a plenty of all ſorts of trades would be to their dominions, though they dare not, it ſeems, force their ſubjects to what they would deem an inſupportable ſlavery; witneſs the letter, which David one of their monarchs, ſent to John III. of Portugal, wherein he deſired him to ſend over to him ſome printers, armourers, cutlers, phyſicians, ſurgeons, architects, carpenters, maſons, goldſmiths, miners, bricklayers, and jewellers.

They ſeem indeed by their churches, and other ruinated places, to have heretofore encouraged architecture. But the workmen were ſent for from other countries, and were forced to do all themſelves; ſo that when theſe fabrics were reared, eſpecially the imperial palace built by Peter Pais, a Portugueſe architect, the people flocked from all parts of Ethiopia to view it, and admired it as a new wonder of the world. However, theſe occupations which they have among them, are always conveyed from the father to the children.

Gold, ſilver, copper, and iron, are the principal ores with which their mines abound in this extenſive part of Africa; but not above one third part is made uſe of by way of merchandize, or converted into money; of which they have little or no uſe in Abyſſinia. They cut their gold indeed into ſmall pieces for the pay of their troops, and for expences of the court, which is a pretty modern cuſtom among them; the king's gold, before the end of the ſeventeenth century, being laid up in his treaſury in ingots, with intent never to be carried out, or never uſed in any thing but veſſels, and trinkets for the ſervice of the palace.

In the lieu of ſmall money, they make uſe of rock ſalt as white as ſnow, and as hard as a ſtone. This is taken out of the mountain of Lafta, and put into the king's warehouſes; where it is reduced into tablets of a foot long, and three inches broad, ten of which are worth about a French crown. When they are circulated in trade, they are reduced ſtill into ſmaller pieces, as occaſion requires. This ſalt is alſo applied to the ſame purpoſe as common ſea ſalt.

This ſalt is ſold, as it were, weight for weight for gold. With this mineral ſalt the Ethiopians purchaſe pepper, ſpices, and ſilk ſtuffs, which are brought to them by the Indians, in their ports in the Red Sea.

Cardamums, ginger, aloes, myrrh, caſſia, civet, ebony-wood, ivory, wax, honey, cotton and linnens of various ſorts and colours, are merchandizes which may be had from Abyſſinia; to which may be added ſugar, hemp, flax, and excellent wines, if theſe people had the art of preparing them.

It has been thought, that the coffee-berry was originally tranſplanted from Ethiopia into Arabia, from whence a great quantity is brought: but this is uncertain, as there are no ſigns of it among them at preſent.

'Tis affirmed by good hiſtorians, there are in this country the fineſt emeralds that are any where to be found; and, tho' they are found but in one place, they are there in great quantities, and ſome ſo large and ſo perfect, that they are ineſtimable in value. Alſo on the iſlands near Arqua (which for that reaſon the Turks keep a garriſon at) they find very good bright pearls, and very large, ſome of which are of the fineſt colour.

The greateſt part of the merchandizes, whereof we have ſpoken, are more for foreign than inland trade. Their domeſtic commerce conſiſts chiefly in ſalt, honey, buck-wheat, grey peaſe, citrons, oranges, lemons, and other proviſions, with fruits and herbage neceſſary for the ſupport of life.

Thoſe places that the Abyſſinian merchants frequent the moſt, who dare venture to carry their commodities by ſea themſelves, are the Arabia happy, and the Indies, particularly thoſe of Goa, Cambaye, Bengal and Sumatra.

With regard to their ports on the Red Sea, to which foreign merchants commonly reſort, the moſt conſiderable are thoſe

of

of Mette, Azum, Zajalla, Maga, Dazo, Patea, and Brava. They had formerly Ercocco and Quaqueu; but the Turks ruined theſe ports towards the middle of the ſeventeenth century, and with them others of their maritime cities.

The trade of the Abyſſinians by land is inconſiderable. There are, however, bands of Abyſſinians who arrive yearly at Egypt, particularly at Cairo, laden with gold duſt, which they bring to barter for the merchandizes of that country, or of Europe, for which they have occaſion.

Theſe cafilas or caravans, if we may be allowed thus to call a body of 40 or 50 poor wretches, who unite together for their mutual aſſiſtance in their journey, are commonly three or four months on their route, traverſing foreſts and mountains almoſt impaſſable, in order to exchange their gold for neceſſaries for their families, and return immediately with the greateſt part of the merchandize on their backs. Sometimes the Jews or the Egyptians will give them credit.

'Tis extraordinary that theſe merchants ſhould give theſe poor wretches credit, againſt whom they have no recourſe, if they fail of payment. But experience has ſhewn, that they have never abuſed the confidence repoſed in them, not even on account of their death; for, if that happens, their fellow-travellers take care of the effects of the deceaſed, for the benefit of their families, and in order therewith to diſcharge thoſe debts contracted at Cairo.

Other nations with whom the Abyſſinians carry on trade by land, are the inhabitants of the kingdom of Adel, the Turks who are now maſters of Ercocco and Quaqueu, the Melendians, the people of Moſambique, and the Portugueſe who are ſettled upon thoſe coaſts.

Before we conclude, it ſhould be remembered, that one of the principal branches of trade of theſe people, is that of ſlaves, who are greatly eſteemed in the Indies and Arabia for the beſt, and the moſt faithful of all that the other kingdoms of Africa furniſh. The Indian and Arabian merchants frequently ſubſtitute them as their factors; and, on account of their good ſervices and integrity, not only often give them their liberty, but liberally reward them.

Though the productions and populouſneſs of this part of the world, would admit of a ſurprizing improvement in general commerce with the Europeans; yet it is as little cultivated here, as in any other parts of Africa. See AFRICA, and its ſeveral diviſions from that general head.

ACACIA is, according to Pomet, the fruit, or rather the ſeeds of a yellow fruit inclining to red, of the ſize of a magdalen-pear, or leſs than that of an orange. The tree which bears theſe, is, according to the Sieur Rouſſeau's letter, 5 or 6 feet high, adorned with leaves of a yellowiſh green, and ſomething of the ſhape of ivy. The flowers are ſmall, and grow in tufts, of a carnation colour; from whence comes a yellow fruit, or ſeed, of the bigneſs of a cheſnut, of the ſhape of a kidney, and of an olive colour, covered with a nut or ſtone, wherein is a white almond, which, after it has been roaſted like a cheſnut in the fire, is pleaſant to eat.

The Americans cut the yellow fruit in ſlices, and eat it in the manner we do a China orange, as well to revive the ſpirits, as to cool them, becauſe they are full of a well-taſted juice.

You muſt chuſe ſuch as are large and new, of an olive colour, with white kernels, which are the certain ſigns they are freſh; and not of a cheſnut colour, which is a ſign of their being old and over-ripe.

ACACIA VERA is, according to many authors, the thickened juice of a large tree, growing in Egypt and Arabia, whoſe bloſſom is white and purgative, and which is all over thorny, except its trunk. From this tree it is, as ſome other authors pretend, that the gum arabic iſſues. However that be, for the opinion of both has but a ſlender foundation, this thickened juice, from what tree ſoever it is produced, comes from the Levant, in round balls of different ſizes, wrapped up in very thin bladders.

The acacia vera, to be good, ought to be full ripe, of a tan colour, of a reddiſh brown, ſmooth and ſhining, and of a ſtyptic and ſomething diſagreeable taſte. This drug is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle.

ACACIA GERMANICA, or German Acacia, is a counterfeit drug, made of the juice of ſloes, or wild plums, which grow upon the black-thorn; that juice is boiled afterwards to a ſolid conſiſtence, and put into bladders like the true acacia, which comes from Egypt. But nevertheleſs it is ſcarce poſſible to be miſtaken in it; the acacia vera being of a reddiſh tan colour, and the acacia Germanica as black as common Spaniſh liquorice. Lemery ſays, the true acacia is made by expreſſion out of the fruit, and that either ripe, or unripe. From the ripe fruit there is a black juice: from the unripe fruit a red or yellowiſh juice, the colour not ſo black, but more inclining to red, and of a ſweet ſcent. This, he adds, is the true acacia of Dioſcorides, which is to be uſed in making Venice treacle.

ACAJOU, is the fruit, or rather the ſeed of a tree, growing in the Antille iſlands, and in many places of the continent of America, and eſpecially in Braſil.

There are three kinds of trees which bear this name, but there is but one of them that produces fruit. The fruit bearing acajou is a tree of a middling ſize, with branches that incline very much downward. Its leaves are broad and ſtreaked with many veins, and round at the end. The bloſſoms, which grow in cluſters, and are of a very agreeable ſmell, are white, when they firſt open, and afterwards of a carnation and purple colour. Its fruit is of the form of an apple ſomewhat oblong, covered with a thin rind of a lively red, and crowned with a kind of creſt of an olive colour. In the inſide are ſpungy filaments, which yield a juice between ſweet and ſour, very good for quenching the thirſt, and againſt fainting fits, when mixed with ſugar. The Indians make a liquor of it, which will inebriate like wine; and laſtly, the ſtone or ſeed, which is what the druggiſts and grocers at Paris ſell under the name of acajou, is a kind of cheſnut in the form of a hare's liver, within which there is a kernel, and that being peeled is an excellent ſtomachic.

The acajou nuts ſhould be choſen freſh, and of an olive colour. When inciſions are made in the acajou tree, it emits a clear tranſparent gum, very like the gum arabic.

The Chevalier des Marchais, in his Voyage de Guinée, Tom III. p. 266, ſays,

That there are two kinds of acajou; the firſt is that to which the Spaniards have given the name of cedar, on account of the ſcent of its wood, though in reality it differs as much from the cedar, as the cedar does from the apple-tree. The ſecond kind has retained throughout all America, the name which the Indians of all nations have given it, with ſo little difference from each other, that it is plainly known to be the ſame in all their idioms. This tree is ſo common, that there are whole foreſts of it in Braſil and Guiana. The Portugueſe have no remedy more ſure for curing their negroes of a pain in the ſtomach, which is a kind of dropſy, than to leave them to themſelves, in places abounding with theſe trees. Hunger preſſing thoſe poor wretches, and they not finding any other food but the fruit of the acajou, they glut themſelves with it; and the fruit ſoon cutting the noxious humours, that occaſion the diſtemper, theſe dropſical ſlaves, who were ſcarce able to ſtir, are ſeen in a ſhort time running like ſtags, and in a wonderful ſtate of health.

The nut, which the fruit bears at its extremity, contains in the ſhell an oil, which is the more ſharp and biting, the leſs ripe it is. This oil is however of a wonderful uſe, in drying up and cleanſing the oldeſt ulcers, and all other diſeaſes of the ſkin; and alſo for killing thoſe dangerous inſects that get under the toe-nails, and into the wrinkles of the ſkin, where they occaſion ulcers that are frequently incurable. The Portugueſe call them bichos, the Spaniards niguas, and the French chiques.

In proportion as the fruit ripens, the ſharpneſs of the oil decreaſes; but there always remains more than enough to make the tongue and gums of thoſe ſmart, who are ſo imprudent as to crack that nut with their teeth.

There is no occaſion to extract this oil in the country where the fruit grows, in order to bring it to Europe; it being ſufficient to ſend the nuts thither. Though they be never ſo ſtale, they always retain oil enough. In order to extract it, the nut muſt be ſplit, and its pieces laid upon burning charcoal. The oil, which is contained between the two coats of the ſhell, comes out as ſoon as it feels the fire: it is collected with a little cotton, and applied to the uſes mentioned above. The kernel contained in this ſhell is white, ſolid, delicate, and of a better taſte than the beſt almonds, and is much like that in the ſtone of a pine apple. Theſe nuts are eaten raw when freſh gathered, after having been ſteeped for a ſhort time in water, with a little ſalt: many like them better roaſted. In order to that, the ſhell is a little broke, and laid for a moment on the coals: it then opens of itſelf, the kernel is taken out, and a little brown ſkin, that covers it, being peeled off, it is then of a delicious taſte. Theſe nuts will keep many years, and ſcarce loſe any thing of their goodneſs. The Indians ſet ſo great value upon the fruit of the acajou, and the nut that adheres to it, that they often make war with each other, for the crop of this fruit, which in Guiana is ripe in the months of December, January and February.

This fruit is of the form of an apple. The ſkin is thin and ſmooth, of a fine red on the ſide next to the ſun, and of a gold colour on the oppoſite ſide. Their ſmell is ſweet, agreeable, and comforting. Their ſubſtance is entirely ſpungy, and full of an exceeding tart and ſtyptic liquor, before the fruit is ripe; but ſweet, pleaſant, and wholeſome, when it has attained its maturity. They refreſh and exhilarate; and, though they are a little binding, yet they wonderfully provoke urine.

They make a tart and pleaſant wine of it, which is heady, kept two or three days; after which it turns into a very ſharp vinegar. People of ſkill might make a wine of it, that would keep longer: ſome have cauſed the juice of the acajou fruit to be diſtilled, which has produced a very ſtrong ſpirit.

This tree, during the great heats, emits lumps of gum, of an amber colour, hard and friable, or apt to crumble. The Indians diſſolve it in water, and give it with ſucceſs to women troubled with hyſteric diſorders, or their periodic maladies. This gum has little or no ſcent.

ACANTHUS, otherwiſe called branca urſina, or bear's-breech, is a plant uſed in medicine. Its leaves are ſomewhat like

like thoſe of the thiſtle; the flowers are labiated; the under lip of the flower is divided into three ſegments, which in the beginning is curled up in form of a ſhort tube: in the place of the upper lip are produced the ſtamina or ſeeds, which ſupport the pointals: the cup of the flower is compoſed of leaves which are prickly; the upper part of which is bent over like an arch, and ſupplies the defect of the upper lip of the flower. The fruit is of an oval form, and is divided in the middle into two cells, each containing one ſingle ſmooth ſeed.

There are four ſpecies of this plant known, *viz.*

1. Acanthus ſativus, vel mollis Virgilii. The ſmooth-leaved garden bear's-breech. This is the ſort uſed in medicine, and ſuppoſed to be the mollis acanthus of Virgil. 2. Acanthus aculeatus, the prickly bear's breech. 3. Acanthus rarioribus & brevioribus aculeis munitus, the middle bear's-breech, with ſhort ſpines. 4. Acanthus Luſitanicus, ampliſſimo folio lucido, the Portugal bear's-breech, with large ſhining leaves. All theſe plants are eaſily propagated by parting their roots in February or March, or by ſeeds ſown at the ſame time.

ACAPALTI, a plant of New Spain or Mexico, that bears the long pepper. Its trunk grows winding like that of the vine, and has leaves upon it like thoſe of white pepper, but longer and more pointed, of a very ſtrong ſcent, and a hot and ſharp taſte. The fruit is round, and from two to three inches long, of a pretty red colour, when it is near its maturity; which it can never attain entirely on the plant; ſo that it is neceſſary to gather it, as ſoon as it begins to redden, in order to compleat its ripening in the ſun.

This pepper is eaten either green or dried, and both ways gives a very high reliſh to meat, provided, that, after ſeaſoning therewith, it be not put again to the fire; in which caſe it loſes part of its taſte and ſtrength.

ACAPULCO, a port town in America, ſituate in Mexico, on a large bay of the South-Sea, from whence a rich ſhip has been ſaid to ſail annually to Manilla in the Philippine Iſlands, near the coaſt of China, in Aſia; and another returns annually from thence to Acapulco, laden with a great treaſure from the Eaſt-Indies. One of thoſe rich ſhips loaden with ſilver, and bound from Acapulco to Manilla, was taken by the late Lord Anſon.

Remarks.

It is a great, though general miſtake, that the Spaniards employ but two ſhips to Manilla, whereof one goes and one returns every year; for they ſend out two ſhips or galleons, and receive back two every year. Sometimes indeed it happens that they come not back till two years, but that is extraordinary and by accident. The burthen or cargo which theſe ſhips carry is very great; the ordinary loading, beſides their guns and ſtores, being 1000 to 1100 ton each: and they had one many years which carried 1600 ton.

Thoſe Manilla ſhips are always full loaden outwards with European goods, beſides the ſilver, and bring back likewiſe a full loading of all ſorts of Eaſt-India and China goods; and all theſe goods, both out and home, except what are ſent ſouthward to Panama and Lima, are carried by land carriage from and to Mexico, which is about 240 miles: and theſe goods by computation, beſides what may go to Lima and that way, cannot be leſs than 4000 ton in weight, that is 2000 ton one way, and 2000 ton the other, and this encreaſes the trade of the country in the employment of people, horſes, mules and carriages.

The Acapulco ſhips carry all ſorts of European goods from America; and theſe furniſh the Spaniards therewith at Manilla chiefly, and the Indians of the Philippine Iſlands in general, whom the Spaniards have taught to go cloathed after the Spaniſh manner, with all kinds of European manufactures: ſome of theſe are alſo ſold to the Maylayans, and the Indians of all the coaſts and iſlands contiguous; but much more conſiderable in value are the utenſils, weapons, fire-arms, workmen's tools, and all heavy goods made of iron and braſs, which are brought from Acapulco, which are vended amongſt all thoſe Indians to great advantage; alſo unwrought iron, or iron in bars, is brought from Old Spain to Acapulco, and carried from thence to Manilla; and here the Chineſe and Japaneſe, who are the beſt cutlers in India, and make all manner of utenſils, purchaſe large quantities of iron and braſs of the Spaniards. Both Chineſe and Japaneſe are pretty curious workers in moſt kind of hard-ware in gold and ſilver: they are good founders, turners, goldſmiths and lockſmiths, but not good gun-ſmiths, nor good ſword-blade makers.

However, being very dextrous in their way, and having great variety of materials by the Spaniſh ſhips from Acapulco, this occaſions a numerous reſort of traders at Manilla, from whence they diſperſe their goods to the other Indian iſlands, and trade with their reſpective countries and countrymen, even in the European factories; as in Borneo in particular, and to Sumatra and Malacca, where ſome of thoſe European goods are vended amongſt the natives.

But as for the manufactures of woollen, linen or ſilk, they are of ſmall uſe, except to the Spaniards themſelves; the Chineſe and Japaneſe ſupplying themſelves with cotton manufactures of all kinds, ſuch as muſlins, callicoes, &c. Yet the Spaniards find ſeveral things which the Acapulco ſhips bring, with which the natives of thoſe countries are greatly taken, and for which they get in return the product of the countries they come from; which being of very little value there, and of great value in America, the traffic is by ſo much the eaſier; as particularly beads, toys, looking glaſſes, pins, needles, and all kinds of ſmall wares of iron, ſteel, pewter and braſs; with variety of glaſs ware, which is particularly valued by the Indians in general.——In return, the product of the place is itſelf rich, and infinitely valuable among the Spaniards; as particularly their eſtimable perfumes, which being originals, and the produce of mere nature, are extremely dear when they come to New Spain, as ambergreaſe, civet, bezoar, &c. Nor does any nation in Europe or America uſe more than the Spaniards, both men and women, and eſpecially in thoſe hot climates of Mexico and Peru.

Beſides theſe, they have ſeveral other valuable products, which never loſe or leſſen their price, amongſt Chriſtian nations, although they may have the ſame things among themſelves: as particularly, 1. Very large pearls, of a good colour, which the Spaniards tell us are the beſt in the Eaſt, the oriental pearl being found on the coaſt of India, in the mouth of the Perſian gulph, and at Ormus, and parts adjacent in the Perſian gulph; they being finer and fairer than any of the Batavian or Borneo pearls, or moſt others. 2. They have alſo gold, which is found in almoſt the pure metal, and of the moſt perfect quality, in the rivers, as it is in other countries, and ſome in the mountains: they ſend about the value of 50000 doubloons a year to New Spain in this metal only. How that agrees with the account ſome give us, that this country coſts the king of Spain 250000 pieces of eight a year to ſupport it more than the produce, is not eaſily reconcileable: we are rather of opinion, that they ſupply the treaſury of Spain with thoſe 50000 doubloons in gold every year, as the product of this government; for if it were otherwiſe, how ſhould the governors, who live in ſuch ſtate and pomp that ſome ſovereign princes do not equal, lay up ſuch immenſe ſums in the eight years of their government, (for ſo long they continue at the Philippines) and appear ſo rich in Europe as it is ſaid they do? For we are told that they generally return back to Europe or to Acapulco, with a treaſure of two millions of pieces of eight, or more.

They have alſo great plenty of honey and wax; both which, but eſpecially the latter, is very valuable in Spaniſh America, and is carried thither yearly in large quantities. They have eſtimable drugs and gums of divers kinds, which the Spaniſh padres, who are generally phyſicians, gather and ſend to their particular ſocieties in America, and they again to Europe: ſo that they are a kind of merchandiſe peculiar to themſelves. Of theſe they name ſeveral which are in great eſtimation, as the Caſſia, aloes, gum arabic, ſago, camphire, and ſeveral others, as likewiſe medicinal herbs, of which they have no ſmall variety.

The articles are very conſiderable that enable the Spaniards to make ſo rich a return to America by their Acapulco ſhips. They have the richeſt ſpices of the eaſt, drugs, diamonds and gold, muſlins, callicoes, china, taffaties, rich atlaſſes, and ſeveral other ſorts of the richeſt wrought ſilks, china ware, and tea, fine lacquered ware, cabinet work, tables, ſcreens, umbrellas, and other niceties of the country. Thus the Philippines, by the courſe of their neighbouring trade, are furniſhed with ſtores of merchandize for making their returns to Acapulco, and that in a manner fully to the ſatisfaction of the Spaniards, who uſually make a profit of four for one in all the goods they ſend from Acapulco to Manilla.

It may be wondered why the Spaniards ſo ſtrictly confine themſelves to the ſending of no more than two ſhips a year on this trade; nor can we eaſily ſuggeſt the reaſon for it: however, the merchants make themſelves amends another way, for they build thoſe ſhips ſo vaſtly large, that they ordinarily carry from ten to twelve, or fourteen hundred ton, ſome have ſaid to ſixteen hundred ton burden. So that though it is making a great adventure in one bottom, yet as thoſe ſeas are generally very ſafe and pacific, they can afford the freight the cheaper in proportion: and on the other hand, as theſe large ſhips are built prodigious ſtrong, they are able to bear the ſea with the greateſt ſteddineſs, if navigated by able ſeamen.

Above all, they are the more ſecure againſt pirates and rovers, who cannot eaſily hurt them, and dare not, as the ſeamen term it, lay by their ſide; for they have all three decks, and carry large guns of 24 to 30 pound ball, which the ſmaller ſhips cannot bear the ſhot of: on the other hand, the ſmaller ſhips can hardly, except by fire only, any way hurt the great ſhip, and to burn them does not anſwer the pirate's end. When Rogers and Cook attacked the Acapulco or Manilla ſhips, they ſaw them both, and took the ſmalleſt, a ſhip of about 4 or 500 ton; but when they came to attack the great carrac, a ſhip of 1200 ton, they could make nothing of it; every ſhot they received made them tremble, and ſtand off to ſtop the leak; whereas, the ſhot they made at the carrac ſtuck in her ſides, but could not go through; and when they thought to board her, ſhe

boombed them off with great pieces thruſt out by the multitude of her hands; for ſhe had, paſſengers included, above 800 men on board; and when they found ſhe began to open her lower tier of ports, and put out guns, which were 36 pounders at leaſt, they durſt come near her no more, tho' there were three ſhips to one.

Thus, in caſe of a war, or of rovers and pirates, the Spaniards ſeem to judge right in ſending great ſhips as the moſt ſecure, and their main end is anſwered hereby alſo; for two ſhips at this rate carry as many goods as twelve ſhips or more of 200 tons each would do: and it appears that the goods they bring are a very great quantity, and of a very great value; for at their arrival they occaſion a fair at Acapulco, as great in proportion as the fair at Porto-bello, when the galleons from New Spain arrive there; and the merchants repair to Acapulco from Mexico, Lima, from Curco, from all the capital trading places of Peru, and even from Chili itſelf, to buy the rich goods they bring: which fair ſometimes continues thirty days; and it is not one or two, no nor ten or twenty ſhips only, that attend to carry off the goods, beſides the great quantities that are carried upon mules and other beaſts by land. So that during the fair, which is always proclaimed and appointed on that occaſion, the town of Acapulco, which at other times is empty, and only inhabited by a few fiſhermen and mean people, is for that time ſo full, that it is not able to receive them, much leſs to entertain the number of people.

ACCEPTANCE, a term in the traffic of inland and foreign bills of exchange. The acceptance of a bill of exchange, is the ſubſcribing, ſigning, and making a perſon debtor for the ſum of its contents; by obliging him in his own name, to diſcharge it at the time mentioned therein. The acceptance is uſually made by the perſon upon whom the bill is drawn, when it is preſented to him by the bearer.

Bills payable at ſight are not accepted, becauſe they muſt be paid on being preſented, or elſe proteſted for want of payment. There are ſome acceptances that need not be dated, and others that it is neceſſary to date.

The acceptances which need not be dated, are thoſe upon bills payable at a day fixed, at uſance or double uſance, *&c.* Upon theſe the word 'accepted' ought only to be wrote, and the accepter's name; dating being of no uſe in them, becauſe they are always to run to the day mentioned for their payment. And the time for the bills at uſance, double uſance, *&c.* begins from the day of the date of the bills themſelves.

It is not abſolutely neceſſary to have bills of a fixed day, at uſance, double uſance, *&c.* accepted, becauſe their time is always running: it is however an advantage to the bearer to have them accepted, becauſe, by virtue of the acceptance, he has the ſecurity of two inſtead of one, the accepter and the drawer.

If the perſon upon whom a bill is drawn, at a day fixed, at ſingle or double uſance, *&c.* ſhould make difficulties to accept it, the bearer has a right to have it proteſted, for want of acceptance, and to return it to the drawer, in order to oblige him, either to cauſe it to be accepted, or to give ſecurity (in caſe it ſhould not be paid when due, by the perſon upon whom it was drawn) to return and reſtore the ſum mentioned in it, with the difference of exchange, re-exchange, and the charges of the proteſt.

The acceptances which it is neceſſary to date, are thoſe drawn at a certain number of days ſight, becauſe the time does not begin to run, till the next day after that of acceptance. This kind of acceptance is made thus, 'accepted ſuch a day and year,' and ſigned.

If the bearer of a bill of exchange conſents to an acceptance at twenty days ſight, for inſtance, inſtead of eight days expreſſed in the bill, he runs the riſk of the twelve days of prolongation, in caſe the accepter happens to break in that time; and the bill remains to his account, without any recourſe againſt the drawer.

If a bill was drawn for three thouſand pounds, and the bearer ſhould think fit to take an acceptance for two thouſand only, and ſhould receive no more than that ſum, the remaining thouſand would be at his own hazard, as well as in the caſe of prolongation of time.

Theſe examples may be ſufficient for acceptances of this kind. It is, however, not amiſs to obſerve, that if the bearer of a bill ſhould have written orders from the drawer, to have the ſame accepted in either of the manners as above, in ſuch a caſe, the bearer would have undoubtedly a right againſt the drawer, for an indemnification.

In former times, bills payable during the fairs of the city of Lyons, which are called payments, were not accepted in writing; the perſon, upon whom they were drawn, uſed to ſay by word of mouth, 'ſeen without acceptance, to be anſwered at the time,' and the bearer noted it in his bill-book. But, becauſe of the conteſts which happened on occaſion of theſe verbal acceptances through the breach of faith of accepters, an article was inſerted in the ordonnance of the exchange of the city of Lyons, made June 2, 1667, by which the manner of acceptances was regulated. It is the 3d article, and is to this effect: "That the acceptances of the ſaid bills of exchange ſhall be in writing, dated and ſigned by thoſe upon whom they are drawn, or by perſons duly impowered by letters of attorney, the original of which ſhall remain in the hands of the notary; and all acceptances made by factors, clerks, and others, not impowered by letters of attorney, ſhall be void and of no effect, againſt the perſon upon whom ſuch bills ſhall be drawn, without prejudice however to the legal recourſe againſt the accepter." This regulation or order was confirmed by Art. 7. of Tit. 5. of the ordonnance of commerce, of March 1673, the tenor of which is as follows: "We do not intend to make any innovation in our regulation of June 2, 1667, concerning acceptances, payments, and other diſpoſitions relating to the commerce of our city of Lyons." And, by article 2. of the ſame title of the ſaid ordonnance, the manner of making acceptances is regulated for the other places in the kingdom, and runs thus: "All bills of exchange ſhall be accepted purely and ſimply in writing. We aboliſh the uſe of verbal acceptances, or in theſe words, 'ſeen without accepting;' or, 'accepted to anſwer at the time;' and all other conditional acceptances, which ſhall paſs for refuſals, and ſuch bills ſhall be liable to proteſt."

In the general, he to whom a bill is made payable, at the time ſhould demand acceptance thereof, both for his own and the drawer's ſecurity, and on refuſal of acceptance to return it with proteſt.

The addreſs of a bill of exchange is the directions ſignifying by whom, and where the payment ſhall be made when due, and to whom the poſſeſſor may apply, in caſe the party, who is to accept or pay, be not in the way.

He that has the bill may demand acceptance of the perſon the bill is addreſſed to; and, in caſe that perſon hath no order or power to accept the ſame, the poſſeſſor may deſire ſuch perſon, if to be truſted, to ſend ſuch bill to procure acceptance, or to return it with proteſt. This the perſon to whom the bill is addreſſed is obliged to do, otherwiſe the poſſeſſor may, before the ſaid perſon, make proteſt for non-acceptance.

If the poſſeſſor can't ſafely truſt the perſon to whom the bill is addreſſed, to procure acceptance; or if the drawer has not addreſſed the bill at all; the poſſeſſor muſt cauſe the bill to be ſent to ſomebody, in whom he can confide, that lives at the place where the perſon reſides on whom it is drawn, to demand acceptance, and, upon refuſal, to proteſt.

When the remitter or poſſeſſor has no correſpondent to ſend the bill to, who lives where the acceptant does, it is common to deſire the drawer to ſend the prima bill, to procure acceptance, and return it accepted to the remitter, or poſſeſſor. The drawer is not obliged to do this, yet he cannot well refuſe it, if he be aſſured of the honeſty of his correſpondent, and that he will accept his bill.

In caſe the drawer does not in conv nient time return the bill accepted to the remitter, the drawer is not obliged to give further ſatisfaction to the remitter, but the remitter muſt look to it himſelf, and ſend a ſecond bill to ſome other, to procure acceptance, and to enquire whether the prima be accepted, or not; if not, the acceptant muſt accept the ſecond bill, or a proteſt muſt be made for non-acceptance.

A cautious remitter will not leave a prima bill in the drawer's hands to procure acceptance, unleſs he is well aſſured of his worth and integrity.

When the poſſeſſor of ſuch bill has no correſpondent at the place where the acceptant lives, nor dare truſt the drawer with it; it is uſual for the poſſeſſor to adviſe the acceptant by letter that he has ſuch a bill on him, and deſire him to return anſwer, whether he accepts the ſame, to pay it at the time, or no; if he returns anſwer that he will not accept it, nor pay it, or if he gives no anſwer at all, the poſſeſſor is obliged to carry or ſend the bill to that place, and there formally, by a notary public, to demand acceptance; and, in caſe of refuſal, to proteſt.

If the acceptant be an out-dweller from the place where the bill is to be paid, it is uſual, when acceptance is demanded, to deſire the accepter to underwrite to whom he muſt apply for payment, when due.

When a bill is payable to order, by an out-dweller, and not to a certain perſon, and the accepter has not ordered to whom the laſt party it is aſſigned to, ſhall addreſs for payment when due, the poſſeſſor is obliged to give the accepter timely notice to whom the bill muſt be paid, that the accepter may, within the reſpite days, return an anſwer, and take care of the payment.

If the out-dweller remits, at the time appointed, to the poſſeſſor of his accepted bill, in other bills due at the ſame time with his bill, the poſſeſſor is not obliged to demand acceptance, and to get thoſe bills paid, without proviſion allowed him. But, when the accepter directs him to any particular perſon for payment, the poſſeſſor is obliged to go to ſuch party to receive his money without proviſion.

An out-dweller having a bill remitted to him payable by an in-dweller, and the out-dweller deſiring his accepter at the day to ſend his money in ſpecie, or to remit him the value in other bills, the in-dweller is not obliged to do this without allowance of proviſion.

If

If the poſſeſſor of a bill payable by an out-dweller does not get his money in time, he muſt order a public notary to proteſt for non-payment, which proteſt, though not made in the preſence of the perſon, nor at the houſe of the accepter, is valid, becauſe the poſſeſſor of the bill is not obliged to proteſt againſt an out-dweller at his houſe or dwelling, nor to ſeek him out of the town where the payment is to be made.
If an out-dweller refuſes acceptance when a bill is ſent to him, a proteſt may be made either at the houſe of the out-dweller by the poſſeſſor, or elſe at the place of payment. A letter from the perſon that demands acceptance, being produced to a notary, is ſufficient to ground a proteſt upon, as alſo in caſe of non-payment.
Although the poſſeſſor is not obliged to ſeek payment of an out-dweller in any other place but where the bill is payable, and the drawer or accepter hath addreſſed; yet, in caſe of non-payment, the accepter or his effects are liable in any place where either can be found.
Should an accepter of a bill of exchange fail or become inſolvent after he has accepted a bill, the drawer of the bill will be obliged to pay the ſame, with re-exchange, proviſion, and charges to the poſſeſſor.
When the perſon on whom a bill is drawn underſtands that the drawer has failed before acceptance is demanded, he need not accept ſuch drawer's bills, notwithſtanding he may have promiſed to honour ſuch bills, without indemnification from all and every one that ſhall make any demand thereof, whether it be the drawer, his creditors, truſtees, or his principal, for whoſe account the draught was made, &c. &c.
Nor ought any one on whom bills are drawn, accept them from an inſolvent drawer, though the bill is dated before the inſolvency is known, and the letter of advice bears the ſame date, whether it comes by the common poſt or not; becauſe there is reaſon to ſuſpect ſome fraud, and that both the bill and letter were antedated.
If A draws on B, on account of C, and B before acceptance has advice that A has failed, B ſhould not accept ſuch draught, though he promiſed A he would; becauſe C is not obliged to make good the value to B. And more eſpecially ſo, if C adviſes B of A's failure, or on any ſuſpicion hath forbid B's acceptance for his account, although he had ordered the acceptance thereof before.
On failure of a drawer, the accepter is not obliged to give better ſecurity for payment; but the poſſeſſor muſt wait till the day of payment, before he can demand any thing of the accepter; and then the accepter is obliged to pay, though he accepted for the drawer's account, and has no effects of his in hand.
If an accepter refuſes payment of a bill, on failure of the drawer, the poſſeſſor is not obliged to return the bill and proteſt, to the place from whence it is drawn; it being apparent, that the charges of re-exchange cannot be recovered of the inſolvent drawer. The poſſeſſor therefore muſt without delay, after a proteſt is made, proceed by attachment: for a difference in conduct is required when the drawer maintains his credit, and when he has failed.
When an accepter fails or abſents himſelf, the poſſeſſor is obliged to get a proteſt made by a public notary, and ſend the ſame, with the bill, to the remitter, to procure ſatisfaction from the drawer; and advice ſhould be given directly to the firſt remitter, and not to the laſt endorſer only, that the drawer may, if he pleaſes, order ſome other to honour his bill, and prevent loſs by the re-exchange, &c.
Though a poſſeſſor through ignorance of cuſtom, or of the acceptant's failure, or by reaſon the bill did not come to hand till after due, or for any other cauſe of the like nature, does not, or cannot make proteſt by a public notary; yet this will not hinder the poſſeſſor's redreſſing himſelf on the drawer and endorſer, though the accepter failed before the bill became due.
When an accepter fails before the day of payment, if the bill be payable to order, the poſſeſſor muſt get a proteſt made and ſend it to the firſt remitter, but keep the bill till it falls due, that, if the drawer orders any other to honour his bill in time, the poſſeſſor may be ready to receive the value.
If any other offer to accept and honour a bill whoſe firſt accepter is failed, in favour of the drawer, or any other endorſer, the poſſeſſor is not obliged to accept ſuch offer, if he diſapproves the offerer; but if the offerer is a ſufficient man, or will give ſecurity, the poſſeſſor cannot refuſe ſuch an offer.
It is not ſafe to accept a bill, whoſe firſt accepter is failed, without a proteſt for non-payment, declaring the bad circumſtances of the accepter; and ſuch an acceptant, in honour, muſt preſently ſend the ſaid proteſt, together with the notary's atteſtation of his accepting the ſame in honour, to the drawer, or to him for whoſe account he has accepted the ſame. Acceptance after the day of payment paſt is uſual, and good. L. Raymund 364, 574. So acceptance for the honour of the drawer. Idem. 575.
The queſtion, whether a general indebitat aſſumpſit will lie upon a bare acceptance of a bill of exchange, in the argument of the caſe of Bellaſis and Heſter. By Juſtice John Powel, a general indebitat aſſumpſit does not lie on a bill of exchange; but it ought to be a ſpecial declaration upon the

cuſtom of merchants, as in the caſe of Brown and London. 1 Levinz 298. 1 Mod. 285. 2 Keble 695, 731, 758, 822. 1 Vent. 152. In which caſe, judgment was arreſted after verdict, as reported by Levinz and Ventris.
Acceptance of a bill of exchange may be pleaded as payment in bar of an action of account. Luc. 37.
Where the drawee firſt accepts, and then ſuffers the bill to be proteſted, he ſhall pay intereſt from the time of the proteſt. Luc. 37.
If a bill be accepted, and afterwards indorſed to the drawer, he may maintain an action as indorſee, in caſe he had effects enough in the hands of the drawee, to anſwer the bill: but it is otherwiſe where the acceptance was only for the honour of the drawer. Luc. 37.
A bill was drawn on the York-buildings company; one Biſhop, who was their caſhier, accepts it without writing 'for the company,' or any thing to that effect: an action was maintained againſt him in his private and ſingle capacity upon this acceptance.
If a bill is drawn upon a merchant in London payable to J. S. at double uſance, J. S. is not bound in ſtrictneſs of law to procure an acceptance, but only tender the bill when the money is due: but merchants, who generally have generous ſpirits, will not ſurprize a man, but firſt procure an acceptance, or at leaſt leave the bill for the party to conſider, and give his anſwer, and then give advice of the ſame, and, if the money be not paid, then proteſt.
A proteſt is no more but to ſubject the drawer of a bill to anſwer in caſe of non-acceptance, or non-payment; not does the ſame diſcharge the party accepter, if once accepted; for the deliverer hath now two remedies, one againſt the drawer, and the other againſt the accepter.
To entitle the party to an action at law in England againſt the accepter, it matters not whether there be a proteſt; but to entitle the party to a recovery againſt the drawer beyond the ſeas or elſewhere, there muſt be a proteſt before a public notary.
If a merchant hath accepted a bill, and, before the ſame becomes due, he proves inſolvent, or at leaſt his credit is publickly blaſted, a proteſt ought to go.
By the ſtatute of 3, 4 A. c. 9. it is enacted, That if the party on whom an inland bill of exchange ſhall be drawn, ſhall refuſe to accept the ſame by underwriting it, the party to whom the ſame is made payable, may and ſhall cauſe ſuch bill to be proteſted for non-acceptance.
No acceptance of ſuch inland bill of exchange ſhall be ſufficient to charge any perſon, unleſs the ſame be underwritten or endorſed in writing thereupon; and, if ſuch bill be not accepted by ſuch underwriting or indorſement, no drawer ſhall be liable to pay any coſts, damages, or intereſt thereon, unleſs ſuch proteſt be made for non-acceptance thereof, and without, fourteen days after ſuch proteſt, the ſame be ſent, or notice thereof be given to the party from whom ſuch bill was received, or left in writing at the place of his uſual abode.
If ſuch bill be accepted, and not paid before the expiration of three days after the ſame ſhall become due, then no drawer ſhall be compellable to pay any coſts, damages, or intereſt thereon, unleſs a proteſt be made and ſent, or notice thereof be given in manner above-mentioned: nevertheleſs, every drawer ſhall be liable to pay coſts, damages, and intereſt, if a proteſt be made for non-acceptance, or non-payment, and notice thereof be ſent, given, or left as aforeſaid.
Such proteſt is not neceſſary, unleſs the value be acknowledged in ſuch bill to be received, and unleſs the bill be drawn for 20 *l.* or upwards.
If any perſon accepts ſuch inland bill of exchange in ſatisfaction of a former debt, the ſame ſhall be eſteemed a complete payment of ſuch debt, if the perſon accepting ſuch bill for his debt doth not take his due courſe to obtain payment thereof, by endeavouring to get the ſame accepted and paid, and make his proteſt as aforeſaid.
Before this ſtatute, the declaration need not have ſhewn a proteſt upon ſuch bill, though the drawer ought to have had convenient notice of non-payment. L. Raymund 992, 993. But the law ſeems to be altered, as to the proteſt by this ſtatute.
A bill drawn on two jointly muſt have a joint acceptance, otherwiſe it muſt be proteſted; but to two or either of them, è contra.
Then, if the ſame be accepted by one, it is purſuant to the tenor of the bill, and ought not to be proteſted but in caſe of non-payment; and in that caſe the perſon accepter is liable to an action, but, if it be on joint traders, an acceptance by one will conclude and bind the other.
A factor of the Hamburgh, Turky, or India company, draws a bill on the ſame, and a member accepts the ſame, this perhaps may make him liable, but not another member.
So it is if ten merchants ſhall employ a factor at the Canaries, and the factor draws a bill on them all, and one of them accepts the bill, and then refuſes payment, this will not oblige the reſt.

But if there be three joint traders for the common ſtock and benefit of all three, and their factor draws a bill on them, the acceptance of the one will oblige the reſidue of the company.

A ſmall matter amounts to an acceptance, ſo that there be a right underſtanding between both parties: as, 'leave your bill with me, and I will accept it;' or, 'call for it to-morrow, and it ſhall be accepted;' that does oblige as effectually by the cuſtom of merchants, and according to law, as if the party had actually ſubſcribed or ſigned it, which is uſually done.

But if a man ſhall ſay, 'Leave your bill with me, I will look over my accounts and books between the drawer and me, and call to-morrow, and accordingly the bill ſhall be accepted;' this ſhall not amount to a complete acceptance: for this mention of his books and accounts was really intended to ſee if there were effects in his hands to anſwer, without which perhaps he would not accept of the ſame. And ſo it was ruled by the Lord Chief Juſtice Hale at Guildhall, London.

A bill may be accepted for part, for that the party upon whom the ſame was drawn, had no more effects in his hands; which being uſually done, there muſt be a proteſt, if not for the whole ſum, yet at leaſt for the reſidue: however, after payment of ſuch part, there muſt be a proteſt for the remainder.

Before the time of payment of the bill, the party may notwithſtanding accept it, and pay it at the time of payment; or another may accept the bill for the honour of the drawer, and, if he pay it in default of the party, yet before payment he is bound to make a proteſt, with a declaration that he hath paid the ſame for the honour of the drawer, whereby to receive his money again.

Any time before the money becomes due, the drawer may countermand the payment, although the bill hath been accepted. The countermand is uſually made before a notary; but, if it comes without, ſo it comes under the party's hand, it is well enough.

If the bill be accepted, and the party deſires to have the money before it be due, and it is paid, and then there comes a countermand, it hath been conceived that it ought not to be allowed; for, as he could not enlarge the time, ſo he could not ſhorten it, but his duty is to follow his order.

The drawer of a bill is bound to the deliverer, and the accepter to the party to whom the bill is made payable; yet both are not bound to one man, unleſs the deliverer be a ſervant to the party to whom the money is made payable; or the party to whom the money is made payable be ſervant to the deliverer: yet both taker and accepter are liable till the bill is paid.

Therefore, when you bring your action, be ſure to draw your declaration accordingly, and make the ſame part of the cuſtom as you ſet it forth; for, if you vary, you muſt expect to be nonſuited: and the party is not bound to alledge a particular place of demand.

If a bill be proteſted for want of payment, the drawer is to repay the money and damage, or elſe he may procure a ſecurity, which is no more but another perſon of value ſubſcribes the bill, in theſe or the like words, 'I here underwritten do bind myſelf as principal, according to the cuſtom of merchants, for the ſum mentioned in the bill of exchange whereupon this proteſt is made, dated,' &c.

Now the drawer, by virtue of this ſupplemental agreement, hath as much time again to pay monies as there was given him in the bill when it was firſt drawn; ſo that if the money be not paid, together with the rechange and charges of the party, the party may recover the ſame on the principal or ſecurity.

Beyond the ſeas the proteſt (that is to ſay, for non-payment, the bill being once accepted) under the notary's hand, is ſufficient to ſhew in court, without producing the very bill itſelf. But if a bill in England be accepted, and a ſpecial action grounded on the cuſtom be brought againſt the accepter, at the trial the party plaintiff muſt produce the bill accepted, and not the proteſt, otherwiſe he will fail in his action at that time.

Therefore it is ſafe that a bill once accepted be kept, and only a proteſt for non-payment be remitted; but a bill proteſted for non-acceptance muſt be remitted.

If a bill is left with a merchant to accept, and he loſes the bill (or at leaſt it is ſo miſlaid, that it cannot be found) the party ſhall requeſt the merchant to give him a note for the payment according to the time limited in the bill of exchange; otherwiſe there muſt be two proteſts, one for non-acceptance, the other for non-payment: but if a note is given for payment, and there happens to be a failure, yet in that caſe there muſt be proteſt for non-payment.

No perſon, be it wife or ſervant, can accept of a bill of exchange to bind the maſter without a lawful authority, as a letter of attorney, and the like, which muſt be under hand, unleſs that it has been formerly and uſually done by the wife or ſervant in ſuch caſe, when the maſter hath been out of town, who hath approved of the ſame and anſwered payment: it muſt be uſually done; but one partner may for another.

If a bill of exchange by contrary winds or other occaſions be ſo long on the way, that the uſance or time limited by the bill be expired, and, being tendered, both acceptance and payment are denied; proteſts for both muſt be made, and the drawer muſt anſwer the value, rechange, and damage.

A bill, once accepted, cannot be revoked by the party that accepted it, though, immediately after and before the bill becomes due, he hath advice the drawer is broke.

If a bill is not accepted to be paid at the exact time, it muſt be proteſted; but, if accepted for a longer time, the party to whom the bill is made payable, muſt proteſt the ſame for want of acceptance according to the tenor; yet he may take the acceptance offered notwithſtanding. Nor can the party, if he once ſubſcribes the bill for a longer time, revoke the ſame, or blot out his name, although it is not according to the tenor of the bill; for if by his acceptance he hath made himſelf debtor, and owns the draught made by his friend upon him, whoſe right another man cannot give away, and therefore cannot refuſe or diſcharge the acceptance.

Note, This caſe will admit of two proteſts, perhaps three.

1. One proteſt muſt be made for not accepting according to the time.

2. For that the money, being demanded according to the time mentioned in the bill, was not paid.

3. If the money is not paid according to that time that the accepter ſubſcribed or accepted.

A bill was drawn payable the firſt of January, the perſon upon whom the bill was drawn accepts the bill to be paid the firſt of March; the ſervant brings back the bill: the maſter, perceiving this enlarged acceptance, ſtrikes out the firſt of March, and puts in the firſt of January, and then ſends the bill to be paid; the accepter then refuſes payment: whereupon the perſon to whom the monies were to be paid, ſtrikes out the firſt of January, and puts in the firſt of March again: in an action brought on this bill, the queſtion was, whether theſe alterations did not deſtroy the bill? And ruled it did not.

A draws a bill on B, and B is in the country; C a friend of his hearing of the bill accepts it: the party to whom the money is to be paid, muſt make a proteſt for non-acceptance by B, and then he may take the acceptance of C, and it ſhall bind C to anſwer the money.

Where a merchant hath accepted, and, before the ſame became due, he becomes inſolvent, or at leaſt his credit publickly blaſted, a proteſt ought to go; but then there is uſually a demand made, which once coming, the drawer is compellable to give better ſecurity; and if a ſecond bill comes, if no proteſt, then drawer and ſecurity lie at ſtake.

If a bill be accepted, and the party dies, yet there muſt be a demand made of the executors or adminiſtrators; and, in default or delay of payment, a proteſt muſt be made: and although it may fall out, that the monies may become due before there can be adminiſtrators, or the probate of the will be granted; yet that is delay ſufficient for a proteſt in caſe of non-payment.

N. B. Fourteen days are allowed from the death before adminiſtration can be committed, unleſs there be a will.

But on the other hand, if the party be dead to whom the monies are made payable, and the monies are ready to be paid, and there is no perſon that can legally give a diſcharge, yet a proteſt ought not to go for non-payment; the reaſon is, becauſe there is no perſon that hath any authority either in deed or in law to make it, and a notary ought not to make it; if he does, and the party receives any prejudice thereby, an action of the caſe perhaps may lie againſt him for his pains: nor does it avail, that if ſecurity be offered to ſave him harmleſs againſt the executors or adminiſtrators, for that is an act left to his own diſcretion; for perhaps the ſecurity may not be liked: but whether good or bad, makes nothing as to oblige him in law.

N. B. An intimation ought to go, and that the accepter is willing to pay according to order. For further matter on this head, ſee BILLS of EXCHANGE, DRAWER, REMITTER, INDORSER, PROTEST, NOTARY PUBLIC.

ACCEPTER, the perſon who accepts a bill of exchange by ſigning it, and obliges himſelf to pay the contents, when it becomes due. As long as the accepter has his ſignature in his own power, that is, as long as he has not returned the bill with his name to it, he may ſtrike out his acceptance: but, when he has once delivered it, it is no longer in his power ſo to do, though it ſhould come again into his hands. In a word, there is no retracting an acceptance once delivered: the accepter muſt pay the bill. Some uſe the word acceptant, which is the uſual French term: though they alſo uſe the term accepteur.

It is the cuſtom at Amſterdam, that all who accept bills of exchange make themſelves debtors for them, by virtue of their acceptance; and though the drawers ſhould become inſolvent before the term for the payment elapſes, the accepters can have no recourſe againſt the endorſers of the bills. Ordinances of Amſterdam, quoted by Mr. Ricard, in his Traité General du Commerce, under the title Acceptances.

ACCOMMODATION, is uſed both in matters of trade and of law, to ſignify a friendly agreement or compoſition between

between perſons at variance, and is frequently brought about by the mediation of common friends, or by a partition of the things in diſpute.

ACCOUNT, or ACCOMPT, ſignifies in general all computations made arithmetically, whether by the addition of ſeveral ſums, or by ſubtraction, multiplication, or diviſion.

We account time by years, months, *&c.* diſtances by leagues, miles, poles, perches, *&c.* weights by tuns, hundreds, quarters, pounds, ounces, drams, *&c.* long meaſure by rods, ells, yards, *&c.* liquid meaſures by tons, hogſheads, pipes, barrels, gallons, quarts, *&c.* dry meaſure by quarters, buſhels, pecks, *&c.* money by pounds, ſhillings, *&c.*

Money of account is an imaginary ſpecies, continued in ſeveral ſtates, to facilitate the keeping of accounts, as nobles, angels, marks, were in England, mill-rees in Portugal, *&c.*

REMARKS relative to practical trade.

ACCOUNT is alſo uſed collectively for the ſeveral books which merchants, traders, and bankers keep, and in which they enter all their buſineſs, traffic, and bargains with each other. Hence they ſay, To make out an account, to paſs accounts, *&c.* All merchants in France, are obliged to keep books of their accounts, and all bankrupts to deliver up theirs. See the articles BOOKS of ACCOUNTS, BOOK-KEEPING, *&c.*

Theſe books are kept in the manner of debtor and creditor; that is to ſay, the debit, which is the receipt of the account, is wrote on the left ſide, or page; and the credit, which is the expence, on the right ſide, or page. The debit ſide is diſtinguiſhed by the word Dr. (debtor) which is placed at the beginning of the page after the name of the debtor; and the credit ſide by the letters Cr. for creditor, which is placed oppoſite to the other. The French, inſtead of the words debtor and creditor, uſe the words doit (owes) and avoir (to have).

There are three kinds of accounts abſolutely neceſſary for cloſing books of double entries; namely, the accounts of ſtock, of profit and loſs, and of balance.

The account of ſtock is the particular account opened on the debtor and creditor ſide of the ledger. It contains all the effects of a merchant; that is to ſay, his ready money, merchandizes, bills, promiſſory notes, bonds, contracts, accounts ſettled, real and perſonal eſtate, and all in general, that is his own, free and clear of all debts and mortgages.

This kind of account is ſometimes cloſed on the debit, and ſometimes on the credit ſide of the account of profit and loſs. On the debit ſide, when the loſs exceeds the profit; and on the credit ſide, when the profit exceeds the loſs.

The account of profit and loſs is opened upon the ledger. It conſiſts of all the loſſes and gains made, by a merchant in his trade: the loſſes are written on the debtor, and the profit on the creditor ſide of the book.

This account is generally balanced annually, or when the books are to be cloſed, in order to the opening of new ones; or when the merchant intends entirely to leave off trade.

To balance the account of profit and loſs, ſeparate additions muſt be made of the debtor and creditor ſides, and the leſſer total ſubtracted from the greater, of which the remainder, if the profit exceeds the loſs, is carried to the credit of the account of ſtock, and to the debit, if the loſs exceeds the profit.

The account of balance is opened in the ledger, only for the cloſing of the books. When the books are to be finally cloſed, it is called the account of the final balance; but, when new books are to be opened, it has the name of balance of entry, or balance carried over.

In the final balance account all that is due to ſtock is carried to the debit, and all that is owing from it to credit; and in the account of balance carried over, or of entry, all on the credit of final balance is placed to the debtor, and all on the debit to the creditor; the ending or continuing trade making ſuch reverſed entries neceſſary.

The merchants and traders who keep their books by double entries, have one in particular, which they call the book of accounts current, wherein they enter copies of all the accounts which they make out, and ſend to their correſpondents, in order to have recourſe to it occaſionally. This book, which is of the number of thoſe commonly denominated auxiliaries, is ruled and kept in the ſame manner as the ledger. See BOOKS, *&c.*

Mr. Savary, in his Parfait Negociant, liv. 3. chap. 2. of the ſecond part, lays down excellent rules for apprentices, factors, or agents of merchants, or wholſale dealers in France, with reſpect to the manner of ſettling accounts with retailers, the ſubſtance of which is as follows, *viz.*

"I. The clerks, factors, or agents of wholeſale dealers ought to go to the houſes of the retailers, to whom the merchandizes have been ſold, to ſettle the account or bill with them as ſoon as poſſible, in order to avoid the difficulties which commonly ariſe, either with regard to the price or the meaſure of goods; for, if that be delayed too long, the memory eaſily fails.

"II. In ſettling accounts, they ought to be very careful of what they are about; that is, they ought not to admit tares upon pieces of goods, before they have meaſured them

themſelves, in order to ſee whether they be right, and not to allow any out of complaiſance, becauſe that is againſt their maſter's intereſt.

"III. To ſettle an account regularly, they ought to make an extract from the journal or day-book, containing the numbers, the meaſures, and the prices, for which the goods were ſold.

"IV. Finally, in order to have the bill well drawn up, they muſt compare the extract they carry, with that which was delivered together with the merchandize, to ſee whether they agree; and upon each article they ſhould ſet down the tare, if there be any, and the ſum to which it amounts: and, on their return to the warehouſe, they ought to enter it exactly in the book itſelf, that there may be an agreement between their maſter's book, and that of the retailer with whom they have ſettled the account. This exactneſs keeps up the good underſtanding that ſhould ſubſiſt between the merchant or wholeſale dealer, and the retailer."

To open an ACCOUNT, is to enter it for the firſt time into the ledger. This is done by writing in large characters the chriſtian name, ſurname, and place of abode of the perſon with whom an account is thus opened: afterwards the articles are poſted to it, either on the debit or credit ſide, as affairs occur.

When an account is opened in the ledger for any one, his name muſt be entered at the ſame time in the alphabet, and the folio of the book ſet down, where the account is entered, for the more eaſily referring to it.

Merchants, who keep open accounts with each other, ſometimes agree to honour the bills of exchange, which they draw reciprocally.

To poſt a ſum to ACCOUNT, is to enter into the ledger, either on the debit or credit ſide, the articles for which perſons become either debtors or creditors.

Counterpart of an ACCOUNT, is in the bank ſtile of *France*, and in that of the clerks in the offices of the king's farms, the regiſter kept by the controller, wherein he enters and poſts all the articles which the book-keeper, if for the bank, or the receiver, if for the king's farms, charges his book with. See BANK-ROYAL.

Order of an ACCOUNT, is it's diviſion into three heads, of receipt, expence, and defalcation; that is, the deduction of ſuch ſums as are taken into the account, and not received or admitted. The French call it repriſe.

To examine an ACCOUNT, is to read it exactly, to point the articles of it, and prove the computation, in order to know whether there be no errors, and whether the balance be right. I have examined your account, it is right, there is nothing to except againſt it.

To ſettle an ACCOUNT, is to caſt it up, by calculating every article of it, and balancing the ſame. In the like ſenſe are uſed the words to ſhut, to balance, to cloſe, to make up an account. Accounts are balanced upon the ledger on two occaſions; the one, when traders ſettle or adjuſt affairs with ſome debtor or creditor, in order to know what they owe, or what is due to them: the other, when it is neceſſary to carry over accounts to ſome new folios in the ſame book, or into another, in order to continue them, for want of room in the former.

Prudent merchants ought to ſettle their accounts at the end of every year, in order to open new ones in the beginning of the next.

To place to ACCOUNT (paſſer en compte) is to give one credit for a ſum received, either of him or for him. It ſignifies alſo to make him debtor for a ſum paid to him, or for him. Thus, in a bill of exchange, the drawer puts ſometimes theſe words after the ſum, Which you'll place to my account, or, To the account of, *&c.*

To purge an ACCOUNT, as the French ſay, is to cauſe all the diſputed articles to be adjudged by a referee, and the objections to be obviated.

Ballance of an ACCOUNT, is the ſum in which the debt exceeds the credit, or the credit the debt, when the account is duly examined and ſettled, and the ballance taken. I owe you 300*l.* for the ballance of our account. There is ſo much due to me for the ballance of our account.

ACCOUNT in Bank, is a fund which merchants, traders, bankers, and other private perſons, if they think fit, depoſit into the common caſh of ſome bank, to be employed in the payment of bills of exchange, promiſſary notes, bonds, debts contracted, either in trade or otherwiſe, as by buying eſtates in land, *&c.*

The French, in their mercantile writings, commonly uſe certain characters, or initial letters, to ſignify in brief, the different kinds of accounts kept by merchants and traders; C. ſignifies compte (account) C. O. open account (compte ouvert) C. C. compte courant (account current) M. C. (mon compte (my account) S. C. ſon compte (his account) L. C. leur compte (their account) N.C. notre compte (our account).

A man is ſaid to teach the keeping of books of accounts, when he teaches the manner of keeping them in a proper order, either by ſingle or double entry.

Merchants and traders, in France, are obliged to deliver in their books of accounts, in good form, when legally required.

A C C

To affirm an ACCOUNT, is to declare and make oath that it is true. The accountable when they deliver in their accounts, in order to their being examined, uſually write in the margin of the firſt page, 'Preſented ſuch a day, and affirmed true.'

To diſpute an ACCOUNT, is to make remarks or objections upon the ſeveral articles of an account, either for augmenting the receipt, or diminiſhing the expence therein contained.

To note an ACCOUNT, is to make, in the margin of each article, certain remarks, ſhewing either that there is no exception to be made, and that they are to paſs as ſet down, or reaſons for diſputing them, and ſhewing under what conditions they are to paſs. The remarks which the perſon who audits an account, ſets on the ſide of each article by way of approbation, or otherwiſe, are called the notes (apoſtrilles) of an account.

ACCOUNT in Company, is a ſpecies of account between two merchants, or traders, in conſequence of a kind of aſſociation, or partnerſhip between them.

ACCOUNT is alſo a relative term, uſed with regard to a partnerſhip, when two or more perſons make receipts or diſburſements on account of each other. In this ſenſe a man is ſaid to keep a good account, to ſignify that he is juſt in his dealings, and does not defraud his partners or maſters.

ACCOUNT alſo ſignifies gain, profit, advantage, and, in French, the word compte is alſo taken for a good bargain. The moſt common expreſſions in which this term is uſed, as to trade and merchandize, are the following: the merchants have perfectly found their account, in the effects they have bought this year of the French Eaſt-India company, at the ſale of Nantz. Some manufacturers work at a better account (that is, cheaper) than others. People find their account in buying goods at the firſt hand, where they are made; and, finally, a merchant is ſaid to have made his ſmall account (in French, ſon petit compte) when he has acquired a competent fortune in the trade wherein he was concerned.

ACCOUNT is alſo uſed to ſignify voluntary diſburſements and charges, which are to be at the expender's loſs, and cannot be paſſed in account. They ſay, if he expends beyond his orders, it will be on his own account. If he commits errors in his calculations; if he ſuffers himſelf to be robbed, it ſhall be on his own account; that is to ſay, it will not be allowed in his accounts; it will be entirely to his own loſs.

The French ſay, to receive à bon compte, or à compte, that is, on account, to ſignify, to receive a ſum on condition of deducting it from what is due. To pay à bon compte, is to pay on account, on condition alſo of deducting it from the debt.

ACCOUNT (compte) as alſo uſed in various mercantile and proverbial phraſes, but with different ſignifications. The French ſay, He has his account (il en a pour ſon compte) that is, he is cheated, made a bubble, he is catched, or taken in. He takes it to his account (il le prend ſur ſon compte) to ſignify, that a man charges himſelf with a thing, and anſwers for it. Good accounts make good friends; which implies, that people cannot continue friends, without mutually keeping their engagements, and obſerving the rules of juſtice and equity. They ſay alſo, à tout bon compte revenir, good acounts will ſuffer a reviſal; to intimate, that thoſe need not fear coming to a ſecond account, when there has been no deceit in the firſt, though there may have been ſome involuntary miſtake or overſight in it.

The French uſe the word compte (account) in ſeveral other ſignifications, which it would be ſuperfluous to repeat here.

ACCOUNT-Paper, is a ſort of fine large paper, ſo called at the paper mills in France, and by the ſtationers and others who trade in paper, becauſe accounts are commonly wrote upon it. It is like our poſt-paper in England, on which merchants generally write their commercial letters, and draw out their various accounts.

ACCOUNT of Sales, is an account given by one merchant to another, or by one factor to his principal of the diſpoſal, charges, commiſſion, and net proceeds of certain merchandizes ſent for the proper, or company account of him, who conſigned the ſame to ſuch factor or vender.

When the like account is inland or domeſtic, the ſame is tranſmitted in the current money of that country, wherein the buſineſs is tranſacted. As from a Blackwell-hall factor to the clothiers in the country, or from the warehouſemen in town, who deal by commiſſion for the country manufacturers, as bay-factors, drugget and duroy-factors, and the like.

EXAMPLE.

The following is the natural form of a Blackwell-hall factor's account of ſales to a clothier.

C | D | Account of Sales, charges and net proceeds [or produce]
1 a 20 | | of 20 pieces of ſuperfine cloths, received per A B's waggon of ——, conſigned to me by C D of Wiltſhire, for his account, marked and numbered as per margin.

Jan. 5th, 1750. Sold to E F draper, 6 ps. ſuperfines, per A B. qt — yards at —— per yard, to pay in 6 months — — £

Jan. 12, 1750. Sold to G H, 14 ps. ditto qt. — yards at —— per yard, to pay in 6 months — — — — £

CHARGES.

Paid carriage to London £
Porterage and warehouſe room £
Poſtage of letters £
Commiſſion a — per cloth £

Deduct charges £ from the ſales.

The net proceed is paſt to the credit of your account, without my prejudice.

London, Feb. 10, 1750. E. E. N. O.

REMARKS.

1. . . It muſt be obſerved that, in this domeſtic or inland account of ſales, the manufacturer is ſuppoſed to run all the hazard in the ſales, and that the factor has only his common commiſſion of ſo much per cloth for the ſale thereof. This is plain from the words, 'without my prejudice'; the meaning of which is, that, if the buyer ſhould fail, the clothier muſt ſtand to the loſs.

2. . . But ſome manufacturers, perhaps the generality, rather chuſe that their factors ſhould run the hazard of bad debts, their reſidence in town giving them opportunity of knowing the characters of buyers, and inducing them to be the more cautious whom they truſt. In which caſe, the factor is allowed an extra-commiſſion for ſtanding the middle-man; which is reaſonable.

3. . . If the manufacturer chuſes to run the hazard himſelf, then he cannot expect his money before it becomes due from the buyer. But if it ſhould ſo happen, that he ſtands in need of ſome part of his money before that, as is commonly the caſe, the factor permits him to draw for ſuch a proportion thereof as they ſhall agree upon, the manufacturer allowing the factor the common proviſion for thus advancing the money before it becomes due.

Yet, under theſe circumſtances, the factor has the ſecurity of the manufacturer, as well as the buyer, ſince he did not allow the factor an extra-commiſſion to induce him to remain anſwerable for bad debts.

4. . . As the generality of manufacturers cannot afford to be ſo long out of their money, as the uſual time of giving credit requires, it is the more ordinary practice for the factor to ſtand to bad debts, on conſideration of having greater commiſſion allowed him on the ſales, and to have proviſion alſo for what money he advances before the time of payment.

Mr. Locke ſays, 'that the multiplying of brokers is prejudi-
'cial to the trade of any country; that they eat up too great
'a ſhare of the gains of trade, and therefore, he obſerves,
'it would be convenient to hinder, as much as is poſſible,
'any one from ſelling any of our native commodities, but he
'that makes them; ſhopkeepers in this being worſe than
'gameſters; for they do not only keep ſo much of the mo-
'ney of a country conſtantly in their hands, but alſo make
'the public pay them for their keeping of it.'

Theſe are ſevere reflections upon ſhopkeepers, factors, and brokers, and indeed very unjuſtly grounded. For, if the clothier was to attempt to act both in the capacity of a factor and a woollen-draper, who muſt attend his manufacture in the country? While his attention was fixed in town upon the ſales, might not the commodity dwindle and degenerate in quality; and thus the clothier, by over-acting his part in one ſhape, under-act it in another? Was this maxim in general to take effect, it might prove the ruin of all our manufactures, by gradually debaſing them.

Beſides, for a clothier to take this upon him, not only requires three times the capital, but ſuch an expence by town reſidence, as, I am afraid, would prove of little benefit to him in the long-run; eſpecially, as the nature of credit is at preſent circumſtanced.

'Tis true, theſe middle-men between the manufacturer and conſumer may be ſaid to be inſtrumental to enhance the price of our manufactures among ourſelves; and this was Mr. Locke's motive for bearing ſo hard upon them. But 'tis much to be doubted, whether the public could have their manufactures cheaper at home, was the clothier to take upon him to act in a treble capacity, he being obliged to raiſe the price of his commodity, in proportion to the extraordinary expence he is at.

Manufacturers, who have thought themſelves injured by their factors, which doubtleſs is ſometimes the caſe, have attempted this, but few have found their account in it. Some have carried their view ſo far, as even to turn merchant-exporters, but to their abſolute ruin to my certain knowledge; for the ſkill of a manufacturer and that of a merchant are very diſtinct, the knowledge of a Solomon, in the one reſpect, making him but an idiot in the other.

Theſe obſervations are not made to diſcourage, but to caution the ingenious and enterprizing manufacturer to be upon his guard, and neither to undertake too much either at home or abroad.

Not-

Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid, 'tis very deſirable that our Britiſh manufactures may go as cheap to foreign markets, as thoſe of our rival nations, which are not ſuperior in point of quality. Upon this principle Mr. Locke reaſoned; and 'tis upon this principle that merchants of the moſt money and ſkill purchaſe commodities at firſt hand of the manufacturer, pay him ready caſh, and ſend their goods abroad, with every advantage.

And theſe exportures of our manufactures, who are not in circumſtances to ſend them abroad at firſt hand, are an injury, rather than a benefit to the national trade; they injudiciouſly glutting the markets abroad, which ſinks the price too often below what they can afford to ſell at; and yet they are importunate for remittances, and thereby force their factors to ſell almoſt at any rate. Such merchants not only hurt the trade of a kingdom, but are ſure to hurt themſelves, and all who have connexions in trade with them.

A real Mercantile Example.

Account of Sales, and net proceeds of 2 bales of druggets, received per the Hollandia, Capt. Jan. Roeloff Smith, for the account of M. P. of London.

Nov. 4. 1740. Conſigned the above 2 bales of druggets qt. 112 pieces qt. 4875 yards as per factory [i. e. invoice, which is frequently ſtiled ſo] which a 3 ¾ palms per yard are palms 18280 net, a ſols 9 s. 4 d. per palm, to pay in two months — 1 — — — —			8530 13 4
Sold and conſigned 2 pieces of white druggets for wrappers as above, for — —			140 00 0
			8670 13 4
CHARGES, viz.			
Freight and primage — —	106	5 0	
Porters landing and carrying to wareh.	6	0 0	
Opening to viſit, aſſorting and making up — — — —	4	0 0	
Warehouſe room — —	8	0 0	
Brokerage 2 ½ per cent. — —	43	7 0	
To commiſſion and ſtanding to bad debts a 4 per cent. — —	346	16 4	
			514 8 4
			8156 5 0
Aggio deducted a 118 ⅔ per cent.			1283 0 2
Genoa, 30th Nov. 1740. E. E. * Bco.			6873 4 10

* E. E. Signifies Errors excepted in the account rendered, and Bco. ſignifies the Bank money of Genoa.

Remarks.

1. Foreign accounts of ſales of merchandizes, are or ought to be, governed in ſome meaſure by the invoice, ſent therewith from the principal. See Invoice.

2. Merchants, being inured to hazard from their firſt ſetting out in life, ſend their property to foreign countries with as much alacrity, on the good faith and honour of their correſpondents, as a monied man lends his property at home on land ſecurity.

Credit therefore, is the great foundation of commerce between nation and nation, as well as between one man and another in the ſame nation. Whence it follows, that the firſt principle the trader ſhould tenaciouſly cultivate, is the ſupport of his perſonal credit.

3. It too often falls out, that thoſe who take up their reſidence at foreign factories, no ſooner get a houſe eſtabliſhed there, than they uſe every art to draw people in, to ſend them large conſignments of merchandizes by commiſſion. To which end, they at firſt make remittances to their principals in a reaſonable time, and give them an handſome profit upon their goods, in order to induce them to increaſe their conſignments.

4. When they have thus drawn people in to entruſt a large fortune in their hands abroad, it is then that they too often begin to uſe every diſhonourable art, to keep them out of their money.

If you preſs for remittances, you are given to underſtand, that nothing can procure them but freſh conſignments, which have proved the ruin of many; and, if you draw upon them for your property, your credit may ſuffer by that means at home.

5. On theſe conſiderations, our moſt opulent and experienced merchants have eſtabliſhed houſes of their own at many of the Britiſh factories in foreign countries; wherein they breed up a ſucceſſion of perſons, whom they gradually take into partnerſhip, which makes it for their intereſt to be punctual and faithful.

6. Such capital houſes ſeldom take commiſſion from any, but the perſons who are the principals belonging to thoſe houſes: and ſuch are generally capable to ſupply them, with whatever

goods they are able to vend, and thoſe too with that variety of aſſortments, which engage the natives to give the preference to theſe houſes, in their general dealings.

7. Other houſes, which take commiſſions in the general, and never give any in return, too often uſe no little craft in the making out their foreign accounts of ſales, by couching great impoſitions under many of their articles of charges, which they have never paid.

8. Nor is this the only practice which ought to be guarded againſt. Goods perhaps may be ſold at three or four months credit, or for ready money, and yet the principal kept out of his property for years, by falſe and frivolous pretences.

Theſe arts are mentioned, with a view only to guard the young and unexperienced from being too eaſily enſnared; and we hope they will have the good effect thereby intended.

ACCOUNTANT, or ACCOMPTANT, one who is not only well ſkilled in caſting up all ſorts of accounts, and readily performs all arithmetical operations, but who is verſed in the art of book-keeping, by charge and diſcharge, or by debtor and creditor.

This appellation is applicable to a perſon, or officer, appointed to keep the accounts of a public company, or office; as the accountant of the South-Sea, or India company, or of the Bank, the Cuſtom-houſe, or Exciſe, &c.

ACCOUNTANTSHIP, comprehends not only a ſkill in figures or arithmetic, but a knowledge in the art of account-keeping by debtor and creditor, or by the method of regular charge and diſcharge, according to the nature of the tranſactions; which method keeps every diſtinct account, if they are ever ſo numerous, always fit for a ballance: and that ballance is found by ſubtracting the ſum total on the debit ſide from the ſum total on the credit ſide, or the ſum total of the latter from that of the former.

To be fundamentally grounded in arithmetical operations requires a competent acquaintance with geometry and algebra, becauſe the geometric and algebraic way of reaſoning diſcovers certain rules and theorems, whereby to calculate numerically in the moſt conciſe manner: and to be properly grounded in the nature of debtor and creditor requires a knowledge in the art of keeping accounts, according to the method of double entry, or what is commonly diſtinguiſhed by the Italian method of Book-keeping, or by the name of Merchant's Accounts.

From hence it may be obſerved, that no perſon can be properly ſaid to be duly ſkilled in accountantſhip, without being ſkilled in the art of debtor and creditor, as well as in that of numbers: nor, on the other hand, does any one deſerve the name of an accountant, who is only acquainted with book-keeping, and not with figures.

The art of accountantſhip is not only applicable to the regular adjuſtment of the variety of tranſactions among traders of every denomination, but alſo to the private affairs of gentlemen and noblemen. And as it well becomes all perſons of the greateſt diſtinction to take due care of their eſtates; ſo nothing, perhaps, can have a happier tendency to that end, than a knowledge in the art of debtor and creditor, as well as that of numbers. For 'merchants accounts, ſays Mr. 'Locke, though a ſcience not likely to help a gentleman to 'get an eſtate, yet poſſibly there is not any thing of more 'uſe and efficacy to make him preſerve the eſtate he has. 'Tis ſeldom obſerved, that he who keeps an account of his 'income and expence, and thereby has conſtantly under view 'the courſe of his domeſtic affairs, lets them run to ruin. 'And I doubt not but many a man gets behind-hand before 'he is aware, or runs farther on, when he is once in, for 'want of this care, or the ſkill to do it. I would therefore 'adviſe all gentlemen to learn perfectly merchants accounts, 'and not to think it a ſkill that belongs not to them, becauſe 'it has received its name, and has been chiefly practiſed by 'men of traffic.'

Nor is accountantſhip leſs uſeful to the gentlemen of the law, than to private gentlemen; and not only to thoſe who are intended for the bar, but to all ſollicitors and attornies; litigations between traders making ſo conſiderable a proportion of the buſineſs of our courts of law and equity. Without the perfect knowledge of debtor and creditor in particular, accounts may be ſo craftily and ſophiſtically ſtated, as to deceive the moſt upright judge and jury, as well as the council, if they are not capable of unravelling them in the courſe of their pleadings.

Perſons of diſtinction alſo, who are concerned in the chief poſts of the public revenue, or who act in the ſenatorial capacity, cannot be too well ſkilled in accountantſhip. The one will thereby be enabled to acquit himſelf with credit and reputation, in whatever branch of the revenue he ſhall be employed; and the other will become perfectly acquainted with the finances and money affairs of the kingdom. For ſuch is the nature and excellency of the mercantile art of debtor and creditor by double entry, that it is as eaſily applicable to the accounts of nations as to thoſe of traders, or private gentlemen, millions being as familiarly adjuſted thereby, as hundreds of pounds. When once a perſon is acquainted with the ſeveral funds from whence the national revenue ariſes, as likewiſe their appropriations to the payment

of intereſt of certain national creditors; when it is duly obſerved in what manner the deficiencies of ſome funds are occaſionally ſupplied, and the ſurpluſages of others tranſferred: when the general heads of ſuch accounts are underſtood from the ſtatutes, and the accounts annually laid before the parliament are duly attended to, any gentleman, well grounded in the art of debtor and creditor, may obtain as complete a knowledge of the money affairs of the nation, as of his own private concerns: that is, when he is a maſter of the facts relating thereunto, and the diſtinct heads under which the funds are kept, he will be capable ſo to ſtate theſe accounts by way of charge and diſcharge, or debit and credit, as always to have a ſatisfactory view before him of the ſtate of the national debts and funds, and of the ſeveral variations they ſhall from time to time undergo. See MERCHANTS ACCOUNTS, or the nature of debtor and creditor, according to the method of double entry.

ACCOUNTING-HOUSE, COUNTING-HOUSE, or COMPTING-HOUSE, is a place ſet apart by merchants, and other traders, wherein to tranſact their buſineſs, and to keep their books of accounts and vouchers relating thereunto.

REMARKS:

It is the cuſtom of the Dutch merchants in Holland to keep a kind of Public Counting-houſes, for the reception of a number of gentlemen's ſons of fortune, more particularly of the Engliſh, Scots, and Iriſh, who pay them at the rate of one hundred pounds ſterling per ann. and continue with them upon that footing from year to year, as long as they pleaſe. It is common to ſee ten, or a dozen, or more of theſe young people in a Dutch counting-houſe; ſome being weak enough to imagine, that a foreign country is the beſt place to be bred in, in order to underſtand the Britiſh commerce, and that there are no merchants who reſide in England, are able to qualify their ſons ſo well as foreigners who reſide abroad.

An humble attempt, however, was lately made to introduce ſomething of the like kind of practice, of keeping a Public Counting-houſe in our own country; and accordingly, a treatiſe was publiſhed for that intent, entitled 'The Merchant's Public Counting-houſe, or the New Mercantile Inſtitution:' wherein is ſhewn the neceſſity of young merchants being bred to trade with greater advantages than they uſually are: with a practicable plan for that purpoſe.

In this plan are digeſted, in miniature, the various qualifications, which have been judged neceſſary to form the accompliſhed Britiſh merchant. And, however low an idea ſome may entertain of the abilities of ſuch a trader, it is preſumed that, upon the peruſal of the before-mentioned tract, they will be of a different opinion. Perſons of candor and impartiality, it is imagined, will therein ſee, that it is not thruſting a young ſpark into any counting-houſe, either at home, or abroad, that is likely to qualify him to ſave, much leſs to improve, an handſome fortune by merchandiſing. Thoſe who are deſirous of peruſing this tract, may meet with it at Mr. Horsfield's, bookſeller in Ludgate-ſtreet, by aſking for Poſtlethwayt's Merchant's Public Counting-houſe, or New Mercantile Inſtitution, &c.

ACHAIA, now Livadia, a province of Turkey in Europe, is bounded on the north by Epirus, by Theſſaly, from which it is divided by mount Oeta, now Banina, and by the Euripus, now the ſtraight of Negropont; on the eaſt by the Archipelago; on the ſouth it has the gulph of Engia, or Egina, the iſthmus of Corinth, and the gulph of Lepanto; and, on the weſt, the Ionian ſea, and part of Epirus. Achaia is at preſent divided into three parts: namely, 1. Livadia, properly ſo called. 2. Stramulipa, or Stramnzupa. 3. The dutchy of Athens.

A little way out of Thebes there is a hill, where they dig a kind of ſtone, of which they make bowls for tobacco-pipes. The ſtone, when it is firſt dug out of a deep pit, is of the colour of new cheeſe, and almoſt as ſoft, being in lumps commonly as big as a man's two fiſts. This they bring to the town. and carve very curiouſly into bowls of pipes; and as ſoon as it is dry, it grows very hard, as white as ſnow, and ſhining. The natural dexterity of the people of Athens, in all the little matters they undertake, ſhews itſelf extraordinary, as in buying, ſelling, and in all their domeſtic affairs; and it is obſerved by Mr. Wheler, that ſo much of their ancient ſpirit remains, that few towns in Turky have preſerved themſelves ſo well as this, or enjoy greater privileges, under the tyranny of the Turks. Some other cities, indeed, ſeem, by trading, more rich: but is it not a wonder, that Athens, though ſhe has had but an equal ſhare in the ill fortune of all thoſe noble cities of the Eaſt under the dominion of the Turks, ſhould be inferior to many of them in trade, when ſhe wants neither good harbours, nor good merchandizes for general commerce? The revenue of the city is raiſed upon the cuſtoms, caratchs, or poll-money, weights of the town, avenies, or amercements, tenths, and vellanies; theſe latter are the cups of acorns, with which they tan their leather. They alſo who carry merchandizes to any fair muſt pay a certain duty to the Veivode, who receives the whole revenues, and pays to the Kiſlar Aga, or chief of the black Eunuchs, 30,000 crowns a year for his place, which yet brings him in 5000 crowns more, all charges and expences defrayed. Livadia is large and populous, and is inhabited by many rich Turks, who are more numerous here than the Chriſtians, and there are but few Jews. The trade conſiſts in ſome woollen ſtuffs, made here, and in rice, which they ſell ready huſked, and prepared by water-mills, and therewith they furniſh all the adjacent country.

The inhabitants of Megara, which are all Chriſtians, get their living by tilling the ground, for which they have half the crop; the reſt goes to the Turks, as their landlords under the Grand Seignior. They alſo make pitch, and ſaw boards and planks, out of the pines and firs, which grow in great abundance on the mountains about them.

The trade of Salona conſiſts in ſome cotton, but chiefly in tobacco; of which 15 okas are worth but one dollar: an oka weighs about 42 ounces.

The little trade they have at Delphos, now Caſtri, conſiſts in cotton and tobacco; their wine is exceeding good.

The trade of Lepanto conſiſts in leather, oil, tobacco, rice, barley, and wheat: furs are alſo pretty cheap here. On each ſide of the city, under a mountain, are fruitful vallies, which ſtretch out towards the ſea. That to the weſtward is well planted with olives, vineyards, and corn; and that to the eaſtward is equally well planted, and divided into gardens of oranges, citrons, and lemons. The wine here is the beſt in Greece.

All ſhips that paſs out of the gulph of Patras pay 3 per cent. cuſtom to the Emir, who pays about 6000 crowns rent per ann. for his office.

ACHIA, a kind of cane that grows in the Eaſt Indies, which is pickled green in the country, with ſtrong vinegar, pepper, and ſome other ſpice and ingredients. This pickle comes to Europe in a ſort of earthen jars, about a foot high, and the ſame in breadth, growing narrower at the mouth. The bits of cane are an inch and a half in diameter, and a little above two inches long, almoſt of the ſame conſiſtency with pickled cucumbers, being no leſs criſp, and cutting as well. They are of a pale yellow colour; and, inſtead of pulps, their inſide is a cloſe, fibrous ſubſtance, like that of the common canes, when the outſide coat is off. The Dutch bring home great quantities of this pickle, which their cold climate makes them think wholſome. They generally eat it towards the end of their meals, judging it very good to quicken the appetite, and ſtrengthen the ſtomach, becauſe of the ſtrong vinegar, lemon, pepper, and other ſpices, of which the pickle is made up, and in which the achia muſt always lie, in order to keep it, give it a ſharp taſte, and make it very hot and fiery.

This fruit is alſo called achiar. It is a green, which is preſerved in vinegar. It is extremely eſteemed throughout all the Eaſt-Indies, and they drive a prodigious great trade in it. The beſt comes from Perſia, and is preſerved in bottles, almoſt after the ſame manner as thoſe ſmall cucumbers are in France, which they call cornichons. Each ſort of fruit is not preſerved by itſelf, but ſeveral ſorts are put together into the ſame bottle.

ACHIAR, is a Malayan word, which ſignifies all ſorts of fruits and roots, pickled with vinegar and ſpice. The Dutch import from Batavia all ſorts of achiar, which the Chineſe make after the manner of the Malayans; but particularly that of bamboe, a kind of cane, extraordinary thick, which grows in the Eaſt-Indies, and is preſerved there, whilſt it is ſtill green, with very ſtrong vinegar and ſpice. This is called bamboe-achiar. The name changes according to the fruit with which the achiar is made.

ACHIOTL, a name given by the Brazilians to a drug uſed in dying, more commonly called Rocou. See ROCOU.

ACHTELING, a meaſure for liquids, uſed in Germany. Thirty-two achtelings make a heemer; four ſciltems, or ſeiltins, make an achteling.

ACHTENDEELEN, or ACHTELING, a meaſure for grain, uſed in ſome parts of Holland. Two hoeds of Gorcum make five achtendeelens; 28 achtendeelens of Aſperen make 32 of Rotterdam, which contain only 26 of Worcum. 29 achtendeelens of Delft make 12 viertels of Antwerp. Four achtendeelens $\frac{24}{35}$ of Delft make the hoed of Bruges.

ACICOCA, an herb that grows in Peru, and is ſometimes uſed inſtead of the herb of Paraguay, of which it is ſaid to have all the properties. A great quantity of it is yearly carried from Lima, and other parts of Peru, to the city of Avira, from whence it is ſent to Potoſi, eſpecially when that of Paraguay is very ſcarce, and conſequently dear.

ACORI, or BLUE CORAL. The true acori is very ſcarce; ſome, however, is fiſhed upon the coaſt of Africa, particularly from Rio-del-ré, to the river of the Camarones. This coral is part of the merchandizes which the Dutch trade for with the Camarones: that of the kingdom of Benin is alſo very much eſteemed. It grows, in the form of a tree, upon a rocky bottom. See CORAL.

ACQUIESCENCE, in the French commerce, ſignifies the conſent that a merchant, or other perſon, gives to carry into execution the determination given either by arbitration, or by a conſul, or by any other reſolution, in the courſe of juſtice. There is no receding from ſuch a judgment

or ſentence, after an acquieſcence, or agreement thereunto. See ARBITRATION.

ACQUITTANCE, in France, a kind of diſcharge upon ſtamped paper, which is made out and delivered to traders, factors, or carriers, by the officers, receivers, and comptrollers of the two grand farms, eſtabliſhed for the imports and exports in the kingdom of France, and the provinces reputed foreign.

There are four ſorts of acquittances; thoſe of payment; thoſe of caution, or precaution; thoſe for ſecurity of paſſing, or thoſe of perſonal ſecurity, or bail; and thoſe of certificates of franchiſe.

The ACQUITTANCE of payment mentions the quantity, quality, weight, or value of the merchandize; the number of cheſts, bales, and packs, in which they are contained; their marks and numbers; the leaden-marks or tickets affixed to them; the ſum paid for duties of import or export; the merchant's name for whoſe account they are ſent; the place where they are to be unladen; and the road the carriers are to go. This acquittance, or certificate of payment, muſt go with the merchandize, and remain at the laſt office of the cuſtoms, to be reviſed and examined by the clerks of the farms, in order to know whether the duties have been fully received or not; and, in caſe they were not fully received, to cauſe the deficiency to be paid by the merchant to whom the merchandizes belong. Beſides all theſe particulars being enumerated in ſuch acquittance of payment, the time in which the merchandize is to arrive at the laſt cuſtom-houſe, is alſo mentioned; after which they remain void, and cannot be received by the officers, except there has been ſome lawful hindrance, which muſt be proved by a verbal proceſs, in due form. The carriers are alſo forbidden to paſs by any other cuſtom-houſe, except thoſe mentioned in the acquits, and are obliged to carry the goods directly to all the offices of the cuſtoms upon their route, and preſent their acquits, in order to their being indorſed, viz. ſeen; and, finally, to leave them at the laſt office, where, after the cheſts, packs, or bales, have been opened and inſpected, the officers deliver to them a warrant, called brevet de controlle, without any charge. The carriers are alſo obliged to produce their acquits on the firſt demand of the officers of the cuſtoms, whom they meet upon their route, at whoſe diſcretion it is to keep them, on delivering, in the like manner, a brevet de controlle; though the opening can be done no where but in the cuſtom-houſes, and of ſuch goods only as have not been viſited before, it being prohibited, with regard to thoſe that have already been examined, to open them any where but at the laſt office of the cuſtoms. All this is directed by the Ordonnance of the five great farms, of February 1687, Tit. 2. Act. 16, 17, 18, 19, 20.

The ACQUITTANCE of caution, or precaution, or of ſecurity, or bail, is delivered by the officers of the cuſtoms to a private perſon, who binds himſelf as ſecurity, that a bale of merchandize ſhall be inſpected by the officers of the cuſtom-houſe at the place to which it is conſigned, and that the cuſtoms, if there are any due, ſhall be paid there; in conſequence of which, the bale is packed, corded, and loaded, at the office, where the acquittance is delivered, that it may not be opened, nor the goods changed, upon the route they are to go. And, when the bale arrives at the place of its deſtination, and the merchandizes, and other things contained in it, have been examined and viſited by the inſpector, the receiver and comptroller, on the inſpector's certificate, cauſe the duties to be paid, if any are due, and endorſe the receipt upon the back of the acquittance, which is afterwards ſent back to the perſon who bound himſelf, to be returned by him to the officers from whom he had it, in order to his being diſcharged from his bond.

The ACQUITTANCE for ſecurity of tranſit, or paſſage, relates to certain merchandizes, or materials, for working and manufacturing; ſuch as are exempt from the duties of import and export in the kingdom of France, and alſo from tolls, grants, and other impoſts; as are thoſe which relate to the manufactures eſtabliſhed in the towns and diſtricts of Liſle, Doway, Orchies, Tournay, and other cities in the Low Countries, conquered by the King of France in Flanders, or yielded to him by treaties of peace, or truce, and which are entered and cleared at the cuſtom-houſes of Calais, Bayonne, Seſtome, near Marſeilles, Pont de Beauvoiſin, Straſburg, and Peronne, to be ſent into the Indies, Spain, Italy, and England.

This acquittal is uſually delivered by the officers of the cuſtoms at Liſle, according to the certificate of the magiſtrate of the town, and mentions the name of the perſon for whoſe account the merchandizes are, their quantity, quality, and weight; the number of the bales, packs, or cheſts, in which they are contained; how corded, packed, and leaded; their marks and numbers; the cuſtom-houſes through which they are to enter and clear: that they are not to be lodged any where, except in the cuſtom-houſes through which they are to paſs, nor opened, except at the laſt office on the frontier, where they are to clear, and to be viewed and viſited by the officers of the farms. For ſecurity of which, the merchant, or who conſigns them, enters into a bond to bring in, within four months from the delivery of the acquittance, a certificate in due form, that the ſaid merchandizes have been found, in number, weight, quantity, and quality, with the bales, package, and leads of the cuſtom-houſe, whole and entire, conformably to the acquittance. This certificate, being endorſed upon the back of the acquittance, the ſecurity is diſcharged without any difficulty.

The ACQUITTANCE, or certificate of franchiſes, concerns the exemption from the duties of export on merchandizes, intended to be ſent out of the kingdom, which are bought and ſent away during the franchiſes, or freedom of fairs.

They are particularly uſed at Lyons, during the four free fairs, which are thoſe of Twelfth-day, Eaſter, Auguſt, and All-ſaints, each of which continue a fortnight free, and begin as follows: That of Twelfth-day, the firſt Monday after that feſtival; that of Eaſter, the firſt Monday after Lowſunday; that of Auguſt, the 4th of that month; and that of All-ſaints, the 3d of November.

This acquittance, or certificate of franchiſes, is at firſt delivered by the receivers and comptrollers deputed, or appointed, by the provoſt of the merchants, and by the aldermen of the city; it mentions the perſon for whoſe account the merchandizes are, their quantity, quality, weight, the number of bales, packs, or cheſts; that they have paid none of the uſual duties of the city, and that the ſaid bales, packs, or cheſts, were taken away, and loaded, during the time of the franchiſe, or freedom of the fair, and have been marked by them, with a particular mark, of which there is a ſtamp in the margin of the certificate; and that they contain no prohibited or contraband goods. On the back of this acquittance, or certificate, muſt be ſet down the warrant of the clerks of the general office of the cuſtom-houſe, to the clerk of the gates of the city, commanding him to certify the going out of the bales, packs, or cheſts, mentioned in the acquittance, or certificate of the magiſtrates of the city, and that the duties are allowed to have been paid during the fair; and that declaration has been made, that they ſhall be exported out of the kingdom, through ſuch a province. It muſt be obſerved, that, in order to have the benefit of the franchiſe for exemption from duties, the merchandizes muſt be carried out of the town, towards the end of each fair, and out of the kingdom before the firſt day of the fair next following; except, however, in caſes of juſt and legal hindrances.

The acquittance, or certificate, or permit, as we term it in Engliſh, of franchiſe, muſt go along with the merchandize, to the laſt office of export, and remain there.

ACQUITTANCE, among the French merchants, ſignifies alſo a receipt. Paid ſuch a one, by acquittance, of ſuch a day; that is to ſay, upon receipt, or acquittance. When a banker, or any other perſon, gives to a ſervant, or porter, a bill of exchange that is due, in order to go and receive the payment of it, he generally endorſes it in blank; that is, leaving a void ſpace above his name, that the receipt may be wrote there. But a man muſt always take care, with regard to thoſe blank endorſements, to put the words, "pour acquit," for receipt, or acquittance, under his name, that the void ſpace may not be filled up with an order payable to another, which might be attended with very bad conſequences.

To ACQUIT, ſignifies alſo in French, to pay the duties of import or export for merchandizes, as they are imported into, or exported out of, cities, and at the cuſtom-houſes. Thus they ſay, 'that merchant drives a vaſt trade, he has 'acquitted (that is, he has paid) this year, above 100,000 'livres duty to the king.' It ſignifies alſo to pay one's debts: 'this merchant has at laſt acquitted himſelf towards 'his creditors;' that is, he has paid them entirely. They alſo ſay, to acquit bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, bonds, &c. that is, to pay them.

ACQUITTANCE, a releaſe, or diſcharge, in writing, of a payment, debt, or any other thing we are obliged to pay or perform. Some acquittances are made before a notary-public, and others only under a perſon's private ſign manual; they are both equally good, but not equally ſafe with regard to what may happen afterwards, the latter being ſometimes liable to very great inconveniencies.

The receipt wrote on the back of a bill of exchange that is paid, is properly a true acquittance.

ACTION, a right which a perſon has to ſue for any demand or pretenſion, at law. It is alſo ſaid of actions entered againſt a perſon, and of the proceedings carried on for aſſerting and proving one's right.

ACTION, in French commerce, ſignifies ſometimes the moveable effects: thus they ſay, that a merchant's creditors have ſeized upon all his actions; which is as much as to ſay, that they have taken poſſeſſion of all his active debts, that is, the debts owed to him.

ACTION REDHIBITORY, is an action at law by which the buyer may oblige the ſeller to take back damaged goods, or ſuch as do not prove according to the agreement.

ACTION of a Company is an equal part, or portion of ſtock, of which ſeveral, joined together, make the capital fund, or ſtock, of a trading company. Thus a company which has 300 actions, of a 1000 l. each, has a fund of 300,000 l.

which is to be underſtood in proportion as the actions are ſettled at a larger or ſmaller ſum. A merchant, or any other perſon, is ſaid to have 4 or 6 actions in a company, when he has contributed to the capital ſtock, and is concerned in it for, 4 or 6000 l. if the actions are 1000 l. as we have juſt ſuppoſed.

A proprietor cannot have a deliberative vote in the aſſemblies of a company, unleſs he has a certain number of actions, fixed by the letters patents of it's eſtabliſhment; nor can he be a director, unleſs he has ſtill a greater number of actions. This proportion of actions, in order to a deliberative vote, or the directorſhip, is mentioned in another place. See TRADING COMPANIES.

ACTION ſignifies alſo the bonds, contracts, and acknowledgements, or STOCK in general, which the directors of trading companies transfer, or deliver, to thoſe who have paid their money into the company's caſh, and made themſelves proprietors. Thus to deliver an action, is to expedite in due form the title by which the actionary becomes a proprietor of the action he has taken out.

The actions of trading companies riſe or fall, according as ſuch companies gain or loſe credit. A very ſmall matter often occaſions this riſing or falling of the actions, and frequently an uncertain rumour of a rupture between neighbouring powers, or the hope of an approaching peace, when they are at war, is ſufficient to lower, or raiſe the price conſiderably, at which they are uſually negociated. It was ſeen in France, in the year 1719, how far the credit of a company is capable to carry that of its actions: thoſe of the company of the Weſt-Indies, known ſince by the name of the India company, having roſe, in leſs than ſix months time, to 1,900 per cent. which had never happened to any other company, however high it's credit or power were.

Before the war which France declared againſt the States General of the United Provinces, in 1672, the actions of the Dutch Eaſt-India company had roſe to 650 per cent. which is the utmoſt height to which they were ever known to arrive. But, in the firſt months of that war, which was like to have proved ſo fatal to that republic, the actions fell to leſs than 250. The company having afterwards retrieved themſelves, their actions roſe again, after the peace of Nimeguen in 1678. The different ruptures that have happened ſince, between France and Holland, till the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, either on the account of the league of Augſburgh, or the ſucceſſion of Spain, did indeed occaſion ſome fall in the actions, but always inconſiderable in compariſon to that of 1672; and they eaſily reſumed their price at the end of each war, and even roſe higher than they had been before: ſo that, in the year 1718, they were not much below 600 per cent. the actioniſts, as they are called in Holland, thereby ſeeing their capital increaſed to ſix times it's original value, and each action, which, at the eſtabliſhment of the company, coſt only 500 livres de Gros, or 3000 florins, being then worth 18000 florins.

The trade of actions, or ſtocks, is one of the moſt conſiderable that is carried on upon the exchange at Amſterdam, and in all the other cities of the United Provinces, where there are chambers, or courts, of the Eaſt-India company; and there are even great numbers of people who ſubſiſt and enrich themſelves by this traffic only. What renders this trade ſo common, and often ſo profitable, in Holland, is, becauſe it can be carried on without any great fund of ready money, and conſiſts only, if we may uſe the expreſſion, in a continual viciſſitude of buying and ſelling of actions, which they buy when they fall, and ſell out again when they riſe.

In the buying or ſelling of actions of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, a broker is almoſt always employed; and, when the price is agreed upon, the ſeller transfers them, and ſigns the acquittance, or receipt, in the preſence of one of the directors, who cauſes them to be booked by the ſecretary, or regiſter, which is ſufficient for transferring the property of the ſtock ſold, from the ſeller to the buyer.

The broker's fee for his trouble is uſually at the rate of ſix florins for each action of 3000 florins, one half paid by the buyer, and the other by the ſeller.

It is not ſo eaſy to ſpeak of the trade in the actions of the French company, as of that in the actions of the Dutch companies every thing in the latter being tranſacted with the utmoſt regularity, and exact form; and all things in the former being at firſt conducted with a kind of frenzy, which ſeemed to have ſeized all perſons, whom the prudence of the directors could not moderate for a great while; and which had, in a manner, cleared all the ſhops at Paris of their traders, to make as many brokers or ſtock-jobbers of them, and had robbed the neighbouring ſtates of their inhabitants, who came to ſhare the immenſe fortunes of the ſtreet called Quinquempoix, where the caprice of the people had in a manner fixed the center of that rich traffic, as Change-alley, near the Royal Exchange, was at London, in 1720.

The method of transferring Actions, or Stocks, at Amſterdam.

When two perſons have agreed between themſelves, or by the aſſiſtance of a broker, upon the price of one or more actions, and they are to be delivered, the ſeller goes to the Eaſt-India houſe, to make his declaration to the book-keeper, who immediately enters it; and, after having made the ſeller ſign it, cauſes it alſo to be ſubſcribed by one of the directors, before whom the ſeller muſt likewiſe declare, by word of mouth, that he has ſold it. The transfer being thus regiſtered, and the ſeller having informed the buyer of it, the latter has a right to go and aſſure himſelf farther of it at the Eaſt-India houſe, in caſe he does not think fit to truſt the perſon with whom he has negociated: after which, he ought to cauſe the value of the actions transferred to be paſſed over at the bank to the ſellers account, who, when he is certain that the value has been placed to his account, or credit, at the bank, returns to the Eaſt-India houſe, and ſigns the acquittance, or receipt, at the bottom of the transfer which he has made. As long as this acquittance is not ſigned, the purchaſer cannot diſpoſe of the actions transferred, though he has paid for them: but, in caſe of the ſeller's refuſal to ſign ſuch acquittance, after receiving the full value, he may be compelled to do ſo, only by a petition to the echevins, or aldermen. Each transfer coſts three florins and ten ſtivers, both, for the ſeal, and to the book-keeper.

It muſt be obſerved, that the regiſters of tranſfers conſiſt of printed forms, in which the clerks have only to fill up the blank. Theſe forms are called Seals, becauſe they have an impreſs upon them, not unlike the ſtamped paper of France. This regulation for the tranſfer of actions was eſtabliſhed by ſeveral placarts, or decrees, of the States-General of the United Provinces; and, among others, by thoſe of July 15, 1621, May 30, 1624, and September 16, 1677. By the ſame decrees, all perſons, of what quality ſoever, are prohibited to ſell, either for a fixed term, or for the preſent, any actions of the company, either for their own account, or the account of others, unleſs the ſaid actions be really and actually entered in their name, or in the name of thoſe for whom they ſell, at the time of ſuch ſale, upon penalty of the ſeller's paying a fine of one fourth part of the price for which they ſhall have ſold them: ordering further, that the transfer of them ſhall be regiſtered within the ſpace of 14 days after the ſale, if they were ſold in a city where an office or chamber of the Eaſt-India company is kept, or within a month, if it be in another city, under the ſame penalty of being fined a fourth; nor ſhall the contracting parties have power to except againſt thoſe placarts, or decrees, nor the brokers for them, upon pain of the latter being immediately deprived of their office, and for ſuch as are not brokers to be puniſhed arbitrarily, as the caſe ſhall require.

The French ACTIONS are, at preſent, of three ſorts; namely, ſimple actions, actions rentieres, or rent actions, and actions intéreſſées, or actions bearing intereſt.

The ſimple ACTIONS are thoſe which have a ſhare in all the company's profits and loſſes, having no other ſecurity than the company's fund only.

The ACTIONS rentieres, or rent actions, are thoſe which have a profit certain of two per cent. for which the king made himſelf ſecurity, as he was formerly for the annuities upon the city; but they have no ſhare in the dividends.

The ACTIONS intéreſſées, or bearing intereſt, are, as it were, a medium between the two former; they have two per cent. fixed revenue, with the king's ſecurity, like the rent-actions; and muſt, beſides, ſhare the over-plus of the dividends, with the ſimple actions. Theſe actions were eſtabliſhed in behalf of eccleſiaſtical communities, who might have money to put out to uſe.

Beſides this diſtinction of actions, authorized by the king's edicts and declarations, the caprice of the ſtock-jobbers of the ſtreet Quinquempoix had invented many others; as actions of the old weſt, actions of the five hundred, of mothers, of daughters, of grand-mothers, of grand-daughters, and ſome others equally ridiculous. But, as all theſe terms came to nothing at the ſame time, with the credit of that ſtreet, it would be uſeleſs to trouble the reader with an explanation of theſe bubbles.

We ſhall only add here ſome other more ſucceſsful terms, which had their day in the traffic of actions. Such are thoſe of dividend, of well fed actions (nourrir) to feed an action, and to turn an action into caſh; all theſe expreſſions, being pretty well eſtabliſhed in the trade of actions, deſerve a place in this Dictionary.

To feed an ACTION, is to pay exactly, when they become due, the ſeveral ſums ſubſcribed to the ſtock of the company, according to the orders of council, made for the creation of the new actions; to ſell or diſpoſe of them, according to the occaſion, for caſh, either to feed other actions, or for other affairs.

An ACTION fed, is one upon which all the payments have been made, and which is capable of ſharing in the dividends of the company's profits. Till this complete and entire payment is made, it is not properly an action, but a ſubſcription. See SUBSCRIPTION.

Dividend is what is otherwiſe called repartition, that is, the part, or ſhare, which each proprietor of actions is to have

out of the profits of a company, in proportion to the number of actions he has in it.

OBSERVATION.

Of the commerce of Actions, or Stocks, in foreign countries, from the remarkable period of the year 1719, to 1721.

What we ſhall add in this place relates to the actions, or ſtocks, of foreign companies, which have been carried to as great an exceſs as thoſe of France, and have met with much the ſame ſucceſs; the infatuation and avidity of ſuddenly growing rich having been in a manner equal amongſt almoſt all the nations of Europe, and made them turn to an ill uſe one of the beſt and moſt advantageous eſtabliſhments that ever was, for the increaſe of trade, and to make it flouriſh in a country.

The example of what paſſed in France, in the trade of actions, and the immenſe fortunes which ſome perſons made there, tempted both the Engliſh and the Dutch at the ſame time; ſo that an infinite number of new companies were ſoon ſeen to deluge, in a manner, England and Holland. Amſterdam, Leyden, and Haerlem were almoſt the only cities in the United Provinces which were not carried away by the torrent; and ſo prodigious a number of thoſe chimerical eſtabliſhments were ſeen in London, that the whole trade of that great metropolis was almoſt reduced to the ſole negociation of ſtocks; which, by their fall, ruined the fortunes of many conſiderable merchants, and ſeveral of the moſt illuſtrious families of Great Britain.

The companies whoſe ſtocks, or actions, made the greateſt noiſe at London, were, among the old ones, the South Sea, the Eaſt-India, and the Bank.

The South-Sea ſtock, which, in the beginning of April 1720, was only at 120 per cent. was raiſed, in the month of July following, to 1020 per cent.

Bank ſtock roſe from 148 to 300, and Eaſt-India ſtock from 198 to near 500.

Thoſe times, ſo favourable to the old proprietors, continued ſcarce a few months: after ſeveral fluctuations, South-Sea ſtock fell in November to 100, and, towards the beginning of the year 1721, it could be raiſed only to 150 per cent. Bank ſtock to 130, and Eaſt-India ſtock to 160: and they fell afterwards into ſuch a diſcredit, that the parliament made it their chief buſineſs, for above a year, to diſcover and puniſh the frauds and miſmanagements of the caſhiers and directors of theſe three companies, and to reſtore the credit of their ſtocks, which could not be accompliſhed before the year 1723.

The London Aſſurance company was, of all the new companies in England, that which ſeemed to make it's firſt appearance, under the moſt favourable auſpices. It's ſtock, on which only ten per cent. was paid at firſt, preſently roſe to 120 per cent. that is, to twelve times the capital paid in, and even to 160. This flouriſhing ſtate continued but a ſhort time. A ſtorm, which, towards the end of October 1720, occaſioned the loſs of twelve Jamaica ſhips, gave the affairs of that infant company ſo terrible a ſhock, that it's ſtocks fell the ſame month to 60; other loſſes having alſo weakened it ſome time after, the ſtocks fell to 12 or 15 per cent. In ſhort, towards the cloſe of the ſame year, this promiſing company ſcarce ſubſiſted, but in the complaints the proprietors made of being cheated by the directors.

The actions of the new companies eſtabliſhed in Holland, or augmented according to the model of thoſe of England, ſoon experienced the like revolutions.

The directors of the Weſt-India company, having obtained leave from the States-General to take in new ſubſcriptions, at the rate of 250 per cent. ſoon ſaw them riſe to 650; but, falling afterwards almoſt on a ſudden, they came down to cent. per cent.

The actions of the company of Aſſurance, eſtabliſhed at Rotterdam, in the beginning of July 1720, on which only 4 ſtivers per 100 guilders had been advanced, that is to ſay, 10 guilders for every action of 2500 guilders, ſoon roſe to cent. per cent. But their credit hardly continued ſome months, when no body would give 18 per cent. for them.

Thoſe of Gouda (or Ter Goude) for which but one per cent. was paid in, after having ſold at the rate of 30 per cent. ſoon fell again to their original value.

Thoſe of the Delft company met with the ſame fate, and in a ſhorter time. Finally, not to tire the reader with a tedious detail of particulars as there was ſcarce a city in North Holland, even to the moſt inconſiderable, but where, after the example of Rotterdam, companies of navigation and aſſurance had been eſtabliſhed, ſo there was not one, in which the avarice of the proprietors was not puniſhed by the fall of their actions, and the entire loſs of the money employed in them.

REMARKS.

To caution proprietors of ſtocks from being hereafter led away by the like infatuations as prevailed in the year 1720 in England.

From this ſuccinct account of the extravagant riſe and fall of actions or ſtocks in theſe ſeveral public companies both at home and abroad, it may prove uſeful and agreeable to ſuch of our readers to whom theſe matters may be new, to give the ſentiments of thoſe, who have ſet the fatal conſequences hereof in the ſtrongeſt light; in order to warn poſterity againſt being led into the like calamitous ſchemes and projects.

The cloſe connexion which at preſent ſubſiſts between the monied and trading intereſts of theſe kingdoms makes this the more natural and neceſſary in a Dictionary of Commerce; our trade having then received, and always muſt receive, the greateſt injury from ſuch enormous abuſes, as took place in our ſtock negotiations, in that famous æra in England, called the South-Sea year.

Such is the nature of the public credit, that nobody would lend their money to the ſupport of the ſtate under the moſt preſſing emergencies, unleſs they could have the privilege of buying and ſelling their property in the public funds, when their occaſions required. 'Tis certain, therefore, that the greateſt delicacy and tenderneſs is to be obſerved, in laying any reſtraints upon theſe tranſactions, leſt the public credit ſhould be thereby irrecoverably prejudiced.

In regard to great trading companies and banks, which carry on buſineſs, and make thereby a certain and apparent profit, it can never be difficult for the chief managers of ſuch corporations to be able to judge pretty nearly, at all times, of the value of the properties of their conſtituents: and whenever the value of their actions, by any kind of artifices or unfair practices, are made to riſe or fall beyond their real worth, it ſeems a duty incumbent on them to ſet the public right upon thoſe intereſting occaſions.

It has been thought by ſome very wiſe and honeſt men, that one way to prevent thoſe evils, which may attend the ſudden and exorbitant riſe or fall of ſtocks, would be, if theſe companies were obliged, once a year, to ſtate an account of trade, and of their real profits, and lay it before their general court; and if they were tied down from dividing more than their profits, as the Dutch Eaſt India company are ſaid to have done, with great honour and ſtability to that corporation.

The great diſproportion between paper and ſpecie currency, in this kingdom, ſhews, that, without the former, the buſineſs and trade of the nation muſt be, perhaps, proportionably ſtagnated; unleſs we could ſupply our deficiency in currency by hard money.

If by ſuch arts as were practiſed in the Miſſiſſippi and South-Sea times, the ſtocks of this nation, belonging to our public companies, ſhould be blown up again to be nominally worth one thouſand times more than they intrinſically are; although this would increaſe the quantity of paper circulation, yet, as it would not increaſe our commerce in proportion, it would only draw the money out of all the channels of trade, and reduce us to real beggary, by graſping at imaginary wealth.

To ſupport the public credit of the nation upon a ſolid baſis, and to prevent the ſpreading of theſe corruptions and enormities in our public companies for the future, the ſentiments of thoſe cannot be too often inculcated throughout this kingdom, who have zealouſly laboured to guard us againſt the like public diſtreſs and calamity for the future, which the nation was plunged into in the South-Sea year.

As this matter is ſet in a ſtrong and affecting light in what was urged by wiſe and honeſt men in thoſe frenzical times, we ſhall give the reader the ſubſtance thereof, with ſome ſuitable variations. And as for other political hints, which are interlarded, and which are not directly pertinent to the point we intend to illuſtrate, the reader may paſs them over as he thinks proper; ſince mangling the piece would deſtroy the ſpirit of it.

The gentleman, whoſe ſentiments theſe are, having explained the true nature of public credit, which conſiſts, as he ſays, in the affluence of trade, the general wealth of the nation; and the confidence of the people in the juſtice and integrity of their governors, proceeds thus:

I have endeavoured to ſhew what, and what alone, ought to be called credit. But there hath lately riſen up, in our age, a new-fangled and fantaſtical credulity, which hath uſurped the ſame name, and came in with the word Bite, which hath been made free of a neighbouring court *; whereby the poor, innocent, induſtrious, and unwary people have been delivered into the ravenous and polluted jaws of vultures and tygers; and thouſands, I had almoſt ſaid millions, have been ſacrificed, to ſatiate the gluttony of a few. This hath inverted the œconomy and policy of nations; made a great kingdom turn all gameſters; and men have acquired the reputation of wiſdom, from their ſkill in picking pockets. It hath entered into the cabinets of courts; hath guided the counſels of ſenates, and their whole wiſdom, and moſt of their time, hath been employed in keeping up this vile and airy traffic, as if the buſineſs of government was not to protect people in their property, but to cheat people out of it.

* Hereby is meant the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, which was ſet a foot in France in 1719.

This is eminently true in a neighbouring country [meaning in France] and I wiſh I could ſay, that nothing like it had ever

ever happened amongſt us. — Neither public nor private credit can conſiſt in ſelling any thing for more than it is worth, or for any thing but what it is. It is certainly the intereſt of a country, that its commodities ſhould ſell at a good price, and find a ready vent; that private men ſhould be able to truſt one another; that lands ſhould find ready purchaſers, good ſecurities, money at low intereſt; and that mortgages ſhould be eaſily transferrable. And the way to bring theſe good purpoſes to paſs, is to aſcertain titles; give ready remedies to the injured; to procure general plenty by prudent laws, and by giving all encouragement to honeſty, induſtry, and trade. But it will never be effected by authorizing, or countenancing frauds; by enabling artful men to circumvent the unwary, ſtamping the public ſeal upon counterfeit wares; and by conſtantly coining a new ſort of property, of a precarious, uncertain, and tranſitory value; and, by conſtant juggles and combinations, conſpiring to make it more ſo; which conduct, whenever practiſed, muſt ſoon put an end to all public and private credit.

In what country ſoever theſe practices meet with encouragement, all fair and honeſt commerce will be turned into juggling. There will quickly grow a ſort of cabaliſtical learning; and there will be a ſecret and a vulgar knowledge; one to be truſted only to the verè adepti, and managers of public companies; and the other to be divulged to the people, who will be told nothing but what it is for the intereſt of their betters to communicate; and pretty advantages may be made by being in the ſecret. As for example; juſt before any public misfortune is to make its appearance, thoſe who know it may ſell out their actions or ſtocks; and in the height of the danger buy again; and when it is over, by taking another opportunity, they may ſell a ſecond time; and, when theſe evils are averted, they may go to market once more; and ſo, toties quoties, till the greateſt part of the property of a kingdom, or a public company, is got into the hands of but a few perſons, who will undoubtedly govern all the reſt. Nor can theſe miſchiefs be poſſibly prevented, but by wholly deſtroying this ſort of traffic, or by appointing ſkilful pilots to ſet up occaſional buoys and ſea-marks, according to the ſhifting of the winds and the tides; that is, by aſcertaining and publiſhing the real value of all public ſecurities, as often as there is an alteration made in them by new proviſions, or by wholly preventing the abuſes, occaſioned by the mere trade of ſtock-jobbing.

'Till ſomething of this kind is done, it is fooliſh to think, and worſe to pretend to think, that any effectual methods can be taken to diſcharge and pay off the national engagements; for in whatever country it happens, that the public funds become the markets and ſtanding revenues of thoſe, who can beſt cure the evil; where great and ſudden eſtates may be more eaſily raiſed by knavery and juggling, than ſmall ones by virtue and merit; where * plumbs may be got at once, and vaſt ſocieties may be made the accomplices of power, in order to be indulged with ſeparate advantages; it is not to be hoped, that effectual methods will be taken to dam and choak up ſuch inexhauſtible ſources of wealth and dominion. On the contrary, it is to be feared that new projects will be yearly invented; new ſchemes coloured with popular pretences, to toſs and tumble the public ſecurities, and to change them into as many ſhapes as Proteus knew. One year ſhall metamorphoſe the ſchemes of another, and the next ſhall undo both. The leaders of one faction ſhall unravel the projects of their predeceſſors; ſhall charge their deſigns with corruption and rapine, and be more rapacious themſelves; and all, in their turns, ſhall raiſe immenſe eſtates upon the public ruins; and the laſt ſpirits ſhall be always the worſt.

* A plumb is a kind of cant word for an hundred thouſand pounds.

I would gladly know, what advantage ever hath, or ever can accrue to the public, by raiſing ſtocks to an imaginary value, beyond what they are really worth to an honeſt man, who purchaſes them for a regular ſupport to himſelf and family, and deſigns not to ſell them again, till he hath occaſion for the money they will produce. It can moſt aſſuredly ſerve no honeſt purpoſe, and will promote a thouſand knaviſh ones. Beſides theſe before-mentioned, it turns moſt of the current coin of England out of the channels of trade, and the heads of all its merchants and traders off their proper buſineſs. It enriches thoſe who are inſtrumental to bring no riches into the nation by fair and honourable traffic, and it ruins the innocent who are unacquainted with the tricks and artifices of ſtock-juggling. It hath changed honeſt commerce into bubbling; our traders into projectors; induſtry into tricking: and applauſe is earned, when the pillory is deſerved. It hath cauſed all the confuſion in our public finances. It hath overwhelmed the nation with debts and burthens, under which it is almoſt ready to ſink; and it hath hindred thoſe national debts from being paid off; for if ſtocks ſell for more, or much more than the prices, at which they are redeemable, or more can be got by mere jobbing them than by diſcharging them, then all arts will be uſed to prevent a redemption.

'Tis folly in any one, who is the leaſt acquainted with the affairs of nations to pretend not to ſee, that if we do not ſoon put our public debts in a method of being paid, they can never be paid; and all will do their utmoſt to prevent ſo fatal a miſchief to their country, who do not intend it. But, if there are any ſuch, they will undoubtedly take early care to ſave themſelves out of the general wreck, which very few will be able to do, though all will intend it. Thoſe in the ſecret will have the advantage; for, when ſelling of ſtocks becomes the word, no one can ſell, unleſs he ſells for little or nothing. All are waiting for a riſe; and, if that happens, all or moſt will endeavour to ſell, and then all ſelling is at an end. The managers and brokers will engroſs the books, as they did in the South-Sea year, and command the firſt ſale; and, by the time they are got out, no one will be able to get out.

There is nothing left to be done, but for all honeſt men to join heads, hands, and hearts, to find all means to diſcharge the public burthens, and to add no more to them; to ſearch every meaſure, whereby we can leſſen the national expences; to avoid all occaſions of engaging in new ones; and to do all in our power to increaſe the public wealth by ſolid trade, which will afford conſtant employment for our people, and convert our paper-money into ſubſtantial caſh.

Such a revolution of property did this abuſe, in the buying and ſelling of ſtocks, occaſion in England in the year 1720, that a zealous advocate for the public intereſts expreſſes himſelf in the following manner, which will give us a ſtrong idea of what may be expected on the like occaſion:

What, ſays he, can be more invidious, than for a nation ſtaggering under the weight and oppreſſion of its debts, eaten up with uſury, and exhauſted with payments, to have the additional mortification to ſee private and worthleſs men riot in their calamities, and grow rich, whilſt they grow poor; to ſee the town every day glittering with new and pompous equipages, whilſt they are mortgaging and ſelling their eſtates, without having ſpent them; to ſee blazing meteors ſuddenly exhaled out of their jakes, and their mud, as in Egypt, warmed into monſters?

For other matter relating to public companies, ſee the ſeveral GREAT COMPANIES eſtabliſhed throughout Europe, under their proper heads. As the EAST-INDIA COMPANY OF ENGLAND, under Eaſt-India; SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, under South-Sea; HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY, under Hudſon's-Bay; DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, under Dutch Eaſt India, &c.

ACTIONARY, or ACTIONIST, a proprietor of ſtock in a trading company. In France the word Actionaire is in uſe, and that of actioniſte in Holland. It is lawful for an actionary, or proprietor, to ſell his actions or ſtock, either in whole or in part, with loſs or with gain.

To enter an ACTION, is to commence a proceſs at law againſt one, for the recovery of a debt. The word actioner was formerly uſed in matters of French commerce; but it is now almoſt out of date, and they ſay aſſigner.

ADARME, a ſmall weight in Spain, which is alſo uſed at Buenos-Aires, and in all Spaniſh America. It is the 16th part of an ounce, which at Paris is called the Demi groſs (or half draghm.) But it muſt be obſerved, that the Spaniſh ounce is ſeven per cent. lighter than that of Paris, ſo that a hundred ounces of Madrid make but 93 of Paris.

ADATAIS, or ADATYS, a muſlin or cotton-cloth, very fine and clear, of which the piece is ten French ells long, and three quarters broad. This muſlin comes from the Eaſt-Indies. The fineſt adatais are made at Bengal.

ADDITION, in arithmetic, is the firſt of the four principal rules, or operations in the art of calculation by figures. It conſiſts in finding the ſum total, or amount of ſeveral numbers added one to another.

The common character which denotes addition, by our modern arithmeticians, is +, or plus, the ſame as is uſed by algebraiſts. Thus 5 + 7 denotes the ſum total of 5 and 7. The addition of ſimple numbers is plain. Thus it is readily known, that 5 and 7, or 5 + 7, make in the whole 12; and 12 + 10 make in the whole 22.

In compound numbers, thoſe which are of the ſame kind, are ſet under each other; i. e. units under units, tens under tens, &c.

Addition of numbers of different kinds or denominations, is performed by caſting up each denomination by itſelf, beginning with the loweſt; and, if after the addition there be enough to make one or more of the higher denomination, they muſt be added to the figures of that denomination; reſerving the odd remaining number by itſelf, under its proper denomination.

ADIT of a mine, is the hole or opening through which it is entered and dug, and through which alſo the water and ore are carried out. See MINING.

ADMINISTRATION, thus the Spaniards in Peru call the ſtaple magazine, or warehouſe, eſtabliſhed at Callao, a ſmall town on the South-Sea, which is the port of Lima, the capital of that part of South America, and particularly of Peru. The foreign ſhips, which get leave to trade along that coaſt, are obliged to unload at the adminiſtration, or

ſtaple magazine of all the European merchandizes they carry thither, paying 13 per cent. of the price they ſell for, if the cargo be entire, and even 16 per cent. if it be not. Beſides which, they pay 3 per 1000 duty for conſulſhip, and ſome other ſmall royal rights and claims.

ADMIRAL, he who commands a fleet. It is alſo the name of the ſhip which he commands. In France, the admiral is one of the great officers of the crown, general of the marine, and of all the naval forces of the kingdom. All the captains and maſters of merchantmen, or trading veſſels, are obliged to take their licences, paſſports, commiſſions, and ſafe-conducts, of him.

The tenth of all prizes taken at ſea, or on ſhore, under a French commiſſion and flag, belongs to him, together with the tenth of all ranſoms, the whole of all fines adjudged in the particular courts of admiralty, and half of thoſe adjudged at the marble tables. (See that article.) He alſo has the duties of anchorage, tonnage, and ſea-marks, and one third of all the effects taken out of the ſea, or caſt on ſhore; all this is according to the marine law or ordonnance made in 1681.

ADMIRAL is alſo ſaid, in France, of the moſt conſiderable ſhip of a fleet of merchantmen, which keep company together: it is the ſame with regard to the ſhips bound to Newfoundland, which go fiſhing for green cod on the great bank. As for thoſe which go for dried cod, when ſeveral fiſhing veſſels meet together, and deſign to fiſh, and cure the cod in the ſame harbour, he whoſe long-boat lands firſt, has the admiral-ticket given him. The buſineſs of this admiral is to take care, that a board be poſted up, and kept on the ſcaffold erected to dry the fiſh; upon which board each maſter of a ſhip is obliged to ſet down his name, and the day on which he arrived: the admiral alſo gives proper orders, and appoints the fiſhing-places to thoſe who come after him, and it his buſineſs to determine their differences. He has alſo the privilege of chuſing what place he pleaſes on the ſandy ſhore, to dry his fiſh; and all the wood he finds upon the coaſt on his arrival, belongs to him. As long as the fiſhing ſeaſon continues, this admiral carries the flag on his main-maſt. See the article COD-FISHING.

ADMIRALTY, the office of an admiral. In France that office is beſtowed on none but princes, or perſons of the higheſt birth and quality.

The office of high, great, or firſt admiral (for in different countries they give him theſe different titles) is always very conſiderable; and the high admiral is one of the great officers of the ſtate in all maritime kingdoms and ſovereignties, and is either a prince, or a perſon of the firſt rank. We have ſeen, for inſtance, in England, that James duke of York (only brother to king Charles II, who himſelf was afterwards king, and died in France) was inveſted with that office, during the war with the Dutch. His title was Lord High Admiral of England, and he enjoyed very great powers and privileges. The ſame high office has alſo been often divided among ſeveral perſons, under the title of Lords Commiſſioners of the Admiralty; and thus it is at preſent, there being now no high admiral in this kingdom.

They call in France duties of the admiralty, thoſe duties which belong to the admiral, and are received in his name, in all the ports and places under his juriſdiction, by his receivers and deputies. You will find in the article ADMIRALTY what thoſe duties are.

ADMIRALTY of Great Britain. It was formerly under a great officer of the crown, who was ſtiled Lord high Admiral, and capitaneus nautarum & marinellorum, in reference to his deciding all differences among thoſe in the king's ſervice. And as the place was great, ſo the power was extenſive, eſpecially in all things belonging to the royal navy. He ſat formerly in the king's houſe, and there kept his court, as the French admirals do at this day, at the marble-table in the king's houſe at Paris. But, at preſent, this office is adminiſtered by a number of commiſſioners, appointed by the ſovereign of Great-Britain: they are ſtiled, Lords Commiſſioners for executing the Office of Lord High Admiral of Great-Britain and Ireland, &c. By the ſtatute 2 Will. & Mar. ſeſſ. 2. cap. 2. ſect. 2. it is declared, "that all ju-"riſdictions and power, which by act of parliament, or "otherwiſe, are inveſted in the lord high admiral of Eng-"land, have always appertained to the commiſſioners of "the admiralty, as if they were lord high admiral." But the perquiſites are, of late years, on every new commiſſion being made out, reſigned, by ſome deed or writing, to the crown. When the office of lord high admiral is in commiſſion, the number is not fixed; but, at preſent, it conſiſts of a firſt commiſſioner, who preſides at the board, and ſix more, who take place in the order in which they are named in the commiſſion. The next immediate officers under them are the vice and rear-admirals of England, who are generally the two ſenior admirals. The perſons who do buſineſs under them, are two ſecretaries, a ſollicitor, ſeven clerks in ordinary, beſides ſupernumeraries, door-keepers, meſſengers, &c. The firſt lord, or commiſſioner, of the admiralty, is, in effect, lord high admiral, having the ſupreme direction of the

board, except that no orders or commiſſions are valid when ſigned by him alone, it being neceſſary for two more to ſign with him; notwithſtanding which, he is not to be controuled by them.

Under this authority are all the naval officers and ſhipping; as the navy-office, victualling-office, ſick and wounded office; Deptford, Woolwich, Chatham, Sheerneſs, Plymouth, and Portſmouth dock-yards; as are alſo all the ſhips and veſſels of war, their admirals, commanders, lieutenants, officers, and men.

The juriſdiction of the lord high admiral, or of the lords commiſſioners, is over Great-Britain, Ireland, and Wales, with the dominions and iſlands belonging to them; as alſo New England, New York, Eaſt and Weſt Jerſey, Jamaica, Virginia, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Montſerat, Bermudas, Antigua, Newfoundland, in America; and Guinea, Benin, and Angola, in Africa, and all and ſingular of the plantations, dominions, and territories whatſoever, in parts beyond the ſeas, in the poſſeſſion of any of his majeſty's ſubjects.

The lords commiſſioners of the admiralty have the general direction of the affairs of the navy; though ſometimes the ſovereign interferes by his ſecretaries of ſtate, and directs the motions of the fleet.

The admiralty grants their commiſſion to ſuch perſon as his majeſty directs, whereby he is appointed admiral and commander in chief of the fleet, for the expedition which is deſigned; and ſuch admiral, when out of the Britiſh channel, appoints all officers, as vacancies happen, who are generally confirmed by the admiralty, unleſs any very material objection occurs. An admiral is uſually furniſhed with full powers to hold courts martial, and commonly appoints his ſecretary the judge-advocate; yet any officer may hold courts martial whom the admiralty impower, though he be a private captain only: but the judge-advocate at home is appointed by the admiralty.

When any naval buſineſs is to be tranſacted, as building, repairing, fitting out, or victualling ſhips of war, the admiralty direct their orders to the proper officers. They likewiſe direct their warrant to the maſter-general of the ordnance, for ſuch naval ſtores as are wanting on board the ſhips of war.

They alſo, by their warrant, direct the commiſſioners of the navy to appoint officers in the dock-yards, rope-yards, &c. as likewiſe all ſtanding officers aboard ſhips of war; as purſers, gunners, boat-ſwains, and carpenters; but the maſters, ſurgeons, and cooks are appointed by warrant of the commiſſioners of the navy. Admirals, captains, lieutenants, chaplains, volunteers, and ſchoolmaſters are appointed by the board of admiralty.

Before the meeting of the parliament, the admiralty preſent their memorial to the king in council, praying his majeſty to declare the number of ſeamen proper to be employed for the current year; and the commiſſioners of the navy and victualling-office are directed to make out ſuitable eſtimates, which being approved of, and the general ſanction of the king and parliament had, orders are iſſued accordingly.

When war is declared, the admiralty, by memorial preſented to the king and council, pray his majeſty to direct the advocate for the office of high admiral in the court of admiralty, to prepare and lay before his majeſty, for his royal approbation, the draught of a commiſſion, authorizing him the high admiral (or the lords commiſſioners) to impower the court of admiralty, in the foreign governments and plantations, to take cognizance of, and judicially proceed upon, all manner of captures, ſeizures, prizes, and reprizals of all ſhips and goods ſeized; and to adjudge and condemn the ſame, according to the courſe of the admiralty, and law of nations; as alſo all ſhips and goods liable to confiſcation, purſuant to the reſpective treaties between his Britannic majeſty and other princes and ſtates.

As alſo to deſire his majeſty's direction in council, to his advocate-general in the high court of admiralty, and to the advocate-general of the high admiral in the ſame court, to prepare and lay before his majeſty a commiſſion, authorizing him the high admiral, or the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, to iſſue forth letters of marque and reprizals to thoſe whom he or they ſhall deem fitly qualified, to ſeize all ſhips or veſſels of the enemy, &c. as alſo to direct the advocate of the ſaid court to prepare, for his royal approbation, inſtructions to commanders of merchants ſhips, to whom ſuch letters of marque and repriſals ſhall be granted; the ſubſtance of which inſtructions are as follows:

I. They are impowered to ſeize all ſhips of war, and other veſſels whatſoever, as alſo the goods, merchandizes, veſſels, or ſubjects of the prince, or ſtate, againſt whom war ſhall be declared; as likewiſe all other ſhips and veſſels that may have contraband goods on board; but to take care, that not any hoſtilities be committed, nor prize taken, within the harbours of princes and ſtates in amity with his majeſty, or in rivers or roads within the reach of their cannon.

II. To bring ſuch prizes as they take either to ſome port of this kingdom, or to carry them to any of his majeſty's foreign

colonies and plantations, where there are courts of admiralty, as it may be moſt convenient for them, in order to their being legally adjudged. And here it may not be improper to obſerve, that there is no other appeal from the ſaid courts of admiralty abroad, with relation to prizes, than to a committee of his majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, particularly appointed to hear and determine therein.

III. They are to produce before the judge of the high court of admiralty, or the judges of the admiralty-courts in the foreign governments, three or four of the principal perſons who belonged to the prize, that ſo they may be examined and ſworn, touching the intereſt and property of ſuch ſhips, goods, and merchandizes; as alſo to deliver to the judge all papers found on board ſuch prize, and to produce ſome perſon who can make oath that thoſe papers were actually found on board at the time of capture.

IV. To take care that not any thing belonging to the prize be embezzled, before judgment be given in the high court of admiralty, or by the courts abroad, that the ſaid ſhip, goods, and merchandizes are lawful prize; and not to kill any perſon belonging to ſuch ſhip in cold blood, or to treat them otherwiſe than according to cuſtom in ſuch caſes.

V. They are forbid to attempt or do any thing againſt the true meaning of any article, treaty, or treaties, depending between the crown of Great-Britain and it's allies, or againſt the ſubjects of ſuch allies.

VI. It is declared lawful for the captors, after condemnation, to ſell or diſpoſe of ſuch prizes, with the goods and merchandizes on board them, ſuch only accepted as by act of parliament ought to be depoſited for exportation.

VII. They are required to aid and aſſiſt any ſhip or veſſel of his majeſty's ſubjects, that may be attacked by the enemy.

VIII. Such perſons who ſhall ſerve on board merchant-ſhips, with commiſſions of marque, or repriſal, are in no wiſe to be reputed or challenged as offenders againſt the laws of the land.

IX. The merchants, or others, before their taking out ſuch commiſſions, are to deliver in writing, under their hands, to the lord high admiral, or to the commiſſioners for executing that office, or to the lieutenant, or judge, of the high court of admiralty, an account of the name and burthen of the ſhip, with the captain and owner's names, her number of guns and men, and for how long time ſhe is victualled.

X. The commanders of ſuch ſhips are to hold a conſtant correſpondence with the ſecretary of the admiralty, and to give an account of the deſigns and motions of the enemy's ſhips, as far as they can diſcover, or be informed thereof, as alſo of their merchant-ſhips and veſſels, and whither bound, either out or home.

XI. They are reſtrained from wearing the king's colours, commonly called the union jack, and pendant; but, beſides the colours borne by merchant-ſhips, they are allowed to wear a pendant, together with a red jack, with the union jack deſcribed in a canton, at the upper corner thereof, next the ſtaff.

XII. They are required, upon due notice given them, to obſerve all ſuch other orders and inſtructions as his majeſty ſhall think fit to direct.

XIII. It is alſo further declared, that thoſe who violate theſe inſtructions ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed, and be obliged to make full reparation to perſons injured.

XIV. Before letters of marque, or reprizal, are iſſued, it is required that bail be given in the high court of admiralty, before the judge thereof, in the ſum of 3000 l. if the ſhip carries about 150 tons; and, if a leſſer number, 1500 l. to make good any damages that ſhall be done contrary to the intent and true meaning of their inſtructions; and (in caſe the whole of the prizes is not given to the captors) to cauſe to be paid to his majeſty, or to ſuch perſon as ſhall be authorized to receive the ſame, the full tenth part of the prizes*, goods, and merchandizes, acccording as the ſame ſhall be appraiſed, as alſo ſuch cuſtoms as ſhall be due to the crown.

* *N. B.* His moſt gracious majeſty George II. was pleaſed to give up, during the late war, theſe royal advantages, which his prerogative entitles him to, for the benefit of the Britiſh ſeamen of this kingdom.

The admiralty, on the entering into a war, give directions to the navy and victualling-offices, for the getting ready and victualling ſuch ſhips and veſſels as, by the report of the commiſſioners to their lordſhips, are found fit for ſervice, and to rebuild or repair the reſt, as they direct, and to contract with maſter builders in the merchants yards for ſuch purpoſes, *&c.* but it is to be obſerved, that nothing of importance can be done, or any contracts made, by ſuch inferior officers, without a report by them firſt delivered in, and an order thereupon obtained from the high admiral, or from the commiſſioners, who have before them a liſt of all the navy ſhips and veſſels fit for ſervice, or otherwiſe, with their rates, tunnage, complement of men, and guns.

ADMIRALTY COURT of Great-Britain (curia admiralitatis.) This court is held at Doctors-Commons in London. The lord high admiral, or the commiſſioners for executing that office for the time being, are ſupreme in this court. Under them are a deputy-judge (uſually a doctor of the civil law) two regiſters, advocates, proctors, and a marſhal. The judge is conſtituted by the king's letter patents, and holds his place, quamdiu ſe bene geſſerit, i. e. during good behaviour.

This is not eſteemed a court of record, our common lawyers ſay, becauſe it proceeds by the civil law, the judge having no power to take ſuch a recognizance as a court of record may: yet it is thought this court may fine and impriſon for a contempt in the face of the court. The proceſs and proceedings are in the name of the lord high admiral, and by libel: the plaintiff and defendant enter into a ſtipulation, or bail, by a kind of recognizance, for appearance, and to abide the ſentence.

This court is generally ruled by the civil law, and the maritime laws of Oleron. It has power to determine all maritime cauſes ariſing wholly upon the ſea, out of the juriſdiction of a county. See OLERON LAWS.

The juriſdiction of the admiral, or of the commiſſioners for executing that office, is declared by ſeveral ſtatutes, which cannot be diſpenſed with by any non obſtante, becauſe all the king's ſubjects have an intereſt in the juriſdiction of the admiralty.

By the 13th Richard II. chap. 5. "The admirals and their deputies ſhall not meddle with any thing done within the realm; but only with things done upon the ſea. By the 15th Richard II. chap. 3. The court of admiralty has no manner of cognizance of any contract, or any other thing, done within the county, either by land or water, nor of wreck of the ſea: but of the death of man, or of mayheim, done in great ſhips, being and hovering in the main ſtream of great rivers only, beneath the points of the ſame rivers, the admirals ſhall have cognizance. And alſo to arreſt ſhips in great fleets, for the voyages of the king and kingdom; and ſhall alſo have juriſdiction in ſuch fleets during ſuch voyage. By the 2d Henry IV. chap. 2, the 13th Richard II. chap. 5. is confirmed; and 'the party 'grieved againſt the form of that ſtatute ſhall (by action 'upon his caſe) recover double damages againſt the proſe-'cutor in the admiralty, and the proſecutor ſhall alſo for-'feit 10 l. to the king." By the 5th of Elizabeth, chap. 5. p. 30. "The offences beforementioned, which hereafter ſhall be done upon the main ſea, or coaſt of the ſea being no part of the body of any county, and without the juriſdiction of the Cinque ports, and out of any haven, or pier, ſhall be tried and determined before the admiral." We have already obſerved, in the beginning of the article of the ADMIRALTY of Great-Britain, that by the ſtatute 2 Will. & Mar. the juriſdiction and powers of the lord high admiral belong to the commiſſioners of the admiralty.

Appeals from the admiralty are to a court of delegates, appointed by the commiſſion, whoſe ſentence is final. 8 Eliz. chap. 5. From inferior admiralty-courts, the appeals lie to the lord high admiral, or lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, in this court: but the warden of the Cinque Ports is ſupreme admiral within his own juriſdiction. 5 Elizabeth. Piracies and felonies, committed within the admiral's juriſdiction, may be tried at ſea, or on land, according to the court of the admiralty. 2 Will. & Mar. ſeſſ. 2. chap. 2.

Perſons in actual ſervice and pay aboard his majeſty's ſhips of war, committing any of the crimes mentioned in the 13th Car. II. chap. 9. upon the ſhore in foreign parts, may be tried and puniſhed for the ſame, as if the offences had been committed on the main ſea, or on board any ſhips or veſſels of war. 6 Geo. chap. 19.

Within the cognizance of this juriſdiction are all affairs that particularly concern the lord high admiral, or any of his officers, as ſuch; all matters relating to the navies of the kingdom, the veſſels of trade, and the owners thereof, as ſuch; all affairs relating to mariners, whether ſhip-officers or common ſeamen, their rights and privileges reſpectively; their office and duty; their wages; their offences, whether by wilfulneſs, caſualty, ignorance, negligence, or inſufficiency, with their puniſhments: alſo all affairs of commanders at ſea, and their under officers, with their reſpective duties, privileges, immunities, offences, and puniſhments. In like manner, all matters that concern owners and proprietors of ſhips, as ſuch; and all maſters, pilots, ſteerſmen, boatſwains, and other officers; all ſhipwrights, fiſhermen, ferrymen, and the like: alſo all cauſes of ſeizures and captures made at ſea, whether jure belli publici, or jure belli privati, by way of reprizal, or nullo jure, by way of piracy. Likewiſe, all charter-parties, cocquets, bills of lading, ſea commiſſions, letters of ſafe conduct, factories, invoices, ſkippers rolls, inventories, and other ſhip-papers. Alſo all cauſes of freight, mariners wages, load-manage, port-charges, pilotage, anchorage, and the like: alſo all cauſes of maritime contracts indeed, or, as it were, contracts, whether upon or beyond the ſeas; all cauſes of money lent to ſea, or upon the ſea, called fœnus nauticum, pecunia trajectitia, uſura maritima, bomary money, the groſs adventure, and the like. All cauſes of pawning, hypothecating, or pledging, of the ſhip itſelf, or any part thereof, or her lading, or other things, at ſea; all cauſes of jactus, or caſting goods overboard; and contributions either for redemption of ſhip or lading, in caſe of ſeizure by enemies or pirates, or in caſe of goods damnified, or diſburdening of ſhips, or other chances, with average: alſo all cauſes of ſpoil, depredations at ſea, robberies and piracies; alſo all cauſes of naval conſort ſhips, whether in

war or peace; inſurance, mandates, procurations, payments, acceptilations, diſcharges, loans, or oppignorations, emptions, venditions, conventions, taking or letting to freight, exchanges, partnerſhips, factorage, paſſage-money, and whatever is of a maritime nature, either by way of navigation; upon the ſeas, or of negotiation at or beyond the ſea, in the way of marine trade and commerce: alſo, the nautic right which maritime perſons have in ſhips, their apparel, tackle, furniture, lading, and all things pertaining to navigation; likewiſe all cauſes of outredders, or outriggers, furniſhers, hirers, freighters, owners, and part-owners, of ſhips, as ſuch. Alſo all cauſes of privileged ſhips or veſſels in his majeſty's ſervice, or his letters of ſafe-conduct: all cauſes of ſhipwreck at ſea, flotſon, jetſon, lagan, waifs, deodands, treaſure-trove, and fiſhes royal, with the lord admiral's ſhares, and the finders reſpectively. Alſo all cauſes touching maritime offences, or miſdemeanors; ſuch as cutting the buoy-rope, or cable, removal of an anchor, whereby any veſſel is moored, the breaking the lord admiral's arreſt, made either upon perſons, goods, or ſhip; breaking arreſts on ſhips for the king's ſervice, being puniſhable with confiſcation, by the ordinance made at Grinſby in the time of Rich. I. mariners abſenting themſelves from the king's ſervice after their being impreſſed, impleading upon a contract, or in a maritime cauſe elſewhere than in the admiralty, contrary to the ordinance made at Haſtings by Edward I, and contrary to the laws and cuſtoms of the admiralty of England. Foreſtalling of corn, fiſh, *&c.* on ſhip-board; regrating and exaction of water-officers; the appropriating the benefit of ſalt-water to private uſe, excluſively to others, without his majeſty's licence: kiddles, wears, blind-ſtakes, water-mills, and the like, to the obſtruction of navigation in great rivers: falſe weights or meaſures on ſhip-board: concealing of goods found about the dead within the admiral's juriſdiction, or flotſons, jetſons, lagans, waifs, deodands; fiſhes royal, or other things, wherein the king's majeſty, or his lord admiral, have intereſt. Exceſſive wages claimed by ſhipwrights, mariners, *&c.* maintainers, abettors, receivers, concealers, or comforters, of pirates: tranſporting prohibited goods without licence; draggers of oyſters and muſcles at unſeaſonable times, *viz.* between May-day and Holyrood-day; deſtroyers of the brood or young fry of fiſh: ſuch as claim wreck to the prejudice of the king or lord admiral: ſuch as unduly claim privileges in a port: diſturbers of the admiral's officers in execution of the court-decrees: water-bailiffs and ſearchers not doing their duty: corruption in any of the admiral-court officers: importers of unwholſome victuals to the people's prejudice: freights of ſtrangers veſſels contrary to the law: tranſporters of priſoners, or other prohibited perſons, not having letters of ſafe-conduct from the king, or his lord admiral: caſters of ballaſt into ports or harbours, to the prejudice thereof: unſkilful pilots, whereby ſhip or man periſh: unlawful nets, or other prohibited engines for fiſh: diſobeying of embargoes, or going to ſea contrary to the prince's command, or againſt the law: furniſhing the ſhips of enemies, or the enemy with ſhips: all prejudice done to the banks of navigable rivers, or to docks, wharfs, keys, or any thing whereby ſhipping may be endangered, navigation obſtructed, or trade by ſea impeded: alſo embezzlements of ſhip-tackle or furniture; all obſtructions of mariners wages; all defrauding of his majeſty's cuſtoms, or other duties at ſea; all prejudices done to or by paſſengers on ſhip-board, and all damages done by one ſhip or veſſel to another; alſo going to ſea in tempeſtuous weather, ſailing in devious places, or among enemies, pirates, rocks, or other dangerous places, not being neceſſitated thereto: all clandeſtine attempts, by making private cork-holes in the veſſel, or otherwiſe, with intent to deſtroy or endanger the ſhip. Alſo the ſhewing of falſe lights by night, either on ſhore or in fiſhing veſſels, or the like, on purpoſe to intice ſailors to the hazard of their veſſels: all wilful or purpoſed entertaining of unſkilful maſters, pilots, or mariners, or ſailing without a pilot, or in leaky or inſufficient veſſels: likewiſe overburdening the ſhip above her birth-mark, and all ill ſtowage of goods on ſhip-board; all importation of contraband goods, or exportation of goods to prohibited ports, or the places not deſigned; together with a great many other things, relating to the ſtate or condition of perſons maritime, their rights, their duties, or their defaults.

Observations relative to commercial and marine affairs.

It muſt be obſerved, that the juriſdiction of the court of admiralty is ſometimes interrupted by a writ, which in our law is called a prohibitio, and may be properly defined to be, "A writ, forbidding to hold plea in any matter or cauſe, ſuppoſed to be without the juriſdiction and cognizance of the court where the ſuit depends."

But, in all caſes where the admiralty have legally an original or concurrent juriſdiction, the courts of common law will be well informed, before they will take cognizance of them. We ſhall give ſome of the principal caſes relating to the juriſdiction of the admiralty, as to matters cognizable there, or at common law.

If a man be in cuſtody for piracy, if any aids or aſſiſts him in his eſcape, though that matter is an offence at land, yet the admiralty, having juriſdiction to puniſh the principal, may have likewiſe power to puniſh ſuch an offender, who is looked on as an acceſſary to the piracy; but, to reſcue a priſoner from an officer of theirs, they may examine the cauſe, but they cannot proceed criminally againſt the offender.

Mariners may join and ſue in the admiralty for wages, which is an indulgence; and was granted, becauſe the remedy in the admiralty was eaſier and better than at common law; eaſier becauſe they muſt ſever here, but may join there; and better, becauſe the ſhip itſelf is anſwerable. Yet it was never allowed the maſter ſhould ſue there; nor is it reaſonable, where he commenceth the voyage as maſter; for, tho' the mariners contract upon the credit of the ſhip, the maſter doth contract on the credit of the owners. Lord Raymond 397.

But yet the mate may ſue in the admiralty for his wages, becauſe he contracts with the maſter, as the reſt of the mariners do. Lord Raymond 632.

If a ſhip rides at anchor in the ſea, and the maſter ſends his boat on ſhore for victuals, or other proviſions for the ſhip, and accordingly the ſlop-ſeller brings victuals and proviſions; in that caſe, if the contract be made there, it muſt be ſued for in the admiralty: but, if the goods are by the purſer or mariners contracted for at land, they muſt ſue at common law.

But a ſuit in the admiralty for ſeamen's wages, grown due in the river, though no voyage made, was not prohibited. Lord Raymond 1044.

If a fault be committed in any port, haven, river, creek, or any place within the body of a county, the common law ſhall have juriſdiction to anſwer the party damnified; but if the ſame be committed on the high ſea, the admiralty ſhall have juriſdiction of it; and, if it be on a place where there is diviſum imperium, then according to the flux or reflux the admiralty may challenge.

Trials are to be where original contracts were made, which if in England, though the ſubſequent matter to be done be upon the ſea, the trial ſhall be at the common law. But if the contract and what is to be done, all of it, is beyond ſea, it cannot be tried at law here, but in the admiralty; but if part be done here, and part beyond ſea, ſo as it is mixed, then it ſhall be tried at law. As an action upon the caſe*, upon a policy of aſſurance made at London, that a ſhip ſhould ſail from Melcomb Regis, in the county of Dorſet, to Abville in France, ſafely, &c. And the plaintiff declared, that the ſhip, in ſailing towards Abville, *viz.* in the river Soame in France, was arreſted by the king of France, *&c.* and the iſſue was, whether the ſhip was ſo arreſted or not; the trial was by Niſi Prius [illegible] reſolved to be well brought; though 'twas objected, [illegible] iſſue, ariſing merely from a place out of the realm, could not be tried at law, for the aſſumpſit †, being at London, was the ground and foundation of the action, and therefore ſhall be tried here, for otherwiſe it could not be tried at all. Cited in Dowdale's caſe, 6 Rep. 47. 6. Godbolt, 76 and 204.

* Action upon the caſe, is a general action, given for the redreſs of a wrong done any man without force, and not eſpecially provided for by law. This, of all others, is now moſt in uſe—Where there ariſes an occaſion of ſuit, that has neither a fit name, nor certain form already preſcribed; the clerks of the Chancery, antiently conceived a proper form of action for the thing in queſtion: which was called an action upon the caſe, by the civilians actio in factum.

† Aſſumpſit, is a voluntary promiſe made by word, whereby a man aſſumeth, or taketh upon him, to perform or pay any thing unto another. This word included any verbal promiſe made upon conſideration, which the civilians expreſs by divers words, according to the nature of the promiſe, calling it ſometimes pactum, ſometimes ſponſionem, ſometimes promiſſionem, pollicitationem, conſtitutum.

And ſo if a contract be made at land, though beyond ſea, the trial ſhall be at law, though what is to be done be all of it beyond ſea, by laying the contract made at a place in England; as in Bourdeaux apud Iſlington in Com. Middleſex. So is the caſe of Slaney and Cloberry againſt Cotton, where the plaintiff ſued the defendant in the admiralty-court, upon a promiſe made in Barbary, to ſail from Sirborona in Barbary to Ricumpta in Brazil, *&c.* Upon ſuggeſtion that the contract was made in London, prohibition was granted: for the performance of the conſideration does not give the action, without the contract; and this was made at land, though beyond the ſeas, which may be ſuppoſed to be done in a place in England. 2 Rolls Rep. 486. See Tucker and Cuff's caſe in the ſame book, 492 and 497, and 2 Brow. 10, 11.

A contract was made at Newcaſtle, that a ſhip ſhould ſail from Yarmouth to Amſterdam; a debt was brought upon this contract in the court of Newcaſtle; adjudged that the action would not lie there, being a limited juriſdiction, which ſhall not have cognizance of any matters done in partibus tranſmarinis, but only the courts at Weſtminſter. March's Rep. 3. If one libel in the court of admiralty for a thing done upon the land, and it appeareth upon the libel that the thing

was done upon the land, and they, notwithſtanding that, hold plea of it, a præmunire * lieth upon it; but, if the ſame do not appear within the libel, then it is not within the 13 of Rich. II. cap. 5. and 15 of Rich. II. cap. 3. but a prohibition ſhall only iſſue. 2 Leon. 183.

* Præmunire, is taken either for a writ ſo called, from the words therein, præmunire facias, or præmonere facias, &c. ſignifying to forewarn, or bid the offender take heed, or it is the offence on which the writ is granted.

A Dutch ſhip was broken by a great tempeſt in a creek of the ſea, infra corpus comitatus de Dorſet; the ſailors, upon pretence that the goods in the ſhip were bona peritura, procured a commiſſion of ſale out of the admiralty-court to ſell them; and the true owners, to prevent ſuch ſale, brought a ſuperſedeas *; and, upon ſhewing the libel to the court, a prohibition was granted. (1.) Becauſe the cauſe of action accrued infra corpus comitatus. (2.) Becauſe the ſale of the goods was good, as bona peritura. Calmer againſt Brand. 2 Sid. 81.

* Superſedeas, is a writ in divers caſes, and ſignifies in general a command to ſtay, or forbear the doing of that which ought not to be done, or in appearance of law were to be done, were it not for that whereon the writ is granted.
Thus a man regularly is to have ſurety of peace againſt him of whom he will ſwear he is afraid, and the juſtice required hereunto cannot deny him; yet if the party be formerly bound to the peace, either in Chancery, or elſewhere, this writ lies, to ſtay the juſtice from doing that which otherwiſe he ought not to deny.

One having taken a ſhip as prize, which had bona peritura, entered into recognizance with ſureties before the judges delegate, to bring the money raiſed by ſale of the goods in the admiralty-court before ſuch a day, if they, upon a plaint there depending, did not adjudge the ſhip and goods to be lawful prize; which they adjudged lawful prize; and after, at another time, cited the owner before the judges of the admiralty, and, for his not coming and bringing the money at the day, they threatened to ſue execution againſt the bail or ſureties, who were merchants of London; upon which prohibition was prayed; for, by their firſt judgment or ſentence, their recognizance was diſcharged, and they ought not, by colour of this, to endanger the credit of men of reputation; but the court would not grant a prohibition, for they ſaid an unjuſt ſentence of the admiralty, in a cauſe of which they have original conuſance, is not a cauſe of prohibition. 2 Sid. 152. Becks v. Chelſcoke.

In the caſe of Sir Richard Hawkins, vice-admiral of the county of Devon, who was proſecuted in the Star-chamber, for abetting and comforting Hull, and other notorious pirates. It was there reſolved that, by the common law, the admirals ought not to meddle with any thing done within the realm, but only with things done upon the ſea; and alſo by the ſtatute of 13 Rich. II. cap. 5. 2 Hen. IV. cap. 11. It was likewiſe reſolved, that the ſaid ſtatutes are to be intended to hold plea, and not of a power to award execution; for the judge of the admiralty, notwithſtanding theſe ſtatutes, may do execution within the body of the county.

Where one admits the juriſdiction of the admiralty by pleading there, no prohibition ſhall be granted. Jennings againſt Audley, 2 Brow. 30. 12 Rep. 77. Therefore, on a motion for a prohibition in a ſuit for ſeamen's wages there, the ſuggeſtion was, that the court below refuſed to allow the defendants allegation; that the place, where the plaintiffs intitled themſelves, was not a port of delivery: this is no foundation for a prohibition; if any thing, it muſt be an appeal.

Cradock bought divers things within the body of the county, which concerned the furniſhing a ſhip, as cordage, &c. the vender ſued him in the admiralty-court; a prohibition was granted, 2 Brow. 37. Cradock's caſe, Owen 122. 3 Keeble 552. Merryweather againſt Mountford. Note, No appeal from the admiralty before a definitive ſentence. Lord Raymond 1248.

The defendant being maſter of a ſhip, of which the plaintiff was owner, the ſhip was taken by pirates upon the ſea; and, to redeem himſelf and the ſhip, he contracted with the pirate to pay him 50l. and pawned his perſon for it; the pirate carried him to the iſle of Scilly, and there he paid it with money borrowed, and gave bond for the money at his return; after the redemption both of the ſhip and himſelf, he ſued in the admiralty for the 50l. and had a ſentence for it, and thereupon a prohibition to the admiralty was prayed, but denied; becauſe the original cauſe began upon the ſea, and whatever followed was but acceſſary and conſequential. Hard. 183. Prohibition was granted to the admiralty-court, on the 22d and 23d Car. II. cap. 26. ſect. II. in ſuit there, for the forfeit of a ſhip on ſelling wares in Ireland without breaking bulk, being put into Ireland from America, by contrary winds, this being triable in the plantations, or any court of record in Weſtminſter. Pidgeon con. Trent, 3 Keeble 640, 647, 651.

A maſter of a ſhip agreed with certain merchants concerning a voyage, and received orders from them to lay in proviſions of meat and drink, and to provide mariners, &c. and, after the voyage was finiſhed, the merchants refuſed to pay the maſter of the ſhip what they had agreed for; upon which he libelled againſt them in the admiralty; prohibition was granted upon the ſtatute of 2 Rich. II. cap. 3. the contract being upon land, and denied the caſe, Hill, 8 Car. I. Cro. 296. which ſaith, that when a thing is in it's nature maritime, as in the caſes of mariner's wages, the admiralty ſhall have the conuſance of it. Woodward againſt Bouiſhan, Raymond 3 and 3 Levinz 60. Coke againſt Cretcher, &c. 2 Vent. 181.

If a contract or obligation be made upon the ſea, yet, if it be not for a cauſe marine, the ſuit upon this ſhall be at common law, not in the admiralty. Hob. 11.

If the original contract be made at ſea on a marine cauſe, and after reduced into writing at land, the common law, not admiralty, ſhall have the conuſance. Hob. 79, 212. Palmer againſt Pope.

If a charter-party be made in England to do certain things in divers places upon the ſea, though that no act is to be done in England, but all upon the ſea, yet no ſuit ſhall be in the admiralty for non-performance of the agreement; for the contract is the original, and is out of their juriſdiction; and where part is triable at common law, and part in the admiralty, the common law ſhall be preferred. Maldonado and Slaney 1 Roll. Abr. 532, 533.

A contract laid to be made intra fluxum & refluxum maris, &c. is well enough laid to give the admiralty a juriſdiction: it was upon the high ſeas when the water was at high-water mark, and it might be at land when the water was at low-water mark. In that caſe, there is diviſum imperium between the common law, and admiralty juriſdiction. Lord Raymond, 1453.

It was moved for a prohibition to the admiralty, becauſe the libel was to execute a ſentence of the Alcade, which is the admiralty at Malaga in Spain, upon a thing done within a port there, and, after a rule for a prohibition Niſi, 'twas moved that no prohibition ſhould be; for though this court will not execute the ſentences of any foreign court, inaſmuch that it is governed by a diſtinct law, yet theſe of the admiralty may, and it is their uſe to do ſo; for this, that all the admiralty-courts in Europe proceed by the ſame law *viz.* the civil law, and Wibrel and Wiat's caſe, 5 Jac. was cited to be adjudged accordingly. But, upon reading the libel in the principal caſe, it appears that the ſentence was not definitive, but interlocutory, concerning a matter that ſounds as an action upon the caſe, and no ſum ſet; and alſo the Alcade is not as an admiralty there, and for this a prohibition was granted. Jurado and Gregory, 1 Sid. 418. 1 Levinz 267. 1 Vent. 32, and 2 Keeble 512, 610.

Motion for prohibition to the admiralty, for that they libelled againſt one for reſcuing a ſhip, and taking away the ſails from one that was executing the proceſs of the court againſt the ſaid ſhip, and for that, in the preſence of the judge and face of the court, he aſſaulted and beat one, and ſpake many opprobrious words againſt him. Now, ſeeing that theſe matters were determinable at law, the ſhip being intra corpus comitatus, and they could not adjudge damages to the party, or fine, or impriſon, a prohibition was prayed, but denied; for they may puniſh one that reſiſts the proceſs of their court, and may fine and impriſon for a contempt, though they are no court of record; but, if they ſhould proceed to give damages, they would grant a prohibition as to that. Sparkes, &c. againſt Martin, 1 Vent. 1. The ſame doctrine Lord Raymond's Rep. 446. and 1 Vent. is there cited.

Suit in the admiralty, the defendant pleaded the ſtatute of limitation; if that court deny the plea, prohibition will be granted; or if they do receive the plea, but will not give ſentence accordingly, prohibition will go. Hardreſs 502. Berkly and Morris.

A prohibition prayed to the admiralty, where there was a libel for a ſhip taken by pirates, and carried to Tunis, and there ſold, for that it did not appertain to the court to try the property of the ſhip being ſold upon land. In regard it was taken by pirates, it is originally within the admiral juriſdiction, and ſo continues, notwithſtanding the ſale afterwards upon the land. Otherwiſe, where the ſhip is taken by enemies, for that alters the property. Contrary to Lord Hobart in the Spaniſh ambaſſador's caſe, 78. 1 Vent. 308. 3 Cro. 685.

After ſentence in the admiralty-court for the ſeizing of a ſhip, trover and converſion at law will not lie. Beake contra Thynwhitt, Laws of the ſea, 425.

Caſe upon the ſtatutes of 13 Rich. II. c. 5. 15 Rich. II. c. 3. and 2 Hen. IV. c. 11. for ſuing in the admiralty for matters done upon land. The ſhip of the plaintiff was arreſted in the port of London, with goods going to the Eaſt-Indies, by which the plaintiff loſt the profit of his voyage. The Eaſt-India company having an excluſive charter, by the ſtatute 13 Car. II. petitioned the king in council to ſtay the ſhip, and an order was made to the admiralty to ſtay the ſhip by their proceſs, which was iſſued accordingly; all which was done by the defendants as agents of the company, and they, as agents, paid the fees of the proſecution; and, if guilty, damages for the plaintiff in duplo 1500l. and ſo upon arraignment judgment for the plaintiff, and an error affirmed. Sands againſt Sir Joſias Child and others. 3 Levinz 351. A like caſe, 1 Vent. 47. Home againſt Ivie.

ADMIRALTY is alſo ſaid of the juriſdiction or court in France, where juſtice is adminiſtered in the name and under the authority of the admiral. The admiralty general of France ſit at the bench of the marble-table, in the hall or court of Paris, every Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday in the week; it is compoſed of a lieutenant general who preſides, a particular lieutenant, three counſellors, the king's advocate and ſollicitor, a chief regiſter, or ſecretary, and two uſhers or ſerjeants. All theſe officers, as well as thoſe of the general and particular courts of admiralty, eſtabliſhed in the ports and harbours of the kingdom, are appointed by the admiral, but they muſt have their commiſſions from the king.

The juriſdiction of the judges of the admiralty, has been regulated by Title II. of Book I. of the Ordonnance of the Marine, or Navy, of the month of Auguſt, 1681. That title comprehends the fifteen following articles.

I. The judges of the admiralty ſhall take cognizance, excluſively of all others, and between all perſons, of what quality ſoever they be, even privileged perſons, natives or foreigners, both plaintiffs and defendants, in all matters relating to the building, rigging, tackle, arming, victualling, manning, ſale, and adjudication of ſhips.

II. We declare to belong to their cognizance all actions ariſing from charter-parties, freights, bills of lading, carriage or paſſage, dues, lifting and wages of ſeamen, and the proviſions to be allowed them, whilſt the veſſels are fitting out; as alſo from policies of inſurance, bonds for money ventured on the ſhip's bottom, or for their return from the voyage, and generally from all contracts relating to commerce by ſea, notwithſtanding any exemption or privileges to the contrary.

III. They ſhall alſo take cognizance of prizes taken at ſea, wrecks of all kinds, of goods thrown overboard, and contribution for them, of averages, and damages ſuſtained by the ſhips or cargoes, together with the inventories, and delivery of goods left on board by ſuch as die at ſea.

IV. They ſhall likewiſe have cognizance of the duties for paſſes, thirds, tenths, buoys, anchorage, and other duties belonging to the admiral; as alſo of thoſe which ſhall be raiſed or claimed by lords, or other private perſons dwelling near the ſea, for fiſhing, or for fiſh, or for merchandizes or ſhips departing from, or entering into, ports.

V. The cognizance of fiſhing either at ſea, in ſalt lakes, or at the mouths of rivers, ſhall alſo be veſted in them, as likewiſe that of incloſed fiſhing-places, of the nature of nets, of ſales and bargains of fiſh, in boats, upon the ſtrands, and in ports and harbours.

VI. They ſhall, beſides, have the cognizance of the damages done by ſhipping to incloſed fiſheries, even in navigable rivers, and of thoſe which veſſels may receive from ſuch fiſheries, as alſo of the ways allowed for the towage of ſhips, coming from the ſea, if there be no regulation, title, or cuſtom to the contrary.

VII. They ſhall alſo take cognizance of damages done to keys, moles, banks, paliſadoes, and other works built for ſtaying the violence of the ſea, and take care that the ports and harbours be preſerved in their due depth and cleanneſs.

VIII. They ſhall cauſe drowned bodies to be taken up, and ſhall draw up accounts of the condition of dead corpſes found at ſea, upon the ſands, or in ports, and even of ſeamen drowned in working their veſſels in navigable rivers.

IX. They ſhall aſſiſt at the muſters and reviews of the inhabitants of the pariſhes which are obliged to watch the coaſts, and ſhall take cognizance of all the differences that may ariſe on occaſion of ſuch watch, as alſo of the offences committed by thoſe who are to guard the coaſt, during the time of their continuing under arms.

X. They ſhall, moreover, take cognizance of piracies, plunders, and deſertions of ſhips crews, and in general, of all crimes and offences committed at ſea, or in ports, harbours, and on ſhore.

XI. They ſhall admit all maſter ſhip-carpenters, rope-makers, ſail-makers, maſt-makers, and other artificers, who work only in the conſtruction of veſſels, maſts, and riggings, in ſuch places where there are free companies of theſe different trades, and ſhall take cognizance of the offences committed in the reſpective trades.

XII. The remiſſions granted to ſoccagers for crimes cognizable by the officers of the admiralty, ſhall be referred to, and adjudged by, the courts of the admiralty, from which there lies no appeal but to our courts of parliament.

XIII. The officers of general courts of the admiralty, at the marble-table, ſhall take cognizance in the firſt inſtance of all matters, as well civil as criminal, contained in this preſent ordinance, when there ſhall be no particular courts in the places where ſuch matters ſhall occur; and by appeal, except in caſes of corporal puniſhment, in which caſes our ordinance of the year 1670 ſhall be obſerved.

XIV. They ſhall have power to call up before them, from inferior judges, cauſes exceeding 3000 livres in value, when the matter ſhall have been laid before them by appeal from a decree or interlocutory ſentence, given in the firſt inſtance.

XV. We prohibit all provoſts, judges of caſtlewards, viguiers, bailiffs, ſeneſchals, preſidials, and other ordinary judges, judge-conſuls, and commiſſaries, perſons holding the courts of requeſts of our houſhold and court of juſtice, and our great council, to take any cognizance of the above-mentioned caſes, circumſtances, and dependencies. We alſo prohibit our courts of parliament to take cognizance of them in the firſt inſtance; and all merchants, mariners, and others, to proceed before thoſe courts for ſuch matters, upon pain of being fined arbitrarily.

Here follows the regulation made by the admiralty in France, eſtabliſhed at the marble-table in the Juſtice-hall at Paris, the 29th of Auguſt, 1673. This regulation is compoſed of 12 articles, which, with the king's good-will and pleaſure, ought to be followed in all proceedings, and pleas relating to differences and ſuits brought before the admiralty.

I. The court ſhall ſit every Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday, in the week, from 10 o'clock in the forenoon till 12; and, in caſe one of theſe days ſhall be holy-day, the court ſhall ſit the next day.

II. The ſummons, or writs, to appear with regard to ſuch parties as have their dwellings at Paris, or who ſhall have choſen a fixed dwelling-place, by themſelves, or their attornies or agents, ſhall be made returnable in three days, within which are comprehended the day on which the ſummons is iſſued out, and the day of appearance; and, with regard to aliens, or perſons having no fixed dwelling-place, in caſes of appeal, the uſual delays ſhall be obſerved.

III. In ſuch caſes, however, where there might be ſome danger in delays, the ſummons ſhall be delivered from day to day, by virtue of an order written at the bottom of a petition, which for that purpoſe ſhall be preſented by the party, and ſigned by his attorney or ſollicitor.

IV. On the day of appearance, the cauſe ſhall be brought before the court, and, for want of appearance in either of the parties, a verdict, or ſentence, of default, ſhall paſs in behalf of the plaintiff, with coſt of ſuit, and his complaint be judged juſt and equitable (in caſe the defendant does not appear) and likewiſe a ſentence with coſt in behalf of the defendant (in caſe the plaintiff does not appear) the attorney having firſt taken a minute of it, in court, of which a deed ſhall be given to him in writing, and mentioned alſo in the ſentence; which ſentence, however, may be reverſed in the ſame ſitting of the court; and, in ſuch a caſe, no deed ſhall be delivered.

V. The parties, appearing in perſon before the court, ſhall be admitted, if they think fit, to plead their own cauſe, without the aſſiſtance of a council or attorney.

VI. The party, condemned for want of appearance, ſhall be at liberty to ſue in oppoſition, within eight days from the date of the ſummons, by refunding the coſt, which of right ſhall be determined to the ſum of four livres.

VII. The oppoſition ſhall be admitted, whether it be made by a petition, or by a ſingle deed, ſigned by the attorney.

VIII. Three days after the oppoſition, including the day on which it was notified, and that of its expiration, it ſhall be brought before the court, without any further delay, provided the petitoner did ſet down in the ſummons of notification the day on which he intended to bring it before the court.

IX. After the firſt oppoſition, if the oppoſer is caſt by default, it ſhall not be in his power to bring in a ſecond oppoſition, under what pretence ſoever; but he may have a remedy by an appeal, which ſhall not be turned into an oppoſition, but with the conſent of all parties concerned.

X. In caſe the defendant in an oppoſition does not appear before the court, on the day appointed to anſwer the oppoſition, a ſentence of default ſhall be given againſt him, for the profit of which the plaintiff ſhall be allowed to put in his claim as opponent; and, with regard to the chief point, the parties ſhall be referred to the next ſitting of the court, for a deciſive and final ſentence.

XI. The ſummons and other proceedings ſhall not be notified but by the tip-ſtaffs belonging to that court.

XII. It is ordered, by this laſt article, that theſe regulations ſhall be publiſhed, the court ſitting, and notified to the regiſter of the ſociety of the advocates and attornies of the parliament, and to the regiſter of the court of inſurances at Paris.

The ADMIRALTY of Holland. The admiralty of the States General of the United Provinces is divided into five colleges, which are thoſe of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Hoorn, Middleburgh, and Harlingen.

Each college has its particular officers; namely, an advocate-fiſcal, a receiver-general, a commiſſary-general, ſeveral ſecretaries and regiſters, an overſeer of the ſailors, a commiſſioner of ſales, a treaſurer-paymaſter, a grand provoſt, and many officers for the inſpection of paſſports, and the receipt of duties.

That the reader may have a more complete notion of all theſe colleges, and of their rights, privileges, and functions, we ſhall give a particular account of that of Amſterdam, which will be ſufficient to make the others known.

The college of Amſterdam is compoſed of 12 lords, called counſellors of the admiralty. Of theſe 12 lords, one is deputed by the nobility of Holland, one by the city of Amſterdam, one by that of Leyden, one by Haerlem, one by

Gouda, and one by Eadam. The other ſix are choſen by the other provinces; viz. Guelderland, Zealand, Utrecht, Groningen, with the Ommelanden and Overyſſel.

Theſe lords of the admiralty have the right of taking cognizance of all the caſes that happen in reſpect to the frauds, malverſations, and contraventions committed againſt the placarts and ordinances relating to the navy; as well concerning the duties of export and import of merchandize, as to take care that the prohibitions relating to contraband goods be obſerved; upon all which caſes they paſs ſentence ſummarily and ſovereignly; excepting, however, ſuch civil matters in which the ſum in diſpute amounts to above 600 florins: in theſe caſes a man may remove the cauſe by appeal, before the States General, and have a rehearing of it.

Paſſes muſt alſo be taken out from the admiralty, and they are diſtributed in the chambers, or offices, which are called ſimply convoys; and this is alſo the name given to the duties of export and import, paid on merchandizes. At Amſterdam the convoy is kept in the prince's court, which is a great building, where the college of the admiralty ſits.

All the duties of import and export, paid by goods imported into, or exported from, the United Provinces, are paid to the admiralties; each college of which has its offices and officers for that purpoſe.

Thoſe of the college of Amſterdam are at the entrance of the city, on the ſide next the gate called Boorn. When boats go to, or return from, any ſhip, with merchandize, the officers have a right to viſit them, and examine whether they have not more goods on board than are contained in the paſs, in which caſe they may ſtop them; however, they are not allowed to break open or unpack any thing, before notice be given to the commiſſary-general.

ADRESSE, in commerce, ſignifies a direction to any one by letter or otherwiſe. My adreſſe is at Mr. ——— at Orleans, *&c.* that is to ſay, You will direct for me at ———

ADVANCE, an anticipation of time. Money paid by way of advance is money paid before goods are delivered, work done, or buſineſs performed.

To pay a note of hand, or bill, by advance, is to pay the value before it becomes due, for which a diſcount is uſually taken.

ADVANCE ſignifies alſo loan of money, or ſupplying with merchandize. I am upon advance with ſuch an one: that is, I have lent him conſiderable ſums; I have ſupplied him with abundance of goods, and do not know when I ſhall be reimburſed.

ADVANCE. In the terms of bills of exchange they ſay, advance for the drawer, when, upon a negotiated bill, the perſon who has negotiated it, receives above par upon it, that is, more than the ſum contained in it. On the contrary, they ſay, advance for the payer, and loſs for the drawer, when he, to whom the bill belongs, does not receive the full value of it.

To ADVANCE, to be at the expence of an undertaking, before the time arrives for being reimburſed. Abundance of money muſt be advanced in fitting out ſhips, before any returns come to hand; he has advanced all the coſts of that manufacture, *&c.*

To ADVANCE, ſignifies alſo to lend money, or ſupply a perſon with commodities. I have advanced abundance of money; I have ſupplied that merchant with abundance of goods, to ſupport him in his trade.

They ſay, to advance the payment, to ſignify to pay a bill before the time it has to run be elapſed. When the payment of a note of hand, or bill, is made, or advanced before it is due, it is always cuſtomary to allow diſcount for the time it is pre-advanced.

ADVENTURE, a term uſed in commerce by ſea, which the French ſeldom employ without adding to it the epithet groſſe; mettre de l'argent à la groſſe aventure, that is, to apply money in order to ſhare in the profits of ſhips.

The Engliſh, inſtead of adventure, vulgarly uſe the word venture for a ſmall parcel of goods, *&c.* ſent with a friend that goes to ſea, to any part of the world.

ADVENTURER. A merchant's ſhip is called an adventurer that goes to traffic within the limits of a grant to a trading company, without having obtained their permiſſion.

ADVENTURER, ſignifies alſo a perſon little or not known in public buſineſs, who boldly thruſts himſelf into affairs, and proves a trickſter: all prudent merchants ought to be well aware of ſuch perſons.

ADVENTURERS, ſo they call thoſe bold and enterprizing pirates, who join together againſt the Spaniards in the Weſt-Indies, and form enterprizes againſt them both by ſea and land, which would ſcarce be credible, if the French adventurers of St. Domingo had not in ſome ſenſe verified them, by the taking of Carthagena under Meſſieurs de Pointis and du Caſſe. The name more uſually given them is Buccaneers, though not ſo honourable. See BUCCANEERS.

Merchant-ADVENTURER, is a merchant that adventures his goods to ſea, and trades to foreign parts; ſo called, in diſtinction from ſuch as carry on only an inland or home trade.

ADVENTURERS, thoſe alſo are called ſo, who undertake either by themſelves, or in companies, the ſettlement of colonies and plantations in America; which diſtinguiſhes them from the planters, by the name of proprietors of ſuch lands, colonies, or plantations.

The latter are employed in planting and cultivating the lands, and the others lend their money, and hazard or adventure it, in hopes of the profits they are to receive thereby. Theſe are what, properly ſpeaking, are called in France, actionaries; the others, inhabitants, coloniſts, and grantees. In this ſenſe we find, in the collection of the charters of England, the adventurers and planters of Virginia, the adventurers and planters of New England, and ſo of the reſt; the charters granted for new colonies always diſtinguiſhing thoſe two kinds of parties concerned, and granting them different privileges.

ADVENTURINE, or AVENTURINE, a precious ſtone of a yellowiſh-brown colour, full of little ſpecks, which ſeem to be of gold. There are pretty fine pieces of it found in Bohemia, Sileſia, and different parts of France.

This ſtone takes the poliſh eaſily, but then it eaſily breaks. It is uſed in the fineſt inlaid works: ſnuff-boxes, patch-boxes, and watch-caſes, are alſo made of it.

There is a counterfeit adventurine made with the filings of braſs, and powdered glaſs (whilſt they are in fuſion over the fire) to which a yellow tincture is given; but the factitious adventurine never comes near the genuine and natural.

To ADVERTISE any thing that is loſt, or ſtolen, which the French call recommander une choſe perduë, is, with them, to ſend to all the merchants or traders, who might purchaſe the ſame, tickets or notes, containing a deſcription of the thing, its nature, quality, form, *&c.* that, in caſe it be be offered them to ſale, they may ſtop it, and give proper notice. This is much after the ſame manner as is practiſed here in London, with regard to any piece of plate that is loſt, of which notice is given to all the ſilverſmiths. But we generally advertiſe here in England, in the Gazette, or in any other of the printed news-papers. It is alſo cuſtomary in Holland to give notice by the public crier.

OBSERVATIONS.

Advertiſing in the news-papers, in regard to matters of trade and buſineſs, is now grown a pretty univerſal practice all over the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; and it ſeems to be a very natural way for men of buſineſs of any kind to communicate what they have to propoſe to the public. It is the way, indeed, by which the very government impart their intentions to the kingdom in general, the Gazette, printed and publiſhed by authority, being nothing more than a kind of public advertiſer, for the information of the whole community. The great trading and monied corporations practiſe the ſame, as being the beſt method of letting the public know their proceedings. And however mean and diſgraceful it was looked on a few years ſince, by people of reputation in trade, to apply to the public by advertiſements in the papers; at preſent, it ſeems to be eſteemed quite otherwiſe; perſons of great credit in trade experiencing it to be the beſt, the eaſieſt, and the cheapeſt method of conveying whatever they have to offer to the knowledge of the whole kingdom. See NEWS-PAPERS, their general utility, *&c.*

ADVICE, advertiſement, inſtruction given to a perſon concerning ſomething, that he did not know. To give advice is uſed to ſignify, the communicating to another, by letter, what paſſes. My correſpondent of Nantz has given me advice of ſuch a bankruptcy, *&c.*

The merchants of Provence ſometimes uſe the term adviſo, which they have adopted from Italy.

A letter of advice is a letter miſſive, by which a merchant, or banker, informs his correſpondents, that he has drawn a bill of exchange upon him; that his debtor's affairs are in a bad ſtate, or that he has ſent him a quantity of merchandize. To letters of advice concerning the ſending of goods, the invoice is uſually annexed. See INVOICE.

In regard to letters of advice for the payment of a bill of exchange, they ought to contain the name of the perſon for whoſe account it is drawn, the day, month, and year, the ſum drawn for, and the name of him from whom the value is received. It ought alſo to mention the perſon's name to whom it is payable, and the time when due; and, when bills of exchange expreſs the payment to order, that ought alſo to be ſpecified in the letter of advice.

A perſon may refuſe accepting a bill of exchange, when he has not had advice of it.

ADVICE, is alſo uſed for opinion, or counſel. This is my advice, or opinion. I have done nothing in this, but by the opinion and advice of the moſt ſkilful merchants.

To ADVISE (in trade) to advertiſe, acquaint, or give notice of any circumſtance relating to a perſon's affairs; as I adviſe you, that ſuch a banker does not appear upon our exchange; that ſuch a ſhip is arrived in our port.

To ADULTERATE, to mingle ſomething foreign to it's kind, with any ſubſtance, to debaſe any thing with bad ingredients; to adulterate or counterfeit the coin, is a capital crime in all nations.

AEM, or AAM, a liquid meaſure uſed at Amſterdam. See AAM.

AEM, AM, AME. This liquid meaſure, which is uſed almoſt all over Germany, is not the ſame as that of Amſterdam, though it has almoſt the ſame name; neither is it alike in all the cities of Germany. The ame commonly contains 20 vertels, or 80 maſſes. At Heidelburgh it is 12 vertels, and the vertel 4 maſſes, which reduces the ame to 48 maſſes: and in Wirtembergh the ame is 16 yunes, and the yune 10 maſſes; which makes the ame amount to 160 maſſes.

ÆSTUARY, in geography, an arm of the ſea, running up a good way into land.

ÆTHIOPS MINERAL, a compoſition of crude mercury, and common brimſtone, made by rubbing together an equal quantity of each, till they are incorporated into a black powder.

AFFA, a weight uſed on the gold-coaſt of Guinea. It is equal to an ounce, and the half of it is called eggeba. Moſt of the Blacks on the gold-coaſt give theſe names to thoſe weights.

AFFAIR, every kind of buſineſs and occupation, in which a perſon employs himſelf, or is concerned.

This term is much uſed in commerce, in which it has various ſignifications. Sometimes it is taken for bargain, purchaſe, contract, *&c.* but equally in a good or bad ſenſe, according to what is added by way of explanation. Thus they ſay: Such an one has made a fine affair of it; to ſignify, that he has gained much. And on the contrary: That he has a bad affair of it, when he has loſt conſiderably by a bargain, purchaſe, contract, *&c.*

Sometimes affairs are taken for a merchant's fortune, and in this ſenſe they ſay, he is very well in his affairs, when he is rich and at his eaſe, without debts, and poſſeſſed of a conſiderable fortune: and that he is ill in his affairs, when he has had great loſſes, and is much in debt.

AFFICHE, ſo the French call thoſe bills or advertiſements, which are paſted up in public places, to make any thing known.

The uſe of theſe public bills is very common in trade. They are put up for the ſale of merchandizes and of ſhips, and to inform the public of ſhips ſetting out for voyages, as is done upon the Royal Exchange of London. Theſe laſt contain the places to which they are bound, thoſe where they are to touch on their voyage, of what burthen or number of tons they are, how many guns they carry, and their number of men. It is alſo by theſe bills, that the French trading companies inform the public, of the quality and quantity of the ſtuffs, linnens, metals, drugs, ſpices, and other effects, which arrive on the return of their ſhips. The place of their arrival is uſually mentioned in them, with the day, and often the conditions of ſale. In a word, there are few things in trade, for which the French merchants may not ſometimes be obliged to have bills fixed up, though it were only to make known the new manufactures they are endeavouring to eſtabliſh, or even the change of their place of abode, in order to keep their cuſtomers.

It is not allowed at Paris to cauſe bills to be paſted up, upon any pretence whatſoever, without having firſt obtained the lieutenant-general de Police's permiſſion, or that of the ſuperior judges, according to the nature of the caſe.

AFFIDAVIT, an oath written and ſigned, and properly ſworn before ſome perſon legally authoriſed for that purpoſe.

As traders are frequently called on to make affidavits of one kind or other, they ſhould be made thoroughly ſenſible of the nature thereof.

It is defined by divines and moral philoſophers, a religious aſſertion, or aſſeveration, wherein a perſon invokes the Almighty, renounces all claim to his mercy, or even calls for the divine vengeance upon himſelf, if he ſpeaks falſly.—In a legal ſenſe it is a ſolemn action, whereby God is called to witneſs the truth of an affirmation.

REMARKS on the hardſhip of the frequency of oaths by trade.

There is nothing that has been more complained of, nor with more reaſon, by wiſe and good men in all ages, than the multiplying of oaths, more eſpecially among the trading part of mankind, in the ordinary courſe of their buſineſs. I ſpeak particularly with regard to cuſtom-houſe oaths, *&c.* which, I humbly apprehend, traders ſhould by no means be liable to; for although traders, who ſupport their reputation by their care, induſtry, and ability in buſineſs, are certainly as honeſt a claſs of men as any in the community; yet, as they are not impeccable, they have a natural right to be upon a level with the reſt of their fellow-ſubjects, and not to be under the neceſſity of ſwearing to every thing they do, or tranſact; which they are daily obliged to do, in reſpect to the revenue.

There is no order of men in the community, who labour under the like reſtrictions. Was the lawyer, the phyſician, or even the divine, to be obliged to ſwear to do rigorous juſtice, in all caſes where their intereſt is concerned, it is to be preſumed, that they might not be free from evil any more than traders are, in caſes where their intereſt is concerned:

ſuch a law, it is to be feared, would tend rather to render oaths uſeleſs, than to ſupport their ſolemnity.

'I have heard, ſays Mr. Locke, very ſober and obſerving perſons complain, of the danger men's lives and properties are in, by the frequency and faſhionableneſs of perjury amongſt us. Faith and truth, eſpecially in all occaſions of atteſting it upon the ſolemn appeal to heaven by an oath, is the great bond of ſociety: this it becomes the wiſdom of magiſtrates carefully to ſupport, and render as ſacred and awful in the minds of the people as they can.

'But if ever frequency of oaths ſhall make them to be looked on only as formalities of law, or the cuſtom of ſtraining truth (which men's ſwearing in their own caſes is apt to lead to) has once dipt men in perjury, and the guilt with the temptation has ſpread itſelf very wide, and made it faſhionable in ſome caſes, it will be impoſſible for the ſociety, theſe bonds being diſſolved, to ſubſiſt: all muſt break in pieces, and run to confuſion.

'That ſwearing in their own caſes is apt, by degrees, to lead men into as little regard of ſuch oaths, as they have of their ordinary talk, I think there is reaſon to ſuſpect from what has been obſerved in ſomething of that kind. Maſters of ſhips are a ſort of men generally induſtrious and ſober, and I ſuppoſe may be thought, for their number and rank, to be equally honeſt to any other ſort of men; and yet, by the diſcourſe I have had with merchants in other countries, I find, that they think, in theſe parts, they take a great liberty in their cuſtom-houſe oaths; to that degree, that I remember I was once told, in a trading town beyond ſea, of a maſter of a veſſel, there eſteemed a ſober and fair man, who yet could not hold ſaying, "God forbid that a cuſtom-houſe oath ſhould be a ſin."

'I ſay not this, to make any reflection upon a ſort of men that I think as uncorrupt as any other; and whom I am ſure ought in England to be cheriſhed and eſteemed, as the moſt induſtrious and moſt beneficial of any of its ſubjects. But I could not forbear to give this here as an inſtance, how dangerous a temptation it is, to bring men cuſtomarily to ſwear, where they may have any concernment of their own. And it will always be worthy the care and conſideration of law-makers, to keep up the opinion of an oath high and ſacred, as it ought to be in the minds of the people; which can never be done, where frequency of oaths, biaſſed by intereſt, has eſtabliſhed a neglect of them; and faſhion (which it ſeldom fails to do) has given countenance to what profit rewards.'

The Chineſe adminiſter juſtice with great rigour in all their tribunals. When any perſon commences a ſuit againſt another, he lays his claim in writing before the court of judicature, and the defendant gives in his defence in writing, which he ſigns, and which he is obliged publickly to hold up in court between his fingers.

Theſe two writings are delivered in together; and, being examined, ſentence is delivered in writing, and each party has his papers returned to him; but firſt they return the defendant his writing, that he may again acknowledge it.

When one party denies what the other affirms, he is ordered to return his writing; and if the defendant thinks he may do it ſafely, and accordingly delivers his papers a ſecond time, they alſo call for thoſe of the plaintiff, and then they ſay to him who denies what the other affirms, Make it appear that your antagoniſt has no right to demand of you what is in debate; but take notice, if he makes out what you deny, you ſhall undergo twenty ſtrokes of the bamboo upon the back-ſide, and pay a fine of twenty ſakuges, which make about two hundred dinars.

This bamboo puniſhment is ſuch, as the criminal could not ſurvive; it is ſo grievous, that no perſon in all China may, of his own authority, inflict it upon another, on pain of death, and confiſcation of his goods; ſo that nobody is ever ſo hardy as to expoſe himſelf to ſuch certain danger: wherefore juſtice is well adminiſtered to every one. They require no witneſs, nor do they put the parties upon oath; which is the chief reaſon for mentioning this cuſtom in China.

To collect the public revenue, therefore, without compelling traders to ſwear perpetually, was one great motive to Sir Matthew Decker, as I heard him declare, for propoſing his late ſcheme.

AFFINAGE, an action which purifies and refines any thing, to render it finer, neater, and better; as metals, ſugar, *&c.* Affinage is ſometimes uſed with us in law-books, for the refining of metals. See REFINING.

AFFIRMATION, is a poſitive allegation of any thing: the Quakers call giving their evidence, their affirmation, which they make upon the holy ſcriptures in courts of law. The French uſe affirmation to expreſs the oath taken in court, and the aſſurance given of the truth of any fact: this paſſes in the preſence of a judge, who makes the deponent hold up his hand, and ſwear, that the thing affirmed is true.

There is an article in the ordinance of 1673 in France, which requires an affirmation in certain caſes relating to bills of exchange: it is the XXI. of Title V. Its terms are as follow: "That bills of exchange ſhall be deemed to be diſcharged, after a ceſſation of demand, or ſuit for five years,

to reckon from the next day after they became due, or were proteſted, or from the laſt time of ſuing. However, the pretended debtors ſhall be held, if required, to make affirmation, that they are not further indebted; and their widows, heirs, aſſigns, or repreſentatives, that they actually believe, there is nothing due.

AFFREIGHTMENT. See FREIGHT.

AFIOUME (or FIUME) a kind of flax, which comes from Egypt, by the way of Marſeilles and Leghorn.

AFRICA, one of the four principal parts of the world. Afric, in its largeſt ſenſe, lies ſouth of Europe, and weſt of Aſia, and is bounded on the north by the Mediteranean, which parts it from the former; and on the eaſt by the Red Sea, which ſeparates it from the latter, to which it only joins by that ſmall iſthmus, or neck of land, which cuts off the communication between theſe two ſeas, and is commonly known by the name of Suez. On the ſouth and weſt, it is ſurrounded with the main ocean, ſo that it may be properly ſtiled a vaſt over-grown peninſula, joined only to the continent of Aſia by the iſthmus above-mentioned, which, if cut off, would make it by far the largeſt iſland in the world. It extends itſelf a prodigious way, not only on each ſide of the equinox, but of the two tropics likewiſe, the ſouthern verge of it reaching quite to the 35th degree of ſouthern, and the northern almoſt to the 37th of north latitude; whereby its utmoſt extent from north to ſouth, is almoſt 72 degrees, or about 4320 miles. From eaſt to weſt it reaches ſtill farther, viz. from 17 weſt to 60 eaſt, or 77 degrees of longitude, that is, 4620 miles.

Its ſituation for commerce is certainly beyond either of the other quarters of the world. It ſtands, as it were, in the center between the other three, and has thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any other quarter has with the reſt. For (1.) It is oppoſite Europe in the Mediterranean, for almoſt 1000 miles in a line eaſt and weſt, from beyond Tripoli to cape Spartel at the ſtreight's mouth; the diſtance ſeldom 100 miles, no where 100 leagues, and often not 20 leagues. (2.) It is oppoſite to Aſia for all the length of the Red Sea north and ſouth; the diſtance ſometimes being not above 5 leagues, ſeldom 50: and it fronts all the ſouthern coaſt of Aſia, viz. the coaſt of Cilicia, and that of India, though at a greater diſtance, yet much nearer than any other country. It is wonderfully accommodated for commerce, by the interpoſition of iſlands from Madagaſcar to Malabar; and more particularly by means of the alternate trade-winds, which render the navigation ſafe, eaſy, and conſtant. (3.) It alſo lies oppoſite to America, or about the diſtance of 500 to 700 leagues, including the iſlands, for a coaſt of above 2000 miles: whereas America no where joins Europe, except where it may be a terra incognita, under a diſtance of 1000 leagues, and not Aſia under that of 2500.

It is furniſhed with the greateſt and moſt convenient navigable rivers, and perhaps with as many of them, as any other of the chief parts of the world: ſuch are the Nile and Nubia on the north ſhore, running into the Mediterranean ſea; the Niger, or Rio Grand, running into the Atlantic ocean, on the weſt ſide of Africa; the Congo, the Zairi, and the Loango, three rivers of prodigious extent, ſouth of the line, which empty themſelves into the Ethiopic ocean on the ſame weſt ſide, but beyond the Gold-coaſt: alſo the Natal, the Prio St. Eſprit, the Melinda, and the Mozambo, all rivers of a very great length and breadth, which empty themſelves into the Indian ocean on the eaſt ſide of Africa.

Theſe are all rivers of the firſt magnitude; beſides which, there are innumerable others, which, though not equal to the former, are yet very noble ſtreams, fitted for navigation and commerce, and which by their long courſes penetrate far inland: and, was this country bleſſed with a people qualified for trade and buſineſs, they might become the medium of an endleſs commercial correſpondence.

The country is populous beyond credibility, the ſoil fruitful, the ſeaſon, for the greateſt part, mild and clement, and the air ſalubrious: and, if once a turn for induſtry and the arts was introduced among them, a greater quantity of the European produce and manufactures might be exported thither, than to any other country in the whole world. And, as the natives in general ſtand in great need of European commodities, ſo they have the moſt valuable returns to make for them. This the Europeans experience, from the ſhare of traffic they carry on with them at preſent.

To what a great degree this country abounds in gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueze, the Dutch, and the French, as well as Engliſh, who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but the vouchers of the moſt authentic hiſtorians.

There is no country in the world, ſays the hiſtorian Leo Africanus, richer in gold and ſilver, than the kingdoms in Africa; as thoſe of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Butua, Quiticui, Monomotopa, Cafati, and Mehenemugi. By means of ſettlements of ſtrength on the continent of Africa, adds he, the Europeans might, by the exchange of their commodities, draw into their hands all the gold of thoſe countries. And here is a prodigious number of elephants, which would not only facilitate the inland intercourſes of commerce, but alſo afford a very beneficial branch of traffic, in the teeth of theſe notable animals. In the ſame hiſtorian are numberleſs paſſages relating to thoſe rich mines, and ſhewing how eaſy it would be for the Europeans to carry on a very extenſive traffic with that part of the globe.

This account of the great treaſures of Africa is confirmed likewiſe by the Nubian geographer, who ſomewhere ſays, that the king of Guinea, the greateſt city in all the countries of Negroland, has a maſs of gold of thirty pounds weight, as it was naturally produced in the mines; which is completely pure, tough, and malleable, without having been ſmelted by the ordinary arts of refining that metal from its native ore. Father Labat, a modern French author, has deſcended to a very minute ſpecification of great variety of rich mines; which, he ſays, are very ſhamefully worked by the Negroes, by reaſon of their being totally ignorant of the nature of mining: nor have they ever yet come to the main vein of any of their mines.

The copper is the next valuable ore found in this part of the world. The quantity of this metal is not fully ſearched into, though there is great reaſon to believe it is exceeding great: ſo great, that it is commonly ſaid amongſt them, that the mountains which we call Atlas, are all copper. Thus much, however, is certain, that the quantity is extraordinary great, that is diſcovered in ſeveral countries diſtant and remote from each other; as in Fez, Tunis, and Abyſſinia, or Ethiopia; and it is allowed to be the fineſt copper in the whole world. On the northern coaſts they have ſuch plenty of corn, that their fields, though but very meanly cultivated for want of a knowledge in agriculture, yield them an hundred-fold increaſe. Gums, ivory, wax, civet, oſtrich-feathers, are in ſuch quantities, that any expence of them can ſcarce ever be miſſed.

And, in theſe warm climates, the country, beſides what nature has of herſelf diſſeminated, is, and muſt be, capable of improvement, in all the niceſt and moſt eſtimable productions, which the well cultivated world ſupplies us with, from other places in the ſame latitude.

It cannot be doubted, but the fruitful rich lands, every-where to be found upon the coaſts, and within the country, upon the banks of the rivers near the gold coaſt, and the ſlave-coaſt, would produce all the richeſt articles of the Eaſt and Weſt-India commerce. Doubtleſs the ſpices of Banda, Ternate, and Amboyna, might be produced on the rich and fruitful ſhores of Melinda, on the eaſt ſide, or of the ſlave-coaſt on the weſt ſide, of Africa; and that as eaſily, and to as great advantage, as where they are now produced; the latitude being the ſame, and the ſoil not unlike.

The cinnamon of Ceylon, the tea of China and Japan, and the coffee of Mocha would all there be produced, on the ſame coaſt, from the Rio de St Eſprit, and ſouthward to the river Natale; a temperate, fertile, healthy, and manageable ſoil.

It has been affirmed that the ſugars of Barbadoes and Jamaica, as alſo the ginger, cotton, rice, pepper, or pimento, with the cocoa, the indigo, and every other plant which comes from theſe iſlands, would be as eaſily produced in Africa, and the crops be equally profitable and plentiful, if ſupported by the ſame induſtry as in America: and we are aſſured that the ginger, the cotton, and the indigo have been attempted by the Engliſh factories on the gold-coaſt of Africa; and have thriven to admiration.

Upon the foundation of theſe facts, nothing ſeems wanting to render Africa equal by nature, if not in many reſpects ſuperior, to any of the three other parts of the world. For although the middle of it, lying between the tropics in the torrid zone, and under the line, is exceedingly hot; yet even in the hotteſt part it is habitable, and inhabited; and the people who dwell in theſe extreme hot climates, do abound in plenty, have cattle, corn, cooling fruits, ſhades, rivers, &c. and live very agreeably and healthy; as in the iſland of St. Thomas, under the very line, alſo on the gold-coaſt, and in the kingdom of Benin, and Angola on the weſt ſhore; and in Ethiopia, Melinda, the coaſt of Zanguebar, and ſeveral of the more intemperate places on the eaſtern ſhore.

But, making allowance for ſome of the inland countries remote from the ſea, which we are told are without water, and therefore deſert, yet they are not equal to the uninhabited waſtes either of Europe, Aſia, or America. Notwithſtanding this, Africa, in one reſpect, has greater advantage than the other parts of the world, for it feels no cold, the moſt northerly latitude being about 37, and the moſt ſoutherly about 35 degrees, ſo that infinitely the larger part enjoys the fineſt and moſt temperate climate.

It is melancholy to obſerve that a country, which has near 10,000 miles ſea-coaſt, and noble, large, deep rivers, ſhould yet have no navigation; ſtreams penetrating into the very center of the country, but of no benefit to it; innumerable people, without knowledge of each other, correſpondence, or commerce.

At the entrance of theſe rivers into the ſea are the moſt excellent harbours, prodigious in number, deep, ſafe, and

calm,

calm, covered from the wind, and capable of being made ſecure by fortifications; but no ſhipping, no trade, no merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandizes. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as convenient within itſelf, ſeems utterly neglected by thoſe who are civilized themſelves, and its own inhabitants quite unſolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them. What it affords in its preſent rude, unimproved ſtate, is ſolely given up to the gain of others, as if not the people only were to be ſold for ſlaves to their fellow-creatures, but the whole country was captive, and produced its treaſures, merely for the uſe and benefit of the reſt of the world, and not at all for their own.

Whether, inſtead of making ſlaves of theſe people, it would not rather become ſuch nations that aſſume to themſelves the name and character of Chriſtians, to give them a reliſh for the bleſſings of life, by extending traffic into their country in the largeſt degree it will admit of, and introducing among them the more civilized arts and cuſtoms, may be ſubmitted to conſideration.

The Dutch, by recommending their dreſs, and introducing their cuſtoms among the natives, have prodigiouſly improved the commerce of the ſpice iſlands, and wonderfully humanized the inhabitants, who were as ſavage in their manners as the negroes.

But it is to be feared that, while the ſlaving trade with theſe people continues to be the great object of the Europeans, it will ever ſpirit up wars and hoſtilities among the negro princes and chiefs, for the ſake of making captives of each other for ſale. This, therefore, will ever obſtruct the civilizing of theſe people, and extending of the trade into the bowels of Africa, which, by the contrary means, might be eaſily practicable.

The obtaining a competent number of ſervants to work, as the negroes at preſent do, in the colonies belonging to the ſeveral European potentates, who have ſettlements in America, does not ſeem at all impracticable. Europe in general affords numberleſs poor and diſtreſſed objects for that purpoſe, and if theſe were not over-worked, as the negroes particularly are in Martinico, and in other the French colonies, the Europeans would make as good ſervants for the American planters as the blacks do: and, if alſo all the Europeans were upon a level in regard to the price of labour in their colonies, we cannot but think they would all find their account in laying abſolutely aſide the ſlave-trade, and cultivating a fair, friendly, humane, and civilized commerce with the Africans.

Till this is done, it does not ſeem poſſible that the inland trade of this country ſhould ever be extended to the degree it is capable of; for, while the ſpirit of butchery and making ſlaves of each other is promoted by the Europeans among theſe people, they will never be able to travel with ſafety into the heart of Africa, or to cement ſuch commercial friendſhips and alliances with them as will effectually introduce our arts and manufactures amongſt them.

We muſt, however, at preſent take the ſtate of the trade as it ſtands, and men as they now are: theſe hints may poſſibly ſome time or other rouſe ſome noble and benevolent Chriſtian ſpirit to think of changing the whole ſyſtem of the African trade, which, as things are now circumſtanced, may not be ſo eaſily brought about.

This trade, in its preſent ſtate, is of as great advantage as any we carry on, and is, as it were, all profit, the firſt coſt being ſome things of our own manufactures, and others generally purchaſed with them, for which we have, in return, gold, teeth, wax, and negroes; the laſt whereof is a very beneficial traffic to the kingdom, as it occaſionally gives ſo prodigious an employment to our people both by ſea and land. Theſe are the hands whereby our plantations are at preſent improved; and it is by their labours that ſuch quantities of ſugar, tobacco, cotton, ginger, fuſtic, and indigo are raiſed which employ a great quantity of ſhipping for tranſporting them hither; and the greater number of ſhips employs the greater number of handicraft trades at home, ſpends more of our produce and manufactures, and breeds more ſailors, who are maintained by a ſeparate employment; for if every one raiſed the proviſions he eat, or made the manufactures he wore, traffic would ceaſe; which is promoted by a variety of employments men have engaged in, which conſtitutes a mutual dependence, without invading each other's province. Thus the huſbandman raiſes corn, the miller grinds it, the baker makes it into bread, and the citizen eats it: thus the grazier fats cattle, and the butcher kills them for the market: thus the ſhepherd ſheers his ſheep, the ſpiniſter turns the wool into yarn, the weaver makes it into cloth, and the merchant exports it; and every one lives by each other: thus the country ſupplies the city with proviſions, and that the country with neceſſaries.

On the whole, the African trade, both for exports and imports, and alſo as it ſupplies our Britiſh plantations, and advances navigation, is certainly very beneficial to this kingdom; but whether the laying this trade abſolutely open, while our rivals carry the ſame on, by the means of great trading companies with joint ſtocks, will prove the moſt effectual means to promote our ſhare therein, muſt be left to time and experience. In giving a particular account of the trade of Africa, we ſhall divide into the following general heads, *viz.* Upper Egypt, Lower Egypt, Middle Egypt, Nubia, Abyſſinia, or Ethiopia, Barbary, Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Biledulgerid, Algier, Fez, Morocco, Zara deſerts, Senago, or Senagal river, Negroland, Gambia river, Melli, or Mendingo, Tombut, Guinea, Benin, Congo, Cafraria, Cape of Good Hope, Monomotapa, Zanguebar, Ajan, Madagaſcar iſland, Cape Verd, Canary, Azores, and other ſmall iſlands, under the articles of AFRICAN ISLANDS, and alſo under the BRITISH, FRENCH, and DUTCH AFRICAN COMPANIES; to all which we refer alphabetically, for an account of their reſpective commerce.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

I. MADAGASCAR lies between the 12. 30. and 25 degrees 10 minutes of ſouth latitude, and between the 44th and 51ſt of longitude eaſt from London. It abounds with ſpacious plains, extraordinary good paſtures, rivers, and lakes, well ſtocked with fiſh; agreeable ſprings, the water of which is, perhaps, the beſt in the world; and large foreſts, always green, where lemon and pomegranate-trees, agreeably mixed with odoriferous flowering trees, perfume the air with the moſt delightful ſcent. Here are great number of oxen and cows, great herds of ſheep, and tame and wild hogs. They have a kind of nut, which ſmells of all ſorts of ſpices; it is as big as a nutmeg, but browner and rounder. Pepper grows about fort Dauphin, but in ſmall quantities, becauſe it is not cultivated. Grapes and wheat do not come to maturity here; oats and barley ſucceed better. There is a great quantity of tobacco, but it is prodigiouſly ſtrong. The ſoil produces two crops of every thing in a year, except ſugar-canes, which muſt be left two years ſtanding, that they may grow to a proper bigneſs.

Here are four ſorts of honey, all which are very agreeable to the taſte; and three ſorts of wines; honey-wine, which they call ſich, and taſtes like Spaniſh wine; wine of ſugar-canes, called touach, which is ſomewhat bitter; and the wine of bananas, which is tartiſh; together with ſeveral ſorts of oil. Gum of tacamaca, frankincenſe, and benzoin are found in abundance in this iſland: ambergreaſe is gathered on the ſea-coaſt. Here is alſo talc, with which they garniſh their windows for want of glaſs; mines of coals, ſalt-petre, ſteel and iron, with which the negroes make razors, haſſagayes, and inſtruments to cut wood.

It is confidently affirmed that they have alſo gold and ſilver mines, but it is not known in what province they lie. Nor does this iſland want for precious ſtones, as topazes, amethyſts, agates, *&c.* The riches of the inhabitants conſiſt in cattle, which the men look after, and in fields of rice and roots, which the women ſow: gold and ſilver ſerve only for ornaments. They make paans and carpets of cotton, of divers colours; and, as they have no looms, but only ſticks laid on the ground, which they raiſe by turns, to make the woof, they cannot work very faſt. The iſland is not populous in proportion to its bigneſs, but the iſlanders are capable to learn the arts and ſciences; and there are even few trades in Europe of which they have not ſome notion, and practiſe to a certain degree; and yet they are for the moſt part lazy enough, and, when they work, it is ſlowly.

As for the trade they have among themſelves, it is managed only by barter, for they have not the uſe of money: the mercery-wares and glaſs beads, which they get from the Europeans, ſerve them inſtead of coin. When they go into remote provinces to buy oxen, cotton, ſilk, paans, iron haſſagayes, hatchets, knives, and other ſuch things, they exchange gold for copper, ſilver for iron, and carry on their trade after that manner. If they have any pieces of gold or ſilver coin, they melt them down to make bracelets.

They have not as yet any true knowledge of commerce, which is the reaſon why they neglect to gather up thoſe things which their country produces. They value a plate of copper more than the moſt beautiful precious ſtone when rough, and laugh at foreigners who bid them any thing for them. In the greateſt part of the country they eat the wax with the honey, and the fleſh of oxen and ſheep with their hides, or ſkins. They generally burn ambergreaſe in their ſacrifices; and, towards the north, they throw away the ſilk and eat the worm, whilſt in the chryſalis. He who wants cotton carries rice or cattle to the place where cotton is cultivated; and he who has cotton, and wants rice, carries his cotton to ſell to thoſe places where there is rice: for there is neither fair nor market here. The chief places in this iſland, or rather on the coaſt, are,

1. The bay of Antongil, in the bottom of which there is a ſmall iſland, which abounds in all ſorts of proviſions, and very good water: it affords a ſafe harbour for ſhipping. This bay has been once much frequented by the Dutch, who uſed to buy ſlaves and rice here. They had a kind of factory conſiſting of 14 Dutchmen, ſome of whom died with ſickneſs, the place being very unwholſome, and others have been murdered by the inhabitants, whom they uſed with too much haughtineſs.

2. The iſland of St. Mary, otherwiſe called Noſſi Ibrahim, or the iſle of Abraham, lying to the ſouthward of the bay of Antongil, is ſurrounded with rocks, over which canoes may paſs at high-water, but, at low-water, there is not above half a foot depth. On theſe rocks is to be ſeen the fineſt white coral in the world. On the eaſtern coaſt of the iſland is alſo found ambergreaſe, and the iſland itſelf affords ſeveral ſorts of gum. While the French were ſettled upon this iſland, it became much more populous than it was before; the lord of Antongil, who uſed formerly to make war againſt the inhabitants, dared no longer to attack them, ſince they were under the protection of the French; ſo that there are now here 10 or 12 villages.

3. Fort Dauphin, built by the French, ſtands near the ſouth-eaſt point of Madagaſcar; but, the French finding that the commerce would not bear the expence of the colony, they left it again.

4. The bay of St. Auguſtin lies on the weſt coaſt of Madagaſcar. The Engliſh formerly drove a trade for ſlaves on the weſt ſide of the iſland, particularly at St. Auguſtin's bay, and at new and old Meſſalige; but now they are afraid of the pirates; though ſome venture their necks in going to trade with them.

II. MASCARIN, called Maſcareigne, or the iſle of Bourbon, by the French, is about 370 miles diſtant from the coaſt of Madagaſcar to the eaſt, under the 21ſt and 22d degrees of ſouth latitude. It was diſcovered by a Portugueſe of the houſe of Maſcarenhas, who gave it his name. Afterwards Mr. de Flacourt, governor of fort Dauphin and of the French ſettlements in Madagaſcar, gave it the name of Bourbon in the year 1654, when he took poſſeſſion of it in the name of his king. However, the French did not ſettle at firſt upon this iſland; but, finding afterwards how advantageous it might prove to their navigation, they made a conſiderable ſettlement there in 1672, after they had quitted thoſe which they had on the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now three pretty conſiderable towns there, with a governor, and ſeveral magiſtrates. There are many good roads for ſhipping about this iſland, but no ſafe ports to ſecure ſhips againſt the violent ſtorms which often rage in theſe parts.

The firſt ſettlement the French made here is the town, or village, of St. Paul; the others are called St. Dennis and St. Suſanna. The governor reſides generally at St. Dennis: this is at preſent the baiting-place of the French Eaſt-India ſhips, and the only one where they can conveniently get refreſhments. The iſland is fruitful in plants, and abounds particularly with aloes, tobacco, white-pepper, ebony, palm, and other fruit-trees; a kind of trees which produce odoriferous gums, as benzoin, *&c.* and a great many trees proper for timber. The ſoil is well watered by ſeveral ſmall rivers, rivulets, and ſprings of very good water; and the rivers abound with fiſh. On the ſea-ſhore are gathered great quantities of ambergreaſe, coral, and fine ſhells. There are many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, but not worth mentioning.

III. ST. HELENA is about the 14th degree of ſouth latitude; its longitude is 5 degrees 30 minutes weſt from London. It is a ſettlement of the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, and there is a ſmall Engliſh town within the bay, which is the common landing-place, where are about 20 or 30 ſmall houſes; but the houſes in the town ſtand empty, ſave only when ſhips arrive: for the owners of thoſe houſes have all plantations farther in the iſland, where they conſtantly employ themſelves; but, when ſhips arrive, they all flock to the town, where they live all the time that ſhips lie here; for then is the fair, or market, to buy ſuch neceſſaries as they want, and to ſell off the product of their plantations.

Their plantations afford potatoes, yams, and ſome plantanes and bananas. Their ſtocks conſiſt chiefly of hogs, bullocks, cocks and hens, ducks, geeſe, and turkeys, of which they have great plenty, and ſell them at a low rate to the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light clothes, pieces of callico, ſilks, or muſlins; arrack, ſugar, and lime-juice are alſo much eſteemed and coveted by them. But now they are in hopes to produce wine and brandy in a ſhort time, for they already begin to plant vines for that end, there being a few Frenchmen there to manage that affair. The company's affairs here are conducted by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtorehouſe-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides a public table well-furniſhed, to which all commanders, maſters of ſhips, and eminent paſſengers are welcome. The iſland produces here and there a drug like benzoin, and great plenty of wild tobacco on the hills, which the ſlaves uſe to ſmoak for want of the right ſort. The inhabitants are ſupplied with neceſſaries twice a month out of the company's ſtore, at ſix months credit. The chief commodities for ſale here are cherry-brandy, malt, and cyder, ſpirits, beer, Madera and Canary wines, and Spaniſh brandy, which may be taken in at thoſe iſlands; Batavia arrack, ſugar, ſugar-candy, tea, fans, china, lacquered ware, ſilks, China ribbons, coarſe ſtriped ginghams, ordinary muſlin, coarſe chints, blue and brown long-cloths, ſalampores, and all ſorts of coarſe callicoes.

IV. ASCENSION ISLAND lies under the 7th degree of ſouth latitude; it's longitude is about 13 degrees 10 minutes weſt from London. It is a mountainous and barren iſland, notwithſtanding which it is generally uſed by our homeward bound Eaſt-India ſhips, as a place of refreſhment. The ſoil is covered with cinders and aſhes, which makes ſome think here was once a vulcano. Yet in ſome parts it is fit for tillage, and it has a ſafe, convenient harbour, where the mariners ſometimes hunt and feed upon turtles for 10 or 15 days together, which they reckon both a pleaſant and wholeſome food. There are a few goats, but they are lean: there are alſo ſeveral ſorts of birds here, but ſo ill-taſted, that the mariners will not touch them.

V. ST. MATTHEW lies to the north of St. Helena, and to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, in the 2d degree of ſouth latitude. It is deſert, though there is a fine rivulet of freſh water that runs through it.

VI. ANNOBON lies in the latitude 2 degrees ſouth, in the 5th degree 10 minutes longitude eaſt from London. Here are two high mountains, which, being continually covered with clouds, occaſion frequent rains. Here are ſeveral fertile vallies, which produce plenty of bananas, potatoes, oranges, pine-apples, tamarinds, and cocoa-nuts. Beſides which, the iſland abounds alſo in lemons, citrons, nuts, figs, Turkiſh corn, and millet. Here are alſo oxen, cows, hogs, goats, fowls, pigeons, and other poultry, and eſpecially plenty of fiſh. It produces alſo a vaſt deal of cotton. The governor is a Portugueze, who has very few white people with him; all the other inhabitants are blacks, who are nevertheleſs very ſubmiſſive to the governor, and zealouſly attached to the Roman catholic religion. On the ſouth-eaſt of the iſland is a very good watering-place, the water running down from the mountains into a valley full of orange and other fruit-trees; but it is a difficult matter to come at that water, becauſe of the violent breakings of the ſea; and the negroes have made an intrenchment of ſtone there, from which they can very much incommode thoſe who go thither for water. The road for ſhipping is on the north-eaſt ſide of the iſland, where is good anchoring in 7, 10, 13, or 16 fathoms water, on a ſandy ground, cloſe to the land. The revenues of this iſland conſiſt chiefly in cotton. The negroes gather it, and, after they have cleaned it, they ſend it into Portugal. Here are alſo ſome civet-cats in the mountains, which yet afford but little profit.

VII. ST. THOMAS, or ST. THOME, lies directly under the equinoctial line, under the 6th and 7th degrees of longitude eaſt of London. It never rains except in March and September, when the ſun paſſes directly over this iſland, but a dew falls every night, which renders the ſoil very fruitful. It produced formerly forty ſhips load of ſugar; but in Mandelſloe's time, from whom we borrow this account, ſcarce enough to lade ſix. Nevertheleſs, it produces wheat, wine, millet, rye, barley, melons, cucumbers, figs, ginger, red parſnips, cabbages, French turneps, lettice, radiſhes, ſage, beet, parſley, and all ſorts of roots, pulſe, and pot-herbs. The Portugueze have planted olive, peach, and almond-trees here, which ſeem to thrive well enough, but bear little fruit, becauſe of the exceſſive heat and moiſture. The ſea abounds with excellent fiſh and large whales. There is a mountain in the center of the iſland, covered on the top with a cloud, which moiſtens the trees, and makes them drop water enough for the ſugar-canes. The Portugueze built a town here called Pavoaſan, with a harbour towards the continent.

It was at firſt inhabited by all nations, who had a free trade here; but now all pay tribute except the French, who enjoy the ſame immunities as the Portugueze, becauſe a French jeſuit was very laborious and ſucceſsful in propagating the Roman faith here. The town is very pleaſant, and the inhabitants exchange their ſugar (which by the by will not eaſily dry) for wine, cheeſe, leather, and clothes.

VIII. CAPE VERD iſlands, are ſeated between the 13th and 50 minutes, and the 17th and 50 minutes of north latitude, and between the 22d and 25th degree of longitude weſt from London. The Portugueze have a vice-roy here, who reſides in the iſle of Jago. Theſe iſlands are inhabited by Europeans, or by families originally come from Europe, who profeſs the Roman catholic religion. Here are alſo ſome negroes. The moſt conſiderable of theſe iſlands are,

1. Mayo; the whole of which iſland is a very dry ſort of ſoil, either a ſort of ſand, or looſe crumbling ſtone, without any freſh-water ponds or ſtreams to moiſten it; but only ſhowers in the wet ſeaſon, which run off as faſt as they fall. There is but one ſmall ſpring in the middle of the iſle, from which proceeds a little ſtream of water, that runs through a valley between the hills. On the weſt ſide of the iſland, where the road for ſhips is, there is a large ſandy bay, and a ſand-bank about 40 paces wide, which runs two or three miles along the ſhore, within which there is a large ſelina, or ſalt-pond, contained between the ſand-bank and the hills beyond it. The whole ſalt-pond is about two miles in length, and half a mile wide, but above half of it is commonly dry: the north end only of the pond never wants water, producing ſalt from November till May, which is here the dry ſeaſon of the year.

The waters which yield this ſalt, work out of the ſea through a hole in the ſand-bank above-mentioned, like a ſluice, and that

that only in ſpring-tides, when it fills the pond more or leſs, according to the height of the tides. If there is any ſalt in the pond when the fluſh of water comes in, it preſently diſſolves: but then, in two or three days after, it begins to kern; and ſo continues kerning, till either all, or the greateſt part, of the ſalt-water is congealed or kerned, or till a freſh ſupply of it comes in again from the ſea.

This water is known to come in only at that one paſſage on the north-eaſt part of the pond, where alſo it is deepeſt. They who come hither to lade ſalt, take it up as it kerns, and lay it up in heaps on the dry land, before the water breaks in again. And it is obſervable of this ſalt pond, that the ſalt kerns only in the dry ſeaſon, contrary to the ſalt-ponds in the Weſt-Indies, particularly thoſe of the iſland of Salt-Tortuga, where the ſalts never kern till the rains come in about April, and continue ſo to do in May, June, July, *&c.* while the wet ſeaſon laſts, and not without ſome great ſhowers of rain firſt. Our nation drives a great trade here for ſalt, and has commonly a man of war here for the guard of our ſhips and barques, that come to take it in; of which, in ſome years, there have not been leſs than a hundred a year. It coſts nothing but men's labour to rake it together, and wheel it out of the pond, except the carriage, and that alſo is very cheap; the inhabitants having plenty of aſſes, for which they have little to do, beſides carrying the ſalt from the ponds to the ſea-ſide, at the ſeaſon when ſhips are here.

The inhabitants lade and drive their aſſes themſelves, being very glad to be employed, for they have ſcarce any other trade but this to live by. The pond is not above half a mile from the landing-place, ſo that the aſſes make a great many trips in a day. The iſland of Mayo is generally barren, being dry, as obſerved above, and the beſt of it is but an indifferent ſoil. The ſandy bank that pens in the ſalt-pond, has a ſort of ſilk-cotton growing upon it. It may be of uſe for ſtuffing of pillows, and the like, but elſe is of no value.

The right cotton-ſhrub grows here alſo, but not on the ſandy bank. There are ſome buſhes of it near the ſhore, but the moſt of it is planted in the middle of the iſland where the inhabitants live, cotton cloth being their chief manufacture; but they have not great ſtore of that cotton.

The inhabitants of this iſland, even their governor and prieſts, are all negroes; though, being ſubject to the Portugueze, they have their religion and language. The negro governor has his patent from the Portugueze governor of St. Jago, and expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that lades ſalt here, and is glad to be invited aboard their ſhips. He ſpends moſt of his time with the Engliſh in the ſalting ſeaſon, which is his harveſt; and, indeed, all the iſlanders are then employed in getting ſomewhat; for they have no veſſels of their own to trade with; nor do any Portugueze ſhips come hither, ſo that they have ſcarce any but the Engliſh on whom they depend for trade: and, though they are ſubjects of Portugal, they have a particular value for our nation. Aſſes themſelves are a commodity in ſome of theſe iſlands, ſeveral of our ſhips coming hither to freight with them, and carry them to Barbadoes, and our other plantations.

2. St. Jago, or St. James's iſland, is the chief, the moſt fruitful, and beſt inhabited of all the iſlands of Cape Verd; and yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it.

On the eaſt ſide of the iſland is a town called Baya, with a good port, which, in peaceable times eſpecially, is ſeldom without ſhips: for this has been long a place where ſhips outward bound to Guinea, or the Eaſt-Indies, Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have been wont to touch at for water and refreſhments, but few ſhips call here on their return to Europe. When any ſhips are here, the country people bring down their commodities to ſell to the ſeamen and paſſengers, *viz.* bullocks, hogs, goats, fowls, eggs, plantanes, and cocoa-nuts, which they exchange for ſhirts, drawers, handkerchiefs, hats, waiſtcoats, breeches, or in a manner for any ſort of clothes, eſpecially linnen; for woollen is not ſo much eſteemed here. They do not willingly part with their cattle of any ſort, but in exchange for money or linnen, or ſome other valuable commodity. The people are very thieviſh, and, if they ſee an opportunity, will ſnatch any thing from you, and run away. There is a fort here on the top of a hill, which commands the harbour.

St. Jago town, the capital of the iſland, lies on the ſouth-weſt part of it, and is the ſeat of the general governor, and of the biſhop of all the Cape Verd iſlands. This town ſtands ſcattering againſt the ſides of two mountains, between which there is a deep valley, and a run of water in the bottom, that empties itſelf into a fine ſmall cove, or ſandy bay, where the ſea is commonly very ſmooth; ſo that here is good watering and ſafe landing at any time, though the road be rocky and bad for ſhips. The people here are pretty orderly, but they are generally poor, having but little trade. Beſides chance ſhips from other nations, there come hither a Portugueze ſhip or two every year, in their way to Brazil. Theſe vend among them a few European commodities, and take off their principal manufactures, namely, ſtriped cotton cloth, which they carry with them to Brazil. Another ſhip alſo comes hither from Portugal for ſugar, their other manufacture, and returns with it directly thither. For there are ſeveral

ſmall ſugar-works on this iſland, from which they ſend into Portugal near 100 tons every year: and they have plenty of cotton growing up in the country, wherewith they cloath themſelves, and ſend alſo a great deal to Brazil. They have vines, of which they make ſome wine, but the European ſhips furniſh them with better, though they drink but little of any. Their chief fruits, beſides plantanes in abundance, are oranges, lemons, citrons, muſk and water melons, limes, guavas, pomegranates, quinces, cuſtard-apples, papahs, *&c.*

The other iſlands are, Buena Viſta, Sall, or Salt iſland, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, St. Anthony, Fuego, Brava; ſome of which have very good roads and harbours. The iſland Sall is full of large ſalt-ponds, where the water naturally congeals into ſalt; and, at St. Vincent, the Portugueze load hides.

IX. The CANARY ISLANDS, lie between 27 degrees 10 minutes, and 29 degrees 50 minutes of north latitude, and between the 12th and 17th 50. of longitude weſt from London. The ſoil of theſe iſlands is fertile, producing wheat, barley, millet, and excellent wine, which is tranſported thence to moſt parts of Europe, but eſpecially to England. There are alſo abundance of pomegranate, poplar, fig, citron, and orange-trees: they yield likewiſe ſugar, dragon's blood, and ſome other ſorts of gum. Moſt of the inhabitants are Spaniards. The Spaniſh fleet, returning from the Weſt-Indies, often make theſe iſlands their place of rendezvous. The moſt conſiderable are the following.

1. Lauzarota, or Laucerota, is divided by a ridge of mountains, which afford nothing but paſture to the ſheep and goats; but the vallies produce very good wheat and barley; though they ſeem ſandy and dry. Here are aſſes, kine, camels, and very good horſes.

2. The ſoil of Fuerte Ventura is partly mountainous, and partly champain, abounding in wheat and barley. There are ſeveral brooks of freſh water along the coaſts, and ſoft crooked trees on their banks, that yield gum, of which they make white ſalt. There are palm-trees which bear dates; olive and maſtic-trees, orchel for dying, and a ſort of fig-tree, which yields balm as white as milk, that is of great virtue for ſeveral medicines. They make cheeſe of the milk of their goats, of which this iſland breeds above 50,000 a year. Beſides that, their fleſh is very good, and the inhabitants make great profits of their ſkins and fat, each beaſt weighing 30 or 40 pounds. The harbours are only fit for middling veſſels. There is on this iſland a little town, which bears the ſame name.

3. Great Canaria, or Canary, is a fruitful iſland, noted chiefly for it's excellent wines, which bears it's name, and of which Heylin ſays, they uſed to ſend 3000 tons every year into England and the Netherlands. It abounds alſo in melons, apples, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantanes; as alſo with fir, dragon, and palm-trees.

4. Teneriff produces the true Malmſey wine, and that near Laguna is ſaid to be the beſt in the world. Here is alſo Canary wine, and Verdona, or green wine. The Canary grows chiefly on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and therefore is commonly ſent to Oratavia. Verdona is a green, ſtrong-bodied wine, harſher and ſharper than Canary. 'Tis not ſo much eſteemed in Europe, but is exported to the Weſt-Indies, and will keep beſt in hot countries. This ſort of wine is made chiefly on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, and ſhipped off at Santa Cruz. Beſides theſe wines, here is alſo ſtore of grain, as wheat, barley, and maiz, which they often tranſport to other places. They have alſo ſome beans, peaſe, and coches, a ſort of grain much like maiz, ſowed moſtly to fatten land. Here are likewiſe papahs, apples, pears, plums, cherries, pomegranates, citrons, oranges, lemons, limes, pumpkins, onions, the beſt in the world, *&c.* They are alſo well ſtocked with horſes, cows, mules, ſheep, goats, hogs, conies, and plenty of deer. Laſtly, here are many fowls, as cocks, hens, ducks, pigeons, partridges, *&c.* with plenty of fiſh. All the Canary Iſlands have of theſe commodities and proviſions, more or leſs. But as the Laucerota is moſt famed for horſes, and Grand Canary, Teneriff, and Palma for wines, Teneriff eſpecially for the beſt Malmſey, for which reaſon theſe three iſlands have the chief trade; ſo is Forteventura for dunghill fowls, and Gomera for deer. Fowls and other eatables are dear in the trading iſlands, but very plentiful and cheap on the others.

Oratavia lies on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and, being the chief ſea-port for trade, the principal Engliſh merchants reſide there with their conſul.

5. Gomera has a pretty good haven, and a town of the ſame name. The Spaniſh Weſt-India fleet often comes into it's harbour, and takes here corn, wine, ſugar, fruit, *&c.* The country is high, feeds ſmall cattle, and produces dragon-trees.

6. Palma has a town of its own name, and a ſafe harbour, well frequented for wines, which ſome reckon the beſt of the Canaries, and like Malmſey. They are tranſported thence to the Weſt-Indies, and other places. The beſt comes from the neighbourhood of a place called Brenia, from

whence they export about 12000 pipes a year. Here are four ſugar-engines.

X. MADEIRA, or MADERA, lies under the 32d degree of north latitude, and under the 17th and 18th of longitude weſt from London. The air is far more moderate than in the Canary iſlands, and the ſoil more fertile in corn, wine, ſugar, and fruits, being much better watered by five or ſix little rivers; but it is alike ſtored with the ſame ſort of cattle, birds, plants, and trees, from which is extracted the ſanguis draconis, or dragon's blood, maſtic, and other gums.

Here is a perpetual ſpring and warm water, which produces bloſſoms and fruit every month in the year: white onions are here ſo ſweet, that they may be eaten like apples. Here are lemons of a monſtrous ſize, with oranges of all ſorts. Fruit-trees from Europe thrive here in perfection. They make here the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving large citrons and beautiful oranges, and in making marmalades and perfumed paſtes, which infinitely exceed thoſe of Genoa, whatever the Italians may pretend.

Here are ſeveral ſugar-plantations: the ſugar they make here is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This is the firſt place in the weſt, where this manufacture was ſet on foot; and from hence it has been carried into America, where they make ſuch vaſt quantities of ſugar, that the Portugueze, finding that this trade was not ſo profitable to them here as it proved at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce excellent wine, and which foreigners come and buy up, and whereby the Portugueze make an immenſe profit. There are three or four ſorts of theſe wines. One ſort is of the colour of champaign, but is not much valued. The ſecond ſort is a white wine, much ſtronger than the former. The third is delicious, and is called Malmſey, being of the ſame nature with that in Teneriff. The fourth is of the ſame ſort with Alicant wine, but much inferior to it in taſte. It is never drank but mixed with the other ſorts, to which it gives a colour, and ſtrength to keep. It is obſervable of Madera wine, that the heat of the ſun improves it much, when it is expoſed to it in the barrel, after the bung is taken off. They make in the whole iſland about 28,000 pipes of wine, 8000 of which are drank there, and the reſt exported: the greateſt part is ſent to the Weſt-Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes. All European nations trade hither, and receive in exchange for their commodities this wine (much uſed throughout all the American iſlands, as keeping beſt in hot countries) ſugar, wax, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, and citrons. In the year 1735, they reckoned in this iſland 6096 houſes, the number of which is very much increaſed ſince. The chief town is

Funchal, which is very populous. But the natural Portugueze do not make up the greateſt number of the inhabitants; for there are a great many French and Engliſh Roman catholicks ſettled here, who live after the Portugueze manner, beſides a great number of Mulattoes, and of negroes, both freemen and ſlaves. The road here is very bad for ſhips to ride in.

XI. PORTO SANTO lies to the north-eaſt of Madera, under 32 deg. 30 min. of north latitude, and under 15 deg. 30 min. of longitude weſt from London. This iſland wants harbours, and has only a bay, which is ſafe enough, except when the wind blows from the ſouth-weſt. This bay affords a convenient retreat for ſhips that come from the Indies, or go to Africa: ſo that the merchant-men often ſtop there, which affords a conſiderable profit to the inhabitants. The iſland produces wheat and other corn, ſufficient for the proviſion of the people. Here are plenty of oxen and wild boars, and a prodigious number of conies. Here is alſo dragon's blood, abundance of honey and wax, and the ſea abounds with fiſh.

AGATE, and ACHATES, a precious ſtone, that has different names according to its different colours. There are tranſparent agates, and opaque ones, and ſome that are partly tranſparent and partly opaque.

The agates which are called ſardian are red; the moſt valuable are of a kind of fleſh-colour, mixed with brown; the leaſt eſteemed are thoſe of which the red inclines to yellow.

The oynx is all opaque, of a whitiſh and black colour.

The ſardonix is a mixture of the onyx and ſardoine. This laſt kind of agates is the moſt precious of all.

There is alſo a ſpecies called chalcedony, or calcidony agate, beſides the agate of Egypt, the Roman agate, the ſacred agate, or agate of Candia, which ſome antient writers mention. This laſt, which is not now to be ſeen any where, was red like coral, and ſpotted with gold.

The agate is one of the precious ſtones to which the antients have aſcribed the moſt occult and miraculous properties. Pliny has filled a whole chapter with them; and Ariſtotle, long before, had ſet him the example, and prepared the matter. The moderns, either leſs ſubtle or more knowing, content themſelves with the mechanic uſe, and deſpiſe the virtues of it.

The agate is uſed in making cups, rings, ſeals, handles for knives and forks, hilts for ſwords and hangers, beads to pray with, ſmelling-boxes, patch-boxes, ſnuff-boxes, ſalt-cella, little mortars, and abundance of toys. It is alſo uſed in the compoſition of ſome tabernacles to contain the hoſt, and of cabinets and tables inlaid with precious ſtones; being a kind of ſtone that is cut, ſawed, poliſhed, and carved with no great difficulty. Much of it is brought from Straſburgh entirely manufactured; but this kind is far from being ſo hard, or of ſo fine a poliſh, as the right oriental.

None have a right to trade in that commodity at Paris but the wholeſale mercers and the goldſmiths. The ſword-cutlers are, however, allowed to ſell it; but only when made into handles to couteaux de chaſſe, and ready ſet in. The cutlers have the ſame privilege for their knives and forks.

The antient river Achates in Sicily, near which were found the firſt quarries of theſe precious ſtones, which were called Achates, is not one of the leaſt ſources of the riches of that country. Theſe ſtones are much harder than jaſper, and poliſh infinitely better: though they are not entirely tranſparent, they are, however, very luminous. Their colours are various; white, grey, brown, red, and violet. In ſome are ſeen a ſurpriſing mixture of colours, which naturally repreſent trees, animals, houſes, flowers, birds, and even buſtoes well finiſhed. Theſe different ſtains, well managed by ſkilful and attentive workmen, have produced medals, which ſeem maſter-pieces of nature. For this ſtone bears the graver very well: and, as pieces of all magnitudes are found of it, they make all ſorts of work of it. The high-altar of the cathedral at Meſſina is incruſted all over with it.

The lapidaries pretend that the agates of the Indies are finer than thoſe of Sicily. 'I own, ſays F. Labat, that one may 'meet with ſome that are finer than others, and alſo, that, 'to make them the dearer, the dealers never fail to pretend 'that they come from remote parts. It is their common 'rule; though one part of the ſame piece may be much finer 'than another. Their prudent avidity does not permit them 'to ſay that they are of the ſame country, the ſame quarry, 'the ſame block; but, in order to ſell them the dearer, they 'make them come from the Eaſt-Indies; and, if you are 'deſired to obſerve the difference between two parts, or 'pieces, they are far from telling you that they are of the 'ſame block; they make them grow at a 1000 leagues from 'each other, in order to enhance exceſſively the price of thoſe 'to which nature has given moſt variety and beauty. In 'former times people ſet more value upon them than they 'do at preſent. Whether the coſt has deterred the curious 'or theſe ſtones are no longer in faſhion, as they once 'were, it is certain that ſo many of them are not uſed as 'formerly. I have ſeen caſes of conſiderable magnitude and 'extraordinary workmanſhip, in ſome cabinets and repoſito-'ries of churches, in which the ſhades and variety of co-'lours had been ſo dexterouſly managed, that the pencil could 'not have ſucceeded better.' Voyage d'Italie du P. Labat, tom. v. p. 156.

AGE, which is alſo called uſance of woods, in the French commerce, ſignifies, in the trade of that commodity, the time elapſed ſince the laſt cutting of a wood or coppice.

The ordinance of waters and foreſts in France appoints, 'That, in cutting of woods, 16 ſtanders ſhall be left on every acre of the age of the wood, to grow up into timber-trees.'

They ſtile the age of the conſiſtence of a tree, that at which it ceaſes to grow: the age of the conſiſtence of an oak is 100 years.

AGE is alſo ſaid, in the ſtile of the manage, or riding-houſe, and among the dealers in horſes, of the knowledge of the years thoſe animals are old, by the inſpection of their teeth, as long as the mark is in their mouths; or by their tuſhes, and outward, or corner teeth, when out of it.

AGE (in law) ſignifies a particular ſtate, or time of life, at which a perſon is qualified for certain offices in civil ſociety, and for lawfully tranſacting ſome affairs, which before he was not capable of, for want of years and a ſufficient diſcretion.

By the common law here in England there are two principal ages in a man; at 14 he is at the age of diſcretion, and at 21 years at full age.

In a woman they diſtinguiſhed formerly ſix ages. At ſeven years her father might diſtrain the tenants of his manor for aid to marry her, for at thoſe years ſhe may conſent to matrimony: at nine years old ſhe is dowable: at 12 years ſhe is able finally to ratify and confirm her former conſent to matrimony: at 14 ſhe may take her lands into her own hands, and ſhould be out of ward, if ſhe were at this age at her anceſtor's death: at 16 ſhe ſhould be out of ward, though at the death of her anceſtor ſhe was under 14: the reaſon is, that ſhe might take a huſband able to perform knight's ſervice: at 21 years ſhe may alienate lands and tenements, and tranſact all kinds of buſineſs.

For a man, the age of 12 years binds to appearance before the ſheriff and coroner, for enquiry after robberies, 52 Henry III. 14. At the age of 14 he may chuſe his own guardian, and claim his lands held in ſoccage, though Bracton limits this to 15 years, with whom Glanville agrees. At 14 a man may

may conſent to marriage, as a woman at 12: at that ſame age he may be bound apprentice. At 21 a man is at full age, and capable to make contracts, and manage his own eſtate, which before that time he cannot do, with ſecurity to thoſe who have dealings with him.

In France they ſtile majeur (major) a perſon who is of age to manage his own eſtate, to buy, truck, alienate; in a word, to diſpoſe of it after any manner allowed by the laws and cuſtoms of the country.

Remarks,

With reſpect to mercantile and other commercial Dealings.

The civil law and common law of Paris fix the age of majority at the age of 25 years; and the common law of Normandy at 20 years and a day. But there is no age fixed for the majority of thoſe who apply themſelves to commerce, merchants and traders being reputed to be of age, the moment they enter upon buſineſs. This is according to the ordinance of March 1673; in the ſixth article of the firſt title of which it is declared, that "all merchants and traders, either wholeſale or retail, ſhall be deemed of age in matters relating to their trade, nor ſhall be ſuffered to recede from any bargain, tranſaction, &c. under the pretence of their being minors." This mercantile regulation, concerning the majority of merchants and bankers, was eſtabliſhed in France long before the abovementioned ordinance; and there are ſeveral decrees of the parliament of Paris, and of ſome other parliaments, by which it is decided that any minor, carrying on a trade, becomes of age with regard to his trade; and that children of good families, applying themſelves to commerce, have no occaſion for the conſent of their parents, in order to bind or oblige themſelves; which, however, muſt be underſtood only of what relates to commerce, for it is in that reſpect only they enjoy ſuch kind of emancipation; continuing ſtill, as before, in their age of minority, under paternal power and authority, with regard to all ſuch other engagements and obligations as do not relate to trade.

As it might be aſked, in order to explain that article of the ordinance, At what age it is lawful for a man to enter upon trade, and, conſequently, at what years he may be reputed to be of age? Monſieur Savary obſerves (in his Negotiant Parfait) that this depends on their being, or not being, of free companies in the city, where a man would ſet up and carry on his trade. At Paris, for inſtance, where a man cannot take up his freedom before he is 20, he is reputed to be of age, the moment he enters upon his 22d year.

In thoſe cities where by the ſtatutes of the companies the time of taking up the freedom is fixed before or after the 20th year, the age of majority muſt follow the time fixed by thoſe ſtatutes; and, in thoſe cities where there are no free companies, a minor is reputed to be of age, the moment he begins to trade for his own account, be it at 19, or even at 18, years of age.

AGENDA [things to be done] ſo merchants call a pocket or memorandum-book, in which they ſet down all the buſineſs they are to tranſact during the day, either at home or abroad.

The agenda is very neceſſary to merchants, and traders in general, particularly to thoſe who have bad memories and much buſineſs; it being but too common, for want of ſuch a remembrancer, to let ſlip good opportunities in trade, either of buying or ſelling, or of negotiating bills of exchange. It ought particularly to be a conſtant pocket memento to factors and agents for others, to avoid omiſſions prejudicial to the intereſts of their principals.

Agenda is alſo a name by which many merchants and traders call a little pocket-almanack, which they carry about them for aſcertaining the dates of their diſpatches, bills, meetings, and the like.

AGENOIS, a province of France. It is bounded by Condomois on the ſouth, Quercy on the eaſt, Perigord on the north, and Bazadois on the weſt. It is the moſt fruitful country of all Guienne, is watered by ſome navigable rivers, and produces a great deal of corn, wine, oil, hemp, and tobacco, with which it furniſhes other provinces. Its chief places are

Agen, its capital, where tanned leather and the manufacture of ſtockings afford a pretty good trade. Its woollen trade likewiſe is very conſiderable, eſpecially in goods brought hither from other places. Theſe ſeveral ſorts of merchandizes are carried to the fairs of Bourdeaux. The other principal articles of its trade are the vines which grow on its neighbourhood, and the brandy made from them.

Clerac, or Clairac, in this province, is inhabited by rich merchants, who carry on a conſiderable trade in corn, wine, and brandy.

AGENT, in matters of buſineſs, is a perſon entruſted, or appointed, with the conduct, management, and negotiation of the affairs of other people, or of a corporation. There are alſo agents to the ſeveral regiments belonging to the army, and agent-victuallers for the navy.

Agency-Business comprehends any ſort of buſineſs which is undertaken on the behalf, or on the account, of other perſons. To act in this capacity requires ſuitable natural and acquired talents and abilities; and, in particular, a good knowledge of men and the world.

Remarks.

To be well qualified for ſuch kind of buſineſs requires a faculty and expertneſs. Such an one ſhould not only have the expeditious, mechanical uſe of his pen, but ſhould be maſter of a plain, ſtrong, and intelligible ſtile, in order to communicate his intentions with perſpicuity. He ſhould, in public buſineſs too, be as ready with his tongue as his pen.

In order to tranſact buſineſs to the beſt advantage of his principal, he ſhould be a man of method, and be capable of digeſting and repreſenting the ſtate of a caſe, in the cleareſt and moſt beneficial light, the more effectually to obtain his point. And to be a man of figures and accounts is as eſſentially neceſſary as any thing elſe; more eſpecially if he is any way concerned in matters of trade and money affairs. In a word, a perſon who undertakes any branch of agency-buſineſs, ought to be one of a good general education, a genteel, affable, and communicative diſpoſition, and to have nothing of the pedant about him.

Agent of the Bank and Exchange in France, in England called a broker, is a public perſon, who, in cities and places of trade, acts between merchants, traders, bankers, and other perſons of buſineſs, to facilitate the traffic of money, and the negotiation of bills of exchange.

For the nature of this office in England, ſee Brokers.

In France, before the reign of Charles IX, every one that pleaſed made brokerage their buſineſs, either of money or merchandize, and there was no difference between brokers of goods and agents of exchange. Nothing more was neceſſary for a perſon's taking on him this office, than an eſtabliſhed reputation, and a large acquaintance among merchants, bankers, and other ranks of men of buſineſs. The brokers uſually (as is ſtill the cuſtom in ſome places) were choſen by the provoſt of the merchants, mayors, and ſheriffs, or judges-conſul of cities, to whom they took an oath for the faithful diſcharge of their employment.

Charles IX. by edict, in the year 1572, was the firſt that inſtituted a number of profeſſed brokers, as well of exchange and money as of merchandize, who were to be admitted by the bailiffs, ſeneſchals, or other judges royal, of the places of their reſidence.

The wars of the league prevented the execution of this edict. But Henry IV. reſuming the deſign of his predeceſſor, by a decree of council in 1595, prohibited all perſons from exerciſing the profeſſion of a broker, without having firſt obtained a commiſſion from him, on pain of being ſentenced as guilty of fraud, and paying a fine of 500 crowns; and, at the ſame time, he fixed the number of brokers; eight for Paris, twelve for Lyons, four for Roan, and as many for Marſeilles; one for each of the cities of Amiens, Dieppe, and Calais; three for Rochelle, three for Bourdeaux, and in all other cities as many as ſhould be deemed neceſſary; but with this intent, that none ſhould be obliged to employ them in the negotiations of the exchange and bank, or in the ſale of merchandize, who did not think proper.

The inſtitution of theſe bank and exchange-agents in France having undergone various changes and alterations, which afford little matter of uſe or curioſity to be acquainted with, we ſhall not tire the reader with a tedious detail thereof, as is done in Savary, but give a ſuccinct account of the ſuppreſſion of the bank-agents, and the new creation of exchange-agents in 1723, wherein there is ſomething deſerving notice.

Suppreſſion of the bank-agents in France, and new creation of exchange-agents in 1723.

The bank-agents by commiſſion, created in 1720 for the city of Paris, were ſuppreſſed in their turn, and others eſtabliſhed in their ſtead, with the title of office, by an edict of the month of January 1723.

In this edict his majeſty obſerves firſt, that, being informed that the ſeveral alterations made in theſe offices, by the ſuppreſſions and re-eſtabliſhments which had been ordered, had rendered their condition abſolutely uncertain, he took the reſolution to remedy it, by a new creation of theſe officers. He declares afterwards, that he annuls and ſuppreſſes all the offices of bank, exchange, and trade-agents, eſtabliſhed till then in the city of Paris, in what number ſoever, with what title, and under what denomination, they may have been eſtabliſhed; and that he creates and eſtabliſhes, in their ſtead, 60 new offices, or employments, of counſellors, agents of exchange, bank, and commerce, to perform the ſame functions, and enjoy the ſame prerogatives, and the ſame perquiſites, or brokerage, enjoyed formerly by the agents of exchange, bank, and commerce, created by the edicts of Auguſt 1708, and November 1714: but yet they ſhall not have a right to

claim an exemption from the poll-tax, lodging of ſoldiers, and other taxes, which was granted to the ſaid officers; nor have any ſettled ſalary, nor enjoy the franc-ſalé, or exemption from the ſalt-duty.

And, in order to forward the redemption of the national debts, and alſo to the end that ſuch perſons as would purchaſe theſe offices might do it the more eaſily, his majeſty permits, that the money to be paid for them, together with the two ſols for every livre of it, be paid in rent, or annuity-contracts upon the city, in rents upon the provinces, or other government-ſecurities, well and duly liquidated. Ordering, likewiſe, that the annual taxation of theſe offices ſhall be reduced to one half of what it was, to be paid by the officers, according to the ſums which theſe employments coſt them; and that the purchaſers ſhall be admitted, after the ſame manner as the former proprietors were, by virtue of the grants which ſhall be ſealed in the great chancery, they paying only one half of the uſual perquiſites of a gold mark, for the regiſtering and the ſeal. His majeſty further orders, that, whatever is regulated by the edicts of Auguſt 1708, and November 1714, and by the proclamations iſſued out in conſequence of them, concerning the functions and brokerage of exchange-agents, be executed according to the form and tenor of them, in every thing that is not abrogated by this preſent edict. It was regiſtered in the parliament the 12th of February 1723. For the execution of this edict, and the liquidation or clearing of the new offices of exchange-agents, commiſſioners were afterwards appointed by a decree of council, dated April the 5th; and another was alſo publiſhed the 4th of Auguſt following, for the reimburſement of the ſuppreſſed offices, the poſſeſſors of which were prohibited by the ſaid decree to intermeddle with the functions of exchange agents, or to take or receive any brokerage annexed thereto, upon pain of a fine of 3000 livres.

His majeſty having thought it proper to eſtabliſh in 1724 a public exchange in the city of Paris, where all bills of exchange, and all other commercial affairs, relating both to inland and foreign trade, ſhould be negotiated, and the offices of exchange-agents, created the foregoing year, not being taken up, his majeſty judged it more agreeable to the new eſtabliſhment of this exchange to put the exerciſe of thoſe offices into commiſſion, and to appoint ſixty perſons of capacity and honeſty to perform the functions of them, in the form and under the conditions in the regulations which ſhould be drawn up in council.

Theſe regulations contain 25 articles, which are part of the 41, that compoſe the decree of council iſſued the 24th of September 1724, which orders the ſetting up of an exchange in the city of Paris. We ſhall mention here ſuch of them only as relate to the exchange-agents, by commiſſion.

The articles of the decree, which contain the regulation of the functions of the exchange-agents, begin with the 17th, and continue to the 41ſt and laſt of them, both incluſive; they are as follows, *viz.*

XVII. His majeſty gives leave to all merchants, traders, bankers, and others, who ſhall be admitted upon change, to negotiate among themſelves bills of exchange, notes payable to the bearer, or to order, as well as merchandizes, without the mediation of exchange-agents: and with regard to all other commercial effects and papers, in order to aboliſh thoſe fictitious ſales, which have hitherto brought them into diſcredit, they ſhall not be negotiated but by the mediation of the exchange-agents, after the manner as ſhall be hereafter explained, upon pain of impriſonment of thoſe who ſhall trade in them, and a fine of a thouſand livres to be levied by diſtreſs; half of which ſhall belong to the informer, and the other half to the general hoſpital; nor ſhall it be lawful either to remit or mitigate that fine.

XVIII. All negotiations of commercial papers and effects, tranſacted without the mediation of an exchange-agent, ſhall be declared null and void, in caſe of a diſpute; his majeſty forbidding all tipſtaffs and bailiffs to bring any ſummons, on account of ſuch negotiations, upon pain of deprivation, and a fine of 300 livres; and forbidding likewiſe all judges to give any ſentence in ſuch caſes, upon pain of nullity of thoſe ſentences.

XIX. The 60 offices of agents of exchange, bank and commerce, created by the edict of January 1723, not being taken up, his majeſty orders that the ſaid offices ſhall be put into commiſſion, to be executed in the form preſcribed by theſe preſent regulations.

XX. Ten conſiderable citizens and merchants of the city of Paris ſhall be choſen, to examine the capacity of thoſe who ſhall preſent themſelves, in order to be provided with the 60 commiſſions of agents of exchange, bank, and trade; and, upon the report of theſe ten conſiderable citizens and merchants, his majeſty will cauſe letters in the great chancery to be delivered to them, for the executing of the ſaid commiſſions.

XXI. The exchange-agents ſhall all be of the catholic, apoſtolic, and Roman religion, Frenchmen, or inhabitants of the kingdom, naturalized at leaſt, of twenty-five years of age complete, and of an unblemiſhed reputation. They who ſhall have obtained letters of reſpite, or made contracts for delay of payment, or been bankrupts, ſhall not be admitted exchange agents.

XXII. The exchange-agents ſhall be ſworn, that they will fulfil their commiſſions faithfully, before the lieutenant-general for civil matters at Paris, after inquiry made by him of their lives and morals; and they ſhall pay no perquiſites for the oaths taken, nor for their admiſſion.

XXIII. The commiſſions of exchange-agents may be performed, without derogating from the quality of noblemen, his majeſty giving leave to thoſe who ſhall be provided with them, to exerciſe them together, with the offices of counſellors-ſecretary to the king, both in the great court of Chancery, and in all the other courts of Chancery in the kingdom, without their having occaſion for any other decree, nor for letters of compatibility, his majeſty diſpenſing and diſcharging them from ſuch letters and decree.

XXIV. Upon any alteration happening, either by death, or otherwiſe, in the number of the ſixty exchange-agents, which ſhall have been appointed to exerciſe the ſaid commiſſions; the examination of thoſe who are to ſucceed, ſhall be referred to the ſyndic of the exchange-agents for the time being, upon whoſe advice new commiſſions ſhall be iſſued out.

XXV. The exchange-agents ſhall be obliged to appear upon change every day, from ten o'clock in the morning, till one in the afternoon, except on Sundays and hollidays; nor ſhall they be allowed to be abſent from it for any reaſon whatſoever, except in caſe of ſickneſs.

XXVI. They ſhall every one of them keep a day-book, or regiſter, which ſhall be numbered and marked with a flouriſh, by the judges and conſuls of the city of Paris; and his majeſty commands them to regiſter exactly in that book, all the bills of exchange, notes, and other commercial papers, and all merchandizes and effects by them negotiated, without regiſtering any name, but diſtinguiſhing each particular article by a ſeries of numbers; and they muſt deliver, to thoſe who ſhall employ them, a certificate ſigned by them of every negotiation they ſhall have tranſacted, which certificate muſt be marked with the ſame number, and the ſame ſtamp with the folio of the regiſter, on which it is entered.

XXVII. The exchange-agents ſhall be admitted to give evidence and make oath before all judges, about the buſineſs they ſhall have tranſacted, before which judges, as alſo before the arbitrators who may be appointed, they ſhall be obliged, when required ſo to do, to exhibit and produce ſuch article of their regiſter, as may be diſputed.

XXVIII. When negotiations of bills of exchange, notes to the bearer, or order, and merchandizes, ſhall be tranſacted upon change by the mediation of an exchange-agent, the ſame agent may be employed by the drawer, the ſeller, and the buyer of merchandizes.

XXIX. As for the negotiations of commercial papers and other effects, they ſhall always be tranſacted by the mediation of two exchange-agents; for which purpoſe, ſuch perſons as may be deſirous to buy or ſell commercial papers and other effects, ſhall deliver the money or effects into the hands of the exchange-agents, before change time, upon their receipts, containing a promiſe to account for them within that day. However, it ſhall not be lawful to the ſaid exchange-brokers to carry or receive any effects or money upon change, nor to tranſact their negotiations, otherwiſe than in the form hereafter exhibited, on pain of ſuch, who ſhall tranſgreſs againſt the contents of this article, being removed from their employment, and paying a fine of 3000 livres, to be levied by diſtreſs; half of which ſhall belong to the informer, and the other half to the hoſpital general.

XXX. When two agents ſhall be agreed upon change, about any negotiation, they ſhall give each other their note, promiſing to furniſh one another within the day, that is to ſay, one the effects negotiated, and the other the ſum agreed upon for the ſaid effects: and each of theſe notes ſhall not only be marked with the ſame number under which the negotiation ſhall be regiſtered in the book of the exchange-agent, who delivers the note, but alſo counter-marked with the number of the note, delivered by the other exchange-agent, that they may ſerve as references and proofs to each other. Theſe notes muſt be regularly diſcharged on both ſides within the day, upon pain of being conſtrained to it by diſtreſs, and even proſecuted extraordinarily, in caſe of embezzlement of the money or effects.

XXXI. The exchange-agents ſhall alſo be obliged, in cloſing their negotiations with thoſe who ſhall have employed them, to deliver to them the note, on the back of which ſhall be the name of the exchange-agent, with whom the negotiation was tranſacted; and to ſet down in the certificate they ſhall deliver of it, according to the 26th article, the name of the exchange-agent, and the two numbers of the note, as alſo the nature and quantity of the effects bought or ſold, and the price of the ſame.

XXXII. His majeſty does moſt expreſsly forbid the exchange-agents to enter into any ſociety or partnerſhip among themſelves, under whatſoever pretence it might be, or with any merchant, or trader; or even to execute any commiſſion for foreigners or ſtrangers, unleſs they be actually at Paris at the time of the negotiation, upon the ſame penalty as mentioned in the 29th article.

XXXIII.

XXXIII. His majeſty further forbids them to make uſe, under any pretence whatſoever, of any clerk, factor, or manager, even of their own children, for the tranſaction of any buſineſs, of what nature ſoever, unleſs in caſe of ſickneſs; and, even then, only to finiſh the negotiations already begun, but not to enter upon any new one, under the ſame penalties as mentioned in article 29.

XXXIV. Nor ſhall the exchange-agents, under the ſame penalty, carry on any trade in bills of exchange, notes, merchandizes, commercial papers, or other effects, directly or indirectly, for their own proper account.

XXXV. No perſon ſhall be admitted an exchange-agent, if he be book or caſh-keeper to any merchant, or other.

XXXVI. The exchange-agents ſhall, in no caſe whatſoever, name the perſons for whom they are to tranſact buſineſs, but ſhall be obliged to keep an inviolable ſecrecy, and ſerve them faithfully in every circumſtance of their negotiations; either with regard to the nature and quality of the effects, or their price: and thoſe that ſhall be convicted of prevarication, ſhall be condemned to make amends for the damage done by them, and ſuffer the penalties mentioned in the 29th article.

XXXVII. His majeſty forbids all exchange-agents to negotiate any bills of exchange, notes, merchandizes, papers, and other effects, belonging to perſons, whoſe failure ſhall be known, under the ſame penalties as above.

XXXVIII. They are alſo forbidden, under the ſame penalties, to endorſe any bills of exchange, notes to the bearer, or order, or to promiſe to pay them, in caſe they be not paid, when due. It ſhall only be lawful for them, when required, to certify the truth of the ſignature, or ſign of the drawers, accepters or endorſers, and of thoſe who ſhall have made the bills.

XXXIX. The king forbids them alſo, under the ſame penalties, to negotiate any where, but upon change, bills of exchange, notes, merchandizes, commercial papers, and other effects.

XL. The brokerage to be paid to the exchange-agents for their negotiations of ready money, bills of exchange, notes to the bearer, or order, and other commercial papers, ſhall be 50 ſols per 1000 livres, to be paid 25 ſols by the buyer, and 25 by the ſeller, as is cuſtomary; and, with regard to the negotiations for merchandizes, they ſhall be paid upon the foot of one half per cent. of the value of thoſe merchandizes, *viz.* one fourth per cent. by the buyer, and one fourth per cent. by the ſeller; nor ſhall they, under any pretence whatſoever, demand any other or greater brokerage, upon pain of puniſhment for extortion.

XLI. The names of the exchange-agents, who ſhall have tranſgreſſed againſt theſe rules and ordinances, or who ſhall have been deprived, ſhall be wrote upon a board, and poſted up upon change, that the public may be warned not to employ them any more.

The decree of the 24th of September 1724, concerning the eſtabliſhing an exchange in the city of Paris, and the creation of 60 exchange-agents by commiſſion, was very ſoon put into execution, with regard to the appointing of theſe new officers; and, on the 14th of October following, a ſecond decree of council was publiſhed, by which his majeſty declared, that, having ſeen the certificates of the ten conſiderable citizens and merchants, appointed to examine thoſe who ſhould preſent themſelves as candidates to fill up the ſaid offices of exchange-agents by commiſſion, the ſixty perſons named in his decree ſhould be admitted accordingly; and as ſuch tranſact the negotiations of all bills of exchange, drawn from one place upon another, and upon places in foreign countries, notes to the bearer, or order, commercial papers, and other merchandizes and effects, on condition that the ſaid ſixty exchange-agents be ſworn before the lieutenant-general for civil matters in the city of Paris, whom his majeſty appointed for that purpoſe.

Exchange-agents of Lyons, Marſeilles, and Bourdeaux.

Theſe three cities of France being, next to Paris, the places of the greateſt trade in bank and exchange, Henry IV, as has been obſerved above, did not forget them in the creation of exchange-brokers, in the year 1595: twelve of them were deſigned for Lyons, four for Marſeilles, and three for Bourdeaux. It does not appear, however, that theſe creations took place, or at leaſt it is very likely that this eſtabliſhment did not continue long: for in 1692 theſe three cities had exchange-agents erected, as it were, into municipal offices, and in ſome cities they were, in a manner, hereditary. Lyons had forty brokers for bills of exchange, caſh, remittances of money, buying of merchandizes and eſtates. The perſons, who acted as brokers, took no patents from the king, but acted only under the commiſſion of the provoſt of the merchants and echevins, or aldermen, and had their brokerage and perquiſites paid them, according to the tariffs drawn up by thoſe officers of the city, and particularly by that of the 31ſt of December 1668.

The number of brokers for bills of exchange, merchandize, &c. was greater at Marſeilles, and their functions were, in a manner, more authorized. There were forty-ſix of them, who, by reaſon of a long poſſeſſion, looked upon their commiſſions as real offices, and diſpoſed of them as of hereditary employments, made them part of their children's fortune, and alſo mortgaged them like real eſtates.

Things were very near upon the ſame footing at Bourdeaux, and theſe commiſſions were looked upon there as city employments.

All theſe commiſſions were created and erected into ſettled and hereditary offices, by three edicts of the year 1692, but iſſued out in different months. They were not, however, fully executed, but with regard to Marſeilles and Bourdeaux, the exchange-agents and brokers of theſe two cities being exempted from the general ſuppreſſion made in 1705, within which thoſe of Lyons were comprized, like all the others in the kingdom.

The edict, by which that ſuppreſſion was ordered, having at the ſame time created 116 new offices of king's counſellors, exchange-agents, as has been obſerved above, there were 25 of them appointed for Paris, and 20 for Lyons. But, the edict of May 1707 having again ſuppreſſed them all, except thoſe of Paris, that of 1692 continued in force for the city of Lyons, and was reſtored to its former authority; to which, however, an exception was made, with regard to the number of agents and brokers.

The brokerage fee of the exchange-agents in theſe three cities was continued upon the ancient footing, as it was paid to the commiſſion-agents, except with regard to thoſe of Lyons, whoſe brokerage fee was increaſed, and ſettled at one half per thouſand, in the room of one third allowed by the tariff of that city, for money depoſited, changing of the ſpecies, drafts and remittances for foreign places, which is practiſed at preſent.

Exchange-agents of the city of Amſterdam.

The city of Amſterdam is one of thoſe, which carries on the greateſt trade in the world, either with regard to the large ſums of money which its merchants and bankers remit to all foreign countries, either for their own account or by commiſſion, or with regard to the almoſt infinite quantity of merchandizes, with which its warehouſes are ſtocked, and which are continually imported or exported, by the trade they carry on to the very extremities of the earth.

To render that immenſe circulation of commerce the eaſier, there are in that famous city two ſorts of brokers, or agents for exchange and merchandize. They are called makelaers in Dutch. Some of them are ſworn brokers, and others itinerant, or ambulatory brokers.

The ſworn brokers are ſuch by way of office, as it were, and, being choſen by the magiſtrates, are ſworn before them. Of theſe there are reckoned to be 375 Chriſtians, and 20 Jews: and, when there happens a vacancy among them, it is ſupplied by the burgomaſter, whoſe turn it is to take care of the trade of the city for ſix months.

The itinerant brokers are thoſe, who without having any patent or commiſſion from the magiſtrates, and without being ſworn before them, perform the functions of agents and brokers, and act in negotiations, either for drafts and remittances of money, or for buying or ſelling merchandizes. Their number is greater than that of the ſworn makelaers, or brokers; ſo that, taking them both together, there are above a thouſand perſons employed in brokerage, moſt of whom are overloaded with buſineſs and negotiations. The only difference there is between theſe two ſorts of agents and brokers of exchange and merchandize is, that the ſworn brokers are admitted to give evidence before courts of juſtice, in caſe any diſputes happen with regard to their negotiations; whereas the itinerant brokers are not admitted to give evidence, and, in caſe of objection by one of the parties, bargains are rendered null and void.

The brokerage fees of agents and brokers of the bank and exchange are paid equally by thoſe who give their money, and by thoſe who receive it, or who furniſh bills of exchange, unleſs they agree to the contrary.

Thoſe brokerage-fees have been regulated for Amſterdam, by the ordinances of January 1613, and of the 22d of November 1624, at the rate of 18 ſtivers for 100 livres de gros, which amount to 600 guilders, or florins; that is to ſay, three ſtivers for every 100 guilders, to be paid, one half by the drawer, and the other half by him who gives his money.

That the reader may eaſier underſtand this ſubject of the brokerage of Amſterdam, and of the fees paid to agents and brokers, we ſhall add here the following table.

A Table of the Brokerage Fees, paid at Amſterdam, at the Rate of 18 Stivers for every 100 Livres de Gros.

For 100 livres de gros — —	0 fl.	18 ſ.
For 1000 florins, or guilders —	1 fl.	10 ſ.
For 1000 crowns, which are reckoned as 3000 florins — —	4 fl.	10 ſ.
For 100l. ſterling, reckoned as 1000 florins	1 fl.	10 ſ.
For 1000 daelders, or 1666⅔ florins	2 fl.	10 ſ.
For 1000 rixdollars upon Leipſic and Breſlaw	3 fl.	10 ſ.
For 1000 ducats — — —	5 fl.	00 ſ.

For 1000 cruſadoes —— ——	2 fl.	10 ſ.
For 1000 florins bank money, againſt current money — — —	1 fl.	00 ſ.
For an action of 1000 livres de gros of the Eaſt-India company ——	6 fl.	00 ſ.

Brokerage Fees paid to Exchange-Brokers in ſeveral cities of Europe.

At London $\frac{1}{4}$ for every 100 l. ſterling, which makes $\frac{1}{8}$ for each of the parties.
At Venice $\frac{2}{3}$ per 1000.
At Genoa $\frac{1}{3}$ of a crown for 1000 crowns.
At Bologna one ſol for 100 crowns.
At Geneva $\frac{1}{3}$ for 1000.

AGIO, a bank term. (It is a Venetian word, which ſignifies aid or aſſiſtance.) In moſt of the trading cities, where there are public banks eſtabliſhed, the word agio expreſſes the exchange, or difference there is between bank money, and current money, or caſh. So that if a merchant, who ſells his merchandize ſtipulated to be paid, either 100 livres bank money, or 105 caſh, or current money, in ſuch a caſe the agio is ſaid to be 5 per cent.

The bank agio varies in almoſt every place: at Amſterdam it is uſually from 3 to 5 per cent.; at Rome near 25 per 1500; at Venice 20 per cent. fixed; at Genoa from 15 to 16 per cent.

AGIO is alſo uſed to expreſs the profit, which ariſes from money advanced for a perſon; ſo that, in this ſenſe, the words agio and advance are ſynonimous; they are uſed among merchants and traders, to ſignify that it is not an intereſt, but a profit for money advanced in trade. That profit is uſually reckoned at one half per cent. for a month, that is to ſay, the rate of ſix per cent. per annum.

It is alſo ſometimes called exchange, though that word has no great affinity with it.

AGIO is alſo uſed, but improperly, to ſignify the exchange of a ſum negotiated, whether with loſs or with profit.

Some alſo give the name of agio of inſurance, in France, to what others call premium in England.

AGIOTAGE, a French word, hardly ever uſed but in a bad ſenſe: it ſignifies commonly an unlawful and uſurious trade.

AGIOTER is uſed, by the French, to ſignify the lending money at high intereſt, and carrying on an uſurious traffic in notes, bonds, government ſecurities, and other ſuch like papers; of which the debts and incumbrances of the ſtate conſiſt. See the next article.

AGIOTEUR, a term eſtabliſhed among the French merchants, traders, bankers, and other people in buſineſs: it ſignifies a perſon who puts out his money to high intereſt, by taking from the public, bills, promiſſory notes, aſſignations, or bonds, and other ſuch papers, at a very low price, to ſell them out again at a very high one. Agioteurs are looked upon, in France, as public nuſances, and profeſſed uſurers, who under a good government ſhould be exemplarily puniſhed.

AGITO, which is alſo called GIRO, a ſmall weight uſed in the kingdom of Pegu: two agitos make a half biza, and the biza weighs a hundred teccals, that is to ſay, 2 pounds 5 ounces heavy weight, or 3 pounds 9 ounces light weight, of Venice.

AGNUS-CASTUS, called alſo VITEX by ſome, a plant or ſhrub which ſometimes grows to the height of a middle-ſized tree. The agnus-caſtus thrives beſt on the banks of rivers and brooks, and in rugged and ſtony places, though it may alſo be cultivated in gardens. Its leaves reſemble thoſe of the olive-tree, but they are longer and more limber. Its trunk and branches are woody: the latter end in many boughs, which are long, ſlim, pliable, and intermixed with leaves, bloſſoms, or ſeeds, according to the ſeaſon. The bloſſoms are of a purple colour, and ſometimes white. The ſeeds, which are properly the fruit of the plants, are white at firſt, and grow red by degrees. Many people call thoſe ſeeds ſmall or wild pepper; either on account of their figure, which is not unlike that of the true pepper, or becauſe of their taſte, which is ſomething ſharp and aromatic. The beſt ſeed of the agnus-caſtus is that which is new, large, plump, and comes from hot countries; thoſe of cold climates having much leſs virtue. It is uſed in phyſic for the cure of venereal maladies.

AGRA, the principal kingdom of the Mogul empire. It has Bando on the weſt, Dely on the north, Sambal on the eaſt, Gualear and part of Narvar on the ſouth.

AGRA, its capital, is a place of great traffic, being reſorted to by merchants from China, Perſia, all parts of India, and by the Engliſh and Dutch.

REMARKS.

Great-Britain once had a factory here, but the long diſtance to Surat, and the hazards and difficulties they underwent in paſſing thither, made them withdraw it, though they continue to trade here.

The Dutch, who have ſtill a factory in this city, trade chiefly in ſcarlet, looking-glaſſes, ſilver, gold, and white lace, hardware, indigo, cloth of Jelapour, and ſpices. They have houſes at ſeveral other towns, to which they ſend factors once a year; and have always ſome perſons near the court, to prevent being impoſed on by the covetous tyrannical vice-roys and governors near their other ſettlements.

The number of midians, where the public markets are here kept for all ſorts of proviſions; of covered bazars, where every merchant and artificer have their quarters and their ſhops, ſome of which bazars are near half a quarter of a league long; and of caravanſeras, which they ſay amount to above 80: all of theſe are ſufficient to convince us, both of the prodigious extent, and of the immenſe trade that is carried on in this city.

This trade is kept up by ſeveral caravans, which ſet out from Amadabath, Surat, and other places, compoſed commonly of 400 or 500 camels, which the Engliſh, Dutch, Moors, Turks, Arabs, Perſians, and other nations, uſed to carry their merchandize to that capital, and to bring back from thence ſeveral others in return.

Beſides the indigo of Agra, which is the beſt in the world, they get from thence a great many ſtuffs and linens; the latter of which are a fit commodity for the weſt and the north.

Thither likewiſe are carried the merchandize from Bantam and Tartary; and here alſo arrive, in other caravans, the merchants from the inland parts of Indoſtan, or the Mogul's dominions.

The charges on merchandize bought at Agra, for Surat, amount from 15 to 20 per cent. including the remitting of bills of exchange at 5 per cent. packing up, carriage, and the duties or toll for the roads, according to their ſeveral qualities.

It muſt alſo be obſerved, that, in all the dominions of the Grand Mogul, the penalty for defrauding the cuſtom-houſe of the duties of importation, or exportation, is not the forfeiting of the merchandize, but only paying double the duty, when the fraud is diſcovered

The indigo that is cultivated and prepared in the dominions of the Grand Mogul, particularly that of Agra, is always 20 per cent dearer than that of the other parts of the Eaſt-Indies: it is in round cakes or balls.

FRAUDS IN THE INDIGO OF AGRA.

As there are three ſorts of indigo; namely, that of the firſt leaves, that of the ſecond, and that of the third: the Indians endeavour to ſell the one for the other, though that of the ſecond leaves be worth 12 per cent. leſs than that of the firſt, and the laſt 20 per cent. leſs than the ſecond.

The impoſition may be diſcovered by the colour, and by breaking ſome bits of the paſte; that of the firſt leaves being of a bluiſh purple, more ſhining and bright than the two others, and the ſecond ſort of a deeper colour than the laſt.

Another method they have of deceiving in the ſale of indigo is this: when it is reduced into a paſte, they dry it upon ſand, ſome of which always ſticks to it, and encreaſes its weight; or, when it is dry, they keep the paſte in a damp place. The adulteration, made by ſand mixed with it, may be known by putting the indigo into the fire; the indigo will be conſumed, and there will remain nothing but the ſand.

AGRA, a drug, a kind of ſweet-ſcented wood, found in the iſland of Hainan, on the coaſt of China. The fineſt is bought generally in Hainan, at the rate of 80 taels per foot, and ſells at Canton for 90. The ſecond ſort is commonly bought for 70 taels, and ſells for 80; and the laſt is bought for 45 taels, and ſold for 60.

AGRA-CARAMBA, a drug, is another ſweet-ſcented wood, which alſo comes from the iſland of Hainan, where it coſts about 60 taels per cati, and ſells at Canton for 80 to 85. This wood is proper to purge women: the Japaneſe ſet a great value upon it, and the Chineſe carry them a vaſt quantity of it.

AGREAGE, thus they call, at Bourdeaux, what is called courtage (brokerage) in other places.

To AGREE, in French commerce, is to approve, ratify, or confirm, a contract for delay of payment. They ſay, by way of proverb, that the debtor muſt either pay or ratify; that is, a debtor ought to ſatisfy his creditor, either with money, or with good words.

AGRICULTURE, the art of tilling and cultivating the earth, in order to render it fertile, and make it bear plants, trees, fruits, &c.

The principal operations in agriculture are manuring, plowing, fallowing, ſowing, harrowing, reaping, mowing, &c. And to theſe belong the management of the productions of particular places and countries; as hops, hemp, vines, tobacco, ſaffron, liquorice, woad, &c. To the ſame art belong alſo planting, tranſplanting, pruning, engrafting; the culture of foreſts, timber, coppices, &c.

REMARKS.

AGRICULTURE conſiſts either in feeding or tillage, whereby are raiſed ſtore of cattle, corn, and fruits, proper for food and traffic.

To begin with feeding: and here I might enumerate the various ſorts of cattle raiſed and bred by the care of the huſbandman;

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bandman; but the moſt eſſential with reſpect to our trade are,

1. The cattle for beef: Which, beſides the excellency of it's fleſh for nouriſhment, affords many neceſſaries for our trade, and is extremely ſerviceable in tillage: with this we both nouriſh our inhabitants at home, victual our ſhips for foreign voyages, and load them with the ſeveral manufactures wherewith it doth ſupply us: from the milk we make butter and cheeſe; from the fleſh, beef; from the ſkin, leather; from the fat, tallow; and of the horns ſeveral uſeful neceſſaries: the overplus whereof, above our own conſumption, we export, and ſell in foreign markets.

2. The ſheep; whoſe golden fleece being the baſis of our woollen manufactures, employ multitudes of our people; and the wool being of different lengths and fineneſs, makes them of various ſorts; whereby thoſe animals afford us a yearly crop, whilſt living; and, at their deaths, we have their fleſh and their ſkins for variety of uſes.

3. Horſes; whoſe labour is ſo neceſſary, that we can neither carry on our husbandry or trade without them: beſides their fitneſs for war, being eſteemed the moſt courageous in the whole world, and for theſe uſes are alſo tranſported abroad, as a trafficable commodity. They are ſent to our plantations in America; for the laſt to ſome of our neighbouring nations: but their fleſh is of no uſe, their ſkins of little; the leather made of them being very ordinary, only the longeſt of their hair is uſed in weaving hats for the ladies, and ſome ſorts are uſed in perriwigs for the men.

There are ſundry other ſorts of beaſts, ſome whereof require no care in raiſing, others little; ſuch as the ſtag, the deer, the rabbit, the hare, the badger, the goat, and divers others, whoſe ſkins are neceſſary for our trade, and uſeful in our manufactures.

Tillage is that whereby we raiſe our corn, by turning up and manuring the land; the ſeveral ſorts whereof are wheat, rye, barley, peaſe, beans, vetches, oats, *&c.* all which not only afford nouriſhment to ourſelves, and the beaſts we uſe in labour, but ſerve for conſiderable articles in our commerce; as they give employment to our people at home, and are tranſported abroad according to the ſurplus of our domeſtic conſumption, and the want of our neighbours, beſides the large quantities uſed in our navigation.

Theſe products are all clear profit to the nation, being raiſed from earth and labour: but their principal benefit to the community ariſes from their exportation by our merchants, either in their own kinds, or when wrought up, the remainder, which is ſpent at home, tending rather to ſupply our wants than to advance our wealth; which exports being, more or leſs, according to the price they bear in other countries, and theſe ariſing from the proportion their lands hold with ours in their yearly rents, are not ſo great in ſpecie as when wrought up. Butter ſimply is the chief wherewith we ſupply ſeveral foreign markets; and did formerly more, till by making it bad, and uſing ſcandalous arts to increaſe it's weight, England loſt moſt of that trade, and is now beaten out of it by Ireland, which every year makes theirs better: beſides, they underſell England in the price, as they do alſo in beef, occaſioned by the low rents of their lands.

It was the act of prohibition made formerly in England that firſt introduced them into a foreign traffic, their ſole dependence before that time being on the Engliſh markets, and from hence they were ſupplied with what they ſtood in need of; but, being thereby prohibited from bringing their cattle, and other proviſions to England, they endeavoured to find a vent for them in other markets, which they did with good ſucceſs, and to more advantage: the ſweetneſs whereof gave a ſpring to their induſtry, and put them on the woollen manufactures, which they vended alſo where they exported their proviſions; till, in time, it became ſo great and flouriſhing as to give us apprehenſion it would endanger ours.

As for corn, foreign markets are frequently ſupplied therewith, both from thence, and from the iſlands of the Azores, cheaper than the rents of our lands will admit; but the Britiſh plantations have ſome dependance on England for our product; and, as the lands of Ireland riſe in their yearly value, they will have more. We alſo raiſe, by agriculture, conſiderable quantities of hemp and flax, both which are uſeful in our trade.

Among the ſeveral trees that adorn our fields, the oak, the elm, and the aſh are the chief; theſe not only ſerve for the buildings of our ſhips and houſes, but alſo furniſh us with materials, wherewith our artificers make great variety of things fit for our commerce: and it were to be wiſhed, that better care was taken to preſerve our timber, for the benefit of poſterity.

This gives us a ſhort idea of the effects of huſbandry, which is apparently the original ſource of moſt of our treaſures; the due cultivation of the earth being the great fountain of all materials for trade, and the arts of commerce render them the more valuable to their proprietors.

It is certain, therefore, that it will ever be good policy to eaſe the land, in order to promote trade; and to encourage the trading intereſt, in order to promote the landed.

Every object of traffic requiſite to the ſuſtenance of life being produced by the earth, the more our lands in general ſhall be improved and cultivated, the greater plenty we ſhall have of vegetables and cattle of every kind, the more populous the nation in uſeful hands, and the more comfortably and happily will the people ſubſiſt. As thoſe productions augment, ſo will the general conſumption; the greater plenty, the cheaper will every thing be, whereby trade will flouriſh, and money alſo grow proportionably plentiful in general circulation: and in ſuch caſe, leſs money will purchaſe every thing in proportion as the plenty of land productions ſhall reduce the price, with reſpect to the demand.

By the general improvement of the old, and cultivation of freſh lands to a degree requiſite to render things in general cheap and plentiful, ſuch plenty will ſoon be ſo magnified, as to reduce the price of the neceſſaries of life to one half, if not one third what it is at preſent. This will reduce the general price of labour, that being regulated by the price of neceſſaries of life. Will not this make all our fabrics and manufactures cheaper as well among ourſelves as foreigners, ſince their value is conſtituted according to the rate, at which artificers and manufacturers can ſubſiſt? Will not this naturally extend our exportations, not only amongſt our preſent foreign cuſtomers, but attract new ones? Such new cuſtomers who at preſent are incapable of purchaſing our commodities, by reaſon of their exceſſive dearneſs? Will not this prevent our competitors in foreign commerce, who are now ſtudiouſly promoting every art of agriculture, from rivalling and ſupplanting us in that which is the great ſupport of the whole Britiſh empire?

In countries where the land cultivated does not afford an ample competency of it's productions to make the whole plentiful, and therefore cheap, will not the people in general be inevitably diſtreſſed and miſerable? Can any chains reſtrain their tranſmigration, from country to country, 'till, with ſome degree of conſolation, they ſhall be able to ſuſtain the perpetual ſtate of labour? Where this policy is diſregarded, will it not tend to depopulation; where regarded, have the contrary effect?

If the rents of lands ſhall be raiſed above what the quantity of circulating money will enable tenants to pay, will not the money of a nation grow ſcarcer and ſcarcer? Where there is not a quantity of land effectually cultivated to reduce the rents, in proportion to the money, will not the ſcarcity of money at length grow ſo great, as to leave little in the kingdom? For, where the rents are kept up beyond the proportion of money to pay them, will not every thing riſe in it's price and value, commerce grow worſe and worſe, it's general ballance turn more to the diſadvantage of the dearer nation, and at length the nation become ſtript of it's money as well as it's people?

Did not the demand for farms in greater proportion than they were to be had, firſt raiſe their rents? Did not this deter people from encreaſing the cultivation of freſh land, as the demand ſhows they would, as they encreaſed in number? What could the ſurplus people do, but ſtrike into trades and profeſſions? Whilſt the neceſſaries, the price of labour, rents of lands and manufactures have advanced amongſt us, have not thoſe engaged in trade and profeſſions alſo found it difficult to live? Will not more and more be daily undone, if the monſtrous dearneſs of things continues as it does? Can the gentleman flatter himſelf with eſcaping a proportionate injury with the reſt of the people? If money becomes ſcarcer and ſcarcer, will not monopolizers, foreſtallers, and regraters, multiply, to enhance ſtill more and more the prices of proviſions, ſince the produce of the earth at a cheap rate will not bring ſufficient ſupport to the farmer, and pay all charges to which he is liable? Does not this increaſe, inſtead of leſſen the evil?

To increaſe the money, to keep up the payment of rents, can this be otherwiſe effected than by the increaſe of ſuch foreign commerce as will bring us in an increaſed ballance? But how can this be expected, except by the decreaſe in the price of our commodities, which only will or can encourage and enable foreign ſtates and empires to buy them? Can this be effectually done, till the price of rents is reduced in proportion to the quantity of money? This cannot be accompliſhed, till a due quantity of waſte land is taken into cultivation. This meaſure will make farms abound, the only natural way to lower rents in general.

Nor does it appear that gentlemen would be ſufferers by lowering of rents, by ſuch means. Let it be ſuppoſed, that all our lands ſhould be raiſed 20 per cent. per annum; ſince that land cultivated would bear no more corn, graſs, nor cattle, *&c.* than it does at preſent, muſt not the corn and cattle be advanced in proportion? Will not the neceſſaries of life coſt the labourer more, and his wages be raiſed accordingly? All things would certainly be raiſed, if money could be found to circulate trade at ſuch an advance; and ſince gentlemen as well as the labourer would buy every thing at ſuch an advanced price, how could they be advantaged by receiving 20 per cent. per annum more, and paying the ſame, or more, for what they ſtood in need of?

If it ſhould be ſaid, that although this might be the caſe with regard to their expence, yet it would not be ſo to their ſavings, they will be deceived. Suppoſe a gentleman of 1000 l. per annum, now ſpends 500 l. and lays by 500 l. per annum: if eſtates were raiſed 20 per cent. as ſuppoſed, he would then

ſpend 600 l. and lay by 600 l. per annum. But how would he be the richer, ſince the price of every thing is raiſed at leaſt in the like proportion? The neceſſaries of life will coſt the labourer more, and his wages muſt be raiſed accordingly. Timber for carriages, and other uſes, will coſt more to fell and hew; horſes to draw the produce of the earth will be more expenſive, and conſequently carriage, and every manufacture will coſt more. All things in general will certainly be raiſed, while money can be found to circulate trade at ſuch an advance. Since then gentlemen themſelves, as well as others, would buy every thing at ſuch a raiſed price, how would they be benefited by receiving 20 per cent. per annum more, and paying that at leaſt for all they wanted?

The purchaſe of eſtates being governed by the intereſt of money, will be valued at as many years as if rents had not fallen; and though the ſum for which they ſell will be annually leſs as the rent ſhall be lowered; yet the money will have, at leaſt, all the ſame effect, apply the ſame as you pleaſe. If the lands were raiſed 20 per cent. per annum, this would not make them produce more, but perhaps leſs, than they now do, by putting it out of the farmer's power, in ſome degree, to uſe ſo much ſkill and expence in cultivation as before rents were ſo raiſed: as this advance of rent would not tend to increaſe the produce, all the produce muſt be ſold, not only for all the 20 pounds more, but there muſt be profits likewiſe on all thoſe 20 pounds to enable the farmers to purchaſe whatever they wanted at the higher prices, to which every thing will be enhanced from the general riſe of things, as it paſſed through every hand, comprehending the manufacturing part alſo; this would ſtill proportionably encreaſe the profits on the firſt raiſed prime coſts, before they reached the conſumer; and muſt not he in the end, not only pay the advanced 20 pounds rent, but the enhanced profits ariſing thereon, through all the ſeveral hands it paſſed? And ſince labour, which adds the greateſt value to every thing, will in this caſe be enhanced too, it is apparent, that the ſame quantity of produce muſt be dearer by all the firſt advanced 20 pounds rent, and by ſuitable profits to all the ſeveral hands through which things paſs, together with a greater charge of labour thereon. Whence it is evident that if the ſame quantity of produce muſt thus coſt a great deal more than all the 20 pounds rent, by which it was enhanced, the ſeveral parts thereof muſt coſt more likewiſe in ſuch proportion; ſo that we may not ſcruple to aſſert, that 140 l. could not in this caſe purchaſe more then 100 l. did before the riſe; whereby gentlemen, who are conſumers in common with others, would become poorer for raiſing their eſtates: and therefore it ſhould conſequently ſeem manifeſt that they would be the richer for lowering their eſtates 20 or 30 per cent. per annum, by a due increaſe in the cultivation of more land, ſince it muſt be no leſs certain that 70 l. or 80 l. would purchaſe more in this caſe than 100 l. does at preſent, becauſe it is evident that 120 l. in the other caſe, would not purchaſe ſo much as 100 l. doth now. So that if rents ſhould fall 30 per cent. by a larger land cultivation, every thing would certainly fall in the ſame proportion, whereby gentlemen would loſe nothing but the nominal ſound of ſo much per annum.

This obvious reaſoning evinces why gentlemen cannot live ſo well and hoſpitably on the ſame eſtates, as their anceſtors did, who had conſiderably leſs nominal income than their ſucceſſors. If, therefore, gentlemen find themſelves ſtreightened by raiſing rents, above what the circulating money amongſt them will enable them to pay; muſt not this increaſe the ſtreights and difficulties of the people on whom ſuch heavy rents are raiſed and account for their arrearages and badneſs of payments?

AJAN, a coaſt and country of Africa has the river Quilmanci on the ſouth; the mountains from which that river ſprings on the weſt; Abyſſinia, or Ethiopia, and the ſtreight of Babelmandel on the north; and the eaſtern, or Indian, ocean, on the eaſt. Going from ſouth to north, along the coaſt, we find the republic of Brava, the kingdom of Magadoxo, and that of Adel, and ſome other more weſtward within the land. The coaſt abounds with all neceſſaries of life, and has plenty of very good horſes. The kings of Ajan are often at war with the emperor of the Abyſſins, and all the priſoners they take they ſell to the merchants of Cambaya, thoſe of Aden, and other Arabs, who come to trade in their harbours, and give them in exchange coloured cloths, glaſs-beads, raiſins, and dates; for which they alſo take back, beſides ſlaves, gold and ivory. The whole ſea-coaſt, from Zanguebar to the ſtreight of Babelmandel, is called the coaſt of Ajan; and a conſiderable part of it is ſtiled the Deſert-coaſt. It's kingdoms, or provinces, are as follow:

1. BRAVA, the capital of a republic of the ſame name, is ſituate between two arms of the river Quilmanci, where it has a pretty good harbour. It is a pretty large city, and is inhabited by rich merchants, who trade in gold, ſilver, ſilks, ſtuffs, *&c.* and pay an annual tribute to the Portugueze. There is a great deal of ambergreaſe on the coaſt of Brava.
2. MAGADOXO, or MADOGAXO, has the kingdom of Adel on the north; the kingdom of Alaba on the weſt; the territories of Brava on the north; and the eaſtern ocean on the eaſt. This country abounds with barley, and other fruit, and feeds great numbers of horſes and other cattle.

To the capital city Magadoxo a great many merchants of Cambaya and Aden bring ſtuffs, drugs, and ſpices, which they exchange for gold, ivory, and wax.

3. ADEL has Magadoxo on the ſouth; part of the eaſtern ocean, and that part of the coaſt of Ajan which is called the Deſert-coaſt on the eaſt; the ſtreights of Babelmandel on the north, and the Galles, with the kingdoms of Dancari and Balli, on the weſt.

The town of Zeila, ſeated in a gulph to the ſouth-eaſt of the mouth of the ſtreight of Babelmandel, is extremely populous. The ſoil about Zeila is nothing but a dry, barren ſand, and they are obliged to fetch freſh water two days journey from the city: but, at that diſtance, the country abounds with corn and fruit to ſuch a degree, that the inhabitants cannot uſe it all, and the Arabs of Aden, and other neighbouring countries, come and make their proviſions here. The country abounds alſo with cattle; beſides which, they have alſo here gold, ivory, frankincenſe, pepper, and great numbers of ſlaves, whom they buy, or ſteal, in Abyſſinia, all which they exchange with the merchants of Arabia and Cambaya for cloths, amber, necklaces, glaſs-beads, raiſins, dates, *&c.* The inhabitants of Quiloa, Melinda, Mombaſa, and other parts, come and buy horſes at Barbora, another ſea-port town on this coaſt.

4. DANCALI, DANCALE, or DANGALE, lies to the weſt of the Red Sea, to eaſt and ſouth of Abyſſinia, and to the north of Balli and Fatagar. It has a ſea-port town called Bailar. There is a place called the Land of Salt, becauſe it contains mines, out of which they dig vaſt quantities of ſalt, which is carried into other countries on camels, and affords a conſiderable trade. The ſoil here is almoſt every-where barren, and produces no corn at all.

AIDERBEITZAN, or as the Perſians call it AZERBEIAN, or ASAPAICAN, a province in Perſia, borders on the eaſt to the province of Ghilan and Tabriſtan; to the ſouth on Perſian Irack; to the weſt and north-weſt upon Upper Armenia and the river Aras; and to the north, on Schirwan. The ſoil of this province is fruitful, and the climate healthy, though cold. It contains,

1. TAURIS, a very large and potent city, being the ſecond in Perſia, for dignity, grandeur, riches, trade, and number of inhabitants. The city contains 15,000 houſes, and as many ſhops; for the houſes in Perſia are not in the ſame place with their ſhops, which ſtand for the moſt part in long and large arched ſtreets 40 or 50 feet high, which ſtreets are called bazars, or markets, and make the heart of the city; the houſes being in the out-parts, and having almoſt all gardens belonging to them.

Theſe at Tauris are the fineſt bazars that are in any place of Aſia; and it is a lovely ſight to behold their vaſt extent, their largeneſs, their beautiful cupolas, and the arches over them, the number of people that are there all day long, and the vaſt quantity of merchandizes with which they are filled. The grandeſt of all, and where they ſell their jewels and wares of greateſt value, is octangular, and very ſpacious, being called kaiſerie, or the royal market-place. Their other public buildings are no leſs ſumptuous, nor leſs populous. The houſes where they ſell tobacco, coffee, and ſtrong liquors, are anſwerable to the beauty of the reſt. The inhabitants of this city amount to about 550,000 ſouls, though ſeveral perſons there, ſay there are no leſs than 1,100,000. The number of ſtrangers alſo, which are there at all times is very great; they reſorting thither from all parts of Aſia; nor is there, perhaps, any ſort of merchandize of which there is not a magazine to be found at Tauris. The city is full of artiſts in cotton, in ſilk, and in gold; and ſeveral of the principal merchants there affirmed to Sir John Chardin, that there are above 6000 bales of ſilk wrought out in manufacture every year.

The trade of the city extends all over Perſia and Turky, into Muſcovy, Tartary, the Indies, and over the Black Sea. Not far from the city, in the neighbouring parts, are to be ſeen great quarries of white marble, of which there is a ſort that is tranſparent. The people of the country imagine it to be water of a mineral fountain, congealed and hardened by degrees: There are, indeed, not far from it, two conſiderable mines, the one of gold, the other of ſalt; but there has been no working in the gold mine for a long time, becauſe they always found that the profit never anſwered, to the expences of the labour.

The bazars at ARDEBIL, or ARDEVIL, are fine and well covered; but here they deal very little in gold ſtuffs and jewels, as they are ſaid to have done formerly, and as they do in other places. Here are but three or four large ſtreets where the chief ſhops are; the reſt are not worth ſpeaking of: and, indeed, trade flags here very much. The meidan, or great ſquare, is 300 paces long, and 150 broad, having ſhops all round it, which, when this city was in its flouriſhing condition, were well ſtocked with valuable commodities; but the richeſt goods, ſuch as jewels, gold, ſilver, ſilk, *&c.* were kept

kept in another market-houſe, or exchange, which is a ſquare building, arched over, and opens, at three gates, into three long ſtreets.

At MIANA there is a kind of cuſtom-houſe, where the officers are ſaid to be very tyrannical in their exactions upon the meaner ſort of people who travel that way.

SOLTANAYA, or SULTANIA, has ſome bazars, but not conſiderable; nor, indeed, can it be reckoned a trading-place.

AIDS of aſſizes of wood, are petty officers of the city of Paris, appointed by the provoſt of the merchants, and the echevins, to meaſure the wood for fuel which is proper to be meaſured, and are landed on the keys. This they do in the preſence, and under the orders, of the aſſizers of wood, whom they thus aid and aſſiſt in the exerciſe of theſe functions, which are the chief that belong to the office of aſſizers of wood.

AIDS, or AIDES, in French, is ſaid in general of all ſubſidies levied by the prince's authority (and in England by the authority of the king and parliament) or of ſuch as are voluntarily granted by the people, to aid and aſſiſt the ſtate on urgent occaſions. In France that word is particularly uſed to ſignify one of the king's general farms, which conſiſt chiefly in the duties laid upon wine. They call ordonnance of aids an ordonnance of Lewis IV, iſſued at Fontainebleau in June 1680, which regulates the trade, ſale, tranſportation, import, and export of wines, both within and without the kingdom.

AIGRIS, a ſtone which ſerves inſtead of current coin among the Iſſinois, a nation of Africa, on the coaſt of Guinea, where the river Aſbin runs, near the gold-coaſt. It is there looked upon as a precious ſtone, and yet it has nothing in it to make it very valuable. It is of a greeniſh-blue colour, without any luſtre; pretty hard, indeed, but it does not take a good poliſh, or they have not ſkill enough to poliſh it better. And yet they are very fond of it; and, when they buy it, they give its weight in gold for it. They make little bits of it, called betiquets, which are bored through in the middle, that they may ſtring them on ſmall threads, made of the bark of trees. Conſidering the price of that ſtone, the betiquets muſt be extremely ſmall, ſince two of them are worth but one penny French money. They cut ſome in the form of cylinders, an inch long, and they are bored through length-ways. They ſerve as ornaments for the beards of the kings and lords, making treſſes of the hair, which they paſs through thoſe cylinders. Akæfini, king of the Iſſinois, had, in the 20 treſſes of his beard, 60 of thoſe cylinders, which were worth, at leaſt, 20,000 crowns. But, for all that, this pretended precious ſtone is not ſo ſhining and bright as green raſade, which is brought them from Europe. 'I am pretty much inclined 'to think, ſays the Chevalier de Marchais, in his Voyage de 'Guineé, tom. I. p. 261, that the aigris is the ſame as the 'ſtone called jade, or a kind that comes near it, but which 'is not well poliſhed by the Iſſinois, which is owing to their 'want of ſkill.'

AIRESHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north by the ſhire of Renfrew; on the ſouth with Galloway; on the eaſt with Clydſdale; and, on the weſt, with the frith of Clyde. This county is very populous, and the inhabitants are exceeding induſtrious. It is divided into Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham, which are reckoned the three great bailleries of Scotland.

1. CARRICK is fruitful in paſture, and is abundantly furniſhed with commodities, both by ſea and land. The chief rivers are Stincher and Girven, which abound with ſalmon and other good fiſh. The people towards the coaſt are great fiſhermen, though there is no conſiderable port in this part of the country, and are employed by the merchants of Glaſgow, and elſewhere, to catch herrings for them. The chief town is Maybole, which has a pretty good market, by reaſon the coaſt near it is full of people; but, though it ſtands on the coaſt, it has no harbour.

2. KYLE, is ſeparated from Carrick by the river Dun, and from Cunningham by the Irwin; both which, together with the river Aire, abound with ſalmon. It is more populous than Carrick, and the ſoil is better. It's chief town is
Aire, which ſtands near the mouth of the river of its own name, has a very good harbour, and lies conveniently for trade; but it is now ſo declined, that the townſmen ſay, from having been the fifth beſt town in Scotland, it is now the fifth worſt, which is owing to the loſs of its trade. But what was the reaſon of the decay of trade in this place is not eaſy to determine.

3. CUNNINGHAM, is a country rich and fruitful, abounding with fine paſtures and incloſures near its capital town, which is
Irwin. Here they have a port, which was formerly in much better condition than it has been for ſome years paſt, the harbour being ſo much decayed by length of time, and other accidents, that the trade of the town has declined; for the water not being confined to its proper channel, the harbour became ſo choaked up with ſand, that it was of little uſe to what it had been; ſo that ſhips of very ſmall burden were frequently ſhut up for ſeveral months in the river, before they could ſail out to ſea. At the ſame time, the church, town-houſe, bridge, and other public works, being in a ruinous condition, an act of parliament was paſſed, in 1736, the ninth of George II. for laying a duty of two pennies Scots upon every Scots pint of ale or beer ſold in the town of Irwin, and its liberties; and a duty of a penny ſterling upon every ton of coals ſhipped off for tranſportation. By which means the harbour is reſtored to its priſtine goodneſs, and the town to its former flouriſhing condition. But thus much may be ſaid, that, notwithſtanding the declining ſtate of its harbour before this act paſſed, it carried on a greater trade than moſt of the ports between Aire and Dumfries. Their chief trade is in Scots coal, which they export in great quantities to Ireland; the neighbouring hills abounding with this commodity.

AKOND, an officer of juſtice in Perſia, before whom are brought all cauſes relating to orphans and widows, in regard to contracts, and other civil matters. He is the chief of the law-college, and reads lectures to all the inferior officers. He has his deputies in the ſeveral provinces of the kingdom, who, with the ſecond ſadra, conclude all bargains, agreements, and contracts.

ALABASTER, a kind of marble, which is ſoft and eaſy to cut. There are ſeveral ſorts of it: the moſt common is white and ſhining, and was formerly the leaſt eſteemed: that which is of a horn-colour, and tranſparent, was not much more valued. The moſt precious was that which is yellowiſh, ſomething like honey, and ſpotted with points, or ſmall veins. The white alabaſter ſeems to have the preference above all others at preſent. It is cloſe, and very proper to make figures, ſtatues, columns, ornaments, and veſſels of ſeveral ſizes. The antients uſed ſuch veſſels to put their moſt admired perfumes in. The countries in Europe, which abound moſt with alabaſter, are Germany, towards Coblentz; the province of Maconnois, in the neighbourhood of Cluni, in France; Italy, towards Rome, where that of Montaiout is particularly remarkable; not only for its whiteneſs, but alſo for the bigneſs of its blocks, ſome of which are ſo large, that ſtatues, as big as life, may eaſily be cut out of them. F. Labat, in his journey to Italy (Voyage d'Italie, tom. VI. p. 64.) obſerves, that there are quarries of alabaſter in the neighbourhood of the village called de la Toffa, near Civita Vecchia: there is alſo alabaſter to be found in ſome places of Lorrain; but it is not much eſteemed.

Cornelius le Bruyn, in his voyage to the Levant (Voyage du Levant, tom. V. p. 284.) relates, That he has ſeen mountains of alabaſter, which are about 150 leagues weſt diſtant from Archangel. The inhabitants of the country call them piſoertje, that is to ſay, ovens. They are ſubterraneous grottoes, formed by nature, after a very particular manner. The chief entry ſeems to be ſupported by pillars of rocks, in the form of pilaſters; and there are ſeveral other by-ways, which lead into ſmall grottoes. The ſtones are as white as common alabaſter, but not ſo hard; and yet ſeveral pretty pieces of work are made of them. Theſe mountains, which are half a league in extent, are ſeen for the ſpace of two hours along the river Penda, and there are no grottoes beyond.

ALADULIA, a province of Anatolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehends, in its largeſt ſenſe, Cappadocia Magna, and the Leſſer Armenia. It joins to the country, or Beglebergate of Trebizond on the ſouth, and is, by the Turks, called the Beglebergate of Munit, or Maraſch. This diſtrict is likewiſe called, by the Turks, Dulgadir, or Dulcadir. The territory of this province is unfit for tillage, but hath abundance of fine paſture-grounds, on which the inhabitants breed a prodigious number of cattle, eſpecially horſes and camels, beſides great herds of ſheep and goats.

1. CAPPADOCIA, beſides the great paſture-grounds, produces wines and fruits in great quantities; and the mountains, with which it abounds, eſpecially that long and high chain of them called Antitaurus, have mines of ſilver, copper, iron, alum. Its chief cities are,
Maraſch, which is large, and well-built, and drives a good traffic.
Cæſarea, now Caiſar, a fair and populous city, the ſtage of all the caravans of the eaſt, which here diſperſe themſelves to their reſpective cities. The bazars are handſome and well ſtored, and the inhabitants, who are quite polite, drive a conſiderable trade in cotton.

2. ARMENIA the Leſſer, the other province of Aladulia, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from the Greater Armenia, which belongs to Perſia, has little or no trade, and, therefore, no place of note.

ALAMODE, in commerce, a thin, light, gloſſy, black ſilk not quilled, or croſſed, chiefly uſed for womens hoods and mens mourning ſcarfs.
The ſubſtance of the ſeveral acts of parliament now in force that relate to this article, is as follows.
Alamodes and luſtrings may not be imported but into London only; and upon notice firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, of the quality, quantity, with the marks, numbers, and packages, the names of the importer, the ſhip, and her burden, the maſter, the place where to be laden, and into which they are intended to be imported; and taking a licence under the hands of the ſaid commiſſioners, or any three of them. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. ſect. 14. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 1.

If

If they are imported into any other port than London, or without notice, licence, and payment of duty, and not ſealed or marked, are forfeited, or their full value. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. ſect. 14. 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 20. ſect. 45. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 2.

Upon importation they are to be marked and ſealed, and regiſtered in a particular book, by the officers of the cuſtoms, before delivered out of the cuſtom-houſe warehouſe. 5 and 6 Will and Mar. cap. 20. ſect. 45. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect 2. If the ſeals, or marks, are altered, counterfeited, or miſapplied, the offenders, and their aiders, &c. are each to forfeit 500 l. and to ſtand in the pillory for the ſpace of two hours. 5 and 6 William and Mary, cap. 20. ſect. 45. 6 and 7 William III. cap. 18. ſect. 30. 9 and 10 William III. cap. 43. ſect. 5.

If they are imported without payment of duty, or being prohibited, or, by way of inſurance, delivered, or agreed to be delivered, the importer, contractor, or receiver, may be proſecuted, and a capias in the firſt proceſs, ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty may be iſſued, and the offenders be obliged to give ſufficient bail to appear in court, and, at ſuch appearance, muſt give ſecurity to anſwer all forfeitures and penalties, or elſe go to gaol. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. ſect. 1. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 8.

If they are fraudulently imported, knowingly received into cuſtody, bartered, or ſold, every perſon concerned is to forfeit 500 l. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 3.

If they are bought, ſold, or harboured, being ſealed, or marked, with a counterfeit ſeal, or mark, the offenders knowing thereof, and not diſcovering, are to forfeit the goods and 100 l. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 5.

They may be ſeized within the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and the bills of mortality, only by officers of the cuſtoms, or perſons deputed by the Luſtring company, having writs of aſſiſtance from the court of Exchequer. 9 and 10 Will. 3. cap. 43. ſect. 5. 5 Ann. cap 20. ſect. 3.

When ſeized, they are immediately to be carried to the cuſtom-houſe warehouſe in London; and, if forfeited, to be there ſold by inch of candle, on condition to be exported, and not to be delivered but in order to be put on ſhip-board, and until ſecurity be given for the due exportation; which ſecurity may be diſcharged by certificate of the chief magiſtrate of the place where they were delivered, or by oath that they were loſt at ſea. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. ſect. 4. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 2.

If ſeized and forfeited, they are not to be conſumed in Great-Britain, but muſt be ſold on condition only to be exported. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. ſect. 4. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 2.

In diſputes concerning their manufacture or importation, the proof is to lie on the importer, or claimer. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 5.

Officers conniving at the fraudulent importation of them, or colluſively delaying proſecution, are to forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable of holding any office under his majeſty. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 6.

If they offend a ſecond, or more times, after conviction, they are to forfeit double for each offence. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 7.

Commanders of ſhips of war, importing, or knowingly permitting, ſuch goods to be unſhipped, beſides all other penalties and forfeitures, are to be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 4.

Seamen belonging to ſuch ſhips, diſcovering the importation, or unſhipping, beſides part of the forfeitures, are to be diſcharged from their ſervice, if deſired. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 4.

Before claim can be entered, the claimer is to give ſecurity to pay full coſts of ſuit, if he be caſt; otherwiſe, the goods to be forfeited. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 10. 5 Ann. cap. 10. ſect. 4.

Information is to be commenced within two years after the offence. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 43. ſect. 12.

Black alamodes and luſtrings are not to be bought, ſold, or dealt in, unleſs ſealed, or marked, at the cuſtom-houſe, or by the Luſtring company, upon forfeiture thereof, and 100 l. 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 18. ſect. 28.

But, if the buyer diſcovers the ſeller within 12 months, he is diſcharged, and is intitled to half the forfeiture of the ſeller. 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 18. ſect. 29.

Black alamodes and luſtrings, whereſoever manufactured, found without the proper marks, or ſeals, are forfeited; and the perſons in whoſe cuſtody they are found forfeit 100 l. 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 18. ſect. 28. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 36. ſect. 3.

The diſtribution of all penalties and forfeitures is two thirds to the king, and one third to the ſeizer, or ſuer; but the charges of ſuit and proſecution muſt be paid out of his majeſty's part. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap 43. ſect. 9.

ALBANIA, a province of Turky in Europe, lies between Macedonia on the eaſt, and the gulph of Venice on the weſt, having on the north-eaſt, and north, a chain of mountains, called Monte nigro, or the black mountains, which divide it partly from Macedonia, and partly from Servia and Dalmatia. On the ſouth it is bounded by Epirus, which is ſometimes called Lower Albania, as the province we are ſpeaking of is ſtiled Upper Albania. Its ſoil is fruitful, but more towards the north than towards the ſouth, and produces flax, cotton, and excellent wine; as alſo wax in the woods, and ſalt dug out of the mountains. The inhabitants make tapeſtry, which, with the other commodities, they vend abroad. But this country has undergone the ſame fate of all under the Turkiſh dominion, being almoſt deſtitute of commerce, and its coaſt poſſeſſed by a kind of pirates, or rovers. Its chief places are,

1. SCUTARI, which is a conſiderable trading town.
2. DULCIGNO, ſituate on the gulph of Venice, may contain 7 or 8000 ſouls, ſays Mr. Spon, and is an indifferent good ſcale, that is to ſay, in the Levant language, a city of traffic. The Franks have here a conſul.
3. DURAZZO, is a noted ſea-port on the coaſt of the gulph of Venice. The harbour of Dyrrachium lies to the north-weſt of Brunduſium, now Brindizzi, and the paſſage from the one to the other was eaſy, ſo that the former became one of the moſt conſiderable towns on the coaſt of the Adriatic ſea. Two circumſtances concurred to make it flouriſh; the one was, that the inhabitants gave every one a full liberty to ſettle there; whereas, the Apollonians, their neighbours, drove all ſtrangers out of their city, after the example of the Lacedemonians. The other was, that moſt foreigners who ſailed up and down the Adriatic ſea, uſed, by the way, to put into this harbour. Meſſieurs Boudrand, Maty, and Corneille ſay, that this is ſtill a pretty large town, well fortified, and that it has a good harbour: whereas Meſſieurs Spon and Wheeler aſſert, that it is now but a village, with a ruined fort. Thirty miles from la Valona, to the ſouthward, there is a mountain, where riſes a fountain of pitch, which, being mixed with tar and water, ſerves to careen veſſels.

ALBERTUS, a gold coin ſtruck in Flanders during the adminiſtration of Albertus, archduke of Auſtria. It weighs four pennyweights, of the fineneſs of 21 carats and $\frac{3}{4}$. It is worth about 14 French livres, and yet it is received only for a mark at the mint in France, to be melted and made into Louis d'ors.

ALBE, a ſmall piece of money in Germany, worth eight fenins of that country, or two creutzers; that is to ſay, a ſol and ſeven deniers French money.

ALBUS, a ſmall coin, current in Cologne, and in the countries of the Lower Rhine. Four albuſſes make four and a half creutzers, or a ſimple blaffart, according to the regulations of the empire.

ALCANA, a drug uſed in Dying, which comes from Egypt, and from ſome other parts of the Levant. The botaniſts of the latter century called the plant which produces this dye, Liguſtrum Ægyptiacum, or Egyptian privet; but they were miſtaken: it is not a ſpecies of that kind.

The colour, which is extracted from its leaves, is red, or yellow, according as it is prepared. It is yellow if the leaves are put to ſoak in water; and red if put into vinegar, citron-juices, or alum-water.

The oil that is extracted from the berries of the alcana is of an agreeable ſcent, and of ſome uſe in phyſic, eſpecially for ſoftening of the nerves. It is called alſo oil of cyprus, and the plant ſometimes cyprus.

ALCAVALA, a cuſtom-houſe duty, paid in Spain, and in Spaniſh America. It is a duty of import, at the rate of five per cent. of the price of merchandizes.

ALE, a well known liquor in England, made of malt.

What chiefly diſtinguiſhes ale from beer, which is made from the ſame ingredients, is the quantity of malt and hops uſed in it, there being more put into beer than into ale; wherefore the former is ſtronger and more bitter, and will keep longer.

The duties on ale and beer make a principal branch of the revenue in England. They were laid in the 12th year of Charles II. and have been continued by ſeveral ſubſequent acts of parliament to the preſent time.

By ſtat. 12 Car. II. cap. 23. ſect. 1. There was to be paid to his majeſty during life,

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, brewed by any perſon who ſhall ſell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 1 s. 3 d.

For every barrel of 6 s. beer, or ale brewed as aforeſaid, 3 d.

Continued for the life of his preſent majeſty, by 1 Geo. II. ſtat. 1. cap. 1.

By ſtat. 12 Car. II. cap. 24. ſect. 15. There was to be paid unto the king, his heirs, and ſucceſſors for ever, as a part of the recompence for the tenures and purveyance taken away,

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, brewed by any perſon, who ſhall ſell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 1 s. 3 d.

For every barrel of 6 s. beer or ale, or under, brewed as aforeſaid, 3 d.

Confirmed 13 Car. II. cap. 7.

By ſtat. 4 Will. & Mar. cap. 3. ſect. 2. There was to be paid unto their majeſties, during ninety-nine years, for beer and ale, by way of exciſe, above all other duties,

For

For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, excluſive of exciſe, brewed by any perſon who ſhall ſell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 9 d.
For every barrel of beer or ale of 6 s. the barrel, or under, 3d.
For every barrel of beer, ale, or mum, imported from beyond ſeas, to be paid by the importer before landing, 3 s.
Made perpetual 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. ſect. 8. and the ſurplus, together with that of the duties on cyder, perry, brandy, ſpirits, and metheglin, as expreſſed in the ſame act, appropriated to the aggregate fund.
By ſtat. 5. Will. & Mar. cap. 20. ſect. 10. There was to be paid unto their majeſties, for beer and ale, one moiety of the duties of exciſe granted for four years, by 2 Will. & Mar. cap. 10. (*viz.*)
For every barrel of beer or ale, above 6 s. the barrel, excluſive of exciſe, brewed by any perſon who ſhall ſell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 9 d.
For every barrel of beer or ale, of 6 s, the barrel, or under, 3 d.
For every barrel of beer, ale, or mum, imported from beyond ſea, Guernſey, or Jerſey, to be paid by the importers before landing, 3 s.
Five ſevenths of this duty, and alſo of the duty on cyder, perry, brandy, *&c.* as is expreſſed in the ſame act, appropriated to make good a fund to the Bank, and two ſevenths to pay annuities; and the ſurplus to the aggregate fund. 1 Geo. I. cap. 12.
By ſtat. 4 Ann. cap. 6. ſect. 6. From the 17th of May 1713, there was to be paid unto her majeſty during the term of ninety-five years for beer and ale, above all duties impoſed by former acts.
For every barrel of beer or ale above 6 s. the barrel, excluſive of exciſe, brewed by any perſon, who ſhall ſell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 9 d.
For every barrel of beer or ale of 6 s. the barrel, or under, 3 d.
For every barrel of beer, ale, or mum, imported from beyond ſea, or from Guernſey or Jerſey, to be paid by the importers, before landing, 3 s.
Theſe duties, together with thoſe on cyder, perry, brandy, *&c.* as expreſſed in the ſame act, charged with annuities, and by 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. are made perpetual, and part of the aggregate fund. The South-Sea company are impowered to purchaſe the annuities, by 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.
By ſtat. 8 Ann. cap. 7. ſect. 1. From the feaſt of the Annunciation 1710, there was to be paid unto her majeſty during the term of thirty-two years, for beer and ale, above all duties by former acts impoſed,
For every barrel of beer or ale (above 6 s. the barrel, excluſive of exciſe) brewed by any perſon who ſhall ſell beer or ale, to be paid by the brewer, 3 d.
For every barrel of 6 s. beer, or ale, or under, 1 d.
By ſect. 3. For the barrel of two-penny ale, deſcribed in the ſeventh article of the treaty of union, there was to be only paid, by virtue of this act, ſuch a proportional part of 3 d. as 2 s. bears to 4 s. 9 d. above the other duties charged in the ſaid articles.
Made perpetual by the South Sea act, 6 Geo. I. cap. 4.

ALENTEJO, a province of Portugal, borders on the north on part of Eſtremadura, and of the river Tajo; eaſtward on the Spaniſh provinces of Andaluſia and Eſtremadura; on the weſt it is bounded by the ocean, and part of the Portugueze Eſremadura; and on the ſouth by the little kingdom of Algarve.
This country is reckoned the fineſt and moſt fertile of all Portugal; and its inhabitants, who are chiefly farmers, are very wealthy and induſtrious. It abounds not only with corn of all ſorts, wine, oil, and fruits, ſufficient for its own inhabitants, but likewiſe ſupplies ſome of the adjacent provinces; and this exportation is very much facilitated by a number of rivers, which fall either into the Tajo, of Guadiana, which two laſt great ones run quite acroſs this province.

At ELVAS, a city in this province, ſituate on the banks of the Guadiana, the Portugueze have of late erected a woollen manufactory; and the undertakers of that project imagine, that they ſhall be able to make a good progreſs, and to ſupply themſelves with broad cloths, fine druggets, and other ſtuffs, ſuch as they have principally from England; and that they ſhould uſe all the oil of their own growth in this manufacture. But, as yet, they have only been capable of finiſhing ſome coarſe and ordinary things, rather worſe than the Engliſh kerſeys, and which ſerve chiefly for the clothing of the pooreſt of the people.

The inhabitants of PORTALEGRE, another city of this province, have likewiſe made the ſame attempt as thoſe of Elvas, and have ſucceeded no better hitherto. The country, about this place, produces a very great quantity of oil.

At ESTREMOS is a curious manufacture of red earthen ware, formerly much admired in England; and, though now out of faſhion among us, is ſtill in great vogue in Portugal. The potters that work it are very ingenious, and turn it into a vaſt variety of curious utenſils; ſuch as jars, bowls, tea-pots, and the like.

At MONTE NOVO is another curious manufacture of a particular earthen ware, eſpecially of cups, pitchers, and drinking-bowls, adorned with bright ſtones.

ALFANDIGA, the name of the cuſtom-houſe at Liſbon, the capital of Portugal. 'Tis here are paid the duties of import and export, as is practiſed at the cuſtom-houſes of other countries. All gold or ſilver lace, fringe, ribbons, and brocades, are there ſeized, as contraband goods; no perſon whatſoever in Portugal, being ſuffered to have gold or ſilver wore or ſpun upon his clothes or furniture.

ALGARVE, a little kingdom within that of Portugal. It is wedged in by the ocean on the weſt and ſouth; on the eaſt by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andaluſia; on the north by the mountains called Serra de Algarve, or Colderao, and Serra de Monchique, which divide it from Alentejo; ſo that it is but 90 miles in length, where longeſt; and but 28 in breadth, where broadeſt.
The country though very mountainous in moſt parts of it, is yet very fertile. It doth not indeed produce any great quantity of corn, but abundance of wine, oil, figs, raiſins, dates, almonds, pomegranates, and other fruits, though not ſo exquiſitely taſted as thoſe of Spain; and, as the palm-trees are here in great abundance, the poor people employ themſelves in working the leaves of them into a variety of knacks; but, in the main, the country is nothing populous or wealthy, nor their cities and towns very remarkable for any tolerable ſhare of trade.
Lagos, one of the cities of Algarve, is about 110 miles ſouth from Liſbon, and 25 eaſt from cape St Vincent. It is ſeated on a large bay, that opens ſouthward to the ocean, and where ſeveral fleets have anchored during our late war with Spain in queen Ann's time. Figs are one of the chief commodities of the kingdom of Algarve, and are ſhipped off at Faro and Figuera in this bay, or near it. This country is exceeding fruitful, and the figs in particular are not only the beſt, and the beſt cured for merchandize of any we find, either in Spain, or on the coaſt of Barbary, but there is the greateſt quantity; for the Engliſh, Dutch, Flemings, and Hamburghers fetch them in great quantities; and 'tis ſaid, that there are frequently 40 or 50 ſhips a year, which are laden with figs in this little country.

ALGIER, a kingdom of Africa, is bounded on the eaſt by Tunis, from which it is divided by the river Suf-Gemar; on the weſt by the kingdom of Fez, from which it is parted by the rivers of Malvia and Zah, or Zes; on the north it is watered by the Mediterranean, and on the ſouth are the deſarts of Numidia. This country enjoys a conſtant verdure. In February the leaves begin to bud, in April they ſhew their fruit in full growth, which are moſtly ripe by May. The grapes are fit to gather in June, and the figs, peaches, nectarines, olives, nuts, *&c.* in Auguſt.
The ſoil is various, many parts of it being dry, hot, and barren; others fertile in corn and fruit, eſpecially the mountainous parts on the weſt of Tenez, Buggia, and Algier Proper. Others, as the northern part of Tremecen towards the ſea, abound in excellent paſture grounds.
The towns in this kingdom, even along the ſea-coaſts, are but few and thinly peopled, except its metropolis. Thoſe inland are ſtill fewer and thinner, and inhabited by a ſtout and haughty people, who trade into Biledulgered, and the countries of the Blacks. The Algerines are very great pirates, and reckoned the moſt dangerous of all Afric. They are extremely avaritious, and cruel to thoſe that fall into their hands, eſpecially to the Chriſtians.
As we ſhall ſpeak of this trade once for all, and not deſcend to every minute province, which is not deſerving our notice; ſo, we apprehend, that the following brief and connected account may be more acceptable to the reader.

ALGIER PROPER, which is bounded on the eaſt by Bugia, on the weſt by Tenez, by the Atlas on the ſouth, and by the Mediterranean from the mouth of the Chinelaf to the northern confines of Bugia. The territory of Algier is fertile in fruits, and the plane of Moligia produces corn, barley, and oats, two or three times a year, beſides other grain. The melons are of an exquiſite taſte, ſome of which ripen in ſummer, and others in winter. Their vines are very large and thick, and the bunches of grapes commonly a foot and a half long. Its chief places are,
Algier, the capital of the whole kingdom. In this city are merchants of ſeveral nations: they are ſaid to be ſo numerous, that they amount at leaſt to three thouſand foreign families, which have ſettled there on the account of trade, and keep about two thouſand ſhops in the two bazars of the place.
The Jews, whoſe number amounts to eight thouſand, dwell together in a particular quarter: almoſt the whole trade here paſſes through their hands. The manufactures of the ſilken kind are here carried on moſtly by Andaluſian and Granadan Spaniards.
The greateſt commerce of the Algerines conſiſts in the merchandize which they obtain by the piratical plunder of the Chriſtians over the whole Mediterranean, and in part of the ocean. The corſairs are continually bringing in prizes, with great numbers of Chriſtian ſlaves. Their marine is ſo ſtrong, that they fit out every year twenty-two, or twenty three veſſels, with three or four hundred men each.

Every Turkiſh veſſel, of what nature or bigneſs it be, pays 20 piaſters for anchoring in this harbour.

The Chriſtian ſhips, large or ſmall, pay each 40 piaſters, when their princes are at peace with the republic. They whoſe ſovereign is at war with Algier, may go thither, on paying 80 piaſters: they have nothing to fear, as ſoon as they are in the harbour; but at ſea, either going thither, or coming from thence, they are liable to be taken, as uſual.

The produce of this duty for anchoring is divided between the dey, the grand writers, the aga-bachi, who is upon duty for ſearching or viſiting the marine, the interpreter or linguiſt of the factory, under the protection of whom the veſſel is, and the Spaniſh hoſpital; every one has a ſhare as ſettled by the regulations. It is the interpreter's buſineſs to make the diſtribution, and give every one his proportion.

The duty of importation on all merchandize, belonging to Turks, Moors, or Jews, is $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and of exportation $2\frac{1}{2}$.

The Engliſh, ſince the taking of Oran, have obtained a diminution of the duty of importation, and pay but 5 per cent. The French obtained the ſame favour, by an article inſerted in the ratification of the treaty of peace, concluded the 27th of January, 1718, by the commodore count du Queſne.

Money pays always 5 per cent for importation, except that which is deſigned for the redemption of ſlaves, which pays but 3 per cent.

All brandies or ſpirituous liquors and wines pay, without any diſtinction, four current piaſters per caſk, for importation.

The company of the Baſtion de France is allowed the cargo of two barques every year, without paying any duty. See BASTION of FRANCE.

The coin, or ſpecies current at Algier, and ſtruck there, are the gold ſultanins and the aſpers: and a ſmall coin called burbas, ſix of which make an aſper; and the doublas, a ſilver coin, worth a little above 3 livres French money.

Foreign ſpecies current at Algier, are Venetian ſequins, ſultanins of Morocco, gold coin of Portugal, Spaniſh piſtoles, and piaſters.

The currency of the coin is not fixed, but varies according as the government requires it, yet the difference is but ſmall. Foreigners reckon the value of thoſe ſpecies, according to the price of bullion in Europe.

There is nothing fixed or ſettled, but the patack chique, or patack of aſpers, which is an imaginary money, always worth 232 aſpers. The third part of a current piaſter, which is commonly called patack gourde, weighs about two piaſters and a half; but its weight is ſometimes increaſed or decreaſed, arbitrarily, as the dey pleaſes.

There are money-changers at every corner of the ſtreets, who are Moors. They change other ſpecies of coin for aſpers, without any profit but the baſe or counterfeit aſpers, which they know how to ſlide amongſt the good ones; and people do not take much notice of this, nor is it an eaſy matter for others to diſtinguiſh the good from the bad aſpers. When a perſon receives a ſum of money, he ſends for one of theſe money changers, to examine the ſpecies, in which they are very expert, by their daily practice and occupation.

The merchandize for importation, conſiſts in gold and ſilver ſtuffs, or tiſſues, damaſks, drapery goods, ſpices, tin, iron, copper, lead, quickſilver, ſmall cordage, bullets, common linnens, ſail-cloth, cochineal, tartar, alum, rice, ſugar, ſoap, gall-nuts of Aleppo and Smyrna, cotton in the wool and ſpun, copperas, aloes, Brazil wood, Campeachy, or logwood, cummin, vermilion, arſenic, gum-lack, aniſe of Malta, ſulphur, opium, maſtic, ſarſaparilla, oil of aſpics, common incenſe, gall-nuts, honey, wool, paper, combs, cutler's ware by ſets, old and new cards for carding, and dry fruit.

There is but a very ſmall quantity of thoſe merchandizes ſold at Algier, though the country always wants them, becauſe there are duties to be paid; and it is difficult to get one's money after the ſales, the returns being uncertain, and inſults and oppreſſions very frequent.

They who have occaſion for any of theſe commodities, wait till the laſt extremity, being always in hope that ſome prize will ſoon arrive, laden with what they want, which happens very often.

There is leſs hazard in carrying piaſters thither, becauſe you may run them without much difficulty, and ſtrike very good bargains with the dey, when there is a plenty of prizes.

Merchandize for exportation, conſiſts of oſtrich-feathers, wax, leather, copper, rough wool, woollen coverlids, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſilk girdles after the Turkiſh faſhion, dates, and Chriſtian ſlaves.

We meet ſometimes with all ſorts of commodities, brought in with the prizes.

The veſſels whoſe flag is free, that is to ſay, whoſe ſtates are at peace with thoſe of Barbary, meet ſometimes at Algier with a cargo for Tetuan, Tunis, Tripoli in Barbary, Alexandria, Smyrna, or Conſtantinople.

The trade, carried on for ſome years paſt at Algier, is but trifling. The French have had little; the company of the Baſtion of France, who had the liberty to ſend two cargoes thither every year, having ſent none theſe ſeveral years, becauſe they could not procure payment of the laſt merchandize they had imported thither.

The Jews of Leghorn engroſſed, for ſome years, the ſmall remains of trade at Algier, by means of one of their nation called Solomon, and ſurnamed Jaquet, who lived a great while at Algier, where he died in the beginning of the year 1724. He was a very artful intriguing man, who, by many unfair practices, has gained the confidence of the reigning powers, under a pretence of being very zealous for the dey's intereſt. He fitted out ſhips for cruiſing, and was farmer of the wax; for it muſt be obſerved, that the Turks, and even the Moors in the cities look upon that employment as a diſgrace, and upon all farmers of duties or taxes, as publicans, or uſurers. He uſed to give notice of all that paſſed in Chriſtendom, and had managed ſo well by his correſpondence, that the Chriſtian ſlaves could hardly be redeemed by any other perſon but himſelf. This was to obtain advantageous commiſſions, and ſecure to himſelf all the profit there was to be made, on the difference between the piaſters of Algiers, and thoſe that are current in Europe.

When he knew there was a bargain on foot for the redemption of ſlaves, he uſed to outbid the others till they were tired, and forced to apply to him. He was favoured therein, as in all other things, by the ſtate, and was looked upon as one of the chief ſupports of the country.

The Engliſh conſul, who is the only merchant of that nation at Algier, has the moſt profitable trade: he ſells to the republic, powder, ſhot, bullets, grenadoes, hatchets, anchors, cordage, and other warlike ſtores, when ſhe wants them; and the dey gives him, in return, oil, corn, and other proviſions, the exportation of which is prohibited to all others.

There is a French conſul, under whoſe protection the foreign Jews, the Greeks, the Armenians, and others, put themſelves, and apply to him in their ſeveral diſputes. This conſul is forbidden to carry on any trade, either directly or indirectly.

There was formerly a factory and conſul for the United Provinces, but he retired in the year 1716. The Algerine corſairs taking at that time hardly any prize, the militia cauſed the divan to meet, and repreſented there, that they no longer met at ſea with any ſhips of the enemy; that all thoſe they happened to ſee were either Engliſh, French, or Dutch; and that, the country not being able to ſubſiſt without prizes, it was neceſſary to declare war with one of theſe three nations by a majority of votes.

Accordingly it was declared againſt Holland; whereupon they immediately ſtopped a veſſel of that nation, which was in the harbour, and the dey ſent orders to do the ſame in all the ports of the kingdom. He allowed to the Dutch conſul as much time as he pleaſed, to ſettle his affairs; and affected to pity and ſolace him. This conſul was a great friend of the dey, and had a very fair reputation amongſt the Chriſtians, the Turks, and the Moors.

The principal provinces of trade in this kingdom are,

1. BONA province, bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt by Tunis, on the ſouth by Conſtantina, and on the weſt by Labez. This country is fertile in corn and fruit, particularly in the jubub-tree, which covers a great part of it. They breed likewiſe quantities of cattle, large and ſmall, but are ſo expoſed to the continual incurſions and rapines of the Arabs, that only a ſmall part of the mountains is inhabited. Six miles eaſt of the town of Bona, is a fort called the Baſtion of France, and is kept by the French, who have their magazines of corn and other commodities, and apartments for thoſe who are concerned in them. The road for ſhips is very bad before the town of Bona, but a little farther weſtward, where the Genoeſe fort ſtands, it is deep and ſafe. On the eaſt ſide of the bay of Bona, the Genoeſe have a coral fiſhery.
2. CONSTANTINA province, borders on the eaſt to part of Tunis and of Bona, having the kingdom of Labez on the weſt, on the ſouth the Atlas, and the Mediterranean and part of Bona on the north. It hath a fruitful ſoil, the low lands abounding in corn, fruit, *&c.* and the mountains with paſture grounds.
3. GIGERI, or JIJEL province, reaches to the frontiers of Numidia, and upon the ſea-coaſts, having Bona on the eaſt, Conquo and Algiers on the weſt, and Labez on the ſouth. It is moſtly dry, mountainous, and barren, producing nothing but ſome little barley, flax, hemp, and a few nuts. The inhabitants of this province are ſo like a great many of our coaſters in Cornwall, Suffolk, *&c.* that they ſpare no wrecks at ſea, let them be friends or foes; only, if the crew be Mahometans, they give them ſome ſmall viaticum, to bring them on in their way home; and even if the ſhips belong to the Turks, or to the allies and friends of the dey of Algier, he can ſave nothing of it to the owners by any other means than a friendly compoſition: whereas, on any other coaſts but thoſe of Gigeri, both the dey, his agas, and officers will interpoſe their authority in favour of their friends, though it often happens even there, that their aſſiſtance comes too late to be of any ſervice to the ſufferers. The inhabitants of the town of Gigeri live chiefly on theſe wrecks.
4. BUGIA province, by the Africans called BUGGEYA, or

Buggia, lies alſo on the Mediterranean eaſt of Algier, and has the mountains of Labez on the ſouth, the Gigeri and part of Conſtantina on the eaſt. The ſoil is poor and dry, and bears but little wheat, but a good deal of excellent fruit and good paſture. The wealth of the inhabitants conſiſts in fruit, cattle, hempen and flaxen cloth. The money they uſe is made of pieces of iron, weighing about half a pound, and ſmall pieces of ſilver of about 4 grains.

5. Labez kingdom, lies on the ſouth of Bugia, having Tunis on the eaſt, Conquo on the weſt, and Mezezeb on the ſouth. It is very mountainous and barren, having but little corn or fruit growing in it; and in moſt parts ſcarce any thing but a kind of ſword-graſs, with which they make their mats, called by the Arabs, Labez, from which the country hath got the name. It is ſtiled a kingdom, becauſe, having been formerly ſuch, it ſtill retains its antient title, though now only a tributary province of Algier.

6. Conco, or Conquo, is adjoining on the weſt to that of Labez. It is inhabited moſtly by the Bereberes and Azuages, who are ſo fond of liberty, and afraid of being reduced to a hard ſlavery, like moſt of their neighbours, that they chuſe to lead a poor indigent life on their almoſt inacceſſible mountains, rather than pay ſome ſmall tribute to the government of Algier; and in all other caſes, avoid all traffic or commerce with them. The country produces plenty of fruit, hemp, flax, honey, wax, cattle, and corn enough for their uſe. The higher mountains have alſo mines of ſalt-petre and iron, and the king's revenue is computed at 700,000 ducats.

7. The province of Beni-Araxid, or Beni-Razid, is one of the dependencies on Algier; the ſouth of which is a plain champaign country, and the north very mountainous, but interlaced with fertile vallies, abounding with corn, honey, and paſture grounds, and the whole province producing plenty of jububs, figs, and other excellent fruits. One part of its inhabitants dwell in towns and villages upon the mountains, and cultivate their corn fields, vineyards, and fruits. The other which inhabit the plains, range about from place to place like the Arabs, and are richer in cattle, camels, horſes, &c. The chief towns are,

Beni-Arax, which hath a great number of perſons of quality and wealth.

Calaa, hath a good number of merchants and artificers, who live very comfortably.

El-Mohaſcar, hath a market every Thurſday, to which the Bereberes, Aruages, and Arabs repair to ſell their cattle, corn, barley, dried figs, and raiſins, honey, wax, oil, &c. and the merchants of Tremecen their cloths, linnen, camblets, bridles, ſaddles, and other ſuch commodities.

The territory about Batha is covered with the fineſt fruit-trees, and very well cultivated.

8. Miliana, or Magnana province, is ſituate on the ſouth and eaſt of Algier Proper, and joined on the weſt to Beni-Araxid; it is inhabited moſtly by a rude people, whoſe chief buſineſs is weaving of linnen cloths, and making of ſaddles after the Morocco faſhion.

9. Tenez province, hath Algier Proper on the eaſt; Tremecen on the weſt, of which kingdom it was formerly a part; the Mediterranean from the mouth of the river Chilef, or Cartena, to that of Aſſafran on the north; and on the ſouth reaches quite to mount Atlas. The ſoil is generally very fruitful, producing plenty of corn, cattle, wax, honey, and variety of fine fruit; but the natives are uncivilized and moroſe, though they drive a great commerce with ſtrangers; whereas the Arabs, though very ignorant, are of a contrary diſpoſition. They are ſtout and brave, and very impatient under the Turkiſh yoke. There is over-againſt the city of Tenez a ſmall iſland, under which the veſſels that trade to it ſhelter themſelves in tempeſtuous weather. The inhabitants have, in conjunction with the brave Arabs above-mentioned, made ſome noble efforts to ſhake off the Turkiſh yoke, but hitherto in vain.

10. Oran province, ſtands on the Mediterranean coaſt, has Hareſgol on the weſt, Tenez on the eaſt, and is bounded on the ſouth by Tremecen; and is as fruitful as moſt of the provinces.

The town of Oran ſtands about a muſket-ſhot from the ſea, and is well fortified.

11. Tremecen province, reaches, in length from eaſt to weſt, from the confines of Anga to thoſe of Fez, and, from north to ſouth, from the ſea to the deſert of Atlas. The country is very well watered, and produces plenty of corn and variety of fruits and cattle, eſpecially on the north ſide: the reſt towards the ſouth is more dry, barren, and ſandy, and even the parts adjacent to the capital are moſtly deſert, which is the reaſon why there is ſo few towns in this province. But thoſe that are in it, are generally well ſeated, built, and inhabited, and the people in good circumſtances. Thoſe who live in the more deſert parts of this province, own no ſubjection to the deys of Algier, but ramble where they pleaſe, and will trade with the Chriſtians in a friendly manner. The merchants of this province trade chiefly into the country of the Blacks, where they exchange their merchandize for Tibar gold, ambergreaſe, muſk, civet, African bezoar, elephant's teeth, negro ſlaves, &c. and this traffic is ſo advantageous to them, that two or three ſuch journies are ſufficient to enrich a man; and ſo it had need, conſidering the length and difficulty of it through ſuch vaſt ſandy deſerts, and the danger they run from the ſands, heat, and drought, and eſpecially from the plundering Arabs. The inhabitants of the towns here are well bred and courteous. The chief town is,

Tremecen, ſituate about 35 miles from the Mediterranean, which grew to a conſiderable height of ſplendor and opulence under its kings, but is much decayed, ſince it hath been under the Turkiſh yoke. Within its circuit are ſtill made great quantities of oil, and excellent grapes dried, and ſent abroad. In the city are variety of manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of weaving cotton, ſilk, and linnen carpets, &c. in the neatneſs of which they excel to a great degree, inſomuch that ſome of their mantles will ſcarcely weigh ten ounces. They are likewiſe famed for their fine ſaddles, ſtirrups, bridles, &c. which are made after the Moreſco faſhion.

ALIEN, is one born in a foreign country, under the obedience of a foreign prince and ſtate, and, in regard to England, not ſubject to its ſovereignty.

Though aliens, according to the laws of England, are not of capacity to buy, or inherit, lands, or freeholds, yet they may purchaſe houſes, or warehouſes, which are for accommodating them as merchant-ſtrangers.

Yet, if they depart and relinquiſh the realm, the king ſhall have the ſame; and ſo it is if they have taken a leaſe of meadows, lands, woods, or paſtures: for the law provides them nothing but a habitation to traffic in, as merchants.

But, though aliens can have no action for, or concerning lands, they may ſue perſonal actions, as on a bond; ſo likewiſe for words: for the common law, according to the laws of nations, protects trade and traffic; and not to have the benefit of the law, in ſuch caſes, is to deny trade.

The ſenſe of the ſtatutes now in force in relation to aliens, as traders, is as follows:

Aliens born, made denizens, are to pay ſuch duties as they did before they were made denizens. Stat. 22 Hen. VIII. cap. 8.

Aliens or merchant-ſtrangers, are to be uſed in this realm as merchants-denizens are in other countries. Stat. 9 Hen. III. cap. 30. 5 Hen. IV. cap. 7.

Aliens and denizens, coming into this kingdom, are to be well and honeſtly intreated, with reſpect to the payment of the duties. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 4.

Aliens, or merchant-ſtrangers, bringing in goods, muſt give ſecurity to the king's cuſtomer and comptroller, to employ their money upon the commodities of this realm, or to put it in due payment here (their reaſonable coſts excepted) and not to export the money received for the ſame; upon forfeiture of all their goods, and to ſuffer a year's impriſonment. Stat. 4 Hen. IV. cap. 15. 5 Hen. IV. cap. 9. 27 Hen. VI. cap. 3. 17 Edw. IV. cap. 1. 3 Hen. VII. cap. 8.

A Britiſh man, ſworn to be ſubject to a foreign prince, or ſtate, is to pay ſtranger's cuſtoms: but, if he returns to Great-Britain, and there inhabits, he is to pay but Britiſh duties, and to have a writ out of Chancery for the ſame. Stat. 14 and 15 Hen. VIII. cap. 4.

An alien infant, under 21 years of age, cannot be a merchant-trader within this realm, nor can he enter any goods in his own name at the cuſtom-houſe. Stat. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 2.

Aliens, or perſons not born within his majeſty's allegiance, or naturalized, or made free denizens, muſt not be merchants, or factors, in the plantations, upon forfeiture of all their goods and chattels, one third to the king, one third to the governor, and one third to the informer. Stat. 12 Car. II. cap. 18.

Aliens and their ſons, not freemen, are to pay the duties of ſcavage, &c. in the port of London.

The merchant-ſtrangers, who pay double ſubſidy for lead, tin, woollen cloths, ſhall alſo pay double cuſtom for native manufactures of wool, or part wool; and the ſaid ſtrangers, are to pay for all other goods, as well * inwards as outwards, rated to pay the ſubſidy of poundage, three-pence in the pound, or any other duty payable by Charta mercatoria, beſides the ſubſidy. Rule the 12th for the advancement of trade, &c. annexed to the rates of merchandize, under the act of tonnage and poundage, paſſed anno 12 Car. II. cap. 4. But, by 25 Car. II. cap. 6. ſect. 1, 2, 3. and 9 Ann. cap. 6. ſect. 3, 5. repealed, as to goods imported.

* This is the duty called petty cuſtom, payable by merchant-ſtrangers on all goods imported liable to tonnage and poundage (unleſs where the original old ſubſidy has been intirely taken away) but not on thoſe liable to the ſubſidy of tonnage, becauſe an equivalent is included in the old ſubſidy.

Note, Charta mercatoria, which was firſt granted by 31 Ed. I. was confirmed by 27 Edw. III. cap. 26. and the duty of three-pence per pound thereby granted, directed to be computed by the contents of the goods, according to the oath of the

the importer, or letters of credence, without unſealing, or opening; upon penalty of impriſonment by the officers, and quadruple damages to the party grieved, and as much to the king.

Aliens duty outwards taken off. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. 25 Car. II. cap. 6. 5 Ann. cap. 27. 6 Ann. cap. 10. 7 Ann. cap. 7. 9 Ann. cap. 6. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. 11 Geo. I. cap. 29.

When aliens are to be deemed natural born ſubjects, ſee NATURALIZATION.

ALIQUANT PART, a term of geometry and arithmetic. It is ſuch a part of a whole which does not meaſure it exactly, but ſome remainder will ſtill be left. Or, an aliquant part is that, which, being taken any number of times, will always be greater or leſſer than the number, or quantity, of which it is an aliquant part. Thus 7 is an aliquant part of 30, becauſe it does not divide it exactly, but there remains 2; or, 7 taken four times, is leſs than 30, viz. 28; and, taken five times, is greater, viz. 35.

ALIQUOT PARTS, alſo a term of geometry and arithmetic. An aliquot part is ſuch a part of any quantity, or number, as meaſures it exactly, without any remainder. Thus 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 15, are aliquot parts of 30, becauſe each of theſe ſmaller numbers meaſure the number 30 exactly, without any remainder.

ALLEVEURE, the ſmalleſt copper coin that is ſtruck in Sweden; it is not worth quite two deniers tournois of France. Two alleveures make a rouſting; eight rouſtings a mark of copper; and 24 marks the common rixdollar, which is at par with the French crown of 60 ſols, or five livres. See SWEDEN.

ALLAY, or ALLOY, a mixture of ſeveral metals, or of diverſe portions of the ſame metal, of different fineneſs.

Minters never ſtrike any gold or ſilver coin without allay, and always mix ſome copper with thoſe two metals, according to a certain proportion, ſettled by the rules of the mint, which, in France, cannot be altered but by the king's edicts, proclamations, or ordonnances.

Braſs coin is made of an allay of copper, mixed with a few parts of fine ſilver, regulated alſo by the prince.

The jewellers, gold wire-drawers, and gold-beaters, and gold and ſilverſmiths, are obliged to uſe allay in the ſilver and gold they work; but it ought to be leſs than that of coin, to prevent their melting it, in order to uſe it in their works, which the French call billonnage, which is an unlawful melting of gold or ſilver coin.

The braſs-founders, alſo, have their allay of copper, pewter, and tin. This allay differs according to what they deſign to caſt, either ſtatues, guns, or bells.

Finally, the pewterers, in the making of their ſeveral veſſels, diſhes, plates, &c. alſo make uſe of an allay of red copper, regulus of antimony, and ſome other minerals.

There are two ſorts of allays practiſed in the coinage of money: the one, when gold and ſilver are uſed that have not yet been coined; the other, when ſeveral ſpecies of coins, or ingots of different fineneſs, are melted together, to coin new money.

The proportion of the allay with the finer metal is eaſy in the firſt caſe; ſince, when once the fineneſs of the gold or ſilver is known by refining, it is only adding to it the allay of copper required by law to bring it to the legal ſtandard.

In England the ſtandard of gold coin is 22 carats of fine gold, and 2 carats of allay, in the pound troy: and the French, Spaniſh, and Flemiſh gold are nearly of the ſame fineneſs. The pound weight is cut into 44 pieces and a half, each current for 21 ſhillings.

The ſtandard of ſilver is 11 ounces 2 pennyweights of ſilver, and 18 pennyweights of allay of copper. The allay in gold coin is ſilver and copper; and, in ſilver coin, copper alone. Whether gold or ſilver be above or below ſtandard, is found by aſſaying. See ASSAY.

When ſeveral ſpecies of coin, or ingots of different fineneſs, are to be melted together, the operation, requiſite to find the due proportion of allay to the fine metal, is more difficult: and yet it is one of the moſt important articles a maſter of the mint ought to be acquainted with, and which all thoſe alſo ought to know who work in gold and ſilver, that they may not be miſtaken in the allay they are often obliged to make of gold or ſilver of different ſtandards.

All the authors who have wrote upon coinage, have given tables for making that reduction; and the arithmeticians have their rule of alligation, which may alſo be uſed. But the anonymous author of a ſmall treatiſe, printed at the end of Monſieur Boiſſard's edition of 1721, has given us the eaſieſt method to practiſe that rule.

As that method will ſerve both for gold and ſilver coin, we ſhall give but one inſtance of it; but it muſt be firſt obſerved, that the calculation for the allay of gold is performed by the 32 parts, which are wanting in, or exceeding, the ſtandard of thoſe metals deſigned to be uſed; and that, with regard to ſilver, we reckon by grains of fine metal.

When any one would make that kind of allay, or rather evaluation of allay, in order to add, or diminiſh, what is wanting, or too much in the fineneſs, you muſt draw up a table of the metals to be melted, containing their quality, weight, and fineneſs. This table is afterwards to be divided into two others, the one containing all the ſpecies which are below, and the other thoſe that are above, the requiſite degree of fineneſs.

Each of theſe tables being calculated ſeparately, you may find, by the calculation of the firſt, how much metals that are above the ſtandard, exceed it; and, by the ſecond, how much is wanted in thoſe that are below it: ſo that, by comparing theſe two products, or ſums, together, we diſcover exactly, by means of a ſubtraction, how much, either of fine gold, or allay, muſt be added, in order to reduce all thoſe metals to the ſtandard required for the new melting. Here follows the inſtance, which the abovementioned anonymous author gives us:

Numbers.	Marks.	Ounces.		Carats.
1.	1.	4.	Jacobuſſes, at 21	$\frac{30}{32}$
2.	2.	6.	Ingots, at 20	$\frac{1}{2}$
3.	1.	4.	Ingots, at 18	$\frac{3}{4}$
4.	3.	6.	Ducats, at 23	$\frac{2}{3}$
5.	1.	4.	Nobles, at 23	$\frac{1}{4}$
6.	1.	4.	Ital. Piſt. at 21	$\frac{1}{2}$
	12	4		

I have therefore, 12 marks and 4 ounces of gold, of ſeveral degrees of fineneſs, which muſt be reduced to the fineneſs of 21 carats and $\frac{3}{4}$.

Among the ſix articles which compoſe the firſt table, there are three, viz. the firſt, the fourth, and the fifth, which are above the ſtandard; and three, viz. the ſecond, the third, and the ſixth, which are below it. I ſeparate them into two tables.

High Gold.

Numb.	Marks.	Ounces.		Thirty-ſeconds.
1.	1.	4.	remains good	9. 32ds.
4.	3.	6.	ditto	210. 32ds.
5.	1.	4.	ditto	96. 32ds.
		Sums remaining good upon theſe three articles —		315. 32ds.

Low Gold.

Numb.	Marks.	Ounces.		Thirty-ſeconds.
2.	2.	6.	wanting	110. 32ds.
3.	1.	4.	ditto	144. 32ds.
6.	1.	4.	ditto	12. 32ds.
		Sum of what is wanting in theſe three articles —		266. 32ds.

The two ſums compared.

Remains good 315.
Wanting 266.

Remains good 49-32ds, for which muſt be put 4 drachms and $\frac{1}{2}$ of copper, and then the whole will be of the ſtandard of 21 carats and $\frac{3}{4}$: the weights of the metals being conſequently increaſed to 12 marks and 4 ounces exactly, becauſe of the addition of the allay.

There remains only to know how you may calculate the proportion there is between 49-32ds of fine gold, and 4 drachms and a half of copper. But the operation is eaſy, to one who is acquanted with the firſt principles of arithmetic, and knows, alſo, that 696-32ds good are worth a mark of copper, or 64 drachms; and that, accordingly, 5-32ds, and 5-8ths, are worth a drachm.

This example, which relates to gold above the ſtandard, may alſo ſerve for that which is below it; but, in that caſe, as many 32ds are to be added as were found wanting.

The chief reaſons alledged for the allaying of coin, are, 1. The mixture of the metals, which, when ſmelted from the mine, are not perfectly pure. 2. The ſaving of the expence that it muſt otherwiſe coſt, if they were to be refined. 3. The neceſſity of rendering them harder by mixing ſome parts of other metals with them, to prevent the diminution of weight; which pieces of money might ſuffer in time by being often handled and rubbed. 4. The melting of foreign gold, or coin, which is allayed. 5. The charges of coinage, which muſt be made good by the profit ariſing from the money coined. 6. and laſtly, the duty belonging to the ſovereign, on account of the power he has to cauſe money to be coined in his dominions. See GOLD and SILVER, and REFINING.

The allay of copper for ſtatues, guns, or bells, has alſo its proportions; but, as they are arbitrary, and depend on the taſte and experience of the founder, it is hardly poſſible to aſcertain the rules of it.

Monſieur Felibien pretends that the good allay for ſtatues, or

or braſs figures, ought to be made of one half of roſe copper, and half of yellow copper, or common braſs. According to others, and to Monſieur de St. Remy in particular, there ought to be four pounds of braſs, and eight of tin, in 100 weight of red, or roſe-copper. Which of theſe opinions is beſt grounded, muſt be left to thoſe who have experience in the caſting and allaying of thoſe metals for their various purpoſes.

To make the mixture fit for great guns, mortars, and other pieces of artillery, the beſt and ſofteſt tin of Cornwall is a neceſſary ingredient ſkilfully applied. There muſt be 6, 7, or 8 pounds of it to 100 weight of red copper, more or leſs, according as this laſt metal happens to be of a better or worſe quality.

The allay for bells is uſually made of 20 pounds of the hardeſt tin to 100 weight of roſe copper.

The allay, or mixture for the ſeveral ſorts of pewter deſigned for diſhes, plates, and other houſhold utenſils, is commonly made of red copper, regulus of antimony, and biſmuth, or lead. The pewterers at Paris uſe the word alloyage inſtead of alliage (allay) and have borrowed that word from their ſtatutes, where it is ſaid that the ſounding pewter muſt be (alloyé) allayed, with fine copper and biſmuth. See the article TIN, where you will find the methods of allaying or mixing the ſeveral ſorts of tin.

To ALLAY, or ALLOY, is to melt ſeveral metals together, in order to mix, or incorporate them with each other, that they may form afterwards but one and the ſame matter. Gold and iron cannot be allayed, or duly incorporated together by melting, nor even be ſoldered together, without the help of copper. Tin melted with gold becomes ſo cloſely united with it, that it is extremely difficult to ſeparate them, a ſmall quantity being even capable to ſpoil a whole caſting. See ASSAY.

REMARKS.

Perſons who purchaſe plate ſhould be careful to deal with thoſe of known honour and credit in their buſineſs, there being very great deceit and impoſition therein, notwithſtanding the laws, and the care of the goldſmiths company to prevent them. For the company have long complained that there are numbers who counterfeit the hall mark, becauſe their metal is worſe in point of quality, or has more allay therein than the law directs; and yet the buyer pays the ſame price for it, as if the wrought plate was made according to the legal ſtandard. This is a great evil, and ſhould be guarded againſt.

ALLIGATION, is a rule in arithmetic, which may be called the Rule of Mixture, or of compounding ingredients, becauſe it teaches how to mix ſeveral ſpecies of ſimples according to any intent, or deſign, propoſed; on which account we ſhall take notice of it. It is either medial or alternate.

Alligation medial ſhews what the mean price of a pound, ounce, &c. is worth, when ſeveral quantities of ſeveral values are mixed together, &c. as per the caſe following.

Alligation alternate ſhews how much of various kinds of ſimples may be taken to make up any aſſigned quantity of a compound which will be worth a price propoſed.

Of Medial Alligation.

Caſe 1. A refiner, or goldſmith, hath gold 12 ℥ at 4 l. per ℥; 8 ℥ at l. 4 5; 3 ℥ at l. 4 6 8; and 9 ℥ at l. 4 13 4 per ℥: what is an ounce worth, ſuppoſe theſe be all melted down together? Anſwer, l. 4 7 $5\frac{1}{2}$.

Rule... Multiply each quantity given by the price; then by direct proportion ſay,

As the ſum of the quantities given,
Is to the ſum of the ſaid products;
So is one ounce of the mixture,
To it's value.

See the work following:

℥ of gold.

12	× by	l. 4	: —	: —	the product is	l. 48
8	by	4	: 5	: —	produceth	34
3	by	4	: 6	: 8	produceth	13
9	by	4	: 13	: 4	produceth	42
32 ſum						l. 137 ſum.

Then ſay, 32 ℥ l. 137 :: 1 ℥ l. $4\frac{9}{32}$ or to l. 4 : 5 : $7\frac{1}{2}$; and, by the ſame rule, the value of any other quantity of that compoſition is found: as ſuppoſe 7 in the laſt example, which is worth $29\frac{31}{32}$.

For as 32 : 137 :: 7 : $29\frac{31}{32}$.

Caſe 2. To increaſe or diminiſh a compound proportionably, by knowing the ſeveral quantities of the ſimples in the compoſition.

Rule. As the ſum of the particular quantities of the compound given,
Is to the whole quantity propoſed to be augmented or leſſened:
So is each particular quantity in the given compound,
To the due proportion required of that ſpecie, fineneſs, &c.

Example. I would augment the compound in the laſt caſe to 48 ℥; that is, I would add 16 to the 32; how much muſt I take of each ſimple ingredient? See the operation.

12	Then, as	32	: 16 ::	12 ℥	6 anſwer.
8		32	: 16 ::	8	4
3		32	: 16 ::	3	$1\frac{1}{2}$
9		32	: 16 ::	9	$4\frac{1}{2}$
Sum 32				Sum =	16

So that I muſt have 18 ℥ gold at l. 4 : — : — per ℥,

12	at	4	: 5	: —
$4\frac{1}{2}$	at	4	: 6	: 8
and $13\frac{1}{2}$	at	4	: 13	: 4
48 ſum for proof in the whole.				

Caſe 3. Having the ſimples of any compound given, to find how much of each kind of ſimple ingredient is in any part of that compoſition.

Rule. As the total of the compoſition,
Is to the quantity of any ſimple in that compoſition:
So is the total quantity propoſed to be proportionably compounded,
To the quantity of each ſimple to be in that propoſed quantity.

Example. I would know how much of each ingredient (or price of gold mentioned in the firſt caſe) is in a pound, or 12 ℥ of the 32, being the compound given? The operation,

32	: 12 ::	12 ℥	$4\frac{1}{2}$	of l. 4	: —	: — per ℥
32	: 12 ::	8	3	of 4	: 5	: —
32	: 12 ::	3	$1\frac{1}{2}$	of 4	: 6	: 8
32	: 12 ::	9	$3\frac{3}{8}$	of 4	: 13	: 4

℥ 12 ſum proof.

Caſe 4. The total of the compound of two ſimples, with the total value of that compoſition, and the value of an unit of each ſimple being given; to find the quantity of each ſimple ingredient in the compoſition.

Rule... Multiply the total quantity of the compoſition (here 20) by the leſſer price of the unit (here 4) then deduct the product from the total value of the compoſition (here 82) and divide the remainder by the difference in value of an unit of the two ſimples given (as here 5 s. or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound) and the quotient is the quantity of the higher-priced ſimple (here 8) whoſe complement to 20 is 12; ſo that the anſwer is 12 ℥ of gold at 4 l. per ℥; and 8 ℥ at 4 l. 5 s. per ℥. This canon, or theorem, is diſcovered algebraically,

Gold at 4 l. per ℥.
Ditto at 4 l. : 5 s.

Total of the compoſition	= 20 ℥	Total value	l. 82
	4		80
	80		l. $\frac{1}{4}$) 2(8

Caſe 5. To find the quantities of each ſimple ingredient (when theſe ſimples are more than 2 in number) contained in a compoſition, by having the totals of the quantity compounded, and of the value; and alſo the value of an unit of each ſimple ingredient.

℥	of gold,	at l. 4	per ℥	=
℥	ditto,	at	$4\frac{1}{4}$	=
℥	ditto,	at	$4\frac{1}{3}$	=
℥	ditto,	at	$4\frac{2}{3}$	=
Total of the compariſon 32 ℥		Total value	l. 137	

Rule. To theſe kind of queſtions, as in thoſe of alligation alternate, various anſwers may be given, and yet all true. You may beſt do them by 2 at a time, as in the laſt caſe. I ſuppoſe the 2 firſt 15 of the total mixture, and 63 of the total value, and ſo I find 3 at 4 l. and 12 at 4 l. $\frac{1}{4}$: then the reſt of the total compound is 17, and of the value 74; which, according to the 2 latter prices, gives 16 at $4\frac{1}{3}$, and 1 at $4\frac{2}{3}$. But note, That you muſt ſo diſcreetly divide the total quantity and value, that, when the product of the firſt in 1 of the 2 prices is taken from the latter, the remainder may not be ſo much as (when divided by the difference of the prices) which give a quotient ſo great as that part of the total quantity of the ingredient which you fixed upon, or ſuppoſed.

The operation.

Firſt.	2 = 15	and = 63	
	4	leſs 60	deduct
Product = 60		$\frac{3}{4}$) 3(12 at $4\frac{1}{4}$	
Secondly.	15	63	deduct
	$4\frac{1}{4}$	63 $\frac{3}{4}$	
Product = 63 $\frac{3}{4}$		$\frac{1}{4}$) $\frac{3}{4}$) $\frac{12}{4}$ = 3 at 4	

The ſecond.	2=17	and 74
	4 1/3	73 2/3 deduct
Product=	73 2/3	1/3) 1/3(1 at 4 2/3
Laſtly.	17	74 deduct
	4 2/3	79 1/3
	79 1/3	1/3) 5 1/3(16/3, or 16 at 4 1/3.

Alligation alternate.

Queſtion 1. A farmer hath 4 ſorts of wheat, viz. 5 s. 6 s. 7 s. and 7 s. 6 d. per buſhel; and he is inclined to mix ſo much of each ſort as will make 64 buſhels worth 6 s. 6 d. per buſhel: how much of each muſt he take?

Having placed the prices as below, and the mean price, take the difference between the mean price, 6 s. 6 d. and 5 s. (the firſt price) which is 1 s. 6 d. this you muſt put down (in the firſt way) againſt 7 s. 6 d. (becauſe bigger than the mean price:) then put the difference between 6 s. 6 d. the mean price, and 6 s. (the ſecond price) which is 6 d. againſt the price (7 s.) becauſe bigger than the mean price. Then put the difference between 6 s. 6 d. and 7 s. (the third price) againſt 6 s. becauſe that is leſs than the mean price. Laſtly, the difference between 6 s. 6 d. and 7 s. 6 d. is 1 s. which put againſt 5 s. the firſt price. And thus having placed the differences between the mean price and thoſe leſs than it againſt the prices bigger than the mean price; and the difference between the mean price and thoſe greater than it, right againſt thoſe that are leſſer alternately.

2. Sum up the difference, which you ſee is 3 s. 6 d.

3. Say by the ſingle rule of proportion direct,

As the ſum of the differences is to the buſhels of the whole mixture:

So is the differences to the buſhels required.

The firſt way.

	Prices.	Differences.
	s.	s. d.
	5	1 : 0
	6	0 : 6
The mean price 6 s. 6 d.		0 : 6
	7	1 : 6
	7 : 6	3 : 6=Sum.

A ſecond way.			Third way.		Sums.	
	s.	s. d.		s.	s. d.	s. d.
	5	0 : 6		5	0 : 6; 1 s.	1 : 6
	6	1 : 0		6	0 : 6; 1	1 : 6
6 s. 6 d.		1 : 6	6 s. 6 d.		1 : 6; 6 d.	2 : 0
	7	0 : 6		7	1 : 6; 6 d.	2 : 0
	7 : 6			7 : 6		
	Sum=	3 : 6			Sum total=	7 : 0

The Sum of the Differences. s. d.	Buſhels the whole Mixture.	The Differences.	Buſhels required.
As 3 : 6	- 64 ::	- 12	18 1/2 of that of 5 s. per buſhel.
3 : 6	- 64 ::	- 6	9 6/12 of that of 6 s. per buſhel.
3 : 6	- 64 ::	- 6	9 6/12 of that of 7 s. per ditto.
3 : 6	- 64 ::	- 18	27 2/12 of that of 7 s. 6 d. per do.
	Sum, or Proof 64		the whole mixture.

For greater variety, ſee the beſt books wrote profeſſedly on arithmetic.

ALLOCATION, the admitting or allowing an article in an account, and paſſing it as ſuch. It is alſo an allowance made upon an account, and is a word uſed in the exchequer; hence allocatione facienda is a writ directed to the lord treaſurer and barons of the Exchequer, upon the complaint of ſome accountant, commanding them to allow him ſuch ſums, as he has lawfully expended in the execution of his office.

ALLOTTING, or ALLOTMENT of goods, is when a ſhip's cargo is divided into ſeveral parts, which are to be bought by divers perſons, whoſe names are written on as many pieces of paper, which are applied by an indifferent perſon to the ſeveral lots or parcels, and by this means the goods are divided without partiality: for every man has the parcel of goods, that the lot which his name is upon, is appropriated to. See INCH of CANDLE.

ALLOWANCES at the cuſtom-houſe, to goods rated by weight, are two, draught and tare.

Draught is to be firſt deducted, and then the tare, where there is any cuſtomary.

The manner of making the allowance for draught, is, for the weigher to call out the full and true groſs weight in the ſcale; which is to be entered in the land-waiter's book, and an allowance made for each weigh or ſcale, according to the following table.

Groſs weights.	Allowance for draughts.
Under 1 C. wt — — —	1 lb.
From 1 C. to 2 C. — — —	2 lb.
2 to 3 C. — — —	3 lb.
3 to 10 C. — — —	4 lb.
10 to 18 C. — — —	7 lb.
18 to 30 C. or upwards — —	9 lb.

Tare is the weight, or an allowance made in conſideration of the caſks, bags, or other kinds of packages. For the accommodation of trade, there are in many caſes tares ſettled and eſtabliſhed by cuſtom and experience. See the article TARES, TRET, CUSTOM-HOUSE, BILLS of ENTRY.

Allowances on the delivery of theſe goods, which are chiefly linnens, are as follows.

If linnens are contented in Flemiſh or Dutch ells, two ells in 120 are to be allowed for ſhortneſs of meaſure.

But if linnens are contented in Engliſh ells, there is no allowance made to the importer.

Of French lockrams, two ells in every 120 are to be allowed.

The following are the ſettled allowances for wrappers.

On Hamburgh and Bremen linnen; and alſo Heſſens canvas } in packs and bales, 1 ell in 40, but not to exceed 120 ells on any one pack, let the pack be ever ſo large.

Dantzick linnens, 4 ells in every 120.

Flanders linnens, 3 ells in every 100.

Holland's duck, 4 ells in every 100; but, if brought looſe, there is no allowance. See the article LINNENS.

Allowances on goods rated by meaſures of capacity liquid or dry.

Article 1. Allowances upon delivery.

Olives imported in large caſks are to be gauged, and 1/3 of the contents allowed for liquor.

Every { Pipe / Hogſhead } of wine, which ſhall be run out,

And not above { 9 / 7 } inches left therein, ſhall be accounted outs, and no ſubſidy paid for the ſame.

Article 2. If a merchant enters his wines filled, he pays duty only for the net wine contained in the caſk, and has no allowance out of the duties for leakage: when wines are entered unfilled, duty is to be paid for the full contents of the caſk, though it may want conſiderably of being full; but then the merchant is allowed 12 per cent. out of the duties for leakage. See WINES.

Therefore, if caſks of { Rheniſh, / French, / Port, or Madera, / all other } wines imported into

The Out Ports want more than { 66 / 625 / 106 / 1025 / 144 / 1425 / 6 / 59 } of being full,

The merchant loſes by entering them unfilled. In general, if any caſks of wine, imported into the out-ports, want much more than one tenth of being full, 'tis for the merchant's advantage to enter them filled, otherwiſe unfilled.

Five flaſks, or 7 and 1 half betties of Florence wine, are allowed to paſs for a gallon. Five bottles of other wines, imported in bottles, are allowed to be reckoned to a gallon, unleſs the merchants or officers think proper to meaſure.

Jars of oil are allowed to paſs at 22, 24, or 26 gallons.

A cheſt of oil uſually allowed at 8 gallons.

Barrels of mum, are allowed to paſs at 48 gallons.

Kegs of ſpruce beer, at 4 gallons.

In caſe of leakage, mum barrels and kegs of ſpruce beer may be filled up, before computation is made.

Tar barrels are allowed to contain 31 and 1 half gallons, and are to be filled up before computation is made for the duties. See the article TAR.

Awns of Rheniſh wines are allowed generally to paſs at 38 and 1 half gallons.

For merchandizes which are rated by ſuperficial and ſolid meaſure, there are no allowances. See the article TIMBER.

ALLUM, or ALUM, a kind of foſſil ſalt, or white mineral, which is often mixed with earth, from which it is ſeparated, by waſhing it with water; and which impregnates itſelf with the entire quality of the ſalt, acquiring thereby a taſte much like that of brine. This water is afterwards boiled to make it evaporate, as is done in the way of refining of ſalt-petre.

The principles which compoſe allum, are very cloſely united. The chief uſe of allum is in dying, becauſe it renders the colours clear, bright, and laſting: it is, if I may ſay ſo, the tie of adheſion of the colours to the ſtuffs, as ink, or other colours, upon paper. Were it not for the medium of allum, the ink would ſoak through the paper, and the effort of the air would ſoon ſeparate the dye from the ſtuffs, or tarniſh their whole luſtre. The effects of allum are to be aſcribed to its ſtyptic and aſtringent quality, and therefore it pre-

ſerves paper that has been dipped into allum, from ſinking, when written on.

There are three principal ſorts of allum; namely, the allum of Rome, or Civita Vecchia; the allum of England, otherwiſe called rock allum, white allum, or ice allum; and the allum of Liege, or Meziers; beſides that which comes from the Levant.

The ALLUM of Rome, ſays F. Labat, is reddiſh, becauſe the earth whence it is taken is of that colour. In order to have the beſt, you muſt chuſe that which has but little duſt, is reddiſh both within and without; and, above all, take care it be not counterfeit; for there are people, who know how to give a reddiſh colour to the allum of England and Liege. The ſureſt ſign by which you may know it to be counterfeit, is, when, by breaking it, it is not ſo red within as without.

The ALLUM of England, is in great pieces, or lumps, clear and tranſparent like cryſtal. It is more or leſs fine according as it has been well or ill purified. Sometimes there is allum found of a blackiſh colour, and ſomething moiſt. In order to chuſe it good, it muſt be white, clear, tranſparent, dry, with but little duſt, or dirt.

F. Labat obſerves, that there is another kind of allum made in England, which is alſo called roch, or ice allum; it is the ſame as that we ſpeak of in this article; but adds, that it is not by far ſo good as that of Civita Vecchia. Monſ. Lemery aſcribes the ſame qualities to it as to the former, but obſerves, that it is not of ſo great uſe in phyſic, becauſe it is not ſo ſtrong.

The Engliſh rock, or roche allum, is made from a bluiſh mineral ſtone, which abounds in the hills of Yorkſhire and Lancaſhire. They calcine it on a hearth or kiln, and then ſteep it ſucceſſively in ſeveral pits of water. Afterwards they boil it for about twenty-four hours, and then let it ſtand for about two hours; the impurities ſubſiding, and leaving a clear liquor, which is put into a cooler, adding a due proportion of urine to it. In three or four days it begins to gather into a lump, which being taken out, waſhed, and purified over again, is fit for uſe.

The Manner of diſcovering and preparing Allum at Civita Vecchia.

The ſtone that produces allum is taken out of the open fields, and not out of quarries, as free-ſtone is in France, and other countries. The workmen, who are uſed to ſearch and rake for thoſe ſtones, know by certain tokens, and by a long experience, which are the places where they are to be found, without much raking or digging. In thoſe places, which abound moſt with allum, there commonly grow ſmall ſhrubs, called agrifolios, in the language of that country. They are ever-greens, and much like the holms that are ſeen in Provence and elſewhere: but the agrifolios have their bark green as well as the leaves, which are broad, thorny, and of a darker green than the bark. In meeting with thoſe ſhrubs, either upon the mountains of Tolfa, or on the ſides of them, or in the plane, it is a ſure ſign that there is allum-ſtone underneath; and the more there are of thoſe ſhrubs, the more certain we may be of meeting therewith. There are ſometimes met with allum-ſtones ſpread upon the ſurface of the earth. That ſign cannot be equivocal; it ſhewing that you may dig without fear of being diſappointed, and be certain that the bed or vein lies near, and is plentiful.

They employ commonly three ſorts of workmen, for the finding and raking of thoſe ſtones. The firſt may be ſtiled the diſcoverers. They are thoſe, who, by a long experience, are become expert in the knowledge of the ſigns, which point out the places where the allum-ſtones lie. Theſe direct the work, in order to trace the vein, and not to be miſled, when any obſtacle is in the way that may occaſion a miſtake. The ſecond are thoſe who break the rocks, which ſometimes incloſe the good ſtones, and cover or hide the veins. Beſides pick-axes, iron wedges, and twi-bills, which they uſe, they are alſo often obliged to blaſt them with gunpowder, as in metallic mines. The third workmen are thoſe who pick and chuſe the ſtones; for thoſe that are found in the ſame vein, are not all true allum-ſtones. 'Tis neceſſary to have a perfect knowledge of them, not to be miſtaken, otherwiſe the farmers of them would be drawn into uſeleſs, and often very conſiderable, expences. The ſtones are commonly whitiſh, greyiſh, or blue, or even mixed with thoſe three colours. Thoſe marks, however, are leſs ſure than the grain, which ſeldom miſleads thoſe who are uſed to that ſearch, and to the picking of the ſtones.

When all thoſe ſigns prove equivocal, they burn and calcine two or three wheel-barrows full of the ſtones; and, by the conſequence, they judge of what may be expected from the vein that is opened.

When the ſtones prove good, they carry them to the kiln, and place a quantity rounds the ſides of it, as when they deſign to make lime; and they give them more or leſs fire, according to the quality of the ſtone, and the nature of the place whence it was taken. That is to ſay, if the ſtone is ſoft and dry, and was taken from an open place on the top of the mountain, where it was expoſed to the heat of the ſun, it requires much leſs fire, than when it is ſoft but moiſt, being taken out of the bowels of the earth, where it had nothing but moiſture, and very little of the ſun's heat. It is impoſſible to preſcribe general rules upon this ſubject, becauſe it depends very much from the circumſtances, which muſt be left to the capacity and honeſty of the workmen, who have the direction of the work; but yet the maſter ought to know as much, or more than they, to prevent impoſition. For the expence of this manufacture is very large; beſides which, there muſt be 30,000 crowns paid to the apoſtolic chamber, to whom all the ground of thoſe allum mines and the neighbouring woods belong.

When the ſtones are baked, and the kiln uncovered, they pick out the ſtones a ſecond time, and thoſe which are ſufficiently baked, are carried to the place where they are to be extinguiſhed: they put into a ſeparate place of the kiln thoſe ſtones that are not enough, in order to bake them a ſecond time with other freſh ſtones that are to be put into the kiln. They are called biſ-cakes, becauſe of their ſecond baking. They throw away as uſeleſs thoſe that were burnt, inſtead of being only baked; and theſe they call ſcales.

The ſtones that are ſufficiently baked, are carried into a place ſurrounded with low walls, the ſoil or ground of which is well paved, and has little channels dug into it to gather the water. They make a heap of thoſe ſtones between two channels, and make the heap commonly 15 or 18 feet long, and 5 or 6 broad at bottom; and 8 feet high, and narrow at the top; and they take care that the ſides be very ſmooth and very cloſe. Upon that heap of ſtones, they throw water with ſcopes in order to extinguiſh the fire hid within the ſtones, as is practiſed in the burning of lime-ſtones. This work is continued night and day, during 25 or 30 days, and till the water, thrown upon the heaps, runs off perfectly cold. For till that time the ſtones heat the water, that runs off after having penetrated them; and is ſo hot in the beginning, that it perfectly boils. The heat decreaſes by degrees, as the ſtones which have been ſet on fire, begin to cool. That water is carefully kept, not only to extinguiſh other ſtones, but alſo to put it into coppers with the ſtones that have been baked and extinguiſhed: for that water could not paſs through the pores of the ſtone, without being impregnated with a great quantity of alluminous particles: ſo that it helps to form the grains of allum in the moulds: they call that water lye.

When the ſtones are entirely extinguiſhed, and reduced to a ſoft, and as it were, a liquid maſs, they carry the whole into large coppers, wherein they pour a ſufficient quantity of the water, which ſerved to extinguiſh them; and they kindle a very great fire under it, that is continued for 16, 18, or even 20 hours: during this time they ſtir the boiling matter with iron ſhovels, to make the uſeleſs ſtones, earth, and other droſs, come to the top, which they ſkim off, to purify the whole. They continue this work, till the matter, or, as they ſtile it, the alluminous lye, be clear, clean, and thoroughly liquid.

When in that condition, they pour it into wooden gutters, which convey it into ſquare wooden frames, made after the manner of inverted pyramids, about 4 or 5 feet high, and 2 feet and a half broad. The point of the pyramid is bored through, but they ſtop the hole, when they pour the lye into it.

They leave it there to ſettle and cool, for 10 or 12 days; during which time the alluminous particles unite together, and ſtick to the ſides of the frame, where they harden, and form an infinite number of various figures.

When they judge that the whole quantity of allum they can expect, is formed, they open the hole at the bottom of the frame, to let out what remains of the lye, that is not congealed; but, before they take the allum out, they pour more lye into the frame, to waſh it and purify it from the droſs and filth that may ſtick to it's outſide: and, after having left the reſidue a day or two to dry, they take it out of the forms, and lay it up in the warehouſes.

There are about 60 days required to perform that work, from the time the ſtone was taken out of the quarry or vein, till the allum be fit for ſale.

The farmers of this manufacture make conſiderable profits by it, notwithſtanding the high price they pay for their farms, and the expences they are at. They have warehouſes at Civita Vecchia, where it is weighed, and from thence it is carried in bags into the veſſels of the purchaſers, which are generally barques from Marſeilles.

ALLURE, or ALLEVEURE, a ſmall braſs coin ſtruck in Sweden, worth about 4 French ſols, or about $2\frac{1}{4}$ Engliſh money. Two allures make a rouſting, and 8 rouſtings a mark of copper.

ALMADY, a ſmall canoe, four fathoms long, generally made of the bark of trees; it is uſed by the negroes on the coaſt of Africa, to trade among themſelves, and with the Europeans, who lie off the ſhore for trade.

ALMADY, is alſo a veſſel uſed in the Eaſt-Indies; it is made in the form of a weaver's ſhuttle, except that it is ſquare at the ſtern. Some of them are 80 feet long, and 6 or 7 feet wide. They carry great ſtore of merchandize, and with theſe veſſels the richeſt Indian merchants drive their greateſt trade; whether they

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they load them on their own account, or let them out upon freight to the European merchants.

ALMENE, a weight of two pounds, uſed to weigh ſaffron in ſeveral parts of the continent of the Eaſt-Indies.

ALMOND, a meaſure in Portugal for oil. The Portugueze ſell their oil by almonds, 26 of which make a butt, or pipe. Each almond contains 12 canadors, and a canador is equal to a mingle of Amſterdam. See the article MINGLE.

ALMONDS, this kind of fruit, and the tree that bears it, are too much known to want a deſcription.

The trade of almonds, which is carried on in France, is conſiderable, both on account of their oil, and the large quantity of them uſed in Lent, either ſhelled or unſhelled; a great quantity of the ſweet are uſed in ſugar-plums, and of the bitter ones in biſcuits, confects, &c.

The grocers and druggiſts of Paris have both ſorts from the provinces of France, and the neighbouring countries, as Provence, Languedoc, Touraine, the county of Venaiſſin, Avignon, &c. They have alſo ſome from Barbary. The beſt are thoſe of the county of Venaiſſin; thoſe of Barbary and Chinon in Touraine are the worſt.

Almonds in the ſhell come from the ſame places as thoſe that are otherwiſe, even thoſe which are called Florence almonds; to which they give that foreign name, with no other view but to make them more valued; for it would be more proper to call them almonds of Languedoc, or Touraine, from which provinces they are brought, than of Florence, from whence they do not come.

How to make a good choice of almonds, is pretty well known: nevertheleſs, merchants who buy them in caſks, cheſts, or bales, ought to examine whether they be the ſame throughout: for, in this kind of merchandize, the beſt are often placed at the top, in order to ſell the better.

Two ſorts of oil are drawn from almonds, either ſweet or bitter, the one by the help of fire, the other without. That which is extracted by fire is good for nothing except to burn; but the oil of ſweet almonds, drawn without fire, is fit for ſeveral different uſes, either in phyſic or perfuming.

ALMOXARIFARGO, is a duty of 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. paid ad valorem upon all bull's hides, to the king of Spain, in Spaniſh America, upon the exportation of theſe hides, which are ſhipped on board European veſſels. Beſides this duty, there is alſo another duty called that of the quinto, but only at the rate of four rials per hide.

This is alſo an old duty paid upon the Britiſh woollen manufactures in old Spain.

All goods in Spain, it muſt be obſerved, are rated at the cuſtom-houſe by maravedies, or rials; and the cuſtoms are paid by one or other of theſe denominations.

The cuſtoms called alcavalas [ſee ALCAVALAS] and ſome others, are paid in vellon, or copper money; the old duty called almoxarifargo, and ſome others, are paid three quarters in vellon, and one quarter in plata, or ſilver money.

The plate money is 50 per cent. better than the vellon money of the ſame denomination. The merchants there always make up the accounts of their cuſtoms in their own books in vellon, and therefore, make an addition of 50 per cent. for ſuch part of it as is paid in plate.

Fifteen rials vellon are a piece of eight, and 34 maravedies make a rial.

The duty called almoxarifargo is 11 per cent. on ſome of our woollen manufactures, on others not above 5 per cent..

On thoſe goods where the almoxarifargo is 11 per cent. the old alcavalas is no more than 1 per cent. But where the almoxarifargo is no more than 5 per cent. the old alcavala is 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

So that the duties in Spain upon an 100 maravedies only will ariſe thus, even to the 100th part of a maravedy, on the goods which pay the higher almoxarifargo.—100 maravedies are ſuppoſed to be the value of the goods.

11	per cent. almoxarifargo, quarto plata.
2	Dos per ciento—quarto plata.
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	Uno y medio per ciento, with a premio, or addition of 5 per cent.
1	Uno per cent. noeva alcavala.
1	Uno per cent. donativo.
2	Dos per ciento—quarto plata.
$\frac{1}{2}$	Per ciento.
1	Per ciento.
2	Per ciento—quarto plata.
1	Old alcavala.
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	Per ciento—quarto plata.
24 $\frac{1}{4}$	in all; ſo that, by this account, the whole duties are 24 $\frac{1}{4}$ of 100 maravedies.

But here the reader muſt obſerve, that a quarter part of ſome of theſe duties is paid in plata, which, as ſaid before, is 50 per cent. better than vellon; and that there is alſo a premium, or addition, of 5 per cent on one of the duties. The addition then of this 5 per cent. and alſo of the 50 per cent. will ſtill ſwell the account, and add to the foreſaid 24 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. that is to ſay,

	mar.	100th part of a mar.
The quarter part of 11 per cent. almoxarifargo is 2 $\frac{75}{100}$ maravedies, which, being paid in plata, which is 50 per cent. better than vellon, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 2 $\frac{75}{100}$ maravedies muſt be added, viz. — — —	1	37 $\frac{1}{2}$
The quarter part of three times dos per ciento paid in plata for the ſame reaſon muſt be added —	0	75
The premium of 5 per cent. on 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ maravedies muſt amount to —	0	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
The laſt duty is 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ maravedies; and, the quarter of this being 31 $\frac{1}{4}$ hundredth parts of a maravedy, the half of the ſum ſhould be added for it's being paid in plata; but to avoid ſo inconſiderable a fraction, the merchants in their accounts add only the half of 30 — —	0	15
In all	2	35
The cuſtoms, without theſe additions, amount to 24 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. maravedies	24	25
So that the whole cuſtom is on every 100 maravedies — —	26	60

But, where the almoxarifargo is no more than 5 per cent. the old alcavala is 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and the whole cuſtoms as follow, viz.

5	per cent. almoxarifargo——quarto plata.
2	dos per ciento——quarto plata.
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	per ciento, with a premium, or addition, of 50 per cent.
1	per ciento nova alcavala.
1	per ciento donativo.
2	dos per ciento——quarto plata.
$\frac{1}{2}$	per ciento.
1	per ciento.
2	dos per ciento——quarto plata.
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	old alcavala.
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	uno y quarto per ciento.——quarto plata.
22 $\frac{3}{4}$	— ſo that, according to this table, the whole duties are 22 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. maravedies.

But in this, as well as in the former caſe, for the quarto plata and the premium additions muſt be made, viz.

	mar.	100th part of a mar.
For the quarto plata on 5 per cent. almoxarifargo — — —	0	62 $\frac{1}{2}$
For the quarto plata on 3 times dos per ciento — — —	0	75
For the premio of 5 per cent. on 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ maravedies — — —	0	7 $\frac{1}{2}$
For the quarto plata on the laſt duty of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. — — —	0	15
	1	00
To which add the 22 $\frac{3}{4}$ abovementioned, viz.	22	75
And the whole duty on goods, paying but 5 per cent. almoxarifargo, amounts to — — —	24	35

Theſe duties of 26 $\frac{60}{100}$ maravedies, and 24 $\frac{25}{100}$ maravedies per cent. are reckoned in vellon, or copper money.

But, to ſhew how much this amounts to upon the real value of Britiſh goods, it will be neceſſary firſt to fix the value of our goods, and then to ſhew what gratias are allowed, or abatements made, to the merchants out of theſe cuſtoms.

To begin with a compariſon of the cuſtom-houſe valuation, and the real value, and particularly in the caſe of Engliſh bays. A piece of bays rated at 10,000 maravedies, pays 2,660 maravedies cuſtoms.

The ſame has been uſually ſold for 20 ducats, or 220 rials plate: to which add 50 per cent. for vellon, or copper money, and it will amount to 330 rials; and theſe, multiplied by 34 maravedies, will produce 11,220 maravedies; that is, 1,220 more than the cuſtom-houſe valuation.

Now 2,663 maravedies on 10,000, is 26 $\frac{3}{9}$, or 26 $\frac{60}{100}$, per cent. but on 11,220 is not quite 23 per cent.

But, in the next place, 33 per cent. is abated for the farmer's gratia; that is, in 100 pieces of bays, the farmer of the revenue counts no more than 67, he receiving cuſtom for no more; ſo that the whole 100 pieces pay only the cuſtom of 67 pieces.

Upon the payment of theſe cuſtoms there is alſo a quarter part abated for the king's gratia. A quarter part of 67 is 16 $\frac{3}{4}$: this reduced the cuſtoms on 67 pieces to no more than the cuſtom on 50 $\frac{1}{4}$.

But other allowances are alſo made to the merchants, which brought the cuſtoms on 100 pieces of bays down to 43, or thereabouts, which make an abatement of 57 per cent. on the cuſtoms, which has been ſhewn were not above 123 per cent. of the real value of the goods, and reduced the ſame to about 9 $\frac{6}{11}$ per cent. on our bays.

On other goods the deductions are greater. The farmer's gratia is 45 per cent. the king's gratia a quarter part of the remaining 55, which amounts to 13 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. and reduced the goods to 41 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. of the quantity whereon the cuſtoms were paid; which is the ſame thing as abating 58 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. out of the cuſtoms, and reduced the ſame, on all goods paying the 11 per cent. almoxarifargo, to leſs than 9 $\frac{6}{11}$; on

all

all others which paid but 5 per cent. almoxarifargo, to about 8 ³ per cent.

ALNAGE, or AULNAGE, i. e. ell-meaſure; the meaſuring of woollen manufactures with an ell, and the other functions of the alnager.

REMARKS.

All the attempts which our forefathers made for regulating of manufactures, when left to the execution of any particular officer, in a ſhort time, reſolved but into a tax on the commodity, without reſpect to the goodneſs thereof.—As is moſt notorious in the caſe of aulnage, which was intended for a proof of the goodneſs of the commodity; and to that purpoſe a ſeal was invented, as a ſignal that the commodity was made according to the ſtatute: which ſeals, it is ſaid, may now be bought by thouſands, and put on what the buyers pleaſe. Sir Joſiah Child on Trade, p. 2. ſeq.

That impoſitions of this kind upon foreign nations, have proved highly injurious to our woollen manufactures, by giving our rivals an opportunity to ſupplant us therein, is well known to thoſe who have any experience in the trade of Portugal and Spain.

ALNAGER, ALNEGER, AULNEGER, q. d. meaſurer by the ell; ſignifies a ſworn public officer, who, by himſelf, or deputy, is to look to the aſſize of woollen cloth made throughout the land; i. e. the length, breadth, and work thereof, and to the ſeals for that purpoſe ordained.

There are now three officers relating to the alnage, or regulation of cloth; all which were antiently compriſed in one perſon.—Theſe bear the diſtinct names of ſearcher, meaſurer, and alnager.

REMARKS.

A duty being impoſed on woollen cloths, for the maintenance of an office to look to that manufacture, and the loyalty, as they call it, of the ſtuffs produced therein; the alnager, who had the direction of the whole, is now become only the collector of that duty, or ſubſidy, granted to the king, though he ſtill holds the ancient denomination, becauſe the collection of that ſubſidy was committed to him.—Nor was he abridged of his meaſuring and ſearching, till, by his own neglect, it was thought proper to ſeparate the two offices. So that there is now a peculiar meaſurer, diſtinct from the alnager, or collector, to allow the aſſize of the length and breadth of every cloth made in England and Wales.

ALOES. That name belongs to three different things. 1. To a very precious and ſcarce tree. 2. To a drug very uſeful in phyſic. 3. To a plant, from the roots and leaves of which that drug is extracted, which is their juice. Moſt authors miſtake the plant and the tree for each other; becauſe, no doubt, we have but little knowledge of the tree; and the drug, which the plant produces, is much better known, and of a much greater uſe.

We may judge of the value and ſcarcity of the aloes-trees by the fabulous origin which the Indians, and even ſome European authors, have not not bluſhed to aſcribe to it, ſuppoſing it to grow in the terreſtrial paradiſe, and not to be tranſmitted to us but by means of the waters which ſometimes overflow that delicious place.

There was no occaſion to wait for the arrival of ambaſſadors from Siam into France, in the year 1686, to be undeceived, and to explode thoſe fables, to which no perſon of ſenſe could give any credit, not even they who propagated them. But thoſe ambaſſadors contributed very much towards giving us a true knowledge of thoſe trees, of which hardly any thing but the name was known till then.

The aloes tree grows in China, in the kingdom of Lao, and in Cochinchina. It is about the ſame height and form as the olive-tree: its leaves are alſo much like thoſe of that tree; and its fruit is red, and differs but little from a cherry. The trunk of the aloes-tree is of three colours, which make three ſorts of different woods, names and properties. Immediately under the bark, it is black, compact, and heavy. The next wood is of a tanned colour, light, full of veins, and is like rotten wood. Finally, the heart is that precious wood of tambac, or calembac, which is dearer in the Indies than even gold itſelf; and which, in the opinion of the Siameſe, was the moſt ſcarce and moſt valuable of all the magnificent preſents they brought from their maſter to Lewis XIV.

The calembac has a ſtrong, but agreeable ſmell. It ſerves to perfume cloaths and apartments, is a ſovereign cordial in fainting fits, and againſt the palſy. It is alſo uſed to ſet the moſt precious jewels that are worked in the Indies.

Of the two other woods, that which is next to the bark is black, and, for that reaſon, the Portugueze have given it the name of Pao d'aquila, eagle-wood. It is no commodity for trade in France, where it is only to be found in the cabinets of ſome curious perſons. The wood of a tan-colour, which lies between the eagle-wood, and the tambac, is nothing but the calembac, which is the only true aloes-wood that the druggiſts at Paris are able to ſell, the other two ſorts being too ſcarce; and all that quantity of wood to which the name of aloes is given being without any virtue, and of no worth at all.

The wood of calembac muſt be choſen of a ſhining yellow, and well veined without. It ſhould be porous, and of a yellowiſh-white within; light, of a reſiny quality, and like rotten wood. It ought to be of a bitter taſte, like that of the drug called aloes, which, on that account, has communicated its name to it: when thrown into the fire, it ought to burn like wax, and yield an agreeable ſcent. The true calembac is generally in flat bits; which, together with its lightneſs, eaſily diſtinguiſhes it from many other ſorts of wood people pretend to ſell inſtead of that.

The kingdom of Tonquin produces as much aloes as China and Cochinchina; and, after the ſilks, its greateſt riches conſiſt in that precious tree. The aloes of Tonquin is ſo good, that ſome of it is ſold there 1000 crowns per pound, more or leſs, according as it has more or leſs greaſe, or fat in it, that which has none ſells hardly for three crowns, being fit only for inlaid works, or for beads, ſuch as are to be ſeen at Paris.

All the Eaſtern people, eſpecially they who let their beards grow, make a very great account of this perfume, becauſe of the cuſtom which prevails in all the Eaſt, not to receive in their houſes any perſons of note without the ceremony of preſenting them with perfumes; which is performed by covering their heads with a piece of cloth, or a large ſilk, or cotton, handkerchief, under which they put a ſmall pan, wherein they burn aloes, or ſome other drug of an exquiſite ſcent.

Tavernier, in his account of Tonquin (Relation du Tonquin) aſſerts, that he ſaw at Iſpahan a log of aloes-wood, which was 6 feet long, and 2 in compaſs, which had coſt 40,000 pardos, that is, 54,000 French livres.

Another account of the aloes-wood is as follows:

The aloes is an aromatic wood, which comes chiefly from the kingdom of Champaa, a country ſituated on the eaſt of Camboia, called by the Chineſe, Tſiamſiaa, whoſe king is tributary to the king of Cochinchina. He is obliged not only to give the beſt pieces of the aloes-wood, which is called calembac, and comes from the heart of the tree, to the king of Cochinchina, by way of tribute, but alſo to ſell him all the wood that is taken from it; of which he carries on a great trade, by ſending moſt of it to Japan. No perſon whatſoever can take any of that wood upon the ſpot, under pain of death. The Chineſe and other idolaters make a great uſe of it, conſuming vaſt quantities thereof in their perfumes, and in their ſacrifices.

It is a large tree, which ſhoots forth many branches. It grows here and there in the woods, and is moſt carefully watched. The older the tree is, the more precious its wood becomes. I take it to be a kind of fig-tree, of which there are ſeveral ſorts in thoſe countries, whoſe fruit is not good to eat; but there is only one ſort which produces the true calembac (it muſt be called thus, and not calembouc.) The Arabs call it agallocum, and under that name it was known, and very much eſteemed, by the ancients. The Greeks named it aloes, and xulo-aloes, that is to ſay, the wood of aloes. The Hebrews ſtiled it ahalon, and ahalos; ſee Pſalm xlv. and Proverbs, ch. vii. The Arabs brought it anciently from Malaca, where they bought it to ſell to the Egyptians, the Syrians, and the Greeks. Malaca was formerly the general mart, or ſtaple, for all the nations of Aſia, who uſed to repair thither for trading in the moſt coſtly merchandizes. Thither ſailed Solomon's fleet, which brought from thence, gold, aloes-wood, and other aromatic drugs. That trade of Malacca is dwindled almoſt to nothing ſince the Portugueze, and after them, the Dutch, have engroſſed almoſt all the trade of the Eaſt-Indies.

The worſt of aloes-wood is called eagle-wood, a name which the Portugueze gave it. There are ſeveral ſorts of it, which are of different degrees of goodneſs. All the trees which produce the eagle aloes are of the fig-tree kind. There are ſome of them in the neighbourhood of Siam and Malaca, and even in ſome of the Sundy iſlands, but they are much inferior to the calembac-wood. This latter is very much uſed in phyſic among the Eaſt-Indians. It is reckoned excellent for ſtrengthening the heart and the ſtomach; for palpitations and fainting fits; for ſhortneſs of breath, pains in the ſtomach, wind in the bowels, and other ſorts of cholics. The Indians rub a piece of that wood upon a rough ſtone, on which they pour a little water, in order to ſeparate from the wood ſome ſmall particles, a certain quantity of which is a doſe, which they give to ſwallow with ſome water, or arrack. True calembac is ſeldom to be met with in Europe.

The Indians have many ſuperſtitious notions concerning this tree. The name of this tree is commonly miſtaken for that of a medicinal plant, called the aloe-plant. The former ſhould be wrote with an s, and the latter without an s, to diſtinguiſh them.

The ALOE PLANT, is that plant which is cultivated in the French king's gardens at Paris, and which ſeveral curious perſons alſo cultivate among their exotic plants: the druggiſts alſo often adorn their ſhops with it.

It grows in many places of the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies; ſome alſo grow naturally in Europe, particularly in Spain, in the

mountains of Sierra-Morena, where it grows to an extraordinary bigneſs and height. Its leaves are green, thick, tough, and prickly: a kind of reddiſh ſilk is drawn from them, which is proper to make lace. Some bits of that lace have been ſeen in France, which Monſieur Tournefort had carried thither from Spain. From the midſt of the leaves there ſhoots up a ſtalk, which bears the bloſſom and the fruit of the plant. It produces a kind of white ſeed, extremely light, and hemiſpherical.

The aloe plants which have blowed ſeveral times in the royal garden at Paris, and particularly in the year 1664, have undeceived the world of a popular error, which had almoſt prevailed, even among the learned; namely, that thoſe plants blow only once in 100 years, and that the bloſſom made a prodigious noiſe, when it opened. We are now uſed to ſee it blow, and are aſſured that not only no terrible noiſe is heard at the opening of the bloſſoms, but even no noiſe at all. Many of theſe plants are now cultivated in England, and ſkilful gardeners can make them blow in a ſhort time, by putting the pots, or boxes, wherein they grow, into a bed of tanners-bark.

The aloe which is uſed in phyſic, and which farriers alſo uſe to cure horſes, is the juice extracted from the root, or the leaves, of this plant, by inciſions made into it; which juice is thickened in the ſun.

They diſtinguiſh three ſorts of aloe. The ſocotrine, or lucid, which is alſo called ſuccotrine, and ciccotrine; the citrine, and the cabaline; which yet are only the ſame juice, more or leſs refined. The ſocotrine aloe is the moſt beautiful, and the beſt of all, and comes from the iſland of Zocotora, at the mouth of the Red Sea, or ſtreights of Babelmandel, and from thence it has its name. The cabaline is the coarſeſt, the moſt earthy, and the worſt of all; it is only given to horſes, whence, perhaps, it has its name, *viz.* from caballa, or cavalla. The citrine is a medium for goodneſs between both. They prepare ſocotrine aloe in Jamaica, and ſend it over into England in large gourds.

The ſocotrine comes in ſmall bladders, extremely thin. It ought to be friable, reſinous, pretty light, clear, tranſparent, and of a fine green colour; or black, or brown, ſhining without, and of a citron-colour within, of a diſagreeable, bitter taſte; and being reduced into powder, it muſt be of a yellowiſh colour, as though it were gilt.

It is the ſocotrine aloe that is uſed in phyſic; but it muſt be uſed with great diſcretion, it being a very ſtrong purge. It is made uſe of in the compoſition of thoſe pills which are called pills of Frankfort, or pills good for the appetite, and is alſo the chief ingredient of thoſe called angelic pills.

ALOSE, a ſort of fiſh, pretty much like the ſardine, or pilchard, in ſhape, but a great deal larger. Some will have it to be the ſhad, but it is quite another fiſh, and is very ſcarce in England. It is one of thoſe fiſh which are called paſſage fiſhes, or fiſhes of a ſeaſon, becauſe it never ſwims out of the ſea into rivers but in the ſpring.

The roes of aloſes are as much valued in the Eaſt-Indies as thoſe of ſturgeon are in Ruſſia; and the trade of them is not much leſs conſiderable, they ſpending every year many ſhip loads of them.

The aloſe grows to the bigneſs of a ſalmon. It is covered with large thin ſcales, which are eaſily rubbed off. Its head is, as it were, ſqueezed in towards the upper part of its body: its mouth is peaked, and it has no teeth. There is, on the top of its head, over its eyes, a bone, or ſcale, on each ſide, which is ſmooth and bright. Its tongue is blackiſh; its back white, inclining to yellow; its ſides and belly are of a ſilver colour. This fiſh is fond of ſalt; and, therefore, they bait it by throwing handfuls of ſalt into the places where they perceive any. It is a delicious meat, and contains a great deal of oil and volatile ſalt. When this fiſh is not very freſh, it has a ſouriſh taſte, which hurts the gums of thoſe that eat it. There is, in its head, a ſtony bone, good for the ſtone and gravel, and for abſorbing the acids, for it is an alkali. The ſtomach of the aloſe, being dried and reduced into powder, is proper to ſtrengthen the ſtomach, being ſwallowed.

ALPAGNA, an animal much like the llamus and the vigognas, except that its legs are ſhorter, and its muzzle thicker and flatter, ſo that it ſomething reſembles a human face. The inhabitants of Peru reckon this animal among the beaſts of burden, and make it carry 100 weight. Of its wool they make ſtuffs, ropes, and bags; and, of its bones, tools for weavers. They even make an advantage of its excrements, uſing it for fuel, both in their chambers and in the kitchen. The wool of the alpagna eaſily paſſes for that of the vigogna; and that of the latter, which comes from Peru into Spain, is almoſt always mixed with the former.

ALPHABET, among merchants and traders, is a kind of index, with the 24 letters in their natural order, in which are ſet down the names and ſirnames of thoſe with whom open accounts are kept, and which refers to the folios of the ledger where thoſe accounts are written in the form of debtor and creditor, ſerving to find eaſily, and without any trouble, ſuch accounts as are neceſſary to be turned to.

ALPHÆNIX, is only the white barley-ſugar, or twiſted ſugar, to which they give an extraordinary name, in order to render it more valuable.

This ſugar, which is thought good for colds, is made of common ſugar, which is boiled till it becomes eaſy to crack, when they pour it upon a marble table, greaſed with oil of ſweet almonds, and they mould it into various figures with a braſs crotchet. It is eaſy to falſify it with ſtarch.

ALQUIER, which is alſo called CANTAR, a liquid meaſure uſed in Portugal to meaſure oil: it contains 6 cavadas, or canadors. Two alquiers make an almude, or almonde.

ALQUIER is alſo a dry meaſure for grain at Liſbon. It is very ſmall; for no leſs than 240 alquiers are requiſite to make 19 ſeptiers of Paris, or one laſt of Amſterdam, or 38 buſhels of Bourdeaux: 60 alquiers make a muid, or buſhel of Liſbon. From 118 to 120 alquiers make a tun of Nantz and Rochelle, and 20 buſhels or 10 ſeptiers of Paris, the tun of Vannes, which is 125 alquiers: 60 alquiers is a moy, which contains about three Engliſh quarters, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ alquiers is an Engliſh buſhel.

The meaſure of Oporto in Portugal is alſo called alquier, but is 20 per cent. bigger than that of Liſbon; ſo that the tun yields but 87 alquiers of Oporto, which muſt be underſtood proportionably of the other meaſures, the evaluation of which has been given above.

It has been obſerved already, that 60 alquiers make a muid, or buſhel, of Liſbon; but Monſieur Ricard, in his treatiſe of the commerce of Amſterdam, aſſerts that 54 only make that buſhel.

The corn exported from the iſle of St. Michael into that of Madeira affords 4 alquiers advantage, or profit, per 60; and 60 at St. Michael's produce 64 at Madeira, which is an advantage of $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.

The alquiers are alſo in uſe in other places of the king of Portugal's dominions, particularly in the Azores iſlands, and in the iſle of St. Michael; and in thoſe two places, according to the ſame Monſieur Ricard, the muid, or buſhel, contains 60 alquiers there, and 240 alquiers make a laſt of Amſterdam.

ALQUIFOU, or ARQUIFOU *, as the merchants ſpell it, is a ſort of mineral lead ore, very heavy, eaſily reduced into powder, and hard to melt. When it is broke it parts into ſhining ſcales, of a whitiſh colour. The potters uſe it to give their works a green varniſh: and in England it is commonly called potter's ore.

* The former way of ſpelling that word is uſed by Lemery (Traité des Drogues Simples) under the word Plumbum. The ſecond by Monſieur Aſtruc, in his Memoires pour l'Hiſtoire Naturelle de Languedoc, pag. 368.

The alquifous come from England in large lumps of various ſizes and weights. It muſt be choſen in large lumps, very heavy, the ſcales bright, and reſembling tin-glaſs.

The peaſants of Durfoit, in the dioceſe of Alais in France, who work at the lead-mine which is near that place, give the name of archifou to the lead-ore they take out of it. The quantity they can get is not conſiderable; and, therefore, they work at it only when they have nothing elſe to do. It is uſed for a varniſh in earthen ware. That varniſh is in great requeſt among the potters, as being much finer and clearer than that which is to be found in Vivarez, which Monſier Aſtruc thinks appears plainly to the ſight. As for the ſhining and cryſtalline ſtone with which the archifou is mixed, it is of no manner of uſe.

Though there is ſome archifou in Languedoc, as has been obſerved, yet they ſend a great deal thither from England. There is alſo a great quantity of it ſent there from Leghorn, and ſome from Barbary and from Sardinia.

ALSACE, a province formerly belonging to Germany, but almoſt intirely yielded to France by the peace of Munſter. It is ſeparated from imperial Germany by the Rhine. It is bounded on the north by the palatinate of the Rhine; on the eaſt the Rhine ſeparates it from the marquiſate of Baden, and from the countries of Ortnaw and Briſgaw; on the ſouth it is bounded by Switzerland, and by the principalities of Montbelliard and Porentrai; and, on the weſt, the mountains of Vouge, or Voſge, part of it from Lorrain.

REMARKS.

There is not ſo great a trade in this province as one might expect from the fruitfulneſs of its ſoil, and from the abundance of commodities proper for trade which are there to be met with. It is very probable that the inhabitants neglect applying themſelves to trade for no other reaſon, but becauſe being naturally idle, and finding all the neceſſaries of life within their own country, there are but few of them who care to trouble themſelves with the labour and cares which unavoidably attend an extenſive commerce, particularly that which is carried on with foreigners. And, indeed, a gentleman well known for his integrity, and for the conſiderable employments he has filled in Alſace during thirty years, and by the military poſts to which his merit has raiſed him by degrees, obſerves, in the memoirs he was pleaſed to communicate concerning the trade of this province, that the indolence

dolence of the people, or their love of reſt and quietneſs, is ſo great, that, during the wars, which continued for near half a century, without hardly any interruption, between Germany and France, none of the inhabitants would enter upon any undertaking for the French armies, though the ſums employed for proviſions, artillery, magazines for ſoldiers upon the march, extraordinaries of war, fortifications, &c. amounted yearly to above 8 or 10,000,000 of livres. There were only a few bankers of Straſburg, the capital of this province, and theſe not very rich, who made ſome remittances of money for the troops. That gentleman adds, that it is from the ſame principle of their natural indolence, that the inhabitants of Upper and lower Alſace ſuffer the peaſants of Switzerland, who come thither every year, to gather their corn, cut their hay, and manage their vintage; though by that means great ſums of money are yearly carried out of their country, which they might ſave, had they but induſtry enough to do their work themſelves.

Strangers, therefore, carry on the greateſt part of the trade of Alſace, importing ſuch commodities as the province wants, and exporting great quantities of its produce. This trade extends very far into Germany on one ſide, towards the Upper Rhine, and, on the other, into all the countries ſituate from Straſburg to the mouth of that river.

The trade of STRASBURG conſiſts in tobacco, brandy, madder, for dyeing ſcarlet, ſaffron, leather, tallow, wood, and large cabbages.

Part of theſe commodities are carried to Mentz, and into Holland; and of cabbages only, which ſeems a very trifling article, there are ſold in theſe two places to the value of above 30,000 crowns every year.

The manufactures are mockado and bergamo tapeſtries, ſmall woollen cloths, blankets, fuſtians, and linnens of hemp and flax. There is likewiſe a copper-mill, and a mill for ſpices.

At Straſburg the magiſtrates alone carry on the trade of wood for fuel, which they ſell even to 8 livres per cord; nor will they ſuffer any private perſon to have a warehouſe of ſuch wood in the city, nor even in the neighbourhood.

It muſt be obſerved, with regard to this trade of wood, that, though the province of Alſace abounds with all ſorts of wood, yet moſt of what is conſumed at Straſburg comes from the other ſide of the Rhine, even in war time; by which means above the value of 200,000 livres is yearly ſent out of the kingdom, without the leaſt profit to the kings ſubjects.

The tanneries are alſo pretty conſiderable at Straſburg; but they ſcarce tan any other but what they call ſmall leather, as ſhamois, goats, and ſheep's ſkins; on which the city takes a duty of 4 ſols per ſkin.

The trade of the reſt of the province conſiſts, firſt in timber, which Lower Alſace produces in abundance, moſt whereof is fit for ſhip-building, and is ſent to Holland by the Rhine.

Secondly, In wine of Upper Alſace, which is likewiſe exported into Holland, whence it is ſent into Sweden and Denmark, where the Dutch ſell it for rheniſh, or old hock.

Thirdly, In brandy and vinegar, which are made in thoſe places whence they get the wine: theſe are deſigned partly again for Holland, and partly for Germany.

Fourthly, In wheat, rye, and oats, which grow both in Upper and Lower Alſace, and of which the Switzers buy up great quantities.

Fifthly, In hogs and other fattened cattle, which are almoſt all conſumed within the country.

Sixthly, In tobacco, of which they ſell above 50,000 quintals per annum, in Switzerland, Germany, Lorrain, and in the towns on the river Saar.

Seventhly, In ſaffron, turpentine, hemp, flax, tartar, tallow, gun-powder for fowling-pieces, cheſnuts, prunes, and other fruits, and alſo in all other ſorts of herbs and plants, as onions, cabbages, poppies, aniſe and fennel, and moſt other kind of ſeeds.

The trade of all theſe commodities, and particularly of ſeed, is very conſiderable, France, as well as Holland, taking off a great deal. As for cheſnuts, prunes, and other fruit, the greateſt demand they have for them is from Cologn, Frankfort, and Baſil.

REMARKS.

It muſt be obſerved, with regard to the trade which theſe two laſt cities have with Alſace, that it is almoſt entirely carried on by land-carriage, becauſe of the danger there is in ſending merchandizes by water, it being very difficult to draw veſſels along the banks of the Rhine, and the rapidity of that river rendering the navigation of it very dangerous.

There are a great many manufactories in Alſace, but not of any very dear or very fine ſtuffs; the moſt conſiderable are of tiretanies, half of wool and half of thread, of buckram, of canvas, and ſome linnens.

The tiretanies and linnens are conſumed in the province; the canvas and buckram are ſent into England, Holland, and Germany.

There are in Alſace mines of ſilver, copper, iron, and lead; but none, except the iron mines, are plentiful: theſe lie towards Befort. The ſilver, copper, and lead mines are at Giromani, St. Maria of the mines, Aſtembarc, and Munſter.

The ſilver mine of Giromani produces yearly about ſixteen hundred marks of fine metal: that of copper, or rather of ſilver, which affords alſo copper, above twenty-four thouſand weight of this laſt metal. But the expence of working theſe mines is almoſt equal to the advantage; and the duke of Mazarine, who owns them, does not get from them above five or ſix thouſand livres a year clear profit. For preparing and melting the iron ore of the mines of Befort, there are ſeveral forges and furnaces in the neighbouring foreſts, and for thoſe of copper a great many furnaces and mills.

Monſieur Mackout of Hircheim, knight of the military order of St. Lewis of the body of the nobility, and a magiſtrate of the city of Straſburg, ſet up, in the year 1730, a manufactory of caſt ſteel. It is after a conſiderable labour, and great expences, that this worthy magiſtrate has carried that manufactory to a great degree of perfection: Nor was it without meeting with innumerable difficulties, and great oppoſition; but at laſt he has demonſtrated, that it is poſſible to make in Alſace as good ſteel as that which they got from Germany, and which is made in Sweden, Stiria, Carinthia, Tyrol, or any where elſe. The court of France being informed of the ſucceſs of this new manufactory, the king has honoured it with his royal protection, by granting to the Sieur Mackout an excluſive privilege for the whole province of Alſace.

ALTIN, a money of account in Muſcovy. It is worth three copeecs, 100 of which make a ruble, worth about four ſhillings and ſix-pence ſterling. See RUSSIA.

ALTOM, a name given in ſeveral parts of the Grand Seignior's dominions, particularly in Hungary, to what the Europeans commonly call a ſequin. However that name is ſeldom given but to ſequins ſtamped with the Turkiſh monarch's ſtamp.

ALUM. See ALLUM.

AMALGAMATION, a chemical operation, by which gold or ſilver is reduced into a kind of paſte by incorporating it with mercury or quickſilver, according to certain proportions of weight or quantity.

To AMALGAMATE, is to diſſolve ſome metals by means of quickſilver.

All metals may be amalgamated with mercury, except copper and iron; which being ſulphureous and earthy, are too different from mercury to be incorporated therewith.

To AMALGAMATE gold is to reduce it into a paſte, by uniting and incorporating it with mercury.

Amalgamated gold, is ſaid, not only of gold reduced into a paſte, but alſo of water, or painter's gold, or gold reduced into a calx, mixed with mercury, for gilding metals, and particularly ſilver. The proportion of painter's gold and mercury uſed by gilders of metal, is of an ounce of mercury to a drachm of gold.

Gold is amalgamated by putting the thinneſt plates of that metal that can be made, into a crucible, with mercury; and, after they have been both ſet over a fire, the gold diſſolves into ſmall particles, like meal, and mercury being a moiſt ſubſtance, reduces it into a paſte. When the crucible is taken from the fire, and ſufficiently cooled, the gold and mercury are poured into a veſſel full of common water, whence it is taken out in the form of a white paſte. With this paſte ſilver and other metals are commonly gilt.

Gold takes of mercury, by amalgamation, three times as much as it's own weight.

The minters, refiners, and ſilverſmiths, alſo uſe the word amalgamate, to ſignify the operation which is performed in the mill where they put their ſweeps, as they call them, to waſh off the earth and filth; in order that the mercury which is poured into the tub being well ground, may attract the imperceptible ſilver or gold particles that are mixed with the filth, and make them into a paſte.

AMAN, a ſort of blue cotton cloth, which comes from the Levant by the way of Aleppo.

AMASIA, a province of Aſia Minor, is bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea, on the eaſt by Armenia, on the weſt by Anatolia Proper, and on the ſouth by Caramania and Aladulia. It is divided into three diſtricts, viz.

Pontus Galaticus, Pontus Polemoniacus, Pontus Cappadociæ.

PONTUS GALATICUS is ſituate on thenorthern ſide of Galatia, having the Euxine on the north, and Pontus Polemoniacus on the eaſt. The chief place is

AMASIA, called by the Turks AMNASAN, which, though advantageouſly ſituate on a navigable river, large enough to carry ſhips of the greateſt burthen up to the town from the Euxine Sea, has no conſiderable commerce. The chief is a manufacture of red linnens, which are called Levantine cloths.

PONTUS POLEMONIACUS lies along the ſame Euxine coaſt, having the Galaticus on the weſt, and the Cappadocicus on the eaſt. It's chief city is

NÆOCÆSARIA, or TOCAT, which was burnt down about the beginning of the preſent century, to the ruin of a great number of merchants, who had conſiderable warehouſes in it.

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REMARKS.

The excellent ſituation for trade is an effectual means to recover it from ſuch a diſaſter. It is, indeed, rightly looked upon as the center of the Aſiatic commerce. The caravans of Diarbeker come hither in 18 days (men on horſeback perform the journey in 12). Thoſe from Tocat to Sinope go it in 6, and to Pruſa in 20; and thoſe that go hence to Smyrna, without turning to Pruſa or Angora, take up about 27 days with mules, and 40 with camels. Thoſe caravans carry on a very conſiderable commerce into all theſe parts, as well as into Perſia. One of the chief manufactures of this place is the ſilken, in which are uſed vaſt quantities, not only of the Turkiſh, but alſo of the Perſian ſilk, in making light ſtuffs, buttons, frogs, &c. The next is that of leather, which is chiefly of the yellow colour, and is carried by land to Samſom, a ſmall ſea-port on the Euxine, and thence into all parts of Turkey and Europe. Some red linnens are likewiſe here manufactured, which, though inferior to thoſe of Perſia, are ſent in great quantities into Muſcovy, Tartary, and even into France. They are called Levantine cloths, but are chiefly made here and at Amaſia. But the moſt conſiderable manufacture of Tocat, is that of copper, which they work here in great quantities, and in variety of utenſils, ſuch as pots, kettles, candleſticks, &c. which they ſend to Conſtantinople, Egypt, and other parts. They have their copper from the mines of Trebizond and Caſtamboul, the former about three, and the latter about 10 days journey from their city. About a mile out of Tocat is a large village, chiefly inhabited by chriſtians, who are moſtly employed in tanning of leather. The greateſt part of the people about Tocat, even as far as 30 or 40 miles, are employed in the iron and copper manufactures.

PONTUS CAPPADOCICUS extends itſelf from the Polemoniacus eaſtward, quite to Colchis and the frontiers of Georgia; having the Leſſer Armenia, and the river Euphrates, for it's ſouthern, and the ſame Euxine Sea for it's northern, boundaries. It's chief place is

TREPIZOND, formerly one of the moſt flouriſhing cities of Aſia, but now almoſt in ruins, and it's harbour capable only of receiving ſaics; which, however, carry ſome of the goods of Armenia and Perſia to Conſtantinople from this port; ſo that it may be yet ſaid to have the beſt trade of any in the Black Sea.

The AMAZONS RIVER in America, begins at the foot of the mountains called Cordillera, about 8 or 10 leagues eaſt of Quito in Peru. It runs firſt from weſt to eaſt, turns afterwards ſouth, and then, after many windings and turnings, holds it's main courſe eaſt, 'till it falls into the Atlantic Ocean. It's fountains and mouths are very near under the equator, and the main of it's ſtream is under the 4th and 5th degrees of ſouth latitude. The rivers which fall into it on the north ſide, riſe about one or two degrees north latitude, and thoſe on the ſouth ſide begin ſome of them in 10, ſome in 15, others in 20 degrees ſouth latitude. It's channel from Junta de los Reyes, about 60 leagues from it's head, till it is joined by the river Maranbon, is from one to two leagues in breadth. From thence it is from three to four, but grows broader, as it advances towards the Atlantic Ocean, into which it falls by a mouth 50 or 60 leagues broad, between Cape North on the coaſt of Guaiana, and Cape Zaparate, on the coaſt of Brazil. From the ſpring-head to it's mouth it is 8 or 900 leagues in a direct line, but the windings and turnings make it about 1200. The rivers which run into it on the right and left, have their courſe from 100 to 600 leagues in length, and their banks are well inhabited by multitudes of people. The nations who inhabit about this, and the other rivers that run into it, are reckoned one hundred and fifty; and their villages ſo thick in many places, that they are within call of one another. Among theſe people the Homagues, who live towards the head of this great river, are moſtly noted for their manufactures of cotton; the coroſipares for their earthen ware; the Surines, who live between latitude 5 and 10, for their joiners work. They make war upon one another, to purchaſe ſlaves for their drudgery, but otherwiſe they treat them kindly enough. Their foreſts afford materials for building the largeſt ſhips. They have many trees of 5 or 6 fathoms round in the trunk, and inexhauſtible ſtores of ebony and Brazil-wood, cocoa, tobacco, ſugar canes, cotton, a ſcarlet dye called rocou, beſides gold and ſilver in their mines, and in the ſand of their rivers. Among the rivers that fall into the great one, the Napo, Agaric, Puromaye, Janupape, Corupatube, and others, have gold in their ſands. Below Corupatube, there are mines of ſeveral ſorts in the mountains. In thoſe of Yaguare there are mines of gold; in Pieora there are mines of ſilver; on the river Paragoche there are precious ſtones of ſeveral ſorts, and mines of ſulphur, &c. near other rivers. On the Amazons river, about 200 leagues from the ſea, there is a boſphorus, or ſtreight, one mile broad, where the tide comes up, ſo that it may ſerve as a key to all the trade of thoſe countries. But the Portugueze being already poſſeſſed of Pora, on the ſide of Brazil, Corupa, and Eſthero, on the ſide of Guaiana, and Cogemina, an iſland at the

mouth of the river, they may, by fortifying the iſland of the Sun, or ſome other place in it's chief outlet, be maſters of all the trade. The people know not the uſe of money but barter one thing for another, and will give 20s. worth of proviſions, &c. for a glaſs-bead, or jews-harp. See PERU.

AMBASSADOR, is a public miniſter, ſent from one ſovereign prince as a repreſentative of his perſon, to another. It is not conſiſtent with our work to take other notice of this article, than as the ſame may have affinity with commerce.

Sir Thomas Challoner having been ſent ambaſſador to Spain, by queen Elizabeth remitted a complaint to the queen, that his cheſts had been ſearched: upon which the queen demanded the opinion of her council in the point, who upon the whole matter reſolved the action into this Legato omnia æqui bonique ferendo dummodo principis honor non directè violetur, the very words of Mr. Camden; an ambaſſador muſt bear all things patiently, provided that the honour of the prince whom he ſerves be not directly violated.

REMARKS.

The office of an ambaſſador does not include a protection private but public; for the king his maſter, not for any ſeveral ſubjects otherwiſe than as it concerns the king and his public miniſters to protect them, and procure their protection in foreign countries, in the nature of an office and negotiation of ſtate; therefore their quality is to mediate and proſecute for them, or any one of them, at the council-table, which is as it were a court of ſtate; but when they come to ſettled courts, which do and muſt obſerve eſſential forms of proceedings, they muſt be governed by them: and therefore in the caſe of Don Diego Serviento de Acuna, ambaſſador leiger from the king of Spain, who libelled in the admiralty-court, as procurator-general for all his maſter's ſubjects, againſt one Jolliff and Tucker, and ſir Richard Bingley, for two ſhips and their lading of divers kinds, of the goods of the ſubjects of the king of Spain generally, and not naming of them adduct. ad port. de Munſter, in the preface of the libel generally againſt them all, and then proceeds and charges them ſeverally thus: That Jolliff and Tucker, captain piratæ, in alto mari bellicè dictas naves aggreſſi ſunt, & per vim & violentiam took them, and that they were adductæ in partes Hiberniæ, and that, coming into the hands of Sir Richard Bingley, he converted them to his own uſe (not ſaying where) and, refuſing to render them, being required, it was there held that a prohibition ſhould go, for the matter is triable merely at the common law, and that ſuch a procuration was not good, though to an ambaſſador.

Don Alfonſo de Valeſco, ambaſſador from the Catholic king attached tobaccoes at land here, with one Corvero, a ſubject of the king of Spain, brought hither, and the ambaſſador by the libel ſuppoſed to belong to his maſter, as goods confiſcated, as all other his goods were. Sir John Watts, the plaintiff in the ſuggeſtion, prayed a prohibition, which was granted accordingly, for the property of goods here at land muſt be tried by the common law, however the property be guided.—See ADMIRALTY; and it was likewiſe ruled, that if any ſubject of a foreign prince bring goods into this kingdom, though they were confiſcated before, the property ſhall not be queſtioned but at the common law of England. Don Alfonſo verſ. Corvero. Mich. 9 Jac. Hob. 212. Hill. 9 Jac. upon the like libel by Don Pedro Surega, ambaſſador for Spain.

By the civil law, the moveable goods of an ambaſſador, which are accounted an acceſſion to his perſon, cannot be ſeized on, neither as a pledge, nor for payment of a debt, nor by order or execution of judgment; nor by the king or ſtates leave where he reſides (as ſome conceive), for all coaction ought to be far from an ambaſſador, as well that which toucheth his neceſſaries as his perſon, that he may have full ſecurity; if therefore he hath contracted any debt, he is to be called upon kindly, and, if he refuſes, then letters of requeſt are to go to his maſter *; ſo that at laſt that courſe may be taken with him, as with debtors in another territory: to ſome this may ſeem hard, yet kings, who cannot be compelled, want not creditors. But the lord Coke ſeems to be of another opinion †, for, as to contracts and debts that be good jure gentium, he muſt anſwer here.

* Grotius, lib. ii. cap. 18.

† Coke 4 Inſtit. fol. 153. Certain it is, that none dareth preſume to meddle either with their perſons, goods, or ſervants without leave had, the contempt of which hath been puniſhed with impriſonment. Lucas 4. Vide ſtat. 7 Ann. cap. 12. § 5.

AMBER (YELLOW) or KARABE, or YELLOW SUCCINUM, in Latin SUCCINUM CITRINUM. It is a kind of gum, or roſin of a tree, which is commonly found in the Baltic, on the coaſt of Pruſſia. The wind blows it on ſhore, and the inhabitants, who are afraid leſt the ſea, which brought it hither, ſhould carry it off again, go and gather it in the height of the ſtorm.

Some authors pretend there is yellow amber that is a foſſil; and

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and that in Sweden, as well as in Pruſſia, there is ſome found in the ſands, at a very great diſtance from the ſea. And indeed, we read in the Hiſtory of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1700, that ſome yellow amber has alſo been ſometimes found in the clefts of ſome rocks in Provence, the moſt naked and the moſt barren; which would incline one to think, that this gum is a mineral, and not a vegetable, and that the ſea-amber of Dantzick falls not into the ſea from ſome tree, but is carried into it by ſome land-flood.

Agricola reckons it among the bitumens; ſome ſuppoſe it to be produced in the ſands of a lake called Cephiſick, in the neighbourhood of the Atlantic Ocean. There are many other opinions, but all ſo improbable, that we may as well keep to the firſt we have mentioned; ſince it is certain, that the greateſt part of yellow amber comes from the Baltic and Pruſſia: unleſs it be ſaid, that there are two ſorts of yellow amber; the one a mineral, and the other a vegetable gum.

It is very probable that this gum, or roſin, is formed at firſt upon poplar and fir-trees, of which there are whole foreſts on the coaſt of Sweden, which is very high; and that it is driven into the ſea, after being ſeparated from the coaſt of Pruſſia, which is very low. The flies, ants, and other inſects, which are often incloſed within pieces of yellow amber, ſeem to prove that it is a production of the land, and not of the ſea.

It is thought, that ſome Germans have the art of mollifying yellow amber; and, after what manner ſoever the thing is performed, it is probable that thoſe little animals may be the agreeable impoſitions of art, rather than a work of nature.

Yellow amber has the property of attracting ſmall particles of ſtraw, paper, or other light things; the cauſe of which has not been ſo ſatisfactorily accounted for as could be wiſhed.

Yellow amber is made uſe of in ſeveral precious and delicate pieces of workmanſhip: it ſeems, however, that it is not at preſent in ſo high an eſteem in France or England as it was formerly, eſpecially with regard to necklaces, which, from the court ladies, have paſſed to children and maid-ſervants. But it has kept up its price in Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, in Poland, in Hungary, and in ſome parts of Italy.

The beſt worked amber comes from Poland and Hungary, where it alſo ſells deareſt.

It is of ſome uſe in phyſic, provided it be the true karabe; many people having the art to counterfeit it with turpentine and cotton, or with yolks of eggs and gum arabic. Others ſell gum of copal in the room of it.

From yellow amber is extracted a tincture, a ſpirit, volatile ſalt, and an oil: that oil ſerves to make a varniſh with ſpirits of wine.

An abſtract from a letter of Mr. Sendelius, M. D. at Elbing, to Mr. John Philip Breynius, M. D. at Dantzick, concerning the amber of the Indies, wrote in the year 1722. Extracted from the Bibliotheque Germanique, tom. v. p. 121.

It is but a few years ſince, that this amber is known in Europe; it was brought hither by the Dutch, from the kingdom of Benin, which is a part of Guinea. Mr. Breyn having received ſome of this amber, ſent part of it to Mr. Sendelius, to examine it, and compare it with that of Pruſſia. Here follows what is moſt curious in the reſult of his obſervations.

This amber, which is found in abundance in the kingdom of Benin, is a proof that that country, as well as Pruſſia, is plentifully ſtocked with that bitumen, unleſs one would ſay that it is a vegetable production; which the author would not diſpute, eſpecially with thoſe who have ſeen none. All the bits of this amber are not equally beautiful. There are ſome, whoſe brightneſs and tranſparency imitate that of cryſtal or diamonds, if one does but never ſo little take off the cruſt, or moſt coarſe parts. Some others, on the contrary, are ſpread over, either in the whole, or in part, with ſmall clouds, which darken them, and in which you may perceive little animals, ſome of which are like our inſects, and others are peculiar to the country where that amber is found. There are other pieces which may be ſtiled foul, becauſe there are earthy particles mixed with them, though in a greater or leſſer proportion; among the latter, there are ſome that have their laminæ, or thin plates, placed over one another; which would incline one to think, that this new amber, like that of Pruſſia, was liquid before it became hardened. This amber, when rubbed, but eſpecially when burnt, exhales a ſmell, which ſhews that it contains a very ſubtile volatile ſalt. This ſmell, which is equal to that of the beſt maſtic, not to ſay that it excels it, is not by far ſo agreeable as that of the amber of Pruſſia. But, if this new amber is inferior to that in this reſpect, it may vie with it with regard to its attractive quality, or electricity. As for hardneſs, which is one of the chief properties of amber, and gives it a place among jewels, it reſults from Mr. Sendelius's obſervations, that this amber of Benin is not of a very ſolid conſiſtency. He adds, that water, into which the amber of Pruſſia is plunged, when it becomes hot by being worked, though it does not grow ſoft, has no efficacy upon this new amber, and will not prevent its breaking: it would therefore be requiſite to give this amber a hardneſs, which it has not, in order to render it of a more general uſe. But all the methods which Mr. Sendelius tried for that purpoſe proved ineffectual; and he is apt to think, that this amber is nothing but a compound, or mixture, of gum and roſin. His conjecture has even been confirmed by experience. For, having made a diſſolution of this amber with ſpirits of wine tartarized, he found, after decantation, a melligenous gum, to which nothing could reſtore its former hardneſs, becauſe the reſinous parts had been diſſolved by the operation. All this, together with the ſmall variety obſerved in its colours, in compariſon to that of Pruſſia, does not ſeem very likely to bring it into any eſteem. However, Mr. Sendelius is ſtill in hopes of making burning-glaſſes of this amber, becauſe of its great tranſparency. He has even, by the diſſolution he made of it, got a varniſh, which, on account of its novelty, may perhaps ſerve as a paint to the fair ſex.

We have mentioned hitherto ſeveral opinions concerning the nature of yellow amber: let us obſerve farther, that the author of the Spectacle de la Nature, tom. iii. p. 311, thinks it has the ſame original with jet, which ſeems to be nothing but a black bitumen, mixed with particles of iron, and hardened like a ſtone: yellow amber having the ſame ſmell, and the ſame electricity, after it is heated by rubbing.

Mr. Hartman, a Pruſſian, in his diſſertation inſerted in the Abridgement of the Philoſophical Tranſactions, tom. iv. p. 473, tells us, that people not only dived to the bottom of the ſea, in order to gather amber along the coaſt of Pruſſia, whither it is carried by the violence of ſtorms, from the beds where it runs, but that it is alſo found in the very ground, in ſeveral places of Pruſſia, commonly lying among vitriolic and bituminous matters, which lie in beds, or lays, one over the other, like ſo many different thin leaves, which at the firſt view one would take for wood. That amber is one of the beſt revenues of the king of Pruſſia, who appropriated the poſſeſſion of it to himſelf.

The moſt eaſtern nations of Aſia, and particularly the Japaneſe, give a higher price for yellow amber than for ambergreaſe, and value it even more than precious ſtones, of which, except coral, they make but little or no uſe. But, among all the ſeveral ſorts of amber, the yellow tranſparent amber, which is ſo common, and ſo little valued among the inhabitants of Europe, is that for which the Japaneſe give the higheſt price, becauſe of its perfection, and the antiquity they aſcribe to it. They deſpiſe all the other ſorts of amber. This is what Kœmpfer acquaints us with.

Liquid AMBER, a kind of reſin, that is clear, reddiſh, and very liquid when new, but becomes very thick as it grows old. It is alſo ranked among balms. It runs from inciſions made in certain trees, which grow in New Spain, and which the natives there call oçoçol. When it is new and ſtill liquid, it is called oil of liquid amber; and, when old and thick, balm of liquid amber. It comes into England in barrels. See the article BALM towards the end.

AMBERGRIS, or AMBERGREASE, a kind of grey gum, of a ſweet and agreeable ſmell. As much as this precious gum is known, by the great uſe that is made of it, and the high eſteem it is in every where, as to its origin, it is but little known. What we are certain of is, that it is found on the ſea-coaſt in ſeveral places, eſpecially when, after ſome ſtorm, the agitation of the waves have caſt it on the ſhore.

REMARKS.

The places where there is commonly moſt of it, are that part of the African coaſt, and of the neighbouring iſlands, which extends from the Moſambic coaſt to the Red Sea; the iſles of St. Maria and Diego Ruis, which lie near the iſland of Madagaſcar; the Manille iſlands, and the coaſt beyond the Cape of Good Hope.

The ambergreaſe of the Weſt-Indies is generally thrown upon the coaſt of the Bermuda Iſlands, in the ſtreight of Bahama; and upon the coaſt of thoſe iſlands which lie very near the peninſula of Jucatan, between the gulph of Honduras and that of Mexico; ſome is alſo found in certain places upon the coaſt of the Mediterranean.

Kœmpfer aſſerts, that there is ambergreaſe found upon the coaſt of Saxuma (which he writes Satzuma) and in thoſe of the iſlands of Riaku, as Kœmpfer calls them, which I take to be thoſe of Liqueio, to the ſouthward of Saxuma, in the kingdom of Japan. But there comes a greater quantity of ambergreaſe from Khumano, that is to ſay, from the ſouthern coaſt of Kiinokuni, and Iga (ſpelt Isjc by Kœmpfer) and ſome other neighbouring provinces of the ſame kingdom.

Mr. Neumann ſays, that there alſo comes ambergreaſe from the Molucca iſlands, from thoſe to the weſt of Sumatra, from Borneo, and from Cape Comorin, near Malabar; as alſo from the coaſt of Æthiopia, which from Sofala to Brama abound with ambergreaſe.

The Indians, who inhabit the iſlands near the coaſt of Jucatan, have a pretty curious way of gathering ambergreaſe. When there has been a great ſtorm, and it is probable that ambergreaſe ſhall have been caſt upon the ſhore by the waves,

 thoſe

thoſe Indians, who are tributary to the Spaniards, run to the ſhore, to prevent certain birds, who are very fond of this gum, from eating it. They go againſt the wind, till they ſmell the ambergreaſe, which, being freſh, exhales a very ſtrong ſcent. When they do not ſmell it any longer, they go back, and thus find it at laſt upon the ſand. It alſo happens pretty often that the birds, being drawn thither by the ſcent, ſhew them where it lies.

There are ſeveral opinions concerning the original of ambergreaſe; but, though moſt of them are tranſmitted to us from the antients, we are not much the wiſer.

Some aſſert that this precious gum is formed only of honeycombs and wax, which tumble down from the rocks*. Others ſay it is nothing but the excrements of ſome birds. Others again, that it is the ſpawn, or ſperm of a certain kind of whales, or ſome amphibious ſea-animal, but this is mere conjecture; for there have been ſome times ſuch large heaps, or collections of this ambergreaſe found, that it is not natural to have recourſe to that explication. There are ſome who maintain it is nothing but the ſkum of the ſea. However, all agree that theſe ſeveral matters become ſolid, and acquire their ſcent, by the agitation of the waves, by the ſaltneſs of the ſea, and by the heat of the ſun, which purifies and bakes them.

* This is the famous Monſieur J. B. Denys's opinion, in the ſecond conference of the Journal de Sçavans for the year 1672; but it is refuted at large by Kœmpfer, in his hiſtory of Japan, Supplement, pag. 46.

There is ſtill another opinion concerning the original of ambergreaſe more modern than thoſe already mentioned, and more probable. They pretend that this gum is nothing but a kind of bitumen, which, coming liquid out of the bowels of the earth, at the bottom of the ſea, grows thick and condenſes in proportion as it riſes; and that this is the reaſon why ſuch large pieces of it are ſeen, which cannot be accounted for by the other hypotheſis.

Kœmpfer maintains the antient opinion, according to which it is a kind of bitumen, or greaſy ſubterraneous ſubſtance, which acquires the like conſiſtency. And yet we have ſeen, that Monſieur Savary looks upon this opinion as the moſt modern.

Its ſcent is thought to be natural, which is proved by ſeveral other ordoriferous gums, on which nature herſelf has beſtowed their perfume.

The largeſt piece of ambergreaſe, of which we have had hitherto any knowledge, is that which was carried into Holland towards the end of the ſeventeenth century. It is almoſt round, of above two feet diameter, and weighs 182 pounds. The duke of Tuſcany had offered 50,000 crowns for it. It is ſtill to be ſeen in the Eaſt-India houſe at Amſterdam, and is looked upon by Virtuoſo's as an extraordinary production of nature.

This is undoubtedly the ſame piece of ambergreaſe mentioned by Kœmpfer, which weighed 185 pounds Dutch weight. It was ſold by the king of Tidor to the Dutch Eaſt-India company, for 11,000 rix-dollars. It is of a greyiſh colour, and of a very good kind. Its figure is pretty much like that of a tortoiſe, whoſe head and tail had been cut off. See Valentini Muſæum Muſæor. lib. v. cap. 28. The biggeſt pieces of ambergreaſe which had been ſeen till then, and were looked upon as being of a prodigious ſize, did not exceed 40 pounds weight.

Several of our voyage-writers tell us that ambergreaſe is thrown up by the ſea on the coaſt of India and China, but whence it comes is unknown: we only know that the beſt of it is thrown upon the Barbary coaſt, or upon the confines of the land of Negroes, towards Schar, and places thereabouts. It is of a bluiſh-white, in round lumps.

The inhabitants of this country have camels trained up to the buſineſs, which they mount, and go in ſearch of it by moonſhine, and ride for that purpoſe along-ſhore. The camels are broke to this; and, as ſoon as they perceive a piece of ambergreaſe, they bend their knees, and the rider picks it up.

There is another ſort, which ſwims in great lumps upon the ſurface of the ſea, almoſt like the body of an ox, or a little leſs, and are very weighty. When a certain fiſh of the whale-kind, called Tal, ſees theſe floating lumps, he ſwallows the ſame, and is thereby killed. The whale being ſeen floating upon the ſurface, thoſe who are accuſtomed to this kind of fiſhery, and know when theſe whales have ſwallowed ambergreaſe, inſtantly go out to him in their boats, and, darting him with iron harpoons, they tow him to ſhore, where they ſplit him down the back, and take out the ambergreaſe. What they find about the belly of the creature is commonly ſpoiled, by contracting an unpleaſant ſcent; but that which has not been infected by ordure in the belly of the whale is perfectly good.

Ambergreaſe ought to be choſen very clear, thoroughly dry, very light, in fine pieces, intirely grey without; of the ſame colour, but ſpotted with black ſpots, within; of a ſweet and pleaſant ſcent; and, above all, care muſt be taken that it be not adulterated, or mixed with gums, or other drugs, by which means it is eaſily counterfeited. You muſt beware of that which is moiſt, flabby, or ſoftiſh, and foul.

Ambergreaſe is uſed by perfumers, by phyſicians and apothecaries in ſome preſcriptions, and by confectioners in ſeveral ſorts of ſweet meats: it is alſo ſometimes put into chocolate. There are likewiſe extracts, eſſences, and tinctures made of it. The beſt eſſence of ambergreaſe comes from Holland and Portugal.

The Commerce of Ambergreaſe at Amſterdam.

They ſell at Amſterdam two ſorts of amber, namely ambergreaſe and black amber.

Ambergreaſe ſells from 8 to 16 guilders per ounce. The diſcount for prompt payment is 1 per cent.

The price of black amber is from 5 to 8 guilders per ounce, with the ſame diſcount, or deduction, for prompt payment.

AMBER-SEED, or MUSK-SEED, is the ſeed of a plant which grows in the Antilles iſlands in America, and in Egypt. Its ſmell is very much like that of true muſk. The perfumers uſe it, and the pater-noſter-makers make bead-ſtrings, or chaplets, of it.

Father Labat, in his Voyage to Weſtern Africa, obſerves, that the plant of amber-muſk grows in plenty perfectly well, and without any culture, throughout the whole country of Galam; that the negroes make no uſe of it, not even the women, though they are very fond of ſweet ſcents. When this ſeed meets with a fat and deep ſoil, it grows to the height of 6 or 7 feet, provided it be near ſome tree to ſupport it, to which it clings, by ſurrounding it; when it wants that ſupport, it falls down, and creeps on the ground, as ſoon as it is about 2 feet high. Its ſtalk is round, pretty tender, garniſhed with ſmall, branched ſhoots; it is hairy and whitiſh. Its leaves are always coupled, but they are unequal, the uppermoſt being much larger than the undermoſt. They are dented; and though the dentings are not deep, yet they form very acute angles, which makes them look as if they were garniſhed with points. They are flabby, fleſhy, of a bright green on the upper part, and of a paler green on the lowermoſt. It is pretended that theſe leaves, boiled in water, and made into a cataplaſm, are excellent for the cure of tumors, or ſwellings.

The ſeed, which grows plentifully in the fruit of this plant, is hot to the firſt degree, and is uſed with ſucceſs in ſome diſtempers. It is ſaid that thoſe who ſell muſk increaſe the quantity of it by an addition of theſe ſeeds.

AMBREADA. Thus they call the falſe, or factitious amber, which the Europeans uſe in their trade with the negroes on the coaſt of Africa, and particularly on the river Senegal. There are ſome large and red pieces of it, 1000 of which, making 20 ropes, or ſtrings, weigh three pounds. There are others ſmall, and alſo red, which weigh but two pounds and a half.

AMBULANT, or AMBULATORY. They give in France the name of ambulant commiſſioners to thoſe commiſſioners, or clerks, of the king's farms, who have no ſettled office, but viſit all the offices within a certain diſtrict, to ſee that nothing be done in them againſt the king's right and the intereſt of the farm.

AMBULANT, is alſo ſaid at Amſterdam of thoſe brokers, or exchange agents, who have not been ſworn before the magiſtrates. They tranſact buſineſs like the former, but their teſtimony is not received in the courts of juſtice. See AGENTS of EXCHANGE.

AMEND. To amend a work, is to correct, or rectify the faults of it. In France the regulations made with regard to the woollen manufactors order, that woollen cloths, and other ſtuffs, that cannot be amended, ſhall be cut into pieces two ells long, ſometimes without a fine, and ſometimes with. Among the artificers and handicrafts-men in France, thoſe works that are ſeized by the juries, and cannot be amended, are liable to be confiſcated.

AMENDABLE, what can be amended, corrected, or rectified. That word is very much uſed in the ſtatutes of the companies, or corporations, of tradeſmen in France, and is ſaid of thoſe works ſeized by the juries, becauſe they are faulty, but which can be rectified, and, therefore, are not liable to be confiſcated. At Paris it is the chamber, or court, of the police, that judges whether a piece of work is amendable or not.

AMENDABLE, from Amende, a fine, is alſo in France of thoſe artificers, or workmen, who deſerve to be fined for trangreſſing againſt the ſtatutes and rules of their corporations.

AMERICA, the largeſt part of the four the world is divided into, lies to the weſt of Europe and Africa, from which it is parted by the Atlantic ocean; on the other ſide it has the Pacific, or South ſea, which ſeparates it from Aſia. This vaſt continent continued unknown to the reſt of the world for all the ages that paſſed from the Creation to the year of our Lord 1492, when it was firſt diſcovered by Chriſtopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, employed for that purpoſe by Ferdinand and Iſabella, king and queen of Spain.

Yet this brave adventurer had not the honour of giving his own name to this new world, but was robbed of it by America Veſpuſius, a Florentine, who was ſent in 1497, by Emanuel, king of Portugal, to continue the diſcoveries begun by Columbus.

It is pretended, indeed, by the French, who are unwilling their own nation ſhould be without a ſhare of the glory of the diſcovery, that Columbus had the firſt hint of this unknown world from one Betincourt, whom they make the firſt diſcoverer of the Azores, or Tercera iſlands.

The Spaniards lay a claim, likewiſe, to this honour, and ſay that one Captain Aldres, a countryman of theirs, who died at Madeira, had been, with two others, caſt on the American coaſt by a tempeſt, and that he left behind him ſuch directions and obſervations as quite convinced Columbus, into whoſe hands they had fallen, of the reality of ſuch a continent, and the probability of finding it out.

We muſt not omit that the Welſh aſſert a much more antient title to it than either of the former; for it is related that prince Madoc, the ſon of Owen Gwineth, was, with his fleet, caſt on the coaſt of Florida, as early as the year 1190, or according to ſome 1170; and that he ſent for colonies from his native country, which ſettled there. Though this is by many looked on as fabulous, yet it evidently carries ſome marks of truth with it; for Meredith ap Rheiſe, who gives us the account, died ſeveral years, before Columbus ſet about his expedition. And it receives no ſmall confirmation from the affinity that has been obſerved between the language of the Welſh and ſome of the Indian nations. Whether any of theſe ever returned, or whether they purpoſely concealed their new ſettlement from their own nation, it remained ſtill unknown to the reſt of the Europeans till the time of Columbus.

The Spaniards gave it the name of the New World, and not improperly, it being ſuch an immenſe tract that it exceeds any of the other three parts of the old one, and, indeed, is little leſs in extent than all the three parts put together.

It was called alſo the Weſt-Indies, as being near equal in wealth with the other Indies, and was diſtinguiſhed by the name Weſt in regard to its bearing that poſition from Europe, as the other do eaſt.

As to the extent, it is ſo prodigious, that, in two centuries and a half from its firſt diſcovery, we have not been able to aſcertain its boundaries.

What has been hitherto traced of it extends from 78 degrees north latitude, under which Sir Thomas Smith's bay lies, to 57 degrees ſouth latitude, under which lies cape Horn, the moſt ſouthern extremity of the American continent; which, taken in a direct line, amounts to 8,100 miles in length, with a breadth, in ſome parts, of 3,690 miles; though the iſthmus that joins North and South America is not 60 miles over: yet from thence both parts of the continent ſtretch themſelves out eaſt and weſt, till they make the breadth before mentioned.

In ſuch variety of climates there muſt neceſſarily be a great variety of ſoil. The moſt northern and ſouthern parts are rendered more barren by the exceſſive cold, but the reſt is an immenſe treaſury of nature, producing moſt of the plants, grains, fruits, trees, metals, minerals, *&c.* known in the other parts of the world, and thoſe in great plenty; beſides an infinite variety of others, peculiar to itſelf, as not having yet been found in any other country. But the chief wealth conſiſts in the inexhauſtible mines of gold and ſilver, which, though the labour and art of man has been continually endeavouring to drain for above 200 years, are yet ſo far from being impoveriſhed, that they ſeem rather to want freſh ſupplies of hands to bring the ſubterraneous treaſures to light.

Nor are gold and ſilver the only rich productions; there have been ſuch great quantities of pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones found here, and brought into Europe, that the value of thoſe commodities is conſiderably diminiſhed to what it was before.

To theſe may be added a vaſt number of other commodities, which, though of a leſſer price, are nevertheleſs ſtill very valuable and uſeful. Of this ſort are cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, braſil, fuſtic, lignum vitæ, ſugar, rum, ginger, pimento, cacao, vanelloes, cotton, red wood, tobacco, turpentine, train oil, naval ſtores, furs of various ſorts, hides, ambergreaſe, bezoar, balſams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili; jeſuits bark, mechoachan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, and a wonderful variety of other drugs, woods, and plants; to ſome of which, before the diſcovery of America, we were either utter ſtrangers, or forced to buy others at an extravagant rate from Aſia.

The prodigious variety of excellent fruits which grow here, ſuch as pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatous, cherries, pears, apples, figs, with all the culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, *&c.* would be endleſs to enumerate. Theſe are among the native productions of America; and its ſoil is ſo kindly and fruitful, that it nouriſhes many of an exotic growth in the greateſt perfection; which is very remarkable in coffee, cultivated here of late with ſurpriſing ſucceſs. And though the Europeans, upon their firſt landing, found no corn; yet all ſorts of grain are now produced equal in quantity and goodneſs to any in the world. To which may be added ſheep, hogs, oxen, goats, cows, *&c.* which have been tranſplanted from Europe, and have multiplied exceedingly.

Their ſeas abound with the greateſt plenty and variety of fiſh, as do likewiſe their rivers, which are the largeſt and longeſt in the univerſe; and, in compariſon whereof, thoſe of Europe are no more than ſmall brooks. The river of Canada in North America is known to run more than 1,500 miles, and is 90 miles over at the mouth. That of the Amazons in South America, which riſes in Peru, waters ſeveral large kingdoms in a courſe of 3,600 miles; and, falling into the ſea between Braſil and Guiana, rolls with ſuch rapidity, and with ſuch a prodigious quantity of water, that they take it quite freſh out of the ſea, at ſeveral leagues diſtance from the mouth of it. That of Rio de la Plata is computed at leaſt 150 miles in breadth at the place where it diſcharges itſelf into the ocean: beſides a great number of others, not much inferior to theſe.

Upon the diſcovery of America, the Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of the largeſt and richeſt part of it. Hence they derive immenſe treaſures yearly, and the kingdom of Old Spain may even be ſaid to depend wholly on the New for the ſupport of her finances, and to owe all her opulence and grandeur to her extenſive colonies in theſe parts.

On the continent they have all South America, except Braſil, on the weſtern ocean, which belongs to the Portugueze; and except ſome parts either of Chili, or in the Magellanic land, on the iſthmus of Darien, whoſe inhabitants they have not yet been able to bring under their ſubjection; and whom, on that account, they ſtile Indios bravos, brave or courageous Indians: except, likewiſe, the vaſt country of the Amazons, and almoſt the whole country of Guiana, where the French and Dutch have ſome ſettlements, but the Spaniards very few, if any.

The Spaniards have an immenſe wealth from America; yet other nations partake thereof, as we ſhall ſee preſently; for the king of Spain has at leaſt TWO MILLIONS STERLING per annum revenue from thence, including the indulto on the goods brought back in return for the cargoes ſent out by the other merchants of the ſeveral European powers who trade there, as well merchandize as money; the Spaniſh merchants have their commiſſion for the returns, and have oftentimes the profits made in New Spain, paying the foreign merchants ſuch a rate as they agree on for the goods at their going out; and this is very great, and enriches the merchants of Cadiz, Port St. Mary, Seville, and other places to a very great degree.

The produce of the ſeveral countries in Spaniſh America, are as follows: 1. gold and ſilver in Mexico. See MEXICO. Silver and no gold in Peru. See PERU.—Gold and no ſilver in Chili, and in the government of Veragna and New Granada.—The quantities of gold and ſilver in all theſe parts of Spaniſh America, are without meaſure, and without tale.

N. B. In the general accounts which we have of New Spain, travellers make mines of gold and ſilver in almoſt all the provinces of this great country: but we are aſſured that is a miſtake; the gold comes chiefly as above: there may be ſome gold found in the rivers, in the country about Carthagena, and St. Martha, but not in any other parts, that we have yet ſeen duly confirmed.

2. Sugar is another article, whereof there is an exceeding quantity, chiefly on the ſide of the Bay of Mexico, Guaxaca, *&c.*—But by the multitude of the inhabitants, and their luxurious way of living, the ſugar is chiefly conſumed in Mexico, and in the religious houſes, in chocolate, ſweet-meats, preſerves, and confectionary wares. The quantity, however, ſent from Guaxaca and Guatimala, and other provinces to Mexico, and to Panama, is exceeding great; ſo that it is a conſiderable branch of home-trade.

3. Tobacco, this is a very fine ſort, though different from that of the Braſils; 'tis generally made all into ſnuff; of which the galleons bring great quantities. 'Tis chiefly had at St. Martha, Carthagena, and that ſide of the gulph.

4. Cotton, which they manufacture at home, and drive a great home-trade in the goods made of it.

5. Indigo, eſteemed the beſt in the world.

6. Cochineal, a very valuable merchandize, chiefly found in the government of Tobaſco.

7. Valuable drugs of ſeveral ſorts, as aloes, cortex peru, or jeſuits bark, Paraguay tea, ſarſaparilla, balſams of divers kinds, and balm, ſome of Carthagena, the other of Tolu, brimſtone, pimento, green ſtone for the gravel, cantharides, or Spaniſh flies, caſſia teſtula, olcacaſam, an antidote againſt poiſon, manna, amber liquid and ſolid, ſoap-root, myrrh, *&c. &c.*

8. Hides and ſkins, brought from Buenos Ayres, and the Havannah.

9. Chocolate.

10. Jewels, as torquoiſes, pearl, emeralds, coral, topaz, jaſper.

The produce of theſe greatly extended dominions, with reſpect to trade, muſt be farther diſtinguiſhed, as the ſeveral countries peculiarly diſtinguiſh them in their commerce. For here is a very conſiderable circulation of trade among themſelves, as well as a RETURN to Europe; and perhaps more than in any other part of the world, out of Europe, China excepted. It is, therefore, neceſſary to diſtinguiſh between the produce of the country, which is ſent to Europe as merchandize, and the produce carried from one part of America to another, for their home conſumption. For example,

Wheat

Wheat and barley are ſent in great quantities from Ncoya, Guaxaca, Venezuala, Honduras, Coquimbo, Iſalcalla from Chili, to Panama and Lima, and alſo from New Biſcay, to Mexico. The laſt town and country of Iſalcalla is called the granary of Mexico.—Guatimala alſo has good wheat.—Timber, pitch and tar, hemp and cordage ſent from Guiaquil for ſhip-building, to Panama, Lima and Acapulco. Moſt of the great galleons for the South-Sea trade, are built at Guiaquil, where they have naval ſtores; alſo at Chiapa, Tabaſco, Trinidade—Cotton ſpun and woven into ſeveral ſorts of manufactures, in Jucuman, Niguaragua—Cotton unwoven, and for others to work into manufactures, but more generally wrought among themſelves, at Vera Paz, Crudad Real, Guaxaca, and Mexico.

They have black cattle in New Granada and Carthagena, Venezuala, Jucuman, Coquimbo, which three latter places ſupply the coaſt of the South-Seas.—Nicaragua, Campeachy and Guaxaca, ſend great quantities of black cattle to Mexico.—Chiapa, La Plata, have the beſt horſes and mules.—Nicaragua, Chili and Chiopa have ſheep, which carry burdens, and travel all over Chili and Peru.—The ſheep carry the ſilver from Potoſi to the ſea-ſide.

They have a very great conſumption of tobacco made into ſnuff among themſelves; and it employs many ſhips to carry it from one place to another. The largeſt quantities of it are brought from the Havannah, on the iſle of Cuba, which is carried to La Vera Cruz and Porto Bello; and ſold to the merchants of Mexico at the firſt, and of Peru at the other.—At Venezuala is the fineſt tobacco in all New Spain.

Cocoa is alſo a very great article in their merchandize; it is produced chiefly at Guatimala, Vera Paz, Soconuſca, Crudad Real, and Guaxaca. The nuns have the chief trade of making it into chocolate: it is thought they drink more chocolate in the city of Mexico, than in all New Spain.

Sugar is a general product in all the Spaniſh colonies in North America, at Mexico, Nicaragua, Guaxaca, Crudad Real, Guatimala, Iſalcalla, &c. It is conſumed in great quantities in Mexico, and the moſt populous cities; and large quantities are carried to Panama, from whence they carry it by ſea to Lima, to Guiaquil in Peru, and to Baldivia in the remoteſt parts of Chili.—This is a conſiderable article of their home trade, as before noticed.

They have ſome manufactures among them too; for the people ſpin cotton with great application, and they make abundance of neceſſary things of it, which they could not have from Europe but at an extraordinary price; as particularly they make a coarſe ſtuff for the poorer ſort of people, called meſtizas, with which they clothe themſelves, and of which they make hammocks to lye in.

They make alſo a kind of Segovia cloth, of ſheep's-wool, and cotton-wool, mixed together: and this is carried through the country on mules to be ſold, like as the pedlars in Poland carry linnen from place to place. This cloth is generally bought to clothe the free Chriſtian Indians, who live in great numbers in the villages, and even in the largeſt cities, and drive trades according as they are brought up and taught when they are young; particularly, they are carpenters, maſons, huſbandmen, vine-dreſſers, planters, &c. Some of theſe have great farms, and are well turned for making of ſugar and indigo. There are above 120,000 families of them in the city of Nicaragua, and the country adjacent, generally employed in feeding black cattle, and planting corn: with both which they ſupply the greateſt cities towards Iſalcalla and Mexico.

The ſeveral kingdoms of this country are ſo vaſtly large, that great numbers of people, and of cattle, are employed to carry by land the growth of one country to another. The people of Nicaragua, and of the Honduras, employ 30,000 mules and horſes to carry corn, ſugar, cocoa, and other goods into the inward provinces; they carry thoſe things, as proviſions, even to Mexico itſelf.

Every time the galleons arrive from Europe, there are an infinite number of people of all ſorts, as well Peruvians and Chilians as Spaniards, who come from the remoteſt parts of the Spaniſh countries to Porto Bello, with ſervants, mules, guanicoes and other carriage, to trade for thoſe European goods: and for the payment, they bring in the firſt place the bullion, which, as it is heavy, and muſt come at leaſt overland from Panama, ſo it requires abundance of cattle for carriage; others bring it by land carriage from the countries whence they come, as from Cuſco and Quitto in Peru, over the mountains, and more ſtill from Lima; and ſome come even from Chili itſelf, which is a ſtrange journey for length.

The latter of theſe, it is true, bring nothing but gold, and generally come from Baldivia and St. Jago by ſea to Lima, and the reſt by land: but then theſe convey the European goods, which are bulky rather than heavy, up the river to the lake of Nicaragua, and ſo to Panama.

As there is a vaſt flux of trade thus between Porto Bello and Panama on this occaſion, ſo there is a very great trade from all the coaſt of Chili and Peru directly to Panama by ſea; inſomuch that on theſe occaſions there ſhall be ſeen in the bay and road of Panama, three or four hundred ſail of ſhips at a time, againſt the approach of the fair at Porto Bello.

In like manner, for carrying the treaſure for the galleons from Mexico, and the country of Paetneca, which is about 60 miles north from Mexico, to La Vera Cruz, when the galleons come from old Spain, the numbers of carriages, men, and horſes, are incredible. The ſilver mines in and about that part of the empire of Mexico, are hardly to be reported, the account would be looked on as fabulous and impoſſible.

The number of ſlaves, Indians and natives employed in theſe mines, is proportionanly great, beſides above 100,000 Spaniſh Indians, and Creolian Indians or Meſtiza's, that is to ſay, begotten between a Spaniard and a Mexican; and beſides 7 or 8000 families of real Spaniards, who live among, rule, and govern the reſt. Add to theſe, the numbers of people, horſes and mules, employed to carry all the treaſure and merchandize between Mexico and La Vera Cruz.

The product of the country there is not ſufficient to ſupply theſe, and the city of Mexico cannot ſupply them; therefore corn and cattle, and other proviſions, are brought a long way for their ſupport.

The carriage back again to other parts from La Vera Cruz, of the European goods which come by the galleons, is a very conſiderable article of trade; and particularly the carriage alſo of tobacco, ſugar, and other produce of Guatimala, and the adjacent country of Guaxaca, which comes by ſea to La Vera Cruz from the ſouth coaſt.—All this is ſaid to employ above 60,000 horſes, mules, aſſes, and a proportioned number of men.

Cochineal is brought thus over the mountains from the country of Guadalaxara, north-weſt from Mexico about three hundred and twenty miles. It is brought on horſes and mules, with which the country abound.

This account of the inland trade and land-carriage of New-Spain being ſo conſiderable an article of commerce, naturally brings me to ſpeak of the trade of Acapulco on the South Seas, as it reſpects the land part chiefly: but for this ſee the article Acapulco.

In order to comprehend the whole of the trade of Spaniſh America, we ſhould take ſome notice of the ſupplies of all the goods they call for from Europe: For this we refer to SPAIN and SPANISH AMERICA for a more particular account; we here contenting ourſelves.

We ſhall, however, here give a ſketch of the great value of the RETURNS made to Europe for this trade, from whence ſome calculation may be made by it of the value alſo of the goods exported from Europe. That ſome rational conjecture may be made of the magnitude of this whole trade in general, and the wealth of the Spaniſh dominions in America in particular, we ſhall here exhibit the draught of a cargo of one of the leaſt fleets or flotas from La Vera Cruz, that came ſome years ago, and which conſiſted but of five galleons, and a pelache or advice boat that arrived at Cadiz in July 1723. It is as follows:

PIECES OF EIGHT,	705,626 for the king	} duely
DITTO — —	7,621,586 for the merch^ts.	} regiſter'd.
OLD PLATE —	174,348	
GOLD — — —	403,277 in piſtoles coin'd	} alſo
DITTO — — —	15,325 in duſt.	} regiſter'd.
	8,920,162	

N. B. This is all what they called REGISTERED PLATE; the PLATE UNREGISTERED is ſometimes equal to it, and always very conſiderable.

MERCHANDIZE BY THE SAME FLEET.

COCHINEAL —	1,425 bales	CORAL —	8 cheſts
INDIGO — —	1,931 ditto	OIL OF MYRRH	6 flaſks large
COCOA —	920,000 lb. wt.	OINTMENT DITTO	57 ditto
VENELLOES —	70,000 lb. wt.	POWDER OF OXACA	22 ditto
JALLAP — —	458 bales	PRESENTS —	263 cheſts
CORTEX PERU —	67 ditto	CHOCOLATE	114 cheſts
LAPIS CONTRAYERVA	37 ditto	CHINA WARE	18 ditto
SARSAPARILLA —	37 ditto	LIQUID AMBER	11 boxes
PEARLS — —	2 boxes	BEES-WAX	8,716 quintals
EMERALDS — —	1 ditto	DRESS'D HIDES	1,527
GINGER — —	27 caſks		

After the arrival of the above FLOTA, came in the ſame ſeaſon two ſhips from Buenos Ayres.

CARGO.

PIECES OF EIGHT	498,326 for the king
DITTO — — —	2,753,842 for the merchants
GOLD — — —	326,790 in duſt for the king.
HIDES — — —	37,726 dried
PARAGUA TEA —	— 463 cheſts
CORTEX PERU —	— 237 bags
AMBER — — —	— 38 boxes

Another Flota, which arrived in Spain in April 1727, being the ſame which, at that time, lay long blocked up at the Havannah for fear of a war with England, conſiſted of 7 gal-

leons and 4 merchant-ſhips, excluſive of one ſhip loſt upon the Azores or weſtward iſlands: this fleet was exceeding rich, and brought, beſides private ſums unregiſtered, and beſides merchandize,

14,316,794 Pieces of Eight in ſilver.
123,840 —— —— in gold.

The ſhip loſt had two boxes of coined gold, and 236,178 pieces of eight in ſilver. The merchants goods we had no eſtimate of.

At the ſame time the galleons blocked up in the harbour of Porto Bello, by Admiral Hoſier, had on board no leſs than 26 millions of pieces of eight in ſpecie, beſides merchandize: at the ſame time alſo an Engliſh ſhip called the Royal George, loaden there for the South Sea Company of London, had on board near a million of pieces of eight in treaſure, beſides merchandize; and another South Sea ſhip at La Vera Cruz had near as much.

Theſe are ſure teſtimonies of the immenſe wealth of SPANISH AMERICA, and of the great extent of the commerce from Europe to them, of which the above were the returns. After this, no queſtion need be aſked, to what height ſuch a commerce may not be carried. It has advanced not inconſiderably ſince; for though the trade of particular European nations may have declined, yet others have advanced, which has been, and always will be owing to the encouragement given thereto in Old Spain.

The iſlands in America belonging to the Spaniards are St. Domingo, otherwiſe called Hiſpaniola, which the French ſhare with them at preſent; Cuba, Porto Rico, Canary iſlands, St. Margaret, and ſome other leſs conſiderable, which the Spaniards viſit ſometimes, but where they have no colonies.—See SPAIN, SPANISH AMERICA, ACAPULCO, MEXICO, PERU.

Before the laſt DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, France had on the continent of AMERICA, CANADA, where are QUEBEC, MONTREAL, PORT-ROYAL, RICHLIEU, and FRONTENAC, the MISSISSIPPI, and LOUISIANA: but ſince the ſaid treaty theſe are annexed to the crown of England, and the privilege of navigating on the MISSISSIPPI is allowed to England as well as France.

Before the war, France had the iſlands of MARTINICO, GUADALOUPE, DESIRADA, MARIGALANTE, St. BARTHOLOMEW, SANTA CRUZ, GRANADA and the GRANADINES, and they pretended a right to St. VINCENT, St. LUCIA, DOMINICA and TOBAGO; but ſince the ſaid treaty, GRANADA and the GRANADINES, St. VINCENT, DOMINICA, and TOBAGO, are annexed to the crown of England, and St. LUCIA is given to France; and the former are their antient iſlands, of which we diſpoſſeſſed them in the laſt war, and reſtored to them at the laſt peace.

Before the treaty of 1763, the French poſſeſſed the ſouthern part of St. DOMINGO, CAPE-BRETON or LOUISBURGH, the iſland of St. JOHN's, the iſland of ANTICOSTE, the MADELINE ISLANDS, and others dependant on CANADA. Since the laſt peace, the French retain their part of St. DOMINGO; and CAPE BRETON, the iſland of St. John, the iſland of Anticoſte, together with the iſland of Madalene, and all dependencies on CANADA are ceded to Great Britain, and the French have the iſlands of St. PETER's and MIQUELON ceded to them for the ſhelter of their fiſhermen, without the liberty of making any fortifications; and it is ſtipulated, that they are to keep a guard of 50 men only upon them for the police.

The Portugueze have in America the coaſt of Brazil only, which extends from the river of the Amazons to that of St. Gabriel, near the river Plate. That coaſt is divided into 14 captainſhips, or governments, of which thoſe that are beſt known in Europe are Fernambuco, or Pernambuco, Santos or Baya da todos los ſantos, i. e. the Bay of all Saints, and Rio Janeiro. The rich gold and diamond mines of this country afford the Portugueze a conſtant ſupply of wealth; and the trade they carry on thither is the ſupport of their kingdom.

The Dutch, who have ſo large a ſhare in the Eaſt-Indies, have but a very ſmall one in thoſe of the Weſt. Their iſlands are Saba, St. Euſtatia, and a part of the iſle of St. Martin; all theſe are the ſmalleſt and moſt inconſiderable of the Antilles. But, to make the Dutch ſome amends, they are in poſſeſſion of Bonaires, Aruba or Oruba, Curaſſow, which is alſo ſpelt Curaçao. Theſe not lying any great diſtance from Carthagena and Porto Bello, afford the Dutch frequent opportunity to carry on a very profitable contraband trade, which the Spaniſh governors are uſed to wink at.

They have alſo Surinam, at the mouth of the river of the ſame name, on the coaſt of Guiana; beſides Bamron, Aprenvace, and Berbice; all theſe are on the continent, and are, as it were, ſeparated by Cayenne, which belongs to the French.

The Danes are ſettled on the ſmall iſland of St. Thomas, where the Hamburghers alſo have a ſmall factory. This iſland is not far from Porto Rico. They are alſo in poſſeſſion of one of the ſmall iſlands called the Virgins.

The duke of Courland, with his people formerly, as well as the Swedes, have alſo made ſome attempts to get a footing in this new world; the former in ſome of the Antilles, and the latter in North America. But their projects met with no ſucceſs.

The ſame may be obſerved of the Scots, who in the beginning of the XVIIth. century; ſettled in the iſthmus, and on the river of Darien, from whence they were driven by the Spaniards.

REMARKS.

By this ſurvey of America, and of the territories belonging to the ſeveral European potentates, who ſhare this part of the world among them in colonies, a good judgment may be made how greatly the general traffic and navigation of Europe depends on America. And, indeed, it is worth obſervation, that the trade from the ſeveral mother kingdoms intereſted in America, to their reſpective colonies there, may be looked on in the light of their own branches of foreign trade, as being under their own direction and regulation: and it muſt be allowed, that experience hath hitherto ſhewn, that thoſe powers who moſt wiſely cheriſh their plantation trade and navigation in America, in due ſubſerviency to the proſperity of their particular mother-countries, are likely to have the greateſt ſhare of mercantile ſhipping, the beſt nurſery for ſeamen, and in a word, to be the beſt capable of maintaining the dominion and ſovereignty of the ſeas.

America, more eſpecially its iſlands, depend greatly on Africa, which ſupplies the ſeveral powers therein concerned with negroes, to do their ſlavery in their reſpective plantations. To the Spaniards and Portugueze the Blacks are particularly uſeful in their gold and ſilver, and diamond mines; to the Engliſh and the French in the production of their ſugars, tobacco, rice, indigo, &c. &c. And in their iſlands particularly, it has been ſaid that the Europeans cannot ſuſtain that labour and fatigue in thoſe climates equal to what the negroes are experienced to do. This, however, has been looked on by many wiſe and good men as a pretext to ſubject that race of men to ſlavery; for, if the Europeans were obliged to live as ſoberly as the negroes, they would be as able to undergo the real ſlavery the negroes do in ſome plantations, eſpecially in the French ſugar colonies, where in order to raiſe their colonies as ſuddenly as poſſible, they regard no hardſhips they put on their negroe ſlaves: and by theſe means that rival nation firſt ſupplanted England in the ſugar trade of moſt parts of Europe.

The communication between America and Aſia, though far from being ſo large as the circumſtances of each will admit of, has, however, of late years, been carried to a pretty conſiderable extent, and is productive of mutual advantages to both. The commerce of the Philippine iſlands depends in a great meaſure on the two large ſhips which arrive thither yearly from Acapulco, bringing to the value of 10,000,000 of pieces of eight, in goods and ſpecie; and the returns they make in all the choice products of the Eaſt-Indies, are diſperſed from Acapulco, ſome in ſmaller veſſels to the ſea-coaſts of Peru and Chili; but the greater part to Mexico, by land carriage, which is 240 miles; whereby a great number of people, horſes, mules, and carriages are employed. Add to this, that the exports from America to the Philippines come chiefly from Mexico to Acapulco, by the ſame land-carriage. See ACAPULCO.

For the trade of America, as the ſame relates to the intereſt of the powers under whoſe dominion the ſeveral colonies are, together with the peculiar laws and regulations made to render them more beneficial to thoſe ſeveral powers; ſee BRITISH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, PORTUGUEZE AMERICA, DUTCH AMERICA.

The DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, having made a great alteration in the affairs of America, we ſhall here inſert the ſaid treaty at large; to which we ſhall occaſionally refer throughout this work.

The DEFINITIVE TREATY of friendſhip and peace between his Britannic Majeſty, the moſt Chriſtian King, and the King of Spain, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February, 1763. To which the King of Portugal acceded on the ſame day.

In the name of the moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity, Father, Son and Holy Ghoſt. So be it.

Be it known to all thoſe to whom it ſhall, or may, in any manner, belong.

It has pleaſed the Moſt High to diffuſe the Spirit of union and concord among the princes, whoſe diviſions had ſpread troubles in the four parts of the world, and to inſpire them with the inclination to cauſe the comforts of peace to ſucceed to the misfortunes of a long and bloody war, which, having ariſen between England and France, during the reign of the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince George the Second, by the grace of God king of Great Britain, of glorious memory, continued under the reign of the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince George the Third, his ſucceſſor; and in its progreſs, communicated itſelf to Spain and Portugal: conſequently, the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince George the Third, by the grace of God king of Great Britain, France and Ireland, Duke of Brunſwick and Lunenbourg, Arch-Treaſurer, and Elector of the Holy Roman Empire; the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince Lewis the Fifteenth, by the grace of God, Moſt Chriſtian King; and the moſt ſe-

rene and moſt potent prince Charles the Third, by the grace of God king of Spain and of the Indies; after having laid the foundation of peace in the preliminaries ſigned at Fountainebleau the third of November laſt; and the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince, Don Joſeph the Firſt, by the grace of God king of Portugal and of the Algarves, after having acceded thereto, determined to compleat, without delay, this great and important work. For this purpoſe, the high contracting parties have named and appointed their reſpective ambaſſadors extraordinary and miniſters plenipotentiary, viz. His ſacred majeſty the king of Great-Britain, the moſt illuſtrious and moſt excellent lord, John, duke and earl of Bedford, marquis of Taviſtock, &c. his miniſter of ſtate, lieutenant general of his armies, keeper of his privy ſeal, knight of the moſt noble order of the garter, and his ambaſſador extraordinary and miniſter plenipotentiary to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; his ſacred majeſty the Moſt Chriſtian King, the moſt illuſtrious and moſt excellent lord Cæſar Gabriel de Choiſeul, duke of Praſlin, peer of France, knight of his orders, lieutenant general of his armies, and of the province of Britany, counſellor in all his councils, and miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate, and of his commands and finances; his ſacred Majeſty the Catholic King, the moſt illuſtrious and moſt excellent lord, Dom Jerome Grimaldi, marquis de Grimaldi, knight of the Moſt Chriſtian King's orders, gentleman of his Catholic Majeſty's bedchamber in employment, and his ambaſſador extraordinary to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty; his ſacred majeſty the Moſt Faithful King, the moſt illuſtrious and moſt excellent lord, Martin de Mello & Caſtro, knight profeſſed of the order of Chriſt, of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty's council, and his ambaſſador and miniſter plenipotentiary to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

Who, after having duly communicated to each other their full powers, in good form, copies whereof are tranſcribed at the end of the preſent treaty of peace, have agreed upon the articles, the tenor of which is as follows.

ARTICLE I. There ſhall be a chriſtian, univerſal, and perpetual peace, as well by ſea as by land, and a ſincere and conſtant friendſhip ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed between their Britannic, Moſt Chriſtian, Catholic, and Moſt Faithful Majeſties, and between their heirs and ſucceſſors, kingdoms, dominions, provinces, countries, ſubjects and vaſſals, of what quality or condition ſoever they be, without exception of places or of perſons: ſo that the high contracting parties ſhall give the greateſt attention to maintain between themſelves and their ſaid dominions and ſubjects, this reciprocal friendſhip and correſpondence, without permitting on either ſide, any kind of hoſtilities by ſea or by land, to be committed from henceforth, for any cauſe or under any pretence whatſoever, and every thing ſhall be carefully avoided which might hereafter, prejudice the union happily re-eſtabliſhed, applying themſelves, on the contrary, on every occaſion, to procure for each other whatever may contribute to their mutual glory, intereſts and advantages without giving any aſſiſtance or protection, directly or indirectly, to thoſe who would cauſe any prejudice to either of the high contracting parties; there ſhall be a general oblivion of every thing that may have been done or committed before or ſince the commencement of the war, which is juſt ended.

II. The treaties of Weſtphalia, of 1648; thoſe of Madrid, between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, of 1667, and 1670; the treaties of peace of Nimeguen of 1678 and 1679; of Ryſwick, of 1697; thoſe of peace and of commerce of Utrecht, of 1713; that of Baden, of 1714; the treaty of triple alliance of the Hague, of 1717; that of the quadruple alliance of London, of 1718; the treaty of peace of Vienna, of 1738; the definitive treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, of 1748; and that of Madrid between the crowns of Great Britain and Spain, of 1750; as well as the treaties between the crowns of Spain and Portugal, of the 13th of February, 1668; of the 6th of February, 1715; and of the 12th of February 1761; and that of the 11th of April, 1713, between France and Portugal, with the guarantees of Great Britain, ſerve as a baſis and foundation to the peace, and the preſent treaty: and for this purpoſe they are all renewed and confirmed in the beſt form, as well as all the treaties in general, which ſubſiſted between the high contracting parties before the war, as if they were inſerted here word for word, ſo that they are to be exactly obſerved, for the future, in their whole tenor, and religiouſly executed on all ſides, in all their points which ſhall not be derogated from by the preſent treaty, notwithſtanding all that may have been ſtipulated to the contrary by any of the high contracting parties: and all the ſaid parties declare, that they will not ſuffer any privilege, favour or indulgence to ſubſiſt, contrary to the treaties above confirmed, except what ſhall have been agreed and ſtipulated by the preſent treaty.

III. All the priſoners made on all ſides, as well by land as by ſea, and the hoſtages carried away, or given, during the war, and to this day, ſhall be reſtored without ranſom, ſix weeks at lateſt, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratification of the preſent treaty, each crown reſpectively paying the advances which ſhall have been made for the ſubſiſtence and maintenance of their priſoners, by the ſovereign of the country where they ſhall have been detained, according to the atteſted receipts and eſtimates, and other authentic vouchers, which ſhall be furniſhed on one ſide and the other: and ſecurities ſhall be reciprocally given for the payment of the debts which the priſoners ſhall have contracted in the countries where they have been detained, until their entire liberty. And all the ſhips of war and merchant veſſels which ſhall have been taken ſince the expiration of the terms agreed upon for the ceſſation of hoſtilities by ſea, ſhall be likewiſe reſtored, bona fide, with all their crews and cargoes: and the execution of this article ſhall be proceeded upon immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty.

IV. His Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty renounces all pretenſions which he has heretofore formed, or might form, to Nova Scotia, or Acadia, in all its parts, and guaranties the whole of it, and with all its dependencies to the king of Great-Britain: Moreover, his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty cedes and guaranties to his ſaid Britannick Majeſty, in full right, Canada, with all its dependencies, as well as the iſland of Cape Breton, and all the other iſlands and coaſts in the gulph and river of St. Lawrence, and in general, every thing that depends on the ſaid countries, lands, iſlands, and coaſts, with the ſovereignty, property, poſſeſſion, and all rights acquired by treaty or otherwiſe, which the Moſt Chriſtian King and the crown of France have had till now, over the ſaid countries, iſlands, lands, places, coaſts, and their inhabitants, ſo that the Moſt Chriſtian King cedes and makes over the whole to the ſaid king, and to the crown of Great-Britain, and that in the moſt ample manner and form, without reſtriction, and without any liberty to depart from the ſaid ceſſion and guaranty under any pretence, or to diſturb Great-Britain in the poſſeſſions above-mentioned. His Britannick Majeſty, on his ſide, agrees to grant the liberty of the catholick religion to the inhabitants of Canada: he will conſequently give the moſt preciſe and moſt effectual orders, that his new Roman Catholick ſubjects may profeſs the worſhip of their religion, according to the rites of the Romiſh church, as far as the laws of Great-Britain permit. His Britannick Majeſty further agrees that the French inhabitants, or others, who had been ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King in Canada, may retire with all ſafety and freedom, wherever they ſhall think proper, and may ſell their eſtates, provided it be to ſubjects of his Britannick Majeſty, and bring away their effects, as well as their perſons, without being reſtrained in their emigration, under any pretence whatſoever, except that of debts, or of criminal proſecutions: the term limited for this emigration, ſhall be fixed to the ſpace of eighteen months, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty.

V. The ſubjects of France ſhall have the liberty of fiſhing and drying on a part of the coaſts of the iſland of Newfoundland, ſuch as is ſpecified in the 13th article of the treaty of Utrecht; which article is renewed and confirmed by the preſent treaty (except what relates to the iſland of Cape Breton, as well as to the other iſlands and coaſts in the mouth and gulph of St. Lawrence) and his Britannick Majeſty conſents to leave to the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King, the liberty of fiſhing in the gulph of St. Lawrence, on condition that the ſubjects of France do not exerciſe the ſaid fiſhery, but at the diſtance of three leagues from all the coaſts belonging to Great-Britain, as well thoſe of the continent, as thoſe of the iſlands ſituated in the ſaid gulph of St. Lawrence. And as to what relates to the fiſhery on the coaſt of the iſland of Cape Breton, out of the ſaid gulph, the ſubjects of the Moſt Chriſtian King ſhall not be permitted to exerciſe the ſaid fiſhery, but at the diſtance of fifteen leagues from the coaſt of the iſland of Cape Breton; and the fiſhery on the coaſts of Nova Scotia, or Acadia, and every where elſe out of the ſaid gulph, ſhall remain on the foot of former treaties.

VI. The king of Great-Britain cedes the iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, to ſerve as a ſhelter to the French fiſhermen; and his ſaid Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty engages not to fortify the ſaid iſlands, to erect no buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the fiſhery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police.

VII. In order to re-eſtabliſh peace on ſolid and durable foundations, and to remove for ever, all ſubjects of diſpute with regard to the limits of the Britiſh and French territories on the continent of America; it is agreed, that, for the future, the confines between the dominions of his Britannick Majeſty, and thoſe of his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, in that part of the world, ſhall be fixed irrevocably, by a line drawn along the middle of the river Miſſiſſippi, from its ſource to the river Iberville, and from thence by a line drawn along the middle of this river, and the lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, to the ſea; and for this purpoſe, the Moſt Chriſtian King cedes, in full right, and guaranties to his Britannick Majeſty, the river and Port of the Mobile, and every thing which he poſſeſſes, or ought to poſſeſs, on the left ſide the river Miſſiſſippi, except the town of the New Orleans, and the iſland on which it is ſituated, which ſhall remain to France; provided that the river Miſſiſſippi ſhall be equally free, as well to the ſubjects of Great Britain, as to thoſe of France, in its whole breadth

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and length, from its ſource to the ſea, and expreſly that part, which is between the ſaid iſland of New Orleans, and the right bank of that river, as well as the paſſage both in and out of its mouth. It is further ſtipulated, that the veſſels belonging to the ſubjects of either nation, ſhall not be ſtopped, viſited, or ſubjected to the payment of any duty whatſoever. The ſtipulations inſerted in the 4th article in favour of the inhabitants of Canada, ſhall alſo take place, with regard to the inhabitants of the countries ceded by this article.

VIII. The king of Great-Britain ſhall reſtore to France the iſlands of Guadaloupe, of Marie Galante, of Deſirade, of Martinico, and of Belleiſle; and the fortreſſes of theſe iſlands ſhall be reſtored in the ſame condition they were in, when they were conquered by the Britiſh arms; provided that his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, who ſhall have ſettled in the ſaid iſlands, or thoſe who ſhall have any commercial affairs to ſettle there, or in the other places reſtored to France by the preſent treaty, ſhall have liberty to ſell their lands and their eſtates, to ſettle their affairs, to recover their debts, and to bring away their effects, as well as their perſons, on board veſſels which they ſhall be permitted to ſend to the ſaid iſlands and other places reſtored as above, and which ſhall ſerve for their uſe only, without being reſtrained on account of their religion, or under any other pretence whatſoever, except that of debts, or of criminal proſecutions: and for this purpoſe, the term of eighteen months is allowed to his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty; but as the liberty granted to his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, to bring away their perſons, and their effects, in veſſels of their nation, may be liable to abuſes, if precautions were not taken to prevent them; it has been expreſly agreed between his Britannick Majeſty and his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, that the number of Engliſh veſſels, which ſhall have leave to go to the ſaid iſlands and places reſtored to France, ſhall be limited, as well as the number of tons of each one; that they ſhall go in ballaſt, ſhall ſet ſail at a fixed time; and ſhall make one voyage only, all the effects belonging to the Engliſh being to be embarked at the ſame time. It has been further agreed, that his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhall cauſe the neceſſary paſsports to be given to the ſaid veſſels; that for the greater ſecurity, it ſhall be allowed to place two French clerks or guards, in each of the ſaid veſſels, which ſhall be viſited in the landing-places and ports of the iſlands, and places reſtored to France, and that the merchandize, which ſhall be found therein, ſhall be confiſcated.

IX. The Moſt Chriſtian King cedes and guaranties to his Britannick Majeſty, in full right, the iſlands of Granada, and of the Granadines, with the ſame ſtipulations in favour of the inhabitants of this colony, inſerted in the 4th article, for thoſe of Canada; and the partition of the iſlands, called Neutral, is agreed and fixed, ſo that thoſe of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, ſhall remain in full right to Great-Britain, and that of St. Lucia ſhall be delivered to France, to enjoy the ſame likewiſe, in full right; and the high contracting parties, guaranty the partitions ſo ſtipulated.

X. His Britannick Majeſty ſhall reſtore to France the iſland of Goree, in the condition it was in when conquered: and his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty cedes, in full right, and guaranties to the king of Great-Britain, the river Senegal, with the forts and factories of St. Lewis, Podor, and Galam; and with all the rights and dependencies of the ſaid river Senegal.

XI. In the Eaſt Indies, Great-Britain ſhall reſtore to France, in the condition they are now in, the different factories, which that crown poſſeſſed, as well on the coaſt of Coromandel, and Orixa, as on that of Malabar, as alſo in Bengal, at the beginning of the year 1749. And his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty renounces all pretenſion to the acquiſitions which he had made on the coaſt of Coromandel and Orixa, ſince the ſaid beginning of the year 1749. His Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhall reſtore on his ſide, all that he may have conquered from Great-Britain, in the Eaſt Indies, during the preſent war; and will expreſsly cauſe Nattal and Tappanouly, in the iſland of Sumatra, to be reſtored; he engages further not to erect fortifications, or to keep troops in any part of the dominions of the Subah of Bengal. And in order to preſerve future peace on the coaſt of Coromandel and Orixa, the Engliſh and French ſhall acknowledge Mahomet Ally Cawn for the lawful Nabob of the Carnatick, and Salabat Jing for lawful Subah of the Decan; and both parties ſhall renounce all demands and pretenſions of ſatisfaction, with which they might charge each other, or their Indian allies, for the depredations, or pillage, committed on the one ſide, or on the other, during the war.

XII. The iſland of Minorca ſhall be reſtored to his Britannick Majeſty, as well as Fort St. Philip, in the ſame condition they were in, when conquered by the arms of the Moſt Chriſtian King; and with the artillery which was there, when the ſaid iſland, and the ſaid fort were taken.

XIII. The town and port of Dunkirk ſhall be put into the ſtate fixed by the laſt treaty of Aix-la-Chappelle, and by former treaties. The cunette ſhall be deſtroyed immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, as well as the forts and batteries which defend the entrance on the ſide of the ſea; and proviſion ſhall be made, at the ſame time, for the wholeſomeneſs of the air, and for the health of the inhabitants, by ſome other means, to the ſatisfaction of the king of Great-Britain.

XIV. France ſhall reſtore all the countries belonging to the electorate of Hanover, to the landgrave of Heſſe, to the duke of Brunſwick, and to the count of La Lippe Buckebourg, which are, or ſhall be occupied by his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's arms: the fortreſſes of theſe different countries ſhall be reſtored in the ſame condition they were in, when conquered by the French arms; and the pieces of artillery, which ſhall have been carried elſewhere, ſhall be replaced by the ſame number, of the ſame bore, weight, and metal.

XV. In caſe the ſtipulations, contained in the 13th article of the preliminaries, ſhould not be compleated at the time of the ſignature of the preſent treaty, as well with regard to the evacuations to be made by the armies of France, of the fortreſſes of Cleves, Weſel, Guelders, and of all the countries belonging to the King of Pruſſia, as with regard to the evacuations to be made by the Britiſh and French armies of the countries which they occupy in Weſtphalia, Lower Saxony, on the Lower Rhine, the Upper Rhine, and in all the empire, and to the retreat of the troops into the dominions of their reſpective ſovereigns; their Britannick and Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty's promiſe to proceed, bona fide, with all the diſpatch the caſe will permit of to the ſaid evacuations, the entire completion whereof they ſtipulate before the fifteenth of March next, or ſooner, if it can be done; and their Britannick and Moſt Chriſtian Majeſties further engage and promiſe to each other, not to furniſh any ſuccours, of any kind, to their reſpective allies, who ſhall continue engaged in the war in Germany.

XVI. The deciſion of the prizes made, in the time of peace, by the ſubjects of Great Britain, on the Spaniards, ſhall be referred to the courts of juſtice of the admiralty of Great-Britain, conformably to the rules eſtabliſhed among all nations, ſo that the validity of the ſaid prizes, between the Britiſh and Spaniſh nations, ſhall be decided and judged, according to the law of nations, and according to the treaties, in the courts of juſtice of the nation, who ſhall have made the capture.

XVII. His Britannick Majeſty ſhall cauſe to be demoliſhed all the fortifications which his ſubjects ſhall have erected in the bay of Honduras, and other places of the territory of Spain, in that part of the world, four months after the ratification of the preſent treaty: and his Catholick Majeſty ſhall not permit his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, or their workmen, to be diſturbed or moleſted, under any pretence whatſoever, in the ſaid places, in their occupation of cutting, loading, and carrying away logwood. And for this purpoſe, they may build without hindrance, and occupy without interruption, the houſes and magazines which are neceſſary for them, for their families, and for their effects: and his Catholick Majeſty aſſures to them, by this article, the full enjoyment of thoſe advantages and powers on the Spaniſh coaſts and territories, as above ſtipulated, immediately after the ratifications of the preſent treaty.

XVIII. His Catholick Majeſty deſiſts, as well for himſelf as for his ſucceſſors, from all pretenſions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guipuſcoans, and other his ſubjects, to the right of fiſhing in the neighbourhood of the iſland of Newfoundland.

XIX. The king of Great-Britain ſhall reſtore to Spain all the territory which he has conquered in the iſland of Cuba, with the fortreſs of the Havanna; and this fortreſs, as well as all the other fortreſſes of the ſaid iſland, ſhall be reſtored in the ſame condition they were in when conquered by his Britannick Majeſty's arms, provided that his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, who ſhall have ſettled in the ſaid iſland, reſtored to Spain by the preſent treaty, or thoſe who ſhall have any commercial affairs to ſettle there, ſhall have liberty to ſell their lands and their eſtates, to ſettle their affairs, to recover their debts, and to bring away their effects, as well as their perſons on board veſſels which they ſhall be permitted to ſend to the ſaid iſland, reſtored as above, and which ſhall ſerve for that uſe only, without being reſtrained on account of their religion, or under any pretence whatſoever, except that of debts, or of criminal proſecution: and for this purpoſe, the term of eighteen months is allowed to his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty: but as the liberty granted to his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, to bring away their perſons and their effects, in veſſels of their nation, may be liable to abuſes, if precautions were not taken to prevent them; it has been expreſsly agreed, between his Britannick Majeſty and his Catholick Majeſty, that the number of Engliſh veſſels, which ſhall have leave to go to the ſaid iſland reſtored to Spain, ſhall be limited, as well as the number of tons of each one: that they ſhall go in ballaſt; ſhall ſet ſail at a fixt time; and ſhall make one voyage only: all the effects belonging to the Engliſh being to be embarked at the ſame time. It has been further agreed, that his Catholick Majeſty ſhall cauſe the neceſſary paſsports to be given to the ſaid veſſels; that, for the greater ſecurity, it ſhall be allowed to place two Spaniſh clerks or guards, in each of the ſaid veſſels; which ſhall be viſited in the landing-places and ports

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of the ſaid iſland, reſtored to Spain, and that the merchandize, which ſhall be found therein, ſhall be confiſcated.

XX. In conſequence of the reſtitution ſtipulated in the preceding article, his Catholick Majeſty cedes and guaranties, in full right, to his Britannick Majeſty, Florida, with fort St. Auguſtin, and the bay of Penſacola, as well as all that Spain poſſeſſes on the continent of North America, to the eaſt, or to the ſouth-eaſt of the river Miſſiſſippi. And in general, every thing that depends on the ſaid countries and lands, with the ſovereignty, property, poſſeſſion and all rights, acquired by treaties or otherwiſe, which the Catholick King, and the crown of Spain have had, till now, over the ſaid countries, lands, places, and other inhabitants; ſo that the Catholick King cedes and makes over the whole to the ſaid king, and to the crown of Great-Britain, and that in the moſt ample manner and form. His Britannick Majeſty agrees on his ſide, to grant to the inhabitants of the countries above ceded, the liberty of the catholick religion: he will conſequently give the moſt expreſs and the moſt effectual orders, that his new Roman Catholick ſubjects may profeſs the worſhip of their religion, according to the rites of the Romiſh church, as far as the laws of Great-Britain permit: his Britannick Majeſty further agrees, that the Spaniſh inhabitants or others, who had been ſubjects of the Catholick King in the ſaid countries, may retire, with all ſafety and freedom, wherever they think proper; and may ſell their eſtates provided it be to his Britannick Majeſty's ſubjects, and bring away their effects, as well as their perſons, without being reſtrained in their emigrations, under any pretence whatſoever, except that of debts, or of criminal proſecutions: the term limited for this emigration being fixed to the ſpace of eighteen months, to be computed from the day of the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty. It is moreover ſtipulated, that his Catholick Majeſty ſhall have power to cauſe all the effects, that may belong to him to be brought away, whether it be artillery or other things.

XXI. The French and Spaniſh troops ſhall evacuate all the territories, lands, towns, places and caſtles of his Moſt Faithful Majeſty, in Europe, without any reſerve, which ſhall have been conquered by the armies of France and Spain, and ſhall reſtore them in the ſame condition they were in when conquered, with the ſame artillery and ammunition which were found there: and with regard to the Portugueze colonies in America, Africa, or in the Eaſt-Indies, if any change ſhall have happened there, all things ſhall be reſtored on the ſame footing they were in, and conformably to the preceding treaties, which ſubſiſted between the courts of France, Spain, and Portugal before the preſent war.

XXII. All the papers, letters, documents and archives, which were found in the countries, territories, towns and places that are reſtored, and thoſe belonging to the countries ceded, ſhall be reſpectively and bona fide, delivered or furniſhed at the ſame time, if poſſible, that poſſeſſion is taken, or at lateſt four months after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, in whatever places the ſaid papers or documents may be found.

XXIII. All the countries and territories which may have been conquered, in whatſoever part of the world, by the arms of their Britannick and Moſt Faithful Majeſties, as well as by thoſe of their Moſt Chriſtian and Catholick Majeſties, which are not included in the preſent treaty, either under the title of ceſſions, or under the title of reſtitutions, ſhall be reſtored without difficulty, and without requiring any compenſation.

XXIV. As it is neceſſary to aſſign a fixed epoch for the reſtitutions and the evacuations, to be made by each of the high contracting parties; it is agreed, that the Britiſh and French troops ſhall compleat before the 15th of March next, all that ſhall remain to be executed of the 12th and 13th articles of the preliminaries, ſigned the 3d day of November laſt, with regard to the evacuation to be made in the empire or elſewhere. The iſland of Belleiſle ſhall be evacuated ſix weeks after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, or ſooner if it can be done. Guadaloupe, Deſirade, Marie Galante, Martinico, and St. Lucia, three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, or ſooner if it can be done. Great-Britain ſhall likewiſe, at the end of three months, after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, or ſooner if it can be done, enter into poſſeſſion of the river and port of the Mobile, and of all that is to form the limits of the territory of Great-Britain, on the ſide of the river Miſſiſſippi, as they are ſpecified in the 7th article. The iſland of Goree ſhall be evacuated by Great Britain three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty; and the iſland of Minorca by France, at the ſame epoch, or ſooner if it can be done: and according to the conditions of the 6th article, France ſhall likewiſe enter into poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Peter, and of Miquelon, at the end of three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty. The factories in the Eaſt Indies ſhall be reſtored ſix months after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, or ſooner if it can be done. The fortreſs of the Havanna, with all that has been conquered in the iſland of Cuba, ſhall be reſtored three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, or ſooner if it can be done: and at the ſame time, Great-Britain ſhall enter into poſſeſſion of the country ceded by Spain, according to the 20th article. All the places and countries of his moſt Faithful Majeſty, in Europe, ſhall be reſtored immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty; and the Portugueze colonies, which may have been conquered, ſhall be reſtored in the ſpace of three months, in the Weſt Indies, and of ſix months in the Eaſt Indies, after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, or ſooner if it can be done. All the fortreſſes, the reſtitution whereof is ſtipulated above, ſhall be reſtored with the artillery and ammunition, which were found there at the time of the conqueſt. In conſequence whereof, the neceſſary orders ſhall be ſent by each of the high contracting parties, with reciprocal paſſports for the ſhips that ſhall carry them, immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty.

XXV. His Britannick Majeſty, as Elector of Brunſwick Lunenbourg, as well for himſelf, as for his heirs and ſucceſſors, and all the dominions and poſſeſſions of his ſaid majeſty, in Germany, are included and guarantied by the preſent treaty of peace.

XXVI. Their ſacred Britannick, Moſt Chriſtian, Catholick, and Moſt Faithful Majeſties, promiſe to obſerve ſincerely, and bona fide, all the articles contained and ſettled in the preſent treaty; and they will not ſuffer the ſame to be infringed, directly or indirectly, by their reſpective ſubjects; and the ſaid high contracting parties, generally and reciprocally, guaranty to each other all the ſtipulations of the preſent treaty.

XXVII. The ſolemn ratifications of the preſent treaty, expedited in good and due form, ſhall be exchanged in this city of Paris, between the high contracting parties in the ſpace of a month, or ſooner, if poſſible, to be computed from the day of the ſignature of the preſent treaty.

(L. S.) Bedford C. P. S.
(L. S.) Choiſeul duc de Praſlin.
(L. S.) El. Marq. de Grimaldi.

AMMUNITION ſignifies all ſorts of warlike ſtores and proviſions, more eſpecially powder and ball.

By the 1ſt of Jac. II. cap. 8. §. 2. ammunition, arms, utenſils of war, or gunpowder, imported without licence from his majeſty, are to be forfeited, and treble the value.

Sect. 2. Such licence obtained, except for the furniſhing of his majeſty's public ſtores, is to be void, and the offender to incur a præmunire, and be diſabled to hold any office from the crown.

Ammunition or gunpowder may be prohibited to be exported at the king's pleaſure, by 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 13.

AMOUNT, a term in arithmetic and book-keeping. It is ſaid of the total, which ſeveral ſums added together produce. Ex. See what is the amount of all thoſe articles, or what thoſe articles amount to. The firſt ſide of the expences amounts to 500 l. the fitting out the London privateer will amount to 5000 l.

AMPHISCII, in geography and aſtronomy, the people who inhabit the Torrid Zone.

They are thus denominated, as having their ſhadow turned ſometimes one way, and ſometimes another, i. e. at one time of the year to the north, and at another to the ſouth.

AMPHORA, the largeſt meaſure uſed at Venice for liquids. It contains 4 bigorzas, the bigorza being 4 quarts, the quart 4 ſachies, and each ſachie 4 leras; but by wholeſale the amphora is 14 quarts, and the bigorza $3\frac{1}{2}$ quarts.

AMPLIATION, ſignifies, in French, the duplicate which is taken or given of a receipt, an acquittance, an account, or the like. Thus they ſay, to ſign a copy by ampliation, that is to ſay, to ſign a duplicate thereof. In this ſenſe they alſo call ampliation a copy printed upon paper, of a contract of ſale of annuities on the city of Paris, engroſſed upon parchment. Notaries, when they deliver the engroſſed contract to the annuitant, ought alſo to deliver him an ampliation upon paper, which he is obliged to produce to the paymaſter, with his receipt annexed to it, the firſt time he has a mind to receive his annuity or rent.

AMPLITUDE of the ſun or ſtars, in aſtronomy and navigation, is an arch of the horizon intercepted between the true eaſt and weſt point of it, and the center of the ſun or ſtars at their riſing or ſetting.

Amplitude is of two kinds, eaſtern, or ortive, and weſtern, or occaſive. Eaſtern, or riſing amplitude, is the diſtance between the point wherein the ſtar riſes, and the true point of eaſt, wherein the equator and horizon interſect.

Weſtern, or ſetting amplitude, is the diſtance between the point wherein the ſtar ſets, and the true point of weſt in the equinoctial. The eaſtern and weſtern amplitude are alſo called northern and ſouthern, as they fall in the northern or ſouthern quarters of the horizon.

To find the ſun's amplitude, either riſing or ſetting, by the globe, bring the ſun's place to the horizon either on the eaſt or weſt ſide, and the degrees from the eaſt point, either north or ſouth, are the amplitude required.

To find the ſun's amplitude trigonometrically, having the latitude and ſun's declination given—Say,

As

As the co-ſine of the latitude is to the radius, ſo is the ſine of the preſent declination to the ſine of the amplitude. Suppoſe, e. gr. the latitude to be 51 deg. 30 min. and the declination of the ſame 11 deg. 50 min.

Then, to the ar. co. of the co-ſine of 50°. 30'.	0,2058503
Add the ſine of — — — — — —	9,2118926
Sum is the ſine of — — —	9,5177429

Which is the amplitude required.

Magnetical amplitude, is an arch of the horizon contained between the ſun at his riſing or ſetting, and the eaſt or weſt point of the compaſs; or, it is the difference of the riſing or ſetting of the ſun from the eaſt or weſt point of the compaſs. It is found, by obſerving the ſun at his riſing or ſetting, by an amplitude compaſs.

AMYANTUS. See AMIANTUS.

ANA, a term of pharmacy and phyſic, very well known to phyſicians and apothecaries. The ſignification of it is as follows.

The phyſicians in their preſcriptions, wherein ſeveral drugs are to be uſed, if it happens that the ſame quantity, weight, or meaſure, of one, two, or more of thoſe drugs are to be mixed, ſet down only the names of thoſe ſeveral drugs, but not the quantity that muſt be taken of them, till after the laſt, putting the word ana before that quantity. Thus for inſtance, ℞. Rhubarb, ſena, caſſia, ana four drachms, ſignifies that four drachms of each of theſe drugs muſt be taken; which the apothecary ſeeing, he underſtands it immediately.

The word ana has ſeveral other ſignifications, but, as they do not relate to trade, ſo they are foreign to the purpoſe and deſign of this Dictionary.

ANACOSTE, or ANASCOTE, a ſort of woollen diaper ſtuff, manufactured after the manner of ſerges of Caën, but not ſo woolly, and made of better wool. It is made at Leyden in Holland, at Bruges and Aerſchot in the Auſtrian Netherlands, at Ypres, and in its neighbourhood in French Flanders. This ſtuff is a French ell broad, like the ſerges of Caën, and about twenty ells long. It is generally ſent white or black into Spain, where there is a great demand for it. They have lately began to manufacture ſome of them in France, eſpecially at Bourges, where they imitate them perfectly well, and the merchants of that city ſend great quantities of them into Spain.

ANAGROS, a meaſure for grain, uſed in ſome cities of Spain, particularly at Seville. It contains ſomething more than the mine of Paris: ſo that 46 anagros make 19 ſeptiers, meaſure of Paris, and 19 ſeptiers of corn are reckoned to be equal to about 10¼ quarters of London.

ANANAS, vulgarly called by us the pine-apple, becauſe of its reſemblance with the cones of pines and firrs, is a fruit which grows in the Antilles iſlands, and in ſeveral other places of the Indies, as well as in South Guinea, and other parts of the world. This fruit was for a long time no otherwiſe known in Europe, than by the agreeable deſcriptions which travellers, as it were, vying with each other, ſtrove to give of it. A few years ſince they have brought us ſome preſerved ananas, by which we may be able to judge, how far the deſcriptions of travellers are true or exaggerated. And they are now raiſed to good perfection in England, as well as in other parts of Europe.

All the authors who ſpeak of the ananas, ſtile it the king of fruits: they ſay, that, beſides its excellent taſte, which makes it deſerve that name, it carries on its top the enſigns of the royal dignity, in a kind of crown, compoſed of flowers, or bloſſoms, and indented leaves of a bright and ſhining red.

The fruit grows on a ſtem full a foot high, ſurrounded with 15 or 16 leaves, as long as thoſe of cardoons, and in ſhape like thoſe of the aloe-plant; being peaked at the end, ſomewhat hollow in the middle, and armed on both ſides with very ſharp thorns.

The fruit ariſes from the middle of thoſe leaves, and is ſometimes of the ſize of a melon. Its form is pretty much like that of the pine-cone, as has been already obſerved, its rind being raiſed in compartments made ſcale-faſhion. Nothing can be more magnificent than the colours it is painted with. Its ſcales are green, bordered with a carnation colour; the ground is yellow, and, to adorn it the more, from each ſcale ariſes a ſmall flower of a purple colour, which falls off as the fruit ripens: on the top is the crown, the enſign of its royal dignity.

The pulp of this fruit is ſo agreeable to the ſight, and of ſo exquiſite a taſte, that, in order to give ſome notion of it, we ſhould unite in our conception a compound of the flavour of the moſt exquiſite fruits. It is ſaid to have ſomething of the peach, the ſtrawberry, the muſcadine grape, and of the rennet apple; which all together compoſe a taſte for delicacy beyond expreſſion. Its pulp is ſomething fibrous, but yet it melts in the mouth.

The ananas is propagated neither by its roots, nor by a kind of ſmall and almoſt imperceptible ſeed, that is mixed with its pulp, but only by its crown, which, being put into the ground, takes root, ſhoots out leaves, and a ſtalk, or ſtem, and preſents a new king of plants and fruits.

There are three ſorts of ananas, diſtinguiſhed by their colour, their figure, and their taſte. 1. The white ananas: though this be both larger and more beautiful than the other ſorts, yet it is not of ſo exquiſite a taſte; it ſets the teeth on edge, and makes the gums bleed. 2. The pea'ed, or ſugar-loaf ananas: this is of a more agreeable taſte than the former, but makes the gums bleed. 3. The rennet apple: this, though the ſmalleſt, is the moſt excellent of all. It has the ſmell and taſte of the rennet apple, whence it has its name. It does not ſet the teeth on edge. Profeſſor Boerhaave reckons ſix kind of ananas. An excellent liquid confection, or ſweet meat, is made of all theſe ſeveral ſorts. Some are alſo preſerved whole, and, being taken out of ſyrup, are iced over with ſugar. This ſort of ſweet meats is ſent over into Europe from the Antilles iſlands.

The wine made of ananas is almoſt equal to malmſey. At the end of three weeks it turns. But, if it be kept as many weeks longer, it becomes better than ever, but is more heady. The ananas ſupplies alſo the phyſician with ſovereign remedies. It exhilerates the mind, ſtrengthens the heart and ſtomach, creates appetite, is good againſt the gravel and ſtranguary, and is even an admirable antidote againſt poiſon.

The water diſtilled from it has the ſame properties; but, as it works quicker, and is alſo very corroſive, it ſhould not be uſed but by the preſcription of the moſt prudent phyſicians.

The excellency of this fruit is not too highly extolled by travellers, notwithſtanding what Mr. Savary ſays to the contrary, after having taſted it preſerved at Paris. Father Labat is juſt in his obſervation, when he ſays, that the ananas preſerved is a fine ſight in Europe, at the top of a pyramid of ſweet-meats, but that its natural taſte and flavour are only to be found in America, they both lying in the juice; which cannot be altered by heat and ſugar without its entire diſſipation, and conſequently the natural taſte and flavour muſt be loſt alſo. He adds, that he brought ſome into France, which he had cauſed to be prepared in Martinico with all imaginable care, but that they ſeemed to him no better than ſweetened flax, in compariſon to what they were in their natural ſtate.

It is certain, that no one can well judge of the goodneſs of this fruit, if he has not often taſted it on the ſpot of its growth. With great difficulty they have been produced, by the means of hot-beds, in Holland, England, and in the French king's gardens; but they could never produce this fruit either of the like bulk or flavour, which it naturally has about 12 degrees diſtance from the equator.

The flavour of this fruit, when at its maturity, is ſo ſweet, juicy, vinous, and refreſhing, that it is eat with great pleaſure in hot countries, notwithſtanding the want of appetite.

It greatly helps digeſtion, by reaſon of its vinous and fermentative quality, which operates efficaciouſly in the diſſolution of our food. It is eſteemed, therefore, the beſt fruit that can be eat at the end of a meal. It ſtrengthens a weak ſtomach, and creates an appetite. The ſick are frequently cured with it, by uſing it with moderation, and according to the nature of their illneſs. It is, in a word, the moſt wholeſome of all the fruits of the earth.

As they do not eat ſo much of it in the Indies as in Europe, by reaſon of the heat, and becauſe few ſit down to ſupper there, I eat it often of an evening, as many others did, with a pretty quantity of bread, without experiencing the leaſt detriment.

It is true, that there is in ſome ſorts of the ananas a certain acidity, that is not very perceptible to the taſte, but it makes the lips ſmart, eſpecially of thoſe whoſe lips are tender, and who are not uſed to this fruit; and, ſometimes, it makes the gums of ſcorbutic people bleed.

This has made many European travellers unwilling to eat much of it, from an apprehenſion that its acrimonious quality is prejudicial. What has ſtrengthened this ſuſpicion is, their obſerving that the knife with which it is cut grows black, from the ſtrength of its juice, which penetrates the iron, and diſſolves a part of it into a matter as black as ink.

The ſame is related in Mr. de la Loubere's Voyage to Siam, and in that of Labat to the American iſlands. Notwithſtanding this, as long experience has verified the goodneſs of this fruit, a mere ſuſpicion of its being otherwiſe ſhould not prevail, Labat himſelf declaring, that, although he had very often eat of it, yet he had never found the leaſt injury thereby.

Thoſe Europeans who ſcruple to eat this fruit crude, by reaſon of its concealed acidity, which affects the lips and gums, think to correct it, by ſteeping it ſliced in wine and ſugar, for an hour, in a covered plate. This preparation is very good, but is more agreeable to my taſte when I eat it alone, tolerably ripe, ſays Labat, for then it does not affect the lips or gums; ſo that this acidity of the ananas ſeems to be owing only to its ſtate of crudity, which is natural to other fruits, and not to any pernicious quality whatever, when nature has got the better by a due maturity.

The Javans give it a little green, in ſlices with ſugar, to children, for the worms. To be the more efficacious, it muſt be a little green, but in that ſtate it is injurious to women with child. Perſons in a fever, or under any inflammation, ſhould avoid it, by reaſon of the ſeverity of its ferment, yet it is good to diſſipate obſtructions in chronical caſes. It is very proper alſo to prevent the generation of the ſtone in the

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bladder, and perhaps to diſſolve it in time. It is probable, that to the uſe of this fruit we may aſcribe it, that the Indians are ſcarce ever troubled with the ſtone or gravel.

This excellent fruit makes part of the refreſhment wherewith the Indians, and Africans near the line, entertain the European mariners, and barter it for toys and baubles, which they are fond of. And the Europeans are very glad to have a fruit whoſe ſight and taſte are ſo very delightful to them, for trifles.

ANATTA, or ANNOTTO, a ſort of red dye brought from the Weſt-Indies. It is made of red flowers, which grow on buſhes, or ſhrubs, 7 or 8 feet high. It is thrown, like indigo, into large tubs, or ciſterns, full of water, with this difference, that nothing but the flower is uſed, the leaves of which are ſtripped off, as is done with regard to roſes. Theſe remain in the water till they are rotten; and when, by much ſtirring, they are reduced into a thick liquid ſubſtance, it is expoſed to the ſun to dry, and afterwards made into rolls, or cakes.

There are none but the Spaniards who now cultivate this plant, and prepare the dye in any quantity, the plantations thereof which the Engliſh of Jamaica had at St. Angel's being ruined. The Engliſh dyers make more account of this drug than of indigo; and accordingly the merchants of Jamaica, who have it from Porto-Rico, buy it 25 per cent. dearer; for they pay but three rials per pound for indigo, and 4 for anatta. The Europeans who trade in this drug have, at preſent, the greateſt part of it from the bay of Honduras.

ANATOCISM. This word is but very little uſed in trade; however, as it ſometimes occurs, it was thought proper to mention it. It ſignifies the taking of uſurious intereſt for the loan of money. This is when the lender extorts compound intereſt, or joins and accumulates together the intereſts of ſeveral years, and requires a new intereſt to be paid for them, as for the firſt and true principal.

ANATOLIA, or ASIA MINOR, is bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea; on the north-weſt by the ſea of Marmora; on the weſt by the Thracian Boſphorus, the Propontis, and Archipelago; on the ſouth by the eaſtern part of the Mediterranean; and, on the eaſt, by the Euphrates, which divides it from Turcomania and Diarbeck, or Diyarbeckr. It is divided into four parts, viz. I. Anatolia, properly ſo called, on the weſtern. II. Caramania, on the ſouthern. III. Aladulia, on the eaſtern; and, IV. Amaſia on the northern part. This whole country is naturally rich and fertile, though the Turkiſh tyranny hath almoſt reduced it into a deſert. The few plains and dales that are cultivated, though after the Turkiſh method, in a careleſs, ſlovenly and artleſs manner, do yet yield excellent corn of ſeveral ſorts, fruits of all kinds, exquiſite grapes and wines, the faireſt olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, dates, &c. beſides abundance of coffee, rhubarb, balſam, opium, galls, and other valuable drugs and gums. To which we may add their twiſted cotton, ſilk, grogram, yarn, goats-hair, carpets and tapeſtries, calicuts, cordavans of ſeveral colours, and quilted coverlids, which are brought into Europe from thence.

I. ANATOLIA, properly ſo called, is divided into the following diſtricts: 1. Bithynia. 2. Myſia. 3. Æolis. 4. Ionia. 5. Caria. 6. Doris. 7. Lydia. 8. Phrygia. 9. Galatia. 10. Paphlagonia.

1. BITHYNIA, the neareſt province to Turky in Europe, is parted from it by the ſmall ſtreight called the Thracian Boſphorus. Pruſa, called by the Turks Burſa, ſtill preſerves a great ſhare of its antient opulence, though ſome ſay that its traffic is much decayed, and the great concourſe of merchants ſo much leſſened, that the place is going to ruin; but this ſeems to be a miſtake, ſince there is a caravan that goes every two months from thence into Perſia; beſides its being a ſtage for ſeveral others that go from Aleppo, Conſtantinople, &c. to Iſpahan.

The bereſtine is a large edifice, well built, and filled with warehouſes and ſhops, which exhibit to ſale all kind of merchandizes, which are brought hither from the Levant, beſides thoſe which are manufactured in the city itſelf. It is well known that the Bithynian ſilk, which is by far the fineſt in all Turky, is, for the moſt part, manufactured here, beſides a great deal which is brought hither from Perſia, which, though much inferior in fineneſs to theirs, is yet wrought in great quantities by the Pruſan workmen, who are allowed to be the beſt in all Turky for weaving of hangings, tapeſtry, carpets, &c. which are from thence carried into all parts of Europe, and are there in great requeſt.

Nice, called by the Turks Iſnich and Nichar, though much fallen from its ancient grandeur, hath a convenient haven on the ſea of Marmora, over-againſt Meſampola. The country about it affords very good fruits, and excellent wines. It contains about 10 000 inhabitants, including Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, as well as Turks, who all drive a conſiderable commerce in corn, fruit, fine cloth, tapeſtry, and other Levantine manufactures.

Nicomedia, by the Turks named Iſmia and Iſmigimid, is a large and populous city, with rich and beautiful bazars, or warehouſes, markets, halls, and other public edifices. It is ſituate on a fruitful and delicious hill, the corn, wine, and fruits that grow thereon being reckoned inferior to none in Turky. It is computed to contain about 30,000 inhabitants, Turks, Jews, Greeks, and Armenians, all driving a conſiderable traffic in manufactures of ſilks, cottons, woollen and linnen cloths, earthern ware, and glaſs of all ſorts, which make it one of the moſt trading cities in theſe parts. Beſides all theſe, the greateſt part of the ſaics, barques, and other trading veſſels belonging not only to this city, but even to the merchants of Conſtantinople, are built here.

Chalcedon was once a city of great traffic and opulence, but it is now dwindled almoſt to nothing.

2. MYSIA and LESSER PHRYGIA, have the Propontis for their northern boundary; the Helleſpont on the weſt; Phrygia Major on the eaſt; and Lydia and the Archipelago on the ſouth. The Marmora iſlands abound with corn, wine, fruits, cotton, and paſture grounds, whereon are bred great quantities of cattle. Præconeſſus, the largeſt of them, is famed for its marble quarries.

Lampſacus, now Lampaſco, was formerly celebrated for the excellent wines it produced; and the territory about it is ſtill covered with fine vines and pomegranates, which the Turks cultivate under pretence of preſerving the raiſins, but, in fact, make good wine and brandy of them.

3. ŒOLIS, has Phrygia Minor on the north; the Ægean, or Æolian ſea on the weſt; Ionia on the ſouth; and Lydia on the eaſt. Nothing occurs here under the article of trade.

4. IONIA, is the next province to Æolis, about the boundaries of which geographers differ. Its only conſiderable city is the following;

Smyrna, by the Turks called Iſmyr, is one of the fineſt ports in the Levant, being ſituated at the bottom of a bay capable of containing the largeſt navy in the world; and, by its general and flouriſhing trade, being one of the greateſt and richeſt cities in the Aſiatic Turky. The commodiouſneſs of its harbour hath rendered it the common rendezvous of the greateſt mercantile ſhipping in all the four parts of the world, and the ſtaple of their merchandize.

It was very conſiderable in the time of the Romans, and hath been all along famed for its great commerce with all nations, eſpecially the Engliſh, many of our conſiderable merchants reſiding in it, and having a conſul to protect them.

This city is reckoned to contain 15,000 Turks, 10,000 Greeks, near 2000 Jews, beſides Armenians, Franks, &c. The Perſian caravans pour in their merchandizes all the winter months; that is, from the beginning of November to that of May, conſiſting, communibus annis, of about 2000 bales of ſilk, beſides other cloths of linnen, cotton, &c. drugs, gums, &c. From England, France, Italy, and Holland, are imported cochineal, indigo, braſil-wood, campeachy-wood, copperas, ſpices of all ſorts, tartar, vitriol, paper, tin, ſteel, enamel; all ſorts of cloths, furs, Delft and Ancona ware, and a great quantity of other commodities. From thence, in return, is brought Perſian ſilk, mohair, cotton, fine and coarſe wool, wax, gall-nuts, rhubarb, opium, ſcammony, aloes, tutty, galbanum, tacamahac, gum-tragacant, ammoniac, arabic, myrrh, frankincenſe, zedoar, caſſiamunair, &c. beſides great variety of tapeſtry.

The whole traffic is here, as well as in all Turky, managed by the brokerage of the Jews, the Turks never tranſacting any bargain with Chriſtians in any caſe, but leaving it to thoſe ſubtle brokers, who make a great hand of it, and are all wealthy, and live very handſomely, and ſome of them ſplendidly, by it. The whole town is a continued bazar, or fair, where nothing that can be wiſhed for is wanting, either for cloathing, ſuſtenance, or pleaſure; becauſe all the beſt commodities of Aſia and Europe are brought hither, and ſold at cheap rates.

The territory about Smyrna is very fertile with fine olive-trees and vines; and the wine made here is excellent. The conſuls of England, France, and Holland live here in a very ſtately manner.

5. CARIA, is bounded on the north by Ionia and the river Mæander: on the eaſt by Great Phrygia and Lydia; and, on the ſouth and weſt, by the Icarian ſea.

6. DORIS, projects into the ſea, and is ſurrounded by it on all three ſides, and is only joined to Caria on the north. It hath the iſland of Scio, or Cos, and that of Rhodes, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt.

7. LYDIA, alias MÆONIA, borders to Phrygia on the eaſt, to Myſia on the north, and to Caria on the ſouth, but its limits, ſtrictly ſpeaking, lie between Æolis on the ſouth-weſt, Myſia on the north-weſt, Caria on the ſouth, and Phrygia Major on the eaſt. In this province is the river Pactolus, famed for its golden ſands, and the mountain Tmolus, celebrated for its ſaffron and excellent wines.

The country round Thyatira, called by the Turks Akiſher, is covered with cotton-trees and corn-fields, and a part of it, though uncultivated, with tamariſks. Here are ſome inferior workmen in the cotton-work, which is the chief manufacture of the place.

Magneſia ad Sipylum, called by the Turks Surleteſſar, is reduced from a once large and populous city to an ordinary trading town, and ſubſiſts chiefly on the manufacture of cotton-yarn.

Laodicea,

A N C

Laodicea, once one of the moſt conſiderable trading towns of Aſia, eſpecially for the exchange of money, is now nothing but a vaſt heap of ruins.

Dinghiſly is large, and well-peopled, and drives a conſiderable trade.

8. PHRYGIA MAJOR, has Pamphylia on the ſouth; Myſia on the weſt; Bithynia on the north; and Galatia on the eaſt. This country would be vaſtly fruitful, if well cultivated.

Cotyæum, now Chiutaia, is a large, populous, and flouriſhing town.

Syunada, was antiently much famed for its fine marble, which was of a beautiful white, ſpotted with red and purple, and of a great price.

9. GALATIA, by the Turks now called Chiagarc, hath Phrygia Major on the weſt; Paphlagonia on the north; Pamphylia on the ſouth; and Cappadocia on the eaſt. This country was antiently eſteemed a rich, fertile one, and was famed for producing the amethyſt ſtone in great quantities.

Ancyra, called by the Turks Angouri, formerly the capital of Galatia, and a noble city, is ſtill a populous, trading place, chiefly in camblets, and ſuch light ſtuffs.

The city of Aphion, or Aphium, has its name from the quantities of opium which are made in and about it, the whole territory producing great crops of poppy, from which that excellent drug, called by the Turks aphion, is extracted.

10. PAPHLAGONIA, by ſome made a part of Galatia, together with Pontus, lies on the north of Galatia, is divided on the eaſt from Cappadocia by the river Halys; on the weſt by that of Parthenius. At preſent it is called, in the Turkiſh, the country of Pender, or Boli.

Heraclea Ponti, now Penderachi, or Eregri, is quite ſunk from its antient ſplendor and commerce.

Amaſtris, now Amaſtro, from being a famed ſea-port under the Roman and Greek empires, is now dwindled to nothing by reaſon of the loſs of its commerce.

Teuthrania, now Tripoli, is ſtill a good port-town.

Sinope, now Sinabe, is at preſent a place of good trade, and maintains a very profitable fiſhery. The country about it is fertile, if it was well cultivated; witneſs the many olive-trees of conſiderable bigneſs that grow in it. Strabo long ſince obſerved, that, in all the coaſts from this city quite to Bithynia, there grew great numbers of trees, ſuch as olive, maple, and walnut, with ſome of which the inhabitants uſed to build ſhips; and of others, ſuch as the maple and walnut, they made fine tables, cup-boards, and other utenſils. The ſame is done at preſent, except that, inſtead of tables, which the Turks do not uſe, they make ſophas, and other ſorts of flooring, wainſcoting, and other houſhold ornaments. Junapolis, now Cinopolis, formerly a good trading town, is now quite inconſiderable. See AMASIA, and ALADULIA.

ANATRUM, which is more commonly ſpelt ANATRON, the ſcum of glaſs, which ſwims in the crucible when the matter is in fuſion. That ſcum which appears variegated with divers colours, eſpecially with grey, white, brown, and blue, contains a kind of ſalt proper to fatten ſheep, and which is alſo given to pigeons. When it is reduced to powder, and left expoſed to a moiſt air, a part of it diſſolves, and the remainder that is found coagulated at the bottom of the veſſel differs but little from common ſalt.

ANCHOR, an eſſential material belonging to a ſhip. It is a very large and heavy iron inſtrument, with a double hook at one end, and a ring at the other, by which it is faſtened to a cable. It is caſt to the bottom of the ſea, or rivers, where taking its hold, it keeps ſhips and veſſels from being drove away by the wind, tide or currents.

The parts of an anchor are, 1. The ring to which the cable is faſtened. 2. The beam, or ſhank, which is the longeſt part of the anchor. 3. The arm, which is that which runs into the ground. 4. The flouke, or fluke, by ſome called the palm, which is that broad and peaked part, with its barbs, like the head of an arrow, which faſtens into the ground. 5. The ſtock, a piece of wood faſtened to the beam near the ring, ſerving to guide the fluke, ſo that it may fall right, and fix in the ground.

There are ſeveral kinds of anchors. 1. The largeſt is called the ſheet-anchor, and is never uſed but in violent ſtorms, to hinder the ſhip from being drove aſhore. 2. The two bow-anchors, or bowers, which are leſs, and are uſed for ſhips to ride in a road, or harbour. They are alſo called the firſt and ſecond bower, or beſt and ſmall bower. 3. When a veſſel is to be brought up or down a river by the winds, though the tide be contrary to it, the ſeamen ſet their foreſail, fore-top-ſail, and mizen-ſail, and let her drive with the tide. If ſhe comes too near the ſhore, they have a little anchor ready, which is called the rodger, or redgo-anchor, with a hawſer faſtened to it from the ſhip; and this they drop in the middle of the current, by which means they wind her head about; after which they take up the anchor again. 4. The ſtream anchor, is a ſmall anchor, made faſt to the ſtream-cable, for a ſhip to ride by in gentle ſtreams and in fair weather. 5. The grapnel, is an anchor for a ſmall ſhip or boat.

Merchants, traders, and others, who fit out ſhips for ſea, cannot be too careful with regard to the goodneſs of anchors, ſince upon them chiefly depends the preſervation of ſhips and cargoes, and even the lives of all thoſe who are on board. They ought, therefore, to take care that the iron of which the anchors are made be neither too ſoft nor too brittle, both theſe defects being very dangerous. If the iron be brittle, the anchor is apt to break; and, if it be too ſoft the anchor will bend. In order to make anchors of a good quality, it is ſometimes the practice to conjoin the brittle iron with ſoft and tough iron; and, for this reaſon, the Spaniſh or Swediſh iron ought to be preferred, and united together, the former being ſoft, and the latter brittle.

Aubin, in his Marine Dictionary, obſerves, that the anchors of a large veſſel are made ſmaller in proportion than thoſe of a ſmall veſſel. The reaſon of which, ſays he, is, that though the ſea exerts an equal force againſt a large ſhip as againſt a ſmall one, ſuppoſing that they both have an equal extent of wood in the water, which gives room to the water to act equally againſt an equal extent; yet the ſmall veſſel, on account of its lightneſs, has not the ſame ſtrength with the great one, to reſiſt the force of the water, which muſt be ſupplied by the weight of the anchor.

From theſe, and other hydroſtatic principles, which are not neceſſary to trouble the generality of traders with, the following table has been formed; wherein is ſhewn, by means of the ſhip's breadth within, how many feet the beam, or ſhank, ought to be long, giving it four tenths, or two fifths, of the ſhip's breadth within; by which proportion may be regulated the length of the other parts of the anchor. In this table is repreſented likewiſe the weight an anchor ought to be for a ſhip from 8 feet broad to 45, increaſing by 1 foot's breadth.

Breadth of the veſſel, Feet.	Length of the anchor, Feet.	Weighs, Weight.
8	3 2/5	33 lb.
9	3 3/5	47
10	4	64
11	4 2/5	84
12	4 4/5	110
13	5 1/5	140
14	5 2/5	175
15	6	216
16	6 2/5	262
17	6 4/5	314
18	7 2/5	373
19	7 3/5	439
20	8	512
21	8 2/5	592
22	8 4/5	681
23	9 1/5	778
24	9 3/5	884
25	10	1000
26	10 2/5	1124
27	10 4/5	1259
28	11 1/5	1405
29	11 3/5	1562
30	12	1728
31	12 2/5	1906
32	12 4/5	2097
33	13 1/5	2300
34	13 3/5	2515
35	14	2742
36	14 2/5	2986
37	14 4/5	3242
38	15 1/5	3512
39	15 3/5	3796
40	16	4096
41	16 2/5	4426
42	16 4/5	4742
43	17 1/5	5088
44	17 3/5	5451
45	18	5832

The inhabitants of the iſland of Ceylon uſe large round ſtones inſtead of anchors. And, in ſome other places of the Indies. the anchors are a kind of wooden machines, loaded with ſtones. Some pretend that veſſels faſtened with thoſe ſorts of machines keep ſteadier than thoſe that have iron anchors, or only a ſtone*.

* They who are deſirous of ſtudying this ſubject more thoroughly may read the Diſcourſe upon Anchors, wrote by Dr. John Bernouilli, LL. D. which, in the year 1737, carried the prize in the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris.

Anchors in France, pay duty on importation 50 ſols per hundred weight.

ANCHORAGE, a ſea-term, ſignifying in general a place where a ſhip may caſt anchor.

It ſignifies alſo a duty which maſters of merchant-men pay in ſeveral ports of France to the king, or the admiral, for the liberty of anchoring in thoſe ports. This duty is not reckoned part of the average; and inſurers of ſhips are not bound to make it good. It is due, and paid by the maſters of ſhips, according to the ordonnance of the marine made in the year 1681.

Anchorage in England, alſo denotes a duty taken of ſhips for the pool of the haven, where they caſt anchor. The ground in all ports and havens being the king's, no man can caſt an anchor into any port, without paying for it to the king's offi-

cer

cer appointed by patent. It muſt be conſidered, that in whatever port, haven, or harbour, an anchor is caſt, it ſhould be commodiouſly ſituated, with a proper depth of water, and convenient bottom for anchorage.

ANCHOVY, a very ſmall ſea fiſh, which ſome take to be only a kind of ſprat, and others miſtake it for the ſardine, or pilchard. But, if we are to judge of it by its figure and taſte, it may be affirmed that it is a particular fiſh in its kind, which has but a ſmall reſemblance of the ſprat and ſardine, but nothing beſides like them.

The anchovies are fiſhed on the coaſt of Provence, in the months of May, June, and July, at which ſeaſon ſhoals of this fiſh regularly come into the Mediterranean, through the ſtreights of Gibraltar. They are ſent to Paris from Nice, Cannes, Antibes, St. Tropez, and ſome other places in Provence. Vaſt quantities of them are alſo exported into foreign countries. They are likewiſe found in plenty in the river of Genoa, as alſo on the coaſt of the iſle of Gorgone, which lies over againſt Leghorn; theſe are reckoned the beſt. There is, beſides, a great quantity of them that comes from Sicily.

It is remarkable that anchovies are ſeldom fiſhed but in the night-time. If a fire be kindled on the poop of the veſſels uſed for this fiſhing, the anchovies will come in greater numbers into the nets; but then it is aſſerted, that it has been found by experience that anchovies taken thus by fire are neither ſo good, nor ſo firm, and will not keep ſo well, as thoſe which are taken without fire.

When the fiſhery is over, they pull off the heads of all the anchovies, gut them, and afterwards range them in barrels of different weights, the largeſt of which do not weigh above 25 or 26 pounds, and they put a good deal of ſalt in them. Some alſo pickle anchovies in ſmall Delft, or earthen, pots, made on purpoſe, of 2 or 3 pounds weight, more or leſs, which they cover with plaſter, to keep them the better.

Anchovies ſhould be choſen ſmall, freſh pickled, white on the outſide, and red within. They muſt have a round back; for thoſe that are flat, or large, are often nothing but ſardines. Beſides theſe qualities, the pickle, on opening the pots, or barrels, muſt be of a good taſte, and not have loſt its flavour.

ANCONA, a marquiſate in Italy, is bounded on the north and eaſt by the Adriatic ſea, and by the Abruzzo and Ombria, and the duchy of Urbino, on the weſt. Its ſoil is fertile, and its chief manufactures are flax and wax, which are whitened here to great perfection.

The city of ANCONA, ſtanding on the Adriatic ſhore, over againſt Dalmatia, is very conveniently ſituated for carrying on a traffic into all the countries on the oppoſite ſhore. It was anciently very famous for it, and flouriſhing, but is very much decayed ſince Venice has ingroſſed all the trade of this ſea. However, pope Clement XII, by a decree, dated February 16, 1732, erecting it into a free port, has endeavoured its recovery. The harbour is a very good one, and, tho' built by the emperor Trajan, the marble of it looks as freſh as ever. The trade at preſent chiefly conſiſts in ſilk ſtuffs and dreſſed leather. The Jews are almoſt the only people that carry on the buſineſs here, which greatly enriches them. They have built themſelves a very ſtately ſynagogue.

There is no money coined in this city; but all foreign coin is received there upon the foot of the Spaniſh piſtole, which is reckoned worth 31 julios; the julio, at the rate of 7 ſols, 1 denier and $\frac{1}{8}$ French money (about 3 pence Engliſh) the piſtole at the rate of 11 livres, and the crown at the rate of 60 ſols.

Gold Coin.

The Spaniſh piſtole — — —	31 julios.
The piſtole of Italy — — —	30
The new ſequin — — —	19
The old ſequin — — —	18
The Hungarian ſequin — —	17

Moſt of the ſhips bound for the ports of the Levant take off thoſe laſt ſpecies at Ancona, for which they give the bankers, or money-changers, a profit of $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, and even to $\frac{1}{2}$ julio, according to the ſcarcity of the ſpecies they want, or the greater or leſſer occaſion they have for them.

As to other coin, the evaluation is as follows:

Other Coin.

The Roman crown — —	10 julios.
The julio — — —	10 bayoccos.
The bayocco — —	4 quadrins.

Of Weights and Meaſures.

The pound weight at Ancona is but 9 ounces and $\frac{3}{5}$ of the Paris pound; ſo that 100 pounds weight of the former make but 60 of the latter. Their gros weight is a quintal of an 100 lb. and makes about 73 lb. weight of London.

The length of the bracciata, or fathom, is 1 foot 11 inches and 6 lines of the royal foot at Paris: ſo that 100 fathoms of Ancona make about 54 ells of Paris, and 100 ells or auns of Paris make 128 yards $\frac{1}{4}$ of London.

Their meaſure for linnen and woollen is the brace, and is about 27 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches of London.

Their monies and exchanges in general being the ſame as at Rome, we refer to that general head for an ample account thereof.

REMARKS.

The erecting of the port of Ancona into a free port by a decree of pope Clement XII, dated February 16, 1732, extracted from the Supplement au Corps diplomatique du droit des gens, tom. ii. part 2. art. 154.

By that decree his holineſs aboliſhes and ſuppreſſes all duties, impoſts, and taxes, which uſed to be paid till then in the ſaid port and city, and beſtows upon them the following privileges:

1. Commanders and maſters of ſhips, and merchants of all nations, ſhall freely enter the port of the city with their veſſels and effects, to trade and diſpoſe of them there as they ſhall think fit, either by wholeſale or retail, and ſhall afterwards have liberty to depart from thence in perfect ſafety.

2. In order to remove all apprehenſions merchants might be under of being detained too long, in caſe any diſpute ſhould ariſe concerning their merchandizes, his holineſs conſents that the conſuls of merchants ſhould take cognizance of the matter, and confirms all the privileges formerly granted to them, to enjoy them after the ſame manner as the conſuls do in the Levant and in Portugal; and for the greater eaſe of the merchants of the Levant, or of Portugal, and that they may not loſe their time or their money before other tribunals, in caſe they be not ſatisfied with the ſentence of their own conſuls, his holineſs orders that they ſhall bring no appeal but to the conſulſhip of merchants, to whoſe ſentence they ſhall be obliged to ſubmit.

3. The merchants and workmen who ſhall ſettle in the ſaid city, ſhall be free, during 10 years, of all taxes called bene ſtante, (or taxes upon land, as is ſaid in Savary; but it ſhould rather be taxes upon people in good circumſtances) and of all duties of importation of foreign wine and oil for their own uſe and conſumption.

4. All ſhips laden with merchandizes that ſhall land in the port of Ancona, ſhall have liberty to ſell and negotiate them to the beſt advantage; as alſo to unload their effects, and lodge them in the common warehouſes of the city, and to ſend them out of town by water, without paying any duty or impoſt, except with regard to grain and maſſerizie, or houſhold goods and furniture from foreign countries, which ſhall not be imported without a ſpecial licence.

5. To prevent all diſorders with reſpect to merchandizes already prohibited, as woollen cloth, ſilk, brocadoes, laces of gold, ſilver, ſilk, or thread, &c. and others, the importation of which into the ſtate of the Church might be prohibited hereafter, his holineſs commands that it ſhall be free to export them out of the ſaid city, and for that purpoſe a place ſhall be appointed, where they may be ſafely kept till the ſhips be ready to export them out of the dominions of the Church, or to ſuch other places where they ſhall not be prohibited: and, for the ſaid warehouſe-room, there ſhall be paid only 5 bayoccos for a cart-load of the ſaid merchandizes, which ſhall be freely carried out of the harbour, without paying any duty or impoſt.

6. The lazaretto, or peſt-houſe, of Ancona, ſhall be thoroughly cleaned, and the inſpectors of health ſhall take all poſſible care of the public ſecurity.

7. No perſon ſhall perform the office of a broker without being firſt examined, and procuring a certificate from the conſuls, and the number of brokers ſhall be fixed.

8. For the encouragement of all traders, and preventing all diſputes among them, his holineſs orders that the effects that ſhall have been ſold, or negociated, in the free city and port of Ancona, ſhall be immediately ſubject to the uſual and public duties, by paying the ſmall tax abovementioned, without any alteration; which is to be underſtood, both with regard to the effects exported by water, and to thoſe imported or exported by land.

9. There ſhall be people appointed on purpoſe to pack and unpack the merchandizes, whoſe ſalary ſhall be fixed.

10. The duty of anchorage for all veſſels entering the free port of Ancona within the following diſtrict, namely, from the point di Falconara, in a ſtrait line to the rock della Volpe, whether thoſe veſſels be loaded, or only in ballaſt, and from what place ſoever they come, ſhall be as follows:

	crowns.	bayocc.
For ſmall veſſels, ſailing in the gulph of Venice, of the bulk of 50 migliaia, or 75 rubbia — — —	0	50
For larger veſſels, in proportion to their bulk, to 200 migliaia, or 300 rubbia	2	0
For ſmall veſſels, ſailing without the gulph, of 50 migliaia —	1	0
For larger, in proportion, to 200 migliaia	4	0
For all other large veſſels ſailing both within and without the gulph, namely, ſhips, patachias, flutes, brigantines, pinks, and other ſuch veſſels, of 200 migliaia, or 300 rubbia ——	5	0

For thoſe of 300 migliaia	— —	10	0
For thoſe of 450 migliaia	— —	15	0
For all larger ſhips	— —	20	0

11. The captains or maſters ſhall on their arrival declare to the caſtoralio (or regiſter), or to his clerks, the quality and quantity of the effects they have on board, the perſons to whom they are directed, for the ſake of preventing all diſorders, particularly with regard to prohibited goods.

12. All captains and maſters are forbid to unload any ballaſt, or to throw any dirt in the harbour, under the penalty of 200 crowns, and a place is appointed where ballaſt may be caſt.

13. According to the cuſtom practiſed in all ports, the veſſels which ſhall lie in that of Ancona, ſhall be obliged to provide themſelves with biſcuit, ſalt, fleſh, wine, &c. as they ſhall have occaſion for.

The erecting of Ancona into a free port was looked upon with an evil eye by the Venetians, becauſe it draws thither the merchants from the Levant, and from the north, who were uſed to go to Venice.

The other principal places of trade in the marquiſate of Ancona, are;

The city of LORETTO, whoſe whole traffic conſiſts in pilgrims ſtaffs and dreſſes, crucifixes, images, beads, medals, &c. and is very conſiderable, on account of the vaſt confluence of ſtrangers hither.

RECANATI, is reckoned a good trading city, and has a fair in September which laſts 15 days.

The city of TOLENTINO, likewiſe is much reſorted to by merchants of all ſorts, on account of its fairs.

ANCONY, at the iron works, a bloom wrought into the form of a flat iron bar, about three feet long, with two ſquare rough knobs, one at each end.

ANDALUSIA, a province in Spain, is divided on the north from Eſtremadura and New Caſtile by the chain of mountains called Sierra Morena; on the eaſt from Portugal by the river Chauca, and from Algarve by the Guadiana; on the ſouth it hath the ocean, the mouth of the ſtreights of Gibraltar, and part of the Mediterranean; and along the ſouth-eaſt it hath the kingdom of Granada.

REMARKS.

No part of Spain exceeds this in wealth and fertility, in commerce from without, and plenty of every thing within themſelves; the former is owing to their maritime ſituation, and commodious harbours; the latter to the richneſs of their country, and the number of its inhabitants; the ſurpriſing quantities of wheat, wines, and oil it produces, is almoſt beyond credibility; and we have been well informed of one ſingle town which hath been known to make 75,000 pipes of wine, and the ſame quantity of oil in a year. They abound alſo with numberleſs cattle throughout the whole province.

It is alſo needleſs to mention the ſo well known exquiſite oranges, citrons of Seville, and fine raiſins, almonds, figs, pomegranates, &c. that are the natural growth of this province. Here is likewiſe a great plenty of curious white ſalt, the beſt of ſugar, fine ſcarlet berries for dying, and, in a word, every thing that can make a country wealthy and delightful.

They have alſo rich mines of gold, ſilver, and baſe metals, which have been wholly neglected ſince the diſcovery of America. Nor ſhould we omit their moſt celebrated breed of horſes, ſo famous in all ages and nations; for it is certain that thoſe of the river Guadalquivir, or the famed Bœtis of the ancients, have always exceeded all other parts of Spain for the fineſt and fleeteſt; and the city of Cordova ſtill retains its ancient reputation, for being the beſt breeders of that noble and uſeful creature.

1. SEVILLE, or SEVILE, is the capital city in this province, and the greateſt next to Madrid. It is ſeated in a moſt fruitful plain, on the river Guadalquivir, which is navigable for large veſſels near 40 miles from the mouth of it, and over which it hath a ſtout bridge of ſeventeen boats, which joins the city to a large ſuburb on the other ſide, called Triana, which is well filled with inhabitants, and variety of tradeſmen of all denominations.

REMARKS.

The Caſa de Contratacion, or India Houſe, was erected here in the year 1513, for the regulation of every thing that relates to the Spaniſh Weſt India trade: and a royal court anno 1556, conſiſting of a regent and eight judges.

The exchange, which was built here for the accommodation of merchants, is ſaid to have coſt a million of ducats. The mint keeps here 180 officers in pay, and, when it works, can coin 700 marks, each containing eight ounces of gold and ſilver, in a day. The cuſtom-houſe maintains 257 officers, whoſe ſalaries amount to 54,000 ducats per ann.

Here the great heat of the ſummer is fully recompenſed by the pleaſantneſs of the three other ſeaſons, as well as by the abundance of all things for ſuſtenance and delight; and more

particularly by the neighbouring wood, called the Ajoraze, or the farm of olives. This delightful place, which extends 27 miles in compaſs, doth produce ſeveral thouſand tons of oil annually, whilſt the adjacent plains and vallies do yield no leſs a plenty of corn and wine.

Among the manufactures that are carried on in this city, thoſe of the ſilk and ſilver ſtuffs are the moſt conſiderable. In the ſuburb of Triana, on the other ſide of the river, there are 50 workhouſes of ſeveral ſorts of curious earthen ware, particularly of glazed tiles for chimnies, like thoſe made in Holland.

Here is likewiſe made an excellent ſoap, of which 15,000 hundred weight is tranſported into other ports of Spain, or exported into foreign countries. Without the city are ſalt-pits, and rich quarries of the fineſt jaſper marble, and other curious ſtones. But the moſt conſiderable branch of trade here has been that of the Weſt Indies, which Roderigo Caro caſt up out of the books of the India-Houſe, taking the returns from thoſe countries, as entered at Seville, from anno 1492 to anno 1592, that being the firſt century after their diſcovery, and found it to amount to the value of five thouſand millions, in gold and ſilver, pearl, and other products of Spaniſh America. This was only what was entered, and what was not is reckoned ſtill more; and, were the entries examined of the next century, from anno 1592 to 1692, there is little doubt but it would greatly exceed the other. But the trade of Spaniſh America is now carried on by the way of Cadiz, or Cales, in this ſame province.

All along the river are many curious and commodious keys, where veſſels of good burthen may ſafely lie. The convenience of this navigable river, from the mouth of which, keys are diſtant about 36 miles, brings hither a vaſt concourſe of merchants ſhipping, who have ſtately houſes in the city and ſuburbs, and live in a ſplendid manner; which is always found to be the caſe wherever commerce flouriſhes in any tolerable degree.

2. CORDOVA is the next city in dignity to Seville in this province. It ſtands on a fertile and delicious plane, at the foot of one of the mountains of Sierra Morena, and in a pleaſant wholeſome air. Beſides the extraordinary fruitfulneſs of its ſoil round about, which ſupplies it with plenty of the beſt wheat, wine, oil, fruits, and every thing that can render it delightful and opulent, it carries on a great variety of trades and manufactures, and particularly the woollen and ſilken of the fineſt kind, and in very great perfection; and alſo that of a curious gilt leather, in great requeſt there as well as in foreign countries.

But, above all, it is famed for its fine breed of horſes, which are reckoned the moſt fleet and mettleſome, as well as the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe.

3. CADIZ is the next in rank of the royal cities in this province. The advantageous ſituation of this city for maritime traffic, drew in formerly a ſeries of other nations, ſuch as the Phœnicians, Babylonians, Egyptians, Phocians, and other Greeks, and afterwards the Carthaginians and Romans, who were all poſſeſſed of it by turns, though the Romans longer than any other. The ſpaciouſneſs of the harbour, its being ſurrounded by the ſea, ſeated upon the ocean, ſo near the Mediterranean, and within ſo ſhort a paſſage over to Afric, made it of ſuch conſequence, that whatever nation was poſſeſſed of it, did ſtill endeavour to add ſomething to its ſtrength and grandeur.

What renders Cadiz the more conſiderable at preſent, is its convenient ſituation for the reception of all merchandizes ſent by the ſeveral European nations thither, in order to go by the galleons and flota to Spaniſh America afterwards; theſe Spaniſh bottoms being only authorized by his Catholic majeſty for that purpoſe.

The council of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies at Madrid has the ſole controul of this important affair; and they appoint the tribunal of contractation reſident at Seville, for the due care and inſpection of the galleons and flota at Cadiz, at their outſet to, and return from, America, in order to prevent all frauds in the royal revenues of Spain. See the articles GALLEONS and FLOTA, and the trade of SPANISH AMERICA.

4. XERES DE LA FRONTERA, is another city in this province, ſeated on the banks of the little river Guadaletta, about 6 miles from the ſea, and about 50 ſouth from Seville. Its territory is ſo rich and fruitful, that, beſides vaſt quantities of wheat, fruit, cattle, and proviſions of all ſorts, it yields annually 60,000 pipes of the wine we call ſherry. It has likewiſe been reckoned to breed in thoſe plains about 2000 horſes every year, till of late.

5. GIBRALTAR, a famed and well-known ſea-port on the mouth of the Streights.

REMARKS.

Since the Engliſh have been maſters of this town, it is become a place of conſiderable trade, which it was not before, eſpecially between the coaſt of Barbary and this place: the Engliſh merchants here having great warehouſes of all kinds of goods of the growth of Barbary; ſo that they furniſh the merchants of London on as good terms as they uſually had them in Barbary; and, by the convenience of ſhipping, can ſend them to England in ſmaller quantities than by loading

veſſels wholly, as they were obliged to do before. They had a great trade here by barco longos, and open veſſels, with the Barbary coaſt, when we had war with the emperor of Morocco; ſo that the trade is never ſhut up: and Gibraltar is now the market for the wax, copper, almonds, drugs, and other products of Barbary, which they ſell to the Spaniards, eſpecially wax, in very large quantities.

The city is reckoned impregnable on the land ſide, and is extremely ſtrong to the ſea alſo, and has proved of the laſt importance to Great-Britain in wars with Spain or France. Nor is it of leſs importance to the Engliſh in caſe of a war with the Moors of Sallee, or with the Turks of Algiers; here being generally, on ſuch occaſions, men of war ſtationed to cruize upon thoſe rovers, and to convoy our merchantmen in time of danger. See the article MEDITERRANEAN, for the importance of Gibraltar to Great-Britain.

6. EZIJA, or ECIJA, ſeated on the Xenil, a little above where that river falls into the Guadalquivir, and on a fertile and delightful plain, producing immenſe quantities of corn, wine, oil, ſilk, and eſpecially cotton and fine horſes.
7. SAN LUCAR is a city and port ſituate at the mouth of the Guadalquivir, 45 miles below Seville, and ſerves as a port to that celebrated city, and well known throughout Europe; but was much more conſiderable before the Spaniſh and Weſt-India fleets were allowed to ſet out from, and return to, Cadiz.
8. LUCENA is as deliciouſly ſeated as any city in Europe, no ſpot of ground producing greater plenty of generous wine, fine oil, and choice proviſions, than this territory doth.

These are the chief cities in this province of Spain, which are any thing remarkable for trade. And as the others abound in the like productions, it is needleſs to make repetitions.

ANDIRA, or ANGELYN, a tree of Brazil, the wood of which is hard and fit for building. Its bark is of an aſh-colour, and its leaves are like thoſe of laurels, but ſmaller: it produces blackiſh buds, from which ariſe a great many bloſſoms in a cluſter, which are odoriferous, and of a fine purple and blue colour. Its fruit is of the ſize and figure of a hen's egg; it is green at firſt, but becomes black by degrees, and has a ſuture, or ſeam, on one ſide: it is extremely bitter, and has a very hard ſhell, and in the inſide there is a yellowiſh ſeed, or kernel, of a bad taſte, ſomething bitter, and aſtringent.

That kernel, being pulverized, is given for killing worms, but the quantity taken muſt be leſs than a ſcruple; for they ſay it would be a poiſon if too much of it was taken.

The bark, the wood, and the fruit of this tree, are as bitter as aloes; and herein it differs from another andira, which is like it in all reſpects, excepting its taſte, which is inſipid. The wild beaſts eat of its fruit, which makes them grow fat.

ANE'E, or ASNE'E, a meaſure for grain, uſed in ſome provinces of France, particularly in Languedoc and Maconnois. It is not, however, a real meaſure, ſuch as the minot may be at Paris, but rather a collection of a certain number of other meaſures.

At Lyons, the anée contains 6 bichets, which make a ſeptier, and 3 buſhels (boiſſeaux) of Paris. At Mâcon the anée is of 20 meaſures, which amount to a ſeptier and 8 buſhels of Paris.

With regard to foreign meaſures, 4 anées of Lyons make 7 muids of Amſterdam, which contain but 3 anées of Mâcon.

ANEE alſo ſignifies, at Lyons, a certain quantity of wine, which is the load an aſs can carry at once; (from whence that name was taken; for ane, or aſne, ſignifies an aſs in French) that load is fixed at 80 pots (or Engliſh quarts, wine meaſure).

The bichet of Lyons weighs 60 pounds, and the aſné 360.

The weight of Lyons is 16 per cent. lighter than that of Paris, by 16 marks per 100 pounds weight, the mark weight.

An anée and a bichet make at Marſeilles 17 ſivadieries; 100 anées make 131 loads and a quarter; and one anée is one load and $\frac{5}{16}$.

The ſeveral meaſures from Lyons to Gray in Franche Comté, and their proportions to the anée of Lyons.

The meaſure from Neuville to St Genis, within a league in a ſtrait line, is 2 per cent. ſmaller than that of Lyons.

At Trevoux, and as far as Montmerle, and acroſs the country as far as St. Trivier, 100 neuvaines make 112 anées of Lyons.

From Montmerle to Brief de Davannon, and acroſs the country to Thoiſſey, 100 anées make 136 of Lyons.

At Pont de Veſle, and Pont de Bage, to Pont de Vaux, 100 anées make 137 of Lyons.

At Mâcon as in the foregoing article.

At Tournus 100 bichets make 120 anées of Lyons.

At Châlons 100 bichets make 85 anées of Lyons.

At Verdun the bichet is equal to the anée of Lyons.

At Beaune 100 bichets make 114 anées of Lyons.

At Seurre 100 bichets make 107 anées of Lyons.

There muſt be 100 of them at Nuits.

100 bemines of St Jean de Laune make 126 anées.

At Auſſone 222, and at Maxilli 250.

At Marnaud 100 anées make 112 of Lyons.

At Lovaur 100 carteaux make 118 anées of Lyons.

At St. Trivier 100 bichets make 120 anées of Lyons.

At Belleville and at Montmerle, the anée is of 17 meaſures, which ought to make 17 bichets at Lyons.

The ſaid anée weighs 440 pounds Lyons weight, and 380 pounds mark weight.

ANEGRAS, a meaſure for corn uſed at Seville and Cadiz in Spain. Four anegras make a cahis; 4 cahis make a fanega; and 50 fanegas the laſt of Amſterdam. See weights and meaſures, under the articles of SPAIN and HOLLAND, reduced to the Engliſh ſtandard.

ANGEL, called in French ANGELOT, a gold coin ſtruck in England, where ſome few are ſtill to be ſeen in the cabinets of the curious. It had its name from the figure of an angel repreſented upon it. It was 23 carats $\frac{3}{4}$ fine, and weighed 4 pennyweights. Its value in 1 Hen. VI. was 6s. 4d. in 1 Hen. VIII. 7s. 6d. in 34 Hen. VIII. 8s. in 6 Edw. VI. it was 10s. in 2 Eliz. 10s. and in 38 Eliz. 10s. And the half angel, or, as it was ſometimes called, the angelet, was worth one half of this, and the quarter angelet in proportion. There have alſo been angels of gold coined in France, on which was repreſented the figure of St Michael, holding a ſword in one hand, and in the other an eſcutcheon with three fleurs-de-lis, and trampling a ſerpent under his feet.

The ſilver angels, or angelots, which the Engliſh, while they were in poſſeſſion of Paris, under the reign of Charles VI. and in the beginning of that of Charles VII. cauſed to be ſtruck, had alſo the figure of an angel, but holding in his hand an eſcutcheon with the arms of England and France, Henry VI. ſtiling himſelf king of thoſe kingdoms. Thoſe ſilver angels were worth 15 ſols.

ANGELICA, called alſo ARCHANGELICA, or the ROOT of the HOLY GHOST, in Latin angelica, or radix Syriaca, a medicinal plant, highly eſteemed, becauſe it is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon, for which reaſon it is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle.

This plant grows on the higheſt mountains, and is particularly found in great plenty in thoſe of Bohemia. Its root forms a kind of knot of the bigneſs of a walnut, from which iſſue many ſmall blackiſh threads, a foot long, pretty much like black hellebore. The root is white within, of a thin ſubſtance, a ſharp taſte, and an aromatic ſcent. The ſtalk which ſhoots out of it, grows about a cubit high, it is hollow, and has ſeveral knots. It is of a reddiſh black. Its leaves are of a dark green, long and indented, and its bloſſoms or flowers, which form a kind of umbrella, are white, and produce a flat ſeed, of a lenticular figure.

The roots of angelica ſhould be choſen whole, thick, long, brown without, and white within: they muſt not be worm-eaten, which they ſeldom eſcape, when kept. Their ſmell and taſte muſt be agreeable, aromatic, and ſomething bitteriſh. They contain a great deal of exalted oil and volatile ſalt. This root is brought dry from ſeveral places. Thoſe that come from Bohemia are better than thoſe of England and Holland. Care muſt be taken, above all, not to be impoſed upon by the roots of maon, a plant which comes from Burgundy: but the impoſition may eaſily be diſcovered, for the root of angelica is like that of black hellebore, and the root of maon like that of common parſley.

ANGELOT, a ſort of ſmall cheeſe, very fat and excellent. It is made in the country of Bray in Normandy, whence it is called angelot of Bray. This ſort of cheeſe is commonly preſented upon table in little moulds, either ſquare, or in the form of a heart.

ANGLESEY, an iſland and county in North Wales, encompaſſed by the Iriſh Sea on all ſides, except on the ſouth-eaſt, towards the continent of Britain, where it is divided from Carnarvonſhire by the narrow frith of Menen, which in ſome places, at low water, is fordable, from Beaumaris on the eaſt, to Holyhead on the weſt.

The ſoil is more fruitful than could be imagined, it appearing ſtony, rocky, or mountainous. Giraldus extolled it for the moſt fruitful country for wheat in all Wales, inſomuch that, in his time, it was proverbially called the mother or nurſe of Wales, by reaſon, when other countries failed, this had ſuch plentiful harveſts, that it uſed to ſupply all Wales.

It is at this time generally very rich in corn, particularly in wheat, ſaid to be the beſt in Wales, as alſo in cattle, fiſh, and fowl: it produces likewiſe great plenty of mill-ſtones and grind-ſtones, and ſome allum.

1. BEAUMARIS is the chief town, and has a good harbour for ſhipping; their market is well ſupplied with proviſions, and it is the uſual town for the reception of paſſengers from London to Ireland, before they take ſhipping for Holyhead.
2. HOLYHEAD is the ſtation for the packet-boat to Ireland; it lies oppoſite to Dublin, to which it is the ſhorteſt and the ſafeſt paſſage over St George's channel. The packet-boats from Dublin arrive here three times a week, if the wind permits, and are larger than thoſe to Holland and France, as they ought to be, conſidering that St. George's channel is ſo boiſterous, eſpecially in the winter.

ANGOLA, a kingdom, which is reckoned part of that of Congo, on the coaſt of Africa. Angola, though it extends not above 25 or 30 leagues along the coaſt, furniſhes, nevertheleſs, the Europeans with the greateſt number of ſlaves, and theſe the beſt of all Africa. It is true that this kingdom extends

tends very much in length and breadth within land, ſo that it is not much leſs than 150 leagues broad, and as many long. It's capital is Loanda ſan Paolo.

REMARKS.

Though the Portugueze are extremely powerful in the inland parts of the kingdom of Angola, and though moſt of the negroes of this province, which they have ſubdued, are, as it were, vaſſals to the crown of Portugal, to which they pay every year a tribute in ſlaves; yet the trade of negroes, which is carried on at that coaſt, has always continued free and open to the other European nations; and the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, ſend thither yearly a pretty large number of ſhips, which carry off ſeveral thouſands of thoſe poor wretches, and convey them to their own colonies in America, or to thoſe of the Spaniards.

The Portugueze, however, carry off the greateſt number; and it is a wonder they have not yet diſpeopled the country, conſidering that almoſt every year they buy there no leſs than 15,000 negroes, whom they ſend into the Brazils, to work in their gold and diamond mines.

The villages, or, as they are called in the kingdom of Angola, the libattes, of Cambamba, Embaco, and Muſſingomo, are thoſe which furniſh the greateſt number of ſlaves to the Portugueze merchants who carry on that trade.

The commodities which they give in exchange, are woollen cloths with broad liſts, ſtriped feather beds, crimſon ſilk, ſtuffs, linnens, velvets, gold and ſilver lace, broad black ſerges, Turkey carpets, thread of all colours, ſilk for ſewing and quilting, Canary wine, brandy, oil of olives, ſeamen's knives, ſpices, refined ſugar, large fiſhing-hooks, large pins an inch long, and others of ſeveral ſizes, needles, &c.

The Portugueze have alſo a ſettlement in Benguela, a ſmall kingdom under the dependency of Angola, where they have ſome trade; but that place is unwholeſome, and more proper to be inhabited by the condemned criminals, whom the tribunal of Liſbon baniſhes thither, than the dwelling-place of free perſons, who follow the profeſſion of merchants.

Our author ſpeaks, after this of LOANGO, MALIMBO, and CABINDO, as three places lying on the coaſt of Angola; but we find, according to the beſt maps, and the moſt accurate geographers, that Loango is a kingdom by itſelf, though part of Congo in general, and lies a great way to the north of Angola, Congo, properly ſo called, lying between thoſe two kingdoms. As for Malimbo and Cabindo, [or Malemba and Cabenda, as we ſuppoſe our author meant,] we not finding them in the maps, nor in any of the geographical works we have been able to conſult under his orthography. However that be, we ſhall make no alteration.

REMARKS.

The negro trade which is carried on in thoſe three places (Loango, Malimbo, and Cabindo) on the coaſt of Angola, is none of the leaſt conſiderable, which the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, drive on the coaſt of that part of Africa, with regard both to the number of ſlaves they meet with there, and to their goodneſs and ſtrength. The Europeans prefer them before all others, and the inhabitants of the colonies in America always give a better price for them, as being more capable to undergo the labour and fatigue of cultivating and manufacturing ſugar, tobacco, indigo, and the other hard work to which theſe poor wretches are commonly put.

At Loango de Boario they reckon by macoutes and hundreds; each macoute is worth 10, ſo that 10 macoutes make 100. In order to make that account, they agree with the ſellers of ſlaves about the number of macoutes each ſort of merchandize is to be valued at. For inſtance, 2 Dutch knives are reckoned worth one macoute; an annabaſſe, or coverlet, with broad ſtripes, three; a copper baſon, weighing two pounds, and 12 inches in diameter, alſo three; a muſquet 30; a barrel of gun-powder weighing 10 pounds, 30 likewiſe; a piece of blue ſalampouris (linnen cloth made on the coaſt of Coromandel) 120 macoutes, which the negroes reckon 1200, and ſo of the reſt.

The price of the merchandizes being thus agreed upon, they afterwards agree about that of the ſlaves, which is reckoned by hundreds; ſo that, if you buy a negro, Piezas de India *, for 3,500, you muſt give 350 macoutes in merchandizes, according to the foregoing valuation, or eſtimation,

* See the article ASSIENTO TREATY.

Obſerve, that it ſeems ſlaves are paid for ſomething cheaper to the king or queen, or the chiefs, than to private people; becauſe the blue ſalampouris, which are valued at 1,200, to common merchants, are rated but 600 to the king and queen; which may alſo be ſaid of ſome other merchandizes; but yet, upon the whole, it amounts almoſt to the ſame.

The price of negroes is ſettled otherwiſe at Malimbo and Cabindo. They reckon there by pieces, which is eaſier than the account by macoutes: but yet there is no difference upon the whole, each ſort of merchandize being valued at ſo many pieces. When the ſhips of the French Aſſiento company went thither for the firſt time, 10 annabaſſes were worth one negro, or Piezas de India; a muſquet the ſame; a barrel of gun-powder the ſame; a piece of ſalampouris four negroes, or Piezas de India; ten copper baſons, one; a piece of chintz, one; and ſo of the reſt.

The long meaſure uſed at Loango is called pau. There are three ſorts of it; the queen's pau which is 28 inches long, and valued at three macoutes: the pau of the fidalguo's, which is of 24 inches; and that of private perſons, which is but 16 inches and ½.

The duties paid at theſe three places for the liberty of trading are not the ſame, being ſomething higher at Loango, than at Malimbo and Cabindo, or Malemba and Cabenda. As to the merchandizes, the ſame ſorts are proper for theſe three places. We ſhall give hereafter an account of thoſe duties.

Beſides the duties agreed upon, there are alſo preſents to be made to the negro kings or princes on that coaſt, in order to obtain an audience; for it is an eſtabliſhed rule never to appear before them, without preſenting them with ſomething.

The preſents which the French Aſſiento company made in 1703, to have an audience of the queen of Loango, conſiſted in ten annabaſſes, a barrel of brandy containing eighteen quarts, and a pau and a half of ſcarlet cloth.

Preſents are alſo made to the fidalguo's, or lords; there were at that time three of them, and the preſent to all three conſiſted in fifteen annabaſſes, a barrel of brandy containing 18 quarts, and a pau and a half of ſcarlet cloth.

BOKE-NEALE, is a province of Africa, ſituate to the north of the kingdom of Loango, to which it is tributary.

It is reckoned that this province muſt be above 150 leagues diſtant from the coaſt, becauſe the negroes who come from it to trade on the coaſt, are uſed to ſpend above three months in their journey.

Moſt of the ivory which the people of Loango ſell to the Europeans, comes from Boke-neale: they barter it commonly for ſalt, which they ſend thither in baſkets, and which their ſlaves carry on their heads. The Europeans alſo give in exchange large knives, ſmall drinking-pots, palm-oil, and feather-beds, which they barter for pieces of ſtuff called libongos.

REMARKS.

The duties or fees, which were paid by the French Aſſiento company, were of five ſorts, viz. 1. To the queen. 2. To the fidalguos. 3. To the king's mother and to the king's ſon. 4. To the captain of the coaſt. And, 5. To the interpreter.

The duties for the queen were ſettled at 40 annabaſſes, 2 pieces of blue ſalampouris, or baftas; 2 barrels of gun-powder; 30 copper-baſons; two ſmall pewter pots to drink out of; as many earthen ones; 36 padlocks, 48 knives; 2 barrels of brandy, containing 18 quarts each; 3 paus of ſcarlet cloth; as many of blue cloth; 2 muſquets; 24 ſmall bells; 4 looking-glaſſes with black frames; 2 nicanees; 2 pewter diſhes; 4 pounds of black glaſs beads; 2 ſabres; 2 pieces of white ſalampouris; 2 pieces of coarſe blue cotton cloths ſtriped, and as many of painted linnens, and 2 trumpets: all which, according to the manner of reckoning of the negroes, amounted to 10,000 or 11,000, that is to ſay, 1000 or 1100 macoutes.

The duties to the three fidalguos amounted to about 22 or 23,000, which was 7500 for each of them, which, reduced into macoutes, made 750 macoutes.

The interpreter had about 3000, that is, 300 macoutes.

The king's mother and the king's ſon 2800, or 280 macoutes; and the captain Manabaza, commander of the coaſt, about half, which amounts to 1400, or 140 macoutes.

Beſides theſe large duties, there is another ſmall fee or preſent, conſiſting in one annabaſſe and two knives, which are given to each of the merchants who bring the ſlaves.

All theſe duties are paid in merchandizes, reduced into macoutes.

The price of the ſlaves is alſo rated in macoutes: and, in the year 1704, the price of negroes was ſettled as follows: the negroes of the queen, and of Macouda, her chief favourite, at 2500 per negro-man, Piezas de India; at 2230 per negro-woman, alſo Piezas de India; and the negro boys and girls in proportion; that is to ſay, the former at 250, and the latter at 230 macoutes.

As to the ſlaves you trade for with the private merchants, their price is not fixed; you give as few macoutes for them as you can *.

* But ſince the French Aſſiento, not only the price of ſlaves, but that of gold, ivory, &c. is advanced 2 or 300 per cent. more; the cauſes of which will appear under the head of the ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY.

ANGOUMOIS, a province of France, is bounded by Poictou on the north, Limoſin and La Marche on the eaſt, Perigord on the ſouth, and Saintonge on the weſt.

This province produces abundance of corn, wine, and excellent fruit. The fruit and corn which grow here moſt plentifully, are wheat, rye, barley, oats, another ſort of grain, which

which the French call baillorge, and is pretty much like barley, Spaniſh wheat, ſaffron, wine, walnuts.

Wines are the chief and moſt important branch of the trade of Angoumois. The wines in the greateſt repute, and ſold preferably to all others, are thoſe of Cogniac and its diſtrict, and the next in quality are thoſe of Angouleſme.

The red wines are ſold in Limoſin and Poictou, and the white wines ſerve to make brandy.

The ſale of brandies differs according to the times. During the wars they are bought up by the French commiſſioners of the ſtores, for the uſe of the armies in Flanders and Germany. They are firſt carried by land to Châtelleraud, where they are embarked on the Vienne, to go afterwards by the Loire to Orleans, from whence they are ſent to the places for which they are deſigned.

In time of peace the ſale is eaſier, quicker, and in greater quantity. They are then ſent to Charente below Rochfort, where the Engliſh and Daniſh ſhips come and take off great quantities, eſpecially of the Cogniac brandies. At Charente is a duty to be paid, which is thought to do ſome prejudice to the trade.

La Marche. Notwithſtanding the great occaſion they have for ſalt in thoſe four provinces, yet the profits on that commodity are very inconſiderable, both on account of the duties that are to be paid at the office of Tonne-Charente, which ſwallow up the greateſt part of them, and of the ſeveral tolls belonging to many lords, whoſe eſtates are ſituated upon that river; all which together leave hardly any profit to the trader.

As to the paper and brandy made at Angouleſme, we ſhall ſpeak of them preſently.

We refer likewiſe to the ſame article, for what relates to the woollen manufactories of this city; we ſhall only obſerve that there are few other manufactories there of any note, except that of clock and watch making; which was formerly in great repute, but is at preſent hardly kept up, becauſe the beſt workmen are gone to Saintes, Blois, or Poictiers.

We queſtion, whether we ought to reckon, amongſt the merchandizes made in this city, the water which from its excellency is called the water of Angouleſme, and ſerves to beautify the complexion. The care which the ladies take of their beauty, occaſioned for a long time a great demand for that water; but whether it be, that people have been at laſt undeceived with regard to its qualities, or diſguſted by the high price, it is certain that the demand for it is greatly abated.

ANGOUMOIS and LIMOSIN. We ſhall join theſe two provinces under one article, as in the original, they being under the ſame generality.

Limoſin, has Angoumois and Perigord on the weſt, La Marche on the north, Auvergne on the eaſt, and Quercy on the ſouth. Though Angoumois and Limoſin border on each other, yet they are very little alike with regard to the fruitfulneſs of the ſoil, or the plenty of things neceſſary for the ſupport of life, proper for trade.

Angoumois, as obſerved, produces abundance of corn, wine, and excellent fruit; Limoſin, on the contrary, is barren and cold. It produces wine in ſome places only, and that very indifferent too; wheat hardly any where; rye, barley, and cheſnuts are the materials which the inhabitants chiefly uſe to make their bread.

There are in both theſe provinces a great number of paper-mills, the manufactory of which is very much eſteemed. The paper of Angoumois, that at leaſt which is proper for printing, is chiefly deſigned for Holland, which is the reaſon why in moſt of their manufactories they put the arms of Amſterdam upon it; they likewiſe ſend ſome paper to Paris. That of Limoſin is not leſs excellent for the printing of books; it is, above all, admirable for prints of copper-plates; but it is ſeldom uſed for writing, not being ſufficiently gummed for that purpoſe.

The manufactories of woollen ſtuffs are not very conſiderable in this generality. At Limoges (the capital of Limoſin) they hardly make any other ſtuffs except bays. At Angouleſme they make ſerges and ſtamines: at St Jean d'Angeli, ſerges and broad-cloths: at Nerac, woollen cloths and ſerges: at la Rochefoucault, ſerges: at Santereune, cloths: at Cogniac, ſtamines: at St Leonard, very coarſe woollen cloths: and, laſtly, at Brioes and Tulle, bays.

All theſe ſtuffs are partly uſed in the places where they are made, and partly ſent to Bourdeaux, Limoges, and Angouleſme.

The ſaffron that is made in Angoumois is no inconſiderable object of trade for that country; and, though it be not quite ſo good as that of Gatinois, yet they ſend great quantities of it to Bourdeaux, where the Engliſh, Dutch, Swedes, Danes, and other northern nations, come and buy it; as they alſo do the brandies of Cogniac, which are in great eſteem, particularly in England and Holland.

They have in Limoſin ſtuds of horſes, which ſucceed pretty well; the greateſt part of them are ſold at the fairs of Châlus. The barrenneſs of Limoſin, and the inhabitants inclination for labour, are the reaſons why ſeveral thouſands of them leave it every year, and diſperſe themſelves throughout the whole kingdom of France, wherever they can get work, and return home a little before the winter, bringing to their families ſuch aſſiſtance as they could not meet with in their native place: this is to them inſtead of trade, and by which other provinces grow rich.

The chief income of Upper and Lower Limoſin ariſes from the trade of cattle, chiefly of black-cattle, which are ſold partly to the traders of the neighbouring provinces, and partly to thoſe of Paris, who buy up great quantities of them every year. The latter are uſed to have the cattle fattened in Normandy, before they bring them to Paris; for they grow very lean on the road, becauſe of the length of the journey.

As long as the French had armies in Italy, moſt of the oxen ſent thither for the ſuſtenance of the troops were bought in Limoſin, which increaſed that trade very much.

They alſo feed flocks of ſheep in Limoſin; but, as their fleſh is not very good, and their wool but indifferent, they bring up ſo many only as are ſufficient for the demands of that province; and the little wool they afford is employed in the woollen manufactories mentioned hereafter.

The trade of horſes is not leſs conſiderable than that of oxen, if it be not more ſo. Moſt of them are ſold at the two fairs of Châlus, one of which is kept on St. George's day, and the other on Michaelmas-day; and at the three fairs of Limoges, which are kept in the months of May, July, and December. Of theſe five fairs, that which is kept at Châlus on St. George's-day is the moſt conſiderable. Moſt of the horſes ſent thither are bought, when they are colts, to be afterwards brought up in that country, in Angoumois and in Perigord.

The horſes of Limoſin are very much eſteemed; they laſt long, and work very hard. They reckon that one year with another they ſend out of that province between 1,500, and 2000, colts, ſince the ſtuds, which had been neglected by Monſieur de Louvois's death, have been put again upon a good footing, and ſince they have brought thither ſtallions from Spain and Barbary; it appearing from experience that they ſucceed there better than any other.

The land in Limoſin is almoſt every-where covered with cheſnut trees, the fruit whereof ſerves for food to the country-people, but not, as has been aſſerted by ſome, reduced into flour proper to make bread; the flour, or meal, that could be made of cheſnuts, being not good to make dough, as that of wheat is; but that fruit really ſerve them for food inſtead of bread. Their manner of preparing cheſnuts for food is as follows: they take off the firſt peel, or rind, when they are dry: then they boil them a little, to take off the ſecond peel; and afterwards they boil them intirely to reduce them into a kind of pap. It is a food to which people can eaſily uſe themſelves; it gives ſtrength and vigour even to thoſe who uſe no other ſuſtenance, which is the caſe of moſt of the peaſants. Cheſnuts will keep a great while, if they be dried in the ſhade; but, when they have been thus kept, they are more inſipid and leſs nouriſhing than thoſe which are freſh, or of the ſame year's growth.

The open fields of Limoſin produce pretty good rye; but, though they be never ſo well manured and cultivated, they can never be brought to produce wheat. Beſides rye, which none but the richeſt country-people feed upon, they alſo ſow ſome buck-wheat, and a kind of thick turnip, which, together with the cheſnuts, are all the food of the pooreſt ſort.

The country of Angoumois differs very much from the former. Its ſoil is proper for all ſorts of crops; and, though generally ſpeaking, the crops be not very plentiful, and the produce be deſigned only for home-conſumption, yet it is not ſo much owing to the barrenneſs of the ſoil as to the want of a proper cultivation.

The fruit and corn, which grow there moſt plentifully, are wheat, rye, barley, oats, and baillorge, which is pretty much like barley, as obſerved; alſo Spaniſh wheat, ſaffron, wines, walnuts, and all ſorts of fruit.

Angoumois is not, indeed, at preſent quite ſo flouriſhing in regard to the wine trade, as it was formerly; for that commodity being cultivated in ſome other provinces of France, particularly in Orleannois and Gâtinois, this has conſiderably leſſened the demand for it; the ſale of it being reckoned to amount formerly to above 100,000 l. per annum. Another reaſon of the decay of trade here is, that the ſaffron which grows here is not reckoned ſo good as that of the other provinces above-mentioned.

However, they ſend pretty large quantities of it into Germany, and to Lyons, whence it is carried into Hungary, Pruſſia, and other northern countries, where it is very much uſed.

Another conſiderable article of the trade of Angoumois is its forges, particularly thoſe of Rancogne, Planche-Mênier, and Rouſſines; the iron of which is very ſoft, very eaſy to melt for caſt work, and very fit to be worked with the hammer. Moſt of it is uſed in making great guns, bombs, and bullets, for the king's arſenals of the marine, and particularly for that of Rochfort.

Laſtly, the manufacture of paper, though it has loſt very much of the reputation it formerly had in foreign countries, particularly at Amſterdam, yet they ſtill furniſh the Dutch with pretty large quantities of it in time of peace; the beſt printers in Holland always lamenting the want of the paper of Angouleſme, which the Dutch have never been able to imitate perfectly,

fectly, whatever pains they have taken, and whatever expence they have been at, for that purpoſe.

We have ſeen a memorial, wherein the author aſſerts, that the abovementioned decay of the paper-trade was not ſo much owing to the long wars, which took up almoſt the whole reign of Lewis XIV, as to the duties that were laid on that commodity, or on the materials of which it was made, ſince the year 1656: namely, the ſtamp-duty, at the rate of 6 ſols per ream of fine paper, and 4 ſols per ream of common paper; the duty of exportation at Tonne-Charente, on each bale of paper, which amounts to 4 ſols per ream; another duty of importation, eſtabliſhed likewiſe at Tonne-Charente, of 10 ſols per 100 weight on all the rags, and on the gum that comes from Poictou, which again raiſes the price of paper a ſol per ream. The author of that memorial is of opinion, that, if thoſe duties were leſſened by one half only, the manufactory and trade of paper would ſoon revive; and that we might ſee at preſent, as it was formerly, 60 paper-mills at work in Angoumois, inſtead of 16 only which remain, and even thoſe are not always employed.

Manufactories of Stuffs.

At St Jean D'Angeli, they make woollen cloth, a French ell wide, and ſtamines. They are ſent to Bourdeaux and to Limoges.

At Nerac, they make woollen cloth and ſerges; they are ſent to the ſame places as thoſe of St Jean d'Angeli.

At Angoulesme, they manufacture ſerges and ſtamines. They are all ſold on the ſpot.

At La Rochefoucault, there is a manufactory of ſerges. They alſo make gloves there.

At Limoges, Tulle, and Brine, they manufacture bays.

At St Leonard, they make coarſe and thick cloths, proper for clothing the ſoldiers and peaſants.

At Aubeterre, there are no woollen manufactories; but they make there coarſe linnens, and paper, which they ſend to Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Toulouſe.

The particular Trade of Limoges and Angouleſme.

Limoges, is ſituated on the river Vienne, which runs along its ſuburbs on the eaſt ſide: but that river affords it no great conveniency for trade, becauſe it is hardly navigable, except for floats of timber, on account of the rocks which hinder its courſe.

This defect of the Vienne, and the great diſtance at which Limoges is from the ſea, make it impoſſible for the inhabitants to carry on ſuch a trade as the towns ſituated near the ſea-coaſt have occaſionally with foreigners; for which reaſon they have, by their induſtry and great labour, opened to themſelves a pretty conſiderable trade with the inland parts of the kingdom, by the correſpondence they keep up there, and by making their town a kind of ſtaple for the merchandizes which are ſent from Paris to Toulouſe, or from Toulouſe to Paris; as well as for thoſe which go from Lyons to Bourdeaux, and from Bourdeaux to Lyons.

Limoges is, likewiſe, the ſtaple for the ſalt of Brouage, which is uſed in Auvergne; and it is, alſo, by the merchants and factors of this city, that the trade is carried on from Auvergne and Lyons to Rochelle.

Beſide this ſtaple-trade, if we may call it ſo, there are a great many manufactories, either within the city of Limoges, or in its neighbourhood, which afford it a trade either within the country, or with the neighbouring provinces, and even as far as Paris.

Theſe manufactories are woollen ſtuffs, mentioned above; hides, for which there are ſeveral tan-houſes on the banks of the Vienne, the water of which is proper for dreſſing leather; gloves, of which great quantities are made at St. Junien, and in ſome other neighbouring places; paper, which is made in the mills of St. Leonard; nails, particularly for horſe-ſhoes, a great quantity of which is ſent to Paris, where they are in good eſteem; pins, which employed formerly above 20 maſters and 500 journeymen; iron-wire, very ſoft and malleable; laſtly, a vaſt quantity of ſilk and thread-buttons, the manufactory of which ſuffered, indeed, a great deal, as long as the ſtuff-buttons were in faſhion; but it has begun to revive again, ſince the wear of thoſe buttons has been ſeverely prohibited.

They alſo make at Limoges enamel of copper, the colours of which are extremely beautiful and lively, becauſe the water of the Vienne is proper for diluting and mixing the colours; but the deſigns are ſo ill contrived, that ſkilful judges make no account of them; they ſell, however, pretty well in the neighbouring provinces, and there are even ſome ſent to Paris.

Angoulesme, the capital city of Angoumois, ſtands on a high hill, at the foot of which runs the Charente; the neighbourhood of that river does very much contribute to the commerce of this city, and ſerves to carry abroad the commodities of Angouleſme, and to convey thither ſuch as the people have occaſion for. The commodities ſent abroad, as obſerved above, are chiefly brandies and paper; and they import, amongſt other things, ſalt, which is brought from Saintonge in boats to Angouleſme, whence it is carried in carts and on mules, into Auvergne, Limoſin, Perigord, and la Marche.

ANHALT, a principality of Germany, has Miſnia on the ſouth, the duchy of Magdeburg and the principality of Halberſtadt on the north and north-weſt; the duchy of Saxony on the eaſt, and Thuringia on the weſt. Its chief trade is in beer.

1. Dessaw. Its trade is in excellent beer, which is tranſported all over the country.

2. Zerbst, is remarkable for the ſame ſtrong beer-brewery as at Deſſaw, but it is ſaid to excel it; inſomuch that, in Franconia, it ſells dearer than wine.

ANIL, a plant, or ſhrub, of whoſe ſtalk and leaves the indigo is made, which is ſo much uſed in dyeing. See Indigo.

ANIMATED. The French give the name of animated gum to a ſort of yellowiſh and tranſparent gum, which drops by inciſion from ſome trees in New Spain.

ANINGA, a root which grows in the Antilles iſlands, and is pretty much like the China plant. The root of the aninga is now uſed by ſugar-bakers, for refining the ſugar, and is more effectual and leſs dangerous than the ſublimate of mercury and arſenic, that were uſed formerly, before it was found that the aninga-root was proper for that uſe.

ANJOU, a province of France, bounded on the north by Maine; on the weſt by Britany; on the ſouth by Poictou; and, on the eaſt, by Touraine.

The trade of this province conſiſts almoſt intirely in wines, flax, and hemp, of which they make a great deal of thread and linnen; in ſlate from the quarries, and coals and iron from the mines; in blanching linnens and wax; in refining ſugar and ſalt-petre; in the forges and glaſs-houſes; and laſtly, in ſtamines and druggets of all ſorts.

Part of the wine is ſent to Nantes, by the river Loire; the reſt is diſtilled into brandy, of which the people of Nantes likewiſe buy up a great deal; but they ſend alſo a pretty conſiderable quantity of it to Paris, by the canal of Briare.

The chief ſlate quarries are in the neighbourhood of Angers, and in the pariſhes of Hotellerie, Flée, la Jaille, and Magné in the election, or diſtrict, of Chateau-Gontier.

The coal and iron mines are more plentifully found in the pariſhes of Courſon, St. George, St. Aubin, Luigné, Chateaudefons, Chalonne, and Montejan-ſur-Loire, than any where elſe.

The forges, furnaces, and founderies for ſeveral iron-works, are at Chateau-la-Calliere, and at Paonnée.

The glaſs-houſes are at Chenu in the foreſt of Veſin, and in ſome other places; but that at Chenu is the moſt conſiderable.

There are two ſugar-bakers houſes in this province; the one at Angers, and the other at Saumur, in which laſt city there is alſo one for refining ſalt-petre.

There are 10 bleaching-grounds for wax, namely, 7 at Saumur, and 3 at Chateau-Gontier.

There are, alſo, in theſe two cities, bleaching-grounds for linnens, and ſome likewiſe in other places; but the former are by far the moſt famous, both with regard to the beauty of the bleaching, and to the great quantity of linnens that are bleached there.

At Angers, they make very fine ſtamines of wool upon ſilk, with gold ſtripes; fine camblets, razes, and other ſorts of ſerges.

At Lude, they make druggets and ſtamines, which are very much eſteemed; they are called after the name of the place where they are manufactured.

At Chateau-Gontier, beſides the ſame ſorts of ſtuffs as are made at Lude, they make alſo quilted ſerges.

Laſtly, there are ſtamines, ſerges, and druggets made at la Fléche, Beaugé, Doué, Montreuil-Belay, Beaufort, and Durtal.

All theſe ſtuffs, except thoſe made at Angers and Lude, moſt of which are ſent to Paris, are uſed within the province, and are ſold at Lude, Lavat, Saumur, and Angers.

As for the linnens of Anjou and Touraine, the beſt manufactories, and where the greateſt quantity of them is made, are at Chateau-Gontier, Beaufort, and Cholet.

The linnens of Chateau-Gontier are ſent to St Malo for foreign countries; and thoſe of Cholet are ſold in Poictou, at Rochelle, and at Bourdeaux.

Thoſe of Beaufort, which are commonly bleached at Doué in Anjou, are deſigned partly for the French iſlands in America, and partly, if they be coarſe, for making ſmall ſails for ſhips, and for packing up merchandizes.

They alſo make at Cholet a great many fine ſtriped linnens, for which they have a conſiderable demand; they are commonly made of raw flax, and ſerve to make waiſtcoats, and linings for men's cloaths, and ſummer night-gowns for women.

They manufacture, likewiſe, at Cholet, thoſe linnens called platilles.

The greateſt trade of thread, of all ſorts, either for ſewing or for weaving, is carried on at the market of Craon.

The manufactories of cloth, and other woollen ſtuffs in the province of Anjou.

Angers, the capital city of Anjou. They make in this city ſtamines of ſeveral prices, and a ſort of ſerges, all of the wool of the country. They make, one year with another, 11 or 12,000

12,000 pieces of theſe ſtuffs; and there are above 1000 made in other places, marked at the hall. Three quarters of all theſe ſtuffs are uſed within the province: the reſt are ſent to Paris. This manufacture employs 90 looms and 4 fullers.

They make, alſo, in that city, a great quantity of hats, and tan a great deal of leather of all ſorts. There are above 20 freemen of the hatters company, and 12 of the tanners.

CHATEAU-GONTIER. The ſtuffs manufactured here are ſtamines and druggets after the manner of Lude, and quilted ſerges. The druggets are ſold to the merchants of Lude, and the other ſtuffs to thoſe of Angers and Laval.

There are 23 maſters, who have 50 looms at work, and make about 1,100 pieces a year of the three ſorts of ſtuffs abovementioned. Three fullers are employed to clean and full thoſe ſtuffs. There are here, alſo, 4 hatters, and 9 tanners.

LA FLE´CHE. The produce of this manufactory amounts only to 400 pieces of ſtuffs per annum; but, beſides, there are about 300 pieces made in other places, marked at the hall here.

The ſtuffs made in this town are ſtamines and ſerges, wherein they uſe no other wool but that of this province. Theſe ſtuffs are ſold at Saumur and at Angers.

There are 60 looms employed in this manufactory, and but one fuller. They alſo dreſs here ſome leather.

BEAUGE´. The manufactory of this town is, in almoſt every thing, like that of the former, with regard to the kind of ſtuffs that are made, their number, the quantity of foreign pieces marked here, the number of looms, and the places where the ſtuffs are ſold.

There are 4 hatters employed in the manufacture of hats. They have, likewiſe, here a pretty good trade in wine, corn, and cattle.

SAUMUR. There are marked yearly, at the hall of this city, 4 or 500 pieces of ſtuffs made in other places. Thoſe which they manufacture here are ſtamines, ſerges, and druggets of thread and wool, wherein they uſe none but the wool of the country. They do not make much leſs than 200 pieces per annum, though there be but 32 looms in the town, under the direction of five maſters. There is only one fuller to full and clean the ſtuffs.

They have a pretty conſiderable trade in hats, in which manufactory ſix maſter-hatters are employed.

There are ſeven tanners, who dreſs both large and ſmall leather.

LUDE. They make, in the manufactories of this place, between 4 and 500 pieces of druggets and ſtamines yearly, which are ſent throughout the whole kingdom, and particularly to Paris. There are 25 looms, under 10 maſters only.

DOUE´. The manufactures of this town conſiſt in ſtamines, ſerges, and druggets, wherein they uſe only the wool of the country. They make yearly above 200 pieces, which employ 14 looms and 10 maſters. Theſe ſtuffs are ſold in the province, and at Saumur.

The tanner's trade is conſiderable here; there are 15 maſter-tanners who carry it on. The leather they dreſs conſiſts partly in ſtrong hides, and partly in ſmall leather, all which are ſold in the neighbouring provinces, and ſometimes they ſend ſome to Paris.

There are nine hatters: the hats they make are pretty much eſteemed; they are moſt of them ſold within the province.

MONTREUIL-BELLAY. They make here the ſame ſorts, and the ſame number, of ſtuffs as at Doué. There are 13 maſters, who employ 15 looms, and two fullers to clean the ſtuffs, which are all ſold within the province.

BEAUFORT and DURTAL. In the former of theſe places they make 183 pieces of ſtuff yearly, and in the latter 200: they are ſtamines, ſerges, and druggets, all of the wool of the country. At Beaufort, there are nine maſter-weavers and 14 looms; and, at Durtal, 14 maſters, 20 looms, and two fullers.

There are alſo tanners in theſe towns, ſix in the former, and 11 in the latter.

ANISE, or ANIL, a greyiſh wood, that comes from the Indies in thick logs, or billets, and which is called aniſe becauſe of its ſcent, which comes pretty near that of the plant which bears that name, and grows very commonly in the gardens in France, and elſewhere.

The aniſe-wood is uſed in inlaid-work, and turners ware. The druggiſts alſo ſell the ſeed of it, diſguiſed under different names, calling it ſometimes aniſe of China, of Siberia, of the Philippine iſlands, and of the Indies; but, to give it more reputation, they call it moſt commonly the ſeed of Badian, or the ſeed of Zingi.

This ſeed, which is contained in a ſmall pod, very hard and thick, in the form of a ſtar, is perfectly like that of the coloquintida, except only that it is of a tanned colour, and ſhining, and that it has a pretty good ſmell.

The Chineſe uſe it with their tea, and the Dutch in the Eaſt-Indies, after their example, alſo put ſome into that liquor, and into their ſherbet, pretending that it gives it a more pleaſant flavour. The uſe of it is not introduced in France, nor in England, that we know of.

ANISE is alſo a kind of oblong ſeed, or grain, pretty much like that of ſmallage, and has an aromatic ſcent and taſte. This ſeed comes from an umbelliferous plant, of the ſame name, too much known to need further deſcription.

Aniſe-ſeed is part of the commodities in which the corporation of merchant-druggiſts trade at Paris. They import a great deal of it from Alicant and Malta, by the way of Marſeilles. They get alſo a vaſt quantity from Tours and Chinon in France, which, though greener than that of Alicant and Malta, is nevertheleſs not ſo much eſteemed.

The good qualities aniſe-ſeed ought to have are as follow: it muſt be freſh, large, plump, newly dried, of a good ſmell, and of a biting and aromatic taſte, without any bitterneſs, which that of Chinon is apt to have.

Aniſe-ſeed is of a hot nature, good to expel wind out of the ſtomach and bowels. It is often uſed in medicines, and is judged proper to qualify ſena. The confectioners uſe a great deal of aniſe-ſeed in ſugar-plums, which they ſell under divers denominations.

There is extracted from aniſe-ſeed, by diſtillation, a kind of white oil, called eſſence, or quinteſſence, of aniſe, of which that which comes from Holland is the moſt eſteemed. That oil, to which the phyſicians and apothecaries aſcribe great virtues, is of a very ſtrong and penetrating ſcent; for which reaſon it is uſed with diſcretion. Perfumers mix ſome of it with their paſtes and pomatums, to give them a ſweet ſcent. They alſo put ſome of it in certain mixtures of aromatics.

Whilſt aniſe-ſeed is diſtilling to extract the oil from it, there comes a clear water from it, which is called aniſe-water, the effects of which are much the ſame with thoſe of aniſe-oil.

That oil muſt be choſen white, clear, tranſparent, of a ſtrong ſcent, as eaſily liquified by the leaſt heat as congealed by the leaſt cold.

Aniſe-ſeed affords, likewiſe, another ſort of oil, quite green, which is got by expreſſion, to which the ſame virtues are aſcribed as to the white oil, but the effects of it are neither ſo ſtrong nor ſo quick. It is to Monſieur Charas that, in France, the diſcovery of this laſt ſort of oil is owing.

ANKER, a liquid meaſure at Amſterdam. It is the fourth part of an aem, and contains two ſtekans. A ſtekan is 16 mingles, and a mingle two pints of Paris, or about two quarts wine-meaſure in England: ſo that an anker contains 64 pints of Paris, or about 32 gallons Engliſh meaſure. See AEM.

ANABASSES, ANNABASSES, a ſort of covering made at Roan in France, and alſo in Holland; they are commonly $\frac{7}{4}$ in length, by $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth, and are ſtriped with blue and white equal ſtripes, about an inch broad.

This is one of the beſt commodities for the Guinea trade, and, in particular, for that on the coaſt of Angola, a kingdom in Africa.

At Loango, or Boaria, the capital of the kingdom alſo called Loango, in Africa, they reckon by macoutes and by hundreds; and an anabaſſe is reckoned three macoutes, that is to ſay, 30, each macoute being worth 10. See ANGOLA.

ANNUITY, a yearly rent or income, paid either for the term of a perſon's life, or for a term of years only, or in fee, or for ever.

Annuities upon lives, being daily bought and ſold, is now become, as it were, a kind of diſtinct branch of buſineſs, and therefore ſhould not be wholly omitted in a work of this kind.

Dr. Halley was the firſt, who attempted to put this matter on its true baſis for computation. There have been many other ingenious writers ſince who have built upon his foundation, and whoſe further obſervations are not to be diſregarded, by thoſe who would enter very deeply into this point.

Dr. Halley's calculations are drawn from the bills of mortality at Breſlaw, the capital city of the province of Sileſia. It is ſituate on the eaſtern bank of the river Oder, near the confines of Germany and Poland, and very nigh the latitude of London. It is very far from the ſea, and as much a mediterranean place as can be deſired; whence the confluence of ſtrangers is but ſmall, and the manufacture of linnen employs chiefly the poor people of the place, as well as of the country round about; whence comes that ſort of linnen we uſually call your Sileſia linnen, which is the chief, if not the only, merchandize of the place. For theſe reaſons the degrees of mortality in the city ſeem moſt proper for a ſtandard, and the rather, for that the births do a ſmall matter exceed the funerals: the only thing wanting is the number of the whole people, which in ſome meaſure I have endeavoured to ſupply, ſays the Doctor, by compariſon of the mortality of the people of all ages; which is traced out from the curious tables of the births and funerals drawn up monthly by Dr. Newmann of that city.

It thence appears, that, in the five years from 87 to 91 inclusive, there were born 6193 perſons, and buried 5869; that is born per annum 1238, and buried 1174, or of about a 20th part; which may perhaps be balanced by the levies for the emperor's ſervice of his wars. But this being contingent, and the births certain, I will ſuppoſe the people of Breſlaw to be increaſed by 1238 births annually. Of theſe it appears by the ſame tables, that 348 do die yearly in the firſt year of their

age,

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age, and that but 890 do arrive at a full year's age; and likewife, that 193 do die in the five years between 1 and 6 complete, taken at a medium; fo that but 692 of the perfons born do furvive 6 whole years.

From this age the infants, being arrived at fome degree of firmnefs, grow lefs and lefs mortal; and it appears that of the whole people of Breflaw there die yearly as in the following table; wherein the upper line fhews the age, and the next under it the number of perfons of that age dying yearly.

7 . 8 . 9 . . . 14 . . . . 18 . . . 21 . . 27 . 28 . . . 35
11 . 11 . 6 . $5\frac{1}{2}$ 2 . $3\frac{1}{2}$. 5 . 6 . $4\frac{1}{2}$ $6\frac{1}{2}$. 9 . 8 . 7 . 7

36 . . . . 42 . . . 45 . . . 49 . 54 . 55 . 56 . . . . 63 . . .
8 . $9\frac{1}{2}$. 8 . 9 . 7 . 7 . 10 . 11 . 9 . 9 . 10 . 12 . $9\frac{1}{2}$

70 . 71 . 72 . . . 77 . . . 81 . . . 84 . . . 90 : 91 . 98 . 99
14 . 9 . 11 . 9 . 6 . 7 . 3 . 4 . 2 . 1 . 1 : 1 . 0 . $\frac{1}{5}$

100
$\frac{2}{5}$

And, where no figure is placed over, it is to be underftood of thofe that die between the ages of the preceding and confequent column.

From this table it is evident that, from the age of 9 to about 25, there do not die above 6 per annum of each age, which is much about one per cent. of thofe that are of thofe ages: and whereas in the 14, 15, 16, 17 years there appear to die much fewer, as 2 and $3\frac{1}{2}$, yet that feems rather to be attributed to chance; as are the other irregularities in the feries of ages, which would rectify themfelves, were the number of years much more confiderable, as 20 inftead of 5.

And by our own in Chrift-Church hofpital I am informed, there die, of the young lads, much about one per cent. per ann. they being of the forefaid ages. From 25 to 50, there feem to die from 7 or 8, and 9 per ann. of each age: and after that to 70, they growing more crazy, though the number be much diminifhed, yet the mortality increafes, and there are found to die 10 or 11 of each age per annum. From thence the number of the living being very fmall, they gradually decline till there be none left to die: as thefe may be feen at one view in the table.

From thefe confiderations the adjoined table is formed, whofe ufes are manifold, and give a more juft idea of the ftate and condition of mankind, than any thing yet extant that I know of. It exhibits the number of people in the city of Breflaw of all ages, from the birth to extreme old age, and thereby fhews the chances of mortality at all ages; and likewife how to make a certain eftimate of the value of annuities for lives, which hitherto has been only done by an imaginary valuation: alfo the chances that there are, that a perfon of any age propofed does live to any age given; with many more, as I fhall fhew. This table does fhew the number of perfons that are living in the age current annexed thereto.

And although thefe tables are built upon five years obfervations only in the city of Breflaw, and have been now communicated to the public near fifty years; yet they have hitherto ftood the teft, and have proved the foundation of thofe divers curious rules, canons, and theorems, which the learned Doctor himfelf, and the ingenious Monf. de Moivre fince, have inveftigated therefrom, according to an elegant algebraical and geometrical method of reafoning: and without which, indeed, it was not poffible to difcover thofe rules: nor, without fome knowledge in thefe fciences, can any one comprehend the reafon and demonftration of them.

Dr. Halley's Table of Observations, exhibiting the Probabilities of Life.

Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.
1	1000	8	680	15	628	22	586	29	539	36	481
2	855	9	670	16	622	23	579	30	531	37	472
3	798	10	661	17	616	24	573	31	523	38	463
4	760	11	653	18	610	25	567	32	515	39	454
5	732	12	646	19	604	26	560	33	507	40	445
6	710	13	640	20	598	27	553	34	499	41	436
7	692	14	634	21	592	28	546	35	490	42	427
Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.	Age cur.	Perfons.
43	417	50	346	57	272	64	202	71	131	78	58
44	407	51	335	58	262	65	192	72	120	79	49
45	397	52	324	59	252	66	182	73	109	80	41
46	387	53	313	60	242	67	172	74	98	81	34
47	377	54	302	61	232	68	162	75	88	82	28
48	367	55	292	62	222	69	152	76	78	83	23
49	357	56	282	63	212	70	142	77	68	84	20

Age.	Perfons.
7	5547
14	4584
21	4270
28	3964
35	3604
42	3178
49	2709
56	2194
63	1694
70	1204
77	692
84	253
100	107
Sum total	34000

Thus it appears, that the whole people of Breflaw does confift of 34000 fouls, being the fum total of the perfons of all ages in the table.

The firft ufe hereof is to fhew the proportion of men able to bear arms in any multitude, which are thofe between 18 and 56, rather than 16 and 60; the one being generally too weak to bear the fatigues of war, and the weight of arms; and the other too crazy and infirm from age, notwithftanding particular inftances to the contrary.

Under 18, from the table, are found in this city 11997 perfons, and 3950 above 56, which together make 15947. So that the refidue to 34000, being 18053, are perfons between thofe ages. At leaft one half thereof are males, or 9027: fo that the whole force this city can raife of fencible men, as the Scotch call them, is about 9000, or $\frac{9}{34}$, or fomewhat more than a quarter of the number of fouls; which may, perhaps, pafs for a rule for all other places.

The fecond ufe of this table is, to fhew the differing degrees of mortality, or rather vitality, in all ages: for if the number of perfons of any age remaining after one year, be divided by the difference between that and the number of the age propofed, it fhews the odds that there is, that a perfon of that age does not die in a year. As for inftance, a perfon 25 years of age has the odds of 560 to 7, or 80 to 1, that he does not die in a year: becaufe that, of 567 living of 25 years of age, there do die no more than 7 in a year, leaving 560 of 26 years old.

So likewife for the odds that any perfon does not die before he attain any propofed age, take the number of the remaining perfons of the age propofed, and divide it by the difference between it and the number of thofe of the age of the party propofed; and that fhews the odds there is between the chances of the parties living or dying. As for inftance: what is the odds that a man of 40 lives 7 years? Take the number of perfons of 47 years, which in the table is 377, and fubtract it from the number of perfons of 40 years, which is 445, and the difference is 68; which fhews, that the perfons dying in the 7 years are 68, and that it is 377 to 78, or $5\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, that a man of 40 does live 7 years. And the like for any other number of years.

Ufe III. But if it be required at what number of years it is an even lay, that a perfon of any age fhall die, this table readily performs it: for if the number of perfons living, of the age propofed, be halfed, it will be found by the table at what year the faid number is reduced to half by mortality; and that is the age, to which it is an even wager that a perfon of the age propofed fhall arrive, before he die. As for inftance: a perfon of 30 years of age is propofed, the number of that age is 531, the half thereof is 275, which number I find to be between 57 and 58 years; fo that a man of 30 may reafonably expect to live between 27 and 28 years.

Ufe IV. By what hath been faid, the price of infurance upon lives ought to be regulated; and the difference is difcovered between the price of infuring the life of a man of 20 and 50, for example: it being 100 to 1 that a man of 20 dies not in a year, and but 38 to 1 for a man of 50 years of age.

Ufe V. On this depends the valuation of annuities upon lives; for it is plain, that the purchafer ought to pay for only fuch a part of the value of the annuity as he has chance that he is living; and this ought to be computed yearly, and the fum of all thofe yearly values, being added together, will amount to the value of the annuity for the life of the perfon propofed.

Now the prefent value of money payable after a term of years, at any given rate of intereft, either may be had from tables already computed, or, almoft as compendioufly, by the table of logarithms: for the arithmetical complement of the logarithm of unity, and its yearly intereft (that is, of 1,06 for 6 per cent. being 9,974694) being multiplied by the number of years propofed, gives the prefent value of one pound payable after the end of fo many years. Then, by the foregoing propofition, it will be, as the number of perfons living after that term of years, to the number dead, fo are the odds that any one perfon is alive or dead. And by confequence, as the fum of both, or the number of perfons living of the age firft propofed, to the number remaining after fo many years (both given by the table) fo the prefent value of the yearly fum, payable after the term propofed, to the fum which ought to be paid for the chance the perfon has to enjoy fuch an an-

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nuity ſo many years. And, this being repeated for every year of the perſon's life, the ſum of all the preſent values of thoſe changes is the true value of the annuity. This will, without doubt, appear to be a moſt laborious calculation; but it is one of the principal uſes of this ſpeculation, from whence the learned Dr. Halley, after no ordinary number of arithmetical operations, has formed the following table, which ſhews the value of annuities for every fifth year of age, to the 70th, as follows:

Age.	Years Purchaſe.	Age.	Years Purchaſe.	Age.	Years Purchaſe.
1	10,28	25	12,27	50	9,21
5	13,40	30	11,72	55	8,51
10	13,44	35	11,12	60	7,60
15	13,33	40	10,57	65	6,54
20	12,78	45	9,91	70	5,32

Uſe VI. Two lives are likewiſe valuable by the ſame rule: for the number of chances of each ſingle life, found in the table, being multiplied together, become the chances of the two lives. And, after any certain term of years, the product of the two remaining ſums is the chances that both the perſons are living; the product of the two differences, being the numbers of the dead of both ages, are the chances that both the perſons are dead; and the two products of the remaining ſums of the one age, multiplied by thoſe dead of the other, ſhew the chances that there are that each party ſurvives the other; whence is derived the rule to eſtimate the value of the remainder of one life after another.

Now, as the product of the two numbers in the table for the two ages propoſed, is to the difference between that product, and the product of the two numbers of perſons deceaſed in any ſpace of time; ſo is the value of a ſum of money to be paid after ſo much time, to the value thereof under the contingency of mortality: and, as the aforeſaid product of the two numbers anſwering to the ages propoſed, to the product of the deceaſed of one age multiplied by thoſe remaining alive of the other; ſo the value of a ſum of money to be paid after any time propoſed, to the value of the chances that the one party has, that he ſurvives the other whoſe number of deceaſed you made uſe of in the ſecond term of the proportion.

To ſuch who are acquainted with the algebraic method of analyſis, this perhaps may be better underſtood, by putting N for the number of the younger, and n for that of the elder, Y y the deceaſed of both ages reſpectively, and R r for the remainders; and $R+Y=N$, and $r+y=n$: then ſhall N n be the whole number of chances, N n — Y y the chances that one of the two perſons is living, Y y the chances that they are both dead, R y the chances that the elder perſon is dead, and the younger living; and r Y the chances that the elder is living, and the younger dead.

Thus two perſons of 18 and 35 are propoſed, and after 8 years theſe chances are required: the numbers for 18 and 35 are 610 and 490, and there are 50 of the firſt age dead in 8 years, and 73 of the elder age; there are in all 610×490, or 298,900 chances; of theſe there are 50×73, or 3,650, that they are both dead. And as 298,900, to 298,900,— 3,650, or 295,250, ſo is the preſent value of a ſum of money to be paid after 8 years, to the preſent value of a ſum to be paid, if either of the two live. And, as 560×73, ſo are the chances that the elder is dead, leaving the younger; and, as 417×50, ſo are the chances that the younger is dead, leaving the elder. Wherefore as 610×490, to 560×73, ſo is the preſent value of a ſum to be paid at 8 years end, to the ſum to be paid for the chance of the younger's ſurvivance; and as 610×490, to 417×50, ſo is the ſame preſent value to the ſum to be paid for the chance of the elder's ſurvivance.

This poſſibly may be yet better explained, by expounding theſe products by rectangular parallelograms; but thoſe who do not underſtand the algebraic, will hardly underſtand the geometric demonſtration. Wherefore we ſhall proceed to

Uſe VII. If three lives are propoſed, to find the value of an annuity during the continuance of any of thoſe three lives, the rule is, As the product of the continual multiplication of the three numbers in the table, anſwering to the ages propoſed, is to the difference of that product, and of the product of the three numbers of the deceaſed of thoſe ages in any given term of years; So is the preſent value of a ſum of money to be paid certainly after ſo many years, to the preſent value of the ſame ſum to be paid, provided one of thoſe three perſons be living at the expiration of that term. Which proportion being yearly repeated, the ſum of all thoſe preſent values will be the value of an annuity granted for three ſuch lives.

But to explain this, together with all the caſes of ſurvivance in three lives, let N be the number in the table for the younger age; n for the ſecond; and v for the elder age: let Y be thoſe dead of the younger age in the term propoſed; y thoſe dead of the ſecond age; and v thoſe of the elder age; and let R be the remainder of the younger age; r that of the middle age and the remainder of the elder age. Then ſhall $R+Y$ be equal to N; $r+y$, to n; and $\varrho+v$, to v; and the continual product of the three numbers N n, ſhall be equal to the continual product of $R+Y\times r+Y\times\varrho+v$, which, being the whole number of changes for three lives, is compounded of the ſeven products following. (1.) R r, which is the number of chances that all three of the perſons are living; (2.) r, Y, which is the number of chances that the two elder perſons are living, and the younger dead; (3.) R y, the number of chances that the middle age is dead, and the younger and elder living; (4.) R r^v, being the chances that the two younger are dead, and elder living; (5.) r, Y^v, the chances that the younger and elder are dead, and the middle age living; (6.) R y v, which are the chances that the younger is living, and the two other dead; (7.) Y y, which are the chances that all three are dead; which latter, ſubtracted from the whole number of chances N n^v, leaves N n^v, the ſum of all the other ſeven products, in all of which one or more of the three perſons are ſurviving.

I ſhall not apply this in all the caſes thereof, for brevity's ſake; only to ſhew in one how all the reſt may be performed, let it be demanded, what is the value of the reverſion of the younger life after the two elder propoſed? The proportion is, As the whole number of chances, or N n v, to the product R y^v, So is the certain preſent value of the ſum payable after any term propoſed, to the value due to ſuch chance as the younger perſon has to bury both the elder, by the term propoſed; which he therefore is to pay for. Here it is to be noted, that the firſt term of all theſe proportions is the ſame throughout; N n v. The ſecond changing yearly according to the decreaſe of R r ϱ, and increaſe of Y y^v. And the third are ſucceſſively the preſent value of money payable after one, two, three, &c. years, according to the rate of intereſt agreed on.

The preſent value of one pound per ann. for any number of years not exceeding 100, intereſt at four per cent.

Years.	Preſent Value.	Years.	Preſent Value.	Years	Preſent Value.
1	0.9615,38	34	18.4111,97	67	23.1940,47
2	1.8860,94	35	18.6046,13	68	23.2635,07
3	2.7750,21	36	18.9082,81	69	23.3302,95
4	3.6298,95	37	19.1425,78	70	23.3945,14
5	4.4518,22	38	19.3678,64	71	23.4562,64
6	5.2421,36	39	19.5844,84	72	23.5156,38
7	6.0020,54	40	19.7927,73	73	23.5727,29
8	6.7327,44	41	19.9930,51	74	23.6276,24
9	7.4353,31	42	20.1856,26	75	23.6804,08
10	8.1108,95	43	20.3707,94	76	23.7311,61
11	8.7604,76	44	20.5488,41	77	23.7799,63
12	9.3850,73	45	20.7200,39	78	23.8268,87
13	9.9856,47	46	20.8846,53	79	23.8720,07
14	10.5631,22	47	21.0429,36	80	23.9153,91
15	11.1183,87	48	21.1951,30	81	23.9571,07
16	11.6522,95	49	21.3414,72	82	23.9972,18
17	12.1656,68	50	21.4821,84	83	24.0357,87
18	12.6592,96	51	21.6174,85	84	24.0728,73
19	13.1339,39	52	21.7475,81	85	24.1085,31
20	13.5903,26	53	21.8726,74	86	24.1428,18
21	14.0291,59	54	21.9929,56	87	24.1757,86
22	14.4511,15	55	22.1086,12	88	24.2074,87
23	14.8568,41	56	22.2198,19	89	24.2379,68
24	15.2469,63	57	22.3267,49	90	24.2672,77
25	15.6220,79	58	22.4295,66	91	24.2954,59
26	15.9827,69	59	22.5284,29	92	24.3225,56
27	16.3295,85	60	22.6234,89	93	24.3486,12
28	16.4979,59	61	22.7148,94	94	24.3736,65
29	16.9837,14	62	22.8027,82	95	24.3977,55
30	17.2920,33	63	22.8872,91	96	24.4209,18
31	17.5084,93	64	22.9685,49	97	24.4431,91
32	17.8735,51	65	23.0466,81	98	24.4646,06
33	18.1476,45	66	23.1218,09	99	24.4851,98
				100	24.5049,98

For all the variety of tables of this kind, and the reaſon and nature of their conſtruction, ſee the article INTEREST SIMPLE and COMPOUND.

A further illuſtration of Dr. Halley's foregoing table, by the ingenious Mr. De Moivre.

Suppoſe that by this table we would know what the probabilities are for a man of 30 to live 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, &c. years. Look for the number 30 in one of the columns of age, and under it you will find 31, 32, 33, &c. and oppoſite the number 30, in the next adjoining column on the right-hand, you find 531, under which are written 523, 515, 507, &c. correſponding in order to the numbers in the column of ages; the meaning whereof is that, out of 531 perſons living of the 30 years old, there remain but 523, 515, 507, 499, &c. that attain the reſpective ages of 31, 32, 33, &c. and who conſequently, from that term of 30, do live 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. years reſpectively.

In order to compute the value of an annuity upon a life of a given age, let the quantities A, B, C, D, E, F, &c. repreſent reſpectively the perſons living at the age given, and the ſubſequent years.

Now it is obvious, that there being A perſons of the age given, and one year after B perſons remaining, the proba-

A N N

bility which the perſon of the given age has to continue in life, for one year at leaſt, is repreſented by the fraction $\frac{B}{A}$, and that the probability which it has to continue in life, for two years at leaſt, is repreſented by the fraction $\frac{C}{A}$, &c. and that therefore, if money bore no intereſt, it would be only neceſſary to multiply thoſe probabilities by the ſum to be received annually, which is ſuppoſed here to be $= 1$, and the ſum of the products would expreſs the preſent value of the annuity. But, as money bears intereſt, let r repreſent the amount of 1 l. with its intereſt at the year's end, then the preſent values of the ſums to be received annually would be reſpectively $\frac{1}{r}$, $\frac{1}{rr}$, $\frac{1}{r^3}$, $\frac{1}{r^4}$, &c. And, therefore, multiplying theſe ſums by the probabilities of obtaining them, we ſhall have the value of the annuity expreſſed by the ſeries

$$\frac{A}{r}+\frac{B}{rr}+\frac{C}{r^3}+\frac{D}{r^4}+\frac{E}{r^5}+\frac{F}{r^6}+\frac{G}{r^7}+\frac{H}{r^8}, \text{ &c.}$$

which muſt be continued to the end of the tables.

But let us ſuppoſe, that, inſtead of an annuity upon a life whoſe age is given, there ſhould be the expectation of a ſum, which we will call (1) payable once for all whenever it happens, that the life ceaſes within a limited time. It is plain that the probability of the life's ceaſing after one year is $\frac{A-B}{A}$, and that the probability of its continuing one year, and dropping the next, will be $\frac{B}{A}\times\frac{B-C}{B}$, or barely $\frac{B-C}{A}$, and that again the probability of its continuing two years, and dropping the third, will be $\frac{C-D}{A}$, and ſo on; and that therefore the value of the expectation founded on the contingency of the life's falling within a limited time, would be

$$\frac{A-B}{Ar}+\frac{B-C}{Arr}+\frac{C-D}{Ar^3}+\frac{D-E}{Ar^4}+\frac{E-F}{Ar^5}+\frac{F-G}{Ar^6}, \text{ &c.}$$

Let it now be ſuppoſed, for inſtance, that the party on whoſe life this expectation depends is 10 years of age, and that the age limited, as a condition of obtaining the ſum (1), is 21; hence it is plain that, the difference between 21 and 10 being 11, we ought to limit ourſelves to 11 terms of the foregoing ſeries, and then, conſulting Dr. Halley's table, we ſhall find the numbers A, B, C, D, E, &c. to be reſpectively 661, 653, 646, 640, 634, 628, &c. and that therefore A—B, B—C, C—D, D—E, E—F, &c. will reſpectively be 8, 7, 6, 6, 6, &c. and that conſequently the preſent value of the expectation will be

$$\frac{8}{661\,r}+\frac{7}{661\,rr}+\frac{6}{661\,r^3}+\frac{6}{661\,r^4}+\frac{6}{661\,r^5}+\frac{6}{661\,r^6}+\frac{6}{661\,r^7}+\frac{6}{661\,r^8}+\frac{6}{661\,r^9}+\frac{6}{661\,r^{10}}+\frac{6}{661\,r^{11}}.$$

Let it be further ſuppoſed, that this expectation is not given but ſold to a purchaſer, who intends to make 5 per cent of his money, then r ſtands for 1,05, and therefore the ſum, which purchaſers ought in juſtice to pay for their expectations, is the ſum of the numbers here annexed, which is about $\frac{2}{25}$; and therefore if the ſum, called (1) before, ſtands for an eſtate whoſe preſent real value is 20 years purchaſe, the adventurer ought to pay no more for the conſideration of his chance than 1 $\frac{3}{5}$ years purchaſe.

0.0115260—	1
0.0096054—	2
0.0078412—	3
0.0074678—	4
0.0071122—	5
0.0067735—	6
0.0064510—	7
0.0061438—	8
0.0058512—	9
0.0055726—10	
0.0053072—11	
0.0796599	

It is not intended here to calculate other intervening chances which might defeat this expectation, ſuch as that of an heir male, which might live to the age of 21; for, there being not any tables * of obſervations concerning a man's marrying and getting an heir male between 16 and 21, what could be added on that ſubject would be barely conjectural, which would not be of a piece with what has been ſaid; however, it is eaſy to conceive, that this muſt conſiderably diminiſh the value of the expectation.

* If any tables of that kind ſhould be calculated, there cannot, perhaps, be a better foundation to proceed on than that of Dr. Arbuthnot, concerning the regularity in the births of both ſexes, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 328.

PROBLEM II.

Suppoſing the probabilities of life to decreaſe in arithmetic progreſſion, when conſidered from a term given, to find the value of an annuity on a life of a given age.

SOLUTION.

Let P repreſent the value of an annuity certain of 1 l. for as many years as are intercepted between the age given, and the extremity of old age, ſuppoſed at 86, and let that interval of life be called n, then the value of an annuity upon ſuch a life would be expreſſed by $\frac{1-\frac{r}{n}P}{r-1}$, ſuppoſing, as before, that r ſtands for the amount of the principal and intereſt of 1 l. in one year.

Thus ſuppoſing an age of 50, and that the intereſt of money be eſtimated at 4 per cent. then n will repreſent 36, and r for 1.04, for which reaſon looking into tables of 4 per cent. which ſhew the worth of an annuity certain for 36 years, being 17.9083, this being multiplied by r, that is, by 1.04, the product will be 18.624632; and this being divided by n, that is, by 36, the quotient will be .0.517351. Then this being ſubtracted from unity, and the remainder, 0.482649, being divided by $r-1$, that is, by 0.04, the quotient will be found 12.0661, which is very little more than 12 years purchaſe for the value of an annuity on a life of 50.

But, for the ſake of thoſe who are not ſo well verſed in decimal fractions, it may be proper to expreſs the rule as follows: Multiply the annuity certain, as found in the tables, by the amount of 100 l. joined with its intereſt in one year, that is, in this caſe by 104, and let the product be divided by 100, then let the quotient be ſubtracted from 25, which ſhews how many years purchaſe a perpetuity of 100 l. is worth, and the remainder will ſhew how many years purchaſe the annuity upon the age given is worth in ready money.

PROBLEM III.

Suppoſing a fictitious life, whoſe number of chances to continue yearly be conſtantly equal to a, and the number of chances to fail conſtantly equal to b, ſo that the odds of its continuing, during the ſpace of any one year, be to its failing in that ſame interval of time conſtantly as a to b; to find the value of an annuity upon ſuch a life.

SOLUTION.

Let 1 be the annuity, r the amount of 1 l. joined to its intereſt in one year, make $a+b=s$.

It is plain from what has been ſaid already, that the preſent value of the firſt year's rent is $\frac{a}{sr}$ of the ſecond $\frac{aa}{s^2rr}$, of the third $\frac{a^3}{s^3r^3}$, &c. which terms conſtituting a geometrical progreſſion, the ſum of them all will be $\frac{a}{rs-a}$; thus if a repreſented 21, and b 1, then s would repreſent 22; ſuppoſing alſo that $r=1.05$, then the denominator $rs-a$ would be $23.1-21$ or 2.1, and, dividing the numerator 21 by the denominator 2.1, the quotient will be 10, which ſhews that the life would be worth 10 years purchaſe.

COROLLARY I.

An annuity upon a fictitious life being given, the probability of its continuing one year is alſo given; for let the value of it be $=M$, then $\frac{a}{rs-a}=M$, therefore $\frac{a}{s}=\frac{Mr}{M+1}$.

COROLLARY II.

If a life whoſe value, as deduced from the tables of obſervation, or from the preceding problem, be worth 10 years purchaſe, then ſuch a life is equivalent to a fictitious life whoſe chances for continuing one year are to the chances of its failing in that year as 21 to 1.

COROLLARY III.

Wherefore having calculated a life from the tables of obſervations, or from Problem the IId, we may transfer the value of that life to that of a fictitious life, and find the number of chances it would have to continue or to fail yearly.

COROLLARY IV.

And the combination of two or more real lives will be very near the ſame as the combination of ſo many correſponding fictitious lives; and therefore an annuity granted upon ſo many correſponding fictitious lives, and the values of the reverſions granted upon the real lives, will be very near the ſame as thoſe granted upon the fictitious lives.

PROBLEM IV.

The values of two ſingle fictitious lives being given, to find the value of an annuity granted for the time of their joint continuance.

SOLUTION.

Let the values be reſpectively M and P, r the rate of intereſt; then the value of an annuity upon the two joint lives will be expreſſed by $\frac{MPr}{M+1\times P+1-MPr}$.

S

DEMON-

DEMONSTRATION.

Let x and y repreſent the reſpective probabilities of the lives continuing one year together, then xy will expreſs the probability of their joint continuance for that year; and $x^2 y^2$ the probability of their joint continuance for two years; and $x^3 y^3$ the probability of their joint continuance for three years, &c. wherefore the value of an annuity for all the time will be expreſſible by the following geometric progreſſion, viz. $\frac{xy}{r}+\frac{x^2y^2}{rr}+\frac{x^3y^3}{r^3}+\frac{x^4y^4}{r^4}$, &c. where the ſum is $\frac{xy}{r-xy}$; but, by the firſt corollary of problem the third, $x=\frac{Mr}{M+1}$; and, for the ſame reaſon, $y=\frac{Pr}{P+1}$; and, therefore, the value of the two joint lives is $\frac{MPr}{M+1\times P+1-MPr}$.

PROBLEM V.

The values of two ſingle lives being given, to find the value of an annuity upon the longeſt of them; that is, to continue ſo long as either of them is in being.

SOLUTION.

From the ſum of the values of the ſingle lives, ſubtract the value of the two joint lives found by the foregoing problem, and the remainder will be the value of the annuity required.

DEMONSTRATION.

It will be ſufficient to ſhew what will be the value of the firſt year, ſince the values of all the ſubſequent years is found in the ſame manner.

Let, therefore, x and y be the reſpective probabilities of the lives continuing one year together, then $1-x$ and $1-y$ are the reſpective probabilities of their dropping in that year, and, conſequently, the product of $1-x$ by $1-y$, viz. $1-x-y+xy$ is the probability of their both dropping in that year; and, this being ſubtracted from unity, the remainder $x+y-xy$ will expreſs the probability that either one or the other, or both, out-live the year; which is ſufficient for the purchaſer of the annuity to eſtabliſh his right of receiving the firſt year's rent, whoſe preſent value is, therefore, $\frac{x}{y}+\frac{y}{r}-\frac{xy}{r}$.

And, therefore, one may ſee at ſight that, the expectation of the other years being founded on the ſame principle, the value of an annuity upon the longeſt of two lives will be the ſum of the values of the ſingle lives, wanting the value of the joint lives.

PROBLEM VI.

The value of three ſingle lives being given, to find the value of an annuity upon their joint lives.

SOLUTION.

Let x, y, z reſpectively repreſent the probabilities of the lives continuing one year, then the probabilities of their continuing all three together for one year will be xyz, and the probability of their continuing together for two years is $xxyyzz$, &c. and, therefore, the value of an annuity upon the three joint lives will be $\frac{xyz}{r}+\frac{x^2y^2z^2}{r^2}+\frac{x^3y^3z^3}{r^3}+\frac{x^4y^4z^4}{r^4}$, &c.

which conſtitutes a geometric progreſſion, whoſe ſum is $\frac{xyz}{r-xyz}$: now in the room of x, y, z, writing their reſpective values, $\frac{M+1}{r}$, $\frac{P+1}{r}$, $\frac{Q+1}{r}$, the ſum of the three joint lives will be expreſſed by $\frac{MrPQrr}{\overline{M+1}\times\overline{P+1}\times\overline{Q+1}-MPQrr}$, ſuppoſing as we have done in the preceding problem, that M, P, Q, repreſent reſpectively the values of annuities upon each ſingle life.

PROBLEM VII.

The value of three ſingle lives being given, to find the value of an annuity upon the longeſt of them.

SOLUTION.

Let x, y, z, repreſent the reſpective probabilities of the life's continuing one year; then the product of $1-x$ by $1-y$, and of that again by $1-z$, that is, $1-x+xy-xyz$, will expreſs
$-y+xz$
$-z+yz$
the probability of their all failing the firſt year, and, this being ſubtracted from unity, the remainder will expreſs the probability that either they will all ſubſiſt one year, or, at leaſt, that they will not all fail in the year: which being the foundation of receiving the firſt year's rent, and the other years following the ſame law, we may draw this concluſion; that, if from the ſum of the values of the ſingle lives we ſubtract the ſum of the values of the joint lives taken two and two, and to the remainder add the value of the three joint lives, we ſhall have the value of the annuity upon the longeſt of the three joint lives.

PROBLEM VIII.

To find the value of one life after another.

By the value of one life after another, is meant what a man muſt pay in preſent money to purchaſe the expectation of an annuity for his life after the failing of another, with this reſtriction, that, if the expectant dies before the preſent poſſeſſor no conſideration is to be given to the heirs of the ſaid expectant.

SOLUTION.

Since the expectation of the purchaſer is grounded on the failing of the life in poſſeſſion, and of the continuation of his own life, it follows, that, if we ſuppoſe x and y to be the reſpective probabilities of the lives continuing one year, then $1-x\times y$ or $y-xy$ will expreſs the probability of the firſt life's dropping in the year, and of the ſecond's out-living the year; from whence we may draw this conſequence, that, if from the preſent value of the expectant's life be ſubtracted the value of the two joint lives, there will remain the value of the expectation.

This may be made plain another way: for, ſuppoſe I were the purchaſer, I might begin to pay the proprietor of the annuity the full value of my life, but then I would expect back the value of the two joint lives of the preſent poſſeſſor and myſelf, ſince I am to receive nothing whilſt we are both living. To this may be added, that, ſuppoſing that the proprietor is to be paid for the longeſt of the two lives of the preſent poſſeſſor and myſelf, my ſhare of the purchaſe ought to be only that part of it which would remain if the life of the preſent poſſeſſor was deducted out of it, which will give the ſame concluſion as before.

But, if the expectant were to have the reverſion abſolute for himſelf and his heirs after the deceaſe of the preſent poſſeſſor, it is plain that there being nothing interpoſed between his preſent circumſtances and the poſſeſſion of the eſtate, but the life of the preſent poſſeſſor, then from the value of the perpetuity ought barely to be ſubtracted the life of the poſſeſſor, and the remainder will be the value of the expectation.

PROBLEM IX.

To find the value of one life after two.

SOLUTION.

From the value of the longeſt of the three lives, ſubtract the value of the longeſt of the two firſt lives, and there will remain the value of the expectation of the third life.

But, if the expectation be above the abſolute reverſion, then from the perpetuity ſubtract the value of the longeſt of the two firſt lives, and there will remain the value of the third.

And the ſame rule may be extended to as many lives as may be aſſigned.

Though theſe queſtions may, at firſt ſight, ſeem to have a great degree of difficulty, yet there is reaſon to believe that the ſteps taken to come at their ſolution, will eaſily be followed by thoſe who have a competent ſkill in algebra, and that the chief method of proceeding therein will be underſtood by thoſe who are barely acquainted with the elements of that art.

For thoſe, however, who may not be acquainted with this method of reaſoning, I ſhall ſubjoin what may be more generally intelligible, and, therefore, more generally acceptable.

The common method of purchaſing annuities is at a certain number of years purchaſe; for which reaſon, the following tables may be uſeful to ſhew how long the annuitant muſt live, to be reimburſed his principal money, with intereſt, at any given rate.

The table is very plain, as appears by this example.

Suppoſe 11 years purchaſe is given for an annuity,

	years.	days.			
Then, if the annuitant lives	12	200	he will be reimburſed his principal, with intereſt, at the rate of	2	per cent.
	13	9		$2\frac{1}{2}$	
	13	200		3	
	14	48		$3\frac{1}{2}$	
	14	286		4	
	15	190		4	
	16	134		5	per ann.
	18	188		6	
	21	264		7	
	27	201		8	
	53	160		9	

The

The fractions of the year are made in days, for the greater exactneſs, though it is common for annuities to be paid either half yearly or quarterly.

A TABLE to calculate the value of ANNUITIES upon LIVES at 4 l. and 5 l. per cent. continuance of the lives to reimburſe the annuitants their purchaſe-money.

Years purchaſe given for a life.	At 4 per cent.		At 5 per cent.	
	years.	days.	years.	days.
1	1	15	1	19
2	2	46	2	58
3	3	95	3	121
4	4	163	4	209
5	5	252	5	327
6	6	364	7	113
7	8	137	8	303
8	9	304	10	172
9	11	138	12	92
10	13	9	14	75
11	14	286	16	134
12	16	246	18	285
13	18	261	21	189
14	20	340	24	247
15	23	132	28	151
16	26	18	32	360
17	29	19	38	322
18	32	167	47	71

We have ſeen to what uſeful purpoſes the bills of births and burials at the city of Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia have been applied, by a very learned and ſagacious member of the Royal Society of London; as it is well known, alſo, what curious obſervations have been made, both moral, phyſical, and political, by Sir William Petty, upon the ſame argument, ſeveral years before, and Dr Arbuthnot, and others, ſince.

The learned Mr Kerſſeboom, likewiſe, has obliged the world with ſome very uſeful remarks upon the ſame topic. The induſtrious author has not only conſulted thoſe obſervations made by the beforementioned gentlemen, our countrymen but has acquainted himſelf more particularly with thoſe of Mr King, in Davenant's Eſſays, &c. in order to render himſelf more capable of making a juſt eſtimate on this delicate ſubject.

To which end, he begins with the number of inhabitants in the two provinces of Holland and Weſt Friezland; theſe he makes, viz. 1738, to amount in all to 980,000 and obliges us with the following table of the particulars. It exhibits the number of people of all ages, living at the ſame time, from the birth to extreme old age; which, becauſe it ſhews the chances of mortality within the ages mentioned, he calls the Table of Contingencies of Life and Death.

Of above 90 years old there are			500
of 90	86 inclusive		2,500
85	81		6,500
80	76		13,000
75	71		20,300
70	66		27,300
65 to	61		34,300
60	56		40,800
55	51		47,000
50	46		53,000
45	41		57,800
40	36		62,500
35	31		67,600
30	27		58,400
			491,500 the ſum above 27 years.
of 26	21		94,300
20	16		83,400
15 to	11		87,200
10	6		91,800
5 to	birth		131,800
			488,500 ſum under 27 years old.
			491,500
			488,500
			980,000 ſum of all the inhabitants.

This table is founded upon three principles, viz. correct obſervations upon the tables of aſſignable annuities in Holland, which have been kept there for above 125 years; wherein the ages of the perſons dying are truly entered: upon a ſuppoſition that there are yearly born in the provinces 28,000 living children: and, laſtly, that the intire number of inhabitants in any country is to the number of the births as 35 to 1.

From this table it appears, (1.) That about half the number of people in the two provinces are above 27 years old, and, conſequently, that near the other half are under that age. (2.) Then, by following what hath been obſerved for more

than 100 years in England, and particularly in London, out of 35 children born, 18 of them are boys, and 17 girls, the people in theſe two provinces will conſiſt of

504,000 males,
476,000 females.
980,000

He farther remarks, that it appears from the aſſignable annuities for lives, mentioned before, the females have, in all accidents of age, lived about 3 or 4 years longer than the ſame number of males; which he looks upon to be appointed as a compenſation for the continual exceſs there is in the birth of the males above the females.

Having conſidered the quantity, he then comes to take notice of the quality of theſe 980,000 inhabitants; and ſays, he ſees no reaſon to differ from the proportion of Mr King, in Davenant's Eſſays, who hath divided the people of England in this manner:

The proportion for every 100,000 inhabitants is,

Married men and women	34,500
Widowers	1,500
Unmarried young men and children	45,000
Servants	10,500
Travellers, ſtrangers, &c.	4,000
	100,000

If this proportion be admitted, then the number of each ſort in Holland and Weſt Friezland will be as follows. He adds, that the ſaid provinces can raiſe at this time 220,000 able-bodied men, deducting $\frac{1}{10}$ for diſeaſes, and other infirmities. But then he admits at 16 years of age, whereas Dr Halley admits none till 18, perſons under that age being generally too weak to bear the fatigues of war, and the weight of arms. He then proceeds to rectify the miſtakes of the learned Iſaac Voſſius, who makes but 550,000 in Holland and Weſt Friezland, and diſallows Sir William Petty's account of the number of people in London, becauſe he makes them alone equal to the inhabitants of Holland and Weſt Friezland together.

He cloſes the whole with a table of the preſent value of annuities upon lives, in proportion to the ordinary, or common bonds, charged upon thoſe provinces, and ſubject to the extraordinary taxes raiſed at this time, viz. 1738. You will find annexed the degrees of mortality, ſaid to be in the Hague and Haagambagt, as alſo the numbers and conditions of the inhabitants of Amſterdam, Harlem, Goudas, and the Hague, not omitting London at this preſent time.

The two provinces of Holland and Weſt Friezland.		Amſterdam.	Harlem.	Gouda.	Hague.	London.
Married men and women	338,000	86,156	17,420	6,900	14,850	241,800
Widowers	14,700	4,218	760	300	720	13,100
Widows	44,100	13,858	2,280	900	2,380	45,700
Unmarried youth and children	441,000	93,990	22,700	9,000	16,190	215,700
Servants	102,900	28,318	5,300	2,100	4,870	85,000
Travellers, ſtrangers, &c.	39,300	14,460	2,040	800	2,490	52,300
Total	980,000	241,000	50,500	20,000	41,500	653,600

The fatality of the quarters.

	dead.
Spring to ſummer	307
Summer to the autumnal equinox	286
Autumn to winter	287
Winter to ſpring	286

The fatality of the months for 31 years, one year with another.

	dead.
January	102
February	88
March	95
April	77
May	112
June	100
July	92
Auguſt	95
September	99
October	93
November	95
December	99

Hence it appears, that March is leſs fatal at the Hague and Haagambagt, than April, and April than May and June; that May is the moſt fatal month of all; that the remaining months are nearly equal. It appears further, that three parts, or ſeaſons of the year, are very nearly equal; but that the other quarter, or ſeaſon, beginning at the vernal equinox, is more fatal than any of the reſt by the one fifteenth part.

A TABLE of ANNUITIES for LIFE.

Let the annuity be 100 guilders yearly, upon a life under a year old.

	Guild.		Guild.	Stiv.	
Its preſent value is	1667	that is	6	0	per cent.
	1896		5	7	
	1835		5	9	
	1770		5	13	
	1667		6	0	
	1587		6	6	
	1515		6	12	
	1429		7	0	
	1334		7	10	
	1212		8	5	
	1093		9	3	
	971		10	6	
	840		11	8	
	709		14	2	
	507		17	11	

Upon a life of	5	years to	1	incluſive
	10		6	
	15		11	
	20		16	
	25		21	
	30		26	
	35		31	
	40		36	
	45		41	
	50		46	
	55		51	
	60		56	
	65		61	
	70		66	

The uſe of this table.

Queſtion. Let it be deſired to know the preſent value of an annuity for life, for inſtance, of 90 guilders a year, which was granted in the year 1703, upon a life then of three years old.

Anſwer. The life now (in 1738) is between 37 and 38 years old; hence the number between 40 and 36 gives 1334, for the preſent value of an annuity of 100 guilders; hence $\left(\frac{1334 \times 90}{100} =\right)$ 1200 guilders is the preſent value of the annuity for that life.

Thus the reader has a connected ſummary of what ſome of the moſt able mathematicians have favoured the world with on the ſubject of annuities upon lives; and, if theſe principles and their application are underſtood, whatever elſe has been, or may be communicated to the public on this topic, will eaſily be underſtood too, without our dwelling longer on this matter.

To ANNUL, with book-keepers, and in regard to double entries, is to render an article void, ſo as that it may be reckoned for nothing. In order to annul an article which has been wrong entered in the books, either in the day-book or ledger, one or ſeveral o (cyphers) are wrote in the margin, by ſome, next to that article; or, as others do, the word vanas is wrote in the margin, which is a word corrupted from the Latin, and ſignifies vain, or null. When an article is poſted in the ledger to the debit, which ought to have been to the credit, or to the latter inſtead of the former, it is commonly wrote off on the oppoſite ſide—as To or By an error wrote off per contra.

In books of account properly kept, all raſures ſhould be moſt carefully avoided; and, if miſtakes are committed, it looks with a better face of juſtice and honour to let the miſtake remain, and to repeat the words I ſay, &c. and rectify the miſtake in right words or figures, rather than to let any raſures appear in a ſett of books.

ANONYMOUS, that which has no name. Partnerſhips in trade in France are ſtiled anonymous, when they are not carried on under any particular name, but wherein each of the partners trades viſibly on his own account, and in his own name; after which, all the partners give one another an account of their profit or loſs in trade. Theſe ſorts of partnerſhips are concealed, and known only to the partners themſelves.

ANONYMOUS partnerſhips in trade, in France, are ſuch, alſo, wherein perſons of fortune and quality depoſit ſums of money, in order to ſhare of the profit and loſs. To this end, thoſe who furniſh the capital have no trouble in the carrying on the trade, nor do their names appear to be any way intereſted therein.

The firſt foundation of theſe kind of partnerſhips in France, was grounded, ſays Mr Savary, in the Complete Trader, upon the following principles, viz.

1. That perſons who were not of the mercantile profeſſion might make uſe of theſe meaſures to employ their money, without being guilty of uſury; for that, by their running the hazard both of traders and trade, they were juſtly and honourably intitled to a ſhare of the profits of the commerce, ſince they were to ſtand to their ſhare of the loſſes.

2. That perſons of great and plentiful fortunes might have an opportunity of employing their money to the advantage of the national traffic, which otherwiſe would lie dead in their coffers.

3. That the ſons of perſons of family, well qualified for trade, though not of competent fortunes wherewith to carry it on, might eſtabliſh themſelves in the world, and exert their talents and induſtry for the benefit of the community; which, for want of money, would remain uſeleſs to the ſtate.

4. That princes might find their account by encouraging ſuch policy, becauſe, the more manufactures and commerce flouriſh in their ſtates, the larger become their revenues, by duties on imports and exports on trade.

That theſe partnerſhips might not be deemed diſhonourable to perſons of condition, nor derogatory, even to the nobility, it is urged, that, ſince ſuch only advanced their money, and had no perſonal concern in the commercial tranſactions, it could not poſſibly demean, or any way diſhonour them; and more eſpecially ſo, ſince thoſe adventures were generally made with merchants, or wholeſale dealers, and not with retailers.

That this practice might not be judged diſhonourable in France, Lewis XIII. iſſued an ordonnance in January 1627 to countenance and encourage it.

Beſides this ordonnance of Lewis XIII, it may not be amiſs to obſerve thoſe extraordinary letters patents, which were granted by Lewis XIV, for the eſtabliſhment of ſeveral woollen manufactures, whereby the undertakers are ennobled, and upheld in their nobility, as well as thoſe who were intereſted with them as partners.

The firſt is that of July 1646. It relates to the eſtabliſhment of a manufacture of cloth in the city of Sedan, in imitation of that of Holland, in favour of Sieurs Nicholas Cadeau, Jean Binel, and Zuill de Marſeilles, merchants of the city of Paris. The patent ſays, That, in conſideration of this eſtabliſhment, the French king ennobled thoſe merchants, and their deſcendants, without imputing the leaſt derogation to their nobility, or that of their poſterity, by reaſon of their being concerned in trade or manufactures: they were even granted, likewiſe, all thoſe privileges and immunities which were enjoyed by thoſe of noble extraction, with the right of committimus.

Another inſtance is that in the month of October 1665. It concerns the eſtabliſhment of a woollen manufacture in the city of Abbeville, in imitation of thoſe of Spain and Holland, in favour of the Sieur Joſhua Vanrobais, a Dutch merchant. He was permitted to take into partnerſhip in the ſaid manufacture whomſoever he pleaſed; the king expreſsly declaring, in his patent, that it ſhould be no derogation to any of the nobility to be concerned with him therein, on pretence of their being intereſted partners in that commerce.

A third inſtance is that of December 1698, relating to a new cloth manufacture, and of cloth with ſilk and wool, of all colours, in the province of Champagne, in the cities of Chalons and Rheims, in favour of the Sieurs Sauvage and Champagne, and company; which patents were granted to the ſame effect as the former.

The French king, therefore, declaring it no diſhonour whatſoever to perſons of quality in France to be privately intereſted with traders in their enterprizes, has proved greatly inſtrumental to extend the commerce of that kingdom.

REMARKS.

Perſons of fortune, who would thus hazard their money in traders hands, ſhould caſt their eye upon an honeſt, as well as a ſkilful man, and one of unblamable conduct and behaviour, it being upon his fidelity and induſtry that he grounds his hopes of advantage.

It ſhould be well conſidered, alſo, by him that advances the money, whether the branch of trade propoſed by the merchant, &c. to be carried on, has a good face, and a reaſonable proſpect of profit attending it; whether the capital propoſed be competent to proſecute the ſame with every advantage: whether the trade deſigned to be carried on be domeſtic or foreign, and whether the trader has a ſuitable correſpondence for the purpoſe, as well as a thorough knowledge in all the circumſtances relating to ſuch trade, in order to carry it on ſucceſsfully.

The conditions of agreement are next to be weighed: as,

1. Whether he that advances the capital ſhould have any certain intereſt for a part, or the whole, of his money, beſides receiving a proportion of the profits, or bearing the like ſhare of the loſs.

2. Whether the trader is only to undertake the ſole conduct of the buſineſs; or whether, beſides, he ſhould not advance a part of the capital, the better to engage him in the common intereſt; and what ſhare of the profits he ſhall have for his ſkill and conſtant attendance on the buſineſs.

3. Whether the perſon who finds the money is likely to hazard more than the ſum he adventures, and how he is to guard againſt accidents of this kind, by the ill conduct or misfortune of the trader.

This muſt be a matter of the greateſt delicacy, and cannot be

be too cautiouſly guarded againſt in England, leſt the moneyed man ſhould be drawn in as a partner in affairs which he has never conſented to, or approved of. It is to be conſidered, therefore, whether it may not be more eligible to lend a trader money at legal intereſt, than to be deemed a partner with him, in caſe of the accidents of trade, and the ſecret negociations he may carry on beſides thoſe which are known to one that is only an anonymous, and not an active, partner in the trade.

Nor ſhould ſuch an one, intereſted in the trade, omit to ſtipulate a free acceſs to all letters, books, and accounts, at all times, in order to judge how the buſineſs goes on.

But, in this caſe, the advancer of the money will be as much at a loſs as if he had not this toleration, unleſs he is perfectly well acquainted with mercantile accountantſhip; for nothing is more eaſy than to perplex and confound one who is ignorant thereof.

Upon the whole: there is great danger attending ſuch kind of tranſactions, unleſs the moneyed man acts with the utmoſt circumſpection, and, indeed, is full as knowing in the practical arts of commerce as the trader himſelf.

There are, alſo, different kinds of anonymous partnerſhips among traders, which may be well worthy ſome readers attentive conſideration.

Suppoſe, for example, that a merchant of Marſeilles underderſtands that there is a ſhip, laden with various ſorts of merchandiſe, coming from Smyrna, and he receives an invoice of the merchandize therein contained; ſuppoſe, likewiſe, that ſuch merchant does not care to run the hazard of the whole, and writes to a correſpondent at Paris, acquainting him that there is ſuch a cargo, and, ſending him the invoice thereof, he deſires to know whether he chuſes to be intereſted with him in any part of the ſaid cargo.

The merchant of Paris, having peruſed the invoice, and finding there is profit to be made, engages to take part, one half, a third, or a quarter, profit or loſs, of the ſhip's cargo, and writes to his correſpondent at Marſeilles accordingly, that he may either draw upon him for ſuch part of the prime coſt and charge, or that he will remit him.

The merchant of Marſeilles, having received this anſwer from him at Paris, purchaſes ſuch merchandiſes that were contained in his correſpondent's letter, which gives birth to this partnerſhip, that is diſtinguiſhed by anonymous, it taking place only pro tempore, by virtue of letters, and is unknown to the public. The merchant of Paris, by letter, obliges himſelf to be anſwerable to him at Marſeilles for the part he has engaged for, and to abide by the profit or loſs; and the merchant of Marſeilles, by purchaſe of the merchandize, accepts the partnerſhip, and obliges himſelf to render an account, and make good the profits which ſhall accrue on the ſales thereof, and to ſuſtain his ſhare in the loſſes which may ariſe thereon. But, in this caſe, the merchant of Paris is not anſwerable either to the maſter of the ſhip, or to the owners of the merchandiſes, for what the merchant of Marſeilles ſhall have bought; ſo that, if the merchant of Marſeilles fails before he has paid for ſuch merchandiſe, no remedy can be had againſt him at Paris.

The reaſon thereof is, becauſe the Marſeilles merchant treats, in this caſe, in his own name only, with him who ſells him the merchandiſe, and who acknowledges him alone for his debtor. In ſhort, the ſeller can have no more remedy againſt the Paris merchant for what he ſold to the Marſeilles merchant, than the Paris merchant can againſt him, if he demanded, in his own name, the execution of what the Marſeilles merchant was to have performed on his part towards him.

It is the ſame thing, likewiſe, in regard to the ſale, as to the purchaſe, of merchandiſes; for, if this merchant of Marſeilles ſent the goods bought by him to be ſold by the merchant of Paris, it is clear that he at Marſeilles could maintain no action againſt the buyers at Paris, under pretence that he was a party intereſted in ſuch goods, the debtors there acknowledging no body their creditor but the merchant at Paris, of whom they purchaſed theſe merchandiſes: ſo that, if the merchant at Paris fails, he at Marſeilles can only come in as a creditor with the reſt, for ſuch proportion of the bankrupt's effects as ſhall be divided among the creditors. This is the univerſal law and cuſtom of merchants; and, if duly conſidered, will be found to be well bottomed on the laws of nature and reaſon, for the ſupport of univerſal commerce: for, in this caſe, the anonymous, or unknown partner, depends on the fidelity of him to whom he conſigned the goods for ſale; and, was not this the caſe, there would be no ſecurity in trade.

However, the cuſtom and uſage of merchants are different, if the two anonymous partners immediately divide the merchandiſe bought between them, according to the ſhare and proportion of each, and that the merchant at Marſeilles ſhould ſend his part to him at Paris, to be diſpoſed of with his mark, and for his proper account, by commiſſion: in this caſe the bankruptcy of him at Paris happening, he at Marſeilles may lay claim to the merchandiſe which ſhall be found intire, and in the ſame condition as ſent, in the poſſeſſion of the merchant at Paris; but, with regard to what ſhall be ſold, he cannot claim that of the buyers, although they ſhall not

have paid for the ſame; becauſe the merchandiſe, having changed hands, becomes the abſolute property of the purchaſer. Thus he at Marſeilles can have no action againſt thoſe buyers for payment, although they remain debtors to the bankrupt, and he can only act towards them as debtors to the merchant of Paris, who has debited them in his books to merchandiſe ſold them in his proper and private name, and not under that of the merchant of Marſeilles; ſo that the merchant at Paris only is the debtor to him at Marſeilles. This is an eſtabliſhed uſage among merchants.

The ſecond kind of anonymous partnerſhips is, when tradeſmen and merchants reſort to eſtabliſhed fairs and markets, with intent to buy or ſell merchandiſes. Thoſe who have occaſion for the ſame ſort of goods, in order to prevent raiſing the price by the diſtinct number of buyers, agree, three or four, or more, together, to join in an anonymous partnerſhip for that time, for the purchaſe of goods during the fair, &c. one of them only appears in the conduct; after which the goods are divided according to what each individual agreed for, and paid for to the ſeller by the viſible purchaſer only. As theſe ſort of partnerſhips are only occaſional and unforeſeen, they are made upon the ſpot verbally only among the parties concerned, from which agreement they very rarely deviate. The Dutch factors who reſide at Nantz in France, often make this kind of anonymous aſſociations, in the purchaſe of wines and brandies, and by that means, as it were, put their own price upon them; for traders muſt act through them as their brokers; who having once offered a price, if they are not taken at a word, another will come afterwards, and offer leſs; which ſometimes ſo greatly diſappoints the ſellers, that they decline coming to the public fairs and markets. On the other hand, when goods are ſcarce, the ſellers, in their turn, will enter into theſe anonymous combinations. The moſt eminent traders will enter into the like agreements, and, having bought up all the goods of the petty dealers in the country, they carry them to the public fairs and markets, and ſet their own price thereon; for by this means all buyers muſt purchaſe of them, or return without what they came for. This ſort of aſſociations is a kind of monopoly, and of public detriment, and often deſtroys the œconomy, and reſtrains the freedom, of commerce. Theſe things frequently happen at fairs and markets: the ſellers combine to ſtick to a price, and the buyers will give only a middling price; ſo that all buſineſs ſhall be, as it were, at a ſtand, and diſconcerted, and all of a ſudden, on the laſt day of the fair, or market, both buyers and ſellers come to a reaſonable reſolution; and ſometimes, by theſe meaſures, the buyers, ſometimes the ſellers, become the dupes. Theſe, and many others, are the fineſſes of commerce, which are hard to be prevented.

Another ſpecies of theſe anonymous, or unknown agreements in commerce, is between traders who obſerve, for example, that in France corn is extremely dear, by reaſon of the badneſs of the harveſt for two or three years, which has occaſioned a ſcarcity; and that at Dantzick, or in England, or ſome other part, there is a great plenty of corn: in conſequence of theſe obſervations, three or four merchants of fortune ſhall unite together to buy, and import the ſame into France, and depute one only to be the viſible and known purchaſer.

Nor are theſe ſorts of anonymous temporary partnerſhips practiſed only among merchants, and other traders, but there are perſons of quality who in France will often take ſhare in thoſe occaſional aſſociations with traders eminent for their diſcernment and worth; they being wiſe enough not to think it the leaſt diſparagement or degradation to their honour and dignity to promote the commerce of their country, in concert with their private intereſt. And certainly there is no way of gain more honourable, or more lawful, than what is obtained in this manner, becauſe they riſk their money upon an uncertainty of profit or loſs.

What renders this kind of partnerſhips the more eligible by perſons of fortune is, that they run no hazard in France quatenus a partner.

Great eſtates may be acquired by merchants from this practice, judiciouſly managed, and that with a middling fortune; which ſhall be fully ſhewn under the article of PARTNERSHIPS foreign and domeſtic.

To ANSWER for another, ſignifies to be bound for him, to be his ſurety. It is a common ſaying among the French, that he who anſwers, pays. This happens but too often in trade, where ſuch anſwering, or binding one's ſelf for another, cauſes very rich and ſubſtantial merchants to break, whoſe failure is occaſioned by nothing but their too great readineſs in anſwering for others. This has been very fatal to many in England, in regard to the revenue in particular.

ANTARCTIC Pole, in geography, is the ſouthern pole, or end of the earth's axis: ſo called, becauſe oppoſite to the arctic, or north pole.

The ſtars near the antarctic pole never appear above our horizon.

ANTARCTIC Circle, is one of the leſſer circles of the ſphere parallel to the equator, at the diſtance of 23 degrees 30 minutes from the ſouth pole. It takes its name from being oppoſite to the arctic circle.

ANTEDATE, a falſified date, a date ſet down before the

true one. Antedates are of a very dangerous conſequence in matters of trade.

To ANTEDATE, is to ſet down a falſe date, to date from a day prior to that on which the buſineſs is tranſacted, the note, or bill, drawn, or letters written, &c.

REMARKS.

In France it was formerly the ill cuſtom to leave blank orders on the back of bills of exchange; that is to ſay, to indorſe them by writing only one's name, ſo that they could eaſily be antedated, which might occaſion very great abuſes, eſpecially from thoſe who happened to break: for they who fell under that misfortune, and had bills of exchange drawn at two uſances, or payable in the payment of Lyons, which were to order, in blank, might antedate the order, and make them thus be received under borrowed names, or give them n payment to ſuch of their creditors as they wanted to favour, to the prejudice of others; by which means thoſe bills could not be demanded to be added to the bankrupt's effects, becauſe, the date of their order ſeeming to be prior to the time of the failure, it could not be urged that they were negociated within the time wherein the perſon became a bankrupt.

The regulation for commerce in France, made in the year 167[illegible], has provided, that it is not now ſo eaſy to antedate orders on the back of bills of exchange: for, in the 22d article of tit. 5. it is ordered, that the ſignature, or name ſigned, on the back of bills of exchange, ſhall ſerve only as an indorſement, and not as an order, unleſs it be dated, and contain the name of the perſon who ſhall have paid the value in money, merchandiſe, or otherwiſe: and, by the 26th article of the ſame title, it is ordered, that, whoever antedates orders, ſhall be puniſhed as guilty of forgery.

To ANTICIPATE a payment, is to pay it before the time be expired, when it is to become due.

ANTILLES ISLANDS, lie in America, ſituate in the Atlantic ocean, between 59 and 63. degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 11 and 18 degrees of north latitude. Some call theſe iſles the Caribbees, from the firſt ſettlers, though this is a denomination that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſe of the European ſhips from Old Spain, or the Canary Iſlands to New Spain; in which courſe they muſt neceſſarily paſs between ſome of thoſe iſlands.

They are commonly diſtinguiſhed by the Great and Little Antilles. Beſides the original natives, they are inhabited by Spaniards, or Engliſh, French, or Dutch, as they have happened to be poſſeſſed by them. We ſhall take them as they are ranged on the north ſide of the north ſea, from weſt to eaſt, and on the ſouth ſide of it from eaſt to weſt, let them belong to whom they will.

The firſt that we come to from the Bahamas, are Cuba, Jamaica, Hiſpaniola, and Porto-Rico, which, with ſome ſmall ones, as it were appendent to them, go all by the name of the Great Antilles.

I. CUBA. This iſland, which begins on the eaſt ſide, at latitude 20. 20, touches on the north at the tropic of Cancer, and extends from longitude 74 to 85. 15, about 11 degrees from eaſt to weſt, or 660 miles from Cape St Anthony on the weſt, to Cape Maize on the eaſt; but is very narrow in proportion, being, in ſome parts, not above 12 or 14 leagues in breadth, and, at moſt, but 120 miles in length. It lies 60 miles to the weſt of Hiſpaniola, 25 leagues to the north of Jamaica, 100 miles to the eaſt of Jucatan, and as many to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and commands the entrance of both the gulphs of Mexico and Florida, and the Windward Paſſage: ſo that the Spaniards, by their poſſeſſion of this iſland, may, with a tolerable fleet, not only ſecure their own trade, but annoy their neighbours.

'Tis ſaid to have generally the beſt lands, for ſo large a country, of any in America, and to produce moſt of the commodities known in the American iſlands, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other ſpices; caſſia, fiſtula, maſtic, aloes, large cedars, and other odoriferous trees; oaks, pines, palm-trees, large vines, cotton-trees, and tobacco. They have fruit-trees of various ſorts, large walks of cocoas, good ſugar-works, and are ſaid to make the beſt ſugars in the Weſt-Indies, though in no great quantity, for want of hands to cultivate the canes.

They have mines of copper, which furniſh the Spaniards in America with metal for their braſs founderies, for the making of cannon, &c. Gold duſt alſo being found in the ſands of the rivers, it is conjectured there are gold mines, if not of ſilver, in the mountains, of which there runs a ridge from the eaſt to the weſt of the iſland.

But the Spaniards have not yet opened theſe mines; perhaps from not having yet diſcovered them, or from policy to prevent an invaſion, as is ſaid to be the caſe at Florida, where, though 'tis certain they have mines towards the north ſea, they do not work them, but rather employ themſelves in others farther up the country, though the carriage by land to Mexico is much more expenſive.

This iſland has many very good ports and harbours of great advantage to ſhipping for the ſafe paſſing the gulph, and when the Spaniards keep Guarda Coſta, plying off and on between the weſt end of Cuba and Hiſpaniola, it is ſcarce poſſible for any Engliſh ſhips from Jamaica to eſcape them.

Here are great conveniencies for making ſalt, and catching fiſh, which are chiefly barbel and ſhad. They have mules, plenty of horſes, ſheep, wild boars, hogs, and cattle of a larger and better breed than any other part of America; they have wild fowl, partridges, and large tortoiſes. They have quarries of flints and fountains of bitumen, which is uſed for ſhips inſtead of pitch, and alſo for medicinal uſes.

Their black cattle are ſo numerous, that they run wild in the woods for want of people to conſume their fleſh: many fine fat beaſts are left to rot upon the ground, though great numbers are killed, purely for the hides that are ſent into Spain. The fleſh being cut into pieces is dried in the ſun, and ſerves as proviſions for ſhipping.

Abundance of tobacco, both in leaf and ſnuff, is exported to New Spain, Coſta Ricca, the South Sea, and Europe in general. Another of its trading commodities is Campeachy wood for dyeing, which the merchants of this iſland import from the bay of that name, and the bay of Honduras, and put the ſame on board the flota for Spain, together with their hides and tobacco. Upon the whole, it is moſt advantageouſly ſituated for the general trade of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, and may be deſervedly called the Gibraltar of America, and therefore a place of as much importance to Spain, as the other is to Great-Britain.

But the Spaniards, by their ſhocking butchery of the natives, have depopulated the iſland, ſo that their improvements are not ſo general, nor ſo good, in their nature and tendency, as in our iſlands. Here are more churches than farms, more prieſts than planters, and more lazy and luxurious bigots than uſeful labourers. To which it is owing, that this large and well ſituated iſland, with a luxuriant ſoil, beſides great plenty of food for its inhabitants, does not produce, for exportation, near the value of our little iſland of Antigua.

Its harbour for ſhipping is ſo large, as to admit a thouſand ſail of ſhips to ride there commodiouſly and ſafely, as it were without either anchor or cable, no wind being able to hurt them. It is ſo deep withal, that the largeſt veſſels anchor at a ſmall diſtance from the ſhore, and there is commonly ſix fathom water. The entrance, which has no bar or ſhoals to obſtruct it, is by a channel about three quarters of a mile in length, but ſo narrow, that only one ſhip can go in at a time.

This iſland is of the greateſt importance to the Spaniards of any of their ſettlements in America, the Havanna here being the place of rendezvous for all their fleets in their return from that quarter of the world to Spain; and lying at the mouth of the gulph of Florida, through which they are all obliged to paſs. The Spaniards therefore, not without reaſon, call it the Key of all the Weſt Indies, to lock up or open the door or entrance to all America: and, in effect, no ſhips can paſs this way, without leave from this port.

But, however impregnable this place may be thought at preſent, yet even the Engliſh Buccaneers, under Capt. Morgan, took it in 1669, and would have kept it, could they have had the king of England's protection. Had this been the caſe, our poſſeſſions in the Weſt-Indies, as well as our trade thither, not only to and from our colonies, would have been duly ſecured, but our fair and honourable trade, by the way of Old Spain to New, would have been far more extended; for, while the key of the Weſt-Indies was in Britiſh hands, the Spaniards would always have found themſelves under the neceſſity of encouraging our trade thither, preferably to that of our rival nations.

Jamaica, lying between Cuba, Hiſpaniola, and the continent, is liable to be invaded from theſe three quarters at once; and, its ſecurity is the more precarious, as the French are poſſeſſed of the weſt part of Hiſpaniola. On the other hand, it is very plain, that if the Engliſh were poſſeſſed of the Havanna, our ſhips, both here and at Jamaica, would be always ready to pick up the ſtraggling ſhips of the Spaniards, which they would not be able to keep in a body without the help of this port, it being as impoſſible for their unweildy ſhips to turn up through the Windward Paſſage from the bay of Mexico, or Porto Bello, without ſeparation, as it would be for them to paſs the gulph of Florida, ſhould they loſe the Havanna, where they always rendezvous, victual, water, and provide all neceſſaries for their return to Spain.

II. JAMAICA, extends from longitude 75. 57 weſt of London, to longitude 78. 37, and from latitude 17. 48, to 18. 50.

This iſland, reckoned bigger than all the other Britiſh ſugar iſlands put together, Barbadoes excepted, is ſo far from being wholly cultivated as ſome of them are, that it has as much land uncultivated as would produce about three times what it does at preſent, were encouragement given for the cultivation of the reſt.

The general produce of this iſland is ſugar, rum, ginger, cocoa, coffee, cotton, pimento, or Jamaica pepper, ſeveral kinds of woods, ſome medicinal drugs and tobacco, but of ſo ordinary a ſort, that it is only cultivated to ſerve the negroes, who could ſcarce live without it. Fruits grow here in great plenty, the Seville and China orange, the common and ſweet lemon, ſhaddocks, citrons, pomegranates, mamies, ſour-ſops,

papas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, Alicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral ſorts of berries, which are to be found in the woods every-where.

The ſugar-cane is the glory and treaſure of Jamaica, as well as of Barbadoes, Antigua, St Chriſtopher's, Nevis, and all our new colonies annexed to the crown of England by the Definitive Treaty of 1763; and, as it is the principal article of the Britiſh commerce in our American iſlands, we ſhall give an ample account of that manufacture from the cane, under the article of SUGAR.

The conſumption of ſugars in Great-Britain, one year with another, has been computed at 70,000 hogſheads, each containing twelve hundred weight: and, according to a computation we find in a treatiſe, ſaid to be written by Mr Aſhley, late deputy-auditor of Barbadoes, and well acquainted with this trade, intitled, The importance of the Sugar-colonies to Great-Britain, they all produce, on an average, 85,000 hogſheads of ſugar in a year; the neat profits of which the author ſuppoſes to be ſpent in England by the proprietors of eſtates in the Weſt-Indies, who reſide here, or are ſent out annually in the Britiſh manufactures, either directly to the ſugar-colonies, or to the Guiney coaſt, to purchaſe negroes for their uſe.

The author reckons, that there are three hundred ſail of ſhips ſent every year to our ſugar-colonies from Great-Britain (not to mention thoſe from other places) which are navigated by about 4500 ſeamen: that the freight for the ſugars brought hither amounts to 170,000 l. a year, and the duty, commiſſion, &c. to little leſs than 200,000 l. more.

As to the exports from hence to our ſugar-colonies, it appeared by the cuſtom-houſe books in 1726, that all the Britiſh manufactures exported to Barbados, all the Leeward-Iſlands, and Jamaica, put together, the latter of which generally takes as much for the Spaniſh trade, &c. as all thoſe other iſlands, amounted to 234,785 l. 17 s.

The Jamaica ſugar is ſaid to be the beſt in all our plantations, and made with the greateſt eaſe; for Dr. Stubbs ſays, it cures faſter here in ten days, than it does in ſix months at Barbadoes, eſpecially in thoſe places where it rains for months together.

There were about ſixty mills in Jamaica in the year 1670, which were computed to make about two millions of pounds weight of ſugar; and ſome writers ſay, they now make ten times as much as they did then.

Indigo was formerly produced in great quantities in this iſland. In the pariſh of Vere, where it was chiefly cultivated, the profits of the planters were ſo great, that 300 gentlemen's coaches were reckoned at its pariſh-church every Sunday. But whether it was owing to the want of ſeaſons, or, as the planters themſelves ſay, to the high taxes that were laid upon that commodity, there is not at preſent a ſtalk of indigo to be be found there, nor any other veſtiges of the former proſperity of that pariſh. The tax laid by the Britiſh legiſlature on that commodity was 3 s. 6d. a pound, which might have been borne, when a pound weight of it was worth 10 s. but upon its falling to 4s. was inſupportable.

We became ſenſible of this too late, and not only took off all duty upon indigo of our own growth, but have invited foreigners to bring it to us duty-free, and even in their own ſhips. There have been ſome attempts of late to revive this manufacture in Jamaica, but without ſucceſs, the people there having quite forgot the art: however, in the year 1743, Mr Macfarlan made a ſmall quantity of very good indigo in the pariſh of St Thomas in the Vale; whether he has proſecuted his deſign ſince we cannot learn, but are pretty ſure that all, or moſt of the indigo imported from our ſugar-colonies, is the produce of our neighbouring French and Spaniſh plantations. See the article INDIGO.

There are few colonies in America ſo well-ſtored with cattle as this: their horſes, aſſes, and mules, are very cheap, and there would be much greater quantities of black cattle, only the Engliſh here, who mind planting more than grazing, have thereby ſo leſſened the ſtock, that they are ſupplied with fleſh from the northern colonies, as well as the Leeward Iſlands. Their ſheep are generally large and fat, and the fleſh good, but the wool, being long and full of hairs, is worth nothing.

Their bays, roads, and rivers, abound with excellent fiſh of almoſt all the European and American kinds; but the tortoiſe is by much the moſt valuable, both for its ſhell and fiſh, the latter being counted the moſt delicious, and withal the moſt wholſome in the Indies, and eſteemed as one of the niceſt dainties at the table of our nobility and merchants, to whom they are often ſent as preſents from the governors and chief planters of this and the neighbouring iſlands.

The chief trade of Jamaica is with Great-Britain; for the iſlanders wear, eat, and drink, ſcarce any thing but what comes from thence, except Madeira wine, and rum punch.

The moſt ſaleable goods here are oſnabrugs, check linnen, white linnen, both coarſe and fine; laces, cambricks, hats, ſhoes, ſtockings, broad cloths, ſilks, platilloes; all ſorts of iron ware, ſoap, candles, butter, cheeſe, ſalt beef, pork, herrings, dried cod-fiſh, biſcuit, beer, ale, cyder, &c. all which bring at leaſt 50 per cent. to the importer.

The general trade of this, and the iſland of Barbados, is much alike, but in ſome articles it differs; as in moſt of the dyer's woods from the bay of Campeachy, which the Barbados people cannot ſo eaſily come at as the Jamaicans, who are only at the charge of cutting and carrying it off, though the Spaniards, even before the breaking out of the preſent war, did ſo much to hinder that trade, that the logwood-cutters were forced to have guards, and fight for their prize, the Spaniards reckoning this an illicit trade, and that the Engliſh have no right to trade in the bay of Campeachy, but the Engliſh have aſſerted the contrary. See the article LOG-WOOD TRADE.

The Jamaica trade has, in the general, the advantage of that of Barbados, and particularly in bringing us bullion; ſo that ſome years, 'tis ſaid, it has exported no leſs than 300,000 pieces of eight to Great-Britain.

Notwithſtanding all the care that the courts of England and Spain have hitherto taken, to prevent a clandeſtine trade being carried on from Jamaica to the Spaniſh main, they have not been able to ſuppreſs it. For the Spaniards are as fond of it as the Engliſh, though they run no leſs hazard in buying the merchandize, than the Engliſh do in ſelling it to them, as appears by their way of managing it, which is thus: The ſhip, being furniſhed at Jamaica with negroes and dry goods, commonly makes to the coaſt near Porto Bello, and no ſooner arrives, but a perſon who underſtands Spaniſh, is ſent off to give notice of it to the dealers about Porto Bello, who appoint the time and place for the ſhip's canoe to attend them; when, having bargained for what part of the cargoe they want, they return to the town for the money, which they bring aboard, and take the goods.

Sometimes the Spaniſh dealers come to trade over the Iſthmus from Panama, travelling like peaſants, with mules laden with jars of meal, in which they conceal their ſilver, for fear of meeting with the king of Spain's officers; and therefore they generally travel through woods and by-ways. The ſloop trade from Jamaica to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, under the protection of our men of war, has heretofore been reckoned at 200,000 l. a year, till 1702, that an order came to the governor of Jamaica to prevent it, on account of a treaty betwixt us and the Dutch, who afterwards went into it themſelves at Curaſſau.

The importance of this iſland to Great-Britain, not only for its trade but ſituation, is very great. For, it lying in the very center of the Spaniſh acquiſitions in America, no veſſel can ſcarce come to, or go from, the continent of New Spain, but muſt neceſſarily ſail within ſight of Jamaica, or fall into the hands of ſuch of our cruizers as are ſtationed there; for every fleet that comes from Carthagena puts into Hiſpaniola, from whence it cannot ſail for the Havanna, the general rendezvous of the Spaniſh galleons and flota, without paſſing by one end or the other of Jamaica.

Here alſo are many fine bays which are convenient for ſhipping, ſome whereof might be improved to excellent purpoſes, and a fleet might lie in them with the greateſt ſafety, and watch the motions of ſhips from the Havanna.

PORT ROYAL. The harbour, which is eleven miles by land from Spaniſh-town, and ſix by water both from thence and from Kingſton, is about three leagues broad, very deep, and perhaps one of the beſt in the world. So that 1000 ſail of the largeſt ſhips may ride in it ſafe (the hurricanes always excepted) from every wind.

KINGSTON is about 5 miles from Port-Royal by water, but not leſs than 15 by land. It is the reſidence of the moſt conſiderable merchants, whoſe ſhips load and unload here, which makes it a place of vaſt trade; and there are never leſs than two or three hundred veſſels in the bay before it. The harbour is ſpacious, and the ſhips lie land-locked; but the peninſula that covers them from the ſea, being low and narrow, they are not altogether ſafe from ſtorms.

SPANISH-TOWN, the chief city of the iſland, being an inland place, its trade is inconſiderable, yet ſeveral wealthy merchants, and moſt of the gentlemen of eſtates, have houſes in it, where they live after a very gay manner.

All ſhips bound to Jamaica from Great-Britain, or Ireland, or the plantations on the American continent, or from the coaſt of Africa, inſtead of attempting to paſs through the gulph of Florida, where the current is ſtrong againſt them, or through the ſtreight called the Windward Paſſage, which would be altogether as impracticable and hazardous, always ſhape their courſe ſo as to fall down ſo far ſouthward, till they arrive ſomewhat eaſt of the Caribbee-iſlands, in a parallel latitude with Jamaica; and for this end they generally make the iſland of Antigua, or others in that neighbourhood, from whence they alter their courſe to due weſt, and bear away with the trade-wind to Jamaica.

But when ſuch ſhips are homeward bound to Europe, or the northern colonies on the American continent, they have their choice of two courſes, *viz.* either through the Windward Paſſage, or through the gulph of Florida.

The current of this gulph is an hindrance to the paſſage of ſhips from Europe to Jamaica, and, by conſequence, it will drive them homewards, or towards Europe.

From clearing the weſt point of Jamaica to the weſt of cape St Antonio, in the iſland of Cuba, the ſhip has the advantage of the trade wind upon her ſtarboard quarter all the way,

which

which from Port-Royal, the place ſhe is ſuppoſed to ſet out from, is in all a run of about 200 leagues: but when ſhe doubles cape St Antonio, and changes her courſe to bear away for the gulph of Florida, which is in the teeth of the trade-wind, ſhe then loſes much more time and way than ſhe had gained in her quick paſſage from Jamaica to the leeward of Cuba: and, while ſhe is thus beating againſt the wind, between the coaſt of Cuba and the gulph, ſhe is in great danger from the Spaniſh guarda coſta's from the Havanna; and ſuppoſing ſhe eſcapes them, and is juſt entered the gulph, ſhe is ſtill in greater perils, from the current and coaſt of Florida.

This homeward paſſage through the gulph being ſo very precarious, there remains no other courſe but that of the Windward Paſſage.—Now the extent of this paſſage is about 160 leagues from cape Morant to the north ſide of Crooked Iſland; and, reckoning from Port Royal, 'tis above 180. The trade-winds blowing continually from eaſt to weſt, the moſt difficult part of this paſſage is the courſe from Port-Royal Point to Morant, which is directly againſt the wind, and has very often detained ſhips for a month or ſix weeks together; and, indeed, after that, many have been forced to return to Port-Royal, after ſuffering great damage.

Some ſhips that ſet out betwixt December and May, have had the good fortune to turn that point in one night's time, by taking an advantage, which does not always offer, of the trade-winds, and currents ſlackening in that ſeaſon towards the evening, and of the ſtrong breezes then riſing from the land; but this cannot be done from May to December, becauſe then the trade-winds and currents are the ſtrongeſt.

Beſides, in the intervening months, they have ſuch fiery ſea breezes, eſpecially in July, Auguſt, and September, that no ſhips ſtir out of port: therefore, the ſafeſt time for them to leave Jamaica, is obſerved to be betwixt December and May. And, even when ſhips have doubled the cape of Morant, they are expoſed to the danger of meeting with the French and Spaniſh guarda coſta's of Hiſpaniola, by being neceſſitated, for ſafety only, to ſteer as near as poſſible to that iſland, till they paſs Crooked Iſland, for fear of being drove to the leeward between Jamaica and Cuba, where it is all a flat ſhallow bottom. Nor indeed are they ſafe from theſe enemies, when they are got to the north of Crooked Iſland; for the Spaniards have, in time of peace, frequently pretended to as great a right to viſit our ſhips hereabouts, as if they were within muſquet-ſhot of Cuba, or Hiſpaniola. But, was the iſland of Cuba once poſſeſſed by Great-Britain, it would prove not only the beſt ſecurity of our navigation from Jamaica, but of the whole iſland to the Britiſh nation.

III. HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO, is the greateſt, next to Cuba, of all the Antilles Iſlands. It lies in the middle between Cuba and Jamaica, on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt, and Porto Rico on the eaſt, and is ſeparated from the laſt only by a narrow channel.

This iſland belongs partly to the Spaniards, and partly to the French. It is allowed to be the moſt fruitful, and by much the moſt pleaſant in the Weſt Indies, having vaſt foreſts of cabbage-trees, palm, elms, oaks, pines, the jenipah, caramite, acajou, and other trees taller and larger, and the fruit more lovely to the eye, and better taſted than in the other iſlands; particularly ananas, bananas, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, toronias, limes, dates, and apricots.

Here are all the fowl common to the Weſt Indies. In the ſavannahs, there are innumerable herds of black cattle; horſes enough in the French part of it to ſupply all their neighbouring colonies, beſides wild horſes and wild hogs of the breed brought over by the Spaniards.

There is ſcarce a country in the world better watered either by brooks, or navigable rivers, which are all full of fiſh, as the coaſt is of crocodiles and tortoiſes. Gold duſt is found in the ſands of their rivers, and it has many mines of gold, ſilver, and copper.

The chief general commodities of this iſland are hides, ſugar, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, ſalt, wax, honey, ambergreaſe, and various kinds of drugs, and dyeing woods.

The French here are ſaid to equal, if not out-number, the Spaniards, though both together are very ſhort of what the extent and fertility of the iſland is capable of maintaining.

Before the Spaniards here murdered, in cold blood, no leſs than three millions of the inhabitants, men, women, and children, the natives were innocent and happy in their own way. While the natives enjoyed their poſſeſſions, they cultivated their lands for them, ſupplied them with fiſh, and with ſome quantities of gold. By which the Spaniards lived much more happily, and in greater affluence than they have ever done ſince; whereas now the far greater part of what the Spaniards claim, rather than poſſeſs, is deſert, and yields them little or nothing.

As this iſland was the firſt of the Spaniards diſcoveries, ſo it was the center of their commerce in America. After their conqueſts in Peru, they ſlighted this iſland; which encouraged the French, about the middle of the laſt century, to fix themſelves on the weſt part of the iſland, where they have improved their ſettlements to ſuch a degree, and are grown ſo powerful, that they may make themſelves maſters of the whole iſland, whenever they pleaſe, and doubtleſs will, when the proper time preſents; which will render our poſſeſſion of Jamaica the more precarious.

Its principal trade conſiſted for many years in tobacco, in which there have been from 60 to 100 ſhips employed, but that ſunk to nothing in the eſtabliſhment of an excluſive farm of this commodity in France, and ſugar afterwards became the ſtaple commodity. Some think it is the beſt that is made in the Weſt-Indies.

'Twas computed in 1726, that there were 200 ſugar works here, that at an average they made annually 400 hogſheads, each of 500 weight, which did not bring leſs than 200,000 l. ſterling per ann. to the French. The indigo was reckoned to produce half as much. At preſent, 'tis thought, the trade is rather in a better than worſe condition, in regard to theſe articles, to the great injury of the Britiſh colonies, and benefit of the French.

IV. PORTO RICO, belonging to the Spaniards, is the laſt of the Great Antilles Iſlands, whoſe trade remains to be deſcribed. This iſle extends from long. 65 to 67. and from lat. 18 to 18, 40.

The ſoil is extremely fertile, abounding in fine meadows, and well ſtocked with wild cattle. Their pork is excellent, ſo is the fleſh of the kids, but their mutton is poor dry food. They have good ſhip-timber, and variety of fruit-trees, cocoas, pine-apples, mameys, guavas, papays, bananas, plaintains, palms, muſk-melons, oranges, limes, plums, figs, wild grapes, pomegranates, citrons, pimento, caſſia, fiſtulet, the ſenſitive plant, and the baſtard cinnamon, together with rice and Indian corn.

The principal commodities in which its traders deal, are ſugar, ginger, hides, cotton thread, or raw cotton, caſſia, maſtic, &c. They have alſo great quantities of ſalt, and make a conſiderable profit of their oranges and lemons, as fruit, and in ſweetmeats. They have many good veſſels, in which they trade to various parts of America.

The genius of the people, and the convenient ſituation of the iſland, would render it the moſt flouriſhing of all the Spaniſh colonies, were it not for the miſchiefs to which they are frequently liable, from great droughts, hurricanes, and the deſcents of privateers, whereby their ſea-ports have been often ruined.

The other places of any note, which lie near Porto Rico, are a cluſter of very ſmall iſlands, called the Virgin's Iſlands. The only one which deſerves our notice, is that diſtinguiſhed by the Danes iſland, St Thomas's. It is ſaid by our voyage-writers, to abound with potatoes, millet, mendioca, and moſt ſorts of fruit and herbage, particularly ſugar and tobacco, oranges, citrons, lemons, guavas, bananas, and fig-trees. They have hares and black cattle, but are furniſhed with fleſh enough from Porto Rico. They have excellent fiſh, and all ſorts of wild fowl; yet ſuch is the plenty both of people and money, that proviſions are dear. Here is a ſafe commodious harbour, which is a free port, and ſanctuary for privateers.

All the trade here is carried on by the Dutch in the name of the Danes, and is pretty conſiderable for ſo ſmall a place, particularly in time of peace, where 'tis the ſtaple for that traffic, which the French, Engliſh, Dutch, and Spaniards, dare not carry on publickly in their own iſlands. In time of war, privateers bring their prizes into this, as it were, always neutral iſland, for ſale. Many veſſels alſo trade from hence along the coaſt of Terra Firma, and always full of all ſorts of goods.

The voyage between theſe iſlands, in which there is a plentiful fiſhery, is the moſt pleaſant, ſays Father Labat, that can be made, and compares it to a paſſage through a large meadow, with groves of fine trees on each ſide.

ANTIMONY, a mineral ſubſtance, pretty much of a metallic nature, except that it is not ductile or malleable. It is found in mines of various ſorts of metals, and particularly in thoſe of ſilver and lead; which made ſome chymiſts imagine, that it contains all the principles of thoſe metals.

As it is taken from the mine, it is in ſtones of ſeveral ſizes, in figure pretty much like mineral lead, except that it is lighter and harder.

Hungary was formerly the only country where mines of antimony were found; but a great many of them have been ſince diſcovered in France, particularly in Poictou, Auvergne, and Britany.

The antimony of Britany and Poictou is the moſt valued, that of Auvergne being judged to abound more with ſulphur. There has been antimony of Hungary in cakes of 3 or 4 pounds weight, made up, as it were, of ſmall needles, interlaced together, of a yellow colour, inclining to gold, upon a white ground, as it were, of ſilver; it was of a quality ſurpaſſing all the other ſorts of antimony; but it is become ſo ſcarce, that there is none of it to be ſeen at preſent.

There is crude antimony, and prepared antimony.

Crude ANTIMONY, as it comes from the mine. But that, to which the druggiſts give that name, bears it but improperly; ſince it has been melted, and caſt into cones or needles, which are larger or ſmaller, according to the provinces from whence it comes; thoſe of the antimony of Poictou being beautiful, long,

long, broad, white, and ſhining; thoſe of Britany ſmaller, but very well purified.

Prepared ANTIMONY is that, which has paſſed through the hands of the chymiſts to be purified, who have invented many different preparations of it, and have alſo given it ſeveral names, either out of whim, or with regard to the different effects they aſcribe to it: ſuch are the following appellations. Regulus of antimony, glaſs of antimony, flowers, butter, ſaffron, oil, calx, golden ſulphur of antimony, imperial powder, crocus metallorum, rubine of Antimony, polycreſtes, emetic wine, diaphoretic antimony, powder of algaret, bezoar mineral, and many other names, which the curious may meet with in the diſpenſatories, and in the works of the chymiſts.

No remedy ever underwent a more inconſtant fate than antimony has done with regard to phyſic. It was ſcarce got out of the darkneſs of its mines, towards the 12th century, by the aſſiſtance of the monk Valentine, but the ill ſucceſs of the trial he made of it upon his own unfortunate brethren, the monks, (if the fact be not a fabulous ſtory) threw that mineral again into its former obſcurity. About 300 years after this, Paracelſus brought it a ſecond time to light, and it begun to gain reputation; when, in the year 1566, it was thunderſtruck by a decree of the parliament of Paris. In 1637, it was received by public authority, among the purgative drugs at leaſt. In 1650, a new decree cancelled that of 1566, and antimony was reſtored to its former credit. Since that time, a full liberty was granted to the doctors of phyſic to preſcribe it, with prohibition to all other perſons to uſe it without their advice. This may be ſaid to have compleated the triumph of antimony, at leaſt in France, where it meets no longer with any adverſaries, and is become, as it were, the laſt reſource in all diſtempers, which ſeem to have none left. Nicholas Lemery has publiſhed a Treatiſe of Antimony, which was printed at Paris in the year 1707, in 12mo. a commendation of which may be ſeen in the Acta Eruditorum Lipſienſ. for the year 1708, p. 122.

In general, moſt of the preparations of antimony are either emetic or diaphoretic. The regulus conſiſts chiefly, according to its phyſical mixture, 1. In a metallic vitrifiable earth. 2. In an arſenical ſubſtance. 3. In a phlogiſtic ſpirit. Theſe three ſubſtances do particularly conſtitute the form of that metallic mixture. The metallic earth is the baſis and principle of the diaphoretic virtue. The emetic and dangerous property, which the regulus, and other emetic preparations of antimony occaſion, is produced by the arſenical ſubſtance; and the phlogiſtic principle, is the metallic and ſhining appearance, both of that regulus, and of copper, iron, tin, and lead. According to the different preparations and additions, may be compoſed either moſt excellent or moſt dangerous remedies. It is with reſpect to this, as with reſpect to mercury.

The regulus of antimony is uſed by ſeveral tradeſmen, as by pewterers, letter-founders, ſilver-ſmiths, minters, and aſſayers; as alſo to make burning-glaſſes, *&c.* As to the ſeveral chymical preparations, which are very numerous, for their proceſs and manner of uſing them, the curious may conſult Stahl, Hoffman, and the excellent public lecture on antimony by the late Mr. Newmann, printed at Berlin, in the German tongue, in the year 1730.

In France they ſend into the country, by the king's order, antimonial remedies, well prepared, but often different ways, and of which they who uſe them, cannot know the ſeveral virtues. Mr Geoffroy undertook to regulate this, as much as poſſible, as the curious may ſee, in the Hiſtory of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1720 and 1734.

Upon the whole, the various preparations of antimony ſhould be uſed with the greateſt precaution, according to the preſcription of an able phyſician.

Crude Antimony pays a duty of 5 ſols per hundred weight on importation in France, and of 60 ſols prepared.

For the duty paid in England, ſee DRUGS.

Antimony is claſſed by that great phyſician and eminent chymiſt Dr Boerhaave, amongſt the ſemi-metals. It is uſed in metallurgy, and in medicine as a drug.

The method of ſmelting antimony from its native ore is as follows, viz.

APPARATUS.

1. Chuſe a melting crucible, or an earthen-pot unglazed, that may contain ſome pounds of the ore of antimony, and let it be broken into ſmall bits of the bigneſs of a hazel-nut: bore at the bottom of it a few ſmall holes, two lines in diameter: this may be eaſily done with a common wimble, or, if this cannot do by reaſon of the hardneſs of the pot, with a ſmall wedge, which muſt be moved circularly with the left hand, and mean while inceſſantly ſtruck with a hammer in the right. Let the bottom of this veſſel be received by the orifice of a ſmaller one, upon which it muſt be put, and, when the ore is put into it, let it be covered with a tile; and all the joints be ſtopt cloſe with a proper luting.

2. Put theſe veſſels upon the pavement of the hearth, and put ſtones all round them, at the diſtance of ſix inches: fill this intermediate ſpace with aſhes, ſo high as that the inferior pot be covered to the upper-brim. Then put freſh and burning coals upon it, and with a pair of hand-bellows excite the fire,

till the upper veſſel grows red-hot: take off the fire a quarter of an hour after, and, when the veſſels are grown cold, open them. You will find that the antimony has run through the holes made at the bottom of the upper veſſel, and makes in the inferior one a kind of regulus, from the proportion of the weight whereof with that of ore, you will be able to know how much may be got out of one hundred weight.

This may enable gentlemen who have eſtates in antimony, to judge of the yielding of the ore of matter fit for ſale, and conſequently to know what profit the working the ſame in large quantities will yield; provided the ſame method of operation is made uſe of in the aſſay, as in the great works. This is the way that is generally uſed to prepare antimony from the ore, either for the uſes of metallurgy, or medicine. For the former, in ſome caſes, it undergoes further methods of refining; and, in the latter, the proceſſes in regard to this mineral are very different.

The pharmaceutical method of preparing the eſſential medicaments from antimony, after its being ſmelted from the ore, is, according to the ſentiments of the ableſt chymiſts, as follows, viz.

PROCESS I.

Antimony diſſolved in aqua regia.

Take pure antimony, broke from the top of the cone; reduce it to fine powder; put a pound thereof into a low capacious glaſs veſſel, with a wide mouth; ſet the veſſel under a chimney, that carries up fumes well, and pour to it a pound and a half of aqua regia. A violent efferveſcence ariſes, a great heat, thick red fumes, and a hiſſing, all which ſoon after ceaſe. There now remains at the bottom a matter of a grey and yellow colour, moiſt, thick, pappy, which is to be dried over a gentle fire, by keeping it ſometimes ſtirred with a ſtick.

The USE.

This is called the humid calcination of antimony, whereby the foſſil, which before was neither emetic nor purgative, now acquires very violent virtues. The yellow matter incorporated amongſt this calx is the true ſulphur of antimony, which the acid not diſſolving, it is ſeparated from the other metallic part of the antimony, which diſſolves in aqua regia; whence we have both a calcination, and ſeparation in this proceſs; which is ſubſervient to the following operations.

PROCESS II.

The true ſulphur of antimony.

Take the calx of the preceding proceſs, waſh and ſhake it with water, pour off the thick into another veſſel; put on freſh, and continue thus, till the yellow lighter matter, diſperſed in the water, is ſeparated from the more ponderous metallic matter, which is to be kept apart; the ſulphureous part, which falls to the bottom, being freed from the whitiſh water, floating above it, may be thrown away. Then dry the powder by a gentle fire, and it will be true ſulphur. If ſomewhat larger pieces of antimony were put into aqua regia, and the ſolution thus performed, larger pieces of ſulphur would be obtained; becauſe the aqua regia ſeeks out and diſſolves the larger metallic parts concealed in the ſulphur, and ſo makes the maſſes of ſulphur more viſible.

The USE.

Hence it appears, how ſecretly ſulphur may lie concealed between metallic ſhoots; and how extraordinarily aqua regia can find out metal, through the body of ſulphur; and again, how unchanged the nature of ſulphur may remain. This is the ſulphur of antimony, which Helmont orders to be extracted, and which he ſays ſcarce differs from the common, which, we preſume to ſay, is a very great miſtake in that learned chymiſt, we having diſcovered eſſential different properties, which we ſhall take particular notice of under the article of SULPHUR.

We ſhall for the preſent give one inſtance, which we do not remember to have met with in any of the chymical writers, either antient or modern.

To inſtance in regard to the making of the glaſs of antimony. The common methods thereof, as given us by the learned Boerhaave, Stahl, Homberg, and all the chymiſts of the higheſt reputation, are by a tedious calcination for many hours over a gentle fire: whereas what theſe great men perform in many hours, may be performed in near as many minutes, by virtue of its own antimonial ſulphur. Thus:

PROCESS III.

Let a pound of crude antimony be melted in a common crucible, and put to it gradually the quantity of one quarter of a pound of its own ſulphur per ſe, and ſtir it as put in with a tobacco-pipe, and the whole will, as it were, inſtantly become vitrified.

The reaſon which led à priori to the trial of this proceſs, was, from obſerving that the vitrifying quality lies only in its ſulphur, when duly excited by the external heat. And by this means may be eaſily vitrified all the inferior metals, and divers minerals; and indeed, when properly applied, moſt metalline ſubſtances, excepting gold and ſilver. Theſe are properties very different from common ſulphur, in regard to metallurgy: and, with reſpect to medicine, the antimonial ſulphur is an emetic and ſudorific, whereas the common brimſtone is chiefly laxative. So that not only Helmont, but other learned chymiſts, ſeem to have miſtaken the qualities of this antimonial ſulphur, and therefore, perhaps, may have miſapplied the ſame in many caſes, in medicine as well as metallurgy.

PROCESS IV.

The regulus of antimony.

Take half a pound of clean iron filings, heat them in a crucible, gradually put thereto a pound of antimony pulverized, being firſt well dried: keep it in a ſtrong fire, ſo that it may flow thin: pour it into a cone, and, when quite cold, ſtrike off the ſcoria at top of the cone, the regulus lying at the bottom. And, if the regulus is not ſufficiently purified for the purpoſe intended, you muſt re-melt it, with a ſtrong fire, with about four ounces of pure, dry, and hot pulverized nitre; then pour it again into a cone, as before. There will thus be obtained about ſeven ounces and a half of regulus as bright as ſilver; but this is more or leſs, according to the quality of the antimony*.

* This proceſs may be performed at one operation, by throwing in the nitre gradually after the iron and antimony are well melted down. Or the regulus may be ſeparated by a competent quantity of nitre alone.

PROCESS V.

If you would obtain the ſulphur of antimony, boil the ſcoria of the preceding proceſs in common water, till it is all diſſolved; the ſolution will be almoſt ſcentleſs: drop vinegar into it, and there inſtantly riſes a very fetid ſtercoraceous odour; and the liquor that before was thin, becomes very thick. Continue the addition of more vinegar, and ſtir the matter, till nothing more precipitates. Let the matter reſt; the precipitate will gradually fall: pour off the liquor, waſh the precipitate in ſeveral waters, till it becomes perfectly inſipid; dry it gently; and this is called the golden ſulphur of antimony. It has a mild emetic virtue, *&c.* and is called the golden ſulphur, becauſe, when rubbed upon ſilver, it gives a gold colour thereto.

PROCESS VI.

A diaphoretic antimony with nitre.

Take one part of antimony, and three of nitre reduced to powder; throw them by little at a time into an ignited crucible; they will deflagrate. Continue them till all the powder is put in; with care not to add freſh, till the former is perfectly deflagrated. Keep the matter for a quarter of an hour in the fire, that the crucible may remain ignited: let all cool; there will remain a white and hard maſs, which being taken out, and reduced to powder, is the diaphoretic antimony with nitre.

This matter, thus rightly prepared, being taken in the quantity of half a drachm, ſcarce occaſions any ſenſible change, excepting that it moderately opens on account of the fixing nitre adhering thereto; whence it may prove ſerviceable in acute caſes. In this ſtate the chymiſts call it diaphoretic, and judge, that the arſenical poiſon of the antimony is fixed by a large proportion of nitre; but there was nothing emetic in the antimony before, though taken in the quantity of ſeveral drachms crude, or without any nitre; whereas an equal proportion of nitre excites this vomitive virtue.

PROCESS VII.

Common diaphoretic antimony.

Reduce the calcined antimony of the preceding proceſs to fine powder; waſh it with hot water; mix it with a ſtick; whereby the adhering fixing nitre will be diſſolved, and a white calx ſubſide by ſtanding. Pour off the ſaline liquor, add freſh water, and edulcorate the calx, ſo that no ſenſible taſte of the nitrous ſalt may remain; then dry the powder, and it will be white, inſipid, and ponderous, or the common antimonium diaphoreticum.

This is an indolent, noxious calx, ſays the learned Dr Shaw upon Boerhaave, without any activity diſcoverable by obſervation; and loſes all the virtue it had before. It only acts ſenſibly when mixed in a double proportion with purgatives, the virtues whereof it actually excites, as appears by ſure examples in the pulvis Cornachini; but I recommend it for no other uſe.

PROCESS VIII.

Nitrum antimoniacum.

Put the filtered waters of the preceding proceſs into a glaſs-urinal; evaporate to drineſs, and keep continually ſtirring; at laſt there remains a white ſaline matter, of a particular taſte, not ungrateful, nor nitrous, but mild; and this is called nitre of antimony.

Hence we ſee the nitre is changed into a new ſalt, by detonating with antimony. This ſalt is gently aperitive, and, in denſe inflammatory blood, excellently reſolves without violence: it ſucceſsfully promotes perſpiration, ſweat, and urine; hence cools and becomes ſerviceable in the ſmall-pox, meaſles, pleuriſy, and peripneumony: it is therefore wrong to throw this water away as noxious; which is commonly done.

PROCESS IX.

The fixed ſulphur of antimony.

To the filtered nitrous liquor of the preceding proceſs, whilſt it remains hot, and contained in an urinal, drop ſtrong diſtilled vinegar; the liquor will preſently turn milky, and a very white and fine powder precipitate. Shake the glaſs, continue to drop in vinegar, and ſtir the liquor till it appears no longer turbid; then let it reſt till all the powder is fallen: afterwards pouring it off into another veſſel, perfectly edulcorate the powder with water, dry it, and it will be exceedingly white and fine: this is called the fixed ſulphur of antimony.

The acetous, nitrous liquor, that floats above the precipitate, has extraordinary virtues in all acute, feveriſh diſorders, as well on account of the vinegar, as of the mild nitre, now ſet free from its ſluggiſh ſulphur; and thus the beſt things are often thrown away (as in this caſe ſays Dr Shaw) in chymiſtry. In theſe ſeveral proceſſes, we ſee how wonderfully ſulphur may be diſſolved, lie concealed, and be raiſed again in various forms and colours.

Theſe are ſome of the principal proceſſes of antimony, as they have relation to practical medicine. Whoever would ſee all the variety of medicinal preparations propoſed to be made from this mineral, may conſult the ſeveral authors beforementioned.

Of the application of antimony to metallurgy.

What the regulus of antimony is capable of performing in the way of improving metals, we may learn, ſays Dr Stahl, from Kern der Alchymie, who informs us, (1.) That the ſimple regulus being mixed or melted along with ſilver, and then evaporated, leaves the ſilver enriched with a few grains of gold; and, (2.) That the crocus metallorum, or the ſcoria, obtained in the preparation of the ſimple regulus, being edulcorated and cemented with ſilver, and laſtly melted into it, by a continued fuſion of ſeveral hours, renders the ſilver ſomething of a golden nature.

This reguline ſubſtance of antimony may likewiſe be commodiouſly employed in the extraction of the metallic ſulphurs, as they are called, and their purification from all terreſtrial heterogeneous fæces; whence the compound metallic regulus's, *viz.* the martial, the venereal, and the jovial, ariſe.

There are ſome who queſtion, whether theſe compound regulus's do actually participate of any thing from the metal wherewith they are prepared; and ſuſpect there is no more performed in this caſe, than a bare abſorption of the ſulphur abounding in the antimony, upon which the reguline part ſubſides alone. The meaning whereof is this, that the reguline ſubſtance, confuſedly intermixed with a large proportion of adhering ſulphur, is what makes antimony; and that, if this ſulphur be taken away, the remainder becomes regulus again: whence, as the ſubjects which eaſily take away this ſulphur from antimony, are alkalies, iron, copper, tin, and lead, any one or more of theſe, being added to antimony in fuſion, ought, upon that ſuppoſition, only to receive or imbibe the ſulphur, and leave the regulus pure and unmixed, collected in a metallic form at the bottom.

This opinion is overthrown, by numerous experiments and inſtances to the contrary. For example, if any ſuch metallic regulus, though made ever ſo pure, be ſimply evaporated by the blow-pipe, upon a coal, it leaves a pure grain of metal behind it, which, upon the proof, is found to be gold or ſilver. So likewiſe the martial regulus in particular, being melted in a crucible, with the addition of coals, or common ſulphur, and detained for ſome time in the fire, a ruddy powder or flowers evaporate or ſublime from it, which nearly approach to the nature of cinnabar: and, if digeſted with a menſtruum conſiſting of three parts diſtilled vinegar, and one of aqua fortis, it affords a green extraction: but nothing of this kind happens in any of the caſes, when only the ſimple regulus is employed.

This extraction of the pure metallic ſulphur deſerves to be the more attentively conſidered, becauſe Becher * expreſsly adviſes us to beware of uſing corroſive, ſaline menſtruums for

* Miner. Arenar. p. 912.

this purpoſe, as they might eaſily, together with the uſeful part of the regulus, or rather of the iron or copper, corrode and extract alſo the uſeleſs, earthy, and ſtyptic part; which, upon melting them together, would again accrete to the uſeful part, and conceal or diſguiſe it under its former ignoble veil.

But this ſeparation is excellently performed by the regulus of antimony itſelf; there being no danger that this ſhould imbibe any of the terreſtrial, ſtyptic ſubſtances. But if there be any ſuſpicion, that ſuch a compound regulus ſhould ſtill contain ſomething of the crude ſubſtance of the metal, as we uſually find to be the caſe in the martial regulus, melted in a ſtrong heat, and ſuddenly poured into the cone; or if the antimony employed contained but little ſulphur, or only ſo ſmall a proportion was uſed as could not totally corrode the metal; whence the regulus becomes porous, leſs leafy, and leſs bright and ſhining, but rather appears diſcoloured and grey, and of itſelf indiſpoſed to flow, unleſs the fire be made very intenſe; and whence alſo the venereal regulus turns ruddy or livid in the ſpace of a few days: in theſe caſes the regulus is to be beat again, mixed with its own, or a half more than its own weight of crude antimony, and thrown into a well ignited crucible, and fuſed with a very good heat, ſo as to make the matter run very thin, in which ſtate it is to be directly poured out; and, by this means, the antimony again imbibes all the crude metal that ſtill adhered to the regulus, and thus at a ſingle operation renders it highly pure and bright: an effect, which in the common way with nitre, is not obtained without a deal of trouble.

It muſt be further obſerved, that this reguline ſubſtance of antimony is convertible into various forms and ſhapes. Thus, for example, 'tis turned to a fixed, to a volatile, and to an intermediate ſubſtance, in the different preparations of diaphoretic ceruſe, bezoar, mineral flowers, mercurius vitæ, glaſs of antimony, *&c.* from all which the regulus may not only be recovered again, but any one of them may likewiſe be converted into any other, or made to travel ſucceſſively through all the various forms of the reſt.

If the regulus of antimony be reduced to fine powder, and calcined in an open veſſel, ſo as that the bottom may remain ignited for ſeveral hours, this is turned into a kind of grey powder.

And here there occurs a remarkable phænomenon, which has occaſioned much ſpeculation among the chymiſts, *viz.* that the regulus, notwithſtanding its conſtant evaporation, or ſublimation, in the form of a fine fume, is found to gain in weight; ſo that, for example, if an ounce of the powdered regulus were thus committed to calcination, it becomes, at the end of the operation, heavier by half a drachm, or a drachm, than it was at firſt; and this at the ſame time that it is contracted in its bulk. And, if the powder thus clacined be melted with a ſufficient degree of heat, it turns to a kind of purple glaſs, ſomewhat purer than that prepared from common antimony.

If a quantity of charcoal, in groſs powder, be added to this glaſs, and the method of reduction practiſed in a cloſe veſſel, with a fire of fuſion continued about an hour, more or leſs, according to the quantity of the matter; when, after this, the veſſel comes to be broken, the glaſs will be found reduced to metalline regulus again.

The uſe of antimony in regard to gold.

All the metals, except gold, are ſubject to an attenuated reſolution by antimony; ſo that, if any thing of gold be contained in the other metals, it may by this means be ſeparated from them.

The ſeparation, thus procured by antimony, Becher conſiders barely as the effect of gravity; on account whereof he thinks the antimony comes to reſolve and collect together all the metals, which, being lighter than gold, continue to float above it.

But this opinion is not without its difficulties. For, (1.) when nothing but pure gold is melted along with antimony, the antimony ſtill lets go the gold in the ſame manner; though, by the ſuppoſition, it ſhould only do this upon the mutual fuſion of other metals along with the gold. (2.) But the principal objection is, that gold will ſubſide in antimony, without mixing at all conſiderably therewith; whilſt the ſame antimony remains moſt tenaciouſly interſperſed in the bodies of all other metals, where it does not act by its bare gravity alone, as we evidently ſee in the caſe of lead: for, if lead be found along with antimony, and little plates of ſilver be thrown into the melted maſs, the lead will not, by that means, be precipitated, but rather the ſilver freely ſubſides into the regulus, which is no way touched by the antimony; whilſt the antimony detains the lead, a matter whereto it may adhere more firmly than to the ſilver.

It is however true in practice, that, when antimony is melted with iron, for inſtance, either alone, or according to the other methods beforementioned, the iron thus ſubtilly diſſolved may be brought to enrich the body of the ſilver, or to depoſit a grain or two of gold therein; as may be diſcovered by edulcorating the ſcoria, ſtratifying it with ſilver plate, and cementing them both together for ſome hours in a cloſe veſſel, the fire at length being ſo far increaſed as to make the matter flow for ſome hours longer; after which it is to be taken out, beat from its ſcoria, refined, and proved by the depart.

The reaſon of which effect proceeds hence, that the latent gold naturally contained in iron, being now very ſubtilly divided and diffuſed therewith, comes, in the courſe of this long continued fuſion and ebullition, to be a thouſand times toſſed and agitated every-where about therein, ſo as of neceſſity ſometimes to impinge upon, and unite with, the particles of the ſilver, which now make part of the mixture; and, being once lodged among them, they cannot afterwards be touched either by the antimony or the iron; ſo that the gold, thus defended, wants only for its manifeſtation to be perfectly ſeparated from the ſcoria, and collected together in its natural form, by the proper operations for that purpoſe. See the article REFINING.

But it is alſo apparent at the ſame time, that the ſcoriæ here formed by the antimony corroded with the metal, whence they come to be joined together, are lighter than the reſt of the metal which remains corroded, and floats above it in the nature of ſcum.

The theory of Becher, therefore, may very well be admitted in this ſenſe, that all the metals, but gold, being corroded by antimony, that metal, on account of its ſuperior ſpecific gravity, falls to the loweſt place.

This explanation may be further illuſtrated by the following experiment. To an ounce of melted ſilver throw two ounces of antimony; and, when they have flowed very thin together, pour them out; upon which the antimony will be found at top, together with about a dram of the ſilver it has corroded, in the form of a ſpungy ſcoria, whilſt the reſt of the ſilver that is not thus diſſolved, remains cloſe and heavy, like a regulus, at the bottom.

The ultimate refinement of gold is by fuſing it thin with thrice its own weight of antimony; wherein the antimony ſears away and imbibes the ſubſtance of all the other metals, but leaves the gold untouched; which, therefore, as the heavier body, falls like a regulus to the bottom of the melting cone. It is remarkable in this operation, that a very little portion of antimony, ſo little as can ſcarce alter the weight of the gold, adheres tenaciouſly to the ſurface thereof, and covers its native colour with a whiteneſs; whence it is commonly ſaid, that the fume of the antimony here turns the gold white. The regulus is again to be purged from this accretion by the blaſt, which will drive the little additional matter off in ſcoria, or exhalation.

Theſe are the chief uſes wherein antimony is applied in metallurgy. In what caſes it is further uſed we ſhall ſhew under their reſpective heads.

ANTIPODES, in geography, are ſuch inhabitants of the earth as live diametrically oppoſite to one another, that is, in parallels of latitude equally diſtant from the equator, but one north, the other ſouth, and under the ſame meridian, though 180°, or juſt half that meridian, diſtant from one another.

ANTISCII, in geography, are the people who live in two places oppoſite to one another, one on the north, the other on the ſouth ſide of the equator, ſo that their ſhadows at noon fall different ways, one directly oppoſite to the other.

ANTOECI, in geography, are ſuch inhabitants of the earth as dwell one againſt another in the ſame ſemicircle of the ſame meridian, and in the ſame degree of latitude, but one north, the other ſouth. Theſe have noon and midnight at the ſame time, but the ſeaſons of the year are contrary; as, when the northern antoeci have their ſummer, the ſouthern have winter, and vice verſâ. In a word, they live under the ſame meridian, but oppoſite parallels.

ANTWERP, a remarkable city in the Netherlands, on the river Schelde, and is the capital of the province, which is called the marquiſate of the holy empire.

Though the trade of this city be ſtill very conſiderable, yet it is certainly at preſent but the ſhadow of that which flouriſhed there formerly. The ſtately and famous houſe of the Eaſterlings, or, as the natives call it, of the Ooſterlingen, ſhews the extent of that trade. It was built in the year 1568, for the conveniency of the merchants coming from the Baltic. It is a ſquare ſtone building, 250 feet broad, with warehouſes on the top for dry goods, and cellars below for wet. In the middle ſtory, which has a gallery quite round the ſquare, are 300 lodging rooms for merchants. But now this noble ſtructure is turned into a horſe-barrack; the cellars ſerve for ſtables, and the rooms above for hay-lofts. The vaſt warehouſes in that building, which are perhaps the largeſt in the world, wherein each nation depoſited their merchandizes, will be an everlaſting teſtimony of that extenſive commerce, which, though divided between Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and the other trading towns of the United Provinces, is yet ſufficient to enrich them all, and give them the reputation of driving the greateſt trade in Europe.

There are kept at Antwerp ſeveral free fairs, which draw thither merchants from all parts of the world. The moſt conſiderable of theſe fairs are, that which is kept at Whitſuntide, and that which they hold between the feſtivals of St Remigius and St Bavon.

The bleaching-grounds in the neighbourhood of this city are in very great repute; and the opinion people have, that the waters of the little river Schenith are more proper than any others for the bleaching of linnen, is the reaſon why they ſend linnens thither from the remoteſt parts of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

The manufactories of wrought tapeſtries are very famous.

They alſo continue to excel here in the art of printing; and, though it be certain that this art is much decayed here ſince the famous Plantin, who had almoſt brought it to a degree of perfection, yet it is certain that the printers of Antwerp are not unworthy to be ſtiled the ſucceſſors of ſo great a man.

The moſt conſiderable manufactory eſtabliſhed at Antwerp, and which chiefly ſupports its trade, is that of thread-lace, ſo well known every where under the name of Mechlin-lace. It is hardly poſſible to imagine what vaſt quantities France and Holland buy yearly of this commodity, as well as of all ſorts of thread, the ſpinning of which is excellent in this city, and in its neighbourhood.

The merchandizes which foreigners, and eſpecially the French and the Dutch, ſend thither, and which ſell beſt, are,

All ſorts of gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs; broad cloths, and other woollen ſtuff; ſpices; pot-aſhes and lees; wines and brandies; ſalt from France, Spain, and Portugal; herrings and ſtock-fiſh; oil of olives, train oil, and ſeeds; painted linnens and muſlins; ſugars, either refined, or in powder.

There are two ſorts of money, both at Antwerp and throughout all Brabant and Flanders; or rather it is the ſame under different denominations. The one is called money of exchange, and the other current money.

According to this diſtinction, the patagon, or rixdollar, is worth 8 ſchellingen, or 48 ſtivers, exchange-money, and but 7 ſchellingen current money: and a pound groſs of 6 guilders exchange-money, makes 7 guilders current money: ſo that you muſt pay 116 guilders and $\frac{2}{3}$ current money to make 100 guilders exchange-money; and 116 pounds groſs and $\frac{2}{3}$ current money to make 100 pounds groſs exchange-money.

Merchants keep their accounts at Antwerp in pounds, ſchellings, and groots groſs Flemiſh. The pound groſs is of 20 ſchellings, and the ſchelling 12 groots; the groot is half a ſtiver.

The pound at Antwerp is about 5 per cent. lighter than that of Amſterdam and Paris: ſo that 100 pounds weight at Antwerp make but 95 and $\frac{1}{4}$ in thoſe two cities; and 100 pounds of theſe two cities make 105 pounds at Antwerp.

As for long meaſure, 100 ells at Antwerp make 101 $\frac{1}{4}$ at Amſterdam; and 100 ells of Amſterdam make 98 $\frac{62}{81}$ at Antwerp, or very near 98 $\frac{3}{4}$.

They draw from Amſterdam upon Antwerp, and from Antwerp upon Amſterdam, in pounds groſs, and in guilders, commonly at a few days date, and ſometimes at one or two uſances, or months. The exchange is often at par, and oftner ſtill at 2 or 3 per cent. loſs for Antwerp.

ANVIL, a large maſs of iron, uſed by ſeveral handicrafts, who work and forge, or hammer metals, particularly by the ſilverſmiths, blackſmiths, lockſmiths, farriers, armourers, &c. There are two ſorts of anvils: ſome are forged, and others caſt; the former are made by the blackſmiths, and the latter are caſt in the founderies. The beſt are thoſe which are hammered, and the upper part of which is ſteel.

APHRONITRE, a kind of natural ſalt-petre, gathering, like an efflorescence, on old walls, now commonly called ſalt-petre of the rock. See SALT-PETRE.

APIARY, a place where bees are kept, furniſhed with all conveniences neceſſary for that purpoſe. It ſhould be ſheltered from high winds on every ſide, and well defended from poultry, &c. whoſe dung is offenſive to bees.

APOCYNUM. See BEID.

APOTHECARY, one who practiſes the art of pharmacy, which is that part of phyſic conſiſting in the choice, the due preparation, and mixture of medicines.

This is a very genteel buſineſs, and has been in great vogue of late years, there being, as has been computed, upwards of 1000 in and about London. There are, in this profeſſion, various degrees, as to employ and extent.

Some do little elſe but make up medicines, according to the preſcription of the Diſpenſatory (compiled by the order of the College of Phyſicians, for their direction) and thoſe of particular phyſicians, beſides viſiting their patients.

Others not only prepare almoſt all kinds of medicines, as well Galenical as chemical, but likewiſe deal in drugs; with all which they ſupply their brethren in trade, and ſo become a ſort of wholeſale dealers, as well as apothecaries.

Others, again, practiſe ſurgery, man-midwifry, and, many times, even officiate as phyſicians, eſpecially in the country, and often become men of very large practice, and eminent in their way. There is another branch, alſo, many of them fall into, which is that of curing lunaticks, &c.

REMARKS.

A youth intended for this profeſſion ſhould be a pretty good ſcholar, and have a tolerable knowledge in the Latin tongue at leaſt, that he may be better able, in due time, to read ſome of the beſt authors who have wrote upon the ſubjects of botany, pharmacy, anatomy, and medicine; though it muſt be owned there are, at preſent, almoſt innumerable helps in our mother-tongue.

In London they are one of the city companies, and were firſt incorporated with the grocers in the year 1606, in the reign of King James I. but not alone till 1617.

They have a hall, where there are two fine laboratories, out of which all the ſurgeons cheſts are ſupplied with medicines for the uſe of the royal Britiſh navy.

In the year 1712, the 10th of queen Anne, an act paſſed for reviving and continuing ſeveral acts therein mentioned, one whereof was for exempting the apothecaries from ſerving the offices of conſtables and ſcavengers, and other pariſh and ward-offices, and from ſerving upon juries: which act was made perpetual in the 9th year of George I.

The apothecaries in England are obliged to make up their medicines according to the formula's preſcribed in the Diſpenſatory of the College of Phyſicians, and are under an obligation to have the medicines there enumerated always ready in their ſhops; and their ſhops are liable to be viſited by the cenſors of the college, who have it in their power to deſtroy ſuch medicines as they judge not to be good.

The apothecaries of Paris make but one corporation with the merchant-grocers, which is the ſecond of the ſix corporations of merchants.

By a regulation of the 15th of October 1631, all the apothecaries of Paris are prohibited to give any medicine to patients, unleſs by the order, and with the advice, of a regular-bred phyſician, or of a perſon approved by the faculty; nor are they to make up any preſcription, given, or drawn up, by any perſon ſtiling himſelf an empiric phyſician, or operator.

Among the good regulations made in Denmark, that which the apothecaries are obliged to obſerve is reckoned one of the beſt: for no perſon can have leave to follow that profeſſion unleſs he be approved by the college of phyſicians, and confirmed by the king himſelf. There are but two apothecaries allowed for the city of Copenhagen, and but one in every other conſiderable town. The magiſtrates, attended by the doctors of phyſic, viſit their ſhops and drugs twice or thrice a year, and thoſe drugs that are either ſtale or bad, are ſeized, and publicly thrown upon a dunghil without the city; and this is a ſtain upon the character of ſuch apothecary, as is ſcarce ever wiped off. The price of all drugs is fixed, ſo that one may, without fear of being impoſed upon, ſend even a child for any drug to an apothecary's ſhop, where nothing is ſold but what is good, and at a reaſonable price.

All drugs are ſold for ready money, and yet the apothecaries are obliged to regiſter in a book what they ſell, to whom, and by what phyſician's preſcription. So that there ſeldom happens any accident by poiſon, either accidentally, or with deſign: and, if any ſuch thing happens, it is eaſily found out, and quickly puniſhed. Preſent State of Denmark (in French) by Des Roche, 1730, tom. ix. p. 431.

In France they give, by way of contempt, the name of apothecary without ſugar, to any apothecary, or merchant, whoſe ſhop, or warehouſe, is not well furniſhed with drugs or merchandize.

They alſo ſtile ſuch exorbitant bills, or accounts, of tradeſmen, or others, upon which full one half muſt be deducted, apothecaries bills: but this is only a proverbial expreſſion.

The cuſtom of the Chineſe on this occaſion is well deſerving our notice. They have a ſtone, which is ten cubits high, erected in the public ſquares of their cities, and on this ſtone are engraved the names of all ſorts of medicines, with the price of each; and, when the poor ſtand in need of any relief from phyſic, they go to the treaſury, where they receive the price each medicine is rated at.

APPEAL, a law term, alſo pretty much uſed in trade by merchants. It ſignifies to bring a cauſe before a ſuperior and lawful court, or judge, when a perſon thinks himſelf aggrieved by the ſentence of an inferior judge, or court. There is nothing more authoriſed than appeals, both by the civil and canon law. They ſay, in traders affairs, ſuch a perſon has appealed from the ſentence of the conſuls to the parliament, if in France, or to ſome other proper court in other countries; as in England, for inſtance, there lies an appeal from the high court of chancery to the houſe of Lords. Appeals are often the reſource of thoſe whoſe cauſe is bad, when they would gain time. But then their appeal is often ſet aſide, the former ſentence confirmed, and they condemned to pay coſt. There is a limited time, within which the appeal muſt be lodged, which time being elapſed, no appeal can be lodged. That time differs according to the ſeveral courts, or juriſdictions.

APPENZEL, one of the cantons of Switzerland, has the town and abbey of St Gall on the north, the county of Tockenburg on the weſt, part of that county, and the bailiwic of Gams in the Griſons country, on the ſouth, and Rheinthal on the eaſt. It is filled with cattle, which yield great quantities of butter and cheeſe, by the ſale of which, and their linnen manufacture, the people chiefly ſubſiſt.

APPIOS, the ſeed of a plant that comes from the Levant, particularly

ticularly from the iſle of Candia. Its ſtalks are very thin, and reddiſh: its bloſſoms are pretty much like thoſe of rice. Its ſeed, which is very ſmall, is one of the commodities ſold by the wholeſale grocers in France and Holland.

Appios pays in France 50 ſols duty of importation per 200 weight.

To APPRAISE, is to rate, value, and ſet a price on goods. This is chiefly done, eſpecially in France, when any merchandize, wares, or other goods, cannot be paid for, or produced in kind, in which laſt caſe the value, according as it is appraiſed, muſt be paid.

APPRAISER, one who rates, or ſets, a value upon goods, &c. He muſt be a ſkilful and honeſt perſon. It is not a buſineſs of itſelf, but generally performed by brokers of houſehold furniture, to which ſet of men the word was formerly, and I believe ſtill is, chiefly applied; yet now alſo upholſterers, and other brokers, are employed, or even any perſon or perſons who are ſuppoſed to be ſkilled in the commodities they are to appraiſe, or ſet a value on.

They are employed in caſes of death, executions brought in upon goods, or of ſtock to be turned over from one perſon to another, or divided between copartners; and have the name of ſworn appraiſers, from their taking an oath to do juſtice between party and party.

They ſometimes appraiſe jointly, each party agreeing to have the ſame appraiſer, or appraiſers; ſometimes in oppoſition, each party chuſing one, or more, of a ſide; and ſometimes by commiſſion, or deputation, of truſtees, maſters in Chancery, &c.

Their manner is, each one for himſelf, to take an inventory of every article, and mark its value with his own private characters. When they have gone through the whole, they give their eſtimates in a groſs ſum, very rarely of particulars. When they value againſt one another, if they happen to differ much, they reconſider, and at length moſt commonly bring it to an average; and, in ſome caſes, they are obliged to take the goods at their own valuation, if the parties ſhall think proper to relinquiſh them.

At Bourdeaux they call appraiſers (appreciateurs in French) thoſe clerks of the cuſtom-houſe and of city duties, who appraiſe and rate the merchandizes which are imported or exported, in order to regulate upon what footing the duties of importation or exportation ought to be paid.

The cuſtom-houſe at Bourdeaux is called the convoy, and the office of the city duties is called comptablie. The city duties are ſuch as were granted by the French king to certain cities, either to pay their debts, or for their particular occaſions.

The office of thoſe appraiſers conſiſts in the following particulars.

1. They are obliged to keep a regiſter, or memorandum-book, marked and numbered by the director of the office, and to tranſcribe and enter into it all the declarations which are delivered from day to day at the office for receiving the city duties, without augmenting or diminiſhing any thing in them but by the expreſs order of their ſuperiors.

2. To deliver carefully as many receipts, or bills of entry, as there are articles in each declaration.

3. The merchandizes being entered and carried into the ſaid cuſtom-houſe, according to the order of thoſe receipts, or bills of entries, the appraiſers are obliged to open and viſit them, when the merchants require it, in order to know the quality and quantity of them; which being found to agree both with the declarations and the bills of entries, the appraiſers make a true eſtimate, or evaluation, of each merchandize in particular, according to the market price of them.

4. They muſt enter into their regiſter their eſtimate both of the weight and of the quality and quantity of the merchandize, as they found them by their ſearch, or viſit. And, as to thoſe merchandizes which are weighed in the cuſtom-houſe, the appraiſers expedite them upon the report of the warehouſe keeper.

5. They are obliged, after appraiſing the merchandizes, to deliver a ſecond receipt, or bill of entry, which ſerves the merchants to clear their merchandizes, either at the cuſtom-houſe, if any duty be owing there; or at the office of the city duties; as alſo what may be due for brokerage.

6. They ought to write the ſaid bills of entry upon the regiſter of importations by ſea; and, if there be grocery, they muſt alſo regiſter them in the regiſter of receipts deſigned for that purpoſe, that the merchants may pay the duties owing for them at the cuſtom-houſe, according to the printed tariff. And, with regard to the merchandizes that come from the weſtern iſles, the ſaid appraiſers are obliged to regiſter them all indiſcriminately, in a particular regiſter, as well as in the regiſter of importations, by ſea, with their appraiſed price, except ſugars, which are not regiſtered in the regiſter of importations by ſea, nor in that of the city duties, but only in a particular regiſter kept by the receiver of the cuſtom-houſe, as well as that of the weſtern iſles.

7. As for thoſe merchandizes which are not carried to the cuſtom-houſe, as deal-boards, and other timber coming by ſea, the ſaid appraiſers expedite them upon the report, and after the examination, of the ſearchers of outward-bound ſhips. And, with regard to tar, gum, pitch, train-oil, herrings, pilchards, &c. they expedite them according to the bill of lading: and, as for green or dried fiſh, the appraiſers expedite it according to the report of the clerks who were preſent at the unloading and landing of it.

8. At the end of every quarter they draw up an alphabetical liſt of all the merchandizes imported by ſea, that have been cleared at the cuſtom-houſe.

9. Finally, with regard to the merchandizes that come by land, the appraiſers have ſeveral things to obſerve, viz. as to thoſe that come from the inland country by the boats of Thouloufe, Agen, and other places, they follow the ſame rules and methods as with regard to thoſe that come by ſea, except that they do not deliver bills of entries for thoſe merchandizes, which is done by the clerks of the office of the city duties, after receiving the declarations.

As for thoſe that come by the ſtage-coaches, by carriers, by waggons, or other carriages, they clear them upon the certificates, or acquits, given by the clerks of the cuſtom-houſe offices through which they paſſed.

APPRECIATION, the eſtimate made of things by expert people, when they declare the real value, or price of them. It is commonly ſaid in France of corn, proviſions, and moveables only. Debtors are obliged to pay the things they owe, either in kind or in money, according to the appreciation, or valuation, made by knowing and experienced perſons.

APPRENTICE, a youth placed and bound with a merchant, tradeſman, &c. for a certain time, in order to learn commerce, trade, merchandizing, &c. and all that relates to them, that he may, in time, become capable to follow the profeſſion of a merchant, trader, &c.

Apprentices ſhould obſerve the ſtricteſt fidelity and ſubmiſſion to their maſters, and an inviolable ſecrecy in all their affairs. They ſhould apply themſelves diligently to obtain a knowledge in the ſeveral ſorts of merchandize wherein their maſters traffic, and to be able to judge of their ſeveral qualities, their goodneſs, and their defects; to learn whence they came, how they were manufactured; whether at home or abroad; how bought, and at what price; and whether at firſt hand, for ready money, or upon credit. And they are, alſo, perfectly to acquaint themſelves with the ſeveral weights and meaſures of their own, and other countries, reſpecting their particular branch of trade; as alſo to perfect themſelves in all accountantſhip requiſite for their employment. Moreover, it eſpecially concerns them to obſerve a civil and obliging deportment towards thoſe with whom their maſters are concerned.

Regulations of Apprentices in France.

Apprentices are obliged to finiſh the time for which they were bound with their maſter. In France children of merchants and tradeſmen are reputed to have finiſhed their apprenticeſhip, when they have actually lived till the full age of 17 years with their father or their mother following that profeſſion, art. 1. of tit. 1. of the ordonnance of 1673.

By the ſtatutes of the ſix corporations of merchants and traders at Paris, the time during which the apprentices are obliged to ſerve their maſters is differently ſettled. With hoſiers they are obliged to ſerve three years; with grocers, wax-chandlers, druggiſts, and confectioners, alſo three years: with apothecaries, who make but one corporation with the three laſt mentioned, four years: with trading jewellers three years: with ſkinners and fell-mongers four years: with cap-makers and glovers five years; and with working-jewellers eight years.

In France all apprentices to traders of either of the ſix corporations muſt be bound before a notary-public, and none can take above one apprentice at a time.

When an apprentice is a candidate to be made free, of either of one of the ſix corporations of merchants, or of ſome one of the companies of arts and trades, he muſt be of proper age. No man can be a candidate to be admitted a merchant, unleſs he be full 20 years old, and produce his indenture and the certificates of his apprenticeſhip, and of the maſters, or freemen, whom he ſerved afterwards. If the contents of thoſe certificates ſhould not be true, the aſpirant, or candidate for his freedom, is for ever excluded from being made free, and the maſter with whom he was bound, and who ſhould have given ſuch a certificate, would be condemned to pay a fine of 500 livres, and thoſe who gave the other certificates, 300 livres.

He who aſpires to the freedom muſt be examined upon the keeping of books and regiſters, with ſingle or double entries, upon bills of exchange, the rules of arithmetic, the parts of the ell, the pound, the marks upon meaſures and weights, and upon the qualities of merchandizes, as much as is requiſite for that branch of commerce which he deſigns to follow.

Private perſons and corporations are forbidden to take, or receive, from the aſpirants any preſents for their admiſſion, or any other fees, but ſuch as are ordered by the ſtatutes, under any pretence whatſoever, upon pain of a fine, which muſt not be leſs than 100 livres. The aſpirant is alſo forbidden to give any treat to any of the members, upon pain of having his admiſſion made abſolutely void.

Beſides theſe general regulations, extracted from the third, fourth, and fifth articles of the firſt title of the ordonnance of the year 1673, each of the ſix corporations of merchants has particular ſtatutes, or by-laws, for regulating the time of apprenticeſhips, and that of ſerving with maſters, or freemen, as alſo with regard to their maſter-piece of workmanſhip; but few of them are ſubject to thoſe by-laws; and, as they are not mentioned in the ordonnance, it was judged that the reader would not be diſpleaſed to meet with them in this place, that he may ſee, as it were with one view, all the obligations which thoſe lie under who aſpire to the freedom in every one of theſe corporations.

In the corporation of the draper-hoſiers, which is the firſt of thoſe ſix corporations, the aſpirants, or candidates, for the freedom are not obliged to make a maſter-piece; it is ſufficient that they have ſerved a merchant-draper three years as apprentices, and two years after their time was up, which make but five years in all.

Though the apothecaries, grocers, druggiſts, confectioners, and wax-chandlers, make but one corporation, which is the ſecond of the ſix, yet the aſpirants are obliged to different things, according to the trade they deſign to follow in that body.

They who aſpire to pharmacy, or the apothecary's trade, muſt ſerve four years as apprentices, and ſix as journeymen, with ſome maſter or freeman, 10 years in all: beſides which, they muſt be examined, and perform a maſter-piece.

As for thoſe who aſpire to be admitted druggiſts, grocers, wax-chandlers, or confectioners, they need not ſerve above three years as apprentices, and as many as journeymen, ſix years in all; nor are they obliged to make a maſter-piece.

In the corporation of wholeſale merchant mercers-jewellers, which is the third of the ſix, the aſpirants are not bound to any maſter-piece; it is enough, in order to be made free of the company, that they ſerved a merchant-mercer three years as apprentices, and three years more as journeymen.

Beſides the apprentices belonging to the ſix companies of merchants, there are alſo apprentices to all the companies of arts and trades, viz. the ſeveral mechanics, in the city and ſuburbs of Paris. They muſt all, as well as the former, be bound before a notary-public; and they are obliged, after their time is expired, to ſerve their maſters a little longer as journeymen. The time of their apprenticeſhip, as well as that of their ſerving as journeymen, differs according to the different ſtatutes of thoſe ſeveral companies. Nor is the number of apprentices a maſter may have at a time fixed, ſome trades having more, others leſs.

No apprentice can obtain his freedom, unleſs he has required, and performed, his maſter-piece of workmanſhip.

The widow of a freeman may continue to keep the apprentices who began their time under her huſband, but ſhe cannot take a new one.

In ſeveral companies, a widow who marries an apprentice makes him free of her late huſband's company.

The apprentices, in thoſe cities where there are ſworn maſters of companies, can be made free of their company at Paris, by performing a maſter-piece, after they have worked ſome time with a freeman, more or leſs, according to the ſtatutes of each company.

The reader may ſee, in the articles which treat of the ſeveral arts and trades of Paris, what difference there is among them with regard to apprentices.

Remarks.

The cuſtom of the French, in regard to apprentices, is worthy the imitation of other nations.

Their obliging them to ſerve as journeymen a number of years, after the expiration of the term of their apprenticeſhip, the more gradually qualifies them to become their own independent maſters; whereas, when a young raw fellow, juſt out of his time, commences maſter at once, and takes full poſſeſſion of his fortunes, we daily ſee them plunge themſelves into inextricable calamities; which, in all probability, they would have avoided, had they been obliged by the law to have ſerved as journeymen to their reſpective maſters a few years firſt, and by that means have been inſenſibly habituated to liberty, under their care and controul.

Wherefore, for a young man to ſerve leſs time as an apprentice to particular employments, in order to ſerve a few years afterwards as a journeyman, ſeems to be policy better calculated to preſerve youth from dangers, than the cuſtom of England, of obliging them only to be apprentices, and not journeymen at all, unleſs at their own option.

One-and-twenty years of age ſeems to be too ſoon for a young man to have the uncontroulable management of an handſome fortune in trade, eſpecially by immediately coming from a ſtate of ſervitude to that of ſelf-maſterſhip.

The commerce of a nation depending on the excellency of its manufactures, and thoſe again on the ſkill, ingenuity, and dexterity of its manufacturers and artificers of every kind; on theſe conſiderations we may preſume, that the French have made ſuch ſevere laws, to oblige their artiſts to make themſelves thorough maſters of their reſpective trades, and to exclude them from the freedom of the ſeveral corporations of arts and trade, unleſs they are capable of performing with their own hands what they call a maſter-piece of workmanſhip; that is, ſuch a piece of workmanſhip that will ſhew a young man maſter of his buſineſs; and this muſt not be done in a corner, but in the preſence of thoſe ſworn for that purpoſe.

Nor is any kind of treat, or entertainment, to be made, that might in any ſhape influence or corrupt the heads of thoſe corporations, to connive at want of ſkill, and to grant the honour of the freedom, except to thoſe only who really merit it, both by their ingenuity in the buſineſs, and by their faithful and diligent ſervitude during the time of their apprenticeſhip: ſo that, to obtain the freedom in theſe companies, is not a matter of form and expence only, but a demonſtration of true merit, and attended with great advantage to the arts and manufactures of the kingdom, as well as credit and reputation to the artiſts themſelves. It is no wonder, therefore, that by theſe, and ſuch like wiſe meaſures, the commerce of this neighbouring kingdom ſhould grow to ſuch a height within the compaſs of little more than half a century.

The national benefit of this policy will further appear, from conſidering the diſadvantage Great-Britain muſt inevitably ſuſtain in her commerce, were her manufacturers to degenerate in their ingenuity and dexterity.—This loſs is not ſoon retrievable. This would prove no leſs injurious to the kingdom than tranſporting themſelves out of it to other nations.

Notwithſtanding the apparent advantages which attend the nation from the ſkill of its artificers and manufacturers, we have no kind of public encouragement for them, either to keep them from going abroad, or to reward them for excelling at home.

It is in every one's mouth, what advantages Scotland and Ireland have reaped of late years by their infant manufactures, in the donation of ſmall premiums to rouſe and excite their manufacturers to excel. But, in England, we are vain enough to imagine that we have no improvements to make; that we have arrived at our acmé of perfection. 'Tis to be wiſhed that this ſelf-ſufficiency may not make us degenerate. To prevent which, ſome ſmall public premiums, beſtowed annually on our artiſts and manufacturers, might not a little conduce. Whatever advances in trade are made in England, muſt be done by private people, upon the ſtrength of their own ability, or the nation muſt go without them.

Though theſe ſuggeſtions are chiefly relative to the riſing generation of our manufacturers and artiſans in general, yet every man of ſenſe will naturally make the tranſition from thoſe to ranks of young people bred to trade in a different and in a ſuperior claſs: we mean ſuch as are bred merchants, wholeſale dealers, ſhop-keepers, warehouſemen, &c. for the clerks and apprentices of thoſe ſtand in as much need of being ſpurred up to excel, as thoſe of the manufacturers and mechanics.

However ſlight ſome people may make of theſe conſiderations upon apprentices, yet the breeding up our young people properly to trade, in every branch of it, ſeems a matter of the laſt conſequence to a trading nation; and may, one time or other, be found worthy ſome people's thinking of, when they are once convinced of this important truth, that traders alone are the great ſource of all their treaſures, and conſequently of all their ſplendor and magnificence.

Condition of a bond that an apprentice ſhall perform, &c.

'Whereas by indentures of apprenticeſhip, bearing date the '20th day of May now laſt paſt, Adam Aſh the younger, one 'of the ſons of the above-bounden Adam Aſh the elder, is 'become bound as an apprentice to the ſaid Bryan Buſh, in 'the trade, art, or employment of a hoſier, for the term, or 'ſpace, of ſeven years, from the day of the date thereof, as 'by the ſame indentures may appear. Now the condition of 'the above-written obligation is ſuch, that, if the ſaid Adam 'Aſh the ſon ſhall and do, from time to time, and at all 'times during his ſaid apprenticeſhip, well and truly obſerve, 'perform, fulfil, and keep, all and every the articles, covenants, clauſes, and agreements whatſoever in the ſaid recited indentures contained, and which, on his part, are to 'be obſerved, performed, fulfilled, and kept, and ſhall and 'do, from time to time, and at all times during the ſaid 'term, be faithful and juſt to the ſaid Bryan Buſh, his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, in all his the ſaid Adam 'Aſh the ſon's buying, ſelling, accounts, reckonings, receipts, payments, and all other his doings and dealings in 'any wiſe relating to the ſaid trade or employment, or the 'affairs or buſineſs of the ſame, and in all other matters and 'things wherein as an apprentice, or ſervant, he ſhall, or may, 'be employed by, or concerned for, on the behalf of, 'the ſaid Bryan Buſh, his executors, adminiſtrators, or 'aſſigns; then this preſent obligation to be void, and of none 'effect, &c.' Horſman's Precedents in Conveyancing, vol. i. p. 282.

APPRENTICESHIP, the time during which apprentices are obliged to continue with the merchants or tradeſmen with whom they are bound. Their indentures ought to be recorded in the regiſter of the company, or body, to which their

their maſters belong; and their time does not begin but from the day on which the indenture is regiſtered. No one, in France, can be admitted a tradeſman, unleſs he produces his indenture, and the certificates of his apprenticeſhip. Art. 3. of tit. 1. of the ordonnance of the year 1673.

The French give the name of apprentiſſe to a maiden, or woman, who binds herſelf for a time with a miſtreſs, before a notary-public, in order to learn her art, or trade, almoſt after the ſame manner as apprentice-boys.

British Laws relating to apprentices.

And with us it is enacted, by ſtat. 8 Ann. cap. 9. ſect. 32. that there ſhall be paid the duty of ſixpence for every pound, of every ſum of 5ol. or under, and twelve-pence for every twenty ſhillings of every ſum more than 5ol. which for five years ſhall be paid, or agreed for, in the putting out any clerk, apprentice, or ſervant, to learn any profeſſion, trade, or employment; and proportionably for greater or leſſer ſums, to be paid by the maſter or miſtreſs.

Sect. 35. The full ſum given, or agreed to be given, with an apprentice, &c. ſhall be written in words, at length, in the indenture, &c. which muſt bear date on the day it was executed, upon pain that every maſter or miſtreſs, offending in theſe particulars, ſhall, for every offence, forfeit double the ſum given, or agreed to be given; one moiety to the crown, the other, with coſts, to him who will ſue within one year after the time limited for ſuch clerk, or apprentice, to ſerve his maſter, &c. is expired.

Sect. 37. All indentures, &c. of apprenticeſhips, which ſhall be executed in any other part of Great-Britain, ſhall, within two months after they are executed, be brought either to the head office, or to ſome collector of the ſtamp duties; and the duty ſhall be paid; and, in caſe the payment ſhall be made to the receiver-general, the indenture ſhall be ſtamped; and, in caſe the payment ſhall be made to a collector, he ſhall endorſe in words, at length, a receipt of the money paid to him, and ſubſcribe his name.

Sect. 38. Every indenture ſo indorſed, if it is executed within 5o miles of London, ſhall, within three months after date, but, if executed at a greater diſtance, then within ſix months after date, be brought to the ſaid head office, where (the ſame being produced with a receipt indorſed) it ſhall be ſtamped.

Sect. 39. Indentures wherein the full ſum agreed on ſhall not be inſerted, or the duties not paid, or not ſtamped, or tendered to be ſtamped, ſhall be void, and the clerk, or apprentice, ſhall have no privilege of freedom, or uſing his trade.

Sect. 40. Money given to put out apprentices, either by pariſhes or public charities, ſhall not pay any duty.

Sect. 41. Forging the ſtamps, or any receipt for monies payable by this act, is felony, without benefit of clergy.

Sect. 43. No indenture, &c. ſhall be admitted in evidence in any ſuit to be brought by the parties thereunto, unleſs he for whom it ſhall be given in evidence firſt makes oath, that, to the beſt of his knowledge, the ſum therein mentioned was all that was paid, &c. on the behalf of the apprentice, for the benefit of the maſter, &c.

Sect. 45. Where any thing ſhall be given to a maſter, not being money, the duty ſhall be paid for the full value thereof.

AQUA FORTIS, and the ſpirit of nitre, are the ſame, and differ only in the manner of making. The former is diſtilled with vitriol and colcothar, the other with clay, bole, oil of vitriol, brick-duſt, &c.

The generality of aſſay-maſters uſe aqua fortis, as being more eaſily prepared, by reaſon that a quantity of vitriol much leſs than the terreſtrial mixture before-mentioned, and with leſs fire, ſeparates the ſpirit out of the ſame quantity of nitre.

The diſtillation of aqua fortis is performed as follows, viz.

Put vitriol into an earthen, or iron pot: if you make a fire under it, the vitriol begins to melt and ſmoak; by increaſing the fire gradually, it thickens, and aſſumes an aſh colour. Let it be ſtirred with a twig juſt before it becomes ſolid, till it be perfectly dry; but let it be taken as yet boiling out of the pot, for, if it grows cold therein, it will ſtick ſo faſt that you will hardly be able to get it out. Pound to a ſubtile powder three pounds weight of this calcined vitriol, and mix them well with four pounds of nitre well dried, and pulverized very fine. Put theſe together in a cucurbit, or retort, or an iron pot, and then put it in a furnace.

At firſt let the fire be made not much greater than is neceſſary to boil water. When the recipient grows warm, continue the ſame degree of fire, till all the phlegm is expelled, which you will know from the diminution of the heat of the recipient: increaſe the fire gradually, till you ſee a few yellow vapours ariſe. Keep up the ſame fire for an hour or two, and make it ſo ſtrong as to warm the veſſels moderately. Continue this for ſome hours, and, letting the veſſels cool, pour the liquor, now emitting reddiſh fumes, out of the recipient into a glaſs veſſel, having a glaſs ſtopple: this liquor, thus prepared, is your aqua fortis.

Remarks

On the uſe and application of aqua-fortis in divers caſes.

1. In this operation you muſt always proportion the duration of the degrees of your fire to the quantity of the matter to be diſtilled.

2. For ſecurity's ſake you muſt leave, in the cloſure of the recipient and veſſel that contains the matter to be diſtilled, a hole, which may be ſtopped and opened with a wooden peg: for, if you happen to exceed the juſt degree of fire, eſpecially in the beginning of the operation, the firſt and more ſubtile ſpirits, which are very elaſtic, come forth; the opening, therefore, of the hole may give them a paſſage, leſt the veſſels ſhould burſt, which would be very dangerous.

3. The better your nitre is refined, the better will the aqua fortis be. Avoid carefully the mixture of ſea-ſalt therewith, for the reaſon we ſhall give, when we treat of aqua regia.

4. There are many other ingredients uſed in the making of aqua fortis, ſuch as burnt allum, ſand, and the like; the reaſon whereof is, to hinder the ſpecie, which may happen not to be ſufficiently calcined, from foaming, and from breaking the veſſel with great violence. But, when theſe ſpecies are duly calcined and dried, theſe additions are quite needleſs; and, indeed, by overſwelling the maſs to be diſtilled, require veſſels of a ſize proportionable.

5. There are many other needleſs and noxious ingredients uſed by ſome in the making of aqua fortis. Theſe are blood-ſtones, unſlaked lime, plume allum, &c. all which ſhould be avoided, they making a much worſe, as well as a more expenſive aqua fortis. Water thus made, therefore, ſhould never be uſed in docimaſtical operations, before it has been accurately tried: for, aqua fortis being tainted with theſe heterogeneous matters, the major part of it conſumes away, and becomes frequently ſo fixed, that the ſtrongeſt fire is hardly able to take off any of it. Nothing ſhould be uſed beſides calcined vitriol, intimately mixt with nitre, there being no need of any thing elſe.

6. However, bole, clay, and brick-duſt do expel aqua fortis out of nitre, which then is called the ſpiritus nitri; but you muſt add four times as much of theſe, in proportion to the nitre: conſequently, this method, requiring larger veſſels and more fire, cannot be ſo profitable as without theſe ingredients.

7. As the extracted ſpirits of nitre are with difficulty condenſated into drops, eſpecially in ſultry weather, it will be proper, by reaſon of the calcined ingredients, to pour into the recipient one quarter part of pure water, or rather of the phlegm, extracted out of the aqua fortis; by which means the ſpirits will be much eaſier received.

8. Aqua fortis diſſolves and corrodes all gritty ſtones, and the ſeveral kinds of thoſe that are vitrificable, and not conſumed by fire; but it has no power on flints nor ſand.

9. It alſo diſſolves iron, copper, lead, ſilver, mercury, regulus of antimony, biſmuth, and zink; tin imperfectly; gold not at all.

10. Common aqua fortis, when poured on ſilver, generally grows troubled in the beginning of the diſſolution; and, a little after it is perfect, a precipitation of a whitiſh powder is made.

If this powder, taken by itſelf, melts in the fire with pot-aſh, you will find a regulus of ſilver collected. This ſometimes melts with difficulty in the fire, and has all the characteriſtics of calx of ſilver precipitated from aqua fortis, by oil of vitriol.

This happens, becauſe the aqua fortis has been extracted by too great and too long a fire, or becauſe too great a quantity of calcined vitriol has been uſed, or becauſe the mixture of the nitre and vitriol has not been rightly made: for, in theſe caſes, there appear, when the diſtillation draws at an end, opaque, milky, vitriolic fumes in the recipient; which phænomena ſufficiently manifeſt the cauſe of the aforeſaid precipitation. The abovementioned calx very ſeldom proves fluid in the fire; it afterwards turns into horn-ſilver, and ſhews that the impure nitre, bought for the diſtillation of the aqua fortis, was intermixed with marine ſalt, which adulteration ſhould be carefully guarded againſt.

11. As the diſſolution of ſilver, eſpecially that by which gold is ſeparated from ſilver with aqua fortis, is conſiderably hindered, and made very uncertain, by this kind of precipitation beforementioned; that part of the oil of vitriol, and of the ſpirit of ſalt, which ſpoils the aqua fortis, muſt be ſeparated; which is done in the following manner.

Pour about one thirtieth, or one fortieth, part of the aqua fortis to be purified, into a ſmall cucurbit, and over a gentle fire diſſolve ſilver in it, to ſuch a quantity as may fully ſaturate the aqua fortis. If in the beginning of the diſſolution the troubled aqua fortis looks milky, it wants purification: then paſs through a filtre the warm diſſolution, which, being clear, pour drop by drop into the reſt of the aqua fortis that is to be purified: this will become milky, as before; continue to inſtil the aqua fortis till the dropping in of the ſmalleſt drop doth

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not at all diſturb it, or render it milky. Let it reſt for ſome hours, that the precipitated calx may ſubſide; which done, again let a drop fall, and repeat it conſtantly, till at laſt the milky cloud is no longer produced by the falling of the drop. Decant the pure and limpid aqua fortis from the calx which ſubſided at the bottom, or ſtrain it gently through a four-folded filtring paper, which ought to be ſmall, leſt it ſhould break, by being over-loaded with too much of the aqua fortis. The remaining calx is ſuch as we have mentioned in remark 10, and the aqua fortis is perfectly purified for uſe.

12. Some are wont to employ common ſilver mixed with copper, or copper alone, for the precipitation of the ſpirit of marine, or vitriolic ſalt, from aqua fortis: but this does not ſucceed, when the ſpirit of marine ſalt is to be precipitated, becauſe this being mixed with aqua fortis diſſolves copper perfectly. The oil of vitriol is, indeed, expelled from the aqua fortis by means of the copper, in the form of a whitiſh duſt, but not ſo perfectly as by ſilver; otherwiſe it appears in this operation that the precipitating body adheres to that to be precipitated, and ſinks to the bottom together with it, and therefore cannot be a proper precipitator on this occaſion.

13. The beſt aqua fortis is often tinged with a greeniſh colour, occaſioned by being expoſed for ſome days to the open air, and thus deprived of its fuming red ſpirit, by pouring upon it ſome freſh ſtrong aqua fortis, ſtill emitting its fumes; or by being diluted with water.

That you may be certain this colour does not proceed from copper, pour a little of the liquor into a ſmall cucurbit, and add to it as much of an alkaline diſſolution, or ſpirit, as is ſufficient to ſaturate the acid: if there is ever ſo little copper, the colour becomes of a very dark azure, with a cloudy precipitation; becauſe the nitre has been thereby regenerated, which does not diſſolve copper ſo much as aqua fortis does: but, if there is no copper, the colour vaniſhes intirely.

14. Aqua fortis, prepared and corrected according to what has been ſaid, muſt be concentrated to a certain degree: for, if it is too weak, it either retards the diſſolution, or often does not even affect the ſilver.

If, on the contrary, it is too ſtrong, it vaniſhes into fumes which ruſh violently out of the veſſels, though ſufficiently deep, hurrying part of the ſilver along with them; but, if there is any thing of gold in the ſilver, it is corroded into a duſt, the perfect collection of which is afterwards very difficult. The firſt fault is remedied by pouring the aqua fortis into a deeper cucurbit, and by extracting the phlegm out of it, over a gentle fire, till you ſee yellowiſh fumes appear; but, to find out whether it is too ſtrong, you are to uſe the following method:

Melt together one part of gold and four parts of ſilver, of which make a plate, which you are to cut into three, or more parts; roll up each part, that it may more conveniently be introduced into a ſmall cucurbit: when rolled up, and ſlightly heated at the fire, put this ſmall plate into the ſaid cucurbit; pour upon it aqua fortis, about the triple of the weight of the metal, and put it on a gentle fire: if then the ſilver is eroded from the gold, ſo that the gold remaining retains the very ſame figure of the plate rolled up, and there appears no reddiſh duſt at the bottom of the veſſel, then the aqua fortis has the proper degree of ſtrength: but, if the diſſolution has been made with ſo much violence that the powder of the gold was eroded, or the plate almoſt broken, the aqua fortis is too ſtrong. In this caſe, you muſt dilute it with one tenth or eighth part of pure water, or rather of weaker aqua fortis, or of the phlegm that was extracted from it: which done, you muſt repeat the trial of the diſſolution of a like ſmall plate ſeveral times over, till the ſilver be diſſolved without the leaſt diminution in the gold, whereby you may be ſure of the requiſite degree of ſtrength in your aqua fortis.

15. Aqua fortis is excellent when it comes again after having been by fire expelled out of diſſolved metal, becauſe it may be almoſt intirely fetched out of it by diſtillation. In order to this, you introduce into a middle-ſized glaſs cucurbit, adapted to an alembic, with an hole in it, one pound, or one half pound, of the ſame diſſolution, and diſtil it into a large recipient, that the drops may fall one after the other, at the interval of ſome ſeconds: when the phlegm of what remains ſhall be drawn off to ſome ounces, let the like quantity of a freſh diſſolution, gently warmed, be put anew into the cucurbit, and be drawn off again; and let the pouring on of the freſh diſſolution be reiterated in the ſame manner, till it is all grown thick.

This muſt be done in a ſmall cucurbit, ſeveral times over; leſt a large veſſel being overcharged with too great a quantity of the diſſolution, ſhould burſt all of a ſudden, and the aqua fortis and metal be loſt at once. When, after the extracting of all the phlegm, yellowiſh fumes begin to appear by increaſing the fire a little, let a drachm, or half a drachm, of ſuet be added, leſt the remaining metal, being dried up, ſhould ſo ſtrongly adhere to the ſides of the veſſel as that it could not be taken off: when at laſt the maſs ſhall be quite dry, let it be put on the fire till it becomes red hot. The calx of metal which remains at the bottom of the cucurbit muſt be collected, and melted with pot-aſh, or borax.

16. When pure fine ſilver is diſſolved in proof aqua fortis, the liquor will be pellucid: but, if any allay, or copper, remain mixed with it, the ſolution will have a bluiſh, or greeniſh caſt. If this ſolution of perfectly pure ſilver be diluted with fair water, it will ſtill remain pellucid, without letting any thing precipitate. But, if any ſaline matter be contained in the water, the whole will now turn thick, or milky. The ſolution of pure ſilver, properly weakened with water occaſionally, may be commodiouſly uſed for ſtaining the ſkin, or other animal ſubſtances, black; and if white, grey, or red hair be moiſtened with it, the hair will ſoon become of a beautiful brown, or jet-black colour; for which purpoſe it may be uſed with ſafety, care being taken not to touch the ſkin therewith, for thus a blackneſs would be occaſioned, that requires many days before it goes off again; but it diſappears at length, by the ſcarf-ſkin ſcaling off, without cauſing pain, or leaving any ſore behind.

17. The ſolution of pure ſilver has an intolerable bitter taſte, though by the eye it be not diſtinguiſhable from fair water: whence we have an eminent inſtance how metals may be concealed from the ſight, or remain lodged in unſuſpected liquors, and thence be introduced inviſibly into other ſubſtances; whence the greater caution ſhould be uſed with all pretenders to the melioration and tranſmutation of metals.

18. This ſolution of ſilver is the foundation of ſeveral medicinal and chemical preparations, as the vitriol of ſilver, the lunar cauſtic, the ſilver pill, &c.

19. The ſilver is recoverable from this ſolution, barely by ſuſpending a copper-plate therein: for, copper being more eaſily diſſolved by aqua fortis than ſilver, the ſilver is therefore precipitated to the bottom, in the form of a powder, and, being waſhed and melted, comes into a metalline lump again.

20. Faſchius ſays, in treating of the ſediments of depart-waters *, that if gold, by quartation, be mixed with ſilver, and again ſeparated from it with aqua fortis, it will conſtantly be found to have increaſed its weight; which increaſe he attributes to the ſilver adhering to the gold; but it ſtill remains for experiment to decide, whether this additional weight be truly owing to the ſilver, or whether it be an increaſe of real gold. For more matter hereon ſee the articles Refining, and Gold and Silver.

* Probier-Buchlein, page 64. ed. 1678.

21. Aqua fortis is alſo uſed as an inſtrument in gilding. See the article Gilding.

It is applicable to the art of dyeing likewiſe. See the article Dyeing. The ſpirit of nitre is found to heighten and improve the rich colour of cochineal into the brightneſs of burning fire, but then its acrimony muſt be rectified with a proper application of tin, after which it neither hurts wool nor ſilk, yet retains all its brightneſs.

Aqua Secunda: it is aqua fortis which has loſt part of its diſſolving quality, after being uſed in the parting of metals.

Aqua Regia, or Aqua Regalis, or Aqua Regis, as ſome call it, is a ſtrong corroſive ſpirit, which diſſolves gold.

The method of making it is as follows, viz.

When the ſpirit of nitre is duly prepared, as under the head aqua fortis, the ſpirit of ſea-ſalt muſt alſo be prepared. See that article under Salt.

When theſe two ſpirits are mixed together, the mixture is called aqua regia. Or, to have it excellent, put into a glaſs retort aqua fortis of the beſt kind, well proved, and of the requiſite ſtrength, according to what has been ſaid under aqua fortis; add to it half the quantity of common ſalt, perfectly dry, and pulverized; in a ſand-bath force up the ſpirits, firſt by a ſlow, and afterwards by a ſtrong diſtillation. Or, if you put into aqua fortis one quarter part of ſalt-ammoniac, it immediately aſſumes a yellow colour, and emits abundantly the white vapours of the ſpirits of ſalt, which ſoon produces true aqua regia.

However, you are to take care, in this ſecond method, that the veſſel containing the mixture be not preſently ſhut up cloſe, for in that caſe it would burſt. Beſides, this mixture muſt be made under the chimney, leſt the ſuffocating ſpirits ſhould ſpread all over, and fill the laboratory, and prove injurious to the operators.

Aqua regia diſſolves perfectly iron, copper, tin, gold, mercury, regulus of antimony, biſmuth, and zink: it diſſolves even lead more than ſpirit of ſalt does; it becomes, however, ſomewhat troubled in the operation.

If it has its requiſite degree of ſtrength, it does not diſſolve ſilver; but, if you have put into the mixture a quantity of ſalt-ammoniac, or of marine ſalt, or of ſpirit of common ſalt, not ſufficient, it then corrodes ſilver, nay, it even diſſolves it in part, this aqua regia being imperfect.

Remarks.

The reaſon is then ſelf-evident why, in the ſeparation of ſilver and gold by aqua regia, it is better to uſe a quantity of ſpirit of ſalt, or of marine ſalt, or of ſalt-ammoniac, exceeding,

than

than one ſhort, of the right meaſure: nor is it leſs evident thence, why an exact ſeparation of ſilver and gold is better effected with aqua fortis than with aqua regia; as the former never corrodes gold, whereas the latter corrodes ſilver frequently.

The ſolution of gold by aqua regia is yellow, or gold-coloured, and tinges the ſkin purple, as we have obſerved, under the article aqua fortis, that the ſolution of ſilver ſtains it black. It may be further added, that, if the ſolution of gold be precipitated with ſalt of tartar, and the powder be carefully dried, it makes the aurum fulminans, ſo called from the violent exploſion it goes off with, when heated beyond a certain degree. See the article GOLD.

If gold be diſſolved in aqua regia, made by diſtillation from equal parts of ſalt-ammoniac and nitre, either with or without powdered brick, or calcined flints, and the ſolution be digeſted, and ſeveral times cohobated, with the addition of freſh liquor, Becher aſſures us *, the gold will thus become totally volatile.

* Roſet. Chymic. exp. 2. page 192.

A ſimilar, or ſtill more potent menſtruum, is given us by Caſſius †; who, mixing pure nitre with oil of vitriol, thence diſtils a ſpirit, and, obtaining another in the ſame manner from common ſalt, he joins the two ſpirits together. In this ſpecies of aqua regia he diſſolves gold, then draws off the menſtruum, till a melaginous ſubſtance remains behind, to which he again adds as much of the aqua regia as makes up the former quantity; then again abſtracts, and ſo repeats this cohobation thrice. Laſtly, he mixes, along with the remaining melaginous matter, twice its weight of well-dephlegmed oil of vitriol, and, by diſtilling it in a ſtrong heat of ſand, there aſcend, as he expreſſes it, moſt elegant rubies; which expreſſion is not ſo extravagant as it may appear: for Kunkel ‡ alſo tells us, that, by pouring a little oil of vitriol into a ſolution of gold, and diſtilling it over with a ſtrong fire at laſt, a portion of the gold will not only aſcend in the form of red drops, but alſo ſublime to the top of the cucurbit, in the appearance of feathers, or flowers, tinged of a moſt beautiful red: but, if theſe flowers are touched by the open air, they again run into a yellow-coloured liquor.

† And. Caſſ. Tractat. de Auro, pag. 101.
‡ Contra non entia Chymic. non-ens. 13. p. 105. See alſo Boyle's Abridgment, vol. i. p. 458, 459, &c.

The ſame Caſſius § likewiſe advances a quicker method of volatilizing gold, by means of the ſmoaking ſpirit ‖, which in the ſpace of an hour, ſublimes it into yellow flowers. In order to this, he evaporates a ſolution of gold made with aqua regia, till it leaves only a little purple cake behind; upon this he pours the ſmoaking ſpirit: then, clapping the head upon the cucurbit, he diſtils in hot ſand; and, as ſoon as ever the matter comes to be agitated by the heat, the ſmoaking ſpirit very impetuouſly carries up the particles of the gold, and ſublimes along with them into yellow round flowers.

§ Caſſ. de Auro, pag. 101, 102.
‖ See pag. 218, 219.

There are certain other powders, or crocuſſes, prepared from gold, called croci ſolis, being principally of three different colours, and having four different uſes.

The firſt is a black, or duſky powder, that ſerves for extemporaneous gilding. The ſecond is of a ſaffron colour, being made with aqua regia by exhalation, commonly called the calx of gold, and ſerving for various purpoſes of amalgamations and extractions; but becomes the third, when made with aqua regia by precipitation: 'tis of a yellow colour, and called aurum fulminans, which is of uſe in medicine: and the fourth is a purple powder, made of the aurum fulminans.

The manner of preparing the firſt is this: having made a ſolution of gold in five or ſix times its quantity of common aqua regia, let clean linnen cloths be dipped therein, and dried, continuing, or repeating, the operation till all is ſoaked up. Then put the cloths into a little crucible, and burn them with a ſmall and gentle ignition, and keep the remaining matter for uſe, under the form of a fine black powder; a little of which being taken up with a wet cork, and rubbed upon a plate of ſilver, will immediately gild over the metal; though it muſt be obſerved, that more gold is conſumed in this way than in the common one of gilding by amalgam. See the article GILDING.

The ſecond, or ſaffron-coloured calx of gold, is made by diſtilling, or evaporating to dryneſs, a ſolution of the metal made in aqua regia; the fire being at laſt increaſed ſo as gently to ignite the remaining matter.

The third, or yellow calx of gold, is prepared by gently pouring oil of tartar per deliquium into a ſolution of the metal made with ſuch aqua regia as contains ſalt-ammoniac, by which means the gold is precipitated in the form of a yellow powder. After the liquor, therefore, has ſtood a proper time to ſubſide, the clear part thereof that floats above the powder is decanted, and the ſediment ſeveral times edulcorated with hot water, and at laſt permitted to dry with a very ſoft and gentle heat.

If a little of this powder be laid upon an iron, or any other metalline plate, placed over a candle, or a parcel of burning coals, it takes fire, and goes off with a very ſmart report, and ſo ſtrong an impetus, as to ſtrike a remarkable cavity in the plate. From which phænomenon ſome have imagined that this powder had a tendency, contrary to that of fire, downwards, though, in reality, the exploſion is made quaquaverſum, or in all dimenſions alike *.

* See Boyle's Abridgment, vol. ii. page 519; and Memoires de l'Acad. de Scienc. an. 1719.

The fourth is made by mixing, or gently grinding, common ſulphur, or the flowers of it, along with this aurum fulminans, and afterwards melting the mixture with a ſoft heat, which at laſt is to be ſo far increaſed, as to ſet on fire, and burn out the ſulphur, whence a purple powder will be left behind.

AQUA SIMPLEX, or ſimple water, is aqua fortis that has been diſtilled, and has nothing left but phlegm. It is uſed in the mint, and by ſilverſmiths, in order to begin to ſoften the grains of ſilver.

AQUA EXTINCTA, or extinguiſhed water, is aqua fortis into which ſome river water has been poured, in order to qualify it, and render it leſs corroſive. Its uſe is to get the ſilver from the aqua fortis that ſerved to part gold from it.

AQUA MARINA, a precious ſtone found along ſome parts of the coaſt of the ocean. It is of a pretty beautiful ſea-green, which it is thought to acquire by being toſſed up and down on the ſand by the tide's ebbing and flowing. It is almoſt as hard as the oriental amethyſt. See AMETHYST.

AQUA VITÆ, is commonly underſtood of what is otherwiſe called brandy, or ſpirit of wine, either ſimple, or prepared with aromatics.

Some, however, diſtinguiſh between them, appropriating the term brandy to what is drawn from wine, or the grape, and aqua vitæ to that drawn after the ſame manner from malt, &c.

ARABIA, is bounded on the eaſt by the Arabian, or Perſian gulph, and part of the Arabian Sea; on the weſt by the Red Sea; on the north by Paleſtine and Syria Propria; and, on the ſouth, by part of the main ocean.

The whole country is by the moderns, as it was by the ancients, divided into

I. ARABIA DESERTA, or DESERT.
II. ARABIA PETRÆA, or STONY.
III. ARABIA FOELIX, or HAPPY.

The product of Arabia is aloes, caſſia, ſpikenard, frankincenſe, myrrh, manna, and other valuable gums, cinnamon, pepper, cardamum, dates, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty: and in their ſeas they have a great quantity of the beſt coral and pearls. The people here have no ſettled habitations, except on the ſea-coaſts, where their cities and towns are more regularly built and inhabited, and more given to traffic. Some of them, near to Syria, are a little more orderly than the reſt, and get a living by making of pot-aſh.

Though the far greater part of the nation live in a wild ſavage manner, and addict themſelves to plunder, yet there are many of them, eſpecially ſuch as live in towns, that apply themſelves to trades and commerce, and to arts and ſciences, in which they generally excel. The Iſhmaelites had formerly ſpread themſelves over moſt part of Arabia, and had fallen very early into the way of trading into Egypt, and carrying thither ſpices, balm, frankincenſe, myrrh, opium, and other rich commodities; and theſe are likewiſe obſerved to have gone in troops, or caravans, and to have uſed camels for their carriage, as the merchants do at this time of day. But, as there was but a ſmall number of them that carried on any ſuch trade, ſo the reſt lived, like ſome of the preſent Arabs, upon plunder and rapine, and were, like them, a vagabond race of men.

Having premiſed thus much of Arabia in general, we ſhall now ſpeak of it more diſtinctly, with reſpect to its threefold diviſion.

I. ARABIA DESERTA, according to the modern geography, is bounded on the eaſt by the province of Diarbeck, or Meſopotamia, and the Perſian territory of Hierak; on the weſt by Paleſtine, or Sowrieal, Souriſtan, and Arabia Petræa; on the north by the river Farat, or Euphrates, which parts it from Diarbeck, and by Palmyrene, or part of Syria; and, on the ſouth, by Arabia Fœlix, from which it is divided by a long chain of mountains. This is properly enough called the Deſert, it being almoſt every-where interſected by high barren mountains, many of its planes being nothing but great ſands and heaths, through which thoſe that travel muſt not only carry proviſions, but ſteer by the ſtars and mariner's compaſs. Guiland Melchior, who had gone through ſome of them, tells us that there are neither men, beaſts, birds, or trees, graſs, or paſture to be ſeen, or any thing but vaſt rolling ſands and craggy mountains: but that the lands that lie on the eaſt ſide along the Euphrates afford both plants and food for the inhabitants of divers cities and towns ſeated in that part. There are, likewiſe, ſome planes and vallies, that feed a great number of ſheep and goats, and other ſuch ſmall cattle which love to browſe upon ſuch dry lands.

The whole Arabia Deſerta is divided into three principalities, viz.

1. ANNA, whoſe chief cities are, Anna, on the Euphrates, the capital, Meſcheid-Urſin, Sumiſcabac, Thema, Anna on the Aſtan, Balſora, and Tangia.
2. ARGIA, whoſe chief towns are, Argia, the capital, Faraa, Maaden, Thaalabah, Aladi Dhath-Aliantin.
3. CHAVABEDA, whoſe chief towns are, Chavabedah, Tangia, Merah, Megiarah.

Anna, was formerly a famed mart-town, but now not much frequented. It ſtands on the river Euphrates, in a fruitful and pleaſant ſoil, and hath but two ſtreets, which are divided thereby: that on the Meſopotamian ſide is about two miles long, but thinly peopled, and by none but tradeſmen and journeymen; that of the oppoſite ſide is above ſix miles in length, and it is there that the principal inhabitants of the city dwell. Every houſe hath ſome ground belonging to it, and theſe grounds are loaded with noble fruit trees, as lemons, oranges, citrons, quinces, figs, dates, pomegranates, olives, &c. very large, and in great plenty. Some of the flat grounds are ſown with corn, and other grain, which yield likewiſe a conſiderable crop. This city is one of the thoroughfares through which the caravans muſt paſs that go to and from Aleppo, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Bagdad, &c. It is tributary to the Turk, and it is to him that all the merchants pay cuſtom for the commodities they carry through it.

REMARKS.

Balſora, was once famed for a market-place, ſtill ſtanding, to which all the Arabian merchants for a good way about uſed to reſort, as to an exchange, which made trade to flouriſh. The prince of Balſora gives full liberty to all nations to come and trade to this capital, where they are ſo civilly uſed, and ſo good an order kept, that one may go ſafe through the ſtreets at all hours of the night. The Dutch bring hither their ſpices, and the Engliſh ſome pepper and cloves; but the Portugueze trade is quite aboliſhed, and the Auguſtine friers that were ſettled there have been obliged to go off. The Indians bring hither alſo ſeveral of their commodities, and one may meet here merchants from all parts of Turky, Egypt, &c. to buy the Indian commodities that are brought to the place, and which they convey to their reſpective marts on young camels backs, which are alſo bought here. Some are carried up the Tigris, but they go but ſlowly, becauſe towed by men againſt a rapid ſtream, who cannot go above 7 or 8 miles a day, nor move at all, when the wind is contrary. The cuſtoms paid at this place amount to almoſt 5 per cent. The prince of it, who is tributary to the Turk, hath his chief revenue from the exchange of money, for the horſes and camels ſold there, but chiefly from his palm-trees, of which he hath a plantation reaching almoſt 90 miles in length, and no ſoul dares touch a date of them till they have paid him a certain cuſtom. The horſes which are bred here are in great requeſt, and ſell at a vaſt rate. The income of the prince, from the forementioned branches of money, horſes, camels, and dates, is ſo great, that he is able to lay up 3,000,000 of livres every year, all the other charges of his tribute and government defrayed.

Balſora, hath been under the Turks ever ſince ann. 1668. and, like all other cities tributary to that dominion, is governed by a cadi, who is appointed by the prince. There are in it three ſorts of Chriſtians eſtabliſhed, viz. Jacobites, Neſtorians, and Armenians: but others of all ſorts are permitted to trade here. It ſwarms with veſſels from all nations of Aſia and Europe; the Engliſh and Dutch have their factories here, which are very conſiderable, and maintained by their Eaſt-India company to carry on their commerce with China, Japan, and other parts of India, and for the diſpatch of their letters from all parts into England and Holland by the way of Damaſcus and Aleppo; and theſe are carried by Arabs hired for the purpoſe, who are very ſwift of foot.

The Portugueze have likewiſe a factor here, but he hath but little to do, ſince their trade has dwindled away. Moſt of the commerce is carried on by Armenians, Indians, and Perſians; and the caravan of it is one of thoſe, which brings all the richeſt merchandizes from India as well as Europe. What ſtill increaſes its trade and opulence is, that the Perſians, in their caravans or pilgrimages to Mecca, take this city in their way, and not only pay conſiderable duties to the government, but exchange many rich commodities here, which they bring with them for others they carry off in their return. But there is among others one great abuſe, which is yet winked at both by the Porte, and the baſha, or prince, becauſe it brings a conſiderable profit; and that is, the baſeneſs of the money coined here, which, being loaded with greater alloy than that of other nations, is exchanged by the merchants at a great diſadvantage.

The principality of ARGIA, and

The principality of CHAVABEDA, are in all reſpects unknown to us, but in the Arabian tables.

II. ARABIA PETRÆA, the moſt weſtern of all the three Arabias, is now called Das-lik Arabiſtin by the Turks, and Barraah Arabiſtan by the natives, and by others Bathalabah, but moſt commonly the beglebergate of Boſra, ſo named from that capital. It is bounded on the north by Syria and Paleſtine, on the eaſt by Arabia Deſerta laſt deſcribed, and part of Arabia Fœlix, which likewiſe bounds it on the ſouth; and on the weſt by the Red Sea and the iſthmus of Suez or Egypt. The northern part is poorly inhabited and full of barren mountains, and is under the Turks in the beglebergate of Cairo; but the ſouth is both fertile and well peopled, and governed by its own princes, except ſome places along the coaſt. It is alſo more frequented on account of trade. Though in moſt reſpects it much reſembles the Deſerta laſt deſcribed for its ſtony, ſandy, and barren grounds, yet it yields in ſome parts ſufficient nouriſhment for cattle, whoſe milk and camel's fleſh is the chief food of its inhabitants: but there are ſome others which are quite uninhabited, and impaſſable.

Shur, now called El Torre, hath a good harbour, and about 400 houſes inhabited by ſome Chriſtian merchants, Jews, and Moors. Goods are here unladen to be carried by land to Suez, on the iſthmus, 120 miles north-weſt at the end of the weſt gulph, which is not navigable for large veſſels any farther than Tor, by reaſon of the rocks. Near this place is the garden, which they ſay Moſes calls Elim, which is planted with palm-trees, and the monks make ſome tolerable profit of the dates, which are the beſt in that country.

In the way from Tor, or Morah, to mount Sinai, the vallies abound with caſſia-trees, which produce the frankincenſe. Among other trees that grow on theſe mountains, there is a ſort which bears a kind of wool like cotton, though neither ſo fine nor ſo white.

III. ARABIA FOELIX, by far the largeſt and moſt conſiderable of the three provinces, is by the inhabitants called Yeman, Yaman, and Hayaman, from one of the largeſt diſtricts in it, which hath given name to all the reſt. It hath had the title of Fœlix, from its extraordinary fertility and conſtant verdure; but was anciently called Saba, Sabea, and Seba, from Seba the ſon of Cuſh, the grandſon of Ham, who was properly the founder of a city of that name, anciently celebrated for its opulence, and eſpecially its plenty of gold and ſilver. The antients were not content to give it the title of Happy, but added that of Sacred to it, on account of its fine aromatic gums and fragrant woods, which were uſed in ſacrifices, ſuch as frankincenſe, myrrh, aloes, nard, cinnamon, caſſia, cedar, and other odoriferous woods, which are here in ſuch plenty, that the natives uſe them for common fuel. And indeed, if we were to judge of this Arabia by what the antients have launched out in its praiſe, we ſhould imagine it the richeſt and moſt delightful land in the whole world.

According to them, it produced not only all the fine gums and plants we have already mentioned, beſides an infinite variety of precious drugs, medicinal ſhrubs, herbs, &c. but likewiſe abundance of gold and ſilver, beſides baſer metals and minerals; diamonds, rubies, ſardonix, and a vaſt number of other precious ſtones, of exquiſite beauty and variety of colours. (Pliny.)

The ſea likewiſe furniſhed it with the greateſt quantity of ſhells and richeſt pearls. It likewiſe exceeded all others in the fertility of its ſoil, and its vaſt produce of corn, wine, oil, and the moſt exquiſite fruits and ſpices of all ſorts. Corn was there ſown twice a year, and yielded a prodigious increaſe (Strabo) and ſo did every thing elſe in proportion. It had a vaſt number of rich and opulent cities, beſides towns and villages, and was reckoned the moſt populous province in all Aſia. What is ſaid of the trading towns, might indeed be true then, but is quite altered ſince. The Red Sea was very much frequented by merchant-ſhips, before the Cape of Good Hope, and the paſſage by it to the Indies were found out; and Arabia was the market where all the commodities brought from India, China, and all the eaſtern iſlands, were ſold to the merchants of Egypt and Barbary, and brought by the latter over land to Cairo, and other ports in the Mediterranean, whither the Engliſh, Italians, and other European nations came to take them off their hands.

But, now the goods from India and Perſia are brought to us directly by ſea, the commodities of Arabia are become leſs uſeful, and our commerce with it conſequently is conſiderably decreaſed. If the account which the ancient writers give of it be true, it ſufficiently ſhews how ſurpriſingly it muſt have been altered, ſince they wrote; for, at this time, nothing like that ſo much exaggerated fecundity, much leſs in that great number of cities and inhabitants, appears, except in ſome few ſpots here and there, which bear but a very ſmall proportion with the reſt; the midland being either ſandy or mountainous, all dry and barren; ſo that the ſea-coaſts, and the lands along the banks of the rivers, are the only places that deſerve the name of fertile or happy, except where put into the ſcale with the deſert and ſtony.

In this reſpect indeed, it may well enough deſerve thoſe titles, if it were but for its fine ſpices, and odoriferous plants, and more eſpecially for its frankincenſe, which is peculiar to it, and found in great abundance almoſt every-where in it. To this we may add the coffee-trees, which we are told (Atlas Geograph.) are to be found only in three or four diſtricts of the province of Yemen, properly ſo called, and which grow in the mountainous parts of it.

It

It likewiſe produces abundance of fine fruits, and enjoys a conſtant verdure all the year round; but, even in this noble province, ſome parts of it are almoſt as barren as the Petræa or Deſerta, and produce nothing for 30 or 40 miles together, eſpecially where it runs contiguous to the Red Sea.

Arabia Fœlix, is now by moſt modern geographers divided into 13 provinces or diſtricts, ſome ſtiled kingdoms, others principalities, as follow:

The principalities of 1. Baharein, 2. Hagiaz, or Higiaz, and 3. Jemama, 4. The kingdoms of Adan or Mocha, 5. Of Seger or Alibinali, 6. Aman, Ziriſden, or Oman, 7. Fartach, 8. Yemen, 9. Maſcalat, 10. Ormus, 11. Xael, or Hadramut, 12. Zibith, 13. Territory of Tehaman.

But we ſhall, for the greater conveniency of our readers, divide theſe territories into maritime and inland.

On the ſea-coaſt are theſe that follow.

1. The kingdom or principality of Mecca.
2. The maritime Tehamah al Dhafar.
3. The principality of Zibith, Zebeth, Zaba, or Saba.
4. Of Mocha, or kingdom of Aden.
5. Of Xael, or kingdom of Hadramut.
6. Seger, or Alibanali.
7. Yemen principality.
8. Vodane.
9. Maſcalat.
10. Barhaim.

In the inland are the principalities or kingdoms of

1. Jemamam.
2. Haggiaz, or Hagiaz, or Higiaz.
3. Tehama.
4. Fartach.
5. Oman.

Remarks.

To theſe we might add the kingdom of Ormus, which formerly had ſome large territories on the Terra Firma; but as it has been long ſince conquered by the Perſians, the kingdom wholly deſtroyed, and the iſland now become quite inconſiderable, from which it took its name, we ſhall ſpeak of this latter among the iſlands on this coaſt, according to its preſent ſtate. But as we have made it a conſtant rule to range the conquered dominions under the heads to which they originally belonged, and the main part of the Ormian kingdom being in this Arabia, we ſhall now give a tranſient account thereof before we enter into the reſt, that we may avoid breaking the thread and order in which we have marſhalled them above; and we are the more induced to give a ſhort deſcription of that monarchy, as both our Engliſh and other European nations have formerly had ſome conſiderable intereſt in it.

Seyladin was the 26th monarch of it, when the Portugueze in 1507 ſeized on it, and made a ſettlement there. At this time we had the following account. The natural genius of the Ormians is a mixture of the Perſic and Arabian. They are abundantly ſupplied with all kinds of neceſſaries by their neighbours, and by the merchants that come thither from Arabia, Turky, Perſia, and India, but the greateſt part comes from Armenia, Perſia, and Venice; theſe laſt being extremely fond of the precious ſtones which are brought thither from India, and which they convey from Ormus to Venice by land. Beſides, there are commonly ſold great quantities of carpets from Perſia, Dias, Coracou, &c. Turky camblets, Arabian herbs and medicinal drugs, particularly manna, myrrh, frankincenſe, ſandragan, &c. fine horſes from the province of Bahraim, pearls from that of Maſcalat, and ſeveral ſorts of dried raiſins; all which are brought to Ormus by two cafilo's of caravans of merchants which come hither from Aleppo, and paſs through Tripoli, which is about three days journey from this iſland, and who exchange them for others that are brought thither from other parts of the world; all which traffic brings an extraordinary gain to the governor of it. But the Portugueze were after driven out by Schach Abbas king of Perſia, by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh, who had ſome conſiderable immunities granted them as a reward, and among others one half of the cuſtoms of Gambroon, which yielded them about 40,000l. a year for 50 years. But, in the wars with the Great Mogul, the company ſold it, reſerving only 3000 l. a year.

1. The principality of Mecca, is bounded on the north by Arabia Petræa, and Teham or Tabam on the ſouth, its eaſtern extent unknown, and the Red Sea on the weſt.

The traffic in Mecca conſiſts in religious relics, which the pilgrims buy at Eaſter, when there is likewiſe a great fair kept, in which the richeſt merchandizes of the Indies, Perſia, &c. are expoſed to ſale. The vaults of the moſques, and the ſhops round them, are filled with a prodigious quantity of the richeſt commodities, particularly precious ſtones, and ſcented, and other aromatic powders; and, at all ſuch ſeaſons, even the caves in the adjacent mountains are turned into ſhops.

Jodda, Gioddah, Gidda, Guidda, Geda, and Zieden, is a noted ſea-port, where the Turkiſh gallies, which are wont to winter at Suez, at the bottom of the Arabic gulph, come to diſembark the goods which they bring from Egypt, Syria, &c. and

to take in new ones, ſuch as leather, eſpecially the Morocco, coffee, gums, and other drugs from Arabia. It is likewiſe the ſtaple of the caravans, which go by ſea from Gaid-hab, a city in Egypt, to Mecca. The Chriſtians are not ſuffered to ſettle in it, by reaſon of its nearneſs to Mecca, but yet are permitted to drive a conſiderable commerce with it, it being the place where the ſhips that come from the Eaſt-Indies are wont to ſtop. The Porte keeps about 30 veſſels on theſe ſeas, to tranſport the merchandiſes that come from thence, and which, though large enough to carry between 90 and 100 guns, are yet without any. The great reſort of ſhips and other paſſengers to this place, make every thing very dear in it, even water, which is brought hither from a ſpring 12 miles off, and ſells for three-pence per pint.

2. Maritime Tehamah, or Dhafar. This territory hath the principality of Mecca on the north, the kingdom of Mocha on the ſouth, the Red Sea on the weſt, and Yemen Proper on the eaſt. The territory of Dhafar has ſeveral ſorts of fruits, that are not elſewhere found; ſuch as thoſe eſpecially, which are called the nargil and tambul; which are, according to d'Herbelot, the cocoa and betel. Beſides theſe, we are told, that frankincenſe is peculiar to this territory and province.

3. The principality of Zibet, Zibith, or Zaba, has the Red Sea on the weſt, Tehamah, or Dhafar on the north, Mocha on the ſouth, and Yemen on the eaſt. This country is remarkably rich in balm, which is reckoned ſome of the beſt in Arabia; as alſo in manna, myrrh, caſſia, and other rich drugs, eſpecially frankincenſe. It is gathered in ſpring and autumn, and is ſold to all nations.

Zibet, is rich, populous, and the greateſt mart in the world for frankincenſe, myrrh, aloes, and other precious drugs, gums, &c. of this country. The neareſt port where the veſſels, which come from other parts of Arabia, Ethiopia, and India, can come in either paſſage, is near the fortreſs of Galafsca, or Chalafsca, which is about 40 or 50 miles from Zibet: however, that hinders not its being a city of great commerce. At Galafsca is one of the moſt conſiderable ports on the Red Sea, ſince we find in both of them, not only all the drugs, and other fine commodities from the Indies, but likewiſe ſome of the firſt china-ware brought from thence. Zibet was once the center of the trade of Ethiopia, Egypt, and China; and all agree, that it drives ſtill a good trade in ſugar, ſpice, and a variety of fruits.

4. The kingdom of Mocha is bounded on the north by Tahamah, or Zibet; by the ſtreights of Babel-mandel, which is the mouth of the Red-Sea, on the ſouth; by the ſame ſea on the weſt, and the principality of Hadramut on the eaſt. This country abounds with manna, myrrh, frankincenſe, caſſia, balm, and gums of ſeveral ſorts, which are ſold here very cheap. Mocha is a large and populous city, and a ſpacious and commodious port ſeated at the entrance of the Red Sea, and a very conſiderable trading place; of which we have this account from the merchants that trade annually between it and the Eaſt-Indies. Numerous caravans arrive here annually from Turky and Egypt, as likewiſe the great ſhip Manſouri, ſent hither by the Sultan, which arrives in September, and brings with it a vaſt cargo of the richeſt European merchandizes, and carries back the return in ſpices, callico, ſilk, and other India goods. The ſhips that uſed to unlade at Aden, do likewiſe come hither to meet the caravans; all which muſt needs render the place exceeding populous, as in fact it is; at leaſt one half of the year, from March to September, which is the time of trade. The chief commodity our ſhips fetch from thence, is coffee, which grows in the neighbouring country, and is the beſt to be met with in theſe parts.

Aden, is yet a conſiderable trading port, but its vaſt traffic hath been in a great meaſure removed to Mocha. 'Till then it was a place of great reſort, and was eſteemed one of the faireſt and wealthieſt cities of Arabia, being the center of commerce between the eaſt and weſt, the Perſian gulph and the Red Sea.

5. The principality of Xael, has Mocha and Aden on the weſt, the Arabic ſea on the ſouth, the mountains of Yemen, or Gebel al Arad on the north, and the kingdom of Seger on the eaſt. The ſandy deſerts here produce great quantities of aloes, which they there call ſabr al' Hadrd, to diſtinguiſh it from that of Succotori, which we ſtile Succotrine, and is much the better of the two. In the mountain of Schibbam in this principality, are produced ſome of the fineſt onyxes and agate ſtones.

6. The principality of Seger, is contiguous on the weſt to Xael; has the Arabian ſea on the ſouth and eaſt, and the country of Gadter on the north. It produces a good deal of frankincenſe and aloes, but the latter is nothing near ſo good as that which grows at Succotora. The town of Dhoſar, or Dhafar, is a conſiderable ſea-port in this province.

7. The kingdom of Jemen, or Oman, under which name the Arabians comprehend the greateſt part of Yemen, or Arabia Fœlix; from the city of Aden, quite to that of Maſcat on the gulph of Ormus; or, in other words, from the Perſic to the Arabic gulph. We have followed the more recent geographers, who confine this kingdom within narrower bounds, ſince, according to the Arabian ones, it would have contained thoſe of Xael and Seger already mentioned, as well as the

large territories of Gadter and Mahre, which lie between them and the kingdom we are now ſpeaking of. According to the modern boundaries, it extends itſelf from 48 to 58 degrees of eaſt longitude, but from north to ſouth only from 22½ to 26 of latitude, where it juts fartheſt into the Perſic gulph, but in other parts not above 1 degree at the moſt. But of the true limits, or ſoil, of theſe remote countries, we know very little. The iſles of Zohar, north of cape Roſalgate, were the chief places of trade to the eaſt, till the commerce was transferred to the city of Ormus.

OMAN, ſeems formerly to have been a place of no ſmall traffic, but, as to its preſent ſtate, we are altogether in the dark.

MASCAT, is a conſiderable ſea-port town, which the Portugueze made choice of, after the loſs of Ormus: whilſt they held it, it was a place of great profit to them; but, being beaten out by the Arabian princes, both place and trade are gone to decay. At preſent, the inhabitants are a mixture of Moors, or native Arabians, ſome Indian Pagans, ſome Jews, and a few Portugueze, who carry on a trade with Ormus, and other places on the Arabian and Perſic coaſts. The town is pretty much frequented by the Al Arabs, as they emphatically ſtile themſelves, who come from the inlands, when they hear any ſhip is arrived at Maſcat, whither they bring a great deal of poultry, dates, and horſes, which they exchange for rice, drabs, and other commodities they want. Maſcat is ſuppoſed to be the place where ſhips anciently ſet out from Arabia to China.

We are obliged to paſs by ſeveral other kingdoms, principalities, and provinces in this part of Arabia, both maritime and inland, as there is nothing worth notice related, concerning them, or their traffic. All we know of Gadter and Mahreh, or Mahrah, is, that the latter produces ſome frankincenſe, which is gathered here, and ſent into other provinces. Sanaa, in the territory of Tehamah, is populous and wealthy, and traffics more in money than merchandizes. El'-Katif, in the kingdom of inland Oman, is a place of trade, and the inhabitants fiſh for pearl about the neighbouring coaſt. On the mountain Shebah in the country of Naged, are dug ſeveral curious ſtones; ſuch as the agate, cornelian, and eſpecially that called, in Arabic, Gezz Allemani, which is the Arabian onyx, and much eſteemed for its beauty.

ARAC, or ARRAC, or RACK, a kind of ſpirituous liquor or brandy, made by the Tartars of Tunguſia, who are ſubject to the czar of Muſcovy.

This ſpirituous liquor is made of mare's milk, which is left to be ſour, and is afterwards diſtilled twice or thrice, between two earthen pots cloſely ſtopped, whence the liquor runs through a ſmall wooden pipe. This liquor is very ſtrong, and intoxicates more than brandy diſtilled from wine.

Arac is likewiſe an excellent ſpirituous liquor, which the Engliſh get from Batavia or Malacca to make punch. The Chineſe are thoſe who make arac in the Indies by diſtillation. They make 3 ſorts of it, extracted, the one from the cocoa-tree, the ſecond from rice, and the third from ſugar. The firſt is the beſt, and moſt in uſe. They make it of the liquor which iſſues from the bloſſom-bunch of the cocoa-tree. For which purpoſe they tie the bunch, whilſt ſtill wrapped up within its cod or membrane, with a piece of packthread, and then with a knife they make a croſs-cut in that bunch, a little above the place where it is tied, and adapt a pitcher to it, to receive the liquor, which is vinous, palatable, and ſweet. It is called touac, or ſouri. Others uſe a bamboe-cane inſtead of a pitcher. Having thus drawn the liquor, they let it ferment, and afterwards diſtill it to make arac. They have a prodigious demand for it all over the Eaſt-Indies.

The Dutch alſo import ſome into Holland. It is ſomething ſweeter, and leſs intoxicating than common brandy; for which reaſon, the Engliſh think it more fit to make punch. The author of the Spectacle de la Nature was miſtaken in aſſerting, that the liquor of the cocoa-tree was drawn by making an inciſion in the lower part of the trunk of the tree, for it is certain that none would come that way.

A further account of arac.

The nature and compoſition of this celebrated liquor has been much controverted. Mr Lockyer tells us, that the name of arac is an Indian word for ſtrong waters of all kinds; for they call our ſpirits and brandy, Engliſh arac. But what we underſtand by the name arac, is really no other than a ſpirit procured by diſtillation from a vegetable juice called toddy, which flows by inciſion out of the cocoa-nut-tree, like the birch-juice procured among us.

The toddy, adds Mr Lockyer, is a pleaſant drink by itſelf, when new, and purges thoſe who are not uſed to it; and, when ſtale, it is heady, and makes good vinegar. The Engliſh at Madraſs uſe it as leven to raiſe their bread with.

Goa and Batavia are the chief places for arac. At Goa there are divers kinds; ſingle, double, and treble diſtilled. The double diſtilled, which is that commonly ſent abroad, is but a weak ſpirit in compariſon to Batavia arac: yet, on account of its peculiar and agreeable flavour, it is preferred to all other aracs of India. This is attributed to the earthen veſſels, which alone they uſe at Goa to draw the ſpirit: whereas at Batavia they uſe copper-ſtills.

The Parier arac made at Madras, and the Columbo and Quilone arac at other places, being fiery hot ſpirits, are but little valued by the Europeans, and therefore ſeldom imported, though highly prized among the natives.

BRITISH LAWS, relating to Arac.

By ſtat. 2 Geo. I. cap. 30. Arac on board a ſhip within the limits of any port of Great-Britain, or found unſhipping or unſhipped before entry, may be ſearched for and ſeized, together with the package, by the officers of exciſe, in like manner as by the officers of the cuſtoms.

Upon an exciſe-officer's ſuſpicion of concealment of arac, made before the commiſſioners or a juſtice of the peace, they may impower him to enter ſuch ſuſpected places, and ſeize the liquors, with the caſks, &c.

If the officers are obſtructed, the penalty is 100 l.

Arac is not to be ſold but in warehouſes, and entered as directly by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. upon forfeiture, and the caſks, &c.

If permits are not returned which are granted for the removal of arac, or if the goods are not ſent away within the time limited, the penalty is treble the value.

If the permits are not returned, and the decreaſe is not found to be ſufficient, the like quantity is forfeited.

Permits are not to be taken out, but by direction in writing of the proprietor of the ſtock, or his known ſervant, upon forfeiture of 50 l. or three months impriſonment.

By ſtat. 9 Geo. II. cap. 35. If arac is offered to ſale without a permit, or by any hawker, pedlar, &c. with a permit, the perſon, to whom it is offered, may ſeize and carry it to the next warehouſe belonging to the cuſtoms or exciſe, and bring the perſon offering the ſame before any juſtice of the peace, to be committed to priſon, and proſecuted for the penalties incurred by ſuch offence.

The perſon ſeizing ſuch goods may proſecute in his own name; and, on recovery, is intitled to ⅓ part of the groſs produce of the ſale. And the commiſſioners are (if deſired) upon a certificate from the juſtice of the offender's being committed to priſon, to advance to the ſeizer 1 s. per gallon for the arac ſo ſeized.

Arac (except for the uſe of the ſeamen two gallons each) found in any ſhip or veſſel arrived from foreign parts at anchor, or hovering within the limits of any port, or within two leagues of the ſhore, and not proceeding on her voyage (unleſs in caſe of unavoidable neceſſity and diſtreſs of weather, notice whereof muſt be given to the collector or chief officer of the port upon the ſhip's arrival) is forfeited, with the boxes, caſks, and other package, or the value thereof.

ARAINS, ſtriped or checked armorines or taffeties, which come from the Indies.

ARANEA, a ſilver ore found only in the mines of Potoſi, or in the ſingle mine there of Catamito. It owes its name to ſome reſemblance it bears to a cob-web (a ſpider being called aranea in Latin, and aragnee in French) being compoſed of threads of pure ſilver, which to the ſight appear like a ſilver lace, when burned to ſeparate the ſilk from it. It is the richeſt of all kinds of ſilver ore.

ARARES, a name given by the Indians to that kind of fruit which is called, in Europe, citrine mirobolans. This ſort of mirobolans is thought proper to purge the gall.

ARATE, a weight in Portugal. See AROBE.

ARBITER *, or ARBITRATOR, an extraordinary judge, or commiſſioner, in one or more cauſes, between party and party, choſen by their mutual conſent.

* The civilians make a difference between arbiter and arbitrator: though both ground their power on the compromiſe of the parties, yet their liberty is diverſe: for an arbiter is tied to proceed and judge, according to the forms, cuſtoms, and uſages in the law: an arbitrator is permitted wholly to uſe his own diſcretion in accommodating the controverſy committed to him, according to what ſeems juſt and equitable agreeable to his own judgment.

The ordinances in France direct, that all differences among merchants in relation to their trade, and among partners in relation to their partnerſhips, be determined by arbitrators: which gives unto the arbitrators, who are named for all theſe ſorts of differences, a right to terminate them with all poſſible diligence, in order to avoid the delays of judicial proceedings; and alſo a right to qualify the awards which they give on affairs of that kind, with ſuch temperaments of equity, as they ſhall find that the facts and circumſtances may deſerve.

In England, although there is no particular obligation laid on parties to refer their differences to arbitration, as the cuſtom is in France, in ſome caſes; yet the ſtatutes recommend theſe references to the ſubject, and more particularly to merchants and traders, as an uſeful expedient to end their differences with the greater eaſe and expedition. And, in order to give more weight and efficacy to the award of the arbitra-

tors,

tors, the parties are allowed to agree among themſelves, that their ſubmiſſion of the ſuit to the award or umpirage of any perſon, or perſons, may be made a rule of any of his majeſty's courts of record, that the parties may be thereby finally concluded.

Stat. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 15. ſect. 1. After the 11th of May 1698, all merchants and others, deſiring to end any controverſy (for which there is no remedy but by perſonal action, or ſuit in equity) by arbitration, may agree that their ſubmiſſion of the ſuit to the award or umpirage of any perſons ſhall be made a rule of any of his majeſty's courts of record, which the parties ſhall chuſe, and may inſert ſuch their agreement, in their ſubmiſſion, or the condition of the bond or promiſe: and upon producing an affidavit of ſuch agreement, and upon reading and filing ſuch affidavit in the court ſo choſen, the ſame may be entered of record in ſuch court, and a rule of court ſhall be thereupon made, that the parties ſhall ſubmit to, and finally be concluded by, ſuch arbitration or umpirage; and, in caſe of diſobedience thereto, the party neglecting or refuſing ſhall be ſubject to all the penalties of contemning a rule of court, and proceſs ſhall iſſue accordingly; which ſhall not be ſtopped or delayed by any order, &c. of any other court, either of law or equity, unleſs it appear on oath, that the arbitrators or umpire miſbehaved themſelves, and that ſuch award was corruptly or unduly procured.

Sect. 2. Any arbitration or umpirage procured by corruption or undue means ſhall be void, and ſet aſide by any court of law or equity, ſo as ſuch corruption or undue practice be complained of in the court where the rule is made for ſuch arbitration, before the laſt day of the next term after ſuch arbitration made and publiſhed to the parties.

The power of arbitrators is to be regulated by the compromiſe between the parties, as to what concerns the differences which they are to determine, and whatever they decree beyond that, is of no effect.

Arbitrators, in their proceedings, are to obſerve the five following points, *viz.*

1. That the award made be given up in writing within the time limited, by the bonds of compromiſe between the parties.

2. That there be appointed by the award ſome reciprocal act to be done by each party to other, which the law requireth to be quid pro quo, albeit never ſo ſmall.

3. That they make a final end, and do determine upon all the points or differences produced before them by ſpecification, if they be required ſo to do, and authorized thereunto.

4. That they do not award any of the parties to do or perform any unlawful act or thing prohibited, and againſt the law.

5. That they do not award any thing, whereby any matter already determined by decree in Chancery or judgment at the common law, or any ſentence judicially given in the cauſe, be infringed or meddled withal.

After a definitive ſentence is given, the function of arbitrators ceaſes, and they have not power to retract or alter it.

No matters wherein the public is concerned, or beſides thoſe of a private nature, which regard property between perſon and perſon, can be ſubmitted to the deciſion of arbitrators.

Beſides the differences among merchants relating to their trade, and among partners in relation to their partnerſhips, thoſe touching the partition of inheritances among near relations, accounts of guardianſhips, and other adminiſtrations, the reſtitution of marriage portions, and of dowers, muſt in France be referred to arbitrators: and it is ordained that, in caſe any of the parties refuſe to name arbitrators on their part, the judge ſhall name them.

Or, in caſe of death or long abſence of one of the arbiters, the parties concerned muſt chuſe another, or upon their refuſal the judge is to name one. So if the arbitrators differ in opinion, and are not able to agree among themſelves, the judge is to appoint a ſuper-arbiter.

All articles of partnerſhips ſhould contain a clauſe, by which the partners bind themſelves to ſubmit to arbitrators, in the diſputes that may ariſe between them,

And the ſame ſhould be obſerved in contracts or policies of aſſurance.

ARBITRARY, that which is left to the choice or determination of men, or not fixed or ſettled by any poſitive law or injunction. As arbitrary fines are mulcts uſually called amercements.

To ARBITRATE, to adjudge or act as an arbiter: to award or give ſentence.

The French uſe the word arbiter in another ſenſe alſo; it ſignifies to eſtimate a thing in general, without entering into particulars. In this ſenſe they ſay, the judges-conſuls have arbitrated (ont arbitré) the coſt, damages, and intereſts, at ſuch a ſum: that is, they have calculated them ſo much. Arbiters, or common friends, have attributed to what ſum the decay of ſuch merchandizes may amount.

ARBITRATION, a juriſdiction choſen voluntarily, by parties at variance, to have their difference terminated and adjuſted by perſons impowered by them, and who are ſtiled arbiters, or arbitrators. It is alſo ſaid of the ſentence pronounced by the arbiters. As for inſtance. Theſe merchants have referred their diſpute to an arbitration, i. e. to be decided by arbiters. Theſe perſons are very much employed in arbitration; that is, are often choſen arbiters. This cauſe has been determined by arbitration, i. e. by the ſentence of arbiters.

ARBITRATION, in matters of the FOREIGN EXCHANGE, is the moſt beneficial, as well as the moſt delicate, branch of exchange to be thoroughly informed of.

Before any one applies himſelf to the ſtudy of this ſubject, it is neceſſary that he ſhould be well ſkilled in all the practical operations, in regard to the reducing of the ſterling money of England into the foreign monies of exchange, and of account, of all places throughout Europe, according to the direct courſes of exchange, eſtabliſhed for theſe purpoſes, and vice verſâ. Alſo,

2. That he ſhould be acquainted with the methods of converting ſterling money into the monies of exchange, and of account, of all other places of commerce, wherewith England has no direct eſtabliſhed courſes of exchange, but is under the neceſſity of making uſe of the intermediate exchange of other places: together with the nature of the agios, and the manner of converting their bank monies into current, and the reverſe.

3. The manner of calculating all the foreign monies throughout Europe into thoſe of every other diſtinct country, either according to the direct, or intermediate exchange; which makes a much greater variety of caſes, than thoſe, who are not thoroughly acquainted with this extenſive ſubject, can imagine. See the article EXCHANGES.

4. It is previouſly neceſſary, alſo, to the entering upon a knowlege of the arbitration of exchange, to know the intrinſic value of foreign monies, according to the moſt accurate aſſays, which have been made for that purpoſe.

5. Laſtly, it is requiſite to underſtand the general natural cauſes of the riſe and fall of the courſes of exchange between nation and nation, or between one trading city and another in the ſame nation.

That I may communicate my meaning with the greater perſpicuity, it may be proper, for the ſatisfaction of others, as well as practical merchants and remitters, to premiſe, That as the advantages to be made by underſtanding how to arbitrate the exchange at all times, and in reſpect to all places, depend on the general riſe and fall of the prices of exchange between one nation and another; ſo that riſe and fall depends on the ballance of trade being either in favour, or againſt a nation.

That the courſe of exchange is the criterion of the ballance of trade, has been allowed, not only by great ſtatesmen and ſpeculative politicians, but by the moſt ſkilful and ſagacious practical traders.

As this matter is put in a very rational and familiar light by thoſe able and diſtinguiſhed merchants of the city of London, who were inſtrumental, in conjunction with the late ever memorable Earls of Halliſax and Stanhope, in defeating the French treaty of commerce, in the year 1712; I ſhall quote their reaſoning upon this point, from the Britiſh Merchant. In conſequence of which, the practical application of what we ſhall communicate on the topic under conſideration, will appear the more intelligible:

‘ Suppoſe, ſay they, the tenant in Wiltſhire is to pay for rent
‘ 100 l. to his landlord in London; and the woollen-draper in
‘ London is to pay the like ſum to his clothier in Wiltſhire:
‘ both theſe debts may be paid, without tranſmitting one far-
‘ thing from one place to the other, by bills of exchange, or
‘ by exchanging one debtor for the other thus: That is,
‘ the tenant may receive the landlord's order to pay 100 l. to
‘ the clothier in the country; and the woollen-draper may re-
‘ ceive his clothier's order to pay the like ſum to the landlord
‘ in town.
‘ Theſe two orders are properly called bills of exchange; the
‘ debts are exchanged by them; that is, the woollen-draper
‘ in town, inſtead of the tenant in the country, is become
‘ debtor to the landlord; and the tenant in the country, in-
‘ ſtead of the woollen-draper in town, is become debtor to
‘ the clothier: and, when theſe orders are complied with, the
‘ two debts between London and the country are diſcharged,
‘ without ſending one ſhilling in ſpecie from the one to the
‘ other.
‘ In like manner, the warehouſe-man in London is indebted
‘ in 100 l. for ſtuffs to the weaver in Norwich; and the lin-
‘ nen-draper in Norwich is indebted in the like ſum to the
‘ Hamburgh merchant in London; both theſe debts may be
‘ paid by bills of exchange, or by the exchange of one debtor
‘ for the other, by placing one debtor in the other's ſtead:
‘ that is, the warehouſe-man may receive the order of his
‘ weaver, to pay 100 l. to the Hamburgh merchant; and the
‘ linnen-draper may receive the order of the Hamburgh mer-
‘ chant, to pay the like ſum to the weaver.
‘ Theſe orders are bills of exchange; the debtor in one place
‘ is changed for the debtor in the other: and thus both debts
‘ may be paid, without ſending one ſingle ſhilling in ſpecie,
‘ from the one city to the other.
‘ But, if the debts due from both places are not equal, then
‘ only the ſame quantity of debts on both ſides can be paid
‘ by bills of exchange. The ballance muſt be ſent in money
‘ from

A R B

‘ from the city, from whence the greateſt ſums are due. For ‘ example:

‘ If, by the trade between London and Norwich, the former ‘ owes 10,000 l. to the latter, and the latter no more than ‘ 9000 l. to the former; it is manifeſt, that only the debts ‘ of 9000 l. on each ſide can be diſcharged by bills of ex- ‘ change; the ballance of 1000 l. muſt be ſent either from ‘ London, or ſome other place indebted to London, to even ‘ the account between both the cities.

‘ Let us ſuppoſe then, that to ſend and inſure 1000 l. in ‘ ſpecie to Norwich would coſt 5 l. or 10 s. per cent. which ‘ of the debtors in London would be willing to be at this ‘ charge? It is natural to believe, that every one, will en- ‘ deavour to ſhift it off from himſelf, that every one will en- ‘ deavour to pay his money by a bill of exchange; it is na- ‘ tural to believe that every one, rather than ſtand the coſt ‘ and hazard of ſending 100 l. in ſpecie, would pay 100 l. ‘ 5 s. in London for a debtor in Norwich, upon condition ‘ that the Norwich debtor ſhould pay an 100 l. for him in ‘ that city.

‘ By which means the Norwich debtor would pay his debt of ‘ 100 l. in London with leſs than that ſum, while the London ‘ debtor would be obliged to give more than that ſum for the ‘ payment of 100 l. in Norwich. And, if ſuch for years ‘ together were the courſe of exchange between London and ‘ Norwich, there could be no queſtion to which of the two ‘ cities a ſum muſt be ſent in ſpecie to pay the ballance; ‘ that city undoubtedly pays the ballance, that gives more ‘ than the par; that undoubtedly receives the ballance, that ‘ gives leſs than the par for bills of exchange.

‘ The courſe of exchange, in this caſe, would ſufficiently ‘ decide that the ballance of trade is on the ſide of that city, ‘ that procures bills of exchange upon the moſt eaſy terms.

‘ I have taken examples from two Engliſh cities, where the ‘ money is of the ſame denomination; and the ſame quan- ‘ tities are equally at par in both. But the caſe is the very ‘ ſame between two cities, where the denominations of the ‘ money are different, as long as any certain quantity of ‘ money in the one can be reduced to a par or equality with ‘ any certain quantity of money in the other.

‘ For example, the old French crown was juſt equal or par ‘ to 54* pence Engliſh; and 444$\frac{4}{9}$ of theſe crowns were ‘ juſt par, or equal to an 100 l. ſterling; every farthing ‘ given more or leſs than 54 d. for a crown, in a bill of ex- ‘ change between London and Paris, amounts to 9 s. 3 d. up- ‘ on 444 crowns, or upon ſo many times 54 d.

* This was in the year 1713. But what is the caſe at preſent, See the article COIN, where the aſſays, weights, and values of foreign ſilver and gold coins is given! by which it will appear, whether England or foreign countries have the advantage by exchange, according to the intrinſic value of ſuch coins.

‘ Suppoſe then the courſe of exchange between London and ‘ Paris ſtood thus heretofore. If a man in Paris, indebted ‘ to London, paid a farthing leſs than the par for a bill of ‘ exchange upon London to pay 54 d. there; the Pariſian ‘ paid his debt to London of 100 l. by a bill of exchange that ‘ coſt him in Paris 9 s. 3 d. leſs than that ſum: and if a ‘ merchant in London gave a farthing more than the par for ‘ a bill of exchange upon Paris, to pay a French crown, the ‘ Londoner gave 9 s. 3 d. more than 100 l. for a bill of ex- ‘ change to pay that ſum in Paris.

‘ If ſuch was the courſe of exchange between London and ‘ Paris: if the firſt gave above the par, and the ſecond leſs ‘ than par for bills of exchange to pay their reſpective debts, ‘ there can be no doubt that bills of exchange were more ‘ eaſily to be had in Paris than at London; and conſequently, ‘ that greater ſums were due from the latter than the for- ‘ mer; and that we paid a ballance upon our trade to that ‘ kingdom. And as the price roſe here to a penny or two ‘ pence above the par, or fell there ſo much below it; it ‘ ſhewed ſo much the greater ſcarcity here, and the greater ‘ plenty there of bills of exchange; and that ſo much the ‘ greater ballance of bullion was going hence, by means of ‘ our trade to that country.’

Here let the intelligent practical merchant and remitter, &c. make his obſervations on what we mean by the intrinſic arbitration of the exchanges, which need not be further enlarged upon, if he conſiders the due application of what has been ſaid; this ſingle caſe being as good as a multitude.

The foregoing reaſoning may be further carried on thus:

If the city of Bourdeaux owes 100,000 ounces of ſilver at Paris, and ſends wines and brandies to Holland for 100,000 ounces: and if Holland ſends ſpecie to Paris for 100,000 ounces, due to the bankers at Bourdeaux; and with theſe the ſpecie-merchants at Paris remit and pay the 100,000 ounces they owe to Holland: in this caſe the exchange between Bourdeaux and Paris, Bourdeaux and Holland, and Paris and Holland, will be at par; there will be no variation, but what proceeds from the commiſſion of the negotiators concerned in the returns.

But in regard that the coin of France is reckoned by livres, ſols, and deniers; and in Holland, by florins, ſtivers, and groots; that the coin in uſe in Holland differs in the ſtandard, bulk, and mark, from that uſed in France; the computation of the exchanges is made by the exchanging ſo many Dutch groots, for a French exchange crown; and, although this at firſt view does not ſeem to denote that the exchange is ſo much per cent over or under par, yet in reality it is ſo; and the banker, concerned in the Dutch exchange, knows how to calculate this par in the tale of French crowns, and Dutch groots.

So that the exchange between London and Paris, and Paris and Amſterdam, &c. is, in effect, carried on juſt as it is between London and Wiltſhire, or London and Norwich; only with this difference, that the accounts are kept in another gibberiſh; and that the charge and riſk of ſending money from London to Paris, or from Paris to Amſterdam, is greater than that of ſending it from London to Wiltſhire, or Norwich; and when the ballance of trade with Amſterdam is againſt Paris, the exchange at Paris will be from 5 to 6 per cent. above the par by bills on Amſterdam; whereas it will ſeldom exceed an half per cent. above par between London and Norwich,

Whether France pays livres, ſols, and deniers, for ryals of plate, and marvedees, new or old in Spain; for cruſadoes, or milrees in Portugal; for guilders, rix-dollars, or marks-lubs, in the north; for pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling; for marks, piaſters, and ducats, in Italy; the par of the exchange is always ounce for ounce of ſilver, or rather of gold, that being of eaſier carriage, and moſt commonly is tranſported in the ballance of trade; and the computations and evaluations of the exchange will ſquare every-where with our firſt examples.

If France owes a ballance in trade to Flanders of 100,000 ounces; Flanders to Holland of 100,000 ounces; Holland to England of 100,000 ounces; England to Spain of 100,000 ounces; Spain to Italy of 100,000 ounces; Italy to Germany of 100,000 ounces; Germany to France of 100,000 ounces; the exchange may be carried on at par between all theſe countries, without any tranſportation of gold or ſilver.

But as the ballance of trade grows due gradually from one country to any other, by an importation of commodities, the variation of exchanges follows the ſame proportion.

And it is the buſineſs of the judicious general merchant, and the ſagacious remitter, to ſpeculate where the ballance of trade lies, among the European nations at all points of time; for by that means he may embrace his opportunities of advantage, and theſe almoſt daily between ſome nation or other, provided his credit and correſpondence are duly eſtabliſhed to admit thereof.

From what has been ſaid, the reader may obſerve the utility of knowing the intrinſic arbitration of exchange, by comparing the courſes with the real value of money. For more matter relating to which, ſee the article EXCHANGE.

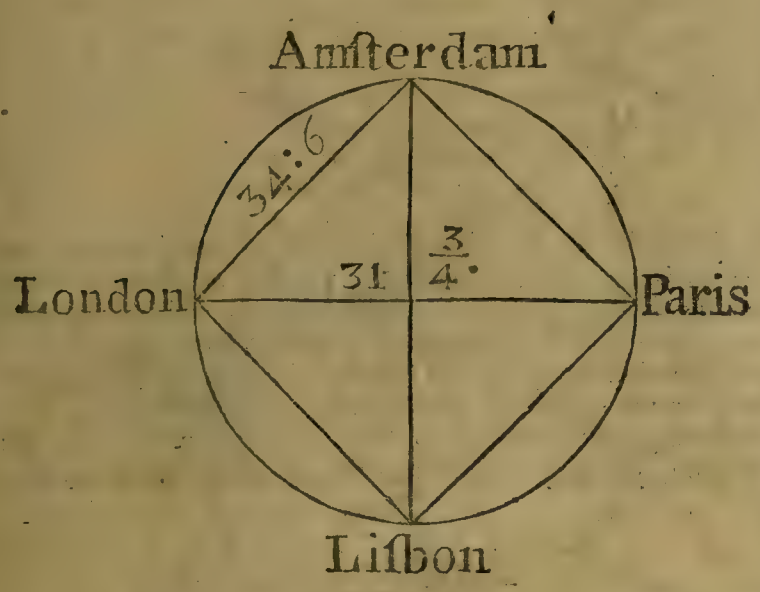
Another method of conſidering the arbitration of exchanges, is founded upon comparing the various occaſional prices of exchange together between nation and nation; in order to diſcover at all times, whether certain courſes continue in an equality of proportion, or how far they deviate therefrom: by which means the advantage to be made by ſuch a compariſon of exchanges may be exactly aſcertained, for the government of the merchant or remitter to take his meaſures accordingly, and not to let the advantageous occaſion eſcape his cognizance. And this muſt neceſſarily prove the caſe, provided a perſon is not accompliſhed in this branch of the exchanges.

Before I enter upon the illuſtration of this matter by examples, it will be proper to obſerve, that, in a compariſon or combination of the courſes of exchange of ſeveral places together, it is rare, very rare indeed, that they happen to ebb and flow in an exact equality of proportion; the reaſon whereof muſt be obvious to every one, who conſiders that the ballance of trade differs between different nations, and conſequently, from what has been ſaid, the courſes of exchange will be in favour, or otherwiſe, of ſome nations, when compared with others. This is ſo plain, that it needs no further animadverſion.

This being the caſe, the judgment of the exchange-negotiator conſiſts in vigilantly obſerving, from a due compariſon of the courſes, where the greateſt inequality of proportion lies; for there lies the greateſt profit to be made by drawing and remitting to certain places preferably to others.

But the greateſt profit to be made this way does not always happen to ariſe, from a compariſon of theſe courſes only where the general currency of a trader's buſineſs lies: on the contrary, from the circumſtances and the nature of the trade of ſuch countries, the riſe and fall of the courſes may generally continue in ſuch an equality of proportion, as only occaſionally, or ſeldom, to admit of any extra profit by the exchange. Whence it is, that thoſe, who are unacquainted with the niceties of theſe computations, think there are little or no advantages to be made to other places, with which they do not happen to have any tranſactions. This is an egregious miſtake: nay, if a merchant has dealings with two or three different nations, it is very rare, but conſiderable advantages are to be made, by

knowing how to arbitrate the exchanges with accuracy: and the more general his correſpondence is with various nations, the greater opportunities he has of reaping benefit by his ſuperior ſkill in this branch of mercantile ſcience.
To the end that my meaning may be the more readily comprehended, the following diagram may be neceſſary.



Let it be ſuppoſed, that the exchange between London and Amſterdam is at 34 : 6, and between London and Paris at 31 ¾. What is the proportional arbitrated price between Amſterdam and Paris?
The moſt conciſe method of diſcovering the proportional arbitrated price is by a numerical equation, in the algebraic way of analyſis: Thus,

\+ Signifies addition
— - - - - - ſubtraction
× - - - - - multiplication
÷ - - - - - diviſion
∴ - - - - - therefore
= - - - - - equality

Say 1 cr. Paris = 31d. ¾ ſterling
240 d. ſterl. = 34 : 6 = 414

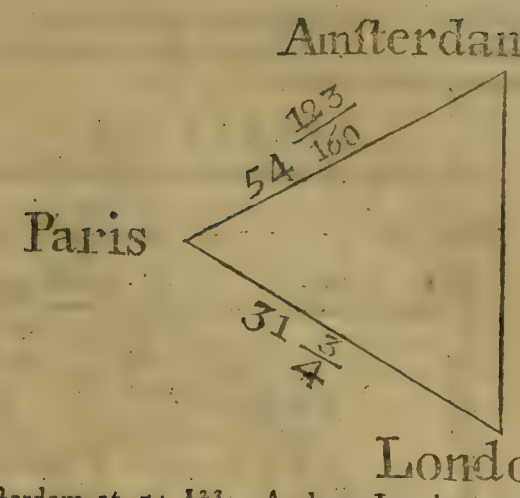
The right-hand ſide of the equation conſtitutes a general dividend, the left-hand ſide a general diviſor.
But as the fractional parts make it troubleſome for moſt to × and ÷ them, who are not well acquainted with fractions both vulgar and decimal; and as theſe are ſometimes too tedious for men of buſineſs; the moſt eaſy and conciſe practical way is to reduce theſe equations, according to the following axioms, viz.
(1.) Equal quantities multiplied by equal quantities, their products are equal. And (2.) Equal quantities divided by equal quantities, their quotas are equal; that is to ſay, the numbers reſulting therefrom remain proportionally equal.

Examples as above.

1 = 31 ¾
240 = 414

4 = 127
80 = 138
2 = 69
∴ 127 × 69

80 × 2 = to the anſwer. That is to ſay, that if you multiply 127 by 69, and divide the product thereof by that of 80 multiplied by 2, you have the true anſwer required, which you will find to be 54 $\frac{123}{160}$, the neareſt practical fraction in common buſineſs being ¾.
However, the calculation muſt be made with the utmoſt accuracy, or you will not ſo well know what you are about.
This is only an abbreviation of the operation upon the preceding axioms. As 1. You × the 31 ¾ by 4, which gives 127 placed under the line, and a 4 ſet on the other ſide to ballance it from the firſt axiom.
Then, as there don't happen to be more fractions, I proceed to abbreviate the work further by diviſion.—Thus I find at one glance of the eye, that 240 and 414 will both divide by 3, which produce for quotas 80 and 138, which numbers, as they are done with, are cancelled. I next obſerve, that 4 and 138 will both divide by 2, which give 2 and 60. So that the reſult is, that 127 multiplied by 69, and that product divided by 80 multiplied by 2, which remain uncancelled, will give the anſwer required.
But if any other diviſor could be found, which would meaſure both the dividend and the diviſor, the abbreviation might be carried on ſtill further, and very often till we have the true anſwer without further trouble.
The foregoing example admits of three caſes: thus,



Paris on Amſterdam at 54 $\frac{123}{160}$. And on London at 31 ¾. What is the proportional arbitrated price between London and Amſterdam?

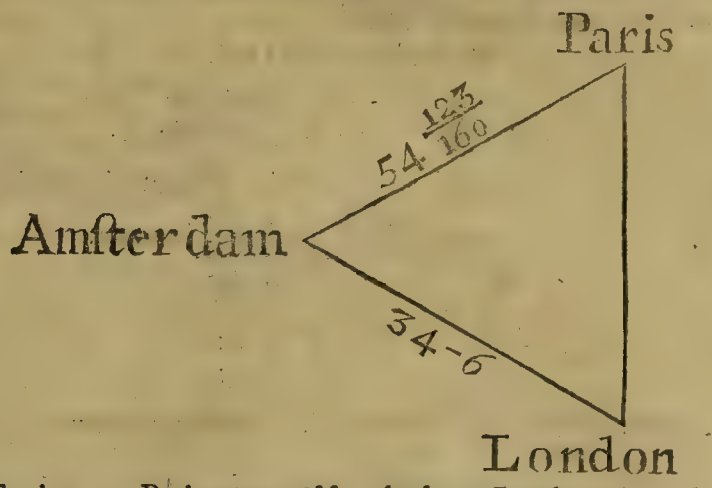
OPERATION.

1 l. - - = 240d. ſterling.

3/4 / 123/160
31 - - = 54 = 8763
160 / 4
127 / 60

1. 54 × by 160, and take in the numerator, gives 8763; to ballance which, place the 160 on the left-hand ſide, and cancel 54 $\frac{123}{160}$.
2. Then × 31 ¾ by 4, and take in the 3 the numerator, and that gives 127; to ballance which, place the 4 on the right-hand ſide, and cancel 31 ¾.
3. I find that 160 and 240 will divide by 10, which leaves 16 on the left-hand ſide, and 24 on the right.
4. I find that 16 will divide by 4, and 24 by 4, which leave 4 on the one ſide, and 6 on the other. And
Laſtly, Finding two 4's on each ſide, they cancel each other.
—So that the conſequence of the whole is, that 8763 × 6, and the product divided by 127 gives the anſwer, 414 grots, or 34 : 6, the exchange between London and Amſterdam, as required.

The third caſe.



Amſterdam on Paris at 54 $\frac{123}{160}$. And on London at 31 ¾. What is the arbitrated price between London and Paris?

OPERATION.

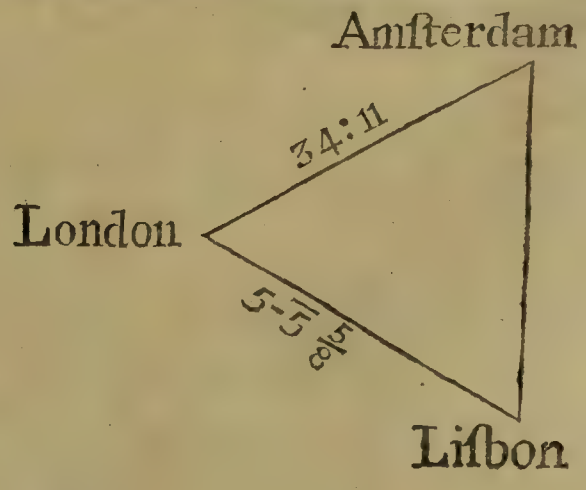
1 Crown Paris = 54 123/160 grots.

414 grots - - - = 240 d. ſterling.
100 / 8763
40 / 30
138 / 1
46 / 2921

∴ 2921/46×2 = Anſwer, i. e. 92 | 40/100 | 31 69/92 = ¾
6
92

Theſe three caſes prove the truth of the method, in regard to each other.

Another example derived from the firſt diagram.



Suppoſe London exchanges on Amſterdam 34 : 11. And on Liſbon at 5 : 5 $\frac{5}{8}$. What is the arbitrated price between Amſterdam and Liſbon?

OPERATION.

1 Cruſade of Liſbon = 400 rees Portugal.

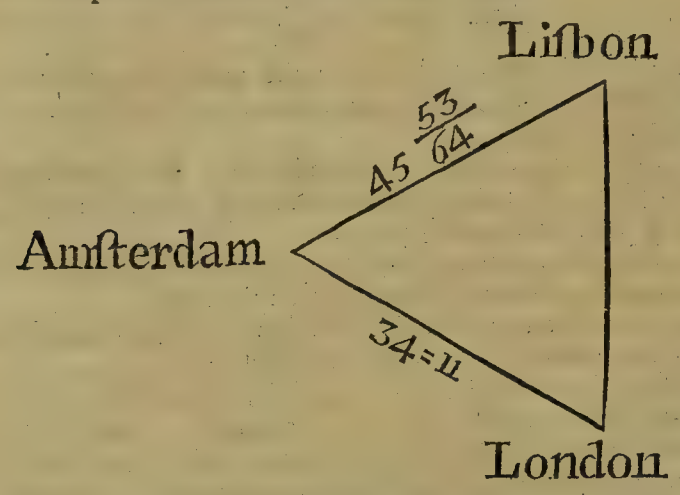
1000 rees - - - - - = 65 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ ſterling.

$\frac{1}{1}\frac{4}{0}\frac{0}{0}$ d. ſterling - - = 34 : 11 = 419 grots Amſt.

8	5 7 5	419
10	4	
4 8	10 0 5	
1 7	7 1	
2	7	
4		

So that, after all the abbreviations which can be made, the numbers which remain uncancelled, are $419 \times 7 = \frac{2933}{8 \times 2 \times 4 = 64}$ =45 grots $\frac{53}{64}$ of Amſterdam per cruſade of Liſbon, which is the true anſwer.

This example alſo admits of three caſes: thus,



Caſe (2.) Amſterdam exchanges on Liſbon at 45 $\frac{53}{64}$. And on London at 34 : 11. What is the arbitrated price of exchange between London and Liſbon?

OPERATION.

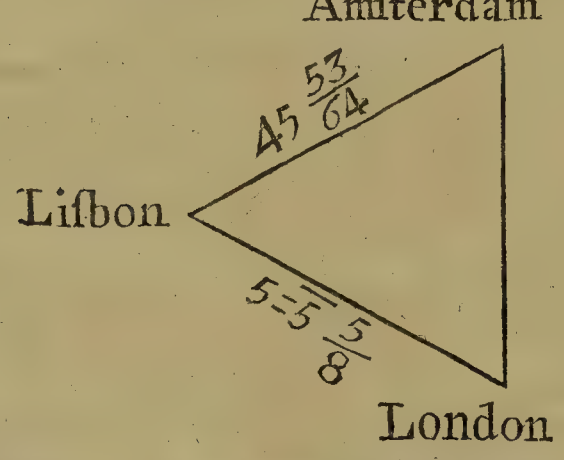
1 milree - - - = 1000 rees
400 rees - - - = 1 cruſade
1 cruſ. - - - = 45 $\frac{53}{64}$ grots Amſterdam.

419 grots Amſt. = $\frac{1}{1}\frac{4}{0}\frac{0}{0}$ d. London.

64	2933
1	80
16	15
8	5

Anſwer $\frac{2933 \times 15 \times 5}{419 \times 8} = 65$ d. $\frac{5}{8}$ ſterling as above.

Caſe 3d of the 2d example.



Liſbon exchanges on Amſterdam at 45 $\frac{53}{64}$. And on London at 5 : 5 $\frac{5}{8}$ What is the arbitrated price of exchange between London and Amſterdam?

OPERATION.

1 l. ſterl. - - = 1140 d. ſterling.
65 $\frac{5}{8}$ ſterl. - - = 1000 rees Portugal.

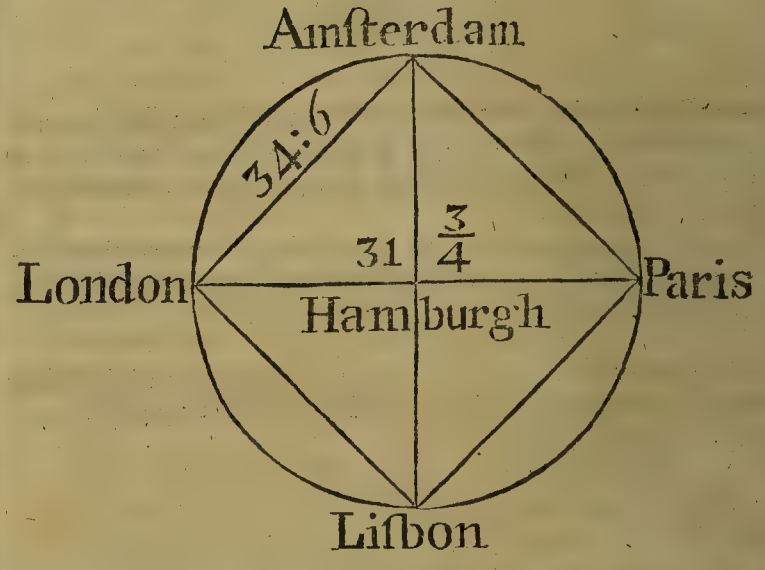
400 rees Portugal - = 45 $\frac{53}{64}$ grots Amſterdam.

5 1 5	8
64	2933
1	80
16	15
8	5
1	419
4	2

So that, after all the abbreviations which can be made, the anſwer comes out exactly the 419 grots of Amſterdam, without any further diviſion or multiplication; which is equal to 34 : 11.—This will frequently happen to be the caſe. So that the operation may this way be generally done upon the thumb nail, on the exchange, when people grow expert at it.

If you ſuppoſe Hamburgh to ſtand in the center of the firſt diagram, you may obſerve how the examples will multiply.

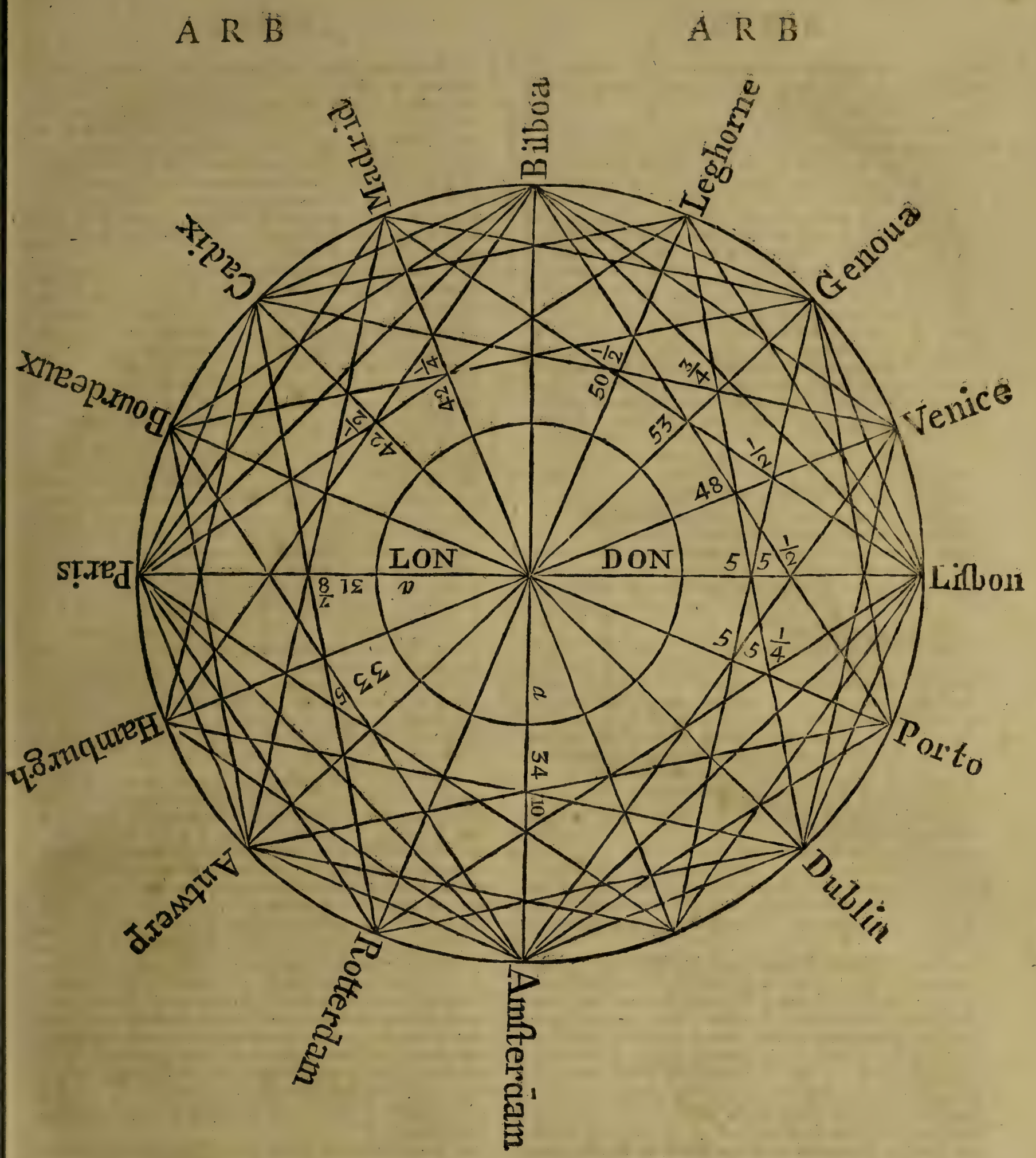
Thus:



The firſt additional example will be London, Hamburg, and Liſbon; the ſecond will be Liſbon, Hamburgh, and Paris; the third will be London, Hamburgh, and Amſterdam; the fourth will be Hamburgh, Paris, and Amſterdam; the fifth will be Hamburgh, Paris, and London; the ſixth will be Amſterdam, Hamburgh, and Liſbon, &c. And the reader will obſerve, that each of theſe examples has three diſtinct caſes of operation: ſo that, if you multiply places in the circumference, it will be found that there is a ſurpriſing variety of changes to be rung upon the capital places of trade in Europe; all which ought to be equally well underſtood by the ſkilful general merchant, or he can never be capable of reaping theſe conſtant advantages, which are to be made by being able readily to arbitrate the exchanges.

And yet by this compariſon of three places only, from the examples given, theſe are but ſimple arbitrations; but, when they come to be compounded in the combination and compariſon with more places, the variety of diſtinct caſes will multiply extraordinarily, in order to become an univerſal maſter of this moſt advantageous branch of the foreign exchange.

But how greatly the variety of queſtions in the arbitration will multiply, appears from another diagram, where London is ſuppoſed to be the central place of exchange to all thoſe in the circumference of the circle; and where a triangle is formed from the center, London, to any other two places in the circumference, there ariſes a ſimple arbitrational queſtion; which queſtions multiply in proportion to the number of places wherewith London has direct courſes of exchange: and, each of theſe queſtions, as before obſerved, admitting of three diſtinct caſes of operation, the variety is very great; and, conſequently, the opportunities of profit are great in proportion to the London merchant, or remitter, provided he is ſufficiently ſkilled to embrace all thoſe opportunities which, we will preſume to ſay, almoſt daily offer.



For the further ſpeculation of the ingenious merchant, remitter, and moneyed man, we will give a few more examples from the London courſe in the preceding large diagram, and upon ſuch places where the profit is ſeldom leſs than what follows, viz.

Suppoſe London on Amſterdam at 34 : 10, and on Paris at 31 7/8, the arbitrational price between Amſterdam and Paris will be found to be 55 33/64.

But ſuppoſe Amſterdam adviſes that the exchange for Paris is 54 3/4, which is below the arbitrational price, the queſtion is, how much per cent. profit preſents?

Draw 100 l. ſterling on Paris at 31 7/8, it will debit you at Paris crowns 752 : 56 : 5. And remit to Amſterdam l. 98 : 12 : 5 at 34 : 10, credits you at Amſterdam guilders 1030 : 11 : 12 bank-money: ſo that the profit to be made between theſe places is l. 1 : 7 : 7 per cent.

The money received for your draught furniſhes you with the money to pay for your remittance; and your debit at Paris will be paid by your credit at Amſterdam, exchange at 54 3/4: for, if 54 3/4 groſs will pay 1 French crown, guilders 1030 : 11 : 12 bank-money will pay crowns 752 : 56 ſols, and 5 deniers.

But if, on the other hand, Amſterdam adviſes you at London, that the exchange for Paris is 56 1/4, which is above the arbitration price of exchange, then,

Draw on Amſterdam l. 100 ſterling at 34 : 10, which debits you at Amſterdam guilders 1045 bank-money, and remit to Paris l. 98 : 13 : 10, at 31 7/8, which credits you at Paris crowns 743 : 6 : 8; ſo that the profit which preſents is l. 1 : 6 : 2 per cent. And

The money you receive for your draught furniſhes you with the money to pay for your remittance: your debit at Amſterdam will be paid by your credit at Paris, exchange at 56 1/4: for, if 1 French crown will pay at Amſterdam 56 1/4 groſs, 743 : 6 : 8 will pay guilders 1045 bank-money.

This proves to demonſtration that, let the adviſed price be either above or below the arbitrational price, there is always an advantage to be made by drawing and remitting.

From what has been ſaid, it very ſeldom proves that the adviſed price is exactly the ſame with the arbitrational one; and, the greater the difference is between them, the greater is the advantage.

In the foregoing queſtion the difference is ſuppoſed to be no more than that between 55 33/64 and 54 3/4, in the one caſe; and, in the other, that between 55 33/64 and 56 1/4, which is very ſmall, and yet it yields a pretty profit, when it is conſidered how many times this may be reiterated in a year, and, as it were, without the advance of one ſhilling in money. Verbum ſapienti.

Again. Let it be ſuppoſed that London exchanges on Amſterdam at 34 : 10, and on Hamburgh at 33 : 5, the arbitrational price will be found to be 33 143/401 between Amſterdam and Hamburgh.

Now let the adviſed price be either above or below the arbitrational price, what profit is there to be made?

If the adviſed or real price of exchange between Amſterdam and Hamburgh is at 32, which is below the arbitrational price, then

Draw on Hamburgh l. 100 at 33 : 5, debits you at Hamburgh marks 1253 : 2, and remit to Amſterdam l. 95 : 18 : 7, at 34 : 10, credits you at Amſterdam guilders 1002 : 10 bank-money; ſo that the profit which preſents is l. 4 : 1 : 5 per cent. and

The money you receive for your draught furniſhes you with the money to pay for your remittance, as before;

And your debit at Hamburgh will be paid by your credit at Amſterdam, exchange at 32: for, if 1 dollar of Hamburgh will pay 32 ſtivers at Amſterdam, marks lubs 1253 : 2, of Hamburgh will pay guilders 1002 : 10 bank-money of Amſterdam.

But if, on the other hand, Amſterdam adviſes that the exchange between Hamburgh and there is at 34 ¼, which is above the arbitrational price, then

Draw on Amſterdam l. 100 ſterling, at 34 : 10, debits you at Amſterdam guilders 1045 bank-money, and remit to Hamburgh l. 97 : 7 : 10, at 33 : 5, credits you at Hamburgh marks lubs 1220 : 7 : 6; ſo that the profit which preſents is l. 2 : 12 : 2 per cent. and

The money you receive for your draught pays that for your remittance.—Your debit at Amſterdam will be paid by your credit at Hamburgh, exchange at 34 ¼: for, if 1 dollar of Hamburgh will pay 34 ¼ ſtivers at Amſterdam, marks lubs 1220 : 7 : 6 will pay guilders 1045 bank-money at Amſterdam. Theſe examples alſo prove again to demonſtration, that, let the real or adviſed price of exchange be either below or above the arbitrational price made by the ſpeculator, there is always advantage to be made on draughts and remittances, provided the merchant, or remitter, is well ſkilled in the arbitrations of exchanges, and takes all his meaſures with due judgment and ſagacity.

Remarks.

Thoſe who are well ſkilled in this matter generally agree to ſupport their correſpondence commiſſion-free on all ſides; wherefore, when it is conſidered what opportunities the merchant, or remitter, of a general credit and correſpondence has, the benefits, by a judicious combination, or compariſon of the exchange throughout Europe, are far more conſiderable than moſt; than 99 out of 100, nay, than 999, perhaps, out of 1000, are duly appriſed of.

Thoſe who are not thoroughly acquainted with the ſubject of exchanges, are apt to imagine that there is nothing more in it than the mere converſion of the monies of one country into thoſe of another. This is taking a very ſuperficial view of ſo nice and important a buſineſs; yet in this light, and this only, it is conſidered in all ſchools, and, indeed, in moſt counting-houſes: but the complete knowledge of the buſineſs of exchange is no ſuch contemptible matter. It is truly a ſcience by itſelf, and has its principles and elements; whoſe proper application to the various occurrences, which naturally offer themſelves in the courſe of merchandizing with foreign countries, affords no little benefit and advantage.

I have heard it ſaid by ſome, whom I could wiſh knew better for their own ſakes, that theſe things are rather points of curious ſpeculation than beneficial in practical commerce. This is certainly a vulgar error, and I am ſorry it is ſo univerſally prevalent.

In favour of this miſtaken opinion it has been ſaid, that the exchanges might, and do, frequently vary before orders can be duly executed. 'Tis true, the exchanges may vary from the time of orders to that of execution; ſo may the price of all other commodities, as well as that of bills of exchange, (for at preſent I conſider them in the ſame light) in which caſe the orders given are not complied with, if they cannot be executed according to the intention of the principal.

But if the merchant who gives the orders is well acquainted with the ſtate of the trade of thoſe places which he has his eye upon, with intent to advantage himſelf by his ſkill in the arbitration, 'tis as likely that the courſes may vary equally, if not more to his advantage, than he at firſt found them, and which induced him to give ſuch orders at all: for prices equally proportionable to thoſe from whence he made his computation, will anſwer the like degree of profit to him.

If a correſpondent happens to be ignorant of your intentions, and of thoſe ſecret calculations, which are the rudder of your conduct, 'tis no great difficulty to give him ſuch variety of proportional prices as may direct him to the end aimed at. Yet for the knowing and ſkilful merchant to have to do with the mere mechanical or the unſkilful, is diſadvantageous to his intereſts, where knowledge and ſagacity are required, though it may be otherwiſe upon other occaſions; for merchants, as well as others, ſometimes play upon the ignorance of correſpondents leſs knowing than themſelves.

Thoſe, however, who are ſhrewd exchangers themſelves, generally make choice, upon theſe negociations, of correſpondents not leſs ſo; and then they are certain of the gain deſigned, or that their orders ſhall remain unexecuted till the advantageous criſis happens to fall out.

But there is a riſque in all this, ſay others, who are as wiſe as the former. Wherein, I aſk, is the greater riſque, in truſting a man with a thouſand pounds worth of goods to ſell for your account, or a thouſand pounds in money, by ordering him to draw that ſum on you by exchange? If the ſales and returns of goods are made within the year, or two, or more, 'tis well; but, if A orders B to draw a 1000 l. on him at uſance, or double uſance, he may order C to draw on B by way of reimburſement, or might have been obliged, from the circumſtances of his trade and affairs, to have ſuffered C to have drawn on him, or have been obliged to have remitted C.

Beſides, ſuch is the ſhortneſs of time, which bills of exchange run, in compariſon to the time before the returns for goods are made, that dealings in exchange with ſkill and precaution are, in the general, far leſs hazardous than dealing in goods, ſhipping, or inſurancing. There are, however, meaſures to be taken to render the hazard in traffic by exchange leſs than moſt people, who have not duly conſidered this ſubject, may be acquainted with. But it is not my buſineſs to inſtruct my ſuperiors; theſe admonitions are chiefly intended for the riſing generation of young merchants, whom, in particular, we ſhall always be ambitious to profit. The ſanction and authority, alſo, that a bill of exchange carries with it, ſtill leſſen the hazard in dealing therein.—This may deſerve attention.

Of all the reaſons I have heard given by way of objection to the ſtudy and practice of this part of exchange, there is one, I think, very weak and contemptible: it is, that, if there are any extraordinary advantages to be made by this myſtery of exchange, the Jews are the chief who have engroſſed this buſineſs to themſelves.

Whatever honour this may be to the ſagacity and penetration of the Jew merchants and remitters, it is no great credit to the Chriſtian ones, that the Jews ſhould prove their ſuperiors herein. Ah! but the Jews have a more general correſpondence among one another, and better intelligence, and, therefore, can carry on this ſpecies of commerce with more eaſe and ſecurity. How ſo? Can't Chriſtian merchants obtain as univerſal and beneficial a correſpondence as Jews with Jews, if they are equally capable to ſupport it? When a merchant has, by his ſkill and conduct, his integrity and fortune, duly eſtabliſhed a reputation at home and abroad, there is no end of his correſpondence, with Jews as well as Chriſtians and Turks, &c. for foreigners, who are complete merchants and exchangers themſelves, rejoice at meeting with a correſpondent of the like ſtamp, by reaſon of his greater ability to promote their reciprocal intereſts.

Theſe objections, and others of the like kind, I muſt preſume to ſay, betray nought but downright ignorance in the ſubject of exchanges, if the people mean as they ſpeak; and demonſtrate that ſuch perſons are really unacquainted with the very elements of the profitable part of exchange.

The only excuſe can be made for ſome people is, that they are not in earneſt when they talk in this manner, but uſe theſe objections, as an artifice to keep others out of the like gainful way of traffic. If this be the caſe, I would only obſerve, that, the more knowing merchants and exchangers in general are in this branch, as well as all others relating to commerce, the more will they enrich themſelves, as well as the nation: and the better able ſhall we be to give bread to the poor, and make the whole human ſpecies happy, by dint of a fair and honourable commerce. And this I ſeriouſly aver is the moſt prevalent motive to dedicate my life to the cultivation of arts, which have ſo deſirable a tendency: and, as my endeavours have already ſtirred up others to the like applications, ſo I hope the number will daily encreaſe; to whom I ſhall gratefully acknowledge my obligations for any information they may pleaſe to communicate to me, or for their candid rectification of any miſtakes which I may be liable to; deſiring them to conſider, that, as the ſubject I am engaged in is ſo univerſal, we are liable ſometimes to be attended with miſinformations.

Nor is this knowlege in the exchange neceſſary only to the pretty conſtant dealers in monies and bills; for, as I have obſerved lately upon another occaſion, 'Whoever trades as a 'merchant, that is to ſay, as an exporter and importer, in 'Europe, muſt of neceſſity have to do with drawing and re'mitting; and, if ſo, he ſhould by no means be unacquainted 'with thoſe arts of making the beſt advantage by ſo doing: 'but this is not poſſible to be done without being tho'roughly ſkilled in their arbitration to a demonſtrative ex'actitude.

'The more general the trade of a merchant is, the more 'univerſal ſhould his knowledge in this particular be. And 'thoſe who may have views in dealing largely by exchange, 'will certainly find their account beyond expectation in be'ing fundamentally grounded in this extraordinary ſubject: 'for a trader of a good general foreign correſpondence may, 'by this means, gain more by dint of credit and ſkill, than 'others unacquainted herewith can do by dint of hard 'money *.'

* See The Merchant's Public Counting-houſe: Or, New Mercantile Inſtitution, by Malachy Poſtlethwayt; printed for John and Paul Knapton, pages 18, 19.

This I have demonſtrated to thoſe who underſtand me; and it will appear more and more conſpicuous throughout the whole ſcope of this work.

It does not always fall out, that the intereſt of private traders coincides with that of the nation in general; but, in the preſent caſe, it does: for while our merchants of ingenuity are gaining advantages to themſelves by their ſkill in the exchanges, they neceſſarily contribute to rule and controul the courſes of exchange in general, more and more in the favour of our country than otherwiſe they could be, if theſe practices are purſued by merchants in foreign countries, and neglected, through want of ſkill, by thoſe in our own: and,

and, the more the exchanges are, by this means, kept in our favour, the greater will the general ballance of trade turn in the favour of the nation, or the leſs to its diſadvantage, in the ballance of trade with particular nations. For, as I have obſerved in my before-cited treatiſe, in the caſe of Sir Thomas Greſham, 'When the exchange is againſt a nation, the 'goods exported from that nation are ſold for ſo much leſs, 'and goods imported from the other dearer, as the exchange 'is above the par; ſo that the exchange, being once againſt 'a nation, contributes to keep itſelf ſo. The exchange with 'Holland, being generally againſt England in time of peace as 'well as war, affects this kingdom of Great-Britain more, 'perhaps, than has been ſo thoroughly weighed and conſider-'ed as could be deſired: for, as Amſterdam is made the center 'of commercial correſpondence between the ſeveral parts of 'Europe, the rate of exchange between us and Holland 'muſt proportionally affect that between us and other coun-'tries with which we have dealings; more eſpecially with 'thoſe we negociate bills with always through the medium 'of Holland*.'

* See the Merchant's Public Counting-houſe: Or, New Mercantile Inſtitution, p. 61. Or the article MERCANTILE-COLLEGE in this Dictionary.

From what has been ſaid in regard to the practical buſineſs of our Britiſh merchants, and our foreign money-negotiators in general, it is apparent, that it is always in the power of thoſe uſeful ſubjects of theſe kingdoms not only to ſecure the advantages of the exchanges to themſelves, but greatly to contribute to make the London courſe of exchange influence thoſe of all Europe, to the general benefit of the nation, as Amſterdam has done for near half a century, to the unſpeakable emolument of that ſtate.

For more matter on this head, ſee the article EXCHANGES, and the capital cities of trade and exchange throughout Europe, under their reſpective provinces, principalities, duchies, counties, &c. according to the general diſpoſition of this work.

ARBITRATOR. See ARBITER.

ARCHETYPE, the name given at the mint to the original weight, or ſtandard, which is kept there, and by which all other weights ought to be examined and adjuſted.

ARCHIFOU. See ALQUIFOU.

ARCHIPELAGO, ſignifies a cluſter of iſlands. The ancients knew hardly any other archipelago but that of the Ægean Sea, which is part of the Mediterranean. But the voyages which the moderns have taken to the Eaſt-Indies round the Cape of Good Hope, and the diſcovery of America, have acquainted us with a great many more archipelago's, as thoſe of St. Lazarus, of the Maldives, of the Philippines, of the Moluccoes, of the Mariannas, or Ladrones, of Mexico, and ſome others.

We ſpeak in their proper places of the trade that is carried on in all the iſlands of the Archipelago's of Aſia and America; but, as to the trade of the Archipelago of the Ægean Sea, which it very much concerns the European merchants to be acquainted with, it being, as it were, in their neighbourhood, we preſume the reader will not be diſpleaſed to meet with a particular account of it in this place. We refer, therefore, the reader to the particular articles of the LADRONES, MOLUCCOES, PHILIPPINES, and other iſlands, for an account of their trade, and we ſhall confine ourſelves here to the iſlands which compoſe the Archipelago of the Ægean Sea; but we ſhall ſpeak of ſuch only as are conſiderable enough to be viſited by the ſhips of the European nations, for there are ſome which are inhabited by a few fiſhermen only, and others which ſerve but as a ſanctuary to ſome caloyers, or Greek monks, more wretched ſtill than the fiſhermen.

For the reader's conveniency we ſhall ſet down here theſe iſlands, not according to their geographical ſituation, but in an alphabetical order; but we ſhall obſerve firſt, that all theſe iſlands lie between the 35th and 40th degrees of north latitude. Some of them are called Cyclades, becauſe they form as it were a crown, or circle, round the iſle of Delos; the others are called Sporades, becauſe they are diſperſed here and there, and lie without any order between Aſia and the iſle of Candia.

The iſlands of the Archipelago in the Ægean Sea, and their trade.

AMORGOS.

ANDROS.

ANTIPAROS.

CANDIA, a large iſland in the Mediterranean, ſituated at the entrance of the Archipelago. It was anciently known by the name of Creta, and is about 1600 miles diſtant from Marſeilles, 600 from Conſtantinople, 400 from Damieta in Egypt, 300 from Cyprus, 100 from Milo, and 40 from Cerigo.

The trade which is carried on in this iſland is conſiderable, and moſt of the Chriſtian nations who traffic in the ports of the Levant have conſuls here. The towns in this iſland which have the greateſt trade are, Canea, Retimo, Candia, and Girapetra. The French conſul reſides at Canea, and yet there are not above 10 or 12 merchants of that nation ſettled there.

The country about this town, as well as the reſt of the iſland, is covered with olive-trees, which in a manner never die, becauſe it never freezes here. The oil made of the fruit is very good, and the chief article of the trade of the iſland. When there is a good crop of olives, they can make about 300,000 meaſures of oil. In the year 1699 the people of Provence bought 200,000 meaſures for their ſhare only; and in 1700, after the crop was gathered in, oil was worth but from 36 to 40 parats per meaſure, or, at moſt, 44, reckoning the parat at the rate of 6 liards French money (which at that time amounted to about 5 farthings Engliſh) and the meaſure, at the rate of 8 ocos and ½, the oco weighing 3 pounds and a ½. It roſe, indeed, afterwards to 60 and 66 parats, by the eagerneſs of the French traders, who out-bid each other.

This oil is proper for the ſoap-makers of Marſeilles, eſpecially when the oil of Provence happens to fail. The beſt in the iſland is that of Canea and of Retimo; that of Girapetra is black and muddy, becauſe the inhabitants of this laſt place are uſed to ſtir the oil and the lees together with a ſtick, before they pour it out of the jars, in order to ſell all together.

There is alſo bought in Candia a great deal of wine and malmſey. The malmſey of Retimo is reckoned the beſt.

The French keep a vice-conſul in the laſt-mentioned town.

The other commodities of this iſland are gum adraganth, laudanum, wool, ſilk, honey, wax, cheeſe, cotton, and ſeſamum. One might alſo buy wheat there, which is excellent, particularly about the town of Candia; but the exportation of it is often prohibited.

CHIO, or SCIO. This iſland, which the Turks, who are at preſent in poſſeſſion of it, call Salzizadaki, or Sachezada, that is to ſay, the iſle of maſtic, is one of the largeſt and beſt-peopled in the Archipelago.

It's commerce is very conſiderable, but yet much leſs ſo than might be reaſonably expected from the great number of its inhabitants, and the ſeveral merchandizes which grow, or are manufactured there.

Wine, butter, ſilk, cotton, turpentine and maſtic, from whence it took its new name, are the chief productions, which make the Europeans go thither, eſpecially the Engliſh and French, who have conſuls here, as being one of the moſt important ports of the Levant.

It is reckoned that there is above 100 crowns worth of ſpun ſilk bought here every year, beſides a great many ſtuffs made in the iſland, and amongſt others, damaſks, ſattins, and taffaties, or luſtrings, which are carried to Cairo, as well as to all the other towns on the coaſts of Barbary and Anatolia, and particularly to Conſtantinople.

The cotton is either in the wool, or ſpun; a great deal of it is alſo uſed in manufacturing fuſtians and dimities, which are reckoned pretty good, and deſigned for the ſame places as the ſilk-ſtuffs.

As for the maſtic, wherein conſiſts the chief trade of this iſland, it being hardly to be met with any-where elſe, the beſt of it is deſigned for the Grand Seignior, or rather for the ladies of his ſeraglio; ſo that what the Europeans buy there can be nothing but the refuſe, which the officer, ſent thither by the Porte to watch the gathering of this precious gum, did not judge fine enough to be ſent to Conſtantinople. We mention in another place the plant which produces the maſtic, its uſe and its trade.

We ſhall add to this the account which Mr Tournefort gives us of this iſland, in the ſecond volume of his voyage into the Levant, letter 2.

The wine of Chio is pleaſant and ſtomachical. There are three ſorts of it: the one has ſomething of that tartneſs which afterwards turns into ſtrength: the next is luſcious, or ſweet; and the third has ſomething of both.

The grapes of which they make theſe three ſorts of wine are cut in Auguſt. After they have let them dry 7 or 8 days, they preſs them, and then let them ſtand in tubs to work, the cellar being all the while cloſe ſhut. In order to make the beſt wine, they mix with the black grapes a kind of white grapes, which are of the form of a peach-ſtone: but, in making nectar, which ſtill goes under that name in Chio, they uſe another ſort of grapes, ſomewhat ſtyptic, which makes it difficult to ſwallow them when one eats them: but that ſtyptic taſte turns afterwards into ſweetneſs, when mixed with common grapes.

They do not gather much above 200 muids, or hogſheads, of oil at Chio, each muid weighing 400 ocos, at the rate of 3 pounds 2 ounces per oco.

The French export alſo honey and wax from this iſland: but the moſt conſiderable commodity of the country is ſilk, of which they make yearly 60,000 maſſes, which, at half a pound per maſs, amounts to 30,000 pounds French weight (or to 32,700 pounds avoirdupois, 100 pounds in France making 109 pounds Engliſh weight). That ſilk is almoſt all uſed in the iſland, in the manufacturing of velvets, damaſks, and other ſtuffs, deſigned for Aſia, Egypt, and Barbary; they ſometimes mix gold and ſilver with ſilk in theſe ſtuffs.

Each pound of ſilk pays at the cuſtom-houſe a duty of four tomins, that is to ſay, 20 ſols French money. It is ſold

ſometimes for 35 tomins per pound, beſides which the buyer is obliged to pay the duty.

The other commodities of this iſland are wool, cheeſe, figs, and maſtic: theſe figs they rear by caprification.

The Turks and the French (I ſuppoſe it ſhould be Franks, i. e. Europeans) pay 3 per cent. on all the merchandizes of the iſland; the Jews and Armenians pay 5 per cent.

METELIN. This is the celebrated Leſbos of the ancients. It produces good wheat, excellent oil, and the beſt figs in the Archipelago. It affords alſo a great deal of wine, which has loſt nothing of its former reputation. Here grow, likewiſe, abundance of fir-trees, of which they make maſts and boards, for which there is a large demand throughout all the Levant.

MILO. Before the king of France had forbidden his ſubjects to cruiſe againſt the Turks in thoſe ſeas, the iſle of Milo was the moſt common retreat of theſe honeſt corſairs, and, as it were, a continual fair, where they came and ſold their prizes: and, as this made the iſle abound with all ſorts of commodities, it had almoſt baniſhed all other trade from it.

But, at preſent, they have a pretty conſiderable commerce in wine, oil, ſalt, ſulphur, allum, cotton, ſeſamum, coloquintida, and all ſorts of pulſe.

Salt is ſold there for a trifle.

The ſulphur of Milo is extremely fine, and has a greeniſh and ſhining caſt. It is to be found in large pieces, by digging the ground, and in deep veins in the quarries, whence mill-ſtones are taken.

Cotton is very fine here, and ſells well: one may buy it, however, for a ſequin per 100 weight, when it is ſtill in the pod, that is to ſay, wrapped up within the fruit; and for 10 or 11 florins, when it is picked, and without the pod.

There is alſo at Milo a kind of chalk, fit to be uſed inſtead of ſoap. It is as good as the Cimolean earth, that comes from Argentiere.

They have alſo here a prodigious ſale of mill-ſtones, and furniſh not only all the other iſlands of the Archipelago with them, but even Conſtantinople, the kingdom of Cyprus, and a great part of Egypt. The quarries are ſo plentiful, that they afford, one year with another, a revenue of above 50,000 livres to the Grand Seignior.

This iſland furniſhes almoſt all the ſhips that ſail in the Mediterranean with pilots, none being better acquainted with that ſea than they are.

MICONE, and, in the Franc language, or lingua Franca, MICONI. Its harbour is very good, and its ſoil produces abundance of commodities proper for trade. The ſeamen of Micone are reckoned the beſt of all thoſe of the Archipelago, and ſeem to vie with thoſe of Milo; and, indeed, the iſland of Micone alone can furniſh 500 mariners, and above 100 veſſels, for the trade of thoſe iſlands, and 40 or 50 large ketches for that of Turkey and the Morea.

The trade to Turkey conſiſts in leather, particularly in Morocco and Cordovan leather, which they go and lade at Siagi, near Smyrna, and at Scalanova. The trade to Morea conſiſts chiefly of wine: the people of Micone make, one year with another, from 25 to 30,000 barrels, each barrel weighing 50 ocos, that is to ſay, 150 pounds French weight. Every ketch can carry 7 or 800 barrels.

Beſides the French conſul, there are alſo in this iſland an Engliſh and a Dutch conſul, though the two laſt-mentioned nations ſend few ſhips thither, but the Greeks who trade there, put themſelves under their protection.

The French ſhips, deſigned for Smyrna and for Conſtantinople, always paſs through the canal of Tine and Micone. Beſides theſe veſſels, which touch at Micone, there come often hither barques of Provence, that lade corn, ſilk, cotton, and other merchandiſes of the neighbouring iſlands.

NAXIA. Though there be hardly any harbour in this iſland, yet they have a pretty good trade. The chief commodities bought here are barley, wines, figs, cotton, ſilk, flax, cheeſe, ſalt, oxen, ſheep, mules, emery and oil.

There is alſo laudanum to be met with here, but it is full of filth, goat's-hair and wool, the inhabitants not taking care to gather it with whips as they do in Candia, cutting only off the hair, or wool, of the animals which have rubbed themſelves againſt the ſhrubs that produce it.

Olive-oil is very cheap in Naxia; ſalt is cheaper ſtill.

Emery is found in ſeveral parts of the iſland by the huſbandmen, whence it is carried to the ſea-ſide to be embarked at St John Triangata. The Engliſh often take it in for ballaſt; and it coſts them commonly but a crown the 20 quintals, each quintal weighing 140 pounds.

The marble of Naxia is very much valued. The French keep a conſul in this iſland.

PAROS. This iſland was formerly very famous for its white marble, which the ſculptors, for their buſineſs, preferred before all other ſorts of marble; and ſome pretend that moſt of the ancient ſtatues which have been preſerved till this time were made of the marble of Paros.

The modern ſculptors are not of the ſame opinion with the ancients; and the moſt ſkilful agree, that the marble of Italy is preferable to that of Greece, the latter being of too coarſe a grain, and apt to ſplit, or fly, when it is working; whereas the former is ſoft, and ſeems to yield to the chiſſel.

It is thought that the quarry of marble in Provence, between Marſeilles and Pennes, is of the ſame grain with that Grecian marble.

The trade of Paros conſiſts in wheat, barley, wines, ſeſamum, and cotton-cloth. It produced alſo formerly abundance of oil; but, during the war of Candia, the Venetian army burnt almoſt all the olive-trees in this iſland.

PATINO, or PATHMOS. This iſland is very ſmall; but it is become very famous by being the dwelling-place of St John the Evangeliſt, who is commonly thought to have written his Revelation here.

This iſland produces hardly any thing proper for trade, the wheat, barley, and figs which grow there being hardly ſufficient for the ſupport of its inhabitants. But then they have ketches, and a great many other ſmaller veſſels, which they uſe to fetch corn from the main land, and even from the coaſt of the Black Sea, wherewith to lade the French ſhips.

There is in this iſland a vice-conſul from France.

POLICANDRO. This is a ſmall, parched, ſtony iſland. Its inhabitants are very poor, and have but little trade, all the corn, wine, and oil they gather being for their own uſe.

Their only trade, which is any thing conſiderable, conſiſts in cotton-cloth, fit for napkins, which is extremely cheap.

SAMOS. They drive in this iſland a pretty conſiderable trade.

The cuſtom-houſe duties, indeed, are farmed out but for 10,000 crowns; but then the aga who demands them gets as much more, which he does not account for.

The muſcadine grapes are the fineſt and beſt fruit in the iſland; but the wine made with them is none of the moſt excellent, which is thought to be owing to the bad method of making it: that which is made for the uſe of the Europeans ſettled at Smyrna, is commonly pretty good, becauſe they are more careful in making it, and mix no water with it, as moſt of the Greeks are uſed to do.

The Greeks who buy the wine in the iſland pay 4 or 5 per cent. duty on exportation according to the cuſtom-houſe officer's fancy: the French pay but half of that duty. Moſt of the wine is carried to Chio, Rhodes, and Napoli de Romania.

The oil of Samos is pretty good, but the iſland does not produce plenty of it, the beſt crops hardly amounting to 8 or 900 barrels. The Greeks pay 4 per cent. duty of exportation on this commodity, and the French but two.

They dry figs at Samos, for the uſe of the inhabitants only; they are very white, and three or four times bigger than thoſe of Marſeilles, but not ſo delicate. They make no uſe of caprification here, as they do in moſt of the other iſlands of the Archipelago.

This iſland can alſo afford yearly 400 quintals of pitch, which ſells for a crown per quintal, and pays 4 per cent. duty of exportation.

Another commodity of this iſland is velami, called velamda by the modern Greeks (it is the ſhell of a ſort of acorn) which is uſed to tan leather. They lade a great quantity of it for Venice and Ancona.

Laſtly, they export from thence ſilk, honey, wax, ſcammony, wool, ſeveral ſorts of bole, and emery.

The ſcammony of Samos is not very good; it is reddiſh, hard, and tough, and conſequently not eaſily reduced into powder: it is alſo found to purge too violently. This drug is uſed in Anatolia, and not ſent into Europe. It pays no duty.

Amongſt the boles, that of the neighbourhood of Bavonda is reckoned the beſt; it is of a deep red; very fine, and very dry. It is a kind of natural ſaffron of Mars, or crocus Martis.

Oker is very common here; it becomes of a pretty fine yellow, when ſlightly expoſed to the fire, and of a reddiſh-brown, when left longer expoſed to it. This kind of earth is inſipid, and gives naturally a fillmot colour.

There is to be found near Carlovaſſi another bole very black, and much finer; they uſe it to dye black with.

SANTORINI. This iſland is properly nothing but a large rock intirely of pumice-ſtone. The French conſul reſides at Scaro, a ſmall town built in the bottom of the harbour. The inhabitants are extremely laborious, and very fond of trade. The commodities which they afford their neighbours are barley, wine, cotton, and lemons.

The wine is of the colour of Rheniſh, but very ſtrong.

They prune the cotton-buſhes there, as they do the vine.

Theſe buſhes or ſhrubs grow pretty much to the ſize and ſhape of our currant-buſhes, and yet the cotton they produce is of the ſame kind with that which the botaniſts call herb-cotton, and which they diſtinguiſh from the ſhrub-cotton.

As for the calicoes, the fineſt are made by nuns, either of the Latin or Greek rite. Thoſe that are quilted are chiefly valued, great quantities of which are exported to Candia, to Morea, and throughout the whole Archipelago.

SIKINO. The trade of this iſland conſiſts chiefly in wheat, which is reckoned the beſt in the Archipelago. The tartanes of Provence lade large quantities of it, and have almoſt engroſſed

groſſed this whole trade, ſince that of Cape Negro on the coaſt of Barbary has been diſcontinued. The Turks, indeed, are not very well pleaſed to ſee their corn carried away, and often reckon it amongſt the commodities, of which the exportation is prohibited; but it is eaſy to corrupt their cuſtom-houſe officers.

The other commodities of Sikino, are wine, ſome cotton, and figs; the latter are excellent here, when freſh; but it is otherwiſe, when they are dried, becauſe they put them into an oven to preſerve them from worms.

There is a conſul of the French nation in Sikino.

SIPHANTO. This iſland is but ſix miles diſtant from Milo. The commodities exported from hence are oil, capers, ſilk, calicoes, figs, wax, honey, and ſeſamum.

There are two ſorts of calicoes; that called eſcamite, which is plain; and the other dimitty, which is quilted; the latter is much the fineſt, and there is a large demand for it.

This iſland produces alſo plenty of cotton, but it is all uſed on the ſpot for the manufactory of theſe calicoes, and they are even obliged to import a great deal from the neighbouring iſlands.

The ſilk is pretty fine, but there is but little of it.

SKYROS. Its whole trade conſiſts in wheat, barley, wine, and wax. The French lade here ſome barques with wheat and barley; the wine is carried to the neighbouring iſlands, and is ſold at Skyros but for a crown per barrel. As for wax, they ſeldom gather above a hundred quintals per ann. here is alſo excellent cheeſe.

SYRA. The commodities it produces, which are proper for trade, are excellent cheeſe, but in ſmall quantities, a great deal of barley and wine, figs, olives, and cotton.

THERMIA. This is one of the iſlands of the Archipelago, where the French keep a conſul. The chief trade of the inhabitants conſiſts in ſilk, which is reckoned full as good as that of Tinos, another iſland of the Archipelago.

The other commodities exported from Thermia, are wine, honey, wax, wool, and cotton, of which they make ſeveral ſorts of linnens, and particularly a kind of very pretty yellow gawz, of which the women in this iſland make veils.

TINOS. This ſmall iſland lies pretty near that of Andros.

The chief commerce of Tinos conſiſts in ſilk.

This ſilk is the beſt prepared of all that is ſold in the Archipelago, and, except that it is not proper for making ſtuffs, it may be uſed in all other ſorts of works, as knit ſtockings and gloves, ribbonds, and ſewing ſilk.

The French buy up almoſt all the ſilk of this iſland: they who lade it for Venice, pay no duty of exportation: but they muſt give ſecurity, and their ſureties are obliged to pay the duty, if it be found that the ſilk was carried to any other place.

This iſland belongs to the Venetians, and the French have a conſul there.

Tinos produces wine, figs, olives, wheat, and barley. But, except barley, of which they have a pretty good trade, the reſt is hardly ſufficient for the occaſions of the inhabitants.

ZIA. Its commodities are wheat, barley, wine, figs, ſilk, and a great deal of velani, a ſort of acorn.

The ſilk of Zia is pretty good; when the inhabitants would ſpin it, they commonly meet ſeveral together, and ſit on the edge of their terraſſes, to let the ſpindle run down into the ſtreet, which they afterwards draw up again by winding the ſilk.

Pliny and ſome other authors aſſert, that the making of ſilk ſtuffs was invented in this iſland. But M. de Tournefort, in his Voyage into the Levant, pretends that it can be eaſily proved this invention is owing to the inhabitants of the iſle of Cos.

They make at Zia cloaks or riding-coats of goat's hair, which are very good againſt the rain, and can hardly be wet through; the ſtuff of which they are made is very thin, and flabby, when it comes from the loom; but, after it has been welted and fulled on the ſand and with ſea-water, the threads become ſo cloſe and tight, that it is, as it were, impenetrable to rain. That the threads may cloſe uniformly, and that the ſtuffs may not ſhrink, they ſtretch them in the ſun upon poles, with weights of ſtone at the bottom.

There are two ſorts of figs at Zia, which are cultivated as in moſt of the other iſlands of the Archipelago, by giving them that kind of dreſſing which the ancients did, and the moderns do ſtill, call caprification.

SALONICHI, anciently THESSALONICA, is a ſea-port, ſituated in the cod of a gulph of the ſame name in the Archipelago. This port is pretty much frequented ſince the beginning of this century. There are a French and a Dutch conſul here. There come hither a great many ſhips of all nations, particularly from Marſeilles, Leghorn, Genoa, and even directly from Holland; but chiefly from the three former places, eſpecially when corn is ſcarce or dear in France or Italy, provided the Grand Seignior does not prohibit the admiſſion of thoſe ſhips. However, there is a great deal of corn exported by ſtealth, not indeed from Salonichi, but from its neighbourhood, as Vollo, &c. It is paid for in Spaniſh piaſters, in roſo-piaſters, in ſequins, or any other coin that is current at Salonichi; and the merchants, to whom the ſhips are conſigned, change thoſe pieces for current money of the country, which are ſolette-piaſters. Theſe merchants ſend a clerk, or any other truſty perſon on board the veſſel, to aſſiſt the captain or ſupercargo to get in his lading, at ſome of thoſe places, of wheat or barley, according as he has occaſion for either.

The other commodities exported from Salonichi, are tobacco, either common, or that ſort which they call carada, of which ſhips or barques do frequently take their entire lading: cotton in the wool, more valued than that of Smyrna; yellow wax, a great quantity of which is brought thither from Turkiſh Walakhia; undreſſed ſheep's wool, of ſeveral qualities. Salonicas, otherwiſe called abats, both broad and ſmall: theſe are very coarſe ſtuffs of white wool, proper to cloath peaſants and ſoldiers; theſe they ſend ſometimes into Piedmont, and great coats for ſeamen.

The commodities ſent thither are indigo, cochineal, ginger, pepper, cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, brazil wood, logwood, and Japan wood; ſugars, lead, tin, tinned iron, double or ſingle; Engliſh broad cloth, other cloth after the manner of England, narrow and broad; Dutch coloured cloths, ſorted, French paper, almonds, verdigreaſe, and ſometimes coffee from the American iſlands.

The Sevillane piaſter is worth at Salonichi 212 aſpers, and the Rouſpi ſequin 412.

The quilot makes about half a ſac of Leghorn, the ocos three pounds and a half of the ſame town, and the pic about one Dutch ell.

N. B. It may be obſerved here, that the French are ſo careful of their trade, as to keep conſuls even at ſeveral of theſe ſmall iſlands, where no other power does.

ARCHITECT, he who draws plans and deſigns of edifices, directs the works, and commands the maſons, carpenters, tilers, and other workmen, who work under him.

Though there is a great difference between an architect, and a maſter-builder, the one profeſſing a liberal art, and the other exerciſing a trade; yet in France they are often taken the one for the other, becauſe they can both be equally admitted among the experienced and ſworn architects of the king, created by the edicts of May and December 1690, and by the declaration of Auguſt 1691.

Theſe architect officers are of two ſorts. The one are ſtiled ſworn expert citizens or burghers, and the other ſworn expert undertakers. There are thirty of each.

The functions, attributed to them by the above-mentioned edicts and delaration, are, that they alone, and no others, ſhall, within the city, provoſtſhips, and viſcounty of Paris, and in all other towns and places within the kingdom of France, make all viſitations, evaluations, and eſtimates, both amicably, and by order of a court of juſtice, in all matters relating to partitions, adjudications of buildings, either by auction or by law, houſes or other buildings, ſtanding out of the proper row, imminent danger of buildings coming down; and to works of maſonry, carpenters, joiners, tilers, ſmiths, ſculpture, gilding, painting, ſurveying, and meaſuring of land, and generally all things in which ſkill and experience are required.

ARCHITECTURE, the art of erecting buildings of every kind, conſiſtent with the principles of geometry.

The plan or projection of an edifice is commonly laid down on three ſeveral draughts.

The firſt is a plan, which exhibits the extent, diviſion, and diſtribution of the ground into the various apartments and other conveniences propoſed.

The ſecond repreſents the ſtories, their heights, and the external beauties and appearances of the whole building: this is uſually termed, by ſurveyors, the deſign or elevation.

The third is commonly diſtinguiſhed by the ſection, and ſhews the internal parts of the fabric.

From theſe three diſtinct plans, the ſurveyor forms a computation of the charges of the whole erection, and alſo of the time, wherein the ſame may be completed.

Our work being intended for the practical, rather than the mere ſpeculative life, it is not conſiſtent with the tenour of our deſign to enter deeply into the theories of arts, there being variety of performances of this kind already.

However, where we cannot ſo ſatisfactorily communicate our intention, we hope to be excuſed from touching upon the rational principles, on which ſome arts are founded, and referring only to the beſt authors, who have excelled in their peculiar province. This method of conducting our work, we preſume, may have its uſes, more eſpecially with noviſts, who would be gladly informed of the beſt authors, who have expreſsly written upon any particular branch of art or ſcience, that they might neither loſe their time in reading what may be uſeleſs and give them a wrong turn, nor ſpend their money to no purpoſe.

In architectural compoſitions, the column, being the principal figure, ſhould be perfect in its proportions, as they are taught by the ancients, who founded the art on natural and geometrical principles. Accordingly they inſtruct us, that the height of the column ſhould be meaſured by its diameter

without any fraction or remainder, according to the different proportions of each order.

Of theſe orders there are five, none exceeding ten diameters in height, nor leſs than ſeven: thoſe of eight and ten are eſteemed perfect, the reſt are inferior.

Their names and proportions are as follow, including baſe and capital:

The Tuſcan is in height	7	diameters.
The Doric — ——	8	diameters.
The Ionic — —	9	diameters.
The Corinthian ——	10	diameters.
The Roman, or Compoſite	10	diameters.

The rules for the proportion of columns being ſettled, the entablatures muſt bear a proportion to them in each order. For this Palladio has given a rule, which cannot undergo any great change, without altering the unalterable proportion of columns. He makes the entablatures of the Tuſcan and Doric to be to their columns as one to four, and the Ionic, Corinthian, and Compoſite, as one to five. The proportion of the entablature in each order is explained as followeth:

One diameter and $\frac{1}{4}$, is the height of the entablature of the Tuſcan order; which is $\frac{1}{4}$ of ſeven diameters. Two diameters form the height of the entablature of the Doric; that being $\frac{1}{4}$ of eight diameters. One diameter and $\frac{4}{6}$ is the height of the entablature of the Ionic; which is $\frac{1}{5}$ of nine diameters. Two diameters make the height of the entablature of the Corinthian order; that being $\frac{1}{5}$ of ten diameters. The entablature of the Compoſite has the ſame proportion with that of the Corinthian.

The entablature being a part proportionable to its column, and the pedeſtal an addition to both, it ſhould be conſidered as a part of the column and entablature taken together; therefore, the height of the column and entablature being divided into four equal parts, one of them ſhall be the height of the pedeſtal. This rule is to be obſerved through all the five orders, by which the pedeſtal will have an agreeable effect with the whole and all its parts.

The pedeſtal may be made lower when neceſſity requires, but not otherwiſe.

Thoſe who would be practically informed in the principles of this art, may conſult the works of the ingenious Mr James Gibbs, in his rules for drawing the ſeveral parts of architecture, in a more exact manner than has been heretofore practiſed, by which all fractions, in dividing the principal members and their parts, are avoided.

Therein they will find the general proportions of the ſeveral orders geometrically delineated. Alſo the ſeveral pedeſtals, entablatures, cornices, and architraves, *&c.*

In that uſeful work, the learned author has explained the arcades and intercolumnations of each order, and laid down a familiar rule for placing orders above orders.—Likewiſe rules for drawing doors, gates, windows, and chimney-pieces of different kinds, cornices and their profiles, architraves, baſes, impoſts, ſurbaſes, frames for pannels or pictures in rooms, and other ſorts of mouldings, and the proportions of balluſters; as alſo ſcrolls, frets, or guilochis, and pannelling for cielings, both flat and circular.

In dividing and adjuſting his orders, Palladio has, doubtleſs, excelled the reſt who have wrote upon this ſubject; and therefore Mr Gibbs has followed that celebrated architect. Palladio has divided the diameter of his column, which he calls his module, into ſixty minutes, and ſubdivided them into ſeconds, thirds, and fourths.

This is ſuppoſed to be the method of the ancients in compoſing their deſigns; but it is very difficult to tyroes, and ſuch who are but meanly ſkilled in arithmetic: and certainly the parts, conſiſting of ſo many fractions, may occaſion miſtakes in thoſe who copy the orders of Palladio; beſides the difficulty of dividing theſe ſmall parts with compaſſes, for practical buſineſs. But, according to Mr Gibbs's method of dividing the orders mechanically into equal parts, fractions are entirely avoided; which will be found to be ſo beneficial to workmen in drawing any part at large, that, when they are once accuſtomed to it, they will never follow any other: which is the reaſon for our recommendation of the works of this modern architect.

The rules of architecture require, That, in a fabric judiciouſly and elegantly erected, there ſhould be ſolidity, convenience, and beauty; to which, according to the taſte of ſome of our moſt refined maſters, are added, order, diſpoſition, proportion, decorum, and œconomy. And theſe eight are eſteemed, by the beſt judges, to conſtitute the neceſſary parts of architecture.

Solidity, implies the choice of a good foundation, and good materials to work with. Convenience, conſiſts in ſo diſpoſing the various parts of a ſtructure, that they may not crowd and embarraſs each other, or appear diſagreeable to the inſpector.

Beauty, is that engaging form and pleaſing appearance, which captivate at one glance, as it were, the ſight of the ſpectator.

Order, gives each part of the building a proportionate extent, adapted to the magnitude of the whole.

Diſpoſition, is the due ranging and agreeable union of all the parts, in order to render the whole agreeable at all times.

Proportion, is the relation that the whole work has to its conſtituent parts, and which each part hath to the complex idea of the whole: for, among buildings that are perfect of their kind, from any particular part, we may make a good judgment of the goodneſs of the whole; for example, the diameter of a pillar, or the length of a triglyph, gives us a right idea of the whole with which they have connexion. To expreſs the relation that many things have to one another, as to their magnitude, and the variety of their parts, Vitruvius, the great architect, indifferently uſes the words proportion, eurythmy, and ſymmetry; the two laſt whereof are pretty ſynonymous with the firſt.

Decorum, or decency, conſiſts in making the whole aſpect of the fabric ſo correct, that nothing ſhall appear but what is founded upon the principles of geometry, and delicacy of judgment. Theſe have regard to deſign, cuſtom, and nature. Deſign induces to chuſe other diſpoſitions for a church than a palace. The regard we pay to cuſtom, inclines us to decorate without the entrance of ſuch houſes, which are ſumptuous and magnificent within. The regard we have to the nature of places, from an inherent taſte, perhaps, natural to mankind, makes us pitch upon different proſpects for different parts of an edifice; thus we chuſe to expoſe bed-chambers and libraries to the morning ſun; winter apartments to the weſt, and cloſets of paintings to the north, they requiring a pretty equal light.

Oeconomy, inſtructs the architect, to have regard to the expence to be made of his deſign, the quality of the materials, near the places where he builds, and take his whole meaſures judiciouſly, for the order and diſpoſition.

Architecture is commonly divided into civil, or military, and naval, or marine.

Civil ARCHITECTURE, is the art of deſigning edifices of every kind, for the uſes of civil life in every capacity, as habitations for dwelling, churches, meetings, ſynagogues, colleges, halls, palaces, *&c.*

Military ARCHITECTURE, is properly the art of fortification, or that of raiſing of forts and caſtles, to ſcreen and protect from the hoſtilities or invaſion of enemies; and depends, as the other does, upon the principles of geometry.

The deſign hereof is to ſhew, how a place may be fortified with ramparts, parapets, moats, and other bulwarks and defenſible contrivances, with an intent that a ſmall number of men, within ſuch a place, may be capable to defend themſelves againſt the aſſaults of a more numerous army.

This part of architecture is either regular or irregular, and either of a durable or of a temporary nature.

The regular, is that which is built on a regular polygon, the ſides and angles being equal, and equi-diſtant from each other.

The irregular, is that where the ſides and angles are not all uniform, nor equi-diſtant, nor equal to each other.

The durable, are thoſe works which are raiſed for continuance.

The temporary, is that which is erected occaſionally on particular emergencies: ſuch are thoſe works, which are raiſed for the ſeizing or maintaining of a port or paſſage, circumvallations, contravallations, redoubts, batteries, trenches, *&c.*

Thoſe who have excelled in the military architecture, are Coehorn, Pagan, Vauban, Scheiter, Blondel, from whom all who have wrote ſince, have chiefly derived what they have communicated to the world.

Though this part of architecture, as well as the others, ſhould by all means be duly cultivated in theſe kingdoms; yet the wiſeſt men have allowed, that the ſafety and defence of Great-Britain principally depends upon her

Marine, or Naval ARCHITECTURE, or the art of ſhip-building, which is not only founded upon the due application of geometrical principles with great judgment and delicacy, but on thoſe of hydroſtatics, as the honourable Mr Boyle obſerves. So that to be thoroughly ſkilled in this uſeful art requires a perſon to be well informed in all the curious problems, theorems, and paradoxes, with which that great man, and others, have favoured the world upon that ſubject.

In order to complete the art of ſhip-building, it has been obſerved by ſome ingenious practical artiſts in this branch, that hydroſtatical experiments, in regard thereunto, ſhould be made upon ſalt-water, and not freſh, as the chief of them have been.

It has been ſaid by others alſo, that the ſhipwright ſhould be as good a mariner, as marine architect, and know as well how to ſail, as build a ſhip: the reaſon given for this is, that, in practical navigation, the ingenious ſhipwright, ſkilled therein, will remark variety of particulars, which will guide him in his architecture, which the mere ſhipwright can form no idea of.

It is not for want of genius in ſhipwrights, that the practical part of ſhip-building is not carried to a greater perfection: but for want, I am afraid, of their not being ſo regularly bred in theſe kingdoms, as could be deſired; conſidering that

our whole commerce and navigation ſo greatly depends upon that art: for the qualifications, requiſite to render a perſon a complete maſter of this art, are really ſo many, as well in regard to the theoretic as practical part, that it is very rare, indeed, that ſuch qualifications are concentrated in one man. It has been obſerved therefore by ſome wiſe and great men, that our ſucceſſes by ſea have been more owing to the ſtrength of natural genius in our mere practical ſhipwrights, or rather to chance, than to any competent knowledge in thoſe parts of the mathematics and philoſophy, which are indiſpenſably neceſſary to excel in that art.

From the year 1617 to 1656, ſhips of three decks were from 38 to 40 feet broad; the St Michael by Sir John Tippets, but 41 feet 8 inches; the London by Jonas Shiſh but 44 feet, and carried 100 guns: ſince that, ſeveral ſhips, of 48 feet broad, have been obliged to be girdled.

The Monk by Sir John Tippets, the Rupert by Sir Anthony Deane, the Mary by Mr Pett, the Dreadnought by Sir Henry Johnſon, all third rate men of war, belonging to the royal navy of England, and but 36 feet 6 inches broad; the Cambridge by Mr Shiſh but 38 feet, and the Royal Oak no more than 40, and each of them carrying 70 guns; and, ſince them, two deck ſhips of 42 feet broad have miſcarried.

The Royal Catharine was contrived by the Royal Society, and yet was girdled; the double-keeled experiment was alſo made by that ſociety.

Since miſcarriages in our ſhip-building are often attended with very injurious, and may be with very fatal conſequences to the nation, this art cannot be too judiciouſly cultivated, nor too zealouſly promoted.

It has been obſerved by ſome, that a ſhip ought to be conſidered three principal ways. (1.) By trying her body below the deepeſt draught of water, whether the ſhape be truly circular or not, according to the courſe of the water, and not by horizontal parallels, which will enable us to form a true judgment, whether ſhe will ſail ſwift, or not. (2.) By obſerving the ſhape or frame of the ribs, which will inform us, whether ſhe's well contrived to bear the ſail you deſign; which is to know, according to the phraſe of the ſhipwright, whether ſhe be ſtiff, or tender-ſided. (3.) By conſidering the due connexion of ſuch a machine. Which three obſervations being ſkilfully made, it is ſaid, by ſome, will form the hull of any ſhip perfect and complete.

Others have been of opinion, that the reſiſtance in the water is according to that croſs ſection, which is made by the midſhip, or the largeſt part of the ſhip, only conſidering the angle of incidence; and that every ſhip principally reſiſts the medium at her broadeſt part; alſo that the maſs of water which reſiſts a ſhip, is not reſiſted by her until it is paſſed by her biggeſt part; and that, if two ſhips were formed ever ſo various, the one ever ſo acute, and the other as obtuſe as poſſible, yet, if their cubic inches under the ſurface of the water, and the power that drove them was equal, the trim indifferently conſidered, their velocities would be equal.

For a more minute and ſatisfactory account of this art, we refer the reader to Sutherland's Ship-builders Aſſiſtant, and to Britain's Glory, or Ship-building unveiled, by the ſame ingenious artiſt.

Remarks.

In regard to civil architecture, it is certain, that thoſe nations which have no ſtately and magnificent buildings in general, are always poor and uncivilized. As land ſtructures and edifices of every kind give employment to prodigious numbers of people, whatever has a tendency to improve in the art of building, ſhould be duly encouraged by thoſe whoſe fortunes and diſtinction will admit of it; and that not only for the ſplendor and magnificence of the ſtate, but for the promotion of uſeful arts, as well as the benefit of their landed eſtates: for this art gives birth to the immenſe conſumption of timber, bricks, ſtone, and mortar, iron-work, &c. all which tend to the private advantage of the landed intereſt; as does likewiſe the well furniſhing of thoſe ſumptuous edifices, when they are erected; which alſo gives daily bread to an infinite number of other mechanics and artificers. Theſe mechanic arts give ſtrength, wealth, and grandeur to a nation, and gradually train up and ſupport a conſtant race of practical artiſts and manufacturers, who thereby become the great inſtruments of bringing treaſures into the ſtate, by the vent of our native commodities to foreign nations.

Nor is it politic for the great and opulent to contemn mechanics in general, as too many, perhaps, are wont to do. It is ſaid, that, when the great Heraclitus's ſcholars found him in a mechanic's ſhop, into which they were aſhamed to enter, he told them that the gods were as converſant in ſuch places as in others; intimating, that a divine power and wiſdom might be diſcerned in ſuch common arts, although they miſtakenly overlooked and deſpiſed them.

We know how the late Czar Peter eſteemed and careſſed artificers and mechanics of every rank and degree, and behold the extraordinary effects of ſuch policy in that wiſe prince; who, by thoſe meaſures, has converted a generation of ſavages into men.

There are ſome who are too great encouragers of buildings, they ruining themſelves, as well as the workmen they employ, by gratifying that itch beyond the limits of their fortunes. In conſequence of this boundleſs profuſion, we too frequently ſee, before the expiration of half a century, very ſtately and magnificent ſeats, which have coſt immenſe ſums, run to decay for want of being inhabited, or, according to a modern cuſtom, levelled to the ground for ſale by piece-meal: thus ſtructures that have coſt ſome hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, have not produced one twentieth part of the prime coſt to executors. So that with the money ſunk in the erection of thoſe ſuperb edifices, and the expence which attends the ſupport of them with ſplendor equal to their ſtatelineſs, ſome great families have been reduced to great indignity. This is a melancholy conſideration to the proprietor, though this practice gives employment to workmen, to whom it ſometimes has proved ruinous, as well as to the families of ſuch who have had an ungovernable taſte for building.

The French have an academy for the due cultivation of architecture, eſtabliſhed by Monſ. Colbert.

And, while other nations are aſſiduous in the improvement of the art of fortification, it may not be for the intereſt of England wholly to neglect it, as we have experienced upon ſome late occaſions.

And it will be thought needleſs, by every true friend to the intereſt of the trade and navigation of Great-Britain, to urge a word in favour of the ſtudy and improvement of an art, upon which our all ſeems to depend, both as a free and a trading people: I mean that of marine architecture, or the admirable art of Ship-building, more of which ſee under that article.

ARCTIC, in aſtronomy, a name given to the north pole.

Arctic circle, (in aſtronomy) is a leſſer circle of the ſphere drawn on the globe, parallel to the equator, and at 23 deg. 30 min. diſtant from the north pole of the world, from whence it takes its name. This, and its oppoſite the Antarctic, are called the two polar circles. They may be conceived to be deſcribed by the motion of the poles of the ecliptic round the poles of the equator, or the world.

AREB, a money of account uſed in the dominions of the Grand Mogul, particularly at Amadabat. Four arebs make a crow. A crow is worth a hundred lacs, and a lac 100,000 rupees.

ARECA, or ARECK, a famous fruit of the Eaſt-Indies, wherein they drive an incredible trade, and make a prodigious conſumption thereof, there being ſcarce any perſon, even from the richeſt to the pooreſt, who does not make uſe of it.

The tree which bears the areck is tall, ſtraight, thin, and round. It is of the palm kind, and has no branches: but its leaves are charming to the ſight: they form a round tuft at the top of the trunk, which is as ſtraight as an arrow. It grows to the height of 25, or 35 feet, and is a great ornament in gardens. The ſhell which contains the fruit is ſmooth without, but rough and hairy within, in which it pretty much reſembles the ſhell of the cocoa-nut. Its ſize is equal to that of a pretty large walnut. Its kernel is as big as a nutmeg, to which it bears a great reſemblance without, and has alſo the ſame whitiſh veins within, when cut in two.

In the center of the fruit, when it is ſoft, is contained a greyiſh and almoſt liquid ſubſtance, which grows hard in proportion as it ripens. The fruit, when ripe, is aſtringent, but not unpalatable, and the ſhell is yellowiſh.

The chief uſe that is made of areck is to chew it with the leaves of betle, mixing with it a chalk in a red paſte, made of ſea-ſhells *. In order to chew it they cut the areck into four quarters, and take one quarter of it, which they wrap up in a leaf of betle, over which they lay a little of that chalk: afterwards they tie it, by twiſting it round. This bit prepared for chewing, or maſtication, is called pinang, which is a Malayan word, uſed all over the Eaſt-Indies. The pinang provokes ſpitting very much; whether it be made with dried or freſh areck: the ſpittle is red, which colour the areck gives it. This maſtication cools the mouth, and faſtens the teeth and gums. When they have done chewing the pinang, they ſpit out the groſs ſubſtance that remains in the mouth. They are under a miſtake who imagine that freſh areck melts intirely in the mouth. Nor is it leſs a miſtake to think that the teeth always continue of a red hue. As ſoon as they have done chewing the pinang, they waſh their mouth with freſh water, and then their teeth are white again. The Europeans who live at Batavia, at Malacca, and in the Sunda and Molucca iſlands, uſe pinang as much as the Indians do; and, by waſhing their teeth, they preſerve them white.

* Cornelius le Bruyn aſſerts that they rub the leaves of betle with a red drug of Siam, or with white chalk.

Some pretend that areck ſtrengthens the ſtomach, when the juice of it is ſwallowed, as moſt of the Indians do. Another property, aſcribed to it, is its curing, or carrying off, all that might be unwholeſome or corrupt in the gums.

The

The Siameſe call areck plou in their language.

The beſt areck of the Indies comes from the iſland of Ceylon.

The Dutch Eaſt-India company ſend a great deal of it in their ſhips into the kingdom of Bengal. There grows in Malabar a ſort of red areck, which is very proper for dyeing in that colour. The ſame company ſend ſome of it from time to time to Surat and Amadabat, for the uſe of the dyers in the dominions of the Grand Mogul. Under the ſpecies of areck are comprehended ſix different ſorts, two of which are the beſt for maſtication.

ARGYLESHIRE, in Scotland, has the Iriſh Sea, and the frith of Clyde on the ſouth, Perthſhire on the eaſt, Lochabar on the north-eaſt, and ſeveral iſles on the north-weſt.

'Tis mountainous, and the inhabitants live moſtly by hunting and fiſhing; for its ſeven great loughs, with other leſſer ones, abound with all ſorts of fiſh. The coaſt is full of high rocks, and black mountains, covered with heath, which feed great numbers of black cattle, deer, and wild beaſts. Their cattle generally run wild, but are excellent meat, and their fat boiled continues ſome days like oil.

1. CANTYRE, or KINTIRE, or the LAND'S-HEAD, the moſt ſouthern diviſion of this ſhire, is a peninſula, according to Pont's map, 37 miles from north to ſouth, and 7 in breadth. 'Tis a very fruitful, populous tract, inhabited both by low-landers and highlanders, though for moſt part by the former, brought hither by the Argyle family, who have taken more than ordinary care to civilize their highlands.

2. KNAPDALE is divided on the eaſt from Cowol, by Lochfyn; is bounded with Cantyre on the ſouth, Lorne on the north, Braidalbin on the north-eaſt, and the weſtern iſlands on the weſt. This part is full of lakes, and, in general, is fitter for paſture than corn; but that part of it toward Lochew is fruitful both in corn and paſture.

3. LORNE, is a plain country, the pleaſanteſt and fruitfuleſt part of Argyleſhire, eſpecially in barley.

ARGYLE PROPER has a great herring-fiſhery.

There is a river called Aw, which falls into the weſt ſea, overagainſt the iſle of Mull, and abounds with ſalmon.

For more matter relating to this ſhire, ſee SCOTLAND.

ARISH, a Perſian long meaſure, containing 3197 Engliſh feet.

ARITHMETIC, the art of computation by numbers.

We ſhall not trouble our reader with a prolix account of its origin and progreſs, but endeavour to give him the fundamental principles of the whole art, both in theory and practice, in few words, and a familiar manner.

The principal rules of arithmetic are addition, ſubtraction, multiplication, and diviſion.

Before any progreſs is attempted herein, the reader ſhould become ready and expert in theſe ſeveral operations; which can only be obtained by the repeated practice and exerciſe of theſe rules.

Thoſe who have been neglected in their youth in this highly neceſſary and uſeful part of education, or may have forgot what they have once learnt, which is eaſy to do for want of a little continued practice, need only ſpend an hour, or half an hour, a day, for three weeks, or a month, in the reiterated practice of the fundamental rules; and they will ſoon, by any good book of arithmetic, grow expert in the application of theſe rules to the reduction of things, either aſcending or deſcending: that is to ſay, either to reduce pounds into pence by multiplication, or pence into pounds by diviſion; and ſo of weights and meaſures, or the like.

From hence they may with great facility advance to the rule of proportion, or that which is commonly diſtinguiſhed by the direct rule of three:

Which is no more than to diſcover, that, as 4 is to 8, how is 8 to a fourth number, or what proportion will 8 bear to ſuch unknown number.

Now 'tis obvious at firſt glance of the eye, that 4 is the half of 8; and, therefore, 8 will be the half of the number required, which is 16.

The common rule given for this operation is to × the ſecond and third terms together, and ÷ the product thereof by the firſt:

$$\text{As } 4 : 8 :: 8 \text{ to } 8 \times 8 = \frac{64}{4} = 16 :$$

That is to ſay, to read the ſame in words at length (which we would uſe our readers to avoid for brevity's ſake); as 4 is to 8, ſo is 8 to 8, multiplied by 8, and that product divided by 4, the firſt number.

The reaſon and demonſtration of this common rule depend on this propoſition; that, if 4 numbers are geometrically proportional, the rectangle, or product made of the means, will be equal to that of the two extremes, according to the elements of Euclid, lib. vi. prop. 16. from whence it will be eaſy to deduce the reaſon of the rule given. For grant that 4 is in proportion to 8 as 8 is to a number unknown, for which ſubſtitute x, then the propoſition will ſtand thus:

$$4 : 8 :: 8 : x;$$

That is, to be read in plain words, as 4 is to 8, ſo is 8 to the unknown number: therefore, from the foregoing propoſition of Euclid, the product of the two extremes is equal to the product of the means. Or,

$$4 \times x = 8 \times 8;$$

That is, the number 4, one extreme of the proportionals, multiplied by x, the other extreme, is equal to the product of 8, one mean, multiplied by 8, the other. Or,

$$4x = 64$$
$$\therefore x = \frac{64}{4} = 16$$

If then the product of the firſt number multiplied by the fourth number, or that which is propoſed to be found, be equal to the product of the ſecond and third, it is very obvious that the product of the ſecond and third, divided by the firſt, muſt neceſſarily give the fourth, or that which is propoſed to be found; becauſe it is axiomatically obvious that the produce of the quotient, multiplied by the diviſor, muſt give the dividend, the quotient ſhewing how often the diviſor is contained in the dividend.

Or, the demonſtration of this rule may be deduced from the following ſelf-evident truth, viz.

That the fourth number, or that propoſed to be found, containeth the third ſo often as the ſecond does the firſt.

$\therefore \frac{8}{4} = \frac{x}{8}$, that is, $\frac{1}{4}$ of 8 is equal to one eighth of x, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of 16, which is 2.

From this clear and ſimple demonſtration, it is further eaſy to conceive the reaſon why, according to another part of the common rule, the firſt and third numbers ſhould be of the ſame denomination; and conſequently, if they are not ſo, that they ſhould be ſo reduced till they are.

Of the ſingle rule of indirect proportion.

From what has been ſaid, 'tis apparent by the nature of direct proportion, that, as the fourth number required muſt always turn out greater than the third, as the ſecond is greater than the firſt; ſo, on the contrary, in this rule of indirect proportion, the greater the third number is, the leſs is the fourth; and, the leſs the third is, the greater is the fourth; for which reaſon it is very properly diſtinguiſhed by the name of indirect, or reverſe proportion.

And, whereas in direct proportion the product of the firſt and fourth, or the extremes, is equal to that of the ſecond and third, or of that of the means; in this indirect, or reverſe, rule of proportion, the product of the third and fourth is equal to that of the firſt and ſecond numbers.

The ſtating queſtions in this proportion is the ſame with direct; but, to find the anſwer required, the rule is different. Thus:

Multiply the firſt and ſecond numbers together, and divide the product by the third, and the quote is your anſwer.

A familiar rule to judge whether a queſtion which occurs is to be anſwered either by the direct, or indirect, rule of proportion.

State naturally your numbers, according to the direct rule; then conſider, from the plain nature of the queſtion, whether the third number requires more or leſs than the ſecond number: if more, the leſſer extreme muſt be your diviſor; but, if leſs, the greater extreme muſt be the diviſor.—And ſo often as this leſſer and the great extreme happen to be the third number, or that next the right hand, ſo often is the proportion indirect: but, when they are the firſt number, the proportion is direct.

A ſhort example will make this matter plain, with little attention.

If a board be 9 inches broad, how much in length will make a foot ſquare?

Say, if 12 inches broad require 12 inches in length to make a foot ſquare, what length will 9 inches broad require to make a foot ſquare?

Certain it is to every capacity that it will require more length, becauſe there is leſs breadth.

in. br. long. in. br.
Therefore, as 12 : 12 : 9
12
9)144
16 inches in length.

From the definition of this rule before given, the product of the firſt and ſecond numbers is equal to that of the third and fourth: from whence the demonſtration of the reaſon of the rule will appear. For

$$12 : 12 : 9 : x$$

Therefore, according to the definition;

$$12 \times 12 = 9 \times x, \text{ or}$$
$$144 = 9x$$

that is, the rectangle of the two firſt numbers, 12 by 12, is equal to that of x by 9.

If then $144 = 9x$, $x = \frac{144}{9} = 16$: that is, if 144 is equal to $9x$, it follows that x is equal to one ninth part of $144 = 16$.
According to the ſame rules, and the ſame ſimple demonſtrations, the reaſon of the double rule of proportion may be explained, ſo as to be intelligible to any underſtanding.
And theſe rules are the baſis of all vulgar arithmetic in whole numbers: for all the others are natural derivations from them, they all depending on the application of the plain principles of proportion.
I ſhall now, with the like brevity, ſhew the reaſon and foundation of fractions, both vulgar and decimal.
A fraction is one, or more, parts of an integer, according as the ſame is divided.
Every fraction conſiſts of two parts, a numerator and denominator; the latter ſhews into how many parts the integer is divided, the former how many of thoſe parts are ſignified by the fraction:

Thus $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{5}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, $\frac{9}{10}$, $\frac{5}{16}$, $\frac{11}{12}$, $\frac{21}{37}$, &c.

The number above the line is the numerator, that below the denominator.
Fractions are diſtinguiſhed by arithmeticians into
1. Proper; which is, when the numerator is leſs than the denominator, and expreſſes leſs than an integer, as the examples before given.
2. Improper; which is when the numerator is greater than the denominator, as $\frac{11}{5}$, $\frac{21}{9}$, $\frac{16}{3}$, $\frac{176}{12}$, &c.

3. Simple or compound.—Simple is when the fraction is immediately that of an integer.

4. A compound fraction, is a fraction of a fraction, as $\frac{1}{3}$ of $\frac{1}{8}$ of a pound ſterling, of an hundred weight, or the like: or $\frac{1}{7}$ of $\frac{1}{9}$ of $\frac{1}{12}$ of $\frac{5}{21}$, &c.

As the addition, ſubtraction, and the other rules of fractions, cannot be underſtood without a knowledge of their reduction, it is neceſſary that ſhould precede them.

Reduction of vulgar fractions.

1. When a mixt number, or that compounded of integers, and a fraction annexed thereto: to reduce the ſame to an improper fraction, the
Rule is, multiply the integers by the denominator of ſuch annexed fraction, and take in, or conjoin therewith, its numerator, and the product is a numerator to the denominator of ſuch fraction.

Example. Reduce $185\frac{7}{8}$ into an improper fraction.

$185 \times 8 = 1487$ $\quad \frac{1487}{8}$ is the anſwer; for, if you divide the numerator 1487 by 8, the product will be $185\frac{7}{8}$, the one being fractionally expreſſed, the other not.

Conſequently, when it is neceſſary that an improper fraction ſhould be reduced to a whole, or mixt number, the rule is, divide the numerator by the denominator, and the quote gives the whole number: if any thing remains, that is a numerator to the diviſor, as is plain from the preceding example.
When fractions differ in their denominators, in order to be added or ſubtracted, &c. they muſt firſt be reduced to the like denominator, and the work is eaſy.
The rule for this is, multiply the numerator of every fraction into the denominators of all the reſt, and the product is a new numerator to ſuch fraction; and, by multiplying all the denominators of ſuch fractions together, the product gives you a new denominator, common to them all.

Example. Reduce the $\frac{5}{8}$ and the $\frac{2}{3}$ of a pound ſterling, or of any thing elſe, into two fractions, whoſe denominators ſhall be one and the ſame.

$5 \times 3 = 15$, for a new numerator to the fraction $\frac{5}{8}$, and $8 \times 3 = 24$, for a new denominator to the ſame fraction: ſo that $\frac{15}{24}$ of a pound, &c. = to $\frac{5}{8}$. And, with regard to the $\frac{2}{3}$ x the 2 by $8 = 16$, for a new numerator, and the $8 \times 3 = 24$, for a new denominator: ſo that $\frac{16}{24} = \frac{2}{3}$.

The reaſon of this rule.

The deſign of this rule being to make the denominators the ſame, and the numerators proportioned thereunto, if both the numerator and denominator are multiplied by one and the ſame number, the fraction reſulting therefrom will be exactly equal to that ſo multiplied, becauſe the ſame proportion ſubſiſts between the numerator and denominator as did before.

If you would expreſs fractionally $\frac{1}{2}$ by any number of fractions equal to it, it is ſelf-evident, that, if you x the 1 by 2, and the 2 by the ſame, $\frac{2}{4}$ of any thing, will be equal to the $\frac{1}{2}$ of that thing, becauſe 2 bears the ſame proportion to 4 as 1 to 2.
In like manner if you x the ſame by 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, &c. $\frac{3}{6}$, $\frac{4}{8}$, $\frac{5}{10}$, $\frac{7}{14}$, $\frac{8}{16}$, $\frac{9}{18}$, are all equal to one $\frac{1}{2}$, becauſe the numerators of each of theſe fractions bear the ſame proportion to their reſpective denominators as 1 to 2.
Now the rule before given, to reduce any number of fractions of different denominations into one and the ſame, is founded upon the ſame plain axiom, or ſelf-evident truth. For,
By multiplying all the denominators together, it is clear that you multiply them all by one and the ſame number; and, by multiplying the numerator of each fraction by all the other denominators, excepting its own, it is clear that you multiply every diſtinct fraction by one and the ſame number; and conſequently, the fractions reſulting muſt be equal to thoſe ſo multiplied.
From the ſame principles, alſo, it is equally eaſy to conceive the reaſon for reducing of fractions into their loweſt terms wherein they can be expreſſed. For,
If you divide both the numerator and denominator by one and the ſame number, without any remainder, the fraction reſulting from ſuch diviſion will be equal to the fraction ſo divided; becauſe the numerator and denominator of the reſulting fraction are in the ſame proportion to each other as thoſe divided.

Example. Reduce the abovementioned fractions of $\frac{2}{4}$, $\frac{3}{6}$, $\frac{4}{8}$, $\frac{5}{10}$, $\frac{7}{14}$, $\frac{8}{16}$, $\frac{9}{18}$, into their loweſt terms.

'Tis plain, at firſt ſight, $\frac{2}{4}$ will divide by 2, and produce $\frac{1}{2}$, which cannot be expreſſed in lower terms.

In like manner the $\frac{3}{6}$ will divide by 3, and produce $\frac{1}{2}$, and ſo the reſt by 4, 5, 6, 7, &c.
From hence you will naturally obſerve, that, let your fraction be ever ſo large, if you can find any numbers that will divide both the numerator and denominator of them, without a remainder, you may oftentimes carry on ſuch diviſion till you expreſs very large fractions by two figures.

Example. Reduce $\frac{7695}{15390}$ into its loweſt terms.

To do this expertly, you need never conſider any diviſor above 12, becauſe that you may eaſily carry in your head:
Therefore place your fraction thus:

5		3	3	9	19
7695 |	1539 |	513 |	171 |	19 |	1
15390	3078	1026	342	38	2

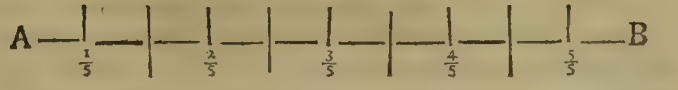
1. I obſerve that both numerator and denominator will divide by 5, the reſulting fraction by 3, 3, or by 9, and 9, and afterwards obſerving that the numerator is exactly the half of the denominator, they will both divide by 19, and produce one half, which is the loweſt terms to which it can be reduced.
And, from what has been ſaid before, you will eaſily diſcover that all theſe fractions are equal to $\frac{1}{2}$, becauſe their reſpective numerators bear one and the ſame proportion to their denominators.

To reduce compound fractions to their ſimples.
The rule. Multiply the numerators together for a numerator, and the denominators for a denominator.

Example. Reduce $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{2}{5}$ into a ſimple fraction.

The anſwer is $\frac{2}{10}$, or, reduced to its loweſt terms, $\frac{1}{5}$.

The reaſon of the rule.



A R I

A compound fraction is nothing but the ſubdiviſion of the parts of an integer. Let the line A B, as above, be ſuppoſed the integer, and divided into 5 equal parts, which repreſents the denominator of the fractions towards the right-hand in the expreſſing thereof; each of theſe 5 parts being again divided into two parts, according to the denominator of the fraction towards the left-hand; each of which parts being $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{1}{5}$, the whole line, or integer, becomes divided into 10 of theſe parts; which is the reaſon why the denominators are multiplied together, as 2 and 5, in order to reduce the fraction of a fraction into the fraction of an integer, or a compound to a ſimple, which is the ſame thing.

And the reaſon of multiplying the numerators together is becauſe that ſhews the proportional number of thoſe parts expreſſed by the denominator, and ſignified by the compound fraction.

So that if an integer be divided into any number of parts, and thoſe ſubdivided again and again, the ſame general rule will hold good.

Example. Reduce $\frac{1}{9}$ of $\frac{7}{8}$ of $\frac{11}{12}$ into a ſimple fraction.

$1 \times 7 \times 11 = 77$, and $9 \times 8 \times 12 = 864$, anſwer $\frac{77}{864}$.

How to find the value of fractions, whether of coin, weight, or meaſure.

Rule. Multiply the numerator of the fraction by ſuch a number of the units of the next inferior denomination, which is equal to an unit of the denomination, whereof the fraction is part, and divide the product by the denominator, and the quote will anſwer the queſtion; but, if there is any remainder, reduce that to the next inferior denomination, and divide as before.

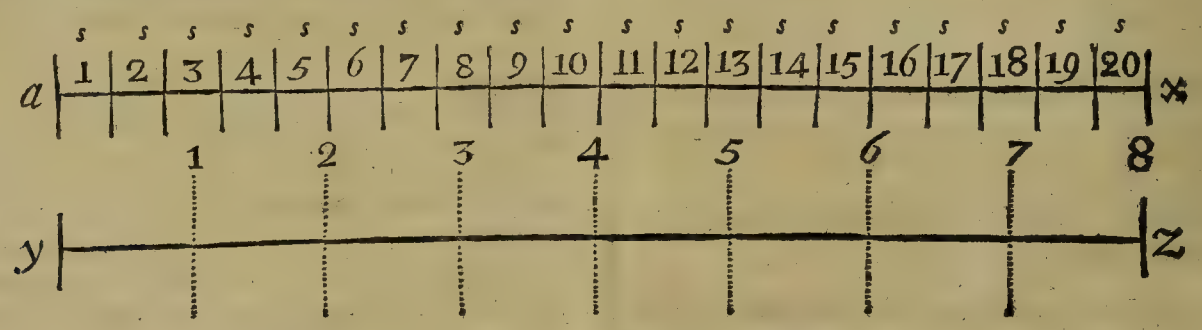
Example. What is the $\frac{7}{8}$ of a pound ſterling?

20 s. = 1 pound

$\frac{7}{8)140}$

17—4—i. e. 4 ſhillings, which is 48 pence, which, divided by 8, gives 6 pence. Anſwer, 17 s. 6 d.

The reaſon of this rule is plain: for, ſuppoſe a line divided into 20 parts, as (a x) below, which will repreſent 1 pound, and the 20 parts 20 ſhillings: ſuppoſe alſo that there is a fraction whoſe value is required, as $\frac{7}{8}$ of a pound ſterling. — Draw another right line, of equal length with the line (a x), as (y z), parallel thereto, which divide into 8 equal parts, repreſenting your denominator, and, right againſt 7 of thoſe parts, in this line will ſtand 17 and $\frac{1}{2}$; which ſhews that $\frac{7}{8}$ of a pound ſterling are equal to 17 ſhillings and ſix-pence; for as 8, the whole line (a x), or denominator of the fraction given, is in proportion to 20 s. (the whole line y z): ſo is 7 the numerator, or number of parts given in the fraction (as in the lower line) to $17\frac{1}{2}$, the value of the ſaid fraction: and, therefore, you multiply and divide according to the rule before given.



Addition of vulgar fractions.

Caſe 1. When ſimple fractions are to be added to ſimple fractions.

Rule. If ſuch fractions are not of the ſame denomination, you muſt reduce them to the ſame, according to what has been before ſhewn, and add the numerators together for the ſum total to the common denominator.

Example. Add $\frac{3}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10} = \frac{10}{10}$, or one integer, and ſo of all others of the like denomination.

Example. Add $\frac{5}{8} + \frac{3}{5}$.

It is plain that you cannot ſay the ſum of $\frac{5}{8}$ and $\frac{3}{5}$ makes either $\frac{8}{8}$ or $\frac{8}{5}$; and, therefore, till they are reduced into the like denomination, you cannot add them.

Proceed thus, therefore, $5 \times 5 = 25$, and $8 \times 5 = 40$ ∴ $\frac{25}{40} = \frac{5}{8}$; and $3 \times 8 = 24$, and $5 \times 8 = 40$ ∴ $\frac{24}{40} = \frac{3}{5}$ ∴ $\frac{25}{40} + \frac{24}{40} = \frac{49}{40} = 1$ integer $\frac{9}{40}$, the anſwer.

The reaſon of this rule being demonſtrable from what has been ſaid, it is needleſs to enlarge upon it.

Caſe 2. When compound fractions are to be added to ſimple.

Rule. Reduce the compound to a ſimple, and follow the foregoing rule.

Caſe 3. When mixt numbers are to be added.

Rule. Work with the fractional parts, according to what has been ſaid, and add the ſum of the fractions to that of the integers, if they amount to an integer, and you have the anſwer.

Subtraction of vulgar fractions.

Caſe 1. When a ſimple fraction is to be ſubtracted from a ſimple fraction.

Rule. If they are of the ſame denomination, it is only ſubtracting one numerator from the other.

Caſe 2. If they are of different denominators, reduce them to one, and deduct the numerator of the ſubtrahend from the other, and place the remainder for a numerator to the common denominator, and you have the difference. The reaſon of which is evident, from what has been ſaid in regard to addition.

Multiplication of vulgar fractions.

Caſe 1. When you are to multiply a ſimple fraction by a ſimple.

Rule. Multiply the numerators into each other, for the numerator of the product, and alſo the denominators for the denominator of the product.

Example. Multiply $\frac{1}{3}$ by $\frac{2}{5}$. Anſwer, $= \frac{2}{15}$.

The reaſon of this rule.

The effect of the multiplication of fractions deſerves peculiar attention, it being different from that of whole numbers; for the product in the fraction is always leſs than the multiplicand, though more in whole numbers: the reaſon is, that of fractions is the multiplying of the parts into which the integer is divided, which muſt needs make the parts leſs than thoſe given: whereas the multiplication of integers, or whole numbers, muſt neceſſarily increaſe the number; for the former decreaſes the parts of an integer to infinite littleneſs; the latter augments the number of integers ad infinitum.

Now the reaſon of the rule is, that, if a fraction be multiplied by a ſingle integer, or 1, it can produce no more than itſelf, for once itſelf can neither add to, nor diminiſh from, it; and, therefore, if it be multiplied by $\frac{1}{2}$ of 1, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of 1, the product can be no more than $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of ſuch fraction: wherefore it is plain, that the multiplication of fractions muſt be conſidered in the ſame light as fractions of fractions, or compound fractions: and, if ſo, the ſame rule that holds good for the reduction of compound fractions into ſimple, will hold good for that of their multiplication. For the reaſon thereof, we refer to what has been already ſaid upon that head.

Caſe 2. When you multiply a whole number by a fraction.

Rule. Multiply the integer by the numerator of the fraction, and the product placed over the denominator is the anſwer; which is nothing different from the firſt caſe, if you place an unit under the integral part, putting it into a fractional form.

Example. Multiply 1751 by $\frac{7}{9}$ or $\frac{1751}{1}$ by $\frac{7}{9}$. The anſwer is $\frac{12257}{9}$ or $1361\frac{8}{9}$, from what has been ſhewn; for if 1751 be multiplied by 1, it can produce no more than itſelf; and, conſequently, if it be multiplied by $\frac{7}{9}$ of 1, it can only produce $\frac{7}{9}$ of itſelf, &c.

Diviſion of vulgar fractions.

Caſe 1ſt. When you would divide a ſimple fraction by a ſimple.

Rule. Multiply the numerator of the dividend into the denominator of the diviſor, for a new numerator; and multi-

ply

ply the other numerator and denominator together for a new denominator.

Example. Divide $\frac{11}{12}$ by $\frac{3}{5}$. The anſwer is $\frac{55}{36}$ for the quotient; for, if you $\times \frac{55}{36}$ by $\frac{3}{5}$, the product will be $\frac{165}{180} = \frac{11}{12}$; for as 165 is to 180; ſo is 11 to 12: or the product of the extremes is equal to that of the means, from what has been demonſtrated from the rule of proportion.—Or, by abbreviation, $\frac{165}{180} = \frac{11}{12}$. Thus, $\frac{\overset{5}{165} \cdot \overset{3}{33}}{180 \cdot 36} \Big| \frac{11}{12}$

The reaſon of this rule appears from hence.—Reduce the foregoing fractions into one denomination, they will be $\frac{55}{60} = \frac{11}{12}$ and $\frac{36}{60} = \frac{3}{5}$. Expunge the denominators, as being the ſame, and the anſwer will be $\frac{55}{36}$, or 55 divided by 36, which is the ſame thing, by a different mode of expreſſion.

Caſe. 2. When you divide a whole number by a fraction.

Rule. Place an unit under the whole number, to put it into the fractional form, and proceed as before.

Caſe 3. When you divide a ſimple fraction by a compound.

Rule. Reduce the compound to a ſimple, and work as in the firſt caſe.

The reduction, addition, ſubtraction, multiplication, and diviſion of vulgar fractions being explained, it is quite needleſs to ſay any thing of the rule of three, or the other rules of proportion in fractions, ſince it is only to be obſerved, to multiply and divide in the fractional manner, inſtead of that of whole numbers.

Of decimal fractions.

When, or by whom, this admirable invention of decimal arithmetic was firſt introduced, is uncertain; but doubtleſs the improvements thereto made, and the perfection to which it has arrived, are owing to latter times.

A decimal fraction differs only from a vulgar in this: that, whereas the denominators of vulgar fractions are various, thoſe of decimals are always either 10, or ſome power of 10, as 100, 1000, 10000, 100000, &c. ſo that the denominator need never be expreſſed, it being always underſtood to increaſe in a decuple, or tenfold proportion, ad infinitum.

Thus, $\frac{5}{10}$, $\frac{7}{100}$, $\frac{9}{1000}$, $\frac{56}{10000}$, $\frac{769}{100000}$, &c.

Now theſe denominators being known, need not be ſet down, but only the numerators; and theſe are diſtinguiſhed, or ſeparated from whole numbers, by a point, or a comma.

Thus 8,4 is 8 $\frac{4}{10}$, and 0.9 is $\frac{9}{10}$; 76.07 is 76 $\frac{7}{100}$; 985.009 is 985 $\frac{9}{1000}$.

Whence it may be obſerved, that, as in whole numbers, every degree from the place of unity increaſes towards the left-hand by a ten-fold proportion: ſo in decimal parts, every degree is decreaſed towards the right-hand, by the ſame proportion. Wherefore whole numbers, being divided into decimal parts, are more homogeneal with whole numbers than vulgar fractions; for all plain numbers are in effect but decimal parts one to another.

That is, ſuppoſe any ſeries of whole numbers, as 777, &c. The firſt 7 towards the left-hand is ten times the value of the 7 in the middle, and the 7 in the middle is ten times the value of the laſt 7 to the right of it, and but the tenth part of that 7 on the left, &c.

Therefore all, or any of them, may be taken either as whole numbers, or parts thereof: if whole numbers, then they muſt be ſet down without any comma, or ſeparating point between them, 777. But if whole numbers, and one a part or fraction, put a comma betwixt them thus, 77,7; which ſignifies 77 whole numbers, and 7 tenths of an unit: if two places of fractional parts be required, ſeparate them with a comma, thus, 7,77; which ſignifies 7 whole numbers, and 77 hundredth parts of an unit, &c.

From hence it will be eaſy to conceive, that decimal parts take their denomination from the place of their laſt figure.

That is, $\left\{ \begin{array}{rl} ,7 = & \frac{7}{10} \\ ,98 = & \frac{98}{100} \\ ,098 = & \frac{98}{1000} \end{array} \right\}$ parts of an unit, &c.

Cyphers annexed to decimal parts do not alter their values. As ,90 ,900 ,9000 ,90000, &c. are each but 9 tenths of an unit; for $\frac{90}{100} = \frac{9}{10}$. And $\frac{900}{1000} = \frac{9}{10}$. Or $\frac{9000}{10000} = \frac{9}{10}$, according to what has been demonſtrated in regard to vulgar fractions.

But cyphers prefixed to decimal parts decreaſe their value, by removing them further from the comma.

Thus $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} ,9 = 9 \text{ tenths.} \\ ,09 = 9 \text{ parts of a hundred.} \\ ,009 = 9 \text{ parts of a thouſand.} \\ ,0009 = 9 \text{ parts of ten thouſand, } \&c. \end{array} \right.$

Conſequently, the true value of all decimal parts is known by their diſtance from the unit's place; which being rightly underſtood, the reſt will be very eaſy.

Addition and ſubtraction of decimals.

In ſetting down the propoſed numbers to be added, or ſubtracted, care muſt be taken to place every figure directly under thoſe of the ſame value (as is done in whole numbers) whether they be mixed, or decimal parts only. To do which due regard muſt be had to the place of the comma, or ſeparating points, which muſt ſtand in a direct line, the one under the other; and to their right-hand carefully place the decimal parts, according to their reſpective values, or diſtances from unit. Then,

Rule. Add, or ſubtract them, as if they were all whole numbers; and from their ſum, or difference, cut off ſo many decimal parts as are the moſt in any of the given numbers.

Examples in addition.

Suppoſe it be required to find the ſum of the following numbers, viz. 78,5 + 96,7 + 976,9 + 6754,8 + 5,5 + 63, which, being properly placed, will ſtand thus:

	78,5
	96,7
	976,9
	6754,8
	5,5
	63,0
The ſum required	7975,4

Suppoſe alſo the ſum total of 29,768 + 97,527 + 256,0976 + 125,0007.

	29,768
	97,527
	256,0976
	125,0007
The ſum required	508,3933

Examples of ſubtraction.

Suppoſe the difference be required between 97,698 and 25,976. That is,

Example 1.		Example 2.		Example 3.	
From	97,698	From	592,5	From	1597,69075
Subtr.	25,976	Subtr.	97,964	Subtr.	919,52
Rem.	71,722	Rem.	494,536	Rem.	678,17075

Multiplication of decimals.

Whether the numbers to be multiplied be pure decimals, or mixed, multiply them as if they were all whole numbers, and, for the true value of their product, obſerve the following

Rule. Cut off, or ſeparate with a comma, ſo many places of decimal parts in the product, as there are in both the multiplier and the multiplicand taken together.

Example 1.	Example 2.
76,906	92,48769
5,824	5,00097
307624	64741383
153812	83238921
615248	46243845000
384530	
447,900544	462,5281630593

The reaſon why ſuch a number of decimal parts muſt be ſeparated in the product is plain, it differing nothing from that given in the multiplication of vulgar fractions; for, by multiplying the ſums given together, you multiply the numerators; and, by ſeparating as many decimal places as both the multiplicand and the multiplier contain, you multiply the denominators, and divide that of the numerators by the product of the denominators. Thus to multiply $\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$ is the ſame as ,75 by ,5, and 100 by 10; viz. $\frac{75}{100}$ by $\frac{5}{10}$, for 5 times 75 is 375; and 10 times 100 is 1000: ſo the product is $\frac{375}{1000}$, or ,375 decimally expreſſed.

Diviſion of decimals

Is performed in the ſame manner as in whole numbers: all the difficulty therein is to know what number of decimal

places to ſeparate towards the right-hand of the quotient: for which obſerve what follows. The quotient of a diviſion ſhewing how often the diviſor is contained in the dividend, the diviſor multiplied by the quotient gives the dividend: now, as you know how many places of decimals the dividend and diviſor contain, it is eaſy to know how many the quotient muſt contain, becauſe therein the diviſor and quotient muſt be equal to thoſe in the dividend.

Therefore when the work is finiſhed, ſeparate as many decimal parts in the quotient to the right-hand, as the dividend exceeds the diviſor in: but, if ſo many places be not in the quotient as that difference is, ſupply that deficiency, by prefixing cyphers towards the left hand.

Take the foregoing example in multiplication:

Divide 447,900544 by 5,824

5,824)447,900544(76,906
402269,0
5274.
·3·

As the dividend contains 6 decimal places, and the diviſor three, the quotient muſt contain 3 ſeparated to the right-hand.

All the caſes which can happen in the diviſion of decimals, are reducible to the following, viz.

Caſe 1. When the decimal parts in the diviſor and dividend are equal, the quotient will be whole numbers. The reaſon is, becauſe, from what has been ſaid, it can contain no decimal parts.

Caſe 2. When the decimal places in the dividend exceed thoſe in the diviſor, ſeparate the exceſs for decimal parts, as before ſhewn.

Caſe 3. When there are not ſo many decimal places in the dividend as are in the diviſor, annex cyphers to the dividend, to make them equal. Then will the quotient be whole numbers, as in the firſt caſe.

Caſe 4. If after the diviſion is finiſhed, there are not ſo many figures in the quotient, as there ought to be places of decimals by the general rule, prefix a competent number of cyphers to ſupply the deficiency.

Reduction of decimal fractions.

To reduce a vulgar fraction into a decimal.

Rule. As the denominator of the vulgar fraction is in proportion to its numerator: ſo is the denominator of the decimal, 100, 1000, 10000, &c. to the numerator of the decimal required, whoſe denominator is 100, 1000, 10000, &c. Therefore, according to the common rule of proportion, × the ſecond and third numbers, and divide by the firſt, the quotient is the decimal required. Or, which is the ſame thing, and more conciſely expreſſed,

Annex cyphers to the numerator of the vulgar fraction, and divide by the denominator, the quotient will be the decimal parts equal to the given fraction; or at leaſt to approximate ſo near as is requiſite for all buſineſs.

Note. When the laſt figure of the diviſor (that is, the denominator of the propoſed vulgar fraction) happens to be one of theſe figures, viz. 1, 3, 7, or 9, then the decimal parts can never be preciſely equal to the given fraction; yet, by continuing on the diviſion, you may approach very near the truth. As in this example: Suppoſe it be required to reduce $\frac{1}{7}$ into decimal parts.

7)1,000

,142857142857142, &c. ad infinitum.

From hence it may be obſerved, that, in theſe imperfect quotients, the figures return again, and circulate in the ſame order as before.

Theſe things being underſtood, there will be no difficulty to find the decimal parts equivalent to any known part, or parts, of coin, weights, or meaſures, &c. if you firſt reduce the given parts of the coin, &c. into a vulgar fraction, whoſe denominator is the number of theſe known parts contained in the integer, and the given parts its numerator.

Let it be required to find the decimal of 8 s. 6 d.

There are 102 pence in 8 s. 6 d. therefore $\frac{102}{240}$ of a pound is the vulgar fraction which expreſſes 8 s. 6 d. which convert into a decimal, thus: 240)102,000(.425 = 8 s. 6 d.
·960
1200

Or thus: To the 6 d. add cyphers, and divide by 12, and then prefix the 8 s. and divide by 20.

12)6,000
20)8,5
·425

This is a much more conciſe method, and will hold good for weights and meaſures, &c. without reducing them into vulgar fractions.

All the various rules of proportion being performed the ſame decimally as in whole numbers, it it quite needleſs to multiply examples of them; nor is it neceſſary to enlarge more on arithmetic; ſince, if what has been ſaid in ſo narrow a compaſs, is thoroughly underſtood, as it may eaſily be, with little attention, the reader will be duly prepared to comprehend any of the books of arithmetic with pleaſure; becauſe he here has the rational principles and foundation of numbers in the fewеſt words, and in as familiar a manner as could be well conveyed.

Political ARITHMETIC, is made uſe of by ſtateſmen and politicians, in order to judge of the ſtrength, the wealth, and the power of ſtates and empires. To which end, nothing more naturally and more certainly conduces, than a thorough knowledge in the trade and navigation of ſtates and empires, by reaſon that the landed and monied intereſts of countries is governed by the ſtate of their trading intereſts; for, if that flouriſhes, the others neceſſarily muſt. This Dictionary of Commerce furniſhing a great variety of materials to enable us to paſs a good judgment of the trade of all nations, it cannot but be very uſeful in the ſtudy of political arithmetic.

Thoſe who are eſteemed to have wrote the beſt upon this ſubject, are Sir William Petty, Dr Davenant, Mr King, Eraſmus Philips, Eſq; and the anonymous author of a tract wrote in French, intitled, Eſſai politique ſur le commerce, 12mo, publiſhed in 1736.

ARITHMETICIAN, a perſon well ſkilled in arithmetic, or whoſe profeſſion is to teach it others.

ARMADA, a Spaniſh word, which formerly ſignified a number of ſhips of war, as appears by a law in the book called Las Partidos; but of late years it not only comprehends a navy compoſed of ſhips of war, but a flota of merchant-men under their convoy.

There is a royal armada, or navy, to ſecure the navigation of the galleons from Old Spain to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. There uſed to be armadas, or convoys to the fleet, for the Firm-land, which there is not at preſent; and there was an armada for Honduras.

In the year 1521, on account of the pirates that infeſted the coaſts of Andaluſia and Algarve, lying in wait for the ſhips homeward bound from the Spaniſh Indies, it was reſolved that an armada, or convoy, conſiſting of four or five ſhips, ſhould be fitted out; the charge whereof ſhould be defrayed out of the gold, ſilver, and merchandize, brought to the ports of Andaluſia, from the Indies and Canary-Iſlands; whether belonging to the king or private perſons, at the rate of a ſhilling per pound, which was accordingly put in execution.

In the year 1522, the ſeas being ſtill infeſted with pirates, it was reſolved that another ſquadron ſhould be fitted out, the expence whereof was to have been defrayed as that of the former; and to cruize, not only on the coaſt, but as far as the iſlands Açores. This was the origin, not only of the armada appointed to ſecure the navigation of the Weſt-Indies, but of the haberia, or duty for convoys, and other things thereunto relating: the firſt impoſition towards defraying this charge was one per cent. but, that not being adequate to the expence, it came at length to five per cent.

One of the principal duties of the committee of war, which is conſtituted of the council of the Indies in Spain, is, to give the neceſſary orders, for fitting out of armadas and flotas; and, as the dangers increaſe, ſo to make the more effectual proviſions againſt them.

The laws of trade in Spain direct, that, provided there be no ſpecial order to the contrary, two flotas be ſet out; the one for the Firm-land, the other for New-Spain, and the armada to convoy them; but this name of armada was meant of the admiral and vice-admiral only, which were fighting ſhips; and, at firſt, there was one man of war to convoy the reſt; her burden being 300 tons, and carrying eight braſs cannon, and four iron guns: and till that time, the merchant-men carried 100 tons leſs than their burden, and thirty ſoldiers each, becauſe they had no convoy of men of war.

The times appointed for theſe flotas to ſail, were, for that of New Spain in May, and that of the Firm-land in Auguſt, both of them being ordered to ſail with the firſt ſpring tides.

The galleons were appointed to be out in January, that they might coaſt along the Firm-land, and arrive about April at Porto-bello, where the fair would be over, that they might take aboard the plate, and be at the Havanna about mid June, where the New Spain fleet would ſoon join them, and they might come together ſafer to Spain. To which end, the vice-roy of Peru is to take care, that the plate ſhould be at Panama by the middle of March. The plate is fifteen days in carrying from Potoſi to Arica; eight days generally from thence by ſea to Callao, and twenty from Callao to Panama, taking in, by the way, the plate at Paita and Truxillo.

To prevent the fleet being detained by contrary winds, as has ſometimes been the caſe, it was propoſed by the court of Spain to fit out the galleons, in the river of Seville, in Auguſt and September, and then ſend them away to Cadiz, where they might go out with any wind, and need not wait for any ſpring tides.

The reaſons why it was judged abſolutely neceſſary, that the flota from the Firm-land ſhould ſail in September, were, becauſe that was a ſafe ſeaſon to ſhip off the goods; for, they coming to Porto-bello at a healthy ſeaſon of the year, the merchandize was conveyed over to Panama at a cheaper rate,

and with leſs danger of receiving damage. Moreover, by this means the merchants had leiſure to ſell their goods; the buyers had a fit ſeaſon to travel to Peru with ſafety, and the armadas and flotas to return to Carthagena and the Havanna, to get clear of the channel of Bahama, and to return to Spain in the beſt month for the ſea. In fine, it is found by experience, that the month of September is, all circumſtances being duly weighed and conſidered, the fitteſt for the fleets to ſail; and, although ſeveral accidents retard them till October or November, yet that ſeaſon is fitter than March.

ARMADILLA, thus they call, in Spaniſh America, a ſmall ſquadron, conſiſting commonly of 6 or 8 men of war, from 24 to 50 guns, which the king of Spain keeps, for preventing foreigners from trading with the Spaniards or Indians, both in time of peace, and in time of war. This ſquadron has even power and orders to take all the Spaniſh trading veſſels, which it meets on the coaſt, and which have no licence from the king of Spain. There is an armadilla both for the South Sea and for the North Sea. The latter keeps commonly at Carthagena, and the former at Callao, which is the port of Lima, the capital of Peru.

ARMAGNAC, a province in France, is bounded by Languedoc on the eaſt; by Agenois and Condomois on the north; by Gaſcony, properly ſo called, on the weſt; and by Comminges on the ſouth. In this province they make brandy, which they ſend to Bayonne and Bourdeaux. They trade alſo in wool and flax. There is a mine of ſalt in the town of Laverdan; and, at Auch and Mauveſin, they make about fourſcore or 100 quintals of ſalt. The country beſides is very fruitful in corn and wine.

ARMENIA, a large kingdom in Aſia. After ſeveral revolutions, the hiſtory of which is foreign to the purpoſe of this Dictionary, it is fallen partly under the dominion of the Turk, and partly under that of the king of Perſia.

For the trade of that part of Armenia which belongs to the latter, ſee the article PERSIA.

As for that part of the country which is under the Grand Seignior's dominion, we ſhall here preſent the reader with ſuch particulars of its trade, as we could collect together, or, at leaſt, of its two chief cities, which ſeem to have engroſſed and divided between themſelves the trade of all the reſt of the kingdom.

ERZERUM, the capital of that part of Armenia, which belongs to the Grand Seignior.

The trade of this city is very conſiderable, and conſiſts chiefly in braſs and copper ware, furr, gall-nuts, caviary or caveer, and madder.

The braſs and copper wares are made by the Jews of Sinope, who uſe the copper that is brought from the neighbouring mountains. As moſt of them are braziers, and their buſineſs is very noiſy, they are, as it were, confined to the ſuburbs; for the Turks are too great lovers of reſt, to ſuffer ſuch traders amongſt them. Thoſe wares are carried into Turkey, Perſia, and even into the Great Mogul's dominions.

The furrs are the ſkins of a kind of marten, which are very common in that country, where they are called jardava, or zerdava. The browneſt are reckoned the fineſt, eſpecially the tails, which are almoſt black: and, with that part of the animal, are made the moſt precious furrs, which makes them come very dear, becauſe a great number of tails are required to line a veſt therewith.

The gall-nuts are brought to Erzerum, from a place diſtant five or ſix days journey from it, where there are a great many oaks: the baſha gives very ſtrict orders to preſerve them, that a commodity, ſo uſeful for dyeing, may not be loſt.

Caviary, or caveer, as it is more ordinarily called, is nothing but the pickled hard roes of ſturgeon, which are prepared in ſeveral places, ſituated near the Caſpian ſea. That which is ſold at Erzerum, is abominable.

Laſtly, madder, of which great quantities are ſold here, where it is called boya, is brought hither from Perſia: the inhabitants uſe it in dying leather and linnens.

Beſides all theſe merchandizes, moſt of which are to be met with in the neighbourhood of Erzerum, there are alſo in that town all the commodities which come from the Eaſt-Indies; as ſilk, cotten, drugs, and printed calicoes; Erzerum being, as it were, a ſtaple town for them; but they only paſs through it, few of them being ſold by retail.

The commodities imported into this province, or exported out of it, pay three per cent. and ſometimes double that ſum; but gold and ſilver ſpecies, eſpecially, are ſubject to heavy duties.

The ſilk of Perſia, whether it be fine or not, pays a duty of 80 crowns per camel's load, which is from eight hundred to a thouſand pounds weight.

The caravans, which ſet out from Erzerum for Teflis and Tocat, do commonly keep themſelves ready during the whole month of June.

At ſuch times when the Arabs are ſeized of the countries about Aleppo (in Syria) and Bagdat, all the caravans of the Levant, even thoſe which are bound for the Eaſt-Indies, paſs through Erzerum.

The Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade in that city, and keep a conſul there, who is in great credit and eſteem, if his conduct is deſerving.

TOCAT, is the ſecond trading town in Turkiſh Armenia.

This place is to be conſidered as the center of the whole trade of Leſſer Aſia, there being continually caravans, either arriving thither, or ſetting out from thence. Thoſe from Diarbekir come here in eighteen days, and thoſe from Erzerum in fifteen. The caravans which ſet out from Tocat for Sinope, are ſix days on their march, and thoſe for Burſa twenty days. The caravans which go directly to Smyrna, without paſſing through Angora or Burſa, ſpend twenty days in their journey, when they conſiſt of mules only, and fifty when they uſe camels. Laſtly, there are alſo caravans, which go only from Tocat to Angora.

The greateſt trade of Tocat conſiſts in copper or braſs ware, ſuch as coppers, mugs, candleſticks, lanthorns, &c. which are made very neatly by the workmen of this town. Theſe commodities are ſent to Conſtantinople and Egypt. The copper they uſe comes from the mines of Gumiſcana, three days journey diſtant from Trebiſond, and from thoſe of Caſtamboul, ten days journey diſtant from Tocat, towards Angora. They dreſs at Tocat a great deal of yellow leather, which is ſent to Samſon on the Black Sea, and from thence to Cala, a port of Walachia. They alſo ſend thither red leather but this the merchants of Tocat have from Diarbekir and Caramania. The yellow leather is dyed with a ſort of ſumach, and the red with madder.

The printed calicoes are alſo a great branch of the trade of Tocat. They are not indeed ſo beautiful as thoſe of Perſia, but the Muſcovites and the Crim Tartars, for whom they are deſigned, like them well enough. Some of theſe calicoes are alſo ſent into France, where they go under the name of printed linnens of the Levant.

Laſtly, they have at Tocat a conſiderable trade in ſilk; but none of that which is gathered in the neighbourhood of this town, is ſold to foreigners, it being all employed in the manufactures of the country; wherein, beſides their own ſilk, they uſe every year eight or ten loads of Perſian ſilk; which is all uſed in making ſlight ſtuffs, ſewing ſilk, and buttons.

ARMENIANS, nations who inhabit Armenia. But that name is alſo given to thoſe who were tranſported into ſeveral parts of Perſia by Shah Abas; and more particularly to that celebrated colony of Armenians who dwell at Zulfa, one of the ſuburbs of Iſpahan.

The Armenians are civil and polite, and have a great deal of good ſenſe and honeſty: they apply themſelves very much to trade, which they make their chief buſineſs, or rather, their only occupation. They are not only maſters of the whole trade of the Levant, but have alſo a great ſhare in that of the moſt conſiderable towns in Europe; for it is very common to meet with ſome Armenians at Leghorn, at Venice, in England, and in Holland; whilſt on the other ſide they travel into the dominions of the Grand Mogul, Siam, Java, the Philippine iſlands, and over all the eaſt, except China. And it is not long ſince ſeveral of them were ſettled at Marſeilles.

It is not agreed among the learned, under what Abas, king of Perſia, the colony of Zulfa was tranſported to Iſpahan, and ſettled where it now is. But it is very certain that Shah Abas the Great, contemporary with Henry IV. king of France, in order to ſecure the conqueſt of Armenia, which he had taken from the Turks, removed into Perſia the firſt Armenians, who ever ſettled there; and about thirty thouſand families of them were tranſported into the province of Ghilan only, from whence the fineſt Perſian ſilks come: he alſo cauſed all the inhabitants of Zulfa, a large city of Armenia, to ſettle at Iſpahan, whence the new Zulfa of Perſia took its name.

This laſt Zulfa is now the center of all the commerce of the Armenians; and it is to the ſame Shah Abas theſe people owe, if we may ſay ſo, their genius and capacity for trade, which did but very little appear, till their tranſmigration into Perſia. As Abas the Great had no other view but to enrich his country, and was ſenſible he could not compaſs that deſign but by the means of trade, he caſt his eyes upon ſilks, as the moſt precious commodity, and upon the Armenians, as the moſt proper people to diſpoſe of it: in a word, the Armenians, who were but huſbandmen, were by him turned into merchants, and theſe merchants are become very able and ſkilful traders in the world.

REMARKS.

In order to begin that trade, this wiſe prince truſted the moſt underſtanding men among the inhabitants of Zulfa, with a certain quantity of bales of ſilk, to tranſport them in caravans into foreign countries, and eſpecially into Europe; on condition that they themſelves ſhould go with them, and that on their return, they ſhould pay for thoſe bales ſuch a price as they ſhould have been rated at before their departure by judicious perſons, giving up to them all the profits they could make upon them above the ſettled price.

The ſucceſs anſwered the expectations both of the prince and of the merchants. Shah Abas did, in a manner, change the nature of trade throughout the whole earth; and the Armenians by their rich returns, after having carried into the weſt the moſt beautiful commodities of the eaſt, ſhewed alſo in the eaſt whatever the weſt afforded moſt coſtly and curious.

When the trade of the Armenians was ſufficiently eſtabliſhed, the kings of Perſia did no longer meddle with it. The citi-

zens of Zulfa alone continued to ſupport it, and by the aſſiſtance of their brokers or agents, who are of the ſame nation with themſelves, they diſtribute through the whole world the fineſt and richeſt commodities of Aſia.

Theſe agents undertake, for a very moderate profit, to conduct the merchandizes to the very places they are deſigned for, to take care of them during the march of the caravans, to diſpoſe of them to the beſt advantage they can, and to give afterwards a faithful account to thoſe by whom they are intruſted. We cannot ſufficiently expreſs how faithful thoſe agents are, what care they take to preſerve the merchandizes they conduct, not fearing even to run the danger of periſhing themſelves, in order to ſuccour the camels, and other beaſts of burden that carry them, at the croſſing of rivers, or at the difficult paſſes of mountains.

Their charity for each other is unſpeakable; and, when thoſe who are ſettled in ſome town are acquainted with the coming of a caravan, they do not ſcruple to undertake a journey of a day or two, in order to go and meet them, and carry refreſhments to their brethren.

When the caravans make any ſtay in towns, the Armenians who attend them join ſeveral together, that they may live cheaper. In Aſia, they ſell upon the road hard wares of Venice, France, and Germany, in order to get proviſions. In Europe, they get them for muſk and ſome ſpice. In a word, there is no nation comparable to them with regard to ſobriety, good huſbandry, and honeſty.

It is true, indeed, that, when their affairs prove unproſperous in thoſe foreign countries where they trade, they ſeldom return home, not daring, ſay they, to appear before creditors, whoſe confidence they have abuſed. But it muſt be owned, that this happens very ſeldom: it being extremely uncommon to ſee an Armenian become a bankrupt.

There is nothing more extraordinary, and at the ſame time more pleaſant, than the manner of ſtriking bargains among the Armenians. They begin with putting money upon the table; after which, they cavil or diſpute as much as they can about the price, the buyer and the ſeller preſenting and repulſing alternately the pieces of money, which they add to the price offered, or which they abate from the price demanded; which is always done with ſo much noiſe and ill humour, that one would think they are going to devour each other: all this, however, is nothing but grimace and affectation: and, when the broker, who is always preſent at this comedy, judges that things are pretty near the value, he ſqueezes the ſeller's hand with ſo much violence, that he makes him cry out, but he does not leave him till he accepts the buyer's offer. The farce ends with reciprocal jokes, each laughing on his ſide, thinking that he has the beſt of the bargain.

A

RMOISIN, a ſilk ſtuff, or kind of taffety, of an indifferent goodneſs. It is made at Lyons, and in ſeveral places in Italy. There are half-armoiſins (demi-armoiſins) made at Avignon, which are of an inferior quality, and leſs price than the others. They manufacture alſo armoiſins with three threads. Armoiſins of all colours are imported from the Eaſt-Indies, and particularly from Caſembaſar, by the way of Bengal. See the next article. Some pretend that the word armoiſin comes from the Italian armeſino; or that thoſe ſilks were thus called, becauſe there were coats of arms delineated upon the cloth in which they were wrapped up.

ARMOISIN of the Indies. It is a taffety manufactured in the Eaſt-Indies, but ſlighter than thoſe that are made in Europe, and of an inferior quality. Their colours, and particularly the crimſon and red, are commonly falſe, and they have but little gloſs, and no brightneſs at all.

There are two ſorts of them, the arains, which are taffeties, either ſtriped or checkered; and the damaras, or flowered taffeties. Their length is from 7 French ells to 24, and their breadth from $\frac{7}{16}$ to $\frac{5}{6}$ of an ell.

The Indian armoiſins have ſold at Amſterdam from 18 to 20 guilders per piece. When you do not buy them of the company, that is to ſay, at ſecond hand, you may ſtipulate to pay for them either in current or bank-money, or to deduct the difference.

The armoiſins of Lucca have ſold at Amſterdam from 7 to 9 ſols de groſs per ell. They who ſell them again, buy them by deducting the intereſt of the money for 18 months, they not being obliged to pay for them but after thoſe months are elapſed: they alſo deduct 1 per cent. for prompt payment.

But, when they ſell them to retailers, they deduct but 2 per cent. upon the whole for prompt payment; that is, they are allowed ſo much diſcount for the payment of ready money.

It muſt be obſerved that all the ſilks of Italy are ſold after the ſame manner.

ARMONIAC, or AMMONIAC, a kind of ſalt, or ſalt alkali, volatile, urinous, and penetrated with an acid. There is a great conſumption of it in moſt countries.

There are two ſorts of ſalt armoniac, the natural and the artificial, which differ very much in figure, though their properties are pretty much the ſame.

The natural ſalt-armoniac is again ſubdivided, as it were, into two ſpecies. The one, which is the true ſort, and was known to the antients, was nothing, as they ſay, but the urine of camels chryſtalliſed, and reduced to a white maſs by the heat of the ſun, and to which the burning ſand of Arabia, and of many other dry and deſert places in Aſia and Africa, where thoſe animals live during the long journies of the caravans, ſerved as a matrix to bring that ſalt to perfection. It is called ammoniac (according to the opinion of the ancients) from the temple of Jupiter Ammon, or Hammon, in the road to which it was found in abundance.

This ſalt is white, and taſtes pretty much like common ſalt. One may obſerve in it ſmall cryſtalliſed needles, like refined ſalt petre; and, when it is the true ſort, you may ſtill perceive among it part of the ſand in which it was ſublimated by the heat of the ſun. This ſalt-armoniac is ſo ſcarce, that it is no commodity for trade, the curious only having it in their cabinets.

The other natural ſalt-armoniac is not much more common than the true one. It is a kind of ſalt earth, or ſcum, which is worked like ſalt-petre. It is found in ſome places of the Eaſt-Indies, particularly in old caverns, and the clefts of rocks, between Lahor, Tenaſſar, and Trerbint (it ſhould be perhaps, Sirina, inſtead of Trerbint).

Monſieur d'Herbelot, in his Bibliotheque Orientale, obſerves, that there is a grotto in the little country of Botam in Aſia, where the true ſalt-armoniac is to be found. There ariſes continually in that grotto a kind of vapour, which looks like ſmoke in the day-time, and like a flame in the night. It is from this vapour condenſed the ſalt-armoniac is produced, which, in the language of that country, is called nuſchader. That vapour is of ſo malignant a nature, that, if thoſe that work in it do not uſe the utmoſt precautions, and make not all the haſte they can to gather the ſalt, they are in danger of their lives. For which reaſon thoſe workmen are dreſſed in a very thick ſtuff, to prevent the impreſſion of the vapour; but, without the grotto, the condenſed vapour has no longer any malignant quality.

The ſcarcity of thoſe two ſorts of ſalt-armoniac, and the neceſſity there is of uſing that drug in ſeveral operations and works which cannot be performed without it, have obliged the chemiſts to imitate it; and it is this artificial ſalt-armoniac of which ſo great a conſumption is made.

It is extracted, by means of ſublimatory veſſels, from all ſorts of urine, of men and beaſts, mixed with common ſalt and ſoot. Some pretend that it may alſo be extracted from all ſorts of blood. Whatever it may be made of, it comes commonly from the Eaſt-Indies by Venice, or rather by the ſhips of the Dutch Eaſt-India company. It is brought in maſſes, or lumps of divers colours, made in the form of the cover of a pot, and weighing 14 or 15 pounds. It was formerly in the ſhape of a ſugar-loof, and of a quality much ſuperior to what it is at preſent.

This is, doubtleſs, meant of the ſalt-armoniac that came from Egypt, the loaves of which weighed 4 or 5 pounds; and, whatever Monſieur Savary may ſay, Monſieur Geoffroy, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences for the year 1723, obſerves, that their conſiſtency is very near the ſame, which ſhews that they are produced by a ſublimation almoſt equal. A great deal of it is imported from Egypt to Marſeilles and Leghorn.

Salt-armoniac muſt be choſen white, clear, tranſparent, dry, and without filth, and, when broke, it muſt appear as if full of needles.

The uſe of this ſalt is very conſiderable in medicine: and ſeveral artificers uſe it, who could hardly finiſh their works without it: ſuch are, among others, the dyers, ſilverſmiths, pin-makers, farriers, &c. The latter uſe it, after it is reduced to an impalpable powder, to eat up, or cure, the pearls or webs that grow in the eyes of horſes; and, as for the dyers, they reckon it among their not-colouring drugs, that is to ſay, ſuch as by themſelves produce no colour, but prepare the ſilk, thread, or woollen ſtuffs, to receive the colour they deſign to dye them with.

Its ſpirit is ſo ſharp, that, when mixed with aqua fortis, or ſpirit of nitre, it compleats the diſſolution of gold, which thoſe two powerful diſſolvents could not effect without it. See AQUA FORTIS and AQUA REGIA.

This ſalt, being purified by fire and filtered, is reduced into a very white ſalt, which is uſed to provoke urine and ſweating, &c. It is alſo reduced into flowers, by means of common ſalt decrepitated, or calcined, or by ſteel-filings. They alſo extract ſeveral ſpirits, and a kind of oil, from it. Finally, they fix it with egg-ſhells, or live-chalk and fire.

Salt armoniac pays duty of importation in France 10 ſols per 100 weight, according to the tariff of the year 1664: and, by a decree of the council of ſtate, of the 15th of Auguſt 1685, it pays 20 per 100 of its value, if it be not imported directly into France, but was landed any-where in foreign countries.

ARMONIAC. There is a gum alſo called by ſome Gum Armoniac.

ARMOR, or ARMOUR, a defenſive habit, commonly of iron or ſteel, which warriors and ſoldiers uſed formerly, to defend and ſecure the body againſt the offenſive arms of the enemies. The complete armor was compoſed of a helmet, or head-piece, a neck-piece, or gorget, a cuiraſſe, taſſes, braſſets, gantlets, cuiſſes, and covers for the legs and feet, to which were

were alſo faſtened the ſpurs. This was called armor cap-à-pee; and thus the horſemen, or knights and men of arms, were dreſſed.

The infantry wore but part of this armor. The murrian was to them inſtead of a helmet: they had alſo a cuiraſſe and taſſes, but all this very light, and ſuch as the pikemen in the regiment of guards, and in ſome other regiments in France, ſtill wore towards the end of the ſeventeenth century. Laſtly, the horſes themſelves had their armor, wherewith to cover the head and breaſt. The curious may ſee all thoſe kinds of armor in the tower of London.

Of all this warlike furniture, ſcarce any thing is now uſed except the cuiraſſe; the gorget, which the officers ſtill wear, being at preſent nothing but a mark of honour, or diſtinction, by which the ſoldiers know them, but which is of no defence. Inſtead of a helmet, or murrian, they uſe ſometimes an iron or ſteel bonnet, or cap, under the hat; and none but the regiments called cuiraſſiers ſtill uſe the ſimple caſk, or helmet.

The folly, or, if you like the word better, the gallantry, of going to the battle naked, as it were, that is, without any defenſive arms, had prevailed to ſuch a degree among the French nobility, that it was thought proper to reſtrain it by ordonnances; and during the wars, which were almoſt continual under the long reign of Lewis XIV, the general officers, and all the officers of the horſe, were commanded to uſe the cuiraſſe again; which, though ſtill but indifferently obeyed, has kept up in France the manufacture of that part of ancient armor, of which in the next article.

ARMOURER, he that makes arms.

The armourer-heaumiers (or helmet-makers) were formerly a numerous corporation at Paris. They were called armourers from the armour they made, and heaumiers from heaume, or helmet, which is the chief and moſt honourable piece of the whole armour. Some vocabularies confound them with the gun-ſmiths (in French arquebuſiers) who are alſo ſtiled armourers, though that name was never given to the gun-ſmiths in their ſtatutes, and belongs only to the helmet-makers, who are a body intirely diſtinct from the gun-ſmiths, of whom an account will be given in their proper article.

The firſt ſtatutes of the armourers-heaumiers were given them by Charles VI. who, in the year 1409, erected them into a body-corporate. Theſe ancient ſtatutes being neglected and almoſt demoliſhed, new ſtatutes were made for them in the year 1562, which being examined and approved by Marſhal de Briſſac, then governor of Paris, and afterwards by the lieutenant-civil, and by the king's attorney at the court of the Chatelet, who gave their opinions upon them the 23d of July, they were at laſt approved, confirmed, and authoriſed by letters-patents of Charles IX, iſſued at Houdan that ſame year, in the month of September, and regiſtered in the parliament in March following.

Theſe laſt ſtatutes contain, in 22 articles, the whole diſcipline, or form of government, of that corporation.

Four jurats, or wardens, two of whom are choſen yearly, watch over the preſervation of their privileges, and take care that their ſtatutes be obſerved.

Every freeman of that company can have but one apprentice at a time, who muſt be bound before a notary-public, and admitted by the wardens.

The apprenticeſhip, without which no man can be made free of the company, is of 5 years, and even freemen's ſons are not exempted from it; but they may ſerve their time either with their father, or with others; with this difference, however, that, if they be bound with a ſtranger, they are looked upon as apprentices, and ſo prevent the taking any other; but, if a freeman's ſons ſerve their father, whatever be their number, he may take another apprentice beſide them.

The maſter-piece is given by the maſters, to whom but 8 livres Pariſis are due for his right of aſſiſtance: but freemen's ſons are not obliged to make their maſter-piece, nor even to undergo a trial.

Widows, who continue ſuch, enjoy the ſame privileges their huſbands had, except that they cannot take a new apprentice, but only continue to keep him who was bound to the huſband, and has not finiſhed his time.

The works and merchandiſes of foreigners are liable to be viſited, or examined; which muſt be done by the jurats, as ſoon as it is required, under a penalty of 20 livres Pariſis, to be paid by them, beſides an indemnification to the merchants for ſtaying beyond their time.

The materials proper for the manufacture of armour, that is to ſay, iron, ſteel, &c. are alſo to be viſited, and muſt be divided into lots among the merchants who have occaſion for them.

No freeman can keep above one work-ſhop.

Every piece of armour is to be marked with a puncheon, which is delivered by the jurats, and the impreſſion of which upon lead ought to be kept in the chamber of the king's attorney.

Journeymen, who have been apprentices at Paris, ought to be preferred before ſtrangers, provided they be ſatisfied with the ſame wages.

The works that can be manufactured by the freemen of the armourer-helmet-maker's company, according to their ſtatutes, are all ſorts of armour for men, and eſpecially corſlets, cuiraſſes, gorgets, taſſes, braſſets, gantlets, cuiſſes, and all covers for the legs; head-pieces, burganets for horſemen, burganets and murrians for the infantry, both ſlight, and ſhot-proof; and all kinds of armour for juſts and tournaments.

The armourers-helmet-makers company in France have St George for their patron, the fraternity or brotherhood of which is eſtabliſhed in the pariſh of St. James's, where that ſaint is repreſented at full length, armed cap-à-pee, with an armour of poliſhed ſteel, and mounted on a horſe capariſoned after the ancient manner, with its harneſs alſo of ſteel.

This company, formerly one of the moſt numerous in Paris, was, towards the end of the ſixteenth century, already dwindled to 60 freemen only, and, at preſent, it conſiſts of 2 freemen only, who are brothers, and ſons to the famous Drouart, the laſt jurat of that company, whoſe anceſtors for above 200 years, had the reputation of making the beſt and richeſt armour in Europe, not excepting that of Milan, which was always very much eſteemed.

The manufacture of cuiraſſes uſed by the French cavalry is at preſent eſtabliſhed at Beſançon; ſome, however, are imported from Switzerland.

As to the two freemen of the company of armourers helmet-makers who are ſtill left at Paris, they continue to ſtile themſelves the only armourers-helmet-makers to the king, the princes, and the great lords; and they do accordingly furniſh them with the cuiraſſes they want, keeping up with honour their father's reputation.

ARMOURER, is alſo ſaid of a trader who ſells armour, though he does not manufacture it. That name is alſo given to thoſe who trade in all ſorts of arms.

ARMOURERS company in London. The arms and creſt of the brothers and ſiſters of the fraternity, or guild, of St George, of the myſtery of the armourers of the city of London (as they were ſtiled in their charter) were anciently borne by the ſaid corporation, but afterwards declared and confirmed to them by Thomas Hawley, Clarencieux, by patent under the ſeal of his arms and office, 3 and 4 Philip and Mary, 1556.

Their arms are argent on a chevron, gules; a gantlet, between four ſwords in ſaltier, on a chief, ſable; a buckler, argent, charged with a croſs, gules, between two helmets of the firſt.

Their creſt is a man demi-armed at all points, ſurmounting a torce and a helmet. Their motto, Make all ſure. Their hall is in Coleman-ſtreet.

ARMS, all weapons that ſerve to attack an enemy, or defend one's ſelf.

Of all contraband merchandiſes, there are none the exportation of which, without licence or paſſport, is more ſtrictly prohibited, and more ſeverely puniſhed, than that of arms, by the ordonnances of the kings of France. The penalty mentioned in the ordonnance relating to the five large farms publiſhed in February 1687, is, the forfeiting of ſuch arms, together with all the horſes, carts, carriages, and equipages, which ſerved to carry them; as alſo of all other merchandiſes which may be found with thoſe arms, or were hid under them, beſides a fine of 500 livres, to be paid by the merchants and carriers, or carmen; without prejudice to the corporal puniſhment mentioned in the ordonnances, according to the nature of the offence, and as the caſe ſhall require.

Under the general name of arms the tariffs comprehend, beſides defenſive and offenſive arms, all ſorts of ammunition, inſtruments, and other warlike ſtores, mentioned in the following liſt:

A liſt of the merchandiſes, the exportation of which is prohibited throughout the whole extent of the kingdom, territories, and dominions of the king of France, in an alphabetical order.

Balls,	Granadoes,	Petards,
Bandaliers,	Gun-powder,	Pikes,
Belts of all ſorts,	Guns,	Piſtols, and piſtol-caſes,
Bomb-ſhells,	Halberds,	
Carcaſſes,	Helmets,	Puddings for mines,
Carriages for guns,	Javelins,	Saddles,
Cuiraſſes,	Matches for guns,	Salt-petre,
Faſcines,	Mortars,	Swords.
Fuſees,	Muſquets,	

Arms, arquebuſſes, piſtols, harneſſes, braſſets, muſquets, barrels for fire-arms, and other arms of iron, pay duties of importation in France, at the rate of 40 ſols per 100 weight.

In England arms and ammunition, and all utenſils of war, or gun-powder, imported without licence from his majeſty, are forfeited, and treble the value, 1 Jac. II. cap. 8. ſect 2.—Such licence being obtained, except for the furniſhing of his majeſty's public ſtores, is void, and the offender incurs a præmunire, and is diſabled to hold any office from the crown, 1 Jac. II. cap. 8. ſect. 3.

AROBE, which ſome ſpell and pronounce ARROBE, in Spaniſh arroba, and, in the language of Peru, arroue, a weight uſed in Spain, in Portugal, at Goa, and throughout all Spaniſh America. The Portugueze uſe it alſo in Brazil, where, as well as at Goa, it is ſometimes called arate. All theſe arobes are ſcarce any other ways like each other but in name, being very different

different in weight, and in their proportion to the weights of other countries.

The arobe of Madrid, and almoſt over all Spain, except Seville and Cadiz, weighs 25 Spaniſh pounds, which do not make quite 23 pounds and $\frac{1}{4}$ Paris weight: ſo that the common quintal, which is of 4 arobes, makes but 93 pounds Paris weight.

The arobe of Seville and Cadiz is alſo of 25 pounds, but theſe make 26 pounds and $\frac{1}{2}$ at Paris, Amſterdam, Straſburgh, and Beſançon, where the pound is equal; 4 arobes make the common quintal, that is to ſay, 100 pounds; but there muſt be 6 arobes to make the quintal of Macho, which amounts to 150 pounds Seville and Cadiz weights, which may be reduced to the Paris weight upon the foot of the reduction of the arobe of thoſe two cities, made above.

The aroue, or arobe, of Peru, weighs 25 pounds French weight. It is chiefly uſed to weigh the herb of Paraguay, of which the Spaniards and the Indians, who uſe it like tea, make ſo great a conſumption, that there is wanted for Peru alone above 75,000 aroues yearly. See PARAGUAY.

The arate, or Portugueze arobe, weighs much more than the Spaniſh arobe; it being 32 pounds of Liſbon, which amounts to near 29 pounds Paris weight.

AROUE, a weight uſed in Spain and in Spaniſh America. See AROBE.

AROUGHCAIN, an animal found in Virginia, which intirely reſembles the beaver, except that it feeds and leaps upon trees like the ſquirrel.

The Engliſh value its furr pretty much, which makes a branch of their trade with the Indians who live near their colony.

ARPENT, a certain meaſure of land, which is greater or leſſer, according to different countries and provinces. But, as to the ſurveying, or meaſuring, of foreſts and coppices ſold in France, the arpent muſt be the ſame throughout the whole kingdom, according to the king's ordonnance of Auguſt the 13th, 1669, article 14 of the title which relates to the policy and preſervation of foreſts, of which here follows an extract: No meaſure ſhall be admitted, nor uſed, in the king's woods and foreſts, nor in thoſe held in coparcenery, in eyre, in appennage, mortgage, uſucaption, or held by eccleſiaſtical community, or private perſons, without exception, but that of 12 lines per inch, 12 inches per foot, 22 feet per perch, and 100 perches per arpent, upon pain of a fine of 1000 livres, notwithſtanding all cuſtoms and poſſeſſions to the contrary.

It muſt be obſerved that the ordonnance, mentioning 100 perches per arpent, muſt be underſtood of 100 ſquare perches.

The arpent is commonly divided two ways; the one into an half, a quarter, and half a quarter; and the other into a third, half a third, &c. of an arpent.

ARQUEBUSE, or HARQUEBUSE, a fire-arm, of the ſame length with a fuſee, or muſquet, which is commonly cocked with a ſpring-lock. This kind of arms was formerly very much uſed both in war and for hunting; but, at preſent, it is hardly any otherwiſe uſed than for the defence of beſieged places; but it has given name to a conſiderable company of tradeſmen at Paris, called arquebuſiers, that is, gun-ſmiths.

ARQUIFOUX. See ALQUIFOUX.

ARRACAN, or ARRACKAN, a ſmall kingdom in the Eaſt-Indies, has the country of Ava, beſt known by the merchants under the name of Pegu, on the eaſt, and ſouth-eaſt; Tipra on the north; and the bay and country of Bengal on the weſt and north-weſt. There are many cities, towns, and villages in this kingdom; ſome whereof are extremely populous, which is aſcribed to their polygamy, and to their avoiding, as much as in their power, war and ſea voyages. Their longeſt voyages are, when they make war with their ſhips againſt their neighbours of Bengal or Pegu.

The country has woods, and is full of orchards and gardens that are verdant all the year, and produce all the uſual fruits of the Indies. It has timber for building, ſome lead, tin, ſticklack, and elephants teeth; with all ſorts of corn, except wheat and rye. Their ordinary money is ſhells, or little ſtones, 80 of which they value at about 9 d. ſterling, and they have a ſilver coin worth about 2 s. apiece, for which they have 1660 ſhells in exchange; ſo that, when they carry this ſort of money to market, it is a porter's load. The Moors here are the greateſt traders. Many of their rivers have tides, which riſe from 12 to 20 feet high, ſo that they perform great voyages in a little time. The chief towns are,

1. ARRACAN, the capital, which, Schouten ſays, is as large as Amſterdam, but much more populous; and its ſuburbs are ſome leagues in extent. On the ridges of the rocks are many ſtreets, full of ſhops; where may be had the richeſt goods of all Aſia, which are brought and carried away on the backs of elephants, ſo tame, that they are commonly governed by boys, who ride on their necks. The Dutch have a factory in the neighbourhood. Here are ſeveral ſpacious bazars and piazzas; and ſome of the Mogul's ſubjects trade hither, and meet ſometimes with good bargains of diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones, and gold roupees. The mouth of its noble ſpacious river is large, and deep enough to accommodate ſhips of the greateſt burthen into a harbour, large enough to hold all the ſhips in Europe.

2. ORIETAN, is frequented by merchants from moſt parts of the eaſt.
3. DOBARI, has a good harbour and trade on a ſtream, that runs ſouth from Arracan.
4. CHEDABE, or CABUBEL, is alſo a town of trade, with a good harbour.
5. DIANGA, is another noted town on the coaſt, 120 miles north of Arracan, which ſome place in Bengal, but Father Toſi makes it one of the chief cities of Arracan: moſt of the inhabitants are fugitive Portugueze, who have great privileges. Moll places a Dutch factory on the river of Arracan, 60 miles north-eaſt of that city; but we have no other account of it.
6. PEROEM, or PROM, is another town of great trade, and has a good capacious harbour.
7. RAMA, is another city of the ſame rank. The ſea on this part of the coaſt is dangerous, being ſubject to ſudden tempeſts.

The ſea-coaſt of this kingdom extends from Cape Negrais to Xatigam in Bengal, about 400 miles; but is not much inhabited, becauſe of the vaſt numbers of wild elephants, buffaloes, and tygers: only ſome iſlands in the ſea are peopled with poor fiſhermen.

ARRAGON, in Spain, is the next kingdom in dignity to that of Navarre. It is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, which divide it from France; on the weſt it has Navarre, and New and Old Caſtile; on the ſouth the kingdom of Valentia; and, on the eaſt, part of Valentia, and the principality of Catalonia.

The country is mountainous, but full of delightful vales, and extraordinary fertile, which produce great plenty of wheat, wine, oil, ſaffron, and fruits of the moſt delicious kind. They breed alſo great quantities of cattle, and abound with all ſorts of fowl, both wild and tame.

The mountains are ſaid to have mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, but little is made of any of them, except iron. Here are likewiſe very conſiderable rivers, and plenty of good fiſh; the moſt remarkable river is the Turio, which fertilizes a great part of the country, not by an overflow like that of the Nile, but by its ſlow and gentle courſe, which gives opportunity to the huſbandman and gardener to cut channels from it to water their lands; inſomuch that we are told, their trees will bear fruit three, and often four, times in a year; and not only in great plenty, but in ſuch variety, that they reckon no leſs than 400 ſorts produced in this kingdom. Their orchards, gardens, and paſture grounds, are likewiſe much admired for their continual verdure and fertility.

1. ZARAGOZA, alias SARAGOSSA, is the metropolis of this kingdom, and is rich and populous, and carries on a great commerce, and a conſiderable number of trades and manufactures both within and without the walls.
2. TERRAZANA, is another city in this kingdom, which carries on a conſiderable trade much in the ſame way as Saragoſſa does.
3. VAL DE TENA, or SALLENT, is a remarkable town in the very heart of the Pyrenees. Here is a large traffic carried on in the produce of the country all the ſummer, though the great quantities of ſnow which cover theſe mountains, make the country impaſſable near ſix months in the year. Their trade is occaſioned by two paſſes leading into France, the one on the weſt, over the river Gallego, towards Beam in Gaſcony, and the other on the eaſt over a cleft of the mountain Forqueta.

ARREAR-CHARGE, thus the French ſtile intereſt upon intereſt, or compound intereſt, according to Furetiere; but that expreſſion is little uſed in trade.

ARREARS, the remainder of a ſum due, or money remaining in the hands of an accountant.

It ſignifies alſo, more generally, the money, that is due for rent, unpaid for land or houſes; as likewiſe what remains unpaid of penſions, taxes, or any other money payable yearly, or at a fixed term. The French call it arrearages.

A merchant is alſo ſaid to be in arrears, or behind-hand, when he does not regularly pay his bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, bonds, or any other debts, when due, and leaves them, as it were, behind-hand. Monſieur Savary ſets it down as a maxim, in his Complete Merchant, that when a trader is once in arrears, or behind-hand, he is almoſt irretrievably loſt, and does ſeldom recover his credit, unleſs by a very great chance, and an extraordinary good luck.

To leave a payment in arrears (arrierer un payement, as the French ſay) is not to pay it when due, to delay it and put it off.

ARSCHIN, a long meaſure, uſed in China, to meaſure ſtuffs. It is of the ſame length with the Dutch ell, which is of 2 feet 11 lines, which amounts to $\frac{4}{7}$ of a French ell. So that 7 arſchins of China make 4 ells of France.

The ell of Amſterdam makes $\frac{3}{4}$ of a yard of London, ſo that four ells of Amſterdam, or four arſchins of China, make three yards of London. So that, to reduce the arſchins to the yard of London, you muſt ſay, If four arſchins make three yards, ſo many arſchins (thirty for inſtance) how many yards will they make? Anſw. 22 $\frac{1}{2}$. And, in order to reduce the

yards into arſchins, ſay, if three yards make four arſchins, ſo many yards (as 35 for inſtance) how many arſchins will they make? Anſ. 46 $\frac{2}{3}$.

ART, the rule and method of doing a thing well, and as it ſhould be.

ART ſignifies alſo a profeſſion, or trade. And in this ſenſe there are two ſorts of arts, the one called liberal arts, ſuch as painting, architecture, &c. the other called mechanic arts, ſuch as the trades of turners, carpenters, &c.

ARTS and TRADES. In France they thus ſtile the companies of tradeſmen or artificers, erected into bodies corporate, which have wardens, maſters or freemen, apprentices, and jurats, or examiners. They are diſtinct from what they call the ſix bodies of merchants.

ARTICLE, a ſmall part of an account contained in the journal, invoice, &c. Thus it is ſaid ſuch an account contains ſo many articles of debtor, and ſo many of creditor. The memorial, the invoice of the merchandizes I have ſent you, contains ſo many articles, which amount to ſo much. In my inventory, the article of the ſerges of Aumale amounts to ſuch a ſum.

An able book-keeper ought to be very exact in poſting into the ledger, to every one's account, either as debtor or creditor, every article that has been ſet down in the journals and caſh-book, &c.

ARTICLE is alſo ſaid of the clauſes, terms, and conditions, agreed upon in partnerſhips, bargains, and treaties, and alſo of the things adjudged, or determined, by arbitrators. In this ſenſe, they ſay, it is agreed by ſuch an article of our partnerſhip that the houſe-rent ſhall be paid out of the common ſtock. In the bargain we have made together there is an article, by which you are bound to ſuch a thing. This is according to an article of our treaty. Our arbitrators have determined ſuch an article in my favour.

ARTICLE ſignifies, likewiſe, the ſeveral heads contained in the ordonnances and regulations, particularly when they are quoted. This agrees with ſuch an article of the ordonnance in France, of the year 1673, or with ſuch an article of the regulations concerning the dyers, &c.

ARTIFICER, or ARTISAN, or MECHANIC, is a perſon who carries on any handicraft, or mechanical trade. This claſs of people is not only very numerous in all great trading ſtates and empires, but is of more real importance to ſuch communities, than, perhaps, is generally conſidered by thoſe in more exalted conditions of life.

REMARKS.

As things are conſtituted at preſent, amongſt the trading countries of the world, thoſe which ſubſiſt themſelves upon their natural productions, or merely by bartering and exchanging thoſe productions againſt the commodities of other countries, make no figure themſelves as a trading people.

The Indians in North America, as well as the Negroes in Africa, are plain inſtances of the truth hereof.

Were the Chineſe, and the Eaſt-Indians, in general, to be deprived of their ingenious artificers, or, if you pleaſe, manufacturers (for they may be as reaſonably called the one as the other, perhaps, though cuſtom among us has made a diſtinction) they would, very probably, degenerate into the like ſavage diſpoſitions with the wildeſt Africans, or American Indians. And this, we may preſume, would prove the caſe alſo among the Europeans, For,

Theſe are the arts which keep the maſs of the people in uſeful action, and their minds engaged upon inventions beneficial to the whole community: and this is the grand preſervative againſt that barbariſm and brutality which ever attend an indolent and inactive ſtupidity.

The due cultivation, therefore, of practical manual arts in a nation, has a greater tendency to poliſh and humanize mankind, than the mere ſpeculative ſcience, however refined and ſublime it may be: and theſe practical arts are not only the moſt naturally adapted to the bulk of the people, but, by giving real exiſtence to their ideas, by their practical inventions, improve their minds more ſenſibly and feelingly than any ideal contemplation could do, which may have no other being but in the mind of the ſpeculator.

Moreover, it is obſervable that perſons who excel by their new inventions and diſcoveries in the practical mechanic arts, are commonly men of general good underſtandings. Whether this may not be attributed to the conſtant exerciſe of the intellectual faculties in matters which they SEE and FEEL, may deſerve the conſideration of ſuch who ſhall think of the more natural way of improving the underſtanding. The delicate mechaniſm of a watch by thoſe great artiſts a Graham, or an Ellicot, demoſtrates the utility of ſuch artizans to a trading country, when their workmanſhip is admired amongſt all the civilized world. It is the ſame by other artificers, who excel in their peculiar branch. This not only brings credit and honour, but treaſures, into a nation, in proportion as they are ſtocked with ſuch celebrated mechanics, or artificers.

Nothing is more obvious than that the commerce and navigation of this nation principally depends on the daily improvements made by our artificers, in that infinite and amazing variety in our mechanic and manufactural arts. Wherefore artiſts of this kind, who ſtrike out new inventions, or who improve the old mechanics and manufactures, are deſerving of ſome public regard and encouragement more than what they acquire to themſelves by dint of their peculiar profeſſion only.

Daily experience manifeſts the extraordinary effects of thoſe ſmall rewards which have been given in Scotland and Ireland, for the improvement of their manufactures; nor do the premiums, perhaps, operate ſo powerfully as the motive of emulation; for that credit and reputation which attends a man's excelling in his employment, has, ſometimes, a far greater influence upon the induſtrious and ingenious mind, than pecuniary rewards only.

Yet theſe are not to be neglected in trading nations; ſuch being the caſe, that new inventions, or new improvements, made by one, for the benefit of trade, are ſoon enjoyed equally by all, the inventors very rarely being able to preſerve the benefit of their inventions any time to themſelves; ſcarce ever long enough to recompenſe them for the time and expence they have generally been obliged to beſtow upon them. How the ingenious Britiſh artificer might be rewarded by the public, we have taken the liberty to ſuggeſt elſewhere, in our REMARKS under the article ASPHALTUM, which were occaſioned by the encouragement given by the French king to the Sieur de la Sabloniere upon that occaſion. See alſo the article PATENTS granted in this nation for the encouragement of new inventions and diſcoveries.

But, beſides the public rewards and encouragement which might be given to our artiſts in the ſhape therein humbly propoſed, there is another way of promoting our artificers, and thereby the commerce of the kingdom in general; and which, though it is not attended to, may not prove leſs beneficial to the community, if it once becomes faſhionable amongſt us. What I am about to intimate, is derived from conſidering the neceſſity under which our nobility and gentry conſtantly lie, to uſe ſome corporal exerciſe and recreation for the benefit and preſervation of their healths: whence it is that they are obliged to ride, hunt, ſhoot, play at tennis, cricket, &c. But it is to be earneſtly wiſhed and deſired, that, at the ſame time when theſe noble and honourable perſons were exerciſing themſelves for their health's ſake, they would ſo contrive their exerciſes as even to render them ſerviceable to the public intereſts: and this, I humbly apprehend, might be eaſily done, could theſe perſonages be prevailed on to entertain themſelves with the peruſal of thoſe celebrated works of the inimitable lord Bacon, and that excellent tract by the honourable Mr Boyle, on the Uſefulneſs of Experimental Philoſophy; as alſo that admirable performance written afterwards by the learned biſhop Spratt, intitled The Hiſtory of the Royal Society of London, for the improving of natural knowledge.

Was it faſhionable once for perſons of diſtinction to devote a proportion of their rural retirement to practical or experimental philoſophy, it might not only prove a ſalubrious bodily exerciſe to individuals, but a great benefit and advantage to our artificers in general, and, conſequently, to the general traffic of the kingdom. For,

As the learned author of the hiſtory before-mentioned obſerves, 'The mechanic inventions are improveable by others 'beſides the common artificers themſelves. This will appear 'undeniable, ſays he, if we will be convinced by inſtances; 'for it is evident, that divers ſorts of manufactures have been 'given us by men who were not bred up in trades that reſembled thoſe which they diſcovered. I ſhall mention three, 'that of printing, powder, and bow-dye. The admirable art 'of compoſing letters was ſo far from being ſtarted by a man 'of learning, that it was the device of a ſoldier: and powder, 'to make recompence, was invented by a monk, whoſe courſe 'of life was moſt averſe from handling the materials of war. 'The ancient Tyrian purple was brought to light by a fiſher; 'and, if ever it ſhall be recovered, it is likely to be done by 'ſome ſuch accident. The ſcarlet of the moderns is a very 'beautiful colour, and it was the production of a chemiſt, 'and not of a dyer.

'One principal help, ſays that great man in another place, 'that the Engliſh nobility and gentry enjoy for the promotion 'of theſe ſtudies of peace, is the preſent conſtitution of our 'government. The chief deſign of the ancient Engliſh was 'the glory of ſpreading their victories on the continent: 'but this was a magnanimous miſtake; for by their very 'conqueſts, if they had maintained them, this iſland had been 'ruined, and had only become a province to a greater empire. 'But now it is rightly underſtood that the Engliſh greatneſs 'will never be ſupported or increaſed in this age by any 'other wars but thoſe by ſea; and for theſe the ſervice of the 'multitude is fitter than of gentlemen. This we have beheld 'practiſed theſe laſt 20 years, wherein our naval ſtrength has 'more than trebled itſelf; for, though ſome few gentlemen 'have ſtill mingled themſelves in theſe gallant actions, yet the 'groſs of our fleets have conſiſted of common men, and of 'mariners, who are bred up in the rude toils of ſuch a life. 'As this obſervation may raiſe us to the greater admiration 'of their valour, that ſuch magnanimity ſhould be found 'amongſt the meaneſt of the people, ſo it ſhould alſo ſug-'geſt to our gentlemen, who by this means are at liberty

'from the employments of the greateſt danger, that they 'ought to undertake theſe, which will give them as great, 'though a ſecurer honour.

'Nor will it be a diſgrace to them, that the fighting for their 'country is caſt on men of lower ranks, if, in the mean 'time, they ſhall ſtrive to enlighten and adorn, while the 'other defend it: for the ſame is ordained by nature itſelf, 'in the order and offices of her works; the heavenly bodies 'appear to move quietly above, to give light, and to cheriſh 'the world with a gentle influence; while inſtruments of 'war and offence are taken out of the bowels of the earth.

'For the improvement of theſe arts of peaceable fame, they 'have, indeed, another privilege, which can ſcarce be equalled 'by any kingdom in Europe; and that is the convenience 'and benefit of being ſcattered in the country; and, in truth, 'the uſual courſe of life of the Engliſh gentlemen is ſo well 'placed between the troubleſome noiſe of pompous magnifi-'cence and the baſeneſs of avaricious ſordidneſs, that the true 'happineſs of living, according to the rules and pleaſures of 'uncorrupt nature, is more in their power than any others.

'To them, in this way of life, there can nothing offer itſelf 'which may not be turned to a philoſophical uſe. Their 'country-ſeats, being removed from the tumult of cities, give 'them the beſt opportunity and freedom of obſervation. Their 'hoſpitality, and familiar way of converſing with their neigh-'bourhood, will always ſupply them with intelligence. The 'leiſure which theſe retirements afford them is ſo great, that 'either they muſt ſpend their thoughts about ſuch attempts, 'or in more chargeable, or leſs innocent, divertiſements, &c.

'When a general turn for the uſeful inventions, in regard to 'trade, has once taken root among our nobility and gentry, 'let them go on to the other kinds, which purpoſe the ſtrik-'ing out of new mechanics. The warmth and vigour which 'attend new diſcoveries, is ſeldom wont to confine itſelf to 'its own ſphere, but is commonly extended farther, to the 'ornament of its neighbours. The ordinary method where-'in this happens, is the introduction of new arts.

'It is true, indeed, the increaſe of tradeſmen is an injury to 'others, that are bred up in particular trades, where there is 'no greater employment than they can maſter: but there can 'never be an overcharge of trades themſelves. That country 'is ſtill the richeſt and moſt powerful which entertains moſt 'artificers and manufacturers.

'The hands of men employed are true riches: the ſaving of 'theſe hands by inventions of arts, and applying them to 'other works, will increaſe thoſe riches. Where this is 'done, there will never a ſufficient matter for profit be want-'ing; for, if there be not vent for their productions at home, 'we ſhall have it abroad; but, where the ways of life are 'few, the fountains of profit will be poſſeſſed by few; and 'ſo all the reſt muſt live in idleneſs, on which inevitably 'enſues beggary: whence it is manifeſt, that poverty is 'cauſed by the fewneſs of different trades, and not by 'the multitude.

'Nor is it enough to overthrow this, to tell us, that, by 'this addition [of new artificers and manufacturers] all things 'will become dearer, becauſe more muſt be maintained: for 'the high rate of things is an argument of the flouriſhing, 'and the cheapneſs of the ſcarcity of money, and ill-peopling 'of all countries. The firſt is a ſign of many inhabitants, 'which are true greatneſs; the ſecond is only a fit ſubject for 'poets to deſcribe, and to compare to their golden age; for, 'where all things are without price or value, they will be 'without arts, or empire, or ſtrength.

'I will explain all this by a familiar and domeſtic inſtance. 'It is probable that there are in England a hundred times 'more [or different ſpecies of] trades, than the Saxons, or 'the Danes, found here in their invaſions; and, withal, the 'particular trades live more plentifully, and the whole nation 'is wonderfully ſtronger, than before. This alſo may be 'ſeen in every particular city: the greater it is, the more 'kinds of artificers it contains; whoſe neighbourhood and 'number is ſo far from being a hindrance to each other's gain, 'that ſtill the tradeſmen of moſt populous towns are wealthier 'than thoſe who profeſs the ſame crafts in country markets.

'In England it has of late been a univerſal murmur, that 'trade decays; but the contrary is evident, from the perpetual 'advancement of the cuſtoms. Whence then ariſes the com-'plaint? From hence, that traders HAVE MULTIPLIED 'ABOVE THE PROPORTIONABLE INCREASE OF TRADES: 'BY WHICH MEANS ALL THE OLD WAYS OF GAIN ARE 'OVERSTOCKED, WHICH WOULD SOON BE PREVENTED 'BY A CONSTANT ADDITION OF NEW.

'The want of a right apprehending this has always made 'the Engliſh averſe from admitting of new inventions, and 'ſhorter ways of labour, and from naturalizing of new peo-'ple: both which are the fatal miſtakes that have made the 'Hollanders exceed us in riches and traffic *: they receive 'all projects, and all people; we have kept them out, and 'ſuppreſſed them, for the ſake of the poor, whom we thereby 'do certainly make the poorer.

* It muſt be obſerved that the biſhop wrote in the reign of king Charles II.

'And indeed thoſe perſons, ſays the judicious prelate elſe-'where, who are not peculiarly converſant about any one ſort 'of arts, may often find out their rarities and curioſities ſooner 'than thoſe who have their minds wholly confined to them. 'If we weigh the reaſon why this is probable, it will not be 'found ſo much a paradox as perhaps it may ſeem at the firſt 'reading. For

'The artificers themſelves, having had their hands directed 'from their youth in the ſame methods of working, can-'not, when they pleaſe, ſo eaſily alter their cuſtom, and 'turn themſelves into new roads of practice. Beſides 'this, they chiefly labour for preſent livelihood, and, there-'fore, cannot defer their expectations ſo long as is com-'monly requiſite for the ripening of a new contrivance. 'But eſpecially having long handled their inſtruments in 'the ſame faſhion, and regarded their materials with the 'ſame thoughts, they are not apt to be ſurprized much with 'them, nor to have any extraordinary fancies or raptures 'about them.

'Theſe are the uſual defects of the artificers themſelves: 'whereas men of freer lives have all the contrary advantages. 'They do not approach theſe trades as their dull, and una-'voidable, and perpetual employments, but as their diver-'ſions. They try thoſe operations, in which they are not 'very exact, and ſo will be more frequently ſubject to com-'mit errors in their proceeding; which very faults and wan-'derings will often guide them into new light, and new con-'ceptions. And, laſtly, there is alſo ſome privilege to be al-'lowed to the generoſity of the ſpirits of gentlemen, which 'have not been ſubdued, clogged, and ſhackled, by any con-'ſtant toil, as the mere artificers.

'Invention is an heroic thing, and generally placed above 'the reach of a low and vulgar genius. It requires an active, 'a bold, a nimble, a reſtleſs mind: a thouſand difficulties 'muſt be contemned, with which a mean heart would be 'broken; many attempts muſt be made to no purpoſe; 'much treaſure muſt ſometimes be ſquandered, without any 'return; much violence and vigour of thoughts muſt attend 'it, that would hardly be pardoned by the ſevere rules of 'prudence. All which may perſuade us, that a large and an 'unbounded mind is likely to be the author of greater pro-'ductions than the calm, obſcure, and the fettered endeavours 'of the artificers and mechanics themſelves: and that, as in 'the generation of children, thoſe are uſually found to be moſt 'ſprightly that are the ſtolen fruits of an unlawful bed, ſo, 'in the generations of the brain, thoſe are often the moſt 'vigorous and witty which men beget on other arts, and not 'on their own.

'Whence it follows, that the ſureſt increaſe, remaining to be 'made in manual arts, is to be performed by the conduct of ex-'perimental philoſophy. This will appear undeniable, when 'it ſhall be conſidered that all other cauſes of inventions are 'defective; and that for this very reaſon, becauſe the trials 'of art have been ſo little united with the plain labours of 'men's hands.'

And this was the origin of that moſt uſeful and glorious inſtitution the Royal Society of London, from whence all others of the like kind in Europe have taken their riſe, to the wonderful improvement of the mechanic arts and manufactures, and, indeed, of univerſal commerce.

'It is ſhameful that the greateſt part of our arts and inven-'tions, before theſe noble inſtitutions, ſhould have been pro-'duced either by luxury, or chance, or neceſſity; all which 'muſt be confeſſed to have been mean and ignoble cauſes of 'the rational mechanics.

'The firſt of theſe has been that vanity and intemperance of 'life which the delights of peace, and greatneſs of empire, 'have always introduced. This has been the original of very 'many extravagant inventions of pleaſure, to whoſe promo-'tion it is not requiſite that we ſhould give any help, ſeeing 'they are already too exceſſive. And, indeed, if we conſi-'der the vaſt number of the arts of luxury, compared to the 'ſound and the ſubſtantial ones of uſe, we ſhall find that the 'wit of men has been as much defective in the one, as re-'dundant in the other.

'It has been, continues the biſhop, the conſtant errors of 'men's labours in all ages, that they have ſtill directed them to 'improve thoſe of pleaſure, more than thoſe of profit. How 'many, and how extravagant, have been the ornaments 'about coaches? And how few inventions about new frames 'for coaches, or about carts and ploughs? What prodigious 'expence has been thrown away about the faſhions of cloaths? 'But how little endeavours have there been to invent new 'materials for cloathing, or to perfect thoſe we have? The 'furniture and magnificence of houſes is riſen to a wonderful 'beauty within our memory, but few or none have thorough-'ly ſtudied the well-ordering of timber, the hardening of 'ſtone, the improvement of mortar, and the making of 'better bricks, &c.

'The like may be ſhewn in all the reſt: wherein the ſolid 'inventions are wont to be overwhelmed by gaudineſs and 'ſuperfluity; which vanity has been cauſed by this, that the 'artiſts have chiefly been guided by the fancies of the rich, or

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'the young, or of vain humouriſts, and not by the rules and 'judgments of men of knowledge.
'The ſecond occaſion that has given help to the increaſe of 'mechanics, has been chance: for in all ages, by ſome caſual 'accidents, thoſe things have been revealed which either men 'did not think of, or elſe ſought for in vain. But of this 'the benevolence is irregular, and moſt uncertain: this, in-'deed, can ſcarce be ſtiled the work of a man. The hart 'deſerves as much praiſe of invention for lighting on the 'herb that cures it, as the man who blindly ſtumbles on any 'profitable work, without foreſight or conſideration.
'As to neceſſity, that has given riſe to many great enter-'prizes, and, like the cruel ſtep-mother of Hercules, has 'driven men upon heroic actions, not out of any tender af-'fection, but hard uſage. Nor has it only been an excellent 'miſtreſs to particular men, but even to whole ſtates and king-'doms; for which reaſon ſome have preferred a barren ſoil 'for the ſeat of an imperial city, before a fruitful, becauſe 'thereby the inhabitants being compelled to take pains, and 'to live induſtriouſly, will be ſecure from the dangerous in-'chantments of plenty and eaſe, which are fatal to the be-'ginnings of all commonwealths. Yet the defects of this 'ſevere author of great works are very many.'

From the ſentiments of this zealous promoter of the uſeful arts, for the benefit of commerce, it is manifeſt that he makes the proſperity of a trading nation to conſiſt in the multiplying of the number of new trades; that is to ſay, in the multiplying of the different ſpecies of mechanics, artificers, and manufacturers: for want of this it is, that all the old ways of gain become overſtocked, as has been obſerved, and then people complain for want of trade, when the true cauſe is owing to the want of art, or to the want of the invention of a number of new trades and new arts, in proportion to the increaſe of people among ourſelves, and in proportion as other rival ſtates ſtrike into the like trades and arts which we have been long uſed to.

And, whoever has dipped any thing into the philoſophical tranſactions of the learned amongſt the ſeveral nations in Europe, for near a century paſt, will find, that the greateſt improvements, in manufactural and mechanical arts, have been more owing to the real inventions of the learned, or to ſuch hints which they have, from time to time, communicated, than to the mechanics, manufacturers, and artificers themſelves.

But, although the commerce of Great-Britain ſo apparently depends upon the increaſe of new uſeful arts and inventions, yet, as an ingenious French writer obſerves, 'When our 'reaſon firſt begins to open, we are talked to for ſix years 'together about the future in *rus*, and the ſupine in *um*, with-'out hearing one word of the perfection and uſefulneſs of 'the arts, or the induſtry of people that follow employments, 'by which our lives are ſupported.
'When our reaſon begins to acquire more ſtrength, it is put 'under the direction of maſters, who, after great preparation, 'demonſtrate that we have a body, and that there are other 'bodies round us: or ſpend whole days in proving, that, of 'two propoſitions, contradictorily laid down, concerning a 'poſſible future, which may never happen, the one is deter-'minately true, and the other determinately falſe. The 'learning to diſtinguiſh rightly the productions of the globe 'which we inhabit, the ties whereby all the people dwelling 'on it are united, and the various labours that are therein 'employed, are things the moſt neglected.
'We daily ſee the ſails of a wind-mill, and the wheel of a 'water-mill in action: we know that theſe machines grind 'corn, and reduce the bark of trees to powder; but we 'know nothing of the ſtructure of them, and can hardly 'avoid confounding a carpenter with an hewer of wood. We 'all carry watches in our pockets, but do we know the me-'chaniſm of the fuzee, round which the chain is wound? 'Do we underſtand the uſe of the ſpiral line, which accom-'panies the ballance?
'It is the ſame with regard to the moſt common trades: we 'know the names of them, and no more. Inſtead of endea-'vouring to gain a reaſonable knowledge of commerce and 'mechanics, which are the delight and ornament of the ſo-'ciety wherein we are to ſpend our lives, we pique ourſelves 'on attaining all the niceties of quadrille, or buſy ourſelves 'in uſeleſs, and too often in enthuſiaſtic ſpeculations.'

The ſentiments of this French author bring to my remembrance alſo what our learned countryman, Dr Spratt, ſays in favour of an experimental education: 'I will venture to 'propoſe, ſays he, to the conſideration of wiſe men, whether 'the way of teaching by practice and experiments would not 'at leaſt be as beneficial as the other by univerſal rules; 'whether it were not as profitable to apply the eyes and the 'hands of children, to ſee and to touch all the ſeveral kinds 'of ſenſible things, as to oblige them to learn and remember 'the difficult doctrines of general arts? In a word, whether 'a mechanical education would not excel the methodical?
'This certainly, continues his lordſhip, is no new device: 'for it was that which Plato intended, when he enjoined his 'ſcholars to begin with geometry; whereby, without queſ-'tion, he deſigned, that his diſciples ſhould firſt handle ma-'terial things, and grow familiar to viſible objects, before 'they entered on the refined ſpeculations of other more ab-'ſtracted ſciences.
'The principal thing that ought to be improved in Great-'Britain is their induſtry. This, it is true, has of late years 'been marvelouſly advanced, as may be ſhewn by the en-'larging of traffic, the ſpreading of many fruits, the planta-'tion of trees, and the great improvement of manual arts. 'But it is evident, that it may ſtill admit of farther warmth 'and activity, as we may conclude, by the want of employ-'ment for younger brothers, and many other conditions of 'men, and by the number of our poor, whom idleneſs, and 'not infirmities do impoveriſh.
'The way to compaſs this, is not alone by acts of parliament, 'and good laws, whoſe force will ſoon be evaded by preſent 'craft and interpretation, or elſe will be antiquated by time. 'This, perhaps, our country has found above all others: if 'our labourers had been as diligent as our law-givers, we had 'proved the moſt laborious nation under heaven. But the 'true method of increaſing induſtry is by that courſe which 'the Royal Society of London has begun in philoſophy, by 'works and endeavours, and not by the preſcriptions of words, 'or paper commands.' This, and this only, is the way to increaſe our inventions and improvements in the manual arts, and thereby to increaſe the number of new trades, new manufactures, mechanics, and artificers, in an infinitely greater variety than we at preſent have.

By the ſixth article of the firſt title of the ordonnance publiſhed in France in the year 1673, it is ordered, that all artiſans, as maſons, carpenters, tilers, ſmiths, glaziers, plumbers, paviours, and others of the like quality, ſhall be obliged to demand payment within the year after performing, or delivering, their work.

In England, artificers in wool, iron, ſteel, braſs, &c. contracting to go out of the kingdom into a foreign country, ſhall be fined, not exceeding 100 l. and ſuffer three months impriſonment. And artificers going abroad, not returning on warning given by our ambaſſadors, &c. ſhall be diſabled to hold lands by deſcent, or deviſe, be uncapable of receiving any legacy, &c. and be deemed aliens. Stat. 5 Geo. I. c. 27.

ARTILLERY, comprehends all ſorts of large fire-arms, as mortars, cannons, bombs, petards, carbines, muſquets, as well for the naval as military ſervice.

Since the art of war has been improved, by the means of thoſe fatal inventions of gunpowder and artillery, the manufactory of artillery is become an extenſive branch of buſineſs, and employs no ſmall number of hands; though, where the art has given ſupport to one, it has, perhaps, taken away life from thouſands.

The larger pieces of artillery depend upon the buſineſs of foundery, the other upon ſmithery. The former is commonly called ordnance, the other ſmall arms, &c.

To carry on manufactures of ordnance with ſucceſs, there are various circumſtances which are requiſite to be well weighed and conſidered, or the undertakers may be ſoon undone.

1. The ſituation of the place for caſting of ordnance of iron ſhould be very near ore and fuel, and water, not only for ſale and carriage, but for the conveniency of working of bellows for their caſting part, and forging hammers for the working up the heads of their cannon, and other ſuperfluous caſt iron, which is ſeparated therefrom.

2. The price of labour, as well as that of fuel, ore, and carriage, ſhould alſo be calculated, in order to be able to judge of the profits of the manufactory, according to the views and expectations of vent for the ſame.

3. Theſe things conſidered, the next is that of hiring, or erecting furnaces, forges, and water-mills, and all other conveniencies neceſſary for the purpoſe.

If hiring, or building, be the intention, due regard ſhould be had to the ſtructure of furnaces, not only that they may be properly built for the occaſion, but adapted to the quantity of ore deſigned to be ſmelted at a time; and that the bellows be ſo hung as to give the neceſſary continued blaſt. Theſe things depend on the care and ſkill of able and experienced workmen, or rather upon the maſter-founder himſelf, who has the conduct of the whole.

4. But, let his judgment and experience be ever ſo great, yet if the ſeveral workmen, the operators in the various claſſes, are not equal to their reſpective parts, the undertakers may ſoon be ruined; for there is ſuch a delicacy in the caſting of large pieces of ordnance, that I have known 17 pieces out of 30 not ſtand proof upon trial, though caſt at one of the beſt founderies in the kingdom; which proved a great loſs to the proprietors.

5. There is much in this art that depends upon a careful and ingenious mould-maker; and more on the method of preparing the ore, and ſmelting it with ſuch fluxes as will render the metal conſtantly ſo tough as is neceſſary to ſtand all proof. When this is ſkilfully done, thoſe accidents beforementioned can very rarely happen; as no little defect in the moulds could change the general texture, compactneſs, and toughneſs of the metal; little exuberances in the moulds could never have that effect as to prevent ſuch metal ſtanding proof, if that itſelf was as good as it ought to be.

Theſe accidents, to which our iron founderies are liable in the caſting of ordnance, ſeem to indicate that this art is not yet brought to its laſt perfection.

Under the articles IRON and FOUNDERY, we ſhall ſhew the methods of ſmelting the various ſpecies of ores for ordnance, and other matters, which are made of caſt iron; and endeavour to point out the cauſes of thoſe miſcarriages, which may, in ſome meaſure, poſſibly, contribute to prevent their frequency.

And, in regard to the making of braſs ordnance, that will be repreſented under the articles BRASS and FOUNDERY.

The art of war, at preſent, depending ſo much upon the goodneſs of deſtructive artillery, and other nations pluming themſelves on the ſuperior excellency of theirs, it ſeems prudential from the principles of ſelf-defence only, that we ſhould not be behind them in what ſo nearly concerns us.

That other nations are making all the advances they can in this art; we had an account about two years ago from the Auſtrian camp at Boxtell, that proof was made there of 8 pieces of cannon, made of hammered or forged iron, of a new invention; each piece firing 100 times in 15 minutes, without requiring to be cleaned once. Beſides the advantages of quickneſs in firing, the touch-holes, it was ſaid, ſuffered not in the leaſt by the number of diſcharges that were made. Within a few months after this, to ſhew that the French would not be behind hand with the Auſtrians in that point, we had the following repeated account from Paris in all the foreign papers.

We learn from Paris, that certificates have been produced there from the officers of the marine in ſeveral parts of Normandy, in relation to the excellence of the new-invented artillery, made of forged iron; by which it appears that one of theſe pieces, carrying a ball of 12 pounds, proved equal in every reſpect to one of braſs, and another of caſt iron of double the weight; and that theſe new-invented cannon may be managed by half the number of hands.

As the officers of the French marine made this report, we may preſume this new-invented cannon was chiefly intended for the royal navy; and, if the French ſhould ever be capable of doing the ſame execution at ſea, with one half the weight of metal, that we are, it does not require the gift of prophecy to judge of the conſequences.

Another account we had from Paris, July 4, 1750.

The Sieur Dedorean, maſter of the iron works in Picardy, has found the ſecret of compleating a ſort of cannon, by the help of which very extraordinary execution may be done, far ſuperior to any thing of the like kind. It is compoſed of hammered iron plates, ſoldered together, which make the piece lighter than ordinary, without being ſubject to burſt; or, if by accident it ſhould fly, it may be immediately repaired on the ſpot, with the help only of the hammer and ſolder.

Monſieur de la Valiere, lieutenant-general of the artillery, very much commends this invention, a proof of which is to be made in the arſenal. The inventor flatters himſelf that he ſhall be able, with the aſſiſtance of one man only, to forge and compleat 50 of thoſe guns in a year.

Were other nations agreed to lay aſide thoſe inſtruments of violence, ſo horridly deſtructive of the human ſpecies, we might then, with equal ſafety, lay them aſide alſo; but, as ſelf-defence and preſervation render it neceſſary to be upon a level with enemies, improvements of the like kind ſhould not be neglected on our part.

As artillery comes under the articles of arms and utenſils of war, *&c.* it is proper to obſerve, that it cannot be imported without licence from his majeſty; and, if otherwiſe, the whole is not only forfeited, but treble the value. 1 Jac. II. chap. 8. ſec. 2.

Such licence being obtained, except for the furniſhing of his majeſty's public ſtores, is void, and the offender incurs a præmunire, and is diſabled to hold any office from the crown.

ARTOIS, a country in France, is bounded by Flanders on the north, and partly on the eaſt, on which ſide it borders alſo on Hainault and Cambreſis; and it is bounded by Picardy on the ſouth and on the weſt. The chief trade of this country conſiſts in grains, flax, hops, wool, oil of cabbage and turnip-ſeed, and linnen cloths made at Bethune, Aire, St Venant, La Gorgue, Bapaume, and in their neighbourhood, which is the only manufacture they have in Artois.

The revenue of the ſtates of Artois ariſes from the taxes, or duty laid upon cattle, and all ſorts of liquors, as beer, wine, and brandy; theſe taxes amount to 400,000 livres per ann. The extraordinary funds are levied by a general impoſition, or tax, laid upon all real eſtates, and called the hundredth penny; which, when it is fully paid, amounts to 215,000 livres a year. The Spaniards laid this tax in the year 1569. All real eſtates, of what kind ſoever, as arable lands, paſtures, woods, houſes, both in cities and the country, were then valued by commiſſaries appointed for that purpoſe, who drew up rolls of all the eſtates, with an exact account of their value; theſe rolls have been ſince re-examined, collated, and verified, with the utmoſt accuracy, ſo that there is not one ſingle piece of land omitted.

Every proprietor is obliged to pay yearly one hundredth part of the value of his eſtate, as it is ſet down in thoſe rolls, which are the fixed and conſtant rule of that kind of tax. However, when any eſtate comes to be leſs valuable, by ſome accident, to which the proprietor has not in the leaſt contributed, the ſtates take it into conſideration, and make ſome allowance for it: but if the diminution of the value of any eſtate happens through the negligence, ill conduct, or bad management of the proprietor, the ſtates pay no regard to it.

This tax is increaſed according to the neceſſity the ſtates are under to raiſe more money; ſo that the ſubjects have paid twice, three times, or even ſix times, in a year, the hundredth penny, or the hundredth part of the value of their eſtates: with this difference, however, that the houſes and lands which the clergy and nobility occupy, or cultivate with their own hands, pay the hundredth penny but once a year, whereas they are obliged to pay every hundredth penny that is laid, for all the lands they farm out to others.

The city of ARRAS is inhabited by wealthy traders and artificers, who make ſails and tapeſtry-hangings, eſpecially the latter, which art was invented here.

The people of ST OMARS have ſome trade, ſeveral ſmall veſſels coming up here from the ſea, through Gravelines, by the river Aa.

At BETHUNE, is made an excellent ſort of cheeſe, and ſold in all the neighbouring countries. It is a place of ſome trade, and has two annual fairs.

As, ſignifies at Amſterdam the diviſion of the pound, mark weight; 32 as's make an engel, 10 engels a loot, and 32 loots a pound.

ASBESTOS, or ASBESTUS, thus the Greeks call their incombuſtible cloth, mentioned by Pliny, whom Monſieur Mahudel criticiſes upon, as he does upon Pomet, in his diſſertation quoted in the article AMIANTUS. He obſerves, that it is no longer neceſſary to look for it in the Indies, in Japan, in China, or in Egypt, whence it was got formerly, that mineral being now ſo common that it is to be met with in ſeveral iſlands of the Archipelago, and in thoſe of Cyprus, Negropont, and Corſica. It is likewiſe found in ſeveral parts of Italy, eſpecially on the mountains of Volterra, near Seſtro, in Liguria, in Bavaria, in the iſland of Angleſey in Wales, in Spain, on the Pyrenean mountains, in France in the county of Foix, and near Montauban. All theſe ſeveral countries afford aſbeſtos, wherein are obſerved remarkable differences. Monſieur Mahudel teaches the manner of ſpinning it; but, as the cloth made of it would be of very little uſe, we ſhall only refer the reader to that learned man's curious diſſertation.

Naturaliſts and philoſophers generally reckon the aſbeſtos among the ſtones, whence its appellation of lapis aſbeſtos. But Dr Plot rather judges it a terra lapidoſa, or a middle ſubſtance between ſtone and earth. As to its generation, the ſame author takes it to be a mixture of ſome ſalt, and a pure earth, without ſulphur, coagulated in the winter, and hardened by the heats in ſummer. The ſalt, J. Heſſus ſays, is a liquid allum, of a milky ſubſtance, inclining to yellow, that ſweats out of the earth, and ſmells like rotten cheeſe.

The lapis aſbeſtos is really a ſort of native foſſile ſtone, which may be ſplit into threads, or filaments, very fine, brittle, yet ſomewhat tractable, ſilky, of a greyiſh ſilver-colour, not unlike talc of Venice. It is almoſt inſipid to the taſte, indiſſoluble in water, and, when expoſed to the fire, it neither conſumes nor calcines. A large burning glaſs, indeed, reduces it into little glaſs globules, in proportion as the filaments ſeparate; but common fire only whitens it.

The filaments, or threads, are of different lengths, from one inch to 10. The ſtone is uſually found incloſed within other very hard ſtones, though ſometimes growing to the ſurface of the earth, and ſometimes detached and ſeparated from any.

Notwithſtanding the common opinion, that fire has no effect on the aſbeſtos, yet, in two trials made before the royal ſociety, a piece of incombuſtible cloth made of this ſtone, a foot long, and half a foot broad, weighing about an ounce and a half, was found to loſe above a dram of its weight each time.

The aſbeſtos, applied to any part of the body, excites an itching; and yet we read that it was anciently preſcribed for diſeaſes of the ſkin, and particularly for the itch, unleſs it were rather the alumen plumoſum, or plume allum, that was meant thereby; for even at this day they are frequently confounded.

The induſtry of mankind has found a method of working this untoward mineral, and employing it in divers manufactures, particularly in cloth and paper. This manufacture is certainly difficult enough. Pliny calls the aſbeſtos, inventu rarum, textu difficillimum, not eaſily found, and moſt difficult to weave.

Wormius aſſerts that the method of making cloth of aſbeſtos is now intirely loſt. And, indeed, one would ſcarce think it poſſible, without a mixture of ſome other pliant ſubſtance, as wool, hemp, or flax, the threads of the abeſtos being, as it ſeems, too coarſe and brittle to make any work tolerably fine.

However this be, Bapt. Porta aſſures us, that, in his time, the ſpinning of aſbeſtos was a thing commonly known at Venice. Signior Caſtagnatta is ſaid to have carried that manufacture to

ſuch

ſuch a degree of perfection, that his aſbeſtos was ſoft and tractable, much reſembling lamb ſkins dreſſed white. He could make it thicker or thinner, as he pleaſed, and thus produce either a very white ſkin, or a very white paper.

Marco Paolo, the Venetian, gives us the method of manufacturing the incumbuſtible cloth, or linnen, from the aſbeſtos found in the province of Chinchintelas in Tartary, from one Curſicar, a Turk, ſuperintendant of the mines in that country, as follows:

The lanuginous mineral, being firſt dried in the ſun, is then pounded in a braſs mortar, and the earthy part ſeparated from the woolly, which is afterwards well waſhed from filth. Being thus cleaned, it is ſpun into thread, like other wool, and afterwards wove into cloth, which, if foul or ſpotted, they cleanſe, he ſays, by throwing it into the fire for an hour's time, whence it comes out unhurt, and as white as ſnow. This very method, according to the account given us by Strabo, ſeems to have been uſed in manufacturing the Cretan amiantus, or aſbeſtos, with this addition, that, after it was pounded, and the woolly part ſeparated from the earthy, the wool was combed; and Agricola ſays the ſame.

Signior Campani deſcribes four ſorts of the incombuſtible cloth, whereof he had ſpecimens in his muſæum; the firſt ſent him from Corfu, the ſecond from Seſtri di Ponente, the third coarſer and darker than the reſt, and the fourth from the Pyrenean hills; and obſerves, that, though he kept it three weeks in a glaſs-houſe-fire, yet he found it unaltered, though he could not preſerve a ſtick, wrapped in it from the fire. He proceeds afterwards to explain the manner of ſpinning it, and weaving it into cloth, which is thus: he firſt laid the ſtone in water (if warm the better) to ſoak for ſome time; then he opened and divided it with his hands, that the earthy parts might fall out of it, which are whitiſh, like chalk, and ſerve to bind the thready parts together; this makes the water thick and milky. This operation he repeated ſix or ſeven times, with freſh water, opening and ſqueezing it again and again, till all the heterogeneous parts were waſhed out, and then the flax-like parts were collected, and laid in a ſieve to dry.

As to the ſpinning, he firſt ſhews a method diſcovered to him, which is as follows: lay the aſbeſtos, cleaned as above, between two cards, ſuch as they uſe to card wool with, where let it be gently carded, and then clapped in between the cards, ſo that ſome of it may hang out of the ſides; then lay the cards faſt on a table, or bench; take a ſmall reel, made with a little hook at the end, and a part to turn it by, ſo that it may be eaſily turned round. This reel muſt be wound over with white thread; then having a ſmall veſſel of oil ready, with which the fore-finger and thumb are conſtantly to be kept wet, both to preſerve the ſkin from the corroſive quality of the ſtone, and to render the filaments thereof more ſoft and pliant, by continuing to twiſt about the thread on the reel, in the aſbeſtos hanging out of the cards, ſome of the latter will be worked up together in it, and by little and little the thread may, with care, be woven into a coarſe ſort of cloth; and, by putting it into the fire, the thread and oil will be burned away, and the incombuſtible cloth remain.

But, finding this way of uniting the ſtone with the thread very tedious, inſtead of the thread, he put ſome flax on a diſtaff; and, by taking three or four filaments of the aſbeſtos, and mixing them with the flax, he found they might be eaſily twiſted together, and the thread thus made much more durable and ſtrong. So that there is no need of carding, which rather breaks the filaments, than does any good; only open and ſeparate the filaments, after waſhing on a table, and take them up with the flax, which is ſufficient.

As to the making of paper he obſerves, that, in the waſhing of the ſtone, there will remain ſeveral ſhort pieces at the bottom of the water, of which paper may be made in the common method.

He concludes with the beſt way of preſerving the cloth, or any thing made of the aſbeſtos, which, by reaſon of its exceſſive dryneſs, is very apt to break and twiſt. It conſiſts in keeping it always well oiled, which is the only preſervative.

When the cloth is put into the fire, the oil burns off, and the cloth comes out white and purified.

ASCII, in geography, are thoſe inhabitants of the globe, which, at certain times of the year, have no ſhadow. Such are the inhabitants of the torrid zone, to whom the ſun is ſometimes vertical.

ASEM, or AZEM, or ACHEM, or ACHAM, a kingdom in the Eaſt-Indies, has independent Tartary and Boutan on the north; Tipra on the ſouth; part of China on the eaſt, and of Mogul on the weſt, from which it is divided, according to ſome maps, by the river Arracan. This is one of the beſt countries of Aſia, producing all the neceſſaries for life, beſides mines of gold and ſilver, ſteel, lead, iron, the beſt of gum-lacque, and ſtore of coarſe ſilk, ſpun by worms that live all the year on their trees; but, though it has a good luſtre, it ſoon frets. Though it has plenty of proviſions, dog's-fleſh is ſold in their monthly markets as the greateſt dainty. They have very good grapes, of which when dried, they make aqua vitæ, but no wine. They make good ſalt of the green ſcum at the top of their ſtanding waters, after being dried and burnt, and the aſhes boiled in a cloth. They make another ſort from the aſhes of the leaves of Adam's fig-tree, which is ſo tart, that they ſtir it twelve days together in water, ſtrain it through a cloth, and then boil it. Of the ſame aſhes they make a lee, which renders their ſilk as white as ſnow; but they have not leaves enough to blanch half their ſilk. The king requires no ſubſidies of his people; and, though he is proprietor of all the mines, employs none to work in them but ſlaves, ſo that the reſt of his ſubjects live at eaſe. They ſuffer no gold to be exported, but make it up in ingots, which paſs in trade. Their ſilver is coined into pieces about 2 s. value. They export great quantities of their lacque to China and Japan, to varniſh cabinets, &c.

ASIA, one of the four parts of the world, is divided from Europe by the Archipelago, the Black Sea, and the Palus Mœotis, and thence by a line from the river Tanais, or Don, almoſt to the river Oby in Muſcovy; from Africa it is ſeparated by the Red Sea; and from America, by the great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean. It is bounded on the weſt by the Black Sea and the Mediterranean; on the ſouth and eaſt by the Arabic, Perſian, Indian, and Chineſe Ocean; and on the north by the Frozen Ocean: but how far it reaches that way is not known. Aſia is, next to America, the largeſt quarter of the four. It extends itſelf quite from the equator to the polar circle, or perhaps to the pole itſelf: ſo that the climates are very various, as well as the peculiar productions of each. Of theſe we ſhall give a particular detail in ſpeaking of the ſeveral parts in their proper places, and obſerve only in general, that it comprehends all the temperate, the bigger half of the torrid, and great part of the frigid zone: yet if we except ſome parts of Arabia and Tartary, and ſome of the more northern tracts, the whole country is rich and fruitful, and ſome parts of it exceedingly ſo. Its length from eaſt to weſt may be computed at 4800 miles, and its breadth, as far as it is known, from north to ſouth 4300.

In the general conſideration of the trade of Aſia, we ſhall throw it under two grand diviſions. 1. That which is carried on chiefly under the dominion of the Turks, viz. in Aſia Minor, and its iſlands, Syria, Paleſtine, Diarbeck, Turcomania, Georgia, &c. as alſo in ſome parts of Arabia and Perſia; and which, with reſpect to Europe, is called the Turkey trade. 2. That which is included under the general term of the Eaſt-India, viz. the trade of the coaſts of Arabia and Perſia, the kingdoms of Mogul, China, Japan, the Indian iſlands, &c.

The ſoil of that part of Aſia which is under the dominion of the Turks, is naturally the moſt fertile, though the tyranny of its preſent poſſeſſors has rendered it almoſt a wilderneſs. The greater part of the fields are every-where over-run with weeds and brambles, whilſt the few that are cultivated, though in a moſt ſhameful and ſlovenly manner, do yet yield excellent corn and fruits, grapes, olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, dates, beſides coffee, rhubarb, balſam, opium, galls, and other valuable drugs and gums; and are a ſufficient proof of the richneſs of thoſe countries, if they were in the hands of ſuch as would improve, rather than injure and deſtroy them.

The Turks have no leſs averſion to the arts of commerce, than to thoſe of agriculture, being the greateſt diſcouragers of trade, by their indolence and haughtineſs, deſpiſing manufactures, and utterly neglecting the conveniencies which their happy ſituation might afford them: ſo that the whole trade of this part of the world is carried on by merchants from other nations, who are continually pouring in to ſettle among them. From the eaſtern parts are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; from the weſtern are chiefly Venetians, Engliſh, French, and Dutch, with Jews alſo, moſtly Italian.

The principal articles of commerce, in this part of Aſia, are, raw ſilk, cotton, wool, and yarn, grogram, goats hair, carpets, tapeſtries, calicuts, cordavans, and ſeveral other rich manufactures of ſilk, &c. beſides a vaſt variety of drugs, gums, dye ſtuffs, earths, fruits, &c.

All theſe are tranſported to Europe, and conſtitute a great part of what is called the Levant trade; which, as obſerved above, is carried on by foreign merchants ſettled at the ports on the coaſts of Syria and Aſia Minor. Hence they have an inland communication by means of caravans over the whole Aſiatic Turkey, into Arabia, Perſia, and even into the Indies; whence they convey many of the rich commodities of thoſe countries to England, Holland, France, and Italy.

The merchants who carry on this inland traffic, are chiefly Armenians, a very ſkilful and honeſt people, and by whom the products of all theſe parts are ſpread likewiſe, over the Black Sea and the Caſpian, into the European Turkey and Muſcovy. So that this part of Aſia is the center of a prodigious commerce, though greatly declined, ſince the European ſhips have diſcovered the way to the Indies by the Cape of Good Hope: for, before that time, all the commodities of the Indies were tranſmitted to Europe through this channel.

The trade of the other grand diviſion of Aſia may be comprehended under the general term of the Eaſt-Indies, in which are included all the countries and dominions, from the gulph

 of

of Mocha quite to China, and all the iſlands from Madagaſcar to the Philippines: this general term is more reconcileable to us, at leaſt in England, as the charter of the Eaſt-India company takes in the whole under the ſame denomination; and the trade from Europe to all or any of thoſe countries, as well as from thoſe countries to Europe, is called the Eaſt-India trade.

In giving a circumſtantial account of the trade of the Indies, when we confine ourſelves to the peculiar products and growth of the ſeveral countries, as well in regard to their particular branches of home trade with one another, as to their exportations to other parts of the world; thoſe ſeveral countries will be ſpoken of ſeparately. At preſent, we ſhall only give a general and promiſcuous view of the productions of this part of Aſia, and juſt point out the great channels of its commerce.

Nature has been ſurpriſingly bountiful, in ſtoring this quarter of the world, not only with all thoſe ineſtimable commodities which ſhe has imparted in common to others, but has added abundance beſides, which have been either ſparingly communicated, or utterly denied to the reſt of the world.

Among the vaſt variety of choice productions, are diamonds, pearl, coral, gold, ſilver, copper, iron, ſulphur, red earth, ſalt-petre, allum, quick-ſilver, potter's earth (of which is made the porcelain) raw ſilk, cotton, tea, ſago, coffee, nutmegs, mace, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, indigo, china-root, aquila-wood, rhubarb, muſk, vermilion, ſticklack, borax, lapis lazuli, dragon's-blood, cubebs, frankincenſe, ſaffron, myrrh, manna, ambergreaſe, and many other of the valuable drugs and gums. And, as the inhabitants of this part of the world are furniſhed with the richeſt materials for manufactures, ſo have they infinitely ſurpaſſed all others in the excellency of their performances, which their inimitable wrought ſilks, rich callicoes, muſlins, and other ſtuffs, their admirable works in gold and ſilver, china, and lacquered ware, do ſufficiently teſtify.

Theſe ſeveral commodities, produced in the various parts of the Indies, afford an infinite fund, both for their home and their foreign commerce.

The coaſting trade carried on partly by the nations of India one among another, and partly by the Europeans, Engliſh, Dutch, French, Portugueze, and Spaniards, with them ſeparately and apart, is in itſelf very great, and conſiſts of the ſeveral branches following.

The Turks carry on trade from Aden into the gulph to Mocha, and all along the Red Sea to Suez, from whence their coffee and other goods are carried to Egypt, to Alexandria, and thence by ſea, or land, or both, to Conſtantinople, Aleppo, Smyrna, and other places.

The trade of the Arabians and Perſians up the gulph of Ormus, now called the gulph of Perſia, to Baſſora, by which they ſupply the great caravans with Perſian and Indian goods of all ſorts, to be carried by the Euphrates and Tigris to Bagdat, and thence to Trepizond on the Black Sea, one way, and over the deſarts upon camels to Aleppo, another way.

The coaſting trade of the European merchants and Indians promiſcuouſly, upon the weſt ſide of the coaſt of India, viz. that of Guzuratte, India, and Malabar, and the like coaſting trade of the ſame European nations, upon the other ſide of India, viz. the coaſt of Coromandel, Golconda, and Bengal. The trade into, and a great way up, the river Ganges, in which there are ſeveral factories and ſettlements of the European nations, beſides the trade of the natives, who bring goods down the ſtream of that mighty river from very remote countries.

The next trade, on this ſide of India, is that of Achin, on the north point of the iſland of Sumatra, and from thence two ways ſouth. (1.) Along the weſt ſhore of that great iſland to Bencouli, and to the ſtraits of Sunda, which is the ſouth point of the ſame iſland; and thence on the weſt ſhore of the iſland of Java, whither the European ſhips generally go for proviſion, eſpecially black cattle, and where there is a very great plenty; and from thence ſtill ſouth to the ſtraits of Bailly, and the iſlands of Timor and the Moluccas. (2.) In the inſide, or eaſt ſhore of the iſland of Sumatra, and the coaſt of Malacca, and to the port and city of Malacca, now in the hands of the Dutch, and from thence, through the ſtraits of Sincapore, to the north ſide of the iſland of Borneo.

Here the courſe of trade divides itſelf two ways, and in direct contrary channels, in both very conſiderable; and a third way alſo, though not of ſo great extent as the two other.

The firſt is north, to the eaſtern coaſt of Aſia, the utmoſt extent of the known world on that ſide, viz. to the great gulph of Siam: the coaſt of Camboyda: to Cochin China and Tonqueen: and laſtly, to the empire of China, and even to Japan. Upon all theſe long extended ſhores, there is a very great coaſting trade carried on by the Chineſe and Malayans.

The ſecond courſe of trade is ſouth from Borneo to the Dutch ſettlement of Batavia, on the iſland of Java, as alſo to the whole coaſt of that great iſland; where the Javans, and other nations, drive a conſiderable trade from port to port, and from iſland to iſland, particularly to the iſland of Borneo. This trade takes yet another courſe from Borneo, and that is

farther eaſt, namely, to the innumerable iſlands of thoſe ſeas, called the Indian Archipelague; and this reaches not only to Ternate, Tydore, Celebes, Gillolo, and all the iſlands where the Dutch are not too powerful, and will admit them, but even to the Philippines.

Theſe are in general the coaſts and countries which the Europeans are more particularly acquainted with, the knowlege of which is chiefly owing to their commerce among the people of the ſeveral nations inhabiting thoſe countries. But there are yet other inland branches of commerce among them, and thoſe very conſiderable, which we cannot come at a particular deſcription of. We are aſſured, that the Chineſe in particular have an immenſe inland traffic, by its many canals and navigable rivers, and eſpecially by that inimitable canal near 1000 miles in length, which traverſes the whole Chineſe empire from Canton to Peking.

Having thus given a ſummary account of their home trade, as it is carried on coaſt-wiſe, we are to conſider the trade between the Eaſt-Indies and the reſt of the world, taken in its largeſt extent.

The trade of the Red Sea to Suez, and from the coaſt of India and Malabar, into the gulph of Perſia and up to Baſſora, has been already mentioned. It is neceſſary to obſerve, that the former was anciently the only way of commerce, whereby the ſpices and rich goods of India were conveyed to Alexandria, and thence into the ſeveral parts of Europe; but it has been entirely cut off, ſince the Portugueze made the paſſage by long-ſea. By the latter, a large quantity of the fine callicoes, rich wrought ſilks, ſpices, drugs, diamonds, and particularly pearl, are ſtill conveyed to Aleppo, and thence to England, France, Holland, &c. as well as to Trepizond on the Black Sea, and ſo to Conſtantinople.

Another branch of the northern commerce from India, is by land from the upper part of the Mogul empire to Armenia and Georgia, and thence over the Caſpian Sea. This courſe of trade is very improveable; and the late Czar of Muſcovy intended to eſtabliſh a communication this way, between his own dominions and thoſe of the Great Mogul. And, at preſent, the goods of the provinces of Upper India are to be found in many of the provinces that border upon the Caſpian.

There is alſo a third intercourſe of trade by land between India and Europe, viz. the paſſage by land from China to Muſcovy. This has not only been performed, but is ſtill practiſed, and the tea, wrought ſilks, and other goods that are not too bulky, are carried yearly this way from China to Europe, in pretty great quantities.

But the grand channel of commerce between Europe and the Indies, is by ſea from England, Holland, France, and Denmark, round the Cape of Good Hope, and ſo to all the ſeveral parts of India and China. This is managed by excluſive companies, and free merchants tolerated by thoſe companies, to carry on the coaſting trade, no nation admitting private adventurers to be otherwiſe concerned therein. The ſeveral ſettlements theſe have in the Indies, together with their powers and privileges, will come under the heads of the reſpective companies, viz. the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, the Dutch, the French, &c.

Aſia is certainly extremely rich and fertile in its natural productions, but it is rendered ſtill infinitely richer by the prodigious numbers, and inimitable diligence and application of its inhabitants, who are ſo happily circumſtanced as to ſtand in need of nothing from the other parts of the world; and their induſtry and unwearied labour is ſo great, that they are able to fill the whole world with their manufactures and produce.

By this means, the ſtate of trade between Europe and Aſia ſtands thus, viz.

Europe calls for a vaſt variety of goods from Aſia.

Aſia calls for more money than any thing elſe from Europe.

Yet there ſeems to be a kind of peculiarity in this trade, to the infinite advantage of the Indian and Chineſe commerce, and the great diſadvantage of moſt, if not all, the nations in Europe. For the trade of Aſia drains the whole weſtern world of their ready money, in return for their mere products and manufactures.

Whether this is ſuch diſadvantage to Europe, as ſome are inclined to think, will be conſidered under the article of the EAST-INDIA TRADE. See AMERICA.

In the interim, we would only obſerve, that ſome great politicians have looked upon gold and ſilver in no other light than as commodities; and ought to be as freely exported and imported, except in our own coin, as any other whatſoever. And, if Europe at preſent contained all the gold and ſilver that Africa and America have ever produced, it is to be queſtioned, whether ſhe might be ſaid to be e'er the richer, by reaſon that gold and ſilver would then be, as was ſaid of Solomon's time, as plenty as the ſtones in the ſtreets, and therefore of little or no value. So that a commerce which takes off from the Europeans ſome proportion of its ſilver, may be as neceſſary as any other, to keep up its value equally with that of gold, the latter always finding its value, according to the quantity of the former.

For a particular and diſtinct view of the trade of Aſia, in all its capital branches, we ſhall repreſent it, under thoſe particular and diſtinct heads, which will be enumerated in our in-

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dex of reference for that purpoſe, under the ENGLISH, FRENCH, and DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANIES, &c. &c.

ASIA MINOR ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands, in the flouriſhing times of Greece and Rome, were very conſiderable for their fertility, opulence, and the number of inhabitants, trade, product, and many other advantages, moſt of which they have in a great meaſure loſt, ſince they have unhappily fallen into the hands of the Turks. The moſt conſiderable on the weſtern coaſts are, 1. Tenedos. 2. Leſbos. 3. Chios. 4. Samos. 5. Nicaria. 6. Patmos. 7. Claros. 8. Leria. 9. Coos. 10. Aſtypata. 11. Carpathus; beſides a great number of ſmall ones. On the ſouth coaſt, 1. Rhodes. 2. Cyprus, and ſome ſmall ones about them.

1. TENEDOS, is famed for the moſt excellent Muſcadine wines it produces.

2. LESBOS, ſince called MYTILENE, from its capital town, and now METELIN, and METELINO, is in many parts of it fruitful, producing plenty of corn, wine, fruit, &c. The ſea likewiſe affords plenty of fiſh, eſpecially large quantities of oyſters, which are conveyed hence to Smyrna. The fruits here, eſpecially the figs, are the beſt in the Archipelago, and the wines very rich; the mountains are covered with trees, eſpecially pines; and many of them have quarries of jaſper, and ſeveral ſorts of marble.

The chief trade of the iſland conſiſts in grain, wine, fruits, butter, cheeſe, black-pitch, which is gathered from the pines above-named, whilſt the boards that are ſawed from them, are made uſe of to build ſmall veſſels. The tribute that is paid to the Grand Seignior, is computed at above 18,000 piaſters.

Mytilene, the capital, now Caſtro, hath a very good port; as likewiſe Petra. Other harbours for ſhips are Caloni, Siguri, Jero; beſides ſeveral other ports and creeks, which are moſtly haunted by pirates. The city of Mytilene made formerly a much more conſiderable figure, with reſpect to its trade and opulence; but it hath been reduced ſo low, ſince it hath been under the Turkiſh yoke, that its inhabitants are moſtly poor. However, here is a good magazine for ſtores for the gallies, which are continually employed in cruiſing againſt the pirates that infeſt thoſe ſeas.

3. CHIOS, CHIUS, now SCIO, and by the Turks SAKISACUDI, is moſtly mountainous, ſtony, and in great want of water, having but few ſprings and little rain, which is no ſmall check to its fertility; however, the ground is naturally ſo rich and good, that it produces plenty of corn, fine wine, oil, honey, fruits of all ſorts, variety of gums, eſpecially that of maſtich, out of the lentiſk-tree in great abundance, and yields a vaſt profit to the inhabitants. The people are generally very rich and numerous, and carry on the ſilken and ſome other manufactures; and the Greeks, who ſwarm here, have much larger privileges than in any of the Grand Seignior's dominions. The iſland is ſo very conveniently ſituated for commerce, that its ſea-port, though none of the beſt, is the rendezvous of all the ſhips that ſail either to Conſtantinople, or go from thence to Syria, Egypt, &c.

Here is generally kept a ſquadron of Turkiſh gallies, to ſcour the coaſts from pirates; notwithſtanding which, and the vaſt reſort of other ſhips, the mole is ſuffered to run to decay.

The time for gathering the gum maſtich is in Auguſt, and September. The chief cuſtom-houſe officer is received at that ſeaſon, at Scio, the capital, with muſic and feaſting, and receives all that is gathered for the uſe of the Grand Seignior, part of which he ſends to Conſtantinople, and the reſt he ſells to the merchants; they call it ſackes, and ſome chew it, and others mix it with their bread; but it is very dangerous for any Chriſtians here to keep it by them. This iſland is ſaid to pay to the Grand Seignior double what any other in the Archipelago doth. All the Turks in this iſland are computed to amount to about 10,000, the Latins to 2000, but the Greeks are thought to come up to near 100,000. Beſides Scio, the capital places, are

Callimachia, their principal maſtich town, which is large and populous.

Cardamita, famed for the richneſs of its territory, which produces 170 tons of good wine, one year with another.

Cambia, noted for its pines, with which the Turks build their gallies.

The neighbourhood of Voliſto produces 5000 weight of ſilk every year, with which the people pay their tribute.

Armolia, one of the maſtich villages.

Meſta, celebrated for its Arviſian fields, which produce the vine that yields nectar.

4. SAMOS, is ſo naturally rich and fertile, that nothing can be planted in it but will grow, and yield a plentiful crop. It was, during the time that Greece was in its glory, ſo well peopled and cultivated, that it vied with all its neighbouring iſlands in every thing but bigneſs. Vines, in particular, ſeem generally more natural to its ſoil, than to the reſt; and it is famed eſpecially for its excellent muſcadine, which is no way inferior to that of Tenedos. This, together with a fine ſort of onions and garlic, and alſo an ordinary kind of earthen ware (which however uſed formerly to be finer and more famed) great quantities of raw ſilk of a good price, oil, fruits, honey, ſaffron, ſome minerals, drugs, a fine red bole, emery, oker, and a black inſipid earth, of great uſe for dyeing black, are the chief products of the iſland, and what they commonly vent abroad to Scio, Smyrna, &c. But the inhabitants are ſo much oppreſſed by the Turks, and ſo often infeſted by pirates, that they are very thin and poor, and the greater part of that fine land lies uncultivated. The chief misfortune both of the iſland, and its capital Samo, is, that they have two ſtraights, one on the weſt, the other on the eaſt, perpetually haunted by corſairs, which, by cruiſing on the ſhips that paſs on either way between Conſtantinople and Syria, Egypt, &c. have quite obſtructed its antient commerce, whilſt the Turks ſuffer thoſe free-booters to rove about, without taking ſuch proper means to ſuppreſs them, as the Venetans did.

Vati, once a conſiderable and ſpacious ſea-port, is dwindled into a poor town, though it has ſtill the moſt commodious harbour in the iſland, and is the reſidence of the French vice-conſul.

5. ICARIA, now NICARIA, for want of harbours for ſhipping, is altogether incapable of commerce. Here are the fineſt winter grapes that can be found in the Levant. The inhabitants live by ſelling of planks of pine and oak, for building and fuel. They are ſo poor, that neither pirates think them worth plundering, nor can the Turks make them pay any conſiderable tribute.

6. PATMOS, now PATMOSA, or PATINO, hath many and convenient ports, from which it has formerly drawn great advantages, by the whole Venetian fleets lying there to winter. But it has fared much worſe, ſince it has fallen under the Turkiſh yoke, and is now as low and poor as any of the reſt. The port of de la Scala is reckoned the beſt in the Archipelago. But that, with the reſt, has been ſo infeſted with corſairs, that the inhabitants have been forced to retire from it to the monaſtery of St John, two miles up a hill, which is a kind of a citadel. There are neither Turks nor Latins in this iſland, but the adminiſtration of civil affairs is entruſted to one or two Greek officers, whoſe chief buſineſs is to ſee after the capitation, which amounts to 8000 crowns, and the land-tax at 2000 more per ann.

7. CLAROS, has nothing worth notice.

8. LERIA, is well inhabited both by Turks and Greeks, and furniſhes the neighbouring country with aloes.

9. COOS, or COS, by the Italians LANGO, or ISOLA LONGA, and by the Turks and Greeks STANCHIO, hath a pleaſant and fruitful ſoil, and riſes on the eaſt part with grateful mountains, which yield a noble proſpect, as well as good paſture, rich wines, fruit, and other trees, particularly the turpentine and cypreſs, beſides a great variety of medicinal, as well as other uſeful plants. From theſe mountains flow likewiſe a number of rivers and ſprings, which water the flat grounds, and make them fertile in corn, wine, olives, and every neceſſary of life. The Turks are here very careful of their cypreſs-trees, and will not ſuffer them to be cut down.

Cos, or Stanchio, the chief town of this iſland, hath a good convenient haven, ſecured by a mole, and well guarded againſt pirates by gallies, as well as by a good ſtout caſtle, which commands both it and the port, and all kept in good repair by the Turks. The ſhips that go to and from Conſtantinople, to Syria, Egypt, &c. do generally touch here.

10. ASTYPATA, now STAMPALIA, not worth notice.

11. CARPATHUS, now SCARPANTO, yields nothing conſiderable but marble. It is poorly inhabited, being mountainous and barren, and the iſland is ſo infeſted with pirates, that few care to live in it. Scarpanto has a pretty good harbour; and the town was formerly well fortified, when under the knights of Rhodes and the Venetians, who both uſed it as a curb on the trade between Conſtantinople and Egypt, which made the Turks eager to get it into their hands.

On the ſouth coaſts of Aſia Minor, are, 1. Rhodes, 2. Cyprus.

1. RHODES, formerly an iſland of great fame, made an early figure at ſea in the times of the Romans, and their power and government was ſo great, that they commanded the neighbouring ſeas, and their laws uſed to decide maritime cauſes and differences, till ſucceeded by thoſe of Oleron: it is now well inhabited, and makes as conſiderable a figure as the Turkiſh tyranny permits any place to do, that is fallen under its yoke. It was no leſs famed for the richneſs and fertility of its ſoil, producing the beſt wines, and all ſorts of delicious fruits. The city of Rhodes, though much decayed from its ancient luſtre, yet continues ſtill to be a very handſome city, and a convenient ſea-port. It hath two harbours, the ſmaller whereof is for the gallies, of which there is always a ſquadron kept here, to cruize on the ſhips of Malta.

Moſt of the inhabitants in this iſland are Greeks, but miſerably oppreſſed and poor. The Jews who live here, came originally from Spain, and fare ſomewhat better, being allowed to dwell in the city, and even in the caſtle, whilſt the Chriſtians are only permitted to live in the ſuburbs.

The country in general, eſpecially that about the city of Rhodes, abounds with wheat, honey, wax, olives, citrons, figs, oranges, &c. and the mountains with iron, copper, and

other

other minerals. The chief manufactures are ſoap, camblets, and tapeſtry, for which the town is a common mart, as well as for all other merchandizes of the Archipelago; ſuch as corn, wine, fruits, raiſins, wax, cordevants, cotton, with yarn and ſtuffs of it, damaſk and other ſilk ſtuffs, vermilion, &c. See OLERON and RHODIAN LAWS.

The iſland is governed by a baſha, who hath the revenue of it for his maintenance, and that of the gallies.

2. CYPRUS, was formerly a rich, fruitful, and flouriſhing iſland. Its ſoil produced plenty and variety of corn and other grain, excellent wines, oil, ſugar, honey, ſaffron, cotton, wool, ſeveral metals and minerals, and abundance of other uſeful commodities; though its climate is none of the moſt temperate, being exceſſive hot and ſultry in ſummer, inſomuch that it ſometimes dries up all the ſprings. The country likewiſe is much infeſted with locuſts, which hover in the air like clouds during the hot ſeaſon, and ſometimes devour all their corn and fruit; but are often driven into the ſea by the northerly winds.

On theſe accounts, as well as the ſeverity of the Turkiſh government, the country is thinly peopled, and poorly cultivated in moſt parts; though, where it is near the cities, it not only produces every thing neceſſary and delightful, but ſeems to enjoy a perpetual ſpring. The chiefeſt manufactures are thoſe of cotton and wool, which are here the beſt in all the eaſt; they have likewiſe ſome ſilk, but nothing ſo good in proportion. They had formerly great quantities of ſugar, till one of their baſha's cauſed all the canes to be burnt up. The common people make a good livelihood in catching great quantities of a kind of bird, of the ſize of our larks, which they pickle with vinegar and ſalt, eſpecially in the months of September and October; and theſe they ſend to Venice, where they fetch a good price. They ſend ſome thouſand barrels of them in a year thither, and are paid ready money for them.

Famaguſta, a fair city and ſea-port here, was very rich and flouriſhing before the Turks took it, and a great check to their power both by ſea and land.

Nicoſia, now the metropolis of the iſland, when in the hands of the Venetians, was compared to Florence for beauty and opulence, and is ſtill a handſome town, though much reduced.

Larneza, Larneça, is a commodious ſea-port, and the concourſe to it is great from other parts of the iſland; inſomuch that the French and Venetians have a conſul reſiding in it. The inhabitants are three parts Chriſtians, Europeans, and Greeks, and the reſt Turks; and it hath a good many Engliſh, Dutch, and other merchants, that reſide in a neighbouring village. The chief commodities laden here are cotton and cotton-yarn, and courſe wool for quilts and mattraſſes.

Ceremes, is the place where people take ſhip to ſail to the continent, but a ſmall half ruinated city.

ASLANI, which is alſo, but ſomewhat improperly, called ASSELANI, is the Dutch dollar or piaſter, which is very current in all the ports of the Levant. The Turks, who call a lion aſlani, have given that name to this coin, becauſe there is the figure of a lion ſtruck on both ſides of it.

There are two ſorts of aſlani, that of Holland, and that which is ſtruck at Inſpruck, in the county of Tyrol. The Dutch dollar is not only of a leſſer degree of fineneſs than that of Inſpruck, but, if we may believe Sir John Chardin, ſo famous by his travels, and by the agreeable and accurate account he has given of them, the money or coin, which the Dutch carry to the Levant, is very much mixed with falſe pieces; the quarter piaſters, chiefly, are either entirely counterfeit, or have at moſt but one half of fine ſilver. The Arabs, who miſtake the lion for a dog, call them abukeſbi. The aſlani is worth from 115 to 120 aſpers, and ſometimes but 80 aſpers, or 24 ſjains. The leewendaelder, or lion piaſter of Holland, is ſometimes equal to the current piaſter, and is ſometime worth $33\frac{1}{2}$ per cent more, as it was towards the end of December 1729, when the agio of the piaſters of 8 reals was 65 per cent.

ASPE'E, a meaſure of corn in Lyonnois and Mâconois. It is alſo ſaid about Lyons of a certain quantity of wine, which is an aſs's load.

ASPER, a ſmall ſilver coin, ſtruck in the dominions of the Grand Seignior, throughout which it is current. It is worth ſomething more than 6 deniers Tournois of France. When it is good, they give 120 of them for a French crown of 60 ſols (worth about 32 d. Engliſh) but as there are a great many falſe aſpers, which the baſha's and the Jews cauſe to be ſtruck in the remote provinces, they are ſeldom received but at the rate of 4 deniers per aſper, ſo that 160 make a French crown. The parats, or meidins, are worth 3 aſpers.

An evaluation of the ſeveral coins that are current in the Grand Seignior's dominions, according to the aſper, reckoning the aſper at the rate of 6 deniers French.

120 aſpers are worth 60 ſols of France.

A ſequin of Venice and Turkey, 414 aſpers, or liv. 10. 10 s. French.

The piaſters of Peru and Mexico, of 506 grains French weight, go for 208 to 210 aſpers.

A ryal, or rix-dollar of the empire, 82 aſpers. In proportion to the ſequin, this ought to be about 130 aſpers.

The Dutch rix-dollar, 70 aſpers, ditto 200 aſpers.

ASPER is alſo a money of account, and the books are kept at Conſtantinople, and in all the ports of the Levant, in piaſters or Abouquelb, medins, and aſpers.

ASPHALTUM, or BITUMEN of JUDEA, otherwiſe Jew's Pitch. This bitumen, or pitch, is taken from the Aſphalite lake, or Dead Sea, in Judea.

That lake, ſo famous in the Holy Scriptures, and which is ſtill a dreadful monument of the juſt puniſhment of Sodom, Gomorrah, and the other cities that were deſtroyed by fire from heaven, does nouriſh no kind of fiſh, and, even by the ſtench of its exhalations, kills the birds that fly over it. But, on the ſurface of its waters, ſwims a kind of blackiſh greaſe, which the Arabs gather, and uſe to pitch their ſhips with, inſtead of tar and pitch, which are uſed in Europe.

This greaſe is the true aſphaltum, which the Jews employed formerly to embalm their dead bodies, and is ſtill pretty much uſed in France, and in other countries, either in medicine, where it enters into the compoſition of Venice treacle, or to make that fine black varniſh which ſo well imitates that of China.

The aſphaltum is of a ſhining black, heavy, and of a very ſtrong ſmell, ſo much like the black tar of Sweden, that nothing but the bad ſmell, and the hardneſs of the aſphaltum, can make any difference between them.

It is ſometimes adulterated by a mixture of pitch, and this is called artificial piſſaſphaltum; and it is alſo by the fetid ſmell, and the naſty black colour of this drug, that the cheat is diſcovered.

Aſphaltum pays duty of importation in France at the rate of 5 livres per 100 weight.

ASPHALTUM, is alſo a kind of ſtone, or mineral water, found in the valley of Lydim in Aſia, near ancient Babylon; a mine of which was found, ſince the beginning of the eighteenth century, in the county of Neufchatel in Switzerland.

This mineral aſphaltum has ſeveral properties.

1. Being prepared with other matters, it makes an excellent cement, which neither the air can corrupt, nor water penetrate.

2. With the oil of it, which is eaſy to extract, is made a ſort of pitch, proper to caulk ſhips and veſſels with, both for the ſea and rivers, and which preſerves them better from worms, and more effectually reſiſts the impreſſions of ſalt or freſh water than any other caulking commonly uſed. And with this it ſeems of late, the French caulk much of their ſhipping, to their great advantage.

3. Finally, its oil uſed alone, or mixed with ſome topical remedies, has ſeveral particular properties, which make it to be uſed with ſucceſs in ſeveral medicinal and chirurgical caſes, for the cure of ſeveral external diſtempers, eſpecially ulcers, and all cutaneous diſeaſes.

The aſphaltum of Switzerland differs from that of Judea, in that it is of a dark colour, like roaſted coffee, more mixed with earth, and leſs ſhining. By its ſmell and weight it reſembles very much the piſſaſphaltum of the ancients, which is a foſſile pitch. See Bibliothique Italique, tom. i. p. 120.

It is very probable that the bitumen, with which Herodotus, and all the ancients after him, thought they had made the cement of the ſtones of the celebrated walls of ancient Babylon, which were reckoned among the ſeven wonders of the world, was nothing but the aſphaltum of Lydim, which was ſimply called bitumen, on account of the bituminous and oleaginous quality of the cement which they made with it.

This Aſiatic, or Babylonian aſphaltum, is pretty ſcarce in Europe, eſpecially in France, where that which is imported pays the ſame duty as the aſphaltum of Syria, otherwiſe bitumen of Judea, mentioned in the foregoing article.

With regard to the aſphaltum lately diſcovered in Switzerland, if it really has all the properties expreſſed in the petition preſented to the king's council in France, by the Sieur de la Sablonniere, for obtaining a privilege to carry on an excluſive trade of that commodity throughout the whole kingdom, which properties have been mentioned above, it is very probable that they will no longer have any occaſion in France for foreign aſphaltum, to which that of Switzerland may be ſubſtituted, and even with conſiderable advantages.

In the decree of the council of ſtate, iſſued February 21, 1720, upon that requeſt of the Sieur de la Sablonniere, it is obſerved, that, 'his majeſty taking into conſideration the advantages 'that may accrue from that aſphaltic mine, ſeveral experi-'ments of which were made before him, gave permiſſion to 'the ſaid petitioner to import into the kingdom, during the 'term of 10 years, beginning the 1ſt of May following, up-'on certificates ſigned by him, ſuch quantities as he ſhall think 'proper of the mine of the aſphaltic ſtone, burnt or unburnt, 'prepared or unprepared, as alſo the oil extracted from that 'ſtone, without paying any duties at the cuſtom houſe of-'fices on the borders, or within the kingdom. His majeſty 'likewiſe gives him leave to cauſe the ſaid ſtones, cement, 'pitch and oil of aſphaltum, to be ſold by ſuch perſons as 'he ſhall think fit, who ſhall not be moleſted by any mer-'chants, or other perſons, on account of ſuch a ſale.'

The place in the county of Neufchatel, from whence this bitumen is taken, is called Val-Travers, and is 4 leagues diſtant from the city of Neufchatel. It is a mountain, which is full of that mineral. Monſieur de la Sablonniere, who has ſtill the excluſive privilege to import it into France without paying any duty, gets large quantities of it every year from the mine.

They make a great uſe of aſphaltum throughout the whole ſovereignty of Neufchatel and Valengia. They make particularly a perfume of it, by throwing ſome of this mineral upon live coals. This perfume is excellent for the cure of rheumatic pains, and for purifying ſtalls of ſtables, from bad air, occaſioned by the diſtempers of cattle. Several trials have been made of this, which ſaved the lives of many cattle during the contagious diſtemper that had begun to rage in that country.

In order to reduce the ſtone aſphaltum into powder, it muſt be calcined. The ſtone, being broke into ſmall bits, muſt be put into a pan of iron, or ſome other metal, and, being placed over the fire, it muſt be ſtirred with a ſpatula, till the whole be reduced into a kind of earth, which it will be eaſy to grind in a mortar, when ſtill hot.

They make an ointment of it, which is excellent for the cure of all the diſeaſes of the ſkin, chilblains, &c. as alſo for all ſorts of wounds, burnings, ſcaldings, ſtrains, bruiſes, impoſthumes, and rheumatic pains. This aſphaltum, and all that is extracted from it, is ſold by Mr James Faverger, a free citizen, at Neufchatel, who gives with it printed directions, in which is explained how it is to be uſed, the method of making a cement of it, &c.

Remarks.

Theſe encouragements, given in France to whatever has the aſpect of promoting any kind of commerce, will naturally account for the extraordinary riſe and proſperity of the trade of that great and flouriſhing kingdom. And throughout this work it will appear, from facts inconteſtable, that the meaſures which they have taken, and ſtill continue to take, upon the plan of that able ſtateſman Colbert, muſt inevitably advance the trade and navigation of that nation to the height they aim at.

Their policy, in regard to the promotion of trade, when it comes to be fully diſplayed, will be found worthy the imitation of all other ſtates, which are well circumſtanced for general traffic.

It is certainly a great truth that no perſon, foreigner or native, who has any abilities truly uſeful for the advancement of their trade, goes unencouraged, or unrewarded for his ingenuity and induſtry: this naturally draws numbers from other nations in Europe, who are able to do that kingdom great and important ſervices; and this will appear to have been one great and principal ſource of their power and grandeur.

I know not from what cauſe it happens, but true certainly it is, that general complaints are made in this nation that there is not due encouragement given to men of abilities to ſerve their country, by the advancing of arts and commerce. On this account, it is to be feared, that numbers of our moſt ingenious artiſts and manufacturers, and thoſe who are happily turned for new important inventions and diſcoveries for the intereſt of trade, daily withdraw from this nation into France, and elſewhere, where they are careſſed and encouraged ſuitably to their merit.

If this is really matter of fact, it is certainly very bad policy in Great-Britain. People, indeed, who meet with diſappointments, are apt to complain, however juſtly they may deſerve them: Rumor, res, ſine teſte, ſine judice, maligna, fallax.

There are, doubtleſs, many idle, roguiſh, and enthuſiaſtical projectors, who have no other foundation for their pretenſions than whim and knavery. But, although ignorance and roguery do too often ſhew themſelves under the maſk of wiſdom and integrity, yet, where the latter are real, the former having happened ſhould by no means prevent due regard and encouragement from being given to true merit. When this proves the caſe, the really honeſt and modeſt inventor of new arts and diſcoveries for the benefit of trade is diſcouraged, and he either declines his purſuits, or withdraws with them to other countries.

The conſtant ſupport of trade depends on a conſtant ſucceſſion of new arts, on the improvement of the old manufactures, and the diſcovery of new (as I have fully obſerved under the article of artificers); as well as of whatever elſe has a tendency to leſſen the price of labour. Yet ſo weak or wicked are many, that whoever attempts any thing of this kind, is immediately branded with the name of a projector; and, inſtead of encouraging him, he is by calumny and maltreatment forced out of the nation; his native country loſes the benefit of his induſtry and ingenuity, and rival ſtates enjoy the advantage of them.

It was a ſaying of the great ſtateſman Colbert, that his friends could diſpleaſe him in nothing more than by concealing from him one perſon of true merit, who was able to promote the trade of his country; by reaſon, in that caſe, he was deprived of the opportunity of rewarding him ſuitably to his deſerts.

'There is a juſt occaſion of lamenting, ſays the learned biſhop Spratt, the ill treatment which has been moſt commonly given to inventors. Nor do they only meet with rough uſage from thoſe that envy their honour; but even from the artificers themſelves, for whoſe ſakes they labour: while thoſe that add ſome ſmall matters to things begun, are uſually inriched thereby; the diſcoverers themſelves have ſeldom found any other entertainment than contempt and impoveriſhment. The effects of their induſtry are wont to be decried, while they live: the fruits of their ſtudies are frequently alienated from their children; the little tradeſmen conſpire againſt them, and endeavour to ſtop the ſprings from whence they themſelves receive nouriſhment. The common titles with which they are wont to be defamed are thoſe of cheats and projectors.

'I cannot deny but many ſuch do mingle themſelves in the noble throng of great inquirers: as of old there were ſome that imitated philoſophers only in beard and auſterity: ſo I grant at this time there may falſe experimenters and inventors ariſe, who will ſtrive to make themſelves amends by their loud babbling and boaſting, &c.—But, though the folly of ſuch pretenders cannot be avoided, we muſt not therefore reject the ſober and judicious obſervers. It is better ſometimes to endure vanities, than, out of too much niceneſs, to loſe any real invention. We ought to do with philoſophical works as miniſters of ſtate with intelligence. It is the wiſeſt courſe to give encouragement to all, leſt, by ſhewing ourſelves too ſcrupulous of being impoſed on by falſhoods, we chance to be deprived of the knowledge of ſome important truths.'

It cannot be ſuppoſed that men in power ſhould ſacrifice their time in liſtening to every idle ſcheme and invention that they may hear of, or that may be thrown in their way; but, when any thing comes to their knowledge which is nationally uſeful, it is then their duty to order proper inquiry to be made into its merits, that nothing eſtimable might be tranſported to other countries, for want of due regard to our own.

I have often thought, therefore, that it would be to the eternal glory of any miniſter of ſtate in this kingdom, who ſhould be inſtrumental in making ſuitable parliamentary proviſion for all new uſeful inventions and diſcoveries, to be duly inquired into by thoſe who are judges of them.

And, with all humble ſubmiſſion, I think no body of gentlemen ſo proper to be appointed for that purpoſe as that moſt learned and illuſtrious corporation the Royal Society of London: for, as they are, or ought to be, conſtituted of a number of the moſt learned experimental philoſophers in the nation, proper committees might be always choſen from among them, to examine into the merits of whatever ſhould be referred to them by the Lords Commiſſioners of Trade, or by any other authority appointed for that purpoſe.

But this examination ſhould be effectual, by giving whatever is offered, that has a reaſonable foundation for it, a fair and an equitable trial. And, as this would be attended with a conſtant expence, that honourable ſociety ſhould be allowed a parliamentary fund, to enable them to carry into execution a deſign ſo much for the intereſt of the commerce and navigation of theſe kingdoms.

Although this might be attended, for the firſt few years, with an expence to the public, yet the public might ſoon be exonerated therefrom, by a very natural expedient, which is no more than this:—That, ſince theſe new inventions and diſcoveries would be fairly and effectually tried by the ſociety, at the public expence, if they proved ſucceſsful, the propoſer, or the inventor, ſhould be obliged to reimburſe the ſociety double the ſum which they may have expended upon ſuch trial. Againſt this no one, it is apprehended, could reaſonably object; for as, if the deſign proved abortive, the ſociety would be at the expence; ſo, if it ſucceeded, the propoſer ought to be at it; and the reaſon why ſuch propoſer ſhould contribute double the ſum expended, is gradually to raiſe a fund for the making of ſuch trials as ſhould miſcarry; which would free the public from the expence, and fix it upon thoſe who were the private gainers by the inſtitution.

Moreover, it is little to be doubted but ſuch a deſign would meet with large donations from other quarters. As its foundation was the improvement of uſeful arts and inventions, for the emolument of trade and navigation, the opulent merchants and tradeſmen would not be wanting in their liberality on ſuch occaſions; and other perſons of diſtinction, who were zealous friends to trade, would not be backward to give teſtimony of their regard to a deſign which would prove an inexhauſtible fund of treaſure to Great-Britain.

In regard to charitable inſtitutions of every kind, there ſeems no want of the ſpirit of benevolence amongſt us: and, as this would be a charitable inſtitution not only for the benefit of men of ingenuity and induſtry, but ſo apparently beneficial to the community in general, it would the better enable us to ſupport thoſe numerous charities, which are ſo laudably ſet on foot.

And, perhaps, this would be the moſt effectual way not only

to keep our inventors at home, but our artificers and manufacturers of every kind; becauſe theſe new arts would always furniſh them with full employment, as well as our merchants and tradeſmen, in the vending and exporting what they invented.

ASPIC, a plant which grows in plenty in Languedoc in Provence, and eſpecially on the mountain of St Baume in France. It is a kind of lavender, pretty much like that which grows in our gardens, both with regard to its flowers, which are blue, and to the figure and green colour of its leaves. The botaniſts call it male lavender, lavendula mas, in Latin. They alſo give it other names, as ſpica nardi, pſeudo-nardus, &c.

The oil of aſpic, that painters, farriers, and other artificers uſe, and which is likewiſe of ſome uſe in medicine, being employed in ſeveral Galenical compoſitions, is extracted from the flowers and ſmall leaves of this plant. That oil is very inflammable, and, when once on fire, it is almoſt impoſſible to extinguiſh it.

The true oil of aſpic is white, and of an aromatic ſcent. It is the only diſſolvent of ſandarac, by which means it may be eaſily diſtinguiſhed from that which is counterfeited, and which is nothing but oil of turpentine, mixed with a little oil of petroleum.

Mr Savary is miſtaken in aſſerting that the oil of aſpic is the only diſſolvent of ſandarac; that gum is perfectly, and very eaſily, diſſolved in ſpirits of wine; and they even make a very pretty varniſh with 12 ounces of ſpirts of wine, 4 ounces of ſandarac, $\frac{1}{4}$ of an ounce of gum elemi, and the ſame quantity of camphire; the whole put into a bottle, and only expoſed to the ſun, or put over hot aſhes.

The author meant, perhaps, that nothing was more proper than the true oil of aſpic to diſſolve karabe, or yellow amber; and it is even after that manner that the varniſh of one Martin, who has a great reputation in Paris, is compoſed. We may, in ſome caſes, diſſolve yellow amber, or karabe, in ſpirits of wine; but, for that purpoſe it muſt be tartariſed, which is performed by rectifying that ſpirit with tartar, which takes all the phlegm that the ſpirit of wine may contain, provided it be done with a very ſlow fire, and according to the rules of art: there is even an excellent balm againſt rheumatiſms compoſed after that manner.

ASS, a domeſtic animal, which is ſlow, lazy, and dull, but patient, proper to work hard, and to carry or drag heavy weights. The largeſt and ſtrongeſt of thoſe animals are choſen for ſtallions, to leap mares, which are deſigned in ſtuds for the breeding mules: and ſome of thoſe mules are ſo highly valued, that they are ſold even dearer than the fineſt horſes.

ASSA, or ASA-FŒTIDA, a gum extracted from a plant called in Latin laſerpitium, whoſe leaves are like thoſe of ſmallage, and whoſe ſtalk reſembles that of the ferulaceous plant: it bears a broad ſeed.

This gum, which the French apothecaries for ſhortneſs ſake call only aſer, is ſeldom to be met with pure, and without adulteration.

Pliny, Theophraſtus, and the other ancient writers, unanimouſly aſſert, that it was in high eſteem in their time, and ſold for its weight in ſilver, and that the emperors themſelves reckoned it among the moſt precious things which they kept in their cloſets. But it does not appear that this deſcription, which Monſieur Furetiere has borrowed from Pliny, chap. iii. of the xixth book of his Natural Hiſtory, and which he has very much embelliſhed, belongs, or can be applied, to the aſſa-fœtida ſold at preſent by our druggiſts; or ſome of its virtues at leaſt muſt be now unknown.

The preſent aſſa-fœtida is a gum, which, during the greateſt heat of the ſummer, runs from a little ſhrub, whoſe leaves are like thoſe of rue; it comes from the Eaſt-Indies, Perſia, Media, Aſſyria, and Arabia. Some authors aſſert, that that which is brought from Perſia runs from a tree, the leaves of which reſemble thoſe of radiſhes.

This gum is of a whitiſh colour, inclining firſt to yellow, then to red, and finally to purple. Its ſmell is ſo ſtrong and ſo offenſive, that the Germans have given it the name of ſtercus diaboli, or the devil's dung: the French druggiſts give it the ſame name, and call it alſo Syriac juice, liquor of Syria, and juice of Media.

Moſt of the aſſa-fœtida they have in France is ſent thither from London. The Engliſh ſend it in large barrels with iron hoops, which diſtinguiſhes the aſſa-fœtida that comes from England from that of Marſeilles, which is in baſkets, made of palm-tree leaves.

This gum is either in lumps, or in drops; but there is little of the latter ſold; the merchants, being uſed to buy it in lumps, hardly know it again, when it is in drops.

It has already been obſerved that it is eaſy to adulterate it; and there have been people bold enough to ſell the gum that comes from the pine-tree, or common incenſe, inſtead of aſſa-fœtida.

The goodneſs of the aſſa-fœtida is known by its colour and ſmell: a tolerable ſcent and a clear colour are the ſigns of its good quality; a black colour and a great ſtench are proofs of the contrary. The ſtrong ſcent of this gum is much like that of garlic. The Engliſh and Dutch import it from Surat.

Aſſa-fœtida is of uſe in medicine, it being a ſovereign remedy for the cure of hyſteric fits and diſorders in women; but its bad or rather nauſeous ſmell, is the reaſon why it is not ſo often preſcribed as it otherwiſe would be.

ASSAY, ESSAY, or SAY, in metallurgical operations, is the proof, or trial, by ſmall quantities, of the goodneſs and value of metals, ores, and metalline ſubſtances; a matter no one ſhould be unacquainted with who deals in bullion, gold, and ſilver, or in foreign coins, or the ſmelting and refining of any of the metals from their native ores.

The ſmelting of metals from their native ores being the firſt operation that takes place in obtaining the quantity of metal therein contained, we ſhall firſt treat of the methods of making aſſays upon various ſorts of ores.

Of the manner of aſſaying gold ore.

In order to which it muſt be obſerved, that the method varies according to the nature and diſpoſition of the mineral matters along with which the metal happens to be mixed, whether it be ſtony, earthy, ſulphureous, arſenical, &c. for ſometimes gold is found in ſmall fragments, either ſquare or round, black or ſhining, among the ſands of ſome rivers; probably as being waſhed down by the torrents, or courſe of the river, from ſome mine. Sometimes it is found in large grains, or a mere powdery ſubſtance, amidſt a greaſy clay, or ſoapy earth; and, in thoſe caſes, it generally contains a volatile part, or a part that will not fuſe in the fire, but turn to an obſtinate, dry, powdery calx; or elſe it is found interſperſed among other metals, and their ores: whence little ſparks of it frequently adhere to irony flints, and little blood-ſtones: or, laſtly, it is found, ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs, intimately mixed along with other minerals in the mines; and the golden ores of ſulphur and yellow marcaſites, by ſome called yellow, and by others golden zink, &c. are found to afford gold by extraction in aqua regia, and this ſometimes to profit.

Gold is chiefly found in three different manners, or forms, (1). In pure glebes, or clods, conſiſting of gold alone; in which form it is ſometimes ſaid to be met with in Hungary: accordingly, in the emperor's collection are preſerved ſeveral lumps of pure gold, ſo found in the mines. (2.) It is found in a powdery form, and then called gold duſt, or ſand gold, in the ſands of ſome rivers, brooks, &c. particularly in Guinea.

(3.) It is alſo found, and that uſually, in whitiſh clods, dug out of mines 150, or 160 fathoms deep, intermixed with other foſſils, as antimony, vitriol, ſulphur, earths, ſtones and other metals.

It is rare that gold is found otherwiſe than under this laſt form: few places in the habitable globe afford it tolerably pure, except the coaſt of Guinea; though the greateſt part brought from thence contains ſome impure heterogeneous parts, the Negroes being apt clandeſtinely to mix filings of braſs, or copper therewith.

Laz. Ercker, aſſay-maſter to three emperors of Germany, under whoſe directions were all the mines of Germany, Hungary, Tranſilvania, and Bohemia, aſſures us, 'That it is rare 'any earth produces pure gold, but one metal or other ſtill 'grows with it; and, even where it appears fineſt of all, it 'has its ſhare of ſilver.' He adds, as an univerſal rule, 'That, where gold appears the pureſt, there is ſilver mixed 'along with it; and, where it is the hardeſt, there is both 'copper and ſilver.'

The mountains of Chili ſometimes afford pure gold. In the clefts, or drains, between the ridges, is found a fine, ruddy earth, beneath which is a lay of blue ſtony matter, ſtreaked here and there with yellow; and under this there are pure grains of gold, frequently of a conſiderable ſize.

To procure the gold, they direct the current of ſome rivulet hither, to carry off the incumbent earth, and lay the bed of gold bare. This done, they dig up the precious earth, and carry it to the lavadero's, where, by repeated lotions, the earthy lighter part is ſeparated, and the gold left alone.

There is alſo a place in Scotland, where, over a lead mine, near the ſurface of the ground, they often find large grains of native gold, free from ſpar.

'I have, ſays Mr Boyle*, ſtill a piece of native metal by me, 'which came from the ſame place, in weight above 40 grains, 'wherein gold is the predominant metal.'

* See Boyle's Abridg. vol. II. p. 322.

'They have worked in the gold mine at Cremnitz, ſays Dr 'Brown, now upwards of 900 years. The mine is ſeveral 'Engliſh miles in length, and about 160 fathoms deep.—Of 'the ore, ſome is white, ſome black, red, and yellow. It 'is not rich enough to admit of any proof, or aſſay, in a 'ſmall parcel, to find the proportion of metal it contains; 'but they pound a very large quantity of it, and waſh it in a 'little river running nigh the place. The whole river, being 'divided into ſeveral cuts, runs over the ore continually, and 'ſo waſhes the earthy parts from the metalline. The com-'mon yellow earth of the country all about, though not eſ-'teemed ore, affords ſome gold: and in one place I ſaw the 'ſide of a hill dug away, which had been caſt into the works,

'waſhed,

'washed, and wrought in the same manner as pounded ore, 'with considerable profit *.'

* Philosophical Transactions, no. 58.

It may be added, that gold is sometimes also obtained from copper ore, from tin ore, from common marcasites, from a red earth, from sand, from German talc †, and many other bodies, wherein it may not be suspected by persons who have no knowledge in matters of this nature.

† Boyle's Abridg. vol. i. p. 59, 157, 158; and vol. ii. p. 324, 325.

REMARKS.

My reason for dwelling a little upon the nature and aspect of the various sorts of gold ore, is with a view to put the reader on judging what kind of process is necessary to be made use of, in order to prove, or assay, the true value of those ores; for, if such a process be tried as is not adapted to throw off those heterogeneous mixtures, without loss of the pure metal, with which the ore may be clothed by nature, the true value thereof can never be justly ascertained. This, therefore, will be thought an essential consideration with those who would gladly obtain more than a superficial knowledge of matters of this kind.

The art of making assays with dispatch upon gold and silver ores, in small quantities, depends upon the scorification, or vitrification, of those heterogeneous fossile substances, which may be incorporated therewith.

Lead, and the glass of lead, and antimony and its glass, being great scorificators, or vitrifiers, they become the natural agents upon such occasion.

The method of assaying gold and silver ores, therefore, with stony and sandy mixtures, in small quantities, is commonly thus:

1. Take an ounce of gold or silver ore, and pulverize it finely; and having put 8 ounces of lead, cleared first of its silver, into an assay crucible, under a muffle, in the testing furnace, continue to use a gentle heat, till the lead has imbibed the powdered ore, and separated the more stony, earthy, or sandy matter, in the form of a glassy scoria, at the surface. (2.) Take out the lump of lead, impregnated with the gold, or silver, of the ore, and place it upon a test, well nealed for the purpose, and work with a proper degree of heat, till all the lead is either evaporated or vitrified, or imbibed by the bone-ash test; and what gold or silver the ore contains will remain upon the test in a bead, or grain, according to the yield of the ore; which being exactly weighed, and compared with the original weight of the ore, shews the proportion of gold or silver contained in the ore, and determines its richness.

If the metal produced be visible gold; and if what Ercker says be true, that there is no gold without some degree of silver therein; it may be necessary to go a step further, to make your assay accurate.

In order to separate the silver as effectually as may be, they melt, for the assay, three or four times its own weight of pure silver with the gold; then with a small hammer and anvil bring it into a little thin plate, and put it into such a quantity of purified aqua fortis as may serve to dissolve it. See the article AQUA FORTIS.

Upon this the menstruum takes up only the silver, but lets the gold sink to the bottom, in the form of a black powder; which being edulcorated, and gently ignited in a little vessel, or 'say-cup, made for this purpose, is afterwards weighed: and from the proportion hereof is learnt what quantity of pure gold, and consequently what quantity of silver, is contained in the quantity produced by the first operation.

The reason of adding three or four parts of silver is, that all the gold contained in the first production may be every-where mixed, diffused, and spread abroad in the little mass to be dissolved, lest it should otherwise, as it were, wrap up some particles of the silver, and so defend them from the action of the aqua fortis: whence the proof would be rendered fallacious, and the weight of the gold powder prove too large upon the ballance; for that gold added to its own, or a greater weight of silver, may keep a large part of it from being touched by aqua fortis, appears from daily experience.

Ercker, from considering that AQUA REGIA [see that article] does not dissolve silver, is of opinion that gold may be refined to the greatest perfection by being dissolved in this menstruum. What led him to this opinion was doubtless the common persuasion, that all the kinds of aqua fortis, however prepared, did still leave some silver along with the gold; as antimony, on the other hand, when used in the refining of gold, commonly steals away, as they suppose, a small quantity thereof. As something of moment seems to be concealed in this affair, it deserves to be carefully examined.

The fundamental questions of the inquiry are these, (1.) Does the aqua fortis in reality leave any silver yet mixed with the gold? (2.) Would it not prove too expensive thus to refine gold with aqua regia? (3.) In what sense can antimony be said to steal away gold?

The first question is resolved in the affirmative by Faschius *, in treating of the sediments of depart-waters; where he says, That if gold, by quartation, be mixed with silver, as before said, and again separated from it by aqua fortis, it will constantly be found to have increased it's weight; which increase he attributes to the silver adhering to the gold: but it still remains for experiment to decide whether this additional weight be truly owing to the silver, or whether it be an increase of real gold †.

* Probier-Buchlein, pag. 64. ed. 1678.

† Beecher maintains, that the earth of sulphur, which constitutes the tinging principle thereof, with regard to metals, lies concealed, and is to be found in nitre. For, though it be an old tradition that the red colour, which spirit of nitre manifests in its distillation, proceeds from the sulphur of the nitre; yet in reality, this savours of no more, on one side, than a bare verbal presumption; and, on the other, of a general supposition that all colours arise from sulphur: which taken absolutely is false, since we have no instance of any such actual separation of sulphur from nitre; though Beecher endeavours to exhibit this substance to the eye (*a*), where he treats of the soul of nitre.

This substance Beecher still further attempts to render profitable, and demonstrates its metallic increment: where he recommends the digestion of a solution of silver, made with spirit of nitre, from whence a small portion of the contained silver will daily be deposited, in the form of a black calx, or almost golden substance (*b*). But, as a particular prepared spirit of nitre is required for this purpose, and also a particular purification thereof, it is proper to consult the several places of the author, where these things are mentioned (*c*): and to them may likewise be added what Faschius, in his little treatise of Assaying, has under the head of the sediments of depart-waters.

(*a*) Physic. subterran. sect. 5. cap. 2. sect. 118, 119, &c. (*b*) See Miner. Arenar. pag. 877. (*c*) See Concord. Chym. p. 418, 723, 726, 736, 737, 739, 742.

With regard to the second question, 'tis to be observed, that such a method of refining gold by aqua regia is not practicable in the large works, by reason of the unnecessary expence which would attend it; nor is so rigorous a proof of gold, perhaps, at any time required, as not to admit of the least particle of silver. But, in the business of assaying, it cannot be admitted, for two reasons, viz. (1) Because so much of the gold is easily dissipated by the aqua regia, or so much of the substance of this menstruum remains fixed to the calx, even after ignition, as may cause errors in both cases. (2.) Because aqua regia, on account of the great sharpness and violence wherewith it grosly dissolves the gold, at the same time tears away more particles of the silver, than the aqua fortis leaves among the gold. A proper experiment or proof might however, after this manner, be made with care, in order to determine whether the above-mentioned increase of weight proceeds from the aqua fortis, or not.

The solution of the third question is principally to be derived from an examination of the fused antimony, upon its cooling; because it is easy for antimony, in its ebullition, to tear away a few grains of the substance of the gold, whilst detained in thin fusion, and lodge them in the form of bubbles. The ultimate refinement of gold is thought to be that procured by fusing it thin, along with thrice its own weight of antimony; wherein the antimony tears away and imbibes the substance of all the other metals, but leaves the gold untouched; which, therefore, as the heavier body, falls like a regulus to the bottom of the melting-cone.

In case you have a small or fine gold-sand to assay, or a very rich and delicate slud [see the articles GOLD and SILVER for their smelting in the large works] both the proof, by a small assay and the extraction in the large way, are sometimes affected by amalgamation*. Thus a certain parcel of it being weighed out, 'tis mixed with a determinate proportion of mercury, eight or ten times its quantity, and a quantity either of simple or salt water, poured warm to them in a stone mortar: let them be ground together for some time with a wooden pestle; then the sand is diluted by the addition of a little more water, that the mercurial particles may first subside, which being now concreted into one mass, the sand, in a little bason, is easily washed off: then the mercury being squeezed through leather, the particles of gold that were collected and imbibed by it remain behind, mixed with about one third part of the mercury, in the form of a soft mass, or amalgam; which when exposed in a little glazed dish to a gentle fire, the mercury is thus evaporated, and leaves the gold in powder, which may now be weighed, to shew in what proportion the sandy or sluddy ore contains it.

* Amalgamation, in chymistry, is the dissolution, or mixture, of any metal, especially gold, with common mercury, or quicksilver. All metals, except iron and copper, easily unite and incorporate with mercury, but gold with the greatest facility; silver the next; then lead and tin; copper with some difficulty, and iron scarce at all.

The like method of management will serve for the assaying of silver ores.

The method of separating gold and silver was unknown to the ancients, who therefore separated silver from gold by calcination,

tion, and ſo loſt all the ſilver that was mixed with the gold. And, indeed, the before-mentioned method, by adding of ſilver, which is called the method by quartation, is expenſive and laborious, ſo as not to be very beneficially practiſed in the large way of buſineſs; but for an aſſay it may do very well. Indeed, when the whole has been divided into ſuch a number of hands as to make the ſeveral parts come cheap, it may be practiſed to ſome advantage: as ſome operators being wholly employed in the making aqua fortis; others in purifying it, or bringing it to proof; others in laminating the ſilver, and diſſolving it; others in ſeparating and reducing the calx of the gold; others in precipitating the ſilver with copper; and others again in ſeparating the copper from the aqua fortis; which, at preſent, turns to better account by being ſold for verd, as they call it, to the painters, or for more delicate purpoſes, perhaps; large quantities thereof being continually exported from England to France, for ſome uſes not generally known. Hence the whole operation has been found to anſwer the trouble, ſo long as they can recover about a drachm of gold from a pound of ſilver.

There are certain workmen who have, or pretend to have, the method of ſeparating gold from ſilver to much greater profit, without the uſe of aqua fortis or aqua regia, and barely by a dexterous application of the fire; at leaſt without any coſtly addition.—This method is kept as a ſecret; but may be no other, perhaps, than that of Homberg *; which conſiſts in fluxing the mixed maſs of gold and ſilver with equal parts of rough nitre and decrepitated ſalt, placed at the bottom of the melting-pot; the gold thus falling to the bottom, and leaving the ſilver ſuſpended, or detained, in the ſalts. Another way of effecting this may depend upon a dexterous uſe of ſulphur, which has the power of making ſilver melt away from a metalline mixture, almoſt as eaſy as lead.

* See the French Memoirs.

Although the refining of gold by melting, and teſting it with antimony, or the glaſs of antimony, as before obſerved, is generally by the metallurgical chymiſts thought a perfect way; yet M. Homberg † has ſhewn, that even this criterion, as alſo quartation, cupelling with lead, fluxing with borax, &c. may fail, in caſe the gold be mixed with emery, or poſſibly ſome other things.

† See the French Memoirs.

When the gold is eager, as the workmen call it, that is, brittle, they hold it a ſecret to melt it with mercury ſublimate. But, after all, no gold, perhaps, can be proved to be perfectly pure, till it has gone through all the trials hitherto known, or even ſome of a more curious nature, particularly melting with crude antimony and afterwards cupelling the regulus with lead; and, at laſt, fuſing it with borax: which proceſs is recommended to thoſe who require gold in abſolute purity for any ſtandard, or curious operations.

The methods of obtaining ſilver in purity are various, and differ according to the metal wherewith the ſilver is mixed, or allayed. If copper be the allay, the beſt and cheapeſt way to purify the ſilver is, to calcine it with half its weight of common ſulphur; then melt the whole together, and throw into the pot, at ſeveral times, a due quantity of clean iron filings, which will immediately make the ſulphur quit the ſilver, and form a ſcoria a-top, leaving the ſilver free from copper, iron, or ſulphur, at the bottom.

The method of aſſaying the ores of the inferior metals, as lead, tin, copper, and iron.

Accurate aſſays upon theſe ores require proper furnaces, the due application of fire, and ſuitable fluxes, adapted to the reſpective ores; and, indeed, ores of the ſame kind frequently require different methods of aſſaying, as well as ſmelting, in the large works.

The moſt general flux made uſe of upon thoſe occaſions is what the metallurgiſts call the black flux, which is thus prepared, viz.

Take one part of nitre, and two parts of common tartar, and reduce each to powder, and then mix them well together, and deflagrate the whole in a crucible, by lighting the mixture a-top, which will turn to a kind of alkaline coal: pulverize the ſame, and keep it in a cloſe glaſs, to prevent its diſſolving, as it would do in a moiſt air.

This flux is of general uſe; and, to have it ready at hand, ſhortens the buſineſs of making aſſays, and renders the operation more exact than when crude tartar and nitre are employed, becauſe the deflagration might thus carry off ſome part of the ore, and defraud the account. For that reaſon the mixture is here directed to be fired at the top; otherwiſe a conſiderable part might be loſt in the deflagration, which would prove much more tumultuous and violent, if the matter was thrown into a red-hot crucible.

In aſſaying of lead ore, take four ounces, and reduce it to powder, and mix the ſame with one ounce of the clean filings of pure iron, and half an ounce of the ſaid black flux: melt them altogether in a clean crucible, ſet in a proper wind-furnace; and you will find the lead clearly ſeparated, in a lump, at the bottom of the crucible; which will ſhew you what quantity of pure lead ſuch ore will yield, and conſequently will enable you to judge of the true value of ſuch ore.

Aſſays upon tin ore may be made in much the ſame manner, after due calcination, but without the iron filings, and only intermixing with the black flux a quantity of common charcoal-duſt, by way of precipitator of the pure metal.

Copper ore is aſſayed in this manner, viz. firſt calcine or roaſt it well, then take two ounces thereof, and reduce it to a pretty fine powder, and mix it in a mortar with twice its quantity of the black flux, intermixed with charcoal-duſt; after which, fuſe it briſkly in a wind-furnace, that it may flow thin for about half an hour or more, and the quantity of pure copper will be precipitated at the bottom of the crucible.

The cauſe of the effect depends upon a ſeparation of the terreſtrial, ſulphureous, or other heterogeneous parts of the ore, which are either here vitrified, or otherwiſe detained by the flux, at the ſame time that it does not alter the metal; whence, by its ſuperior gravity, it ſinks pure to the bottom of the crucible, as being ſet free, by thin fuſion, from its terreſtrial and ſulphureous parts.

The proceſs for the aſſaying of iron ore is far more difficult and tedious than for any of the other.

1. Roaſt, burn, or calcine the ore with charcoal in the open air, in order to diſſipate, by that means, as much of the ſulphureous and arſenic quality as you can, and to render the ſtony and terreſtrial matters, incorporated therewith, the more eaſily vitrifiable. When grown cold, pulverize it pretty fine, and roaſt it a ſecond time in contact with charcoal fuel, but in a much ſtronger fire than you did the firſt time, till it no longer emits any ſulphureous ſmell.

2. Compoſe a flux of three parts of the black flux, with one part of fuſible pulverized glaſs, or of the like ſterile unſulphureous ſcoria's; and add glaſs-gall and coal-duſt, of each one half-part. Add to this flux three times the quantity of your calcined ore, and mix the whole well together. Then chuſe a very good crucible, well luted within with winds or loam finely prepared for adheſion, to prevent the melting of the crucible; put into it your ore mixed with the flux; cover it over with common ſalt, and ſhut it cloſe with a tile that will ſtand the fire, and with good luting applied to the joints.

3. Elevate your pot upon a proper ſtand, four or five inches above the bars of your wind-furnace, to prevent a cold bottom. Surround the whole with ſtrong charcoal, not very large, and light them at top. Bring up your fire gradually, keeping it well ſupplied with fuel, that the veſſel may never be naked at top. Having thus continued your fire to its full ſtrength *, for about three quarters of an hour, or an hour, then take out your veſſel and ſtrike ſeveral times the pavement, upon which it is ſet, that the ſmall grains of iron which happen to be diſperſed, may be collected into a regulus, which you will find, after having broken the veſſel.

* Your wind-furnace muſt be well built, have an high chimney, and a large cave, to increaſe the blaſt of air to ſuch a degree, if needful, that the flame ſhall come out of the top of a chimney three ſtories high. The beſt form of a wind-furnace, for this purpoſe, is that reſembling the form of a jar, to cover with a tile.

4. When the regulus is weighed, try its degree of malleability; to which end make it red-hot, and, when ſo, ſtrike it with a hammer; if it bears the ſtrokes of the hammer, both when cold and when red-hot, and extends a little, you may pronounce your iron very good: but if, when either cold or hot, or in both ſtates, it proves brittle; you may judge it not to be quite pure, but ſtill in a ſemi-mineral condition. The worſe the characteriſtics of your iron are, the greater the furrows will be found in it, when broken, which is called by the workmen, coarſe-grained, or coarſe-fibred. By this proceſs, however, you may judge nearly of the quantity and quality of the iron, which ſuch ore will produce.

5. To reſtore malleability to iron, the bodies which render it brittle muſt be ſeparated, and the particles more juxtapoſited, that all heterogeneous matter concealed, in its interſtices, may be expelled. This may be conveniently done on a hearth, like that of a ſmith's forge, having a bed made with charcoal duſt; put into this bed the coals and the iron to be melted, heaped up in good quantity in ſtrata; then with the bellows blow the fire pretty ſtrongly, and the iron may be brought to a fuſion: and, if it does not melt ſoon of itſelf, and emit ſcoria, it is neceſſary to help on the melting with fuſible ſcoria's. During this operation, a great many fiery ſparkles will be thrown out from the iron, which diminiſh, as the iron approximates more and more to purity. Then let the burning coals be removed, and the ſcoria's be conveyed out of the fire, through a channel made for that purpoſe; but, when the iron grows ſolid, let it be taken red-hot out of the fire, and tried, by ſtriking it with a hammer, ſuitable to its bulk: if it proves crude ſtill, let the operation be repeated: and, when at laſt ſufficiently purified, let it be hammered, and extended ſeveral ways, by making it red-hot ſeveral times over: this done, it will no longer be brittle, even when cold.

Of aſſaying mercurial ores.

Mercury, or quickſilver, is either found under an actual running form in the mines, and thence called virgin mercury; or elſe 'tis forced out from mineral bodies, by means of diſtillation.

The greateſt part of theſe mineral bodies are of the nature of cinnabar, though mixed along with a deal of groſs earthy matter: others again are merely ſtony.

When the former, 'tis uſual to mix ſuch ſubſtances as will imbibe ſulphur, viz. quick-lime, filings or ſcales of iron, and ſometimes ſalt of tartar; and throw the mixture into an iron cucurbit, the mouth whereof is covered with an iron-plate, ſtruck full of little holes; and thus inverted into the mouth of another ſtrong one, made either of earth, or iron, that is above half full of common water, and lies buried in the ground. Then the fire being gradually applied, the ſulphur that hitherto tied up the mercury, and therewith formed a concrete like that of cinnabar, ſinks into the lime, or iron-filings, and forſakes the quick-ſilver; which therefore by the fire acting above, is now forced down through the reſt of the maſs, and collected in the water below.

But the ſtony mineral is firſt reduced to powder, then waſhed and ſeparated from its ſuperfluous earthy ſlud; and laſtly, with a more ſparing addition of lime, diſtilled in the ſame manner as that above-mentioned.

This diſtillation of the mercury may likewiſe be performed with an oblique ſituation of the veſſels, or even in a retort; but in larger quantities, the perpendicular deſcent is the moſt facile and commodious.

Of aſſaying mundics.

If of a ſulphureous nature, they may be generally fluxed with about half their weight of clean iron filings, which will precipitate the quantity of metallic matter; if of a ſtony nature they ſhould be treated as ores, to diſcover their value. For, perhaps, all the pyrites, braſs lumps, marcaſites, and mundics are but cruder kinds of ore; and, if they could be brought to full maturity, they would prove real ores.

Of aſſaying marcaſites.

Theſe being a ſpecies of metallic minerals, that may ſometimes be worth aſſaying, in order to know whether they are valuable, either for their metal or otherwiſe.

Many ſkilful metalliſts have been impoſed upon, by the ſpecious external appearance of theſe marcaſites; for they uſually have a great ſpecific gravity, and ſome of them a greater than real ores; whence they may poſſibly contain the matter of metals, though in a crude, imperfect, and unfixed ſtate. But, whether they contain any valuable metal, the preceding experiment, given in regard to mundics, will generally determine. They ſhould, however, be treated in all reſpects as ores; for ſmall proportions of ſilver have been frequently obtained, as well from marcaſites as mundics after fluxing them with iron-filings, and thereby bringing them to a regulus, and after dealing properly therewith by cupellation.

But, if they ſhould be of no real value, in regard to metal, they poſſibly may be ſo, in regard to other uſes. For 'tis obſervable, that theſe marcaſites, upon lying in the open air, attract the humidity thereof; and hence grow hot, and go into a kind of fermentation, and in ſome meaſure diſſolve, and by degrees turn into a vitriol, of the ſame kind with the metal they contain. Thus, if that metal were iron, the vitriol becomes green or martial; if copper, blue, or cupereous. And on this is founded the artificial method of making vitriol, now practiſed in ſeveral parts of England.

In regard to the methods of extraction of metals of every kind from their reſpective ore, in the great works, to the beſt advantage, we ſhall refer to the names of theſe ſeveral metals; as to the articles GOLD, SILVER, COPPER, TIN, LEAD, &c. &c.

REMARKS.

The uſefulneſs of the knowlege of aſſaying to the landed gentleman.

The bowels of the earth often affording as great treaſures as the ſurface, it is for the intereſt of thoſe who have eſtates in land, not only to cultivate the ſtudy of Natural Hiſtory, in regard to the mineral kingdom, and, indeed, the knowledge of foſſils in general, but alſo the arts of philoſophical chymiſtry. For the one will enable them to paſs a good judgment, at firſt ſight, on whatever their eſtates may produce in its ſubterranean parts: and the other will qualify them to judge, at an inconſiderable expence, of the value of any mineral production.

For want of a little taſte this way, it is not to be doubted but many a good eſtate under-ground has been loſt, by not being diſcovered by the poſſeſſor. Whence we may judge, both of the private and public utility of thoſe ſtudies, which tend to the improvement of our knowledge in natural things, and in thoſe arts which enable us to make a right judgment of their qualities and worth.

Although the art of aſſaying is generally reſtrained to minerals and metals, and theſe methods of trying their value with fluxes, and ſpirits of ſalts, &c. yet there are other foſſile ſubſtances which may be eſtimable on perſon's eſtates, and which may require quite different methods of treatment, in order to diſcover their uſes and values. And theſe methods may, with no leſs propriety, be deemed a part of the art of aſſaying. Such are alluminous bodies, boles, mineral waters for bathing or drinking, minerals for dyeing, ſtones of various kinds, bituminous matters for the melioration of mortars, &c. ſands for glaſs-making, clays and loams for pottery, marles for the improvement of land, talcs and ſparrs for ſtuccoe, and other works, and vitriolic ſubſtances, &c. Theſe things may ſometimes turn to as good account as mines. But theſe ſubjects require methods different from thoſe of ores, and other minerals, in order to diſcover their qualities and worth.—We have only hinted things here, but ſhall ſpeak more to them under their reſpective heads.

REMARKS.

The uſe of aſſaying metals with accuracy, to merchants as well as to refiners, plate-workers, goldſmiths, &c.

Though this art more particularly concerns thoſe tradeſmen and artificers, who purchaſe thoſe metals for ſale, and refine them to the proper ſtandard, for their working up into utenſils; yet, as our ſilver and gold is imported by merchants from foreign countries, it is requiſite that they ſhould know ſomething of the nature of aſſaying; for in their dealings in bullion gold or ſilver, or in foreign coins, they may not always have juſtice done them, unleſs they deal with our refiners in Foſter-lane; whom, I will preſume to ſay, are gentlemen behind none in the kingdom, for diſtinguiſhed honour and integrity in their way of buſineſs.

Nor is this matter of aſſaying any way troubleſome, expenſive, or myſterious: a ſmall apparatus will perform the whole; and for its curioſity, might prove an agreeable amuſement, was there no private advantage likely to attend it.

Though I have not only peruſed moſt of the beſt books in eſteem upon this ſubject, and ſeen the whole buſineſs of aſſaying often performed by ſome of the moſt dextrous artiſts in their way, I cannot think that the art is yet brought to its laſt perfection, any more than thoſe of ſmelting and refining in the great way.

The reaſons for this my opinion are grounded on the following obſervation, which I have made upon the ſentiments of thoſe, who have been reckoned the moſt ſkilful experimenters in the art of metallurgy; which may not be diſagreeable to ſuch, who are intereſted in a ſubject of this nature.

In reſpect to the methods of aſſaying gold and ſilver ores.

There are two difficulties, at leaſt one or other of them, always found in this affair. For (1.) Howſoever fluxible the mineral earths and ſulphurs may be, which are conjoined with the ores of gold and ſilver, yet it ſcarce comes up to the fuſibility of the pure metal itſelf; but rather flows thick and ſluggiſh, unleſs the fire be very intenſe indeed: but it is plain, that, if this ſubſtance remains viſcous, the moleculæ of the metal cannot ſink through it, in order to precipitate the metalline maſs at the bottom. (2.) Sometimes only a very ſmall quantity of pure metal lies concealed in a vaſt body of its adhering earth, or wrapped up with the matters of other metals; whence one of theſe two inconveniencies muſt ariſe, viz. either that the ſmall quantity of metal cannot well, under ſo great a load of recrement, come into a little maſs; or elſe, if it could, it muſt of neceſſity be ſo violently agitated about by the ſtrong fire required to keep ſo large a bulk of ſlag in fuſion, as in the ebullition to be again involved, as it were, in little drops or bubbles, among the pappy maſs of the ſcoria.

Theſe two inconveniences, indeed, have their tolerable remedies. (1.) The firſt is to add ſuch ſubſtances as promote vitrification, and, at the ſame time, cauſe a thin flux of the vitrified body. Such ſubſtances for the aſſay are glaſs of lead, a little borax, or any compound flux ſalt; the baſis whereof are commonly tartar and nitre. (2.) The ſecond is to add metal itſelf: and this way ſeems greatly improveable. In this caſe, as a larger quantity of metal cannot, by the ſame fire, be agitated ſo much as a leſs, or, if it could be ſo, yet all its particles would cohere more firmly in a large than a ſmall quantity; hence, by ſuch an addition of metal, the little maſs that otherwiſe would be with difficulty collected, is artificially enlarged, ſo as to cover the whole bottom of the melting-pot: in conſequence whereof, all the ſingle metallic particles that fall afterwards, are eaſily catched and detained below, by the large metalline maſs, which there lies ready to receive them.

The metal, uſually employed to increaſe the maſs in this manner, is lead: but Becher, with great probability of much greater ſucceſs, recommends the uſe of ſilver in its ſtead, where the perfect metals are expected. For ſilver, in this caſe, does not only remain unaltered by the fire and flux; but alſo, by a ſpecific efficacy, collects together and fixes the ſcattered

potential atoms of the metal, and actually reduces them to perfect metal.

Upon which property of silver it is, that Becher has built his minera arenaria, sand-mine, or inexhaustible method of extracting the perfect metals out of sand; where, by using silver instead of lead, he undertakes to produce a ten times greater increase: which is so rational and philosophical, as to merit attention.

But, as this latter method can principally be used to profit in the separation of gold from its ore by fusion, so lead remains a very convenient addition for the reception of silver, as performing a double use in the operation, viz. by imbibing the metal pure, and at the same time promoting the vitrification of the earth mixed along with the gold.

Copper, being of itself of difficult fusion, requires such a fire as is able to melt its glassy scoria sufficiently thin, at the same time that it is melted itself; and this it does, unless the flints should prove very obstinate indeed. Hence, bare fusion sometimes, without any other assistance, will bring out this metal from its ore, and precipitate it in a mass; the scoria here flowing so thin, as ready to suffer the metalline particles to sink through it. But, when the ore is more stubborn, its separation may be promoted by metalline, or other additions, as above mentioned.

In short, the difficulty of thus separating the metal from its proper earth is principally found in the ores of silver, gold, and copper; but lead and tin, being very fusible bodies, are much easier melted from their adhering mineral matter.

In order to the due separation of metals from metals, or of a confused mixture of metals, such as are commonly called electrums, or such as the Corinthian brass of old was supposed to be; we must observe, that experience has taught us a certain effect of lead, which could not be well conceived à priori *: viz. that by fusion upon the cupel, it resolves all the imperfect metals, without exception, into their smallest atoms, and partly throws them up to its surface in the form of a half vitrified powdery substance, in part sinks along with them into the cupel, and in part converts them into glass, so as to leave nothing behind but pure gold and silver.

* This is more effectually and sooner done by a proper glass of antimony.

Great care must be taken, both in the smaller and larger work, with respect to the assay by cupellation. It is incumbent on the assay-master sollicitously to prevent the least diffipation or loss of his powdered ore upon the test and cupel; heedfully to procure a total incoction thereof into the lead, and a sufficient degree of fluidity to the scoria.

The greater accuracy is required in all these respects, because, in the smelting of ores, the matter is examined by the proportion it bears to assay-weights, which being exceeding small, the greatest caution should be used to prevent a loss upon the assay in the produce of the pure metal; for thus the proprietors, especially in the case of gold, might come to be greatly injured in the large weight, if the smelter, misguided by the report of the assay-master, either neglects to procure the full yield of the ore, or secretes the overplus. And thus likewise the dealers in silver ore might come to be great sufferers.

The methods employed for the purposes of assaying are now all over Europe pretty much the same; but should never be trusted, unless, at least, two or three experiments, made at the same time, by the same, or different persons, agree in the same report.

And, perhaps, in all natural philosophy, chymistry, and metallurgy, there is not an experiment which requires greater skill and accuracy than these experiments, in the art of assaying, so as to be depended upon: nor, indeed, can such precision as is here required, be well expected, but from those who are acquainted with the rapacious nature of many volatile mineral fumes; and the methods of so retaining them, to prevent their carrying off the nobler metals upon the test.

To assay in perfection requires also a knowledge of the relations and differences of all the metals with regard to each other, and particularly to lead and antimony. As this art therefore requires so much judgment and delicacy, in order to practise it with success; hence doubtless proceeds the difficulty we find, in procuring a true assay to be made upon any uncommon ore, or mineral substance: for the art of assaying is extremely backward in admitting of improvements, as if it were to descend unaltered from one generation to another.

Was the due use and importance of this art more generally attended to, the proprietors of all kinds of mines and mineral matters, and all who are any way concerned in metals, would assuredly reap their advantage by it. For this is certain; that if, by the repeated assay, the ore promiscuously taken yields such a quantity of metal, the same quantity in proportion may be got out of the same ore, in the large way of working: so that the accurate assay is a criterion to the private gentleman, to know whether his workmen are skilful in their operation, or whether they defraud him in the produce of his metal.

It is however true, that if the same method of operation is not made use of in the large way of smelting ores, as is practised in making of the small assay, the yield of the ore in the large way may not come up in quantity in the proportion to what the assay indicated: this is a known maxim to those who have been concerned in large works. But, if the same method of working is practised in the large way as is done in the assay, the produce of metal in the one will be equal to that in the other. Nay, where there is a great body of ore as a ton smelted together, it is rather reasonable to think, from what has been intimated before, that a greater quantity of metal, especially of gold or silver, will be produced in the larger way, than in proportion to the small assay: for, if the identical method of operation is practised in the one way as in the other; that is to say, if the same degree of strength in the application of fuel be duly administered, in proportion to the quantity of matter, &c. the same fluxes used, and the same art exerted in all respects in the great way as in the assay, the yield of metal in the large way cannot be less than what the assay, made in the same way, exhibited.

To judge otherwise, seems to subvert one of the fundamental and immutable principles of nature: for that is saying, that the same cause will not eternally produce the same effect.

It is rare, indeed, that the same way of working is practised in the great way as is done in the assay, it being too expensive; and, therefore, from the effect being different, some are led into an egregious mistake, in regard to those operations. It is an advantage to the sellers of ore to dispose of them according to the most accurate assay that can be made, but it is the reverse to the purchaser, if he buys them by such assays, and works them in great works by a different process, which will not yield him near the like quantity of metal.

When gold and silver are in their full purity, they are rather too soft and flexible either to be wrought into utensils or coin, without being hardened with an alloy of some baser metal.

To prevent the abuses which some might commit in the making of such alloys, the government, in most countries, have ordained that there shall be no more than a certain proportion of baser metal added to a certain quantity of pure gold or pure silver, to make them of the fineness of what is called their respective standards.

In England a pound weight of standard silver is 11 ounces 2 penny-weights of fine silver, and 18 penny-weights of fine copper, which together make 12 ounces, or one pound troy weight.

Of the troy weights.

14 ounces 8 penny-weights = 1 lb. avoirdupoize weight,
12 ounces - - - - = 1 lb. troy weight,
20 dwts, or penny-weights = 1 ounce,
24 grains - - - - - = 1 penny-weight,
20 mites - - - - - = 1 grain,
24 droits - - - - - = 1 mite,
20 periots - - - - = 1 droit,
24 blanks - - - - = 1 periot.

Of the gold standard.

One pound, or one ounce of gold, must contain 22 carats of fine gold, one carat of fine silver, and one carat of fine copper, which together make 24 carats, or one pound, or one ounce of troy weight.

The carat is a term used by refiners, whereby they certify a certain composition of weights used in assaying and computing of standard gold; and this carat contains either the twenty-fourth part of a pound, or the twenty-fourth part of an ounce, troy.

A pound carat is thus divided:

12 ounces - - - = 24 carats,
4 grains - - - = 1 carat,
4 quarters - - - = 1 grain,
10 dwts troy - - - = 1 carat,
2 dwts 12 grains troy = 1 grain,
15 grains troy - - = 1 quarter-grain.

An ounce carat is thus divided:

1 ounce troy - = 24 carats,
4 grains - - - = 1 carat,
4 quarters - - = 1 grain,
20 grains troy - = 1 carat,
5 grains troy - = 1 carat grain.

And, according to the laws of England, all sorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made to the said standards of gold and silver: and the current price of such standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to value bullion, whether it be in mass, bars, dust, or in foreign coin: but the true value of bullion gold, or silver, cannot be known without being assayed; for the use of an assay is to discover how much alloy there is in any bullion, more or less than there is in the standard. If there be less alloy in it than there is in the standard, so much as there is less, makes the bullion so much finer, better, and more valuable than standard. If,

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on the other hand, there be more alloy in the bullion than there is in the ſtandard, ſuch bullion will be coarſer, or worſe, and, conſequently, will be ſo much leſs valuable than ſtandard.

The method of getting bullion aſſayed is thus: You take a ſlip of paper, about 5 or ſix inches long, and about 4 or 5 inches broad, and put into it a few grains (the uſual quantity) cut off the bullion which is to be aſſayed, and fold it up, turning in the ſides and corners, to prevent its dropping out, and underneath you write down the owner's name.

This paper is carried to his majeſty's aſſay-office in the Tower *, or to the company's office in Goldſmiths-hall, or to ſome noted experienced aſſay-maſter. After the ſame is aſſayed, if you aſk for it in the owner's name, it will be returned to you again, with the gold or ſilver in it; for which you pay the cuſtomary fee.

* Though I am not acquainted either with the perſon or the name of the aſſay-maſter at the Tower, yet I have been well informed, by thoſe who are judges, that there is not a more capable gentleman in all Europe for his buſineſs; which is a great advantage to our dealers in bullion gold and ſilver, &c.

When you come to open the paper, you will find the aſſay-maſter's name and report, wrote by him, much after the following form, viz.

A——— B———
Silver for an aſſay, January 5th, 1751,
W. 12 dwts. ob.

A——— B———
Gold for an aſſay, March 10th, 1751,
B. 2 gra. $\frac{3}{4}$.

The aſſay-maſter always makes his reports of ſilver in ounces, penny-weights, and half penny-weights; and of gold in carats, carat-grains, and the fractions of a carat-grain; and they commonly write down the quantities, with the numerical letters of the ſecretary hand-writing. It muſt be obſerved, alſo, that

B ſtands for better than ſtandard,
W —— for worſe,
Ob. —— for half penny-weight,
Sta. —— for ſtandard.

When the report of the aſſay-maſter is made, and the price of ſtandard gold and ſilver is known, it will be eaſy to judge of the price of that which is better or worſe than ſtandard, and to caſt up any quantity accordingly. See the articles GOLD and SILVER, where I ſhall give the conciſe practical methods of doing this.

ASSELANI. The true name by which the Turks call the Dutch dollar is ASLANI. See that word.

ASSIENTO, a Spaniſh word, which properly ſignifies a farm. In France, where that word was firſt introduced in the beginning of the war about the ſucceſſion to the crown of Spain, they underſtood by the word aſſiento a trading company, eſtabliſhed for importing negroes into the dominions of the king of Spain in America, and particularly to Buenos-Ayres. It was the old French Guinea company, which, after having made a treaty with the Spaniſh miniſters for that importation of negroes, took the name of the company of the aſſientiſts, becauſe of the duty they bound themſelves to pay to the king of Spain's farms, for every negro between 15 and 25, or 30 years old, ſound, well-ſhaped, and without any blemiſh, they ſhould import into Spaniſh America.

That treaty of the French company, which contained 34 articles, was ſigned the firſt of September 1702, to continue in force 10 years, and determine the 1ſt of September, 1712; granting, however, to the company, two years longer to import the remainder of the negroes they had left, if they were not all imported at the expiration of the treaty.

The two chief articles among theſe 34 related, the one to the number of negroes the company was to furniſh the Spaniards with yearly, and the other to the duty that was to be paid for them to the king of Spain, during the time of the farm or aſſiento.

As to the number of negroes, it was fixed at 38,000, as long as the war, which was begun the year before, ſhould continue; and at 48,000 in caſe a peace was concluded. And, with regard to the duty that was to be paid to the king of Spain, it was ſettled at 33 piaſters and $\frac{1}{3}$ for every negro between 15 and 25, or 30 years old; the greateſt part of which duty the company paid before-hand.

The peace of Utrecht, by which Philip V. was acknowledged king of Spain by queen Anne, and by all her allies, except the emperor, having put an end to the war, and one of the articles of the treaty between England and France being, that the latter ſhould give up the aſſiento, or farm of negroes, in favour of the former, the Spaniards entered into a treaty with the Engliſh, for the importation of negroes into Spaniſh America.

This treaty, which, in ſeveral articles, is like that which was made with the French company, but, in many others, much more to the advantage of the Engliſh, was to commence the 1ſt of May, 1713, and to continue for 30 years; ſo that it was to end the 1ſt of May, 1743.

The South-Sea company, which was eſtabliſhed in England in the beginning of the abovementioned war, but had much difficulty to keep their head above water, undertook to furniſh Spaniſh America with negroes. The company was obliged to import 4,800 negroes a year, for which they were to pay per head at the rate ſettled with the French company; but was obliged to pay only half that duty, during the 25 firſt years, for every negro they ſhould import above the number 4,800 ſtipulated by the treaty.

The 42d article of that treaty, which is the laſt, and, perhaps, the moſt conſiderable of all, was not in the treaty made with the French. By that article leave is given to the Engliſh aſſientiſts, or contractors, to ſend yearly into Spaniſh America, during the whole time the treaty was to continue, a ſhip of 500 tons, laden with the ſame ſorts of merchandizes which the Spaniards uſed to carry thither, with liberty to ſell and diſpoſe of them, with the concurrence of the Spaniards, at the fairs of Porto Bello and Vera-Cruz.

One may ſafely aſſert, that neither the furniſhing the Spaniards with negroes, which is the main ſubject of that treaty, nor the ſeveral other articles, by which many privileges were granted to the South-Sea company, did not all together prove ſo profitable to it, as that liberty alone granted to the Engliſh, againſt the ancient policy, and the uſual jealouſy, of the Spaniards, with regard to their American trade. See REGISTER-SHIP.

There have been five more articles added ſince to that treaty of aſſiento with the Engliſh, in order to explain ſome of the old ones.

By the firſt it is agreed that the treaty ſhall be reckoned to commence but in the year 1714. By the ſecond, that the Engliſh ſhall be ſuffered to ſend their merchant-ſhip, though the Spaniſh fleet, or galleons, ſhould not ſail to America. By the third, that, during the firſt 10 years, that ſhip might be of 650 tons. Finally, by the two laſt articles it is agreed, that the merchandizes which ſhould remain, after the ſale of the negroes, ſhould be ſent back into Europe, after the negroes had been landed at Buenos-Ayres; and that, if the negroes were deſigned for Porto-Bello, Vera-Cruz, Carthagena, or ſome other part of Spaniſh-America, they ſhould be carried into ſome of the Antilles iſlands belonging to the Engliſh, and that it ſhould not be lawful to ſend any into the South-Sea.

The method of rating and paying the aſſiento-duty for every negro, when the ſhip arrives in the American dominions of the king of Spain, is the ſame with regard to the Engliſh, as was practiſed with the French; that is to ſay, that, when the negroes are landed, the Spaniſh officers, in concert with the company's factor, ſeparate them into four claſſes as follow: In the firſt place, they put together all thoſe negroes, of both ſexes, who are in perfect health, and from 15 to 30 years old. Afterwards they ſeparate the old men, the old women, and the ſick, and make a ſecond lot of them. Next follow the children of both ſexes, from 10 to 15 years old: and finally, thoſe from 5 to 10.

The ſeparation being thus made, they proceed to the valuation of the negroes; that is to ſay, they reckon every negro of the firſt claſs, being in perfect health, as a head, for which the full duty of 33 piaſters and $\frac{1}{3}$ muſt be paid. The old and ſick, who make up the ſecond claſs, are rated at $\frac{3}{4}$ of a head, and the duty muſt be paid accordingly. The children of the third claſs are reckoned at 3 for 2 heads, and thoſe of the fourth at 2 for one head; and, according to that eſtimation, the king's duty is paid.

So that of a cargo of 610 heads of negroes, among whom there are 250 in health, and of the proper age, 60 ſick or old, 150 children from 10 to 15 years old, and 150 from 5 to 10, the king receives duty but for 470.

250 healthy ones pay duty for as many heads, viz.	250 heads,	
60 old or ſick, at $\frac{3}{4}$ a head, pay duty for	—	45
150 children, from 10 to 15 years, at $\frac{2}{3}$, pay duty for		100
150 ——— from 5 to 10 years, at $\frac{1}{2}$, pay duty for		75
610		470

The aſſiento adjuſted between their Britannic and Catholic majeſties, for the Engliſh company's obliging itſelf to ſupply the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with black ſlaves, for the term of thirty years, to commence on the firſt day of May, 1713, and to end the ſame day in the year 1743.

I. Her Britiſh majeſty does offer and undertake, for the perſons whom ſhe ſhall name and appoint, that they ſhall oblige and charge themſelves with the bringing into the Weſt-Indies of America, belonging to his Catholic majeſty, in the ſpace of the ſaid 30 years, to commence on the 1ſt day of May, 1713, and determines on the like day, which will be in the year 1743, viz. 144,000 negroes, pieza de India, of both ſexes, and of all ages, at the rate of 4,800 negroes, piezas de India, in each of the ſaid 30 years; with this condition, that the perſons who ſhall go to the Weſt-Indies to take care of the concerns of the aſſiento, ſhall avoid giving any

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any offence; for, in ſuch caſe, they ſhall be proſecuted and puniſhed in the ſame manner as they would have been in Spain, if the like miſdemeanors had been committed there.

II. That for each negroe, piezas de India, of the regular ſtandard of ſeven quarters, not being old or defective, according to what has been practiſed and eſtabliſhed hitherto in the Indies, the aſſientiſts ſhall pay 33 pieces of eight (eſcudos) and one third of a piece of eight; in which ſum ſhall be accounted, and ſhall be comprehended, all and all manner of duties of alcavala, ſiza, amin de armes, boqueron, or any other duty whatſoever, of importation or regalia, that now are, or hereafter ſhall be impoſed, belonging to his Catholic majeſty, ſo that nothing more ſhall be demanded: and, if any ſhould be taken by the governors, royal officers, or other miniſters, they ſhall be made good to the aſſientiſts, on account of the duties which they are to pay his Catholic majeſty of 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ pieces of eight, as aforeſaid, the ſame being made appear by an authentic certificate, which ſhall not be denied by any public notary, thereunto required on the part of the aſſientiſts: for which purpoſe a general order (cedula) ſhall be iſſued, in the moſt ample form.

III. That the ſaid aſſientiſts ſhall advance to his Catholic majeſty, to ſupply the urgent occaſions of the crown, 200,000 pieces of eight (eſcudos) in two even payments of 100,000 pieces of eight each; the firſt to be made two months after his majeſty ſhall have approved and ſigned this aſſiento, and the ſecond at the end of two other months next after the firſt payment: which ſum, ſo advanced, is not to be reimburſed before the firſt end of the 20 years of this aſſiento, and then it may be deducted, by equal portions, in the 10 laſt remaining years, after the rate of 20,000 pieces of eight yearly, out of the produce of the duty upon negroes which they are to pay in thoſe years.

IV. That the aſſientiſts ſhall be obliged to pay the aforeſaid advance of 200,000 pieces of eight in this court; as alſo, from ſix months to ſix months, the half of the amount of the duties payable for the piezas of ſlaves, which they have agreed to import yearly.

V. That the aſſientiſts ſhall not be obliged to pay the duties for more than 4000 negroes (piezas de India) yearly, and not for the remaining 800, in conſideration of the riſques and intereſt that ought to be made good to the aſſientiſts, for the money advanced, and payment in this court of the duties for the ſaid 4000 piezas.

VI. That the ſaid aſſientiſts, after they ſhall have imported the 4,800 negroes yearly, according to their contract, if they find it neceſſary for his Catholic majeſty's ſervice, and that of his ſubjects, to import a greater number, they ſhall have liberty to do it, during the firſt 25 years of this contract (as in the five laſt years they ſhall import no more than the 4,800 agreed upon;) with condition, that they ſhall pay no more than 16 pieces of eight, and two thirds of a piece of eight, for all duties on each negro (pieza de India) which they ſhall import over and above the ſaid 4,800; and this payment alſo ſhall be made in this court.

VII. That the ſaid aſſientiſts ſhall be at liberty to employ in this commerce, for the carrying of their cargoes, her majeſty of Great-Britain's own ſhips, or thoſe of her ſubjects, or any belonging to his Catholic majeſty's ſubjects (paying them their freight, and with the conſent of their owners) navigated with Engliſh or Spaniſh mariners, at their choice; care being taken that neither the commanders of thoſe ſhips employed by the aſſientiſts, nor the mariners, do give any offence, or cauſe any ſcandal to the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion, under the penalties, and purſuant to the regulations, eſtabliſhed by the firſt article of this aſſiento. And alſo it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid aſſientiſts, and they ſhall have power to introduce their black ſlaves contracted for into all the ports of the North Sea, and of Buenos-Ayres, in any of the aforementioned ſhips, in like manner as has been granted to any former aſſientiſts.

VIII. And it is provided, at the ſame time, that the negroes which are carried to the ports of the windward coaſt, Sancta Martha, Cumana, and Maracaybo, ſhall not be ſold by the ſaid aſſientiſts for more than after the rate of 300 pieces of eight each; but as to the other ports of New Spain, its iſlands, and Terra Firma, it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid aſſientiſts to ſell them at the beſt prices they ſhall be able to get.

IX. That the ſaid aſſientiſts being allowed, for the reaſons mentioned in the foregoing article, to import their negroes into all the ports of the North Sea, it is alſo agreed that they ſhall have power to do it in the river of Plata, his Catholic majeſty allowing them out of the 4,800 negroes, which, purſuant to this aſſiento, they are to import yearly, to bring into the ſaid river of Plata or Buenos-Ayres, in each of the ſaid 30 years of this aſſiento, to the number of 1200 of theſe piezas de India of both ſexes, to ſell them there at ſuch prices as they ſhall be able, ſhipping the ſame in four veſſels, large enough to carry them; 800 of them to be diſpoſed of at Buenos-Ayres, and the remaining 400 may be carried into, and ſerve for the provinces above, and kingdom of Chili; ſelling them to the inhabitants, if they will come to buy them, in the ſaid port of Buenos-Ayres. It being hereby declared, that her Britannic majeſty, and the aſſientiſts, in her name, may hold in the ſaid river of Plata ſome parcels of land, which his Catholic majeſty ſhall appoint, or aſſign, purſuant to what is ſtipulated in the preliminaries of peace, from the time of the commencing of this aſſiento, ſufficient to plant, to cultivate, and breed cattle therein, for the ſubſiſtence of the perſons belonging to the aſſiento, and their negroes; and they ſhall be allowed to build houſes there of timber, and not of any other materials; and they ſhall not throw up the earth, nor make any the leaſt (or ſlighteſt) fortification. And his Catholic majeſty ſhall alſo appoint an officer to his ſatisfaction, one of his own ſubjects, who ſhall reſide upon the aforementioned lands, under whoſe command are to be all ſuch things as relate to the ſaid land: and all other matters that concern the aſſiento, ſhall be under that of the governor and royal officers of Buenos-Ayres: and the aſſientiſts ſhall not, on account of the ſaid lands, be obliged to pay any duties during the time of the ſaid aſſiento.

X. In order to the carrying and introducing of black ſlaves into the provinces of the South-Sea, liberty is to be granted, as it is hereby granted, to the aſſientiſts, to freight either at Panama, or in any other dock or port of the South-Sea, ſhips, or frigates of about 400 tons, little more or leſs, on board which they may ſhip them at Panama, and carry them to all the other ports of Peru, and no others on that ſide; and to man thoſe ſhips with ſuch ſeamen, and appoint ſuch officers, both military and for ſea, as they ſhall think fit; and may bring back the produce of the ſale thereof to the ſaid port of Panama, as well in fruits of the country, as in money, bars of ſilver, or ingots of gold, and ſo as they may not be obliged to pay any duties for the ſilver or gold which they ſhall bring, either upon importation or exportation, it being ſtamped, and without fraud, and appearing to be the produce of the negroes. And likewiſe leave is granted to the ſaid aſſientiſts to ſend from Europe to Porto-Bello, and from Porto-Bello to Panama, by the river Chagre, or by land-carriage, cables, ſails, iron, timber, and likewiſe all other ſtores and proviſions, neceſſary for the ſaid ſhips, frigates, or barcolongo's, and for the maintaining the ſame; provided that they ſhall not be allowed to ſell or trade in the ſaid ſtores, in the whole nor in part, under any pretence whatſoever; unleſs it ſhall appear that they had obtained leave for the ſale thereof from his Catholic majeſty. And it is farther provided, that, when the term of this aſſiento is ended, the ſaid aſſientiſts ſhall not be allowed to make uſe of the ſaid ſhips, frigates, or barks, to carry them to Europe, becauſe of the inconveniences that might enſue.

XI. The ſaid aſſientiſts may make uſe of Engliſh or Spaniards, at their choice, for the management and direction of this aſſiento as well in the ports of America as in the inland places; declaring and commanding, that the Engliſh, during the whole time of this aſſiento, ſhall be regarded and treated as if they were ſubjects of the crown of Spain: with this reſtriction, that there ſhall not reſide in any one of the ſaid ports of the Indies more than 4 or 6 Engliſhmen; out of which number the ſaid aſſientiſts may chuſe ſuch as they ſhall think fit and ſhall have occaſion to ſend up into the country, where negroes are allowed to be carried, for the management and recovery of their effects; which they ſhall perform in the moſt convenient manner, and that which they ſhall think beſt, under the regulation mentioned in the firſt article, without any hindrance from any miniſters, civil or military, under any pretence, unleſs they can be charged with acting contrary to the eſtabliſhed laws, or to the contents of this aſſiento.

XII. That, for the better management of this aſſiento, his Catholic majeſty will be pleaſed to grant, that, as ſoon as the peace is proclaimed, her Britannic majeſty may ſend two ſhips of war with the ſaid factors, officers, and others, who are to be employed in this ſervice, giving firſt a liſt of the names both of the one and the others, that are to go aſhore in all the ports, where they ſhall be allowed to ſettle and regulate their factories, as well that they may go with the greater conveniency and ſecurity, as that they may provide all things neceſſary for the receiving the veſſels that ſhall go with negroes; which being obliged to go to take the blacks in upon the coaſt of Africa, and thence tranſport them to the port of the Spaniſh America, it would be very incommodious, as well as unprofitable, for the factors and others employed, to go on board the ſhips made uſe of in thoſe voyages; and yet it is indiſpenſibly neceſſary that houſes be prepared before-hand for them to dwell in, and all other proviſions made which they ſhall want; and for the tranſporting of the factors, and others, belonging to the company, to Buenos-Ayres, a veſſel of a middling burden ſhall be allowed. And it is hereby declared, that as well this veſſel, as the two ſhips of war, are to be viſited and ſearched in the ſeveral ports by the royal officers, who may ſeize their merchandize, if they carry any. And farther, the ſaid ſhips ſhall be furniſhed with neceſſary proviſions for their return, at a reaſonable rate.

XIII. The ſaid aſſientiſts may nominate, in all the ports and chief places of America, judges conſervators of this aſſiento, whom they may remove and diſplace, and appoint others at pleaſure, in the manner allowed to the Portugueze in the eighth article of their aſſiento.

XIV. It ſhall not be lawful for the viceroys, &c. or other tribunal or miniſter whatever, of his Catholic majeſty, to lay an embargo on, or detain the ſhips belonging to this aſſiento, nor to hinder them in their voyages, under any pretence whatever; but, on the contrary, they ſhall be obliged to afford them all the favour, aſſiſtance, and ſuccour, that the ſaid aſſientiſts, or their factors, ſhall deſire, for the more ſpeedy fitting out, diſpatching, and lading of their ſaid ſhips; and likewiſe the victuals, and all other things they ſhall ſtand in need of for forwarding their voyages, at the current prices; with this warning and under this penalty, that thoſe who do otherwiſe ſhall be obliged, at their own proper coſts, to make good and ſatisfy all the damages and loſſes which the aſſientiſts may ſuſtain by ſuch impediment or detention.

XV. Neither ſhall the viceroys, &c. or any other tribunal or office whatſoever, take, ſeize, detain, or lay an embargo by violence, or in any other manner, under any pretence, or for any cauſe or motive whatſoever, on any of the ſtock, goods, and effects, that are the produce of this aſſiento, or belonging to the aſſientiſts: nor ſhall the ſaid miniſters ſearch the houſes or warehouſes of the factors, or others belonging to this aſſiento; unleſs in caſe it ſhall have been proved that there has been ſome fraudulent and prohibited importation.

XVI. That the ſaid aſſientiſts, their factors, &c. may employ in their ſervice ſuch mariners, carriers, and workmen, as they ſhall have occaſion for, to load and unload their ſhips and veſſels, upon a voluntary agreement made with them, and paying them ſuch ſalaries and ſtipends as they ſhall have agreed for.

XVII. That the ſaid aſſientiſts ſhall have liberty to load, at their choice, the effects they may have in the Indies, upon the ſhips of the flota or the galleons, to bring them into Europe, agreeing for the freight with the captains and owners of the ſaid ſhips, or upon the veſſels belonging to the aſſiento; which, if they think it convenient, may come under convoy with the ſaid flotas and galleons, or other ſhips of war belonging to his Catholic majeſty; and that the effects which ſhall come in them, and ſhall appear, by an authentic writing, to belong to the aſſientiſts, ſhall be free of all duties whatſoever, on their importation in Spain, but they are not to bring on board them any Spaniſh paſſenger, or any effects of any ſubject of his Catholic majeſty.

XVIII. That from the firſt day of May of this preſent year 1713, till they ſhall have taken poſſeſſion of this aſſiento, nor after their taking ſuch poſſeſſion, it ſhall not be lawful for the French Guinea company, or any other perſon whatſoever, to introduce any negro ſlave into India; it is agreed, that when the ſaid aſſientiſts ſhall have notice that any ſhip with negroes (not belonging to them) is come upon the coaſt, or entered into any port, they may fit out, arm, and ſend out immediately ſuch veſſels as they ſhall have of their own, or any others belonging to his Catholic majeſty, or his ſubjects, with whom they ſhall agree, to take, ſeize, and confiſcate ſuch ſhips and their negroes, of whatever nation they be, or to whomſoever the ſame ſhall belong; firſt having leave from the governors, to whom they ſhall communicate what occurs, and deſire them to interpoſe their authority.

XIX. That the ſaid aſſientiſts, their factors and agents, ſhall have power to navigate and import their negro ſlaves, according to their contract, to all the ſouthern ports of his Catholic majeſty's Weſt-Indies, including the river of Plata, with prohibition to all others, whether ſubjects of the crown or ſtrangers, to carry and introduce thither any negroes, under the penalties eſtabliſhed by the laws that relate to this contract of trade.

XX. That in caſe the ſaid aſſientiſts be moleſted in the execution and performance of this aſſiento, and that their proceedings and rights be diſturbed by way of ſuits at law, or in any other manner whatſoever, his Catholic majeſty declares, that he will reſerve to himſelf alone the cognizance thereof, and of all cauſes that may be moved thereupon, with an inhibition to all judges and juſtices, to take to themſelves the examination and cognizance of the ſaid cauſes, or of the ſuits, omiſſions, or defects, that may happen in the performance of this aſſiento.

XXI. That, whenever the ſhips of the ſaid aſſientiſts ſhall arrive in the ports of the Indies with their cargoes of negroes, the captains thereof ſhall be obliged to certify, that there is not any contagious diſtemper amongſt them, that the governor and royal officers may permit them to enter into the ſaid ports; without which certificates they ſhall not be admitted.

XXII. When the ſaid ſhips ſhall have entered into any of the ports, they are to be viſited by the governor and royal officers, and ſearched to the bottom, even to the ballaſt; and, having landed their negroes in whole or in part, they may at the ſame time land the proviſions, which they ſhall bring for their ſubſiſtence, laying them up in particular houſes or magazines. But they ſhall not land, import, or vend any goods or merchandize, under any pretence or motive whatſoever: and, if there ſhould be any on board the ſhips, they ſhall be ſeized, as if they were found on ſhore; excepting only the ſaid negro ſlaves, and the magazines of proviſions for their ſubſiſtence, under the penalty, that thoſe who are guilty

ſhall be ſeverely puniſhed, and their merchandize and effects confiſcated or burned, and they ſhall be declared for ever incapable of having any employment in the ſaid aſſiento. And it is declared, that the ſhips on board which the negroes ſhall be, or any of the proviſions brought for their ſubſiſtence, ſhall not be liable to the ſaid forfeiture and confiſcation, they being declared to remain free, as not being in fault; and the perſon or perſons, who have charge of them, may go on with their traffic; and, if the merchandize or goods ſeized do not exceed the value of 100 pieces of eight (eſcudos) they ſhall be burned without any remiſſion (being firſt appraiſed) and the captain ſhall be condemned to pay the ſum at which they were appraiſed, as a puniſhment for his neglect and omiſſion; and, if he does not pay down the value of what ſhall have been ſo ſeized, he ſhall be ſuſpended and impriſoned till payment made; but, if it be proved that he was not an accomplice, he ſhall be obliged to deliver up the perſon guilty, and in that caſe he ſhall be free.

XXIII. That the victuals and other proviſions which ſhall be put on ſhore for the ſubſiſtence of the negroes, ſhall not pay any duties of importation or exportation; but, if the aſſientiſts buy or export them from the ports, then ſhall they be obliged to pay the duties eſtabliſhed, in the ſame manner as his Catholic majeſty's ſubjects ought to do.

XXIV. That the duties upon the negroes imported are to be due from the day of their landing in any of the ports of the Indies, after the ſearch made, and all matters regulated by the royal officers; that, if any of the ſaid negroes die within the ſpace of fifteen days, from the time of their being put on ſhore, the aſſientiſts ſhall not be obliged to pay any duties, in regard they were not landed for ſale; which being expired, if they ſhall be yet alive, then they ſhall become indebted for the duties for them, purſuant to what is agreed in the fifth article.

XXV. That after the aſſientiſts, or their factors, ſhall have ſettled the duties, and ſold part of their loading of blacks, which they had brought to that port, they ſhall be allowed to carry the remainder to any other port, carrying certificates from the royal officers, of having there accounted for the duties, that ſo the ſame may not be demanded of them again in any other port; and they may receive, in payment for thoſe they ſhall ſell, money, bars of ſilver, and ingots of gold, which ſhall have paid the king's quinto without fraud, as alſo the produce of the country; which they may carry away, and embark freely, as being the produce of the ſale of the ſaid negroes, without being obliged to pay any duties, except only thoſe that ſhall be eſtabliſhed in the places from whence thoſe fruits and effects are brought.

XXVI. That the ſhips which ſhall be employed by this aſſiento, may ſail from the ports of Great-Britain or Spain, at the choice of the aſſientiſts, who ſhall give an account to his Catholic majeſty of what ſhips they ſhall diſpatch yearly for the negro trade, and the ports for which they are deſigned, and may return to either, with the money, &c. being the produce of the ſale of the negroes; and they ſhall be under this obligation, that, if the returns come into the ports of Spain, the captains and commanders ſhall give to his Catholic majeſty's miniſters an authentic regiſter, by which it may appear what they have on board; and, if they come back to Great-Britain, they ſhall ſend over an exact account of their lading, that his majeſty may be fully informed thereof.

XXVII. If it ſhould happen that the ſhips of this aſſiento ſhould be fitted out as ſhips of war, and ſhould take any prizes from enemies of either crown, or from the pirates that uſually cruize and plunder in the ſeas of America, they may bring them into any port belonging to his Catholic majeſty, where they are to be admitted; and, the ſaid prizes being declared good and lawful, the captors ſhall not be obliged to pay greater duties upon the entry of their prizes, than what are eſtabliſhed and payable by the natural ſubjects of his majeſty; deducting a fourth part of the produce of the ſale thereof, which is to belong to his Catholic majeſty.

And, for the preventing all manner of doubt and cavil, his majeſty declares, that the ſhips, ketches, and other veſſels (thus made prize of) of whatever ſort they be, with their arms, guns, ammunition, and all the furniture and tackle on board them, ſhall belong to the captors.

XXVIII. It is agreed, that both their majeſties ſhall be concerned for one half of this trade, each of them a quarter part, which is to belong to them, purſuant to this agreement. And whereas it is neceſſary that his Catholic majeſty (in order to have and enjoy the benefit and gain that may be obtained by this trade) ſhould advance to the ſaid aſſientiſts 1,000,000 of pieces of eight (eſcudos) or a quarter of the ſum, which they ſhall judge neceſſary for the putting of this commerce into a good order and method, it is agreed, that, if his Catholic majeſty ſhall not think it convenient to advance the ſaid ſum, the aforementioned aſſientiſts do offer to do it out of their own money, upon condition, that his Catholic majeſty ſhall make good the intereſt out of what they ſhall be accountable for to him, after the rate of eight per cent. yearly. And his Catholic majeſty is to name two directors or factors, who are to reſide at London, two more in the Indies, and one at Cadiz, that they may be concerned on his part (together

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with thoſe of her Britannic majeſty and thoſe that ſhall be intereſted) in all the directions, purchaſes, and accounts of this aſſiento, to whom his catholic majeſty is to give proper inſtructions by which to govern themſelves.

XXIX. That the ſaid aſſientiſts are to give an account of their profits and gain at the end of the firſt five years of this aſſiento; which accounts, as well of the charge as the produce, are firſt to be examined and ſettled by her Britannic majeſty's miniſters employed in this ſervice, in regard to the ſhare ſhe is to have in this aſſiento, and then to be examined in like manner in this court: and his catholic majeſty's ſhare of the profits may be adjuſted and recovered from the aſſientiſts, who are to be obliged to pay the ſame moſt regularly and punctually, in purſuance of this article, which is to be of the ſame force and vigour, as if it were a public inſtrument, and under the regulation mentioned in the twenty-eighth article, concerning the factors whom his catholic majeſty is to appoint.

XXX. That if the amount of the gain made, during the firſt five years, does exceed the ſum which the aſſientiſts are to advance, and ſhall advance, for his catholic majeſty, together with the intereſt of eight per cent. which is to be included and made good in the manner above-mentioned, the aſſientiſts are to reimburſe themſelves in the firſt place what they ſhall have advanced, with all the intereſt, and then to pay to his catholic majeſty the remainder of the profit that ſhall come to his ſhare, together with the duties upon negroes annually imported, without any delay or impediment; which practice is likewiſe to be obſerved and continued every five years ſucceſſively, during the term of this aſſiento.

XXXI. That whereas the ſaid aſſientiſts have offered, by the third article of this contract, to advance 200,000 pieces of eight in the manner therein expreſſed, they ſhall not be reimburſed the ſame, till the end of the firſt 20 years of this aſſiento, as is mentioned in the ſaid third article.

XXXII. That, from and after the determination and fulfilling of this aſſiento, his catholic majeſty does grant to the aſſientiſts the ſpace of three years to adjuſt their accounts, and gather in all their effects in the Indies, and make up a balance of the whole; during which term of three years, the ſaid aſſientiſts, their factors, agents, and others employed by them, ſhall enjoy the ſame privileges and immunities, as are granted to them for the term of this contract.

XXXIII. That all the debtors to the aſſientiſts ſhall be compelled and forced to pay their debts, by taking them and their goods in execution, theſe debts being conſidered upon the ſame foot as thoſe due to his catholic majeſty himſelf; who declares them as ſuch, that they may be the more effectually recovered.

XXXIV. That it being requiſite for the ſupport and ſubſiſtence of the negro ſlaves, who ſhall be ſet on ſhore in the ports of the Weſt-Indies, as likewiſe of all the perſons employed in this commerce, to keep conſtantly magazines filled with cloathing, medicines, proviſions, and other neceſſaries, in all the factories that ſhall be eſtabliſhed, for the more eaſy and better management of this aſſiento; as alſo with all naval ſtores, for the repairing of, and furniſhing the ſhips and veſſels employed in its ſervice; his catholic majeſty will pleaſe to allow them, from time to time, to bring from Europe, or her Britannic majeſty's colonies in North America, directly to the ports and coaſts of the northern ſea of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, where there ſhall be royal officers, or their deputies, and likewiſe to the river of Plata or Buenos-Ayres, cloathing, medicines, proviſions, and naval ſtores, for the uſe only of the aſſientiſts, their negroes, factors, ſervants, mariners, and ſhips; and that they may import the ſame in ſmall veſſels, of about 150 tons.

XXXV. For the refreſhing and preſerving in health the negro ſlaves, which they ſhall import into the Weſt-Indies, after ſo long and painful a voyage, and to prevent any contagious illneſs or diſtemper amongſt them, the factors of this aſſiento ſhall be allowed to hire ſuch parcels of land as they ſhall think fit, in the neighbourhood of the places where the factories ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in order to cultivate the ſaid lands and make plantations, in which they may raiſe freſh proviſions for their relief and ſubſiſtence; which cultivating and improvement is to be performed by the inhabitants of the country and the negro ſlaves, and not by any others; nor may any miniſters of his catholic majeſty hinder them, provided they keep to this rule.

XXXVI. That leave ſhall be granted to the aſſientiſts to ſend a ſhip of 300 tons to the Canary iſlands, and to carry from thence ſuch fruits as are cuſtomarily taken on board there for America, purſuant to what was allowed to Don Bernardo Franciſco Marin, by the 26th article of his aſſiento, and by the 21ſt article of the aſſiento of the Guinea company of Portugal, for one time only, during the continuance of this aſſiento.

XXXVII. That orders ſhall be diſpatched for the publication, in all the ports of America, of an indulto for the negroes unduly imported, from the day that this aſſiento is to take place; with free liberty to the factors to lay an indulto on them, at what time and price they ſhall think fit; and that the produce of this indulto ſhall be applied to the benefit of the aſſientiſts, who ſhall be obliged to pay to his catholic majeſty the regular duties of 33 pieces of eight, and one third of a piece of eight, for each negro, at the time that the indulto is laid.

XXXVIII. That for the more expeditious diſpatch of this affair his majeſty will eſtabliſh a junta of three miniſters, ſuch as he ſhall think moſt proper, who, with the aſſiſtance of the fiſcal and ſecretary of the council of the Indies, ſhall hear and take cognizance (excluſive of all others) of all matters and cauſes relating thereunto, and that the ſaid junta ſhall lay before his majeſty what ſhall occur to them, in the ſame manner as was practiſed for the French company.

XXXIX. That all the conceſſions in former aſſientos, to Don Domingo Grillo, the conſulado of Seville, Don Nicolas Porcio, Don Bernardo Marin y Guſman, the companies of Portugal and France, not being contrary to the contract, ſhall be underſtood and declared to be in its favour, as if they were herein literally inſerted; and that all the orders that have, at any time, been diſpatched in favour of thoſe fore-mentioned aſſientiſts ſhall be granted to theſe, whenever they ſhall aſk them, without any doubt or difficulty.

XL. That, in caſe of a declaration of war (which God forbid) of the crown of Great-Britain againſt that of Spain, or of Spain againſt Great-Britain, this aſſiento is to be ſuſpended; however, the aſſientiſts are to be ſuffered to remove with all ſecurity (during the ſpace of one year and an half, from the time of the declaration of ſuch rupture) all their effects, and to bring them home freely, in ſuch of their ſhips as ſhall then happen to be in the ports of the Indies, or in thoſe belonging to Spaniards; with this condition, that, if they ſhould bring them to the ports of Spain, they may freely carry them away again, as if the aſſiento was yet in force; it being firſt made to appear, that they are the produce of the negro trade. And it is farther declared, that if it ſhould happen that the crowns of Spain and England, or either of them, jointly or ſeparately, ſhall enter upon a war with other nations, in ſuch caſe the ſhips employed in this aſſiento are to have paſſes, and carry flags with different arms from what are uſually borne by the Engliſh or Spaniards, ſuch as his catholic majeſty ſhall pleaſe to make choice of; in order to the ſecuring of which, her Britannic majeſty will take upon her to ſollicit and obtain, that in the enſuing general treaty of peace an expreſs article may be inſerted, that all the princes may take notice of it.

XLI. That all the contents of this preſent contract ſhall be fully, and ſincerely, and punctually executed, for the term of 30 years, during which this aſſiento is to continue, and the three years farther, which are allowed to the aſſientiſts for the getting in their effects, and balancing their accounts, as has been already mentioned.

XLII. And finally, his majeſty grants to the ſaid aſſientiſts, their agents, factors, miniſters, officers civil and military, as well at ſea as at land, all the favours, freedoms, privileges, and exemptions, that have ever been granted to any former aſſientiſts, without any reſtriction or limitation, ſo far as they are not contrary to what is agreed and expreſſed in the foregoing articles; which the aſſientiſts do likewiſe oblige themſelves to accompliſh, and execute entirely and punctually.

Beſides the foregoing articles, ſtipulated on behalf of the Engliſh company, his catholic majeſty conſidering the loſſes which former aſſientiſts have ſuſtained, and upon this expreſs condition, that the ſaid company ſhall not carry on nor attempt any unlawful trade, directly nor indirectly, under any pretence whatſoever; and to manifeſt to her Britannic majeſty how much he deſires to pleaſe her, and to confirm more and more a ſtrict and good correſpondence, he has been pleaſed, by his royal decree of the 12th of March, in this preſent year, to allow, to the company of this aſſiento, a ſhip of 500 tons yearly, during the 30 years of its continuance, to trade therewith to the Indies; in which his catholic majeſty is to partake a fourth part of the gain, as in the aſſiento; beſides which fourth, his catholic majeſty is to receive 5 per cent. out of the neat gain of the other three parts which belong to England: upon this expreſs condition, that they may not ſell the goods and merchandizes, which each of theſe ſhips ſhall carry, but only at the time of the fair. And, if any of theſe ſhips ſhall arrive in the Indies before the flota's and galleons, the factors of the aſſiento ſhall be obliged to land the goods and merchandize (with which they ſhall be laden) and put them into warehouſes that ſhall be locked with two keys; one of which to remain with the royal officers, and the other with the factors of the company; to the end the ſaid goods and merchandize may be ſold, during the continuance of the ſaid fair only; and they are to be free of all duties in the Indies.

Given at Madrid, the 26th of March, 1713.

I, The King.

REMARKS.

We having promiſed to incorporate throughout this work our treaties of commerce, we judged that it might be expected this of the aſſiento ſhould not be omitted, notwithſtanding its ceſſation with Spain, according to the tenour of the treaty of

of Aix-la-Chapelle. For, as this contract has ſhifted hands from time to time, it may one day be brought about in the like manner again; and, therefore, the treaty, and the nature of it, ſhould be recorded, we apprehend, in a work of this kind, in order to have recourſe to upon any future occaſion.

A ſhort hiſtory of the aſſiento, with remarks on its nature and tendency.

Although I have already declared my diſapprobation of the ſlave trade in general, yet, from the nature of this work, I am under the neceſſity of deſcribing the ſtate of this trade, as well as of others, and to ſhew what was, as well as what is, its preſent ſituation and circumſtances, in regard both to the Spaniards and ourſelves.

The Spaniards having in a manner deſtroyed the natural inhabitants of Spaniſh America, they have been many years, and ſtill are, obliged to perform the work of their mines, and other laborious buſineſs, by negroes, of which they could ſcarce ever obtain the number they have wanted; and it is certain, if they were fully ſupplied, they would get yearly above twice the ſilver, perhaps, they now do, or have done, for many years paſt.

It muſt be confeſſed they have uſed variety of meaſures to obtain them. The Genoeſe undertook to ſupply them at a concerted price between them; for which end they formed a company called the aſſiento, who had their factors at Jamaica, Curaſoa, and Brazil.

By carrying on the negro trade in this manner with Spain, it was a prodigious tour before the negroes got to the Spaniſh mines; as firſt from Guinea to Jamaica; from thence to Porto-Bello, and then to Panama, where they were re-ſhipped on board the fleet, when returning to Callao; which was a voyage of four months at leaſt, for they have the wind in their teeth every league of this voyage. After ſtaying ſome little time at this laſt-mentioned port, the negroes were put on ſhip-board again, and ſent to Arica, which is a voyage of about a month more; and, when landed there, they could not have leſs than 150 miles to the mines: ſo that there was not above one negro in three that arrived at Potozi, or the adjacent mines, of thoſe that were originally bought by the Genoeſe factors for that end. Whereas the negroes that might be ſent from Buenos-Ayres, would be liable to none of the inconveniencies that theſe poor wretches ſuffered; as paſſing through ſo many different unhealthy climates, and ſo many tedious voyages by ſea, enough to wear out bodies of ſteel, eſpecially conſidering how the miſerable creatures are accommodated all the time, both with lodging and diet. But the natural way to carry on this trade with the Spaniards, to the moſt advantage of the aſſientiſts, is certainly directly from the coaſt of Guinea to Buenos-Ayres, from whence they ſail four parts in five before the wind; and, when the negroes are landed, paſs through one of the moſt plentiful and healthieſt countries in the world, even in a manner to the mines mouth: ſo that one may venture to affirm, that, with careful management, they would not loſe one in 10*.

* Although, according to the foregoing aſſiento, the aſſientiſts had the liberty to ſend 1,200 negroes annually to Buenos Ayres, out of the 4,800 wherewith they were allowed to ſupply the Spaniards; yet, if they had been tolerated to have ſold double or treble that number there, it might have proved not only more to the benefit of the negro, but of the other parts of the contract.

The Genoeſe, by their ill method of management, made nothing of this contract; nor did their ſucceſſors, the Portugueze. After them, it fell into the hands of the French, who made ſo much of it, that they were enabled, by a computation made from the regiſters in Spain, to import into the French dominions no leſs than 204,000,000 of pieces of eight. Yet they at length overglutted the market, and became ſufferers, towards the concluſion thereof.

Upon the aſſiento's falling into Engliſh hands, we have not been able to make any great advantage by it, on account of the unſettled affairs of Europe for many years paſt, and our miſunderſtanding with the court of Spain, during the long Walpolian adminiſtration. See the article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, in regard to the aſſiento, &c.

Buenos-Ayres is ſituated upon the river of Plata, the mouth of which lies in 35° ſouth latitude; and the town of Buenos-Ayres is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the river, upon an angle of land, formed by a ſmall rivulet called Rio Chuelco.

The fertility of this country exceeds belief, ſays Monſieur Acarete du Biſcay, for their plains, which are the largeſt in the world, as being 50, and ſome 80 leagues in circumference, are ſo covered with all ſorts of cattle, that 'tis credible to none but thoſe who ſee them. To give an idea of this matter, I will only mention a device the Spaniards have there to hinder the landing of an enemy; which is, to drive ſo prodigious a number of bulls, cows, and horſes, to the ſhore-ſide, that they ſuppoſe it would be an impoſſible matter to force a way through them. This Monſieur Acarete du Biſcay affirms the inhabitants told him, when he was there.

The ſoil affords all that France and Italy can boaſt of, as to fruit or garden-ware; and for grains, wheat, barley, millet, &c. thrives no where better. Partridges, the ſame author ſays, are a penny a-piece; and beef, veal, mutton, veniſon, hares, rabbets, pullets, wild-fowl, &c. proportionably: and for health, which crowns all the other bleſſings, 'tis exceeded by no place upon the face of the earth, and for that reaſon was called Buenos-Ayres, or good air.

That this is the beſt way for Great-Britain to carry on the negro and any other trade to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, may be made appear by the plaineſt obſervations. For

There runs a noble highway from Buenos-Ayres to the province of Los Charcos, in which Potozi and the moſt conſiderable mines are found; and, as this province is the ſouthermoſt of the whole kingdom of Peru, ſo conſequently all South America may be ſupplied with goods or merchandizes of all kind they want this way, infinitely cheaper than any other now in uſe.

Further REMARKS.

Some have thought that the aſſiento for negroes being carried on by an excluſive company, either by a conſiderable corporation, or by any united company of merchants, who ſhould obtain that privilege from the court of Spain, is injurious to the other trading parts of the kingdom. But this ſeems be a miſtaken opinion; and, therefore, it may be uſeful to ſet people right upon this occaſion.

All nations have a natural right to regulate the trade and navigation of their diſtant colonies, by enacting ſuch laws within themſelves, and by making ſuch treaties with foreign nations, as they ſhall judge the moſt conducive to the general intereſt of their mother-countries.

From this principle it is that Great-Britain does not admit either of its own, or the ſubjects of any foreign nation, to carry on trade with the Britiſh colonies, but under the peculiar reſtriction and limitation of Britiſh law, and national treaties. The Spaniards, alſo, having an equal right to regulate the trade of their colonies in America, the ſubjects of no nation whatever can carry on a trade with thoſe colonies, but under the peculiar reſtriction and limitation of Spaniſh laws, and national treaties. To do otherwiſe is violating thoſe laws, or treaties; carrying on contraband commerce, and breaking friendſhip with that kingdom.

The Spaniards, as before obſerved, ſtanding in need of a conſtant ſupply of negroes to work their gold and ſilver mines in Peru and Mexico, and for other ſervile and laborious purpoſes, have been under the neceſſity of contracting with ſuch nations who were circumſtanced to ſupply their wants; they having no ſettlements of their own upon the coaſt of Africa.

The Engliſh having forts and ſettlements in Africa, which give them a right to carry on that trade, the South-Sea company, at the peace of Utrecht, obtained of the court of Spain an excluſive privilege to ſupply the Spaniſh colonies in America with negroes.

But, according to that contract, not only all the other ſubjects of Great-Britain were excluded from that trade, but the ſubjects of all other nations; no other traders being admitted either to carry negroes, or any other ſpecies of merchandize, to Spaniſh America, except in a way conſiſtent with treaties which ſubſiſt between Spain and other powers for that purpoſe: and thoſe other treaties oblige all, except the aſſientiſts for negroes, to carry their merchandize by the way of Old Spain to New, and there pay conſiderable duties on their outſet, and on their return; from which the reader may obſerve, by the aſſiento treaty, that the aſſientiſts were exempted.

From this ſtate of the caſe, we cannot be at a loſs to make a right judgment of the nature of the late Britiſh aſſiento, or of any future one that Spain may grant to the ſubjects of any particular nation, who are able to ſupply them; it being a peculiar contract made between Spain and ſuch aſſientiſts, to furniſh them with negroes, under certain terms and conditions: and, at the ſame time, to exclude all others whatſoever, as well all other the ſubjects of the ſame nation, who may obtain that contract, as the ſubjects of any other nation.

It is extraordinary that any one ſhould treat ſuch contract in the light of a monopoly, and injurious to the other traders of that nation who have no ſhare therein: for a monopoly implies nothing leſs than that the general intereſts of trade are thereby ſacrificed to the particular intereſt of a few. But this was neither the caſe of the late, nor is it that of the preſent, Britiſh aſſientiſts; becauſe the trading intereſt of Great-Britain in general never did, nor ever will, legally enjoy the privilege of ſupplying the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes. For, in the grant of ſuch a contract, Spain will never allow it but to certain particulars, excluſive of all other the ſubjects of that, or any other, nation; by reaſon that would prove the means of depriving the court of Spain of its royal revenues, which ariſe from the duties paid by other nations in carrying on their trade to the Spaniſh Indies, according to thoſe treaties, which are different in their nature from that of the aſſiento.

Since then, from the nature and circumſtances of this con-

tract, none but the particular contractors can enjoy it, and no nation in general ever did, or will; it is weak and abſurd to conſider it as monopolizing from others of the ſame nation what they have no right to: it is, indeed, taking ſuch a proportion of trade out of the ſcale of France, who poſſeſſed it before us, and throwing it into our own. That the aſſiento is a monopoly in this ſenſe is true: but ſuch a one that excludes foreign nations from trade, can never be judged detrimental to Britiſh ſubjects in general.

The Dutch enjoy a very lucrative monopoly of the ſpice trade of the Eaſt-Indies; a monopoly that excludes all other nations, as well as Dutchmen in general, from that valuable branch of trade. Let it be ſuppoſed this trade was to change hands, and to fall into thoſe of the Engliſh, on condition of being united to the trade of our Eaſt-India company, with their excluſive privileges and immunities: was this the caſe, I would aſk, Whether ſuch Britiſh monopoly would be detrimental to the Britiſh trading intereſt in general, by reaſon that a particular Britiſh company only poſſeſſed that trade? Would not this be a new acquiſition of trade to the kingdom, by taking ſuch a proportion out of the hands of the Dutch, and throwing it into our own? Could the trading intereſt of Great-Britain in general complain of the India company, as being any way prejudicial to their common intereſt, in depriving them of what they never before enjoyed? And, if the excluſive right in the ſpice trade was in the power of the Mogul, or any other prince, to grant to our India company, and it could not, conſiſtent with his intereſt, be granted to the ſubjects of Great-Britain in general, there could be no reaſon to complain that particulars ſhould poſſeſs it, excluſive of the whole.

To make this point more unexceptionably apparent. Our American plantations, at preſent, depend upon the labour of negroes for their various productions. If ever Great-Britain, by the wiles and machinations of her rivals, be rendered incapable of ſupplying her own plantations with negroes; ſhould we not be under the neceſſity of contracting with ſome other nation, who could ſupply them? Suppoſe a contract for this purpoſe was made either with the French or the Dutch, who, having ſettlements in Africa, might be capable of it; would not this be throwing ſuch an additional proportion of trade into the ſcale of the Dutch or the French, and taking the ſame out of our own, we having hitherto ſupplied ourſelves with negroes? If our neceſſity for negroes was ever ſo great, and our whole dependance for them was upon another nation; ſhould we not avoid, if poſſible, the granting ſuch contract to the ſubjects in general of ſuch nation, leſt, while they were exerciſing that contract, they ſhould ruin the whole trade of England to her own plantations?

Was this the caſe, can we ſuppoſe that ſuch nation would not be thoroughly ſenſible of this new acquiſition of commerce to their country, and that it was leſſening that of Great-Britain in the like proportion? Can we ſuppoſe that the trading ſubjects in general of ſuch nation would be ſo unwiſe as to grudge, or endeavour to deprive their country of, ſo valuable an addition of trade, becauſe ſuch were the peculiar circumſtances thereof, that they could not in general reap the benefit of it? England's giving ſuch a power to any other nation would be as ruinous and deſtructive of her trade, navigation, and revenues ariſing from her plantations, as it would be to the Spaniards, was that nation to leave the negro-contract free and open to the ſubjects in general of any nation who ſupplied it.

ASSIENTIST: thus the French call a perſon who is concerned, or has ſtock, in an aſſiento company. See the foregoing article.

ASSURANCE, or INSURANCE, a term in commerce, particularly foreign. It ſignifies a ſecurity, or aſſurance, given, in conſideration of a ſum of money paid, in hand, of ſo much per cent. to an inſurer, or aſſurer, to indemnify the inſured from ſuch loſſes as ſhall be ſpecified in the policy of aſſurance, ſubſcribed by the inſurer, or inſurers, for that purpoſe.

The rate given for ſuch inſurance is called the premio, or premium.

The policy is commonly printed, and muſt be upon ſtamped paper.

The form thereof is generally as follows:

In the name of God, Amen, A. B. of London,
as well in his own name, as for and in the name and names of all and every other perſon or perſons, to whom the ſame doth, may, or ſhall appertain, in part or in all, doth make aſſurance, and cauſeth himſelf, and them, and every of them, to be inſured, loſt or not loſt, from St Peterſburg in Ruſſia, to London,

upon any kind of goods and merchandizes whatſoever, loaden, or to be loaden, aboard the good ſhip called the William and Mary burden tons, or thereabouts, whereof is maſter, under God, for this preſent voyage, C. D, or whoever elſe ſhall go for maſter in the ſaid ſhip, or by whatſoever other name, or names, the ſame ſhip, or the maſter thereof is, or ſhall be, named, or called; beginning the adventure upon the ſaid goods and merchandizes, from immediately following the loading thereof aboard the ſaid ſhip at St Peterſburg *.

and ſo ſhall continue and endure, until the ſaid ſhip, with the ſaid goods and merchandizes whatſoever, ſhall be arrived at London,

and the ſame there ſafely landed. And it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid ſhip, in this voyage, to ſtop and ſtay at any ports or places whatſoever

without prejudice to this inſurance. The ſaid goods and merchandizes by agreement are, and ſhall be valued at

without further account to be given by the aſſurers for the ſame. Touching the adventures and perils which we the aſſurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in this voyage: they are of the ſeas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettiſons †, letters of mart and counter-mart, ſurpriſals, taking at ſea, arreſts, reſtraints and detainments of all kings, princes, and people of what nation, condition, or quality ſoever, barratry § of the maſter and mariners, and of all other perils, loſſes, and misfortunes that have, or ſhall, come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the ſaid goods and merchandizes, &c. or any part thereof. And, in caſe of any loſs or misfortune, it ſhall be lawful to the aſſurers, their factors, ſervants, and aſſigns, to ſue, labour, and travel for, in and about the defence, ſafeguard and recovery of the ſaid goods and merchandizes, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to this inſurance; to the charges whereof we the aſſurers will contribute each one according to the rate and quantity of his ſum herein aſſured. And it is agreed by us the inſurers, that this writing, or policy, of aſſurance, ſhall be of as much force and effect as the ſureſt writing, or policy of aſſurance, heretofore made in Lombard-ſtreet, or elſewhere, in London. And ſo we the aſſurers are contented, and do hereby promiſe and bind ourſelves, each one for his own part, our heirs, executors, and goods, for the true performance of the premiſſes, confeſſing ourſelves paid the conſideration due unto us for this aſſurance, by A. B. of London, at and after the rate of per cent.

In caſe of loſs, to abate per cent. [and, in time of war, they add, warranted to depart with convoy.]

In witneſs whereof we the aſſurers have ſubſcribed our names and ſums. Aſſured in London the

l. 100 I G. H, for one hundred pounds per me received.
l. 200 E. K, for two hundred pounds, ditto.

To which is added to the policies for merchandize at preſent the following:

N. B. Corn and fiſh are warranted free from all average, unleſs general, or the ſhip be ſtranded. Sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and ſkins, are warranted free from all average under five pounds per cent. all other goods, the ſhip and freight free from all average under three pounds per cent. unleſs general, or the ſhip be ſtranded.

* If the inſurance be made on a ſhip, the words in the policy are—Upon the body, tackle, apparel, ordnance, munition, artillery, boat, and other furniture in the good ſhip or veſſel, called, &c.——And N. B. is added—The ſhip and freight are warranted free from average under three pounds per cent. unleſs general, or the ſhip be ſtranded.

† Jettiſon, jetſon, or jetſan (from the French jetter, i. e. ejicere, to caſt away) a term ſignifying any thing thrown out of a ſhip, being in danger of a wreck, and by the waves drove on ſhore.

§ Barratry, or barretry, in a marine ſenſe, is when the maſter of a ſhip defrauds the owners or inſurers, whether by carrying the ſhip a different courſe to their orders, or by ſinking her, deſerting her, or embezzling the cargo.—The ſame is applicable to the mariners alſo, when they breed diſſenſions, and are guilty of any thing injurious to the ſhip or cargo, &c. Some derive it from the Latin baratro, a rogue, a gallows; others from the Italian barrataria, corruption, or bribery; and others from the old French word barat, a trick.

This is the form when the aſſurance is made by a number of private or unincorporated underwriters, who reſort to private offices for that purpoſe; and theſe policies are duly entered, or regiſtered, in theſe offices, as remaining teſtimonies and vouchers of ſuch tranſaction.

There are, beſides theſe private offices, two corporations eſtabliſhed by act of parliament in the city of London, for this purpoſe.—The one called the Royal Exchange Aſſurance, and the other the London Aſſurance; the nature and cauſe of whoſe inſtitution I ſhall give an account of preſently.

In the 43d of Elizabeth it was lawful for the lord chancellor to award under the great ſeal one ſtanding commiſſion, to be renewed yearly at leaſt, for the deciſion of differences ariſing upon policies of aſſurance in London; which commiſſion was directed to the judge of the admiralty, the recorder of London, two doctors of the civil law, two common lawyers, and eight

eight merchants; which commiſſioners were to meet weekly, and to have power to ſummon and examine witneſſes, and hear and determine all cauſes in a ſummary way, ſubject to appeal to the lord Chancellor, &c. And, in the 13th and 14th of Charles II, ſeveral additional privileges were granted to this court, which was a court of equity as well as of law; but, at preſent, there is no ſuch court in being, and cauſes of this nature are tried in the ordinary courts of law.

The Origin of the LONDON and the ROYAL EXCHANGE Aſſurance Companies, for Shipping and Merchandizes.

In the year 1720, the two companies of aſſurance, that of the Royal Aſſurance, headed by the Lord Onſlow, and that of the London Aſſurance by the Lord Chetwynd, firſt had their eſtabliſhment.

Thoſe who projected them, had been very induſtrious to beſpeak the countenance of the Houſe of Commons, for which they had cauſed two letters to be printed and given to the members. But, theſe and all other ſollicitations having proved ineffectual, the managers for the two companies had recourſe to other expedients; and, underſtanding that the civil liſt was conſiderably in arrears (for which no proviſion had been, or could conveniently be made by the parliament, becauſe the grand committee of ſupply had been inadvertently diſmiſſed) they offered to the miniſtry 600,000 l. towards the diſcharge of that debt, in caſe they might obtain the king's charter, with the parliamentary ſanction for the eſtabliſhment of their reſpective companies.

The miniſtry, being at a loſs for means to pay the civil liſt debt, readily embraced the offer, and, Mr Craggs having the day before prepared the leading members of the Houſe of Commons, Mr Aiſlabie preſented, May the 4th, to the houſe, the following meſſage:

'His majeſty having received ſeveral petitions from great 'numbers of the moſt eminent merchants of the city of 'London, humbly praying that he would be graciouſly 'pleaſed to grant them letters patent, for erecting corpora-'tions to aſſure ſhips and merchandize; and the ſaid mer-'chants having offered to advance and pay a conſiderable 'ſum of money for his majeſty's uſe, in caſe they may ob-'tain letters patents accordingly: his majeſty being of opi-'nion, that erecting two ſuch corporations, excluſive only 'of all other corporations and ſocieties for aſſuring of ſhips 'and merchandizes, under proper reſtrictions and regula-'tions, may be of great advantage and ſecurity to the trade 'and commerce of the kingdom, is willing and deſirous to 'be ſtrengthened by the advice and aſſiſtance of this houſe, 'in matters of this nature and importance. He therefore 'hopes for their ready concurrence, to ſecure and confirm 'the privileges his majeſty ſhall grant to ſuch corporations, 'and to enable him to diſcharge the debts of his civil go-'vernment, without burdening his people with any new aid 'or ſupply.'

Purſuant to the meſſage, a bill was brought in to enable his majeſty to grant letters of incorporation to the two companies, which paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent.

THE ORIGIN OF THE TWO ASSURANCES COMPANIES, ESTABLISHED IN THE CITY OF LONDON.

By 6 Geo. I. c. 18. His majeſty was impowered to grant two charters for aſſurance of ſhips and merchandize, &c. and to incorporate the adventurers, in conſideration of the before-mentioned ſum of money, by them to be advanced. The ſtatute runs:

Sect. 1. It ſhall be lawful for his majeſty, by two charters, to grant ſuch perſons, who ſhall be named therein, and admitted as members into the ſaid corporations, ſhall be each a ſeparate body politic and corporate, for the aſſurance of ſhips and merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea, or for lending money upon bottomry. And the ſaid corporation ſhall have power to chuſe their governors, directors, and other officers; and the governors and directors ſhall continue in their office for three years; and, in caſe of death or removal, be ſupplied as ſhall be preſcribed in the charters; and each of the ſaid corporations ſhall be capable by law to purchaſe lands, not exceeding 1000 l. per ann.

Sect. 4. Each of the two corporations ſhall be obliged to cauſe ſuch ſtock of ready money to be provided, as ſhall be ſufficient to anſwer all juſt demands for loſſes, and ſhall ſatisfy all ſuch demands; and, in caſe of refuſal or neglect, the parties aſſured may bring action of debt, &c. in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, in which the plaintiffs may declare, that the ſame corporation is indebted to them in the monies demanded, and have not paid the ſame according to this act.

Sect. 6. The corporations, in general courts, may raiſe ſuch capital ſtocks, either by taking ſubſcriptions of particular perſons, or by calls of money from their members, or by ſuch other ways, as to ſuch general courts ſhall ſeem expedient; and all ſubſcribers ſhall have a ſhare in the capital ſtock, and ſhall be admitted members, but no perſon ſhall be intitled to any greater ſhare in the ſtock, than the money which they ſhall have paid.

Sect. 7. The corporations ſhall have power, in their general courts, to call in from their members any farther ſums as ſhall be adjudged neceſſary; and, in caſe any member ſhall refuſe to pay his ſhare at the times appointed, by notice in the Gazette, and upon the Royal Exchange, the corporation may not only ſtop the dividends payable to ſuch member, but alſo ſtop the transfers of the ſhares of ſuch defaulter, and charge him with intereſt at 8 per cent. per ann. and, if the principal and intereſt ſhall be unpaid three months, the corporations, or their courts of directors, may authorize perſons to ſell ſo much of the ſtock of ſuch defaulter, as will ſatisfy the ſame; and the money ſo called in ſhall be deemed capital ſtock. Nevertheleſs, the corporations in a general court may cauſe any ſums called in to be divided amongſt the then members, and the ſhares in the capital ſhall be proportionably abated.

Sect. 8. For enabling the corporation to lend money on parliamentary ſecurities, they ſhall have power to borrow money upon bonds, under their common ſeal, at ſuch intereſt, for any time not leſs than ſix months, as they ſhall think fit, ſo as the principal ſhall not exceed the principal monies then owing to them on ſuch parliamentary ſecurities; and ſuch bonds ſhall not be chargeable with ſtamp duties.

Sect. 9. The ſhares in the capital ſtock ſhall be transferrable and deviſable; and their bonds ſhall be aſſignable and recoverable, as his majeſty by the charters ſhall preſcribe; and the capital ſtock ſhall be adjudged a perſonal, and not a real eſtate, and ſhall go to the executors, and not to the heir.

Sect. 10. The ſtock ſhall be exempted from taxes, and no governor, director, or other officer of the corporations, ſhall for that cauſe be diſabled from being a member of parliament, nor in reſpect of ſuch ſhare be liable to be a bankrupt; and no ſtock in the corporations ſhall be ſubject to foreign attachment by the cuſtom of London, or otherwiſe.

Sect. 11. His majeſty, by the ſaid charters, may grant to each of the corporations power to make by-laws, and ſuch farther powers relating to the aſſurance of ſhips, &c. or lending money upon bottomry, as to him ſhall ſeem meet.

Sect. 12. All other corporations, and all partnerſhips for aſſuring ſhips or merchandizes at ſea, or for lending money upon bottomry, ſhall be reſtrained from underwriting any policies, or making any contracts for aſſurance of ſhips or merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea, and from lending money by way of bottomry; and if any corporation, or perſons acting in ſuch partnerſhip (other than one of the two corporations to be eſtabliſhed) ſhall underwrite any ſuch policy, or make ſuch contract for aſſurance of ſhips, &c. or agree to take any premium for ſuch policies, every ſuch policy ſhall be void, and every ſum ſo underwritten ſhall be forfeited, and may be recovered; one moiety to the uſe of the crown, the other to the perſon who ſhall ſue for the ſame in any court of record at Weſtminſter. And if any corporation, or perſons acting in ſuch partnerſhip, agree to lend money by way of bottomry contrary to this act, the ſecurity ſhall be void, and ſuch agreement ſhall be adjudged an uſurious contract: nevertheleſs, any particular perſon ſhall be at liberty to underwrite policies, or may lend money by way of bottomry, ſo as the ſame be not on the account or riſque of a corporation, or of perſons acting in partnerſhip.

Sect. 13. If any perſon ſhall forge the common ſeal of either of the corporations, or counterfeit or alter any policy or obligation under the common ſeal, or ſhall offer to diſpoſe of, or pay away, any ſuch counterfeited or altered policy, &c. knowing the ſame to be ſuch, or ſhall demand the money therein contained of either of the corporations, knowing ſuch policy, &c. to be counterfeited, &c. with intent to defraud the corporation, or any other perſon, ſuch offender being convicted, ſhall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

Sect. 14. No perſon ſhall be capable of being elected governor, ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or director, of either of the ſaid corporations, during the time he ſhall be governor, &c. of the other corporation; and, if any governor, &c. or member of either of the ſaid corporations, having any ſhare in the capital ſtock of that corporation, ſhall in his own name, or in the name of any other, purchaſe any ſhare in the ſtock of the other corporation, the ſhare ſo purchaſed ſhall be forfeited; one moiety to the uſe of his majeſty, the other to the proſecutor, to be recovered as before-mentioned.

Sect. 15. Upon three years notice to be printed in the Gazette, and affixed upon the Royal Exchange, by authority of parliament, at any time within 31 years, to be reckoned from the dates of the two charters, and upon payment by parliament to the corporations of the ſums of 300,000 l. which the corporations were to pay to his majeſty without intereſt, the corporations ſhall ceaſe; and any vote of the Houſe of Commons, ſignified by the Speaker in writing, to be inſerted in the Gazette, and affixed on the Royal Exchange, ſhall be deemed ſufficient notice.

Sect. 16. If, after the expiration of 31 years, his majeſty ſhall judge the farther continuance of the ſaid corporations

to be hurtful to the public, it ſhall be lawful, by letters patents under the great ſeal, to make void the ſame corporations; that the ſame ſhall become void accordingly without any inquiſition, ſcire facias, &c.

Sect. 17. In caſe the corporations ſhall be redeemed within 31 years, or be revoked by letters patents after 31 years, the ſame corporations, or any corporation with like powers, &c. ſhall not be grantable again.

Sect. 16. It ſhall be lawful for the South-Sea company, and for the Eaſt-India company, to lend on the bottom of any ſhip, and on the goods on board any ſhip, in the ſervice of the ſaid companies reſpectively, to any captains, or other perſons employed in the ſervice of the companies, any money by way of bottomry, this act notwithſtanding.

Sect. 29. If any governor, or member of either of the corporations, ſhall, on account of the ſaid corporations, lend to his majeſty money by way of loan, or anticipation on any part of the revenues, other than ſuch funds on which a credit of loan ſhall be granted by parliament, the ſaid governor, &c. or other members conſenting to ſuch loan, being convicted thereof, ſhall forfeit treble the value of the ſums ſo lent; one fifth part to the informer, to be recovered in any court of record at Weſtminſter, by action of debt, &c. and the reſidue to be diſpoſed of to public uſes, as ſhall be directed by parliament.

Stat. 7 Geo. I. cap. 27. ſect. 26. The corporation, called the London Aſſurance, having paid into the Exchequer 111,250 l. in part of 300,000 l. and having covenanted to pay 38,750 l. the farther part thereof in three months, and the corporation, called the Royal Exchange Aſſurance, having done the like, the reſidue of the ſaid ſums, amounting together to 300,000 l. ſhall be releaſed.

By ſtat. 8 Geo. 1. cap. 15. ſect. 25. Where the Royal Exchange Aſſurance and the London Aſſurance are ſubjected to pay double damages beſides coſts, the plaintiffs ſhall recover againſt them only ſingle damages and coſts.

By ſtat. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. ſect. 43. On all actions of debt againſt either of the corporations, called the Royal Exchange Aſſurance and the London Aſſurance, upon any policies under the common ſeal, for the aſſuring of any ſhip or merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea, it ſhall be lawful for the ſaid corporations to plead generally, that they owe nothing to the plaintiff; and in all actions of covenant againſt either of the ſaid corporations upon any policy under the common ſeal, for the aſſuring any ſhip or merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea, it ſhall be lawful for each of the corporations to plead generally, that they have not broke the covenant in ſuch policy contained; and, if thereupon iſſue be joined, it ſhall be lawful for the jury to give ſuch part only of the ſum demanded, if it be an action of debt, or ſo much in damage, if it be an action of covenant, as it ſhall appear upon the evidence, that the plaintiff ought in juſtice to have.

Sect. 44. When any veſſel or merchandizes ſhall be inſured, a policy duly ſtamped ſhall be iſſued or made out, within three days at fartheſt; and the inſurer, neglecting to make out ſuch policy, ſhall forfeit 100 l. to be recovered and divided as other penalties may be, by the laws relating to the ſtamp duties; and all promiſſary notes for aſſurances of ſhips or merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea, are declared void.

The policies of aſſurance are now a-days ſo general, that almoſt all thoſe curious queſtions that former ages, and the civilians according to the marine law, and the common lawyers too, have controverted, are now out of debate; ſcarce any misfortune that can happen, or proviſion to be made, but the ſame is taken care for in the policies that are uſed at preſent; for they inſure againſt heaven and earth, ſtorms, enemies, pirates, rovers, &c. or whatſoever detriment ſhall happen, or come to the thing inſured, is provided for.

Aſſurances are of various ſorts, ſome being to places certain, others general: thoſe that are made to places certain, are commonly upon goods laden, or to be laden aboard outward, and until the ſame adventure ſhall be laid aſhore at ſuch a port.

Or upon goods laden, or to be laden, homeward, in ſuch a ſhip, till the adventure ſhall likewiſe be landed.

Or elſe upon goods out and in, with liberty to touch at all ports as are mentioned in the policy.

So likewiſe on ſhips that go trading voyages, as round to Cadiz, and that it ſhall be lawful, after the ſhip's delivery of the goods there, to take in at the ſame port another cargo, and with that proceed to the Weſt-Indies, or other ports and back again to Cadiz, and from thence to London; this policy, being general and dangerous, ſeldom procures ſubſcriptions, or at leaſt very chargeable ones.

As goods and merchandizes are commonly inſured, ſo likewiſe are the ſhips, their tackle and furniture: but, in regard there ſeldom happens a voyage but ſomewhat is miſſing or loſt, the premium commonly runs higher than for merchandize.

Aſſurances may be made on goods ſent by land, ſo likewiſe on hoys and the like, and may be made on the heads of men; as if a man is going for the Streights, and perhaps is in ſome fear that he may be taken by the Moors or Turkiſh pirates, and ſo made a ſlave, for the redemption of whom a ranſom muſt be paid, he may advance a premium accordingly upon a policy of aſſurance; and, if there be a caption, the aſſurer muſt anſwer the ranſom, that is ſecured to be paid on the policy.

Remarks.

Here follow ſome obſervations in regard to aſſurances on ſhipping and merchandizes, and ſome of the principal caſes relating thereto, as they have been adjudged in our courts of law.

If the perſon whoſe name is uſed in the aſſurance, be in time of war taken to be no friend to the ſtate, there is danger to pay the aſſurance, if, after the ſubſcription of the aſſurer, the goods ſhould be arreſted and made forfeited, to anſwer the ſame to the prince, as it often happens *. Lex. Mercat. by Malines, and Molloy de jure marit.

* If this be law, how does it conſiſt with the inſurance of the ſhipping and merchandize of enemies in times of war?

If goods are ſtolen or embezzled on ſhipboard, the maſter, not the aſſurer, is reſponſible. So if the goods be loſt in default of the pilot †. Lex Mercat. Malines.

† Here we ſee, that an indemnification from theft, in the policy, is liable to exception.

Thoſe aſſurances are moſt dangerous, when there are theſe words inſerted, loſt or not loſt; which is commonly done, when a ſhip hath been long miſſing, and no tidings can be had; the premio (eſpecially in time of war) will run very high, ſometimes 30 or 40 per cent. and though it happens, at the time that the ſubſcription is made, the ſhip is caſt away, yet the aſſurers muſt anſwer.

But, if the party that cauſed the aſſurance to be made, ſaw the ſhip wrecked, or had certain intelligence thereof, ſuch ſubſcription will not oblige, the ſame being accounted a mere fraud ‡. Locinius, lib. 2. cap. 5. § 9, 10.

‡ This ſhews, that inſurers ought to caſt about for the beſt intelligence.

So likewiſe if the aſſured, having a rotten veſſel, ſhall aſſure upon the ſame more than ſhe is worth, and afterwards give order that, going out of the port, ſhe ſhould be ſunk or wrecked, this will be fraudulent, and not oblige the aſſurers to anſwer. Arthur Stockden's caſe. Mich. 26. Car. II. in B. R. Afterwards convicted by information for the fraud.

One having a doubtful account of his ſhip that was at ſea, viz. that a ſhip, deſcribed like his, was taken, inſured her, without giving any information to the inſurers of what he had heard, either as to the hazard, or circumſtances, which might induce him to believe that his ſhip was in great danger, if not actually loſt.

The inſurers bring a bill for an injunction, and to be relieved againſt the inſurance as fraudulent.

Lord chancellor declared, That the inſured had not dealt fairly with the inſurers in this caſe; he ought to have diſcloſed to them what intelligence he had of the ſhip's being in danger, and which might induce him, at leaſt, to fear that it was loſt, though he had no certain account of it, for, if this had been diſcovered, it is impoſſible to think, that the inſurers would have inſured the ſhip at ſo ſmall a premium, ſo that the concealing of this intelligence is a fraud.

Wherefore decreed the policy be delivered up with coſts, but the premium to be paid back, and allowed out of the coſts. This was in the caſe of Da Coſta verſus Scandret. The ſame point was determined by Lord Macclesfield in the following term, in the caſe of Weaver verſus Fowler. 2 P. Williams, 170.

In the year 1678, one Newnham, Perkins, and Stoakes were owners of a veſſel called the May-flower-ketch, the veſſel coming laden with wines, on the account of Fierbraſſe and Stone, to the Iſle of Wight; Perkins, being then in the ſame place, contrives with one Ivy, the maſter, to ſell the freighters goods privately; and, that being effected, to go out to ſea ſome ſmall diſtance from the iſle, and there privately ſink the veſſel, and pretend ſhe ſtruck, and then foundered by the extremity of weather. The plot being laid, Perkins haſtens up to London, and makes a policy of aſſurance on the veſſel; which being done, he remits his orders to Ivy, to put in execution his contrivance, who accordingly did; and, the goods, or the beſt of them, being diſpoſed of, ſtands out to ſea, and then with his own hands, by the force of an iron crow, makes a hole in the hold, and then in his long-boat, (the crew perceiving the veſſel to be ſinking) conveys himſelf and mariners aſhore; Ivy remits up advice of the loſs, and Perkins, (as if he had never known any thing of the matter) demands the monies aſſured, and thereupon brings an action for the ſame; but, before the cauſe came to a trial, Fierbraſſe and Stone bring trover againſt Perkins, and thereupon the whole practice came out, and a verdict was had againſt the defendant, with this further, That, if Perkins would proceed on his action on the aſſurance, he muſt expect that this practice and fraud of his would totally poiſon his aſ-

ſurance;

ſurance; and thereupon, being well adviſed, never proceeded. Hill. 32 Car. II. B. R.

Thomas Knight, Eſq; againſt Richard Cambridge.

Cambridge, an inſurer, brought a writ of error upon a judgment given againſt him in the Common Pleas, in an action brought by the plaintiff upon a policy of inſurance of the ſhip Riga Merchant, at and from Port Mahon to London. And ſerjeant Brandthwaite for the plaintiff in error inſiſted, that the judgment was erroneous, becauſe the breach was ill aſſigned: becauſe the policy was, that the defendant Cambridge ſhould inſure the ſaid ſhip, among other things, againſt the barretry of the maſter, and all other dangers, damages. and misfortunes, which ſhould happen to the prejudice and damage of the ſaid ſhip; and the breach aſſigned was, that the ſhip in the ſaid voyage, per fraudem et negligentiam magiſtri navis prædictæ depreſſa et ſubmerſa fuit, et totaliter perdita et amiſſa fuit, et nullius valoris devenit.
This he inſiſted was not within the word, the meaning of the word barretry; but the breach ſhould have been expreſſed, that that the ſhip was loſt by the barretry of the maſter. Beſides, the owner of the goods has a remedy againſt the owners of the ſhip, for any prejudice he receives by the fraud, or neglect of the maſter; and therefore there is the leſs reaſon the inſurer ſhould be liable. Beſides, if the word barretry ſhould import fraud, yet it does not import neglect; and the fact here alledged is, that the ſhip was loſt by the fraud and neglect of the maſter. But the court was unanimouſly of opinion, that there was no occaſion to aver the fact in the very words of the policy, but, if the fact alledged came within the meaning of the words in the policy, it is ſufficient. Now barretry imports fraud, Du Freſne Gloſſar. verbo baratria, fraus, dolus. And he that commits a fraud, may properly be ſaid to be guilty of a neglect, viz. of his duty. Barretry of a maſter is not to be confined to the maſter's running away with the ſhip; and the general words in the policy ought to be conſtrued to extend to loſſes of the like nature as thoſe mentioned before: now loſſes ariſing from the fraud of the maſter are of the ſame nature, as if he had run away with the ſhip, ſuppoſing barretry was to be confined to that, which it is not, becauſe it imports any fraud. And judgment was affirmed, April 27, 1724. Lord Raymond 1349. So that, if the aſſurance is againſt the barretry of the maſter, and the breach aſſigned is, that the ſhip was loſt by the fraud and neglect of the maſter, this is proper; it is the meaning of the words of the policy, and it is not neceſſary to uſe the very words. See the article BARRETRY.

Green verſus Young.

In evidence upon the trial in an action upon a policy of inſurance, the caſe appeared to be, That the inſurers agreed to inſure the ſhip from her arrival at in Jamaica, during her voyage to London; and an embargo was laid upon the ſhip by the government; and afterwards they ſeized the ſhip, and converted it into a fire-ſhip, and offered to pay the owners. And the queſtion was, if this would excuſe the inſurers? and Holt, chief juſtice, ſeemed to incline, that it would not, and that it was within the words, detention of princes, &c. but he gave no abſolute opinion, becauſe the cauſe was referred to three foremen of the jury. In the ſame caſe he ſaid, that if a policy of aſſurance be made to begin from the departure of the ſhip from England, until, &c. and after the departure damage happens, &c. and then the ſhip deviates; though the policy is diſcharged from the time of the deviation, yet, for the damages ſuſtained before the deviation, the inſurers ſhall make ſatisfaction to the inſured. Lord Raymond 840. So that, if the government lay an embargo upon a ſhip, and afterwards ſeize her, and convert her into a fire-ſhip, the inſurers are liable.
A policy againſt reſtraint of princes will not extend to practices againſt the laws of countries, to a ſeizure for not paying cuſtom, and the like. 2 Vern. 176.

Goddard verſus Garrett.

The defendant had lent money on a bottomry bond, but had no intereſt in the ſhip or cargo; the money lent was 300 l. and he inſured 450 l. on the ſhip; the plaintiff's bill was to have the policy delivered up, by reaſon the defendant was not concerned in point of intereſt, as to the ſhip or cargo. Cur. Take it that the law is ſettled, that, if a man has no intereſt, and inſures, the inſurance is void, although it be expreſſed in the policy, intereſted or not intereſted; and the reaſon the law goes upon is, that theſe inſurances are made for the encouragement of trade, and not that perſons unconcerned in trade, nor intereſted in the ſhip, ſhould profit by it; and, where one would have benefit of the inſurance, he muſt renounce all intereſt in the ſhip. And the reaſon why the law allows that a man, having ſome intereſt in the ſhip or cargo, may inſure more, or five times as much, is, that a merchant cannot tell how much, or how little, his factor may have in readineſs to lade on board his ſhip. And it was ſaid, that the uſual intereſt allowed on bottomry was 3 l. per cent. per men-ſem, and you may inſure at 6 or 7 per cent. for the voyage: ſo, if this practice might be allowed, a man might be ſure to gain 30, or more, per cent. Per cur. Decree the policy of inſurance to be delivered up, to be cancelled.
Note, that, in this caſe, notice was taken in the policy, that it was to inſure money on bottomry.
Note alſo, that in this caſe, the ſhip ſurvived the time limited in the bottomry bond, and was loſt within the time limited in the policy. So, if inſurance good, the defendant might be intitled to the money on the bond, and alſo on the policy. 2 Vern. 269, 270.

The caſe of Le Pypre againſt Farr, on a policy of inſurance on goods by agreement valued at 600 l. and the inſured not to be obliged to prove any intereſt.

Lord chancellor ordered the defendant to diſcover what goods he put on board; for, although the defendant offered to renounce all intereſt to the inſurers, yet he referred it to a maſter to examine the value of the goods ſaved, and to deduct it out of the value, or ſum, of 600 l. at which the goods were valued by the agreement. 2 Vern. 716.

Harman againſt Vanhatton.

The defendant lent the plaintiff 250 l. on a bottomry bond, and afterwards inſured on the ſame ſhip; but the inſurance was larger, as to the voyage, there being liberty to go to other ports and places, than what were contained in the condition of the bottomry bond. The ſhip being loſt, the defendant recovered the money on the policy of inſurance, and alſo put the bottomry bond in ſuit: the ſhip, though loſt, had deviated from the voyage mentioned in the bond, in going to Virgin Gardo to buy ſalt.
The plaintiff brought his bill, pretending the defendant ought not to have a double ſatisfaction to recover both on the inſurance, and alſo on the bond, he having inſured only in reſpect of the money he had lent on bottomry, and had no other intereſt in the ſhip or cargo; and therefore the plaintiff would have had the benefit of the inſurance, paying the premium. Sed non allocatur. So that, if one lends money on a bottomry bond, and afterwards inſures on the ſame ſhip, and the ſhip is loſt, he ſhall have both the benefit of the inſurance, and the money due on the bond too.
The defendant having paid the premium, was intitled to the benefit of the policy, and run the riſque, whether the ſhip was loſt or not; and the inſurers might as well pretend to have aid of the bottomry bond, and to diſcount the money recovered thereon, as the plaintiff to have the money recovered on the policy, to eaſe the bottomry bond. So that paying the premium intitles the party to the benefit of the inſurance.
The plaintiff alſo charged, that the defendant had promiſed and agreed to deliver up the bond, on the plaintiff's making up the money recovered on the policy, as much as he lent on the bond, with intereſt and coſts, and proved ſuch offer and promiſe. Sed non allocatur. It was but nudum pactum, a voluntary offer, and on condition that the money was then paid, and it was not complied with. So that an offer to deliver up a bond upon terms not complied with is not binding; and, if made without conſideration, is nudum pactum. 2 Vern. 717, 718.
If a merchant inſures ſuch a ſhip generally, and in the policy it is expreſſed of ſuch a burthen, the ſhip happens then to be laden, and after miſcarries, the inſurer ſhall not anſwer for the goods, but only for the ſhip. Locinius, lib. ii. cap. 5. §. 7, 9, 10.
It matters not in the policy, whether the particular wares and goods are named, but generally the principal wares, and all other commodities laden or to be laden, for the inſured, or for his account, or for any other.
If a ſhip be inſured from the port of London to Cadiz, and, before the ſhip breaks ground, takes fire, and is burned, the aſſurers in ſuch caſe ſhall not anſwer, for the adventure begins not till the ſhip is gone from the port of London; but, if the words had been, At, and from the port of London, there they would upon ſuch a misfortune have been made liable. Mol. de Jure Marit.
If ſuch an aſſurance had been from London to Cadiz, and the ſhip had broke ground, and afterwards been driven by ſtorm to the port * of London, and there had took fire, the inſurers muſt have anſwered; for the very breaking of ground from the port of London was an exception of the voyage. Mol. de Jure Marit.

* The port of London extends from the North Foreland in the iſle of Thanet, over in a line to the Naſe in Eſſex, and from thence to London Bridge.

On the other hand, if a man at Cadiz inſures a ſhip from thence to London, if a loſs happens, the aſſurer, if he comes into England, ſhall anſwer by the common law; for though the place where the ſubſcription was made, and the premium given, was in a foreign country, yet that is not material; for the action that is brought, is grounded on the promiſe, which is tranſitory, and not local; and ſo it was adjudged, where the

the defendant, in conſideration of 10l. had inſured, that, if the plaintiff's ſhip and goods did not come ſafe to London, he would pay 100l. afterwards the ſhip was robbed on the ſea; and in an action brought for the 100l. the plaintiff had judgment, notwithſtanding the robbery, or loſs, was on the main ſea, and the ſubſcription out of the realm. Mol.

If, after a policy of aſſurance, a damage happens, and afterwards in the ſame voyage a deviation, yet the inſured ſhall recover for what happened before the deviation, for the policy is diſcharged from the time of the deviation only. Salk. 444. —Straache cited in Shower, 325.

If goods are inſured in ſuch a ſhip, and afterwards in the voyage it happens ſhe becomes leaky and crazy, and the ſupercargo and maſter, by conſent, become freighters of another veſſel for the ſafe delivery of the goods; and then, after her relading, the ſecond veſſel miſcarries*; the aſſurers are diſcharged: but, if there be theſe words, The goods laden to be tranſported and delivered at ſuch a place by the ſaid ſhip, or by any other ſhip, or veſſel, until they be ſafely landed, then the inſurers muſt anſwer the misfortune.

* This has much been doubted, and opinions of the court have generally inclined againſt the inſurers. Leg. ult. ad Rhod. Digeſt. Paulus, lib. xiv. tit. 2. §. 10.

If a man inſures 5000l. worth of goods, and he hath but 2000l. remitted; now, he having inſured a real adventure, by the law marine all the aſſurers muſt anſwer pro rata, if a loſs. But, by the opinion of ſome only, thoſe firſt ſubſcribers, who underwrit ſo much as the real adventure amounted to, are to be made liable, and the reſt remitting their premium (10s. per cent. deducted out of the ſame for their ſubſcriptions) are to be diſcharged*. Vide Grot. Introd. Jur. Holl. 212, 213.

* This is more the cuſtom of merchants than law.

Debts upon obligation with condition to pay ſo much money, if a ſhip returned within ſix months from Oſtend in Flanders to London, (which was more by a third part than the legal intereſt of the money) and, if ſhe do not return, then the obligation to be void. The defendant pleaded that there was a corrupt agreement between him and the plaintiff, and that, at the time of making of the obligation, that he ſhould have no more for intereſt than the law permits, in caſe the ſhip ſhould ever return; and avers that the bond was entered into by covin, to avoid the ſtatute of uſury. Per Hale, Clearly this bond is not within the ſtatute, for this is the common way of aſſurance; and, if this were void by the ſtatute of uſury, trade would be deſtroyed, for it is a caſualty whether ever ſuch a ſhip ſhall return or not; but he agreed the averment was well taken, becauſe it diſcloſed the manner of the agreement. Hardres, 418. Joy againſt Kent.

Action upon the caſe, upon a policy of aſſurance of goods from London to Naples; the adventure was to begin in time of the lading at London (dangers of the ſea only excepted) with this clauſe, Warranted to depart with convoy; the ſhip departed with convoy, but was ſeparated from the convoy by ſtreſs of weather, and put into Torbay, and was there detained by contrary winds; afterwards the maſter of the ſhip, expecting to meet with convoy, departed out of the harbour, but could not meet the convoy, being hindered by ſtreſs of weather, and was taken by the French. 1 Show. 320. 4 Mod. 58. 3 Lev. 320. Salk. 443.—Judgment pro Quer. Caſe upon a policy, which was to inſure the William galley, in a voyage from Bremen to the port of London, warranted to depart with convoy. The galley ſet ſail from Bremen, under convoy of a Dutch man of war, to the Elb, where they were joined with two other Dutch men of war, and ſeveral Dutch and Engliſh merchant-ſhips, whence they ſailed to the Texel, where they found a ſquadron of Engliſh men of war, and an admiral. After a ſtay of nine weeks, they ſet out from the Texel, and the galley was ſeparated in a ſtorm, and taken by a French privateer, taken again by a Dutch privateer, and paid 80l. ſalvage. And it was ruled by Holt, chief juſtice, that the voyage ought to be according to uſage, and that their going to the Elb, though in fact out of the way, was no deviation; for, till after the year 1703, there was no convoy for ſhips directly from Bremen to London. And the plaintiff had a verdict. Bond verſ. Gonſale, February 14, 1704, coram Holt, chief juſtice, at niſi prius at Guildhall. Salk. 445.

Warranted to depart with convoy, has been reſolved to import, by the uſage of merchants, a continuance with that convoy as long as may be. Lucas's Reports, 287.

A merchant inſures his goods from London to Sallee, and there to be landed. The factor, after arrival, having opportunity, ſells the cargo aboard the ſame ſhip, without ever unlading her; and the buyer agrees for the freight of thoſe goods to the port of Venice. Before ſhe breaks ground, the ſhip takes fire: the aſſured and buyer are abſolutely without remedy*; for the property of the goods becoming changed, and freight being contracted de novo, the ſame was as much as if the goods had been landed. Locin. l. ii. c. 5. §. 9.

* By the laws of Antwerp there is a time allotted, after the ſhip arrives at her port, how long the adventure is to be borne by the inſurers, which is about 15 days. Art. 13.

And ſo it is if the factor, after her arrival, had contracted for freight to another port, and the ſhip had happened to take fire, the aſſurers are hereby abſolutely diſcharged for ever.

If a ſhip be inſured from London to and blank being left by the lader, to prevent her ſurprize by the enemy, in her voyage ſhe happens to be caſt away; though there be private inſtructions for her port, yet the inſured ſit down by the loſs, by reaſon of the uncertainty. So if a blank is left in the policy for the value of the ſhip, or lading, if a loſs, and there be not words that may ſupply, the inſured may indanger the policy.

The taking of a ſhip, that is inſured, by pirates, is to be underſtood the perils of the ſea. Stiles, 132. 2 Roll's Abr. 248. Where goods are redeemed from a pirate, contribution muſt be paid by all, becauſe the redemption is made for the ſafety of all; but, if the pirate be once maſter of all, and yet take but ſome ſpecial goods, whether from ſhip or merchant, and not as a conſideration for ſparing the reſt, in this caſe, becauſe the remainder is not aſſured thereby, but freely ſpared, no contribution is to be made for the taken goods to charge any aſſurer with any part thereof. So contribution ſhall be made for goods ſpoiled by wet, or other accident: or, if it be needful to lighten a ſhip for her eaſier entry into harbour or channel, two parts of the loſs fall upon the goods, and the third upon the ſhip; unleſs the ſhip is more worth than the lading, and the charge of the goods be not the cauſe of her inability to enter, but ſome bad quality proceeding from the ſhip itſelf; or that otherwiſe it be provided in the charter-party. Lex Mercat. by Malines, p. 109. See the article AVERAGE.

* Indebitat. aſſumpſit pro præmio; upon a policy of aſſurance upon ſuch a ſhip, the defendant demurred ſpecially, becauſe he did not ſhew the conſideration certainly what the premium was, or how it became due, ſed non allocat', for it is as good as indebitat. pro quodam ſalario, which hath been adjudged good. 2 Levinz, 153. Fowlk v. Pinſacho.

* Indebitatus aſſumpſit is uſed in declarations and law proceedings, where one is indebted unto another in any certain ſum; and the law creates it: it is alſo an action thereupon.

Policy of aſſurance to warrant a ſhip for 12 months; the ſhip did not periſh within the time of 12 months, being accounted according to the months of January, February, &c. but within 12 months, reckoning 28 days to the month; reſolved that the policy was not forfeited. Cited in Sir Woollaſton Dixey's caſe, 1 Leon. 96.

After notice of loſs, the inſured, if he thinks fit, for that he hath inſured the moſt of his adventure, or that he would have the aſſiſtance of the inſurers, when there is hope of recovery of the adventure, he may then make a renunciation of the lading to the inſurers, and come in himſelf, in the nature of an inſurer, for ſo much as ſhall appear he hath borne of the adventure beyond the value inſured. Locinius, l. 2. c. 5. §. 8.

But, if the merchant ſhall not renounce, yet there is a power given in the policy for him to travel, purſue, and endeavour a recovery, if poſſible, of the adventure, after a misfortune, to which the aſſurers are to contribute; the ſame being but a trouble to give eaſe to the aſſurers.

If prohibited goods are laden aboard, and the merchant inſures upon the general policy, which always contains theſe words: Of the ſeas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettiſons, letters of mart and counter-mart, arreſts, reſtrainments, and detainments of kings and princes, and all other perſons, barretry of the maſter and mariners, and of all other perils, loſſes, and misfortunes whatſoever they be, and howſoever they ſhall happen to come, to the hurt and detriment of the goods and merchandize, or any part or parcel thereof; whether, if ſuch goods be lawfully ſeized as prohibited goods, the inſurers ought to anſwer? It is conceived they ought not, and the difference hath been taken, where the goods are lawful, at the time of lading, to be imported into that country for which they are conſigned; but by matter ex poſt facto, after the lading, they become unlawful, and after arrival are ſeized, there the aſſurers muſt anſwer, by virtue of the clauſe, And all other perils, &c. But if the goods were, at the time of lading, unlawful, and the lader knew of the ſame, ſuch aſſurance will not oblige the aſſurers to anſwer the loſs; for the ſame is not ſuch an aſſurance as the law ſupports, but is a fraudulent one. Molloy de Jure Maritim.

A policy was made from Cadiz to Vera-Cruz in New Spain, upon monies lent upon bottomry, and upon any kind of goods and merchandize whatſoever, laden aboard the good ſhip called the Noſtra Signora del Carmen and Mary Magdalen, the adventure beginning immediately from the lading before a day to come, and the monies from the time they were to be lent, and ſo to continue from Cadiz to Vera-Cruz, and after delivery, with proviſo to ſtay at any port or place in her voyage, and likewiſe to touch at Porto-Rico, and there to lade and unlade, without any prejudice to the aſſurance, the cargo being valued at 1700l. ſterling, without account, &c. againſt ſeas, men of war, fires, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettiſons, letters of mart and counter-mart, ſurprizals at ſea, arreſts, reſtraints, and detainments of all kings, princes, and people, of what nature, condition, or quality whatſoever. The ſhip,

ſhip, being laden at Cadiz, did depart towards Vera-Cruz; and, before arrival there, touching at Porto-Rico, the goods were there ſeized and arreſted. In an action brought upon the policy, the defendant came in and pleaded, That the ſhip, at her arrival in her voyage to the port of Rico, was laden with goods and merchandizes prohibited, and the ſame, and alſo the ſhip, did there become forfeited, by default of the proprietors, and was there ſeized and taken. The queſtion was, If the owners ſhould inſure, and then order prohibited goods to be laden, whether that an arreſt upon the ſame ſhould intitle them to a recovery? The ſecond objection was, If (as the defendant had pleaded his plea) the ſame was good? As to the firſt, the court did all incline, That the inſurance ought to be bona fide, i. e. the reſtraint ought to be of ſuch goods as by law were not reſtrainable; but ſurely that cannot be, for the intention of policies are to warrant the perils of all manner of goods, in all manner of caſes: ſo that, if there be a lading bona fide, be it prohibited, or not, the ſame, in caſe of loſs, ought to be anſwered, unleſs it were a fraudulent contrivance: but to the ſecond it was reſolved, that the plea was inſufficient; for, admitting the ſame ſhould not oblige the inſurer, yet, becauſe the defendant did not ſhew that the goods were laden either by the inſured, or by their factor, or order, otherwiſe the ſame ſhould not conclude them; for, perhaps, the maſter, or his mariners, or a ſtranger, might load them on board, without order; ſo that, upon the mere inſufficiency of the manner of pleading, and not of the matter, the court gave judgment for the plaintiff. Houbland verſ. Harriſon. Hill. 31, 32 Car. II. B. R. Judg. in Paſch. ſeq. Like judgment was given againſt Lethieullier adverſ. Houbland, Trin. 32 Car. II. in B. R. Rot. 168, in the ſecond caſe.

But if a merchant will freight out wool, leather *, and the like, or ſend out goods in a foreign bottom †, and then make a policy, the ſhip happens afterwards to be taken, by reaſon of which there becomes a forfeiture of ſhip and lading, the inſurers are not made ſubject to anſwer the damage; for the very foundation was illegal and fraudulent, and the law ſupports only thoſe aſſurances that are made bona fide; for, if otherwiſe, and men could be inſured againſt ſuch actions, they would deſtroy trade, which is directly to thwart the inſtitution and true intent of all policies.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 32. 14 Car. II. cap. 7.
† 12 Car. II. cap. 18.

But, if goods ſhould happen to be lawfully inſured, and afterwards the veſſel becomes diſabled, by reaſon of which they relade, by conſent of the ſupercargo, or merchant, into another veſſel, and that veſſel, after arrival, proves the ſhip of an enemy, by reaſon of which the ſhip becomes ſubject to ſeizure; yet, in this caſe, inſurers ſhall anſwer, for that this is ſuch an accident as is within the intention of the policy. Ritterſhuſ. ad Leg. Contract. 23. de Reg. Jur. cap. 18. p. 236, 237. Stypman dicto loco num. 335.

Several men lade aboard ſalt, without diſtinction, not putting them in ſacks, and the like. The ſhip arrives, the maſter delivers to their principals according to their bills of lading, as they come one by one. It falls out that ſome of the ſalt is waſhed, or loſt, by reaſon of the dampneſs of the ſhip, and that the two laſt men cannot receive their proportion. There are in this caſe theſe things to be conſidered:

1. Whether the maſter is bound to deliver the exact quantity?
2. Whether thoſe that have received this loſs can charge the aſſurers?
3. Whether the aſſurers can bring in the firſt men for a contribution, they having their ſalt delivered to them completely?

Certainly the maſter is not bound to deliver the exact quantity, nor is he obliged to redeliver the very ſpecifical ſalt, but only as men are to repay money, or corn, by diſtinction, in a bag, or ſack, and out of them; but, if the fault was in not pumping, keeping dry his deck, and the like, then è contra: though, perhaps, there may be a ſpecial agreement. Hill. 11 Jac. in C. B. Laſthow and Tomlinſon's caſe, Hobart, fol. 88.

Beſides, this is a peril of the ſea, which the maſter could not prevent, and of neceſſity he muſt deliver to one firſt before another.

As to the ſecond, it is no queſtion but the aſſurers ſhall anſwer; but whether they ſhall bring in the firſt men for contribution may be ſome doubt.

It has been conceived by ſome, that they ought not; for they delivered their ſalt to the maſter tanquam in creditum, and were not to expect the redelivery of the ſame ſpecifical ſalt. But, by others, it has been conceived they ought to contribute pro ratione; for, as goods of neceſſity, ſome muſt be ſtowed in the hold, and that ſuch goods ſeldom eſcape the peril of the ſea; ſo the reſt muſt of neceſſity contribute to that misfortune, and ſo make no diſtinction. See the article AVERAGES.

The bills of lading are very uſeful to ſettle the differences between the aſſurer and the aſſured, of which there are three parts; one ſent over ſea, the other left with the maſter, and the laſt remaining with the lader. See the article BILLS of LADING.

REMARKS.

For a more comprehenſive view of this ſubject, the nature of other points, which have affinity therewith, muſt alſo be well underſtood: ſuch as barratries, bottomries, averages, bills of lading, charter-parties, &c. and, indeed, the ſenſe of the marine law, as well as the eſtabliſhed cuſtoms and uſages of traders, as they concern owners, freighters, maſters of ſhips, and mariners, &c. For there being frequently ſo neceſſary a dependency and connection between theſe points, and ſuch an involution of circumſtances, that the evidence, in regard to caſes of inſurancing, cannot be come at, nor a right judgment made, without taking many, and ſometimes, perhaps, all of theſe things into due conſideration.

Inſurancing is a great encouragement to foreign commerce, ſeeing it takes the weight of the hazard off from individuals, and lays it upon numbers: yet theſe numbers are, upon the whole, gainers by undertaking the hazard, although aſſecurationis lucrum & damnum dependant à mera ſorte & fortuna, as Roccus ſays, de aſſecurationibus.

In caſe of a loſs, 'tis cuſtomary for the inſurer to pay but 98 l. for every 100 l inſured, or to have 2 per cent. abated, when he ſettles with the inſured, according to agreement in the policy.

As the inſurer has a right to the premium, when the agreement is made, that premium, whatever it is, makes a part of the money paid, in caſe of loſs: therefore,

At 10 per cent. premium, the inſured receives but 88 l.
15 — — — — — 83
20 — — — — 78
25 — — — — 73
30 — — — — 68
40 — — — — — 58

And ſo in proportion in the caſe of any other premium.

In order to ſhew the ſum neceſſary to be inſured, if the adventurer would cover, or make good his outlet, or firſt adventure, in caſe of a loſs, let 10 per cent. be the ſuppoſed premium on an 100 l. adventure. Then,

As 88 l. is to 100 l. ſo is 100 l. to l. 113 : 12 : 8, the ſum neceſſary to be inſured to make good 100 l.

As 88 l. is to 100 l. ſo is 10 l. to l. 11 : 7 : 3, the amount of inſurance.

All which is proved by the following example, viz.

The ſum to be inſured — —	l. 113 : 12 : 8	
Deduct 2 per cent. or reckon 98 l. for 100 l.		2 : 5 : 5
The inſurer pays, in caſe of a loſs, — —	l. 111 : 7 : 3	
Deduct inſurance on l. 113 : 12 : 8, at 10 per cent.		11 : 7 : 3
Remains the firſt coſt of the adventure —	l. 100 : 0 : 0	

And ſo as to the reſt of the articles, or any other adventure, or premium, on a ſingle voyage.

According to this example, the ſix articles of premium beforementioned, will be ſhewn by the following table *.

* In theſe tables there is no regard had to commiſſions, office-charges, intereſt of money, or riſque of inſurers, as they often vary according to circumſtances: for ſome people inſure themſelves, and pay no commiſſion; others employ their factors, and pay them ½ per cent. on the ſum inſured, and 1 or 2 per cent. on recovering loſſes.—The office receives 4 s. 6 d. for the policy, and ½ per cent. from the inſured upon ſettling loſſes; intereſt is ſeldom chargeable but in the caſe of long voyages.—Whatever theſe charges ſhall happen to be, they may be deducted, upon any computations, together with the 2 per cent. abated by the inſurer. The office-keeper keeps an account with the inſured and inſurer, and, with the conſent of the inſurer, retains in his hands one ſhilling in the pound, or five per cent. on ſuch premiums as he receives from the inſured.

Premiums.	Sums to be inſured to make good 100 l. on a ſingle voyage.	Abate 2 per cent.	Remains.	Deduct the inſurance, or premium, on the ſum inſured.	Remains.
At 10 l. per cent.	l. 113 : 12 : 8	l. 2 : 5 : 5	l. 111 : 7 : 3	l. 11 : 7 : 3	l. 100
15	120 : 9 : 7	2 : 8 : 2	118 : 1 : 5	18 : 1 : 5	100
20	128 : 4 : 1	2 : 11 : 3	125 : 12 : 10	25 : 12 : 10	100
25	136 : 19 : 8	2 : 14 : 9	134 : 4 : 11	34 : 4 : 11	100
30	147 : 1 : 2	2 : 18 : 10	144 : 2 : 4	44 : 2 : 4	100
40	172 : 8 : 3	3 : 9 : 0	168 : 19 : 3	68 : 19 : 3	100

The foregoing computation ſhews the amount of inſurance on one ſingle voyage; in the next place will be ſhewn how it will ſtand with a voyage out and home, or a double voyage &c. The voyage out is conſidered as one ſingle voyage, which is already explained in the article of 10 per cent. premium: and, as to the voyage home, deduct the premium from 98, as aforeſaid: then ſay, As the remainder is to the premium, ſo is the amount of the firſt inſurance together with 100 l. to the inſurance on the voyage home.—This inſurance home added to the inſurance out, makes up the total inſurance.—As for inſtance:—The premium of 10 per cent. on 100 l. outſet makes the inſurance out l. 11 : 7 : 3; that added to 100 l. makes l. 111 : 7 : 3—Then, to find the inſurance home at 10 per cent. premium, ſay,

As 88 l. is to 10, ſo is l. 111 : 7 : 3 to l. 12 : 13 : 1.—Then add the l. 12 : 13 : 1 inſurance home, to the l. 11 : 7 : 3 inſurance out, it makes l. 24 : 0 : 4 * total inſurance, to make good 100 l. out and home; and the ſum neceſſary to be inſured home will, according to the foregoing example, amount to l. 126 : 10 : 11.

* See the following table.

The premium of 40 per cent. which is the higheſt premium mentioned, makes the inſurance out l. 68 : 19 : 3 on 100 l. outſet, and the like premium of 40 per cent. home makes the inſurance home l. 116 : 10 : 6, and is demonſtrable from the ſame principles: for,

As 58 l. is to 40 l. ſo is l. 168 : 19 : 3 to l. 116 : 10 : 6.—Then add the inſurance out and home, it will make l. 185 : 9 : 9 * total inſurance, to make good 100 l. in caſe of a loſs, which is proved from the following example.

* See the following table.

As 58 l. is to 100 l. ſo is l. 168 : 19 : 3 to the ſum neceſſary to be inſured home to make good 100 l. firſt outſet - - -	l. 291 : 6 : 4	
Deduct 2 per cent. abatement - - - -	5 : 16 : 7	
The inſurer pays in caſe of a loſs, - - -	285 : 9 : 9	
Deduct inſurance home on l. 291 : 6 : 4, at 40 per cent. - - - - - - - -	116 : 10 : 6	
	168 : 19 : 3	
Deduct alſo inſurance out - - - - - -	68 : 19 : 3	
Remains the coſt of the firſt outſet - - -	100 : — : -	

And ſo as to any other adventure, or premium, on a double voyage, as may be ſeen from the following table, viz.

The amount of inſurance to make good 100 l. out and home.

Premiums out and the ſame home.	Out.	Home.	Total.
At 10 per cent.	l. 11 : 7 : 3	l. 12 : 13 : 1	l. 24 : 0 : 4
15	18 : 1 : 5	21 : 6 : 9	39 : 8 : 2
20	25 : 12 : 10	32 : 4 : 4	57 : 17 : 2
25	34 : 4 : 11	45 : 19 : 5	80 : 4 : 4
30	44 : 2 : 4	63 : 11 : 7	107 : 13 : 11
40	68 : 19 : 3	116 : 10 : 6	185 : 9 : 9

By this table, the difference between high and low inſurance will plainly appear, and conſequently the advantage the Britiſh nation may reap from the ſuperiority of her naval force, in time of war, by a prudent regulation of convoys and cruizers, in order to protect our own trade in the firſt place, and then to annoy the trade of the enemy; as the one will lower the inſurance on our trade, in proportion to the care that ſhall be taken of it; and the other will raiſe the inſurance on our enemy's trade, in proportion to the force that ſhall be properly ſtationed to annoy it.

As for inſtance, ſuppoſe our premiums ſhould fall from 20 to 10 per cent. out, and the ſame home, by means of regular and ſufficient convoys and cruizers on our part, the difference in our favour would be l. 33 : 16 : 10 per cent. out and home, which is a difference of no leſs than 1,015,200l. on 3,000,000l. only out and home.

On the other hand, ſuppoſe ſuch premiums ſhould advance upon the enemy from 10 to 15 per cent. on a voyage out, and the ſame home, the difference would be l. 15 : 7 : 10 per cent. out and home: and, ſuppoſe ſuch premiums ſhould advance from 30 to 40 per cent. the difference would be 77 : 15 : 10 to make good 100 l. thus inſured out and home.

As the inſurance paid to make good 100 l. outſet, at 40 per cent. premium out, and 40 per cent. home, is l. 185 : 9 : 9; and, at 30 per cent. l. 107 : 13 : 11.

So the inſurance at 40 per cent. as above, to make good, or cover, 2,000,000 out and home, amounts to - - - - -	* l. 3,709,700
And, at 30 per cent. to - - - - - - -	2,153,900
Difference on 2,000,000 only, out and home	l. 1,555,800

* Inſurance at 3 per cent. out, and 5 per cent. home, amounts to l. 8 : 14 : 1 to cover 100 l. out and home, and to 174,078 l. to cover 2,000,000 l. out and home.

And, in like manner, the difference of any other premiums, or any other outſet, on a double voyage, may be computed; and, if the computation is made on the greater part of our trade, and that of our enemies, at various premiums, it will amount to an immenſe ſum; and thoſe nations that pay the loweſt premiums of inſurance, can afford their merchandize cheapeſt at foreign markets, which will naturally extend their trade, by giving a larger vent.

From hence it plainly appears of what prodigious conſequence the proper or improper direction of our naval force is in the article of inſurance only,—not to mention the national gain by captures, the property, lives, and liberties of multitudes of his majeſty's ſubjects that may be thereby ſaved, as well as a great ſhare of the revenues, beſides putting our enemies at the ſame time to the greateſt diſtreſs.

Here follows the difference between convoys and no convoys, in an inſtance of a treble voyage, the rotation being from England to Africa, from thence to America, and then home.

Inſurance from England to Africa may be done, in time of war, at about 7 per cent. with good convoy, and not under 15 per cent. without convoy; and the voyage may be performed in 40 or 50 days.—Inſurance from Africa to America will be about 6 per cent. with ſuch convoy, and 18 per cent. without convoy; and this voyage may be performed in 40 or 50 days.—The inſurance from America to Great-Britain, with good convoy, will be at about 10 per cent. and, without convoy, at about 25 per cent. and this voyage may be performed in 40 or 60 days.

To ſhew the amount of inſurance at the abovementioned rates, to make good 100 l. outſet throughout the whole rotation, deduct the ſeveral premiums from 98, as aforeſaid; then add the premium, or premiums, on the firſt and ſecond voyages, to 100 l.—Then,

For the firſt voyage, ſay,

As 91 l. is to 7 l. ſo is 100 l. to l. 7 : 13 : 10
83 l. is to 15 l. ſo is 100 l. to l. 18 : 1 : 5

For the ſecond voyage.

As 92 l. is to 6 l. ſo is l. 107 : 13 : 10 to l. 7 : 0 : 6
80 l. is to 18 l. ſo is l. 118 : 1 : 5 to l. 26 : 11 : 4

For the third voyage.

As 88 l. is to 10 l. ſo is l. 114 : 14 : 4 to l. 13 : 0 : 8
73 l. is to 25 l. ſo is l. 144 : 12 : 9 to l. 49 : 10 : 8

The amount of the whole, and the difference between good convoys and no convoys, will appear from the following table, viz.

	The amount of inſurance with good convoy per cent.	The amount of inſurance without convoy per cent.	Difference in the inſurance per cent.
From England to Africa — —	l. 7 : 13 : 10	l. 18 : 1 : 5	l 10 : 7 : 7
From Africa to America — —	7 : — : 6	26 : 11 : 4	19 : 10 : 10
From America to Great-Britain	13 : — : 8	49 : 10 : 8	36 : 10 : —
Total	l. 27 : 15 : —	94 : 3 : 5	66 : 8 : 5

To find the ſum neceſſary to be inſured to make good, or cover 100 l. outſet, on a treble voyage, in the caſe of 25 per cent. premium, from America to Great-Britain, and the other premiums without convoy, as abovementioned, ſay,

As 25 l. is to 100 l. ſo is l. 49 : 10 : 8 to l. 198 : 2 : 8—Or,
As 73 l. is to 100 l. ſo is l. 144 : 12 : 9 to l. 198 : 2 : 8.

The ſum neceſſary to be inſured without convoy; and, by the ſame rule, l. 130 : 7 : 2 will be ſufficient with convoy.

This will appear from the following example:

The ſum to be inſured - - - - - - -	l. 198 : 2 : 8
Deduct 2 per cent. abatement - - - -	3 : 19 : 3
The inſured receives, in caſe of a loſs, - -	194 : 3 : 5
Deduct inſurance on l. 198 : 2 : 8, at 25 per cent.	49 : 10 : 8
	144 : 12 : 9
Deduct inſurance on the outſet l. 18 : 1 : 5 on the ſecond voyage 26 : 11 : 4—	44 : 12 : 9
Remains the coſt of the firſt outſet - - - - -	l. 100 : — : -

And

And ſo as to any other adventure, or premiums, or any other treble voyage.

Suppoſe the outſet to Africa from Great-Britain to be 320,000 l. per ann. to go this treble voyage, or that it may be ſo much upon proper encouragement being given to that trade, the abovementioned difference of inſurance of l. 66 : 8 : 5 per cent. on that ſum amounts to upwards of l. 212,500 per annum, which may be ſaved by proper convoys in this ſingle article of inſurance on this particular branch of trade, beſides what may be thereby ſaved in other branches.

The ſecurity of our trade, and, in conſequence thereof, leſſening our own inſurancing, and raiſing that of our enemies, are of ſuch important concernment to the nation, that it may not be unacceptable to obſerve how, in time of war with France, a few ſhips of war may be employed to anſwer thoſe purpoſes.

Suppoſe a convoy ſhould go from England every four or ſix months, for Africa, America, and then home to Great-Britain, beſides the convoys that ſhall go at proper times directly to America.

Such convoy may ſee all the trade that are ready to ſail to the ſouth-weſt at a proper diſtance, and particularly the trade to Portugal, as far as their reſpective ports; the Streights trade as far as Gibraltar, or Cape St Vincent; and then to proceed to Africa, and relieve ſuch ſhips of war as ſhall be before ſtationed there; which relieved ſhips may proceed with the trade from Africa to America, and relieve ſuch ſhips of war as ſhall be before ſtationed there; which relieved ſhips may convoy the trade that ſhall be ready to ſail from their reſpective colonies for Europe and North America, as far as their reſpective tracts, or latitudes.

The ſhips of war that may be thus appointed convoys, will ſail in ſuch tracts, as will give them frequent opportunities to annoy the enemy, and gain great advantages to themſelves, as they may be from four to ſix months cruizing on the coaſt of Africa, and as long, or longer, in America.

The ſhips bound from Africa to our weſtern ports may rendezvous at Plymouth, Falmouth, Cork, or Kingſale.

The advantage of ſuch a rotation of convoys will be very great, with regard to eaſing freights and inſurance, two ſenſible articles in trade in time of war; and the markets on all ſides will be more regularly ſupplied.

Freights, by means of frequent and certain convoys, and quick voyages, will be lower at leaſt one quarter, as there will be great ſavings in ſeamen's wages, victualling, demurrage, and the preſervation of the ſhips, by means of quick diſpatch. Since this rotation may, by means of thus exchanging ſtations, be performed in five or ſix months, it is apprehended a few ſhips of war, over-and-above what are neceſſary to be ſtationed in Africa and America, will anſwer all theſe advantages: and, moreover, this will, in a great meaſure, prevent the decay of his majeſty's ſhips, by keeping them too long in Africa and America.

The practice in queen Anne's war was to let the convoys to the trade to America go out one year, and return home the next, after being relieved by other convoys, whereby they uſually remained in America about 14 months; but, of late years, moſt of our ſhips of war have remained in America, and particularly in the Weſt-Indies, about three or four years: wherefore it is ſubmitted, whether the firſt method, abovementioned, is not to be preferred to the laſt? ſince his majeſty's ſhips will then croſs the weſtern ocean oftener, which will afford much ſtronger, and more frequent, certain, and regular convoys, and our trade would be much better protected, than it was in the late war with France, and that with the ſame number of ſhips as was then employed in that ſervice, and the ſhips would be fitted for the ſea with more expedition, and at leſs expence, after their arrival in England.

'The firſt deſign of inſurance, ſays the ingenious Mr Cary †, was to encourage the merchants to export more of our produce and manufactures, when they knew how to eaſe themſelves in their adventures, and to bear only ſuch a proportion thereof as they were willing and able to do: but, by the irregular practices of ſome men, this firſt intention has been wholly defeated, who, without any intereſt, have put in early policies, and gotten large ſubſcriptions on ſhips, only to make advantage by ſelling them to others; and, therefore, have induſtriouſly promoted falſe reports, and ſpread rumours, to the prejudice of the ſhips and maſters, filling men's minds with doubts, whereby the fair trading merchant, when he comes to inſure his intereſt, either can get no one to underwrite, or at ſuch rates, that he finds it better to buy the other policies at advance: by which means theſe ſtock-jobbers of aſſurance have frequently, as it were, turned it into a wager, to the great prejudice of trade.

† Vide A Diſcourſe on Trade, by John Cary, Eſq; merchant of Briſtol.

'Likewiſe many ill-deſigning men, their policies being overvalued, have (to the abhorrence of honeſt traders, and to the ſcandal of trade itſelf) contrived the loſs of their own ſhips. On the other ſide, the underwriters, when a loſs is ever ſo fairly proved, boggle in their payments, and force the inſured to be content with leſs than their agreements, for fear of engaging themſelves in long and chargeable ſuits.

'Now, if the parliament would pleaſe to take theſe things into conſideration, they may reduce inſurance to it's firſt intention, by obliging the inſured to bear ſuch a proportionable part of his adventure (the premium included) as to them ſhall ſeem fit; and alſo the inſurers, when a loſs is fully made out, to pay their ſubſcriptions without abatement, which will prevent both; and, if any differences ſhould ariſe, to direct eaſy ways for adjuſting them, without attending long iſſues at law, or being bound up to ſuch nice rules in their proof, as the affairs of foreign trade will not admit.

'I know, that by a clauſe in a ſtatute, made primo Annæ, the wilful caſting away, burning, or otherwiſe deſtroying a ſhip, by any captain, maſter, mariner, or other officer belonging to it, is made felony, without benefit of clergy; but that ſtatute is ſo qualified, that it is difficult to convict the offender, becauſe the fact muſt be done, to the prejudice of the owner, or owners, or of any merchant or merchants, that ſhall load goods thereon, elſe he doth not come within it's penalty; ſo it doth not reach the evil I here mention, viz. the abominable contrivance of the owners to have their own ſhips deſtroyed, in order to make an advantage by their inſurances; a crime ſo black in itſelf, that it cannot be mentioned without horror.

'Theſe men, when they frame their dark deſigns, will take care, for the ſecurity of thoſe they employ, that none, beſides themſelves, ſhall load goods on the ſhips they intend ſhall be thus deſtroyed; and it cannot be ſuppoſed that they receive prejudice thereby themſelves, ſo the proſecution on that ſtatute is evaded: but, if the inſured were bound to make out their intereſts, and to bear a proportionable part of the loſs themſelves, this would, as it were, naturally prevent ſuch ſcandalous practices.'—Theſe are the ſentiments of Mr Cary, who was eſteemed a very judicious and worthy merchant.

Further REMARKS.

In France, the inſured are always obliged to run the riſk of one tenth part of the value of the effects inſured, unleſs there is an expreſs ſtipulation in the policy, that he means to inſure the whole. And, when the inſured goes in the veſſel, or is the owner thereof, he is obliged to run the riſk of one tenth part, notwithſtanding he has inſured the whole. Neither owners of ſhips, nor captains, can inſure the freight to be made by their veſſels; nor can merchants inſure the profit they expect to make by their merchandizing. Ordonnance of the marine in France, of 1681 *.

* Quere, Whether theſe regulations are not more for the ſecurity of the inſurer, and more to the advantage of a trading nation in general, both in time of peace and war, than the cuſtom which has been of inſuring intereſt or no intereſt.

Nor in Holland do they inſure intereſt or no intereſt.

In 1741, a bill was brought into parliament, to prevent ſome inconveniencies ariſing from inſurances of ſhips, which was as follows:

'Whereas it has been found by experience, that the making aſſurances, intereſt or no intereſt, hath been productive of many pernicious practices, whereby great numbers of ſhips, with their cargoes, have been fraudulently loſt and deſtroyed; and a great encouragement to the exportation of wool, and the carrying many other prohibited and clandeſtine trades, which are thereby ſecreted, and the parties concerned ſecured from loſs, as well to the diminution of the public revenue, as to the great detriment and loſs of the fair trader; and by introducing an illegal and miſchievous kind of gaming or wagering, under the pretence of aſſuring the riſk on ſhipping and fair trade, the inſtitution and laudable deſign of making aſſurances hath been perverted; and that which was intended for the encouragement of trade and navigation, become hurtful of, and deſtructive to, the ſame.

For remedy whereof, and for effectually putting a ſtop to, and for preventing the like unwarrantable practices for the future: Be it enacted, &c. That all policies, inſtruments, contracts, or promiſes of aſſurance, made from and after — — — — — — — — intereſt or no intereſt, and policies valued at the ſum aſſured, or without further proof of intereſt, than the policy, or in any other words or manner, to that or the ſame effect; or upon ſhips, or other veſſels or goods, loaden or to be loaden thereon, not made bonâ fide upon intereſt; ſhall be, and are hereby declared (void) — — — — — — any law, ſtatute, or cuſtom to the contrary, in any wiſe, notwithſtanding.

Provided always, that nothing in this act contained ſhall extend, or be conſtrued to extend, to vacate, or avoid any aſſurances made without fraud upon intereſt of the whole, or any part, of the ſum for which the aſſured ſhall appear to be concerned in the veſſel, or goods, ſo aſſured.

Provided always, that nothing in this act contained ſhall vacate or make void any aſſurance made upon account of money

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money lent upon reſpondentia, or bottomry bonds, in which the benefit of ſalvage is allowed the lender; nor any aſſurance made bonâ fide, to re-aſſure any ſum before aſſured, or any ſhips or veſſels, or their cargoes; provided the ſame be mentioned in the policy to be re-aſſurance, or on money ſo lent on reſpondentia, or bottomry bonds.

And whereas, by ſeveral acts of parliament, the ſubjects of this kingdom in general are reſtrained from trading to the Eaſt-Indies, and the ſole right to trading thereto is by law veſted in the united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies; notwithſtanding which, aſſurances are often made in Great-Britain, upon ſhips and effects belonging to the ſubjects of foreign nations or powers trading to the Eaſt Indies: Be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That all aſſurances, made after the ———— day of ———— upon any ſhips or effects belonging to any foreign kingdom, nation, or power, or to the ſubjects thereof, trading to and from the Eaſt-Indies, or from any part thereof to another, ſhall be deemed and taken to be (void) to all intents, conſtructions, and purpoſes whatſoever.

And whereas aſſurances on the ſhips or effects of perſons, alien enemies to this kingdom, are greatly prejudicial to the true intereſt thereof, and, upon the capture of ſuch ſhips or effects, the real loſs ſuſtained often falls upon the ſubjects of Great-Britain, who have made ſuch aſſurances: Be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that no aſſurance —— —— to be made directly or indirectly, on any the ſhips or effects of the ſubjects of any prince or ſtate, not in amity with the crown of Great-Britain, at the time ſuch aſſurance is made, ſhall be of any force or validity in law, but ſhall be (void) to all intents, conſtructions, and purpoſes whatſoever.

Provided always, that if his majeſty ſhall at any time, during the preſent war, thing fit, in purſuance of a proviſo contained in an act made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, intitled, An act for prohibiting commerce with Spain, to take off the prohibitions and reſtrictions of commerce, or any part thereof; then, and in ſuch caſe, it ſhall and may be lawful to make aſſurance on ſuch commerce, or any part thereof, any thing herein contained to the contrary notwithſtanding.'

As the ſentiments of men of buſineſs, well acquainted with the nature and conſequence of this important point, may contribute to give the reader ſtill a more comprehenſive view thereof, we judge, that the ſubſtance of their arguments pro and con upon this bill, as near as we could collect them from converſation, will be acceptable. This I was induced to at that time, as having a work of this kind then in view.

It was urged by thoſe who oppoſed this bill, that the fundamental error of it's patrons ſeemed to be an opinion, that the practice of inſuring is not known to other nations, nor can be carried on in any other places; and from this principle they deduce conſequences, which, if they were inevitably certain, might eaſily influence us to an immediate approbation of the bill, as neceſſary to ſecure our commerce, and diſtreſs our enemies.—That few merchants would hazard their fortunes in long voyages, or expoſe themſelves to the dangers of war, without the ſecurity which inſurance affords them, and perſuading themſelves that ſuch ſecurity is to be obtained from no other nation, they imagine that we might, by prohibiting it, confine all the foreign veſſels in their ports, and deſtroy by one reſolution the trade both of our rivals, and our enemies.

That our Eaſt-India company may deſire the paſſing of this bill, is, becauſe they might receive ſome temporary advantage, by the ſhort inconvenience which thoſe whom they conſider as the enemies of their commerce, would feel from it.—That, if the experiment failed, it cannot injure them; if it ſucceeded, it may produce great advantages to them.—Several other nations can plead a claim to the Eaſt-India trade, of equal validity with our own.—That the Danes have their ſettlements there, and the Portugueze diſcovered the way to theſe regions of wealth, from which ſome, perhaps, are inclined to exclude them.—That nothing is more vain than to attempt this, by refuſing to inſure their ſhips, the opinion that they can be inſured by no other nation being groundleſs.—That there are, at this time, offices of inſurance along the whole coaſt of the Mediterranean ſea, among the Dutch, and even among the French.—That nothing can debar any nation from the trade of inſurance, but the want of money; that money is not wanted by foreigners for this purpoſe, is manifeſt, from the millions they have in our funds.—That this trade is now carried on chiefly by Great-Britain, and that we ought not to obſtruct our own gain, by making a law to deprive ourſelves of that advantage, of which either accident, or our own ſagacity, have put us in poſſeſſion.—That debarring us from inſuring the ſhips, even of thoſe with whom we are at war, would not contribute to the wealth of the public, but only oblige them to transfer to other nations, the profit which we receive from them.—That the trade of inſurance is really advantageous to the nation, it being diligently followed after many years experience, and a law was never neceſſary to prohibit the purſuit of a buſineſs, by which nothing was to be gained.—That, could the gain of the inſurers be a doubtful point, there is a certain advantage to the nation, by the money paid for commiſſions, brokerages, ſtamp, and the credit of the premium depoſited here.—That the poſt-office revenue is thereby increaſed.—That the loſs of theſe profits, and the gain of inſuring, muſt enſue upon the paſſing of this bill; nor will this loſs be counterbalanced by any advantage, that will be obtained over our rivals or our enemies.

With regard to the practice of inſuring, intereſt or no intereſt, when an imaginary value is put on a ſhip or cargo, often much above it's real worth, it gives opportunities for wicked practices.—There will always be circumſtances, in which there can be no ſecurity againſt frauds, but common faith; nor is there poſſibility to ſecure the inſurers againſt being defrauded, nor can the value of a cargo be eſtimated, which is to be collected in a long voyage, at different ports, and where the ſucceſs of the adventurers often depends upon lucky accidents, which are always hoped for, though they ſeldom happen. An imaginary value therefore muſt always be fixed upon, when the ſhip leaves the port, the ſucceſs of the voyage not being foreknown; and the contracting parties may be ſafely truſted to ſet that value, without any law to direct or reſtrain them.—If the merchants are oppreſſed by any peculiar inconveniencies, and can find means to redreſs them without injury to the public commerce, any propoſal for that purpoſe ought to be favourably received; but, as the bill propoſes general reſtraints, and propoſes to remove grievances, which are not felt, by remedies, which thoſe upon whom they are to operate do not approve, the bill ought to be rejected.

In anſwer to this it was ſaid, That the grievance the bill propoſed to remedy is ſo generally known, and ſo univerſally lamented, that there is not any thing more worthy of the attention of the legiſlature, than an enquiry into the cauſe of it, and the proper method of redreſſing it. In our enquiry into the cauſes of this obſtruction of trade, I am of opinion, that the practice of inſuring, intereſt, or no intereſt, will appear to be the foundation of this general uneaſineſs; it will be found a practice of ſo natural a tendency to fraud, and ſo eaſily ſuſceptible of diſhoneſt artifices, that, I believe, every friend to the trading intereſt will deſire it's ſuppreſſion. To confirm my aſſertion, and illuſtrate the queſtion before us, I ſhall mention ſome particular inſtances of fraud, to which this cuſtom has given occaſion, of fraud ſo evident and ſo deteſtable, that it cannot be related without indignation.

The Royal George was a large ſhip belonging to the South Sea company; which, having been a voyage to Vera Cruz, put in at Jamaica in her return; and, being there refitted to proceed on her voyage homewards, ſet ſail, and came within a week's ſailing of the port, when, upon a ſudden, the officers entered into a conſultation, and determined to go back a month's voyage to Antigua, for what reaſons may be eaſily gueſſed; when it was told, that the ſhip was inſured upon a ſuppoſed value of ſixty thouſand pounds. This reſolution was no ſooner formed, than orders were given to change the courſe, and ſteer to Antigua, in oppoſition to all the remonſtrances of the carpenter, who is the proper judge of the condition of a veſſel, and who declared with honeſty and reſolution againſt their whole procedure. But they purſued their new ſcheme, without any regard to his murmurs or aſſertions; and, when they arrived at Antigua, found ſome method of influencing the officers of that iſland, to declare the ſhip unfit for the proſecution of the voyage. Their deſign was now happily compleated. To confirm the determination which had been pronounced in their favour, they ſtranded the ſhip upon a bank of ſand, forced out the iron that grapples the timbers together, and, having firſt taken away the maſts and rigging, and whatever elſe could be uſed or ſold, threw the ballaſt to each end, and ſo broke the veſſel in the middle.

By this well contrived ſhipwreck, having, as they imagined raiſed their fortunes, they came home triumphantly from their proſperous voyage, and claimed the money for which the ſhip was inſured. The inſurers, ſtartled at a demand ſo unexpected, enquired into the affair with all the induſtry which it's importance naturally excited, and, after ſome conſultation, determined to try whether the ſhip might not be refitted and brought to England. In purſuance of this reſolution, they ſent workmen and materials, and without much expence, or any difficulty, brought her hither.

This relation is ſufficient at once to prove the practice, and explain the nature of the frauds to which this method of inſurance gives occaſion; but, as the frequency of them is ſuch, that many inſtances may be produced, I ſhall offer another ſhort narrative of the ſame kind: a ſhip that belonged to the Eaſt-India company, inſured after this method, was run aſhore by the captain in ſuch a manner, that he imagined none but himſelf able to recover it; and therefore, though it coſt 5000 l. ſold it for 500 l. but the purchaſer, no leſs expert than the captain, found means very ſpeedily to diſengage it, to reſtore it to a proper condition with little expence, and was enriched by his fortunate bargain.

This

This kind of fraud is the more formidable, as it may be practiſed without a poſſibility of detection. Had the captain, inſtead of ſtranding, deſtroyed his veſſel, how could his wickedneſs ever have been diſcovered, or how could the South Sea company's ſhip have been brought home, had it been ſunk in ſome diſtant corner of the world? This practice, and the frauds which it has occaſioned *, and the ſuſpicions which the eaſy practice of frauds always creates, have produced ſo many trials, and filled the courts of juſtice with ſuch intricate contentions, that the judges, who knew perhaps nothing of this practice, but from it's effects, have often declared it to be ſo pregnant with conteſts and cheats, that it ought not to be ſuffered, and that a law for ſuppreſſing it would much contribute to the eſtabliſhment of peace, and the ſecurity of property. The aſſertion of the impoſſibility of eſtimating the real value of a ſhip, or of foreknowing the ſucceſs of a voyage, is inconteſtable: but, perhaps, it will follow from thence, not that an imaginary value ought to be admitted, but that no inſurance ought to be allowed, where there is no rational method of aſcertaining it; or, at leaſt, that all ſuch inſurance ought to be rather below the probable value, than above it.

* That this practice occaſioned great frauds, is apparent from thoſe caſes before enumerated, which have been detected in our courts of judicature.

That great frauds are the natural conſequence of eſtimating ſhips at an imaginary value in the offices of inſurance, is to the higheſt degree evident. For, when a ſhip is eſtimated above it's real value, how will the commander ſuffer by a wreck, or what ſhall reſtrain him from deſtroying his veſſel, when it may be done with ſecurity to himſelf, except that integrity, which ought to be generally diffuſed, but which is not always to be found, and to which few men care to truſt upon occaſions of far leſs importance. That I do not magnify the poſſibility of fraud into reality, or propoſe laws againſt wickedneſs that has not yet exiſted, it may be proper to mention ſome, in which I have been informed by my correſpondent at Leghorn, of the ſtate of the ſhips which have arrived there, ſhips ſo weakly manned, and ſo penuriouſly and negligently ſtored; ſo much decayed in the bottoms, and ſo ill fitted with rigging; that he declares his aſtoniſhment at their arrival.

It may deſerve conſideration, whether the ſucceſs of the Spaniſh privateers may not be in great part attributed to this pernicious practice; whether captains, when their veſſels are inſured for more than their value, do not raſhly venture into known danger? Whether they do not wilfully miſs the ſecurity of convoys? Whether they do not direct their courſes, where privateers may moſt ſecurely cruize to intercept them? Whether they do not ſurrender with leſs reſiſtance than intereſt would excite? And whether they do not raiſe clamours againſt the government for their ill ſucceſs, to avoid the ſuſpicion of negligence or fraud.

That other kind of frauds are committed in the practice of inſuring, is well known: it is a common practice to take money upon bottomry, by way of pledge for the captain's fidelity, and to deſtroy this ſecurity by inſuring above the real value, ſo that the captain may gain by neglecting the care of his veſſel, or at leaſt ſecure himſelf from loſs, and indulge his eaſe or his pleaſure, without apprehenſion of diminiſhing his fortune. The whole practice of inſurance, in it's preſent ſtate, is ſo perplexed with frauds, and of ſuch manifeſt tendency to the obſtruction of fair commerce, that it abſolutely requires ſome legal regulations.

To what was ſaid in favour of the bill it was replied, That, with regard to ſingle acts of fraud, committed by particular men, it is not to be ſuppoſed but that they have been detected in this, as in all other branches of traffic, nor do I conceive that any argument can be drawn from them againſt the practice; for, if every part of commerce is to be prohibited, which has furniſhed villains with opportunities of deceit, we ſhall contract trade into a narrow compaſs.—With regard to the inſtance of the Royal George, though the proceedings of the officers are not wholly to be vindicated, yet part of their conduct is leſs exceptionable than it has been repreſented. Their return to Antigua, when they were bound for England, and were within a week's ſailing of their port, is eaſily to be defended, if the wind was contrary to their intended courſe; for it is not difficult to conceive, that they might reach a diſtant port with a favourable wind, much ſooner than one much nearer, with the wind againſt them.

To this it was anſwered—That, in the diſcuſſion of this queſtion, it was to be conſidered, that we are engaged in a war againſt a nation, from which inſults, depredations, oppreſſions, and cruelties, have been long complained of, and againſt which we are therefore to act with a reſolution proportioned to the injuries which we have ſuffered, and to our deſire of vengeance.—We are to practiſe every method of diſtreſſing them, and to promote the ſucceſs of our arms, at the expence of preſent gain, and the intereſt of private men. 'Tis well known, that the Spaniards are a people who live in careleſſneſs and indolence, neglect the natural advantages of their own country, deſpiſe the gain of foreign commerce †, and depend wholly on their American ſettlements, for all the conveniencies of life. This is the particular circumſtance, that makes a war with England ſo much to be dreaded by them. A nation ſuperior to them by ſea holds them beſieged, like a garriſon ſurrounded by an army; precludes them from ſupplies, intercepts their ſuccours, and, if it cannot force their walls by attack, can at leaſt by a blockade ſtarve them to a capitulation.

† The caſe with the Spaniards ſeems now to be altered; they being not only ſollicitous to eſtabliſh new manufactures in Old Spain, but having began to export their own product in their own ſhipping; for we have an inſtance in the foreign papers of a Spaniſh ſhip being arrived even at Copenhagen, with the product of Spain.

Thus, by a naval war with an enemy of ſuperior ſtrength, they muſt at length be ſubdued, and ſubdued, perhaps, without a battle, and without the poſſibility of reſiſtance; againſt ſuch an enemy, their courage or their diſcipline is of no uſe; they may form armies indeed, but which can only ſtand upon the ſhore, to defend what their enemies have no intention of invading, and ſee thoſe ſhips ſeized in which their pay is treaſured, or their proviſions are ſtored.—Such is our natural ſuperiority over the Spaniards, a ſpecies of ſuperiority that muſt inevitably prevail, if it be not defeated by our own folly; and ſurely a more effectual method of defeating it the Spaniards themſelves could not have diſcovered, than that of inſuring their ſhips among our merchants. When a ſhip thus inſured is taken, we examine the cargo, find it extreamly valuable, and triumph in our ſucceſs; we not only count the gain to ourſelves, but the loſs to our enemies, and determine that a ſmall number of ſuch captures will reduce them to offer us peace upon our own terms.

Such are the concluſions which are made, and made with reaſon, by men unacquainted with the ſecret practices amongſt ourſelves, and who do not ſuſpect us to be ſtupid enough to ſecure our enemies againſt ourſelves; but it is often found, upon a more cloſe examination, that our ſhips of war have only plundered our own merchants, and that our privateers may indeed have enriched themſelves, but impoveriſhed their country: it is diſcovered, that the loſs of the Spaniards is to be repaid, and perhaps ſometimes with intereſt, by our Britiſh inſurers.—If it be urged, that we ought not to enact any laws which may obſtruct the gain of our fellow-ſubjects, may it not be aſked, why all trade with Spain in time of war with them is prohibited? May not the trade be equally gainful with the inſurance, and may not the gain be more generally diſtributed, and therefore be more properly national? But the trade with Spain at ſuch times is prohibited, becauſe it was more neceſſary to our enemies than to ourſelves; becauſe the laws of war require, that a leſs evil ſhould be ſuffered to inflict a greater: it is upon this principle that every battle is fought, and that we fire our own ſhips to conſume the navies of our enemy. For this reaſon it appears to be evident beyond contradiction, that the inſurance of Spaniſh ſhips ought to be prohibited in time of war with that nation; we ſhall indeed loſe the profit of the inſurance, but we ſhall be reimburſed by the captures, which is an argument that cannot be produced for the prohibition of commerce.

It is urged, that our enemies may inſure their ſhips in other countries *, an aſſertion of which, whether it be true or not, I am not able to decide; but this would lay them under the neceſſity of eſtabliſhing a new correſpondence, and this would prove at leaſt a temporary obſtruction of their trade, which, though of ſhort continuance, may lay them at our mercy. But let us reflect upon the weakneſs of this argument—'They 'muſt be allowed to inſure here, becauſe they may inſure in 'other places.'—Will it not be equally juſt to urge, that they muſt trade with us, becauſe they may trade with other nations? And may it not be anſwered, that, though we cannot wholly ſuſpend their commerce, it is yet our intereſt to obſtruct it, as far as we are able? May it not be farther affirmed, that, by inſuring in other nations, they may injure their allies by falling into our hands, but do not the leſs benefit us? That, if they do not grow weaker, we at leaſt are ſtrengthened; but that, by inſuring among us, whatever ſteps are taken to put a ſpeedy end to the war, the equilibrium of it is ſtill preſerved the ſame?

* This was never made to appear ſatisfactorily; and 'tis much to be doubted, whether it will ever be experienced, notwithſtanding it was roundly aſſerted, and taken for granted, throughout this debate.

It is aſſerted, that we inſure at a lower * rate than other nations do; and it will therefore follow, that the Spaniards, whenever their ſhips ſhall eſcape us, will ſuffer more by having inſured amongſt foreigners, than if they had contracted with

* Quere, Is this matter of fact in time of war? Where the intereſt of money is lower, it ſeems more natural to believe, the price of inſurance alſo may be ſo in the general.

our merchants. Thus it appears, that there are ſtronger reaſons for prohibiting the inſurance of Spaniſh ſhips, than for putting a ſtop to our commerce with them; and that, whether their ſhips are taken by us, or eſcape us, it is the general intereſt of the nation, that they ſhall be inſured by foreign merchants, and not by our own.

With reſpect to the Eaſt-India company it was ſaid, that, as they have the grant of an excluſive trade to the Eaſt-Indies, to inſure the ſhips that are ſent thither, without their permiſſion, is to invade their rights, and to infringe their charter; and that practice, if the validity of their charter be admitted, is illegal, and ought to be diſcountenanced.

The practice of inſuring, intereſt or no intereſt, or of aſſigning to ſhips an imaginary value, is nothing more than a particular game, a more ſolemn ſpecies of hazard, and ought therefore to be prohibited, for every reaſon that can be urged againſt games at chance.

In reply hereunto it was ſaid, That there is no abſurdity by enriching ourſelves at the expence of other nations, whether enemies or allies.—If our inſurers gain by ſecuring the ſhips of our enemies, the nation is benefited; for all national gain muſt circulate through the hands of individuals.—No man will aſſert, that we ought to aſſiſt our enemies; nor will any man imagine, that we aſſiſt them by impoveriſhing them; and, if our inſurers gain by their practice, the Spaniards muſt undoubtedly be loſers.

The practice of inſuring an imaginary value may give opportunity for greater frauds than can be practiſed in common dealings; but ſuch frauds do not require the interpoſition of the legiſlature. If they are practiſed only by thoſe of our own nation, the public does not ſuffer; for property is only transferred from one ſubject to another; the fraud ought to be ſeverely puniſhed in the courts of criminal juſtice, but the cuſtom which gave the opportunity of practiſing it, ought not to be reſtrained, any more than any other profeſſion not criminal in itſelf, but liable to accidental abuſes.

If our inſurers are defrauded by foreigners, the nation is then, indeed, more nearly affected; but, even in that caſe, it is to be remembered, that the private intereſt of the inſurers, who muſt be immediately ruined *, is a ſufficient ſecurity for the public. For it cannot be conceived, that any man will obſtinately carry on a buſineſs, by which he becomes every day poorer; or that, when he deſiſts, he will be ſucceeded by another, who cannot but know that he engages in that traffic to his certain ruin.

* Although our inſurers may be gainers upon the whole, by the credit ſide of their premiums exceeding the debit ſide of their loſſes; yet the queſtion is, out of whoſe pockets do ſuch premiums ariſe, in time of war? If they wholly aroſe from our enemies who inſured, then our enemies would pay more for the price of inſurance than they loſt; which cannot be the caſe.—From whom then does this ſurpluſage of premiums ariſe, which makes our inſurers gainers, but from our own Britiſh merchants? And, if ſo, when an enemy's ſhip is taken that has been inſured by our inſurers, the loſs does not fall either upon the inſurers (if they are gainers on the whole) or upon the enemy, but it falls upon our own Britiſh merchants, whoſe premiums muſt pay it.

Beſides, as our enemies do not feel the loſs, are they not enabled the better to fit out more ſhips of war and privateers to annoy our own merchants? Does not this neceſſarily tend to raiſe the price of inſurance ſtill higher and higher upon them; and does not this ſtill the better enable our inſurers to inſure the ſhips of our enemies, and to be inſtrumental to the prolongation of the war? Does not theſe high inſurances clog our whole trade at ſuch times, leſſen the public revenue, and add to the evil of war? I cannot but think, therefore, this practice of inſuring the ſhipping and merchandize of our enemies was highly deſtructive to the nation, and ought never to have been ſuffered in theſe kingdoms.

The ſtate of this affair is, that frauds are, indeed, often committed, and are for that reaſon always ſuſpected; and that the inſurers, when they inſure the ſhip and cargo againſt accidents, reckon, among other chances, the probability of being cheated, and proportion their demands not only to the length and danger of the voyage, but to the character likewiſe of the man with whom they contract.

This is always the practice of thoſe whom experience hath made acquainted with the danger of implicit confidence, and unſuſpecting credulity; nor do any but the young and unſkilful ſuffer themſelves to be ſo expoſed to frauds, as that their fortunes ſhould be injured, or the general gain of their buſineſs overballanced, by a few deceits. Thus it appears, that, notwithſtanding the eaſe and ſafety with which the preſent methods of inſurance admit fraud to be practiſed, the inſurers, by a proportionate degree of caution, ſecure themſelves from being injured, and by conſequence the nation.

We inſure, as has been obſerved, at lower rates than other nations, becauſe we have more buſineſs of this kind, and the ſmallneſs of our profit is compenſated by the frequency; the cheapneſs of inſurances, and eagerneſs of foreigners to inſure here, reciprocally contribute to each other; we are often applied to, becauſe we inſure at an eaſy rate; and we can inſure at an eaſy rate, becauſe we are often applied to.

Nor is the cheapneſs of inſurance in England the only motive to the preference which it preſerves among foreigners, who are induced to apply to this nation, by the reputation which our merchants have deſervedly gained, for probity and punctuality, ſuperior to that of any other traders. Our merchants bargain without artifice, pay without ſubterfuges, and are ready, on all occaſions, to preſerve their character at the hazard of their profit. If foreigners are once diſappointed in their applications to us, our buſineſs will in a great part ceaſe; and, as we ſhall not then be able to inſure at lower rates than other nations, we ſhall never recover that branch of our trade.—And, as the character of the Engliſh merchants exempts them from from any ſuſpicion of practices pernicious to the public, why ſhould they be reſtrained? Why ſhould they appear to be ſuſpected by their own country, whom foreigners truſt without heſitation?

It has been objected to them, that they aſſiſt the enemies of their country, that they prolong the war, and defeat thoſe advantages which our ſituation and commerce have given us. Imputations ſufficiently attrocious, if they were founded upon truth. Let us examine the arguments by which this accuſation is ſupported. It is urged, that we have already prohibited commerce with the Spaniards, and that therefore we ought likewiſe to prohibit the inſurance of their ſhips. In oppoſition to which it may be urged, that this kind of commerce is of a peculiar nature, that it ſubſiſts upon opinion, and is preſerved by the reputation of our inſurers. Other commodities are the peculiar product of different countries, and that there is no danger of loſing our trade by ſuſpending it, becauſe it depends upon the excellence of our manufactures; but inſurance may be the commodity of any country, where money and common honeſty are to be found. This argument may be the more effectually invalidated, by denying the expediency of that prohibition, which is produced as a precedent for another reſtraint. Nor indeed does it appear, why we ſhould preclude ourſelves from a gainful trade, becauſe the money is drawn by it out of the hands of our enemies; or why the product of our lands ſhould lie unconſumed, or our manufacturers ſtand unemployed, rather than we ſhould ſell to our enemies what they will purchaſe at another place, or by the intervention of a neutral power.

To ſell to an enemy that which may enable him to injure us, that which he muſt neceſſarily obtain, and which he could buy from no other, would indeed be, to the laſt degree, abſurd; but that may ſurely be ſold them without any breach of morality or policy, which they can want with leſs inconvenience than we can keep. If we were beſieging a town, I ſhould not adviſe our ſoldiers to ſell to the inhabitants ammunition or proviſions, but cannot diſcover the folly of admitting them to purchaſe ornaments for their houſes, or brocades for their ladies.

I am never willing to load trade with reſtraints; it is in it's own nature ſo fugitive and variable, that no conſtant courſe can be preſcribed to it; and thoſe regulations which were proper when they were made, may, in a few months, become difficulties and obſtructions. We well know, that many of the meaſures which our anceſtors purſued for the encouragement of commerce, have been found of pernicious conſequence; and even in this age, which experience, perhaps, more than wiſdom, has enlightened, I have known few attempts of that kind which have not defeated the end for which they were made.—It is more prudent to leave the merchants at liberty to purſue thoſe meaſures which experience ſhall dictate upon every occaſion, and ſuffer them to ſnatch the preſent opportunity of honeſt gain, whenever it ſhall happen.—They will never injure their own intereſt by the uſe of this liberty, and, by preſerving themſelves, they will preſerve the nation from detriment.

To this it was anſwered—That the intereſt of our country very evidently requires that we ſhould give no aſſiſtance whatever to our enemies—that our merchants ſhould zealouſly co-operate with our navies, and that we ſhould endeavour to with-hold every thing that may make the war leſs burdenſome to them, and conſequently of longer continuance.

It has been ſaid, through the courſe of this debate, that inſurance was practiſed by many nations; but the gentleman did not inform us whether they allowed the method of inſuring, intereſt or no intereſt, and rating ſhips at an imaginary value. This is, I know, abſolutely prohibited by the Dutch, a nation whoſe authority on commercial queſtions will not be diſputed, nor do they allow their Eaſt-India ſhips to be inſured at all.

The difficulty of eſtimating the value of any cargo has been urged in defence of this practice; nor is the defence wholly without weight, becauſe the cargo in many voyages cannot be aſcertained. Yet it is neceſſary that ſome of our exported cargoes ſhould be exactly ſpecified. I have been informed, that ſix ſhips laden with Britiſh wool have entered at one time into a port of France; nor do I know how this practice, which is juſtly complained of as pernicious to our trade, and threatening the ruin of our country, can be prevented, but by a conſtant and regular particularization of every cargo carried to France. I admit, that ſome cargoes which are imported cannot be particularly regiſtered; ſuch is the gold with which we are daily

ſupplied

ſupplied by our commerce with the Portugueze, in oppoſition to their laws, and which our merchants are therefore under the neceſſity of concealing.

The intereſt of the merchants ought always to be duly conſidered in this nation; but then it ought to be regarded only in ſubordination to that of the whole community, a ſubordination which ſeems to have been quite forgotten throughout this argument.

Thus have we given a ſuccinct detail of this controverſy; which being compared with the nature of aſſurances, as they have been moſt infamouſly practiſed, as appears by thoſe various caſes which have come before our courts of judicature, any man that reads with attention, may eaſily diſcover the reaſonableneſs and neceſſity of the following act of parliament (and, perhaps, of ſome more effectual meaſures requiſite to be taken in future) made in 19 Geo. II. which is entitled, An act to regulate the inſurance on ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, and on merchandizes or effects laden thereon.

The preamble to which obſerves, That the making aſſurances, intereſt or no intereſt, or without further proof of intereſt than the policy, hath been productive of many pernicious practices, whereby great numbers of ſhips, with their cargoes, have either been fraudulently loſt and deſtroyed, or taken by the enemy, in time of war; and ſuch aſſurances have encouraged the exportation of wool, and the carrying on many other prohibited and clandeſtine trades, which, by means of ſuch aſſurances have been concealed, and the parties concerned ſecured from loſs, as well to the diminution of the public revenue, as to the great detriment of fair traders; and, by introducing a miſchievous kind of gaming or wagering, under the pretence of aſſuring the riſque on ſhipping and fair trade, the inſtitution and laudable deſign of making aſſurances hath been perverted; and that which was intended for the encouragement of trade and navigation has, in many inſtances, become hurtful of, and deſtructive to, the ſame: for remedy whereof, it is enacted, That, from and after the firſt day of Auguſt 1746, no aſſurance or aſſurances ſhall be made, by any perſon or perſons, bodies corporate or politic, on any ſhip or ſhips belonging to his majeſty, or any of his ſubjects, or on any goods, merchandizes, or effects, laden or to be laden, on board of any ſuch ſhip or ſhips, intereſt or no intereſt, or without further proof of intereſt than the policy, or by way of gaming or wagering, or without benefit of ſalvage to the aſſurer; and that every ſuch aſſurance ſhall be null and void to all intents and purpoſes.

Aſſurances on private ſhips of war, fitted out by any of his majeſty's ſubjects, ſolely to cruize againſt his majeſty's enemies, may be made by or for the owners thereof, intereſt or no intereſt, free of average, and without benefit of ſalvage to the aſſurer.

Merchandizes or effects from any ports or places in Europe or America, in the poſſeſſion of the crown of Spain, or Portugal, may be aſſured in ſuch way and manner, as if this act had not been made.

It ſhall not be lawful to make re-aſſurance, unleſs the aſſurer ſhall be inſolvent, become a bankrupt, or die; in either of which caſes, ſuch aſſurer, his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, may make re-aſſurance, to the amount of the ſum before aſſured, provided it ſhall be expreſſed in the policy to be a re-aſſurance.

After the ſaid firſt day of Auguſt, all and every ſum and ſums of money to be lent on bottomry, or at reſpondentia, upon any ſhip or ſhips belonging to any of his majeſty's ſubjects, bound to or from the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be lent only on the ſhip, or on the merchandize or effects laden, or to be laden on board of ſuch ſhip, and ſhall be ſo expreſſed in the condition of the bond; and the benefit of ſalvage ſhall be allowed to the lender, his agents, or aſſigns, who alone ſhall have a right to make aſſurance on the money ſo lent; and no borrower of money on bottomry, or at reſpondentia, as aforeſaid, ſhall recover more on any aſſurance than the value of his intereſt on his ſhip, or in the merchandizes or effects laden on board of ſuch ſhip, excluſive of the money ſo borrowed; and in caſe it ſhall appear that the value of his ſhare in the ſhip, or in the merchandizes or effects laden on board, doth not amount to the full ſum or ſums he hath borrowed, as aforeſaid, ſuch borrower ſhall be reſponſible to the lender for ſo much of the money borrowed, as he hath not laid out on the ſhip or merchandizes laden thereon, with lawful intereſt for the ſame, together with the aſſurance, and all other charges thereon, to the proportion the money not laid out ſhall bear to the whole money lent, notwithſtanding the ſhip and merchandize be totally loſt.

In all actions or ſuits brought or commenced after the ſaid firſt of Auguſt by the aſſured, upon any policy of aſſurance, the plaintiff in ſuch action or ſuit, or his attorney, &c. ſhall, within fifteen days after he or they ſhall be required ſo to do in writing by the defendant, or his attorney, &c. declare in writing the ſums he hath aſſured in the whole, and what ſums he hath borrowed at reſpondentia, or bottomry, for the voyage, or any part of the voyage in queſtion, in ſuch ſuit or action.

After the ſaid firſt of Auguſt, any perſon, &c ſued in any action of debt or covenant, &c. on any policy of aſſurance, may bring into court any ſums of money; and if the plaintiff ſhall refuſe ſuch ſum of money, with coſts to be taxed, in full diſcharge of ſuch action, and ſhall afterwards proceed to trial, and the jury ſhall not aſſeſs damage to ſuch plaintiff, exceeding the ſum ſo brought into court, ſuch plaintiff ſhall pay to ſuch defendant coſts to be taxed.

This act ſhall not extend to, or be in force againſt, any perſons reſiding in any parts in Europe out of his majeſty's dominions, for whoſe account aſſurance ſhall be made before the 29th of September 1746; nor againſt perſons reſiding in any parts of Turky, Aſia, Africa, or America, from whom aſſurances ſhall be made before the 29th of March 1747.

By the 21 Geo. II. inſurance on ſhips or goods appertaining to the crown and ſubjects of France, or lending them money on bottomry, is prohibited though, as the duration of this act was reſtrained to the time of the late war, it is now become void.

Further Remarks.

Since the paſſing of this act of parliament, there have been various peculiar caſes adjudged in our courts of judicature; which as yet have not been formally reported. However, we have endeavoured to obtain divers of thoſe caſes, together with the pleadings thereon, which may contribute to render this work ſtill the more complete.

Lewen verſus Swaſſo. Hil. 16 Geo. II. 1742.

The plaintiff, being ſued at law upon a policy of inſurance of a ſhip, and againſt the barretry of the maſter, which was aſſigned in the declaration, brought his bill in Chancery to be relieved, and for an injunction; charging that one Matthews the maſter, and alſo owner of the ſhip, had, before the voyage, entered into a bottomry bond to the defendant for 200 l. and that after, by bill of ſale, he aſſigned over his intereſt in the ſhip to the defendant, as a ſecurity for this 200 l. and inſiſted that Matthews was, nevertheleſs, in equity to be conſidered as owner of the ſhip, though, in law, the ownerſhip and property would be looked upon to be in the defendant; and inſiſted, that the owner of a ſhip could not, either in law or equity, be guilty of a barretry concerning the ſhip, and therefore prayed an injunction, and that the policy might be delivered up.

The voyage inſured was from London to Marſeilles, and from thence to ſome port in Holland. The caſe was, that the maſter ſailed with the ſhip to Marſeilles, and then, inſtead of purſuing the voyage, ſailed to the Weſt-Indies, and there ſold the ſhip, and died inſolvent. Theſe matters being confeſſed by the anſwer, an injunction was moved for on the principle, that a mortgagor is to be conſidered in equity as owner of the thing mortgaged, and that Matthews the maſter, being owner, could not be guilty of a barretry. To ſhew which, a caſe was cited of Stamma and Brown, where it was determined the preceding term in King's-Bench.

Lord Hardwicke chancellor. Barretry is an act of wrong done by the maſter againſt the ſhip and goods; and, this being in the caſe of a ſhip, the queſtion will be, who is to be conſidered as the owner? There are ſeveral caſes that might be put, where barretry may be aſſigned as the breach of an aſſurance, and barretry, or not, is a queſtion properly determinable at law; but here it is not ſo, for the courts of law will not conſider a mortgagor as having any right or intereſt in the thing mortgaged; and there are many caſes where a man may come into a court of equity for relief, in reſpect of a part only of his caſe. It might indeed be conſidered at law, whether what the maſter hath done, ſuppoſing owner or not, was not a breach of the contract, as maſter of the ſhip, and ſo a barretry, and this may be conſidered likewiſe in this court. But, at law, a defendant cannot read part of the plaintiff's anſwer to a bill brought againſt him here; the whole anſwer muſt be read, which hath been often a reaſon for this court interpoſing by injunction upon a plaint at law; and, conſidering the mixt nature of this caſe, I think an injunction ought to be granted. Ordered accordingly.

Curling verſus Brand, at Niſi Prius at Guildhall, in B. R. before Lee chief juſtice.

In an action upon a policy of inſurance by ſeveral perſons, as part owners of the ſhip inſured, it was held, that the plaintiffs are obliged to prove their reſpective intereſts in the ſhip, and that a proof of intereſt in ſome of the plaintiffs is not ſufficient as a ground to recover upon, though the intereſt proved be more in value than the amount of the inſurance—And a nonſuit recorded. But it ſeemed agreed in this caſe, that the plaintiffs are not to be put upon the producing of their reſpective bills of ſale of their ſeveral intereſts in the ſhip, for that ſuch ſale may be by parole: but it was held, that they muſt produce ſome evidence of property, as acts of ownerſhip, which the plaintiffs could not make out; and it was held that the reputation of being the owners, without ſhewing their title, or proving acts of ownerſhip, is not ſufficient.

Sadlers company verſus Badcock. In Chancery, Eaſter, 16 Geo II.

One Mary Stroad, having an intereſt in ſome houſes in London, for the remainder of a term of which about five years was to come, inſured the ſame from fire, by a policy of inſurance entered into by the Hand-in-Hand company for inſurance of houſes from fire; which inſurance was made for a term of ſeven years, and a premium paid accordingly. It happened, that after the end of the five years, and before the end of the ſeven years, the houſes were burnt down. After which, Mary Stroad aſſigned the policy to the Sadlers company, who were entitled to the houſes after the determination of the term of Mary Stroad. This bill was brought by the plaintiffs againſt the inſurance company, to have this inſurance made good, inſiſting thereon, by reaſon that a premium was paid to the company for the whole ſeven years, within which ſpace of time this accident hath happened.—And, as this inſurance is expreſsly to Mary Stroad, her executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, that the plaintiffs, as her aſſigns, are well entitled to have the policy made good.

It was urged, that this inſurance company being an amicable ſociety, who inſure each other with a joint ſtock, and the plaintiffs, being as aſſignees of Mary Stroad, members of the ſociety, was the reaſon for ſeeking relief by bill in equity, and not purſuing a remedy at law, in regard that no action would lie; for that the plaintiffs, by ſtanding in the place of Mary Stroad, might be ſaid to be part of the ſociety, and therefore could not proſecute an action againſt themſelves.

For the defendant it was inſiſted, that the intent of theſe policies is only to inſure ſome certain intereſt in the party inſured from loſs or damages, and that, when ſuch intereſt ceaſes, the inſurance is at an end. It was alſo inſiſted to be an ancient rule of the ſociety, that no perſon ſhould be permitted to inſure for a leſs term than ſeven years; and that, ſubſequent to the plaintiffs inſurance, an order of the company was made, reciting, that whereas all inſurances, by the rules of the company, were to ceaſe with the intereſt of the aſſured, yet that the aſſurers might aſſign their policies: this order was inſiſted upon as evidence, to ſhew that, by the rules of the company, they are anſwerable for no loſs or damage happening by fire to the houſes inſured, after the intereſt of the aſſured is determined.

In this company, as in all other inſurance companies, there is a rule, that the policy ſhould be of no effect, if aſſigned, unleſs brought to be allowed by the company, within ſuch a time; but it was admitted, that the plaintiffs had tendered the aſſignment to the company, within the time for ſuch allowance, but they had refuſed it.

In regard to the order made, that all aſſurances were to ceaſe with the intereſt of the aſſured, lord chancellor Hardwicke ſaid, The aſſured were to be conſidered in a double capacity, as members of the company, and as perſons contracting with them; and that, if the caſe depended upon this order, he ſhould not think the company, in their general capacity, could vary or alter any contract made by them to their individual members; but that he was of opinion, from the nature of all inſurances, that the inſurance muſt ceaſe with the intereſt of the aſſured, for it is only to ſave from damage in the thing inſured; and, where it is to inſure damages from fire, how can the inſurers enter upon the premiſſes to rebuild or repair, when the eſtate of the aſſured is determined?——An inſurance implies an intereſt in the aſſured, in the thing inſured: if it were otherwiſe, many ill conſequences might follow; men might inſure houſes of ſtrangers, and, in hopes of getting the money inſured, ſet the houſes on fire.

And though, in caſes of commerce, policies of inſurance are allowed to be made, intereſt or no intereſt; yet it was long before this could prevail, and was allowed only in reſpect that goods might be inſured, in a commerce which is prohibited in a foreign country, and to prevent, (in regard to the advantage of the trade to this kingdom) a diſcovery of the nature of the goods, and thereby laying open the owners, in ſuch foreign country, to the penalty for trading in ſuch goods.——That, although ſuch policies are now allowed, yet he remembers them much queſtioned, and called fraudulent. But no ſuch reaſon holds in the caſes of inſurances of houſes from fire; and in which inſurances all ſuppoſe an intereſt in the aſſured.

In the caſe of Lynch and Dalzel, which was before the houſe of lords, in March 1729, one Ireland, being entitled to the remainder of a long term of years in a houſe at Graveſend, cauſed the ſame to be inſured from fire in the Sun-fire-office, and the inſurance was to him, his heirs, executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns. Ireland dying, his ſon and executor agreed with the appellant to ſell, and aſſign to him, this houſe, together with the benefit of the policy for the inſurance of the houſe. The leaſe of the houſe was accordingly aſſigned, but, there being no aſſignment of the policy prepared, that was only delivered up, and, in fact, not aſſigned, but Ireland promiſed to execute an aſſignment of it to the appellant at any time after.

But, before the policy was aſſigned, the houſe was burnt down, and a bill was brought in this court by the appellant to compel the company to pay the money inſured by the policy, and the bill was diſmiſſed by lord chancellor King, and his order affirmed by the lords.——Lord chancellor ſaid, that he was counſel in the cauſe, and that the reaſons, upon which lord chancellor King diſmiſſed the bill, appear in the reaſons mentioned in the reſpondent's caſe. That theſe policies are not inſurances of the things themſelves mentioned to be inſured, for no body can warrant againſt accidents.—Nor do ſuch inſurances attach on the thing, or in any manner go with it as incident thereto, by any conveyance or aſſignment of the thing inſured.——But the inſurances are only ſpecial agreements with the perſons inſuring againſt ſuch loſs and damage as they ſhall ſuſtain, and the party inſuring muſt have a property at the time of the loſs, or he can ſuſtain no loſs, and conſequently be entitled to no ſatisfaction.—Lord chancellor obſerved, that this caſe was rather ſtronger than the preſent, but diſmiſſed the bill only without coſts.

Rooke verſus Thurmond. At the ſittings at Guildhall, for B. R. 16 December 1743.

This was an action upon the caſe brought upon a policy of inſurance, in which the plaintiff declared as follows:——London, Giles Rooke complains of John Thurmond, being in the cuſtody of the marſhal of the Marſhalſea of our lord the king, before the king himſelf, for that, whereas the ſaid Giles Rooke, on the 5th day of October, in the year of our lord 1741, at London aforeſaid, to wit, in the pariſh of St Mary le Bow, &c. according to the cuſtom of merchants, from time immemorial, uſed and approved of, cauſed to be made a certain writing or policy of aſſurance, purporting thereby, and containing therein, that one Caleb Smith, as well in his own name, as for and in the name and names of all, and every other perſon and perſons, to whom the ſame did, might, or ſhould appertain in part or in all, did make aſſurance, and cauſed himſelf and them, and every of them, to be inſured, loſt or not loſt, at and from South Carolina to Cowes, upon the body, tackle, apparel, ordnance, munition, artillery, boat, and other furniture of and in the good ſhip or veſſel called the Polly, whereof was maſter under God, for that then preſent voyage, Capt. William Henry, or whoſoever elſe ſhould go for maſter in the ſaid ſhip, or by whatſoever other name or names the ſame ſhip, or the maſter thereof, was or ſhould be named or called, beginning the adventure upon the ſaid ſhip, &c. from and immediately following her firſt arrival there, and ſo ſhould continue and endure until the ſaid ſhip, with the ſaid tackle, apparel, &c. ſhould be arrived at Cowes, and there had moored at anchor 24 hours in good ſafety; and it ſhould be lawful for the ſaid ſhip in the voyage to proceed and ſail to, and touch and ſtay at, any port or places whatſoever, without prejudice to that inſurance.—The ſaid ſhip, &c. for ſo much as concerned the aſſureds, was and ſhould be valued, at intereſt or no intereſt, free from average, and without benefit of ſalvage, without further account to be given for the aſſureds for the ſame, touching the adventures and perils which the aſſurers were contented to bear, and did take upon them in that voyage, were of the ſeas, men of war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettezons, letters of mart and countermart, ſurprizals, takings at ſea, arreſts, reſtraints and detainments of all kings, princes and people, of what nation, condition, or quality ſoever, barretry of the maſter and mariners, and of all other perils, loſſes, and misfortunes, that had, or ſhould come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the ſaid ſhip, &c. or any part thereof; and in caſe of loſs or misfortune, it ſhould be lawful to the aſſureds, their ſervants, factors, and aſſigns, to ſue, labour, and travel for, in and about the defence, ſafeguard, and recovery of the ſaid ſhip, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to that inſurance, to the charges whereof they the aſſurers would contribute each one, according to the rate and quantity of his ſum therein aſſured.—— And it was agreed by them the aſſurers, that the ſaid writing, or policy of aſſurance, ſhould be of as much force and effect, as the ſureſt writing or policy of aſſurance heretofore made in Lombard-ſtreet, or on the Royal Exchange, or elſewhere in London.——And ſo they the aſſurers were contented, and did thereby promiſe and bind themſelves each for his own part, their heirs, executors, and goods to the aſſured, their executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for the true performance of the premiſſes, confeſſing themſelves paid the conſideration due unto them for that aſſurance by the aſſured, at and after the rate of 5 l. 15 s. per cent. and in caſe of loſs, which God forbid, the aſſured to abate 2 l. per cent.——And the ſaid Giles avers, that the ſaid policy of aſſurance was ſo made as aforeſaid, in the name of the ſaid Caleb Smith, on the account and riſque of the ſaid Giles, and that the ſaid Giles, at the time of making thereof, was ſolely intereſted therein.——Of all which premiſſes, the ſaid John afterwards, to wit, on the day and year aforeſaid, at London, &c. had notice, and thereupon afterwards, to wit, on the day and year aforeſaid, at London aforeſaid, and in

the pariſh and ward aforeſaid, in conſideration that the ſaid Giles, at the ſpecial inſtance and requeſt of the ſaid John, had, then and there, paid to the ſaid John the ſum of 5 l. 15 s. as a premium and reward for the inſurance of 100 l. of and upon the premiſſes in the ſaid policy mentioned, and had undertaken and faithfully promiſed to perform and fulfil every thing in the ſaid policy of aſſurance contained, on the part and behalf of the aſſured, to be performed and fulfilled, he the ſaid John undertook, and, then and there, faithfully promiſed the ſaid Giles, that he would become an aſſurer to the ſaid Giles, for the ſaid 100 l. of and upon the premiſſes in the ſaid policy mentioned. And that he would perform and fulfil every thing in the ſaid policy contained on his part and behalf, as ſuch aſſurer, as to the ſaid 100 l. to be performed and fulfilled, and then and there ſubſcribed to the ſaid policy as ſuch aſſurer for the ſaid 100 l.—And the ſaid Giles in fact ſaith, that, before the making of the ſaid policy, to wit, on the firſt day of May, in the year of our Lord 1741, the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, with all her apparel and other furniture, firſt arrived at South Carolina aforeſaid, and afterwards, to wit, on the 12th day of July, in the year of our Lord 1741 aforeſaid, the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, with all her apparel, and other furniture, departed and ſailed from South Carolina aforeſaid, towards Cowes aforeſaid, and proceeded on her ſaid voyage to the port of Cowes aforeſaid, and afterwards, to wit, on the 18th day of July, in the year laſt aforeſaid, the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, with all her tackle, boat, and other furniture, ſo proceeding in her ſaid voyage, towards the port of Cowes aforeſaid, before her arrival at the port of Cowes aforeſaid, on the high ſeas was, with force and arms, in an hoſtile manner, attacked, conquered, and taken as a prize by certain enemies of our lord the king, and his crown of England, to wit, by certain Spaniards, and ſubjects of the king of Spain.—And the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, with all her tackle, and other her furniture, were thereby, then and there, wholly loſt, and never did arrive at the port of Cowes aforeſaid.——Of all which ſaid premiſſes, the ſaid John afterwards, to wit, on the firſt day of December, in the year of our Lord 1741 aforeſaid, at London aforeſaid, in the pariſh and ward aforeſaid, had notice, and was, then and there, requeſted by the ſaid Giles to pay him 98 l. parcel of the ſaid 100 l. 2 l. reſidue of the ſaid 100 l. being to be abated to the ſaid John, on account of the loſs aforeſaid; which 98 l. the ſaid John ought to have paid to the ſaid Giles, according to the ſaid promiſe and undertaking.—Yet the ſaid John, not regarding his ſaid promiſe and undertaking, but contriving, and fraudulently intending, craftily and ſubtily to deceive and defraud the ſaid Giles in this particular, hath not yet paid the ſaid ſum of money, or any part thereof, to the ſaid Giles (although ſo to do the ſaid John by the ſaid Giles was requeſted afterwards, on the day and year laſt aforeſaid, at London aforeſaid, in the pariſh and ward aforeſaid) but he to pay the ſame to him hath hitherto wholly refuſed, and ſtill refuſes.

There was another count for 5 l. 15 s. for money had and received by the defendant, for the uſe of the plaintiff.—Damages laid 100 l.

The defendant pleaded the general iſſue, non aſſumpſit, and iſſue was thereon joined.

Upon this caſe, it was clearly taken at the trial before Lee, chief juſtice, without any objection or queſtion made upon it, that the plaintiff was well entitled to maintain this action, upon the policy of inſurance made in the name of Caleb Smith, who was the policy-broker employed to procure the inſurance, he having, by endorſement upon the policy, acknowledged and declared, that the policy was made in his name upon the account and for the ſole riſque and benefit of the plaintiff; and Smith was allowed, without any objection, to prove the underwriting by the defendant, and his own endorſement.

In this caſe, the defence, inſiſted on for the defendant underwriting this policy, had been informed by a letter wrote from Carolina, by a ſhip called the Collet, to one Mr Crokatt, that the Polly, the ſhip inſured, had ſailed ten days or a fortnight from Carolina, before the ſhip Collet, and that the ſhip Collet had arrived in England about ſeven days before the inſurance made, and that the plaintiff had not informed the defendant of this, which was inſiſted on to be a fraud in the plaintiff, ſufficient to diſcharge the defendant of this inſurance; it being, as was inſiſted, a ſettled and eſtabliſhed rule, that, on making an inſurance, all material circumſtances, relating to the adventure, ought to be diſcloſed to the inſurer, for him to judge upon; and the chief juſtice allowed this rule, and declared his opinion, that the concealment inſiſted on was a ſufficient circumſtance to diſcharge the defendant from the policy; for he ſaid, that theſe contracts are made upon a mutual faith and credit; and that to conceal ſuch circumſtances which may make any difference in the adventure is fraudulent; for the inſurer ought to have the advantage of judgment upon them, and that, where there is ſuch concealment, the inſurance ought not to bind.—But, the defendant not being able to make out this fact to the ſatisfaction of the jury, the plaintiff had a verdict.

N. B. In this caſe, the inſurance was a re-inſurance, and it was ſaid by ſeveral policy-brokers, that where policies are made, intereſt or no intereſt, it is generally in ſuch caſes of re-inſurances.

Prendle verſus Hartley. Mich. 18 Geo. II.

A bill in Chancery was brought for relief againſt a verdict and judgment given in the court of Common Pleas, upon a policy of inſurance, and to have an injunction to ſtay exemption upon the judgment. The caſe appeared to be, that the ſhip inſured was taken by a Spaniſh privateer; and that, after it had been carried infra hoſtium præſidia, it was re-taken by an Engliſh privateer.—It was argued for the now plaintiff, who was the defendant at law, that although, by the law of nations, the firſt capture of the ſhip, and it's being infra hoſtium præſidia, had abſolutely diverted the right of the original proprietors; yet that now by the ſtatute made in the year 1740 it is otherwiſe, being thereby provided, That if the ſhips of our Engliſh merchants ſhould be taken by the enemy, and afterwards re-taken by any of his majeſty's ſubjects, that the right of the original proprietors in ſuch ſhips ſhould be reſerved, on their paying one moiety of the value of ſuch ſhips to the re-captors for re-ſalvage.——Upon this it was argued, that the verdict and judgment are unjuſt, in regard that the whole inſurance money is given in damages, when it appears, that the plaintiff at law, upon payment of one half of the value of the ſhip, might recover it back, and therefore that one half of the inſurance money ought only to have been given in damages; upon which the injunction prayed by the bill was moved for.

On the other ſide it was inſiſted, that this was a right verdict, and that the inſured were not to be put to the delay, expence, and trouble of aſcertaining the value of the ſhip, in order to recover it back, upon payment of one moiety of the value to the captors.——That for recovery thereof, the inſurers might ſtand in the place of the inſured, and make uſe of their names, which had been offered.——That, they did not pretend to oppoſe ſo much of the bill as ſought this, but inſiſted, that this could be no ground for granting the injunction prayed.——That this point had been debated before lord chief juſtice Willes, upon trial of the iſſue at Niſi Prius, who had declared his opinion, that this right of ſalvage ought not to preclude the inſured from their recovery upon the inſurance, till the ſalvage ſhould be ſettled.——That the defendants, the inſurers, would be entitled to ſtand in the place of the inſured, to make what advantage they could of the ſalvage.

Lord Hardwicke chancellor, being of the ſame opinion, refuſed to grant the injunction; and ſaid, that the damage, in recovering the ſalvage, is as much a part of the inſurance as the ſhip itſelf.

Sparrow verſus Caruthers, at Guildhall, 19 July, at the ſittings for B. R. before Lee chief juſtice.

Action on a policy of inſurance of goods, on board a ſhip called the Three brothers, at and from Peterſburg in Ruſſia to London, and till the goods ſhould be ſafely landed.—It appeared, in evidence, that the ſhip arrived ſafe at London, and came as nigh to the wharf as ſhe could, and then the merchant inſured ſent a lighter for the goods, and they were ſunk in the lighter.—The court held the inſurer not liable.—Verdict for the plaintiff for 40 s. for return of the ſhip with convoy, ſuch deduction being agreed to by the policy, and the 40 s. not being returned or brought into court.—This verdict was on a count for the 40 s. as money had and received to the plaintiff's uſe.

Pond verſus King. Hil. 21 Geo. II.

Upon a ſpecial verdict in an action brought on a policy of inſurance, and the general iſſue of non aſſumpſit pleaded, it appeared, that the defendant had underwrote the policy in queſtion, as an inſurer upon a ſhip called the Salamander, being a privateer ſhip for a coaſting voyage for three months. It appeared that this ſhip was taken by a French man of war, but was afterwards re-taken; and, upon payment of the proper ſalvage, was reſtored to the owners.——The breach aſſigned in the declaration was on the capture within the three months, and the general queſtion appeared to be, whether the plaintiff could be entitled to judgment upon ſuch a caſe? Lee, chief juſtice, ſaid, that though this ſpecial verdict was found with a view to determine, whether there was any change or alteration in the property of the ſhip; yet the court were all of opinion, that they ought not to determine the merits of this caſe by that queſtion, but upon the policy itſelf, as the contract of the parties, and upon the intention of the parties appearing therein. For though, by the civil law, there muſt be a loſs of property, to entitle a perſon inſured to recover againſt the inſurer; yet, that it is not ſo in our law, which judges upon the contract itſelf, and the intention of the parties appearing therein. He cited a caſe of De Paiba and Ludlow, Comyns 360. as one in point, but ſaid, he had a manuſcript note of the caſe, and the judgment of the court, by which it appears, that that caſe is but im-

perfectly reported in Comyns:——That the court were all of opinion, the plaintiff had aſſigned a breach, upon which he is entitled to recover. For, though the loſs in this caſe is ſuch as does not entirely deprive the inſured of the ſhip, yet he has ſuſtained a loſs by the capture and detention of the ſhip; which is within that part of the policy, which inſures againſt all captures and detentions.——And, to ſhew that it is not neceſſary there ſhould be an entire loſs to intitle the plaintiff to recover, he cited the caſe of Bond and Gonſales. 2 Salk. 445. and another caſe in Salk. 444. Judgment for the plaintiff.

N. B. The inſurance was intereſt or no intereſt, but no weight was laid upon this, in giving the judgment of the court.

Though the following caſe is prior in time to the preceding; yet, as it has occurred, while drawing up this matter, we judged it better to be placed here than omitted, ſeeing it gives great light into this uſeful ſubject.

IN DOMO PROCERUM. February 1, 1730.

De Ghettoff & al. verſus London Aſſurance company.

This caſe came before the houſe of lords upon an appeal from an order made by lord chancellor King.—The caſe appeared to be, that the appellant Ghettoff and others, having fitted out a ſhip for a voyage from Oſtend to China, ſent a commiſſion to one Deconick, their agent in London, to procure an inſurance made by the reſpondents, the London Aſſurance company, upon the ſaid ſhip, for the voyage aforeſaid, for 5000 l. which inſurance was accordingly made and entered into by the reſpondents in the common form.—The ſhip being loſt in her voyage, the appellants brought their bill in the court of Chancery againſt the reſpondents, and alſo againſt the ſaid Deconick, ſetting out the inſurance, and ſuggeſting, that the ſhip was loſt; which loſs amounted in value to the whole of the ſaid 5000 l. and that the plaintiffs were, in ſhares, entitled to recover the ſame. And having ſet forth, that the ſaid Deconick was only their truſtee, they further charged, that he refuſed to let them make uſe of his name at law, and that they lived abroad in ſeveral diſtant and remote places, whereby, and by reaſon of the great difficulty of producing witneſſes viva voce, they were diſabled from bringing an action at law, and therefore prayed a decree for the 5000 l. according to their ſeveral proportions.

The reſpondents put in an anſwer to ſo much of the bill as related to a diſcovery; but as to the demand of the 5000 l. or any leſs money, they demurred. For cauſe of which demurrer ſhewed, that, if the policy was forfeited, a proper action at law lay to recover the money ſo loſt, and that the appellants, if they had any juſt demand, might have their complete and adequate remedy, by ſuch action at law, where matters of this nature are properly cognizable, and where the appellants ought to prove their intereſt, and loſs, and not in a court of equity.

This demurrer was argued before lord chancellor King, upon the 15th of June 1728, and the appellants counſel inſiſting very much on the allegation in the bill, of Deconick the truſtee's refuſing to permit his name to be made uſe of in an action at law, his lordſhip was pleaſed to reſpite the conſideration of the demurrer, till the coming in of the defendant Deconick's anſwer —— But, if the appellants did not procure his anſwer within two months, it was ordered, that the demurrer ſhould be allowed.

Deconick put in his anſwer within the two months, and thereby admitted, that he made the aſſurance in his own name, in truſt, and for the benefit of the appellants; but ſaid, he did not care to permit the appellants to bring any action againſt the company, on the ſaid policy in his name, he being adviſed, that if he did, and they failed therein, he ſhould be perſonally liable to pay the coſts.

Upon which, on the 21ſt of November 1729, the demurrer came on to be further argued, when it was ordered, that it ſhould ſtand, and be allowed.——From which order an appeal was preferred to the houſe of lords, upon the two following reaſons:

Firſt, For that the Appellants cannot maintain an action at law upon the ſaid policy in their own names, and it is in the power of their truſtee, whether he will permit his name to be made uſe of or not.——And that, in caſe the appellants were able to bring an action in their own names, it would be to no purpoſe, in regard that all their witneſſes, who can prove the loſs of the ſhip, and the reſpective intereſt of the appellants therein, live at diſtant places beyond the ſeas, and are not in the power of the appellants; nor can the appellants compel them to come over here to be examined, on any trial at law.

Second'y, for that the appellants can have no manner of remedy againſt the reſpondents upon the ſaid policy, but in a court of equity, where they may have an opportunity, by virtue of a commiſſion, to examine their witneſſes beyond the ſeas, and thereby be enabled to prove the loſs of the ſaid ſhip.——And that, in caſe the appellants are deprived of this remedy, they will not only loſe the ſaid 5000 l. but alſo the ſum of 600 l. which they paid, as a premium to the reſpondents, upon making the inſurance. And the reſpondents, though they are debtors to the appellants in 5000 l. and intereſt, will, inſtead of paying ſuch debt, go away with 600 l. of the appellants money.

On behalf of the reſpondents it was inſiſted, that the order for allowing this demurrer was agreeable to equity.

Firſt, that the appellants demand is plainly a demand at law, they having nothing to prove, but their intereſt and the loſs of the ſhip, which are facts proper to be tried by a jury.

Secondly, That there is no equity ſuggeſted in the bill, but a pretended difficulty to produce witneſſes, and that their truſtee refuſed them to bring an action in his name.—The former of which may, with equal reaſon, be ſuggeſted, in almoſt every caſe of a policy of inſurance; and the latter appears manifeſtly to be thrown into the bill, merely to change the juriſdiction, and is in a great meaſure falſified, by their truſtee's anſwer. For he does not ſay he ever refuſed, but that (at the time of ſwearing his anſwer) he did not care to let his name be made uſe of.

Thirdly, That, if bills of this kind are encouraged, it will be very eaſy to bring all kinds of property to be tried in a court of equity.

The lords were pleaſed to affirm the order.

This being a point of very great importance to our trading intereſts, is the reaſon of dwelling ſo long upon it; for which we hope rather to have the approbation than cenſure of our readers.

We have alſo various offices of aſſurance from fire, ſome for houſes, others for goods, and ſome for both, which are very uſeful inſtitutions; but the nature of them, in that reſpect, is ſo generally underſtood, that it will be thought needleſs to dwell thereon.

We have likewiſe aſſurances for life, in virtue whereof, when the perſon aſſured dies, a ſum of money becomes payable to the perſon in whoſe behalf the policy of aſſurance was granted.

LIFE POLICY. By the Governor and Company of the London Aſſurance of Houſes and Goods from Fire.

In the name of God, Amen.
Do make aſſurance, and cauſe to be aſſured upon natural life aged for and during the term and ſpace of calendar months, to commence this day of in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and and fully to be complete and ended. And it is declared, that this aſſurance is made to and for the uſe, benefit, and ſecurity of the ſaid executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, in caſe of the death of the ſaid within the time aforeſaid, which the above governor and company do allow to be a good and ſufficient ground and inducement for the making this aſſurance, and do agree that the life of h the ſaid is and ſhall be rated and valued at the ſum aſſured, without any farther account to be given to them for the ſame: the ſaid governor and company therefore, for and in conſideration of per cent. to them paid, do aſſure, aſſume, and promiſe, that h the ſaid ſhall, by the permiſſion of almighty God, live, and continue in this natural life, for and during the ſaid term and ſpace of calendar months, to commence as aforeſaid; or in default thereof, that is to ſay, in caſe h the ſaid ſhall, in or during the ſaid time, and before the full end and expiration thereof, happen to die or deceaſe out of this world by any ways or means whatſoever, That then the aboveſaid governor and company will well and truly ſatisfy, content, and pay unto the ſaid h executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, the ſum or ſums of money by them aſſured, and here underwritten, abating two pounds per cent. Hereby promiſing and binding themſelves and their ſucceſſors to the aſſured, h executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, for the true performance of the premiſſes, confeſſing themſelves paid the conſideration due unto them for this aſſurance by the aſſured.

Provided always, And it is hereby declared to be the true intent and meaning of this aſſurance, and this policy is accepted by the ſaid upon condition that the ſame ſhall be utterly void and of no effect, in caſe the ſaid ſhall exceed the age of or ſhall voluntarily go to ſea, or into the wars, by ſea or land, without licence in writing firſt had or obtained for h ſo doing, any thing in theſe preſents, to the contrary hereof, in any wiſe notwithſtanding. In witneſs whereof, the ſaid governor and company have cauſed their common ſeal to be hereunto affixed, and the ſum or ſums by them aſſured to be here under-written, at their office in London, this day of in the year of the reign of our ſovereign lord by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. and in the

the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and

The ſaid governor and company are content with this aſſurance for

There is likewiſe an office for the inſurance of lives at Serjeants-Inn, in Fleet-ſtreet, London, the nature of which is as follows:

Terms, methods, and advantages of inſuring lives, in the office of The Amicable Society for a perpetual Aſſurance, kept in Serjeants-Inn Fleet-Street, London.

On the 25th of July, 1706, the then lord biſhop of Oxford, Sir Thomas Aleyn, Bt. and others, obtained from the late queen Anne a charter for incorporating them and their ſucceſſors, by the name of The Amicable Society for a perpetual Aſſurance-Office, whereby they might provide for their wives, children, and other relations, after an eaſy, certain, and advantageous manner; with power to purchaſe lands, ſue and be ſued, and to have a common ſeal, &c. The number of perſons to be incorporated not to exceed 2000, but may be leſs; each perſon to receive a policy, under the ſeal of the corporation, intitling his nominee to a dividend, on his or her deceaſe, in the manner mentioned in the charter. After paying the charges of the policy, and 10 s. entrance money, each perſon was to pay 6 l. 4 s. per ann. which payments have ſince, by the raiſing a joint-ſtock, been reduced to 5 l. payable quarterly. From theſe payments the dividends to claimants are to ariſe: for which reaſon, if the ſame ſhall be at any time a year and a quarter in arrear, ſuch defaulters are excluded from all benefit of their policies. The affairs of the corporation are managed by a court of directors, according to the powers granted by the charter, and the directions of the by-laws. The directors are 12, choſen yearly, within 40 days after every 25th day of March. The majority of members, aſſembled at a general court (which is never to conſiſt of leſs than 20) are impowered to make by-laws and ordinances, for the good government of the corporation. The charter directs one of the members of the ſociety to be elected their regiſter, who is alſo their receiver and accomptant, and therefore the by-laws require him to give good ſecurity, in the ſum of 2000 l. at leaſt. All perſons to be admitted are to be between the ages of 12 and 45, and appearing in a good ſtate of health. Perſons living in the country may be admitted by certificates and affidavits, forms of which may be had at the office. Every claimant is impowered to put in a new life, in the room of the deceaſed, within 12 kalendar months next after the end of the current year, for which his or her claim ſhall be allowed, as often as the ſame ſhall happen, upon payment of 10 s. entrance; any perſon is allowed to have two or three ſeveral inſurances (or numbers) on one and the ſame life, whereby ſuch perſon will be intitled to a claim on each number ſo inſured. Five members of the ſociety are annually elected auditors, who are by their office to inſpect every tranſaction of the ſociety, to examine all vouchers for receipts and payments; and upon oath to lay before the quarterly and annual general courts the quarterly and annual accounts of the ſociety: and, on the day before the holding each court of directors, to ſtate and enter, in the directors minute-book, a ballance of the caſh of the ſociety. That the good end intended by the charter has been purſued, and the ſociety found to be a common benefit to mankind, will evidently appear from a ſtate of their yearly dividends, from Lady-Day 1710, to Lady-Day 1749 (the preceding years having been particularly provided for by the charter) being 39 dividends ſucceſſively, amounting to the ſum of 277,104 l. and upwards, on 2,967 claims, ſo that upon an average, the amount of each claim has not been leſs than 93 l. 3 s. 7 d. But they have been conſiderably more for theſe 15 years laſt paſt, a general court having, in 1734, appropriated a part of their yearly income for augmenting the claims, whenever they ſhall happen to be under 100 l. the quantum of ſuch claims being as follows, viz.

	l.	s.	d.		l.	s.	d.
Anno 1734	100	—	—	Anno 1742	94	16	4
1735	121	11	8¼	1743	88	15	4
1736	101	13	4	1744	126	6	8
1737	100	—	—	1745	97	13	11½
1738	110	—	—	1746	128	6	8
1739	101	10	2	1747	100	—	—
1740	100	—	—	1748	125	—	—
1741	98	9	10				

which, one year with another, makes the amount of each claim 106 l. 5 s. 7 d.

The advantages propoſed from becoming members of this ſociety are principally as follow:

To clergymen, phyſicians, ſurgeons, lawyers, tradeſmen, and particularly perſons poſſeſſed of places or employments for life; to maſters of families, and others whoſe income is ſubject to be determined, or leſſened, at their reſpective deaths, who, by inſuring their lives, may, in all probability, leave to their families a claim not leſs than 100 l. for every 5 l. annually paid in.

To married perſons, where a jointure, penſion, or annuity, depends on both or either of their lives, by inſuring the life of the perſons intitled to ſuch annuity, penſion, or jointure.

To dependents upon any other perſon, and thereby intitled to ſalary or benefaction during the life of ſuch perſon, whoſe life being inſured in this ſociety, either by themſelves or by their dependents reſpectively; in either caſe, ſuch dependents may become entitled to a claim, or claims, upon the death of the perſons on whom they are dependent, in proportion to the numbers inſured.

To perſons wanting to borrow money, who, by inſuring their lives, are enabled to give a ſecurity for the money borrowed.

To creditors intitled to demands larger than their debtors are able to diſcharge; ſuch debtors may, by a like inſurance, ſecure to their creditors the principal ſums at their deaths.

The abovementioned advantages are offered chiefly with reſpect to inſurances for life; but temporary inſurers may find no leſs advantage from this ſociety, as may plainly appear from the following inſtances, viz. A. B. has agreed for the purchaſe of an office, or employment, but wants 300 l. to make up the purchaſe-money: he is willing to aſſign a ſhare of the profits, or income, of his office, as a ſecurity or pledge, for the repayment of the principal, with intereſt; but cannot obtain a loan of that ſum without inſuring his life, till the whole be cleared; which he is enabled to do, by the help of this ſociety: e. g. he purchaſes three blank (or vacant) numbers on each of which he inſures his life, and thereby his aſſigns become intitled to three ſeveral claims at his death; which claims, by the abovementioned proviſion, will not probably be leſs than 100 l. each, and may amount to more. He aſſigns and depoſits his policies with the lender: he pays to the ſociety, for the yearly contributions on the three numbers, no more than 15 l. which is 5 l. per cent. under which rate no other office will inſure, and that for one year only; at the end of which, ſuch offices are at liberty to refuſe any further inſurance: whereas in this ſociety the inſurance continues till excluſion for non-payment of the quarterly contributions. And as to the money laid out in the purchaſe of the blank (or vacant numbers) the inſurer may, at the end of his inſurance, diſpoſe of them at a market-price.

To ASSURE, or INSURE, is to give a premium of ſo much per cent. to an underwriter, or inſurer, to indemnify ſuch who inſure from loſſes by ſea or by fire, &c.

ASSURER, or INSURER, one who inſures, or underwrites policies of aſſurance. See ASSURANCE.

ASTRABAD, or ESTARABAD, in Perſia, together with Khœmus, or Coumas, are ſeated in the north-weſt part of Perſia, having Coraſan on the eaſt; part of Tartary on the north; the Caſpian Sea on the weſt, and alſo a little on the north; Tabriſtan on the weſt; and a branch of mount Taurus, with the deſert of Segeſtan, on the ſouth. It is a mountainous country; and, except near the banks of the two rivers, Margab and Arias, which run through it, the ſoil is ſandy and barren; but, in that part, it is champaign land, pleaſant and fruitful, producing grapes of wonderful bigneſs. The inhabitants are a mixture of Perſians and Tartars. The chief city here is that which gives name to the province; namely,

ASTRABAD. Here they make a great many brown druggets, and other light ſtuffs, which is the chief of their trade within themſelves.

ASTRACAN, a kingdom in the empire of Muſcovy, is bounded on the north by Bulgaria and Barkiria; on the ſouth by the Caſpian Sea; on the weſt by the Wolga, which parts it from the Nagayan Tartars and Don Coſſacks; and, on the eaſt, by a chain of hills, which divide it from Great Tartary. On a vaſt heath, on the weſt ſide of the Wolga, are produced immenſe quantities of fine tranſparent ſalt, which the ſun bakes, and incruſtates about an inch thick, and looks like fine rock-cryſtal on the ſurface of the water. Thoſe pits eſpecially called Cainkowa, Gwoſtolſki, and Mozanofſchi, which are at 30, 25, and 10 miles from Aſtracan, yield ſuch quantities of it, that, for the value of a half-penny for every pood, or 40 pound weight, any body may carry off as much as he pleaſes. It hath a fine perfume, like that of a violet; and the Ruſſians, who make a conſiderable traffick of it, have it carried and laid in great heaps on the banks of the Wolga, where it lies ready to be ſhipped off.

Along the banks of the Wolga grow great quantities of liquorice.

The city of ASTRACAN is ſo conveniently ſituated for commerce, that it is greatly reſorted to by Perſians, Armenians, and other merchants, inſomuch that the cuſtoms for the imports and exports of it, though they are reckoned very low and moderate, were computed to bring in to the late Czar, Peter the Great, 250,000 crowns per ann. beſides the convenience of vending all the native commodities of Ruſſia, and receiving in exchange the ſilks, cotton, and other valuable merchandizes of Perſia, India, &c. Here grows the animal plant called bonnaretz, in great quantities, and is ſold to very great advantage. Here is likewiſe a fiſh called biloege, which is caught in the Wolga, nearer the Caſpian Sea, in great abundance; of the roes of which they make what we call

call caveer, in which the Ruſſians drive a very advantageous traffic.

ASTRINGENT, a term of medicine and dyeing. The phyſicians give the name of aſtringent drugs, and the dyers that of aſtringent materials, or ingredients, to the bark of alder, of the pomegranate, crab, and walnut-tree, when the ſap riſes, as alſo to the ſaw-duſt of oaks, walnut-ſhells and roots, gall-nuts, and ſumach. See DYEING.

ASTURIAS, a principality in Spain, lies on the north ſide, along the bay of Biſcay, borders on the weſt on Galicia; on the ſouth it is divided by Caſtile and Leon, by a ridge of mountains, which is nameleſs. On the coaſt it reaches to the port Llanes, now Santillana, where it joins a narrow ſlip of land belonging to Old Caſtile, which runs into the ſea between Aſturias and Biſcay.

Places of moſt note in this principality are, Oviedo, Santillana, Gijon, and the little province of Liebana.

1. OVIEDO is about 20 miles diſtant from the bay of Biſcay. The country about it is very mountainous, abounds in cattle, Indian wheat, cheſnuts, corn, and all ſorts of grain. The mountains, eſpecially thoſe which divide this principality from Leon and Caſtile, beſides their natural fertility, were formerly rich in mines of all ſorts of metals and minerals.
2. LIEBANA, is about 27 miles long, and 12 broad. It is one of the moſt craggy and mountainous parts of Spain, exceſſive high, and almoſt inacceſſible. Theſe mountains are called Europæ, and in full front of the ſea; and produce plenty of corn, wine, fruit, cattle, and game.

ATCHE, the ſmalleſt coin that is ſtruck and current in the Grand Seignior's dominions. It is of ſilver, and worth about 4 deniers French, or $\frac{2}{3}$ of a farthing Engliſh money. As there is no copper coin in the whole Ottoman empire, except in the province of Babylon, where there are liards, or farthings of Lyons and Dombes, the poor are well pleaſed when one gives them an atche for alms, which is the ſmalleſt piece you can give them. The atches, or ſmall aſpers, as ſome call them, are pretty much like thoſe ſpangles of tinſel with which they uſed formerly to ſet off gold and ſilver embroidery, except that they are ſomething ſtronger and longer. They are marked, like the para, with Arabian characters: you give commonly three or four atches for one para.

ATIBAR. Thus the inhabitants of the kingdom of Gago in Africa call gold-duſt; and from that word the Europeans, and eſpecially the French, have compoſed the word Tibir, which alſo ſignifies gold-duſt among thoſe who trade in that commodity.

ATLAS, a ſilk-ſattin, manufactured in the Eaſt-Indies. There are ſome plain, ſome ſtriped, ſome flowered, the flowers of which are either gold, or only ſilk. There are Atlaſſes of all colours, but moſt of them falſe, eſpecially the red and the crimſon.

It muſt be owned that the manufacture of them is wonderful and ſingular; and that, eſpecially in the flowered atlaſſes, the gold and ſilk are worked together after ſuch a manner as no workmen in Europe can imitate; but yet they are very far from having that fine gloſs and luſtre which the French know how to give to their ſilk ſtuffs *.

* In the Chineſe manufactures of this ſort, they gild paper on one ſide with leaf-gold, then cut it in long ſlips, and weave it into their ſilks, which makes them, with very little coſt, look very rich and fine. The ſame long ſlips are twiſted or turned about ſilk threads, ſo artificially, as to look finer than gold-thread, though it be of no great value.
This may afford a good hint to our Britiſh weavers, for the like kind of improvements.

Among the ſeveral ſorts of atlaſſes, the moſt conſiderable are, the cotonis, the caucanias, the cotonis-bouilles, and the bouilles-chaſmay, or charmay. The atlaſſes cotonis are thus called, becauſe the ground of them is cotton, and the reſt ſilk. The caucanias are ſtriped ſattins, and thoſe of them which ſeem moſt ſilky are ſtiled quenkas. The calquiers are ſattins made after the Turkiſh manner, or like Hungary point. The bouilles-cottonis and bouilles-charmay are thick ſilks, like thoſe ſtrong taffeties made at Tours in France.

There are atlaſſes from 4 French ells and $\frac{1}{8}$ in length, by $\frac{2}{3}$ in breadth, to 14 ells in length, by $\frac{9}{16}$ in breadth. Thoſe that come near to half the uſual length are called half-pieces.

ATTACHMENT, a cuſtom in ſome places, particularly in the city of London, whereby a creditor may attach the goods of his debtor, in any hands where he findeth them, privileged perſons and places only excepted. For example: if A owes B 100 l. and C owes A 100 l. B may attach the ſum in the hands of C. By the cuſtom of London, one may attach money or goods of the defendant, either in the plaintiff's own hands, or in the cuſtody of a third perſon, and that either in the mayor's court or ſheriff's court.

And the cuſtom is, that, if any plaint be affirmed in London, in thoſe courts, againſt any man, and he is returned nihil; if the plaintiff will ſurmiſe any other man within the city who is debtor to the defendant in any ſum, he ſhall have his garniſhment againſt him to come and anſwer, if he be indebted in the form the other hath alledged; and, if he comes and does not deny it, then his debt ſhall be attached in his hands.

But debts upon record, ſtatute, or recognizance; debt recovered, or which is in ſuit in the King's-Bench or Common Pleas, after iſſue joined, imparlance to the action, or writ purchaſed returnable in banco; and if money be in the ſheriff's hands by execution, &c. theſe are not attachable in London; nor ſhall attachment lie for rent. 1 Roll. Abr. 552.

A legacy may not be attached in the hands of an executor, for it is uncertain whether the executor ſhall have effects to pay debts; but, for the debt of an inteſtate, if a debt be due only upon ſimple contract, a foreign attachment may be made; for the executor, or adminiſtrator, is chargeable for a debt due by the teſtator, or inteſtate, upon a ſimple contract as well as upon a ſpecialty. If a ſuit be commenced againſt the executor of any perſon, any debt which was due to the teſtator, at the time of his death, may be attached by the executor; but not where the executor himſelf takes bond for a debt due to the teſtator; and, if he ſells the goods, the money for which they were ſold, &c. cannot be attached.

A debt due may be attached by the adminiſtrator, an adminiſtrator being within the cuſtom. 1 Ventr. 111.

Debt may be attached in the hands of an attorney of the King's-Bench, and he ſhall not be privileged; becauſe, if ſuch privilege were allowed, the defendant might put his eſtate into his attorney's hands, and the creditor will be barred of his remedy. If a man be indebted to another by bills, note, or verbal agreement, in any ſum payable at a time to come, an attachment may be made for the money before the time agreed for payment thereof, even immediately, and judgement ſhall be preſently had; but the execution ſhall not be awarded for this money, until it becomes due according to the time mentioned in the agreement. Goods or money at any time coming to the garniſher's hands (viz. the third perſon) after the attachment, though it be ſix months after, ſhall be liable to the attachment. 1 Roll. Abr. 553. Sid. 362.

Part of a debt may be attached, by the cuſtom of London. Money due upon account, after promiſe to pay it, and the day of payment paſt, may be attached; but no action may be afterwards maintained for the breach of promiſe. Where an account is made upon debts by ſimple contract, or where executors give time for payment of a bond due to the teſtator, theſe ſhall be ſtill attached. If a man dies inteſtate, an attachment may be made of money or goods, in a third perſon's hands, before adminiſtration, &c. being entered againſt the biſhop of London: but, when there is a will proved, or letters of adminiſtration granted, the attachment dies, and muſt be again made by the executor, or adminiſtrator, againſt the party, unleſs it be condemned fully in the mean time. If a third perſon be condemned on attachment, and judgment is given; if no execution be ſued againſt him, the plaintiff in the action may have judgment and execution againſt his principal debtor; and ſuch debtor may ſue the third perſon for his debts, notwithſtanding the judgment. 1 Roll. 551. Dy. 822.

Merchants ſhould be well adviſed, before they make attachments, becauſe both the civil law and cuſtoms of merchants do impoſe great damages upon the party, if he hath made his attachment without juſt cauſe, to the overthrow of the other party's credit.

There ſhould be great caution not to admit any attachment to be made in London, or any other city or town corporate, according to the cuſtom of London, unleſs it be upon ſpecial inſtances, and alſo with putting in good ſureties for the coſts. For it is a very dangerous thing for merchants living beyond the ſeas, or in remote places of the kingdom, to be liable to have their goods ſecretly attached by their own factors, upon pretence of debt, and ſo have judgment paſſed thereon, before they can be preſent to remove the attachment; which fraud has been often practiſed.

ATTORNEY at law, is an employment worthy of a ſcholar and a gentleman, their time being wholly taken up in officiating in that learned and laudable profeſſion; to diſcharge the duty of which with reputation requires knowledge and experience, obtained through a good deal of practice, integrity, and the hand of a ready writer.

Their buſineſs, in general, conſiſts not only in drawing, ingroſſing, ſeeing executed, and regiſtered, when required, all inſtruments, or deeds, in writing, of what kind ſoever, relating to the ſecurity of private property; but alſo preparing all proceedings in law and equity, and attending them through the ſeveral offices, while before the different maſters, prothonotaries, &c. when in the reſpective courts, or before the chancellor, judges, or maſter of the Rolls; and, laſtly, the happy concluſion, and, ſometimes, reconciliation of the parties that have been in ſuit.

Thoſe who chiefly attend affairs in Chancery are commonly called ſollicitors in Chancery; and others are diſtinguiſhed according to the courts they are ſworn into; and of courſe are admitted attornies of the court of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, or Exchequer; and, if any one tranſacts matters in a different court from his own, he muſt do it in the name of an attorney in that court, each court taking particular cognizance of the conduct of it's own attornies. Some principally

cipally follow conveyancing, a very advantageous, as well as moſt uſeful, branch of the law, but requires much reading, practice, and judgment.

There are two other denominations that ſeem to belong to this profeſſion, a ſcrivener and a notary-public: but of theſe in their proper place.

Remarks.

The gentlemen of this profeſſion are very numerous, and they employ a great number of hands; yet there is room enough ſtill for ſome thorough proficients, both in the courts and at the deſk.

Therefore a youth deſigned for a clerkſhip (for ſo it is termed, and is articled but for five years) in this profeſſion, ought not to be too young, 16 at leaſt; ſhould underſtand Latin, and ſome French; eſpecially the old; write a good hand, and be a thorough-paced accountant, in order to adjuſt, unravel, and liquidate ſuch accounts as may come before him.

He ſhould alſo know ſo much of the old court hands as to be able to read them; and, with this, the old law French, and law Latin abbreviations; if he is diligent, with theſe he may make himſelf familiar during his clerkſhip. And theſe improvements, though the preſent uſe of them ſeems to be laid aſide, the young clerks will find of great ſervice to them, in caſe they ſhould have occaſion to ſearch court-rolls, or examine ancient deeds, &c.

I have heard it remarked by ſome very ingenious gentlemen of this profeſſion, that, if a young man officiated for three or four years as clerk, after the expiration of the uſual time, of his clerkſhip, he would not only find himſelf better qualified in buſineſs for his own account, but would more effectually recommend himſelf to the world, people being diffident of truſting the care of their properties in unexperienced, juvenile hands. As the trader, from the multiplicity and variety of his tranſactions, is more liable than any other perſon to be drawn into broils and law-ſuits; ſo nothing is more adviſeable, when that is unavoidable, than to make choice of an able and experienced, as well as an honeſt, attorney; ignorance in his profeſſion proving no leſs injurious than knavery; and integrity, without ſuitable abilities, may be equally detrimental to a client.

Let the trader's cauſe, however, be ever ſo good, and the ſkill as well as the juſtice of his attorney unexceptionable, yet, if he does not keep the ſtate of his accounts in a regular and methodical manner, and preſerve all his vouchers, to verify the truth of his books, the beſt lawyer can be of little ſervice to him; ſo that it may be truly ſaid, it depends in a great meaſure upon every trader to be his own lawyer, by being capable, at all times, to furniſh his attorney or ſollicitor with proper evidence, in juſtification of his conduct.

An Attorney, alſo, is any private perſon legally authorized by another to pay or receive monies, ſue, or tranſact any other kind of buſineſs, in the name of ſuch perſon who ſhall appoint him or her their lawful attorney.

This power or authority is transferred to another by virtue of what is called a letter of attorney; which muſt always be drawn up in a legal manner, ſuitable to the peculiar nature and circumſtances of the caſe. It is neceſſary, therefore, that a ſkilful perſon ſhould be made choice of, eſpecially in caſes of conſequence, to draw up ſuch like inſtruments with judgment and legality; for, by truſting to common general forms, which any blockhead may collect, when ſuitable variations therefrom are required, is too often the cauſe of involving traders in great perplexities and expenſive law-ſuits.

In regard to merchants conſtituting or appointing other perſons to tranſact buſineſs in foreign countries, by the way of attorney or procurator, ſuch inſtruments of authority ſhould always be drawn up by notary-publics, and not by thoſe of as little knowledge as credit, but by Exchange notaries, who are preſumed to be perſons of judgment, as well as reputation in their profeſſion, and whoſe names and ſignatures are well known in foreign nations.

The form of a general letter of attorney from A B to C D.

Know all men by theſe preſents, that I, A B, of London, merchant, have named and conſtituted, and by theſe preſents do name, appoint, and make my truſty friend C D, of Liverpool, merchant, my true and lawful attorney, for me, and in my name, and to my uſe, to demand, ſue for, recover, and receive of J. W, of Liverpool, merchant, the ſum of to me due and owing, by and from the ſaid J. W; giving and hereby granting unto my ſaid attorney my full power and authority to uſe and exerciſe all ſuch arts, things, and devices in the law, as ſhall be neceſſary for recovering of the ſaid debt; and acquittances, or other diſcharges, in my name to make and give; and generally to do and execute in the premiſſes as fully as I myſelf might, or could do, being perſonally preſent; rectifying, confirming, and allowing all, and whatever my ſaid attorney ſhall lawfully do, or cauſe to be done therein, by theſe preſents.

In witneſs whereof, I have hereunto ſet my hand and ſeal, this day of in the 25th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George II, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c.

Sealed and delivered (being firſt duly ſtamped) in the preſence of A B.

An attorney at law being a perſon who is inveſted with the care of people's property, the law has made good proviſion to prevent their impoſing on their clients; which, being a matter of conſequence to the man of buſineſs, it may be neceſſary for him to be briefly informed of in his Commercial Dictionary.

An attorney, ſollicitor, or ſervant to any, ſhall not be allowed any fees given to counſel, or for copies, unleſs he have tickets thereof, ſigned by the hands of them that receive ſuch fees; and he ſhall alſo give unto his client true bills of all the charges of ſuit under his own hand, before he can charge his client with the payment thereof: and, if he delay his client's ſuit for gain, or demand by his bill allowance for money which he hath not diſburſed, the client ſhall recover againſt him his coſts and treble damages, and he ſhall be for ever after diſabled from being an attorney or ſollicitor. Stat. 3. Jac. I. cap. 7. Sect. 1.

By ſect. 2. or the ſame ſtatute, none ſhall be admitted attornies in courts of record, but ſuch as have been brought up in the ſame courts, or otherwiſe well practiſed in ſolliciting of cauſes, and found ſkilful, and of honeſt diſpoſition; and none but ſuch ſhall be hereafter ſuffered to ſollicit cauſes in the courts aforeſaid. And an attorney ſhall not admit any other to follow a ſuit in his name, on pain that each of them ſhall forfeit 20 l. to be divided between the king and party grieved, and the attorney ſhall be excluded.

If any perſon convicted of forgery, or of wilful and corrupt perjury, ſhall practiſe as an attorney, ſollicitor, or agent, in any ſuit or action, in any court of law or equity within England, the judges of the courts, where ſuch ſuit or action is brought, ſhall, on complaint, or information thereof, examine the matter in a ſummary way, in open court; and, if it ſhall appear to their ſatisfaction that the perſon complained of hath offended contrary to this act, the judges ſhall cauſe ſuch offender to be tranſported for ſeven years. Stat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 29. ſect. 4.

No perſon ſhall be permitted to act as an attorney, or to ſue out proceſs, &c. in the name of any other perſon, unleſs he ſhall have taken the following oath, and ſhall have been duly admitted and inrolled, in ſuch of the ſaid courts where he ſhall act as an attorney. Stat. 2. Geo. II. cap. 23. ſect. 1.

The oath is as followeth:

I A B do ſwear, that I will truly and honeſtly demean myſelf in the practice of an attorney, according to the beſt of my knowledge and ability.

So help me God.

The ſame oath alſo muſt be taken by a ſollicitor.

Before any perſon is admitted to take the ſaid oath, the maſter of the Rolls, two of the maſters in Chancery, the barons of the Exchequer, the chancellor of the duchy, and the judges of the other courts of equity, ſhall examine touching his capacity. Sect. 4. of the ſaid ſtat.

No attorney or ſollicitor ſhall commence an action for fees, till the expiration of one month after he ſhall have delivered to the party a bill of ſuch fees, &c. written in plain Engliſh (except law-terms and names of writs) and, upon application of the party, chargeable by ſuch bill, to the chancellor or the maſter of the Rolls, or to any of the courts wherein the buſineſs contained in the ſaid bill, or the greateſt part thereof in value, ſhall have been tranſacted; and, upon ſubmiſſion of the ſaid party to pay the ſum that, upon taxation, ſhall appear to be due, it ſhall be lawful for the lord chancellor, &c. to refer the ſaid bill to be taxed by the proper officer, without any money being brought into court; and, if the attorney or ſollicitor, or client, neglect to attend ſuch taxation, the officer may proceed to tax the bill; which ſum ſo taxed, being paid, ſhall be a diſcharge of the bill; and, in default of nonpayment, the party ſhall be liable to an attachment, or proceſs of contempt, or ſuch other proceeding, at the election of the attorney or ſollicitor, as ſuch party was liable to; and if, on ſuch taxation, it ſhall be found that the attorney or ſollicitor ſhall have been overpaid, he ſhall refund to the party intitled, or to any perſon by him authorized, if preſent at the ſettling thereof, or otherwiſe as the court ſhall direct, all the money that the officer ſhall certify to have been overpaid; and, in default thereof, the attorney or ſollicitor ſhall in like manner be liable to an attachment, or proceſs of contempt, or ſuch other proceeding, at the election of the party; and the courts are required to award the coſts of ſuch taxation, to be paid by the parties according to the event of the taxation, viz. if the bill taxed be leſs by a ſixth part than the bill

delivered, then the attorney or ſollicitor is to pay the coſts; but, if it be not leſs, then the court, in their diſcretion, ſhall charge the attorney, or client, in regard to the reaſonableneſs, or unreaſonableneſs, of ſuch a bill.

AVA. The empire of Ava, including the kingdom of Pegu, lies between independent Tartary on the north; the Indian Sea on the ſouth; Siam on the ſouth-eaſt; part of Bengal and it's gulph, on the weſt; and part of China, Tonquin, and the kingdom of Laos, on the eaſt. The moſt ſouthern country, that uſed to be called the kingdom of Pegu, is very fruitful in corn, fruits, roots, and excellent pulſe of ſeveral ſorts, and produces timber for building, elephants-teeth, bees-wax, ſtick-lack, iron, ſaid to be of ſo hard a quality that it is almoſt a natural ſteel; tin, oil of earth, wood-oil, the beſt rubies in the world, ſmall diamonds, ſapphires, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. They have abundance of ſalt-petre, but 'tis death to export it; and plenty of lead, which paſſes here for money. About 20 ſail of ſhips find their account in trade for the limited commodities, but the Armenians have got the monopoly of the rubies, which turns to a good account in their trade.

The people wear none of our European manufactures but hats and ribbands; ſo that the gentry will give extravagant prices for fine beaver hats, and rich ribbands, flowered with ſilver and gold. Cotton-cloths from Bengal and Coromandel, with ſome ſtriped ſilks, are beſt for their market; and ſilver of any ſort is welcome to them. It pays the king 8 ½ per cent. cuſtom; but, in lieu thereof, he indulges the merchants to melt it down, and put what alloy they pleaſe in it, and then to paſs it off in payment as high as they can. Rupeé ſilver, without alloy, will bear 20 per cent. of copper alloy, and keeps the Pegu touch, which they call flowered ſilver; and, if it flowers, it paſſes current. They make flowered ſilver thus: when the ſilver and copper are mixed and melted together, they put it, while liquid, into a ſhallow mould, and blow on it through a ſmall wooden pipe, which makes the part blown up appear with the figures of flowers, or ſtars; but, if there is too great a mixture of alloy, no figures will appear. The king generally adds 10 per cent. on all ſilver that comes into his treaſury, beſides what was put on at firſt; and, though it be not flowered, it muſt go off in all his payments; but, from any body elſe, it may be refuſed, if it is not flowered.

The chief towns are,

1. SYRIAM, which is the only port now open for trade in all the Pegu dominions, and is capable of receiving a ſhip of 600 tons. The Portugueze, who had this port given them by the king of Arracan, to reward their ſervices to him in his wars, held it many years; but, through their pride and inſolence, were obliged, in 1614, to quit it, and the trade was reſtored to the Moors. It drives a good trade with Armenians, Portugueze, Moors, Gentaws, and ſome Engliſh. Their import is ſeveral ſorts of Indian goods, as betellas, mulmuls, tanjebs, and European hats, and ſilver; and the cuſtoms here, which are about 8 ½ per cent. amount, with other charges, to about 12 in the hundred. As ſoon as foreign ſhips arrive here, the number of people on board, with their age and ſex, is ſent to the king, to acquaint him, that ſo many of his ſlaves are arrived, to partake of the glory and happineſs of his reign and favour.
2. PEGU, according to Moll, is divided by the river of the ſame name into two towns, the old and the new. The latter was the ſeat of it's kings; the former is ſtill the reſidence of it's merchants and artificers, and it lies 20 miles up the river; according to others, it lies 80 miles up the river.
3. The city of AVA is ſaid to be a place of trade for jewels and muſk.

The country of Ava Proper abounds with mines of ſilver, copper, and lead, and has ſtore of elephants and horſes.

The places of chief note on the coaſt, which, from Syriam to Cape Negrais, is in the Pegu dominions, are,

1. DOLA, or DELA, which Moll repreſents to be an iſland. Tytch ſays it has a good harbour, from whence ſhips trade to Malacca, the Red Sea, &c.
2. COSMIN, or COSMI, whoſe neighbourhood produces great figs, oranges, cocoas, and other fruit. The inhabitants go from hence to Pegu in their boats, wherein they live all the year with their families.
3. MEDEN, is another pretty town, where there is abundance of boats, in which they keep their markets upon the water, and ſhade their commodities from the ſun by large umbrellas.
4. NEGRAIS, is a cape and town on the coaſt, which has a good harbour, but there is a bar, which makes it's entrance difficult.

The next kingdom in the empire of AVA is TIPRA, or TIPOURA, in the moſt northern part of it, between the rivers Coſmin and Caypoumo, having Independent Tartary on the north; part of China and Ava on the eaſt and ſouth; the Mogul's country on the weſt; and Arracan on the ſouth-weſt. Here they have coarſe gold and ſilk, which all belongs to the king, who requires nothing elſe of his ſubjects, but that all, who are not of the prime nobility, ſhould give him one week's work in a year in his mines, or ſilk-works. He ſends his gold and ſilk into China; from whence he has ſilver in return, which he coins into pieces of 20 d. and 22 d. value, as he does gold into aſpers of two ſorts, four of the one, and 12 of the other, amounting to a crown.

BOUTAN, or LASSA, is a kingdom in this peninſula, which ſome think rather belongs to Tartary. It has Tartary on the north, China on the eaſt, Aſem on the ſouth; and Great Tibet, and part of the Mogul's dominions, on the weſt. The country abounds with rice, corn, pulſe, and wine; and it's other commodities are coral, the beſt rhubarb, muſk, furs, and martens. It is not doubted but there are ſilver mines here, becauſe there are pieces of money coined here by the king's order, to the value of half a crown, which have eight angles, with certain characters, but they are neither Indian nor Chineſe. As for what little gold they have, 'tis brought hither by merchants from the Eaſt.

AUDITOR of ACCOUNTS, is an officer of the king, or ſome other great perſon, who examines yearly the accounts of all under officers, and makes up a general book, which ſhews the difference between their receipts and charge, and their ſeveral allowances, commonly called allocations: as the Auditors of the Exchequer take the accounts of thoſe receivers who collect the revenues, 4 Inſt. 106. receivers general of fee-farms rents, &c. are alſo termed Auditors, and hold their audits for adjuſting the accounts of the ſaid rents at certain times and places appointed. And there are auditors aſſigned by the court, to audit and ſettle accounts in actions of accounts, and other caſes, who are proper judges of the cauſe, and pleas are made before them, &c. Brownl. 24.

AUDITORS of the Exchequer, are officers appointed in England, under the crown, to take the accounts from other public officers, who collect the national revenue.

AUDITORS of the impreſt, are ſuch officers under the crown, in the Exchequer, who receive and make up the great accounts of Ireland, Berwick, the mint, wardrobe, firſt-fruits, and of all monies impreſſed to any perſon for the king's ſervice.

AUDITOR of the receipts, is an officer of the Exchequer, who files the tellers bills, and duly enters them, and gives the lords of the treaſury a certificate of the money received from the ſeveral branches of the revenue the week before; and who gives in the ſtate of thoſe accounts from year to year to the parliament. He alſo makes out debentures to the reſpective tellers of the Exchequer, before they receive any money, and takes their accounts, and ſees the tellers money locked up in the royal treaſury.

AVERAGE, or AVERIDGE, a term of commerce by ſea, which ſignifies the accidents and misfortunes which happen to ſhips and their cargoes, from the time of their loading and ſailing to their return and unloading.

There are three ſorts of averages, the ſimple, or particular, averages, the large, or common, and the ſmall ones.

The ſimple averages conſiſt in the extraordinary expences incurred for the ſhip alone, or for the merchandizes alone; in which caſe, the damages that happen to them in particular, ought to be borne and paid by the thing which ſuffered the damage, or occaſioned the expence.

Among the ſimple averages is reckoned the loſs of cables, anchors, ſails, maſts, and rigging, occaſioned by ſtorms or ſome other accidents, common at ſea; as alſo the damages which happen to the merchandizes, either by the maſter or the crew's fault, or through neglect in ſhutting the hatches cloſe, or in well anchoring the ſhip, or for want of good cordage, for hoiſting up the merchandizes, &c. All theſe averages muſt be borne by the maſter, the ſhip, and the freight.

The damages which happen to merchandizes, through ſome defects in them, or by ſtorm, prize, or ſhipwreck, or running a-ground; the expences incurred for the ſaving of them, and the duties, taxes, and cuſtoms, ought to be placed to the account of the proprietors. By ſome defect in the merchandizes muſt be underſtood their decay, or growing worſe, rotting, being wet, running, &c.

The proviſions and hire of the ſeamen, when the ſhip happens to be ſtopped in her voyage, by the order of ſome ſovereign, are alſo reckoned among the ſimple averages, and muſt be borne by the ſhip alone, provided ſhe was hired for the whole voyage, and not by the month.

The large or common averages are thoſe expences incurred, and damages ſuſtained, for the common good and ſecurity both of the merchandizes and the veſſels. Of that number are,

The things or money given to pirates for the ranſom of the ſhip and cargo; things thrown overboard, cables and maſts, broke or cut anchors, and other things left behind, in order to ſave the veſſel and merchandizes.

The damage ſuſtained by the merchandizes left in the ſhip, when the others were thrown overboard; the dreſſing the wounds, and maintaining of ſuch ſailors as were wounded in defending the ſhip, and the expences of unlading for entering into ſome harbour, or into a river, or for putting the veſſel a-float again.

The proviſions and hire of the ſailors of a ſhip ſtopped in her voyage

voyage by the order of a ſovereign, when the ſhip was hired by the month, and not for the voyage.

All theſe large and common averages ought to be borne by the ſhip and cargo, and to be regulated, upon the whole, in France, at the rate of a ſol per livre, or 5 per cent.

The ſmall averages are the loadmanages, towing, and piloting of ſhips, for entering into, or coming out of, harbours or rivers; one third of theſe expences muſt be borne by the ſhip, and two thirds by the cargo.

They do not reckon among averages in France, the fees paid for the liberty of departing, viſiting the ſhip, reports, tuns, buoys, or ſea-marks, and anchorage. All theſe muſt be borne and paid by the maſter of the ſhip.

The damages, ſuſtained by ſhips falling foul of one another, ought to be borne and paid in equal proportions by the maſters of both ſhips, this not being reckoned any part of the other averages. But yet, if the falling foul of one ſhip upon another is occaſioned through the fault of one of the maſters, the damage muſt be made good by him alone.

All thoſe averages may be ſeen in the ordonnance of the marine in France, iſſued in Auguſt 1681, title 7, of the third book.

AVERAGE, ſignifies alſo a duty paid for the maintaining of a harbour, by every ſhip that enters in it.

AVERAGE, according to the merchant's law in England, is uſed or taken for a certain contribution that merchants, and other traders do proportionably make towards their loſſes, who have their goods caſt into the ſea for the ſafeguard of the ſhip, or of the goods and lives of them in the ſhip, in the time of a tempeſt; and this contribution ſeems to be ſo called, becauſe it is proportioned after the rate of every man's average, or goods carried.

Ships being freighted, and at ſea, are often ſubject to ſtorms, and other accidents, in which, by the ancient laws and cuſtoms of the ſea, in extreme neceſſity, the goods, wares, guns, or whatſoever elſe ſhall be thought fit, may, in ſuch extremity, be flung overboard; but then the maſter ought to conſult with his mariners, who, if they conſent not, and yet the ſtorm and danger continues, the maſter may command, notwithſtanding, the caſting overboard what he ſhall judge moſt fitting for the common ſafety of the reſt. So likewiſe goods coming from infected towns, or places, may be caſt overboard; and, if an action be brought at common law, the defendant may juſtify the ſame, by pleading the ſpecial matter.

If there be a ſupercargo, a requeſt ought to be made to him to begin firſt; but, if he refuſes, the mariners may proceed.

If the ſhip ſo fortunes as to out-weather the ſtorm, and arrives in ſafety at her port of diſcharge, the maſter, and moſt of the crew, muſt ſwear that the goods were caſt over for no other cauſe but purely for the ſafety of the ſhip and lading. The cuſtom of clearing that point varies according to the ſeveral countries or places they arrive at.

Where goods are laden above the overlope, or forbidden goods be tranſported; if ſuch goods happen to be the cauſe of any danger or damage, the maſter ſhall bear the loſs; alſo he may be proſecuted criminally.

King William the Conqueror, and Henry I. made and ratified this law concerning goods caſt overboard by mariners in a ſtorm, in imitation of the Rhodian law, de jact.

The ſhip arriving in ſafety, the remainder muſt come into the average, not only thoſe goods which pay freight, but all thoſe that have obtained ſafety and preſervation by ſuch ejection, even money, jewels, and clothes, and ſuch like are not exempted.

But thoſe things which are borne upon a man's body, victuals, and the like, put on ſhip-board to be ſpent, are totally excluded from the contribution.

The maſter ought to be careful, that only thoſe things of the leaſt value, and greateſt weight, be flung overboard.

In the rating of goods by way of contribution, this order is obſerved: if they chance to be caſt overboard, before half the voyage be performed, then they are to be eſteemed at the price they coſt; if after, then at the price as the reſt, or the like, ſhall be ſold at the place of diſcharge.

The perſon, whoſe goods have been caſt, is to be careful to have the ſame eſtimated before the ſhip do diſcharge, wherein the maſter ought to be aſſiſtant.

Goods are ſhipped in England, and a tempeſt ariſeth, the paſſengers, for ſaving their lives, caſt them overboard, and another Engliſh ſhip takes them; the owners bring trover, it lies, becauſe delivered upon the land. 2. Rolle's Rep. 498. Caſes v. Tooker.

It is lawful for paſſengers to caſt goods overboard out of a ferry-boat, in caſe of a tempeſt, for preſervation of their lives: ſo, if the ferryman ſurcharge the boat with goods, the owners of the goods ſhall have their remedy againſt the ferryman in this caſe of a ſurcharge, but not in the other caſe. 12 Coke 63. 2 Bulſtr. 280.

As this law doth take care that this common calamity ſhould be borne by all the parties intereſted, by a general contribution; ſo the common law takes notice of the misfortune, and makes proviſion to indemnify the maſter; and, therefore, if the party owner of ſuch ejected goods ſhall bring an action againſt the maſter, or owners of the veſſel, the defendant may plead the ſpecial matter, and the ſame ſhall bar the plaintiff. 12 Coke 63. 2 Bulſtr. 280. Bird verſ. Aſtoot.

But, if the ſhip's gear, or apparel, be loſt by ſtorm, the ſame is not within the average, but is accounted like unto a workman breaking or ſpoiling his tools; except in the avoiding of a danger, as the flinging the maſt overboard, or the ſlipping the tow-anchor or boat.

Goods brought ſecretly into the ſhip, againſt the maſter's or purſer's knowledge, if ejected, no contribution is to be had.

As the common law looks upon the goods and cargo as a pawn, or pledge, for the freight; ſo the marine law looks upon them, likewiſe, as a ſecurity for the anſwering the average and contribution, and that the maſter ought not to deliver the goods till the contribution is ſettled, the ſame being tacitly obliged for the one as well as the other.

If, through the rifling of the ſhip, or the caſting or unlightening the ſhip, any of the remaining goods are ſpoiled, either with wet, or otherwiſe, the ſame muſt come into the contribution for ſo much as they are made worſe.

If it falls out that a ſhip, entering into a port or channel, cannot make way, and there be a lightening or diſburdening of the ſhip, then the contribution falls two parts to the lading, and one third part to the ſhip, except the ſhip ſurpaſſes in value the lading, or that there is ſome bad quality in the ſhip itſelf.

But, to prevent that ambiguous queſtion, if the party covenants that the goods ſhall be delivered at the port covenanted and appointed, then condition makes law.

So for the pilot's fee, and riſing of the ſhip off ground, when there is no fault in the maſter.

If two ſhips happen to encounter and croſs each other, and the crew ſwear their innocency, contribution muſt be made by a juſt equality; but, if one periſhes, as there can be no proportion of the loſs, ſo no contribution. The reaſon given is, for that, otherwiſe, a ſkipper might, on purpoſe, ſet an old weak ſhip againſt a ſtrong ſhip, and, by that means, hedge himſelf into a contribution and recompence. However, this bars not the owners from bringing their action againſt the negligent maſter, by which means he may recoop himſelf in damage; if it happens at ſea, the action, by the civil law is called legis aquilæ. Goodwin verſ. Tompkins. Noy. Rep. 148.

If ſuch a misfortune happens in the night at ſea, the party, if he will completely arm himſelf for his recovery, ought to prove that he made out light, or fire, or otherwiſe gave notice, by crying or calling out.

If it falls out in the ſhip, or veſſel, by the indiſcreet ſtowing or lading thereof above the birth-mark, that ſuch ejection happened, in that caſe it has been uſed by the marine laws that no contribution be made, but ſatisfaction is to be anſwered by the ſhip, maſter, or owners.

If ſalt, or corn, be laid looſe, or in an heap, by divers perſons in one ſhip, without diſtinction, and the maſter delivers to any of them their due ſhare, or quantity; but, before the reſt receive their ſhare, or meaſure, the remaining ſalt, or corn, waſhes, or loſes; thoſe that had the good fortune to have their ſhares, ſhall enjoy it, without any contribution to the other partners.

If, to avoid the danger of a ſtorm, the maſter cuts down the maſts and ſails, and they, falling into the ſea, are loſt, this damage is to be made good by the ſhip and lading, pro rata: otherwiſe, if the caſe happens by ſtorm, or other caſualties.

No contribution is to be paid, in caſe one ſhip ſtrike againſt another, whereby damage happens; but full ſatisfaction is to be anſwered the merchant, in caſe of fault, or miſcarriage, in either, or an equal diviſion of the damage, in caſe it happens by a caſualty, as above.

If a lighter, or ſkiff, or the ſhip's boat, into which part of the cargo is unladen, for the lightening of the ſhip, periſh, and the ſhip be preſerved, in that caſe contribution is to be made; but, if the ſhip be caſt away, and the lighter, boat, or ſkiff be preſerved, then no contribution, or average, is to be had, it being a rule, No contribution but where the ſhip arrives in ſafety.

If a ſhip happens to be taken, and the maſter, to redeem the ſhip and lading out of the enemies or pirates hands, promiſes them a certain ſum of money, for performance whereof himſelf becomes a pledge, or captive, in the cuſtody of the captor; in this caſe he is to be redeemed at the coſts and charges of the ſhip and lading, and money, if there be any in her, to be contributed, according to each man's intereſt, for his ranſom.

So, where a pirate takes part of the goods to ſpare the reſt, contribution muſt be paid.

But, if a pirate takes by violence part of the goods, the reſt are not ſubject to average, unleſs the merchant hath made an expreſs agreement to pay it after the ſhip is robbed.

But, if part of the goods are taken by an enemy, or by letters of mart and repriſal, e contra.

So likewiſe in ſtorm, if the ſame is done for preſervation of the remainder.

The maſter may hypothecate the ſhip for his own redemption. Lord Raym. Rep. 22.

A ſhip was taken by a French privateer, and the maſter of her ranſomed her for 1,800 l. (the maſter having a ſhare in the ſhip, the mate was carried into France as a hoſtage for this money. Lord chancellor ſaid the ranſom-money muſt be raiſed out of the firſt profits, notwithſtanding any former mortgage of the ſhip; for, if there was a precedent mortgage, what would have become of the ſecurity, if the ſhip had not been redeemed? After the ſhip was redeemed, ſhe performed her intended voyage, and the freight-money, earned after her redemption, was the firſt profits ariſing, and out of theſe the ranſom-money is to be ſatisfied. This was upon motion. The lord chancellor ſaid, the inſurers always paid part of the ranſom-money. Hil. 7 Annæ, in Chancery, Lopes and Winter. In ejectment the maſter, or purſer of the ſhip, ſhall contribute for the preſervation of the ſhip, and alſo the paſſengers, for ſuch wares as they have in the ſhip, be it pearls, precious ſtones, and ſuch like; and paſſengers that have no wares or goods in the ſhip, yet in regard they are a burden to the ſhip, eſtimate is to be made of his and their apparel, rings, and jewels, towards a contribution of the loſs; and generally all things in the ſhip, except the victualling and proviſions of the ſhip, and the bodies of men (unleſs ſervants) muſt bear a proportionable ſhare in the contribution.

The eſtimate being made of the goods loſt and ſaved, the price is to be ſet down, not for how much they were bought, but how much they might be ſold for, at the time when the ejectment was made; and, if any thing be flung into the ſea, and endamaged, and afterwards is recovered again, yet contribution is to be made only for the damage.

Contribution is to be paid for the pilot's fee that hath brought a ſhip into a port, or haven, for her ſafeguard, it not being the place ſhe was deſigned for, ſo to raiſe her off the ground, when there is no fault in the maſter.

If a maſter of a ſhip lets out his ſhip to freight, and then receives his complement, and afterwards takes in goods, without leave of the freighters, and a ſtorm ariſes at ſea, and part of the freighters goods are caſt overboard, the remaining goods are not ſubject to the average, but the maſter muſt make good the loſs out of his own purſe.

The goods which are loſt are to be valued, and the goods ſaved are to be eſtimated; which being known, a proportionable value is to be contributed by the goods ſaved, towards reparation of the goods ejected.

In which, regard is always had, not to what might be got by the goods loſt, but what the intrinſic damage is by the loſs of the ſame; the which are not ſo much to be eſtimated what they might have been ſold for, as what they might coſt, or were bought for.

But now the cuſtom is general, that goods ſaved and loſt are eſtimated according as the goods ſaved were ſold for, freight and other neceſſary charges being firſt deducted *.

* The cuſtom of places varies this modus of eſtimating; the which is done by merchants and mariners, indifferently nominated by the court.

If there were plate, jewels, or the like, in a trunk, cheſt, pack, or bale, at the time of their ejection, if there be a ſupercargo, he ought to give notice, by diſcovering of the ſame to the maſter or mariners, otherwiſe he ſhall be anſwered in the contribution no more than the bare extrinſic value appeared to be: but the aſſurers will hardly fare ſo well.

If contribution ſhall be ſettled, and the merchant will not agree, the maſter may detain the lading, for the ſame is as tacitly obliged to anſwer that, as the freight; and if, at the common law, the merchant ſhould bring an action, the defendant ſhall bar him, by pleading the ſpecial matter.

If goods are caſt overboard, and afterwards are recovered, contribution ceaſes, ſaving for ſo much as they are damnified, and made worſe, by reaſon of ſuch ejectment.

Note, Goods caſt overboard, to lighten the ſhip, make no derelict.

And, though neceſſity ſeems to ſubject the lading to ejectment, to prevent the ruin and deſtruction of the perſons, yet ſome lading ſeems expected; and, therefore, cannon, and other inſtruments or proviſions, conſigned to relieve a city, ought not to be flung overboard; for, in ſuch caſe, the law impoſeth on every ſubject, that he prefer the urgent ſervice of his prince, before the ſafety of his life.

The French ſtile thoſe effects or merchandizes AVERAGED (avariées) which have been damaged, during the voyage, by a ſtorm, ſhipwreck, running a-ground, or otherwiſe. Thus they ſay, du caffé avariée, de la cochinelle avariée, that is, damaged coffee, or cochineal.

AUGUST, the eighth month in the year, reckoning from January. That month is eſteemed one of the richeſt in the whole year, becauſe of the harveſt of wheat, and ſeveral other ſorts of corn, which is produced in that ſeaſon; which gave riſe to this French proverb, A man has made his Auguſt; which proverb is very much uſed among merchants, to ſignify that a man has been ſucceſsful in trade, and got an eſtate.

AVIGNON BERRY, the fruit of a ſhrub, produced in great plenty near Avignon in France, ſomewhat leſs than a pea, of

an aſtringent and bitter taſte, it's colour green, inclining towards a yellow. It is much uſed by dyers and painters.

AUNIS, the ſmalleſt province in France, is bounded on the weſt by the ocean; on the north by Poictou, from which it is ſeparated by the river Sevre; and, on the eaſt and ſouth, by Saintonge. This province is very fruitful, and well peopled.

LA ROCHELLE, has been always a very conſiderable port and trading town. Without the leave of the governor of the Tower of the Chain, no veſſel can enter into the harbour. They drive here a conſiderable trade into the iſlands of America; and the Engliſh, the Dutch, the Swedes, and the Danes, ſend here yearly a vaſt number of ſhips, to load wine, brandy, ſalt, paper, and linnen cloths. The merchants here ſend all the neceſſaries of life into America, and bring back from it the product of thoſe countries. Their chief manufacture here is the refining of ſugar; they have alſo ſet up of late a manufacture of earthen-ware, which ſucceeds very well. Here is a ſovereign court for the ſalt-marſhes in the weſt, and a court of the mint.

MARANS, is a very rich town, and the inhabitants carry on a great trade in corn. They keep here a market once every week, and furniſh the whole province with wheat and meal.

At SURGERES, they keep ſeveral markets, and drive a conſiderable trade in horſes.

AVOIRDUPOIS-WEIGHT, a kind of weight uſed in England, the pound of which is made up of 16 ounces.

This is the weight for the larger and coarſer commodities, viz. groceries, cheeſe, wool, lead, hops, &c. Bakers who live not in corporation towns are to make their bread by avoirdupois-weight; thoſe in corporations by troy-weight.—Apothecaries buy their drugs by avoirdupois-weight, but ſell by troy.

AURICHALCHUM, among the modern writers, ſignifies a factitious metal, commonly called braſs. It is a mixture of copper and calamine-ſtone, melted together by a very fierce fire.

AURIPIGMENTUM, or ORPIMENT, is a ſcaly mineral ſubſtance, or glebe. It is extremely ſlaky, like talc, though it's little ſcales eaſily ſeparate from each other. With regard to colour it is of three kinds, viz. (1.) Gold-coloured, or yellow. (2.) Red, or cinnabarine, mixed with yellow; and, (3.) Greeniſh, or yellowiſh, mixed with a large proportion of earth, and, therefore, the coarſeſt. All the ſpecies are found in the mines of gold, ſilver, and copper. But the auripigmentum we commonly meet with is the yellow ſort. It's taſte is very little, if at all, acrimonious; it diſſolves in oil; it flames in the fire, and then yields a garlic odour. By ſublimation it yields flowers like thoſe of ſulphur, having a hard red maſs, or kind of regulus, at the bottom of the ſubliming veſſel; but, if urged with a ſtrong fire, this maſs alſo ſeems to riſe, and concretes, on the upper part of the veſſel, into a beautiful, red, tranſparent ſubſtance, like a ruby, leaving only a ſmall proportion of a metalline earth behind. It's fumes in burning, being received by copper, render the metal white and brittle, which may give ſuſpicion of an arſenical quality; and, perhaps, it is of a mixed nature, between common ſulphur and antimony, or between ſulphur and the milder arſenical ſubſtances: but it's real nature is not hitherto ſufficiently determined; though Dr Hoffman has beſtowed ſome pains in examining it, and produces arguments to prove it innocent, not only from chemical experiments, but alſo trials made upon dogs; but both theſe kinds of trials we know may deceive, or ſometimes be fatally transferred from one ſubject to another. Under this uncertainty it cannot be adviſeable to give it internally; though it is ſuſpected to be frequently given by certain people, ſometimes with good, but often with bad, effects.

It is commonly uſed by painters for a gold colour, and as a depilator, with quick-lime, at the bagnio's; it is alſo an ingredient in the making of ſhot, and in the ſympathetic inks, which, by their fumes, render certain inviſible inks conſpicuous. We have ſeen it in ſtalks of a moſt vivid, beautiful red, green, and yellow tranſparent colours, brought from abroad, in hopes of obtaining gold from it; but the experiment did not anſwer *.—It has been called, both by the ancients and moderns, realger, red arſenic, and ſandaraca: which confuſion of names has given occaſion to ſeveral errors.

* See Hoffman's Obſervat. Phyſ. Chym. p. 259, 267.

AURUM FULMINANS, or CROCUS of GOLD, is gold in file-duſt, diſſolved in aqua regia, and precipitated into a brown powder, by oil of tartar per deliquium, poured upon the diſſolution. This powder, dried, has much more force, and takes fire ſooner than gun-powder. This preparation of gold is eſteemed, by the ableſt chymiſts, as a ſudorific, very proper in the ſmall-pox, given from two grains to ſix. It is likewiſe good to ſtop vomiting, and ſuppreſs the too vigorous operation of mercurial medicines.

AUSTRIA, an archduchy in Germany, has Hungary on the eaſt, Bavaria on the weſt, Bohemia on the north, and Styria on

on the ſouth. It is a plentiful country, and produces a great quantity of corn and paſture, and of better ſaffron than what comes from the Indies, beſides all other neceſſaries. Though here is wine enough both for conſumption and export, yet 'tis ſupplied with other rich wines both from Hungary and Italy; ſo that at Vienna there are no leſs than thirty ſeveral ſorts. They, not having plenty of black cattle, are ſupplied with great part of their beef from Hungary.

'Tis commonly diſtinguiſhed by geographers into Upper and Lower Auſtria, and indeed is naturally ſo divided by the river Ens, which falls into the Danube.

LINTZ, is the capital city of Upper Auſtria, has an excellent manufacture of gun-barrels, a good trade in linnen cloth, and two fairs at Eaſter and Bartholomew-tide, much frequented by foreigners. From this place to Munich, are many plantations of hops.

GEMUND, is a town at the mouth of the Draun, where it falls into the Gemunder-lake. It has a conſiderable trade in ſalt, which is made at Halſtadt in the neighbourhood, brought hither by the lake, and exported as far as Vienna, which is 118 miles from thence.

STEYER, is a town 20 miles ſouth of Lintz, chiefly inhabited by ſmiths, cutlers, and other manufacturers in iron; who, by the Danube, ſend their wares in great quantities to the neighbouring parts.

FREYSTAT, is a town 25 miles north of Lintz, famous for a palatable beer, which is carried to the neighbouring country; and for a fortnight's annual fair, beginning on St Paul's day, which is much frequented.

KREMBS, a city 40 miles weſt of Vienna, has a great trade, eſpecially at it's two yearly fairs, which begin on St James's and St Simon and St Jude's days, hold each a fortnight, and are frequented by merchants and tradeſmen from all parts of Germany, Bohemia, Moravia, Hungary, and Poland.

BADEN, is a place of great reſort, becauſe of it's natural baths.

HAIMBURG, was one of the greateſt mart-towns in theſe parts, till the year 1200, when Leopold VI, duke of Auſtria, tranſferred it's ſtaple and commerce to Vienna.

The duchy of STYRIA, lying between Auſtria and the Save, abounds with wine, fruit, mines of iron, ſalt, and ſuch plenty of corn, that they want vent for it. But the Upper Styria has no wine, ſo that they barter wool, butter, cheeſe, &c. for it, with Lower Styria.

JUDENBURG, on the river Mur, 50 miles weſt of Gratz, and 90 ſouth of Vienna, has two great yearly fairs, for cattle and other merchandizes, on Aſcenſion and St Urſula's days.

BRUCK, on the river Mur, is noted for a great cattle fair.

EISENARTZ, 40 miles north-weſt of Gratz, is famous for it's mines and forges of iron, from whence it has it's name. The mines were diſcovered anno 712, and have been worked ever ſince, without any ſenſible decay. They employ 19 mills on two ſmall rivers in the neighbourhood, with a vaſt number of labourers, who live here, and ſupply the neighbouring parts with this metal, and all Germany with ſteel. Here is a yearly fair, where hemp, leather, tallow, and all neceſſaries, are bartered for their iron and ſteel. Their works were formerly managed by 19 officers; but the emperor Ferdinand II. incorporated theſe mines of Styria and thoſe of Auſtria, under a lieutenant.

GRATZ, lying on the river Mur, has two fairs a year, one in the Midlent, the other the firſt of September, which hold each a fortnight.

At RAKELSBURG, on the river Mur, the burghers have the ſole privilege of purchaſing all the new wines, from Michaelmas to Catharine-tide. Cuſtoms are here paid for goods that come from, and are ſent to Hungary.

The duchy of CARINTHIA, is ſupplied with wine from its neighbours.

At FRIESACH were formerly mines of gold, that have been exhauſted.

LAAS, near the famous lake of Kirknitz, is noted for a breed of well-ſhaped horſes.

UPPER LAUBACH, on the river Boick, is conſiderable, by being a mart for Italian goods, which are brought hither in great quantities over the mountains from Goritz, and ſent to all parts of Germany.

The province of WINDISCMARK, though a mountainous barren country, eſpecially towards the ſouthward, produces corn and excellent white wine.

RUDOLPSWORTH, on the river Gurck, is famous for the beſt wine in theſe parts, and at four miles diſtance are hot baths, much frequented by foreigners.

The province of KARSTIA, is remarkable for a breed of good horſes, which are bought up by moſt of the Italian nobility.

REMARKS.

At TRIESTE, on the Adriatic ſea, a ſea-port belonging to the imperial hereditary dominions, are made great quantities of ſalt, and exported; and the neighbouring country produces good wine, that the Germans call reinfal, which the Venetians buy cheap, and ſell for exportation. Here is a large harbour, but 'tis only frequented by ſmall veſſels juſt to croſs over to Venice; though the late emperor Charles VI, who had no other ſea-port in all his hereditary dominions before the treaty of peace at Raſtadt, which threw Italy, Sicily, and the Spaniſh Netherlands into his hands, made this a free port, and gave great encouragement to the ſhips and merchants of all nations to come to it, deſigning to make it the center of the Auſtrian commerce in theſe parts of the world. But, the merchants of Trieſte not having a ſtock, the Venetians themſelves came among them, and carried on that very trade for them, by which they were ſo ſanguine at one time, as to think of ſupplanting even Venice itſelf: for from this port the Venetian merchants ſtruck into a new commerce, by the river Save to Belgrade, and thence to Sinope in the Black Sea, and likewiſe to Conſtantinople: and the moſt that it appears the Germans have yet done here is, to ſend ſome ſhips among the Archipelago iſlands, from whence they bring back wines, cotton-yarn, fruits, and ſome ſilk, grogram-yarn, camel's hair, and ſuch goods. But the great misfortune which the Auſtrians laboured under for carrying on the great trade propoſed from this port was, that they had no fund of goods for exportation, either of their produce or manufacture; the chief they could export, of any value, being the wrought iron made in Carinthia, Styria, and the adjacent countries; which indeed is of great ſervice to the Venetians, becauſe they have no iron works near them.

The Venetians alſo have a navigation through Styria, by the river Mur, to the Danube, and ſo to Vienna; and they have the like in Carniola, by the great river Save, which runs into Croatia and Hungary. By theſe countries the Venetians receive a great quantity of large black cattle, which are bought lean, or not above half fed, from Croatia, and then brought down to the ſalt marſhes of Venice, and fed there till they are fat. Some alſo are bought at the ſeveral fairs on the frontiers of Styria and Carinthia; and they are the beſt beef, when fed in the rich lands of Lombardy, that is to be found in thoſe parts of the world. Upon the whole therefore, the trade of this new free port is not likely to anſwer the end propoſed; yet the merchants here keep up their expectations of trade, and lately talked of erecting ſome manufactures of wool and ſilk, that they might have ſomething more to export beſides iron.

The houſe of Auſtria have a noble revenue from the rich wine made and ſold at Proſeg, which is about 7 miles north-weſt of Trieſte.

WIPACK, ſtanding on the river of the ſame name, is alſo famous for it's ſtrong wine and horſe-fairs, which yield the houſe of Auſtria great profit. The wine goes by horſe carriage over the mountains to Carniola, and is from thence conveyed into the empire.

The Biſhoprick of BRIXEN, though lying among the Alps, abounds with excellent wine. The city of Brixen is the ſtation of ſome merchants between Germany and Italy. Here their beſt ſhops are kept in vaults, which run from one ſide of the ſtreet to the other.

TIROL, has Swabia and Bavaria on the north, the Griſons and Trent on the ſouth, Carinthia on the eaſt, and Switzerland on the weſt. Here are mines of ſilver, iron, and copper, but the latter much ſhort of what they were formerly, when they conſtantly employed 30,000 people, but now not 2000. From theſe mines of metal, and others of ſalt, the emperor has a conſiderable revenue; and they fill the country with greater numbers of people than it would be able to bear, without the importation of corn from foreign parts.

At WAHTRINGEN, all their ſubſtance and trade is in cattle. They have no corn but what comes from Bavaria.

SCHWATZ, three leagues from Inſpruck, is noted for mines of ſilver.

HALLE, the ſecond city of Tirol, is famous for it's ſalt works, where ſeveral hundred men are conſtantly employed, either in the works, or cutting fuel for them. The chief of them are in the mountains, four miles from the town; but the water 'tis made of, after having ſtood a month in the trenches there, is brought to the town by troughs, to be boiled in great pans or ciſterns, each 48 feet long, 34 broad, and three deep. Three of them are continually boiling, and one of them reſts a week alternately. Mr. Addiſon, who was here above 40 years ago, ſays, they then made after the rate of 800 loaves a week, each loaf 400 weight; and that the emperor, after having defrayed all the charges of working it, cleared but 200,000 crowns a-year.

Theſe ſalt-works, and a mint eſtabliſhed here, have rendered this town, though ſo near to Inſpruck, almoſt as populous as that capital. Here they coin a great quantity of ſpecie from the ſilver and copper taken out of the mines of Tirol, in which, 'tis ſaid, 7000 men, women, and children are conſtantly employed, and the water is brought to it by wooden pipes. They drive alſo a great trade in copper and tin, as well as ſalt; the vent whereof is much promoted by the river Inn, which here becomes navigable.

At INSPRUCK, the capital of Tirol, was formerly made great ſtore of ſalt, but for ſome years paſt the pits have been dry, which is reckoned a loſs to the city, of no leſs than 200,000 florins a year.

MERAN, 30 miles ſouth of Inſpruck, is a place of good trade.

Bolzano, as it is called by the Italians, or Pozen by the Germans, 12 German miles from Inſpruck, is a place of good trade, eſpecially at it's four yearly fairs, which hold each a fortnight, and to which great numbers of merchants reſort from Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, for whoſe ſake great privileges have been granted to the city. During theſe fairs, merchants are allowed magiſtrates and judges of their own, diſtinct from thoſe of the town; and none are permitted to trade, without being entered in the judge's books, and a certificate of the entry under the ſeal of the corporation.

At Roveredo, on the eaſt ſide of Adige, 11 miles ſouth of Trent, and 29 north of Verona, the moſt remarkable thing, and what they call the great wonder at Roveredo, is it's ſpinning houſe for the manufacture of ſilk, in which they have a great trade here; a fabric being erected to carry it on upon the banks of a little brook, which turns a large wheel that communicates motion to a machine within the houſe, that ſpins raw-ſilk without any body's touching it, farther than to ſet it a-going: and it is remarkable, that it throws or winds off, a leaſt 600 pounds weight of ſilk at once, ſo that it makes a prodigious quantity in a day. When this ſilk is dyed, it is manufactured into ſattins, damaſks, velvets, and other ſtuffs, which are ſold at the fairs of Bolzano, and from thence tranſported to Germany.

The AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

They contain the following ten provinces, viz.

The earldom of Artois.
The earldom of Cambreſis.
The duchy of Luxemburg.
The duchy of Limburg.
The earldom of Namur.
The earldom of Hainault.
The earldom of Flanders.
The marquiſate of the Holy Empire.
The lordſhip of Mechlin.
The duchy of Brabant.

To which may be added the biſhoprick and principality of Liege.

As the provinces of Artois and Cambreſis belong entirely to France, we ſhall only touch them here occaſionally, in the following account of the Auſtrian Netherlands, and refer to the particular provinces which belong to France, under their names.

The Auſtrian Netherlands are bounded by the United Provinces on the north, by Germany on the eaſt, by French Flanders, and by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy on the ſouth, and by another part of Picardy and the Engliſh ſea on the weſt.

This ſpot was once the center of the woollen manufactures, which we have now the ſatisfaction to call the Engliſh manufactures, originally derived from the Flemings; whoſe country was thereby immenſely populous and enriched.

The materials for theſe manufactures, particularly the wool and the fuller's earth, they had from England. As the wool of the Engliſh by this means brought them in conſiderable wealth, they did not ſee their error till about the year 1450, when they began to think, that theſe manufactures might as well be made in England as in Flanders, or the Low-Countries; and their own people be employed in this prodigious ſcene of traffic, to the enriching of themſelves rather than their neighbours.

On theſe motives, they wiſely put a ſtop to the exportation of wool; the clothing was gradually encouraged in England, by the means of manufacturers obtained from the Netherlands, to inſtruct our people in making the cloth, as well as duly managing of the wool for that purpoſe.

Though the people of England made a great progreſs in the manufacture, yet 'twas many years before they were able abſolutely to ſupply their own conſumption. The Flemings had ſtill the whole woollen trade to all the reſt of the world; and theſe manufactures made at Ghent, Bruges, Bruſſels, Liſle, and all the great cities of Flanders, Hainault, Artois, and other provinces on that ſide, were vented in France and Spain; and thoſe made in Brabant, Utrecht, Holland, Gueldre, and all the provinces on that ſide, were ſent to Germany, Lorrain, Switzerland, &c. by the navigation of the Rhine and the Elbe.

By the advantageous war England had with Spain, under the reign of Queen Elizabeth, who exerted the utmoſt pitch of policy for the encouragement of commerce, they not only ſupplied their own country amply with the woollen manufactures, but began to ſupply others; great quantities of fine cloths being exported in her reign, to Turky and Perſia, Venice and Naples

To complete the ruin of the Flemings, in this important manufacture, the exportation of our wool was abſolutely prohibited, and the principal artiſts came to England, and ſet up their manufactures here. And the Spaniards, at that critical time, being ſeized with a religious frenzy, perſecuted this people, who fled to England by thouſands, as an aſylum; and, from that period, we may date the effectual eſtabliſhment of this glorious manufacture in England, and it's deſtruction to our predeceſſors.

As theſe refugee Flemings were proteſtants, and generally manufacturers; ſo, in order to carry on their trade here, according to the great encouragement given them by the queen, they ſettled in ſeveral parts of the kingdom, as were the moſt convenient for their purpoſe, and eſtabliſhed ſuch manufactures in theſe places, as they were bred to in their own country; as the ſtuff-makers, at Norwich; the coarſe cloth and kerſy-makers, at Leeds, Hallifax, and Wakefield; the ſerge-makers at Exeter; the baize-makers at Colcheſter: and there were Dutch churches eſtabliſhed in all thoſe places, by Queen Elizabeth's patents for their encouragement.

But, as this antient manufacture could not be ſuddenly extirpated abſolutely from among the Flemings in their own country, thoſe ingenious and induſtrious people kept on ſuch manufactures as they were able; as particularly that of coarſe-tapeſtry, made at the city of Arras, in Artois, as alſo at Doway, St Omers, and the parts adjacent; of which they continue to make pretty large quantities to this day, as alſo of ſome coarſe drugget-ſtuffs made at Ypres, and other parts; ſome whereof are uſed in England for beds, hangings of rooms, &c. Thus they ſtruggled as long as they could.

But, theſe being deprived of their fund of wool, the people were gradually obliged to turn their hands to other things; which brought them to the making of lace and linnen, to ſilk weaving, and to other buſineſs of various kinds. For the Flemings and Walloons are ſo induſtrious a people, that, notwithſtanding the loſs of this great trade, which was the life of their whole country, yet they have retained many valuable manufactures.

The manufactures, carried on in theſe provinces at preſent, are as follow:

1. Lace, known by the name of bone-lace, of which the fineſt and beſt of the kind, in Europe, is ſaid to be made at Bruſſels. The variety hereof is very great: and they tell us of lace made in that part of the country, from 30 to 50 l. ſterling per yard: by which extraordinary improvement they have ſo far out-done the French and Italians, and even the Venetians themſelves, that theſe laſt have very little trade for their lace, though they were once juſtly famed for the fineſt in the world.

The principal places for this manufacture are, Mechlin, or Malines, Bruſſels, Louvain, Valenciennes, Antwerp, and all the adjacent towns; and it employs a great number of people, eſpecially women and children.

2. Fine thread, is another of their manufactures; the great quantity of fine lace requiring a great quantity of fine thread, as their linnens require a proportionable quantity of linnen-yarn; and both theſe together conſtitute another manufacture of no little concern to theſe people.

3. Their manufacture of linnen is very conſiderable. Their linnen conſiſts of two ſorts chiefly, viz. Cambricks and lawns. Their cambricks have been made ſo fine, as to have been ſold from 20 to 30 s. per yard in London. They were formerly made only in the provinces of Artois * and Cambreſis †, from which laſt they had their name of cambricks; but, the demand for them being ſo great of late years, the whole country has been little enough to carry on this manufacture, eſpecially that part of it bordering on France, together with the great cities of Doway §, Liſle ‖, Mons ‡, Ypres ǂ, Ghent **, and Bruges |||. Beſides theſe cambricks, there is a great manufacture of linlen at Ghent and Bruges, and all the cities upon the Lower Schelde; which manufacture alſo is of a magnitude greater than can eaſily be repreſented.

* Artois is a principality of the French Netherlands, ſituate between Flanders and Picardy.

† Cambreſis alſo is in the French Netherlands, ſituate on the river Schelde, near it's ſource, near Valenciennes and Doway.

§ Doway, a city of the French Netherlands, in the principality of Flanders, ſituate on the river Scharpe, about 14 miles ſouth of Liſle.

‖ Liſle, in the French Netherlands, is ſituate on the river Dente, about 25 miles north of Arras, and 12 miles weſt of Tournay; a large populous city, which has not only large manufactures of fine cambricks and linnens, but of ſilk, in great perfection, and their camblets alſo are much admired.

‡ Mons, a city of the Auſtrian Netherlands, capital of the principality of Hainault, ſituate 26 miles ſouth-weſt of Bruſſels, and 22 miles ſouth-eaſt of Tournay.

ǂ Ipres, or Ypres, a city of the Auſtrian Netherlands. It has a pretty good trade, chiefly in the ſilk and woollen manufactures.

** Ghent, a city of the Auſtrian Netherlands, capital of the principality of Flanders. Not only the linnen, but the ſilk and woollen manufactures flouriſh here at preſent. They have alſo a great trade for corn, and it is exceedingly well ſituated for a foreign commerce, by the numerous rivers and canals.

||| Bruges, a city and port-town in Auſtrian Flanders, ſituate 11 miles eaſt of Oſtend, and 24 north-weſt of Ghent. This was formerly the great ſtaple for Engliſh wool, and has ſtill the beſt foreign trade of any town in Flanders.

Where ſo great manufactures are carried on, the yarn and thread which muſt be ſpun, bleached, twiſted, and otherwiſe manufactured

manufactured for every ſort of theſe goods, muſt employ a vaſt multitude of hands; and thoſe hands, being thus in full employ, muſt conſume a prodigious quantity of proviſions, and that of courſe muſt afford a great trade.

4. The fourth manufacture the Flemings are employed in, is that of the woollen, which includes the tapeſtry made at Arras, Dourlens, Doway, and the adjacent country: alſo ſome druggets, and fine ſtuffs made at Liſle, and in the country near it: moſt of which are however conſumed among themſelves, though ſome go into France.

5. Another manufacture, wherein the Flemings have of late years very much improved, is that of ſilk; for they not only make, at preſent, ſufficient for their own uſe, but for exportation. Theſe they make now chiefly at Liſle, Bruſſels, and Antwerp: and this manufacture was greatly encouraged by the public, inſomuch that the Flemings, in the year 1725, began to direct the New Eaſt-India company, then attempted to be eſtabliſhed at Oſtend, to bring no more ſilks into the country, leſt it ſhould prove the means to ſupplant and deſtroy their own manufacture of ſilk, which employed ſo many thouſands of their people.

Remarks.

It was about the year 1717, when ſome perſons who had been in the ſervice of the Eaſt India company of England, having had a miſunderſtanding with the company, in relation to private trade, and reſenting the treatment they received upon that occaſion, made vigorous attempts to eſtabliſh an Eaſt-India company in Flanders, under the protection of the imperial government there, and ſo to trade as interlopers, but in the form of an eſtabliſhed company.

After having conferred with ſome eminent merchants in London, it was reſolved to try the practicability of this undertaking; and accordingly two captains, and ſome merchants, were appointed to go over to Flanders; and, in conjunction with ſome other merchants there, to ſee what could be done in the affair.

The marquis du Prie was then governor of the Auſtrian Netherlands for the emperor; and the merchants who went over, ſoon found means to acquaint him with the deſign: it ſeems the firſt propoſals were very ſpecious, promiſing a great advantage to the country, and a great revenue to the emperor himſelf, on condition of obtaining a charter from his imperial majeſty for an excluſive trade, as in England and Holland.

By this application, they obtained of the marquis a licence for one ſhip to go to the Indies, carrying the emperor's colours, and with privilege to call themſelves the emperor's ſubjects.

Having gained their point thus far, and got ſome conſiderable merchants in Flanders to join with them, a ſubſcription of 200,000 l. was raiſed among them, to be enlarged as they ſhould find encouragement, and to ſerve for the outſet of one ſhip firſt, reſolving to ſend away another ſoon after, and then to enlarge the trade, as they ſaw fit.

Having made this advance, the merchants and captains returned to England, bought a new ſhip upon the ſtocks, which was almoſt ready to launch, and fitted her out in the river; at one time it was pretended that ſhe was to go to Cadiz, and thence to America, with the Spaniſh galleons, and that ſhe was fitting for the account of ſome merchants in Spain: at other times it was given out that ſhe was to go to the Miſſiſſippi, for account of the French; then, that ſhe was bought for the French Eaſt-India company, and was to go immediately over to Dunkirk, and there take in goods, or at St Malo's and the like.

But, whatever the pretences were, the thing was carried ſo privately, that the ſhip, taking in her proviſions and ſtores of all kinds, and being victualled for a long voyage, ſailed for Oſtend; the captain and moſt of the men being Engliſh. She made no ſtay at Oſtend, but to take in the reſt of her cargo, and a quantity of money, with orders to touch at Cadiz, and take in the reſt there; which was accordingly done.

The ſecond ſhip was bought, fitted, ſtored, and manned, in the ſame manner, in the river Thames, and ſailed ſome months after; no umbrage being as yet taken in England at the deſign, at leaſt not ſo as to obſtruct it: though it was not poſſible to keep it ſo ſecret, but that it was known to our Eaſt-India company, who obtained a prohibition againſt them, in common with others, who pretended to build or buy ſhips in England, for the ſervice of the French Eaſt-India company.

Theſe two ſhips returned in the uſual time, richly laden, and made proſperous voyages: and the goods, being publickly ſold, found a very good market, being moſt of them bought by the merchants of England and Holland: ſo that the new adventurers were enabled to fit out more ſhips, and make handſome preſents to their government; and even ſuch as encouraged the emperor, upon farther application, to grant them a charter in form, under his ſign manual firſt, and afterwards under the great ſeal of the Auſtrian government, with all the accuſtomed privileges of a trading company.

But, before this was obtained, they fitted out three ſhips more, having alſo enlarged their capital to ſix millions of guilders, though not all paid in. Theſe ſhips alſo came home ſafe, and richly laden: and now it began to be publiſhed in the world, as well what conſiderable advantages they had made, as alſo what powers and privileges they had obtained from his imperial majeſty; and even their ſtock began to ſell, and be transferred as the ſtock of other companies in England: alſo more ſhips being yearly fitted out, it appeared that the trade ſo increaſed, as gave the other Eaſt-India companies, both in England and Holland, no little uneaſineſs.

At length the Dutch made ſtrong remonſtrances, as well at Bruſſels as at Vienna, in order to obtain from the emperor a revocation of this charter, as did likewiſe the king of Great-Britain, by his ambaſſador at Vienna, but all to no purpoſe: and it was eaſy to find by the anſwers at Vienna, that nothing was to be expected there, the emperor reſenting the making ſuch an application; and inſiſting, that he had as much right to impower his ſubjects to trade to the Eaſt-Indies, as the ſtates of Holland, or the king of England, had theirs: taking it ill, that any power or prince ſhould pretend to queſtion his right, and particularly menacing the Dutch, if they ſhould offer any interruption to the commerce of his ſubjects. During thoſe applications, the new alliance between the emperor and the king of Spain, diſtinguiſhed by the name of the remarkable Vienna treaty, took place, which gave ſo much diſturbance in Europe; the conſequence whereof was the forming a counter-alliance between Great-Britain, France, and Pruſſia, concluded at Hanover, and called the Hanover treaty.

Theſe new alliances proved very unhappy to this new company: for the Dutch, acceding after ſome time to the Hanover treaty, made the diſſolution of this new company one of the eſſential points, without which, they abſolutely refuſed ſo much as to treat of any accommodation with the emperor.

The company, however, having received three ſhips very rich, and whoſe cargoes, public and private, ſold for more than three millions of guilders, diſpatched ſeven more to India, where they had five before; ſo that they then had twelve ſhips actually abroad.

Nor did this new company aim only at ſecuring to the Flemings a ſhare in the commerce of the Eaſt-Indies; they puſhed at various other branches of trade: to which end, they undertook the making of ſalt by ſome new application. 'Twas ſaid alſo, that they reſolved to erect a fiſhery, as well the great as the ſmall fiſhery, as the Dutch diſtinguiſh them; that is to ſay, the whale fiſhing at Greenland, and the herring-fiſhery at Shetland.

But the Hanover allies, particularly the Engliſh and the Dutch, continuing inflexible with regard to the diſſolving of this new company, the emperor was, at length, under the neceſſity of complying; which put an end to the erection of another new Eaſt-India company in Europe, which would certainly have proved highly detrimental to all the others.

Further Remarks.

As theſe manufactures are ſo conſiderable in Flanders, and employ ſuch infinite numbers of people, eſpecially in the ſpinning and weaving part (for the making of fine bone-lace is a kind of weaving, and is called ſo by the makers) ſo it has two particular conſequences attending it.

1. It keeps the people together in a body; ſo that the great multitude of people, which the woollen manufacture firſt brought together in theſe provinces, are not ſeparated or leſſened, but the country continues ſtill populous to a prodigy; nor do you ſee any idle, or out of buſineſs, and none very poor, or at leaſt very few. Theſe are the happy effects of induſtry and commerce.

2. This domeſtic trade neceſſarily creates a great foreign trade, where the ſituation will admit of it, which is the caſe here; for, although the country is exceeding fruitful, as well in corn as cattle, yet they receive great quantities of proviſions from other countries: thus, by the river Schelde, they receive ſupplies of corn from Holland, as by the Maeſe they alſo do from France, from Germany, and from Lorrain.

By the ſea likewiſe they receive ſupplies of fleſh, butter, leather, tallow, and other proviſions, and that in ſuch quantities, that they have not leſs frequently than 200 ſhips a year laden with butter, chiefly from Ireland; and ſometimes a far greater number, including other proviſions. They have alſo no inconſiderable importation of brandy, and of wine, prunes, oranges, and lemons, and other fruits; the firſt from France, the other from Portugal and Spain.

It is by means of their exports, that they are enabled to pay for theſe imports.

For theſe they have a conſiderable trade to France, to Germany, and to Holland, for their lace; for, although in all thoſe countries there are greater quantities of lace made, yet, the Flemings ſo greatly exceeding them in fineneſs and beauty of workmanſhip, the French court itſelf and all the principal nobility and gentry, are from thence ſupplied, and nothing is to be ſeen but Bruſſels lace; and the like at all the courts in Germany, that of Vienna not excepted.

As moſt of theſe countries make fine linnens themſelves, and eſpecially France, the chief vent for the fine lawns and cambricks made in thoſe provinces, is into Great-Britain and Ireland, Spain and Portugal: and the Dutch too, ſince the mode of wearing cambricks inſtead of muſlins has ſo ſhamefully prevailed in England, begin to run into the ſame folly, and buy their fine lawns from the Flemings.

So conſiderable are the exports of theſe manufactures, that very good judges have eſtimated them at no leſs, in fine ſifter thread, bone-lace, and linnen, including their lawns and cambricks, than to the value of two millions ſterling a year,

from thoſe provinces we now call the Auſtrian Netherlands, including part of the conquered provinces, as that which we call Walloon Flanders, and the province of Artois.

Nor in this account is there included their export of tapeſtry, or woollen ſtuffs, nor of cotton or ſilk; of all which they export large quantities into France and Germany.

They carry on no inconſiderable trade with England, for leather, malt-ſpirits, hats, cutlery, and all manner of wrought iron and braſs, the manufactures of Sheffield and Birmingham.

They import, alſo, a good deal of cotton, cotton-yarn, grogram, and goat's hair, and goods of the Turky and Venetian merchants, imported from the Levant; by means of which they have large manufactures in cloths of cotton, ſomething like our fuſtians and dimitties of Mancheſter.

The ſituation of this country, interſperſed throughout with navigable rivers, and theſe rivers paſſing through innumerable cities and populous towns, implies that there muſt be a great inland traffic; and this, indeed, in proportion to the extent of territory, is a prodigious buſineſs.

They have, 'tis true, but one port of conſequence, and that is Oſtend; as for Newport, it has little trade belonging to it, except that of fiſhing, which, in the ſeaſon, is very conſiderable of it's kind. But this port of Oſtend is the principal harbour of Flanders; for the Schelde is ſo intirely blocked up at Lillo, that the city of Antwerp hardly merits the name of a port, though otherwiſe one of the fineſt rivers and harbours in the world.

From Oſtend is a large canal to the city of Bruges, which is able to carry veſſels of 200 tons up to the city; ſo that ſhips paſs directly to Bruges, without ſtopping at Oſtend, only paſſing through it as a port: whence it follows, that there are abundance of merchants at Bruges, as well as at Oſtend, and ſome tell us more.

From hence the imported merchandizes are diſperſed over the whole country, and into others alſo; for ſmaller canals paſs from Bruges to the Schelde, at the city of Ghent; and from thence canals lie again to ſeveral other cities; and the river Schelde, the Scarpe, and the Lys tranſport their merchandizes up to Tournay, to Menin, Liſle, and Doway, and again by the north to Antwerp, Louvain, Mechlin, and Bruſſels.

From Oſtend they have canals likewiſe within land, and parallel with the ſea, to Newport; thence to Ypres one way, and to France and Dunkirk another, and I need not ſay whither afterwards, Dunkirk having an eaſy communication, by water, or by land, with all French Flanders, Artois, and even into France itſelf.

In ſtating of the commerce of the Netherlands, we ought not to regard what has been done in matters of war and government; what has been yielded to one prince, what to another; 'tis the trade of the place, not the government, or poſſeſſion thereof which we are ſo ſtrictly to regard; and, therefore, Dunkirk ought to be looked on as a part of the Netherlands; and it's trade, conſidered as a free port, is indeed the trade of Flanders; that is, as we take Flanders to be a common name, by which we underſtand the whole Netherlands, whether French, Flemiſh, or Walloon.

Nor is this improper, ſeeing that, as Dunkirk is a free port, where goods from all parts may be entered and landed duty-free, the entrance of goods into the Flemiſh or the Auſtrian diviſion of Flanders, by the canal of Furnes, or by any other conveyance, from Dunkirk, is all one as an entrance from the ſea: ſo that, whenever ſhips unload at Dunkirk any goods to be ſent into the Auſtrian Flanders, it is to the Flemiſh trade all one as if imported at Oſtend; and the cuſtoms to the emperor are payable in the place where the goods firſt enter his dominions.

It is the ſame with the trade between the provinces of the States-General and the Auſtrian Netherlands, the Dutch, by the navigation of the Schelde, carrying on a great commerce with the Auſtrian Netherlands. Theſe rivers, which empty themſelves into the Schelde, are blocked up, as the Schelde is alſo, by the Dutch, who have forts at the entrance of all paſſages, and, in particular, command the grand channel of the Schelde, which goes up to Antwerp, by the ſtrong fort of Lillo, as they do the canal up to Ghent, by the fort called the Sas van Ghent, as alſo the canal to Bruges, by the town of Sluyce.

But, as theſe forts ſhut out the Flemings from a free commerce that way by ſea, which, if they did not, Antwerp would again rival the city of Amſterdam; yet theſe forts do not hinder the Flemings from having a great trade with the Dutch, by theſe rivers, and the Dutch with them; and it is by this method that the Dutch carry on a trade between Great-Britain and France, in time of war.

Thus the Schelde is an open port to Flanders, for it's trade to Holland, and with the Dutch, becauſe they can bring nothing in that way but what comes through the hands of the Dutch; but at Dunkirk it is otherwiſe; for a ſhip entering at Dunkirk, ſuppoſe from Spain or Italy, whoſe loading belongs to a Flemiſh merchant at Ypres or Bruges, the cargo is put on board the bylanders, and carried directly to theſe towns, in the ſame manner as, and paying no other cuſtoms or duties than, if they had been unloaden at Oſtend: and, therefore, Dunkirk is ſtill as much a port to Flanders, in effect, as Oſtend is, and ought, in our account of trade, to be taken in that light.

Hence it appears, that thoſe are greatly miſtaken who think, as moſt that ſpeak of this part of the world do, that the Flemings have but a trifling foreign trade, and but one ſea-port, that of Oſtend. It is evident they have, in effect, many ports, but eſpecially Oſtend and Dunkirk are, as to all the uſes and purpoſes of trade, equally their ports.

It is true, Dunkirk, ſince the ruin of it's harbour and piers, is not ſo good a port for the bringing great ſhips into as it was, and as Oſtend is, and is likely to be: and this proves what has been often ſaid, that the demoliſhing the harbour of Dunkirk was a greater blow to the Flemiſh commerce than to the French.

However, the merchants, though with ſome difficulty, do find means to unload the large ſhips at Dunkirk ſtill, by ſending hoys and bylanders out into the road to them; ſo that the Flemings have yet a conſiderable trade by that port, and bring in many goods, eſpecially by their coaſting trade, as wines, brandies, and other goods from France, by that channel.

Here alſo they carry on a conſiderable trade with Spain and Italy, and alſo with Ireland, and ſome with England too: which commerce, eſpecially that with Ireland, is very advantageous to them; as Ireland, notwithſtanding all the encouragement given to the linnen manufacture there from England, yet takes off a great quantity of the fine manufactures of Flanders, ſuch as lace, lawns, and cambricks; alſo tapeſtry, and fine carpets and carpet work; in return for which, they receive butter, hides, leather, tallow, beef, and fiſh; and, which is very much to our loſs, wool, and worſted-yarn, ſpun in Ireland; which is to be feared is at preſent carried to this country in large quantities: nor can the truth of this be much queſtioned, conſidering how gainful a trade it is to the Iriſh to export, as well as the Flemings to import.

Beſides what has been ſaid at firſt, it muſt be obſerved, that the Flemings have a very conſiderable product of fine flax, the growth of their own ſoil, improved from the induſtry of their own people, and of the fineſt kind that is to be found any where; ſo that, although it is a prodigious quantity that they uſe in their manufactures, yet they do not ſend to Riga and Dantzick, as the Dutch do, much leſs do they buy their fine linnen-yarn from Sileſia, as the Dutch do, for the woof, or ſhoot, of all their fine hollands, and which, therefore, they ſay is the cauſe that the Dutch hollands are not ſo ſerviceable and laſting as thoſe made in Flanders.

This product of flax employs abundance of their land, as well as a great many hands in gathering, curing, dreſſing, and managing it, before it comes to the hands of the fine ſpinners, who are ſo curious in the ſpinning, as to make thoſe threads from which the fine lawns and fine bone-lace are wrought.

Nor can the quantity of flax but be exceeding great, becauſe there muſt be a vaſt deal of coarſe and ordinary ſtuff in a manner thrown away, in order to dreſs the reſt to ſuch a degree of fineneſs as is neceſſary.

Of the coarſer flax, they make a kind of ſail-cloth, for the uſe of their bylanders, hoys, and other veſſels and boats, upon their inland waters, of which they have a prodigious number.

Beſides all theſe manufactures, they have been ſome years ſince creeping into the woollen manufacture, by the means of Iriſh wool, and what other they certainly procure from England. At Vianden in the dutchy of Luxemburg, they have a conſiderable trade in woollen cloth, with which they furniſh the whole duchy. At Limburg and Mons they have no inconſiderable manufactures for woollen ſtuffs. At Ghent, in Auſtrian Flanders, they have large manufactures of cloths and ſtuffs; of which it is ſaid there is ſo great a quantity made here, together with ſilks, that, among the 50 companies of tradeſmen, thoſe relating to commodities of this nature make one third. Nor are Bruges and Courtray, and Diert and Boldne in Brabant, without a great trade in woollen cloths.

Theſe are the effects of ſuffering our neighbours to come at our wool at any rate; and, if what has been ſaid be true, that they have for ſome years paſt found a way to bring wool and yarn from England and Ireland, the Flemings, who are a moſt induſtrious and ingenious people, and the moſt addicted to the woollen manufactures of any nation in the whole world, may do us ſome injury, as well as other nations, in our ſtaple manufactures: but, if we deprive them of materials, we may effectually prevent it.

There are two things which employ many hands in theſe provinces, and which, though not very conſiderable in themſelves, are deſerving of ſome notice.

The one is painting.

It is ſcarce credible what a number of people are employed in this ſingle article: and, as the ſpinning and making bone-lace is chiefly the employment of the women, ſo this, and the weaving, is a great part of the employment of the men.

The principal places for this are Antwerp, Mechlin, and Louvain, though ſome is done at Bruſſels. The Flemings, indeed, have a particular genius for painting; and they have now, as well as they had formerly, ſome of the beſt maſters. They are remarkable for excelling at deſigning, and that there is more humour and fancy in ſome of their drawings, than is to be met with either among the French or the Dutch; nay, that ſome of them come up to the Italians themſelves.

Where they diſpoſe of them need not be ſaid, all Chriſtendom ſending to Antwerp for pictures; and ſome of the fineſt altar-pieces in Spain, where they are extreme'y curious in their church-paintings, are performed by Flemiſh maſters, and generally bought at Antwerp.

The Flemings are not only good painters, but the people are univerſally lovers of pictures, and, conſequently, their houſes are filled with curious pieces; nay, 'tis ordinary to ſee good paintings in the meaneſt cottages; even the boors will have them, and tell you ſuch a piece is done by ſuch a hand, and ſuch a maſter, and pride themſelves in their knowledge in that art, and it's profeſſors.

And, if the poorer houſes are thus ſet off, how may we preſume are the houſes of the rich burghers and merchants adorned? and ſtill more thoſe of the gentry and nobility? It is not to be deſcribed, or the value of their paintings to be eſtimated.

The other article is that of ſhipwrights: not that the Flemings, who have but two ports, can be ſuppoſed to build abundance of ſhips; nor, indeed, can they do it, having no place proper for it, or materials for the work; but, by ſhips here, is meant only galliots, hoys, lighters, bylanders, and ſuch like veſſels, all which they call ſchips.

Of theſe they have ſuch great numbers, that there muſt be abundance of hands employed in building them, and eſpecially in the conſtant repairing and refitting, which they are always wanting.

It would be very difficult to make a probable gueſs, or to calculate the number, of theſe veſſels. In time of war it is frequent to have 7 or 800 of them brought together, for the carrying of proviſions, military ſtores, ammunition, and the like; and 'tis likely they have not leſs than 20,000 of theſe ſort of veſſels in all the provinces.

And theſe are all built within themſelves; and it is no little trade that they are obliged to carry on for the ſupply of deals, timber, planks, maſts, yards, anchors, iron-works, and other materials for this work, beſides pitch, tar, oil, hemp, &c.

For this purpoſe, indeed, they do not carry on any conſiderable trade to Norway, Sweden, or the Baltic, but are generally ſupplied by the Dutch, or by ſhips directly from Norway and Sweden, the Flemings having very few ſhips proper for theſe trades.

When theſe things are conſidered, we need not wonder how all this great multitude of people, who inhabit theſe provinces, are employed and maintained. The carrying on ſuch valuable manufactures muſt employ innumerable hands; and the quantity of goods they export muſt bring great returns home, as well in goods as money; by which the Flemings are far from being poor. On the contrary, they are generally well-circumſtanced, there being very few hands among them but can get their bread; the very children, even from five years old, are ordinarily employed, and earn their maintainance.

In regard to induſtry, they are an example to the whole world; there is nothing can live where they ſtarve: nothing is idle among them that can ſuſtain any degree of labour; the women plow and ſow, reap and bind; the men threſh, and not only the horſes carry, but the very dogs do the ſame, for they are harneſſed, and draw their carrs like our horſes, and that not in jeſt, or for trifles, but draw, in proportion to their ſtrength, very heavy loads; particularly the dogs draw little carts with fowls, fiſh, proviſions, and eſpecially all ſorts of greens and roots, and garden-ſtuff, to the markets. This brings me to ſpeak of their proviſions, which are in exceeding great plenty, and extremely cheap. This makes labour cheap, and the manufacturers work low; by which means, conſidering the fineneſs of the goods they make, no nation can underwork them.

The univerſal navigation of the rivers, and the multitude of canals in this country, is a mighty advantage to their trade, and does not a little contribute to render every thing cheap among them: travelling from place to place, and carriage of goods to the ſeveral markets, coſts ſo little, that it is ſcarce worth naming.

The plenty of proviſions being ſo great, is a token of the general fertility of the ſoil; and this is not only exerted in the product of corn and flax, but the paſturage is alſo very rich, and they feed abundance of very good cattle, eſpecially horſes, very large and uſeful, as well for country ſervice as for the mounting their cavalry, only with two exceptions,

1. That they are rather too large, and, conſequently, heavy; otherwiſe, they are very ſtrong, and of good ſpirit.

2. That they are generally grey, as being more eaſily diſcerned by an enemy in ſieges, and other occaſions, in the dark.

The largeſt of this breed are uſed as coach horſes, and have been much eſteemed by perſons of the firſt rank, as well for their beauty as for their extraordinary ſize; in both which we ſee no country excel them. They are not of late ſo much valued as formerly, the faſhions and fancies of courts varying.

Another product of their land, eſpecially of the lower and marſhy grounds, is turf for fuel; for, as the climate is cold, and ſometimes ſeverely ſo, and having no coals but what comes from England, ſo the country is not able to ſupply wood ſufficient for ſuch multitudes of people. They have, indeed, large woods in Brabant, Hainault, and the countries upon the Maeſe, but not equal to the multitudes of families which muſt be ſupplied for their ordinary fuel, if they burned wood. This is abundantly made up by the turf, which is chiefly made in the Lower Flanders, and the countries bordering upon the frontiers, and is brought by water to Bruges, Ghent, and all the great cities upon the Schelde and the Scarpe, the Dender, the Rypel, the Lys, and even to Liſle and Douay.

This article is an exceeding great branch of buſineſs, as it employs not only a great number of people in digging and curing the turf, but alſo abundance of veſſels, boats, barges, and bylanders, in the carriage of it from one town to another.

AUVERGNE, a province in France, is bounded on the north by Bourbonnois; on the eaſt by Forez; on the ſouth by Rovergne and the Cevennes; and, on the weſt, by Upper Limoſin, Quercy, and la Marche. Lower Auvergne, which is alſo called Limagne, is one of the moſt fruitful countries in the world. Upper Auvergne is not ſo fruitful; however, there are here good paſtures, where they feed a prodigious quantity of black cattle, which enrich this country, becauſe the ſend their oxen and cows, when fattened, to Lyons and Paris; they ſell alſo a great many of them to the people of Nivernois, Berry, and Guienne, who make uſe of them to till the ground. Beſides this, they make in Upper Auvergne a great deal of cheeſe, which they ſell at Paris, in Britanny, Guienne, and Languedoc, and even abroad. And, as they have a great many iron mines in this country, ſo it abounds with forges, where they make all ſorts of the iron manufacture. Lower Auvergne produces corn, wine, and other fruits.

At St Flour is kept a fair, where they ſell a great number of mules, which are ſent into Languedoc, Spain, and other countries. This is alſo a conſiderable mart for rye, the country about it abounding with that ſort of corn.

At Aurillac is a conſiderable trade of thread-laces.

Moſt of the inhabitants of Murat are braſiers; they make alſo here a great many thread laces.

At Mauriac they have a pretty good trade, and they keep ſeveral fairs, in which they ſell all ſorts of cattle, and eſpecially horſes, which are reckoned the beſt in France.

The city of Clermont is rich and well peopled.

At Riem is an office for the finances, and a court of the mint.

Thiers is one of the moſt populous cities of Auvergne, and moſt conſiderable for it's trade, which conſiſts chiefly in iron and ſteel wares, paper, cards, paſte-boards, and thread, which they ſend all over Europe, and even into the Indies. There is here a conſulſhip for the merchants.

Ambert is conſiderable by it's trade, and eſpecially by it's manufactory of paper.

The harbour of Viale, being but a quarter of a league diſtant from the city of Maringue, makes it have a pretty good trade, the merchants of the neighbouring country keeping their warehouſes here.

As Pont-du-Chastel is nearer Clermont than Maringue is, and conſequently more convenient for the trade that is carried on by water from Auvergne to Paris, it becomes daily more conſiderable than Maringue.

Issoire is noted for a good breed of horſes, and is a town of good trade in corn and wine.

Ardes, being ſituate on the borders of Upper and Lower Auvergne, in a very fruitful country, is in a manner the ſtaple town for the trade that is carried on between theſe two parts of the province.

AWARD, is the deciſion given by arbitrators, or by an umpire, choſen by them, in caſes referred to be determined by arbitrators. See Arbiter, or Arbitrator.

1. The arbitrators ought to give their award within the time limited by the compromiſe, and it will be null, if it were given after the ſaid time is expired; for their power is then at an end, and they are no longer arbitrators.

2. The parties may give power to the arbitrators to prolong the time; and, in this caſe, their power laſts during the time of their prorogation.

3. If the compromiſe regulates a certain time for inſtructing the cauſe which the arbitrators are to decide, they cannot give their award, till the ſaid time is expired.

4. The arbitrators having once given their award, they cannot retract it, nor change any thing in it: for the compromiſe was only to give them power to give an inward, and, when that is done, their power is at an end; but their power is not at an end by an interlocutory ſentence *, or an incident in the cauſe, and they may give different interlocutory ſentences on ſuch incidents, as often as occaſion requires.

* An interlocutory ſentence is not that which decides the cauſe, but only ſettles ſome intervening or preliminary matter, relating to the matter in diſpute.

5. If there are ſeveral arbitrators named by the compromiſe, they cannot give their award, unleſs they all ſee the proceſs, and give judgment of it together: and, although the greater part had given the award in the abſence of one who was named with the others, yet the award would be null, becauſe the abſent perſon ought to have been one of the judges; and, had he been preſent, he might have been able, by his reaſoning, to bring the other arbitrators over to his opinion.

6. The arbitrators can judge of nothing elſe beſides that which is ſubmitted to their judgment by the compromiſe, and they muſt obſerve the conditions which are there preſcribed; and, if they judge otherwiſe, their award is null.

Where there appears a maniſeſt error in the body of an award, in ſome caſes there may be relief againſt it in equity: but where the error does not appear without unravelling of it, and examining into matters of account, not relievable. 1 Vern. 158.

If A and B of the one part, and C of the other part, ſubmit to arbitration, the arbitrators may make an award, not only of matters in difference between A and B jointly, or A and B ſeparately, and C, but alſo of matters between A and B only. 1 Vern. 259.

An award made, purſuant to an order of court, muſt be confirmed, as in the caſe of a maſter's report; and either ſide has a liberty to except to it, and, when ſo confirmed, the cauſe may be ſet down for hearing upon the award. Vern. 470.

An award ſet aſide, it appearing the arbitrators were intereſted in the cargo, touching which the award was made. 2 Vern. 251.

Arbitrators promiſe to hear witneſſes, but make their award without doing ſo. Award ſet aſide. Ib.

Arbitrators, if they could not agree, were to chuſe an umpire. They make no award, and, not agreeing about the perſon to be umpire, they throw croſs and pile who ſhould chuſe him. The umpire made his award, and it was ſet aſide, by reaſon of his being choſen in that manner. 2 Vern. 485.

Suppoſe the ſubmiſſion is to three, or any two of them. After all the arbitrators had had ſeveral meetings, and heard the parties, two of them make an award privately, without notice to the other arbitrator. Award ſet aſide. 2 Vern. 514.

If a ſubmiſſion is to three, or any two of them, and two by fraud or force exclude the other; that alone, is ſufficient to vitiate the award. Ib. 515.

Private meetings of the arbitrators with one of the parties, and admitting him to be heard to induce an alteration in the intended award is partiality. Ib. 515.

If arbitrators go upon a plain miſtake, either as to law or fact, equity will relieve againſt the award. Ib. 705.

A party ſubmitting to an award, deſired the arbitrator to defer making his award, until he ſhould ſatisfy him as to ſome things which the arbitrator took to be againſt him; though this was within two or three days before the time for making the award was out, yet, the requeſt not being complied with, the award was held ill. 3 Peer Will. 361. See ARBITER and ARBITRATION.

AWME, or AUME, a Dutch liquid meaſure, containing eight ſteckans, or 20 verges, or verteels: equal to the tierce in England, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of a ton of France.

AZIMUTH COMPASS, an inſtrument made in a large box, with jambols, and a broad limb, having 90 deg. diagonally divided with an index and thread, to take the ſun's amplitude or azimuth, in order to find the difference between the magnetical meridian, and the ſun's meridian, which ſhews the variation of the compaſs.

AZOGA SHIPS, are thoſe Spaniſh ſhips, commonly called the quickſilver ſhips, from their carrying quickſilver or mercury from them to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, in order to extract the ſilver out of the mines in Peru and Mexico. But it is a great miſtake to imagine, that theſe ſhips are abſolutely laden with quickſilver only, that being too ponderous a body.

They are not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, to carry any goods, unleſs for the king of Spain's account; but they are generally full laden, notwithſtanding this regulation; by reaſon that the merchants procure ſpecial licences of the king to load, upon paying a conſideration for ſuch licences.

Beſides quickſilver, theſe ſhips carry alſo fruit and ſpice for the king's account, and ſometimes military ſtores for the forces in New Spain; as alſo iron, which is called the king's merchandize.

Of the uſe and application of mercury in working of the ſilver mines in Spaniſh America, we ſhall give an ample account under the province of Charcas, in the ſouth part of Peru in South America, wherein is a ſilver mine at the bottom of the mountain of Potoſi, which is eſteemed the richeſt mine that ever was diſcovered; and from whence the Spaniards have extracted many hundred ſhip-loads of treaſure.

AZORES ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands, which are ſeven in number, beſides the two ſmall ones of Flores and Corvo, lie in a kind of cluſter, on the weſtern or Atlantic Ocean, between 37 and 40 degrees of latitude, and 21 and 26 of longitude, weſt from London. Theſe iſlands are all allowed to be very fertile in corn, wine, variety of fruits, and to breed great quantities of cattle.

I. ST. MICHAEL'S ISLAND, or, as the Portugueze ſtile it, SAN MIGUEL, hath ſeveral good towns, and large villages, well filled with inhabitants, who drive a conſiderable commerce, but hath neither harbours nor rivers, nor any good ſhelter for ſhips. The chief town of this iſland is called Punta del Gado, or Gada, and is conſiderable for it's trade.

II. ST. MARY'S ISLAND, is well ſupplied with all kinds of neceſſaries, well cultivated and inhabited. The chief manufactory here is a kind of earthen ware, in which they traffic with the other iſlands.

III. TERCERA ISLAND, hath in it no port or haven, where ſhips can ſafely come in, but that of Angra, which is the capital of the iſland, and hath a convenient harbour. The iſland is very fertile, pleaſant, and healthy; the very rocks, which elſewhere are generally dry and barren, produce here a good ſort of wine, though not comparable to that of Madeira or the Canaries. The land yields plenty of good wheat, and other corn; oranges, lemons, and other ſorts of fruits; and their paſture-grounds ſuch numbers of large oxen, ſheep, and other cattle, that here is no want of any neceſſaries of life, except oil and ſalt. They have an extraordinary root, which grows here as big as a man's two fiſts, covered with long and ſmall fibres, of a gold colour, not unlike ſilk in ſoftneſs and fineneſs, and which they only uſe to ſtuff their beds; but by an ingenious hand 'tis thought might be woven into good ſtuffs. The country produces ſome excellent timber, particularly cedar, which is here in ſuch plenty, that they make their carts and waggons of it. The number of inhabitants in the whole iſland is computed to be 20,000 ſouls.

ANGRA, a city, which is the metropolis of the Azores, is well built and peopled. It is the only ſtation for ſhips in all the ſeven iſlands: ſo that it is chiefly for the ſake of this port that the Portugueze have been ſo careful of theſe iſlands, and are ſo ſhy of letting ſtrangers approach it; it's ſituation being ſo exceedingly convenient to refreſh the ſhips that ſail to, and from Brazil, and other long voyages. In this city are kept the royal magazines for anchors, ſails, cables, and other naval ſtores in general, for the men of war. The maritime affairs are under the inſpection of a proper judge, called deſembargador, who hath other officers under him, and entertains a number of pilots, ſome to conduct the ſhips into the harbour, and others to direct them to ſprings of freſh water, &c. The Engliſh, Dutch, and French nations have likewiſe a conſul reſiding in this city, though their commerce with this, or any other of theſe iſlands, be but inconſiderable. The chief commerce of the inhabitants is that of wood, which grows in great plenty in moſt of theſe iſlands, and corn, and other refreſhments, which merchant-ſhips come to take in at this port.

PRAYA is a pretty conſiderable town; and, though it deſerves not the name of a ſea-port, is yet a kind of road for ſhips, and the only one in the iſland next to Angra where they can come to anchor. It is beſides a place of trade, and well peopled.

IV. GRACIOSA, though not above five or ſix leagues in circuit, is ſtored with all kinds of grain, fruits, paſture, cattle, &c. with which it ſupplies the iſland of Tercera. It is well peopled, but hath no town of any note or bigneſs.

V. ST GEORGE'S ISLAND, is chiefly famed for it's ſtately cedars, which grow in great plenty in it.

VI. PICO, or IL PICO, breeds a great quantity of cattle. It's wine is the beſt of all the Azores; and, beſides cedar and other timber, they have here a kind of wood, which they call teixo, which is reckoned as hard as iron, and, when poliſhed, is veined like a tabby, and is red as ſcarlet; and with this additional quality, that it grows finer by age: upon all theſe accounts it is ſo highly eſteemed, that no one is allowed to ſell it, unleſs for the king, or with particular leave from his miniſters.

VII. FAYAL ISLAND, produces great plenty of wood, and is frequented by the Engliſh on that account. It alſo breeds great numbers of large cattle, and abounds with variety of good fiſh.

FLORES and CORVO have nothing worth notice.

Of the Practical Business of the Custom-House, which is placed at the end of every Letter in this Work, in order the better to conform the whole to the portable Book of Rates; That being alphabetically ranged and methodized, the more familiarly to turn to the various ſpecies of merchandize imported and exported.

Of the Origin of the Custom-House Duties.

IN England the moſt ancient and principal tribute, or duties, that were paid to our kings, ſeem to have been thoſe upon the exportation and importation of merchandizes croſſing the ocean. Theſe were of two kinds, and diſtinguiſhed by cuſtoms and prizes, or prizage.

Cuſtoms were the duty payable for native commodities exported, particularly wool, wool-fells, and leather, after certain rates, the which were raiſed or lowered at the pleaſure of the king, or as occaſion required: and, having been payable probably from the origin of the Britiſh monarchy, has been diſtinguiſhed by the great and ancient cuſtoms.——But, according to the preſent acceptation of the word cuſtoms, it ſignifies the ſeveral duties which are payable on the importation, as well as exportation, of all goods and merchandizes whatſoever.

Prizes or prizage, was the old duty payable on the importation of foreign goods, not limited to any certain ſum of money, but by taking ſuch a part thereof in ſpecie as the kings thought ſufficient for their uſe; paying for the ſame ſuch a price as they thought reaſonable, which was called the king's price. For wines it it was cuſtomary to take one ton in ten, upon paying twenty ſhillings per ton; and we may reaſonably enough ſuppoſe the price for the prizage of other goods was in proportion.

But king Edward I. by the charter called charta mercatoria, remitted this duty of prizage to all merchant-ſtrangers; who, in lieu thereof, granted him a duty of three-pence in the pound, called petty cuſtom, upon all native commodities, exported, beſides the great cuſtom paid before, and alſo upon all merchandizes imported, except wines; and upon all wines imported, two ſhillings for every ton, being the duty that has been ſince called butlerage. And, beſides the aforeſaid duties, there were, in the reigns of king Edward I, Edward II, Edward III, queen Mary, queen Elizabeth, king James I, and king Charles I, collected by virtue of their prerogatives only, ſeveral occaſional or temporary impoſitions, after different rates, upon wines, and ſeveral other goods, imported; wool, cloths, and ſeveral other goods, exported; which they cauſed to be levied by only ſending their writs to the collectors of the cuſtoms in every port *. But theſe impoſitions were ſometimes remitted, upon petition of their ſubjects in parliament, eſpecially when they would grant other aids or ſubſidies of greater value; yet when thoſe aids, granted in recompence of the occaſional impoſitions, were ſpent, they have been oftentimes again renewed, or others of the like nature impoſed.

* This ſhews the difference of times, in regard to the liberties of the people of England, before and ſince the revolution; before, we find the prince had the command of their purſes without controul, as it were; but ſince, the parliament has controuled the purſe of our princes.

In proceſs of time, this unlimited prerogative of the crown, of impoſing thoſe duties, came to be reſtrained, and, in ſome meaſure, yielded up by the crown to the parliament: for, upon the frequent petitions of the ſubjects for the remiſſion thereof, and their free offers of ſufficient ſupplies by parliament for all neceſſary occaſions, Edward III, and the ſeveral ſucceeding kings and queens, by his example, were contented to ſuſpend their hereditary duties, and, in lieu thereof, to accept of ſuch temporary aids of parliament as ſhould be judged ſufficient for the ſupport of the honour and dignity of the crown, the defence of the realm, and the ſafeguard of the ſeas, during their reſpective lives: and theſe parliamentary aids were compoſed of two ſeveral and diſtinct parts, viz. a tonnage and a poundage.

Tonnage was payable on all wines imported, after the particular rates, and according to the particular methods, preſcribed by the ſeveral laws which granted this duty to the reſpective kings and queens; being at firſt no more than two ſhillings per ton, though, in ſucceeding reigns, it was very much increaſed.

Poundage was payable on all other merchandizes imported and exported, according to the particular rates and values preſcribed by the ſeveral laws which granted this duty to the reſpective kings and queens; being at firſt no more than ſix-pence in the pound of the particular rates or values, though, in ſucceeding reigns, it was advanced to twelve-pence in the pound. And to this ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage there was, alſo, in the later reigns, annexed

A ſubſidy of woolen cloth, or old drapery, which was payable upon all woollen cloths exported, after the particular rates, and in the particular proportions, preſcribed in the reſpective books of rates.

After the reſtoration of king Charles II, the aforeſaid ſubſidies, which had underwent ſeveral different regulations, were eſtabliſhed upon the foundation whereon they now ſtand, and granted to his majeſty during his life, for the defraying of his neceſſary expences in guarding and defending the ſeas againſt perſons intending the diſturbance of his ſubjects in the intercourſe of trade, and the invading of his realm; by an act paſſed in the 12th year of his reign, intitled, A ſubſidy granted to the king of tonnage and poundage, and other ſums of money, payable upon merchandize exported and imported, referring to, and enforcing, a book of rates of merchandize, &c. according to which the ſaid duties were to be levied and collected.

And upon the model of, and with reference to, this ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage granted to king Charles II, there have been granted by ſubſequent acts of parliament, for the defraying the public expences ordinary and extraordinary, ſeveral additional ſubſidies, impoſitions, and new duties; which being to be levied and collected after the manner of the aforeſaid ſubſidy, upon the importation and exportation of ſeveral ſorts of goods and merchandizes, are uſually comprehended under the general title of cuſtoms: and, indeed, thoſe duties of cuſtoms are now really become a perfect ſcience, there having been no leſs than about forty additional branches, or particular duties, impoſed ſince the reſtoration of Charles II: and the laws preſcribing the manner of levying and collecting of theſe duties have ſo increaſed the number, that the body of cuſtom laws is now ſwelled to an enormous ſize. As they are ſo numerous, and many of them made with an eye only to ſome temporary purpoſes, without regard to the circumſtances and regulations preſcribed in prior acts, it too often happens that they frequently claſh and interfere, ſo that, in many caſes, it is difficult to fix a particular point: and, as the repeals, expirations, and revivals of ſeveral acts, are ſo frequent, that it is often difficult to know whether a law is in force or not; it is no wonder that they are no better underſtood by too many, whoſe buſineſs it is to execute them; and much leſs by merchants, whoſe buſineſs it is to know the privileges to which they are legally intitled, and the penalties to which they are ſubject, that they might reap the benefit of the one, and avoid the injury of the other.

Theſe conſiderations evince the neceſſity of reducing the laws relating to the cuſtoms, into as narrow a compaſs as poſſible, and as plain and intelligible as can be. This alſo would not only prevent thoſe tedious computations which the duties often require, but might prove inſtrumental in putting a ſtop to that frequency of cuſtom-houſe oaths, which are at preſent required in every ſtep that is taken; a practice which ſome very wiſe and good men have lamented. See what I have ſaid on that head under the article Affidavit.

Beſides, this multiplicity of laws renders the complete knowledge of the revenue ſo difficult and myſterious, that few, perhaps, of our very repreſentatives themſelves take the trouble neceſſary to become maſters thereof, and, conſequently, muſt be at a loſs to know what meaſures to fall in with, when any alteration in this branch of the revenue may be neceſſary.

Indeed, the ſeveral duties of cuſtoms are appropriated as a ſecurity to the national creditors; which, it has been ſaid by ſome, makes the continuance of theſe identical laws and forms of appropriation in the king's books neceſſary. But this does not ſeem to be an objection of any real weight. The national debts themſelves have undergone various changes, in point of denomination; and, if the revenues appropriated for their intereſt and redemption underwent a change alſo, by uniting various duties into one, for the eaſe of the merchant, as well as the officer, this, we humbly conceive, would be no violation of the public faith and credit of the nation. For, although certain duties were impoſed as a ſecurity to the public creditors; yet, if the authority of the parliament is pleaſed to grant that in one total, which is now granted in various particular ſums, the diſtribution or appropriation of the net produce of thoſe revenues may eaſily be duly appropriated to the payment of intereſt to the national creditors.

However, that our deſign may prove conſiſtent with things as they at preſent ſtand, and be of immediate uſe, we ſhall enter upon an explanation of the manner of computing the duties of cuſtoms, purſuant to the laws enacted for that purpoſe; and, according to our preſent plan, ſhall fix upon ſeveral of the chief caſes that ariſe in their alphabetical order in the portable Book of rates, under the latter A, for the port of London; the moſt judicious

judicious and accurate of that kind, being that wrote by Mr. Saxby of the cuſtom houſe, 1757.

But ſince the publication of Mr. Saxby's Book of Rates, there has been a NEW SUBSIDY act of parliament in 1759, of 5 per cent. laid on certain merchandize, which has rendered the TOTALS of ſuch TABULAR DUTIES uſeleſs to the importer and exporter in that reſpect. Which hath made it neceſſary to take notice of this ſubſequent act in this new edition of the Dictionary, and to explain therefrom how Mr Saxby's Portable Book of Rates may, notwithſtanding, be uſeful to the merchant.

Alſo in the year 1762, another act took place, for granting ſeveral additional duties upon WINES imported into this kingdom, &c. which has likewiſe rendered the TOTALS of the ſaid tabular duties uſeleſs to merchants, with relation to the importation of WINES in general. It has, therefore, become neceſſary to apprize the reader of theſe material alterations in the duties of cuſtoms, ſince Mr Saxby's book was publiſhed. And as the requiſite brevity of a Portable Book of Rates will not admit of the ſaid new acts being given therein at large, we ſhall here give an ample abſtract of the ſaid two acts, and then explain Mr Saxby's Portable Book of Rates ſo intelligibly, that it may be applied to other caſes.

The firſt of theſe acts laying the ſubſidy of 5 per cent. on certain merchandize contains as follows.—"That from and after the 5th day of April, 1759, there ſhall be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid unto and for the uſe of his majeſty, his heirs, &c. for and upon all TOBACCO, FOREIGN LINNENS, SUGAR, and OTHER GROCERY, as the ſame is charged in the BOOKS OF RATES, except CURRANTS; Eaſt India goods, except COFFEE and raw ſilks; FOREIGN BRANDY and SPIRITS, except RUM, of the produce of the BRITISH SUGAR PLANTATIONS; and PAPER, which ſhall be imported or brought into the kingdom of GREAT-BRITAIN; a further SUBSIDY of POUNDAGE of TWELVE PENCE IN THE POUND, according to the VALUE OR RATE reſpectively ſet upon each of the ſaid COMMODITIES by the ſeveral BOOKS OF RATES, or any act or acts of parliament relating thereunto; which SUBSIDY ſhall be paid by the importer of ſuch goods and merchandizes, before the landing thereof, over and above all other duties, charged or chargeable thereupon."

Then the ſaid act declares, that the ſaid ſubſidy ſhall be levied and collected in like form and manner, and with ſuch allowances, diſcounts, drawbacks, &c. as are preſcribed for raiſing, and collecting the ſubſidy of 5 pounds per centum, granted in the 21ſt year of the reign of Geo. II. intitled, "An act for granting to his majeſty a ſubſidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom, &c. &c."

Prize goods charged only with the duties payable by act 30th Geo. II. unleſs taken out of the warehouſes for home conſumption.——Allowance to be made to the importer of tobacco, on paying down the DUTY as uſual; if the duty ſhall not be paid down, the importer ſhall give bond for payment thereof, and the importer to be intitled to the uſual allowances and diſcounts.——DRAWBACK of ſaid duty allowed upon exportation of goods within THREE YEARS.——Except for ſuch goods, or by any former act or acts, it is declared no DRAWBACK ſhall be paid or allowed on EXPORTATION.

DRAWBACK of the duty allowed on PAPER uſed in printing books in the learned languages in both univerſities, as is preſcribed by act 10 of queen Anne. The like drawback allowed on paper uſed in printing books in the learned languages in the univerſities of Scotland.

DRAWBACK of 3 ſhillings per hundred weight allowed on ſugar refined in Great-Britain, and exported, &c.

An ADDITIONAL INLAND DUTY to be paid of 1 SHILLING per pound on COFFEE, and NINE-PENCE per pound on CHOCOLATE.——Said duties on COFFEE and CHOCOLATE to be paid as the former INLAND DUTIES paid thereon into the OFFICE OF EXCISE.

PENALTY of counterfeiting the ſtamps provided on the occaſion, or being guilty of any fraud therein, 500 l. and one year's impriſonment.——PENALTY of vending chocolate without being duly ſtampt 20 ſhillings per pound, and forfeiture of the chocolate.

The other act that has made an alteration in the duties of cuſtoms, in the Portable Book of Rates, is that made in the year 1762, entitled, An act for granting to his majeſty ſeveral additional duties upon WINES imported into this kingdom, and certain duties on cyder and perry, &c. which declares, that from and after the 31ſt day of March, 1763, over and above all other ſubſidies, additional duties, and impoſitions, whatſoever payable for wines and vinegar imported into Great-Britain, by any act or acts now in force, there ſhall be raiſed and levied, (before landing thereof) the additional impoſitions, rates and duties following, without any diſcount or deduction inwards, or drawback on re-exportation afterwards; that is to ſay,

For every ton of French wine and French vinegar, imported, the ſum of 8 l.; and ſo after that rate, for any greater or leſſer quantity.

Alſo for every ton of all other wines and vinegar imported, the ſum of 4 l.; and ſo after that rate for any greater or leſſer quantity.——The ſame to be raiſed in ſuch manner and form, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures (except as to diſcounts and drawbacks aforeſaid) as are mentioned and expreſſed in the act made in the firſt year of the reign of Jac. II. entitled, An act for granting his majeſty an impoſition upon all wines and vinegar imported, &c.

Damaged and unmerchantable wines exempted from thoſe additional duties.

And whereas, by the eighth rule annexed to the Book of Rates, referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage paſſed the 12th of Charles the Second, every merchant bringing in any ſort of wines into this kingdom by way of merchandize, and making due entries thereof, is allowed 12 per cent. for LEAKAGE: and whereas it is of late years become a practice for ſeveral merchants to lodge Spaniſh, Portugal, and other wines, at the iſlands of Guernſey and Jerſey, and after they have filled up the caſks there, to import ſuch wines into this kingdom, and demand the before-mentioned allowance for leakage, notwithſtanding the caſks are quite full, to the leſſening of his majeſty's revenue, and the prejudice of other merchants who import wines directly from the place of their growth: for remedy whereof, and in order to put all merchants upon a more equal footing; be it enacted, that no merchant ſhall, in reſpect to the duties impoſed by this act, be allowed 12 per cent. or have any allowance for leakage, upon any wine imported into this kingdom, unleſs ſuch wine be imported directly from the country or place of the growth of the ſaid wine, or the uſual port or place of it's firſt ſhipping, except Madeira wines imported into this kingdom from any of his majeſty's plantations in America; any thing in the ſaid recited rule to the contrary notwithſtanding.

And from and after the 5th of July, 1763, there ſhall be raiſed an additional rate or new duty of exciſe upon cyder and perry as follows:

For every ton of cyder or perry imported into Great-Britain from beyond ſea, and ſo proportionably for a greater or leſſer quantity, to be paid by the importer before landing, over and above all other duties payable for the ſame, two pounds.

The other part of this act being relative to an inland or exciſe duty laid on the makers of cyder, we refer to the article cyder, ſince the act in that reſpect too has undergone alterations ſince the ſame took place, by the act here quoted.

OF THE COMPUTATION OF THE DUTIES OF CUSTOMS, ACCORDING TO THE PRESENT BOOK OF RATES.

Underſtanding there will ſoon be publiſhed a Portable Book of Rates by Mr. Saxby, wherein the alterations before made in the duties of cuſtom by the ſaid acts of parliament will be duly noticed; we judge it will only be neceſſary for us to explain the methods of computation therein made uſe of, in ſuch a manner as may be underſtood and applied by merchants, provided any ſubſequent alterations reſpecting theſe duties ſhould take place. This, we apprehend, will be more acceptable to traders than the ſwelling this work with a new ſett of tables, ready computed, which they will ſoon have in a Portable Book for that purpoſe; and it is to be hoped complete. For it is certainly of more utility and ſatisfaction to traders, to be duly informed in the manner of calculation, than to depend on that of others: yet ſuch calculations have their uſe; ſince, if thoſe made by the trader agree therewith, it is a ſatisfaction; if not, the trader will be entitled to point out any miſtakes that may be made by the officers of the cuſtoms to his diſadvantage. This is the more neceſſary, as the total duties in ſuch books are ſo liable to vary every few years.

And, indeed, what renders this the more neceſſary, is, that a Portable Book of Rates will hardly admit of ſuch an explanation of the methods of computing thoſe duties as could be deſired, by reaſon of it's requiſite brevity; though the method taken therein, is perhaps, as good as any other that might be deviſed, in relation to it's conciſeneſs. Yet certain it is, that great complaints have been made by traders, with reſpect to it's abſtruſeneſs and unintelligibility: but I am rather inclined to aſcribe that to want of due attention and application in the reader. However, we ſhall endeavour to put this matter in the beſt light we can, for the ſatisfaction of our reader, and thereby enable him to underſtand all future Books of Rates.

Previous to which, we deſire it may be obſerved, that conſiſtent with the plan of this work, the buſineſs of the cuſtoms will be treated of at the end of every letter, in the ſame alphabetical order as the Portable Book of Rates is obliged to be ranged, for the ſpeedy reference to every ſpecies of goods therein contained.

2. That we ſhall ſelect various examples of the duties, whereby to illuſtrate the manner of their calculation.

OF THE TABULAR METHOD OF RANGING THE DUTIES IN THE PORTABLE BOOK OF RATES.

The reader is deſired to obſerve, that the firſt column in the Portable Book of Rates, towards the right-hand of the goods or merchandize, repreſents the RATES, in pounds, ſhillings, and pence, and parts thereof, to which ſuch goods or merchandize are ſubject inwards, or on their importation, purſuant to the acts of Parliament of the 12th of Car. II. cap. 4. &c. and that alſo of the 11th of Geo. I. cap. 7. which are the

ground-

ground-work of the ſubſequent acts that have been ſince made, for ſettling of the duties of cuſtoms: over which columns is the word RATES.

4. The next column, following to the right-hand of thoſe of the RATES, ſhews, or ſhould ſhew, the total net duties paid on ſuch goods or merchandizes by Britiſh perſons; the next column to the right-hand, ſhews, or ſhould ſhew, what duties are to be paid on the ſame goods by ſtrangers; and the next right-hand column ſhews, or ſhould ſhew, how much is to be repaid, or drawn back, on the re-exportation of ſuch merchandize by any perſon, if done in time, according to act of parliament.

5. In the laſt column in Mr Saxby's Portable Book of Rates, which is marked with the great letters A, D 25, A d 1, C 3, C 1, &c. as in the firſt page of the tables of duties, and methodized as before repreſented, is contained the references to the tables, &c. p. 74, 5, 6, as is placed at the top of the ſaid laſt column.

6. In order for the reader to underſtand the uſe of the ſaid REFERENCE LETTERS and FIGURES annexed thereto, it is neceſſary to obſerve,

That the firſt part of the ſaid Portable Book of Rates contains a conciſe account of the SEVERAL BRANCHES OF CUSTOMS, SUBSIDIES, IMPOSITIONS, AND DUTIES PAYABLE IN GOODS AND MERCHANDIZES IMPORTED INTO, BROUGHT COASTWISE AND EXPORTED OUT OF GREAT-BRITAIN, from the 12th Car. II. cap. 4. § 3. 7. to the time when Mr Saxby's Book of Rates was publiſhed, which commences from the beginning of his book, and ends at page 72.

To render Saxby's Book of Rates the more intelligible to our reader, we ſhall, in the following page, preſent him with the TABLE and LIST, therein made uſe of; and afterwards give an explanation of them both; theſe two conſidered connectively, being the maſter-key, to unlock the whole myſtery of every portable Book of Rates, ever ſince the time of Mr Edgar, who judiciouſly firſt invented, in the Year 1714, the ſaid TABLE and LIST of branches, and printed the ſame in his VECTIGALIUM SYSTEMA; and ever ſince that time the ſame TABLE and LIST have been made uſe of by thoſe officers of the cuſtoms, who have wrote upon the computation of the duties of cuſtoms; as the late Mr Crouch and the preſent Mr Saxby.

A TABLE, whereby the referring letters, which are affixed on the right-hand margin of the Rates and Duties, expreſs the particular Branches to which any article of goods is liable, by correſpondent numbers reſpectively diſtinguiſhing the ſeveral Branches, as they ſtand in the following LIST, in the portable Book of Rates.

Referring marginal letters.	Correſpondent numbers, diſtinguiſhing the ſeveral branches.									
A	1	2	3	4	5	—	—	—	—	—
A a	1	2	3	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
A b	1	2	3	5	9	—	—	—	—	—
A c	1	2	3	5	10	—	—	—	—	—
A d	1	5	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
B	1	2	3	4	5	9	—	—	—	—
B a	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
B b	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
B c	1	2	3	4	5	33	—	—	—	—
B d	1	5	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
C	1	2	3	4	5	10	—	—	—	—
C a	1	III	2	3	5	—	—	—	—	—
C b	1	III	2	3	5	9	—	—	—	—
C c	1	III	2	3	5	10	—	—	—	—
C d	1	III	2	3	4	5	9	—	—	—
D	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
D a	5	6	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
D b	41	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
D c	26	27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
E	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
E a	28	29	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
E b	1	2	3	4	5	10	16	—	—	—
F	1	2	3	4	5	10	15	—	—	—
F a	1	5	10	15	—	—	—	—	—	—
F b	10	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
F f	37	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
F g	1	2	3	4	5	10	14	15	—	—
F h	1	III	2	3	5	10	15	—	—	—
F i	1	III	2	3	5	10	15	31	—	—
F o	1	2	3	4	5	10	15	32	—	—
F p	2	3	4	5	10	15	—	—	—	—
F q	2	3	4	5	10	15	16	—	—	—
F r	2	3	4	5	10	—	—	—	—	—
F s	1	2	3	4	5	15	—	—	—	—
F t	1	III	2	3	4	5	10	15	—	—
F u	1	2	3	4	5	10	15	26	27	—
F w	1	III	2	3	4	5	10	—	—	—
F x	15	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
F y	1	III	2	3	4	7	10	15	16	34
F z	2	3	4	7	10	15	34	—	—	—
G	1	2	3	4	5	9	10	—	—	—
G a	1	2	3	4	5	9	20	21	—	—
G b	2	3	4	5	16	—	—	—	—	—
H	20	21	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
H a	22	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
H b	1	7	15	34	—	—	—	—	—	—
I	1	2	3	4	5	16	—	—	—	—

Referring marginal letters.	Correſpondent numbers, diſtinguiſhing the ſeveral branches.								
I a	26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
I b	16	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
I c	42	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
K	1	2	3	4	5	9	14	—	—
K a	1	2	3	4	5	9	10	14	—
K b	1	II	2	3	4	5	9	—	—
K c	1	2	3	4	5	13	14	18	—
L	1	2	3	4	5	10	14	—	—
L a	1	II	2	3	4	5	—	—	—
L b	1	II	2	3	5	9	—	—	—
L c	1	2	3	4	5	9	18	—	—
L d	½1	2	3	4	5	9	18	—	—
M	½1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
M a	1	2	3	4	5	9	25	—	—
M b	III	2	3	5	8	—	—	—	—
N	1	2	3	4	5	9	10	26	27
N a	1	7	34	—	—	—	—	—	—
N b	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
O	1	2	3	4	5	10	26	27	—
O a	1	2	3	4	—	—	—	—	—
O b	11	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
P	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
P a	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
P b	2	3	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
Q	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Q a	1	2	3	4	5	10	28	29	—
Q b	1	2	3	4	5	28	29	—	—
R	1	III	2	3	5	9	31	—	—
R a	1	III	2	3	4	5	9	10	—
R b	27	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
S	30	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
S a	1	2	3	4	5	10	27	—	—
S b	9	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
T	2	3	4	5	—	—	—	—	—
T a	1	2	3	4	5	9	27	29	—
T b	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
V	31	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
V a	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
V b	24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
W	1	2	3	4	5	9	28	29	—
W a	36	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Z	1	2	3	4	5	9	10	32	—
Z a	1	2	3	4	5	10	32	—	—
Z b	1	III	2	3	4	7	16	34	—
Z c	1	III	IV	2	3	4	7	16	34
Z d	2	3	4	7	34	—	—	—	—
Z e	35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

See Saxby, page (74.)

The following LIST of the ſeveral Branches of the Revenue of CUSTOMS, as the ſame are contained in Saxby's Portable Book, from Page 3 to Page 71.

The LIST.

No.
I. Old ſubſidy.
II. Petty cuſtom.
III. Additional duty.
IV. One per cent. inwards.
2. New ſubſidy.
3. One-third ſubſidy.
4. Two-thirds ſubſidy.
5. Subſidy, 1747.
6. Subſidies on Spirits.
7. Impoſt on wines and vinegar.
8. Impoſt on tobacco.
9. Impoſt, 1690.
10. Impoſt, 1692.
11. Whale-fins.
12. Fifteen per cent on muſlins.
13. Spice and pictures, &c.
14. Additional ſpice and pictures.
15. Second 25 per cent. on French goods.
16. Coinage on wine and beer, &c.

No.
17. Coinage on ſpirits.
18. Pepper, raiſins, &c.
19. Subſidy, and one per cent. outwards, &c.
20. Candles.
21. Additional candles.
22. Coals imported, and coals, &c. brought coaſtwiſe.
23. Additional coals imported, &c.
24. Coals and culm for churches.
25. Hops.
26. Hides, ſkins, &c.
27. Additional hides, ſkins, &c.
28. Soap, paper, &c.
29. Additional ſoap, paper, &c.
30. Coals exported.
31. Sailcloth.
32. Wrought plate.
33. Apples.

No.
34. Wine, 1745.
35. Glaſs.
36. Linnen-yarn.
37. Gum-Senega.
38. Unrated goods imported, undervalued.

No.
39. Priſage and butlerage.
40. Salt.
41. Exciſe on liquors.
42. Inland duties on tea, &c.

See Saxby, page (75.)

To which muſt be added the laſt ſubſidy branch of 1759; and alſo the late duties on wines, and cyder and perry, before ſet forth by the act of parliament in the year 1762.

Notwithſtanding, that in every one of the foregoing BRANCHES, it is fully explained in the ſaid Book of Rates, what ſpecies of goods and merchandize are their immediate objects; nevertheleſs, as the BRANCHES are become very numerous, and as the ſeveral ſpecies are variouſly ſubject to more or leſs of theſe BRANCHES, it ſeems hardly poſſible by memory, without daily practice, to be expert in an exact application of the proper BRANCHES to the ſeveral articles of goods and merchandize under their various circumſtances of importation, &c. neither was it poſſible, in a book of a portable ſize, or much larger, to have provided columns ſufficient to arrange all the reſpective BRANCHES againſt each article, as was done in the former edition of my Dictionary. Therefore the following method is made uſe of in the Portable Book of Rates, whereby the BRANCHES due on every article purſuant to the RATES are expreſſed by LETTERS and FIGURES affixed in the right-hand margin of the columns of RATES and Duties.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Before we enter into the explanation of the foregoing LIST of branches, and the TABLE, it is to be noted,

That all goods liable to the OLD SUBSIDY of poundage on a RATE or VALUE, when imported by STRANGERS; and all goods enumerated in branch II. of the foregoing LIST, when IMPORTED IN SHIPS NOT BELONGING TO GREAT-BRITAIN OR IRELAND, OR FOREIGN BUILT, are liable to the said LIST, branch II.

GOODS IMPORTED FROM, OR EXPORTED TO THE MEDITERRANEAN SEA, IN SHIPS UNQUALIFIED, are liable to branch IV.

GOODS OF THE MANUFACTURE OF INDIA OR CHINA, unless expresly charged higher in the branch N°. 9. are liable to art. 30. of branch 9.

GOODS OF THE PRODUCT OF FRANCE, OR ANY FRENCH DOMINIONS, unless expresly charged higher in branches N°. 9. or 10. or particularly exempted, are liable to art. 36. of branch 10.

GOODS OF THE PRODUCT OF FRANCE, unless particularly exempted, are liable to branch 15.

AN EXPLANATION OF THE PRECEDING TABLE AND LIST in Saxby.

The MARGINAL LETTER or letters affixed to any species of goods, (without regarding the figure of any) must be sought for in the first column of the table.

The letter being found in the table, opposite thereto in columns following stand certain numbers, these numbers denote their respective branches in the list which immediately follows.

As for EXAMPLE.

1. Suppose the particular branches chargeable on alpisti, or Canary-seed, were desired to be known.

Upon recourse to alpisti in the rates, it will be found, that the marginal referring letter affixed thereto, is A.

Opposite to which letter, in the aforegoing table, are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

And by the LIST of the several branches it will be found, that

N°. 1. denotes the old subsidy,
2. - - new ditto,
3. - - one-third ditto,
4. - - - two-thirds ditto,
5. - - subsidy 1747.

} being the particular branches to which that commodity is liable by Saxby.

But as the impost 1690, and 1692, contain each a great variety of merchandize, it might from thence be difficult to discover, under what particular head therein specified, many sorts of goods are chargeable: that difficulty is therefore obviated by a figure or figures annexed to the marginal letters of any goods liable to either of those branches, which figures distinguish the particular articles, in that order in which they stand in the respective branch.

2. Suppose the several branches chargeable on brimstone were desired to be known.

Upon recourse to brimstone, it will be found, that the marginal letter and figure are B 5.

Opposite to the letter B (without regarding the figure 5) in the aforegoing table are the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 9.

Which, by the LIST of the several branches, as before directed for alpisti, will point out the particular branches to which brimstone is liable; and by the addition of the figure 5 to the letter, it will appear, by consulting the branch N°. 9, that brimstone is chargeable with the 5th article of impost 1690.

And where there are two numbers annexed to the letter or letters, the first has respect to the impost 1690, and the latter to the impost 1692, as in the case of wrought silks, &c.

The method of computing the custom-house duties will appear from the following examples more intelligibly.

The first thing therein to be considered is, what proportion the rate bears to the duty.

The old subsidy is generally 5 per cent. of the rate, with a discount of 5 per cent. for prompt payment: there are, however, exceptions to this general rule; but, with respect to all those species of merchandize which fall under the letter A in the table in the book of rates, the old subsidy is 5 per cent. of the rate, with a discount of 5 per cent.; so that wherever you find, by the REFERENCE COLUMN, any sort of goods subject to the old subsidy, compute 5 per cent. upon the rate, and you have the gross old subsidy; from which deduct 5 per cent. for the discount thereon, and you have the net old subsidy. When you have found this, if the new subsidy, one third subsidy, and two-thirds subsidy follow, those will be easily found: for, the new subsidy is the same as the net old subsidy; the one-third subsidy is the one-third of that; and the two-thirds is the two-thirds of the same.

The duties on foreign goods imported consisting of a POUNDAGE and a TONNAGE, which are under different regulations, it is necessary to treat of their computations separately.

POUNDAGE is understood to comprehend the customs and other duties payable on all goods imported (except those free of duty, or liable to TONNAGE) being, in most cases, levied and collected at so much in the pound, or per cent. on the respective RATES or VALUES, as is fully explained under the several branches in the book of rates.

In order to discover the several branches to which any sort of poundage goods are liable, it must be observed,

That the said goods are to be sought for amongst the RATES OF MERCHANDIZES INWARDS, in the book of rates, under their proper initial letters, or the general head wherein such goods are comprehended, or DRUGS, GROCERY, LINNEN, &c.

That if the goods are not found to be any where RATED, the VALUES thereof (except goods from India and China) must be ascertained, as is directed under such respective branch.

That after the amount of the goods at their respective RATES, or according to their VALUES upon oath, is thus discovered, you may then proceed to the computation of the several branches of the duties to which such goods are liable, by the assistance of the REFERRING LETTERS, which stand in the right hand margin against each species of goods, in the portable book of rates, as explained in the following example:

Suppose, as before observed, you would know the duties on ALPISTI, or CANARY-SEED; the use of the reference letter A in the table has been already explained, and by casting an eye upon that article, in the table of Merchandize in the book of rates, you find written, The hundred weight, containing 112 lb. and in the next right hand column immediately following, that l. 3 : 15, under the act of Car. II. cap. 4, &c. which denotes, that the RATE settled by that act upon ALPISTI is l. 3 : 15 per 112 lb.; and the reference letter A, in the furthest right hand column, shews that ALPISTI is liable to the foregoing branches of duties, as exhibited in the preceding table, by the said letter A, viz. OLD SUBSIDY, NEW SUBSIDY, $\frac{1}{3}$ SUBSIDY, $\frac{2}{3}$ SUBSIDY, and SUBSIDY 1747.

The branch of the OLD SUBSIDY being on this article, 5 per cent. of the RATE, with a discount of 5 per cent. for prompt payment, the net OLD SUBSIDY is first found, and all the rest will be easy, as before shewn: as for the subsidy of 1747, that is 5 per cent. more, without any discount, as has been the practice at the custom-house.

Now 5 per cent. upon l. 3 : 15, is 3 s. 9 d. the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY: and 5 per cent. discount upon that, is 2 d. $\frac{1}{4}$. This being deducted from the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, leaves for remainder the NET OLD SUBSIDY, which is 3 s. 6 d. $\frac{3}{4}$—— The NEW SUBSIDY being the same, and the $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ SUBSIDIES equal thereto, the NET OLD SUBSIDY, multiplied by three, gives 10 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{4}$.——To this must be added the SUBSIDY of 1747, which being 5 per cent. on the rate, gives the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, and this added to the foregoing branches of duties, makes 14 s. 5 d. $\frac{5}{20}$, or $\frac{25}{100}$ of a penny, to be paid by BRITISH, as appears according to Saxby.—If these computations are rightly understood, and the proper use of the foregoing TABLE, and branches of duties relative to the REFERENCE LETTERS in SAXBY, no one can be at a loss to compute any SUBSEQUENT DUTIES in any future acts of parliament; and for the reasons before given, it is needless to give fresh ready computed tables of total duties, every time there may be any additional custom-duties laid on our imports, if the computation of those to 1747 are well understood.

The next step to be taken, is to find the NET DUTY to be paid on importation by STRANGERS. To which end, there must be added to the DUTIES paid by BRITISH, ONE QUARTER OF THE GROSS OLD SUBSIDY.—This being 11 d. $\frac{1}{4}$, gives for answer 15 s. 4 d. $\frac{10}{20}$, or $\frac{50}{100}$, and agrees with SAXBY's present Book of Rates.

And to know what is drawn back on RE-EXPORTATION, if within three years from the IMPORTATION, accounting from the time of the master's reporting the ship, it must be observed, that the DRAWBACK IS IN THE GENERAL ALL THAT HAS BEEN PAID ON IMPORTATION, EXCEPT A MOIETY OF THE NET OLD SUBSIDY.

In the example before us, the NET OLD SUBSIDY is 3 s. 6 d. $\frac{3}{4}$; one moiety whereof is 1 s. 9 d. $\frac{7}{20}$, or $\frac{35}{100}$ and $\frac{1}{2}$ of a penny; which being deducted from the net duty of 14 s. 5 d. $\frac{5}{20}$, or $\frac{25}{100}$, paid by the British, the remainder is 12 s. 7 d. $\frac{17}{20}$ $\frac{1}{2}$, that is to be drawn back on re-exportation. This also agrees with SAXBY.

Another EXAMPLE. Suppose it is required to know the duties upon the importation of the article ANDIRONS, the PAIR.

By turning to that species of goods in Saxby, 'tis found, by his tables to the right hand, that they are rated at 10 s. per PAIR, and that by consulting the REFERENCE LETTER column, we find A, which, by the TABLE and LIST, they pay the same duties as ALPISTI; and besides that they pay, for every hundred weight of iron, by the affixed REFERENCE LETTER D 25 in Saxby, according to the foregoing TABLE and LIST, the IMPOST DUTY of 1690; which GROSS DUTY is 5 s. per 112 lb. or hundred weight of iron, an allowance of 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ being made to the importer for prompt payment, which is 3 d. $\frac{15}{20}$ = $\frac{75}{100}$: this being deducted from the 5 s. leaves the NET DUTY OF THE IMPOST 1690 to be 4 s. 8 d. $\frac{5}{20}$ = $\frac{25}{100}$.

After knowing the various duties, according to the REFERENCE LETTER, compared with the TABLE and LIST, and the condition of payment, to which these goods are liable, you begin their computation thus:

Five per cent. on the rate 10 s. is 6 d. GROSS OLD SUBSIDY. —5 per cent. discount thereon is $\frac{6}{20}$ of a penny; which being deducted therefrom, leaves NET OLD SUBSIDY 5 d. $\frac{14}{20}$; this × by 3 for the $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$ SUBSIDIES = 1 s. 5 d. $\frac{2}{20}$, with + 5 per cent.

cent. GROSS SUBSIDY of 1747—5 per cent. on the rate, being 0 d. in the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, which added = 1 s. 11 d. $\frac{2}{20}$, the TOTAL NET DUTY paid by BRITISH.——To which add $\frac{1}{4}$ part of GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ = 2 s. 0 d. $\frac{12}{20}$, the TOTAL NET DUTY paid by STRANGERS.——And by deducting $\frac{1}{2}$ the NET OLD SUBSIDY, as in the preceding example, there will remain to be drawn back, in the time limited, as before obſerved, by any perſon, 1 s. 8 d. $\frac{5}{20}$, as you will find, by the inſpection of Saxby's tables of TOTAL DUTIES, againſt ANDIRONS.

Another example in letter A of the TOTAL DUTIES. What are the duties on ANDIRONS, or CREEPERS of LATTEN, the pound?

By inſpection of Saxby's TOTAL DUTY TABLES on the right hand of the merchandize, the RATE appears to be 1 s. per pound, and according to the REFERENCE LETTER COLUMN, C 13 compared with TABLE and LIST, this article pays the FOUR SUBSIDIES, as before, and that of 1747: and alſo the impoſt (1692-3) which is 1 s. on every 20 s. of the Rate, with a diſcount of 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent for prompt payment.

Five per cent. on 1 s. = $\frac{12}{20}$ of a penny GROSS OLD SUBSIDY——and 5 per cent. thereon = $\frac{12}{20}$ of $\frac{1}{20}$ of a penny; which deducted leaves the NET OLD SUBSIDY, $\frac{11}{20}$ of a penny; and $\frac{8}{20}$ of $\frac{1}{20}$ × by 3 = 1 d. $\frac{12}{20}$ $\frac{4}{20}$——to which add the net impoſt (1692-3) which is found thus.——The GROSS import being for every 20 s. of the RATE 1 s. proceed as follows.——Firſt, find the NET IMPOST on the RATE—diſcount being 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ on 1 s. = $\frac{15}{20}$ of a penny——this deducted, leaves for the NET IMPOST (1692-3) 11 d. $\frac{5}{20}$.—Then, as 20 s. RATE is to 11 d. $\frac{5}{20}$ NET IMPOST (1692-3:) ſo is 1 s. THE RATE to $\frac{11}{20}$ of a penny $\frac{5}{20}$ of $\frac{1}{20}$; which added to the NET DUTIES above, viz. 1 d. $\frac{14}{20}$ $\frac{4}{20}$ = 2 d. $\frac{5}{20}$ $\frac{9}{20}$.——Laſtly, add the 5 per cent. on the RATE for the GROSS SUBSIDY (1747),—this is 1 s. = $\frac{12}{20}$ of a penny; which added to 2 d. $\frac{15}{20}$ $\frac{9}{20}$, as above = 2 d. $\frac{17}{20}$ $\frac{9}{20}$, the total NET DUTIES paid by BRITISH.

Then to know what is paid by STRANGERS, add thereto $\frac{1}{4}$ of the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, which is $\frac{3}{20}$ of a penny, and you have the anſwer, being 3 d. $\frac{9}{20}$. And,

To find what is drawn back, deduct $\frac{1}{2}$ of the NET OLD SUBSIDY. The NET OLD SUBSIDY being $\frac{11}{20}$ $\frac{8}{20}$ as before, $\frac{1}{2}$ thereof is $\frac{5}{20}$ $\frac{14}{20}$; which deducted from 2 d. $\frac{17}{20}$ $\frac{9}{20}$, as above, the remainder will be 2 d. $\frac{11}{20}$ $\frac{15}{20}$ = $\frac{3}{4}$, the anſwer, according to Saxby.

N. B. It is hardly neceſſary to obſerve, that when the TOTAL NET DUTIES are computed for one pound weight, or one hundred weight, &c. there is no difficulty to compute them for any given quantity, &c. &c.

Example 4. Let the NET DUTIES on Wood or Soap ASHES be required.

By inſpection of Saxby's DUTY TABLES to the right-hand of the merchandizes, the RATE is found to be 6 l. per laſt, containing 12 barrels. By the REFERENCE LETTER column C 5, and TABLE and LIST this article pays the FOUR SUBSIDIES, and IMPOST 1692-3, with a diſcount of 6 $\frac{1}{4}$, and SUBSIDY (1747) by Saxby.

Five per cent. on 6 l. is 6 s. GROSS OLD SUBSIDY,——5 per cent. diſcount thereon is 3 d. $\frac{12}{20}$.——Therefore the NET OLD SUBSIDY is 5 s. 8 d. $\frac{8}{20}$; this × 3 = 17 s. 1 d. $\frac{4}{20}$ — GROSS IMPOST (1692-3).——This + 17 s. 1 d. $\frac{4}{20}$ = 1 l. 2 s. 8 d. $\frac{14}{20}$; this + 5 per cent. SUBSIDY (1747) on the RATE = 6 s. makes the NET DUTY, by Saxby, per BRITISH 1 l. 8 s. 8 d. $\frac{14}{20}$.

To find what is paid by STRANGERS, add $\frac{1}{4}$ of the GROSS OLD SUBSIDY, viz. (= 1 s. 6 d.) to what is paid by BRITISH, and the ſum will be what is paid by STRANGERS, viz. 1 l. 10 s. 2 d. $\frac{14}{20}$, which agrees with Saxby.———And,

To find what is drawn back, deduct $\frac{1}{2}$ the NET OLD SUBSIDY therefrom, viz. 2 s. 10 d. $\frac{4}{20}$, which leaves 1 l. 5 s. 10 d. $\frac{10}{20}$ for the remainder, as per Saxby.

Theſe examples containing the principal caſes of computation that relate to theſe ſpecies of goods and merchandize which fall in their alphabetical order in Saxby's book of rates, under the letter A, it is not neceſſary to multiply more, to explain the USE of the conſtant portable book of rates at the cuſtom-houſe. For if theſe are duly underſtood and attended to, the computation of any alterations that have been made ſince, or that ever ſhall be made hereafter, may be eaſily computed from the acts of parliament made for that purpoſe.

Thoſe who are not well grounded in theſe computations will be little the better for tables of the total duties ready computed to their hands; nay, they may, as I ſhall ſhew they have done, prove more detrimental.

OF THE DUTIES OF TONNAGE.

TONNAGE comprehends the DUTIES payable on wines imported (and the old ſubſidy on perry, rape of grapes, cyder, cyder-eager, and vinegar, the impoſts on vinegar, and the coinage duties) being by a ſum certain on the ton meaſure.

All the ſeveral duties on wines are fully explained under each reſpective branch in chap. I. Saxby, wherein are ſhewn the groſs duties, the diſcounts thereon, and the net duties to be paid or ſecured (for one ton or one gallon) according to the ſeveral circumſtances of entry and importation; therefore when the branches, to which any ſort of wines are liable, are deſired to be known, that ſort (obſerving the particular circumſtances of entry and importation) muſt be ſought for between page 267 and page 275, Saxby; and oppoſite thereto will be found a REFERRING LETTER, repreſenting the particular branches, as is explained in the following example.

One ton of Spaniſh wine, unfilled, for ſale, imported into the port of London, by Britiſh, in Britiſh ſhips legally qualified, all duties paid down.

Upon recourſe had to page 269 of Saxby, in the laſt column thereof, oppoſite to the ſort of WINE above deſcribed, will be found the REFERENCE LETTERS Z b, which letters being found in the TABLE with the LIST aforeſaid, page 74, Saxby, they refer to the BRANCHES OF DUTIES contained in the LIST N° 1. III. 2. 3. 4. 7. 16. 34, each of which BRANCHES OF DUTIES muſt be conſulted, that the reſpective ſums due thereon may be exactly charged; which for the above example will be found to ſtand thus,

N° I. Old ſubſidy — —	£	3 : 10 : 2	$\frac{5}{20}$
N° III. Additional duty — —		2 : 17 : 1	8
N° 2. New ſubſidy — — —		3 : 10 : 2	8
N° 3. One-third ſubſidy —— ——		1 : 3 : 4	16
N° 4. Two-thirds ſubſidy —— —		2 : 6 : 9	12
N° 7. Impoſt on wine — — ——		8 : 0 : 7	1
N° 16. Coinage on wine —— —		0 . 10 :	——
N° 34. Duty on wine, 1745. — — —		4 : 0 :	——
Total duty to be paid before the laſt act of parliament of — — 1763, on wine and cyder — —		25 : 18 : 3	13
		4	
		29 : 18 : 3	$\frac{13}{20}$

And ſo for any additional duties.

But for the greater eaſe and diſpatch in computing the duties on WINE, it is the practice to work by TABLES, wherein EACH BRANCH is computed net, according to all the reſpective circumſtances of importation, diſcount, &c. from a gallon to a ton.

After what has been ſaid, there is no one but may eaſily underſtand the uſe of the TABLE and LIST in Saxby, by means of the REFERENCE LETTERS and FIGURES thereto annexed, and thereby can never be at a loſs, to compute any of the duties, according to any ſort of alterations that have occurred, or may hereafter, by having recourſe to ſuch acts of parliament as may enact the ſame. We ſhall ſay no more on this ſubject, at preſent, but repreſent ſome other parts of the cuſtom-houſe buſineſs, by way of familiar initiation thereinto.

Of the METHODS of entering GOODS at the CUSTOM-HOUSE on IMPORTATION, with the various FORMS of writings requiſite on thoſe occaſions, particularly at the out-ports.

When foreign goods are imported, the maſter of the veſſel, upon his arrival, muſt go to the cuſtom-houſe, and muſt report his cargo upon oath *. The merchant may enter and land his goods any time within 20 days, from the day of the maſter's report: to do which in the moſt advantageous manner, he muſt write and ſign five bills of entry; one whereof muſt be in words at length, and is called the warrant; the other four may be in figures †.

* The form of a REPORT INWARDS is thus:

[Fee, 1 s. for the deputies, whether the report be made by Engliſh or foreigners; nothing more due to the collector, or any other officer.]

Inwards,
PORT of } In the ſhip of ‖
built, property all about tons, with
men, of which ‖ men and
‖ beſides a man maſter
for this preſent voyage, from in

I do ſwear that the entry above-written, now tendered and ſubſcribed by me, is a juſt report of the name of my ſhip, it's burden, built, property, number and country of mariners, the preſent maſter and voyage; and that it doth further contain a true account of my lading, with the particular marks, numbers, quantity, quality, and conſignment of all the goods and merchandizes in my ſaid ſhip, to the beſt of my knowlege: and that I have not broken bulk, or delivered any goods out of my ſaid ſhip, ſince her lading in.

So help me God.

Sworn before us the } Collector.
day of } Comptroller.

† An INWARD ENTRY.

Fee, 8 d. [For writing theſe entries there is charged at ſome of the out-ports, for the collector, ſometimes 6 d. ſometimes 2 s. which the merchant ſaves, if he writes them himſelf.]

March 6, 1751.

In the Dolphin, B. B. John Carr, maſter, from Rotterdam,
JAMES HILL, Britiſh.

8000 pantilles.
10 matts, containing 30 C. wt. of rough flax.

Theſe

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

These five bills the merchant delivers to the collector, or his clerk, who will compute the duties, which must be paid, before the goods are landed. The duties being paid, the warrant is duly perfected, signed, and delivered to the land-waiters, appointed to attend the delivery, together with blue books, wherein an account of the delivery is to be entered. The goods are then landed, examined, and the quantities taken; the manner of doing which will be explained presently. If the merchant is found to have entered short, he must pass post-entries, and pay the duties for the quantities short entered, in the same manner as was observed in passing the prime entries: but if, upon delivery, an over-entry appears, the merchant may apply to the collector, to have his entries altered, and the overplus duly repaid; which may be done, if he applies, before the collector and comptroller have posted the entry in the kings's books, upon his making satisfactory proof that no fraud was committed: but, if the entry be posted, before he applies, then the duty must be repaid by certificate of over-entry, in the manner hereafter explained.

It sometimes happens that goods are sent by merchants to sell by commission, and arrive before the invoice. In this, and such like cases, when the merchant cannot make any tolerable conjecture at the quantities, and perhaps knows not the species, or proper denomination of the goods, the law permits the goods to be landed by bills of sight or view *. The merchant makes a deposit, in the hands of the collector, of as much money as the duties are imagined to amount to, or rather more: then the bill of sight is made out, and given to the proper officers; who must examine and take the quantity of the goods, and make their report to the collector the next day, or render themselves liable to the penalty of 100 l. in case of failure. According to the report the entries are passed, and the duties paid, in the same manner as they would have been, had there been no occasion for a bill of sight. If the officers cannot go through the examination in one day, they must report their day's work to the collector, as being in part of the sight; for which the merchant must pass entries, and pay duty, and so proceed till the whole bill of sight is completed.

* A BILL of SIGHT.

[One shilling or two shillings.]

March 6, 1751.

In the Nereid. B. B. James Wood, from Bremen.

RICHARD FONNEREAU, British.

Two bales of merchandize, quantity and quality unknown.
Richard Fonnereau maketh oath, that he hath received no invoice, or other account, whereby to ascertain the quantity and quality of the above merchandize.

R. F.

Sworn before collector,

Forty pounds being deposited in our hands for the duties of the above merchandize, you may permit the bales to be landed to your view and examination, endorsing the contents thereon and returning this warrant in due time to us.

To the surveyor and land-waiters. Collector. Comptroller.

Goods not rated in the book of rates are often imported; in which case, the duties are to be charged according to the value of the goods upon oath, by which value is to be understood the value at the port of importation at that time, exclusive of the duty. The merchant is to observe, that, if he undervalues his goods, the law impowers the officers to take them and sell them; and, after repaying him the duties, according to the value he set upon them, together with the said value, and also 10 per cent. thereof, the surplus, if any, is to be applied to the sinking fund: so that merchants are to govern themselves accordingly, to avoid the consequences of an undervaluation.

Having thus explained the manner of proceeding within doors, the business without doors comes next under consideration: let us therefore take a view of what passes on board the ship and at the keys, in delivering the goods. The tidesmen on board the ship keep a tally-account of the delivery, in blue books; the land-waiters upon the keys, under the inspection of the land-surveyors, enter in their blue books not only the number and quality, but also the quantity, of the goods delivered.

The design of the delivery is to ascertain the quality and quantity of the goods, which is chiefly incumbent upon the land-waiters: who are to take care, that the quantities and qualities of the goods delivered agree with the quantities and qualities entered. The qualities of goods are always known to the merchants; the officers, in determining them, must rely upon experience, and the descriptions in the books of rates.

The quantities are to be determined, either by number, weight, or measure, according as the goods are rated in the book of rates.

To enable either merchants or officers to do this, they should be well skilled in arithmetic, gauging, and mensuration; qualifications so indispensably necessary, that none should be admitted, either into a counting-house, or custom-house, without them.

Of GOODS rated by NUMBER, or TALE.

ART. I. The ALLOWANCES upon DELIVERY.

When stockfish are imported, they are all passed as titling; which is the least sort of that fish, and liable to the least duty: this is in lieu of allowance for damaged or defective fish.

When paper is imported in reams of 20 quires, each quire containing 24 sheets, 6 sheets per ream are allowed for outsides. If paper be imported in quires of 25 sheets, as printing paper is, 12 sheets per ream to be allowed for outsides.

No other allowances on delivery of goods by tale.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

Of oranges and lemons, 500 are to be reckoned to the chest, and 250 to the half chest, or box, though the chests and boxes may hold more; and they are to be passed and entered accordingly, because no allowance is made for damage: but, if the merchant refuses to comply with this practice, the found ones are to be told, and to pay by the thousand.

Stockfish	—	Titling, 18 inches long. Cropling, 18 to 24 inches. Lubfish, above 24 inches.

But all passed as titling. [See allowances above.]

Dagstones	—	Over, from 3 to four feet. Thick, above 6, under 12 inches.
Quernstones	large	Over, 3 and not exceeding four feet. Thick, not exceeding 6 inches.
	small	Over, under 3 feet. Thick, not exceeding 6 inches.
Millstones		Over, above 4 feet. Thick, 12, 14½ or 15 inches.

For other descriptions of goods delivered by tale, see the article TALE.

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS for QUANTITIES.

A nest	— —	Of pill-boxes, contains 4 boxes. Of nest-boxes, contains 8 boxes.
A groce	— —	Great, is 12 times 12 doz. or 1728. Small, is 12 doz. or 144. Of bracelets, is 10 doz. or 120.

A shock is 60.
A dicker is 10.
A timber, of furs, is 40.

A last	Of stones, is 3 pair.	
	Of Stockfish, is 1000	
	Of herrings	Red, is 20 cades, each cade 500. White, is 12 barrels.

Of GOODS rated by WEIGHT.

ART. I. The allowances proper to this head are two, draught and tare. Draught is to be deducted, and then the tare, where there is any.

The manner of making the allowance for draught, is, for the weigher to call out the full and true gross weight in the scale; which is to be entered in the land-waiter's book, and an allowance made for each weigh or scale, according to the following table.

Gross weight.	Allowance for draught.
Under 1 C. wt. — — —	1 lb.
From 1 to 2 C. — — —	2 lb.
2 to 3 C. — — —	3 lb.
3 to 10 C. — — —	4 lb.
10 to 18 C. — — —	7 lb.
18 to 30 C. or upwards —	9 lb.

Tare, is the weight, or an allowance for the weight of casks, bags, or other packages. For the accommodation of trade, there are in many cases tares settled and established by custom and experience, as you will see in the following table: however, these tares are not to bind the merchant, or officer; if either of them be dissatisfied therewith, they may insist on the goods being shipped and weighed net: and, indeed, in all cases where it can be conveniently done, it is by much the best way.

A TABLE of TARES.

A	
Allum in casks — — —	12 lb. per C. wt.
Argol in casks — — —	14 lb. per C.
Ashes, pot, or pearl, in casks —	10 lb. per C.
B	
Battery, in fats — —	8 per cent.
Beads of coral, covered with rags —	3 per cent.
Beads of coral, uncovered ——	2 per cent.
Brimstone, in casks —— ——	8 per cent.
Brittles, in fats —— ——	17 per cent.
Bugle, great, for strings and rags —	3 per cent.
C	
Capers, in casks —— ——	1 3d part
Copperas, ditto —— —	10 per cent.
Cork, in bundles ——— —	1 lb. the bundle

D

DRUGS.

Aloes hepatice, from Britiſh plantations, in goads 1 5th part
Antimony, in caſks — — 6 per cent.
Green ginger, in jars of 100 lb. 28 lb. per jar
Iſinglaſs, in fats of 4 C. wt. — 84 lb. per fat
Prunelloes, in boxes about 14 lb. — 3 lb. per box

F

Feathers, in bags — — 4 per cent

G

Galls — in bags — 4 lb. per bag; in ſingle bags — 4 lb. per bag

GROCERY.

Almonds — in caſks — — 14 lb. per caſk; in bags — — 4 lb. per bag; in bags about 200 lb. 18 lb. per bag
Cinnamon, — in gunny, about 1 C. wt. 12 lb.; in ſkins, about 1 C. wt. 14 lb.; in ſkins and bags — 16 lb.
Currants — in batts and caroteels 16 per cent.; in quarter roll — 20 per cent.; in bags, about 4 C. wt. 10 lb. per bag
Figs, in barrels — — 14 lb. per cent
Pepper, in bags, about 3 C. wt. — 4 lb. per bag.
Prunes, in uncertain caſks — 20 per cent.
Raiſins, — in frails — 6 lb. per frail; Lipra in barrels, about 1 C. wt. 14 lb.; Solis, in caſks — — 12 per cent.; Smyrna. — in oak caſks — 14 per cent.; in fir caſks — 12 per cent.
Sugar, — all ſmall caſks under 8 C. wt. 14 per cent.; caſks from 8 to 12 C. — 100 C. wt.; — — 12 to 15 C. — 110; — — 15 to 17 C. — 120; — — 17 and upwards — 130
Goats-hair, — in canvas — — 4 per cent.; in hair-cloth — — 7 per cent.

H

Hops, in bags — — 4 per cent.

I

Incle, — wrought in papers — 2 per cent.; unwrought in bales — under 2 C. 6 lb.; above 2 C. 8 lb.

L

Latten, in fats — — 8 per cent

M

Madder, — in bales, or bags — 28 lb.; in fats — — 10 per cent.
Metal prepared, in fats — 8 per cent.

O

Oil, — in uncertain caſks — 18 per cent.; in candy barrels — 29 lb. per bar.
Train-oil, of Britiſh plantations, in barrels — 50 lb. per bar.

S

Saffore, — in bales, about 6 C. wt. — 84 lb. per bale; in bags, from 2 to 3 C. — 16 lb. per bag
Salt-petre, — in caſks, — 12 per cent.; in gunny, about 1 1 qr. C. — 16 lb.
Shumac — in bags, about 3 1 half C. — 10 lb.; — 2 to to 3 C. — 8 lb.; — 7 C. — 14 lb.

Silk thrown, or orgazine,
- Of Bologna and Piedmont, — Short bales with ſear-cloth and cotton-wool, 14 per cent.; Long bales, about 2 C. with do. 30 lb.
- Of Naples, — in bales with ſear-cloth, 9 per 100 lb.; in fangots with ſear-cloth, about 1 half C. 14 lb.
- Of Meſſina, — in bales, double canvas, thrown and raw, about 2 C. wt. 10 lb.; in bales with ſear-cloth and cotton wool, about 2 C. wt 22 lb.

Silk raw,
- Of Aleppo, — in long bales, with cotton wool, from 3 1 qr. to 3 qrs. C. wt. — 32 lb.; in fangots — with cotton wool, about 2 1 half C. — 42 lb.; about 1 3 qrs. or 2 C. 20 lb.; about 1 1 qr. to 1 1 half 18 lb.; Ardas ſilk, in ſhort bales with cotton wool, from 3 1 qr. to 2 3 qrs. C. wt. — 30 lb.
- Of Smyrna and Cyprus, — About 3 C. wt. and upwards 16 lb.; From 3 to 2 C. wt. — 14 lb.; Under 2 C. wt. — 12 lb.

Smalts, or powder blue, in caſks — 10 per cent.
Soap, Caſtile, — in double ſerns, about 3 C. wt. 30 lb.; in ſingle ſerns, about 3 C. wt. 16 lb.; in cheſts, about 2 1 half, or 3 C. 40 lb.

T

Tallow, in caſks, — — 12 per cent.
Threads, — black and brown, or bridges 6 per cent.; Outnal, — — for want of weight; Whited brown, —
Siſters thread — in uncertain papers, 12 per cent. for papers.; in certain papers, no allowance.
Tobacco, is ſtripped and weighed net, but the merchants have an allowance of 2 lb. per hogſhead for ſamples.
Turpentine, in caſks — — 13 d. tare.

Y

Cable-yarn, in winch, from Ruſſia — 28 lb.
Linnen-yarn in fats — — 12 per cent.

ART. II. PARTICULAR REGULATIONS proper to this head.

Oil in caſks pays duty by meaſure, but is delivered by weight; the net weight is reduced to gallons, by allowing 7 1 half lb. to a gallon.

To diſtinguiſh packthread from twine, take notice, that twine is twice, packthread thrice, twiſted.

Twelve pounds of honey make a gallon, and forty-two gallons a barrel.

Two hundred pounds are generally reckoned a barrel, in weight; but that weight of ſteel is only eſteemed half a barrel.

When almonds are imported in ſhells, 2 3ds to be allowed for ſhells.

When unpoliſhed coral is imported, 1 3d is reckoned fragments, and the remaining 2 3ds whole coral; there being a difference, in the duty, between whole and fragments.

Briſtles, though diſtinguiſhed, in the book of rates, into dreſt and undreſt, are all paſſed as undreſt, becauſe none are imported perfectly dreſt.

Sixty-three bundles of bulruſhes are reckoned to a load.

Backs for chimnies weighing above 1 half C. are large; ditto, weighing 1 half C. and under, are ſmall.

Iron cheſts, in the book of rates, are diſtinguiſhed into large, middle, and ſmall.

Large, are 1 1 qr. yard long.
Middle, 1 yard long.
Small, 3 qrs. yard long.

Old buſhel broken iron, is ſuch as cannot be uſed without new forging; if there be any new ſpikes, &c. intermixed, they muſt be ſeparated, and pay duty, as manufactured iron.

Weights leſs than 2 lb. are not to be uſed in weighing tobacco, ſugar, and other graff-goods.

Merchants are to be at no charge in opening and weighing goods duly entered.

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS, denoting the quantities by which goods proper to this head are rated.

Wey of ſalt, is 40 buſhels, each buſhel 84 lb.
Mount of plaiſter of Paris, is 3000 lb. wt.
A maſt of amber, is 2 1 half lb.
Little barrel of anchovies, is to weigh 16 lb. of fiſh.

GOODS rated by MEASURE.

Meaſures may be diſtinguiſhed into meaſures of length, meaſures of capacity, ſuperficial meaſure, and ſolid meaſure; of which in their order. And, firſt, of goods rated by meaſure of length.

ART I. If linnens are contented in Flemiſh or Dutch ells, two ells in 120 are to be allowed for ſhortneſs of meaſure.

But, if linnens are contented in Engliſh ells, no allowance.

Of French lockrams, two ells in every 120 to be allowed.

The following are the ſettled allowances for wrappers.

On Hamburgh and Bremen linnen, and alſo Heſſens canvas, — in packs and bales, 1 ell in 40, but not to exceed 120 ells on any one pack, let the pack be ever ſo large.

Dantzick linnens, 4 ells in every 120.

Flanders linnens, 3 ells in every 100.

Hollands duck, 4 ells in every 100; but, if brought looſe, no allowance.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

Linnens are either contented or not contented; contented is that ſort of linnen, the particular length of each piece whereof is inſerted in the merchant's invoice, and alſo marked upon the piece itſelf, or upon a label or ticket affixed to the piece; linnen not contented, is that ſort of the particular length of each piece whereof the merchants have no account, nor is the length of each piece marked upon, or affixed to it.

When linnens are contented, the merchant is to inſert the true and exact contents, or number of ells, in each bale, or other package, in the bill of entry. When they are not contented, the merchant is to inſert in the bill of entry the number of pieces in each bale, or other package; and likewiſe the total quantity for which duty is paid.

Contented linnens ſhort entered, or different in ſort or ſpecies from the entry, are to be ſeized; and, if the number of pieces of not contented linnens, in any bale or other package, exceeds the number inſerted in the warrant, the ſupernumerary pieces are to be ſeized: if the difference between the total quantity of not contented linnens delivered, and the total quantity entered, be above one ell for every piece, the exceſs is to be ſtopped and ſent to the king's warehouſe for the board's directions; but, if the ſaid difference be under one ell in every piece, then a poſt-entry may be admitted.

The land-waiters are to open and examine every parcel of Flemiſh and Holland linnens, and Sileſia lawns and cambricks; and at leaſt one third part of the number of bales, or packs, of all other linnens.

If the contents of any package differ from the contents in the warrant, all the other packages are to be opened and carefully examined.

In examining contented linnens, care is to be taken to meaſure ſome pieces in every package opened, to ſee that the meaſure agrees with the number of ells marked on the piece, or on the label.

Three or four pieces, at leaſt, in every bale, or other package, of not contented linnens, are to be meaſured; one or two to be choſen by the officer, and the like number by the merchant, by which the contents of the whole bale are to be computed. In caſe of diſpute, as many more as are neceſſary to decide it, are to be choſen and meaſured by the officer and merchant, in the manner above-mentioned.

No wrappers are to be allowed upon linnens in cheſts, caſks, or fats, nor upon Ruſſia linnens.

The number of archeens of Ruſſia linnen in every bale, wrappers included, is to be inſerted in the warrant by the importer, who is to make oath of the truth thereof: after examination of the bales, to prevent concealment, the archeens are to be reduced to Engliſh ells, by multiplying them by 57, and cutting off the two laſt figures in the product. On ſuſpicion of fraud, the officers are to meaſure.

The contents of the wrappers of all ſorts of linnen are to be charged to account in the land-waiter's books; and duty is to be paid for them, becauſe proper allowances are made in another manner as before-mentioned.

If any linnens are uſed as wrappers, which pay a higher duty than the linnens wrapped, and are not particularly diſtinguiſhed in the warrant, they are to be ſeized.

The pieces of buckrams, not to exceed 15 yards.
The pieces of bermillions, not to exceed 40 yards.
The half piece of ditto, not to exceed 15 yards.
The piece or knot of bandſtring twiſt, is 32 yards.

The piece	of caddas,	is 36 yards.
	of check,	10 yards.
	of Sileſia lawn,	from 4 to 8 yards.
	of cambrick and other lawns,	13 yards.

Of Flemiſh, or Dutch ticks, about 2 yards wide, 6 yards are a tick. 1 yard wide, 12 are a tick.

No poſt-entry is to paſs for contented linnens, or linnens rated by the piece, without ſpecial order from the board.

When Engliſh and Dutch ells are both inſerted in the merchant's invoice, the Engliſh only are to be regarded.

The duties on ſeveral ſorts of linnens differ according to the breadth; the following limitations of breadth are, therefore, to be particularly noted, both by the officer and merchant.

Germany and eaſt country linnen,	narrow, is not above 7 8ths of a yard.
	broad, above 7 8ths of a yard.
Ruſſia linnen,	narrow, not above half an Engliſh ell.
	broad, above half an Engliſh ell.

The breadths of Flemiſh and Dutch linnens are thus limited for the different duties,	not exceeding 1 and 1 8th. Engliſh ells.
	above 1 and 1 8th, and under 2 Engliſh ells.
	2 ells, and under 3 Engliſh ells.
	3 Engliſh ells, and upwards.

Looking-glaſſes in the book of rates are diſtinguiſhed by certain numbers, which ſignify the number of inches in the breadth of each glaſs.

The following Table may be of ſome uſe to diſtinguiſh linnens.

Contented linnens.			Not contented linnens.	
Names.	Uſual lengths, and in what meaſure contented.		Names of pieces.	Uſual. lengths.
	Engliſh ells.	Dutch ells.		Engliſh ells.
Iſingham - - - whole piece -	38 to 40		Crocus - - - - -	23
Gentiſh - - - Do. - - -	42 to 47		Dutch barras - - -	22
Hollands, Bag - Do. - - -		50 to 53	Heſſens canvas - - -	28
Hollands, Gulix - Do. - - -	28 to 30		Drillings - - - - -	17
Hollands, Alcumore Do. - - -	34 to 38		Dowlaſs, ſingle -	26
Borelaps - - - Do. - - -		40 to 65	Dowlaſs, double -	52
Headen rolls - - - - - - - -		40 to 120	Garlix, 3 qrs. wide -	26
Hinderlinds - - - - - - - -		40	Garlix, 7/8 and upwards	19
Oſnaburgs, diſtinguiſhed by a catherine wheel, and the word Oſnaburg ſtamped round it - - -	30 to 120		Lubeck duck - - -	28
			Blue paper Sileſia's - -	7
Hammels - - - - - - - - -			Holland's duck, a bolt always paſſed at -	28
Hartfords, the word Hartford ſtamped thereon with ink - - -	30 to 100 and upwards.	70	Ruſſia ſailcloth - - -	28
			Bolts uſually computed at	28 1/2

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS proper to this head,—none.

Of GOODS rated by MEASURES of capacity, liquid, or dry.

ART. I. ALLOWANCES upon DELIVERY.

Olives improper in large caſks are to be gauged, and 1 3d of the contents allowed for liquor.

Every Pipe / Hogſhead of wine, which ſhall be run out, and not above 9 inches left therein, ſhall be accounted outs, and no ſubſidy paid for the ſame.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

If a merchant enters his wines filled, he pays duty only for the net wine contained in the caſk, and has no allowance out of the duties for leakage: when wines are entered unfilled, duty is to be paid for the full contents of the caſk, though it may want conſiderably of being full; but then the merchant is allowed 12 per cent. out of the duties for leakage.

Therefore, if caſks of Rheniſh / French / Port, or Madeira, / all other wines, imported into

The out-ports want more than	66	of being full,
	625 / 106	
	1025 / 144	
	1425 / 6	
	59	

The merchant loſes by entering them unfilled. In general, if any caſks of wine, imported into the out-ports, want much more than 1 tenth of being full, 'tis for the merchant's advantage to enter them filled; otherwiſe unfilled.

Five flaſks, or 7 and 1 half betties of Florence wine, are to be eſteemed a gallon. Five bottles of other wines, imported in bottles, to be reckoned to a gallon, unleſs the officers or merchants think proper to meaſure.

Jars of oil, uſually paſſed at 22, 24, or 26 gallons.
A cheſt of oil, uſually paſſed at 8 gallons.
Barrels of mum, paſſed at 48 gallons.
Kegs of ſpruce beer, at 4 gallons.

In

In caſe of leakage, mum barrels and kegs of ſpruce beer may be filled up, before computation is made.

Tar barrels are to contain 31 and 1 half gallons, and are to be filled up before computation is made for the duties.

Awms of Rheniſh wines are generally paſſed at 38 and 1 half gallons.

Note. To meaſure all ſorts of caſks, ſee the article GAUGING.

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS for quantities.

A ton	252 gallons.
A pipe	126 gallons.
An hogſhead	63 gallons.
An awm	42 gallons.
A barrel of ſpruce beer and mum, { for cuſtoms,	42 wine gallons.
{ for exciſe,	32 wine gallons.
Of apples, tarras, onions, &c.	3 buſhels.

Note. There is no contradiction in ſaying here, that an awm is 42 gallons, and obſerving before that awms of Rheniſh are paſſed at 38 and 1 half gallons: for the exact awm is 42 gallons, or 1 ſixth of a ton; but the awms imported generally contain 38 and 1 half gallons, and muſt be reduced to awms of 42 gallons for the duties. Thus, the exact butt or pipe is 126 gallons; but the butts and pipes imported contain ſometimes conſiderably more, and ſometimes a good deal leſs, than that quantity. Obſerve the ſame diſtinction with reſpect to barrels of mum.

Of GOODS rated by ſuperficial and ſolid meaſure.

ART. I. Allowances,—none.

ART. II. PARTICULAR USAGES and REGULATIONS.

If balks are above 8 inches ſquare, they are to be accounted timber, and meaſured.

Five gally-tiles, of 5 inches ſquare, are eſteemed a foot.

Four gally-tiles, of 6 inches ſquare, make a foot.

In computing the contents of round cylindrical timber, one-fourth of the girt is taken for the ſide of a ſquare, and then you proceed as if it was ſquare timber.

Round conical timber, as maſts, &c. is reduced to ſquare timber by adding the girt, at the large end, and the girt at the leſſer end together, and taking one eighth of the ſum for the ſide of a ſquare.

Unequal-ſided timber is reduced to ſquare timber, by taking one-fourth of the girt in the middle for the ſide of a ſquare.

In meaſuring pyramidical timber, where ends are parallelograms, the practice is, to take half the ſum of the breadths of the two ends for the mean breadth, and half the ſum of the thickneſſes, for the mean thickneſs; and then to multiply the product of the mean breadth and mean thickneſs by the length.

Theſe cuſtomary methods of meaſuring timber deviate from the true; but our buſineſs is to give an account of practice. Yet we ſhall not be wanting to give the complete theory of menſuration, under it's proper article.

Baſket rods pay duty by the bundle, which is to be three feet about the band; if the band, or circumference of the bundle, exceeds three feet, duty muſt be paid according to the proportion which the area of a circle, where the circumference is three feet, bears to the area of a circle of any other circumference; and circles are in proportion to one another as the ſquare of their circumferences, or, which is the ſame thing, as the ſquares of their diameters.

The inches of wainſcot boards are computed, in proportion to their lengths and thickneſſes, according to the following table.

Lengths in feet.	1 qr. of an inch.	Half an inch.	3 qrs. of an in.	1 inch.
12	4 boards make an inch.	2 to an inch.	4 to 3 inches.	1 to an inch.
9	16 to 3 inches.	8 to 3 inches.	16 to 9 inches.	4 to 3 inches.
6	8 to an inch.	4 to an inch.	8 to 3 inches.	2 to an inch.

Square feet of PLANK are reduced to ſolid feet, or loads, by the following table.

Thickneſs of plank in inches.	Square feet in a ſolid foot.	Square feet in a load.
4	3	150
3	4	200
2½	4,8	240
2	6	300
1½	8	400
1	12	600
¾	16	800

ART. III. MERCANTILE TERMS for quantities.

A load of timber, or plank, is 50 ſolid or cubic feet.

A ton of ditto is 40 cubic feet.

By an inch of wainſcot-board is meant a wainſcoat-board 12 feet long and one inch thick.

Every thing material being thus collected in a narrow compaſs, with reſpect to the aſcertaining the ſpecies and quantity of foreign goods imported, we ſhall proceed to ot er things, not leſs neceſſary to the merchant.

It ſometimes happens that goods upon delivery are found to have received damage. In this caſe the ſurveyor and land-waiters are to make their report on the back of the warrant, and return it to the collector and principal officers, who are then to chuſe two indifferent and experienced merchants, to view the goods, and upon oath to determine the quantum of the damage. Then the ſurveyor and land-waiters certify that the goods viewed by the merchants are the ſame for which duty was paid: whereupon a certificate of the whole proceeding * is made out, and a proportional abatement of duty is made, and repaid to the merchant, upon his ſigning the receipt.

* The form of a CERTIFICATE of DAMAGE.

Port of } We hereby certify, that, on the day of 1751, A B did enter and pay all his majeſty's ſubſidies, cuſtoms, and duties, inwards, for tons of in the of C D maſter, from and the proper officers, appointed to attend the delivery, having reported the ſame to be much damaged by ſalt water we, thereupon choſe E F and G H, two indifferent merchants, to view the ſaid and aſcertain the damage they have received. And the ſaid E F and G H, having this day made oath before us, that the ſaid by reaſon of the ſaid damage, are diminiſhed in value one third part; which being alſo verified by the certificate of the delivering officers, we have, therefore, this day repaid to the ſaid A B one third part of the duties by him firſt paid. Dated at the Cuſtom-houſe, this

Collector,
Comptroller.

E F, G H, merchants and dealers in jointly make oath, that they have viewed and carefully examined imported by A B, and found them to be ſo much damaged by ſalt water, that, to the beſt of their ſkill and judgment, the value of the ſaid goods appeared to be diminiſhed one third part.

E F.
G H.

Sworn before } Collector, Comptroller.

If, upon delivery of foreign goods, it appears that the merchant, through inadvertency or miſtake, hath entered and paid duty for a greater quantity than is really imported and delivered, the ſurveyor and land-waiters muſt certify the caſe on the warrant, and return it to the collector and principal officers; who thereupon call on the merchant, or his known agent, to make oath to the quantity received, and alſo of the reaſon of the over-entry; the truth whereof being confirmed by the certificate of the delivering officers, the duty for the quantity over-entered is repaid, and the merchant gives a receipt for it †. But, if due proof be made before the entry is poſted into the king's books, the duty may be repaid without all this trouble, as hath been before obſerved.

† The form of a CERTIFICATE of OVER-ENTRY.

Port of } We do hereby certify, that, on the day of 1751, G H did here enter and pay his majeſty's duties, inwards, for in the C D maſter, from and it appearing to us, as well by the certificate of the proper officers who attended the delivery, as by the affidavit of the ſaid G H, that no more than was imported in and delivered out of the ſaid veſſel; and that, conſequently, the ſaid G H hath over entered

We have, therefore, this day repaid the duties for the ſaid quantity over-entered. Dated at the Cuſtom-Houſe.

Collector.
Comptroller.

G H maketh oath, that no more than was imported in the veſſel above-mentioned, and that the reaſon of the over-entry was

G H.

Sworn before us } Collector, Comptroller.

J K. land-ſurveyor, and J H, J W, land-waiters, do hereby certify, that no more than appears to us to have been delivered out of the ſaid veſſel; and that we have no reaſon to ſuſpect any fraud.

J K, Land-ſurveyor.
J H, J W, } Land-waiters.

Cuſtom-Houſe, the day of

Received of the collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms, at this port the ſum of in full of this over-entry.

Branches repaid { }

If the goods imported be entitled to a premium after entry and delivery, the officers will examine them carefully, and ſee that they be cleanſed and garbled from all dirt, droſs, &c. and

are

are in good merchantable condition, and have all the other qualifications required by law. Then the true quantities, qualities circumstances of importation, &c. are certified at large, by the proper officers ‡. This certificate is delivered to the importer; who, upon producing the same to the commissioners, or officers appointed by law to pay the premium, will have it put in due course of payment accordingly.

‡ The FORM.

Custom-House. 1751.

These are to certify whom it may concern, that the goods undermentioned were imported in the ship whereof is master, from consigned to, and entered by the day of viz.

which goods are of the growth and produce of as appears to us by a certificate under the hands and seals of dated and the affidavit of the said master, dated

These are to certify, that, in pursuance of an act of parliament passed in second year of his present majesty, intitled An Act for the better preservation of his majesty's woods in America, and for the encouragement of the importation of naval stores from thence, &c. We have viewed

and we find the said goods duly qualified, and intitled to the reward and premium appointed by the above said act.

Portage is an allowance, or premium, paid to masters of ships, for making a true report of their cargoes. To obtain it, as soon as the cargo is delivered, and the duties all paid, the master must apply to the land-surveyor, who will give him a certificate that he has made a true report, and is duly intitled to portage; wherein will be also expressed the amount of the branches of duty for the whole cargo, out of which portage is payable. This certificate the master carries to the collector and comptroller, who examine it, and compute the amount of the portage: then a portage bill * is made out and signed, and the money is paid, according to the following rates, viz.

* A PORTAGE BILL.

Port of } C D, master of the from Genoa, who reported the day of hath made a true report, as appears upon comparing the accounts of the delivery with his report, and is duly intitled to portage. The total amount of the upon his cargo, being the branches out of which portage is due, is pounds shillings pence

Land-surveyor.

The old subsidy, &c. upon the cargo above-mentioned, amounts to and the portage for the same, after the rate of per cent is

Comptroller.

Custom-House, the day of

Received, of the collector of his majesty's customs at this port, the sum of in full of the above

Portage Bill. C D.

RATES of PORTAGE, allowed to such masters of ships who make a true report of their cargoes, without fraud or reserve.

Wines 6 s. 8 d. per cent. } On the amount of the old subsidy, 1 per cent. additional duty, and imposts on all the wine imported in the vessel.

Currants, 6 s. 8 d. per cent. } On the old subsidy, 1 per cent. and petty custom.

Norway goods, 2 l. per cent. } On the old subsidy and petty custom.

Other goods, 10 s. per cent. } On the old subsidy, 1 per cent. additional duty, and petty custom on the whole cargo.

Note, that no portage bill is to be paid, unless it amounts to ten shillings.

Of RE-EXPORTATION.

If foreign goods and merchandizes be exported within three years from the importation, reckoning from the time of the master's report, the greatest part of the duties first paid are drawnback.

The general rule for the drawback, as has been shewn by the examples of computation, is all but the moiety of the old subsidy; but there are several exceptions to this, which shall be fully explained under the article DRAWBACKS.

The manner of proceeding at the custom-house in this case is, that a certificate must be obtained of the payment of the duties inwards, from the collector and comptroller †, and proof is to be made, that the goods to be exported are the very same goods mentioned in the certificate, by the oaths of the exporter, and the merchants through whose hands they have passed. The exporter then enters the goods outwards, as in the common way of exportation; which see under the article EXPORTATION, where whatever is essential to the practical business of a merchant will be found. The cocket granted upon this occasion is called a certificate cocket *, and differs a little in form from common over-sea cockets. Notice of the time of shipping is to be given to the searcher, who attends the shipping, examines and ascertains the quantity, and returns the cocket endorsed, to the officers who granted it: all other proceedings at clearing the vessel are the same as have been before explained.

† The form of a CERTIFICATE of Payment of DUTY INWARDS.

Custom-House, the day of

In the of master, for

A H, merchant.

Fifteen hundred weight of German steel; the old subsidy, new subsidy, one-third and two-thirds subsidies, and subsidy (1747) and impost 1690, whereof were paid here, inwards, per se, in the master, from on the day of 1751.

Collector.

A H maketh oath, that the contents of the above certificate are true, }

A H.

Note, it sometimes happens, that, before the goods are exported, they pass through two or three hands; for instance, suppose A H the importer, had sold the above goods to C D, who sold them again to W K, who reported them; in this case, the oaths at the foot of the certificate would stand thus:

A H maketh oath, that the 15 C. wt. of German steel, imported by him in the and for which he paid duty on the as is abovementioned, was by him sold and delivered to C D, on the

A H.

C D maketh oath, that he delivered to W K, on the the 15 C. wt. of German steel, which he bought of A H, on the

C D.

W K maketh oath, that the 15 C. wt. of German steel, mentioned in the above certificate, is the very same steel, and no other, which he bought of C D, on the

W K.

* The form of a CERTIFICATE COCKET.

[Three shillings and six-pence.]

Port of Sunderland. } Know ye that Robert Dewick hath regularly entered, in the Falcon of this place, himself master for Amsterdam, 1500 pipe-staves, imported December 1, 1748, and all duties inwards then paid per se, in the same ship from Dantzick, as by certificate appears.

Dated at the Custom-House, March 7, 1749.

Some time after the departure of the vessel, the merchant exporter may apply to the collector and comptroller for the drawback, who will thereupon make out a debenture †, upon an eighteen-penny stamp, containing a clear and distinct narrative of the whole proceeding, with the merchant's oath, that the goods are really and truly exported to parts beyond the seas, and not relanded, nor intended to be relanded, or brought on shore again; and also the searcher's certificate of the quality and quantity of the goods, and the time of shipping, underwrote. The debenture being thus duly made out, and sworn to, the branches of duty to be repaid are endorsed, the merchant's receipt taken below, and the money due paid.

† The form of a DEBENTURE for FOREIGN GOODS.

Port of } These are to certify that A H did enter with us, on the day of 1751, in the master, for fifteen hundred weight of German steel; the old subsidy, new subsidy, one-third subsidy, and two thirds subsidies, subsidy 1747, and impost 1690, were paid here, inwards, per se, in the master, from on the day of 1751, as appears by certificate of the collector inwards: and, for further manifestation of his just dealing herein, the said A H hath this day made oath of the same before us. Dated at the Custom-House.

Collector.
Comptroller.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Of EXPORTATION.

When you intend to export goods to foreign parts, write four bills of entry, in the form below ‡. Go to the cuſtom-houſe, and deliver them to the collector, or his clerk. The duties if any due, will be computed, and demanded; upon payment, a cocket [ſee the form ‖] certifying the payment of duty, or the regular entry of the goods, if not liable to duty, will be delivered to you, which keep till you intend to ſhip the goods. Before ſhipping, deliver the cocket to the ſearcher, and give him notice of the time when you intend to ſhip them; for no goods are to be landed or ſhipped but in the preſence of a proper officer. The ſearcher will attend and examine, and count, weigh, or meaſure the goods; which done, they are put on board, and the ſearcher certifies the quantity ſhipped on the back of the cocket, which is then returned to the principal officers with whom it remains till the maſter comes to clear. When the maſter comes, the cockets for all the goods on board are collected, and entered in what is called a report outwards [ſee the form below *] upon the maſter's declaring the ſaid cockets to contain a true account of his whole cargo. To this report the maſter makes oath before the collector and comptroller, pays his clearing charge, his cockets are delivered, and he is at liberty to proceed on his voyage.

‡ The form of an OUTWARD ENTRY.

[Sometimes 6 d. ſometimes 1 s. is charged for the collector, for writing theſe entries, which the merchant ſaves by writing them himſelf.]

March 10, 1751.

In the Swift B. B. Thomas Hall maſter, for Dort,

I L
No 1, to 3. — John Long.

80 Chalders of coals.
400 Pieces, containing 380 C. wt. of lead.
3 Bales, containing 50 pieces of baiz.

‖ The form of an OVER-SEA COCKET.

[Three ſhillings and ſix-pence]

Port of Sunderland. } Know ye, that John Long, Br. hath here paid his majeſty's over-ſea duty for 80 chalders of coals, and 400 pieces, containing 380 C. wt. of lead; and hath alſo entered free three bales, containing 50 pieces of baiz, in the Swift of Stockton, Thomas Hall, maſter, for Dort.

Dated at the Cuſtom-Houſe, this 10th of March, 1751. — Collector. Comptroller.

* The form of a REPORT OUTWARDS.

[Deputies fees 2 s. 6 d. for a Britiſh man, and 3 s. 4 d. for a foreigner; nothing more due to the collector, or any other officer.]

OUTWARDS.

Port of } In the ſhip of ‖ built, property all about tons with men of which ‖ men and ‖ beſides a man maſter for this preſent voyage to in

I do ſwear, that the entry above-written, now tendered and ſubſcribed by me, is a juſt report of the name of my ſhip, it's burden, built, property, number and country of mariners, the preſent maſter, and voyage: and that it further contains a true account of my lading, with the particular marks, numbers, quantity, quality, and property of all the goods and merchandizes in my ſaid ſhip, to the beſt of my knowledge or belief: and that I will not ſuffer to be relanded, in any part of Great-Britain, any certificate goods which I have on board, nor take in any more goods for this preſent voyage, without duly entering and adding the ſame to this report.

So help me GOD.

Sworn before us the day of } Collector, Comptroller.

The articles of goods exported, which are liable to duty, or intitled to bounty, are but few; and the quantities are determined either by number, weight, or dry meaſure: as, therefore, the manner of aſcertaining the quantities muſt be very plain and evident, it is needleſs to ſay any thing on that ſubject; only let it be noted, that, when merchants make juſt entries of their goods, they are to be at no charge, in the opening, examining, weighing, meaſuring, or repacking the goods; all which are to be done at the officers charge.

What has been ſaid contains the regular method of entering goods outwards, as preſcribed by law; but the practice at Sunderland, with reſpect to coals, is ſomewhat different.

Before any coals are ſhipped, you muſt go to the cuſtom-houſe, and make a depoſit in the collector's hands of the duty of ſo many chalders as you intend to ſhip: whereupon a warrant [ſee the form below †] is made out, and delivered to the ſurveyor, who places a tideſman on board, to take an account of the chalders ſhipped. The intended number of chalders being ſhipped, the tideſman returns the warrant to the ſurveyor, who examines, certifies, and returns it to the officers who grant it, with whom it remains till the maſter comes to clear; and then the entries, cocket, and report are made out, in the ſame form and manner as is before explained.

† The form of a WARRANT of SUFFERANCE for ſhipping COALS intended for EXPORTATION.

[Fee included in the report outwards.]

March 7, 1751.

In the Mermaid, B. B. Robert Say, maſter, for Amſterdam, the maſter 50 chalders of coals, (duties depoſited) to be ſhipped, but not exported till further order.

To the ſurveyor. — Comptroller. Collector.

Maſters who clear over-ſea with coals, ſometimes find themſelves obliged to deliver their cargoes in England; in which caſe they poſt the coal-duty at the port of delivery; the over-ſea duty, therefore, is to be repaid; and, to obtain an order for repayment, they muſt firſt apply to the collector and comptroller of the lading-port for a certificate of the payment of the over-ſea duty. [See the form below ‡.] Then, before the collector, comptroller, or other perſon properly authorized, they muſt make an affidavit according to the form *. This affidavit, together with the return or certificate of delivery upon the coaſt, and alſo the certificate of the payment of the over-ſea duty are to be put into the hands of any perſon who has a correſpondent at London, in order to be laid before the board of cuſtoms; who, if the proof appears to be clear and ſatisfactory, will ſend orders to the collector and comptroller of the port where the over-ſea duty was paid, to permit the like quantity of coals to be exported duty free; upon the receipt of which orders, and the application of the proper perſon, they generally repay the duty.

‡ The form of a CERTIFICATE of payment of the OVER-SEA DUTY, neceſſary to obtain repayment, when coals have been delivered coaſt-wiſe.

[One ſhilling was uſually taken for the collector, who may give the certificate gratis.]

Port of Sunderland. } We hereby certify, that Richard Gray did, on the 8th of March, 1751, pay his majeſty's over-ſea duty at this port, for 60 chalders of coals, Newcaſtle meaſure, in the Sea-Horſe of this place, himſelf maſter, for Schedam.

Dated at the Cuſtom-Houſe, — Collector, Comptroller.

Goods exported, 900 l.
Coals exported, 900 l.

1800 l.

* AFFIDAVIT of the identity of the COALS entered over-ſea, but delivered in England.

[This buſineſs is not reſtrained to officers; maſters may apply to ſuch perſons, properly authorized, as they find to work the cheapeſt.]

Richard Gray maketh oath, That the 60 Chalders of coals, Newcaſtle meaſure, delivered at Lynn, out of the Sea-Horſe of Sunderland, himſelf maſter, and which made out theſe 130 Chalders Wincheſter meaſure, are the very ſame coals for which he paid his majeſty's over-ſea duties at Sunderland, the 8th day of March, 1751, in the ſame ſhip, himſelf maſter, for Schedam, as appears by certificate of the proper officer, annexed; and that no part thereof was, directly or indirectly, landed or diſcharged in foreign parts. And this deponent further maketh oath, that he is a natural-born ſubject of Great-Britain; that he never yet received any allowance for the duties of the above coals; and that he hath no bonds, become forfeited to the crown, ſtanding out undiſcharged.

Sworn before, &c. — R. G.

When goods intitled to bounty are exported, the merchant (after entering them, and taking out a cocket as before directed) is to give bond for the exportation; and the officers ought to be more than ordinarily careful and exact in taking the quantities, and examining whether the goods have all the legal requiſites to intitle them to bounty. When the ſhip is ſailed, and clear of the coaſt, the exporter may apply to the collector and comptroller for the debenture; which being duly ſigned, the bounty will be paid him immediately at the port, if there be money on the proper branches: but if there be not, the debenture will be delivered to him, and he muſt apply for payment at London [ſee forms of debentures both for bounties and

drawbacks *.] The tenour of all debentures is much the ſame; ſo that, though there be ſeveral articles of goods intitled to bounties and drawbacks, the ſpecimens given may ſuffice, both to give merchants a general notion of the manner of proceeding, and to enable officers to make out proper debentures in all other caſes.

* A CORN DEBENTURE.

[No fee.]

Port of } Theſe are to certify, that I
} ſhipped for in the a
Britiſh ſhip, whereof the maſter, and two-thirds of the mariners, are his majeſty's ſubjects,
Wincheſter meaſure, and that the price of of the meaſure aforeſaid, in the port of the laſt market-day, did not exceed

Witneſs my hand the

maketh oath, that the corn herein mentioned is not relanded, or intended to be relanded, in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

maketh oath, the contents of the certificate abovementioned are true.

Bond is taken in penalty of that the corn abovementioned (the danger of the ſeas excepted) ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

The corn abovementioned, viz.
was ſhipped in the ſaid ſhip, the
day of

Landwaiter,
Searcher.

The veſſel abovementioned is
maſter, and two thirds of the mariners his majeſty's ſubjects.

The money to be paid for the corn within mentioned, purſuant to an act of parliament for encouraging the exportation of corn, amounts to - - - - - -

Collector,
Comptroller.

When there is not money at the port, the collector certifies accordingly, and then delivers the debenture to the exporter, who applies to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for payment, and their ſecretary thereupon endorſes an order to the receiver-general to pay it in a limited time.

As the bounties on corn exported are very conſiderable, that article has been thought worthy of ſome particular regulations, with reſpect to the ſhipping it; which it will not be amiſs to note.

When a merchant ſignifies his intention to ſhip corn, intitled to bounty, entries are not poſted immediately, and a cocket granted, as is uſually done for other goods; but the collector and comptroller grant a ſufferance to ſhip the intended quantity, directed to the patent-ſearcher, ſurveyor, and land-waiter, who are to attend the meaſuring and ſhipping thereof. A round ſtrike is to be made uſe of in meaſuring the corn, the middle whereof is to be entered upon the edge of the buſhel or meaſure, and it is to be paſſed over the top of the buſhel with a ſwift circular motion: and, for expedition's ſake, a tub, containing four Wincheſter buſhels, may alſo be uſed in the admeaſurement. When the corn is meaſured and ſhipped, the quantity and quality are to be indorſed on the ſufferance, which is to be returned to the collector. The exporter is then to certify the quantity and quality of the corn ſhipped, in writing, under his hand; which certificate is to be verified by the oath of one or more creditable perſons; whereupon bond is to be given for exporting the corn, and for bringing a certificate of the landing thereof beyond ſeas: then entries are to be paſſed, and a cocket in due form delivered to the merchant, who is to endorſe the quantity of corn ſhipped thereon, before the ſhip is cleared.

The regulations for malt are ſomewhat different. Malt may be entered at once, without a previous ſufferance, and bond may be given at the time of entry. It is then to be meaſured and ſhipped, as it comes to hand. If the quantity to be ſhipped be greater than the quantity entered, the merchant muſt make a freſh entry, and give a freſh bond; if leſs, the quantity ſhort-ſhipped is to be endorſed by the merchant in the bond, a proper exception being made in the condition of ſuch bonds for that purpoſe.

The barley to be made into malt for exportation is entered with the exciſe officers, and their certificates of the quantity are to be annexed to the debenture. The bounty is to be allowed for half as much more barley as was ſteeped; or, which is the ſame thing, the bounty is 3 s. 9 d. per quarter upon the barley ſteeped.

No fees are to be taken for debentures, diſpatches, or any other matters relating to the exportation of corn.

When the price of wheat is from 46 s. to 50 s. a quarter, no bounty is to be allowed.

When wheat and rye mixed are exported, bounty is to be paid as if the whole quantity was rye.

Flour exported is to be weighed, and not meaſured; 448 lb. is to be allowed to a quarter. It may be weighed and ſhipped, as it comes from the mill; or the bran may be ſeparated, and the fine flour only weighed and ſhipped, as the merchant chuſes. Weighing porters are to aſſiſt in ſhipping flour, without charge to the merchants.

No bounty is to be allowed on corn exported for the uſe of his majeſty's garriſons, nor on corn ſhipped on board ſhips for Newfoundland, or any other place, for brewing beer, baking bread, for the voyage.

Ships trading to the Mediterranean muſt be provided with Mediterranean paſſes from the admiralty. The ſteps neceſſary to be taken for obtaining them are theſe: the ſurveyor of the port where the ſhip lies muſt go on board, and examine and ſurvey her, and muſter the ſeamen; then he is obliged to certify, under his hand in writing, to the collector of the port, the burden and built of the veſſel, the number of men, diſtinguiſhing natives and foreigners, the number of guns, what ſort of veſſel ſhe is, &c. The collector, having received this, propoſes an affidavit, to be ſigned and ſworn to by the maſter, which contains all the foregoing particulars, and likewiſe the name of the veſſel, maſter, and port bound to, the time when, and place where, ſhe was built; to which is added, that ſhe is of Britiſh property: that her laſt paſs was delivered up; and that the maſter has delivered up all the paſſes he ever had before. This affidavit is tranſmitted to the ſecretary of the admiralty, who thereupon ſends down a paſs, and a bond for delivering it up, after the voyage is performed. The bond, being duly executed, is returned to the admiralty, and the paſs is delivered to the maſter.

Ships are not permitted to trade to the Britiſh plantations, or colonies, until proof be made upon oath, by one or more of the owners, that the ſhip is Britiſh built, and Britiſh property, and the maſter, and at leaſt three-fourths of the mariners, Britiſh; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any intereſt therein.

After which the ſhip is to be regiſtered, and a certificate thereof delivered to the maſter. Bond is alſo to be given, with one ſufficient ſecurity, in the penalty of 1000 l. if the veſſel be under 100 tons, or in 2000 l. if the veſſel be above that burden; that, if any of the goods of the produce of the ſaid plantations, enumerated in ſeveral acts of parliament, be taken on board, they ſhall be brought by the ſaid ſhip to Great-Britain, and there landed.

This bond may be given either in Great-Britain, or in the plantations, and a certificate of the delivery muſt be produced in 18 months from the date of the bond.

Rice and ſugar may be carried directly from the plantations to any foreign ports ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, upon obtaining proper licences, and under certain regulations: for the knowledge whereof there is no great occaſion in the out-ports: and, therefore, we ſhall refer that matter to the buſineſs of the port of London, which we ſhall treat of under the article CUSTOM-HOUSE.

According to this order of proceeding, we ſhall, in regard to the out-ports, give the forms, precedents, and inſtructions for the execution of every branch of the buſineſs of that revenue; and fully ſhew the method of granting, making out, entering, and executing the proper diſpatches, and other inſtruments; alſo of keeping and making out the ſeveral books of accounts relating to this branch of his majeſty's revenue; and the manner how every other part of each branch is to be performed by the reſpective officers.—In a word, the whole upon this part of our deſign will fully explain and illuſtrate the nature of the office of a collector, cuſtomer, comptroller, ſearcher, ſurveyor, land-waiter, coaſt-waiter, tide-ſurveyor, tide-waiter, &c. directing how each of them are, in their reſpective ſtations, to execute the ſeveral laws of the cuſtoms, and neither to ſuffer the crown to be injured, nor the trading ſubject to be oppreſſed.

Theſe points will appear, at the concluſion of every letter, after the duties; and alſo under the general heads of cuſtoms, importation, exportation, drawbacks, bounties, ſubſidies, and all ſuch articles as are a proper analyſis of this branch of the public revenue; which articles will be duly referred to from time to time.

What we have hitherto ſaid, in regard to the methods of tranſacting buſineſs at the Cuſtom-Houſe, relates, as obſerved, chiefly to the out-ports, though there ought to be no variation from that of London. And, to the end that the whole buſineſs of theſe ports, together with that of the coaſting part, may be thoroughly entered into, we ſhall, at the end of every letter, where we repreſent the duties, continue to give a connected ſyſtem of the practice of the cuſtoms, as well in reſpect to what regards the port of London as the other ports.

Wherefore, at preſent, we ſhall only further obſerve upon this ſubject, that, although the laws direct what duties ſhall be paid, what penalties inflicted, and ſome particular requiſites that muſt be performed; yet they are almoſt entirely ſilent as to the manner and method of levying and accounting for the duties, and of performing and executing of all other requiſites and regulations which are neceſſary to be obſerved, for the greater ſecurity of

of the merchant, and the better to aſcertain and ſecure his majeſty's revenue.

And as form and method are eſſential to the due execution of all buſineſs in general; ſo uniformity is abſolutely neceſſary in that of the cuſtoms, becauſe it is to be performed at different places, and by different perſons; who being only ſo many tranſactors of the ſame kind of buſineſs, ought not only to execute it, but render an account of all their proceedings, in the ſame manner and form; and therefore we ſhall, through the courſe of this deſign, interſperſe ſuch inſtructions and examples, as, it is humbly apprehended, will fully ſhew the method of executing the buſineſs of each reſpective officer with uniformity throughout the whole: which, together with all the other matter we ſhall incorporate, will make a complete ſyſtem of the whole buſineſs of the Britiſh cuſtoms, and that in a method more familiar and intelligible to officers, merchants, and gentlemen, who are deſirous to become maſters of this great branch of the revenue, than was ever done before.

Certain RULES, ORDERS, DIRECTIONS, and ALLOWANCES, for the advancement of trade, and encouragement of the merchant; as alſo for the regulating as well of the merchants in making of due entries and juſt payments of their cuſtoms, as of the officers in all the ports of this kingdom, in the faithful diſcharge of their duty: annexed to the Book of Rates referred to in the act of tonnage and poundage, paſſed anno 12 Car. II. cap. 4.

I.

Every merchant ſhall have free liberty to break bulk in any port allowed by the law, and to pay cuſtom and ſubſidy for no more than he ſhall enter and land; provided that the maſter or purſer of every ſuch ſhip ſhall firſt make declaration upon oath, before any two principal officers of the port, of the true contents of his ſhip's lading; and ſhall likewiſe after declare, upon his oath, before the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, or ſurveyor, or two of them, at the next port of this kingdom, where his ſhip ſhall arrive, the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the other port, where bulk was firſt broken, and to whom they did belong.

II.

All foreign goods and merchandizes (except wines, currants, and wrought ſilks) firſt imported, ſhall be again exported by any merchant, within three years (as by the 7th Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.) and ſuch merchant or merchants as ſhall export any ſuch foreign goods or merchandizes (except as before excepted) ſhall have allowance, and be repaid by the officer which received the ſame, the one moiety of the ſubſidy which was paid at the firſt importation of ſuch foreign goods and merchandizes, or any part thereof, ſo as due proof be firſt made, by certificate from the officers, of the due entry and payment of the cuſtom and ſubſidy of all ſuch foreign goods and merchandizes inwards, together with the oath of the merchant's importing and exporting the ſame, affirming the truth thereof, and the name of his majeſty's ſearcher, or under-ſearcher, in the port of London, and of the ſearcher of any other the out-ports, teſtifying the ſhipping thereof to be exported. After all which duly performed, in manner before expreſſed, the moiety of the ſubſidy, firſt paid inwards, ſhall, without any delay or reward, be repaid unto ſuch merchant or merchants who do export ſuch goods and merchandizes, within one month after demand thereof: as alſo the whole additional duty of ſilks, linnen, and tobacco, in manner as before is directed.

The like regulations for repayment of the new ſubſidy, 9 and 10 Wil. III. cap. 23. §. 13.

III.

And, if there be any agreement now in force, which was formerly made by the late commiſſioners of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies, with the merchant-ſtrangers, or their factors, or ſhall hereafter be made by any commiſſioners or farmers of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies, or any other power (except by conſent of parliament) with any merchant or merchant-ſtrangers, or their factors, for any foreign goods or merchandizes to be brought into the port of London, or any other port or haven of this kingdom of Great-Britain, and to be exported again by way of compoſition; all other merchants, being his majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be admitted into the ſame compoſition, and not to be excluded from any other privilege whatſoever, granted to the ſtranger by any private agreement, or compoſition under the ſame conditions, and with the ſame reſtriction, as ſhall be made with the merchant-ſtranger.

IV.

Every merchant, as well Britiſh as ſtranger, that ſhall ſhip and export any kind of wines, which formerly have paid all the duties of tonnage inwards, ſhall have repaid, or allowed unto them, all the duties of tonnage paid inwards: except to the Britiſh man 20 s. the ton, and except to the ſtranger 25 s. the ton, upon due proof of the due entry and payment of the tonnage inwards, and of the ſhipping thereof to be exported, to be made in manner as in the ſecond article is mentioned and expreſſed.

V.

If any merchant, denizen or ſtranger, ſhall export any Spaniſh or foreign wools, he ſhall have liberty ſo to do, with this further condition, that ſuch Spaniſh, or other foreign wools whatſoever, be not exported in any other ſhip or veſſel whatſoever, with intent to be carried beyond the ſeas, out of the kingdom of Great-Britain, than only in Britiſh ſhipping, upon pain of confiſcation.

VI.

Every merchant, as well Britiſh as ſtranger, which ſhall ſhip or export any currants, which formerly were duly entered, and paid the ſubſidy and cuſtom inwards, ſhall have allowed or repaid unto them, reſpectively, all the cuſtom and ſubſidies paid inwards for the ſame (except eighteen pence for every hundred weight to the ſtranger) upon due proof of the due entry and payment of the cuſtom and ſubſidy thereof inwards, and of the ſhipping thereof to be exported, to be made in manner as in the ſecond article is declared.

VII.

If any merchant, having duly paid all duties inwards for foreign goods, in regard of bad ſales, ſhall be enforced to keep the ſame, or any part thereof, in his hands, after the ſpace of three years (as by 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.) ſhall be elapſed; in this caſe, he, or any other perſon, is to be permitted to ſhip the ſame out for the parts beyond the ſeas (if they think fit), without payment of any ſubſidy for the ſame outwards, upon due proof that the ſame was duly entered, and ſubſidy paid inwards.

VIII.

Every merchant bringing in any ſort of wines into this kingdom, by way of merchandize, who ſhall make due entries of the ſame in the Cuſtom-Houſe, ſhall be allowed 12 per cent. for leakage.

IX.

Every hogſhead of wine which ſhall be run out, and not full ſeven inches, or above, left therein; and every butt, or pipe, not above nine inches; ſhall be accounted for outs, and the merchant to pay no ſubſidy for the ſame.

X.

If any wines ſhould prove corrupt and unmerchantable, and fit for nothing but to diſtil into hot-waters, or to make vinegar, then every owner of ſuch wines ſhall be abated in the ſubſidy, according to ſuch his damage in theſe wines, by the diſcretion of the collectors of the cuſtoms, and one of the principal officers: but, by 6 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. repealed.

XI.

If any tobacco, or other goods or merchandize, brought into this kingdom, ſhall receive any damage by ſalt-water, or otherwiſe, ſo that the owner thereof ſhall be prejudiced in the ſale of ſuch goods, the principal officers of the Cuſtom-Houſe, or any two of them, whereof the collector for the time being to be one, ſhall have power to chuſe two indifferent merchants, experienced in the value of ſuch goods, who, upon viſiting the ſaid goods, ſhall certify and declare, upon their corporal oaths firſt adminiſtred by the ſaid officers, what damage ſuch goods have received, and are leſſened in their true value, and, according to ſuch damage in relation to the rates ſet on them in this book, the ſaid officers are to make a proportionable abatement unto the merchant, or owner, of the ſubſidy due for the ſame. But, by 12 Ann. cap. 8, §. 8, 10. and 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 4, repealed as to tobacco.

XII.

The merchant-ſtrangers, who, according to the rates and values in the Book of Rates contained, do pay double ſubſidy for lead, tin, and woollen cloths, ſhall alſo pay double cuſtom for native manufactures of wool, or part wool; and the ſaid ſtrangers are to pay for all other goods, as well * inwards as outwards, rated to pay the ſubſidy of poundage, three-pence in the pound, or any other duty payable by charta mercatoria, beſides the ſubſidy.

* This is the duty called petty cuſtoms.

But, by 25 Car. II. cap. 6. §. 1, 2, 3. and 9 Ann. cap. 6. §. 3, 5. repealed as to goods imported.

Note, Charta mercatoria, which was firſt granted by 31 Edw. I. was confirmed by 27 Edw. III. cap. 26. and the duty of three-pence per pound thereby granted, directed to be computed by the contents of the goods, according to the oath of the importer, or letters of credence, without unſealing, or opening: upon penalty of impriſonment by the officers, and quadruple damages to the party grieved, and as much to the king.

XIII.

That the merchants trading in the port of London have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any the lawful keys and places of ſhipping and lading of goods, between the Tower of London and London-Bridge, and between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the 10th day of September to the 10th day of March; and between the hours of ſix of the clock in the morning, and ſix of the clock in the evening, from the 10th day of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice thereof to the reſpective officers appointed to attend the lading and unlading goods: and ſuch officer as ſhall refuſe, upon due calling, to be preſent, he ſhall forfeit for every default five pounds, one moiety to the king, and the other moiety to the party grieved, and ſuing for the ſame. For the lawful keys, ſee the article KEYS.

XIV.

The merchants of York, Kingſton upon Hull, Newcaſtle upon Tyne, and the members thereof ſhall be allowed, free of cuſtom and ſubſidy, two of the northern cloths and kerſies in ten, to

be ſhipped in theſe ports in the names of double wrappers, as formerly hath been there allowed them. But, by the 11th and 12th Will. III. cap. 20. all woollen manufactures are free.

XV.

The merchants of Exeter, and other weſtern ports, ſhall be allowed, free of ſubſidy, one perpetuana in ten for a wrapper, and three Devon dozens in twenty for wrappers, the ſame to be ſhipped out of the ports of Exeter, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Barnſtaple, Lyme Regis, or the members thereof. But, by the 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 20. all woollen manufactures are free.

XVI.

All merchants tranſporting any ſorts of woollen, whether new or old drapery, as alſo baiz and cottons, ſhall be allowed one in ten for a wrapper, free of cuſtom and ſubſidy. But, by 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 20. all woollen manufactures are free.

XVII.

Every merchant ſhall be allowed upon all goods and merchandizes appointed to pay to any the ſubſidies of poundage, according to the rule of the Book of Rates, to be imported, five in the hundred of all the ſaid ſubſidies of poundage ſo appointed to be paid.

XVIII.

The officers who ſit above in the Cuſtom-Houſe of the port of London, ſhall attend the ſervice of their ſeveral places from nine to twelve of the clock in the forenoon; and one officer, or one able clerk, ſhall attend with the book in the afternoon, during ſuch time as the officers are appointed to wait at the water-ſide, for the better deciding of all controverſies that may happen concerning merchants warrants: all other the officers of the outports ſhall attend every day in the cuſtom-houſe of every reſpective port, for diſpatch of merchants and ſhippers, between the hours of nine of the clock and twelve in the morning, and two and four of the clock in the afternoon.

XIX.

Every merchant making an entry of goods, either inwards or outwards, ſhall be diſpatched in ſuch order as he cometh; and if any officer, or his clerk, ſhall, either by favour or rewards, put any merchant, or his ſervant duly attending, by his turn, or otherwiſe delay any perſon ſo duly attending, and making his entries aforeſaid, to draw any other rewards or gratuity from him, than is limited in the act of tonnage and poundage [ſee TONNAGE and POUNDAGE] and the Book of Rates, paſſed anno 12 Car. II. cap. 4. if the maſter-officer be found faulty herein, he ſhall, upon complaint to the chief officer of the cuſtom-houſe, be ſtrictly admoniſhed of his duty; but, if the clerk be found faulty therein, he ſhall, upon complaint to the ſaid officers, be preſently diſcharged of his ſervice, and not be permitted to ſit any more in the Cuſtom-Houſe.

XX.

The lord mayor, commonalty, and citizens of the city of London, their officers, or deputies for, and touching the offices of package, ſcavage, baleage, or portage of any goods or merchandize of aliens, or their ſons born within this kingdom, or unfreemen, imported or exported into or out of the city of London, or the liberties or ports thereof, unto or from the parts beyond the ſeas, for, or concerning, the receiving or taking of any fees or rates heretofore uſually taken for, or in reſpect of the ſaid offices, or any of them, might and may receive and take the ſame, any thing in the act of tonnage and poundage, or the aforeſaid Book of rates, or any former act, to the contrary, notwithſtanding.

XXI.

All antient duties heretofore lawfully taken by any city, or town corporate, their farmers, deputies, or officers, under the name of town-cuſtom, or the like, for the maintenance of bridges, keys, harbours, wharfs, or the like, ſhall and may be received and enjoyed as formerly, any thing in the ſaid act, or any other act or book, to the contrary, notwithſtanding.

XXII.

The under-ſearcher, or other officers of Graveſend, having power to viſit and ſearch any ſhip outward-bound, ſhall not, without juſt and reaſonable cauſe, detain any ſuch ſhip, under colour of ſearching the goods therein laden, above three tides after her arrival at Graveſend, under pain of loſs of their office, and rendering damage to the merchant or owner of the ſhip. And the ſearcher, or other officer of the cuſtom-houſe in any of the outports, having power to ſearch and viſit any ſhip outward-bound, ſhall not, without juſt and reaſonable cauſe, detain any ſuch ſhip under colour of ſearching the goods therein laden, above one tide after the ſaid ſhip is fully laden and ready to ſet ſail, under pain of loſs of the office of ſuch offender, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner of the ſhip.

XXIII.

Note, The tall timber in balks, which ſhall be of eight inches ſquare, or upwards, that ſhall be imported, or brought from any part beyond the ſeas into the realm of Great-Britain, ſhall be rated according to the meaſure of timber, the foot ſquare three-pence for the value thereof, and according to that rule ſhall pay for ſubſidy twelve-pence in the pound according to all poundage; and all under eight inches ſquare, and above five inches ſquare, ſhall pay for ſubſidy according to the rates mentioned in the Book of Rates aforeſaid for middle balks, and all of five inches ſquare, or under, ſhall pay according to the rate of ſmall balks.

XXIV.

For avoiding of all oppreſſion by any of the officers of the cuſtoms, in any port of this kingdom, in exacting unreaſonable fees from the merchant, by reaſon of any entries, or otherwiſe touching the ſhipping and unſhipping of any goods, wares, and merchandize: it is ordered, that no officer, clerk, or other belonging to any cuſtom-houſe whatſoever, ſhall exact, require, or receive any other, or a greater fee, of any merchant, or other whatſoever, than ſuch as are, or ſhall be, eſtabliſhed by the commons in parliament aſſembled: if any officer, or other, ſhall offend contrary to this order, he ſhall forfeit his office and place, and be for ever after uncapable of any office in the cuſtom-houſe.

XXV.

All fees appointed to be paid unto the cuſtomer, comptroller, ſurveyor, or ſurveyor general in the port of London, for any cocket or certificate outwards, ſhall be paid all together in one ſum to that officer from whom the merchant is to have the cocket or certificate above, in the cuſtom-houſe; and after the merchant hath duly paid his cuſtom and ſubſidy, and other duties above, in the cuſtom-houſe, as is appointed by the ſaid Book of Rates, he is to be maſter of, and keep his own cocket or certificate, until he ſhall ſhip out his goods ſo entered; when he is to deliver the ſame to the head-ſearcher, or his majeſty's under-ſearcher in the port of London, or other ports, together with the mark and number of his goods.

XXVI.

The officers of the cuſtom-houſe for the time being ſhall allow and make good unto all perſons all ſuch monies as are, or ſhall be, due unto them for the half ſubſidy; and alſo the Algier duty of foreign goods formerly exported, now due and unpaid.

XXVII.

The duties and ſums of money appointed to be paid by the act of ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage paſſed this parliament, and by the Book of Rates therein mentioned, and no other, ſhall be paid to his majeſty's officers, during the continuance of the ſaid act upon goods imported or exported, any law, ſtatute, or uſage to the contrary notwithſtanding. Nevertheleſs it is declared, that prizage of wines, the duty called butlerage, and the duty of twelve-pence upon every chalder of ſea-coal exported from Newcaſtle upon Tyne to any other port or ports of this realm, ſhall be continued.

HARBOTTLE GRIMSTONE, Baronet,
Speaker of the Houſe of Commons.

RULES, ORDERS, and REGULATIONS, annexed to the additional Book of Rates, referred to in an act paſſed anno 11 Georgii primi, cap. 7.

I.

Any of the rates aforeſaid, or any thing contained in this additional Book of Rates, is not to extend to alter the methods preſcribed by law for aſcertaining the values upon ſuch unrated goods, wares, and merchandizes imported, as are of the growth, product, or manufacture of the Eaſt-Indies, China, or others the parts within the limits of the charters granted to the united company of merchants of England trading to the Eaſt-Indies.

II.

To the charging any duty upon ſuch ſorts of wood, plank, or timber, wrought, or unwrought, or any of the goods called lumber, which are to be imported duty free, by virtue of the act made in the eighth year of his preſent majeſty's reign, on the conditions therein mentioned, during the continuance of the ſaid act.

III.

To charge any duty upon ſuch drugs or other goods uſed in dyeing, which are to be imported duty free, by virtue of another made in the eighth year of his preſent majeſty's reign, on the conditions therein mentioned.

IV.

And whereas it may happen that ſeveral goods and merchandizes may be imported which are omitted to be rated in the Book of Rates, made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles II. or in the additional Book of Rates, or in ſome particular acts of parliament, in ſuch caſe, the value and price of ſuch goods and merchandizes for the old ſubſidy (other than of thoſe of India, Perſia, or China) ſhall be aſcertained by the oath or affirmation of merchants, in the preſence of the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, or any two of them; and the better to prevent frauds, and that all merchants may be upon an equal foot in trade, the collector and comptroller, or other proper officers of the cuſtoms, may open, view, and examine ſuch goods and merchandizes, paying duty ad valorem, and compare the ſame with the value and price thereof ſo ſworn to or affirmed; and if, upon ſuch view and examination, it ſhall appear that ſuch goods or merchandizes are not valued by ſuch oath or affirmation according to the true value and price thereof, according to the true intent and meaning thereof; that then, and in ſuch caſe, the importer and proprietor ſhall, on demand made in writing by the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller of the port where ſuch goods or merchandizes are entered, deliver, or cauſe to

be delivered, all ſuch goods and merchandizes into his majeſty's warehouſe at the port of importation, for the uſe and benefit of the crown; and, upon ſuch delivery, the cuſtomer and collector of ſuch ports, with the privity of the comptroller, ſhall, out of any money in the hands of ſuch cuſtomer or collector, ariſing by cuſtoms, or other duties belonging to the crown, pay to ſuch importer or proprietor the value of ſuch goods and merchandizes ſo ſworn to, or affirmed, for the ſaid old ſubſidy, as aforeſaid, together with an addition of the cuſtom and other duties, paid for ſuch goods, and of ten pounds per centum to ſuch value, taking a receipt for the ſame from ſuch importer or proprietor, in full ſatisfaction for the ſaid goods, as if they had been regularly ſold; and the reſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall cauſe the ſaid goods to be fairly and publickly ſold for the beſt advantage, and, out of the produce thereof, the money ſo paid, or advanced as aforeſaid, ſhall be repaid to ſuch cuſtomer or collector, with the privity of the comptroller, to be replaced to ſuch funds from whence the ſame was borrowed, and the overplus (if any) ſhall be paid into his majeſty's Exchequer, towards the ſinking fund, by the title of unrated goods, imported, and undervalued.

SPENCER COMPTON,
Speaker of the Houſe of Commons.

REMARKS.

A ſhort ENQUIRY, whether the MERCHANTS of Great-Britain are not intitled to a DISCOUNT of 5 per cent. upon the payment of the ſubſidy of 5 per cent. at the Cuſtom-houſe, given to the king, by act of parliament made in the year 1747: which DISCOUNT the merchants have never received from the year 1747 to the preſent time? and whether alſo the merchants are not intitled to diſcount in conſequence of the laſt Subſidy in 1759.——Likewiſe, ſome obſervations on other intereſting matters relative to the duties of cuſtoms.

The Subſidy act of 1747 is intitled,

" AN act for granting to his majeſty a ſubſidy of poundage " upon all goods and merchandizes to be imported into " this kingdom; and for raiſing a certain ſum of money by an- " nuities and a lottery, to be charged on the ſaid ſubſidy, &c."

The clauſe in the ſaid act that grants this additional ſubſidy of twelve-pence in the pound, or 5 per cent. runs as follows, viz. ' And be it enacted, &c. That, over and above all ſubſidies of ' tonnage and poundage, and over and above all additional du- ' ties, impoſitions, and other duties whatſoever, by any other ' act or acts of parliament, or otherwiſe howſoever already due ' and payable, or which ought to be paid to his majeſty, his heirs ' or ſucceſſors, for or upon any goods or merchandizes, which ' from and after the firſt day of March, which ſhall be in the ' year of our Lord 1747, ſhall be imported or brought into the ' kingdom of Great Britain, one further ſubſidy of poundage, of ' twelve-pence in the pound, ſhall be paid to his majeſty, his ' heirs, or ſucceſſors, upon all manner of goods or merchandizes ' to be imported, or brought into this realm, or any of his ma- ' jeſty's dominions to the ſame belonging, at any time or times ' after the ſaid firſt day of March 1747, by the importer of ſuch ' goods or merchandize as the ſame are now particularly and re- ' ſpectively rated and valued, in the reſpective Books of Rates ' referred to by the acts of the 12th year of the reign of king ' Charles II. and the 11th year of his late majeſty, or by any ' other act or acts of parliament, and ſo after that rate or value, ' or which do now pay any duty ad valorem.'

Then follows the clauſe in the ſaid act, ſignifying how, and in what manner, the aforeſaid duty of 5 per cent. is to be levied.

' And be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That the ſub- ' ſidy of poundage hereby granted, ſhall be raiſed, levied, and ' collected by the reſpective officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms in ' this kingdom, under the management and direction of the re- ' ſpective commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for the time being; and ' ſhall be brought and paid, or anſwered into the receipt of his ' majeſty's exchequer, for the purpoſes in this act mentioned ' (ſuch additional charge as ſhall be neceſſary for the management ' of this revenue only excepted) and that all and every the " clauſes, powers, DIRECTIONS, penalties, forfeitures, mat- " ters and things whatſoever, contained in the ſaid act of the " 12th year of the reign of king Charles II. or any other laws " or ſtatutes whatſoever now in force for raiſing, levying, col- " lecting, anſwering and paying, the ſubſidy of tonnage and " poundage thereby granted, ſhall be PRACTISED, and put in " execution, for the raiſing, levying, ſecuring, collecting an- " ſwering and paying the ſubſidy of poundage by this act grant- " ed, as FULLY AND EFFECTUALLY, to all intents and pur- " poſes, as if all and every the ſaid clauſes, powers, DIREC- " TIONS, penalties and forfeitures were particularly repeated, " and again enacted in the body of this preſent act."

The obſervations that I would crave leave to make upon this levying clauſe, as well as that preceding the ſame, are as follow, viz.

I. That the act of parliament made in the 12th year of king Charles II. and alſo in the 11th year of king George I. are made the clear and expreſs baſis and foundation of this latter ſubſidy-act of the year 1747: and that as the merchant importers are liable to all the penalties and forfeitures therein contained, for " the raiſing, levying, ſecuring, collecting and anſwering and " paying the ſaid ſubſidy of 1747:" ſo likewiſe are they entitled to every advantage, privilege, and allowance granted by the prior acts, " as fully, and effectually (according to the words of " the act of 1747), to all intents and purpoſes, as if all and " every the ſaid clauſes, powers, and DIRECTIONS were parti- " cularly repeated, and again enacted in the body of this preſent " act granting the ſubſidy of 1747." In a word; there being no exception in this latter act to any of the rights and privileges granted for the benefit of trade, and the advantage of our merchants, in the two former acts; the mercantile intereſt ſhould ſeem to be entitled to the very ſame under the latter, as under the two former acts.

II. The next point of enquiry is into thoſe clauſes, powers, and directions, which relate to the carrying the ſaid act of 1747 into execution, as well in regard to the rights and privileges of our merchants, as to the penalties and forfeitures to which they are liable, with reſpect to the ſaid acts of Charles II. and George I. as before obſerved.

III. Now, according to the act of Charles II. aforeſaid, the ſixth ſection of chapter the 4th of the ſaid act, according to the Statutes at large, explains what are thoſe expreſs and particular clauſes, powers, and directions, which relate to the carrying the ſaid act into execution, as well for the government of merchants therein, as of the officers of the cuſtoms.

The ſixth ſection of the aforeſaid act, which explains this matter, runs in the following words: ' And becauſe no rates can ' be impoſed upon merchandize, imported or exported by ſub- ' jects or aliens, but by common conſent in parliament, Be it ' further enacted and declared by the authority aforeſaid, That ' the rates intended by this preſent act, ſhall be the rates men- ' tioned and expreſſed in one Book of Rates, intituled, " The " rates of merchandize:" That is to ſay, The ſubſidy of ton- ' nage, the ſubſidy of poundage, and the ſubſidy of woollen ' cloths, or old draperies, as they are rated and agreed on by the ' commons houſe of parliament, ſet down and expreſſed in this ' book, to be paid according to the tenor of the act of tonnage ' and poundage, from the 24th day of June incluſively, in the ' 12th year of his majeſty's reign, during his majeſty's life, and ' ſubſcribed with the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, baronet, ' ſpeaker of the houſe of commons: which ſaid Book of Rates, ' compoſed and agreed on by your majeſty's ſaid commons, and ' alſo every article, rule, and clauſe therein contained, ſhall be ' and remain, during your majeſty's life, as effectual to all in- ' tents and purpoſes, as if the ſame were included particularly in ' the body of this preſent act.'———This act was continued afterwards from time to time, until the 6th of queen Anne, and by that act, cap. 2. ſect. 2. continued for ninety-ſix years, and afterwards is continued for ever by 1 George I. cap. 12.

The rules to direct the merchants and the officers of the cuſtoms, in relation to the ſaid act of Charles II. cap. 4. ſect. 6. and which rules are ſigned by the ſaid Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, Bart. ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, are entitled in the ſaid Book of Rates, as follow, viz. " Certain rules, orders, directions, and " ALLOWANCES, for the advancement of trade and encourage- " ment of the merchant, as alſo for the regulating as well of the " merchants in making of due entries and juſt payments of their " cuſtoms, as of the officers in all the ports of this kingdom, in " the faithful diſcharge of their duty."——And as the act of Charles II. has continued in force, and is made to do ſo for ever, as before obſerved, the aforeſaid certain rules, &c. ſigned by Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, baronet, and before given at large, continue in full force alſo.

But theſe certain rules are well known to every merchant as being contained, or ought to be contained in every Book of Rates that has been ever ſince printed by his majeſty's printer, or by others, as was the caſe, 1. of the Old Book of Rates, and of every book of reputation printed ſince: as, 2. that printed in 1702, Mr Carcaſe in 1725. and Crouch's ſeveral editions ever ſince, and Mr Saxby's Book of Rates.

By the ſeventeenth article of the rules aforeſaid, ſigned by Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, it is declared, ' That every merchant ' ſhall be allowed upon all other goods and merchandizes ap- ' pointed to pay to any the ſubſidy of poundage, according to the ' rule of this book, to be imported, five in the hundred of all the ' ſaid ſubſidies of poundage ſo appointed to be paid.

And as the ſaid act of 1747 hath made no exception whatever to the ſeventeenth article of the ſaid rules of the Book of Rates; but that act is grounded abſolutely upon the ſame rules, orders, directions, and allowances in this reſpect as that of Charles II. aforeſaid is, it ſeems to be plain, that the merchant-importers are no leſs intitled to 5 per cent. diſcount upon the ſubſidy of 1747, than upon the old ſubſidy of Charles II. and the other ſubſequent ſubſidy acts.

But the ſaid ſubſidy act of the year 1747, is grounded alſo upon that of the 11th of George I. And that act of the 11th of George I. being grounded upon that of Charles II. with reſpect to the ſeventeenth article of the rules aforeſaid (there being no exception thereto, in the words of the act;) this is a further confirmation, that the laſt ſubſidy-act intitles the merchant-importer to the ſaid diſcount of 5 per cent. as well as that act of the 11th of George I. does.

The clauſe in the act of the 11th of George I. that grounds the ſame upon the ſaid act of Charles II. is as follows, viz.

'And be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that in lieu 'of the ſaid former rates and duties ad valorem, repeated by this 'act; there ſhall from and after the ſaid 25th day March, 1725, 'be payable, and paid for the ſaid old ſubſidy, the ſeveral rates 'and duties mentioned and expreſſed in one Book of Rates, in-'titled, an Additional Book of Rates of goods and merchan-'dizes uſually imported, and not particularly rated in the 'Book of Rates referred to in the act of tonnage and poun-'dage, made in the 12th year of the reign of king Charles II. 'with rules, orders, and regulations, ſigned by the right ho-'nourable Spencer Compton, eſq; ſpeaker of the honourable 'Houſe of Commons. The ſaid rates and duties to be paid 'upon importation of the ſaid goods and merchandizes reſpec-'tively, into any port or place within this kingdom, and ſo in 'proportion for any greater or leſſer quantity; which ſaid laſt 'mentioned Book of rates, compoſed and agreed on by your 'Majeſty's ſaid Commons, and every "article, rule and clauſe "therein contained, ſhall be and remain, during the continu-"ance of the ſaid firſt recited act of tonnage and poundage, of "full force, and ſhall be put in execution, as fully and ef-"fectually, to all intents and purpoſes, as if the ſame was par-"ticularly inſerted in the body of this preſent act."

Theſe laſt words of the act of the 11th of George I. ſhow, That the act of Charles was the foundation thereof, as well with reſpect to all the privileges, and advantages made to the merchant-importers, as every thing elſe therein contained that is not expreſsly excepted: and that particular advantage of the 5 per cent. diſcount not being excepted in the ſaid act of George I. the merchants have enjoyed the ſame ever ſince with regard to the Additional Book of Rates.———And conſequently, as the ſubſidy-act of 1747 declares, that the ſaid two acts of Charles II. and George I. are the foundation of that laſt act; and there is no exception whatever made to the diſcount of 5 per cent. allowed; the merchants ſhould ſeem to be as legally entitled to the ſame under the one as under the other.

And what appears further to confirm the ſame is, that the ſubſidy, commonly called the New Subſidy, granted the 9th and 10th of William and Mary; and alſo the one-third ſubſidy-act, granted the 2d and 3d of queen Anne; and the two-thirds ſubſidy-act, granted the 3d and 4th of queen Anne, being all of them grounded on the act of the 12th of king Charles II. and no exception therein made, to the ſeventeenth article of the GENERAL RULE aforeſaid, that grants the merchant-importer the diſcount of 5 per cent. they have according, uninterruptedly enjoyed the ſame, under all theſe SUBSIDY-ACTS from Charles IId's time, to the year 1747: and why they are not intitled to the ſame legal allowance, does not appear from this ſubſidy act of 1747.

With reſpect to unrated Eaſt-India goods, there is a clauſe in the act of 1747, which declares, "That the 5 per cent. paid "on the groſs price, as ſold at the candle, ſhall be without "any allowance or deduction whatſoever."———But with reſpect to the general payment of the 5 per cent. upon all other goods, there is no exception in the act, that the ſame ſhall be paid without any allowance or deduction; but the act expreſsly declares, "That all and every the clauſes, powers, directions, 'penalties, forfeitures, matters, and things whatſoever con-'tained in the ſaid act of the 12th of Charles II. ſhall be ap-'plied, practiſed, and put in execution for the collecting the 'ſaid duty, as if all and every the ſaid clauſes, powers, direc-'tions, &c. were particularly repeated, and again enacted in the 'body of this preſent act."—And if a point ſo materially intereſting to the merchant-importers as the allowance of 5 per cent. diſcount upon payment of this ſubſidy of 1747, before the landing of the goods, was to have been excepted; it certainly would have been expreſsly ſo.

What ſtill further corroborates this is, that, in the allowance of the drawback, upon goods exported by certificate, the officers of the cuſtoms have allowed the merchants no more than one-half-part of that net ſubſidy, as if they had been actually allowed the diſcount of 5 per cent. upon the ſubſidy of 1747: whereas the ſecond article in the rules, orders, and directions, and allowances made to the merchants in the Book of Rates, declares, 'That all foreign goods and merchandizes (except 'wines, currants and wrought ſilks) firſt imported, ſhall be 'again exported by any merchant within three years (as by the '7th of George I. cap. 21. § 10.) and ſuch merchant or mer-'chants as ſhall export any ſuch foreign goods or merchandizes '(except as before excepted) "ſhall have allowance and be re-"paid by the officer that received the ſame, the one moiety of "the ſubſidy which was paid at the firſt importation of ſuch fo-"reign goods and merchandizes, or any part thereof, ſo as "due proof be firſt made by certificate from the officers of the 'due entry and payment of the cuſtom and ſubſidy of all ſuch 'foreign goods and merchandizes inwards, &c.———After all 'which duly performed, "the moiety of the ſubſidy firſt paid "inwards, ſhall, without any delay or reward, be repaid unto "ſuch merchant or merchants, who do export ſuch goods and "merchandizes within one month, after demand thereof:" 'as alſo the whole additional duty of ſilks, linnens, and to-'bacco, in manner as before is directed.'

Now, ſuch having been the practice of the Cuſtom-houſe ever ſince the ſubſidy of 1747 was granted, as to allow the drawback of no more than one moiety of the net duty, after deducting the diſcount of 5 per cent. on the ſaid ſubſidy of 5 per cent. and not one moiety of the groſs ſubſidy, which the merchant actually paid; this confirms, that it is a miſtake at the Cuſtom-houſe, not to allow the diſcount, ſince they deduct it by the drawback, as if it had been allowed.

There ſeems likewiſe to be another great miſtake made in the execution of this act to the diſadvantage of the merchant; which is, that the act expreſsly declares, That the whole duty of 5 per cent. ſhall be drawn back upon exportation of the goods within three years; which is an exception to the ſecond article of the rules before quoted.

On this point the words of the act run as follow, viz.

'Provided always, and it is hereby enacted and declared by 'the authority aforeſaid, That in all caſes where any goods or 'merchandizes, that have paid the ſubſidy hereby granted, ſhall 'at any time or times be again exported, by any merchant or 'merchants, within three years from the importation thereof, 'the ſubſidy by this act granted, and which ſhall have been ac-'tually paid for ſuch goods, wares, or merchandizes, ſhall, 'without any delay or reward, be repaid unto ſuch merchant 'or merchants, who ſhall export the ſame, or the ſecurity va-'cated; except for ſuch goods or merchandizes, as by any for-'mer act or acts of parliament it is declared no drawback ſhall 'be paid or allowed upon exportation, and except, as is herein 'after excepted, in relation to prize goods.'

Hence it appears obvious, it is apprehended, that the whole, and not a moiety only of the ſubſidy paid, is to be drawn back; and this being an exception from the ſecond article of the general rules for the government of merchants and the officers of the cuſtoms; we find it is expreſsly mentioned: and if the merchants had not been intitled to the drawback of the whole ſubſidy paid, that matter would have been left to the direction of the ſecond general rule aforeſaid: and if likewiſe the merchants had not been intitled to the diſcount of 5 per cent. this would certainly have been alſo mentioned expreſsly in the act, that the ſeventeenth article of the general rules, which allows the diſcount, might not have remained in full force.

If theſe ſuggeſtions are right, the merchants will take the proper meaſures to right themſelves; if not, the Writer will be obliged to thoſe, who will explain the matter, becauſe it not only nearly concerns the intereſt of the merchants of the kingdom in general, in theſe particular caſes, but in many others, that more conſiderably affect the intereſt of this reſpectable body of the community: and therefore, if it is an overſight, it ought at leaſt to be rectified as ſoon as may be, for reaſons that ſhall be communicated, when it appears to be ſo: And if it is not, the miſtake of the obſerver hereof will be excuſed, ſince it proceeds from a regard to juſtice, that the merchants may have their legal due, according to act of parliament, as they are ſubject to it's penalties, whenever they violate the ſame.

If what has been repreſented ſhould prove true, the evil to the mercantile intereſt will not terminate in the ſubſidy of 1747 only; but like a fault in the firſt concoction, will run thro' every ſubſequent ſubſidy act; for it affects every future ſubſidy that ſhall be enacted upon the foundation of that of 1747. As the ſubſidy act of 1747 is grounded upon that of the 12th of Charles II. and that of the 11th of George I. ſo likewiſe is the later ſubſidy act of 1759, grounded upon that of 1747: and therefore as the miſtakes committed at the Cuſtom-houſe, in carrying the ſaid act of 1747 into execution, have not been rectified, the ſame is continued in the act of 1759. This being the caſe, the like miſtakes will probably be perpetuated in all future ſubſidy acts that ſhall be grounded upon that of 1759, unleſs the merchants ſhould take the proper meaſures to conteſt the point before the barons of the Exchequer. For the laſt additional ſubſidy of 5 per cent. for the year 1759, granted upon certain goods and merchandize imported, ſpecified in the act, is to be levied and paid into the Exchequer, in the ſame manner as the ſubſidy of 5 per cent. granted by the 21ſt of George II. in the year 1747.

The words of the ſubſidy act of 1759 are, 'That the ſaid 'ſubſidy of poundage, by this act impoſed, ſhall be raiſed, le-'vied, collected, and paid into his majeſty's exchequer, for the 'purpoſes in this act expreſſed, IN SUCH LIKE FORM AND 'MANNER, AND WITH SUCH ALLOWANCES, DISCOUNTS, 'DRAWBACKS, AND EXEMPTIONS, AND UNDER SUCH 'PENALTIES AND FORFEITURES, AND ACCORDING TO 'SUCH RULES, METHODS AND DIRECTIONS as are pre-'ſcribed or appointed for raiſing, levying, collecting, and pay-'ing the ſubſidy of 5 pounds per centum, granted by an act 'made in the 21ſt year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, or 'the ſubſidy act of 1747, &c. And all and every the POWERS, 'AUTHORITIES, RULES, DIRECTIONS, PENALTIES, FOR-

'FEITURES,

'FEITURES, CLAUSES, MATTERS AND THINGS NOW IN 'FORCE, contained in the ſaid act, made in the year 1747, or 'any other act or acts of parliament, in the ſaid act REFER-'RED UNTO, OR ANY OF THEM, for the raiſing, levying, 'collecting, and paying the SUBSIDIES thereby granted, ſhall 'be in FULL FORCE, and be duly obſerved and practiſed, 'and put in execution, throughout this kingdom, for raiſing, 'levying, collecting, and paying the SUBSIDY of 5 per cent. 'by this act granted, as fully and effectually to all intents and 'purpoſes, as if the ſame or the like powers and authorities, 'RULES, DIRECTIONS, PENALTIES, AND FORFEITURES, 'CLAUSES, MATTERS, AND THINGS, were particularly re-'peated, and re-enacted in the body of this preſent act.'—— Then the exceptions that are made in this act of 1759 expreſsly follow.

As ſuch is the nature of thoſe ſubſidy acts for the payment of duties upon foreign goods and merchandizes imported into this kingdom, that the one act depends on the other, with regard to the GENERAL RULES AND DIRECTIONS, or the payment thereof, at the CUSTOM-HOUSE, and referred to in the former parts of this enquiry; and when exceptions are made to thoſe GENERAL CUSTOM-HOUSE RULES AND DIRECTIONS, they are, or ought to be always expreſsly mentioned in diſtinct CLAUSES of the Act; it became requiſite to quote the ORIGINAL SUBSIDY ACT of the 12th of Charles II. and that of George I. whereon all SUBSEQUENT SUBSIDY ACTS have been founded, to the end that they may be borne in mind, on this occaſion. For otherwiſe the ſubject can never know the RIGHTS AND PRIVILEGES to which he is legally intitled, or guard againſt thoſe penalties to which he is liable.

Let it be ſuppoſed, that in carrying the ſubſidy act of 1759 into execution, the officers of the cuſtoms ſhould exact the SAME DUTIES upon all goods imported, as was done by the act of 1747, this would certainly prove an egregious impoſition upon all the MERCHANT-IMPORTERS OF GREAT-BRITAIN, becauſe the act reſtrains the ADDITIONAL ſubſidy of 1759 to TOBACCO, FOREIGN LINNEN, SUGAR, AND OTHER GROCERY, as the ſame is UNDERSTOOD IN THE BOOK OF RATES, except CURRANTS; EAST-INDIA GOODS, except COFFEE and RAW SILKS; FOREIGN BRANDIES and SPIRITS, except RUM of the produce of the BRITISH SUGAR PLANTATIONS; and PAPER, which ſhall be imported, and brought into the kingdom of GREAT-BRITAIN, &c.——If, I ſay, the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms ſhould exact DUTIES upon all other goods that are plainly underſtood to be excepted, and not liable to the ſaid ſubſidy of 1759, it would certainly be a violation of the act, and an impoſition upon the ſubject: and moſt certainly it is a violation of the SUBSIDY ACTS OF PARLIAMENT of 1747, and of that 1759, to deprive the merchant-importers of any of their PRIVILEGES and ALLOWANCES upon importation of merchandize, to which the GENERAL RULES of the BOOK of RATES legally entitle them. For if the merchants of Great-Britain are thus deprived of ſo material an ALLOWANCE upon all DRY GOODS as 5 per CENT. DISCOUNT on the RATES, by the act of 1747, may they not, by the ſame CUSTOM-HOUSE AUTHORITY, be alſo deprived of every other DISCOUNT and PRIVILEGE to which they have a legal right, and which is granted them by virtue of the GENERAL RULES and ALLOWANCES, contained in the Book of RATES, and authorized by parliament, as well as any thing elſe therein expreſſed? May not merchant-importers be deprived, (1.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the OLD SUBSIDY RATES? (2.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the NEW SUBSIDY: (3.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the ONE-THIRD SUBSIDY: and (4.) Of their 5 PER CENT. DISCOUNT allowed them upon the TWO-THIRDS SUBSIDY: may not the merchant-importers, I ſay, with as much reaſon, be deprived of the FOUR PRECEDING DISCOUNT ALLOWANCES on the rates, made to them by parliamentary authority, as be deprived of their RIGHTS and DISCOUNTS on the SUBSIDY of 1747, and that alſo on the SUBSIDY of 1759? Nay, may not our merchant-importers alſo be deprived of their DISCOUNTS allowed them by parliamentary authority upon the ſeveral Impoſts of 1690, and 1692? And would not this, in effect, be abrogating all thoſe clauſes given in favour of our merchants by PARLIAMENTARY AUTHORITY, by that of the Cuſtom-houſe, in direct oppoſition thereto? And if what has been repreſented, with reſpect to the DRAWBACKS allowed to our merchants on the re-exportation of certificate goods, ſhall appear to be true likewiſe; the loſſes our merchants have already ſuſtained, will amount to a very conſiderable ſum; and if theſe practices are perpetuated, the evil will daily increaſe.

'Till theſe matters are rectified, all BOOKS OF RATES uſed at the Cuſtom-houſe, and calculated without due regard had to acts of parliament, are wrong, and are a great injury to our merchants in general; and therefore, I have judged it more equitable to deſiſt from giving any computed TABLES of DUTIES, according to the practice of the Cuſtom-houſe, leſt the ſame ſhould be a ſanction to what the Author, for the reaſons before given, thinks is not right.—Of this, the Author declared his opinion ſome years ago, when this matter ought to have been duly enquired into, and he publickly ſuggeſted his doubts upon this point ſoon after the year 1747; and repeated them again after the year 1759. And if proper notice has not been taken of what has been urged by thoſe whoſe immediate intereſt it is ſo to do, he has the ſatisfaction to have done right in his own eyes, and is very indifferent about what others may think of it; unleſs it be ſhewn to be groundleſs; and that not having been done in ſo many years, there ſeems but too much reaſon to preſume that his obſervations are not unjuſtifiable. See our article SUBSIDY.

B.

BAD — BAH

BAAT, in the language of the Siameſe, and Tical in that of the Chineſe, is a weight in thoſe kingdoms. The baat weighs about half an ounce.

BACALIAU, or BACCALAO. See BARCALLAO.

BACHELOR, in French BACHELIER, a name, which, in ſome of the ſix corporations of traders at Paris, is given to the elders of them, and to thoſe who have ſerved the ſeveral offices, and have a right to be called by the maſters and wardens, to aſſiſt them in the affairs of the corporation, particularly in what relates to the maſter-piece of workmanſhip of ſuch who are candidates for the freedom of the company.

In the company of the merchant-fellmongers and furriers, the maſter-piece muſt be performed in the preſence of four wardens, who are obliged to call to their aſſiſtance four bachelors of that corporation, namely, two bachelors merchant-fellmongers and furriers, and two bachelors of the maſter-piece, as they are called.

In the hoſiers, cap and glove-makers companies, the maſter-piece of workmanſhip muſt be performed in the preſence of four wardens and bachelors of the corporation.

The word bachelor is uſed alſo in the ſame ſenſe in moſt of the other companies of arts and trades, in the city and ſuburbs of Paris.

BACK-MAKER, is one who makes liquor backs, underbacks, coolers, maſh-tuns, working-tuns, &c. for the brewers. The workmanſhip is partly carpentry, in a particular manner, for it muſt be tight enough to hold liquor; and partly cooperage, viz. the maſh-tun, or vat, which is hooped.

There are not many of this trade, and it requires chiefly ſtrength, with a little art. A ſmall ſtock of ſtuff, beſides tools, will ſet a man up tolerably well; but, with 200 or 300 l. he will make a good figure in buſineſs.

BADEN, a county in Switzerland, ſituate between the northern extremities of the cantons of Bern and Zurich, and extends on one ſide where the Aar falls into the Rhine, and on the other ſide to ſome villages beyond the Rhine. For extent, it is as large as ſome of the ſmall cantons, and has a more fruitful ſoil. 'Tis watered with three navigable rivers, the Limmat, Ruſs, and Aar; bears corn and other fruits, and produces wine in many places along the Limmat. In the mountains from Cappeleſhof to Endengen are mines of iron.

BADEN, it's chief town, called Upper Baden, is famous for it's baths, for which it was celebrated ſo long ſince as our Saviour's time, according to Tacitus. The waters are hot in a third degree, being impregnated with much ſulphur, with a mixture of allum and nitre. They are good for drinking, as well as bathing, in fevers, phthiſics, vertigoes, and particularly for diſorders peculiar to the fair ſex, and even ſterility. Their baths bring a concourſe of people, which is the chief livelihood and buſineſs of the town.

ZURZACH, about nine miles north of Baden, is a fine, antient, ſpacious burrough, on the banks of the Rhine, which is remarkable principally for its fairs, on the Monday after Trinity-Sunday, and on the firſt of September, where very conſiderable quantities of goods are ſold by the merchants of Germany, France, and Italy, in a very ſhort time.

BADGER, a wild four-footed beaſt, a little bigger than a fox, to which it bears ſome reſemblance; it has alſo ſomething of the hog and the dog.

The badger, dwells in burrows, and lives upon inſects, carrion, and fruit. It ſtinks very much, and grows fat by ſleeping, like the dormouſe. It's age is known, by the number of holes it has under it's tail, there appearing a new hole every year.

Though this animal ſeems not to be of much uſe in trade, yet it affords three ſorts of merchandize. It's ſkin is of the common peltry, called wild. It's fat is ſold by the druggiſts, and is reckoned good for pains in the loins, and for the ſciatica, or hip-gout: and it's hair ſerves to make pencils or bruſhes for limners and gilders.

BADIANE, or BADIAN. It is the ſeed which the aniſe-tree bears, that grows in China. The tree is thus called, becauſe it's wood ſmells like aniſe-ſeed. The Chineſe ſometimes give their tea an aromatic taſte with that ſeed. Some of the Dutch do the ſame in the Indies, in imitation of them.

In the year 1722, it was ſold at Peking from 12 to 15 fun per gin, which was reckoned extremely dear, according to the journal of Monſ. Lange, who reſided at the court of China.

BAETAS; thus the Spaniards and Portugueſe call that ſort of woollen ſtuff, which is not croſſed, and which in France is called baguette, or bagette.

BAFFETAS, or BAFTAS, a cloth made entirely of coarſe white cotton-thread, which comes from the Eaſt-Indies. Thoſe of Surat are the beſt. They are from 13 French ells and $\frac{3}{4}$ to 14 long, and $\frac{7}{8}$ broad. There are alſo ſome which meaſure but $\frac{5}{6}$ of an ell, or even but $\frac{1}{2}$ of an ell in breadth. Theſe narrow baffetas are called Orgagis, Gaudivis, Nerindes, and Dabouïs, according to the names of the places where they are manufactured.

There are alſo narrow-white baffetas, which meaſure 13 ells and a half in length, by half an ell in breadth.

Broad-white baffetas, 14 ells by $\frac{3}{4}$.

Broad-brown and narrow-brown baffetas. Theſe two laſt ſorts are made of raw thread, that is, which was never wetted or blanched. The former are 14 ells long, by $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell broad; the latter are of the ſame length, and $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth.

BAGS, are uſed in moſt countries, to put ſeveral ſorts of coin in, either of gold, ſilver, braſs, or copper. They make in France bags of piſtoles, of louis-d'ors, bags of a thouſand livres, or crowns, bags of ſmall pieces of ſilver coin, &c.

Bankers and others, who deal much in current caſh, ſhould be very exact in labelling their bags of money; that is to ſay, in tying a ticket or note at the mouth of the bag, ſignifying the coin therein contained, the ſum total, it's weight, and of whom it was received. Tare is allowed for the bag. The French always allow 5 ſols per bag of 1000 livres.

Bags of ſilver coin in France are generally given and received, without counting their contents, people referring commonly to their weight: but, if there ſhould be found any deficiency in the bags, he who received them, has a right to return them, within eight days after the payment was made, according to an antient cuſtom eſtabliſhed among the traders in money, provided the name of the perſon who gave the bag in payment be ſet down upon the ticket, and the weight be anſwerable to that which was wrote upon it, by the perſon who paid it.

BAG is alſo uſed, to ſignify different quantities of certain commodities. A bag of almonds, for inſtance, is about three hundred weight, of aniſeed from 3 to 4 hundred, of pepper from 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 hundred, of goats-hair from 2 to 4 hundred, of cotton-yarn, from 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{4}$, &c.

BAGAUZ. Thus they call, in the Antilles iſlands, the ſugar-canes, after they have paſſed through the mill; they keep them under cover in ſmall huts, in order to uſe them, when dry, for boiling the ſugar. Theſe huts are called the bagauz huts.

As ſoon as theſe bagauz are taken from between the firſt and third roller, two or three negro women bind them up in bundles, which they pile up under the covers. In caſe the bagauz be not long enough to be made up into bundles, as being too much broken, they carry them in large baſkets to a corner of the mill, where the horſes, oxen, and hogs, come and eat them.

Sometimes when they are ſtraitned for fuel, they only dry them in the ſun for three or four hours, which is ſufficient to make them fit for burning. In ſome places, where they have plenty of wood, they ſerve only to burn under the firſt boilers; but, where wood is ſcarce, they keep them for the two laſt, and under the firſt they burn ſtraw, and the dry leaves of the canes.

BAHAMA, or LUCAYA ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands lie moſt eaſterly of all the Antilles in America, and to the north of the iſle of Cuba, and eaſt and ſouth-eaſt from the Spaniſh Florida, ſtretching from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, between the 21ſt and 28th degrees of north latitude, and between 72 and 81 of weſtern longitude; ſo that they lie ſo much out of the courſe of ſhips bound for the American continent, that they were not taken notice of by our Engliſh till anno 1667.

The iſland of BAHAMA, from which the reſt take their general name, is ſituated in latitude 26, 45, north, and at the diſtance of between 15 and 20 leagues eaſt from the peninſula of Florida, and about 8 or 10 weſt from the iſland of Lucaya, or Lucayonequa, from which it is divided by a channel, notwithſtanding its breadth, is very dangerous, and full of rocks and ſands.

The iſland is computed, by ſome, about 13 leagues long and 8 broad; by others 50 miles in length and about 16 in breadth, and in ſeveral places not half that width. It is

B A H

eſteemed extremely pleaſant and fruitful, the air ſerene and temperate, and the ſoil remarkably rich, being watered with a multitude of ſprings and brooks. Formerly it produced plenty of guaiacum, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, and red-wood, which were all deſtroyed by the Spaniards; ſo that it's chief production at preſent is Indian wheat, fowl, and a particular ſort of rabbet; the reſt of their proviſions, and other neceſſaries, they are obliged to have from Carolina, whence they are enabled, both here and in the iſland of Providence, to aſſiſt the ſhipping that are driven upon their coaſts by the tempeſtuous weather, and the impetuoſity of currents, with what they want, which is the greateſt branch of their trade.

On the north of Bahama and Lucayonequa, lies the great Bahama bank of ſand, which extends itſelf northward up to the 27th degree 30 minutes, and is ſurrounded with rocks. That which is called the great ſand-bank of Bahama lies on the north of the iſle of Cuba, and is terminated by the Long-Iſland; on the north-eaſt by the ſtreight of Exuma and the iſland of Cigateo; on the north by that of Providence, or Abacoa, and that of Andros is quite ſurrounded with it.

It is bounded on the weſt by the iſles of Mimbres and Bimini, the former of which is rather a prodigious rock, much dreaded by ſailors; and therewith ſome other rocks, equally dangerous, bound it in a line parallel to the north-weſt coaſt of Cuba, from which it is ſeparated by the old canal of Bahama, or arm of the ſea, between the laſt-named iſland and the bank of Bahama.

Beſides this old canal, there is another called the Streight of Bahama, lying between the coaſt of Florida and the Lucayonequa iſland. This hath one of the moſt impetuous currents northwards of any in theſe ſeas. It's waves run with ſuch violent rapidity, that neither wind nor oars can ſtem it; ſo that though the wind be fair, and the ſhip in full ſail, yet they cannot enter it till a certain ſeaſon: and, if it be contrary, they are carried away by the current. By reaſon of which the Spaniſh ſhips are compelled to wait their opportunity to paſs this ſtreight from the Havannah homewards, which is computed 16 leagues in breadth, and it's length, from the Cape of Florida northwards, 45; which ſhews of what extraordinary importance the Bahama Iſlands might be rendered to England by the advantage which might be made of them by us againſt the Spaniards, provided they were put in a due offenſive and defenſive condition, to anſwer ſo good a purpoſe, when occaſion requires.

The next iſland of extent, and in all other reſpects the moſt conſiderable, is that of ABACOA, now PROVIDENCE, which is the reſidence of the governor, and lies in the center of ſome hundreds of others. Several authors reckon them between 4 and 500, ſome of which are very large, even 160 miles in length, and others no bigger than knolls or rocks, riſing above water; which ſhews how dangerous and dreadful it is to be forced amongſt them by tempeſtuous weather. This iſland lies in latitude 24, 30, north, and is about 28 miles long, and 11 broad, where it is wideſt. (Harris's Collections.) Some, however, make it 18 leagues in length, and about 7 in breadth. (De L'Iſle.) It hath the ſmall one of Lucayonequa on the north; that of Alebaſtres on the eaſt; the northern point of that of Andros on the weſt; and the great bank of Bahama on the ſouth. It's chief commerce, like that of Bahama, aroſe from the misfortunes of thoſe ſhips that were driven on it's coaſts, or in a winter voyage for the continent of America were forced to put in for proviſions. They likewiſe made ſome advantage by the wrecks which were thrown upon their coaſt. The proviſions, wherewith they ſupply ſhipping, they have from Carolina; ſo that, at preſent, they are a great relief to diſtreſſed mariners. The iſland produces little elſe but ſalt and Braſiletto wood, which they carry to Carolina in about eight days, but are ten at leaſt in returning from thence, by reaſon of the ſtrong current in the gulph of Florida: they ſow peaſe and Indian wheat, the former of which is fit to gather in ſix weeks, the other in twelve. This iſland abounds with variety of fiſh, fowl, trees, and vegetables, before unknown to us; and our Philoſophical Tranſactions (Vol. II.) add, that whales have been found dead on the ſhore, incompaſſed with ſperm, and that one of theſe whales is worth ſome hundreds of pounds.

This, and the other Bahama, on account of their uſeful ſituation, were judged to be ſo neceſſary for the ſecurity of our trade in the Weſt-Indies, that the parliament of England have not thought it unworthy of their care, as well to have it cleared of pirates, as to defend it againſt both the Spaniards and the French, who know it's ſituation extremely convenient either to annoy or aſſiſt their commerce. In queen Anne's war, both the Spaniards and French overran and plundered the Bahama iſlands twice; whereupon, in March 1714, when the adminiſtration of England had as little the intereſt of commerce at heart as any thing elſe but their own, the houſe of lords addreſſed her majeſty that the iſland of Providence might be put into a poſture of defence. Their lordſhips obſerving, It would be of fatal conſequence, if the Bahama Iſlands ſhould fall into the hands of an enemy: they therefore humbly prayed her majeſty to take thoſe iſlands into her own hands, and give ſuch orders for their ſecurity as in her royal wiſdom ſhe ſhould think fit. But nothing was done: and for the future regard of ſuch who may have it in their power to promote the welfare of our Britiſh plantations in America, it is not improper to remember, that their lordſhips, four years after, took notice of that neglect, in an addreſs to his late majeſty king George: There were not any the leaſt means uſed in compliance with that advice for ſecuring the Bahama Iſlands; and that then the pirates had a lodgment, with a battery, on Harbour Iſland, and that the uſual retreat and general receptacle for the pirates are at Providence. Hereupon his majeſty was pleaſed to give directions for diſlodging thoſe pirates, and making ſettlements and a fortification for it's ſecurity and defence.

The other iſlands, though very many in number, are hardly worth deſcribing: we ſhall only name the moſt conſiderable of them. Beſides thoſe of Bahama, Providence, Eleuthera, and Harbour Iſland, are thoſe of Lucayonequa, Andros, and Cigateo, which may be termed of the ſecond magnitude. Thoſe of the third are Guanahani, Yumeta, Samana, Mayagnana, Yuma or Exuma, Ynagua, Caicos, and Triangulo. The reſt are rather barren rocks than iſlands. But, of thoſe of the ſecond and third ranks, Herrera affirms, that ſome of them are ſtill inhabited; and Baudrand affirms, that they are ſtill poſſeſſed by their ancient inhabitants. Be that how it will, whenever occaſion offers, our poſſeſſion of them will eaſily put it in the power of England to lay hold on the reſt; and they certainly deſerve our attention. For,

REMARKS.

The Bahama Iſlands lying near to Hiſpaniola, and to that port of ſo great importance to the Spaniards, the Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, where the Spaniſh galleons and flota always rendezvous, with all their treaſure, before they return to Europe, having the gulph of Florida to the weſt, and the Windward-Paſſage to the eaſt, of them; their ſituation, in time of peace, is capable of great improvement in trade, and has always been a good retreat for diſabled ſhips, blown from various parts of the continent of America.

But in time of war with any power in theſe parts, eſpecially with Spain, the Bahama Iſlands are of the higheſt concernment to this kingdom, cruizers and privateers from thence being more capable to obſtruct and annoy the Spaniſh trade homeward-bound, than all that are ſtationed at the reſt of the Britiſh colonies in America; and indeed ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has annexed FLORIDA to the crown of Great Britain, and this nation is become maſters of the port of St. Auguſtine, in the gulph of FLORIDA, theſe iſlands will prove of more utility to us than before; for theſe, together with our other new acquiſitions of PENSACOLA, MOBILE, and our right of navigation in the MISSISSIPPI, will moſt certainly, in caſe of any future rupture with Spain, render the whole trade and navigation of the Spaniards far more precarious than ever the ſame was before in the great gulphs of MEXICO as well as FLORIDA, and thereby proportionally diminiſh the importance of the HAVANNAH itſelf to Spain. The Spaniſh navigation in this part of the world ſeems ſurrounded now in ſuch a manner, as to render all our Britiſh poſſeſſions that are any thing contiguous to each other near theſe gulphs mutually aiding and aſſiſting to each other in caſe of need.

As the Bahama iſlands are very proper for the reception of ſmall cruizers, not exceeding 40 guns; ſo, if the public ſervice ſhould require larger veſſels to be employed in thoſe parts, the harbour of Port-Royal in South-Carolina, on the other ſide of the gulph of Florida, would be capable of receiving ſhips of any ſize or number; and, in concert with thoſe cruizers from the Bahama's, would prove of greater advantage to this nation than has ever yet been experienced.

Port-Royal, being the ſouthermoſt frontier of our poſſeſſions on the continent, is likewiſe ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that ſhips ſtationed there, at St. Auguſtine and at the Bahama's, would lie very conveniently, not only to guard our northern colonies, but to aſſemble a force, if occaſion ſhould be, to attack any power in thoſe parts. From hence, alſo, our ſugar iſlands may be more conveniently relieved, and in a much ſhorter time, than they could by any naval force ſtationed at Jamaica. And, if the American colonies were put on a proper footing to aſſiſt and ſupport each other, a ſquadron, at this South-Carolina Port-Royal, will always be a check to our neighbouring rivals, and give us the ſuperiority in this part of the world.

The galleons for the Havannah, in their paſſage through the gulph of Florida, may very eaſily be intercepted by a ſquadron ſtationed at the ſaid port and St. Auguſtine, aſſiſted by ſuch private advices as the ſame veſſels belonging to Providence may conſtantly be able to furniſh them with; but there is no inſtance that the king's ſhips, ſtationed at

Jamaica,

Jamaica, have ever intercepted the galleons or flota in their return home; for they have either had notice from Jamaica before our ſquadron appeared, or, when they have ſeen our ſhips cruizing for them, they have lain ſafe and quiet at the Havannah till the Engliſh have been tired out, and retreated through ſickneſs, or for want of proviſions, or elſe carried with the ſtream through the gulph, and then the Spaniſh fleets have ſoon followed, and eſcaped us.

The Bahama iſlands were for many years a neſt of pirates, and were never in any condition of defence till Captain Rogers was ſent thither in 1718, with the late king's commiſſion, as governor, with a ſmall force, at the crown's expence; before which they had been plundered above 30 times by the Spaniards, who well knowing that there is no place can give them ſo much diſturbance in their trade, is the true reaſon why the Catholic king demanded them in 1728. But Capt. Rogers had the good fortune to recover the iſlands from the pirates who had ſettled there, and alſo to defeat the Spaniards, who, after three ſeveral preparations, at more than 100,000 l. expence, attacked him with 2000 men; which force he repulſed, and burned two of their ſhips of war in their retreat, though he had no ſupport from any other colony but what he engaged on his own perſonal credit.

From what has been ſaid it appears, that the Bahama Iſlands are of far greater conſequence to this nation than ever they were before the DEFINITIVE TREATY; and, ſhould they ever become a prey to any other power, they would prove a dangerous annoyance to our trade, and an irreparable loſs to the Britiſh plantations, as our affairs are at preſent circumſtanced in America.

BAHAR, BAHAIRE, or BARRE, weights uſed in Ternate, Malaca, Achem, and in ſeveral other places of the Eaſt-Indies.

There are two of theſe weights; the one called the great, and the other the little bahar. With the great bahar they weigh pepper, cloves, nutmegs, ginger, cinnamon, and other ſpice. It contains 100 catis; the catis 26 taels, or 38 ounces and an half, Portugal weight; each tael being reckoned an ounce and a half of that weight. So that the great bahar is reckoned to weigh 550 pounds of Portugal, which amount to 481 pounds and 4 ounces of Paris, Straſburg, Amſterdam, Beſançon, &c. or 524 pounds, 9 ounces, Averdupois weight.

With the little bahar they weigh quickſilver, vermillion, ivory, ſilk, muſk, and other valuable merchandizes. This bahar contains alſo 200 catis, but each catis is but of 22 taels, or 32 ⅛ ounces Portugal weight; ſo that the bahar amounts only to 458 pounds 13 ounces of Portugal; which make 4017 ounces of Paris weight, or about 437 pounds, 9 ounces, Averdupois weight.

The bahar of China is of 300 catis, which make only 200 of Malaca, each catis of China containing but 16 taels.

The tael, weighing a riac and an half of eight, is of 10 mas, or maſes, and each mas of 10 condorins.

The bahar of Mocha, a city of Arabia, weighs 420 pounds.

Fifteen traſſels make a bahar. By that weight coffee is ſold.

BAILE. Thus they ſtile, at Conſtantinople, the ambaſſador of the republic of Venice, who reſides at the Porte.

Beſides the political ſtate of affairs with which the Venetian miniſter is charged, he acts the part of a conſul for that republic at Conſtantinople, and they who are denominated conſuls, eſtabliſhed in the ports of the Levant, are properly ſpeaking under him, and act as vice-conſuls.

BAILLOQUE, or BAYOQUE. Thus the French call thoſe oſtrich-feathers, which are naturally of a dark brown colour, mixed with white. Theſe kind of feathers are ſeldom dyed, but are generally uſed by the feather-dealers juſt as they are plucked from the bird; they only waſh them with ſoap, to give them ſome gloſs, and make them brighter. Theſe bailloque feathers are the leaſt valued.

BAIOCO, a copper coin current at Rome, and throughout the whole ſtate of the church. Ten baiocos make a julio, and a hundred a Roman crown.

BAKERS. This is a very ancient as well as uſeful trade; and the moſt general and extenſive branch of it is that of making, as well as baking, houſhold or family bread; though there are ſeveral others, as,

Biſcuits-baking, which is chiefly to prepare in a particular manner for long-keeping what is commonly called ſea-biſcuit, or bread.

Of French bread, ſo called for it's peculiar delicacy; who alſo make various ſorts of the nicer ſweet, as well as inſipid, biſcuits, &c.

Of ginger-bread, or ſweet-ſpiced bread, and cakes of ſeveral kinds.

Of theſe three laſt there are but few of each, there not being ſuch a general call for their produce, as for the common bread; the bakers of which, indeed, are many in number, yet not ſo numerous, but that moſt of them get a decent maintenance, if careful, and ſome acquire handſome eſtates.

The principal expence they are at, when they ſet up, is that of building their ovens, one of which will coſt 20 l. and upwards, according to the ſize; next to this, is their ſtock of flour and faggots: ſo that 2 or 300 l. will ſerve very well to begin with.

Their employment is even mentioned by Moſes (Gen. xi. 2.), therefore, in all probability, had it's firſt riſe in the eaſt: and they were a brotherhood in England before the year 1155, in the reign of king Henry II, though the white bakers were not incorporated till 1307, by king Edward the IId, and the brown bakers not till 1621, in king James the 1ſt's time. Their hall is in Harp-lane, Thames-ſtreet; and their court-day on the firſt Monday of the month.

Arms. Gules, a ballance between three garbs, Or; on a chief barry wavy of ſix, argent and azure, the hand of juſtice glorified, and iſſuing out of clouds proper (holding the ſaid ballance) between two anchors of the ſecond.

Motto. Praiſe God for all.

King Henry IV. granted, by charter, to the mayor and commonalty of London, the aſſize of bread, beer, ale, &c. victuals, and things ſaleable in the ſaid city; which is likewiſe granted by ſeveral other charters of our kings.

The ſtat. 51 Hen. III. was made for regulating the aſſize of bread, and bakers, not obſerving the aſſize, were to be ſet in the pillory.

By a late ſtatute, the aſſize of bread is limited, in proportion to the price of wheat, and mayors, &c. may, in the day time, enter any houſe, ſhop, or bake-houſe, of any baker or ſeller of bread, to ſearch for, view, weigh, and try, all or any of the bread, there found; and, if the bread be wanting in the goodneſs, deficient in baking, under weight, or ſhall conſiſt of any ſort than what is allowed, the ſame bread ſhall be ſeized and given to the poor: alſo a penalty of 40 s. is inflicted for want of weight, &c. Stat. 8 Ann. c. 18.

But by 1 Geo. I. c. 25. bakers are to pay 5 s. for every ounce deficient in weight, and 2 s. 6 d. if under an ounce. Bakers ſelling bread in peck, half-peck, or quartern loaves, at a higher price than ſet by the lord mayor of London, &c. ſhall forfeit 10 s. Stat. 3 Geo. II. c. 29.

There is at Paris a corporation of bakers who ſtile themſelves maſter-bakers.

This corporation, is one of the moſt ancient, which was eſtabliſhed in that city, with the right of having ſworn wardens and maſters, and long enjoyed the privilege of having a juriſdiction peculiar; before which, all affairs relating to it's government, and the execution of it's ſtatutes, or by-laws, were brought, which was before the chatelet, and the lieutenant of the police, who have the cognizance of the affairs of all the other corporations.

That court, of which the great pantler of France was the head, conſiſted of a lieutenant-general, a king's attorney, a recorder, and ſeveral uſhers. It was in the name of that high officer of the crown, that all their ſtatutes and regulations were iſſued, apprentices and maſters, or freemen, admitted, and all oaths adminiſtred. To him alſo belonged all the fines paid by thoſe who are admitted into the corporation: which rendered the office of the high pantler as profitable as it was honourable, it being one of the moſt antient offices of the monarchy.

The juriſdiction of the high pantler being ſuppreſſed under the reign of Lewis XIV, by an edict iſſued in Auguſt 1711, the corporation of the bakers in the city and ſuburbs of Paris was reduced to the ſame ſtate with the other bodies corporate, and, like them, it is ſubject to the juriſdiction of the provoſt of Paris, and of the lieutenant-general of the police.

The maſter-bakers of Paris boaſt, that they had their ſtatutes under the reign of queen Blanche, mother of St. Lewis, Hugh d'Athies being then high pantler: and yet the ſtatutes they followed, when the employments of lieutenant-general and other officers of the king's pantry were ſuppreſſed, were not more antient than the year 1560, the firſt of king Charles IX, though indeed it appears, that they had ſtatutes as early as the reign of Charles VI.

The new ſtatutes, which were promiſed to them in the edict of Auguſt 1711, for uniting the maſter-bakers of the ſuburbs with thoſe of the city into one corporation, meeting with oppoſition from time to time, both from the duke of Briſac, high pantler, with regard to the indemnification that was granted him, and from ſeveral particular maſters, and other perſons concerned in that re-union, and not being yet (in 1719) quite completed; that corporation of united maſters continued to be governed, partly according to it's antient uſage, and partly according to it's new letters patents.

That regulation which is but interlocutory, as it were, relates chiefly to the number of jurats, the years of apprenticeſhip and journeymanſhip, and the fines, regulated by the laſt letters patents, for the admiſſion of apprentices and maſters, and for the viſitations.

There are ſix jurats, three of whom are choſen every year, which was not done in the years 1718 and 1719, the lieutenant-general of the police having ordered, that there ſhould be no new election, till the conteſt was determined.

The

The apprentices are bound to ſerve five years following, and, after their time is out, they are obliged to live four years more with the maſters as journeymen, before they can be admitted to make their maſter-piece of workmanſhip, from which however, the maſters, or freemens ſons are exempted.

The antient maſter-piece of the French baker was a kind of ſmall loaf, which they called chapter-bread: it was made of the fineſt flour, not only well kneaded, but alſo beaten for ſome time with two ſticks, whence it was alſo called beaten bread, pain broyé. Their new maſter-piece is light or ſpungy bread, and white bread.

As for the fines, which have been greatly increaſed, becauſe this new united company of maſter-bakers was obliged to have all the officers appointed for the companies of arts and trades, ſince the year 1691, to the year 1709, which could not be entirely effected till the year 1711, on account of the objections and repreſentations of the lord high pantler; thoſe fines, I ſay, are not to continue upon the ſame foot they are at preſent, but till the ſums borrowed for the payment of thoſe offices be entirely reimburſed.

The union of the maſter-bakers of the city of Paris, with thoſe of the ſuburbs into one corporation, was attempted in the year 1678, by virtue of an edict of Lewis XIV, iſſued in December that ſame year, for uniting the ſeveral companies of the ſuburbs with thoſe of the city, profeſſing the ſame arts and trades; but the union of the maſter-bakers could not yet be effected, as has been obſerved above.

The edict for that union is to this effect. Namely: That all the bakers ſettled in the ſuburbs of Paris, except that of St Anthony, and other privileged places, ſhould be united with thoſe of the city, ſo as to make up, for the future, but one and the ſame corporation, under the juriſdiction of the lieutenant-general of the police, according to the ſtatutes to be made for that purpoſe, if needful.

That, in conſequence of this union, the bakers ſettled in the ſuburbs of St Germain, St Michael, St James, St Marcellus, St Victor, &c. who could prove their freedom in the ſuburbs, ſhould pay 220 livres; that the journeymen and apprentices, who could alſo prove their indentures, and the time of their ſerving, either with maſters in the city, or with thoſe in the ſuburbs, ſhould pay 330 livres; and that thoſe who would take up their freedom, without a proper qualification, ſhould pay 440 livres; without being exempted from the fines, which by the edicts of 1691, 1694, 1702, 1704, 1706, and 1709, were to be paid to the offices of jurats, auditors of accounts, treaſurers, comptrollers of weights and meaſures, recorders of enrollments, comptrollers of the ſignatures of the regiſters, and keepers of the records. Theſe are the offices, which we obſerved above to have been ſince incorporated with the united company of bakers.

The ſame edict ſuppreſſes and aboliſhes the offices of lieutenant-general, king's attorney, recorder, and uſhers of the pantry, giving leave to the uſhers, who were actually in office, to continue to act for the remainder of their lives; and ordering, that for the future, all maſter-bakers, either in the city or in the ſuburbs, ſhould be admitted by the king's attorney of the chatelet, as is practiſed with regard to admiſſion of maſters or freemen of all the other companies.

Finally, in the ſame edict, there is a proviſion made to indemnify the duke of Briſac, high pantler of France, who by the ſuppreſſion of his juriſdiction loſt the fines, which time out of mind belonged to him, for the admiſſion of maſters and apprentices.

It is this indemnification granted to the high pantler, that amounts to above 100,000 livres, whereof the company has already paid above two thirds, which long delayed the regiſtering and execution of the letters patents granted to the two united companies.

By the antient and new ſtatutes of the maſter-bakers of the city and ſuburbs of Paris, they alone have a right to ſettle there, to keep ſhop, and to ſell bread, either light, white, houſhold, &c. and that no other ſhall attempt to do the ſame, upon pain of having all his bread ſeized, and paying a fine of 600 livres; without prejudice, however, to the liberty granted at all times, to the country-bakers; ſuch as thoſe of Goreſſe, Corbeil, Charenton, &c. to bring bread, either by land or by water, for the proviſion of the city, on market days, and to expoſe it to ſale in public places.

The days, called market-days at Paris, are Wedneſdays and Saturdays: and, as for thoſe places where country-bakers are at liberty to ſell bread, there were, till the year 1709, but ſeven or eight of them, and theſe the moſt celebrated markets at Paris. But in that year, more remarkable for a ſcarcity of wheat and other grain, than the kingdom of France ever experienced, the officers of the police thought proper to appoint ſeveral other places for the ſale of country bread; ſo that there are now at Paris almoſt as many places, where country bread is ſold on market-days, as there are places fit for the purpoſe, in all parts of this great city.

The ſeveral ſorts of bread, which the bakers at Paris are allowed to make and ſell, are light and ſpungy bread, houſhold and white bread, and what they call chapter-bread, which is a delicate ſort, chiefly deſigned for the canons. Under the title of light or ſpungy are reckoned all thoſe nice loaves and rolls made with milk, butter, cream, yeaſt, &c. to which the French give ſeveral odd or humourous names, which cannot be well rendered in Engliſh, without long circumlocutions.

It has, however, happened, now and then, eſpecially in times of dearth, that the parliament, or the officers of the police, have reduced the bakers bread to two ſorts only. We meet with inſtances of it in the years 1436 and 1437; and ſince again, in the remarkable year 1709, upon the petition of the attorney-general, the court of parliament revived that regulation, for which, by good providence, the city of Paris had had no occaſion during near three centuries. The arret, or decree, by which bread was reduced to two ſorts only, bears date the 7th of June of that ſame year 1709. It is thereby ordered, that the bakers of the city and ſuburbs, as well as of other places within the provoſtſhip, viſcounty, and preſidial of the chatelet of Paris, ſhall not bake nor expoſe to ſale in their ſhops, or in the markets, but two ſorts of bread only; namely, white and houſhold bread. That the white bread ſhould be made of the fineſt flour of wheat-meal, of half of white-meal after the flour, and half of fine oatmeal; and that the houſhold bread ſhould be made one half of white meal after the flour, and half of coarſe meal; that is to ſay, part of that which is got after the firſt bolting, and part of that which comes from the laſt bolting; the whole under the penalty of having the bread ſeized, of a fine of 1000 livres, and being deprived of freedom and profeſſion, and even of a greater puniſhment, if the nature of the crime required it.

By the 10th article of the 6th chapter of the ordonnance of the city of Paris, made in the year 1672, concerning the ſale of corn, all bakers of large and ſmall loaves are forbidden to take every day from the keys above two muids (or 10 quarters) of wheat, and one muid (or five quarters) of meal. And, by the French king's declaration of the 1ſt of September 1699, they are alſo forbidden to buy either corn or meal, within the diſtance of eight leagues from Paris, except on the keys, and in the markets of that capital city; with liberty, however, to buy both beyond the limits of eight leagues; but then they are obliged to produce certificates of the meaſures eſtabliſhed in thoſe places, where they bought them, containing an account of the quantity of corn and meal they bought; under the penalty of forfeiting both, and paying a fine of 300 livres.

The bakers are by their ſtatutes obliged to mark upon each loaf the number of pounds it weighs, and the weight muſt anſwer that number, upon pain of forfeiture and fine.

BALASTRI. Thus they call, at Smyrna, the fineſt gold cloths that are manufactured at Venice, and which the Venetians carry into the ports of the Levant.

BALAUSTINES (in French BALAUSTES) are the flowers and bloſſoms of the wild pomegranate-tree. There are two ſorts of them, the fine and the common. The latter have but little virtue, and are therefore unuſed in medicine, where the former are of uſe, being reckoned aſtringent. Both ſorts are brought from the eaſt, and are properly one and the ſame drug. But the fine balauſtines are adorned with their bloſſoms; whereas the common ſort have only their pecou, pod or bud, in the form of a pretty thick rind, which contains the bloſſom, before it grows, or ſupports it, when opened.

The balauſtines muſt be choſen fine, freſh, broad, of a fine velvety red, and, if poſſible, without pecou, and without duſt.

BALAZEES, or SAUVAGAZEES of Surat, are white cotton cloths, manufactured in that city of the Grand Mogul's empire, and in it's neighbourhood. They are 13 ½ French ells in length, by ⅔ in breadth.

BALE. It is ſaid of merchandizes wrapped up, or packed up in cloth, and corded round very tight, after they have been well garniſhed with ſtraw or hay, to keep them from breaking, or to preſerve them from the weather.

Moſt of the merchandizes capable of this kind of package, that are ſent to fairs, or deſigned to be exported into foreign countries, ought to be in bales, and too much care cannot be taken in packing them up, to prevent their being ſpoiled, or any way damaged.

The bales are always marked and numbered, that the merchants to whom they belong, may eaſily know them.

When they ſay, to ſell merchandizes in bales corded, it ſignifies to ſell them in the groſs, upon a ſhew or ſample, without unpacking them, or taking off the cords.

The French give the name of bale goods to certain hard wares, and other ſorts of merchandize, which come to Paris from divers countries, and particularly from Forez, a province

province of France, and are commonly made by bad workmen, and of indifferent materials. They give them that name, to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe that are beſpoke, and made by good workmen. Whereas, in Engliſh, we call bale goods, all ſuch as are imported or exported in bales.

The French alſo give the name of bale-carriers to thoſe hawkers and pedlars, who travel up and down the country, ſelling wares, which they carry in ſmall bales or packs, upon their backs.

A bale of Paper is ſaid of ſeveral reams together, in a kind of ſmall bale. The number of reams is not equal in all. The bales deſigned for Conſtantinople, do not contain commonly above twelve reams. There is hardly any other paper that is ſold in bales, but that with three creſcents, which is manufactured at Marſeilles, and ſent to Conſtantinople. That with a crown, and that with a ſmall croſs or croſlet, which are alſo ſent into the Levant, are ſold by what the French call ballon.

A bale of dice, with the French, is a ſmall bundle or parcel, made of paper, and containing one or more dozens of dice.

A ſmall bale (in French ballot) is a parcel of merchandizes, though the French do alſo ſometimes give the name of ballot to large bales.

The ballots, or ſmall bales of ſome ſorts of goods, conſiſt commonly of a certain number of parcels, ſkains, or pieces.

The bale of yarn, in France, contains from 15 to 18 parcels, each parcel weighing three or four pounds.

The word ballot, or bale, is alſo uſed in the trade of buccaned fleſh, which trade is carried on by the buccaneers of St Domingo. Each parcel of that fleſh, or meat, moſt commonly is of 60 pounds neat meat, excluſive of the package.

BALLANCE, or BALANCE, is one of the ſimple powers in mechanics, which diſcover the equality or difference of weights in heavy bodies.

BALLANCE of a watch, or clock, is that part of it which regulates the beats. The circular part of it is called the rim, it's ſpindle the verge, to which belong the two pallets, or lever, which play in the teeth of the crown-wheel in pocket-watches; that ſtrong ſtud in which the lower pivot of the verge plays, and in the middle of which one pivot of the ballance-wheel plays, is called the pottance vulgarly, I ſuppoſe for potence (it being ſtrong) or portance, as Dr Hook calls it in his Helioſcope. The bottom of this is called the foot; the middle part, in which the pivot of the ballance-wheel turns, is called the noſe; the upper part, the ſhoulder of the portance. The piece which covers the ballance, and in which the upper pivot of the ballance plays, is the cock. The ſhell-ſpring, in the new pocket-watches, under the ballance, is the regulator, or pendulum-ſpring.

BALLANCE [in the accounts of merchants] is, when the debtor and creditor ſides of any diſtinct account are equal. When that is the caſe, ſuch account is ſaid to be ballanced.

BALLANCE of a merchant's or trader's books. This is a branch of the art of accountantſhip. In the method of keeping the books of traders, according to that admirable art of charge and diſcharge, by double entry, ſuch books, if kept as they ought to be, will be always fit for a general ballance. For ſuch is the excellency of that method, that the books of themſelves muſt be neceſſarily upon a ballance on the whole, though not in every diſtinct account, throughout the ledger. But the nature here of will be ſhewn under the article of MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

BALLANCE of trade. That which is commonly meant by the ballance of trade, is the equal importing of foreign commodities, with the exporting of the native. And it is reckoned that nation has the advantage in the ballance of trade, that exports more of the native commodities, and imports leſs of the foreign. The reaſon of this is, that, if the native commodities be of a greater value that are exported, the ballance of that account muſt be made up in bullion or money; and the nation grows ſo much richer, as the ballance of that account amounts to.

REMARKS.

It hath been a great debate, how the ballance of our foreign trade ſhall be computed, and what methods we ſhould take whereby to know it. It has been thought by ſome, that the moſt proper way to make a true judgment therein is, by taking an account from the cuſtom-houſe books of our exports and imports; but this is a very uncertain way of reckoning: for all foreign goods that are imported, paying a conſiderably greater duty than the native goods exported, there can be no computation of the ballance of trade from the difference of the ſum of money that is paid, at the cuſtom-houſe, for the foreign goods imported, and the native exported.

But, ſuppoſe there ſhould be an allowance made, in caſting up the account, for the greatneſs of the duties that the foreign goods pay more than the native; yet that can be no advantage in diſcovering the ballance of trade; becauſe they cannot diſcover by the cuſtom-houſe books, what the native goods that are exported are ſold for in foreign countries: for the ballance of trade muſt ariſe from the value of the goods that are ſold, and not from the quantity that are exported or

imported. And that is known only to the merchant that ſells the goods, and it is not for his intereſt to acquaint others with it, and thereby diſcover the profits of his trade.

Beſides, as to our imports, the bullion, and ſuch things of value, are not entered at the cuſtom-houſe; and, with reſpect to our exports, as many of them go out cuſtom free, the entries there made of them cannot be depended on: but, if by that means a more exact account of our exports and imports could be had, yet, ſince ſo great a part of the trade of this kingdom is driven by exchange, and ſuch vaſt quantities of commodities are imported from our plantations for account of the inhabitants there, the produce whereof they leave here as a ſtock at home, and that they are ſupplied hence with ſo many things for their own conſumption, I cannot ſee how any computation can be this way made of our general trade, much leſs of that we drive with any particular nation, the commodities, which we receive at one place, being often carried to another: and, as to the profits we make by the freight of our ſhips, that does not at all appear from the cuſtom-houſe books.

Beſides, it is well known, that merchants to ſave themſelves the trouble and fee of taking out another cocket, frequently enter much larger quantities of goods than they actually export; and other fictitious entries are often made of certain commodities, in order to raiſe the value of them, from the appearance of the great quantities exported, and the leſs remaining to be ſold,

Theſe fictitious entries are often increaſed by the practice of owners and maſters of ſhips, to encourage the merchants to load goods on a ſhip, put up on a general freight, with the hopes that ſhe will be very ſoon diſpatched; and, I believe, it is not unuſual for merchants themſelves to put this in practice ſometimes, to ſupport their declining credit; or to give them the reputation of being greater dealers than they really are: ſo that the largeſt entries may be, when the feweſt goods are exported.

To theſe uncertainties of making any judgment of the quantities of goods ſo exported, from the entries, we muſt add the impoſſibility of making any reaſonable eſtimate of the value of the goods ſo exported, becauſe of the variety of different kinds and pieces of them. For inſtance, no man can make an eſtimate of the value of perpets, ſtuffs, long and ſhort cloths, from the quantities only, when they differ in their price more or leſs, as one is to four, or five; ſo that he may be very eaſily miſtaken ſome hundred thouſand pounds every year.

In order, therefore, to know whether a nation gains or loſes by it's trade, the courſe of exchange has been judged the ſureſt criterion. We having had occaſion to treat ſomething of this matter, under the article of the arbitration of the foreign exchanges, 'tis neceſſary that the reader ſhould be referred thither, the principles, upon which that notion is founded, being there repreſented. In addition to which, the following animadverſions may be further uſeful.

If the ladies of quality of Paris, for inſtance, are fond of Bruſſels lace, and conſume of it yearly to the value of 100,000 oz. of ſilver, about 150 pounds weight of flax, which grew upon a quarter of an acre of land, will anſwer this value: this will require the yearly labour of 2000 women, for the ſeveral parts of the work. The undertaker, or principal lace-manufacturer at Bruſſels, will ſet theſe women to work, and pay them their daily wages. They will buy of the butcher, baker, brewer, &c. their neceſſaries, and theſe will pay the value to the farmer, and he will pay his rent to the land proprietor in Brabant, whoſe land is applied to produce the neceſſary maintenance for theſe women: and, if they conſume in their maintenance the produce of three acres per head, here will be 6000 acres in Brabant, employed for the uſe and maintenance of the lace-women.

The families at Paris, where the lace is worn, muſt pay their money at Bruſſels, to anſwer this expence; and alſo enough to anſwer the lace-merchant's maintenance, with his family and ſervants, and the intereſt and riſque of the advance of his money; all which will be found in the price they give for the lace: and this money muſt be ſent in ſpecie from Paris to Bruſſels, if France ſends no commodity to Brabant to anſwer and compenſate this debt.

But, if on the other hand, the land-proprietors and nobility in Brabant, and others, are fond of Champagne wine, and conſume thereof annually the value of 100,000 ounces of ſilver; if the muid of Champagne wine, being tranſported to Bruſſels, coſts there 60 oz. of ſilver; if an acre of vine-land produces in Champagne four muids, this quantity of wines, which ſells for 100,000 oz. will require $4166\frac{2}{3}$ acres for it's production; beſides, about 1000 carriage horſes for the tranſportation to Bruſſels; which at two acres of land for the maintenance of each horſe, makes 2000 acres more. And ſo there will be $6166\frac{2}{3}$ acres of land in Champagne, applied to the production of theſe wines, and the tranſport horſes; and conſequently, ſo much taken from the maintenance of the French inhabitants.

Theſe wines will pay and compenſate the value of the lace, by bills of exchange between the wine-merchants in Champagne,

pagne, and the lace-merchants at Bruſſels, or between the bankers, who are the brokers and mediators of payments of this kind.

Tho e wines which are drank in Brabant, will ſave the produce of about 4000 acres of land in Brabant, which otherwiſe would have been employed to produce beer, &c. and ſo France not only loſes the produce of 6166⅔ acres of land, in this commerce or exchange, but ſaves to Brabant 4000 acres; and, upon the whole, the loſs is no leſs to France than 10,166⅔ acres; for which it receives the produce of no more than one quarter of an acre.

If the circulation of money in Brabant be equal to that in France, the land and labour employed about the lace will be equal to the land and labour employed about the wine; and the produce of the land given in payment to the undertaker, or lace-merchant in Bruſſels, and to the lace-women, &c. will be equal to the land given in payment to the wine-merchants in Champagne, to the labourers employed in the production of the wine, to the carriers, &c. and to the land that goes to the production of the wines, the maintenance of horſes, &c.

But, if the quantity of money circulating in Brabant be treble to that circulating in France, as the exchange is made by the evaluation in money, one third part of the land and labour in Brabant will anſwer, and correſpond in value to the whole land and labour in France; and the product of one acre in Brabant will exchange for that of three acres in France of equal goodneſs. Beſides this diſadvantage in the preſent example, the ⅓ part of the land in Brabant will be applied to the maintenance of the inhabitants of that country; whereas the 4166⅔ acres, which produced the wine in Champagne, are alſo applied to the maintenance of the French inhabitants.

By this example we ſee a branch of luxury carried on in France, which indeed ſupports a commerce, maintains vintners, wine-merchants, horſes for carriages, wheelwrights, &c. circulates the farmer's rent in Champagne, with that of the proprietor in Paris: and yet, upon the whole, this trade is diſadvantageous to France, diminiſhes it's inhabitants to the number of at leaſt 1500 ſouls, and is of no uſe or emolument to that kingdom. But, on the other hand, it turns to very good account to Brabant, where the land is by this means applied to the maintenance of its own inhabitants; and where they have the produce of 4000 acres of ground in France, brought to them without any charge or diſadvantage.

From the method of enquiry followed in this example, we may examine the advantages or diſadvantages of every particular branch of trade with any foreign country, when the ballance appears equal.

When conteſts ariſe concerning the national advantage or diſadvantage of any branch of foreign trade, it would be eaſy to put the truth in a clear light, by examining the ſeries of facts, according to the method herein ſuggeſted.

It will always appear by ſuch enquiries, that the exportation of minerals and manufactures, &c. are advantageous; ſince the land and labour which produce them are applied to the ſupport of the inhabitants at home; but that the exports of the fruits and products of the earth are diſadvantageous for the contrary reaſons, except where a good year has produced a great ſurpluſage of them, beyond the yearly conſumption of the inhabitants: and, when the returns for mines and manufactures exported, conſiſt in other mines and manufactures imported, by examining which maintain more inhabitants, or more uſeful ones to the ſtate, there will be no difficulty in determining on which ſide the advantage lies.

In general, whenever there ariſes a doubt or difficulty about trade, the method to decide the controverſy effectually, will be to compute the land and labour, as in the preceding example, inſtead of being hurried away with general maxims and received notions of trade.

To know when the nation really proſpers by its general commerce, being a matter of great concernment to the community, it may be uſeful to purſue this point a ſtep further.

Various characteriſtics hereof may be aſſigned; but there are but two, perhaps, which can be depended on; and thoſe are the courſes of exchange and the price of bullion.

To the end that our meaning may be conveyed with perſpicuity, let it be ſuppoſed that the city of Chalons ſur Marne in Champagne pays yearly, to the king's receiver there, 10,000 ounces of ſilver; and that the Chalons wine-merchants ſell at Paris, by their correſpondents, wines to the value of 10,000 ounces of ſilver, ſuppoſing the ounces of ſilver of the ſame value in livres at Chalons as at Paris.

The livres at Paris are to be ſent in ſpecie to Chalons, and the livres at Chalons are to be ſent to Paris; but the trouble may be ſaved on both ſides, by exchange. The wine-merchants correſpondents will carry their livres to the cuſtom-houſe, and take there in exchange a reſcription, order, bill, or bills of exchange, upon the receiver at Chalons; which bills they will endorſe to the wine-merchants, and they will receive upon them the like quantity of livres,

Or, the receiver of Chalons will pay his livres to the wine-merchants, and take their bills of exchange, on their correſpondent at Paris, which he will endorſe to the treaſurer of the cuſtoms, who will receive the ſum of livres on the ſaid bills.

The ſame method may be practiſed between the wine-merchants at Chalons and the ſtewards of the Paris land-proprietors, who have eſtates near Chalons; and, if the returns be conſiderable, bankers will ſet up at Paris and at Chalons, to make the remittances, and ſupply the neceſſary bills of exchange between thoſe two cities: and as, on this ſuppoſition, the ſame ſum of livres at Chalons is exchanged by the like ſum at Paris, the exchange of money will be ſaid to be at par.

But, if the quantity of wines, and other commodities ſent from Chalons to Paris, and ſold there, exceed in their value the king's revenue at Chalons, and the commodities ſent from Paris to Chalons, which are conſumed and ſold there, by the ſum of 5000 ounces of ſilver, the Paris bankers will ſend this ſum to Chalons in ſpecie; and the expence of the carriage of this money will fall upon the wine-merchants, and others, at Chalons, who have this ſum in caſh in the hands of their correſpondents at Paris, and want to have it at Chalons: they, therefore, will order their correſpondents to remit it to them; but the banker at Paris, who has no money at Chalons, will refuſe to give his bills on his correſpondent banker there at par, and demand 102 livres for his bill on Chalons for 100 livres: if they will give him that price, he will draw for it upon his correſpondent, and ſend him the money in ſpecie, to anſwer the payment; and as he muſt pay a livre for the carriage of every 100 livres, or 1 per cent. he will ſtill have 1 per cent. for his own and his correſponding banker's commiſſion: and, in this caſe, the exchange at Paris for Chalons will be 2 per cent. above par, as the exchange of Chalons for Paris will be 2 per cent. under par: and, if Chalons be indebted to Paris, the exchange will be the reverſe.

From this example, which may be applied to any two cities in the ſame ſtate, it appears that the variation of exchanges between two places, where the ſame coin is uſed, is known by ſo much per cent. over, or under par; that the place where the exchange is above par has the ballance of trade againſt it, and that the place where the exchange is under par has the ballance in its favour, or due to it. In this there is no myſtery.

If the city of Bourdeaux owes 100,000 ounces of ſilver at Paris, and ſends wines and brandies to Holland for 100,000: and, if Holland ſends ſpecie to Paris for 100 000 ounces, the bankers at Bourdeaux ſend their bills on Holland to Paris, for 100,000 ounces due to Bourdeaux; and with theſe the ſpecie-merchants at Paris remit and pay the 100,000 ounces they owe to Holland: in theſe caſes, the exchange between Bourdeaux and Paris, Bourdeaux and Holland, and Paris and Holland, will be all at par; there will be no variation but what proceeds from the commiſſion of the negociators concerned in the returns.

But, in regard that the coin in France is reckoned by livres, ſols, and deniers, and in Holland by florins, ſtivers, and groots; that the coin in uſe in Holland differs in the ſtandard, bulk, and mark, from that uſed in France, the computation of the exchange is made by the exchanging ſo many Dutch groots for a French exchange crown; which, at firſt view, does not ſeem to denote that the exchange is ſo much per cent. over or under par, but in reality it is ſo; and the banker concerned in the Dutch exchange knows how to evaluate this par in the ſale of French crowns and Dutch groots.

So that the exchange between Paris and Amſterdam is, in effect, carried on juſt as it is between Paris and Chalons; only with this difference, that the accounts are kept in another gibberiſh, and that the charge and riſque of ſending money from Paris to Amſterdam, is greater than that of ſending money from Paris to Chalons. When the ballance of trade with Amſterdam is againſt Paris, the exchange at Paris will be from 5 to 6 per cent. above par by bills on Amſterdam; whereas it will ſeldom exceed 2 per cent. above par for Chalons.

Whether France pays livres, ſols, and deniers, for rials of plate and marvadees, new or old, of Spain; for cruſadoes or millrees of Portugal; for guilders, rixdollars, or mark-lubs, in the north; for pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling; for marks, piaſters, and ducats of Italy; the par of the exchange is always ounce for ounce of ſilver, or rather of gold, that being of eaſier carriage, and moſt commonly tranſported in the payment of the ballance of trade; and the computations and evaluations of the exchange will ſquare every where with our firſt example.

If France owes a ballance in trade to Flanders of 100,000 ounces; Flanders to Holland of 100,000 ounces; Holland to England of 100,000 ounces; England to Spain of 100,000 ounces; Spain to Italy of 100,000 ounces; Italy to Germany of 100,000 ounces; Germany to France of 100,000 ounces; the exchange may be carried on at par between all thoſe countries, without any tranſportation of gold or ſilver.

But, as the ballance of trade grows due gradually from one country to another, by an importation of commodities, the variation of exchanges follows the ſame proportion.

For example: if Holland ſends into England in January, the value of 100,000 ounces in merchandize, and receives from

England,

England, in that month, but the value of 50,000 ounces, the merchants of London, who owe this ſum at Amſterdam, will offer the negociator money for his bills on Amſterdam; and he having no money due to him there, and refuſing to draw, the merchant will offer him 1, 2, to 3 per cent. above par, in the language of exchange: then the negociator will draw on his correſpondents on thoſe terms, and ſend over the money to him to anſwer the payment, and get the 3 per cent. for the charge of ſending the money, the riſque, and for his commiſſion: and when this ballance is paid, by ſending the money, the exchange will fall again to par.

From theſe examples and reflections it is plain, that the courſe of exchange indicates where the ballance of trade lies, ſince their variation is proportionable to the ballance with any country diſtinctly. But, as the Spaniſh exchange may be in favour of France, and the Dutch exchange at the ſame time againſt France, the courſe of exchange will not ſhew whether France receives more money from Spain than it ſends to Holland; and, conſequently, it will be but conjecture to judge, from the courſe of exchange, whether France gains or loſes in the general ballance of trade.

But, as France keeps up the current ſpecie at a higher price in the mint than bullion, if the negociators of money are forced to ſend out the current ſpecie in payments to foreigners, this will ſhew moſt of the bullion is already gone, and that the general ballance is againſt France: and in England, if bullion, which is allowed to be exported, grows dearer than ſtandard, it is alſo a plain ſign that the general ballance is againſt England. So that the only rule, whereby we can make a judgment of the ballance of general trade, ſeems to be from the courſe of exchange and the price of bullion.

Though the courſes of exchange commonly follow the proportion of goods exported and imported, which form the ballance of trade; yet, if particular people ſend their money from one country to another to lay out at intereſt, it will have the ſame effect in exchange as a ballance of trade; with this difference only, that it brings home an annual intereſt, and the principal may be called back: whereas the money acquired in the ballance of trade is clear gain to the nation. The ſums alſo ſent for the payment of armies and alliances, and for the maintenance of foreign ambaſſadors and travellers, have alſo the ſame effect upon exchanges as a ballance of trade; but the natural and conſtant courſe of the valuation of exchanges is the ballance of trade. Exchange, at ſome times, may riſe and fall every week, and, at particular times of the year, run high againſt a nation, and at other times, run as high on the contrary: as againſt a vintage, a great mart, or public ſale; the exchange may run higher to Bourdeaux, Franckfort, or Holland, upon an Eaſt-India ſale; at other times, the exchange may have run to the ſame places as much on the contrary: and no exchange can run high conſtantly againſt a nation; for then merchants who trade to that country muſt always be loſers; and it cannot be ſuppoſed that perſons will always trade to a country where they muſt always loſe.

That the price of exchange is a criterion of the ballance of trade, I have ſhewed to be the ſentiments of thoſe eminent merchants of London, who had a ſhare in writing of the Britiſh Merchant, againſt the treaty of commerce made with France at Utrecht; [ſee the article ARBITRATIONS of EXCHANGES.] and lately the ſame has been cited to the like purpoſe in a tract ſaid to be wrote by the late Sir Mathew Decker *; which we mention to ſhew, that the opinion of thoſe, who have been eſteemed good judges of trade, coincides with what has been ſuggeſted upon this head.

* An Eſſay on the Cauſes of the Decline of the foreign Trade, conſequently of the Value of the Lands of Britain, &c.

By Caſtaing's Paper of February 3, 1740.

	d.
London gave to Genoa, for a dollar - - - - -	54 1/2
to Venice, for the ducat banco - -	51 1/4
to Leghorn, for the dollar - - - -	50 5/8

By Sir Iſaac Newton's Tables.

Genoa, the par is 54 d.
Loſs to England, about 1 per cent.
Venice, the par is 49 d. 492 decim.
Loſs to England, about 3 1/2 per cent.
Leghorn, the par is 51 d. 69 decim.
Gain to England, about 2 per cent.
To Genoa and Venice the ballance is againſt us, and favourable only a ſmall matter to Leghorn.

February 3, 1740.

London gave to Liſbon for the millree 65 d.
The par is 67 d. 166 decim. Gain to England about 3 1/4 per cent.
London gave the pound ſterling to Antwerp for 35 s. 10 d. the par is 35 s 17 decim.
Gain to England about 2 per cent.
London gave the pound ſterling to Amſterdam for 34 s. 11 d. the par is 36 s. 59 decim.
Loſs to England about 4 1/2 per cent.
London gave the pound ſterling to Hamburgh for 33 s. 11 d. the par is 35 s. 17 decim.
Loſs to England about 3 1/2 per cent.

From hence it appears, that, according to the courſes of exchange between England and other countries, the national loſs or gain may be determined as clearly as a matter of this delicacy will admit. To which end, ſee the article STANDARD of foreign coins, or their intrinſic values: and, if to theſe obſervations we add that of the price of bullion, a good judgment may be made how the general ballance of trade may ſtand from time to time.

Mr Mun, the merchant, on trade, ſays, the exchange being againſt a nation is of advantage to that nation; and ſuppoſes, if 100 l. at London is worth no more than 90 l. of the ſame money at Amſterdam, the Dutch to ſend 500,000 l. of goods to England, and the Engliſh 400,000 of goods to Holland, it follows, that the money due to the Engliſh at Amſterdam will ballance 440,000 l. due to the Dutch at London: ſo 60,000 l. ſterling pays the ballance.

Mr Mun did not conſider, that the Dutch goods worth 500,000 l. when exchange was at the par, are worth at London 555,555 l. when 90 l. at Amſterdam is worth 100 l. at London; and the 400,000 l. of Engliſh goods in Holland are only worth 360,000 l. that ſum being equal by exchange to 400,000 l. in England. So, in place of England's having an advantage of 40,000 l. as he alledges, by the exchange being againſt her, ſhe pays 95,555 l. more than if exchange had been at the par.

When exchange is above the par, it is not only paid for the ſum due on ballance, but affects the whole exchange to the place where the ballance is due. If the ballance is 20,000 l. and the ſum exchanged by merchants who have money abroad, with others who are owing, or have occaſion for money there, be 60,000 l. the bills for the 60,000 l. are ſold at, or near, the ſame price with the 20,000 l. for ballance. It likewiſe affects the exchange to countries where no ballance is due. (Ex.) If the exchange between Scotland and Holland is 3 per cent. above the par againſt Scotland, between England and Holland at the par, though no ballance is due by Scotland to England, yet the exchange with England will riſe; for 100 l. in England, remitted to Scotland by Holland, will yield 103 l. ſo between Scotland and England it may be ſuppoſed to be had at 2 per cent. being leſs trouble than to remit by Holland.

Goods are ſold to foreigners according to the firſt coſt. (Ex.) If goods worth 100 l. in Scotland, are worth 130 l. in England, thoſe goods will be exported, 30 per cent. being ſuppoſed enough for the charges and profit. If the price of theſe goods lower in Scotland from 100 l. to 80 l. the price in England will not continue at 130; it will lower proportionably, for either Scots merchants will undermel one another, or Engliſh merchants will export theſe goods themſelves. So if they riſe in Scotland from 100 l. to 120 l. they will riſe proportionably in England, unleſs the Engliſh can be ſerved with thoſe goods cheaper from other places, or can ſupply the uſe of them with goods of another kind. This being ſuppoſed, it follows that,

By ſo much as exchange is above the par, ſo much all goods exported are ſold cheaper, and all goods imported are ſold dearer, than before. (Ex.) If a merchant ſends goods yearly to England firſt coſt, charges, and profit 6000 l. money in England of the ſame ſtandard with money in Scotland, and no ballance due; but a ballance due to Holland, raiſing the exchange 3 per cent. above the par to Holland, and affecting the exchange to England 2 per cent. 5882 l. 7 s. in England pays for the goods, that ſum, by exchange, being equal to 6000 l. in Scotland: ſo that a ballance due to Holland, by raiſing the exchange to other countries, occaſions a loſs to Scotland of 117 l. 13 s. on the value of 6000 l. of goods ſent to England.

Engliſh goods are ſold ſo much dearer. (Ex.) If an Engliſh merchant ſends goods yearly to Scotland, firſt coſt, charges and profit, 6000 l. 6120 l. muſt be paid for theſe goods in Scotland, that being only equal to 6000 l. in England. If the exchange had been at par, the Scots goods ſent to England would have ſold for 117 l. 13 s. more, and the Engliſh goods ſent to Scotland for 120 l. leſs.

Thus to all places with which exchange is above the par, goods ſent out are ſold for ſo much leſs, and goods brought from thence are ſold ſo much dearer, as the exchange is above the par, whether ſent out, or brought in, by Scots or foreign merchants.

The merchant who deals in Engliſh goods gains no more than when exchange was at the par, though he ſells dearer; nor the merchant who deals in Scots goods leſs, though he ſells cheaper; they have both the ſame profit as when exchange was at the par. Scotland pays 2 per cent more for Engliſh goods, and England 2 per cent. leſs for Scots goods: all, or a great part of the loſs, falls at laſt on the landed-man, in Scotland, and it is the landed-man in England, has all, or a great part of the benefit.

Nations, finding the export of money, or bullion, to pay the ballance due by trade, a loſs of ſo much riches, and very detrimental to commerce, ſhould diſcourage the import of ſuch goods as the people could beſt want, by prohibition of their conſumption; induſtry ſhould be encouraged, and all meaſures uſed to lower the price of labour, and, in proportion, the neceſſaries of life, whereby the native product and manufactures will be improved and increaſed, and the overplus exported will be greater.—Theſe methods will make trade and exchange equal, and turn the ballance in favour of a nation. But, inſtead of theſe means, ſome nations prohibit bullion and money to be exported, which can have no other effect than to raiſe the exchange equal to the hazard ſuch laws occaſion, which added to the export of money or bullion, may be ſuppoſed at 3 per cent. more: and as theſe laws by the effect are hurtful, making all goods exported ſell yet 3 per cent. cheaper, and all goods imported 3 per cent. dearer; the ſtricter they are executed, the higher will the exchange ſtill riſe, and prove the more nationally injurious. The ballance muſt nevertheleſs be ſent out in money or bullion, by the merchants who owe it.

Suppoſe the money of England, Scotland, and Holland, of the ſame weight and fineneſs; Scotland to trade with no other places; the exchange at the par: the yearly export from Scotland firſt coſt 300,000 l. charges and profit 30 per cent. goods imported 280,000 l. charges and profit 30 per cent. one half of the trade to be carried on by Scots merchants, the other half by Engliſh and Dutch.

Due to Scotland for one half of the exports carried out by their own merchants - - -	l. 195,000	
Due for the other half carried out by the Engliſh and Dutch - -	l. 150,000	l. 345,000
Due by Scotland to England and Holland, for goods imported by Engliſh and Dutch - - -	l. 182,000	
Due for goods imported by Scots merchants - - -	l. 140,000	l. 322,000
The expence of Scotſmen abroad, more than of foreigners in Scotland - - - - -	l. 40,000	

If this is ſuppoſed the yearly ſtate of the trade and expence of Scotland, there will be a ballance due of 17,000 l. and, unleſs the Scots retrench the conſumption of foreign goods, ſo as to import leſs, or retrench the conſumption of their own goods, ſo as to export more, or increaſe and improve their product, ſo as the export be greater or more valuable; or retrench in their expences abroad; ſince that ballance muſt be paid, it will go out in money or bullion, and occaſion the exchange to riſe 3 per cent. the prohibition on the export of money 3 more, if Scotſmen export it; the nation ſaves the 1020 l. exchange on the 17,000 l. of ballance due, which is loſt, if Engliſh merchants export it; but the loſs ſuch a riſe in exchange occaſions on the goods, is more conſiderable. The 195,000 l. due abroad for goods ſent out of Scotland by Scots merchants, will be paid with 183,962 l. Engliſh or Dutch money, that ſum being equal by exchange at 6 per cent. to 195,000 l. in Scotland. The 150,000 l. due for firſt coſt of goods carried out by Engliſh or Dutch merchants will be paid with 141,510 l. Engliſh or Dutch money, that ſum being equal to 150,000 l. in Scotland. The 182,000 l. due by Scotland for goods imported by Engliſh and Dutch merchants, will come to 192,900 l. in Scotland; and the 140,000 l. firſt coſt of goods brought home by Scots merchants, will come to 148,400 l. in Scotland. So the account will run thus:

Due to Scotland for goods exported - - -		l. 183,962
Brought from abroad, firſt coſt - - - - -		140,000
Baliance of expence abroad - - - - - -		40,000
Due to Scotland abroad - - - -		3,962
Due by Scotland for goods imported by Engliſh and Dutch - - - - -		l. 192,920
Engliſh and Dutch take back in goods - - -		150,000
Due to Engliſh and Dutch in Scotland - - -		42,920
3,962 l. due abroad to Scotland in Scots money -		4,199
Remains due by Scotland - - - -		l. 38,721

So the riſe in the exchange of 3 per cent. by the ballance due of 17,000 l. and 3 more by the prohibition on the export of money, occaſions a loſs to Scotland of 21,721 l. and makes the next year's ballance 38,721 l. though the trade be the ſame as before: of which 21,721 l. loſt by exchange, one half would be ſaved, if money were allowed to be exported.

Since the exchange being 6 per cent. above the par, occaſions the loſs of 21,721 l. then raiſing the money 8 and $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. having raiſed the exchange with England to 14 per cent. and with Holland to 30, makes the loſs proportionably greater. Scots goods being ſuppoſed to continue at the ſame prices they were ſold for, before the money was raiſed, or not to riſe in the ſame proportion with the money; for, when exchange was at par, 100 l. of Scots goods were ſold abroad for 130 l. Engliſh money; but 114 l. Engliſh money, being now equal by exchange to 130 l. in Scotland, the Scots merchant can afford to ſell the ſame quantity of goods for 114 l. that he ſold before at 130 l. and have the ſame profit: ſo foreign goods worth abroad 100 l. and ſold in Scotland for 130 l. when exchange was at the par, cannot be ſold now for leſs than 150 l. in Scotland, that ſum being equal only to 130 l. Engliſh money, and the merchant's profit is no greater than when he ſold the ſame quantity of goods for 130 l.

It may not be improper to conſider what conſequences would attend the lowering the money to the Engliſh ſtandard, and allowing it to be exported.

The former ſtate of trade is ſuppoſed to be carried on one half by Scots merchants, the other half by Engliſh and Dutch; but, as moſt of the trade is carried on by Scots merchants, let this ſtate of trade be conſidered accordingly: the one or the other will clear the main queſtion.

The ſtate of trade and exchange ſuppoſed at 15 per cent. to England, and 30 to Holland; the whole export of Scotland to be 300,000 l. of which 50,000 l. carried out by Scots merchants, ſold at 30 per cent profit and charges 325,000 l.

In Engliſh money - - - - - - l.	282,608
Exported by foreigners for 50,000 in Engliſh money	43,478
The whole export	326,086
Goods imported - - - - - -	306,086
Spent abroad - - - - - - -	40,000
Due for ballance by Scotland - - -	20,000

Money being lowered to the Engliſh ſtandard, and allowed by law to be exported, will bring the exchange with England to 2 or 3 per cent. and with Holland to 17 or 18, notwithſtanding the ballance due; for as 100 l. in Edinburgh would then be equal to 100 l. at London, and, being allowed to be exported, none would give above 102 l. or 103 l. for 100 l. at London, becauſe the trouble and charges of ſending it to London would be valued no higher: the export, import, and expence abroad ſuppoſed to continue the ſame, a ballance would then be due to Scotland.

The ſtate of trade, exchange at 3 per cent. to England, and ſo proportionably to other places.

Due in Engliſh money, 325,000 l. firſt coſt, charges, and profit of goods, ſent out by Scots merchants - - - - - - - - - -	l. 315,534	
Due in Engliſh money for 50,000 l. of goods exported by foreigners - - - - - - -	48,544	
The whole exports		364,078
Of this deduct the value of goods imported -		306,086
And the expence abroad - - - - - - - -		40,000
There will be a ballance due to Scotland of - -		17,992

As this ballance due to Scotland would bring exchange to the par, and 3 per cent. on the Scots ſide, 3 more, becauſe money in England, ſuppoſed to be prohibited exportation, 100 l. in Scotland would be worth 106 l. in England, and proportionably in other places: ſo the ſtate of trade would then be thus:

Due in Engliſh money for 325,000 l. firſt coſt, charges and profit of Scots goods, ſent out by Scots merchants, and 50,000 l. exported by foreigners - - - - - - - - - -	l. 397,500	
Of this ſpent abroad - - - - - - - -		40,000
Imported from abroad - - - - - - - - -		306,086
Ballance then due to Scotland		51,414

If the yearly export be as great as ſuppoſed, and the ballance only 20,000 l. then lowering the money to the Engliſh ſtandard will make a ballance due of 51,414 l. though the money is not allowed to be exported.

From hence it will be eaſy to conceive how highly detrimental to our trading intereſt the exchange being againſt us muſt inevitably prove; and, when once it is ſo, it is eaſy to conceive that it contributes to keep itſelf ſo.

The exchange with Holland being generally againſt England in time of peace, and more ſo in time of war, affects this kingdom more diſadvantageouſly, perhaps, than has been thoroughly weighed and conſidered: for as Amſterdam is made the center of negotiations by bills between Great-Britain and many other parts of Europe, with which we carry on a large commerce (viz. with Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, and moſt parts of Germany) the rate of exchange between us and Holland being to our diſadvantage, muſt virtually, in the like proportion, affect thoſe money-negociations between us and thoſe countries; and how really prejudicial

that proves is not eaſy to ſay: for, if the Dutch exchange being againſt us has a tendency to influence thoſe exchanges between Holland and Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, and many parts of Germany to our diſfavour alſo (we having no direct exchange to thoſe places ourſelves): if this is the ſtate of the caſe, and in conſequence thereof, as has been ſhewed, we receive leſs for our exports to thoſe places, and pay the dearer for what we import from thence, the injury muſt be conſiderable. Beſides, if the Dutch exchange has theſe injurious effects on our trade to thoſe countries, whatever other buſineſs we negociate by exchange, by the way of Holland, muſt prove to our far greater diſadvantage than if that exchange was in our favour, as has been ſhewn.

As we allow bullion and foreign gold and ſilver to be openly exported in England, the courſe of exchange between London and Holland, or Hamburgh, cannot riſe, perhaps, above 5 or 6 per cent. as long as we have any bullion, or foreign gold and ſilver to export; for the courſe of exchange between two countries can ſcarce ever riſe much above the value of the riſque and charges of ſending gold and ſilver from the place where the bill is drawn to that where it is to be paid.

But, as at firſt view many may not diſcern the certainty of this obſervation, it ſhould be conſidered that, if the remitter be a perſon who thoroughly underſtands trade, he will not allow, for any bill, an exchange much above the value of the riſque and charges of ſending his money over in bullion or foreign gold and ſilver; becauſe, if he finds he muſt pay an exchange above this value, he will, in common prudence, chuſe to remit in ſpecie, rather than by bills of exchange. But as ſome remitters may not care to deal in the exportation of gold and ſilver, and are therefore willing to allow a profit over and above the value of the riſque and charges, to thoſe who do, whenever this profit riſes ſo high as to be ſufficient to anſwer the merchant's trouble in drawing, and their riſque and charges in letting their money lie in foreign correſpondents hands, till they find an opportunity to draw for it; we may depend on it, that thoſe who deal this way, will export gold and ſilver in ſpecie, in order to get a profit by drawing and ſelling bills of exchange.

Now the value of the riſque and charges of exporting bullion, or foreign gold and ſilver, from Britain to Holland, Hamburgh, or Flanders, may, I reckon, be about two or three per cent. and the profit of it ſuffice for anſwering the merchant's trouble in drawing; and his riſque and charges in letting his money lie in a foreign correſpondent's hand, till he finds an opportunity to draw for it, may, I believe, be about 2 or 3 per cent. more; therefore the exchange between London and either of theſe countries can ſcarce ever be above 5 or 6 per cent. This is confirmed by experience; for we find the exchange between London and either of theſe places ſeldom riſes above 5 or 6 per cent.

With reſpect to France, indeed, the value of the riſque and charges of ſending gold or ſilver to Paris, which is the chief ſtaple of France for bills of exchange, is much greater, becauſe of the land carriage from any of the ports of that kingdom to Paris, and becauſe of the uncertainty of ſending it when there is the greateſt occaſion for it. Theſe are the true reaſons for the courſe of exchange between London and Paris being frequently about 10 per cent. to our diſadvantage; but ſince a weekly correſpondence by ſhipping or ſloops has been opened between London and Dunkirk, Calais, or Boulogne, we find ſeveral quantities of gold and ſilver have been entered for exportation to France, which may lower the courſe of exchange in our favour, or at leaſt prevent it from riſing ſo much to our diſadvantage, without diminiſhing in the leaſt our loſs upon the ballance of our trade with France.

From theſe conſiderations it ſeems evident, that the courſe of exchange can rarely riſe much above the value of the riſque and charges of ſending gold or ſilver to the place where the bill is to be paid: wherefore, if the courſe of exchange between this country and any other be againſt us, it may be allowed to be almoſt a certain indication that the ballance of trade is againſt us; but it cannot be allowed to be a certain indication of the quantum of that ballance, becauſe, as I have ſhewn, whenever the courſe of exchange riſes much above the value of the riſque and charges of exporting gold and ſilver, ſuch quantities of theſe two metals will be exported as muſt ſoon bring the exchange back to it's natural courſe. To determine the exact quantum of this ballance is, I believe, impoſſible, unleſs our accounts of import and export were much more truly and regularly kept at every one of our ports than they can be by the laws now in being.

The obvious cauſes which conſpire to keep the Dutch exchange in our diſfavour are, (1.) The intereſt-money we pay them for the millions they have in our funds, excluſive of our commiſſion for tranſacting their buſineſs therein, as public creditors. (2.) By reaſon of the commiſſion we pay them for negociating the money tranſactions between us and thoſe countries before intimated. (3.) By their having the exchange in their favour, and, in conſequence thereof, paying leſs for the merchandize they take of us, and we more for thoſe which we take from them, and from thoſe countries with which we tranſact buſineſs by the means of the Hollanders:

and, while theſe cauſes ſubſiſt, the effect muſt be the ſame. From ſuch view of the matter it appears, that one of the greateſt evils to the trade of this nation is that of being indebted to foreigners; and the greateſt advantage to their trade is to be our national creditors. Although this evil cannot be removed till thoſe debts in particular are diſcharged, yet 'tis time for us to think of ſaving the commiſſion we pay them for being our brokers.

To which end, I would humbly ſubmit it to the conſideration of our moſt ſkilful and experienced merchants, whether it is not practicable to eſtabliſh more direct courſes of exchange than we have, eſpecially to thoſe places we now do buſineſs with through the medium of the Dutch exchange.

For, if this ſhould be practicable, our traders will not only ſave the commiſſion which they pay, but they and their correſpondents will do the like alſo for tranſacting their buſineſs.

And theſe ſavings on our ſide may be attended with the following conſequences: (1.) They will enable us to afford our native commodities cheaper at foreign markets, thereby increaſe their vent, and contribute to prevent rivals from ſupplanting us. (2.) The ſaving, alſo, on the ſide of our foreign correſpondents, will enable them to afford their merchandizes cheaper to us. (3.) This parſimony on both ſides will prevent the Dutch exchange being the medium of diſadvantage to both.

Of what benefit it may prove to the Britiſh merchant to ſpeculate where the ballance of trade lies, as well between one foreign nation and another as between his own and others, has been ſhewed, under the head of the Arbitration of the foreign exchange; to which we refer. But this will be further exemplified and illuſtrated throughout the courſe of our deſign.

Further Remarks.

How advantageous this knowledge in the ballance of trade and exchange between nations may prove to the ſtate in general, is manifeſt from the diſcernment and ſagacity of Sir Thomas Greſham, an eminent merchant and citizen of London. This gentleman lived in the time of King Edward VI. who was conſiderably indebted to the merchants of Antwerp, for money borrowed at intereſt, to ſupply the exigencies of the ſtate. Payment of intereſt, at that time, being an incumbrance to the nation it could but very ill ſuſtain, various expedients had been conſulted by the king and his council to diſcharge thoſe debts; which, being due to foreigners, brought great contempt upon the crown, and the public credit of England. The meaſures which had been ſuggeſted for repayment were, either to tranſport ſo much treaſure out of the realm, or to remit the ſame by way of exchange.

The kingdom being already greatly exhauſted of it's gold and ſilver, the former was impracticable, without being ruinous to trade, by depriving the nation of a due quantity of money neceſſary for circulation; and, the exchange between England and Antwerp being at no more than 16 ſchillings per pound of our currency, negociating the debt by foreign bills would have ſunk the exchange ſtill more to our diſadvantage: in conſequence whereof the exportation of our gold and ſilver in general, in the way of trade, would have been equally augmented as if we had exported the ſame in that ſhape at firſt: yet, for the nation to continue in debt, was ſtill increaſing the evil; more eſpecially ſo, as the creditors were foreigners, and the intereſt therefore ſent out of the kingdom. Beſides, the creditors inſiſted on their money, or a compliance with ſuch uſurious meaſures, for a prolongation of the time of payment, as would have brought ſo high indignity upon the nation, as to have diſabled them from borrowing more money but upon the moſt ſcandalous terms.

And yet more money the government wanted, inſtead of being in a capacity to diſcharge the old debts. Under theſe circumſtances the nation was greatly perplexed, and no meaſures could be thought of whereby to extricate the kingdom from thoſe embarraſſments, till Sir Thomas undertook the affair; by whoſe great knowledge in the trade of nations; in the exchanges, and where the ballance between country and country lay, he exonerated this kingdom from it's weighty incumbrances, without ſending any money out of it.

And, although the exchange was then at ſixteen ſchillings, he ſo wiſely conducted this negociation, that he paid off the king's debts as they fell due, at an exchange of twenty and twenty-two ſchillings per pound; whereby the king ſaved no leſs than an hundred thouſand marks clear, by this great merchant's knowledge in the ballance of trade between nation and nation.

By thus raiſing the exchange ſo much in favour of England, at that critical conjuncture, the price of all foreign commodities fell proportionably, which experimentally confirmed what had been ſaid before. Theſe meaſures ſaved the kingdom in general, and that in a very little time, no leſs than between three and four hundred thouſand pounds ſterling more; a round ſum at this time of day, but would now be near four times the amount, in proportion to the different values of money.

Nor did the advantages to the nation, from the ſkill and abilities of this great Engliſh merchant, terminate here only. For, as when the exchange was ſo greatly to the diſadvantage of England, gold and ſilver were daily exported out of the kingdom in great plenty; ſo by wiſely raiſing it, in the courſe of his money-negociations for the ſervice of the ſtate, he cauſed the ſame to be brought back again, to the great emolument of the whole trading intereſt.

Nor did the wiſdom of Sir Thomas's counſels, from his profound knowledge in commercial affairs, prove only of the higheſt honour and advantage to king Edward's reign, but to thoſe of his ſucceſſors, queen Mary and queen Elizabeth, both of thoſe princeſſes having made choice of him for the management of their affairs of trade and money. With queen Elizabeth he was in ſo high eſteem, that ſhe not only knighted him, a matter of very high dignity in thoſe days, but honoured him in every reſpect, and came in perſon to the exchange of London, which he had erected for the convenience of the merchants, and honour of that ſplendid metropolis, and cauſed the ſame to be proclaimed by heralds and a trumpet The ROYAL EXCHANGE: and Sir Thomas was afterwards honoured with the character of The ROYAL MERCHANT.

The reaſon for taking notice of this matter is, with a view to obſerve, that the practical arts of trade have not only been attended with as great eſtates as were ever acquired by any other means, but that the ſtudies of commerce, and the money-affairs of the nation, in a political light, have been attended frequently with as great honour and glory as any other; which might be ſhewn in a multitude of inſtances. And, indeed, the ſtudies of the liberal arts, and all other branches of literature, are of little benefit to the ſtate, unleſs they tend to promote honeſt induſtry, and ſuch arts as are uſeful to commerce in ſome ſhape or other. 'Tis that alone which can make every individual Britain happy, and the kingdom reſpectable throughout the world: for the ballance of trade will ever enable Great-Britain to hold the ballance of power. And how the one may be always preſerved in our favour, in order to maintain the other, is the great end and deſign of this Britiſh Dictionary of Commerce, and the earneſt deſire of the author.

And now it may not be altogether uſeleſs to conclude this point with the obſervations of the ingenious author of a treatiſe, intitled Britannia Languens, which ſays, 'That the 'paſſages to other preferments are made ſo open and eaſy, 'at preſent; I mean all thoſe that depend upon literature, 'in which our youth are led from ſtep to ſtep, by all manner of encouragements: firſt, by the multitude of our 'late endowed free-ſchools, where every ordinary man's ſon 'is taught Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, for a ſmall matter, 'and then is above manufacture; then we have two mighty-'endowed univerſities, where there will, at leaſt, be hope of 'preferment, let the throng be never ſo thick, and thence 'they have farther and more comfortable proſpects; and, 'in the mean time, live eaſy, and at little or no charge, as 'ſervitors, or on ſmall ſtipends, till they become ſcholars 'of houſes, &c. Others of theſe free-ſchool boys grow 'pen-men of all ſorts; and all theſe are a ſort of gentlemen-'like ways of living, which intitles them to be called maſters, 'which gives a main temptation both to parents and children, who, on the other hand, ſee the contemptible, and 'too often miſerable, condition of our poor clothworkers, 'and other ordinary artificers, who, at the beſt, are called 'mechanic fellows: and, what is yet further miſchievous is, 'that our youth thus educated, never reading any thing of 'manufacture, exportation, or importation, in Homer and 'Virgil, or their college notes, and being from thence carried to other ſtudies, which have no cognation with trade, 'can ordinarily have no ſenſation of the advantages of it; 'like bowls which have a rub at hand, the farther they go 'the more they are divided from the mark: whence it hath 'unfortunately enſued, that our men of learning are either 'generally ſilent in this matter, or elſe, being inclined to 'think it the ſole concern of the dirty and ſervile part of the 'people, ſpeak of it with contempt, and ſome with reflection; by whom moſt others being influenced, we are ſtill 'pretending to be more accurate in logic and metaphyſical 'philoſophy (which, howſoever otherwiſe uſeful, do not add 'two-pence a year to the riches of the nation), we continue 'to ſqueeze all the ſapleſs papers and fragments of antiquity; 'we grow mighty well acquainted with the old heathen 'gods, towns, and people; we prize ourſelves in fruitleſs 'curioſities; we turn our lice and fleas into bulls and pigs, 'by our magnifying glaſſes; we are ſearching for the world 'in the moon with our teleſcopes; we ſend to weigh the 'air on the top of Teneriffe; we invent pacing ſaddles, and 'gimcracks of all ſorts; all which are voted ingenuities, 'whilſt the notions of trade are turned into ridicule, or 'much out of faſhion.'

Of the application of this knowlege to the uſe of the merchant, and the foreign banker or remitter by exchange.

From the nature of the trade and circumſtances of particular nations, comparatively conſidered, 'tis obvious enough that the ballance of trade muſt be in favour of ſome, and conſequently to the diſadvantage of others: 'tis the buſineſs therefore, of the merchant of good credit and correſpondence to ſpecula.e on his advices, how the exchanges may ſtand with regard to the ballance of trade, between certain nations wherewith he may hold correſpondence. And the reaſon hereof is grounded on the ſame principle as ſpeculations on commodities; for it being one of the great articles of foreign commerce to purchaſe, at proper ſeaſons, the produce and manufactures of foreign countries, when they are cheap, to ſupply other countries, when and where the ſame will ſell dear; in like manner the dealer in exchange takes his occaſion to purchaſe bills, when and where they are cheapeſt, and diſpoſe of them, where deareſt: for, exchange being the repreſentative of money, ſuch tranſactions are no more, in effect, than dealing in money, or gold and ſilver, or other commodities; and where bills, their ſubſtitutes, can be bought cheapeſt, and ſold deareſt, it is the ſame thing as buying gold or ſilver, or other commodities, cheap, and ſelling them ſo dear as to yield a profit ſufficiently inducing to trade in them. There are two lights wherein this matter may be conſidered: as, (1.) The intrinſic values of foreign monies, when compared with each other, and with the courſes of exchange. (2.) By comparing the extrinſic values together, according to the currency of the exchange. Of the former we have juſt given inſtances, by comparing the par of foreign monies with the courſes of exchanges. To the other we have ſpoken under the article of the ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, to which we refer for the further explanation of what we would intend to communicate, in regard to practical commerce, by merchants or foreign bankers. See alſo the articles EXCHANGE, COIN, and ſuch other heads as we ſhall from thence refer to.

Of the uſe of this knowlege to the national commerce.

The national uſe to be made of ſtudying where the ballance of trade lies, with regard to our own nation, is to know with what countries the ballance is to our diſadvantage; that is, to what countries we pay more for their commodities which we import, than we receive of them for our native commodities which we export: the end of this enquiry, with reſpect to the publick intereſt, is to leſſen our imports, and increaſe our exports; or to ſell to ſuch country at leaſt as much as we buy of them, and ſo increaſe our ſales, if practicable. The meaſures proper to be taken for this purpoſe muſt be different according to the different circumſtances of nations; and the nature and conſequences of the trade carried on with them, conſidered in every view that it will admit of. Theſe meaſures muſt be particular, and well-timed.

There are, alſo, general principles, which are certain to prevent the ballance being ſo much in our diſfavour as it is with ſome countries, and which may have a tendency to turn that to our advantage which is at preſent againſt us. By what meaſures this end may be anſwered, will appear throughout the courſe of this work.

BALLAST, a quantity of ſtones, gravel, or ſand, laid in a ſhip's hold, to make her ſink to a certain depth into the water, and ſail upright, by making her to be of a proper weight. The ballaſt is ſometimes one quarter, one third, or an half, according to the difference of the cargo, and the bulk of the ſhip.

The ordonnance of the marine (in France) made in Auguſt 1681, art. 1 and 6, of the 4th title of book 4, orders all captains or maſters of ſhips, as ſoon as they get into harbour, to make their declaration to the admiralty of the quantity of ballaſt they have on board; they being forbidden to caſt it out in ports, canals, baſons, or roads; nor can it be carried by the unballaſters, but to ſuch places as are appointed for that purpoſe.

BALLIAGE, a duty payable to the city of London, for all goods and merchandizes of aliens or denizens, born within the allegiance of the Britiſh crown, being the ſons of aliens, born under foreign allegiance, granted, together with the duties of ſcavage, package, and portage, to the mayor and commonalty, and citizens, by their charter, dated the 5th day of September, in the 16th year of the reign of king Charles II, confirmed by the 20th rule of the book of rates, and by 2 W. and M. c. 8.

		s.	d.
Beer, the ton		0	4
Canvas, the 100 ells, containing ſix ſcore		0	2
Cloths, vide Drapery.			
Coals, the chaldron		0	1
Cochineal, vide Dyeing commodities.			
Drapery of woollen or worſted.	Broad cloth, the piece	0	1½
	Kerſeys, of all ſorts, the piece	0	0½
	Perpetuanoes, the piece	0	0½
	Stuffs, woollen or worſted, the ſingle piece	0	0½
	Stuffs, woollen or worſted, the double piece	0	1
Dyeing commodities.	Cochineal, the hundred, containing five ſcore pound	1	0
	Indico, the hundred, containing five ſcore	0	4
	Wood of all ſorts, for dyers, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	0	1

Furrs,

		s.	d.
Furrs, vide Skins.			
Fuſtians, Britiſh making, each fifteen yards	—	0	0½
Flax, or hemp, the hundr. weight, containing 112 lb.		0	1
Grocery. Cloves, mace, nutmegs, or cinnamon, the hundred, containing five ſcore		0	2
Grocery. Raiſins, the piece or frail	— —	0	0½
Grocery. Raiſins, ſolis, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	— —	0	1
Hemp, vide Flax.			
Indico, vide Dyeing commodities.			
Iron The ton unwrought	— —	0	6
Iron Wrought, the hundred wt. cont. 112 lb.		0	1
Lamperns, the thouſand.	— —	0	0½
Lead, the fother	— — — —	0	6
Linnen, vide Canvas.			
Pewter, vide Tin.			
Saffron, the pound	— — —	0	0½
Salt, the wey	— — —	0	2
Salt-petre, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.		0	1
Silk raw, or thrown ſilk, the pound cont. 16 ounces		0	0¼
Skins and Furrs. Beaver-ſkins, the 100 containing five ſcore		1	6
Skins and Furrs. Badger-ſkins, the 100 containing five ſcore		0	6
Skins and Furrs. Coney-ſkins, black, the 100 cont. ſix ſcore		0	2
Skins and Furrs. Cat-ſkins, the 100 containing five ſcore		0	2
Skins and Furrs. Calve-ſkins, the 100 containing five ſcore		0	2
Skins and Furrs. Fox-ſkins, the 100 containing five ſcore		0	6
Skins and Furrs. Fitches, the timber	— — —	0	1
Skins and Furrs. Merkins, the 100 containing ſix ſcore	—	0	2
Skins and Furrs. Otter-ſkins, the 100 containing five ſcore		0	6
Skins and Furrs. Sheep, or lamb-ſkins, the 100 cont. ſix ſcore		0	2
Skins and Furrs. Squirrel-ſkins, the 1000	— —	0	1
Stuffs, vide Drapery.			
Tin or pewter, the hundred weight cont. 112 lb.		0	2
Wax, the hundred weight, containing 112 lb.	—	0	2
Wood for dyers, vide Dyeing commodities.			
Wool of all ſorts, the hundr. weight cont. 112 lb.		0	2

Other merchandizes, liquid or dry, that are not particularly rated in this table, ſhall pay balliage duties outwards, by their bulk, as followeth, viz.

A great pacquet, or fardle, containing between 15 or 20 cloths, or other goods to that proportion		1	6
An ordinary pack, truſs, or fardle, containing in bigneſs about 10 or 12 cloths, 12 or 14 baiz, or to the like proportion in frizes, cottons, or other goods	— — —	1	0
A bale containing three or four cloths, four or five baiz, or the like proportion in other goods		0	6
For a great maund, or great baſket	— —	0	8
For a ſmall maund, or baſket, three hundred weight or under	— — —	0	4
For a hamper, or coffer, weighing 2 hundred weight or under	— — — —	0	3
For a butt, or pipe	— — —	0	1
For a hogſhead, or puncheon	— — —	0	4
For a barrel	— — —	0	2
For a firkin	— — —	0	1
For a dry-fat	— — —	0	8
For a drum-fat	— — —	0	4
For a bale	— — —	0	6
For a great cheſt, or caſe	— —	0	8
For a ſmall cheſt or caſe, containing three hundred weight, or under	— —	0	4
For a ſmall box	— —	0	2
For a great trunk	— —	0	6
For a ſmall trunk, not above two hundred weight		0	3
For a bag or ſack	— —	0	4
For a ſeron	— — —	0	3

BALLIN; thus they call, at Bourdeaux, at Bayonne, and in other trading towns of the province of Guienne in France, what at Paris, and elſewhere, they call emballage, or packing, &c.

In the wool trade at Bayonne they deduct ſo much for packing upon every bale, which amounts from 11 to 14 pounds weight, according as the packing-cloth is more or leſs coarſe, or the bale larger or ſmaller.

BALLON, or BALON, a ſort of brigantine uſed in the kingdom of Siam, to navigate up and down the rivers, and carry on the inland trade. It is made of the trunk of one ſingle tree, in an hollow manner, and is managed with oars. Theſe veſſels are of ſeveral ſizes, according to the uſe they are deſigned for. The king has ſome to take his pleaſure upon the water, and theſe are not leſs than 100 or 120 feet long, and 6 or 7 broad, and have 100 rowers on each ſide. Nothing can be more ſtately than thoſe ballons in which the kings of Siam ſhew themſelves now and then to their ſubjects, with ſuch pomp as inſpires them with a religious awe, not to ſay downright adoration.

BALLON, which is alſo called BALLOT, in the glaſs trade of Lorrain, ſignifies a certain quantity of glaſs-plates, ſmaller or greater, according to their quality. The ballon of white glaſs contains 25 bundles, of ſix plates per bundle; but the ballon of coloured glaſs is only of 12 bundles and ½, and of 3 plates to a bundle.

BALLON, is alſo a term uſed in the paper trade.

The paper of Marſeilles, called paper with the little croſs (à la croizette) of which large quantities are ſent to Conſtantinople, is ſold by the ballon, containing 24 reams. The ballon of paper with the crown, which is manufactured in ſome places of Provence, and is alſo very proper for the Levant trade, where it is ſold for Venice paper, contains but 14 reams.

BALM, or BALSAM, a kind of gum, of great repute in phyſic and ſurgery, which is liquefied, or diſſolved, by means of ſpirit of wine, or with oil. It is reckoned a ſovereign remedy for the cure of wounds, and of ſeveral diſtempers. The ladies alſo make a very great account of it, becauſe, by mixing it with the yolk of an egg and ſpirit of wine, they make an excellent paint.

There are many ſorts of balm, if we will reckon in that claſs all the remedies and drugs to which empirics or quacks, or even phyſicians and ſurgeons, pretend to give that name. Such are the apoplectic balm, the ſtomachic, the bezoardic, the hyſteric, the vulnerary, the magiſtrac, and many more: but, the natural balms for excellency are properly but two ſorts; namely, the balm of the Levant, and the balm of Peru; though under the general name of balm are reckoned ſeveral other gums.

The BALM of the Levant, which is accounted the moſt excellent, though that of Peru be not, perhaps, leſs efficacious, iſſues from an inciſion made in a tree that bears the ſame name, and grows in Egypt and in Judæa. It is ſo precious as to be part of the particular property belonging to the Grand Seignior himſelf.

That tree, which is as tall as the pomegranate tree, ſhoots forth a great many branches. It's leaves are like thoſe of rue, but always green: it's bloſſoms are white, formed like ſtars, and produce ſmall pointed berries, each of which contains a ſmall almond, or kernel.

The inciſion, from which this admirable gum iſſues, is made in the dog-days. The juice, which at firſt is liquid, thickens afterwards, and becomes ſuch as it is ſeen in Europe. Few perſons can boaſt to have it pure; for, on account of the high price it bears, it is adulterated almoſt as ſoon as it comes from the tree.

The ſigns of its being unmixed and excellent are pretended to be as follow; viz. that it's ſcent be ſtrong and penetrating; that the gum be freſh; that it be not ſour; that it be eaſily diſſolved; aſtringent and ſharp to the taſte, and that it leave not the leaſt ſpot on woollen cloth. It's true colour is yellow, inclining to gold, and it's ſcent has ſomething of the citron.

Balſamum is the Latin name of the tree whence the balm iſſues; opo-balſamum is the juice which diſtils from the tree, that is to ſay, the balm; carpo-balſamum is the fruit, and xylo-balſamum the wood. All theſe words, though of a foreign language, have been introduced into the French tongue, and the merchant druggiſts uſe them in the trade of thoſe commodities.

The carpo-balſamum is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle, but is of no other uſe in phyſic. It muſt be choſen freſh, of an aromatic taſte, and a pleaſant ſcent.

The xylo-balſamum, as well as all the other merchandizes that come from the tree which produces balm, is imported into France from Cairo, by the way of Marſeilles, in ſmall faggots, or bundles; it is nothing but the cuttings of that precious tree, or the wood of ſuch as die by ſome accident. It is uſed in the troches of hedycroum. It ought to be in ſmall knotty rods; the rind muſt be red, the wood white, reſinous, and aromatic.

There is alſo the BALM of Mecca, which is a dry and white gum. It is pretty much like white copperas, eſpecially when it is ſtale. That balm is brought from the famous city of Mecca, on the return of the caravans of the Mahometan pilgrims and merchants, who go to pay their devotions at the native place of their falſe prophet. It has all the properties of the balm of Judæa, and it is, very probably, the ſame, which is become hard, and has altered it's colour.

It ſeems to be a miſtake to make two ſorts of balm of the Levant and of Mecca, for they appear to be the ſame, as being gathered after the ſame manner, and from the ſame tree. If that of Mecca proves harder or drier, it is, becauſe it is older, and more hardened by heat; for it grows very hard in hot climates, accordingly as it is left open, or well preſerved. It may be kept freſher in cellars, or more moiſt ſubterraneous places. That of the Levant and of Judæa, which is commonly the neweſt or freſheſt, and conſequently the moſt liquid, ſeems to thoſe, who are not well acquainted with it, of a different kind, becauſe it is whiter, and ſofter. That which is old and thick is more yellow. Perhaps the Turky merchants are glad that it ſhould then be thought to come from Mecca, that they may ſell it the dearer on that account.

REMARKS.

It may be imagined, from this account of Monſieur Savary, that there ſtill comes balm from Egypt: but it is an error that ought to be exploded, according to Monſieur Maillet's account,

account, in his deſcription of Egypt. It was, ſays he, in the garden of Matarca, a large village near Cairo, that the famous balm grew, which entered into the compoſition of the chriſm which the Coptic Chriſtians uſed in the baptiſm of their children, the kind of which is now intirely loſt. It is not, however, quite 200 years ſince ſtems of it were ſtill to be ſeen, in a little cloſe of that garden, wherein a baſha of Egypt had cauſed them to be locked up, being perſuaded that this precious ſhrub deſerved a moſt particular care. Thoſe ſtems were not then above a foot high, and about an inch thick; and, indeed, it is ſaid that every where elſe the balm-trees are never thicker, and that they do not grow above two or three cubits high. From that weak ſtem ſhooted ſeveral ſmall twigs, very thin, garniſhed with leaves of a moſt beautiful green, which grow always in odd numbers upon every branch. The trunk, or ſtem, was incompaſſed with a double rind, or bark. The firſt or outward rind was of a reddiſh colour, covered another, much thinner, and perfectly green. Theſe two rinds taſted greatly of frankincenſe and turpentine, being bruiſed between the fingers, and ſmelled almoſt like cardamum. The wood, which thoſe two rinds covered, was white, and had no more taſte or ſmell than that of common trees. One particular remarkable in this ſhrub was, that it muſt be pruned or cut every year like the vine. It was, perhaps, in that ſeaſon that they gathered the precious juice, ſo much celebrated of old. Monſieur Maillet does not think that this balm was like that of Mecca; for the latter runs from the trees like all other reſinous matters, whereas the balm of Egypt was gathered after another manner.

As there is a private gentleman who has favoured the public with an account of the nature, uſe, and virtues of this balm, we preſume that the reader will not be diſpleaſed to meet with an extract of it in this place.

The method of preparing the balm of Mecca, commonly called White Balm, it's uſe and virtues.

The white balm diſtils and drops from a tree which grows between Medina and Mecca. The tree from which it drops is very ſcarce, which is the reaſon of the high price that this balm bears in Europe. That tree is ſomething like the turpentine-tree, and the liquor which iſſues from it ſmells like turpentine, but is more ſweet and pleaſant. That which drops from old trees is thicker than that which comes from young ones, but their effects are the ſame. When the liquor is not clear and tranſparent, it is often owing to the veſſels in which it was gathered and brought over; but it is never the worſe in point of quality.

This balm may be adulterated ſeveral ways; but then there are likewiſe ſeveral methods to find it out: we ſhall mention but one, which is plaineſt and ſafeſt.

In order to make that trial, you ſhould cauſe a drop or two of the liquid balm to fall into a glaſs full of clear water: if the drop goes to the bottom without riſing again to the ſurface of the water, or, if it continues in a drop, like oil, it is a proof that the balm is adulterated: if, on the contrary, it ſpreads upon the ſurface of the water like a very thin cobweb, ſcarce viſible to the eye, and, being congealed, it may be taken up with a pin, or ſmall ſtraw, the balm is pure and natural.

When the balm is too thick to be taken out of the bottle, you need only put it near the fire, the leaſt heat in the world eaſily liquefying it: care muſt be taken that the bottles be not quite full, leſt they ſhould break; for that liquor is very apt to rarify, and conſequently to increaſe it's volume, and ſo preſs hard againſt the glaſs.

The two chief uſes of white balm are, the one for health, and the other for beauty. It is the latter which properly raiſes the price of that liquor, becauſe of the pomatums and virginal milk that are made with it, for preſerving and beautifying the ladies complexion. However, we ſhall ſpeak here only of its medicinal uſe, and of the method of preparing the balm, either to apply it outwardly for the cure of wounds, or for taking it inwardly in potions or pills for ſeveral diſtempers: for the cure of which it is judged proper by eminent phyſicians.

This balm being taken inwardly, is eſteemed by many phyſicians, good in pains of the ſtomach, in the reins, the cholic, weakneſs in the lungs, and want of appetite. For all theſe ailments it is taken in pills; theſe pills are made, by pouring a few drops of balm into pulverized ſugar, more or leſs, according to the violence of the diſtemper, but never above four: they are rolled in the powder, till they be quite covered with it; in that condition, the patient ſwallows them, after which he muſt drink half a glaſs of red or white wine, ſome tea or coffee, or a baſon of broth. You may alſo put the balm into any liquor which you drink, but, as it is very clammy, is apt to ſtick to the teeth or the palate.

As for the cure of wounds, it is applied upon them, after they have been well waſhed with wine, taking care to bring the lips of the wound cloſe together, to prevent ſcars. It's effect is almoſt infallible, and ſucceeds commonly in leſs than 24 hours.

This balm is reckoned a ſure remedy for deafneſs, and is thought to cure it, by making a drop or two of it fall into the ear.

It has been found by experience to be good for the cure of ulcers, they being waſhed with warm wine, before the balm be applied to them.

Care muſt be taken always to uſe this balm, without putting it over the fire.

BALM of Peru. There are three ſorts of it, or, rather, they are but one and the ſame ſort under three different names. Theſe names are, the balm of inciſion, the dry balm, and the balm of lotion. They are all produced by the ſame tree, which does not grow very tall, and whoſe leaves are indented like thoſe of the nettle.

The balm of inciſion is a whitiſh and clammy roſin, which drops from the tree by an inciſion made into it, and afterwards thickens and becomes hard.

The dry balm is reddiſh, and diſtils from the end of the branches, the top of which is cut off, and to which they faſten little veſſels, called, in Peru, cochines and maracas; into theſe veſſels the liquor drops, which at firſt is as white as milk, and grows reddiſh only, becauſe it is expoſed to the ſun.

Finally, the balm of lotion is black. It is made of the bark, ſmall twigs, and leaves of the tree, cut, bruiſed, and boiled together.

The white balm of Peru is a ſovereign remedy for freſh wounds; for the cure of which no other ſalve has yet been uſed. It muſt be choſen very white, and, approaching near to the opo-balſamum, is often miſtaken for that.

The balm of Peru is ſold at Amſterdam, in pots or in bottles; it coſts generally there from 7 to 8 guilders per pound. The deduction for prompt payment is one per cent. and tare is allowed for the pots and the bottles.

The dry balm, in order to be of the beſt ſort, ought to be red, odoriferous, and very dry, as is hinted by it's name. It is chiefly uſed for making virginal milk, which is much better than that which they make of benzoin and ſtorax.

The balm of lotion is alſo uſed for the cure of wounds, like the white balm; and is pretty much valued by the perfumers, on account of it's excellent ſmell. It ought to be thick blackiſh, of a pleaſant ſcent, and not adulterated with oil of ſweet almonds.

Some authors would make us believe, that on the banks of the river of the Amazons there grows a plant called copayba, which produces a balm much ſuperior to that of the Levant and Peru.

It is the ſame with the copaii mentioned hereafter; for to make two ſorts of balm of them is a miſtake, ariſing only from the different manner of ſpelling that word in different languages.

Beſides theſe two ſorts of balm of the Levant and of Peru, which muſt be looked upon as the only true ſorts, the druggiſts ſell alſo balm of capaii, balm of Tolu, balm ſtiled liquid amber, and a fourth ſort, which they call new balm.

The balm of copaii, otherwiſe copaïf, and campaïf or copahu, comes from Braſil and Guiana. It is ſent from Portugal into France, in earthen bottles, pointed at one end. It is to be met with in plenty at the druggiſts in Holland, where it is called copaiva. It is in the form of oil, either clear or thick. The former ſort is clear and white, and of a reſinous ſcent. The latter inclines a little more to the yellow, or gold colour. It is an excellent remedy for the cure of wounds.

This balm is a great deal better than that which comes from the coaſt of Carraccas. It is the ſame in effect, though leſs liable to be mixed with other ſorts of oil, which increaſe it's quantity, and conſequently leſſen its virtues. The Indians of Guiana and Peru are probably more honeſt than thoſe of Carraccas. For it is obſerved, that the balm of the latter is clearer, not of ſo deep a colour, and leſs odoriferous; which perhaps is owing to it's being mixed with ſome other oil, or to it's being extracted by many inciſions made in the trees at the time the ſap was riſing; whereas that of Guiana (when not yet ſtale, which makes it grow yellow and thick) is naturally of a deeper and higher colour; it's ſcent is more aromatic, and it's effects are quicker and more certain and efficacious. This is extracted from the Chevalier des Marchais's voyages to Guiana, (in French) Tom. III. page 24.

This ſame balm was at firſt in very great repute, but it is far from being ſo excellent as that of the Levant. It was thought a ſpecific medicine for the gonorrhœa; but it is certain, according to a great many phyſicians, that in thoſe caſes it did more harm than good, by it's etherial and heating quality. The Engliſh and Dutch begin alſo to be undeceived, as to the ill uſe they have made of it. The plant which produces this balm, may grow on the banks of the Amazon river, as well as in Brazil, ſince thoſe two countries are very near each other. This obſervation, with that on the error of the different names of this balm, and that on the balm of the Levant and of Mecca, were made by Monſieur Garcin.

The balm of Tolu is a liquid roſin, which, as it grows old, becomes, both in conſiſtency and colour, like Flanders glue newly made. It drops alſo by inciſion from ſome trees, which grow in New Spain, where the inhabitants receive it in ſmall veſſels made of black wax. This balm is very

ſcarce in France, but they may have it imported thither from England. In order to be good, it ought to be freſh, of an agreeable and penetrating ſcent, pretty much like the balm of Judæa. As it grows old, it becomes of the conſiſtency of the dry balm.

The balm, ſtiled liquid amber, is a clear and reddiſh roſin, which comes from certain trees in New Spain, which are called oçoçol by the natives. The bark of thoſe trees is very thick, and their leaves like thoſe of ivy.

This balm is called liquid amber alſo, becauſe it very much reſembles ambergreaſe, and the beſt ought to have the ſame ſcent: beſides which, it ought to be clear, and of a yellowiſh colour inclining to gold, when new, but reddiſh, when old.

The new balm is liquid, and is called oil of liquid amber; that which is old is thick, and is ſtiled balm of liquid amber. They both come from Spain in barrels. It is at preſent as ſcarce in France, as it was common formerly. This balm is an excellent remedy for the cure of wounds, and eſpecially of a fiſtula in ano.

They ſometimes ſell oil of St John's wort, or of chamomile, inſtead of oil of liquid amber. We mention the oil of chamomile under the article of OIL. As for that of St John's wort, which may be ſtiled a true balm, after it has been made for ſome time, it is compoſed of the flowers of St John's wort, and olive-oil expoſed to the ſun during the great heat of the dog-days. The beſt is that, to which fine turpentine and ſaffron is added.

The new balm, which is ſo ſcarce in France, that hardly any thing of it is known there but it's name, and which is not to be met with, but in the ſhops of ſome curious druggiſts, comes pretty near the balm of Tolu, both in ſmell and colour. It is ſqueezed after the ſame manner as oil of laurel, and is extracted from ſmall red berries, which are found common enough in the iſle of St Domingo. They grow in cluſters or bunches upon trees, the leaves of which are very broad and long, extremely green on the outſide, but only a little greeniſh in the inſide. They tell wonders of that balm, but it's reputation is, perhaps, owing to it's ſcarcity only.

There is a mineral balm found in a mine in Italy, upon which F. Caſtagna, a jeſuit, publiſhed his obſervations and experiments in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, for the year 1697, No. 79. art. 3. The reader may alſo ſee in the ſame Tranſactions, for the year 1666, No. 8. art. 4, an obſervation upon the mineral balm, found in Alſace.

Monſieur Geoffroy, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, having ſet fire to ſome natural balms, ſuch as thoſe of Capaii and Mecca, obſerved, that, being burned, they ſpread into the air a perfume, which, being weakened to a certain degree, becomes very ſweet, extends very far, and continues a pretty long while. It is chiefly the balm of Capaii, that has that agreeable property. See the Memoirs of that academy for the year 1726.

White balm is reckoned one of thoſe merchandizes that come from the Levant, from Barbary, and other countries and territories under the dominion of the Grand Seignior, the king of Perſia, and Italy; upon which it is ordered in France to raiſe a duty of twenty per cent. of their value, according to a decree of the council of the 15th of Auguſt 1685.

BAMBOE, or BAMBOU, as they ſpell that word in the Indies, and not bamboue. It is a plant which multiplies very much by it's root, from which ſprings a ramous or branchy tuft, after the manner of ſome gramina, or, to ſpeak more naturally, after the manner of the European reeds; for the bamboe is of the kind of reeds, as well as the ſugar-cane. The Indian bamboe is the largeſt kind of cane that is known. It is of an extraordinary heighth and bigneſs, when it bears it's bloſſom: each ſhoot or cane is often, towards the bottom, of the bigneſs of a man's thigh, and decreaſes gradually to the top, where it bears a bloſſom or flower, like our reeds, in their proper ſeaſon. The bamboe grows in all the maritime countries of the Eaſt-Indies. Monſieur Lemery calls it a tree, whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of the olive-tree. But John Bauhin, from whom he has extracted his deſcription, has miſled him: for it is not a tree, though it grows very high, even to 20 or 25 feet, and ſometimes to 30. It's leaves are like thoſe of other canes or reeds, except that they are not ſo long nor ſo broad at their baſe, as thoſe of the other kinds: they are but half a foot long, and their breadth, towards the middle, is an inch, or ſomething more. With theſe canes of bamboe the Indians build their houſes, and make all ſorts of furniture, in a very ingenious manner. The wood of theſe canes is ſo hard and ſtrong, that they ſerve very well to make piles for ſupporting their little houſes, built over rivers, which have a gentle courſe, as if it were over ſlanting waters. They alſo make with this wood all ſorts of utenſils for their kitchens and tables. The thickeſt bamboes ſerve to make the ſticks or poles, with which the ſlaves or other perſons carry thoſe ſorts of litters, which are called palanquins, and are of ſo common an uſe, and ſo convenient in all the eaſt. They likewiſe make of that wood a kind of pails, in which the water keeps extremely cool. The walking-canes which we ſee in Europe, are the firſt and ſmalleſt ſhoots of the bamboes. The Malays and thoſe Chineſe, who are diſperſed in the Moluccos and Sunda iſles, uſe the young ſmall ſhoots of the bamboes preſerved in vinegar after their manner, with very ſtrong or peppered ingredients. This they call achior-bamboe. For they give the name of achior to all that is preſerved in vinegar, and, to diſtinguiſh it, they add to that name of achior that of the thing preſerved. See ACHIA. Two pieces of bamboe of a certain bigneſs, being rubbed hard againſt each other after a certain manner, will produce fire; and, when the Indians cannot get any by other means, they obtain it that way.

BAMFFSHIRE, in Scotland, is ſeparated on the ſouth from that part of Buchan, which belongs to Aberdeenſhire, by the water of Ugie; on the eaſt it has the water of Dovern, and the German ocean; on the weſt the water of Spey, and the county of Murray; on the ſouth-weſt it has Badenoch, and the Brae of Mar; and on the north, Murray Frith.

The climate and ſoil are much the ſame, as in Aberdeenſhire. The chief places here, are,

1. CULLEN, a good market-town and ancient royal burgh, on the coaſt of the Frith of Murray, and the capital of that little diſtrict called Boyne, which is fruitful on the coaſt, but elſewhere mountainous, with large quarries of ſpotted marble.
2. BAMFF, on the ſame coaſt, at the mouth of the Dovern, is a county-town, and royal burgh, but has little trade, except from it's corn and ſalmon-fiſhing, the townſmen being fonder of tillage than of commerce.
3. FRAZERBURG, a ſea-port on the coaſt of Murray Frith, reckoned the chief town of the diſtrict of Buchan. It has an excellent pier and bulwark, which renders it as ſafe and commodious as any on the eaſt coaſt; ſo that 30 ſail of ſhipping may ſecurely winter here at a time. The water, at full ſea, is 18 or 20 feet.
4. BALVENY, is a mountainous diſtrict, on the weſt-ſide of the ſhire, upon the river Spey, abounding with paſture and wood, and particularly noted for a rock that is productive of hones, and whetſtones enough to ſerve the whole iſland; ſo that the people here cover their houſes with them inſtead of ſlate. Here are alſo found veins of that ſtone, of which they make allum, and here are ſprings of allum-water.
5. STRATHYLA, to the north-eaſt of Balveny, is fruitful in corn and graſs, and has ſuch plenty of lime-ſtone, that they build their houſes with it. The inhabitants are conſiderable gainers by ſelling their lime for cattle and fine linnen-yarn, at a weekly market, in the village of Keith, on the river Dovern.
6. STRATHAVIN, is on the river Avin, falls into the Spey, which is more inclined to paſture than corn.

BAN, a ſort of ſmooth and fine muſlin, which the Engliſh import from the Eaſt-Indies. The piece is almoſt a yard broad, and runs about 20 yards and a half.

BAN, or BANN, is, according to Mr. Savary, an old Saxon word, which ſignifies to baniſh, proſcribe, or outlaw a perſon, to interdict him of water and fire, a puniſhment formerly in uſe among the Romans; to condemn a man for contumacy, that is, for default or want of appearance, if his perſon cannot be come at. In this ſenſe they ſay, to put a man or a prince to the ban of the empire; that is to ſay, to baniſh him, or cut him off from being a member of the empire. At Paris, a rogue whoſe crime is not capital, is condemned to go out of the city, county, and provoſtſhip, for a certain number of years, and he is commanded to keep his ban, or baniſhment, under ſuch and ſuch penalties.

Others are of opinion, that ban is a Britiſh word, which ſignifies noiſe and clamour. Others derive it from the Saxon pan, which ſignifies any thing that is ſpread; and hence the words ban and band are taken for a flag.

BAN, in general, is ſaid of a public cry or proclamation. Hence the notice given publickly of the ſale of ſome merchandizes, is called ban in French, eſpecially when the notice is given by beat of drum. They alſo uſe the ſame word for the public cry of loſt goods, with a reward offered for the recovery of them. We have kept the word ban, or banns, in our language, to ſignify a proclamation made at the head of a body or troop, by the ſound of trumpet, or beat of drum, for the obſerving of martial diſcipline; as alſo to give a ſolemn notice of marriage contracts, made in the pariſh churches of the contracting parties.

BANCO, an Italian word which ſignifies bank. It is commonly uſed to ſignify the bank of Venice.

BAND, a ſmall weight of about two ounces, uſed in ſome parts of the coaſt of Guinea, to weigh gold-duſt.

BANIANS, the Dutch write BENJANS, a kind of Indians diſperſed over all Aſia, through whoſe hands paſſes almoſt the whole trade which the Europeans carry on in thoſe parts. They are the third ſect of the heathens who dwell in the Eaſt-Indies. The Banians and the Chineſe are the greateſt traders in the Indies, to whom muſt alſo be added the Jews and the Armenians, who are greatly diſperſed over thoſe parts. But the moſt conſiderable trade is carried on by the Banians, in the whole peninſula on this ſide the Ganges. They are extremely ſkilful and cunning in commerce. What Furetiere tells us of the Banians, relates to almoſt all the ſects of the Indians, or heathens in thoſe parts. He has extracted it from an inaccurate hiſtory, written by Henry Lloyd,

an Engliſhman. The Banians may be ranked with the Armenians and the Jews, for their experience and ſkill in all kinds of commerce.

There are a great many Banians in Perſia, and eſpecially at Iſpahan and Bender-Abaſſi; the chief of them are very rich, but their riches do not hinder them from applying themſelves to trades, even the meaneſt, if any thing is to be got by them. Moſt of them follow brokerage; and moſt of the brokers of the Engliſh, Dutch, and French companies, are of that nation. For the reſt, they are very honeſt, and have almoſt conſtantly in their hands the ſtock and caſh of thoſe companies.

They are likewiſe bankers, and there are few places in the Eaſt-Indies, for which they cannot furniſh bills of exchange. They have alſo a ſort of ſtanding caſh or bank, where perſons may depoſit their money, and take it out again whenever they pleaſe.

BANKING, (according to Savary) is a traffic or commerce in money, which is remitted from place to place, from one city to another, by correſpondents, and by means of bills of exchange.

The word bank is ſaid by ſome to be derived from the Italian banca, which comes from banco, a bench, becauſe formerly, in all the trading cities of Italy, banking was publickly exerciſed in open places or exchanges, where all thoſe who carried on that trade, had ſeats or benches, on which they uſed to ſit down to reckon their money, and write their bills of exchange.

Some authors add, that, when a merchant happened to fail, they uſed to break his bench, either as a mark of infamy, or to put another in it's ſtead: and they pretend, that, from the breaking of the bench, come the words of bankrupt and bankruptcy.

In France, it is not requiſite that a man be a merchant, in order to carry on banking: for that trade is permitted to all ſorts of perſons, and even to foreigners. Hereby is meant foreign banking, or dealing by exchange.

In Italy, the trade of banking does not derogate from nobility, eſpecially in the republics; which is the reaſon, why moſt of the younger ſons of the quality apply themſelves to that employment, in order to ſupport their families. And, indeed, it is certain, that the noblemen of that country, and particularly of Venice and Genoa, are thoſe, who for many ages paſt have been the chief bankers in France, as well as in the other countries of Europe.

Remarks on Banks and Banking.

It cannot be doubted but that the beginning of traffic was by exchanging one commodity for another, as men could beſt ſuit each other's occaſions.

But the neceſſities of men being ſo various and different, in reſpect of the quantity and quality of requiſites, money was inſtituted as the moſt convenient medium for commerce, whereby people might procure whatſoever they ſtood in need of in quantities, according to their exigencies.

This changed the term of bartering into that of buying and ſelling; yet all trading, at length, reſults into nothing but a general barter. For, he that ſells any thing to receive money for it, purchaſes again ſuch things as he requires with the ſame money.

Money then becoming the principal engine for circulating the bulk of commerce, it's application to trade is proper to be conſidered.

Money is uſed in the minuter kinds of dealings, as retailing, &c. when it is commuted for all kinds of labour, and to furniſh the neceſſary proviſions for daily uſe. This requires it's being divided into the ſmalleſt denominations of the ſpecies, as into ſhillings and pence: ſo that this way of dealing is not capable of being tranſacted by bills and aſſignments.

Money is alſo employed in the more extenſive and wholeſale way of trading, wherein large ſums are negociated; and this occaſions frequent payments from one trader to another.

In which payments, although, ſtrictly ſpeaking, ready caſh be required, as often as contracts are made; yet, as commerce in general conſiſts in the mutual dealings and tranſactions of many traders, it may often ſo fall out, by means of interchangeable debts and credits, that divers traders may ſatisfy each other's occaſions without making any payments in ſpecie, by transferring their debts to each other: whence came that uſeful accommodation in traffic, of giving bills and aſſignments, which is commonly called paper credit. For the clearer underſtanding whereof, we may give the following inſtance of the mutual dependencies of trade.

The Turky merchant, we'll ſuppoſe, buys cloth of the clothier; the clothier buys wool of the Spaniſh merchant; the Spaniſh merchant buys ſugar and ginger, &c. of the Weſt-India merchant; the Weſt-India merchant buys ſtuffs and ſilks of the mercer; the mercer buys wrought ſilks of the ſilk-weaver; and the ſilk-weaver buys ſilk of the Turky merchant; and each of theſe deal to the value of 200 l. or upwards. In this caſe, all theſe tranſactions may be carried on without money. The Turky merchant gives the clothier a bill for 200 l. on the ſilk-weaver; the clothier gives the ſame bill in payment to the Spaniſh merchant; he gives it to the Weſt-India merchant; he again gives it to the mercer; and laſtly, the mercer delivers up the bill to the ſilk-weaver, in diſcharge of ſo much of his debt to him: and thus ſix traders are all ſatisfied their reſpective debts, without the actual payment of any money: which likewiſe illuſtrates, that trade is but a general barter.

But, when ſuch mutual conveniencies do not occur, traders uſually receive their money in ſpecie, and ſo pay it from one to another.

Yet this way of payment is attended with many inconveniencies, as the trouble in counting of the money, hazard in ſecuring it from the attempts of robbers, and loſs from truſting it with unfaithful ſervants: for the prevention of all which, cities of large commerce have very naturally introduced the uſe of banks.

A bank then may be properly defined a common repoſitory, where many perſons agree to keep their caſh, to be always ready at their call or direction.

We are farther to conſider, that there are banks of various kinds, and different in the nature of their conſtitutions and eſtabliſhments.

Some are inſtituted wholly on the public account, and put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who are obliged to take ſuch care of the management, that the money or bullion depoſited therein, ſhall always be kept for the uſe of the proprietors, and ſhall never be let out for profit or advantage; of this kind is the famous bank of Amſterdam, which is adminiſtered with ſo great a ſtrictneſs and fidelity, that it is ſaid, a magiſtrate, who was one of the directors of it, was ſentenced to death, for making uſe of a ſum of money but for one day, though he paid it in the next. Wherefore, from an opinion the proprietors entertain of the equity of it's adminiſtration, they judge themſelves ſo ſecure, that their money lies always ready to anſwer their demands, that they ſeldom draw out large ſums, but make their mutual payments, by transferring the ſums from one man's account to another: and from this great eaſe and convenience it is come to paſs, that payments made by aſſignments on this bank are valued from 3 to 5 and 6 per cent. above the payment of money in ſpecie, which difference, between the bank and current money, is called the agio.

A ſecond ſort of banks is ſuch as conſiſt of a company of monied men, who, being duly eſtabliſhed and incorporated by the laws of their country, agree to depoſit a conſiderable fund or joint ſtock, to be employed for the profit and advantage of the whole ſociety, in all thoſe ways of dealing, which are compatible with the nature of ſuch an undertaking; as borrowing upon their own credit, and lending money upon good ſecurities; buying and ſelling bullion gold and ſilver, and foreign ſpecie; diſcounting bills of exchange, or other ſecure debts; receiving and paying the caſh of other traders; of which kind is the bank of England.

A third ſort is the banks of private men, or partnerſhips, who deal in the ſame way as the former, upon their own ſingle ſtock or credit; and ſuch are the Lombard-ſtreet, or other bankers, as they are called.

As to the firſt kind, 'tis certain, that nothing can be ſo infallibly ſafe, as where the value is always kept ready in ſpecie; and here alſo the eaſe and ſecurity of traders are effectually provided for, in the receipts and payments of their money: but yet this kind of bank is ſo much the leſs uſeful to the public, as it can neither be helpful to the government on emergencies, nor to traders, in accommodating them with money.

The ſecurity of the ſecond kind conſiſts in the certain knowlege of it's fund, or ſtock, the ſolidity of it's inſtitution, and the incorruptible fidelity of it's management; wherein it is always the intereſt of the concerned to give the public the utmoſt ſatisfaction: and, in this reſpect, the bank of England muſt be ſecure beyond all apprehenſion to the contrary, as well by reaſon of the great ſums they have lent the government upon the faith of a Britiſh parliament, which is ſufficient always to keep them above all ſuſpicion of failure, as from the known ſkilful and profitable management of thoſe who have been ſucceſſively concerned in the direction. Beſides, as an incorporated body, they are not, like private men, ſubject to death. And, as this kind of bank has all the conveniencies of the former, it has alſo this beyond it, that it's capacity of lending money is an invaluable accommodation to the community, ſince it will always have a tendency to the keeping low the intereſt of money, and being an effectual and permanent check to uſury, which is the greateſt bane to our trade and navigation.

The nature of the third kind is, in all reſpects, the ſame with the ſecond, but much ſhort of it in point of ſecurity, becauſe the ability and integrity of private men in trade, are things whereof the public can have no certain aſſurance, being only founded upon opinion, and the appearance that men make in the world: and, as it is very natural for private men to be tempted with ſpecious views of profit and advantage, ſo they are frequently induced to launch out beyond the power of their own ſtock, and to hazard the eſtates of their creditors: whereby, when they come to ſuſtain loſs

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and diſappointments in their dealings, they not only bring ruin upon themſelves, but involve many others in the like calamity, who have entruſted them with the keeping of their money: of this we have ſeen but too many examples.

It muſt, however, be acknowledged, that the man of judgment and ſagacity, as well as ſteady honour and honeſty, may as ſecurely be truſted in this capacity with the greateſt treaſure as any body of people whatſoever; and that there are ſuch gentlemen among thoſe who are concerned in this way of banking, we have had large experience; and eſpecially in that great time of famine (if we may ſo call it) whilſt the money was recoining in King William's reign, when ſeveral of the private bankers, and to their eternal honour be it remembered, managed their affairs with ſuch penetration and integrity, that they continued to make their payments, and maintained their credit, even beyond the bank of England at that time. Whence 'tis apparent, that private banking alſo is of great utility and convenience in trading cities; and, indeed, is as neceſſary a check upon the bank, as the latter is upon them, to prevent high intereſt, and exorbitant premiums of any kind, as well to the government as the public.

By what has been ſaid, it may ſufficiently appear, that nothing but ready money can be a proper foundation for a bank; that the ſecond kind is the moſt uſeful and extenſive, to all the conveniencies of the public, and of commerce; and that it's buſineſs is to keep the caſh of traders, or others, to deal in bullion, exchanges, and diſcounts, and to lend upon ſecurities, but upon none but ſuch as are morally certain, and for ſhort time of payment; or which, upon occaſion, may be readily exchanged again for money: on the contrary, that ſuch a bank ought never to purchaſe or lend money upon lands, as well becauſe of the hazards of titles, as of the tediouſneſs and uncertainty of repayments: leaſt of all ſhould a bank deal in merchandize, becauſe of the riſque of adventuring, the dubiouſneſs of profits, and the length of time for returns: it ought, indeed, to be always ſtrictly reſtrained from the buying and ſelling merchantable commodities, by reaſon of the great injury which might thereby ariſe to trade in general, from an uncontroulable monopoly.

It may be here requiſite to take notice of that erroneous notion entertained by ſome, that banks and bankers engroſs the money, hoard it up, and hinder it's circulation in trade; but, if ſuch will conſider this matter in it's true light, they will eaſily be convinced, that the money lodged in banks, and in the hands of bankers, is the moſt conſtantly employed of any; for, though the ſpecie ſhould lie ſtill 'till called for, yet the notes given out for it's value, are continually circulating; whereby is done abundantly more ſervice to trade, than if the ſame lay dormant in private hands; and yet the neceſſities of the depoſitors are effectually anſwered.

Nor ſhould we omit obſerving the miſtake of thoſe, who have imagined, that lands ſettled to a competent value, might be erected into a bank, and would become ſo certain and reputable a fund, that, if bills were iſſued to the value of above three times the uſual purchaſe of the lands, they might obtain a currency, upon the aſſurance, that, two thirds of the clear rents of the lands paying off yearly ſuch a proportion of the bills, the whole number of them would be paid off and ſunk in 100 years. Or, to render this more intelligible; that lands of 150 l. per ann. being ſettled upon a land-bank for the payment of 100 l. clear every year, bills for 10,000 l. might be iſſued thereupon, whereof 100 l. being diſcharged yearly, the whole would be cleared, and the land revert to the proprietor, at the end of 100 years; and it has been ſuppoſed practicable, with the help of a little circulating money, to give theſe bills ſuch a currency at the firſt, as to induce the public, in a little time, to eſteem them as money, becauſe they would all certainly be paid in time.

We might well ſuppoſe, that the abſurdity of this project was at firſt ſight too evident to deceive mankind, had we not experienced, that many people were once drawn in to ſquander away their money, upon an attempt to put this imaginary ſcheme into practice: it may not, therefore, be time miſpent, if, while we are on this ſubject, we detect the fallacy of this notion, in order to guard the public from being again impoſed on by ſuch chimera's.

Let it then be conſidered, that all things bought and ſold are valued at a certain price, ſtandard, or meaſure, in reſpect to the current money of the country.

Thoſe commodities, which are called ſtaple, have a pretty certain eſtabliſhed price; from which, they rarely vary much for a ſeries of years, unleſs on extraordinary occaſions: ſuch as lead about 1 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ a pound, or gold, reckoned, about 4 l. per ounce, and the lands of England valued, on an average, at about 20 years purchaſe; which makes 150 l. per ann. worth 3000 l. and an annuity of 100 l. per ann. for 100 years, ſecured to be paid by lands of a competent value, may be eſteemed at about 1900 l.

The firſt principle, in dealing, is to know the worth and value of commodities; and no man will give more for a thing than he eſteems it worth.

As money then is the medium of commerce, and as bills, of whatſoever kind, are always to be taken as ſo much money, (being only intended, as has been already ſhewn, to excuſe the frequent receiving and paying it) any perſon not intereſted in ſuch a bank, who takes 10,000 l. value in their bills, either buys them or receives them in payment for ſo much due to him, and is ſure, that neither he nor his aſſignees can ever receive more for them, than 100 l. per ann. for 100 years ſucceſſively; and he that will give 10,000 l. for ſuch an annuity, which might have been purchaſed for about 1900 l. would have been accounted as wiſe, as he that would have given 5 s. per lb. for lead, or 20 l. per ounce for gold, or 166 years purchaſe of lands.

The miſtake of this project ſeems to ariſe from an imagination, that becauſe 'tis common for trading banks to obtain ſo great a credit, that their bills may paſs through many hands, before they come to be paid; whereby a great running credit in their bills may be circulated with a far leſs ſum in money; that therefore this land-bank alſo would in time arrive to the ſame reputation.

This confidence may ſeem to be confirmed, from the further obſervation, that young tradeſmen are frequently truſted with goods to two or three times the value of their own proper ſtock or worth; wherefore, it may be neceſſary to conſider the difference of theſe two kinds of credit.

He that ſells goods upon credit, always makes ſuch a price as ſhall ſufficiently compenſate for the time of the truſt, and from thence ariſes a principal part of his gain; but then he ſo orders his affairs, that the money conſtantly coming in from his debtors, may be ſufficient to anſwer all demands of his creditors, whereupon his own reputation depends. Now, if this tradeſman, for ſaving the trouble of receiving and paying money, lodges his money in a bank, expecting no intereſt or profit thereon; 'tis in confidence, that it lies always as ready there to anſwer his note at demands, as if it lay at home in his own coffers in caſh: and he is very ſenſible, that, if he meets with any diſappointment in this, he hazards his own credit.

But banks gain their credit from their exactneſs and punctuality, in being ever ready to pay off all their bills, as faſt as they are demanded; from whence people entertain an opinion, that either they keep the greateſt part of their money always by them, or at leaſt that they deal ſo warily, as to be able to command it all upon ſhort warning. But the tradeſman gives large credit to his debtor, becauſe he gains by it; and though he truſts his money to the keeping of the bank, yet it may not be ſaid that he gives credit to it in the ſame ſenſe as he does to the former, becauſe he always depends upon having his money, every moment, to anſwer his emergencies.

And thus, though traders will ever eſteem the bills of thoſe banks equal with ready money, when they believe the ſtock is always ſufficient to pay them off on demand; yet they will never be perſuaded to accept bills, as current payment, from ſuch a bank as this we are ſpeaking of, where they are ſure before-hand, that the fund propoſed is ſo far deficient, as not to be worth one fifth part of the value which is to be iſſued out in bills.

There are ſome, however, that have propoſed a much more rational ſcheme for the conſtituting of what they would call a land-bank, which is by ſettling a competent value in lands, to remain as a fixed fund of credit for the undertaking, and to raiſe thereon a conſiderable ſum of money, to lie always ready for the circulating of their bills: but, if we ſhall ſtrictly examine this alſo, it will be found, perhaps, that lands can neither be fitly applied in this way. For,

We are to obſerve, that trading banks may make uſe of their credit in a twofold manner: the one is, as they borrow for a certain time, on condition to pay intereſt for it: the other is, when they take upon them the truſt of keeping other people's money, for which they give their bills payable at demand. For the latter, a middling fund or ſtock may be ſufficient, as we ſee by the large credit frequently given to young bankers, from an opinion of the prudence and honour of the men: for the former there ought always to be a viſible fund, amply competent for the lender to ground his ſecurity upon.

But, as no one will ſay that land alone is a practicable fund for a bank, without a proportionate ſum of money conjoined with it, we ſhall obtain a clearer view of this point, if we conſider the reaſon why land alone can never be a competent ſecurity for a bank.

Land and money are the two mighty ſources from whence property increaſes, and improvements of property flow; and, though they both fall into the ocean of wealth or riches, yet they glide through different channels. Land produces it's increaſe by cultivation, but always remains fixed and immoveable: money, on the contrary, gains nothing by lying ſtill, but makes it's increaſe and improvement by being continually employed in trade, and toſſed from hand to hand. Land, for the moſt part, takes up the whole year for the bringing about it's return, but money may be returned ten or twenty times in the year: whence it may naturally be inferred, that the profits ariſing from the employment of money, muſt be much greater than from the produce of land.

Thoſe who are buſy in trade, and know how to employ their whole ſtock, have often occaſion to borrow money,

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but never think of purchaſing lands, or letting out their money at intereſt; and 'tis ſuch who uſually keep their caſh in banks, where it may be ready at their call: but, when men grow rich, and weary of buſineſs, they incline to lay out their money in lands, and to lend it upon proper ſecurities; they ſeldom deal with banks, unleſs they buy ſtock, becauſe, as they have no ſudden occaſions for their money, they chuſe to let it lie out long upon good ſecurity, aiming at higher intereſt than banks uſually give.

Suppoſe a trader takes the bill of this kind of land-bank, and wants the money to divide into leſſer payments, but, when he comes to receive it, is told by the manager of the bank, that, at preſent, they can only pay him the intereſt; and for the principal he may be confident that it is ſecured by as good lands, and as ſafe a title, as any in England; the trader may well anſwer, that his dealing is not in uſury, and that, if he cannot have the money, when he wants it, to ſupply his daily occaſions in trade, he is not able to carry on his buſineſs, which is much more profitable to him than the intereſt of money, or rents of lands; and, therefore, that he will return the bill, and never meddle with any more of the like. Thus 'tis plain that a bank of lands can never prove effectual, without a ſufficient fund of money to ſupport it.

Let us ſee in what light this matter will appear, when it is furniſhed with a ſtock of money; and ſuppoſe that lands to the value of one million are ſettled for the fund of a bank, upon the credit whereof bills bearing intereſt are given out to voluntary lenders, for 750,000 l. which is to the utmoſt uſual extent of the ſecurity; and this ſhall be the money-ſtock, provided for the circulation of the bills.

And if the managers ſhall act ſo equitably as to extend their credit no further in dealing than is adequate to their capital, does not ſuch a bank become as perfect a money-bank as any other, and the lands no otherwiſe concerned than as if ſo much money were borrowed in the common way of mortgage? for it is manifeſt that the lands would have no manner of operation in ſuch like negociations.

But, if they ſhall adventure to extend their credit beyond the power of this money-capital, and that to ſuch a degree as to have any dependence on the remaining value of the lands, this will be effectually the ſame thing as mortgaging the lands twice over; and, as the man who ſhould do this would incur the cenſure of being a knave, people would avoid dealing with him; ſo, if the bank ſhould be diſcovered in this practice, all people would ſoon withdraw their credit; and, though it ſhould not be diſcovered, the action is nevertheleſs diſhoneſt, becauſe there is a poſſibility that a general demand may fall upon the bank, and then ſuch traders who happen to come toward the latter end, muſt at beſt content themſelves with land ſecurity, when ſuch a diſappointment of the ready money happens as they had provided for the making of their own payments: this may prove of that fatal conſequence to ſome as to deſtroy their credit, and ruin their families.

Upon the whole, men may, if they think fit, mortgage their landed eſtates for the raiſing of money to be employed in banking; and with that money they may eſtabliſh a competent fund for a reputable bank; but 'till they can find a way to toſs lands from hand to hand, and divide them into as many particles as they can do a bag of money, lands cannot honeſtly be brought to bear any ſhare of the banking trade, in the light we have been conſidering the matter: whence we may with ſome confidence conclude, that nothing elſe ought to be underſtood of a bank but that it is a repoſitory of caſh, or other ſtaple moveable treaſure; and that therefore, no other fund can fitly be applied to banking except real ready money, or what is always capable readily to produce it.

Although it may appear, at firſt view of this ſubject, that lands and money might be united in the conſtitution of a bank, yet, from the conſideration of the different natures, qualities, and accidents of thoſe two ſubjects, it is apparent that their improvements are made by ſuch different ways as are peculiar to each, and that, therefore, they can never be capable of being blended and conſolidated into one and the ſame application, with regard to commerce; and yet it muſt be acknowledged, that, when the reſt of this nation ſhall grow ſo wiſe as to imitate the Weſt Riding of the county of York, by inſtituting a general regiſtry for the ſecuring of titles, the lands of England will be brought to the neareſt capacity of reſembling ready money, that the nature of the ſubject can admit: and, if ever ſuch a national land-bank as we have been ſpeaking of ſhould take place, this is the preparatory ſtep which alone could eſtabliſh it.

Further Remarks on Banking.

Let us ſuppoſe a goldſmith, or a banker, ſets up for keeping people's caſh for them upon notes, payable on demand; if an hundred gentlemen, or land-proprietors, who keep a proviſion by them of money, lodge it in ſuch bankers hands, and take out ſuch part of it as they occaſionally require, but replace it when their rents come in: if theſe ſums amount to 100,000 ounces of ſilver, it may happen that not above 10,000 ounces of the whole money ſhall be wanted, or called for out of the goldſmith's hands during the whole year; and, if he has credit enough to raiſe money upon exigencies, he may commonly venture to lend out at intereſt 90,000 ounces all the year round, and not keep above one tenth part of the ſums he gave his notes for, in his hands, to anſwer the calls upon him: by which means 90,000 ounces, which would otherwiſe have been kept up during the year, will circulate in traffic.

If an hundred gentlemen put all their rents, as they receive them, into a goldſmith's hand, and only draw weekly for the common expences of their families; and if the ſums amount to 100,000 ounces of ſilver per quarter; the goldſmith will be able to lend out more money for a ſhort time in the beginning of the quarter, than towards the end of it; and he can only afford to lend out for the whole year ſo much as he finds by experience is left in his hands at the end of every quarter.

If the perſons who keep money in the goldſmith's hands are undertakers, or dealers in buſineſs, who commonly put in large ſums, and as commonly draw them ſoon out of his hands, to anſwer the demands of their buſineſs; ſuch goldſmith will often find, that, if he lends two-thirds of his caſh, the demands upon him will exceed the one-third he has in his hands; and ſo he muſt haſtily re-borrow money at diſadvantage, to anſwer thoſe calls; and, therefore, experience will ſhew him, that he cannot prudently venture to lend out above one half of the caſh, for which he has given his notes.

From theſe examples it is apparent, that the quantity of money a goldſmith may be able to lend out of his caſh, is proportionable to the methods of acting of thoſe who depoſit their money in his hands. Whence it follows, that one goldſmith may be able to lend out $\frac{9}{10}$, when another cannot afford to lend out $\frac{1}{2}$; and this may be the caſe, though we ſuppoſe the credit of both equally good.

A well-conſtituted national bank having a better reputation than a private goldſmith, the largeſt ſums, and ſuch as are not ſoon called for, are commonly lodged there. If the national bank makes payments, and keeps money upon transfers, as that of Amſterdam, Venice, &c. it is safer than bank-bills becauſe theſe may be falſified; but it is not ſo generally convenient, becauſe the attendance on the transfer-books is troubleſome, and many will take bank-bills in payment who would not be at the trouble of going to the bank for a transfer: beſides, payments in bank-notes may be made in the country, but the transfers require being on the ſpot.

Money is only neceſſary in barter, where men of buſineſs are ſo concerned that payments by evaluation may anſwer, in moſt caſes, and in thoſe of minute payments, as for eating, drinking, cloathing, &c. The building of a houſe alſo requires ready money for the weekly payment of the workmen employed in it.

Let us ſuppoſe that 10,000 ounces of ſilver have been laid out in building of the ſaid houſe: if the undertaker who built it, and laid out that money, letts it for 500 ounces a year, he ſhall, in 20 years, get in his original money, in ſmall payments, which he laid out for the common ſuſtenance of his family; but, if he ſells the houſe for 10,000 ounces, may be paid in bank-bills, and in bank-transfers, but need not be paid any part in money, till it is wanted for eating, drinking, cloathing, &c. for himſelf and family, or for thoſe to whom he aſſigns it. If he lays it out in a mortgage, the payment may be made in bank-bills, or transfers, and no part is required in money till it is turned ſomewhere to minute payments, for family neceſſaries.

The gentleman who borrows money on his eſtate, if it be to pay great debts, will alſo make payment in bank-bills; but, if he applies it to building, the money muſt be taken out gradually for the maintenance of his workmen; as, if he owes it to undertakers of any branches of buſineſs, they will apply the money to their employments: and, let this enquiry be carried on never ſo far, it will be found, that no money in ſpecie is abſolutely required till you come to eating, drinking, cloathing, &c. or to minute payments, and therein ſpecie muſt neceſſarily be applied. And the uſe of banks is to keep hand-money circulating in the channels of minute payments, and to hinder it from ſtagnating, or being kept up in large parcels, for any conſiderable time.

'Tis pretty difficult to judge what proportion of celerity in circulation a national bank, or banks, may give the money of a ſtate; but, if I have been rightly informed in regard to the circumſtances of the bank of Venice, it may give ſome uſeful light into this matter.

The revenues of the ſtate of Venice, which amount to about 4,000,000 ounces of ſilver per annum, are payable in bank-money, or in transfers at the bank of Venice; and the ſtate-revenue, collected even at Bergamo, remote from Venice, when it is brought into that capital, is to anſwer in bank. All bargains and negociations between dealers above a certain ſum are invalid, if not paid in bank: and the money conſtantly paid and repaid, in theſe transfers, keeps up naturally a circulation of transfers of 800,000 ounces of ſilver. If a man, who has credit on the transfer-books, wants ſpecie for minute payments, he will find another who has gathered

ſpecie

ſpecie from minute payments, and wants a transfer, wherewith to make a large payment: and, ſo far as that ſum of 800,000 ounces, the money and transfers are found to keep up an equilibrium. Time and experience brought this to light.

The money was firſt lodged in the bank of Venice, for the credit given in the transfer-books: the government, in their wars, ſpent the money depoſited, and their further neceſſities obliged them to give new transfers in the bank, for the ſervice of the war, without any money being depoſited. Theſe transfers were enlarged to about 1,600,000 ounces of ſilver; and then it proved that there were more transfers than money, and the price of transfers againſt money fell above 20 per cent. of the original value, and, conſequently, the yearly revenues of the ſtate diminiſhed in proportion as they were payable in bank.

To remedy this diſorder, the ſtate borrowed money on the revenue, and contracted the transfers gradually, by paying them off, till they came to anſwer the original price at market; and this equilibrium was not diſcovered till the transfers were reduced to about 800,000 ounces.

If we ſuppoſe the proprietors rents in the ſtate of Venice to amount to 21 millions of ounces of ſilver per annum, and the circulating money from 7 to 8 millions, the advantage of circulation gained by the bank of Venice will not exceed the eighth part of the circulating money in the ſtate; and the ſervice they receive by the bank is reduced to this, that from 7 to 8 millions of money, with the help of the bank, anſwer as well as 7 to 8 millions, added to the 800,000 ounces in money, without any bank; and the benefit which the government have obtained by the bank of Venice has been this, that they have borrowed 800,000 ounces, for which they never pay any intereſt.

From this example it appears, that the advantage gained in the circulation of the money of a nation by banks, and goldſmiths or bankers, is not ſo great in proportion as is commonly believed; and the proportion of ſuch advantage ſeems to be leſs in a great kingdom than in ſo ſmall a ſtate as that of Venice. For, as banks and goldſmiths give a circulation to a ſmall part only of the real money of the nation, which would otherwiſe be locked up in particular people's hands, the quickneſs they give to circulation cannot bear a great proportion to the whole circulating money of a nation. To judge farther to what greater degree banks may be uſeful for the ſupport of the public and private credit of a nation, and to the reduction of the intereſt of public funds, and the national rate of intereſt, ſee the articles CREDIT, [PUBLIC CREDIT], MONEY, INTEREST, FUNDS.

From what has been ſaid, the general nature of banking muſt, by this time, be pretty well underſtood, both with regard to particular banks, as well as private bankers. And, although credit in this way of dealing will go great lengths, yet there muſt always be kept a proportion of caſh ſufficient to give every one his money on demand, who comes for it; and that bank or banker that begins a foundation of credit in this way, ought not to extend it above $\frac{1}{4}$ part beyond his hard money; every one muſt be afraid to truſt that bank, or banker, who would venture ſo far as to reſerve but a fourth part in ready caſh for the circulating notes payable at ſight; but it is plain, that ſome proportion muſt be always reſerved; and, whatever that ſhall be, ſo much will the real advantage of this kind of credit fall ſhort of ſo much ready money.

It is true, that this is one of the principal branches from which the profit of banking ariſes; nevertheleſs, it muſt be uſed tenderly, and with great diſcretion, it being ever precarious and uncertain; and we may obſerve that all the wary and judicious undertakers in this way preſerve their credit ſo far within compaſs, as to be always prepared againſt a run (as it is called); ſo we may be confident, that as a body of people are generally more circumſpect, and leſs apt to be tempted by every view of advantage, than private men, the bank of England is the leaſt likely of any to hazard their credit beyond their reach; and it is certain this corporation always keep themſelves ſo well provided with ready caſh to anſwer all demands, as that but a moderate proportion of that large credit, which they have deſervedly obtained, can be made uſe of by them to their real advantage. For no body of men, any more than a private man, will dare to deal ſo freely with the beſt credit in the world as they might do with the like ſum in money; and, conſequently, thoſe muſt be egregiouſly miſtaken who think that the one can be as much relied on as the other, or ſtretched beyond a reaſonable limitation.

There are other ways whereby bankers may be uſeful to commerce, than thoſe which are ordinarily practiſed. Having ſhewn, under the articles of ARTIFICERS, ANONYMOUS Partnerſhip, and ASPHALTUM, by what natural meaſures our mechanics and manufactures may be improved, and what encouragement ſhould be given to the inventors of new diſcoveries for the advancement of our commerce, as alſo how beneficial to this end the Royal Society of London may be rendered; it may not be uſeleſs to obſerve here, that ſuch who are happily formed for inventions of this kind, frequently ſtand in need of a ſuitable fund of money to carry their deſigns into execution.

Bankers dealing in money may be inſtrumental to forward many new inventions, after, as has been ſhewn under the article ASPHALTUM, the certainty and utility of ſuch diſcoveries ſhall be duly aſcertained by the Royal Society: for, after the deliberate approbation of that learned body, we may preſume that no fraud or impoſition could be intended.

The monied man, ſeeking proper opportunities for the improvement of his money, he can very rarely meet with ſo beneficial occaſions as by encouraging ſuch undertakings, let them be either improvements upon old inventions, or quite new diſcoveries. But then this is not propoſed to be done at the rate of the national intereſt, but that thoſe who advance the money ſhall be intitled to a certain ſhare in the profits; and, according to the nature and extent to which ſuch art or manufacture may be carried on, one, two, three or more bankers, or monied men, who could act in concert, and confide in each other, might ſet theſe new inventions a-foot; and in caſes where, for the riſque of a few hundred pounds, at the commencement, deſigns can be ſet on foot for the public emolument, which may produce to the firſt encouragers many thouſands, and, in their conſequences, many millions to the ſtate, it is impolitic that there ſhould be any obſtruction to a practice of this nature. For nothing can be more reaſonable than that thoſe who hazard their money ſhould be intitled to a ſhare of the profits, without incurring the cenſure of uſury, or any other injurious imputation from the eye of the law, though their advantages ſhould turn out at the rate of 10 or 20 per cent. per annum, or more, which is deemed otherwiſe in caſe of bottomries, &c. Nor ſhould it be deemed diſhonourable, in perſons even of the firſt rank, thus to engage in ſuch undertakings; yet engagements of this kind may be more ſuitable to men of buſineſs than to others, who, for want of due knowledge and experience in the conduct of affairs of this nature, may render them abortive, notwithſtanding the goodneſs and benefit of the deſign wherein they might embark.

From what has been ſaid it appears, that the buſineſs of domeſtic banking is a traffic in money, in bullion gold or ſilver, or foreign ſpecie, diſcounting bills of exchange, promiſſory notes, and in dealing in the funds, in drawing or remitting money from one inland trading city or town to another, for the accommodation of traders, and keeping caſh for other people, &c.

Beſides this kind of bankers, which are common with us in England, Scotland, and Ireland, there is another ſpecies, which may be properly diſtinguiſhed by the name of foreign bankers, as not dealing in the way of thoſe domeſtic ones before deſcribed, but trafficking largely in the negociation of foreign bills of exchange; and that not only in the natural courſe of their other mercantile concerns, in commodities and in ſhipping, &c. but who make a kind of a diſtinct branch of buſineſs this way, in dealing conſiderably by exchange with many countries of Europe. Theſe, with us, generally are called remitters, though in France and Italy they are named bankers; and, in thoſe countries, ſome of them deal a little in the domeſtic, as well as foreign way of banking.

The foundation of this foreign way of banking depends upon a thorough ſkill in the exchanges; and this conſiſts in knowing when to draw, or remit, to the beſt advantage, amidſt all the trading cities of Europe. See the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGE.

THE NATURE OF DOMESTIC BANKING,

CAPITAL STOCK — — —

	DR.			PER CONTRA — — — —		CR.
				(1) By cash, being the amount of what's in ready money —		200
				(2) By South Sea stock, bought 2000 l. stock, at 115 $\frac{1}{8}$ —		23
				(3) By India stock, bought 3000 l. stock, at 187 $\frac{1}{2}$ — —		56
				(4) By Bank stock, bought 3000 l. stock, at 139 $\frac{1}{4}$ — —		41

CASH — — —

		DR.			PER CONTRA. — — —		CR.
(1)	To capital stock, for my ready money — — — — —	2000	—	—	(7) By A. B. paid his draft of — — — — — —		5
(5)	To A. B received as a deposit in hand — — — — —	1000	—	—	(9) By gold, paid for 1000 oz. of bar, at l. 3 : 17 : 8 —		389
(6)	To C. D. ditto — — — — — — — — —	2000	—	—	(11) By ditto, paid for 500 oz. of coin, at l. 3 : 17 : 11 —		154
(8)	To E. F. ditto — — — — — — — — —	3000	—	—	(12) By silver, paid for 1200 oz. of pillar pieces, at 5 s. 5d.		32
(10)	To gold sold 500 oz. of bar, at l. 3 : 17 : 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ — — —	1948	9	2	(14) By bills of exchange discounted, f. 6000 : 10 at 35 : 4, at 2 usance, 1 month 10 days, to run at 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. -		56
(13)	To silver sold 1200 oz. pillar pieces $\frac{8}{8}$ at 5 : 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ — — —	327	10	—			
(15)	To bills of exchange received, bill of f. 6000 : 10 of Amsterdam, at 35 : 4, to run 1 month 10 days — — —	566	1	8	(16) By lottery-tickets, paid for 1000, at 10 l. — — —		1000
					(19) By lottery-tickets, lent on 250, at 5 per cent. for three months		200
(17)	To lottery-tickets, received for 560, at l. 10 : 15 — —	6020	—	—	(21) By jewels, lent on the box F. G. at 5 per cent. per ann. —		200
(18)	To ditto - - - - - for 340, at l. 11 : 2 : 6 — —	3782	10	—	(23) By bottomry, lent to Capt. —— of —— Indiaman, at 40 per cent. — — — — — — — —		1000
(20)	To ditto - - - received for principal and interest on the loan of 2000 l. per 3 months — — — — — — —	2025	—	—	(25) By promissary notes, discounted l. 500 per C. N. payable to F. P. at 3 months, 2 months to run at 5 per cent.		49
(22)	To jewels, received for principal and interest lent on a box F. G. per ann. at 5 per cent. — — — — — — —	2100	—	—	(27) By L. M. and N. O. lent on their joint bond, for 3 months, at 5 per cent. — — — — — — — —		1000
(24)	To bottomry, received of Capt. —— of —— Indiaman, principal and interest, at 40 per cent. — — — — —	1400	—	—	(29) By Duke and Prince Frederic privateer, in company, &c. expended for $\frac{1}{4}$ part — — — — — — — —		5690
(26)	To promissary notes, received C. N's payable to F. P. of —	500	—	—			
(28)	To L. M. and N. O. received what lent with interest — —	1012	10	—	(31) By Bank stock, lent on a pledge of 800 l. stock, at 5 per cent		1000
(30)	To Duke and Prince Frederic Privateer, received our proportion of the prize, &c. — — — — — — — — —	30000	—	—			
(32)	To South Sea stock, sold 2000 l. stock at 116 — — — —	2320	—	—			
(33)	To India stock, sold l. 3000 at 187 $\frac{3}{4}$ — — — — —	5632	—	—			
(34)	To Bank stock, sold l. 3000 at 139 $\frac{7}{8}$ — — — — —	4196	5	—			

SOUTH SEA STOCK —

		Stock.	DR.			PER CONTRA — —	Stock.	CR.
(2)	To capital stock, bought at 115 $\frac{1}{8}$ — — — —	2000	2302	10	—	(32) By cash, received for the sale of, at 116 — —	2000	2320

INDIA STOCK — — —

		Stock.	DR.			PER CONTRA — —	Stock.	CR.
(3)	To capital stock, bought at 187 $\frac{1}{4}$ — — — —	3000	5617	10	—	(33) By cash, sold at 187 $\frac{3}{4}$ — — — — —	3000	5617

BANK STOCK — — —

		Stock.	DR.			PER CONTRA — —	Stock.	CR.
(4)	To capital stock, bought at 139 $\frac{1}{4}$ — — — —	3000	4177	10	—	(34) By cash, sold at 139 $\frac{7}{8}$ — — — — —	3000	4196
(13)	To cash, lent at 5 per cent. on pledged stock of —	800	1000	—	—			

A. B. — — — — — —

		DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.
(7)	To cash, paid his draft of — — — — — — —	50	—	—	(5) By cash, received as a deposit in my hands — — —	1000

C. D. — — — — — —

DR.			PER CONTRA — — —	CR.
			(6) By cash, received as a deposit in my hands — — —	2000

DELINEATED AT ONE VIEW.

E. F. — — —

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
			(8) By cash, received as a deposit — — — — —	3000	—	—

GOLD — —
Cash, bought in bars, at l. 3 : 17 : 8 per oz.
Cash, bought in coin, at l. 3 : 17 : 11 per oz.

GOLD COIN. oz.	BAR-GOLD. oz.	DR.			PER CONTRA —	BAR-GOLD. oz.	CR.		
—	1000	3891	13	4	(10) By cash, sold at l. 3 : 17 : 11 ½ —	500	1948	9	2
500	—	1947	18	4					

SILVER — —
Cash, bought at 5 s. 5 d. per oz. — — —

PILLAR Ps. ⅝	DR.			PER CONTRA — —	PILLAR Ps. ⅝ oz.	CR.		
1200	325	—	—	(13) By cash, sold at 5 : 5 ½ — — — — —	1200	327	10	—

BILLS OF EXCHANGE —
Cash, discounted, drawn by Clifford and sons, Amsterdam, payable to N. O. at 2 usance, f. 600 : 10 at 35. 4. 1 month days, to run at 4 ½ — — — — — — —

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
563	5	1	(15) By cash, received for 6000 : 10, at 35. 4. 1 month 10 days, to run done at 4 ½ — — — — —	556	1	8

LOTTERY TICKETS —
Cash, purchased at l. 10 No. &c. &c. — —
Ditto, lent upon lottery tickets, No. &c. &c. at per cent. for 3 months — — — — —

TICK.	DR.			PER CONTRA —	TICK.	CR.		
1000	10000	—	—	(17) By cash, received at l. 10 : 15 for sold — —	560	6020	—	—
				(18) By ditto, received at l. 11 : 2 : 6 sold — —	340	3782	1	—
250	2000	—	—	(20) By ditto, received of —— for principal and interest, on the loan of per 3 months — —	250	2025	—	—

JEWELS — — —
Cash, lent on a box of jewels marked F.G. at 5 per cent. per ann.

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
2000	—	—	(22) By cash, received for the principal and interest of box F.G. per ann. at 5 per cent. — — — — — —	2100	—	—

BOTTOMRY — —
Cash, lent to Capt. —— of —— Indiaman, at 40 per cent.

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
1000	—	—	(24) By cash, received of Capt. —— of —— Indiaman, principal and interest at 40 per cent. — — — —	1400	—	—

PROMISSARY NOTES —
Cash, discounted a note of C. N. payable to F. P. at 3 months, of 500 l. 2 months to run at 5 per cent. — —

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
495	16	8	(26) By cash, received C. N.'s note payable to F. P. — —	500	—	—

L. M. and N. O. — —
Cash, lent on their joint bond for 3 months, at 5 per cent. p. ann. — — — — — — — — — —

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
1000	—	—	(28) By cash, received interest and principal — — — —	1012	10	—

The DUKE and PRINCE FREDERIC PRIVATEER, in company with, &c.
Cash, expended for ¼ part of all charges, &c. — —

DR.			PER CONTRA — —	CR.		
5690	—	—	(30) By cash, received our proportion of the prizes — —	30000	—	—

For the sake of exhibiting the nature of Banking d'un coup d'œil, and the accountantship requisite to that business, as also the immediate references from account to another, I have been under the necessity, according to the compass of the sheet, of making use of two lines frequently in this ledger account; as the reader will observe, it is usual to make use of no more than one line in a large ledger.

REMARKS.

Whoever is tolerably acquainted with the nature of accountantſhip, by debtor and creditor, according to the true principles of double entry, will eaſily perceive, from the ledger account, thus exhibited in miniature, how the profits of banking ariſe. I have choſen this manner of repreſentation, with a view to anſwer a treble end: (1.) To give a lively idea of the nature of the buſineſs to thoſe who are not acquainted therewith. (2.) To give a ſketch of the fundamental principles whereby the accounts of all bankers, and trading banks, ought to be regulated and adjuſted. (3.) To habituate gentlemen, as well as people of buſineſs, whoſe affairs require accurate account-keeping, to the more ready and facile way of keeping their accounts themſelves, or directing their clerks to do it, according to the principles of reaſon and art.

The explanation of the foregoing ſheet.

1. The reader is deſired to obſerve, that thoſe diſtinct accounts repreſent both a debit ſide and a credit, in order to be duly charged on one ſide, and diſcharged on the other, according as the nature and reaſon of the tranſaction ſhall require.

2. That the figures annexed at the beginning of each line, written under any diſtinct account, are placed to ſignify the dates, when ſuch buſineſs was tranſacted.

3. That no ſum of money is to be poſted, or placed to the debit of any account, but the ſame ſum muſt be placed to the credit of ſome other account of the ſame date, with which it has an equitable conformity. And, theſe dates being repreſented by the annexed figures, the eye will be eaſily caſt from the debits to their correſponding credits.

4. The column prefixed next to the money column, on the debit ſide, ſhews, in all ledgers kept according to the method of double entry, upon what folio the proper credit ſtands, in order to expedite reference from the one to the other.

The reaſon of the firſt, ſecond, and fourth particulars require no explanation, but the third may, which ſhall be done in a familiar and rational manner: and, indeed, this is the only method of accountantſhip that is founded on reaſon; for, although that of ſingle entry may, with care, anſwer ſome purpoſes well enough, yet it is generally founded in confuſion, and, therefore, is to be avoided by all, who deal largely, if they would keep the full view of their income and out-go before them.

Now the method of double-entry-accountantſhip is bottomed on the plaineſt reaſon, and upon the principles of keeping accounts always in an exact ballance; for if, according to the third obſervation, there is always as much money placed on the debit ſide of your accounts in general, as there is on the credit of them in general, it is certain that ſuch accounts will always remain in a balance upon the whole; and, conſequently, every diſtinct account will be fit for the like balance; ſince, if the whole is conſtantly in a ballance, the ſeveral parts whereof the whole conſiſts cannot be otherwiſe.

Such is the nature of commerce of any kind, that ſomething muſt be dealt in, and ſomebody muſt be dealt with: whence it is, that there can no debit ariſe in the nature of buſineſs, but reaſon will inſtantly point out it's correſponding credit, in order to maintain the ballance.

If you receive money of a perſon, it muſt proceed from one or other of the following cauſes:

1. Either becauſe he owed it you, for ſome property before received. Or,

2. That he preſents it by way of gift or donation.—Or,

3. That it falls to you in a legal way.

If the firſt be the caſe, and you would keep your money right, you charge, or debit, your money, or caſh account, as it is now called, for all you receive; and, if the perſon of whom you received that money owed it you, and ſtood debtor for it in your accounts, as he ought, then, upon payment thereof, it is reaſonable that he ſhould be diſcharged, or have credit for the ſum you have received: by doing of which you keep both your money and perſonal accounts in a right ſtate: but, if you only credit or diſcharge the perſon for what you receive, and do not charge or debit your money account for what you have received, your money, or caſh account, can never ballance. This is too frequently the beginning of deſtruction to many people's affairs; for they weakly imagine, that, if they keep right with the accounts of the perſons with whom they have dealings, that is ſufficient, their account of caſh relating only to themſelves, and, therefore, their whole income and out-go of money need not be duly ſtated. By this neglect many good fortunes have been ſquandered away, and the perſons themſelves have not known how, when their affairs have been brought to the teſt of a commiſſion of bankruptcy.—But the method we recommend, keeping a trader's or a gentleman's affairs always in a ballance, theſe evils may be guarded againſt.

If the money received be by way of free gift, here is an increaſe of your eſtate, and that muſt appear upon your books, or your books will not rightly repreſent your affairs at that point

of time, nor, conſequently, the ſubſequent changes they may undergo.

For this increaſe of eſtate, if it be in money, you debit your caſh, and credit your capital ſtock. If it conſiſts in the public ſtocks, you debit thoſe diſtinct ſtocks, for their value at that time, and credit your capital ſtock. If it conſiſts in a part money, and a part ſtock, you debit each for their reſpective values, and credit your capital ſtock by both. By this means it is obvious, that your accounts all the way continue in a ballance, and are a faithful mirrour, wherein to behold the ſtate of your affairs; and all changes and alterations that your affairs can poſſibly undergo, will, in the like manner, admit of proper debits and credits, in conformity to each other. To apply theſe plain principles to the buſineſs of banking, and the explication of the accounts before us.

Numbers (1), (2), (3), (4), on the credit ſide of capital ſtock, ſhew that the ſuppoſed banker had, at the commencement of his buſineſs, in caſh 20,000 l., in South-Sea ſtock, which coſt him 2302 l. 10 s. in Eaſt-India ſtock, which coſt him 5617 l. 10 s., in bank-ſtock, 4177 l. 10 s. Thus theſe divers diſtinct accounts are debited for their reſpective ſums, and capital ſtock is credited by them for the total; which might have been done in one ſingle line, by divers accounts; but I have poſted them ſeparately, to render what I would ſay the more intelligible to thoſe who are unacquainted with this method of account keeping. Whence it is plain, that there is the ſame total placed to the debit of theſe ſeveral accounts, as there is to the credit ſide of capital ſtock, and, therefore, theſe accounts are in a ballance, and ſo far ſhew the true ſtate of affairs at one view. And, if a banker's ſtock conſiſted in a hundred particulars, they might all be exhibited at one glance of the eye, by proper debits and credits, in the ſame manner.

Numbers (5) and (6) on the debit ſide of caſh ſhew, that ſuch banker has received of A B 1000 l. in money, as a depoſit in his hands for his account, to be drawn out at pleaſure; for which he debits his caſh, and credits A B, whereby his money account is right, the perſon's account is right, and his books are in a ballance.

Number (7) on the debit of A B's account, and on the credit ſide of caſh, ſhews that A B has drawn out of his banker's hands 50 l. for which A B being debited, and caſh credited, both A B's account, and the account of caſh, are right, and the books are ſtill in a ballance.

Number (8) is an inſtance of the ſame kind with thoſe of (5) and (6). Theſe inſtances are ſufficient for all of the ſame nature.

Number (9), on the debit of gold, and on the credit of caſh, ſhews, that ſuch banker has purchaſed, at l. 3. : 17 : 10 per ounce, 1000 ounces of gold in bars, and paid for it 3891 l. 13 s. 4 d.; ſo that the account of gold being debited for the ſame, and caſh credited, the accounts of gold and money are right, and the books in a ballance.

Number (10) on the debit ſide of caſh, and on the credit ſide of gold, ſhews that 500 ounces of bar-gold have been ſold at l. 3 : 17 : 11 ½ per ounce for ready money. This keeps the account of money right, as alſo that of gold,—The inner columns of the gold account ſhew the quantity bought on the debit, and the quantity ſold on the credit, and, conſequently, will always ſhew the quantity remaining, and the profit or loſs ariſing by ſuch dealings.

Number (11) on the debit of gold, and on the credit of caſh, ſhews, that 500 ounces of gold in coin has been bought and paid for at l. 3 : 17 : 11 per ounce, amounting to 1947 l. 18 s. 4 d.

Number (12) againſt the debit of ſilver, and the credit of caſh, ſhews that 1200 ounces of pillar pieces of eight have been bought for ready money, at 5 s. 5 d. per ounce, which amount to 325 l.—And number (13) on the debit ſide of caſh, and the credit ſide of ſilver, ſhews that the ſame 1200 ounces of ſilver have been ſold at 5 s. 5 d. ½, amounting to 327 l. 10 s.; ſo that the account of ſilver being ballanced in quantity, by ſubtracting the debit from the credit, you will eaſily ſee the profit.

Number (14), on account of bills of exchange, and the credit of caſh, ſhews that ſuch banker has diſcounted a bill of exchange of 6000 florins, drawn from Amſterdam, payable to one in London, at 35 s. 4 d. per £. ſterl. being l. 566 : 1 : 8 ſterling, diſcounting at 4 ½ per cent. for one month 10 days, makes the money advanced l. 563 : 5 : 1.—And number (15) on the debit of caſh account, and on the credit of the bills of exchange, ſhews that ſuch was paid when due l. 566 : 1 : 8 whereby the account of money is kept right; and that of bills of exchange ſhews the profit obtained by diſcounting this article, which would be the ſame in method in a thouſand examples of the like nature.

Number (16) on the debit ſide of lottery tickets, and credit of caſh, ſhews that 1000 of them were bought at 10 l.—And numbers (17) and (18) on the debit of caſh, and the credit of lottery tickets, ſhew, that 560 of them were ſold at 10 l. 15 s. and 340 at l. 11 : 2 : 6; whereby the number of which the drawing was ſtood, appears, and that the profit or loſs on the whole will be apparent upon that account, and the books all the way on a ballance.

Number (19), on the debit of lottery tickets, and the credit ſide of caſh, ſhews that 2000l. has been borrowed of the banker, at the rate of 5 per cent. for three months, on the pledge of 250 tickets. And number (20), on the debit of caſh and credit of lottery tickets, ſhews that the ſaid 2000l. with intereſt, has been paid; whereby the accounts are all the way rightly kept, and ſhews the advantage, or otherwiſe, on thoſe adventures.

Number (21), on the debit of jewels, and on the credit of caſh, ſhews that ſuch banker has lent 2000l. on a box of jewels, marked F G, at 5 per cent. per annum.

Number (22), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of jewels, ſhews that 2100l. has been received for the principal and intereſt of the ſum for one year. The ſurpluſage on the credit, being gain, may be paſſed to the credit of the account of intereſt, if it is thought proper to keep ſuch a diſtinct account, or to the account of profit and loſs, as an intermediate account to that of capital ſtock, into which it ultimately falls, at the general ballance of the accounts.

Number (23), on the debit ſide of the account of bottomry, and the credit of caſh, ſhews that 1000l. has been lent to J C, captain of the ——— Indiaman, at 40l. per cent. on that account.

Number (24), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of bottomry accounts, ſhews that the principal and profit have been received, 1400l.—This account will always ſhew the profit or loſs that ariſes upon ſuch-like occaſions.

By number (25), on the debit of promiſſary notes, and the credit of caſh, it appears that a note of hand, drawn by C N, payable to F P, three months after date, has been diſcounted, having two months to run, at 5 per cent. per ann. The ſum advanced on the note being l. 495 : 16 : 8.

Number (26), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of promiſſary notes, ſhews that the 500l. has been received, and, conſequently, ſo far as the credit of all accounts of this nature exceeds their debits, is the net profit upon theſe reſpective articles of buſineſs in the banking way.

Number (27), on the debit of L M and N O, and the credit ſide of caſh, ſhews that 1000l. at 5 per cent. per ann. has been lent them, upon their joint bond, for three months. When this bond was taken up, is ſhewn by number (28), where caſh is charged with the receipt of the principal and intereſt, and the joint bondſmen diſcharged in conformity. The difference between the debit and credit of their perſonal account ſhews the intereſt made.—And, if any extra-premiums are made by theſe, and the like kind of occurrences, they are generally paſſed to the debit of caſh, and the credit of capital ſtock, that they need not appear by explicit accounts, to clerks, but only as a ſecret negociation between the tranſactors.

Number (29), on the debit of the Duke and Prince Frederic privateers, in comp. and on the credit of caſh, ſhews that 5000l. has been expended on thoſe veſſels, by way of adventure for a quarter part of the banker's advance. And number (30), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of Duke and Prince Frederic privateers, is contained 30,000l. the ſum received as one quarter part of the prize-money. By deducting the debit from the credit of ſuch accounts, ſhews the net profit on theſe enterprizes, or the credit from the debit, if loſſes attend them. —The loſs or gain is paſſed to the account of profit and loſs, and the ballance thereof terminates in the increaſe or diminution of the article of capital ſtock.

Number (31), on the debit of bank ſtock, and the credit of caſh, ſhews that 1000l. has been lent upon the pledge of 800l. bank ſtock, at 5 per cent.

Number (32), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of South-Sea-ſtock, ſhews that 2000l. of that ſtock has been ſold at 116, which, on the debit of that account, appears to have been bought at 115⅛—whereby the profit is clear on that account.

Number (33), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of India ſtock, ſhews that 3000l. ſtock has been ſold at 187¾, which was purchaſed at 187¼, as is ſeen by the debit, ſo that the profit is plain.

Number (34), on the debit of caſh, and the credit of bank ſtock, ſhews that 3000l. ſtock has been diſpoſed of, at 139⅞, which, by the debit, was bought at 139½: ſo that profits on theſe accounts are apparent. Which inſtances are as ſufficient as numberleſs others, to ſhew the nature of the buſineſs, as well as the method of accounts proper for the purpoſe. By this method of accountantſhip all deſirable ſatisfaction is obtained, in the moſt conciſe manner that is poſſible.

If you would know the ſtate of your caſh, 'tis only adding up the debit and the credit, and ſubtracting the credit ſide of payments from the debit ſide of receipts, and the remainder ſhews the money in hand.

If you would know whether your dealings in the funds have turned to account, 'tis only throwing your eye on the debit and credit of thoſe diſtinct accounts, and if the whole, which was purchaſed, is diſpoſed of, the gain or the loſs will be evident, by ſubtracting the ſum total of that ſide which is leaſt from that which is greateſt.

In regard to thoſe perſons who keep caſh with the bankers, the credit of thoſe perſonal accounts ſhews, what money was from time to time depoſited, the debit, what was occaſionally drawn out, and, conſequently, the difference ſhews how the accounts ſtand.

In the ſame eaſy manner, are found the profits or loſſes attending the trafficking in gold and ſilver, in the diſcounting of bills of exchange, or dealing in lottery tickets, jewels by purchaſe or pledge, bottomries, promiſſary notes, loans on perſonal ſecurities, in privateering, pledges of ſtock, or whatever elſe may be prudent for the banker to be concerned in.

From what has been ſaid, nothing can be more plain, than that accounts kept in this manner, according to the double entry method, are always in a ballance, by reaſon there is, upon the whole, always as much poſted to the debit as to the credit: ſo that the ſum total of the debit and credit ſides of the whole ledger muſt be equal: and, if ſo, 'tis eaſy to conceive, that the differences between the diſtinct accounts will terminate in a general ballance alſo: that is to ſay, if the debit ſides be the greateſt ſums, and the credit be deducted therefrom, and the difference placed to the account of ballance, the ſum total of theſe differences will be equal to the ſum total of the differences of theſe accounts, whoſe credits ſhall exceed their debits. From which plain principles of reaſon, the moſt confuſed and perplexed accounts may be always ballanced.

But here it may be uſeful to obſerve, that although the accounts muſt neceſſarily ballance, by reaſon of the equality of debits and credit; yet it does not from thence follow, that ſuch accounts are juſtly ſtated, and truly repreſent the condition of people's affairs. For there may be very great fallacy and impoſition, by the ſtating of accounts artfully, under falſe and deceitful heads; yet thoſe accounts ſhall as duly ballance, as thoſe which are fairly and honeſtly ſtated, by reaſon of their being kept according to the method of double entry; but this argues no imperfection in the art: for fictitious entries may be as regularly ſtated and ballanced as real ones. And, if people will keep double ſetts of books, the one to ſhew the real ſtate of their affairs, and the other the fraudulent and fictitious, there is no judging, by the latter, in what condition a man's affairs are. And I wiſh that there may not have been egregious impoſitions put upon the public by fictitious and ſophiſtical accounts, notwithſtanding their appearing with the ſpecious face of a ballance.

But how, and in what manner theſe impoſitions are to be detected, I ſhall ſhew under the head of MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP. At preſent I ſhall only obſerve on this article, that, if perſons are thoroughly ſkilled in this method of account-keeping, they may ſuit the number as well as the manner of keeping all thoſe books, which may be proper auxiliaries to the grand and eſſential book, which I have been deſcribing, the ledger. For, ſuitably to the nature of a perſon's tranſactions, the elegant accountant will accommodate theſe books. The merchant requires more auxiliary books than the bankers; and one merchant more than another, according to the circumſtances of his negotiations; but they muſt all terminate in an accurate ledger, that is always fit for a genuine ballance. This is the reaſon wherefore I have choſe to illuſtrate the buſineſs of banking by this book only, rather than at preſent to perplex the reader with a tedious deſcription of a multitude of books, which might have prevented his having ſo thorough an idea of what we intended to communicate in a familiar manner.

Notwithſtanding, as it may be neceſſary for many readers to know the nature and uſe of the various auxiliary books practiſed in accounts, I ſhall deſcribe them under the article of BOOK-KEEPING; but he is the beſt accountant that makes uſe of the feweſt.

From what has been ſaid in regard to the nature and accounts of private bankers, a very good idea may be obtained of the nature of the buſineſs of the bank of England; of what uſe they make of people's money, and conſequently in what manner their profits ariſe.

And as, in a bank ſo conſtituted, it is requiſite that the method of keeping their accounts ſhould be as accurate as poſſible; ſo, in the œconomy and management of that corporation, their accounts are exquiſitely well kept, and the variety of checks render it extremely difficult, if not almoſt impoſſible, to defraud them by any machinations among their ſervants. And had thoſe worthy and honeſt gentlemen, the late Meſſ. Woodwards, bankers in Exchange-Alley, London, been thoroughly maſters of accounts themſelves, and regulated their books in that conciſe manner, which this admirable art will admit of, the cataſtrophe which unhappily befel them could never have happened, notwithſtanding the extenſiveneſs of their tranſactions; nothing being a more efficacious preſervative againſt misfortunes.

For the ſtate of the reſpective banks in Europe, ſee them under the particular places wherein they are eſtabliſhed: as that of London, Amſterdam, Genoa, Venice, Hamburgh, Paris, &c.; our reaſon for which is, that, when we come to deſcribe the commerce of thoſe places, the utility and importance of their peculiar banks, conſidered connectively therewith, will appear in their proper light: and, from this previous account of the nature of banking, the conſtitution of all kinds of banks throughout Europe may be the better judged of.

BANKRUPT, is ſaid, by ſome, to be derived from the French word banque, which ſignifies menſa in Latin, and route is the ſame as veſtigium; and this term is ſaid to be taken originally from the Roman menſarii, which were ſet in public places, and, when a tradeſman ſlipp d away, with an intention to deceive his creditors, he left only ſome veſtigia, or ſigns, of his table, or ſhop behind. But a bankrupt, with us, ſignifieth generally either man or woman, that, living by buying and ſelling, hath gotten other perſons goods into his or her hands, and concealeth himſelf from his creditors, or commits other acts, which make him a bankrupt, according to the ſtatutes in that caſe made and provided.

Stat. 1 Jac. I. c. 15. a bankrupt is thus deſcribed, *viz.* all and every perſon who ſhall uſe the trade or merchandize, by way of bargaining, exchange, bartering, or otherwiſe, in groſs, or by ſeeking his or her living by buying and ſelling, who ſhall depart his houſe, or abſent himſelf, or ſuffer himſelf to be arreſted for any debt, either for money delivered, wares ſold, or other good conſideration, or ſhall ſuffer himſelf to be outlawed, or go to priſon, or fraudulently procure himſelf to be arreſted, or his money or goods attached, or make any fraudulent conveyance of his lands, goods, or chattels, whereby his creditors may be defeated in the recovery of their juſt debts, or, being arreſted for debt, ſhall lie in priſon ſix months, or more, upon ſuch arreſt or detention, ſhall be adjudged a bankrupt.

It is not buying and ſelling of land, but of perſonal things, that will make a man liable to be a bankrupt; nor is it buying only, or ſelling only, but both. Every one that gets his living by buying and ſelling in trade and merchandize, may fall under a ſtate of bankruptcy, upon his failing. But adventurers in the Eaſt-India company, members of the bank of England, or of the South-Sea company, ſhall not be adjudged bankrupts in reſpect of their ſtock, *&c.* Alſo no perſon concerned as receiver-general of taxes, *&c.* ſhall be a bankrupt.

If a merchant gives over his trade, and ſome years after becomes not ſolvent for money owed while a merchant, he is a bankrupt: but if it be for new debts, or old debts continued on new ſecurity, it is otherwiſe. 1 Vent. 5, 29. A banker, who has many people's money in his hands, refuſes payment, yet keeps his ſhop open, and, as often as he is arreſted, gives bail; by this means he may give preference of payment to his friends; and if, when he has done, he runs away, ſuch payment ſhall ſtand againſt a commiſſion of bankruptcy. Farrelf. Rep. 139.

If, after a plain act of bankruptcy, one goes abroad, and is a great dealer, yet this will not purge the firſt act of bankruptcy; though, if he pays off, or compounds with, his creditors, he is become a new man. 1 Salk. 110.

Where there are two partners in trade, and one breaks, you ſhall not charge the other with the whole, but the eſtate belonging to the joint trade ought to be divided, *&c.* Mod. Rep. 45.

Acts diſcharging bankrupts, ſhall not diſcharge any partner in trade, or one jointly bound with the bankrupt. 1 Danv. Abr. 686.

A merchant-trader indebted keeps in another man's houſe, or on ſhip-board, is adjudged a keeping in his houſe: but a withdrawing muſt be on purpoſe to defraud creditors; and, if a man goes ſometimes at large, ſo as he may be met with one time or other, it will excuſe him.

The commiſſioners of bankrupts have a power to adjudge a man a bankrupt; yet, in an action, the jury muſt find whether he was ſo or not. 1 Danv. 687.

He that is a bankrupt to one creditor, is accounted in law a bankrupt to all the creditors; and, being once adjudged ſo, is always ſo to the reſt of the creditors. 22 Car. I. B. R.

Commiſſioners may commit a bankrupt refuſing to be examined, *&c.* till he ſubmit himſelf to be examined. 1 Salk. 151. But the commiſſioners are not to commit a bankrupt for not diſcovering his eſtate, without examining him on interrogatories. 1 Lill. Abr. 202. They are to examine the bankrupt upon interrogatories; and they have power to examine others, as to what they know of any perſons carrying away any part of the bankrupt's eſtate. 5 Mod. 309.

Commiſſioners of bankrupts have power to ſell, grant, and aſſign, but they cannot bring an action; for their aſſignees muſt generally bring all actions. 1 Mod. 30.

The creditors have a right to the bankrupt's goods, by the act of bankruptcy, and thereby they are bound; though, till aſſignment by the commiſſioners, the property is not tranſferred out of the bankrupt. 1 Salk. 108. The commiſſioners are to ſell all the bankrupt's lands in fee, for life, or years, *&c.* and it will be binding againſt the bankrupt and his iſſue. 1 Lill. Abr. 204. They may ſell all entailed lands in poſſeſſion, reverſion, or remainder, except entailed in the crown, of the gift of the king; and this ſhall bind the iſſue in tail, and all others, which a common recovery might cut off. Ibid. 205. But ſales of the bankrupt's lands by commiſſioners are to be by deed inrolled. If a bankrupt grants his lands or goods in the names of other perſons, the commiſſioners, notwithſtanding, may make ſale of them: but not lands, *&c.* conveyed bona fide, before the party became a bankrupt. Wood's Inſt. 310. And no purchaſe of lands ſhall be impeached, unleſs the commiſſion of bankrupt be ſued out within five years after a man becomes bankrupt. Lands held by a bankrupt in jointenancy, may be ſold as to the moiety: alſo lands which a man hath in right of his wife (but not her dower) lands deviſed to a bankrupt the commiſſioners may ſell. The commiſſioners have power to ſell lands mortgaged, on tender and payment of the mortgage-money. 2 Rep. 25. And aſſignees of the commiſſioners have the benefit of covenants of re-entry, *&c.* on lands.

All the goods and chattels of the bankrupt, which he was poſſeſſed of at the time of his becoming bankrupt, may be ſold by the commiſſioners, and notwithſtanding the bankrupt ſell them in market overt. Sale of goods by a bankrupt, after an act of bankruptcy, may be avoided by the commiſſioners of bankruptcy; and they may, in this caſe, bring trover for the goods, or debt, or aſſumpſit for the value, *&c.* 3 Salk. 60.

Offices of inheritance may be ſold, but not offices of truſt, annexed to the perſon for life. Aſſignees may bring actions for debt due to the bankrupt, in their own name, *&c.* But if the commiſſion be not taken out within ſix years, directed by law for ſuing of debts, and the aſſignment made within that time, a defendant in an action may plead the ſtatute of limitations: if the commiſſion be taken out in ſix years, the ſtatute preſerves the debt, being to relieve creditors againſt fraud, *&c.* 1 Saund. 37.

When money is obtained by judgment in an action of debt, and the plaintiff becomes bankrupt, and a commiſſion of bankruptcy is taken out againſt him, though the ſheriff may bring the money into court, it ſhall be delivered to the plaintiff, and not the aſſignee of the commiſſion, unleſs he takes out a ſcire facias againſt the defendant, in order to try the bankruptcy. 1 Vent. 193. A plaintiff that hath a defendant's body in execution, who becomes bankrupt, ſhall not come in to be relieved by the ſtatutes: but, if the plaintiff recover damages, *&c.* againſt the defendant, and hath judgment, and then the defendant becomes bankrupt, the plaintiff is a creditor; for it is a debt due to him, and action of debt lies on the judgment. 1 Cro. 166.

If a debtor to a bankrupt pays him his debt voluntarily, he muſt pay it over again; but it is otherwiſe in caſe of payment by compulſion of law. 2 Vent. 258. Where one truſts a bankrupt after he becomes ſuch, he ſhall not be relieved as a creditor. Sureties or bail, when they have paid the debt, may come in as creditors; but mortgagees, or perſons that have a pledge of the bankrupt's goods, having ſecurity for their debts in their hands, are not creditors within the ſtatutes. Thoſe who attach goods of the bankrupt, are to come in as creditors. If an executor becomes bankrupt, a legatee is to be creditor. And aliens, as well as denizens, may come in as creditors; for all ſtatutes concerning bankrupts extend to aliens, who ſhall be ſubject to the laws againſt bankrupts, *&c.* Hob. 287. ſtat. 21 Jac. I.

The commiſſioners, after ſale of the bankrupt's eſtate, are to make diſtribution among the creditors contributing to the commiſſion, firſt making the bankrupt his allowance, *&c.* And, in the diſtribution of the bankrupt's eſtate, no reſpect is to be had to debts upon judgment, recognizances, or ſpecialities, beyond other debts. After four months, and diſtribution made, no creditor can come in to diſturb it; but he may come in for the reſidue, of which no diſtribution is made. 1 Danv. 693. And the court of chancery hath ſometimes allowed creditors to come in after diſtribution, upon particular circumſtances which have happened; and the lord chancellor ordered the exaction of the commiſſion to be ſuſpended. Chan. Rep. 307.

If the commiſſioners refuſe to pay a creditor his proportionable part, he may bring an action of debt, or be more properly relieved in Chancery: where the commiſſioners do not purſue the acts of their commiſſion, the party injured muſt bring his action, and ſet forth the finding of the commiſſioners, that the debtor is a bankrupt. But, if a commiſſion is not duly obtained againſt a perſon, he may traverſe, by ſaying that he is not a bankrupt. 8 Rep. 121.

An innkeeper being alſo part owner of a ſhip, and having 51 l. ſtock in the ſhip, abſconded: Eyre juſtice held, as to the ſhare of the ſhip, that was nothing; for that is not a ſtock in potentia to trade with, that will make a bankrupt; but there muſt be a trading therewith in facto. And he held that an innkeeper could not be bankrupt, for he is not like a trader; he muſt receive all comers, and feed them and lodge them, taking a reaſonable rate; which if he do not, he is indictable. Holt C. J. concurred, and that he is not taken notice of in law, as a trader, but as an hoſt, hoſpitator; and he is paid not merely for his proviſions, but alſo for his care, pains, protection, and ſecurity; and he buys meat and drink, not for ſale or trading, but for accommodation. And an innkeeper cannot make a contract ad libitum; nor does he buy or ſell at large, but to gueſts only; and the chief-juſtice held, that wherever a man buys or ſells under a particular reſtraint and limitation, he is not a ſeller within the ſtatute, as a commiſſioner of the navy, and ſo of a farmer. Salk. 110. Vide Shower 3 Mod. 326.

A gentleman of the Temple went from hence to Liſbon, where he turned factor, and traded to England, and broke. Blencoe argued that the ſtatutes about bankrupts did not extend to perſons out of the realm; the ſubject of them is caſes of arreſt, outlawries, and departing out of the realm; and the 21ſt Jac. I. which extends to aliens, is only aliens reſident here; yet the court held him a bankrupt, by reaſon of his trading hither and back again, which gained him a credit here. Per cur. on a trial at bar. Salk. 110.

Upon an iſſue directed out of Chancery, whether bankrupt or not at ſuch a time, it was held per Holt C. J. that, if H. commits a plain act of bankruptcy, as keeping houſe, &c. though he after goes abroad, and is a great dealer, yet that will not purge the firſt act of bankruptcy, but he will ſtill remain a bankrupt: but, if the act was not plain, but doubtful, then going abroad and dealing, &c. will be an evidence to explain the intent of the firſt act: for, if it was not done to defraud creditors, and keep out of the way, it will not be an act of bankruptcy within the ſtatute: Alſo, if after a plain act of bankruptcy he pays off, or compounds with, all his creditors, he is become a new man, Salk. 110.

Equity will not compel a man to diſcover what goods he really bought of a bankrupt after the bankruptcy, and before the commiſſion ſued, where the party has no notice of the bankruptcy. Vernon, caſe 23.

If a man voluntarily pays money to a bankrupt after he becomes ſuch, it is in his own wrong, and he may be forced to pay it again; but it is otherwiſe, if a bankrupt recover it againſt him by a courſe of law. Vern. caſe 80. p. 94.

Some of alderman Backwell's creditors, having upon a petition to the lord keeper, obtained a commiſſion of bankruptcy againſt him, the commiſſioners found him a bankrupt, and made an aſſignment, and the alderman dies in Holland. His ſon and heir agrees with all the creditors, who had petitioned for this commiſſion, and thereupon obtains a ſuperſedeas; afterwards the other creditors hearing of it, they petition the lord keeper to grant a procedendo, becauſe a commiſſion being once granted, and an aſſignment made, that was a truſt for all the creditors of alderman Backwell, that ſhould come in within the four months, which they intended to do, and inſiſted that the commiſſion could not be regularly diſcharged till after the four months were paſt; and, though it had been ſometimes done in other caſes, yet that was where the creditors might have the ſame benefit by a new commiſſion; but, in this caſe, the bankrupt being dead, if this commiſſion ſhould ſtand ſuperſeded, the creditors were without remedy; and inſiſted this was a fraud and contrivance between the heir and the other creditors, to defeat them of their juſt debts, and ought not to be countenanced in equity: and that they relied upon it, that they might at any time, within the four months, have come in, and have had the benefit of the commiſſion, otherwiſe they would themſelves have petitioned for a commiſſion againſt him.

But the lord keeper declared, that in any caſe where all the creditors that petition'd for a commiſſion, would afterwards agree to have it diſcharged, he would never ſcruple to diſcharge that commiſſion; and in this caſe mentioned how inconvenient it would be to revive the commiſſion; for alderman Backwell had traded conſiderably, ſince ſuch time as the commiſſioners had found him a bankrupt, and that all the compoſition-money that his ſon had paid to his father's creditors muſt be refunded, and that many other inconveniences would enſue; and that he had all along determined with himſelf not to revoke this ſuperſedeas, but had deliberated upon it, that the other creditors might make the beſt terms they could with the heir, and when they have been fairly offered, if they ſtood in their own light, they muſt blame themſelves for it: and declared he would not revoke the ſuperſedeas, nor grant a procedendo. Vern. caſe 205.

A bankrupt before he became ſuch, having made a mortgage of his eſtate, the aſſignees of the ſtatute bring an ejectment for recovery of the lands comprized in the mortgage. The mortgagee refuſes to enter, but ſuffers the bankrupt to take the profits, and to fence againſt the aſſignees with this mortgage.

Lord keeper. The mortgagee ſhall be charged with the profits from the time of the ejectment delivered.

Another point in this caſe was, that that bankrupt having bought land, and all the purchaſe-money not being paid, the aſſignees would have had the vender come in as a creditor under the ſtatute, for the remainder of his purchaſe money.

Per cur. In this caſe there is a natural equity, that the land ſhould ſtand charged with ſo much of the purchaſe money as was not paid, and that without any ſpecial agreement for that purpoſe. Vern. caſe 262.

In an indebitatus aſſumpſit the defendant pleaded, that the plaintiff was bankrupt, and therefore the defendant could not pay, for fear a commiſſion ſhould be ſued, &c. Upon demurrer, judgment for the plaintiff. Lord Raymond, p. 469.

It was ruled by Treby, chief-juſtice of the Common-Pleas, at Niſi Prius at Guildhall, upon evidence in trover, brought by the plaintiff againſt the defendant, after argument of the counſel on both ſides, (1.) That it is not neceſſary to prove that the perſon, upon the petition of whom the commiſſion of bankruptcy was granted, was a creditor of the bankrupt; becauſe, upon view of the ſtatutes, they do not require that. (2.) That it is not neceſſary to prove that the bankrupt was indebted in 100 l. though the practice has been ſo to do; becauſe, though the chancellor frequently, before he grants a commiſſion of bankruptcy, requires ſuch proof, yet it is only matter of diſcretion in him. Lord Raym. 724.

It was ruled by Holt, chief-juſtice of the King's-Bench, at Niſi Prius, at Guildhall, upon evidence in a trial, 1. That, if the goods of A be ſeized upon a fieri facias iſſued upon a judgment obtained againſt A, and after the ſeizure, A becomes bankrupt; this act of bankruptcy, cannot affect the goods levied in execution, as aforeſaid; but, if A was a bankrupt before the ſeizure, and after the bankruptcy the ſheriff, upon a writ of fieri facias to him directed, upon a judgment obtained againſt A, ſeizes the goods, and ſells them, and a commiſſion of bankruptcy is granted, and the ſaid goods aſſigned by the commiſſioners, the aſſignee of the commiſſioners may maintain trover againſt the vender of the goods; but no action will lie againſt the ſheriff, becauſe he obeyed the writ. 2. If a trader hearing that a writ of fieri facias was iſſued againſt him, to the intent to preſerve his goods from being levied in execution, clandeſtinely conveys them out of his houſe, and conceals them privately, that does not amount to an act of bankruptcy. 3. That a ſeizure of part of the goods in a houſe, by virtue of a fieri facias in the name of the whole, is a good ſeizure of all. 4. It was reſolved in this caſe, that if the goods of A are ſeized upon a fieri facias, and ſold to B bona fide upon a valuable conſideration, though B permits A to have the goods in his poſſeſſion, upon condition that A ſhall pay to B the money as he ſhall raiſe it by the ſale of the goods, this will not make the execution fraudulent; and in ſuch caſe, a ſubſequent act of bankruptcy by A will not defeat the ſale. But, though the original debt was juſt, yet, if the execution was fraudulent, viz. upon any truſt a ſubſequent act of bankruptcy will defeat it. Lord Raym. 724, 5.

A plea of bankruptcy at large muſt ſet forth the petition, and the debts owing to the petitioning creditors. Lord Raym. 1548.

A bond given by a bankrupt to leave his wife a ſum of money, in caſe of ſurvivorſhip, is not diſcharged by the certificate. Lord Raym. 1549.

Lord Lanesborough & al' verſus Jones.

Samuel Jones, Eſq; borrowed 1500 l. of Coggs the goldſmith, on mortgage, and Coggs owed about 1400 l. to Jones, upon his the ſaid Coggs's notes; the notes were payable to the biſhop of London, Hatton Compton, and the ſaid Samuel Jones, or order, but this was in truſt for the ſaid Samuel Jones; and the biſhop, Hatton Compton, and Samuel Jones had all indorſed the notes which were in the cuſtody or power of Jones; and Jones went to demand the money of Coggs, who agreed to allow Jones 5 l. per cent. for the money on the notes, till payment.

Coggs failed afterwards; and an act of parliament was made for the veſting the effects and eſtate of Coggs in truſtees (the plaintiff, lord Laneſborough, and others) who were to act in nature of commiſſioners and truſtees for the creditors of Coggs, and they inſiſted that Jones, the mortgager, ſhould pay all the mortgage-money, but that, as to the money due on Coggs's notes, Jones ſhould come in, under the commiſſion, only pro rata with the reſt of the creditors.

But decreed by lord Chancellor Cowper, with great clearneſs, that in regard by the ſtatute of 4 Ann. cap. 17. ſect. 11. it is enacted, that, where there is mutual credit between a bankrupt and another, only the ballance ſhall be paid: ſo, in this caſe, here was a plain mutual credit, viz. Coggs gave credit to Jones on the mortgage, and Jones gave credit to Coggs on his notes, and, therefore, the ballance only ſhould be paid; and this clauſe in the ſtatute was not to be conſtrued of dealings in trade only, or in caſe of mutual running accounts, but that it was natural juſtice and equity, that, in all caſes of mutual credit, only the ballance ſhould be paid, and that the commiſſioners or truſtees, in this act of parliament, ſhould not be in a better condition then Coggs himſelf would have been in; that if, inſtead of the preſent bill which was to forcloſe the mortgage, Coggs himſelf, before his bankruptcy, had brought ſuch a bill, ſurely no more than the ballance ſhould have been allowed him; and there was no reaſon that Jones ſhould ſuffer by the accident of Coggs's bankruptcy; neither could the commiſſioners, or, if Coggs had been in the caſe of a common bankrupt, could the aſſignees, be in a better condition than Coggs himſelf would have been in.

But if A and B are joint-traders, and J S owes A and B, on their joint account, 100 l. and A owes the ſaid J S 100 l. on his ſeparate account, J S cannot deduct ſo much as A's proportion of the 100 l. comes to, out of the joint debt; for that the copartnerſhip debts of A and B are to be firſt paid (2 Vern. 293. 706.) before any of the ſeparate debts; but, if there be a ſurplus beyond what will pay the partnerſhip-debts, then out of A's ſhare of the ſurplus, J S may deduct the ſeparate debt of A. 1 Peer Will. caſe 84.

Miles

Miles verſus Williams & Ux.

The wife dum ſola enters into a bond and then marries, after which the huſband becomes a bankrupt; this debt by virtue of the ſtat. of 4 and 5 Ann. cap. 17, is diſcharged by ſuch bankruptcy. 1 Peer Will. caſe 57.

In like manner debts due to the wife dum ſola, though unrecovered, are, on the husband's bankruptcy, aſſignable by the commiſſioners. Ibid.

Ex parte Mackerneſs. On petition.

J S, a weaver, ſold Mackerneſs, a mercer, ſome ſilk for 103 l. and, at the ſame time, took two notes from Mackerneſs for payment thereof (ſcil.) one note for 50 l. payable at a day ſince paſt, and another note for 53 l. at a day yet to come.

Before the laſt day of payment incurred, J S, took out a commiſſion of bankruptcy againſt Mackerneſs, who was really a bankrupt, but petitioned to ſet the commiſſion aſide, as irregularly taken out, it being taken out at the ſingle petition of J S, to whom only 50 l. and not 103 l. was then due; and the ſtatute 5 Ann. cap. 22. requires, that, if a ſingle creditor ſues out a commiſſion, a debt of 100 l. muſt be due to him; if two creditors ſue it out, there muſt be 150 l. due to them; if three, or more, there muſt be 200 l. or more, due them.

Whereupon the lord Chancellor ſuperſeded the commiſſion, as irregular. 1 Peer Will. caſe 58 *.

* See the ſtatute of 7 Geo. I cap. 31. whereby ſuch creditors by note, or bond, payable at a future day, are admitted to prove their notes, &c. and are intitled to a proportionable part of the bankrupt's eſtate, though they muſt not join in ſuing forth the commiſſion till ſuch their debts become payable. However by the 5th of his late majeſty, perſons having bills, bonds, or notes, payable at a future day, may join in petitioning for commiſſions.

So creditors by bond, before day of payment cannot take out a commiſſion of bankruptcy, nor ought any proceeding to be had upon ſuch commiſſion. Peer Will. caſe 178.

A bankrupt, though in poſſeſſion, yet, if impowered to diſpoſe of goods in truſt for another, they are not liable to the bankruptcy, either in law or equity. Copeman ver. Gallant. 1 Peer Will. caſe 81.

An huſband, before he has received the wife's fortune, becomes a bankrupt, the aſſignees ſhall not receive it without making ſome proviſion for the wife. 1 Peer Will. caſe 100. Jacobſon & al' verſus Williams.

Though a creditor comes into a commiſſion of bankruptcy, and proves his debt, and is prevailed on to be an aſſignee (being informed that otherwiſe he ſhould loſe his debt); yet, if the bankrupt has no eſtate, the creditor may take the bankrupt in execution, if he will wave any benefit of the ſtatute. 1 Peer Will. caſe 163.

The reaſon of a creditor's coming in under a commiſſion of bankruptcy, and proving his debts, may be to oppoſe the bankrupt's being diſcharged. Ibid.

No election, in caſe of a creditor's coming in under the commiſſion, to be paid out of the bankrupt's effects, if no effects. Ibid.

Argument of fraud, if the commiſſion be ſued out by the bankrupt's father, in order to diſcharge the bankrupt. Ibid.

A bankrupt's wife cannot be examined againſt her huſband, to prove his bankruptcy; though by the ſtatute of 21 Jac. I. ſhe be made examinable touching the diſcovery of her huſband's effects. 1 Peer Will. caſe 178.

A bankrupt himſelf, by ſtat. 5 Geo. I, may be examined touching his own bankruptcy. Ibid.

If one of the reaſons for the commitment be illegal, and the party to continue in cuſtody till the thing ſo illegally required of him be done, the whole commitment is naught. Ibid.

The creditors of a bankrupt who come into the commiſſion, ſhall not impriſon the bankrupt for not paying the debt. Ibid.

A creditor petitions againſt the allowance of a bankrupt's certificate, upon which the bankrupt gives him a bond for payment of his whole debt, in conſideration of withdrawing his petition; equity will not relieve againſt this bond. 1 Peer Will. caſe 181. Lewes verſus Chaſe.

A trader ſeized of lands in fee gives judgment to B, and then ſells the land to C, and afterwards becomes a bankrupt; though the judgment-creditor cannot come in for more than his proportion with the bankrupt's creditors, whether he may not extend the lands in C, the purchaſer's hand, C having purchaſed before the bankruptcy, and this not prejudicing the creditors. So if A, the trader, gives judgment to B, and articles for a valuable conſideration to ſell to C, and then becomes a bankrupt, it ſeems the judgment ſhall bind the lands in the hands of C, who articled to buy them; but, whatever money the purchaſer was to pay the bankrupt, the ſame ſhall be liable to the bankruptcy. 1 Peer Will. caſe 212. Olebar verſus Fletcher and the duke of Kent.

A bankrupt, before his bankruptcy, gave a note to A for 100 l. payable to order. B buys in the note for 50 l. yet B is a legal creditor for 100 l. and may ſue out a commiſſion againſt the bankrupt; ſecus of an aſſignee of a bond, he not being the legal creditor, or if the indorſement were after the bankruptcy. 1 Peer Will. caſe 229. Ex parte Lee.

Where a bankrupt, after a certificate allowed, is ſued for a debt due before his bankruptcy, the court, on the circumſtances of the caſe, will relieve, though it will not relieve on a matter purely of miſ-pleading. 2 Peer Will. caſe 13. Blackhall verſus Combs, upon an appeal from a decree at the Rolls.

A draws a bill payable to B on C in Holland, for 100 l. C accepts the ſame; afterwards A and C become bankrupts, and B receives 40 l. of the bill out of C's effects; after which he would come in as a creditor for the whole 100 l. out of A's effects: B permitted to come in as a creditor for 60 l. and the maſter directed to ſee whether the other 40 l. was paid out of A's effects in C's hands, or out of C's own effects; if the latter, then C is a creditor for this 40 l. alſo; but, if out of A's effects, then 40 l. of the 100 l. is paid off. 2 Peer Will. caſe 21. Ex parte Ryſwicke.

Buying and ſelling ſtock will not make one a bankrupt. 2 Peer Will. caſe 86, pleadings. Colt verſus Netterville.

One deviſes lands in fee to his daughter, being a feme covert, for her ſeparate uſe, without appointing any truſtees; the huſband is a tradeſman, and becomes a bankrupt, yet the deviſed premiſſes are not ſubject to the bankruptcy. 2 Peer Will. caſe 91. Bennet verſus Davis.

A creditor coming in under a commiſſion of bankruptcy, though only to prove his debt, and oppoſe the bankrupt's obtaining his certificate, yet he ſhall not ſue the bankrupt at law, unleſs he will wave all benefit of the commiſſion; not only as to the dividends, but as to his voting againſt the bankrupt's gaining his certificate. 2 Peer Will. caſe 123. Anonymous.

A trader contracted with the Eaſt-India company, at one of their ſales, for the purchaſe of a parcel of Eaſt-India goods, to be paid for at a future day, and, before the day of payment, became a bankrupt.

Lord Chancellor: Formerly, in caſe a trader contracted a debt payable at a future day, and afterwards (but before the day of payment) became a bankrupt, this not being a debt until after the bankruptcy, at which time the bankrupt could not do any act to alien or leſſen his eſtate, to the prejudice of his creditors, ſuch contract was held void, and the creditor not allowed to come in for a ſatisfaction under the commiſſion.

And in ſome caſes it was thought hard, that if one, on the buying of goods, or for other valuable conſiderations, ſhould give a note under his hand, payable at a future day, and actually had the goods delivered to him, or the money lent him, and, before the day of payment, the debtor ſhould become a bankrupt, that in this caſe the creditor could not come in under the commiſſion with the reſt of the creditors; wherefore, for the remedying of this, the ſtatute of 7 Geo. I. cap. 31. was made. But the preſent caſe is not within that ſtatute, becauſe the goods were not delivered, nor was the contract ſigned by the party *.

* See the ſtatute, in which there are no expreſs words to this purpoſe.

At this day, if a bond or note be given by a trader upon a contingency, and before it happens, the trader becomes a bankrupt, and then the contingency happens, this is not within the act, neither ſhall the debt ariſing † after the bankruptcy be ſatisfied under the commiſſion.

† But, if the contingency happens before the bankrupt's eſtate be fully diſtributed, ſuch creditors ſhall come in pro rata.

A gives a promiſſary note for 200 l. payable to B, or order. B indorſes it to C, who indorſes it to D. A, B, and C become bankrupts, and D receives five ſhillings in the pound, on a dividend made by the aſſignees againſt A. D ſhall come in as creditor for 150 l. only, out of B's effects, and, if D paid contribution money for more than 150 l. it ſhall be returned. 2 Peer Will. caſe 129. Ex parte Lefevre.

A goldſmith, after ſhutting up his ſhop, being greatly in debt, conſigned his ſtock in the wine trade, in which he was concerned, to J S, being a particular creditor, and, to ſecure his debt, without the knowledge of J S, becomes a bankrupt the very next day; J S brings a bill, to have the benefit of this aſſignment, and decreed for him. 2 Peer Will. caſe 137. Small verſus Oudley & al'.

No ſuch thing as an equitable bankrupt, but it muſt be a legal one. Ibid.

There may be reaſon to prefer one creditor to another. Ibid.

The time when the aſſignment was made is not material, ſo as it be before the bankruptcy, but the juſtneſs of the debt is material. Ibid.

No objection, that the aſſignment was made by the trader without notice to the party, for this ſhews it was done without the creditor's importunity. Ibid.

But, if the aſſignment be of the bankrupt's whole eſtate to prefer any creditor, this ſeems to be void. Ibid.

A trader, on marriage, gives a bond to a truſtee to ſecure 1000 l. to the wife, if ſhe ſurvive him; the trader becomes

a bankrupt; this debt ſhall not be allowed, nor any reſervation made for it, nor ſhall it ſtop the diſtribution, in regard it may never be a debt; with the ſame reaſon an obligee in a bottomry-bond ſhall not, before the return of the ſhip, come in under a commiſſion of bankruptcy; but, in either of theſe caſes, if the contingency happens before the bankrupt's eſtate be juſtly diſtributed, ſuch creditor ſhall come in for his proportion. 2 Peer Will. caſe 159. Ex parte Caſwell, ex parte Cazalet, ex parte Bateman.

But, in the caſe abovementioned of the bond, the obligee, if if he declares upon his bond only, will be barred; ſecus, if he ſets forth in the declaration as well the condition as the bond. Ibid. Two joint traders becoming bankrupts, firſt there is a joint commiſſion taken out, and commiſſioners aſſign, afterwards ſeparate commiſſions and aſſignments made under them; the court held, that the aſſignment of the commiſſioners under the firſt commiſſion conveyed away all the bankrupts eſtate, both joint and ſeveral; and, conſequently, that the conveyance under the ſeparate commiſſion was void. 2 Peer Will. caſe 160. Ex parte Cook.

It is a reſolution of convenience, that, in caſe of joint traders becoming bankrupts, the joint-creditors ſhall be firſt paid out of the partnerſhip-effects, and the ſeparate creditors out of the ſeparate effects; and if any ſurplus of the partnerſhip-effects, after all the partnerſhip-debts are paid, the ſeparate creditors to come in, and ſo vice verſa, the partnerſhip-creditors to come in on a ſurplus of the ſeparate eſtate. Ibid.

Two joint traders becoming bankrupts, firſt there was a joint commiſſion, and the commiſſioners aſſign; afterwards ſeparate commiſſions and aſſignments under them: the court held that the aſſignment under the firſt commiſſion conveyed all the bankrupts eſtate, both joint and ſeveral, and, conſequently, that the conveyance under the ſeparate commiſſion was void. Ibid.

One ſues out a commiſſion of bankruptcy, and for ſix months, keeps it, without doing any thing upon it; the court, for this reaſon only, ſuperſeded the commiſſion, though it was executed, and the trader found a bankrupt before any application to ſuperſede it. 2 Peer Will. caſe 177. Ex parte Puleſton.

An aſſignee under a commiſſion of bankruptcy dies very much indepted by bond, &c. and the creditors of the bankrupt petitioned that the adminiſtrator of the aſſignee might account before the commiſſioners, he having ſome of the bankrupt's effects in ſpecie in his hands; but the adminiſtrator denying it upon oath, and ſwearing that theſe were debts by ſpecialty beyond the aſſets, the court thought this proper for a bill, and not for a ſummary way of accounting before commiſſioners. 2 Peer Will. caſe 178. Ex parte Markland.

On a joint commiſſion againſt two partners bankrupts, the ſeparate creditors, though they have taken out ſeparate commiſſions, ſhall yet be at liberty to come in to oppoſe the allowing of the certificate. 3 Peer Will. caſe 7. Horſley's Caſe. Where two partners are bankrupts, and a joint commiſſion is taken out againſt them, if they obtain an allowance of their certificate; this will bar as well their ſeparate as their joint creditors. Ibid.

So on the other hand, if there be two partners, and one of them becomes a bankrupt, and on a ſeparate commiſſion being ſued out againſt him, his certificate is allowed, this does not only diſcharge the bankrupt of what he owed ſeparately, but alſo of what he owed jointly, and on the partnerſhip account: becauſe, by the act of parliament, the bankrupt, upon making a full diſcovery, and obtaining his certificate, is to be diſcharged of all his debts. Now the debts he owes jointly with another, are equally his debts as what he owes on his ſeparate account; conſequently he is to be diſcharged of both his joint and ſeparate debts; and ſo it has been determined by the judges of B. R. by the lord chancellor Parker, ex parte Yale, 3 July, 1721. Ibid.

On a joint commiſſion, the joint creditors are firſt to come in on the partnerſhip effects, and, if there remains a ſurplus, then the ſeparate creditors are be admitted. Ibid.

A contingent intereſt, or poſſibility in a bankrupt, is aſſignable by the commiſſioners. Deviſe to ſuch of the children of A as ſhall be living at his death; A has iſſue B, who, becoming a bankrupt, gets his certificate allowed; after which A dies; this contingent intereſt is liable to the bankruptcy, foraſmuch as the ſon, in the father's life-time, might have releaſed it. 3 Peer Will. caſe 30. Higden & al' verſus Williamſon.

Though the aſſignee of the effects of a bankrupt claims under the act of parliament, yet, as the ſtatute of limitations might be pleaded againſt the bankrupt, by the ſame reaſon it is pleadable againſt ſuch aſſignee. 3 Peer Will. caſe 33. South-Sea company verſus Weymondſell.

One not in debt, nor then a trader, makes a voluntary ſettlement on a child, and afterwards becomes a trader and a bankrupt; this ſettlement not liable to the bankruptcy, 3 Peer Will. caſe 75, Lilly verſus Oſborn.

If A and B are bound in a bond jointly and ſeverally to J S, he may elect to ſue them jointly or ſeverally; but, if he ſues them jointly, he cannot ſue them ſeverally, for the pendency of the one ſuit may be pleaded in abatement of the other: by the ſame reaſon, if A and B, joint traders, become bankrupts, and there are joint and ſeparate commiſſions taken out againſt them, and A and B, before the bankruptcy, become jointly and ſeverally bound to J S; J S may chuſe under which commiſſion he will come, but ſhall not come under both. 3 Peer Will. caſe 113. Ex parte Rowlandſon.

If three are bound jointly and ſeverally, the obligee cannot ſue two of them jointly, for this is ſuing them neither jointly nor ſeverally. Roll. Abr. 148.

If two joint traders owe a partnerſhip-debt, and one of the parners gives a bond as a collateral ſecurity, for payment of this debt; here the joint debt may be ſued for by the partnerſhip creditors, who may likewiſe ſue the bond given by one of the traders. 3 Peer Will. caſe 113. Ex parte Rowlandſon.

A ſhoemaker is allowed to be within 13 Eliz. cap. 7. he living by his credit, in buying leather, and ſelling it wrought, Cro. Eliz. 268. Cro. Jac. 584. Cro. Car. 31. 3 Mod. 330.

A weaver and dyer are within the ſtatute, for they get their living by buying and ſelling. Cro. Jac. 584.

If one covenant with the king to victual the fleet at a certain rate, and for that uſe buys a great quantity of proviſion, &c. though with the ſurplus he victuals merchants, this will not make him a trader within the act, it being one act only, and not a continued trading. 1 Vent. 270. 2 Show. 270. Sir Thomas Littleton's caſe.

A carpenter that ſells wrought timber ſeems to be within the ſtatute. 3 Mod. 155.

The buying part of a ſhip makes no trading, it being no buying or ſelling within the ſtatute, but the party's in carriage for himſelf is an evidence of trade and merchandizing.—If a man repairs a ſhip, on the credit of the bottom, and takes a ſhare therein for debt, and employs the ſhip in carriage, it has been held, as this is compulſory, only to obtain his debt, and not the way the party hath put himſelf in to get his livelihood, that this ſhall not be taken as an evidence of trading. 1 Sid. 411. 1 Vent. 29. 2 Show. 268. 2 Keb. 487.

A man's buying and ſelling do not bring a man within the ſtatutes, they intending ſuch as gain the greateſt part of their living thereby.—A farmer bought and ſold cattle; it was adjudged that he was not a bankrupt, becauſe he only ſells the profits raiſed from the land. March 35. Cro. Jac. 549. 1 Danv. Abr. 687.

If a man contract a debt, while a trader, and leaves off, and lives on his eſtate, and afterwards abſconds for this debt, he is a bankrupt, he living by his trade, when the debt was contracted.—But, if a merchant leaves off his trade, and after contracts debts, and then ſells off the ſurpluſage of his goods, but hath no trading correſpondence, he is no bankrupt. Palm. 325. 1 Vent. 5. 3 Lev. 17. 1 Sid. 411. Sir Robert Cotton's caſe. But, where the ſame caſe comes on again, the cout held that he was a bankrupt, otherwiſe the miſchief would be great; for men cannot take notice, when another withdraws his trade. 1 Vent. 166.

The trader gives over trade, and then contracts debts, and goes into trade again on a new ſtock, on the petition of ſuch intermediate creditors he cannot be made a bankrupt, he not being truſted on the credit of his trade. 1 Sid. 411. 2 Show. 268. 1 Vent. 5.—But, if ſuch a perſon leaves goods in the hands of another, to be diſpoſed of, and is partner with him in the loſs or gain, he may be a bankrupt, he carrying on trade by proxy. Palm. 325.—But having a joint ſtock does not make a bankrupt, without proof of diſpoſal thereof; for otherwiſe no commerce is driven. 3 Keb. 487.

The trader becomes ſecurity for another; he is a bankrupt within the ſtatute, becauſe he is truſted on the reputation of his ſtock and dealing, as well where he is ſecurity, as where he contracts for his own debts. Palm. 325.

If a man keeps his houſe for a long time, this does not make him a bankrupt; but, if he conceal himſelf within his houſe but for a day or hour, to delay or defraud his creditors, he is a bankrupt. Palm. 325.

If there be a proceſs out againſt a merchant, and he keeps houſe to prevent arreſt, and after goes out to market, and other places, but, hearing of a new proceſs, keeps houſe again, and after goes out again at large, he is no bankrupt; the act of bankruptcy being purged by his going abroad. Cro. Eliz. 13. Godb. 25. 1 Lev. 13. 2 Sid 177.

If A commits a plain act of bankruptcy, as keeping houſe, &c. though he after goes abroad, and is a great dealer, yet that will not purge the firſt act of bankruptcy; but, if the act was doubtful, then going abroad and dealing explains the intent of the firſt act, and that it was not done to defraud creditors, and keep out of the way.—If, after an act of bankruptcy, he pays off or compounds with his creditors, he is become a new man.

If a man permit himſelf to be outlawed, to defraud his creditors, it is a cauſe of bankruptcy: ſo that, on a ſpecial verdict, if a jury find that he was outlawed, and do not find that it was to defraud creditors, that will not make him a bankrupt. 1 Keb. 11. Bradford's caſe.

A commiſſion of bankruptcy muſt be granted by my lord-chancellor, lord-keeper, or commiſſioner of the great ſeal, on application of creditors. 2 Chan. Ca. 190.

The power of commiſſioners of bankrupts is, by virtue of the ſeveral acts of parliament, which ought to be purſued, as they are ſubject to the action of the party grieved, for he hath no other remedy. 4 Inſt 277.—But if, in their proceedings, they commit ſome miſtake, which appears to be only an error of their judgment, they ſhall not be liable to an action. Comb. 391.

Though on examining of perſons according to 13 Eliz. cap. 7. by commiſſioners, yet a bill for the diſcovery of the ſame matters may be filed againſt them in Chancery. 2 Chan. Ca. 73.—They muſt diſcloſe and anſwer directly to the queſtions put. 1 Vent. 3'4.

A was ſummoned before commiſſioners of bankrupts, and the queſtions aſked him were, (1.) To give an account of all matters which he knew concerning the bankrupt's eſtate. (2.) When, and in what manner, did he aid the bankrupt in carrying away his effects, or in embezzling or concealing the ſame, to which he refuſed to anſwer, becauſe the firſt was too general, and the ſecond tended to accuſe himſelf, and bring him within the 13 Eliz. cap. 7. which gave a penalty of double the value of the goods, againſt him who conceals them; for which refuſal the commiſſioners committed him; and their warrant of commitment concluded, that he ſhould be committed until he conform to the authority of the commiſſioners. On habeas corpus brought by A againſt B. R. the court inclined that a witneſs was not to pay univerſal obedience to all queſtions aſked him by the commiſſioners; nor was he to anſwer any thing which tended to accuſe himſelf; but for the concluſion of the warrant of commitment, they held clearly that he ſhould be diſcharged; for the act directs, that he ſhall remain without bail until he ſubmit to the commiſſioners to be examined; which being a particular authority, and in reſtraint of liberty, ought to be conſtrued ſtrictly, and the very words of the ſtatute purſued. 5 Mod. 390. Bray's caſe. Com. 308, 309. S. C. 1 Salk. 390, 391. S. C.

Creditors, upon what ſecurity ſoever they be, come in all equal, unleſs ſuch as have obtained actual execution before the bankruptcy, or had taken pledges for their juſt debts; and the reaſon is, becauſe from the act of bankruptcy all the bankrupt's eſtate is veſted in the commiſſioners, who are eſtabliſhed as courts of juſtice touching the bankrupt's eſtate, and before whom the creditors muſt authenticate their debts, in order to receive their dividends; and, therefore, they muſt equally admit all perſons to make proof of their debts; but ſuch as have pawns or mortgages have a property in the thing ſo pledged, precedent to the tranſlation of the property to the commiſſioners; in which caſe they have only an equity of redemption, and are in no better condition than the bankrupt himſelf; that the bankrupt, before the aſſignment of the commiſſioners, has ſuch a property as will maintain an action for the recovery of the goods. 1 Salk. 108.

If a man commits an act of bankruptcy, and after continues in poſſeſſion of his lands for four years, and then ſells, and after commits another act of bankruptcy, and two years after a commiſſion is taken out, &c. this ſale ſhall ſtand, for the act of bankruptcy by which the ſale is to be avoided muſt be done within five years before the commiſſion ſued out. 3 Lev. 13, 14. 1 Keb. 11, 12, 722. 2 Sid. 69, 114, 176.

If A, having committed an act of bankruptcy, keeps on his trade, and four years after binds his ſon apprentice with a goldſmith, and pays with him 120 l. and two years after a commiſſion is taken out againſt A, this money is not aſſignable by the commiſſioners, being paid ſo long before the commiſſion, and without fraud. 3 Lev. 50. Skin. 22.

If a man purchaſes a copyhold to himſelf and wife for life, remainder to his ſon and his heirs, and two years after he becomes a trader, and four years after a bankrupt, there being no fraud in this caſe, nor any intent to deceive creditors, the intereſt of the wife and heir of the bankrupt cannot be defeated by this act of bankruptcy. Cro. Car. 550. Griſp. & Part. 1 Jones 438, 439. March 37.

If the father conveys to his children, to ſecure them money given by their grandfather, if it can be proved the father had effects of the grandfather's in his hands at the time of the execution of the deed, it ſhall not be avoided. 1 Mod. 76. But, if there be no conſideration, a ſettlement on his wife and children ſhall be conſtrued a ſettlement on himſelf; and ſuch an intereſt veſts in the aſſignees. Style 289. An obligation taken in the name of another, to the uſe of a bankrupt, is ſuch an intereſt in the bankrupt, that the commiſſioners may aſſign it, and after ſuch aſſignment the obligee cannot releaſe it. Palm. 505.

A man deviſes his lands, which were in mortgage, to be ſold, and the ſurplus of the money to be paid his daughter, who married one that ſoon became a bankrupt, and the commiſſioners aſſigned this intereſt of his wife's; the huſband died, and the aſſignees brought their bill againſt the wife and truſtees, to have the land ſold, and the ſurplus of the money paid them; but the court would not aſſiſt in ſtripping the wife (who was wholly unprovided for) of this intereſt, but diſmiſſed the bill. Abr. Eq. 54.

A puts out 1000 l. at intereſt to the Eaſt India company, and takes bond for it in the name of J S, his wife's relation; A becomes a bankrupt; J S is ſummoned before the commiſſioners, but, before examination, he tells us the Eaſt-India company that the money was not his, but that they ſhould pay it to the perſon who brought the bond; A's wife brings the bond, and has the money paid her; equity will not relieve againſt it. Preced. Chan. 18.

A legacy of 1000 l. was given to one after the death of her mother, when ſhe ſhould attain the age of 21 years, and the defendant was appointed truſtee for the raiſing and payment thereof out of certain lands; the legatee was drawn to marry one who ſoon proved a bankrupt, and the commiſſioners aſſigned his effects, and gave him a certificate of his conformity.—The aſſignees brought a bill againſt the truſtees for 1000 l. who inſiſted that the aſſignees could be in no better condition than the huſband; and that, if he were plaintiff, he could not prevail without making a ſuitable proviſion on his wife; that this legacy being a double contingency, viz. of the death of the mother, and the legatee's arriving at the age of 21 years, at the time of the bankruptcy, was not ſuch an intereſt as could be aſſigned; and the court held that, though both contingencies have ſince happened, yet theſe being ſince the aſſignment of the bankrupt's eſtate, and, ſince obtaining his certificate, he was now diſcharged as a bankrupt; and this portion could not paſs without a new aſſignment, which the commiſſioners could not make, their commiſſion being determined; and ſo diſmiſſed the bill. Ca. in Eq. Abr. 54.

If a fieri facias is taken out, and indorſed according to the ſtatute, and delivered to the ſheriff, and after, the ſame day, the defendant becomes a bankrupt, and the ſheriff levies 400 l. of the goods of the defendant, and pays it to the plaintiff, yet the commiſſioners may aſſign theſe goods notwithſtanding, &c. for, by the delivery of the writ to the ſheriff, the goods are bound in no other manner than before the ſtatute they were bound from the teſte of the writ; and by the delivery of the writ the execution is not ſerved or executed. 1 Lev. 67, 191, 192. 1 Keb. 930, 932. 1 Sid. 271. Cro. Eliz. 174.

Though the bankrupt's eſtate is transferred to the aſſignees, yet muſt they purſue the ſame remedies for the recovery of it as the bankrupt himſelf; therefore, if a debt upon a ſimple contract due to the bankrupt is aſſigned, an action of debt will not lie againſt the executor of the debtor, but the aſſignee muſt bring his action on the caſe. Cro. Car. 187. 1 Jones 223.

The plaintiff declares upon an aſſumpſit for 43 l. 1 s. and ſets forth an aſſignment of the debts of the bankrupt, mentionat' in quadam ſchedula continen' prædict' ſummam 43 l 1 s. and the jury find he was indebted only 41 l. 1 s. which he promiſed, &c. and that the commiſſioners aſſigned debita præd' in quadam ſchedula continen' præd' ſummam 43 l. 1 s. and, if this is the ſame promiſe, concludes for the plaintiff. Allen 23, 29. Style 62. S. C. Raym. S. C. cited.

If there be a joint bond to A and B, and A becomes a bankrupt, &c. the aſſignee cannot bring an action alone; but if aſſigned to B, he alone may bring an action, being intitled to one moity in his own right, and to the other for the benefit of creditors, by virtue of the aſſignment. 1 Lev. 17. 1 Keb. 167. Raym. 6, 7.

In aſſumpſit the plaintiff declared, as aſſignee under a commiſſion of bankruptcy awarded againſt J S, who became a bankrupt, &c. and that the defendant was indebted to J S, &c.—On demurrer to the declaration it was objected, that it was uncertain, it not being ſhewn how J S became a bankrupt, viz. and that impleading ſimony, the particular act muſt be ſet forth; but it was held well enough in this caſe, the ſtatutes mentioning the word bankrupt, but in the ſtatute againſt ſimony no mention is made of the word; beſides, in this caſe, the plaintiff is a ſtranger to the bankrupt, and it cannot be preſumed that it lies in his knowledge how he became a bankrupt. Carth. 29. Pepys & Low. Comb. 108. S. C. That the aſſignee muſt lay the promiſe to be made to the bankrupt. Vide 6 Mod. 131.

If the commiſſioners make a fraudulent diſtribution, it may be ſet aſide in Chancery. 2 Vern. 158, 162. For the caſes, which have been on the ſtatute relating thereto, 13 Eliz. cap. 7. Vide 2 Co. 26. 8 Co. 98. B. 1 Jones 203. 2 Sid. 177. Godb. 195. How diſtribution is to be under a joint commiſſion taken out againſt partners, vide 1 Chan. Ca. 193. 2 Vern. 293, 706.

Higden verſus Watkinſon. Michael. 6 Geo. II. in Chancery.

W R, by his will, gave to his wife for life all his lands, &c. and after her deceaſe to his daughter, Elizabeth Watkinſon, for her life, remainder to B S and J S, and their heirs, in truſt, to ſell the premiſſes, and to pay the money ariſing by ſuch ſale to the children of his ſaid daughter Elizabeth, that ſhould be living at her death.

The teſtator died in 1720.—The wife entered and enjoyed till 1726.—Elizabeth, the daughter, entered and enjoyed till 1729, and then died.—In 1726 a commiſſion of bankruptcy iſſued againſt William Watkinſon, the defendant's only ſon of Elizabeth, and the commiſſioners aſſigned his eſtate, and, in 1728, he had his certificate.—The queſtion was, whether the reverſionary intereſt of William Watkinſon was ſufficient

to intitle the aſſignees to it, when it ſhould come in poſſeſſion.—York, attorney-general, inſiſted, that, as it was ſuch an intereſt as the bankrupt himſelf might diſpoſe of, the aſſignees were intitled to it, under the ſtatutes of Henry VIII. and queen Elizabeth, which give the commiſſioners power to aſſign all ſuch intereſt as the bankrupt could have lawfully diſpoſed of: and the ſtatute of 21 James I. ſays the ſtatutes already made ſhall be conſtrued largely for the benefit of the creditors.—That the aſſignees have the ſame liberty, right, and benefit of performing any covenants as the bankrupt himſelf had; and that there were ſeveral caſes in ſerjeant Goodwin's book to that purpoſe.—That the word lawfully ſhall include equitable as well as legal intereſts.—That there was a caſe to this purpoſe determined by the maſter of the Rolls, lord chancellor, and houſe of lords, which was that of Theobald and Dufay, 1 Vern. 7. where A, poſſeſſed of a term, deviſed it to his wife for life, remainder to his two daughters, and their aſſigns, for the reſidue.—The huſband of one of the daughters aſſigned his intereſt to Theobald, during the life of the wife of the teſtator, which was held to be good againſt his wife.—That aſſignees are intitled to a bond due to the wife, while ſhe was ſole, becauſe the huſband might have diſpoſed of it by releaſe, and therefore, as the bankrupt might well have diſpoſed of this intereſt, he hoped the aſſignees were well intitled to it.

Note, This cauſe came to be reheard before the lord chancellor, from a decree of the maſter of the Rolls for the aſſignees, which was affirmed.

Degols verſus Ward, 10 Feb. 1733, Chancery.

Lord chancellor ſaid, that an original will cannot be made uſe of here as evidence in relation to the perſonal eſtate, but the probate of the will in the ſpiritual court muſt be read for that purpoſe.—This cauſe came on to be reheard from a decree of the late lord chancellor.—The firſt objection to the decree was, that Mr. Ward was a bankrupt, and, therefore, thoſe creditors ought to have come in under the commiſſion, and were not proper here, as it appeared the commiſſion was taken out by covin, and lord chancellor ſaid that ſhould not hinder the honeſt creditors from having their remedy.—As to the reſt, the decree directed an eſtate, which John Ward had conveyed to Ralph Ward, to be ſold for payment, in the firſt place, of what ſhould appear to have been really advanced by Ralph Ward, and then of the plaintiff's debts.—The caſe was thus upon an account ſtated between John Ward and Ralph Ward.—There was a ballance of 6000 l. due to Ralph, and 5452 l. due from him to John.—John took a note for the ſum due to him payable to his ſon Knox Ward, and, in ſatisfaction of the ballance due to Ralph, he conveys to him and heirs an eſtate of 200 l. a year, and very conſiderable allum-works, the poſſeſſion whereof had been in Ralph, as a truſtee for John.—Lord King was of opinion this conveyance was fraudulent, and within the intention of the ſtatute of king James, againſt fradulent conveyances.—It was objected to the decree, that this matter was properly triable at law, and not in this court.—Lord chancellor thought it might be proper to be examined at law; yet this court might take notice of ſuch a fraud, and therefore affirmed the decree, and ordered the plaintiff the depoſit.—Mr. Verney prayed a receiver might be appointed, as Mr. Ralph Ward had been ſo long in poſſeſſion; but, as great part conſiſted in works, which could not be well managed by a receiver, and it appearing that the eſtate was decreed to ſtand as a ſecurity for what ſhould be due to Ralph Ward on a note for 1200 l. as well as the ballance, it was refuſed.

Bracey verſus Dorſon. Michael. 7 Geo. II. K. B. Nov. 16, 1733.

A B becomes a bankrupt, but, before any aſſignment made, the commiſſioners of the land-tax ſeized his goods, according to the ſummary way directed by the act of parliament.—The commiſſioners of bankruptcy ſent their warrant, and attached the goods in the bailiff's cuſtody.—The queſtions here were, firſt, whether, as the act of bankruptcy was committed before the ſeizure of the goods, the aſſignment ſhould by relation veſt the goods in the aſſignees, as if this had been the caſe of a common perſon?—The next queſtion was, whether, as this was a caſe in which the crown was concerned, it differed from that of a common perſon?

Lord Hardwicke delivered the opinion of the whole court on the 28th of June following.—That, if this had been the caſe of a common perſon, the aſſignment would bind the goods by relation, although taken in execution, unleſs after ſale and the delivery of the money to the plaintiff.—But, as this was a caſe of the crown, it differed much from that of a common perſon: for the king cannot come in under a commiſſion for a diſtributive ſhare of a bankrupt's eſtate.—And, unleſs an act of parliament particularly mentions the king, he ſhall not be bound by it.—That it is agreed on all hands, that an extent ſhall bind the goods, even from the teſte, and why ſhall not the commiſſioners warrant, from the time of ſeizing the goods under it? for, by the act of parliament, the commiſſioners have this power of ſeizing the collector's

eſtates given them (the collector being conſidered as the officer of the pariſh, for that the pariſh is anſwerable, if he make default; and the receiver-general is the officer of the crown) wherefore the court is of opinion, that the king, by the ſeizure under the warrant of the commiſſioners of the land-tax, gained ſuch a lien upon the goods, that thereby they became bound, as againſt all other perſons.—That the crown is not bound by the acts made concerning bankrupts.—That it hath been determined, as in the caſe of Hanbury, 2 Show. 432, that, where an extent comes before the aſſignment, it would be good againſt the aſſignees.—But that the crown is bound from the time of aſſignment; for by the aſſignment the property of the goods is altered, and they are veſted in other perſons, i. e. the aſſignees.—That an extent, at the ſuit of a common perſon, ſhall not bind the crown till it is actually executed.—That in the caſe of Payne and Pitt, 1 Salk. 180, the king ſhall have preference to a common creditor.—And when he has ſeized goods, no perſon ſhall take them in execution, without firſt ſatisfying the king's debt; and cited the caſe in Cro. where it is ſaid a liberate ſhall bind in the caſe of a common perſon, from the time of taking the goods under the extent, and that the goods, when taken by the crown, were in pawn, as it were—ſo that no perſon could have them without firſt paying the money they were charged with.—The court was of opinion with the defendant, and ordered the plaintiff to pay the coſts of a nonſuit, this being an action of trover, brought by the aſſignees againſt the receiver-general, for the goods taken by the warrant of the commiſſioners of the land-tax.

Biddlecome verſus Marlow. Hill. 16 Geo. II. 28 February.

A man having bequeathed the reſiduum of his perſonal eſtate to the wife of J S, who did not appear to have been then indebted to any perſon whatſoever.—Soon after, J S agreed to ſettle, and did ſettle and aſſign this reſiduum to truſtees, for the ſeparate uſe of his wife, but with a proviſo that the truſtees might, in their diſcretion, at any time after, lend any part of the money to J S, to employ in trade.—Before the making the ſettlement, J S received 100 l. part of the reſiduum, and, after making the ſettlement, the truſtees lent him 400 l.—After this, J S contracted ſeveral debts, and became a bankrupt.—The bill was brought by the truſtees againſt the bankrupt, and his aſſignees, that they might be admitted creditors for the 500 l. under the commiſſion.

Per lord Hardwicke chancellor. This ſettlement, being made before the bankrupt was indebted to any perſon, appears to be a fair ſettlement, and not to be avoided as fraudulent by the ſtatute of 13 Elizabeth, and held, as to the 400 l. that the plaintiffs ought to be admitted creditors under the commiſſion, but that the 100 l. ought to be conſidered as a payment to the huſband, and decreed accordingly.

N. B. The truſtees had applied to the commiſſioners, &c. under the commiſſion, to be admitted creditors, but were rejected.

Bromley verſus Child. Michael. 17 Geo. II.

A commiſſion of bankruptcy had iſſued againſt Sir Stephen Evans, about 30 years ago, and ſome time ſince it was diſcovered that the bankrupt had a much better eſtate than what was ſufficient to pay all his debts; and now the queſtion was, whether the creditors ſhould be allowed intereſt for their debts, out of the ſurplus?—It was argued for the repreſentatives of the bankrupt, that the debt claimed, being approved and allowed, is after like a judgment, which ſhall never carry intereſt for the money adjudged, and that, the bankrupt in this caſe having obtained his certificate, the ſurplus, after payment of the debts proved, ought to be paid over to the repreſentatives of the bankrupt, without any deduction being made for the intereſt of the debts proved.

For the creditors it was argued, that the ſurplus eſtate, now in queſtion, is not an eſtate acquired by the bankrupt, after the obtaining his certificate, but is part of the eſtate originally aſſigned over by the commiſſioners to the aſſignees.—That the creditors have as much right to be paid intereſt for their debts, as they have to be paid their principal.—That intereſt-money is the common damages for detaining of money, and is but as the fruit of the branch.—That the bankrupt's certificate in the preſent caſe was only obtained by the bankrupt from the commiſſioners, and was not confirmed by the chancellor till after the bankrupt's death.

Lord Hardwicke chancellor obſerved, that this queſtion had come before him upon a petition: but that he had directed a bill to be brought in reſpect that, if he had determined it then, no appeal would have laid from his determination, as it now does, being brought in queſtion in a cauſe in court.

As to the certificate, he declared that he thought the ſame valid, though not confirmed, till after the bankrupt's death. For that the privileges ariſing from it are of ſuch a nature, that the repreſentatives of the bankrupt may take advantage of them as well as the bankrupt himſelf.—That the certificate is to be conſidered in the nature of a releaſe, it's force ariſing from the conſent of the creditors.

It has been objected on the ſide of the repreſentatives, that they ought not to be bound by the proof made by the creditors before

before the commiſſioners, which is a proof only upon their own oaths; but, I think, that after this great length of time, they ought to be bound by that.—The oath of the party is always, in caſes of this kind, allowed in the firſt inſtance, as ſufficient to prove the debt claimed; and though they may be controverted before the commiſſioners, and the great ſeal may be applied to, to have an enquiry directed, yet ſuch application or objections are to be made in a reaſonable time.

The commiſſion may be proceeded in, or renewed, notwithſtanding the death of the bankrupt.

Then as to the main queſtion decreed, That the ſeveral creditors ſhould be paid intereſt for their debts, before the ſurplus is paid over by the aſſignees to the repreſentatives of the bankrupt, but that the bond creditors ſhould not be paid intereſt added to their debt beyond the ſpecialties of their bonds. 1 Vern. 350.—The commiſſioners have a mixed right of juriſdiction, legal and equitable, to be exerciſed by a ſound diſcretion, and all the ſtatutes plainly imply this, and particularly the ſtatute of the 13th of Elizabeth.—The commiſſioners, at firſt, always preſume a failing fund, but, when the contrary happens, intereſt is to be conſidered as part of the debt; it is a kind of penalty for the non-payment.—The whole eſtate of the bankrupt is veſted in the aſſignees for payment of the debts.—To ſay intereſt ought not to be paid, would be to diſcharge the fund before the debt paid.—It has been argued, that, as the eſtate ceaſes to carry intereſt, no intereſt ought to be charged on it; but this argument is fallacious.—Suppoſe the eſtate does produce intereſt, ſhall ſuch intereſt be paid over to the bankrupt, before the creditors are fully paid? The words veſting the bankrupt's eſtate in the commiſſioners, viz. all that the bankrupt may lawfully part with, includes eſtates tail, which the bankrupt may part withal by recovery, and that the ſtatute enabling the commiſſioners to diſpoſe of eſtates tail in the bankrupt, is to be underſtood of eſtates tail in him where there is a precedent eſtate for life, which eſtates tail, by reaſon of the precedent eſtate for life, the bankrupt could not part with, nor the commiſſioners, or the aſſignees before the ſtatute.

Jones verſus Brown. Mich. 18 Geo. II. 1744.

The bill in this caſe was by the plaintiff, as aſſignee under a commiſſion of bankruptcy, to have the benefit of an eſtate charged to belong to the bankrupt, which the bankrupt, before any act of bankruptcy, in conſideration of 600 l. paid to him by his wife's brother, and of 400 l. promiſed by the brother to be further paid, had conveyed to truſtees, to the uſe of himſelf for life, remainder to his wife for her life for her jointure, remainder to other truſtees for a term of 99 years, remainder to the firſt and other ſons, &c. of the bankrupt by his wife, and, this ſettlement being made after marriage, it was inſiſted not to be good, as againſt the creditors.—And, if it was good, yet that, there being no truſt declared of the 99 years term, it reſulted back to the uſe of the bankrupt, the granter, and conſequently that the aſſignees had a right to diſpoſe of this term ſubject to the eſtate for life to the wife.

Lord Hardwicke, chancellor, held the ſettlement to be upon a valuable conſideration, and good, and that the term ſhould not reſult back to the bankrupt, as a beneficial term, but that it ought to attend the inheritance, according to the limitations in the ſettlement.

In this caſe, where the ſettlement was produced on the ſide of the defendants, it appeared to be an indenture of releaſe, and thereupon the counſel for the plaintiffs called for the leaſe for a year, and, the defendants not being able to ſhew any, it was inſiſted for the plaintiffs, that this was no conveyance.—But, Lord Hardwicke, chancellor, without ſuffering it to be argued, declared, that the want of the leaſe for a year would not in equity, whatever it might at law, vitiate the conveyance, for that, if no leaſe for a year at all had been made, it is a defect that a court of equity ought to ſupply, where the conveyance appears to have been made, as in this caſe, upon a valuable conſideration.

Pattinden verſus Micho, 20 June 1735, Chancery.

The ſum of 900 l. being a legacy left Rodbear's wife, was, upon his marriage, veſted in truſtees, to pay the intereſt to Rodbear for life, then to his wife for her life, and, after both their deaths, to their children.—Rodbear borrowed of the truſtees 300 l. and, after ſome time, paid them 206 l. and afterwards became a bankrupt.—The aſſignees bring their bill to have the intereſt of this 206 l. paid to them by the truſtees for the uſe of the creditors.—The defendants inſiſted, that the aſſignees ought to pay them the whole 94 l. remaining in the bankrupt's hands, before they could be intitled to receive any part of the intereſt.—And it was agreed on all hands, that, if the bankrupt himſelf had brought the bill, he could not have the intereſt without firſt paying the 94 l.—The defendants inſiſted, that, as the aſſignees ſtood in the place of the bankrupt, they could have no other relief than he himſelf might have had.

Lord chancellor ſaid the clauſe in the act of parliament for ſetting one debt againſt another, when there was an account depending, extended only to ſuch as were due at the time of the bankruptcy.—That aſſignees did not always ſtand exactly in the ſame place as the bankrupt, though they did in ſeveral caſes.—As where a legacy is given to the bankrupt's wife, there the aſſignees cannot receive that legacy without doing what the bankrupt himſelf muſt be obliged to do; that is, to make a ſettlement upon the wife of it.—In ſome caſes, they ſtand on different footings, as where, under the commiſſion, all debts come in equally, though they affect the bankrupt himſelf one before another; and was of opinion, that the aſſignees were intitled to receive the intereſt of the 206 l. without firſt paying the 94 l.

In this caſe there was a joint commiſſion taken out againſt Rodbear and his partner, and lord chancellor ſaid, that, if this 94 l. was a ſeparate debt, the truſtees would be intitled to retain the intereſt, unleſs the 94 l. was paid; and gave directions, that, if the aſſignment was of the ſeparate eſtate, the intereſt was to be paid; but, if it was an aſſignment of the joint eſtate, the bill to be diſmiſſed with coſts on either ſide.—But, if the aſſignees brought a new bill, with liberty to apply for their coſts of this ſuit.

Stephens verſus Sole, 5 July 1736, Chancery.

William Tappenden, ſon-in-law to the plaintiff, made a mortgage for ſecuring to the plaintiff 1400 l. and intereſt, dated 1729, of a leaſehold eſtate, and three hoys; and afterwards, in 1733, became a bankrupt.—Plaintiff brought his bill againſt the aſſignees to have ſatisfaction for this money, or that the defendants might be foreclоſed.—Tappenden continued in poſſeſſion of the leaſehold eſtate, and navigated the hoys, and appeared as the viſible owner to the time of his bankruptcy, and during that time made an abſolute bill of ſale of one of the hoys to one of his ſervants, to protect him from being preſſed.—Sollicitor general, Verney, and Melmouth inſiſted, that this mortgage was void, as againſt the creditors, by the ſtatute of king James, the bankrupt continuing in poſſeſſion of the hoys, and appearing as viſible owner of them, to the time of the bankruptcy.—The ſtatute of 21 Jac. I. chap. 19. § 11. ſays,—Be it enacted, That if at any time hereafter any perſon or perſons ſhall become bankrupt, and, at ſuch time as they ſhall become bankrupt, ſhall, by the conſent or permiſſion of the true owner, or proprietary, have in their poſſeſſion, order, and diſpoſition, any goods or chattels, whereof they ſhall be reputed owners, and take upon them the ſale, alteration, or diſpoſition, as owners, that in every ſuch caſe the commiſſioners are to diſpoſe thereof as fully as any other part of the bankrupt's eſtate; and, in §. 13, the commiſſioners have a power to diſpoſe of the bankrupt's eſtate, goods, &c. in mortgage, upon tender of the money before the condition broken.—They inſiſted that this caſe was within the inconvenience provided againſt by the act of parliament, ſeeing it gives the bankrupt a falſe credit, in order to the defrauding of his creditors.—Melmouth cited Twine's caſe, in the third report of Fazakerly for the plaintiff, urging that it would be very inconvenient to tradeſmen if they were obliged to diſpoſe of their goods, whenever they wanted to raiſe a ſum of money.—As to the falſe credit, it is true the bankrupt has a credit by continuing in poſſeſſion, but, at the ſame time, his eſtate is increaſed as much as by the money he received; and it would be very hard if the creditors ſhould have the benefit of the plaintiff's money, and yet at the ſame time take his ſecurity from him.—He inſiſted that the ſection before cited intended only ſuch goods, the property of which was abſolute in another perſon, and not ſuch goods as were mortgaged, becauſe in the 13th ſection it is ſaid in what manner the commiſſioners are to diſpoſe of lands or goods in mortgage.

Lord chancellor ſaid, that as this was not a fraudulent tranſaction, as to the leaſehold eſtate, it cannot be ſaid that the mortgage of the hoys is to be conſidered as fraudulent, and therefore Twine's caſe is different from this, as there was the appearance of fraud in that caſe.—As to the hoys, the ſingle queſtion is, whether this tranſaction is within the ſtatute of king James.—The bankrupt continued in poſſeſſion, and made an abſolute bill of ſale to one of his ſervants, and appeared the viſible owner, but paid the intereſt for the 1400 l. pretty regularly. If this had been an abſolute bill of ſale to the plaintiff of theſe hoys, and the bankrupt had continued in poſſeſſion of them afterwards, there could have been no doubt but that would have been within the act of parliament; but, in the preſent caſe, the bill of ſale is ſubject to a redemption, and the abſolute property is certainly not in the mortgagee.—Yet in law the mortgagee is conſidered as abſolute owner.—Therefore the ſafeſt way, ſaid his lordſhip, is to conſider this as within the meaning of the act of parliament, though he ſaid, at the firſt view of the caſe, his opinion was otherwiſe.—In this view of the caſe it appearing that the leaſehold eſtate and hoys were not worth the money they are charged with by the mortgagee, what reaſon could there be that the plaintiff ſhould let the poſſeſſion continue in the bankrupt, when his intereſt became abſolute?—'Tis true it was kind to the bankrupt; but why ſhould other perſons ſuffer by his kindneſs? And, ſince ſomebody muſt ſuffer, it is moſt reaſonable he who by his laches occaſions this queſtion,

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ſhould be the perſon.—This clauſe is not built ſo much upon the fraud, as the inconvenience that would ariſe, if perſons were to appear as viſible owners of things which do not belong to them.—The other ſection, in relation to mortgages, does not alter the conſtruction of this clauſe, defendants ſubmitting to be foreclоſed of the leaſehold eſtate.—Ordered the maſter to ſet a value upon it, and the plaintiff to come in for the reſidue under the commiſſion, and no coſts on either ſide.

The ſubſtance of the ſtatutes in England relating to bankrupts, is as follows.

According to the ſtatute of 13 Eliz. cap. 7. perſons liable to bankruptcy are thoſe, who having exerciſed trades by buying and ſelling wares, depart the realm, conceal themſelves, or permit themſelves to be falſly arreſted, to defraud creditors.—The lord chancellor, upon a complaint in writing againſt a bankrupt, appoints commiſſioners to ſell the bankrupt's lands, as well copy as free, annuities, goods, chattels, debts, &c.—Commiſſioners have power to convene perſons ſuſpected to have any of the bankrupt's effects.—Perſons refuſing to diſcloſe, or detaining lands, &c. to forfeit double the value.—If the perſon indebted abſent himſelf after five proclamations by commiſſioners, to be out of the king's protection, and perſons concealing him to be impriſoned and fined.—The creditor not ſatisfied, may afterwards take his courſe at law.

Stat. 1 Jac. c. 15. By this ſtatute a creditor ſhall be received, if he comes in, in four months.—Grants of lands, &c. of a bankrupt, in other men's names, except to children upon marriage, or for a valuable conſideration, void.—If, upon warning left at the uſual place of reſidence three times, the bankrupt does not appear, five proclamations to be made, &c.—Refuſing to be examined, ſhall be committed.—Committing perjury to 10 l. prejudice of creditors, to ſtand in the pillory.—Perſons ſuſpected to detain any of the eſtate, not appearing, to be arreſted; and ſtill refuſing, to be committed.—Commiſſioners may aſſign debts, &c. to the creditors; and proceed to execution, though the bankrupt dies.—Commiſſioners to render the bankrupt an account, and pay overplus, &c.

Stat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 19.—Trading perſons and ſcriveners getting protection, except of members of parliament; perſons endeavouring to compel creditors to take leſs than their due, or to gain time beyond ſix months, and eſcaping, &c. adjudged bankrupts.—Bankrupt's wife to be examined on oath.—Bankrupt fraudulently concealing to ſtand in the pillory.—Commiſſioners may break open a bankrupt's houſe, cheſts, &c.—Another man's goods in the bankrupt's poſſeſſion to be diſtributed.—No reſpect to be had to debts upon judgment, recognizances, or ſpecialties, beyond other debts.

Stat. 12 and 14 Car. II. cap. 24, 9, &c.—10 W. III. cap. 44. Adventurers in the Eaſt-India or Guinea company; and no member of any ſociety or company to be adjudged a bankrupt, in reſpect of his ſtock; and the ſtock not liable to foreign attachment.

Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 30. Bankrupts not ſubmitting to be examined thirty days after notice, and not diſcovering how they have diſpoſed of their goods, and all books, papers, &c. and delivering up to the commiſſioners all ſuch eſtate, &c. except their wives and children's neceſſary wearing apparel, to ſuffer as felons.—Lord chancellor may enlarge the time for ſurrendering to ſixty days.—Commiſſioners to ſend for perſons, &c. not appearing, or refuſing to be ſworn, to be committed.—On certificate of the commiſſioners, the bankrupt to be apprehended.—Perſons conforming, to be allowed 5 l. per cent.—No advantage to bankrupts giving above 100 l. in marriage with children, unleſs at the time they could ſatisfy their debts.

Bankrupts removing, concealing, or embezzling any monies or effects to the value of 20 l. guilty of felony.—Commiſſioners to aſſign to ſuch as ſhall be choſen by the major part of the creditors.—Aſſignees before appointed refuſing to aſſign over to them, to forfeit 100 l.—Aſſignees or the major part of them, to compound with debtors.—No commiſſion of bankruptcy to be iſſued out, unleſs the debt of one creditor petitioning amounts to 150 l. or of three amount to 200 l.—And bond to be given in 200 l. penalty, to prove the party a bankrupt.—Receivers general of taxes, &c. to have no benefit of theſe acts.

Stat. 10 Ann. cap. 15. The deſcriptions of a bankrupt in the act 21 Jac. I. being prejudicial to trade, this ſtatute makes all deſcriptions of bankrupts void.—But no ſale of eſtates to be impeached.

Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 30. Bankrupts, within thirty days after notice, ſhall ſurrender themſelves to commiſſioners, and conform to the ſtatutes.—The commiſſioners to call before them perſons, who can give account of acts of bankruptcy, &c.—Truſtees for the bankrupt and others, are to diſcover truſts, &c. or forfeit 100 l.—Three ſeveral meetings ſhall be appointed by the commiſſioners; who are to certify to the lord chancellor, that the bankrupt hath conformed; and four parts in five, in number and value of creditors, to ſign the certificate.—Commiſſioners, &c. to be inrolled, at an office erected for that purpoſe; and the commiſſioners to have 20 s. per diem, &c.

Stat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. and 7 Geo. I. cap. 31. A bankrupt in priſon, on execution for debt, to be diſcharged producing his certificate.—And perſons having bills or notes on bankrupts, due at a day to come, are intitled to dividends, allowing diſcount, at 5 l. per cent.

Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 30. Bankrupts not ſurrendering in forty-two days, and not diſcovering eſtates, adjudged guilty of felony; but the lord chancellor may enlarge this time fifty days further.—They are to deliver all books of accounts, writings, &c. to aſſignees on oath; and be allowed 5 l. per cent. not above 200 l. if pay 10 s. in the pound, and 7 l. 10 s. per cent. not above 250 l. if pay 12 s. 6 d. in the pound, &c.—And the body of the bankrupt only, not his future eſtate, to be diſcharged, except he pays 15 s. per pound.—Four parts in five, in number and value of creditors, are to ſign certificates, &c.—Bonds or notes given to conſent to any certificates, to be void; and, if any creditor ſuing out any commiſſion, has privately more than others, the commiſſion ſhall be ſurperſeded.—Bankrupts to be apprehended on a commiſſion iſſued, &c.—Perſons that diſcover their eſtates, allowed 5 l. per cent.—And concealing truſts, ſhall forfeit 100 l. and double value.—Notice muſt be given to creditors to meet and chuſe aſſignees, prove debts, &c. but none to vote where a debt is under 10 l.—New aſſignees may be choſen by the creditors; and aſſignees after the end of four months, and within twelve, to account, and dividend to be made; and there may be a ſecond final dividend in eighteen months, &c.—Commiſſioners to take an oath, allowed 20 s. a day, and nothing for expences; and attornies bills to be adjuſted by a maſter in chancery, &c.

Bankers, brokers, and factors, are ſubject to ſtatutes of bankruptcy; but no farmer, grazier, or receiver-general of taxes, ſhall be deemed a bankrupt. Stat. 5 Geo. II. c. 30. continued by ſtat. 16 Geo. II. c. 17. until 29 Sept. 1750, &c.

No perſon who is bona fide a creditor of any bankrupt for, or in reſpect of, goods bona fide ſold to ſuch bankrupt, or of any bill of exchange bona fide drawn, negociated, or accepted by ſuch bankrupt, in the uſual ordinary courſe of trade, ſhall be liable to repay to the aſſignee any money which before the ſuing forth of ſuch commiſſion was bona fide, and in the uſual courſe of trade, received by ſuch perſon of ſuch bankrupt, before the perſon receiving the ſame ſhall have notice that he is become bankrupt, or is in inſolvent circumſtances.

The obligee in any bottomry or reſpondentia bond, and the aſſured in any policy of inſurance made and entered into upon a valuable conſideration bona fide, ſhall be admitted to claim, and after loſs to prove his debt, as if the loſs had happened before the date of the commiſſion againſt the obligor or inſurer; and the bankrupt ſhall be diſcharged from ſuch bond and policy, and have the benefit of the ſeveral ſtatutes againſt bankrupts, as if the loſs had happened, or the money had become payable, before the date of the commencement.

Upon theſe ſtatutes, the preceding, and all other adjudications in our courts of law and equity are founded, the judges being the proper expoſitors of all acts of parliament. The variety of caſes, which have occurred upon this ſubject, is ſo great, as to fill a large volume alone. Wherefore, we have only ſelected the more eſſential; and added ſome new caſes, which have not yet been authentically reported, and which we have been favoured with from thoſe, whoſe judgment in taking them may be depended on. More, we apprehend, will not be expected of us in a work of this nature.

The laſt act of parliament made in regard to bankrupts.

Whereas merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, ſcriveners, and traders, within the deſcription of the ſtatutes relating to bankrupts, having privilege of parliament, are not compellable to pay their juſt debts, or to become bankrupts, by reaſon of the freedom of their perſons from arreſts upon civil proceſs; and ſome doubts have alſo ariſen, whether in caſes of bankruptcy, a commiſſion can be ſued out during the continuance of ſuch privilege; to remedy which inconveniencies, and to ſupport the honour and dignity of parliament, and good faith and credit in commercial dealings, which require, that in ſuch caſes, the laws ſhould have their due courſe, and that no ſuch merchants, bankers, brokers, factors, ſcriveners, or traders, in caſe of actual inſolvency, ſhould by any privilege whatever, be exempted from doing equal juſtice to all their creditors: be it enacted by the king's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual, and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the ſame, that from and after the eleventh day of May, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four, it ſhall be lawful for any ſingle creditor, or two or more creditors, being partners, whoſe debt or debts ſhall amount to one hundred pounds or upwards, and for any two creditors, whoſe debts ſhall amount to one hundred and fifty pounds or upwards, or any three or more creditors, whoſe debts ſhall amount to two hundred pounds or upwards, of any perſon or perſons deemed a merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader or traders, within the deſcription of the acts of parliament relating to bankrupts, having privilege

of parliament at any time, upon affidavit or affidavits being made and filed on record in any of his majeſty's courts at Weſtminſter, by ſuch creditor or creditors, that ſuch debt or debts is or are juſtly due to him or them reſpectively, and that every ſuch debtor, as he or they verily believe, is a merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader, within the deſcription of the ſtatutes relating to bankrupts, to ſue out of the ſame court ſummons, or an original bill and ſummons, againſt ſuch merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader, and ſerve him with a copy thereof; and if ſuch merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader, ſhall not, two months after perſonal ſervice of ſuch ſummons, (affidavits of the debt or debts having been duly made and filed as aforeſaid) pay, ſecure, or compound for ſuch debt or debts, to the ſatisfaction of ſuch creditor or creditors, or enter into a bond in ſuch ſum, and with two ſuch ſufficient ſureties, as any of the judges of that court, out of which ſuch ſummons ſhall iſſue, ſhall approve of, to pay ſuch ſum as ſhall be recovered in ſuch action or actions, together with ſuch coſts as ſhall be given in the ſame, he ſhall be accounted and adjudged a bankrupt from the time of the ſervice of ſuch ſummons; and any creditor or creditors may ſue out a commiſſion againſt any ſuch perſon, and proceed therein in like manner as againſt other bankrupts.

Provided always, and it is hereby declared, that this act ſhall not extend, or be deemed or conſtrued to extend, to any ſuch debt or debts as aforeſaid, contracted before the eighth day of March, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four; any thing herein before contained to the contrary thereof, in any wiſe notwithſtanding. And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that if any merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader, ſhall after the laſt day of this ſeſſion of parliament, commit any act of bankruptcy, that then, and in ſuch caſe, any creditor or creditors as aforeſaid, may ſue out a commiſſion of bankrupt againſt ſuch merchant, banker, broker, factor, ſcrivener, or trader; and the commiſſioners in ſuch commiſſion, and other perſons, may proceed thereon in like manner, as againſt other bankrupts; any privilege of parliament to the contrary notwithſtanding. Provided nevertheleſs, and be it enacted, that nothing in this act ſhall ſubject any perſon intitled to privilege of parliament to be arreſted, or impriſoned, during the time of ſuch privilege, except in caſes made felony by the acts relating to bankrupts, or any of them.

Remarks.

The light wherein bankruptcies are conſidered in France.

The French make a diſtinction between a bankruptcy and a failure, they judging the former deſigned and fraudulent, a merchant thereby wickedly intending to wrong his creditors, by not ſurrendering his effects, till he had ſecreted or embezzled the beſt part of them: whereas a failure is deemed involuntary and inevitable, and always occaſioned by real misfortunes.

They reckon that a man has failed from the moment he does not pay, when due, the bills of exchange, which he has accepted, or does not return the money to thoſe whom he may have furniſhed with bills, which are returned proteſted; or does not diſcharge his promiſſary notes, when payable; either by reaſon of misfortunes in trade, or that he cannot get in his effects in time to comply with his obligations.

Such a failure (or ſtoppage of payment, as we frequently term it in England) though it greatly ſtaggers and impairs a trader's credit and reputation, yet it does not brand him with that infamy fixed on a fraudulent bankrupt, provided he pays his creditors to the full, according to the time and terms of agreement his creditors ſhall grant him.

There is another kind of failure, which differs from a fraudulent bankruptcy, and yet is reckoned more infamous than that which we have been mentioning. This is, when a merchant having loſt the greateſt part of his eſtate, either by ſhipwreck and the capture of his veſſels, or by the bankruptcy and failure of others, or by the villainy of partners, or any other accidents, is obliged to cauſe his creditors to loſe part of what he owes them, and to require time for payment of the reſidue.

When a merchant diſappears, without any lawful or apparent cauſe, and is not ſeen upon the Exchange, this is ſaid to be a failing of preſence and credit; whence the word failure is derived.

The bankruptcy or failure, in France, is reckoned to commence from the day on which the debtor withdraws or abſconds, or on which his effects are ſealed.

Thoſe who have made a failure, are obliged to give to their creditors a ſtate of the account ſigned of whatever they poſſeſs, of all they owe, and of all that is due to them, and to repreſent before them all their books of accounts in due form; otherwiſe they will be deemed fraudulent bankrupts.

If any one has in any manner aided or aſſiſted a fraudulent bankrupt, he incurs the penalty of a fine of 1500 livres, and pays double the amount of all he has been inſtrumental to ſecrete, or demand beyond what is due to him; all which ſhall be applied to the advantage of the creditors, according to the ordonnance of the month of March 1673.

There is a declaration of the king of the 18th of November 1702, which requires that all conveyances of transfers upon the effects of merchants, who have failed, provided they were not executed ten days, at leaſt, before the failure is publickly known; and likewiſe all deeds and obligations as they ſhall execute before a notary, to the advantage of any one of their creditors, or to contract new debts, ſhall be null and void. Moreover, all ſentences given againſt them, ſhall not procure to ſuch creditors any right or preference before other creditors, who have only notes, or bills of exchange, or ſuch like papers, to produce as vouchers of their reſpective debts; unleſs the ſaid deeds and bonds were made, or the ſaid ſentences given, ten days, at leaſt, before the failure was publickly known.

By another declaration of June the 13th, 1716, all merchants, traders, bankers, and others, who break, are obliged to depoſit a particular account, the truth of which muſt be duly atteſted, of all their effects moveable and immoveable, as alſo of all their debts, together with all their books of accounts and vouchers, into the rolls-office of the conſular juriſdiction of their dwelling-place, or of the next place; in default of which they ſhall not be admitted to make any contract, agreement, compoſition, &c. with their creditors, nor to make an advantage of any ſafe-conduct granted them by their creditors; but ſhall be liable to be extraordinarily proſecuted as fraudulent bankrupts, by the attornies-general, or their deputies, and even by any one of their creditors, without the conſent of the reſt. His majeſty declaring, however, that he does not pretend hereby to infringe, in the leaſt, the privileges of the conſular juriſdiction of Lyons, which ſhall be preſerved and kept as uſual.

The ordonnance of Henry IV. publiſhed in the year 1609, and that of Lewis XIV. iſſued in 1673, require ſuch bankrupts to be proceeded againſt extraordinarily, and puniſhed with death, who wilfully and wickedly ſecrete their effects, or ſecure them under borrowed names, by falſe ſales, and fictitious transfers.

How bankrupts are conſidered in Holland.

The Dutch have the ſame idea of the word bankrupt, as the French, they underſtanding thereby a trader who breaks to grow rich, by defrauding of his creditors: they likewiſe make the ſame diſtinction between a failure and a bankruptcy, as the French. In the former caſe they are without mercy, in the other they are very merciful and benevolent, when accompanied with the circumſtances of real misfortunes, and not with want of integrity or œconomy.

In order to make due inquiſition into the affairs of thoſe who fail in any ſhape, they have eſtabliſhed, at Amſterdam, a court which they call de Kamer van de Deſolate Boedels, or the Chamber of Deſolate Funds; the ordonnance in regard thereunto is as follows.

I. This court conſiſts of five capable perſons, who are choſen annually, by the lords juſtices, two of whom muſt be elected from the elder aldermen of the city, and the reſt muſt be well experienced in commerce.

II. Two of theſe commiſſioners, at leaſt, are continued for three years ſucceſſively, and no longer, and the election of the reſt is made as the commiſſioners of other courts are.

III. Theſe commiſſioners meet daily to attend the affairs of inſolvents.

IV. When there happens any inſolvent in the city of Amſterdam, or under its juriſdiction, either by death, or failure, the commiſſioners immediately go with their ſecretary, and take an exact inventory of all the effects, and ſecure them for the benefit of the creditors: they alſo take poſſeſſion of the books and papers belonging to the party.

V. After which they appoint two or more truſtees, to get in all the effects and debts belonging to the inſolvent, either within or without the juriſdiction of the city or country.

VI. Before they proceed to the ſale of the inſolvent's effects, they commonly ſtay about ſix weeks, or longer, if the inſolvent, or relations of the deceaſed, deſire it, that time may be had to accommodate things with the creditors; during which notwithſtanding, the truſtees uſe the utmoſt diligence to get in all debts due to the inſolvent, and to procure every advantage to the creditors.

VII. And, to the end that affairs of this kind may be proceeded in with regularity, all merchants or others, who have failed heretofore, or are inſolvable, or who ſhall happen to fail hereafter, and their heirs, may ſummon all the creditors before this court, and in the preſence of the ſaid commiſſioners, or the greateſt part of them, after a true declaration of the ſtate of their affairs, and their active as well as paſſive debts, they may endeavour to agree for the payment of a part or the whole, or to give ſecurity for payment at ſuch time as the parties ſhall think reaſonable.

VIII. The minority of the creditors ſhall herein be governed by the majority, which ſhall be three quarters of the creditors, and two thirds of the debt; or two thirds of the creditors; and three quarters of the debt.

IX. But thoſe for whom ſecurities are given, ſhall not be admitted to the agreement, but only the ſecurities themſelves, which

which ſhall have a perſonal act for their indemnity, and even the ſame right as the perſonal creditors.

X. All who declare themſelves creditors of an inſolvent, ſhall be obliged to make appear what is due to them, before the commiſſioners.

XI. No agreement begun between an inſolvent, or any one in his behalf, and his creditors, ſhall be concluded without the conſent of the commiſſioners.

XII. An agreement between inſolvents, or their heirs, on the one part, and their creditors on the other, being made under ſufficient ſecurity, and ſigned by the creditors, or the greateſt part of them, they and their effects ſhall be diſcharged by the court, and be at liberty to trade, receive and pay, the ſame as before the failure, on paying the commiſſioners the expences they have been at, according to their diſcretion: notwithſtanding which, if it be afterwards diſcovered that one creditor has been gratified to the detriment of the reſt, theſe agreements are diſannulled.

XIII. The perſons failing and their ſecurities ſhall be bound to depoſit ſuch agreement with the commiſſioners, for the ſecurity and advantage of the creditors who have not yet ſigned it, and alſo the money they have agreed to pay, that the creditors may receive the ſame of the commiſſioners, when they come to ſign the agreement on their part.

XIV. However, if it be found that an inſolvent or his heirs have acted fraudulently in making the agreement, or after ſuch agreement ſhall be known to have concealed any books or papers, or conveyed away their effects, or made any underhand agreement with any one of the creditors, ſuch diſcharge given by the commiſſioners ſhall not only be ſet aſide, but the parties ſhall be puniſhed according to the nature of the caſe.

XV. And thoſe who ſhall combine with the inſolvent, and pretend to be creditors, when they are not ſo, or thoſe who make demand of a greater ſum than is really due to them, with deſign to wrong the juſt creditors, and give advantage to the inſolvent, ſhall be puniſhed as deceivers, and alſo condemned to pay, as their own debt, all the true creditors.

XVI. After the expiration of the ſix weeks aforeſaid, or longer, according to the diſcretion of the commiſſioners, and no agreement having been made between the inſolvent and his creditors, the truſtees ſhall, without further delay, proceed to the ſale of the effects, both moveable and immoveable; the latter being to be diſpoſed of only by the aldermen, within the firſt of November and the ſecond of February. But the merchandize, furniture, and other effects, muſt be ſold publicly by auction, at the pleaſure of the commiſſioners. But in caſe there is any merchandize which may be judged neceſſary to be kept unſold, by reaſon of an appearance of a riſe in the price thereof, or for any other good cauſe, which the truſtees ſhall repreſent to the commiſſioners, the ſale of ſuch merchandize ſhall be poſtponed for ſome time, but not otherwiſe.

XVII. Theſe things being done, the commiſſioners ſhall fix a day for all the creditors to meet, who live in the city, and elſewhere, that they may give in their names, and their demands.

XVIII. On the day appointed for the purpoſes aforeſaid, the commiſſioners ſhall proceed firſt to enquire into the debt, and of the preference to be given to each creditor preſent, whom the commiſſioners ſhall endeavour to bring to an agreement upon that head. If that cannot be effected, the creditors who diſagree, ſhall be obliged to put into the hands of the commiſſioners, within fourteen days, their demand, article by article, with the neceſſary vouchers, on pain, that if, within the ſaid time, every one has not given in ſuch account, he ſhall be regarded as having deſiſted from his pretenſions, and ſhall have juſtice only according to their demand, and according to the particulars delivered in by others. Thoſe who within the ſaid time of fourteen days ſhall have furniſhed their particulars, may demand, in fourteen days afterwards, the ſame of every one, who has given them in; to the end that, within fourteen days following, they may give in writing their objections, without having any longer term granted for that purpoſe. But, after theſe fourteen days, the affair ſhall be determined by the commiſſioners.

XIX. The preference to be given to the reſpective creditors being finally ſettled, thoſe who ſhall think themſelves injured, may within ten days after, or within ten days after they have heard of ſuch determination, appeal to the court of aldermen, who adjudge the matter within ten days of ſuch appeal, unleſs it be dropped.

XX. Afterwards the commiſſioners ſhall proceed to a dividend, or diſtribution. Thoſe who ſhall have had the preference, ſhall receive their debt, upon giving a proper diſcharge to the commiſſioners, according to the amount of the inſolvent's effects; and the money remaining ſhall be diſtributed among the other creditors, at the rate of a ſhilling in the pound, upon giving a proper diſcharge.

XXI. If a tenant of any houſe, or other kind of dwelling, fails between the months of May and the firſt of December, the landlord ſhall take ſuch houſe or dwelling-place to himſelf, for the remaining term of the leaſe, and ſhall diſcharge the inſolvent fund thereof; ſo that he ſhall only have the right of preference upon the effects which he ſhall find upon the premiſſes, for the rent of the current and preceding years, and for no longer time. And, for what ſhall appear due before, he ſhall come in as a creditor with the reſt.

XXII. But, if the failure happens between the firſt of December and the month of May following, the rent ſhall be charged on the inſolvent fund for one year, beginning from the month of May, unleſs the landlord thinks proper to take the houſe into his own hands for the ſame year.

XXIII. And, as the benefit of the creditors conſiſts in finiſhing their affairs as ſoon as may be, thoſe creditors who would prove their debts, ſhall henceforth proceed in the firſt inſtance, againſt the truſtees, who, in that caſe, will be defendants, and on the other hand ſhall be plaintiffs againſt thoſe who ſhall be debtors to the inſolvent.

XXIV. The creditors who would prove their debts, and all others who lay claim to part of thoſe effects, ſhall be obliged to enter their action againſt the truſtees in due time, before the ſaid preference and agreement among the creditors are ſettled, and before the ſale and diſtribution of the inſolvent's effects. And to this end they ſhall ſummon the truſtees three days before-hand, and ſend them their reſolution with the ſummons; as likewiſe a copy of the particulars, whereon their demands are grounded; and in caſe, upon the day appointed, thoſe who made ſuch demand do appear before the commiſſioners, the truſtees ſhall be acquitted, and the expence thereof paid by thoſe who cited them, before freſh meaſures can be taken againſt them.

XXV. But if any one has attached the effects, which he pretends to have claim to, he ſhall be obliged to ſummon the truſtee the third day after ſuch attachment, and to bring his action under the penalty of being nonſuited.

XXVI. The truſtees being ſummoned as above, and not appearing, there will be a default for non-appearance, and thereupon a ſecond ſummon iſſued, and on no appearance to that, the commiſſioners will paſs judgment upon the matter, according to the vouchers laid before them by the party alone who does appear, and the truſtees ſhall only be condemned to pay the coſts of the proceſs, propter contumaciam.

XXVII. When the truſtees appear upon ſuch ſummon, the cauſe ſhall be argued and determined directly, without giving or taking any further day to anſwer, unleſs for very good cauſe the commiſſioners ſhall think the ſame neceſſary.

XXVIII. Provided the truſtees ſummon any one, as before repreſented, and they do not appear, the truſtees ſhall have the ſame advantage as was before given againſt them, and the parties ſhall be obliged to pay the expence.

XXIX. But, the perſons ſummoned not appearing, a ſecond ſummon is granted for the week following, and not appearing the ſecond time, the ſummon having been duly executed, they muſt give proviſional ſecurity, and have a third ſummon; which terminates in a definitive condemnation of the ſecurity, or juſtice is done in ſome other manner.

XXX. But, if the parties ſummoned appear, the point is either concluded then, or ſome day the next week following, unleſs the commiſſioners find good cauſe to do otherwiſe.

XXXI. The truſtees, having arreſted any perſon or effects, ſhall be obliged, at the requiſition of the party ſo arreſted or intereſted, within three days, to carry on the proſecution before the commiſſioners, in order to make their demand, and bring the matter to a concluſion; upon which the perſon arreſted then anſwers, or takes another day without deviating from the proviſional ſecurity, provided the caſe is ſo circumſtanced: but the perſon arreſted, or intereſted, making no proſecution, the arreſt ſhall be referred, and proſecuted at the next court, according to cuſtom.

XXXII. The cauſe being pleaded, the commiſſioners ſhall diſpoſe of the principal, according to the nature of the caſe; and, if either of the parties ſhall appeal, the cauſe ſhall be brought and proſecuted before the court of aldermen, who ſhall finally determine the ſame.

XXXIII. The creditors of any inſolvent being diſſatisfied with the proceedings, and the ill conduct of the truſtees, may remonſtrate the matter before the commiſſioners, who ſhall cauſe the truſtees to come before them, hear them, and ſet the affair in a juſt light, according as the caſe ſhall require.

XXXIV. The perſons, whom the ſaid commiſſioners appoint truſtees in regard to the effects of the inſolvent, ſhall be obliged to give good ſecurity for their conduct, at the diſcretion of the commiſſioners, in order to have recourſe to ſuch ſecurity, in caſe of male-adminiſtration, unleſs the truſtees were choſen from among the creditors.

XXXV. The truſtees or aſſignees among the creditors having received any money belonging to the inſolvent fund, ſhall not keep it in their hands, but the ſame ſhall be immediately delivered to the ſaid commiſſioners.

XXXVI. And thoſe truſtees who ſhall be called upon, ſhall be obliged to appear before the commiſſioners, not only at the end of their adminiſtration, but at all times before, to render an account of, and juſtify their proceedings; and, being ſummoned for this purpoſe, they ſhall be obliged at the firſt order, under the penalty of a fine of three guilders; and, if they are called upon a ſecond time, the like; and the third is a fine of ſix guilders; and if notwithſtanding they fail to appear, and do not render up their accounts, they ſhall be called

upon

upon a fourth time upon pain of impriſonment; afterwards the commiſſioners ſhall lay the matter before the court of aldermen.

XXXVII. At the end of the adminiſtration of the truſtees, when the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall diſcharge them of their truſt, they ſhall grant them, for their trouble, what they judge proper.

XXXVIII. Any one of this city, or under its juriſdiction, deſiring to give up his effects, the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall take meaſures to ſecure them, by appointing proper perſons for that purpoſe, as ſoon as warrants of ſuch ceſſion ſhall be granted to the creditors, and they ſhall be informed of the validity thereof, in order to lay the affair before the court of aldermen.

XXXIX. In order to prevent all abuſes and villainies which are daily practiſed by many, in the requiring and proſecuting the warrants granted by the burgomaſters of this city, *&c.* with intent to obtain the ſecurity of the body, and the continuation thereof, the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall give true information of the ſtate of the ſuſpected perſons, in order to do the ſame duly before the burgomaſters.

XL. Any one being ſummoned, he ſhall be obliged to appear before the commiſſioners, in default of which he ſhall pay a fine of ſix ſols for the firſt time, twelve for the ſecond, and twenty-four for the third; afterwards the commiſſioners ſhall communicate the matter to the court of aldermen, and ſhall ſend one of their officers in ſearch of the perſon.

How bankrupts are looked on in China.

When any man becomes a bankrupt in this country, they throw him into priſon in the govenor's palace, and he is immediately put upon the declaration of his effects. After he has been a month in priſon, he is releaſed by the governor's order, and proclamation is made, that ſuch a one, the ſon of ſuch a one, has conſumed the ſubſtance of ſuch a one; and that if he has any effects in the hands of any perſon, in any ſhape whatſoever, it muſt be made known in the term of a month. In the mean time the bankrupt is bamboo'd * on the backſide, if diſcovery is made of any effects of his; and at the ſame time is upbraided with having been a month in priſon eating and drinking, though he had wherewithal to ſatisfy his creditors. He is chaſtiſed in the ſame manner, whether he makes any declaration of his effects, or not. They reproach him, that he has made it his ſtudy to get by fraud the ſubſtance of private perſons into his hands, and embezzle it; and that he ought not to defraud thoſe he had dealings with, by ſtripping them of their property. But after all, if they cannot diſcover him to have been guilty of any fraud, and if it is proved to the magiſtrate, that the man has nothing in the world, the creditors are called in, and receive a part of their debt out of the emperor's treaſury. After this, it is publickly prohibited to buy of, or ſell to, this man, upon pain of death, that he may not defraud any of his creditors by concealing their money. If diſcovery be made that he hath any ſums in the hands of another, and if the perſon he intruſts makes no declaration within the time limited, he is bamboo'd to death, and nothing is ſaid to the proprietor or bankrupt. The ſums that they diſcover are divided among the creditors, and the debtor or bankrupt muſt never more concern himſelf with trade.

* This puniſhment is ſuch, as none ſcarce ever ſurvive; it is ſo grievous, that no perſon in all China may, of his own authority, inflict it upon another, upon pain of death, and confiſcation of his goods.

Remarks.

There are three things which all men of judgment and experience in trade allow to be the great preſervatives againſt bankruptcy. As,

1. A thorough ſkill and diſcernment in the whole of the employment wherein a perſon may be engaged. In regard to the mercatorial profeſſion, the knowledge and judgment requiſite are not ſo narrow, mean, and confined, as ſome are wont to think. For,

According to what I have repreſented in my New Mercantile Inſtitution, without acquaintance in the produce and manufactures of the commercial world, and in the laws of our own and foreign countries relative to general trade; without abilities to obtain the beſt intelligence, in order to ſtrike the critical time when, and where, exportation or importation from nation to nation, drawing, remitting, and negociating foreign bills, invite to the beſt advantage: without knowledge of the duties, impoſts, ſubſidies, drawbacks, bounties, and all other charges and allowances at home and abroad, to which trade is ſubject, it is impoſſible that any previous calculation can be made, whether an adventure will turn to account or not. If the merchant be not thoroughly ſkilled in foreign monies and exchanges, as alſo in foreign weights and meaſures, and the methods of reducing thoſe of one nation reciprocally into thoſe of others, how ſhall he be able to judge of foreign invoices and accounts of ſales? and, if he be not perfectly acquainted with the arts of arbitrating the foreign exchanges with accuracy, he cannot embrace thoſe benefits which their perpetual fluctuation affords. Nor is a knowledge of the intrinſic value of foreign ſpecie leſs neceſſary than of the extrinſic par, or the arbitrational prices of exchange, in order to deal occaſionally in the export or import of foreign coins, and bullion gold and ſilver, to the beſt advantage. In fine, the merchant deſtitute of this ſeries of information, and talents to apply it to the moſt beneficial purpoſes in every ſhape, can never hope to reap any conſiderable profit from his profeſſion, or ſuſtain the character he bears with any ſort of dignity. He muſt owe his ſucceſs, if he has any, to fortunate hits, and unexpected advantages; things which no prudent man will chuſe to depend upon for the whole proſperity of his life.

To the ignorant in theſe matters, commerce is but a game at chance, where the odds are againſt the player. But, to the accompliſhed merchant, it is a ſcience, where ſkill can ſcarce fail of its reward; and, while the one is wandering about in a pathleſs ocean, without a compaſs, and depends on the winds and tides to carry him into his port, the other goes ſteadily forward, in a beaten track, which leads him directly, if no extraordinary accident intervenes, to wealth and honour.

Whoever turns his thoughts on the ſtupendious circulation of paper property throughout the world, by inland and foreign bills; on the various cuſtoms and uſages eſtabliſhed among traders in their money-negociations, for the ſupport of univerſal credit; on the numberleſs different tranſactions which diverſify the buſineſs of the merchant; as buying and ſelling, exporting and importing, for proper, company, or commiſſion account; drawing on, remitting to, and freighting, or hireing out, ſhips for various parts of the world at the ſame time: whoever duly conſiders the ſkill in figures and accountantſhip, requiſite to adjuſt and methodize this great variety of tranſactions, whereby ſuch trader may always have the true repreſentation of his affairs before him; together with the judgment to conduct ſuch a complication of occurrences, and addreſs to maintain a general correſpondence in our own, or the more univerſal languages; cannot but ſee the extent of a courſe of education proper to form ſo diſtinguiſhed a character.—Notwithſtanding this, nothing is more certain than that no gentlemen in the general labour under greater diſadvantages in point of erudition; which, I am afraid, is one principal cauſe of the frequent bankruptcies amongſt thoſe who are, perhaps, the moſt uſeful ſubjects in the community; they being the great inſtruments who give conſtant bread and employment to the maſs of the people, and draw treaſures into the nation from the remote parts of the world.

Whether, therefore, the eſtabliſhment of a mercantile college, or a well-regulated ſeminary, proper for the breeding up our Britiſh merchants with every deſirable advantage, may not be worthy the conſideration of ſome public-ſpirited perſons, is humbly ſubmitted. That an inſtitution ſomething of this kind is greatly wanted in England, I have endeavoured to ſhew at large in the before-mentioned tract; and I heartily wiſh, that my poor endeavours in the public ſervice may, one day, ſtimulate others of far ſuperior abilities and advantages to attempt what every body has been pleaſed to approve; notwithſtanding the mean and baſe artifices which have been uſed to deprive my country, in that ſhape, of the benefit of my labours, and myſelf of the advantages of twenty years ſtudy and application, with a view principally to the eſtabliſhment of that mercantile deſign. See the article Mercantile College.

By the plan of inſtitution in the beforementioned treatiſe will be ſeen the qualifications neceſſary, abſolutely neceſſary, to form the accompliſhed Britiſh merchant: and, if thoſe qualifications therein enumerated were communicated to young perſons, in the manner propoſed, there is no doubt to be made but the art of merchandizing would, by that means, have been greatly advanced, the general commerce of the kingdom proportionably extended, and much fewer bankrupts.

2. However, the beſt accompliſhments for trade avail little without œconomy; for, although a perſon of penetration and addreſs may be occaſionally extremely ſucceſsful, yet the man of prudence ſhould make allowances for ſuch loſſes as the keeneſt foreſight and diſcernment cannot always prevent: it ſhould, therefore, be always conſidered that the debit, as well as the credit ſide of the account of profit and loſs, is liable to ſwell.

3. But nothing, perhaps, can be a more effectual preſervative againſt failure than a thorough knowledge in figures and accountantſhip. It is not neceſſary, indeed, that a merchant engaged in large concerns ſhould keep his own books, as he may probably employ his time to far greater advantage; but it is indiſpenſably neceſſary that he ſhould be capable of doing ſo. How is it poſſible, otherwiſe, that he ſhould be able to judge when they are kept as they ought to be? Nor can he be capable of ſo inſpecting them, as to be duly acquainted with the ſtate of his own affairs.

It is an unbecoming meanneſs, not to ſay a conſummate folly, in any man, whoſe fortune is daily at ſtake, to depend upon others to give him what they pleaſe for the ſtate of his affairs. It is juſtly proverbial among the Dutch, that the man who fails did not underſtand to keep his accounts: and it may be truly ſaid, a merchant without that ſkill is in as bad a

ſituation

ſituation as the mariner on the wide ocean, without chart, compaſs, or obſervation, whereby to direct his courſe.

Both the French and the Dutch always entertain an opinion of a fraudulent bankruptcy, when there are no juſt and methodical accounts kept by traders; for, let their loſſes be what they will, they ought fairly and uprightly to appear through their books, and from the teſtimony of authentic vouchers. So that regular and upright accounts are an effectual juſtification of the trader's conduct, as demonſtrating, whether ſkill and œconomy have been wanting, or whether only ſucceſs: if the latter is the caſe, he is, notwithſtanding, careſſed and ſupported; whereby he may become as proſperous afterwards, as he was otherwiſe before. This alſo is the caſe in Britain, and indeed in all nations where commerce is cultivated.

Among all the laws relating to bankrupts in England, I do not remember to have met with any that injoined ſuch traders who are within the ſtatutes to keep juſt and regular accounts of their tranſactions, and of their whole income and expence, be the ſame in whatſoever ſhape it ſhall happen; yet this ſeems to be as neceſſary a law as any relating to bankrupts; for, if an omiſſion hereof was, among other things, made a ſufficient cauſe of obſtruction to the obtaining of their certificates, it might have a happy tendency to prevent that frequency of bankrupts among traders; ſeeing, while a perſon had the true ſtate of his affairs always before him, that might prove a ſafe and ſteady rudder to ſteer him clear of thoſe rocks and ſhoals whereon he might otherwiſe ſplit.

Another ſafeguard againſt thoſe misfortunes in traffic is honour and integrity in dealing, honeſty being the beſt policy among traders, as well as the reſt of mankind. However great the temptation to act otherwiſe may often be in the way of traffic, yet, in the long-run, the trading trickſter is frequently catched in his own toils: for, as it requires more art to be roguiſh than otherwiſe, ſo that art is daily liable to detection, and loſs of reputation; whereas ſo extraordinary is the power of juſtice and honour in commerce, eſpecially when united to prudence and ſkill, that it proves the ſource of a boundleſs credit to a trader; and, credit in traffic anſwering the end of money, ſuch trader may be ſaid to be rich, in proportion as he is juſt and upright; for an extenſive credit, wiſely managed, cannot fail to be productive of extenſive riches.

It does not ſeem to be that refined policy, that ſome flatter themſelves with, for a rich, overgrown trader to engage in combinations and ingroſſings, and other unfair and illegal practices, in order to oppreſs and ruin young beginners. Perſons of this unnatural ſtamp have frequently undone themſelves by attempting the deſtruction of others; for the mean art of underſelling, in view to monopolize, is not leſs hazardous than diſhonourable; and, when ſuch a one comes to misfortunes, he is as little pitied as the cruel ruffian going to the gallows. As people in trade are never too low to riſe, ſo they are never too high to fall. A man in trade, though ſtanding himſelf ſecure, ſhould have a benevolent concern for thoſe who miſcarry, and, inſtead of ſcheming at the deſtruction of others, ſhould ſtretch out the arm of aſſiſtance to thoſe who would follow his wiſe and induſtrious example.

I have known a merchant as much diſtinguiſhed for his generoſity and humanity as for his equity and proſperity in his negotiations. Inſtead of ſtudying the low craft of oppreſſion, in order to injure the young beginner, his greateſt joy conſiſted in raiſing young people of good behaviour and promiſing talents. He took few apprentices with large fortunes, or large premiums, becauſe he was wont to ſay, That thoſe who had great fortunes wherewith to begin, needed not that help to throw them into buſineſs like people of ſmall ones. It was his maxim, therefore, to breed abundance of ſuch young people in his counting-houſe, and, after three or four years accompliſhment under his judicious eye, to tranſplant them to foreign counting-houſes, among his correſpondents: and, if their conduct was approved, he ſome-how made it for the intereſt of thoſe houſes to take ſuch young people into the partnerſhip. By which means, he not only exerciſed his natural principle of good-will to mankind, but ſo attached thoſe objects of his benevolence to his intereſt, that he found his account in dealing with theſe foreign houſes. So that he experienced it to prove the more beneficial policy to raiſe, rather than deſtroy, the fortunes of young people who merited his regard.

Nor was this his practice abroad only. In order to be well ſerved by his manufacturers, and indeed by all with whom he had dealings, he ever ſtudied their intereſt in conjunction with his own. Thus any poor man's ſon who fell in his way, and had any thing of a promiſing turn; or any ſkilful, honeſt manufacturer, &c. was ſure to have ſupport from him: he would offer them money on eaſy terms; and, if they proved induſtrious and deſerving, his purſe was always open to them. By which ſingular management, both gratitude and intereſt proved motives to his being well ſerved in the qualities of the goods he exported, they being as well ſold abroad as well bought at home.

His conduct, in regard to imports, was equally peculiar. His buyers were tradeſmen of his own choice, rather remarkable for induſtry than fortune: thoſe never failed of what credit and reaſonable indulgence they ſtood in need of. Such behaviour ſaved many from bankruptcy, but had no tendency to occaſion it; yet there are many traders who are as diſtinguiſhable for their cruelty, as this worthy gentleman was for a diſpoſition diametrically the reverſe. This honeſt policy ſo warmly attached all whom he dealt with to his intereſt at home, as well as abroad, that it is little to be admired that ſo wiſe, and ſo good, a man accumulated what riches and honour he pleaſed. This example ſhews the true uſe of money and ſagacity in the arts of commerce; and, it is to be hoped, will be followed by many, which will certainly make the rich ſtill richer, and the poor happy. This is a ſpecies of charity which brings its preſent reward with it: but, as the poet ſays,

> Such who in life oppreſs, and then bequeath
> Their goods to pious uſes at their death;
> Are like thoſe drunkards being laid to ſleep,
> Who belch and vomit what they cannot keep.

There is nothing has a greater tendency to failure in trade, than a tradeſman's being obſtinate and ſelf-ſufficient in his own opinion, and quarrelſome and litigious among his neighbours, and thoſe with whom he has concerns in trade. That trader muſt be in the road to ruin of whom it is ſaid, that he catches at every advantage from thoſe he deals with, wrangles without reaſon, quarrels without provocation, diſputes trifles, and goes to law without juſtice.

He that will ſeek juſtice in the law, ought to be firſt certain that he can obtain the ſame in no amicable way. The law was not deſigned to promote broils and confuſion among mankind, but to prevent them.

Tradeſmen who have theſe ſquabbles generally upon their hands, are as diſcontented within themſelves as they are contemptible in the eyes of others. A man that is always paying lawyers bills, reading over bills in Chancery exhibited againſt him, is of a diſpoſition very unfit for commerce, which requires the man to be calm and unirritated; otherwiſe his buſineſs muſt ſuffer, and all prudent men will as ſollicitouſly avoid dealing with a litigious trader, as with one who has got the plague:

> Law-ſuits avoid, with as much ſtudious care
> As you would dens where hungry lions are;
> And rather put up injuries, than be
> A plague to him who'd be a plague to thee.

Law-ſuits and contentions in trade are ſometimes unavoidable: unleſs the defendant will ſuffer depredations upon his property, he is under the neceſſity of defending himſelf, and ſeeking protection from the law. For a man to defend himſelf againſt the ſtrife, contention, and villainy of others, is not to be litigious; that character is due to the aggreſſor; for it is the duty of the moſt quiet and inoffenſive man to defend himſelf, when offenſively attacked. The querulous lawing trader is the contempt of the rich, and the averſion of his poorer neighbours; the ſcandal of his trade, and the terror of his cuſtomers. The prudent trader will not reject the following maxims.

1. Not to decline or delay paying a juſt debt, if able, but to pay it, without giving any man cauſe, or putting him to the charge of ſuing for his own.

2. Nor to give any man trouble, though for a juſt debt, where there is any probability of obtaining it without, nor till all reaſonable, quiet, and friendly methods are tried to avoid it.

3. When neceſſitated to uſe the violence of a legal proſecution, yet to do it with tenderneſs, without expoſing the debtor more than needs muſt; and above all, without putting him to more than neceſſary charges. This ſhews a juſt reluctance to the thing; in which caſe the defendant is juſtly anſwerable for all the evil which he brings upon himſelf. The diſcreet trader will, as far as in him lies, prevent a deciſion at law; if it be poſſible, he will bring all differences to a friendly accommodation, by expoſtulation, by applications, by arbitration, and even by abating ſometimes much of his demands for peace-ſake.

For men to make a diſpute at law become a formal quarrel, engage their paſſions in the difference, and turn their trade-breaches into breaches of charity and breaches of temper, is to put off the Chriſtian and the man of ſenſe together.

This way of going to law had a terrible event a few years ago in this nation, and left a bloody precedent, viz. in the late duke Hamilton and the lord Mohun: they had contended many years at law about an eſtate; but meeting occaſionally, while the ſuit was depending, the heat of the legal proceſs broke out in an illegal flame; they differ in words, give and return diſobliging expreſſions; this kindles their paſſion; both hot, both brave; they quarrel, a challenge enſues; they both meet, both fight, and are both killed. This is the caſe, tho' not carried to ſo fatal a length, with all who go to law about trifles, and carry on their ſuits with animoſity: they go to law, like Hamilton and Mohun, and, if they had courage to engage, would put it to the like iſſue. Nothing has a greater tendency to the ruin of traders, and all others, than this unhappy

happy diſpoſition; and nothing is more contemned among the wiſe and honeſt part of mankind.—In fine, a litigious trader lives in a kind of warfare among his fraternity; whereas commerce ſhould be the general bond of good will, as it is the grand ſource of their temporal welfare.

BAPTISM, a ceremony practiſed at ſea in long voyages, on thoſe perſons who paſs the tropic for the firſt time, as alſo on the merchant-ſhips that have not paſſed it before.

The baptiſm of ſhips is a very plain ceremony, and is performed by waſhing it all over only with ſea-water; but that of perſons is more formal and myſterious, as ſhall be related hereafter; but neither is performed without giving the ſhip's company ſomething to drink and carouſe. With regard to the baptizing of the ſhip, the ſeamen think they have a right to cut off the ſhip's beak-head, unleſs the captain or maſter redeems it, by giving them ſeveral bottles of brandy, and money. This preſent, which the maſter makes them, is not reckoned an average, nor are the freighters accountable for it, but only the proprietors or owners of the ſhip.

As for the baptiſm of perſons, it is performed after the following manner:

The moſt ancient of the ſeamen, who have already croſſed the line, or the tropic, being oddly dreſſed, with his face blackened, a comical cap on his head, the journal, or ſome other ſea-book, in his hand, and followed by ſeveral other ſailors, each with ſome kitchen utenſil inſtead of a weapon, comes by beat of drum, and places himſelf gravely on a ſeat prepared for that purpoſe upon deck, at the foot of the main-maſt.

Before this drole magiſtrate every perſon, not yet initiated into thoſe myſteries, comes and ſwears that he will cauſe the ſame ceremony to be obſerved, whenever opportunity offers. If ſuch a perſon pays down, or promiſes, ſome gratification, he gets off clear for his preſent, and has only a few drops of water ſprinkled over him. But the others, as well as the common ſailors, are in a manner drowned with pails full of water, kept ready for that purpoſe, in caſks or buckets. The ſhip and cabbin-boys, are put under a baſket, where they are ſoaked with water at pleaſure; and, in memory of ſo curious a ceremony, are compelled to whip one another, which they do ſoundly. The money paid is either ſhared among the ſhip's company, or kept to buy ſome refreſhment at the firſt convenient place they come to.

BARATRY, or BARRETRY, according to the common law of England, ſignifies the moving and maintaining of ſuits in diſturbance of the peace, and the taking and detaining of houſes, lands, &c. by falſe inventions. The word baraterre in French, ſignifies miſdemeanor, fraud, deceit. It is derived from the old word barat, which ſignified any impoſition: whence they alſo ſaid baratter, to impoſe upon one.

In marine commerce, baratry ſignifies the ſtealing, imbezzling, or any ways altering of merchandizes, by the maſter or company of a ſhip; and, in general, all the tricks, frauds, or male practices, which they pretty often uſe, in order to defraud the owner of the ſhip's cargo, or other perſons concerned in it.

By the 28th article of the ſixth title of the third book of the ordonnance of the marine in France, publiſhed in Auguſt 1681, it is ordered, that the inſurers ſhall not be obliged to make good the loſſes and damages which ſhips or merchandizes ſhall have ſuffered through the fault of the maſter and crew, unleſs by the policy they were made anſwerable for the maſter or captain's baratry.

The penalties of baratry are mentioned in the ſame ordonnance, in the firſt title of the ſecond book, in the following articles.

Article 20. The maſter who, without any neceſſity, took money upon the body, victualling or fitting out of his ſhip, or who ſold merchandizes, engaged the rigging, or ſet down in his accounts or memorandums fictitious averages or expences, is obliged to pay them in his own name, declared unworthy of the maſterſhip, and baniſhed from the harbour where he uſed to dwell.

Article 32. All maſters of ſhips are prohibited to ſell again the victuals of their ſhips, and to imbezzle or conceal them, upon pain of corporal puniſhment.

Article 35. If a maſter ſails a wrong courſe, commits any theft, or ſuffers any to be committed on board his ſhip, or fraudulently gives occaſion to the alteration or ſeizing of the merchandizes, or of the ſhip, he is to ſuffer corporal puniſhment.

Article 36. A maſter who is convicted of delivering a ſhip to the enemy, or to have wilfully cauſed it to be ſhipwrecked or loſt, is to be puniſhed with death.

BARATRY, in a marine ſenſe, is in England, when the maſter of a ſhip, or the mariners, cheat the owners or inſurers, whether by running away with the ſhip, ſinking her, deſerting her, or imbezzling the cargo.

If goods delivered on ſhipboard are imbezzled, all the mariners ought to contribute to the ſatisfaction of the party that loſt his goods, by the maritime law, and the cauſe is to be tried in the admiralty. 1 Lill. 368.

A maſter of a ſhip, if a minor, undertaking to bring goods from any place abroad to England, if he waſtes and conſumes them, he may be proſecuted in the court of admiralty, though he be an infant. Roll's Abr. 530.

And, where a ſhip was inſured againſt the baratry of the maſter, &c. in an action brought thereupon, the jury found that the ſhip was loſt by the fraud and negligence of the maſter: the court held, that, if the maſter run away with the ſhip, or imbezzle the goods, the merchant may have the action againſt him; for it is reaſonable that merchants, who hazard their ſtocks in the foreign traffic, ſhould ſecure themſelves in what manner they think proper againſt baratry of the maſter, and all other frauds; and this muſt be intended fraud in the maſter, not a bare neglect: and they all agreed that fraud is baratry, though not named in the covenant; but negligence might not. Mod. caſe 230, 231.

Baratry of the mariners is a diſeaſe ſo epidemical on ſhipboard, that it is very rare for a maſter, be his induſtry never ſo great, to prevent it; a ſpan of villainy on ſhipboard ſoon ſpreads out to a cloud, for no other cauſe but of that circular encouragement that one knaviſh mariner gives another.

However, the law does in ſuch caſes impute offences and faults committed by them to be negligence in the maſter; and, were it otherwiſe, the merchant would be in a very dangerous condition. Molloy.

The reaſons why they ought to be reſponſible are, for that the mariners are of their own chuſing, and under his correction and government, and know no other ſuperior on ſhipboard but himſelf; and, if they are faulty, he may correct and puniſh them, and juſtify the ſame by law: and likewiſe, if the fact is apparently proved againſt them, may reimburſe himſelf out of their wages. Roll's Abridg. 533.

And therefore, in all caſes, whereſoever the merchant loads aboard any goods or merchandizes, if they be loſt, imbezzled, or any other ways damnified, he muſt be reſponſible for them; for the very lading them aboard makes them liable, and that as well by the common law as the law marine. 1 Ven. 190, 238. Raym. 220. 1 Mod. 85.

Nay, if his mariners go with the ſhip-boat to the key or wharf, to fetch goods on ſhipboard, if once they have taken charge of them, the maſter becomes immediately reſponſible, if they ſteal, loſe, damnify, or imbezzle them.

A maſter of a ſhip is more than one, who, for his knowledge in navigation, fidelity, and diſcretion, hath the government of the ſhip committed to his care and management; and, by the common law (by which properties are to be guided) he hath no property, either general or ſpecial, by the conſtituting of him a maſter; yet the law looks upon him as an officer, who muſt render and give an account for the whole charge, when once committed to his care and cuſtody; and, upon failure, to render ſatisfaction: and, therefore, if misfortunes happen, either through negligence, wilfulneſs, or ignorance of himſelf, or his mariners, he muſt be reſponſible.

In Chancery.

A, maſter of a ſhip, ſo appointed by B, owner, treats with the plaintiff to take the ſhip to freight for 80 tons, to ſail from London to Falmouth, and ſo from thence to Barcelona, without altering the voyage; and there to unlade, at a certain rate per ton: and, to perform this, the maſter obliges the ſhip, and what was therein, valued at 300l.; and, accordingly, a charter-party was made and ſealed, between the maſter and the merchant; but the owners of the ſhip were no parties thereunto. The maſter deviates, and commits baratry, and the merchant, in effect, loſes his voyage and goods; for the merchandize being fiſh, came not till Lent was paſt, and were rotten. The merchant's factor thereupon ſueth the maſter in the court of admiralty at Barcelona, and, upon appeal to a higher court in Spain, hath ſentence againſt the maſter and the ſhip; which coming to his hands (viz. the merchant's hands) the owner brings an action of trover for the ſhip: the maſter ſues in Chancery to ſtop this ſuit, and another ſuit brought for the owner for freight, claiming deductions out of both, for his damages ſuſtained by the maſter, for the breach of the articles by the maſter; for, if the owner gives authority to the maſter to contract, he ſhall bear the loſs; but, in caſe of bottomry, after a voyage begun, the maſter cannot oblige the owner beyond the value of the ſhip: but this caſe is on contract.

Lord chancellor. The charter-party values the ſhip at a certain rate, and you ſhall not oblige the owners farther, and that only with relation to the freight, not to the value of the ſhip; the maſter is liable to the deviation and baratry, but not the owners; elſe maſters ſhould be owners of all men's ſhips and eſtates. Mich. 29 Car. II.

But, where the maſter of the ſhip took beef, ſails, &c. on credit, and failed, the owners were obliged to pay, and not allowed to defend themſelves by inſiſting that the maſter was liable only, and that they had given him money to pay the plaintiff. He is but their ſervant, and, where he buys, they are liable, and continue ſo, if he has not paid the creditors, though they gave him money for that purpoſe. 2 Vern. 643.

If any fault in the maſter or mariners be committed in any port, haven, river, or creek, or any other place which is infra corpus comitatûs, the common law ſhall have juriſdic-

tion

tion to anſwer the party damnified, and not the admiralty [ſee ADMIRALTY] but, if the ſame be committed ſuper altum mare, the admiralty ſhall have juriſdiction of the ſame; yet, if it be on a place where there is diviſum imperium, then, according to the flux or reflux, the admiralty may challenge; the other of common right belonging to the common law. 5 Co. 1707. Mod. 891. 916.

The common law is the over-ruling juriſdiction in this realm; and they are to intitle themſelves well who would draw a thing out of it. Lord Raym. 272.

And, therefore, as ſoon as merchandizes and other commodities are put aboard the ſhip, whether ſhe be riding in port, haven, or any other part of the ſeas, he that is exercitor navis is chargeable therewith; and if the ſame be there loſt or purloined, or ſuſtain any damage, hurt, or loſs, whether in the haven or port before, or upon the ſeas, after ſhe is in her voyage; whether it be by mariners, or by any other through their permiſſion; he that is exercitor navis muſt anſwer the damage, for that the very lading of the goods aboard the ſhip does ſubject the maſter to anſwer the ſame. F. Naut. caup. ſtab. leg. 1. ſec. 2, 3, 6, 7. And with this agrees the common law, where it was adjudged, that goods being ſent aboard a ſhip, and the maſter having ſigned the bills of lading for the ſame, the goods were ſtowed, and, in the night, divers perſons, under the pretence that they were preſs-maſters, entered the ſhip, and robbed her of theſe goods; the merchant brought an action at the common law againſt the maſter; and the queſtion was, whether he ſhould anſwer for the ſame? It was alledged, on his part, that there was no default or negligence in him, for he had a ſufficient guard; the goods were all locked up under hatches; the thieves came as preſs-maſters, and by force robbed the ſhip; and that the ſame was vis major, and that he could not have prevented the ſame: and, laſtly, that though he was called maſter, or exercitor navis, yet he had no ſhare in the ſhip, and was but in the nature of a ſervant, acting for a ſalary.—But, notwithſtanding, it was adjudged for the plaintiff; for at his peril he muſt ſee that all things be forth-coming that are delivered to him, let what accident ſoever happen (the act of God, or an enemy, perils and dangers of the ſea, only excepted) he being looked upon by the law as a common carrier; and that, though he receives a ſalary, yet he is a known and public officer, and the plaintiff hath his election to charge either maſter or owner, or both, at his pleaſure, but can have but one ſatisfaction. Molloy.

Thomas Knight, Eſq; againſt Richard Cambridge.

This caſe ſhewing the nature of baratry, I ſhall give it at large, as delivered by lord Raymond.

Cambridge brought a writ of error, upon a judgment given againſt him in the Common-Pleas, in an action brought by the plaintiff upon a policy of inſurance of the ſhip Riga Merchant, at and from Port Mahone to London. And ſerjeant Braithwaite for the plaintiff in error inſiſted, that the judgment was erroneous, becauſe the breach was ill aſſigned: becauſe the policy was, that the defendant Cambridge ſhould inſure the ſaid ſhip, among other things, againſt the baratry of the maſter, and all other dangers, damages, and misfortunes, which ſhould happen to the prejudice and damage of the ſaid ſhip; and the breach aſſigned was, that the ſhip, in the ſaid voyage, per fraudem & negligentiam magiſtri navis prædictæ depreſſa & ſubmerſa fuit, & totaliter perdita & amiſſa fuit, & nullius valoris devenit. This, he inſiſted, was not within the meaning of the word baratry, but the breach ſhould have been expreſs, that the ſhip was loſt by the baratry of the maſter. Beſides, the owner of the goods has a remedy againſt the owners of the ſhip, for any prejudice he receives by the fraud or neglect of the maſter; and, therefore, there is the leſs reaſon the inſurer ſhould be liable. Beſides, if the word baratry ſhould import fraud, yet it does not import neglect; and the fact here alledged is, that the ſhip was loſt by the fraud and neglect of the maſter. But the court was unanimouſly of opinion, that there was no occaſion to aver the fact in the very words of the policy, but, if the fact alledged came within the meaning of the words in the policy, it is ſufficient. Now baratry imports fraud, Du Freſne Gloſſar. verbo barataria, fraus, dolus: and he that commits a fraud, may properly be ſaid to be guilty of a neglect, viz. of his duty. Baratry of a maſter is not to be confined to the maſter's running away with the ſhip; and the general words of the policy ought to be conſtrued to extend to loſſes of the like nature as thoſe mentioned before: now loſſes ariſing from the fraud of the maſter, are of the ſame nature as if he had run away with the ſhip, ſuppoſing baratry was to be confined to that, which it is not, becauſe it imports any fraud. And judgment was affirmed; April 27, 1724. Lord Raym. 1349.

BARB, a Barbary horſe. Barbs are very much eſteemed for their ſtrength and their ſwiftneſs, and more ſtill, perhaps, on account of their ſcarcity. They are commonly of a ſlim ſhape, and have very thin legs. They are uſed both for the ſaddle and for coaches; and they make exceeding good ſtallions for ſtuds. In order to diſtinguiſh them, they uſe in France to hang under the horſe's throat, eſpecially to coach-horſes, a kind of beard made of horſe-hair, commonly dyed red.

The French conſuls, who reſide in the towns of Barbary, do pretty often ſhip off barbs, either for the uſe of perſons of quality who deſire them, or which they ſend into France for their own account. But ſkilful judges do not much value the horſes that are thus ſent over, there being always many bad ones among them; becauſe the conſuls, whatever good intentions they may have, are commonly much better ſkilled in other trades than that of horſe-fleſh.

When the French king would have barbs for his ſtuds or ſtables, he commits the care of buying them to one of his grooms, or equerries, who commonly paſſes for an envoy to the African princes, notwithſtanding which title he is obliged to pay duty for the horſes he buys.

That duty is not the ſame in all places, and there are often great extortions practiſed, before the horſe be on ſhipboard, thoſe barbarians having no other view but to impoſe upon the Europeans who trade with them. At the Baſtion of France 13 piaſters are paid for duty of exportation for every horſe, namely, 10 to the governor, two to the captain, and one to the interpreter.

BARBARY in general. This vaſt tract of ground is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Europe; on the eaſt by Egypt, on the ſouth, by Sara or the deſart, and on the weſt by the Atlantic, or weſtern ocean. It's utmoſt extent from eaſt to weſt, that is, from cape Non, on the moſt weſtern coaſt of Morocco, to the confines of Egypt, is almoſt 37 degrees, that is, from 10 degrees weſtern to 26½ degrees eaſtern longitude, or about 2200 miles: as for it's breadth from north to ſouth, it is very unequal; in ſome parts not above 6 or 7 degrees; and where wideſt, as from cape Non, above-mentioned, to Tangier, not above 10 degrees, or 600 miles; but, we muſt obſerve, that moſt geographers have given it a much greater extent both ways; ſome of them as far as 4000 miles in length, and 1200 in breadth; which can only be meant, including the creeks and windings, which are too precarious and unknown to be depended upon.

Barbary is, next to Egypt, the moſt fruitful, trading, and populous part of Afric. The ſoil abounds with plenty and variety of grain and fruits, eſpecially citrons, oranges, dates, figs, olives, grapes, pomegranates, almonds, &c. in all which the inhabitants drive a conſiderable traffic, as well as in coral, Morocco leather, Barbary horſes, and other commodities, as we ſhall have occaſion to mention in the trade of each particular kingdom. The air is temperate, though hot, being refreſhed by conſtant breezes from the Mediterranean.

The kingdom of BARCA, under the government or baſhawſhip of Tripoli, being for the moſt part a barren deſert, and having no commerce of any conſequence; it will not be expected to have any place in this work.

The kingdom of TRIPOLI.

Tripoli Proper, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the eaſt by Barca, on the ſouth by the Sara, or Great Deſart, and on the weſt, partly by Tunis, and partly by Biledulgerid. It is variouſly divided, as firſt, into maritime and inland, or into five principal provinces or diſtricts, viz. 1. Tripoli, properly ſo called. 2. Eſſab. 3. Meſſellata. 4. Mzerata, or Mezerata, or the antient Cyrenaca; and 5. Barca, or antient Marmorica, now part of this baſhawſhip. It hath a great number of cities in each of the four former provinces, and ſome of them very large, trading, and populous, as well in the inland, as on the coaſts; but chiefly in the latter, where, beſides their ſeveral manufactures and commerce, they carry on the piratical buſineſs to great advantage to themſelves, though to the great hazard and loſs of the European nations trading on the Mediterranean. According to this diſtinction of maritime and inland, the principal cities in the former are, 1. In Tripoli Proper, Copez, Bibana, Znora, Zavia, Cgarbia, tower of Arzaria, Zouaga, or Old Tripoli; the New Tripoli, Lebeda Tagara, and ſome few of leſs note.

2. In the province of Mozarat, or Mzerata, the capital Tubia Ziliten, &c.

3. On the gulph or bay of Sidra, Colbene, Smeida, Sbica, Arcadia Serte, Naïm, Tini, Porto de Sabi, Stagno, Zoara, Zamera, Corcaura, Mirelle, alias Millic, Bernich, Bengaſi, and Tolometta; the three laſt on the coaſt of Derna.

In the inland part of Tripoli Proper, the chief places are mount Riaina, mount Fiſſato, mount Geſren, or Gueſon; the towns of Tarona, or Taorbona; the other parts in Ibai Valid, Meſda, and mount Guibet or Atlas; which laſt divides it from the kingdom of Faiſan, the country of Haicha, the deſart of Ezzab, the territory of Benoſetta, ſo called from it's capital, a ſmall town; and the deſart of Ouguila, or Auguila; in which are Auquela the capital, Siv-ab, or St. Rio, and the mount Muyes.

TRIPOLI PROPER, which we begin with, not as being the next in courſe to Barca, but on account of its being the moſt conſiderable province in this ſtate; it hath Tunis on the weſt, from which it is parted by the river Capez, or Caps, which riſes out of a ſandy deſart on the ſouth, near mount Vaſſalat, and falls into the Mediterranean.

There is a very hot ſpring near the town of Albiamma, which is conveyed thither by an aqueduct; but the water is ſo hot and ſulphureous, that it is hardly drinkable, till after it hath been expoſed twenty-four hours to the air. Near the ſpring is a pool called the Leper's-lake, becauſe it cures that diſtemper. This city did once vie with Tunis, and is affirmed to have excelled it in the quantity of gold, ſilver, pearls, and precious ſtones, beſides other ſorts of rich commodities. It had alſo, we are told, near one hundred and fifty different trades belonging to the ſilk-manufactures, beſides a great number of others belonging to that of the camblets, cotton, and other ſtuffs. At preſent, all theſe branches of traffic are much decayed; it now chiefly conſiſts in the great quantities of aſhes brought thither by the Arabians, and moſtly bought up by the French, for making glaſs and ſoap.

CAPES, or CAPS, CABEZ, CAPEZ, ſuppoſed the antient TACAPE, is a good large town, well walled and fortified, and ſituate on a bay of it's name, defended by a ſtout fort, at the mouth of the hot river before-mentioned. It made a very great figure in the time of the Romans, but underwent ſo many ſtrange viciſſitudes from the Goths, and other barbarous nations, and is at preſent ſo much expoſed to the excurſions of the Arabs, that it is only inhabited by a parcel of poor fiſhermen and huſbandmen; but the ſoil about it is very ſandy and barren, and produces but a little corn, and ſome dates.

The gulph of SIDRA. This large bay, antiently called Syrtis Magna, lies on the ſame coaſt, between the country of Mſarata on the weſt, and the kingdom of Barca on the eaſt, and hath the deſart of Serte on the ſouth.

They ſcarcely carry on any trade, but that of fiſhing and piracy. Yet ſome few there are, both here and at Mſarata, who trade in European commodities, which they ſend into the country of the blacks, and exchange them for negro-ſlaves, civet, and muſk, which yield them a conſiderable profit in Turky.

The country of FAISAN, or FASSAN.

South of Tripoli, and between it and Sara, or the deſart, is the country of Faiſan, or Faſſan, a diſtrict under it's own particular government, and containing twenty-eight cities or towns, one the capital of it's name, and about one hundred villages. The country abounds in dates, and the inhabitants are eſteemed rich, eſpecially by the trade they drive in negro-ſlaves.

Juſt weſtward of Faiſan, is the ſmall territory of GADAMIS, or GUDEMIS, on the confines of Biledulgerid, and Vhergela on the weſt. It is a very rich diſtrict, under a government of it's own, and drives a conſiderable trade in ſlaves and dates.

The kingdom of TUNIS.

This is the country, which formerly was the once celebrated republic of Carthage; and which, in the utmoſt extent of it's conqueſts, contained a much larger territory than it hath ſince, or doth now, it antiently poſſeſſing the provinces of Conſtantina, Bugia, Tripoli, Tunis, and Ezzab, and ſtretching along the coaſts, above 120 leagues. It hath ſince loſt them all, except that of it's own name, and is reduced now within a very little compaſs, being bound on the eaſt by Tripoli, on the weſt by the river Gualdibarbar, which parts it from Conſtantina, and on the ſouth by Biledulgerid. So that it's utmoſt extent, from eaſt to weſt, is only from the 7 min. 30 deg. to 11 min. 30 deg. of eaſt longitude, or at moſt 60 leagues, and about 135 from north to ſouth.

The ſoil and climate is much the ſame with that of Tripoli, except that it is a little more fertile towards the weſt, being watered by ſome good rivers.

The Mooriſh kings, whilſt in poſſeſſion of this country, uſed to coin ſeveral ſorts of money; as particularly thoſe called ſultanins, which were of gold, and weighed about twenty-four carats; the roſaras, which were of ſilver, and of a ſquare figure. They uſe likewiſe the aſpers, dubbes, and barbas, which bear the ſame price here that they do at Algier. The greateſt commerce conſiſts in oil, olives, dates, ſoap, kali or aſhes, oſtrich-feathers, camels, and horſes. Olives they have in ſuch plenty, that they can ſend vaſt quantities of oil abroad, and make their charcoal of the wood; which is almoſt the only one they have for that, or any other uſe. Their many vallies, between thoſe high mountains, afford plenty of corn, fruit, and paſture; and they breed great quantities of horſes and camels, which ſell here very cheap.

They abound likewiſe with variety of game, as well as of wild beaſts. Their rivers afford them plenty of fiſh; as for other proviſion, ſuch as rice, pulſe, &c. they are forced to have them from abroad.

Tunis is ſaid to owe moſt of it's ſtrength and beauty to the Arabs, who came hither from Carthage, where they did not think themſelves ſo ſafe, and raiſed it to that degree of grandeur and ſtrength it hath ſince appeared in; for the many revolutions it hath undergone from the Vandals, Arabs, Spaniards, Turks, &c. had reduced it to a very low and mean condition. It is now ſo populous, that it is computed to contain ten thouſand families, and three thouſand ſhops, where they ſell linnen and woollen; and the Venetians and Genoeſe are the two European nations that drive the greateſt commerce with them. A great part of the inhabitants, both within the city and ſuburbs, are employed in the linnen manufacture, which is here the fineſt in all Africa; their thread being the moſt delicate and beſt twiſted; and it is of this that they weave that ſuperfine cloth, of which they make thoſe turbans called tunecis, ſo highly eſteemed by the Turks and Moors. But their moſt advantageous buſineſs is piracy, in which they excel their neighbours, eſpecially in the number of chriſtian ſlaves they make, and of which here is no inconſiderable number.

The province of SOUSA, or SUSA, is ſo called from it's capital, an ancient Roman city; built upon a rock near the ſea-ſide, over-againſt the iſland of Pentileria, and one of the neareſt to Sicily, of any African cities. It hath a commodious large haven, where the pirates revel in ſafety, and the inhabitants, though moſtly ſeamen, are reckoned a civil and trading people. Some of the meaner ſort about the city follow the buſineſs of weaving, others of making earthen ware, and breeding of cattle. The territory is fertile in barley, figs, olives, dates, and paſture grounds.

The city of Souſa is ſtrong, well walled, and is defended by a good ſtout caſtle and garriſon. It drives a pretty good trade in oil, honey, wax, and eſpecially in the tunny fiſh, which is here caught and pickled, and in great requeſt.

ALGIER PROPER. This province is ſo called from it's capital, the preſent metropolis of the kingdom. It is one of the four parts of the antient kingdom of Tremecen, or Tremizan, alias Telenſine. It is bounded on the eaſt by Bugia, on the weſt by Tenez, by the Atlas on the ſouth, and by the Mediterranean, from the mouth of the Chinelaf to the northern confines of Bugia. The territory of Algier is fertile in fruits, and the plain of Moligia produces corn, barley, and oats, two or three times a year, beſides other grain. The melons are of exquiſite taſte, ſome of which ripen in ſummer, and others in winter. Their vines are very large and thick, and the bunches of grapes commonly a foot and half long. There are ſeveral ſorts of manufactures carried on here, eſpecially of the ſilken kind, and moſtly by the Andaluſian and Granadan Spaniards: the commerce of the city is ſtill more conſiderable; but that which enriches it moſt, is their piracy. The coin uſed here is moſtly foreign, as the Turkiſh ſultanins of gold, worth about a ducat; the moticales of Fez, worth about two ſhillings; Spaniſh royals, French crowns, Hungarian ducats, &c. That which is coined here is the barbas worth half an aſper, a ſmall ſquare piece of ſilver, fifteen whereof make a Spaniſh royal, and a doblas worth about a crown.—At Tremecen they coin pieces of gold, called rubios, and worth about 35 aſpers, medians worth 501, and zians worth 100.

The province of BENI-ARAXID, or BENI-RAZID, ſo called from it's inhabitants, who are Bereberes; it is one of the dependencies on Algier, ſituate on very high ground, and about 17 leagues in length, and 9 in breadth. All the ſouth part of it is a plain champaign country, and the north very mountainous, but interlaced with fertile vallies, abounding with corn, honey, and paſture-grounds; and the whole province producing plenty of jujubes, figs, and other excellent fruit. It's four chief towns are Beni-Arax, the capital, Calaa, El Mohaſcar, and Batha.

BENI-ARAX, is the moſt ancient and conſiderable, and hath above two thouſand houſes, and a great number of perſons of quality and wealth.

CALAA, is the next town of note; it hath a good number of merchants and artificers, who live very comfortably.

EL MOHASCAR, is a large open town: it hath a market every Thurſday, to which the Bereberes, Azuagues, and Arabs, repair to ſell their cattle, corn, barley, dried figs, and raiſins, honey, wax, oil, &c. and the merchants of Tremecen, their cloths, linnen, camblets, bridles, ſaddles, and other ſuch-like commodities.

The province of MILIANA, or MAGNANA, ſo called from it's capital, and ſituate on the ſouth and eaſt of Algier Proper, and joined on the weſt to Beni-Araxid, is chiefly inhabited by a rude people, whoſe principal buſineſs is weaving of linnen cloths, and making of ſaddles, after the Moriſco faſhion. It was formerly part of the kingdom of Tremecen, but was ſubdued to Algier, by the pirate Barbaroſſa.

The capital, antiently called Magnana, and Manliana, was built by the Romans on a high and craggy hill, with a deep valley at the bottom, about 57 miles ſouth-weſt of Algier.

The territory about it is ſo covered with walnut-trees, that they are obliged to leave one half of the nuts to rot on the ground. Beſides the two manufactures above-mentioned, the people here are very curious in turning a ſort of wooden ware, chiefly for drinking, which is in great requeſt. They have the fineſt citrons and oranges in all Barbary, which they ſend to Tenez, Algiers, and other places.

The province of SARGEL, is ſo called from it's capital, and is one of thoſe governments that have been diſmembered from that of Tenez Proper, and ſituate between that and Algier. It is a maritime country, very fruitful, and well peopled. It yields plenty of corn, flax, hemp, fruits, and eſpecially mulberries, with which the inhabitants of Sargel breed great quantities of ſilk-worms, which is their chief manufacture. On the coaſt, about ſix miles from that city, is the famed

mountain of it's name, called by the Turks Carapula, and by the Moors Girafumar, which is of ſuch prodigious height, that a ſhip may be diſcovered 12, ſome ſay 20, leagues off at ſea. Between that mountain and the city, runs a river, on which are a great many corn and other mills. The two chief towns in this diſtrict, are Sargal and Breſcar. Sargal is an antient city, ſuppoſed the Chanuceit of Ptolemy, ſituate between Tenez and Algier, and about fifteen leagues from either by ſea, though not above ten by land. The town hath above fifty thouſand houſes, chiefly employed in the ſilken trade, and can, upon an emergency, furniſh ſome thouſands of dexterous archers; and, indeed, it's chief ſtrength conſiſts in the riches, number, and ſtoutneſs of it's inhabitants.

The province of HUMANBAR, is the moſt weſtern maritime province of the Algerine kingdom. The country is partly hilly, and partly champaign, but both are fertile in corn, flax, cotton, fruit, &c. Here are two high mountains, the one called Tarara, the other Gnathaſus; the latter inhabited by a ſavage, diſtreſſed, yet induſtrious, people, called the tribe of the Bereberes: they ſow ſome corn, breed quantities of cattle, and work at the iron mines, which are on this mountain; and which employ numbers to make charcoal for the purpoſe of ſmelting and refining their iron.

PTOLEMY, is ſituate on a plane, three miles from the ſea. It hath a river that runs by it, whoſe banks are covered with variety of fruit-trees, and the adjacent mountains bear a ſort of tree called carrabers, the fruit of which is ſo ſweet, that the people make a kind of honey of it, which they eat all the year round. The inhabitants ſow great quantities of wheat and barley, breed great herds of cattle, weave the fineſt cotton cloths in all Barbary, and drive a great trade with them; but they are forced to pay ſuch taxes to the dey of Algier for that liberty, that it runs away with the profit.

The province of ANGA, or ANGUED.

Guagida, an antient city built by the natives, in a fertile and delightful plain. Here are ſome of the fineſt mules in all Africa, which are ſent and ſold at Tremecen, and thence into all parts of Aſia and Europe.

The province of TREMECEN, is a ſmall province of the Algerine kingdom, reaching only in length from eaſt to weſt, from the confines of Anga to thoſe of Fez, and from north to ſouth, from the ſea to the deſart of Atlas. However the country is well watered, and produces plenty of corn, and variety of fruits and cattle.

The merchants chiefly trade into the country of the blacks, where they exchange their merchandizes for Tibar gold, ambergreaſe, muſk, civet, African bezoar, elephants teeth, negro-ſlaves, &c. and this traffic is ſo advantageous to them, that two or three ſuch journies are ſufficient to enrich a man; and ſo it ſhould, conſidering the length and difficulty of it, through ſuch vaſt ſandy deſarts, and the danger they run from the ſands, heat, drought, and eſpecially from the plundering Arabs.

The city of Tremecen, has a conſiderable number of corn and other mills, on the river Ceſſif. Great quantities of oil are made within this circuit, as well as excellent grapes dried and ſent abroad. They have likewiſe variety of manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of weaving, both ſilk and cotton, and linnen carpets, &c. in the neatneſs of which they excel to a great degree; inſomuch that ſome of their mantles will ſcarce weigh ten ounces. They are likewiſe famed for their fine ſaddles, ſtirrups, bridles, &c. which are made after the Moriſco faſhion.

Tefzara is a large town; moſt of it's inhabitants are employed in the neighbouring iron mines, or in the manufacture of that commodity, which is it's chief commerce, and is hence carried to Tremecen, and elſewhere.

The province of ZEB, or ZAB, joins on the north to the mountains of Bugia and Conſtantina, on the eaſt to Biledulgerid, on the weſt to the deſert of Mazila, and on the ſouth to the deſert, through which the caravans go from Tocart to Guargela and Queſkelen—The country is hot and ſandy, full of poiſonous creatures, but is plentiful in dates and water, which makes it be ſo populous.—It's commerce is chiefly with the blacks, by which they enrich themſelves.

The province of TEGORARIN, or TAGURINI, is bounded on the eaſt by Biledulgerid and Zeb, on the weſt by Segelmeſſa, on the north by Algiers, and on the ſouth by Zara, or the Great Deſert. The inhabitants daily increaſe in wealth by their traffic with the blacks; and it is in this territory that the merchants meet to form themſelves into caravans, in order to croſs the vaſt deſerts of Lybia. The land here is ſo dry and barren, that it requires a great deal of watering and manure before it can be made to bear either corn, barley, or hardly any thing but dates, which do, indeed, grow in great plenty. Fleſh is ſcarce and dear amongſt them, for want of paſture; a few goats they have, and feed upon their milk; they eat horſe and camel's fleſh, but do not kill them till they are old and paſt labour; and theſe they purchaſe of the Arabs, who bring them to their markets.

The province of SEGELMESSA, or SUGULMESSA, is bounded on the weſt by Dara, by Zeb and Mazzeb on the eaſt, by part of the Great Atlas on the north, and on the ſouth extends itſelf to the deſert of Lybia, and is chiefly inhabited by the Bereberes. It is a large territory, extending itſelf above 230 miles, Moll ſays 500 in length, and 300 in breadth. They have little commerce, and therefore are uncivilized and ſavage among themſelves. They ſow no great quantity of corn, and feed chiefly on dates, figs, raiſins, peaches, oſtriches, ſtags, and ſuch fleſh as the Arabs drive thither for ſale. The people are chiefly employed, either in the culture of lands, or in the tanning trade, but are poor and miſerable, as well as brutal, for want of commerce, which renders all nations otherwiſe, wherein it is duly cultivated.

The province of TAFILET, was formerly the ſeat of the kings thereof, but now ſubject to the king of Morocco. It is a long tract of land, running almoſt north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt, bounded on the north by Fez and Tremecen, on the eaſt by Segelmeſſa; on the ſouth by Sara, or the deſert; on the weſt by Morocco and Sus. The country is mountainous, yet bears ſome corn and other fruits, plenty of dates and ſome indigo, and hath good paſture grounds, both on the hills and vallies, eſpecially along the ſides of the rivers, but for the moſt part is ſo dry and barren, that only the chiefs and alcaids, who are the nobles, can afford themſelves corn, whilſt the common ſort live only on dates and camel's fleſh. Water is likewiſe ſo ſcarce, where they are at a diſtance from rivers, that they are obliged to ſave, in winter, what rain-water falls, to ſerve them in ſummer.

The principal commerce of this country is a ſort of fine leather, and of indigo; which latter, though made of that plant which grows wild, and in great quantities, doth yet give a deeper, more lively, and permanent dye, than that which is cultivated with ſo much pains in America, according to Labat. They deal conſiderably in ſtriped ſilks and linnen, after the Moriſco faſhion. But their moſt conſiderable export is that of dates, and of a ſpecies of leather they make of a peculiar beaſt among them, called lanto.

Tafilet, a town which ſtands by the river of it's name, in the kingdom of Tafilet. It contains about 2000 houſes, inhabited moſtly by Bereberes, called Filelis, who are ingenious, induſtrious, and rich. Their chief manufactures, beſides the ſilks and leather above mentioned, are a kind of fine coſſocs, carpets, and other coverings, of a very fine texture. They make good indigo and Morocco leather; and this town is the great rendezvous for the European and Barbary merchants. There are various other provinces, which may be ſaid to come within the boundaries of Barbary; but, as they afford us no matter for commercial conſideration, we ſhall paſs them over, and touch only upon the

NIGER, or SANAGO river, the one being eſteemed, by the moſt accurate geographers, a part of the other. The Europeans have been able to trace this but part of the way, beyond which they know nothing of its courſe, but what is learnt from the Mandingo negroes, who, among all the blacks, are the moſt addicted to travelling and traffic, but are neither expert enough in their obſervations, nor have gone far enough to know any thing of its real ſource, ſince they place it no higher, according to Labat, than the lake Maberia, in the kingdom of Tombut, which is little more than half way to that of the Nile.

Others, with Labat, have ſtretched it's courſe back eaſtward, to the lake Bournow, which lies under the 18th degree of latitude, and 19th of eaſt longitude, and fix it's ſpring-head there, it being difficult to trace it further, on account of the dangers of ſuch an attempt from the ſuppoſed barrenneſs of the country, but rather from the ſavage diſpoſition of the inhabitants, who live beyond it; and who can never be rendered humane and civilized, till the Europeans take wiſe and honeſt meaſures to make them ſo.

'Tis certain, however, that the Sanaga is a very large and conſiderable river, and of very great extent in it's courſe, even though we ſhould trace it's ſpring head no farther than the lake Bournow. But, if we ſuppoſe it to ſpring from the ſame head with the Nile, it will then croſs almoſt the whole country of Afric where it is wideſt, and will have a courſe of near 50 degrees from eaſt to weſt, excluſive of it's windings. The entrance into it is narrow and ſomewhat difficult, by reaſon of it's immoveable bar and ſandy ſhoals, as well as the ſeveral iſlands that are at the mouth of it, and the ſeveral canals and marſhes that clog it; of which we ſhall give a more diſtinct account, when we come to ſpeak of Negroland, and of the ſeveral ſettlements of the Europeans on theſe iſlands. But, after ſailing up eight or ten leagues, it is found broad and deep, and fit to carry large veſſels; and except about five or ſix leagues on each ſide above the mouth, which is a ſandy and barren ground, all the reſt, as far as the lake Maberia, the banks are covered with ſtately fruit-trees and villages, and the country well watered, and very fertile for a great way; for like the Nile it overflows it for many leagues, and inriches the land to a great degree, and would do ſo ſtill more, if the inhabitants were as expert and induſtrious in making all the advantages they can of it; but that is not the caſe, though the people on both ſides live as near to it as they can, and feed great herds of cattle, and ſow large and ſmall millet, the former whereof is what we call the Turky wheat, in great quantities, and with great increaſe. As the Senaga receives many conſiderable rivers in its courſe,

which ſwell it high enough to be able at all times to carry veſſels of 40 or 50 tons, ſo it ſplits itſelf into ſeveral branches, which, re-uniting again, do form very large and fertile iſlands, well filled with towns, villages, and inhabitants.

The moſt noted towns for largeneſs and number, are Bequio, or Bifeche, ſituate between the great ſtream, and the branch of its name, otherwiſe called Corow river, and is about 35 leagues in length, and in ſome parts 12 or 15 in breadth, and interſected with a great number of ſmaller ſtreams and canals, which makes it reſemble a group of ſmall iſles, covered with palm and other fruit-trees, and other verdure, as well as towns and villages. This iſland reaches almoſt to the mouth of the great river.

Above that is another called the iſland Morphil, from the ſtream that incloſes it on the other ſide, and is no leſs than 80 leagues in length, and 8 or 10 in breadth, where wideſt; hath a conſiderable number of large villages, well peopled, and who drive a great trade in elephants teeth, which the negroes call Morphil. Adjoining to that, and parted only by a canal, is another called by the inhabitants Bilbas, and is about 30 leagues long, and 5 or 6 broad. It is populous, and the negroes, who inhabit it, drive a good commerce in ivory, gold-duſt, and ſome little plates of that metal flatted with the hammer of different ſhapes and ſizes, chiefly uſed by the women, wherewith to adorn their hair.

Theſe iſlands of Morphil and Bilbas belong to the kingdom of Firatic, or Fullis, whoſe prince and inhabitants are extremely obliging to ſtrangers; and, beſides their populouſneſs and fertility, abound with great variety of peculiar trees, herbs, and roots. They breed likewiſe divers ſorts of cattle, and other animals, fowls in great abundance, and have plenty of cotton which they manufacture.

About four or five leagues eaſt of the iſland Bilbas, is a ſmall one called Sadel, belonging now to the French African company, to whoſe director-general, Mr. Brue, the king of Siratic gave it, anno 1701. But, as that prince's kingdom extends itſelf a prodigious way on the other ſide of the Senaga, we ſhall refer the fuller account thereof to the article of NEGROLAND.

The province of ZANHAGA, or ZENEGA.

This large territory extends itſelf from the river Suz, which parts it from Morocco on the north, to that of Sanago on the ſouth; that is, from the 17th to the 28th degree of latitude, and is bounded on the eaſt by the territory of Serem, Sunda, and Zuenziga, and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean. It is inhabited by ſeveral nations, ſuch as the Berviches, Ludays, Duleynes, and Zenegui, beſides ſome tribes of Arabs, which latter live for the moſt part upon the former, and carry off whole droves of their cattle, which they exchange at Dara.

In this province are the two deſerts of Azoa and Taguzza, or Tagooſt, the laſt of which produces a vaſt quantity of rock-ſalt, which is conveyed hence into all parts of the deſert, and Negroland.—This country is ſo flat and ſandy, without either trees, mountains, towns, woods, or rivers, for a traveller to ſteer his way by, that it is next to impoſſible not to miſs his road in ſo long a tract. The traders who travel into theſe parts, guide themſelves by the ſtars, as they moſtly travel in the night, by reaſon of the exceſſive heat. Here are neither cities nor towns of note. The people ſubſiſt moſtly on dates, and the milk of their flocks, except they chance to kill ſome wild goats and other game, which are very ſcarce.

The kingdom of GUALATA is ſouth of Zanhaga (though geographers diſagree about its ſituation and boundaries) whoſe inhabitants are called Benais; they are rude and unpoliſhed, though courteous enough to thoſe with whom they traffic. Zanaha lies on the north, the river of that name on the ſouth, the ocean on the weſt, and the Zunda and Zuenziga on the eaſt. It is poor and barren, corn and fleſh of all ſorts are very dear; they have neither learning nor judges among them, though, in their commerce, they make uſe of the Arabic characters. They are ſubject to the kings of Zanhaga, and Tombut; while they had ſovereigns of their own, they had a conſiderable commerce.

The province or deſert of ZUENZIGA, is ſtill more barren and deſert than the two laſt. It hath theſe two countries on the weſt, Sunda and the deſert of Cogden on the north, Twarges and Zanſara on the eaſt, and the deſert of Ghiri, or the river of Sanago, on the ſouth.—The limits and ſituation of theſe deſert provinces are not agreed on by the African geographers: according to ſome of the more accurate, it is ſaid to be the common thoroughfare of the merchants and caravans that go from Tremecen to the kingdoms of Tombut, Agades, Yzza, &c. though extremely hazardous for want of water. The inhabitants are partly native Africans, and partly Arabs; the latter are exceeding rich in cattle, with which they wander for freſh paſture as far as the kingdom of Yguid.

The province or deſert of TARGA, or HAIR, and TWARGES, hath its firſt name from the deſert, and the ſecond from the people that inhabit it, whom ſome geographers have ſtiled Twarges, or Terges. Some of them have taken Hair for the chief city in the province, though Leo Africanus rather calls it a deſert; but neither Targa nor Hair are mentioned by him as cities, neither doth it appear to have any. The truth is, we know but little of thoſe deſerts. We are, however, pretty well aſſured, that it is neither ſo dry and barren as thoſe we have gone through, nor ſo ſultry and unwholeſome. It hath many good wells of water, though generally deep; the lands produce graſs, and ſeveral ſorts of herbage. Great quantities of manna are found here, eſpecially towards the frontiers of Agades. The inhabitants gather it in calabaſſes, and export it for ſale. The negroes diſſolve it in the water wherein they dreſs their meat, and eſteem it very cooling and ſalubrious, and think it owing to that, that the people are more healthy here than in Tombut, though the air be not ſo good. The Arabs and Barbars, which are here very numerous, make a great trade of catching of negroes, and ſelling them for ſlaves.

South of Targa is the deſert of Agades. And farther ſouth the kingdom of Zanfara, or Janfara, which begins to aſſume the face of a fertile country, producing corn, rice, Turky wheat, and cotton in abundance.

The province or deſert of IGUIDI, or YGUIDI, and LEMPTA. The former, Yguidi, or, as Mr. De L'Iſle writes it, Iguidi, is the name of the country, and Lempta, or Lemptunes, that of the inhabitants. This country is ſtill more unknown to us, as it draws farther from the ſea-coaſt, and is more barren and miſerable than any we have ſeen yet in the whole tract of this long deſert. It is beſides very dangerous for travellers, not only on account of its exceſſive heat and drought, but likewiſe on account of the brutiſh fierceneſs of its inhabitants, who are a wild breed of native Africans, that rob all that come in their way, and kill all that reſiſt them. It is the thoroughfare for the merchants and caravans that travel from Conſtantina and other towns of Algiers, Tunis, &c. into Negroland.

Farther eaſt of Yguidi and Targa, lies the kingdom of Agades, or, as others write it, Agdes and Egdes, which hath the Sanago on the ſouth, and Bordoa and Bournow on the eaſt. It hath ſo much better a ſoil, as it produces much graſs for the numerous herds they feed on it, eſpecially on the ſouth ſide, that it is divided into two diſtricts, viz. the northern ſtiled deſert, and the ſouthern, or fertile. Mr. De L'Iſle mentions three principal towns in this kingdom, viz. Agades the capital, Deghir, and Secmara, and takes notice of great quantities of good ſenna that is gathered in this country.

The province of BERDOA, which hath Faiſan and Barca on the north, Bournow on the ſouth, Nubia on the eaſt, and extends itſelf from the 16th to the 22d degree of eaſt longitude, and from the 20th to the 23d of north latitude, and farther; but is all a frightful deſert beyond it. It is ſaid to be ſo called from its capital, which lies directly under the tropic of Cancer; but De L'Iſle ſays, on the contrary, that that is the name of its inhabitants, who live together in tents, and upon the plunder of the merchants and paſſengers. On the northern confines, near the mountains which part this country from the kingdom of Tripoli, ſtands the town of Zala, where are kept ſome conſiderable fairs. The country in general is very dry and barren. South of Berdoa lies

The province of BORNO, or BOURNOW, ſituate between Gaoga on the eaſt, the Sanago on the ſouth, Cano and Agades on the weſt. It is a deſpotic kingdom, and extends itſelf from 13 to 22 degrees of longitude eaſt, and from 17 to 21 of latitude, but is far from deſerving to be ranked among the deſerts of Zahara, except towards the northern parts of it; but all the reſt is well watered by ſprings and rivers, deſcending from the mountains, and produces corn, and ſeveral ſorts of fruits. On the north-weſt ſtands the mountain of Tanton, which hath ſome good iron mines, which they know not how to work to advantage; and, on the north-eaſt, runs the moſt deſert part of all. On the South flows the Niger, or Sanago. The eaſtern and weſtern parts, which are partly flat, and partly mountainous, are inhabited by a people that live in tents, have their women and children in common. The mountains are covered with herds of cattle, and ſome of them produce alſo millet and cotton. But the people here, though they bear the aſpect of the human ſpecies, yet ſeem to be but a ſmall remove from the brute creation.—Thoſe who reſide in towns, indeed, are more tractable and polite, by reaſon of their being merchants, manufacturers, and artificers, of all countries and complexions. The king, who is here abſolute, is ſaid to be ſo rich, according to Baudrand and Dapper, that all his houſhold furniture, even down to his ſpurs and ſtirrups, &c. are all of pure gold.

The chief places in this kingdom are, Borno, the capital, Amazen, Sagra, Semegonda, which lie northward of the firſt; and, eaſtward of it, are thoſe of Nebrina and Sama. We know but little of them, except that the capital is ſituate upon the northern bank of the Sanago, near the frontiers of Cano, and drives a good commerce with all the neighbouring countries.

The province, or kingdom, of GAOGA, or KAUGHA. This is the moſt eaſtern, and laſt province, of this extenſive deſert of Zahara, it being contiguous on the north-eaſt to Egypt, and on the eaſt to Nubia. On the weſt it hath the kingdoms of Bardoa and Bournow; on the north, part of Bardoa, and, on the ſouth, according to ſome, by the Niger, and, according to others, by the Bar-el-Abrad, which falls into the Nile. The country is moſtly mountainous, and the people very

very rude and illiterate, and go almoſt naked. Leo Africanus tells us that they live in poor ſlight huts, made of ſuch combuſtible ſtuff, that they are frequently ſet on fire, and ſpread flames through their ſcattered hamlets. The breeding of great herds of cattle, both ſmall and great, is their chief care and wealth.

REMARKS.

From a conſideration of the trifling trade which there is in this large territory, it is no wonder that the people are ſavage, even to brutality: for it is certain that commerce with other nations, as well as within themſelves, has a natural tendency to poliſh and humanize mankind in general: and, in conſequence thereof, government has been eſtabliſhed: ſo that it may be ſaid with great truth, that mutual intercourſes of home and foreign traffic have given birth to all thoſe bleſſings which the whole human ſpecies enjoy, beyond the moſt brutal and barbarous nations; there being reaſon to believe, from what we experience amidſt thoſe nations which are deſtitute of commerce, that the whole race of men would have appeared but a ſmall remove above the brute creation, had they contented themſelves to live without the purſuits of commerce. If we contemplate the ſtate our own nation, when our commerce was in its infancy, and compare ourſelves then with what we are at preſent, there will appear to be almoſt as much difference as there is at preſent between ſome of the barbarian countries and our own. This conſideration ſhould give us juſt notions of the invaluable bleſſings of traffic, it being that which was the original parent of our arts and ſciences, our literature and our government; for the inducement to cultivate letters aroſe from the influential motives of profit and honour; and, trade being neceſſarily productive thereof, that may be juſtly ſaid to be the parent of all that we enjoy beyond the Hottentot.

And, if we were to trace the origin and progreſs of the commerce and navigation of all countries, from the hiſtory of the world, we ſhall find that they, as well as ourſelves, are indebted to trade for the like enjoyments.

Since it is a true maxim, that by what means any thing is acquired, by the ſame it is preſerved, it muſt ever be for the intereſt and glory of this nation to cheriſh and encourage to the utmoſt the commercial arts, which have been productive of all our felicity and grandeur. Whence it follows, that theſe ſtudies cannot be too warmly and zealouſly promoted by thoſe who wiſh well to mankind, and have any real regard to their country. What would our gentry, our nobility, or our ſovereigns, be better than thoſe of Barbary, was it not for commerce? Since this is indiſputably the caſe, it is extraordinary that, hitherto, we have had no well-eſtabliſhed inſtitutions for the regular ſtudy and cultivation of thoſe arts, which are ſo dear to our country, and ſo ineſtimable to our poſterity!

We are behind no nation whatever in our charitable inſtitutions; and why ſhould there not be inſtitutions to enable us the better to maintain thoſe charities? Why ſhould a trading nation be deſtitute of trading colleges? 'Tis trade that has given bread to the phyſician, the lawyer, and the divine: and why ſhould not equal care be taken to breed up Britiſh merchants, as any of the other profeſſions? A mercantile college, or a college for merchants, does not ſound leſs agreeable, than a college for any other order of men whatever. We have one for the ſupport of decayed merchants, and why not many to prevent their decay?

The commerce and the money affairs of the nation are the grand points of conſideration which come before the legiſlature. But what do our young nobility and gentry, who are to repreſent a trading nation in parliament, ever hear of theſe matters at their colleges, either at home or abroad? Why alſo ſhould not this kingdom have ſeminaries properly eſtabliſhed and endowed, to bring up thoſe to a perfect knowlege of trade who are to be the guardians of our trade? Is it, becauſe trade is too well underſtood, by thoſe who have the care and protection of it, that it needs no ſuch eſtabliſhments? Or, is this branch of knowlege to be obtained without any application, or regular courſe of ſtudy? This will not be ſaid by thoſe which are judges of the matter. Is a knowlege of trade, in a trading nation, an accompliſhment unbecoming the gentleman? This will hardly be ſaid either, ſince it is a frequent topic of converſation among ſome of the politeſt companies, and the ſtanding ſubject of the capital debates of our parliament itſelf. If any gentleman can be weak enough to imagine that trade has no connection with his private intereſt, as a landed man, or as a monied man, he may then as well live among thoſe barbarians where there is no trade, as in Great-Britain. When an acre of land is worth no more in England than it is in the deſerts of Barbary, then gentlemen may have reaſon to contemn trade as beneath their regard. But, while trade is the chief cauſe of their wealth, their ſplendor, and dignity, it will ever be their intereſt, and that of their poſterity, to ſtudy it in earneſt, and promote and encourage it with zeal and alacrity.

As the knowlege of trade and money is the beſt accompliſhment that the repreſentative of a trading people can have, ſo it will hardly be thought any diſhonour to him who ſhall preſent his ſovereign at foreign courts. Treaties of commerce with other nations are the moſt eſſential points that concern our national intereſts; and, for an ambaſſador to excel in the knowlege of commerce, is certainly no way repugnant to that high character.

When any extraordinary regulations with regard to trade are to take place in a trading country, we then more ſenſibly diſcern the utility and neceſſity of this knowlege. This is the caſe, at preſent, in Holland. His late royal highneſs the prince of Orange, it is ſaid, took unſpeakable pains to inform himſelf in this important ſubject; and it is plain enough, from his propoſals to the States-General, that he found a knowlege in the practical, as well as the political nature of trade, abſolutely neceſſary in thoſe weighty conſiderations.

Here it may not be amiſs to obſerve, that the great point under conſideration at preſent, in Holland, is, the regulation of the duties upon merchandizes inwards and outwards, that being the moſt eſſential point to be ſettled in a nation whoſe dependence is upon foreign traffic. To which end, we find, in the prince's propoſals, that it was neceſſary to inquire into the nature of every diſtinct ſpecies of goods, in order to know it's diſtinct and peculiar uſe and application in all their mechanical and manufactural arts; without which it being impoſſible to make a true judgment what commodities ought to pay duties, and what not, and how thoſe duties ſhould be wiſely rated, effectually to promote, and not to injure, their commerce and navigation. Whence it may be obſerved of what uſe the preſent work wherein I am engaged may be of to the ſtateſman, with reſpect to the forming of a right judgment upon what principles the cuſtom houſe duties ought to be regulated. As this muſt depend upon a thorough knowlege in the nature, uſe, and application of every ſpecies of merchandizes imported and exported, our Dictionary, I humbly apprehend, muſt be of great utility upon ſuch important conſiderations; it containing a more minute and ample deſcription of theſe things than any work ever before publiſhed. And this was one great motive for being ſo explicit upon thoſe articles, but not the only one; for, by this means, our mechanical and manufactural arts may be greatly advanced by the artiſts themſelves, when they are well informed of the application of theſe materials to variety of purpoſes.

BARBATINA, or SEMEN CONTRA, a ſeed which is efficacious in extirpating worms from the human body, to which children are chiefly liable.

The plant which produces this ſeed, is a kind of wormwood, and has ſuch ſmall leaves, that they can hardly be diſtinguiſhed from the ſeed itſelf. It is pretended that ſome of it grows in the province of Xaintonge in France; but that which the druggiſts ſell, comes from Perſia, and from the borders of Muſcovy. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, get it from Aleppo, by the way of Alexandretta, Scanderoon, and Smyrna.

This ſeed, to be good, ought to be plump, of an agreeable ſcent, and very green: eſpecial care muſt be taken that it be not dyed green, and that the ſeed of ſouthernwood be not ſold inſtead of that.

The Engliſh and Dutch make ſugar-plums of this ſeed, as is done with aniſe-ſeed.

The barbatina, or ſemen contra, pays duty of importation in France 5 livres per 100 weight, according to the tariff of 1664, and 20 per cent. of it's value beſides, by a decree of council of the 15th Auguſt 1685, as a merchandize coming from Perſia and the Levant.

BARCALAO, a Spaniſh word, which the French pronounce baccala, or baccaliau. By this laſt name the Baſques moſt commonly call the fiſh which we ſtile cod; and thoſe people alſo call the iſle of Newfoundland, the iſle of Baccaliau (Cod Iſland) becauſe of the great plenty of cod that is catched there. There is, however, a league to the weſt of that large iſland, another ſmall one, which is more particularly called Baccaliau. The barcalao is a kind of cod, perfectly like that of Newfoundland, and is to be met with in ſeveral parts of the South-Sea; but the greateſt quantity is catched on the coaſt of the iſle of Juan Fernandez, 80 leagues to the weſt of Valparaiſo, on the coaſt of Chili.

One d'Apremont, a Frenchman by birth, who had been life-guard-man to Lewis XIV, was the firſt who taught the Spaniards of Peru to catch, cure, and dry this cod, about the year 1713.

BARGAIN, a contract, or agreement, in buying and ſelling. Hence, to buy a good bargain, is to buy cheap. The French have the word barguigner, which ſignifies to debate about the price of any merchandize, to diſpute every penny; as alſo, to be uncertain what to chooſe, or how much to pay. With the Italians, that word is uſed to ſignify ſelling for a time, and upon truſt.

BARGAIN is alſo a contract, or agreement, to give a certain merchandize for a certain price; whence the French call it contract de vente, a contract of ſale. So that there are three things chiefly requiſite to make a bargain complete, or perfect. 1. The merchandize ſold. 2. The price. 3. The mutual agreement, or conſent.

REMARKS.

The merchandize ſold ought to be certain; which is eaſy enough when you ſell a determined body; as for inſtance, a horſe,

horſe, or ſuch other thing. But, when the queſtion is about a quantity of wine, corn, tin, iron, &c. which are ſold by the meaſure, tale, or weight, the ſale is not perfect till the merchandize be meaſured, ſold, or weighed, becauſe of the uncertainty, unleſs the ſeller ſold all his wine, all his faggots, all his tin, &c. in a lump and together, without ſelling them by the meaſure, tale, or weight.

It is not lawful in ſome Roman catholic countries to ſell things that are out of trade; ſuch as are eſteemed ſacred things: but yet, if the buyer acted fairly, the bargain ought to ſtand ſo far as to intitle him to damages and intereſt from the ſeller.

There are other things, the trade of which is abſolutely prohibited in France, as that of ſalt, in ſome provinces; or with foreigners, as that of gold, ſilver, jewels, warlike ſtores, arms, corn, and other ſuch merchandizes, the exportation of which is prohibited, and which are reckoned contraband goods. But, theſe being excepted, all other things may be ſold, even a man's right or claim, and even his hope or expectation of an uncertain event, as the future produce of a vineyard, the felling of timber in a foreſt, the ſucceſs of a voyage by ſea, &c. becauſe it is not the thing uncertain that is ſold, but only the hope or expectation, which is certain.

According to the nature of trade, the price of the thing ſold ſhould be paid in current coin, otherwiſe it would be only an exchange, nor could there be any difference made between the price and the thing ſold. However, it is cuſtomary in France that when an eſtate is exchanged for moveable things, which can be eaſily valued and appraiſed, ſuch as wine, corn, wood for fuel, timber, iron, lead, tin, gold and ſilver in ore, &c. it produces the ſame effect as a true ſale, either with regard to the rights of the lordſhip or manor, or to the power of redemption. Conſent being the material condition of a ſale, it ought to be equally free from error and violence; that is to ſay, with regard to error, if there happens to be one in the very ſubſtance of the thing bought, it makes the bargain void: but it is otherwiſe, if the error be only in the qualities of the thing ſold; for, in that caſe, it does not diſſolve the bargain, provided there be no voluntary fraud on the ſide of the ſeller. Thus, if I deſign to buy pewter, and nothing but lead is ſold to me, the ſale cannot ſtand good, becauſe I was impoſed upon in the very ſubſtance of the thing I wanted to buy. But, if I deſigned to buy a clock that went true, and it does not prove ſo, the bargain ought to ſtand, becauſe I was deceived in the qualities only of the thing that was ſold to me.

A bargain, or ſale, may be made purely and ſimply, or with condition. If it be made purely and ſimply, it is perfect, and ought to take effect, though there be no contract or agreement in writing; becauſe writing, in ſuch a caſe, is not eſſential to the bargain, and ought to ſerve only as a proof of it, unleſs the parties were reſolved to make a bargain in writing; in which caſe the ſale is not perfect till the contract be ſigned: ſo that, from the moment the parties have agreed to have ſold and bought, there is no further occaſion of any contract between them.

The ſale with condition remains ſuſpended, till the condition happens: but then it becomes complete or perfect, the moment the condition exiſts, without any new conſent of the parties: the happening of the condition has even a retroactive effect; that is to ſay, that, when the condition has happened, the ſale is preſumed to have been as perfect, from the moment the bargain was concluded, as if it had been made purely and ſimply, and without a condition.

It muſt be obſerved, that there is a great difference between a ſale, and a promiſe to ſell.

A ſale, among the Romans, obliged the ſeller to deliver the goods ſold: in France, it makes over the property of it to the buyer, in caſe the ſeller was the proprietor. But a promiſe to ſell obliges the promiſer to pay only damages and intereſt, in caſe he does not perform his promiſe.

Although the ſeller ſtipulated, that, if the price were not paid within a certain time, the ſale ſhould be void, yet he may, after the time is elapſed, bring his action in order to be paid; and that clauſe is always underſtood thus; viz. that the ſale ſhall be void, if the ſeller thinks fit, becauſe the clauſe was put in, in his favour only; otherwiſe the buyer would be at liberty to make the bargain ſtand, or to annul it at his pleaſure; which ought not to be at the diſcretion of one only of the contracting parties.

When the ſeller has fixed no time for the payment of the price of the thing ſold, the buyer cannot have the property of it, till he has paid the price.

When, in any bargain or contract of ſale, there are dark clauſes, they muſt always be interpreted againſt the ſeller, who ought to bear the blame of not expreſſing himſelf more clearly. A ſale is a bargain, wherein honeſty and plain-dealing are ſo neceſſary, that if the ſeller concealed from the buyer the defects of the thing ſold, which, in all likelihood, would have prevented him from buying it, the buyer is obliged to pay him damages and intereſt.

The ſeller may bring his action againſt the buyer, to oblige him to pay for the thing ſold: but there is a diſtinction to be made between moveables and immoveables. For, with regard to moveables, there is no intereſt due for them, but from the day the demand was made in a lawful manner; yet, as to immoveables, the intereſt of the price is due from the day of the delivery of the thing ſold, or from the day it was offered. With regard to immoveables, the buyer is not reputed to have paid the price of them, unleſs he produces the receipts. Whereas, with reſpect to moveables, the payment is preſumed to have been made, at the time when the goods were delivered, unleſs the ſeller can prove the contrary.

This, however, ſuffers an exception with regard to wholeſale traders and retailers, to bakers, paſtry-cooks, and apothecaries, who have a right to demand the payment of the merchandizes by them delivered, ſome at the end of ſix months, reckoning from the day of the delivery; and the others at the year's end, though there be no account ſettled, nor any promiſe in writing.

The ſeller of an immoveable has a ſpecial privilege or claim on the thing ſold; but it is not ſo with moveables: for, as the latter cannot be mortgaged, the ſeller cannot claim the thing ſold, but as long as it is actually in the hands or poſſeſſion of his debtor; but, the moment it is paſſed into the hands of a third perſon, he has no longer any right to it, unleſs he ſold it without fixing a day or term for the payment of it, in hopes of being paid immediately; in which caſe he may trace and claim it, into what place ſoever it has been removed, in order to be paid the price he ſold it for.

There are ſome things that are ſo much privileged, as wine, wheat, and other neceſſaries of life, that, by the common law in France, the ſeller may ſeize the body of the buyer, for the payment of the price, after a bare order from the judge.

When the ſale is entirely complete, the ſeller ought to be diſcharged from any danger which the thing ſold may run, though it ſtill continue in his poſſeſſion; becauſe it ſeems it is the buyer's fault not to take the thing away, by paying the price, as ſoon as the ſale is completed. But, if there be ſtill ſomething wanted to complete the ſale; if, for inſtance, it be made under a condition, that is not yet fulfilled; if a merchandize ſold by the meaſure or the weight, be not yet meaſured or weighed: even with regard to wine, if the veſſels be not yet filled and marked; the ſeller is to bear the danger of any accident, even though it ſhould not happen through his fault: for if it were through his fault or neglect, though never ſo little, he would be anſwerable for it, even after the ſale was complete.

The buyer of moveables has only a perſonal action againſt the ſeller, to oblige him to deliver the thing ſold; for a bare bargain does not inveſt the buyer with the property of the thing bought, till it be actually delivered to him. Whence it follows, that if, after I have ſold my horſe to ſuch an one, without delivering it to him, I ſell and deliver the ſame horſe to a third perſon, that third perſon is the true proprietor, and the firſt buyer has only an action of damages and intereſt againſt me, for not delivering to him the horſe I ſold him. The ſame is to be obſerved, according to the principles of nature and equity, with regard to all other ſales which may be thus circumſtanced.

A defect in the thing ſold, which does not appear, and cannot be perceived by the buyer, is a lawful cauſe to make void ſome ſorts of ſales; as of horſes, which the ſeller is to warrant free from being foundered, ſhort-winded, and the glanders.

BARK, properly a ſmall boat, with one deck only; and in general any little veſſel, which ſerves to tranſport merchandizes, either by ſea or by rivers.

At Paris, they give the name of bark, or boat-oyſters, to ſuch as are brought thither in boats that come up the river, to diſtinguiſh them from thoſe that are brought on horſes by the ripiers, and to which they give a name that anſwers to horſe-oyſters (huitres de claſſe) much after the ſame manner as we diſtinguiſh at London the boat-mackarel from the horſe-mackarel. The oyſters that are brought upon horſes, making more haſte, and being kept but a little while on the road, are always the freſheſt, and conſequently the moſt eſteemed and the beſt.

BARK, the outward covering of trees, which ſerves them inſtead of a ſkin.

There are ſeveral ſorts of barks that are traded in, ſome of which are uſed in phyſic, as the quinquina, or jeſuit's bark, and mace: others ſerve for dyeing, as thoſe of the alder and walnut-trees: others are uſed as ſpice, as cinnamon and caſſia lignea: ſome for divers uſes, as the bark of the cork-tree, the oak, the linden-tree. All thoſe ſeveral ſorts of bark are deſcribed in their proper places.

The barks of tamarind pay duty of importation in France, at the rate of 25 ſols per hundred weight. Thoſe of caper-trees 2 livres and 10 ſols. Thoſe of mandrakes 40 ſols, according to the tariff of the year 1664; excepting thoſe drugs that may come from the Levant, which pay a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem, according to the decree of Auguſt the 15th, 1685.

BARK of trees, a ſtuff manufactured in the Eaſt-Indies, with the bark of a tree, which is ſpun like hemp. After it has been beat, and ſteeped in water, they extract long threads from it, which are ſomething between ſilk and common thread; being neither ſo ſoft nor ſo gloſſy as ſilk, nor ſo rough and hard as hemp.

They mix ſilk with it in ſome ſtuffs, and theſe are called nillaes, and cherquemolles. The fotalongees are alſo partly of

bark, and partly of ſilk, and do not differ from the former but in their being ſtriped.

The pinaſſes and biambonnees are all of bark.

The ſtuffs are between ſeven and eight (French) ells long, and $\frac{3}{4}$ or $\frac{5}{6}$ of an ell broad: except the cherquemolles, which meaſure but four ells in length by $\frac{3}{4}$ in breadth.

BARLEY, a ſort of grain very well known. The plant that produces it, has a ſtalk ſmaller and more brittle than that of rye, and it's leaves are broader and rougher than thoſe of wheat. It's bloſſom is ſucceeded by a grain pointed at the two extremities, eſpecially at the outermoſt, which renders it's ear briſtling, with a long and ſharp beard, proper to defend it from birds.

There are two ſorts of barley; the one, which the French call ſquare barley, or barley of autumn, becauſe they ſow it in that ſeaſon; it requires a rich ſoil, well plowed. The other is called ſpring-barley, which is the common ſort; they begin to ſow it in France towards the middle of April; it delights in a light dry ſoil, being apt to change into oats, if ſowed in a ſtrong moiſt ſoil. There is alſo white barley, red barley, and of ſome other colours, according to the ſoil and land where it is ſowed.

Mr. Miller gives us a better account of this grain. It has, ſays he (Gardener's Dictionary) a thin ſpike; the calix, huſk, awn, and flower, are like thoſe of wheat or rye, but the awns are rough; the ſeed is ſwelling in the middle, and, for the moſt part, ends in a ſharp point, to which the huſks are cloſely united. The chief kinds are, 1. The common, long eared barley. 2. Winter, or ſquare barley, or beer barley, by ſome called big. 3. And the ſprat barley, or battledore barley. The firſt and third ſort are commonly cultivated in England; but the ſecond ſort is ſeldom to be met with near London, though Mr. Miller thinks it much preferable to the other two, as producing a larger ſeed, and very full thick ſpikes.

The meal of barley is very white, and good to make bread, eſpecially being mixed with that of ſome other corn. There are ſome provinces in France where it is the people's common food; and even in the other provinces of France, when there is a ſcarcity of corn, they have recourſe to barley-meal, for want of that of wheat or rye; as it happened in 1709, when moſt of all the people in the country, and many of the inhabitants of the cities, and even thoſe of Paris, owed the preſervation of their lives to the meal of barley.

Beſides this uſe that is made of barley, the brewers of beer conſume vaſt quantities of it; for, after they have made it ſprout, ferment, and boil, they make that liquor of it called beer, which has ſome of the properties of wine, and is uſed inſtead of it in thoſe places where the ſoil does not ſuffer the vine to be cultivated.

The corn-merchants and the country farmers are thoſe who ſell by wholeſale all the barley that is uſed at Paris, and the corn-chandlers retail it.

By an ordonnance of the city of Paris, of the year 1672, all brewers, maſter corn-chandlers, and retailers, are forbidden to go and meet the merchants and huſbandmen, in order to buy their barley, nor are they to buy any but upon the keys: and the keys muſt never be unfurniſhed with barley. The corn-chandlers and retailers are not only forbidden to buy any but on market-days, and on thoſe days in the afternoon only, but they are even forbidden to buy above two ſeptiers, or 24 buſhels, at once, and to keep above 8 ſeptiers or 96 buſhels, in their houſes at a time.

Barley is meaſured and examined on the keys, and in the markets at Paris, by the ſworn corn-meters.

Barley pays duty of importation in France at the rate of 24 ſols the muid, Paris meaſure, containing two tuns, and each tun ſix ſeptiers, which, however, muſt be underſtood of that barley which is entered by the province of Anjou. The duty of exportation is of 13 livres per muid, alſo Paris meaſure; namely, 20 ſols for the ancient duty, and 12 livres for the new cuſtom; the whole agreeably to the tariff of the year 1664.

At Amſterdam barley is ſold by the laſt; and there is no other deduction made but of 1 per cent. for prompt payment. It's common price is from 50 to 70 golden florins per laſt. That florin is of 28 ſtivers, about 29 pence half-penny Engliſh money.

Peeled BARLEY, is that barley which has been ſtripped of it's firſt coat. The beſt in France comes with Vitry le François; they have ſome at Charenton, near Paris, which is pretty good. There is ſome very white, and others leſs ſo. It ought to be choſen freſh, dry, large, plump, not rank, nor muſty. Peeled barley is ſold at Paris by the druggiſts and the corn-chandlers. It is uſed in the compoſition of ſeveral diet-drinks, which are preſcribed to ſick perſons, as alſo to perſons in health; to cool them. However, thoſe drinks made with peeled barley are reckoned a little too nouriſhing. Peeled barley pays a duty of importation at Paris at the rate of 10 ſols per 100 weight. For the uſe and conſumption of barley in England, ſee MALT.

BARRA, called alſo ſometimes BARRO, a long meaſure uſed in Portugal, to meaſure woolen or linnen cloth, ſerges, &c.

Six barras make 10 cabidos, or cavidos each cavidos anſwering to $\frac{4}{7}$ of the Paris ell.

BARRA is alſo a long meaſure uſed in ſome parts of Spain. It is the ſame with the yard of Seville.

There are three ſorts of barras, that of Valentia, that of Caſtile, and that of Arragon.

The barra of Valentia is of 2 feet 9 inches and $\frac{7}{12}$ of an inch. which make $\frac{10}{11}$ of an ell Paris meaſure: ſo that 13 barras of Valentia make 10 ells of Paris, or 12 yards, and $\frac{6}{7}$ Engliſh meaſure.

The barra of Caſtile contains 2 feet 7 inches $\frac{2}{11}$, and ſomething more, which anſwer to $\frac{5}{7}$ of the ell of Paris; ſo that 7 barras of Caſtile make 5 ells of Paris, or 6 yards and $\frac{3}{7}$ Engliſh meaſure.

The barra of Arragon differs but a few lines from thoſe of Valentia and Caſtile: ſo that 3 barras of Arragon make 2 ells of Paris, or 2 yards and $\frac{4}{7}$ Engliſh meaſure.

The reduction of theſe the one into the other is performed by the common rule of proportion.

BARRACAN, which the French alſo call BOURACAN, a ſort of ſtuff, not diapered, which is a kind of camblet, of a coarſer grain than the common. It is uſed to make cloaks, ſur-touts, and ſuch other garments, to keep off the rain.

Barracans are wove on a loom with two treddles, with the ſhuttle, like camblets and linnen cloths. The thread of the woof is ſingle, twiſted, and ſpun very fine, and that of the warp is double or triple; that is to ſay, it is compoſed of two or three threads, well twiſted together. The moſt common material uſed in the manufacture of theſe ſtuffs, is wool; ſometimes they mix it with hemp.

There are ſome barracans the wool of which is dyed before it is worked upon the loom. Theſe are called barracans dyed in the wool. Others are manufactured white, and afterwards dyed black, red, blue, brown, &c. Theſe are named barracans dyed in the piece, becauſe they were not dyed till the pieces were taken from the loom.

They do not full barracans; they only boil them two or three times after they are taken from the loom, to prevent their fraying. Afterwards they put them into the calender, to make them ſmooth: and, finally, they make them up into a kind of flattened roll, ſewed at both ends with ſmall pack-thread. Theſe rolls they call pieces of barracan.

The good qualities of a barracan are, that it be very ſmooth, of a round grain, and ſo cloſe, that water may run off from it without ſoaking through it.

The cities where the moſt barracans are made in France are, Valenciennes, Liſle, Abbeville, Amiens, and Roan. Thoſe of Valenciennes are the moſt valued; they are all of wool, both the warp and the woof. Their breadth is commonly $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, and the piece meaſures 23 ells Paris meaſure.

Thoſe of Liſle are alſo intirely of wool, and of the ſame length and breadth with thoſe of Valenciennes, but of an inferior quality.

Thoſe of Abbeville are pretty much like thoſe of Valenciennes, both with regard to the materials they are made of, and with regard to their length and breadth; whence they are called barracans, after the manner of Valenciennes, though they be neither ſo fine nor ſo good.

Thoſe that are manufactured at Amiens are alſo intirely of wool; but there are two ſorts of them, with regard to their length and breadth. Thoſe that are called narrow barracans are but $\frac{1}{2}$ an ell broad, and 21 ells long: they bear ſome reſemblance to the coarſe camblets, whence they are ſometimes called camblets with twiſted threads, or camblets with a coarſe grain.

The other are called broad barracans, being $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell in breadth, and the piece meaſures 23 ells. Moſt of the barracans of Amiens are manufactured with white wool, and afterwards dyed of ſeveral colours. Thoſe of half an ell are commonly cleaned in water with the feet, before they are boiled and dyed.

The barracans of the manufactory of Roan are the worſt of all. There are two ſorts of them; ſome intirely of wool, and of the other the warp is of hemp, and the woof of wool; the breadth of both is two-thirds of an ell, and their length 23 ells, Paris meaſure.

BARRACANS dyed in the wool, are thoſe barracans the wool of which was dyed before it was put upon the loom.

BARRACANS dyed in the piece, are thoſe that are not dyed till they be taken from the loom.

A roll of BARRACAN is a piece of barracan intirely finiſhed, rolled up, and ſewed at both ends of the roll.

BARRAGE, a ſort of worked linnen, manufactured at Caen, and in the neighbourhood of that capital city of Lower Normandy. There is the fine barrage, the common barrage, and the ſmall barrage.

BARRAGE is alſo a duty, or toll, paid in France for the repairing of bridges, paſſages, and particularly the pavement of roads. That duty is thus called becauſe of the bars, gates, or turnpikes, which ſhut up the roads at the entrance of towns, or at other places, where ſuch tolls are to be paid. It is ſeldom paid but by carriers, for their waggons, carts, or pack-horſes. There are, however, ſome places where all

carriages in general, and even foot paſſengers, are obliged to pay toll. It is not the ſame every-where, the toll being more or leſs according to the places. The coachmen and waggoners who carry perſons, baggage, or merchandizes, do generally undertake to pay thoſe tolls, without demanding any thing more for it.

BARRIERS, or BARRIERES. Thus they call, in the chief cities of France, and particularly at Paris, the places where the cuſtom-houſes are eſtabliſhed, and where the officers receive the duties of importations, according to the tariffs ſettled by the king's council. They are called barriers, becauſe the paſſages through which the carriages and merchandizes liable to pay duties are to paſs, are ſhut up with a wooden bar, which turns upon a hinge, and is opened or ſhut according to the will of the cuſtom-houſe officer.

There are at Paris 60 of thoſe barriers, all placed at the entrance of the ſuburbs. At 22 of theſe barriers, beſides the receivers of the barrage, or toll, there are cuſtom-houſe officers, who examine the bills, or letters of carriage, receive the chief duties, and take care of the intereſt of the king's general farmers (the taxes and duties in France being generally farmed out). The other barriers are only, as it were, for eaſe and conveniency, that the former may be more free; for otherwiſe they would always be crouded, if they alone were open for admitting into that capital of the kingdom the almoſt infinite number of traders, carriages, and merchandizes, which are inceſſantly arriving thither.

At thoſe 60 barriers all carriages and perſons who bring proviſions, are to ſtop, to be viſited, and to pay duties, according to the tariffs. The cuſtom-houſe officers have even the liberty to examine all coaches, berlins, and chaiſes, eſpecially thoſe of private perſons, in order to ſee whether they have any contraband goods, or any proviſions liable to pay duty. They alſo examine portmanteaus, cloak-bags, and trunks, of which the owners are obliged to deliver them the keys; and they ſtop and ſeize every thing that was not declared; which, according to the ordonnances, is forfeited, together with the carriages on which they happen to be loaded, and all the other proviſions, wearing apparel, and merchandizes, with which they were mixed.

For the better adminiſtration of all the barriers where there are cuſtom-houſe officers, there is an ambulatory or walking officer, who goes continually from one office to another, and examines and comptrols the regiſters of the other officers, of which he afterwards gives an account at the office of the general farm.

As there are ſeveral goods that might be run, as wine, brandy, printed linnen, and other things, which are either contraband, or liable to pay duty, and which might be hid in carts or waggons, that bring hay or ſtraw, or in ſuch as are loaded with bales of cotton, wool, flax, or other ſuch merchandizes that are ſoft and bulky, the officers keep, at the door of their office, iron inſtruments, with a wooden handle, which they call tucks (ſondes) and with which they probe all ſuch goods in which they ſuſpect that ſome other merchandizes may be hid, which people have a mind to run.

It is at thoſe barriers that are paid the duties of importation, or entry, for wine, cattle, hay, wood, timber, coals, fruit, meat ready cut up, and almoſt all proviſions deſigned for the uſe of the city of Paris.

Remarks.

As it is of very great importance for all carriers, who arrive at that great motropolis, as alſo for all citizens and merchants who own, or to whom are directed, the merchandizes that are brought thither, to know through what barrier they are to enter, that they may ſend their clerks, or ſervants, in order to receive, and pay the duties for them. Mr. Savary has inſerted in this place a liſt of all thoſe barriers: but, this being of no manner of uſe to an Engliſh reader, we thought proper to omit it.

Of that great number of barriers there are but a few through which the merchants and carriers may enter wine, and other liquors, as alſo cattle. The ordonnance of aids, made in the year 1680, appoints but 23 barriers, and declares all the others to be falſe, or unlawful paſſages, for thoſe ſorts of merchandizes, giving leave for all other goods to paſs through ſuch offices, gates, and barriers, as the carriers or drivers ſhall think proper.

That liberty of paſſage for all merchandizes and proviſions coming to Paris was continued till the year 1723, when his majeſty, being informed that thoſe who brought to Paris and the ſuburbs ſuch merchandizes and proviſions as were liable to pay duty and toll, made an ill uſe of that liberty, and went out of the high roads and common ways, in order to paſs, ſeveral together in company, through thoſe barriers where there is no cuſtom-houſe office, in order to ſave the duties; the king, to remedy a diſorder ſo detrimental to the farmers of his revenue, did, by a decree of his council, authoriſed by his letters patents, dated January 28, 1723, and regiſtered in parliament the 12th of February following, direct through what barriers the merchandizes and proviſions, liable to pay duty and toll, were to paſs for the future. By the ſame decree all officers of the gates and barriers are forbidden to open them at unſeaſonable hours, and to wink at the ſaid merchandizes either by day or by night, under the penalty of anſwering for the damages and intereſt, of paying a fine of 500 livres, and being declared incapable of holding any office, and even ſuffering corporal puniſhment, if the caſe required it.

BARTER, ſignifies the exchanging of one commodity for another, or the trucking wares for wares, among merchants.—So it is mentioned in the ſtatute 1 Ric. III. cap. 9. And thus bartering was the original and natural way of commerce, precedent to buying; there being no buying till money was invented, though in exchanging both parties are buyers and ſellers.

Remarks.

Let us ſuppoſe the butchers in their ſtalls at market, on one ſide, and the cuſtomers, or buyers, on the other; the price of the meat will be determined, and a pound of beef ſhall be to the price of ſilver, as all the beef at market to all the ſilver (if ſilver be made uſe of as money) that is intended to buy it.

This proportion is come at by bargaining; the ſeller keeps up his price, according as he conceives there is a demand; the buyer ſtands out, according as he judges there is plenty of beef. And this altercation continues till either of them comes to the other's terms, and ſo determines the price. Theſe altercations are, at firſt, carried on at an uncertainty, but gradually the quantity of the commodities, and of the money there is to buy them, comes pretty nearly to an equilibrium, and the prices of the things are determined.

If ſeveral maîtres d'hôtel at Paris have limited orders to buy green peaſe, and 10 meaſures of peaſe are limited by the ſaid orders to 60 livres the meaſure, 10 to 50 livres, 10 to 40, and 10 to 30. On this ſuppoſition, the money corre-ſponds to 40 meaſures of green peaſe; but, if there be but 20 meaſures at market, the ſellers, ſeeing a great demand in proportion to the quantity of peaſe, will keep up the price. The altercations will begin by the maîtres d'hôtel, limited to 60 livres; and, when they are ſupplied, the 10 meaſures there limited to 50 livres will be ſupplied, and the price of the peaſe will fall to 50 livres, and the maîtres d' hôtel, who are limited to 40 and 30, will go without peaſe; but, if 20 meaſures more are brought to market, thoſe laſt will be alſo ſupplied, and the price of peaſe will fall to 30 livres the meaſure.

But if, inſtead of 20 meaſures, 200 meaſures are brought to market, the price of green peaſe will fall conſiderably; and this fall of the price will be proportionable to the quantity of peaſe, with regard to the quantity of money intended to be laid out; and it may ſo happen in the altercations, that the 200 meaſures ſhall ſell for no more money than 20 meaſures would have ſold for. And, when the green peaſe fall ſo low as to anſwer the price of ſeveral others beſides the maîtres d' hotel we have mentioned, there will probably be buyers enough.

Let us ſuppoſe another example:—That in a market-town containing 500 inhabitants, the bakers expoſe to ſale 1000 pounds weight of bread, for the buying of which the ſaid inhabitants intend 10 ounces of ſilver, at 100 d. per ounce. —According to this ſuppoſition, the 500 inhabitants will have two pounds of bread each, at 1 d. per pound.

Now, if a detachment of 500 ſoldiers come to this town at the beginning of the market, and determine to buy bread, the bakers, ſeeing this increaſe of the demand, will raiſe the price of their bread. The inhabitants, who uſed to buy the bread at 1 d. per pound, and who know there is corn enough to make more, will buy no more than what is abſolutely neceſſary, and they will be contented with roots, flour, or any thing they can meet with. But, if the ſoldiers muſt have bread, and the price of it comes out at three half-pence per pound in the altercations, and they buy 750 pounds of it, at 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound each, there will remain 250 pounds for the inhabitants; and, if they ſtill refuſe to give more than a penny a pound for it, the bakers will, at the cloſe of the market, let them have it at that price, or elſe this 250 pounds of bread will remain unſold; and, perhaps, the next day, when the ſoldiers are gone, or when a greater quantity of bread is made it will fall to a penny a pound.

It often happens that the ſellers, in keeping up the price, miſs the opportunity of ſelling. And it alſo happens that they may ſell higher another day. All that depends on the plenty or ſcarcity of money, or of the buyers, and of the plenty or ſcarcity of the commodity, and the knowlege which the buyers or ſellers have of it. Though moſt of the undertakers buy and ſell at an uncertainty, yet the altercations readily find out the proportion of equilibrium. And it commonly happens in commodities whereof the conſumption is conſtant and uniform, as bread, that the magiſtrate is able to fix and determine the price for it, when there is no ſudden plenty or ſcarcity of the ſaid commodity, or of money.

I have dwelt upon this example, in order to make the reaſons of the variations of the prices of the things at market more feeling and ſenſible. The plenty or ſcarcity of commodities, or of money, in every place, cauſe thoſe variations immediately; and the mediate or remote cauſes of them

are fancy, or fashion of living of the prince, and the landholders, &c.

Further considerations upon BARTER.

If the money which carries on the barter of a city (which, at present, we will consider as if there was no other in the world) be 100,000 ounces of silver, that is to say, if all the proportions of the values of all goods and commodities in the said city, be measured by the 100,000 ounces; or, what still comes to the same thing, if these 100,000 ounces pass for pledges, and keep the accounts of the pretensions of all barters in the said city. And if, in these circumstances, the said city receives 100,000 ounces more, so distributed that every one who has had an ounce of silver, has now two ounces, and that the quantity of money in circulation becomes 200,000 ounces of silver; this city, considered in itself, is not in any respect richer or happier than before: it will only happen that all goods and commodities will grow twice as dear as they were.—Though this consequence seems mighty plain, yet I shall endeavour to set it in a clearer light under the article MONEY, when I come to consider particularly the effects of the increase and decrease of the real quantity of money in a state.

When Augustus returned to Rome, after the defeat of Mark Anthony and Cleopatra, he brought with him so great a quantity of money, that all goods and commodities sold immediately for double the value they sold for before, as Dion Cassius tells us. If all the money he brought to Rome had been laid up in the treasury, it would not have had this effect; for it would have entered but slowly into circulation and barter: but he distributed it among his soldiers, whom he was not able to pay after the battle of Actium, by which means it came quickly into circulation.

It is true that the 200,000 ounces of silver are intrinsically worth double the value of 100,000 ounces: that it will make double the quantity of plate, and that it corresponds to double the quantity of land and labour; but, if 200,000 ounces are applied precisely to circulate and barter, instead of 100,000 ounces, they will produce no real advantage or disadvantage to the city in question, considered in itself: whether one ounce of silver, or two ounces, be given in pledge, or barter for any commodity, a small price, or a large one, it is all one.

But, if we compute the circulation of one city with another, or of one nation with another, it will appear hereafter that those nations which have most money in circulation, and, consequently, where commodities are dearest, have a great advantage over these which have less money, and where commodities are cheapest, all other circumstances being equal; and that the principal advantage of foreign commerce consists in bringing home a yearly ballance of trade. See MONEY, and its circulation; SILVER, and its value; and BALLANCE of trade.

BARUTH, an Indian measure, containing 17 gantans, which amount to between 54 and 58 pounds of pepper, avoirdupoise English weight. At that rate a gantan ought to weigh about 3 pounds and a half of pepper.

BARUTINE SILKS, are those which come from Persia by the way of Seyde, or Said. They are weighed by the damasquin, which contains about 600 drachms, or very near 4 pounds avoirdupoise.

BASALTES, a kind of black marble, or very hard touchstone, which resists the file. It is heavy, smooth, soft to the touch, and takes a very fine polish, of an iron colour. It is to be found in Ethiopia, and in several places of Germany. It is used, like other touch stones, for trying gold and silver.

BASARUCO, a small coin of the East-Indies, very base, being made only of very bad tin. There are two sorts of this coin; the one called good, the other bad. The latter is one sixth part in value lower than the former. Three basarucos make two rees of Portugal, and 375 make a pardao-xerafin, which is to be understood of the good basarucos; the bad ones must be increased by a sixth part proportionably.

BASIL, one of the cantons in Switzerland, is bounded on the south by the canton of Solothurn; on the east by the Frischgaw, which belongs to the empire; and by the territory of Rhinfelden, one of the forest towns; on the west it is bounded with Alsace; and, on the north, it advances on the territories of Germany, beyond the Rhine, and is bounded by the Brisgaw. It is a rich and fruitful country in all necessaries for life, and produces even for exportation excellent corn and wine, especially about the city of Basil. Their revenues arise chiefly from secularized abbies, from their bailiwicks, and from imposts on goods carried through their country, to and from France, Italy, and Germany.

The government of the city of BASIL is in the hands of the trading companies. Though this city has admitted a great many French refugees, who have set up manufactures here, yet several parts both of the city and suburbs are still empty. This Dr. Burnet imputes to the maxims of this city, one whereof is, the advantages of the burghership, which are so great, that citizens will not admit strangers to a share of them. Here are 31 mills, whereof 21 are for grinding corn, and 6 for making paper; of which the ordinary sort is said to have been first made here by Andrew and Michael Galician.

LIECHSTAL, lying in the main road from France and Italy, to Germany, has always company.

BASON, a sale by the bason. Thus they call at Amsterdam the public sales made by authority, and over which presides an officer appointed by the magistrates, who is stiled vendumeester, that is to say, master of the sale. Such a sale is called a sale by the bason, because, before the lots are delivered to the highest bidder, they commonly strike on a copper bason, to give notice that the lot is going to be adjudged.

BASTION of France, a settlement of the French on the coast of Barbary, near the place where coral is fished up. They also drive there a considerable trade in leather, wax, and corn. The coral-fishers, or, as Willughby calls them, urinators, come, a little before the season begins, to the Bastion of France, without either tackle or tools, without vessels, and without money. The first thing they do is to separate into crews. The crew of a coral fishing boat may consist of seven, but it is generally composed of eight. The patron, or master of the boat, the man that throws the cross, and six seamen that manage the boat, and assist in dragging the machine aboard.

Upon applying to the company, they are furnished with a proper vessel, which the French stile satteau, that is, a long sharp boat, with very large sails, so that they go at a great rate, and are not easily taken. They are likewise furnished with all kinds of tackle and provisions upon credit. Then they enter into articles for the price of the coral, which is generally fixed at a French crown a pound, or thereabouts. They likewise engage to sell all that they take at that rate, upon pain of corporal punishment, if they are detected in a clandestine commerce.

Thus equipped, they proceed to sea; but they are not obliged to deliver their coral till the season is over. Then each boat's crew brings their stock on shore, where it is divided into 13 equal parts; of which the master of the vessel has four; he that manages the machine two; and each of the crew one; the thirteenth part belongs to the company, and goes in discharge of the equipment. In a good season a boat will bring 25,100 weight of coral, from whence the reader may judge of the profit which attends this fishery; and, if he desires to be informed of the total value, it is enough to say, that, in a very flourishing season, there are 200 of these vessels employed. The business of coral-fishing is both laborious and dangerous; it requires great skill and dexterity to heave the cross, and no small labour and diligence to get it on board again, besides the great risque they run from storms and accidents in their fishing, and pirates; all which, taken together, keep the coral-fishers so poor, that the company never want servants.

BATE, or BATZ, a small copper coin, mixed with a little silver, which is current in several cities in Germany, particularly at Nuremberg. It is worth four creutzers, at the rate of four French deniers, or eight phenings, per creutzer.

BATZ. This is also a coin of Switzerland. It is of copper, mixed with some silver. This coin is current at different rates, according to the greater or smaller quantity of alloy it has. At Zurich the rixdollar is about 5 livres, or 100 sols, French money, and is worth 28 batz $\frac{1}{2}$, which are higher than the batz of Switzerland (thus those of Berne, Lucerne, and Friburgh are called) so that a batz of Zurich is worth about 3 sols and $\frac{1}{2}$ French money.

The batz of Basil, Schafhouse, of Constance, and St. Gall, are the best of all; and those of Berne, Lucerne, and Friburgh, the worst. They give but 9 of the former for 10 of the latter. They give but 27 batz of the first for the rixdollar or crown, and 30 of the other, which make them be called short batz.

The good batz are worth 10 rapes at Basil; the bad, or short batz, are worth one rape less than the other.

BAVARIA, one of the circles of the German empire, is bounded on the east by Austria and Bohemia; on the south by Carinthia and Tirol; on the west by Swabia and Franconia; and it lessens almost to a point towards Upper Saxony, on the north. In this country are many mountains, in which are mines of copper, and some silver, as also quarries of marble. Here are likewise salt-works, and baths.

This circle is divided into the three capital provinces of it, viz. 1. The electorate, divided into Upper and Lower Bavaria. 2. The Upper Palatinate, so called to distinguish it from the Lower, or the Palatinate of the Rhine. 3. The archbishopric of Saltzburg.

Describing this circle from north to south, we begin with the Palatinate.

The chief riches of the UPPER PALATINATE proceed from the mines of silver, copper, and iron; and they export great quantities of the latter to the neighbouring countries.

AMBERG has great privileges, which were granted to it by the emperor Robert, and lies conveniently for traffic, being almost in the center, betwixt Ratisbon, Ingolstat, and Nuremberg. Its greatest trade is from the iron-mines, and the manufactures thereof, which are sent down the Nabe to Ratisbon, and other cities.

The chief commodity of the territory of NEWMARK, is iron, and their rivers are covered with iron mills. Allerſberg, on the weſt ſide of this diſtrict, is ſaid to be a trading town; and Hollenſtern, on the confines of the biſhopric of Aichſtat, is famous for iron mines in its neighbourhood.

The duchy of BAVARIA, properly ſo called, conſiſts of the Upper and the Lower. The former lies under the Alps, and is cold and barren, having but little corn, and no wine; the latter is on the Danube, and is fruitful and pleaſant.

The revenues of the elector, ſaid to amount to 7,000,000 of florins, ariſes chiefly from his monopolizing the three principal commodities of his country, viz. ſalt, corn, and ſtrong, or white beer; which is ſo famed, that it is exported to other countries. The people of Tirol and Saltzburg have almoſt all the corn they ſpend from Bavaria; and the elector has a penny for every ſack that is exported. Their beer alone, ſaid to be as good as any in the world, has been computed to bring him in between 80 and 100,000 florins per ann. Thoſe three commodities, beſides the tobacco trade, which he alſo engroſſes to himſelf, with ſeveral other things, are only allowed to be ſold by his agents and ſervants. Theſe, with his own domain, and the tolls on all the veſſels that go up and down the Danube, and other navigable rivers, of which there are ſeveral in this country, bring in a yearly revenue of above half a million ſterling. A modern German writer makes it amount to between 8 and 900,000 l. and ſays the laſt elector but one, viz. Maximilian, had ſome years above a million. Mean while, the ſubject is ſo miſerably impoveriſhed by theſe monopolies of trade, that the peaſants chief ſubſiſtence is from the great herds of ſwine fed in their woods by acorns and crabs. The fir-trees of this country are a treaſure to it, ſince the timber ſerves for every purpoſe that can be imagined, whether for building or houſhold-ſtuff; and there is not a province in the empire where proviſions are cheaper, though there is a vaſt home conſumption, the Bavarians being very fond of good eating and drinking.

RATISBON has a great trade by the Danube, the Nabe, and the Regen, which join near the city.

STRAUBING, is a town of good trade.

PASSAW, is a rich, populous and trading city.

The duchy of NEWBURG is famous for it's wine; and at the town there is a good trade therein, which is ſold weekly in the markets; and the duke has a good revenue ariſing therefrom.

At MUNICH, moſt of the mechanics are glaſiers and ſilk-weavers. Great quantities of ſalt, wine, &c. are ſold at their two annual fairs, viz. St. James's-tide, and the week after Twelfth-tide.

At OBERNSBERG is a cuſtom-houſe, where toll is demanded for all veſſels that paſs the river Inn, on which it ſtands.

The archbiſhopric of SALTZBURG is dry, rocky, and barren, except in ſome vallies, yet abounds with ſalt, mines of copper, iron, and ſome ſilver, with excellent quarries, from ſome of which is dug a ſtone, little inferior to jaſper. The revenues of the archbiſhop amount to near 80,000 crowns. The very ſalt which is carried into Bavaria and Swabia brings him in 30,000 crowns per annum.

BERCHTOLSGADEN furniſhes it's neighbourhood with ſtore of ſalt.

The ſalt of HALLEIN is carried in great quantities through Bavaria, and a corner of Tirol, into Switzerland, where it is paid for in French money, which is one reaſon that there is ſcarce any coin current in Bavaria, but that of France. There is a great high mountain on the weſt ſide of the town, the earth of which being mixed with a ſort of allum, or ſaltpetre, they throw it into larger trenches, which they fill with freſh water, and let it ſtand three or four weeks, till the earthy part is ſunk to the bottom; then they let out and boil the ſaline part in iron pans, three feet deep, and ten or twelve in diameter; and, when the water is evaporated from the ſalt, which it leaves at the bottom, they take it up and put it to dry and harden, in ſome deal caſks, without any head or bottom.

LAUFFEN has a good trade between Saltzburg and Titmoning.

BAY, one of the colours of the hair of horſes, inclining to red, and coming pretty near the colour of a cheſnut. There are, if we may ſay ſo, five different ſhades, or gradations, of the bay colour; viz. the cheſnut-bay, the light-bay, the yellow-bay, or dun-bay, the bloody-bay, which is alſo called ſcarlet bay, and the brown-bay.

BAYS, called in French BAYETTE, and ſometimes BAGUETTE, a ſort of open woolen ſtuff, having a long nap, ſometimes frized, and ſometimes not. This ſtuff is without wale, and is wrought on a loom, with two treddles, like flannel. It is chiefly manufactured at Colcheſter and Bocking in Eſſex, in England, where there is a hall, called the Dutch Bay-Hall, or Raw-Hall. By the ſtatute 12 Car. II. cap. 22. no perſon ſhall weave at Colcheſter any bay, known by the names of four-and-fifties, ſixty-eighths, eighties, or hundred bays, but, within two days after weaving any ſuch, ſhall carry it to the Dutch Bay-Hall, to be viewed and examined, that it may appear whether it be well and ſubſtantially wrought, before it be carried to be ſcoured and thickened. No ſcourer or thickener ſhall receive any ſuch bay, before it has been marked or ſtamped at the ſaid hall. This manufacture, which is very conſiderable, was firſt introduced into England with that of ſays, ſerges, &c. by the Flemings; who, being perſecuted by the duke of Alva for the ſake of their religion, fled hither, about the fifth year of queen Elizabeth's reign. See ESSEX.

REMARKS.

The exportation of bays was formerly much more conſiderable than it is at preſent, the Engliſh then furniſhing the French and Italians with thoſe ſtuffs: but, of late years, the French have attempted to imitate them, and have admirably well ſucceeded, particularly at Beauvais, Caſtres, Montpelier, and Niſmes. They alſo manufacture vaſt quantities of bays in Flanders, and eſpecially at Tournay, Liſle, and Neuff-Egliſes. The people of that country call them baiques. However, the export of Engliſh bays is ſtill very conſiderable to Spain and Portugal, where they are called baetas, and even Italy. Their chief uſe is for dreſſing the monks and nuns, and for linings, eſpecially in the army. The looking-glaſs-makers alſo uſe them behind their glaſſes, to preſerve the tin, or quickſilver, and the caſe-makers to line their caſes.

The breadth of bays is commonly a yard and a half, a yard and three quarters, or two yards, by 42 to 48 in length. Thoſe of a yard and three-quarters are moſt proper for the Spaniſh trade.

They make at Alby in Languedoc, and in the neighbourhood of that city, a kind of woolen ſtuffs, which they call bayette, or bays, and which are exceeding cheap. They are but two ſpans and a half broad, of that country's meaſure, which anſwer to half an ell, wanting a ſixteenth, Paris meaſure, about half a yard Engliſh. That breadth was thus regulated by a decree of the council, dated July the 15th, 1673, notwithſtanding the 30th article of the general regulations of the manufactures, made in Auguſt 1669, which orders that no weavers of cloths or ſerges, nor any other perſon, ſhall make any ſtuff, of how ſmall a price ſoever they be, leſs than half an ell broad Paris meaſure.

Bays pay duties of exportation out of the kingdom of France, and the provinces reputed foreign, at the rate of three livres per 100 weight. The Engliſh bays pay duties of importation at the rate of 20 livers per piece of 25 French ells, and 60 livers per piece of 50 ells, according to the decree of the 20th of December 1687; nor can they be imported but by the ports of Calais and St Valery.

The bays of Flanders, and others of the ſame ſort, pay but 4 livers per piece of 20 ells, according to the tariff of 1664.

BAZAR, BAZARI, or BAZAARD. A place deſigned for trade among the eaſtern nations, and particularly the Perſians. Some are open or uncovered, like the market-places in Europe, and ſerve for the ſame purpoſes, but only to ſell the leſs precious and moſt bulky merchandizes. Others are covered with high vaulted cielings, and adorned with domes to give them light. In theſe are the ſhops of thoſe merchants who ſell jewels, rich ſtuffs, wrought plate, and ſuch other merchandizes.

Sometimes they ſell even ſlaves in thoſe covered bazars, though that unhuman trade be alſo carried on in the open bazars. Furetiere obſerves, that it is an Arabic word, which ſignifies a ſale or exchange of merchandizes; whence it is ſaid, by extenſion, of the places where the trade is carried on.

That word is in uſe among all the nations of the Eaſt-Indies, as well as among thoſe of the Levant. It ſignifies in all thoſe countries a common or public place, where the market is kept, both for the ſale of proviſions, and of other merchandizes. The place is ſo called, whether it be a market, or a pretty broad ſtreet, whether it be covered or not. Malaca was anciently the general bazar, or ſtaple-town for all the trade of the Indies; that is to ſay, before the Portugueſe undertook to ſail to thoſe countries.

The bazar, or maidan of Iſaphan, is one of the fineſt places in all Perſia, and even excels all thoſe that are to be ſeen in Europe; but, notwithſtanding it's great magnificence, it muſt be confeſſed, that the bazar of Tauris is the moſt ſpacious ſquare that we know of. They have ſeveral times drawn up 3000 men in order of battle, in that ſquare: it contains above 15,000 ſhops, and is reckoned, without diſpute, the moſt magnificent in Perſia. At Tauris they call the jewel-market raiſerie, that is to ſay, the royal market.

BAZAT, or BAZA. The baza cotton comes from Seyde, Said, or Sidon, by the way of Marſeilles. They diſtinguiſh three ſorts of it; namely, the baza of the firſt ſort, the common baza, and the middling baza. The firſt ſort and the middling are often ſold in France for 99 livres and 4 ſols, and the middling only 73 livers and 12 ſols.

BAZGENDGE, a kind of gall-nut, which the Turks uſe to make the ſcarlet colour.

BDELLIUM, BONDELEON, or BEDELIUM, a kind of gum.

That name is very well known among the learned, though they do not agree about it's ſignification. It is mentioned in the holy ſcripture (Gen. ii. 12.) and Joſephus, who pretends

to explain what it is, aſſerts, that it is the gum of a tree, which reſembles the olive-tree, and whoſe leaves are like thoſe of the oak; and that the manna, with which God fed his people during ſo many years in the deſert, was very much like that drug. Yet there are a great many learned men who do not admit that explication; and Scaliger, who is followed herein by ſeveral others, owns, that it is not well known what the bdellium mentioned in the ſcripture is.

The bdellium ſold by the grocers and druggiſts is not much better known than that of the ancients.

Some ſay that it runs from a thorny tree, whoſe leaves reſemble thoſe of the oak, and whoſe fruit is like that of the wild-fig-tree, but yet of a pretty good taſte. Some pretend, that the tree from which the bdellium comes, is like the myrtle-tree. Others ſuppoſe that thoſe trees grow in Bactriana: others again in Arabia Felix, near a city named Saraca: ſome ſay it grows in Africa, near the banks of the river Senega; and others place it in the Eaſt-Indies.

However that be, this gum comes by the way of Marſeilles, or by the ſhips of the French African company. That which comes by the way of Marſeilles, is, according to ſkilful judges, nothing but the gum called alouchi, and they pretend that the true bdellium is that of Senega.

It muſt be choſen in clear tranſparent bits, of a reddiſh grey on the outſide, and within of the ſame colour with the Engliſh glue, and it ought to become yellow, when you wet it with the tip of your tongue. This gum is uſed in the compoſition of mithridate, and ſome other compounds. Authors being ſo much divided in their opinions about this matter, 'tis endleſs and needleſs to quote all their ſentiments: thoſe who would gratify a curioſity, attended only with great uncertainty, may conſult Dioſcorides, Galen, Dale, Pomet.

By the tariff of 1664, the bdellion pays in France duty of importation 4 livres per 100 weight: but, by the decree of the 15th of Auguſt 1685, it pays 20 per cent. of it's value when it comes from the Levant, Barbary, and other lands or territories within the dominions of the Grand Seignior, of the king of Perſia, or of Italy.

BEAM, a large piece of timber uſed in building, which, being laid acroſs the walls, ſerves to ſupport the principal rafters of the roof. The proportions of beams, in the neighbourhood of London, have been ſettled by ſtatute, as follow: a beam 15 feet long ought to be ſeven inches in breadth on one ſide of it's ſquare, and five on the other: one of 16 feet in length muſt be on one ſide eight inches broad, and ſix on the other; one of ſeventeen feet in length muſt be on one ſide eight inches broad, and ſix on the other: one of ſeventeen feet muſt be ten inches on one ſide, and ſix on the other: but they make them ſtronger in the country.

BEAMS of a ſhip, are the large main croſs timbers, which prevent the ſides of a ſhip from falling together, and which alſo ſupport the decks and orlops: the main beam is next the main-maſt, and from it they are reckoned by the firſt, ſecond, and third beam. The greateſt beam of all is called the mid-ſhip beam.

BEAN, a pulſe of the large ſort, commonly cultivated in the fields. People of faſhion ſeldom eat them, but green; but, in ſeveral places, the country people dry them to eat them in the winter; they alſo often feed cattle with them: the meal of beans is uſed in phyſic, being preſcribed both to be taken inwardly, and in the compoſition of ſome cataplaſms. And perfumers alſo uſe it to make powder for the hair.

Beans pay duty of importation in France, like other ſorts of pulſe.

This plant, which is a kind of the xth claſs of Monſ. Tournefort, has a papilionaceous flower, which is ſucceeded by a long pod filled with large kidney-ſhaped ſeeds; the ſtalks are firm and hollow; the leaves grow by pairs, and are faſtened to a mid-rib. Monſ. Tournefort obſerves, that there are eight ſorts of theſe beans known, which are diſtinguiſhed by the difference of their flowers and fruit.

Mr. Miller obſerves, that there are four ſorts of beans cultivated in England, which are the ſmall Liſbon, the Spaniſh, the Sandwich, and the Windſor. The firſt and ſecond ſorts are uſually planted in October and November, under warm walls or hedges, to have them early; which if they abide through the winter, they will produce beans early in the ſpring: or they may be planted cloſe in beds, in ſome piece of ground that is well defended from the north and eaſt winds; and, being arched over with hoops or withies, may be covered in very hard froſts with mats and ſtraw; and, in the ſpring, theſe plants may be tranſplanted into warm borders, by which means your crop will be ſecured from the injuries of froſt; and, if care be taken in tranſplanting them, not to break their roots, and alſo to water them, if the ſeaſon proves dry, until they have taken freſh root, they will bear as plentiful a crop, as thoſe which remained where they were at firſt planted, with this difference, that they will be a fortnight later. The Liſbon bean is chiefly preferred to the Spaniſh, and the beſt way is to procure freſh ſeeds from abroad, at leaſt every other year; for in England they are ſubject to degenerate, not in goodneſs, but only in earlineſs.

The Sandwich and Windſor beans are ſeldom planted before Chriſtmas, but eſpecially the Windſor, which is moſt ſubject to be hurt by cold, of any of thoſe kinds. Theſe beans ſhould have an open expoſure, and require to be planted at a greater diſtance than the two early kinds: for, if they are planted in ſhady places, or too cloſe, they will grow to a great height; but ſeldom produce many beans. The uſual diſtance for theſe (if in an open ſituation) is two feet and a half, row by row, and four inches in the rows. But, if the place is cloſely ſurrounded by hedges, walls, or tall trees, the diſtance muſt be greater; the rows ſhould then be three feet apart, and the beans ſix inches diſtant in the rows.

The Sandwich beans, being hardier than the Windſor, are uſually planted about Chriſtmas, to ſucceed the forward corps; and thoſe, although at preſent in little requeſt, are yet very ſerviceable, being plentiful bearers, and very little inferior either in ſize or goodneſs to the Windſor.

In the middle of January, if the weather is open and good, you may plant the firſt crop of Windſor beans, which will ſucceed the Sandwich, and every three or four weeks make a new plantation, till the middle of May, in order to preſerve a ſucceſſion through the ſeaſon. Indeed, there are ſome people, who plant beans even in June; but unleſs the ſoil be very ſtrong and moiſt, or the ſeaſon prove wet or cold, they ſeldom ſucceed well; for in hot and dry weather, which commonly happens in July, the inſects infeſt theſe plants very much, and often deſtroy them quite. There are others who adviſe the cutting down of beans, in order to cauſe them to produce freſh ſhoots from the bottom for a late crop; but this ſeldom anſwers the trouble, for they are liable to the above-mentioned inconveniencies, much more than a freſh planted crop.

Beans for horſes, are ſold at Amſterdam at about 15 livres de gros per laſt. The deduction or diſcount, for prompt payment, one per cent.

Beans grow admirably well in Egypt, where there are large fields entirely covered with them. Their bloſſoms are a thouſand times more odoriferous, than thoſe of the beans in Europe. As vaſt quantities of them are planted in the lands about Cairo, towards the weſt, nothing can be more charming, than the perfumed air one breathes in an evening on the terraſſes, when the weſterly wind blows: nor is it without good reaſon, that they endeavour to have plenty of beans in that country, ſince it is the common food of the mules, aſſes, and camels, who conſume vaſt quantities of them.

In order to make them eat them, they beat them and reduce them into a coarſe meal, whereof they make balls which they afterwards give to thoſe animals. They do the ſame with the kernels of dates. This obſervation is extracted from Monſ. Maillet's Deſcription of Egypt.

The French have a ſort of beans, which they call feves de marais, i. e. beans of the marſh, which they eat only, when green and freſh. They alſo dry them, but then they ſerve only to feed cattle. However, ſome perſons make a kind of proviſion of them, to eat in Lent. They buy them green, and, peeling the white ſkin off, they ſplit them in two, and dry them in the open air. They afford a pretty good and pleaſant food.

BEAN of St Ignatius. It is a ſmall ſolid fruit, which grows upon a tree in ſome of the Philippine iſlands, and in which the Chineſe trade in thoſe places of the Eaſt-Indies, where they dwell, or which they frequent, as Malacca, the Sunda iſles, and the Moluccos: thoſe beans are alſo very much uſed in phyſic. The figure of this fruit is irregular, and it is of the bigneſs of a green almond, when ſtill wrapped up in all it's coats, or of the fruit called hermodactyl. It's outward colour is grey, or rather blackiſh, when it is well ſtripped of a little thin ſkin, the colour of which is ſometimes of a whitiſh-grey, and ſometimes reddiſh.

That ſkin, ſticking very cloſe to the fruit, cannot be taken off but by little bits, like ſcales, and, in proceſs of time, by rubbing: ſo that moſt of thoſe beans are commonly variegated with thoſe two colours, when part of their ſkin has been rubbed off.

The inſide of the fruit reſembles a brown or blackiſh jelly, but it's conſiſtency is almoſt as hard as that of horn, ſo that it is a difficult matter to break or cut it. If you grate it, which is much eaſier, in order to have it ſo as to make uſe of it, it appears whitiſh in thoſe places which the points of the grater have touched, which deceived thoſe who ſaw it of that colour. In order, therefore, to ſee it in it's natural colour, you muſt cut it in the middle with a knife, which you drive into it with a hammer or mallet. Finally, it is of a bitteriſh taſte, and weighs commonly a little above a drachm, more or leſs, according to it's bigneſs.

REMARKS.

This drug, though of excellent uſe in phyſic, is ſtill very ſcarce in Europe, for want of being ſufficiently known. This ſeems, therefore, a very proper occaſion to expatiate a little upon it's virtues, in order to give the public a more particular and diſtinct notion of them, either for uſe or for trade, than Monſ. Lemery has done in his Dictionary of drugs.

Firſt, it ought not properly to be reckoned a purging medicine, as that learned gentleman aſſerted, doubtleſs, from ſome

erroneous memoirs. It is by no means uſed for purging; and, though you ſhould uſe it for that purpoſe, it would be a difficult matter to ſucceed, though the doſe were never ſo large. One would run the danger of doing a great deal of harm, by cauſing convulſions, pains, ſweat, &c. rather than producing evacuations by ſtools. In a word, if a large doſe of it were given, it's effects would be very odd, or dangerous, according to the conſtitution of the patient. But, being given in ſmall quantities, by degrees, at ſeveral times, it will always be found a wonderful remedy, without cauſing any voiding upwards or downwards.

Secondly, It muſt be uſed as a bitter, and a rectifier of the nervous ſyſtem: becauſe it's property is to alter and rectify the tone of the nerves, either of the ſtomach, or of the conduits through which the fluids paſs, or of the glands where the filtrations are performed: by which it much better reſtores the functions of the viſcera, which happen to be put out of order by too ſedentary a life, or by too much indulging the body.

If we were better acquainted, by good obſervations, with the mechaniſm of the body, and with the effects of thoſe things which enter into it daily, and are deſigned for it's preſervation, one would more accurately chuſe thoſe which are proper for each conſtitution, and for every ſtage of life, in order the better to prevent diſeaſes, or to preſerve health, ſo as to have no occaſion for a phyſician. Finally, when the body laboured under any indiſpoſition, we ſhould be better able to chuſe what is moſt naturally proper to cure it, and not commit ſo many blunders, as are daily committed by perſons, who pretend to meddle with phyſic, often to their own detriment; or who would cure themſelves by ſome pretended family ſecrets, which ſeems, indeed, a good ſaving method, but by which they often make their diſtempers worſe than they were before, and render them ſometimes incurable. They always commit a great many errors in all their proceedings relating to phyſic. Wherefore I do not propoſe this new remedy but to all phyſicians who are capable of knowing the nature of it by obſervations, and making a proper uſe of it.

The Indians, who are ſo well acquainted with it, are apt nevertheleſs to commit many blunders in the practice of it, and in making too univerſal a uſe of it, as they alſo do of the boaati, mentioned hereafter in it's proper place. Here follow therefore the properties which the Indians aſcribe to the bean of St Ignatius, a name which the jeſuits of the Manilles have given it, becauſe of the goodneſs of thoſe qualities; the Malays call it tſiavalonga.

1. They reckon it a ſpecific remedy againſt all ſorts of poiſon, and even uſe it as an amulet. But to this I give no credit.

2. They uſe it particularly to cure the diſeaſes of the nerves, as the cramp, vapours, ſhakings, and convulſions, either taken inwardly, or in the form of an amulet. I have ſeen good effects of it in this reſpect, when taken inwardly.

3. For pains in the ſtomach and cholics, they give a little of it in cold water, which gives immediate eaſe. It's effects are excellent for thoſe ills, as I have experienced.

4. In a miſerere mei, or twiſting of the guts, they give a little of it in cold water, which often procures a voiding upwards and downwards, and by that evacuation delivers the patient from that dangerous ailment. I have not ſeen any inſtance of this.

5. They eſteem it excellent againſt bad air, and contagious or peſtilential diſtempers. In times of the plague, they take a ſmall doſe of it every day, to keep themſelves from the infection.

6. They reckon it a true ſpecific againſt fainting fits, riſings of the ſtomach, palpitations of the heart, ſwimmings of the head, and ſuffocations, in which caſes they give ſome of it with wine or arac, which ſoon cures the patient; and they prevent the return of thoſe diſtempers, by making him take the ſame remedy for ſeveral days. I have found it very good in thoſe caſes.

7. They uſe it after the ſame manner againſt the bite or ſting of venomous animals; and at the ſame time they put upon the wound ſome of that ſame drug, in the form of pap, made after their manner, by rubbing one of thoſe beans with ſome water upon a rough ſtone.

8. Being applied in powder, it is a very powerful remedy to ſtop very ſoon all ſorts of hæmorrhages or bleedings; in a bleeding of the noſe they take it like ſnuff, and it ſtops it immediately.

9. They uſe it very particularly againſt worms.

10. They employ it moſt ſucceſsfully in all ſorts of fevers, making the patient take ſome of it twice a day in a little wine. It cures by ſweating. I know it to be excellent in intermitting fevers, becauſe it cures the ſtomach.

11. It produces, according to them, very good effects in a cold upon the lungs, in a cough, the aſthma, and a ſtitch or pain in the ſide, if the patient do continually chew a little bit, or a ſmall quantity of it, and ſwallow his ſpittle; for it cuts thoſe viſcous humours which ſtop the bronchia and the windpipe. I have ſeen ſome perſons receive great benefit from it.

12. They likewiſe judge it very good for giving eaſe in nephritic pains, the gravel, the ſtrangury, and the dropſy, if it be taken every day.

13. They give it to women who have a difficult labour, thinking that it procures them an eaſy delivery.

14. It alſo cures the looſeneſs and teneſmus, being taken twice a day in water.

15. Finally, they make an oil of it by infuſion, or even by a little ebullition over the fire: that oil impregnates itſelf with all the ſtrength and virtue of the fruit. They give a few drops of this oil inwardly, in a proper liquor, for the ſame diſeaſe, and particularly for the apoplexy.

The ſame oil ſerves alſo outwardly for all ſorts of ſcabs, tetters, tumours, cramps, pains, gouty humours, ſhrunk members, &c. by anointing the diſtempered part. They uſe it for curing wounds and ulcers; and it is certain, that this remedy produces very good effects, being given in ſmall doſes, and with prudence.

The quantity they give is meaſured by the ſight only and by cuſtom, without weighing it, and is generally from 5 or 6 grains, to 8, 10, or 12. Their method of dividing this bean or fruit into very ſmall parts, or very minute particles, is by rubbing it upon a flat ſtone, of a rough ſuperficies, ſomewhat hollowed in the middle, and moiſtening it by little and little with water; which, together with what is ſeparated from the bean, forms a ſubſtance of the conſiſtency of pap or paſte, of which they take up the requiſite quantity with the point of a knife, and diſſolve it in a proper liquor to make a drink of it.

This method of thus preparing all their remedies taken from wood, or other hard ſubſtances, is very well; but remedies of this kind more minutely divided by alcohol, or alkool, by the chymiſts, produce their effect much ſooner, than when given in a coarſer manner: yet, perhaps, many remedies, which are taken in a plain manner, and ſuch as nature affords them, without the uſe of fire, produce their effects much more efficaciouſly: this ought to be enquired into very carefully, and by repeated trials.

As I have a certain quantity of theſe beans by me, and can get more by the correſpondence I have with perſons in the ſervice of the Eaſt-India company at Batavia, I propoſe to furniſh thoſe with them, who may have occaſion for them, as well as with the remedies that are made of the beans under different terms, and which I hope to acquaint the public with, which will be more convenient for uſe.

The name of bean which has been given to this fruit is very improper, ſince it is not leguminous: it grows juſt as it is brought from the Indies, without any coat or ſhell, each piece by itſelf, upon a pedicle, at the top of the ſhoots or branches of the tree that bears it: but it is of no conſequence to alter that name, which uſe has pretty well eſtabliſhed at preſent. Memoirs of Monſ. Garcin, of Neufchatel, M. D.

French beans pay duty of importation in France like other pulſe.

BEAR, a wild beaſt, too well known to require a particular deſcription in this place.

We may diſtinguiſh two ſorts of bears; the land-bears and the ſea bears, which might more properly be called ice-bears. The former commonly retire into the mountains, and the latter come over the ice of the north ſea: of theſe there are ſome of a monſtrous, and almoſt incredible, ſize, in Nova Zembla.

Bear-ſkins are a ſort of furs very much eſteemed, and there is a very large trade of them, whether they be the ſkins of young bears, or of old ones. The latter are commonly uſed to make houſings, or horſe-cloths, or in the more northern climes, for bags to keep the feet warm in the ſharpeſt cold of the winter. The ſkins of young bears ſerve to make muffs, and other ſuch things for warmth or ornament.

Beſides the great quantity of bear-ſkins which the fellmongers ſell, the druggiſts ſell alſo bears fat, or greaſe, which they commonly get from Switzerland, Savoy, and Canada.

That greaſe is a powerful remedy for the cure of the king's evil and the rheumatiſm. It is uſed with ſucceſs for curing the gout, and it is alſo employed in ſeveral Galenic compoſitions. Bear's greaſe, in order to be of a good quality, muſt be choſen newly melted, greyiſh, clammy, of a ſtrong and pretty bad ſmell, and of middling conſiſtence or thickneſs. That which is too white is adulterated, and mixed with common tallow.

BEARER of a bill, is the perſon in whoſe hands the bill is, and in favour of whom the laſt order, or endorſement, was made.

When a bill is made payable to bearer, it is underſtood to be payable to him in whoſe hands it is after it becomes due; and though, in the payment of a bill of this kind, there needs no order or transfer, yet it is good to know to whom it is paid.

BEARING, (in geography and navigation) the ſituation of one place from another, with regard to the points of the compaſs, or the angle which a line drawn through the two places makes with the meridians of each.

BEARING (in the ſea language). When a ſhip ſails towards the ſhore, ſhe is ſaid to bear in with the land.—When a ſhip that was to windward comes under another ſhip's ſtern, and ſo gives her the wind, ſhe is ſaid to bear under her lee.—If a ſhip ſails into an harbour with the wind large, or before the wind, ſhe is ſaid to bear in with the harbour, &c.

In crouding they ſay, bear up the helm, that is, let the ſhip go

go more large before the wind.—Bear up round, that is, let the ſhip go between her two ſheets, directly before the wind.

BEAST, is ſaid in general of all animals, that are not endued with reaſon.

BEAST of burden, in the commercial ſtile, is ſaid of all four-footed animals which ſerve to carry burdens and merchandizes on their backs. Thoſe that are moſt commonly uſed are elephants, dromedaries, camels, horſes, mules, aſſes, the ſheep of Mexico and Peru, and the vicnua. There are alſo ſome places on the coaſt of Africa where they uſe oxen: nay, even large dogs are ſometimes employed for that purpoſe, as may be ſeen in Flanders, and in ſome other countries.

BEAUCAIRE. A fair famous throughout all Europe, and the moſt celebrated of all thoſe that are kept in France. It was formerly kept within the city of Beaucaire in Languedoc, from whence it took it's name, and where there are ſtill to be ſeen ſeveral piazzas, or arches, which croſs the ſtreets, and under which the traders did probably expoſe their wares to ſell: but it is a long time ſince the reputation of this fair, and the concourſe of people reſorting thither increaſed to ſuch a degree, that they have been obliged to keep it partly in the open country, under tents, which they pitch up in a meadow near the city.

REMARKS.

This fair begins the 22d of July, or St Magdalen's feſtival, and continues but three days. People reſort thither from all parts of the world, and there is no merchandize, how ſcarce or curious ſoever it be, but may be met with there. So that, notwithſtanding the ſhort time it laſts, there is ſuch a prodigious trade, that it amounts to above ſix millions of livres. The inſpector of the manufactures of Niſmes, aſſiſted ſometimes by his brethren of the neighbouring diſtricts, together with the judges of the police of manufactures, and the maſters, wardens, and jurats, viſit and mark all foreign ſtuffs. The directors of the five great farms of ſome neighbouring diſtricts are alſo uſed to go thither, to take care of the concerns of their reſpective farms.

The freedom of the fair of Beaucaire is a privilege granted to the inhabitants of that city, in the year 1217, by Raymond count of Toulouſe, both on account of their conſtant loyalty to him, and becauſe of that city's moſt happy ſituation for trade. Since the province of Languedoc has been united to the crown of France, that privilege has been often renewed by ſeveral kings, particularly in the year 1483, by Charles VIII, and again under the reign of Lewis XII, and under that of Lewis XIII.

The conveniency of the river Rhone, on which the city of Beaucaire ſtands, draws to it's fair the merchandizes of Burgundy, Lyonnois, Switzerland, and Germany. The ſea, from which it is but ſeven leagues diſtant, brings thither thoſe of the Levant, Italy, and Spain, and by the royal canal it receives all that can come from Upper Languedoc, Bourdeaux, Britany, and the ocean.

The merchants who chiefly reſort to that fair, are thoſe of almoſt all France, either by themſelves, or by their factors. Thoſe of Spain, Italy, and Germany, come alſo thither in great numbers; and there are few nations in Europe, whoſe traders are not concerned in this fair. There are always Armenians, often Perſians, and ſometimes merchants from oriental countries ſtill more remote.

The chief merchandizes ſold there, are ſpice, drugs, hard wares, woolen and ſilk ſtuffs, Spaniſh and Barbary wool, beſides that of the growth of the country: in a word, all that is either produced or manufactured in France, or imported from abroad; and pretty often even jewels are ſold at this fair.

There is likewiſe a great trade in money by exchange, and remittances to all parts of the world.

As this is the only fair in all Languedoc which is really free, it is properly with a deſign to enjoy the freedom, that the merchants reſort to the other fairs in that province, in order to buy up there thoſe merchandizes which they have a mind to carry to the fair of Beaucaire: and, how famous ſoever the fairs of Pezenaz and Montagnac be, we may truly ſay that they are kept only to prepare matters for that of Beaucaire.

Before the year 1632, the freedom of this fair was full and intire; but, ſince that time, it has ſuffered ſome diminution, by the eſtabliſhment of the duty of re-appraiſing, which was laid on all merchandizes in the province of Languedoc, of which duty the merchandizes brought to the fair were not free. That duty, indeed, is not very conſiderable, ſince, one year with another, it does not bring in to the king above 2500 livres per annum. They pay alſo another ſmall duty of 12 ſols per bale of merchandizes which are not unpacked, the farmer pretending that they ought all to be unpacked. That duty is called abonnement, and does not produce above 5000 livres. If the intire freedom was reſtored, it would, perhaps, encourage merchants to improve their trade there.

BEAUCE, the northern diviſion of the principality of Orleanois, in France, is ſituated between Orleanois, Blaiſois, Perche, and the Iſle of France.

At CHARTRES the chief trade is that of corn, this country being ſo fruitful that it can furniſh ſeveral provinces with corn. They have alſo ſome manufactures, for which the water of the Eure, on which this city is ſituate, is reckoned very proper.

PLUVIERS is a ſmall, but trading town, on the rivulet Oeuf, where they keep a market every Saturday, and drive a conſiderable trade in corn, which the neighbouring fields produce. The ſoil produces alſo wine and ſaffron.

BEAVER, or CASTOR, an amphibious, four-footed animal, which lives ſometimes upon land, and ſometimes in the water. There are ſome which do not at all live in the water, but go to it only to drink, like other land animals: theſe dig holes in the ground to dwell in, like rabbets and foxes. They are called lazy beavers, or land beavers.

As the beavers feed only on fiſh, they keep commonly on the banks of ſuch rivers as abound with fiſh, in unfrequented places, where boats cannot paſs. In the ſpring, all thoſe of the ſame diſtrict, or quarter, gather together, and, walking two and two, they go in a body to hunt for animals of their own ſpecies; and all thoſe they can catch they lead into their dens, where they make them work like ſlaves. With their teeth they cut down whole trees, and theſe again into ſmall pieces, each of a certain length, and carry thoſe materials into their habitations, where they build with them apartments for themſelves, and rooms, or lodges, to lay up the proviſions which they gather in the ſummer. This we learn from the Travels from Moſcow to China, by Mr Ever. Iſbrantz Ides, ambaſſador from Muſcovy in the year 1692; which travels are inſerted in the eighth volume of The collection of voyages to the north (Recueil des voyages ou nord).

The Ruſſians, and the people of Ouſtiodg, add that travellers, who go a hunting for thoſe animals, never carry off all thoſe they find in the ſame den, but always leave there a male and a female, that they may find others in the ſame place the following year.

REMARKS.

Since the French have made ſettlements in Canada, the public has been very much undeceived, with regard to the fabulous ſtories which the ancients believed and related concerning beavers; and it has been found, by an infinite number of experiments, not only that this animal, like moſt others, can be tamed, which is contrary to the opinion of ſeveral moderns, but alſo that it has not that natural inſtinct to bite off a part of it's body, in order to eſcape the hunters: which inſtinct almoſt all the ancient authors aſcribe to it; except, however, Pliny, who aſſerts the contrary, though Monſieur Furetiere quoted him as being of that opinion.

The largeſt beavers are three or four feet long, and 12 or 16 inches broad in the middle of the breaſt, and from one hip to the other. They weigh commonly from 40 to 60 pounds. The head of a beaver reſembles that of a mountain rat: it's ſnout is long; it's jaws are almoſt equal, very ſtrong, furniſhed each with 10 large and ſharp teeth, two of which are inciſive, and eight molar; they are deeply rooted, and follow the curvature, or bending of the jaws, which gives them a prodigious ſtrength, ſo that the caſtor can cut down large trees with it's teeth. It is to be obſerved that they are not directly oppoſite to each other, but paſs over one another, being deſigned to work like ſciſſars. The beaver has very ſmall eyes. It's ears are ſhort, round, hairy on the outſide, but bare within. It's body is ſhort and thick, covered with two ſorts of hair, commonly brown, and ſhining, ſometimes black, but ſeldom white. The hair on the back is from an inch and a half to two inches long: it grows ſhorter towards the head and the tail; it is the rougheſt, and the moſt ſhining; it is fine like a man's hair. The hair on the belly is a kind of down, very fine and very cloſe, about an inch long: it preſerves the animal from cold, and ſerves to make hats, and other manufactures: the workmen call it, improperly, Muſcovy wool. It's tail has no reſemblance to that of any land animal; it comes much nearer to that of a fiſh. It is about a foot long, without hair, being covered with a ſcaly ſkin, under which is found a firm fat, pretty much like the fleſh of a porpoiſe, or ſea hog; the ſcales are as thick as parchment.

The beaver uſes it's tail not only to ſwim, with the help of it's hind legs, but it ſerves alſo as a beater, a trowel, and a hod, to prepare and carry the mortar, when the animal wants to build it's manſion, which is ſometimes two or three ſtories high. It's legs are ſhort, and covered with very ſhort hair. It's fore-feet reſemble thoſe of the badger, and the beaver uſes them like hands, to hold it's prey. It's hind feet are like thoſe of water-fowls: ſo that the beaver can walk on dry land, and ſwim in the water.

This animal, both the male and female, has inwardly, at the bottom of the os pubis, four large pouches, or bags; the two firſt, which are higher than the other two, are of the figure of a pear, and open the one into the other: they are commonly three inches long, by an inch and a half in breadth at the bottom, and contain a reſinous and fœtid matter, called caſtoreum, of which we ſhall give an account in its proper place. The two other pouches, which hang lower, are contained

tained in the inferior cavities; they appear round at the bottom, after one has taken off the common membrane in which they are both wrapped up. Sometimes there are three of thoſe bags, as it were in parcels, which are filled with an oily, yellowiſh, and ill-ſcented ſubſtance: each of theſe pouches is commonly two inches and a half long, by about 19 or 25 lines diameter: a line is the twelfth part of an inch.

The beaver is good to eat, and is reckoned half fleſh and half fiſh. Its upper part, as far as the legs, is real fleſh; but its inferior, or lower part, towards the tail, which is moſt in the water, is of the nature and taſte of fiſh.

The ſavages hunt the beavers from the beginning of November to the month of April, becauſe at that time thoſe animals are very well furniſhed with hair. Theſe people run along the little rivers, and, as ſoon as they perceive a cauſey, they may be ſure that the beaver's hut is not far off, and approach it as near as they can. Theſe ſavages are ſo ſkilful in laying ſnares for them, that not one of them eſcapes.

This account and deſcription of the beaver cannot but be true, being extracted from that which Monſieur Sarazin, the French king's phyſician in Canada, ſent to Monſieur Tournefort, and is to be met with in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1704. However, we ſhall add here a few more particulars, which Arthur Dobbs, Eſq; acquaints us with, from an unqueſtionable authority. The beavers, ſays he, are of three colours, the brown-reddiſh, the black, and the white. The firſt is the cheapeſt; the black is the moſt valued by the Hudſon-Bay company in England, and the white the moſt valued in Canada, where they ſell for 18 s. ſterling, whilſt the others ſell only for five or ſix. Theſe ſkins are extremely white, and have a fine luſtre, no ſnow being brighter, and they have a long fur, or hair. The beaver's chiefeſt food is the poplar, or tremble; but they alſo eat ſallows, alders, and moſt other trees not having a reſinous juice: the middle bark is their food. In May, when the wood is not plenty, they live upon a large root, which grows in the marſhes, a fathom long, and is as thick as a man's leg; the French call it volet: but the beavers are not ſo good then as when they feed upon trees. They are excellent food, but the tongue and the tail are the moſt delicious parts of the whole. They are very fat from November till the end of March. They breed once in a year, and have from 10 to 15 at a litter; ſo that they multiply very faſt.

This, it ſeems, ſhould be a proper place to mention the ingenious works of theſe animals; the wonderful banks, or moles, which they build with no other help but their paws and their tails; their republics, which are ſo well governed; and many other particulars, ſo ſurprizing, that, when one reads them in the accounts of voyagers, and particularly in thoſe of Baron de la Hontan, we can hardly believe but there muſt be in ſuch excellent animals ſomething more than a bare mechaniſm, or even inſtinct. But, as theſe curioſities have more connexion with ſpeculative philoſophy than commerce, we ſhall not dwell any longer upon them; and, in the remaining part of this article, we ſhall ſpeak only of the trade that is carried on in their rich furs, and of the uſes to which they can be applied.

Though there are beavers to be found in ſeveral parts of Europe, as in France, along the rivers Rhone, Iſere, and Oyſe, yet they are more frequently to be met with in Germany and in Poland, along the Elbe, and other rivers. The French, and other merchants, trade chiefly in beavers of Canada, from whence they get almoſt all thoſe they uſe; and under that denomination are comprehended thoſe that come from Acadia, from Hudſon's-Bay, and from all parts of North-America. The merchants diſtinguiſh three ſorts of beavers, though they are all the ſkins of the ſame animal. The new beaver, the dry beaver, and the fat beaver.

The new beaver, which is alſo called white beaver, or Muſcovy beaver, becauſe it is commonly kept to be ſent into Muſcovy, is that which the ſavages catch in their winter hunting. It is the beſt, and the moſt proper for making fine furs, becauſe it has loſt none of its hair by ſhedding.

The dry beaver, which is ſometimes called lean beaver, comes from the ſummer hunting, which is the time when theſe animals loſe part of their hair.

Though this ſort of beaver be much inferior to the former, yet it may alſo be employed in furs; but it is chiefly uſed in the manufacture of hats. The French call it ſummer caſtor, or beaver.

The fat beaver is that which has contracted a certain groſs and oily humour, from the ſweat which exhales from the bodies of the ſavages, who wear it for ſome time. Though this ſort be better than the dry beaver, yet it is uſed only in the making of hats.

Beſides hats and furs, in which the beaver's hair is commonly uſed, they attempted in France, in the year 1699, to make other manufactures of it: and, accordingly, they made cloths, flannels, ſtockings, &c. partly of beaver's hair, and partly of Segovia wool. This manufactory, which was ſet up at Paris, in St. Anthony's ſuburb, ſucceeded at firſt pretty well; and, according to the genius of the French, the novelty of the thing brought into ſome repute the ſtuffs, ſtockings, gloves, and cloth, made of beaver's hair. But they went out of faſhion on a ſudden, becauſe it was found, by experience, that they were of a very bad wear, and, beſides, that the colours faded very much: when they had been wet, they became dry and hard, like felt, which occaſioned the miſcarriage of the manufactory for that time.

When the hair has been cut off from the beaver's ſkins, to be uſed in the manufacturing of hats, thoſe ſkins are ſtill employed by ſeveral workmen; namely, by the trunk-makers, to cover trunks and boxes; by the ſhoe-makers, to put into ſlippers; and by turners, to make ſieves for ſifting grain and ſeeds.

The French king had granted, to the Eaſt-India company of that nation, an excluſive privilege for the ſale of beaver, by a decree of his council, dated the 30th of May 1721: but judging, almoſt immediately afterwards, that it was more proper to ſuſpend the execution of it for a time, he re-ordered it, by a decree of the 20th of July following: finally, having, ſince that time, cauſed the memoirs ſent from Canada to be examined, as well as thoſe which were preſented by the directors of the company, with regard to thoſe two decrees, his majeſty, by a new decree of the 28th of January, 1722, ordered,

1. That the decree of the 30th of May, 1721, ſhould be executed, according to its tenor and purport, and that the company ſhould accordingly enjoy the ſole privilege of ſelling tobacco, agreeably to the letters patents of Auguſt 1717, and to the decrees of July 11, 1718, and June 4, 1719, on condition that the ſaid company, according to their offers, ſhall pay, for the future, in Canada, 4 livres for the fat beaver, and 40 ſols for the dry beaver.

2. That all private perſons, except ſuch manufacturers of hats who had beavers ſkins remaining of thoſe which they imported, in conſequence of the liberty granted by the decree of the 16th of May, 1720, ſhall be obliged to ſell them before the 1ſt of May of the then preſent year 1722, without ſending them out of the kingdom, under the penalty of forfeiting the merchandize, and paying a fine of 10,000 livres; after which time they ſhall be obliged to deliver to the company what they ſhall have left, at the price abovementioned, deducting tare, as is uſual at the delivery of this merchandize.

3. Finally, as to the beaver imported from Canada ſince October 1721, which lies in the warehouſes of the ſtaple-towns of Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and other ports, and which has been bought contrary to the decree of the 30th of May, 1721, it ſhall alſo, without delay, be delivered to the ſame company, at the prices abovementioned, and a ſol per pound beſides for freight.

Beaver ſkins, including the robes and bits, which are not in whole ſkins, pay duty of importation in France at the rate of 8 livres and 4 ſols per pound; which amount to 820 livres per 100 weight, according to the decree of May 17, 1693, and cannot be imported but by Roan, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, and la Rochelle.

By the ſame decree, beaver and otter hair cannot be imported but by the ſame ports as the beavers ſkins, and pay duty of importation at the rate of 15 livres, 7 ſols, and 2 deniers per pound, which amounts to 1536 livres per 100 weight.

BEAVER, ſignifies alſo a hat made entirely of beaver's hair.

A half beaver is a hat in which other hair has been mixed with beaver's hair. For more on this head, ſee CANADA, and HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY.

BEDFORDSHIRE, a county in England, bounded on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by Hertfordſhire; on the north and north-eaſt by Huntington and Cambridgeſhires; on the north-weſt by Northamptonſhire; and on the weſt by Buckinghamſhire. The air is mild and healthy; the ſoil a deep clay, and fruitful both in tillage and paſture, in the north parts, but ſandy in the middle. Its rivers are the Ouſe and the Ivell.

The navigation of the former is of great ſervice to the corn-trade, whereof great quantities are ſent down by it to Lynn, a port-town in Norfolk, where it is ſhipped for Holland. This river divides the county into two parts: the northern, which is the leſs, is the moſt woody; the ſouthern has ſpacious fields, yielding plentiful crops of plump, white, and ſtrong barley, which, made into malt, is frequently ſold in London, and other parts, for that of Hertfordſhire. It has foreſts and parks, well ſtored with deer, fat paſture for cattle, produces great quantities of butter and cheeſe, with fuller's-earth, and woad for dyeing.

Its chief manufactures are bone-lace and ſtraw-hats. It is a county well inhabited, and full of gentry.

BEDFORD, which is the county town, is a clean, well-built, populous place, and ſtands north of the Ouſe. The neighbouring ſoil is exceeding fruitful, eſpecially of the beſt wheat in England, which is carried by waggons from hence and the north part of the county, 20 miles beyond it, to the markets of Hitchin and Hertford, where it is bought again, ground, and carried in the meal to London. As it ſtands on ſuch a navigable river, it drives a great corn trade, eſpecially in the exportation of barley to Holland, by way of Lynn.

LEIGHTON-BEAUDERART, by contraction called BUZZARD, is on the borders of Buckinghamſhire. Its market is generally well ſtored with cattle, and its Whitſuntide fair with coach

and cart-horſes, brought out of Northamptonſhire, Leiceſterſhire, &c. and bought up here by jockies from London, Surrey, Suſſex, and other parts.

WOOBURN, noted for plenty of fuller's-earth near it; and likewiſe another kind of earth, which petrifies wood into ſtone. This town is alſo famous for the manufacture of jockey-caps.

DUNSTABLE and the LUTONS, and the ſouth parts of this county, as far as the borders of Buckinghamſhire and Hertfordſhire; the people are taken up with the manufacture of bone lace, wherein they are wonderfully increaſed and improved.—Alſo the manufactures of ſtraw-work, eſpecially ſtraw-hats, ſpreads itſelf from Hertfordſhire into this county, and is very greatly increaſed within theſe twenty years paſt.

The woad, for which this county is famous, is ſaid to be the plant with which the ancient Britons uſed to dye their bodies, that they might appear the more terrible to their enemies; but rather, as ſome think, to preſerve them from the inclemency of the weather. It is cultivated here after this manner: they ſow it every year, and the old woad, except what they ſave for ſeed, is plucked up. The beginning of March is the ſeaſon for ſowing it, and the middle of May for cropping it. It is beſt in a dry year, but far more plentiful in a wet one. It is cropped commonly four or five times a year, as it comes up; but the firſt crop is beſt, and every one after it gradually worſe. When gathered, it is immediately ground ſmall in a mill, till it becomes fit to ball; and, when balled, it is laid upon hurdles to dry, and then ground into powder. After this it is ſpread on a floor, and watered, which is called couching; and then it is turned every day, till it is perfectly dry and mouldy, which is called ſilvering. After ſilvering it is weighed, and put into a bag, containing 200 weight, and then ſent to the dyers, to try it, who ſet a price on it, according to its goodneſs; the beſt is valued at about 18 l. a tun. See WOAD.

BEE, a kind of fly, or inſect, which produces honey, that ſweet and uſeful juice, of which there is ſo large a trade carried on in Europe, and eſpecially in France. The bee alſo produces wax.

The bees, or honey-flies, are little inſects, the nature and conduct of which is no leſs wonderful than their labour is beneficial to mankind, ſince they furniſh us with honey and wax, both which are very conſiderable commodities in the way of traffic.

Of the generation of bees.

The production of bees, at firſt, is, that they breed from a kind of little white germen, or ſperm, that is poſited at the bottom of the ſmall holes, or ſockets, that make up the honeycomb, which the bees make in their hives. This ſperm, aſſiſted by the natural heat of the bees, increaſes, and becomes a knot of white maggots, which, at the beginning of its formation, has no reſemblance of the bee, but, in a month's time, it comes out of the ſocket. The bees generate from February to the end of October, if the hive be in good condition: they ſwarm in May and June; but the May ſwarms are more valued, becauſe they are ſtronger than thoſe that are later.

How the bees prepare for their preſervation.

Towards the end of the winter, as ſoon as the weather becomes a little mild, as in the month of February, the bees venture out of their hives, range the fields, and bring home wax of different colours, as white, yellow, or red, which ſticks, like little lentils, on the hinder part of their thighs, and which, when entered into the hives, they induſtriouſly quit themſelves of, and form with it their lodgments. It is obſervable, that the ſame ſockets are the places wherein they depoſite their ſperm, whence are generated the other bees, and which are filled with honey, as they become empty, by the production of the young bees which they incloſe. They collect their honey-comb, or wax, from all ſorts of flowers, as the roſe, the orange, the peaſe-bloom, and the daiſy-flowers.

They bring, beſides the common wax, a purpliſh kind, firmer than the yellow, and ſerving them to ſtop the cracks about their hives. This wax is of a ſtrong ſmell, and very different from the common kind.

How the bees gather their honey.

The beſt ſeaſon of the year for the bees to gather their honey, is towards the latter end of April, and in May, at which time they go out by break of day, when the air is gentle and ſerene, and gather the dew, which is more plentiful and common at that time than any other of the year. They return as quick as they can into their hives, to diſcharge, into the holes aſſigned them, the honey-dew they have gathered from the ſimples of the field, and which they have ſucked into their bodies, and throw it up again, as pigeons do their food wherewith they feed their young; and, when they have filled a ſocket with this honey, they cloſe and ſeal it up with a ſmall piece of wax, to prevent it from flowing out again.

Towards the end of June and July, when the dews are not ſo plentiful as during the months of April and May, it happens ſtill there are ſome dewy mornings, in which the bees

are not leſs induſtrious than at other times to make their harveſt.

When they ſwarm, and the young ones which compoſe the ſwarm are come out of the hive, they make, as it were, a cloud of flies in the air, that looks black, and is formed, as they march out, into ſeeming ſquadrons and battalions, like an army. They follow cloſe their leader, who is much larger than the reſt, and whoſe wings are much ſhorter, and who is of a reddiſh colour. When they loſe their leader, they become vagabonds, and this is a certain loſs to the proprietor. When the ſwarm are got out, they uſually aſſemble together, and lodge upon ſome ſhady branch; and, being there cloſely knit, it is then proper to hive them, leſt they ſhould deſert; for, ſhould they ſtand long, till the ſun ſhines upon them, they will then ſeparate and fly away. When they are hived, it is proper to ſet them in the ſhade, from the heat of the ſun, which might melt their new wax.

It is alſo to be obſerved, that the bees wax, for three years together, is very plentifully productive in breeding of the bees, and that the age of the honeycomb is very eaſy to be known by its colour; for the firſt year it is whitiſh, the ſecond it is yellow, and the third brown; but, when older, it turns black, is barren, and without production, and then the bees ceaſe to make honey, or breed more ſwarms.

'I have hives, ſays a gentleman who was a curious obſerver 'of theſe animals, made of two pieces, in form of a barrel, 'or ſugar-loaf, cut in the middle; ſo that I need not deſtroy 'the bees; and I take the honey of the hives from year to 'year, by lifting up one year one part, and the following 'the other, according as they are found full, and, inſtead of 'thoſe that are full of honey, I put empty ones.' It is remarkable that bees delight much near water, and watery places, uſing a great deal of it in aſſiſting them to make honey *.

* Dr. Warder confirms the ſame, and directs ſmall troughs of water, with thin boards ſwimming therein, for the bees to drink at, and to prevent their drowning.

It is further obſervable, that amongſt the bees there are drones, which will not go into the fields at all; or if they do, which is but from noon till about four o'clock, they bring nothing home with them, but, on the contrary, eat the honey made by others; and the induſtrious bees kill the drones †, which are much larger and blacker than the others, and have no ſtings; but, when you preſs their tails, there appear two ſmall horns, like tranſparent ſkins, which are yellow at the end. In Poland and Muſcovy the bees make their hives in the trunks of old trees, and afford plenty of honey, on which the peaſants almoſt ſubſiſt, without any aſſiſtance, which is contrary to the nature of ours.

† The drones, according to ſome, are judged to be ſtallions to the queen-bee, who peoples this little commonwealth.

In ſome countries, where the bees have not all the year round a competency of agreeable matter whereon to feed, a method has been found to remove the hives, with their inhabitants, elſewhere, and afterwards bring them back again. According to the curious deſcription of Egypt by Monſieur Maillet, this is done in the following manner:

The inundation of the Nile rendering the countries very fertile, the inhabitants ſend their bees annually into diſtant countries, in order to get ſuſtenance, at a time when they could not find any at home, and afterwards bring them back. The people of Lower Egypt obſerved anciently that all the fruits of the earth ripened ſooner in Upper Egypt than in their parts, which made a difference of above ſix weeks between the two countries: hence they gave their bees the advantage. The expedient which they made uſe of then is employed at preſent. About the end of October, all who poſſeſs hives embark them on the Nile, and convey them up that river, quite to Upper Egypt, they obſerving to arrive thither at the time when, the inundation withdrawing, the lands have been ſowed, and the flowers begin to bud.

'The hives being come to this part of Egypt, are there placed 'pyramidically, in boats prepared for that purpoſe, after be- 'ing marked and numbered by the ſeveral owners who ſent 'them there. In this place the bees feed, in the fields, du- 'ring ſome days. Afterwards, when it is ſuppoſed that they 'have got in all the honey and wax that could be met with 'within two or three leagues round, their conductors convey 'them in the ſame boats, two or three leagues lower, and 'there leave the laborious inſects ſo long time as is neceſſary 'for them to collect all the riches of the ſpot in queſtion.' Thus the nearer they come to the place of their abode, the earth forwards its productions, and the plants flouriſh in proportion.—'In fine, about the beginning of February, after 'having travelled through the whole length of Egypt (gather- 'ing all the rich produce of their delightful banks of the Nile) 'they arrive at the mouth of that river, towards the ocean, 'whence they ſet out, and return to their reſpective habita- 'tions: for care is taken to ſet down exactly, in a roll, or 'regiſter, every diſtrict whence the hives ſet out in the be- 'ginning of the ſeaſon; their number, and the names of the

particular perſons who ſent them; as likewiſe the mark or number of the boats in which they were placed, according to their ſeveral habitations.'

This ſeems to prove how exceedingly advantageous it is for perſons to live in the neighbourhood of a great river, when their fields are not very abundant in flowers, or ſufficient to ſupport theſe animals during every ſeaſon. I conceive that bees, by taking a little voyage upon a river, and enjoying the ſpring of a dry country, with the autumn of a fat, ſhady ſoil, may thus be ſupported the year round. But, in order to do this, the owners of hives muſt live near a navigable river, otherwiſe what has been obſerved would be defeated; and many places have not ſuch an advantage.

Yet this defect may be ſupplied by land carriage. Columella informs us, that the Greeks conſtantly conveyed every year bees from Achaia into Attica; and this becauſe that, at the time when the flowers in Achaia are gone, thoſe of Attica began to blow. Monfort relates, that the people of the country of Juliers uſed the ſame practice; and that, at a certain ſeaſon of the year, they carried bees to the foot of mountains covered with thyme, and that of the wild kind. As theſe inſtances, being borrowed from remote times, may not have their due weight, it may not be amiſs to obſerve that Monſieur Proutaut makes his bees travel like thoſe of the Greeks of Achaia. This ingenious artiſt has ſet up a manufacture for whitening wax, at Yeuvre-la-Ville, near Petivres, in the dioceſe of Orleans, in France, and there keeps a great number of hives.

This ſpot is one of thoſe in which flowers become ſcarce very ſoon, and where few are ſeen, after the corn is ripened. He then ſends his bees into Beauce, or le Gatimois, in caſe it has rained in thoſe parts. This is a journey of about 20 miles. But, if he concludes that the bees could not meet, in either of theſe countries, wherewith to employ themſelves advantageouſly, he then has them carried into Sologne, about the beginning of Auguſt, as knowing they will there meet with buck-wheat in flower, which will continue ſo till about the end of September.

The land conveyance of theſe inſects being far more difficult than that by water, the contrivance of Mr. Proutaut is, firſt, to examine thoſe hives, ſome of whoſe honey-combs might be broken or ſeparated, by the jolting of the vehicle, to prevent which they are made faſt one to the other, and againſt the partition of the hive, by means of ſmall ſticks, which may be diſpoſed differently, as occaſion will ſhew. This being done, every hive is ſet upon a packing-cloth, or ſomething like it, the threads of which are very wide: they then turn up the ſides of this cloth, and lay them on the outſide of each hive, and tie them together with a piece of ſmall packthread, obſerving to wind it ſeveral times round. They afterwards place in a cart, built for that purpoſe, as many hives as it will hold. The hives are ſet two and two, the whole length of the cart. Over theſe others are placed, which make, as it were, a ſecond lay, or bed, of hives. Theſe muſt be always put topſy-turvy; it is for the ſake of their honey-combs, and to fix them the better, that the hives are diſpoſed after this manner; for ſuch as have no honey-combs, or very ſmall ones, are placed in their natural ſituation. Care is taken in this ſtowage, not to let one hive ſtop up another, it being eſſentially neceſſary for the bees to have air; and it is for this reaſon they are wrapped up in a coarſe cloth, the threads of which are wove very wide, in order that the air may have a free paſſage, and qualify the violent heat which theſe inſects raiſe in their hives, eſpecially when they move about very tumultuouſly, as often happens in theſe carts. Thoſe uſed for this purpoſe in Yévre hold from 30 to 48 hives. As ſoon as all are thus ſtowed, the caravans ſet out. If the ſeaſon is ſultry, they travel only in the night; but, in cool days, they make a proper advantage of them. You will imagine that they do not ride poſt: the horſes muſt not be permitted even to trot; they are led ſlowly, and through the ſmootheſt roads. If any hives are void of honey-combs, or have not ſufficient to ſupport the bees during their journey, which is more than of one day, they are made to ſtay in the place where they happen to be. The ſort of hives we are ſpeaking of, are taken out of the cart, are ſet upon the ground, and, after removing the packing-cloth, an aperture is made at the bottom of every hive, by which the bees iſſue forth, in order to procure themſelves proviſions abroad. The firſt field they come to ſerves as an inn to them. In the evening, as ſoon as they are all returned, the hives are ſhut up, and being placed again in the cart they proceed on their journey. When the caravan is arrived at their journey's end, the baſkets are ſet up and down in the gardens, or in fields adjacent to the houſes of different peaſants, who, for a very ſmall reward, undertake to look after them. It is thus that, in ſuch ſpots as are not very abundant in flowers, means are found to ſupply the wants of bees during the whole year.

Remarks.

Honey and wax, the productions of theſe delicate animals, being commodities of very general uſe and benefit to mankind, and affording divers branches of traffic, of no inconſiderable extent, is the reaſon of our intimating the meaſures which have been ſuggeſted for the more than ordinary care and nouriſhment of theſe active inſects. It is certain that the methods beforementioned have been ſucceſsfully practiſed; and how much farther the profitable care of theſe uſeful creatures may be carried, is not eaſy to ſay. It does not ſeem at all irrational to conjecture that variety of melliferous herbs and flowers might, in many parts, be planted adjacent to the reſidence of bees, without their being made itinerants, which would, perhaps, afford them conſtant nouriſhment at all ſeaſons of the year: that is to ſay, that ſuch quantities of ſuitable herbs, flowers, and vegetables, might, by the means of hot-beds, be preſerved, ſo as to afford them ſuſtenance at all times. And theſe meaſures, together with well-contrived, warm apiaries, I am inclined to think, might render bees far more profitable than they have yet been.

The making eſſays of this nature would well become perſons of leiſure, and who are rurally well ſituated for ſuch experiments. The expence would be inconſiderable to people of fortune, and the amuſement not a little engaging and delectable to thoſe who have a true gôut for the ſtudies of nature. We are convinced, from inſtances innumerable, that art will ſurpriſingly aſſiſt nature, and be productive of infinite variety of effects, which were unknown to our forefathers, who had made no progreſs in the experimental philoſophy, which is the only kind of philoſophy that can be of utility in regard to traffic.

We well know the care and tenderneſs requiſite for the preſervation of that other important animal, the ſilk-worm: without the application of art for their breed and nouriſhment, we ſhould not experience that plenty of their eſtimable and delightful productions.

Honey, properly managed, we are ſenſible yields a moſt delicate kind of liquor. This is much uſed in the northern countries, where great cold hinders the growth of the grape, and production of wine; but kind nature has bountifully provided them with honey, which they make into a ſpirituous liquor with water, and eſteem it as much, yea, ſome prefer it before wine.

Mead, metheglin, and hydromel, are all prepared from honey, which is a ſweet juice, exuding from the flowers of a great variety of vegetables, bitter as well as ſweet, and ſucked up from them by the bees, and laid up in their combs. Honey was formerly thought to have different qualities, according to the different plants and flowers it was gathered from; but later diſcoveries have proved this to be falſe. Honey is a natural ſoap, attenuating, aperitive, looſening, cleanſing, and ſtimulating, of very high eſteem before the uſe of ſugar, and, in ſeveral caſes, far exceeds it, as for a pectoral, diuretic, &c. and neither heats, dries, nor conſtringes, till after fermentation; for, before that, the ſpirit is not ſet at liberty.

But we muſt conſider theſe three liquors as they are after fermentation. All theſe are made with honey and water, and ſome aromatics, as cinnamon, ginger, nutmegs, cloves, &c. and fermented with yeſt after boiling; the laſt is only honey and water boiled, and barrelled cloſe, without fermentation. Theſe are the chief drinks of Ruſſia, Muſcovy, Lithuania, and Tartary; and many in Britain are wiſe enough not to deſpiſe thoſe liquors; for what is produced from the animal nature may afford more kindly and ſalubrious drinks than any from the vegetable.

Fermented mead, having the eſſential oil and ſalts of the flowers from which the honey is gathered, broken, and mixed with the water, and reduced to a ſubtile, volatile ſpirit, becomes of the nature of wine, when it is kept to a right age, i. e. till it be clear, fine, and of a pleaſant, vinous taſte; which, if rightly made, it muſt be, conſidering that honey is the moſt eſſential, ſubtile, and fine parts of flowers; and for this reaſon, mead muſt be a very wholeſome liquor, becauſe it is a curious and chemical collection of the beſt principles of aromatic and cordial flowers.

Mead muſt alſo be an excellent nervous wine, increaſe the animal ſpirits, and inflate the delicate tubes with it's volatile and exalted parts, and fit them better for vigorous motion and action; and, as it affords plenty of nervous juices that will ſupply the nerves of involuntary motion, ſtrengthen the heart, promote circulation, and prove a great cordial, far beyond brandy, aqua vitæ, or French wine; becauſe, their ſpirits being ſtripped of their mucous phlegm, and left naked, they ſoon exhale and leave their phlegm to thicken the blood, load the veſſels, and weaken the fibres; but the ſpirits of mead and metheglin, being ſtill more wrapped up in the oily parts, continue longer in the body, invigorate the ſolids, and keep them longer in play.

Mead is excellent in all languiſhings and decays of nature; it is a milk for old people, a great ſtrengthener of the ſolids of the phlegmatic, an attenuater of the blood, an invigorater of the loaded abdominal veſſels, and a powerful reviver of the ſpirits of melancholy perſons.—It is a powerful diuretic, cleanſes the kidnies, urethers, and bladder, of all ſandy, mucilaginous, gravelly, and exotic, tardy bodies.—As it affords plenty of animal ſpirits, which invigorate the nerves and fibres, they attenuate, mix, and prepare the blood for ſecretion and excretion; by this property, and it's multitude of eſſential ſalts, it ſcours the glands and lymphatics, cleanſes

away

away the viſcidities of the blood; it fortifies the ſtomach, and promotes digeſtion in the bowels, by it's gently ſtimulating the muſcular fibres, attenuates the viſcidities lodged in the glands, and affords a nervous juice.

But hydromel, that is, honey and water boiled, and kept unfermented, with cinnamon, ginger, and nutmegs, is a powerful cleanſer of the lungs, it helps expectoration, and ſheaths the ſharp prickling ſalts which tickle the trachæal glands; for that, not having undergone fermentation, abounds with many oily parts and ſalts, which, not being ſo minute and ſubtile as in the other, prick not, nor ſtimulate the nerves and glands; neither are the oily parts ſo groſs as to cloy and load the ſmall veſſels of the lungs, but ſoften and ſmooth them, ſheath the ſharp irritating ſalts, and ſmooth the inſides of the veſſels with a noble balſamic litus, which defends them from pungency and irritation, till they recover ſtrength and elaſticity; whereby they ſhake off and propel any viſcid or ſaline moiſture, which might ſtuff, load, or tickle them.

Thus are honey and mead of unſpeakable ſervice to the diſeaſes of the breaſt. And alſo where the bowels are ſluggiſh and inactive, and do not anſwer; or where they are too dry and ſtiff, and want glandular moiſture to expedite the paſſage of the fæces, mead is good, becauſe it's groſs ſalts prick and ſtir up the inteſtines to their office, or it's groſs oil lubricates and ſoftens them, cauſes the glands to give way to the impulſe of the circulating blood, and their excretory ducts are ſoftened and widened; hence a large quantity of inteſtinal glandular juice, whereby ſtool is provoked. But vinous mead has not this effect, becauſe the fermentation has ſubtilized it's oil and ſalts ſo much, that they readily get through the firſt paſſages into the blood, without producing that effect. The œnomali (i. e. wine and honey mixed) of the antients, will ſtill make the wine more pectoral; that is to ſay, the oil and viſcid parts of the honey will obtund or ſheath up the tartar of the wine, ſo as it will not prick nor tickle the glands of the throat, to excite a troubleſome cough; the wine, on the other hand, will make the honey more cordial, ſtomachic, and of quicker digeſtion.

Mead, and all preparations of honey, are moſt diſagreeable to choleric conſtitutions, becauſe it ſoon degenerates into the nature of bile, cauſes terrible gripes, bilious cholics, and not ſeldom death: it is alſo hurtful in ardent fevers, becauſe it's ſpirits will increaſe the violent and impetuous motion of the humours, and exaſperate the diſeaſe. It is no leſs unſuitable for hot ſummer weather, becauſe then the ſolids are lax, digeſtion ſlow, and it, lying on the ſtomach, meets with the biles, and turns into an acid, which preſently raiſes a violent cholic: ſo that, as cyder is adapted for the ſummer, ſo is this for the winter. Mead, drank before it be fine, palls the ſtomach, goes ſlowly off, cauſes belchings, flatulency, indigeſtion, nauſea and vomiting, from the viſcidity it had not yet depoſited, wherein the contained air rarifies, expands, and cauſes an exploſion; and theſe viſcidities, meeting with the bile, eaſily turn into the ſame, and ſo cauſe bilious vomiting, pain in the bowels, and looſeneſs; and, becauſe it contains both much ſpirit and viſcous parts, it eaſily cauſes drunkenneſs, hard to get off.

From theſe obſervations it is apparent, that all liquids, like all ſolids, are not ſuitable to every conſtitution, which alſo ſhews the folly of depending on empirics for the preſervation of health, who, having no true philoſophy, cannot poſſibly make a true judgment of any medicine they confidently preſcribe. And every phyſician may be truly ſaid to be nothing better than an impudent quack, who is not thoroughly acquainted with the ſpecific nature of the drugs, and the minerals he dares to adminiſter. Yet there are too many who ſupercilioufly ſtrut about the town, pick people's pockets by wholeſale, who neither know one drug from another, when they ſee them together, nor ſkilfully to perform one proceſs in chymiſtry. But, if they have heard a few lectures, and read Boerhaave, upon thoſe ſubjects, and got the technical terms by rote, they dogmatically prate away before their ignorant patients and others, and paſs for profound fellows: when, if they were catechized in the whole of medicinal philoſophy, before thoſe who are judges, their patients would be aſtoniſhed, to think that they had truſted their lives in the hands of ſuch pedants in phyſic; whoſe knowlege has only been ſtolen from the files of apothecaries, and whoſe ſucceſs has been owing to a low and deteſtible cunning, rather than to any real merit in their profeſſion.

BEES-WAX. The wax is a proviſion not leſs neceſſary for the bee, than the honey itſelf: they build their apartments with it, and it cloſes the cells of the nymphs, as well as thoſe where the honey is treaſured. When any accidents happen, any fractures open, or whenever the ſpecies grow too numerous, they recur to the wax; and therefore are always careful to provide a competent quantity in time. They ſearch for it upon all ſorts of trees and plants, but eſpecially the rocket, the ſingle poppy, and generally all kinds of flowers. They amaſs it with their hair, with which their whole body is inveſted. It is pleaſant to ſee them roll in the yellow duſt, which fall from the chives to the bottom of the flowers, and then return covered with the ſame grains; but their beſt method of gathering the wax, eſpecially when it is not very plentiful, is to carry away all the little particles of it with their jaws and fore-feet, into a ſocket or cavity, that opens at their hinder-feet.

This cavity is made to receive the wax, like a ſpoon, and the hair, which covers their feet, ſerves to keep the burden fixed and ſteady, till they return home. They are ſometimes expoſed to inconveniencies in this work, by the motion of the air, and the delicate texture of the flowers which bend under their feet, and hinder them from packing up their booty; on which occaſions they fix themſelves on ſome ſteady place, where they preſs the wax into a maſs, and wind it round their legs, making frequent returns to the flowers; and, when they have ſtocked themſelves with a ſufficient quantity, they immediately repair to their habitation.

Two men in the compaſs of a whole day, could not amaſs ſo much as two little balls of wax; and yet they are no more than the common burden of a ſingle bee, and the produce of one journey. Thoſe who are employed in collecting the wax from flowers, are aſſiſted by their companions, who attend them at the door of the hive, eaſe them of their load at their arrival, bruſh their feet, and ſhake out the two balls of wax; upon which the others return to the fields to gather new treaſures, whilſt thoſe who diſburdened them, convey their charge to the magazine. However, there are ſome bees, who, when they have brought their load home, have carried it themſelves to a lodge, and there delivered it, laying hold of one end with their hinder feet, and with their middle feet ſliding it out of the cavity that contained it.

Theſe parcels of wax continue a few moments in the lodge, till another ſet of bees come, to knead it with their feet, into different ſheets laid upon one another.

This is the unwrought wax, which is eaſily diſtinguiſhed to be the produce of different flowers, by the variety of colours which appear in each ſheet. When they afterwards come to work it, they knead it over again; they purify and whiten it, and then reduce it to a uniform colour. They uſe this wax with a wonderful frugality; for it is eaſy to obſerve, that the whole family is conducted with prudence, and all their actions regulated by good government.

The matter which conſtitutes this wax, is of a certain balſamic nature, and appears in very ſmall quantities, upon the ſurface of the leaves of ſome plants, where it is inſpiſſated by the heat of the ſun; as is manifeſt in roſemary.

There are alſo often found in other plants certain very minute globules, riſing from the open ſeminal tufts in the main part of the flower; theſe can ſcarce be collected by any human means, but I have ſometimes found, ſays Boerhaave, upon frequently cohobating ſpirit of wine upon roſemary leaves, an unexpected and ungrateful taſte or ſmell of wax, fouling the ſpirit, which before was good; and, upon viewing theſe leaves with a microſcope, I thought I diſcovered little waxy riſings of the ſurface, and, upon handling them conſiderably, I evidently found wax ſticking to my fingers.

Bees-wax, therefore, appears to be a certain ſpecies of turpentine, which the fat juices of plants, when heated by the ſun, ſweat out upon the ſurface, or produce within the cavities of the flowery tufts. This the bees collect, as before deſcribed. It is generally yellow, and not ungrateful either in taſte or ſmell; it becomes hard and almoſt brittle in the cold, but grows ſoft, and diſſolves with heat.

Of the medicinal uſe of BEES-WAX.

The water, vinegar, fœtid ſpirit, and butter, from wax, diſtilled by the retort.

PROCESS I.

Half fill a glaſs retort with fine wax, cut into pieces ſmall enough to enter the wide mouth thereof; then pour clean ſand upon it, ſo as to fill the retort, which is now to be gently warmed till the wax melts, and ſufficiently imbibes and mixes among the ſand: ſet the retort in a ſand furnace, apply a receiver, and diſtil with a gradual fire: there uſually firſt comes over a little tartiſh water, of a diſagreeable fetid odour, along with a little ſpirit; when with a gentle heat of 214 degrees nothing more aſcends, change the receiver, and raiſe the fire; by which means there will gradually ariſe a thin oil of a whitiſh colour, and concrete, like butter, in the receiver. When this ceaſes, apply a violent fire of ſuppreſſion, upon which the whole body of the wax will ſoon come over into the receiver, and there appear in a ſolid form, like butter; having loſt the hard brittle nature of wax, and melting oily. So much ſand ſhould be here mixed with the wax, as to prevent it's exploſive ſwelling, as would otherwiſe happen in the boiling.

The USE.

Here it is manifeſt, that the whole body of the wax is volatile, with a certain degree of fire; in which reſpect therefore, theſe ſubſtances agree with camphire, though camphire be much more volatile. Hence we ſee alſo that wax, which is wholly inflammable, may exiſt in a hard and almoſt brittle form; and when diſſolved in hot water, then forced through

a linnen ſtrainer, and poured into ſhallow, metalline moulds, ſo as to form little cakes; theſe being expoſed to the open air and ſun, and frequently ſprinkled with pure water, the wax is thus blanched or whitened; and, though it now alſo conſumes in flame, yet it is almoſt as brittle as glaſs: ſo as to ſeem a very different thing from oil. Inflammable vegetable oils, therefore, may exiſt under the various forms of oil, balſam, roſin, pitch, dry tears, wax, and butter. From whence we may further obſerve, that the fire can make true liquid oils from bodies, which appeared not to be oils before. And this converſion of wax into butter is durable; for it does not return to hard wax again in a very long time, but conſtantly remains a ſoft butter, even in the greateſt cold. I have kept this butter of wax, ſays Boerhaave, above twenty years, in a glaſs cylindrical veſſel, whoſe wide mouth was only looſely covered with paper, yet in all this time it did not return to wax; whereas the moſt liquid oil of turpentine ſoon grows thick, like thin turpentine itſelf *; ſo that the different effects of fire upon the bare oily parts of plants is ſurpriſing, conſequently no certain rules can hence be laid down for the action of fire upon oils.

* Quere. Whether the oil of turpentine being imbibed and mixed with ſand in the retort, as in this caſe of the wax, would not ſo volatilize it, as effectually to prevent the coagulation of the one as well as the other? Does not the ſand abſorb that inſpiſſating congealing quality we find in the one and not in the other, by not uſing ſand? Or will not the proper application of certain abſorbient earths, to all vegetable, reſinous, or waxy bodies, imbibe that internal fiery quality, which is the cauſe of coagulation; and thereby ſo volatilize them, as to render them a durable butter, as in the preſent caſe?

Camphire, which is a pure inflammable oil, becomes camphire again, and not a liquid oil, after being raiſed by the fire. The butter of wax, thus prepared, affords an extremely ſoft anodyne unguent, agreeable to the nerves, highly emollient and relaxing, and, when rubbed upon the parts, proves ſerviceable in contractions of the limbs, and ſucceſsfully preſerves the ſkin from roughneſs, dryneſs, and cracking in the cold, or the winter: it alſo proves excellent in the ſharp pains of the hæmorrhoids.

The butter of wax turned into a liquid oil, upon repeated diſtillation by the retort.

Process II.

Melt the butter of wax over a gentle fire to a liquid oil, then pour it through a funnel, firſt well heated, into a glaſs retort alſo well heated before-hand, ſo as to half fill the retort, with care to prevent any of the butter from ſticking to the neck thereof, becauſe in that caſe the groſs matter would fall into the receiver, which ſhould here be avoided. Set the retort in a ſand furnace, lute on a clean receiver, and diſtil cautiouſly, managing the fire ſo, that one drop may follow another at the diſtance of ſix ſeconds; when nothing more comes over with this degree of heat, raiſe the fire, and diſtil as before, and continue in this manner increaſing the fire with the ſame caution, ſo long as any butter remains in the retort; and by this means all the butter will come over, ſcarce leaving any fæces behind; and a thickiſh oil, not much diminiſhed in quantity, be found inſtead of butter in the receiver. If this oil of wax be again diſtilled in like manner, it always becomes more liquid, ſoft, tranſparent, and thin, ſo as at length to reſemble a ſubtile, limpid oil: and, the oftener the diſtillation is repeated, the more mild and gentle, yet the more penetrating, the oil becomes.

The Use.

Hence it appears, that the action of the fire more and more attenuates certain oily bodies of plants, yet without rendering them acrimonious, but on the contrary always milder, though at the ſame time more penetrating; for this laſt oil of wax is an incomparable remedy for the diſeaſes of the nervous papillæ in the external ſkin, and has ſcarce it's equal in curing chapt lips in the winter, chapt nipples in the women who give ſuck, and in the cracking of the ſkin of the hands and fingers, being ſometimes gently anointed therewith.

It is alſo ſerviceable in diſcuſſing cold tumours, ariſing on the face or fingers in the winter; and curing contracted tendons, and the rigidity of the limbs thence ariſing; being uſed along with baths, fomentations, and motion; for it has a ſingular virtue in thus reſtoring flexibility to the parts: being frequently rubbed upon the abdomen, it prevents coſtiveneſs; and is therefore excellent in effectually curing the diſeaſes of children.

A further uſe of theſe kinds of oils.

After the chymiſts had juſtly ſhewn the phyſicians the ſpirit reſiding in eſſential oils, contained in a ſmall volume, all the particular virtues of the plant, phyſicians prudently reflected that from thence they had an excellent inſtrument in their art, but that the unctuous tenacity of the oil ſtill prevented, in many caſes, it's being uſed with ſafety, becauſe theſe oils being extremely ſharp, and by their tenacity remaining fixed to one part, occaſioned inflammations. Wherefore they began to think of a method of rendering theſe oils miſcible with water, and uniformly conveying their entire virtues to the places intended, and this they found might be effected by the means of ſugar.

Grind therefore an ounce of dry loaf-ſugar to an impalpable powder, in a glaſs mortar, with a glaſs peſtle, and by degrees add thereto a drachm of any eſſential oil, or half a drachm, if the oil be very tenacious, and continue rubbing them together, till the oil be thoroughly incorporated with the ſugar. The oil in this operation uſually diffuſing a fragrancy, it ſhould be performed quick. Thus ſugar, which is a pure ſoap, or a true eſſential oily ſalt, divides the glutinous tenacity of the oil, interpoſes itſelf betwixt the principles thereof, unites them cloſely together, and makes an extemporaneous ſoap; which may thus be commodiouſly diluted with water for medicinal uſes: for though this mixture is not ſo perfect as in an actual ſoap, or true eſſential ſalt, yet it ſuffices for uſe: nor is there reaſon to apprehend any inconvenience from the ſugar in this preparation; for ſugar is unjuſtly ſaid to be unwholeſome, as there are no proofs extant thereof.

On the contrary, it is a wonderful ſalt that perfectly mixes with water, and ferments therewith into wine; and yet what is again ſurpriſing, it appears oleaginous, and perfectly inflammable in the fire: whence it is known to conſiſt of oil and ſalt.

If theſe elæoſaccharums be well prepared, dried, and put into clean glaſſes, exactly cloſed with glaſs ſtoppels, they may long be preſerved perfect; and, in this manner, very effectual medicines might be commodiouſly carried from place to place, and be directly uſed on journies, by adding a little of the elæoſaccharum to a glaſs of wine. By this method, therefore, phyſicians, if acquainted with practical chymiſtry, may prepare an excellent medicine, rich in virtues; for if the elæoſaccharum of mint be diſſolved in diſtilled mint water, then ſtrengthened with the addition of the ſpirit of mint, and the mixture ſweetened with the ſyrup of the ſame plant, the whole virtue of mint may thus be obtained.—In like manner the before deſcribed oil of wax may by the means of ſugar be made an elæoſaccharum, which, if properly applied, may be taken internally with ſucceſs.

Hence appears the ſaponaceous property of ſugar, which fits it for breaking and dividing the bodies of oils, as if they were in a manner fermented with ſugar; and at the ſame time it does not diminiſh, but rather improves, the particular virtues of theſe oils. The antients, therefore, who were unacquainted with ſugar, mixed oils with honey for the like purpoſe. And hence we learn the virtue of ſugar in the body, where, being diluted with the natural juices, it affords a ſaponaceous lixivium; which, by the force of circulation, diſſolves unctuous and viſcous matters; whence it does not generate but diſſolve phlegm, nor increaſe the bile, nor turn into it, but opens, thins, and divides it; though, by diſſolving the oils too much, it may occaſion leanneſs, as by attenuating too much it produces a weakneſs and relaxation of the parts, and is therefore often found hurtful in the rickets, and the ſcurvy.

Having ſhewn the medical uſe of bees-wax, by way of chymical analyſis, we ſhall ſhew it's utility in other reſpects.

Of the uſe of bees-wax in the ſolid body.

There is a very conſiderable traffic in the yellow and white wax. The firſt ſort is made from the preſſing of the honeycomb over a fire, with a ſufficient quantity of water; and, when all is diſſolved, they ſtrain it through a cloth; this done, they melt it, and ſcum off the droſs and froth, and afterwards caſt it into cakes.

In the refining of wax, ſome perſons uſe Roman, or ſome other vitriol, but the beſt method ſeems to be by well melting.

That which we call wax, is, in it's natural ſtate, the honeycomb, which contains the honey in the hive. Poland, Barbary, Bretagne, and ſeveral parts of France, furniſh a great deal of yellow wax; but that of Dantzick, Bretagne, and Champagne, is reckoned the beſt; but it is of little conſequence from what place it comes, provided it be pure and of a good kind.

In the choice thereof, that is the beſt which is of a high yellow colour, a good ſmell, eaſy to break, and does not ſtick to the teeth; and take care that it be the ſame inwardly as outwardly: and, when in large cakes, as that from Dantzick, obſerve that there be no water, ſtones, or earth in the middle, or that it be not mixed with roſin, white frankincenſe, or pitch, or coloured with turmeric or roucou.

The uſe of yellow wax is conſiderable for ſeveral ſorts of works; as tapers, candles, flambeaux, images, anatomical and other curious works, ſealing-wax, &c. Beſides it's before-mentioned uſe in medicine, it is likewiſe uſed by way of giving a body to unguents and plaiſters.

We meet with, beſides this, in the hives, a kind of red wax, called virgin wax, or propolis, which is that the bees uſe to ſtop up the chinks or holes of the hives, to hinder the cold

air

air from entering. And therefore, the more cracks or holes there are about a hive, the more propolis will be found there. This was once much uſed, but, at preſent, is hardly known in the ſhops, though it has been found very good in nervous caſes.

The white wax is made out of the yellow, cut by a certain engine into ſmall flakes, and then bleached in the ſun, by which it will become very white. See the article WAX.

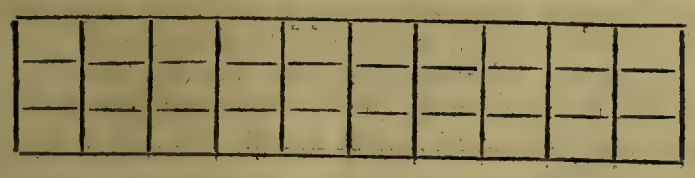
It is then caſt into round cakes, ſome thicker, ſome thinner. That is the beſt which ſmells well, and chews hard, not mixed with ſheep's ſuet, and is withal of a clear colour, without any caſt of yellowneſs. The laſt, and moſt proper to turn white, is the yellow wax of Bretagne, which when it is well made, as that uſually is of Chateau Gontier, eight leagues from Angiers, which paſſes for the beſt ſort in France, will be pure, white, clear, tranſparent, in thick cakes, that when broken betwixt the teeth, does not ſtick, neither has any ill taſte or ſcent.

It is with this fine wax the fineſt works are made. And we reckon, after the Chateau Gontier wax, the ſecond ſort, that of Angiers; the third ſort that of Mons; the fourth that of Holland, which is generally brought in great cakes of four or five hundred weight; and the firſt ſort is that we call the Dutch wax royal; the fifth is that of Amboiſe; the ſixth of Chaumont, near Troyes; the ſeventh, and the worſt, is that of Rouen, becauſe of the great addition of ſuet they put in, and it is better or worſe, according to the quantity of ſuet wherewith it is mixed.

At Montpelier in France, they are reckoned to have one of the beſt manufactures for the blanching of wax in Europe; the manner and proceſs of which is as follows.

Firſt, they melt the wax in a large copper cauldron, then they have ready a mold or form of wood, of the figure of a ſugar-loaf, or the block of a ſteeple crowned hat, which having beſmeared over with ſlime of ſnails, they dip into the wax thus melted. This takes up a ſkin or film of wax, as candles upon dipping do.

This they ſmooth with their hands, and dip in water, and when it is cold take it off the form, from which, by reaſon of the anointing the form with the before-mentioned mucilage, it will readily ſlip in the form of a cone or long crucible. Theſe cones (ſo let me call them) are ſet in a garden in ranks, ſingly one by one, ſupported with canes or reeds, croſſing one another in this faſhion.



Round about they ſet pots with water, wherewith they ſprinkle the wax often, to keep it from melting. In ſummer time, when the ſun lies hot upon it, they ſprinkle it ſix or ſeven times a day, otherwiſe but three or four times. In fourteen or fifteen days, the upper end of theſe cones will grow white, and then they turn them to whiten the other end. In a month's time, more or leſs, according to the weather, they will become white all over.

Then they melt the wax again in earthen pans like metæ, or ſcuttles, and run it ſo melted, through the neb of a tin-pot, into water; and, as it runs down into the water, a man either breaks it with his hand into grains, or works it into round figures, like ſpiral wreaths, or corollæ, and theſe they expoſe again to the weather, in the garden, and order as before, till they become purely white, and then melt into large pieces to ſell. The mucilage wherewith they beſmear the forms, is made of ſnails taken alive, ſhells and all, and pounded in a mortar, till they become a perfect pap, or viſcous.

The form, once beſmeared well over with this pap, will laſt dipping many times. Wax whitened is alſo twice as dear as yellow wax. Yellow wax is ſolutive, and uſed where there is an inflammation, and the ſore not ripe; white wax, on the contrary, is very aſtringent. They ſay, Montpelier is a place proper for whitening of wax; and that the ſame workmen, coming over into England, found the air of a different temperature, and not ſo convenient for this trade.

REMARKS.

To what has been ſaid under the article BEES, the following further obſervations may not be unacceptable to many.

The due care and culture of bees, affording both profit and delight, have always been an agreeable and uſeful employment for the rural life. The ancients induſtriouſly cultivated theſe animals for the ſake of their honey, which, among them, was in as high eſteem as ſugar is at preſent among the Europeans and Americans. Although, ſince ſugar has been ſo univerſally ſubſtituted in the ſtead of honey, the latter has been in leſs general eſtimation, yet that does no way depreciate from it's natural excellency and cordiality to the human nature. As much as the animal nature may in dignity ſurpaſs the vegetable, to the like degree, perhaps, may the natural productions of the one ſurpaſs thoſe of the other, more eſpecially in a matter which is allowed to be the very quinteſſence of the vegetable, without participating of it's excrementitious qualities: and the degree of animal coction given to honey and wax, ſeems the more naturally to prepare them for the human ſpecies than is in the power of any vegetable to do, for want of that warmth and motion connatural to the animal beyond the vegetable.

But, was not this the caſe with reſpect to the ſpecies of vinous and ſpirituous liquors which theſe inſects afford, yet their wax makes ſo general an article of traffic, and, as we have ſeen, is productive of ſeveral good medicaments, that the bees have a claim as much, at preſent, to our regard on that account, as they had to that of the ancients for the ſake of their honey chiefly.

It is not in towns, but in the country, bees are trained up. Two claſſes of people concern themſelves in the culture; the country people for profit, others for agreeable rural amuſement.

The former, engaged in providing for their daily ſubſiſtence in other ſhapes, can beſtow but a few ſtolen moments on their hives, and, therefore, can neither benefit themſelves or their country thereby, to the degree thoſe inſects will admit of.

The other claſs, whom an eaſier fortune, a ſuperior education and diſcernment, would render capable greatly to advance an art, which, at this time, makes no inconſiderable branch of commerce, have not curioſity enough to ſatisfy themſelves to what degree of perfection and profit theſe animals might be brought.

The culture and multiplication of bees depend chiefly on a knowlege of their wants, which cannot be known, unleſs we are exactly acquainted with their method of living, their temperature, their nutriment, the dangers to which they are expoſed, the moſt favourable ſituation they may be placed in, the productions of flowers and vegetables ſuitable to them, and how to ſcreen and ſhelter them from thoſe inclemencies of weather, as well as other animals who are deſtructive of their tender natures &c.

The ancients have amuſed us with ſo many deluſions and fabulous hiſtories of their bees, that it is no wonder if the prejudices which ariſe from theſe falſe repreſentations, have retarded the progreſs which might otherwiſe have been made in the training them up.

To reinforce this beneficial art, and to render it capable of the higheſt perfection, it was neceſſary that ſome body ſhould make bees their ſtudy, and not content themſelves, as the ancients have done, with poetical, fictitious deſcriptions only of them. This has been done; and we are indebted for it to Swammerdam, Maraldy, and Reaumur. The two former, indeed, though very curious in many of their obſervations, have not, like the latter, the true experimentaliſt in philoſophy, given us rules for the training them up to the advantage they may be. Nor are the labours of Reaumur level to the capacities of thoſe who are the moſt likely to improve the art to any conſiderable degree.

To compenſate for this, an anonymous writer has obliged the public with a tract, which he calls the The Natural Hiſtory of the Bees; wherein the ingenious author has, from the ſentiments of the learned Reaumur, and others, handled the ſubject with no leſs judgment than elegancy, by way of converſible entertainment.

And if our country gentlemen, in their retirement, would divert themſelves with making further improvements upon the induſtry of theſe ſagacious creatures, they would not only profit the trade of their country in general, in the articles of honey and wax, but might reap conſiderable advantage by their very amuſements.

The ſtudies of nature, and in what manner art may be applied to aid and aſſiſt her, is the great ſource of all diſcoveries for the benefit of trade. It is, therefore, ſubmitted whether apiaries may not be improveable from ſomething of the following principles:

1. From the due application of hot-houſes, ſo contrived to let in the dews at certain times, for the production, at all ſeaſons of the year, of ſuch flowers and plants as may afford proper matter for honey and wax, and protect theſe inſects from the inclemency of the weather, as well as from other animals which are their deſtroyers.

2. Whether, by ſuch-like means, bees might not be made to produce both honey and wax of ſuperior qualities to the ordinary, by extracting their materials from certain flowers and vegetables, which might, at the ſame time, adminiſter ſome peculiar medicinal virtues, adapted to the cure and preſervation of the human nature?

3. Whether common turf, in well contrived air-furnaces, might not be uſed as fuel, to keep ſuch-like hot-houſes competently warm for theſe purpoſes?

4. Whether water may not, at a ſmall expence, be artificially applied, like rain, in veſiculæ, upon thoſe flowers or vegetables?

5. Whether, upon the whole, heat and moiſture may not be ſo applied, under cover, in places built like barns, &c. at the leaſt expence that may be, ſo as to render bees conſiderably more profitable to the proprietors and the nation than they have yet ever been?

6. Whether helps of this kind, ſuperadded to all the ordinary ones which are practiſed, or have been ſuggeſted by the curious, may

may not contribute to the further improvement of the productions of thoſe inſects?

BEECH-TREE, a foreſt-tree. It is very thick, and full of branches. It grows admirably well in heavy lands, on mountains, and even in a ſtony or rocky ſoil. It has leaves ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the horſe-bean; the male flowers grow together in a round bunch, and are produced, at remote diſtances from the fruit, on the ſame tree. The fruit, which is called maſt, conſiſts of two triangular nuts, which are incloſed in a rough hairy rind, divided into four parts.

Beſides the common ſort, there are two others, the one with yellow ſtriped leaves, and the other with white ſtriped leaves; but theſe are only accidental varieties, which produce no real difference of ſpecies. Planters, indeed, would diſtinguiſh two or three ſorts, one of which they call the mountain-beech, which, they ſay, affords a much whiter timber than the other, which they call wild beech. But Mr Miller is of opinion that the difference in the colour of the wood is occaſioned by the places where the trees grow, which is often the caſe with moſt other ſorts of timber.

This tree is propagated by ſaving the maſt any time from October to February, obſerving only to ſecure the ſeeds from vermin when early ſowed, which, if carefully done, the ſooner they are ſown the better, after they are full ripe. A ſmall ſpot of ground is ſufficient for raiſing a great number of theſe trees from ſeed; but you muſt be very careful to keep them clear from weeds; and, if the plants come up very thick, you muſt not fail to draw out the ſtrongeſt of them the autumn following, that thoſe left may have room to grow: ſo that, if you huſband a ſeed-bed carefully, it will afford a three years draught of young plants, which ſhould be planted in a nurſery; and, if deſigned for timber-trees, at three feet diſtance from row to row, and 18 inches aſunder in the rows: but, if they are deſigned for hedges, to which this tree is very well adapted, the diſtance need not be ſo great; two feet from row to row, and one foot in the rows, will be ſufficient.

In this nurſery they may remain two or three years, obſerving to clear them from weeds, as alſo to dig up the ground between the roots at leaſt once a year, that their tender roots may the better extend themſelves each way; but you muſt be careful not to cut or bruiſe their roots, which is very injurious to all young trees; and never to dig the ground in ſummer, when the earth is hot and dry, which, by letting in the rays of the ſun to the root, is often the deſtruction of the young trees.

This tree will grow to a conſiderable height, though the ſoil be ſtony and barren, as alſo upon the declivities of hills and chalky mountains, where it will reſiſt the winds better than other trees; but then the nurſeries for the young plants ought to be upon the ſame ſoil; for, if they are raiſed in a good ſoil, and a warm expoſure, and afterwards tranſplanted into a bleak, barren ſituation, they ſeldom thrive: the nurſery, therefore, ſhould be made upon the ſame ſoil where the plantation is intended.

This tree is very proper to form large hedges, to ſurround plantations, and large wilderneſs quarters, and may be kept in a regular figure, if ſheared twice a year, eſpecially when they ſhoot ſtrong; in which caſe, if they are neglected but a ſeaſon or two, it will be difficult to reduce them again.

The ſhade of this tree is very injurious to moſt ſorts of plants which grow near it, but is generally believed to be very ſalubrious to human bodies. The two ſorts with variegated leaves may be propagated by budding, or grafting them upon the common ſort, obſerving not to plant them in a good earth, which will cauſe the buds, or cyons, to ſhoot vigorouſly, whereby the leaves will become plain, which often happens to variegated plants.

This tree affords but two articles for trade, namely, it's timber, and it's fruit, or ſeed. The wood of the beech is whitiſh, hard, dry, and crackles in the fire. In France it is commonly ſold in the foreſts cut into boards, ſtakes, and ſhingles, to be afterwards uſed in making houſhold furniture, and other joiners works. The boards ought to be from 11 to 12 inches broad, 13 lines thick, and 6, 9, or 12 feet long.

The beech timber is alſo ſold in laths, which are ſmall thin boards, deſigned for the drawer and trunk-makers.

They likewiſe make of this wood ſtaves, ſaddle-bows, &c.

It is very uſeful for making the keel and inſide of ſhips.

Beech wood is alſo uſed in making ſhovels, ſpoons, wooden ſhoes, and other ſuch ſmall wares.

Of the largeſt trunks of beech trees are made forms, and kitchen tables, which are 4, 5, 6, and 7 inches thick, and of different breadths and lengths, according as the trunks are more or leſs thick and long.

Beech-wood alſo makes good fuel; for which reaſon there is a great deal of it ſold in faggots, in cords of wood, in logs, &c.

The fruit, or ſeed of the beech-tree, which is a kind of nut, or acorn, called maſt, contains a kind of white and oily marrow, or pulp, of a ſweet taſte, and agreeable to eat, of which they make oil, very much eſteemed for frying, and for ſallads. This oil, which is very common in Picardy, and thoſe places where there are many beech-trees, is extracted cold by expreſſion, after the ſhell of the maſt has been taken off, and the pith broke, or bruiſed. There are ſome countries where hogs are fattened with beech-maſts, as they are with acorns in other places.

The common people in France uſe that oil inſtead of butter; but moſt of thoſe who uſe a great deal of it complain of pains and a heavineſs in the ſtomach. Monſieur Danty d'Iſnard has preſcribed a method to prevent thoſe inconveniencies. One muſt pour the oil of maſts, newly expreſſed, into ſtone pitchers, very cloſely ſhut, put them into the ground, and leave them there a year; after which time the oil will have loſt all it's bad qualities. Hiſtory of the royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1726.

BEER, a common and well-known liquor, made with malt and hops, and uſed in thoſe parts of Europe where vines will not grow, and where cyder is ſcarce, or little uſed.

To give the reader a particular account of the whole proceſs of making beer or ale, we ſhall firſt explain how the malt is made, and next how the liquor is brewed.

Sir Robert Murray deſcribes the method of making malt as follows: take good barley, newly threſhed; put about ſix Engliſh quarters in a ſtone trough, full of water, and let it ſteep therein till the water be of a bright reddiſh colour, which will be in about three days, more or leſs, according to the moiſture or dryneſs, ſmallneſs or bigneſs of the grain, the ſeaſon of the year, and the temperature of the air. In ſummer malt never makes well; in winter it requires longer ſteeping than in ſpring or autumn. It may be known when it is ſteeped enough by other marks, beſides the colour of the water: as by the exceſſive ſwelling of the grain, if it be over-ſteeped, or by too much ſoftneſs; being, when it is in a right temper, like the barley prepared to make broth of.

When it is ſufficiently ſteeped, take it out of the trough, and lay it on heaps, to let the water drain from it; then, after two or three hours, turn it over with a ſcoop, and lay it in a new heap, about 20 or 24 inches deep. This is called the coming heap, in the right management whereof lies the principal ſkill. In this heap it may lie 40 hours, more or leſs, according to the abovementioned qualities of the grain, &c. before it comes to the right temper of malt; which, that it may do equally, is the chief article wiſhed for.

While it lies in this heap, it muſt be carefully looked to after the firſt 15 or 16 hours; for, about that time, the grains begin to ſhoot roots; which, when they have equally and fully done, the malt muſt, within an hour after, be turned over with a ſcoop, otherwiſe the grains will begin to put forth the blade, or ſpire, alſo, which muſt by all means be prevented. If all the malt do not come equally, but that which lies in the middle, being warmeſt, comes the ſooneſt, you muſt turn it ſo as that the outmoſt may be inmoſt, and thus manage it till it be all alike.

As ſoon as the malt is ſufficiently come, turn it over and ſpread it to a depth not exceeding five or ſix inches; and, by that time it is all ſpread out, begin and turn it over and over again, three or four times; afterwards turn it over in like manner once in four or five hours, making the heap deeper by degrees; and continue ſo to do for the ſpace of 48 hours at leaſt. This frequent turning it over cools, dries, and deadens the grain, whereby it becomes mellow, melts eaſily in brewing, and ſeparates intirely from the huſk.

Then throw up the malt into a heap as high as you can, where let it lie till it grows as hot as your hand can endure it, which uſually happens in about 30 hours time: this perfects the ſweetneſs and mellowneſs of the malt.

After it is ſufficiently heated, throw it about to cool, and turn it over again about ſix or eight hours after, and then lay it on a kiln, with hair cloth or wire ſpread under it, where, after one fire, which muſt continue 24 hours, you muſt give another fire, more ſlow, and afterwards a third, if it be neceſſary; for, if the malt be not thoroughly dried, it cannot be well ground, neither will it diſſolve well in the brewing, but the ale or beer it makes will be red, bitter, and unfit to keep.

The beſt fuel is peat and turf, and next charcoal. If there be not enough of one kind, burn the beſt firſt, for that gives the ſtrongeſt impreſſion. Indeed, the beſt and moſt natural method of drying it is in the ſun, in the months of April or May. This yields the paleſt, the moſt wholeſome, and the fineſt liquor. However this be, take care the malt be not ſmoaked in the drying. As to the complexion, or colour of malt, white is accounted the beſt, becauſe it is moſt natural.

Having thus explained how the malt is prepared, we ſhall now proceed to give an account how beer and ale are brewed.

A quantity of water, being well boiled, is left to cool till the height of the ſteam be over, when ſo much is poured to a quantity of malt in the maſhing tub as makes it of a conſiſtence ſtiff enough to be juſt well rowed up; after ſtanding thus a quarter of an hour, a ſecond quantity of water is added, and rowed up as before. Laſtly, the full quantity of water is added, and that in proportion as the liquor is intended to be ſtrong or weak. This part of the operation is called maſhing. The whole now ſtands two or three hours, more or leſs, according to the ſtrength of the wort, or the difference of the weather, and then it is drawn off into a receiver, and the maſhing repeated for a ſecond wort, in the ſame manner as

the firſt, only the water to be cooler than before, and not to ſtand above half the time.

The two worts are then to be mixed, the intended quantity of hops added, and the liquor, cloſe covered up, gently boiled in a copper the ſpace of an hour or two, then let into the receiver, and the hops ſtrained from it into the coolers. When cool, the barm, or yeaſt, is applied, and it is left to work, or ferment, till it be fit to tun up.

For ſmall beer there is a third maſhing, with the water near cold, and not left to ſtand above three quarters of an hour, to be hopped and boiled at diſcretion. For double beer, or ale, the two liquors reſulting from the two firſt maſhings muſt be uſed as liquor for a third maſhing of freſh malt.

For fine ale the liquor thus brewed is further prepared with moloſſes.

Inſtead of yeaſt ſome uſe Caſtile ſoap, others flour and eggs, others an eſſential oil of barley, others a quinteſſence of malt, others of wine, and others of ſal paraniſtus.

Beer is chiefly diſtinguiſhed from ale by the quantity of hops, which is greater in beer, and thereby renders the liquor bitterer, and fitter to keep.

Here follow ſome extracts of the chief ſtatutes of England, relating to beer.

II. Stat. 1 Will. & Mar. ſtat. 1. cap. 22. ſect. 1. Any perſon may ſhip off, within any of the uſual and allowed ports by law, and at the common keys, and within the uſual hours of exciſe, to be exported into foreign parts, in the preſence of a ſworn officer, to be appointed by the farmers, &c. of exciſe within the limits where the ſame ſhall be ſhipped, any ſtrong ale, ſtrong beer, cyder, or mum, to be ſpent beyond the ſeas, paying cuſtom for the ſame after the rate of one ſhilling per ton, and no other duty: ſuch officer to certify the quantity ſo ſhipped off to the commiſſioners and officers of exciſe where the entry thereof ſhall be made, who are required to make allowances, and repay the exciſe of beer, ale, cyder, or mum ſo exported, to the brewer, or maker thereof, within one month after ſuch exportation, deducting three-pence per ton for the charges of their officers.

III. Sect. 2. If any perſon ſhall cauſe or ſuffer any liquor, ſo ſhipped, to be laid on land, or put into any other veſſel, within England, Wales, or Berwick, he ſhall forfeit the ſame, and 50 l. more for every caſk ſo unduly landed, or put on board any veſſel, the one moiety to the king, &c. the other to the informer. And their majeſties commiſſioners and officers of the cuſtoms ſhall charge every maſter of any veſſel, in his victualling-bill, with ſo much beer, ale, cyder, or mum, and no more, as ſuch number of men uſed to ſpend in ſuch voyages, the exciſe whereof to be recovered according to the laws eſtabliſhed.

IV. Sect. 3. The ſaid rate of 1 s. per ton for beer, &c. ſhall be levied and paid under ſuch rules and penalties, and in ſuch manner as by the laws of tonnage and poundage are ordained.

V. Sect. 4. No mum imported from foreign parts ſhall have any part of the cuſtom, or exciſe, repaid upon exportation.

VI. Stat. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 15. ſect. 1. for aſcertaining the meaſures for retailing ale and beer. All perſons retailing ale or beer ſhall ſell their ale and beer by a full ale-quart, or ale-pint, according to the ſtandard remaining with the chamberlain of the Exchequer, in a veſſel made of wood, earth, glaſs, horn, leather, pewter, or other wholeſome metal, marked from the ſaid ſtandard in the Exchequer, or city of London, or ſome other place where a ſtandard ſhall be kept; and not in any other veſſel not marked, on forfeiture of a ſum not exceeding 40 s. nor leſs than 10 s.

VII. Sect. 2. If any inn-keeper, alehouſe-keeper, &c. ſhall ſell any ale or beer, in a veſſel not marked, or deny to give the particular number of quarts, &c. in any reckoning, ſuch inn-keeper, &c. ſhall not, for non-payment of the reckoning, detain any of the perſon's things not paying the ſame, but be left to his action at law.

VIII. Sect. 3. The ſub-commiſſioners, or collectors of exciſe, ſhall procure a ſubſtantial ale-quart and ale-pint, of braſs, according to the Exchequer ſtandard, to be made, ſealed, and certified from the chamberlain's there, without fee, and delivered to the mayor, or chief officer, in each city, corporation, borough, and market-town, within their diviſions, where there is not one already; and, the chief officer giving a receipt for it, the ſame is to be delivered to the ſucceeding officer: the ſub-commiſſioner, or collector, to forfeit for every default therein 5 l.

IX. Sect. 5. Every mayor, or chief officer of every city, borough, or market-town, ſhall, on requeſt, cauſe all ſuch ale-quarts and pints, made of wood, &c. as ſhall be brought to him, to be meaſured and ſized with ſuch ſtandard, and marked with W. R. and a crown; which marks the ſaid mayor, or chief officer, are to provide, and to take not above a farthing for marking each meaſure. The mayor, or chief officer, not doing his duty therein, to forfeit 5 l. and treble charges to the party grieved.

X. Sect. 6. One moiety of the penalties in this act ſhall go to the poor of the place, the other to the proſecutor, to be recovered by the oath of a credible witneſs, before a juſtice of peace, and proſecution within 30 days after the offence committed, and the juſtice of peace to cauſe levy the penalty.

XI. Sect. 7. Nothing in this act ſhall extend to beer or ale ſold to be ſpent out of the houſe, if it be meaſured out by the ſtandard.

XII. Sect. 8. Actions brought againſt juſtices of peace, or perſons employed by them, upon the execution of this act, ſhall be laid in the proper county only, to which the general iſſue may be pleaded, &c. and upon a verdict, &c. the defendant to recover treble coſt.

XIII. Sect. 9. The juſtices of peace, at their quarter-ſeſſions, are to give this act in charge to the juries.

XIV. Sect. 10. This act ſhall not extend to colleges or halls in the univerſities.

XV. Stat. 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 11. ſect. 19. Nothing in the act 11 Will. III. cap. 15. ſhall extend to deprive the univerſities of their rights of ſeizing and marking of meaſures for ale and beer within their juriſdictions.

XVI. Stat. 13 Will. III. cap. 5. ſect. 34. No common brewer, inn-keeper, victualler, or retailer of beer and ale, ſhall uſe any ſugar, honey, foreign grains, Guinea pepper, the liquor called eſſenta bine, made from malt and water boiled up, coculus Indiæ, or any unwholeſome ingredients in the brewing or making of beer or ale; or mix any ſugar, &c. with any beer or ale in caſks, after the ſame is cleanſed, on pain of forfeiture of 20 l.

Mr Savary aſſerts, that beer is not only made in France with barley, but alſo with wheat, oats, rye, and even with tares, but never with the latter alone, and thoſe only with a ſmall quantity. He adds, that they mix hops with it to give it the taſte of wine, and that it is the flower of that plant which makes the beer heady, and proper to intoxicate. But in this laſt particular he is certainly miſtaken; for the hops give the beer only a bitter taſte, and ſerve to preſerve it; and it is the malt alone that gives it ſtrength. As for making beer with any other grain but barley, I do not know what may be done in other countries, but, in England, none is brewed but from barley-malt. There is, however, a kind of ale made of oats, which, for that reaſon, is called oat-ale.

He aſſerts, alſo, that part only of the grain to make beer muſt be malt, and that the proportion ought to be one fourth part of malt to three-fourths of freſh grain: and that, when tares are added, it is to give the beer a briſker taſte. He obſerves further, that, after the beer is brewed, ſome put ſugar, cinnamon, and cloves into it; and others honey and ſpice, to make it either ſtronger or more palatable.

He alſo tells us, that, in France, they make people believe that the Engliſh, in order to give the beer they brew in their country that ſtrength, which, in that reſpect, makes it preferable to any other beer made in Europe, and even to that of Mons and Bremen, they throw into the kettle ſome fleſh, which they cauſe to be conſumed in the boiling: but it is very likely that the goodneſs of their beer is only owing to their manner of brewing it, to the degree of boiling it, and to the ingredients they put into it, with which all other brewers are unacquainted.

Beer may be brewed in all ſeaſons, but that which is brewed in March, ſays Mr Savary, is the moſt excellent, and is better for keeping. In England we reckon the October beer the beſt. See BREWING and MALTING.

The trade of beer in France, does not extend much beyond that kingdom; but they have a very conſiderable trade of it at Paris, and in ſome provinces, particularly in Flemiſh and French Flanders, and in Picardy.

The duty of exportation is paid in France at the rate of 26 ſols per ton of beer, and of importation at the rate of 12 ſols per barrel; and that of England at 10 ſols the bottle.

Theſe duties are regulated by the tariff of the year 1664.

There are other regulations by the ordonnance of 1680, which relating only to themſelves, 'tis needleſs to give the long detail of.

BEGUQUELLA, a medicinal plant, the root of which is a ſovereign remedy for the bloody flux.

BEHEN, a medicinal root. } See BEN.
BEHEN, a fruit from which an oil is extracted. }

BEID, a plant which grows in Egypt, near the village of Matarea. The Egyptians call it oſſar, whence is derived the name given to it's fruit, which is beidelſar in Arabic, as the bordes oſſar, i. e. the egg oſſar, in Latin apocynum: Mr Miller calls it in Engliſh dog's-bane. This plant ſhoots a great many roots, from which ariſe ſeveral branches and ſuckers, each five or ſix feet high. It's leaves, which grow by pairs, are broad, very thick, and end in an oval. Whilſt they are ſtill young and tender, there iſſues from them a kind of milk, which curdles, or coagulates by the heat. It's bloſſoms are of ſaffron colour, inclining to red: they grow in bunches at the end of the branches, to which they adhere by long ſtalks, and where they form a ſort of crown turned towards the earth. The bees gather wax and excellent honey from theſe flowers. The ſeed and fruit is covered with a kind of cotton, ſofter than ſilk, and of which they make matreſſes and cuſhions: it is called wad. We muſt not forget to obſerve, that the milk, or milky juice, which diſtils from this admirable plant, is proper to curry or dreſs leather, and has ſeveral properties and uſes in medicine; it ſerving as a depilatory to make the hair fall off, and to cure the ſcurf, the itch,

itch, and other ſmall tumours, which are formed upon the ſkin. The leaves boiled in water, or even raw, being applied to ſcrophulous ſwellings, cure them by tranſpiration. There are ſeen at Paris, in the gardens of ſome curious perſons, ſeveral plants of beid, but of which they could not preſerve the ſpecies; the ſeed growing and blowing there, but without producing any ſeed afterwards. They have in France ſome trade of the cotton of this plant; but what is imported thither from the Levant, is not conſiderable, and ſerves for curioſity rather than for uſe.

Mr Miller gives us the following account of this plant, and its ſeveral kinds.

The leaves are produced oppoſite by pairs, upon the branches; the flower conſiſts of one leaf, which is cut into ſeveral ſegments; from its flower-cup ariſes the pointal, which is fixed like a nail in the back-part of the flower, and is afterwards changed into a fruit, which is, for the moſt part, compoſed of two capſules, or pods, which open from the baſe to the top, incloſing many ſeeds, which have a long pappous down adhering to them; to this may be added, that the whole plant abounds with a milky juice.

There are ſeveral ſorts of this plant cultivated in the curious gardens, ſome of which are very beautiful. We ſhall mention the different ſpecies of this plant, which are cultivated in the Engliſh gardens.

1. The upright broad-leaved hoary Syrian dog's-bane, with purpliſh-coloured flowers.
2. The upright narrow-leaved Canada dog's-bane.
3. The broad-leaved upright Canada dog's-bane.
4. The American dog's-bane, with tutſan leaves and red flowers, like the lily of the valley.
5. The ſhrubby upright dog's-bane, with roundiſh green leaves.
6. The upright willow-leaved African dog's-bane, with hairy fruit.
7. The African creeping dog's-bane, with leaves like money-wort.
8. The upright dog's-bane, with oblong leaves and ſcarlet flowers, called by ſome baſtard ipecacuanha.
9. The narrow-leaved Canada apocynum, with orange-coloured flowers.
10. The upright Maryland dog's-bane, with roundiſh leaves, and deep red flowers.

The firſt of theſe dog's-banes is a prodigious creeper at the root, and will in a ſhort time overſpread a large compaſs of ground, and muſt never be planted too near other plants or flowers, which would be over-run by this plant and deſtroyed; but it may have a place in ſome obſcure part of the garden; for it is extremely hardy, and will thrive in almoſt any ſoil or ſituation. It grows to be ſix or ſeven feet high, and produces large umbels of flowers, which have a ſtrong ſweet ſmell, but are of a poiſonous nature; as are all the true apocynum, and therefore ſhould not be planted in the way of children, who may receive damage by breaking any part of the plant, and letting the milky juice, with which they abound, run upon the tender part of their fleſh, which will be apt to bliſter it. Theſe flowers are ſometimes ſucceeded by large oblong pods, which contain a great quantity of a ſoft cottony ſubſtance, that adheres to the ſeeds, and are of ſervice to tranſport them to a diſtance, when ripe. This plant dies to the root in winter, and riſes again the ſucceeding ſpring.

The ſecond, third, fourth, and tenth ſorts, are all of them very hardy, and may be planted in the open ground, but muſt have a dry ſoil. All theſe produce large fine flowers, and are propagated by parting their roots in March, after the cold weather is paſt; for they ſeldom produce any ripe ſeed with us.

The fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and eighth ſorts, are tender, and muſt be preſerved in pots, and houſed in winter.

The fifth and ſixth ſorts will grow very ſhrubby, and ſometimes to the height of eight or nine feet, and do produce bunches of flowers, which in the ſixth ſort are of a whitiſh green, and in the fifth of a worn-out purple colour, but are of no great beauty or ſmell. Theſe are increaſed by planting cuttings in any of the ſummer months, in pots of light ſandy earth, plunging them into a moderate hot-bed, ſhading them from the great heat of the ſun, and giving them gentle refreſhings of water. Theſe muſt have a good greenhouſe in winter, and muſt not have too much water in that ſeaſon.

The ſeventh ſort is a climbing plant, and will twiſt itſelf round a ſtake, and grow to the height of ſeven or eight feet, and in ſummer will produce, from the joints, ſmall umbels of worn-out purple-coloured flowers, which are extremely ſweet: this is propagated by laying down the young ſhoots, which do eaſily take root, or by parting the roots of the old plants.

The eighth ſort is the moſt tender of them all, and requires a moderate ſtove to preſerve it in winter. This produces extremely beautiful orange-coloured flowers, which often are ſucceeded by ripe ſeeds. This plant may be increaſed, by planting cuttings in June, in a moderate hot-bed, but muſt have little water, and be ſecured from the violent heat of the ſun, and cold in the night. But the beſt way to propagate them, is by ſowing the ſeeds in a hot-bed in March; and, when the plants are come up, prick them into ſmall pots, and plunge them into another hot-bed, to bring them forwards: and in June you may begin to expoſe them to the open air, at which time they will begin to flower; but it will be adviſeable to preſerve one or two of the ſtrongeſt in the hot-bed, in order to procure good ſeeds.

The ninth ſort is tolerably hardy, and only requires to be ſkreened from the extreme cold in winter, and perhaps, if it were planted into the full ground under a warm wall, it would do very well. This plant produces beautiful umbels, of orange-coloured flowers, which continue moſt part of the month of Auguſt, and deſerves a place in the moſt curious gardens. It is propagated by parting the roots in March, or ſowing the ſeeds, which in a good ſeaſon do ripen tolerably well with us.

BEIGE SERGE. It is the name which the people of Poitou give to a ſort of ſerge, which is black, grey, or tawny: others call it ſheep-coloured ſerge, or natural ſerge; becauſe the wool with which it was manufactured, was never dyed, being employed both for the warp and for the woof, ſuch as it came from the ſheep. Beiges ought to be compoſed of 38 or 39 reeds at leaſt, each reed being of 20 threads.

BEIRA, a principality of Portugal, is divided on the north from the province Entre Duero and Minho; it is bounded by the ocean on the weſt, and by ſome part of Eſtremadura; on the ſouth by another part of that province, and by the Tagus, or Taio; and on the eaſt it runs contiguous to the Spaniſh Eſtremadura, and the kingdom of Leon.

AVEIRO is a conſiderable market-town, ſituate on a bay, at the mouth of a creek, which is pretty large, and forms a kind of haven: in it are made vaſt quantities of ſalt, which are exported, ſome into other parts of the kingdom, and the reſt into foreign countries.

REMARKS.

The country, though not ſo rich and fertile as ſome in this kingdom, or moſt in Spain, is yet capable of producing good corn, wine, and other uſeful commodities, if rightly cultivated. But a great part of the people of this province are ſo exceſſively lazy, that they had rather beg, ſteal, or do any thing, than cultivate their land as they ought.—This is owing to the pride and oppreſſion of the great ones; to their contempt of the lower people; and to their diſcouragement of honeſt induſtry among them, rather than any natural propenſity they have to idleneſs. Could people of diſtinction be induced to encourage, inſtead of diſtreſſing and deſpiſing them, we need not doubt but it would prove more intereſting to themſelves; the labour and traffic of the maſs of the people being the only ſource of the wealth and grandeur of the nobles and gentry. There are, however, a number of cities and noted towns, which are in a pretty flouriſhing condition, and carry on ſeveral laudable manufactures, though not to ſo great an height, and ſo good profit, as they have heretofore; which has impoveriſhed the eſtates of the gentry, in proportion as the trade and manufactures have declined; all which muſt be aſcribed to the ill policy, and egregious defects of the Portugueſe conſtitution and government, which ſeems calculated to enſlave and impoveriſh the bulk of the people, rather than to incite them to become induſtrious and rich: to which may be added, that the lands are, as it were, abſolutely in the hands of the nobility, gentry, and clergy; and wherever that is the caſe, whether in Portugal, or in any other country, the majority of the people will be as poor and beggarly as thoſe of this province.

The country, 'tis certain, is well fitted for inland produce; being leſs mountainous than ſome towards the north, and likewiſe better watered than ſome others. Its chief rivers are the Lomba, Arda, Paiva, Tevora, Tourones, and Coa; all which fall into the Duero; thoſe of Zezer, Ponſul, Aravil, and Elia, which empty themſelves into the Taja; and the Mendego and Vouga, which, after taking in conſiderable ſtreams, run into the ocean.

BELELAIS. Silk ſtuffs after the manner of taffeties, which are manufactured in the kingdom of Bengal. They meaſure forty cobres in length by two in breadth, at the rate of 17 inches and $\frac{1}{4}$ per cobre. The Engliſh who trade from Madras to the Manilles, carry thither great quantities of thoſe ſtuffs.

BELEMNITES, or LYNX-STONE, as ſome call it, in Latin lapis lyncis, or dactylus idæus, and called by others in Engliſh, the arrow-head, or finger-ſtone. It is a long ſtone, nearly of the bigneſs of one's finger, ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs, round, pointed, or of a pyramidical figure, repreſenting an arrow. They are of different colours, ſome white, ſome grey, ſome brown: they are generally imported from Candia, but ſome alſo come from the Alps, and from many parts of France, Switzerland, and Germany. They are found even in ſandy places near Paris. There are two ſorts of them; the one, being put into the fire, ſends forth a bituminous ſcent, the other emits no ſcent at all. The former is probably, ſay ſome, what the ancients called lyncurius, which they falſly imagined to be a ſort of ſuccinum, formed out of the coagulated urine of the lynx. But,

The belemnites is really a foſſil ſtone, which reſembles talc by its weight and colour. Its exterior form has occa-

ſioned it to be taken by ſome for the petrified tooth of an animal, and its inward colour has made others take it for a petrified horn.

The learned naturaliſt, Dr Woodward, gives us, at the end of his Natural Hiſtory of the Earth, the origin and conſtitution of the belemnites; wherein he endeavours to prove, that it is a true foſſil, and of a mineral kind: he refutes thoſe who imagine that it is formed in a ſhell, or in an outward mould: for it is always found contiguous to a maſs of ſtone, without any void ſpace between. There are ſome belemnites, which are near two feet long, and about two inches diameter in the biggeſt place. He alſo refutes thoſe who imagined it was a horn or a tooth of ſome extraordinary fiſh. Some of theſe ſtones are indeed of the figure of a horn, but that is not generally true; for they are of all ſorts of figures, quite different the one from the other.

This ſtone has a particular ſmell, when taken out of the earth; but thoſe of England have commonly no ſmell. A great many of them are found in the chalk, but none of thoſe which Dr Woodward ſaw, had any ſcent. Thoſe that have any, had it communicated to them by the ſaline, ſulphureous, or bituminous matters, among which they had been in the ground.

The belemnites are very common, and to be found almoſt every-where. They agree in ſeveral particulars with ſome minerals. Some of them are half tranſparent, and yellowiſh, and reſemble pretty much common amber, which made the ancients give the name of lapis lyncurius, both to amber and to the belemnites.

As to the conſtitution of the belemnites, their ſubſtance is not tough and ſticky, as that of animals, but friable and brittle, like that of talc and other ſuch foſſils. At ſight it appears mineral, and proves alſo to be ſo by the chymical operations, and by all the trials that are made of it. Its fibres cut its axis diametrically, like thoſe of ſeveral minerals. So that Dr Woodward does not think he ſhall be charged with raſhneſs for aſſerting, that the belemnites are foſſils of the nature of talc. They have the ſame ſpecific gravity with talc, and are of the ſame contexture and conſtitution. The curious reader may conſult that famous philoſopher, upon this ſubject, we giving him only an abſtract of his obſervations, which is ſufficient for our purpoſe.

Here it is proper to take notice of what Theophraſtus ſays upon the lapis lyncurius, as alſo what his ingenious and learned annotator, Dr Hill, has obſerved upon the belemnites.

Theophraſtus ſays, that the lapis lynceus is excellent in its virtues, and is uſed for engraving ſeals on, and is of a very ſolid texture, as ſtones are; it has alſo an attractive power, like that of amber, and is ſaid to attract not only ſtraws and ſmall pieces of ſticks, but even copper and iron, if they are beaten into thin pieces. This Diocles affirms.

The lapis lyncurius is pellucid, and of a fine colour: and thoſe ſtones which are produced from the animal in its native wildneſs, are better than thoſe from the tame; as alſo thoſe from the male, than thoſe from the female: as the different nouriſhment the creature eats, and the different exerciſe it uſes, as well as the difference of its whole habit of body, in being either drier or moiſter, make great differences in the ſtones.

They are found, in digging, by people who are ſkilful; though the creature, when it has voided its urine, hides it, and heaps the earth together about it. The poliſhing theſe ſtones is alſo a work of great trouble.

Upon this account of Theophraſtus, Dr Hill obſerves, ‘that ‘there has been more confuſion and error about the lapis lyncurius of the ancients, than about any other ſubſtance in the ‘whole foſſil kingdom. What I have to offer, in regard to ‘it, is very different from the generally received opinions; ‘theſe are, however, firſt to be examined; for, if they are ‘right, this has no title to be heard.

‘The firſt and moſt generally received is, that it was what ‘we now call the belemnites: this is the opinion of Woodward, &c. &c. &c. how true this is, is to be examined ‘from their accounts; and as they are, moſt of them, only ‘copies, and thoſe often erroneous ones, of Theophraſtus, ‘he is, where his deſcriptions are long enough, always firſt ‘to be conſulted, and moſt relied on; and from his words ‘I venture to pronounce it evident, that the lapis lyncurius ‘was not the belemnites. He firſt ſays it was fit for engraving ‘ſeals on; which every one who ever ſaw a belemnites, muſt ‘pronounce impoſſible to have been meant of it; its texture rendering it the moſt improper ſubſtance imaginable ‘for ſuch uſes. And next, that it was of a very ſolid texture, like that of the ſtones or gems; the firſt ſight of a ‘belemnites muſt alſo prove, that this was not meant of it; ‘for it is not of a ſolid texture, nor of a grain, as we call it, ‘any way reſembling that of a ſtone, but compoſed of a ‘number of tranſverſe ſtriæ, and of the texture, ſpecific ‘gravity, and hardneſs of talc, which could never give it a ‘title to what our author ſays of the lyncurius; that it was ‘not only hard and ſolid, but extremely ſo. Hence, I preſume, I may venture to pronounce this, which is the common opinion, evidently erroneous, and that the lapis lyncurius of the ancients was not the belemnites.

‘The few who diſſent from this opinion, of the number of ‘whom are Geoffroy, Geſner *, &c. hold, that the lapis ‘lyncurius of the ancients was no other than amber. This ‘is the ſecond and only other opinion worth naming, and ‘the favourers of it bring many paſſages from the copiers of ‘the ancients to confirm it: all which ſerve to prove what I ‘have before obſerved, that many quote the ancients who ‘have never read them; and ſhow how uſeful, and, indeed, ‘abſolutely neceſſary, a correct edition of the work of this ‘author is, in reſearches of this kind. This opinion is even ‘more eaſily than the other proved erroneous from the ‘words of the author, who not only compares the lyncurius, in ſome of its properties, to amber, which I have before obſerved in a parallel caſe in the notes on the ſapphire †, [ſee the article SAPPHIRE] is ſufficient proof, ‘that they cannot be the ſame; as no body would ever think ‘of comparing a thing to itſelf: but after having gone ‘through a complete deſcription of the lyncurius, according ‘to the received, though erroneous, opinion of thoſe times, ‘of its being produced from the urine of the lynx, he begins a ſeparate account of amber under its own proper ‘name, and ſhews he was well acquainted with its nature ‘and properties, and knew it to be a native foſſil. Hence ‘it is, therefore, alſo evident, that the lapis lyncurius was not ‘amber, and that the generally received opinions of it are ‘both evidently erroneous.

* Ego lyncurium a ſuccino differre non video; & id quoque pro gemma habitum olim, præſertim quod aureo colore pellucet & ſplendet, minime dubito.

† See Theophraſtus's Hiſtory of Stones, with an Engliſh verſion, and critical and philoſophical notes. By John Hill, M. D. pages 59, 60, 61.

‘That ſuch who had not read the ancients themſelves, ſhould ‘fall into errors of this kind, from the obſcurity and confuſion of thoſe who copied from them, we cannot wonder. ‘But here it may not be amiſs to obſerve, that it is not the ‘ancients themſelves, but theſe copiers and quoters of them, ‘who are generally obſcure. Epiphanius, who was better ‘acquainted with them, has made a different gueſs, and is, ‘indeed, the firſt author who has had the leaſt thought of ‘what, I ſhall attempt to prove, is evidently the truth in ‘regard to this ſtone.

‘What it is not, has been ſufficiently proved. It remains ‘to enquire what it really is: the way to judge of this is, to ‘conſider what the ancients have left us about it: what Theophraſtus ſays we have before us; that it was of a ſtony ‘texture is plain from his account, and may be confirmed ‘from all thoſe who wrote more determinately; they have ‘always called it λίθος λαγῳρίος. Epiphanius has, εὕρομεν ‘δε λαγῳρίου ἕτω καλῳμενον λίθον. And Pliny, l. 8. c. 38. ‘Lyncum humor ita redditus, ubi gignuntur, glaciatur areſcitque in gemmas carbunculis ſimiles, & igneo colore fulgentes ‘lyncurium vocatas. Can any one imagine this a deſcription of the belemnites? All that we find in the ancients ‘about it, in ſhort, is of this kind, and determines the lapis ‘lyncurius to have been a tranſparent gem, of no determinate ‘ſhape, and of a yellowiſh red or flame colour, ſometimes ‘paler, and ſometimes deeper, which diſtinguiſhes it into ‘male and female, as we ſhall ſee hereafter from Theophraſtus; and of a texture fit for engraving on.

‘Had the ancients meant to have deſcribed our belemnites, ‘they would not only not have named any one of theſe characters, but would certainly have deſcribed its ſhape, ‘which is the moſt ſtriking, obvious, and remarkable thing ‘about it. We are therefore to ſeek for ſome ſtone better ‘anſwering this deſcription; and this we find, even to the ‘utmoſt exactneſs, in the gem which we now call the hyacinth, which it is alſo evident they have never deſcribed ‘under any other name but this (for what they called the ‘hyacinth, was a ſtone of a very different kind, and reckoned by us either among the garnets or amethyſts) and ‘which it is not eaſy to conceive how they could better or ‘more exactly have deſcribed, than they have in their accounts of the lyncurius. Hill's Theoph. p. 73, 74, 75.

REMARKS.

Leſt ſome may imagine that it is needleſs to dwell ſo long upon articles of this kind, in a work of commerce, it ſhould be conſidered, that the ſtudy of natural hiſtory, in every reſpect, hath adminiſtered the original matter for univerſal traffic. For manufactures of every kind being made of ſome ſubſtances, and the foſſil and mineral kingdom affording no leſs matter for theſe purpoſes than the vegetable or animal, that ſhould not be wholly neglected in a work of this nature.

The dealers in precious ſtones, minerals, and metals, certainly are conſiderable enough to deſerve our regard. Nor does the foſſil kingdom, from the diamond to the pebble, admit only of extenſive objects for traffic, when duly managed by our mechanical artiſt, but they afford extraordinary medicinal virtues, both from pharmaceutical and chymical p e-

parations. And whether they may not be much more introduced into the art of dyeing, and thereby render that operation far leſs expenſive than it is at preſent, may deſerve conſideration. Cochineal and orchelia, and many other ingredients uſed in the art of dyeing, come extremely dear in compariſon, perhaps, to what many productions of the foſſil kind would do, was this branch of the works of nature duly cultivated, and the properties of thoſe bodies ſkilfully analyzed. For the perfection of the art of dyeing conſiſts in diſcovering fixed, bright, and permanent colours, not ſubject to change for the worſe in the open air; and ſuch colours ſhould rather be expected from mineral, foſſil, or metallic matters, than from thoſe of the vegetable and animal kingdoms; which uſually afford ſubjects of too lax and alterable a texture for permanent colours.

Iron and ſteel are uſed in the dyeing of all true blacks (called Spaniſh blacks) though not in Flanders blacks; alſo copperas, ſteel filings, and ſlippe, which is the ſtuff found in the troughs of grind-ſtones, whereon edge-tools have been ground. They uſe pewter for bow-dye, ſcarlet; viz. they diſſolve bars of pewter in the aqua fortis they uſe; and nitre and all other ſorts come under the foſſil kingdom.—Arſenic is uſed in crimſon, to give it luſtre.—Of mineral ſalts uſed in dyeing, the chief are allum, argol, and ſalt-petre, or nitre. See the article DYEING.

This part of nature affords variety of materials for painting. Many mineral ſubjects are natural pigments; as native cinnabar, ochre, black lead, &c. but particularly the yellow earth called light ochre, found in Shottover-hills, which is uſed native as a light yellow, and by calcination makes a light red. This colour England ſupplies Italy with; and Le Gar would frequently ſay, he had been no painter without it. Moreover, thoſe who have no reliſh for the contemplation of nature, either out of curioſity, or with a view generouſly to communicate ſomething beneficial to mankind, ſhould be incited, methinks, from their own private intereſt, to obtain ſome knowledge of this kind. For the worth of land does not always conſiſt in what it produces upon its ſuperficies: nor are mines and metals the only things, which have often greatly enriched their poſſeſſors; fine marles, clays, and ſands, have frequently made one acre of land worth fifty, which were contiguous to it. Windſor loam, pipe-makers clay, fine pottery earths, Woolwich ſand for glaſs-making, are glaring inſtances of the truth hereof. Has not many an eſtate been greatly enriched by quarries of ſtone, marble, and alabaſter, as well as by common lime-ſtone, coal, and ſalts? and all which for centuries have lain concealed, till ſome body of ſkill and diſcernment has made the diſcovery. To what good account have turned, in the way of traffic, the Lemnian earth, the earth of Malta, and various boles, chalks, and talcs? Has not many an eſtate been greatly improved by allum, vitriol, and metallic foſſils of divers kinds? Thoſe who look upon the earth and all nature with a philoſophical eye, do not only receive unſpeakably more joy and ſatisfaction than the ignorant in their contemplation, but have a much greater chance to improve an eſtate, by their ſuperior knowledge in the works of nature.

Nor is it enough to know and diſtinguiſh the natural productions by name; their qualities ſhould be diſcovered by art, or their worth cannot be aſcertained, becauſe their proper application cannot be judged of. To diſcover the properties of bodies, ſome knowlege in analytical chymiſtry is requiſite. On which conſideration among others it is, that we ſhall, in the courſe of this work, advance ſo far into practical chymiſtry, as to enable the country gentleman, at a ſmall expence, to examine the internal parts of his eſtate, and to make juſt and accurate eſſays of any of its peculiar productions, in order to be informed of the uſes, to which they may be moſt profitably applied.

BELL, a well known inſtrument, ranked by Merſenne and other muſicians, among thoſe of percuſſion.

The metal of which it is made, is a componnd of tin and copper, or pewter and copper; the proportion of one to the other is about twenty pounds of pewter, or twenty-three pounds of tin, to one hundred weight of copper.

The conſtituent parts of a bell are the body, or barrel, the clapper, and the ear or cannon, by which it hangs to a large beam of wood.

The bell-founders diſtinguiſh two ſorts of proportions, viz. the ſimple, and the relative. The ſimple are thoſe which ought to be between the ſeveral parts of a bell, and which experience has ſhewn to be neceſſary to render it agreeably ſonorous. The relative proportions are thoſe, which fix a due relation between two or more, whereby their combined ſounds may produce the deſigned harmony.

The parts of a bell are, 1. The ſounding bow, or the ſmaller circle which terminates it, growing thinner and thinner: 2. The brim or the belly, or that part whereon the clapper ſtrikes, and which, on that account, is thicker than the other parts. 3. The outward ſtriking of the middle of the bell, or, rather, the point under which it grows wider and wider to the brim. 4. The waiſt or furniture, or that part which grows wider and thicker, by a ſupply of metal, which is larger and larger quite to the brim. 5. The upper vaſe, or that half of the bell which riſes above the waiſt. 6. The pallet, or crown, which is the cover of the bell, and ſupports the ſtaple of the clapper within. 7. The crown, which are branches of metal uniting with the cannons, bent, and hollowed through, to receive the iron-keys, by means of which the bell is hung up to the beam, which is at once its ſupport and counterpoiſe, when it is rung out.

The founder begins by taking the thickneſs of the brim of the bell to be caſt, or the thickneſs of the brim of the largeſt bell, when he is to make many agree together with different notes. The brim is the fundamental rule of the whole work. To meaſure that thickneſs, he uſes compaſſes with bent legs, and carries this meaſure upon a rule, divided into feet, inches, and lines.

Reaſon and experience taught our ancient founders, that making their bells all of a ſhape, that is, of equal width and thickneſs every-where, would produce but a very dull ſound at very great coſt. Making the upper part of the vaſe ſmaller than the reſt is enough: they have, by repeated trials, found out the neceſſity of diminiſhing the thickneſs of it conſiderably. Whenever they have been laviſh of the metal, and have made a bell of an exceſſive thickneſs, it produced only a confuſed humming. The founders obtained a more lively ſound, by leſſening the expence, by the gradual ſhortening of the diameter of the bell upwards, and the ſucceſſive diminution to a certain degree in the thickneſs of it: but they were ſtill croſſed by an inconvenience, which led them at laſt to the form now in faſhion for bells. The bell is ſonorous in its whole extent. The ſound of the brim, which is the thickeſt part of it, is of courſe predominant, even ſo as to weaken, and ſometimes totally drown, the ſound of the upper vaſe. But it often happens, that they are heard both in the ſmall bells, and more diſtinctly than in the larger. A ſingle bell may then produce an harmony, and the combination of the two ſounds will be pleaſant or diſagreeable, according to the proportion of the upper with the inferior diameter.

If the upper vaſe is exactly ſubordinate, or half of the inferior, that is, ſeven brims and an half to fifteen; this will be the ratio of two to one, or of the whole to one half. And as the ſtring of a baſe-viol gives the Ut grave, whilſt its half gives the Ut ſharp, the diameter of the upper vaſe being in the proportion of one to two, or of the half to the whole, whilſt the brim gives the Ut grave, the upper vaſe will ſound the ſharp octave, which is an agreeable concord, and is heard in almoſt all bells without being remarked, becauſe the two notes of a juſt octave reſemble much the uniſon. But, when the upper vaſe is ſomewhat more or leſs wide, it may make us hear, together with the ſound of the brim, an interval of a ſeventh or a ninth, or any other interval. That ſeventh makes a diſcord; and the ninth, which is not a fine conſonance, may be diminiſhed, and make a falſe octave with the predominant tone of the ſecond bell. But here is a ſtill greater cacophony.

The ſharp octave is not only moſt commonly heard in conjunction with the ſound of the brims, but there are bells in which, beſides the foregoing ſounds, you moreover hear the ſound of the third's place, or of that part which grows wider and wider below the waiſt; according to the bent given to this part, it will prove more or leſs ſunk and thick. Here is that which will reſult from the diverſity of the thickneſs, which is a neceſſary conſequence of the variety of the methods followed by founders in their proportions. When you put a few drops of water in a glaſs, and, with the tip of your finger dipped in that water, rub the brink of the glaſs circularly, the whole vaſe begins to reſound, and changes its tone, in proportion as you put more or leſs water into it. The liquor being but one body with the glaſs as it were, the ſound of it becomes grave in proportion, as the quantity of matter increaſes; and it becomes ſharper, as you diminiſh the quantity of the liquor. The third's place of the bell may then add to the predominant ſound of the brim, and ſo its ſharp octave, produced by the upper vaſe, a third or a fourth, or any other conſonance good or bad, according to the nature of the beat, which admits more or leſs metals, as it ſwells or flattens theſe parts more or leſs.

This third ſound is not difficult to be diſtinguiſhed in the two fine bells of St Germain des Prez. Our moſt ſkilful founders, and moſt learned harmoniſts, agree unanimouſly, that they have heard nothing more perfect in this kind, than the concord of five of theſe mingled ſounds in the two large bells of the cathedral of Rheims, and of three very diſtinct ones in the biggeſt of the two, which is twenty-four thouſand pounds weight, according to the inſcription. When this laſt is rung alone, it ſtrikes with equal clearneſs the two octaves along with a third tone, which makes a fourth with the grave, and the inverted fifth with the ſharp octave. When both bells ring in company the two grave ſounds, which are very ſoft and argentine, are always accompanied with two fourths of the utmoſt brightneſs and truth. They are not heard leſs diſtinctly than the two loweſt tones. From theſe four ſounds, always ſurmounted with the upper octave

of

of the ſharpeſt bell, there reſults an harmony which affects thoſe who have no ſkill in point of muſic, although they think they hear but two ſounds inſtead of five.

But the combination of theſe different ſounds, which is the effect of the ingenious ſtructure of the bell, and which muſt needs pleaſe, when juſt, may become falſe, and even render an excellent piece of metal very diſagreeable, when the founder does not direct the proportions of his bell rightly, or when, having a bell to reſtore to a concordant chime, he happens to follow, in the new caſting of it, proportions different from the caſting of the other. An irregular ſound, going in company with that of the brims, proves diſcordant, and makes a falſe harmony, although you think you hear but one ſound; the ear is offended by it without knowing why. If theſe ſounds, already ill ſorted in one ſingle bell, come to be mixed with thoſe of another, the diſcordance is greater ſtill. A founder, who would exactly determine all the effects which muſt needs reſult from ſuch or ſuch ſimple proportions, ought to have a theory much ſuperior to that of a country bell-founder, who has no other guide but his old method and traditional rules.

A no leſs diſorder is reigning in the relative proportions that fix the concordance of ſeveral bells. The workmen govern themſelves herein upon the campanary ſcale, the uſe whereof they make a great myſtery; but father Merſenne has long ſince made that matter publick. This learned monk has demonſtrated it to be defective, repugnant to the rules of harmony, and liable to miſtakes that may ruin them, from their being obliged to re-caſt a large ſet of bells at their own expence. Whoever deſires may ſee this matter minutely treated of by father Merſenne himſelf, in the ſeventh book of his Univerſal Harmony, containing the theory and practice of muſic, from page 1 to page 46, in folio, printed at Paris 1636. In regard to their caſting, ſee FOUNDERY.

BELLASOR. The Portugueſe and the Dutch pronounce thus, and ſpell the name thus in their maps, rather than Balaſſor, or Balaſore, or Belaſora. It is a large village in the kingdom of Orixa, near the borders of Bengal, and ſtands on a fine river three leagues from the ſea, between the cape, or Punte de los Palmeres, and the mouth of the Ganges. The Engliſh, Dutch, and French, have each a factory there. There comes a ſtuff called Bellaſor, from this place where it is manufactured: it is made of the herba, which is the rind of a certain tree, which, being prepared and drawn out fine, works like ſilk, and is manufactured either with cotton or with ſilk. The Engliſh import the Bellaſors into Europe. The pieces are 14 ½ yards long, and ½ a yard broad, Engliſh meaſure. There are fine handkerchiefs of this ſtuff. See BENGAL.

BELLOWS, an inſtrument which ſerves to draw in the air, and expel it again. It is uſed in chambers and kitchens, in forges, furnaces, and founderies, to briſk up the fire. It ſerves alſo for organs, and other pneumatic inſtruments and machines, to give them a proper degree of air or wind.

This inſtrument is compoſed of two flat boards, ſometimes of an oval, and ſometimes of a triangular, figure. Two or more hoops, bent according to the figure of the boards, are placed between them: a piece of leather, broad in the middle, and narrow at both ends, is nailed on the edges of the boards, which it thus unites together, as alſo on the hoops which ſeparate the boards, that the leather may the eaſier open and fold again. A tube of iron or copper, and ſometimes of ſilver for chamber-bellows, is faſtened to the undermoſt board, in which there are ſeveral holes; that tube is called the noſe, or nozel; finally, there is a piece of leather within the machine, which ſerves as a valve, or ſucker, and covers the holes in the under board, that the air, which comes in through thoſe holes, when the upper board is raiſed, may be expelled with force through the nozel, when that board is moved down.

The bellows uſed in the forges of ſilverſmiths, lockſmiths, farriers, blackſmiths, founders, &c. whether they be ſingle or double, are moved up and down by means of an iron chain faſtened to them, and pulled by the workman.

The bellows uſed in founderies, and for furnaces where metals are melted down, and thoſe of the forges where large iron works are made, as anchors for ſhips, &c. are generally ſet a going by the wheels of ſome water-mill.

The Heſſian bellows are a contrivance for driving air into a mine, for the reſpiration of the miners. This M. Papin improved, changing it's cylindrical form into a ſpiral one; and with this, working it only with his foot, he could make a wind to raiſe two pound weight.

Other bellows, as particularly thoſe of enamellers, are moved by one or more ſteps, which the workman has under his feet.

Finally, the organ-bellows are blowed by a man. Theſe bellows, which give air to the ſeveral pipes, that form the tones of the organs, are of a particular make, different from the others, and are a kind by themſelves; we mention them in another place.

The butchers do alſo uſe bellows of an extraordinary ſtructure, to blow and ſwell the fleſh after the beaſts are killed, to ſkin and cut it the eaſier.

There are ſeveral workmen who make thoſe different ſorts of bellows: but yet, in France, they all belong to the ſame company, which is that of the turners.

BENGAL, the moſt eaſterly province of the Mogul's dominions in India, lies upon the mouth of the Ganges, and is bounded by the provinces of Patna and Jeſnat on the north; the kingdoms of Arracan and Tipra on the eaſt; the bay of Bengal and the province of Orixa on the ſouth; and by the provinces of Narvar and Malva on the weſt; extending near 400 miles in length, from eaſt to weſt, and 300 in breadth, from north to ſouth; and, being annually overflowed by the river Ganges, as Egypt is by the Nile, is one of the richeſt and moſt fruitful provinces in India.

The bay is the largeſt and deepeſt in the world, except that of Mexico, and much larger than that, if it be carried no further than it is by our modern geographers, viz. from the moſt weſtern land of Cuba on the north, to the eaſtermoſt land of Yucatan on the ſouth. The extent given to this bay, is, from the moſt ſouthern point of the Iſle of Ceylon, on the weſt, to Achem, on the moſt northern point of the iſland of Sumatra, on the eaſt, and thence to the coaſt of Malacca; being 20 degrees of longitude, or 780 miles; and, as it ſtrikes out from the Indian ocean towards the north, between India and the peninſula of Malacca, it ſtretches from the latitude of 6 to the entrance of Ganges in 23, which is 17 degrees, or 1020 miles. In fact, the bay of Bengal, as it is commonly expreſſed and underſtood by the Engliſh, extends from the ſouth part of Coromandel to the river Huguely. It receives ſeveral great rivers; the Ganges and Guenga from the weſt ſide of it, and the Aracan and Menamkiori, or Avas river, from the eaſt ſide. But Bengal, as a coaſt, is ſuppoſed to extend only from Cape Palmiras, on the north of the coaſt of Golconda, to the entrance into the Ganges. This river being the moſt frequented by European ſhips, and made the center of their commerce for the whole province of Bengal, it may be proper to obſerve, that Strabo ſays, the Ganges was the greateſt river in the three continents of the world, the Indus being the ſecond, the Iſter the third, and the Nile the fourth. Cluverius ſays, it was noted for producing gold and jewels; that it's leaſt breadth was two German leagues, and the greateſt five; and that, where ſhalloweſt, it was 100 feet deep. It riſes in the mountains of Nigracut, part of Great Tartary, receives many other rivers, and, after a courſe of 3000 miles, falls into the gulph of Bengal by ſo many mouths, that travellers are not agreed in the number of them.

The common paſſage for European ſhipping is up one of the moſt weſtern branches, called the river Huguely. As pilots are not always to be had, the Engliſh, French, and Dutch, who have their reſpective factories here, keep them in conſtant pay, to be ready at Ballaſora, to carry their ſhipping up the river, becauſe it is of the moſt difficult entrance to a ſtranger, has the greateſt variety of channels, and is the moſt blocked up with innumerable ſands and ſhoals of any river in this part of the world; therefore it has been ſurveyed and ſounded with great exactneſs, and ſeveral ſafe and good channels marked out, ſo that the largeſt ſhips that uſe the India trade may be carried up to the furtheſt part of it where the commerce requires, there being generally from five to ſeven fathom water in theſe channels, within a few miles from Huguely itſelf, which is, from the entrance of the braces and other channels, at leaſt 160 miles, and much more, including the windings and turnings.

That which is ſuppoſed to be the moſt ſouthern branch of the Ganges has a town on it called Piply, four or five leagues up the river, which was formerly a place of good trade, having factories both Engliſh and Dutch; but, from the loſs of it's trade, is become a beggarly place (as will ever be the caſe) inhabited only by poor fiſhermen, ſince the removal of the factories to Huguely and Calcutta.

Among the many villages and farms interſperſed in the large planes by the river Huguely, the firſt of any note on the river ſide is Calculla, a market-town for corn, coarſe cloth, butter, oil, and other products of the country; and above it is the Dutch Bankſhall, where their ſhips ride, when the currents hinder them from getting up the river. From Calculla and Juanpardoa, two large deep rivers run to the eaſt; and, on the weſt ſide, there is another that runs by the back of Huguely iſland to Radnagor, famous for manufacturing cotton cloth and ſilk romaals, or handkerchiefs. Baſſundri and Feſſindri, or Gorgat and Cattrong, are on that river, which produce the greateſt quantity of ſugar in Bengal.

PONJELLY, is a village a little higher up on the eaſt ſide of the Huguely river, where there is a weekly corn-market, which exports more rice than any place on this river.

At GOVENAPORE, about a league further up on the other ſide of the river, is a little pyramid, built for a land-mark, or boundary, of the Engliſh India company's colony of Calcutta, which is about a league higher. The Engliſh, it has been ſaid, abandoned Huguely, becauſe of the unhealthineſs of it's ſituation; and Captain Hamilton ſays, that this place is the moſt unhealthy on all that river, by reaſon that, three miles to the north-eaſt, there is a ſalt-water lake, which overflows in September and October, when vaſt numbers of fiſh reſort to it, which are left dry by the going off of the flood, in November

and December, and infect the air by their putrefaction, and cauſe a yearly mortality.

The governor's houſe in the fort is as regular a piece of architecture as is to be ſeen of this kind in India; and in the fort are many convenient lodgings, both for the factors and writers, and ſome ſtore-houſes for the company's goods, beſides magazines for their ammunition. The company has alſo a pretty good hoſpital here, with a garden and fiſh-ponds, from whence the governor's kitchen is ſupplied with carp, mullets, and calkops. Moſt people of any figure here have the ſame advantages, and all ſorts of proviſions being good and cheap, as well as cloathing, the country is very agreeable, with all it's abovementioned inconveniencies.

The garriſon here conſiſt generally of 2 or 300 ſoldiers, more for conveying the company's fleet from Patana, with their ſalt-petre and piece goods, raw ſilk and opium, than for defence of the fort; for, as the company hold the colony in fee-tail of the Mogul, they are not afraid of enemies diſpoſſeſſing them. The Rajas, whoſe territories lie on the banks of the Ganges, between Patana and Caſſembazzar, are ſometimes troubleſome, by claiming duty for all merchandizes that paſs on the river, by, or through, their dominions, and often raiſing forces to compel payment; but ſome detachment from the fort generally clear the paſſage. Captain Hamilton complained, that, in his time, the colony had very little manufactory of it's own. He eſtimated the number of inhabitants at about 10,000; and adds, that the company's revenues, which are pretty good, and well paid, ariſe from ground-rents, and conſulage on all goods imported and exported by Britiſh ſubjects, who, as free merchants, are tolerated by the company to trade; but all other nations are free from taxes.

Oppoſite to the factory which the Danes once had, about four miles below the town of Huguely, the late Oſtend company [ſee the trade of the AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS and OSTEND COMPANY] ſettled a factory at Bankebankſhall; but, anno 1723, they quarrelled with the fouadaar, or governor of Huguely, who forced them to quit the place, and ſeek protection from the French, who have a factory at Charnagur; but the latter here being poor, and carrying on little trade, content themſelves with a little church to hear maſs in, which ſays Captain Hamilton, is the chief buſineſs of the French at Bengal.

CHINCHUSA, where the Dutch emporium ſtands, is about half a league further up. It is a large factory. The place is wholly under the Dutch government, and about a mile each way, and well inhabited by Armenians and the natives. It is contiguous to Huguely, and is a ſanctuary for many poor natives, when they are in danger of being oppreſſed by the Mogul governor, or his harpies.

HUGUELY, or OUGLY, where the Engliſh once had, and the Dutch ſtill have a factory, is an unhealthy, but pretty large, ill-built town, extending two miles, by the weſt ſide of it's river, from Chinchuſa to the Bandel. This town, at which the Mogul has a fuzza, or cuſtom-houſe officer, drives a great trade, becauſe all foreign goods are brought to it for import, as thoſe of the Bengal product are for exportation. Bernier ſays, it is the beſt and moſt fruitful country in the world, and the air temperate; that it produces very great quantities of rice, ſugar, ſpices, cotton, ſilks, canes, &c. The Portugueze drive a great trade here in confections, pomecitrons, a delicate root like ſarſaparilla, ambas, ananas, mirobalans, lemons, and ginger. The other commodities are ſalt-petre, with which the Engliſh and Dutch load whole ſhips: they have alſo lacque, opium, wax, civet, long-pepper, and butter.—The country is well watered by channels cut from the Ganges, on the banks of which grow their pulſe, muſtard-ſeed, ſeſamum for oil, and low mulberry-trees, to feed their ſilk-worms; but their ſilk is not near ſo good as that of Perſia.

The trade of Bengal affords rich cargoes for 50 or 60 ſhips yearly, beſides what is carried in ſmall veſſels to neighbouring countries; and there are veſſels of about 200 tons, that bring ſalt-petre hither from Patana. They come down in October, before the ſtream of the river, but are obliged to tow them up again, by ſtrength of hands, not leſs than 1000 miles. Beſides, the trading veſſels in India deal in opium, long-pepper, ginger, tobacco, and various ſorts of piece-goods, not merchantable in Europe. They abound with warehouſes, and ſhops full of all ſorts of Indian-goods, eſpecially ſilks, fine cloths and ſtuffs. The Portugueze had a factory here in the beginning of the laſt century, which they called Porto-Riquero, and another a little to the ſouth-weſt, called Porto-Angeli, but were expelled by the Moguls, becauſe of their piracy. There is abundance of Mooriſh merchants, who carry on a conſiderable trade here. The Dutch factory here, which is built in an open place, about a muſket-ſhot from the river, looks more like a caſtle, being incompaſſed with deep ditches, full of water, high ſtone walls, and baſtions faced with ſtone, and mounted with cannon. Their ſpacious warehouſes are alſo of ſtone, and the apartments for the officers and merchants are large and commodious.

This being the chief of all the Dutch factories in the Bengal direction, the accounts are tranſmitted from hence to Batavia. Bernier ſays, that there were 8 or 9000 Chriſtians here in his time, and about 25,000 in the reſt of the kingdom. The adjacent country is very finely diverſified with arable land, neat houſes, large gardens, ponds, bathing-places, delightful vallies, and roads adorned with trees, reſembling walks.

At BANDEL there was formerly a Portugueze colony, but governed ſince by the Mogul's touzdaar. They, at preſent, deal in no ſort of commodities, ſays Captain Hamilton, but what are in requeſt at the court of Venus, the owners whereof are to be met with at it's church, and a prieſt to conduct the buyer to proper ſhops, for view of the goods, and to vouch for their goodneſs.

At CASSEMBAZAAR, about 100 miles above Huguely, and 20 leagues weſt from Dacca, are factories both Engliſh and Dutch, of which, by their company's orders, the ſeconds of the council ought to be the chiefs. It is a large town, much frequented by merchants, and ſtands in a very healthy and fruitful iſland of the Ganges, whoſe inhabitants are employed in many valuable manufactories, eſpecially muſlins and ſilks, which are naturally yellowiſh, 'till the natives whiten them with the aſhes which they call there of Adam's fig-tree. Tavernier ſays, that the Dutch export 7000 bales of them from hence annually; and, except what the natives keep for themſelves, the Tartar and Mogul merchants ingroſs the reſt, which is about 15,000 bales. Captain Hamilton ſays, that it ſtole it's preſent trade and grandeur from

RAJAHMAL, RAGEMAHALE, or RAGMEHAL, 12 miles from it, a well-built town, which was once the reſidence of the governors of Bengal, and the greateſt place of trade and commerce on the Ganges, by the name of Muxadaubaud, and where the Mogul has ſtill a mint; but on the port's being choaked up, the government was removed to Dacca, and the trade to Caſſambazaar. The country adjacent affords plenty of rice, and excellent hunting. The Bengal roupies, which are gold, are coined here.

MALDO, is a large populous town, well frequented by merchants, on another channel of the Ganges, 40 or 50 miles eaſt of Rajahmal, and 15 leagues north eaſt of Tanda. Both the Engliſh and Dutch have factories here; as alſo at

DACCA, which is alſo called DEKAKA, DAAC, or BANDAR DACCA, in an iſland on the broadeſt and moſt eaſtern branch of the Ganges. It is about a league and an half long, on the banks of the river. Mr. Hamilton ſays, it is the largeſt city in Bengal, and manufactures the beſt and cheapeſt cotton and ſilk. The plenty and cheapneſs of proviſions here is alſo incredible. In ſhort, it is a populous wealthy town, and reſorted to by merchants from China, and divers parts of India.

SUNDIVA, an iſland, which lies four leagues from the reſt, and as far from the main land, and 120 miles ſouth of Chatigan, is about 20 leagues in circumference, has three fathom water within a mile of it's ſhore, and ſerves to ſhelter ſmall ſhips from ſtorms, or the ſouth-weſt monſoons. It is thinly inhabited by a ſimple honeſt people, who ſell their cloth manufacture incredibly cheap, and have ſuch plenty of proviſions, that Captain Hamilton was informed, by a perſon of credit, that he bought 580 pounds weight of rice for half-a-crown, and that he gave no more for eight geeſe, and 60 good tame poultry. Mr. Fytch ſays, alſo, that is one of the moſt fruitful iſlands in the world; that it abounds with wild hogs and fat kine, and that he bought the latter for 6 s. 3 d. a piece, and four wild hogs, ready dreſſed, for 12 s. 6 d. The iſland is divided into two parts, by a channel, which, at high water, is navigable.

After deſcribing the coaſt and bay of Bengal, with the mouths of the Ganges, and the iſlands thereof, we ſhall next give an account of the continent, and it's trade, which is called the kingdom or province of Bengal.

It lies in the ſouth-eaſt corner of Indoſtan, on both ſides of the tropic of Cancer, and the river Ganges; having it's bay, and the province of Orixa, on the ſouth; Patna and Jeſnat on the north; Malva on the weſt; with Aracan and Tipra on the eaſt. It is uſually compared to Egypt for it's fertility. Bernier ſays, it is the beſt and moſt fruitful country in the world, it being well watered, not only by the Ganges, but by channels cut out of it, on whoſe banks grow their pulſe, muſtard-ſeed, ſeſamum for oil, and little mulberry-trees, to feed their ſilk-worms, whoſe products of raw ſilk, and their wrought ſilk, are preferred to the Chineſe, and reckoned little inferior to that of Ghilan on the Caſpian ſea. Beſides aloes, ſalt-petre, lacque, opium, &c. as before obſerved, it produces very great quantities of rice, which is ſent every year to the Moluccas, Sumatra, Malabar, and Coromandel; the Maldiva iſlands, Ceylon, Goa, &c.—They alſo ſend plenty of ſugar to Golconda, Carnetteo, Arabia, Meſopotamia, and Perſia, as alſo ſpices, cotton, the fineſt muſlins and callicoes, ſilks called Bengals, elaches and herba ſtuffs, with Indico and canes, to Europe. The Portugueze drive a great trade here, in confections, pomecitrons, a long, but very delicate, root, like ſarſaparilla, ambas, ananas, mirabolans, lemons and ginger. They have, from April to September, almoſt continual rains, accompanied with tempeſts, which occaſion inundations, and do a great deal of miſchief. During the other part of the year, the weather is fair, and cooled by the north eaſt wind; but, in December, January, and February, the mornings are miſty

and

and cold; yet in December, when the days are ſhorteſt, they have the ſun from half an hour after ſix in the morning to half an hour after five in the evening.—The days are then ſerene and clear, though the nights are cold; and this ſeaſon is their harveſt. Here is great plenty of fiſh, good fowls for three half-pence apiece, and geeſe and ducks in proportion. They abound with ſheep, kids, and hogs, the chief food of the Europeans, who alſo victual their ſhips therewith.

The governors here exerciſe abſolute power, have all the tributes, impoſts, and fines; for which they are obliged to furniſh the emperor with horſes and arms; ſo that this province is rated at 40,000 horſe, and 80,000 foot, for it's quota; and it's yearly revenue is calculated at no leſs, according to Schouten, than 5,000,000 ſterling.

Some geographers have repreſented Bengal as the chief city; whereas there is no ſuch town, or a very obſcure one.—Martiniere ſays, that, of the many travels he had ſeen to Indoſtan, he never met with any ſatisfactory evidence, either as to the ſituation or exiſtence of the city of Bengal. Our merchants and ſeamen, who have been there ſo often, know no ſuch place; and, according to the accounts of the ſituation of what is called by this name, it would ſeem to be a town that borders upon Aracan, and is the moſt eaſterly boundary of the Mogul's dominions, viz.

CHATIGAN, or, as the Portugueze call it, XATIGAM and PORTO MAJORE, about 50 leagues below Dacca, near the bottom of Bengal bay. Moll and Herbert place it at the ſouth-eaſt corner of an iſland, formed by the two moſt eaſtern mouths of the Ganges; and the Sanſons, on the weſt ſide of the Coſmin, overagainſt what they term the city of Bengal. The place is called, by the natives, Chittagoung. The diſtance from hence to Sagor, the weſtermoſt channel of the Ganges, is, according to Hamilton, about 100 leagues.

Fytch ſays, it is the chief harbour of the country; and it appears to have been formerly a place of conſiderable traffic. It was the firſt ſettlement made by the Portugueze; but the dangers their ſhips ran, in coming hither in the ſouth-weſt monſoons, made them remove to Bandel at Huguely, and it is now a poor place, poverty always being the conſequence of the loſs of trade.

SATIGAN, or SATIGA. Mr. Frederic, in his travels, ſays, that, in his time, above 30 ſhips were annually laden here with rice, lacque, ſugar, long-peper, oil of Zezelin, &c. and that merchants commonly bought and freighted veſſels at this place, to trade up to the Ganges, by which they made conſiderable advantages; but the commerce is ſince removed to Huguely.

At PATNA, PATENA, or PATENAW, where both the Engliſh and Dutch have factories for raw ſilk and ſalt petre; and ſome geographers place it on one ſide the Ganges, and others on the contrary. The Sanſons place it on the eaſt of the Ganges, where the kingdom of that name lies, 135 miles north-weſt of Dacca; but it is placed on the weſt ſide by the maps, as well as by Thevenot, Tavernier, and other travellers. The former ſays, it is a very large town, in a pleaſant and fruitful country: the latter, that the Dutch, whoſe factory here is chiefly for ſalt-petre, refine it at a great town called Choupar, 10 leagues higher up the Ganges. He makes Patna to be ſix miles in length, and one of the biggeſt cities in the Indies. Hamilton ſays, it is the ſeat of the prince of Bengal, who is always of the royal blood, and that it produces ſo much opium, that it ſerves all the countries in India with it. It ſupplies them alſo with cotton, cotton-cloth, ſugar, &c. that gold is dug in the neighbourhood.—They make a ſort of potter's ware here very fragrant, and almoſt as thin as paper, for the uſe of the Mogul's ſeraglio, and the princes of Indoſtan.

BANNARAS, or BANNARON, is a handſome large city, on the eaſt ſide of the Ganges, about 100 miles above Patna, in the road to Agra. It has a very conſiderable trade in callicoes and ſilks, which the manufacturers dare not ſell 'till ſtamped with the Mogul's ſeal, on pain of being fined and baſtinadoed. They abound with plenty of pulſe, and all ſorts of grain, in the neighbourhood; and they have manufactures of rich ſtuffs of gold, ſilver, and ſilks, of magnificent turbants, fine girdles, and light veſtments, for the ladies of the ſeraglio, which makes this of one the wealthieſt towns in the Indies.

TANDA, on the eaſt ſide of the Ganges, above where it divides into branches, and about a league from the river, was the capital of a kingdom, 'till ſubdued by the Moguls, and is a place of great trade in cotton and callico.

SOUMELPORE, about 30 leagues from Huguely, is noted for the fine diamonds in it's river Gouel, ſuppoſed to be waſhed down from the ſouth mountains of Golconda; inſomuch that, about the end of January, or the beginning of February, when the water is clear, after having been mudded by the great rains that generally fall in December, above 8000 men, women, and children, ſearch for diamonds all along from this town to theſe mountains.

JONPOURE, ſtands on the ſame river as Soumelpore, but 25 miles more to the ſouth. It is noted for a conſiderable commerce in ſweet-ſcented oils, rich carpets, hangings embroidered with ſilk, and all ſorts of fine linnen.

LACCANOW, not far from Jonpoure, drives a very great trade, more eſpecially in linnens.

OUDCE, or OUJEA, an ancient city, on a river that runs into the Ganges, formerly the ſeat of the Patan kings, has a mighty trade in horn, being uſed by the Indians for drinking-cups and targets.

BALASORE, or BELLESORE, is the place where the European ſhips, bound for Bengal and the Ganges, take in a pilot; and the Engliſh, Dutch, and French, have their reſpective factories here, which were, indeed, the capital factories of the bay of Bengal, before the navigation of the Huguely river was improved, but, at preſent, of no great conſideration. The adjacent country is fruitful to admiration, producing rice, wheat, gram, doll, callavances, ſeveral ſorts of pulſe, aniſe, cummin, coriander, and carraway-ſeeds, tobacco, butter, oil, and bees-wax. Their manufactures are of cotton, in ſannis, caſſas, dimities, mulmuls, ſilk and cotton romals, gurrahs, and lungies; and, of the herba (the rind of a certain tree, which, being prepared and drawn out fine, works like ſilk, and is worked with either ſilk or cotton) they make ginghams, pinaſcas, and ſeveral other ſorts of goods for exportation. There are rich Moors, Banians, and Gentiles here. The town trades pretty much with the Maldiva iſlands, which having no rice or other grain of their own product, it ſupplies them with what neceſſaries they want, and, in return, brings cowries and cayar, for the ſervice of ſhipping. The ſea-ſhore of Balaſore being very low, the ſhips ride three leagues from it, in four or five fathom water, in a road which is rendered ſafe, by Cape Palmiras, from the violence of the ſouth-wind. There is a very dangerous bar at the mouth of it's river, which is about 12 leagues to the north of Cunnaca river. Between theſe two rivers there is one continued ſandy bay, where vaſt numbers of ſea-tortoiſes reſort to lay their eggs; and here are ſhoals of a very delicious fiſh called pamplee, which are ſold for two-pence a hundred, and two of them are ſufficient for a moderate ſtomach.

REMARKS.

When it is ſaid the Engliſh have a factory in this part, and the Dutch in that, it is rather to deſcribe which of the European nations has the principal commerce there; for, except in the particular places where they ſeverally have forts, and maintain garriſons, no factory is ſingular to an European nation upon all the coaſt; but the ſeveral nations have particular houſes, or bazars, in the reſpective cities and trading ports, and this they call a factory; whereas the main body of the inhabitants are Indians, and the Europeans are there only by the permiſſion of thoſe Indians, or of their princes and governors.

But the caſe of the Portugueze is different at Goa, whoſe poſſeſſion is their own in ſovereignty, and they acknowledge no prince but the king of Portugal, though they have near 100,000 people under their government; the reaſon whereof is, becauſe they firſt obtained their ſovereignty of the proper prince, who then ruled, the Great Mogul at that time in being having not extended his dominions to ſuch a height as his ſucceſſors have ſince done. The Portugueze thus ſtrengthening themſelves at Goa, and having taught the Indians and Meſtizes to live after the European manner, they have prevented the Dutch from diſpoſſeſſing them, as they have done at Coulang, and other places on that coaſt.

The Dutch have ſecured themſelves, even more effectually, at Batavia, on the iſland of Java, which, when they came firſt thither, was only an Indian village, ſurrounded with no more than a palliſado of bamboo canes.

This city is the glory of this iſland, and of all the European ſettlements in the Indies. It is the center of all the ſtrength and commerce of the Dutch in this part of the world, where they are ſo powerful, and have ſo many ſubjects, ſo many iſlands, kingdoms, principalities, and dominions, depending on them, and are ſo able to ſupport and protect them, that it is to be wondered any other European nation ſhould have the leaſt footing in the Indies, and that the Dutch do not extirpate all the other European factories out of the country. They have alſo brought the natives, where they have any influence, to cloath in the European manner, which has wonderfully increaſed their commerce from Europe thither.

By theſe politic meaſures, we find, that the Dutch have rendered their trade to this part of the world ſo important, as to ſtrengthen themſelves there, in a manner far ſuperior to all the reſt of the European powers put together; and, therefore, whenever it is the will and pleaſure of their High Mightineſſes, they may monopolize, as it were, all this trade from Europe to themſelves. This would increaſe their navigation and brood of ſeamen to ſuch a degree, that they would ſoon become as potent in Europe as they would then be in Aſia.

The ſame principles of policy, therefore, which dictate to the chief potentates of Europe to maintain the ballance of power among themſelves, do alſo dictate the holding the ballance of power in Aſia among the Europeans ſettled in that part of the world; for, although ſome have imagined, but never proved, we conceive, that the Eaſt-India trade of this nation is, upon the whole, a loſing trade; yet, if ever England gives the ſame up, it will certainly prove a real, not an

imaginary loſs to this kingdom, and a certain gain to that into whoſe ſcale of trade it ſhall be thrown: thus, as it will weaken our navigation, and leſſen our brood of ſeamen; ſo it will ſtrengthen thoſe who ſhall ſupplant us.

If this trade was really detrimental to the nation, we may reaſonably preſume it would prove the ſame to other ſtates which have a ſhare therein as well as we; unleſs it can be ſhewn that other nations are more experienced in this commerce, and carry it on to greater advantage than we do. But it is extraordinary that this trade ſhould prove beneficial to all other nations, and otherwiſe to us; and it is ſtill more extraordinary that upſtart nations in trade ſhould be ſo ſanguine to eſtabliſh a new Eaſt-India company *, if they were not morally certain of it's proving nationally beneficial.

* This alludes to the endeavours of the king of Pruſſia, to eſtabliſh an India company at Embden, and make that a free port, under certain limitations, as has been rumoured.

But thoſe who are not for depriving England of this trade, yet imagine that it would be carried on more to the intereſt of the nation by being free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, than in the hand of a trading company, with a large joint-ſtock, and with privileges and immunities, excluſive of all other the Britiſh ſubjects. To which, for the preſent, I ſhall only obſerve, that, while other nations always have, and ſtill do experience it to be for their intereſt to carry the ſame on by ſuch-like companies, it ſeems impolitic for us to do otherwiſe, and thereby hazard the loſs of a real gain for an imaginary greater. This matter, however, ſhall be conſidered under the article of EAST-INDIA COMPANY; wherein we ſhall alſo endeavour to ſhew how that company may be greatly advantaged, and that as much to the intereſt of the nation as the company itſelf. The reaſon for theſe ſentiments, under this head, is to appriſe our readers, in ſome meaſure, of what they are to expect in the ſequel of this work; we not contenting ourſelves with a mere narrative of trade as it is, but are ambitious to ſuggeſt what may occur to us, which may tend to the advancement of that of our own nation.

In the interim, we ſhall only obſerve what meaſures the parliament of England have been pleaſed to take, to prevent the ſubjects of the crown of Great-Britain from becoming intereſted in any foreign Eaſt-India company, and for the encouragement of our own.

Abſtract of ſeveral acts of parliament, now in force, which were made for preventing his majeſty's ſubjects from trading to the Eaſt-Indies under foreign commiſſions, and from being intereſted or concerned in any foreign Eaſt-India company to be erected.

By the following acts of parliament now in force, and which were made for preventing his majeſty's ſubjects from trading to the Eaſt-Indies under foreign commiſſions, and from being intereſted, or concerned, in any foreign Eaſt-India company to be erected, it is enacted as follows, viz.

5 Geo. I. cap. 21. By an act paſſed in the fifth year of his late majeſty king George I. all his majeſty's ſubjects, except thoſe licenſed by the Eaſt-India company, are prohibited from going to the Eaſt-Indies.—And, to the end ſuch offenders may be brought to juſtice, the Eaſt-India company are impowered to arreſt and ſeize ſuch offenders in the Eaſt-Indies, and to ſend them to England, there to anſwer for the ſaid offence; and every Britiſh ſubject who ſhall procure, ſolicit for, obtain, or act under, any commiſſion, authority, or paſs, from any foreign prince or ſtate, to ſail or go, or trade in, or to the Eaſt-Indies, incurs and forfeits, for every ſuch offence, 500 l.

7 Geo. I. cap. 21. By another act, paſſed in the ſeventh year of his late majeſty king George I. every ſubject of his majeſty who ſhall go to, or ſhall trade, or adventure into, or from the Eaſt-Indies (contrary to the laws in being) and ſhall be convicted thereof, in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, is to pay and ſuffer ſuch fine and impriſonment as the court ſhall think fit.

And all the goods and merchandize that ſhall be bartered, or trafficked for in the Eaſt-Indies, or purchaſed there, by any ſuch offenders, or that ſhall be found in his cuſtody, or in the cuſtody of any other perſon by his order or procurement, are declared to be forfeited, with double the value thereof.

9 Geo. I. cap. 26. By an act paſſed in the ninth year of his late majeſty king George I. all his majeſty's ſubjects are prohibited from ſubſcribing, contributing to, encouraging, or promoting, the raiſing, eſtabliſhing, or carrying on, any foreign company, from, and after, the 24th day of June, 1723, to be raiſed, formed, or erected, for trading to the Eaſt-Indies, and from being intereſted in, or intitled to, any ſhare in the ſtock, or capital, of ſuch foreign company, under forfeiture of all his, her, or their intereſt, in the capital, principal ſtock, or actions, of any ſuch foreign company, together with treble the value thereof.

And the attorney-general is impowered to exhibit bills of complaint in the court of Chancery, or court of Exchequer, againſt ſuch offenders, for the diſcovery of ſuch offence; which diſcovery ſuch offenders are obliged to make, on the attorney-general's waving in ſuch bill the ſaid forfeiture of the treble value, and inſiſting only on the ſingle value thereof; and, in ſuch caſe, the ſingle value is to be decreed to be paid by ſuch offender.

And that every ſubject of his majeſty accepting of any truſt, or knowing of any intereſt, ſhare, part, proportion, or concern, which any other of his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall have, or be intitled to, in any ſuch foreign company, and who ſhall not, within ſix months next after the accepting ſuch truſt, or coming to the knowlege of ſuch intereſt, ſhare, proportion, or concern, as aforeſaid, truly diſcover the ſame in writing to the Eaſt-India company, or their court of directors, ſhall forfeit treble the value of the intereſt ſo accepted in truſt, or ſo known and not diſcovered, as aforeſaid; and any perſon, making ſuch diſcovery, is intitled to a moiety of the forfeiture.

And all his majeſty's ſubjects (other than ſuch as are lawfully authoriſed thereunto) going to, or found in the Eaſt-Indies, are declared guilty of a high crime and miſdemeanor, and are made liable to corporal puniſhment, impriſonment, or fine, for the ſame, at the diſcretion of ſuch of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter where the proſecution for ſuch offence ſhall be commenced.

And every perſon ſo offending may be ſeized, and brought to England, and committed to gaol there, by any one of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace, until ſufficient ſecurity be given by natural-born ſubjects, or denizens, to appear in the court where ſuch proſecution ſhall be commenced, to anſwer the ſame, and not depart without leave of the court.

3 Geo. II. cap. 14. By an act paſſed in the third year of his late majeſty, it is enacted, That, if any of his majeſty's ſubjects (other than the Eaſt-India company, and thoſe licenſed by them) ſhall, directly, or indirectly, go to, trade, or venture into, or from, the Eaſt-Indies, every ſuch offender ſhall incur the forfeiture and loſs of all the ſhips and veſſels employed in ſuch a voyage, trade, or adventure; and alſo all the goods laden thereupon, or that were ſent to, acquired, traded or adventured, within the Eaſt-Indies, and all the proceed, and effects of the ſame, and double the value thereof.

BENZION, or BENJAMIN, a kind of gum, which ſome reckon in the ſame claſs with incenſe and aroma's. The trees from which the benzoin runs grow plentifully in Cochin-China; there are alſo many of them in the foreſts of the kingdoms of Lao and Siam.

This tree reſembles pretty much the almond tree; but it's leaves are longer, and roundiſh at the top. The benzoin runs from inciſions made in the trunk and large branches of the tree; though ſome authors pretend, without any reaſon, that it is to be found in a kind of pods, and is formed from an oil, thickened by the heat of the ſun.

The grocers and druggiſts ſell two ſorts of benzoin, the one in drops, and the other in lumps.

The true benzoin in drops, which is ſeldom to be met with in France, and of which the people of the ambaſſador of Siam's retinue brought a pretty large quantity, is of a yellow, or gold colour without, and white within, ſtriped with ſmall clear veins, which are white and red; it is friable, without any taſte, but of a ſweet and very aromatic ſcent. It is very different from the benzoin in drops which is ſold at Paris, and which is clear, tranſparent, of a reddiſh colour, and mixed with white drops, reſembling almonds, whence it is called amygdaloid benzoin. This latter muſt be choſen with ſuch qualities as come as near as poſſible to thoſe above-mentioned; and, above all, let it be without any dirt, which happens but ſeldom.

The benzoin in lumps is the moſt common of all, and is very liable to be adulterated by ſeveral gums melted together. In order to be of a good quality, it ought to be very clean, of an agreeable ſmell, very reſinous, and abounding with white drops: that which is too black, and without any ſcent, muſt be abſolutely rejected.

The beſt benzoin grows in the iſland of Sumatra, at a place called Baros, on the weſtern coaſt of the iſland, a little to the north of the equinoctial line. It belongs to the Dutch, who ſend great quantities of that drug into Indoſtan, or the Mogul's country, for the Indians there uſe a great deal of it in their religious ceremonies. This drug has ſeveral names; it is called aſſa dulce, ben of Judea, benzoin of beninas, and in Latin, benzoinum.

They get from the benzoin a kind of white flowers, good for aſthmatic perſons, and an oil, which is a ſort of balm for wounds.

All ſorts of benzoin pay duty of importation in France at the rate of ſix livres per 100 weight; but, when it has been depoſited any where, and comes from the Levant, from Barbary, Perſia, or Italy, it is then reckoned as one of thoſe merchandizes, on which, according to the decree of the council, dated the 15th of Auguſt, 1685, a duty of 20 per cent. of their value ought to be raiſed; which duty is alſo raiſed on the benzoin when it is imported by Roan, though it had not been depoſited any where.

BERCHEROIT,

BERCHEROIT, or BERKEOITS, a weight uſed at Archangel, and in all the dominions of the czar of Muſcovy, to weigh ſuch merchandizes as are very heavy, or very bulky, ſuch as pot-aſhes, &c. The bercheroit weighs 400 pounds of Muſcovy, which amount to about 364 pounds Engliſh avoirdupoiſe weight.

BERGAMO, a coarſe tapeſtry, which is manufactured with ſeveral ſorts of ſpun thread, as flocks of ſilk, wool, cotton, hemp, ox, cow, or goat's-hair. It is properly a weft of all thoſe ſorts of thread, the warp of which is commonly of hemp. It is wove on a loom, almoſt like linnen cloth. Some pretend it was called bergamo, becauſe the people of Bergamo in Italy were the firſt inventors of it.

Roan and Elbeuf, cities of the province of Normandy in France, furniſh a conſiderable quantity of bergamos of all colours, and mixtures of colours: ſome after the manner of the point of Hungary (point d'Hongria); others with broad ſtripes, worked with the figures of flowers, birds, or other animals: ſome with broad and narrow ſtripes, even, and without figures; others again, which are called China's and ſcales, becauſe they are worked ſo as to imitate the point of China and the ſcales of fiſhes. They make at Roan a particular ſort of bergamo, which they call twine, or twiſted (tortin in French) becauſe they uſe twiſted wool in it; they alſo make ſome at Toulouſe.

The height or length of the bergamos is moſt commonly an ell and a half, an ell and $\frac{3}{4}$, two ells, or two ells and a half French meaſure. They make, nevertheleſs, ſome of two ells and three quarters; but theſe are not common, being ſeldom made but for merchants who will have them ſo. There are of theſe tapeſtries ſome fine, ſome middling, and ſome coarſe, or common.

Formerly the French uſed to ſend ſome bergamos into foreign countries, particularly towards the north: but, at preſent, they are ſcarce uſed any where but within the kingdom, and chiefly at Paris, there being few tradeſmen, or mean people, in that great city, who would not think it a diſgrace, if, when they ſet up, they had not a bergamo tapeſtry in their rooms. Theſe are likewiſe called tapeſtries of the ſtreet St Dennis, or of the gate of Paris, becauſe there are more of them ſold in that part of the town than any where elſe in Paris.

They who trade in thoſe tapeſtries are the mercers, upholſterers, and brokers; but the former only have them from the places where they are manufactured. See TAPESTRY.

BERKSHIRE, a county in England, bounded by Hampſhire on the ſouth; by Wiltſhire and Glouceſterſhire on the weſt; by the Thames on the north, which divides it from Buckingham and Oxfordſhire; and, on the eaſt, by Middleſex and Surrey. The air is, in the general, healthy, and the ſoil fertile, where it is cultivated; and the whole county, which is as pleaſant as moſt in England, is well ſtored with cattle and timber, particularly oak and beech in the weſtern parts, and in Windſor foreſt. This county alſo abounds with wild fowl, and other game, as it's rivers Thames and Kennet, the one on the north the other on the ſouth ſide of it, do with fiſh, eſpecially fine large trout and cray-fiſh.

It has been obſerved, that land is dearer here than in other parts the ſame diſtance from London. The chief manufactures of this county are woollen cloth, ſail-cloth, and malt; there being great crops of barley in the weſt part of the county, particularly the Vale of White Horſe.

READING. This town formerly abounded with many and very wealthy clothiers. In the reign of Edward I. Thomas Cole went by the name of the rich clothier of Reading; and Mr Kenrick, a merchant of London, and ſon of a clothier of Newberry, left 7500 l. to encourage this trade here; but, of late years, this manufacture is in a great meaſure laid aſide for that of malt, which, by the convenience of the rivers in this county, turns to great account; for the river Kennet will bear a barge here of 110 tons; and then it is ſo near the Thames, that the largeſt they uſe may come up to the town-bridge, where they have wharfs.

Though they have a great trade in the country, yet their principal traffic is by navigation to London, to which they carry vaſt quantities of malt, meal, and timber, and bring back coals, ſalt, tobacco, grocery wares, oils, &c. Some of theſe barges will carry 1000 or 1200 quarters of malt at a time. A large manufacture of ſail-cloth was ſet up here, by the late Sir Owen Buckingham, lord-mayor of London; but he dying, and his ſon being unhappily killed in a duel, that manufacture died with him.

ABINGDON. The ſeveral ſtreets of this town are well paved, and center in a ſpacious area, where the market is held, which is a conſiderable one, eſpecially for barley; and they make great quantities of malt, which they ſend in barges, with other commodities, to London.

HUNGERFORD, ſtands on the river Kennet, and is famous for the beſt trout and cray-fiſh. But, though it lies in the great road to Bath, &c. which is it's chief ſupport, neither it's buildings nor market are conſiderable, it's trade being nothing, and ſituation mooriſh.

NEWBERRY, or NEWBERY. The manufacture of cloth throve here once to ſuch a degree, that in the reign of Henry VIII. here flouriſhed John Winſchomb, commonly called Jack of Newberry, one of the greateſt clothiers that ever was in England, he keeping 100 looms in his houſe; and, in the expedition to Flodden-Field againſt the Scots, marched with 100 of his own men, all armed and cloathed at his own expence; and he built all the weſt part of the church. Alſo, Mr Kenrick, the ſon of a clothier of this town, and afterwards a merchant of London, left 4000 l. to this town, as well as 7500 l. to Reading, to encourage the cloathing trade. But it has loſt, at preſent, moſt of this manufacture, and, in proportion, the proſperity of the town has decayed, ſince it removed to the weſt. However, they make a great quantity of ſhalloons and druggets, which, with it's other trades, renders it ſtill a pretty flouriſhing town. It ſtands very pleaſantly, in a fruitful plain, with the river Kennet running through it. It was made a corporation by queen Elizabeth, and is governed by a mayor, high-ſteward, recorder, aldermen, and capital burgeſſes. The ſtreets are ſpacious, particularly the market-place, in which ſtands the Guildhall. It is noted, alſo, for it's excellent trout, eels, and cray-fiſh, and has all manner of proviſions in great plenty.

MAIDENHEAD. Here is a conſiderable trade for malt, meal, and timber, which they carry in their barges to London.

OKINGHAM is the chief place in Windſor-Foreſt, being a pretty large, well-frequented town, with ſeveral ſtreets, a fair, market-houſe, and a manufacture of ſilk ſtockings and cloth, eſpecially of the former, of which large quantities are bought in it's market.

BERMUDAS, or SUMMER ISLANDS, lie in latitude 32 north, and in longitude weſt from London, according to the moſt accurate obſervations, 64. 48. They are numerous, and lie pretty contiguous to each other. Voyagers differ about their number, but they are reckoned, upon the whole, near 400; yet the moſt of them ſo ſmall and barren, as to be uninhabitable.

Their extent, which is from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, is computed but about 20 miles, and their greateſt breadth about five, and not above one eighth part of them is inhabited. Moſt of them are ſo inconſiderable, that neither the Spaniards, nor any other Europeans, thought it worth their while to ſettle upon them. The firſt Engliſhman that ſaw them was one May, who was caſt on them by ſtreſs of weather, anno 1593; but the account he gave of them did not encourage other adventurers to ſearch after them, 'till Sir George Sommers made an attempt, and was ſhipwrecked upon them, anno 1609: after which the Virginia company ſold their property to thoſe iſlands, which they held by virtue of a charter from king James I. to 120 perſons, who, about three years after, ſent thither one Richard Moore, with about 60 perſons. Theſe landed on the largeſt iſland, where they built themſelves huts, which grew, by degrees, into handſome houſes, and, in time, into an handſome town, to which they gave the name of St George, and from which the whole iſland hath been called ever ſince.

This is by far the moſt conſiderable of all the iſlands, being about 16 miles long from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, and about three in breadth where broadeſt, and is ſurrounded with high and craggy rocks, which jut a good way into the ſea, and ſerve inſtead of a ſtrong rampart to it. But to it's natural ſtrength the inhabitants have taken care to add ſeveral good forts, with batteries, and other outworks, eſpecially towards the eaſt, where it lies moſt uncovered, ſo as to command all the channels, and other avenues, on that ſide.

The number of Engliſh inhabitants are computed to be above 10,000, beſides ſlaves, who carry on a tolerable commerce in tobacco; but it is of ſo indifferent a kind, and ſo inferior to that of the other Britiſh plantations, that it bears but a ſmall price in proportion. They have, likewiſe, ſome cochineal, catch pearls on their coaſts, and ſome ſmall quantities of ambergreaſe, which is likewiſe gathered upon their coaſts; and in theſe commodities their trade chiefly conſiſts, for the ſecurity of which they have built no leſs than 10 forts, moſt of them well manned and armed, and all kept in good repair.

The country is chiefly mountainous, but hath ſome fertile plains; the ground is of various colours, but the brown is eſteemed the richeſt; the whitiſh, or ſandy, is reckoned next, and the reddiſh the worſt, and not unlike potter's clay. About two or three feet below the mould, is found a white hard body, which ſeems to be a kind of hard chalk, or pumice-ſtone, through which, however, the roots of the trees force a paſſage, and a kind of clay is commonly found to lie under it. Upon the whole, the ſoil, though thin and ſtony, is notwithſtanding rich and fruitful; but their water is generally brackiſh and diſagreeable, except rain water, which they preſerve in ciſterns.

The climate is temperate, yet warm enough to produce two good crops in a year. They ſow in July, and again in Auguſt, and reap in December. Their chief growth is the Indian wheat and tobacco, but they have ſome fine fruits, eſpecially oranges, all which enjoy a conſtant verdure, new leaves always ſprouting out before the old ones fall. The cedars of this iſland are ſaid to excel thoſe of other parts of America, particularly in their fragrancy, duration, beauty, and hardneſs of their wood; and they are here in ſuch plenty, that it anſwers in all reſpects to our oak timber; ſo that not only

only their beſt ſloops, brigantines, and other veſſels, are built with it, but likewiſe ſome of their houſes, churches, and other public buildings: and, with reſpect to ſhips, thoſe that are built at Bermudas are reckoned the beſt, and are the moſt valued throughout all the Weſt-Indies.

Their palmetto is no leſs uſeful and common; it's fruit, which, in colour, ſhape, and ſize, reſembles our damſon, is very delicious, the wood ſerviceable for building or fuel, and the leaves, which are commonly between 8 and 10 feet long, ſerve to make a light covering for their houſes.

The date, or palm-tree, yields likewiſe an exquiſite fruit; and their foreſts abound with variety of odoriferous and medicinal woods, ſome of a black, others yellow, and ſome of a red colour; and theſe laſt bear a berry of the ſtyptic quality of the ſloe, and is uſed by our Engliſh to cure thoſe fluxes with which they are commonly afflicted by the too greedy eating of the palm-berry, and other luſcious fruits. But the moſt remarkable and ſingular plant for uſe is the red-wood, ſo called from it's fine tincture, eſpecially that of it's berry, which produces worms, that afterwards turn into flies, ſome of them bigger than the cochineal fly *, and with a medicinal virtue far exceeding it.

* It has been aſſerted by ſome, that theſe flies will afford a dye no way inferior to that of the cochineal; which, if true, and they could be plentifully cultivated, might come cheaper to our Engliſh dyers than cochineal.

All European and American trees and plants, likewiſe, grow here in great perfection, eſpecially the palm, mulberry, olive, laurels, barberry, pear, and orange-trees, the latter of which is affirmed to bear the beſt and moſt delicious fruit, and which uſed to be brought over into Europe, but they have been diſcontinued of late years.

There are ſo great plenty of tortoiſes caught here, that the inhabitants make it their common food, their fleſh being very white, tender, and of an exquiſite taſte.—They have, likewiſe, great variety of fowl, both wild and tame.

Fiſh is here in ſuch great plenty and variety, both of the ſcaly and ſhelly kind, that they have not found names for many ſorts of them. Some whales, alſo, are caught upon theſe coaſts, chiefly in the months of February, March, and April; but all their attempts for ſettling of a whale-fiſhery have hitherto proved fruitleſs. The Bermudans, heretofore, drove ſome traffic in ſperma-ceti, and in the train or whale-oil; but that branch is gone into decay, with ſome others, which has leſſened the wealth of the inhabitants, as well as their number, many of the younger ſort going to ſeek their fortunes elſewhere, ſince the decay of their traffic.

The country, however, continues ſtill to be well cultivated; and tho' their whole commerce ſeems to be confined to the other parts of America, which they furniſh with great variety of their productions, and with ſloops, and other trading veſſels, which, indeed, is the moſt conſiderable branch of their trade: and notwithſtanding they do not receive any extraordinary encouragement from England; we do not find they repine much at it, but ſeem to content themſelves with the healthineſs, pleaſure, and plenty of their country, which they look upon as a ſafe and quiet retreat from the cares and troubles of the other parts of the world. They do not ſeem to have any ambition to enrich themſelves, which, probably, may be owing, in ſome meaſure, to the ſmall proſpect they have of ſucceeding in it, if they had; for it is not to be doubted but they would gladly embrace every opportunity of improving their commerce with Great Britain, from which they annually receive ſuch a conſiderable quantity of goods, being moſtly cloathed with our manufactures, and uſing no other utenſils in all their divers kinds of works but ſuch as are ſent to them from hence: ſo that, with reſpect to traffic, the whole advantage lies on the ſide of England. But, were all due encouragement given to the Bermudans, there is very great probability that ſeveral eſtimable commodities might be raiſed among them, which would capacitate them to take much greater quantities of manufactures from their mother-country. There are two, in particular, for which their country is ſaid to be more naturally circumſtanced than any other of the Britiſh plantations, viz. ſilk and cochineal, which are not inconſiderable articles of commerce. And it was with this view that a very worthy merchant of the metropolis of London collected, ſome few years ago, an account of all that had been writ, or what was to be met with upon that head, and cauſed it to be digeſted and printed, and ſent to be diſtributed, at his own expence, in Carolina and the Bermudas; which is ſuch an inſtance of public ſpirit as deſerves to be mentioned with honour, and is well worthy to be imitated. A few generous attempts of this kind, ſupported by proper ſubſcriptions, and inferior to thoſe made for ſome diverſions only, might turn to unſpeakable advantage to the public, and prove the means of making multitudes of people happy both here and there. We may add, alſo, that the character of the inhabitants of that iſland for induſtry, ingenuity, and eſpecially honeſty and fair trading, which they are allowed to have always maintained above all our other plantations, juſtly intitle them to a peculiar regard; ſince it is affirmed, by a gentleman who had been as well acquainted with this, and our other plantations, as 30 years trading with them would make him, to be the fineſt country, and inhabited by the beſt people he ever knew.

Bermudas, indeed, is become leſs healthy and pleaſant within theſe 20 or 30 years, on account, as is ſuppoſed, of the dreadful hurricanes and thunders, which are ſometimes ſo violent as to ſplit whole rocks; and, as it always was, and ſtill is, difficult of acceſs, on account of the vaſt ridges of rocks that ſurround it, as well as the impetuouſneſs of the currents, which forcibly carry ſhips out of their courſe, and the many ſhipwrecks which happen along theſe coaſts, it has leſſened the trade of this iſland. But, notwithſtanding theſe inconveniencies, the iſland is ſtill ſo pleaſant and healthy, that people live to a great age, and ſeldom die of any other diſtemper but that.

The government is here much the ſame as in Virginia, the crown appointing the governor and council, and the people chuſing their repreſentatives to ſit in the aſſembly; and they are obſerved to have fewer by-laws than any other of our plantations, which, in all likelihood, is owing to the ſmallneſs of their trade.

BERNE, a canton in Switzerland, is bounded on the north with that of Solothurn, and a part of the biſhopric of Baſil; on the eaſt with Lucerne and Underwald; on the ſouth with the Valais, or Wallifland, and the lake of Geneva; and, on the weſt, with the Franche Compté, and the county of Neufchatel. This is the moſt fruitful, richeſt, and by much the largeſt of all the cantons. The revenues of it ariſe, 1. From the lands or demeſnes of the ſovereign. 2. From the tenths of the fruits of all the lands of the canton, except ſome few lordſhips, which are, by a particular tenure, exempted. 3. From a certain tax upon rural lands, which they call, in French, cenſes foncieres. 4. From duties, or cuſtoms, on merchandize. 5. From the produce of the ſale of ſalt.—The firſt article produces great quantities of corn and wine, which are laid up in magazines, and ſold out to the people, when the government thinks fit. The ſecond muſt needs run very high in ſo great a diſtrict of country. The third is a tax upon lands which are not poſſeſſed by gentlemen, like the taille in France, and is ſuppoſed to amount annually to about a French livre per acre. The fourth produces but little, becauſe of the ſmallneſs of their trade, and the eaſineſs of the duty. The fifth is very conſiderable, becauſe the ſovereign alone ſells it to the ſubject by retail, at what price he thinks fit. There is another tax in uſe, called, in French, le lod, which is a fine, amounting to the ſixth part of the full value of any parcel of land, or eſtate, payable by the buyer of every eſtate to the ſovereign. As the ſale of corn and wine, in which theſe revenues chiefly conſiſt, is more or leſs, according to the price they bear; and as, in cheap ſeaſons, the ſovereign ſells none at all; it happens that, for ſome years together, they put little or no money into the treaſury, and, at other times, lay up in one year the revenue of many. The peaſants of this canton are generally rich, eſpecially on the German ſide; and, as they pay no duties to the public, and the ſoil has, as well as requires, great cultivation, it is common for them to have eſtates to the value of 10,000 crowns, and ſome to the value of 100,000. They get a great deal of money by breeding horſes. They have ſome fountains of ſalt-water, but the making of the ſalt conſumes ſo much wood, that it has not turned to account. Though the ſubjects of the ſtate are rich, the public itſelf is poor; and, though they could oppoſe a ſudden invaſion, yet their unkindly ſoil requires ſuch a number of hands to cultivate it, that they could not ſpare any for a long war.

The trade of the city of BERNE is not very great now, and was much leſs before the arrival of the French refugees, who entered into partnerſhip with ſome of the city tradeſmen, and introduced certain manufactures of ſtuffs; but ſome doubt whether they have not done more harm than good, by the introduction of the French modes and luxury, in room of the ancient Helvetic ſimplicity and frugality.

SAUREN, has ſeveral fairs in a year.

That part of the Roman, or French country, or PAIS DE VAUX, which banks upon the lake of Geneva, produces a white wine, that is equally palatable and wholſome, and is called vin de la cote. As ſoon as the vintage is over, they ſhip off their wine upon the lake of Geneva, which furniſhes all the towns that lie upon the borders. What they deſign for other parts of the country they unload at Vevay, and, after about half a day's land-carriage, convey it into the river Aar, which brings it down the ſtream to Berne, Solothurn, and, in ſhort, diſtributes it through all the richeſt part of Switzerland; and, by means of this navigation, the wine comes very cheap, notwithſtanding the great diſtance of the palces where it is ſold from the vineyards.

The markets and fairs of BEX are well frequented. Near the town is virgin ſulphur, good for the nerves, and three ſalt-pits; one at Bevieux, half a league above Bex; the ſecond at Roche, between Villeneuve and Aigle; and the third at Panex mountain, where are ſprings of ſalt water. They were diſcovered near 200 years ago; but, while they were in private hands, turned to no account, 'till the lords of Berne bought

bought them, and they have ſo improved them, that they make three times the ſalt they did 50 or 60 years ago, and have reduced the price of it to three half-pence a pound.

At VILLENEUVE, is a very fine trout-fiſhery, which brings a great revenue to the lordſhip.

MONTREUX, is a pariſh conſiſting of a ſcore of villages and hamlets, diſperſed among theſe mountains, where their vines are planted in rows, and not confuſedly, as in other places, and the inhabitants both of this, and of the government of Aigle, have always wine to ſell earlier than their neighbours.

VEVAY is a pretty large and flouriſhing town, with a conſiderable trade, by the reſort of the Savoyards, the Valeſians, and mountaineers, who come hither to ſell their commodities, and it ſtands in a very pleaſant, fruitful country, with a good air.

At LALAY is a bath, which draws many people to it in the ſummer.

The country of LA VAUX may be ſaid to be altogether a vineyard, which produces the ſtrongeſt wine of all the canton of Berne. The chief of the pariſhes is Cully, noted for the beſt wines in this country.

MORGES is a very handſome, modern-built town, and, by means of its ſpacious harbour, fine key, and warehouſes, has a ſhew of greater trade than any other town on the lake, for the articles of traffic between France and Geneva are landed here.

In the neighbourhood of ST PREZ there is a mineral ſpring of great reputation, which draws much company thither.

The country on the coaſt of the lake, which is therefore called LA COTE, part of which is included in the bailiwic of Morges, and that called la Vaux, abovementioned, are the two beſt vineyards in the 13 cantons. The wine de la Vaux is the moſt ſparkling, the briſkeſt, and the moſt palatable; but the wine de la Cote is the wholſomeſt, and, though not ſo ſprightly as the other, will better bear the carriage. It is exported to Holland, Brandenburgh, Italy, &c. and as much eſteemed, for it's delicate flavour, as the beſt wines of Champagne and Burgundy. It is a white wine, of which the inhabitants of this canton drink to exceſs without the leaſt inconvenience.

The bailiwic of MORGES is full of lordſhips, all which are, generally ſpeaking, full of corn and wine, &c. That which is produced in the neighbourhood of the town is tolerably good, but the wine de la Cote excels it by far, particularly that about Rolle and Burſins.

At the town of ROLLE are abundance of the beau monde, who are drawn hither, eſpecially in the ſummer time, not only by the mineral waters at both ends of the town, which are in great vogue, but alſo by it's advantageous ſituation, at the foot of a hill, where is an excellent vineyard.

NYON is very well ſituate for trade, not only by reaſon of it's neighbourhood to Geneva, and it's harbour on the fine lake, but by it's communication with Burgundy, from whence there is a reſort to it's fairs, and very often to it's weekly markets.

PRANGIN is noted for it's mineral waters, which are very much in requeſt in the ſummer ſeaſon.

YVERDUN has a public granary, a flouriſhing trade, and a ſmall harbour, formed by a canal, which receives the Orbe, together with warehouſes, and a cuſtom-houſe. It's lake is very convenient for tranſporting it's commodities. The inhabitants are generally in good circumſtances, and had once a manufacture of ſilk.

At MOULTON are four fairs in a year, but they are not near ſo much frequented as they were formerly for a long time.

The people of the PAIS DE VAUX are ſo lazy, that German peaſants come hither every day to huſband their lands, and, either by taking farms, or by their good ſervice to ſuch as keep them in their own hands, they get a good deal of money.

The chief product of the bailiwic of MORAT is wine, though it is none of the beſt. They have cabbages of an extraordinary ſize, of which they ſend hundreds of cart-loads to Berne.

BERRY, a territory of Orleanois, near the center of France. This territory is bounded on the north by Orleanois, properly ſo called; on the eaſt by Nivernois; on the ſouth by Bourbonois and Upper Marche; and, on the weſt, by Poictou. The air here is very temperate, and the ſoil produces wheat, rye, and wine, which, in ſome places, is not inferior to that of Burgundy; but, in other places, it is not by far ſo good, and very weak. The paſtures abound with ſheep, the wool of which is very fine. This country produces alſo a great deal of hemp and flax. They ſay that there are, in the province of Berry, ſeveral mines of iron and ſilver, but they are intirely neglected. There are quarries of ſtone at half a league's diſtance from Bourges, which are of great uſe. In the pariſh of St Hilary, near Vierron, there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dyings, and which is of great uſe, there being but little of that mineral in the kingdom. They make here a great quantity of thick woolen cloth, called, from this province, draps de Berry.

BOURGES, though of large extent, is very thinly peopled, the reaſon of which is, their having no manner of trade here; which is owing, according to Monſieur La Martiniere, to a privilege granted by Lewis XI. to the inhabitants, by which every perſon who has once bore the office of mayor, or echevin, or alderman, is reputed a gentleman, and, after that, are weak enough to deſpiſe trade, which impoveriſhes them. The citizens of Bourges have four great privileges, as Du Cheſne informs us, 1. That their goods cannot be confiſcated. 2. They are free from garriſons and winter quarters. 3. Their eſtates pay nothing to the king. 4. Thoſe who poſſeſs lordſhips are exempted from the ban and arriere-ban, viz. from ſerving in the kings armies, whether they hold immediately from the crown, or mediately from ſome other lord.

At the barony of CHATEAU-NEUF, the lord levies the taille, together with the king, upon all the citizens, peaſants, and inhabitants, the richeſt of whom are obliged to pay five pence each every year to the lord, and the others ſomething leſs, according as they are able.

The trade of MEHUN conſiſts in wool, flax, and other merchandizes, and they keep here two fairs every year.

The inhabitants of VIERRON are the moſt induſtrious and moſt laborious of the whole province. Their chief trade conſiſts in wood, and in woolen cloth and ſerges, manufactured here.

BOIS-BELLE is an independent and ſovereign principality, the lords of which have always enjoyed the rights and prerogatives of ſovereign princes, having cauſed money to be coined in their own name, with their image ſtamped upon it. They have alſo granted letters of grace, pardon, remiſſion, and abolition. All theſe privileges have been confirmed by Henry the Great, Lewis XIII. and Lewis XIV. The city, therefore, with it's diſtrict, are free from tailles, gabelles, aids, and all kind of taxes.

ISSOUDON is divided into two parts by the river Theols, the lower of which is inhabited chiefly by merchants and tradeſmen. The trade here conſiſts in cattle, woolen cloths, and druggets, woven and knit hoſe, and hats, manufactured in this city, and in the neighbourhood; but their chief trade conſiſts in timber, with which they ſupply the adjacent countries. As the inhabitants have always diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their zeal and fidelity to the French kings, they are exempt from the ban and arriere-ban, taille, and quartering of ſoldiers.

The territory of CHATEAU-ROUX is one of the moſt barren ſpots of ground in all France, moſt of the lands conſiſting of foreſts, ponds, and heaths, which is not worth the while to cultivate. However, the wood of the foreſts affords fuel to the forges; the fiſh of the ponds is ſold in Berry and Touraine; and the heaths afford food for cattle, of which they have here a great trade. There is, in this city, a manufactory of woollen cloth, which is one of the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom, and affords employment to above 10,000 perſons, both within the town and in the neighbourhood.

The territory of BLANC, likewiſe, is very barren, but contains a great many woods and forges, and a vaſt number of ponds. Though the river Creuſe be not navigable here, yet they uſe it to ſend down floats of timber to the neighbouring towns.

BERWICKSHIRE is bounded on the ſouth with Tweed and Teviotdale; on the north by Lothian; on the weſt by Tweedale; and, on the eaſt, it is waſhed by the German ocean. 'Tis the ſouth-eaſt ſhire of all Scotland, being divided from the town of Berwick by the Bound-Rod, and from Northumberland by the river Tweed, which runs between them for about eight miles, and riſes out of the ſame tract of hills, as the Clyde and the Anand. It runs ſwift between hills through Tweedale foreſt and Teviotdale; and, before it paſſes into the ocean, has meaſured 50 miles. Templeman's Survey, which divides it into Mers and Lauderdale, makes it 30 miles in length, and 16 in breadth, with an area of 338 ſquare miles. The General Atlas makes it 30 eaſt and weſt, and 22 where broadeſt ſouth and north, including Lauderdale. The editor of Camden divides it into three parts viz. Mers, Lammermoor, and Lauderdale. He ſays, the Mers is a pleaſant low ground, open to the influence of the ſun, and guarded from ſtorms by Lammer-moor; ſo that 'tis a fruitful ſoil, abounding with corn and pulſe, but eſpecially hay.

LAMMER-MOOR is a great tract of hills on the north ſide of the ſhire, above 16 miles long and at leaſt 6 in breadth, feeding multitudes of ſheep and black cattle. In the ſummer-time, 'tis particularly noted for paſturage; and for plenty of partridges, moor-fowl, plover, dotterels, and other game; but the product of it's ſoil does not bear ſuch a price as that of others, and therefore is not reckoned ſo good.

LAUDERDALE is a tract lying on each ſide of the water of Lauder, abounding with pleaſant vallies, hills, and woods, and well ſtored with corn and paſturage.

The ſhire of Berwick, in general, is very fruitful in corn and graſs, abounds with ſheep, black cattle, and horſes, and has many ſeats of perſons of quality. The moſt fruitful and populous parts are thoſe that lie on the Tweed, and the leſſer rivers Whitewater, Blackwater, and the Eye. The fuel of the common people is turf and peat, but the gentry have coals from Northumberland. It is well ſupplied with fiſh from the ſea and it's rivers.

DUNS, a burgh of barony, a pretty large populous town, of the beſt trade in the county, and ſtands on a riſing ground in the center of the ſhire.

EYMOUTH, AYMOUTH, or HAYMOUTH, a good fiſhing town, the only port in the ſhire for ſhipping, at the mouth of the Eye, and has a weekly market.

CALDSTREAM, or COLDSTREAM, a market-town cloſe by the Tweed.

GREENLAW is a burgh of regality, with a weekly market, and is the chief burgh of the ſhire.

EYTON, or ATON, ſtands on the ſame river as Eyemouth, is a large pleaſant village, and has an annual fair. The people here are as perfectly Scots, as if it was 100 miles north of Edinburgh.

COCKBURN'S-PATH, or COBBER'S-PATH, ſtands near the coaſt, where it has ſometimes a great herring-fiſhery. It has alſo an annual fair.

BERYL, BERYLL, or BERYLLUS, a precious ſtone, tranſparent like cryſtal. It is found in the mines of the Indies, and is alſo to be met with on the banks of the Euphrates. There are ſeveral ſorts of beryls; they reckon even ten ſpecies of it. The moſt valuable are the beryl, the chryſoberyl, and the chryſopraſin.

The beryl inclines a little to a ſea-green, whence it was called in Latin aqua marina, under which name we have mentioned it. To make it more ſparkling and bright, it muſt be cut facet-wiſe; for the poliſhing gives it no brightneſs, after what manner ſoever it be cut.

The chryſoberyl is paler, and inclines ſomewhat to a gold-colour.

The chryſopraſin partakes more of the green.

Some think that the beryl is the diamond of the ancients; and it is certain, that ſome modern jewellers, though very ſkilful, have ſometimes miſtaken the one for the other.

There are ſometimes ſuch large pieces of beryl found, that they may ſerve to make very fine vaſes. It is ſaid there are great quantities of them in Cambaya, Martaban, Pegu, and the iſland of Ceylon.

The properties of the beryl were very conſiderable, according to the ancient naturaliſts and philoſophers. It was proper to make men avoid the ſnares of their enemies; to raiſe the courage of the fearful; to cure the diſeaſes of the eyes, and the pains in the ſtomach. At preſent it has none of thoſe good qualities, becauſe people are no longer ſimple enough to believe it has them.

Dr. Woodward, in his Methodical Diſpoſition of Foſſils, printed at the end of his Natural Hiſtory of the Earth, makes the beryl in the claſs of ſtones, of the 2d ſpecies, 2d ſort, and the n. 11. among thoſe, which have fine colours, and are tranſparent. That celebrated and learned Engliſhman obſerves, that the beryl of the lapidaries is a ſort of fine cornelian, more tranſparent than the common cornelian, and of a deeper red. That of the ancients was quite different; it was of a bluiſh green, and is probably the ſame with our aqua marina.

BESISTAN, or BERSTEN. Thus at Conſtantinople, Adrianople, and in ſome other towns within the Grand Signior's dominions, they call thoſe places where the merchants have their ſhops, and expoſe their merchandizes to ſale. Each ſort of merchants have their particular beſiſtan, which muſt alſo be underſtood of the workmen, all thoſe of the ſame trade working in the ſame place. Theſe beſiſtans are commonly large galleries, vaulted over, whoſe gates are ſhut every night. Sometimes the wardens and keepers of the beſiſtans will anſwer for the merchandizes, on paying them a very moderate perquiſite for each ſhop.

There are two beſiſtans at Conſtantinople, the old and the new one.

The old one was built in the year 1461, under the reign of Mahomet II. There are but few fine merchandizes in it. Here they ſell all ſorts of weapons, eſpecially ſabres, as likewiſe horſe-harneſs, indifferent enough, though ſome of it are inriched with ſilver, gold, and precious ſtones.

The new beſiſtan is deſigned for all ſorts of merchandizes, and yet one hardly ſees there any thing but the fineſt and richeſt works: as plate, furs, veſts, carpets, and ſtuffs of gold, ſilver, ſilk, and goat's-hair; nor are precious ſtones and porcelaine, or China wares, wanting there.

This beſiſtan, which is alſo called the great beſiſtan, is a round building, all of free-ſtone. It has four gates, which are never opened but in the day-time. In the night a watch is locked up in it, for the ſecurity of the ſhops. Each branch of trade, or trading company, has a place aſſigned, out of which no perſon can ſell, nor even expoſe to ſale the ſame ſorts of merchandizes. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch merchants, have their ſhops for drapery goods in this beſiſtan.

Merchandizes are very ſafe in ſuch places, the gates of which are always ſhut betimes. The Turkiſh merchants who have ſhops there, go and lie at their houſes in the city: as for the Chriſtians and the Jews, they retire in the evening beyond the water to the ſuburb Pera, and return the next morning. See BAZAR.

The beſiſtans of Adrianople are very fine, eſpecially that where the ſtuffs are ſold, and that in which are the ſhoemakers ſhops.

BESOAR. See BEZOAR.

BESORCH, a coin of tin, or of ſome alloyed metal, current at Ormus at the rate of about $\frac{7}{10}$ parts of a farthing ſterling. Ten beſorchs are worth one pays, 4 pays one ſondis, 10 pays one chay, about 4 pence farthing and half a farthing Engliſh; 20 pays one mamoudi, 8 pence 3 farthings Engliſh; 2 mamoudis 1 abaſſi, or 17 pence half penny; 25 pays make a larin; 5 larins a reale, or rixdollar; and 100 mamoudis a toman. They reckon at Ormus by tomans, as they do in Holland by pounds de groſs.

BETEL, a plant in great repute all over the eaſt, eſpecially in the Indies, where there is an incredible conſumption and trade of it.

This plant, which is pretty much like the ſhrub that bears the pepper, is ſo weak, that it wants a prop to ſupport it, as it grows up. Its leaves are like thoſe of ivy, but more tender, and are full of a red juice, which the people of the eaſt imagine is very good to comfort the heart, to faſten the teeth, and to make the breath ſweet and agreeable.

The Indians are continually eating, or rather chewing, the leaves of this plant, with ſlices of the arech-nut. It is this that renders their lips ſo red, and their teeth of ſo black a colour, which it is well known they prefer before the whiteneſs of the teeth of the Europeans.

Monſieur Garcin aſſerts, that this is a miſtake; the juice of the betel-leaves not being red: and that it is the arech-nut alone, which, when chewed, renders the ſpittle red.

The trade of betel-leaves is very conſiderable. A great number of ſubſtantial merchants are concerned in it, who keep ſeveral ſhips to tranſport that drug almoſt over all the eaſt, where it is ſo much in uſe, that both the great men and the common people, the rich and the poor, are never without their box of betel. They offer ſome of it to one another, whenever they meet; and it is a ceremony eſtabliſhed, as well among the men as among the women, to offer it to one another in all their viſits, and they would look upon it as an affront, either not to be regaled with it, or to refuſe it, when offered. What renders this trade eaſy, is the property which the betel-leaves have of keeping a great while good. See ARECK.

BEURT-SCHEEPEN, or BEURT-SCHUYTEN, which may be tranſlated into Engliſh, turn-ſhips, or turn-boats. Thus they call, at Amſterdam, thoſe ſhips that go to ſea, or veſſels or boats that ſail only on rivers, or freſh water, and have the excluſive privilege to take in goods for ſeveral cities, both within and without the ſeven provinces. They are thus called, becauſe every maſter of a veſſel is obliged to load and put off in his turn, for the place for which it is bound; which is regulated and ſettled by the directors of the company of boatſmen, or watermen.

The privileged places for the ſhips are, for France, Roan, and St. Vallory; for England, London; for Germany, Hamburgh and Bremen. There are alſo ſuch veſſels for Middleburg in Zealand, for moſt of the towns in Brabant and Flanders, and for almoſt all the cities in the ſeven provinces. This is extremely convenient for the merchants of Amſterdam, who have not merchandizes or goods enough to load a whole ſhip or veſſel, and who by paying freight, as it is regulated by the ordonnances, have, by thoſe veſſels, an opportunity of ſending to all thoſe places as many or as few merchandizes as they pleaſe.

Every one of theſe veſſels, or boats, has its fixed place in one of the canals of the city, or in the harbour; and cannot ſet off but in its turn, and when it is fully loaded.

When a merchant has merchandizes enough to load one or more of theſe ſhips or veſſels, for one of thoſe privileged places, he is at liberty to agree for the freight with the maſter of the ſhip or veſſel, without conforming himſelf to the regulations; and he may chuſe ſuch ſhips, and ſuch maſters, or boatſmen, as he pleaſes, though it be not their turn to ſet off, but he muſt firſt know from the ſuperiors of the company, whether they will permit it; becauſe, in caſe the maſter or boatſman were not a burgher of Amſterdam, if another who was one, ſhould offer himſelf, the latter would be preferred.

Leave being given, the merchant who wants to load a veſſel, ought firſt to make his declaration to the commiſſaries in the following form:

Gentlemen, Commiſſaries of the navigators without the country, I deſire you to give leave to Maſter N. N. to load (for Roan for inſtance) on condition that he ſhall take in no merchandizes but for me alone.

At Amſterdam the —, &c. I. P. R.

This declaration is given to the maſter or boatſman of the veſſel which has been freighted, or which is deſigned to be freighted; the maſter or boatſman carries it to the commiſſaries, who thereupon deliver the permit or leave to him. In caſe of a refuſal, which happens but ſeldom, the only remedy is to look for another maſter or boatſman, for whom the commiſſaries may have more kindneſs or indulgence, it not being ſafe to load without leave; for theſe gentlemen are very jea-

lous

lous of their privileges; beſides that, they find ſome profit, when the merchandizes paſs through their hands.

That the reader may have a more accurate notion of thoſe turn-ſhips, and turn-boats, or veſſels, we ſhall add here an extract of the ordonnance of police, which has been made for the beurt-ſcheepen, or turn-ſhips, which are privileged for Roan, and for London.

An ordonnance for thoſe ſhips which may ſail by turns for Roan and for London.

Firſt, No veſſel which is in a condition to ſail out of theſe countries, ſhall load for the above-mentioned ports, but in its turn; and ſuch veſſels, whoſe maſters are deſirous to ſail by turns, muſt be well provided with anchors, cables, ſails, &c. that the merchandizes may be tranſported dry and well conditioned: the whole at the diſcretion of the ſuperiors of the company of navigators out of the country, or of others who may be appointed to take cognizance of theſe matters.

2. Every other week two veſſels ſhall be loaded for London, and every twenty days two veſſels for Roan.

3. Thoſe for London ſhall come to the key on the Monday, the one to remain there till the Saturday following, that is to ſay, 6 days: and the other to ſail 7 days after the departure of the firſt; that is to ſay, 14 days after it ſhall have been put in turn.

4. The firſt of thoſe for Roan ſhall depart from the key on the evening of the 10th day after its coming to it; and the other ſhall depart ten days after the firſt, that is to ſay, twenty days after it came to the key.

5. The ſaid veſſels ſhall ſet ſail the ſecond day after their leaving the key, and others ſhall come in their ſtead to obſerve the ſame order, under a penalty of 25 guilders for ſuch maſters whoſe turn it ſhall be to come to the key, and who ſhall neglect it.

6. In winter, thoſe veſſels ſhall have two days more to load, than in ſummer; that is to ſay, thoſe for London eight days, and thoſe for Roan twelve. The ſummer ſhall be reckoned to begin on the firſt of March, and continue to the firſt of October: and the winter, from the firſt of October to the firſt of March.

7. The veſſels, after departing from the key, ſhall not load any merchandize, under the penalty of a fine of 6 guilders, for every parcel or piece loaded, and being deprived of their turn a whole year for the firſt time, and the ſame penalty and arbitrary puniſhment for the ſecond.

8. In caſe the veſſels, or one of them, get their full lading before the time limited, they ſhall be obliged to depart immediately from the key, and another to be put to it directly, whoſe days of loading ſhall not begin to be reckoned from the day, on which the time of that which it ſucceeds, was to end.

9. It ſhall be lawful for ſuch maſters as ſhall have continued at the key during their limited turn, without being able to get their full lading, to buy merchandizes for their own account, in order to compleat their cargo; but this however ought not in the leaſt to delay their departure, nor to prejudice the merchandizes already ſhipped, under the penalty of paying a fine of 25 guilders. Thoſe maſters, who ſhall thus have bought merchandizes, ſhall pay no freight for them to their partners, if they have any.

10. Two merchants or factors may freight a veſſel in the city for either of the above-mentioned ports, at ſuch a price as they ſhall agree for with the maſter. But the maſter ſhall not load any other merchandizes, but thoſe of the ſaid merchants or factors, under the ſame penalty as above.

11. The maſters, whoſe turn it ſhall be to load, ſhall be obliged to take in, without diſtinction, all the merchandizes that ſhall be brought to their ſhips, even though they ſhould have already promiſed to take in others: the firſt that arrive, ought to be the firſt loaded.

12. The maſter's who ſail by turns, ſhall not undertake any voyage, nor ſerve as tender, during eight days before their turn comes; but ſhall be obliged to bring their veſſels to the key, four days before their time of loading begins; and place their veſſel next to that to which they are to ſucceed, that they may help each other, under the penalty of 50 guilders fine, and loſing their turn for a whole year. But in caſe a maſter, without any fault of his, cannot take his turn, the other maſters ſhall draw lots, who ſhall take his place: and he on whom the lot falls, ſhall be obliged to take the other's place, under the penalty of 25 guilders fine, and loſing his turn for a year.

13. The maſters who ſhall have had their turn for Roan, ſhall have it afterwards for London. Which is to be underſtood alſo of thoſe who ſhall have had their turn for London, and who ſhall load afterwards for Roan.

14. The two maſters who ſhall come to the key at the ſame time to load for London, ſhall divide their freight in common, which thoſe for Roan ſhall alſo do between themſelves. And, for want of a good account in one of them, he who ſhall be guilty ſhall pay a fine of 50 guilders, and loſe his turn for three years.

15. No maſter of a veſſel ſhall ſail by turns, till he has been four years a burgher of Amſterdam.

16. Thoſe veſſels which ſhall be ſet to the key together for loading, ſhall draw lots which ſhall ſail firſt.

17. The maſters of veſſels, which ſhall ſail by turns to Zealand, to Antwerp, or to other places between the lands, ſhall have no turn to ſail to London or Roan, unleſs they quit and renounce their turns of ſailing to places between the lands.

18. The maſters of veſſels which ſail by turns, ſhall be obliged to keep near their veſſels from morning till night, except to wards noon, when they ſhall have liberty to go to the exchange. And if any maſter, whilſt his ſhip is loading, is found to do otherwiſe, or to drink in a public houſe or elſewhere, he ſhall pay a fine of 3 guilders for every ſuch offence.

19. The lords of the magiſtracy ſhall appoint a perſon to have the inſpection over the keys, where thoſe ſhips ſhall be, that are to ſail by turns for London and Roan, and to make them depart at the proper time.

20. One third part of the fines ſhall go to the lord, one third to the poor, and one third to the informer.

21. And, in order that the merchants may know what they are to depend upon for the payment of the freight of thoſe veſſels which ſhall ſail by turns, the ſaid lords have ordered by theſe preſents, that ſuch freight ſhall be paid according to the following tariff or rate, the maſters being at liberty to take leſs, but not more, under the penalty of paying a fine of 25 guilders, and loſing their turn for a year.

22. If any merchandizes be ſhipped for Roan or for London, the freight of which is not ſet down in the ſaid tariff, if it be for Roan, and the freight be found in the tariff of London, or on the contrary, if it be for London, and the freight be found in the tariff of Roan, there ſhall be paid one third more.

Finally, the maſters ſhall pay to the inſpector, every time before their departure, namely, for veſſels of above three laſts, three guilders; and for thoſe under that number two guilders, upon pain of paying double on their return.

Reſolved the 19th of February, 1611.

This ſame ordonnance contains alſo an order, according to which the maſters of thoſe veſſels which ſail by turns for London and for Roan, ought to regulate themſelves with regard to the bigneſs or capaciouſneſs of ſuch veſſels, in order to divide the freight between them.

A veſſel, from 26 to 31 laſts, is reckoned for 30 laſts; from 31 to 36, for 35; from 36 to 41, for 40; and from 41 to 46 and above, for 45 laſts.

There are a great many ſuch other ordonnances for the freight of ſhips ſailing to Hamburgh, Zealand, Flanders, and within the United Provinces. The ordonnance relating to Hamburgh, which is dated the 27th of April, 1613, has this remarkable particular, That in it's tariff there is a difference made between the freight in ſummer, and the freight in winter; as alſo between the freight paid from Amſterdam to Hamburgh, and that from Hamburgh to Amſterdam. The reader may ſee that tariff, and thoſe for London and Roan, in the Traité du negoce d'Amſterdam (Treatiſe of the trade of Amſterdam) publiſhed in the year 1722, by Monſ. S. P. Ricard. We ſhall only add here, with regard to theſe three tariffs, that, in that for Roan, the merchandizes are rated in guilders, ſtivers, and pennings; in that for London, in pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling; and in that for Hamburgh, in marcs, ſols and pence lubs, with reſpect to ſhips ſailing from Amſterdam; and in guilders and ſtivers, with reſpect to thoſe returning thither.

The French have always complained of theſe beurt-ſcheepen, for Dunkirk, St. Valery, and Roan; and ſeem to be pretty well grounded in their complaints. For,

1. If there be a Frenchman who deſires to load his ſhip, they make him wait till three Dutch veſſels have ſailed before him: whereupon it is to be obſerved, that, every ſhip having a fortnight's time to take in its lading, the Frenchman's turn is put off for ſix weeks.

2. That it is not lawful for the merchant, to whom the Frenchman is directed, to diſpatch him himſelf before the limited time, though he ſhould give him half his lading; for he cannot do it, unleſs he gives him his full lading; which can never be the caſe, becauſe from Holland they ſend into Picardy and Normandy nothing but fine merchandizes, excepting however pot-aſhes, a ſort of aſhes which come from the Black Sea: which often obliges the French to return empty, or to ſail for ſome other port.

3. The directors of the beurt, or turns, know ſo well how to promote the advantage of their own nation, that within the interval of fourteen days, during which the Frenchman ſtays to take in his cargo, there is ſcarce any thing left for him, the merchandizes which are to be ſhipped off being always kept for the Dutchman, whoſe turn comes after the Frenchman's.

Notwithſtanding there are many general benefits attend theſe regulations, yet they are not without ſome inconveniencies: as veſſels muſt thus be loaded by turns, the freight of merchandizes is always kept up at a pretty high rate. For it is obſerved, that a bale of pepper, or of other merchandize, pays, from Amſterdam to Roan, twice or thrice as much as from Amſterdam to Bayonne, and that for no other reaſon,

but becauſe ſhips are loaded by turns for Roan, and not for Bayonne; which cannot but proportionably raiſe the price of merchandizes coming from Holland, and imported into France by Picardy and Normandy.

BEZISTAN. See the article BESISTAN.

BEZOAR, or BEZOARD, a medicinal ſtone, which is reckoned a ſovereign antidote againſt poiſon, and an excellent cardiac. It is alſo preſcribed againſt a ſwimming in the head, the epilepſy, a palpitation of the heart, the jaundice, the cholic, and ſuch a vaſt number of other diſtempers, that it will doubtleſs be ſhorter to ſay in general, that it is eſteemed by ſome empirics a kind of panacea, or univerſal remedy, proper to cure all ſorts of diſeaſes. It is, perhaps, as much it's ſcarcity, as it's real properties, which has gained it ſo high a reputation. However, people begin now to value it leſs, and there are ſome able phyſicians, who do not eſteem it at all.

There are ſeveral ſorts of bezoars, and, among others, the oriental, the occidental, and that of Germany.

The oriental bezoar is reckoned the beſt, and there is plenty enough of it in ſeveral parts of the Indies, eſpecially in the kingdoms of Golconda and Cananor. It is found there, mixed with the dung of an animal called pazan, in whoſe belly that ſtone is formed. The buds of a certain ſhrub which it browſes, are, as it were, the ſeed of the bezoar, which grows round about that food, commonly of the bigneſs of an acorn, or of a haſle-nut, and ſometimes of the ſize of a pidgeon's-egg.

This ſtone has ſeveral ſhining ſkins or coats, like an onion; they are ſometimes of a blood-colour, but pretty often of a pale yellow, brown and clear green, and alſo of the colour of honey.

The number of bezoars, which each of theſe animals produces, is not certain; ſome have none at all, ſome have but one, and others two, three, even to ſix.

The bigger the bezoar ſtone is, the dearer it ſells, the price riſing proportionably like that of diamonds. Thoſe of an ounce weight are ſold in the Indies for 100 French livres; and one of four ounces and a quarter was ſold for 2000 livres.

The reader would perhaps be glad to know what ſort of animal it is, in whoſe belly the bezoar is found; and we ſhould indeed have begun this article, with a deſcription of it: but the ſeveral writers, who boaſt that they have ſeen thoſe animals, and even that they have had ſome of them in their poſſeſſion, ſpeak ſo inconſiſtently of them, that it is very difficult to determine a matter of fact between authors, who alledge their own eyes as vouchers for what they aſſert, and yet diſagree among themſelves.

What ſeems to be moſt certain, becauſe all authors agree in it, is, that this animal is a kind of wild goat, but which the Indians know how to tame, in order to make an advantage of their bezoar.

The oriental bezoar muſt be choſen ſhining, of a ſcent ſomething like that of ambergreaſe, ſoft to the touch, and in large and fine bits. As for their figure, it is no matter what it is, nor of what colour the bits are, but they are moſt commonly of an olive-colour.

It is eaſy to adulterate the bezoar, but then it is not leſs eaſy to diſcover the fraud. Here follow ſeveral methods to try it.

1. Let it ſoak three or four hours in water that is but lukewarm: if the water does not change it's colour, and the ſtone loſes nothing of it's weight, it is a ſign that the bezoar is without mixture.

2. You may ſound it with a ſharp red-hot iron: if it enters the ſtone, and makes it fry, the ſtone is factitious.

3. If, by rubbing it over a paper ſmeared with ceruſe, or white lead, it leaves a yellow teint upon it, one may be certain that it is good and genuine.

The occidental bezoar, or bezoar of Peru, differs very much from the former. It is to be found in the bellies of ſeveral animals peculiar to that part of America. In ſome the bezoar is of the ſize of a haſle-nut, in others it is as big as a walnut: there are even ſome bezoars of the bigneſs of a hen's egg.

There is no leſs difference in their figure than in their ſize. Some are oval, ſome round, and others almoſt flat. As for their colour, it is either dark, or of an aſh colour.

This bezoar is ſcaly, like the oriental ſort, but the ſcales are much thicker. When it is broke, one would think it has been ſublimated, becauſe of the many ſmall ſhining needles of which it ſeems to be compoſed: but, on the outſide, it is very ſmooth and even.

The animals in which this ſtone is formed are the guanacos, the iachos, the vicunnas, and the taraguas. That of the laſt is moſt eſteemed, and the taragua is pretty much like the animal which produces the oriental bezoar, being like the goat in ſize, and of the ſhape of a ſheep.

Mr. Wafer (in the third volume of Dampier's Voyages, p. 383, &c.) gives us a curious account of an animal which produces bezoar, and is found in the iſle of Mocha, which lies over-againſt the city of Chili, about 30 degrees 20 minutes ſouth latitude. It is a ſort of ſheep, which the inhabitants call cornera de terra. This creature is about 13 hands and a half high at the back, and is a very ſtately beaſt. Theſe ſheep are ſo tame, ſays our author, that we frequently uſed to bridle one of them, upon whoſe back two of the luſtieſt men would ride at once round the iſland, to drive the reſt to the fold. His ordinary pace is either an amble or a good hand-gallop; nor does he care for going any other pace, during the time the rider is upon his back. His mouth is like that of a hare; and the hair-lip above opens as well as the main lips, when he bites the graſs, which he does very near. His head is much like an antelope's, but they had no horns, when Mr. Wafer was there: yet his people found very large horns, much twiſted, in the form of a ſnail-ſhell, which they ſuppoſe theſe animals had ſhed; there lay many of them ſcattering upon the ſandy bays. The ears of this animal reſemble thoſe of an aſs. His neck is ſmall, reſembling a camel's. He carries his head bending, and very ſtately, like a ſwan: is full-cheſted, like a horſe, and has his loins much like a well-ſhaped greyhound. His buttocks reſemble thoſe of a full-grown deer, and he has much ſuch a tail. He is cloven footed, like a ſheep, but, on the inſide of each foot, has a large claw, bigger than one's finger, but ſharp, and reſembling thoſe of an eagle. Theſe claws ſtand about two inches above the diviſion of the hoof, and they ſerve him in climbing rocks, holding faſt by whatever they bear againſt. His fleſh eats as like mutton as can be. He bears wool of 12 or 14 inches long upon his belly, but it is ſhorter on the back, ſhaggy, and but inclining to a curl. It is an innocent and very ſerviceable beaſt, fit for any drudgery. Of theſe Mr. Wafer's men killed 43, out of the maw of one of which they took 13 bezoar-ſtones, of which ſome were ragged, and of ſeveral forms; ſome long, reſembling coral, ſome round, and ſome oval, but all green, when taken out of the maw: yet, by long keeping they turned of an aſh colour. The Spaniards told Mr. Wafer's people that theſe creatures are extraordinarily ſerviceable to them at the mines of Potoſi, which lie a great way up in the country, in bringing the ſilver from thence to the cities that lie towards the ſea, between which cities and the mines are ſuch cragged ways and dangerous precipices, that it were almoſt impoſſible for any man, or any other beaſt, to carry it. But, theſe ſheep being laden, and led to the precipices, their maſter leaves them there to themſelves, for above 16 leagues, and never meets them 'till he himſelf has alſo fetched a compaſs about 57 leagues round. This their ſureneſs of foot conſiſts ſolely in their aforeſaid claws, by which they hold themſelves ſo faſt upon the leaſt footing, that they can go where no other beaſt can.

The German bezoar, which ſome call cow's-eggs, is found in the ventricle, or ſtomach, of ſome cows, but more particularly in that of the ſhamoys, a kind of wild goat. Some of theſe ſtones weigh 18 ounces: but this ſort of bezoar is not much valued.

Beſides theſe three ſorts of bezoar, which are not very ſcarce in France, or elſewhere, and are to be had at all the druggiſts and apothecaries ſhops, the curious have three other ſorts in their cloſets, whoſe ſcarcity have raiſed them to an exorbitant price. Theſe are the hog, or boar bezoar, the Malacca, or porcupine bezoar, and the monkey bezoar.

The hog, or boar bezoar, called by the Dutch pedro de porco, and by the Portugueze, who firſt brought them into Europe, pedro de vaſſar, is found in the gall of ſome Indian boars. It's bigneſs, or ſize, ſeldom exceeds that of a filberd, which it reſembles pretty much in figure, though more irregular. As to it's colour, it has no fixed one, though it is moſt commonly white, inclining ſomewhat to green. Finally, it is on the ſide ſlacked, as it were, and ſoft to the touch.

When theſe bezoars arrive at Amſterdam, the number of which ſeldom exceeds five or ſix, in the richeſt cargoes that come from the Eaſt-Indies, they are bought for 3 or 400 guilders a piece, and even for more, not by merchants to trade with, and get a profit upon them, but by the wealthieſt citizens, either to make preſents of them to perſons of diſtinction, or to keep in their families, as a very great treaſure, which they tranſmit to their children by a kind of entail.

It is incredible how many virtues, or properties, the Indians aſcribe to this bezoar, which, among them, they call maſtica de ſoho; and thoſe of the kingdom of Malacca, where it is moſt commonly found, eſteem it more than the oriental bezoar; not ſo much becauſe they think it the beſt antidote in the world againſt all ſorts of poiſons, but becauſe it is a ſovereign remedy for curing the mordoxé, a kind of diſtemper to which they are very much ſubject, and which is not leſs dangerous in that part of Aſia than the plague is in Europe.

The other properties which the Indians aſcribe to the hog or boar bezoar, are as follow: they ſay it is admirable for curing all malignant fevers, as well as the ſmall-pox, and all diſtempers incident to women who are not with child; but it is known, by experience, that it makes thoſe pregnant women miſcarry who are indiſcreet enough to uſe it.

This bezoar muſt be ſteeped in a glaſs of water, or wine, 'till the liquor has acquired a bitteriſh taſte, which is not diſagreeable. This liquor muſt be taken in the morning faſting; though upon an urgent occaſion, it may be drank at any time of the day.

To make that infuſion more eaſily, as alſo to preſerve ſo precious a ſtone, moſt of thoſe who have any, cauſe it to be in-

closed in a round golden box, full of holes, to which is fixed a small chain of the same metal, by which they keep it suspended in the liquor, when they want to use it.

The bezoars of porcupines and monkies differ from the boar's in nothing but their being found in the galls of those two animals, whereas the other is found in the wild boar's gall; unless we should say, with Monsieur Tavernier, that the two former, which he calls Malacca stones, are not taken out of the galls, but out of the heads, of the porcupines and monkies, and that these are the bezoars on which the Malayans set so high a value, that they never suffer any to be carried out of their country, unless it be to make presents to ambassadors, or even to some of the greatest kings of the Indies.

Some assert, that the bezoar of Siam, which is so much esteemed on account of it's rare and excellent qualities, is a stone, found in a monkey, and that it is to be met with in that kingdom, as well as in that of Malacca, to which alone travellers had ascribed it, 'till the Chevalier de Chamont was sent ambassador from France to Siam, in the year 1686.

Upon the whole, the properties, figure, and colour of those three bezoars are so much alike, that there is no great danger, though a person should mistake the one for the other, or even think it is one and the same stone, under three different names.

We may observe, in general, with regard to all those bezoar-stones, that there are few animals in whose bowels they are not found; and people seldom fail to ascribe to them very extraordinary properties, which, perhaps, they never had; and it is, very probable, after that manner that all the bezoars, both ancient and modern, mentioned in this article, acquired the reputation they have.

We shall not speak here of the bezoars of some whimsical chymists; we shall only intimate what they call animal-bezoar, which is a powder of vipers, and bezoardicum Joviale, or bezoar of Jupiter, is nothing but block-tin, several times calcined.

Ox BEZOAR, otherwise called gall-stone, is a yellowish stone, found in the ox's gall-bladder. The physicians use it sometimes in medicine, and the painters in miniature employ it in several casts of yellow.

BIA, Thus the Siamese call those small white shells which come from the Maldives, and which are called coris, or cowries, almost throughout the East-Indies, where they serve for small coin, or money. They are also current in several parts of the African coast.

BICHET, a quantity or measure of corn, which differs according to the places where it is used. The bichet is not a wooden measure, as the minot at Paris, or the bushel at London: it is a compound of several certain measures.

At Tornus in Burgundy, the bichet is of 16 measures, or bushels of that province, which amount to something above 19 bushels of Paris.

The bichet of Beaune, as well as that of Tornus, is divided into 16 measures, or bushels, but these measures amount but to 18 bushels of Paris.

At Verdun the bichet is composed of 8 measures, or bushels, of the country, which at Paris make 15 bushels.

The bichet of Châlons on the Sâome contains 8 measures, which make 14 bushels at Paris, equal to the quarter of Bresse.

In some other places of France, and particularly at Lyons, the bushel is called bichet, though very different from the other bichets mentioned above.

BIDON, a liquid measure, containing about 5 pints of Paris, that is, about 5 quarts English wine measure. It is seldom used but among ship's crews. The wine designed for every mess of sailors is put into a bidon, which is a kind of wooden casks, bound with flat iron hoops.

BIGONTIA in Italian, BIGON in French, a liquid measure used at Venice. It is the fourth part of the amphora, and one half of the botté. Four quarts, or quartons, make a bigot, and four tischanfera a quart. See VENICE for their measures reduced to the English standard.

BIGORRE, the south division of the principality of Gascony in France, is situated almost intirely in the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from Arragon on the south; on the east it is bounded by Couserans and Comminges; on the north by the mountains of Armagnac; and, on the west, by Berne. The mountains here are said to have mines of copper, but they are not wrought.

TARBE, or TRAVIA, is situated in a fruitful plain, on the banks of the river Adour, 12 leagues distant from Auch to the south, and 6 from Pau to the east.

BANGERES is a city remarkable for it's several baths, within this city and it's neighbourhood, to which people resort twice a year, viz. in the spring and in autumn.

BAREGE is a village also remarkable for it's baths, and a great resort of company. There are there four baths, of different degrees of heat. The first is called the great bath, and consists of two springs of clear water, the smell whereof is like that of the mud of the sea, and is very hot.

When you expose silver and copper over the steam of this bath, the silver becomes immediately red, and then black, as the copper also does. The alteration is quicker still, when you plunge these metals into the water, whether it be at the spring, or even when the water is cold, and taken the day before. The water of the second bath is of the same nature, but not quite so hot, because the pipe through which it is carried into the common reservoir, is longer than that through which the water of the great bath runs, and is made of marble, whereas the other is of iron. The water of the third is less hot still; and that of the fourth, called the round bath, is but luke-warm, and very much weakened by a mixture of water from some cold springs. These baths are reckoned very good for the cure of rheumatic pains, and other distempers.

REMARKS.

The estates of many gentlemen affording variety of mineral springs, which occasion great resorts of people, and prove no inconsiderable advantage to such estates, as well as to the towns and cities wherein they happen to be discovered; the practice of bathing, and likewise mineral water selling for drinking, are become a species of traffic. For a gentleman who converts a mineral spring upon his lands into a commodious bath, may be said to trade in the virtues of his water; and, if he sells them, he becomes a kind of dealer in mineral liquors.

On these considerations, it may not be altogether useless to observe, that, since the variety of baths in England, and in many other parts of the world, have turned to so good an account to their proprietors, and have tended greatly to enrich particular towns and cities adjacent to them, it concerns the landed gentleman to know and discover whether his estate happens to afford any salubrious spring of this kind, and to judge whether any advantage is to be made of it.

To which end, it is requisite (as I have observed on other occasions) that land proprietors should be so much of the philosopher as to be able themselves to make a proper judgment of the various sorts of waters, as well as of whatsoever else their estates may afford.

Wherefore it may be very acceptable, instead of disagreeable, to many of the gentlemen of this kingdom, to find, in a Dictionary of Commerce, whatever has a tendency to the improvement of their estates, for the benefit of their families, which are often very large, and require better provision than they are frequently able to make for them: whereas, could they be prevailed on to cast an eye upon this work, we flatter ourselves that they would experience it to turn to no less good account to them than to traders in general. And as the land, as well as the sea, is the grand source of trafficable productions, we conceive it perfectly compatible with a work of this nature to promote the interest of land in this shape, in conjunction with that of trade in others.

The method of examining mineral waters for drinking, &c.

1. To half a common wine-glass of pyrmont water, was added a dram of syrup of violets; whereby a greenish colour was produced. 2. To a like quantity of the same water, were added a few grains of scraped galls; and, first, a purple, then a blackish colour, presently ensued. 3. A quantity of the same water was evaporated, and a small proportion of an ochry substance was left behind. 4. A glass of the same water was set cold in the receiver of the air-pump, and found, upon withdrawing the external air, that the water sparkled violently, and discharged a numerous quantity of small bubbles at it's surface, like what happens in the conflict of an acid and alkaline liquor.

This experiment holds in all the cases of chalybeate waters only, and not of mineral waters in general. By mineral waters in general are meant all those wherein any medicinal virtues, besides those of common water, are found. These are of various kinds; they may be considered thence under the general titles of chalybeate, purgative, and alterative.

The more useful and commodious additions for examining these three kinds of mineral waters, are galls, syrup of violets, and oil of tartar per deliquium.

Galls discover in them any small proportion of vitriol, or dissolved iron, as having the property of immediately striking a purple, or black colour, in all waters where any such substance is lodged.

Syrup of violets, in the same manner, discovers any small predominancy of an acid or alkali therein, by changing the water red, if an acid, and green, if alkali presides.

Oil of tartar discovers any small proportion of earthy matter, less capable of dissolving in water than that salt, by precipitating such earthy matter, in form of a white cloud, to the bottom of the containing glass, where it collects, and appears like a subtile white powder.

These particulars may be shewn, and proved satisfactorily, by adding to pure water a little of a known acid, alkali, dissolved iron, and subtile earth, or a fine light sediment of an earthy water; applying the syrup of violets, galls, and oil of tartar respectively.

Suppose, therefore, any unexperienced water to be examined; first, drop into it a little syrup of violets, and, if this does not alter it's colour, but continues it's full natural blueness, the water is neither acid nor alkaline. If gall do not turn the water black, it is not irony, or vitriolic; and, if oil of tartar does not precipitate a white powder, the water holds no considerable proportion of earthy matter.

These experiments admit of great enlargements, by means of many other additions, capable of causing a change of colour, or a precipitation, in waters, according as they are impregnated with matters of certain kinds. Thus a solution of silver, by causing a thickness, or light precipitation, discovers a minute proportion of sea-salt contained in waters; and there is scarce a salt on earth, or a mineral, hitherto known, but the industry of the experimental philosopher has found ways of discovering if it be contained in any common or mineral water; especially, if to this we add the use of evaporation, or bringing the solid contents of such waters to a dry form. So that, if this whole affair was to be properly conducted, we apprehend it might, in a short time, terminate in a certain discovery of the contents of all the mineral waters of the kingdom, to the great advantage of ordinary life, a considerable improvement in the art of medicine, and many other mechanical arts and trades, depending upon the proper choice and use of waters.

These things are remarked here, with a view only to apprise the country gentlemen of our intention to omit nothing essential that may have any tendency to the discovery of whatever may turn to their private advantage. For more matter on this head, see the article WATERS, chalybeate, purgative, and alterative.

BILL signifies a paper, either written or printed, in very large characters, which is posted up in some open and public place, to give notice of the sale of any merchandize or ship, or of the sailing of any vessel into foreign parts. The latter ought to mention the places where such vessels are bound, and those where they are to touch by the way, as also of what burden they are, how many guns they carry, and how many men they have on board. It is also by bills posted up, that the trading companies acquaint the public with the quantity and quality of the stuffs, linnens, metals, drugs, spices, and other effects, which their ships have brought home. They generally mention in those bills the places where such ships are arrived, the day of the sale, and often, also, the conditions of it. In a word, there are few things in commerce for which traders are not sometimes obliged to have bills posted up, if it were only to give notice of the new manufactures which they undertake to set up, or even only to let the public know that they have changed their dwelling-place, in order to preserve their customers.

No man is at liberty to post up a bill at Paris on any account whatsoever, without first obtaining leave from the lieutenant of the police, or from superior judges, according to the nature of the case.

Though such bills be also used in England, yet printed bills are often handed about for the abovementioned purposes; and the great conveniency of advertising in the public news-papers makes those bills less necessary here than in other countries.

BILL, in trade, both wholesale and retale, as also among tradespeople and workmen, signifies an account of merchandizes or goods delivered to a person, or of work done for one.

In those bills must be set down the sums of money received on account, which ought to be deducted from the sum total.

In France, agreeably to the seventh and eighth articles of the first title of the ordonnance of March 1673, the bills of merchants ought to be settled within a year after the delivery of the merchandizes, and the bills of workmen within six months after the delivery, or performance, of the work, otherwise exceptions might be made at law by the buyer, who, in such case, may refuse payment: but, in that case, the merchant, or workman, may cause the debtors to be examined, and oblige them to declare upon oath whether or not they have paid for such merchandizes or works, according to the tenth article of the same title of the abovementioned ordonnance.

BILLS settled, are such bills at the bottom of which they to whom the merchandizes, or works have been delivered, acknowledge that they have received them, that they are satisfied with the price, and promise to pay it, whether the time when payment is to be made be expressed or not.

As soon as the bills are thus settled, or that there is a promise to pay for the merchandizes, &c. the merchants and tradesmen are secure against all exceptions at law, and may in France claim their debts, even during 30 years.

BILL, in commerce, is also a common obligation, or engagement, given by one man to another. It is sometimes with a penalty, and sometimes without a penalty, though the latter is more commonly used. By a bill is ordinarily understood a single bond, without a condition; and it was formerly the same with an obligation, save only that it was called a bill, when in English, and an obligation, when in Latin.

A bill has been defined to be a writing, wherein one man is bound to another to pay a sum of money, on a day that is future, or presently on demand, according to the agreement of the parties at the time it is entered into, and the dealings between them: and it is divided into several sorts, as a bill that is single, a bill that is penal, &c. When a bill of 100 l. is to be paid on demand, it is a debt presently, and there needs no actual demand; and a single obligation, or bill, upon the sealing and delivery, is debitum in præsenti, a present debt, though solvendum in futuro, to be paid in the time to come. On a collateral promise to pay money on demand, there must be a special demand; but between the parties it is a debt, and said to be sufficiently demanded by the action. It is otherwise where the money is to be paid to a third person, or where there is a penalty. If a person acknowledge himself by bill obligatory to be indebted to another in the sum of 50 l. and, by the same bill, binds himself and his heirs in 100 l. and says not to whom he is bound, it should be intended he is bound to the person to whom the bill is made. A bill obligatory written in a book, with the party's hand and seal to it, is good; and, if a man makes a bill thus, I do owe, and promise to pay, to A B, 50 l. &c. for payment thereof I bind myself to C D, another person; it is good, by the words of the first part, and the words obligatory to another person are void. A person says by his deed, Memorandum, That I A B have received of C D the sum of 20 l. which I promise to pay to E F. In witness whereof I have hereunto set my seal, &c. Or, if the bill be, I shall pay to C D 20 l. in witness, &c. and the same be sealed: or, if it runs as follows, I owe C D 20 l. to be paid at, &c. or, I had of C D, 20 l. &c. to be repaid him again: or, I A B do bind myself to C D, that he shall receive 20 l. &c. all these are said to be obligatory.

Form of a single bill for money.

Know all men by these presents, That I A B, of, &c. do owe, and am indebted to C D, of, &c. the sum of fifty pounds of lawful money of Great-Britain, which I promise to pay unto the said C D, his executors, administrators, or assigns, at or upon, the first day of October next ensuing the date of these presents. In witness whereof I hereunto set my hand and seal, the 10th day of August, Anno Domini 1750.

A penal bill for payment of money.

Know all men by these presents, That I A B, of, &c. do owe unto C D, of, &c. the sum of one hundred pounds of lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid unto the said C D, his executors, administrators, or assigns, on, &c. next ensuing the date hereof. For which payment well and truly to be made I bind myself, my heirs, executors, and administrators, to the said C D, his executors, administrators, and assigns, in two hundred pounds in like lawful money, firmly by these presents. In witness, &c.

BILL of Credit, is a bill which a merchant, or banker, gives to a person whom he can trust, impowering him to receive money from the said merchant, or banker's correspondents in foreign countries. It is generally in the following form:

'This present writing witnesses that I A B, of London, mer-
'chant (or banker) do undertake to, or with C D, of, &c.
'merchant, his executors and administrators, that, if the
'said C D do deliver, or cause to be delivered, unto E F, of
'&c. or to his use, any sum or sums of money, amounting
'to the sum of, &c. pounds sterling of lawful British money
'(or any sum or sums of money, as the said E F shall have
'occasion for) and shall take a bill under the hand and seal of
'the said E F, confessing and shewing the certainty thereof;
'that then I, my executors and administrators, having the
'same bill delivered to me or them, shall and will imme-
'diately, upon the receipt of the same, pay, or cause to be
'paid, unto the said C D, his executors or assigns, all such
'sums of money as shall be contained in the said bill, at, &c.
'For which payment, in manner and form aforesaid, I bind
'myself, my executors, administrators, and assigns, by these
'presents. In witness, &c.'

Though bills of credit be different from bills of exchange, yet they enjoy the same privileges, for the money paid in consequence of them is recoverable by law.

A merchant, or banker, ought to be very well acquainted with the characters of those to whom he gives letters of credit, especially if the sum be not limited. It is advisable, therefore, as much as it is possible, to determine the sum, that a person may exactly know what engagement he enters into.

There is another caution to be observed, which is, to acquaint the correspondents who are to furnish the money, with the departure of him who is to receive it, and to describe his person as accurately as can be, or even to agree about some peculiar word or sentence, by which the correspondents may know that the person who applies to them for money is really the identical person meant: for he may be killed, and his bill of credit stolen, whereby another might personate him, and receive the money in his stead, which has frequently happened.

BILL of Entry, is an account of the goods and merchandizes entered at the custom-house, both inwards and outwards, in which is expressed the merchant exporting or importing, the quantity of merchandize, and the divers species thereof, and whither transported, or from whence. See examples hereof at the end of the letter A, where the method of computing the duties, and the manner of entering goods at the custom-house, are explained.

BILL of Exchange, is a piece of paper, commonly long and narrow, on which is wrote a short order, given by a banker, a merchant, or trader, for paying to such a person, or to his order, or also, in some countries, to the bearer in a distant place, a sum of money equivalent to that which such a banker, merchant, or trader has received in his dwelling-place.

The exchange of monies is of great antiquity, as well by obſervation of the Hebrew cuſtoms as thoſe of the Romans.

Upon the firſt day of the month Adar, proclamation was made throughout all Iſrael, that the people ſhould provide their half ſhekels, which were yearly paid towards the ſervice of the temple, according to the commandment of God; on the 25th of Adar, they brought tables in the temple (that is, in the outward court, where the people ſtood) [Exod. xxx. 31.] on theſe lay the leſſer coins, which were to furniſh thoſe who wanted half ſhekels for their offerings, or that wanted leſſer pieces of money in their payment for oxen, ſheep, doves, &c. which ſtood there ready in the ſame court to be ſold for ſacrifices; but this ſupply and furniſhing the people from theſe tables, was not without an exchange for other money, or other things in lieu of money, and that at an advantage: hence all thoſe who ſat at the tables were called bankers, or maſters of the exchange.

By the Romans it is ſuppoſed to be in uſe upwards of 2000 years, money being then made out of gold and ſilver, to avoid the carriage of merchandizes in barter, from one country to another: ſo other nations, imitating the Jews and Romans, erected mints, and coined monies, upon which the exchange by bills was deviſed, not only to avoid the danger of the adventure of monies, but it's troubleſome carriage.

Thus ſtates having, by their ſovereign authority, coined monies, cauſed them to appoint a certain exchange, for permutation of the various coins of ſeveral countries, without tranſporting of the coin, but giving par pro pari, or value for value, with a certain allowance to be made thoſe exchangers for accommodating the merchants.

As commerce branched into various ſhapes, ſo did exchange, but was generally reducible to four ſpecies, viz. common exchange, real exchange, dry exchange, and fictitious exchange.

Thoſe who practiſed the common exchange were conſtituted by the ſeveral kings, who, having received monies in England, would remit by exchange the like ſum, to be paid in another kingdom. Edward III. to aſcertain the exchange, cauſed tables to be ſet up in moſt of the general marts or ports of England, declaring the values of the foreign coins of thoſe countries with which his ſubjects carried on commerce, and what allowances were to be made for having monies to be remitted to ſuch countries.

Real exchange was, when monies were paid to the exchanger, and bills were drawn, without naming the ſpecies, but according to the value of the ſeveral coins; which two offices afterwards were incorporated; and, indeed, was no more but, upon payment of monies here in England, to be repaid the juſt value in money in another country, according to the price agreed on between the officer and deliverer, to allow, or pay, for the exchange of the money, and the loſs of time.

Dry exchange is, when a merchant hath occaſion for 500 l. ſuppoſe for a certain time, and would willingly pay intereſt for the ſame; the banker, being deſirous to take more than the legal intereſt, and yet to avoid the ſtatute, offers the 500 l. by exchange for Cales, or any other place, to which the merchant agrees; but, the merchant having no correſpondent there, the banker deſires him to draw his bill, to be paid at double or treble uſance, at Cales, by any feigned perſon, at the price of the exchange then current. Accordingly, the merchant makes the bill, and the banker pays the monies; which bill the banker remits to ſome friend of his, to procure a proteſt from Cales for non-acceptance, with the exchange of the money from Cales to London; all which, with coſts, the merchant is to repay to the banker; and ſometimes they have been ſo conſcientious as not to make above 30 per cent. by theſe artifices. This kind of uſury is ſaid to be firſt introduced into England by the Jews. Vide Co. 2 Inſt. fol. 506.

Fictitious exchange is when a merchant hath occaſion for goods to freight out his ſhip, but cannot well ſpare the money; the owner of the goods intimates, that he muſt have ready money; the buyer knowing his drift, it is agreed, that the ſeller ſhall take up the monies by exchange for Venice, or any other parts; but then the merchant muſt pay for exchange and re-exchange.

Theſe two laſt ways of oppreſſing the generous merchant were afterwards prohibited 3 and 4 Hen. VII.

The juſt and true exchange for monies, by bills, is par pro pari, according to value for value; which is grounded on the weight and fineneſs of monies, according to their ſeveral ſtandards, proportionable to their valuation; which, being truly and juſtly made, aſcertains and reduces the price of exchange to a ſum certain, for the exchange of monies to any nation or country whatſoever.

Foreign bills of exchange have long been looked on as the moſt obligatory and convenient paper-ſecurity, that is amongſt merchants; not ſo much by virtue of the laws of any country, as in conformity to the univerſal cuſtoms and uſages eſtabliſhed among traders themſelves, by a kind of unanimous concurrence, for the facilitating a general commerce throughout the world. In order, therefore, to make a judgment in caſes of this nature, it is neceſſary to be acquainted with thoſe cuſtoms and uſages: but, although in the courts of judicature of this nation, great regard is paid to theſe mercantile uſages, yet they have been frequently over-ruled by the law. Wherefore we judge it neceſſary to give a ſeries of ſelect caſes, which have been determined in our courts of law, as alſo thoſe ſtatutes which relate to bills of exchange; theſe being the fundamental principles, upon which the reaſonableneſs and equity of mercantile uſages muſt be judged of in this kingdom.

In the reign of king William III, inland bills in this nation had greatly loſt their credit, being not looked upon as bills of exchange, and therefore not punctually and regularly paid; which proceeded, in a great meaſure, from the defect of the laws, they not having effectually provided for the recovery of ſuch debts: whereupon the following act of parliament took place to remedy this evil.

Anno 9 & 10 Gulielmi III. Regis.

An act for the better payment of inland bills of exchange.

'Whereas great damages and other inconveniencies do frequently happen in the courſe of trade and commerce, by reaſon of the delays of payment, and other neglects on inland bills of exchange in this kingdom; be it therefore enacted by the king's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, that from and after the 24th day of June next, which ſhall be in the year 1698, all and every bill or bills of exchange drawn in, or dated at, and from any city or town, or any other trading city or town, or any other place in the kingdom of England, dominion of Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, of the ſum of five pounds ſterling or upwards, upon any perſon or perſons, of or in London, or any other trading city, town, or any other place (in which ſaid bill or bills of exchange ſhall be acknowledged and expreſſed, the ſaid value to be received) and is, and ſhall be, drawn payable at a certain number of days, weeks, or months, after date thereof, that from and after preſentation and acceptance of the ſaid bill or bills of exchange (which acceptance ſhall be by the underwriting, the ſame under the party's hand ſo accepting) and after the expiration of three days, after the ſaid bill or bills ſhall become due, the party to whom the ſaid bill or bills are made payable, his ſervant, agent, or aſſigns, may, and ſhall, cauſe the ſaid bill or bills to be proteſted by a notary public, and, in default of ſuch notary public, by any other ſubſtantial perſon of the city, town, or place, in the preſence of two or more credible witneſſes, refuſal or neglect being firſt made of due payment of the ſame, which proteſt ſhall be made and written under a fair written copy of the ſaid bill of exchange, in the words or form following;

Know all men, that I R. S. on the day of at the uſual place of abode of the ſaid have demanded payment of the bill, of which the above is the copy, which the ſaid did not pay; wherefore I the ſaid do hereby proteſt the ſaid bill, dated at this day of

'Which proteſt ſo made, as aforeſaid, ſhall, within fourteen days after making thereof, be ſent, or otherwiſe due notice ſhall be given thereof to the party, from whom the ſaid bill or bills were received, who is, upon producing ſuch proteſt, to repay the ſaid bill or bills, together with all intereſts and charges, from the day ſuch bill or bills were proteſted; for which proteſt ſhall be paid a ſum, not exceeding the ſum of ſix-pence; and in default or neglect of ſuch proteſt made and ſent, or due notice given within the days before limited, the perſon, ſo failing or neglecting thereof, is, and ſhall be liable to all coſts, damages, and intereſts, which do, and ſhall, accrue thereby.

'Provided nevertheleſs, that in caſe any ſuch inland bill, or bills of exchange, ſhall happen to be loſt, or miſcarried, within the time before limited for payment of the ſame, then the drawer of the ſaid bill or bills is, and ſhall, be obliged to give another bill or bills of the ſame tenour with the firſt given, the perſon or perſons to whom they are, and ſhall be ſo delivered, giving ſecurity, if demanded, to the ſaid drawer, to indemnify him againſt all perſons whatſoever, in caſe the ſaid bills or bill of exchange, ſo alledged to be loſt or miſcarried, ſhall be found again.'

After this, the nation being ſenſible of the conveniencies ariſing to commerce by that act, and obſerving, that there was no proviſion made in it for proteſting ſuch bills for non-acceptance, and the merchants further conſidering how beneficial it would be to the public to have the ſame remedy upon promiſſary notes, as upon bills of exchange, whereby the ſame may be transferred from party to party, without any other formality, but that of an endorſement: all theſe matters having been taken into conſideration by parliament, an act for that effect paſſed both houſes, and received the royal aſſent, to the general ſatisfaction of the nation, which is as follows.

Anno

Anno 3 & 4 Annæ Reginæ.

An act for giving like remedy upon promiſſary notes, as is now uſed upon bills of exchange, and for the better payment of inland bills of exchange.

'Whereas it hath been held, that notes in writing, ſigned 'by the party who makes the ſame, whereby ſuch party pro- 'miſes to pay any other perſon, or his order, any ſum of 'money therein mentioned, are not aſſignable or endorſible 'over, within the cuſtom of merchants, to any other per- 'ſon; and that ſuch perſon to whom the ſum of money 'mentioned in ſuch note is payable, cannot maintain an 'action, by the cuſtom of merchants, againſt the perſon 'who firſt made and ſigned the ſame; and that any perſon 'to whom ſuch note ſhould be aſſigned, endorſed, or made pay- 'able, could not, within the ſaid cuſtom of merchants, main- 'tain any action upon ſuch note againſt the perſon, who firſt 'drew and ſigned the ſame: therefore, to the intent to en- 'courage trade and commerce, which will be much advanced, 'if ſuch notes ſhall have the ſame effect, as inland bills of 'exchange, and ſhall be negociated in like manner; Be it 'enacted by the queen's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with 'the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, 'and commons in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by 'the authority of the ſame, that all notes in writing, that af- 'ter the firſt day of May, in the year of our Lord 1705, ſhall 'be made and ſigned by any perſon, or perſons, body politic 'or corporate, or by the ſervant or agent of any corporation, 'banker, goldſmith, merchant, or trader, who is uſually en- 'truſted by him, her, or them, whereby ſuch perſon or perſons, 'body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, or unto 'bearer, any ſum of money, mentioned in ſuch note, ſhall 'be taken and conſtrued to be, by virtue thereof, due and 'payable to any ſuch perſon or perſons, body politic or cor- 'porate, to whom the ſame is made payable; and alſo every 'ſuch note payable to any perſon or perſons, body politic 'and corporate, his, her, or their order, ſhall be aſſignable 'or endorſible over, in the ſame manner as inland bills of 'exchange are, or may be, according to the cuſtom of mer- 'chants; and that the perſon or perſons, body politic and 'corporate, to whom ſuch ſum of money is, or ſhall be, 'by ſuch note made payable, ſhall and may maintain an 'action for the ſame, in ſuch manner, as he, ſhe, or they 'might do, upon an inland bill of exchange, made or drawn 'according to the cuſtom of merchants; and that the per- 'ſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, who, or whoſe 'ſervant or agent, as aforeſaid, ſigned the ſame; and that 'any perſon or perſons, body politic and corporate, to 'whom ſuch note that is payable to any perſon or perſons, 'body politic and corporate, his, her, or their order, is en- 'dorſed or aſſigned, or the money, therein mentioned, or- 'dered to be paid by endorſement thereon, ſhall and may 'maintain his, her, and their action for ſuch ſum of money, 'either againſt the perſon or perſons, body politic and cor- 'porate, who, or whoſe ſervant or agent, as aforeſaid, ſigned 'ſuch a note, or againſt any of the perſons that endorſed 'the ſame, in like manner as in caſes of inland bills of ex- 'change: and, in every ſuch action, the plaintiff or plain- 'tiffs ſhall recover his, her, or their damages, and coſts of 'ſuit; and if ſuch plaintiff or plaintiffs ſhall recover his, her, 'or their coſts, againſt the defendant or defendants; and 'every ſuch plaintiff or plaintiffs, defendant or defendants, re- 'ſpectively recovering, may ſue out execution for ſuch damages 'and coſts, by capias, fieri facias, or elegit.

'And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that 'all and every ſuch actions ſhall be commenced, ſued, and 'brought within ſuch time as is appointed, for commencing 'or ſuing actions upon the caſe, by the ſtatute made in the '21ſt year of the reign of king James the firſt, intitled An 'act for limitation of actions, and for avoiding of ſuits in 'law, provided, that no body politic or corporate, ſhall have 'power, by virtue of this act, to iſſue or give out any notes 'by themſelves or their ſervants, other than ſuch as they 'might have iſſued, if this act had never been made.

'And whereas by an act of parliament made in the ninth 'year of the reign of his late majeſty king William III. in- 'titled, An act for better payment of inland bills of exchange; 'it is, among other things, enacted, that from and after pre- 'ſentation and acceptance of the ſaid bill or bills of exchange '(which acceptance ſhall be by the underwriting, the ſame 'under the party's hand ſo accepting) and after the expira- 'tion of three days, after the ſaid bill or bills ſhall become 'due, the party to whom the ſaid bill or bills are made pay- 'able, his ſervant, agent, or aſſigns, may and ſhall cauſe 'the ſame bill or bills to be proteſted, in manner as in the 'ſaid act is enacted: and whereas, by there being no pro- 'viſion made therein for proteſting ſuch bill or bills, in caſe 'the party on whom the ſame are or ſhall be drawn, refuſe 'to accept the ſame, by underwriting the ſame under his 'hand, all merchants and others who refuſe to underwrite 'ſuch bill or bills, or make any other than a promiſſary ac- 'ceptance, by which means the effect and good intent of 'the ſaid act in that behalf is wholly evaded, and no bill 'or bills can be proteſted before, or for want of ſuch ac- 'ceptance by underwriting the ſame, as aforeſaid; for re- 'medy whereof, Be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, 'that from and after the firſt day of May, which ſhall be 'in the year of our Lord 1705, in caſe, upon preſenting 'of ſuch bill or bills of exchange, the party or parties, on 'whom the ſame ſhall be drawn, ſhall refuſe to accept the 'ſame, by underwriting the ſame, as aforeſaid, the party 'to whom the ſaid bill or bills are made payable, his 'ſervant, agent, or aſſign, may, and ſhall, cauſe the ſaid 'bill or bills to be proteſted for non-acceptance, as in caſe of 'foreign bills of exchange: any thing in the ſaid act, or 'any other law, to the contrary notwithſtanding; for which 'proteſt there ſhall be paid two ſhillings, and no more.

'Provided always, that, from and after the ſaid firſt day of 'May, no acceptance of any ſuch inland bill of exchange 'ſhall be ſufficient to charge any perſon whatſoever, unleſs 'the ſame be underwritten, or endorſed in writing there- 'upon; and if ſuch bill be not accepted by ſuch under- 'writing, or endorſement in writing, no drawer of any 'ſuch inland bill ſhall be liable to pay any coſts, damages, 'or intereſts thereupon, unleſs ſuch proteſt be made for non- 'acceptance thereof, and, within fourteen days after ſuch 'proteſt, the ſame be ſent, or otherwiſe notice thereof be 'given, to the party, from whom ſuch bill was received, or 'left in writing at the place of his, her, or their uſual 'abode; and if ſuch bill be accepted, and not paid before 'the expiration of three days after the ſaid bill ſhall become 'due and payable, then no drawer of ſuch bill ſhall be 'compellable to pay any coſts, damages, or intereſts there- 'upon, unleſs a proteſt be made and ſent, or notice thereof 'be given, in manner and form above-mentioned: never- 'theleſs, every drawer of ſuch bill ſhall be liable to make 'payment of coſts, damages, and intereſts, upon ſuch in- 'land bill, if any one proteſt be made for non-acceptance, 'and non-payment thereof, and notice thereof be ſent, given, 'or left as aforeſaid.

'Provided, that no ſuch proteſt ſhall be neceſſary, either 'for non-acceptance, or non-payment of any inland bill of 'exchange, unleſs the value be acknowledged and expreſſed 'in ſuch bill to be received, and unleſs ſuch bill be drawn 'for the payment of 20 l. ſterling, or upwards; and that 'the proteſt, hereby required for non-acceptance, ſhall be 'made by ſuch perſons, as are appointed, by the ſaid recited 'acts, to proteſt inland bills of exchange for non-payment 'thereof.

'And it be further enacted, that from and after the firſt day 'of May, if any perſon doth accept any ſuch bill of ex- 'change, for and in ſatisfaction of any former debt, or 'ſum of money formerly due unto him, the ſame ſhall be 'accounted and eſteemed a full and complete payment of 'ſuch debt, if ſuch perſon, accepting of any ſuch bill for his 'debt, doth not take his due courſe to obtain payment there- 'of, by endeavouring to get the ſame accepted and paid, and 'make his proteſt as aforeſaid, either for non-acceptance, or 'non-payment thereof.

'Provided, that nothing herein contained ſhall extend to diſ- 'charge any remedy, that any perſon may have againſt the 'drawer, accepter, or indorſer of ſuch bill.'

After a recital of theſe acts of parliament, in relation to bills of exchange, we conceive it more ſatisfactory, to every man of ſenſe, rather to give a variety of caſes that have been determined in the courts of judicature of this kingdom, than the collective ſenſe of thoſe whoſe judgment is not of the like authority.

We apprehend, moreover, that thoſe caſes, being abſtracted with their eſſential circumſtances, will prove of more public utility, than giving them in a groſs ſuperficial manner, which in that way, even to lawyers themſelves, who have not the caſes ad unguem, could be of little ſervice, and of much leſs to traders in general. In regard to the acceptance of bills of exchange, ſee the article ACCEPTANCE, where there are ſome caſes, incorporated with the general uſages of merchants.

SOME CURIOUS CASES RELATIVE TO BILLS OF EXCHANGE, AS THEY HAVE BEEN DETERMINED IN COURTS OF JUDICATURE IN ENGLAND.

Clark verſus Mundal. 3 W. & M. coram Holt C. J. at Niſi Prius at Guildhall.

A, having a bill of exchange payable to him, and he being indebted to B in a ſum of money, ſends and indorſes this bill to B. Afterwards B brought aſſumpſit againſt A for the money, and on non aſſumpſit A gave in evidence this bill of exchange indorſed, and that it had lain ſo long in B's hands after it was payable, and reckoned it as money paid and in his hands; but it was diſallowed; for a bill ſhall never go in diſcharge of a precedent debt, except it be part of the contract that it ſhould be ſo. If A ſells goods to B, and B is to give a bill in ſatisfaction, B is diſcharged, though the bill is never paid, for the bill is payment: but, otherwiſe, a bill ſhould never diſcharge a precedent debt or contract; but, if part be received, it ſhall be only a diſcharge of the old debt for ſo much. Salk. 124.

Hodges verſus Steward. Paſch. 3 W. & M. B. R.

In an action on the caſe on an inland bill of exchange, brought by the indorſer againſt the drawer, theſe following points were reſolved.

1. A difference was taken between a bill payable to J. S. or bearer, and J. S. or order; for a bill payable to J. S. or bearer, is not aſſignable by the contract, ſo as to enable the indorſer to bring an action, if the drawer refuſe to pay, becauſe there is no ſuch authority given to the party by the firſt contract, and the effect of it is only to diſcharge the drawer, if he pays it to the bearer, though he comes to it by trover, theft, or otherwiſe. But when the bill is payable to J. S. or order, there an expreſs power is given to the party to aſſign, and the endorſer may maintain an action.

2. Though an aſſignment of a bill payable to J. S, or bearer, be no good aſſignment to charge the drawer with an action on the bill; yet it is a good bill between the indorſer and indorſee, and the indorſer is liable to an action for the money; for the indorſement is in nature of a new bill.

3. It being objected, that, in this caſe, there was no averment of the defendant's being a merchant, it was anſwered by the court, that the drawing the bill was a ſufficient merchandiſing and negociating to this purpoſe.

4. The plaintiff declared, on a ſpecial cuſtom in London, for the bearer to have this action. To which the defendant demurred, without traverſing the cuſtom; ſo that he confeſſed it, whereas, in truth, there was no ſuch cuſtom; and the court was of opinion, that, for this reaſon judgment ſhould be given for the plaintiff; for though the court is to take notice of the law of merchants, as part of the law of England; yet they cannot take notice of the cuſtom of particular places, and the cuſtom in the declaration being ſufficient to maintain the action, and that being confeſſed, he had admitted judgment againſt himſelf.

5. 'Twas held, that a general indebitatus aſſumpſit will not lie on a bill of exchange for want of a conſideration; for it is but an evidence of a promiſe to pay, which is but a nudum pactum; and therefore he muſt either bring a ſpecial action on the cuſtom of merchants, or a general indebitatus aſſumpſit againſt the drawer, for money received to his uſe. Judgment pro Quer'. Ibid. 125.

Pinkney verſus Hall. Hill. 8 Will. III. B. R.

By the cuſtom of England, where there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill drawn on both for him and partner, it binds both, if it concerns the trade; otherwiſe, if it concerns the accepter only in a diſtinct intereſt and reſpect. Ibid. 126.

Clark verſus Pigot. Paſch. 10 Will. III. B. R.

Clark having a bill of exchange payable to him or order, puts his name upon it, leaving a vacant ſpace above, and ſends it to J. S. his friend, who got it accepted; but, the money not being paid, Clark brought an indebitatus aſſumpſit againſt the accepter: and it was objected on evidence, that the property was transferred to J. S. Et per Holt, C. J. J. S. had it in his power to act either as a ſervant or aſſignee: if he had filled up the blank ſpace, making the bill payable to him, that would have witneſſed his election, to have received it as indorſee; but, that being omitted, his intention is preſumed to act only as ſervant to Clark, whoſe name he would uſe only in order to write the aquittance over it. Ibid. 126.

Anonymous, Mich. 10 Will. III. coram Holt, C. J. at Niſi Prius at Guildhall.

A bank bill payable to A, or bearer, being given to A, and loſt, was found by a ſtranger, who transferred it to C for a valuable conſideration; C got a new bill in his own name. Et per Holt, C. J. A may have trover againſt the ſtranger who found the bill, for he had no title, though the payment to him would have indemnified the bank; but A cannot maintain trover againſt C, by reaſon of the courſe of trade, which creates a property in the aſſignee, or bearer. Ibid. 126.

Anonymous, Mich. 10 Will. III. coram Holt, C. J. at Niſi Prius at Guildhall.

A bill of exchange being made payable to A, or order, A indorſes it to B; B cannot ſue A, unleſs he firſt endeavour to find out the firſt drawer to demand it of him; for the indorſer is only a warranter for the payment of the drawer, and therefore liable only on his default; and ſuch endeavour muſt be ſet forth in the declaration. Ibid. 126.

Allen verſus Dockwra. Mich. 10 Will. III. coram Treby, C. J. at Niſi Prius at Guildhall.

A bill was drawn on Sutor, payable in three days; Sutor broke; the perſon to whom it was payable kept the bill by him four years, and then brought aſſumpſit againſt the drawer: and per Treby, C. J. when one draws a bill of exchange, he

ſubjects himſelf to the payment, if the perſon on whom it was drawn refuſes either to accept or pay: yet that is with this limitation, that, if the bill be not paid in convenient time, the perſon to whom it is payable ſhall give the drawer notice thereof; for otherwiſe the law will imply the bill paid, becauſe there is a truſt between the parties, and it may be prejudicial to commerce, if the bill may riſe up to charge the drawer at any diſtance of time; when in the mean time all reckonings and accounts are adjuſted between the drawer and drawee. Ibid. 127.

Jackſon verſus Pigot, 10 Will. III. B. R.

The plaintiff declared on a bill of exchange drawn by J. S. on the defendant, dated the 15th of March, 1696, payable a month after ſight, and that afterwards, viz. the 27th of April, 1697, he ſhewed it the defendant, and he promiſed to pay it according to the tenour of the bill, after verdict for the plaintiff on non aſſumpſit, was moved in arreſt of judgment, that this manner of declaring was abſurd, it being impoſſible to pay according to the tenour of the bill at time of the promiſe. Reſolved by the court, that, where the time of payment is paſt at the acceptance of the bill, the acceptance can be only to pay the money; and if he was ſo abſurd as to promiſe to pay the money, according to the tenour of the bill, yet that is no more in law now than a promiſe to pay the money generally: but it is better to declare in ſuch a caſe on general promiſe to pay the money. Per Holt, C. J. Ibid. 127.

Lambert verſus Pack, Paſ. 11 Will. III. coram Holt, C. J. at Niſi Prius, London.

An action on the caſe was brought on a bill of exchange againſt the indorſer; and it was ruled by Holt, C. J. upon evidence, 1ſt, That there is no need to prove the drawer's hand, becauſe, though it be a forged bill, the indorſer is bound to pay it. 2dly, The plaintiff muſt prove that he demanded it of the drawer, or him upon whom it was drawn, and that he refuſed to pay it, or elſe that he ſought him and could not find him; for otherwiſe he cannot reſort to the indorſer. 3dly, That this was done in convenient time; for if they ſtand, and are reſponſible a convenient time after the aſſignment, and no demand made, the indorſee ſhall not charge the indorſer. The time for foreign bills is three days, and no allowance is to be made for Sundays and holidays. Serjeant Wright cited a caſe of one Tracey, who ſtood a week after the indorſement, and the indorſee loſt his money; which Holt, chief juſtice, thought was too ſtrait; but ſuch matters muſt be left to the jury. 4thly, It is a queſtion whether notice muſt be given or no; but it is fair to give notice. 5thly, That the demand muſt be proved ſubſequent to the indorſement; for, if it was precedent, he could only act as ſervant to the indorſer; and ſo the demand was inſufficient to charge the indorſer. 6thly, If a man indorſes his name upon the back of a bill blank, he puts it in the power of the indorſee to make what uſe of it he will, and he may uſe it as an acquittance to diſcharge the bill, or as an aſſignment to charge the indorſer. 7thly, In caſes of bills purchaſed at a diſcount, this is the difference; if it be a bill payable to A, or bearer, it is an abſolute purchaſe; but if to A, or order, it is indorſed blank, and filled up with an aſſignment, the indorſer muſt warrant it as much as if there had been no diſcount. Ibid. 128.

Eaſt verſus Eſſington, Mich. 1 Ann. B. R.

Indorſee declared on a bill of exchange againſt the drawer, and the bill was, Pray pay this my firſt bill of exchange, my ſecond and third not being paid; and the endorſement was ſet out in this manner, that the drawer indorſavit ſuper billam illam, content' billæ illius ſolvend' to the plaintiff, without ſhewing that it was ſubſcribed. On non aſſumptſit and verdict pro quer. it was objected in arreſt of judgment, that there was no averment that the ſecond and third bills were not paid, which is a condition precedent: ſed non allocatur: et per cur. That muſt be intended, for the plaintiff could not otherwiſe have had a verdict: and, for the ſame reaſon alſo, the endorſement, which was likewiſe excepted againſt as ſet forth in the declaration, was held good, being aided by the verdict; the court comparing it to an action of debt, by an aſſignee of a reverſion, without ſhewing an attornment which, on non debet, is aided by verdict; for, if the endorſement be neceſſary to transfer the bill, ſo is the attornment to paſs the reverſion. Ergo, as the attornment ſhall be ſupplied by the jury's finding debet, ſo ſhall the endorſement by their finding aſſumpſit. Ibid. 130.

Lucas verſus Haynes, Paſch. 2 Ann. B. R.

In trover for a bill of exchange, the caſe upon evidence was, that the plaintiff had a bill of exchange drawn upon the defendant, and ſent it by J. S. to the defendant, to get it accepted; J. S. left it with the defendant, and afterwards, the bill being loſt, the plaintiff brought trover for it, and J. S. was now the plaintiff's witneſs for this matter, and, becauſe the plaintiff had endorſed the bill, it was objected that J. S. could not be a witneſs; and, this point being ſaved the court were all of opinion, that the bare endorſement, without other

words purporting an aſſignment, does not work an alteration of the property; for it may ſtill be filled up, either with a receipt or an aſſignment, and, conſequently, J. S. is a good witneſs. Ibid. 130.

Butler verſus Crips, Trin. 2 Ann. B. R.

Per Holt, C. J. Pay to me, or my order, ſo much, is a bill of exchange, if accepted; and this is the only way to make a bill of exchange without the intervention of a third perſon. Ibid. 130.

Borough verſus Perkins, Mic. 2 Ann. B. R.

Error of a judgment in C. B. in caſe on an inland bill of exchange brought againſt the drawer, and judgment for the plaintiff by nil dicit. Mr Raymond for the plaintiff in error urged, that it doth not appear by the declaration that the bill was proteſted, and ſince the ſtatute 9 and 10 Will. III. no action lies againſt the drawer, unleſs there be a proteſt made, as that act requires; and this ought to appear in the declaration; for, at common law, the party had no remedy againſt the drawer, without notice given him of non payment; and, if the ſtatute does not make the proteſt neceſſary, it does nothing. Mr Parker cont. It does not appear the bill was accepted by underwriting, without which it is not within the ſtatute, and without it a proteſt cannot be made; for a proteſt was not neceſſary at common law in caſe of inland bills, as it was in caſe of foreign bills; but, ſuppoſing it were within the ſtatute, yet the proteſt need not be ſet forth in the declaration, but this is to be conſidered at the trial; for, if the drawer receive damage for want of a proteſt, and the damage amounted to the value, it is a total diſcharge; if leſs, yet for ſo much. Holt, C. J. In inland as well as foreign bills of exchange, the perſon to whom it is payable muſt give convenient notice of non-payment to the drawer; for if, by his delay, the drawer receive prejudice, the plaintiff ſhall recover: a proteſt on a foreign bill was part of it's conſtitution; on inland bills, a proteſt is neceſſary by this ſtatute, but was not at common law; but the ſtatute does not take away the plaintiff's action for want of a proteſt, nor does it make ſuch want a bar to the plaintiff's action; but this ſtatute ſeems only, in caſe there be no proteſt, to deprive the plaintiff of damages or intereſt, and to give the drawer a remedy againſt him for damages, if he make no proteſt. Quod Powell conceſſit, and that a proteſt was never ſet forth in any declaration ſince the ſtatute. Ibid. 131.

Buckly verſus Cambell, Hil. 7 Ann. B. R.

The plaintiff declared upon a bill of exchange drawn at Amſterdam, payable at London at two uſances, and did not ſhew what the two uſances were; and judgment was given pro def. for the court could not take notice of foreign uſances, which varied, being longer in one place than another. Ibid. 131.

Hill & al' verſus Lewis.

Action upon the caſe for 170 l. 10 s. The plaintiff declared ſeveral ways, viz. 1ſt, Upon two bills of exchange againſt the indorſer. 2dly, Upon a mutuatus. 3dly, An indebitatus aſſumpſit pleaded. The caſe upon evidence was, Moor, a goldſmith, ſubſcribed two notes, payable to the defendant. The defendant, on the 19th of October, indorſes theſe two notes, and gives them and eight others to one Zouch, to whom he was indebted: Zouch, the 19th of October, between the hours of 11 and 12, brought theſe notes to the plaintiffs, being goldſmiths, and they accepted them, and gave to Zouch other bills, and ſome money: and afterwards, the ſame day, the plaintiffs received money upon other bills of the ſaid Moor, and might have had the money due upon theſe two bills, if they had been demanded; but, in the night following, about midnight, Moor broke and ran away; and whether the plaintiffs or indorſers ſhould loſe this 170 l. 10 s. was the queſtion. The queſtion was, whether the acceptance of theſe bills in ſatisfaction for ſo much money be a good diſcharge of the indorſer? and Holt, C. J. held, that goldſmiths bills were governed by the ſame laws and cuſtoms as other bills of exchange; and every indorſement is a new bill, and ſo long as a bill is in agitation, and ſuch indorſements are made, all the indorſements and every of them are liable as a new drawer. That by the law, generally, every indorſer is always liable as the firſt drawer, and cannot be diſcharged without an actual payment, and is not diſcharged by the acceptance of the bill by the indorſee; but, by the cuſtom, this is reſtrained, viz. the acceptance is intended to be upon the agreement, ſc. that the indorſee will receive it of the firſt drawer, if he can, and, if he cannot, then that the indorſer will anſwer it; as if the firſt drawer be inſolvent at the time of the indorſement, or upon demand refuſes to pay it, or cannot be found. And the indorſer is not diſcharged without actual payment, until there is ſome neglect or default in the indorſee, as if he does not endeavour to receive it in convenient time, and then the firſt drawer becomes inſolvent.

The ſecond point was, what ſhall be thought convenient time to endeavour to receive ſuch bill? Et per Holt, C. J. In caſe of foreign bills, he upon whom it is drawn hath three days to pay it, and the indorſee of ſuch bill need not demand payment until the ſaid three days be expired; and, if he upon whom the bill is drawn become inſolvent in the ſaid time, the indorſer is chargeable, and after the three days the indorſee may proteſt it; and it ſeems the ſame time ought to be allowed for inland bills, though it was urged that for foreign bills alone time was required, in reſpect the drawee was to receive advice from the drawer.

And the chief-juſtice, in his direction to the jury, ſaid, that what ſhould be thought convenient time, ought to be according to the uſage among traders in ſuch caſes, and upon all the circumſtances: that the plaintiffs had ten bills delivered to them together; and that, perhaps, they had other affairs that hindered them from going preſently to receive theſe two bills, and that they received two other bills the ſame day. The chief-juſtice left it to the jury to conſider, whether the time in this caſe were convenient time or not; and, if the plaintiff had convenient time to receive his money, then to find for the defendant, otherwiſe for the plaintiff; upon which the plaintiff prayed to take the verdict upon the indebitatus aſſumpſit. Et per chief-juſtice: you cannot take the verdict upon any part of the declaration but that to which evidence was given, and here it will be good, if found upon the bills of exchange; but, if the evidence be applicable to any other part of the declaration, you may take it upon any ſuch part to which the evidence is applicable. And becauſe Zouch had ſworn that he had received the benefit of, and had been ſatisfied with the bill he took of the plaintiff, by which the defendant was diſcharged againſt Zouch, the verdict was taken upon the indebitatus aſſumpſit for money laid out for the defendant's uſe; and it ſeems the indorſement by the defendant to the plaintiff was good evidence of a requeſt to pay the ſaid money to Zouch. Now exception was taken that one bill was payable to the defendant only, without the words, or his order, and therefore not aſſignable by the indorſement; and the chief-juſtice did agree that the indorſement of this bill did not make him that drew the bill chargeable to the indorſee; for the words, or to his order, give authority to the plaintiff to aſſign it by indorſement; and it is an agreement by the firſt drawer that he would anſwer it to the aſſignee: but the indorſement of a bill which has not the words, or to his order, is good, or of the ſame effect, between the indorſer and the indorſee, to make the indorſer chargeable to the indorſee. Ibid. 133.

Harry verſus Perrit, Trin. 9 Ann. B. R.

Action on a promiſſary note againſt the ſecond indorſer, and the plaintiff declared without an averment, that the money was demanded of the drawer, or the firſt indorſer. And this was held good upon motion in arreſt of judgment; for the indorſer charges himſelf in the ſame manner as if he had originally drawn the bill. Ibid. 133.

Witherley verſus Sarsfield, Mich. 1 W. & M.

A writ of error was brought in the exchequer chamber upon a judgment in B. R. where the plaintiff declared in caſe, on the cuſtom of merchants, that if any merchant, or other trading perſon, make and direct any bill of exchange to another, payable to a merchant, or any other trading perſon, and the bill be tendered, and, for want of acceptance, proteſted, in ſuch caſe the drawer by the cuſtom is chargeable to pay, &c.—That the defendant at Paris in France did draw a bill on his father here in London, payable to the plaintiff, and the ſame was preſented but refuſed, and he, according to cuſtom, proteſted the bill, whereby the defendant became chargeable, and, in conſideration of the premiſes, did aſſume, &c. To this the defendant pleaded, that he was a gentleman, the ſon and heir of Dr Thomas Witherley, and, at the time of drawing the bill, was a traveller, and at Paris, for his better education; and that he was no merchant, nor trader, nor did ever deal as ſuch, and he was then at Paris as a gentleman and traveller, as aforeſaid, abſque hoc, and denies that he is or ever was a merchant, &c. The plaintiff demurs to the defendant's plea, and ſhews for cauſe, that it amounts to the general iſſue, is double and uncertain, &c. Holt, C. J. It is not every plea that amounts to a general iſſue that is ill; and the cuſtom is the foundation, and the plea is an anſwer to that, and therefore enough. But this drawing a bill muſt ſurely make him a trader for that purpoſe, for we all have bills directed to us, or payable to us, which muſt be all voidable, if the negociating a bill will not oblige the drawer of it. The judgment for the defendant was reverſed, and the plaintiff had judgment in B. R. upon a remittitur. Holt's Reports, 113.

Darrach verſus Savage, Paſch. 2 W. & M.

Indebitat. aſſumpſit for 40 l. received to the plaintiff's uſe, the defendant pleaded non aſſumpſit; and upon the trial the evidence was a bill of exchange, or note, under the defendant's hand, dated the 22d of February, 1687, directed to a merchant of London, Pray pay to Mr John Darrach, or his order, the ſum of 40 l. and place it to my account, value received, witneſs my hand. The money was never demanded of the mer-

merchant 'till the action brought: and it was insisted for the plaintiff, that the defendant was still chargeable, and so continued to be 'till the note was discharged.

Holt, C. J. In this case the bill, or note, should be deemed payment; and that the plaintiff was satisfied with the merchant as his debtor, if he did not in convenient time resort back to the drawer for his money: for his keeping the bill, so long, was an evidence that he thought the merchant good at that time, and that he agreed to take him for his debtor. Judgment for the defendant. Ibid. 113.

Mogadara versus Holt, Mich. 3 W. & M.

In case on a bill of exchange, the plaintiff sets forth, that there is a custom, that if any merchant in London draws his bill, or bills, upon any merchant in Rotterdam, payable to any merchant, or order, and if the merchant there accept any such bill, and before acceptance, or after, the merchant to whose order the money is directed to be paid doth indorse it to any other merchant, and that other merchant doth indorse it to some other, and the merchant, to whom the bill is directed, accepts it after such indorsement, and fails in payment to the merchant to whom indorsed at the time limited, whereby the bill becomes protested, and notice is given thereof to the drawer; that, in such cases, the drawer becomes liable to pay the same with damage to the indorsee. That the defendant drew a bill of exchange, 19th November 1688, on Edward Williams, payable in two months and a half, to the order of one Hartopp, for 300 l. value of himself; and Hartopp the same day indorsed it to Marques, and Marques indorsed it to the plaintiff; that the plaintiff afterwards, viz. 8 Feb. 1689, gave notice to Williams, and he then accepted the bill; that Williams failed to pay it, and, by reason thereof, the said 8 Feb. the bill was protested, of which protest the defendant had notice the 28th of April, and did not pay it. The defendant demurred generally to the declaration, the bill not being accepted till after the day of payment was expired; and it was insisted, that the protest should have been for non-acceptance within the time, and failure of payment at the time.

By Holt, C. J. The law of merchants made him liable, who was the drawer of the bill, though the acceptance were after the day; for it need not be tendered within the time. Now by that law the drawer is chargeable by the value received; and though the money were not paid, or the bill presented within the time mentioned, yet it ought still to be paid: and if the party do not tender and protest at the day, and there be a break in the mean time of the person on whom the bill is drawn, he loses his money; otherwise, if there be no particular damage. Judgment was given for the plaintiff. Ibid. 114.

Ward versus Evans, Mich. 2 Ann.

A case made before my lord chief-justice Holt at Guildhall was this: Ward, the plaintiff, sent his servant to receive a note of 50 l. of B, who went with him to the defendant Sir Stephen Evans's shop, and he indorsed off 50 l. upon a note of 100 l. which B had upon him, and gave the servant a note of 50 l. upon one Wallis, a goldsmith, to whom the note was carried the next day by Ward's servant; but Wallis refused to pay, and that day broke; and thereupon the note was sent back to Evans, who refused payment, on which an action was brought; and the question was, whether it would lie against the defendant, or that this were a good payment by Evans to the plaintiff.

Holt, C. J. It is plain the servant was sent by his master to receive the money, and not the bill: and if the servant upon tender of the bill, had come to the master to know his mind, and the master had sent him back for the money, if then he had took the bill, that would not have bound the master; but here was some time for the master to assent to what the servant had done; but he held clearly, that this indorsement by Evans on the note of B, was a receipt by him of so much money to the use of the plaintiff, for which an indebit. assump. would lie. And they all agreed, that if a master send his servant to receive money upon a goldsmith's bill, or any other, and he takes another bill upon another person for payment, that shall not bind the master, without some subsequent act of consent; as if he would not send back the bill in reasonable time, &c. but acquiescence, or any small matter, will be proof of the master's consent, and that will make the act of the servant the act of the master.

A goldsmith's note is received conditionally, if paid, and no otherwise, without an express agreement to be taken as money: and the party having such note shall have a reasonable time to receive the money, as, in this case, the next day, and is not obliged as soon as he receives the note to go straight for his money. Ibid. 120.

Popley versus Ashley, Pasch. 3 Ann.

The defendant took up several goods of the plaintiff, who sent a servant with a bill to him for the money; the defendant orders the servant to write him a receipt in full of the bill, which he did, and thereupon he gives him a note upon a third person, payable in two months: the master sent several times to the third person, to present him the note, but could not get sight of him within the time; the party breaks; and all this appearing in evidence, and that the defendant went to sea the next day after he gave the note, now this action was brought against the defendant for the money.

Holt, C. J. If a man give a note upon a third person in payment, and the other takes it absolutely as payment, yet, if the party giving it knew the third person to be breaking, or to be in a failing condition, and the receiver of the note uses all reasonable diligence to get payment, but cannot, this is a fraud, and therefore no payment; and here was no laches in the plaintiff, for the party failed before the money was payable. The chief-justice directed for the plaintiff. Ibid. 122.

Soper versus Dible.

Assumpsit upon a bill of exchange. The plaintiff declares, that secundum consuetudinem et usum mercatorum the accepter is bound to pay, &c. without shewing the custom at large. And the defendant demurred; and it was adjudged for the plaintiff; and, per curiam, it is a better way, than to shew the whole at large. Lord Raym. 175.

Nicholson versus Sedgwick.

The plaintiff declares, quod inter mercatores et alios negotiantes intra hoc regnum there is, and time whereof, &c. hath been a custom, that if any trader make a bill, or note, by which he assumes to pay another person, or the bearer of the bill, such a sum of money, such person is bound by it to pay such sum to such person to whom the note is payable, or to the bearer.—The plaintiff then shews, that the defendant Sedgwick, being a goldsmith, made a note in writing, whereby he promised to pay to Mason, or bearer, 100 l. that Mason delivered the note to the plaintiff for 100 l. in value received; and that for non-payment of this 100 l. the plaintiff brought this action against the defendant. Non assumpsit pleaded, and verdict for the plaintiff. It was moved in arrest of judgment, that this action could not be brought in the name of the bearer, but it ought to be brought in the name of him to whom it was payable. Quod fuit concessum per curiam; for the difference is, where the note is payable to the party or bearer, or to the party or order.—In the latter case the indorsee has been allowed to bring the action in his own name, because the indorsement of the party must appear upon the back of the note; but, where it is payable to the party or bearer, it may be very inconvenient; for then any one, who finds the note by accident, may bring the action. Though this last has been frequently attempted, it has never yet prevailed; and in the case of Horton and Coggs, the goldsmith (3 Lev. 299.) this difference was taken and agreed; and the judgment of the court (being the same case with this) was arrested. But the court declared that the bearer might bring the action in the name of him to whom the note was payable. And judgment was arrested, nisi, &c. The same point was resolved in B. R. between Hodges and Steward, before given, Salk. 125. But there it was resolved, that the indorsement to the bearer binds the party who immediately indorses it to him. The principal point was also resolved, Mich. 6 W. & M. B. R. between Sir Thomas Escourt and Cudworth. Ibid. 181.

Bellasis and Hester.

The question was, whether a general indeb. assumpsit will lie upon a bare acceptance of a bill of exchange. By justice John Powell, a general indebitat. assumpsit does not lie on a bill of exchange; but it ought to be a special declaration upon the custom of merchants, as in the case of Brown and London, 1 Lev. 298. 1 Mod. 285. 2 Keb. 695, 731, 758, 822. 1 Vent. 152. In which case, judgment was arrested after verdict, as reported by Levinz and Ventris. Lord Raymond, 281.

Bromwich and Lades.

In this case, it was said by the chief justice Treby, that bills of exchange were of such general use and benefit, that, upon an indebitat. assumpsit, a bill of exchange may be given in evidence to maintain the action; and Mr justice Powell, that upon a general indebitat. assumpsit, for monies received to the use of the plaintiff, such bill may be left to the jury to determine, whether this was for value received or not. In this case the declaration was on the custom of merchants, and a general indebitat. assumpsit thereon. See the declaration and exceptions to it, in the foregoing case of Bellasis and Hester, 1 Lutwych, 1589.

Brown and London.

What actions lie upon a bill of exchange, and how to be brought, and against whom. See Hardress, 487, in Scaccario. 1 Mod. 285. 1 Lev. 298. and 2 Keb. 695. and the case of Cramlington against Evans and Percival, 2 Vent. 307. Lord Raym. 175, 364, 574.

A draws a note upon a goldsmith, and sends his servant to receive the money, and invert it in Exchequer bills; the servant gets B to give him money for the note, and then brings

the Exchequer bills to his maſter, and two days afterwards the goldſmith fails; it was adjudged that A muſt anſwer the money to B: for the property of the note was not transferred to B, there being no indorſement; and he could not have ſued upon it; it was only in the nature of a pledge or ſecurity to him. Luc. 109.

Morris verſus Lee.

Note, The foregoing Stat. 3 and 4 Ann. ch. 9. having given like remedy upon promiſſary notes, as upon inland bills of exchange: it was reſolved, that an action lies by a ſecond indorſee upon a note, whereby the defendant promiſed to be accountable to J. S. or order, for 100l. value received. L. Raym. 1396.

Burchell verſus Slocock.

A note value received de præmiſſis, in Roſemary-lane, was adjudged a good note within the ſtatute. Idem, 1545.

Elliot verſus Cooper.

The indorſee declared, that the defendant made his note in writing, by which he promiſed to pay, &c. without ſaying the defendant ſigned it: this was held good, on demurrer. Idem. 1376, 1377. The like of a bill of exchange, in the caſe of Sir John Ereſkine verſus Murray. Error C. B. Idem, 1542. So in the caſe of

Smith verſus Jarves and Baily.

Where the declaration ſhewed, that the defendant made it a note for himſelf and partner, and ſigned it; whereby he promiſed for himſelf and partner to pay, &c. Idem, 1484. And in the foregoing caſe of Ereſkine and Murray.

A bill need not to be expreſsly averred to be drawn according to the cuſtom of merchants. Idem, 1542.

Neale verſus Ovington. Error C. B.

An action on a note, by which the defendant and another promiſed jointly or ſeverally, as ill. Idem, 1544, 1545.

A draws a bill upon B to the uſe of C, and, upon non-payment, C proteſts the bill; he cannot ſue A, unleſs he gives notice that the bill is proteſted, for A may have effects of B in his hands, by which he may ſatisfy himſelf. Vent. 45.

Jenny and others againſt Herle. Error C. B.

Pray pay to H. 1945 l. upon demand, out of the money in your hands, belonging to the proprietors of the Devonſhire mines, being part of the conſideration money for the manor of Weſt-Buckley.—This is no bill of exchange. Idem, 1361, 1362, and 1563, in the caſe of Hadock and Lynch.

Pay to J. S. or order, 10 l. as my quarter's half-pay by advance, is a good bill of exchange, as in the caſe of Macleod and Snee, Pargiter and Beckin. Idem, 1481.

Monk verſus Clayton and Morris.

A, ſervant of Sir Robert Clayton and Mr. alderman Morris (but at that time actually gone from them) took up 200 guineas of Mr. Monk, a goldſmith, without any authority of his maſters; (but Monk did not know that he was gone) the monies not being paid, Monk brought an action againſt Sir Robert Clayton and Morris, and at Guildhall it was ruled by Keeling chief-juſtice, that they ſhould anſwer; and there was a verdict for the plaintiff. And, though there were great endeavours to obtain a new trial, yet it was denied, the court at Weſtminſter being fully ſatisfied that they ought to anſwer: for this ſervant had uſed often to receive and pay monies for them, and thereupon they actually paid the monies. Mich. 22. Car. II. in B. R.

Note, That which will oblige the maſter, will be the authority and liberty which he uſually gives the ſervant; therefore ſuch a power, devolved, ought to be ſecured by the prudenteſt way that may be: which is generally done by bonds and obligations. And, tho' the ſame ſeems an act of wiſdom for merchants and others ſo to take, yet it oftentimes proves the deſtruction of many a family. The father puts out the ſon apprentice, perhaps, with no leſs than 2 to 300 l. or 500 l. and is himſelf become bound for his integrity, &c. The ſervant is immediately truſted with his caſh, and he too young to be experienced in the world, either neglects keeping a juſt account, or, keeping that, ſubjects his maſter's caſh to be ſpent by himſelf, and thoſe who make it their buſineſs to betray youths ſo circumſtanced. The maſter, diſcovering the fraud, calls his ſervant to account, who, conſcious of the act, forſakes his ſervice, dreads the ſight of his relations, and, as a general conſequence, falls into company, into whoſe wicked courſes he is trepanned. The father is called to anſwer whatever his ſon has embezzled, which proves a great affliction, if not the ruin of many families. On the other hand, if ſervants were not to be truſted, the myſtery of buſineſs, according to the common way of practice, could not be learnt, nor affairs diſpatched, and therefore faith muſt be given: but then it were juſtice, honour, and honeſty, as well as humanity, that, as a father puts a child to one in whom he repoſes a confidence, that the maſter ſhould be as a parent; ſo he ſhould prevent every occaſion that might ſubject a young fellow to temptations, and not be over-haſty in

truſting them with their caſh. Which is the very bait with which our London gameſters catch ſuch gudgeons.

Pinckard verſus Fowke.

If a bill is drawn on B, and B happens to be in the country, and a friend of his deſires the party not to proteſt, and he will pay the ſame, it ſhall bind ſuch party. Styles, fol. 416.

The merchants of London allow three days, after a bill of exchange becomes due, for the payment; and for non-payment within three days proteſt is made, but is not ſent away 'till the next poſt after the time of payment is expired.

The uſe of the proteſt * is this, that it ſignifies to the drawer that the party upon whom he drew his bill was unwilling, or not to be found, or inſolvent, and to let him have a timely notice of the ſame, and to enable the party to recover againſt the drawer; for, if one draws a bill from France upon a perſon in England, who accepts and fails, or becomes inſolvent, at the time of payment, if there be not a proteſt and timely notice (which is looked upon to be the third day) ſent to the drawer there, it will be difficult to recover the money.

* There are two proteſts: 1. For non-acceptance, which is called alſo intimation. 2. For non-payment.

A man not found, or being found, not met withal either at home or the exchange, is cauſe ſufficient for a proteſt; but in that there muſt be diligence uſed to find him.

A bill, returned proteſted for non-payment, being once ſatisfied by the drawer to the deliverer, the drawer is diſcharged and ſo is the accepter to him to whom the monies were to be paid: but the accepter, by virtue of his acceptance, makes himſelf debtor to the drawer, according to the cuſtom of merchants.

Monies may be had on exchange by way of letters of credit, the which are in two reſpects; the firſt general, the other ſpecial.

The general letter is open, directed, To all merchants and others that ſhall furniſh my ſervant or factor, or any other, with ſuch and ſuch monies; for repayment of which, he binds himſelf to anſwer and pay all ſuch bills of exchange as ſhall be drawn on him upon the receipt of the value, by his ſervant, factor, or other perſon: if there be really monies advanced on this letter of credit, and paid to the factor, ſervant, or other, and bills of exchange are ſent to the party that ſent ſuch letter of credit, and if he refuſes to accept, yet according to the cuſtom of merchants he is bound to pay: the reaſon is, for that there was no reſpect had to the ability of the taker up, but to him that gave his letters of credit: and therefore in ſuch caſe, if an action at law be brought, the particular cuſtom as to that point muſt be carefully ſet forth.

The ſpecial letter of credit, where one writes a letter to furniſh another man's factor or agent; there is in this the ſame remedy as above. Molloy.

As bills of exchange ſeldom come without letters of advice, ſo ought they to be purſued: if a bill ſhall expreſs, And put it to the account of A; and the letter of advice ſays B, this muſt be proteſted againſt, for it cannot ſafely be paid, without running the riſque of an equitable ſuit. Idem.

If one pays money on a bill before it be due, and the party breaks, it has been conceived that the party ought to anſwer the drawer: the reaſon hath been, becauſe the drawer might have countermanded the ſame, or ordered the bill to be made payable to another. Idem.

In Italy, if money is paid to a banker's ſervant, and if the maſter ſubſcribe, Pagate com ſi dicé, this binds the maſter as effectually, as if he had ſubſcribed it with his own hand. Idem.

A bill drawn by a merchant in London, payable by another perſon beyond ſea, ſuch bills in moſt countries are aſſignable over from merchant to merchant, and the laſt perſon may ſue and recover the ſame upon an acceptance: but, in England, only the firſt perſon mentioned in the bill, and to whom the money is made payable, may recover. 'Tis true, ſuch perſon to whom the money is made payable, may, for a valuable conſideration, deliver this bill to another perſon, and he may indorſe an order on the back-ſide; and, if the party afterwards refuſes payment of the ſame, it may be ſued in the party's name to whom the ſame was transferred, laying the ſame by way of cuſtom. Idem. But in the caſe of

Hawkins verſus Cardy.

If the perſon to whom a bill is payable, indorſes it for payment of part only to J. S. the drawer is not liable to the action of J. S. for a man cannot make another liable to two actions, where by the contract he is liable but to one. L. Raym. 360.

It is eſſential to a bill of Exchange to be negotiable. Lucas 294.

It is enacted by 3 and 4 Ann. c. 9. That all notes, payable to any perſon, or order, ſhall be aſſignable over in the ſame manner as inland bills of exchange are, or may be; and that any perſon to whom ſuch note is indorſed, may maintain an action for the money, either againſt the perſon who ſigned ſuch note, or againſt any of the perſons who indorſed the ſame, in like manner as in caſes of inland bills of exchange.

By ſtat. 2 Geo. II. c. 25. ſect 1. If any perſon ſhall forge, or procure to be forged, or aſſiſt in forging any (inter alia) bill of exchange, promiſſary note for payment of money, indorſement, or aſſignment of any bill of exchange, or promiſſary note for payment of money; or any acquittance or receipt for money or goods; or ſhall utter or publiſh, as true any ſuch forged, &c. knowing the ſame to be forged, with an intent to defraud any perſon; every ſuch offender ſhall be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. And,

By ſtat. 7 Geo. II. c. 22. If any perſon ſhall falſly make, alter, or forge, or procure to be falſly made, &c. or aſſiſt in falſly making, &c. any acceptance of any bill of exchange, or the number or principal ſum of any accountable receipt for any note, bill, &c. or any warrant or order for payment of money or delivery of goods, or ſhall utter or publiſh any ſuch falſe acceptance, bill, &c. with intent to defraud any perſon; every ſuch offender ſhall ſuffer as a felon, without benefit of clergy.

In an action on the caſe, grounded upon the cuſtom of merchants, that whenever any ſuch or other perſon, negotiating for them with any other merchant in England, have bills directed to them, that if he to whom ſuch bills are directed, refuſe to accept on ſight, or to pay ſuch bills, then he that drew them ought: both being by the cuſtom to be merchants, the bearer as well as the drawer. And, the plaintiff not having ſhewn that the bearer was ſuch a merchant or perſon negotiating, it was moved to ſtay judgment for that cauſe; but judgment was given for the plaintiff, for, by the court, ſuch merchant is referred only to him, to whom the bill is directed, and to the procurers of ſuch a bill, and not to the drawers, or they to whoſe uſe the money is to be paid. 1 Keb. 592, 636.

The governors of the bank of England and Newman.

Aſſumpſit for money lent; and, upon motion for a new trial, the caſe appeared to be this: one Bellamy gives his bill of exchange to Newman, payable to him or bearer, on the 1ſt of April enſuing; before the 1ſt day of April, Newman diſcounts the bill with the governors of the bank, who ſent the bill after the day to Bellamy, and he acknowledged it, but it was not paid; on the 8th of June enſuing, before payment of the bill, Bellamy becomes inſolvent, for which reaſon the bank came upon Newman, and brought this action; and a verdict was found at Guildhall for the plaintiff. But the court granted a new trial for two reaſons; firſt, for that, the bank having diſcounted the bill with allowance, it was a purchaſe in them of the bill. Secondly, the bill was not received at the day when the bill was good, and Bellamy ſolvent, which delay was laches in the bank. Comyns, caſe 37.

Anonymous. In Chancery.

A gave a bill of exchange for value received, B aſſigns it to C for an honeſt debt; C brings an indebitat. aſſumpſit on this bill againſt A, and had judgment; on which A brings his bill to be relieved in equity againſt this judgment, becauſe there was really no value received at the giving this bill, and C would have no prejudice, who might ſtill reſort to B, upon his original debt: it was anſwered, that A might be relieved againſt B, or any claiming as ſervant or factor of, or to the uſe of, B. But the chancellor held, that C being an honeſt creditor, and coming by this bill fairly for the ſatisfaction of a juſt debt, he would not relieve againſt him, becauſe it would tend to deſtroy trade, which is carried on every-where by bills of exchange, and he would not leſſen an honeſt creditor's ſecurity. Comyns, caſe 28.

More verſus Manning.

Aſſumpſit. Upon a promiſſary note given by Manning to Statham and order: Statham aſſigns it to Witherhead, and Witherhead to the plaintiff; and upon a demurrer to the declaration an exception was taken, becauſe the aſſignment was made to Witherhead, without ſaying to him and order, and then he cannot aſſign it over; for by this means Statham, who had aſſigned it to Witherhead, without ſubjecting himſelf to his order, will be made liable to be ſued by any ſubſequent indorſee. And to this the chief-juſtice at firſt inclined, but afterwards it was reſolved by the whole court, that it was good.

For if the original bill was aſſignable (as it will be, if it be payable to one and his order) then, to whomſoever it is aſſigned, he has all the intereſt in the bill, and may aſſign it as he pleaſes; for the aſſignment to Witherhead is an abſolute aſſignment to him, which comprehends his aſſigns; and therefore nothing is done when the bill is aſſigned, but indorſing the name of the indorſer, upon which the indorſee may write what he will, and, at a trial when a bill is given in evidence, the party may fill up the blank as he pleaſes. Comyns, caſe 160.

Joſceline and Laſſere.

This was an action of the caſe on a bill of exchange brought againſt the drawer, and the bill was to pay 28 l. at 7 l. a month, at monthly payments, to begin September following, out of his growing ſubſiſtence.

Branthwait: This is no bill of exchange, for, if he receives no pay, then he will not be liable: the court will take notice of the cuſtom of merchants, and, if this be not within the cuſtom, this court will adjudge them no bills of exchange; and there is no difference when brought againſt the accepter, and when againſt the drawer: ſuppoſe a bill ſhould be drawn to pay ſo much money out of his rents, that would not be a good bill of exchange.

Whitaker: This is a good bill of exchange, there are three perſons concerned in it, which are neceſſary to make a bill of exchange; out of growing ſubſiſtence are words not known in the law, they are inſenſible, and therefore to be rejected; it is alſo negotiable, for what makes it ſo, is, it's being drawn payable to order, and is value received. 2 Vent. 308. Shore 4, 5. There was a caſe at Niſi Prius, Parſons and Goodwin. At leaſt this is a good bill gainſt the drawer.

Chief-juſtice Parker. There is no neceſſity, in a bill of exchange, of ſaying value received. The queſtion is, whether this be intended more than a bare authority? This rather imports, that the drawer had then no ſubſiſtence; this looks more like an authority than a bill of exchange, and the action is brought for non-payment, and not for non-acceptance.

The next point will be, if this bill, as he calls it, or whatever it be, be a good conſideration for the expreſs promiſe; for, though it be ſtrictly no bill of exchange; yet, if it be a good conſideration to raiſe the expreſs promiſe in the narr', it will be good.

Eyre juſtice. To inſert value received in a bill is not neceſſary; nor is it neceſſary to have three perſons to make a good bill of exchange, for a man may draw a bill on himſelf, but it has always been taken to be for a certain ſum, and the party takes on him to pay at all events. This is payable out of a certain fund; ſuppoſe a promiſſary note of 100 l. were payable out of ſuch and ſuch rents, would that be good? In ſuch a caſe there muſt be an averment, that ſuch rents were received, out of which the bill was to be paid; and there is no difference here between the drawer and accepter; for, ſuppoſe an action had been brought againſt the accepter, would an action lie againſt him before he had received the rents? ſure it would not. The other point, whether it be a good conſideration? If the ſubſiſtence do not come in or is contingent, that may be a reaſon for it's not being a good conſideration.

In this caſe the judgment was afterwards reverſed, which had in C. B. been given for the plaintiff, in the original cauſe.

Thomas and Biſhop, Mich. 7 Geo. II.

A note was drawn by Charles Mildmay on the defendant, at thirty days ſight, to pay to John Somervil, or order, 200 l. and to place the ſame to the account of the York-buildings company, as per advice, and is accepted by Biſhop. This was a caſe ſaved to the defendant, on a verdict for the plaintiff at Niſi Prius, before Mr. Juſtice Page. After the note being read,

Mr. Kettleby moves for a new trial. The action is brought by an indorſee, whom he apprehends has no action againſt the defendant, the direction of the note being to Mr. H. Biſhop, caſhier of the York-buildings company, at their houſe, &c. and that therefore the company ought to have been charged with it, and eſpecially as the letter of advice is directed to the governor and court of aſſiſtants of the ſaid company.—It is a great hardſhip upon the defendant, and muſt ruin him, if he is charged therewith, there being great numbers of other notes accepted by him in the ſame manner.— There was a queſtion when he was firſt ſued as to his putting in bail, and 'twas compared to the caſe of Maddocks of the bank, and urged, that, though the acceptance of a banker's ſervant binds the maſter, yet the ſervant is not bound by it.

Strange alſo for the defendant. The note would have been ſufficient to have charged the company, ſo the plaintiff has remedy without the defendant. For it is a ſettled point, that the maſter may be charged by a ſervant. At the trial the opinion was, that he was bound for his ſaying only, Accepted, and not as agent of the company. But it appears, from the face of the bill itſelf, to carry the intereſt of the company with it, and is ſo addreſſed, and ſo likewiſe is the direction. But the letter of advice clears it beyond doubt, and is a key to the whole caſe, as being directed to the governor and court of aſſiſtants of the company by Mildmay, who drew the bill.—He inſiſts this was proper matter of evidence for the conſideration of the jury, and, therefore, as it was not admitted before, hopes the court would grant a new trial.

Serjeant Darnell. It is urged that the queſtion, whether the defendant accepted for himſelf or the company, ought to have been before the jury; but I muſt be of opinion to think otherwiſe, never knowing that a goldſmith's ſervant, accepting for himſelf, would bind his maſter, but not him. A man may accept, and whoever does that, it binds him; nor ſhall the addition which is neceſſary to deſcribe the perſon, and make him known, excuſe him. The ſtatute, indeed, directs the ſervant's acceptance ſhall bind, but that

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ſhall be as he accepts. Beſides, the drawer is diſcharged, if there is no acceptance in time. The acceptance is a perſonal contract, and, if left to a jury, would deſtroy the credit of all ſuch notes. Had the action been againſt the company, there had been more reaſon to have doubted then, than in the preſent caſe.

Kettleby in reply. Every man's property muſt depend on the diſcretion of a jury, and thinks it was a proper queſtion for their determination, whether this acceptance of the defendant was on his own account, or for that of the company, as being a matter of great importance, and was never determined.

Strange. As this action depends upon the uncertainty of a meer matter of fact, the jury are the only proper perſons that can determine it. The ſame may happen in many other caſes, and as it is admitted that a ſervant may act on his own and his maſter's account, and therefore as he may act in a double capacity, it is a proper queſtion to come before a jury, to determine in which capacity he acted in the preſent caſe.

As to the remedy over upon the drawer, that will be the ſame, let this be determined as it will; for here is certainly an acceptance, but the queſtion is by whom, which will make this objection vaniſh.

York chief-juſtice. I am of the ſame opinion my brother Page was of at the trial, and think the verdict was a proper verdict. A bill of exchange is a contract of a very peculiar nature, depending, in a great meaſure, upon the cuſtom of merchants. It is originally the contract of the drawer, but, when accepted, is a contract of the drawee, and is according to the tenor of the bill: and a farther contract may ariſe from the indorſer; though it is certain that a writing may be drawn in the form of a bill of exchange, and yet not be ſo; but I know of no caſe, where it has happened to be ſo, and the accepter been diſcharged, by any evidence not appearing upon the bill itſelf, and cited the caſes of Jenney and Hern. Paſ. 10 Geo. I. in B. R. The latter of theſe caſes was on a bill to pay to J. S. on demand, out of the money in your hands, ariſing from, &c.——And, in this caſe, the accepter was held liable to anſwer for no more than what he ſhould raiſe from, &c.——But the caſe in queſtion comes not up to this. The addition in the bill is merely a deſcription, and cannot alter the nature of the contract; and the acceptance is general, and muſt be taken ſecundum formam billæ. It is not to account out of any particular fund, but only, when the money is paid, to what account to place it.

As to the letter of advice, that was only between the drawer and drawee; and, as it was a private tranſaction only between them, it cannot alter the caſe.

In regard to the evidence of the defendant's being caſhier of the company, this ought not to be conſidered by the court: any extrinſic parole evidence might as well be produced, and that would affect the credit of all theſe contracts. It is plainly, from the face of the bill, a bill between the drawer and drawee, and could not have been accepted by the company, but for the honour of the drawer, and this a ſtranger might have done. There was a much ſtranger caſe in this court, between

Cramlington and Evans. 2 Vent. 307.

Where, notwithſtanding the money due upon the bill was levied by extent before the day of payment, yet it was held the accepter was bound, and the indorſee had judgment againſt him. Nor would it have excuſed the defendant, if the acceptance had been for the company; for the company could not have been charged. That would have been a matter of equity between Mr. Biſhop and the company, and he might have been relieved there.

Probyn. Where a bill is drawn upon a banker, and accepted by one who is his ſervant, he inclined to think it ſhall bind the maſter, though the acceptance is general, becauſe no one would truſt the ſervant; and the bill is taken on the credit of the maſter: but the preſent caſe is not ſo: the bill here is drawn upon the ſervant, and the addition is only deſcriptive of him.——We muſt go according to the face of the note, and the rules of law, to make things certain.—The indorſer is a ſtranger to the contract between the drawer and drawee, and, if there is any thing in it that does not appear upon the face of the note, it ought not to be admitted in evidence againſt him.

Lee. In caſes of this kind, extrinſic evidence ought not to be admitted; the acceptance is general, according to the tenor of the bill; and, as the bill ſhews nothing that the company were engaged in it, no evidence thereof ought to be admitted. Bills of exchange are ſacred things; and, as no man can determine any thing of them but from the face of the bill, that only ſhould be taken in evidence, which is underſtood to be a general rule in all trials of this kind.

Page. In a caſe where a bill was given for goods ſold and delivered, which were not delivered; yet the court would not admit any evidence of it; for they held that the bill was to be conſidered from the face of it.

Cur. The rule to ſtay the poſtea muſt be diſcharged.

This caſe being important, is the reaſon I have given the pleadings thereupon, according to the beſt information I have been able to obtain.

Croſſe and Gray. Eaſter 8 Geo. II.

One Slaughter, a clerk in the Exchequer, gave a promiſſary note to Gekie, Gekie indorſed it over to Webb, who indorſed it to the defendant, who indorſed it to the plaintiff. The note was not payable 'till ſix months after date, and, about a week after it became due, the plaintiff, by his attorney, demanded the money of Slaughter, who refuſed payment, and deſired ſome time of forbearance, which the plaintiff's attorney refuſed to give, but after the plaintiff himſelf gave him a month's time. This was in Auguſt laſt, and, the month expiring before the beginning of Michaelmas term, the plaintiff, the firſt day of the term, filed a bill in the Exchequer againſt Slaughter (which was as ſoon as he could be ſued, by reaſon of his privilege) and on this bill obtained judgment: but, Slaughter proving inſolvent, the plaintiff brought this action againſt Gray, the indorſer. The queſtion was, whether, if the indorſee gives time to the drawer of the note, it does not diſcharge the indorſers. The chief-juſtice ſaid, the time for the indorſee to demand the money of the drawer, was ſettled to be a reaſonable time.——A verdict was given for the plaintiff.

Lewis and Orde. 2d Sittings in Middleſex, before Hardwicke chief-juſtice.

This was an action brought upon a note given by the plaintiff to the defendant, in the following form; I promiſe to pay to Mr. James Lewis eleven pounds, at the payment of the ſhip Devonſhire, for value received. The plaintiff declared as upon the ſtatute of queen Anne, taking it to be a note within the ſtatute.

Marſh for the defendant objects, that it is not a note within the ſtatute. 1ſt. Becauſe not payable to order, or bearer; and 2dly, Becauſe of the contingency of the time of payment.

Hardwicke. It has been long ſettled, that the ſtatute does not require a particular certain form, and ſaid, he remembered a caſe in this court, where it was held on demurrer, that a note, to be within the ſtatute, need not be payable to order: and in that caſe it was urged, that it might as well be ſaid every note within the ſtatute ſhould be payable to order or bearer, for they are the words of the ſtatute. As to the contingency of the payment, the ſubſequent fact of the payment of the ſhip makes it certain; and therefore, though not a lyen ab initio, yet became ſufficiently ſo, and within the ſtatute, by the fact happening after. It is not like the caſe of Joſcelin and Laſerre. Raym. 1362, where it was held, that a bill of exchange, payable out of a particular fund for growing ſubſiſtence, was not within the ſtatute. I think, therefore, the declaration is proper enough; but you may make your objection in arreſt of judgment, for this will appear on the record. The chief-juſtice further ſaid, that in caſe of a foreign attachment, where A receives the money of B, by authority of C, and in diſcharge of a debt due from C to A, the money can never after be attached in the hands of A for the debt of B.

Powell and Moliere, in Chancery, Eaſter 10 Geo. II.

The bill was for ſatisfaction of a bill of exchange drawn upon the defendant, and accepted by him. Pending the ſuit, the original defendant died, and it was revived againſt his executors, praying alſo a diſcovery of aſſets, and to be ſatisfied thereout. On the proofs ſome queſtion was made, whether the acceptance was ſufficient to charge the defendant, and whether the plaintiff by keeping the note about ten days after it became due, without coming to the drawee for the money, had not diſcharged the accepter? But it was inſiſted for the defendant, as a previous matter, that the plaintiff had a plain remedy at law, that his caſe depended upon facts that ought to be tried by a jury, and not to be determined in this court.

Hardwicke lord chancellor. Regularly the plaintiff ought to purſue his remedy at law, and not in this court: and, if the caſe ſtood as it did at firſt, I ſhould certainly diſmiſs the bill; but the bill of reviver praying a ſatisfaction out of aſſets and a diſcovery of aſſets, it is made a caſe of which this court takes cognizance, and then the prayer of ſatisfaction is an incident that follows with it. I have, therefore, no doubt, but that the plaintiff is proper in praying a remedy in this court. But, with regard to the acceptance, if there were doubt of it, as to the fact, or whether in law what has been done amounts to an acceptance, it might be ſtill neceſſary to ſend the parties to a trial at law; but I think there is no doubt of either. The teſtator, when the bill was brought to him, received it, entered it in his book according to his courſe of trade, and is proved to have been made under a particular number, and wrote that number under the bill, and returned it. Now it is ſaid to be the cuſtom of merchants, that, if a man underwrites any thing to a bill, it amounts to an acceptance. But, if there were no more than this in the caſe, I ſhould think it of little avail to charge the defendant; but what determines me is, the teſtator's letters; and

I think

I think there can be no doubt, but that an acceptance may be by letter, and it has been ſo determined. There was a doubt, whether a parole acceptance be good. Lord chief-juſtice Eyre held that it was, lord Raymond held the contrary, and there was a like caſe came once before me at Niſi Prius, (Lumley and Palmer) and I had a caſe made of it for the opinion of the court; and it was ſeveral times argued, and at laſt ſolemnly determined, that ſuch acceptance is good, much more then an acceptance by letter.

As to the plaintiff's being intitled to intereſt, I think it a clear caſe that he is, though no proteſt has been made; for that is neceſſary only to intitle the drawee to damages againſt the drawer, and, all the damage that can be had in ſuch a caſe, is the intereſt.

Decree for the defendant to pay the note with intereſt, at the rate of 4 per cent. The plaintiff to pay the coſts to the time of the bill of reviver, and after each party to bear their own coſts.

Thead and Lovell. At the ſittings after term for B. R. in London, Mich. 12 Geo. II.

This was an action againſt the indorſer of a bill of exchange. The bill was given in evidence, with an indorſement only of the defendant's name; which, as was urged for the defendant, was not an indorſement that would ſubject the defendant to an action; to which the plaintiff's counſel agreed, but prayed that they might have the bill back, to write over the indorſement, pay the contents to J. Thead, which was oppoſed by the defendant's counſel, urging, that, if the plaintiff had any right ſo to do, he ought to have done it before the cauſe came on, and that he ought not to be admitted to do it now.

Lee chief-juſtice. I believe this hath been often allowed; and I am of opinion, that the plaintiff ought now to be let in to do it.

The bill was then delivered back to the plaintiff, and the words above were wrote over the defendant's name.

It was then objected, that the plaintiff himſelf appeared to be an indorſer of the bill, and therefore the property out of him, ſo that he could not maintain this action. Upon which it was prayed for the plaintiff, that they might have the bill back again, to ſtrike out the indorſements ſubſequent to the defendant's; which was oppoſed by Strange, ſolicitor-general, averring, that he remembered a like caſe at Niſi prius, before lord Hardwicke, where, though he allowed the bill to be delivered back, to have the indorſement filled up; yet he refuſed to let it be delivered back, to have the ſubſequent indorſements ſtruck out.

To which Marſh for the plaintiff ſaid, that the ſubſequent indorſement, being in blank, amounted to nothing; it might be as a witneſs, &c. and would not ſhew a transfer of the property; which appeared from the neceſſity of having the purport of the defendant's indorſement wrote over it. But Strange ſaid, that he was ready to ſubmit this to the jury, whether ſuch indorſement were an aſſignment of the property, or not.

Lee, chief-juſtice, declared his opinion, that he thought the plaintiff ought to have this advantage now; and the bill was therefore again delivered back to the plaintiff, that the indorſements ſubſequent to that made by the defendant might be ſtruck out, which being done, and the bill read, the ſollicitor-general took this further objection, That by the defendant's indorſement, as it is now made, to pay the contents to J. Thead, and the record is to Thead, or order, ſo it is not the ſame bill. But, upon looking into the record, it appeared to agree with the indorſement.

It was then urged for the defendant, that the plaintiff muſt prove a demand upon the drawer, and his neglect to pay; which was ſubmitted to by the plaintiff's counſel without argument. Upon which it appeared in evidence, that the plaintiff had by his ſervant, from time to time, applied to the drawer for ſix weeks together, and was put off; that, at the end of ſix weeks, the drawer became a bankrupt, and the plaintiff not being able to ſhew that he had given notice to the indorſer of the default in the drawer, and the witneſs confeſſing that he knew of no notice being given to the indorſer of this neglect of payment in the drawer, it was taken, without argument, to be a diſcharge of the indorſer, and the plaintiff was nonſuited.

Reynolds and Dundaſs. Rolls Trin. and 14 Geo. II.

Upon motion for an injunction the caſe appeared to be, that the plaintiff had been drawn in, upon ſome falſe or miſtaken conſideration, to give a promiſſary note to J. S.; and, J. S. having put the note in ſuit, the plaintiff brought his bill in this court to be relieved, and to have an injunction; and before anſwer, or any order made in the cauſe, J. S. indorſed over the note to the preſent defendant Dundaſs; whereupon the plaintiff amended his bill, ſetting forth the indorſement, and charging notice, both of the fraud and lis pend' concerning it in Dundaſs, and prayed relief againſt the note, and an injunction againſt Dundaſs, from proceeding at law thereupon.

Dundaſs, in his anſwer, ſwore to the payment of the money ſpecified in the note to J. S. upon the note being indorſed over to him; but not clearing himſelf of the charge upon him of notice of the fraud, an injunction was granted by Mr Verney, maſter of the Rolls, who declared, that there was no ſort of proceeding more liable to fraud, than the negotiating ſuch notes; and ſaid, that though generally the conſideration of ſuch note is not inquirable into the hands of an indorſee; [Comyns 43.] yet, that where there appears to have been an original fraud, and any perſon knowing, or who may be ſuppoſed to have notice of, that fraud, will pay his money, and take an indorſement to himſelf of ſuch note, it is but juſtice and equity, that the note ſhould ſtill be ſubject to be avoided by that original fraud, which it cannot but be ſuppoſed the indorſee had notice of, and that he would not have advanced his money, without having in view a deſign to ſupport and maintain the fraud.

It was then prayed, that the injunction ſhould be granted only on terms, that the plaintiff ſhould give judgment at law with releaſe of errors, ſubject to the order on hearing; but this was denied by his Honour, he ſaying, that he ſaw no reaſon for it, and granted the injunction generally. N. B. Mr Murray for the defendant, and Mr Noel and Mountney for the plaintiff.

Cook and Coland. Mich. 18 Geo. II. in B. R.

This was a writ of error of a judgment in C. B. for the plaintiff. The action was on a promiſſary note, to pay 150 guineas ten days after the death of the defendant's father. And, the queſtion being whether this is a note within the ſtatute of queen Anne, it was held in C. B. that it is, and judgment was given for the plaintiff; and was affirmed upon this diſtinction, That where the time upon which the note is payable depends upon a contingency, that muſt ſome time or other happen, as in this caſe; and where it is upon a time that may poſſibly never happen at all; the one makes a veſted intereſt, which the other does not.

Of the laws and uſages of Scotland in regard to bills of exchange.

The foundation hereof depending upon the 20th act 3 parl. king Charles II. it will be neceſſary to cite the ſame, which is as follows, viz.—'Our ſovereign lord, conſidering how neceſſary it is for the flouriſhing of trade, that bills or letters of exchange be duly paid, and have ready execution, conform to the cuſtom of other parts, doth therefore, with advice and conſent of his eſtates of parliament, ſtatute and ordain, That foreign bills of exchange, from or to this realm, duly proteſted for not-acceptance, or for not-payment, the ſaid proteſt having the bill of exchange prefixed, is regiſterable within ſix months after the date of the ſaid bill, in caſe of not-acceptance, or after the falling due thereof, in caſe of not-payment, in the books of council and ſeſſion, or other competent judicatures, at the inſtance of the perſon to whom the ſame is made payable, or his order, either againſt the drawer or indorſer, in caſe of a proteſt for not-acceptance, or againſt the accepter, in caſe of a proteſt for not-payment, to the effect it may have the authority of the judges thereof interponed thereto, that letters of horning upon a ſimple charge of ſix days, and other executorials neceſſary may paſs thereupon, for the whole ſums contained in the bill, as well exchange as principal, in form as effeirs: ſicklike, and in the ſame manner, as upon regiſtrate bonds, or decrees of regiſtration, proceeding upon conſent of parties. Provided always, That, if the ſaid proteſts be not duly regiſtrate within ſix months in manner above provided, then, and in that caſe, the ſaid bills and proteſts are not to have ſummary execution, but only to be purſued by way of ordinary action, as accords. And farther, The ſums, in all bills of exchange, bear annualrent, in caſe of not-acceptance, from the date thereof, and in caſe of acceptance, and not-payment, from the day of their falling due, ay and while the payment thereof. And farther, Notwithſtanding of the foreſaid ſummary execution provided to follow upon bills of exchange, for the ſums therein contained, in manner above ſpecified: yet it is leeſome to the party charger to purſue for the exchange, if not contained in the ſaid bills, with re-exchange, damage, intereſt, and all expences, before the ordinary judge, or, in caſe of ſuſpenſion, to eik the ſame to the charge, at the diſcuſſing of the ſaid ſuſpenſion, to the effect that the ſame may be liquidate, and decreet given therefore; either againſt the party principal, or againſt him and his cautioners, as accords.'

The execution, that is provided by this act, varying in ſeveral points from the cuſtoms of other countries, theſe cuſtoms generally regulate the practice of traders in Scotland, when their own publick acts are ſilent and determine nothing.

In caſe of any foreign bill of exchange from or to Scotland, duly proteſted for not-acceptance, or for not payment.

This act mentions only foreign bills, and not ſuch as are drawn from one place within Scotland to another, or inland bills; which was ſo ordered, leſt people had been tempted, with the privilege of ſummary execution, to conſtitute all their debts by bills, and none by bonds.

Inland

Inland bills of exchange had not in England, before 1697, any manner of force or credit. But, at length, ſeeing great damages frequently happened in the courſe of trade, by reaſon of the delays of payment, and other neglects of ſuch bills; theſe bearing value received, were ordained to be ſummarily negotiated by proteſting, accepting, and giving advice thereof, &c. provided the bills be drawn for 20 l. ſterling, or upwards.

The laws of SCOTLAND have not only made careful proviſion for the due payment of foreign bills, but alſo of inland draughts; ſummary execution, by horning, is ordained to proceed upon bills, or tickets, drawn upon, or granted by, or to, and in favour of the bank, and the managers and adminiſtrators thereof, and proteſts thereon, as is appointed to paſs upon foreign bills *.

* Act of Parliament 17 July, 1695, which is not inſerted in the principal collection of the ſtatutes of Scotland.

The like execution paſſes now upon all inland bills and precepts, as is appointed to paſs upon foreign bills by this act 20 parl. 3. Ch. II. 1681: which ſtatute is extended, in all points, to inland bills and precepts *: yet, whether under that general the privilege of annualrent be comprehended, ſeems not ſo clear: for as it may be alleged for the affirmative, that ſeeing generalia debent generaliter intelligi, and the act, 1681, is extended in all points; the clauſe concerning annualrent, being one of them, muſt be underſtood as carried under the general, eſpecially conſidering, that this ſenſe is acquieſced in by common practice; no body ever ſcrupling at the payment of annualrent for inland bills.

* Act 36. ſeſſ. 6. parl. K. W.

But the lords have found annualrent due upon inland bills as well as others *. Bills or precepts, for delivery of ſalt, meal, &c. are not privileged as money-bills: though the ordinary ſolemnities required in other writs may be diſpenſed with in them, when granted in re mercatoria †.

* 8 June, 1705, Blair contra Oliphant. 16 Decemb. 1713, Leſlie contra Robertſon.
† 19 February, 1715, Douglas contra colonel Erſkine.

Inland bills and precepts muſt alſo be negociated as foreign bills, by duly preſenting them, proteſting for not-acceptance and not-payment, and adviſing the drawer, or laſt indorſer, thereof. So the poſſeſſor of an inland precept granted by his debtor in a bond, not having proteſted the ſame for not-payment, nor done any diligence againſt the accepter of the precept, 'till he broke, was found to have no recourſe for payment againſt the drawer, or his cautioner in the bond ‡.

‡ 10 July, 1706, Brand contra Yorſton.

Promiſſary notes have the ſame effect, both in France § and England ‖, as bills of exchange, as to indorſements thereof, and maintaining actions thereon for payment of ſums, with coſts and damages. There is this difference, indeed, that, whereas a bill muſt be proteſted, the party, failing to pay a note, muſt be ſummoned to a court.

§ Edit. de Commerce, 1673, tit. 5. art. 27. tit. 7. art. 1.
‖ 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 9. junct. 7. Ann. C. cap. 25.

Promiſſary notes have no ſuch privilege in Scotland. A merchant's note payable to others, or order, at ſuch a place, or at any other place, with the current exchange, was found to be only a ſimple ticket, and not of the nature of a bill of exchange, in reſpect there was not a drawer and accepter, and therefore null, for want of writer and witneſſes names and deſignations **.

** 29 Jan. 1708, Arbuthnot contra Scot.

The like note, whereby one promiſed to pay to a perſon, or order, a ſum, value received, being indorſed to a third party, was, for the ſame reaſon, compacted with the indorſer's debt ††. Nor doth the Engliſh ſtatute of 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 9. giving the like remedy upon promiſſary notes, as is now uſed upon bills of exchange, for three years, though made perpetual by an act of the Britiſh parliament ſince the union ‡‡, extend to promiſſary notes in Scotland §§, becauſe the Britiſh ſtatute doth only make the former, which was a temporary law of England, to have perpetual force there; and, being but an acceſſary, can go no further than the ſtatute of England it was calculated to continue.

†† 12 Feb. 1708, Bundie contra Kennedy.
‡‡ 7 Ann. cap. 25.
§§ 6 Decemb. 1711, King contra Eſdale.

A proteſt, having a bill of exchange prefixed, is regiſtrable within ſix months after the date of the ſaid bill, in caſe of not-acceptance, or after the falling due thereof, in caſe of not-payment, &c.

Bills of exchange have every-where paratum executionem; for retarding whereof, no exceptions are admitted, but ſuch as are inſtantly verified *. But not by this act, after ſix months from the date of the bill, in caſe of not-acceptance, or from it's falling due, in caſe of non-payment, within which time only ſummary diligence is competent by regiſtration †; and yet a bill payable at a certain day, which the poſſeſſor neglected to proteſt for not-acceptance within ſix months of the date, was found duly proteſted for not-payment, and regiſtrate againſt the drawer, within ſix months after the term ‡. Here, ſome would think, the lords proceeded upon the ſuppoſition that bills, payable on a preciſe day, require no acceptance, and that the creditor therein needs never to offer his bill 'till the term of payment elapſe, and then proteſt for not-payment; though it be otherwiſe with bills drawn on ſo many days ſight, which muſt be offered in order to acceptance, for determining the time of their falling due. But this diſtinction between theſe two kind of bills hath neither foundation in the act of parliament nor in the merchant-cuſtom. And if bills, payable at a certain time after date, were not to be duly negociated, by preſenting in order to acceptance, and proteſting for want of it, as well as bills on ſo many days ſight; it would interrupt commerce, and ruin merchants. Therefore, it ſeems more probable, that the reaſon of the aforeſaid deciſion was, becauſe the drawer could qualify no prejudice he ſuſtained by the poſſeſſor's neglecting to proteſt for not-acceptance, ſince the perſon drawn upon had none of his effects.

* G. Dunozeti dec. 268. n. 4, 5. Boer. dec. 295. n. 7. Scaccia de appelat. lib. 3. cap. 2. quæſt. 17.
† Which is a decree on ſentence in the conſtruction of law.
‡ 25 July, 1699, Robert Yule againſt James Richardſon.

At the inſtance of the perſon to whom the ſame is made payable, or his order. The ſimple having of a bill is a ſufficient title to proteſt for not-acceptance; but none, without an active title in his perſon, can effectually proteſt for not-payment, and obtain the proteſted bill to be regiſtrate, at his inſtance; becauſe the accepting of a bill puts nothing in the preſenter's pocket, but is merely an obligement to pay in the term on it, to the perſon that ſhall have right thereto at the falling due: whereas payment of a bill call only be made to one having right to receive and diſcharge, and conſequently ſuch a perſon only may proteſt for not-payment: the deſign thereof being to put the debtor in mora ſolvendi, ſo as to infer exchange, re-exchange, and damages; which can never be without an active title in the proteſter.

When a bill is payable to two or more perſons conjunctly and ſeverally, any one of them may receive payment, and diſcharge the debt *; but then, after one has charged for it in his own name, the bill cannot be warrantably paid to any other without his conſent †.

* Arg. l. 31. §. 1. ff. de novat.
† Arg. l. 16. ff. de duob. reis conſtit.

Either againſt the drawer or indorſer, in caſe of a proteſt for not-acceptance. By the cuſtom in other countries, the creditor of a bill that is ſuffered to be proteſted for not-acceptance, cannot recur by action and diligence againſt the drawer, or indorſer, for payment, before the term; unleſs he be vergens ad inopiam: but only to oblige to give ſufficient ſecurity for payment, at the day and place appointed; with charges and re-exchange, in caſe of failzies, to be valued according to the courſe of them: after which ſecurity is given, they can be no more troubled than if a bill had been accepted; and the poſſeſſor muſt ſuperſede farther diligence 'till it fall due *. Though an indorſer ſhould, before the term, give ſatisfaction to the creditor, he cannot, 'till then, oblige the drawer, or a former indorſer, to reimburſe him, if they be willing to find ſurety in manner abovementioned †. This is the practice in other countries; but, by the acts of Scotland, when a bill is proteſted for not-acceptance, the poſſeſſor has immediate recourſe, by horning, &c. againſt the drawer or indorſer, even before the term of payment: for, if it were otherwiſe, the creditor might ſometimes (as when his bill is payable nine or ten months after date) be debarred from the common benefit of ſummary diligence, which is only competent within ſix months.

* Du Puy, chap. 7. n. 6, 7. Scarlet, chap. 13. R. 7, 8, 18.
† Ibid. R. 191.

Or againſt the accepter, in caſe of a proteſt for not-payment, &c. An accepted bill, being proteſted for not-payment, is regiſtrable in order to horning, and other diligence againſt the accepter, when the poſſeſſor muſt firſt diſcuſs: and, that being done without recovering payment, he has only an action for making his money effectual, againſt the drawer and indorſers; who yet may be purſued conjunctly or ſeverally, in ſolidum. Herein the law of Scotland recedes from the cuſtom abroad, which makes drawer, indorſer, and accepter liable to the creditor in the bill, without any benefit of diſcuſſion *. And what can be the reaſon why it is not ſo in Scotland, but that the accepter is conſidered as principal debtor, from the firſt deſign of the parties to have the bill paid by him; the drawer and indorſers being but ſo many mandators, much the ſame in law as cautioners, who regulariter are only liable ſubſidiarie, after diſcuſſing of the principal †. And, if ſummary immediate diligence were allowed againſt the drawer or indorſers, they could not propoſe the moſt ordinary defence

and exception againſt the poſſeſſor, viz. that he ſuffered the accepter to break by his omiſſion of due diligence, but by way of ſuſpenſion, which would be expenſive. The creditor in a bill proteſted for not-acceptance, has alſo action againſt him on whom it was drawn; if he unjuſtly refuſed to accept, having proviſions in his hand ‡. Thus a perſon who ſuffered a bill drawn upon him to be proteſted for not-acceptance, was found liable to the poſſeſſor in quantum he had of the drawer's effects, at proteſting of the bill, and to be in mala fide to pay thereafter to the drawer ‖. And as the poſſeſſor of a bill, having firſt diſcuſſed the accepter, has ſubſidiary recourſe againſt the drawer, and all indorſers: ſo thoſe who indorſed, after acceptance of the bill, have ground of relief of the drawer, accepter, and other more early indorſers; and every indorſer of thoſe that went before him. Yet a bill payable at a certain day, being proteſted for not-payment, after the falling due thereof, without a previous acceptance, or proteſt for not-acceptance, was found regiſtrable againſt the drawer §. And horning againſt the accepter upon an inſtrument of proteſt for not-payment, againſt the drawer, and all others concerned, without expreſs mention of the accepter, was ſuſtained †, although there be no action competent againſt the drawer 'till the bill is proteſted againſt the accepter; for a proteſt for not-payment need not be uſed againſt the party perſonally, or at his dwelling-place, but only at the place of payment.

* Marquhardus, lib. 3. cap. 8. n. 5. Neoſtad. ſuprem. cur. Holl. Zealand. &c. Dec. 12. Du Puy, cap. 16. n. 1. Voet in Pand. lib. 22. tit. 2. n. 9. Reſp. Juriſc. Holland. part. 3. vol. 2. conſ. 33.
† Nov. 4. Authentic, preſente C. de fidejuſſor.
‡ Stair's Inſtit. lib. 1. tit. 11. ſect. 7.
‖ December 9, 1712, Gordon contra Anderſon.
§ July 25, 1669, Robert Yule contra Richardſon.
† ——— 1697, John Inglis and James Fowlis againſt Mackie of Palgown.

The poſſeſſor of a bill payable at a certain day, having ſignified the draught, by a letter to the perſon drawn upon, deſiring to know whether he would accept; and received anſwer, acknowledging he had effects of the drawer's, that he ſhould be careful to have them applied towards the payment of his debts, but was reſolved to clear off, firſt, ſuch as he himſelf ſtood ingaged for; and hoping the poſſeſſor would be diſcreet, and not proteſt the bill, for he expected ſufficient effects from the drawer, at ſuch a day. When the bill fell due, it was proteſted for not-payment, againſt the writer of the letter, as if the letter had been equivalent to an acceptance, and horning raiſed thereon. But the lords found the bill ſo proteſted to be no ground of a ſummary charge, and turned the ſame into a libel *.

* July 12, 1699, William Maxwell againſt captain M'Kay.

Correi debendi, by the common law, are not bound in ſolidum, unleſs the obligement expreſs it ſo *; becauſe, in dubiis potior eſt conditio debitoris. And the cuſtom of Scotland finds ordinarily co-principal debtors, that are expreſsly bound, conjunctly and ſeverally, to be liable only pro rata, unleſs the matter of the obligation be an individual fact, or ſomething not to be done. And in bills of exchange drawn upon two or more perſons conjunctly, not being in ſociety, every one may accept for his own part †. But then bills drawn upon two, without expreſſing conjunctly and ſeverally, or any words equivalent, and ſimply accepted by one of them, were found to make him liable for whole ſum ‡. Whence it may be inferred, that, when one or more perſons drawn upon would only oblige himſelf pro rata, he muſt not accept ſimply, but qualificate, for his own part. Acceptance of a bill by one of two co-partners obliges the other: but a commiſſion granted jointly by two merchants, for ſending home wines upon their account, with a promiſe to make payment of the bills that ſhould be drawn for the price; and the wines accordingly ſent and delivered to one of them, to whom the bills, though drawn upon both, were only preſented, and by him accepted: which being thereafter proteſted for not-payment, and the other party, granter of the joint commiſſion, purſued for them: he was aſſoilzied upon this ground, that he received no part of the wine, and the bills were never preſented to him, or accepted by him, nor the drawing thereof ſo much as intimated to him by advice from the drawer, or his factor: but, on the contrary, the purſuer took a new ſecurity from the accepter, long after they were proteſted, without offering to purſue the defender, before the other was broken and gone off ‖.

* L. 11. §. 2. ff. de duob. reis conſt. L. 47. ff. locati conducti.
† Scarlet, cap. 10. R. 30.
‡ January 29, 1675, M'Morland contra Maxwell.
‖ March 24, 1685, Stewart contra William Blackwood.

That letters of horning upon a ſimple charge of ſix days, and other executorials neceſſary, may paſs thereupon.
All hornings * on regiſtrate bonds † and decreets ‡ in Scotland, not bearing days, but in form as effeirs, muſt be upon fifteen days, and paſs by way of bill, as the warrant thereof. But ſeeing it is neceſſary for the flouriſhing of trade that bills of exchange be duly paid, and have ready execution, conform to the cuſtoms of other countries; horning on theſe is iſſued out on ſix days charge.

* Which are warrants, in the king's name, to charge perſons to pay debts, or perform deeds, within a preſixed time, upon pain of being declared outlaw by three blaſts of a meſſenger's horn, in caſe of diſobedience.
† Bonds, or obligations of record.
‡ i. e. decrees, or ſentences of court.

By other executorials neceſſary, we underſtand the other ordinary diligence required by the laws of Scotland, for compelling a man to pay his debt; ſuch as caption, or execution of the body, whereby his perſon is ſeized, and put under reſtraint; arreſtment, and poinding *, for effecting his moveables; inhibition †, compriſing ‡, and adjudication ‖, for affecting or evicting his heritage.

* i. e. diſtraining or diſtreſs.
† i. e. a prohibition by letters in the king's name, in favour of a creditor, diſcharging his debtor to ſell, diſpoſe of, or any way burden his lands or hereditaments, and all other perſons to bargain with him, to the prejudice of the creditor's claim, 'till the ſame be ſatisfied.
‡ Or appraiſing, is a decree, or ſentence, of a meſſenger at arms, adjudging a perſon's lands and hereditaments to belong to his creditors in payment of debt; but recoverable, by ſatisfying the debt within a certain term of years, called the legal reverſion: upon expiring of which legal reverſion, before all is paid, the ſubject appriſed becomes abſolutely the creditor's, who is called the appriſer.
‖ Adjudication (which is now inſtead of appriſing) is a decree, or ſentence, of the lords of ſeſſion, of the ſame nature, and having the like effect, as an apprifing.

Merchants enjoy many perſonal privileges in ſeveral other countries, which they are abridged of in Scotland. As they cannot be arreſted, or made priſoners upon the publick exchange; nor can their perſons and goods be ſeized on at ſolemn fairs, for debts elſewhere contracted. In Sweden, Norway, France, Spain, and Portugal, the merchants of Hans-Towns; in Denmark and Muſcovy, the merchants of Lubeck; and in Pruſſia, all the merchants of Germany have the public faith for their ſafety from arreſtments upon the road.
By the municipal ſtatutes of ſome places, as Milan, there is a tacit hypothetic competent for bills of exchange *: that is, law gives, to the creditor in a bill, a real ſecurity upon the goods of the debtor, for the payment thereof, without expreſs paction. But even expreſs hypothecations of goods, without delivery, are ineffectual by the cuſtoms of Scotland; and by it few tacit hypothetics allowed, whereof none are for bills of exchange: for ordinarily we prefer parties according to the priority of their legal diligence, that commerce may be the more ſure, and leſs retarded, by not obliging them to too nice an inquiry about the condition of ſuch as they contract with.

* Du Puy, cap. 17. n. 6. Nic. a Genua de ſcript. privata de la cam. l. 2. n. 7.

Though the poſſeſſor of a bill be not bound to ſeek for payment at any other place than where the ſame is payable *, yet he may, in caſe of not-payment, proceed in diligence againſt the accepter, or his goods, wherever he can find them †; not only for the principal ſum, but alſo for damage and intereſt ‡.

* L. 9. ff. de eo quod certo loco. Scaccia, §. 2. Gloſſ. 5. n. 194, 210.
† L. 1. ff. de eo quod certo loco. L. 19. §. 1. ff. de judiciis.
‡ L. 2. ff. de eo quod certo loco. Scaccia, ibid. n. 213.

For the whole ſums contained in the bill, as well exchange as principal, &c. The inſtrument of proteſt, as being juris gentium, bears ordinarily the principal ſum, exchange, re-exchange, damage, intereſt, and expence *. But we can only charge for the principal, and exchange, if contained in the bill; annualrent, from the date thereof, in caſe of not-acceptance, and from thence it falls due in caſe of acceptance and not-payment: re-exchange, damage, and intereſt, not being liquid debts. Yet, though the ſums charged for be ſatisfied, the poſſeſſor is not bound to diſcharge the debt, and give up the diligence, but only the principal bills, with a diſcharge thereof, reſerving the diligence for an inſtruction of his claim in an ordinary action for exchange, when not in the bill, re-exchange, damage, and intereſt. The reaſon why the principal bill muſt be returned, upon payment of the ſums therein mentioned, with the annualrent, is, becauſe if the bill were kept up, and only a ſeparate receipt of the money given, what ſhould hinder the bill to be afterwards indorſed to another, for value received? againſt whom the indorſer's receipt apart would not avail the debtor, ſince bills of exchange are as fungible as money, and paſs from hand to hand ſine onere, and affected with no ſeparate obligements of the author. Therefore, if the poſſeſſor of a bill ſhall refuſe to deliver up the ſame, upon an offer of the ſums charged for; that would be to the debtor a good ground of ſuſpenſion, and exoneration from expences of plea.

* Scarlet, cap. 11. R. 4. cap. 17. R. 13.

The exchange is ſometimes given to the drawer, ſometimes to the remitter, and then it is contained in the bill. Exchange ſhould be determined conformable to the courſe, at the place where the bill is drawn, to the place of payment; but how the courſe is regulated is a more difficult queſtion? Some have compared the riſing and falling of exchange to the ebbing and flowing of the ſea. [See the article BALLANCE of trade for the general cauſes of the riſe and fall of exchange.] Beſides what is there ſaid, exchange may be obſerved to depend alſo upon the preſent rate of coin, in the place the bill is directed to, and the plenty or ſcarcity of money or bills from whence they are drawn. Plenty of money, and ſcarcity of bills, raiſes the exchange; and plenty of the latter, and ſcarcity of the former, lowers the ſame. When ſhips come in plenty to carry off the product of a country, that is a ſeaſon when money is eaſier to be had than bills, and conſequently the exchange riſeth there; and, when that demand ceaſeth, bills are more plentiful, and eaſier to be had than money, and conſequently the exchange falls.

The many different ſorts of money, current at Frankfort, occaſions a great variety in the prices of exchange there. King Edward III of England, as mentioned at the beginning of this article, for determining the courſe of exchange, in the infancy of foreign trade, cauſed tables to be ſet up in moſt of the general marts and ports of the kingdom, &c. But parties now in moſt countries are left to agree among themſelves, as they beſt can, without any legal check, provided they keep free from dole, and tricks of circumvention. And this is partly the reaſon why the value of exchange is ſo variable in riſing and falling every week. This latitude in exchange may be thus juſtified: 1. Every thing is worth ſo much as it may be ſold for, to him that knows the quality thereof. 2. We may lawfully inhance, or lower, the price of any thing (where there is no expreſs law to the contrary) according to the quality of the perſon with whom we have to do: and, therefore, the taking of more in name of exchange from one than from another, is juſtifiable, becauſe a great riſque may be run in truſting him who pays the higher exchange, as not being ſo ſufficient a perſon, nor of ſo unqueſtionable credit, as the man who is dealt with upon eaſier terms.

Provided always, that, if the ſaid proteſts be not duly regiſtrate within ſix months, the ſaid bill and proteſts are not to have ſummary execution, but only to be purſued by way of ordinary action.]

There are inſtances not a few in the laws of Scotland, of privileges indulged to ſuch as uſe diligence upon recent deeds, or obligations, which are denied to thoſe who ſuffer things to lie long over unqueſtioned: as the oath in litem to the purſuer of a ſpulzie * within three years; the preferable diligence of the defunct's creditors to the creditors of the apparent heir, completed within the like ſpace; and the benefit of ſummary execution competent to the poſſeſſor of a bill, duly proteſted, and regiſtrate within ſix months; beſides many others I could inſtance. Which preſcription of ſix months doth run againſt minors, as well as others, for thoſe reaſons.

* i. e. an action for ſpoliation of goods.

If an accepted bill be loſt, the poſſeſſor has not the benefit of ſummary diligence, but can only purſue by way of an ordinary action; becauſe a proteſt for not-payment cannot be made but upon the accepted bill *.

* Scarlet, cap. 40. R. 14.

The ſums in all bills of exchange bear annualrent, in caſe of not-acceptance, from the date thereof; and in caſe of acceptance and not-payment, from the day of their falling due, and while the payment thereof.]

Though the taking of annualrent be lawful in Scotland, and the quantity thereof eſtabliſhed by act of parliament; yet, in particular caſes, it is only due ex pacto, when parties oblige themſelves for it; or ex lege, when cuſtom or ſtatute appoints it, as here in foreign bills of exchange.

By the laws in other countries, annualrent is only due for proteſted bills *; which is agreeable to the laws of England, where inland bills being proteſted, the party from whom they were received is liable to repay the ſame, with intereſt and charges from the date of proteſting †.

* Edit. de Commerce 1673, tit. 6. art. 7. Du Puy, cap. 15. n. 3.
† 9 and 10 W. III. c. 17. §. 2.

The creditors of an unexcepted bill can have no recourſe againſt the drawer or indorſer, even for the net ſum therein, and far leſs for annualrent, till once it be proteſted for not-acceptance: conſequently, no annualrent ſhould be claimed for bills, although accepted, if not proteſted for not-payment: but yet the accepter of a bill that was never proteſted, was found liable for annualrent from the term of payment, in regard the clauſe concerning annualrent is couched in the general term of all bills *.

* 20 Feb. 1700, William Clapton and George Watſon againſt Baillie M'Intoſh.

However, the lords did afterwards, in another caſe *, find annualrent not due for the ſum in an accepted bill for the term of payment, in regard the bill was never proteſted for not payment; which is both more agreeable to the merchant-law and cuſtom of other places, and to the analogy of their own deciſions: for, if the indorſee of an accepted bill, not proteſted againſt the accepter, nor diligence uſed to obtain payment for the ſpace of five years, be duly conſidered as a common aſſignee †, whereby he loſeth the ordinary privileges of exemption from compenſation, or arreſtment for the indorſer's debt: it ſeems no leſs reaſonable, that the neglect of proteſting ſhould exclude from the benefit of annualrent.

* 15 July 1713, Watſon and executors of Wilſon contra Gordon.
† 18 Feb. 1715, Deuchar contra Grierſon.

The French edit. de commerce, 1673 *, ordains annualrent for the principal ſum and exchange, from the day of the proteſt; and for re-exchange, from the commencement of a proceſs. But the Scotch act provides only annualrent for the principal ſum, and for exchange, when contained in the bill: which is inferred from theſe words, The ſums in all bills of exchange bear annualrent, &c.

* Tit. 6. art. 7.

Yet it is leaſome to the party charger to purſue for the exchange, if not contained in the ſaid bills, with re-exchange, damage, intereſt, and all expences, before the ordinary judges, &c.]

Exchange is not contained in the bill, when the profit of it is given to the drawer, in conſideration of his furniſhing the remitter's occaſions with ſuch a ſum elſewhere, as in all bills drawn in Edinburgh upon London; and ordinarily it is then contained in the bill expreſsly, when payable in a coin not current at the place of payment; or when the deliverer gets the exchange, as a premium for advancing ready money, to ſupply the drawer's exigencies, and accepting his bills payable ſome time after, and, perhaps, in another place, when and where the drawer may more conveniently command the money, as when bills are drawn at London upon Edinburgh. The reaſon why exchange not contained in the bill, with re-exchange, damage, intereſt, and expence, can only be purſued via ordinaria, and not ſummarily, is, becauſe they are liquidated debts, and therefore want to be conſtitute by a decreet, or ſentence, of a judge.

It is the natural conſequence of an obligement, to wrong and prejudge no body, either by failing in the performance, or by acting contrary to it; and that damage, of whatever nature, muſt be repaired by him that occaſioned it. By damage and intereſt is underſtood a real diminiſhing a man's ſubſtance, or obſtructing ſome expected profit. The former may be eaſily valued, the latter not. Yet this loſs ob locrum ceſſans in infinitum non eſt producendum, ſed primum tantum peti poteſt *, ſi mercator probat ſi debitam pecuniam perſolviſſet dicta die, certe lucratus eſſet decem, audiatur; verum ſi dicat ex illis pecuniis merces comparaſſet, lucratuſque eſſet, non audiatur †. And the poſſeſſor of a bill cannot plead upon damage ſuſtained in the diſappointment of his deſigns, as the loſs of ſome profitable opportunity through the not-payment.

* L. im. C. de ſentent. quæ pro eo quod intereſt prof. l. 21. § 3. ff. de act. empti.
† Straccha de mercatura, part 4. Tit. de contract. merc. n. 4. Scarlet, cap. 21. r. 10.

The points to be conſidered about damage and intereſt are, 1. If there be any due, and wherein it conſiſts? 2. What eſtimate ought to be ſet upon it? For clearing the firſt, the quality and circumſtances of the matter of fact inferring damage; what were the immediate and remote conſequences, and how far the party charged therewith dipped, or had a hand in it, muſt be examined into. Theſe are the lights a prudent judge ſhould walk by, in judging matters of damage and intereſt.

Re-exchange is an ordinary article of damages for a proteſted bill, which was firſt claimed by the Florentine exiles. But many labour under a groſs miſtake about the nature of it, as if exchange and re-exchange were double exchange. When the poſſeſſor of a bill not paid, proteſts, and takes up ſo much money by exchange, at the place where it ſhould have been paid; the exchange for this is commonly higher than what was given for the proteſted bill, in conſideration of the ready money advanced; whereas, in the firſt caſe, he gave in his money upon receiving the bill. What adds between the exchange of the draught, and re-draught, is what is properly called re-exchange.

According to the French edict of commerce 1673, there is no pretence for re-exchange, unleſs when it is made appear, by an inſtrument, that the poſſeſſor of the proteſted bill took up money by exchange, at the place where it ſhould have been paid: but only for reſtitution of exchange, with annualrent, and charges of proteſting *. For this money taken up by exchange, to ſupply the want of that for which the bill was proteſted, the diſappointed party may either redraw upon the firſt drawer †, or upon either of the indorſers, if the bill was

* Edit. de commerce 1673. tit. 6. art. 4.
† Du Puy, cap. 15. n. 4. Scarlet, cap. 30. r. 2. cap. 19. r. 3.

ne-

negociated in ſeveral places ‡, or upon the place where he was to be before he returned home, or upon any other part, when there is no certain trade between the place of the ſecond draught and thoſe where the proteſted bill was drawn and indorſed; if ſo be, he the re-drawer timeouſly advertiſe the parties concerned §. And his oath is ſufficiently probative, as to his deſign with the bill, though taxable, if it appear exorbitant, as other oaths in litem ‖.

‡ Ibidem. Du Puy, ibid. n. 9. Stair Inſt. lib. 1. tit. 11. §. 7.
§ Du Puy, ibid. n. 5, 10, 6. Scaccia, §. 1. quæſt. 7. part. 2. amp. 8. n. 250.
‖ Stair, ibid.

But then the drawer of the firſt bill in either of theſe caſes is no farther obliged for re-exchange, than at the courſe (the time of proteſting) for bills at ſight, from the deſigned place of payment to that where the bill was drawn *: which gave occaſion to the foreign cuſtom of ſubjoining to proteſts a certificate from two brokers, concerning the preſent value of exchange between thoſe places †.

* Edit. de commerce 1673, tit. 1. art. 5. Du Puy, ibid. n. 20. Scarlet, cap. 20. r. 7, 8.
† Du Puy, ibid. 26.

In like manner, the indorſers are only liable in the courſe of re-exchange, to the place where they indorſed the bill *. The reaſon of all this is plain, becauſe there being nothing treated on between the drawer and remitter, but exchange from whence the bill was drawn, to the place of payment, the re-exchange muſt only be underſtood from thence, back again to the place of the draught, without reſpect to emergent and unthought-of negociations: nor was there any other thing under conſideration, between the indorſers and the perſon to whom they indorſed the bill, but exchange from the reſpective places where each of them did negociate the ſame.

* Edit. de commerce 1673. Du Puy, ibid. Scarlet, ibid.

But if, by the drawer's order and expreſs allowance, the bill was indorſed in ſome particular places, he will be accountable for re-exchange to thoſe parts, or to any place, wherever it was indorſed, if he gave indefinite powers to negociate *. However, though, as before obſerved, the drawer, in ſome caſes, be ſubject to the re-exchange, without a neceſſity upon the poſſeſſor of re-drawing directly on him; ſince, if it were otherwiſe, re-exchange would only take place when the creditor has occaſion to employ his money there, from whence the proteſted bill came; which ſeldom occurs in ſo ſhort a time. Yet the accepter of bills, having, after they were proteſted, and a charge given him, made partial payment of the principal ſum, and offered the remainder by way of inſtrument, was found liable only for that part of the principal that was unpaid, with the intereſt thereof, 'till the time the offer was made, and not for re-exchange: in reſpect the poſſeſſor had not re-drawn for his money upon the firſt drawer †. But, after all, this act of parliament makes no mention of re-drawing, as a requſitum to infer re-exchange, which it ſeems to allow after a due proteſt.

* Edit. de commerce 1673. art. 6.
† So it was decided in the caſe of William Boick contra Blackwood.

The drawer will be obliged for the ſums contained in the bills, with annualrent, exchange, re-exchange; and charges, although he received no value, but followed the remitter's faith for it, who hath not paid him: if the poſſeſſor paid value to his author *. But, if a bill chance to be unſatisfied, through ſome accident, which the drawer could not foreſee, nor prevent; this will be to him a ground of indemnity for damages: in like manner the proteſting for not-payment of an accepted bill, at the accepter's mortuary houſe, where he died, was ſuſtained to afford action to the creditor in the bill, for the ſingle value, againſt both the drawer, and the ſucceſſors of him on whom it was drawn: but not for exchange or re-exchange given againſt the drawer; becauſe it was not thought any fault, or voluntary failure, but an accident of death intervening, that the bill came to be proteſted †.

* Scarlet, cap. 42. r. 2, 4.
† July 8, 1664, Kennedy contra Hutcheſon.

The proteſting for not-payment of a bill, by the poſſeſſor's neareſt of kin, or executor nominate (as hath been done) with a deſign to ſalve and keep intire the recourſe againſt the drawer, is a moſt unwarrantable action; for, beſides that it cannot infer exchange, re-exchange, and damages; ſeeing the debtor ought never to be conſidered as in mora, 'till once an active title is made to the bill: Molloy * affirms, that a proteſt for not-payment ought not to paſs in ſuch a caſe, no perſon having right to make it; and, if any notary ſhould proteſt, an action might lie againſt him, at the inſtance of the party receiving prejudice thereby.

* L. 2. cap. 10. n. 34.

Or in caſe of ſuſpenſion to eike the ſame to the charge, at the diſcuſſing of the ſaid ſuſpenſion, to the effect that the ſame may be liquidate, and decreet given therefore.]

Suſpenſion * is a ſtopping of execution either for a time, or for ever, upon reaſons inſtantly verified by writ, or oath of party, unleſs they conſiſt in facto, and are probable by witneſſes, or be founded upon another man's writ, as when ſureties ſuſpend upon diſcharges granted to the principal debtor.

* Which is ſomething in the nature of an injunction in the law of England.

By an act of parliament dated 17 July, 1695, no ſuſpenſion can paſs of any charge of ſums lent by, or to, the bank, but upon diſcharge, or conſignation, of the ſums charged for. When reaſons are inſiſted on beſides thoſe in the bill, they are called, in Scotland, eiked, or added reaſons. This eiking of reaſons is allowed, becauſe that ſuſpenders are obliged inſtanter to verify. Though ſummary execution be not competent for exchange not contained in the bill, re-exchange, damage, &c. theſe not being liquid or aſcertained debts; yet, in the caſe of ſuſpenſion, they may be warrantably added to the charge; ſeeing they can then be conveniently liquidated, and conſtituted in the decreet, finding the letters orderly proceeded. And * fruſtra fit per plura, &c. But, the poſſeſſor of a bill not having re-drawn upon the drawer, an additional charge of re-exchange, damage, and intereſt, was not ſuſtained againſt the accepter †. When diligence upon bills of exchange is ſuſpended, all preceding expences may be eiked to the charge. And if, at diſcuſſing of the ſuſpenſion, the ſame be found calumnious, the lords will alſo decree the additional charges of plea, according to a particular account thereof given upon oath by the charger ‡; but not where there is a probabilis cauſa litigandi: ſo expences are refuſed in a ſuſpenſion, raiſed by the accepter of a bill, on a ground of compenſation for the indorſer's debts; although the compenſation was over-ruled, and the latter founded orderly proceeded ‖.

* Which ſentence is given, if the ſuſpenſion appear to the lords at adviſing to be groundleſs.
† In the caſe of Boick contra Blackwood.
‡ W. par. 1. ſeſſ. 6. c. 22.
‖ 31 January, 1609, Stewart againſt Campbell.

I ſhall here briefly touch upon the common reaſons and exceptions againſt bills, whereof ſome are only competent to be proponed in a ſuit of review, ſuch as the exceptions of fraud, or force *, and the exceptions of bankrupt †: though it was found that a declarator of bankrupt againſt the drawer of a bill, at the inſtance of his creditor, an arreſter upon the act 1696, might be received incidenter in a multiple poinding ‡. between him and the poſſeſſor of the bill ‖. Other reaſons there be againſt bills, which are proper by way of ſuſpenſion and exception.

* Stair Inſt. lib. 4. tit. 40. §. 38.
† 24 Feb. 1700, William Wightman againſt Cuthbertſon.
‡ An action ſetting forth that the plaintiff is ſubject to manifold diſtreſs, at the inſtance of different perſons claiming right to the ſame debt, and praying that the judge may find him liable only in once and ſingle payment.
‖ 2 Feb. 1700, Norman Durward againſt William Struthers.

The ſtrongeſt reaſon of ſuſpenſion is payment, or it's equivalent compenſation, which is debiti et crediti contributio *, a mutual payment, although an omiſſion in the poſſeſſor of a bill to procure the ſame accepted, and paid in due manner, or to proteſt for not-acceptance, or not-payment, will cut off his relief againſt the drawer; if the time of the mora, the perſon drawn upon did break with the drawer's effects; yet payment of a bill is not to be preſumed †.

* L. 1. ff. de compenſ. a reckoning between creditor and debtor of what is due to each other; or when ſomething therefore ceaſes to be due, becauſe the creditor owes to the debtor a thing of the ſame kind and value.
† Arg. l. ult. C. de ſolution.

Neither was action ſuſtained upon ſuch a preſumption, to the creditors of one who had accepted bills, for repetition againſt the drawer; although he had framed and remitted an account to the accepter, wherein he gave him credit for theſe bills, and made himſelf debtor: no inſtruction that they were paid by the accepter being produced; and it being ordinary among merchants to credit one's account for bills drawn on him, upon ſuppoſition that they will be paid *. Therefore, in a new ſuit, at the accepter's own inſtance, for payment of the aforeſaid fitted account, the drawer was allowed deduction of the foreſaid bills, giving credit for the ſame, in regard they were returned on him proteſted †. Again, a bill with a receipt of the contents thereof, written and ſubſcribed by the creditor therein, found among his papers after his death, was not held ſufficient to exoner the debtor, in reſpect that law preſumed, that the receipt was written ſpe numerandæ pecuniæ, and that payment was never made, ſeeing the bill with the receipt was undelivered ‡. Payment to the creditor of a bill afterwards indorſed to another, was not found relevant ‖ for the debtor's

* March 1686, Watſon againſt John Drummond of Newtoun.
† Jackſon contra eundem.
‡ 16 July, 1709, Cochran contra Pringle.
‖ i. e. was agreed not to be a good plea.

liberation,

liberation, though he was ignorant of the indorſement: because he declined to give his oath of calumny, that he had ground to ſay, the preſent poſſeſſor knew of the payment made to the indorſer, when the bill was indorſed to him §.

§ February 5, 1702, Van Muin and Allan againſt Wood.

Neither will a receipt of the money from the creditor, not being upon the bill, but in a paper apart, defend the payer againſt a new poſſeſſor. But partial payments marked upon the foot of an accepted bill of exchange, and a ballance ſtated, as due in figures, offered to be proved to be the deceaſed creditor's hand-writing, was ſuſtained in a proceſs at the inſtance of his heirs, to aſſoilzie the accepter, except as to the ſaid ballance; in reſpect, he offered to prove by witneſſes, that payments were truly made conform to the ſaid account, and the bill was ſtill in the cuſtody of the purſuer *.

* 9 Feb. 1709. Watſon of Muirhouſe contra Smith.

To avoid the troubleſome circle of making mutual payments, by ſuch as are debtor and creditor to one another, compenſation is found neceſſary: it being more one's intereſt to retain in his own hands, than to pay and ſeek back again. Compenſation is ordinarily relevant, or a good plea, with us, againſt an aſſignee upon a liquid debt due by his cedent, before intimation of the aſſignation *, conform to that principle in law, none can be in a better condition than the author, from whom his right flows †. Yet in bills of exchange, our law ſuſtains not compenſation againſt the poſſeſſor of a bill, upon a debt of the indorſer's prior to the indorſement, not even in inland bills ‡. So compenſation againſt an inland bill accepted by two co-partners, upon a liquid debt due by the indorſer to one of the joint accepters, prior to the indorſement, proponed by the other accepter and co-partner, was repelled; although the ground of compenſation, founded on, did conſiſt with the poſſeſſor's knowledge, and was received by him upon the indorſer's order. The reaſon is, becauſe indorſations uſe neither to bear dates, nor need intimations like other aſſignations; and, for the benefit of commerce, carry right to the ſums in the bill ſine onere, as if ſo much money had been delivered in a bag to the indorſee.

* March 16, 1639. Forſyth contra Coupland, January 22, 1663. Wallace contra Edgar.
† L. 175. §. 1. ff. de Reg. Jur.
‡ 31 Jan. 1699. John Stewart againſt Alexander Campbel.

When we ſay, that compenſation is not to be obtruded to the poſſeſſor, upon the indorſer's debt; it is to be underſtood with this common exception, unleſs the debtor prove by the creditor's oath, that the bill, purſued for, is for the indorſer's behoof. And ſo it was found relevant for the accepter of a bill of exchange, to prove by the poſſeſſor's oath, that the indorſement, in their favour, was but a truſt: and, by the oath of the indorſer, that he was ſatisfied for the ſum contained in the bill, by the drawer. But he the indorſer being in France, and we in ſtatu belli with that kingdom; the lords refuſed to grant commiſſion for taking his oath there, but only to be executed within the dominions of any of our ſovereign's allies *. Yet they ſtopped circumduction of the term for not reporting of the commiſſion during the war; without prejudice to the accepter to take the benefit thereof, if in the mean time the indorſer happened to die †.—Again, the indorſer of a bill, purſued by action of recourſe, was allowed to prove payment by oath of the poſſeſſor's cedent, although the plaintiff was an aſſignee for an onerous cauſe. Becauſe he knew that the ſum contained in the bill was rendered litigious by proceſs betwixt the cedent and the defender, before the aſſignation ‡. 'Tis true, the accepter proving by the oath of the creditor in the bill, that the ſame is for the drawer or indorſer's behoof, may compenſe upon debts due to him by that perſon: but yet a creditor of the drawer of a bill, having arreſted in the accepter's hands, and proved by the poſſeſſor's oath, that the bill was only payable to him for the drawer's behoof, was found to have good right to the ſum in the bill, without being obliged to ſtand to that oath, when made uſe of by the accepter, for proving that the drawer and accepter were upon the matter one perſon; and, conſequently, that all his pleas were entire to him againſt the arreſter, as againſt the drawer ‖.

* Nov. 18, 1701. Daniel Arthur and Patrick Couts againſt Patrick Cockburn.
† June 25, 1703, inter eoſdem.
‡ 29 January 1708. Fulton contra Johnſton.
‖ In the caſe of Robert Cowan againſt Robert Douglas.

When compenſation is founded upon a debt due by the creditor in the bill, it muſt be ſuch whereof the term of payment is come *. And, if payable in another place, he is to be conſidered for the loſs he has, by not being permitted to diſcharge at the place of payment; and muſt have allowance, in the compenſation, of ſo much as is uſually given for remitting money to that port †.

* L. 7. Pr. ff. de Comp.
† L. 15. eodem les loix civiles, &c. Tom. II. lib. 4. tit. 2. ſect. 2. art. 8.

As no debt of the indorſer of a bill can be a ground of compenſation againſt the poſſeſſor; ſo, for the ſame reaſon, neither do the indorſers ſeparate receipts of partial payment militate againſt him the poſſeſſor *. Upon the ſame topic, declarations apart were thought not ſufficient to ſtop the currency of bills †. But indorſement of bills, not for value given at the time, but in ſecurity of bygone debt, leſs than the ſum in the bill, and what expences ſhould happen to be diſburſed in recovering payment, was excluded by an anterior ſeparate general diſcharge granted to the accepter ‡:

* December 12, 1711. Erſkine contra Thompſon.
† January 18, 1700. Whitman contra Johnſton.
‡ Jan. 15, 1708. Crawfurd contra Piper.

Very commonly bills are ſuſpended upon a reaſon of multiple poinding *, as when the debtor is, or may be, ſued by different pretenders; to the end they may diſpute their preference, that he may be liable, in once and ſingle payment, to the party who ſhall be found to have beſt right. And he, the ſuſpender, gets ordinarily allowance for his expences; but not till the concluſion of the cauſe, and the preference be diſcuſſed §. But yet there is not ſo much ground for competition in the matter of bills, as upon other rights; which, according to the cuſtom of Scotland, are more variouſly affectable by diligence.

* i. e. manifold diſtreſs.
§ December 12, 1702, George Wood againſt the creditors of Wightman.

The competition in bills runs ordinarily, either between aſſignees by indorſation, or betwixt arreſters, or betwixt aſſignees and arreſters. In a competition of different perſons, to whom the firſt and ſecond bill are endorſed; he will be preferred that procured the firſt acceptance, whether upon the firſt or ſecond bill, although laſt indorſed *; as being maſter of the firſt complete right. In a debate betwixt two arreſters, an arreſtment, by virtue of letters of horning upon a proteſted bill, was preferred to intervening arreſtments upon depending actions ‡.

* Scarlet, cap. 42. r. 36.
‡ ———1697, John Inglis and James Foulis, againſt Mackie of Palgown.

In ordinary competitions betwixt aſſignees and arreſters, the preference is ruled by the priority of the intimation or arreſtment, though it be but the difference of three hours *; but indorſations of bills of exchange are tranſmitted, without notice to the debtor, and ſeldom dated: therefore an indorſement was preferred to a poſterior arreſtment laid on for the indorſer's debt, before intimation of the poſſeſſor's right to the accepter ‡. For commerce-ſake, the poſſeſſor of a bill indorſed for value received, ſhould be preferred to prior areſtments, at the inſtance of the indorſer's creditors. Bills not being arreſtable, more than they are compenſable, for the indorſer's debt; therefore the poſſeſſor of a bill to whom it was indorſed for value, was preferred to the indorſer's creditor, who had arreſted the money in the accepter's hand before indorſation; it not being alledged, that the indorſee knew of the arreſtment, when the bill was indorſed to him §. It may ſeem proper here, once for all, to obſerve, that although bills of exchange are, regulariter, neither compenſable nor arreſtable for any indorſer's debt, and his ſeparate receipts of payment, not extant upon the bills, cannot militate againſt the preſent poſſeſſors for value; yet bills, as well as other obligations, are affectable by compenſation, or arreſtment, for the preſent poſſeſſor's debt, or by his ſeparate receipts, and liable to any other legal exception, founded upon his own deed: which doth not in the leaſt infringe upon the faith and free ſecurity of commerce, but only obligeth dealers in exchange to act juſtly towards thoſe they have to do with.

* Stair Inſtit. lib. 4. tit. 35. §. 7.
‡ July 12, 1698, John Ewin Geils and Robert Innes.
§ December 5, 1712, Hume contra Smith.

'Tis true, Sir George Mackenzie, in his obſervations *, doth ſuggeſt, as a reaſon for denying compenſation upon the poſſeſſor's own debt, that bills, being in effect bags of money in the conſtruction of law, are a kind of depoſitum, againſt which compenſation doth not lie. But this is of no weight, ſeeing bills are not compared to money-bags in the hands of the deſigned accepter, or debtor liable in payment, who only could be underſtood the depoſitary; but reſemble ready money in the hands of the poſſeſſor, in ſo far as bills do, alike freely as money, paſs from one poſſeſſor to another, without any latent embargo upon them, ariſing from the debts or deeds of his author, as if they had been originally payable to himſelf. Nay, a bill, payable to a ſociety, may, while it ſtands in their perſons, be arreſted or compenſed for the private debt of any member of the ſociety, in ſo far as extends to his proportion and intereſt in the ſtock of the ſociety, which is a tacit withdrawing thereof. So a particular ſhare of principal and intereſt of the capital ſtock of the African company in Scotland, was found arreſtable, at the inſtance of the proprietor's creditor, in order to oblige the directors of the company to transfer the ſame in the ordinary way in favour of the arreſter ‡.

* On the act 20 Parl. Ch II.
‡ March 18, 1707, Aliſon contra Directors of the African company.

It may frequently fall out, that a perſon, being abroad, accepts of bills drawn by his creditor, preſented to him perſonally, while in the mean time there is an arreſtment, unknown to the accepter, laid on at his houſe by the drawer's creditor. In ſuch caſe, the accepter of the bill ſhould be liable both to the arreſter in the forth-coming *, if the arreſtment be uſed before acceptance of the bill, and to the poſſeſſor of the bill, provided he have it for an onerous cauſe. The reaſons are, 1. There is no doubt but an arreſtment is ſuch a legal imbargo upon the effects arreſted, as they cannot be converted to any other uſe than the arreſter's payment. Nor ſhould the accepter's ignorance prejudice another's preferable diligence. 2dly, The poſſeſſor of the bill may juſtly pretend, that the accepter muſt implement his acceptance, againſt which he can never be heard to alledge, that it was upon ſuppoſition of his having ſuch effects to anſwer, which, without his knowledge, are carried away by an arreſter's diligence. For he might have accepted the bill without effects; neither was the poſſeſſor bound to know whether he had effects or not. And the poſſeſſor being hindered, through the bill's being accepted, from immediate recourſe againſt the drawer, who may break in the interval; therefore the accepter, in the foreſaid caſe ſeems only to have the drawer, to ſeek for his relief.

* i. e. in the ſuit for making the ſubject arreſted effectual.

A creditor of the drawer of a bill as per advice, having arreſted in the hands of the poſſeſſor and accepter, and the poſſeſſor having deponed in the forth-coming, that the bill was only payable to him for the drawer's account; the accepter, who had none of the drawer's effects, was decerned to make the ſum in the bill forth-coming *; although the drawer, or his truſtee, the poſſeſſor, could never have compelled the accepter to pay, without inſtructing aliunde ſome ground of debt: and, though the arreſter made uſe of the poſſeſſor's oath againſt the accepter, he, the accepter, was not allowed the benefit of the ſame oath, to prove, that the bill was payable for the drawer's behoof, and that there was no advice in the caſe. Advice for the creditor in a bill to him it was payable to under truſt, ordering the application of a part of the money towards the ſatisfaction of a debt due to a third perſon, not being intimated to him; the property of that money, notwithſtanding the advice, remains with him who ſent it, arreſtable by his creditors ‡. Nor was the proteſting of a bill of exchange found ſufficient to intitle the poſſeſſor to effects remitted afterwards by the drawer, to the perſon drawn upon, and arreſted by the drawer's creditors: although the receiver of the money had advice from the drawer, to make payment to him. And it was found, that the property of the money was not tranſmitted from the drawer by the letter of advice, but remained his, and affectable by his creditors, the arreſters who were therefore preferred §. But one would think, that, had there been effects of the drawer's in the hands of him on whom he drew, at the time of the proteſt for not-acceptance: no poſterior arreſtment could have excluded the poſſeſſor of the bill his right to theſe effects. For then he could have purſued the perſon drawn upon for payment, notwithſtanding he did not accept. A perſon having got a precept, by way of miſſive letter, upon his debtor's debtor, containing an aſſignation to his bond; and having both proteſted the precept for not-acceptance, and intimated the ſame as an aſſignation; was preferred to a poſterior arreſter, although the proteſt wanted witneſſes ſubſcribing thereto, the intimation having witneſſes; although there had been a former intimation produced by him without witneſſes, and that it was alledged by the arreſter, that lite pendente nihil eſt novandum ‖. For no man, by producing a null title, can be excluded from founding afterwards upon one more valid and formal.

* Cowman againſt Douglas.
‡ January 16, 1706, Lord Roſs contra Gray of Newtoun.
§ 1697, Inglis and Fowlis againſt Mackie of Palgown.
‖ July 23, 1703, William Blackwood againſt Charles Miln and Sir Robert Anſtruther.

Becauſe, in competitions betwixt arreſters and aſſignees, the queſtion is frequently tabled, whether bills of exchange be comprehended in the act of parliament 1696, about bankrupts? Whereby all voluntary deeds by one under horning, found by decreet of the lords to be inſolvent, and alſo to be either impriſoned, or retired to the abbey, and other privileged place, or fled or abſconded, or to defend his perſon by force, made at, or after, or in the ſpace of ſixty days before his becoming ſo, in favour of any of his creditors, either in ſatisfaction, or for ſecurity, are declared null. Which point is neceſſary to be cleared. It may be alledged, that bills of exchange are not accepted in the act, which is general againſt all voluntary deeds, made by a bankrupt in favour of any of his creditors, to the prejudice of others; ſo that even voluntary payment, by ſuch a partial preference, would be ineffectual, and liable to be litigated; and, by parity of reaſon, bills of exchange. 2dly, If an exception were allowed, as to bills, then bankrupts would make all their conveyances by bills, and ſo elude the act of parliament. But, on the other hand, it may be pleaded, that bills cannot be brought under that act, and are none of thoſe deeds which a bankrupt may not do within ſixty days of his breaking. 1. Although bills are not expreſly therein excepted, it is not to be imagined, that ever the parliament deſigned they ſhould be comprehended: ſince they paſs from hand to hand in payments, as bags of money; and are neither arreſtable nor compenſable. 2. There is a wide difference betwixt an aſſignation to a ſum, and a bill: for he that takes an aſſignation, knows that the perſon whoſe debt is aſſigned, is debtor to the cedent; but the receiver of a bill is not bound to enquire, whether the perſon on whom the ſame is drawn, be debtor to the drawer, or not, it being ſufficient for him to procure acceptance. For what is more ordinary, than the accepting of bills of honour of the drawer or indorſers, to whom the accepter owes nothing? 3dly, It were in vain to pretend, that the accepting of bills from the ſtatute would make it eluſory: for all fraudulent conveyances by bills, or otherwiſe, are ſtill reducible; and bills drawn by country gentlemen, or others who are not in uſe to trade, would be more liable to the ſuſpicion of a frudulent deſign, than ſuch as are drawn by merchants in the ordinary courſe of their trade. And, to bring the drawing or indorſing of bills within the compaſs of the act of parliament, were to deſtroy the ſecurity of merchants, interrupt commerce, and occaſion great confuſion. For a bankrupt may give a bill to his creditor, for payment of an anterior debt, which comes to be accepted, and thereafter indorſed, perhaps, to two or three more for value received; would it not be a hardſhip to annul this bill, becauſe the drawer within ſixty days of the date proves inſolvent? This point is now cleared by ſeveral deciſions. A precept or inland bill granted to a creditor, in ſatisfaction or ſecurity of his debt by the common debtor, when he was under diligence of horning and caption, and inſolvent and retired, fled, or abſconded in the terms of the act of parliament, was found reducible at another creditor's inſtance *. The act of parliament, 1696, was found to take place upon a bankrupt's indorſement of an accepted bill of exchange, ſtill in the perſon of the indorſee, litigated by the accepter, who was the indorſer's creditor, if he the accepter proved, that the bill was indorſed for ſatisfaction or ſecurity of a prior debt, and not for preſent value received §: for it had been unreaſonable to oblige the creditor in the bill to prove, that he gave preſent value for it; ſeeing the paying value for bills (which may be either in goods, money, or bank-notes, or another bill given to the drawer or indorſer, upon ſome other place, where he has occaſion for money) is a tranſaction that cannot be eaſily proved, the preſence of witneſſes not being required to the ſubſcribing of bills. But a bill of exchange drawn or indorſed by a bankrupt, payable to a conjunct perſon, his own brother-in-law, was found to fall under the foreſaid act of parliament, unleſs it were made appear, that value was given for it at the time of the drawing or indorſing ‖: where deceitful colluſion, to the prejudice of the creditor, being preſumed in law, betwixt perſons ſo near allied by blood, it was no hardſhip to burden the receiver of the bill, with proving immediate delivery of the value. The reaſon of that quality in the deciſion, unleſs value was immediately given for the bills, is, becauſe a bill drawn by a bankrupt, within the foreſaid ſpace of ſixty days, for value delivered at the time, is good, and ought not be diſputed: ſeeing, over and above that, it is not a preferring one creditor to another, which the act only provides againſt; whatever privileges merchants may have, as to their bargains ex incontinenti, in the courſe of their trade, that it may not be retarded; yet, when they come to take ſecurity for bygone debts, that muſt be done according to the common law.

* February 15, 1698, Charles Gray againſt Andrew Melvil and Harry Baird.
§ January 16, 1713, Campbell of Glandervel, contra Graham of Gorthie.
‖ February 2, 1700, Durward contra Struthers and Wilſon.

In the foregoing caſes, bills of exchange, drawn or indorſed by bankrupts, were allowed to be queſtioned upon the act of parliament of 1696, only in the perſon of the firſt poſſeſſor or indorſee: for, had they been de novo for value to third parties, it is to be doubted, whether it would be conſiſtent with the freedom and ſafety of commerce, to reduce upon that head in their perſons, who are not bound to know the condition of the firſt drawer or indorſer. But yet an aſſignee to whom precepts bearing for value received, were granted by a rebel at the horn upon his debtors, as a corroborative ſecurity for bills of exchange, due before the denunciation, was preferred to the donatary of eſcheat: although the precepts wanted the ſolemnity of witneſſes, and the writer's name and deſignation *; in reſpect that the aſſignee, in concurrence with the reſt of the rebel's creditors, ſubſcribed his conſent to the paſſing of the donatary's gift, with this expreſs quality, that it ſhould not prejudge his right: though it was alledged for the donatary, that the aſſignee's ſubſcribing a qualified conſent to the procuring of the gift implies only, that his right ſhould not be diminiſhed by his ſubſcription, without giving him any farther right, than he had before.

* December 23, 1698, Dean of Guild Blair, contra George Watſon.

It is a ſtated controverſy among lawyers, if the exception of not numerate money (to which all written obligations for money received, lay open by the civil law for two years; during which time, the creditor, purſuing, behoved to prove delivery of the money, otherwiſe than by the debtor's handwriting) be competent againſt bills of exchange? But all they ſay, pro or con, is of ſmall uſe to the Scots, who allow no ſuch exception; and ſuſtain writs after delivery, as valid and probative from the date, 'till they be improven: admitting always contrary probation by writ, or oath of party; although the chyrographium bear a clauſe expreſsly renouncing the exception of not numerate money. Which take place in bills, as well as in other written obligations; ſo the exceptions be made to the poſſeſſor of a bill proteſted for not-acceptance by his immediate author, whether he be drawer or indorſer, upon the account of no value received from the poſſeſſor himſelf. But it would not be relevant for the drawee, or a prior indorſer, to object againſt the poſſeſſion of a bill, for an onerous cauſe, that no value was paid for the ſame, by his author the laſt indorſer; or for the accepter, to found upon no value received by the drawer.

Cauſa data, non ſecuta, is an ordinary exception againſt bonds; and in mutual contracts, both parties muſt perform. But a bill of exchange, bearing value received, being granted for the part of the price of a ſhip, which was never delivered free with a valid vendition; and the bill indorſed to a third perſon: the exception, ob cauſam non ſecutam, was not found effectual againſt the poſſeſſor; nor declarations apart, ſufficient to ſtop the currency of bills *. Becauſe bills of exchange are as fungible as money, affected with no qualities, but ſuch as are mentioned in the bill; and value received imports a renunciation of all exceptions. But though the allowing the exception of cauſa data, non ſecuta, againſt a ſtranger or third party, to whom a bill is indorſed, might prove a ſtop to the neceſſary courſe of bills: it is relevant for the debtor in a bill, to prove by the creditor's oath, that the bill, he being the firſt poſſeſſor thereof, was granted for the vendition of the part of a ſhip; and the being acknowledged, to inſtruct, that he, the debtor in a bill, was debarred from poſſeſſion of the ſubject ſold, by preferable rights of bottomry, affecting the ſhip ‖. And the arreſter of a bill for a part of the price of meal to be delivered by the drawer, for whoſe performance the creditor in the bill ſtood obliged, as cautioner in the contract, was not obliged to pay the bill, the meal not being delivered, although the bill was payable before the delivery of the meal ‡.

* January 26, 1700, Wightman againſt Johnſton.
‖ February 13, 1706, Plummer contra Houſton.
‡ June 7, 1707, Boys contra Shaw.

Preſcription is another exception againſt bills, which is the way to acquire or loſe the property of a thing, or any right, or action, by the courſe of time. Which definition implies two kinds of preſcription: the one, whereby the poſſeſſor acquires the property of that he poſſeſſes, and the proprietor is deſpoiled of it, for want of poſſeſſion: the other, which occaſions the acquiſition or loſs of all other rights, or claims and actions: whether there was poſſeſſion in the caſe, as in the enjoyment of ſervitudes; or no poſſeſſion, as when one loſes a debt by failing to exact it in due time. Preſcription is founded on this preſumption, that he who enjoys a right, has a juſt title, elſe the ſame had been ſooner called in queſtion; and that he who ceaſed to exerciſe it, hath been diſpoſſeſſed and denuded for a juſt cauſe: and that the perſon who hath continued ſo long without demanding payment of his debt, hath either got ſatisfaction, or acknowledged nothing to be due to him. The rules of preſcription are either ſuch as regard the uſe, nature, ſubject, and interruption of it; that which legitimates and vitiates preſcription, and the perſons againſt whom it runs: or ſuch as diſtinguiſh the times of preſcription, which are but arbitrary laws, different in divers places.

From clearing the time from which bills preſcribe, we are to conſider a two-fold preſcription, viz. a ſhort preſcription of ſix months, which is the time allowed for regiſtration and ſummary diligence; and a long preſcription of twenty years, which is common to bills with holograph writs. Although bonds preſcribe only from the term of payment, and not from the date *: yet this preſcription of ſix months commenceth from the term of payment, only in caſe of acceptance and not-payment; for, in caſe of a proteſt for not-acceptance, the computation runs from the date of the bill, even when the day of it's falling due is longer than ſix months.

* February 17, 1665, Butter contra Gray.

As to the long preſcription, Sir G. Mackenzie, in his obſervations *, informs us, indeed, that he remembers the parliament expreſsly refuſed to limit bills of exchange to the twenty years preſcription: as being too narrow for theſe common vehicles of trade between Scotland and foreign countries. And it is ſaid to have been decided ‖, that bills of exchange do not preſcribe as holograph writs: but this can hardly be well accounted for, ſince the reaſon why holograph writs preſcribe quoad modum probandi ſooner, than ſuch as are more ſolemn, is, their not being ſubſcribed before witneſſes: and conſequently, bills of exchange, as both wanting witneſſes, and ſeldom holograph, ſhould much rather have a ſhorter courſe, as it is in other parts. Eſpecially, ſeeing the reaſon why theſe are probative, without being holograph, and without witneſſes, is, for that they are not given as lying ſecurities: but payment thereof is ordinarily ſought after. And my lord Stair is of opinion ‡, that ſuch would not be probative, if kept up for any conſiderable time. Yet there is this difference betwixt a bill of exchange, and an ordinary holograph writ, that the firſt doth prove it's own date, whereas the other does not.

* June 23, 1675, Bruce contra Bruce.
‖ February 4, 1692, in the caſe of Leſly of Balquhan, againſt Mrs Menzies.
‡ Stair Inſtit. lib. 4. tit. 42. § 61.

A charge, or proceſs at the inſtance of a creditor in a bill, againſt one of the correi debendi, will hinder preſcription, as to the reſt *; though they be not creditors, or debtors in ſolidum ‖.

* Arg. l. ult. C. de doub. Reis.
‖ Les loix civiles, &c. Tom. II. lib. 3. tit. 2. ſect. 5. art. 16, 17.

Of the regulation of Bills of Exchange in France, according to the ordonnance of March 1673, Title 5.

ART. I.

Bills of exchange ought to contain, in a conciſe manner, the names of thoſe to whom the contents are to be paid, the time of payment, the name of him who gave the value, and whether it was received in money, merchandize, or otherwiſe.

ART. IV, XI, XII.

The bearers of bills of exchange, which have been accepted, or which become due at a day certain, are obliged to get them paid, or to have them proteſted within ten days after that on which they became due. And, after ſuch a proteſt, they who have accepted them can be proſecuted at the ſuit of the bearers: the ſame bearers can alſo, with the judge's leave, ſeize the effects of thoſe who have drawn or indorſed theſe bills, though they were accepted, and even the effects on thoſe to whom they were drawn, in caſe they accepted them.

ART. XIII, XIV, XV.

They who have drawn or indorſed bills of exchange, ought to be proſecuted within fifteen days, if they dwell within the diſtance of ten leagues; if at a greater diſtance, at the rate of one day more for every five leagues, without diſtinction of the diſtricts of parliaments: but this muſt be underſtood of ſuch perſons only, whoſe dwelling-place is within the kingdom of France: as for thoſe who dwell in other countries, the delays are otherwiſe regulated. They who dwell in England, Flanders, or Holland, ought to be proſecuted, within two months: in Italy, Germany, and Switzerland, within three months; in Spain within four months; in Portugal, Sweden, and Denmark, within ſix months: all thoſe ſeveral terms muſt be reckoned from the day next following that, on which the proteſt was made, to that on which the proſecution is begun incluſively, without diſtinction of Sundays or holidays; after which terms, the bearers of bills of exchange have no longer any action or demand againſt the drawers and indorſers.

ART. XVI, XVII.

The drawers and indorſers of bills of exchange are obliged to prove, in caſe it be denied, that thoſe on whom they have drawn them, were indebted to them, or had money in their hands, at the time the bills were to be proteſted, otherwiſe they are obliged to make them good; and in caſe the drawers or indorſers had, ſince the time limited for the proteſt, received the value either in money, merchandize, by account, compenſation, or otherwiſe, they are alſo obliged to make thoſe bills good.

ART. XVIII, XIX.

Bills of exchange payable to a particular perſon, and not to the bearer or order, being loſt or miſlaid, payment may be demanded and made, by virtue of a ſecond letter, without giving ſecurity, provided, nevertheleſs, mention be made of it's being a ſecond bill, and that the firſt or preceding ſhall remain void and null. But, when a bill, payable to the bearer or order, happens to be loſt or miſlaid, it ought not to be paid but by an order from the magiſtrate, and by giving ſecurity to anſwer for the payment.

ART. XX.

The ſecurities given for the payment of bills of exchange are diſcharged of courſe, without any ſentence, proceeding, or ſummons, if no demand was made during three years, reckoning from the day of the laſt proſecution.

ART. XXI.

A bill of exchange is reputed to be acquitted or paid, when no demand or proceeding was made during five years, reckoning from the day next following that on which it was due,

or

or proteſted, or the laſt proceeding made. Nevertheleſs, the pretended debtors are obliged, if thereto required, to declare, that they are not indebted; and their widows, heirs, or aſſigns, muſt affirm, that they ſincerely believe there is nothing due.

ART. XXII.

What has been obſerved in the two laſt articles, ought to take place alſo with regard to minors and abſent perſons.

ART. XXIII, XXIV, XXV.

A bare ſignature on the back of a bill of exchange is looked upon only as an indorſement, and not as an order, unleſs it be dated, and the perſon's name be mentioned, who paid the value, either in money, merchandize, or otherwiſe. And a bill, thus indorſed, is reckoned the property of him whoſe name is mentioned in the order, without any transfer or notification: but, on the contrary, if there be only a blank indorſement, that is to ſay, the bare ſignature of the proprietor, it ſhould be reckoned to belong ſtill to him, who thus put his name on the back of it, and ſuch might be ſeized by his creditors, and brought into account to his debtors.

ART. XXVI.

It is abſolutely forbidden to antedate any order, upon pain of forgery.

ART. XXVII.

They who ſubſcribe a bill of exchange (which ſubſcription the French call aval) whereby they bind themſelves to pay the contents, in caſe it be not paid when due by the accepter, or drawer, become thereby bound to the drawer, indorſer, and accepter, though it be not mentioned in the ſubſcription or aval.

Finally, the firſt article of the 7th title of the ſame ordonnance orders, That they who have ſigned bills of exchange, and even they who put their aval to them, may be arreſted; which is to be underſtood, in caſe the bills be not paid.

As, in the ordonnance iſſued in the year 1673, it was impoſſible to foreſee all the different caſes that might ariſe in the negociation of bills of exchange, though, as we have ſeen, that ordonnance enters into very minute particulars upon that ſubject, there have been given ſince ſeveral declarations of the king, and decrees of the parliament, which have interpreted or explained ſeveral articles of that ordonnance, and added ſome new ones to it.

By the declaration iſſued in May 1686, it is ordered, by way of explanation of the ordonnance of 1673, that the fourth article of it be obſerved according to it's form and contents; and that, accordingly, the ten days granted for proteſting bills and notes of exchange ſhould not be reckoned but from the day following that, on which the ſaid bills and notes became due; that the day on which they became due, ſhould not be reckoned among the ten, but only that on which the proteſt was made, as well as Sundays and holidays, even the moſt ſolemn feſtivals, which ſhould fall within the ſpace of the ten days; notwithſtanding all orders and cuſtoms to the contrary, even the 6th article of the ſaid ordonnance of 1673, which article is abrogated, in that reſpect, by this laſt-mentioned declaration.

By a ſentence of the Chatelet of Paris, given the 31ſt of Auguſt 1708, it was declared, that the limitation of time, eſtabliſhed by the 15th article of the 5th title of the ordonnance of the year 1673, with regard to the bearers of bills of exchange, who neglect to proſecute the indorſers, within the term ſet down in the 13th article of the ſame title, ſhould take place, as well with regard to the indorſers of notes, payable to bearer, as with regard to the indorſers of bills of exchange.

By a decree of the parliament, in the form of a regulation, made the 30th of Auguſt 1714, according to the opinion of the king's attorney-general, it is ordered, that the articles 18, 19, and 33, of the ordonnance of the year 1713, ſhall be executed; and accordingly, that, in caſe a bill of exchange, on which are ſeveral indorſers, be loſt, the owner ſhall apply to the laſt indorſer, and not to the drawer, in order to have a ſecond bill. See INDORSEMENT and INDORSER.

The frequent augmentations and diminutions of the coin in France, which happened during the reign of Lewis XIV, and which the neceſſity of the ſtate cauſed to be continued during the firſt years of Lewis XV, having occaſioned many diſputes, with regard to the payment of bills and notes of exchange, they were obviated by two declarations; the one of the 16th of March 1700, and the other of the 28th of November 1713, and by a decree of the council given the 27th of May 1719.

By the firſt of theſe declarations, the bearers of bills and notes of exchange, or of bills payable to the bearer, are obliged, ten days after they become due, to cauſe payment to be demanded of the debtors, by a ſummons containing the names, qualities, and dwelling-places of the ſaid bearers, offering to receive the payment of ſuch bills or notes, in current ſpecie: and, if the bearers omit to make ſuch a demand within the limited time, they ſhall be liable to ſuffer from the diminution that might happen in the current ſpecie. The ſecond declaration confirms and explains the former, and orders, that, reciprocally, it ſhall not be in the power of the debtors of ſuch bills, or notes, to oblige the bearers to receive the payment of them before the tenth day after they became due. And, with regard to promiſſary notes for value received in merchandize, which, according to cuſtom, are not paid 'till a month after they are due, the debtors of ſuch notes ſhall not oblige the bearers to receive payment before the ſame day. Nevertheleſs, his majeſty's will and pleaſure is, that they, who ſhall have given notes for merchandizes, the diſcount of which was agreed upon, ſhall be at liberty to diſcharge them, provided payment be made full thirty days before that appointed for the diminution of the ſpecies.

The decree of the council, given the 27th of May 1719, contains a regulation for the payment of the bills of exchange, drawn or indorſed in foreign countries, particularly in England and Holland. His majeſty orders, that the bills drawn from Holland, before the augmentation of the 1ſt of May 1718, be paid in crowns of five livres; and that thoſe drawn, before the diminution of the 8th of May 1719, could be known there, be paid in louis d'ors of 36 livres; and with regard to the bills drawn from England before, and due ſince, the ſaid diminution, be alſo paid in louis d'ors of 36 livres; with liberty, however, to the bearer, to cauſe himſelf to be reimburſed, by the perſon who pays the bill, twenty-ſols per louis d'or, in the caſe the definitive ſentence, which was to be given in England, ſhould order, that the bills drawn before, and due ſince, the known augmentation of the firſt of May 1718, were to be paid in crowns of ſix livres.

There are four things to be conſidered in all bills of exchange, viz. 1. The perſons. 2. The time of payment. 3. What is to be paid; and, 4. The value. As for the words or expreſſions, and other conditions, they are arbitrary.

I. There are commonly four perſons concerned in a bill of exchange, namely, the drawer; he who receives it, and has given the value, called by ſome the drawee; he who is to pay it; and he who is to receive it.

EXAMPLE I.

SIR, Paris, Auguſt 11, 1732. For 1000 livres.

'At ſight pay by this my firſt of exchange, to Mr Severin, 'the ſum of a thouſand livres, value received of Mr Lucian, 'and place it to account, as per advice from

To Mr Hilaire at Lyons. Your humble Servant SIMEON.

Obſerve, that it is not cuſtomary at preſent to make compliments in bills of exchange, ſo that moſt merchants omit thoſe words, your very humble ſervant, and only ſign their name. In order that this kind of contract may be put in execution, the drawer gives notice to the perſon who is to pay the bill, with orders to do it, by a letter to this purpoſe:

SIR, Paris, Auguſt 11, 1732.

'I have this day drawn a thouſand livres upon you, payable 'at ſight to Mr Severin, for value received of Mr Lucian. I 'deſire you to honour it, and charge it to my account in con-'formity.'

In caſe the drawer has not effects in the drawee's hands to the amount at leaſt of the ſum drawn, he muſt give him notice how he will furniſh him with money to pay it: but, if the drawee be his debtor, he ſays, place it to his account, or to that effect.

Sometimes, or rather now moſt commonly, they put in the bill of exchange, Pay to Mr Severin, or to his order, or, Pay to the order of Mr Severin.

There are afterwards many times ſeveral ſucceſſive orders; but this does not in the leaſt alter the nature of the bill of exchange, all thoſe orders being only a ſubſtitution of the one in the place of the former, and putting the laſt in the place of him to whom the bill was originally made payable.

EXAMPLE II.

SIR, Paris, Auguſt 14, 1734. For 2000 livres.

'Eight days after ſight pleaſe to pay this my firſt of exchange 'to Mr Felix, or order, the ſum of two thouſand livres, for 'value exchanged with Mr Martel, and place it to account, 'as per advice of

To Mr Victor, at Roan. Your's, &c. FABIAN.

And at the bottom of the bill, or moſt commonly on the back of the bill, is put,

For me pay the contents above, or on the other ſide, to the order of Mr Vincent, value received of Mr Julian.

Paris, Auguſt 14, 1734. Signed FELIX.

And thus ſeveral other orders are, or may be, put ſucceſſively. From theſe orders being now commonly writ on the back of the bills of exchange, come the words of indorſement and indorſer, from the Latin in dorſo. Theſe orders are generally very

very conciſe, as for inſtance, in theſe words only, Pay to the order of C D, and ſigned by the owner of the bill, ſometimes with, and often without any date.

Sometimes, or rather very often, the bill of exchange is payable to him who gives the value, which happens chiefly when he is to go to the place where the bill is to be paid, or when he has a mind to negociate it: in which caſe there are but three perſons named in it.

EXAMPLE III.

SIR, Paris, Auguſt 1, 1736. For 3000 livres.

'At the end of this month pleaſe to pay this my firſt of exchange to Mr Romuald, the ſum of three thouſand livres, value received of him, and place it to account, as per advice of

To Mr Paul, at Marſeilles. Your's, &c. GABIN.

If the perſon to whom the bill is payable ſhould not go to Marſeilles, ſome queſtion whether his order alone would be ſufficient to get it paid, and ſay that he muſt make a transfer of it before a notary-public, or ſend a letter of attorney: but neither of theſe are of more force than a bare order; they are only more authentic. But, to prevent the neceſſity of ſuch a transfer, or letter of attorney, it is better to make the bill payable to ſuch a perſon, or order.

Sometimes the perſon on whom the bill is drawn, being a correſpondent of the drawer, and of him who pays the value, it is made payable to himſelf, and in that caſe alſo there appear but three perſons in the bill.

EXAMPLE IV.

Paris, Auguſt 14, 1740. For 1000 △, at 101 deniers de gros.

SIR,

'At two uſances pay by this my firſt of exchange to yourſelf 'the ſum of a thouſand crowns, at a hundred and one deniers 'de gros per crown, value received of Mr Benoit, and place it 'to account as per advice of

To Mr Dennis, at Amſterdam. Your's, &c. AUBIN.

There appear, alſo, but three perſons in a bill of exchange, when the drawer puts that it is value of or in himſelf.

EXAMPLE V.

SIR, Paris, Auguſt 21, 1741. For 4000 livres.

'At the next payments of Auguſt, be pleaſed to pay to Mr 'Jouïn the ſum of four thouſand livres, for value in myſelf, 'and place it to account as per advice of

To Mr Paul, at Lyons. Your's, &c. GABIN.

There are alſo bills of exchange in which but two perſons appear, namely, the drawer, and the perſon who is to pay it.

EXAMPLE VI.

Paris, Auguſt 1, 1742. For 1000 △, at 74 kreiſſers per △.

SIR,

'At the next fair of September pay this my firſt of exchange 'to yourſelf the ſum of a thouſand crowns, at ſeventy-four 'kreiſſers per crown, value in myſelf, and place to account 'as per advice of

To Mr Hilaire, at Frankfort. Your's, &c. SIMEON.

EXAMPLE VII.

SIR, Paris, Auguſt 1, 1744. For 1000 livres.

'At two uſuances you will pay by this my firſt of exchange, 'to my order, the ſum of one thouſand livres, value in my-'ſelf, and place to account as per advice of

To Mr Jordan, at Roan. Your's, &c.

But, in thoſe ſorts of bills of exchange of the ſixth form, or example, there muſt always be underſtood one perſon, and ſometimes two: for either the bill is drawn for the account of a third perſon, who is not mentioned in it, but only in the letter of advice, or it is remitted for the account of a third perſon, not named in it. It even happens ſometimes that it is both drawn for the account of one perſon, and remitted for the account of another, though neither be named in it: but, in thoſe caſes, the perſon to whom the bill is directed acts the part of ſeveral perſons, for he pays to, and receives from, himſelf; but the draught, or remittance, muſt of neceſſity be for the account of a third perſon, for it is impoſſible that a man ſhould pay to himſelf, without ſome foreign cauſe: ſo that there are at leaſt three perſons, and ſometimes four, neceſſarily concerned in a bill of exchange.

The ſeventh example, or inſtance, happens but ſeldom: but Monſieur James Savary aſſerts, that he has ſeen it, and adds, that ſome people queſtioned whether it were really a bill of exchange. In order to ſolve that queſtion, we muſt know the reaſons which occaſion the drawing of ſuch bills of exchange; our author mentions two reaſons: the firſt is, when a banker has orders to draw upon a place at a certain price, which he judges advantageous, but meets with no opportunity to do it, neither at that price, nor to any other, there being no money to be remitted at that place; he thereupon reſolves to take the bill he draws for a friend's account, to his own account, rather than fail to ſerve his friend, and, 'till he can meet with an opportunity to negociate it, he draws the bill payable to his own order. The ſecond reaſon is, when the drawer is a creditor of the perſon upon whom he draws, and, before he diſpoſes of the money due to him, he would ſecure it by the privilege of an accepted bill of exchange. One cannot doubt, but, in either of theſe caſes, the bill is a true bill of exchange, for it has the eſſential conditions of it, which are, on the one hand, the remittance from place to place, and, on the other, the conſent of the drawer to the giver of the value; and, over and above that, the conſent of the accepter. Of the drawer, in the firſt caſe, by the letter of the perſon who gave orders to draw to him who paid the value; and, though this conſent of two perſons appear not in the bill of exchange but by one and the ſame perſon, yet it is perfect, nevertheleſs, repreſenting really two perſons, him who gave the order, and him who received it.

If it be objected, that, in the ſecond caſe, there is not the conſent of two perſons, it may be anſwered, that, by the order, that conſent is full and intire, and, conſequently, it is a true bill of exchange.

We may add a further example, which happens very ſeldom; it is as follows:

EXAMPLE VIII.

Caën, Auguſt 20, 1746. For 3000 livres.

'On the 20th day of December next I ſhall pay, at the houſe 'of Mr P——, in Paris, to the order of Thomas, the ſum 'of three thouſand livres, value received of him in mer-'chandize.'

N. CLEMENT.

There are in that bill but two contracting parties who bind themſelves; he who gives the bill binds himſelf to procure the payment of it, and he who gave the value binds himſelf to get the money received. The two other perſons, viz. he who is to pay the money, and he who is to demand the payment, are only to ſee the contract executed, or performed.

II. The ſecond conſideration with regard to bills of exchange is that of the time when they are to be paid, which is done five different ways, as follow:

1. At ſight, or at will, which is the ſame thing, becauſe the bill muſt be paid the moment it is preſented.

2. So many days after ſight, which is an uncertain time, determined only by the preſentation of the bill, becauſe it is reckoned from that day only, that the drawer may, in the mean time, procure the ſum drawn upon him.

3. On ſuch a day of ſuch a month, which is a time determined in the bill.

4. At one or more uſances, or at one, two, or three uſances and a half, which is a time determined by the cuſtom of the place where the bill is to be paid. See USANCE.

5. At the payments, or at the time of the fair. This method is not general for all places, but only for thoſe where there are ſettled fairs, as Lyons, Frankfort, Bolzano, Lintz, and ſome other places; and that time is limited by the regulations and ſtatutes of thoſe fairs. See FAIRS.

III. With regard to what is to be paid, which is the ſum expreſſed in the bill, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that, when the bill is drawn for ſo much money current in the place where the bill is drawn, and that money is not current in the place upon which it is drawn, the price at which it is valued muſt be mentioned in the bill, as the reader may ſee in the fourth and ſixth examples above, to which we ſhall add one of a bill of exchange drawn from London upon Amſterdam.

London, April 27, 1749. 150l. at 35 ſchellings 11 gros, 2 ½ uſ.

SIR,

'At two uſances and a half pay by this my firſt of exchange 'to Mr D, or order, the ſum of one hundred and fifty pounds 'ſterling, at thirty-five ſchellings and eleven gros per pound 'ſterling, value received of Mr E, and place it to account 'as per advice of

To Mr M. N. merchant, at Amſterdam. F. G.

IV. Finally, with regard to the value, the forementioned edict publiſhed by the king of France in March 1673. tit. 5. art. 1, orders that it ſhall be declared in all bills of exchange, whether the value was received in money, merchandize, or other effects: but, as merchants of other nations are not obliged to ſubmit to that edict, there are many of their bills of exchange which expreſs only value received, without mentioning the nature of the effects in which the value was received; ſome even ſay only value of ſuch an one, without adding the word received; and in ſome it is only ſaid value in account.

It muſt be obſerved, that merchants generally draw a ſecond, ſometimes a third, bill of exchange, for the ſame purpoſe with the firſt, in theſe, or the like, words:

London, April 27, 1749. 150 l. at 35 ſchellings 11 gros, 2 ½ uſ.

SIR,

'At two uſances and a half pay by this my ſecond (or third) of 'exchange, the firſt (or the firſt and ſecond not being paid) to 'Mr. D, or order, the ſum of one hundred and fifty pounds 'ſterling, at thirty-five ſchellings and eleven gros per pound 'ſterling, value received of Mr. E, and place it to account 'as per advice of

To Mr. M. N. merchant, at Amſterdam. F. G.

Theſe ſecond and third bills are given for the ſecurity of him to whom, or to whoſe order, the bill is made payable, in caſe the firſt ſhould be loſt; as alſo that he may, if he pleaſes, ſend one to be accepted, and keep the other, or others, by him, or negociate it as he thinks fit; for it is enough if one of the two, or three, be accepted, the other, or others, being only in the nature of duplicates.

The orders and regulations of the city of Hamburgh, with relation to bills of exchange.

I.

He that accepts a bill of exchange, becomes a debtor himſelf, as well as he that has taken up, or received, the money.

II.

When a bill of exchange comes from foreign and diſtant countries, if drawn upon any man, in order to be accepted; if the perſon declines accepting, he who preſents the bill muſt immediately proteſt it. If he waits three days to know the mind of him who ſhould accept it, he ſhall incur no prejudice thereby, provided no ſervant goes in the mean time to the place where the money is told out.

III.

If the perſon upon whom the bill is drawn will not accept within the three days, the proprietor, or preſenter of the bill, muſt proteſt, and ſend back the proteſt; but, withal, he muſt keep the bill itſelf by him, 'till the time is elapſed. If the perſon upon whom the bill is drawn will then pay the money, the bearer muſt receive it upon condition, that he likewiſe pays the charges of the proteſt. If he will not pay, then the owner muſt proteſt for principal, intereſt, and damages, and ſend back the proteſt with the bill, and demand of the drawer his principal, intereſt, and damages, purſuant to the courſe of exchange.

IV.

When a bill is due, the time being expired, the owner muſt not fail to demand his money with all poſſible expedition; and, if the accepter be remiſs and backward in paying, he is obliged to proteſt the bill within 12 days, for he may wait no longer without prejudice, provided he is remiſs in making his demand, or has not had any new contract or dealings with the accepter: but, if theſe 12 days expire before he enters his proteſt, he thereupon forfeits his demand upon the drawer, and can only apply himſelf to the accepter. This caſe holds punctually, but allowances are made for a Sunday or holy-day falling in, upon which no proteſt can be entered.

V.

If any one takes a bill upon himſelf, and promiſes to accept it, he is obliged to pay it.

VI.

If a man receives a bill, in order to accept it, and keeps it by him three exchange-days, ſo that the former poſſeſſor cannot come at it, though he makes a demand, the bill ſhall paſs as actually accepted; and, when the time is expired, he that kept it ſo long, and did not return it upon a demand made, ſtands obliged to pay it.

VII.

If a perſon receives money, and the bill drawn thereupon is not accepted at the appointed place, but a proteſt returned upon it, he is obliged immediately, without any delay, to give in ſurety, or pledge, or conſign goods to the value, to ſecure the creditor for the money, together with his charges and damages.

VIII.

If a ſervant, without full power and commiſſion given in writing, accepts a bill drawn upon his maſter, the maſter is not obliged to pay it, when it becomes due; but, if the ſervant had a full power given in writing, the maſter muſt pay it in the uſual courſe.

IX.

If any man preſents a bill of exchange, and it is not accepted, a third perſon may accept, out of regard to the perſon that drew it; and, after he has made payment, and received the bill transferred, he has a good action againſt the debtor for the money he paid: or he may proteſt, and accept the bill, and then pay and take the bill himſelf, with a proteſt, that he may have a clear demand for his own. This third perſon does, by virtue of the acceptation, ſtand obliged to pay the ſaid bill.

X.

No man muſt pay a bill before it is due: for, if it ſhould happen that the perſon who receives the money before due, breaks in the mean time, the loſs falls upon thoſe who paid the bill before the time.

XI.

Thoſe who have paid the ſum ſpecified in a bill of exchange, may re-call the commiſſion therein contained, upon the account that the perſon who drew the bill re integrâ paid it before the accepter, unleſs it be that he upon whom the bill was drawn was no agent or factor for the drawer, but had a right to the ſaid ſum, and received advice along with the bill to apply the ſaid ſum intirely to his own uſe.

XII.

Bills being drawn payable at Frankfort, Leipſick, Nuremberg, and the like places of yearly fairs, and there accepted, the poſſeſſors of the bills may, without prejudice to themſelves, be allowed to enter a proteſt three days after the people are returned from ſuch fairs to their uſual place of abode; and upon other commiſſions or orders they may proteſt three days after the pay-week; but, if they do not proteſt within, or upon, the expiration of thoſe three days, they thereby loſe their action upon the drawer, and muſt intirely depend upon the accepter.

An edict of the imperial city of FRANKFORT upon the MEINE, relating to EXCHANGE and COMMERCE.

We, the council of the holy imperial city of Frankfort upon the Meine, do hereby make known to all men, and particularly to all inland and foreign traders that carry on commerce and exchange in the fairs that are uſually kept here, and otherwiſe; that, upon the complaints brought before us, we have found that, for ſome time paſt, the bills of exchange negociated in this city, and at theſe fairs, have been managed in a very diſorderly and abuſive manner. Now conſidering that this occaſions no ſmall inconveniencies, and chargeable and tedious law-ſuits; and beſides, it is to be feared, that, if this abuſe is not looked after, it will terminate in ſinking the trade and commerce, to the great detriment of the free and privileged fairs that are to be held here. Upon this conſideration, we conceived, both from our own concern, and from the earneſt requeſt of ſeveral merchants, that we are under an obligation and neceſſity of determining, by a certain edict, or order, how merchants are to act in our fairs, and what meaſures they are to obſerve in the managing their affairs of merchandizing and exchanges.

Accordingly, we do now ordain and require, in this our public edict, what is drawn up in the following articles.

I.

In the firſt place, conſidering that it has but too often happened that ſome foreign merchants, who do not reſort hither perſonally themſelves, but ſend their ſons, factors, or ſervants, to negociate and adjuſt all their concerns, have thereby occaſioned a diſpute upon what was contracted and negociated by the perſons thus commiſſioned: we give thoſe foreign merchants to underſtand, that it behoves them, both at fair-time, and on all other occaſions, to qualify the perſons they ſend with a due commiſſion, or full powers, either general or ſpecial, and confined either to a certain or unlimited time, impowering them to act at liberty both in buying and ſelling, as alſo to accept, take, pay, diſcount, and diſcharge bills of exchange, and to do as they think fit in whatever is needful, purſuant to the nature and act of every ſort of buſineſs; and theſe commiſſions, or full powers, are hereby ordered to be entered in every principal ſuperior court.

II.

And, that thoſe who deal with ſuch agents may have full inſtruction and ſatisfaction in regard to their commiſſion, every perſon thus commiſſioned ſhall be obliged to convey his commiſſion, with a copy of it, to the notary, that is always here appointed, and ſet apart for that office; which done, the notary ſhall immediately compare it with the original itſelf, and carry the ſame to the Protocal. After that, he ſhall return the original, having firſt writ upon it that he brought it out of the Protocal; and the agent again ſhall ſign upon the copy brought from the Protocal, that he had his original returned to him.

III.

The commiſſion, or full power, given without a limitation of time, ſhall continue in force 'till the principal granter revoke it in due form, and notifies his revocation by the notary at the Protocal, appointed for this ſervice: ſo that, if the revocation itſelf is not regiſtered in the Protocal, it ſhall be invalid.

IV.

But if it happen that a principal, having given a commiſſion calculated to a certain time, wants to diſannul the commiſſion before the time is expired, he may do it without prejudice to any man; only the revocation muſt be notified and regiſtered as above, in the Protocal: and what was negociated before the revocation continues in full force.

V.

Further, conſidering that, of late, a cuſtom is crept into partnerſhips, companies, and ſocieties, that the members do not all write their own names, nay, oftentimes none of their own names, but only the name of the founder or treaſurer of their company, who is dead long before; ſo that traders cannot know who and how many belong to ſuch a company, or, in caſe of the death, or the breaking, of any of the members, who to apply to, as being jointly bound for the debt: upon this

consideration it is enacted, That all and every trader, whether inhabitants of this place, or foreigners, that are incorporated into a company, or joint society, shall insert all their several and particular names in any commission, given either to one of their own members, or any other person, for negociating their concerns, without omitting any thing relating to their respective rights: to the end that the notary, set apart for the office, may give into the Protocal not only the commission, or full power, put into his hands, but likewise the names of all the company, or partners, and what relates to their joint settlement; the which he shall be obliged to do.

VI.

If a company has a mind to part, the partners must give timely notice of it to their correspondents, and especially their creditors, as well as the appointed notary; in default of which, all subsequent negociations, upon that foot, shall affect them as much as if the company were subsisting; and the notary shall be obliged to mark the separation, or parting, thus notified, in the margin of the full powers registered in the Protocal.

VII.

In like manner, to prevent the disorderly events that have happened with reference to bills of exchange, all acceptations hereafter shall be signed either by the name of the principal dealers, or by those who are fully commissioned, with the date annexed, both in the time of the fair, and at all other times.

VIII.

In the time of the fair, the acceptation of bills of exchange shall commence upon the Monday in the beginning of the fair, and reach to Tuesday at 9 o'clock in the morning, in the second or third pay-week; after which time no presenter is obliged to wait longer for acceptation; but, if it is performed before 9 o'clock aforesaid, the bill may be protested, or at least noted. In the mean time, the creditor and presenter may protest it before, if he thinks fit; and at the same time, if any one, who declined the acceptation in the first week, is willing to accept it per honor di littera sopra protesto, then the protest shall be put into his hands, for his use, as well as the bill.

IX.

The reason of the refusal to accept must be taken from the recusant, or some of his servants, and inserted into the protest by the appointed notary; or, if, through multiplicity of business, he has not time, by any other notary substituted by him; and, at the same time, a particular copy thereof shall be kept by the said notary. If any one, alarmed by the protest, offers to pay the bill before the protest is sent away, he is obliged to pay the charges, as well as he that pays per honor di littera

X.

Bills regularly accepted in the fair, but not paid at the due time, shall, pursuant to the ancient custom, be marked down, or registered, upon the demand of the creditors, or presenters, by the notary, on Saturday, in the pay-week, presently after the merchants are gone from the common place of meeting, or to fix to a certain time, at any hour from 2 o'clock in the afternoon to sun-set: and the protest raised thereupon must be sent away by the very first, or, at fartheſt, by the second post.

XI.

The transferred and indorsed bills, which commonly appear at the fair, shall, for certain reasons, be no farther prohibited, but pass current.

XII.

In fair-time, the usual protestations of bills drawn at usance, that is, payable 14 days after accepting, shall continue as heretofore; that is, the person may, without prejudice, delay the protestation four days at discretion, after the bill is due, but with this difference, that the day upon which the bill is presented and accepted shall not be reckoned, the following day being the first of the computation, and that Sundays or holy-days falling in shall never be reckoned amongst the days of grace.

XIII.

But this allowance of time is not given to such bills as run upon sight, or at two or three days sight, upon which the accepter has no days of grace, but is obliged, as soon as the bill is accepted and due, to pay the money at fartheſt within 24 hours.

XIV.

As to the value and worth of bills coming either in fair-time or otherwise, from such places as observe the fair-standard of this city, and reckon in rixdollars, the payment shall be in exchange, or bank-money, of 74 cruitzers, and not 90 cruitzers, of current money, unless it be that it is expressly specified so in the bill. But, let it be either exchange or current money, both of them shall be understood of the good large specie.

XV.

Considering that in the course of exchange, notwithstanding it is founded upon plain and honourable commerce, the exception non numeratæ pecuniæ, or the shifting refuge of not having ready money told down, will begin to creep in, it is hereby declared in such dealings, the said exception shall by no means be admitted: so that those who absolutely accept a bill must never plead any such exception, but stand obliged to make prompt payment, with a previous regard to their own right.

XVI.

In like manner, no exceptions of that nature shall take place in any contracts; and the contracts themselves, unless they be concluded with the mutual approbation of the joint contractors, are hereby declared invalid.

XVII.

All assignations must return upon the assignees, unless it be that the assignee does absolutely accept and take upon himself the whole matter.

XVIII.

With reference to the failure and bankrupt cases that happen here, considering that foreign dealers who live out of our country are admitted upon an equal foot with our own inhabitants, and the former receive their ratum, or dividend, as well as the latter, though at the same time our inhabitants are denied the like privilege elsewhere: we therefore enact, jure talionis, that the merchants living in those places that use our inhabitants after that rate, shall be upon the same footing here; and that no foreigner, or out-living trader, shall be allowed to partake of a bankrupt's estate or effects, before he produces a credible testimony from his magistrates and superiors, importing that our dealers are allowed the like privilege in the like cases in the place where he trades and lives.

XIX.

Since the merchant's stile has brought it to a custom, that, in case any one had a demand upon a third person both for his own account, and somewhat due apart for another, though this third person does not make full payment, the demander, whether foreigner, or a home trader, is impowered to hold to his own account whatever is contracted, or paid: we therefore ordain, that, if this account is made before a man breaks, the demander must acquiesce in it.

XX.

In like manner, if any one has received commodities of another, to sell them by way of commission, but upon their account is charged with bills of exchange, and other costs, he is impowered to reimburse himself out of the said goods, and, in case of the goods being seized upon the proprietors breaking, he stands obliged only for the surplus.

To make this our order and edict known unto all men, we have caused it to be printed and published; and it shall begin to be of force the next ensuing Easter in 1667: and all merchants, or others that deal to this place, are hereby ordered to act accordingly, in order to their own safety.

Given at the council-board, Sept. 18, 1666.

The edict having been published in the year 1666, it was followed by another short confirmatory decree of Feb. 8, 1676.

A later edict of the imperial states of Frankfort upon the Meine, relating to exchange and trade, renewing and inforcing their former orders, with additions.

We, the council of the city of Frankfort upon the Meine, do hereby make known to all and every trader, whether foreigner or inhabitant of this place, Christian or Jew, that is any way concerned in exchange and merchandize: that forasmuch as we are, to our high displeasure, informed, that our new order, issued forth in 1666, with regard to commerce and exchange, is not duly observed, whereby great disorders have crept into all payments on bills of exchange, and assignations, of which the traders who reside have given us intelligence, and petition for this our regulation. We, therefore, considering that such disorders may be greatly detrimental, did appoint a deputation, commissioned from our own body, together with some merchants and traders, to inspect narrowly into the circumstances of this affair, and form some resolutions thereupon; the substance of which is as follows:

I.

It is our will and pleasure that our new edict, or order, relating to traffic and exchange, issued forth in the abovementioned year of our Lord 1666, shall be, and is, hereby inforced and renewed, as to all the particulars contained in it: and that hereby full warning and admonition should be given to all persons, to correct, after the time to come, the disorders and abuses committed contrary to the tenour of that order.

II.

In a particular manner we hereby confirm and revive the fourteenth paragraph of the said edict, or order: and injoin all persons, in pursuance of that, to make payment of money in good large specie: but with this allowance, that, from the date hereof to the first day of the month of July next ensuing in this present year, all who have occasion to make payments are warranted to satisfy their creditors in guilders, and other pieces of small money; or, if that be refused, to suffer their bills to be sent back protested. But, as soon as the first day of June is past, no man shall be obliged, against his will, to receive in the payment of bills guilder pieces, or the small half and quarter dollars: if the bill is drawn payable in bank or exchange money, he is not bound to take any other money

but

but the croſs-albertus's, or Dutch dollars, and the three whole and half good rixdollars, or whole and half ducatoons, each ducatoon being reckoned as a rixdollar and a quarter; and thoſe who fail in payments after this manner, are declared liable to the immediate execution of the law. Farther, thoſe who are debtors upon bills, are allowed to pay in as many quarter-dollars, as will make 10 in the 100, but no more.

III.

Nevertheleſs, in the third place, no man ſhall be forced to take any aſſignation, unleſs it be that the aſſignation falls upon the perſon that is willing to pay in ready caſh.

IV.

All contracts made at the end of the fair-time ſhall ſtand as good and valid as thoſe agreed upon in the middle of the fair-time.

V.

Laſtly, when Jews are to pay bills to Chriſtians, they are hereby obliged and bound (as well as the Chriſtians) to bring the money to their houſes without admonition.

All this we injoin with a ſalvo to what alterations, additions, and explications this council may make, as time and occaſion ſhall require.

Given at the council-board, Tueſday February 8, 1676.

The regulations of exchange of the honourable and prudent the ſtates of the city of Augſburgh.

Foraſmuch as the honourable and prudent the ſtates of the imperial city of Augſburgh are informed, upon good grounds, that, for ſome time paſt, no ſmall diſorders are crept into the management of exchange among the merchants that trade here, which give occaſion to apprehend, that, if this grievance be not ſpeedily redreſſed, it will not only grow heavier in proceſs of time, but may prove the ſource of many tedious and coſtly law-ſuits, and other inconveniencies: upon this conſideration the ſaid honourable ſtates (who are always careful and vigilant in promoting the intereſt of their country, by omitting nothing that may advance commerce and fair trade, upon which depend the livelihood and welfare of their traders) the ſaid ſtates find themſelves bound, purſuant to the example of other trading towns, to eſtabliſh an order and ſtanding rule of exchange, and to publiſh the ſame, that no man may pretend ignorance, in hopes that the good citizens and inhabitants will obſerve the contents of it with a dutiful compliance, as they mean to avoid the penalties that ariſe upon their doing otherwiſe.

In the firſt place, as to what relates to the accepting of bills of exchange, if the perſon upon whom a bill is drawn is unwilling to accept, either he, or one freely commiſſioned by him, muſt ſign it, and add the date of the acceptation. Both parties may chuſe to preſent, or accept, the bill, either the very day upon which it comes to hand, or the next day after (abating for the Venetian bills, upon which there follows a peculiar order in the fourth paragraph of this our edict.) But the perſon upon whom the bill is drawn muſt diſcover his mind as to the accepting in ſuch a convenient time, that, in caſe he declines to accept, he who has the bill may enter and forward his proteſt to the reſpective place, by the firſt poſt.

In the next place, conſidering that the poſts and comers to and from this place are ſettled upon ſuch a foot, that the letters from one place to another, coming in for the moſt part (eſpecially in harveſt and winter) in the afternoon, and towards the evening, muſt be diſpatched againſt the next day, 4 or 5 o'clock being the laſt hour for the giving in of letters, which confines men to a narrow compaſs of time, inſomuch that it may eaſily happen, eſpecially if the writing or poſt-day chances to be a holy-day, that they cannot negociate the acceptation in the preceding date: we therefore determine, that all acceptations demanded, or given, on ſuch holy-days, ſhall be valid (excepting ſtill the Sundays, which there is no neceſſity of including) but, at the ſame time, all perſons ſhall hereby be obliged to the Chriſtian demeanour, of not making uſe of this diſpenſation without an abſolute neceſſity, it being required of them to procure the accepting on the foregoing working days, if it is poſſible. In like manner the public notaries are hereby warranted to enter and mark down the proteſtations on ſuch holy-days, and, if occaſion is, to return them; all which cannot be done, if the proteſt cannot be ſent back in leſs than eight days, which may prove detrimental to thoſe who remit, and are under a neceſſity of making uſe of the inſtrument of proteſtation.

In the third place, the honourable ſtates do all along ſtand by their decree, publiſhed on July 16 and 24, in the year 1624, by the tenour of which, the common and ſingle uſance is ſettled to 15 days, and conſequently, the double uſance to 30, an uſance and a half to 23, and a half uſance to eight days; and, after the expiring of theſe, commencing from the acceptation, the next day is the day of payment, upon which computation all holy-days, beſides Sundays, are not reckoned for termini in terminis. The ſame method ſhall hold and continue as to the five days of grace incluſive, after the uſance is out, which time the merchants may wait without prejudice or danger, provided ſtill that Sundays and all holy-days, in which no council can be held, ſhall not be reckoned in that number.

In the fourth place, in regard it is enacted in the ſaid decree, with reference to Venetian bills, that no perſon ſhall be obliged to accept them but upon Fridays; the conſequence of which is, that the laſt day of uſance elapſes on a Saturday, and the pay-day happens to be the next Sunday, ſo that the money cannot be demanded 'till the Monday following: and conſidering that this, upon the account of the letters from Venice their coming in moſtly all the year round on a Thurſday before noon, may prove dilatory, and no ſmall detriment to thoſe who receive the Venetian bills: upon theſe conſiderations, the tenor of the ſaid decree ſhall ſtand firm, which provides that the accepting of Venetian bills ſhall be upon Friday; but withal, that the bills from Venice, or elſewhere, to this place, and falling due upon a Sunday, may be demanded on the foregoing Saturday: ſo that ſuch payments made on a Saturday are warrantable and legal. And the like ſhall be obſerved as to the days of grace, as much as if they had become due on a Saturday.

The ſame rule holds as to all other bills of exchange, purſuant to the ancient uſe and cuſtom.

Fifthly, With reference to ſuch bills of exchange as are drawn payable à lettera viſta, or upon ſight, which are preſented out of hand and accepted; we impoſe no neceſſity upon traders to pay them preſently, provided they do it within 24 hours; after which a proteſt is warrantable. In like manner, no days of grace ſhall be allowed upon ſuch bills as are payable in a very ſhort time, ſuch as two or three days; theſe bills being hereby put upon the ſame foot with the foregoing bills upon ſight. But all other bills, of what number of days ſoever, upon half, whole, or more uſance; and likewiſe in the Frankfort Ritorni ultimo Junii, ultimo Novembris, or whatever bills made payable upon a certain expreſſed day, ſhall, without diſtinction, be allowed the five days of grace; to this end only, that the creditor, or poſſeſſor of the bills, may wait ſo long without prejudice to himſelf to ſatisfy the debtor, if he can't receive the money upon the firſt demand, purſuant to the decree mentioned above. Not that the allowance of theſe days of grace ſhall encourage men to gratify their humour or occaſions, in retarding the payment ſo far behind the due time. On the contrary, they are required to make good payment upon the day that the bills become due, according to the cuſtom hitherto obſerved; ſo that no delays ſhall be officiouſly claimed, upon the pretence of days of grace.

Sixthly, In caſe bills drawn payable upon a certain day, do not arrive here 'till not only the preſcribed time itſelf, but likewiſe ſome part of the acceſſary days of grace is expired; the ſaid five days of grace ſhall be computed, as beginning not from the preſenting and accepting of the bill, but from the day of payment fixed in the bill: ſo that the debtor can only make uſe of the remainder of that complement. If both the time preſcribed, and the full number of the days of grace, are all paſt before the preſcribing the bill, the payment ſhall accrue within 24 hours after accepting, as well as bills upon ſight.

Seventhly, All bills of exchange drawn payable on a certain day, at one, or more uſances, or a ſhorter term, muſt be paid by the accepter, whenever the uſance and the five days of grace are expired, whether the value be received by the drawer or not; for 'tis a ſtanding rule, chi accetta pagi. In like manner, let this be an univerſal rule as to the payment of bills, that as payments made upon the day that the bill becomes due, or any day after, are good; ſo, on the contrary, payments, made before the accruing day, are faulty; for, if they prove any way prejudicial to one or the other third perſon, they will be held as null and invalid.

Eighthly, As ſoon as a bill of exchange returns proteſted for non-payment, he who drew the bill, ſtands obliged immediately to repay his creditor the ſum ſpecified in the bill, beſides his charges, and the exchange Laggio; or to give him good ſecurity, or ſome other reaſonable ſatisfaction, upon the very day that the advice comes, and both the drawer of the bill and the accepter are bound jointly and ſeverally, as creditors, to the poſſeſſor, 'till the bill is ſatisfied; the poſſeſſor having a full power to demand payment of either.

Ninthly, To give credit to a proteſted bill lies chiefly at the door of thoſe who are to receive the money; and, if they will not credit it themſelves, they ſhould endeavour to try about; and, if they meet with any one that accepts this proteſted bill, he, having accepted, ſtands obliged to pay it. But if, after this, the perſon upon whom the bill was drawn, deſires and offers to accept and pay the bill, then he who gave the bill this credit before, is not obliged to ſtand, unleſs ſo inclined.

Tenthly, That if any inhabitant of this place accepts a bill to pay at ſome other place, as Nuremberg, Ulm, St Gall, &c. and in like manner, if any one receives remittances and bills of exchange, upon debtors living elſewhere, the content of which bills is to be advanced here; in both theſe caſes, the acceptation muſt be procured by letters and bills of exchange, tranſmitted from one to another, which require ſome time. The time of payment, in ſuch caſes, ſhall accrue after the ſame rate, as if the acceptation had been made at the place where the money is to be paid. But, in caſe any inhabitant

of this place ſtands bound to pay, here at Augſburgh, a bill of exchange to another perſon that lives elſewhere; and is deſired by him to tranſmit him neat money for it; he is not obliged to comply with his deſire, without diſcounting the proviſion money. After that, the poſſeſſor of the bill may ſend any body who takes the payment on himſelf, according to the uſual manner, in the market-place of this city; or, if he is willing to diſpenſe with it, he may freely do it.

In the eleventh place, with reference to the manifold indorſements of bills of exchange; ſince they are ſo much in uſe here as well as in other places, that it will not eaſily bear a limitation, and far leſs a total reſtraint; we ſuffer them ſtill to paſs, but with this reſerve, that the indorſement in banco is hereby declared altogether null; and he who gives ſuch bills, ſhall be obliged to fill up the indorſements, making mention of the ſums.

Twelfthly, In regard that by the diſpatching of Diſpacii, not only in the Botzner fairs (where transferred bills are not allowed) but in other places, to ſave the proviſion charge, a cuſtom is introduced, that the debtor does not give his own bill, but one of a ſecond, third, or fourth perſon, with whom the creditor never had any dealings: we ſuffer this cuſtom to take place towards the facilitating of buſineſs, but with this proviſo, that the debtor ſhall, upon ſending ſuch a bill, write to his creditor a ſeparate acknowledgment, that he ſtands for ever obliged to ſee the bill paid.

Conſidering likewiſe, in the thirteenth place, that, for ſome time paſt, great and many inconveniencies have aroſe, from the too late diſpatching bills per le fieri; and that there is a neceſſity of removing ſuch inconveniencies: we therefore enact, that the debtor ſhall ſtand obliged, under the penalty of four guilders to the poor, to pay the bill to his creditor, at fartheſt, at the noon of that day, upon which the primi ſpacii muſt be diſpatched. Beſides, thoſe who have received money per le fieri, ſtand obliged to give a writ of acknowledgment to their creditors, if they but deſire it.

Laſtly, It being ſufficiently known, what inconveniencies and differences have ariſen from the aſſignation payments, 'tis full time to remedy them; to which end, nothing is more proper, than that all written aſſignations and transferrings ſhould be altogether taken away, and reſcontro upon the ſpot placed in their room, after the following manner. He who is to pay the money, is to appear at the exchange, on exchange-days (for which from eleven to twelve before noon, on Saturday, Monday, and Tueſday, is the preciſe time allotted) and there endeavour to adjuſt the reſcontro, and to ſatisfy his creditors. But, if upon Tueſday exchange, he cannot come to an end with his creditor, who demands prompt payment in caſh, he ſtands obliged, without further delay, to pay him in ready money.

Some obſervations, neceſſary for thoſe who have bills to receive at Amſterdam, the capital city of the province of Holland.

1. That all bills of exchange, upon any one reſident in that town, are payable in bank [ſee the BANK of Amſterdam, deſcribed under the province of HOLLAND] except it is otherwiſe ordained in expreſs terms in the bill.

2. All bills of exchange at Amſterdam muſt be paid within ſix days after they are due at the lateſt (that being the number of the days of grace in Holland) except thoſe that are payable in bank, when the bank is ſhut up at the time they ſhould be paid; in which caſe they muſt be paid, by writing off the value in bank, within three days after it is open; and, if it be not done in that time, they muſt forthwith be proteſted.

3. When a bill becomes due, the bearer thereof generally carries it to the perſon who is to pay it, having firſt written the following order upon the back of it:

Write the contents of the other ſide upon my account in bank, at Amſterdam, the of 176
M. P.

And the bill being left with the debtor, he accordingly writes off the value next day in bank.

4. Or, if the bearer of the bill be not inclinable to deliver it to the debtor, 'till the value be actually writ off in bank, after ſhewing him the bill, and telling him that he will find it in the bank, he muſt carry it thither, and, paying ſix ſtivers to the book-keepers, deſire them not to deliver it to the debtor, 'till the value be written off in the books; and afterwards, returning when he thinks the value is written off, and finding it done, he muſt order them to deliver the bill to the perſon who has wrote off the value, and who ought to go and call for it. But, if the value be not written off in due time, the bearer muſt demand the bill, and cauſe it to be proteſted for non-payment.

5. But, if the bearer of the bill has no account in bank, and is not deſirous to have any, he may propoſe to the debtor to pay the bill in current money, agreeing for the price of the agio; [See AGIO] and, having received his money, give a receipt upon the back of the bill, mentioning that he has received the value in current money, agio at ſo much per cent.

6. But, if the bearer of the bill can't agree with the debtor for the agio, he may negociate it with a caſh-keeper, or any body elſe: becauſe, if the indorſement was ſimply for value received, it would not be valid; no ſuch bill being reputed paid, without a ſpecial indorſement, except it be written in bank.

Write for me the contents of the other ſide to A. B. in bank, value of him, at Amſterdam, the of 176
F. N.

Theſe indorſements upon the bills may be made in French, Engliſh, or any other language underſtood by the accepter of a bill: but orders in bank muſt be written in the language of the country. And therefore I have thought it proper to inſert a model of theſe orders in their own language.

Fol. 976.
De heeren commiſſariſſen van de banck, geleiven te betalen aen B. G. de ſomma van tweè duyſent vier hondert ſeven en t'achtentig guldens tein ſtyvers, actum in Amſterdam den, &c.
Flo. 2487: 10.

When a merchant is deſirous to negotiate bank-money for current, he may do it before the town-houſe, between 10 and 11 in the morning: where the caſh-keepers generally meet, who will give either bank or current money to ſuch as want it. And ſometimes ſuch negociations are tranſacted upon the exchange by the interpoſition of brokers, who get 1 per 1000 for their trouble, equally payable by both parties.

The ſalaries of the officers of the bank are paid by the city, and all the fines and other monies paid for transferring of ſums, and other things of that nature, are laid out in charitable uſes.

When any man's account in bank is filled up, and a new one muſt be begun, the party, having notice thereof, muſt repair to the bank to compare accounts in the ſame manner as when the balance is made.

When any body that has money in the bank takes it out, if the agio be under 5 per cent. the treaſurers pay them the difference, they having received it at that rate.

When any difference happens between merchants concerning any ſum in bank, 'tis determined by two or three commiſſioners, choſen among the magiſtrates, who decide all ſuch matters ſummarily.

At the death of any perſon, who has money in the bank, their heirs and ſucceſſors muſt prove their titles by authentic deeds, before the book-keepers transfer the ſums to their accounts.

Moſt bills of exchange are negociated at Amſterdam, as at other trading cities in Europe, by agents or brokers (ſee the articles AGENTS and BROKERS) who enter in their book a memorandum of ſuch negotiations concluded by them, in order to determine any difference between merchants on theſe occaſions, and alſo to adjuſt their brokerage.

Thoſe brokers for exchange and merchandize, at Amſterdam, are in number 375 Chriſtians, and 20 Jews. They are admitted into theſe offices by the magiſtrates, before whom they take an oath to perform their functions faithfully, according to the regulations appointed for them.

Beſides theſe ſworn brokers, 'tis believed there is twice that number of other little intermeddlers at Amſterdam; in January 1613, and November 1624, they were allowed to take, for negotiating bills of exchange, 3 ſtivers per 100 florins; and, in exchanging bank and current money, 1 per 1000.

And, as to uſance of Amſterdam, it is to be obſerved, that it is not, as in ſome other places, either preciſely 30 days, or 31, or 28, or 29, according to the number of the days of the month; for there, a bill drawn at uſance, ſuppoſe the 10th, 20th, 25th, or any other day, falls due the ſame day of the enſuing month, without any regard to the number of days in the month, in which it was drawn.

So that a bill, drawn (for example) the 20th of February, becomes due the 20th of March, though February has but 28 days, except when it is leap year: and, on the other hand, a bill, drawn the 20th of January, does not become due 'till the 20th of February, though January has 31 days. See the article USANCE.

For more matter relating to the negotiating of bills of exchange in Holland, ſee the article AMSTERDAM, under the province of HOLLAND.

His Electoral Highneſs of Saxony's moſt gracious decree, for regulating the payment of bills of exchange, and the time of their being due: as well as the method of dealing, by way of commiſſion or factory, in the city of Leipſic.

TRUSTY and well beloved: We have heard your humble information and your dutiful petition, ſetting forth what the merchants of our city of Leipſic have propoſed, for the ſecurity and improvement of their commerce; and their earneſt deſire to have it brought into the next diet, and paſſed into an Imperial edict. It being our inclination propitiouſly to promote whatever may tend to the advantage of commerce in this country; and we have withal remarked, that the particulars given in by our merchants,

will

will ſcarce be allowed of in all the trading towns of the holy Roman empire, or paſs for a general rule in the Imperial decree: upon theſe conſiderations, we have reſolved, as being princes of this country, and by virtue of the power we are here inveſted with, as well as out of regard to a dutiful petition of our city of Leipſic, ſince preſented to us, to make a particular act and order, upon the caſe above-mentioned.

In the firſt place: As for bills of exchange, and what relates to them, we continue them upon the ſame foot, as in our declaration iſſued forth, July 21, 1660, from the expreſs terms of which, 'tis evident, that bills drawn upon ſight, are firm and obligatory upon the drawer or accepter, let him be whom he will; and that not only bills upon ſight, but even thoſe payable after ſome time, are of the ſame firm obligation: and that the penalties are fully as ſevere upon thoſe who drive no trade, whether gentlemen or ordinary perſons, learned or unlearned, employed in publick offices of diſtinction or unemployed, as they are againſt the merchants themſelves.

In the ſecond place, in regard the merchants have hitherto complained, that the Nuremberghers obſerve no certain time in returning home, and yet this time of this their uncertain return is the period upon which both the payment and proteſting the bills does depend:

We therefore ordain and conſtitute, that, from this day forward, Thurſday in the pay-week ſhall be the term; or if, in the new year's fair, the fair begins on Sunday, the fifth day of the pay-week (reckoning, from the day upon which the fair is prohibited upon the expiration of the firſt week) and the proteſt of bills ſhall paſs 'till ten o'clock at night, but none ſhall be received after that hour.

In the third place, with reference to goods put into the hands of another upon commiſſion, the ſame cuſtom as is obſerved in other trading towns ſhall take place in our town of Leipſic: ſo that whoever has goods upon commiſſion to ſell for another, and upon theſe is charged with bills, he has a power to refund his charges out of the goods in his hands. And, if in caſe of bankruptcy or otherwiſe, ſuch goods be attached or arreſted, he is only obliged to account for the ſurpluſage.

This we require you to make publick, in the uſual form, to all traders, and, as much as in you lies, to ſee it inviolably obſerved: in the doing of which, you will perform what is our will and pleaſure.

Given at Dreſden, Sept. 4, 1669.

JOHN GEORGE, ELECTOR.

To our truſty and well-beloved the council of Leipſic.

The regulations and ordonnances of exchange, eſtabliſhed at Bologna in Italy.

I.

The place ſhall be free to all perſons, both foreigners and natives, and as well to thoſe that do not, as to thoſe that do, merchandize; ſo that every perſon, of what condition ſoever, may give or receive money in exchange, provided that the exchange be real: meaning by real exchange, when the money is actually paid in Bologna, that it may be re-paid in another place, according to the contents of the bill of exchange, and that alſo the bill be actually ſent to the place and perſon upon whom it is drawn, and there be either paid or refuſed.

II.

It ſhall be in every one's power, though no merchant, to put his money in merchants hands, and receive real bills of exchange for it; that thereby he may have credit in other places, as its uſual elſewhere in Italy, and out of it; and alſo it ſhall be lawful for any perſon to give money upon bills of exchange, and to return ſuch bills to the drawer, if the buyer does not receive the money he paid upon them.

III.

If foreigners ſend foreign pieces of money for exchange, or otherwiſe, ſuch money ſhall remain free and unmoleſted for the uſe of thoſe who ſent it; even though they be excommunicated by the order of the holy church, or be guilty of hereſy, or treaſon, or though they ſhould be indebted to the treaſury, ſuch money ſhall be left free and unmoleſted, for the uſe of the ſaid foreigners, and the ſame ſhall be underſtood of money ſent from other countries by bills of exchange, to perſons of that character here *.

* This ſeems to be no mean ſtroke of policy in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, in order to render it a kind of aſylum for delinquents of all nations; and to convince the world, that even the worſt of crimes ſhall be no reſtraint to the drawing money and people into theſe all-ſanctified territories.

IV.

All differences and diſputes happening in this city, concerning bills of exchange, between any perſons whatſoever, ſhall be decided and determined by the conſuls and merchants judges, to whom alone it ſhall belong to take cognizance of ſuch ſuits and differences; nor ſhall it be in the power of any other judge, or judicature, or magiſtrate whatſoever, to take notice of, or judge, or any other way, to hinder their judgment, or to meddle or concern themſelves in it, directly or indirectly, in any manner whatſoever. And 'tis likewiſe declared, that the deciding of all ſuch controverſies ſhall belong to ſaid judicature, not only in the firſt trial, but alſo in caſe of an appeal, according to the conſtitution and form of the ſaid judicature. And, if any one ſhould appeal to the pope himſelf, the right of judgment ſhall then devolve upon the judge of appeals, and the merchant judges, and conſuls, as it is ſpecially ordained by his holineſs in ſuch a caſe; and the appealer ſhall be obliged to proſecute his ſuit before them within a certain limited time, according to the ſtatutes of the ſaid judicature; or otherwiſe the appeal to be void and of no effect, and the ſentence given to be put in execution by the merchant judges and conſuls, as if there had been no appeal.

V.

The merchants may meet in the place where the ſaid judicature ſits, or any other place which ſhall be thought convenient for them, whither they ſhall repair, and remain there an hour in the forenoon, and an hour in the afternoon, three days a week, viz. Mondays, Wedneſdays, and Fridays, theſe not being holidays; and if they be, that meeting ſhall be kept the day preceding, and there ſhall be no buſineſs done among merchants on holidays.

VI.

The exchanges muſt be made in gold crowns of good coin, for all places; and all accounts and writings between merchants and dealers, foreigners or inhabitants, ſhall be made in that ſpecie.

VII.

The uſance for paying bills of exchange ſhall be as follows, viz.

To Rome and Genoa, ten days ſight.

To Milan, Venice, Florence, Piſa, Lucca, and other places of Tuſcany, eight days ſight.

To Naples, fifteen days ſight.

To Palermo, Meſſina, Bari, and other places of Sicily, one month.

To Lyons, Beſançon, and Spain, according to the yearly markets.

To Paris, Antwerp, and all the Netherlands, two months.

To London and the Levant, three months.

VIII.

There ſhall be paid, to the brokers who conclude the ſaid exchange contracts, a golden ſtyver for every hundred crowns, by each party; and theſe brokers ſhall be approved and allowed by the judicature of merchants, and be obliged to make obſervations, and do every other thing, which ſhall be required of them, according to the diſpoſition of the ſtatutes of the ſaid judicature; and they ſhall keep a book, after the manner of a journal, wherein they ſhall write from day to day, with their own hands, what exchange contracts they conclude, ſetting down both parties, viz. the drawer and the buyer of the bill, as well as the ſums drawn, and the prices of the exchange, and for what places: in doing of which, if any fail, in the whole or in part, they ſhall be diſcharged from their offices, and deprived of all their fees.

IX.

In caſe any bills of exchange drawn at Bologna return proteſted, the buyer of any ſuch bills to whom it ſhall be returned, immediately appearing before the judges and conſuls, if they be ſitting at that hour, and otherwiſe before one of the notaries of the ſaid judicature; and, theſe demanding execution againſt the drawer of the ſaid bill, the ſaid judges or conſuls, or (they not ſitting) the ſaid notary without any other intimation, or acting of the drawer, ſhall preſently grant the ſaid execution, by virtue whereof, the creditor may with a ſerjeant ſeize the goods of a debtor for the ſum contained in the bill, with the intereſt, charges, and damages, according as the judge ſhall think fit.

And, in caſe any hinderance or delay ſhall happen to the ſaid execution, the ſaid ſerjeant ſhall preſently give notice thereof to the ſaid notary, who ſhall then be obliged to give a perſonal order to the creditor againſt the debtor, who, in caſe of any execution upon his goods, may appear before the ſaid judges and conſuls, and complain, if he thinks himſelf oppreſſed, or has any exception to make againſt the bill. But he ſhall not in any manner be admitted to an audience, 'till he has ſecured the creditors, although the time of payment be not come. And in caſe a bill be returned proteſted, and he that drew the bill be dead, the buyer may proceed againſt the goods of his heir, in the ſame manner as he might do againſt his, if he were living, though the time limited by the law for proſecuting an heir, or making an inventory of his goods, be not expired, as though the heir be a minor, who has not yet got tutors, and notwithſtanding any other reaſon whatſoever. And in caſe the time appointed by the law for the heirs to take full poſſeſſion of the goods of the deceaſed, and for making a lawful inventory, be expired before the creditor appear to demand the ſaid execution, then the ſaid creditor may lawfully draw bills of exchange for the ſaid money, charges, &c. upon the ſaid heirs, 'till he be

fully paid. And the goods of all ſorts of people, of what condition ſoever, even though they be magiſtrates, to whom a proteſt, or a non-accepted bill, ſhall be returned, may and ſhall, at the requeſt of the creditor, be ſeized for the paying or ſecuring of the payment of the creditor's money, before the ſaid judge, conſul, or notary, as is ſaid before, notwithſtanding all laws, cuſtoms, ſtatutes, and privileges, to the contrary.

X.

And becauſe it ſometimes happens, that ſome who lay out money upon exchange, do it with a ſurety, who ſubſcribes the ſecond or third bill, as it is cuſtomary in many places; it is hereby declared, that, if the firſt bill be refuſed and returned proteſted, the creditor may as well demand his money of the ſubſcribers of the ſecond or third bill, as of the principal who hath drawn it, as he ſhall think fit; and the forementioned execution to be awarded againſt the principal, may alſo be awarded againſt the ſurety, any law or cuſtom formerly in uſe, to the contrary, notwithſtanding.

XI.

No preſcription ſhall be of force, nor no other exception be admitted againſt true and real bills of exchange; and all trials of that nature ſhall be ſpeedily decided, without any artificial delay, hindrance, or interruption of the proceſs.

XII.

Bills of exchange being drawn upon Bologna, and refuſed to be accepted, the bearer thereof may cauſe a proteſt to be made for all charges, damages, and intereſts, againſt the perſon or perſons refuſing to accept them; and in caſe ſuch perſon or perſons be abſent, and no opportunity can be found to make a perſonal proteſt, it may be made by a notary, at the houſe of the party or parties who ſhould accept it; and the time of payment being come, and payment made, the proteſt may be delivered to the payer.

XIII.

No acceptation of bills drawn upon Bologna ſhall be valid, except they be accepted by him who is to pay the money, and not by an agent, friend, or book-keeper, except ſuch perſons have a ſufficient procuration: in which caſe, all traders ſhall be obliged to give notice to the ſuperintendant of the court-merchant, of all perſons that are ſo appointed, to ſatisfy their bills, and for the time they are to continue in that ſtation, which the ſaid ſuperintendant muſt enter in a record kept for that purpoſe.

XIV.

Bills upon other men being thus accepted, by perſons qualified as above, the ſaid perſon ſhall be obliged to pay the money in due time, and the bearers of ſuch bills ſhall be no ways prejudiced by ſuch acceptations, ſo that they may not act againſt all ſuch perſons as are in any manner bound in the ſaid exchange, but ſhall be allowed to proceed againſt any one concerned in the ſaid bill, as they think fit, and that as well for the principal ſum, as for the charges, damages, and intereſt.

XV.

If it happen, that after the accepting of any bill the accepter breaks, and by that means the bill remains unpaid, the bearer thereof duly entering his proteſt, the drawer ſhall be obliged to refund to him the principal, as well as the intereſt, damages, and charges.

XVI.

No attorney ſhall be allowed to appear in the court-merchant, except only in caſes in which it is ordained by the ſtatutes of the ſaid judicature of merchants, in the article concerning bills of exchange, and with the conditions and reſtrictions contained in the ſaid article, concerning the ſaid attornies, and no otherwiſe.

XVII.

And in caſe there ſhould happen any differences concerning the ſaid bill of exchange, not mentioned in theſe articles, they muſt be determined by the judge and conſuls of the ſaid judicature, or by the greateſt number of them. But, in all the caſes above-ſaid, they muſt act, proceed, give ſentence, and execute, according to the contents of theſe articles, and not according to the inſtitutions of the ſaid judicature concerning exchanges, as far as they are contrary to, or differ from, theſe articles; but otherwiſe the ſaid inſtitution to remain in their full force and virtue, as well concerning bills of exchange, as concerning common writings, and all other things whatſoever, treating of the power or juriſdiction of the judges, conſuls, &c. any former law, uſe, practice, or cuſtom to the contrary, notwithſtanding.

Remarks.

In the firſt part of this article of Bills of exchange, I have given a ſeries of ſelect authenticated caſes relating thereunto, which have been adjudged in our courts of law in England; and which, being maturely conſidered, will enable a thinking man to make a good judgment upon any other occurrences that relate to this important topic. For not only ſimilar, but diſſimilar caſes are determined by the due application of thoſe general maxims of reaſon and law, whereupon theſe prior adjudged caſes have been grounded.

Sometimes, indeed, it has fell out, that what has been law in the opinion of ſome judges, is not ſo in that of their ſucceſſors; but this I am inclined to think, has been but in very few caſes; and that in ſuch which have been very delicate and complicated, and wherein they have not been exactly parallel, and tallied in all circumſtances: and, where this happens, there is the ſame reaſon why our judges ſhould differ from one another, and even from themſelves, as that they ſhould accord, when it happens otherwiſe.

It is this difference in the circumſtances of caſes, which has rendered the reports of law ſo voluminous; but this is unavoidable, as neceſſarily ariſing from that infinite variety of tranſactions among mankind. But it is certainly more to the ſecurity of property to have all pre-determined caſes authentically reported, for the guidance of ſucceeding courts of judicature, than not; and not to leave them unreſtrained, and to act arbitrarily, without any regard to thoſe reaſons and principles of law of their predeceſſors, which have ſtood the teſt of ages. It is more to the benefit of ſociety to bear with voluminous laws, and even thoſe which may ſometimes claſh, than to be governed only by the uncontroulable will of judges, who have not always proved incorruptible.

Moreover, although ſome have been wont to think, that our law, being ſo voluminous, occaſions it to be more expenſive, yet I apprehend this to be a vulgar error; for, where caſes are ſo faithfully and equitably reported, as in England, a man of ſenſe, though not bred to the law, who attentively and impartially conſults thoſe reports, may himſelf form a good judgment in moſt caſes, whether he is in the wrong or the right in going to law: which ſhews, that the more law caſes there are properly repreſented, or, if you pleaſe, the more voluminous the law is in this reſpect, the leſs tedious, the leſs expenſive, and what is ſtill more deſirable, it is rendered the leſs precarious, and the leſs dependent on arbitrary will. The ſtatute-law of England, it is true, is voluminous, and perhaps uſeleſsly ſo, and often inconſiſtent with the common law: but, as our judges are the proper conſtructers of theſe ſtatutes, it is obſervable, that where any doubt ariſes, with regard to the ſenſe of a ſtatute, they judge of it by the tenor of the common law: and, in matters of law, it is more for the advantage of the ſubject, that Weſtminſter-hall ſhould, in this reſpect, controul St Stephen's chapel, than the latter the former; for, otherwiſe, the ſtatutes which do not always quadrate with the ſenſe and ſpirit of the law, would ſubvert a great part of it, and render all reported caſes uſeleſs to poſterity; and every new judge might have it in his power to make new laws, whereby we ſhould have no laws certain at all.

In regard to Scotland, likewiſe, I have given ſome curious caſes relating to bills of exchange, which will ſerve as a guide in many other reſpects; for, in order to enter into the reaſon of theſe adjudications, they are ſupported by the authority of thoſe, who are allowed to have wrote the beſt on the ſubject, according to the eſtabliſhed cuſtoms of the principal trading nations in Europe.

The regulations and edicts of France, Holland, the great cities of Hamburgh, Francfort, Leipſic, Augſburgh, and Bologna, muſt convey an idea of the care which they have judged neceſſary, in order duly to apprize traders of the laws and cuſtoms they are obliged to regard, in theſe kind of negotiations. But, beſides the laws and uſages which are peculiar to particular nations and great trading cities, in regard to matters of this nature, there are fundamental principles and maxims of reaſon, whereupon thoſe peculiar laws and cuſtoms ought to be grounded; and theſe cannot be too well underſtood both by traders and lawyers: and thoſe ſhort circular letters, or orders, given by bankers and trading people to furniſh to others certain ſums of money, are of ſuch uſe and advantage to trade, that it cannot be carried on without them; ſeeing in many nations the exporting of money is prohibited under ſevere penalties; in others no money is current but their own, and all foreign coin reputed bullion: ſo that bills ſeem to be the only expedient left to merchants for drawing their effects out of foreign countries, from perſons indebted to them, upon the yearly ballance of trade; and no one would ſend their merchandize to a place from whence, when they are ſold, he has no means to bring home the value, or cannot do it without an extraordinary riſque.

Many great men, both lawyers and divines, have wrote upon this ſubject; but what the ancients wrote, when the exchange was but in it's infancy, imperfect, and leſs known, does not ſuit with the modern conſtitution of it, as now refined and improved. And later authors, what with their uſeleſs niceties and unintelligible different notions about the nature and lawfulneſs of it; and their fanciful diviſions and ſubdiviſions; inſtead of clearing up the matter, they have only perplexed and confounded it.

Among the Italians that have wrote upon exchange, Sigiſmund Scaccia, and Raphael de Turri, are the chief: whom Jo. Gaitus, J. Marquhardus, Fra. Stypmannus, Car. Ant. de Luca, Joſeph Giballinus, Van Lewen, and others of ſeveral nations, have but copied after. The works of theſe leading authors abound with learned ſubtilty, and whimſical ſcholaſtic queſtions, but are ſhamefully defective in material things, founded on the plain nature of commerce. Many of the de-

ciſions of the Rotæ of Genoa are upon points of little import to us. The deciſions of Portugal, collected by Anton. di Ganim; thoſe of the ſupreme courts of Holland and Flanders, compiled by Neoſtadius and Chriſtineus; and the Reſponſa juriſconſultorum Hollandiæ, touch upon bills of exchange but ſeldom, and with relation only to particular caſes. In the whole Journal du Palais, which is a collection in nine volumes of the deciſions of all the parliament and ſovereign judicatures in France, for many years, there are not above three or four deciſions relating to bills of exchange: the reaſon whereof is, becauſe, in all the trading towns of France, eſtabliſhed courts-merchants take cognizance of differences between perſons of that profeſſion, in a ſummary manner, except where the intervening of ſome nice points of law render merchants incompetent judges, which are carried before the parliament. Such courts for determining differences ariſing upon matters of commerce are alſo erected in moſt other trading nations in Europe, though there is no ſuch judicature as yet in Britain.

This matter was but of late well underſtood by lawyers: for, in deciding controverſies of this nature, the advice of merchants was frequently taken and followed; and even few of thoſe have a right notion of it. The French lawyers never much applied themſelves to treat of it. M. Mareſhal, 1625, publiſhed Un traité de Change & Rechange, & Banqueroutes, crammed with citations of laws and doctors; but he runs over bills ſo ſuperficially and diſorderly, that it is more than likely he was but little acquainted with the ſubject. Clerac, 1695, printed another Traité de Change, to as little purpoſe. Sieur Jacques Savary, though he excels the other two in his Parfait Negociant, handles the argument ſo meanly, that it is plain he never went to the root of it. L'Art des lettres de Change, par Monſieur Jacques du Puy, illuſtrates the nature of an exchange contract, and contains ſome principles for deciding queſtions of this kind: but, as that author hath ſome good things, ſo he is chargeable with many material defects, and is far from anſwering the title of his works. The French edict of commerce, 1673, regulates and decides only the more ordinary caſes. Sam. Ricard's Traité general du commerce, has many uſeful practical things; yet theſe are only touched as a merchant, but does not caſe the matter, or dip into the point of law. Marius's Advice concerning Bills of Exchange, and Malines, are as flat and heavy as they are injudicious. Scarlet's Stile of Exchanges is but an undigeſted collection of incoherent rules and aphoriſms, and blended with inconſiſtencies. Wyſſel Styl tot Amſterdam, or the courſe of exchange at Amſterdam, which, though it contains ſeveral things touching the particular cuſtoms in Holland, is but a rhapſody of tautologies and ſuperfluous matter. Molloy's de Jure Maritimo & Navali has but one chapter on bills of exchange, wherein there are not many caſes, nor are thoſe given ſo fully as to be ſatisfactorily underſtood; and, indeed, caſes without the eſſential circumſtances, and pleadings, are of little avail.

It was neceſſary, therefore, we apprehend, for the uſe of the traders of this nation in particular, to collect a number of ſelect caſes, with all their pleadings, by means of which, as before obſerved, a very good judgment may be made of many others, which may not quadrate in all their circumſtances.

The laws of exchange are univerſal, as well as particular. The former are thoſe eſtabliſhed by the common conſent of all nations, called The cuſtoms of merchants, which are everywhere in force. The latter are the peculiar laws of exchange, that obtain in ſeveral countries, by ſtatute or cuſtom. But though there are ſome ſpecial differences of formality, as we have ſeen, in the management of it in different places, yet the common law of exchange is much the ſame every-where, all nations having concurred, as much as poſſible, to encourage this advantageous commerce, and to free it of all incumbrances which might interrupt it's progreſs: ſo that there does not ſeem to be great reaſon for the diſtinction frequently made between the cuſtom of merchants and the analogy of our law, as if theſe often claſhed and interfered; ſince nothing merits the denomination of a merchant-cuſtom but what univerſally obtains, & apud omnes per æque obſervatur, abſtracted from the civil and municipal cuſtoms of particular places, which are too often unjuſtly obtruded for the cuſtom of merchants.

The laws of exchange are not ſo exactly obſerved in Spain as in England, France, and Holland. In England the law pays due regard to the cuſtom of merchants. Inland bills and promiſſary notes, we have ſeen, are privileged by ſtatute; concerning which alſo in France, careful proviſion, we find, is made by royal edicts and ordinances, particularly that of Lewis XIV. anno 1673. In Scotland, all bills of exchange, whether inland or foreign, have the ſame force by poſitive law *, though they have no ſuch regard as the French or Engliſh to promiſſary notes. In ſeveral places of Italy, as Bologna, the rules of exchanges are eſtabliſhed by law and ordinances, and in others by immemorial practice, or local cuſtom. The more conſiderable trading cities of Germany, as Hamburgh, Frankfort, Augſburgh, Leipſick, as we have ſhewn, have alſo their particular orders and regulations, with relation to bills of exchange. See the articles EXCHANGE and ACCEPTANCE.

* Act 20. par. 3. Char. II. Act 36. ſeſſ. 6. par. K. W.

BILL of Lading, is a memorandum, or acknowledgment, ſigned by the maſter of a ſhip, and given to a merchant, or any other perſon, containing an account of the goods which the maſter has received on board from that merchant, or other perſon; with a promiſe to deliver them at the intended place, for a certain ſalary. The French uſe the word connoiſſement for ſhips ſailing in the ocean, and they ſay police de chargement (a policy of lading) when they ſpeak of ſhips ſailing in the Mediterranean.

According to the ordonnance of the marine, or navy, in France, made in Auguſt, 1681, tit. 2. of the third book, the bills of lading ought to be ſigned by the maſter, or the cap-merchant, and muſt contain an account of the quality and quantity of the merchandizes, the marks and numbers of the bales, cheſts, or parcels; the name of the merchant who ſhipped them, that of the perſon to whom they are to be delivered, or to whom they are conſigned; the place from whence the ſhip ſails, that where the goods are to be landed, the name of the maſter, that of the ſhip, and the price agreed upon for freight or carriage.

Each bill of lading muſt be made treble, one for the merchant who loads the goods; another to be ſent to the perſon to whom the goods are conſigned, at the place where they are to be landed; and the third to remain in the hands of the maſter of the ſhip, or of the cap-merchant.

Four-and-twenty hours after the goods have been put on board the ſhip, the merchants are obliged to preſent the bills of lading to the maſter, for him to ſign them, and to furniſh him with the acquittal, or diſcharge, of their merchandizes, upon pain of paying the intereſt of the delay.

The factors, commiſſioners, and others, who receive the merchandizes mentioned in the bills of lading, are obliged to give receipts for them to the maſters who require them, upon pain of paying all coſts, damages, and intereſts, even thoſe incurred by the delay.

When there happens to be any difference in the ſeveral bills of lading of the ſame merchandize, that which is in the maſter's hands is to be credited, if it was filled up with the merchant's own hand, or with that of his factor; and that which is in the merchant's poſſeſſion ought to be followed, if it was filled up by the maſter's own hand.

It muſt be obſerved, that a bill of lading is uſed only, when the merchandizes ſent on board a ſhip are but part of the cargo; for, when a merchant loads a whole veſſel for his own perſonal account, the deed paſſed between him and the maſter, or owner of the ſhip, is called CHARTER-PARTY. See that article.

That the reader may the better underſtand what has been obſerved above, it was thought proper to inſert in this place, the three following models, or forms, of bills of lading; the firſt as is uſed by the French, the ſecond by the Dutch, and the third by the Engliſh.

In order to diſtinguiſh what is printed from what is left blank in the printed forms to be filled up by the parties concerned, we ſhall ſet down in the following forms what is printed, in a Roman letter, and what is written in the blanks in Italics.

The form of a French Bill of Lading.

Jeſus Maria Joſeph. *At Marſeilles the 7th of March*, 1743, were loaded in the name of God, and of good ſafety, at the port and harbour of this city, by *Mr Charles, for the account of Mr Iſabeau*, on board the *ſhip* called *the St John the Baptiſt*, commanded by *Captain James Rebutty*, to carry and bring, with God's help, to *Havre de Grace*, and deliver *to Mr Pinant, merchant*, or to his aſſigns, the merchandizes hereafter mentioned, to wit,

£ 1. *I ſay, two tuns of wine, containing eight millerolles, no.* 1, 2. Further, 2. *I ſay, two bales of old Flanders tapeſtries, directed to Mr. Iſabeau*; which aboveſaid merchandizes have been ſhipped on board the ſaid ſhip well-conditioned, and marked with the mark as per margin; for which, when delivered by God's aſſiſtance at the ſaid *Havre de Grace*, without any thing being wetted or ſpoiled, ſhall be paid by the ſaid *Sieur Pinant*, or his agent, for freight, *three-ſcore and fifteen livres per tun, containing fourteen millerolles of this city for the wine, and ſix livres for the two bales of tapeſtry*, &c.

Signed GERMA, &c.

The form of a Dutch Bill of Lading.

I *Charles Piquet*, maſter under God of the veſſel called *the St Ann*, lying at preſent at anchor *before Rotterdam*, in order to ſail with the firſt fair wind (which God ſhall ſend) to the city of *St Vallery*, where my true unloading is to be made; confeſs to have received on board my ſaid veſſel between decks, of you *Mr William Hennequin*, the following merchandizes,

PL No. 1. marked and numbered with the ſame mark and number as per margin; the whole dry, and well conditioned: namely, *one bale, containing ſix half pieces of woollen cloth*; which merchandizes I promiſe to deliver to *Meſſieurs Manſes and Arguieux*, or to their commiſſioner, factor, or agent, the dangers and accidents of the ſea only excepted. And for the performance

formance of what is here ſaid I have bound, by theſe preſents, my perſon, my goods, and my ſaid ſhip, freight and tackle, and ſhewing to me one of theſe bills of lading, and paying to me for freight of the ſaid merchandizes the ſum of *five guilders*, over and above the cuſtomary average and duties. In witneſs of the truth of which I have ſigned, with my own ſign manual, three bills of lading, of the ſame tenor, of which one being performed, the others ſhall remain of no value. Done at *Rotterdam, the 15th of September*, 1743.

Signed CHARLES PIQUET.

The form of an Engliſh Bill of Lading.

N. B. That the words between [ ] are blanks filled up.

Shipped by the grace of God, in good order, and well-conditioned, by [F. C. of London, merchant] in and upon the good ſhip called [Mermaid] whereof is maſter, under God, for this preſent voyage [N. O.] mariner, and now riding at anchor [in the port of London] and by God's grace bound for Leghorn in Italy; to ſay [one bale of woollen cloth, one caſk of tin in blocks, and one caſk of refined ſugar, contents, &c. as per invoice] being marked and numbered as in the margin, and are to be delivered in the like good order, and well-conditioned, at the aforeſaid port of [Leghorn] (the danger of the ſea only excepted) unto [Mr P. R. merchant there] or to his aſſigns, he or they paying freight for the ſaid good [two dollars and a half per 100 weight for the tin, and one dollar and a half per cloth] with primage and average accuſtomed. In witneſs whereof the maſter, or purſer of the ſaid ſhip, hath affirmed to [three] bills, one of which being accompliſhed the other [two] to ſtand void. And ſo God ſend the good ſhip to her deſired port in ſafety. Amen. Dated in [London the 4th day of January, 1752.] Inſides and contents unknown to

N. O.

4 F C W
No. 1, 2, 3.

Evans verſus Martlett.

If goods by bills of lading are conſigned to A, A is the owner, and muſt bring the action againſt the maſter of the ſhip, if they are loſt. But if they be ſpecial, to be delivered to A, to the uſe of B, B ought to bring the action. But if the bill be general to A, and the invoice only ſhews that they are upon the account of B, A ought always to bring the action, for the property is in him, and B has only a truſt, per totam curiam. And per Holt, chief-juſtice, the aſſignee of a bill of lading has ſuch a property as that he may aſſign it over. And Shower ſaid, that it had been adjudged ſo in the Exchequer. Lord Raym. 271.

BILL of Parcels, is an account given by the ſeller to the buyer, containing the particulars of all the ſorts and prices of the goods bought.

BILL of Sale, is a ſolemn contract, under ſeal, whereby a man paſſes the right, or intereſt, that he has in goods and chattles; for if a man promiſes, or gives any chattles, without valuable conſideration, or without delivering poſſeſſion, this alters no property, becauſe it is nudum pactum, unde non oritur actio; but, if a man ſells goods by deed under ſeal duly executed, this alters the property between the parties, though there be no conſideration, or no delivery of poſſeſſion, becauſe a man is expoſed to deny his own deed, or affirm any thing contrary to the manifeſt ſolemnity of contracting.

But what is chiefly to be conſidered under this head, is the ſtatute of 13 Eliz. cap. 5. by which it is enacted, 'That all 'fraudulent conveyances of lands, &c. goods and chattles, to 'avoid the debt or duty of another, ſhall (as againſt the party 'only, whoſe debt, or duty, is ſo endeavoured to be avoided) 'be utterly void, except grants made bona fide, and on a 'good (which is conſtrued a valuable) conſideration.' And by the latter clauſe of that ſtatute it is provided, 'That all par-'ties to ſuch fraudulent conveyance, who, being privy there-'unto, ſhall wittingly juſtify the ſame to be done bona fide, 'and on good conſideration; or ſhall alien or aſſign any lands, 'leaſe, or goods, ſo to them conveyed as aforeſaid, ſhall for-'feit one year's value of the lands, leaſe, rent common, or 'other profit out of the ſame, and the whole value of the 'goods; and, being thereof convicted, ſhall ſuffer half a 'year's impriſonment without bail, the forfeiture to be di-'vided between the queen and the party grieved.'

For the explanation of this ſtatute the following caſes may ſerve.

A being indebted to B in 400 l. and to C in 200 l. C brings debt againſt him, and, hanging the writ, A being poſſeſſed of goods and chattles to the value of 300 l. makes a ſecret conveyance of them all, without exception, to B, in ſatisfaction of his debt; but, notwithſtanding, continues in poſſeſſion of them, and ſells ſome of them, and, others of them being ſheep, he ſets a mark on; and reſolved, that it was a fraudulent gift and ſale, within the aforeſaid ſtatute, and ſhall not prevent C of his execution for his juſt debt; for though ſuch ſale hath one of the qualifications required by the ſtatute, being made to a creditor, for his juſt debt, and, conſequently, on a valuable conſideration; yet it wants the other; for the owner's continuing in poſſeſſion is a fixed and undoubted character of a fraudulent conveyance, becauſe the poſſeſſion is the only indicium of the property of a chattel, and, therefore, this ſale is not made bona fide. 3 Co. 80. Mo. 638. 2 Bulſt. 226. Twine's caſe.

Upon the ſame reaſons the following caſe turns: A is indebted to five ſeveral perſons, to the ſum of 20 l. caſh, and having goods to the value of 20 l. makes a gift of them to one of the five, in ſatisfaction of his debt, but upon this ſecret truſt between them, that the grantee, in compaſſion to his circumſtances, ſhould deal favourably with him, in permitting him, or ſome other for him, to uſe and poſſeſs the ſaid goods, paying this creditor, as he was able, and could afford it, the ſaid debt of 20 l. and reſolved to be a fraudulent conveyance and deed of ſale. 3 Co. 81. Mo. 639.

So in that caſe, if A makes a bill of ſale of all his goods, in conſideration of blood and natural affection to his ſon, or one of his relations, it is a void conveyance in reſpect of creditors; for the conſiderations of blood, &c. which are made the motives of this gift, are eſteemed in their nature inferior to valuable conſiderations, which are neceſſarily required in ſuch ſales by 13 Eliz. cap. 5. and this is a conſtruction ſuitable to the ſtricteſt rules of equity; for, if conſiderations of blood or natural affection were allowed to be of equal dignity with, or to come under the notion of, valuable conſiderations required by this ſtatute, then it would be in the power of any debtor, by ſuch conveyances of his perſonal eſtate to his kindred, to build a family, upon a conduct to his creditors, which carries in it all the ſtrains of injuſtice and colluſive dealing: moreover, there is a ſtrong preſumption that ſuch ſales to relations are conſtantly attended with a ſecret truſt and perſonal confidence of recovering part of the goods to the vender, for his ſubſiſtence; ſo that they are intirely inconſiſtent with the ſcheme laid down by the ſtatute, and therefore void and illegal. 2 Rot. Abr. 779. 3 Co. 81. Palm. 214.

A poſſeſſed of divers goods to the value of 250 l. by covin to defraud his creditors, made a gift thereof to his daughter, on condition to be void on payment of 20 s. adjudged that it was apparently a fraudulent conveyance, and void. Cro. Eliz. 810. Bethel verſus Stanhope.

As the owner's continuing in poſſeſſion of his goods, after his bill of ſale of them, is an undoubted badge of a fraudulent conveyance, becauſe the poſſeſſion is the only indicium of the property of a chattel, which is a thing unfixed and tranſitory; ſo there are other marks and characters of fraud; as a general conveyance of them all without any exception; for it is hardly to be preſumed that a man will ſtrip himſelf intirely of all his perſonal property, not excepting his bedding and wearing-apparel, unleſs there was ſome ſecret correſpondence and good underſtanding ſettled between him and the vendee, for a private occupancy of all, or ſome part of the goods, for his ſupport; alſo a ſecret manner of tranſacting ſuch bills of ſale and unuſual clauſes in it; as that it is made honeſtly, truly, and bona fide; are marks of fraud and colluſion; for ſuch an artful and forced dreſs and appearance give a ſuſpicion and jealouſy of ſome defect varniſhed over with it. 3 Co. 81. Mo. 638.

If goods continue in the poſſeſſion of the vender, after a bill of ſale of them, though there is a clauſe in the bill that the vender ſhall account annually with the vendee for them, yet it is a fraud; ſince, if ſuch colouring were admitted, there would be no difficulty whatever to avoid the proviſions and cautions of the aforeſaid act. Mo. 638.

A man takes a wife, and afterwards marries another, his firſt wife living, and by deed gave part of his goods to his pretended ſecond wife; it ſeems this is a fraudulent gift, within 13 Eliz. and by the common law too, in reſpect of creditors, becauſe made without any valuable conſideration; for the ſecond pretended marriage is ſo far from coming under the notion of a conſideration, that it is a crime puniſhable by law. 2 Leon. 223. Stamford's caſe, per Dyer.

Where there is an abſolute conveyance, or gift, of a leaſe for years, and the perſon who makes it continues in poſſeſſion after ſuch ſale, the gift is fraudulent, becauſe attended with that diſtinguiſhing character of a fraud; but if the conveyance, or ſale, be conditional, as that upon payment of ſo much money, the leaſe ſhall go to the vendee; their continuance in poſſeſſion after the gift does not make it fraudulent, becauſe the vendee is not to have the leaſe in poſſeſſion, 'till he performs the condition.

A has a leaſe of certain lands for 60 years, if he ſo long lives, and forges a leaſe for 90 years abſolutely, and by indenture, reciting this forged leaſe, bargains and ſells it for valuable conſiderations, together with his intereſt in the land, to B. In this caſe B is not a purchaſer within 27 Eliz. cap. 4. for though there were general words in the ſale, to paſs the true intereſt, yet it is plain that it never was contracted for, or originally included in the bargain; ſo that, the bargain being made of an imaginary intereſt, the bargainee can never come under the character of a real purchaſer, to defeat the purchaſer of the true leaſe of 60 years which A was really poſſeſſed of. Co. Litt. 3. Sir Richard Cobham's caſe.

A, by bill of ſale, made over his goods to a truſtee, for B, who lived with him as his wife, and was ſo reputed, and he alſo purchaſed the leaſe of a houſe wherein he dwelt, in the name of a truſtee, and declared the truſt thereof to himſelf for life, then in truſt for B, during the reſidue of the term; and his bill of ſale was held fraudulent, as to creditors; but, as to the declaration of the truſt of the term, the court held it good, and not liable to A's debts, the term being never in him, and being ſo ſettled at the time it was purchaſed, and A might have given the money to B, who might have purchaſed it for herſelf, and in her own name. 2 Vern. 490. Decreed in equity between Fletcher and lady Ledley.

If A makes a bill of ſale to B, a creditor, and afterwards to C, another creditor, and delivers poſſeſſion at the time of the ſale to neither, after C gets poſſeſſion of them, and B takes them out of his poſſeſſion, C cannot maintain treſpaſs, becauſe the firſt bill of ſale is fraudulent againſt creditors, and ſo is the ſecond; yet they both bind A, and B's is the elder title, and the naked poſſeſſion of C ought not to prevail againſt the title of B, that is prior, where both are equally creditors, and poſſeſſion, at the time of the bill of ſale, is delivered over to neither. Abr. Eq. 148. Baker verſus Lloyd. Per Holt.

BILL of Store, is a licence granted at the cuſtom-houſe to merchants, whereby they have liberty to carry, cuſtom-free, all ſuch ſtores and proviſions, as they may have occaſion for during their voyage.

BILLEDULGERID, a territory in Africa. This country is ſaid by geographers to derive it's name from the Arabic Biled-el-gerid, which ſignifies the land of dates, it abounding with that kind of fruit, more than any other part of that quarter of the world; inſomuch that it can furniſh moſt of the neighbouring kingdoms with it, in exchange for wheat, which grows here in very ſmall quantities. It is bounded on the eaſt by a ridge of high mountains, which parts it from the kingdom of Tripoli, and part of Gadamis; on the ſouth, by the province of Verghela, and on the weſt by the countries of Zeb and Mezeb, and part of the kingdom of Coucque, or in more general terms, by the kingdom of Algiers.

This whole country is very mountainous, ſandy, and barren, producing little ſuſtenance, excepting prodigious quantities of dates, as before intimated, ſome parts of it being quite covered with large thick woods of palm-trees, from which that fruit is gathered. The climate is hot and unhealthy, and the people lean, and of a ſwarthy and ſhrivelled complexion; their eyes are very much hurt by the eaſt-wind, which drives the hot ſand into them; and are ſometimes ſo violent, as to bury them under it by whole herds. They are moſtly a mixture of ancient Africans and wild Arabs, the former living in ſome kind of cities or towns, the latter in tents, and ranging from place to place for food and plunder. The Arabs, who eſteem themſelves of the moſt noble race of the two, are in ſome manner independent, and will hire themſelves into the ſervice of the neighbouring princes that are at war. The reſt either follow the plundering or hunting trade, which laſt is one of their nobleſt diverſions, eſpecially that of oſtriches, which are ſaid to be here as high as a man on horſeback. They eat their fleſh, barter their feathers for corn, pulſe, or other things they want, uſe their hearts in their conjuring tricks, their fat or oil as a medicine, make pendants for their ears of their talons, and turn their ſkins into ſnapſacks. Their common food, beſides the dates above-mentioned, is the fleſh of theſe oſtriches, and of their goats and camels; and their drink either the thin liquor or broth in which that fleſh is boiled, or the milk of their camels, for they ſeldom drink any water, that little they have of it being neither wholeſome nor pleaſant, but in moſt parts they labour much under the want of it. They have ſome horſes, which they uſe in their hunting, and thieviſh exploits; in both which, thoſe of the better ſort are attended by their black ſlaves, and the reſt by their obſequious wives, who look after them and their horſes, and perform all the moſt ſlaviſh ſervices about them.

Some ſchools they have, to which they ſend their boys, who, if they prove proficients in that kind of learning they are taught, are commonly raiſed to the dignities of judges or prieſts, or more properly conjurers or jugglers, for they uſe a great deal of that ſuperſtitious traſh. Some few among them give themſelves to trades, but the generality deſpiſe it as below them; and where any of them think it worth their while to till the land, which is but rarely done, they commonly leave it to their wives and ſlaves. Some of them wander from one end of their country to the other, with their herds of cattle.

TOUSERA, or TEUZAR, is a town or colony, near the frontiers of Tunis, in latitude 32, 28, and eaſt longitude 10, 26. Marmol places it in Numidia, and Monſ. De Liſle in Billedulgerid. The town is parted by the river; one ſide of it is inhabited by ſome of the ancient Africans, and the other by the Arabs. Here are held ſeveral fairs, to which all the neighbouring countries reſort to purchaſe what they have, and the people are pretty wealthy both in money and dates.

CAPSA, the other colony in Billedulgerid, in the latitude 33, 15, and eaſt longitude 9, 3; which was formerly, according to Marmol, very populous, and had ſome ſtately moſques, and other ſtructures, and handſome ſtreets, but was inhabited only by poor people, whom the oppreſſion of the Tunis government will ſcarce ſuffer to live. In the heart of the city is an incloſed fountain, whoſe water is hot, and ſerves equally for bathing and for drinking, when it is cool. The territory about it abounds in palm, citron, olive, and other fruit trees; but the climate and inhabitants are very unhealthy, which makes them peeviſh and churliſh to ſtrangers: which, together with their want of commerce, gives them a rank little above the pitch of the brute creation.

To BIND an Apprentice, is to engage him with a maſter, or freeman of any company, in order to learn, during a certain number of years, which is regulated in France by the ſtatutes, and in England is generally of ſeven years, the profeſſion or trade of the maſter with whom he is bound.

We ſay, that a maſter cannot bind above one or two apprentices at a time, to ſignify that he cannot have above that number, according to the regulation and by-laws of his company. See APPRENTICE.

To BIND oneſelf for another, is to be his bail, or ſurety; to engage to pay for him, to make oneſelf anſwerable for the loſſes and damages that may happen through his fault.

To BIND Books, is to ſew together the ſheets of a book, and put a cover to it. See BOOK-BINDER.

BINNELANDS-PASS. Thus they call at Amſterdam, and in all the other towns under the dominion of the States General of the United Provinces, a kind of paſſport which people are obliged to take, when they would tranſport any merchandize from one town to another, without paying any duty of importation or exportation. That paſſport coſts but 24 ſtivers; but it muſt be brought back within ſix weeks, with a diſcharge from the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, certifying, that the merchandizes are arrived at the place they were deſigned for; otherwiſe the owner would be obliged to pay duty for them, as if they had been ſhipped for exportation into foreign countries.

Binneland is a Dutch word, which ſignifies inland.

BIRCH-TREE, in Latin BETULA, is a tree of a middling height: it's branches are thin, flexible, and bending. The outward rind of the trunk is thick, rough, white, and full of crevices: but the inward rind is thin and ſmooth like parchment; the ancients uſed it inſtead of paper. The wood of this tree is white; the leaves are pretty broad, peaked and indented on the edges; they are like thoſe of the black poplar, being green, tender, ſmooth, and of a bitter taſte. It's flowers are catkins, of the length of long pepper, with ſeveral leaves placed like ſcales, and faſtened to a ſmall pedicle. Theſe catkins leave no fruit behind them; the fruit is produced at a diſtance, on different parts of the ſame tree: it looks firſt like a ſmall ear of corn, with ſeveral ſcales, which becomes afterwards a little ſquammoſe cone, of which the ſcales, cut for the moſt part like trefoil, cover each of them a winged ſeed. This tree caſts it's outer rind every year. It grows in a poor ſoil, or marſhy places.

The timber of this tree, though accounted the worſt of all others, yet it is not without it's various uſes. The turners often uſe it to make chairs, &c. and the huſbandman for making ox-yokes; it is alſo planted for hop-poles, hoops, &c. and is proper likewiſe to make baſkets of it's branches: but in places within twenty miles of London, it is kept often cut to make brooms, and turns to very good account.

BIRD, a two-legged animal, covered with feathers, and having two wings, with which it raiſes itſelf up into the air, and which it uſes to ſupport itſelf there, and to fly. There are nevertheleſs ſome kinds of birds, which run rather than fly. We call ſinging and pleaſure-birds, thoſe whoſe warbling is agreeable to the ear, or thoſe, which, by the brightneſs and variety of their plumage, are pleaſing to the eye. They are alſo called aviary-birds, becauſe they are kept in aviaries, or great cages made of iron or braſs-wire, where they are brought up and fed. None but the maſters-bird-catchers trade in theſe birds in France.

There are divers kinds of birds, either tame or wild, whoſe feathers and down are part of the trade of different merchants. Of that number are the oſtriches, the fine feathers of whoſe wings and tails are ſold by the feathermen; the ſwans and geeſe, whoſe large feathers or quills are ſold by the ſtationers, and whoſe down is uſed by upholſterers in ſeveral of their works; the grebes, of which very fine muffs are made, and thoſe kinds of falcons or hawks, which furniſh the ledredon, a very light and warm downy ſkin, which has not been above half a century in faſhion.

BIRD-CATCHER: this, though a mean trade, we ſhall take notice of it, by reaſon that what follows will ſhew, that even the loweſt is under ſome proper regulation in France. Such a one is he who goes a birding, to catch ſmall birds, to bring them up, and make a trade of them. In France, the bird-catchers do alſo make the aviaries and cages, either of wood or wire, to keep the birds and make them fit; as alſo the traps to catch them, and all the ſeveral nets that are uſed in that innocent and agreeable fowling.

At Paris, the bird-catchers are a pretty numerous corporation or company, which is none of the moſt modern. Their

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ſtatutes and rules were given them, from the remoteſt antiquity, by the officers of the foreſts at Paris; and the rules and ſtatutes by which they are at preſent governed, were delivered to them in May 1647, by the recorder of that juriſdiction, as being extracted from the ancient regiſters.

Theſe rules and ſtatutes are compoſed of fifteen articles, the chief of which aſcertain the time during which the jurats ought to continue in office, the number of years for which apprentices are to be bound, and the right, difference, and order of the viſitations.

No jurat can continue in office above two years; apprentices are bound for three years, and the viſitations both of the foreign merchants, and of the maſter bird-catchers of the city and ſuburbs of Paris, are performed as follow.

No foreign merchant, who brings to Paris any of thoſe birds called Canary-birds, either common, or from the Canaries, can ſell them, before he has expoſed them to public view from ten of the clock in the forenoon 'till twelve, on the marble-ſtone of the juſtice-hall, on the days when the parliament meets, of which he is obliged to take the certificate from the officers of the foreſts. He is likewiſe to wait 'till the governors of the king's aviaries, having had notice given them by the jurats, have declared, that the ſaid aviaries are ſufficiently ſtocked with thoſe birds, and 'till the maſter bird-catchers have alſo refuſed to buy any of his birds; after which, ſuch a merchant is at liberty to ſell them to whom he pleaſes, but yet not before he has given to every jurat a bird out of each cage, for their duty or perquiſite of viſitation.

In caſe the maſter bird-catchers think fit to buy all the birds, they are to diſtribute them by lots among ſuch freemen of their company who would have any.

No man can trade in ſinging or pleaſure-birds, nor go about to catch any, unleſs he be free of the company; and no one can be made free, unleſs he has been an apprentice, except he be a freeman's ſon.

None but freemen are allowed to import and feed ortolans; nor can they ſell them alive to retailers, in order to be fattened, and rendered fit for eating, under the penalty of forfeiting the birds, and of a fine to be paid both by the buyer and the ſeller. The freemen of that corporation have alſo the ſole right of making bird-cages, and nets to catch birds; they have alſo the liberty to caſt, either of lead or any other metal, drinking-pots for birds.

The birds which the maſter bird-catchers only are allowed to catch, either with bird-lime, bird-calls, nets, or otherwiſe, are all thoſe which are called ſinging or pleaſure-birds; ſuch as linnets, goldfinches, chaffinches, canaries, lingets, nightingales, quails, larks, blackbirds, ſiſkins, ortolans, and others of the ſame quality.

The time during which it is not lawful to go a bird-catching, is from the middle of May 'till the middle of Auguſt, becauſe during that time the birds couple, make their neſts, and hatch their young ones: birds of paſſage, however, are excepted from this rule, ſuch as quails, nightingales, and ortolans, which may be catched from the 2d of April to the 2d of May, which is the time when they come, and from the 1ſt of Auguſt 'till they go back.

The places where, and days on which, the bird-catchers may expoſe to ſale the birds they have either caught or brought up, are their own ſhops every day of the week, and the Valley of Miſery (a place at Paris) on Sundays and holidays; except on the higheſt feſtivals, and on days of general proceſſions: they being permitted on Sundays, and leſs ſolemn holidays, to expoſe to view and hang their cages before the ſhops and walls of the houſes of the ſaid valley.

Beſides the above-mentioned birds, the freemen of that corporation ſell alſo turtle-doves, pigeons, parrots, parrokates, ſquirrels, and other ſmall animals for pleaſure.

Finally, according to a very ancient cuſtom, and by virtue of two articles in their ſtatutes, namely, the ſeventh and the fifteenth, the jurats are obliged to be preſent at the king's coronation, to bring birds thither, and let them fly in the church where the ceremony is performed. And the freemen are alſo obliged to let fly, as a token of joy, on Corpus Chriſti day, and when a queen makes her entry, a certain number of birds which are ordered by the officers of the foreſts.

BIRD'S-NESTS, a kind of ſpice very much eſteemed in China, and throughout all the Eaſt-Indies; it is to be found in Tonquin and in Cochinchina, but more particularly in the kingdom of Campa, or Champa, which is ſituated between both. The birds which make thoſe neſts to lay their eggs, and hatch their young ones in, are pretty much like the ſwallows: in coupling-time, there iſſues from their bills a clammy foam or glutinous matter, which is the only material they build their neſts with; they faſten them to the rocks, by applying to them that glutinous ſubſtance, by ſeveral layers the one over the other, as the former becomes dry. Theſe neſts are of the form of a middle-ſized ſpoon, but the brims are higher.

There are ſo many of theſe kinds of neſts, that they gather every year ſeveral hundred weight of them, which are almoſt all carried into China, where they are ſold for 5 tales per hundred weight, which amount to about a hundred Spaniſh ducats. They are thought to be good for the ſtomach and the head, and give a delicious taſte to the meat ſeaſoned with them.

Remarks.

As it is very difficult nicely to obſerve the natural objects, which one ſees or hears mentioned in the Indies, this is the reaſon why they are but very imperfectly deſcribed by travellers. We ſhould, therefore, be ſatisfied to learn to know them from their accounts but by parts, 'till time and repeated obſervations, give us a perfect knowledge of them. The firſt relations always preſent us with ſomething wonderful; but the wonder decreaſes, in proportion as things are more accurately obſerved, and become more familiar to us.

When it is reported, that in the Indies people eat bird's-neſts, there is no man but muſt wonder at it; nay, many think they are impoſed upon, becauſe it appears to them quite repugnant to nature, or at leaſt very little acceptable to the palate.

The thing ſeems more ſurpriſing ſtill, if we ſay, that thoſe neſts are eaten not as a ſpice, as Monſieur Savary aſſerts, who has been miſled by ſome erroneous memoirs, but as a true food, very nouriſhing and ſalubrious.

The travellers who mention theſe neſts, have not been well informed of the places where they are found, nor of the ſubſtance they are compoſed of, nor of the real uſe that is made of them. Of all this we ſhall here give an account, with a true deſcription of thoſe neſts, which no man has yet accurately deſcribed.

The bird who makes them is a kind of ſwallow, the upper part of whoſe body, including the head and tail, is of a bluiſh black, and the under part is white: it's head is ſmall, it's bill ſhort, thick, crooked, bluiſh, and very ſhining: it's legs are ſhort and ſlim, it's wings very long, extending far beyond it's tail.

This kind of ſwallows dwell upon high rocks, which are the true places where they neſtle. There are ſeen vaſt numbers of them in all the Sunda iſles, in the Molucca's, in the iſlands of New Guinea, in the Philippine iſlands, and on all the coaſt of the main land, which lies between the peninſula of Malacca as far as China; that is to ſay, in ſuch places as are mountainous, and full of rocks: which is quite different from what Tavernier and father Tachard tells us of their neſts, aſſerting that they are no where to be met with but in Tonquin and Cochinchina. This kind of ſwallows muſt needs abound moſt plentifully in all thoſe places, ſince ſeveral thouſands of pounds are taken for them yearly, and great quantities uſed for the table in the Indies.

Theſe neſts differ ſomething from one another in their ſize, thickneſs, colour, and weight. Their diameter commonly is full three fingers breadth on the top, and their perpendicular depth, which is greateſt in the middle, does not exceed an inch. The ſubſtance of theſe neſts is white, or reddiſh, and ſomewhat tranſparent: in ſome neſts, and in certain places, it is mixed with a dark purple. Their thickneſs is near that of a ſilver ſpoon. The form of one of theſe neſts is not much unlike a ſea-ſhell; it is, as it were, an irregular ſemicircle, whoſe diameter, or ſide, which is about three inches long, is that which is fixed to the rock, where the bird built it. It's weight is about a quarter of an ounce, ſometimes a little more, and ſometimes a little leſs.

Theſe neſts are very brittle, and their ſubſtance, being broke in pieces, ſhines in the inſide like gum. As the matter was applied, by the induſtry of the bird, in liquid and clammy threads, the neſts ſeem wrinkled, or ſlightly furrowed, on the ſurface. All that I have been aſſerting, in this deſcription, muſt be underſtood of the neſts that are very dry, and have been long kept; for, on thoſe inacceſſible places where they are faſtened, they are more limber, larger in their dimenſions, and heavier.

As to the matter of which they are made, travellers have been puzzled to know what it is; moſt of them have thought it to be a kind of clammy foam, which iſſues from the bills of thoſe birds in coupling-time, as Monſieur Savary aſſerts hereafter them.

But here follows an account that muſt undeceive the public. Theſe ſwallows do, indeed, build their neſts in coupling-time, as all other birds do, and particularly our ſwallows; but then, like ours, they go and fetch elſewhere the materials for building their neſts. As every kind of volatiles have their different ways of building their neſts, and even the ſame kind in different climates; ſo theſe ſwallows uſe a particular ſubſtance, different from that uſed by any other bird. It is an animal ſubſtance, which they go and fetch on the ſea-ſhore; they fix on a kind of ſtar-fiſh, whoſe ſubſtance, or fleſh, reſembles a ſlimy and viſcous jelly, which the ſea ebbing leaves on the ſhore; of which they take whole bills full, which each bird carries to the place where it deſigns to make it's neſt, applying it by threads one over the other at ſeveral times, flying backwards and forwards all the while, 'till the neſt be finiſhed. Some people pretend that theſe birds get that glutinous matter from a kind of oyſters,

oyſters, or ſome other ſhell-fiſh, which abound in thoſe ſeas, and are of the kind called in Latin chama, which is a ſort of cockle. It may be that thoſe ſwallows take the materials of their neſts from both theſe ſorts of ſea inſects; their crooked and ſtrong bills ſhew ſufficiently that they are able to tear thoſe animals to pieces, and take their ſubſtance away.

To come now to the uſe of theſe neſts, it muſt be obſerved that they are by no means ſought for on account of their taſte only, as is in ſome relations falſly aſſerted: for it is certain that they are of an inſipid taſte, which muſt be heightened with ſeaſoning, mixing them with good meat, to make them good and palatable; ſo far are they from ſerving inſtead of ſpice to ſeaſon other meat, as was thought formerly.

But they are reckoned good, light, and wholeſome food, very proper for ſick people; they are ſo well dreſſed with ſeveral other good ingredients, that they prove an excellent diſh to thoſe who do not know what it is; as the materials with which they are made come from fiſh, they are not inſalubrious.

The Dutch uſe a great many of theſe neſts, and as many in proportion as the Chineſe, both at Batavia, and in the other parts of the Eaſt-Indies. Their ſhips, eſpecially, have always a large proviſion of them for the table of their officers, which ſerve them inſtead of garden-ſtuff, either in ſoups, or dreſſed in the form of a meſs.

The ſubſtance of theſe birds-neſts is very clean, and free from all manner of filth. There are ſeen, ſometimes, ſmall feathers adhering to the inward ſurface of the neſt, but they are eaſily ſeparated, when the neſt is put for ſome time in water to ſoak, in order to mellow and prepare them for dreſſing. They are white, and pretty much like vermicelli; ſo that they are pleaſant enough to the ſight.

Of late years the Dutch, and even the Engliſh, bring ſome of theſe neſts into Europe, to make the curious taſte of them, and to adorn cabinets with, rather than for any other uſe. In this laſt caſe they are worth keeping; I have made preſents of ſome to ſeveral learned men at Paris, ſince I came back from the Indies.

Theſe neſts are ſold at Batavia from one rixdollar and an half to two rixdollars, Dutch money, per pound: they are ſold in parcels, being placed very regularly, the one within the other, neatly tied with ſtrings of reeds, neatly wove, as it were, like a baſket boot-faſhion, with holes, through which the neſts are ſeen. Memoirs of Mr. Garcin.

BIRMINGHAM Hard-ware-men, or dealers in the city of London, Sheffield, and Brimingham wares, are ſo called, becauſe they principally trade in, and moſtly wholeſale, all ſorts of tools, ſmaller utenſils, toys, buckles, buttons, in iron, ſteel, braſs, &c. made in London, and the great trading towns of Brimingham in Warwickſhire, and Sheffield in Yorkſhire, where many thouſand of artizans in different branches, are conſtantly employed, but for the moſt part in the ſmithery and cutlery ways.

There are but few of theſe in London; yet almoſt all of them carry on a very extenſive trade, and are reputed wealthy. It is not eaſy to conceive, much leſs to deſcribe, the numerous articles that paſs through their hands: therefore a youth, deſirous to ſerve an apprenticeſhip to this buſineſs, ſhould be ready and acute, not want a good memory, write a plain hand, know arithmetic, and ſomewhat of book-keeping.

This trade will require at leaſt 500 l. to ſet a man up; and one that intends to purſue buſineſs with ſpirit, may diſpenſe with 2000 l.

BIS. This is a Latin word, which ſignifies twice. It is often uſed among merchants, particularly when through inadvertency or miſtake two leaves in the ſame book have been marked with the ſame number: in which caſe one writes bis next to the number of one of thoſe leaves, to ſhew that it has been uſed twice.

The ſame caution is obſerved with regard to the numbers marked upon pieces of ſtuff, when the ſame have been repeated. This method has been found out to prevent the trouble of altering a whole ſeries of numbers.

BISA, or BIZA, a coin of Pegu, which is current there for half a ducat.

It is alſo a weight uſed in the ſame kingdom, to weigh merchandizes. It is equal to two pounds and five ounces of Venice, or to three pounds and nine ounces of the ſubtle, or light weigh, of the ſame city; and 100 pounds ſubtle weight of Venice make about 65 $\frac{3}{4}$ pounds of London. Each biſa weighs 100 tecalis.

The ſmalleſt weight after the biſa is the abucco, which weighs but 12 tecalis and a half. The agito weighs two abocchis, and two agiti half a biſa; that is to ſay, 50 tecalis.

BISCAY, the moſt north-eaſt principality of Old Spain, which, although ſubject to the kings of Spain, yet they ſtile themſelves lords of Biſcay. As generally taken, it is divided into three provinces, viz. Biſcay, properly ſo called, Guipuſcoa, and Alaba, or Alava. The whole is bounded on the weſt by that ſlip of Old Caſtile which reaches to the ſea, and parts Aſturias from Biſcay on the ſouth. The ridge of mountains branching from the Pyrenees ſeparate it from Old Caſtile on the ſouth-eaſt, as the ſame mountains part it again from Navarre, and the little river Cidaro from France, on the eaſt; and on the north ſide it is waſhed by the Cantabrian ſea, called commonly the bay of Biſcay. The whole length, from eaſt to weſt, is about 120 miles, and, from north to ſouth, where broadeſt, ſomewhat leſs than 60.

The country is mountainous and barren, producing neither wheat, barley, wine, nor oil, but abundance of miliet ſeed and fruit; ſo that cyder is here in plenty, and is the common drink of the inhabitants, excepting a ſmall ſort of wine made there, which they call chacolino. Some flax is likewiſe produced in their vallies, and abundance of timber for ſhipping on the hills. But their greateſt treaſure conſiſts in their inexhauſtible mines of iron, which is eſteemed the beſt in the whole world, and is, therefore, tranſported thence into all parts.

Here are whole towns of ſmiths, that carry on the manufacture of all ſorts of iron work, eſpecially in the military and naval way; and their workmanſhip is extremely neat and elegant. There are likewiſe very conſiderable quantities of wool ſhipped off from their ſea-ports into moſt foreign nations, where they have an important woollen manufacture of fine broad cloths, but moſt of the wool is brought thither from Old Caſtile. Some, however, they have here, but, as it is neither ſo fine, nor in any quantity, they manufacture it wholly for their own uſe.

ORDUNNA, a port-town in this province, ſituate 25 miles ſouth-weſt of Bilboa, and is the only place in this province that is dignified with the title of city. It is ſeated in a plentiful vale, ſurrounded with high mountains, and diſtant about 18 miles from the ſea. It is more conſiderable for it's trade than bigneſs.

BILBOA, a large town but no city, though few cities in Spain are larger at leaſt, there are many cities much ſmaller; nor is there any city in all the north part of Spain that equals it for trade. The port is very good; and, though it ſtands ſix miles from the ſea, and the river Ibaichaval, or Nervius, on which it ſtands, is very ſmall and narrow, yet the channel receives ſhips of good burden, and ſmaller veſſels come up to the very town-mole, or key. Two things make this a place of extraordinary trade: firſt, it's being the neareſt ſea-port to Madrid, ſo that, from hence, the manufactures of other countries, eſpecially of England, Holland, and France, are carried by land thither; and this cauſes a great importation of theſe goods. It is not a place of any antiquity, being built, as the Spaniſh hiſtorians ſay, in the year 1300; but it came into trade, and grew rich, from the goodneſs of it's port. The ſecond article of it's greatneſs is, the export of thoſe two capital products of Spain, wool and iron; both which are brought chiefly to this port. Much of the iron, alſo, which is in quantity inexhauſtible, and in quality incomparably good, is manufactured here, and in all the country near it: and they make here all thoſe neceſſary things which we call in England hard-ware, as alſo handy-craft ſtores, in which iron is neceſſary, ſuch as mechanic and artificers tools, and tools for huſbandry, nails, locks, chains, jacks, crows, pick-axes, wheel-works, &c. as alſo ſteel, and ſteel-ware; with all kinds of military iron work, ſuch as ſwords, fire-arms of all ſorts, and almoſt all neceſſary utenſils made of that metal. Beſides this, the iron and the ſteel is largely exported in bars, and France takes off a prodigious quantity of it, as well as England.

Here is alſo a ſmall fleet of ſhips fitted out annually, for the whale fiſhery at Greenland, or Spitſbergen; and, in proportion to the number of ſhips, they have ſucceeded as well as any other nation, and ſhewn themſelves as ſkilful harponiers as any.

DUSENGO, ſtands 15 miles diſtant to the ſouth-eaſt of Bilboa, on a ſmall river, which deſcends from the mountains with which it is ſurrounded on the land-ſide. It is inhabited by about 1500 families, moſt of them employed in the iron-manufacture, ſuch as ſword-blades, hilts, and ſuch-like military implements.

ST SEBASTIAN, a noted port in the bay of Biſcay, and territory of Guipuſcoa, ſituate 55 miles eaſt of Bilboa, and 25 ſouth-weſt of Bayonne. In this port have been ſeen upwards of 100 Engliſh merchant-ſhips at a time, which have been made prizes by the Spaniſh privateers, in times of war with Spain. The mole will receive 200 ſail of ſhipping. The inhabitants do not amount to above 1600 families, in two pariſhes; and they have no great trade but in time of war by privateering.

REMARKS.

It being neceſſary to the intereſt of Britain that ſhe be well acquainted with the policy of it's neighbouring countries, and in particular to attentively watch every meaſure they purſue with relation to their commercial intereſts; it may not be altogether uſeleſs to obſerve what a late very ingenious Spaniſh writer has ſaid, with regard to the Biſcayners, eſpecially as there has been for ſome years a ſpirit riſing in Spain, that does not forbode any good to the trade of theſe kingdoms:

'The navigation and commerce, ſays this Spaniſh writer, of 'theſe provinces [meaning Biſcay and Guipuſcoa] by ſea, 'have been much impaired by loſing ſeveral ſhips in the ex-

'peditions

'peditions of the late war: for they have not yet been able 'to replace them, and build others, as they have had very 'bad harveſts, and are not yet paid the whole of what was 'due to them for freights, and other things: ſo that it will be 'very reaſonable and expedient to order the ballance of their 'accounts to be paid immediately, that they may be enabled 'to build and fit out other veſſels, and thus revive and im-'prove their fiſhery and commerce by ſea.

'As it is alſo certain that money is now very ſcarce in Gui-'puſcoa, where the principal diſburſements were uſually made 'for building ſhips, and other neceſſary and chargeable pre-'parations for a fiſhery that is any ways conſiderable, I ſhould 'apprehend it a very good piece of policy to make them a 'tender, out of the king's revenue, of 25 or 30,000 doublons, 'without intereſt, for their firſt expences, which uſually run 'high, upon the condition of their repaying it in ſix years. 'My intention is, that in the two firſt years they be not 'obliged to return any part of it; but, in the four following, 'to do it in equal payments, 'till the whole be diſcharged; 'and, for a ſecurity that the loan be repaid in the form and 'manner that ſhall be ſtipulated, let the province of Guipuſ-'coa ſtand engaged for it, beſides the joint bonds given by 'the private perſons who are to receive the money. That the 'diſtribution of the money, the execution of the bonds, the 'ſecurities, and other points, may be well conducted, and 'with all the precaution that is requiſite on ſuch an occaſion, 'let there be choſen out of that province, or ſent from the 'court a miniſter of known abilities and public ſpirit, charged 'with this commiſſion, and to diſpoſe their minds to it, en-'courage aſſociations, and every thing that ſhould tend to 'enlarge the fiſhery of bacalao, on the banks of Newfound-'land, as alſo the fiſheries for whales, herrings, &c. in thoſe 'parts where found to be in plenty.

'Should the Engliſh, in oppoſition to all the reaſons above-'mentioned, ſtill perſiſt in diſturbing his majeſty's ſubjects 'in this fiſhery, and it be not proper to employ force in or-'der to take ſatisfaction, and maintain their juſt rights, 'till 'we have firſt tried all the gentler methods which prudence 'dictates; in my opinion, they ſhould alſo be given to un-'derſtand that his majeſty, among other expedients, may 'avail himſelf of the ſovereign right he poſſeſſes to prohibit 'the conſumption of bacalao in all his dominions. This too 'is a meaſure very practicable, and may be done without any 'great inconvenience to the common people, whenever the 'fiſhery of his majeſty's ſubjects, both on our own coaſts, 'and in other ſeas, ſhall be encouraged and enlarged in the 'way I propoſe*, and alſo ſupported by the proviſions I 'before recommended on the ſubject of guarda coſta. For 'as the fiſhery of bacalao was not begun, or even diſcovered, 'in Newfoundland, but ſince the year 1500, and Spain, tho' 'much more populous, was able to ſupport herſelf for above 'a thouſand years without this commodity, and all the time 'obſerve the vigils and days of abſtinence in the Catholic 'religion; it ſhould, methinks, be no extraordinary or dif-'ficult thing to maintain ourſelves without it, and ſo well, as 'to find no want of it. But I ſhould not adviſe this ſtep 'till the other, which I have pointed out as a means likely 'enough to relieve, in a great meaſure, the misfortunes we 'ſuſtain from the large conſumption of ſalt-fiſh from abroad, 'prove to be inſufficient for the purpoſe.'

* This author, after ſhewing the advantages which the Engliſh, French, and Dutch have derived from their fiſheries, takes no little pains to animate the Spaniſh nation to purſue the like policy; and that the Biſcayners and Guipuſcoans, in particular, ſhould vie with the Engliſh in their fiſhery on the banks of Newfoundland: and, indeed, that they ſhould vigorouſly attempt to ſupply themſelves with fiſh of all kinds, inſtead of purchaſing thoſe of England, Scotland, Ireland, Newfoundland, or New England. And policy of this kind, it is ſaid, has already taken root in Spain, together with many other maxims, which are likely to prove of no advantage to theſe kingdoms: all which ſhall be taken due notice of in their proper places, in order to forewarn the nation of the danger, before it may be too late to prevent it.

Further REMARKS.

Theſe ſentiments were introduced in my firſt, and ſecond editions of this work; and that they were not groundleſs ſuggeſtions of the author's, the laſt war has ſufficiently evinced; for when Spain joined France, they made pretenſions to a ſhare of the FISHERIES at NEWFOUNDLAND: but ſuch care has the court of GREAT-BRITAIN taken of this eſſential point in the DEFINITIVE TREATY of Peace between his BRITANNIC MAJESTY, the MOST CHRISTIAN KING, and the KING OF SPAIN, concluded at Paris, the 10th day of February, 1763, as to obtain the following explicit RENUNCIATION, with regard to the FISHERIES OF NEWFOUNDLAND, on the part of the King of Spain; which is contained in the XVIIIth article of the ſaid Definitive Treaty, viz. HIS CATHOLIC MAJESTY DESISTS, AS WELL FOR HIMSELF, AS FOR HIS SUCCESSORS, FROM ALL PRETENSIONS, WHICH HE MAY HAVE FORMED, IN FAVOUR OF THE GUIPUSCOANS, AND OTHER HIS SUBJECTS, TO THE RIGHT OF FISHING IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF THE ISLAND OF NEWFOUNDLAND. See the article AMERICA for the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. See alſo the article BAHAMA ISLANDS, with reſpect to the ſaid DEFINITIVE TREATY, and BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

'In chapter 29, the Spaniſh author further ſays, which treats 'of the conduct and practice of the Engliſh, and the vaſt 'ſums of money they drain from us by the ſale of bacalao *, 'and other ſalt-fiſh, I introduced a few remarks and obſer-'vations upon this calamity, and the means which might be 'employed to prevent it in a great meaſure, and which I 'was led into by the reflections of an Engliſh writer, well 'affected to the crowns of Spain and France, in his treatiſe, 'under the title of The intereſt of England ill underſtood in 'the war of queen Anne. And as we ſhould never loſe ſight 'of the principal of thoſe obſervations and reflections, which 'are the foundation of the particular proviſion in ſupport of 'the fiſheries, I have thought proper to repeat ſome part of 'them in this place.

* If the Spaniards ſhould attempt to lay any prohibition, or higher duties on our fiſh, than what are now laid by ſubſiſting treaties, they may be ſoon convinced that the crown of Great-Britain has it in her power to retaliate upon them, by proper meaſures to be taken in regard to the regulation of our own commerce. Theſe things we ſhall humbly ſuggeſt, in the ſequel of this work, under their eſſential heads.

'This miniſter invites the biſhops to allow, throughout the 'year, the uſe of certain kinds of food prohibited upon par-'ticular days, and means, no doubt, eggs, cheeſe, milk, and 'butter, which ſome religious foundations are reſtrained from 'many days in the year. In all probability, he would alſo 'inſinuate, that the prohibition of fleſh might be moderated, 'as it is in the provinces of the crown of Caſtile, in reſpect 'to Saturdays, and may be extended to the crown of Arragon. 'In all theſe meaſures he apprehends the pope will readily 'concur, for the reaſons he there gives, and others hinted at; 'and, without daring to ſpeak out, was, in my opinion, will-'ing to tell us, that, if by ſuch means we would reduce the 'conſumption of bacalao, and other cured fiſh, which they 'bring us from the North and Newfoundland, we might take 'away this great advantage from the Engliſh, and other 'powers, who, by the ſale of them, drain us of millions of 'crowns, increaſe their own ſtrength, and ruin us. Theſe 'great diſadvantages ſo very much intereſt our conſcience, as 'well as all good policy, that they deſerve the particular at-'tention of all catholic princes, and eſpecially the pope. From 'the pious zeal of this holy father we have reaſon to flatter 'ourſelves, that, as ſoon as he ſhall be informed of theſe in-'conveniencies, he will allow, and even encourage, the 'meaſures that tend towards a remedy, even though it be 'neceſſary to ſubſtitute, in the place of numerous faſt-days, 'another ſpecies of abſtinence and reſtraint, that equally ad-'miniſters to the mortification of our ſouls, and does not 'turn out ſo much to the advantage of the rivals of the 'crowns and the catholic church, as thoſe frequent faſt-days 'do, by opening a way for the importation and conſumption 'of their ſalt-fiſh, which is a main branch of their commerce, 'and a great foundation of their riches and ſtrength.

'Though I have ſome reluctance at the thought of giving 'my ſentiments as to the generality of theſe points, that are 'of ſo delicate a nature, methinks I may, without any 'ſcruple, decide in one particular. It is to ſolicit the per-'miſſion of his holineſs to allow of fleſh in the kingdoms of 'the crown of Arragon, and in Navarre, upon thoſe Sa-'turdays that happen not to be particular vigils, under the 'reſtraints, and as it is practiſed, in the provinces of Caſtile. 'This I propoſe, both on the ſtrength of the ſolid and well-'known motives already given, and becauſe it would be no 'more than what has been eſtabliſhed for many ages, and is 'now practiſed in moſt parts of the kingdom of Spain, &c. 'As to the meaſures inſinuated in the reflections of this writer, 'which regard the taking off in part the prohibition of fleſh 'on ſome other days in the year, and permitting religious 'houſes certain ſorts of food, which they are reſtrained from, 'beſides fleſh, during the whole, or moſt part of the year, I 'judge it a point of greater moment, and to require more 'deliberation. The utmoſt I ſhall have courage to offer is, 'that there be laid before his holineſs the reaſons already 'given, and others that will occur, in particular the increaſe 'of ſtrength, and other advantages, which ſeveral nations, 'by means of the great conſumption of ſalt-fiſh in Spain, 'acquire and employ againſt the catholic church itſelf; that, 'in his wiſdom, he may vouchſafe to determine upon, and 'eſtabliſh, thoſe proviſions, which he ſhall judge moſt ef-'fectual, and proper for a remedy; ſo far at leaſt, as to 'take off part of the inconveniencies that have been de-'ſcribed. For never ſhall we be able to find a more ſure 'way to ſucceed in redreſſing either the grievance itſelf, or 'it's accidental circumſtances, than by referring it intirely to 'the great piety, holy zeal, and infallibility of his holineſs.' Vide The theory and practice of commerce and maritime affairs, written in Spaniſh, by the late Don Geronymo de Uztariz, member of his Catholic majeſty's privy council, of the royal

royal board of Trade and the Mint, and his majeſty's ſecretary in the council and chamber of the Indies.

BISCAY NEW, a province of Mexico in America, is bounded by New Mexico on the north; by part of Florida and Panuco on the eaſt; by Zacatecas on the ſouth; and by Culiacan on the weſt. It is about 100 leagues from eaſt to weſt, and 120 from north to ſouth. It's being well watered makes it fruitful, and it's ſituation a little above the tropic of Cancer renders it temperate. Though there is a mountainous barren part, called Topia, yet moſt of the country is pleaſant, abounding with all manner of proviſions; and, though it has no communication with the ſea, yet the inhabitants are very rich, not only in corn, cattle, &c. but alſo in ſilver mines, and ſome of lead. The natives are warlike, and not yet totally reduced. They have four great towns between the mines of Zacatecas and thoſe of this country, which lie in moraſſes, and are therefore difficult of acceſs. St Barbara, St John's, and Ende, are three little towns, built by the Spaniards, for defence of the large ſilver mines in the neighbourhood, and are therefore well inhabited, particularly the firſt, which lies 240 miles north of Zacatecas. The ſecond lies about 70 miles north of it, and is equally rich in mines, and the third, which is alſo rich in mines, lies 70 miles weſt of the ſecond. Theſe are the mines, which Hennipin ſays, M. de la Salle aimed at, when he ranged the coaſt of Florida, on pretence of ſeeking the mouth of the river Miſſiſſippi.

BISKET, or BISCUIT, from biſcoctus, twice baked. It is ſaid particularly of that bread, which is made for voyages by ſea, eſpecially for long voyages. This ſort of biſket muſt be baked four times, whereas the other ſorts are baked but twice.

Biſket, in order to be good, ſhould be made ſix months before it is put on board a ſhip: it muſt be of good wheat flour, thoroughly cleaned from bran, and with a well leavened dough.

Water and biſket are the moſt neceſſary proviſions in the fitting out of ſhips, and, if either of theſe two be loſt or ſpoiled, the crew languiſh away, and often periſh moſt miſerably, eſpecially if they happen to be bound for a very long voyage.

The reader may find under the article WATER, which is the moſt proper to be taken on board, the precautions that are to be taken, in order to preſerve it, or to prevent it from running; and even the ſeveral experiments which, from time to time, have been tried, to take away the brackiſhneſs of ſea-water, and render it, if poſſible, fit to drink.

With regard to biſket, we ſhall preſent the reader here with ſeveral obſervations, deſigned to ſhew how to make good biſket: they are extracted from a memorial drawn up by Monſ. Savary de Ganche, who had, during ten years, the general direction of the victualling-office of the marine in France, for the diſtrict of Breſt.

The manner of making ſea-biſket.

WHEAT.

Wheat is the only corn that muſt be uſed in the making of ſea-biſket. It ought to be choſen of a red grain, ſmooth, and, above all, well cleaned from grit, tares, or vetches, and all ſorts of weeds.

New wheat, three or four months old, is the beſt; that of a year old may alſo be uſed, provided it has not been heated, and was kept in very dry and well aired barns, not raiſed in too high a pile, that is, of two feet and an half at moſt, and has been well ſtirred once in a fortnight.

When the corn is taken out of the barn, it muſt be expoſed to the air, and ſtirred with a ſhovel two or three times at leaſt. When it is heated on the ſurface only, which may be known by it's not ſmelling ſour, and if the grains do not ſtick to each other, when preſſed with the hand, it muſt be kept a month in the barn, and continually ſtirred, 'till it be well recovered.

FLOUR.

Flour which comes from abroad, eſpecially if it be well cleaned from bran, is not ſafe to make biſket of, if it be but never ſo little heated. It's muſty ſcent may be taken away, by often ſtirring and ſifting it; but you can never take off it's bad taſte, which afterwards infallibly ſpoils the biſket. Nevertheleſs bread may be made of it, becauſe it is not neceſſary to keep it long.

It is better to have flour from abroad with the bran, becauſe it is not ſo apt to heat in the boats, when it is well packed up, that is to ſay, well beaten and preſſed in the ſacks.

Good flour muſt have no manner of ſmell; when put upon the tongue, it ought to taſte like a nut; and, when ſifted, it muſt be like velvet to the touch: when it is ſandy, that may be found out, by putting a handful of flour into a baſon of water; the ſand, if there be any, will all ſettle at the bottom.

When the flour comes from the mill, the bran mixed with it ought to be flat and broad; nor ſhould it be ſifted 'till about a fortnight after it is ground, that the moiſture it has contracted at the mill may dry off, and ſo paſs the better through the ſieve, which is abſolutely neceſſary for the making of good biſket.

LEAVEN.

In order to make the leaven, a piece of dough weighing about 20 pounds, from the leaven of the laſt oven-full, ſhould be prepared, which is done, we'll ſuppoſe, between 11 and 12 at noon. At four of the clock in the afternoon, the baker puts that dough into the kneading-trough, and pours over it about five gallons of very clean water, a little more than lukewarm, but hotter in winter than in ſummer; he dilutes afterwards with the quantity of flour neceſſary to conſume all that water, ſo as to make a dough neither too ſoft nor too hard. This new maſs of dough weighs commonly about ſixty pounds. In this condition the baker puts it in a corner of the kneading-trough, ſurrounding it on all ſides with flour to ſupport it. When it has been riſing five or ſix hours, the ſame operation is repeated, by adding water and flour to the dough, which increaſes it by about thirty pounds.

About one or two of the clock the next morning, which is the time when the baker would knead, he adds thirty pounds more to the paſte, which makes a maſs of 120 pounds; of this he takes half to ſerve as leaven for the next baking, and at the ſame time kneads the remaining ſixty pounds in the kneading-trough for the firſt oven-full, and, for the other bakings he is to make during the reſt of the day, he increaſes the leaven at once with ſixty pounds, which he puts into a tub or bucket, in order to continue the ſame alternately, except that for the laſt oven-full he adds but twenty pounds to the leaven, which is to ſerve for beginning the ſame operation again the next day.

Care muſt be taken that the baker, out of lazineſs, does not knead two ovens-full upon the ſame leaven, for in that caſe the biſket would be apt to corrupt. Let it be obſerved, that in winter there ought to be $\frac{1}{8}$ part of leaven more than in ſummer. It muſt at all times be covered with ſome woollen ſtuff, as cloth, frize, or rateen, but never with linnen, to prevent a cruſt being formed upon it.

In ſome places, and particularly at Breſt, they follow another method, but which is not reckoned ſo good. They take, indeed, twenty pounds for the firſt leaven, which they increaſe to ſixty pounds, as in the former operation; but then, within ſix hours after, they increaſe it to two hundred pounds, which they divide into four parts, two of which they put at the ends of the kneading-trough, one into one bucket, and another of twenty pounds into another. The three former parts ſerve to knead the three firſt bakings, or ovens-full: and the laſt parts to compoſe three other parcels of leaven for three other bakings, with a quantity of twenty pounds weight of leaven for the next day's baking.

DOUGH.

The kneader takes water out of the kettle or copper which he uſed for the leavens, and dilutes that which he would employ into a whitiſh and thick water; and, putting flour to it two or three times, he kneads it quickly and very ſtrongly with his fiſts, going from the right to the left, and beginning again from one end to the other, and from the left to the right, he reduces it to one ſingle maſs. After this, he flattens it with the palm of his hands, and divides it into four parts: then he flattens them again, and handles and kneads them with all his might one after another; afterwards he puts them again upon one another, and, having cleaned his kneading-trough, he puts the whole into one maſs, turning and kneading it ſtill. After which he cuts it again into four parts, which having rejoined for the laſt time, he takes the dough out of the kneading trough, and puts it upon a table, where another workman turns it often and often, during a quarter of an hour, 'till it be very firm and dry.

CAKES.

As ſoon as the dough is in the above mentioned condition, it muſt immediately be made into cakes. Each cake muſt weigh fourteen ounces of dough, that, when baked, it may weigh eight, or at moſt nine, ounces.

The dough is cut into pieces of that weight, which pieces are afterwards turned upon the table with the hands into balls, to make it harder ſtill: then it is flattened with a kind of rolling-pin, the middle of which is thicker than the two ends, obſerving, however, to make the cake ſomething hollow in the middle; as for the edges, they muſt be even, and be above one third part of an inch thick.

The cake being thus formed, they make the mark, a croſs, or ſome other figure, upon it, with an inſtrument for that purpoſe; after which they turn it on the other ſide, laying it upon the table, as near as poſſible to thoſe that are already made; finally, a little before they put it into the oven, they prick it four or five times with an iron inſtrument that has three points.

Before they prick the cakes and put them into the oven, they muſt let them reſt half an hour upon the table, or even more, if need be, that they may have time to riſe, which the baker ought to know and direct.

At Breſt, they put the cakes into the oven, as ſoon as they are pricked, without letting them reſt or riſe, becauſe they

pretend they are ſufficiently furniſhed with leaven, and in that caſe they do not cover them.

Oven.

For the firſt oven-full, they muſt begin to heat the oven, as ſoon as they begin to work the dough with the rolling-pin; and they know that the oven is hot, when the roof of it is of a whitiſh aſh-colour. But for the other oven-full they do not warm the oven, but after they have rolled the dough, or a little ſooner or later, according as the baker thinks fit, or as the dough requires it, and the oven is not to be quite ſo white. It muſt be obſerved, that for the firſt oven-full they may heat the oven with green wood, becauſe it has time to dry and burn: but, for the others, the drieſt wood is the beſt, becauſe the dough requires to be ſoon put into the oven, leſt it ſhould dry too much.

The building of an oven.

It muſt not be above two feet and an half high, taking a perpendicular line from the key-ſtone of the roof to the center of the floor: the floor muſt have bricks well burnt, two inches thick, and eight inches ſquare. In ſuch places where they have broad flat ſtones, which can bear the fire, they uſe them rather than bricks; the mouth of the oven ought to be two feet wide, by two in the baſe: the bottom or floor muſt have five feet and a half in depth, by nine in breadth. The fire ſhould be put at two feet diſtance from the mouth of the oven, to come directly to the mantle-piece of the chimney: that mantle-piece muſt be raiſed about eight inches higher than the mouth of the oven; the oven muſt be covered.

The baking of the cakes.

After the fire is taken out of the oven, and it has been well ſwept, the baker thruſts the cakes into the oven the one after the other, on an iron or wooden ſhovel, obſerving to place them regularly, ſo that there may be no void ſpace between them.

He afterwards ſhuts the oven very cloſe, and puts a few ſhovels-full of live coals againſt the door: a quarter of an hour after he opens the oven, to ſee whether the biſkets begin to colour: if he finds it ſufficiently coloured, he leaves the oven open for half a quarter of an hour, during which he takes away the coals from before the door, which he ſhuts again. When the cakes have remained in the oven a full quarter of an hour longer, he takes out ſome of the cakes which were firſt put in, and breaks them to ſee whether they be baked. When they are ſo, the edges are reddiſh within; and the little crumb which remains in the middle, is ſpongy but dry. They put their hand upon that crumb, and, if they obſerve any moiſture in it, it is a ſign that the cakes are not baked enough; and they muſt leave them in the oven, as long as they judge it neceſſary to dry up all the moiſture.

Store-Rooms.

As ſoon as the biſkets are taken out of the oven, they carry them out into the ſtore-room, which has been well cleaned, and warmed during four days. The ſtore-rooms, to be good, ſhould be built over the ovens, wainſcoted at top and bottom, and on all ſides, and the joints of the boards well caulked.

When the ſtore-room is full, it is never to be opened but to take out the biſket. It requires a month to cool it, and another month to make it ſtale enough to be ſent on board.

Obſerve, that it is cuſtomary in Provence to put the biſket into a large airy loft, where they reckon it cools better and more naturally that in the ſtore-rooms, where it is ſhut up with all it's heat; and they take care to ſhut the windows of thoſe lofts, in damp or rainy weather.

Bakers.

Three bakers, or journeymen, are ſufficient for each oven; namely, a head-man, who puts the cakes into the oven, as ſoon as they are pricked, and two kneaders, each of whom is to knead three ovens-full alternately, and help in doing the reſt of the work. In Provence they have but five journeymen for two ovens, namely, one head-man and four kneaders. At Breſt, the cuſtom is, that the ſame kneader kneads the ſix ovens-full for the day, and the other the ſix for the next day; which is the reaſon why the dough for the laſt baking is not ſo well worked, becauſe the kneader grows tired.

Remarks upon the ſhipping of biſket.

It ought to be ſhipped in fine dry weather, in flat-bottom boats, very tight, in which it ſhould not continue long.

The ſtore-rooms in the ſhips ought to be well wainſcoted and caulked, and warmed during ſix days and ſix nights with live coals, after which they muſt be left to dry three or four days, that the moiſture drawn in by the fire may evaporate.

The ſtore-rooms muſt afterwards be lined with good mats from top to bottom, and on all ſides: it has been obſerved in France, that the mats made in Provence are better for that purpoſe, than thoſe of the weſt.

After the biſket is put into the ſtore-rooms, and they have been cloſely ſhut, they muſt not be opened but one after another, as occaſion requires, and the biſket muſt be taken out only at the opening of the ſcuttles.

All wheat, rye, barley, malt, beans, peaſe, and all other ſorts of corn and grain, ground or unground, and bread, biſket, or meal, may be exported free of all duties, 12 Car. II. 11 and 12 Will. III. 1, 5, 6, and 7 of Anne.

BISMUTH. Authors give ſuch different accounts of biſmuth, that it is a difficult matter to know exactly what it is. Some make a metal of it, and pretend, that, towards the latter end of the ſeventeenth century, there was a mine of it found in Bohemia. Others make only a ſemi-metal of it; ſome place it in the rank of a bare mineral; finally, ſome would have it to be nothing elſe but a mixture of tin, tartar, and ſalt-petre, a work of art rather than nature.

Among ſo many contradictions, there are ſome people, who, doubtleſs, by a kind of accommodation or compromiſe, chuſe rather to follow a mean opinion between all, and imagine that there is a natural and an artificial biſmuth. This is the opinion we ſhall follow in this article, 'till the ſubject be better cleared up.

The natural biſmuth is a mineral body, but half metallic, which wants perhaps but a little more coction and maturity, to be perfect tin: and, indeed, it is thought to be the marcaſite of that metal.

Biſmuth hath ſometimes it's own proper mine, if it be true that ſuch a mine was found in Bohemia, as has been obſerved above, and as we read in Monſieur Furetiere's Dictionary, who quotes the authority of one Alonſo Barba. But it is chiefly found in tin-mines: it's ſubſtance is hard, ponderous, and brittle, of a large gloſſy white, and ſhining grain.

Dr Woodward, the Engliſh philoſopher, places the biſmuth in the fifth claſs of foſſils, and among the minerals, n. 9.

It is likewiſe called by ſome tin-glaſs, becauſe, being broke, it ſhews many ſmall bright particles, poliſhed like glaſs; but this is an abſurd appellation, being metallic, though it is capable of vitrification, and that poſſibly may have given riſe to that name.

The pewterers ſometimes uſe it inſtead of regulus of antimony, as do the letter-founders, in caſting their types. By chymical preparations they extract from it flowers and a magiſtery, which they call white of pearl; it is uſed to beautify the complexion, and preſerve the ſkin. But as it is certain, that it has an arſenical quality therein, it cannot be ſafe to uſe as a medicine in any ſhape: by no means, 'till it is ſkilfully prepared by an able chemiſt.

The artificial biſmuth is very much like the natural, with regard both to it's form, and to it's property and uſe. It is made, by reducing tin into ſmall bits, or very thin laminæ, or plates, and cementing it with a mixture of tartar, ſalt-petre, and arſenic, placed alternately in ſeveral ſtrata, or layers, in a crucible, over a naked fire. There is a great deal of this biſmuth imported into France from England, but it has a reddiſh caſt, becauſe of the copper, which the Engliſh are ſaid to mix with it's compoſition. That which is made at Paris, is clearer and whiter.

It muſt be choſen in fine, broad, white, and very brittle ſcales.

BISTI, a ſmall coin of Perſia. Some accounts, which come from pretty good hands, place the biſti among the current ſilver coin which is ſtruck in Perſia, and make it worth one ſol and four or ſix deniers French money; (that is to ſay, a little above three farthings of our money.) Others, who deſerve, perhaps, more credit, and, among them, Sir John Chardin, ſpeak of the biſti only as a money of account. They call it indeed dinar-biſti, and make it be worth ten ſimple dinars: ſo that the toman, which is alſo a money of account, being worth 10,000 ſimple dinars, it will be worth but 1000 of thoſe which are ſurnamed biſti.

BITCHEMARE, a kind of fiſh which is ſalted and dried like cod. It is catched in ſome places on the coaſt of Cochinchina, and is part of the trade which the Cochinchineſe drive with China. It pays duty of importation at Canton at the rate of four mas per pic, and ſeven per cent. for freight. The Dutch import a great deal of it into China. It is bought for two pattacks per pic at Batavia, and ſold again for about four taëls at Canton.

BITTACLE, a ſea-term, ſignifying a frame with two ſtories, placed in the ſteerage, before the place where the ſteerſman ſtands, by the miſſen-maſt. It is all made of boards faſtened together with wooden pegs, without any iron, to prevent the direction of the needle of the compaſs, which is incloſed in it, from being altered by the proximity of that metal. They alſo put a clock or watch in it, with a candle or lamp to light the ſteerſman.

In large ſhips, beſides this bittacle, they have another for the pilot or mate.

BITTS, are two perpendicular pieces of timber in the fore-part of the ſhip, bolted to the gun-deck and orlope-beams, their lower ends ſtepping in the foot-walling, the heads of which are braced with a croſs-piece, and, when ſeveral turns of the cable taken over them, is for ſecuring the ſhip at an anchor; there are generally two pair of them; beſides, there are others upon the upper deck, which are fixed by the main and fore-maſt, and called the topſail ſheet, and jeer-bitts.

BITUMEN, an inflammable ſubſtance, fat and unctuous. They extract an oil from it, and it diſſolves in water: yet oily matters and alkali ſa'ts are the natural diſſolvents of bitumen.

The druggiſts diſtinguiſh three ſorts of bitumen, which they ſubdivide again into ſeveral others; namely, hard, ſoft, and

liquid, or oily bitumen. Among the hard bitumen, they reckon the yellow amber, (perhaps we might more juſtly place amber-greaſe in that claſs) jet, aſphaltos, or bitumen of Judæa, piſſaphaltos, pit-coal, the black-ſtone, and ſulphurs. The ſoft are Maltha, bitumen of Calao, of Surinam, and of Copal. Laſtly, the naphtha of Italy, and the petroleum, are reckoned among the liquid bitumens.

Of theſe bitumens ſome are foſſils; others ſwim on the ſurface of the waters of ſome lakes and ponds, and others iſſue out of the earth, almoſt after the manner of ſprings.

There are ſome bitumens ſo hard, that they are uſed in forges like coals. There are ſome ſo binding, that they may ſerve inſtead of mortar in building: with the latter were built the famous walls of Babylon. Some again are ſo liquid, that they are burnt in lamps inſtead of oil.

The bitumen of Auvergne is a kind of pitch of a pretty bad ſmell; it is to be found between Clermont, Montferrant, and Riom. There is ſuch a great quantity of it, and iſſues out of the ground ſo plentifully, as to render the roads ſometimes unpaſſable.

It is this drug dried and hardened, which ſome hawkers ſell for the true aſphaltos, or bitumen of Judæa, to ſuch apothecaries and druggiſts, as are not well acquainted with drugs: but it's intolerable ſtench is ſufficient to prevent any body's being impoſed upon by thoſe cheats.

Remarks.

Dr Woodward, the Engliſh philoſopher, in his Methodical Diſtribution of Foſſils, claſs the 4th, divides the bitumens thus: There are, ſays he, two ſorts of them. Some are liquid, as the naphtha, the petroleum, and the oil of Barbadoes. Others are what we properly call bitumens, and are of different conſiſtences: the ſpecies of them are as follow: 1. The bitumen properly ſo called, or the aſphaltos: 2. The piſſaphaltos, which, according to Dioſcorides, was found in the Ceraunian mountains: 3. Amber: 4. Jet: 5. The Ampelitis: 6. Pit-coal.

It appears from thence, and from what has been obſerved above, what difference there is between the diviſion of bitumens made by traders, and that made by natural philoſopher's. But thoſe druggiſts, as well as apothecaries and chemiſts, who deal in drugs, ſhould by no means be ignorant of their quality, leſt they poiſon as many by the bad medicines, as empirics do BY THE UNSKILFUL APPLICATION OF GOOD.

It is very well known, that there is in iron a great deal of an oily ſubſtance of bitumen, which even is but little connected or incorporated with the other principles: or rather, which abounds too much to be every where cloſely connected with them. It is that kind of bitumen which ought to be the baſe or chief ingredient of the Pruſſian blue, which we ſhall ſpeak of under it's proper article. But it is too compact, and it's blue colour too much involved. It muſt be extended and very minutely divided, which cannot be done but by a diſſolution. The bitumen of iron is conjoined with a yellow metallic earth; it is not looked for in the ſubſtance of iron, but in vitriol, where the iron is already very much attenuated, and very finely diſſolved, and conſequently it's bituminous qualities already much opened and extended.

Sulphurs formed in the earth of fire, acid ſalts, water, and a very fine earth, are termed bitumens. Bitumens, diſſolved in a large quantity of water, form the oils or petrolea. But, if they are mixed with earth and ſalt, the ſolid bitumens are produced, differing from one another in degrees of purity, according to the quantity or groſſneſs of the earth, or different degrees of mixture. Thus foſſil coals, jet, amber, and the ordinary bitumens, and bituminous earths are produced. If there be but a ſmall quantity of earth and much acid ſalt, the common mineral ſulphur, or brimſtone, is formed. If the mineral original bitumen is joined to a fuſible earth, capable of vitrification, it communicates to it a metallic form; that is, the ſound, brightneſs, ſoftneſs, ductility, malleability, and all other ſenſible qualities of metals.

This origin of mineral bitumens may be confirmed by many experiments. If a mixture of equal parts of oil of vitriol and oil of turpentine be digeſted together for a conſiderable time in a very gentle heat, and afterwards diſtilled in a retort, there will come over firſt a yellowiſh liquor reſembling petroleum, both in ſmell and conſiſtency. What remains in the retort, is at firſt a ſoft bitumen, and afterwards turns into a hard blackneſs, eaſily inflammable, and, when burnt, ſmelling exactly like foſſil coal. But, if the diſtillation be continued, a white acid liquor will next be obtained, which, by ſtanding, lets fall a grey powder, which is true common brimſtone, a yellow ſubſtance of the like nature adhering likewiſe to the neck of the retort; what is left behind being a black, ſhining, light ſubſtance, diſperſed in thin diſgregated ſtrata, like talc, in which, by the help of the load-ſtone, iron may be diſcovered. Thus therefore all theſe bitumens may be artificially produced; and the analyſis of the natural ones further confirmed the manner of their formation. Thus true chymical philoſophy ſhews, that metals are nothing but bituminous ſubſtances, which have undergone a long digeſtion; for by depriving them of their ſulphur they are reduced to aſhes, and then to glaſs. This is eaſily ſeen in the imperfect metals. For if any of them be expoſed to a long heat, and eſpecially to the rays of the ſun, collected by a large burning glaſs, the ſulphureous principles fly off, and only a calx, or aſhes, will be left behind; which, in a more vehement degree of fire, are preſently vitrified; and, by reſtoring the ſulphur, this glaſs may again be reduced to metal.

Theſe conſiderations merit the attention of all, who would underſtand the true nature of bodies, and their true philoſophical method of analyſis. But the ſolution of metallic bodies may be carried infinitely farther than this: and, if what we ſhall communicate upon theſe points, meet with the ſame general approbation, as the reſt of our labours have had the honour to do, 'tis poſſible, that ſome future work may afford more light into the true experimental philoſophy, than any that has gone before it. Our philoſophy in this ſhall be applicable to trade principally.

BLACK, an opake and porous body, which abſorbs the rays of light, and reflects none, or very few of them: of all colours, black (if it can be called a colour) is the darkeſt, and the moſt oppoſite to white.

There are ſeveral ſorts of blacks uſed in trade, which ſhall be explained hereafter, namely, dyers-black, German-black, ivory or velvet-black, bone-black, hart's-black, Spaniſh-black, lamp-black, earth black, and currier's-black.

Dyers-BLACK, otherwiſe good black, is one of the five ſimple and mother colours uſed in dying.

It is made differently, according to the ſeveral qualities of the ſtuffs that are to be dyed. For ſtuffs of a high price, as woollen cloth an ell and a half, or an ell and a quarter wide, after the Spaniſh or Dutch make, cloth of Languedoc, Sedan, Abbeville, Elbeuf, Roan; ſerges of St Lo and Beauvais, broad and narrow rateens, fine woollen druggets, and ſome others; they muſt uſe a black made of the beſt woad and indigo, inclining to a bluiſh-brown.

The goodneſs of the compoſition conſiſts in there being not above ſix pounds of indigo ready prepared to each ball of woad, when the latter being in the tub begins to caſt it's blue flower, and in not being heated for uſe above twice: after which it muſt be boiled with allum, tartar, or aſhes of lees of wine; then maddered with common madder, or the cruſt of fine madder; and, laſtly, the black muſt be given with gall-nuts of Aleppo, or Alexandria, copperas, and ſhumac.

To bind the black, and prevent the ſtuffs from ſmearing, and ſtaining one's hands or linnen, when uſed, they muſt be well ſcoured and cleaned in the fulling-mill, when white, before they are put into the dye; and afterwards they muſt be well beaten in water with the feet, then maddered, and, when dyed black, they muſt be well waſhed, 'till they yield no more powder.

As for more indifferent ſtuffs, ſuch as ſmall rateens, bays, flannels, ſerges of Aumale and Mony, ſhalloons, ſtamines, and even blankets, it is ſufficient that they be well blued with woad, and afterwards blacked with galls and copperas, becauſe ſuch ſtuffs cannot pay for the expence of maddering, and of the other operations which ſtuffs of a higher value undergo. No ſtuff ought to be dyed immediately from white into black, but muſt abſolutely be firſt dyed blue.

All that we have been obſerving concerning dyers-black, agrees with the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th articles of the general regulations for dyers in France, made in Auguſt 1669. There are ſome other ſorts of black, which though prohibited by the ordonnances, have, nevertheleſs, wrongfully crept amongſt dyers, as, for inſtance, that which is made with alder-bark, the ſtuff that ſettles at the bottom of the grinder's trough, which they mix with the filings of iron, or braſs. There is likewiſe the Jeſuit's black, which is made with the ſame ingredients as the good black, but without having firſt dyed the ſtuff blue. In order to make this ſort of black, they make the ingredients diſſolve in water, which has been firſt prepared by making it boil during four hours; after which, they let it cool 'till the hand can bear it; then they put the ſtuff into it, taking it out, and putting it in again, ſix times, or more. Some pretend that this method of dying black is better than any other: but it is hardly to be believed; ſince, when ſtuffs have been thus dyed immediately from white to black, without paſſing through the intermediate blue, they can take but a bad and unſettled black. For which reaſon the 12th article of the abovementioned regulations forbids, under very ſevere penalties, the dyeing of any ſtuff from white into black.

It is ſaid, that the Jeſuit's black had that name given it, becauſe the Jeſuits were the firſt inventors of it, and do ſtill dye their ſtuffs after that manner in their convents, where they keep dyers, to whom they pay wages.

Grey is a ſhade of black, from the lighteſt colour, which is the white-grey, to the deepeſt, which is the black-grey: ſuch are pearl-grey, lead-grey, lavender-grey, beaver-grey, pigeon-grey, ſlate-colour, cheſnut-grey, brown grey, &c.

By ſtat. 23 Eliz. cap. 9. ſect. 3. No cloths, kerſeys, bays, friſadoes, hoſen, or any other things in nature of cloth, ſhall be maddered for a black, except the ſame be firſt grounded with woad only, or with woad and ancle, alias blue Inde, unleſs madder be put in with ſhumac, or galls, upon pain that the dyer ſhall forfeit the value of the thing dyed, the one moiety

moiety to the queen, and the other moiety to him that will ſue for the ſame.

Sect. 4. It ſhall be lawful to dye gall-black, ſhumac-black, alias plain black, wherein no madder ſhall be uſed.

Stat. 13 Geo. I. cap. 24. ſect. 1. If any perſon ſhall, within England, Wales, or Berwick, dye black any bays, or other woollen goods, as madder-blacks, the ſame not being dyed throughout with woad, indigo, and madder only; or ſhall dye black any cloths, long-ells, bays, or other woollen goods, for woaded blacks, the ſame not being woaded throughout; he ſhall forfeit for ſuch falſe maddered-blacks as follows: viz.

For every long bays, containing 70 yards, 44 s.

For every Colcheſter bays, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards, 20 s. and ſo in proportion for bays, or other woollen goods.

For every cloth dyed black, without being woaded throughout, containing 44 yards, 40 s.

For every piece of bays falſly dyed, as aforeſaid, containing 70 yards, 30 s.

For every Colcheſter ſhort bays, containing 35 yards, 12 s.

For every perpetuana, or ſtuff falſly dyed, 4 s. and ſo in proportion for any other woollen goods deceitfully dyed for woaded-blacks.

Sect. 2. All woollen goods, which ſhall be truly maddered-black, ſhall be marked with a red roſe and a blue roſe; and all woollen goods which ſhall be truely woaded black throughout, ſhall be marked with a blue roſe: and, if any ſhall counterfeit the ſaid marks, or ſhall affix any ſuch mark to any of the goods falſly dyed for maddered or woaded-blacks, ſuch offender ſhall forfeit 4 l. for every piece of goods to which the ſaid mark ſhall be affixed.

Sect. 3. If any perſon ſhall uſe logwood in dying of blue, he ſhall forfeit 40 s. for every piece of cloth ſo dyed, containing 44 yards; and 22 s. for every long piece of Bocking bays; and 22 s. for every Colcheſter, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards; and 4 s. for every perpetuana, or ſtuff, containing 24 yards; and ſo in proportion for all other woollen goods.

Remarks.

The art of dyeing all kinds of woollen, ſilken, and cotton manufactures is none of the leaſt curious, and the leaſt important; nor is it yet brought to the laſt perfection, perhaps, in this nation, nor with materials ſo cheap as could be wiſhed and deſired for the general benefit of our manufactures and the kingdom. Wherefore, under the article of Dyeing, we ſhall not only give an ample account of the art, as it at preſent ſtands, but ſuggeſt ſuch hints and obſervations as may have a tendency to it's improvement.

In the interim, I ſhall only intimate, that, as a thorough ſkill in this art depends upon a well-grounded knowledge in the chymical philoſophy, we ſhall here deſcribe the nature and cauſe of blackneſs, upon theſe principles.

If fire, determined by the ſun, be received on the blackeſt known bodies, it's heat will be long retained therein; and hence ſuch bodies are the ſooner and the ſtrongeſt heated by the ſame fire, as alſo the quickeſt dried after having been moiſtened with water; and it may be added, that they alſo burn by much the readieſt: all which points are confirmed by daily obſervation. Sir Iſaac Newton accounts for this extraordinary ſuſceptibility of heat in black bodies from hence, that the rays of light, falling on them, are neither reflected from them, not tranſmitted through them; but, entering the bodies, undergo a great number of reflections and refractions within, 'till the motion be ſpent, and, conſequently, their heat, &c. loſt; i. e. according to him, 'till they ceaſe to be fire: but what motion and heat they themſelves loſe, the body receives and retains.

To confirm which, let a piece of cloth be hung in the air, open to the ſun, one part of it dyed black, another part of a white colour, others of ſcarlet, and divers other colours; the black part will always be found to heat the moſt, and the quickeſt of all, and the others will each heat the more ſlowly, by how much they reflect the rays more ſtrongly to the eye; thus the white will warm the ſloweſt of them all, and next to that the red, and ſo of the reſt in proportion, as their colour is brighter or weaker. This is well known to the nations who inhabit the hotter climates, where the outer garments, if of a white colour, are found beſt to preſerve the body from the ſcorching ſun, and black ones, on the contrary, to increaſe the heat.

And it has often been obſerved, by the makers of woollen cloth, that if, at the ſame time and place, they hang out two whole pieces, the one black, the other white, the former will ſmoak, and dry quickly, but the latter retains it's water long; and cloths of other colours will dry ſo much the ſlower, by how much their colours are the brighter,

It has alſo been long obſerved, that all black bodies are ſooner kindled and ſet on a flame by the ſame fire, than thoſe of any other colour. The duſt of white touchwood will hardly catch, and ſuſtain a ſpark of fire ſtruck on it; whereas, if the ſame be ſtruck on a black coal, the duſt thereof will readily receive, and keep it up, ſo that, in a ſhort time, the whole duſt will be on fire. The pureſt and whiteſt linnen will hardly maintain a ſpark thrown on it; but if the like ſpark be caſt on tinder, which is only the coal of linnen kindled, and again extinguiſhed, it will immediately catch through the whole body of it. Nor would gunpowder, were it not for it's black colour, be ſo eaſy to kindle; as appears by the powder made of white nitre, ground with ſulphur *. The gardeners have long complained, that their white ſoils would not warm with the ſun, except in the very utmoſt ſurface; whereas the black grows ſo hot as even ſometimes to burn the roots of plants.

* The compoſition of gunpowder is ſix parts of well-purified ſalt-petre, one of ſulphur, and one at leaſt of charcoal. See Gunpowder.

Laſtly, the philoſophers have confirmed the matter by experiments. If a piece of white paper be laid on the focus of a burning-glaſs, it will be long before it heat, and very long before it take fire; and, as ſoon as kindled, quits it's whiteneſs, turns brown, and then black, immediately after which it catches flame: whereas, if a black paper be laid on the ſame focus, it immediately takes fire. We have ſome extraordinary things on this head in the experiments of the academy del Cimento *.

* Sagg. Eſperienz, 266, 267.

German-Black, called by ſome Frankfort-Black, is made with the lees of wine burnt, waſhed afterwards in water, then ground in mills made for that purpoſe, with ivory, bones, or peach-ſtones, alſo burnt. This is the black uſed by the rolling-preſs printers. It commonly comes from Frankfort, Mentz, and Straſburg, either in lumps or in powder. However, they make ſome in France, which is not inferior to that of Germany, but with regard to the difference there is between the lees of wine it is made of. That of Paris is even more valued than that of Germany, and the rolling preſs printers find it ſofter. The black made in the kingdom of France is diſtinguiſhed by the name of the cities where it is made; as black of Paris, black of Troyes, black of Orleans. There are at Paris but three workmen who make that kind of black.

The German black muſt be choſen moiſt, but yet it muſt not have been wetted; it ſhould alſo be of a fine ſhining black, ſoft, friable, or eaſily reduced into powder, light, and with as few ſhining grains as poſſible; it ſhould alſo have been made with ivory, which is better to make a fine black than either bones or peach-ſtones.

Ivory-Black, otherwiſe Velvet-Black, is ivory burnt, commonly between two crucibles well luted together; which ivory being become quite black, and reduced to thin plates, or ſcales, is ground in water, and made into troches, or little cakes, to be uſed by painters in their works, and by jewellers who ſet precious ſtones, to blacken the bottom, or ground of the collets, wherein they ſet diamonds to give them what they call the teint, or foil.

Ivory-black, in order to be good, ought to be tender, friable, and to have been thoroughly ground.

The apothecaries, and thoſe who burn ivory, ought not to throw away the burnt ivory that falls to the bottom of the retort, it being as proper to make ivory-black, as even new ivory, provided it be prepared as has been above directed.

Bone-Black, is made with the bones of oxen, cows, &c. burnt, and well ground. In order to be good, it muſt be tender, eaſily reduced to powder, ſhining, and to have been ground very fine. It is very much uſed in painting, but is not ſo much valued as ivory-black.

Hart's-Black, is that which remains in the retort after the ſpirits, volatile ſalt, and oil, have been extracted from hart's-horn. Theſe remains are ground with water, and make a kind of black, almoſt as fine and as good as ivory-black, and which painters may very well uſe.

Spaniſh-Black, thus called, becauſe the Spaniards firſt invented it, and it moſtly comes from Spain. It is nothing but burnt cork: it is uſed in ſeveral works. In order to be good, it muſt be very black, light, and have as little ſand or gravel mixed with it as poſſible.

Lamp-Black, or Lam-Black is the ſooty ſmoke of roſin. There is ſome in powder, and ſome in lumps. That in powder is ſold by the buſhel, or in ſmall oblong barrels; that in lumps is ſold by the pound. It is made of ſmall bits of roſin, melted and purified in iron veſſels; then they ſet fire to it under a chimney, or in any other place made for that purpoſe, which has been lined on top with ſheep-ſkins, or pieces of coarſe linnen cloth, to receive the vapour or ſmoke, which is the black. They gather it afterwards by ſhaking the ſkins, or cloths, and put it into barrels, or other veſſels, to keep it. With us it is commonly made from the reſinous and fatty parts of wood, burnt under a kind of tent, which receives it: but the greateſt part is brought from Sweden and Norway.

It is uſed on various occaſions, particularly in making printer's ink: for which purpoſe it is mixed with oil of walnuts, or linſeed, and turpentine, all boiled together.

The grocers, and others who trade in lamp-black, muſt take notice that it takes fire very eaſily, eſpecially that which is in powder; and when once it is on fire, it cannot be extinguiſhed without very great difficulty; therefore they cannot be too cautious upon that account. The beſt method to extinguiſh the fire in the lamp-black in powder, is to ſmother it with

wet linnen, hay, or ſtraw; for water alone hardly produces any effect in this caſe.

Earth-BLACK, is a ſort of coals found in the ground, which the painters or limners, uſe to paint in freſco, after it has been well ground.

There is a ſort of black made with gall-nuts, copperas, or vitriol, ſuch as common, or writing-ink.

They alſo make a black with ſilver and lead, which ſerves to fill up the holes or cavities of ingraved things.

Curriers-BLACK. The workmen who curry the leather after it is tanned, give the name of firſt black to the firſt blackening they apply to the cow's, calf's, or ſheep's leather. That black is made with gall-nuts, ſour beer, and old iron. The ſecond black is compoſed of gall-nuts, copperas, and gum Arabic. It is upon this laſt black the gloſs is ſet.

BLACKS, the inhabitants of Nigritia, or Negroland. See NEGROLAND.

BLACK SEA, or EUXINE SEA, lies between Europe and Aſia, being bounded by Tartary on the north; by Circaſſia, Mingrelia, and Georgia, towards the eaſt; by Natolia, or the Leſſer-Aſia, on the ſouth; and by Romania, Bulgaria, and Beſſarabia, towards the weſt; extending from the 29th degree of eaſt longitude to the 44th, and from the 42d to the 46th degree of north latitude, intirely ſurrounded by the Grand Signior's dominions, who enjoys the ſole navigation of it, but diſturbed ſometimes by the excurſions of the Coſſacks, who iſſue out of the mouth of the Boriſthenes, and commit great ravages on the coaſts of Turky. The Ruſſians did attempt to eſtabliſh a navigation on this ſea, but have been obliged, by late treaties, to deliver up all the fortreſſes they had erected on the coaſts of the Euxine, and abandon this navigation. It is reckoned a tempeſtuous ſea by the Turks, from whence it is ſaid to have obtained the name of the Black Sea, and there are not many good harbours in it.

REMARKS.

The principal trade of this Sea has been, for ſome ages, only among the Turks, for ſupplying the city of Conſtantinople with corn, cattle, and other proviſions. All the tribute of the kingdom of Hungary, when they had it, and the provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia, which they have ſtill, except what was paid in cattle driven by land, was brought down the Danube into the Black Sea, in great quantities. But great part of that revenue being cut off from the Turks by the conqueſt of Hungary, and eſpecially of Belgrade, that commerce is very much interrupted.

However, there is a trade eſtabliſhed from Vienna and Hungary to the Black Sea, and ſeveral merchants are pretty largely engaged therein. Another trade had like to have been opened, as before obſerved, in this ſea for the Muſcovites, by the taking of Aſoph: but the late czar's loſing that town by the treaty on the banks of the Pouth, put a ſtop to it. But this town, ſtanding on the frontiers of Ruſſia againſt Turky, has been ſeveral times taken and retaken of late years; but in the laſt peace, concluded in the year 1739, between thoſe two powers, it was agreed that the fortifications ſhould be demoliſhed, and the town remain ſubject to Ruſſia. So that by the river Boriſthenes, which runs into this ſea, the commerce with Turky is in ſome meaſure maintained; whereby the Ruſſians ſupply the Turkiſh court, and the great baſſa's, with the rich furs of Siberia, ſuch as ermins, ſables, and the black fox in particular, which is ſo great a rarity, that none but the Grand Signior, the grand vizier, the boſtangi baſſa, and the mufti, are admitted to wear them. Theſe the Turks pay all for in ready money, they having no goods to barter with the Muſcovites. They alſo buy honey in large quantities of the Muſcovites; and this trade is chiefly carried on by the baſſa of Bender, whoſe ſituation is very convenient on the river Bog, between the Danube and the Nieper.

By the paſſage of this ſea, alſo Conſtantinople receives all the fine choice goods of Perſia and Armenia; the center of which commerce ſeems to be Erzerum, to which the Perſians come freely, and ſome of the Mogul's ſubjects, likewiſe, from India itſelf.

It ſhould be remarked here, that this trade from the Black Sea to Conſtantinople would be very advantageous to that city, provided the Boriſthenes were navigable up the country any conſiderable way, as rivers of that magnitude generally are: but the navigation is entirely interrupted by huge immoveable rocks, cauſing vaſt cataracts, or water-falls, which it is not poſſible any boats ſhould paſs: ſo that, although it be a river of an exceeding long courſe, and would open an extenſive commerce to Muſcovy, Tartary, Poland, and Lithuania, if it was a clear ſtream, it is in a manner uſeleſs for about 60 miles from it's entrance into the ſea.

The Turks have, it ſeems, ſome correſpondence this way with the Tartars, who bring honey and wax in great quantities, and ſome corn: but the chief of their trade is to ſell their ſlaves; that is, the poor Chriſtians who fall into their barbarous hands upon their excurſions and inroads into Poland, or among the Coſſacks or Muſcovites; in which caſes they tell us they have carried away 30,000 people at a time. This commerce is from the Crim Tartary alſo, and by the Streights of Caffa.

BLADE, a thin piece of metal, extended either in length or breadth, beaten with a hammer, or caſt into a mould.

It is ſaid particularly of that part of a ſword, dagger, bayonet, or other offenſive weapon, that pricks or cuts. We alſo ſay the blade of a knife, the blade of a razor, to ſignify that part of thoſe inſtruments which cuts or ſhaves. All thoſe ſorts of blades are of very fine tempered ſteel, or at leaſt of iron very well ſharpened. In France the blades of weapons are made by the furbiſhers, or ſword-cutlers, and the blades of knives by the other cutlers.

The good qualities of a ſword-blade are, that it be eaſy to bend, and well grooved. Among the foreign blades imported into France, thoſe of Damaſcus and England are moſt valued; and, of thoſe that are made in the kingdom, the blades of Vienne in Dauphiné.

Sword-blades, and other weapons, pay duty of importation in France like hard-ware that is to ſay, 10 livres per 100 weight, acording to the decree of the 3d of July, 1692; and 3 livres duty of exportation, or even but 2 livres, when they have been declared to be for foreign parts, and a licence has been obtained to export them; for they are a contraband merchandize, as to exportation, according to the ordonnance of 1687. In England they may not be imported to be ſold, bartered, or exchanged, upon forfeiture, or their value.

BLAFART, a ſmall coin, current at Cologne. It is worth 4 albus's; and the albus 9 deniers and $\frac{1}{13}$ French money; that is to ſay, ſomething more than a farthing of our money.

BLAISOIS, a territory of Orleanois in France, is bounded on the north by Beauce; on the eaſt by Orleanois, properly ſo called; on the ſouth by Berry; and on the weſt by Touraine.

At BLOIS, the chief trade conſiſts in wine and brandy, which they ſend to Orleans, Paris, Tours, Angiers, Laval, and even into Holland. There were formerly here a great many tanners; but the high duties laid upon leather have made that manufactory ſink to nothing. They made here ſome ſerges, and other woollen ſtuffs; but that branch of their trade is not conſiderable. This city is alſo noted for the beſt watches in the kingdom.

ST. DIE, is noted for the excellenteſt wine produced in it's territory.

BLANC, a ſmall copper coin, which was formerly current in France for 5 deniers tournois.

The pieces of three blanks were formerly of copper, allayed with a little ſilver, and were worth 15 deniers. The old ones had 6 deniers and three grains fine, and the new ones but 3 deniers and 18 grains.

The pieces of 6 blancs, worth 30 deniers, have alſo been ſtruck with ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs ſilver. There was an edict of Lewis XIV, made in Auguſt 1657, ordering the ſtriking of thoſe pieces; but it was repealed by letters patent of November the ſame year.

In 1670, under the ſame reign, they ſtruck pieces of three blancs, of the ſame ſtandard with the old ones; they were called pieces of three blancs with edgings. All the reſt had but 3 deniers and 17 or 18 grains fine.

But afterwards thoſe pieces have no longer been a current coin, but only a money of account; and they ſtill ſay three blancs, to ſignify 15 deniers, and ſix blancs for 30 deniers, for two ſols and ſix deniers; but the latter is much more in uſe than the former.

BLANCHING, the art or manner of making any thing white. See BLEACHING.

The blanching of iron plates is performed with aqua fortis and tin.

The blanching of woollen ſtuffs is done with ſoap, or with chalk, or with ſulphur, or brimſtone. The beſt blanching of woolen ſtuffs in France is done at Paris.

The blanching of ſilk is performed with ſoap and brimſtone. See BLEACHING.

The blanching of wax is by expoſing it to the ſun and dew. That of Chateau-Goutier is the fineſt and moſt valued in France.

Blanching of copper is done various ways, ſo as to make it reſemble ſilver. The common ſophiſticating method of blanching it, is principally founded upon the admixture of arſenic, firſt fixed with nitre. For inſtance, ſuppoſe they melt four ounces of copper, into this they throw half an ounce of arſenic, fixed by being previouſly melted with nitre, and being brought into a ball or two with ſome fuſible mud and lime-water. Theſe they let flow together, with care to prevent any coals from falling into the veſſel, for a quarter of an hour; then, pouring out the matter, they try it upon the touch-ſtone, as alſo upon the anvil, to ſee if it be white and malleable. If they find it ſufficiently ſoft, they reſerve it for uſe; but, if brittle, they again melt it for a while, along with a little nitre, or Venice glaſs. And if the copper thus blanched be mixed with half, or a third part of pure ſilver, it preſerves a very good colour in wearing.

Thoſe methods of blanching copper are of a more curious nature; which may be attempted, according to the direction

of Becher *, with the earth of ſalt of tartar, thus: ſtratify any quantity of copper plates, with half their weight of the earth of red tartar, which has been firſt extracted with vinegar, and freed from the ſalt, though this not totally, but only by a ſingle affuſion. Let them be kept ignited together, in a cloſe veſſel, for the ſpace of five days and nights; then take out the matter, and commit it to the cupel.

* See Becher Concord. Chym. pag. 576, 578. no. 33. and 40.

To this purpoſe it ought to be recollected what Becher obſerves ‖ as to this earth of tartar, viz. that, being melted along with gold, it gives a whiteneſs thereto, that is not eaſily got off again. And in another place he expreſsly declares what is the real ſubſtance and uſe of this earth †.

‖ Phyſic. Subterran. §. 5. cap. 3. §. 72.
† See Phyſic. Subterran. §. 5. cap. 2. §. 50.

Becher has another curious method of blanching copper, which he delivers with an aſſurance of it's uſefulneſs ‡.

‡ Supplem. ii. in Phyſic. Subter. §. 55.

The method is this: mix luna cornua with an equal, or double weight of tin; put the mixture into a concave globe of copper, conſiſting of two hemiſpheres, the lower whereof may be thus filled with the matter. Then lute the juncture, and, with a moderate fire, keep the globe of a dull red heat for ſome hours. After it is cold, open it, and what you find at the bottom melt with a reducing flux, and you will again find, ſays he, the weight of the ſilver employed; whilſt the upper hemiſphere remains ſo blanched and penetrated with the ſpirit, or fume, of the volatile mixture, as to afford a large part of good ſilver proof.

This experiment might be otherwiſe made, in the way of cementation, by forming ſome copper-plates into a hollow figure, placing them at the bottom of a crucible, and laying the mixture of luna cornua, and tin, or iron-filings, upon them; over which again ſome pure plates of copper may be laid, and the whole cloſed with a cover of copper, or earth; then, luting the juncture, the operation may be performed in the manner directed.

Ludovicus de Comitibus affords another method of whitening copper, where he tells us there is a certain wonderful ſolutive liquor, which can totally extract the greenneſs of copper, and leave the bottom of it white, ſo as never to turn green again: but prove a new metal, different from any of the ſeven.

But, as we have no particular knowledge of this liquor, we can ſay nothing ſatisfactory about it, unleſs perhaps, it be of the ſame nature with that compound ſpirit mentioned by Mr Boyle *, as procured from nitre and ſalts, in the preparation of the bezoar mineral, of which we ſhall ſhew the effect in treating of the tinctures of gold. We have therefore, only to add, that, as it manifeſtly appears, from the context of the author, that the copper is only hereby changed in it's colour, but not at all in its corruptibility, upon calcination, and teſting with lead, it has not the genuine properties of ſilver, and therefore can only paſs for a concealment, or ſophiſtication, though an uſeful one indeed, for the making of veſſels, &c. of ſuch a white metal. See the articles COPPER, METALLURGIST, METALLURGY.

* See Boyle's Abridgm. vol. i. pages 260, 261.

REMARKS.

Ought not thoſe dabblers in the ſophiſtication of the inferior metals, in order to make them imitate the ſuperior, to put people upon their guard in their dealings for wrought plate? For by theſe deceitful artifices may not perſons pay ſix, ſeven, and eight ſhillings an ounce for wrought plate, that may not be worth half the money, the hall-mark being daily counterfeited by thoſe impoſtors? See the articles ALLOY, ASSAY, GOLDSMITHS-HALL, MINT, PLATE, REFINERS.

BLANCHING, in Coinage, is the operation performed on the planchets, or pieces of ſilver, to give them that luſtre and brightneſs the pieces of money have when they come from the Mint. They alſo ſometimes blanch pieces of plate, when they would have them continue white, or have only ſome parts of them burniſhed.

The blanching, as it is now practiſed, is performed by nealing, or heating, the planchets, or pieces of plate, in a kind of ſquare pan, without a handle, with a wood fire, in the manner of a reverberatory, that is to ſay, ſo as that the flame may paſs over the pan. The pieces being ſufficiently heated, and afterwards cooled again, are put ſucceſſively to boil in two other pans, which are of copper, and called boilers: in theſe they put water, common ſalt, and tartar of Montpelier. When they have been well drained of this firſt water in a copper ſieve, they throw ſand and freſh water over them, and, when dry, they are well rubbed with towels.

Another method of blanching planchets and pieces of plate, is to put them, after they have been heated, into a large veſſel full of common water, mixed with ſome ounces of aqua fortis, but in different proportions for gold and ſilver. For gold there muſt be eight ounces of aqua fortis, and for ſilver but ſix, to each pail-full of water. This method is but ſeldom uſed at preſent, becauſe it is too expenſive, and alſo becauſe the aqua fortis diminiſhes ſomething of the weight of the ſilver. See COINING.

BLANK. Thus merchants and traders call void or unwritten places, which are ſometimes left in their day-books, or journals, which is a very dangerous practice, on account of the ill uſe that may be made of it. Merchants books are conſidered as good vouchers in courts of juſtice, becauſe they are ſuppoſed to have been written ſucceſſively from day to day: but, as ſoon as there is any blank or void ſpace, found in them, were it but of two lines, as it ſometimes happens at the bottom of a page, the book deſerves no longer any credit. Arbiters, appointed to examine merchants books, ought carefully to obſerve whether the diſputed articles be not ſet down at the bottom of the pages, which is very ſuſpicious; and, in the report they make of the condition in which they found the books delivered to them, they are to declare, whether they found any blanks in them or not, and whether there is any probability that there were blanks left, which may have been filled up afterwards.

BLANK is alſo a piece of paper, at the bottom of which a perſon has ſigned his name, the reſt being void. Blanks are commonly intruſted in the hands of arbiters, or friends, to be filled up as they ſhall think proper to terminate any diſpute, or law-ſuit. A man muſt be thoroughly certain of the honeſty of thoſe whom he truſts with ſuch a blank.

A blank letter of attorney is one in which a void ſpace is left to be filled up with the name of the perſon who is to act.

With regard to bills of exchange, we ſay a blank indorſement, when a man only writes his name on the back of it, leaving an empty ſpace ſufficient to write either an order or a receipt. See INDORSEMENT.

Among merchants and traders in France, they call a bill or note in blank, one in which a void ſpace is left, to be filled, when thought proper, with the name of the perſon to whom the note or bill is to be made payable.

BLANK-LOTTERY, called in French BLANQUE, a kind of game of chance, to which ſome give the name of commerce.

The game of blank-lottery was introduced into France by the Italians who attended queen Catharine of Medicis thither.

That game, as it was then played, and of which Paſquin has given us a deſcription in the 49th chapter of the 8th book of his Recherches de la France, is nothing but what is now called a lottery, which ſince above half a century is become ſo common in France and elſewhere. See LOTTERY.

At preſent the blank-lottery is nothing like the common lottery, except that it is chance which diſtributes the lots in both.

In the blank-lottery, every perſon concerned is at liberty to try his good or bad luck, without waiting for the reſt of the company; and he may, if he pleaſes, reiterate the trial immediately, after every chance drawn, being only obliged to pay, for every chance he draws, the ſum to which the maſter of this lottery has taxed it.

The fund of the blank-lottery conſiſts commonly of ſmall jewels or toys of ſeveral ſorts, pictures, wearing apparel, merchandizes, and trinkets, the whole of little value, which are expoſed to view in ſome ſhop, to tempt thoſe who paſs by it.

As theſe blank-lotteries are commonly kept at the fairs in villages, ſo there are hardly any but the vulgar and country people who concern themſelves in that ſort of game, and take a diverſion in it; without conſidering that moſt of theſe lotteries are only bubbles and impoſitions, though they cannot be ſet up but with leave from the officers of the lords to whom the places belong where the fairs are kept.

The blank-lottery is drawn two ways; the one by a book or regiſter, the other by a machine or engine, which is ſomething like thoſe portico's, where people uſed to game very high at court, under the reign of Lewis XIV.

To draw the blank-lottery after this laſt manner, they throw an ivory or leaden ball into a funnel, which is ſuſpended over a table, divided into a great many rounds or rings, made ſomewhat hollow; and the round in which the ball ſtops, determines the player's fate; that is to ſay, that he gets nothing, if the ball falls into a blank round; and, if the ball falls into a black round, that is, into one marked with a number, he wins the lot to which that number refers, all the numbered rounds being black, and the reſt white.

There are few or none of theſe lotteries that are fair; for they who keep them know ſo well how to give a declivity to the white or blank, rounds, that it almoſt conſtantly draws the ball into them; ſo that he always keeps his toys, to the great amazement of the ſimpleton, who puts his money in ſuch a lottery.

As to the blank lotteries drawn by a book, there are ſome indeed, that are fair, and in which chance is not determined by artifice; but the ſafeſt is to miſtruſt them as well as the others, becauſe of the tricks that can be played into them.

If a man would keep one of thoſe blank-lotteries, he numbers all the lots that are to compoſe it. Thoſe numbers are afterwards marked upon the leaves of a large book of white paper, one number upon a leaf, taking care, however, that the ſmall lots be well intermixed with the great ones, that there may be more room for chance. In this book there are ſometimes above a hundred blank leaves, againſt a black or numbered one. The book being thus numbered, he who keeps the lottery, after receiving his money or perquiſite, preſents a long braſs needle to the drawer or gameſter, who pricks it into ſuch place of the book which he pleaſes, the book being held by the keeper of the lottery. If the leaf where the gameſter has ſtruck the needle proves blank, he gets nothing; but, if it has got a number, he has the lot thus numbered delivered to him.

One would think, from what we have juſt now ſaid, that the blank-lottery, drawn by a book, ſhould be free from all fraud and impoſition, and yet it is no difficult matter to cheat in it. The manner of preſenting the book to the drawer, and of opening it after he has pricked the needle into it, is none of the leaſt cunning tricks, which they who keep blank-lotteries, and who are all downright knaves, learn from the jugglers, to order it ſo, that the leaves pricked may always prove blank, or have ſometimes but very ſmall lots, that the lookers-on may thereby be encouraged to try their fortune.

BLANKET, a coverlid for a bed. A ſtuff made commonly of white wool, to cover beds with, in order to keep the cold out. They are made in a loom like cloth, with this difference, that they are croſſed like ſerges.

In order to adorn them, they work ſtripes of blue or red wool at each end, and a crown at each corner; with this difference, however, that the ſtripes are worked in the loom, and the crowns are worked with the needle, after the blankets are finiſhed, and before they are ſent to the fuller.

They alſo ſometimes work the name of the weaver upon them with yarn, and often alſo the name of the place where they have been wove.

When they come from the loom they are ſent to the fuller, and, after they have been fulled and well cleaned, they are napped with a fuller's thiſtle.

There is a great quantity of blankets manufactured at Paris and in ſome provinces of France, particularly in Normandy, Auvergne, and Languedoc. Moſt of thoſe that are manufactured at Paris, are made in the ſuburb of St Marceau. There are alſo ſome manufactories of them in the ſuburb of St Martin.

Of the blankets made in Normandy, thoſe of Dartenal near Roan are the beſt and the fineſt, the manufacturers mixing Engliſh and Spaniſh wool with that of France.

Thoſe made at Vernon, another town of Normandy, where they alſo make a great quantity of them, are leſs eſteemed, becauſe they mix no foreign wool with them.

The blankets of Dartenal are ſold at Roan and at Paris, and in time of peace are exported into foreign countries; thoſe of Vernon are ſold at Beauvais, and in the ſmall villages in the neighbourhood.

Beſides the blankets made in France, they alſo import thither a great many from foreign countries; and particularly from Catalonia, Spain, Flanders, and England.

Thoſe of Catalonia, which are very beautiful and fine, have kept the name of the province where they are manufactured. Some, however, pretend, that the name of Caſtalogne, or Caſtelogne, as others write it, comes from Caſtelana, which in Latin ſignifies lambkin's wool, of which theſe blankets are ſuppoſed to be made.

There are alſo blankets made with the hair of ſeveral animals, as of goats, dogs, and others.

BLANQUILL, a ſmall ſilver coin, current in the kingdom of Morocco, and on all that part of the coaſt of Barbary: it is worth about three halfpence of our money.

BLASTING, in minerology, is when the vein of a mine cannot be broke up with the ſpade, the gad, the ax, or ſoftened by fire, then blaſting is uſed; which is performed with gun-powder, as the moſt expeditious method of blowing up the mineral ſtone; by means whereof, much of the hardeſt rock may be ſhivered and ſplit in a very little time; a parcel of gunpowder being laid in a long hollow cut for the purpoſe, after the nature of a gun-barrel, and fired, as it were at a touch-hole; a ſmall vent, where the quick-match is applied, being left for the purpoſe, and the whole orifice being otherwiſe hard ſtopped up with clay. See MINEROLOGY.

BLEACHING, the art of whitening that which was not perfectly white, or not at all ſo: thus we ſay, to bleach linnen cloth, wax, iron in leaves, ſilks, woollen ſtuffs, &c. The different methods of bleaching or blanching wax, and iron in leaves, are explained under the articles of WAX and IRON. As to the methods of bleaching ſilks, linnen cloths, and woolen ſtuffs, we ſhall explain them in this article, there being no place in this dictionary, where it could be more properly done.

The method of bleaching ſilk.

The ſilk, being ſtill raw, is put into a bag of thin linnen, and thrown into a veſſel of boiling river-water, in which has been diſſolved good Genoa or Toulon ſoap.

After the ſilk has boiled two or three hours in that water, and the bag has been often turned, it is taken out to beat, and then is waſhed in cold water. When it has been thus thoroughly waſhed and beaten, they wring it ſlightly, and put it for the ſecond time into the boiling veſſel filled with cold water, mixed with ſoap and a little indigo; which gives it that bluiſh caſt, that is commonly obſerved in white ſilk.

When the ſilk is taken out of this ſecond water, they wring it hard with a wooden peg, to expreſs all the water and ſoap from it; after which they ſhake it to untwiſt it, and ſeparate the threads. Then they ſuſpend it in the air in a kind of ſtove made for that purpoſe, where they burn ſulphur: the vapour of which mineral, properly applied, gives the laſt degree of whiteneſs to the ſilk.

The method of bleaching woollen ſtuffs.

There are three ways of doing this. The firſt is with water and ſoap; the ſecond with the vapour of ſulphur; and the third with chalk, indigo, and the vapour of ſulphur.

Bleaching with ſoap and water.

After the ſtuffs are taken out of the fuller's mill, they are put into ſoap-water a little warm, in which they are again worked by the ſtrength of the arms, over a wooden bench; this finiſhes; giving them the whitening which the fuller's mill had only began. When they have been ſufficiently worked with the hands, they are waſhed in clear water, and put to dry.

This method of bleaching woollen ſtuffs is called the natural method.

Bleaching with ſulphur.

They begin with waſhing and cleaning the ſtuffs thoroughly in river-water, then they put them to dry upon poles or perches. When they are half-dry, they ſtretch them out in a kind of ſtove very cloſe, in which they burn ſulphur, the vapour whereof, ſpreading itſelf, ſticks by degrees to the whole ſtuff, and gives it a fine whitening; this is commonly called bleaching by the flower, or bleaching of Paris, becauſe in that city they uſe this method more than any where elſe.

Bleaching with chalk, indigo, and ſulphur.

When the ſtuffs have been well waſhed in clear water, they throw them into a bucket of cold water impregnated with chalk and a little indigo, wherein the ſtuffs are well ſtirred and agitated: then they take them out, and waſh them again in clear water, after which they hang them on poles: when they are half-dry, they put them into a ſtove, to make them receive the vapour of ſulphur, which finiſhes their perfect whitening.

This bleaching, which is not the beſt, though very agreeable to the eye, is called bleaching of Beauvais; becauſe the inhabitants of that city are the firſt who found out this method of bleaching woollen ſtuffs.

It muſt be obſerved, that, when woollen ſtuffs have once imbibed the vapour of ſulphur, it is a difficult matter to make it take a good colour in dyeing, unleſs it be a black or blue. The woolen dyers, in France, have the liberty to bleach all ſorts of linnen cloths, cottons, hemp, thread, camblets, ſerges, ratteens, new and old ſtamines, and even worſted ſtockings: Regulations of the month of Auguſt 1669, art. 55.

The manner of bleaching fine linnen cloths, with the method of preparing them, as practiſed in Picardy, and particularly toward St Quintin.

After the linnens are taken from the loom, they are put to ſoak in clear water for a whole day; when they have been well waſhed and cleaned of all the filth, they are taken out, and thrown into a bucking tub filled with cold lye, made of wood-aſhes and water, which has ſerved already.

When they are taken out of that lye, they are waſhed again in clear water, and ſpread in a meadow, where they are now and then watered with clear water out of ſmall canals, which are along the meadows. They water them with ſcoops, or hollow and narrow wooden peels, with a long handle: theſe ſcoops are called gieters by the Dutch, who pretend to be the inventors of them.

After lying a certain time on the ground, they paſs them through a freſh lye poured on hot: this lye is differently made, according to the condition in which the linnens are.

Being taken out of this ſecond lye, they are waſhed in clear water, and laid again on the meadow, all which ſeveral operations are repeated, 'till the linnen is perceived to have acquired the deſired degree of whiteneſs.

They

They are afterwards put into a ſoft gentle lye, to make them recover the ſoftneſs, which the former more ſharp and ſtrong lyes cauſed them to loſe; and afterwards they waſh them in clear water.

They next rub them with black ſoap, which begins to clean them from the greaſe they have contracted, and finiſhes whitening the ſelvages, which would never become perfectly white, without the help of ſoap.

Then they waſh them well to take off all the ſoap, and put them to ſoak in cow's-milk, the cream being firſt taken off. This perfects their bleaching, gives them all their ſoftneſs, and makes them caſt a little nap. Being taken out of the milk, they are waſhed again in clear water for the laſt time.

When they have undergone all theſe operations, they give them the firſt blue; that is to ſay, they dip them into water, in which a little ſtarch has been ſteeped with ſmalt, or Dutch lapis, of which the fatteſt and paleſt is the beſt, for the linnens muſt not have too blue a caſt.

The linnens being thus bleached after the manner we have related, the bleachers or whiteners deliver them into the hands of the merchants to whom they belong, who cauſe them to be properly prepared.

Theſe preparations differ, according to the qualities of the linnens: for there are ſome which ought to preſerve all their ſtrength, and others whoſe ſtrength muſt be leſſened to make them clearer.

Lawns, or cambrics, are prepared with ſtarch and pale ſmalt, diluted in clear water. They add ſome other drugs, the quantity and quality of which is left to the workmen's knowlege and capacity.

Being thus prepared, they are faſtened with ropes to poles fixed in the ground at ſome diſtance from each other. When they are three quarters and a half dry, they take them from the poles, and beat them on marble blocks with very ſmooth wooden mallets; which is done to beat down the grain, and give them a more beautiful appearance.

After this they fold them into ſmall ſquares, and preſs them. When they come out of the preſs, the merchants put their numbers upon them, which are wrote or ſtamped upon ſmall bits of parchment, and tied to the ſelvage of the piece with ſilk of different colours, according to the merchant's fancy, who calls that ſilk his livery; each merchant having his particular colour, which he never changes.

After this they wrap up the pieces very neatly in brown paper of Roan well beat, tied with ſmall packthread, which they commonly get from Holland. Then the linnens are in a proper condition to be ſold, packed up, and ſent to the places, where they are diſpoſed of

All the clear linnens of Picardy, ſuch as plain, ſtriped, or ſpotted lawns, are prepared after the ſame manner as thoſe before-mentioned: except that theſe are beat, and not thoſe of Picardy.

It muſt be obſerved, that, the fairer the weather is, the eaſier are the linnens bleached. In fair weather they may be bleached in a month's time, but, in foul weather, ſix weeks or more are hardly ſufficient to compleat the operation.

Let it alſo be obſerved, that all the linnens, of what kind ſoever they be, which are bleached in Holland, Flanders, and Picardy, are all dipped into cow's milk, after the cream is taken off; it being certain, that it is this white liquor which gives them that delicate whiteneſs, ſo much admired in the linnens which come from thoſe different countries.

It is cuſtomary with the merchants who ſend their linnens to the bleaching grounds of Flanders and Picardy, to mark them at each end with one or more letters of their names; which marks are made with thread of Epinay, worked with the needle; and, to faſten at the places where theſe marks are put, ſome ſmall twiſts made alſo of the ſame thread of Epinay; which twiſts have a certain number of knots, at ſome diſtance from each other; each knot having it's particular value, according as every merchant thinks proper. The marks are put, in order to know to whom each piece belongs, and the twiſts to remember the prices.

The method of bleaching common linnens, as it is practiſed in Anjou.

Immediately after the pieces are taken from the loom, they are carried to the whitſter, who puts them directly into a kind of wooden troughs, full of cold clear water, where, with wooden mallets, which are moved by a water-mill, they are ſo well agitated and beat, that they are inſenſibly cleared from all their filth and naſtineſs.

Being taken out of the mill, they are ſpread on a meadow, where the dew which they receive, during a week begins to bleach them.

Then they are put into a kind of wooden tubs, where they throw over them a common lee quite hot.

The linnens having thus gone through the lee, they take them out of the tub, to clean them again in the mill; then they ſpread them a ſecond time in the meadow, where they leave them a week, after which they give them a ſecond lee: all theſe ſeveral operations are repeated, 'till the linnens have acquired a perfect degree of whiteneſs. Then they fold them up after a manner proper to each ſort, and to the places for which they are deſigned.

REMARKS.

The linnen manufactures of theſe kingdoms, particularly of Scotland and Ireland, where it is their chief ſtaple, cannot be too much cultivated and improved; it being the quality, as well as the reaſonableneſs of the price, that will render it acceptable at home as well as abroad.

And, although every part of the proceſs of this manufacture ſhould be executed to a pitch of excellency, ſuperior to that of any other nation; yet, if the captivating beauty of whiteneſs alone was wanting, that would prove impediment ſufficient to the ſucceſs of this general manufacture. Yet, to give this colour to it's perfection, every other previous branch of the operation muſt be duly performed, or the admired whiteneſs cannot be obtained. Thus the imperfection, in this particular, both of the Scotch and Iriſh linnens, for a long time, conſiſted in the badneſs of the flax; which was by many aſcribed to the want of a proper water, and extraordinary ſecret materials, which the Hollanders and other nations had, and we could not come at. But, ſince theſe countries have fell into the Flemiſh method of raiſing and managing flax, they have the more eaſily come into their excellency of bleaching.

It is certain, indeed, that the goodneſs of the flax alone will not abſolutely ſupply the defect of unſkilful bleaching, or of bad or improper materials for that purpoſe, though it may contribute to ſet it off to greater advantage. In ſhort, in any manufactural operation, which conſiſts of a variety of different parts, the ſkilful performance of particulars affords reciprocal benefit to each other, and a general luſtre to the whole.

The Scots, by the aid of public encouragement, introduced and brought to perfection the art of bleaching fine linnen, as practiſed in Holland. At every public field, quantities of fine cloth have been brought to as good a colour, as any whitened in Holland. But they miſcarried now and then in ſeveral pieces; but it is now well known, that this is not owing to the want of ſkill or induſtry in the bleacher, but to the badneſs of the flax whereof the cloth is made.

Nor did they, 'till within theſe few years, bleach ſo cheap as the Hollanders, but, at preſent, if I am rightly informed, they do within a trifle, though, in that reſpect, they have not had ſuch public encouragement as the importance of the matter required, and a long while have laboured under many diſadvantages, which the Hollanders did not. But from the wiſdom and integrity of the truſtees, appointed for the care of their manufactures, and the extraordinary zeal and induſtry in their manufacturers, they have now arrived to a very great perfection in their method of bleaching for fine goods; for cloth under three ſhillings per yard cannot bear the expence of it, nor does ſuch cloth, indeed require ſo high a colour.

Although they have many public bleach-fields in Scotland, which are under very good regulations, and therefore excel in the art, yet there are alſo many private bleachers; and their cloth frequently differ ſo much one piece from another, that ſcarce one pack of goods of the ſame fineneſs, is to be had of the ſame colour; but, was all the linnen of Scotland whitened in public fields, under proper laws, regulations, and penalties, all the ſame ſtaple would be alſo of the ſame colour, and that country happily freed from the leaſt apprehenſion of the uſe of any prejudicial material, which will very much advance the value of the Scotch linnens of every kind.

The Iriſh linnen likewiſe, as well in the article of bleaching, as in all others, is arrived to a very great degree of perfection, and they are daily making advances therein as well as the Scots.

The truſtees of the linnen manufacture of this country have very happily experienced the effects of premiums, which they have wiſely given for the improvement of this manufacture in every branch thereof; and it is certainly the intereſt of England chearfully to promote the ſame, according to it's merit.

From the narrative before given of the art of bleaching, we find it depends upon water, chalk, ſulphur, lixiviums, ſoap, indigo; and I am inclined to believe, from what I have ſeen, on ſome other materials, foreign materials, which are not ſo commonly known, and which come conſiderably dearer than any of the reſt. But, if the particulars above enumerated be well choſen, and properly applied, it is more than likely that bleaching in theſe kingdoms might be carried on at leſs expence than it at preſent is. Wherefore to that end, I would humbly ſubmit the following ſhort obſervations to conſideration.

Qu. 1. Whether all waters, made uſe of in this operation, ſhould not be firſt duly examined by the hydroſtatical ballance, or by water-poiſes, in order to judge of the ſpecific gravity of the water propoſed, and thereby to determine it's goodneſs by it's lightneſs?

2. That as the ſofteſt waters, and thoſe the leaſt impregnated with groſs terreſtrial matter, are experientially found to be the beſt adapted for this uſe: Quere, Whether only uſing ſmall quantities of chalk, for the purpoſe before intimated, can anſwer ſo good ends, as if very large quantities of it

were thrown into, and to ſtand ſome conſiderable time in, theſe troughs, dikes, or canals, where water is uſed in bleaching grounds? And whether lixiviums made with this chalk and water would not be found more efficacious for bleaching, than the water uſed crude, as it commonly is?

The reaſon of this quere is grounded on the well known principle, that chalk will not only greatly ſoften the hardeſt water, but that it is alſo a precipitator of a great deal of groſs terreſtreity out of the water.

3. Whether lixiviums of a more kindly and efficacious nature, that what are commonly uſed, may not be made from fern-aſhes, or other vegetable natures? And whether theſe ſalts of aſhes, of what kind ſoever may be uſed, would not operate ſooner and more effectually if they were more cleanſed and purified than they generally are, and lixiviums made thereof after ſuch greater purification of the fixed ſalts?

4. Whether, according to the difference of the wood or combuſtible matter employed for the making of pot-aſh, not only better lixiviums, but better ſoaps for the uſe of bleaching, may not be prepared than what uſually are?

5. There are certain ſaline plants, that yield pot-aſh in abundance, as particularly the plant kali; there are others that afford it in leſs plenty, and of an inferior quality, as bean-ſtalks, &c. But, in general all vegetable ſubjects afford it of one kind or other, and may moſt of them be made to yield it tolerably perfect, by burning a quantity of the matter; even the loopings, roots, and refuſe parts of ordinary trees, vine choppings, &c.

6. But, beſides the difference found in different vegetables for producing the ſalt required, as ſome may naturally produce more or leſs of the ſaline, oily, or earthy principles, than others; another difference will ariſe, from the manner of burning the ſubject, according as this is done with a greater or leſs degree of fire, or acceſſion of the air. If a vegetable ſubject be burned in a cloſe ſtifling manner, to a grey, or ſomewhat blackiſh or brown aſhes, theſe aſhes, thus containing more of the oil of the ſubject, will afford a more unctuous ſalt, that makes better ſoap, as well as better lixiviums for the uſe of bleaching. But, if the ſubject be burned in the open air, which has every way free acceſs thereto, the aſhes will be white, or contain no part of the oil of the ſubject; and thus ſuch ſalt will prove fitter for the making of glaſs (where no oil is required) than of good lixiviums, or good ſoap for bleaching.

7. The fixed ſalts of all vegetables, when reduced to abſolute purity, or entirely ſeparated from the other principles, appear to be one and the ſame thing, at leaſt not manifeſtly to differ. Whence it ſhould ſeem, that, by a ſuitable management, good pot-aſh might be made in all places where vegetable matters abound, without our bleachers being under the neceſſity of purchaſing foreign pot-aſh at a great expence. For if by examining Ruſſia pot-aſh, for example, we find, that it's ſuperior excellence depends upon it's being clear of earth, or upon it's containing a large proportion of oil, or fixed ſalt, theſe advantages may, by properly regulating the operation, be given to Engliſh, Scots, or Iriſh pot-aſh; ſo as, perhaps, to render the latter as good as the former.

But, where the pot-aſh of any remarkably ſaline vegetable is to be imitated, as that of kali ſuppoſe, we would recommend a prudent ſprinkling of the ſubject with ſalt or ſea-water in the burning. And, by theſe means properly diverſified, any principle that is naturally wanting in the ſubject might be artificially introduced, ſo as to perfect the art of pot-aſh; whereon the art of bleaching ſo greatly depends, as alſo that of ſoap-making: for, without ſoap, we find that bleaching cannot be performed. So that it becomes the intereſt of the bleacher to be well knowing in the art of ſoap-making, or, at leaſt, he ought to be ſo ſkilled in the qualities of ſoap, as to be capable of judging, which kind is the fitteſt for the purpoſe of his operation, will come to him the cheapeſt, and will, in concert with the other meaſures requiſite to be taken, blanch his linnen to the utmoſt perfection.

To which intent ſee the article SOAP-MAKING, where I ſhall not only ſhew the ordinary proceſſes, but ſuggeſt ſome new methods, founded on experimental knowlege, to make ſoap better in quality, and cheaper than it generally is; as alſo to point out what kind of ſoap is the moſt naturally ſuited to the art of bleaching, and how bleachers may, at a ſmall expence, take ſuch meaſures with the ordinary ſoap they uſe, as to render it the more efficacious for the intention required. See the articles LINNEN, FLAX, SPINNING, LINT-MILLS, LAPPERS, CALLENDERS, RUBBING-MILLS, and WAX, for it's method of bleaching.

BLEACHING of hair, is performed by waſhing it, as linnen is done, in a ſuitable lixivious water, and afterwards ſpreading it upon the graſs. This lixivium, with the heat of the ſun and the power of the air, brings the hair to ſo extraordinary a whiteneſs, that the moſt experienced perſon may ſometimes be deceived therein; though the artifice is pretty eaſily detected, by boiling and drying it; which leaves the hair of the colour of a dead walnut-tree leaf.

There is likewiſe a method of dyeing hair with BISMUTH [ſee that article] which makes white hair, bordering too much upon the yellow, of a bright ſilver colour. This alſo may be tried by boiling, the biſmuth not being ſo fixed as to withſtand it.

BLIND, a kind of falſe light, which traders commonly have in their ware-houſes and ſhops, to prevent too great a light from diminiſhing the beauty and luſtre of their linnens and ſtuffs, &c.

BLOMARY, or BLOOMARY, the firſt forge in an iron-work, through which the metal paſſes, after it is melted out of the mine.

BLOOD-STONE, or the LAPIS HÆMATITIS, is a mineral of a reddiſh colour, hard, ponderous, with long pointed needles. This ſtone is brought from variety of places, there not being any iron mines wherein it is not found.

Chuſe theſe ſtones that are of the higheſt colour, with fine ſtriæ, or needles, and as much like cinnabar as may be.

This mineral has ſome uſe in medicine, as it is aſtringent, deſiccative, and good to ſtop bleeding, uſed externally, or given inwardly in fine powder; the doſe is from four grains to a drachm.

Mr Chares obſerves, in his Pharmacopœia Chymica, page 823, That if you drive it over the helm, in a retort with ſal armoniac, you may draw flowers of the colour and ſmell of ſaffron, which are what they call the flores aromatici philoſophorum: and moreover, you may make with it a chalybeate acid ſpirit; and, with ſpirit of wine, a tincture and flowers; both which have great virtues, according to the before-mentioned author, to whom we refer.

It is ſaid this ſtone has a ſovereign virtue to ſtop blood, from whence it derives it's name of lapis hæmatitis, or the blood-ſtone.

This ſtone being powdered, as the loadſtone, enters the compoſition of ſome Galenic medicines.

Goldſmiths and gilders uſe it to poliſh their works, whether it be upon ſilver, copper, iron, &c

There is alſo another kind of blood-ſtone, called the red crayon, uſed by ſuch as deſign and draw ſketches: it is like that of Spain, with this difference, that it does not appear ſo ſparkling with needles, but dull and unpoliſhed, like earth.

This kind is in England, and there are two different ſorts of it; the one good, which is pretty tender, ſoft and eaſy to ſaw or cut into crayons; but the other, not worth any thing, as being hard and gravelly, and will not admit of cutting.

In Bohemia, they extract an excellent iron from it; it is dug up in Germany, Italy, and Spain, but the laſt is eſteemed the beſt. Pliny diſtinguiſhes five kinds of it, according to the countries it comes from, and it's different colour and hardneſs: and others divide them from their outward appearance; ſome are uneven and angular, as thoſe of Spain; ſome cluſtered on the ſurface like bunches of grapes, and therefore called botryoides, as thoſe brought from Harts-foreſt in Germany; and others are formed in various convolutions, like the inteſtines, or the outer ſurface of the brain.

BLOWING of Glaſs, is performed by dipping the end of an iron blowing-pipe into the melted glaſs, and, by blowing with the mouth, forming the ſeveral works which are made in the glaſs-houſes, and manufactories of looking-glaſſes. See the article GLASS.

BLUE, that which is of a blue or azure colour.

Blue is one of the five ſimple and mother colours, which dyers uſe to compoſe the others.

Dyer's blue is made with woad that grows in Languedoc, and elſewhere: and ſmall woad, called vouede by the French, which comes from Normandy, and indigo brought from the Indies.

Of theſe three drugs, the common woad is the beſt, and the moſt neceſſary for dyeing. The vouede, though inferior in quality, ſtrength, and ſubſtance, gives alſo a pretty good colour, but the indigo gives but a falſe colour; it may, however, be uſed, if not above ſix pounds of it be mixed with each large bale of woad; and if it be not employed, 'till it has been well prepared in a great tub, and in the two firſt chafing-diſhes. It is prohibited to uſe it otherwiſe than with woad, and without being prepared with proper lees.

The vouede can never be employed by itſelf, as having too little ſubſtance; nor can it ſerve to correct the defect of indigo, unleſs it be mixed with woad: but, in caſe it be uſed with indigo only, it requires no leſs than one pound of indigo to 100 weight of vouede.

Some dyers, in order to heighten the colour of blue, uſe Indian and Braſil wood, and orchel; but, by the ordonnance in France of the year 1669, art. 5, they are prohibited to uſe any of theſe drugs, and even to have any by them.

The blue is rendered more lively and bright, if the ſtuff, after being dyed and well waſhed, be dipped into lukewarm water: but it is much better done by fulling the dyed ſtuff with melted ſoap, and waſhing it afterwards very clean.

Very deep blues are brightened by boiling the ſtuffs once in clear water, and then putting them into a decoction of cocheneal: but the azure, and lighter blues, would loſe their colour, and become grey, if they were put into ſuch a decoction.

Stuffs, dyed blue, paſs immediately from white to that colour,

without any other preparation but what they have undergone at the fuller's mill.

In order to know whether the ground blue has been given to the ſtuffs, the dyers are obliged to leave at the end of each piece a blue roſe of the bigneſs of a ſilver crown. Regulations of the year 1669, art. 34.

The maſter-piece of a dyer of the fineſt ſtuffs conſiſts in extracting from woad a blue dye, from the deepeſt ſhade to the the lighteſt, and applying it to woollen ſtuffs. Regulations of the year 1669, art. 5.

The blue never fails, if the colour of it be good.

Remarks.

The art of dyeing in general in France, it is well known, is brought to a very great degree of perfection; and it is not at all to be admired that it ſhould be ſo, when dyers, in regard to every capital colour, are under ſuch wiſe and politic regulations, in order to enable them to ſurpaſs all other nations therein: and nothing is more certain than that no meaſures can prove more effectually conducive to the reputation of their woollen and ſilken manufactures of every kind, than the ſuperior delicacy, beauty, and luſtre of their colours. By this means have they not only been enabled to beat England in their blacks and their blues, but in their ſcarlets, and every other colour; which, together with falling in with the taſte of the Turks in making cheaper ſcarlet cloths than we, have enabled them to ſupplant us ſo greatly in the Turkey trade? Does not this confirm the neceſſity that our artiſts and manufacturers of every kind ſhould have the utmoſt aſſiſtance from the learned; I mean the philoſophical learned, as well as due public encouragement from the ſtate, to enable them to keep pace with, if not emulate and outvie, our induſtrious rivals in the dyeing, as well as every other quality of their manufactures; they being the great ſource of that treaſure, and conſequently of that power, which this nation at preſent does, or may hereafter ever expect to enjoy? See the articles Artificers, Manufacturers, Mechanics, and the Royal Society of London.

Painters-Blue, is differently made, according to the different kinds of painting it is deſigned for. The ultramarine, blue aſhes, and ſmalt, are equally employed in oil, in freſco, in water-colours, and in miniature. Theſe three ſorts of blue, are natural, except the ſmalt, which has almoſt as much of art as of nature in it. There is alſo an ultramarine which is all factitious, the making of which is explained under it's article. Indigo prepared is alſo a blue colour, uſed both in oil and in miniature. See Indigo.

All theſe ſorts of colours, either in powder, or diluted with oil, are ſold in France by the druggiſts.

The blue uſed by painters in enamel, and on glaſs, is prepared by themſelves, each having his particular method of doing it.

They give the name of Dutch azure to that which is prepared at Amſterdam, and in ſome other places of the United Provinces: it is more proper for linnens than for painting.

Flanders-Blue, is a greeniſh-blue, ſeldom uſed but in landſkips. It is otherwiſe called green aſhes.

Blue. To give the blue to linnen ſignifies, with the whitſters, or bleachers, to dip it into water wherein they have diſſolved a little ſtarch with ſmalt, or Dutch azure. They commonly give two blues to cambrics: the firſt is the bleaching-blue, given by the whitſters; and the other the ſtiffening blue, given by the merchants. See Bleaching, where the method of bleaching fine linnens is mentioned.

Blue is alſo uſed in the bleaching of ſilks, to give them that bluiſh caſt, which heightens their whiteneſs and luſture. Silks are blued by dipping them in a tub of cold water, in which a little ſoap and indigo has been diluted.

Blue of Pruſſia, or Pruſſian Blue, is by ſome reckoned as good as the ultramarine for painting both in oil and in water colours.

Remarks.

The compoſition of this blue was a ſecret 'till the celebrated Dr. John Woodward, late profeſſor of Phyſic in Greſham College, London, publiſhed it in the Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London; and which was communicated to him from Germany in Latin, the ſenſe of which is as follows: Take of tartar and nitre crude, each four ounces; pulverize and mix them well together, and, by decrepitation, bring them into a fixed ſalt; which being powdered very finely hot, add to it four ounces of throughly dried ox-blood, reduced to fine powder. Calcine the mixture in a cloſe crucible, of which it may fill two third parts: then lightly pound the matter in a mortar, and throw it hot into two quarts of boiling water. Boil them together for half an hour; afterwards ſtrain off the liquor, waſh the black remaining ſubſtance with freſh water, and ſtrain as before; continuing to do thus 'till the water poured off becomes quite inſipid. Join the ſeveral liquors together, and evaporate them to two quarts.

Diſſolve an ounce of Engliſh vitriol, firſt calcined to whiteneſs, in ſix ounces of rain water, and filtre the ſolution.

Diſſolve likewiſe half a pound of crude allum, in two quarts of boiling water; and add to this the ſolution of vitriol, taken hot from the fire; pouring to them alſo the firſt lixivium whilſt thoroughly hot, in a large veſſel: a great ebullition and a green colour, will immediately appear. Whilſt this ebullition continues, pour the mixture out of one veſſel into another, and afterwards let it reſt; then ſtrain the liquor through a linnen cloth, and let the matter, or pigment, remain in the ſtrainer; from whence put it, with a wooden ſpatula, into a ſmall new pot; pour upon it two or three ounces of the ſpirit of ſalt; and a beautiful blue colour will inſtantly appear. Let the matter be now well ſtirred; then ſuffered to reſt for a night; afterwards thoroughly edulcorate it by repeated affuſions of rain-water, allowing a proper time for the precipitate to ſubſide, and thus, at length it will become exquiſitely blue. Laſtly, let it drain upon a linnen ſtrainer, and dry it gently. This makes the paint called the Pruſſian blue.

N. B. This operation greatly depends on the calcination. The crucible muſt firſt be ſurrounded with coals, at ſome diſtance; that it may grow gradually hot, and the matter leiſurely flame and glow. Let this degree of heat be continued 'till the flame and glowing decreaſe; then raiſe the fire again, that the matter they glow with an exceeding white heat, and but little flame appear above the crucible. Lixiviums ſhould be very hot, and mixed together with the utmoſt expedition.

Obſervations and experiments upon the foregoing preparation, by Mr. John Brown, chemiſt, F. R. S.

In going through the foregoing proceſs exactly, according to the proportions preſcribed, I obſerved that, by a calcination of ℥ iiij of blood dried, with ℥ iiij of ſal tartari, in two hours time that part of the operation was over, and a black ſpongy ſubſtance remained in the crucible weighing, ℥ iiij; a diſſolution of which being made in boiling water, and afterwards filtered, the remainder, when dried, weighing ℥ ix avoirdupoiſe, the former having been weighed by the ſame kind of weight. The loſs and filtration of the vitriol and allum is not worth taking notice of, they having both been very clean before they were diſſolved, the mixtures being made as preſcribed, with the addition of the ſpiritus ſalis, the product was a very fine blue, which, when well edulcorated by frequent waſhings, and afterwards throughly dried, weighed ℥ i, or a little more, and intirely anſwered the character the author gave of it.

Among the ſeveral experiments that were made with theſe liquors, I mean the lixivium with blood, the ſolution of vitriol, the ſolution of alſum, and the ſpirit of ſalt, though they always produced a blue; yet that blue differed in degrees of colour, according to the varied proportions of the vitriol and allum; and the colours produced from theſe ſeveral proportions were each of them improved by the addition of the ſpiritus ſalis. I ſhall mention only two of the ſeveral I tried; in one of which the allum was intirely left out, and a pale blue produced; in the other, the proportions of vitriol and allum were equal, and a very deep blue was produced. Theſe differences in colour, ariſing from the ſeveral proportions of the vitriol and allum, are only mentioned to confirm the truth of the author's preſcript, as being the moſt exact and beſt proportioned to produce the fineſt colour of any I have tried. The only misfortune he takes notice of as attending his preſcript, is what may happen in the calcination.

It would be curious to know what gave the firſt hint for the production of ſo fine a colour, from a combination of ſuch materials; eſpecially when we come to conſider, that the blood has the greateſt and principal ſhare in this ſurprizing change. I doubt not but blood, or fleſh of any kind, would produce the ſame effects, but have reaſon to believe the latter would not produce ſo beautiful a colour as the former. I purpoſely dried ſome beef, freed from it's ſkin and ſalt, and purſued the ſame courſe as with the blood; but there was a ſenſible difference to be obſerved during the calcination, and a very manifeſt one in the beauty of the two colours, when finiſhed.

To prove the ſhare the blood has in this change, the following experiments (ſome of which were ſhewed before the Royal Society of London) may be convincive. The ſolution of allum, mixt with that of the vitriol, produces no alteration of colour: if to theſe you add the ſpiritus ſalis, the appearance is the ſame; but, if to the whole you put the lixivium with blood, there precipitates a blue. If you ſubſtitute, inſtead of the lixivium with blood, a lixivium made with the ſame ſalt of tartar only, which then becomes an ol. tartari, and, after the ſolution of the allum with that of the vitriol, you pour on this ol. tartari, there follows, indeed, a precipitation, but of no colour; and, if you add the ſpirit of ſalt, it ſo ſtrongly attracts what is precipitated, as to render the muddy mixture perfectly clear. The very ſame effect will follow if any volatile alcalious ſpirit is made uſe of as a precipitant, or any volatile ſalts diſſolved in water; nor can the blood itſelf be ſuppoſed to communicate ſuch change from any ſuch properties, the heat of fire it undergoes in the calcination being ſufficient to throw them off.

In the calcination of the dried blood and ſalt of tartar it was obſerved, that there was a loſs of juſt half. It is difficult to determine

determine exactly what quantity of either was loſt by this calcination, but it will eaſily be granted, that there was loſt a far larger quantity of the blood than of the ſalt of tartar; and that is obvious from an experiment, by which, when the ſalt of tartar was calcined by itſelf, with the ſame degree of heat, it loſt leſs than $\frac{1}{8}$ part; whereas, when the dried blood was calcined by itſelf, it loſt more than $\frac{1}{8}$. The blood, in calcination with the ſalt of tartar, communicates it's tinging quality to the ſalt, or that quality is extracted from it by the ſalt, and paſſes with it in it's diſſolution in the boiling water. To prove this ſome dried blood was calcined by itſelf, and a ſtrong decoction was made of it in water, and afterwards filtred: this, when mixed with the former ſolutions, produced little or no alteration; but, on the addition of the ſpiritus ſalis, changed to an amber colour, without any precipitation. When this liquor was mixed with the ol. tartari, and poured to the former ſolutions, it cauſed a precipitation, but no colour; and the ſpiritus ſalis, as in the other experiment, made the liquor clear again, but left this alſo of an amber colour. The change of colour is not effected in any of the materials, except in that of the ſolution of vitriol; ſo that the allum ſeems only to be of uſe in fixing the colour, as it is often uſed by the dyers for that purpoſe, and the ſpiritus ſalis gives it a deeper dye: for, if the lixivium with blood be poured to the ſolution of allum alone, there will fall a ſediment a little on the purple, to which, if you add the ſpiritus ſalis, it changes the colour, and the ſediment is a brown.

So much the ſame changes will be produced if you pour the ſpiritus ſalis to the lixivium, but not the leaſt appearance of a blue; whereas, when the lixivium is poured to the ſolution of vitriol, there immediately follows the blue, which is ſtill heightened by the addition of the ſpiritus ſalis. It will not be improper to take notice, that, as the author orders all the liquors, except the ſpiritus ſalis, to be boiling hot, when mixed, ſo it is certain the colour is thereby more immediately produced, and looks more beautiful; but moſt of the experiments here mentioned were made with the liquors cold, and the colours came to their beauty with a little waſhing. In one of the experiments with the liquors cold, after the lixivium with blood had precipitated the blue in the mixture of allum and vitriol, by pouring in a little more of the lixivium, the blue all diſappeared, and an ugly muddy colour was left; but the addition of the ſpiritus ſalis ſoon diſcharged that, and the blue returned. In calcining the beef and ſalt of tartar, I found the matter left in the crucible to weigh juſt half of the whole mixture, as in that with the blood; but after the boiling it in water, the reſiduum in the filtre, when dried, was very near $\frac{1}{3}$ leſs in proportion than the other: from whence may be reaſonably inferred, that the ſalt of tartar holds a larger ſhare of the beef in the one operation, than of the blood in the other.

Having, in the former part of this account of the Pruſſian blue proved, by the experiments there mentioned, that the ſolution of vitriol was the only ſubject among thoſe ingredients, that the lixivium of blood produced this change of colour in it; and having ſince conſidered that the vitriol, made uſe of in this preparation, is no more than iron diſſolved by a liquor running from the pyrites, when expoſed to the weather, which is afterwards boiled up and ſhot into cryſtals; it ſeemed to follow, as a natural conſequence, that this metal is the ſubject on which the lixivium of blood produces the change; and this thought gave occaſion to the following experiments on metallic bodies, in order to obſerve if the ſame change of colour could be produced in any of them.

To a ſolution of ſilver in aqua fortis was poured the lixivium of blood, which occaſioned a coagulum of a pure fleſh colour. The lixivium made with fleſh produced a whitiſh coagulum, and the ol. tartari (which was continued to be uſed by way of compariſon with the other lixivia) a much whiter. By the addition of the ſpiritus ſalis to each of theſe, the bloom of the fleſh colour was taken off in the firſt, but ſuffered no other change. In the ſecond the coagulum was a little tinged with blue; and in the third, the white was manifeſtly improved. The bluiſh tinge in the ſecond of theſe experiments cannot intirely be aſſigned as the effect of the lixivium with ſilver; when thus diſſolved, whether precipitated with ſalt water or ol. tartari, it will, after it has ſtood ſome time, contract a bluiſh tinge, and this from an alloy of copper, from which it may not be intirely freed.

The ſame liquors were made uſe of to precipitate the mercury in the mercurius ſublimatus corr. diſſolved in water; the conſequence of which was, that the lixivium with blood produced a pure yellow; the lixivium with fleſh an orange colour; and the ol. tartari a dingy red. The addition of the ſpiritus ſalis to theſe made ſome very odd alterations; for the firſt changed it's yellow colour for an orange; the ſecond, it's orange for blue; and the third became quite clear again without any colour. The blue colour in the mixture of the lixivium with fleſh, and ſolution of ſublimate, may be accounted for from the vitriol in the compoſition of the ſublimate; but it will not be ſo eaſy to give a reaſon why the ſame colour ſhould not have been produced from the lixivium with blood, and the ſame ſolution.

Copper, when diſſolved in aqua fortis, tinges the water of a green colour; and if to this you pour the two lixivia of blood and fleſh, when you add the ſpiritus ſalis, they both change, and become of a colour not unlike the copper itſelf before it is diſſolved in the aqua fortis. If the ol. tartari be poured to a ſolution of the copper, the coagulum is a pale green, which coagulum the ſpiritus ſalis diſſolves, and leaves the liquor clear, but green, as before precipitation.

Tin-glaſs (an imperfect metal) diſſolved in aqua fortis, and mixed with the lixivium of blood, made a milky coagulum, and, by the addition of ſpiritus ſalis, after ſome time ſtanding, it's upper ſurface changed to a light blue. The lixivium of fleſh and the ol. tartari produced both white coagula, which the ſpiritus ſalis ſcarcely alters.

Lead diſſolved in ſpirit of vinegar produceth much the ſame white coagulum, when mixed either with the lixivium of blood, fleſh, or the ol. tartari, nor doth the ſpiritus ſalis make any alteration.

By all theſe experiments it is pretty evident, that not any of thoſe metallic bodies were affected by the lixivium of blood, ſo as to produce this fine blue. The two metals untried are gold and tin, the latter of which, when diſſolved in the ſpirit of vinegar, has ſo near a reſemblance to lead diſſolved in the ſame menſtruum, that, in all probability, the experiments would anſwer much alike in both. What may be expected from gold I am not yet ſo well aſſured of, as I am from iron, which, when diſſolved in ſpiritus vitrioli, will anſwer all the experiments that have been tried with the ſolutions of vitriol, and produce as fine a colour; nor can this be owing to any property in the diſſolvent itſelf, which, though drawn from the ſame kind of vitriol all along made uſe of in theſe experiments, yet is ſo altered by the violent fire in the production of it, as not to anſwer many trials to the vitriol itſelf. May we not, therefore, conclude, that iron is the metal that is the ſubject of this beautiful colour produced by means of the lixivium of blood?

Monſieur Geoffroy the elder has, by the Hiſtory of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1725, diſcovered a method of making this blue, with good ſucceſs, by the means of charcoal alone, to be ſubſtituted in the place of ox-blood, and with this profitable circumſtance, that it will yield almoſt twice the quantity of blue, and of a deeper colour. He alſo makes ſome variation in the foregoing proceſs, not ſuffering the calcined mixture of alcali ſalt and blood, or coals, to cool: he only expoſes the fecula to the air, ſtirring it now and then: nor has he any occaſion for the ſpirits of ſalt: according to his method, it is enough that the degree of calcination of the alcali ſalt and coals be very exact.

Further REMARKS.

The method of making the Pruſſian blue in perfection has been held and purchaſed as a very valuable ſecret, both in England, Germany, and elſewhere; but it is now got into ſeveral hands. It's proceſs is very extraordinary, and could ſcarce, perhaps, be derived à priori from any reaſoning upon the nature of colours. It is allowed an excellent blue pigment, and by ſome preferred to ultramarine; though it's permanency might have been ſuſpected, from the vegetable and animal matters uſed in it's preparation, if the colour did not ſeem wonderfully fixed by the operation, which may reaſonably be aſcribed to the allum.

A great variety of colours are prepared by the means of animal matters, and more particularly by the means of urine, which, when it has ſtood to ferment, or putrify, ſerves to extract, change, or fix the natural colours of ſome bodies, and to heighten the colours of others. Thus it is uſed in the preparation of the ordinary blue called orchel: it is alſo uſed in the changing or fixing of turnſole, ſo as to make a moſt elegant red from the ſun flower: it is likewiſe a principal ingredient, along with indigo, in making that noble, fixed and durable blue, for the ſtaining of callico; a colour that firſt appears green, but by waſhing with ſoap, changes, and fixes into a lively blue.

Certain chemical preparations from animal ſubjects are alſo employed for extracting, changing, or heightening the colours of various bodies. Thus the alkaline, or volatile, ſpirit of urine, blood, bones, &c. extracts a fine blue from copper, changes a green ſolution of copper to a purple, and heightens the red of cocheneal. And doubtleſs the preſent ſtock of colours might be conſiderably enlarged, or improved by a prudent choice of animal menſtruums.

By animal menſtruums we mean both the natural and artificial kind. The natural are ſuch as blood, ſerum, galls, urine, ſaliva, rennet, whey, butter-milk, &c. moſt of which, being properly employed, will either diſcharge, or produce, colours. Thus recent urine diſcharges the common ink out of linnen; the ſaliva diſcharges red ink; butter milk takes ſtains and mildews out of linnen, &c. blood, we ſee by our preſent experiments, affords a rich and beautiful blue; and gall is a natural yellow, which may deſerve to be treated as blood in making the Pruſſian blue.

Theſe natural animal menſtruums, or other animal ſubſtances, being chemically treated, may afford a great variety both of

ſimple and compound liquors, or new artificial menſtruums, for farther improving the buſineſs of colours, dyes, and ſtains. Thus, as putrified urine affords an alkaline ſpirit, by diſtillation, that ſerves to produce, alter or deſtroy, a great number of colours; ſo, likewiſe, might the liquors obtained by diſtillation, from recent, or fermented whey, butter-milk, &c. And, by variouſly compounding theſe ſeveral ſubſtances, or liquors, even by random trials, or chance experiments, diſcoveries in colours might be made, as in the preſent experiment of Pruſſian blue: though we have a much greater dependance upon conducting ſuch experiments in a rational manner, or in the way of an art, formed upon a competent knowledge of chemical operations, with their productions and effects; which will enable the enquirer to reaſon, by analogy, from one experiment to another, and thus lead, in a ſure and guarded manner, to new profitable inventions and diſcoveries. Thus, for inſtance, the chemical operator found that common bones, burnt only to blackneſs, affords the bone-black, it is very eaſy to transfer the experiment to ivory, whereby a better black is produced. And thus, upon finding that dried ox-blood has ſo great an effect in making the Pruſſian blue, we are naturally led to try the ſame experiment with the blood of different animals, or other concreted animal juices, as gall, feathers, fleſh, leather, &c. or the intire bodies of certain inſects, fiſh, birds, &c. And this ſhould be done with proper diverſifications of the ingredients, and their proportions; all along carefully noting the ſeveral phænomena and events, which will conſtantly afford light and inſtruction to the mind, for the better regulating and conducting of the enquiry, 'till it ends in a ſatisfactory diſcovery of the point aimed at.

BOA-ATI. This is a Malayan word, which ſignifies a fruit ſhaped like a hart. It is a dry fruit, which is produced on a tree that is to be found no where, but in ſome of the Mollucca iſlands, and particularly in that of Ternate. It is naturally of a middling ſize. The natives of thoſe iſlands call that tree ſoulamou (or rather, according to the Engliſh pronunciation, ſoolamoo) the Dutch ſpell it ſoelamoe, which, according to their pronunciation, has the ſame ſound; for the dipthong œ, in their language, ſounds like ou in French, and like oo in Engliſh. We make this obſervation, becauſe the French, and other travellers, do often commit blunders in foreign words, or names, becauſe they do not pronounce them like the natives. It is ſo much the more proper to know this, as it will teach the reader to pronounce the names which he will meet with in ſeveral places of this work, and which the Dutch have given to divers merchandizes, that are yearly imported from the Eaſt-Indies in their company's fleet, of which they diſtribute printed catalogues through all Europe.

The fruit of the tree called ſoolamoo is very much eſteemed as a medicine through all the eaſtern parts of the Eaſt-Indies; that is to ſay, the peninſula beyond the Ganges, as far as China, and in all the Sunda and Molucca iſlands, where they drive a great trade therein, on account of it's excellent qualities againſt fevers, pains in the ſtomach, cholics, &c. Many people in thoſe countries look upon that fruit as a remedy for the cure of ſeveral other diſeaſes. It is ſurpriſing that the Dutch, who uſe it often in thoſe iſlands, have not yet introduced it into Europe. It's virtues, as is pretended, do by far excel thoſe of the Bean of St Ignatius, which grows in the ſame places, and with which the Spaniards of the Manilles have made us acquainted. See BEAN of St Ignatius.

The boa-ati is a fruit almoſt round, flattened on both ſides, and ſomewhat thickiſh in the middle, of the ſize of a thumb's nail, or ſomething larger, ſloped on one ſide, and a little peaked on the other, which makes it reſemble a heart, whence it obtained it's Malayan name; for in that language boa ſignifies a fruit, and ati a heart. It is of a feuille-mort, or fille-mot colour; and, when carefully obſerved, though dry, we diſcern that it is properly a capſule, with two cavities, each of which contains a very ſmall ſeed. Finally, it's taſte is very bitter, though not at all unpleaſant. The doſe commonly given is a whole capſule, but in difficult caſes they give even three or four. Mr Rumphius, whoſe hiſtory of the Plants of the Molucca Iſlands was in the preſs at Amſterdam in the year 1740, calls this fruit, rex amarorum, king of the bitters. The Indians of the Molucca and Sunda iſles make a very great uſe of bitters in phyſic: and this begins, of late, to be pretty common alſo in Europe; but there are ſome bitters more effectual than others, as appears from the quinquina, or Jeſuit's bark. If the boa-ati came once to be known in Europe, the Dutch Eaſt-India company would, no doubt, reap a very great benefit from that drug in their trade, ſince they alone are in poſſeſſion of the countries where it grows, as well as of thoſe where moſt ſpices are to be found. It was not improper to give an account of that drug in this place, that an opportunity may from thence be taken to import it into Europe. There are, in the hot countries, a thouſand remedies, naturally produced, which are always too late diſcovered; but often, for want of knowing how to uſe them, they never come to have the reputation they deſerved.

BOARD, a long piece of timber, ſawed thin, for building, and ſeveral other purpoſes. See TIMBER.

The trees, of which boards are chiefly made are the walnut, beech, oak, fir, pear-tree, and poplar. See each of theſe articles, where you will meet with an account of the length, breadth, and thickneſs of the boards ſawed from thoſe trees, as alſo of the uſe for which they may be proper.

The trade of boards at Amſterdam.

The trade of boards, as well as of other timber for joiners, carpenters, and coopers, is one of the moſt conſiderable that are carried on at Amſterdam. We mention it in ſeveral places of this Dictionary: we ſhall ſpeak here only of the trade of boards which they drive in that city.

All the boards are ſold by the hundred, but in moſt of them there are more or leſs boards in a hundred.

The boards of Chriſtiaan are ſold for about 56 guilders per 100, 126 being reckoned to the hundred.

The boards of Cooperwyk (perhaps it ſhould be Ooſterwyk) about 65 guilders per 100, 132 being reckoned to the 100.

The boards from the north for about 48 guilders per 100, and alſo 132 to the 100.

Laſtly, the boards of Weſterwyk are ſold for about 60 guilders per 100, 124 to the 100.

N. B. All maſts, timber, boards, of the growth, production, or manufacture of Muſcovy, or Ruſſia, or of any of that imperial dominion, muſt be imported only in ſhips belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland; except ſuch ſhips as are of the built of the country whereof the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture; or of ſuch port where the ſaid goods can only be, or moſt uſually are, ſhipped for tranſportation; on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 8. See NORWAY Trade.

BOAT, a veſſel worked upon rivers and lakes. (In our language that word ſignifies chiefly a ſmall open veſſel; but we are obliged to take it here, in a more extenſive ſenſe, to ſignify even covered veſſels; and we are authorized ſo to do by cuſtom, ſince even the ſhips which ſail with the mail to Holland, Portugal, &c. are called boats, namely packet-boats.)

In this large ſenſe, therefore, a boat is a veſſel, either ſailing, or worked by men, drawn by horſes, on rivers or lakes, and carrying merchandizes, or proviſions, from one place to another. The ſtructure, and even the names of boats, are different, either according to the uſes they are deſigned for, or according to the provinces in which they were built.

The boats which navigate on the river Peine are large, long, and ſtrong veſſels, with pretty high ſides; they come from Roan, and from the river Oiſe, and are commonly uſed to carry great loads of wood for fuel, and other goods. They call them foncets.

The boats which come from the river Loire are called chalands; they are narrow, and neither very long, nor very high, becauſe of the canals and ſluices, or locks, through which they muſt paſs. They ſerve to carry wines, and other productions and merchandizes of the provinces which lie near the Loire and the Allier.

The boats of the river Marne keep the name of that river, and are called Marnois: they are flat and middle-ſized. They are commonly laden with wine, corn, and timber, from the province of Champaigne.

The ſtage-boats, called in French bateaux-coches, and more commonly coches-d'eau, water-coaches, are large covered veſſels, which ſerve, particularly on the river Seine, for the conveniency of travellers, and for carrying all ſorts of merchandizes. The names of them are, the paſſage-boat, or water-coach, of Sens, of Auxerre, of Montereau, and of Fontainbleau, or Valvin.

The boats of the maſter ferrymen at Paris are called flottes. The ordonnance of that city, made in the year 1672, injoins them to keep their boats always provided with ſtaves and oars, and to have a ſufficient number of boats ready at the places and ferries appointed by the provoſt of the merchants and echevins.

The fiſhing-boats on rivers are hardly known under any other name but that of bachot. They are provided wth a pair of oars, a ſtaff, a pole to faſten the boat in the river when they are fiſhing, a maſt and fiſhing-lines.

The ordonnance of Lewis XIV, made in December 1672, and quoted above, contains a great many articles concerning the places where the boats laden with merchandizes, which arrive at Paris, are obliged to ſtop, when there is no room for them at the uſual keys. There are other articles relating to the clearing of the keys, after the boats are unladen; and ſome alſo about boats overſet or ſunk at thoſe keys, as well as for the carrying off, marking and ſelling of the wrecks.

Some articles in the ſame ordonnance, regulate the rank of the boats in the river, either going up or coming down: others, what is to be obſerved in paſſing through bridges or narrow paſſes, and which boats are to give way.

Other articles relate to the time when the boats are to come to the keys, to the declaration of their arrival, to the unlading of their merchandizes, to the demands which merchants may have on the boats, for miſreckoning, loſs, or other accidents which befel the ſaid merchandizes through the fault of the boatſmen, carriers, or maſters of the boats;

ſame the ordonnance is declared, in what caſes the boats are not anſwerable for the loſſes.

Laſtly, there are ſome articles which determine what time the boats ought to continue at the keys, according to the goods they are laden with.

With regard to theſe matters of trade by water, the reader may conſult the firſt, ſecond, third, fourth, and ſixteenth chapters of the ſaid ordonnance, or the articles of this Dictionary, where we mention the carriages and carriers by water, the narrow paſſes of rivers, the clearing of keys, the bridge-maſters, the mooring-places, the bridge-officers, floats of wood, and the like, which will be found in their alphabetical order.

Poſt-Boats, are boats eſtabliſhed on the river Loire, for the conveniency of the public. They are long and narrow, and go very faſt. There are ſome alſo on the Rhône, which go from Lyons to Avignon in twenty-four hours. See the article Post.

Boats of Holland. In almoſt all the ſeven United Provinces, there are boats which ſerve for public carriages, which ſet out from every city at all hours of the day, and carry people very conveniently from one place to another, at a very ſmall expence. They are long, narrow, and covered, and can contain near ſixty perſons; each boat is drawn by one horſe, and has but two men to manage it; the one ſits at the helm, and the other takes care of the rope; the horſe is generally rode by a boy. There are ſome alſo which ſet out at a certain hour in the night. There is in theſe boats, on the ſide of the poop or ſtern, a room, which can eaſily contain ſix perſons, and is ſeparated with boards from the reſt of the boat; it has glaſs-windows, whereas the other openings are only ſhut with oil-cloth in bad weather. Theſe ſeparate rooms are called roefs in Dutch, which they pronounce roof: ſo that a perſon who would go, for inſtance from Amſterdam to the Hague, takes a place in that room, or even the whole room, if he pleaſes; gets into it at eight of the clock at night, where he finds cuſhions to lie upon; and is ſure to arrive the next morning at the Hague. But this muſt be underſtood of the boats which carry merchandizes; for in thoſe deſigned for paſſengers only, in each of which there is alſo a private room, a man is obliged to change boats ſeveral times. From Amſterdam to Haerlem, he muſt change boats half way, becauſe the canal there is cut by a dyke. At Haerlem, he muſt croſs the town to get to the boat that is to carry him to Leyden. At Leyden, he muſt again croſs the town, to meet the boat in which he is to go to the Hague.

All this can be performed in ten hours and a half; for, at eight o'clock preciſely, a boat ſets out from Amſterdam for Haerlem, where it arrives about half an hour after ten: at eleven a boat ſets out from Haerlem for Leyden, and arrives there at three in the morning: half an hour after three a boat ſets out from Leyden, and arrives at the Hague half an hour after ſix.

There is ſo good an order kept, that at the ringing of a bell the boat muſt ſet out immediately, without waiting for any paſſenger. There are few countries were people can travel ſo conveniently as in Holland.

Remarks.

Theſe regulations ſeem calculated to anſwer two ends of no little conſideration: (1.) That of the conveniency of trade, even in the minuteſt caſes of water-carriage, which makes merchandizes come cheaper to the hands of the conſumer. And (2.) For the ſpeedy, convenient, and certain accommodation of travellers, to induce them either to ſee the country and ſpend their money among them, or to facilitate the means of a commercial correſpondence for the benefit of theſe ſtates.

BOCAL, or BOCCALE, a liquid meaſure uſed at Rome. It is properly what they call in France a bottle, which with us is about half a gallon wine meaſure. It holds a little above a Paris pint, or half a gallon; ſeven bocals and a half make a rubbe, or rubbia; and thirteen rubbes and a half make the brente, which therefore holds 101 $\frac{1}{4}$ bocals. (Monſieur Savary ſays 96, but that muſt be a miſtake, ſince 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ multiplied by 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ makes 101 $\frac{1}{4}$.)

BOCKING, or BOKKING. Thus they call, in Holland, what we call red herring in Engliſh, and the French hareng fumé, or ſoret, ſmoaked herring. The new liſt, or tariff of Holland, diſtinguiſhes three ſorts of bocking, namely, the bockings in general, thoſe that are catched thirteen days after Candlemas-day, and thoſe of May, which are alſo called Mey bocking. (Mey in Dutch is the name of the month of May.) Theſe three ſorts of herrings are free in Holland from any duty of importation: as for exportation, the duty differs: the firſt ſort pay at the rate of one guilder and ten ſtivers per laſt, of 10,000 herrings; the ſecond 15 ſtivers for the ſame laſt, and the third only three ſtivers.

They import into Holland great quantities of our Engliſh red herrings, which they eſteem much more than their own.

BODY, is ſaid in general of ſeveral perſons who compoſe a juriſdiction, or a company or corporation: [in this ſenſe we ſay in Engliſh a body corporate.] Thus in France they ſay, the body of the city [le corpes de ville], the body of the merchants, the body or community of arts and trades, to ſignify the concourſe and aſſembly of all thoſe perſons, who, by employment, privileges, or freedom, have a right to enter, or to be called into thoſe companies.

The body of the city of Paris is compoſed of a governor, the king's lieutenant, a provoſt of the merchants, four echevins, or ſheriffs; the king's attorney, twenty-ſix counſellors, the recorder, ſixteen aldermen, or quarteniers, as they call them in French; an uſher of the audience, and ſix commiſſary-uſhers.

The provoſt of the merchants, aſſiſted by echevins, and the king's attorney, take cognizance of all the diſputes which ariſe amongſt the merchants, with regard to the merchandizes which arrive by water on the keys.

There are at Paris ſix bodies or companies of merchants, who are looked upon as the chief channels, through which the whole trade of that great city is carried on.

The firſt is that of drapers.

The ſecond that of grocers, or druggiſts,

The third that of mercers.

The fourth that of the furriers.

The fifth that of the hoſiers.

And the ſixth that of the gold and ſilverſmiths.

On the 24th of December, 1694, there was made by the king's council a remarkable decree, by which all judges are forbidden to pronounce any ſentence for apprehending the perſons of the maſters and wardens of any of the ſix bodies of the merchants of Paris, in order to compel them to produce the merchandizes by them ſeized in their viſitations; and all uſhers or tipſtaffs, and all other officers, are alſo forbidden to force them to it; with liberty, however, for them to ſee ſuch ſentences executed upon the keepers of their offices, with whom the merchandizes ſeized are depoſited.

The general aſſemblies of theſe ſix bodies of merchants are commonly held in the draper's office or hall, who have the ſole right to call them, becauſe they hold the firſt rank.

When there is occaſion to call an aſſembly, or buſineſs which concerns the ſix bodies in general, the maſters and wardens of the drapers company ſummon the five other companies to come to their office; theſe companies generally ſend thither two deputies, choſen out of the wardens of each body; and when any of theſe five bodies has ſome buſineſs of conſequence, which concerns that in particular, and requires the concurrence of the other bodies, the maſters and wardens of that company addreſs themſelves to the firſt grand warden of the drapers, to demand a general aſſembly of the ſix bodies.

The firſt grand warden of the drapers company always preſides, or is chairman, in the aſſemblies of the ſix bodies.

The maſters and wardens of the ſix bodies of merchants have the honour to carry the canopy over the heads of kings, queens, and other princes, princeſſes, and lords, who make their public entry at Paris.

The maſters and wardens of the drapers company, as repreſenting the firſt body, begin with taking up the canopy before the throne, which is commonly erected without the bars of St Anthony's-gate; and the other five bodies take it up by turns, the one after the other, according to their rank; ſo that the body of the gold and ſilverſmiths are the laſt who hold it, and carry it into the Louvre.

The ſix bodies of the merchants of Paris have, for their coat of arms, a man ſitting, and holding in his hands a bundle of ſticks tied together, which he endeavours to break, with this motto, Vincit concordia fratrum; that is to ſay, The concord or union of brethren overcomes; hinting thereby, that, as long as the ſix bodies of merchants ſhall continue united, their trade will flouriſh, and their privileges will be preſerved to them.

It muſt be obſerved, that the corporation of wine-merchants at Paris has made, from time to time, ſeveral attempts to be erected into a ſeventh and laſt body of the merchants of Paris; but the ſix bodies have always oppoſed it, ſo that the wine-merchants can be looked upon only as a corporation of merchants diſtinguiſhed from the others, by having maſters and wardens, who have the liberty to wear gowns of black cloth, faced with velvet, like thoſe of the ſix bodies.

Body is alſo ſaid, in France, of the commonalties of arts and trades, that is to ſay, of all ſorts of tradeſmen and workmen, who have been united into ſeveral bodies. They are more commonly called commonalties in French, and companies in Engliſh. See the article Company.

BOHEA, one of the beſt kinds of tea that come from China. There are three ſorts of it. The firſt is bought at Quantung or Canton, for 80 taels per pic; the ſecond for 45, and the third for 25. The Dutch ſell it again, the firſt for 180 patachs, the next for 120, and the laſt for 75. See Tea.

There is a great variety of teas, as they differ in colour, flavour, and in the ſize of the leaf. Theſe are, however, all the leaves of the ſame tree, only differing according to the ſeaſons at which they are gathered, and the manner of the drying. 'Twere endleſs to enumerate theſe ſeveral ſubdiſtinctions; the general diviſion is into three kinds: the ordinary green tea, the finer green tea, and the bohea; to the

one of the other of theſe may be referred all the other kinds. The common green tea is gathered in April; the bohea in March, while in the bud, according to F. le Compte, and hence proceeds the ſmallneſs of the leaves, as well as the depth of the tincture it gives water. It is of a darker colour than the others, often blackiſh, and is of the ſmell and taſte of the others, but with a mixed ſweetneſs and aſtringency, in ſome degree reſembling the taſte of the terra Japonica, which the green tea wants. The green teas have all ſomewhat of the violet flavour; the bohea has naturally ſomewhat of the roſe ſmell.

Kœmpfer ſays, the tea-tree is a ſhrub that grows but ſlowly; it riſes to ſix feet and higher, has a black, woody, irregular branching root. It's bark is dry, thin, weak, cheſnut-coloured, greyiſh on the ſtem, and ſomewhat inclined to green on the extremities of the twigs; it is firm, and adheres cloſely to the wood, and is covered with a thin ſkin, which ſometimes looſens of itſelf, as the bark grows dry. This being removed, the bark appears of a greeniſh colour, and ſmells ſomewhat like the hazle-tree leaves, but more diſagreeable and offenſive, and of a bitter, nauſeous, and aſtringent taſte.

The wood is hard and fibrous, of a greeniſh colour, inclining to white, of a very offenſive ſmell, when green; the pith, which is very ſmall, ſticks cloſe to the wood.

The branches and twigs are numerous, growing diſorderly, ſlender, of different ſizes, though, in the general, ſhort, wanting thoſe rings which in trees and ſhrubs denote their yearly growth; thick beſet with leaves, on ſhort, fat, green, foot-ſtalks, roundiſh, and ſmooth on the back, but hollow, and ſomewhat compreſſed. On the oppoſite ſide ſtand the leaves: theſe are of a ſoft ſubſtance, between membraneous and fleſhy; in ſubſtance, ſhape, colour, and ſize, when full grown, like the Morella cherry-tree; but, when young and tender, they reſemble (except in colour) the ſpindle-tree, with red berries, called euonymus.

The larger leaves are two inches long, and one broad, or near it; from a ſmall beginning they become roundiſh and broader, and then taper in a ſharp point. Some are of an oval ſhape, ſomewhat bent, and irregularly undulated lengthways, depreſſed in the middle, with the extremities rolled backwards; they are ſmooth on both ſides; of a dirty green colour, ſomewhat lighter on the back; where the nerves being raiſed pretty much, leaves ſo many hollows and furrows on the oppoſite ſide; they are ſerrated or indented, the teeth being a little bent, hard, obtuſe, and ſet cloſe together, but of different ſizes; they have one conſpicuous nerve in the middle, to which a deep furrow anſwers on the other ſide. It is branched on each ſide into five, ſix, or ſeven thin tranſverſe ribs, of different lengths, and bent backwards near the edges of the leaves; ſome ſmaller veins run between the tranſverſe ribs.

The leaves, when freſh, are deſtitute of ſmell, and are not, as the bark, ungrateful to the taſte, being aſtringent and biteriſh, but not nauſeous. They differ in ſubſtance, ſize, and ſhape, according to the different age, ſituation, and nature of the ſoil wherein they grow. Were they infuſed and drank, when they are freſh and green, they would much affect the body, eſpecially the hands; for, being narcotic, they would occaſion a trembling and convulſive motion in the nerves; but they loſe this bad quality in the drying and rolling, which expreſſes that clammy, yellowiſh, acid juice, which cauſes theſe tremors; ſo corroſive ſometimes is this juice, that it excoriates the hands of the roaſters and rollers.

The branches are thick beſet with flowers, much like our wild roſes, about an inch in diameter, having little ſmell, compoſed of ſix round hollow petals, or leaves, ſtanding on a foot-ſtalk of an inch long, which, from a ſlender beginning, inſenſibly grow larger, and end in an uncertain number of ſmall, round ſquamæ, or leaves, which ſerve inſtead of the calyx. Theſe flowers continue growing till late in the winter; one or two whereof are generally ſick, ſhrunk, and fall ſhort of the largeneſs and beauty of the reſt; they have a very diſagreeable, biteriſh taſte, which chiefly affects the baſis of the tongue.

Within the flower are many white ſtamina, exceeding ſmall, as in roſes, with yellow heads ſhaped like a heart; in one flower, there are ſometimes an hundred and thirty of theſe ſtamina. The flowers are ſucceeded by great plenty of fruit, which is unicapſular, bicapſular, but more commonly tricapſular, like the ſeed-veſſels of the ricinus, or palma Chriſti, compoſed of three round capſules, of the bigneſs of wild plums, grown together to one common foot-ſtalk, as to a center, but diſtinguiſhed by three pretty deep partitions; each capſule contains a huſk, nut, and ſeeds. The nut is almoſt round on one ſide only, where the three capſules grow together, ſomewhat compreſſed, covered with a thin, hardiſh, ſhining, cheſnut-coloured ſhell, which, being cracked, diſcovers a reddiſh kernel, of a firm ſubſtance like filberds, at firſt of a ſweetiſh, but not very agreeable taſte, which ſoon grows rougher and bitter, like that of the cherry-kernels, making people ſpit plentifully, and very nauſeous, when they fall down into the throat; but this ill taſte quickly goes off. Theſe kernels contain a great quantity of oil, and often turn rancid, which is the reaſon why ſcarce two of a dozen will germinate when ſown; this probably may have fruſtrated our attempts in Europe to raiſe this ſhrub.

Of the culture, growth, gathering, and forting of TEA.

The natives of Japan do not allow the tea-ſhrub any particular gardens, but plant it round the hedges of their fields, with regard to the ſoil; nor do they lay the ſeeds into rows, which would make it grow into hedges, but at ſome diſtance from each other, that, when the ſhrub comes to ſpread, the growing too cloſe might not hinder the plucking off the leaves. They put at leaſt ſix, but moſtly 12 ſeeds, as they are contained in their ſeed-veſſels, into one hole, made five inches deep, becauſe few are found to germinate out of that number; ſometimes two or three ſhrubs come up together ſo cloſely joined, that the ignorant would readily take them for one ſtem.

As the tea-buſhes riſe, the more induſtrious people fatten the ſoil where they grow, once a year, with proper manure, mixed with earth. The ſhrub muſt be at leaſt three years old before the leaves are plucked, and then it bears plenty of very good ones; in about ſeven years, the ſhrub riſes to a man's height; but then it grows but ſlowly, and bears few leaves; but, if cut down to the ſtem, new ſets of branches and twigs ſhoot out thicker, and much more numerous than before, and all nouriſhed by the ſame root. The young ſhoots, as they come up the firſt year from the ſtem, are always fewer in number, but fatter and larger than thoſe which ſucceed them; in proceſs of time they become branched.

The leaves are gathered at three different times; the firſt is gathered at the middle of the firſt moon preceding the vernal equinox, which is the firſt month of the Japoneſe year. The leaves then are few, but very young and tender, being only of two or three days growth, and ſcarce fully opened.

Theſe are accounted beſt, and ſold deareſt of all, viz. from 56 to 240 crowns per pound. This grows chiefly about Udſi, a ſmall town ſituated between the ſea and Miaco, the capital city, and imperial ſeat of the eccleſiaſtical hereditary emperor of Japan, where they are ſent to court under a good guard of 100 or 200 men, prepared and put up in paper bags, and theſe into large porcelane pots, called matſubos. Theſe leaves are not gathered by handfuls, but one by one, that they be not torn, being tender, and not above two or three days old. Yet one perſon, that is accuſtomed to it, will gather 10 or 12 pounds a day; but others not above two or three pounds. This is called fieki tsjaá, or ground tea, becauſe it is ground to powder, and ſipped in hot water; a diſh of it is ſometimes valued at 12 ſhillings.

This ſort is alſo called Udſi tsjaá, and tacke ſacki tsjaá, from Udſi, the place where it grows, whoſe ſoil is very good, and becauſe it is gathered off ſhrubs of three years old, which are then at their greateſt perfection. This is drank by the imperial family. It's ſhrubs are planted on pleaſant walks on a mountain, incloſed with hedges for their ſecurity, and frequently cleanſed, that no dirt may be found on their leaves. Two or three weeks before the labourers begin to gather them, they muſt abſtain from eating fleſh, or any unclean food, leſt the impurity of their breath ſtain the leaves, or injure their goodneſs; and, when they are gathering, they muſt bathe themſelves twice or thrice a day, either in a hot bath or river. They muſt not touch the leaves with their naked hands, but gather them with gloves. This is alſo called voni bui, or bohea tea of the Chineſe.

The ſecond gathering is called tootsjaá, or Chineſe tea, being prepared after the Chineſe manner. This is often ſold for the firſt; therefore the ſmaller are carefully picked and ſeparated from the larger or coarſer ſort of leaves. The tea-merchants, and ſhop-keepers of Japan, divide this into four others, which differ in goodneſs and price. The firſt ſort of it is gathered, when the leaves juſt appear, and are unopened; then every young branch bears not above two or three. This is ſold from to 30 Dutch ſtivers per Dutch pound and quarter.

The leaves of the ſecond ſort of this are older and more grown, and, though gathered but a little after the firſt, the ſame quantity of this is ſold at 40 or 45 ſtivers. The leaves of the third ſort are ſtill older and larger, and worth about from 23 to 35 ſtivers. The greateſt quantity of the tea imported into Europe is of this ſort, and ſold by the Dutch at ſix or ſeven guilders per pound. Thoſe who cry it about the ſtreets in Japan ſell it for about 24 ſtivers per pound and quarter. The vulgar there drink this.

The third and laſt is gathered in our June; this is moſt plentiful, the leaves being come to their full growth, both as to their number and largeneſs. Many omit the two former, and depend wholly on this gathering; the leaves whereof are all ſorted into their different claſſes of ſize and goodneſs, called the firſt, ſecond, and third ſort; the laſt whereof is coarſeſt of all, being between two and three months grown, and falls to the ſhare of the loweſt rank. It is of this ſort the labourers gather 10 or 12 pounds a day. This gathering is called ban tsjaá, and is often too coarſe to be dried in pans over the fire, after the Chineſe manner; but, being for the vulgar, they prepare it any how. The longer this is kept,

the better it is; it's virtues, being fixed in the groſs leaves, are not ſo eaſily loſt, infuſed, or boiled; but the other ſorts ſuffer greatly by any of the three.

Of the preparation of the gathered TEA-LEAF.

When the leaves are gathered, they are brought to the work-houſe to be roaſted, the ſame day, over a fire in an iron pan; for, if they lie long, or be laid on large heaps, or be kept over-night, they would heat, turn black, and loſe much of their virtue; and, if they do heat at any time, they preſently fan them, and ſpread them thin on the ground to cool them. The roaſters put ſeveral pounds of the leaves into the pan at once, which is heated, that the leaves, though turgid and juicy, when put in, yet ſoon crack at the edges of the pan: and, that they may be thoroughly and equally dried, the roaſter conſtantly ſtirs them with his hands; 'till they are as hot as he can poſſibly bear them; then he takes them out with a ſhovel, like a fan, and pours them on a mat; then the rollers roll them with the palms of their hands, in ſmall parcels, 'till they are equally curled; and ſuch a ſharp, yellow, and greeniſh juice ſweats out of the leaves upon this rolling, as burns their hands almoſt to an intolerable degree: but ſtill they muſt continue their work; for, if the leaves are quite cold before they are rolled, the ſooner they cool the better, for they keep their curl the longer; therefore they have one to fan, while another is rolling them. When they are cold, the roaſter (who is the chief maſter of the workhouſe) puts them a ſecond time into the pan, and roaſts them again, 'till they have loſt all their juice. He ſtirs them more ſlowly now than before, leſt he put them out of their curls; though ſome leaves will ſpread, in ſpite of all his care. After this roaſting, they are carefully rolled again the ſame way. If they are fully dry after this, they have done; if not, they are delivered a third time to the roaſter. And,

Now the utmoſt care and ſkill is neceſſary, leſt he burn or blacken them. Some curious perſons roaſt and roll them ſix or ſeven times, but uſe a ſlower fire, that the leaves may preſerve their greenneſs; becauſe of that ſharp juice which ſweats out of them, the pan is clean waſhed after every roaſting. The Chineſe, before they roaſt their leaves of the firſt gathering, put them into hot water about half a minute, that they may ſooner, and more fully, ſweat out that noxious juice.

When they have done roaſting and rolling them, they pour them out on a mat, and ſort them a ſecond time into different ſorts, according to their goodneſs, and ſeparate thoſe which are leſs curled, or too much burnt, from the reſt. Country people roaſt their leaves in earthen veſſels; and, as they are at leſs expence this way, ſo they can afford them cheaper, though very little, if any, the worſe.

The tea muſt be all roaſted in the night, being gathered in the day; which makes the preparers of it complain heartily of their bad fate. When the leaves have been kept ſome months after theſe roaſtings, they turn them all out, and roaſt them again, to take out any remaining moiſture, or what they may ſince have imbibed.

As ſoon as the tea is cooled, after this laſt roaſting and curling, the Chineſe put it up in boxes of coarſe tin, which are incloſed in wooden cheſts, or caſes, of fir, all the chinks whereof are carefully ſtopped with paper, that the air of thoſe climates may not diſſipate it's extreme ſubtile and volatile parts: and in this manner it is imported to us. Theſe tubs, or cheſts, one with another, contain about 112 pounds of tea each. The common people of Japan keep their own tea in large earthen pots, with narrow mouths: but the emperor has his kept in matſubos, which is a fine kind of porcelane pots, or veſſels, wrecked up from the ſea-rocks, near the iſland Formoſa, where once the rich and flouriſhing iſland Mauri ſtood, which was long ago ſwallowed up by an earthquake; here were the beſt earth, and the moſt ingenious people in the world, for making the fineſt and richeſt porcelane. Theſe veſſels, thus fiſhed up, are the emperor's property, and ſold at moſt extravagant rates, viz. three, four, or five thouſand thails, each thail being near equal to five ſhillings and ten-pence.

The dry leaf, as imported here, contains, 1. Phlegm; for, by drying a dram of green, and a dram of bohea tea, on different ſaucers, before a clear fire, the firſt loſt $\frac{1}{30}$ part, the laſt $\frac{1}{10}$ part, in a quarter of an hour, or twenty minutes; ſo that all kinds of bohea have naturally more of this than the green, becauſe it is gathered while this principle exceeds it's due proportion, viz. before the ſalt, oil, and earth have been ſufficiently diſſolved and rarified by the ſubterranean and aëreal heat, and fitted to raiſe up into a plant, in due quantity with the phlegm.

As the leaf grows, this watery principle leſſens, and the others increaſe. 2. An oil, which has ſundry attachments to the leaf, which loſes one part by being expoſed to the open air, or put up in paper, or any ſpongy body; therefore it is ſent to us in tin canniſters.

Another part is drawn off by infuſion in cold water; for two drams of green tea, as much imperial, and the like quantity of bohea, each infuſed in a pint of cold water ſlowly before a ſmall fire, the firſt and laſt had loſt above $\frac{1}{4}$ part, and the middlemoſt an exact fourth.

Another part of this oil is extracted by boiling water; for the two drams of imperial tea that had been infuſed in cold water, and dried, infuſed again in three ſundry boiling waters, and then dried, it had loſt three grains more, i. e. 34 in all, out of 120 grains. The green tea, that had been infuſed in boiling water, and dried, being now infuſed in boiling water an hour, and dried again, had loſt 16 grains more, i. e. 48 grains in all, out of 120 grains. But freſh green tea, that had not been uſed before, infuſed in ſeveral boiling waters, loſt 46 grains; two drams of bohea tea, treated in the ſame manner, and dried again, had loſt 46 grains; 112 grains of hyſon tea, thus infuſed and dried, loſt 42 grains; 112 grains of all thoſe teas that had been thus infuſed and dried had a pint of boiling water poured on them, and let ſtand 24 hours; then poured off, and freſh put on, and ſhifted again, 'till green copperas would no longer change the colour of the waters; then the leaves taken out, and dried ſlowly, had loſt only 9 grains, i. e. near $\frac{1}{12}$ part, and 103 grains were left.

Another part is drawn out by boiling in water over an open fire. Thus the laſt 103 grains boiled in a pint and a half of water to half a pint, and the operation was repeated ſix or ſeven times; then the leaf was taken out and dried, and it had loſt ſome grains.

There is ſtill another ſort that cannot be extracted by watery vehicles, but muſt have rectified ſpirits. Thus 22 grains of dried Pekoa tea, that had been infuſed and boiled in ſundry waters, infuſed in rectified ſpirits, and then dried, had loſt two grains; 112 grains of bohea tea, that had been uſed before, loſt ſeven grains in ſpirits.

There is another part, alſo, which is ſeparable only by an open fire; for two drams of the above teas (that had been infuſed in cold water, boiling water, boiled and infuſed in ſpirits) being put in a crucible, ſet in a clear fire, and ſlightly covered with an iron plate; the tea firſt ſent out a very thick blue ſmoke, and then a clear flame; a deal of black rough oil hung on the underſide of the plate; it taſted exceeding rough and bitter; ſo that the oil of tea conſiſts of light ſeparable earth and oil, which conſtitute a gum.

Eighty grains of hyſon tea, as much green, and as much Pekoe, put into different phial-glaſſes, and two ounces of ſpirit of wine poured on each, and all ſet ſome hours before the fire, then removed into a cold place, and let ſtand ſeven days more. The like weight of theſe teas, put into three phials, and the ſame quantity of ſpirits poured on each of them; then removed quickly into a cold place, and let ſtand as many days as the firſt had done, both in the heat and cold; then the ſpirits poured out of all the ſix glaſſes, and the leaves taken out and dried. The hyſon, in the firſt, had loſt 26 grains, the Pekoe 24 grains, the green tea 27 grains. The ſpirits, left to exhale ſlowly in a ſmall heat, loſt very near the ſame weight. Of theſe, in the cold infuſion, the green left 14 grains, the hyſon 14 grains, of a very bitter, aſtringent, delicate taſted green gum; the Pekoe 12 grains. The ſpirits exhaled loſt the ſame weight again: ſo that warm infuſion draws out near double of the cold; but both tincture and gum of the laſt are infinitely pleaſanter and beautifuller than the firſt; and the dried leaves were clear, and ſparkled, as though covered with ſome vernice.

Theſe infuſed in ſeveral boiling waters, 'till copperas would tincture the liquor no longer, then dried and weighed, hyſon weighed 38 grains, the Pekoe 37 grains, the green 38. This gum is partly diſſolvable in water, and partly inflammable by the fire; for a little of that extracted by ſpirits, put into cold water, and ſet before the fire, a great part of it diſſolved quickly, and tinctured the water green, turning it exceeding bitter and aſtringent. Six grains of it, laid on a hot fire-ſhovel, it quickly flowed, burnt in a flame, and left a little white aſh.

Tea contains a ſalt, but it is chiefly fixed, when it comes to us; for two drams of tea, that had been fully infuſed and boiled, was burnt, and the white aſhes put into it's infuſions and decoctions, and all evaporated ſlowly to dryneſs. Water poured on the reſiduum, and filtered twice, then the earth well dried weighed 36 grains. The filtered liquor, being ſlowly exhaled, left 8 grains of an exceeding brackiſh ſalt, which would not ferment with acids.

So that we ſee the parts of tea are ſeparable into, 1. A peculiar yellow noxious juice, which evaporates in roaſting. 2. A thin oil, which is diſſipated, either by lying long in the open air, or by infuſion in cold water. 3. A ſemibalſamic liquor, ſomewhat groſſer than the laſt. 4. A thick and black reſinous oil. 5. A little reſin, friable in the cold, and inflammable by fire, but not diſſolvable in water. 6. A gum, conſiſting of more mucus than oil, therefore diſſolvable in water, or combuſtible in the fire. Theſe are the different ſortments of the oil of the leaf; for the flowers and ſeeds, we have had no opportunity to examine them, nor are they in uſe. 7. A fixed ſalt. 8. Earth.—The different proportions of theſe parts, as near as they could be well computed, are, bohea tea contains $\frac{1}{10}$ phlegm, or other volatile parts; green tea $\frac{1}{30}$ part. Fixed earth is about $\frac{1}{3}$ of both, only green tea has a little more than bohea. Green tea has $\frac{1}{15}$ part ſalt, bohea tea $\frac{1}{15}+\frac{1}{15}$. The oil and lighter earth, loſt by decoction and evaporation of the filtered liquor, are $\frac{5}{15}$ of the

whole. But, in making of tea, the parts obtained from the leaf are different in different waters; for two drams of green tea, infuſed two hours in boiling river water, then the water poured off, and more put on, and repeated a third time; then the leaves, carefully and ſlowly dried, had loſt $\frac{2}{5}$. Rain water left it lighter, &c.

BOHEMIA. Under the name of Bohemia in general are included the kingdom of Bohemia proper, the duchy of Sileſia, and the marquiſate of Moravia; which lie altogether in the form of a lozenge, between Auſtria on the ſouth; Brandenburg and Luſatia on the north; the palatinate of Bavaria, with part of Saxony, on the weſt; and Poland on the eaſt. The revenues of this country are computed at 12 or 1400,000 l. one year with another; a ſum which might be greatly augmented, were the mines, eſpecially thoſe in Bohemia proper, better looked to; they being eſteemed the richeſt in Europe, both for gold and precious ſtones. As to the proportion the three grand diviſions bear to one another, it will be beſt known by the extraordinary ſubſidies the emperor demanded of them for 1733, when Bohemia proper paid 260,000, Sileſia 190,000, Moravia 140,000.

The kingdom of Bohemia, properly ſo called, is bounded on the eaſt by Moravia and Sileſia; on the weſt by Miſnia and Bavaria; on the north by Luſatia; and, on the ſouth, by Auſtria. It is almoſt intirely encompaſſed with mountains, in which there are mines of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, and nitre. Carbuncles, emeralds, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphire, and other precious ſtones, abound more here than in any other part of the empire. Theſe the Jews ſend into foreign parts. Gold-ſand is likewiſe diſcovered in ſome of it's rivers. There are ſalt-pits, but, the product not anſwering the expence, they are ſupplied with it from Miſnia, and other places. They make great quantities of ſalt and allum. The ſoil produces ſtore of ſaffron. The gardens and orchards yield fruit enough ſufficient for conſumption and export. They don't much cultivate vineyards, becauſe their wine does not keep long. They have beer both brown and white, which is much valued and exported; and their hops are better, and more plentiful, than thoſe of their neighbours. They have meadows and paſtures in abundance, with large cattle, and horſes fit for war, beſide ſheep, and geeſe, whoſe feathers are carried abroad, there being no beds ſcarce at any of the inns but at Prague. The inhabitants of the towns here are not fond of either arms, arts, or trade, but prefer a ſupine indolent life. The revenue of Bohemia to the houſe of Auſtria is near a million a year ſterling.

The whole trade of the city of Prague is in the hands of the Jews, who deal in all ſorts of commodities, eſpecially in the precious ſtones found in the Bohemian mines, and, by receiving all old-faſhioned things in payment, quite ruin the Chriſtian handicraftſmen. There are cryſtals here called Bohemian cryſtals, which have a very good luſtre, when poliſhed by the Jews, and are ſet in ear-pendants, rings, and ſhirt-buttons; but are chiefly for luſtres and drinking-glaſſes, that are vended all over Europe.

KUTTENBURG, has no leſs than thirty mines in its neighbourhood, the chief of which, of the ſame name, is the richeſt in the kingdom, being nineteen fathom deep, containing ſilver and copper. An hundred weight of ſome of it's ore yields an ounce of ſilver, and from eight to ten of copper; and the like weight of the other ore yields eight or nine ounces of ſilver. When they meet with a vein of blue earth, they think it a ſign of good ore.

KADAN is a town noted for excellent beer.

CARELSBADT is noted for it's baths and medicinal waters, and is frequented by abundance of foreigners, particularly the nobility and gentry of Auſtria, as well as thoſe of Bohemia, and merchants from all parts. The town is inhabited chiefly by armourers, and other artificers in iron, who work very neat, and vaſtly cheap.

Near EGRA are mines of ſilver and copper. The river Eger here is broad and deep, and bears large veſſels. It was formerly noted for making the beſt mead in Germany. Without the city are large ſuburbs, with handſome houſes, and a great number of tanners, who ſend their ſkins all over Hungary and Auſtria.

The town of GLATZ has the privilege of coining money in the name of the magiſtrates, but they ſeldom coin any above the value of a farthing or a halfpenny. The trade of it is in ſilver ore, iron, timber, coals, veniſon, cattle, butter, and cheeſe.

BOLE, is ſaid in general of ſeveral kinds of earths, which enter into Galenical preparations, or which are uſed by painters, and ſome other artiſts.

Boles are native foſſil earths, uſually ſomewhat unctuous, ſo that, when mixed up with water, they may be wrought into a paſte, but not ſoluble either by water or fire. Such are Argill, or white clay; Axungia terræ, or Axungia lunæ; Cimolia, fuller's earth, boles-white and Armenian; the Chian, Eretrian, Lemnian, and Malteſe earths; ruddle; Samian, Selinuſian, Tocavian, and all the ſealed earths. But there are others of a drier and leaner kind, as chalk, ochre, and marle.

REMARKS.

Earth is an inſipid, opake, foſſil body, indiſſoluble by fire, water, or air, more fuſible than ſtone, ſtill friable, and uſually ſomewhat unctuous.

Earths are divided into ſimple, or immutable, and compound; though, perhaps, there is no ſuch thing as a ſtrictly ſimple earth; Mr Boyle having obſerved, that neither nature nor art appears to afford any elementary earth; at leaſt ſome which ſeem of the ſimpleſt ſorts, are found upon examination to have qualities not aſcribed to pure earth *.

* See Phil. Tranſact. No. 164.

To the firſt kind are reducible chalk, which is the ſimpleſt and drieſt of all earths, as having no diſcernible fatneſs at all, and appears to be denſe and brittle, readily ſtains the fingers, and ſticks to the tongue without any aſtringency. Different kinds of earth come under the denomination of chalk; among which, thoſe uſed in phyſick are the white chalk and red ochre. The beſt white chalk, called terra Cretica, was formerly brought from the iſland of Crete, but is now found in ſeveral other countries. It drinks up and ferments with acids, and is therefore ſucceſsfully uſed in acidities of the firſt paſſages, and particularly in the heart-burn; it ſoftens the acrimony of the fluids, and checks the violent motion of the bile, and conſequently proves of ſervice in ſome kinds of fluxes.——Under this ſpecies of earth, pumice, rotten-ſtone, &c. may be comprehended.

The ſecond, or the compound kind of earths, take in the different boles, as the red, white, and brown; moſt clays, eſpecially all the fat ones, which are wrought up and dried into potter's ware; fuller's earth; the ſeveral kind of medicinal earths, and ſome marle.

Bole is defined by ſome, to be a ponderous different-coloured earth and ſome marle, but leſs fat than clay, ſomewhat ſoluble in the mouth, of a rough taſte, and ſtains the finger. Only the Armenian and common boles are chiefly employed for medicinal purpoſes; being accounted aſtringents and ſofteners of acrimony, when internally given; and drying and aſtringent, in outward application.

Clay is a ponderous, denſe, fat, viſcid, and ſlippery earth; and, being held for ſome time in the mouth, leaves an impreſſion on the tongue, ſomething between that of ſoap and fat. When freſh dug, it may be moulded into any figure, like ſoft wax, and by fire be changed into a ſtony hardneſs. The ſpecies of clay are almoſt numberleſs, ſeveral of which ſhould ſeem to deſerve the title of ſimple earths, though on a ſtrict examen they appear very compound. Thus Mr Boyle thinks tobacco-pipe clay, by reaſon of it's fixity, whiteneſs, and inſipidity, may, with almoſt as much probability, be accounted elementary, as any other native earth; and yet tobacco-pipes, well-baked, may ſometimes be made to ſtrike fire; and it has been frequently found, that two pieces of new tobacco-pipe, being briſkly rubbed together, would in a minute or two grow warm, and being immediately ſmelt to, manifeſtly afford a rank ſcent, between ſulphureous and bituminous; almoſt like that which proceeds from pebbles and flints, rubbed hard againſt each other; as if tobacco-pipe clay were not a true earth, but a fine white ſand, conſiſting of grain too ſmall to be diſtinctly ſeen.

The ſame author obſerves, that porcelain, or the matter whereof China-ware is made, is a pure ſort of clay, which yet is ſometimes ſomewhat fuſible in a violent fire; and will ſtrike fire with ſteel, almoſt like a flint, to which it approaches in ſpecifick gravity. And the like has been found to obtain, in an imitation of porcelain with a ſort of Engliſh clay *.

* See Boyle's Abr. Vol. III. p. 422, 423.

Dr. Liſter makes clay a genus almoſt as extenſive as earth itſelf; dividing clays into two grand claſſes, under the title of pure and mixed. The former are ſoft and ſoluble in the mouth, and have little or no grittineſs; and theſe are ſubdivided into greaſy, which include the medicinal earths, or terræ ſigillatæ, and fuller's earth, yellow, brown, and white; boles, cow-ſhot clay, and a dark blue clay: harſh and duſty, when dry, as Cretes, properly ſo called, or the milk-white clay of the iſle of Wight; potter's clay, yellow, blue, and red: and ſtony, when dry, as the ſeveral ſorts of ſtone, clays, and clunch.

Mixed clays he ſubdivides into thoſe with round ſand and pebble; as the yellow loam of Kipworth-moor; the red ſandy clay near Rippon, &c. and thoſe with flat or thin ſand, glittering with micæ; as crouch-white clay, grey or bluiſh tobacco-pipe clay, and a red clay in the red ſand rock at Rotheram *.

* See Phil. Tranſact. No. 164.

The medicinal earths are very numerous, and by ſome comprehended under the ſpecies of clays, their virtues being nearly the ſame: a hiſtory of them has been long expected with impatience.

Marles, likewiſe, are of different kinds and various colours: the earth, generally known by the name of marle, is a light friable ſubſtance, of a middle nature between clay and chalk, but neither ſo fat as clay, nor ſo denſe as chalk, and ſticks to the tongue.

There are many other ſpecies of compound earths. For Vannochio, an eminent Italian mineraliſt, informs us, that a ſort of reddiſh earth often contains the richeſt metals; Mr Boyle has found finely figured cryſtals to grow in a red earth; and he had a whitiſh earth ſent him from the north of England, which contained a large quantity of lead. An experienced writer on the gold and ſilver mines of America obſerves, that gold itſelf is frequently diſguiſed under the appearance of a reddiſh earth. And our Engliſh ochres are richer, in iron, even than ſome ores of that metal.

Bole earths ſeem diviſible into two ſpecies, according as they are more or leſs tenacious; in which view loam and clay may repreſent them all. And even theſe two ſeem only to differ in reſpect of the fineneſs or coarſeneſs of their component parts; which renders them more or leſs tenacious, clinging, or adheſive. To make a true judgment of the quality of this kind of earth, the following experiment may give an inſight.

(1.) Common loam was mixed into a maſs with water, then dried, to ſhew that, compared with clay, it would eaſily break, crumble, and fall to powder. But (2.) Beating ſome loam fine in a mortar, and mixing it well with water, it clung like clay; and, when dried, adhered much more tenaciouſly than before.

This ſhews, that not only loam and clay, or all the bolar earths, are nearly the ſame thing, when their component parts, or gravelly and ſandy matters, are reduced to the ſame degree of fineneſs; but alſo ſupplies us with a plain and ſimple rule for the improvement of the art of pottery, and the imitation of China-ware.

And, perhaps, certain curious boles may afford very delicate matters for pottery wares, and that of variety of colours not leſs curious than the white; nor do I ſee why that colour, alone, ſhould be made the chief baſis of this art. The rule is to grind, or beat, the earths employed, to an extreme degree of fineneſs; and, accordingly, porcelain has been imitated in Europe by tobacco-pipe clay, and other earths exceedingly fine ground, mixed into a paſt with water, and properly baked and burnt.

Marles, or boles, alſo afford a fit matter for the making of crucibles, retorts, &c. They likewiſe ſerve to procure the diſcontinuation and diviſion of certain ſalts and other materials, that would otherwiſe riſe and boil over in the operation.

They contribute too more materially, more intimately, and eſſentially, as to quantity, in the fixation of certain bodies in the art of chemiſtry; as of oils, for example, of common ſulphur, and even of mercury. For which, ſee Becher's firſt ſupplement to his Phyſica Subterranea.

There are chiefly two ſorts of bole uſed in the medical way, the Armenian and common. The firſt, called

BOLE ARMONIAC, or ARMENIAC, or BOLUS ARMENIA VERA OFFICINARUM, which is a ponderous, fat, brittle earth, of an aſtringent taſte, of a colour between red and yellow. It is found in Armenia. It is not certain, whether that, mentioned by Galen, be the ſame with that of the Arabian, and later Greek writers; for the firſt was pale, and the other is of a ſaffron colour. It is poſſible, however, that the ſame vein may afford boles of different colours, as we ſee in the common ſort, which is found in the ſame ſpot of earth, ſometimes white, ſometimes yellow, and ſometimes red. The beſt Armenian bole is that which is moſt eaſily reduced to a fine powder in a mortar, or diſſolved in any liquor; which is without grit; and, when held in the mouth, ſeems to melt like butter, leaving an aſtringent taſte on the tongue. It is commended by Galen in dyſenteries, and other fluxes; in ſpitting of blood and catarrhs, eſpecially thoſe in which a thin matter falls into the thorax; and in ulcers of the lungs. The ſame author affirms, that, in a great plague, all who uſed this medicine were cured. Outwardly applied, it is drying and aſtringent, and is therefore proper to ſtop a flux of blood from freſh wounds.

The common bole is a ponderous brittle earth, of a colour between yellow and red, of an aſtringent taſte, and is found in many parts of France. It has the ſame virtues with the former, and is to be met with in the ſhops. As both theſe boles are frequently mixed with ſand and grit, the apothecaries prepare them in the following manner:

They diſſolve them in water, and, after the ſand has ſubſided, they pour the turbid ſolution into another veſſel, where it remains 'till the water is clear; being poured off, the ſediment is dried in little cakes, and kept for uſe.

They may be preſcribed to be taken inwardly, either alone, or mixed with ſealed earth, in this manner:

Take prepared or waſhed Armenian bole, ſealed earth, and Venice treacle, of each half a drachm; of ſyrup of dried roſes, an ounce; of plantane water, ſix ounces; mix and make them into a julep: to be taken by ſpoonfuls, in looſeneſſes, &c.

Take prepared Armenian bole, dragon's blood and maſtich, of each a ſcruple; of roch allum, fifteen grains; of ſyrup of comfrey, a ſufficient quantity to make them into a bolus. This bolus is to be repeated every four hours, 'till the flux is ſtopped, together with a draught of the decoction of the greater comfrey roots.

In wounds and contuſions, theſe boles and the ſealed earth may be uſed thus:

Take, of waſhed Armenian bole, a ſufficient quantity; beat it up with the white of an egg and roſe-water, into the conſiſtence of a cataplaſm, to be ſpread upon linnen cloth, and applied to the part affected, and keep it on by bandage dipped in oxycrate.

Take of Armenian bole, ſealed earth, and dragon's blood, of each two drachms; aloes, myrrh, and colcother, of each one drachm: mix them into a powder, to be applied to the part from which the blood flows.

Theſe boles are uſed in ſeveral officinal compoſitions, in the confection of hyacinth, Fracaſtorius's confection, Gordonius's troches, the bezoardic powder of Renodæus, the ſeratum ſantalinum, and plaiſter of fractures, in the Pharmacopœia Regia of Charas. See Geoffroy.

BOLE, or BOLUS, in phyſic, is a remedy prepared of ſuch a thickneſs or conſiſtency, that it may be ſwallowed in one or two bits, or from the point of a knife; it is contrived for the conveniency of perſons, who have an averſion for potable medicines.

BOLOGNESE, or the duchy of Bologna in Italy, is bounded on the north by the Ferrareſe, on the eaſt by Romagna, on the ſouth by Tuſcany, and on the weſt by the duchy of Modena.

BOLOGNA, the capital city, is ſituate at the foot of the Appenine mountains, on the little Rhine, or river Reno, and hath a noble plain on the other three ſides, which furniſh it with all the neceſſaries of corn, wine, oil, fruits, &c. Here is a large channel cut between the Reno and the Po, which wonderfully facilitates the tranſportation of all commodities to and from the city: thoſe which are tranſported are commonly wax, ſilk, hemp, flax, hams, tobacco, waſh-balls, perfumes, ſweet-meats, and a curious ſmall breed of lap-dogs, ſo little, that the ladies carry them about in their muffs and apron-pockets. Beſides theſe, they export great quantities of wrought ſilk of all ſorts, rich velvets, leather-bottles, and other manufactures of this city, beſides olives and other fruits, which are produced in great plenty in the neighbourhood of it. It is well peopled; the citizens are wealthy and induſtrious, and the noblemen are here in great numbers, who ſpend their money, and are above concerning themſelves with any kind of commerce. It is reckoned to contain about 80,000 inhabitants. The greateſt manufacture carried on here is that of ſilk, of which there are ſeveral wheels for winding.

BOMB, is a large ſhell of caſt iron, having a great vent to receive the fuſee, which is made of wood. The ſhell being filled with gunpowder, the fuſee is driven into the vent or aperture, and faſtened with a cement made of quick lime, aſhes, brick-duſt, and ſteel-filings, worked together in a glutinous water; or of four parts of pitch, two of colophony, one of turpentine, and one of wax. This tube is filled with a combuſtible matter, made of two ounces of nitre, one of ſulphur, and three of gunpowder-duſt, well rammed. To preſerve the fuſee they pitch it over, but uncaſe it, when they put the bomb into the mortar, and cover it with gunpowder-duſt, which, having taken fire by the flaſh of the powder in the chamber of the mortar, burns all the time the bomb is in the air, and, the compoſition in the fuſee being ſpent, it fires the powder in the bomb, which burſts with great force, blowing up whatever is about it: the great height the bomb goes in the air, and the force with which it falls, makes it go deep into the earth.

BOND, a deed, by which a perſon obliges himſelf to perform certain acts; ſuch as to pay a certain ſum, or to anſwer for another, or to ſerve an apprenticeſhip with a maſter. The latter is with us called an indenture. See APPRENTICE.

In England, bond is a deed or obligatory inſtrument in writing, whereby a perſon binds himſelf to another, to pay a ſum of money, or do ſome other act, as to make a releaſe, ſurrender an eſtate, for quiet enjoyment; to ſtand to an award, ſave harmleſs, perform a will, &c. It contains an obligation with a penalty annexed, and a condition which expreſsly mentions what money is to be paid, or what other things are to be performed, and the limited time for the performance thereof, for which the obligation is peremptorily binding.

It may be made upon parchment or paper, though it is uſually on paper, and be either in the firſt or third perſon: and the condition may be either in the ſame deed, or in another; and ſometimes it is included within, and ſometimes indorſed upon, the obligation; but it is commonly at the foot of the obligation.

A memorandum on the back of a bond may reſtrain the ſame, by way of exception.

The condition of a bond muſt be to do a thing lawful; and

bonds not to uſe trades, till or ſow the ground, &c. are unlawful, they being againſt the good of the public, and therefore void: and a condition of a bond to do a thing wicked in itſelf, as to kill a perſon, &c. is void; ſo are likewiſe bonds made by diſtreſs, by infants, by feme coverts, &c. And, if a woman, through threats or flattery, be prevailed upon to enter into a bond, ſhe may be relieved in chancery. If an infant ſeal a bond, and be ſued thereon, he is not to plead non eſt factum (it is not done) but muſt avoid the bond by ſpecial pleading; for this bond is only voidable, and not in itſelf void. 5 Rep. 119. But, if a bond be made by a feme covert, ſhe may plead her coverture, and plead non eſt factum, her bond being void. 10 Rep. 119.

If a bond depends upon ſome other deed, and the deed becomes void, the bond is alſo void.

A bond, made with condition not to give evidence againſt a felon, &c. is void; but the defendant muſt plead the ſpecial matter. 1 Leon. The condition of a bond to indemnify a perſon from any legal proſecution, is alſo void. 1 Lutw. 667. And, if a ſheriff takes a bond as a reward for doing of a thing, it is void. 3 Salk. 75.

Conditions of bonds are to be not only lawful, but poſſible; and when the matter or thing to be done, or not to be done, by a condition, is unlawful or impoſſible, or the condition itſelf repugnant, inſenſible, or uncertain, the condition is void, and in ſome caſes the obligation alſo. 10 Rep. 120.

But ſometimes an obligation may be ſingle to pay the money, where the condition is impoſſible, repugnant, &c. 2 Mod. 285.

If a thing be poſſible at the time of entering into the bond, and afterwards becomes impoſſible by the act of God, the act of the law, or of the obligee, it becomes void; and if a man be bound to appear next term, and dies before, the obligation is ſaved. A condition of a bond was, that J. S. ſhould pay ſuch a ſum upon the 25th of December, or appear in Hilary term after in the King's Bench; he dies after the 25th of December, and before Hilary term, and had paid nothing: in this caſe, the condition was not broken for non-payment, and the other part is become impoſſible by the act of God. 1 Mod. Rep. 265. And, when a condition is doubtful, it is always taken moſt favourably for the obligor, and againſt the obligee; but ſo that a reaſonable conſtruction be made as near as can be, according to the intention of the parties. Dyer, 51.

If no time be limited in a bond for payment of the money, it is payable on demand. 1 Brown, 53. But the judges have ſometimes appointed a convenient time for payment, having regard to the diſtance of place, and the time wherein the thing may be performed. And, if a condition be made impoſſible in reſpect to time, as to make payment of money on the 30th of February, &c. it ſhall be paid preſently, and here the obligation ſtands ſingle. Jones, 140. Though if the act be to be done at a certain place, where the obligor is to go to Rome, &c. and he is to perform the ſole act without limitation of time, he hath time during life to perform the ſame: if the concurrence of the obligor and obligee is requiſite, it may be haſtened by the requeſt of the obligee. 6 Rep. 30. 1 Roll. Abr. 437.

When no place is mentioned for performance of a condition, the obligor is obliged to find out the perſon of the obligee, if he be in England, and tender the money, otherwiſe the bond will be forfeited: but, when the place is appointed, he need ſeek no further. And, if where no place is limited for payment of money due on a bond, the obligor at, or after the day of payment, meets with the obligee and tenders him the money, but he goes away to prevent it, the obligor ſhall be excuſed. 8 Ed. IV. The obligor, or his ſervant, &c. may tender the money to ſave the forfeiture of the bond, and it ſhall be a good performance of the condition, if made to the obligee, though refuſed by him; yet, if the obligor be afterwards ſued, he muſt plead that he is ſtill ready to pay it, and tender the money in court. Co. Litt. 208.

The condition of a bond being for paying of money, it may be performed, by giving any other thing in ſatisfaction; becauſe the value of money is certain, and therefore may be ſatisfied by a collateral thing, if the obligee accept it: but, if the condition be to do a collateral thing, there it is otherwiſe, and paying money is no good ſatisfaction. 3 Bulſt. 148.

The acceptance of a new bond will not diſcharge the old one as a judgment may. One bond cannot be given in ſatisfaction of another; but this is where given by the obligor himſelf, for it may by others. 1 Mod. 221.

If a bond be to pay money on ſuch a time, &c. it is no plea for the obligor to ſay that he did pay it; he muſt ſhew at what time, or elſe it may be taken, that the performance was after the time limited. Noy's Max. 15.

If a bond be of twenty years ſtanding, and no demand be proved thereon, nor good cauſe of ſo long forbearance ſhewn to the court, upon pleading ſolvit ad diem (he paid it on the day) it ſhall be intended paid. Mod. Ca. 22.

Payment of money, without acquittance, is an ill plea to action of debt upon a ſingle bill; but it is otherwiſe upon a bond with condition. Dyer, 25.

If ſeveral days are mentioned for payment of money on a bond, the obligation is not forfeited, nor can be ſued until all the days are paſt: but, in ſome caſes, the obligee may proſecute for the money due by the bond preſently, though it be not forfeited; and, by ſpecial wording the condition, the obligee may be able to ſue the penalty on the firſt default. 1 Inſt. 292.

In a bond, where divers perſons are bound ſeverally, the obligee is at his election to ſue all the obligors together, or all of them apart, and have ſeveral judgments and executions; but he ſhall have ſatisfaction but once, for, if it be of one only, that ſhall diſcharge the reſt. If an obligation is joint and not ſeveral, all the obligors muſt be ſued that are bound; and, if one be proſecuted, he is not obliged to anſwer, unleſs the reſt are ſued likewiſe. Dyer, 19, 310.

Where two or more are bound in a joint bond, and only one is ſued, he muſt plead in abatement, that two more ſealed the bond, &c. and aver that they are living, and ſo pray judgment de billa, &c. and not demur to the declaration. Sid. 420.

If a bond is made to three, to pay money to one of them, they muſt all join in the action, becauſe they are but as one obligee. Yelv. 177.

An heir is not bound, unleſs he be named expreſsly in the bond, though the executors and adminiſtrators are. And, if an obligation be made to a man, his heirs or ſucceſſors, the executors and adminiſtrators ſhall have the advantage of it, and not the heir or ſucceſſor, becauſe it is a chattel. Dyer, 14, 271.

A declaration need not be according to the letter of the bond, where there is any omiſſion, &c. but according to the operation of law upon it. Mod. caſe 228.

In bonds to ſave harmleſs, the defendant being proſecuted, is to plead non damnificatus, &c. (no damage ſuffered, &c.)

A bond may be from one to one, one to two, three or more perſons; or from two or more perſons, to one, two, three, &c. and the name of the obligor ſubſcribed is ſaid to be ſufficient, though there is a blank for his Chriſtian name. 2. Cro. 261. But, where another Chriſtian name is in the bond, and the bond ſigned by the right name, though the jury find it to be his deed, the obligee cannot have judgment, for the name ſubſcribed is no part of the obligation. 2 Cro. 558. 1 Mod. 107. In theſe caſes, though there be a verdict, there ſhall not be judgment.

If a bond has no date, or a falſe date, if it be ſealed and delivered, it is good. A plaintiff may ſuggeſt a date in a bond, where there is none, or it is impoſſible, &c. where the parties and ſums are ſufficiently expreſſed. 5 Mod. 282.

A bond, dated the ſame day on which a releaſe is made of all things, uſque ad diem datus, &c. (to that day) is not thereby diſcharged. 2 Roll. Rep. 255.

A perſon ſhall not be charged by a bond without delivery, or words, or other things, amounting to a delivery. 1 Leon. 140.

A bond may be good, though it contains falſe Latin or falſe Engliſh, if the intent appears, for they do not make the bond void. 2 Roll. Abr. 146. The condition of a bond, the intent of what ſum was in the obligation, may be more eaſily known and explained; and the condition of the bond may be recorded, and the plaintiff demur, &c.

Likewiſe the condition of bonds may expound to whom an obligor is obliged to pay money: as if A binds himſelf to B, in a ſum to be paid to A, whereas it ſhould be to B, the obligation is good, and the ſolvendum void. 1 Inſt. 108, 209.

Interlineation in a bond, in a place not material, will not make the bond void: but, if it be altered in a point material, it ſhall be void. 1 Nelſ. Abr. 391. And a bond may be void by raſure, &c. as where the date, &c. is raſed after delivery, which goes through the whole. 5 Rep. 23.

Such words, whereby the intention of the parties may appear, are ſufficient to make the condition of a bond good, though they are not proper, and ſhall not be conſtrued againſt the expreſs words. If the words in a bond at the end of the condition, 'then this obligation to be void,' are omitted, the condition will be void, but not the obligation: but if the words, 'or elſe ſtand in force,' be left out, it has no effect to hurt either the condition or the obligation.

The ſtealing of any bond, or bill for money, being the property of any one, is made felony, as if the offenders had taken other goods of like value. Stat. 2 Geo. II. c. 25.

Form of a Bond for Payment of Money.

KNOW all men by theſe preſents, that I A. B. of the pariſh, &c. in the county, &c. gentleman, am held and firmly bound to C. D. of, &c. in the county aforeſaid, Eſq; in one hundred pounds of good and lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid to the ſaid C. D. or his certain attorney, his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns: to which payment, well and truly to be made, I bind myſelf, my heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, firmly by theſe preſents, ſealed with my ſeal: Dated the ſixth day of May, in the thirteenth year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George the ſecond, by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. and in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty.

The CONDITION of this obligation is ſuch, that if the above-bound A. B. his heirs, executors, or adminiſtrators, do and ſhall well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid, unto the above-named C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, the full ſum of fifty-two pounds and ten ſhillings of lawful money of Great Britain, on or before the ſixth day of November next enſuing the date hereof, then this obligation to be void, or otherwiſe to be or remain in full force and virtue. (Or it may be thus :)

That if the ſaid A. B. &c. do pay to the ſaid C. D. &c. the full ſum of fifty pounds, with intereſt for the ſame, after the rate of five pounds per cent. per ann. (or with lawful intereſt) on the day, &c. Then, &c.

BOND conditioned to pay an annuity for life, and to charge it upon lands in England within a year.

KNOW all men by theſe preſents, that I Anthony Acton, of, &c. Eſq; am bound and firmly obliged, unto Barnaby Burch, of, &c. in 800 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid unto him the ſaid Barnaby Burch, or to his certain attorney, his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns. To the well and true making of which payment, I bind myſelf, my heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, firmly by theſe preſents, ſealed with my ſeal, this thirtieth day of September, in the ſixth year of our ſovereign lord George the ſecond, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. and in the year of our Lord 1733.

Whereas the above-named Barnaby Burch has contracted and agreed with the above-bounden Anthony Acton, for the purchaſe of one annuity, or clear yearly ſum of 30 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, free from taxes and other deductions, during the life of him the ſaid Barnaby Burch, for the ſum or price of 360 l. of like lawful money; which ſaid ſum of 360 l. he, the ſaid Barnaby Burch, hath paid unto the ſaid Anthony Acton, at or before the ſealing and delivery of the obligation above-written, the receipt and payment whereof, accordingly, the ſaid Anthony Acton doth hereby acknowlege. Now, therefore, the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That, if the ſaid Anthony Acton, his heirs, executors, or adminiſtrators, ſhall and do well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid, unto the ſaid Barnaby Burch, and his aſſigns, during the term of his natural life, one annuity, or clear yearly ſum of 30 l. of lawful money of Great Britain, free from taxes, and all other deductions whatſoever, at the four moſt uſual feaſts, or days of payment, in every year, viz. &c. by even and equal portions; the firſt payment thereof to begin and to be made on the feaſt-day of the nativity of our Lord Chriſt, next enſuing the date of the obligation above-written; and alſo, if he the ſaid Anthony Acton, his heirs, executors, or adminiſtrators, ſhall and do, within one year next enſuing the date of the obligation above-written, at the requeſt of the ſaid Barnaby Burch, legally and effectually ſecure the payment of the ſaid annuity in manner aforeſaid, by and out of freehold meſſuages, lands, and tenements, or hereditaments, of him the ſaid Anthony Acton, in ſome convenient place, in that part of Great-Britain called England, of ſufficient value for that purpoſe, with proper power of entry and diſtreſs, for recovering the ſame annuity, in caſe of non-payment as aforeſaid, then this preſent obligation to be void and of none effect, or elſe to be and remain in full force and virtue. See Horſeman's Precedents in Conveyancing, Vol. I. p. 263. wherein may be found a great variety of bonds, very accurately and legally drawn, for many other important occaſions.

BONDING, or giving bond for duties to be paid at the cuſtom-houſe. All obligations and ſpecialities of this kind, made for any cauſe concerning the king's majeſty, &c. muſt be made by theſe words, domino regi, and to be paid by theſe words, ſolvend' eidem domino regi, hæredibus, vel executoribus ſuis. 13 Hen. VIII. cap. 39. §. 2, 3.

Bonds taken otherwiſe, the offender to ſuffer ſuch impriſonment, as ſhall be adjudged by the king or his council.—The debt of ſuch obligations not ſatisfied in the king's life-time, to come to his heirs. 6 Ann. cap. 26. §. 7.

Bonds written, to be ſtamped with three ſixpenny ſtamps. 5 and 6 W. and M. cap. 21. 8 and 9 W. III. cap. 20. 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 25.

Bonds written on paper, &c. before 'duly ſtamped, void 'till ſtamped, and payment of the duties, and 15 l. beſides, and the officer to forfeit his employment. 1 Ann. cap. 13. 5 Ann. cap. 8. and 5 ditto, cap. 19. and 12 and 13 Ann. cap. 9. §. 21 and 25.

Bonds to be given for duties on importation, ſee the ſeveral articles of merchandize, where an account of their reſpective duties is given.—See alſo CERTIFICATE of diſcharge.

REMARKS.

This giving bond for duties to the crown, ariſing from the great height of our cuſtom-houſe impoſts, is an evil which has been, and ſtill continues to be, attended with conſequences, not only greatly detrimental to traders and their ſureties, who have been jointly bound with them, but to the general traffic of the whole kingdom.

In regard to the former, that hath been too notorious to need animadverſion. With reſpect to the latter, the height of the cuſtoms, that may deſerve ſome notice in this place; it being a matter which has been greatly lamented by thoſe who have underſtood the true intereſt of the trade of this kingdom.

All authors agree, that low cuſtoms are one of the cauſes of the great trade of Holland. And, if low cuſtoms advance trade, it follows, that high cuſtoms muſt prejudice it, which is comparatively our caſe at preſent.

If the lower the cuſtoms, the greater the trade, no cuſtoms, or FREE PORTS, muſt carry trade to it's utmoſt height, which caſe might be ours.

If low cuſtoms have had ſuch good effects in Holland, which hath the moſt natural diſadvantages of any country; a free port muſt have the greateſt and beſt effect in Britain, whoſe natural advantages are beyond thoſe of any country in Europe, as will be proved under the article BRITAIN.

That the above obſervations are founded in truth will appear, by ſhewing how cuſtoms, eſpecially high ones, obſtruct the trade of theſe nations.

Firſt, They prevent our country's being an univerſal ſtore-houſe. Becauſe, our duties being ſo great an additional diſburſement to the firſt coſt of the goods, no merchant will let ſo much of his capital lie dead for duties here, when he can have it all circulating in commodities in other countries; nor can ſuch goods be re-exported, becauſe the officers fees in and out, which always remain, and the intereſt of the money lying dead for duties paid (though they be moſtly drawn back) are ſo great a charge, the natural intereſt of money being higher with us than in Holland, that the goods cannot come near ſo cheap from us to any foreign market, as from a free port where nothing is paid in or out; therefore they prevent our country's having the beſt choice of merchandize at the cheapeſt prices, to tempt foreigners to become our cuſtomers: the great duties on India goods diſcourage foreigners from buying at our ſales, who pay an extraordinary charge of commiſſion on that advanced price, and are forced to lie ſome months out of the money for their drawback.

Beſides, the ſtrict rule of declaring goods, at the cuſtom-houſe, makes public to every one each tranſaction of trade, and thereby prevents ſhipping, for foreign parts, ſuch goods as are there prohibited; which deprives us of ſeveral beneficial branches of trade that are carried on from Holland, or free ports, to the great advantage of foreign nations.

Secondly, High cuſtoms prevent the increaſe of our navigation, by enhancing the expences of building and navigating our ſhips.

Boards, hemp, ſail-cloth, and iron, paying duties, thoſe materials muſt be dear, and ſeveral neceſſaries of life paying ſome cuſtoms, and ſome exciſe, the ſhip-builder's labour muſt be dear, alſo the proviſions and ſtores put on board the ſhips.

The Engliſh ſailor paying, on his own and family's neceſſaries, cuſtoms, and exciſes, muſt have, and hath, higher wages, than moſt other countries give.

So that a Britiſh veſſel, built and rigged with dear materials, by dear labour, ſupplied with dear ſtores, and navigated by ſailors at dear wages, muſt have dear freights, bring in all foreign neceſſaries and materials for manufactures dear, and carry out all our own products and manufactures dear to foreign markets, much to the diſadvantage of their ſale.

This ſhews the reaſon, why we have not yet been effectually enabled to rival the Dutch, Hamburghers, &c. in the Greenland trade, the navigation of the Baltic, or the herring-fiſhery, which being trades carried on for ſmall profits, the dearneſs of our navigation has hitherto excluded us from making any advance in theſe branches: though it is to be hoped, from the encouragement given by parliament, and from the diſtinguiſhed wiſdom, ſkill and integrity, of thoſe zealous friends to the trading intereſt of this kingdom, who have, at preſent, the conduct of our herring-fiſheries, that we ſhall happily ſurmount every obſtacle, and raiſe that nurſery for ſeamen to that glorious pitch, to which it's warmeſt friends can deſire: to which end, it merits every kind of public encouragement, to prevent a poſſibility of miſcarriage.

By not having an univerſal ſtore-houſe, our ſhips, like empty houſes, lie by idle in our harbours, waiting months for freights, the intereſt of the money they coſt eating out their profits; or elſe are obliged to loſe their time, and be at great expences in going from one port to another to endeavour to obtain a cargo.

Thirdly, High duties prevent the increaſe of our ſailors, the true ſtrength of this nation.

This is a conſequence of the two laſt remarks; for no trade breeds ſo many or ſo good ſailors as a free port, and maritime carriage, the employment being the greateſt, and the experience the largeſt as the voyages are the moſt various and extenſive, it being no leſs than the trade of the whole world.

As high cuſtoms are inconſiſtent with ſuch a trade, of courſe they debar us of that increaſe of ſailors, which muſt be neceſſary to carry the ſame on, and who would protect us from,

and

and carry vengeance to, thoſe enemies who ſhall dare to inſult us.

All this is not only deſtructive to our riches, but alſo to our ſecurity, it being difficult in time of war to man our navy, not improperly called our floating caſtles; and occaſions that hard and diſagreeable cuſtom of preſſing, which puts a free-born Britiſh ſailor on the footing of a Turkiſh ſlave: the Grand Signior cannot do a more abſolute act, than to order a man to be dragged away from his family, and againſt his will run his head before the mouth of a cannon; and, if ſuch acts ſhould be frequent in Turky, upon any one ſet of uſeful men, would it not drive them away to other countries, and thin their number yearly? and would not the remaining few double or treble their wages? Such is the caſe of our ſailors in time of war, to the great detriment of our trade and manufactures.

Fourthly, High duties leſſen the capitals of our merchants. By keeping a great part of their ſtocks by them idle, to pay duties of the goods they import, which is, in effect, making them not only advance their money, or ſtrain their credit by bonding, or otherwiſe, for the ſervice of the ſtate, but likewiſe run the riſque in the credit they give of ever being reimburſed, and is diverting a ſtream of riches that ſhould water trade; for it often happens that when our merchants are ſhort of caſh, and they have both cuſtoms and manufacturers to pay, ſo much money goes for the firſt, that nothing is left for the latter, which cauſes a circulation of diſappointments, ſeldom known in Holland on that account; and the Dutch merchants can carry on the ſame trade with much leſs ſtock than ours, ſell cheaper, extend their commerce farther, and of courſe give better encouragement to their working people, whereby they cauſe them to be more induſtrious than ours.

The following caſe will ſhew the difficulties and diſcouragements our merchants labour under more than the Dutch, one of our great rivals in trade.

Suppoſe a merchant in Rotterdam to ſhip corn for Bourdeaux in France, and the neat produce to amount to the value of 2000 l. ſterling; if he orders it to be inveſted in wines, and ſhipped for Holland, he will not pay for duties above 40 l.

Suppoſe a merchant in London to ſhip corn for Oporto, and the net produce to amount to the value of 2000 l. ſterling; if he orders it to be inveſted in wines, and ſhipped for England, he will pay for duties above 2000 l.

Therefore the dutch merchant's prime coſt and duties of his cargo will be - - - - - -	l. 2040
The Engliſh ditto - - - - - -	4000

1960 l. of the Engliſh merchant's diſburſe more than the Dutch merchant's in the amount of the duties, is impriſoned until the people he truſts pays him, which may be a year, or a year and a half; whereas, if the Dutch merchant's capital be equal, he has had 1960 l. to employ in buying up goods to freight another adventure, perhaps of woollens, giving quick employment to the navigation and manufactures of his country.

Suppoſe the retailers they truſt break about the year's end, and make a compoſition, amounting to 25 per cent. on the prime coſt and duties of the wines.

The Dutch merchant's loſs will be - - -	l. 1530
The Engliſh ditto - - - - -	3000

This alſo makes our merchants riſque in trade greater, and their loſſes heavier, than in Holland.

Fifthly, High duties encourage and force the conſumption of foreign ſuperfluities.

The dearer outlandiſh luxuries are, the more are they eſteemed by our people of taſte; it is the expence that makes the elegancy; therefore duties on them only further their ſale, as Mr Locke clearly proves in his Conſiderations, &c. 'For, 'it being vanity, not uſe, that makes the expenſive faſhions of 'your people, the emulation is, who ſhall have the fineſt, 'that is, the deareſt things, not the moſt convenient or uſe-'ful. How many things do we value and buy, becauſe they 'come at dear rates from Japan and China, which, if they 'were our own manufacture or product, to be had common, 'and for a little money, would be contemned and neglected? 'Have not ſeveral of our own commodities, offered to ſale at 'reaſonable rates, been deſpiſed, and the very ſame eagerly 'bought and bragged of, when ſold for French, at a double 'price? You muſt not, therefore, think that the raiſing their 'price will leſſen the vent of faſhionable foreign commodities 'amongſt you, ſo long as men have any way to purchaſe them, 'but increaſe it.' Page 93.

But, beſides encouraging, our cuſtoms force the conſumption of moſt foreign ſuperfluities that are imported; for, though the duties be moſtly drawn-back on ſome articles, yet the intereſt of the money, lying dead for duties and fees in and out, hinders, in ſome degree, their re-exportation, and, in many articles, the duties are only in part drawn-back; ſo that what remains is ſuch an additional load as prevents ſuch goods being ſaleable at any other market, and, conſequently, forces us to conſume all ſuch ſuperfluities.

This makes a people luxurious, who can do nothing with foreign ſuperfluities but riot and indulge; whereas the Dutch, having the object of gain always before their eyes, by the advance of foreign markets for their ſuperfluities they have in their ſtorehouſes, are checked from indulging in what appears to them common, and of no great value for the preſent, but may be attended with great profit hereafter; which accounts for the Dutch frugality, ſo juſtly celebrated by all authors.

It is the exceſſive conſumption among us, not the trade in foreign ſuperfluities, that ſhould be diſcouraged; and which is certainly beſt done by taxing the conſumers, letting the goods, as objects of traffic, go quite free; whereas our high duties on the goods do juſt the reverſe, for they encourage the conſumption, and deſtroy the trade, to the immenſe loſs of the nation.

Sixthly, High duties encourage ſmuggling.

Where the avoiding high cuſtoms makes the profit great, no riſque, no danger, can prevent men's attempting it; it is throwing out a bait to a greedy fiſh, he will ſnap at it, though deſtruction enſues; this prejudices and diſcourages the fair trader, either tempts or forces him to turn ſmuggler, and aſſociate himſelf with thoſe many examples of depravity we have at this time among our people, living in a ſtate of war with the government, in defiance of laws; whereby an univerſal corruption of manners, and contempt of authority, muſt enſue, if not more effectually prevented than ſeems in the power of hanging to do.

Beſides, it being chiefly the articles of luxury that are ſmuggled, as brandy, tea, French wines, laces, ſilks, &c. it ſpreads their conſumption among the lower claſs of people, who are tempted to imitate, at a leſs expence, the luxuries of their ſuperiors; and the ſame ſmugglers that bring us theſe ſuperfluities, carry off vaſt quantities of raw wool, to the great prejudice of our manufactures, and the kingdom in general.

Seventhly, High duties ruin manufactures, eſpecially the woollen.

Cuſtoms prevent the bartering away our manufactures for foreign goods, not only for our own conſumption, but alſo for exportation, which might enlarge the vent of our goods ten times more than at preſent: for if a merchant now exports woollen goods, and would barter them for wines, the duties on them would amount to more than the coſt of his woollen goods; ſo that he muſt have a double capital for ſuch an adventure, or let it quite alone, whereby the ſale of great quantities of woollen goods are loſt to the nation.

As cuſtoms enhance the expence of our navigation, the freights muſt be raiſed accordingly, whereby the prices of ſoap, oil, and dying ſtuffs, uſed in manufacturing our wool, are advanced to the maker, and the freights on the cloths or ſtuffs exported, being alſo raiſed, are additional clogs upon the ſales of our woollen goods.

Cuſtoms prevent the carrying and fiſhing trades, the great nurſeries of ſeamen, whereby our ſailors being few, and their expences raiſed by taxes on the neceſſaries of life, they have the higheſt wages of moſt people in Europe; which, as it is an additional advance of our own freight, ſo it proves injurious to our woollen trade in proportion.

Cuſtoms taking away ſo great a part of our merchants ſtock, they are thereby deprived of driving that great trade of maritime carriage, and vending thoſe quantities of woollen goods, they would otherwiſe do: beſides, our merchants riſque in trade being greater than in Holland, and their loſſes heavier, as we have ſhewn, their bankruptcies muſt be more frequent; this ſenſibly affects our manufacturers, who are generally conſiderable creditors: for broken merchants may be well compared to nine-pins, one of which ſeldom falls without beating down many others.

Cuſtoms recommend foreign manufactures of fine goods, by making them expenſive, which vanity, on that account, ſoon renders faſhionable; whilſt our own are deſpiſed, though ſuperior in goodneſs, and are a great diſcouragement to our manufactures.

Cuſtoms are the cauſe of the ſmuggling of wool, becauſe the gain being great by running tea, brandy, and French goods, on account of the high duties, hath raiſed the contraband trade to a great height; and the ſmugglers cannot make their returns in any commodities of ſo quick and certain a vent, or that gives ſo good a profit, as our wool; for the French, being leſs taxed in proportion to their number of people than we, can work cheaper, and their own wool being coarſe, in compariſon to ours, Engliſh and Iriſh wools are ſo much in demand, that they will give great prices for them; for which reaſon they receive vaſt quantities, to the ruin of the vent of our own manufactures in foreign countries.

Cuſtoms on the neceſſaries of life, and the materials of divers manufactures, muſt neceſſarily make all our commodities dear, not only to our own people, but to foreigners likewiſe (though our workmen ſhould have no exciſes to pay) and ſuch diſcouragements give opportunity to foreigners to ſend their manufactures cheaper to foreign markets, and ſmuggle them, in defiance of all laws, into our own country, to the daily ruin of our manufacturers; for all thoſe cuſtoms which affect the neceſſaries of life, and the materials of various manufactures, are as much taxes on our woollen manufactures as if they were laid on the wool itſelf, or more: for the workman muſt raiſe the money on the woollen goods he makes,

makes, to pay the duties of what he uſes of the above articles, with the advances in all the hands they paſs through, before they come to him.

It is by theſe means that we ourſelves drive away our own manufacturers, and prevent our ever getting more; and foreigners could not rival the people of ſo fruitful a country as Britain, if we did not furniſh them with the means of our high taxes and reſtraints, that are always prejudicial to trade, though deſigned to advance it, and never effect the thing intended, though fortified with the moſt rigorous penal laws; of which Mr Locke gives an inſtance in his Conſiderations, &c. p. 116. 'Tis death in Spain to export money; and 'yet they, who furniſh all the world with gold and ſilver, 'have leaſt of it among themſelves; trade fetches it away 'from that lazy and indigent people *, notwithſtanding all 'their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it, and it follows trade againſt the rigour of their laws; and their want 'of foreign commodities makes it openly to be carried out 'at noon-day.'

* The Spaniards have borne this reproach ſo long from other nations, that they now ſeem, according to the ſyſtem of policy which they have adopted, to deſerve quite a different character. See the articles BISCAY and SPAIN.

This ſeems to be a parallel of the ſtate we are coming to, and which ſome foreigners may ſoon poſſibly make.

It is felony in England to export wool, and yet they who furniſh all the world with wool have leaſt of the manufacturing of it among themſelves; the ſmuggling trade fetches it away from that exciſed and cuſtom-loaded people, notwithſtanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to keep it there: it follows the ſmuggling trade againſt the rigour of their laws, and their want of taking off the taxes on their manufacturers makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.

By this we ſee that neither death nor baniſhment can force trade to an unnatural channel; and it may be compared, in one reſpect, to water, which cannot be compreſſed within it's natural dimenſions; the more force is exerted, the ſooner is the veſſel broke that contained it, and the water let looſe, never to return.

The great De Wit, in his Memoirs, Ratiſbon edit. p. 77, aſſerts, 'That the navigation, the fiſhery, the trade and ma-'nufactures, which are the four pillars of the ſtate, ſhould 'not be weakened or encumbered by any taxes; for it is they 'that give ſubſiſtence to the moſt part of the inhabitants, and 'which draw in all ſorts of ſtrangers, unleſs the neceſſity was 'ſo great that the country was threatened with an intire de-'ſtruction; and theſe fundamentals ſhould be attacked, up-'on the hopes that theſe taxes would not laſt long; at leaſt, 'haſte ſhould be made, as ſoon as the ſtorm was over, to take 'them off. Again, this diſtinction ſhould be made, that ma-'nufactures ſhould not, nor cannot, be taxed at all, becauſe 'they are not fixed to the country, and we muſt fetch from 'foreign countries the ſtuffs and materials to work them up.'

Eighthly, High duties ſend away our ſpecie.

Britain, having no mines of gold or ſilver, has no means of getting or preſerving it's treaſure but by foreign trade. As cuſtoms confine our trade to mere importation for our own neceſſaries or vanities, and, at the ſame time, ruin our manufactures, what we want in exports to ballance the imports, muſt be paid in ſpecie, making the ballance of trade every year more and more againſt us; for as we raiſe the prices of our goods ſo high by taxes that foreigners will not take them, and yet continue to import their ſuperfluities, which we now chiefly, and in time muſt intirely, pay for with our gold and ſilver, as appears by the bills of entry, in every week, we are beginning to do; and our high duties encouraging ſmugglers, who have ſeldom a ſettled habitation, or any ſtock of our manufactures by them, they carry out no inconſiderable quantities of ſpecie to purchaſe their cargoes. Such large draughts make our mint lie almoſt idle: we find our money diſappear, and grow ſcarcer and ſcarcer every year, our trade declining, and our people ſtarve.

The bonding of duties being the apparent conſequence of high cuſtoms, we have judged it no way improper, under this article, gradually to lay open ſuch ſentiments, as, we humbly apprehend, may have a tendency to prevent the neceſſity of a practice, which, we experimentally know, has proved ruinous to numbers of our eminent traders, and their ſureties. And practices which have ſuch fatal effects, with reſpect to individuals, cannot be compatible with the general intereſt of trade; which, we conceive, will appear from what we have ſaid on this occaſion, and what hereafter we ſhall ſubmit to conſideration, in ſuch parts of this work as have a connection with the like point.

BOOK, a work of genius, wit, or learning, compoſed for the advantage of the public, or ſometimes only for pleaſure or curioſity.

Books are printed by the printers, bound by the bookbinders, and ſold by the bookſellers, either wholeſale or retail, bound or in ſheets. We ſpeak elſewhere of theſe three profeſſions, and of their art and trade.

Beſides printed books, there are others in manuſcript. Among the Roman Catholics in France, they give the name of uſages, or church-books, to books of devotion, or to thoſe that are uſed for the divine ſervice in churches.

Printed books are diſtinguiſhed by their ſizes, or forms, which are of ſeveral ſorts; as books in folio, in quarto, in octavo, in duodecimo, or twelves, &c. which is to be underſtood of the manner of folding the ſheets, and the number of leaves, or of pages, which each ſheet contains.

BOOK in Sheets, is a book which is neither bound, nor ſtitched, nor folded. The authors, printers, and bookſellers in France, who obtain privileges or licences for the printing and vending of books, are, according to the public edicts and declarations for that purpoſe, obliged to deliver eight books, or copies, to the ſyndical chamber; but it is ſufficient that the books be in ſheets: they are not obliged to deliver them bound.

A BOOK Bound, is a book which, after it has been beat, ſewed, and cut, is covered with paſte-boards, and theſe again with ſome ſort of leather, or other ſtuff. See BINDING.

BOOKS Prohibited, are ſuch, the printing and ſelling of which are forbid by the laws and ordonnances of France. Under this head are comprehended in that kingdom all books againſt religion, morality, and the ſtate; and even books printed without privilege or licence, without the name or mark of the printer and bookſeller, and in which the name of the place where they were printed is not mentioned.

There is hardly any trade in France which is more free than that of bookſelling. This liberty of the book-trade conſiſts chiefly in a double exemption; the one from all duties of importation and exportation out of the kingdom, or any other tax or importation within the kingdom; the other from all viſitation, or ſearch, except thoſe of the ſyndic and aſſiſtants of the bookſeller's company; which ſearch is, nevertheleſs, not made at the cuſtom-houſe, or offices belonging to it, but in the company's ſyndical chamber, or hall.

This double exemption is very ancient, and was granted and confirmed by the kings of France, in behalf of a trade which is ſo uſeful to religion, the ſtate, and literature.

The declaration of Lewis XII, given at Blois the 9th of April, 1513, which has ſerved as a ground work, or model, to that great number of declarations, edicts, decrees of the council, and of the parliament, which have been publiſhed under the following reigns, 'till this time, orders, That all books, either in Latin or in French, bound or not bound, ſhall be free from all tolls and inland duties, whitherſoever they be carried by land or by water, within the kingdom, or out of it, without paying any tax, impoſition, or any other ſubſidy whatſoever.

The declaration of Henry II, dated the 27th of June, 1551, forbids the opening of the bales of books, except in the preſence of the ſyndics and aſſiſtants.

Theſe two declarations concerning the exempting books from all taxes, and from all viſitations except thoſe of the ſyndical chamber, have been ſince confirmed by all the ſucceſſors of Lewis XII. and Henry II; the former in 1543, by Francis I. and, in 1547, by Henry II, and afterwards both together, by Charles IX, in 1560; by Henry III, in 1587; by Henry IV, in 1595; by Lewis XIII, in 1630; and finally by Lewis XIV, by ſeveral decrees and declarations of the council; the moſt conſiderable of which are the decrees of December 1651, and of the 18th of Auguſt 1699, and the declaration of the 11th of September 1703.

The viſitors, or ſearchers, of the cuſtom-houſe of Paris do indeed open the bales and cheſts in which the books are packed up, in order to ſee if there be not any other merchandizes concealed among them, but they do not examine the books, which are ſent to the ſyndical chamber.

The licentiouſneſs of authors, and of printers and bookſellers, the former of whom may make an ill uſe of their genius by compoſing, and the latter of their profeſſion, by printing and diſperſing among the public ſuch books as may be dangerous to religion, good morals, or the ſtate, have been the occaſion that at all times ſome precautions have been taken, in order to prevent, or put a ſtop to, ſuch an abuſe.

Before the invention of printing, the univerſity of Paris was alone charged with that care, with regard to thoſe books which were expoſed to ſale in that city by the bookſellers, who were then abſolutely ſubject to that body, and could not publiſh any book for ſale before they had communicated it to the cenſors of books appointed by the univerſity, to be by them either approved or corrected.

Part of this right of inſpection over books, as far, at leaſt, as it relates to thoſe of divinity, or which treat of any religious ſubject, is ſtill enjoyed by the univerſity, and no ſuch books can be printed without the approbation of ſome of the doctors.

But, the better to prevent the printing and vending of ſuch books of all ſorts as are any way obnoxious, the government has impoſed the neceſſity of obtaining a privilege under the great ſeal, or a licence from the officers of the police, according to the quality of the impreſſions; beſides which, they are alſo obliged to annex to the books the names of the authors, bookſellers, and printers, with their marks, as alſo the name

of the place where the books are printed; without all which particulars, a book is reckoned contraband, and liable to be ſeized, and the bookſellers and printers to be fined or even more ſeverely puniſhed, if the caſe requires it.

We ſhall not, in this place, ſpeak of the ſeveral edicts, declarations, and decrees, either of the council or of the parliament, by which that ſort of policy was ſettled for the regulation of the book-trade in France, becauſe we give a particular account thereof in two other articles of this Dictionary. See the article BOOKSELLER.

As all theſe regulations could relate only to books printed within the kingdom, and that books imported from abroad, and eſpecially from a neighbouring ſtate (Holland) equally famous both for the ability and licentiouſneſs of it's printers, might contain a venom more dangerous ſtill, they have taken in France ſeveral precautions againſt it; either to prevent the importation of books which are there eſteemed injurious to the ſtate, or of counterfeited books, that is to ſay, of books printed in France, and reprinted abroad, or to diſcover and find them out when they have been imported by ſtealth, deceiving the vigilance of the inſpectors.

To prevent the importation of dangerous or counterfeited books, Lewis XIV. has, by a decree of the council, given the 11th of June, 1710, regulated and ſpecified the towns by which alone all books and pamphlets imported from foreign countries may be entered into the kingdom.

There are ten of theſe towns, namely, Paris, Roan, Nantz, Bourdeaux, Marſeilles, Lyons, Straſburgh, Metz, Rheims, and Amiens; to which Liſle has ſince been added, by a decree of the council, given the 18th of December, 1717, for books and pamphlets coming from foreign countries, through French-Flanders.

In each of theſe eleven cities there is a chamber eſtabliſhed, where the books are firſt to be depoſited, to be afterwards viſited by the ſyndics of the company of bookſellers, or by two bookſellers appointed for that purpoſe, in thoſe towns where there are no ſyndics. Laſtly, the ſyndics, or appointed bookſellers, are obliged to draw up an exact catalogue of all the books that are brought into, and viſited in, their chamber, and to ſend every week an atteſted copy thereof to the chancellor, that he may, according to the orders he ſhall receive from the king, regulate all that concerns the ſuppreſſing, ſeizing, permitting, ſelling, and vending of all the ſaid books.

This decree, relating to the importation of books into the kingdom of France, was the next year followed by a declaration of the ſame king, given at Fontainebleau the 5th of September, 1711, containing a regulation of what is to be obſerved in the ſale of books within the city of Paris.

By this declaration, which was explained by a ſubſequent one, given in November the ſame year, it is ordered, in nine articles,

1. That, according to the regulations made in the year 1686, relating to the trade of books, none but bookſellers and printers ſhall have liberty to carry on that trade; with leave, however, to all private perſons to diſpoſe of their books, libraries, and cabinets, but not before having been examined by the ſyndics and aſſiſtants of the bookſeller's company, and having firſt obtained leave of the lieutenant-civil, and of the lieutenant-general of the police.

2. That the bookſellers and printers who ſhall have bought a library, or cabinet of books, in company, ſhall cauſe the books to be carried into the ſyndical chamber, the books being firſt examined, in order to proceed there, in the preſence of the ſyndic and aſſiſtants, to the dividing among them ſuch books, the ſale of which is not prohibited; for the performance of which they have but eight days time allowed them; during which they are not allowed to ſell one ſingle book, under any pretence whatſoever.

3. The books thus bought in company ſhall not, before they are ſhared, be carried any where but to the ſyndical chamber; nor, after they are ſhared, any where but into the ſhops of the bookſellers and printers who bought them, and to whoſe ſhare they fell, under the penalty of forfeiting the books, and a fine of 1500 livres.

4. If libraries, or cabinets of books, be bought by one printer or bookſeller only, he ſhall have liberty to carry them to his houſe to ſell them in his ſhop, but not any where elſe, after they ſhall have been viſited, without diſplacing them, at the place of ſale.

5. That no perſon ſhall have liberty to let out any place to put books into, but after obtaining permiſſion from the lieutenant-general of the police, under the penalty of a fine of 500 livres.

6. That no bookſeller nor printer ſhall have a warehouſe out of his dwelling-houſe, unleſs he makes a declaration of it to the ſyndics and aſſiſtants, which ſhall be entered into a particular regiſter kept for that purpoſe, under the penalty of forfeiting all the books that ſhall be found in ſuch a warehouſe, and a fine of 1500 livres: and no private perſon ſhall let out to hire ſuch places, but by a leaſe made before a notary, and after the abovementioned declaration ſhall have been regiſtered, under the ſame penalty of a fine of 1500 livres.

7. That, at the time of taking off the ſeals, the books either prohibited or printed without licence, ſhall be ſet apart by the commiſſary who put on the ſeals, to be carried, after a catalogue of them ſhall have been made, into the ſyndical chamber, and delivered to the ſyndic and aſſiſtants, upon their receipt written at the bottom of the catalogue.

8. That, in caſe there be a ſale of books, to which the ſeal was not ſet, the ſyndic and aſſiſtants ſhall be called to viſit them, and the books prohibited, or printed without licence, ſhall be ſeparated from the reſt, and ſent to the ſyndical chamber, as above.

9. Finally, it is ordered, that no printer or bookſeller ſhall appraiſe any books, unleſs a certificate be firſt produced of their having been duly viſited, under the penalty of a fine of 500 livres, and being interdicted for ſix months.

With regard to the ſecond declaration, deſigned to explain the former, it is thereby ordered, that the formalities commanded by the firſt, concerning the viſiting and ſelling of libraries, or cabinets of books, ſhall take place only in caſes of voluntary or forced ſales, but not in caſes of legacies, gifts, or preſents of ſuch libraries or cabinets of books.

REMARKS.

To urge a word in favour of letters and uſeful ſciences, is as needleſs, at this time of day, as to declaim on the benefits of rain and ſun-ſhine, when nature requires them for the cultivation of the earth: and, from the hiſtory of mankind, ſuch ſeems to have been the firſt rudeneſs and barbariſm of the human ſpecies, that the mind of man would have continued as wild and barren as the earth, without culture by art and ingenuity.

Books being the only means whereby knowlege of every kind can be generally and eaſily conveyed, they become eſtimable in proportion to the uſeful matter they propagate: and, although ſome may abuſe this power, yet ſo tenacious of this privilege of book-printing have been the warmeſt friends to the liberties of theſe kingdoms, that they have looked on it as the great palladium of our civil and religious rights, and have therefore zealouſly contended for it's preſervation.

If then a privilege of this nature be eſteemed ſo dear to this nation, ſhould not all due encouragement be given by the legiſlature to ſupport and maintain it? Can any means prove more effectual to that end, than ſecuring to every one, who thus generouſly communicates the reſult of his ſtudies for the benefit of the public, a right and property to the productions of his own labours? However reaſonable this is, yet it ſeems extraordinary, methinks, that authors ſhould be the only people in the kingdom whoſe property is not juſtly and ſafely eſtabliſhed.

REMARKS.

As this point is put in a judicious, and, in my humble judgment, an unanſwerable light, by a very learned gentleman, who has obliged the world with ſome of the moſt admirable performances which this age has produced, I am highly ſenſible that giving the reader his ſentiments will be far more acceptable than any thing that can come from me; and therefore I ſhall crave that learned author's permiſſion to reprint his Letter to a member of parliament, concerning literary property, at large, leſt it's ſtrength and elegancy ſhould be loſt, by being in the leaſt curtailed.

SIR,

'It ſeemeth, to me, an odd circumſtance, that, amidſt the juſteſt and ſafeſt eſtabliſhment of property, which the beſt form of government is capable of procuring, there ſhould yet be one ſpecies of it belonging to an order of men, who have been generally eſteemed the greateſt ornament, and, certainly, are not the leaſt ſupport of civil policy, to which little or no regard hath been hitherto paid. I mean, the right of property in authors to their works. And ſurely, if there be degrees of right, that of authors ſeemeth to have the advantage over moſt others; their property being, in the trueſt ſenſe, their own, as acquired by a long and painful exerciſe of that very faculty which denominateth us men; and, if there be degrees of ſecurity for it's enjoyment, here again they appear to have the faireſt claim, as fortune hath been long in confederacy with ignorance, to ſtop up their way to every other kind of acquiſition.

Hiſtory, indeed, informeth us, that there was a time when men in public ſtations thought it the duty of their office to encourage letters: and when thoſe rewards, which the wiſdom of the legiſlature had eſtabliſhed for the learned in that profeſſion deemed more immediately uſeful to ſociety, were carefully diſtributed amongſt the moſt deſerving. While this ſyſtem laſted, authors had the leſs occaſion to be anxious about literary property: which was, perhaps, the reaſon why the ſettlement of it was ſo long neglected, that at length it became a queſtion, whether they had any property at all.

But this fond regard to learning being only an indulgence to it's infant age: a favour, which, in theſe happy times of it's maturity, many reaſons of ſtate have induced the public wiſdom to withdraw; letters are now left, like virtue, to be their own reward. We may ſurely then be permitted to expect

that ſo ſlender a pittance ſhould, at leaſt, be well ſecured from rapine and depredation.

Yet ſo great is the vulgar prejudice againſt an author's property, that when, at any time, attempts have been made to ſupport it, againſt the moſt flagrant acts of robbery and injuſtice, it was never thought prudent to demand the public protection as a right, but to ſupplicate it as a grace: and this too, in order to engage a favourable attention, conveyed under every inſinuating circumſtance of addreſs; ſuch as promoting the paper manufactory at home, or augmenting the revenue by that which is imported from abroad.

The grounds of this prejudice are various. It hath been partly owing to the complaints of unſucceſsful writers againſt bookſellers, for not bringing their works to a ſecond edition; and partly to the complaints of little readers againſt ſucceſsful ones, for a contrary cauſe; when, to the great damage of the purchaſers of the firſt edition, they have fraudulently improved a ſecond. For the proprietor profeſſing to ſell only his paper and print, and not the doctrine conveyed by it, the purchaſer, who has nothing elſe for his money, never reckons (and often with good reaſon) his improvement for any thing. So that, when a ſecond edition leſſeneth the price of the firſt, he very naturally thinks himſelf tricked of his money.

Another ground of prejudice is, the unfair advantage made of the author's property by bookſellers: which, if true, would be juſt as good a reaſon for refuſing him the public protection, as it would be to turn all thoſe eſtates upon the common which one of your Peter Walters has out at nurſe. For why ſhould it be expected of an author, and of no one elſe, to become ſage before he be intruſted with his own? Let him but ſhare in the common ſecurity, and he will ſoon learn the value of property, and how to uſe it like his neighbours. As it is, we need not wonder he ſhould be diſpoſed to part with that, for little, which he is unable to preſerve but at great hazard and expence.

A third ground of prejudice is the odious ſound of the word monopoly. But this is taking the thing in queſtion for granted, viz. that an author hath no right of property: for a monopoly is an excluſive privilege by grant of doing that which all men have a claim to do; not an excluſive right by nature of enjoying what no one elſe has a claim to. So that to make this a monopoly, is making a proprietor and a monopoliſt the ſame.

A fourth ground of prejudice is the favourite ſound of liberty, in theſe times commonly uſed for licentiouſneſs; and apparently ſo on this occaſion. For liberty ſignifies the power of doing what one will with one's own; which is the right we here contend for: and licentiouſneſs the doing what we will with another man's; which is the wrong we ſeek to redreſs. So that, as ſure as licentiouſneſs deſtroys liberty, ſo certain is it that the production of the right in queſtion adds ſtrength and vigour to it.

But it is not my deſign to defend the uſe men make of property, but to vindicate the right they have in it. I ſhall therefore go to the bottom of them; and, as they all ſupport themſelves on the falſe logic here detected, the taking the thing in queſtion for granted, I ſhall ſhew, that an author has an undoubted right of property in his works.

Things ſuſceptible of property muſt have theſe two eſſential conditions, that they be uſeful to mankind, and that they be capable of having their poſſeſſion aſcertained. Without the firſt, ſociety will not be obliged to take the right under it's protection; and, without the ſecond, it will never venture upon the trouble.

Of theſe, ſome are moveable, as goods; ſome immoveable, as lands: and they become property either by firſt occupancy, or by improvement.

Of moveables, ſome are things natural; others, things artificial. Property in the firſt is gained by occupancy; in the latter, by improvement.

Moveable property, ariſing from improvement, is of two ſorts; the product of the hand, and of the mind; as an utenſil made; a book compoſed. For that the product of the mind is as well capable of becoming property as that of the hand, is evident from hence, that it hath in it thoſe two eſſential conditions, which, by the allowance of all writers of laws, make things ſuſceptible of property; namely, common utility, and a capacity of having it's poſſeſſion aſcertained.

Both theſe ſorts of things, therefore, being capable of property, we are next to conſider, as they are ſo different in their natures, whether there be not as great a difference in the extenſion of their rights.

In the firſt caſe, then, it is agreed, that property in the product of the hand, as in an utenſil, is confined to the individual thing made; which, if the proprietor thinks not fit to hide, others may make the like in imitation of it; and thereby acquire the ſame property in their manual work, which he hath done in his.

But, in the other caſe of property in the product of the mind, as in a book compoſed, it is not confined to the original MS. but extends to the doctrine contained in it: which is, indeed, the true and peculiar property in a book. The neceſſary conſequence of which is, that the owner hath an excluſive right of tranſcribing or printing it for gain or profit.

This difference, in theſe two ſorts of property, ariſes from an equal difference in the things: as will appear, by conſidering the different nature of the works, and the different views of the operators.

With regard to the nature of the work: an utenſil; and a book only conſidered as a compoſition of paper, and ink drawn out in artificial characters, are both works of the hand; and, as ſuch, the property is confined to the individual thing. But a book, conſidered merely in this light, is conſidered inadequately and unjuſtly; the complete idea of a book being ſuch a compoſition as is here ſpoken of, together with a doctrine contained. But under this idea it aſſumes another nature, and becomes a work of the mind. We have proved a work of the mind to be ſuſceptible of property, like that of the hand. Now if the property, in a book, be confined to the individual volume, here is a work of the mind executed without any property annexed: the property in the individual volume ariſing from it's being merely the work of the hand. A doctrine abſurd in ſpeculation, as it is making manual and mental operation one and the ſame, which are two diſtinct and different things: and unjuſt in practice, as it depriveth the owner of a right annexed by nature to his labour. Again, in the utenſil made, the principal expence is in the materials employed; which, whoever furniſheth, reaſonably acquires a property in the thing made, though made by imitation. On the contrary, in a book compoſed, the principal expence is in the form given: which as the original maker only can ſupply, it is but reaſonable how great ſoever the copies of his works may be multiplied, that they be multiplied to his own excluſive profit.

Let us next conſider it, with regard to the different views of the operators. He who makes an utenſil, in imitation of another he ſees made, muſt neceſſarily work with the ſame ideas the original operator had, and ſo fitly acquires a property in the work of his own hands. But the moſt learned book in the world may be copied by one who hath no ideas at all. What pretence, then, hath ſuch a one to property, in a work of the mind, who hath employed in copying it, only the labour of the hand? And which tends but to make his theft the more impudent, as he ſteals what he doth not underſtand. Again, in an utenſil made, the framer of it hath plainly no regard to any one's benefit but his own: and he muſt finiſh it before it can be fitted for his uſe. His end, then, being obtained in that individual piece of work, it is but reaſonable his property ſhould there terminate. In a mental work, the thing turns the other way. Here the contriver may himſelf enjoy all the fruits of his diſcoveries without drawing them out, ſcholaſtically, in form. When he doth this, it is but candid to ſuppoſe that it is done for the benefit of others. Can any thing, therefore, be more juſt, than that he ſhould be owned and protected in a property, which he hath not merely acquired to himſelf, but which is generouſly objective to the benefit of others?

In a word, to inſiſt once again upon what hath been ſaid.—If an author have only a property in his individual manuſcript, he hath, truly ſpeaking, no property in his book at all; that is, as his book is a work of the mind; which, in this caſe, ſtill lies in common. The conſequence is, (as appears from the explanation of property given above) that no property ariſeth from a thing ſuſceptible of property: nay, which is ſtill more abſurd, from a thing actually become property; as being attended with all thoſe eſſential conditions from whence property ariſeth. To deny an author, therefore, or his aſſigns, an excluſive privilege to print and vend his own work, ſeemeth to be a violation of one of the moſt fundamental rights of civil ſociety.

But here let it be obſerved, that, in our diviſion of artificial moveables, into the two ſorts, of manual and mental, we purpoſely omitted a third, of a complicated nature, which holds of both the other in common; as reſerving it for this place, to ſupport and illuſtrate what hath been ſaid above of the two more ſimple kinds: and that is, of mechanic engines. Now, theſe partaking ſo eſſentially of the nature of manual works, the maker hath no perfect right of property in the invention. For like a common utenſil, it muſt be finiſhed before it can be of uſe to himſelf; like that, it's materials are it's principal expence; and, like that, a ſucceſsful imitator muſt work with the ideas of the firſt inventor: which are all reaſons why the property ſhould terminate in the individual machine. Yet becauſe the operation of the mind is ſo intimately concerned in the conſtruction of theſe works, their powers being effected and regulated by the right application of geometric ſcience, all ſtates have concurred in giving the inventors of them a licence of monopoly, for a term of years, as on a claim of right. Now the reaſon of this, we ſay, can be explained only on the principles here advanced, that the conſtructor of a piece of mechaniſm hath his property confined to the individual thing made; and the compoſer of a ſcholaſtic work hath his extended to the ideal diſcourſe itſelf. And a mathematical machine holding of the nature of both, but more eſſentially of the former, there was no way of adjuſting and ſatisfying an imperfect right but by ſuch a grant as is here mentioned.

But it is no unfrequent practice for the claimants of a per-

fect right to apply to the magiſtrate, or legiſlature, for the better ſecurity of an acquired property, in the ſame manner that claimants of an imperfect right do, to acquire property: ſometimes, to the one for a licence; and ſometimes, to the other for an act of parliament. Yet from thence to conclude, that the claimants of a perfect right have, by ſuch application, waved, or given up, their claim; or that the magiſtrate or legiſlature have, by their licences or acts of excluſive privilege for a certain time, either abridged or ſuperſeded that claim, appears to me the higheſt abſurdity; as it will, I am perſuaded, to others, on reflecting upon the plain and obvious reaſons why the petitioners ſeek this additional ſecurity, for the enjoyment of a natural right; and why the magiſtrate and legiſlature grant it only for a certain term of years.

In the common adminiſtration of juſtice, the way in uſe, to reſtrain the invaſion of property, is to oblige the offender to repair the damages ſuſtained. Now ſuch is the nature of the property in queſtion, that it may be long invaded before the ſufferer can diſcover the offender: ſo that ſuch a one having a fair chance not to be detected; and, if detected, a certainty of refunding only what he hath unjuſtly gained; bad men will have but too great encouragement to invade their neighbour's property. Therefore, to counteract this undue temptation, it was natural for ſuch proprietors, in their own defence, to apply to the ſtate for additional and accumulative penalties againſt the invaders of their right. In which, they act but as the ſtate itſelf doth for the ſecurity of government in general; when, for the ſupport of that natural allegiance, which all men owe to the ſociety under which they chuſe to live, and whereby they are protected, it addeth, by poſitive laws, the additional ſanction of oaths, and other ſolemn engagements. Now if the ſtate, in this caſe, can never be ſuppoſed to have waved or ſuperſeded it's natural claim to allegiance, and to reſt it ſolely on the oaths taken, or the engagements made; what reaſon have we to think that the ſubject in his turn, when he applies to the ſtate for protection, in the inſtance in queſtion, ſhould give up or impeach his natural right, while his only purpoſe is to ſeek additional ſecurity for the enjoyment of it?

This leadeth us to our ſecond queſtion, Why the magiſtrate and legiſlature reſtrain this additional ſanction to a certain term of years? And the reaſon is evident. The petitioners neither require more, nor doth the ſtate find, that more is needed. The great temptation to invade this property being while the demand for it is great and frequent; which is, generally, on the firſt publication of a book, and ſome few years afterwards. While this demand continueth, the proprietor hath need of all additional ſanctions, to oppoſe to the force of the temptation: but when, in courſe of years, the demand abateth, and with it the temptation, the common legal ſecurity of natural rights is then ſufficient to keep offenders in order.

However, as clear and undoubted a property as this is by nature, and the common principles of ſociety, it cannot be denied, but that the legiſlature may abridge, ſuſpend, or abrogate it within it's own juriſdiction, as it is accuſtomed to do with ſeveral other the like rights, for the ſake of the whole. But then it muſt be done by expreſs declaration and decree: implication, inference, or any mere law-conſequence, or even a miſtake of judgment, in the legiſlature, going on a ſuppoſition that there was no natural right where indeed there was, would be, ſimply, inſufficient to abrogate it. And the reaſon is plain, becauſe the believing a thing to be no natural right doth not infer a judgment, that the enjoyment of it, as ſuch, would be hurtful to the ſociety; which judgment is the only cauſe of the legiſlature's abridging or abrogating a natural right.

This was neceſſary to premiſe, in order to ſet a caſe in it's true light, which hath, above all others, encouraged the invaſion of property; though the act, from whence it ariſes, was ſolely contrived to prevent that invaſion. I mean the act of the eighth of queen Anne; which ignorance and knavery have concurred to repreſent as a reſtrictive, and not accumulative, law; and, conſequently, to ſuppoſe it the ſole foundation, inſtead of an additional ſupport, of literary property. It is intitled, An act for the encouragement of learning; in which an excluſive right of property, under certain conditions, is ſecured, by particular penalties, to authors, and bookſellers claiming under them, for the term of one and twenty years.

Now in this act, we are ſo far from finding any declaration to abridge, ſuſpend, or abrogate this natural right; (which, as we ſay, would be indeed ſufficient to diſſolve it) or any expreſſion intimating the opinion of the legiſlature againſt it's exiſtence; (which, as we ſay, would not be ſufficient) that, on the contrary, there is, in the preamble of it, an expreſſion plainly declarative of their opinion, that authors had a right, prior to this act; and, towards the concluſion, a proviſo, which leaves the queſtion of the right, free from, and undetermined by, what is, in this ſtatute, enacted concerning property.

The expreſſion is this—'Whereas printers, bookſellers, and 'other perſons, have of late frequently taken the liberty of 'printing, reprinting, and publiſhing, or cauſing to be printed, reprinted, and publiſhed, books, and other writings, 'without the conſent of the authors or proprietors of ſuch 'books or writings, to their very great detriment, and too 'often to the ruin of them and their families, &c.'—Now, could the injured parties, here mentioned, be proprietors of that in which they had no property? Or did the legiſlature, in a law for the regulation of ſo momentous a branch of what was deemed and claimed as property, uſe the terms of the ſubject in queſtion inaccurately or unfitly? If it were poſſible to think ſo of a Britiſh legiſlature, the ſuppoſition would be excluded here; becauſe, not only the expreſſion, but the ſentiment neceſſarily ſuppoſes that they uſed the word proprietors in it's ſtrict and exact ſignification; it being a repreſentation of the bad effects from the liberty taken of printing and reprinting books, without the conſent of the authors, or their aſſigns.

The proviſo, in the concluſion, is in theſe words,—'Pro-'vided that nothing in this act contained ſhall extend, or 'be conſtrued to extend, either to prejudice or confirm any 'right that the ſaid univerſities, or any of them, or any per-'ſon or perſons have, or claim to have, to the printing or re-'printing any book or copy already printed, or hereafter to 'be printed.'—Now, though it may be eaſily granted, that one purpoſe of this proviſo was to leave undecided all claims, or pretences of claim, to excluſive printing, from patents, licences, &c. yet the large wording of it appears to have a particular aim at obviating ſuch miſconſtruction of the ſtatute, as if the additional temporary ſecurity, thereby given, either implied that there was no right of property before, or elſe abrogated what it found. And the having theſe two things in it's intention, viz. the natural right, and that which is founded on patents, ſeems to be the reaſon of it's ſaying that it neither prejudiced nor confirmed: it being unjuſt to prejudice a plain natural right; and inexpedient to confirm an unexamined claim by patent. For what the legiſlature's ſenſe was of this natural right, appears from what hath been obſerved of their uſe of the word proprietors, in the preamble.

But laſtly, in caſes where the ſenſe of the legiſlature is uncertain or obſcure, there the interpretation of the ſupreme magiſtrates of juſtice hath been always deemed to have the force of a legal deciſion. And this deciſion hath been made in favour of property, on the act in queſtion. For, in the high court of Chancery, actions for damages have been ſuſtained, where the action for forfeiture and penalties, on this ſtatute, was not competent in any other court: which ſhews, that that great magiſtrate did not conſider this act as a reſtrictive, but as an accumulative law. It being a rule, that poſitive correctory laws are to be ſtrictly interpreted. For, in every civil ſociety, experience ſhews, that the ſubject, in many caſes, muſt be put under reſtraint with regard to things in themſelves lawful, merely becauſe of the bad conſequences, to the public, by the abuſe of liberty. But, in all ſuch reſtrictive laws, right reaſon, at the ſame time, forbids theſe laws to be extended, in the ſmalleſt particular, beyond the letter of the act. To do otherwiſe would be abridging liberty, without authority of law, which is the ſame thing with private violence. This plainly ſhews the judgment of the high court of Chancery, to be that there was a right of property previous to the ſtatute; which the ſtatute had neither abrogated nor abridged; and, on that right, the action was ſuſtained, where the action for forfeiture and penalties was not competent. For an additional ſecurity of property, made for the benefit, and at the requeſt, of the proprietors, can never be deemed to exclude them from having recourſe, at pleaſure, to that legal remedy, which on the common principles of a court of equity, they had a claim to, prior to the grant of ſuch additional ſecurity.

All this laid together, it ſeems abundantly evident, that no right is taken away by this act, which authors, or their aſſigns, had before the making of it. And conſequently that it is no reſtrictive, but an accumulative law, brought in aid of a natural right, whoſe reality I have here endeavoured to ſupport.' See the articles BOOKSELLER and COPIES OF AUTHORS.

REMARKS.

Though what this learned gentleman has urged, is more than ſufficient to ſhew the juſtice of a law for the ſecurity of literary property, yet we ſhall preſume to add a word more, by obſerving what effect this would have on particulars, and on the public. With regard to the former, it is certain, that, while an author or his aſſigns are protected in their property from the invaſion and piracy of others, they can afford to ſell cheaper; it being well known, that the profits of bookſelling depend on the numbers ſold, and not on a few; and, the fewer are ſold, the dearer the books muſt be; and, the more, the cheaper they can be afforded. And, as to the public, it is apparent, that the intereſts of ſociety will be better ſecured both in a civil and a religious view; for then the licentiouſneſs of libelling the government, and inſulting the church and goſpel itſelf by impious books, will be eaſier remedied than when property is inſecure.

Should

Should it be ſaid, that, if literary property be ſo neceſſary to be ſecured, how happens it not to be done in any country abroad, in the manner it has been demanded? And how happens it to be now wanted at home, when we have done ſo long without it? To the firſt queſtion it may be obſerved, that there are arbitrary powers in the adminiſtration of governments abroad, even in their republics (which powers our free government has not thought fit to intruſt to the executive power) whereby the magiſtrate is well enabled by the ſtanding police, from time to time, to puniſh the invaders of theſe temporary licences which he granted. And yet the want of eſtabliſhing literary property on a right foundation, even there, is attended with many miſchiefs to proprietors, which they lament, and want that remedy to rectify, which is greatly deſired, by all friends to literature, in this kingdom.

As to the other queſtion, how we come to want a new ſecurity for property not wanted before? The general anſwer is, that theſe miſchiefs have been continually growing ſince the revolution, and are now ariſen to ſuch a height, as to become intolerable. Before that happy period of the eſtabliſhment of public liberty, there were two very powerful reſtraints to the invaſion of literary property: the one was power granted by the council-board (which had then a very formidable juriſdiction) to the company of ſtationers. 2dly, The power of licenſing by perſons ſeverally deputed by the crown, and the archbiſhop of Canterbury. Now, conſider the efficacy of thoſe two juriſdictions to reſtrain piracy, as it is called; who are the invaders of property? Neceſſitous bookſellers, and ſcribbling authors ſtill more neceſſitous, and who very eaſily pirate large volumes, that contain bodies of ſciences, ſuch as dictionaries, ſyſtems, &c. only by making trivial alterations, or caſting them into different forms.

Before the revolution, the company of ſtationers effectually reſtrained the piracy of bookſellers: and the licenſers, by application of the proprietors, the piracies of ſcribblers. But, happy for the general liberty, the powers of the council-board, as exerciſed a century ago, and of licenſers, are at an end. But it was not preſently conſidered, that, as abuſively as the powers were exerciſed, yet, the powers had their uſe, to reſtrain injuſtice: and that, when they were aboliſhed, there would want ſomething to ſupply their place.——In a word, if unlicenſed printing, as undoubtedly it is, be one of the ſecurities of public liberty, an act declarative, of an author's right in his copy, is as neceſſary for the ſecurity of private property.

'Permit me, ſays an elegant writer, to ſpeak a word in the cauſe of learning, and lament that a liberal education ſhould be the only one, which a polite nation makes unprofitable. All mechanic artizans are allowed to reap the fruit of their invention and ingenuity without invaſion; but he that has ſeparated himſelf from the reſt of mankind, and ſtudied the wonders of the creation, the government of the paſſions, and the revolutions of the world, &c. and has an ambition to communicate the effect of half his life ſpent in ſuch noble enquiries, has no property in what he is willing to produce, but is expoſed to robbery and want, with this melancholy and juſt reflection, that he is the only man who is not protected by his country, at the ſame time that he beſt deſerves it. According to the ordinary rules of computation, the greater the adventure is, the greater ought to be the profit of thoſe who ſucceed in it; and, by this meaſure, none have a pretence of turning their labours to greater advantage than perſons brought up to letters. A learned education is very expenſive, and conſumes a moderate fortune before it is gone through in it's proper forms. The purchaſe of an handſome commiſſion, or employment, which would give a man a good figure in another kind of life, is to be made at a much cheaper rate. Now, if we conſider this expenſive voyage, which is undertaken in the ſearch of knowledge, and how few there are who take in any conſiderable merchandize, how leſs frequent it is to be able to turn what men have gained into profit; how hard is it that the very ſmall number who are diſtinguiſhed with abilities to know how to vend their wares, and have the good fortune to bring them into port, ſhould ſuffer being plundered by privateers, under the very cannon that ſhould protect them?

The moſt eminent and uſeful author of the age we live in, after having laid out a princely revenue in works of charity and beneficence, as became the greatneſs of his mind, and the ſanctity of his character, would have left the perſon in the world, who was the deareſt to him, in a narrow condition, had not the ſale of his immortal writings brought her in a very conſiderable dowry, though it was impoſſible to be equal to their value. Every one will know that I mean here the works of the late archbiſhop of Canterbury, the copy of which was ſold for 2500l.

I do not ſpeak with relation to any party; but it has happened, and may often ſo happen, that men of great learning and virtue cannot qualify themſelves for being employed in buſineſs, or receiving preferments. In this caſe, you cut them off from all ſupport, if you take from them the benefit that may ariſe from their writings. For my own part, I have brought myſelf to conſider things in ſo unprejudiced a manner, that I eſteem more a man who can live by the products of his underſtanding, than one who does it by the favour of great men.

The zeal of an author has tranſported me thus far, though I think myſelf as much concerned in the capacity of a reader. If this practice goes on, we muſt never expect to ſee again a beautiful edition of a book in Great-Britain.'

BOOKS, in the plural number. This, in the trading and mercantile ſtile, is underſtood of all the regiſters in which merchants, bankers, and traders, do methodically write, either in the groſs, or minutely, all the affairs relating to their traffic, or even ſuch of their domeſtic concerns which are any ways connected therewith. Thus we ſay, the books of ſuch a merchant, or trader, are in very good condition; that banker keeps his books in very good order; there is no order, no accuracy, in this trader's books of account.

Merchants cannot abſolutely carry on their trade, without keeping proper books of account; they are even obliged by the ordonnances in France ſo to do. See REMARKS upon the article BANKRUPTS. But they have occaſion for more or leſs books, according to the nature of their trade, and the quantity of buſineſs they have, or according to the manner in which they keep their books.

BOOK-KEEPING. Books are kept either by ſingle, or according to the method of double entry. They who keep them in the former method (which is proper only for retail dealers, or at leaſt for traders who have but very little buſineſs) have occaſion for few books only, ſuch as a journal, or day-book, and a ledger, or poſt book; the former, to write all the articles following, as they occur in the courſe of their buſineſs; and the latter, to draw out the accounts of all the debtors and creditors on the journal. But, as for wholeſale dealers, and great merchants, who keep their books according to the double entry, or Italian method, as is now moſt commonly done, their buſineſs requires ſeveral other books, the uſefulneſs of which will be ſeen from what followeth.

Moſt authors agree, that the Italians, and particularly thoſe of Venice, Genoa, and Florence, were the firſt who introduced the method of keeping books by double entry, or by way of charge and diſcharge; whence amongſt us it is ſtill called the Italian method.

Books kept according to the method of double entry.

The moſt conſiderable books, according to this method, are the waſte-book, the journal, and the ledger. Beſides theſe three, which are abſolutely neceſſary, there are ſeveral others, to the number of thirteen, or even more, called ſubſervient, or auxiliary books; which are uſed in proportion to the buſineſs a man has, or to the nature of the trade he carries on.

Theſe thirteen books are,

The caſh-book.
The debt-book.
The book of numero's.
The book of invoices.
The book of accounts current.
The book of commiſſions, order, or advices.
The book of acceptances of bills of exchange.
The book of remittances.
The book of expences.
The copy-book of letters.
The book of poſtage.
The ſhip-books.
The book of workmen.

To theſe thirteen may be added others, which depend on the greater or leſſer accuracy and order of the merchants and bankers, and on the ſeveral kinds of trade carried on by particular dealers; but for the generality, theſe thirteen are ſufficient.

The WASTE-BOOK, is the firſt and moſt eſſential, in which all kind of matters are, as it were, entered, according to the order of time in which they occurred, in a promiſcuous manner, in order to be afterwards ſeparated and tranſcribed into the other books. This book cannot be kept with too much accuracy and regularity, becauſe recourſe muſt be had to it in all diſputes which may ariſe relating to trade.

It may be kept two ways; the firſt is by only entering things into it ſucceſſively, juſt as they fall out; as, for inſtance, bought of ſuch an one, ſold to ſuch an one, paid to ſuch an one, lent ſuch a ſum, and ſo forth.

The ſecond way is, by entering at once each article, according to its proper debtor and creditor: this method is reckoned the beſt, becauſe, by forming immediately a kind of journal, it ſaves the trouble of making another.

Some, for greater accuracy, divide the waſte-book into four others; namely, the book of emption, or of things bought; the book of ſale, the book of caſh, the book of bills. Among the merchants who follow that method, ſome do immediately enter the articles from theſe three books into the ledger, without making a journal; others, writing thoſe four books fair out, make a journal of them, out of which they afterwards poſt the ſeveral articles into the ledger.

The waſte-book is an univerſal and compleat memorial of all the tranſactions and events of buſineſs, taken in the natural order of time; whereby all things of one date are placed together, ſerving as a preparation for the ledger, into which they are all to be transferred upon diſtinct accounts, according to the order of the ſubjects.

The waſte-book begins with an inventory of a merchant's effects and debts, and contains a compleat record of every tranſaction of his affairs, with all the circumſtances, in a plain narration of matter of fact; every tranſaction following another, according to the order of the dates. This book is in reality a journal, or day-book; but, that name being applied to another, the name of waſte-book is given to this by way of diſtinction; though what relation the word waſte bears to the nature of this book, is not very obvious. Some authors, with more propriety, call it the memorial, or memorandum-book, becauſe it's principal uſe is for taking memorandums.

Here follows an inſtance of the method and uſe of the waſte-book. If, on the firſt day of July, you buy a pipe of port-wine for 27 l. ready money, and on the 4th ſell to Edward Ellis 12 pipes of ſherry at 30 l. per pipe, of which he pays you 70 l. down, and for the reſt you give him a month's credit; all the form of expreſſing theſe caſes in the waſte-book, is as follows, viz.

	l.	s.	d.
July 1.			
Bought a pipe of port wine, for which I paid -	27	0	0
4th,			
Sold to Edw. Ellis twelve pipes of ſherry, at 30 l. per pipe.			
Received in ready money - - - - 70 l.			
Reſt due at one month - - - - 290 l.			
	360	0	0

And ſo of any other matter.

The Journal, or Day-Book. The name of this book ſufficiently ſhews its uſe. Each article, entered into this book, ought to conſiſt of ſeven parts, which are, the date, the debtor, the creditor, the ſum, the quantity and the quality, how payable, and the price.

This book is commonly a regiſter in folio, of five or ſix quires of paper, numbered, and ruled with one line on the ſide of the margin, and with three on the other end, to write the ſums.

It is the journal which is meant in the ordonnance of France, of March 1673, where it is ordered, tit. III. art. 1, 3, and 5. That all merchants and traders, whether wholeſale or retale, ſhall keep a book, containing an account of all their commercial tranſactions, bills of exchange, debts active and paſſive, &c. And, for want of keeping ſuch a book, and ſurrendering it up, in caſe of failure, they are reputed fraudulent bankrupts, and proſecuted accordingly in an extraordinary manner, and condemned to ſuffer the puniſhment directed in the ſame ordonnance, tit. II. art. 11, 12.

Model of an article in the journal.

	l.	s.	d.
July 26, 1747.			
Wine debtor to caſh, 160 l. bought of Duval, ready money, 16 pipes of wine, at 10 l. - - - - - -	160	0	0

The journal, ſo far as it differs from the waſte-book, is only a book of aid to the ledger. There are two different methods of keeping it: in the firſt, which is that hitherto chiefly uſed, the journal is a complete tranſcript of the waſte-book, in the ſame order of time, but in a different ſtile: for the waſte-book expreſſes every tranſaction in a ſimple narration of what is done; whereas the journal diſtinguiſhes the proper debtors and creditors, as a preparation for the ledger: thus, when any tranſaction is to be transferred from the waſte-book into the journal, they examine it by the rules of the ledger, as if it were to be entered immediately there; and, finding the debtors and creditors to which it belongs, theſe are diſtinctly marked by their denominations of debtor and creditor, in the ſtile of the journal; at leaſt, the accounts that are debtors, are expreſsly ſo named; and, by their being directly connected debtor to ſome other accounts, theſe are ſufficiently determined to be the creditors, though the word creditor be not written.

The other form of a journal, which in certain reſpects is preferable to the former, makes this book a complete tranſcript of the waſte-book, without any alteration, leaving on the left ſide of every page a large margin, about the third part of the page, on which, againſt every tranſaction, are written the names of the debtors and creditors of the tranſaction, with their titles of debtor and creditor, and ſums of money; obſerving, that, where there are ſundry debtors or creditors to one creditor or debtor, they write their names next each other, and the name of the one correſponding debtor or creditor againſt the total of the other ſums; by which means, the connection appears at ſight. Then, when the tranſaction is transfered to the ledger, they write in this margin the numbers of the folio's where the accounts ſtand in the ledger, for the purpoſes already mentioned, in ſpeaking of the former method. This book may be called either the waſte book or journal, being in reality both; not only as every waſte-book is a journal, but as there is here alſo that which diſtinguiſhes both a waſte-book and a journal.

Ledger, or Ledger-Book, ſometimes alſo called the great book, becauſe it is the greateſt of all the books uſed by the merchants; and the poſt book, becauſe all the articles extracted from the journal are diſtinctly poſted into this; is a large volume in folio, compoſed of ſeveral quires of large and thick paper. Every page of it is ruled with ſix lines from top to bottom, two on the ſide of the margin, and four on the ſide of the ſums.

In this book are written all the accounts by way of debtor and creditor as they are extracted from the journal; ſo that it is properly the waſte-book ſtill further digeſted, and contains all the tranſactions of a man's affairs in ſuch order, as that thoſe belonging to every different ſubject lie together in one place, making ſo many diſtinct or ſeveral accounts.

To form every account, two pages are uſed oppoſite to each other: that on the left ſerves for debtor, and that on the right for creditor. After the name of each debtor on the left page, they write Debtor, or by abbreviation Dr. and on the right Per Contra, Creditor, by abbreviation Cr.

Each article in this book muſt be compoſed of five parts or members, which are, 1. The date. 2. The perſon whom we credit, or are credited by. 3. The ſubject, that is to ſay, the thing credited or indebted for. 4. The folio, or page correſponding to it, 5. Laſtly, the ſum or amount of the article. Two inſtances, the one of an article of debtor, the other of an article of creditor, will more diſtinctly ſhew the form and uſe of this book.

Model of an article in the ledger. See Banking.

			Fo.	l.	s.	d.
1751 Sept.	25	Anthony Roberts, Dr. To caſh paid by his order to bearer - - - -	16	1900	00	00

Model of an article in Creditor.

			Fo	l.	s.	d.
1751 Oct.	23	Per Contra Cr. By caſh for this remittance on James	21	1900	0	0

As the management of the ledger is of the laſt importance in accounts, the following rules relating thereto ſhould be duly attended to.

1. That, for every diſtinct ſubject with which you have an account (i. e. for every perſon with whom you deal on mutual truſt and credit, or who by any means becomes your debtor, or you his) as well as for every thing you deal in, there muſt be a certain ſeparate ſpace, or portion allowed, wherein are to be written all and only the tranſactions relating to that ſubject, whoſe name is to be inſcribed or written on the head thereof, making thereby diſtinct and particular accounts.

2. Every account is to be diſtinguiſhed into two parts, taking for each an equal portion (leſs or more as you think fit) of right and left pages, of one folio, or opening; the name of the ſubject being written on the head of the account on both ſides, which are diſtinguiſhed by the word Debtor on the left ſide, and creditor on the right, for the purpoſes following, to which the columns explained below are ſubſervient.

3. Every perſonal account to contain, on the debtor ſide, all the articles which that perſon owes you, and the payments you make of your debts to him: and, on the creditor ſide, all that you owe to him, and the payments he makes of his debts to you. Or, becauſe this rule conſiders payments under the notion of mutual oppoſite debts upon the receiver, if this be once ſuppoſed, the rule may be briefly expreſſed thus: every perſon is debtor for what he owes me, and creditor for what I owe him.

4. Every real account to contain on the debtor ſide the quantity and value of what was upon hand at the beginning of the account, and what was afterwards received, with all coſt and charges; and on the creditor ſide, the quantity and value of what is diſpoſed of, or in any manner taken away, or gone out of poſſeſſion, with all the returns that ſubject makes me. Or, more briefly, thus: it is debtor for all received, firſt coſt, and charges; and creditor for all gone out of it, with the returns.

5. Every tranſaction muſt be entered in the ledger-book, with a balance of debt and credit, i. e. ſo as that every article be placed on the debtor ſide of one account, and the creditor ſide of ſome other, making thereby equal debt and credit in the ledger: and where the perſonal and real accounts concerned in the tranſaction, do not, in the articles belonging to them, make this ballance (as they will in moſt caſes) then ſome imaginary account muſt be uſed to ſupply the defect.

6. Thoſe

6. Thoſe accounts, whoſe articles of debt and credit in any tranſaction ballance one another, are, in the ledger, to be connected together in the ſtile of every article, as mutual and correſpondent debtors and creditors, by writing in each of the correſponding accounts the name of the other, after the particle To in the debtor's account, and By in the creditor's, which connects the two; the name of the accounts in which articles are written, with its quality of debtor and creditor, being underſtood as joined to, and ſo is read before, the word To or By, in every article, (though it be written only once for all upon the head of the account.) Then, after the name of the correſponding creditor or debtor, follows a brief narrative of the fact; the date, and other numbers, being placed in their proper columns.——Hence we find the uſe of the column which ſtands before and next to the money columns, which is this, to write in it the number of the folio where ſtands the correſponding account, with which the account in which you write is connected in every article.

To facilitate the uſe of the ledger, there is an alphabet, or index, made to ſerve as a repertory; it conſiſts of as many leaves as there are letters in the alphabet, that is to ſay, 24: each leaf is cut on the edge, and marked with one of the 24 letters, in their natural order; and on each leaf is ſet down the initial letter, or letters, of the names of every account, either perſonal or real, with the number of the folio of the letter where the account is ſtated; by which means a perſon may find in the ledger, with the greateſt eaſe, any account which he has occaſion to conſult.

Caſh-Book. This is the firſt and moſt important of the 13 auxiliary books. It is ſo called, becauſe it contains, in debtor and creditor, all the caſh that comes in, or goes out, of a merchant's ſtock. The French call it alſo the book of caſh, and of notes (livre de caiſſe & le bordereau) becauſe, beſides an account of the caſh received and paid, it contains alſo notes of the ſeveral ſpecies of the money, or coin, that comes in, or goes out.

When a merchant does not keep that book himſelf, he has it kept by a clerk, or book-keeper, whom they ſtile caſhier.

In this book they write all the ſums which are daily received and paid. The receipts on the debtor's ſide, the perſons of whom it was received, on what, and on whoſe account, and in what ſpecie; and the payments on the creditor's ſide, mentioning alſo the ſpecie, the reaſons of the payments, to whom, and for whoſe account, they are made.

The title of this book is ſet down as follows: all the other books have alſo their proper titles written on the back, or cover.

CASH-BOOK.

No. A. 1751.

The articles in debit and credit are formed after the following manner:

Model of an article in debit, which muſt be on the left ſide.

CASH DR.

July 29th, 1751.		l.	s.	d.
Received of John Fox, for 2 tons of wax, ſold the 2d inſtant				
An 100 guineas —	l. 105 : 0 : 0			
In Portugal pieces —	105 : 0 : 0	1230	0	0
In bank — — —	1020 : 0 : 0			
	l. 1230 : 0 : 0			

Model of an article on the credit ſide, which muſt be on the right ſide, overagainſt the former.

CREDIT.

Auguſt 12, 1747.		l.	s.	d.
Paid to Peter Hart, for 2 tons of wax, bought the 4th inſtant				
200 guineas — —	l. 210 : 0 : 0			
In Portugal money —	105 : 0 : 0	1150	0	0
In bank — —	835 : 0 : 0			
	l. 1150 : 0 : 0			

The better to conceive the nature of the book, it is to be obſerved, that in buſineſs, where caſh happens to be an account which has numerous articles, it is convenient to keep a particular account thereof in a book diſtinct from the ledger, and for this reaſon called the caſh-book. This is formed in all reſpects like the caſh-accounts in the ledger, with a debtor and creditor ſide, in which all the caſh received and given out is entered, either in a ſimple ſtile, or in that of the ledger: but, which way ſoever the narrative is made, every article muſt be duly entered on the oppoſite ſide of the correſponding account in the ledger, with a reference to the ledger account of caſh: for ſuch an account there muſt alſo be, into which the ſums of the debtor and creditor ſides of the particular account muſt be tranſferred once a week, or month, as is found moſt convenient. Thus in the caſh-book, the ſums being written down againſt them, ſay, transferred to the ledger, and mark the folio; and in the ledger account enter the ſum, with the date of the transfer, debtor to, and creditor by ſundry accounts, as per caſh-book. The caſh account in the ledger is neceſſary for the ballance of the whole; and the conveniency of the ſeparate account of all the particulars is, that we have them all together in one continued account: whereas the rule of the ledger being not to allow more than one folio for one account, 'till that be filled up, the account might hereby lie in ſeveral folio's.

Book of Debts, or Payments, is a book in which is written down the day on which all ſums become due, either to be received or paid, by bills of exchange, notes of hand, merchandizes bought or ſold, or otherwiſe, that by comparing receipts and payments, one may in time provide the neceſſary funds for payments, by getting the bills, notes, &c. due, to be paid, or by taking other precautions.

Two models will be ſufficient for explaining the whole uſe and form of this book; let it only be obſerved, that, like the ledger, it ought to have two pages, oppoſite to each other, on the left of which is ſet down what is to be received, and on the right what is to be paid.

Model of the left page for the receipts.

May	1751 To Receive	l.	s.	d.
1	Remittance of James Vaſſer, of the 12th of March, on Peter King - - -	600	—	—
	Of Robert Naſh, for wool, ſold the 16th of July laſt - - - - - - -	1800	—	—
2				
3	Of Devall, by bond of the 23d of May laſt	2000	—	—
	Remittance of price of the 23d February on page - - - - - - - - - -	1800	—	—
4				
5				

Model of the right page, for the payments.

May	1751 To Pay	l.	s.	d.
2	To Charles Harley, for a purchaſe of the 1ſt of July - - - - - - -	1200	—	—
	The draught of John Ball of 22d March, to Iſaac Metchel - - - -	2000	—	—
3				
4	The draught of T. Le Gendre, of the 15th of April, to Pits - - - - - - -	4456	—	—
	My note of the 25th of February, to Norris, or bearer - - - - - - - - -	3000	—	—
5				
6				

Book of Numero's, or Wares. This book is kept, in order to know eaſily all the merchandizes that are lodged in the warehouſe, thoſe that are taken out of it, and thoſe that remain therein. It's form is commonly long and narrow, as of a half-ſheet of paper folded length-ways. Every page is ruled with tranſverſal and parallel lines, about an inch diſtant from each other, with two other lines from top to bottom, the one next the margin, and the other next the ſums.

Within the oblong ſquares formed by thoſe lines, they write on the left page the volume of the merchandizes, that is to ſay, whether it be a bale, a cheſt, a tun, &c. their quality, as pepper, cloves, honey, ſoap, &c. and their quantity, or weight; and overagainſt it, on the ſide of the margin, the numbers which the bales, cheſts, tuns, &c. are marked with as received into the warehouſe.

On the right-hand they follow the ſame method for the diſcharge of the merchandizes which are ſent out of the warehouſe, putting overagainſt each article on the left, firſt in the margin the date when the merchandizes were carried out of the warehouſe; next in the oblong ſquares the names of thoſe to whom they were ſold or ſent; and, finally, what quantity of each was ſent out, in caſe the whole were not. Here follow the two models, the one of the left, the other of the right-hand page.

Left-

Left hand page. Right-hand page.

No			1751		
1	One bale of white pepper weighing	400lb.	March 15	Sold to Charles Hayter	
2	A piece of crimſon damaſk - yards	63			
3	A caſk of cloves - - weighing	284lb.	April 10	Sent to Myron of Orleans	
4	A cheſt of hollands - - pieces	29	May 15	Sold to Watts - pieces	15
5	Etc.				

Book of Invoices. This book is kept to preſerve the journal from eraſures, which are unavoidable in drawing up the accounts of invoices of the ſeveral merchandizes, received, ſent out, or ſold, wherein one is obliged to enter very minute particulars; it is alſo deſigned to render thoſe invoices eaſier to find than they can be in the waſte-book, or journal. The invoices which muſt be entered here are thoſe of the merchandizes bought, or ſent away, for the account of another.

Thoſe of merchandizes which one ſells by commiſſion.

Thoſe of ſuch merchandizes as are in partnerſhip, of which others have the management.

Laſtly, all the accounts which are not immediately cloſed, and which one would not open on the ledger.

This book contains an account, or invoices, of all the goods which a perſon ſhips off, either for his own account, or for others in commiſſion, according to the bills of lading, with the whole charges 'till on board, every invoice following after another, in order as they happen.

The invoice-book is only a copy of what is written in the waſte-book in thoſe caſes.—After the date, the narration is to begin thus:—Shipped on board the ſhip N, A B maſter, bound for C, the following goods, &c. conſigned to E F, for my account, or by order, and for the account, of G H.—Or it may be begun thus:—Invoice of goods ſhipped aboard, &c.

Book of Accounts current. This book is kept in the form of debtor and creditor, like the ledger; it ſerves to draw up the accounts which are to be ſent to correſpondents, in order to ſettle them in concert, before they are ballanced in the ledger: it is properly a duplicate of the accounts current, which is kept to have recourſe to occaſionally.

Book of Commiſſions, Orders, or Advices. In this book are entered all the commiſſions, orders, and advices, a perſon receives from his correſpondents.

The margins of this book ought to be very broad, that there be room to write overagainſt each article the neceſſary notes, or remarks concerning their execution. Some do only croſs each article, after it has been executed.

Book of Acceptances, or of Draughts. This book is deſigned as a regiſter of all the bills of exchange, which our correſpondents adviſe us by their letters they have drawn upon us.

They are thus regiſtered, to the end that, when the bills are preſented, a merchant may know whether he has orders to accept them, or not.

When a perſon will not accept a bill of exchange, he writes in the book of acceptances, againſt the article of that bill, a P, which ſignifies proteſt, that, when it comes to be preſented to him, the bearer be told that he may proteſt it. If, on the contrary, he would accept the bill, he puts an A againſt the article, which ſignifies accepted, adding the date, or day of acceptance, in caſe the bill be at ſome days ſight; and, after the articles have been transferred on the book in which are ſet down the days on which payments become due, it is cancelled.

Book of Remittances. In this book are regiſtered all the bills of exchange, as they are remitted by the correſpondents, to require the payment thereof, when due.

If they be proteſted for non-acceptance, and ſent back to thoſe who made the remittances, it muſt be mentioned againſt each article, by putting a P in the margin, with the date of the day on which they were ſent back, and then they muſt be croſſed: but, if the bills be accepted, they put an A againſt the articles; and the day on which they were accepted, if they be at ſome days ſight; and, after they have been tranſferred on the book of the days of payment, they are croſſed.

There is ſo near a relation between the book of acceptances and that of remittances, that ſeveral merchants, bankers, and traders, make but one of thoſe two, which they keep in the form of debtor and creditor, putting the acceptances, or draughts, on the debtor's ſide, and the remittances on the creditor's.

As the draughts are of two ſorts, that is to ſay, that a merchant may draw bills of exchange on his correſpondents, and his correſpondents may reciprocally draw bills upon him; many merchants and bankers, beſides the books of acceptances and remittances, juſt now mentioned, keep a third book, only for regiſtering the bills which they draw upon others; but moſt traders keep but one book for thoſe two ſorts of bills, that they may not too much multiply the number of auxiliary books.

Book of Expences, is a book in which is ſet down a particular account of all the expences, either in their houſhold or for commercial affairs, which, at the end of every month, they caſt up, and ſet down the ſum total either in the waſte-book or in the journal, or rather in the caſh book.

This book, being a ſeparate account of all the expences of living, ſerves to keep both the profit and loſs account, and alſo the caſh-book, more diſtinct; the greater and more conſiderable articles are to be placed here particularly; but the ſeveral ſmall articles of daily diſburſements only in totals; though what denominations, and how general or particular the articles of this book ought to be made, muſt be left to every one's choice: all that is neceſſary to obſerve here is, that the caſh paid out on ſuch accounts muſt be carefully entered here, and then once a week, or month, be transferred to the caſh-book, and to the profit and loſs-account in the ledger, which is debtor to caſh for it.

Book of Copies of Letters. This book ſerves to keep copies of all the letters relating to buſineſs, which a merchant writes to his correſpondents, that he may have recourſe to them upon occaſion, and know exactly what he wrote, and what orders he gave to them.

Book of paſſage, is a ſmall regiſter, long and narrow, in which a merchant opens a particular account to each of his correſpondents, of the poſtage paid for them; which is afterwards caſt up, when he thinks proper, and they are entered in the journal and ledger accordingly.

Book of Veſſels, or the Ship's-Book. This book is kept by the way of debtor and creditor, an account being opened for every ſhip. On the debtor's ſide are ſet down all the expences for victualling, fitting out, wages, &c. and, on the creditor's ſide, all that the ſhip has produced, either for freight or otherwiſe: the total of each is afterwards entered in the journal, making the veſſel debtor and creditor.

Book of Workmen. This book is particularly uſed by thoſe traders who have manufactures, and is kept in debtor and creditor, there being an account for every workman that is employed. On the debtor's ſide are ſet down the materials which are given to them for manufacturing, and on the creditor's ſide, the work which they bring home, after it is manufactured.

Bank-Book. Beſides all the above mentioned books, in thoſe cities where there is a public bank, as London, Venice, Hamburgh, Amſterdam, the merchants who keep caſh therein are obliged to keep a bank book, which is likewiſe kept by way of debtor and creditor. Herein they ſet down all the ſums which they pay to, or receive from, the bank; by which means they can eaſily know, in a very little time, how they ſtand with the bank, that is to ſay, how much caſh they have there.

The ſame may be obſerved with regard to thoſe merchants or other perſons, who keep their caſh at a banker's, which is very much practiſed in London.

Month-Book. This alſo is one of the auxiliary books kept by ſome merchants. It is numbered in folio's, like the ledger, and divided into ſpaces, on the top of each of which are the names of the 12 months in the year January, February, &c. allowing a whole folio, or what you pleaſe, to each month; and a different ſet of twelve ſpaces, for every different year. On the left-hand page enter the payments to be made to you in that month, and on the right-hand page the payments you are to make. Make a column likewiſe on the left-hand of every page, in which write the day of payment, and after this the name of the debtor or creditor, and draw the ſum into the money columns. This does not differ much from the debt-book above mentioned.

All theſe books or writings, which merchants and traders have more or leſs occaſion for, according as their trade is more or leſs extenſive, are in the main, kept after the ſame manner in the chief trading towns in Europe; but not with regard to the coin, or money, every merchant regulating himſelf, in that reſpect, to the money which is current in the country where he is ſettled.

In France, the merchants and bankers keep their books in livres, ſols, and deniers, Tournois; the livre is worth 20 ſols, and the ſol 12 deniers.

In Holland, Flanders, Zealand, and Brabant, they are kept in pounds (ponden) ſhillings (ſchellingen and groſs, groot, Flemiſh (vlaamſch) which are ſummed up by 20 and 12; becauſe the pound is worth 20 ſchell ngen, and the ſchelling 12 groot.

They alſo keep their books, in thoſe countries, in guilders, ſtivers, and penningen, which are ſummed up by 20 and 16, becauſe the guilder (gulde) is worth 20 ſtivers (ſtuyvers) and the ſtiver 16 penningen.

It muſt be obſerved, that the pound groſs, or Flemiſh, is worth ſix guilders, and the ſchelling (which the French call ſol de groſs) ſix ſtivers: ſo that the guilder is worth 40 groot, and the ſtiver two groot.

ITALY.

At Bergamo, they keep their books in lira's (livres) ſoldi (ſols) and danari (deniers) which are ſummed up by 20 and by 12, becauſe the lira, or livre, is worth 20 ſoldi, and the ſoldi 12 danari; the ſums are afterwards reduced into ducats, of 7 livres of Bergamo.

At Bologna, the books are likewiſe kept in livres, ſols, and deniers, which are alſo ſummed up by 20 and by 12, for the above-mentioned reaſon: but the ſums are afterwards reduced into crowns, each of which is worth 85 ſols of Bologna. At Genoa, they are kept after the ſame manner, but the ſums are at laſt reduced into piaſters of 96 ſols each.

At Florence, in golden crowns, ſols, and deniers; the crown is worth 7 livres and ten ſols, and the ſol 12 deniers.

At Leghorn, they keep their books in livres, ſols and deniers, ſummed up by 20 and 12, for the like reaſons; the ſums are afterwards reduced into piaſters of 6 livres.

At Meſſina, Palermo, and in all Sicily, they are kept in ounces, tarins, grains, and picoli, which are ſummed up by 30, by 20, and by 6, becauſe 30 tarins make an ounce, 20 grains a tarin, and 6 picoli a grain.

At Milan, in livres, ſols, and deniers, ſummed up by 20 and 12, for the reaſon ſo often mentioned.

At Rome, in livres, ſols, and deniers of gold di ſtampa, which are likewiſe ſummed up by 20 and 12.

At Venice, in ducats and groſſo's (groſs) bank money; 24 groſſo's make a ducat; but this is particularly uſed for the bank.

They likewiſe keep their books there in livres, ſols and deniers, de groſs, which are ſummed by 20 and 12, becauſe the livre is worth 20 ſols, and the ſol 12 deniers; but it muſt be obſerved, that, according to this ſecond method, the livre is worth 10 ducats.

They are alſo kept at Venice in current ducats, which differ 20 per cent. from the bank ducats.

At Ancona, in crowns, ſols, and deniers; the crown being worth 20 ſols, and the ſol 12 deniers.

At Lucca, in livres, ſols, and deniers; as alſo in crowns with 7 livres and 10 ſols each.

At Novi, in crowns, ſols, and deniers of gold of mark; the crown of gold of mark being worth 20 ſols.

At Malta, in tarins, carlins, and grains; as alſo in ſequins, and, as they call them there, in dieci tarini, or ten tarins.

POLAND, &c.

At Dantzick, and in all Poland, the books are kept in rix-dollars, groſs and deniers; which are ſummed up by 90 and by 12, becauſe the rixdollar is worth 90 groſs, and the groſs 12 deniers.

They are likewiſe kept in that country in florins, groſs, and deniers, which are ſummed up by 60 and by 12, becauſe the florin is worth 60 groſs, and the groſs 12 deniers.

They keep them moreover in livres, groſs and deniers, which they ſum up by 30 and 12; the livre being worth 30 groſs, and the groſs 12 deniers.

GERMANY, &c.

At Frankfort, Nuremburgh, and almoſt throughout all the empire, accounts are kept in florins, creutzers, and pennings or phenings, current, which are ſummed up by 60 and by 8, becauſe the florin is worth 60 creutzers, and the creutzer 8 pennings.

They keep them likewiſe at Frankfort in florins, creutzers, and pennings of exchange, which are ſummed up by 65 and by 8, becauſe the florin is worth 65 creutzers, and the creutzer 8 pennings.

At Hamburgh, they are kept in marks, ſols, and deniers lubs, which are ſummed up by 16 and by 12; the mark being worth 16 ſols, and the ſol 12 deniers lubs.

They keep them alſo at Hamburgh after the ſame manner as in Holland.

At Augſburgh, in talers and creutzers; the taler is worth 90 creutzers, and the creutzer 8 pennings.

At Bolzano, or Botzen, as at Augſburgh: and alſo in florins and creutzers, the florin being worth 60 creutzers.

At Naumburgh, in rixdollars, groſs, and fenins, the rixdollar being worth 24 groſs, and the groſs 12 fenins.

In Hungary, in golden hungars and ſemi-hungars.

At Straſburgh, in florins, creutzers, and pennings, a money of Alſace.

At Berlin, and in part of the king of Pruſſia's dominions, in rixdollars, and in grochs, as alſo in florins.

In Sweden, in ſilver dollars, and in copper dollars.

In Denmark, in rixdollars, in hors, and in ſchellings.

In Muſcovy, in rubles, in altins, and in grifs, or grives.

At Geneva, in livres, ſols and deniers, as alſo in florins.

In Savoy, as at Geneva, but the florin differs.

At Raconi, in florins and in groſs.

In Switzerland, in florins, creutzers, and pennings.

SPAIN and PORTUGAL.

At Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, and in all Spain, the books are kept in maravedis, 375 of which make a ducat.

They are alſo kept in Spain, in ryals of plate or ſilver, and in pieces of eight; 34 maravedis make ſuch a rayal, and eight rayals are worth a piece of 8 piaſters, or a rayal of 272 maravedis.

At Liſbon, the books are kept in rees, which are diſtinguiſhed by hundreds, with comma's from the right to the left, and are reduced into mil-rees, or a thouſand rees, each of which thouſands make a Spaniſh piſtole.

In England, Scotland, and Ireland, the books are kept in pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling, which are alſo ſummed up by 20 and 12.

In the ports of the Levant, and in all the dominions of the Grand Seignior, the books are kept in piaſters, abouquels, and in aſpers.

BOOK of Cargo, or Loading, is a book kept by the cap-merchant, or purſer, on board a trading veſſel, in which he enters all the merchandizes which compoſe the cargo of it's ſhip, either for freight only, or for ſale, or exchange, according as they are ſold in the places for which they are ſhipped, or delivered to thoſe to whom they are directed, the whole as it is ſpecified in the captain or maſter's bill of lading.

The method of keeping this book, is to write down apart, or by themſelves, all the merchandizes that are to be ſold, every one according to the place where it is to be diſpoſed of; and alſo apart all thoſe that are only taken in for freight, and thoſe likewiſe according to the places and perſons to whom they are directed.

There are commonly, on every page of this book, two columns on the left ſide, and three on the right; in the firſt on the left, they ſet down the mark of the bale or cheſt, and in the ſecond it's numero. Over-againſt it, they write down the place where the merchandizes are to be ſold, with an account of what merchandizes are contained in the bale or cheſt; they do the ſame with regard to ſuch merchandizes as are only for freight: then they ſet down, in the three columns on the left, the ſums which have been received either for ſale or for freight.

They commonly ſet down the merchandizes for ſale firſt, and next to them thoſe for freight: an inſtance of an article in a book of cargo will be ſufficient to make the reader underſtand how it is kept.

Model of a book of cargoes.

Book of cargo of the merchandizes ſhipped at Rochelle, the 6th of March, 1751, on board the Swallow frigate, Coſal maſter, to be, with God's aſſiſtance, carried and delivered to the places and perſons for whom they are deſigned.

			l.	s.	d
		Merchandizes for freight, for Cadiz.			
P. D.	No. 15.	To be delivered to Mr Paul David, at Cadiz, a bale numbered and marked as per margin, containing 36 dozen of beaver-hats, rotons - - - - - - - -	400		
		Merchandizes for ſale for the Canaries.			
B. B.	No. 36.	A bale numbered and marked as per margin, containing 400 pieces of linnen cloth of Britanny, in exchange for wine of the country, hogſheads - - - - -	60		½

Books of cargo are looked upon as private writings only, and cannot have the ſame authority as bills of lading, charter-parties, invoices, and ſuch other writings, to ſerve as vouchers for a ſhip's cargo.

This difference, in France, has been adjudged by a decree of the king's council, given the 21ſt of January, 1693, by which his majeſty declares as a lawful prize ſeveral bales of merchandizes, which had been ſhipped on board the Redeemer, taken by a French privateer, which merchandizes were only regiſtered in a book of cargo, which was the only book on board: his majeſty declaring, that it could not ſupply the want of an invoice, of a charter-party, and of a bill of lading, none of which were to be found on board. So that, notwithſtanding the claim of a French merchant, the merchandizes were ſold for the profit of the privateer, except the tenth part, which was remitted to the high admiral, to which it belonged.

Theſe books, together with the bills of lading, charter-parties, and other papers and vouchers, are what they call the writings of a merchant-ſhip.

By the 9th article of the firſt title of the ordonnance of Lewis XIV, concerning the four great farms, made in February 1687, all captains and maſters of ſhips are obliged to declare at the office, the neareſt to the place into which they put, for what port their merchandizes are deſigned, and, for that purpoſe, to produce and ſhew to the commiſſioner their books of cargo, bills of lading, charter-party, &c. See BILL OF LADING, CHARTER-PARTY.

REMARKS.

From this deſcription of the uſe of thoſe diſtinct books, an idea may be formed, that the intention and reſult of the whole is to exhibit to a trader, at all times, the true ſtate of his affairs; than which, nothing can be a greater preſervative againſt misfortunes in trade.

The book wherein this repreſentation of a trader's concerns is to be ſeen, is called the ledger; by reaſon that herein are digeſted, in a collective light, all the principal heads of his accounts, by way of charge and diſcharge, according to the nature of the tranſaction: and, if every account in this ſummary book is duly debited and credited, as reaſon requires, for what it ought to be, there is no great difficulty to comprehend, that the ballance of every diſtinct account will juſtly and truly ſhew the ſtate of ſuch account, and, if alſo the ballance of every particular account is juſt and true, the general ballance of the whole cannot be falſe.

To perſons, who are unacquainted with the Italian method of accountantſhip, or the method by double entry, or by way of charge and diſcharge, ſuitably to the nature of the occurrences, this multiplicity of books may ſo perplex and bewilder them, as to render this art a very myſtical matter; whereas it depends upon the plaineſt principles of reaſon, and therefore can be no way difficult, if thoſe principles are attended to.

That the art is extremely eaſy, I have endeavoured to ſhew under the article of BANKING; where I have, upon a ſingle ſheet, exemplified the fundamental principles of the whole myſtery: and, if the familiar explanation thereof which I have given, be well underſtood, the application of thoſe principles to any other purpoſes may be made without difficulty. For, as it has been ſhewn, that all the other books are only auxiliary, or preparatory to this grand and principal book, wherein all tranſactions are entered in miniature; ſo, if the reaſon of the entries in this be thoroughly underſtood, the uſe and nature of the ſubſervient and inferior books will be ſo of courſe. For it is this book alone, which can teach the art, it being the eſſential. The others may vary in their number, and in their method of keeping, according to the buſineſs wherein a trader may be concerned; but this book muſt never vary from the laws and principles of true reaſon, whereupon the ſcience is bottomed.

And, although I have given a deſcription of the uſe of the divers books generally to be met with in a merchant's counting-houſe of any degree of eminence; yet, I have only done this, in compliance to the ordinary way of giving inſtructions in this art; for 'tis my opinion, that the nature and foundation of the ledger ſhould be firſt taught, and the uſe of all books preparatory thereunto (be they ever ſo numerous, according to the peculiar circumſtances of a trader's buſineſs) will, with all deſirable eaſe, be throughly comprehended.

The accountant, who keeps the principal books in mercantile buſineſs of conſequence, always conſiders the effects of his journal entries in the ledger, before he ſtates them; that naturally leading him to fall upon the true debtors and creditors in ſtating of his journal, previouſly to the poſting from thence into the ledger: for, if the neceſſary conſequence of every entry into the ledger is not weighed and underſtood by the book-keeper, this journal can never be rightly ſtated; and therefore, the ledger can never give a juſt repreſentation of a trader's negotiations.

Wherefore, whoever would be fundamentally grounded in that excellent art of book-keeping by double entry, ſhould firſt ſtudy the nature of the ledger, and not be perplexed with any other book till he becomes thoroughly acquainted with that: for the peculiar forms of ever ſo great a multitude of other books will be as ſoon underſtood as ſeen, and may be kept by any hackney writer, as well as by the ableſt book-keeper, or accountant; and a thorough-paced accountant (eſpecially in the mercantile way, which admits of a ſurpriſing variety of tranſactions in large and extenſive buſineſs) is no low or contemptible character, notwithſtanding there are ſo many who unmeritedly call themſelves ſo.

Having given a ſhort ſtate of a banker's ledger only, under the article of BANKING, according to the currency of the ordinary tranſactions of that branch of buſineſs, it may be uſeful to the reader, in order the more intelligibly to explain my meaning, to illuſtrate the very ſame tranſactions, by giving him an idea of ranging them in the various auxiliary books, previouſly neceſſary to their being transferred into the ledger; and then he will experience, I am perſuaded, that the eaſieſt and ſhorteſt method to become ſkilled in this art, is to be maſter of the ledger, before he is put to underſtand the forms of other books. For, as the ledger is the accountantſhip-reſult of all the other books, ſo the imagined re-converſion of that book into all the reſt will ſhew the difference of the method propoſed, and the vulgar one that is practiſed.

Let it be ſuppoſed, then, that theſe tranſactions of banking were entered, as they occurred, in the ſeveral books appropriated for the divers occaſions: as,

1. That they are entered in the waſte-book, in the natural and promiſcuous order as they happened daily to ariſe, as is done in the mercantile way.
2. That they ſhould be from thence journalized, or ſtated in the due form of debtor and creditor, according to the reaſon of ſuch occurrences.
3. That what relates to the caſh-account, ſhould again be ſeparated into a daily or weekly caſh-book.
4. That a diſtinct book was kept for bills of exchange, and another for promiſſary notes.
5. That another was kept for the dealings in ſtocks, and another for bottomries; and in the like manner particular books for other parts of the buſineſs.—This being ſuppoſed to be the caſe, there can be no difficulty to conceive, that the ſole deſign of all theſe books is to terminate in an accurate ledger, in order always to exhibit the true ſtate of the banker's affairs, in relation to every branch thereof.

Now the art of the accountant conſiſts in judging of the reſult and conſequence of every thing, as it ſhall appear in the ledger-form; otherwiſe, it is not poſſible that he ſhould be able to keep the accounts accurately. For, although he ſhould keep no grand ledger at all, yet, if he does not keep his caſh-account in that form, by way of charge and diſcharge; and the ſeveral other diſtinct accounts alſo; ſuch books will always be in confuſion, and can never be duly ballanced, 'till they are reduced into that form from the waſte-book or journal, and what other books may contain the whole of a trader's negociations.

From what has been obſerved, it cannot but be obvious enough, I apprehend, that as the great end, and deſign in the buſineſs of book-keeping, is the ſtating of a ledger in an exact and accurate manner; ſo the perfect knowledge hereof ſhould be the firſt, and not the laſt thing, which the accountant is made acquainted with. For, if he knows how to form a general ledger under the moſt accurate and conciſe heads, a knowledge of the form of all other books, preliminary or auxiliary thereunto, will, as obſerved, ſo ſoon be underſtood as viewed. Nay, when a perſon is capable of ſtating the ledger with judgment, in regard to any kind of tranſactions, he will, with no leſs judgment, adapt the number, as well as the form, of all the preparatory books thereunto.

'Tis neceſſary, abſolutely neceſſary, we allow, that all the forms of accountantſhip ſhould be duly adhered to; but, as we would convey the eſſence, and not the form of the art only, we have thought proper to point that out to our readers. The great difficulty in accountantſhip, according to the method of double entry, conſiſting in the properly ſtating of the ledger, it will be expected that we ſhould lay down the principles of reaſon, upon which the ſame is founded. This we ſhall do, but not 'till we come to the article of MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP; where we ſhall have occaſion to illuſtrate the principles by ſo great a variety of practical occurrences, that any one may become a complete maſter of this uſeful ſcience, and apply the ſame to whatever public or private occaſions he may require.

We deſire, therefore, that what we have ſaid here, in regard to this matter, as alſo under the articles of ACCOUNTANTSHIP, and our REMARKS on BANKRUPTS, and the examples we have given with reſpect to the buſineſs of BANKING, may be all looked upon as introductory to the article of MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP; and what we ſhall ſay under that head, as preparatory to the underſtanding of the NATIONAL ACCOUNTS; where we ſhall endeavour to demonſtrate, how eaſily this admirable art is alſo applicable to the accounts of nations, as well as to thoſe of private perſons; and what confuſed and bewildered notions perſons of the firſt diſtinction have had of theſe things, for want of being able to ſtate the accounts of this nation in particular, in ſo familiar and ſo accurate a manner as this method will admit of.

And, as the knowledge of the money-affairs of this kingdom is of ſo high concernment to the intereſt of land and trade, we humbly hope, that what we ſhall ſuggeſt upon that topic, will be as cordially received by our nobility and gentry, as it is zealouſly intended for the general benefit and advantage.

BOOK of Rates. This is a book eſtabliſhed by parliament, ſhewing at what value goods that pay poundage, ſhall be reckoned at the cuſtom-houſe. See CUSTOMS, DUTY, TUNNAGE, POUNDAGE.

The book of rates annexed to the act of tunnage and poundage, made in the 12th year of King Charles II. is the foundation of all ſubſequent cuſtom-houſe duties which have been laid ſince, and is ſubſcribed with the hand of Sir Harbottle Grimſtone, then ſpeaker of the houſe of commons. An additional book of rates of goods and merchandizes uſually imported, and not particularly rated in the former, with rules, orders, &c. is ſigned by Spencer Compton, Eſq; ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, 11 Geo. I. c. 7. See at the end of every LETTER in this Dictionary, concerning the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

BOOKBINDER, he who binds books. The company of binders and gilders of books, in the city and ſuburbs of Paris, is

is very modern, though their profeſſion is very ancient. 'Till the month of Auguſt 1686, theſe workmen were of the body of bookſellers, and carried on the book trade together with them; ſome had even printing-houſes. This union, which had continued many centuries, was broke by two edicts of Lewis XIV; one of which contains regulations for the printers and bookſellers, and the other erects the bookbinders and gilders into a diſtinct company or corporation.

When the body of bookſellers was firſt eſtabliſhed, there were but two bookbinders and two book-gilders, who were ſtiled colourers (enlumineurs.) The invention of the art of prining, by which the number of bookſellers was conſiderably increaſed, did, in conſequence thereof, increaſe that of the bookbinders and gilders; and theſe two profeſſions, which made but one company, were ſoon confounded, the bookbinder becoming a bookſeller, and the bookſeller exerciſing the art of bookbinding.

By the edicts of the year 1686, which were deſigned to reform that abuſe, and prevent it for the future, the bookſellers, printers, and letter-founders, were continued one company, and the bookbinders and gilders were erected into a new company, having their own wardens, and particular ſtatutes.

We ſhall give hereafter an account of the ſtatutes of the bookſellers and printers company. See BOOKSELLER. And we ſhall, in this place, preſent the reader with an extract of the moſt important regulations, which relate to the bookbinders and gilders.

By the above-mentioned edict, given at Verſailles in Auguſt, 1686, and regiſtered in the parliament of Paris the 7th of September following, the king orders:

1. That the company of the maſter-bookbinders and gilders ſhall, for the future, be entirely ſeparated from the company of bookſellers and printers, ſo as that theſe two companies may never be again united and incorporated together.

2. That the profeſſion of bookbinders and gilders ſhall continue erected into a maſterſhip, and the maſters united into one body corporate, to be governed according to the regulations and ſtatutes preſcribed to them by this ſame edict.

3. That they who follow together the two profeſſions of bookſelling and bookbinding, ſhall be obliged to chuſe either, and to continue afterwards in that company which they ſhall have choſen, according to the caſes and circumſtances which are ſet forth and explained in that edict.

4. Laſtly, That the maſter bookbinders and gilders ſhall ſtill be reputed and reckoned as members of the univerſity of Paris, and as ſuch enjoy all the privileges, which they lawfully and juſtly enjoyed before. That they ſhall make but one brotherhood with the maſter bookſellers and printers, but nevertheleſs they ſhall not be ſummoned to the aſſemblies, nor be preſent at the election and nomination of the ſyndic and aſſiſtants of the bookſellers company; but, on the day next following that election, they ſhall meet and chuſe, by a majority of voices, the wardens of their own company.

The maſter-bookbinders pretended that the merchant-mercers, and other freemen of corporations who trade in paper, had not the right to keep by them ſeveral of thoſe tools, or inſtruments, particularly thoſe which ſerve for the beating, cutting and binding of books; but, by a decree of the parliament of Paris, made towards the latter end of the ſeventeenth century, the ſtationers have been kept in poſſeſſion of the beating-ſtone and hammer, of the cutting-preſs, and of the ſewing-preſs, on condition, nevertheleſs, that they ſhall not bind any regiſter but with ſquare backs; thoſe with round backs, as belonging to the bookſellers trade, muſt be bound by the bookbinders only.

BOOKSELLER, one who trades in books, whether he prints them himſelf, or gives them to be printed by others. See BOOK-TRADE.

BOOKSELLER Foreign, or Alien, one who comes into a town, or city, which is not his uſual dwelling-place, to ſell, diſpoſe of or exchange books, which he cauſed to be printed elſewhere, or cauſed to be brought from foreign countries.

At Paris no alien-bookſeller is allowed to keep a ſhop, warehouſe, or printing-houſe, nor to cauſe bills of his books to be poſted up, either by himſelf or by factors, or any other perſons, nor even to expoſe and ſell them at the fairs of St Germain and St Laurence.

They have liberty, however, to ſell or exchange them, provided it be done in the ſyndical chamber, or hall, of the bookſellers and printers company, after their books have been there viſited, and on condition that they ſhall not continue there above three weeks, reckoning from the day of the opening and viſiting their books for the diſpoſal of them.

The new regulation concerning bookſelling and printing, of the 28th of February, 1723, made but very little alterations in the three articles which compoſe the title of foreign bookſellers, in the regulation of 1686. The only ſtatute of policy, added to it, is to be met with in the ſecond article. By that ſtatute, the foreign bookſellers are ordered to keep their books for ſale within the univerſity, as is expreſſed in the 12th article, and no where elſe, and to declare to the ſyndic and aſſiſtants of the bookſellers company the places where they ſhall keep them. See the next ARTICLE.

BOOK-TRADE, the trade of thoſe who deal in books.

The bookſellers and printers at Paris make but one corporation, or company, under the name of the Body of bookſellers; to which are continued united, in France, the maſter-letter-founders, by the edict of Lewis XIV, given in Auguſt, 1686; and from which body were ſeparated the bookbinders and gilders, by an edict of the ſame king, given the ſame month and year, whereby they were erected into a diſtinct company. We mention hereafter the letter-founders, and we have given above an account of the bookbinders. See LETTER-FOUNDER and BOOKBINDER.

There are, among others, the regulations made in France in 1650, 1663, 1670, 1671, 1686, 1703, 1704, and 1713, beſides a vaſt number of decrees of the council, ſerving either to explain the ancient ſtatutes, or to eſtabliſh ſome new ones.

The four laſt regulations, and particularly the edict given in Auguſt, 1686, and regiſtered in the parliament of Paris the 21ſt of the ſame month, and the declaration of the 23d of October, 1713, and regiſtered the 26th, given as an explanation of that edict, ought to be conſidered as true ſtatutes of the company of bookſellers, 'till thoſe which have been offered to the king's council by the bookſellers and printers, and partly agreed upon amongſt them in ſeveral conferences, received the royal authority by a new edict, or declaration.

We ſhall give here an extract of that edict of 1686, corrected where it may be neceſſary, by the articles of the declaration which explains it, or by the other declarations and decrees of the council given ſince.

This edict, in the form of a regulation, contains 69 articles, brought under 15 titles; theſe titles are as follow:

Of the franchiſes, exemptions, and immunities, of the bookſellers and printers of Paris.
Of the bookſellers and printers in general.
Of apprentices.
Of journeymen.
Of the admiſſion of maſters, or freemen.
Of the widows.
Of the correctors.
Of hawkers of books.
Of foreign bookſellers.
Of ſyndics, aſſiſtants, and maſters of the brotherhood.
Of the viſitation, and the ſyndical chamber.
Of libels, and prohibited books.
Of the privileges, or licences, for printing books.
Finally, of the inventories, appraiſing, and ſales, of the ſtock of bookſellers and printers.

The bookſellers, printers, and the letter-founders, who with them compoſe the body of the traders in books, are reckoned to belong to the body, and to be members of the univerſity, being entirely diſtinct and ſeparated from the mechanic arts; and in that quality they enjoy all the rights, franchiſes, and prerogatives, which the rector, maſter, and ſcholars of the ſaid univerſity are uſed to enjoy.

There are at the head of this company a ſyndic and four aſſiſtants; the company, being aſſembled, chuſe them by election, and by a majority of votes. The election of a ſyndic is made but every other year, and that of the aſſiſtants every year, but of two only at once, in the room of two ancient ones who go out of the office. The day of the election is fixed on the 8th of May, and the number of the electors to 16 perſons, who are ſummoned from among the bookſellers and printers, beſides the ſyndic and the aſſiſtants. The election is made in the preſence of the lieutenant-general of the police, and of the king's attorney-general, at the Chatelet.

There was an equality kept between the bookſellers and the printers, by the edict of 1686, in regard to the right of election, and to the number of perſons ſummoned; but the vaſt diſproportion between the number of the former and that of the latter, (there being but 36 printers, and much above 200 bookſellers) occaſioned an explication to be made of the declaration of the year 1713, in the ſeventh article of which it is ordered, that there ſhall be choſen for the future but one aſſiſtant from among the printers every other year; and that but four printers and 12 bookſellers ſhall be ſummoned for the elections.

The ſyndic is entruſted with the adminiſtration of the money and effects belonging to the company, and the two laſt aſſiſtants are the adminiſtrators of the brotherhood.

The viſitations both general and particular are made by the ſyndics and aſſiſtants; the general ones every three months, and the others as often as they think it neceſſary.

The viſitation of the books imported from abroad (which are all carried to the ſyndical chamber, by virtue of the 58th article of the edict, the execution whereof has alſo been ordered by a ſentence of the lieutenant-general of the police, given the

the 6th of June, 1698) ought to be done, at leaſt, by three perſons from among the ſyndic and the aſſiſtants: the days appointed to make it are Tueſdays and Fridays, at 2 in the afternoon.

In thoſe viſitations, all libels againſt the honour of God, and the welfare and quiet of the ſtate, and all books printed either within or without the kingdom, in breach of the regulations, or privileges, ought to be ſtopped, even with the merchandizes that might happen to be in the bales with ſuch libels, or other prohibited books.

Not only the viſitation of the books which are carried to Paris by foreign printers, or bookſellers, or from the provinces, to be ſold or exchanged there, ought to be performed in the ſyndical chamber; but even the ſale, or exchange, of thoſe books ought to be done there in the preſence of the ſaid ſyndic and aſſiſtants.

Laſtly the officers of this company, beſides the viſitations made at their brethren's houſes and ſhops, have alſo the right to viſit, or ſeize, thoſe of the ſellers of marbled paper, printſellers, and dealers in printed paper for hangings, who, by the 61ſt article, are forbidden to keep at home any letters proper for printing books.

Apprentices, who muſt not be married people, are obliged to ſerve at leaſt four years following, and afterwards three other years as journeymen, with any freeman of the company. None can be admitted an apprentice, unleſs he be verſed in the Latin tongue, of which he is to produce a certificate from the rector of the univerſity.

A printer who has but two preſſes can take but one apprentice: the others may have two. As for the bookſellers, they can bind but one apprentice at a time: but the ſixth article of the declaration of 1713, which orders that every printer ſhall have at leaſt four preſſes, ſeems to have made void that difference of one or two apprentices for printers.

The ſons of freemen are not obliged to undergo any apprenticeſhip; and, if they have the requiſite qualifications, they ought to be admitted upon their firſt application: this, however, is liable to ſome exceptions, as ſhall be obſerved hereafter.

The qualifications requiſite to be made free, beſides the apprenticeſhip and ſervice for thoſe who are obliged to it, is, that they be full 20 years old, natural-born Frenchmen, ſkilled in the Latin tongue, and able to read Greek.

He who ſues for his freedom, ought to have a certificate from two other freemen of the company, declaring that he is capable to follow the profeſſion of a printer or bookſeller, which is to be underſtood, according to the interpretation given in the 4th article of the declaration of 1713, that the ſon, or apprentice, of a bookſeller, who would be admitted a freeman-bookſeller, muſt have a certificate ſigned by two bookſellers only; and the ſon, or apprentice, of a printer, in the ſame caſe, ſhall have a certificate from two freemen-printers only; and, if any would be printers and bookſellers at the ſame time, they muſt have certificates from two bookſellers and two printers.

According to the 3d article of the declaration of 1713, the ſons of freemen-printers, who follow only the buſineſs of printers, ought to ſerve a whole year with a bookſeller at Paris, or two years with a country bookſeller, before they can be admitted bookſellers. In the like caſe, apprentices are to ſerve two years at Paris, or three years in the provinces: which muſt alſo be obſerved, in ſimilar circumſtances, by the ſons, or apprentices, of bookſellers, who would be made free printers.

Journeymen who marry the widow, or daughter, of a freeman, are admitted as freemen's ſons.

Widows, who continue ſuch, enjoy all the privileges of their late huſband's freedom, except that they cannot bind new apprentices, but only keep thoſe they have 'till their time be out.

The number of printers is fixed at 36, whoſe places, in caſe of a vacancy, cannot be filled up but by printers ſons, or by ſuch as have a right from their regular apprenticeſhip.

The number of bookſellers is not determined; but they are not allowed to admit above one freeman a year, beſides freemen's ſons and ſons-in-law. In ſuch an admiſſion they prefer him whoſe name has been firſt ſet down in the regiſter by the ſyndic and aſſiſtants.

Every one of the 36 printers, who, by the 2d article of the regulation of the year 1686, might have two preſſes only belonging to him, is now obliged, by the 6th article of the declaration of 1713, to have at leaſt four preſſes, and eight different ſets of Roman letters, with their Italics, from the great canon to the pearl; nor can ſeveral printers enter into partnerſhip for the ſame printing-houſe.

The bookſeller-printers, who keep a printing-houſe, or bookſeller's-ſhop, ought to keep them within the quarter only, in the ſame place, and not ſeparately. The bookſellers, who are not printers, may keep their ſhops within the palace, or the court of Juſtice-Hall, unleſs they confine themſelves to the ſelling of primers only, and other ſmall prayer-books, in which caſe they may live in the neighbourhood of the palace, and in the ſtreet of Nôtre-Dame.

The 11th article of the edict of 1686, which contains thoſe regulations concerning the dwelling places of the printers and bookſellers, does alſo determine the limits, or bounds, of what is called the quarter of the univerſity.

All the printers and bookſellers who print, or cauſe to be printed, any books, are obliged to put their names and marks to them, to take out privileges, or licences, under the great ſeal, to print theſe privileges entirely, at the beginning or end of each copy, and to have it alſo regiſtred at length, as likewiſe the ceſſion they make of them, in the regiſter of the ſyndical chamber.

However, it is not neceſſary, it is even forbidden, to obtain ſuch licences for petitions, caſes, &c. We give in another place a full account of all that relates to this ſubject. See LICENCE.

After ſeveral alterations which happened in the book-trade with regard to the number of copies which bookſellers and printers are obliged to deliver to ſome libraries, or to the ſyndical chamber, at every impreſſion they make of books, the declaration of Lewis XIV. of the 6th of October, 1703, fixed them to eight, to be diſtributed as the reader will ſee in the article COPIES of authors for Printing.

The declaration of 1713 does likewiſe oblige to it all engravers and printſellers, with regard to ſuch books as contain figures, cuts, maps, &c. See COPIES.

It belongs to the bookſellers and printers only to make an inventory of, or to appraiſe, printing-houſes and books, which are to be expoſed to ſale. And the preſſes and letters belonging to a printing-houſe cannot be ſold, nor carried off, without leave from the lieutenant-general of the police, and only in the preſence of the ſyndic and aſſiſtants, who ought to keep a regiſter of them, upon which they, to whom they have been ſold or adjudged, are obliged to write that they take them for their account, upon pain of forfeiture and a fine.

The bookſellers and printers, as members of the univerſity, and on account of the excellency of their art, having been always ſeparated and diſtinct from the mechanic arts, their company was comprized in the liſt drawn up in council for the execution of the edict of Lewis XIV, by which were created, or erected, officers of maſters and wardens, ſyndics and jurats, for the bodies of the merchants, and for the companies of arts and trades: but, a new creation of auditors in thoſe bodies and companies being made in 1694, the company of bookſellers, who, through inadvertency, were inſerted in the new liſt, againſt their privileges, was, as it were, forced to pay a conſiderable ſum, which they were obliged to borrow, to get rid of the vexations they ſuffered from the king's farmer.

Finally, in 1703, the bookſellers and printers, being again proſecuted for ſeveral taxes laid on the other companies by the edicts of 1701 and 1702, they obtained a full and abſolute diſcharge by a declaration made in October, 1703; and the ſums paid by them, 'till that time, into the king's coffers, were declared to be inſtead of the augmentation of what they were to pay for the confirmation of their rights and privileges. By the ſame declaration, the number of copies to be delivered to the ſyndical chamber was increaſed to eight, and the fees for viſitations and admittance of freemen were alſo conſiderably increaſed, in order to indemnify the company of bookſellers for the large ſums they had borrowed, to pay the arrears, and to reimburſe them by degrees.

We do not mention here the correctors of the preſs, hawkers of books, foreign bookſellers, the ſyndical chamber, nor ſeveral other things relating to this, of which mention is made in ſeveral articles of the regulation of 1686, becauſe we give an account of them under their proper heads, to which the reader may have recourſe.

Regulations concerning the book-trade and printing, at Paris, reſolved in the king's council of ſtate, the 28th of February, 1723.

The new regulations, that were to determine the diſputes which aroſe continually between the bookſellers and printers, being at laſt put into a proper form, his majeſty, in order to ſecure the execution of them, iſſued a declaration, dated the 10th of December, 1720. But, though theſe regulations had been drawn up and examined with a great deal of care, yet, when they were brought to the parliament, with the cuſtomary ſealed letters, to be there regiſtered, there were found reaſons to make ſeveral obſervations, by which it appeared that a great many articles wanted ſome alterations; beſides which, ſeveral abuſes that had been introduced among thoſe who carry on the buſineſs of bookſelling and printing, required to be redreſſed by ſome new regulations. Theſe conſiderations determined his majeſty to call in his declaration, that theſe regulations might be amended, and again preſented to his council, to be approved there. It was at laſt reſolved, on the 28th of February, 1723, and publiſhed with the title of Regulations for the bookſellers and printers of Paris.

Theſe regulations, by virtue of a decree of the king's council of ſtate, made that 19th of June the ſame year, and agreeably to an ordonnance of the lieutenant-general of the police, whom the king charged to ſee them executed, were read

read and regiſtered in the ſyndical chambers of the bookſellers and printers of Paris, the 13th of October following.

Theſe new regulations contain 120 articles, whereas thoſe of the year 1686 had only 69. As to the titles, there is but one added, which is that of ſubſcriptions, which they have put the third, in the room of that of letter-founders, which is now the eleventh. We ſhall give no account here of that new title, referring it to the article of SUBSCRIPTIONS.

As for the articles either added or amended, we ſhall juſt run them over, and, to avoid tireſome repetitions, we ſhall ſay nothing of thoſe that do not differ from the articles of the regulations of the year 1686.

The firſt article confirms the exemption granted to the company in 1703, of being free from loans, taxes, levies, ſubſidies, &c. already laid, or to be laid hereafter, on arts and trades, of which his majeſty excepts, diſtinguiſhes, and intirely ſeparates this company.

By the ſecond, all books, either manuſcript, printed, or engraved, bound or unbound, old or new, books of prints and geographical maps, whether they come from foreign countries, or from the cities and provinces of the kingdom, or be exported out of the kingdom, as alſo caſt letters and characters for printing either old or new, and the ink ſerving to print, coming from foreign countries, or from the cities and provinces of the kingdom, are free from all duties of the cuſtom-houſe, tolls, bridge-duties, &c. according to the edicts and declarations of his majeſty's predeceſſors: and, to the end that the above-mentioned merchandizes may enjoy the ſaid exemption.

It is ordered, by the third article, that on each parcel, bale, tun, &c. there be a declaration in theſe words, books, caſt letters, printing-ink, &c.

By the fourtth article, all perſons, of what quality or condition ſoever they be, except bookſellers and printers, are forbidden to carry on the trade of books, or to have any printing preſſes at their houſes. This article is the ſame with the ſixth of the regulations of 1686, but very much enlarged. The fifth, ſixth, ſeventh, and eight articles are only the ſequel of the fourth, and relate to the buying and ſelling of old papers, old parchments, and old books, by the wives and widows of bookbinders, bookſellers, and printers. They alſo regulate in what books the merchant-mercers may trade, which was the ſubject of the 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, and 16th articles of the preceding regulations of 1686.

By the 14th article all bookſellers, who, at the ſame time, carry on the buſineſs of printers, are obliged to put up a bill, or ſign, declaring that they keep a printing-houſe; nor are they to ſet it up at any place but where their printing-houſe actually is.

The 23d article declares that no bookſeller, or printer, ſhall take above one apprentice at a time: they may, however, take a ſecond, when the laſt year of the firſt is begun.

The 44th article, which relates to the admiſſion of freemen, is the moſt important of all in theſe new regulations, and deſerves to be given here at length.

The 44th article of the regulations of 1723, concerning the admiſſion of freemen.

As it is of very great importance that they who follow the profeſſion of printing and bookſelling be endowed with a ſufficient capacity and experience, his majeſty orders that the ſons and ſons-in-law of freemen, as well as the apprentices who ſhall have finiſhed their time, and ſerved the maſters as journeymen, before they obtain their freedom as bookſellers or printers, beſides the certificate of the rector of the univerſity, be moreover obliged to undergo an examination, to wit, they who would become bookſellers, an examination on the trade of books; and they who would be admitted printers, after being examined on the book-trade, ſhall undergo a trial of their capacity with regard to printing, and the things relating thereunto: which examinations they ſhall be obliged to undergo in the preſence of the ſyndics and aſſiſtants in office, attended by four ancient officers of their company, two of whom muſt be printers and two bookſellers; and by two other bookſellers and two other printers, who have not yet bore any office in the company, but have been at leaſt 10 years free of it. Theſe eight examiners ſhall be drawn by lot by the candidate, both out of the number of the ancient officers, and from among ſuch bookſellers and printers who have at leaſt 10 years freedom. Theſe ſaid examiners, thus choſen, his majeſty orders to meet with the ſyndics and aſſiſtants, at the ſyndical chamber, to proceed all together, by way of ſcrutiny to the ſaid examination and trial, which examination is to continue two hours at leaſt; nor the candidate be admitted to his freeedom, unleſs he have two thirds of the votes in his favour. The ſyndic and aſſiſtants ſhall take immediately a verbal proceſs of the whole proceedings: and, for the fees of their attendance, the ſyndic, and each of the aſſiſtants, as well as every one of the examiners, ſhall have ſix medals, worth ſix livres tournois, which ſhall be diſtributed to them by the candidate.

It is ordered by the 45th article, which is but a ſequel of the foregoing, that every candidate for the bookſellers trade, who ſhall be found to have the requiſite qualifications, ſhall be admitted by the ſyndic and aſſiſtants, upon paying the ſum of 1000 livres, to be employed for the company's occaſions: and every candidate for the printer's buſineſs ſhall pay 1500 livres, with this difference, that the latter ſhall not be admitted but by virtue of a decree of the council, given by the advice of the lieutenant-general of the police, ſent to the keeper of the ſeals.

It is alſo ordered, that, if a perſon who ſhall have been admitted a bookſeller, comes after to be admitted to the freedom of a printer, he ſhall be obliged, beſides the 1000 livres abovementioned, to pay the ſum of 500 livres. The fees for attendance, to be paid by the candidates, are the ſame for bookſellers and printers; namely, 12 ſilver medals to the ſyndic, ſix to each of the aſſiſtants, and two to each of the ancients.

By the 46th article, the fees for the admiſſion of freemen's ſons are ſettled, namely, at 600 livres for bookſellers, and 900 livres for printers, which fees are alſo to be paid by ſuch journeymen who, after having finiſhed their apprenticeſhip, ſhall marry a freeman's daughter or widow; with this condition, nevertheleſs, that ſuch freemen's ſons, or ſons-in-law, or they who marry freemen's widows, ſhall undergo the examination, and obſerve all the formalities abovementioned.

The 48th article grants to the freemen of Paris the right of going to dwell, and carry on the bookſellers trade, in all the cities and other places of the kingdom, by only producing their letters of freedom, and cauſing them to be regiſtered at the ordinary court of juſtice kept in thoſe places.

The ſix following articles treat only of the printers, and order, 1. The execution of all the articles of the ancient regulations made with regard to printing, particularly thoſe of 1686. in all the articles which are not abrogated by theſe preſent regulations. 2. That the preference formerly granted to the ſons and ſons-in-law of printers, of being admitted in their ſtead, ſhall no longer ſubſiſt, and that they ſhall not be preferred, unleſs they be at leaſt of an equal merit with their competitors. 3. That every candidate to the freedom, who, upon examination, ſhall be found to have the requiſite qualifications, ſhall be obliged to have a printing-houſe, with four printing-preſſes at leaſt, and nine ſorts, or ſizes, of Roman letters, with their Italics, as it is explained in the 51ſt article, of which preſſes and letters an inventory ſhall be made by the ſyndic and aſſiſtants. 4. That no printer ſhall lend to any candidate any preſſes, caſes, or letter, upon pain of forfeiting the ſame, and loſing his freedom; nor ſhall any candidate borrow them. 5. That the printers already admitted, whoſe printing-houſes are not completely furniſhed, according to what is ordered above, ſhall furniſh them thoroughly within three months: in default of which they ſhall be obliged to ſell them within the courſe of two years. 6. Laſtly, the printing-houſes which ſhall have been found completely furniſhed at the general viſitation ordered by the regulations, ſhall afterwards be conſtantly kept ſo.

The title of the letter-founders contain 13 articles, namely, from the 57th to the 69th, incluſively; but, as we give a full account of them in another place, we ſhall only refer to it here. See FOUNDER of letters.

The title of the hawkers of books contains ſix articles, which are the 69th to the 74th, incluſively.

There are but three articles relating to foreign bookſellers, viz. the 75th, 76th, and 77th. See BOOKSELLER Foreign.

The declaration of the year 1713, which altered the regulations made in 1686, with regard to the election of a ſyndic and aſſiſtants, have been again amended by the regulations of the year 1723.

By the firſt article of that title, which is the 78th of theſe regulations, it is ordered, that the company ſhall proceed, according to cuſtom, every year, on the 8th of May, to the election of two aſſiſtants, in the room of thoſe who, after two years ſervice and functions in the ſaid office, ought to go out of it; that every other year, on the ſame day, a ſyndic ſhall be choſen, who ſhall be taken out of the number of ancient aſſiſtants, on condition, nevertheleſs, that a ſyndic ſhall be choſen alternately from among the ſaid ancient aſſiſtant-bookſellers, or aſſiſtant-printers; or, at leaſt, that the ſyndic's place ſhall not be filled up above twice following by a perſon choſen out of the number of the ancient bookſellers, or ancient printers: and that, when the ſyndic ſhall be a printer, there ſhall be but one aſſiſtant following the profeſſion of a printer, ſo as that, of the five officers that compoſe the board, there be always two freemen following the printer's buſineſs.

It is alſo ordered, by the 79th article, that, of the 16 perſons ſummoned for the election, there be eight printers.

The articles 90, 91, and 92, contain wiſe precautions to prevent the importation of books, either prohibited, or printed againſt the ſtatutes, as alſo the importation of caſt letters for printing, which might be introduced fraudulently, and ſerve not only for printing ſpurious, pirated, or counterfeit editions, but likewiſe for printing libels, or works againſt religion, or the public tranquillity.

By the firſt of theſe three articles, all drivers, and maſters, and leaders of coaches, carts, waggons, &c. and all other carriages by land or by water, in which are carried to Paris

bales of books, prints, or caſt letters, are forbidden to deliver them as directed, or to unload them in the neighbourhood of that city, and all private perſons are forbidden to receive any. His majeſty orders that ſuch bales ſhall be carried to the cuſtom-houſe, or delivered, upon a note ſigned by the ſyndic, or by two of his aſſiſtants, to be carried to the ſyndical chamber, under the penalty of a fine of 1000 livres, and even of corporal puniſhment, if they ſhould commit the ſame fault again: and, if there be found in any ſuch carriages, books, prints, or caſt letters, which were not declared by the leaders of the carriages, or if any ſuch be carried clandeſtinely through by-places, they ſhall be ſtopped, and notice of it ſhall be immediately given to the ſyndic and aſſiſtants, who ſhall take care of them, upon the verbal proceſs of the officers and clerks of the cuſtom-houſe.

The ſecond of theſe three articles does likewiſe forbid all inſpectors and overſeers of the cuſtom-houſe at Paris, as alſo the waiters, or clerks, employed at the gates and bars, and all maſters of coaches, carriers, meſſengers, and others, to deliver any bale, parcel, or cheſt of books and prints, to any perſon of what quality ſoever he be; and this is to be obſerved, notwithſtanding all decrees, orders, permiſſions, and even the 6th article of the decree of the council of the 11th of September, 1720, containing regulations for the king's library; upon pain for the offenders to anſwer for it in their own proper name, to pay a fine of 500 livres, and to loſe their places.

Finally, by the third of thoſe three articles, his majeſty appoints the cities at which it ſhall henceforth be lawful to import books and pamphlets. Theſe cities are Paris, Roan, Nantz, Bourdeaux, Marſeilles, Lyons, Straſburgh, Metz, Amiens and Liſle.

The ſame article, providing for the ſecurity of the books, as they are carried through the ſeveral offices of the kingdom, forbids all directors, clerks, wardens, and others employed in the ſaid offices, to open, viſit, or ſtop any bales, packs, parcels, &c. of books, prints, or caſt letters, coming from foreign countries, or from the provinces of the kingdom, to the city of Paris, and orders that they ſhall ſuffer them to paſs to the place they are deſigned for, upon ſecurity being given by the perſon who ſent the bales, &c. of which the carriers, &c. are to take a receipt; namely for bales coming from foreign countries, at the firſt cuſtom-houſe as they enter the kingdom; and, for the others, at the cuſtom-houſe of the place whence the bales, &c. are ſent, or, if there be none, at the next cuſtom-houſe, where the bales and parcels ſhall be marked with lead, and the receipt given to the carriers regiſtered.

The 97th article relates to the dealers in marbled paper. See the article Marbled PAPER.

The 98th article orders that all merchandizes relating to the book-trade, which ſhall be ſeized for any offence againſt theſe regulations, ſhall be depoſited in the ſyndical chamber of the company of bookſellers and printers; the ſyndic and aſſiſtants ſhall take upon themſelves the care of them, by virtue of the verbal proceſs concerning the ſeizures, to keep them without any fee or expence, 'till a ſentence be pronounced upon the ſaid ſeizures: nor ſhall thoſe merchandizes be tranſported to any other place, nor committed to the care of any other keeper or officer.

The title or the privileges, or licences, for the printing of books, contains 11 articles, the firſt of which is the 101ſt, and the laſt the 112th. They are partly new, and partly extracted from the regulation of the year 1686.

A decree of the king's council of ſtate of the 10th of April, 1725, containing regulations concerning the printing and ſale of books.

It ſeemed that the foregoing regulations, in which the king's council entered into ſuch minute particulars, ſhould have ſufficiently provided againſt all that might diſturb the good order of a company ſo neceſſary to the ſtate, and to the ſciences. But his majeſty being informed that the negligence of ſeveral bookſellers and printers, and the covetouſneſs of ſome, had given riſe to ſeveral new abuſes, which raiſed the complaints of the public, and did a very great prejudice to the trade of books printed in France; that even ſome of the ſaid bookſellers, having got leave to receive ſubſcriptions for the printing of ſome works, had not fulfilled the engagements they were entered into with the public; that others, having obtained a renewal of the licence for books already printed, made no other uſe of it but to prevent other bookſellers from getting leave to print the ſaid book: his majeſty being willing to provide againſt all this, cauſed four new articles to be drawn up, to ſerve as a ſupplement to the regulations of the 28th of February, 1723: to wit,

I. That, for the future, nor licence, nor permiſſion, for printing new books, or for making new editions of books already printed, ſhall be delivered, unleſs there be preſented, at the ſame time, two printed ſheets, as a ſpecimen of the paper and letter the printer deſigns to make uſe of, which printed ſheets muſt be approved by the keeper of the ſeals; the one to be annexed to the counter-ſeal of the licence, and the other to be depoſited in the ſyndical chamber, where the ſaid licence ſhall be regiſtered; theſe ſheets to ſerve as a ſpecimen, by which the whole edition ſhall be examined by the ſyndic and aſſiſtants of the bookſellers company, in the preſence of a perſon appointed for that purpoſe by the keeper of the ſeals, before the books be expoſed to ſale, upon pain of forfeiting all the copies that ſhall be found not anſwerable to the ſpecimen, and paying a fine of a thouſand livres, &c.

II. That all bookſellers and printers ſhall be obliged to take a particular care, that all the editions of books be abſolutely correct, as much as is poſſible, upon pain of forfeiting thoſe whoſe correction ſhall have been viſibly neglected, and loſing the licences and permiſſions, &c.

III. That no ſubſcription ſhall be propoſed to the public, but for the printing of conſiderable works, which could not be printed without ſuch aſſiſtance; and only after leave firſt obtained from the keeper of the ſeals, who ſhall not grant it 'till the books be approved by the cenſors; which leave or permiſſion ſhall be written and ſigned upon the printed ſheet, called proſpectus (propoſals), which is to contain the conditions to which the bookſeller binds himſelf to the ſubſcribers, both with regard to the paper and letter, and to the price of the books, and the time when they are to be delivered: which printed ſheet of propoſals ſhall be depoſited, with the original permiſſion, in the ſyndical chamber, and regiſtered in the company's books, in which the bookſeller ſhall alſo ſign his obligation or bond to perform the propoſed conditions: and ſuch bookſellers as ſhall fail to fulfil any of the ſaid conditions, ſhall be condemned to return to the ſubſcribers double the ſums they receive from them, and to pay an arbitrary fine, according to the nature of the offence.

IV. That all the ſyndics and the aſſiſtants of the bookſellers company ſhall be obliged to deliver, within a month to the keeper of the ſeals, an account of all the privileges or licences that were renewed ſince the 1ſt of January, 1718, for books already printed; with an account of ſuch books as ſhall have been reprinted, in conſequence of the renewing of the licences; to the end that, upon examination, all the new privileges or licences which have not been uſed, may be annulled, and new ones, or only ſimple permiſſions, granted, to ſuch as ſhall petition for them, and promiſe to cauſe thoſe books to be very ſoon reprinted, according to theſe preſent regulations.

REMARKS.

From the multitude of regulations made in France, with regard to the buſineſs of bookſelling, we may judge of what importance they eſteem this employment to the ſtate, as being capable of doing great good or great miſchief to it. To prevent what is looked upon, by that government, in the light of the latter, we find ſuch reſtraints are laid upon the liberty of the preſs, that the people ſhall have no knowlege communicated to them, ſans privilege du roy, without the king's leave: that is to ſay, in plain Engliſh, that the whole kingdom ſhall be kept in ſuch ignorance, as beſt ſuits with the will of their ſovereign; to the end, that he may be as uncontroulably abſolute and tyrannical over the people as he pleaſes.

As this kind of policy hath proved, and is likely to prove, an invincible barrier againſt the liberties of that brave and polite nation; ſo the contrary hath proved the grand preſervative of the liberties of Great-Britain. For, whenever we ſhall be deprived of this privilege, can we expect other than to be governed by the abſolute will of a prince and his miniſters? Would not our parliaments become cyphers, or, perhaps, be totally annihilated? And what kind of government could we expect, but a joint confederacy, civil, eccleſiaſtical, and military, againſt the properties of the people? What inducement could there then be for induſtry and commerce when our acquiſitions were inſecure?

Arbitrary princes, 'tis true, do give encouragement to arts and trade, but with what view? Is it more, than to render their ſubjects temporarily rich, that, when they have occaſion for plunder, they may not have all beggars in their ſtate? On the contrary, when the powers of princes are governed by laws made by the people, the people will take care to make ſuch laws, as will ſecure their liberties and properties againſt the oppreſſions of princes. If ſuch a conſtituted legiſlature ſhould ſometimes happen to be miſled or corrupted, in the making of laws; yet while we enjoy the liberty of writing, we may be ſure to have thoſe laws repealed; for what corruption can withſtand the power of a free enquiry?

The upholders of this invaluable privilege, are the writers, the bookſellers, and the printers. Being, at preſent, confined to the bookſeller, I ſhall refer to the other reſpective heads, and conſider him in relation to other traders, who have connection with his branch.

The quantity of paper, conſumed in the manufacture of books, is very conſiderable: and whereas, not many years ſince, we were under the neceſſity of importing ſeven eighths of that commodity for this purpoſe, we have now the ſatisfaction to ſay; that we do not take above one eighth from foreign countries, the remainder being of our own manufacture. This has been owing to the great encouragement given

given by our bookſellers, to this branch of trade; wherein, if we continue to advance, we ſhall not only be capable of ſupplying ourſelves, but may, in a few years, make that commodity ſo exquiſite and ſo cheap, as to be able to export it to foreign countries. See the article PAPER-MAKING.

The ſtationer, bookbinder, and engraver, are great dependents on this claſs of traders; and the printer hath his chief dependence upon them, and the letter-founder on them both. 'Tis the buſineſs of the bookſeller to encourage all artiſts who have any connection with his branch, to the end that his books may be ſo delicately printed and embelliſhed, that we may not only equal, but ſurpaſs foreign nations in the art of book-printing. Nor is this a traffic of inconſiderable extent at preſent; and, by proper encouragement, may be made far more importantly ſo. For, from the freedom of the Engliſh preſs, or the unreſtrained liberty we enjoy of writing upon every kind of ſubject, foreigners entertain an opinion of our books, and perſons of diſtinction, in moſt parts of Europe, are not a little fond of them. As our language alſo begins to be more generally ſtudied in Europe than ever, ſo it is not to be doubted, but the Britiſh trade of bookſelling will increaſe in the like proportion; eſpecially if literary property be duly ſecured by law.

We are inferior to no nation, at preſent, in the art of letter-foundery, as well as that of printing; and therefore, if due care be taken by our bookſellers to have their books printed as well, and as cheap, as they are in other nations; if our home manufacture of paper be equally good, and every decoration belonging to a book be as well executed, what hinders but we may largely extend our commerce of bookſelling? That no nation can beat us in this trade, I could produce manifold inſtances. For brevity's ſake, I ſhall mention a few only, viz.

The Anatomical Tables of Albinus, which are publiſhed on 48 large copper-plates, 15 inches by 22, beautifully engraved, and printed on large imperial paper; accurately repreſenting figures of the human ſkeleton, and of the ſeveral orders of the human muſcles; alſo diſtinct views of the particular parts, wherein all that belongs to the ſtructure or habit of each muſcle, is ſhewn at large from the body. Together with a minute and ample explanation of the whole.

The plates in this work are eſteemed to be as correctly and maſterly engraved, as thoſe of any work of this kind ever were in any part of Europe; and the paper and letter are ſuperior to that printed in Holland, and ſell near two thirds cheaper. Nor ſhould it be forgot, that the whole is printed on paper of our own manufacture. Alſo,

A neat, correct, and beautiful edition of Q. Horatii Flacci opera, in two volumes 8vo, printed on royal paper, illuſtrated with 35 copper-plates, taken from antique ſtatues, gems, medals, &c. and repreſenting ſeveral curious pieces of antiquity. To which is prefixed, a deſcriptive account of every plate, and the paſſages in the poet which it explains and illuſtrates.

A neat, correct, and beautiful edition, of Virgilii opera, in two volumes 8vo, printed on royal paper, embelliſhed with above ſixty copper-plates, containing 166 pieces of antiquity, taken from ſtatues, marbles, paintings, gems, medals, &c. To which is prefixed, a full and deſcriptive account of every plate, and a reference to the paſſages in the poet, which each explains and illuſtrates.

A neat, correct, and beautiful edition, of Terentia opera, in two volumes 8vo, on royal paper, with copper-plates, in the ſame manner.

This edition of thoſe claſſical authors was corrected from the moſt accurate manuſcripts in the univerſity of Oxford; and for beauty and elegance of printing, as well as cheapneſs, we may preſume to ſay, was never equalled in this, or any other nation.

Another inſtance we have in the Heads of the Illuſtrious Perſons of Great-Britain: containing 120, finely engraved by Mr Houbraken, and printed on large imperial paper, together with their Lives and Characters, by the Rev. Dr Birch, Secretary to the Royal Society.

From theſe facts it appears, that the bookſellers of this kingdom are capable of printing books as well, and as cheap, as thoſe of any other nation: and therefore, for the general benefit of the kingdom, ſhould be ſo encouraged, as to be capable of extending this traffic as greatly throughout the world, as it will admit of. But there ſeem to be various obſtacles in their way to prevent it, which are continued, I am perſuaded, for want of the conſequences thereof being duly weighed and conſidered.

The principal obſtacle hereto is the inſecurity of literary property, according to the laws at preſent ſubſiſting. Though this matter has already been ſpoken to, in the REMARKS on the article of BOOKS, to which we refer the reader; yet it may not be altogether uſeleſs, under this head, to add a word more on a ſubject ſo intereſting to the nation; and wherein, at preſent, indeed, I am a party concerned. For what encouragement ſhall I have to go through with the laborious work, I am at preſent engaged in, provided the property is not ſo ſecured, as that I may make that reaſonable advantage of it to which I am intitled? 'Tis above twenty years ſevere ſtudy and application, that has enabled me to undertake this performance; and although the large fund of materials, which I have ſo long been collecting, were not, indeed, originally deſigned for this identical work; yet they were deſigned for one no way diſſimilar, nor leſs laborious, and very probably might have terminated in one of the ſame kind.

Whatever is a diſcouragement to perſons turned for ſtudy, in order to render themſelves uſeful to the community, ſtops up the channels, from whence all improvements of ſcience flow. For what mechanical or manufactural art, what branch of knowledge whereon our commerce and navigation depend, hath not been, at firſt, diſcovered by ſtudious men, and communicated for the general benefit of others? Were not they, alſo, the original founders of civil government itſelf; and therefore may it not be ſaid with truth, that all ſovereignty owes it's origin to them? At firſt, in every country, there prevailed nothing but barbariſm and rudeneſs: all places were terrified with giants, and enchantments, and inſolent uſurpers to deceive mankind: againſt theſe there firſt aroſe ſome mighty heroes, as Hercules, Theſeus, and Jaſon: theſe ſcowered the world, redreſſed injuries, and deſtroyed thoſe human monſters; for which they were made demi-gods. After them ſucceeded Solon and Lycurgus, &c. who accompliſhed the work, founded commonwealths, gave laws, and put juſtice in it's courſe.

'Tis true, there have been princes, as well as other diſtinguiſhed perſonages of the firſt rank, who have thought it their duty, as well as an honour, to become authors for the benefit of communities: and, why is there not as much glory in writing for religion and virtue, for the liberties of mankind, and for the benefit of uſeful arts and univerſal commerce, whereby the whole human ſpecies ſubſiſt, and are knit and united together, as in fighting for them, in pleading for them in ſenates, or in ſettling of property between perſon and perſon? But the bulk of thoſe authors, who have been, by far the more numerous, and perhaps, not the leaſt uſeful, have not been men of the ſupreme claſs; they have rather been neceſſitous than opulent; for many ſtudious men delight rather in a retired, than an over-active life, that they may ſcan the actions of men in private more nicely, and contemplate the works of nature more narrowly, in order to draw knowlege for the benefit of the ſolely active part.

But, if ſuch whoſe fortunes do not abound, and to whom the divine providence ſeems to have given a conſtitutional turn and biaſs to benefit ſociety by their ſtudies, cannot ſubſiſt by them with decency, will not uſeful learning and ſcience become contemptible, and will not the human ſpecies again degenerate into their primitive ſtate of barbariſm and brutality? But it is not to be doubted, when this matter comes to be laid before the legiſlature, but literary property will be ſo effectually ſecured, that men of letters may be encouraged to advance uſeful ſcience of every kind in this kingdom.

Few authors caring to have the fatigue of retailing their own books, they generally chuſe to employ bookſellers for that purpoſe, or to aſſign over their property to them for a valuable conſideration. Nor are there many authors, who have undertaken the printing and publiſhing of any conſiderable work, that is likely to be tranſmitted to poſterity, at their own expence, and without being concerned with ſome bookſeller, or ſeveral of them, eminent in their profeſſion.

And, in order to have books well printed and prudently propagated, bookſellers ſeem, in many caſes, to be agents indiſpenſably neceſſary to authors, more eſpecially in large undertakings: and, indeed, they have been inſtrumental in ſetting forward many of the greateſt and moſt uſeful works, which have been publiſhed. But, was the property of authors better ſecured, the more could a bookſeller afford to give authors for their copies, and the more would literature be encouraged. See the article BOOKS and COPIES of authors.

BOOK-KEEPING. See BOOKS of MERCHANTS, and MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP.

BOOK-KEEPER, is or ought to be, a perſon properly qualified to keeps ſuch accounts as he is required to do, in a methodical and correct manner. The title is principally given to the chief clerks of merchants, and other eminent traders, and they generally keep the journal and ledger, all the other auxiliary books being kept by the younger gentlemen clerks, or by others under the book keeper.

Thoſe who keep the accounts of noblemen or gentlemen, or are employed in any under branch in the public offices of the kingdom, where the ſtate of the national revenue is kept, are commonly called clerks, not book-keepers. And ſuch who have the chief conduct of the accounts of theſe public offices, or of any of the great trading or monied corporations, are diſtinguiſhed by the title of ACCOUNTANTS [ſee that article] or accountants-general, and not book-keepers.

REMARKS.

However mean in the eye of ſome a book-keeper may appear, from the ſound of the word; yet the character of an able mercantile one, is very far from being contemptible in the opinion of thoſe who are acquainted with his accompliſhments.

pliſhments. There are, indeed, amidſt this claſs of people, many ignorant and unſkilful perſons, who have brought no credit to the profeſſion, which is the caſe of all others.

The book-keeper, who is at the head of this employment, is he who is commonly called a merchant's book-keeper; and the qualifications, requiſite for ſuch a one, ſhould be no way inferior to thoſe of a merchant himſelf; becauſe, if his conduct and his qualifications render him acceptable, he ſtands a fair chance to become a merchant for himſelf; which has been the caſe of great numbers, who have been no diſcredit to that honourable employment.

For merchants, who are generally gentlemen of generous and noble ſpirits, when they have had experience of a juſt and ſkilful book-keeper, they think it no diſhonour to take him into their partnerſhip, either in their houſes abroad or at home. As a book-keeper to a merchant, therefore, is in the road to advancement, it is his intereſt not to be deficient in point of accompliſhment. And, if he does not ſucceed in that ſhape, he may gradually ſtrike into trade for himſelf; for, if his own fortunes will not admit of that, yet, where a perſon in that capacity has behaved with integrity and honour, and is a man of judgment and conduct in his buſineſs, the people who have had dealings with the merchant he lived with, will not ſcruple to put confidence in him; and, if he is wiſe enough not to ſtretch his credit beyond it's bounds, he has an happy opportunity to proſper.—Nay, ſome merchants, after a ſeries of faithful ſervices from their book-keepers, have thrown a branch of their buſineſs into their hands, lent them money to carry the ſame on, and recommended them to their foreign correſpondents. Others again, by having the conduct of the buſineſs at the death of their maſter, have naturally fell into a conſiderable part of his buſineſs, and become very eminent traders. Some likewiſe have been fortunate enough to contract ſuch friendſhips with the young gentlemen, clerks of conſiderable worth, who, from experiencing the integrity and judgment with which they behaved, have taken them into partnerſhip, and had no reaſon to repent their choice. We do not ſay, that theſe things are very common; but 'tis well enough known they have very frequently happened: and my reaſon for hinting theſe things is with no other view, than to remind this ſett of people, that their abilities, their honour, and their ſecrecy in their maſter's affairs, and having his intereſt really at heart, are ſo ſtrong a recommendation, that they have rarely reaſon to repent their having been ſervants in this capacity.

The accompliſhments of a complete book-keeper ſhould be no way inferior to thoſe of a merchant himſelf, ſince, as obſerved, he is not out of the road of becoming one; and I am inclined to think, that if ſome young gentlemen themſelves, even of tolerable fortunes, who have ſerved their clerkſhip with a merchant, would condeſcend for two or three years afterwards to become book-keepers to their maſter, or to any other merchant, it would prove more to their advantage, than being eager inſtantly, after the expiration of their clerkſhip, to ſtrike into trade for their own account. For, although the law gives age at one and twenty, that term of years does not always give ſuch judgment and experience, as may be requiſite to embark a fortune in trade.

I am too well acquainted with the way of thinking of theſe young people, as not to be ſenſible, that even ſuch who have only four or five thouſand pounds to begin trade with, would think it too great a diſparagement to be thought a book-keeper, however beneficial it might hereafter prove to them. But, if a regard to this admonition would prove more intereſting, than gratifying a youthly faſhionable delicacy, it may not be undeſerving their attention. Let theſe young gentlemen take it, as they pleaſe, the advice is ſincerely intended for their advantage, not their diſgrace. But, if they ſhould be ſo nice as to think themſelves above receiving a ſalary in that capacity, there is no nobody will be angry with them on that account, if they are not with themſelves.

If this ſhould by no means prove agreeable, I think they ſhould be articled, from ſixteen years of age, rather for ſeven than five years; the age of three and twenty being early enough to hazard a handſome fortune in trade; and this may anſwer the end of obtaining more experience before they commence for themſelves, as well as being a book-keeper, provided the two laſt years they keep the principal books, eſpecially the ledger.

An able book-keeper of a merchant of ſkill and diſcernment, has great opportunity of improving his judgment in the art of conducting trade; for, as he is the recorder, ſo he may be the critical inſpector of his maſter's actions, and gain experience from his ſagacity, or faux pas: 'tis not unmeaningly proverbial, that the by-ſtander ſees more than the gameſter. Though it is not neceſſary for a book-keeper to be a man of learning, yet he ſhould not be illiterate; though he is not required to be a great critic, yet he ſhould be a grammarian, be well acquainted with the language of his country, and knowing in the French tongue, as being the univerſal correſponding mercantile language. But he cannot be too familiar with other of the principal modern languages, nor too ready a writer, or too expert an arithmetician and accountant. And, as he may be occaſionally put upon holding a part of the foreign correſpondence, he ſhould not be wanting in point of the epiſtolary ſtile; which in the mercantile way, cannot be too eaſy, unaffected, and plain, ſo as to leave nothing ambiguous and unintelligible. There are divers other amiable qualities required by a perſon acting in this capacity; for, although he may be entruſted with the ſtate of a merchant's affairs, yet this ſhould not leſſen his reſpectful duty, nor inviolable ſecrecy: but there are methods of concealing what may be requiſite, without much trouble to a merchant.

BORAX, a mineral ſalt, uſed in ſoldering and fuſing gold, and other metals. The ancients have known it under the name of chryſocolla. Pliny, lib. 33. cap. 5. of his Natural Hiſtory, ſpeaks largely of it; but his account does not, in every reſpect, agree with what has afterwards been diſcovered by experience.

That author diſtinguiſhed this drug into natural and artificial, or factitious borax. The natural borax, according to him, is nothing but a ſlimy humour, which runs in the mines of gold, ſilver, copper, and even lead; and, being congealed and hardened by the cold in winter, takes the conſiſtency of pumice-ſtone.

As to the artificial borax, he pretends that is made by letting water run into the veins of the mine during the whole winter, 'till the month of June, and letting the mine to dry for two months; ſo that, according to him, the artificial borax is nothing but the mineral putrified and corrupted.

The ſame author diſtinguiſhes black, green, white, and yellow borax, which take their ſeveral colours, as well as their price, from the mines whence they are extracted. He pretends that the natural borax is much harder then the artificial.

The moderns do alſo diſtinguiſh two ſorts of borax, the natural, which is called crude borax; and the artificial, which is the ſame purified and refined.

The natural borax is a mineral ſalt, of the figure of the common gem-ſalt. It is taken out of the bowels of the earth in ſeveral parts of Perſia; it is alſo found at the bottom of a torrent which runs in the mountains of Purbeth, in the territories of Radziaribron, and extend to the borders of White Tartary.

When this mineral is taken out of the earth, they expoſe it to the open air, where it acquires a kind of reddiſh greaſe, or fatneſs, which ſerves to feed it, and prevents it's calcining. When the borax is in it's perfection, the merchants of Perſia ſend it commonly to Amadavat, a city in the Grand Mogul's empire, whence the Engliſh, the French, the Dutch, and other nations, get it, and bring it into Europe.

There is another ſort of natural borax, which is harder, of a grey colour, and pretty much like the Engliſh copperas, after it has been long expoſed to the air: but, upon the whole, it's only difference from the former is, that, having continued a long time in the air, it is dried up, and loſt the reddiſh fatneſs it had before. They who deal in theſe ſorts of crude borax ought to take care that it be not adulterated, nor mixed with ſtones, and other foreign ingredients.

The Venetians were the firſt who made any artificial borax, or, rather, who found out the art of purifying and refining the natural. They purify it by diſſolving it in water, filtrating it, and cryſtallizing it afterwards; to reduce it into cryſtals they uſe cotton matches, about which the borax cryſtallizes, as ſugar-candy and verdegreaſe do upon wood.

Others, after refining the borax, reduce it into ſmall ſtones, of the figure of tagged points; but as it had too greeniſh a caſt, the Dutch, who have alſo laboured to refine it, have reduced it to large bits, which give it a whiter caſt, and make it more ſaleable. This laſt ſort of borax is that which is now ſold by the druggiſts and grocers of Paris.

The refined borax, either from Venice or from Holland, in order to be good, ought to be clear and tranſparent, almoſt inſipid to the taſte; and, above all, it muſt not have the leaſt mixture of Engliſh allum, which is not eaſily diſcovered by the ſight only, though adulterated borax is never ſo white nor ſo light, as that which is pure; but uſe does but too ſoon diſcover the cheat, allum not being proper to fuſe metals; and, when it is put on live coals, it does not ſwell ſo much as borax does.

Borax is ſometimes uſed in medicine: it enters into the compoſition of the unguentum citrinum, and ſerves alſo to make ſome kind of paint for the ladies.

Agricola obſerves that there is a foſſile nitre, which is as hard as a ſtone, of which the Venetians make borax. He is in the right therein, and it is nothing but the Perſian borax, we have been ſpeaking of. But what he adds, according to Furetiere's quotation, that the Venetian borax is made with the urine of young lads who drink wine, which urine is beaten with a peſtle in a brazen mortar, 'till it be of the conſiſtency of an unguent, and then mixed with verdegreaſe, and ſometimes with nitre, not only is falſe, but is a miſrepreſentation of the paſſage from the chapter of Pliny quoted above, where there is not the leaſt mention of wine drank by young lads, whoſe urine Agricola pretends is made uſe of.

REMARKS.

Of all the mineral ſalts the borax is that whoſe natural compoſition is the leaſt known. It may be placed in the claſs of alkali ſalts, and among the abſorbents.

By the analyſis, or reſolution of this ſalt, when put in a retort over a gradual fire, the matter ſwells, and yields but a clear inſipid water, without any ſmell, which is no part of the ſalt, and is ſo foreign to it, that the borax, notwithſtanding that loſs, and notwithſtanding the increaſe of a very violent fire, continues ſtill in it's cuſtomary ſaline form; the only alteration it receives from the action of the fire is, that it reduces itſelf, at the bottom of the retort, into a tranſparent maſs, and, as it were, vitrified; which, though by it's tranſparency it reſembles glaſs, yet it differs from it in being ſtill diſſoluble in water; in all other reſpects it is a kind of glaſs, as fine, and almoſt as hard, as cryſtal; which is not ſurpriſing, ſince this ſalt eaſily acquires the tranſparency of glaſs, and even forwards the vitrification of certain matters, when mixed with them. Spirit of wine, being poured upon this vitrified borax, excites a heat in it, which common borax does not acquire: yet, notwithſtanding this alteration, vitrified borax, being diſſolved in warm water, and afterwards cryſtallized, reſumes it's ancient form, and becomes a beautiful refined borax, which ſhews that the action of the fire in that proceſs does not change the ſubſtance of that ſalt.

This is a ſummary account of Monſieur Lemery's experiments on the nature of this ſalt, extracted from his Memoirs, printed in the Hiſtory of the Royal Accademy of Sciences for the year 1728, which he has continued in thoſe for the years 1729 and 1732, to make theſe experiments ſerve, by rational inference, to underſtand not only the medicinal properties of the borax, but alſo the manner of it's operating in the fuſion of metals, wherein it is uſed.

We ſhall only add here the obſervation of a perſon of very great experience, concerning the manner of uſing borax.

It muſt be calcined at ſeveral times before it is uſed for ſoldering, that all the moiſt parts may be ſeparated from it, and thereby prevent it from ebullition, which often makes the work miſcarry, this being of a dangerous conſequence in valuable pieces of work: it muſt be calcined with a ſlow fire, and, when it does not ſwell any more, it muſt be neatly pounded; after which they calcine it a ſecond time, and then pound it again, to uſe it upon occaſion.

The uſe of borax in medicine is chiefly as a ſtimulant, emmenagogue, and diuretic; it is one of the moſt efficacious medicines known in ſuppreſſions of the menſes, and is given with ſucceſs to promote delivery, and to bring away the ſecundines. It is uſually given with powder of myrrh, and a few grains of ſaffron. It's doſe is from five to 15 grains; ſome writers ſpeak of much larger quantities, but they are neither ſafe nor neceſſary. It is alſo uſed by the women as a coſmetic. The great conſumption of it, however, is for ſoldering, and the fluxing metals clean and free from all their feculent and heterogeneous matter; and the dyers, if it were not too dear, would conſume a great quantity of it, to give a gloſs to their colours: but allum, fuſed in a crucible with common nitre, may anſwer that end at a much cheaper rate, borax being frequently from 5 to 10 ſhillings a pound.

BORAX, is alſo a ſort of toad-bezoar, that is to ſay, a ſort of ſtone found in the heads of toads, to which great properties are aſcribed. Some natural philoſophers pretend that it is really a petrified bone of that animal's head, and deny there being any ſuch ſtones. There are ſome, however, to be met with in the cabinets of the curious; but the moſt ſincere of them would not anſwer for their being genuine, nor for their pretended properties againſt poiſon and a bad air. There are alſo ſome authors who aſſert that this ſtone, which they call craupadine (from the French word crapaud, a toad) is found in the head of the ſea-toad, and not of the land-toad, and they place it among the precious ſtones, called by ſome toad-ſtone.

BORROWING, the taking up of money of a friend, or other perſon, on condition of returning it after a certain time, and paying intereſt for the ſame. It is almoſt impoſſible to undertake and carry on an extenſive trade, without ſometimes borrowing money, or taking merchandizes upon truſt, which amounts almoſt to the ſame: but both theſe ways are capable of deſtroying a man's credit, and ruining him, if he is not punctual in paying the money, when due, eſpecially if it be money borrowed; becauſe the intereſt, if continued for ſome time, generally abſorbs the whole profit which is made in trade.

BOSNIA, a frontier province of Chriſtendom, divided between the houſe of Auſtria and the Turks; that part which lies on the eaſt of the river Unna belonging to the Turks, and that part on the weſt of that river to the Auſtrians. It is bounded on the north by the river Save, which parts it from Sclavonia; on the weſt by Croatia, and partly by Dalmatia, which bounds it alſo on the ſouth; it has Servia on the eaſt, from which the river Drin ſeparates it.

The air here is ſharp, but the ſoil produces ſome corn; and there are alſo ſome mines of gold and ſilver, which are rarely wrought, and, when they are, they do not turn to any extraordinary account.

BOTARGO, a kind of ſauſage, made with the eggs and blood of the ſea-mullet, a large fiſh, pretty common in the Mediterranean. It is long and narrow, about the thickneſs of a pike. They open the fiſh, and take out the eggs, of which they make the botargo, which is afterwards tranſported to all places. We meet chiefly with this fiſh in a ſmall arm of the ſea near Alexandria, as you come from Roſetta. The beſt botargo comes from Tunis in Barbary. They alſo make ſome in France, at a place called Martegue, 8 leagues diſtant from Marſeilles: the people of Provence eat a great deal of it. There is no great trade of it at Paris; however, the great grocers have commonly ſome of it to ſell, eſpecially towards Lent, it being very proper food to uſe in that holy ſeaſon. They eat the botargo with olive-oil and lemon-juice: it muſt be choſen dry and reddiſh. They cut it in ſlices, like the caviary, and it is reckoned a nice diſh, as it really is. When they would keep it, they put every bit by itſelf, and wrap it up in a kind of wax leaves, otherwiſe it will generate maggots: a perſon may carry it thus every-where about him. They ſalt and dry it in the ſun, like CAVIARY. See that article.

They alſo make vaſt quantities of botargo in ſeveral parts of Egypt, particularly towards Alexandria. They open the mullet, as ſoon as it is catched, and they dreſs the eggs almoſt as they do thoſe of the ſturgeon for making the caviary. There is a great conſumption of botargo's of Alexandria throughout all the Levant.

BOTTAGE, a duty which the abbey of St Dennis in France raiſes on all the boats and merchandizes which paſs on the river Seine, from St Dennis's-day, the 9th of October, to St Andrew's-day, the 30th of November.

This duty is conſiderable enough to oblige the merchants to take their meaſures betimes, that they may avoid paying it, either by ſending their merchandizes before the day on which this duty begins to be paid, or by delaying to ſend them 'till the day is paſt, eſpecially if the merchandizes be of any bulk.

BOTTOMRY, is a marine contract in commerce, for the borrowing of money upon the keel or bottom of a ſhip; that is to ſay, when the maſter of a ſhip binds the ſhip itſelf, that, if the money be not paid by the day appointed, the creditor ſhall have the ſaid ſhip: and this taking up money on bottomry is commonly in nature of mortgaging a ſhip: and in the inſtrument executed between the lender and the borrower, there is a clauſe which expreſſes, that the ſhip is engaged for the performance of the ſame.

Bottomry is alſo where a perſon lends money to a merchant, who wants it in traffic, and the lender is to be paid a larger ſum at the return of the ſhip, ſtanding to the hazard of the voyage; in regard to which, though the intereſt be greater than that allowed by law, it is not eſteemed uſury: for money, lent at ſea, is allowed a larger intereſt than money advanced on land, by reaſon 'tis furniſhed at the greater hazard of the lender; and, if the ſhip periſhes, he ſhares in the loſs; ſo that there is not that degree of ſecurity, as in caſes on land, on mortgages, &c. And, the greater the danger is, the greater may be the profit reaſonably required for the money ſo lent: and this hath been the opinion of civilians, and all, or moſt part of the trading countries of Chriſtendom allow it.

The contract of bottomry, as generally made, is juſt and honourable, according to the laudable cuſtom of maritime perſons; and, though the advantage ſeems to run high, as twenty, thirty, or ſometimes forty per cent. and upwards, without conſideration of time; yet, if by the common law, an action be brought on ſuch an inſtrument, the defendant cannot plead the ſtatute of uſury. So it was held, where a perſon brought an action of debt on a bond for money taken up on bottomry; the defendant pleaded the ſtatute againſt uſury, and ſhewed, that a certain ſhip made a voyage to fiſh in Newfoundland (which might be performed in eight months) and the plaintiff delivered 50 l. to the defendant, to pay 60 l. upon the return of the ſhip to ſuch a port; and, if the ſaid ſkip by leakage or tempeſt ſhould not return from Newfoundland to the ſaid port, then the defendant ſhould pay the principal money, viz. 50 l. only: and, if the ſhip never returned, then nothing ſhould be paid: it was adjudged in this caſe, that the ſame was not uſury; for, if the ſhip had ſtaid at Newfoundland two or three years, yet at her return but 60 l. was to be paid; and, if ſhe never returned, then nothing. Trin. 6 Jac. B. R. 2 Cro. Rep. 208. 209.

There is likewiſe another way of advancing money, called uſura marina, though with little propriety, joining the advanced monies and the danger of the ſea together; and this is obliging ſometimes upon the borrower's ſhip, goods, and perſon: the product of which, by agreement, will advance ſometimes 20, 30, and ſometimes 40 per cent. For inſtance, a private gentleman has 1000 l. ready money lying by him, and he, being informed of an ingenious merchant that has good credit beyond ſeas, applies himſelf to him, offers him 1000 l. to be laid out in ſuch commodities, as the merchant ſhall think ſuitable for that port or country the borrower deſigns for, and that he will bear the adventure of that money during all that voyage (which he knows may be accompliſhed within a year) hereupon the contract is agreed upon,

upon, 6 per cent. is accounted for the intereſt, and 12 per cent. for the adventure outwards, and 12 per cent. for the goods homewards; ſo that, upon the return, the lender receives 30 per cent. which amounts to 1300l. This is not eſteemed uſury by the laws of this realm, by reaſon of the riſque and danger that the lender runs.

When a maſter or owner of a ſhip takes up money on bottomry, and buys in lading, but endeavours to defraud the prince or ſtate of their cuſtoms, or puts ſuch goods on board which incur a forfeiture of the ſhip; in ſuch caſe, the borrower only runs the hazard, and not the lender. And where bonds or bills of bottomry are ſealed, and the money is paid, if the ſhip receives injury by ſtorm, fire, enemy, or any other accident, before the commencement of the voyage, then the perſon borrowing ſhall only run the hazard; unleſs it be otherwiſe provided, by particular words, that the contract is to have it's beginning from the time of the ſealing. But if the condition be, that if ſuch a ſhip ſhall ſail from London to a port abroad, and ſhall not arrive there, &c. then, &c. here the contingency begins not 'till the departure. Leg. Naval. Rhod. Moll.

A maſter of a ſhip hath no power to take up money on bottomry, in places where his owners dwell, unleſs he is a part-owner (as maſters often are at this time, and is the greateſt ſecurity for their faithful ſervice) and in that caſe he may take up ſo much only as his part will anſwer in the ſaid ſhip: for, if he exceeds that, his own eſtate ſhall ſtand liable to make ſatisfaction. But when a maſter is in a ſtrange place or country, where he hath no owners, nor any goods of theirs, nor of his own; and for want of money, which he cannot procure by exchange or otherwiſe, his voyage might be retarded, there money may be taken upon bottomry, and all the owners are liable for it; that is, they are anſwerable by their veſſel, but not in their perſons, by the act of the maſter; and the owners may have their remedy againſt ſuch maſter, whom they put in truſt. Leg. Oleron. c. 4.

If money be lent on ſhip-board by a merchant or paſſenger, and before the day of payment the ſhip happens to be caſt away, if there be ſuch a ſaver as will admit of a contribution, the party lending is not to have his whole money, but it ſhall come into the average; becauſe, if that money had been ſo lent, it would have been in common danger with the reſt: but, if the time appointed were paſt before the misfortune happened, then the borrower muſt repay the lender his whole money, free from contribution. And, therefore, by the maritime laws, in caſe the borrower detains any money thus lent, beyond the appointed time for the repayment; he ſhall, at his return from the voyage, not only pay the profit agreed on before, but be obliged alſo to augment the ſame, according to the longer time, accrued ſince the day of payment. Leg. Naval. Artic. 17, 18.

Some Cases determined in the Courts of Judicature in England, relating to Bottomry.

Deguilder verſus Depeiſter.

The caſe was upon a bottomry bond, whereby the plaintiff was bound in conſideration of 400l. as well to perform the voyage within ſix months, as at the ſix months end to pay the 400l. and 40l. premium, in caſe the veſſel arrived ſafe, and was not loſt in the voyage.

It fell out, that the plaintiff never went the voyage, whereby his bond became forfeited; and he now preferred his bill to be relieved; and upon a former hearing, in regard the ſhip lay all along in the port of London, and ſo the defendant run no hazard of loſing his principal; the lord keeper thought fit to decree, that the defendant ſhould loſe the premium of 40l. and be contented with his principal and ordinary intereſt: and now, upon a re-hearing, confirmed his former decree. Vern. 257.

Goddard verſus Garret.

The defendant had lent money on a bottomry bond, but had no intereſt in the ſhip or cargo; the money lent was 300l. and he inſured 450l. on the ſhip; the plaintiff's bill was to have the policy delivered up, by reaſon the defendant was not concerned in point of intereſt, as to the ſhip or cargo.

Cur. Take it that the law is ſettled, that if a man has no intereſt, and inſures, the inſurance is void, although it be expreſſed in the policy, intereſted or not intereſted; and the reaſon the law goes upon is, that theſe inſurances are made for the encouragement of trade, and not that perſons unconcerned in trade, nor intereſted in the ſhip, ſhould profit by it; and, where one would have benefit of the inſurance, he muſt renounce all intereſt in the ſhip. And the reaſon why the law allows that a man, having ſome intereſt in the ſhip or cargo, may inſure more, or five times as much, is, that a merchant cannot tell how much, or how little, his factor, may have in readineſs to lade on board his ſhip. And it was ſaid, that the uſual intereſt allowed on bottomry was 3 per cent. per ann. and you may inſure at 6 or 7 per cent. for the voyage: ſo, if this practice may be allowed, a man might be ſure to gain 30l. or more per cent. Per cur. Decree the policy of inſurance to be delivered up to be cancelled. See Assurance.

Note. That, in this caſe, notice was taken in the policy, that it was to inſure money on bottomry.

Note alſo, That, in this caſe, the ſhip ſurvived the time limited in the bottomry bond, and was loſt within the time limited in the policy. So, if inſurance good, the defendant might be intitled to the money on the bond, and alſo on the policy. Vern. 254.

Harman verſus Vanhatton.

Defendant lent the plaintiff 250l. on a bottomry bond, and afterwards inſured on the ſame ſhip; but the inſurance was larger as to the voyage, there being liberty to go to other ports and places than what were contained in the condition of the bottomry bond. The ſhip being loſt, the defendant recovered the money on the policy of inſurance, and alſo put the bottomry bond in ſuit: the ſhip, though loſt, had deviated from the voyage mentioned in the bond, in going to Virgin Gardo to buy ſalt.

The plaintiff brought his bill, pretending the defendant ought not to have a double ſatisfaction to recover both on the inſurance, and alſo on the bond, he having inſured only in reſpect of the money he had lent on bottomry, and had no other intereſt in the ſhip or cargo; and therefore the plaintiff would have had the benefit of the inſurance, paying the premium. Sed non allocatur.

The defendant, having paid the premium, was intitled to the benefit of the policy, and run the riſque, whether the ſhip was loſt or not; and the inſurers might as well pretend to have aid of the bottomry bond, and to diſcount the money recovered thereon, as the plaintiff to have the money recovered on the policy, to eaſe the bottomry bond.

The plaintiff alſo charged, that the defendant had promiſed and agreed to deliver up the bond, on the plaintiff's making up the money recovered on the policy, as much as he lent on the bond, with intereſts and coſts, and proved ſuch offer and promiſe. Sed non allocatur. It was but nudum pactum, a voluntary offer, and on condition that the money was then paid, and it was not complied with. Vern. 636.

Williams and Steadman.

Debt upon a bond upon bottomry; the defendant pleads, that the ſhip went from London to Barbados ſine deviatione, and afterwards ſhe returned from Barbados towards London, and in her return ſhe was loſt in voyagio prædict'; the plaintiff replies, that the ſhip, in her return, went from Barbados to Jamaica, and that, after a ſtay there, ſhe returned from Jamaica towards London, and was loſt, and ſo ſhews a deviation. The defendant rejoins, that ſhe was preſſed into the king's ſervice, and ſo compelled to go to Jamaica, which is the deviation pleaded by the plaintiff: abſque hoc, that ſhe deviated after her being preſſed, &c.

The plaintiff demurred; and per curiam adjudged for the plaintiff. Firſt, the bar of the defendant is not good; for he pleads, that the ſhip went from London to Barbados without deviation, and that, in the return from Barbados to London, ſhe was loſt in the voyage aforeſaid, but does not ſhew without deviation; for the condition is ſo in expreſs words; and he ought to ſhew expreſsly, that he had performed the words of the condition; and though it be ſaid in voyagio prædict', and it cannot be in voyagio prædict' if ſhe had deviated, and ſo it is implied.

Yet Holt chief juſtice ſaid, that to plead ſuch a matter, which would be a performance of a condition by implication, is not ſufficient. 3 Cro. 234. Tedcaſtle's caſe. Holt's Report's, 126.

Many maſters of ſhips having inſured, or taken up money upon bottomry, to a greater value than their adventure, have ſometimes willfully caſt away, burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed the ſhips under their care; therefore, by ſtatute 10 Car. II. 1, 6. the crime was made felony, and the perſon or perſons offending were to ſuffer death: and this law was continued, by a ſtatute made in the firſt year of the reign of queen Anne. Vide ſtatutes 4 Geo. I. c. 12. and 11 Geo. I. c. 29. under the head Navigation and Shipping.

By the 19th Geo. II. cap. 37. it is enacted, That, after the 1ſt day of Auguſt, 1746, every ſum of money lent on bottomry, or at reſpondentia, upon the ſhips of any ſubjects, to, or from, the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be lent only on the ſhip, or the merchandizes laden on board her, and ſo expreſſed in the condition of the bond; and the benefit of ſalvage ſhall be granted to the lender, his agents, &c. who only ſhall have a right to make aſſurance on the money lent; and no borrower of money on bottomry, or at reſpondentia, ſhall recover more on any aſſurance than the value of his intereſt on the ſhip or effects, excluſive of the money borrowed. And, if the value of his intereſt doth not amount to the money borrowed, he ſhall be reſponſible to the lender for the ſurplus, with lawful intereſt for the ſame, together with the aſſurance and all charges whatſoever, &c. notwithſtanding the ſhip and merchandize ſhall be totally loſt.

By the 21 Geo. II. All his majeſty's ſubjects were prohibited, during the continuation of the late war, to lend money on bottomry, or reſpondentia, on any ſhips or goods belonging to France, or to any of the French dominions or plantations, or the ſubjects thereof; and, in caſe they did, the contracts and agreements to be void, and they or their agent, or broker, therein interfering, were to forfeit 500 l. &c. See ASSURANCE.

There is a fictitious way of taking up money in the nature of bottomry, upon ſuppoſition of a ſhip and maſter, being the common practice among the Italians, and has been uſed by ſome perſons on this ſide the water; where a man borrows money, the condition reciting, whereas there is ſuch a ſhip, naming her, bound to Amſterdam, whereof ſuch a man is maſter (when, indeed, there is no ſuch ſhip or maſter in nature) that, if that ſhip ſhall not arrive at ſuch a place within twelve months, the money agreed on to be paid, ſhall be paid; but, if the ſhip ſhall arrive, then nothing: this method of raiſing money is highly unjuſtifiable, and has, 'tis to be feared, been too frequently practiſed; but what is very extraordinary is, that ſuch a contract ſhould ever have been adjudged good according to the common law of this realm; yet it has been ſo, and on a ſpecial verdict too. See Hill 22. and 23 Car. II.

But, although it has had this authority, yet ſince the prohibition of aſſurances, intereſt or no intereſt (as by the before-cited act) it will render the like practices the leſs frequent, if not totally put an end to them. See the article ASSURANCES.

A BILL of BOTTOMRY is made as follows.

To all people to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, I A. B. &c. owner and maſter of the ſhip, called, &c. of the burthen of 200 tons, now riding, &c. and bound for, &c. in the Weſt-Indies, ſend greeting. Whereas I the ſaid A. B. am at this time neceſſitated to take up, upon the adventure of the ſaid ſhip, called, &c. the ſum of one hundred pounds, for ſeting forth the ſaid ſhip for ſea, and for furniſhing her with proviſions, &c. for the ſaid voyage, which C. D. of, &c. merchant, hath on requeſt, lent unto me, and ſupplied me with at the rate of 20 l. for the ſaid 100 l. during the ſaid voyage. Now know ye, that I the ſaid A. B. do, by theſe preſents, for me, my executors and adminiſtrators, covenant, grant, and agree, to and with the ſaid C. D. his executors and adminiſtrators, that the ſaid ſhip ſhall, with the firſt fair wind, after the day, &c. of this inſtant, &c. depart from the ſaid river of Thames; and ſhall, as wind and weather ſhall ſerve, proceed in her voyage to, &c. aforeſaid, in the Weſt-Indies, and having there tarried until, &c. and having the opportunity of a convoy, as being ſooner diſpatched (which ſhall firſt happen) ſhall return from thence, and, as wind and weather ſhall ſerve, directly ſail back to the river of Thames, to finiſh and end her ſaid voyage. And I the ſaid A. B. in conſideration of the ſaid ſum of 100 l. to me in hand, paid by the ſaid C. D. at and before the ſealing and delivery of theſe preſents, do hereby bind myſelf, my heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, my goods and chattels, and particularly the ſaid ſhip, with the freight, tackle, and apparel of the ſame, to pay unto the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, the ſum of 120 l. of lawful Britiſh money, within one and twenty days next after the return and ſafe arrival of the ſaid ſhip, in the ſaid river of Thames, from the ſaid intended voyage. And I the ſaid A. B. do alſo for me, my executors and adminiſtrators, covenant and grant, to and with the ſaid C. D. his executors and adminiſtrators, by theſe preſents, that I the ſaid A. B. at the time of the ſealing and delivery of theſe preſents, am true and lawful owner and maſter of the ſaid ſhip, and have power and authority to charge and engage the ſaid ſhip as aforeſaid; and that the ſaid ſhip ſhall, at all times after the ſaid voyage, be liable and chargeable for the payment of the ſaid 120 l. according to the true intent and meaning of theſe preſents. And, laſtly, it is hereby declared and agreed, by and between the ſaid parties to theſe preſents, that in caſe the ſaid ſhip ſhall be loſt, miſcarry, or be caſt away, before her next arrival in the ſaid river of Thames, from the ſaid intended voyage, that then the ſaid payment of the ſaid 120 l. ſhall not be demanded, or be recoverable by the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, but ſhall ceaſe and determine, and the loſs thereof be wholly borne and ſuſtained by the ſaid C. D. his executors and adminiſtrators; and that then, and from thenceforth, every act, matter, and thing herein before contained, on the part and behalf of the ſaid A. B. to be done and performed, ſhall be utterly void; any thing herein contained to the contrary thereof, in any wiſe notwithſtanding. In witneſs, &c.

Sometimes there is added to this bill of bottomry, as a further ſecurity, a ſhort bargain and ſale of the ſhip, &c. with a proviſo to be void, on payment of the money, and performance of the covenants.

A BILL of BOTTOMRY, where the ſhip is to go to ſeveral ports.

To all people, &c. I A. B. of, &c. mariner, maſter, and part-owner of the good ſhip or veſſel, called, &c. of London, of the burthen of two hundred tons, or thereabouts, now riding at anchor in the river Thames, within the port of London, do ſend greeting: Whereas the ſaid ſhip is now bound out upon a voyage from the ſaid port, unto the iſland of Barbados, and from thence, if occaſion ſhall be, to the iſland of May, and ſo to return back again to the ſaid iſland of Barbados, and thence to London, to end her voyage: Now know ye, that I the ſaid A. B. for me, my executors and adminiſtrators, do covenant and grant, to and with C. D. of, &c. (who, before the ſealing and delivery hereof, hath paid and advanced unto me the ſum of 100 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, and is contented and agreed to ſtand to, and bear the adventure of, the ſaid ſum upon the body of the ſaid ſhip, during the ſaid voyage) and to and with the executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, by theſe preſents: That the ſaid ſhip, with the firſt good wind and weather, after the day of, &c. next enſuing the date hereof, ſhall depart from the ſaid river of Thames, on the ſaid intended voyage, and ſhall, by God's grace (the perils and dangers of the ſea, and reſtraint of princes and rulers excepted) return into the river of Thames from her ſaid voyage, before the expiration of fourteen months, to be accounted from the date of theſe preſents; and that the ſaid ſhip, in her ſaid intended voyage, ſhall not ſail or apply unto any other ports or places, than thoſe before-mentioned herein, unleſs ſhe ſhall be neceſſitated thereto, by extremity of weather, or other unavoidable accident. And that I the ſaid A. B. my executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, ſhall and will well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid, unto the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, at, &c. the ſum of 130 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, in reſpect of the adventure aforeſaid, if the ſaid ſhip ſhall go only to the iſland of Barbados, and from thence return to London to finiſh her ſaid intended voyage; and the ſum of 140 l. of like money, if the ſaid ſhip ſhall go from thence to the iſland of May, and ſo return again to the ſaid iſland of Barbados, and thence to London, to end her ſaid voyage; and that within one month, after the return of the hull or body of the ſaid ſhip, unto the river of Thames, from her ſaid voyage. Provided always, and it is nevertheleſs the true intent and meaning of theſe preſents, That if the ſaid ſhip, in her intended voyage, ſhall happen to be loſt, miſcarry, or be taken by men of war, or pirates, that then this preſent writing or deed, and every covenant, payment, matter, and thing therein contained, on the part and behalf of me the ſaid A. B. to be done, paid, and performed, ſhall be void, and of none effect: and that then I the ſaid A. B. my executors or adminiſtrators, ſhall not be any ways chargeable, or liable to pay the ſaid ſeveral ſums before-mentioned, or either of them, or any part thereof, to the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, but that he and they are to loſe the ſame, and every part thereof; any thing herein before contained, to the contrary thereof, in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

And it is agreed, by and between the ſaid parties to theſe preſents, that in caſe the ſaid ſhip ſhall not be returned unto the river of Thames, from the ſaid intended voyage, at the end of fourteen months, to be accounted from the date of theſe preſents; and that, at the expiration of the ſaid fourteen months, there ſhall not be juſt proof made of the loſs, happening within the time aforeſaid: that then I the ſaid A. B. my executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, ſhall and will within twenty days, next after the end and expiration of the ſaid fourteen months, well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid, unto the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, at the place of payment aforeſaid, the ſaid ſum of 130 l. in caſe the ſaid ſhip ſhall go unto the iſland of Barbados as aforeſaid, and the ſaid ſum of 140 l. in caſe the ſaid ſhip ſhall go unto the iſland of May as aforeſaid; and that the ſaid C. D. ſhall not run the hazard and adventure of the ſaid ſum by him adventured as aforeſaid, upon the body of the ſaid ſhip, any longer than fourteen months, to be reckoned and accounted as aforeſaid. In witneſs, &c.

A BOTTOMRY BOND is of the following form.

Know all men by theſe preſents, That I A. B. of the pariſh of, &c. in the county of Middleſex, mariner, am held and firmly bound to C. D. of, &c. in the county aforeſaid, merchant, in 280 l. of good and lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid to the ſaid C. D. or to his certain attorney, his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns; for which payment well and truly to be made, I bind myſelf, my heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, firmly by theſe preſents, ſealed with my ſeal: Dated this day of, &c. in the ——— year of our ſovereign lord George the third, by the grace of God, of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the faith, &c. and in the year of our Lord one thouſand ſeven hundred and ———.

The condition of this obligation is ſuch, that if the above bound A. B. his heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, do and ſhall well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid unto the above-named C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, the full ſum of 130 l. of lawful Britiſh money, at or before the end of one month next after the return of the ſhip, &c. (burthen, &c. whereof the ſaid A. B. is maſter) from

from her preſent intended voyage, which ſhe is to make to the iſland of Barbados, and ſafe arrival in the river of Thames; and pay the full ſum of 140 l. of, &c. if the ſaid ſhip, ſhall go to, &c. And alſo ſhall and do well and truly obſerve, perform, fulfill, and keep, all and every the covenants, grants, articles, agreements, which, on his or their parts and behalfs, are, or ought to be, obſerved, performed, fulfilled, and kept, mentioned and contained in a certain writing, or bill of bottomry, of the date above-written, made by and from the ſaid A. B. part-owner of the ſaid ſhip, unto the ſaid C. D. in all things, according to the true intent and meaning of the ſaid bill of bottomry, or adventure; that then this obligation to be void, or elſe it ſhall remain in full force and virtue.

BOULINIS, or BOULIGNIS, a copper coin, ſtruck at Boulogna, or Bononia, in Italy; it ſerves there inſtead of pence, and, in buying and ſelling, they bargain by boulinis, as they do in France by ſols, and in England by pence.

The boulinis is worth four quadrins, that is to ſay, the Roman bayoca, which is current in the trade which thoſe two cities have with each other, becauſe Boulona lies in the territories of the Pope. The name of the coin, as one may eaſily gueſs, comes from that of the city where it is ſtruck.

BOUNTIES. The BOUNTIES and ALLOWANCES, payable out of the DUTIES of CUSTOMS, the BOUNTIES and DRAWBACKS on BRITISH exciſeable goods exported, and the premiums on naval ſtores imported; together with inſtructions in regard to the performance of the reſpective regulations required by law, are ſo very numerous, that we refer to Saxby's Book of Rates, in relation to theſe points, from page 359, &c. and his Index.

BOURBONNOIS, a territory of the government of Lyonois in France, is bounded on the north by Nivernois and Berry; on the weſt by Upper Marche; on the ſouth by Auvergne; and, on the eaſt, by Burgundy and Forez. This country produces very good wine, but it ſpoils, if it be tranſported abroad. Here are a vaſt number of mineral ſprings, which are very famous, and much reſorted to.

At MOULINS is made a great deal of iron and ſteel works, which are very much eſteemed in France.

Near the city of BOURBON L'ARCHAMBAUD are ſome rocks which have veins, the ſmall ſtones of which are like diamonds and cut glaſs; when they are well poliſhed and ſet, the beſt connoiſſeurs will take them for true diamonds.

At GANNAT is a granary of ſalt.

BOX, a tree too well known to need a particular deſcription.

There are ſeveral ſpecies of this tree; the two moſt conſiderable of which are, the buxus vulgaris, or buxus arboreſcens, which grows to the height of a ſmall tree; and the buxus humilis, or humble box, which does not grow above two or three feet high, but ſpreads very much.

We ſhall ſpeak here of the box-wood, only as far as relates to it's nature, uſe, and the trade that is made of it.

The box-wood is yellowiſh, hard, ſolid, even, very heavy, and takes a good poliſh.

When this wood is in pieces, of a reaſonable thickneſs and length, it is very ſaleable, being uſed in works of ſculpture, and in wind-inſtruments of muſick, ſuch as violins, baſſ-viols, haut-boys, flutes, flagelets, &c.

Box of an inferior quality ſerves to make ſmaller works, as combs, balls, tops, ſpoons, forks, handles of knives, nut-crackers, tooth-pick-caſes, ſnuff-boxes; and other boxes, pullies, &c.

The fineſt box-duſt is uſed to throw over paper, to dry the freſh writing; the ſtationers and comb-makers have a conſiderable trade of it.

The provinces of Champagne and Franche Comté, in France, produce a great deal of box, which is reckoned very good; but the beſt comes from Spain and Smyrna: the latter is carried to Roan by the Dutch, on the return of their ſhips from the Levant.

It is of this laſt ſort of box that almoſt all the combs are made at Paris. It is ſold by the hundred weight, and is in thick and thin billets, commonly four feet long. It is ſold by the comb-makers themſelves, who cut it into ſquare pieces, of different lengths and thickneſs, according to the combs they would make.

The great quantity of box which is brought to Roan is the reaſon why they make a great many combs in that city, which they ſend to Paris, and into the provinces of the kingdom, and even into foreign countries.

One may extract from box, by the help of a retort, a ſpirit and an oil, which may be rectified, like that of guaiacum. The druggiſts of Paris, and thoſe of ſome other great cities in the kingdom, drive a pretty good trade of that oil, which is reckoned a ſovereign remedy for ſeveral diſtempers, but it is very eaſy to adulterate it.

BRABANT, is bounded on the north by Holland and Guelderland, on the weſt by Zealand and Flanders, on the ſouth by the counties of Hainault and Namur, and on the eaſt by the principality and biſhopric of Liege, and by part of Pruſſian Guelderland.

The trade of BRUSSELS, the capital city of Brabant and of all the Netherlands, conſiſts of camblets, laces, and fine tapeſtries made here, and which they ſend all over Europe. Round three parts of the large market-place here, are the halls of the different trades, where the deacons and tradeſmen meet on the affairs of their companies: they have each a great room for themſelves. Here is a mint for the coining of money.

VILVORDE receives ſome advantage to its trade, from the canals running by it, which lead from Bruſſels to Antwerp.

At NIVELLE, is made a great quantity of fine linnen, equal to that of Cambray.

LOUVAIN was formerly the richeſt city in the country, and drove a very extenſive trade, conſiſting chiefly in woollen cloths manufactured here: that trade was ſo flouriſhing in the beginning of the fourteenth century, under John III. duke of Brabant, that there were here above four thouſand woollen drapers, and above an hundred and fifty thouſand weavers. But in 1380, theſe journeymen weavers revolting againſt Winceſlaus, duke of Brabant, he laid all the country waſte; but being beſieged at laſt, they were obliged to beg that prince's mercy, and were moſt of them baniſhed. Upon this they retired into England, where they were very kindly received. This entirely ruined the trade of Louvain, which is not conſiderable at preſent; and conſiſts chiefly in the excellent beer which they brew here; and of which they ſend a great quantity into the neighbouring cities, and particularly to Bruſſels.

DIEST is not large, but noted by the woollen cloths, hoſe, and other manufactures; as alſo by the excellent beer brewed here, which is ſold in all the neighbouring towns. They keep here, every Aſh-wedneſday, a famous fair for horſes.

At BOISLEDUC, the linnen and woollen manufactures flouriſh, and the place is likewiſe famous for cutlery wares and needles.

OOSTERWICK was formerly very conſiderable, having 500 weavers looms, and 38 brewhouſes. There is a large market-place, where they keep a market every Wedneſday, and three fairs every year. See AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

BRACELET, an ornament put round the wriſt. There are ſome made of ribbands, of wove hair, of horſe-hair, of pearls and of precious ſtones. The ſmall pictures in miniature, which are put on the arm, are alſo faſtened to the bracelet.

Bracelets are in uſe as well among the moſt polite as the moſt barbarous, nations. The inhabitants of Madagaſcar make them of metal, in the form of a ring, or of a chain. The ſavages of America have them of glaſs-beads. The blacks on the coaſt of Guinea make them of thoſe ſhells, which are called couris, or coris, in Aſia, and Bouges, in Africa: and it is in order to get thoſe vain ornaments, that they all give their richeſt merchandizes, and even ſometimes barter for thoſe trifles the liberty of their fathers, wives and children. See the next article.

BRACELET, called by the French menille, or rather manille, from main (manus) the hand, is one of the merchandizes, which the Europeans, and amongſt others the Dutch, carry to the coaſt of Africa, to trade with the negroes. The French alſo uſed it very much in their trade with the inhabitants of the iſland of Madagaſcar, whilſt they had a ſettlement there.

Theſe bracelets are a kind of large ring of copper, which theſe African nations uſe to adorn themſelves with, and for which they barter ſlaves and other merchandizes, for which the Europeans trade with them. This odd kind of ornament they put on the bottom of their legs, juſt above the ancle, and on the thick part of their arms above the elbow.

There are two ſorts of theſe bracelets or rings; ſome are plain, flat, and without any engraving; the others are round, thicker, and adorned with chiſſel works, and foliages in relievo. The latter are of good copper, and of a pretty good workmanſhip; the others are hardly any thing but the ſcum of that metal; they are both exchanged either by tale or by weight.

The inhabitants of Madagaſcar are alſo very fond of adorning themſelves with thoſe bracelets; the richeſt amongſt them, and the chiefs of the white have gold ones: but theſe they make themſelves, melting down and changing into bracelets all the gold coin they ſometimes receive from the Europeans, in exchange for their merchandizes. Moſt of their yellow braſs bracelets they get from the French, who drove a pretty good trade in thoſe wares, whilſt they ſettled in the bays of Atougil and St Auguſtin.

BRANDENBURG. This marquiſate and electorate has Mecklemburg and Pomerania on the north, part of Lunenburg on the weſt, part of Magdeburgh, of the dutchy of Saxony, Luſatia, and Sileſia on the ſouth, and Poland on the eaſt. In the New Mark they feed great flocks of ſheep, and ſome black cattle; and La Foreſt ſays, that, if they were as much given to trade as to drinking and feaſting, they might make conſiderable profit of their ſheep, and breed more black cattle. But, ſince his time, the trade of this country is very much improved, the elector Frederic William having entertained near a hundred thouſand proteſtants,

teſtants, who fled hither from perſecution in France, &c. in 1685, and the following years, to whom he allowed great privileges, and an act of naturalization, which ſettled many uſeful manufactures in this country, and doubled ſeveral branches of the revenue: and the late elector prolonged, and even augmented, the franchiſe of thoſe French proteſtants; cauſed churches to be built for them, of which he maintained the miniſters; gave them a very fine college for the education of their children, and choſe a company of muſqueteers out of them, in which none but French were admitted. Their commodities are chiefly exported by the Elbe and Oder, betwixt which there is a communication by a canal, which ſaves their paying toll in the Sound. The revenues of the elector of Brandenburg were computed, in 1680, to amount only to between 6 and 700,000 l. a year. In 1690, they were thought to exceed one million: and his late majeſty, by almoſt every year inviting, and handſomely ſettling, new colonies of French proteſtants in his dominions, advanced his revenue to above a million and a half of our money. There are ſome, who, conſidering the many and great taxes that have been lately laid on all commodities, wearing apparel and victuals not excepted, have made his annual revenue to amount to near two millions ſterling. As he has few ſilver mines, but ſome of braſs, iron, and copper, the money in his dominions is generally worſe than in Saxony and the electorate of Hanover.

LANDSPERG is very conveniently ſituate for trade, which conſiſts much in caſting of iron ordnance.

FRANKFORT was once a free and imperial city, but now exempt, and not ſo conſiderable as formerly. Nevertheleſs it has a conſiderable trade, chiefly in linnen cloth and fells, by the Oder, and the canal between that river and the Elbe, and has three great fairs a year.

The canals from Berlin to the Havel, the Oder, and the Elbe, not only ſtock it with fiſh better than any city in Germany, but make it one of the beſt trading towns in the empire; for they open a communication by ſmall veſſels from Sileſia to the mouth of the Elbe. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the French refugees have contributed, in an extraordinary degree, to the aggrandizement and embelliſhment of this city, by the introducing and eſtabliſhing the arts in it, and all kinds of manufactures. In the ſtreet called La Rue de Cloitre, Frederic the Firſt eſtabliſhed an academy for nobility and gentry; but the late elector, upon its decay, changed it into a workhouſe, with lodgings for ſeveral woollen manufacturers; ſo that 'tis called the Royal Manufactory. There are public workhouſes adjoining to it, which were eſtabliſhed and built by the preſent elector's grandfather; and, being deſtroyed by fire, the late elector cauſed them to be rebuilt. Near the ſquare called the Moloke Mark, is a manufactory of gold and ſilver lace. The houſe of the general of the ordonance contains the foundery, where men are continually at work. The manufactures that are moſt flouriſhing in this city, are curious works in gold and ſilver, in poliſhed ſteel and in glaſs, as alſo light ſtuffs, coarſe cloths, ſtockings, &c. And Mr Toland aſcribes the improvement of this city, and of the Brandenburg dominions in general, not only to the encouragement given to the French refugees, but to the great number of houſes, which the elector (grandfather to the preſent) built in ſeveral places, whereby his ſubjects reaped conſiderable profit, both from their labour and materials; for it's ſaid, that he actually ſet apart 150,000 crowns a year for his buildings.

At POTZDAM are made all the ſorts of arms for the forces and arſenals, which were formerly made at Liege.

The city of BRANDENBURG has a conſiderable trade; the Havel bringing great boats hither from the Elbe, with all ſorts of merchandize, from the towns on that river.

The inhabitants of STEUDAL have a pretty good trade in corn and linnen cloth, and make a good profit by travellers, it being in the road from Magdeburgh and Erfurt, to Hamburg and Lubeck.

The chief trade at SOLTWEDEL is in beer, which they export.

The chief trade of GARDELEBEN, is in beer and hops, reckoned as good as any in Germany, which are bought up by the Daniſh merchants.

TANGERMUND is a place of pretty good trade in corn, and other commodities conveyed to Hamburgh, and other places by the Elbe.

BRANDY, a ſpirituous and inflammable liquor, extracted from wine, or other liquors, by diſtillation, which is moſt commonly performed by the balneum Mariæ, but ſometimes alſo by a ſmall flaming fire.

The veſſels uſed in this operation are commonly of copper: ſome diſtillers, in order to cool the brandy ſooner, make the neck of the matraſs, which they have very long, and of a ſerpentine, or winding figure, paſs through a tun of cold water.

In order to diſtil this brandy, they fill the cucurbit half full with the liquor they would extract it from, which they put over a moderate fire 'till about the ſixth part of it be diſtilled, or 'till they perceive that what falls into the recipient is no longer inflammable.

Brandy diſtilled a ſecond time is called ſpirit of wine; and this ſpirit purified again, by one, or by ſeveral diſtillations, is what they call ſpirit of wine rectified.

The ſecond diſtillation is made in the balneum Mariæ, and in a glaſs cucurbit, 'till the brandy that was put into it be reduced to one half; and this half is again rectified, as often as the operator thinks proper.

To abridge theſe ſeveral diſtillations, which are tedious and troubleſome, they have invented a chymical inſtrument, by which the rectification of ſpirit of wine is made by one ſingle diſtillation. One may ſee the deſcription and figure of that inſtrument in Glaſer's Treatiſe of Chymiſtry, the Lyons edition, 1676.

To try the goodneſs of the rectified ſpirit of wine, you muſt examine whether, when lighted into a blaze, it conſumes intirely, without leaving any impurity behind; or rather, which is ſurer ſtill, whether, having put ſome gunpowder at the bottom of the ſpirit you would try, the powder takes fire, when the ſpirit is conſumed: in which caſe the ſpirit is good.

With regard to brandy (we ſpeak only of that which is diſtilled from wine) they who trade in it chuſe it white, clear, and of a good taſte, and ſuch as will bear the teſt of proof, that is to ſay, that, when poured into a glaſs, it forms on the top of it a little white lather, which, as it diminiſhes, makes a circle, which the French brandy-merchants call the chapelet, and the Engliſh the bead, or bubble, there being no brandy but that which is well deflegmated, and does not retain too much humidity, wherein the bead will be intirely formed.

The chief uſe of brandy is as a drink, particularly in the northern countries, among the negroes of Guinea, who will ſell one another for ſome bottles of brandy; and among the ſavages of Canada, who are extremely fond of it, but to whom the French are forbidden to give any, under very ſevere penalties.

Brandy is alſo uſed in medicine, to ſtrengthen the nerves; and in dyeing, when rectified into ſpirit of wine, being then reckoned by the dyers among the non-colouring drugs.

Beſides the brandy made of wine, there is ſome alſo made of beer, cyder, ſyrups, ſugar, molaſſes, fruit, grain, &c. (But theſe are not properly called brandy with us, but go under the general denomination of SPIRITS. See RUM and ARRAC.)

Wine-brandy made in France is eſteemed the beſt in Europe. By a decree of the parliament of Paris, of the 13th of March, 1699, none but French brandy is allowed to be brought to Paris, and the ſale of all other brandies, as thoſe of cyder, ſyrup, molaſſes, &c. is prohibited under the penalty of forfeiting the ſame, and paying a fine of 1000 livres. Cyder-brandy is made in Normandy, and that of ſyrup, ſugar, and molaſſes, at Orleans, and other places in France, where there are ſugar-bakers.

They make brandy in France wherever they make wine, and for that purpoſe, they make uſe both of wine that is pricked, and of good wine.

The brandies for foreign trade, and which the Dutch eſpecially buy up in great quantities, are thoſe of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Cognac, Charente, the Iſle of Rhé, Orleans, the country of Blaiſos, Poictou, Touraine, Anjou, Nantes, Burgundy, and Champagne.

Of all the French brandies, thoſe of Nantes and Poictou, which are of the ſame quality, are the moſt eſteemed, becauſe they have a better taſte, are finer and ſtronger, and will the longeſt bear the proof of the bead. Theſe are what foreigners chiefly buy.

The brandies of Anjou, Touraine, Orleans, &c. but chiefly thoſe of Anjou, are moſt commonly ſent to Paris, and into Flanders, by the river Loire. They are not of ſo good a quality as thoſe of Poictou and Nantes, though they are alſo very good.

The merchant-druggiſts and grocers are thoſe who, at Paris, have the greateſt trade in brandy, either by wholeſale or retail. Some merchant-mercers, as well as the lemonade-ſellers, the vinegar-ſellers, the diſtillers of brandies and ſtrong waters, do likewiſe carry on ſome trade in brandy: and thoſe of the laſt companies have a right to diſtil it, and to keep by them all the utenſils, as coppers, ſtills, and other veſſels, either of copper, earth, or glaſs, neceſſary for that diſtillation. Whereas, on the contrary, all vintners, tavern-keepers, and other retailers of wine, are forbidden to diſtil any, and even to keep any diſtilling veſſels in their houſes.

Beſides the two bodies of mercers and grocers, and thoſe three companies of arts and trades, who, by their ſtatutes, have a right to trade in brandy at Paris, there are alſo a great number of poor people, of both ſexes, who get a livelihood there by retailing brandy in very ſmall quantities. They are a kind of huckſters, who ſet up their little ſhops, or ſtalls, at the corner of ſtreets every morning betimes, when the workmen and labourers are going to their day's work. They alſo walk about the ſtreets, carrying their whole ſhop, bottles, glaſſes, and meaſures, in a ſmall baſket, which they hang about their necks. The women generally ſit in their ſhops, or ſtalls; and the men walk about, crying brandy to ſell.

The French name for brandy is eau de vie; in Latin aqua vitæ, water of life: but the French call it ſometimes brandevin,

from the Dutch brandewyn, as it were, burnt wine, from branden, to burn, and wyn, wine: but the word brandevin is ſeldom uſed unleſs among the vulgar and the ſoldiery. At Paris, where brandy is ſold by the huckſters in ſmall quantities, or meaſures, from four deniers to a ſol; and in the armies, where the ſutlers retail it, they call it brandevin, rather than eau de vie; but every-where elſe they uſe the laſt word, unleſs it be in joking.

The veſſels and caſks, into which the French brandies are put, and tranſported abroad, have different names, according to the ſeveral provinces where they are made or bought. The moſt common are the barriques, pipes, tuns, tonneaux, and poinçons.

There are alſo barils and baricants; but the latter are very ſmall, and are uſed only for the retail of brandy within the kingdom, and particularly for preſents, and for the proviſion of private families.

The brandies which come from the country, or province, of Blaiſos, are in poincons, or puncheons; thoſe of Anjou, Poictou, and Nantes, in pipes and tonneaux; and thoſe of Bourdeaux, Cognac, Rochelle, the iſle of Rhe, and other neighbouring places, in bariques.

We are obliged to make uſe of theſe French names, becauſe we have none in Engliſh which anſwer exactly to them.

Though the barique (or hogſhead) be in ſeveral places a veſſel containing a determined quantity of liquor, aſcertained by gauging; yet, in the brandy-trade, it may be conſidered as a meaſure of evaluation, which ſerves to determine the purchaſes made by foreigners.

This barique of evaluation is not equal every-where, and contains more or leſs veltes, or verges, according to the places.

At Nantes they reckon 29 veltes to the barique; at Rochelle, Cognac, and in the Iſle of Rhé, 27; at Bourdeaux, 32; which muſt be underſtood with this proviſo, that, in caſe the caſk holds leſs than the number of veltes for which the buyer made his bargain, the ſeller accounts to him for what is wanting, at the rate the purchaſe was made at: if, on the contrary, it contains more, which is almoſt always the caſe (there being pipes, poinçons, tonneaux, and bariques, from 50 to 60 veltes) the buyer is to account for the ſurplus to the ſeller: ſo that, if the pipe ſold at Bourdeaux, where the barique of evaluation is rated at 32 veltes, ſhould contain 48 veltes, the buyer pays for it as for a barique and a half; and thus in proportion in all other places.

The velte, by which the barique is rated, contains three pots, the pot two pints, and the pint weighs ſomething leſs that two pounds and a half (obſerve that a French pint anſwers very near to our Engliſh quart, wine meaſure; ſo that the velte contains about a gallon and a half, or ſix quarts, or bottles.) Some reckon the velte to contain four pots; but they are probably miſtaken, or the pot, by which they meaſure the velte, contains leſs than two pints.

It muſt be obſerved, that the brandy-caſks, being not limited, as we have ſaid, to a fixed number of veltes, and the pipes, poinçons, and tonneaux, containing from 50 to 90 veltes, all that is above the 50 veltes is called exceſs, or overplus, for which the commiſſioners of the cuſtom-houſes ſettled in the ports where the wine or brandy is ſhipped off, cauſe a duty to be paid at the rate of ſo much per velte, over and above the duty of exportation for the 50 veltes, at which every barique is rated in the tarif, or book of rates.

At Amſterdam, and in the other cities of Holland, the barique, or hogſhead, is rated very near as it is in France, and almoſt upon the ſame footing as the barique of Nantes; that is to ſay, it contains 36 viertellen, each viertel 6 mingles, and the mingle weighs 2 pounds and a quarter.

The French brandies are ſold at Amſterdam by pounds de gros, or pounds Flemiſh, more or leſs, according to their quality; with a deduction, or diſcount, of 1 per cent. for ready money. Thoſe that are of $\frac{3}{5}$, which the Dutch call verloop, are ſold for $\frac{2}{3}$ more than the common ones.

The merchants of Rochelle, Nantes, Roan, &c. do themſelves export a pretty large quantity of their brandies into foreign countries. There is no ſhip laden there, particularly for the French iſlands in America, the coaſt of Africa, and the northern countries, but French brandy is part of the cargo. Yet that trade is nothing in compariſon to what is carried on with foreigners, who come and buy up thoſe brandies in the abovementioned ports, and particularly at Bourdeaux.

The number of foreign veſſels which, in time of peace, arrive at thoſe ports, and take part of their cargo in brandy, is incredible; there are ſome from all parts of Europe. Nantes alone furniſhes them with about 7 or 8000 hogſheads, Bourdeaux above double that number, and the other places in proportion.

The foreigners who buy moſt of the brandies, are the Engliſh, Scots, Iriſh, Dutch, Flemiſh, and Hamburghers; but it is certain that the Dutch alone take up near as much as all the others together, not only for their own conſumption, which is very conſiderable, but alſo to export again into all the countries in Europe, and to America.

In time of war between England, Holland, and France, the Danes, if they be neutral, and ſometimes alſo the Swedes, join with the Hamburghers, and carry on with them the trade of brandy; which thoſe nations can hardly forbear drinking. Hamburgh alone conſumes above 4000 hogſheads of brandy; Lubeck about 400; Koningſberg only 100; Riga, Revel, and Narva, as many; Denmark more than Lubeck; Archangel, according as they have liberty to import any, there being ſometimes a general and ſevere prohibition to buy or ſell any; Dantzick imports but little brandy, and even that little is proper for Pruſſia only.

We do not reckon Poland and Sweden among the northern countries where they conſume any French brandy; not that theſe nations are more reſerved than any other with regard to this burning drink; but, as they prefer corn-brandy to French brandy, they have at home wherewithal to make ſuch brandy as ſuits their taſte beſt, and coſts them much leſs than the French brandy would do: ſo that about 100 hogſheads annually are ſufficient for the proviſion of Stockholm.

Remarks.

Brandy is diſtilled over a common fire, but ſlow, and not in balneum Mariæ. For this operation they uſe ſtoves built with bricks, or ſtone, which are made either round or ſquare: when they uſe bricks, they bind them with a ſtrong fine clay, mixed with horſe-dung, or cows-hair.

Theſe ſtoves muſt always have two bottoms; the lowermoſt is to receive the aſhes of the wood, or coals, and the uppermoſt to put the fuel in. They alſo have the precaution of contriving three or four vents round the copper, which they open or ſhut, as they would either forward or retard the diſtillation. For want of a ſtove, they ſometimes uſe an iron trevet to ſet the copper upon, and they only put wood under it: but this method is very defective; nor can ever good diſtillation be made, if the operator is not maſter of the fire, to manage it with judgment and dexterity, which cannot be done in this laſt method in the open air.

In order to make good brandy, there muſt be uſed a large copper cucurbit, to which the head muſt be properly adapted; and, having filled it half full with wine, which muſt be neither ſour, nor vented, nor corrupted, the cucurbit muſt be covered with it's head, which muſt be exactly luted to it, with paper and paſte, or rather with a wet bladder, folded ſeveral times. Then the cucurbit muſt be put into the ſtove, and the branch, or neck, through which the brandy is to diſtil, muſt be made to paſs through a tun with one bottom only, filled with freſh water; for which purpoſe the neck muſt be three or four feet long, compoſed of a long tube, which muſt paſs obliquely through the tun, and, winding again, muſt meet a tube which iſſues out of the head of the cucurbit; theſe two tubes enter into one another, and muſt be alſo luted together with paper and paſte, or a wet bladder, as above, to prevent the evaporation of the ſpirits during the diſtillation. Care alſo muſt be taken to keep upon the head of the cucurbit a wet cloath, to make the ſpirits condenſe. As ſoon as you obſerve that ſome drops begin to fall at the end of the long tube, you muſt ſuffer about 50 to fall down, after which you muſt adapt to that end of the tube a recipient, or veſſel, capable to receive the brandy which is going to diſtil. If you would make good and delicate brandy, you muſt take care not to haſten the diſtillation by too fierce a fire: in order to act with more ſecurity, you muſt obſerve that a drop which falls does not wait for the next, and regulate your fire, increaſe or decreaſe it, by giving more or leſs air to the ſtove, either by opening or ſhutting ſome of it's doors, or by opening or ſhutting ſome of its vents: to do which with the more exactneſs, a regiſter is requiſite.

If what we have been obſerving be exactly followed, and but one fourth part of the liquor contained in the cucurbit be extracted, you ſhall have excellent brandy, provided you chuſe proper wine. That which grows about Orleans and Paris is very proper to make excellent brandy, though it be none of the ſtrongeſt; it will even afford more brandy than that which is much ſtronger; the reaſon of it is this: thoſe wines which ſeem to abound moſt with ſpirits, do alſo much more with tartar, which fixes thoſe ſpirits; whereas weaker wines, having a leſs quantity of tartar, ſuffer the ſpirits to riſe much eaſier.

There are alſo ſeveral other ſorts of brandies, made of fruit, grain, and other ingredients. But, before we finiſh this article, we ſhall give an account of the manner of extracting brandy from the huſks, or ſkins, of grapes, after the preſſing; becauſe the benefits that can ariſe from this diſtillation deſerve ſome attention.

After the grapes have been preſſed, what remains in the preſs is coarſely ſeparated into ſmall particles with the hand, and afterwards thrown into large tubs, where they preſs it very hard, mix a little water with it, and cover it very cloſe with clay: in that condition they leave it to ferment during four or five weeks, obſerving, however, to ſhut the crevices which might happen to come in the clay, to prevent the evaporation.

After that time, they fill a very large copper half full with that mixture, cover it with it's head, and lute it to it, and diſtil the whole after the ſame manner as they do brandy.

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By this work they may make a very great advantage of a matter, which they were uſed to caſt upon a dunghill.

If this brandy be not ſo palatable as that which is made of wine, yet it is excellent for making ſpirits of wine. Both theſe liquors are a conſiderable branch of trade, and we thought that it would be acceptable to the public to enter into a minute account of this operation.

The ordonnance of aids in France, made in 1680, art. 1. and 2. of the title of duties upon brandies, ſettles thoſe that are to be raiſed, as they enter the city and ſuburbs of Paris, at 45 livres per muid, or hogſhead, Paris meaſure, whether they enter by land or by water; wherein are compriſed the 15 livres for the wholeſale trade, and for the eighth penny, laid upon that liquor; which duty of 45 livres is alſo to be paid for all brandies coming by water, and unloaded within three leagues of Paris; even thoſe which are carried through that city, either by land or by water, without ſtopping there, excepting, however, that upon theſe there is a deduction of the 15 livres for the wholeſale trade, and for the eighth penny.

As for thoſe brandies which paſs through the city of Paris, without ſtopping there, to be tranſported into foreign countries, they are free from all duties of entry into that capital, by proving their letters of carriage, and giving ſecurity to the general cuſtom-houſe of entries, that they will bring back a certificate from the judges and officers where the brandies were embarked, that they were really ſhipped, and produce a receipt of the payment of the duty of exportation.

The duty on brandy ſold by wholeſale is a twentieth part of their price, or value; and on thoſe ſold by the quart, or retail, 15 livres per muid, or hogſhead, Paris meaſure. But the brandies ſold within the city and ſuburbs of Paris, are free from that duty. Thoſe alſo are free from all duties which are bought by the pot, or by the pint, and reſold again by the huckſters about the ſtreets in ſmall meaſures of 4 or 6 deniers, or of a ſol at moſt.

There are ſtill ſome other duties on brandy, which are paid in France, but not generally every-where, as the fourth; the duty of aids, that of augmentation, and ſome others, for which the reader may conſult the ſame title of the above-mentioned ordonnance of the year 1680.

Beſides the decrees, declarations, or edicts of the king's council, for regulating the tranſportation and ſale of brandies, hitherto mentioned, there is a laſt declaration of the 8th of May, 1718, regiſtered in the parliament the 16th of the ſame month, which orders, that, for the execution of thoſe of December, 1687, and January, no brandies ſhall be carried off before the buyer ſhall have given good and ſufficient bail to the cuſtom-houſe of the place from whence they are to be carried away, promiſing to bring back certificates and receipts for the payment of the duties of entry at ſuch places where they are due; unleſs the ſellers of thoſe brandies, or the factors reſiding in the places where they are ſold, chuſe to give ſuch ſecurity, of which mention ſhall be made in the permits for carrying them away, upon pain of forfeiting the brandies, carriages, and all things belonging to them: the cuſtom-houſe officers of the place whence the brandies are to be carried away, being forbidden to receive any declaration, or to deliver any permit, before the ſecurity be given, upon pain of loſing their place.

Duties of exportation paid on brandies at Bayonne.

The pipe, containing about 80 veltes (about 120 gallons) pays 4 livres ancient duty, and for the $\frac{1}{5}$, or the augmentation of 4 ſols per livre, 16 ſols; in all 4 livres and 16 ſols.

Duties of exportation at Bourdeaux.

	liv.	ſols.
At the cuſtom-houſe, per piece of 50 veltes —	28	9
But the ſeller accounts to the buyer — —	8	11
for the duty of importation into the city; ſo that there remains to be paid by the buyer, who ſends the brandy abroad — — —	19	18
For tare on the pipe of brandy — — —	2	10
For brokerage — — — — —		5
For carrying on board and ſtowing — — —		12
For porterage from the ſeller's key to the buyer's houſe, from 6 ſols to 8 — — — —		8

Pieces containing above 50 veltes pay 11 ſols for the laſt-mentioned porterage; but, on exportation, the ſeller reimburſes it to the buyer.

The trade of brandy at Amſterdam.

We have as yet ſaid but little of the trade of brandy which is carried on at Amſterdam: yet we preſume it will be acceptable to the reader to find in this place the account given us in Mr John Peter Ricard's work, printed in the year 1722, wherein he treats very accurately of the trade of that famous city.

Moſt of the wine-brandies ſold at Amſterdam are imported from France, particularly from Cognac, Nantes, Bayonne, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Languedoc, and Provence: they have alſo ſome from Barcelona in Spain. All thoſe brandies are ſold by the verge (which is the ſame as the velte) and are paid in pounds groſs, or Flemiſh, which the French call livres de groſ.

The 30 verges of Cognac brandy are bought, one year with another, regulated by the year 1682, for —	$9\frac{1}{2}$	pounds de groſs.
Thoſe of Nantes — — —	$8\frac{1}{2}$	
Thoſe of Rochelle — — —	$8\frac{1}{2}$	
Thoſe of Bourdeaux — —	$8\frac{1}{2}$	
Thoſe of Lauguedoc — —	$7\frac{1}{2}$	
Thoſe of Provence from — —	$7\frac{1}{4}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$	
Thoſe of Barcelona alſo from —	$7\frac{1}{5}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$	

As for the grain-brandy, or ſpirit, the greateſt part of which is made at Amſterdam, it is ſold by the aam, which contains 128 mingles.

The aam of grain-brandy, or ſpirit, is commonly ſold for 23 guilders and a half, a little more or a little leſs, according to the variety and plenty of grain. On all thoſe brandies either of wine or grain there is a deduction, or diſcount, of one per cent. for prompt payment, or ready money.

It is always the ſeller who gets the brandies gauged at his expence, which coſts him, according to the placart, or ordonnance, of the year 1704, for a piece of 50 verges, and under, 3 ſtivers; from one of 51 to 79 verges, 6 ſtivers; and, for one of 80 and above, 12 ſtivers.

If the buyer finds the piece erroneouſly gauged, after he has emptied it, he may have it meaſured again, by a ſworn gauger, who meaſures it with water; and, if there be any error found the ſeller is obliged to indemnify the buyer.

Brandies ſeveral ways prepared, which ſerve for drinking.

They make with brandy, either ſimple or rectified, ſeveral ſorts of ſtrong liquors, into which they put ſugar and ſpices, with flowers or fruit, and other ingredients, which they clarify afterwards, by paſſing through a woollen cloth, or filtrating through brown paper.

The grocers, lemonade-ſellers, vinegar-merchants, diſtillers, and all thoſe who have the right to make brandy, have alſo that of compounding and ſelling thoſe liquors: but, commonly, the greateſt quantity of them come from Montpelier, where it hath been ſaid they make them better than in any other part of the world; and it is from that city that the coffee-houſes at Paris, where there is the greateſt demand for thoſe liquors, have them, whether they get them directly from Lauguedoc, for their own account, or buy them in the ſtreet called la Huchette, where there is a warehouſe of them, of many years ſtanding. The chief of theſe waters are,

Cette-water,
Aniſe-water,
Water of franchipanne,
Angelic-water,
Clairet-water,
Celeri-water,
Fennel-water,
Divine-water,
Cinnamon-water,
Coriander-water,
Juniper-berry-water,
Citron-water,
Water of mille-fleurs, or a thouſand flowers,
Coffee-water,
Laſtly, Barbadoes water.

The laſt of theſe, to be excellent, muſt be imported from England, and come really from Barbadoes; for the apothecaries and diſtillers of Montpelier have not yet been able to imitate it perfectly.

Beſides thoſe liquors made with brandy, and which have kept the name of water (from the French eau de vie) there are ſome others, which, either from the fruit mixed with them, or from the fancy of the artiſt, have got names which are become, as it were, their proper names: ſuch are, the roſſolis, perſico, ratafee, valtee, muſcadine ſack, and ſome others.

Further Remarks relating to the laws of England concerning brandy.

The improvements which have been made within theſe few years in the Britiſh diſtillery, afford very good Engliſh brandy; and how near brandy made in England, from ſubjects of our own production, may be brought to approach the quality of French, ſee the article Distillation. The ſtatutes of England relating to brandy are:

By ſtat. 22 Car. II. cap. 4. ſect. 2. It is declared that brandy is a ſtrong water perfectly made, and, being imported, is chargeable, by the act 12 Car. II. cap. 23, 24. with the duty of 8 d. per gallon ſet upon ſtrong water perfectly made and imported, and not with the duty of 4 d. per gallon upon ſpirits made of wine, or cyder, imported.

2 Will. and Mar. ſtat. 2. cap. 9. ſect. 12. All ſtrong waters, brandy, or ſpirits, brought from Guernſey, Jerſey, Sark, or Alderney, ſhall be charged with 8 s. per gallon, to be paid to the collector of exciſe before landing; and all other exciſeable liquors brought from the ſaid iſlands (except beer, ale, and mum) ſhall be charged with the like duties as are charged on the like liquors made in this kingdom, to be entered and paid as aboveſaid; and, before the landing ſuch liquors, oath ſhall be made by the importer, or owner, before the collector, or principal officer of the cuſtoms, that the ſame are of the growth and manufacture of the ſaid iſlands, and are not mixed with foreign materials. And, in caſe ſuch liquors ſhall be landed before ſuch entry and oath be made, and the duties paid, the ſame ſhall be taken to be of the growth and manufacture of the territories of the French king, and the liquors ſhall

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ſhall be deſtroyed, and all perſons concerned in the importation or ſale thereof ſhall ſuffer the penalties mentioned in ſtat. 1 Will. & Mar. ſtat. 1. cap. 34. viz. They ſhall forfeit the value for the firſt offence; and for the ſecond offence, double the value, and ſhall be diſabled to bear office: the values to be ſtated as follows, viz. a tun of wine 30 l. a tun of brandy 40 l. and commodities rated according to the book of rates, and other commodities, by a jury.

Revived by 12 Will. III. cap. 11. ſect. 8. and continued by 3 Ann. cap. 4. 5 Ann. cap. 19. and made perpetual by 1 Geo. I. ſtat. 2. cap. 12.

Stat. 12 Will. III. cap. 11. ſect. 18. No perſon ſhall ſell brandy, or other diſtilled liquors, to be drunk in his houſe, but ſuch only as ſhall be licenſed in the ſame manner as alehouſe-keepers, and ſubject to the ſame penalties: and the juſtices of peace, &c. are authoriſed to exerciſe the ſame juriſdiction over retailers of brandy, &c. as over common alehouſe-keepers.

Sect. 20. If foreign brandy, or ſpirits, ſhall be imported in any ſhip under 15 tons (except for the uſe of the ſeamen, not exceeding one gallon each) ſuch brandy, &c. ſhall be forfeited, one moiety to his majeſty, and the other to ſuch perſon as ſhall ſeize, or ſue, for the ſame.

Stat. 1 Ann. cap. 14. ſect. 1. Concerning diſtillers who keep places for diſtilling Engliſh brandy and ſtrong waters, from malted corn, and all ſhop-keepers, who principally deal more in other goods than in brandy and ſtrong waters, and who do not permit tippling in their houſes, the clauſe in ſtat. 1, 2, and 3 Will. III. cap. 11. ſect. 18. ſhall be repealed.

Sect. 2. If any perſon ſhall import French brandy before the duty be paid or ſecured, or by licence from the proper officer, every perſon that ſhall ſo do, or be aſſiſting therein, or conceal the ſame, when landed, ſhall forfeit not only the goods imported, but alſo double the value, one moiety (after charges of ſuit deducted) to her majeſty, and the other to the informer: and, if any officer of the revenue ſhall connive at ſuch clandeſtine importation, or conceal the ſame, or compound, without licence, with any perſon concerned in clandeſtine importation of French brandy, ſuch perſon ſhall be incapable of office in the revenue, and ſhall forfeit 500 l. to be divided as aforeſaid.

6 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 12. All perſons who ſhall become diſtillers, or ſellers of, or dealers in, brandy, arrack, rum, ſpirits, or ſtrong waters, ſhall, before they take any ſuch brandy, &c. into their cuſtody, make entry, at the office of exciſe, of the ſeveral warehouſes, &c. intended by them to be made uſe of for the keeping of brandy, &c. on forfeiture of 20 l. for every ſuch warehouſe, &c. made uſe of by ſuch diſtiller, &c. without making ſuch entry, together with the brandy, &c. found therein, and all the caſks, &c. containing the ſame.

Sect. 13. No brandy ſhall be brought into ſuch warehouſe, &c. without firſt giving notice to the officer of exciſe of the diviſion, and producing, and leaving with him, an authentic certificate, that the duties chargeable on all the ſaid brandy, &c. have been paid, or that the ſame has been condemned as forfeited, or was part of the ſtock of ſome importer, diſtiller, &c. of which an account had been taken purſuant to this act, and expreſſing the quantity and quality thereof, and at what port the duties were paid, or the brandy, &c. condemned, or of whoſe ſtock the ſame was part, on forfeiture of the brandy, &c. together with the caſks and veſſels containing the ſame.

Sect. 14. The officers of exciſe may at all times, by day and by night (and, if by night, in the preſence of a conſtable, or other peace-officer) enter into the ſaid warehouſes, &c. made uſe of by any diſtiller, &c. and by taſting, gauging, or otherwiſe, take account of the quantity and quality of all ſuch of the ſaid liquors as ſhall be in their cuſtody; and if any diſtiller, &c. ſhall hinder, or refuſe, the ſaid officers to enter his warehouſe, &c. or obſtruct them in the execution of the powers by this act given them, he ſhall forfeit 50 l.

Sect. 15. No brandy, &c. ſhall be ſold, or expoſed to ſale either by wholeſale or retail, but when the ſame ſhall be in ſome of the warehouſes, &c. ſo entered, on pain of forfeiting 50 s. for every gallon of brandy, &c. ſold, or expoſed to ſale, in any other place, and ſo proportionably.

Sect. 16. Where any brandy, &c. ſhall be ſold in the ſaid entered places, in great or ſmall quantities, the officers of exciſe of the diviſion ſhall be obliged, upon the requeſt of the ſeller, without fee, to give the buyers thereof certificates in writing, ſigned by the ſaid officers, expreſſing the quantities ſo ſold, the names of the buyers and ſellers thereof, and that the duty has been paid, or that the ſame has been condemned as forfeited, or was part of ſuch ſtock, as aforeſaid.

Sect. 17. No brandy, &c. exceeding the quantity of one gallon, ſhall be removed, or carried from one part of this kingdom to another, by land or by water, without a permit, or certificate, from one of the officers of the cuſtoms, or exciſe, certifying the quantity and quality thereof, and that the duties have been ſatisfied, or that the ſame had been condemned, or was part of ſuch ſtock as aforeſaid, on pain of forfeiting the brandy, &c. and the caſks, &c.

Sect. 18. Every perſon who ſhall have in his cuſtody any brandy, &c. exceeding the quantity of 63 gallons, ſhall be deemed a dealer in brandy, &c. and ſubject to the ſurvey of the officers of exciſe.

Sect. 19. The penalties and forfeitures by this act given on account of brandy, &c. ſhall be ſued for, &c. by the laws of exciſe, and one moiety thereof (the charges of ſuing for, &c. being firſt deducted) ſhall be to the king, and the other to him who ſhall ſeize, or ſue for the ſame.

Sect. 20. Where any brandy, &c. ſhall be ſeized, as forfeited, by any officer of either the ſaid revenues, all ſuch ſeizures (except where the ſeizure ſhall be made for unlawful importation, and the whole quantity of brandy, &c. at any one time for that cauſe ſeized does not exceed 63 gallons) ſhall, in a ſummary way, be heard and determined, viz. in caſe ſuch ſeizure be made within the immediate limits of the chief exciſe-office in London, the ſame ſhall be determined, in a ſummary way, by the commiſſioners of exciſe, or the major part of them: and, if ſuch ſeizure ſhall be made without the limits of the ſaid exciſe-office in London, then the ſame ſhall be heard, &c. before two juſtices of peace reſiding near the place where ſuch ſeizure ſhall be made; which commiſſioners and juſtices ſhall cauſe the perſon in whoſe cuſtody ſuch brandy, &c. was found, to be ſummoned to appear before them, and, upon their appearance or default, to examine into the cauſe of the ſeizure, and give judgment, and to iſſue out their warrants for ſale; and ſuch judgments ſhall be final, not liable to appeal, or to be removed by certiorari.

Sect. 21. Where any ſuch brandy, &c. (except as before) ſhall be ſeized as forfeited, and no perſon within 20 days after appears to the officer who made ſuch ſeizure, to claim the ſame, then, if ſuch ſeizure ſhall be made within the limits of the chief office of exciſe in London, the officer who made the ſeizure may, after the expiration of 20 days, cauſe notice in writing to be ſigned by the ſollicitor of the exciſe, to be affixed at the Royal Exchange, ſignifying the day, and time of the day, that the commiſſioners of exciſe will proceed to hear the matter of ſuch ſeizure, and to condemnation of the brandy, &c. And, if ſuch ſeizure be made out of the limits of the chief exciſe-office, the officers who ſhall make ſuch ſeizure may, after the expiration of 20 days, cauſe public notice to be given, by proclamation, at the next market-town to the place of ſeizure, on the next market-day after the expiration of the ſaid 20 days, of the day and place when and where the juſtices will proceed to hear the matter of ſuch ſeizure, and to the condemnation of ſuch brandy, &c. in which caſes the ſaid commiſſioners and juſtices reſpectfully are to proceed to examine into the cauſe of ſuch ſeizures, and to give judgment for the condemnation of ſuch brandy, &c. as on examination ſhall appear to be forfeited, and of the caſks, &c. which judgments ſhall be final, as if the owners of the ſaid brandy, &c. or the perſon in whoſe cuſtody the ſame was, had been ſummoned to attend the ſaid commiſſioners and juſtices, and ſhall not be liable to appeal, or to be removed by certiorari.

Stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. ſect. 11. All dealers in foreign brandy, ſpirits, or ſtrong waters, who ſhall receive into their cuſtody any Britiſh ſpirits, ſhall keep the ſame apart, and in ſeparate places, from their foreign brandy, &c. on pain of forfeiting 10 s. for every gallon which ſhall be found in any vault, &c. where they ſhall keep any foreign brandy, &c. together with the caſks, &c. wherein the ſame Britiſh ſpirits ſhall be found.

Sect. 12. In caſe any officer of the exciſe ſhall find any increaſe of foreign brandy, &c. in the hands of any ſuch dealer, over and above the quantity he found at the time of his laſt ſurvey, ſuch increaſe ſhall be deemed to be made by foreign brandy, &c. for which no duties were paid, and which had been privately brought by ſuch dealer into the place where ſuch increaſe ſhall be found, without permit, or payment of the duty, or any previous entry to any officer of the exciſe of bringing the ſame; and ſo much of the ſaid foreign brandy, &c. as ſhall be found ſo increaſed, ſhall be forfeited, and may be ſeized by ſuch officer, unleſs the owner ſhall make it appear, that ſuch increaſe was made either by mixing ſome of his ſtock of Britiſh ſpirits, whereof the officer had taken an account, with his foreign brandy, &c. in the preſence of the officer of exciſe of the diviſion, or by foreign brandy, &c. brought into the place, with certificate of the payment of the duties, or that the ſame had been condemned, and that due notice was given to the officer of bringing in the ſame before it was brought in.

Sect. 13. No foreign brandy, &c. although the ſame be under the quantity of one gallon, ſhall be received into the cuſtody of a retailer, &c. or any perſon for his uſe, without a permit, or certificate, ſigned by ſome officer of the cuſtoms, or exciſe, ſignifying that the duties were paid, or ſecured, or that the ſame had been condemned as forfeited, on forfeiture of the brandy, together with the caſks, &c.

Sect. 24. All brandy, arrack, rum, ſpirits, and ſtrong waters, as well foreign as Britiſh, and foreign exciſeable liquor, which ſhall be forfeited, together with the caſks, bottles, veſſels, and other package, containing the ſame, may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, or exciſe, or by perſons deputed by warrant

warrant from the lord-treaſurer, or under-treaſurer, or by ſpecial commiſſion under the great-ſeal, or privy-ſeal, but by none others.

Sect. 25. If any perſon ſhall aſſault, or hinder, any officer of the cuſtoms, or exciſe, in ſeizing or ſecuring any brandy, &c. or foreign exciſeable liquors, which ſhall or may be ſeized, by virtue of this or any other act, or ſhall by force reſcue any brandy, &c. after the ſame ſhall have been ſeized, or ſhall endeavour ſo to do, or ſhall, after ſeizure, ſtave or damage any caſk, &c. containing ſuch brandy, &c. the party offending ſhall forfeit 40 l.

Stat. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. ſect. 3. No brandy, arrack, rum, ſpirits, or ſtrong waters, whether Britiſh or foreign, ſhall be ſold, or expoſed to ſale, either by wholeſale or retale, but when the ſame ſhall be in ſome of the warehouſes, or other places entered in purſuance of the act 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. on pain of forfeiting all ſuch brandy, &c. together with the caſks, &c. over and above the penalty of 40 s. per gallon, impoſed by the ſaid act.

Stat. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. ſect. 10. No perſon ſhall ſell brandy, or other diſtilled liquors, by retail, but ſuch as ſhall be licenſed in the ſame manner as common alehouſe-keepers, and ſubject to the ſame rules and penalties; and the juſtices of peace ſhall have the ſame juriſdiction over retailers of brandy, &c. as over alehouſe-keepers.

Stat. 6 Geo. II. cap. 17. ſect. 2. The duty (by ſtat. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 20.) of 30 l. per tun on French brandy of ſingle proof, and 60 l. per tun on French brandy of double proof, ſhall ceaſe.

Sect. 3. In lieu of the ſaid duties, there ſhall be paid to his majeſty the exciſe herein expreſſed; viz. for every gallon of ſingle brandy imported, to be paid by the importer, before landing, over and above the duties payable for the ſame, 1 s. For every gallon of double brandy imported, 2 s.

Sect. 4. The ſaid duties ſhall be collected in the ſame manner, &c. as the duties of exciſe.

As for the famous gin act, as it is vulgarly called, that is to ſay, the act againſt retailing ſpirituous liquors, which affected all ſorts of brandies, as other ſpirits, it being now repealed, we think it needleſs to give an extract of it in this place. See DISTILLATION and MALT.

Further REMARKS on BRANDY.

Although neither Engliſh malt nor molaſſes ſpirits come up to the goodneſs of brandy, yet the fault is not in the grain, or fruit, from which they are extracted, but from the different manner of their preparation; for both grapes and grain conſiſt of the like principles, of oil, ſalt, phlegm, and earth, by a chemical analyzation; they differ only in the quantity and connection of their principles, for the grain has them more firmly and cloſely conjoined.—Hence appears the neceſſity of a double fermentation to ſwell the compact earthy parts, and to diſengage and ſubtilize the oily and ſaline parts, that they may be ſeparated from the more groſs and earthy.

Theſe ſpirits differ alſo in reſpect of their ſeparability and volatility. Thus ſome wines, that are ſtronger bodied, abound more with ſulphur and ſalt, afford leſs ſpirit than others that are thinner, and appear weaker; for the ſpirituous particles of the laſt are much ſmaller, lighter and finer, and are leſs intangled in a viſcus; their ſpirits are more diſpoſed to motion, and run more readily, and in larger quantity, from their earth and phlegm.

Spirits of the grape, or grain, are the oil, or ſalt of thoſe vegetables, reduced into volatile particles, lighter than the phlegm wherewith they are entangled. Theſe ſpirits are neither acid nor alcaline, but of a neutral nature as to both, which Boerhaave has ſufficiently proved by divers experiments.

That there is no eſſential difference between brandy, molaſſes, and malt ſpirits, if they are thoroughly rectifyed, appears from hence; for, all ſpirits being obtained by diſtillation, it does not ſeem poſſible that the fire ſhould make ſo great a difference as is generally believed. Wine diſtilled yields much ſpirit, which is only it's oil and ſalt ſubtilized. After this ſpirit comes much phlegm; after that come over acid ſpirits, mixed with a ſharp white nauſeous aſtringent phlegm; continue the diſtillation, and there ariſes a black, thick, burnt, ſtinking oil, which may be ſeparated from the acid ſpirits by brown paper: after all, in the bottom of the ſtill remains a maſs of ſalt and earth, which may be ſeparated with water.

This ſalt is a fixed, alcaline ſalt. Molaſſes, fermented with water, and caſt into a ſtill, yield the ſame. Grapes contain much oil, ſalt, and phlegm. Barley has much oil, and but a little eſſential ſalt. Sugar has in it much eſſential ſalt, and not a little oil. As all theſe ſpirits are in daily uſe with us, it may not be unacceptable to conſider them a little further: for, as the better ſort uſe what is called brandy, ſo the poorer muſt be content with malt ſpirits, which are cheaper, and whoſe ordinary imperfections are, 1. Want of age, which gives them an empty, rheumatic, and fiery taſte, though ſome pretend to take it off by the proper application of the dulcified ſpirit of nitre. 2. It is of a lower ſtandard than true French brandy, this having about ſeven parts of phlegm to nine of ſpirits; the other nine parts phlegm to leſs than five of ſpirits, and often not ſo much; for if you cauſe 20 quarts of it to be put into a ſtill, you will not get above two quarts of ſpirit, which would all burn away; i. e. nine parts phlegm to one of ſpirit. 3. It wants, likewiſe, the vinous flavour of true brandy; this ſome attempt to give by incorporating the dulcified ſpirit of nitre alſo, or young buds of black currant-berries, into it: but the remarkable taſte of the firſt, and the cerefied flavour of the other, in the ordinary proceſs, diſcover the impoſition.

Of judging of proof in ſpirits.

This being a commodity of general uſe, and, therefore, a large article of traffic, it may not be improper to ſhew the moſt exact methods of examining proof in ſpirits, and detecting the invalidity of the common methods of judging of the purity, genuineneſs, and goodneſs of brandies, &c. To which end, Take a long phial, half filled with the common proof ſpirit of the malt-diſtillers, and give it a ſmart ſtroke with it's bottom againſt the palm of the hand, and there will appear, on the ſurface of the liquor, a chaplet, or crown of bubbles, which will diſappear in a clear ſtrong manner; that is, it will firſt remain a while, and then go off by degrees, without breaking the bubbles, or riſing into larger: and, when the bubbles go off in this manner, the ſpirit is vulgarly ſaid to be proof, or merchantable: for, if the bubbles are too large, and vaniſh too ſoon, the ſpirit is deemed above proof; if too ſmall, and they go off too ſoon, it is ſaid to be below proof. But this is a fallacious method of judging; becauſe there are certain known ways of making a ſpirit bear this trial, when it is in reality either above or below proof: for the proper meaning of the word is, that a proof-ſpirit ſhould contain about one half water, and the other half alcohol.

By the beforementioned kind of proof, however, all diſtillers, brandy merchants, brokers, and the officers of the cuſtoms and exciſe, judge of the ſtrength and quality of brandies and ſpirits, in all the brandy countries and ſea port towns of Europe. It may, therefore, appear ſingular here to oppoſe the general opinion and practice, in a particular where the intereſt of ſo many trading people, watchful againſt all impoſition, is concerned: and yet we undertake to ſhew that this kind of proof is a mere fallacy and deception; for if but a little vinous or ſaccharine matter, as treacle, ſyrup, muſt, the rob of fruits, &c. be added to a quantity of highly-rectified ſpirit of wine, this ſlight addition will give a brandy-proof to that ſpirit, which, therefore, by this trial, may be made to paſs for brandy; that is, a compoſition of half water and half alcohol, whereas, in reality, it is almoſt totally alcohol.

The fraud is eaſily detected; not in the common way practiſed upon the keys, but by burning a little of the ſpirit in a ſpoon, for thus it will leave the ſaccharine matter in a dry form, behind.

Whether there be any method commonly known of making any ſpirituous liquor of Europe that contains much leſs than a half of alcohol, to paſs current for proof-ſpirit, is not ſo certain: but doubtleſs this might be eaſily effected; for we ſee that arrack is proof, or affords a ſtrong crown of bubbles, upon ſhaking, as well as brandy, though arrack uſually contains not above half the quantity of alcohol that brandy does; and if but a drop or two of it's own, or any other eſſential oil, be added to a pint of proof-brandy, this is ſufficient to deſtroy it's proof, and make it appear much weaker than it is.

To prevent being impoſed upon in this way, we might have recourſe to the eſſay inſtrument, or hydroſtatical ballance: a gallon of alcohol is computed to weigh ſeven pounds and a half, and a gallon of water eight pounds; whence the compound gravity of an equal mixture of the two may be aſſigned. But it is a more ſure and ready method for men of buſineſs to burn a little meaſured quantity of the brandy to be tried, in a cylindrical metalline veſſel, plunged in cold water to an equal height with the brandy, and when it ceaſes to burn, exactly meaſuring the remainder, which is the water: but, if the ſpirit has loſt one half of it's meaſure by burning, the brandy may be allowed proof; if more or leſs, it muſt be judged of accordingly *.

* See a paper of Mr Geoffroy to this purpoſe, in the French Memoirs.

But, beſides the falſe method of judging the ſtrength of brandies by what is called proof, there is another no leſs fallacious one of judging of their goodneſs, though kept a great ſecret in few hands, as a thing ſome dealers imagine a certain criterion for determining whether foreign brandies are mixed with corn ſpirits. Theſe dealers are provided with a certain yellow liquor, a few drops whereof, being poured into a glaſs of right French brandy, gives it a beautiful blue colour, by the ſtrength and brightneſs of which colour they judge of the genuineneſs or unmixed ſtate of the commodity, and buy upon this kind of proof; whence they may come to be much deceived; for, if an ordinary malt-ſpirit was to be coloured with oak, this ſpirit would ſuſtain the preſent method of proof, and might therefore be purchaſed by thoſe dealers for French brandy.

This proof tincture, or eſſay liquor, may be expeditiouſly pre-

pared, by diſſolving a little green vitriol (firſt calcined to redneſs) in a weak ſpirit of ſea ſalt, which thus becomes a yellow liquor; a ſingle drop or two of which being added to a glaſs of any inflammable ſpirit, coloured yellow or brown with oak, will inſtantly turn it of a beautiful bright blue: whence it is evident that this kind of trial is no more than a deception, and only ſhews when brandies are tinged with oak, as they conſtantly are by lying long in the caſk; and that it is the oak which thus cauſes French brandies to turn blue with the eſſay liquor, appears again from hence, that, if the beſt and oldeſt French brandy be re-diſtilled, and thus made colourleſs, it will not turn blue with the eſſay liquor, becauſe all the tincture of the oak, or tinging matter of the caſk, is left behind in the ſtill.

One of the beſt methods to prevent being impoſed on by the mixing of malt-ſpirits with a finer, is to acquire the habit of judging by the taſte and ſmell; for malt-ſpirit is uſually rectified ſo ill, by the addition of fixed alkaline ſalts, or certain flavouring ingredients, that it may commonly be perceived by the noſe or palate, eſpecially if the brandy propoſed for examination be largely diluted with water, to prevent it's overheating the mouth; or elſe be burnt in a ſpoon, ſo as to leave the phlegm to be taſted and ſmelt by itſelf; for this phlegm, if the brandy be debaſed by a corn ſpirit, will taſte and ſmell conſiderably nauſeous, very different from the phlegm of pure French brandy.

Burying caſks of brandy in the earth, or lying ſome months on the ſea, takes off it's hot, empty, rheumatic taſte, makes it mild in the mouth, and warm upon the ſtomach; it is by the laſt of theſe methods that the Dutch impoſe upon us with molaſſes ſpirits, inſtead of right French brandy.

Of the uſe of brandy in regard to the health.

Brandy ſhould be drank very moderately, rather from neceſſity than pleaſure; ſo will it be of ſervice, and contribute to health. When the ſtomach is raw, weak, and lax, a moderate dram raiſes a pleaſant warmth, a gentle tenſion, and better digeſtion, by rarifying the viſcid phlegm which loaded it, invigorating it's fibres, and making it's coats play with more agility and vigour. When flatulency, or wind, abounds in the inteſtines, a dram rarifies the retained, groſs, perſpirable matter, and prepares it from an explоſion upwards or downwards, or ſends it off by perſpiration; it revives the languid nervous filaments, affords them new ſpirit and ſtrength for action, whereby their periſtaltic motion is promoted.

When the body is faint and languid, from a waſte, or diſſipation of the animal ſpirits, from exceſs of exerciſe, too long walking, faſting, or too low and abſtemious a diet, whereby the nervous juice is exhauſted, and the ſolids cannot act with their former vigour, a dram is ſo ſubtile before it is drunk, that, in it's very ſwallowing, and as ſoon as it enters the ſtomach it penetrates the nerves, adds to the elaſticity of the fibres, invigorates the vibrations, and takes off all ſenſe of languor and faintneſs. For the ſame reaſons, when the circulation of the blood is languid, from the decreaſed tone of the veſſels, a dram excites their vigour, and cauſes a briſker circulation.

A dram taken in the decoction of mallows, and althæa-root, with a little honey, cleanſes the kidnies, ureters, and bladder, powerfully; forces away ſand, ſmall ſtones, gravelly and ſlimy matter with the urine. A moderate dram uſed in dropſical and cachectic caſes, where the body is diſpoſed to be overbulky, and in danger of leucophlegmatia, or any other general, or particular tumours, from a laxneſs, or languor of the nervous ſyſtem, as a thickneſs or toughneſs of the blood, eſpecially of the lymphatic juices. In theſe caſes a dram invigorates the fibres, rarifies the fluids (though a too frequent, or exceſſive uſe, of ſpirits, has the quite contrary effect) ſtimulates the veſſels and ſecretory contractions, cauſes the blood to flow in the reins in larger quantity, and with greater velocity; hence the ſecretion of urine is increaſed, and, at the ſame time, perſpiration encouraged.

When the ſtomach is weakened by a ſurfeit of tenacious food the preceding day, which has left much phlegm in the excretory ducts of it's glands, or exhauſted it's ſpirits, a dram is good before dinner. Drams are chiefly uſeful to phlegmatic conſtitutions, bulky bodies, or old age, and ſuch as have weak and lax ſtamina, expoſing them to diſeaſes of the head, and nervous diſorders or dropſies, &c.

But all theſe good effects will not counterballance the miſchiefs done by the indiſcreet and immoderate uſe of ſpirits. All melancholy tempers are injured by them; for, though a ſmall dram rarifies the blood at firſt, yet the more thin and ſpirituous parts exhale ſooner, and carry off ſome of the fineſt ſerum with them, whereby the blood becomes thicker, and the ſolids more dry and ſtiff.

Choleric diſpoſitions have their fibres too much ſtimulated by it's uſe; the acrimony of the blood and it's motion, and agitation, are increated by it. The repeated uſe of unneceſſary drams, in ſanguine conſtitutions, rarifies the blood at firſt, makes it diſtend the veſſels, and ſome unprepared parts ruſh into the canals of conic tubes, where they cannot readily paſs; hence fevers and other diſorders. A too free uſe of them, in any conſtitution, puts the humours into a violent agitation, whereby their nutritious parts are unfit to anſwer their deſign, for this great rarefaction is often ſucceeded by a thinneſs and waterineſs of the blood; hence an ill habit of body, a pale look, and a decay of the natural actions.

All ſpirits cauſe drunkenneſs, by an overfuſion of the fluids, and diſtention of their containing veſſels; hence head-achs and pains from ſaline ſpicula darting into and prickling the relaxed veſſels, and the ſlimy matter depoſited on their inſides, which weakens them and ſoaks them with phlegm, 'till the perſon become paralytic, lethargic, apoplectic, and convulſed, and often ſpirits kill the drinker upon the ſpot; from all which we cannot help thinking, that the world had been happier, had men never been accuſtomed to brandy or ſpirits; for ſuch as content themſelves with water, or good table beer, are by far more vigorous, healthy, and long-lived than drammers, who moſtly make themſelves diſeaſed, and at length become more like beaſts than men.

BRASS, a factitious metal, compoſed of ſeveral metals mixed together, among which the chief is copper. That which the French call leton, or yellow copper, is red or natural copper, prepared with the lapis calaminaris. See CALAMINE.

Before the lapis calaminaris is put into the foundery, it muſt be thoroughly calcined, then ground into powder, afterwards mixed with coal-duſt, and watered, ſo that it be no longer like duſt.

The calamine-ſtone being thus prepared, they divide it, as well as the roſe-copper, into eight equal parts, and put it into eight crucibles, one part of each into every one, and place them all into the ſame furnace, where being melted, it is tranſformed into braſs: ſo that, inſtead of any waſte or diminution, there is an augmentation or increaſe of 48 or 50 pounds per hundred, if copper of Hungary or Sweden be uſed; that of Norway yielding but 38, and that of Italy but 20.

Braſs muſt be hammered or forged rather hot than otherwiſe, for it breaks, if hammered quite cold; and, after it has been twice melted, it is no longer malleable; the workmen not being able to uſe it then, unleſs they add a due proportion of lead to it, which renders it ſoft and eaſy to work.

It is certain, that braſs often melted loſes that degree of ductility it has, when firſt made; which inconveniency is remedied, by adding to it, when melting, eight or or ten pounds of old copper to an hundred weight, but no lead.

Braſs is uſed to make great guns: ſome reckon the beſt method is to put into the quantity of eleven or twelve thouſand weight of metal, ten thouſand of roſe-copper, nine hundred pounds of tin, and ſix hundred of braſs.

But Mr Chandler obſerves, that the beſt braſs-guns are not made with pure copper and calaminaris, but that coarſer metals muſt be mixed therewith, as lead and pot-metal, to make it run cloſe and ſounder. See the article FOUNDERY.

What they call braſs-wire, or braſs in hoops, is braſs drawn through the wire-drawing-iron.

For making the fineſt ſtatues of braſs, the proportion is one half of copper, and one half of braſs. The Egyptians, whom ſome think the inventors of this art, uſed to put two thirds of braſs to one third of copper: roſe-copper is not ſo proper for caſting ſtatues as that which is hammered.

In common braſs the allay is made with tin, and even with lead, when people would be ſaving. But the latter ought not to be uſed in braſs deſigned for ſtatues. For braſs-guns, they put ten or twelve pounds of tin to a hundred of braſs. For bells, they put twenty or twenty-four pounds of tin to the ſame weight of copper, to which they add two pounds of antimony, to render the ſound more ſoft; and they put but three or four pounds for kitchen-furniture.

Corinthian braſs has been famous in all antiquity. L. Mummius having ſacked and burnt the city of Corinth, in the 158th olympiad, or 146 years before Chriſt, it is pretended, that this precious metal was formed from the immenſe quantity of gold, ſilver, and copper with which that city abounded; which being all melted and mixed together by the fierceneſs of the fire, compoſed, as it were, a new metal. The ſtatues and veſſels which were afterwards made of it by excellent artiſts, were eſteemed of great value: and, though it is commonly the ſculptor's hand, which enhances the price of thoſe pieces of workmanſhip, yet, on this occaſion, the matter ſeemed to vie with, or even to excel above the ordinary perfection of art.

They who have given an accurate account of this metal, diſtinguiſh three ſorts of it; in one gold was predominant, in the next ſilver, and in the laſt gold, ſilver, and copper were in equal parts. It is very probable, that what was formerly owing to chance, might at preſent be imitated by art: but, as moſt things are chiefly valued on account of their ſcarcity, it is but too true, that the eaſe with which an artiſt might now make ſuch braſs, would render it leſs valuable, how like ſoever it might be to that of Corinth.

BRASS is alſo a colour prepared by the braziers and colourmen to imitate braſs. There are two ſorts of it; the red braſs, or bronze, as the French call it, and the yellow or gilt braſs. The latter is made only of copper filings, the ſmalleſt and brighteſt that can be found; with the former, they mix ſome red ochre finely pulverized. They are both uſed with varniſh. In order to make a fine braſs, that will not take any ruſt

ruſt or verdegreaſe, it muſt be dried with a chafing-diſh of coals, as ſoon as it is applied.

The fineſt braſs colour is made with powder-braſs, imported from Germany, diluted into a varniſh, made and uſed after the following manner. The varniſh is compoſed of one pound and four ounces of ſpirit of wine, two ounces of gum-lack, two ounces of ſandarac: theſe two laſt drugs are pulverized ſeparately, and afterwards put to diſſolve in ſpirits of wine, taking care to fill the bottle but half full, otherwiſe it would burſt: in all proceſſes, in which ſpirit of wine is made to act by means of fire, the veſſels muſt be exactly ſtopped with a hog's bladder, and but half full. The varniſh being made, you mix ſuch quantity as you pleaſe of it with the pulverized braſs, and apply it with a ſmall bruſh to what you would braſs over. But you muſt not mix too much at once, becauſe, the varniſh being very apt to dry, you would not have time to employ it all ſoon enough; it is therefore better to make the mixture at ſeveral times. After this manner they braſs over figures of plaſter, which look as well as if they were of caſt braſs.

BRAZIER, a maker or ſeller of braſs-ware.

The company of freemen braziers of the city of Paris is very ancient, and had ſtatutes of their own, a great while before the reign of Charles VI.

The regulations, at preſent, relating to them, regard chiefly the jurats, apprentices, brokers, and foreigners, or thoſe who are not free of that corporation.

Of the four jurats, who take care of the company's affairs, and whoſe buſineſs it is to make a proper ſearch or viſitation at the maſters or freemens houſes, there are two choſen every year.

The freemen can have two apprentices at a time, whom they cannot bind for leſs than ſix years: and apprentices cannot obtain their freedom, unleſs they perform a maſter-piece of workmanſhip.

The two brokers of the company are choſen by a majority of votes, and are obliged to give the freemen notice of the arrival of foreign traders: they cannot be brokers and taders at the ſame time; that is to ſay, that they are not allowed to buy any brazier's ware for their own account, and their brokerage is limited.

Finally, all foreign traders, and ſuch as are not free of the company, are forbidden to ſell, diſtribute, and vend, within the city and ſuburbs of Paris, any brazier's ware, except by wholeſale, and for a ſum exceeding 40 livres.

Remarks.

This trade, as exerciſed in England, may be reckoned a branch of the ſmithery, though they ſeldom keep forges, except for brazing or ſoldering, and tinning the inſides of their veſſels, which they work up chiefly out of copper and braſs, prepared rough to their hands. They conſiſt of a working part, and a ſhop-keeping part, which latter many carry on to a great extent, dealing as well in all ſorts of iron and ſteel, as copper and braſs goods for houſhold furniture; and lately have fell much into ſelling what is called French plate, made of a ſort of white metal, ſilvered and poliſhed to ſuch a nicety, as the eye cannot ſoon diſcover it from real ſilver.

The ſtatutes in England, relating to this buſineſs, are in ſubſtance as follows, viz.

By ſtat. 19 Hen. VII. c. 6. ſect. 1. Braſs to be ſold in open fairs and markets, on pain of 10 l. And to be worked according to the goodneſs of metal worked in London, or be liable to forfeiture; and uſing falſe weights to forfeit 20 s. Searchers of braſs and pewter likewiſe to be appointed in every city, &c.

By 4 Hen. VIII. c. 7. Braſs ware defective to be forfeited.

By 25 Hen. VIII. c. 9. Tin or pewter wares not to be ſent out of the realm, on pain of forfeiture; and officers to ſearch and make ſeizures, &c. Pewterers not to teach their trades to foreigners.

33 Hen. VIII. c. 4. This ſtatute makes the act 25 Hen. VIII. perpetual, and inflicts a penalty of 5 l. for reſiſting the ſearch of braſs, tin, &c.

33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. Conveying out of the realm, braſs, copper, bell-metal, &c. (except tin and lead) to forfeit double value.

2 and 3 Edw. VI. c. 37. This act adds the penalty of 10 l. for every thouſand weight, beſides the double value of tranſporting braſs, &c. But metal made of Engliſh ore may be exported, by the ſtatute 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 17.

4 and 5 W. and M. c. 5. For braſs wrought and imported there is a duty of 5 l. per cent.

9 and 10 W. III. c. 39. Braſs and copper, &c. to be ſpun upon thread, and not ſilk, on pain of 5 s. per ounce. And no thread made of copper, braſs, &c. or wire wrought, to be imported on pain of forfeiture.

7 Ann. c. 8. Exportation of Britiſh copper and braſs wire to pay no duty.

By 8 Geo. I. c. 15. Braſs manufactures of all ſorts, exported free.

BRAZIL, a territory in South America, belonging to the Portugueze, is bounded on the eaſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the weſt by the land of Amazons, on the north by Terra Firma, and ſome part by the ſame ocean, and on the ſouth by Paraguay and another part of the ſame ocean. It extends itſelf chiefly from north to ſouth, except at the two extreme ends, where the coaſts wind toward the weſt; ſo that it's utmoſt ſtretch, which is from cape Aquara, which lies about 30 minutes ſouth of the equinoctial line, in weſt longitude 51. 40. to that of St Vincent about 30 minutes ſouth of the tropic of Capricorn, and in longitude 45. 10. weſt. is full 23 degrees and a half, or 470 leagues, or 1410 miles; where it muſt be obſerved, that ſome geographers give it a larger extent ſouthward, even as far as the 25th degree; ſo that according to that dimenſion, and the winding of the coaſt, it's length may be reckoned to extend above 2000 miles. As for it's breadth from eaſt to weſt, if we take it from cape St Auguſtin, which is the fartheſt eaſtward under the 35th degree of weſt longitude to the 51ſt, where it's weſtern boundaries are commonly fixed, it may be computed ſomewhat above 300 leagues, or 900 miles; but it's territories reach but a little way into the inland, and conſequently it's breadth bears no proportion to it's length. As for the coaſts of Brazil, they begin at the mouth of the great river of the Amazons, whence they run almoſt eaſtward as far as cape St Roque; that is, from 35. 40. to 49 degrees of longitude, or about 450 leagues, from which they take a winding ſouthwards, quite to the Spaniſh province of Guayra, from which it is parted by the river Capibari, two or three leagues from the town of St Vincent. So that almoſt the whole county lies under the torrid zone, there being but very few places in it which reach beyond the ſouthern tropic.

Mr Nieuhoff, who reſided ſome years in it, and one of the lateſt that hath wrote of it, informs us, that Brazil is excellently well qualified for the producing of all things that are generally found to grow in the Weſt-Indies about the ſame climate, but, in his time, had neither mines of gold or ſilver worth taking notice of, at leaſt none ſuch had then been diſcovered there. However, with regard to the gold mines, we have been ſince informed, that they have found ſome conſiderable ones, from which they get plenty of that metal, and with much more eaſe than they do in thoſe of Peru, &c. (Rogers.) But the riches of this country, and, indeed, of all America, are thoſe of diamonds, ſo large and beautiful, that the king of Portugal hath forbid them to be digged, to prevent the exceſſive fall of the price of that ſo much valued commodity. Nieuhoff likewiſe extols the conveniency of it's ſituation for trade, and it's many noble rivers and commodious harbours for ſhipping: to which he adds, that though it be under a very hot climate, viz. between the line and the tropic, yet it's exceſſive heat is greatly allayed by the eaſt winds from the ocean; which, being interrupted by neither iſlands nor mountains, blow ſo full and pleaſant upon it, that it is altogether healthy and delightful, and free from thoſe diſtempers which commonly rage in countries of the ſame latitude, as in Guinea, Angola, &c. where thoſe ſea-breezes have not the ſame free paſſage. The plague is a thing unknown in Brazil, though the inhabitants are not free from ſome putrid fevers, occaſioned by the heat and moiſtneſs of the air, as well as by the exceſſive uſe of fruit. Sugar and tobacco are their principal commodities; and theſe they have in great plenty, and are inferior to none in quality, more eſpecially their tobacco, if kept 'till it be old; for, when too new, it is ſtrong and intoxicating: and this is, perhaps, the reaſon why the commerce of it is here ſo inconſiderable, except in ſnuff, to what it is in other parts of America. Other commodities of this country are, ambergreaſe in ſmall quantities, roſin, train-oil, ſweetmeats in great abundance, hides, ginger, indigo, and eſpecially the moſt excellent balſam, called capayva, beſides the vaſt quantities of Brazil-wood, which is every where known by that name.

The chief commerce of the Portugueze conſiſts in that from Europe to their Brazil colonies; which, ſince the Dutch quitted them in 1654, their trade thither is ſo ſurpriſingly increaſed and improved, and they are become ſo ſtrong and populous there, eſpecially ſince their diſcovery of the gold mines, that they have advanced their commerce to more than twenty times the value of what it was in thoſe days.

This increaſe of their trade adds a very great increaſe to the wealth, and conſequently to the ſtrength of their government, as well as to that of their private merchants; for it has been eſtimated from a reaſonable computation, that the revenue of the king is ſo advanced by this trade, that it does not amount to leſs than two millions ſterling annually in gold, beſides the cuſtoms of the merchandizes imported from thence. As the return is thus enlarged from the Brazils, eſpecially in gold; ſo the export of all ſorts of manufactures from Europe is encreaſed to ſuch a degree, as is not eaſy to ſay, and which is chiefly occaſioned by the exceſſive confluence of people to thoſe colonies, as well from other countries as from Portugal.

The principal exportation of European goods to the Brazils, are as follow, viz.

Woollen manufactures of Great-Britain, ſuch as

Fine broad medley cloths.

Spaniſh cloths, dyed ſcarlet, crimſon and black.

Serges and duroys, druggets and ſagathies.
Shalloons and camblets.
Norwich ſtuffs.
Colcheſter bays dyed black.
Sayes and perpetuana's, called long ells.
Hats, ſtockings, and gloves.
Linnen manufactures of Holland, Germany, and France, eſpecially fine hollands, bone-lace, and fine thread.
Silk manufactures, from France and Genoa.
Paper alſo from both, &c.
Likewiſe lead, iron, block-tin; copper and braſs from England, wrought and unwrought, but eſpecially of the wrought iron, braſs, and pewter, a very great quantity as well as variety.

Theſe exportations exceedingly add to the trade of Portugal for the Brazils, and increaſe that trade ſo much, that whereas twelve ſhips a year from thence were uſually the bulk of their commerce, they now receive three fleets; that is to ſay, from three particular ports, and theſe ſometimes twice a year: ſo that their commerce thither, at preſent, generally employs above 100 ſail of ſhips a year.

This will be allowed, we may ſuppoſe, a conſiderable ſign of the increaſe of the commerce of the country.

But to this may be added, the increaſe of the returns from the Brazils: which, though they are ſtill confined to the ſame chief articles as formerly, namely, ſugar, hides, tobacco, and Brazil wood, are yet ſo increaſed in quantity, that they have near four times as much of thoſe goods brought from thence every year as they uſually had.

This advance of the Portugal trade, by means of their Brazil colonies, has improved their ſhipping, increaſed the numbers of their ſeamen, and not a little the credit of their whole country.

The ſhips for the Brazils, being under the orders of the government, have their ſeaſons of going out appointed them, and are obliged to go in fleets; nor can any ſhip go ſingle, or at any other time than with the fleets, but by a ſpecial licence from the king, and that is very rarely granted. The ſeaſons for their going are thus,

The fleet for Rio de Janeiro goes out in January.
For Bahia, or the bay of All Saints, in February.
For Femembuque in March.

The Portugueze having various conſiderable ſettlements in Africa, they carry from thence every year a very great number of ſlaves to the Brazils; and, as their colony there is exceeding great and populous, as well as rich, were it not that they have ſuch extended ſettlements on that coaſt for the ſupply of negroes, it is thought by ſome that they would not be able to carry on their ſugar works, their mines, and other planting buſineſs in the Brazils, where the ſlaves are not long-lived. See AMERICA and PORTUGAL.

BRAZIL WOOD, thus called, becauſe it came at firſt from Brazil, a province in South America.

It is differently ſurnamed, according to the ſeveral places from which it is imported: thus there is the Brazil wood of Fernambuco, or Pernambuco, the Brazil wood of Japan, that of Lamon, that of Santa Martha, and laſtly the Braſillet, which is eſteemed the worſt. This laſt comes from the Antilles iſlands.

The Brazil wood of Japan is otherwiſe called Sapan: there is the large one and the ſmall one: the large is ſimply called Sapan, and the ſmall Sapan bimaës.

The tree of the Brazil wood grows commonly in dry barren places, among rocks. It becomes very thick and tall, and puſhes out long branches, whoſe twigs are furniſhed with a vaſt quantity of ſmall leaves, half round, of a fine bright green, pretty much like thoſe of box, but longer, hard, dry, and brittle. It's trunk is ſeldom ſtraight, but crooked and knotty, almoſt like the hawthorn. There comes twice a year, at the extremity of the branches, and between the leaves, ſmall bunches of flowers, which are ſomewhat long, pretty, much like thoſe of the lily of the valley, of a bright red, and an agreeable aromatic ſmell, very comfortable to the brain, which it ſtrengthens: theſe are ſucceeded by a flat red fruit, which contains two ſmall flat ſeeds, of a moſt lively red; theſe ſeeds are a kind of almonds, of the form of a pumpkin ſeed.

Though the trunk of this tree be very thick, yet it is covered with ſo groſs a bark, that, when the ſavages have taken it off from the wood, a trunk, which before was as thick as a man's body, remains, as it were, a log not bigger than his leg.

The Brazil wood is very heavy, very dry, and very hard; it crackles very much in the fire, and emits hardly any ſmoke, becauſe of its exceſſive dryneſs.

None of thoſe different ſorts of Brazil woods have any pith, except that of Japan: that of Fernambuco is reckoned the beſt. It muſt be choſen in thick pieces or logs, heavy, compact, very ſound, without any part of inner bark upon it, and without the leaſt rottenneſs, and ſuch, as after ſplitting it, from pale becomes reddiſh; and that, being chewed, it has a ſweetiſh taſte, like ſugar.

This wood is proper for turners work, and takes a good poliſh: but it's chief uſe is for dyeing, where it ſerves for a red colour. However, by the regulations made in France, the dyers of rich and valuable ſtuffs are forbidden to uſe it, becauſe it yields but a ſpurious colour, which fades very ſoon. Yet the dyers of inferior ſtuffs are ſuffered to uſe it, though it be ſubject to very great inconveniencies.

From the Brazil wood of Fernambuco, they extract, by means of acids, a kind of carmine: they alſo make of it a liquid lacca for painting in miniature. And, with a tincture of this wood often repeated, they make that reddiſh chalk, which is called roſetta; but it is nothing but the white of Roan, to which the Brazil wood gives the colour of an amaranthus.

Some pretend that a decoction of this wood, that is to ſay, of the heart is good for pains in the ſtomach, that it ſtrengthens it, and that it is even uſed with good ſucceſs in ſome agues. See Voyages du Chevalier des Marchais, Tom, I. p. 91.

BREAD, a baked maſs of dough, which is a conſtant part of man's food.

Though the maſter-bakers of Paris, knead, bake, and ſell bread to the inhabitants of that great city, yet the bakers of the ſmall towns and villages have liberty to carry their bread thither, and expoſe it to ſale on the fixed market-days, which are Wedneſdays and Saturdays in every week. The bakers in the city and thoſe of the ſuburbs, who were formerly two diſtinct companies, have been united into one under the reign of Lewis XIV, by an edict given in Auguſt, 1711. See BAKERS.

The corn which is moſt commonly uſed in Europe, to make the flour of which bread is made, is wheat, rye, and meſling, meſcelin, or maſlin, which is a mixture of both. In a great ſcarcity of wheat, poor people make bread with oats or barley. Buck-wheat is alſo pretty much uſed in ſome provinces in France.

In ſeveral parts of Aſia, Africa, and America, they make bread of maize flour; beſide which, they have in America the caſſave, the root of which is a rank poiſon; but it's ſubſtance, being dried and ſcraped, makes a pretty delicate and nouriſhing bread.

The ſeveral ſorts of meal with which the bakers of Paris make their bread, are the pure flour of meal for ſoft bread; the white meal, next after the flour for white bread; the remains of the firſt bolting, mixed with what we have called the white meal, for white houſhold bread; the laſt bolting of the bran, mixed with the two laſt mentioned ſorts, for brown bread: and, when corn and flour are very ſcarce, they make houſhold bread with the meal of bran ſent a third time to the mill. Some get bran to be ground in the mill to make rolls, becauſe it riſes better than flour, but it does not make ſuch good rolls by far.

The bakers of Paris, as well as the country bakers, who carry their bread thither to market on Wedneſdays and Saturdays, are obliged to mark the loaves on the upper part, that the citizens who buy them may know how much they weigh. In order to make the weight exact, a certain proportion muſt be obſerved between the dough before it is ſet to the oven, and the bread when it is baked, becauſe of the diminution occaſioned by the baking, which is always proportionably greater in ſmall loaves than in large ones.

The large loaves, expoſed to ſale in the market at Paris, do commonly weigh 12 pounds, and the ſmall ones two pounds. The proportion between the raw dough and the baked loaves, as they come out of the oven, from the loaves of twelve pounds to thoſe of two, is as follows: one pound for loaves of twelve; three quarters of a pound for thoſe of ten and eight pounds; half a pound for thoſe of ſix and of five pounds; and a quarter of a pound for thoſe of three and of two pounds.

They alſo make loaves of nine, ſeven, and four pounds, the diminution of which is regulated at the rate of thoſe to which they come neareſt.

The defects or faults of bread, according to the regulations, are, to be ſlack, or over baked, dry, or hard.

The ſtatutes in England relating to bread are,

8 Ann. c. 18. The lord mayor of London, mayor, &c. of any city, &c. or two juſtices, where there ſhall be no ſuch magiſtrates, ſhall ſet the aſſize and weight of bread. Every baker to ſet a mark on his bread. Bread, wanting in weight or goodneſs, to be diſtributed to the poor.

1 Geo. I. c. 26. And forfeiture of 5 s. per ounce for every ounce wanting weight, and 2 s. 6 d. for leſs than an ounce, on complaint within twenty-four after baked or expoſed to ſale within the bills of mortality, and within three days in other places.

The aſſize of bread for the city of London and bills of mortality (except Weſtminſter, Southwark, and the bills of mortality in Surry) to be ſet by the lord mayor and aldermen.

The ASSIZE of BREAD, in pounds, ounces, and drams, avoirdupois. In the firſt column is the price of the buſhel of wheat, from 2 s. to 15 s. the allowance for baking included; and in the other columns the weight of the loaves. Note, The white loaves are one half, and the wheaten three quarters of the weight of houſhold loaves.

The price of the buſhel of wheat.		SMALL BREAD.											
		The penny loaf.						Two-penny loaf.					
		White.		Wheat.		Houſh.		White		Wheaten.		Houſhold.	
s.	d.	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.	Drams.	Ounces.	Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.
2	0	23	3	34	12	46	5	2	14 5	4	5 8	5	12 11
2	3	20	10	30	14	41	3	2	9 3	3	13 13	5	2 6
2	6	18	9	27	13	37	1	2	5 1	3	7 10	4	10 2
2	9	16	14	25	4	33	11	2	1 11	3	2 9	4	3 7
3	0	15	7	23	3	30	14	1	14 14	2	14 5	3	13 13
3	3	14	4	21	6	28	8	1	12 8	2	10 12	3	9 1
3	6	13	4	19	14	26	8	1	10 8	2	7 12	3	4 15
3	9	12	6	18	9	24	11	1	8 11	2	5 1	3	1 7
4	0	11	9	17	6	23	3	1	7 3	2	2 12	2	14 5
4	3	10	14	16	6	21	13	1	5 13	2	0 11	2	11 10
4	6	10	5	15	7	20	10	1	4 10	1	14 14	2	9 3
4	9	9	12	14	10	19	8	1	3 8	1	13 4	2	7 0
5	0	9	4	13	14	18	9	1	2 9	1	11 13	2	5 1
5	3	8	13	13	4	17	10	1	1 10	1	10 8	2	3 5
5	6	8	7	12	10	16	14	1	0 14	1	9 4	2	1 11
5	9	8	1	12	1	16	2	1	0 2	1	8 3	2	0 4
6	0	7	12	11	9	15	7	0	15 7	1	7 3	1	14 14
6	3	7	7	11	2	14	13	0	14 13	1	6 4	1	13 11
6	6	7	2	10	11	14	4	0	14 4	1	5 6	1	12 8
6	9	6	14	10	5	13	12	0	13 12	1	4 10	1	11 7
7	0	6	10	9	15	13	4	0	13 4	1	3 14	1	10 8
7	3	6	6	9	9	12	13	0	12 13	1	3 3	1	9 9
7	6	6	3	9	4	12	6	0	12 6	1	2 9	1	8 11
7	9	6	0	9	0	11	15	0	11 15	1	1 15	1	7 15
8	0	5	13	8	11	11	9	0	11 9	1	1 6	1	7 3
8	3	5	10	8	7	11	4	0	11 4	1	0 14	1	6 8
8	6	5	7	8	3	10	14	0	10 14	1	0 6	1	5 13
8	9	5	5	7	15	10	9	0	10 9	0	15 14	1	5 3
9	0	5	2	7	12	10	5	0	10 5	0	15 7	1	4 10
9	3	5	0	7	8	10	0	0	10 0	0	15 0	1	4 1
9	6	4	14	7	5	9	12	0	9 12	0	14 10	1	3 8
9	9	4	12	7	2	9	8	0	9 8	0	14 4	1	3 0
10	0	4	10	6	15	9	4	0	9 4	0	13 14	1	2 9
10	3	4	8	6	13	9	1	0	9 1	0	13 9	1	2 1
10	6	4	7	6	10	8	13	0	8 13	0	13 4	1	1 10
10	9	4	5	6	7	8	10	0	8 10	0	12 15	1	1 4
11	0	4	3	6	5	8	7	0	8 7	0	12 10	1	0 14
11	3	4	2	6	3	8	4	0	8 4	0	12 6	1	0 8
11	6	4	0	6	1	8	1	0	8 1	0	12 1	1	0 2
11	9	3	15	5	15	7	14	0	7 14	0	11 13	0	15 12
12	0	3	14	5	13	7	12	0	7 12	0	11 9	0	15 8
12	3	3	13	5	11	7	9	0	7 9	0	11 6	0	15 2
12	6	3	11	5	9	7	7	0	7 7	0	11 2	0	14 13
12	9	3	10	5	7	7	4	0	7 4	0	10 14	0	14 9
13	0	3	9	5	6	7	2	0	7 2	0	10 11	0	14 4
13	3	3	8	5	4	7	0	0	7 0	0	10 8	0	14 0
13	6	3	7	5	2	6	14	0	6 14	0	10 5	0	13 12
13	9	3	6	5	1	6	12	0	6 12	0	10 2	0	13 8
14	0	3	5	4	15	6	10	0	6 10	0	9 15	0	13 4
14	3	3	4	4	14	6	8	0	6 8	0	9 12	0	13 0
14	6	3	3	4	13	6	6	0	6 6	0	9 9	0	12 13
14	9	3	2	4	11	6	5	0	6 5	0	9 7	0	12 9
15	0	3	1	4	10	6	3	0	6 3	0	9 4	0	12 6

The price of the buſhel of wheat.		LARGER BREAD.											
		Six-penny loaf.				12 Penny loaf.				18 Penny loaf.			
		Wheaten.		Houſhold.		Wheaten.		Houſhold.		Wheaten.		Houſhold.	
s.	d.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.	Pounds.	Ounces. Drams.
2	0	13	0 9	17	6 1	26	1 2	34	12 2	39	1 10	52	2 3
2	3	11	9 6	15	7 3	23	2 12	30	14 5	34	12 2	45	5 8
2	6	10	6 13	13	14 7	20	13 11	27	12 14	31	4 8	41	11 6
2	9	9	7 11	12	10 4	18	15 5	25	4 7	28	7 0	37	14 11
3	0	8	11 0	11	9 6	17	6 1	23	2 12	26	1 1	34	12 2
3	3	8	0 5	10	11 2	16	0 11	21	6 4	24	1 0	32	1 6
3	6	7	7 3	9	14 14	14	14 5	19	13 13	22	5 8	29	2 11
3	9	6	15 4	9	4 5	13	14 7	18	8 10	20	13 11	27	12 14
4	0	6	8 4	8	11 0	13	0 9	17	6 1	19	6 13	26	1 1
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13	0	2	0 1	2	10 12	4	0 3	5	5 9	6	0 4	8	0 5
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14	3	1	13 4	2	7 0	3	10 9	4	14 1	5	7 13	7	5 1
14	6	1	12 12	2	6 6	3	9 8	4	12 11	5	6 5	7	3 1
14	9	1	12 4	2	5 11	3	8 9	4	11 7	5	4 13	7	1 2
15	0	1	11 13	2	5 1	3	7 10	4	10 2	5	3 7	6	15 4

BREAD-ROOM, a ſea term. It is a place contrived in a ſhip's hold, generally towards the ſtern, boarded about, and plaiſtered over to keep the bread or biſket. The boards muſt be well joined and caulked, and even lined with tin-plates, or mats. Before the bread or biſket is put into them, they muſt be well warmed with charcoal during ſix days and ſix nights, that the bread and biſket may be kept very dry, nothing being more injurious to them than moiſture is, wherefore care muſt alſo be taken not to put them on board, but in clear dry weather. There are alſo ſuch rooms for powder, and ſometimes for cheeſe, eſpecially in Dutch ſhips.

The bakers of ſea-biſket do alſo, eſpecially among the French, give the name of bread-room (ſoutte) to a kind of ſtore-room, built with bricks or ſtone, and lined with boards, where they put the biſket to dry, after it is taken out of the oven. They build them generally over the ovens. See BISKET-BAKING.

BREAKING, in a mercantile ſtile, ſignifies the not paying one's bills of exchange accepted, or other promiſſory notes, when due; and abſconding to avoid the ſeverity of one's creditors. See BANKRUPTCY. We alſo uſe the word Failing in the ſame ſenſe.

BREAKING BULK, a ſea term, which ſignifies beginning to unlade a ſhip's cargo.

BREADTH, the extent which linnen or woollen cloth, or any other ſtuff, ought to have between the two ſelvages or liſts.

The breadth which the gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs ought to have, according to three regulations made in France in the year 1667, for the cities of Paris, Lyons, and Tours.

Velvets of all ſorts, either plain, wrought, ſhorn, cut, drawn, figured, twiſted, middling, or ſmall, as well as the ſeveral kinds of pluſh, ought to have $\frac{11}{24}$ in breadth; that is to ſay, half an ell broad, wanting one twenty-fourth part of an ell.

Fine gold and ſilver cloths, brocadoes, ſattins, damaſks, flowered tabbies, ſilver tiſſues, both plain and figured, ought alſo to be half an ell broad, wanting one twenty-fourth, as well as all wrought ſilks without gold or ſilver, as plain damaſks, Lucca's, Venetians, and all plain ſattins, what names ſoever they may go under.

Plain taffeties and tabbies, both ſtrong and weak, and of all colours, and black luſtrings, may be either half an ell broad, wanting one twenty-fourth, or full half-ell, or half an ell and half a quarter; they may even extend to above five eighths: which ought alſo to be underſtood of taffeties figured in the warp, or ſtriped lengthways or croſs-ways, ſpotted, differently coloured, and of figured tabbies.

The filatrices and poplines, whoſe woof is of ferret, both plain and wrought, ought to be half-ell, or half-ell and half a quarter.

All the ſtuffs mixed with goat's-hair, wool, thread, and cotton, &c. ought at leaſt to be half an ell broad, wanting one

ſixteenth, or full half-ell, or half ell and one ſixteenth: ſuch are Egyptians, China ſattins, camblettines, Modena's, ſattins of Bruges, legatines, ſerges, dauphines, ſtamines of Lude, brocatella's, linnens for waiſtcoats, ſilk ſcarfs, oſtades, half-oſtades, dimitty, fuſtians, &c.

Plain mohairs, burales, ferandines, &c. both plain and wrought, whoſe woof is of wool, hair, thread, &c. are of four different breadths, viz. a quarter and a half, half ell wanting one ſixteenth, full half-ell, and half-ell and one ſixteenth.

Thin ſlight ſilks, gauzes, ſtamines, crapaudailles, priſonnieres, and ſuch like ſtuffs, as likewiſe fine crapes, either frizzled or ſmooth, and coarſe crapes, are made according to their uſual breadth, which are not ſet down in the regulations, but may be ſeen under the ſeveral articles of all thoſe ſtuffs, in their alphabetical order.

The breadths of all ſtuffs is determined by the breadth of the ſtay of the loom on which they are wove, and by the number of threads in the warp. All theſe things are explained in the articles where each particular ſtuff is mentioned.

BREADTH of Linnen Cloths. The linnen cloths made at Laval are of four different breadth, called by the French the great breadth, the high, or middling breadth, the common breadth, and the ſmall breadth. The reader will ſee, in the following regulations, how much every breadth ought to meaſure.

Regulations concerning the breadth of the linnen cloths manufactured in the city and viſcounty of Laval, made in 1683, article 13.

Linnens of Laval, deſigned for trade, ought to have one of the following breadths, meaſured by the ell of that city.

1. The linnens called of the great breadth ought to be $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, one inch and an half broad, coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may be exactly $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, amounting to $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch, and 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ lines, Paris meaſure.

2. Thoſe called of the high, or middling breadth, $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, and 4 lines coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may be $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell and one inch broad, amounting to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, 3 inches, 2 lines, and $\frac{2}{3}$ of a line, Paris meaſure.

3. Thoſe of the common breadth, $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell wanting an inch, coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may be $\frac{1}{2}$ and half a quarter in breadth, amounting exactly to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an ell, Paris meaſure.

4. Thoſe of the ſmalleſt breadth muſt be half an ell broad, coming from the loom, that, when bleached, they may have half an ell, wanting 9 lines, amounting to half an ell and one twelfth, Paris meaſure.

Note, The Paris ell contains 3 feet, 7 inches, and 8 lines, of their meaſure; the foot they divide, as we do, into 12 inches; but the inch they ſubdivide into 12 parts, which they call lines (lignes).

The breadth of ſtuffs, and of all that is wove on the loom, and is meaſured by the ell, the yard, &c. is taken between the liſts, or the ſelvages; and that which is contained between them is called the breadth.

The price of ſtuffs is in proportion to their nature and quality, and increaſes or decreaſes according to their breadth.

There are in France a great many regulations, which determine the breadth of all ſorts of ſtuffs, either of gold, ſilver, ſilk, wool, thread, &c. the chief of which regulations are thoſe of the year 1669: we mention in another place both that, and all thoſe that have been made ſince.

We uſe the word breadth to ſignify, in ſome ſenſe, the quantity requiſite of any ſtuff to make the width of a garment: thus we ſay, there muſt be five breadths of callimanco to make that petticoat.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, in Wales, is bounded with Radnorſhire on the north, from which it is divided by the river Wye; Herefordſhire on the eaſt; Monmouthſhire on the ſouth-eaſt; Glamorganſhire on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt; Caermarthenſhire, and part of Cardiganſhire, on the weſt. Hence are ſent great herds of cattle every year to England, from the mountains.

BRECKNOCK, a borough town, ſituate on the river Uſk, has ſome ſhare in the woollen manufacture.

BEALT has a conſiderable manufacture of ſtockings.

BREMEN. The dutchy of Bremen has the Weſer on the weſt; the Elbe, and part of Lunenburg, on the eaſt; the German ſea on the north; and part of Verden and Oldenburg on the ſouth. The ſituation of this country between the two navigable rivers, the Elbe and Weſer, has turned the thoughts of the people in general to trade. This country, with Verden, which was conquered by the king of Denmark in 1712, and then taken from the Swedes, was mortgaged to the Elector of Hanover, our late king, who, in 1715, had 250,000 l. granted him by his parliament, to enable him to make a purchaſe of it. There was a great oppoſition made to this in both houſes, and a clamour raiſed without doors. The legiſlature wiſely judged it might be of dangerous conſequence to the crown of Great-Britain, that any foreign prince, eſpecially a maritime power, ſhould hold the key, which the king of Denmark then had, of the Elbe and the Weſer. Any one who takes the pains to peruſe the maps of this part of the empire, will perceive that, whilſt that king was in the poſſeſſion of Bremen and Verden, he was maſter of the ſea-coaſt from Denmark almoſt to the Seven Provinces. The maps ſhew that the Elbe runs for above 500 miles, through Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the reſt of Germany; and that the Weſer paſſes, for about 250 miles, through Heſſia, Weſtphalia, Oldenburg, and ſome other countries of the empire: and the vaſt importance of thoſe rivers to our trade will be confeſſed by every one who conſiders that all our woollen, and other Engliſh manufactures, and almoſt all our commodities, both domeſtic and foreign, to the value of many hundred thouſand pounds a year, are, by thoſe ſtreams, conveyed to innumerable markets; and that, by the ſame navigation, a great part of our riches flows continually home to us; a trade too precious to have lain at the mercy of any foreigner, either to lock it up from us, or to lay what impoſitions he pleaſed on it, as might have been the caſe, if his late majeſty had not got Bremen and Verden out of the hands of the king of Denmark.

BOXTEHUDE, ſituate in a pleaſant country, is ſo fruitful as to be reckoned one of the granaries of Hamburgh.

STADE has a good trade; and, beſides it's having been a free imperial city, and one of the Hans-Towns, was formerly endowed with great privileges, particularly with a right of toll for ſhips paſſing up the Elbe; but became ſo poor by Hamburgh's outſtripping it, that it was forced to ſell it's ſtock to that city. After it's abovementioned decay, our Engliſh merchants, upon ſome diſguſt taken at Hamburgh, removed hither, which revived it's trade, ſo that it again became rich and populous, and is in good condition at preſent, though the Engliſh returned to Hamburgh. Here is a large and commodious haven, that will admit larger ſhips than Hamburgh; and, as it ſtands fairer for trade than Bremen, and 30 miles nearer the ſea, it is thought ſtrange that it has not more engaged the attention of the miniſters of the electorate.

At the mouth of the Schwing is BRUNSHUSEN, a fort where our king has a conſiderable toll, all the ſhips, except the Hamburghers, that come up the Elbe out of ſea, being obliged to ſtop here, and give an account of their lading; for which, when they come to Hamburgh, they muſt pay a certain duty to a comptroller, placed there by the government of Hanover: and an Engliſh man of war, of 24 guns, rides at anchor on the Elbe, at the entrance into the Schwing, in order to oblige them to bring to; which veſſel is of great ſervice alſo to the Engliſh trade and navigation in thoſe parts, for preventing clandeſtine practices, and preſerving the rights and freedom of our commerce.

The chief trade of BREMERFURD is by paſſengers between Stade and Bremen.

RITZBUTTLE is a bailiwick belonging to the Hamburghers. Here they have a pretty good harbour, called Cuxhaven, which is of great benefit to ſhips coming on the Elbe in the winter, when the river is full of ice. Here, likewiſe, their ſhips often ſtop, at their arrival from long voyages, for orders and news, and to know whether all is well with the city, before they venture up. Here are their privileged pilots, who, by their ſtatutes, are obliged to have a yacht always at ſea, near the outermoſt buoy, ready to put a pilot or two, as occaſion ſhall require, on board of every ſhip coming into the Elbe. But, notwithſtanding this is one of the moſt dangerous rivers in Europe to come into, as all the ſhips coming to Hamburgh are obliged to pay half-pilotage, whether they have pilots on board or not, they are ſeldom at ſea but in good weather, when they are leaſt wanted, which has occaſioned the loſs of many a rich ſhip within the river.

BREMEN is a great, populous, and flouriſhing town, a free imperial city, and the third in rank among the Hans. It had ſeveral privileges granted it by the emperor Wenceſlaus, one of which was, that no goods were allowed to go down this river and paſs this city, without being firſt landed here. The inhabitants have the privilege, alſo, of fiſhing from the bridge of Hoy, four German miles above Bremen, down to the ſea; as likewiſe in the rivers Hunte, Ochtum, Wemme, and Seeſum, which flow into the Weſer. The city is well ſupplied with fiſh, both from it's rivers and the ſea, and they have every month ſeveral ſorts in ſeaſon. Among others they catch great quantities of ſalmon and lampreys, the former of which, being dried and ſmoked, and the latter pickled, are in great eſteem throughout all Germany. Charles V. gave them the right of coinage. The river Weſer, which is navigable about 30 miles from the ſea, runs through it; but the river is not navigable for ſhips of burden farther than Fegeſack, ſix miles below the town, where is a cuſtom houſe, and where all ſhips which come out of the ſea, or are outward bound, load and unload: nor does this river ebb or flow farther; ſo that all goods are brought up from thence in flat-bottomed veſſels. It has a conſiderable trade to England, eſpecially with all ſorts of Weſtphalian linnens, and ſends ſeveral ſhips, particularly to London, every year; here being a great conſumption of the Engliſh woollen manufacture, which

they

they receive not only directly from England, but chiefly by way of Hamburgh and Holland, and diſperſe again through the whole circle of Weſtphalia. It ſends ſhips likewiſe to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, and a good number to Davis's Streights. It has alſo a conſiderable inland trade, particularly to the great fairs and marts in Germany, to which, among other goods, it ſends large quantities of callicoes and ſugar, printed and refined here, though not to that perfection as at Hamburgh. It's beer is very much eſteemed in Germany, and therefore exported in large quantities. It's other commodities are, minerals, timber, corn, cattle, and leather, in dreſſing of which, and cloth, they are very expert; ſo that both are ſent hither for that purpoſe from other countries.

REMARKS.

Its duties upon importation and exportation are very low, which is a great encouragement to it's trade, and gives BREMEN an advantage over the Dutch in the countries between this city and their republic. It is reckoned, in ſhort, the next port to Hamburgh in the whole empire for commerce; and, in time of war, it alſo fits out ſhips of force, to convoy their merchantmen. It generally ſends 25 or 30 ſhips a year to the whale-fiſhery in Greenland; and their harponiers, being eſteemed the moſt expert in all the country, are frequently hired, both by the Dutch and Engliſh. In fine, it cannot but be a very flouriſhing city, after having enjoyed a perfect neutrality during ſeveral wars, between the northern, and other, powers of Europe. Here is a council of trade. See the article GERMANY.

BRENTA, a liquid meaſure uſed at Rome; it contains 96 boccale's, or 13 rubbia's and a half.

BREWER, he who makes beer, and ſells it by wholeſale.

The company of the maſter-brewers of the city and ſuburbs of Paris is very ancient, being one of the firſt that were erected into a corporation, and to whom the provoſt of Paris gave ſtatutes.

The ſtatutes of 1268, drawn up, or approved, by Stephen Boileau, who was then inveſted with that office, have been the model, or ground-work, of all thoſe that have been made ſince; and, though there be ſome difference with regard to the number of jurats, and to the years of apprenticeſhip, they are, nevertheleſs, the ſame in ſubſtance, there being hardly any alteration but what the difference of the times, the language, and the cuſtoms, are uſed to occaſion in regulations of that nature.

Theſe firſt ſtatutes, wherein the freemen of the company are called cervoiſier, from the word cervoiſe (cereviſia) as the French then called beer, conſiſt but of eight articles; we ſhall mention but the ſecond only, that we may avoid repetitions when we come to give an account of the ſtatutes eſtabliſhed by Lewis XIII, which the company is ſtill governed by.

No brewer ſhall make beer except with hops and grain; that is to ſay, barley, or a mixture of barley, rye, and oats: and, if he uſes any other ingredients, ſuch as laurel-berries, long-pepper, or reſin, he ſhall be fined to the king in 20 ſols Pariſis; all the liquor brewed with ſuch ingredients ſhall be given to the poor.

James Deſtoiville, alſo provoſt of Paris, did, on the 6th of October, 1489, draw up a new ſet of ſtatutes for the company of brewers. They conſiſt of 15 articles; the abuſes which began to creep into the brewer's buſineſs requiring greater precautions than were formerly needful.

By theſe ſtatutes the time of the apprenticeſhip, and the maſter-piece of the trade, were ſettled, which were not mentioned in the former ſtatutes.

A third ſet of ſtatutes, but approved and confirmed by letters-patent, was given in May 1514, by Lewis XII. They contain 17 articles, which differ but little from thoſe of 1489. The maſter-brewers obtained the confirmation of them under the following reigns, in 1556, 1567, 1580, and 1606. Laſtly, under the reign of Lewis XIII, were drawn up the ſtatutes whereby the company is governed at preſent, which, having been referred to the officers of the Chatelet, were, agreeably to their opinion, approved, ratified, and confirmed, by letters-patents granted in February, 1630.

Four years before this, the ſame king had iſſued out an edict, in the form of a regulation, for the brewing and ſelling of beer throughout all the cities and boroughs of the kingdom: but the 10 articles of this regulation related rather to the new creation of viſitor-comptrollers of beer erected in the year 1625, than to the diſcipline or government of the company of brewers: for which reaſon they were neither rehearſed, nor referred to in the letters-patents granted for the confirmation of the ſtatutes of 1630.

By theſe laſt ſtatutes, which are reduced to 18 articles, three jurats, or wardens, are eſtabliſhed, two of whom muſt be changed every other year, and two others choſen in their ſtead, by a majority of votes, the next day after the feſtival of St Leonard, who is the company's patron. Theſe jurats are to make ſearch at the maſters and retailers, both of the hops and of the yeaſt, brought by foreign merchants; to watch for the preſervation of the company's priviſeges, and take care that their ſtatutes be put in execution; to admit apprentices, and preſcribe the maſter-piece to thoſe who would become freemen; and manage the company's ſtock, and all their concerns.

The time of the apprenticeſhip is fixed at five full years, without any interruption, and the ſervice at the maſter's, after their time is out, to three years, as journeymen, after which they can be made free, making their maſter-piece.

No freeman can have above one apprentice at a time, during the five years: nevertheleſs, when the laſt year of his firſt apprentice is begun, he may take another.

No man can turn over his apprentice to another, unleſs it be for a reaſonable cauſe, and having firſt given notice of it to the jurats, and obtained their leave.

None can be made free without undergoing an apprenticeſhip, except a freeman's ſon; but yet a freeman's ſon muſt perform the maſter-piece, and pay the company's fees, as well as any other apprentice.

The maſter-piece, which muſt be performed in the preſence of the jurats, and of ſix ancient officers of the company, ſummoned for that purpoſe, conſiſts in making at leaſt 72 buſhels (the French ſay ſix ſeptiers) of grain into malt, or even more, if the candidate pleaſes, and brewing it into beer.

All maſters are forbidden to ſpirit away the apprentices, or ſervants of others; nor to employ the journeymen who leave their maſters before their times be out, except with the maſter's conſent.

Nor is any brewer allowed to take a partner, unleſs he be a freeman.

Every maſter is obliged to have his own particular mark, and to ſet it on every caſk, barrel, or other veſſel, in which he puts his beer, and to leave a print of it on the leaden table which is in the chamber of the king's attorney of the Chatelet, that, in caſe there be any treſpaſs againſt the ſtatutes of the company, or any beer ill brewed, one may know from what brewhouſe it came.

It is ordered that no beer ſhall be made but with good malt, well cured and ground, without mixing any tare, or buck-wheat, with it, nor any bad ingredient.

No maſter-brewer is allowed to brew above one copperful in a day, and only of 180 buſhels of malt at moſt; being forbidden to keep brewhouſes, and to have coppers larger than is neceſſary for the ſaid quantity of malt; both becauſe beer is not ſo good when kept (as the French think) and to the end that every brewer may have work, and get his livelihood by his trade.

Freemen's widows, as long as they continue ſuch, may keep a brewhouſe, and have journeymen, but may not take apprentices; however, they may continue to keep thoſe who were bound to their huſbands, and whoſe time is not yet out.

Cleanlineſs being very requiſite to make good beer, all brewers are forbidden to keep in their brewhouſes, or yards, any oxen, cows, hogs, ducks, geeſe, and other ſuch animals, which commonly occaſion a ſtench and infection.

All hawking of beer and of yeaſt is prohibited, both to thoſe who are not free, and to the freemen themſelves; the latter not being allowed to ſell beer but at their brewhouſes, or dwelling-houſes, nor can they ſell yeaſt to any perſons but to bakers and paſtry-cooks, who uſe it in their trades.

Finally, hard or ſolid yeaſt, or barm, brought by foreign traders, ſhall not be by them expoſed to ſale any where but in the brewers hall, nor ſold to any perſons except paſtry-cooks and bakers, and only after it has been ſeen and examined by the jurats.

Theſe ſtatutes were confirmed under the reign of Lewis XIV, in the month of September, 1686, by his letters-patents, regiſtered in the Parliament of Paris the 3d of May, 1687.

Several offices newly erected, and, among others, thoſe of jurats, regiſters, auditors of accounts, comptrollers to mark the books of merchants and of companies, wardens, and keepers of records, and ſuch like, having been, ſince 1691 to 1714, united with the company of brewers, upon their paying ſeveral fines into the king's Exchequer, the company obtained a new confirmation of their ſtatutes, with 10 new articles for the better governing their body, which were added to the old ones, by letters-patents dated the 29th of May, 1714, and regiſtered in the parliament the 18th of June following.

By the firſt of theſe articles, in order to prevent the frauds which might be committed by foreign hop-merchants, who come to Paris, the ſaid foreigners ſhall not, for the future, bring any hops thither without making an exact declaration of it to the jurats of the brewers company, upon pain of forfeiting the hops not declared, or not mentioned in their declaration.

By the ſecond article all maſter-brewers, and brewers widows, are forbidden to enter into partnerſhip with any perſons but freemen of the company, and to lend their names, either directly or indirectly, upon pain of paying a fine of 500 livres, and, for the maſters, and maſters widows, of loſing their freedom; and for ſtrangers, or perſons not being free, of forfeiting all the utenſils, hops, and other materials uſed in brewing.

By the third, the jurats are permitted to make, beſides the four cuſtomary viſitations, ſuch other viſitations, or ſearch, as they ſhall think proper, both at the houſes of the maſter-brewers, and at thoſe of the licenſed ſellers and retailers of beer,

beer, in order to prevent the frauds, and particularly the uſe of molaſſes, in the making of that drink; ordering the ſum of 10 ſols to be paid for each of the four viſitations, to be made at the houſes of ſuch ſellers of beer who do not belong to the company.

The fourth ſettles the fees to be be paid by thoſe who would take up their freedom, having the neceſſary qualifications required by the ſtatutes, to 1000 livres; and of thoſe who want thoſe qualifications, or have not ſerved out their whole time, to 2000 livres; and thoſe of freemens ſons, who were born before their fathers were free, to 400 livres. Ordering further, that there be paid to the company a fee of 150 livres for every apprentice's indenture, and 40 livres by every perſon who opens ſhop, or ſets up the buſineſs of a brewer: one half of which fees ſhall belong to the company, and the other half to the jurats: nor ſhall any perſon ſet up for himſelf before he has declared it to the jurats. His majeſty declares, nevertheleſs, that this augmentation of the fees ſhall continue no longer but 'till the full payment of the ſums and arrears borrowed, and due by virtue both of the ſaid edicts and of the foregoing, after which the ſaid fees ſhall be reduced, as they were before the edict of March 1691.

The fifth article forbids all licenſed ſellers of beer to have any apprentice, or journeyman, agreeably to the decree of the parliament of Paris, made the 23d of Auguſt, 1641, and to the declaration of the 30th of June, 1705, given in behalf of the weavers, upon pain of paying a fine of 300 livres.

The ſixth does likewiſe forbid all retailers of beer to ſell to the coopers, or to any other perſons, the caſks which the brewers have lent them: and commands them to return them, as ſoon as they are empty, under the penalty of a fine of 200 livres, to be paid both by the buyer and by the ſeller.

The ſeventh grants, to the maſter-brewers of the city and ſuburbs of Paris, the liberty to ſettle in any other city or place of the kingdom, without paying any fee for being admitted into a company of the ſame trade, by ſhewing only their letters of freedom.

Finally, it is ordered by the laſt article, that ſuch jurats, ancient officers, and freemen, who, without any lawful cauſe, ſhall be abſent from the meetings ſummoned after the uſual form, ſhall be obliged to pay 12 livres, for the profit of thoſe preſent; and that all that ſhall have been reſolved by thoſe who ſhall be preſent at ſuch meetings, provided their number be not leſs than 10, ſhall ſtand good, as if all the freemen had ſigned it.

There had been alſo erected, in February 1698, 40 offices of beer-taſters for the city of Paris, but they were again ſuppreſſed in March following, none of theſe offices having been ſold by the perſon who had farmed the produce of them.

Beſides all the articles contained in the old and new ſtatutes of the brewers company, there are ſome others to be met with in the ordonnance of aids of the year 1680, which they are obliged to obſerve, under the penalty of a fine to be paid by the offenders.

Thoſe articles are the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th, of the title of duties on beer.

By the firſt of theſe four articles the brewers are not allowed to uſe any tubs, coppers, or troughs, before they have been gauged by the farmer of the duties on beer, or by his clerk, and before the ſaid farmer has put his mark on all thoſe veſſels, under the penalty of forfeiting all the veſſels not gauged, or not marked, and the beer contained in them, and paying a fine of 100 livres.

By the ſecond, they are obliged, at each brewing, to give notice in writing to the clerks, of the day and hour when they kindle the fire under the coppers, and not to put their beer into barrels but in the day-time: namely, from the 1ſt of April to 1ſt of October, between 5 of the clock in the morning and 8 at night; and, from the 1ſt of October to the 1ſt of April, between 7 in the morning and 7 at night, under the ſame penalty.

The third article orders, that the barrels ſhall be marked immediately after they are filled, and that a regiſter ſhall be kept by the clerks of their number, and of what quantity of liquor each of them holds: nor ſhall the brewers ſuffer any caſk to be carried, or ſent away, before the marks be taken off by the clerks, under the penalty of forfeiting the ſame, and paying a fine of 500 livres.

Laſtly, by the fourth article it is left to the farmer's choice to cauſe the duty to be paid, either upon the number and capacity of the caſks into which the beer was put, without any deduction, or at the rate of the gauging of the coppers, deducting one fourth part, both of thoſe that have wooden brims, and thoſe that have none; nor ſhall thoſe brims be above four inches high.

BREWING, the proceſs, or method, of making thoſe liquors which we diſtinguiſh by the name of ales, or beers; the beſt ſubject for the operation whereof is eſteemed malt, whereon, as well as the ſkilful management of the operation of brewing, the good quality of the liquor produced, depends.

Wherefore, previouſly to the proceſs of brewing, it may be proper to give a ſhort account of the nature of malting (which, however, we ſhall do more fully under the article MALT) in order to have a full view of the whole together.

In order for brewing, the barley is firſt to be made into malt; which is done by putting it into a ciſtern full of water, wherein it may ſteep for a longer or leſs time, as the weather is more or leſs cold; two days and nights ſufficing in hot weather, and five or ſix in extremely cold: when ſufficiently ſteeped, the water is drained off, for 12 or 20 hours: being taken out, it is couched, or heaped up, into one or two heaps, and turned every five or ſix hours, the outermoſt part inwards, and the bottom upwards. As it comes, or ſprouts, it is ſpread thinner, to cool, and to prevent it's ſprouting too faſt: when come, it is ſpread very thin, and turned 10 or 12 times a day, 'till the ſprout is dead; after which it is again thickened on the floor, and turned as before directed, great care being taken that it neither mould nor become acro-ſpired, that is, that the blade don't grow out at the end oppoſite the root, or the malt come and ſprout at both ends. The preparation is finiſhed with drying it on a kiln, by ſpreading it on a hair-cloth, or a tin bottom, full of holes, over a briſk turf or charcoal fire, ſtirring and turning it from time to time. For further matter, ſee the article MALT.

To proceed to the operation of brewing itſelf: they boil a quantity of water, which is left to cool, 'till the height of the ſteam be over, and pouring enough of it upon the malt, in a maſhing tub, to wet the malt as ſtiff as it well can be rowed about; after ſtanding a quarter of an hour, another portion of water is added, and the rowing repeated: laſtly, the full quantity of water is added, according to the intended ſtrength of the beer, or ale. The whole, having ſtood two or three hours, is drawn off into a receiver, and freſh water thrown on for a ſecond wort; which is to be cooler, and to ſtand leſs time than the former. The two worts being mixed, and the hops added, the whole is put into a copper, well covered and cloſed, there to boil an hour or two. Which done, the liquor is let into a receiver, and the hops ſtrained therefrom: when cold, the yeaſt is added, and, after fermenting, or working, it remains to be tunned up.

For ſmall beer, there is commonly a third maſhing, with the water near cold, and left to ſtand near an hour, to be hopped and boiled at diſcretion. For double beer or ale, the two liquors, reſulting from the two firſt maſhings, muſt be uſed as liquor for a third maſhing of freſh malt. For fine ale, the liquor, thus brewed, is further prepared with molaſſes.

REMARKS.

Theſe operations, we find, depend on the duly preparing, curing, and fitting the vegetable ſubjects for the purpoſe intended. The management of vegetable productions is founded on the art of chymiſtry.

On regulating the growth, and curing of vegetables, depends the perfection of corn, malt, wines, bread, ſugar, tobacco, ſpice, drugs, ſimples, dyeing ſtuffs, and the like. And new diſcoveries, either in vegetation or curation, might eaſily introduce new trades; as has been the caſe in ſugar, tobacco, wines, ſpirits, &c.

By proper experiments in vegetation is ſhewn the method of regulating, or conducting this natural power for the ſervice of arts, by directing it to anſwer particular ends. Thus, by ſtopping ſhort towards the beginning of vegetation in barley, we procure malt; and by permitting the grapes to hang 'till they grow not only ripe, but almoſt dry, upon the vines, rich ſweet wines are produced. Thus vegetation may be ſtopped at any period, or continued longer than ordinary, according as the occaſions of different arts require.

By experiments of this kind, we would ſhew the method of collecting, preparing, and ſecuring vegetable commodities, ſo as that they may long remain ſound, perfect, and fit for ſervice.

The firſt experiment following, therefore, is calculated to ſhew the method of ſtopping the natural proceſs of vegetation in the ſeed, ſo as to prepare grain, pulſe, nuts, maſte, and roots, for the making of beer.

The ſecond tends to ſhew the method of curing vegetable juices by decoction, or inſpiſſation, for the ſervice of brewing and diſtilling. And the third and laſt experiment will ſhew the method of curing yeaſt, the flowers of wine, and wine-lees, for the ſervice not only of the art of brewing, but of ſeveral others, as we ſhall ſhew in their proper places.

Theſe experiments follow in order:

I. The method of ſtopping the natural proceſs of vegetation, with a view to malting; or the preparation of grain, ſeeds, pulſe, nuts, maſte, and roots, for the making of beers, vinegar, and ſpirits.

Garden beans, being ſuffered to lie in the ground about ſix weeks in the winter ſeaſon, were then plucked up and each bean was found to begin to be ſplit, or ſeparate into it's two lobes, whilſt the radicle was ſhot out ſome inches downwards, and had begun to take root in the ground; the plume, alſo, which becomes the ſtalk of the bean, was riſen to the height of two inches.

In this ſtate, a few of theſe beans were dried over a clear fire, and thus were found to be turned to a kind of bean-malt,

that tafted ſweetiſh, but mealy between the teeth, and diſſolved freely in warm water, ſo as to afford a wort, fit for fermenting, with yeaſt, into a kind of beer, or ale.

This experiment inſtructs us in the ordinary proceſs of malting; which, in the caſe of barley, we have ſeen, is conformable hereto, and in the caſe of malting Indian corn, as we ſhall ſee preſently in the proceſs itſelf *.

* See alſo ſome experiments to this purpoſe in the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

In the general proceſs of malting, with reſpect to the barley, every maltſter pretends to have his ſecret, or particular way, of management. But, to render the operation perfect, the following cautions muſt be obſerved. (1.) That the barley be newly threſhed, or at leaſt newly winnowed. (2.) That it be not mixed, or made up of different ſorts. (3.) That it be not over-ſteeped in the ciſtern, or ſo long as to make it ſoft. (4.) That it be well drained. (5.) That it be carefully looked after, when couched, ſo as to ſtop the firſt tendency of the blade to ſhooting. (6.) Another caution is to turn the wet couch inſide outermoſt, if the barley comes, that is, ſhoots more in the middle than on the ſides. (7.) To keep it duly turning after it is out of the wet-couch. (8.) To give it the proper heating in the dry heap. (9.) To dry and criſp it thoroughly upon the kiln, but without a fierce fire; ſo as to be ſeveral days in drying a kiln of pale malt. And, if theſe directions be carefully obſerved, the malt will always be good.

The method of malting Indian corn, or Virginia wheat, is much leſs laborious: for, if this corn be buried two or three inches deep in the earth, and covered with the looſe mould dug up to make room for it, in 10 or 12 days time the corn will ſprout, and appear like a green field; at which time being taken up, and waſhed, or fanned, from it's dirt, it is immediately committed to the kiln; and by this means, it becomes good malt, exactly as beans ſo treated would do.

It is obſervable of this corn, that both it's root and blade muſt ſhoot to a conſiderable length, before it will make malt: and, perhaps, this is the caſe in all large-bodied grain, and nuts *.

* It may be worth trying, whether the ſame proceſs is not, with due care, applicable to the malting of turnips, potatoes, carrots, parſnips, &c.

It might be of ſervive to tranſfer this eaſy experiment to the making of malt from barley, rice, and the other ſmall grains and ſeeds; but the attempt may be attended with difficulties, becauſe in the making of malt, the barley muſt only be ſuffered to grow in it's root, and not in the blade; when it would be difficult, at firſt, to hit the exact time for taking it out of the ground; and, as the grain is ſo ſmall, it might prove troubleſome to ſeparate it from the earth, or mould. However, the matter may deſerve to be tried *.

* And poſſibly ſome contrivance might be found, by the means of large hair-cloths, or otherwiſe, to incloſe the grain, ſo that the looſe earth ſhould not mix among it; and, at the ſame time, an opportunity be afforded of commodiouſly examining how far the barley is come after lying.

It is a conſideration of a higher nature to determine the phyſical effect procured by malting; and whether the end may not be obtained by cheaper, and leſs laborious means. The phyſical difference between malted and unmalted corn appears to be the production, or extrication, of a ſweet ſaccharine ſubſtance in the malt, which is wanting under that form in the corn. And it is this ſweet ſubſtance alone which we require in malt, for the making of beer, ale, vinegar, and inflammable ſpirits, as I ſhall ſhew elſewhere. But even unmalted corn, duly treated, may be made to afford beer, ale, vinegar, and ſpirits: this, therefore, may intimate to us a way of making ſuch liquors, without the formal extrication of any remarkably ſaccharine ſubſtance. And, according to ſome trials made, unmalted corn affords half the quantity of inflammable ſpirit, by fermentation and diſtillation, as the ſame corn would do, when malted. And ſuppoſe that unmalted corn were to be made into a kind of dough, or paſte, fermented with yeaſt, as is uſual for bread, and then baked; would not this be a cheaper ſubſtitute for malting *? It deſerves, at leaſt, to be tried how much beer, ale, vinegar, and ſpirit, might be procured this way, compared with that other of malting.

* They are ſaid to brew after this manner in ſome countries.

On the other hand, if only a ſweet ſaccharine ſubſtance be required in malt, are there not cheaper and eaſier ways of procuring it than by malting? Do not many trees afford ſuch a ſaccharine juice, by tapping in the ſpring without prejudicing the trees? Is not young green corn itſelf remarkably ſweet; and does not this ſweet juice enter the compoſition of the ear, and there remain fixed, or almoſt loſt in a ſaccharine form, 'till recovered by malting? Here is a door opened for explaining the nature of ſweetneſs, and deducing the particular hiſtory of ſugar; which is a work that, for it's uſefulneſs in trades, and ordinary life, we wiſh were extant: and, 'till ſome conſiderable progreſs is made in a work of this kind, the art of malting, and all that depends upon it, will not arrive at perfection.

Thoſe who are diſpoſed to enter upon the enquiry, may pleaſe to compare the art of ſtarch making with that of malting, and particularly try whether ſome conſiderable uſes might not be made of the refuſe liquors produced in both arts. The high-coloured liquor drained away from the barley in the ſteeping ciſtern is a vegetable tincture, that might, if not by itſelf, yet by being uſed, inſtead of water, to ground malt, be worth fermenting and diſtilling for ſpirit; and the ſtarch-makers refuſe liquors have been obſerved to contain a quantity of inflammable ſpirit.

The preſent experiment may, in this reſpect, be made general, it ſhewing that there are different times of ſtopping, or preventing, the farther growth of vegetables, for the ſervice of arts. And this doctrine may be extended to the forming a ſet of general rules, for gathering the different parts of plants, at different ſeaſons of the year, for different uſes.

Thus roots, for inſtance, to be had perfect, ſhould be gathered and dryed in the ſpring, before the leaves are formed; leaves ſhould be gathered, when they are fully opened, but before the flower appears; flowers, when they are not fully opened; and ſome, as red roſes, in the bud.

Seeds are to be gathered, when full ripe, and beginning to dry, before they fall ſpontaneouſly; and trees are generally beſt felled and fleaed for their bark in the beginning of the ſpring. But all this is to be underſtood of the common uſes of the ſubjects; for there are many particular occaſions which require them immature. Thus buckthorn berries ſhould be ripe gathered for making the ſyrup, but unripe for making the painters colour called ſap-green.

II. The method of curing vegetable juices, by decoction, or inſpiſſation.

Make an infuſion of malt, in the common manner of wort, for beer and ale, let it ſtand to clarify, and decant the clear, and boil it over a ſoft fire, to the conſiſtence of treacle: in this ſtate it will long keep ſound, or fit for the making of beer, vinegar, or inflammable ſpirits.

This experiment ſhews us a general way of reducing fermentable ſubjects to a ſmall compaſs, and for ſecuring them againſt external injuries. Thus a kind of treacle from malt might be produced in cheap years, for the ſervice not only of the brewer, but the diſtiller and vinegar maker. The method is likewiſe applicable to any other ſweet or ſaccharine juice, as that of grapes, the tappings of trees, and the fermentable juices of ſummer fruits, and certain ſweet roots, as even parſnips, &c.

Theſe inſpiſſated juices, if not boiled too high, or ſcorched in the operation, are eaſily brought back to a true degree of thinneſs with water, and fermented in the ſame manner, and for the ſame purpoſes, as they might have been before they were boiled. So that not only beer, but vinegar, or ſpirits, as ſhall be ſhewed under proper heads, may be thus commodiouſly procured, even in hot countries. Whence it ſhould ſeem that brewers and diſtillers might reap no inconſiderable benefit by a prudent uſe of this expedient.

The wine-merchants might thus order the juice of grapes, or ſtum, to be boiled down in wine countries, and ſo left fit to be reduced, by water, and fermented into wine in others. And, for this purpoſe, the poorer vintages might ſerve as well as the rich, excepting only that the rob, when reduced by water, would not afford ſo much wine as the thicker or richer juices. But this operation muſt be performed with conſiderable exactneſs, to make it ſucceed, ſo as to produce artificial wines, perfectly like the natural.

This proceſs alſo ſeems applicable to hops, which may be thus, in cheap years, made into a kind of extract, without any loſs of their valuable parts; whereby the numerous contingencies attending that commodity might, in good meaſure, be prevented. But there would here be danger of fraud, becauſe the extract of gentian, centaury, or other bitter, ſtomachic vegetables, might be mixed with the extract of hops, ſo as not to be eaſily diſcovered: though perhaps, this inconvenience is not greater than that generally ſuffered already, for many are well aſſured, by experience, that the extract of gentian is a wholeſome bitter, which will very well ſupply the place of hops in brewing.

It is alſo a proceſs ſomewhat of this kind that they frequently practiſe in wine countries, viz. either by ſuffering the grapes to grow almoſt dry upon the vine, or elſe to boil down their juice, 'till it become ſufficiently thick to afford ſuch rich wines as Canary, or Frontignac; whoſe ſtrength may be readily imitated by adding a leſs proportion of water to the rob, or boiled down juice of grapes, in the manner above explained.

III. A method of curing yeaſt.

Take a quantity of common ale-yeaſt, and put it into a cloſe canvas bag, gently ſqueezing out the moiſture in a ſcrew-preſs, 'till the remaining matter be left as hard as clay. In this

this ſtate let it be cloſe packed up in a tight caſk, and well ſecured from the air; it will keep ſound and freſh for ſeveral months, as has been often experienced.

This is an experiment of conſiderable uſe to diſtillers, as well as brewers and bakers, who in England, though they employ very large quantities of yeaſt, ſeem to have no method of preſerving it, or raiſing nurſeries thereof, whereby they frequently ſuſtain conſiderable loſs: whereas the brewers in Flanders make a great profit by ſupplying the malt diſtillers of Holland with yeaſt, which is rendered laſting, and fit for carriage, after the manner of our preſent experiment.

The ſame method is practicable to much greater advantage in the yeaſt of wine and wine-lees, which we ſhall ſhew in it's proper place.

We learn from what has been ſaid, that we have power to ſtop the courſe of nature in vegetation, ſo as to make this principle anſwer our own particular ends and deſigns; whence branches of trade may receive conſiderable improvements:

2. That yeaſt of malting is farther improveable by a general acquaintance with the nature of vegetation, vegetable juices, the art of fermentation, and of ſugars, and other ſaccharine ſubſtances:

3. That the labour and expence, attending the buſineſs of malting, may, in ſome meaſure, be ſaved by procuring and ſeparating the ſweet juices of vegetables, as nature affords them; or by boiling them down to a treacly or ſaccharine ſubſtance:

4. That there are different ſeaſons of the year, peculiarly fitted to the collecting or procuring of theſe juices, and all other vegetable matters, according as they are required ripe or immature:

5. That all ſweet vegetable juices may be preſerved ſound and ſerviceable by inſpiſſation over a ſoft fire, ſo as to throw off their ſuperfluous aqueous parts, and leave the ſweet or ſaccharine ſubſtance behind, in a ſtate fit for fermentation, upon the addition of freſh water:

6. That ſeveral bitter vegetable juices, capable of anſwering the end of hops in brewing, may be inſpiſſated by the fire, and preſerved for that purpoſe:

7. That the extremely corruptible ſubſtance, yeaſt, may be preſerved ſound, barely by freeing it from it's ſuperfluous moiſture, and ſecuring it from the external air and too great heat. See the articles MALT, DISTILLATION, WINE, SUGAR, and YEAST: all which will adminiſter important matter for the improvement and advantage of a great number of trades.

The brewery is a very extenſive trade, and hardly ever more flouriſhing in England than at preſent, the practice of wine-drinking being now very much turned into that of common beer, or porter, as it is often called; but, whether through choice or neceſſity, I leave to the judgment of the public.

It is divided into three parts, viz. for ſmall beer, or, as uſually termed, table-beer, in brewing only which many carry on large brewhouſes.

For pale ale, commonly called two penny, amber, or home-brewed, the ſmaller brewers of which are generally victuallers, who brew only for their own draught.

For brown, or butt-beer, and common ale, or, as the exciſe office diſtinguiſhes them, common brewers, which is by far the larger branch.

Brewing, we have ſeen, is an art of no little ingenuity, and capable of great improvement. It not only requires good experience in the manner of working, in the large way in and about London, but a thorough knowledge in the goods, malt and hops, and conſtant attendance, by thoſe who have the direction, from the maſh-tun to the ſtore-cellar, and even then too it muſt be looked after; but of labour but little, they having ſerving men to do the drudgery.

A youth for the larger concerns in the brewery (and thoſe in a ſmall way take none) ought to write a good hand, underſtand accounts and gauging; whoſe friends muſt give with him apprentice from 100 to 200 or 300 guineas.

When he is out of his time, if he has behaved well, he may become a workman-brewer, home-clerk, or abroad clerk, the leaſt of which have ſeldom leſs than 50 l. a year; and ſome of them 200 l. &c. Sometimes they are taken in partners, in proportion to what caſh they can advance, which is the moſt common way of their coming firſt into trade, for, to erect a common brewhouſe, and lay in ſtock anſwerable, will ſink many thouſands before they ſee any returns.

They were incorporated into a company in the year 1438, in the reign of king Henry VI, and confirmed by king Edward IV, in 1480, with the privilege of making by-laws.

The ſubſtance of the ſtatutes in England relating to brewers is as follows, viz.

23 Hen. VIII. c. 4. Brewers putting their drink in a veſſel not marked by a cooper, to forfeit 3 s. 4 d. a barrel; and not ſelling it at reaſonable rates, appointed by juſtices, for every barrel 6 s. kilderkin 3 s. 4 d. firkin 2 s. and 10 s. for a larger veſſel.

12 Car. II. c. 23. The duty, by this act, for every barrel of beer above 6 s. value, is 1 s. 3 d. and under 3 d. By 1 W. & M. 9 d. for every barrel of beer, &c. above the value of 6 s. 8 d. was added. Theſe duties were granted to king William and queen Mary for their lives; and the additional duty of the 9 d. per barrel for 99 years, &c. Brewers to make an entry at the exciſe-office once a week of liquors brewed, under the penalty of 10 l. Brewers to be allowed three barrels in 23 for leakage.

Brewers altering coolers, vats, &c. without notice, incur 50 l. forfeiture, increaſed to 200 l. by 8 and 9 William. Obſtructing ſearch 20 l. Keeping a private ſtorehouſe, &c. 50 l. penalty; and oppoſing a gauger 50 l. by ſtatute 8 and 9 William.

Keeping a private pipe under ground, by 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 30. to forfeit 100 l. Refuſing an officer entrance into the brewhouſe 20 l. Not permitting him to taſte the drink on the dray, 5 l. Not telling the gauger how much ale is intended to be brewed, 20 s. per barrel; increaſing it afterwards, 5 l. per barrel. Mixing ſmall with ſtrong the ſame penalty. Carrying wort out of the brewhouſe before the whole is brewed, 40 s.

Obſtructing ſearch for private pipes, penalty 100 l. Bribing a gauger, 10 l.

BRICK, an oblong ſquare of fat and reddiſh earth, firſt dried by the air, and afterwards burnt in a kiln or a clamp; being firſt well kneaded and worked, with the feet or hands. They are formed in wooden moulds of ſeveral ſizes, according as the bricks are to be made larger or ſmaller, conſidering the works they are intended for.

REMARKS.

Bricks among us in England have ſeveral names, according to their forms, dimenſions, uſes, method of making, place, &c. The chief of them are, compaſs bricks, which are of a circular form, and uſed to ſteen walls. Concave or hollow bricks, on one ſide flat, like a common brick, and hollowed on the other, uſed for conveying water under-ground. Cogging bricks, uſed for making the indented work, under the copings of walls, built with great bricks. Coping bricks, formed on purpoſe for coping of walls. Dutch, or Flemiſh bricks, uſed to pave yards and ſtables, and for ſoap-boilers vats and ciſterns. Clinkers, are bricks that are glazed by the heat of the fire in burning. Feather-edged bricks, are like the common ſtatute bricks, only thinner on one edge than the other, and uſed to pen up the brick pannels in timber building. Samel, or ſandal bricks, are ſuch as lie outmoſt in a kiln or clamp, and conſequently are ſoft and uſeleſs, as not being thoroughly burnt. Great bricks, are thoſe which are twelve inches long, ſix broad, and three thick; the weight of one being about 15 pounds, ſo that 100 weigh 1500, and 1000 of them 15,000 pounds; their uſe is to build fence walls, together with pilaſters, or buttreſs-bricks, which are of the ſame dimenſions with the great bricks, only they have a notch at one end, half the breadth of the brick; their uſe is to bind the work at the pilaſters of fence walls, which are built with great bricks. Paving bricks, or tiles, are of ſeveral ſizes, in ſeveral countries and places. Statute bricks, or ſmall common bricks, when burnt, ought to be nine inches long, four and a quarter broad, and two and a half thick. (By ſtat. 3 Geo. II. cap. 22. within 15 miles of London, theſe bricks ought to be 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, 4 $\frac{1}{8}$ broad, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ thick) 100 of theſe do commonly weigh 550 pounds, and 1000, 5500; about 407 in number make a ton weight. Theſe are commonly uſed in paving cellars hearths, ſinks, &c. Thirty or thirty-two, if true meaſure, will pave a yard ſquare, and 330, laid flat, will pave a ſquare of 100 feet; but, if laid edgeways, there muſt be near double the number.

Stock bricks are to be of the ſame dimenſions, only $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch thicker.

Bricks are commonly red, though there are alſo ſome of a whitiſh colour; Walpit, in Suffolk, is famous for this ſort.

The earth whereof bricks are made muſt not be ſandy, which would render them both heavy and brittle; nor ought it to be too fat, which would make them crack in drying. They ſhould be made either in the ſpring or autumn; and, when made, muſt be ſheltered from the ſun, if it be too hot, and yet be expoſed to the air to dry. If they be made in froſty weather, they muſt be covered with ſand; if in hot weather, with wet ſtraw. When they are well dried, they muſt be burnt.

The burning of bricks is performed either in a kiln or in a clamp. In the former, the bricks being ſet in, and the kiln covered with pieces of bricks, they put in wood to dry them with a gentle fire; and this is continued 'till they are pretty dry, which is known by the ſmoke turning from a whitiſh dark to a thin black ſmoke. They then ceaſe to put in wood, and proceed to burn with bruſh, furze, ſtraw, heath, brake or fern faggots; having firſt dammed up the mouth of the kiln with a ſhimlog, that is to ſay, with pieces of bricks piled upon one another, and cloſed with wet brick earth, inſtead of mortar. Then they continue to put in more faggots,

gots, 'till the kiln and it's arches look white; and the fire appear on the top of the kiln; upon which they ſlacken the fire for an hour, and let all cool by degrees. This they continue to do, alternately heating and ſlacking, 'till the ware be thoroughly burnt, which is uſually effected in 48 hours.

About London they chiefly burn in clamps, built with the bricks themſelves, after the manner of arches in kilns, with a vacancy between each brick's breadth, for the fire to play through; but with this difference, that, inſtead of arching, they truſs or ſpan it over, by making the bricks project one over another on both ſides the place, for the wood and coals to lie in, 'till they meet and are bounded with the bricks at the top, which cloſe up all. The place for the fuel is carried up ſtraight on both ſides, 'till about three feet high; then they fill it almoſt with wood, and over that lay a covering of ſea-coal, and then overſpan the arch; but they ſtrew ſea-coal alſo over the clamp, between all the rows of bricks; laſtly, they kindle the wood, which gives fire to the coal, and, when all is burnt out, they conclude that the bricks are ſufficiently burnt.

For the making of ſuch bricks as will ſtand the fierceſt fires, our Stourbridge clay, or Windſor loam, are eſteemed the beſt, though I have ſeen theſe melted down like glaſs. There are ſome artificial compoſts, which will ſtand fire much better, perhaps, than any natural earths.

By ſtat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 35. Earth or clay, deſigned for making bricks for ſale, ſhall be dug and turned at leaſt once between the 1ſt of November and the 1ſt of February, and not be made into bricks 'till after the 1ſt of March; and no bricks be made for ſale, but between the 1ſt of March and the 29th of September: and no Spaniſh to be mixed with the earth, or breeze, in the burning of bricks. And all bricks are to be burnt either in kilns, or diſtinct clamps, each ſort by itſelf.

By ſtat. 3 Geo. II. cap. 22. There may be mixed with brick-earth any quantity of ſea-coal aſhes, ſifted or ſcreened through a ſieve or ſcreen half an inch wide, and not exceeding twenty loads to the making one hundred thouſand bricks, each load not exceeding thirty-ſix buſhels. And breeze may be mixed with coal in the burning of bricks in clamps for ſale, &c. Stock bricks and place bricks may be burnt in one and the ſame clamp, ſo as that the ſtock bricks be ſet in one diſtinct parcel, and not mixed nor ſurrounded with place bricks.

For the more effectual ſecuring the obſervation of theſe laws, it was enacted by 12 Geo. I. cap. 35. for the better diſcovering of offenders, that the maſter and wardens of the company of tilers and brick-layers ſhould have power to ſearch brick-kilns, &c. but they having permitted, and even encouraged, divers perſons to make bricks, contrary to the directions in the ſaid act; by 2 Geo. II. cap. 15. they are diveſted of that power; and any two, three, or more perſons, appointed by the juſtices of the peace, are impowered, within fifteen miles of London, to go in the day-time, in any grounds, ſheds, or places, where any clay or earth ſhall be digged, or digging, for bricks or pantiles; or any bricks or pantiles ſhall be making, or made for ſale, and there to view, ſearch, and inſpect the ſame, &c. Offenders to forfeit twenty ſhillings for every thouſand of ſuch tiles or bricks; one moiety to the uſe of the proſecutor, the other to the poor of the pariſh where the offence ſhall be committed.

BRICKLAYER, one who lays bricks, in the building of edifices of any kind. Tilers and bricklayers were incorporated 10 Eliz. under the name of maſter and wardens of the ſociety of freemen of the myſtery and art of tilers and bricklayers.

The univerſal call for this trade is ſo well known to every one, that little need be ſaid of it.

This, however, is to be obſerved, that it is moſtly an out-door buſineſs, much expoſed to the weather, by which they are often hindered from working.

As to the work itſelf, it is not very difficult to be learned, nor laborious (for they have labourers to do their heavy work) but handy and ingenious in contriving. With reſpect to the maſters, moſt of them live handſomely: and ſome, who employ many hands, and undertake large work, commonly called maſter-builders, obtain good eſtates; but then they are ſuch, who not only have money at command, but take great pains to qualify themſelves for projecting, drawing plans, ſurveying and eſtimating buildings.

BRICKMAKER, is he who undertakes the making of bricks. See BRICKS. This is moſtly performed at ſome ſmall diſtance from cities and towns; and, though ſome, through ignorance, look on it as a very mean employ, becauſe laborious, yet the maſters about London, and other capital cities, are generally men of worth.

BRISTLE, the ſtrong hair ſtanding on the back of a hog, or a wild boar.

Hog-briſtles are put to ſeveral uſes, particularly in making ſeveral ſorts of bruſhes: they are commonly ſent in barrels or hogſheads, in parcels of ſeveral ſizes, which are ſold by the weight.

Wild boars briſtles are much ſtronger than hogs, and are much more valued, but then they are alſo much dearer. Shoemakers, harneſs-makers, ſadlers, and others, uſe them; putting one of them as a needle or awl at the end of their thread, to ſew their work.

There is a great deal of this commodity imported from Muſcovy and Livonia, by the way of Hamburgh and Holland; whence it is ſent away in ſmall parcels tied in the middle, and put in little deal boxes about a foot long, and two or three inches broad: it is commonly ſold by the weight.

Briſtle, both of hogs and wild boars, is part of the iron-monger's trade in France, who buy it by wholeſale, and ſell it by retail, to ſuch workmen as make it into bruſhes, &c. or have occaſion for it in their own way of buſineſs.

BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, of the BRITISH EMPIRE, is conſtituted of the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, Ireland, and the ſeveral plantations of America thereunto belonging.

The iſland of Great-Britain lies in longitude (Teneriff being the meridian) between 9 ¾ and 17 ¼, and between 50 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

The ſouthern diviſion of this Iſland, viz. that part of it called England, is bounded by Scotland on the north; the German ſea, which ſeparates it from Germany and the Netherlands on the eaſt; by the Engliſh channel, which divides it from France on the ſouth; and by St George's channel, which ſeparates it from Ireland on the weſt. It is 360 miles from north to ſouth, and 300 in breadth from eaſt to weſt, in the wideſt part.

The northern diviſion, called Scotland, is bounded on the ſouth by the Iriſh ſea and England; on the eaſt by the German ocean; on the north by the Deucaledonian ſea; and on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean. It is about 215 Scots miles in length, and in breadth in the wideſt part about 140.

Ireland, ſituate between longitude 5. 40. and 10. 37. weſt from London, and between 51. 16. and 55. 20. of north latitude, is an iſland ſeparated from England and Scotland by St George's channel on the eaſt; has the Scots weſtern iſlands on the north and north eaſt; the mouth of St George's channel on the ſouth; and the Atlantic ocean on the weſt. It is reckoned about half as large as England.

The American Britiſh colonies on the continent, are Newfoundland, New England, New Scotland, New York, New Jerſey, Penſylvania, Máryland, Virginia, Carolina, Georgia, Hudſon's-Bay. The iſland colonies are, Barbadoes, St Lucia, St Vincent, Dominico, Antigua, Montſerrat, Nevis, St Chriſtopher's, Barbuda, Anguilla, Jamaica, Bahama, and Bermudas. We have ſettlements alſo in Africa. See GUINEA.

For a particular and minute account of the productions, manufactures, and trade of England, Scotland, and Ireland, we refer to the ſeveral counties and ſhires thereunto belonging; and, with regard to a diſtinct account of the trade of the colonies belonging to Great-Britain, we refer to the article of BRITISH AMERICA.

Our intention, under this general head of Britain, is to anſwer theſe purpoſes. 1. To take a general view of our inland circulating commerce within ourſelves, as nearly as we can, independent of foreign trade; and alſo to ſhew how the three kingdoms have a connection and dependency on each other, and on our plantations in America.

2. To point out the natural advantages of Great-Britain for univerſal commerce; and to conſider in what ſtate our trade at preſent is, with regard to the principal nations of Europe.

The chief land productions, commodities, and manufactures of England, are the following:

Corn	Cheeſe	Lead	ing, paving,
Timber	Hides	Iron	&c.
Cattle	Beer and	Rock ſalt	Slate
Flax	Malt	Allum	Oker
Wool	Spirits	Copperas	Fuller's earth
Salt	Cyder	Lapis calaminaris	Pipe and
Tallow	Tin	Stones of divers	Potter's clay.
Butter	Copper	ſorts, for build-	

Manufactures of wool, hair, and cotton, ſuch as:
- Cloth of ſeveral ſorts.
- Serges, perpets, ſays, ſhalloons.
- Stuffs of various kinds.
- Bays, flannels, dimities, fuſtians.
- Camblets, mohairs, grograms, &c.
- Blankets, rugs, carpets.

Manufactures of ſilk, ſuch as:
- Lace
- Velvets
- Brocades
- Sattins
- Taffeties
- Damaſks
- Luſtrings
- Mantua's
- Sarſenets

Manufactures of flax and hemp, ſuch as:
- Linnens of various ſorts
- Lace
- Thread
- Cordage
- Paper

Manufactures of timber, ſuch as:
- Ships and veſſels of all ſorts
- Caſks of all kinds

Manu-

Manufactures of metal.

- 1. Artillery { Cannon, Mortars } of iron and braſs
- 2. Ammunition { Bullets, Small ſhot } of lead; { Cannon ball, Bombs, ſhells, Hand granadoes } of iron
- 3. Coin, and wrought plate { Gold, Silver, Copper }
- Large foundery ware { Bells of all ſizes, of mixed metals; Coppers; Caldrons; Furnaces; Statues of braſs or lead; Baluſtres, or palliſadoes; Pipes and veſſels for culinary and other domeſtic uſes } of { iron, braſs, copper, pewter, lead, ſilver }
- Edged tools, Engines, Weapons, Armour of all ſorts } of { Iron, Braſs, Steel } Wire of { gold, ſilver, copper, iron, braſs, ſteel } for lace and embroidery

Manufactures of ſkins and hair of beaſts, ſuch as

- Parchment
- Vellum
- Leather, of which are made furrs for cloathing
- Hats and caps
- Shoes and boots
- Saddles, harneſs, and furniture for horſes
- Gloves and garments, coaches and chairs
- Houſhold ſtuffs
- Covers of books, &c.

The land produce and manufactures of Scotland and Ireland, are in moſt reſpects the ſame as thoſe of England, except that fir-timber, a manufacture of ſtuff called plaiding, and of ſtriped muſlins, is peculiar to the former.

The productions of the Britiſh colonies are as follow:

On the continent of America

- Corn
- Cattle (horſes in particular)
- Beef, pork
- Rice
- Tobacco
- Furrs, or ſkins of wild beaſts, ſuch as
- Bear
- Beaver
- Otter
- Fox
- Deer
- Racoon
- Muſquaſh, with divers others
- Saſſafras } and various
- Snake-root } other drugs.
- Train-oil
- Whale-fins
- Pitch
- Tar
- Turpentine
- Pipe and barrel ſtaves
- Maſts for ſhips
- Cedar wood
- Fir timber
- Deals, &c.

In the iſland colonies

- Sugar, and from that rum and molaſſes
- Indigo
- Ginger
- Cotton
- Cocoa
- Pimento
- Citron water
- Tortoiſe-ſhell, drugs and preſerves.

Having given a ſuccinct account of the productions of the ſeveral parts of the Britiſh empire, we come now to ſpeak of it's trade. And, firſt, we ſhall, with all brevity, conſider the home trade of England.

It is an obſervation grounded on experience, that every county in England is more or leſs employed in carrying goods of ſome ſort or other for the ſupply of the city of London, as well the produce of the farmer, as of the manufacturer. This occaſions a prodigious number of carriages, as waggons, carts, and pack-horſes, from the inland counties; and likewiſe of boats and bargemen, where they have the convenience of navigable ſtreams; and cauſes very conſiderable employment for our ſhipping and ſeamen for the navigation of the coaſting trade.

The ſeveral ſorts of productions ſent from all the inland counties, which come under the name of proviſions, make a prodigious article of commerce, and are the ſole ſupport of the places from whence they are ſent; for, unleſs there was a conſumption of the overplus of their commodities this way, they muſt periſh on their hands, and the value of their lands conſequently be diminiſhed: but, by having vent for them in the metropolis, and receiving money or merchandizes in return, the rent of the lands is kept up, the remoteſt are thereby enriched, and their poor conſtantly employed.

The various particulars of the produce of the counties of England, which are ſent to London, are the following:

Malt and meal in very great quantities, from Berkſhire, Oxfordſhire, Buckinghamſhire, Hertfordſhire, Cambridgeſhire, and Surry. Part of this, eſpecially the meal, is brought by land carriage from Hertfordſhire, Bedfordſhire, and the north

of Buckingamſhire; nor do there come leſs than 4000 waggon loads a week of this commodity to London from theſe parts, beſides what is carried by the river Lea from Hertford and Ware, and from that part of Buckinghamſhire which lies near the banks of the Thames.

Suffolk and Cambridgeſhire ſend up great quantities of ſalted butter; and of late they have no inconſiderable quantity, though not ſo good in quality, from Yorkſhire.

From Cheſhire, Warwickſhire, and Glouceſterſhire, come vaſt ſupplies of cheeſe; and ſome from Suffolk, though of a meaner ſort.

The Cheſhire and Suffolk cheeſe comes by ſea; the other chiefly in waggons.

The north-weſt part of Wiltſhire furniſhes a nice kind of thin cheeſe in the ſpring, called cream, or new cheeſe.

From Hampſhire come the beſt bacon and honey, and a conſiderable quantity of the former alſo from Shropſhire and Glouceſterſhire, as well as a kind of well prepared hams from Yorkſhire.

From Suffolk and Norfolk we have turkies and geeſe in ſuch quantities, that no eſtimate can be made of their number.

And all ſorts of wild fowl, ſuch as ducks, teal, widgeon, &c. the city is ſupplied with from Lincolnſhire and the iſle of Ely.

Leiceſterſhire and Northamptonſhire afford the beſt and largeſt coach-horſes and draught-horſes; and Staffordſhire, Yorkſhire, and Durham, the beſt for the ſaddle.

Suffolk, Lincolnſhire, Somerſetſhire, Lancaſhire, Yorkſhire, Kent, and Suſſex, furniſh the largeſt and fatteſt oxen.

The Severn from Glouceſter, the Trent from Nottingham, the Eden from Carliſle, and the Tyne from Newcaſtle, ſupply freſh and pickled ſalmon: the firſt brought by land carriage, the other by ſea.

Eſſex ſends the fineſt veal, and Huntingdonſhire the beſt pigeons.

Thus almoſt every part of England is employed in furniſhing London with proviſions of one ſort or other, and theſe in ſurprizing quantities: beſides which, the water carriage of the Thames (whereby ſo much of all kinds, eſpecially malt and meal, is conveyed thither) brings immenſe ſtores of timber and fire-wood from Berks, Oxfordſhire, Bucks, and Surry, in barges of 80, 90, and 100 tons.

We ſhall next conſider the coal trade; that is, the carrying coals from Newcaſtle, Sunderland, &c. to London, which is in itſelf a prodigious article, and employs abundance of men and ſhipping: inſomuch that, in a time of urgent occaſion, this branch alone has been able to ſupply the government with a body of ſeamen, able to man a conſiderable fleet at a very ſhort warning, and that without any difficulty.

There have been known to be in the port of London between 5 and 600 ſail of theſe colliers at a time, and they never want a market for their goods. The greater part of them are conſumed in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, and parts adjacent thereto; and the reſt are re-laden in ſmaller veſſels, to be ſpread by the Thames over the counties of Middleſex, Eſſex, Hertfordſhire, Bucks, Oxford, part of Glouceſter, Berks, Hampſhire, and Surry.

But beſides their ſupplying London, and many of the inland counties through the means of London, they ſerve moſt of the port towns, all the way between Newcaſtle and London, and up the channel, as high as Portſmouth weſt; and, by means of thoſe ports and navigable rivers, many of the bordering counties within land: as from Lynn into the iſle of Ely, and the ſeveral counties of Lincoln, Northampton, Leiceſter, part of Bucks, Bedford, Cambridge, Suffolk, Norfolk; from Colcheſter, Harwich, &c. into the counties of Eſſex and Suffolk; from the rivers Medway, Stour, the Cray, the Aran, and almoſt over the whole counties of Kent and Suſſex.

The other great branches of the coal trade in England, are from the port of Swanzey in Wales, to the coaſt of Devonſhire, and other parts thereabouts; and the Cumberland colliery of Whitehaven, belonging to Sir James Lowther, Bart. which, though it chiefly ſupplies Ireland, we have thought proper to mention in this place, becauſe it has been computed, that theſe three coal trades, together, employ no leſs than 1500 ſail of ſhips, and men in proportion: to which, if we add the porters, carmen, keelmen, watermen, lightermen, and bargemen, employed alſo in this trade afterwards, we ſhall find it one of the moſt valuable branches of our home commerce, as it gives bread to an infinite number of people, independent of any foreign correſpondence; and is the principal domeſtic nurſery for our ſeamen, upon whom the power, the happineſs, and glory of the whole Britiſh empire depend.

Another conſiderable article of the coaſting trade, is that of ſhips from the farther parts of Cornwall with tin, from Lancaſhire with rock-ſalt, and from Cheſter with cheeſe and lead; the latter the product and manufacture of Flintſhire, which are all brought to London. The rock-ſalt is likewiſe carried to moſt of the ports in the Severn ſea, as well as in the channel, where it is reduced to brine mixed with other ſea brine, and boiled again into a ſtronger ſalt, called ſalt upon ſalt: this is done at Biddeford, Horcombe, Barnſtaple, and other towns on the coaſt of Devon, where they cure herrings with it, in a manner no way inferior to the Dutch,

as alſo at Dartmouth, Weymouth, and Colcheſter, and various other places in the Channel.

For the managing this buſineſs in particular, as alſo for making malt, and for other common uſes, there is a large coaſting trade to theſe parts, from Swanzey in Wales for culm; in the carriage whereof, there are not leſs than 300 ſail of ſhipping conſtantly employed.

A conſiderable number of coaſting ſhips are likewiſe always employed in paſſing to and from London, from Dartmouth, Pool, Weymouth, Lyme, Topſham, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, &c. Thoſe from Topſham bring a great deal of bale goods, ſuch as ſerges, perpets, &c. made at Exeter; and, in plentiful years, there have been imported into London not leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of cyder, the growth of the Southhams, from Topſham, Lyme, Plymouth, Dartmouth, and other places in Devonſhire.

All theſe veſſels make their returns from London in heavy goods, ſuch as grocery ware, oil for manufactures, lead, iron, flax, hemp, wine, pot-aſhes, and all other ſorts of goods which the warehouſes and ſhops of this great city afford.

Many ſhips are ſent alſo from Briſtol to London, with glaſs-bottles, flint-glaſs, window-glaſs, and ſometimes with Weſt-India goods, as ſugars, cottons, &c.

Laſtly, there is a continued throng of veſſels with corn from the eaſtern and ſouthern coaſts of England, ſo that all the out-ports have ſome communication with London; and moſt of them may be ſaid to derive their greateſt advantages from thence; and, indeed, it is ſcarce credible what a number of people are, upon the whole, employed in this coaſting trade. They have been computed, and I believe without exaggeration, at no leſs than 100,000, including the coal trade, ſalt trade, and corn trade, with the conſtant carriage of ſhop keepers goods from port to port, and alſo the fiſheries.

Nor is the inland trade of England leſs conſiderable, through the great variety of manufactures, of which ſome ſorts or other are eſtabliſhed in almoſt every county, as well as through the rich mines in ſeveral parts of the kingdom.

Of the latter, thoſe of Cornwal abound chiefly with tin; thoſe of Lancaſhire, Staffordſhire, and Shropſhire, with lead, iron, and copper; thoſe of Somerſetſhire with lead and copper; Glamorganſhire, Cardiganſhire, and Flintſhire (the three laſt in Wales) with lead alſo; and thoſe of Durham, Cumberland, Suſſex, and Surry, likewiſe with iron.

The principal ſalt-works are at South Shields in the biſhoprick of Durham, and at Lymington in Hampſhire; for that ſpecies which is drawn from ſea-water, and that from the ſalt-ſprings, is made chiefly in Worceſterſhire and Cheſhire; beſides the Lancaſhire rock ſalt; which has been mentioned above.

The manufactures of hard-ware are carried on principally at Birmingham, in Warwickſhire, and at Sheffield in Yorkſhire; at which latter place more than 40,000 people are employed in this branch of trade alone.

Each of theſe articles, indeed, affords ſubſiſtence to a prodigious number of people, who are concerned only in the working and manufacturing them; whilſt their vaſt circulation by the inland as well as coaſting trade before-mentioned, not only to the city of London, but to all other parts of England, furniſhing daily occupation for multitudes beſides.

The brewery, likewiſe, is an article to be reckoned amongſt the more conſiderable inland trades of this iſland. The quantity of malt liquors brewed in England for home conſumption, at the public houſes chiefly, is ſo very great, that the exciſe of them only amounts yearly to what would maintain a kingdom, beſides the tax upon malt, which is little leſs than a million more.

But the chief ſtaple commodity of England is the woollen manufacture, which is carried on more or leſs in almoſt every part of the kingdom; ſome making one ſpecies of goods, ſome another. As, from the multitude of people, there is a great home conſumption of all ſorts for their own uſe in all places; ſo no part of the nation making every kind, or having near at hand the materials neceſſary for the particular kind they do manufacture, they are obliged to ſend for ſuch articles as they want to the counties where they are made, or to London, which is the center of their commerce.

This occaſions ſo general an intercourſe of trade and correſpondence among ourſelves, for the native commodities of our own country, that the inland trade of no other nation in Europe, perhaps, is equal to it.

Thus the manufactures called Mancheſter wares, ſuch as fuſtians, cottons, tapes, incle, &c. are ſent on pack-horſes to London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c. for exportation, and alſo to the wholeſale haberdaſhers for home conſumption; whence the other towns of England are likewiſe ſerved, or by the Mancheſter men themſelves, who travel from town to town throughout the kingdom. Of theſe goods they make, at Mancheſter, Bolton, and the neighbouring places, above 600,000 l. worth annually. The returns theſe manufacturers have from the three ſea-ports before-mentioned, conſiſt in cotton, incle, linnen, yarn, &c. which they work up into all ſorts of Mancheſter wares.

Another manufacture of ſurprizing extent, is the Yorkſhire coarſe cloths, called double dozens, and kerſeys; the former made at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, and Hatherſield; the latter at Hallifax, in which pariſh only there are above 100,000 people employed in that ſingle branch; beſides what is made in that part of Lancaſhire, bordering on the weſt-riding of Yorkſhire.

This manufacture is carried to the ſame places, and in the ſame manner, as the Mancheſter wares are, beſides immenſe quantities that are ſent directly to Hull for exportation: and, as it is uſed for cloathing the poorer ſort of people in other counties, even where finer cloths are made; ſo the ſhop-keepers, in theſe very counties of Yorkſhire, are obliged to buy the fine Medley cloths of Wiltſhire and Glouceſterſhire, the ſtuffs and ſerges of Norwich and Exeter, the duroys and ſilk druggets of London and Taunton, for the wear of the people of better condition.

In like manner the traders of Devonſhire and Somerſetſhire buy the fine woollen cloths of Wilts and Glouceſter, and their camblets, crapes, and women's ſtuffs, from Norwich; their ſtockings from Leiceſterſhire, Nottinghamſhire, Worceſterſhire, Yorkſhire, or London; and the like is done with regard to other ſorts of goods.

The Norwich traders enter into the ſame circulation of manufactures; buy their ſerges from Exeter, duroys and druggets from Somerſetſhire, and fine broad cloths from Wilts, Glouceſterſhire, Somerſetſhire, and their coarſe cloths and kerſeys from Yorkſhire, and ſupply all thoſe counties with their own manufacture of Norwich ſtuffs.

London, indeed, is the center of this home circulation, the ſeveral counties ſending their own goods thither, and receiving thoſe of other counties in return. And the ſame may be ſaid with reſpect to all other manufactures, as well as thoſe of the woollen kind. But of theſe, beſides what are diſtributed on pack horſes, from one town and county to another, there are alſo immenſe quantities ſold, with all other ſpecies of commodities, at the great fairs of Stourbridge, Briſtol, Weſt Cheſter, Exeter, and Woodborough-hill.

The materials for the cloathing trade, ſuch as the wool and yarn, are circulated from place to place, in the ſame manner as the cloths, after they are manufactured — The fine fleece wool of Lincoln, Leiceſter, and Northamptonſhire, is carried on pack-horſes ſouth to Cirenceſter and Tedbury in Glouceſterſhire, where it is bought up and afterwards made into yarn for the clothiers of Wilts, Glouceſter, and Somerſetſhire, to mix with the Spaniſh wool in making their broad cloths: eaſtward the ſame is carried to Norwich and Bury for the manufactory of thoſe parts; and northward to the farther parts of Yorkſhire, and even into Weſtmoreland and Cumberland, where it is made into fine yarn, which is brought up to London to the amount at leaſt of 100 horſe packs a week, for the making of fine druggets and camblets, &c. in Spittal-fields.

The ſurpriſing quantities of wool produced on the ſpacious plains of Wiltſhire, Dorſetſhire, and Hampſhire, are carried into the counties of Somerſet and Devon. In ſome parts of Somerſetſhire, it is mixed with the above long ſtaple wool of Lincolnſhire; in other parts of that county, and in Devon, with the Iriſh wool, imported at Biddeford and Minehead, for the perfecting their fine ſerges, ſtuffs and druggets.

There is likewiſe a very great quantity of fell-wool, that is, wool taken from the ſkins of the ſheep after they are killed, ſent from London to Colcheſter, Bocking, Braintree, and all other parts of Eſſex, where the bays trade is carried on: and this ſort is likewiſe uſed by the manufacturers of Wilts, Glouceſter, and Somerſetſhire.

Theſe laſt mentioned manufactures conſiſt in fine mixed or medley cloths, or fine whites to dye black, ſcarlet, &c. which are called with us Spaniſh cloths. The conſumption whereof is ſo great at home, that the value does not amount to ſo little as a million ſterling per ann. and this branch is ſaid to employ not leſs than a million of our people.

We ſhall now take notice of the fiſheries on the coaſt of England, which are not the leaſt important articles of our commerce. Theſe are the herring, the pilchard, the mackarel, the oyſter, and the lobſter fiſheries: the herring fiſhery employs great numbers of ſhipping and men. The ſeaſon for fiſhing on theſe coaſts comes in about June, and ends about September: they are taken in prodigious quantities round the whole Engliſh coaſt, but particularly off Yarmouth, and in the Severn Sea, the back of Devonſhire and Cornwall, where they have an excellent method of packing and curing them.

The ſeaſon for pilchards comes in much about the ſame time, and continues as long as the herring fiſhery. Theſe are almoſt peculiar to the coaſts of Devonſhire and Cornwall, where they are ſo plentiful, that 'tis common to take 3 or 400 tons out of the ſame ſhoal of fiſh. They preſs and pack them after the ſame manner as the herrings, and they are a very profitable commodity to the merchants of theſe ports.

The next conſiderable is the mackarel fiſhery, which is carried on between the Thames and Yarmouth eaſt (beyond which place they are ſeldom found) and as far as the land's end

in Cornwall weſt. The ſeaſon for this fiſh comes in about April or May, and ends about July. Immenſe quantities of them are conſumed in England, eſpecially in London, whither they are brought from the coaſts of Kent and Suſſex. They are likewiſe taken in abundance on the Dorſetſhire coaſt, and ſent far inland on horſes backs: but the plenty is ſometimes ſo great, that they are obliged to throw away whole boat-loads of them, and even to dung the land with them. There are but few of theſe fiſh cured, and that only by the merchants of Yarmouth and Leoſtoff.

The ſmaller fiſheries on the coaſt are for oyſters and lobſters.

The oyſter fiſhing is at Colcheſter, Feverſham, the iſle of Wight, and in the ſwales of the Medway, and alſo in the creeks and rivers between Southampton and Chicheſter. This, though it may ſeem an inconſiderable branch of trade, employs a great number of veſſels and men, which are continually pouring them into London, from September to April. Lobſters too come in large quantities from the channel, and from the coaſts of Northumberland.

To all theſe may be added the ſalmon fiſhery in the Severn, and on the north-eaſt ſhore about Newcaſtle, &c. which are always a marketable commodity at London, and ſometimes bears a very high price.

It is to be obſerved, that, as one ſort of fiſh goes out, another comes in; ſo that ſome are always in ſeaſon, and the fiſhermen conſtantly employed.

The cod, or white fiſhery, we ſhall not mention here, as it belongs chiefly to Scotland, of the home trade whereof, and as it relates to England, we ſhall next ſpeak to.

As Scotland is a branch of the ſame continent with England and Wales, ſo it is united under the ſame government. Let it ſuffice to obſerve, that the two crowns were united under one head, in the perſon of king James I. of England, and VIth of Scotland, by which the Engliſh and Scots have been freed from thoſe incurſions and wars, which uſed to harraſs and torment them both. And, from the union of the two nations, the legiſlation, which heretofore was veſted in the king and parliament of Scotland, independent of the parliament of England, is placed in one general parliament of Great-Britain, according to the articles of union enacted by both parliaments, in the fifth year of queen Anne.

All that part of the continent which lies between the counties of Cumberland and Northumberland, belongs to Scotland, with great numbers of iſlands on the other ſides, which are bounded by the ocean. On the weſt it hath the Iriſh ſea; on the north the Deucaledonian; and on the eaſt the German ocean. 'Tis in length about 250 miles, and in breadth 150; in the moſt ſoutherly part 'tis 54 degrees 54 minutes in latitude, and in longitude 15 degrees 40 minutes; but, in the moſt northerly, 'tis 58 degrees 32 minutes in latitude, and 17 degrees 50 minutes in longitude.

The ſoil, take it in general, comes far ſhort of England in fruitfulneſs, being much more fit for paſture than corn: not but, in ſome of the inland counties, they have good ſtore of grain, wherewith they trade to Spain, Holland, or Norway. The ſkirts of the country abound with timber, which is of a vaſt bigneſs, eſpecially fir-trees.

Scotland produces a very great number of black cattle, and alſo of ſheep, more than can be conſumed within themſelves, and therefore they ſend herds into England, to the yearly amount of near 80,000 head of black cattle, and about 150,000 ſheep.

The Scots likewiſe ſend their wool into England, which is uſed in making of the coarſe cloths of Yorkſhire and Lancaſhire, and receive no inconſiderable quantity thereof again, when manufactured into cloth, as well for their own conſumption, as for exportation to the Britiſh plantations in America.

On the north-eaſt parts of Scotland, eſpecially about Aberdeen and Elgin, the wool is finer, and of a longer ſtaple than that in the ſouthern; and the manufactures of worſted ſtockings made at Aberdeen, and the parts adjacent, are very fine, and employ a great number of hands.

Their other chief woollen manufactures are of ſerges at Stirling, ſtuffs at Muſſelburgh, blankets and ſhalloons at Edinburgh. There is a manufacture of muſlins alſo about Glaſgow, and the parts contiguous, which employs abundance of poor people in the ſpinning, bleaching, and dreſſing it, and great quantities thereof are brought to England. And we may add here the manufacture of plaiding at Glaſgow and Aberdeen.

The mines of lead in this kingdom are of very great advantage to the inhabitants, as likewiſe is the abundance of fine coal produced on the banks of the Frith of Edinburgh in Clackmannanſhire; where the townſmen are employed in loading them away, as well for Edinburgh as England, and for the coaſt towns on the eaſt ſide of Scotland, ſuch as Montroſe, Aberdeen, &c.

Near theſe coal works are ſalt-pans, for the making and boiling of ſalt, which is made in ſuch quantities, as occaſion a very great trade.

And, although they abound with great quantities of fir timber, and which is very fit for ſhip-building; yet, as moſt of it lies too remote from water-carriage, ſo much advantage is not made of it as could be wiſhed.

But the great ſupports of the people of Scotland are their linnen manufactures and their fiſheries; the firſt of which, ſince the union, has been greatly encouraged; for the duties on Scots linnen being taken off, and the wearing the printed foreign callicoes ſince prohibited in England (inſtead of which the Scots linnen is uſed, as it is very proper for taking the impreſſion of colours and figures) great quantities of it are conſumed in England, as well as in the Britiſh plantations in America; and by the great increaſe of this manufacture, the poor of Scotland are greatly employed, and, in general, ſubſiſt much more comfortably than before.

The fiſheries of herring, ſalmon, and cod, or white fiſh, which lie at their very doors, and might employ an infinite number of hands, they have not ſo induſtriouſly attended to, 'till lately, as might have been expected; yet the ſalmon and herring fiſheries have certainly turned to good account; and it is not to be doubted, but their fiſheries in general will now be proſecuted with all needful vigour and zeal, ſince the parliament has paſſed an act, giving power to conſtitute a joint ſtock company, for the carrying them on; which, 'tis to be hoped, will tend to enrich theſe people, and prove an addition nurſery for ſeamen, of no little importance to the intereſt of the united kingdoms.

The Scots export great quantities of their manufactures to the Britiſh colonies in America, where, by virtue of the Union, they are allowed a freedom of commerce; and in this trade they are very much improved.

In fine, Scotland is increaſed many ways in their trade, within a few years paſt, as well in manufacturing at home, as in merchandizing abroad. And, if they are effectually ſupported in carrying on their ſtaple manufacture of linnen and their fiſheries, they might, in a few years, grow rich in proportion. Their only loſs ſeems to be, that their ſituation is too far from the court and the metropolis; the one too much taking away their nobility and gentry, and cauſing their money to be ſpent from home; and the other, being too diſtant, cannot ſo effectually take off the product of their country, which makes the corn and cattle of Scotland, though much of it goes to England, yet not ſell at ſo good a price to the huſbandman as if it were nearer to London.

The ſalt of Scotland ought to be mentioned alſo as a produce, rather than a manufacture, as it is in England: and we ſpeak of it again, becauſe, as it is eſteemed ſtronger and better than that of Newcaſtle, ſo it cures their fiſh better, and is more deſired abroad; and great quantities of it are exported every year to Germany, Norway, and to the Baltic.

Thus the remoteſt parts of Britain are furniſhed for commerce, and every part of it has it's peculiar advantages, ſomething to employ their poor at home, and ſomething to ſupply for merchandize abroad. And Scotland has this particular happineſs in its commerce, which England cannot boaſt of, nor hardly any other nation in Europe, viz. that, in every ſingle branch of it's trade with other nations, the ballance is to her advantage, that is, ſhe ſends out more in value than ſhe receives back, and, conſequently, muſt have the difference made good in money: ſo that Scotland may be truly ſaid to be daily increaſing in riches, by their trade.

The ballance of mere trade between Scotland and England is alſo manifeſtly to the advantage of the former, the goods they receive from the latter bearing no proportion to thoſe they ſend from the former; theſe conſiſting chiefly in woollen manufactures, of the finer ſorts only, and ſome ſilk; in the room of which England takes off their wool, their cattle, their linnen, their muſlin, their corn, and very great quantities of almoſt every ſpecies of their produce, except fiſh and ſalt.

It is to be obſerved, alſo, that, by this increaſe of commerce in Scotland, they are very much increaſed in ſhipping, and that they build, as well as buy, ſhips continually, eſpecially for the Weſt-Indies, and the ſouthern commerce; an article which is neceſſarily followed by an increaſe of ſeamen, and an increaſe of employment and buſineſs on ſhore; for the building and fitting out thoſe ſhips is many ways beneficial to Scotland. Their chief want is of good large timber; but their eaſt-country trade begins to ſupply that to their advantage, by making an eaſy and larger return, as back-freight for their ſhips which carry out their fiſh.

By this means Scotland muſt neceſſarily increaſe in wealth, and poſterity will diſcern it. Nations do not grow rich at once: time, and a long ſeries of concurring circumſtances, bring it to paſs. And, as Scotland receives the overplus of it's commerce from all the nations wherewith they have any, the effect muſt neceſſarily diſcover itſelf in the people, by living better and eaſier than formerly, and, in time, becoming as wealthy in proportion as England itſelf. For a more particular account of this trade, ſee the ſeveral counties and ſhires in Scotland, and the general article of SCOTLAND.

The next point that falls under our view is the trade of Ireland, as belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; which we ſhall, alſo, in this place, conſider in a general light, and how it is connected, or otherwiſe, with the intereſt of England.

Ireland,

Ireland is an iſland, and lies between longitude 5. 40. and 10. 37. weſt from London; and between north latitude 51. 16. and 55. 20. It is ſeparated from part of England and Scotland by St George's, or the Iriſh Channel, on the eaſt; has the Scots weſtern iſlands on the north and north-eaſt; the mouth of St. George's Channel on the ſouth; and the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt.

The ſoil, in general, is fitter for graſs and paſturage than tillage, the graſs in ſome places being ſo long, and ſweet withal, according to Dr Beale, as would ſurfeit their cattle, if they were not reſtrained; and in other places their ſoil is ſo very fat, as not to admit of being dunged. Though a great deal of wood has been cut down to make charcoal for the iron-works, and many hundred acres of bogs drained, of late years, which are now excellent meadows and corn-fields, yet ſeveral great woods are ſtill remaining in Ulſter, &c. and other parts are ſtill incumbered with bogs of different ſorts, the deepeſt of which are impaſſable in ſummer, except ſuch as have ſome paths of firm ground, which are known only to the natives, and ſhake, as they tread on them, for which reaſon they are called ſhaking bogs, &c.

Here are a great many iron-mines, but they have been chiefly diſcovered and made uſeful by the Engliſh, who have been conſiderable gainers by them, ſince the reign of queen Elizabeth. Of theſe there are three ſorts, the rock-mine, the bog-mine, and the mountain-mine. The firſt, as it lies near the ſurface, is dug out with very little charge; the ore is full of good tough metal, if the operation of ſmelting and refining it be ſkilfully performed; but, in the ſmelting thereof, it muſt be mixed with other ſorts of ore, becauſe it is too ſtubborn to melt properly by itſelf, and choaks up the furnace, unleſs ores more mellow and more kindly for fuſion are intermixed therewith. The ſecond ſort is hewn with little trouble from the rocks; it is not ſo rich as the former; and the iron is ſo brittle that is ſcarce fit for any thing but plow-ſhares, unleſs it be mixed with ſome other more malleable ſorts, which, it muſt be obſerved, is to be done by melting of the ores together. The mountain ore is tough, of a middle ſubſtance between the other two, and, in many parts, affords iron no ways inferior to the Spaniſh. Dr Beale ſays, that they had conſiderable mines of lead too, which were very promiſing, before the Iriſh rebellion, but that they were deſtroyed by the rebels, and never duly improved ſince.

Here are ſeveral ridges of hills, from 10 to 50 miles long; many of which abound with good paſture and arable land; and the tops and ſides of ſeveral of them look as if they had been plowed. Some of them are very high, particularly between Dundalk and Carlingford. It may be ſaid of the country in general, that it has as good paſture as any in Europe, and abundance of good corn. Their own cattle are generally ſmall, but thoſe brought from England thrive exceedingly well. Here are many quarries of free-ſtone, marble, ſlate, flint, and ſea coal; but their principal fuel is turf, only in towns near the coaſt they are ſupplied with coal from England and Scotland. Here are alſo ſome glaſs-works, but they have their ſand for making it chiefly from England.

Their chief commodities for exports are cattle, hides, furs, tallow, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, ſalt, hemp, linnen cloth, timber, pipe-ſtaves, wool, and woollen-cloth, coarſe rugs, and ſhag-mantles, freezes, ratteens, camblets, fowl, variety of fiſh, as ſalmon, herring, &c. ſome lead, tin, and iron.

The chief riches of the antient Iriſh conſiſt in their numerous flocks of ſheep, which they ſhear twice a year; great herds of black cattle; and abundance of ſmall horſes, noted for their ſoft and round amble. Here is variety of game of all ſorts, but the Iriſh gentry are not ſo fond of hunting as the Engliſh. Though they have rain generally all the year; except about five or ſix weeks fair weather in the ſpring, yet the inhabitants are as healthful, and as long-lived, as their neighbours; and though, in ſummer, it frequently rains ſome days together, to the great hindrance of the maturity of their corn, &c. as well as of their gathering of it in, yet there is as ſeldom a dearth here as in any country whatſoever, and moſt years they have not only enough for their own conſumption, but for exportation.

It has been obſerved by ſome, that Ireland is treated by the Engliſh as a conquered country in nothing more than in matters of trade; and that they are, as it were, compelled to carry a high hand over them in this article, from the principle of ſelf-preſervation, by ſuppreſſing and prohibiting the export of the Iriſh manufactures, to prevent the ruin of their own.

It is certain that the Iriſh have not only wool, fuller's earth, &c. to as great perfection as the Engliſh, but have abundantly the advantage of them in the manufacturing it, by reaſon of the cheapneſs both of the materials, and the labour of the people, owing to the greater cheapneſs of the common neceſſaries of life. Thoſe who attempt to juſtify the Engliſh for preventing the Iriſh from running into the Britiſh manufactures, urge, 1. That the peopling of Ireland (the native wild Iriſh excepted) was from England, and under the protection of the Engliſh power. They ought, therefore, ſay they, to enjoy the country upon the Engliſh terms, and not uſe the advantages given them there to the injury of the people that firſt ſettled and ſupported them, as would be the caſe, if they fell into the Engliſh manufactures. 2. They ſay that the ſheep, which now yield them ſuch a prodigious fleece, were firſt carried from England; and, as this was at a time too when their exportation was prohibited to all the reſt of the world, they ought not, in juſtice to England, to employ the product of thoſe ſheep to the diſadvantage of their benefactors, or to run into a trade which is ſo far the property of England (as to them) that they could have no right to it, but what they muſt derive from the Engliſh. On theſe foundations, it is ſaid, that the Engliſh have, by act of parliament, reſtrained the inhabitants of Ireland from exporting any of their woollen manufactures to any part of the world, except to England. How juſt and concluſive the foregoing reaſoning is, we leave to the reader's own determination. Whence it is that the woollen manufactures of the Iriſh are not to be reckoned any part of their foreign trade, except to England only. In return for this, and to make them ſome compenſation, they are admitted not only to bring their wool to England, but alſo to manufacture it in part; that is, to ſpin it; and very great quantities of their yarn are imported into Great-Britain in a year: and the very laſt ſeſſion of the parliament of England an act was paſſed to open the port of Great Yarmouth, for the importation of wool and woollen yarn from Ireland; the motive to which ſignified, in the preamble, to be of great utility and advantage to the woollen manufacturers in that part of England, by rendering the conveyance of theſe materials to the ſeveral towns and places where the ſaid manufactures are carried on, more eaſy, cheap, and expeditious. The Iriſh, who think the before-mentioned reſtrictions in regard to the woollen manufacture a hardſhip upon them, have long clandeſtinely exported their unwrought wool to France; which, perhaps, has proved more prejudicial to England than if they had been permitted to manufacture the ſame in Ireland. But conſidering thoſe reſtraints, it is no wonder that the trade of Ireland is very much contracted, compared to what it would have been, was the caſe otherwiſe.

The common trade of Ireland, except the article of linnens, therefore, is to be conſidered as almoſt confined to the proviſions that are the mere produce of their lands; of which, as they have extraordinary plenty, ſo they have a very great, and very profitable, trade with them. They trade conſiderably to Flanders and the Low Countries, eſpecially for butter, tallow, and leather; but chiefly for butter, of which the Flemings buy large quantities; ſo that the Iriſh ſend many ſhips at a time to Oſtend, laden wholly with that commodity. They drive a conſiderable trade to France, alſo, with their barrelled beef (with which the French victual their men of war, and ſuch of their merchant ſhips too, that are bound for long voyages) beſides the returns which they make from thence for their wool.

As for their herrings, of which they catch great quantities on the north ſide of the kingdom, viz. on the coaſt from Belfaſt to Londonderry, they chiefly ſend them to Spain and Portugal. With regard to their linnen manufacture, which is ſo exceedingly increaſed of late years, for which they not only ſpin the yarn themſelves, to a far greater perfection than could have been expected in ſo few years, but they raiſe a great part of the flax themſelves; and, it is to be hoped, will be able to raiſe the whole. Of their linnens, they, as well as the Scots, ſend great quantities to the Britiſh colonies, and import it into England duty free.

The Iriſh alſo built very good ſhips, and have exceeding good harbours, in which many Engliſh merchants chuſe to build, their oak being very good, and plenty.

From the mouth of St. George's Channel northward, they fiſh ſometimes with 100 ſail of large fiſhing boats together. Beſides herrings, they catch ſome white fiſh. They have all their coals, except a few in Kilkenny, which is far within land, from England; as alſo all their copper, block-tin, and lead, from Lancaſhire, Flintſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and Yorkſhire. They import their hops, and great part of their Weſt-India commodities, with all the bulk of their mercery, grocery, and haberdaſhery wares, &c. from England.

Having, with what brevity I could, run through the chief branches of home trade of England, Scotland, and Ireland, as they are chiefly carried on within themſelves, and as they have relation and dependency on each other, there remain two other points to be conſidered, in order to complete our general ſurvey of the commerce of Great Britain within herſelf: the one of which is that of the Britiſh colonies and plantations in America, and the trade between them and England, Scotland, and Ireland; the other is to take a view of the foreign trade of theſe kingdoms in general; and to conclude with our remarks upon the whole.

The exportations from England to her American colonies, conſiſt of almoſt all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, proviſions chiefly excepted; yet large quantities even of theſe, ſuch as beer, brandy, flour, meal, cheeſe, are ſent to the iſland colonies in particular, though no neceſſary proviſions are ſent to thoſe on the continent, they having plenty within themſelves.

But our continent, as well as iſland, colonies, are furniſhed from England with materials for wearing apparel, houſhold furniture,

furniture, ſilk, woollen, and linnen manufactures, iron, cordage, and ſails, great guns, ſmall arms, ammunition, lead, braſs, iron, and ſteel, whether wrought or unwrought; in a word, England furniſhes them almoſt with every thing needful for the luxuries, as well as conveniencies, of life, except proviſions, as before obſerved.

The exports to our plantations from Scotland and Ireland conſiſt principally in linnens of their own manufacture; and from Ireland they ſend alſo a conſiderable quantity of beef, butter, and pork, to the iſland colonies.

The imports from the colonies, in return, are of various kinds, according to the ſeveral places from whence they come.

From Hudſon's Bay are brought chiefly furs and ſkins, of divers ſorts, ſuch as beaver, bear, deer, &c. which are the materials for the carrying on ſeveral capital and profitable branches of our manufactures. See the articles HUDSON'S-BAY COMPANY.

From Newfoundland, cod-fiſh and train oil, which ſupports a great part of our fiſheries, breeds ſeamen, and greatly improves our navigation. See the articles NEWFOUNDLAND, and FISHERIES.

From New England, furs, whale-fins, and oil for our woollen manufacturers, drawn from the whale, and ſome from the white-fiſh; tar in large quantities, turpentine, cod-fiſh, plank, pipe-ſtaves, hogſhead-ſtaves, cedar, &c. See BRITISH AMERICA.

From New York, and both the Jerſeys, the ſame as from New-England, except cod-fiſh.

From Virginia and Maryland, tobacco, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, ſnake-root, and various other medicinal drugs.

From Carolina, furs and ſkins, eſpecially of deer and bears; tar, pitch, and rice; the latter the principal product of this colony.

From the iſland colonies in general, viz. Jamaica, Barbadoes, St Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Montſerrat, &c. ſugars, Molaſſes, rum, indigo, cotton-wool, ginger, pimento, cocoa, preſerves, citron-water, and great variety of drugs. See the articles ANTILLES ISLANDS.

From Bermudas, cedar-boards, and ſloops built there. See BERMUDAS ISLANDS.

From the bays of Campeachy and Honduras, by way of New England and New York, logwood, fuſtic, and Nicaragua woods. See LOGWOOD.

The trade of theſe plantations with each other is not inconſiderable; for, as thoſe on the continent abound with proviſions of all ſorts, ſuch as wheat, flour, peaſe, beans, beer, malt, oats, barley, beef, pork, bacon, ſalt-fiſh, rice, and alſo with horſes, and lumber, viz. timber, deal-boards, pipe-ſtaves, &c. and, as there is a great ſcarcity of all theſe in the iſland colonies, ſo thoſe on the continent are continually ſupplying the iſlands with thoſe particulars, and make their returns in rum, ſugar, molaſſes, &c.

The act of navigation, as it is commonly called, reſtrains the Britiſh colonies with regard both to exports and imports, from trading to any part of the world except to their mother-country, but under certain reſtrictions and limitations.

REMARKS.

Before I conclude this ſketch of our plantation trade, we ſhould not, methinks, omit the branch of the African trade; for, although we cannot be ſaid to have any colonies in that part of the world, yet our ſettlements, forts, and caſtles, give us a right to attempt them, if ever it ſhould be judged eligible. Our African ſettlements, however, being the means of ſupplying our colonies with negro labourers, for the cultivation of ſugars, rice, rum, molaſſes, tobacco, cocoa, coffee, &c. our American poſſeſſions may be ſaid, in a great meaſure, to depend upon our trade to Africa; which employs no inconſiderable quantity of ſhipping. Nor is the trade to Africa, conſidered abſtractedly from the ſlave-trade, of ſmall advantage to this kingdom, and might, perhaps, be rendered highly more ſo, when the nature of that trade comes to be conſidered in a different light from what it hitherto has been. See the articles AFRICA, AFRICAN ISLANDS, AZORES ISLANDS, and ſuch heads as are from thence referred to.

Under the article AMERICA, we have given the DEFINITIVE TREATY, concluded between GREAT-BRITAIN, FRANCE, SPAIN, and PORTUGAL, in the year 1763; by which it will appear what great alterations that treaty has made in our AMERICAN AFFAIRS, ſince the ſecond edition of this work was publiſhed; it having annexed all CANADA and it's DEPENDENCIES to the Britiſh crown, and likewiſe FLORIDA, and therewith the ports of St AUGUSTINE, PENSACOLA, and MOBILE, and the right of navigating the MISSISSIPPI in the gulf of MEXICO, which acquiſitions will certainly, in a little time, give quite a new face to our commercial concerns in all NORTH AMERICA, and doubtleſs very much to the benefit and advantage of the whole BRITISH EMPIRE. See the articles AMERICA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

The ſame DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has alſo annexed to the BRITISH CROWN, all the NEUTRAL CARIBBEE ISLANDS, except St LUCIA, viz. St VINCENT, DOMINICO and TOBAGO; and in the lieu of that, we have obtained the French iſland of GRENADA and the GRENADINES. The national utility and emolument of theſe new acquiſitions are likely to prove no way inconſiderable to Great-Britain hereafter. See the articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS, FRENCH AMERICA.

That foreign trade may impoveriſh, as well as inrich, a nation, has been ſhewn under the article BALLANCE of Trade; yet without foreign trade, therefore, be purſued upon principles which will render the ſame beneficial to the ſtate, muſt we not be daily declining, in treaſure and maritime ſtrength; and conſequently, in time, give our enemies and rivals, an opportunity to bring us under their yoke? Wherefore the ſtudy of trade is a matter of the laſt conſequence to theſe kingdoms. And, to anſwer the great end of defence and preſervation, it ſhould be ſtudied both in a practical and a political light; the former to accompliſh our traders in general to extend commerce for their private intereſt, the latter to enable us ſo to regulate the ſame by wiſe and ſalutary laws, that the nation may be gainers, not loſers, by it. On what maxims of policy this depends, ſee the articles ARTIFICER, ASPHALTUM, MANUFACTURERS, ROYAL SOCIETY, TRADE, and ſuch other heads as we from thence refer to.

How to judge, alſo, when a nation gains or loſes by it's trade with particular nations, and how it ſtands upon the general ballance, ſee the general articles BALLANCE of Trade and EXCHANGE.

As the nature of trades with particular countries varies, nor are all alike beneficial; therefore, to judge of the good or ill conſequences thereof, it is neceſſary to indicate the certain ſigns and characteriſtics of advantageous trades.

That trade which exports manufactures made of the product of our own country, is certainly profitable, ſeeing it employs our poor by taking off our ſuperfluities.

The trade which imports foreign materials to be manufactured here, eſpecially when they are procured in barter for our own commodities; and when the goods, after they are manufactured, are moſtly ſent abroad; is doubtleſs beneficial.

That trade may be called advantageous which exchanges manufactures for manufactures, and commodities for commodities; and an importation of commodities bought partly for money, and partly for goods, may be of national benefit, if the greateſt part of the commodities thus imported are again exported.

All imports of goods which are re-exported, may be generally reckoned beneficial to a ſtate; and the carrying goods from one country to another cannot be otherwiſe, as it increaſes our ſeamen and ſhipping, and gains us the freight.

Theſe being ſome of the ſigns, which are generally agreed on, of a beneficial trade, it may be neceſſary to obſerve a few general maxims, whereby to try the value of every particular trade. And,

1. As we have no gold and ſilver of our own produce, ſo all we have muſt be imported from other countries, in exchange for the product and manufactures of our own: and, as we gain gold and ſilver from thoſe countries which do not ſell us ſo great a value of their commodities as they take from us, but pay the ballance in money; ſo we muſt pay a ballance in money to ſuch countries as ſell us more commodities in value than they take from us, and the capital ſtock of bullion is diminiſhed by ſuch a commerce, unleſs the goods we import from an over-ballancing country be re-exported:

That we are moſt inriched by thoſe countries which pay us the greateſt ſums upon the ballance, and moſt impoveriſhed by thoſe which carry off the greateſt ballance from us:

That the trade of a country which contributes moſt to the employment and ſubſiſtence of our people, and to the improvement of our lands, is moſt valuable:

That the trade which leſſens moſt the ſubſiſtence of our people, and the value of our lands, is moſt detrimental to the nation:

That the country which does not ſell us ſo great value of it's commodities as it buys of our's, contributes the whole of the ballance to the employment and ſubſiſtence of our people, and to the product of our lands:

That the country which ſells us more in value than it purchaſes of us, takes the whole value of the ballance from the ſubſiſtence of the people and the landed intereſt:

That, therefore, the ballance which is either paid or received by means of our trade with any particular country, is one certain medium to judge of the value of that trade; for every particular trade with other nations contributes ſo much to the ſubſiſtence of our people, and the improvement of our lands, as the ballance it pays to us, for the greater value of commodities we ſell than buy: and it deducts ſo much from both, for the greater value of commodities we buy than ſell, as the ballance we are to pay amounts to:

And, laſtly, that every country which takes off our finiſhed manufactures, and returns us unwrought materials, to be manufactured here, contributes ſo far to the employment and ſubſiſtence of our people as the whole coſt of manufacturing thoſe materials. See TRADE.

By

By theſe obvious maxims, which have been granted by all who have had any knowledge of commerce, we ſhall compare our chief branches of foreign trade; whereby their benefit, or otherwiſe, to the nation, may be judged of.

And, 1. Our trade to Portugal. The goods we ſend thither are broad cloths, druggets, baiz, ſays, long-ells, perpets, callimancoes, and various ſorts of worſted ſtuffs, ſilk, worſted hoſe, hats, tin, lead, leather, fiſh, corn, and divers other Engliſh commodities. Our returns from thence are great quantities of wine, oil, ſalt, and fruit; by which means their ſpare lands, ſince they have had the ſupplying us ſo largely with wine, are greatly improved.

Since the war in queen Anne's reign, it is certain that we have very conſiderably increaſed our importation of their wines; which is more our intereſt to do than to have them from France, whence our imports have been always more than our exports would pay for; and to Portugal our exports are rather greater than their returns, eſpecially ſince we have deſiſted from importing their ſugars and tobacco, commodities wherewith we are far more advantageouſly ſupplied from our plantations in America; and we are now able to furniſh foreign markets cheaper than the Portugueſe can, or as cheap as the French, if our plantations were upon a footing equally beneficial with theirs. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, and PLANTATIONS.

The Portugueze were formerly the great navigators of the world, as appears by their many diſcoveries, both in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, beſides the ſeveral iſlands of the Azores, Cape de Verd, and Maderas, where they have ſettled colonies. To theſe they admit us a free trade, but reſerve their remoter ſettlements on the continent of Brazil more ſtrictly to themſelves, whither they export many of the commodities which we ſend them.

Their iſlands we ſupply directly with our manufactures, and from the Azores load corn, woad, and ſome wines, which we receive in barter for them; the firſt we carry to the Maderas, where it is again bartered for the wines of the growth of that iſland, which are ſhipped from thence to our plantations in America.

As the Portugueze are not now the navigators which they formerly were, ſo neither are they great manufacturers; ſome ſorts of coarſe cloth they do make, which is often ſhipped to the iſlands of Maderas and the Azores, where it is preferred before any other of the like goodneſs, becauſe of their own manufacture; and they have attempted the making of baiz, for which they drew over ſome of our workmen; but it ſoon came to an end, our workmen returning home by due encouragement being given them here: ſo prudent is it to ſtop an evil in the beginning.

Upon the whole, ſo large is the quantity of Portugal wine imported into England, Ireland, and our plantations, from the Maderas, and alſo the quantities of oil, ſalt, and fruit, that, notwithſtanding the appearance of a little Portugal gold among us, the ballance is certainly far leſs in our favour than is generally imagined; for the French and the Dutch have of late years greatly interfered with us in that trade; which is well enough known to the Britiſh factory at Liſbon; notwithſtanding, it is ſaid, the court of Portugal have lately treated our Britiſh merchants in that kingdom with a behaviour contrary to the laws of nations, and ſubſiſting treaties, and which the Engliſh nation does by no means merit from that. But we do not doubt but every cauſe of miſunderſtanding will be ſoon happily prevented, ſince the Portugueze have ſo lately experienced the powerful friendſhip of Britain in time of need. See the article PORTUGAL.

2. Our trade to Spain. The goods we export thither are broad cloths, druggets, callimancoes, baiz, ſays, perpets, ſtuffs of divers kinds, cotton, worſted, and ſilk hoſe, fiſh, leather, tin, lead, corn, &c.—The commodities England takes from them are wine, oil, fruit of various ſorts, wool, indigo, cochineal, and dyeing ſtuffs of ſeveral kinds, drugs, iron, cocoa. The bulk of the commodities we take from them are the produce of their own country, viz. wine, oil, and fruit, &c. ſo that the Spaniards pay for our woollen, and all other products, at a very eaſy rate; and, if it were not for the great conſumption of Spaniſh wines, fruits, and oils, &c. in England, their ſales of theſe commodities would amount but to a trifle, they having no nation for their cuſtomers but us, Holland, and a very ſmall matter to Flanders, Hamburgh, and the Baltic.

It is computed that we take off above two thirds of the whole; ſo that, although we are obliged to the Spaniards for their cuſtom in our manufactures, they are no leſs obliged to us for taking off their produce.

Formerly was received a great ballance from them in bullion; but ſince the houſe of Bourbon has filled the Spaniſh throne, and introduced French ſtuffs and faſhions, we have very great reaſon to believe the ballance is but very ſmall in our favour: and, according to the ſyſtem lately adopted by that court, it is likely to be leſs, if not to be turned againſt us, unleſs we turn the tables upon them, and take leſs of their wines, oils, and fruits, &c. as they give leſs encouragement to our manufactures. Their attempting the ſcheme of the late duke de Ripperda, by ſtealing away our woollen manufactures, I am afraid forebodes no good to this nation. See BISCAY, and SPAIN.

3. Our trade to Italy. The goods we ſend to that country are, viz. ſerges, baiz, druggets, perpets, ſays, kerſies, Spaniſh cloth, long cloth, ſtuffs, flannels, lead, tin, and fiſh, pepper, and other Eaſt-India goods. The commodities which England takes from them are oil, wine, raw, thrown, and wrought ſilks, ſoap, olives, anchovies, currants, paper, drugs, and dyeing wares.

Within theſe 20 years we received a conſiderable ballance by the Italian trade in general; but the French having ſtept in here too with great quantities of their woollen manufactures, and alſo having got a part of the fiſh trade; and as we import great quantities of thrown and raw ſilk from thence to carry on our manufactures; the ballance is certainly now againſt us.

The Italians have an excellent method of throwing their ſilk, by a water-engine, which, with a few hands to attend it, will do more work than a hundred perſons can do at throwing, according to our common method. Indeed, fine Italian raw ſilk cannot be thrown with that exactneſs and delicacy required, by hand, as it can be by an engine. We have however, been ſo unfortunate as never to have had any ſuch engine, 'till of late years, and there is but one complete in the kingdom; though ſhorter ways of labour will render our manufactures cheaper: which, therefore, is one great point not to be neglected in this kingdom.

Both Venice and Genoa have made ſome attempts on a woollen manufacture, being furniſhed with wool from Alicant, and thoſe eaſtern parts of Spain.

4. Our trade to Turkey. The commodities this trade takes from us are chiefly broad cloth, dyed in colours, ſerges, long ells, tin, lead, and ſome iron; and the Engliſh merchants frequently buy up French and Liſbon ſugars, and tranſport thither, as well as bullion from Cadiz. Our returns are chiefly raw ſilk, grogram-yarn, cotton-wool, and cotton-yarn, goat's-hair, coffee, dyeing goods, and drugs of ſundry ſorts, ſoap, leather, ſome fruit and oil.

The Turkey ſilk is only fit for the ſhute of our fine damaſks, and other coloured ſilks, and for making ſilk ſtockings, galloons, and ſilver and gold lace; but it is not proper for the warp of any ſilk, not being fine enough, nor even enough for organzine, or double-twiſted ſilk, that being all Italian, nor indeed even enough for the ſhute, or woof, of black luſtrings, alamodes, or paduaſoys, the ſhute of that being alſo Italian.

Our returns, however, from Turkey, have been the foundation of ſeveral manufactures, different from our own, by the variety whereof we better ſuit cargoes to export again. See TURKEY COMPANY and TRADE.

5. Our trade to Hamburgh, and other parts of Germany. The goods we ſend to thoſe countries are broad cloths, druggets, long ells, ſingle dozens, perpets, baiz, ſerges, flannels, worſted hoſe, and ſeveral ſorts of ſtuffs, tobacco, ſugar, ginger, Eaſt-India goods, tin, lead, and ſeveral other commodities, the great conſumption of which is in Lower Germany. We take from them, even yet, great quantities of linnen, linnen-yarn, kid-ſkins, tin-plates, and many other commodities.

Formerly we were ſupplied by France with linnens; but, ſince the high duty upon French linnens, the emperor, and other princes of Germany, have gained that manufacture, which has greatly inriched them. Notwithſtanding the advantage they have by importing their linnens upon us, ſome of them have prohibited ſeveral ſorts of our woollen manufactures, and others have prohibited all; which at preſent gives them a ballance upon us.

6. Our trade to Holland. The goods we ſend to this country are very conſiderable, as broad cloths, druggets, long ells, ſtuffs of various ſorts, leather, corn, coals, and ſomething of almoſt every kind which this kingdom affords, beſides all kinds of India and Turkey re-exported goods, ſugars, tobacco, rice, ginger, pitch, and tar and ſundry other commodities of the produce of our American plantations.

We take from Holland large quantities of fine Hollands linnens, threads, tapes, and incles, whale-fins, braſs battery, madder, argol, clapboard, wainſcot, and a great number of other commodities and toys, pepper, and all ſorts of India ſpices, fine lace, cambricks, Dutch paduaſoys, velvets, and other wrought ſilks; yet, ſo great is the quantity of our exports thither, that the ballance by way of trade only is conſiderably in our favour. See HOLLAND.

7. France takes from England large quantities of tobacco, horn plates, tin, ſome lead, ſome flannels, and corn in time of ſcarcity. We take from them wine, brandy, linnen, fine lace, fine cambricks, and cambrick lawns, to a very conſiderable value, as alſo brocades, velvets, and many other rich ſilk manufactures, which are either run in upon us, or come by way of Holland; the humour of ſome of our nobility and gentry being ſuch, that, although we have theſe manufactures made as good, if not better, than the French, yet they are frequently obliged to be called by the name of French, to make them ſell. Their linnens are run in upon us in very great quantities, as are their wine and brandy, from the Land's-End even to the Downs. Their brandies have been ſold from 3 s. to 3 s. 6 d. per gallon, and their claret from

3 s. to 4 s. the beſt, though the bare duty of the brandy is 6 s. 8 d. per gallon, and that on wine 52 l. per tun, or 13 d. per quart. This muſt drain us of our gold and ſilver; for the ſmugglers carry nothing out but gold, ſilver, and wool, wherewith to purchaſe thoſe commodities. It is a misfortune upon us, that our intereſt is not better conſidered; we might be ſupplied with fine rum from our plantations, that would be more acceptable to our common people than French brandy, provided the importation was ſufficiently encouraged; then the nation would be ſupplied with that ſpirit from abroad at little charge, for it would not coſt above 12 d. ſterling per gallon abroad; and, in reality, it could not ſtand the nation in more than one fifth part of that; for it is ſhewn, under the article PLANTATIONS, that four fifths of all that is gained by them comes home to us. France, above all other nations, is the moſt diſadvantageous for England to trade with: it produces moſt things neceſſary for life, and ſtands in need of very little for luxury or convenience, ſome few materials excepted, to help in carrying on their manufactures, the chief whereof are wool, and ſome dyeing ſtuffs.

8. Flanders takes from us ſerges, a few flannels, a very few ſtuffs, ſugar, tobacco, tin, and lead. We take from them fine lace, Flanders whited linnens, thread, tapes, incles, and divers other commodities to a very great value. But the Dutch, having the command of the mouth of the Schelde, do thereby ſecure to themſelves, in a great meaſure, the paſſage of goods to and from Flanders through Holland; ſo that it is difficult to judge what the ballance we pay to them amounts to. By the direct trade which is carried on by the way of Antwerp, the exchange indicates that it is in our favour.

9. Norway and Denmark take from us Guinea's, crown-pieces, and bullion, a little tobacco, and a few coarſe woollens, of ſmall value. We take from them vaſt quantities of deal boards, timber, ſpars, and iron. We pay them a large ballance; and their re-building great ſhips of burden (deſtroyed in the war between them and Sweden) has pretty well eſtabliſhed them in the navagation and freight of their timber, which has increaſed the ballance upon us. See NORWAY and DENMARK.

10. Sweden takes from us gold, ſilver, and but a ſmall quantity of our manufactures, or productions. We take from Sweden near two thirds of the iron wrought up and conſumed in the kingdom; alſo copper, boards, planks, &c. ſo that the ballance now is conſiderably to their advantage with England. Before they encouraged a woolen manufacture of their own, they took large quantities of our cloths; but, having loaded them with high duties, that trade is ſince much more to our diſadvantage. See SWEDEN.

11. Ruſſia takes from us ſome coarſe cloths and palaches, long ells, worſted ſtuffs, tin, lead, and a few other commodities. England takes from Ruſſia hemp, flax, linnen cloth, linnen-yarn, Ruſſia leather, tallow, furs, iron, pot-aſh, rhubarb to a prodigious value; which turns the ballance conſiderably againſt us: and, having no other market to go to for hemp, where any great quantities may be had, they are paid their own price for what we take of them.

12. The Eaſt-India trade takes from us great quantities of bullion, and conſiderable quantities of our woollen manufactures, and various other commodities, which purchaſe there, at very low prices, the products and manufactures of India and China, which are brought home in our own navigation; out of which we ſupply ourſelves with muſlins, callicoes, and other cotton cloths, as alſo coffee, tea, and raw ſilk; and ſell to foreigners, it is thought, as many of the ſaid commodities as repay for all the bullion ſhipped, and leave with us beſides a very conſiderable ballance upon that trade. See EAST-INDIA TRADE, and EAST INDIA COMPANY.

Bengal raw ſilk is bought at very low prices there, and is very uſeful in carrying on the manufactures of this kingdom. China ſilk is of an excellent ſtaple, and comes at little above one third of the price of Italian Piedmonteſe ſilk. The duty of Bengal raw ſilk being one third more, and China near three times as much, as that of Italian, hinders our being ſupplied ſo fully as we might, and is no little detriment to the kingdom; for we pay the duke of Savoy all ready money for what we have from him, which as effectually drains us of our bullion as the India or China trade does, with this aggravation, that almoſt three pounds of China ſilk may be purchaſed for the money that one pound of Piedmont ſilk coſts us.

Although ſilver is not ſent out directly to Piedmont, as it is to India, yet in fact it is the ſame thing; for the ballance of ſome other trade is carried thither, which otherwiſe would be remitted to us.

The ſilk of China will anſwer, in moſt reſpects, the uſe of Italian ſilk, provided we could be ſupplied with the fine raw ſilk whereof they make their damaſks, ſattins, and other fine manufactures, which, by the curioſity of theſe ſilks, muſt come up to the goodneſs of Italian ſilk.

The China ſilk that we commonly receive is purchaſed at Canton, the neareſt port we trade to in China; but their fine ſilk is made in the provinces of Nankin and Chekiam, where their fine manufactures are carried on, and where prodigious quantities of raw ſilk are made, and the beſt in all China. We have never imported any quantities of the ſuperfine here, but two or three ſhips have brought extraordinary good, the beſt of which, we are informed, was brought from Amoy; and, doubtleſs, if encouragement was given for the importation of that fine ſilk, it might be thrown here, and our manufactures carried on at a ſmall expence to the nation. The countries of Chekiam and Nankin, that produce it, are much to the northward of the places that we now trade to, and near Chuſan, about 5 or 600 miles to the northward of Canton, an iſland in which we formerly had a factory, and were admitted to trade.

That country is very cold in winter, and ſome of our woollen goods have ſold very well there, eſpecially our callimancoes and long ells.

Beſides, the countries of Chekiam and Nankin are near the heart of the empire, where the greateſt trade is carried on; and Nankin being the metropolis of trade in that country, as London is in England, ſhe ſends out her manufactures and merchandize to Canton, as we do to Briſtol, Liverpool, and other out-ports. But, as Canton is the neareſt port, ſome captains and ſupercargoes have raiſed objections againſt going further down the coaſt, alleging that it is a difficult pilotage, and they are in danger of loſing their paſſage back that year; that the mandarins, and other officers, impoſe upon them, which makes it difficult to trade with them. But, when private traders had liberty to go to China, they were of another ſentiment; they went to thoſe places where they could get moſt money; and the people of Chuſan (where the merchants of Nankin, as well as of Hamcheu and Nimpo, two other great trading cities, lodge great quantities of merchandize) would be as inclinable to cultivate a commerce with our captains and ſupercargoes as the people of Canton are; and it is little to be doubted but we might find as much encouragement to trade to thoſe parts, as we do now to Canton, their intereſt being the ſame among them all.

We have been aſſured, that ſeveral of our other commodities, as well as our woollen, would be very acceptable towards the heart of China. If this trade could be duly eſtabliſhed, and any conſiderable quantities of our produce and manufactures vended in that populous and extended country; and could we alſo import that fine ſilk before intimated; it would exceedingly add to the profits we already receive by the India traffic, and would effectually enable us to vie, in the ſilk manufacture, with any nation in Europe; for, as cheapneſs and goodneſs always obtain preference, ſilk, ſo imported from China, would anſwer in both thoſe eſſential reſpects.

The licences given by the preſent company to private merchants, to carry on a coaſting trade in India, has proved of no little advantage to the kingdom in general; and may prove of far more, by finding out more markets in theſe parts for our European commodities. See EAST INDIA TRADE, and COMPANIES.

REMARKS.

1. From this ſhort narrative of the trade of Great Britain and Ireland, and of our American plantations, and Africa, among themſelves, ſome judgment may be made, how far theſe kingdoms can be ſaid to be independent, in point of trade, from all the reſt of the world: and, indeed, when it is duly conſidered, what quantity of ſhipping and watercraft of every kind, which are employed in our home coaſting trade round our iſlands, and likewiſe the ſhipping employed to and from Great-Britain and Ireland to our colonies in America and ſettlements in Africa, and what quantity our colonies employ amongſt themſelves: when theſe points are well weighed, our ſeamen and tunnage of ſhipping, would perhaps intitle us to the character of a maritime power, although we had no commerce with other nations. But,

If we had no commerce with other nations, and our neighbouring potentates had, and a commerce ſo wiſely regulated, that they were conſtant gainers by it, and we only carried on a domeſtic trade within our own territories, ſhould we not be at a kind of ſtand with regard to wealth and power, while other nations were daily increaſing both? Was this the ſtate of things, would it be poſſible to maintain ourſelves an independent people? Muſt we not always be at the mercy of the moſt potent neighbours, and become vaſſals to their will?

Let any man, converſant with the world, paſs but a tranſient reflection on the ſtate of mankind throughout the globe, and he will find, that ſcarce any thing prevails, but a confederacy of civil, eccleſiaſtical, and military power, againſt the liberties and properties of the whole human ſpecies, except in the little ſpots called Great-Britain and Ireland, and their dependent dominions. And was it not the advancement of the commerce of this nation, in the days of that great princeſs Elizabeth, that firſt enabled us to oppoſe thoſe chains of ſlavery, which were ſo reſolutely forged for us in Spain? And has not our trade and navigation, ever ſince, been the only means whereby we could keep pace with our enemies in riches and power, in order to defend ourſelves againſt that tyranny and oppreſſion, to which almoſt the

whole world is liable? Can any man conſider theſe indiſputable facts, and heſitate a moment, whether our trade is not ſtill the only means left us, whereby we can protect ourſelve from that bondage, wherein other ſtates are involved? Since trade, the converſe with the world, is the honeſt way to ſtrengthen and enrich a nation, and the great diſcourager of idleneſs and debauchery, &c. we being ſituated by nature, and having genii proper for it's cultivations, ought to make it our ſtudy to manage it to it's higheſt capacity of advancement; which, if we would in earneſt purſue, war itſelf would be ſuch advantage and ſecurity to us, that we ſhould not only be out of danger from our enemies, but command the trade of the world; and, on the contrary, if that be neglected, all the miſeries, attendants on ſlavery and poverty, that ſhall happen to the nation, may be aſcribed to our own improvidence and inactivity.

We contradict the received maxim, That men will attempt any thing for advantage, whilſt we neglect proper methods for improving and encouraging trade; for no greater advantage can flow from any fountain, or proceed from any faculty upon earth, than from that; for, where trade is, there will be employment; where employment is, thither will people reſort; there will be a conſumption of commodities, and thereby, as things are at preſent circumſtanced, the public revenue will be increaſed: ſo that, if we ſupport ourſelves by a flouriſhing commerce, we need not doubt but people from all parts of the univerſe would reſort hither to enjoy themſelves and improve their ſtocks.

We ſee every day, that the convenient ſituation of any eſtate gives an eſtimate, and raiſes it's purchaſe; and without convenience, life itſelf would be but a mere ſpiration, ſcarce worth the valuing: England then moſt certainly deſerves to be valued and preferred to all nations on the earth, having both to ſo great advantage.

'Tis an iſland placed as a center to the circular globe, towards which, trade may draw a line from the whole circumference; 'tis bleſt with a moderation of every element; no ſcorching ſun negroes, nor frigid zone benumbs, it's natives, but a medium influence ſtrengthens and beautifies it's inhabitants, who are of regular ſhapes; neither an unwieldy nor pigmy breed, but fit to endure the toils of war, or peaceful labours on the land: our climate is ſo moderate, that the ſun neither exhales, nor the cold phlegmatics, the ſpirituous parts, but allows a temperature between both; ſo that our native imaginations are neither too airy for conſideration, nor too dull for invention; it's ſoil is mixture and productive, and, where barrenneſs appears on the ſurface, the bowels are enriched with valuable mines, &c.

No Alpine mountains, nor Holland bogs, but a delightful variety of hills and dales, compaſs the land; ſo that, when the parching ſun burns up and chaps the higher lands, the humble meadows thrive with verdure; and, when mighty ſhowers drown the vales, the hills grow fruitful by watering; our lands, when tilled, produce a grateful plenty in return to labour; our trees in general are lofty and well topped, afford us all the conveniences that we can expect; our kingly oaks ſo firmly rib our ſhips, that our royal navy, if duly ſupported by the effects of a proſperous national commerce, will ever prove an invincible bulwark to any daring foe; our fruits are pleaſant and uſeful for ſupport; our cattle large, healthy, ſtrong, and numerous, which are as good as the world produces, for labour or for food; their ſkins are firm, and of ſo contracted pores, that better leather is no where to be met with. Our wool is very good, and, if duly regarded, would equal the boaſted Segovia; 'tis the parent of our chief manufactures, and gives us a plaudit in our cloth, baiz, ſays, ſerges, &c. throughout the univerſe. We have fowl in plenty, and that plenty good. In the boſom of our native earth are hid riches, which are eaſily obtained by the artiſt and laborious, as tin, lead, copper, iron, coals, &c. Our land is plentifully veined with rivers, refreſhing the earth, affording variety and plenty of fiſh. Nature has made ſuch a paradiſe of the land, that we ſhew ourſelves ungrateful to the divine bounty, when we are negligent of the bleſſings it hath liberally beſtowed. In ſhort, the nation is a verdure-field indented with harbours around it, where our ſhips, from their natural ſituation, may ride out the tempeſtuous ſtorm.

The ſea, by providence, is a wall which ſurrounds us, to defend us from the Pharaoh that would enſlave us; 'tis champion and ſervant too, for by our ſhips furrowing it's waves, we ſend our plenty out, and bring the riches of the moſt diſtant parts of the world into our poſſeſſions.

Ought we not to be grateful, when we conſider the bleſſings we enjoy, and the opportunities that are given us to improve them farther to our advantage? 'Tis wonderful to think, how ſeveral ſorts of fiſh, in numbers innumerable, at certain ſeaſons, viſit our coaſts by divine appointment and natural inſtinct, for our ſuſtenance; and day by day are ready, not only to furniſh us with food, but alſo to be made merchandize of to the enriching of the nation.

'Tis very obſervable how heaven bleſſes us by the courſe of the wind, that commonly blows weſterly for above half of the year, which makes all our cape lands and bays, oppoſite to the French and Dutch coaſts, good roads for our ſhips to ride with ſecurity; for we are on the weather, and the French on the lee ſhore; beſides, our anchor hold is much better than either the French or Dutch; for we have generally a ſtiff clay, chalk, or hard gravel, whilſt the French have only hard rocks, or looſe ſands; the Flemiſh and Hollanders more number of ſands on their coaſts; their water of leſs depth, and conſequently their ports choaked up with quick ſands; when our ſhips ride ſafe, even between our ſands, by our country's being a weather ſhore.

Thus, in epitome, we ſee what a rich heireſs with an immenſe fortune we enjoy, by the gift of the great Father of the univerſe; but we ſhould conſider, when this portion was given, gratitude and duty were expected, that it might deſcend as a jointure to our poſterity: but, inſtead of ſuch returns, ungrateful we, by indolent and vicious lives, forget the obligation from the donor; and, regardleſs of our preſent proſperity, neglect the means to improve the talent intruſted to our management; and, the greater the truſt is, the greater will be expected our improvement; wherefore let us no longer dally, but ſeriouſly amend, and, to our power, uſe the means put into our hands, to make us a proſperous, a powerful, and a happy people; which can be done by no honeſter way, than by trade and induſtry.

And trade is ſo noble a maſter, that it is willing to entertain all mankind in it's ſervice; and has ſuch variety of employments adapted for every capacity, that all, but the lazy and ſupine, may ſupport, at leaſt, if not enrich themſelves; it's agents are every where laborious and induſtrious; but in our Britiſh empire may be enriched, by manufacturing and improving our own and foreign products, and be defended by the increaſe of our ſeamen and ſhipping; which, if duly employed, can never be too many, being always the conveyors of our riches, as well as ſtrength of this nation: as all the felicity and glory of Britain depend upon the encouragement and good management of trade and navigation, ſo it's ruin and confuſion muſt be the conſequence of their neglect.

It is not a wonder, that ſchools, univerſities, inns of court, and colleges, ſhould be ſo careful to have regulators and inſpectors for the better government and direction in their ſeveral faculties, that are not in compariſon with the fruits of a duly regulated trade, by which they are all maintained; yet trade, that gives warmth and motion to the blood and freſh ſpirits to every part of the nation, from the meaneſt cottage to the royal throne, that provides, under God, our daily bread, is in a manner unregarded, and without a due inſpection, regulation, and encouragement! Notwithſtanding this great lady (affecting freedom and ſecurity, hath no inclination to continue under the arbitrary power of France, nor the uncertain fate of Holland, with whom ſhe hath reſided only as a ſojourner, though ſhe hath been very highly careſſed and embraced by them) is ready to eſpouſe both our intereſt and nation, and with herſelf bring in dowry the treaſures of the world; if we would vouchſafe to give her an encouraging entertainment, being very ſenſible of the great advantage we might in return give her, by ſo abſolutely ſecuring our free enjoyment of liberty, that there might appear a certainty of it's continuance to poſterity, and by having our civil rights and properties maintained; ſo that the nation may not be depopulated, both by diſcouraging ingenious artiſans and manufacturers from repairing hither, and by forcing our own out of the country to ſeek bread and protection elſewhere, and by cramping the induſtry of others that ſhall remain; which has certainly been the caſe, and the French and other ſtates have had the wit to take the advantage of our negligence, by encouraging induſtry and commerce to an amazing degree in every branch of it, by which means they became ſo potent and dangerous to all Europe, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has ſomething curbed them. How abſolutely neceſſary is it then, that all poſſible endeavours be made, to ſtudy the ableſt means and methods for the improvement of trade; which alone can give employment to our poor, and prevent robberies and murder, which are an ignominy to the nation, more effectually than any penal or ſevere laws whatſoever?

With all theſe ſuperior natural advantages, we cannot be hurt but by ourſelves; 'tis our folly only that can undo us. Had the trade of this kingdom been effectually encouraged, foreigners could not have diverted it's courſe as they have done, unleſs theſe natural advantages were annihilated; and they may as well attempt to ſink our iſlands in the ocean, as, while they remain, to deprive us of the benefits reſulting from their ſituation and produce, if we take only a reſolution to open our eyes; for, although our wounds were, before the late peace really deep, with the weighty incumberance of our debts and taxes, yet we are far from apprehending they are incurable, though our public debts are ſo greatly augmented by the laſt war.

That many branches of our foreign trade are now carried on to the diſadvantage of the nation, which a few years ſince were greatly for it's benefit, is certain from the courſes of exchange; for by Llyod's liſt now before me, of the 21ſt of April, 1752, I find that

London gave to Venice for the ducat banco 51 d. $\frac{3}{4}$

London

London gave to Leghorn for the dollar - 50
Genoa for the dollar - 49 3/4

By Sir Iſaac Newton's Tables.

Venice the par is 49 d. 492 dec.
Loſs to England about 4 1/2 per cent.
Leghorn, the par is 51 d. 69 dec.
Gain to England, about 1 2/3 per cent.
Genoa. Although the exchange is at preſent in our favour, yet as this is owing to the unhappy ſituation of their affairs at preſent, which is likely to be only temporary, no judgment can be made from thence at this juncture.

April 21, 1752.

London gave to Liſbon for the milree, 5 s. 5 d. 7/8
The par of exchange is 67 d. 166 dec. Gain to England not 2 per cent.
London gave the pound ſterling to Antwerp, for 36. 5.
The par is 35. 17 dec. Gain to England about 3 1/8 per cent.
London gave the pound ſterling to Amſterdam, for 35. 4. 2.
The par is 36 s. 59 dec. Loſs to England about 3 1/2 per cent.
The occaſion of which loſs upon the ballance with Holland, it muſt be obſerved, is not only the intereſt money, which we pay them for the millions they have in our public funds, but the remittances made through Dutch hands to pay the ballances of ſeveral branches of trade that are againſt us, all which affects our whole trade to Holland at a diſadvantage to England of 3 1/2 per cent. and conſequently the ſame to their benefit; which, added to the intereſt money England pays them as national creditors, drains us very conſiderably. And, as the continuance of theſe cauſes will always keep the exchange in our diſfavour; ſo likewiſe their diſadvantageous exchange proportionably affects our whole commerce to theſe countries, with which we negotiate our money affairs by exchange, through the medium of the Dutch exchange, which adds ſtill more to the diſadvantage of this nation.
London gave the pound ſterling to Hamburgh, for 33. 5.
The par is 35 s. 17 dec. Loſs to England about 5 per cent.
London exchanges with Norway, Sweden, Ruſſia, and moſt parts of Germany, by the way of Hamburgh and Amſterdam; and the exchange between England and that place, which is the moſt to our detriment, is alſo moſt ſo in all the bills of exchange we negotiate with the abovementioned places, through ſuch medium.
London gives to Madrid for a piece of 8/8 40 d. 3/8.
The par is 43. 2 dec. Gain above 6 1/2 per cent.
London gives to Paris 31 d. 7/16 for the French crown of three livres.
The par is 29. 149 dec. Loſs to England above 7 1/8 per cent.
Thus we have the exacteſt view, we can, of the ſtate of the trade between England and the principal nations in Europe; and we find, that we loſe more by the trade with France, than we gain by that with Spain; and ought this not to rouze us to think of taking effectual meaſures ſo to regulate our trade with that kingdom, that we may not be ſuch daily ſufferers thereby; nor be over-reached in our commercial intereſts, by the chicanery and machinations of that court?

The London courſe of exchange this 22d day of May, 1764, ſtands as follows, viz.

Exchange on

Amſterdam, 36, 6, 2, 1-half, a 2 uſ.	Cadiz, 37, 7-8th
Ditto, a ſight, 36, 4.	Madrid, 38, 1-8th
Rotterdam, 36, 7.	Bilboa, 37, 7-8th
Antwerp, no price.	Leghorn, 48, 3-8th, a 1-half
Hamburgh, 34, 10, 2, 1-half uſ.	Genoa, 47, 3-4th
	Venice, 50.
Paris, 1 day's date, 30, 1-half	Liſbon, 5 s. 6 d.
Ditto, 2 uſ. 30, 1-4th	Porto, 5 s. 5 d.
Bourdeaux, ditto, 30, 1-8th	Dublin, 9, 1-4th

How the BALLANCES OF TRADE with particular ſtates ſtand at preſent, the above courſes will ſpeak for themſelves, we leaving the application thereof to the reader, to make his own judgment.

REMARKS.

'Tis not many years ſince the Turky trade was very profitable to theſe kingdoms, it affording us markets for great quantities of our woollen manufactures, together with lead, and other our products ſhipped from hence to Conſtantinople, Scanderoon, and Smyrna; and from thence diſperſed all over the Turkiſh empire, and alſo into Perſia. But the ſcene is changed here, as we have ſeen it is in many parts of Europe, France having ſupplanted us in this once important branch of the Britiſh traffic.
That we may judge by what meaſures that crafty nation have effectuated this matter, I flatter myſelf, that it may not be unacceptable to my readers to lay before them the ſteps, they took to bring this about; which, amidſt numberleſs other politic arts, ſhould by no means paſs unoticed and unrecorded in this work.
This point was accompliſhed by the indefatigable endeavours of that able miniſter of France, Monſ. Colbert, whoſe memory will be deſervedly immortal in that kingdom. From the great increaſe of the naval power of France, at the action off Beachy-head, when the united navies of England and Holland declined a thorough battle, and plied away to avoid engaging, ſprung the increaſe of their navigation in matters of trade. For, under the happieſt œconomy of their affairs, the French then entered upon two things, which gave a new turn to the ſtate of their whole commerce. The firſt was their planting mulberry-trees, and nouriſhing the ſilk worm; by which means they annually produced a very large quantity of ſilk of their own growth, to the great increaſe of the wealth of the kingdom. The ſecond was the erecting manufactures of wool in all parts of the kingdom, and prohibiting all the Engliſh woollen manufactures to be imported among them. So that, in a few years, Monſ. Colbert ſet the poor to work all over France, in combing, ſpinning, weaving, and dyeing of woollen goods, although they had a very inconſiderable quantity of wool of their own.
The firſt conſequence of this was, that the king of France ſaw all his ſubjects clothed, however indifferently, with the manufactures of their own country, who but a few years before bought all their cloths from England, and which was more diſadvantageous to them at ſecond-hand from Flanders and the Dutch.
This was managed with ſuch exquiſite policy, and carried on with ſuch a prodigy of ſucceſs, that it would take up too much room to relate under one head, but it will more fully appear throughout this work. This profound ſtateſman, this hearty friend to the trade of his country, ſpared no expence, nor left unpractiſed any wiſe meaſure, to gain over Engliſh artiſts, and to plant them in every proper part of France; where they taught the people, ſo well, all the ſeveral parts of the manufacture, and the people were ſo eager to learn, and ſo dextrous at teaching each other, that, in a few years, they ſent their teachers home again, being as able to make and manage every branch of the woollen manufacture, as their inſtructors.
The principal care Monſ. Colbert took, next to that of planting the manufacture, and of procuring head workmen to inſtruct the people, was the furniſhing France with Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and this he did effectually; and to him we owe the injurious traffic of owling as it is called, which is carried on to this day, on the coaſts of Kent and Suſſex in England, and from divers parts of Ireland; and which all the laws, the military power, nor all the arts of the cuſtom-houſe officers, and our guarda coſta's, have not hitherto been able to ſuppreſs.
By this means, the French being able to furniſh their own people, to clothe the nobility and gentry, nay, even the king himſelf (for he determined to wear nothing that was not of the manufacture of his own ſubjects) they not only in a few years totally excluded the Engliſh woollen manufactures from that kingdom, but begun to turn their eyes abroad, and prepare to rival them at all the foreign markets of Europe, as in Spain, Portugal, and Italy; alſo in Aſia and Africa, but eſpecially in Turky and Barbary.
The unwearied application of Monſ. Colbert did all this; he informed himſelf of the various ſorts of Britiſh manufactures, which were ſold in every foreign market, and of which he had large patterns brought him: after this he erected particular works in France for the making of thoſe very goods, encouraged the merchants to export them, by cauſing credit to be given them out of the PUBLIC STOCK; that is, by the king, even till the returns for thoſe goods came home: this was particularly done with the Turky merchants at Marſeilles, WHO HAD CREDIT GIVEN THEM, 'TILL THEIR SHIPS RETURNED FROM SMYRNA AND SCANDEROON.
The ſame encouraging meaſures were given at the famous manufactory near Niſmes in Languedoc, where, 'tis ſaid, that cloths are made ſo admirably well, that ſome have even thought they have outdone the Engliſh: this we cannot credit; certain, however, it is, that they make very good cloths, and dye and dreſs them to great perfection; certain it is, that alſo they have hit the taſte of foreign purchaſers, and ſupplanted the Engliſh.
Effectually to encourage the exporting of theſe cloths, the Turky merchants of Marſeilles had nothing to do but to take a cargo to the ſum agreed on, and ſhip them off; and, having time given them for payment, the voyage came round before the money was demanded, and they paid for the cloths with the very goods which they received from Turky.
Nor did the manufacturers ſtand in need of any encouragement but what they inſtantly had, without years of expenſive attendance, ſollicitation, and cringing, as if they were craving alms, when they were attempting to ſerve their country more than themſelves. See the article MANUFACTURERS. After ſuch encouragements, is it to be at all admired, that the French ſhould ſupplant the Engliſh in the Turky trade, as they have done? Is it impoſſible for the ſkill, the credit, and worth of our Britiſh Turky merchants, aided by the wiſdom of Britiſh counſels, and ſupported with all ſuch encouragements as we have in our power, to retrieve this branch of our commerce? The names, nor the eſtabliſhed reputation

and honour of our merchants, are yet forgot in the Turkiſh empire.

Portugal is a conſtant market for corn, either from Britain or her American colonies; the latter, together with Ireland, ſupply it with great quantities of proviſions, great part of the payment of which centers in London, by the returns of wines; ſo that the Liſbon exchange is ſo far from falling to 5 s. or 5 s. 2 d. per millree, that it has not for many years been under 5 s. 3 d. and, at preſent, we find it no leſs than 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{7}{8}$; which, as before obſerved, does not make the ballance two per cent. in our favour, notwithſtanding the imaginations of ſome that we are mighty gainers by that trade. What can this be aſcribed to, but the decline of the Portugal market for our manufactures, particularly the woollen? Our foreign rivals in trade, working cheaper, ſteal it away by degrees: cloths between 8 and 11 s. per yard the Dutch ſupply them with, and have beat out ours about that price almoſt entirely. France has, for ſome time, begun to ſupply them with quantities of it and other manufactures; ſo that it appears by the exchange now, that not much of the extraordinary gain remains from Portugal, with which too many flatter themſelves; for a great part of the Portugal gold, brought here, is for Dutch account, and that of various other foreign ſtates; and, the moidores having been circulated for more than they are worth, the nation has been cheated upon that account.

The trade of Spain as yet, we ſee, continues tolerably in our favour, but the foundation ſeems to be effectually laid for it's inevitable deſtruction. That court, it ſeems, have, in earneſt, adopted the ſyſtem of the late duke de Ripperda, who laboured hard, during his adminiſtration in Spain, to eſtabliſh the woollen manufacture in that kingdom, in order to enable the Spaniards to ſupply themſelves, inſtead of taking woollen goods from England. And, for this purpoſe, have they not ſtole away our manufactures, to inſtruct their people, as the French, we have ſeen, did in the days of Colbert? Whether Ripperda took his meaſures at that time from Don Geronymo de Uztariz of Spain, whoſe ſyſtem now takes place, or the latter borrowed it from the former, is not very material; but it is obſervable, that Uztariz firſt publiſhed his thoughts of commerce and maritime affairs in 1724, which was at the time when Ripperda was at the head of the finances in Spain. The eſtabliſhment of woollen manufactures in Spain at that time of day, together with their cloſe union with the court of Vienna, did not a little alarm this nation. In a word, the Spaniards have long been reproached by other nations for their indolence and inactivity in matters of trade; but, at preſent, they may ſeem reſolute to wipe off that ſtain of ignominy, and to purſue an active, and no longer ſubmit to the diſadvantages of a paſſive, commerce. See the article BISCAY, and SPAIN.

Their reluctance alſo to ſettle thoſe diſputes, which had ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh for near forty years, in regard to America, before the late DEFINITIVE treaty took effect, did not look with that face of cordiality and friendſhip towards this nation; the propoſed regulation of the taxes upon their own commodities, and of the cuſtom-houſe duties, together with their vigorous attempts to ſettle the woollen manufacture; (all which, it ſeems, were intended to humble the power and pride of hereſy *) did not prognoſticate any good to the trade of theſe kingdoms before the laſt peace.

* See Uztariz. Father Villareal the jeſuit's approbation of his ſyſtem on commerce and maritime affairs, which approbation of this learned prieſt, we may ſuppoſe, was obtained, with a view to make the Spaniards the more readily reliſh the new ſyſtem, to the injury of the maritime, or heretical, powers.

However, the Spaniards would do well to conſider, that it would be no extraordinary puniſhment to Great-Britain to be deprived of their wines and their fruit, if they ſhould attempt to ſerve us as the French have already done, with regard to the woollen manufacture. For we ſhall now very probably be able to ſupply ourſelves with as good wines, as ever came from Spain, or Portugal, or France, by means of our new acquired colonies; and there is no other way to preſerve the trade of the nation, than by buying leſs of thoſe nations, which diminiſh their purchaſes of ours.

Our trade to Hamburgh and Germany being apparently ſo much to our detriment, and woollen and other manufactures being daily eſtabliſhing in various parts of that empire; and, as his Pruſſian majeſty, in particular, ſeems determined to have a new Eaſt-India company, and is taking all meaſures to improve every corner * of his dominions by trade; is it not time for England to think of turning the ballance in her favour with the Empire? As the great conſumption of German linnens, in England and her Plantations, is one principal cauſe of this commerce being ſo diſadvantageous, ought we not to give ſuch effectual encouragement to the Scotch and Iriſh linnens, that we may ceaſe to loſe, if we can gain nothing, by the trade of Germany? What difficulties have not the Scots and the Iriſh ſtruggled with, to bring their linnens to the perfection they have done? And what hinders, with all reaſonable encouragements from the Britiſh legiſlature, but they may arrive to as great perfection as any foreign nation; which ſure will induce all the ſubjects of the crown of Great-Britain to wear them, if we ſhould never be able to export them any where, except to our own plantations?

* They write from Berlin, that his Pruſſian majeſty being willing to favour the port of Schwiemund (which has hitherto been an obſcure place and but little frequented) has made it a corporation, giving it the title of city, and ordered divers ſorts of manufactures to be ſet up there; in conſequence of which encouragement, together with conſiderable privileges granted to all that are expert in marine matters, they have begun to build ſome new ſtreets; and, as the place is pleaſantly ſituated, and very commodious, many inhabitants of Stetin and Greyffenhague have reſolved to go and ſettle there. Utrecht Gazette, 1752.

Linnens are the ſtaple manufactures of Scotland and Ireland; and, if England preſerves the woollen for their ſtaple, the other nations ſhould have every help in our power, to carry their linnens to as great perfection as the Engliſh have brought their woollens. If they have not, how can the Engliſh expect but both will do their utmoſt to interfere in their woollen manufactory? While Germany took off large quantities of our woollen goods, it was our intereſt to take ſome proportionate quantity of their linnens in return; yet, as they have leſſened in their Britiſh imports in general, ſhall we continue to drain the nation of it's treaſure, by buying of the Germans conſiderably more than we ſell to them?

It is for the intereſt of England to give all ſuch encouragement to the trade of Scotland and Ireland, as hath no tendency to prejudice her own. But how can encouraging of the linnens and fiſheries of the former, and the linnen of the latter, be any way injurious to England? It is highly to the diſadvantage of England to ſupport either the French, the German, or the Dutch linnens, becauſe the ballance is with the two former, and ſo likewiſe with Holland, for the reaſons before given, though far leſs than they were a few years ſince. Why does Ireland carry on the clandeſtine trade of wool with France, but becauſe they have more than they can manufacture for themſelves, or ſend in wool and woollen yarn, to England? But, if they had all deſirable encouragement for their linnens, they would certainly contract their ſheep-walks, and employ them in the more uſeful branches of tillage and flax; which would not ſo interfere with the intereſt of England, as the French have done, and ſtill do, by means of the Iriſh wool. Long experience muſt convince us, that the Iriſh will ſell their wool to any nation, rather than let it rot upon their hands, or leave their ſheep-walks uſeleſs, and their lands of no value to them.

'Tis true, England encourages the importation of Iriſh wool and woolen yarn; and, was the manufacture of England ſo increaſed, as to enable her to take every ounce of their wool, except what they uſed in their own manufacture, would it not be unſpeakably more to her benefit, than to let the French have it?

It is computed, that England imports annually from Ireland, of wool, woollen and worſted yarn, about 227,049 ſtone, at 16 pounds to the ſtone. Now, the computed price at a medium of wool and yarn is at 10 s. 4 d. per ſtone; and the leaſt profit ariſing upon that, when manufactured, is computed at 2 l. 19 s. 8 d. for a ſtone of wool manufactured, without dyeing, is at leaſt worth 3 l. 10 s. eſpecially that which Ireland ſends to England, it being the choiceſt and beſt they have: if ſo, then the Engliſh muſt gain yearly, by the manufacture of Iriſh wool, 678,573 l. 15 s. 6 d. at the loweſt calculation. But, as calculated by others, it riſes conſiderably higher; as thus: A pound of wool in England is valued at 12 d. and Iriſh wool and yarn of the beſt ſort at 14 d. at leaſt: Mr. King's computation is, that the wool is the fourth of the value of it, when manufactured: if ſo, a ſtone of wool manufactured, is worth 3 l. 14 s. 8 d. and the profit, by Iriſh wool ſent to England, would then amount to 730,340 l. 19 s. Another ingenious gentleman, who wrote upon the trade of Ireland in 1687, ſays, that 3 l. worth of wool and oil, when manufactured into white cloths, are worth 13 l; at this rate, the gain to Britain upon the importation of Iriſh wool, computing ſuch as is worth 14 d. Iriſh there, would be 916,710 l. 6 s. 9 d. Which computation being made on white cloths, are ſold in England, before they are dyed and exported; the profits upon exportation after dying are to be added, which may at leaſt be ſuppoſed to amount to one third, if not one half more: ſo that the calculation given does not ſeem to be exaggerated. See WOOL.

The importation of Iriſh wool and woollen yarn into England, proving ſo beneficial to the latter, muſt convey an idea, how highly injurious the clandeſtine exportation of wool to France muſt prove to theſe kingdoms, as France not only ſupply themſelves with woollen manufactures, but have interfered therein with us in foreign nations; and, as the beſt branches of their woollen goods are compoſed principally of Iriſh wool, the quantity thereof, imported into France, can-

not be inconſiderable; none would imagine, we apprehend, that to ſuppoſe the French import, at leaſt, double the quantity of Iriſh wool the Engliſh do, in any ſhape, is beyond the bounds of truth and probability: 'tis rather to be feared, that this will be thought a ſuppoſition far below the mark; yet, if France gains as much by it as England, from what has been ſaid, we find it will not be leſs than two millions per ann. Should it be ſaid, that France, obtaining the Iriſh wool clandeſtinely, makes it come dearer to them than it does to the Engliſh legally; and that therefore the gain of France, by the manufacture of Iriſh wool, cannot be ſo great as it is to the Engliſh: to this it may be anſwered, that the greater quantity the French import, together with the benefits of exportation after dyeing, may be preſumed to compenſate more than the occaſional diſadvantage in point of price, by reaſon that ſome wool is ſeized now and then in the exportation. If then France may be reaſonably believed to gain at the rate of two millions ſterling per ann. by means of the wool of Ireland; and, if by the means thereof, the French have interfered with us more or leſs in all the countries of Europe; does it not moſt importantly concern England to divert Ireland from the raiſing of more wool than what they themſelves uſe, and what England can take from them? To do which effectually, can any thing be more natural, than ſo to encourage Ireland in their linnen and other manufactures, which do not interfere with the trade of England, as to induce them gradually to contract their ſheep-walks, and apply themſelves to the branches of tillage and flax?

I am not unaware of what has been urged in behalf of the importation of foreign linnens, and what has been formerly ſaid againſt taking off the drawback on the re-exportation of foreign linnens: but, as the ballance of trade with Germany is now againſt us, and the Scots and Iriſh have made ſo extraordinary improvements in moſt branches of the linnen manufactures: theſe conſiderations added to that ſtill more weighty one of the great benefit France receives, and the great injury England ſuſtains, by the French manufactures of Iriſh wool, does it not appear to be for the intereſt of England to encourage, to the utmoſt, the general wear of Scots and Iriſh linnens in Great-Britain and Ireland, and alſo in all the Britiſh plantations? The Scots and Iriſh linnens, in many reſpects fall little ſhort, in point of quality and cheapneſs, to the foreign linnens; and, if they receive all the public encouragement that the national concernment of ſo ſtaple a manufacture requires, is there any reaſon to doubt, but our Britiſh and Iriſh linnens will ſoon equal thoſe of any part of the world, both as to excellency and price? And, if we are once capable of ſupplying ourſelves and our plantations as cheaply with Britiſh linnen, as we do with foreign, is it not reaſonable to believe, that our colonies will receive them as chearfully as they now do foreign linnens? And, if likewiſe thoſe manufactures are once brought to the perfection of foreign, ſhall we not be able to make as acceptable aſſortments of goods for the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, as with foreign linnens? Though our own people ſhould not for ſome years arrive at the abſolute perfection of foreign linnens, yet is it good policy not to encourage them at home and our plantations, 'till they are able to arrive at the deſired perfection? Did not France firſt ſupply themſelves with the woollen manufactures, before they turned their thoughts to ſupplant England at foreign markets? But, had not due encouragement been given firſt to have ſupplied themſelves, could they ever have had any chance to have interfered with us in any other nation?

Within leſs than twenty years, the poſſibility of Iriſh linnens arriving at the perfection they at preſent are, was looked on as chimerical, and was treated as ſuch, in the capital conteſt about taking off the draw-back, upon the re-exportation of foreign linnens: but fact and experience have demonſtrated, that ſome worthy gentlemen were miſtaken in their foreſight. Nor are the linnen manufactures the only point, wherein thoſe people, as well as the Scots, have wonderfully improved within theſe twenty years, but the Iriſh have really made conſiderable improvements in divers other eſſential particulars.—As the county of Wexford is greatly advanced in the raiſing of hops; the counties of Kildare, Meath, and Kilkenny, in raiſing of corn; the county of Lowth, in marling and liming land; the county of Tipperary in raiſing of Turnips; the counties of Tipperary, alſo, and Langford, in the draining of bogs; the counties of Kildare and Meath, in gravelling land; the counties of Cork, Limerick, and Waterford, in making of butter; the Queen's County, King's County, and Cork, in making of cheeſe, and ſpinning bays yarn; the county of Wicklow, in rearing of calves and working of mines; the counties of Down, Antrim, Armagh, and Derry, in the manufacture of linnens; the Northern Counties, Roſcommon, Mayo, Langford, and Weſtmeath, in the ſpinning of linnen yarn. Wherefore, from the extraordinary ſpirit of induſtry and zeal for the advancement of commerce in that country, we may hope to ſee their linnens equal thoſe of any foreign country whatſoever.—The wonderful improvements alſo that have been made in Scotland, are no way inferior, which we ſhall ſhew in it's place; obſerving here only, that according to the information I have received from a gentleman of credit and honour,

	Yards.
The linnens ſtamped in Scotland, from the 1ſt of November, 1746, to the firſt of November, 1747, were - - - - - - - - - - -	6,661,788 1/2
From Nov. 1, 1747, to Nov. 1, 1748. - - -	7,353,098 1/2
Increaſe from Nov. 1747, to ditto 1748. - -	691,309 5/8
From Nov. 1, 1747, to Nov. 1, 1748, as above	7,353,098 1/2
From Nov. 1, 1748, to Nov. 1, 1749. - - -	7,360,286 1/8
Increaſe - - - - - - - - - - - - -	7188 3/8

But to what a degree the linnens of Scotland have encreaſed, ſee the article SCOTLAND.

And we have great reaſon to expect, as well as to hope, that the fiſheries alſo will increaſe, to the intire ſatisfaction of the united kingdoms.

The Flanderkins were once famous for carrying on the woollen manufacture, which they did by means of the wool they fetched from England. But king Edward III, by wiſely keeping our wool at home, put a ſtop to their manufacture, and eſtabliſhed it in England. If, therefore, the prohibiting our wool to be carried out had, at that time, ſo happy an effect to this nation, why ſhould not our care to prevent it's too great growth in Ireland have the ſame conſequence with regard to the French, ſince all our endeavours to prevent it's clandeſtine exportation have ſo many years proved ineffectual? As thus making it for the intereſt of Ireland ſo to contract their ſheep-walks, as to afford no more wool than what they themſelves and England can manufacture, and inducing them to employ thoſe lands in the branches of tillage and flax: as the due encouragement, given by the crown of Great-Britain to the Iriſh linnen manufactures, ſeems to be the moſt natural and effectual way to deprive France of their wool, and thereby lop off from their trade and manufactures two millions a year, and gradually reinſtate this kingdom again in the woollen manufacture, at all the markets where the French have prejudiced us: as theſe appear to be the neceſſary conſequences which muſt ariſe from a diſcouragement of foreign linnens, and encouragement of our own, I do not ſee how any thing can be urged in favour of foreign linnens, that is likely to have any ſuch happy effects in theſe kingdoms.

The French are the greateſt rivals in our manufactures; but let care be taken to prevent their being ſupplied with wool from England and Ireland, and we ſhall ſoon ſee an alteration therein. 'Tis true, they have wool of their own, but they cannot work it ſo as to injure us at foreign markets, without ours or Iriſh. As this will be laying the ax to the root of a capital branch of the French commerce, and thereby preventing the ſucceſs of their machinations for univerſal dominion, does it not become the wiſdom of the nation to think ſeriouſly of what ſo nearly and importantly concerns us? Experience has ſufficiently convinced us that war, 'till the laſt peace of 1763, has not proved the way to put it out of the power of France to hurt us. Were we to exert the Britiſh bravery at the expence of a hundred of millions more than we have done, it is certain that, under ſuch incumbrances, we ſhould grievouſly waſte ourſelves, but 'tis much to be doubted whether we ſhould gain any permanent advantage over France. For the art of war is now become a ſcience, and, indeed, a trading one, and France is often obliged to give their military people diverſion abroad, leſt they ſhould be troubleſome at home. War, therefore, every 10 or 20 years ſeems to be neceſſary to that nation; but it is no way ſo to us, but defenſively.—When the ſword is drawn, beſides thoſe who immediately engage, do we not ſee other potentates, from various views and inſtigations, are drawn in on either ſide; and what was at firſt a conteſt only between two, comes at laſt to involve twenty? Wherefore let us, ſo deal with France, and indeed, with all other nations, by the peaceable arm of commerce; let us beat them by our ſuperior induſtry in the acquiſition of ſuch uſeful arts as will not only employ our own people, but invite all hither who are oppreſſed in other countries; for plenty of people, and of uſeful arts, give them beneficial employment; and this will give us ſuch power, that no nation, or any confederacy, will dare to inſult us; and it will never be our intereſt to inſult others, but it will be our happineſs to become the univerſal aſylum for art, induſtry, and commerce, to all that are perſecuted elſewhere.

As the beating of our greateſt rivals in trade is the grand ſyſtem which we have to purſue for the preſervation of our being, as a free and an independent nation; ſo the next good policy that offers itſelf to conſideration is the cultivation of ſtrict amity with ſuch allies, whoſe intereſt it will ever be to ſupport us againſt the confederacy of enemies, as it will be ours to ſupport them againſt the like evils. Every one will at once ſee that I mean the Dutch, who muſt be ſomething attached to our intereſt, while they have above thirty millions of money in our funds; and who, next to Great-Britain, are the great bulwark of Proteſtantiſm and liberty.

Although, from the Exchange between England and Holland, it appears that the ballance is not againſt us, as it was ſome years ago, yet, when it is ſomething againſt us, I deſire again that it may be obſerved, I do not mean that the ballance of trade is againſt us, but that the ballance of money negotiations with them, is:

1. Becauſe they are ſo great national creditors, and receive intereſt of us.
2. Becauſe the money remitted to Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, and various parts of Germany, where the ballance of trade is againſt us, is remitted through their hands.

While theſe cauſes ſubſiſt, the effect muſt be that the exchange will be againſt us, with regard to money-tranſactions in general, though not with regard to thoſe of merchandize only; for, although we ſell them more real merchandize in value than we buy of them, yet the ballance will not appear in our favour by the courſe of exchange, for the reaſons before ſuggeſted.

As theſe cauſes argue no diſadvantage in point of real commerce with the Hollanders, ſo they ought not, by any means, to diſunite us in our reciprocal intereſts, in regard to thoſe who are our common rivals in trade, as well as our natural enemies.—And our union in regard to our trading intereſt, in particular, will naturally cement a union in our national intereſts in general.

The goods we ſend to Holland are of conſiderable value, whether we conſider our woollen manufactures, the product of our own country, or our plantation and Eaſt-India goods; and our returns for them in ſpices, linnen, thread, Rheniſh wines, battery, madder, whale-fines, clap-boards, &c. ſome of which are uſeful to us in our manufactures. Dr. D'Avenant, late inſpector-general of the imports and exports, in his ſecond report to the commiſſioners of the public accounts, December 11, 1711, by a medium of ſeven years, has valued our trade to Holland, though it is not quite ſo conſiderable at preſent.

Our annual exports at l.	1,937,934 : 7 : 11¼
Our annual imports at	579,832 : 1 : 2¾
Ballance	1,388,102 : 6 : 8½

The chief handle which the emiſſaries of France have made uſe of to divide us and the Dutch, has been the point of trade, in which they have always endeavoured to repreſent them as dangerous rivals. It is certain, the wealth and ſtrength of each nation doth depend intirely upon trade, and that, therefore, neither we nor they can be too careful and tender in that matter. But the world is wide enough for us both: and, if the pains and expence that have formerly been employed in the quarrels we have had with one another upon the pretence of trade, had been applied in keeping a watchful eye over our common enemies, and preventing the encroachments they have made upon us in that valuable article, the trade of both nations would have been much more extenſive and flouriſhing than it is at this time; and I am far from allowing, that the trade of the two nations engages them in ſuch a rivalſhip and competition with one another as is generally pretended. For all that have any inſight into the affairs of Holland muſt acknowledge, that their trade is chiefly founded upon their carrying goods cheaper than any nation of the world. The hard and penurious way of living they are inured to, enables them to perform the longeſt voyages with much leſs conſumption and expence than other nations: by this means they are become the common carriers of the product of other countries, having little of their own, except what ariſes from their ſettlements in the Indies. Our trade, on the contrary, conſiſts almoſt intirely in vending and diſperſing the product and manufactures of our own country and the plantations, while our freight is dearer than that of any other nation. The main branch, therefore of the Dutch commerce, no way affects, nor interferes with ours; neither, if they were to lay it down to-morrow, would any ſhare of it devolve to Great-Britain, but to the French, the Danes, the Swedes, the Hamburghers, and the other Hans-Towns, who all both can, and actually do, ſail much cheaper than we.

France, therefore, is our moſt formidable rival, and the proper object of jealouſy to both nations; who, by fomenting animoſities and quarrels between us, has had the addreſs to weaken us at our own expence, and to make herſelf powerful under favour of our folly and connivance. The diviſions between England and Holland firſt gave her the courage and opportunity to increaſe her naval ſtrength, to extend her dominions in the Indies, to drive the Engliſh out of the trade of Hudſon's-Bay, and of great part of Newfoundland; to lay ſuch high duties on our reſpective commodities as amount to a prohibition, and thereby to encourage, and even compel, her own ſubjects to eſtabliſh our manufacture in France, and by that means to run away with a great part of ours, as well as the Dutch trade, to Spain, Portugal, the Levant, and other countries.

Theſe are part of the fruit of our former quarrels with the Dutch; which, one would hope, might at leaſt have that effect, as to make us wiſer for the future, by teaching us that the only way to retrieve our paſt follies is by uniting, in order to recover thoſe valuable branches of our reſpective trades which France has taken from us; to preſerve a ballance of power in Europe, that peace and trade may flouriſh; to provide for the ſecurity of the ſeas, and ſafety of commerce; and to oppoſe any growing naval force that may endanger it.

Theſe meaſures, and a general diſcouragement amongſt us of French produce and manufactures, being purſued, would not only turn the ballance of trade with that kingdom in our favour, which, at preſent, we have ſeen is ſo ruinous to us, but defeat French machinations to diſtract Holland, and weaken us both at once, by ſowing the ſeeds of diſſentions between us.

And here I cannot but take notice of that admirable example which, it ſeems, is ſet by a great body of people in and about this great city of London, in order to diſcountenance effectually the conſumption of all French produce and manufacture, and to encourage our own artiſts and manufactures by rewards: I mean that laudable ſociety who diſtinguiſh themſelves by the title of Antigallicans, who not only bind themſelves by their honour neither to eat, drink, or wear any thing that is French, but actually do not. And, if this ſpirit ſhould ſpread itſelf throughout the kingdom, and once become faſhionable amongſt us, it will not a little advantage our own trade, and prejudice that of our rivals. Does it not concern us nearly to keep alive and ſpread this Antigallican ſpirit as much as may be?

Nor is every branch of trade to thoſe nations, to which we pay a ballance in gold and ſilver, chargeable with exhauſting our treaſure; for, if the goods we buy from any country are ſuch as we export again in the whole, or in part, for the ſame, or a greater ſum of money, our treaſure is not exhauſted by ſuch a trade; the goods we buy, by ſuch re-exportation, makes us full reſtitution for all the ſums we are out for them.

It is certain, that, beſides goods and merchandizes, we export yearly to the Eaſt-Indies, in bullion, 4 or 500,000 ounces, and yet I cannot believe that our treaſure has been exhauſted by means of that trade. See EAST-INDIA TRADE. Saltpetre, pepper, and ſome few drugs of that country, we cannot well be without; and yet I am inclined to think that our merchants would fit few or no ſhips for ſo long a voyage, if they were not alſo to have the liberty of importing manufactures. A very great quantity of Eaſt-India goods being re-exported, and at a much greater price than the whole annual ſums which are ſent from hence to the Eaſt-Indies, the conſequence is, that our treaſure is not exhauſted by that trade, ſince we have thoſe goods in exchange for our money, as procure us much greater ſums from other countries, and our whole loſs is more than repaired by re-exporting part only of theſe goods, at a much higher price than we paid for the whole.

From what has been ſaid, I would not be thought, nor do I think it juſt in thoſe that do, to condemn every trade, that carries out our bullion, of exhauſting our treaſure, but that only which carries out our bullion for manufactures to be conſumed here, which returns no ſort of goods to be ſent abroad again; and, laſtly, which no ways enables us to repair ourſelves of that loſs; and this is the caſe of our trade with France.

I had not dwelt at all on this point, did I not judge it neceſſary to the commercial intereſts of this kingdom to maintain the ſtricteſt friendſhip with Holland, and theirs to do the ſame with us. For, although we are obliged to the Dutch for taking off ſuch very large quantities of the Britiſh produce and manufacture, yet they are no leſs obliged to us for being able to furniſh them therewith, to ſupply their foreign cuſtomers, and for the commiſſion we pay them for tranſacting buſineſs for us as factors for Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, and ſome parts of Germany.

It is advanced by Dr D'Avenant, in the before mentioned Report to the commiſſioners for public accounts, p. 41, 'That 'they are wrong in their notions who pronounce, becauſe 'we carry to a country more of our growth and manufac-'tures than we bring from thence of theirs, that we muſt 'always be gainers in the ballance of trade with ſuch country. 'This would indeed hold, if the people with whom we had 'dealings of this nature conſumed among themſelves all the 'merchandize exported to them: but, as in the caſe of 'Holland, where our product and manufactures, our planta-'tion and Eaſt-India goods, are the chief materials where-'with they drive their trade with other nations; there, the 'more of theſe commodities they take from us, the more 'they enlarge their univerſal traffic, and, conſequently, in-'creaſe their riches.'—And, page 42, 'That large quantities 'of our woollen manufactures, corn, tin, tobacco, with di-'vers other commodities have been ſent to Holland, which 'goods, in the former courſe of trade, we exported directly 'ourſelves to France, &c. but, as our exports thither have 'been increaſed all along, ſo our exports to other parts muſt, 'in proportion, have diminiſhed, and what we ſeem to have 'gained, by our dealings there, we have loſt in the general 'ballance of our trade with other countries.'

For what purpoſe the commiſſioners ordered this report to be drawn up, the public need not be informed, ſince we are told, page 56, 'That in ſome ports the Dutch ſupplant us, and 'every where out-wit us; that when we find them enterpriz-'ing, vigilant, and jealous, in whatever has relation to their 'trade; and when we obſerve them ſtill endeavouring to get

'ground, and never yielding any point to us, but forming 'long ſchemes, calculated to take effect many years to come, 'in order to enlarge themſelves at our expence; it will be-'come good patriots to look about them, and to take care 'leſt, in time, England ſhould be, in a manner, excluded 'from the commercial world.'

Page 67. 'To be in a laſting condition to cope with the 'Dutch in trade, we muſt, as well in time of peace as war, 'have a fleet in readineſs, ſtrong enough upon all occaſions 'vigorouſly to aſſert our dominion of the ſea; and, in all fu-'ture treaties of commerce we ſhall make with other countries, 'we are to fence particularly againſt the arts and encroach-'ments of the Dutch, who, beyond all diſpute, are our moſt 'dangerous rivals in trade, &c.——

When the treaty of commerce between Great-Britain and France was under public conſideration, the ſtrain of talking uſed by the advocates for it was, 'That, by prohibiting the 'French trade, we only hurted ourſelves, and gave the Dutch 'an opportunity of inriching themſelves, &c.'

As it is the conſtant buſineſs of the emiſſaries of France, and other weak people, to amuſe the nation in this manner, and irritate them againſt the people in the world we ought to be the moſt careful of having any miſunderſtanding with, it may not be altogether uſeleſs to attempt further to remove theſe groundleſs notions which ſome entertain againſt the Dutch.

It is ſomewhat ſurprizing, methinks, that he, who could thus aſſert the danger our commerce was in from the Dutch, could not likewiſe take notice, that it was far from the intereſt and ſafety of Great-Britain to put France into poſſeſſion of the trade of the whole world; that he ſhould recommend excluding the Dutch from all trade, and, at the ſame time, take no notice that our Newfoundland fiſhery was given away to France at the treaty of Utrecht; that he ſhould recommend our fencing againſt the arts and encroachments of the Dutch, at the ſame time that treaties of commerce were concluding, ruinous to the trade of Great-Britain, and all it's manufactures; that he ſhould propoſe our having a fleet always in readineſs, ſtrong enough to cope with the Dutch, at the ſame time that we were ſacrificing our fiſheries, colonies, and plantations in America, to France, which were our nurſery for ſeamen, the increaſe and encouragement of the navigation of Great-Britain.

If our miniſters and ſenate, for the three laſt years of the queen, had not ſuffered the French in ſome parts to have ſupplanted us, and every-where outwitted us; if they had taken care that England had not been, in a manner, excluded the commercial world, by it's treaties of peace and commerce with France and Spain, which were concluded at Utrecht; if they had not yielded any point to France, whoſe monarch we had found enterprizing, vigilant, and jealous, in relation to trade, and to have formed long ſchemes, calculated to take effect many years to come, in order to extend it, as they have done, at our expence; happy had it been for theſe nations.

But, indeed, talking in the manner the doctor has done, could be only to amuſe the ignorant; for, as he allows that the ballance of trade was then ſo highly in our favour with Holland, and is confeſſedly ſo now, what does it avail to us whether the goods exported to Holland be conſumed in the country or not?

Can any thing be more extraordinary, than putting our being gainers or not gainers by our trade to any country, upon that country's conſuming, or not conſuming, what we export to it? Do we any more conſume all that is imported into this kingdom, than the Dutch do what is imported into Holland? If we cannot be ſaid to be gainers by our trade to any country unleſs the commodities we export to it are conſumed in it, what trades can we be gainers by, for what country do we trade with more than Holland, that conſumes within itſelf all we ſend to it of our product and manufactures, our plantation and Eaſt-India goods? But, as moſt countries export in great part the goods we import into them, ſo do we likewiſe export great part of the goods and merchandize which we import from Holland, Hamburgh, &c. either in kind, or manufactured.

In the report before quoted, there is not only great venom againſt the Dutch, but alſo, that, in a medium of ſeven years, our annual exports to Holland exceeded the value of our imports l. 1,388,102:6:8½, there is this remarkable paragraph, page 21. 'If the Dutch had not found their account 'in the prodigious quantity of effects annually exported to 'Holland from hence; and, if ſo wiſe a ſtate had perceived 'itſelf to carry on a loſing trade, they would have put a ſtop 'to this miſchief, either by prohibition of, or high duties 'upon, our product and manufactures; for which they had 'ſufficient pretence, from the additional impoſitions we have 'laid upon their linnens, and other goods.'

Who diſagrees with the doctor, that not only the Dutch, but other countries, have a ſufficient pretence to lay duties on the commodities we import into their dominions? And muſt we not conclude the Dutch would certainly have put a ſtop to ſuch an exceſs of traffic, which muſt ſoon have made them poor, had they not been made good the ballance they paid us annually, by the trade they had with other countries, which they were enabled to carry on more extenſively and advantageouſly, by means of the commodities imported from England?

The Dutch, by their large ſtocks in trade, by the intereſt of money being lower than ours, and by having little or no duties upon the goods imported into Holland, are enabled to make their country a magazine for all goods and merchandize, and to carry on an univerſal commerce; and, if they did not buy ſuch great quantities of our product and manufactures, our plantation and Eaſt-India goods, and carry them to foreign markets cheaper than we can, what people could we depend upon doing it, or by whom would our commodities be equally introduced into ſo many parts of the world?

If the Dutch can carry, to any part of the world, not wholly dependent upon them (as many ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies are) our growth and manufactures, our plantation and Eaſt-India goods, cheaper, and afford them at leſs price, it is either our fault, or misfortune: but, if this ſhould be the caſe, and they can deal on better terms with other countries, even with our own commodities, it would much better become us to correct our errors, which give them ſuch advantages over us, than to be angry with them, and preſently denounce their final deſtruction.

That the Dutch may enlarge their traffic by the commodities they have from us, is not more certain than that the great exportation we have had for ſo many years to Holland, has partly occaſioned the landlord to receive his rent duly; the farmer's ſelling the product of his land at ſo high a rate; and that wool, tin, lead, leather, &c. have borne the greater price; and not only this, but encouraged the manufactures of this kingdom going on more chearfully, and ſtood in the room of money, which otherwiſe muſt have been exported to have paid our armies abroad, and left the nation deſtitute of caſh to circulate it's commerce.

It is the reciprocal intereſt of Great-Britain and Holland, on a civil, as well as a religious account, to be united, and promote each other's happineſs and proſperity; and it is far from ſhewing any regard for our own preſervation, and the liberties we enjoy, when we denounce deſtruction to that people who are, next to ourſelves, the beſt and greateſt ſupport of the proteſtant religion in all Europe. Can any man reflect upon this, and what they have undergone, with ourſelves, in the defence and maintenance of our religious and civil liberties, and regret that they enlarge their traffic, and increaſe their riches, or think it reaſonable for us to differ with them, becauſe they take off ſo much of our produce and manufactures, and ſupply other countries with it cheaper than we can do ourſelves?

But if theſe rivals, as they are called, of ours in trade, were cruſhed, it would not follow that the trade of the world would, as imagined, fall wholly to our ſhare: 'For, ſays 'Sir William Temple, if the trade of Holland ſhould be 'ruined, it would certainly break into ſeveral pieces, and 'ſhift to us, to Flanders, to the Hans-Towns, or any other 'parts, according as the moſt of thoſe circumſtances ſhould 'any-where concur to invite, and the likeſt to ſuch as appear 'to have drawn it to Holland, by ſo mighty a confluence of 'people, and ſo great a vein of induſtry and parſimony a-'mong them.'

If this great man had been to write at this time, he would have included the French by name, who have of late years become our greateſt and moſt dangerous rivals in trade, and had almoſt engroſſed the riches of America to themſelves; and if they had not been checked, as they have happily been, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, were in the moſt certain road to have cut us out of the greateſt part of the trade of EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, as well as AMERICA.

When the French commerce bill was in debate, we were told, and it is not uncommon to hear ſome talk in the ſame ſtrain now, that our goods were firſt ſent into Holland, Flanders, Italy, &c. and afterwards into France, under the preſſure of the high duties; that is, when we could not get them into France by means of paying the French ſuch duties, they were able to bear the high duties of France, and other countries together. Theſe are ſuch abſurdities as can never be believed by any reaſonable man, yet greedily ſwallowed by too many among us.

Dr D'Avenant, by ſaying, in his 42d page, 'That our exports 'to other parts muſt decreaſe in proportion (which, by the 'way, is a manner of begging the queſtion, rather than 'proving it) and what we ſeem to have gained in our dealings 'there (i. e. Holland), we have loſt in the general ballance 'of trade with other countries:'

Whatever intention this gentleman may have had to excite our indignation againſt that people (as he plainly has by the tenour of that part of his report) he has unhappily brought an argument that cannot ſerve his purpoſe; for ſuppoſing, though not granting it to be true, that the channel of trade has been changed, as he would inſinuate it to be, and allowing his argument the full force it is capable of, viz. that, if we increaſe in our traffic to Holland only ſo much as we decreaſe in our commerce to other parts, we are not then gainers in the ballance of our general trade by ſuch an addition of our trade to Holland; and alſo laying aſide, for argument ſake,

the conſideration mentioned above, whether if the trade were ſtill driven, as he ſuppoſes it to have been, in as great a degree to other parts, we had not been obliged to take conſumable and detrimental commodities from ſuch other nations, in exchange for our own: which is by no means the caſe of our trade with the Dutch; that trade being no prejudice to our general trade; and if it be, at the utmoſt, only no advantage, and is not a prejudice to us, there is the leſs provocation given for his angry paragraph, page 67. It would have been more proper for the doctor to have ſaid, that to ſuch other nation (if he could have inſtanced in any) whoſe commerce he apprehends has been prejudiced by ſuch an alteration in the channel of our trade; for it can have no weight with us, becauſe if we neither get nor loſe, but that the ſame trade is ſtill driven, how are we concerned, or why ſhould we be angry with the Dutch? Let them that are prejudiced complain, we are unconcerned in the matter, ſo far as his argument relates to the increaſe of our trade, without conſidering other conſequences, whether it is to the one or the other nation, that our commodities and manufactures are exported.

The Dutch are an induſtrious trading people, and it is almoſt impoſſible for them to ſubſiſt without driving that commerce they do; but have we any reaſon to be angry with them who are our natural allies, for puſhing their traffic as far as they are able?

I would not willingly be thought uncharitable, and I hope I ſhall not be deemed ſo in declaring, that thoſe who are ever grumbling, railing at, and damning the Dutch, are as well ignorant of the happineſs of enjoying liberty and the Proteſtant religion, as of the true intereſt of their country; and that it has been the endeavour of the beſt and greateſt men in this nation, ever ſince the Reformation, or the Dutch throwing off the Spaniards, to maintain a ſincere and ſolid friendſhip with Holland.

The world is large enough to employ the induſtry and wealth of Great-Britain and Holland; and it would be abſurd if one neighbour ſhould differ from another for being more frugal, vigilant, active, and, conſequently, to thrive better than himſelf; on the contrary, he is to emulate this man, and, as near as poſſible, to ſquare his own actions by thoſe rules which he finds has made the other proſperous: this holds, likewiſe, between countries that are rivals in the ſame myſteries; and, if we will ever pretend to outdo the Dutch in trade, we muſt practiſe ſeveral of their virtues, and lay aſide many of our own vices.

It is to be wiſhed that we could be brought to reflect ſeriouſly upon what is ſaid by Sir Richard Steele, in his importance of Dunkirk conſidered, 'That all reaſonable men know 'that the Dutch can reap no advantage but muſt flow from 'their induſtry and our negligence; but the power of France 'cannot only rival us in trade, but alſo, when the king 'pleaſes, invade us again by the pretender.' Has not our DEFINITIVE TREATY put it out of their power to do this, if HOLLAND and we do but ſincerely unite our powers againſt France, when needful? Dr D'Avenant, in his Diſcourſe on trade, &c. alſo ſays, 'Though the Dutch may 'never turn their ſtrength to hurt the traffick or peace of 'England, yet 'tis no very remote fear to apprehend that, 'notwithſtanding all their riches, they may at laſt become a 'prey to France.

'And if the French, with the Dutch ſhipping in their right, 'and as their lords, ſhould once become maſters of the Eaſt-'India trade, ſuch an acceſſion to that wiſe, well-peopled, 'and large empire, muſt prove our ruin.' If the new acquiſitions we have ſecured to ourſelves are duly preſerved and encouraged, will it not be out of the power of France to injure us without being ſtill greater ſufferers? See AMERICA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, BISCAY, &c. BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

Thus have we endeavoured to remove thoſe cauſeleſs prejudices too many have conceived againſt the Dutch, and hope this matter is ſet in ſo clear a light, and according to the ſentiments of thoſe who have underſtood our trading intereſt beſt, as to diſabuſe ſuch who have been impoſed upon; which will convince them, that we have been more obliged to them than to any one country wherewith we have exerciſed commerce, for keeping our poor from ſtarving, and our products and manufactures from ſinking; in upholding and augmenting the price of lands, and enabling the tenants to pay their rents; in eaſing the landed men in the taxes, on land in particular, and enabling every ſubject to contribute to the taxes in general, in being aſſiſtant to us in preſerving our holy religion and maintaining our own, and the liberties of all Europe.

What has been ſaid I conceive ſufficient alſo for making a judgment of our commerce with thoſe ſeveral countries, and the advantage, or otherwiſe, in a great meaſure accruing to this kingdom by all, or any of them; wherein I have omitted to give the particular amount of the trade and ballance by each country from the Cuſtom-houſe accounts, becauſe that is a touch-ſtone which can give no ſatisfactory account of the matter; and, therefore, has been rejected by ſome of the moſt judicious writers upon this ſubject: inſtead of which, they have made the courſes of exchange between us and thoſe countries not only the more certain criterion, but by far the eaſieſt way to determine this matter. Wherefore I have made uſe of the ſame; for which I have given my reaſons under the articles ARBITRATION of Exchanges, and BALLANCE of Trade, and ſhall endeavour to confirm the truth thereof throughout this whole work, from ſuch variety of lights as will corroborate each other.

To what I have already ſaid in regard to this point, under the beforementioned heads, I would only add for the preſent: Firſt, That exchange ſhews us daily which of two nations is owing the other, and, conſequently, that it is the true BAROMETER of COMMERCE.

Secondly, That the nation which is indebted has the diſadvantage in commerce, and that the one to which a ballance is owing has the advantage.

And, thirdly, That advantageous commerce neceſſarily draws ſpecie, or bullion, into the ſtate which has the advantage, or to which the ballance is owing; and that they are exported out of that ſtate which has the diſadvantage, or which is indebted.

There are, however, caſes which may occaſion ſome exception to this rule. There happen, at ſome particular times, extraordinary movements in the courſe of exchange. Thoſe which are owing to ſome particular turn of trade, are ſeldom of any continuance, nor conſiderably felt by traders: things ſpeedily return into their natural ſituation, and the ballance leans ſometimes to one ſide, ſometimes to another; but it is quite otherwiſe when theſe movements are occaſioned by cauſes that are ſuperior to, and independent on, commerce. For example, a recoinage of money in France, which brings too much advantage to the king, and, conſequently too much loſs to his ſubjects, or a chamber of juſtice, a viſa, &c. in that country, induce people to ſend their money abroad, in order to ſave a part of their loſs. In ſuch caſes, though the French are not then debtors, yet the exchange falls at once. It is the ſame caſe when a ſtate, for ſome political conſideration, is obliged to pay great ſums in foreign countries, without having received a compenſation: then that export is the fall of exchange; it is much more ſenſible, and of much longer continuance. In ſuch a caſe, before practically engaging in exchange, it ought to be nicely ſtudied, and narrowly examined; and, if it be found not capable to bear conſiderable returns, it is much better to tranſport money in kind than to ruin trade.

Let that be as it will, it is however certain, that they who attentively conſider the daily courſe of exchange, by ſeeing which of two nations is indebted to the other, or which has the advantage or diſadvantage in trade, will alſo ſee what is to be done for ſupporting that exchange, or for benefiting trade. This method of knowing the ballance of trade is infinitely more ſure and expeditious, than that of examining the imports and exports of merchandize; for it enables the legiſlature daily to take ſuch meaſures as may either maintain and preſerve the advantage, if we have it, or recover it, if we have it not; whereas, that which reſults from the examination of commodities which are imported and exported, can only be known a long time after; and then it is out of time to carry proper meaſures into execution.

If what has been ſaid at preſent, and what is alſo ſaid under the other articles referred to, with reſpect to the exchange being the moſt certain touch-ſtone, whereby to judge of the ſtate of trade between one nation and another, ſhould not be ſatisfactory; I might confirm the truth thereof by the authority of many able writers, though reaſon and demonſtration, we conceive, are intitled to greater regard than any mere authority. Yet, ſince what I have wrote on this topic in the former part of the work, there has appeared a very ingenious Italian writer, who has juſtified what has been urged, it may not be improper to quote him upon this occaſion. The author I mean is the celebrated Signior Marcheze Gerolamo Belloni, merchant and banker at Rome, in his treatiſe De Commercio, where, in his third chapter De monetaria permutatione, he ſays *, 'Though, to the generality of mankind, the word exchange may ſeem to be a mere 'metaphyſical term, and does not ſignify any thing that hath

* Quanquam hujuſmodi cambii vocabulum pleriſque metaphyſicum eſſe videtur, nihilque in ſe habere, quo res certa, & vere exiſtens demonſtretur; nihilominus ſi ea, quæ à nobis antehac dicta ſunt, accuratius recolantur, deprehendetur profecto, rem hanc ſuum eſſe non imaginarium, ſed verum habere à Commercio. Quod ut planum fiat, illud primum ſtatuatur oportet, cambii nomine nihil aliud niſi pretium pecuniæ exterorum regnorum intelligi ſolere, quod quidem pretium quum non aliunde motum ſuum, niſi ab ipſo commercio acquirat; ejus naturæ eſt, ut regni alicujus, aliorum regnorum reſpectu, quoad negationem, ſtatum appoſite manifeſtet. Etenim ſi moneta, ut ſæpe diximus nihil aliud eſt, quam menſura quædam, quæ rebus ipſis quæ ſub ratione commercii intra regnum aliquod continentur, apta proportione reſpondet; ipſum moretæ exterorum pretium ſeu cambium illud eſt, nec alia ſane res, quæ intrinſecus detegit, ſive quum commercium cum exteris ſit in æquilibrio; ſive quum verſa lance impar feratur; aut denique quum ratione ponderis præpolleat.

'a real being and exiſtence in nature; yet, if we attentively 'conſider what has been ſaid, every one muſt be convinced 'that trade is that which gives exchange a real and practical, 'not an imaginary, exiſtence. To explain which further, 'it muſt be obſerved, that, by exchange, nothing is meant 'but plainly the price of foreign money, which derives it's 'fluctuation from traffick only, as before intimated. Whence 'it is in it's nature adapted to indicate the true ſtate of one 'nation, when compared to another, with regard to their 'commerce. For if money, as before ſhewn, is only a cer-'tain meaſure whereby to determine the proportions of thoſe 'things within a kingdom which are comprehended under 'the nature of commerce, exchange is that which diſcovers 'intrinſically whether the trade of ſuch kingdom is upon an 'equality with foreigners, or whether the ballance of trade 'is either in it's favour, or otherwiſe.'—And, in another part of the ſame chapter he ſays †, 'When trade ſtands in æqui-'librio, or upon equal terms between nation and nation, the 'price of exchange will be at par, or will be equal to the real 'intrinſic value of the money; but, if the ballance of trade 'is againſt ſuch a kingdom, the courſe of exchange will be 'above the par, or above the intrinſic value of the money; 'and, on the other hand, if the ballance of trade be on the ad-'vantageous ſide, the courſe of exchange will be below par, or 'beneath the intrinſic value of the money.'

Though I have endeavoured to ſhew, that the exchange is the characteriſtic chiefly to be relied on, in our diſquiſitions about the ſtate of trade with particular nations; yet I would not be underſtood wholly to reject all knowledge than can be derived from the cuſtom-houſe accounts: on the contrary, I ſhall endeavour, occaſionally, to make the beſt uſe and application of thoſe accounts, according to the degree of light and certainty they will afford, in relation to the ſubject I am engaged on.

'Twas for this reaſon, that I choſe to make uſe of the cuſtom-houſe accounts, as given us by Dr D'Avenant, in regard to the trade between us and the Dutch; becauſe the exchange, in this inſtance, does not indicate the true ſtate of the mere trade between us and that country, though, as ſhewn, it does the ſtate of money-tranſactions in general. Another reaſon for introducing that account given us by the doctor, was, with deſign to take an occaſion from thence to urge, what I have done, with reſpect to a matter wherein the two nations appear to be highly intereſted.

But, if the reader ſhould not have all deſireable ſatisfaction upon this head, from the whole of what has been ſaid, in various parts of this work, taken in it's united weight and energy, he may be aſſured to meet with much more hereafter. For, in a work ſo diſpoſed as this is obliged to be, 'tis deſired the reader will conſtantly obſerve, that it cannot be expected, I ſhould fully diſcuſs every point in one article; and, therefore, I am under the neceſſity of referring to ſuch other heads, as have a natural connection and affinity with each other. See FLANDERS, NETHERLANDS, HOLLAND.

BRITANY, the moſt north-weſt principality of France, is a peninſula, bounded on all ſides by the ocean, except towards the eaſt, where it borders on Anjou and Maine; on the north-eaſt, where it borders on Normandy; and on the ſouth-weſt, where it borders on Poictou; it is one of the largeſt provinces of France. The ſoil here yields paſture, hemp, wood, minerals, corn, and but very little wine. The meadows feed abundance of cattle, eſpecially horſes, of which a very good race is bred here. Hemp and flax grow in great plenty, ſo that abundance of canvas and linnen is made in this province. There are alſo here ſome mines of iron, lead, copper, and tin. This province is happy in havens, having more good ſea-ports than any other parts of France. The inhabitants are good fiſhermen, being encouraged by the great variety of delicate fiſh taken on their coaſt, particularly ſalmons, herrings, ſardines, and a certain fiſh of a moſt delicious taſte, called imperator, or empereur at Marſeilles, and gracieux ſeigneur, or gracious lord, in Britany; beſides tunnies, porpuſſes, dolphins, ſturgeons, and ſome others, appropriated to the royal fiſhery.

RENNES, the capital city of Britany, ſtands on the conflux of the Iſle and the Vilaine, which divides the city into two parts, and makes the trade of it flouriſh, by means of the large boats which come here from the ſea, above fourteen leagues diſtant from it.

VITRE is pretty large, and well peopled. They make in the pariſhes round it coarſe cloth, which they export to various parts of Europe and the Weſt-Indies. This cloth is proper to make ſmall ſails. The women and maidens of all conditions at Vitré knit thread ſtockings and gloves, which are ſent into Spain, and even the Indies. They ſell about twenty thouſand livres worth of them every year.

† Quando commercium obtinet æquilibrium; illud efficit, ut nempe cambium ſeu pecuniæ exterorum pretium intrinſeco monetæ valori æquale ſit; ſi vero illius commercium præ altero minoris fuerit, tunc cambium ſeu pretium monetæ exterorum intrinſecum ipſius valorem excedit; quod ſi demum lancis pondus in regni favorem inclinat, tunc monetæ eorumdem pretium interiori monetæ valore inferius evadit.

At FOUGERES, the trade of leather which the inhabitants carry on, makes their city flouriſh.

The city of NANTES is the capital of a country of the ſame name, the ſecond city of Britany, and a great mart for trade, vaſt quantities of all ſorts of merchandizes being brought in by the river Loire, which flows up to it's walls, and brings up very large boats, and ſhips of ſmall burthen; and from hence, by the ſame river, foreign goods are ſent to Anjou, Blois, Orleans, &c. and native commodities brought down. An excellent ſort of brandy is exported hence into foreign countries. By reaſon of this convenience for trade, the city has been from time to time conſiderably increaſed; and there are now four ſuburbs round it, which are much larger than the city itſelf, and very well filled with inhabitants. One of the ſuburbs, called la Foſſe, is near the harbour, and inhabited by rich merchants. There is here a large key, along which are fine houſes, and very large warehouſes. There is a very particular kind of ſociety or partnerſhip eſtabliſhed above a century ago, between the merchants of Nantes and thoſe of Bilboa in Spain. The ſociety is called the Contraction, and has in each of theſe cities a reciprocal tribunal, after the manner of a conſular juriſdiction; a merchant of Nantes who happens to be at Bilboa, has a right to ſit in this tribunal, and has a deliberative voice; and the merchants of Bilboa are uſed after the ſame manner, when they are at Nantes. It is becauſe of this ſociety, that the Spaniſh wool pays but a very ſmall duty at Nantes, and that, in return, the linnens of Britany are upon the ſame footing at Bilboa. Theſe two cities had even formerly ſhips in common, which traded for the profit of the partnerſhip; but this is now no longer practiſed. They have eſtabliſhed of late at Nantes a manufactory of cotton linnens, which ſucceeds as well as that which has been long ſince ſet up at Rouen, and may even exceed it in time, becauſe cotton and indigo are here much cheaper than at Rouen.

The inhabitants of GUERANDE are rich, and drive a good trade in white ſalt, made in the neighbouring ſalt-marſhes, and which the Engliſh and Dutch load at the port of Croiſil. There is alſo here a fair kept every year, during which they ſell a great many horſes.

CROISIL, ſituate between the mouths of the Vilaine and the Loire, on the ſea-coaſt, has a large and very ſafe harbour.

The city of St MALO is ſecured to the ſea by a ſhoal of ſand that encompaſſes it, and by ſeveral rocks and ſmall iſlands, that make the harbour of a difficult acceſs, ſo that it is reputed one of the beſt keys of France. At low ebb, the port is left almoſt dry, by which means it is very eaſy to build or to refit veſſels here. This city is very conſiderable for it's trade and ſtrength, and the ſkill of it's inhabitants in maritime affairs; by which great numbers of privateers are, in time of war, fitted out from hence, which greatly diſturb the trade of thoſe ſeas. Beſides their trade to England, Holland, and Spain, they fit out a great number of ſhips from one to three hundred tons, for the cod-fiſhery in North America.

At DINAN, in the ſuburb called Jargia, along the ſide of the river Rance, is a fine key.

The land in the neighbourhood of DOL, produces a great deal of hemp, of which they make a coarſe cloth.

In the dioceſe of St BRIEUX, are ſeveral manufactures of linnens, and the land produces a vaſt deal of corn and abundance of fruit, of which they make cyder.

LAMBALE is particularly famous on account of the adjacent paſtures, wherein are fed many herds of cattle, and for it's conſiderable trade in parchment.

The trade at TREGUIER conſiſts chiefly in horſes, corn, hemp, and flax. They alſo make here a great deal of paper, of which they ſend a conſiderable quantity to divers parts of Europe. Here is a ſmall harbour, which is pretty ſafe.

The river of MORLAIX is deep, and receives veſſels of a hundred tons, which by means of the tide come up into the town; by the convenience whereof it is a place of good trade, which conſiſts in flax, canvas, paper (made here in great quantity) linnen cloth, thread, and other commodities, that are exported hence into Holland, and other parts. This has ſo increaſed the number of the inhabitants, that two ſuburbs have been added to the town, called Venice and St Matthew. Here is a market kept twice a week.

At LANION was formerly a conſiderable trade in butter, but it is now very much decayed, ſince the people of Paris fetch their butter from Iſigni in Lower Normandy. Their chief trade now conſiſts in wine from Bourdeaux and la Rochelle, which the merchants of St Malo come and buy here.

BREST is one of the grand magazines of the admiralty of France. The harbour is encompaſſed with very fine keys, on which are built ſeveral warehouſes, filled with all ſorts of naval ſtores. Here the greateſt number of the French navy winter, and are fitted out; and ſhips of 80 or 90 guns are built here, which make it a populous and rich place.

QUIMPOR is ſituate on the Oder, into which a ſmall river called Benandet falls, ſurrounding the town, and making it a kind of iſland. The Oder is here ſo deep, that barks of a large ſize are conveyed at high tide to the port at the confluence of the two rivers, where ſtands the ſuburb termed the Duke's Land, and inhabited by many rich merchants.

The ſea which ſurrounds COUCARNEAU, forms it's port by a ſmall intrenchment, which leaves but a very narrow entry for the veſſels to come in. They are ſheltered here from all ſtorms by the mountains, which ſtand along this intrenchment.

AUDIERNE is a ſmall ſea-port, agreeably ſituate in a little bay, on the mouth of a rivulet which comes from Pont le Croix.

DOARNEMES has a good port, and lies at the upper end of a bay, to which it gives it's name.

VANNES is watered by two little rivers, which join here, and make the port capable to receive ſeveral veſſels of 200 tons burthen. The key is built with large free-ſtones, as well as the mole or pier, which lies acroſs a little marſh, near which are ſeveral magazines and fine houſes, inhabited by rich merchants. The inhabitants of the dioceſe of Vannes have a very good trade by means of ſeveral rivers, and their neighbourhood to the ſea.

The harbour of PORT-LOUIS is very good and ſafe. The largeſt ſhips enter in very eaſily, and go up to the end of the bay at a place called l'Orient. Here are the warehouſes, and chief eſtabliſhments of the French Eaſt-India company. Lewis the XIVth made a very good uſe of this port during the war, having cauſed ſeveral men of war of the firſt rate to be built and rigged here. Notwithſtanding the convenience and ſafety of this harbour, yet very few merchants have ſettled here; the reaſon of which is, that they would be obliged to fetch their merchandizes from Nantes, ſo that they could not ſell them ſo cheap as the merchants of that city. The only trade therefore of Port-Louis, conſiſts in ſardines and congers.

At HENNEBON are ſeveral rich merchants. It is ſituate on the river Blavet.

BRITISH AMERICA, or the ſtate of the trade of the colonies and plantations in America, that belong to the crown of Great-Britain. Under the article of America, the reader is deſired to obſerve, that we have given a general account of the commerce of that part of the world, with reſpect to Europe, Africa, and Aſia, which ſhews the general dependency, in regard to trade, of one quarter of the world upon the other. This we judged a neceſſary introduction to a particular account of the trade of the new world, with relation to the ſeveral European potentates, among whom the American territories are principally divided. To do which in the moſt acceptable manner, and according to the alphabetical order to which I am confined, I have referred from America as the root to BRITISH AMERICA, as a branch for what concerns Great-Britain; to FRENCH AMERICA, for what concerns France, &c.

The colonies and plantations in America, belonging to the crown of Great-Britain, conſiſt of thoſe upon the continent, and of thoſe which are iſlands. Thoſe upon the continent, ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, are as follow. [See the article AMERICA.] Viz. FLORIDA, GEORGIA, the CAROLINAS, Virginia, Maryland, Penſylvania, the Jerſeys, New York, New England, New Scotland, or Acadia, Newfoundland, Hudſon's Bay, and CANADA and all it's DEPENDENCIES. The iſlands are thoſe of Jamaica, Bahama, Bermudas, Anguilla, St Martin's, which belongs to the Dutch as well as the Engliſh, Barbuda, St. Chriſtopher's, Nevis, Antigua, Montſerrat, Dominica, St Vincent, TOBAGO, GRENADA, and the GRANADINES, Barbadoes.

Florida we have had annexed to the crown of Great-Britain by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. This new Britiſh colony on the continent, is rendered advantageous to this kingdom, from its ports of PENSACOLA, and MOBILLE, and the Britiſh right of navigation in the MISSISSIPPI, through the GULPH OF MEXICO, and likewiſe by the PORTS OF ST AUGUSTINE and ST MOTTHEO, lying in the GULPH OF FLORIDA; and being ſo contiguous to the Bahama iſlands, and Georgia and Carolina, conſtitute together a very good maritime barrier to our ſouthern colonies on the continent of America. See BAHAMA ISLANDS, FLORIDA, AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

Florida lies on the eaſt of the Miſſiſſippi river, and extends to the weſt frontiers of Carolina and Georgia, is ſeparated from Canada on the north by the Apalachian mountains, and has the Gulph of Mexico at the ſouth. What is called the Peninſula of Florida, has Georgia on the north, the Gulph of Mexico on the ſouth-weſt, that of Florida on the ſouth, with the channel of the Bahamas; and the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt.

GEORGIA, a Britiſh colony on the continent of North America, lying within the province of Carolina, as deſcribed in the charter to it's late proprietors, is by ſome reckoned the third grand diviſion of it. 'Tis ſeparated from South Carolina by the river Savannah on the north, has the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, Indian Florida on the weſt, and is ſeparated from Spaniſh Florida on the ſouth, by the river Alatamaha. 'Tis above 170 miles from north to ſouth, and above 300 from the midſt of the coaſt to the Apalachian mountains, and extends on the north-weſt even as far as the river Miſſiſſippi. By ſeveral treaties made and renewed with the Cherokees, Chikaſas, the Nautches, and the three Creek Indian nations, the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty have a right of poſſeſſion from Lake Erie to the Chikaſas, at the river Miſſiſſippi; whereas, in many of thoſe parts, the French have no other title but that of intruſion and force. When general Oglethorpe, one of the firſt promoters and truſtees of this colony, went generouſly with the firſt colony of the Engliſh, at his own expence, he and their allies made treaties and cemented our friendſhip with the Indian nations, who extend themſelves to the river Miſſiſſippi.

Before the general's arrival here, this country had the name of Yammacraw, an Indian nation; whoſe chief Tomochichi, that had been baniſhed, with others, from his own country, readily entered into a cloſe friendſhip with him; which was the more agreeable to both parties, as there was no other Indian nation within fifty miles. About this time alſo, the chief men of the lower Creek Indian nations, conſiſting of eight tribes, who are allied together, and ſpeak the ſame language, came to the number of fifty perſons, with their attendants (ſome of them after a journey of five days) to treat of an alliance with this colony. Theſe Indians laid claim to all the land from the Savannah river, as far as St Auguſtin, and up Flint river, which falls into the bay of Mexico. Thoſe Indians promiſed by ſolemn treaty, and with the higheſt affection to their Engliſh brethren, to encourage no other white people to ſettle in their country, to which they all ſet the marks of their reſpective families.

The year following, an alliance alſo was made with another Indian nation in this country, called the Nautches, Natches, or Natchitoches, tending very much to the ſecurity of this new colony. But we have ſuffered theſe our faithful allies to be almoſt abſolutely deſtroyed by the French, from their ſettlements on the Miſſiſſippi; which, any one will eaſily believe, has had no tendency to ſtrengthen our friendſhip, and render the Britiſh name reſpectful among Indian nations; who, in general, are alone capable of ſupporting all our colonies in North America; and, theſe in particular, might, with proper management, not only have been rendered an invincible barrier to Carolina and Georgia, but have proved of extraordinary advantage to the commerce of theſe colonies. For,

Theſe Indians, when their kings and chief were prevailed on by the addreſs of general Oglethorpe, to come to England, gave teſtimony, that they were men of good ſenſe, and hearty well-wiſhers to a laſting commercial correſpondence betwixt this nation and theirs; and therefore deſired of the truſtees, that the weights, meaſures, prices, and qualities of goods, to be purchaſed by them with their deer-ſkins, might be ſettled; and that nobody might be ſuffered to trade with the Indians in Georgia, without a licence from the truſtees, that the Indians, in caſe of injury and fraud, might know where to complain. They further deſired, that there might be but one ſtorehouſe in each Indian town, from whence the traders ſhould ſupply them with goods at the fixed prices; becauſe they ſaid the traders had often, in an arbitrary manner, not only raiſed the prices of their goods, but given them, at the ſame time, ſhort weights and meaſures; and, by their impoſition, had created frequent animoſities between the Engliſh and the Indians, which had often ended in wars prejudicial to both their intereſts.

Upon theſe remonſtrances, the truſtees prepared the following acts, which being laid before the king and council in January, 1735, were, after a report from the board of trade, ratified by his majeſty, viz. 1. An act for maintaining the peace with the Indians in the province of Georgia. 2. An act to prevent the importation and uſe of rum and brandy in that province, or any kind of ſpirits or ſtrong waters. 3. An act for rendering the colony more defenſible, by prohibiting the importation of negroes.

On the 30th of October, 1734, Tomochichi the Indian king, &c. being conducted from the Georgia office in the king's coaches to Graveſend, embarked for their own country, after four months ſtay in England; during which, they were allowed by his majeſty 20 l. a week for their ſubſiſtence, and were entertained in a moſt magnificent manner, not only by the Court, but by ſeveral perſons of diſtinction, who had the proſperity of that colony at heart. Nothing was wanting to give them an idea of the politeneſs and grandeur of the Engliſh, and of our nation's regard for the Indians. They carried away handſome preſents; and, 'tis ſaid, the Duke of Cumberland (then but thirteen years of age) preſenting the young prince with a gold watch, exhorted him to call upon Jeſus Chriſt every morning when he looked upon it, which he promiſed. In return for theſe teſtimonies of regard, they promiſed eternal fidelity and attachment to the Britiſh nation. Upon the return of general Oglethorpe in 1739, to Georgia, Tomochichi, together with four other Indian kings of the Creek nation, with thirty of their warriors, waited on him at Savannah, and acquainted him, that though the Spaniards had decoyed him to St Auguſtine, on pretence that he was there; and offered them great preſents to fall out with the Engliſh; they adhered in their fidelity to his Britannic majeſty, and that the Creek nation would march 1000 warriors wherever he ſhould command them.

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And becauſe the Britiſh traders, who came amongſt them from Carolina, had uſed bad weights, they deſired the general would order them braſs weights and ſealed meaſures, to be lodged with each of their kings; and they invited him to come up in the enſuing ſummer to ſee their towns; which he promiſed, and accordingly performed the year following, travelling through a country very little known but to the Indians, and very difficult for Europeans, to the town of Coweta, though not leſs than 500 miles from Frederica. Here he conferred, not only with the chiefs of all the tribes of this nation, but alſo with the deputies of the Chowetaws and Chickeſaws, who lie between the Engliſh and French ſettlements; and, on the 21ſt of Auguſt, he made a new treaty with the nations of the Lower Creeks; and of which we the rather take notice, becauſe it ſhews the ſituation and limits of the Creek nation, and of the lands we have obtained of them, as repreſented by themſelves.

'The deputies having drunk black drink together, according 'to a ſuperſtitious cuſtom of their anceſtors, the whole eſtates 'declared nem. con. that they adhered in their ancient love to 'the king of Great-Britain, and to the agreements made, in 'the year 1733, with the truſtees eſtabliſhed for the co'lony of Georgia; and they farther declared, that all the 'dominions, territories, and lands, from the Savannah ri'ver to St John's river, and all the iſlands between them; 'and from St John's river to the bay of Apalache, and from 'thence to the mountains; do by ancient right belong to 'the Creek nation, who have maintained poſſeſſion of it 'againſt all oppoſers by war, and can ſhew heaps of the 'bones of their enemies, by them ſlain in defence of their 'lands. And the ſaid eſtates further declared, that the 'ſaid nation hath, for ages, enjoyed the protection of the 'kings and queens of England; and that the Spaniards, nor 'no other nation, have any right to any of the ſaid lands; 'and that they will not ſuffer them, or any other perſon, 'except the truſtees of the colony of Georgia, to ſettle on 'the ſaid lands. And they acknowledge the grant they have 'already made, to the ſaid truſtees, of all the lands upon the 'Savannah river, as far as the river Ogeeche, and all the 'lands along the ſea-coaſts as far as St John's river, and as 'high as the tide flows, and all the iſlands as far as the ſaid 'river, particularly the iſlands of Frederica, Cumberland, 'and Amelia, to which they have given the names of his 'Britannic majeſty's family, out of gratitude to him. But 'they declare they did, and do reſerve to the Creek nation, 'all the land from Pipemakers Bluff to Savannah, and the 'iſlands of St Catharine, Oſſebaw, and Sappalo: And they 'farther declare, that the ſaid lands are held by the Creek 'nation, as tenants in common. And Mr Oglethorpe, the 'commiſſioner for king George the ſecond, doth declare, 'That the Engliſh ſhall not enlarge or take up any lands, 'except thoſe granted as above to the truſtees, by the Creek 'nation; and doth covenant, that he will puniſh any per'ſon that ſhall intrude upon the lands ſo reſerved by that na'tion.'

This province produces Indian corn, as alſo ſome wheat, oats, and barley, of which the two laſt grow beſt; very good wheat is alſo reaped in May, and they mow graſs in June. Here are potatoes, pumpkins, water and muſk melons, cucumbers, all ſorts of Engliſh green peaſe, and garden beans, except the Windſor, which will not flouriſh here, Indian peaſe, all ſorts of ſallading all the year round, and ſweet herbs and pot-herbs. Rice too might be cultivated here with as much ſucceſs as in Carolina. Here are nectarines, plums, and peaches, which tree, eſpecially peaches, are almoſt as common as apple-trees in Herefordſhire. The plums are ripe at the beginning of May, peaches and nectarines the latter end of June. Here are no hazle-nuts, but chincapins very ſweet and good; wild grapes in abundance, which are ripe in June, as alſo four or five ſorts of good wine berries, preſimmins much like our medlars, wild cherries that grow in ſprays like currants, and are not much larger. Here are a few Engliſh cherries in the gardens and orchards, alſo apples, pears, and a few apricot-trees. Many of the apple trees, bear twice a year, but the latter crop is ſmall. Here are great quantities of white and black mulberry-trees, the fruit of which are not to compare with thoſe of England, though the leaves are the beſt food for the ſilkworms. Olives flouriſh here in good perfection, and ſo do oranges, eſpecially in the ſouth part of the province. The chief trees for timber, &c. are pine in abundance, ſix or ſeven ſorts of oaks, hiccory, black walnut, cedar, cypreſs white and black, laurel white and red, bays, myrtle, of whoſe berries they make candles; ſaſſafras, the infuſion of which makes good drink; beech-trees, and many others that have no name. In ſome places here is as good land as any in England, were there but hands enough to cultivate it.

There is a great deal of game in this country, particularly in the winter ſeaſon, viz. from the beginning of November to the month of March, ſuch as wild geeſe, ducks, teal, and widgeon; wild turkeys, from 20 to 30 pounds weight; turtle-doves in great plenty, curlews, ſand-birds, woodcocks and partridges, but much ſmaller than in England; ſmall deer; and, when it is very cold in the northern parts of America, here are vaſt flights of wild pidgeons, which are very eaſy to ſhoot. The chief game here in the ſummer ſeaſon is deer and ducks; and the poorer ſort of people kill great number of poſſems and racoons; the former eat like ſucking pig, the other like lamb. Here are many tygers, but ſmall; and bears, whoſe cubs fleſh eats like that of young pigs.

Here is plenty of fiſh, which, in the ſummer time eſpecially, are very cheap, ſuch as trout, mullet, whiting, black-fiſh, rock fiſh, ſheep's-head, down fiſh, baſs, ſturgeon, which are hard to catch, and ſundry others, very good. As to ſhell-fiſh, here are oyſters innumerable, but not crabs ſo good as the Engliſh; clams, muſcles, conchs, and prawns ſo large, that half a ſcore of them are ſufficient for a moderate ſtomach.

This colony bids very fair for four ſtaple productions, viz. ſkins, rice, ſilk, and wines. Indeed in regard to the latter, the coat of the natural grape is not ſtrong enough to contain the juice, ſo that, when it is ripe, it burſts. The froſt about the vernal equinox often kills the vines, alſo, when they are ſhooting; and, as for the European grapes, many are deſtroyed by the inſects of the country: yet experience has ſhewn, that, by grafting the European on the wild vine, all theſe inconveniencies may be prevented; for then it ſhoots later, and ſo eſcapes the froſt better, the ſkins of the grape becoming thicker and ſtronger, and the inſects having leſs power to do prejudice. Some vines brought hither from Portugal and Madeira have throve very well, even in the moſt barren parts of the province.

In fine there ſeems nothing wanting by nature in this country to render it as fruitful as it is pleaſant, and as profitable to Great-Britain as any other of the northern colonies.

Savannah is the chief town, and lies on the ſouth of the river of the ſame name; on which it has a very fine ſituation for trade, it's navigation being very ſafe, and ſhips of 300 tons can lie within a few yards of the town and bank, about a mile along the river ſide; and ſhips of ſuch burden may alſo go a great many miles above the town.

The river here forms a half-moon, with banks on the ſouth ſide 40 feet high; and on the top there is a flat, which they call a bluff, at leaſt 60 feet high from the river, which is a plain high ground, extending five or ſix miles into the country. In the center of this half-moon ſtands the town, and overagainſt it an iſland of very rich land, fit for paſture. The river abounds with fiſh, is pretty wide, the water freſh, and, though there are high woods on both ſides of it, yet, from the key of the town, there is a proſpect of it's whole courſe to the ſea, and to Tyby-Iſland, which lies before the mouth of it to the ſouthward of the bar; and, the other way, there is a view of the river for ſix miles up into the country. Tyby is a very pleaſant iſland, with a beautiful creek to the weſt of it, where a ſhip of any burden may lie ſafe at anchor. It has great plenty of deer on it, and a light houſe 80 feet high.

About four miles from Savannah, within land, are two villages, about a mile aſunder, which they call Highgate and Hampſtead, where the inhabitants chiefly apply to gardening, and ſupply the town with herbage of all ſorts. There are 20 plantations within 20 miles round the town, which have each of them from five to 30 acres of land ſhared. There are two forts built on the Savannah River, one called Patochocoloas Fort, the other Savannah.

Abercorn is a village about 13 miles north-weſt from Savannah; and, about 5 miles farther up the river, is the town of Ebenezer, a very healthy place, where the Saltzburghers are ſettled, who are a ſober induſtrious people, that raiſe not only corn, and other produce, enough for their own ſubſiſtence, but ſell great quantities to the inhabitants of Savannah. They have good herds of cattle for the uſe of the public, and for breeding.

Auguſta is a fort on the river Savannah, which is a pretty thriving place, whither the traders with the Indians from South Carolina and Georgia reſort, and where are warehouſes, furniſhed with ſuch goods as the Indians want, the deer-ſkins taken in exchange being ſent 230 miles down the river, to the town of Savannah in boats, which carry each about four tons and a half. This place is a great protection to both the provinces of Carolina and Georgia, againſt any invaders. Horſe-roads are made from it to the town of Savannah, and to the habitations of the Cherokee Indians.

The iſlands and forts upon the coaſt, as they lie from north to ſouth, are theſe, viz.

1 Amelia Iſland, about 7 leagues north of St Auguſtine, belonging to the Spaniards, is 2 miles broad, and about 13 long, and extends to the ſouthern mouth of the river Alatamaha, the preſent ſouth boundary of Georgia, and within a league of St John's, or Juan's River, which is about five leagues from St Auguſtin.

2. Cumberland Iſland, is about 20 miles ſouth of Frederica. Here are two forts, called William and St Andrew's. The former, which is at the ſouth end of it, commands the inlet of Amelia Sound, is ſtrongly paliſadoed, and defended by eight pieces of cannon. Barracks alſo are built upon it for 220 men, beſides ſtorehouſes; within the paliſadoes are fine ſprings of water, and a houſe, with large magazines under it for ammunition and proviſions.

3. St Simon's Iſland, near the north mouth of the Alatamaha River, is about 45 miles long, and from 2 to 4 in breadth. The ſouth end of it, where was a fort, and a camp, or barracks, with ſome huts, in 1742, when the Spaniards laſt invaded it, is 25 leagues north of St Auguſtine. A ſtrong battery was alſo erected on it, for protection of Jekyl Sound, in which 10 or 12 forty-gun ſhips may ſafely ride. This iſland has a rich fruitful ſoil, full of fine oak and hickery-trees, intermixed with meadows and old Indian fields. In the middle of it is the town of Frederica, round which are good fortifications, a regular fortreſs, ſtrengthened by four baſtions, and ſpur-work, towards the river, mounted with ſeveral pieces of cannon.

New Inverneſs, in the ſouth part of the province, 20 miles from Frederica, is a place on the river Alatamaha, where the Highlanders are ſettled.

Upon the purchaſe of the propriety of Carolina, by his late majeſty, orders were iſſued for building 11 towns here and in Carolina, each of which was to have a diſtrict of 20,000 acres of land ſquare, and to be divided into ſhares of 50 acres for each man, woman, or child, of one family, which was to be augmented as the planters ſhould be in a condition to cultivate a larger quantity. Each town was alſo to be formed into a pariſh, the extent whereof was to be about ſix miles round; and as ſoon as the pariſh contained 100 maſters of families, it was qualified to ſend two members to the aſſembly of the province, and to enjoy the ſame privileges as any of the other pariſhes. The ground of each town, being marked out, was to belong in common to all the inhabitants, 'till ſhared out to each of them. There were to be 300 acres of land near each town, to be common for ever, without being charged with rent; and no perſon, by virtue of any former grant, was to take poſſeſſion of any land within ſix miles of each town. The rent payable for every 100 acres, after 10 years, was to pay 4 s. a year. And to every European ſervant, whether male or female, 50 acres of land were alſo be diſtributed free from all rent for 10 years.

CAROLINA is alſo part of that great region of North America which was formerly comprehended under the name of Florida. King Charles II made a grant thereof, in 1663, to Edward earl of Clarendon, then lord high chancellor of England, and others, from the north end of the land, called Luck Iſland, which lies in the ſouthern Virginian Sea, and within 36 degrees of north latitude, to the weſt, as far as the South Sea; and, ſoutherly, as far as the river St Mattheo, which borders on the coaſt of Florida, and is within 31 degrees of north latitude; and ſo weſt, in a direct line, as far alſo as the South Seas, with all royal fiſheries, mines, and every thing neceſſary in an abſolute propriety, paying a quit-rent of 20 merks yearly.

The plan of government for this colony was deſigned by that great ſtateſman, Anthony earl of Shafteſbury, and digeſted into form by the great Mr John Locke; whence great expectations were raiſed. But, how ſpecious ſoever that plan might appear in theory, experience ſhewed it's impracticability. The only remedy that could at length be found, was to get rid of this fine-ſpun conſtitution, wherein it was pretended that all the errors of our own were cured, and to put the province into the hands, and under the protection, of his late majeſty George II; and this remedy has anſwered all that could be expected from it in ſo few years.

After this ſale and ſurrender to the crown, in conſideration of 22,500 l. had been confirmed by an act of parliament in the year 1728, intitled, An act for eſtabliſhing an agreement with ſeven of the lords proprietors of Carolina, for ſurrender of their title and intereſt in that province to his majeſty the remaining one eighth of the propriety and arrear of quit-rents were reſerved, by the ſaid act, to the right honourable John lord Carteret, now earl of Granville.

In conſequence of the powers granted by this act to his majeſty, he has ever ſince appointed governors of North and South Carolina. Beſides the governor, there is an aſſembly, compoſed of deputies, choſen by the freeholders of every county, who, with the governor's conſent, have the power to make laws for the adminiſtration of the affairs of the colony.

This country is ſituated between the extremities of cold and heat; the air, for the moſt part, is ſerene and clear, both winter and ſummer; yet they have their winter rains, and ſometimes heavy ſhowers about Midſummer, eſpecially if the wind changes ſuddenly from ſouth-eaſt to north-weſt, it then blowing exceeding cold, and bringing diſtempers on thoſe who do not prudently guard againſt it. The country is generally healthful, where people live regularly, and uſe precaution.

This province is watered by ſeveral rivers, the moſt conſiderable of which are, 1. The Savannah, which riſes in the Apalachian mountains, runs to the ſouth-eaſt, and falls into the ſea, about 32 miles to the ſouthward of Port Royal, after a courſe of above 200 miles. 2. Congaree, or Saulee, comes from the Cherokee mountains, and diſembogues itſelf into the ſea near Cape Carteret, to the north of Charles-Town. 3. Cape Fear River, hath it's head in Virginia, from whence it runs almoſt ſouthwards, and forms, at it's mouth, a narrow ſlip of land, the uttermoſt point of which is called Cape Fear, in north latitude 33. 34. 4. Roanoke, ſprings alſo in Virginia, and falls into the ſea in latitude 36, where it forms a kind of long and narrow bay, called Albemarle Sound.

So kindly is the ſoil of this country, that almoſt every ſort of trees and plants will grow there to great perfection, particularly vines, wheat, barley, oats, peaſe, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange and citron-trees, as alſo white mulberry-trees, for the feeding of ſilk-worms; nor are the lands difficult to clear there, becauſe they do not abound with ſtones or brambles, but chiefly with large trees, that do not grow very thick: ſo that great quantities of land are cleared in a little time.

It is true, the ſoil in general is ſandy, but, being richly impregnated with a nitrous ſalt, it is extremely fertile, and that to ſuch a degree, that it is remarkable that numbers of plantations, which have been conſtantly cultivated for near 70 years, yet produced great plenty without dung manure; the planter having nothing more to do than to turn up the ſuperficies of the earth, and all that he plants thrives to admiration, which is ſomething peculiar.

The ſeaſon of ſowing Indian corn here is from the 1ſt of March to the 10th of June. An acre produces from 18 to 30 buſhels. The ſeed-time of rice is from the 1ſt of April to the 20th of May. It is ſowed in furrows about 18 inches diſtant; a peck uſually ſows an acre, which yields ſeldom leſs than 30 buſhels, or more than 60; but between theſe two, as the land is either better or worſe. It is reaped in September, to the 8th of October; and the produce is now become ſo conſiderable, that it returns to Great-Britain at leaſt 80,000 l. a year, including freight and commiſſion, which are the moſt profitable articles in the Britiſh commerce. In a good year this colony can export 80,000 barrels, of 400 weight each, and upon a medium of ſeven years, may make 50,000 barrels, diſpoſed of as follows, from a computation made a few years ſince:

To the ſouth of Cape Finiſterre	10,000 barrels
To the north of Cape Finiſterre	38,000
To Great-Britain - -	2,000
	50,000 barrels.

This quantity of rice will employ above 10,000 ton of ſhipping, and may return, as obſerved, to Great-Britain 80,000 l. This product is ſo conſiderable, ſo good in quality, and continues ſo increaſing, that there is great likelihood that, in few years, all the markets in Europe may be ſupplied therewith from this province.

Silk-worms in Carolina are hatched from the egg about the beginning of March, at the ſame time that the mulberry-leaves, which are their food, begin to open: being attended and fed ſix weeks, they eat no more, but have ſmall buſhes ſet up for them to ſpin themſelves into balls, which, thrown into water, are wound off into raw ſilk.

Roſin, tar, and pitch are alſo produced from the pine-tree: roſin, by cutting channels in the ſtanding green trees, which meet at a point at the foot of the tree, where is placed a receiver; the channels are cut as high as one can reach with an ax, and the bark is peeled off from all thoſe parts of the tree that are expoſed to the ſun, that the heat of it may the more eaſily force out the turpentine, which, being taken from the receiver, and melted in kettles, becomes roſin. Tar is made by preparing a circular floor of clay, declining a little towards the center, from which is laid a wooden pipe, the upper part whereof is even with the floor, and reaches about 10 feet without the circumference; under the end the earth is dug away, and barrels are placed to receive the tar as it runs; upon the floor is built up a large pile of dry pine-wood, ſplit in pieces, and ſurrounded with a wall of earth, which covers it all over, except a little at the top, where the fire is fire kindled. After the fire begins to burn, they cover it with earth, to the end that there may be no flame, but only heat ſufficient to force the tar downwards into the floor; they temper the heat as they pleaſe, by thruſting a ſtick through the earth, and letting the air in at as many places as they ſee convenient. Pitch is made by boiling tar in large iron kettles, ſet in furnaces, or by burning it in round clay holes made in the earth.

Black cattle have mightily increaſed ſince the firſt ſettling of this colony: about 40 years ago it was reckoned a great deal to have three or four cows, now ſome people have 500 and 1000 head; and for one man to have 200 is very common. Here are hogs in abundance. The beef and pork that are raiſed here find a good market in the ſugar-iſlands.

The trade of Carolina is now ſo conſiderable, that, of late years, there have ſailed from thence annually above 200 ſhips, laden with merchandize of the growth of the country, and they have commonly three ſhips of war for the ſecurity of their commerce. It appears from the Cuſtom-houſe entries, from March 1730, to March 1731, that there ſailed, within that time, from Charles-Town, 207 ſhips, moſt of them for England, which carried among other goods, 41,757 barrels of rice, about 500 pounds weight per barrel; 10,750 barrels of pitch; 2063 of tar, and 759 of turpentine; of deer-ſkins 300 caſks, containing 8 and 900 ſkins each; beſides a vaſt quantity of Indian corn, peaſe, beans, &c. beef, pork, and

and other ſalted fleſh; beams, planks, and timber for building, moſt part of cedar, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, and pine.

For the deer, and other ſkins, they carry on a conſiderable trade with the Indians; in exchange for which they give them only lead, powder, coarſe cloth, vermillion, iron, ſtrong waters, and ſome other goods, by which they have large profit. The great number of ſlaves make another part of the riches of this province, there being above 40,000 negroes, which are worth, one with another, 25 l. each. Artificers are frequently ſo very ſcarce, that all ſorts of work are very dear. Taylors, ſhoemakers, ſmiths, &c. are particularly acceptable there; a ſkilful carpenter is not aſhamed to demand from 20 to 30 ſhillings a day, Carolina money, beſides his diet; and the common wages of a workman is from 12 to 15 ſhillings a day, and more, provided he ſpeaks Engliſh, without which he cannot be underſtood, and, therefore, is not ſo uſeful as others.

Silk is come to great improvement here, ſome families making 40 or 50 lb. a year, and their plantation-work not neglected, their little negroe-children being ſerviceable in feeding of the ſilk-worms. Sir Nathaniel Johnſon was the principal promoter of this improvement, as alſo of vineyards. They manufacture their ſilk with wool, and make druggets. The French proteſtants have ſet up a linnen manufacture.

Beſides their bills of credit, the currency of this province is French piſtoles and Spaniſh gold, which, before the act for regulating coin in the colonies, paſſed at 6 s. 3 d. 1 dwt. and 3 d. the odd grains; Dutch dollars, and Peruvian pieces of eight, at 5 s. There is little Engliſh money but what here paſſes at 50 per cent. advance: a crown at 7 s. 6 d. a guinea at 32 s. 3 d.

This country is bounded on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt by the river Savannah, which parts it from Georgia; on the eaſt by the Atlantic Ocean; on the north by Virginia; and, on the weſt by ſeveral Indian nations, which lie between this ſettlement and the French colonies. The two principal of theſe nations are the Creeks and the Cherokees, who were a long time at war with the Engliſh in Carolina; but now the latter are in amity and alliance with the ſubjects of the king of Great-Britain, and ſerve as a powerful barrier to Carolina and Georgia, againſt both the French and Spaniards. The emperor of the Cherokees, and the king of Catawaga, renewed their league of friendſhip with governor Glen, at Charles-Town in South Carolina, in May 1745. Some extend Carolina weſtward as far as the Apalachian mountains; but, whatever may be the claim of the Engliſh in that reſpect, it is certain that the abovementioned Indians, and, perhaps, ſome other unconquered nations, inhabit between theſe mountains and our ſettlements in Carolina, which extends from the mouth of the river Savannah, in north latitude 31. 55. to 36. 31. of the ſame latitude, along the coaſt, which, running chiefly from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, makes the length of the country that way about 350 miles; it's greateſt breadth, from the ſea-coaſt weſtward, is about 260 miles; but, towards the north, it is much pent up by the Cherokee mountains, ſo that there is not much above 200 miles abroad.

The country is divided into South and North Carolina: the former contains four counties, viz. Granville, or Carteret, Colleton, Berkley, and Craven; and the latter two, viz. Clarendon and Albemarle.

In the county of GRANVILLE is the river May, which, joining with the river Cambog, forms, together with the ſea, the iſland of Edelano. The country upon the river May was formerly inhabited by an Indian nation, called the Veſtoes. There is in it a pleaſant lake and valley. Port-Royal River lies about 15 miles to the northwards of the river May. It has a bold entrance, 17 feet deep on the bar at low-water. The harbour is large, commodious, and ſafe for ſhipping, and runs into a fine fruitful country, preferable to the other parts of Carolina. It ſpends itſelf by various branches into other large rivers. This port is not above 180 miles from St Auguſtine, and, may now, ſince St Auguſtine is annexed by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, to the crown of England, in conjunction therewith, prove highly beneficial to theſe kingdoms. The firſt Engliſh who came to Carolina thought of ſettling hereabouts, but the Indians adviſed to the contrary, becauſe the harbour, being the fineſt in this country, would have tempted the Spaniards to diſturb them.

Beaufort, a town in this county, ſituated in the iſland of Port Royal, in north latitude 32. 23. about 30 miles to the eaſt of Purryſburgh, and 45 from Charles-Town to the ſouth-weſt; the continent and iſland from that fine capacious harbour called Port-Royal, which might hold the royal navy of England. The iſland whereon the town ſtands conſiſts of near 1000 acres, and is navigable all round for boats and pettyaugers, and one half of it for ſhipping, having four fathom water cloſe by the high bluff; ſo that ſhips may load and unload from the ſhore, without the aſſiſtance of boats. The harbour is ſecured by a fort, built ſome years ſince, on which 12 culverins are mounted; but the town and iſland have no fortifications, nor is the harbour ſo well fortified as a place of this importance deſerves, eſpecially as it lay ſo nigh Spaniſh Florida, and is ſaid to have been demanded by the Spaniards as a part of their territories. There are not above three-ſcore houſes in this town at preſent; but from it's advantageous ſituation, and the goodneſs of the harbour, it is expected that this town will one day become the capital of Carolina. Now Florida is annexed to the crown of England, this harbour is rendered of ſtill greater advantage.

Purryſburgh lies in north latitude 32. 20. This was ſettled by Mr Purry, a gentleman of Neufchatel in Switzerland, being encouraged by the government both in England and Carolina, and made a Swiſs colony of it; but it has not been properly ſupported, though it would have proved highly beneficial to Carolina, being, with Georgia, by it's ſituation, a kind of bulwark againſt the inroads of the Indians, and, perhaps, of the Spaniards and French. It would alſo have been very advantageous to Great-Britain, becauſe a vaſt number of Vaudois, who are proteſtants, inhabiting the vallies of Piedmont, being perſecuted by the king of Sardinia, would have ſettled here, as a few of them have done; but the far greater part of them were diſheartened, when they heard what uſage both their countrymen and the Swiſs had met with there. The Vaudois make very fine ſilk in their country, and would have very much improved that manufacture in Carolina, by which means vaſt ſums of money, which are yearly ſent from England to Italy for ſilk, would have been ſaved to the nation. But, it ſeems, for fear of diſguſting an Italian prince, we are neither to attempt to make ſilk ourſelves, nor to import the fine ſilk of China, which will come at one third of the expence of Italian ſilk. It is to be hoped, that our new poſſeſſions in North America, will, by good management be productive of ſilk as good as ever came from Italy or elſewhere.

COLLETON County is the next to the north of the former: it is watered by the river Stono, which is joined by a cut to Wadmoolaw River. The north-eaſt part of this county is full of Indian ſettlements; and the Stono and other rivers, form an iſland, called Boone's Iſland, a little below Charles-Town, which is well planted and inhabited. The chief rivers in this county at North Ediſtow and South Ediſtow. For two or three miles up the latter, the plantations are thick on both ſides, and they continue for three or four miles higher on the north ſide. On the north bank of the latter, about 12 miles from it's mouth, ſtands Wilſon, by ſome called New London, a little town built by the Swiſs.

BERKLEY County lies to the north of Colleton. The northern parts are not planted, but the ſouthern are thick of plantations, on account of the two great rivers Cooper and Aſhley. On the north coaſt there is a little river, called Bowall River, which, with a creek, forms an iſland, and off the coaſt are ſeveral iſles, called Hunting Iſlands, and Sillivant's Iſle. Between the latter and Bowall River, is a ridge of hills, which, from the nature of the ſoil, is called the Sand-Hills. The river Wando waters the north-weſt parts of this county, and has ſeveral good plantations upon it. It runs into Cooper River, and they both unite their ſtreams with Aſhley River at Charles-Town.

Charles-Town is the capital of the province, is built on a neck of land between Aſhley and Cooper rivers, but it lies moſt on the latter, having a creek on the north ſide, and another on the ſouth. It lies in north latitude 32. 48. longitude 78. 16. weſt, 2 leagues or 6 miles from the ſea. This is a market-town, and thither the whole product of the province is brought for ſale. Neither is it's trade inconſiderable, for it deals near 1000 miles into the continent; however, it labours under the diſadvantage of a bar, that admits no ſhips above 200 tuns. 'The bar, ſays the author of 'Harris's Collection, has 16 feet water at low tide, and there 'is good riding when a ſhip is got cloſe to the town, and 'the harbour is defended by Johnſon's Fort, which has about '20 guns in it, level with the ſurface of the water.' 'Aſhley 'River, he ſays alſo, is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above 'the town, and for boats and pettyaugers, or large canoes, 'near 40 miles. Cooper River is not navigable for ſhips ſo 'far, but for boats and pettyaugers much farther.'

CRAVEN County follows next, ſtill going northwards. It lies along the banks of the river Congaree, or Santee, which ſeparates North and South Carolina. It is pretty well inhabited by Engliſh and French proteſtants. In this country is Sewee River, where ſome inhabitants of New England ſettled.

NORTH CAROLINA has a peculiar governor, and contains the two following counties:

CLARENDON County lies to the north of Santee River. In this county is the famous Cape Fear, at the mouth of the river of the ſame name. The Indians in this neighbourhood are reckoned the moſt barbarous of any in the province. In this county is Waterey River, or Wynyann, about 25 leagues diſtant from Aſhley River; it is capable of receiving large ſhips, but inferior to Port-Royal, nor is it yet inhabited.

ALBEMARLE County is the moſt northerly, bordering on Virginia. It is watered by Albemarle River, and is full of creeks on both ſides of it, which, for breadth, deſerve the name of rivers, but they do not run far into the country. At Sandy Point it divides itſelf into two branches, Noratoke and Notaway, and, in the north point, lies an Indian nation, called the Mataçomogs. Next to Albemarle River ſouthward is

Pantegoe River, and between them is Cape Hattoras. Albemarle county was more planted than any of the other, when Carolina was firſt ſettled, and conſiſted of near 300 families; but the plantations upon Aſhley River, in time, grew upon it ſo much, that moſt of the planters here removed thither.

VIRGINIA. Under this name was formerly underſtood all that tract of land which reached from Norembegua to Florida, and contained the countries at preſent known by the names of New England, New York, New Jerſey, Penſylvania, Maryland, and Carolina. The difficulties in ſettling this, as well as other of our colonies, being well known, and to be found in their hiſtory, it is needleſs, and, indeed, not within the deſign of this work, to give thoſe tedious narratives.

The Indians who originally inhabited the borders of this province, which retains the name Virginia, were very numerous, of different tribes, and moſt treacherous and cruel to the Engliſh of all the Indian nations.

The ſituation of this country is peculiarly happy and convenient. It has the river Patowmack on the north-eaſt, which ſeparates it from Maryland; the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt; Carolina on the ſouth; and the Apalachian mountains on the weſt. It lies from the 36. 30. north latitude, to the 39. 30. and between the 74. 50. and 79. 20. of longitude weſt from London. It's extent from ſouth to north, is about 180 miles, and about 140 from eaſt to weſt.

The air of this country depends much upon the winds: the north and north-weſt are either very piercing, or boiſterous and ſtormy; the ſouth-eaſt and ſouth being hazy and ſultry. The winter is dry and clear, which makes it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is ſomewhat earlier than ours; in April they have frequent rains; May and June are very pleaſant months, the heat being greatly tempered by cooling breezes; July and Auguſt are ſultry hot, the air growing in a manner ſtagnant, which produces great thunder and lightning; in September the weather breaks, and there fall prodigious ſhowers of rain, when the inhabitants are ſickly. It ought, however, to be obſerved, that in this, and, indeed, in all our colonies, the climate grows daily better, and theſe thunder-ſeaſons leſs violent; which the inhabitants aſcribe to the clearing of the country, by the cutting down woods, which gives the air a freer paſſage.

Towards the ſea-coaſt the ſoil is generally low, and, for 100 miles up the country, there is hardly a hill or ſtone to be met with, except that here and there ſome iron-ſtone appears above the ſurface, and ſome banks of a kind of petrified oyſter-ſhells, that are of a prodigious thickneſs. The ſoil in general is a rich fat mould, three feet deep, and under it a loam, of which they make good bricks; but according as the ſituation is moiſt or dry, the ſoil varies. It is diſtinguiſhed into three ſorts, high, low, and marſhy, all which, having ſand mixed with them, makes their land warmer than that of Old England. The highlands are moſtly ſandy; however, they are not unfruitful; the ſoil does not hold in ſtrength ſo long as the lowlands, which are very rich, being a blackiſh mould, about a foot deep; and this ſoil will hold it's ſtrength ſeven or eight crops without manuring. Their land in general is no way inferior to that of England: that at the mouths of rivers is moiſt and fat, and produces rice, hemp, and Indian corn. There are veins of a cold, raw, hungry ſoil, where huckle-berries, cran-berries, and chinkapins generally grow: alſo oaks, poplars, pines, cedars, cypreſſes, and ſweet gums, hockly, ſweet myrtle, and live oak, are found here in great abundance. The land up the rivers is of a different kind of ſoil, and ſtored with cheſnuts, chinkapins, oaks, walnuts, hickories, dog-wood, alder, hazel, ſaſſafras, elm, aſh, beech, and poplar. The lands at the heads of the rivers, and their productions, are alſo various. Here are trees of an incredible ſize, and plenty of paſture-ground, coal, quarries of ſtone, iron and lead mines.

Before the ſettling of the Engliſh there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, or ſwine; at preſent there is plenty of them all: their horſes are very ſerviceable, and travel at a great rate. They have likewiſe red deer pretty plenty, hares, beavers, wolves, and foxes. They do not want great variety of fowl or fiſh.—In February, March, April, and May, ſhoals of herrings pour into their very brooks, ſome of the ſize of ours, but, in the general, conſiderably larger.

Though the common way of traffic in this province is by barter, or exchange, of one kind of merchandize for another, or of any for tobacco, which is the ſtaple production of the country, yet there is ſtirring ſome ſilver coin, both Engliſh and Spaniſh; and there was conſiderably more, 'till the lowering the value, tempted people to export it to the other colonies, where it was current for more than in Virginia.

The chief of their coins are either gold and ſilver of the ſtamp of Spaniſh America, or Engliſh money: they have ſome Arabian chequins.

The trade of this colony conſiſts chiefly in tobacco. To ſo great perfection is this branch brought here, that the Virginia tobacco, eſpecially the ſweet-ſcented, which grows on York River, is reckoned the beſt in the world, and is generally vended in England for their home conſumption. The other ſort, called Oronoac, and that of Maryland, are hotter in the mouth; but it turns to as good account, being in great demand in Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Germany. Of this commodity 30,000 hogſheads have been exported yearly from the port of London, which if 4 l. a hogſhead are cleared by them at foreign markets, it will amount to 120,0 0 l. per annum; which contributes ſo much to diminiſh the ballance of thoſe trades which we carry on to our diſadvantage. This is a profitable branch of trade to the Engliſh commerce, as it employs little leſs than 200 ſail of ſtout ſhips every year, our own conſumption of this commodity being included; the revenue thereof, as well from Maryland as Jamaica, and ariſing to the crown, is not inconſiderable. See TOBACCO.

Nor is tobacco the only product on of value this country produces; they have beſides flax, hemp, cotton, and ſilk they might certainly have, if they were not ſo extremely addicted to their ſtaple commodity as never to think of any thing elſe, if tobacco can be brought to a tolerable market. They have likewiſe ſilk-graſs, of which they make very little advantage, though, no doubt, under proper management, very profitable manufactures might be made it in England, ſince it's threads are ſaid to be finer than flax, and ſtronger than hemp. All kinds of naval ſtores might be produced in Virginia with great eaſe, as well as in great plenty, ſuch as plank-timber, maſts, yards, roſin, turpentine, pitch and tar, and iron, which we are obliged to take from other countries, they having ſeveral good mines of that metal. There have been rumours of gold and ſilver mines; but it is certain, that they do not want coals, antimony, and other things of value, in the bowels of that country, which they would not be regardleſs of, if tobacco alone did not wholly ingroſs their application; which is not a little imprudent, ſince it too frequently turns to very indifferent account to the planter: whereas, were they wiſe enough to obtain other ſtrings to their bow, they would be more proſperous, and could afford to take more of our manufactures in return.

MARYLAND. This province was reckoned part of Virginia 'till king Charles I. made a grant of it to lord Baltimore: and the climate, ſoil, produce, animals, &c. in this colony, differ very little from thoſe of Virginia. In both theſe provinces the Engliſh live at large in their ſeveral plantations, which hinders the increaſe of towns. Every plantation, indeed, is a little town of itſelf, and can ſubſiſt itſelf with proviſions and neceſſaries, every conſiderable planter's warehouſe being like a ſhop, where he ſupplies not only himſelf with what he wants, but the inferior planters, ſervants, and labourers; and has commodities to barter for tobacco, or other goods, there being little money in this province, and little occaſion for any as long as tobacco, and their other productions, ſhall anſwer all the uſes of gold and ſilver in trade.

There are here few merchants and ſhopkeepers, who may properly be called ſo; I mean, who live properly by their trades. The tobacco of this province, called Oroonoko, is ſtronger than that of Virginia; but it is in great demand in the eaſtern and northern parts of Europe, and preferred before the ſweet-ſcented of James and York rivers in Virginia. The Maryland planters, finding ſo good vent for their commodity at foreign markets, have cultivated it ſo much, that the province is thought to produce as much, or more in quantity than Virginia. The ſoil is here, at leaſt, as fruitful, the country being a large plane, and the hills in it ſo eaſy of aſcent, and of ſuch a moderate height, that they ſeem rather an artificial ornament to it, than one of the accidents of nature. The abundance of rivers and brooks are no little help to the fertility of the ſoil; nor is there any grain, plant, or tree, which grows in Virginia, but thrives as well here.

The number of ſhips trading hither from England, and other parts of the Britiſh dominions, are computed at 150 ſail at leaſt.

There is no woollen manufacture followed, unleſs in Somerſet county. Their common drink is cyder, which is very good, and, where it is rightly ordered, not inferior to the beſt white wine. They have wine brought from Madeira and Fial, rum from Barbadoes, beer, malt, and wines from England. There is plenty of good grapes growing wild in the woods, but no improvement is made of them.

This province lies between the 38th and 41ſt degrees of north latitude, and 74. 20. and 77. of longitude weſt from London, and is bounded on the eaſt by Delaware bay and the Atlantic ocean, on the ſouth by Virginia, on the weſt by that part of the Indian country, which the French claim under the name of Louiſiana, and on the north by Penſylvania. Or more particularly, according to Mr Lloyd of Maryland, the colony of Virginia, on the weſt ſide of the bay of Cheſapeake, is divided from Maryland by the river Patowmack, and on the eaſt by the river Pocamack, whoſe head lies near the ſea to the eaſtward. The boundary of the province of Maryland begins at the river Patowmack, and runs along the bay ſide northwards, 'till it interſects a line drawn weſt from the mouth of Delaware bay, ſituate in 39. 20. degrees north latitude, having for it's bounds to the weſt high mountains, and on the eaſt the ſaid bay. The eaſtern ſide of the province of Maryland is bounded on the weſt by the bay of Cheſapeake, on the eaſt by the main ocean, on the north by Delaware bay, and on the ſouth by the river Pocamack, which is the line of diviſion between it and the colony of

Virginia.

Virginia. The chief rivers here are Potowmack, mentioned in the ſituation of Virginia, Patuxent, and Severn, on the weſtern ſhore; and, on the other ſide, Chiptonk, Cheſter, and Saſſafras, of the greateſt note.

The province of Maryland is divided into eleven counties, ſix on the weſtern, and five on the eaſtern ſide of the bay. Thoſe on the weſtern ſide, are St Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Anne-Arundel, and Baltimore counties. On the eaſt ſide of the bay, are Somerſet, Dorcheſter, Talbot, Kent, and Cecil counties.

PENSYLVANIA contains all that tract of land in America, with all the iſlands belonging to it, from the beginning of the 40th to the 43d degree of north latitude, whoſe eaſtern bounds, from twelve miles above Newcaſtle, otherwiſe Delaware town, run all along upon the ſide of Delaware river. Theſe bounds and extent were contained in the original grant; but Mr. Pen, the proprietary, having afterwards obtained part of Nova Belgia from the duke of York, it was added to the country given in the firſt grant, ſo that it extends now to the 48th and 55th minutes of north latitude. It is bounded on the eaſt by Delaware bay and river, and the Atlantic ocean; on the north and weſt by Canada, on the ſouth by Maryland. But if it extends to the 43d degree of north latitude, as is expreſſed in the grant, it muſt run almoſt parallel to New Jerſey and New York, even to the banks of the great Ontario-lake.

By it's latitude, Penſylvania is at a like diſtance from the ſun with Naples in Italy, and Montpelier in France; but it muſt be obſerved, that the climates on the continent of America differ much from thoſe of the ſame latitude in Europe. The ſouthern part of Hudſon's-Bay and the Thames are much in the ſame latitude; yet the Thames has a mild agreeable climate, Hudſon's-Bay almoſt in perpetual froſt and ſnow. Natural philoſophers can eaſily account for that difference. The air, however, in Penſylvania, is ſweet and clear; the fall, or autumn, begins about the 20th of October, and laſts 'till the beginning of December, when the winter ſets in, which continues till March. Froſty weather and extreme cold ſeaſons are frequently known here; but, as in moſt countries where there are ſuch ſeaſons, the air is then dry and healthy. The heats are pretty extraordinary in the ſummer months, of July, Auguſt, and September; but mitigated by cool breezes, which make them very tolerable.

The ſoil of this province is in ſome places a yellow, or black ſand, in others a loomy gravel, in others a fat mould, like the vales in England, eſpecially near inland brooks and rivers, where the lands are conſiderably richer than thoſe that lie near navigable rivers.

The chief rivers here are, the river Delaware, which riſes far north, in the Indian country of the Iroquois, takes it's courſe to the ſouthward, and, dividing this province from that of New Jerſey, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between the promontories or capes, May and Hentopen, forming at it's mouth a large bay, called alſo Delaware. This river is navigable for above 200 miles, but has a cataract above Briſtol, which renders the navigation of it unpracticable to the northward of the county of Bucks. The ſecond river is that of Saſquahanah, which, riſing likewiſe in the country of the Iroquois Indians, runs ſouth through the middle of the province of Penſylvania, and falls into the Indian bay called Cheſapeake, in latitude 39. 47. This is navigable for large ſhips. The third is the Schoolkill, which, alſo having it's ſource in the country of the Iroquois, runs ſouth, almoſt parallel to the two former rivers, and at length turning to the eaſtward falls into Delaware, at the city of Philadelphia; it is alſo navigable for boats above 100 miles up. Theſe rivers, and the numerous creeks and bays in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this country admirably ſituated to carry on a foreign trade.

Here are trees of all ſorts, oak, red, white, and black aſh, beech, Spaniſh cheſnuts, cypreſs, poplar, gum-wood, hickery, ſaſſafras, ſhrubs, ſnake-root, ſarſaparilla, ſalop, ſpruce, cranberries, wheat, barley, oats, rye, peaſe, beans, watermelons, muſkmelons, apples, pears, cherries, apricots, quinces, carrots, turnips, onions, parſnips, cucumbers, &c. are here in very great plenty; as alſo Indian corn, hemp, flax, &c. It is frequent for one buſhel of corn ſown here to yield 40, often 50, and 60 buſhels. Of animals, here are, for food and commerce, deer, elk, rabbets, racoons, beaver; plenty of oxen, cows, and ſheep: of the latter, 'tis common for farmers to have 4 or 500 in a flock. They have alſo beaſts both for labour and otherwiſe. Of fowl, here are fine buſtards, 40 or 50 pound weight, pheaſants, heath-birds, pigeons, partridges, clouds of black-birds, ſwans, geeſe, braindes, duck, teal, and ſnipe. The fiſh are ſturgeon, herrings, eels, ſmelts, and perch, oyſters, crabs, cockles, and muſcles, &c. The merchandize of this country, with reſpect to Europe and America, conſiſts of horſes, pipe-ſtaves, pork, beef, and fiſh ſalted and barrelled up, ſkins and furs; all ſorts of grain, wheat, rye, peaſe, oats, barley, buck-wheat, Indian corn, Indian peaſe and beans, pot-aſhes, wax, &c. and in return for theſe, they import from the Caribee-Iſlands, and other places, rum, ſugar, molaſſes, ſilver, negroes, ſalt and wine from Great-Britain, houſhold goods and cloathing of all kinds, hard-ware, tools and toys. They have alſo ſome rice, but no great quantities, and a little tobacco, but of the worſt kind. Their trade with the neighbouring Indians upon the continent conſiſts but in few articles; they receiving of the native Indians, chiefly ſkins and furs of their wild beaſts, for which they exchange with them cloathing, arms, ammunition, rum, and other ſpirituous liquors, in return. This, as well as other the northern colonies, endeavour to carry on ſome trade with the American colonies belonging to other nations: Penſylvania can't be ſaid to have a ſtaple commodity, nor have the inhabitants yet ſet up any manufacture of their own.

Philadelphia, the capital of Penſylvania, is extremely well laid out; and were it full of houſes and inhabitants, according to the proprietary's plan, it would be a capital fit for a great empire. It is at preſent a large city, moſt commodiouſly ſituated between two navigable rivers, Delaware and Schuiſkill. The land on which the city ſtands is high and firm, and the conveniencies of docks and ſprings have greatly contributed to the commerce of this place, where many rich merchants now reſide. Ships may ride here in ſix or ſeven fathom water, with very good anchorage. The land about it is a dry wholeſome level. The great dock is formed by an inlet of the river Delaware, at the ſouth corner of the front of the wharfs, and has a bridge over it at the entrance. Several creeks run into the city out of the two rivers, and there is no city in Holland that is ſo naturally accommodated with fine canals, as this might eaſily be. The key is beautiful, about 200 feet ſquare, to which a ſhip of 500 tons may lay her broadſide. And, as theſe ſurprizing advantages have already rendered this one of the beſt trading towns in the Britiſh empire out of Europe, ſo, in all probability, it will continue to increaſe in commerce and riches, 'till it will have no equal in America.

NEW JERSEY has Delaware river on the ſouth-weſt, the bay on the ſouth-eaſt, the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt, and New York on the north. It lies betwixt north latitude 39. 10. and 41. 35. and betwixt weſt longitude 73. 46. and 75. 15. 'Tis in length on the ſea-coaſt, and along Hudſon's river, i. e. from ſouth to north, about 140 miles, and about 80 where broadeſt. Eaſt Jerſey, before it was united with weſt, extended eaſt and north all along the ſea-coaſt and Hudſon's river, which is in north latitude 41. and was divided on the ſouth and weſt from Weſt Jerſey, by a line of partition paſſing from Egg-Harbour to Creſwick river, Stony-brook, and the ſouth branch of Raritan river. It extends 100 miles along the coaſt, and by Hudſon's river. The breadth is very unequal, it being in ſome places much indented by weſt Jerſey; it is, however, the moſt valuable part of the country. 'Tis divided into Monmouth county on the ſouth of Raritan river, Middleſex and Eſſex counties on the north of it, and Berghen county on Hudſon's river.

MONMOUTH County has a pretty good town called Middleton, twenty-ſix miles ſouth of Piſcataway, with out-plantations of thirty thouſand acres.

Shrewſbury, the moſt ſouthern town, about eleven miles from Middleton, is reckoned the chief of the county, has the ſame number of plantations, but more families than Middleton.

Freehold is a town, which has thirty thouſand acres of plantation.

MIDDLESEX County is the moſt populous and flouriſhing for it's plantations, moſt of whoſe proprietors are Scotſmen. It's towns are,

1. Piſcataway, which has forty thouſand acres of land.
2. Woodbridge, has thirty thouſand acres of plantation.
3. Perth Amboy, the capital of the county, is a ſweet wholeſome place, at the mouth of Raritan river, which runs into Sandy-hook bay, that is able to contain five hundred ſhips, and is never froze. It is ſo commodious for trade, that ſhips of three hundred tons can come up to the port in one tide, and lie at the merchant's door, and veſſels may be built here cheap. The whole plan conſiſts of a thouſand and ſeventy acres, as laid out by the Scots proprietors.

ESSEX, the next county, has above forty thouſand acres of plantation.

Elizabeth, it's chief town, lies three miles within a creek, oppoſite to the weſt of Staten iſland.

Newark, the next town, ſix or ſeven miles to the north, is the moſt compact in both the Jerſeys. It has fifty thouſand acres laid out for cultivation.

BERGHEN County lies on Hudſon's river over-againſt New York. This, as well as the other parts of the Jerſeys, is extremely well watered, there being, beſides that of Hudſon, the river Hackinſach and Paſaick, and ſeveral leſſer ſtreams. The inhabitants are moſtly Dutch. They have ten thouſand acres of land aſſigned them.

WEST JERSEY has not ſo many towns, nor is ſo well planted, as Eaſt Jerſey, yet, by reaſon of it's navigable creeks, this province is as commodious for trade as the other, they lying at a convenient diſtance, and ſome running a great way up into the country.

CAPE

CAPE MAY County is the only part, which has the name of a county. This is a tract of land betwixt Cape May, it's moſt eaſterly point of land, at the mouth of Delaware bay, and Little Egg harbour, dividing the two Jerſey's. Moſt of the inhabitants here are fiſhermen, there being a whalery on both ſhores of the mouth of Delaware bay. From Maurice river, the next ſtream to Cape May, Delaware bay and river water all the ſouth-eaſt, and ſouth and ſouth-weſt parts of Weſt Jerſey. The plantations, ſome of which are ſo cloſe, that they are called a town, lie all along that bay and river, and moſt of them on creeks.

In an iſland in the middle of Delaware river oppoſite to Philadelphia, lies Bridlington, or Burlington, the capital of the province; in which, though there are few or no plantations within twenty miles of it, the courts and aſſemblies of Weſt Jerſey uſed to be held. It carries on a briſk trade, by it's eaſy communication with Philadelphia and the ocean, by the river Salem, which falls into the bay of Delaware. The town is laid out into ſpacious ſtreets, with commodious keys and wharfs, that will admit ſhips of two or three hundred tons. Higher up lies Maidenhead, a town of forty or fifty families; and, about forty miles higher, is the country of the Indians, called Miniſſuks, who live in a fertile ſoil, which 'tis expected will be ſoon inhabited by our countrymen, becauſe it borders upon New York, and has a communication with it by means of the river Aeſopus, which falls into that of Hudſon, near Kingſton.

This province has an eaſy communication with Maryland, by a river within eight or nine miles of the bottom of Cheſapeake bay; and there was once a project to cut a canal thro' that ſpace, but it was ſo vehemently oppoſed both by Maryland and Virginia, that it did not ſucceed.

Upon the whole, the climate, of New Jerſey is ſomewhat warmer than that of New England and New York, by being ſituate more to the ſouth. The ſoil, produce, trade, and the conveniences of rivers and creeks of both provinces, are much the ſame with thoſe of Penſylvania; but there are more rivers and creeks in Weſt Jerſey than in the eaſt, by reaſon of it's ſituation on Delaware river. The country, which has a better ſoil than all the colonies round it, and is better cultivated, yields plenty of all ſorts of grain. The inhabitants are computed at above ſixteen thouſand Engliſh, men, women, and children; of whom, about three thouſand are men fit to bear arms. The chief trade of New Jerſey conſiſts in proviſions, particularly flour and pork, and great quantities of white peaſe, which they ſell to the merchants of New York, who export them to the Sugar Iſlands. It has alſo ſome fur-ſkins and tobacco for an Engliſh market, and train-oil, fiſh, and other proviſions, for Portugal, Spain, and the Canary-Iſlands.

As the towns generally lie up in the country, their trade is chiefly over land to New York. There are from an hundred to two hundred families in a place, and great part of them are Dutch, an induſtrious people, and quiet ſubjects to the Engliſh government, by which they are protected. The increaſe of it's trade and produce may be judged by that of it's number of hands, eſpecially negroes, who are ten times as many as they were about forty years ago.

NEW YORK. This province is divided by Hudſon's river, from the Eaſt and Weſt Jerſeys on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, as it is from New England on the north and north-eaſt, by a line drawn between Rye and Greenwich. It has alſo part of Canada on the weſt, and on the north thoſe Indians, allies to the French, who, being aſſiſted by them in 1746, fell on the frontiers of New York, and did our colonies here great miſchief. 'Tis not above twenty-five miles broad, particularly betwixt Connecticut colony on the eaſt, and Jerſey on the weſt, and two hundred in length from ſouth to north, extending from Long-Iſland in north latitude, 40 degrees 40 minutes to the lake of Champlain, 44 ½, where the French having built forts, have in a manner expelled us from the north part of this country.

The climate is more temperate, by lying more to the ſouth than that of New England, but it is colder here in winter, and hotter in ſummer, than in European countries of the ſame latitude. The ſoil is ſo fruitful, that one buſhel of wheat has produced an hundred: it's product in general, as well as it's animals, are the ſame with thoſe of New England. The ſavages too of both countries are very much alike.

The Engliſh here deal with the Indians very largely for the ſkins of elks, deer, bears, beavers, otters, racoons, and other rich furs; and, in ſummer chiefly, they are ſupplied by the Indians with veniſon, fiſh, and fowl, very cheap: for, by means of Hudſon's river, the largeſt in all our northern colonies, it being navigable even beyond New Albany, near a hundred and fifty miles from New York, and having a communication with the great river of Canada, by a ſtream called the Otter river, except an interſtice of land-carriage of about ſixteen miles, the Mohawk and Iroquois Indians from the lakes, and divers from the French ſettlements, come to the Engliſh ſettlements upon this river, and drive a conſiderable traffic.

The other trade of this colony is to Barbadoes and the Sugar-Iſlands, with horſes, beef, ſmoaked beef, bacon, pork, peaſe, apples, onions, corn, flour, bread, pipe-ſtaves, for which they receive ſugar, molaſſes, rum, ginger, &c. in return.

They have alſo a very profitable commerce from hence to Madeira and the Azores, with pipe-ſtaves and fiſh, for which they load their ſhips back with wine and brandy; and there is ſcarce a more beneficial trade in all the Engliſh commerce, they taking off more of our woollen manufactures than all the iſland colonies taken together, Jamaica excepted, and return more gold and ſilver to pay for them.

In fine, it is generally allowed, that there is not a colony in America, which makes a better figure than this for it's trade, or where the people ſeem to have a greater ſpirit of induſtry and commerce, or are better affected to the Engliſh nation.

Beſides, 'tis agreed, that the inhabitants of the inland part of this country, are our greateſt fence againſt the French. As the city of New York may be deemed it's frontier garriſon on the ſouth, againſt any invaſion by ſea; ſo Schenectida town and fort, in the county of Albany, may well be reckoned it's frontier on the north, againſt the French of Canada, and their Indian confederates.

'Tis divided into ten counties, which, going up Hudſon's river from ſouth to north, are Richmond, Suffolk, Queen's County, New York County, Cheſter, King's County, Orange, Ducheſs, Ulſter, and Albany; which laſt five counties are ſaid to be all inhabited by Dutch, or ſuch as are of Dutch extraction, beſides Statan-Iſland and Long-Iſland, before the mouth of Hudſon's river. They are pretty well ſtocked with farms, but have not many conſiderable towns.

Long Iſland, which is ſometimes called Naſſaw Iſland, has Statan Iſland, and that in which New York lies, on the weſt and north-weſt; the colony of Connecticut on the north, and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt and the ſouth. 'Tis not above eighteen miles in breadth, but 'tis a hundred and twenty in length, ſtretching along Fairfield County in New England, near the mouth of Hudſon's river, furniſhed every-where with convenient harbours, and contains the counties of Suffolk and Richmond, and Queen's County.

The trade drove here is in furs and ſkins, tobacco as good as that of Maryland, horſes, beef, pork, peaſe, wheat, and all ſorts of Engliſh grain, which are ſowed here with very great increaſe; and the ſoil is ſo good, that all other fruits and herbs thrive here, together with flax, hemp, pumpkins, melons, &c.

On the ſouth ſide of this iſland in the winter time, there lie ſtore of whales and grampuſſes, which the inhabitants catch in their boats, and drive no inconſiderable trade with the oil. An infinite number of ſeals lie here alſo in the ſame ſeaſon, on ſome broken marſhes, beaches and bars of ſand, which likewiſe yield excellent oil.

Statan Iſland, which lies to the weſt of the former, near the county of New York, is about fourteen miles in length, and eight in breadth, and has a number of good farms and plantations, but no town.

The capital of the whole province is the city of New York, at the ſouth end of York county in Manahattan iſland (at the mouth of Hudſon's, or the Iroquois river) which iſland is 12 miles long, and about 3 broad. This town is reckoned one of the pleaſanteſt in Britiſh America. It has a good harbour, with keys and warehouſes, and employs hundreds of ſhips and veſſels in it's foreign trade and fiſheries. The Dutch have ſet up mills to ſaw timber, one of which will do more in a day, than fifty men can.

Kingſton, a town ninety miles up the river, on the weſt ſide of it, is a pretty well built populous town, inhabited by Engliſh and Dutch. The river Aeſopus, from New Jerſey, falls into Hudſon's near the town, and makes a good communication between the two provinces.

New Albany, called Orange fort by the Dutch, who drove a profitable trade from it with the Indians to Quebec, is a hundred and forty-three miles up the river to the north of New York, and is but five miles below the place where the eaſt branch of the river leaves the ſouthern, and runs up almoſt off the Iroquois, two hundred miles within land. After it's reduction by the Engliſh, it was called New Albany. This town, conſiſting of between two and three hundred families, is, for the moſt part, inhabited by Dutch. The governor of the northern provinces comes hither often to confer with the Indian ſachems or kings, to renew their alliances, to ſettle matters of traffic, and to concert meaſures againſt their common enemy; and it is reckoned the barrier of New York, againſt both the French and the Huſons.

Schenectada, ſixteen miles above Albany, but in the county of Albany, is ſituate on a river that runs into Hudſon's to the eaſt, and in one of the fineſt vales of the world; it is compared to that in Nottinghamſhire, watered by the Trent. The inhabitants are both Engliſh and Dutch. It was almoſt deſtroyed by the French, and their confederated Indians, towards the cloſe of the laſt century, and the inhabitants murdered; but they have now ſtrengthened it, and the place is much larger and more populous than before. The country betwixt this fort and New York is very fruitful, but inhabited by ſeveral Indian nations, who are not very induſtrious.

Soratogo, about 26 miles to the north of Schenectada, is the

village that was deſtroyed in the laſt war by the French and Indians, who came upon it by ſurprize.

NEW ENGLAND. This country contains the moſt flouriſhing and powerful colonies the Engliſh have in America; has the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, Nova Scotia or New Scotland, or Acadia, on the north-eaſt, the country of the ſavage Indians on the north, part of Canada on the weſt, and New York, with Long-Iſland, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt. It extends from north latitude 41 to 44 ½, and from longitude 69 to 73, 35. The late Rev. Mr Daniel Neal, who has wrote the beſt hiſtory of this country, ſays, that, from Kenneback river to the ſouth-eaſt boundary of New York, it is three hundred and thirty miles; that the coaſt from weſt ſouth-weſt, to eaſt north-eaſt, is a hundred and ſixty leagues without the angles; and that it is a hundred and ninety miles, brought from Cape Cod to the north-eaſt bounds of New York; but the author of the Britiſh Empire in America, tho' he allows it to be near three hundred miles along the coaſt, without reckoning the angles, ſays, 'tis no where above fifty miles broad in a direct line.

The ſummer ſeaſon here is warmer, though ſhorter than ours, and generally accompanied with a clear ſky for two months; which renders the country ſo wholeſome, that none of our plantations ſuit an Engliſh conſtitution better; yet in their winters, which are longer and ſeverer than ours, the winds are often very boiſterous, and the air is ſharper than in Old England, though it lies ſo much more to the eaſt. Naturaliſts have imputed this to the large freſh water lakes that lie behind this country to the north-weſt, which, being conſtantly frozen over in November, occaſion that early winter which is commonly felt in all the adjacent country, and is one principal cauſe of thoſe cold north-weſt winds that continually blow here in the winter, and are ſo fatal to mariners on the New England coaſt in that ſeaſon. Snow generally lies on the ground here, from November to February. June, July, and Auguſt are the hotteſt months, during which, the people are greatly peſtered with muſkettoes, bugs, and other inſects.

The land next the ſea is generally low, and in ſome parts marſhy, but farther up it riſes into hills, and on the north-eaſt it is rocky and mountainous. About the Maſſachuſet's Bay, the ſoil is as fat and black as in any part of England; and the firſt planters found the graſs in the vallies above an ell high, and rank for want of cutting; but the up-lands are not ſo fruitful, they being for the moſt part gravel and ſandy, inclining to a clay.

There are few countries better watered with ſprings, rivers, and lakes, though the latter are not ſo large as thoſe to the north and the weſt. Of it's rivers, which all abound with fiſh, ſeven are navigable for ſeveral leagues, and would be ſo farther, were it not for the falls. As, 1. Connecticut river, which is navigable a great way with large veſſels. It riſes in the north part of New England, and runs almoſt directly ſouth through the province of it's name, 'till it falls into the ſea, after a courſe of at leaſt two hundred miles, between the towns of Saybrook and Line, almoſt oppoſite to the eaſt end of Long-Iſland. 2. The Thames, which riſes in ſome lake north of the Maſſachuſet's country, runs alſo directly ſouth, and falls into the ſea below New London, and to the eaſt of the Connecticut. 3. The river Patuxet, which, riſing in the north-weſt of the Maſſachuſet's country, runs ſouth-eaſt, through Providence plantation, and falls into a noble bay of the ſea, near a town called Swanſey. 4. The great river Merrimech, which, riſing north of New England, runs alſo to the ſouth, forming a lake on the weſt of New Hampſhire; from whence running ſouth for near a hundred miles, to the latitude of 42. 54. it then turns eaſt, and falls into the ſea between Saliſbury and Newberry in Eſſex. 5. The river Piſcataway, which runs from weſt to eaſt, and falls into the ſea near Portſmouth in Hampſhire, with a mouth more like an arm of the ſea, and capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips. 6. The river Saco, which runs from the north of New England to the ſouth, falling into the ſea between Cape Porpus, or Porpoſes, and Cape Elizabeth, in the province of Meine. 7. The Caſco river, which runs parallel with the former, and falls into a bay of it's own name. To the eaſt of theſe are the rivers Saghedock, Kenabeck, Penobſcot, and many more conſiderable ones, which, riſing far to the north, run almoſt due ſouth, and fall into the ocean to the north-eaſt of Caſco bay.

To the convenience of ſo many fine rivers, and the plenty of freſh water, the number of large populous towns is juſtly aſcribed. There are ſome copper and iron mines.

There is alſo plenty of good timber, but ſo much has been cut within ten or twelve miles from the ſea, that, 'tis ſaid, there is a neceſſity for a law to prevent the waſte of woods. Oak, elm, aſh, cypreſs, pine, cheſnut, walnut, cedar, beech, aſpin, ſaſſafras, are common here; as are alſo ſpruce and fir-trees, which are of an extraordinary growth, producing pitch, tar, roſin, and turpentine; alſo maſts, yards, and planks, as the oak does the other ſhip-timber; ſo that more ſhips have been built in this province, than in all the other parts of America. Here is ſhumack, which is uſed by dyers and tanners; and, as there is no want of hides and ſkins, nor bark, there is a great manufacture in leather. That, called the ſhe-cedar, produces ſweet gums, as do other of their trees balms that are medicinal. The dwarf oak grows wild here, and was ſent hence to Old England to be cultivated. All ſorts of garden and orchard-trees thrive here ſo well, that 'tis eaſy for a planter to make a hundred hogſheads of cyder in a ſeaſon; and the export of apples to the Sugar-Iſlands is a conſtant article in it's commerce.

They have as good hemp and flax as any in the Baltic; great plenty of all ſorts of roots, as turnips, parſnips, carrots, radiſhes, much larger and richer than ours, though their ſeeds came originally from hence; good ſtore of onions, cucumbers, and pumpkins, but the ſeeds of their water-melons and ſquaſhes, which grow here in great plenty, are ſuppoſed to be brought from Portugal.

They had a great variety of fruits of their own growth, before the Engliſh ſettled here, and they have univerſally improved them. Mr Dudly, one of the council in New England, and a fellow of the Royal Society, ſays, the peaches here are large, all ſtandards, and the fruit better than ours; and that they bear commonly in three years from the ſtone; that in 1721, in a village near Boſton of about forty houſes, they made near three thouſand barrels of cyder; and that ſome of their apple-trees yield ſix or ſeven barrels, and at the rate of eight or nine buſhels to the barrel.

There is a great variety of plants here, different from thoſe of Europe; particularly the common ſavin, which frequently grows wild on the hills; that called the bear-thiſtle, very ſhort and prickly; whoſe root with a decoction of cancer-root, and a ſort of devil's bit, cures the king's evil. Here's a plant called partridge-berries, an excellent cure for the dropſy; and that called the bleeding-root, to cure the jaundice; together with ſome others, of which the late Dr Cotton Mather gave the Royal Society of London a ſpecimen.

There is hardly a greater variety of fowl any where than in this country, and plenty of beaſts both tame and wild, of every uſeful kind. Here are alſo abundance of excellent fiſh, both in the ſea and rivers. Whales were often caught formerly between New England and New York; but the whale-fiſhery is of late engroſſed in a manner by the Newfoundlanders, though there are ſtill vaſt quantities of fiſh of all ſorts, eſpecially cod, taken on this coaſt, which are ſalted and ſent to Europe, as well as to the ſugar plantations, for the ſubſiſtance of their negroes as well as white ſervants.

There is ſcarce any ſort of Britiſh manufacture, whether for uſe, ornament, or luxury, but is imported into New England; ſo that the exports from Great-Britain and Ireland have been computed by ſome to be no leſs than 300,000 l a year. The imports alſo from thence are not of the unbeneficial kind. They ſell their fiſh to Spain, Portugal, and the Streights, the produce of which comes hither in gold and ſilver, or bills of exchange. Other returns they make us in maſts, the beſt and largeſt in the whole world, beſides pitch, tar, turpentine, roſin, plank, knees for ſhips, and other ſpecies of timber for various uſes. Theſe commodities, eſpecially pitch and tar, were formerly purchaſed of the Swede with our crown pieces at exorbitant prices; (ſee NAVAL STORES) but, ſince the encouragement given to their importation from New England, they have fell to half their former price. New England alſo imports logwood for the dyeing our woollen goods in quantities for our own uſe, and a ſurplus, with which we furniſh Holland and Hamburgh. Other articles might be mentioned, as whale-oil and fins, which are yearly imported from New England in conſiderable quantities; and, if not had from hence, they muſt be purchaſed of the Dutch with ready money, and at much higher prices. New England plants no ſugar, indeed, but it aſſiſts our iſland colonies that do; which, without it's help, could not make it near ſo cheap, and in ſufficient quantities. For, if the Sugar-Iſlands were obliged to ſow wheat, and plant as much Indian corn as they wanted, they muſt neceſſarily plant the fewer canes. From hence they are likewiſe ſupplied with horſes for their mills, timber for their ſugar-works, boards, hoops, and ſtaves for their caſks, butter, cheeſe, oil, tallow, corn, flour, bread, beans, peaſe, beſides barrel pork, mackarel, and the refuſe cod-fiſh.

NOVA SCOTIA, NEW SCOTLAND, or ACADIA, is the eaſtern part of the North American continent, and has New England on the ſouth-weſt; part of New France, and the river St Lawrence, on the weſt and north; the gulph of that name, and Cape Breton iſland, on the eaſt; and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt and ſouth. According to ſome geographers, it extends from the Streight of Canſo and Fronſac (which divides it from Cape Breton iſland) weſt longitude 60. 15. to the river of Kennebeck, in longitude 69. 0. and from Cape Sable in north latitude 43. 37. to Cape Anne, in the river of St Lawrence, in latitude 49. 30. It is ſo indented in the middle by that called the bay of Funda, that the part of the country which is on the ſouth-eaſt of the bay towards the ocean, is a ſort of triangular peninſula, only joined by a ſmall iſthmus to the other part, which is not much inhabited or known.

Monſ.

Monſ. de Liſle, the famous French geographer, varies much in the ſituation and boundaries of this country. In his map of Canada, publiſhed in 1703, Acadia takes in the country of the Etchemins, or Itchemins, who are placed in ſome of our maps on the weſt ſide of the bay of Funda, and a part of the continent larger than the peninſula, extending from latitude 43 to 45. 20; whereas in Monſ. De Liſle's general map of America, engraved in 1722, Acadia is confined within the peninſula, and bounded on the north-weſt by the Gaſpeſians country. Father Charlevoix makes it 250 leagues in compaſs. Monſ. Bellin, engineer and hydrographer to the Marine Office, for the illuſtration of CANADA, when in French hands, reports the length of it from Cape Canſo on the eaſt, to Cape Sable on the weſt, according to their way of reckoning, to be eighty leagues. He ſays that Mr. Popple's map of this country is not at all correct as to the figure of the ports and bays, and the particular windings of the coaſts; but that it is pretty exact in the longitude and latitude, though it places Cape Canſo twenty minutes too far north.

La Hontan, another French writer, who made a long ſtay in North America, gives it a much larger extent than the Canada map juſt now mentioned, for he includes in it a part of Canada and Gaſpeſia. According to this author, it is three hundred leagues in length along the ſea-coaſt, from Kennebeck, the frontier river of New England, to the iſle Percee, towards the mouth of the river St Lawrence, including the bays of Funda and Chaleurs. But all Acadia, and it's dependencies being now annexed to the crown of England, all diſputes of this kind between Great-Britain and France have ceaſed.

To proceed, however, at preſent, with the ſtate of the country, with regard to it's productions and commerce.

Here are, ſays baron la Hontan, a great many little rivers, whoſe mouths have depth for the largeſt ſhips, with good anchorage; they abound with ſalmon; and that, in moſt of the rivers and the gulphs with which they communicate, there is plenty of cod-fiſh; that the four ſeaſons of the year are eaſily to be diſtinguiſhed here, but that the three winter months are extremely cold. La Hontan further obſerves, that almoſt every part of ACADIA yields corn, fruit, peaſe, and other pulſe; that in ſeveral places there are MASTS AS STRONG AS THOSE OF NORWAY; and that, if there were occaſion, all kinds of SHIPPING MIGHT BE BUILT HERE, THE OAK TIMBER THAT GROWS HERE BEING BETTER THAN THAT of EUROPE. The baron, who ſays here is good hunting, repreſents it in general to be a fine country, the climate tolerably temperate, the air pure and wholſome, and the water light and clear. Charlevoix, another French writer, ſays, it abounds with all the neceſſaries of life, in every ſeaſon, to ſubſiſt the inhabitants without much fatigue. Here is plenty of feathered game, ſuch as partridges, ducks, teal, and buſtards; and that, of the latter, vaſt numbers come to all the iſlands, and the banks of rivers in April, to build their neſts; where our author ſays, they have eggs enough to ſubſiſt the inhabitants at that time, and yet the ſpecies does not ſeem to be much diminiſhed.

At the end of March the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals as are incredible. The herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. Here are multitudes of beavers, otters, and the fiſh called baſs, whoſe fleſh is reckoned as good as veal. In October and November they hunt the two firſt, and in January they fiſh for the laſt. All the coaſt of the peninſula from Cape Sable on the weſt, to Cape Canſo on the eaſt, is lined with ſhoals or ſand banks. About November, a ſort of fiſh called Pocamo, ſuppoſed to be a ſea-dog, comes and ſpawns on the ice, and this is the time when the tortoiſes alſo lay their eggs.

The ſavages, or Indians here, much reſemble thoſe of New England; they have, indeed, more of their native barbarity and ignorance than their neighbours, who have more dealings with the French and Engliſh.

As ſome authors have repreſented this to be as indifferent a country as ever was inhabited by Barbarians, we ſhall here add what is farther related by F. Charlevoix before-mentioned, in ſupport of the above account given of its general fertility. He ſays, that Mr. Denys, who publiſhed an accurate deſcription of this country, in which he reſided a long time, and was proprietary and governor for the French king, of the eaſt coaſt, reports, THAT ONE SINGLE GRAIN OF WHEAT, SOWN NEAR LA HURVE, PRODUCED 150 EARS, VERY LONG AND SO LOADED, THAT THEY WERE FORCED TO SUPPORT THEM WITH IRON HOOPS. The jeſuit adds, that here are mines both of copper, and coal; and that about three fourths of a league from the iſle Monano, which ſhews the way into ST JOHN'S river, on the north ſide of Funda bay, there is a rock of LAPIS LAZULI, which is almoſt covered with the ſea; and Mr Denys, who ſaw a piece that had been taken off of it and ſent to France, ſays it was valued at ten crowns an ounce.

Beſides the fiſh already mentioned, here are mackarel, pilchards, ſhad, trout, ſea-cows and whales, in ſuch numbers, that ſeveral ſhip-loads may be taken in a ſeaſon in the port of Monconadi. The rivers here are alſo full of the freſh-water kind.

This country is ſtrangely indented, on all ſides, with bays from the ſea. The chief is called the bay of Funda. It breaks above 200 miles into the land from Cape Sable, the moſt ſouthern point of New Scotland, to the iſthmus which joins the peninſula to the continent. According to F. Charlevoix, 'tis two French leagues over to the river of St John, and has a clean ſhore, with depth of water enough to carry the LARGEST SHIPS TO THE LESSER BAY, on which ſtands it's capital, viz.

Annapolis, which lies in a fair clean bay within the bay of Funda, where there are at leaſt ſix or ſeven other good harbours. It was called Port-Royal by Monſ. De Monts in 1605, when he brought the French colony hither from St Croix; and it had the name of Annapolis in honour of queen Anne, in whoſe reign it was taken by the Engliſh under colonel Nicholſon. F. Charlevoix ſays, this harbour has but one fault, which is, the difficulty of entering or coming out of it, beſides the inconvenience of the frequent fogs here, ſo that only one ſhip can paſs in or out of it at a time; and that muſt be with the ſtern foremoſt, and with great precaution, by reaſon of the ſtrong currents and tides. This excepted, ſays the father, nature has ſcarce omitted one thing to make it the fineſt harbour in the world. It is two leagues in length, and one in breadth, having a ſmall iſland, called Goat-Iſland, almoſt in the middle of the baſon, which it is ſaid, is able to contain ALL THE SHIPS IN AMERICA. It's depth of water is no where leſs than four or five fathom, it being ſix or ſeven on one ſide of the iſland, and on the other ſixteen or eighteen. The bottom is every-where good, and ſhips may be ſecure in it from all winds. When the French poſſeſſed it, they often brought their fiſhing veſſels into it. The place chiefly ſubſiſts by the traffic of ſkins, which the Indians bring down in exchange for European goods. It has alſo a pretty good trade in lumber and fiſh.

By the laſt DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, the iſlands of CAPE BRETON, ST JOHN'S, and ANTICORTE, and all the DEPENDENCIES of CANADA are annexed to the crown of Great-Britain. By CAPE BRETON, England commands the navigation to CANADA by the RIVER ST. LAWRENCE, and a moſt excellent additional fiſhery on this coaſt, together with ſeveral very good harbours for our ſhipping. This with Canada and all its dependencies, which now belong to this kingdom, cannot fail to prove a conſiderable acquiſition to our maritime power and fiſheries, while it diminiſhes that of France in the like proportion. A moſt ſenſible mortification to our moſt formidable rival in trade and navigation! See the articles AMERICA, CANADA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

NEWFOUNDLAND. This iſland is of a triangular form, about as big as Ireland, and 310 leagues, or 930 miles in circuit. On the north it is ſeparated from Terra de Labrador, or New Britain, by the ſtreight of Belleiſle, which runs north eaſt, and is about twenty-three miles over in it's narroweſt part. On the weſt it has the gulph of St Lawrence, and on the ſouth and eaſt, the weſtern, or Atlantic ocean. Cape Race, or Raz, the moſt ſoutherly point of the iſland, lies in north latitude 46. 45. the moſt northern point is in latitude 51. 30. So that the greateſt length of the iſland, from ſouth to north, is 280 miles. Cape Raye, it's moſt weſterly point, lies in north latitude 47. 35. and, between it and Cape Race, the diſtance is about 80 leagues, or 240 miles.

Authors differ widely in the account they give of it's climate and produce. Some aſſert that the ſky is almoſt conſtantly clear and ſerene; that here are beautiful foreſts and verdant fields, covered with ſtrawberries, &c. that the buſhes are nothing but raſpberries of a delicious taſte and flavour; that here are exceeding good waters, very fruitful vales; and that there is here a kind of rye, which grows naturally without culture, and is very nouriſhing; and that the iſle abounds with all ſorts of game. Others, on the contrary, repreſent it as a frightful country, and aſſert, that the whole iſland is almoſt one continued rock, &c. In order to reconcile theſe oppoſite deſcriptions, ſays F. Charlevoix, we muſt diſtinguiſh the different parts of the iſle, which have been viſited by Europeans. It is true, adds he, that the ſouthern and eaſtern coaſts do not commonly enjoy a very ſerene ſky, becauſe of their neighbourhood to the great bank, which is almoſt conſtantly covered with a thick fog. But in the northern and weſtern parts, the ſky is very clear, both in ſummer and winter. As for the innermoſt parts of the country, there is nothing certain concerning them, it being almoſt impoſſible to travel far into the iſland. Among thoſe who have travelled fartheſt, ſome, perhaps, may have obſerved beautiful vales, whilſt others, who went another way, could perceive nothing but ſteep and barren rocks.

The chief, and almoſt only, trade and buſineſs here, is fiſh; whereof there is ſuch plenty in this ſea, that all the world almoſt might be ſupplied from it, all ſorts being taken here in immenſe quantities; but the principal fiſhery here regarded is that of cod, whereof at leaſt, ſix hundred ſail of ſhips are laden every year for France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, England, and other parts. The main fiſhery is on the Great Bank, of which preſently; and on the other banks about this

iſland,

iſland, as alſo all along the coaſt. The fiſhing ſeaſon is from ſpring 'till September.

Train oil is drawn off the livers of the fiſh, which are thrown up in heaps, when the cod is cured; and from thence is drawn all the oil that comes from Newfoundland.

There are two ſorts of trades in this navigation; the one, and perhaps the moſt profitable, conſidering the riſk is leſs, is that driven by the fiſheries themſelves, who only victual and man their ſhips at Biddeford, Pool, Dartmouth, and other weſtern ports chiefly, and go away early to fiſh, having the hands and the ſhips neceſſary. The other is, when the maſters ſail directly to Newfoundland, to purchaſe cargoes of fiſh of the above-mentioned fiſhers, or of the inhabitants off their ſtages. Theſe traders purchaſe their cargoes with bills of exchange, at two months date, which are very ſeldom proteſted. The fiſh that is ſhipped for Great-Britain and Ireland, is inconſiderable, in compariſon of what is ſent to Portugal, Spain, and Italy. Some fiſh is alſo ſhipped for Barbadoes, and the other Sugar-Iſlands. Beſides the great profit which particular merchants make by this fiſhery, conſidering the ſeamen it conſtantly breeds, the tradeſmen it maintains, and the ſhipping it requires, the increaſe of the national ſtock is no leſs than 3 or 400,000 l. yearly; for a ſhip of an hundred tons with the charge only of victual, and fiſhing-tackle for twenty hands, ſhall bring to market in Portugal, Spain, or Italy 3000 l. worth of fiſh, and clear frequently not leſs than 2000 l. to the proprietors; ſo that an hundred and fifty ſuch ſhips only will clear 300,000 l. and conſequently increaſe the publick and private ſtock ſo much.

In the year 1696, the Engliſh, ſays Charlevoix, had ſeveral conſiderable ſettlements here, chiefly on the eaſtern coaſt of the iſland, and had contrived roads through the woods, for an eaſy communication of theſe ſettlements with each other. Here were ſeveral very rich inhabitants, and they traded yearly for 17,000,000 of livres; that is, above 900,000 l. ſterling, conſidering the French money was then much higher than it is at preſent.

There are a great many fine bays all round Newfoundland, but thoſe on the eaſt and ſouth coaſts are beſt known. Thoſe on the eaſt ſide are Bonaviſt, Trinity, and Conception, which ſtretch themſelves to the ſouth-weſt; Torbay, Capelin, St John's harbour, the bay of Bulls, Freſh-water bay, and others; for there is no ſhore in the world better accommodated with excellent harbours, and the bays on the eaſt and ſouth coaſts are ſo near each other, that nothing could be more commodious for an eaſy communication, were there inhabitants that wanted it. At Bonaviſta the Engliſh had a ſettlement ſo well fortified, conſidering the country, that after the French had made themſelves maſters of a great part of Newfoundland, in the year 1696, they did not dare to attack that place.

St John's harbour is very fine, and capacious enough for two hundred ſail of ſhipping; its entrance is not above half a muſquet ſhot wide, lies between two very high mountains, and was, in 1696, defended by a battery of eight guns.

On the ſouth ſhore are the bays of Biſcay, St Mary, Placentia, bay of Fortune, or St Peter's, and the bay of Deſhair, going from eaſt to weſt; but the moſt famous and conſiderable of them is the bay of Placentia, of which Charlevoix gives the following deſcription.

This bay is ten leagues deep, and the harbour is at the bottom of it. The entrance of it is a narrow channel, through which but one ſhip can paſs at a time; but it is deep enough for the largeſt veſſels, and the harbour can contain a hundred and fifty ſhips, which ride there ſecure againſt all winds, and can fiſh as quietly as in any river. Before the narrow channel, there is a road of a league and half in extent, but expoſed to the north-north-weſterly wind, which blows very often upon that coaſt, and is almoſt conſtantly tempeſtuous. What makes the channel ſo narrow, is a ridge of dangerous rocks, which muſt be left on the right-hand, and above which the French had built a fort, called St Lewis. The currents are very ſtrong here, ſo that ſhips muſt be towed through the channel.

The great ſtrand, or drying place for fiſh, which is about a league in extent, lies between two ſteep hills, one of which, on the ſouth-ſouth weſt, is ſeparated from the ſtrand by a ſmall rivulet, which runs out of the channel, and forms a kind of lake that is called the Little Bay. Here they catch plenty of ſalmon. The great ſtrand may contain at once wherewithal to load threeſcore ſhips. There is another leſſer ſtrand for the uſe of the inhabitants, who fiſh all along the coaſt. On both theſe places fiſh may be laid to dry without danger.

Along the abovementioned rivulet, the French built huts to dry their fiſh in rainy weather. The houſes of the inhabitants were near this place, and formed a ſtreet, which was the town of Placentia. Fort St Lewis rendered the French formerly maſters of all the ſouthern parts of Newfoundland, and of the iſland of St Peter, which lie over-againſt it, and were inhabited. The people of St Malo uſed to fiſh a little farther, at a place called Petit Nord. The cod is leſs there than in the bay of Placentia, but more proper for the Mediterranean and Levant traders.

The great bank of Newfoundland is a vaſt mountain, concealed under water, lying about ſix hundred leagues weſt of France. Mr Denys, author of a good treatiſe on North America, and a very uſeful book, gives this bank a hundred and fifty leagues from north to ſouth: but, according to the moſt accurate ſea charts, it's ſouthern extremity lies in or about the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and it's northern extremity in 49. 25. The truth is, that theſe two extremities are ſo pointed, that it is not eaſy to mark it's limits that way. It's greateſt breadth, from eaſt to weſt, is about ninety marine Engliſh leagues, between 42. 30. 51. 30. of longitude weſt from London. Some ſailors have aſſerted, that they have anchored there in five fathom, which is contrary to the Sieur Denys, who pretends that the depth is twenty-five fathom; it is certain, that in ſome places it has ſixty.

Whatever be the dimenſions or figure of this bank, it is covered with a vaſt quantity of ſhells, and ſeveral kinds of fiſh of all ſizes, moſt of which ſerve for food to the cod-fiſh, whoſe number here ſeems to equal the grains of ſand on the bank itſelf. Between two and three hundred veſſels have loaded here annually for two centuries, and yet this vaſt conſumption has produced no alteration in their plenty. It would however, adds Charlevoix, be proper to diſcontinue this fiſhery from time to time, eſpecially as THE GULPH AND RIVER OF ST LAWRENCE, THE COAST OF ACADIA, OR NOVA SCOTIA, CAPE BRETON, AND NEWFOUNDLAND, ABOUND WITH COD, AS WELL AS THE GREAT BANK: THESE ARE TRUE MINES, OF GREATER VALUE, AS WELL AS CHEAPER WROUGHT, THAN THOSE OF MEXICO AND PERU.

The next bank is called the Green Bank; the author of the Britiſh Empire in America aſſerts, that it is about two hundred and forty miles long, and a hundred and twenty miles over; but, by the charts, we do not find it above an hundred and twenty miles long, and about fifty over, where broadeſt; it lies off the ſouth coaſt of Newfoundland. The other banks are not conſiderable enough to deſerve particular notice, and their ſhape and ſituation may be ſeen in ſome good ſea-chart, whoſe proper buſineſs it is to deſcribe ſands and ſoundings.

REMARKS.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, all CANADA, and it's DEPENDENCIES, the RIVER ST LAWRENCE, the COASTS OF ACADIA, or NOVA SCOTIA, and CAPE BRETON, are ceded and annexed to the crown of GREAT BRITAIN; and therefore this treaty has added thoſe NEW MINES of treaſure to this kingdom; of which we ſhall daily reap the advantage; and what well deſerves our ſerious conſideration is, that the treaty which has procured us the benefits, ſeems to have long ſecured them to us. For being now ſole maſters of all ACADIA, and it's DEPENDENCIES, and ſole maſters likewiſe of all CANADA and it's DEPENDENCIES, what ſingle power is now able to contend with us in theſe parts of America? The French will not attempt it by virtue of their poſſeſſions of the ſmall iſlands of ST PETER's and MIQUELON, where it is expreſsly ſtipulated, that they are not to keep more guard than 50 men for the police, nor to erect any kind of fortification, theſe iſlands being given to France only as a ſhelter for their fiſhermen. Article VI. of the ſaid treaty.

By the XVIIIth article of the ſame treaty, his Catholick Majeſty deſiſts, as well for himſelf, as for his ſucceſſors, from all pretenſions which he may have formed, in favour of the Guiſpuſcoans, and other his ſubjects, TO THE RIGHT OF FISHING IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NEWFOUNDLAND.

England, therefore, having no other power to contend with, who poſſeſs any territories in theſe parts, but France, and thoſe being ſo trivial, they will ſcarce attempt to contend with this nation there: but if Spain were to join them in any future rupture with theſe kingdoms, they are not likely to be any great gainers by it; for our poſſeſſions in the gulphs of FLORIDA and MEXICO, may endanger the loſs of their Havanna again; and then, perhaps, that may ſhare the ſame fate that CAPE BRETON has done.

From this account of the trade of our colonies in North America, I ſhall paſs on to that of our iſland colonies, which we have not already taken notice of.

In regard to that of Jamaica, which is one of the principal, we refer the reader to the ANTILLES ISLANDS, where we have conſidered that already; as we have alſo that of the BAHAMA and BERMUDAS ISLANDS, under their proper titles. And although the reſt of the iſlands, belonging to Great-Britain, are ranked under the general name of the Caribbees; yet, in order to take a full view of the trade of Britiſh America together, we judge it neceſſary, to conſider thoſe of the Caribbees diſtinctly which belong to us. Whereby we ſhall omit none under this general article, except the Bahama and Bermudas, and Jamaica; the trade of which latter being much like to that of Barbadoes, we cannot fail having ſuch an idea of the whole, as will anſwer our deſign in conſidering Britiſh America together. See alſo ANTILLES.

The Iſland of ST CHRISTOPHER's. This iſland, called by our ſailors St Kitt's, lies between latitude 17. 10. and 17. 40. and the middle of the iſland in longitude 62. 40. weſt from London,

London, and is about ten miles north of Nevis, and fourteen leagues from Antigua. Father Tertre, who gives a particular map of it, makes it near eight French leagues, from eaſt to weſt, and two and a half from north to ſouth where broadeſt; but the trueſt length is twenty-five miles and a half, and the greateſt breadth ſeven: yet in one part, towards the ſalt-ponds, at the ſouth-eaſt end, it is but half a mile over.

The air here is ſultry, but pleaſant and healthful, being agreeably tempered with cool breezes. 'Tis repreſented by ſome as one of the moſt delightful iſlands. The ſoil is light and ſandy, and proper not only for the cultivation of tobacco and ſugar, but for cotton, ginger, and fruit of all ſorts. 'Tis well ſupplied with ſprings, and has ſome hot baths. The vallies and ſides of the hills are very fertile, but the mountains of a ſulphureous compoſition, and overgrown for the moſt part with palmettoes, cotton-trees, lignum vitæ, and various other ſorts.

At the ſouth-eaſt end of the iſland, there is an iſthmus that runs into the ſea, within a mile and an half of Nevis, where are ſalt-ponds, which produce a grain that is perfectly white, and more corroſive than the French.

The ſoil abounds with maiz, pine-apples, tamarinds, plantains, prickled pears, peaſe and apples, all differing from ours. Here are two ſorts of cotton, that grows on a ſmall ſtalk, and is as ſoft as down; the other grows on a ſhrub in a cod, bigger than a walnut. The indigo grows here in cods nine or ten in a bunch, and is very good for dyers. Here are wild ſugar-canes four or five feet high, maſtic and locuſt-trees, gourds, muſk-melons, water-melons, lettice, parſley, and purſlain; with the manchinel-tree, and ſea-berries of the ſize of a muſket-bullet, that waſh as white as ſoap. They have a very good fruit called pengromes, another papaw. They have large trees, whoſe leaves make good muſtard, but they bear no ſeed. Here are abundance of good figs, together with the caſſava-root, potatoes, radiſhes, and plenty of cabbages.

Though St Chriſtopher's is the largeſt of all the Leeward Iſlands, yet the middle part of it is ſo mountainous, that 'tis believed it has not above 24,000 acres of land fit for ſugar, of which 'tis reckoned to produce about 10,000 hogſheads one year with another. 'Tis computed that it makes above three hogſheads of this commodity to one of rum; though, were there a demand for it 'tis able to make a much greater quantity, if we may credit the declaration of a gentleman of diſtinction of this iſland, to the committee on the ſugar-colony bill, Anno 1731, who ſaid, that himſelf alone had made 2000 gallons in one year, and that, if he had encouragement, he could make 20,000 gallons. The great ſalt-pond here is ſuppoſed to contain above fourſcore acres. The ſun ſo exhales it in exceſſive hot weather, that the cruſt of ſalt which it leaves at the bottom, exactly reſembles pieces of rock cryſtal.

It's animals are generally the ſame as thoſe in the other Caribbee-Iſlands. From May to September here is plenty of tortoiſes, guana's, and land crabs, and they abound with other ſorts of fiſh.

The Iſland of NEVIS is but three or four miles due ſouth-eaſt, from the ſouth point of St Chriſtopher's. It is about ſix leagues in circumference, and has only one mountain in the middle of it, which is very high, but has a commodious aſcent, and is covered with plantations, and great trees all around, from the ſea-ſide to the top.

The ſoil is fruitful, and even more ſo than St Chriſtopher's. It's product is much the ſame as in the other Caribbee-Iſlands. Sugar, which is the ſtaple commodity here as well as there, ſerves for all the uſes that money does. All the trade of the iſland is managed by it, and pounds of ſugar, inſtead of pounds ſterling, ſerve in exchange for other commodities inſtead of money. Tobacco, cotton, and ginger, were much cultivated at firſt, but of late very trifling; and ſuch large quantities of ſugar have been made here, that fifty or ſixty ſhips have been laden with it in a year for Europe.

Mr Smith, rector of St John's town in this iſland, ſays, in his Natural Hiſtory of theſe iſlands, that Nevis produces a tree called dogwood, whoſe bark is much in requeſt for fiſh-catching. The fiſh moſt preferred here is the cavaly, a very firm ſea-fiſh, deep-bodied, which weighs four or five pounds, and taſtes like a mackarel. That which is reckoned the richeſt is the mud-fiſh. Here are various kinds of turtle, but none of them eatable except the green.

The ſheep of this iſland have no horns nor wool, but an hairy and ſmooth ſkin, and ſpotted. Their porkers, being fed with Indian corn, Spaniſh potatoes, and ſugar-cane juice, are exceeding ſweet food, white and fat; and ſo are the fowls and turkies, which are fed with the ſame diet. Some of theſe, together with geeſe and ducks, are brought from the northern colonies; but they have plenty of Muſcovy ducks of their own breeding.

They breed all their other proviſions, ſuch as rabbets, veal, &c. but their Iriſh ſalt beef, hams, pickled ſalmon, ſturgeon, and oyſters, are brought to them from Europe, and the northern colonies.

The whites here now are computed at about 3000, and the negroes at three times that number, of whom at leaſt 4000 are employed in the ſugar trade.

Though much ſhipping comes to it, yet there is no good harbour in the whole iſland, nor any good anchoring, except on the ſouth-weſt ſide, where are ſeveral rocks and ſhoals, between which ſhips ride with ſafety, except in caſe of hurricanes, when they put out to ſea, and, if poſſible, run into Antigua.

The Iſland of ANTIGUA. This iſland, which lies to the eaſt of Nevis and St Chriſtopher's, in about 61 degrees, 40 minutes of weſt longitude, and 17. 30. north latitude, is almoſt of a circular form, being about ſix leagues from eaſt to weſt, and near ſix from north to ſouth, or twenty miles each way, according to ſome, and near ſixty miles in circumference. 'Tis more remarkable for good harbours, than all the Engliſh iſlands in thoſe ſeas, yet ſo encompaſſed with rocks, that 'tis of dangerous acceſs in many parts of it, eſpecially for maſters of ſhips that are not well acquainted with the coaſt.

The climate is hotter than that of Barbadoes, and very liable to hurricanes. The ſoil is ſandy, and much of it overgrown with wood; and, what is worſe, there are but few ſprings, and not ſo much as a ſingle brook in the iſland; ſo that it's chief dependance for freſh water is from rain, for which it it is ſometimes diſtreſſed: yet, for all theſe natural diſadvantages, 'tis a very conſiderable and thriving plantation. It's product is much the ſame with that of the other Caribbee-Iſlands. Sugar, tobacco, indigo, and ginger, were it's principal commodities, when it was firſt planted, but the two latter are now ſeldom cultivated. Their ſugar was, at firſt, ſo black and coarſe, that, our ſugar-bakers ſcorning to put it into their coppers, it was generally ſhipped off for Holland and Hamburgh, where it fetched but 16 s. a hundred, when other muſcovado ſugar fetched 18 or 19 s. But the planters here have ſo far improved their art, that as good muſcovado ſugar is now made here as in any of the ſugar-iſlands, and they have alſo learned the art of claying it.

This iſland contains about 70,000 acres, and produces 16,000 hogſheads of ſugar one year with another, but does not make quite half ſo much rum as it does ſugar, though 'tis ſo capable of farther improvement, that 'tis believed, for good reaſons, that, if there were proper encouragement, the product of the former might be enlarged one fifth part, and that of the latter near half.

They don't plant any great quantity of tobacco; but what they do is better than it was formerly, when it was ſold for nothing but to make ſnuff. The wild cinnamon is ſaid to grow in their low lands, or Savanna woods.

This iſland has more veniſon than any of our other Caribbee-Iſlands, with plenty of fowl and black cattle: it has moſt of the animals in the country and on it's coaſts, that are common to the other iſlands.

The Iſland of MONTSERRAT lies 25 miles almoſt ſouth-ſouth-eaſt from Nevis, and 20 weſt-ſouth-weſt from Antigua, 40 north-weſt from Guardaloupe, and 240 from Barbadoes. 'Tis of an oval figure, and about 3 leagues in length, and the ſame in breadth, and about 18 miles in compaſs. It's mountains are covered with cedars, acajous, acomeſs, cypreſs-trees, the iron tree, and the muſk-herb, which grows like brambles, without thorns, and bears yellow flowers, which afterwards turns to cods full of ſeeds, that ſmell like muſk. It's vallies are well watered and fruitful, but it's climate and ſoil are much the ſame with thoſe of the other iſlands; as are alſo it's animals and commerce. It makes ſome ſugar, but not ſo fine as that of Jamaica and Barbadoes. It's chief produce is indigo, of which great quantities uſed to be exported to England, but it is declined of late years. In ſhort, it is a well planted iſland, and pretty much frequented by ſhips; though 'tis ſo ſurrounded with rocks, that the riding before it is very precarious; and it has no place that can properly be called a haven; ſo that, in caſe of the approach of a tornado, ſhips that happen to be on the coaſt, muſt immediately put out to ſea, and make to St Chriſtopher's one way, or Antigua the other.

In 1668, when the French had taken Antigua, they attacked this iſland with a great force, under M. de la Barre, and, after much loſs, took it, by the treachery of the ſavages. The Engliſh having made a gallant defence, and killed ſo many of the brave officers of the French, the enemy ſet fire to every thing, except what belonged to the Iriſh (whoſe governor was the firſt who ſubmitted); ſo that above 40 ſugar-houſes, and ſeveral warehouſes, full of rich merchandize, were deſtroyed. This iſland was afterwards reſtored to the Engliſh, attacked again by the French, and, after plundering and waſting the iſland at pleaſure, they remove to Guardaloupe. It was ſtipulated, however, by the 11th article of the treaty of peace at Utrecht, that the French ſhould make the Engliſh ſufferers ſatisfaction for their loſſes by this rapine: but it does not appear what they obtained, or whether any thing.

In 1733, this iſland ſuffered greatly by an hurricane. About three years after this, General Matthews, the governor of the Leeward-Iſlands, being in perſon upon this iſland, an act was paſſed, by the governor, council, and aſſembly, For the more effectual preventing all trade in theſe parts, between the Britiſh ſubjects and the French. Which was owing to the complaints of an illicit traffic that had been carried on, between the French and Britiſh ſugar-iſlands, contrary to the

5th and 6th articles of the treaty betwixt England and France, on the 6th of November, 1686; and to an act of parliament of the 6th of his late majesty's reign, intitled, An act for the better securing and encouraging the trade of his majesty's sugar colonies in America; and to a particular article in General Matthews's instructions, by which he was commanded to take care, that none of the French subjects be allowed to trade from their said settlements, to any of the islands under his government, or fish upon their coasts. Some of our other sugar-islands had connived too much at the infraction of these orders; and 'tis observed, to the honour of this little island of Montserrat, that it set a good example to all the other Caribbees, by being the first island which exerted the vigour of it's constitution, in confirming these orders by the abovementioned law of it's own making; in pursuance of which, several French ships were afterwards seized and condemned there, by it's court of admiralty.

The Island of BARBADOES. This island is not only one of the chief of the Caribbees, and the most considerable of all the British islands in America, next to Jamaica, but was also the first settled, and the mother of all the British sugar-colonies. Geographers differ much about it's situation. According to the best sea-charts, it is but 20 leagues east from St Vincent, which may be seen from it in a clear day; 25 from St Lucia, and a little more from Martinico; 100 leagues from St Christopher's, 60 north from Trinidado, 80 from Cape de Salines, the neareſt part to it on the continent, and but a day and an half's sail from the Dutch colony of Surinam. Mr Bowen, his late majesty's geographer, lays it down betwixt longitude 59. 50. and 60. 2. west from London; and betwixt north latitude 12. 56. and 13. 16. According to the Rev. and learned Mr Hughes, in his Natural History of this island, the greatest extent of it is from latitude 13. 10. to latitude 13. 23. and from Longitude west of London, 58. 49. $\frac{3}{4}$. to longitude 59. 2 $\frac{1}{2}$.

The climate of this island is very hot, especially for eight months in the year, but not so excessive as in the same latitude on the continent; because, though they have no land-breezes, yet there are others which arise from the sea with the sun, and increase as it advances to, but abate as it declines from, the meridian.

There's scarce a harbour in the island, except that of Bridgetown in Carlisle bay; nor a stream that deserves the name of a river; though there are two on the east side of the island, called Scotland river, and Joseph's river. They have wells of good water, almost all over the island, without digging very deep for it; and they have large ponds and reservoirs, for rain-water. 'Tis for the most part a plain level country, with some small hills, whose woods have been all cut down, to make room for plantations of sugar-canes, which now take up almost the whole island, and render it the most valuable plantation to Great-Britain for it's size, that it ever possessed.

When they first began to plant here, they produced a considerable crop yearly, from three years to nine, without farther trouble, but only weeding and cleaning the soil; and every acre, one with another, yielded 10 s. a year profit to the national stock of England, besides what the planters got, and the thousands that were maintained out of it, both here and there. But the soil, of late years, is not so fertile as it was; and, to mend it, they employ tame cattle for the sake of manure; but not many; because land employed this way, gives not one tenth of it's value. For the method of cultivating these canes, see the article SUGAR.

Here are all sorts of oranges and lemons, sweet, sour, and Seville, in abundance; the fruit of which is large, and the juice delicious. Citron-trees also abound here. With the rind of this fruit, the Barbadoes ladies make the most delicate cordials and sweet-meats. Limes are in great plenty here. Fruit in general is become a staple commodity, so that some tons have been imported into England and Ireland in a year. The tamarind and palm-trees were brought here about 70 years ago. Here are the bananas, and the pine-apple, described elsewhere, aloes, mongrove, and calabash-trees; the cotton, cedar, mastick, and bulley-trees: also the sugar-apples, sour-sop, and shaddock, described in Jamaica; together with the cocoa-tree, of whose shells are made cups, and of the nut chocolate. Other trees and shrubs of value are, the fig-tree, the cassia-fistula, the physic-nut, the prickled apple, the prickled pear, the pomegranate, the papa, the guava, the custard-apple, the macow-tree, the royal palmetto, and the less. The locust-tree, whose timber is used for wind-mills, and other uses in building; the iron-wood, lignum-vitæ, red-wood, and prickled yellow wood, the plantain-tree, or shrub, the anchovy-apple, the date-tree, the bay-tree, guana-trees, and soap-berries.

Some of the chief plants are ginger, and red pepper of two sorts. Here are grapes, but not so good as in the northern colonies; cucumbers, melons, the sensible plant, the humble plant, the dumb cane; with leeks, and almost all other roots and garden-stuff, brought hither originally from England. They abound also with curious flowers of most kinds. They have coach-horses from Old England, saddle-horses from New England, and others for carts and common uses, from Bonavista, the Cape Verd-Islands, and Curassaw. They have, when the wind changes to the south south-west, great flocks of wild fowl come in from the continent; such as plovers, curlews, snipes, wild pigeons, wild ducks, and teal. The neighbouring sea abounds with most sorts of fish, besides the green turtle, which is the most delicious of all; particularly parrot-fish, snappers, red and grey cavallos, terbums, coney-fish, mullets, mackarel, lobsters, and crabs. In the fresh waters here, are cray-fish, maid-fish, grigs, prawns, and several fish that come into them out of the sea; as coptamies, snooks, plaise, dolphins, barricados, king's fish, and the flying-fish.

The Barbadians trade with New England, Carolina, Pensylvania, New York, and Virginia, not only for lumber, but for bread, flour, Indian corn, rice, tobacco, salt-beef and pork, fish, pulse, and other provisions; with Guinea for negroes; with Madeira for wine; with Tercera and Fayal, for wine and brandy; with the isles of May and Curassaw for salt, and with Ireland for beef and pork. The other goods, which they import from Great Britain and Ireland, are osnaburgs, which are the chief wear of their servants and slaves; linnens of all sorts, with broad cloth and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers, and their families; silks and stuffs, for their ladies and houshold servants; red caps for their slaves, male and female, stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and hats, millenary ware and perriwigs; laces for linnen, woollen, and silks; pease, beans, and oats, from our western counties, and bisket from London; also wine of all sorts; strong beer (which they have also from New England) and pale ale; pickles, candles, butter and cheese; iron-ware for their sugar-works, such as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chissels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, planes, gouges, augres, handbills, drawing-knives, nails, and all sorts of leaden ware; powder and shot, and brass and copper wares: but Birmingham wares, though good commodities, soon rust and canker*, by the evening damps of this climate; and to this moisture of the air 'tis imputed, that clocks and watches seldom go right in this island.

* This is what our Birmingham and Sheffield manufacturers should be very solicitous to prevent, if any thing in nature could be discovered that would effectually do it, without defacing the beautiful polish of iron and steel.

They import also from Great Britain all sorts of India goods and toys, coals, pantiles, hearth-stones, hoops, and every thing proper for an English market, will sell here, the difference of the climate always considered. Servants who are volunteers, and not transports, go off well here, especially mechanics; and, if very good ones, are worth 25 and 30 l. a piece, for their five years servitude. Butter, oil, candles, liquors, and provisions, are generally shipped from hence for this island, about Michaelmas. The voyage is commonly five or six weeks outward bound, and six or seven homeward. The packets generally make it in a month. The planters send to Guinea guns, powder, and arms, perpetuana's, tallow, &c. and all wearing apparel, which they have from England; and dispatch small vessels thither to bring slaves for their plantations, which require to be recruited every year with 20 or 30 negroes to every 4 or 500 acres.

Madeira wine being the chief drink of the gentry, there are about 3000 pipes of these, Malmsey and Vidonia wines, imported into this island in a year, either by the London merchants, or the Barbadians themselves. And 'tis observable, that the Madeira wine drank in England, which usually comes round by Barbadoes in a time of war with France, is better than what comes to us directly from Madeira, which is flat and palled.

In regard to the exports of this island, the staple commodity is sugars. Before the civil wars, the trade of this island used to be open and free, and the Dutch ships came hither to purchase sugars, as well as the English; which freedom of trade made money very plenty in the colony: but, several acts of Parliament having been made after the Restoration, confining the trade of all the sugar colonies to Great-Britain and British ships only, it rendered London the chief mart in Europe for sugars: and, as more were imported every year than was necessary for home consumption, the surplus was exported to foreign markets by our merchants; who thereby undersold the Portugueze, who before used to supply all Europe with their Brazil sugars, and, in process of time, beat them out of all their sugar-trade to the northward of Cape Finisterre.

In the reign of king Charles II. especially about 1676, the Barbadoes trade actually employed 400 sail of ships, of 150 tons one with another, every year: and it was computed, that the running cash of the island was about 200,000 l. and their annual exportation to Great-Britain, in sugar, ginger, indigo, and other commodities, at least 350,000 l. The money brought into the nation in the year last mentioned, by the export of the commodities only brought hither from Barbadoes, was allowed to be above 200,000 l. and 'twas agreed, that as much, or more, had been gained every year betwixt that time and the Restoration. It has been computed by a very judicious gentleman, that the nation acquired, at least,

two

two millions of money by Barbadoes, betwixt the years 1636 and 1656; that, in the following twenty years to 1676, the gain by it muſt have been four millions: and our author, allowing for the gradual declenſion of it's trade ſince, by many croſs accidents, and particularly by ſettling the French ſugar-colonies, computing the laſt ſixty years, viz. from 1676, to 1736, at the ſame rate as he did the firſt twenty years, the gain will then amount to ſix millions: ſo that, ſays he, in the ſpace of a hundred years, the inhabitants of Great-Britain have received twelve millions of ſilver by means of this plantation; and had 50,000 of her inhabitants maintained, all that time, by the people of this colony. It appears, from his remarks on the ſtate of the ſugar-colonies, that the Barbadians, in 1730, exported hither 22,769 hogſheads of ſugar, each weighing 13 hundred weight; of which, near 18000 hogſheads came into the port of London only: and that they made 340,391 l. clear profit of the whole; becauſe 'twas proved, that the rum and molaſſes paid all the charges of a plantation.

As to indigo, which was ſhipped hence not a great many years ago, there's now little or none made here; but of ſcraped and ſcalded ginger they make great quantities, and have abundance of cotton-ſhrubs, a commodity whereof the ſlaves make hammocks. They alſo ſhip lignum vitæ, ſuccats, citron-water, molaſſes, rum, and lime-juice, for England.

The inhabitants of this iſland are of three claſſes, viz. the maſters (who are either Engliſh, Scots, or Iriſh, with ſome few Dutch, French, Portugueze, and Jews) the white ſervants, and the black ſlaves. The maſters are the planters and merchants; both clergy and laity, lawyers, phyſicians, &c. live very elegantly; the white ſervants are either by covenant or purchaſe, and are of two ſorts; ſuch as ſell themſelves in Great-Britain or Ireland, for four years or more, and ſuch as are felons tranſported. When the term of the covenant ſervants is expired, the Britiſh ſervants have each 5 l. the others but 40 s. Their work is not ſo hard as that of our day-labourers, yet their encouragement is greater; and, if they are good for any thing, they may be employed upon their own terms, when their time is out. The ſervitude of the blacks is perpetual; yet great care is taken of them, becauſe, if a negro dies, 'tis 40 or 50 l. loſs to the owner: whereas, by the death of a white ſervant, he loſes only two or three years wages to another. The buſineſs of the blacks lies moſtly in the field, excepting thoſe who are taken into their ſugar-mills, ſtore-houſes, and dwelling-houſes; where the handſomeſt, neateſt maids, are bred to menial ſervices, and the clevereſt fellows to be coachmen, grooms, and lackeys. Others of them are often employed in handicrafts, as coopers, joiners, maſons, &c. A ſlave who is a good mechanic, is worth 150, or 200 l. and even 400 l. has been given for a ſkilful ſugar-boiler. The negroes are purchaſed by lots out of the Guinea ſhips, after being all viewed ſtark-naked, and are allowed two or three wives, that they may propagate and increaſe the planter's ſtock; for their poſterity to all generations are ſlaves, unleſs they have their liberties given them.

The Iſland of ST VINCENT, lies 50 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, and is ſaid to be of the ſame form as Ferro, one of the Canary-Iſlands. 'Tis about 8 leagues in length, 6 in breadth, and 18 or 20 in compaſs. 'Tis computed to be 10 leagues ſouth-ſouth-eaſt from the Reed river, in the Baſſe-Terre of St Lucia of this iſland. There are ſeveral mountains on it, with plains at the bottom, which, if cultivated, would be very fruitful.

According to Labat, this iſland has a deep, fat, free ſoil, capable of producing every thing almoſt that can be deſired. It has abundance of rivulets and ſprings, of the beſt water in the world; large ſtraight trees of all the kinds that are produced in America; and tobacco is cultivated here, which is reckoned not inferior to that of Vermé, near the Caraccas; together with mandioca, potatoes, ignamos, gourds, the fineſt large melons, and Turky wheat. To which the ſame hiſtorian adds, when this iſland was ſuppoſed to belong to France, that if any of the French could but agree with ſome of the old Caribbeans here for ſome pieces of ground, and only apply to the breeding of poultry, ſwine, and cabrittoes, they might ſoon raiſe a fortune, without ſtirring off the iſland; becauſe the Martinicans would not fail to come in their veſſels, and take them off at their own price, either in money or goods: by which means, ſays he, a trade might alſo be opened, to good advantage, with the induſtrious negroes of the Cabes-Terre in that iſland; who might be induced, in time, to put themſelves under the French king's protection, and even to pay him tribute. Great profit might alſo be made of the timber on this iſland, of which there is a vaſt ſtock of all kinds: and indigo thrives here to a miracle. Nor does he doubt but the ſoil would be very proper for the cultivation of cocoa-trees, enough even to furniſh the other iſlands, which carry their money or goods for it to the Spaniards on the coaſt of the Carracas.

REMARKS.

By the IXth. article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, this iſland of ST VINCENT, together with DOMINICA, and TOBAGO, which were heretofore termed NEUTRAL ISLANDS, is ceded in full right to his BRITANNICK MAJESTY: alſo the iſlands of GRANADA and the GRANADINES, are, by the ſame treaty, become BRITISH ISLANDS, which before were FRENCH.

To obtain which acquiſitions to the crown of Great-Britain, the FRENCH are, by the ſaid treaty, to poſſeſs the other NEUTRAL ISLAND of ST LUCIA, and to have the conqueſts of MARTINICO and GUADALUPE, &c. reſtored.

The many years diſputes and contentions, that GREAT BRITAIN and FRANCE have heretofore had concerning theſe NEUTRAL ISLANDS, are now FINALLY DETERMINED in the moſt explicit manner; the nature of which diſputes may be proper to appear in the ſequel of this article, as it ſtood in the old edition.

DOMINICA

Lies much about half-way between Guardaloupe on the north-weſt, and Martinico on the ſouth-eaſt, viz. about 15 leagues from each; extends from north weſt to ſouth eaſt, and is about 13 leagues in length, and near as much over where broadeſt. Labat ſays it is from 30 to 35 leagues in compaſs. It is divided, like Martinico and Guardaloupe, and ſome other of the Caribbee iſlands, into the Cabes Terre and Baſſe-Terre, and the ſoil much of the ſame nature. He ſays the ſoil is good, and the ſlopes of the hills, which bear the fineſt trees in the world, are proper for the production of plants; ſo that ſome have reported it to be one of the beſt of the Caribbees, for its fruitful valleys, large plains, and fine rivulets. The Cabes-Terre is watered with a good number of freſh water rivers, abounding with choice fiſh. It has a ſulphur-mountain, like that at Guardaloupe, but not near ſo high. There are but two or three places, in that part called Baſſe-Terre, that are tolerable; the moſt conſiderable of which is called the Great Savanna. It produces mandioca, caſſava, bananos, and the fineſt figs. They have potatoes and ignamas in abundance, with a great deal of millet and cotton. Here are great numbers of ring doves, partridges and ortolans. They breed hogs and poultry, and of the former two ſorts of wild ones, deſcended from ſuch as firſt came from France and Spain. Here are the fineſt and largeſt eels in the world.

The Caribbeans retiring hither, for moſt part, as they were drove out of the other iſlands by the Europeans, they are therefore more numerous here than in any of the reſt of the Leeward Iſlands; but in 1700 Labat did not compute them at much above 2000, including women and children. The anchorage is good all round the coaſt of Dominica, but it has no good port or bay to retire to; all the advantage it has, is the ſhelter which ſhips find behind ſome of its capes. The French always oppoſed the attempts of the Engliſh to ſettle here, becauſe it would enable them, in time of war, to cut off the communication betwixt Martinico and Guardaloupe; ſo that it ſerves for wood and water.

Tobago, another of the Caribbee Iſlands in the American ocean, ſituated 20 miles north-eaſt of the iſland of Trinity, and 120 miles ſouth of the iſland of Barbadoes, being about 52 miles long and 12 broad. It is a very deſirable and fruitful iſland, and capable of producing ſugar, and every thing that the beſt of the Caribbee Iſlands produce.

GRANADA.

This iſland, ceded to England, lies in weſt longitude 61 degrees 40 minutes, and north latitude 12 degrees; 20 leagues north-weſt from Trinidade, about 65 miles north-weſt from Tobago, and 30 leagues north of New Andaluſia on the continent, to which this is the neareſt of all the Britiſh iſlands in the Antilles. It extends from north to ſouth in form of a creſcent, being nine or ten leagues in length, and about five where broadeſt. Father Tertre judges it to be as big again as St Chriſtopher's, and about 24 leagues in compaſs. Labat ſays, they who have travelled round it, make the circumference at moſt 22.

The miſſionaries Tertre and Labat give the following account of its natural hiſtory. This iſland enjoys a good air, and a ſoil ſo fruitful, that all the trees which cover it, both for fruit and timber, are better, ſtraiter, higher, and bigger than in the neighbouring iſlands, except the cocoa tree, which does not grow ſo high here as in the other iſlands. It has ſalt-pits, and abundance of armadillos, whoſe fleſh is as good as mutton, and the chief food of the inhabitants; beſides tortoiſes and lamantins. The coaſt is full of fine vales, watered with good rivers, moſt of which run from a lake at the top of a high mountain in the middle of the iſland, where is a low ſhore, with good anchorage, at 12 leagues diſtance, but an exceeding ſtrong current, which both ebbs and flows in a few hours.

There are ſeveral bays and harbours round the iſland, which ſerve for moorings of ſhips, and the landing of goods; and ſome of the harbours are fortified. All the eaſt coaſt is very ſafe, cloſe by the ſhore, and the iſland is not ſubject to hurricanes. In ſhort, 'tis capable of producing all the commodities of the climate. Its particular articles, beſides cattle and wild-fowl, are ſugar, ginger, indigo and tobacco, millet and peaſe. There are mountains along the ſhore, and about the harbour

where the habitations are; but all the reſt is a very fine country, and there is good travelling, either for horſe or carriage.

Its chief port, called Lewis, ſtands in the middle of a large bay, on the weſt ſide of the iſland, which has a ſandy bottom, where 1000 barks, from 300 to 400 tons, may ride ſafe from ſtorms; and the harbour will hold 100 ſhips of 1000 tons moored. There is a great round baſon near the harbour, parted from it by a bank of ſand, which, if cut, would be capable of holding a very great number of veſſels: but by reaſon of this ſand-bank, great ſhips are obliged to paſs within 80 paces of one of the two little mountains, which are at the mouth of the harbour, and about half a mile aſunder. On one of theſe a fort is erected, with a half moon in front, and other regular works, all of good ſtone.

DOMINICA is an iſland in the governor of Barbadoes's commiſſion; it lies in 50 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, and is about 40 miles long and 40 miles over, where it is broadeſt. This iſland being a place of little trade at preſent, and ſerving occaſionally only for wood and water, we ſhall only obſerve, that, as this nation pretends to have a right of ſovereignty, it ſhould be maintained in fact, and not only by words and formal orders.

BARBUDA is an iſland that lies in 17 degrees 30 minutes north latitude. It is about 15 miles long, lying north-eaſt from Montſerrat.

The land is low and fruitful, and the Engliſh began to plant it as early as Nevis, Montſerrat, or any other of the Leeward iſlands, St Chriſtopher's excepted; for Sir Thomas Warner, who firſt ſettled there, placed a ſmall colony in this iſland; but the Caribbeans diſturbed them ſo much, that they were often forced to deſert it and their plantations. There hardly paſſed a year but they made incurſions; and the damage the Engliſh ſuſtained made them weary of dwelling in a place where they were ſo much expoſed to the fury of the barbarians, who diminiſhing daily in number, and the Europeans increaſing, the Engliſh again poſſeſſed themſelves of Barbuda, where there are at preſent about 1000 or 1200 inhabitants.

The proprietary is the honourable Chriſtopher Coddrington, Eſq; and he puts in a governor here, having the ſame prerogative as the other lords proprietaries in their ſeveral juriſdictions in America.

This iſle has bred great ſtore of cattle, and the inhabitants employ themſelves moſtly in that ſort of huſbandry, corn and proviſions coming almoſt always to a good market in the ſugar-iſlands.

There is plenty of all ſorts of tame cattle, as in Europe, and the Engliſh live here much after the ſame manner as they do in the counties of England, only their labour in the field is not ſo hard as here, the country being ſo much hotter.

ANGUILLA, ANGUIS INSULA, or SNAKE-ISLAND, ſo called from it's figure, being a long tract of earth, but narrow, winding almoſt about, near St Martin's, from whence it may eaſily be ſeen. It lies in 18 degrees 21 minutes.

This country is level and woody, the ſoil fruitful, and the tobacco that grew there formerly was reckoned very good in it's kind. The inhabitants were originally poor, and do not ſeem deſirous of being otherwiſe: for they are the lazieſt creatures in the world. Some have gone from Barbadoes, and the other Engliſh Caribbee iſlands, thither; and there they live, like the firſt race of men, without government or religion, having no miniſter, nor governor, no magiſtrates, no law, and no property worth keeping, if a French author is to be believed: L'iſle n'eſt pas eſtimée valoir la peine qu'on la garde, ny qu'on la cultive; the iſland is not thought worth the trouble of defending or cultivating: in which, perhaps, the Frenchman is miſtaken; for, the ſoil being good, if an induſtrious people were in poſſeſſion of it, they would ſoon make it worth defending.

The way of the preſent inhabitants is to take no care for any thing but food and raiment, which are both ordinary enough. They marry after the old faſhion of nature: they have no lawyers to put them to the expence of jointures, nor prieſts to fee for licences. Though they are poor, they ſeem perfectly contented, and may be as happy as the inhabitants of Peru and Mexico.

REMARKS upon Britiſh America in general.

As to the ſeveral conſtitutions of the Britiſh colonies in America, we ſhall give them in the repreſentation of his majeſty's board of trade to the houſe of lords, of January 27, 1733-4, which is as follows:

'Many of the Britiſh colonies in America, ſay their lordſhips, 'are immediately under the government of the crown, namely Nova Scotia, New Hampſhire, the Jerſeys, New York, 'Virginia, and the two Carolina's, Bermuda, and the Summer 'Iſlands, Bahama Iſlands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, and the Lee-ward Iſlands.

'Others are veſted in proprietors, as Penſylvania and Maryland, and not long ſince the Bahama's and the two Carolina's.

'There are likewiſe three charter-governments, the chief of 'which is the province of Maſſachuſet's-Bay, commonly called New England, the conſtitution whereof is of a mixed nature, the power being divided between the king and the people, in which the latter have much the greater ſhare; for 'here the people do not only chuſe the aſſembly, as in other 'colonies, but the aſſembly chuſe the council alſo: and the 'governor depends upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport, 'which has too frequently laid the governors of this province 'under temptations of giving up the prerogative of the crown, 'and the intereſt of Great-Britain.

'Connecticut and Rhode-Iſland are the other charter governments, or rather corporations; where almoſt the whole 'power of the crown is delegated to the people, who make 'an annual election of their aſſembly, their council, and their 'governor likewiſe; to the majority of which aſſemblies, 'councils, and governors reſpectively, being collective bodies, 'the power of making laws is granted; and, as their charters 'are worded, they can, and do make laws, even without their 'governors aſſent, and directly contrary to their opinions, no 'negative voice being reſerved to them as governors, in the 'ſaid charter. And, as the ſaid governors are annually choſen, their office generally expires before his majeſty's approbation can be obtained, or any ſecurity can be taken for 'the due obſervance of the laws of trade and navigation, and 'hold little or no correſpondence with our office. It is not 'ſurprizing that governors, conſtituted like theſe laſt mentioned, ſhould be guilty of many irregularities in point of 'trade, as well as in other reſpects.

'All theſe colonies, however, by their ſeveral conſtitutions, 'have the power of making laws for their better government 'and ſupport, provided they be not repugnant to the laws of 'Great-Britain, nor detrimental to their mother country: 'and theſe laws, when they have regularly paſſed the council 'and aſſembly of any province, and received the governor's 'aſſent, become valid in that province; but remain repealable 'nevertheleſs by his majeſty in council, upon juſt complaint, 'and do not acquire a perpetual force, unleſs they are confirmed by his majeſty in council.

'But there are ſome exceptions to this rule in the proprietory 'and charter-governments; for in the province of Penſylvania, they are only obliged to deliver a tranſcript of their laws 'to the privy-council, within five years after they are paſſed; 'and, if his majeſty does not think fit to repeal them in ſix 'months from the time ſuch tranſcript is ſo delivered, it is not 'in the power of the crown to repeal them afterwards. In 'the Maſſachuſets-Bay, alſo, if their laws are not repealed 'within three years after they have been preſented to his majeſty for his approbation or diſallowance, they are not repealable by the crown after that time.

'The provinces of Maryland, Connecticut, and Rhode-Iſland 'not being under any obligation, by their reſpective conſtitutions, to return authentic copies of their laws to the crown, 'for approbation or diſallowance, or to give any account of 'their proceedings, we are very little informed of what is 'done in any of theſe governments.

'There is alſo this ſingularity in the governments of Connecticut and Rhode-Iſland, that their laws are not repealable 'by the crown, but the validity of them depends upon their 'not being contrary, but, as near as may be, agreeable to the 'laws of England.

'All the governors of colonies who act under the king's appointment, ought, within a reaſonable time, to tranſmit home 'authentic copies of the ſeveral acts by them paſſed, that they 'may go through a proper examination: but they are ſometimes negligent of their duty in this particular, and likewiſe 'paſs temporary laws of ſo ſhort continuance, that they have 'their full effect even before this board can acquire due notice of them. Some attempts have been made to prevent 'this pernicious practice; but, the annual ſupport of govern-'ment in the reſpective colonies making it neceſſary that laws 'for that purpoſe ſhould paſs from year to year, the aſſemblies 'have frequently endeavoured in thoſe laws, as well as in 'others of longer duration, to enact proper propoſitions, repugnant to the laws and intereſts of Great-Britain, of which 'this board have never failed to expreſs their diſlike to the 'crown, when ſuch laws have fallen under their conſideration, and many laws have, from time to time, been repealed on that account.

'But as to ſuch laws as do not directly fall within the above 'rule, againſt which no complaint is made, and where the 'board are doubtful of the effect they may have, it has always 'been uſual to let them lie by probationary, being ſtill under 'the power of the crown to be repealed, in caſe any inconvenience ſhould ariſe from them.

'It has alſo been uſual, when a law has contained many juſt 'and neceſſary proviſions for the benefit of the colony where 'it was paſſed, intermixed with ſome others liable to objection, to let it lie by, and give notice thereupon to the 'governor of the province, that it ſhould be repealed, if he 'did not, within a reaſonable time, procure a new law, not 'liable to the ſame objections, to be ſubſtituted in the place 'thereof.'

I ſhall add nothing to the foregoing, on the ſeveral conſtitutions, or governments, of our American colonies, but proceed to ſpeak in general of their trade, as it relates to the welfare and proſperity of Great-Britain.

Their chief commodities, we have ſeen, are tobacco, ſugar, molaſſes, rum, cotton, ginger, indigo, aloes, cocoa, coffee,

rice, dyeing woods, drugs, copper, iron, fiſh, naval ſtores, timber, lumber, peltry, (ſilk and wines in time from Georgia, &c.) and moſt others in common with Great-Britain: and as our colonies increaſe our navigation, take off our manufactures and ſuperfluities, as are uſeleſs and a burden at home, they are juſtly looked on to be the greateſt ſupport of the power and affluence of this nation.

But then it is known, that the manufactures, trade, and navigation, of ſome of our plantations, do, or may, interfere with the intereſt of this kingdom, and in time may prove very prejudicial to it, if not irremediable. Whereupon it has been rightly obſerved, 'That, indeed, colonies are the ſtrength 'of their mother-country, while they are under good diſ-'cipline, while they are ſtrictly made to obſerve the funda-'mental laws of their original country, and while they are 'kept dependent on it; but that, otherwiſe, they are worſe 'than members lopped from the body politic, being like of-'fenſive arms, wreſted from a nation to be turned againſt it, 'as occaſion ſhall ſerve.'

It certainly, therefore, concerns the wiſdom of the legiſlative power of Great-Britain to make a ſtrict and ſpeedy inquiry into this matter, to remedy diſorders before they grow too obſtinate, and to put the government and trade of all our colonies into ſo good and ſound a ſtate, that every one may have it's due ſhare of nutriment, and thereby be the better fitted and diſpoſed for the uſes and benefit of the whole body politic, eſpecially of Great-Britain, their head, mother, and protectreſs.

From the plain narrative which we have faithfully given of the trade and conſtitution of the ſeveral colonies and plantations in America, belonging to this nation, the reader, I hope, will ſee the reaſonableneſs of what I am about further to ſubmit to conſideration on a matter ſo highly intereſting to theſe kingdoms. And firſt with regard to our northern colonies, which we ſhall take in the ſame order we have deſcribed them. As

GEORGIA, with which we began. Though the wiſhed-for produce hereof in rice, &c. interferes with thoſe of Carolina, that does not render this colony the leſs eſtimable to Britain. Provided the Carolina's, in time, ſhould furniſh a competent quantity of rice to ſupply all foreign markets, as well as Britain and Ireland, ought this to exclude Georgia from it's ſhare of this trade? Becauſe Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, produces ſugar, and Maryland, as well as Virginia, tobacco, are we, therefore, to give up either for the ſake of the other? From a jealouſy on the ſide of the Carolinians, that the Georgians might prove detrimental to their rice trade, it has been imagined by ſome, that every artifice has been ſecretly practiſed by the one, to prevent the proſperity of the other. How true this may be, I will not take upon me to ſay; but this I may ſay, and I hope without offence, that it is greatly to be lamented that an injurious rivalſhip has not been better guarded againſt. If this has really been one principal cauſe of the ill ſucceſs of Georgia, will it not afford a leſſon of admonition not to be ſlighted? Does it not ſhew the neceſſity of regulating our colonies ſo as that they may as little interfere with the trade of each other as poſſible? and that not only in their infancy, but after they have been cheriſhed and grown to maturity? Colonies may be prejudicial to a nation in two lights; 1. When they interfere with the commerce and manufactures of their mother-country; and, 2. When they ſo interfere with each other, that the one or the other muſt be ruined.

Wherefore the policy, requiſite to be obſerved in the ſettlement of colonies, ſeems to be, the conſideration of what commodities we are obliged to take from other nations, in order to carry on our own trade and manufactures, and to cultivate thoſe within ourſelves, ſo far as may be no way repugnant to the national benefit. For the maxim of expecting to ſell all to other nations, and to buy nothing of them, may prove as detrimental as buying all, and ſelling nothing; thoſe principles abſolutely deſtroying the tie between nation and nation, which is neceſſary to their reciprocal ſupport. But, when the ballance of trade is apparently much to the diſadvantage of a country, it is wiſdom to endeavour to maintain the ſame at leaſt in equilibrio, if it cannot be turned in favour of the ſuffering nation. Upon this maxim it was right to think of the raiſing of ſilk in Georgia, becauſe we are obliged to take large quantities of other nations, in order to carry on that branch of manufacture, and of ſuch nation too as does not take a quantity of our commodities any way equivalent to what we take of them. If, therefore, there be a poſſibility of ſupplying ourſelves wholly, or in part, with ſilk from our own colonies, ought not every reaſonable meaſure to be tried to accompliſh it? Or is it becauſe Carolina produces a trifle of ſilk, that Georgia is to produce none? Or is it that we muſt be ſo complaiſant to an Italian prince, to throw away 300,000 l. a year, for fear of diſobliging him; and, therefore, never attempt to ſave ſuch out-goings of our caſh?

If the truth is, that the climate, after all, will not admit of this production, has not the nation, for many years, been ſome how ſhamefully abuſed, not to ſay any thing more ſevere? For, in the year 1739, did not Mr Augſpourger, a Swiſs, bring over to England a parcel of raw ſilk from Geor-

gia, and depoſe before a maſter in Chancery, That he received it from Mr Thomas Jones, the truſtees ſtore-keeper at Savannah, who aſſured him that it was actually the produce of Georgia? And was not this identical ſilk ſhewn at the truſtees office, to Mr Daniel Booth, one of the greateſt ſilk-weavers in this kingdom; and, alſo, to as eminent a raw ſilk merchant as any in it; and did they not both declare, that it was as fine as any Italian ſilk, and worth at leaſt 20 ſhillings a pound? If I am not greatly miſtaken, the late Sir Thomas Lombe likewiſe bore teſtimony in favour of the ſilk of this colony, or what was repreſented to him for ſuch. And have not the teſtimonies of thoſe gentlemen induced the nation to contribute large ſums of money to bring this deſign effectually to bear? If ſilk of the quality abovementioned has, bona fide, been produced in Georgia, why have not quantities of it been produced, after ſo great an expence to do it? Or, if this was an accidental thing, and a very expenſive ſingle experiment only, why were not the public made ſenſible of every circumſtance attending it, that they might not have thrown ſo much money away on ſo precarious a foundation? But, if ſilk will not anſwer here in quantities, why ſhould not rice, or vines, as we have been alſo told?

The hiſtory of the northern colonies furniſhes us with but too many inſtances of the ruin of their advanced ſettlements, from their leaving ſo large a country as this uncultivated and uninhabited, for fear of being too near neighbours to the Spaniards or the French. The importance of this ſettlement muſt certainly appear, when it is conſidered, that it has proved a good expedient for engaging the Indian nations in it's intereſt, which inhabit the vaſt countries to the weſt of Georgia; eſpecially conſidering the views which the French have had of the ſame kind, who thought in a little time, to have compleated that chain of correſpondence, and, indeed, of contiguity, between their colonies of Canada and Louiſiana, on which their being formidable to us in North America abſolutely depended; ſince, if they had finiſhed it, they would have ſurrounded all our colonies on the continent, from Nova Scotia to Georgia: but, by the ſupport of this ſettlement on the one ſide, and Nova Scotia on the other, has not this contributed ſomething to break the link of their intended chain, by ingaging in our intereſt occaſionally thoſe very Indian nations that have been capable of doing them ſervice, and injuring ourſelves; particularly the faithful and heroic nations of the Upper and Lower Creeks? If it ſhould not be poſſible for this colony to anſwer the great ends which we have been told it certainly would, muſt it not give theſe Indian nations the meaneſt opinion of our underſtandings, and the higheſt of thoſe of our late rivals on the Miſſiſſippi, who we ſuffered to deſtroy our allies the Nautches, and other Indians, who inhabited near the French ſettlements?

Theſe conſiderations are ſufficient to make the Indian affairs deſerve the moſt ſerious attention of every colony in North America.

The Indians are ſaid to be a poor, and generally called a barbarous, people, bred under the darkeſt ignorance; yet a bright and noble genius diſplays itſelf through thoſe dark clouds. None of the greateſt of Roman heroes have diſcovered a greater love to their country, or a greater contempt of death, than thoſe people called barbarians have done, when liberty came in competition. Our Indians have, indeed, outdone the Romans in this particular; ſome of the greateſt of thoſe we have known to murder themſelves to avoid ſhame or torments; but theſe Indians have refuſed to die meanly, when they thought their country's honour would be at ſtake by it; they have given their bodies willingly to the moſt cruel torments of their enemies, to ſhew, as they have declared, that the five nations in particular conſiſted of men, whoſe courage and reſolution could not be ſhaken. But it muſt be ſaid, to our eternal ſhame, that we Chriſtians have debauched and vitiated the honeſt natural morals of theſe people; we having not only baſely defrauded and over-reached them, in our way of traffic, by diſhoneſt weights and meaſures, but we have not always duly protected them as friends and allies againſt our common enemies. While our rivals in trade purſued meaſures diametrically oppoſite; while they uſed every art of policy, juſtice, and generoſity, to gain over theſe people to their intereſt, and we were guilty of injuſtice and meanneſs towards them, it is no wonder that their affections ſhould, in time, be alienated.

In giving my ſentiments upon this colony, ſome people may, poſſibly, imagine that I would inſinuate more than I really intend; and, therefore, before I leave this matter, I think it my duty to declare that I mean no kind of reflection on the conduct either of the original truſtees to this colony, or their ſucceſſors, they having generouſly ſupported the deſign with their purſes, their perſons, and their influence. Nor would I be underſtood to throw the leaſt blemiſh upon the character of that worthy gentleman who ſo zealouſly hazarded his life upon this occaſion. But it is too often the fate of the honeſt man to be impoſed on, or not duly ſupported according to his public-ſpirited intention. No man can entertain an higher opinion of the wiſdom, as well as the honour, of thoſe gentlemen who have had the management of this affair: I cannot help thinking, however, but their zeal for their coun-

try's intereſt muſt have over-powered their knowledge, when they thought to eſtabliſh ſo important a colony by charitable contributions, or by mean and piece-meal ſupports, which hitherto it has only had. I ſhould be ſorry to view this point in a different light from my ſuperiors in judgment, yet I cannot help thinking that this colony has been of much more concernment to the nation than many may imagine. It's ſituation, I conceive, plainly ſhews what a guard it may be made againſt the Spaniards; and it's capital, Savannah, being diſtant from Charles-Town no more than 77 miles ſouth-weſt, in a direct courſe, and north-weſt by eaſt about 150 miles from St Auguſtin, the capital of the Spaniſh Florida, which is the greateſt bar to the Britiſh trade between this province and the bay of Mexico. Has not Georgia, therefore, been the frontier of all our colonies on this ſide North America? What a check this ſettlement, when powerfully ſupported, would be, not only to the Spaniſh navigation to thoſe parts, but the French attempts for incroaching on the Miſſiſſippi, muſt be ſo obvious to all who are acquainted with theſe matters, that I ſhould have thought it needleſs to have ſaid a word about it, did I not obſerve an unaccountable lukewarmneſs on ſo intereſting an occaſion.

If we can neither raiſe ſilk nor rice in Georgia, or if ſuch produce ſhould be thought to prejudice Carolina, will this territory produce no other articles of commerce, which do not interfere with that valuable province! Will not hemp and flax grow in this climate? Is there no pitch or tar, nor any naval ſtores, to be had from this colony? Are there no ſtately pines there, no pot-aſh, no furs, or other trafficable ſkins, to be had from thence? We are greatly deceived if bees-wax, myrtle-wax, bears-oil, leather, drugs, and dyers wares of divers ſorts are not produced here.

The neceſſity of cultivating a ſtrict friendſhip with the Indian nations in general, for the preſervation of our colonies, from Georgia to Nova Scotia, is at preſent ſo well underſtood, that it may be thought impertinent to urge a word on that head: ſo it would be, did not a late map of the French dominions in that part of America, publiſhed in France by authority, make it adviſeable ſo to do, and more eſpecially, ſince the ſame has been induſtriouſly propagated in this kingdom, with a view to deceive every Briton in it: I mean the map publiſhed at Paris by Monſieur D'Anville, in the year 1746, intitled AMERIQUE SEPTENTRIONALE, publiée ſous les auſpices de Monſ. le duc d'Orleans, prémier prince du ſang; wherein the author has taken upon him with ink and paper to exciſe a conſiderable part of the Britiſh dominions in North America, and very modeſtly tack it to thoſe of his grand monarch.

That this Frenchman may not be miſled by his ſuperlative zeal for his country's intereſt, we have taken the liberty to return Monſieur the compliment in his own way, and, therefore, have preſented him with another map, pointing out ſome few hundred leagues wherein the learned gentleman has happened to be miſtaken. And

If the learned author would chuſe to ſet his Court right upon this occaſion, we deſire that he would not only peruſe the various charters belonging to the Britiſh colonies in North America, but likewiſe the compacts and treaties made between the Engliſh and Indian nations, whoſe land they have obtained either by fair purchaſe, free gift, or in conſequence of honourable alliances.

That our readers, however, may have ſome ſatisfaction at ſo critical a conjuncture, we deſire they would not reject the ſentiments of a noble lord, whilſt the famous treaty of Utrecht was upon the tapis. 'I hope, ſaid he, that Canada, which 'we miſſed gaining in war, will be reſtored to us at the 'peace now in agitation, and that Annapolis Royal, which 'we have recovered, will, with the whole country of Nova 'Scotia, as far eaſtward as the iſland of St Paul, for ever re'main to the crown of Great-Britain. They originally be'longed to it in fact, and do of right now.—All that coun'try, on both ſides of the river St Laurence, was ſeized for 'the crown, about the cloſe of the fifteenth century, by Sir 'Sebaſtian Cabot, grand pilot to our king Henry VII, and 'by him ſent to find out ſuch parts of North America as were 'left undiſcovered by Columbus. The French pretend, in'deed, to a diſcovery of it by John Verrazan, a Florentine, 'but this was in ————, which, being of a later date, could 'give the French king no right to it. King James I, there'fore, knowing his title to be good, did, in 1621, make a 'grant of this country to Sir William Alexander (afterwards 'earl of Stirling) who ſettled a colony there by the name of 'Nova Scotia, and held poſſeſſion of it ſeveral years. Yet, 'upon the marriage of king Charles I. with the lady Hen'rietta Maria, it was, by order of the king, given up to the 'French. In 1627 and 28, we got it again, and the north 'ſide of the river called Canada was given to Sir David Kirk, 'who was both proprietor and governor. And the ſouth ſide '(called by the French Acadie) fell again into the hands of 'Sir William Alexander. In 1632, it was given away again, 'though the king, when he found the French had poſſeſſed 'themſelves of the whole country, declared publicly, that 'he had given away only the forts, and not the ſoil, and, 'therefore, attempted to recover it again, but failed: be'ſides, the king of France obliged himſelf to pay, in lieu of 'the forts, 5000 l. to Sir David Kirk, which he never did; 'and his family was thereby ruined.

'Cromwell, weighing the premiſſes, ſent colonel Sedgwick, 'in 1654, and retook it; and when he made peace with 'France the following year, and their ambaſſador made preſſ'ing inſtances for the reſtitution of it, yet he would not part 'with it, inſiſting that it was the ancient inheritance of the 'crown of England, and did of right belong to it. Where'upon Mr St Eſtcount, ſon and heir to M. Claude de la Tour, 'a French refugee, who bought Nova Scotia of the earl of 'Stirling, came over into England, and, making out his title, 'had it delivered to him, and then ſold it to Sir Thomas 'Temple, who was governor of it till the Reſtoration; ſoon 'after which, king Charles delivered it up again to the 'French, and Canada with it, where they both reſted, to 'the unſpeakable loſs and detriment of the crown of Eng'land and the plantations, 'till colonel Nicholſon lately re'covered the former.—From whence it is evident, that both 'Canada and Nova Scotia were the ancient inheritance of 'the crown of England. The only queſtion is, whether the 'kings of England had power to alienate theſe countries, 'which, being incorporated into the crown, were parts of 'the commonwealth, and deſcended to them from their an'ceſtors? The civilians, and all that have wrote of the law 'of nations, have eſtabliſhed it as a rule, Non alienandæ ſunt 'imperii partes. They expreſsly ſay, That a prince can no 'more alienate any part of his dominions, than the people 'may renounce their obedience. Thus Baldwin, Molina, 'Bodin, Mattheus Pariſienſis, Grotius, and Puffendorf. And, 'for our own laws, Sir Robert Cotton, in his preface to The 'Abridgment of the Rolls in the Tower, obſerves, That 'our parliaments have, in all times, been careful to reſume 'lands alienated from the crown, which they condemned as 'an undue practice, and, therefore, re-united them. If then 'it was wrong to diſpoſe of lands that were the patrimony of 'the crown, how much more ſo muſt it be to give away the 'ſubjects property, and to alienate part of the empire to a 'foreign power? If the former were to be inviolable, then 'the latter, à fortiori, muſt be ſacred and unalienable. If 'it be pleaded, that theſe countries came to the crown by ac'quiſition, and, therefore, may be diſpoſed of at pleaſure; 'I reply, ſure, that they were not acquired by Charles the 'Firſt and Second, but came to them both by hereditary de'ſcent: and further, that, if acquiſition gives a right of alie'nation, then it is within the prerogative to give or ſell Ire'land, and all the plantations, to any potentate in Europe, 'which I believe no lawyer in Great-Britain will give under 'his hand for law.—Our title appears equal on both ſides of 'the river of St Laurence, that is, Canada on the north, and 'Nova Scotia, or (as the French call it) Acadie, on the 'ſouth. But I muſt beg leave to ſay, that, in point of in'tereſt, the latter is of more conſequence to the crown than 'the former: for, when that is in the French hands, it is a 'bridle to the eaſtern parts of New England, where the tall 'pines grow, which are yearly brought home in the maſt'fleet; and, indeed, where there is ſuch a vaſt quantity of 'naval ſtores, of all ſorts, as is not to be found in any part 'of the world. I conceive, therefore, that, ſeeing naval 'ſtores are growing ſcarce and valuable all over Europe, and 'the ſtrength and glory of our nation depends upon them, 'and yet we are at the pleaſure of the Ruſs and Swede, whe'ther we ſhall have them or no, and that at their own ex'ceſſive prices *; ſurely we ſhould take care to ſecure what 'we have in America, as an ineſtimable treaſure. Beſides, 'if we ſhould leave this country to the French, we ſhall be 'defeated of our ends in turning them out of Newfound'land; for they will here find as good a fiſhery as they left 'there, and infinitely better harbours, and, conſequently, 'will ſtill be able to bring their fiſh to Europe, and damp 'our markets, as formerly; and we ſhall have one fatal diſ'advantage more by the bargain, in that we remove them 'from the iſland to the continent, where they have more 'room to ſpread and increaſe, to the terror of her majeſty's 'ſubjects. In a word then, if we do not effectually pre'ſerve and maintain every inch of land which is compre'hended under the province of Nova Scotia, our naval ſtores 'are gone, our fiſhery is extremely hurt, and we loſe the only 'opportunity which we probably may ever have, to eſtabliſh 'the peace and ſecurity of all the flouriſhing Britiſh colonies 'on the continent; which I hope her majeſty and her mini'ſtry will, in their wiſdom, conſider.'

* The Swedes, in the year 1710, eſtabliſhed a monopoly of pitch and tar, and had their factories at London and Liſbon, &c. and ſent the ſame in their own ſhipping to foreign markets, and ſet their own price upon it; which firſt induced the parliament to think of encouraging theſe things by a bounty in our own plantations.

Another gentleman of good knowlege and experience, has ſince alarmed us much more, and, I fear, not without great and urgent cauſe. 'The French, ſays he, whom all the 'world acknowledge to be an enterprizing, great, and poli'tic nation, are ſo ſenſible of the advantages of foreign colo'nies,

'nies, both in reference to empire and trade, that they uſe 'all manner of artifices to lull their neighbours aſleep with 'fine ſpeeches and plauſible pretences, whilſt they craftily 'endeavour to compaſs their deſign by degrees, though at 'the hazard of incroaching on their friends and allies, and 'depriving them of their territories and dominions in time 'of profound peace, and contrary to the moſt ſolemn trea-'ties—For, beſides their ſeizing on, and ſettling the great 'river Meſchaceb (or Miſſiſſippi) and ſome part of the north 'ſide of the bay of Mexico, and the claim they ſeem clan-'deſtinely to make to another of our inhabited ſouthern co-'lonies adjoining thereunto, they, in ſome of their writings, 'boaſt, that their colony of Louiſiana hath no other bounds 'to the north than the Arctic Pole, and that it's limits to the 'weſt and north-weſt are not known much better, but ex-'tend to the South-Sea, Japan, or wherever they ſhall think 'fit to fix them, if they can be perſuaded to fix any at all; 'intending thereby to deprive the Britiſh nation of all that 'vaſt tract of land ſituate between the gulph of Mexico and 'Hudſon's-Bay, which includes our province of Carolina, '(which the French have confidently called Louiſiana) the 'great lakes, and the whole country of our five Indian na-'tions, with the fur, peltry, and the other trade thereof.

'We are all ſenſible what clamours were raiſed at the con-'ceſſions made to France, on the concluſion of the peace of 'Utrecht. There is ſcarce a man well verſed in the intereſt 'of trade and plantations, but blamed the then miniſtry, for 'not inſiſting on the ſurrender of Canada, as well as Nova 'Scotia and Newfoundland, for the ſecurity of our northern 'colonies on the continent of America, and the traffic there-'of; nor ought they to have allowed them the poſſeſſion of 'Cape Breton, if they had well conſidered or underſtood the 'nature of the fiſhery in theſe ſeas.

'The hiſtory of former ages, and the experience of theſe 'latter times, have informed us, that the French have ever 'been troubleſome neighbours, whereſoever they were ſeat-'ed: hiſtorians aſſerting, that the natural levity and reſt-'leſſneſs of their temper, their enterprizing genius, and 'ambition of extending their dominions, and raiſing the 'glory and grandeur of their monarchs, contribute in great 'meaſure to make them ſo.—Wherefore, it is to be hoped, 'that the Britiſh nation will be ſo far from continuing idle 'ſpectators of the unreaſonable and unjuſt uſurpations and 'incroachments of the French on the continent of America, 'that they let them know they have enough already of Ca-'nada and Cape Breton; and that 'tis expected they aban-'don their new acquiſitions on the Miſſiſſippi and the bay of 'Mexico, that river and country belonging of right to the 'crown of Great-Britain. And, I believe it will ſcarce be 'denied, that, at preſent, whilſt they are weak, and in the 'infancy and confuſion of their ſettlements in Louiſiana, we 'have a much better chance, and are in far better circum-'ſtances to put in our claim to, and diſpute the right and 'poſſeſſion of, that and other lands, than we ſhall be ſome 'years hence, when they have augmented the number of 'their inhabitants, debauched the natives to their party, 'and further ſtrengthened themſelves by ſecuring, with forts 'and garriſons, the paſſes of the rivers, lakes, and moun-'tains, even though they ſhould not have obtained any ad-'vantage over the Spaniards, or enriched themſelves with the 'wealth of Mexico.

'I muſt acknowledge, that, in caſe the Britiſh nation ſhould 'be ſo far infatuated, as not to aſſert their right to this ſo 'noble, and to them ſo uſeful and neceſſary, a colony, and 'endeavour to regain the poſſeſſion thereof, or ſecure at 'leaſt, ſo much of it as lies on the back of our plantations, 'as far weſtward as the Miſſiſſippi, it would be much more 'eligible, and for their intereſt, that the Spaniards were ma-'ſters of it than the French; we not having ſo much rea-'ſon to apprehend the ſame danger, either to our colonies, 'trade, or navigation, from the firſt, as from the laſt; 'though I am far from admitting the ceſſion of it to either 'of them, on any terms whatever, without an abſolute and 'apparent neceſſity.—And I am apt to think, that prudence 'or policy will, or ought to prompt us to keep a ballance of 'power in America, as well as nearer home; and that, as 'we have, for above thirty years paſt, found it our intereſt 'to check and put a ſtop to the growing power of France, 'and ſet bounds to their dominions in Europe, we ſhall not 'eaſily be induced to allow them to incroach on, and de-'prive us of our colonies and plantations in America.—The 'Spaniards are ſaid to be very uneaſy at the ſo near neigh-'bourhood of the French on the Miſſiſſippi, and are, per-'haps, more jealous of the conſequences thereof than we 'are, though not more than we ought to be; and 'tis pre-'ſumed, that, on a proper application and encouragement, 'they'll join with us to oppoſe and diſpoſſeſs them of their 'ſettlements there, and on the bay of Mexico, leſt they ren-'der themſelves ſole maſters of the navigation thereof, and, 'with the aſſiſtance of the Indians, make irruptions into the 'very heart of their colonies, attack their towns, ſeize their 'mines, and fortify and maintain themſelves therein.'

Before we leave the continent of America, it may not be improper to obſerve, that the town of Annapolis Royal in Nova Scotia is reckoned as a barrier to the colonies of New England, and is of the laſt importance to prevent the French joining, in time of war, with the eaſtern Indians, either by land or ſea. In queen Ann's war, while this place was in the hands of the French, it actually was, as the ingenious Mr Dummer juſtly ſtiles it, the Dunkirk of this part of the world; continually harbouring fleets of privateers and French cruizers, to the ruin of the fiſheries, and foreign trade of all the Britiſh northern colonies; and which will inevitably be the caſe, if France is ever ſuffered to obtain any part, or the whole of this important colony, eſpecially ſince they are poſſeſſed of Cape Breton. In 1744, after the French from Cape Breton had taken and burnt Canſo, at the eaſt end almoſt of Nova Scotia, their Indians alarmed Annapolis for a month together, by threatening a general aſſault, and providing ſcaling-ladders, but, the garriſon happening opportunely to be reinforced, they retired.

Canſo is a place exceeding convenient for receiving ſuccours from France. The harbour is about three leagues in breadth, and conſiſts of ſeveral iſlands, whereof the biggeſt, which is the middlemoſt, is near four leagues in compaſs, having a fruitful ſoil, well watered and wooded. It forms two bays with ſafe anchorage, and in the continent, which is very near it, there is a river called Salmon river, becauſe of the great plenty of thoſe fiſh that are caught there. In ſhort, the fiſhery here is reckoned one of the beſt in the world. And ſo imperious have the French been, that they would not ſuffer any Britiſh ſubject to catch or cure fiſh here, without paying for a licence from the governor of Cape Breton, though the French have no ſort of right to any of thoſe iſlands or harbours.

Wherefore, the near neighbourhood of Cape Breton to our colony of Nova Scotia is of itſelf ſufficient to alarm us, without ſuffering them to incroach an inch upon this our Dunkirk of North America; which would ſo add to the ſtrength of the French, and weaken that of the Engliſh there, that we ſhould ever be liable to inſults, and our poſſeſſions thereby rendered ever precarious. But,

By the treaty of Utrecht, article the XIIth, The French king hath yielded to the queen of England, and her ſucceſſors for ever, all Nova Scotia, or Acadia, with all the ancient boundaries, as alſo the city of Port Royal, now called Annapolis, and all other things in thoſe parts, which depend on lands and iſlands, with the dominion, property, poſſeſſion of the ſaid iſlands, lands, and all rights whatſoever, by treaty, or by any other way obtained, &c. To which the French king added the excluſion of the ſubjects of France from fiſhing on the coaſts of Nova Scotia, and within thirty leagues, beginning from Cape Sable, and ſtretching along to the ſouth-weſt *. And here it is very neceſſary to obſerve, that though the reſtitution of Cape Breton to the crown of England was, doubtleſs, implied in the terms of this article, as well as that of Nova Scotia; though Cape Breton was always reckoned a part of Nova Scotia, and therein included by the patents; though queen Ann, in her inſtructions to the late duke of Shrewſbury, when he went ambaſſador to France, declared, that ſhe looked upon Cape Breton to belong to her, as a part of the ancient territory of Nova Scotia; yet, by the 13th article of the treaty aforeſaid, the Engliſh were barefacedly tricked out of this important place, which was treacherouſly given up to the French, and they were ſuffered to keep it, 'till it was taken in the late war by the force of New England, and given to France again, by the late peace made at Aix la Chapelle.

* The article in the treaty of Utrecht, whereby Nova Scotia, or Acadia, is made over by the French to the crown of Great-Britain, is as follows:

'The moſt chriſtian king ſhall take care to have delivered 'to the queen of Great-Britain, on the ſame day that the 'ratifications of this treaty ſhall be exchanged, ſolemn and 'authentic letters, or inſtruments, by virtue whereof it 'ſhall appear, that the iſland of St Chriſtopher's is to be 'poſſeſſed alone hereafter by the Britiſh ſubjects, likewiſe 'all NOVA SCOTIA, or ACADIA, with it's ancient bounda-'ries, as alſo the city of Port Royal, now called Annapolis 'Royal, and all other things on theſe parts, which depend 'on the ſaid lands and iſlands, together with the dominion, 'propriety and poſſeſſion of the ſaid iſlands, lands, and 'places, and all right whatſoever by treaties or by any other 'way obtained, which the moſt chriſtian king, the crown 'of France, or any the ſubjects thereof, have hitherto had 'to the ſaid iſlands, lands, and places, and the inhabitants 'of the ſame, are yielded, and made over to the queen of 'Great Britain, and to her crown for ever, as the moſt chri-'ſtian king doth, at preſent, yield and make over all the 'particulars aboveſaid; and that in ſuch ample manner and 'form, that the ſubjects of the moſt chriſtian king ſhall 'hereafter be excluded from all kind of fiſhing in the ſaid 'ſeas, bays, and other places on the coaſts of Nova Scotia, 'that is to ſay, on thoſe which lie towards the eaſt, within '30 leagues, beginning from the iſland commonly called 'Sable, incluſively, and thence ſtretching along towards the 'ſouth-weſt.'

The province of Nova Scotia, (known in the French maps under three denominations, viz. Acadia, Gaſpaſia, and Main) has

has been conquered by France from England; re-conquered by England, from France again; ceded by England to France by treaty; and fully, we see, receded again, by France to England, by the treaty of Utrecht, for the last time, without reserve of any part or parcel whatsoever.

If that nation should obtain more than their right in this part of America, they may, with the contiguous colony of Cape Breton, &c. be rendered more powerful in America, than all the other acquisitions she has hitherto ever made there, can possibly do; because it may for ever secure to her a superiority in the fishery there; secure the whole fur-trade of the northern part of this continent; afford her several of the best ports, harbours, and materials for building ships of the greatest force, from whence they may be immediately launched into the ocean; instead of their being brought with great difficulty down the river St Lawrence: and, with these additional advantages, France will be ever a terror to all our northern colonies upon the continent; and how this must affect our island colonies which depend upon them, is much easier conceived than can be represented.

Besides these acquisitions obtained by France, to the prodigious benefit of that nation, and the no less disadvantage of our own, have they not turned their eyes also to the Mississippi, having a view, according to their royal map-maker, of no less extent, than to have a communication of commerce from the river St Lawrence to the bay of Mexico? An extensive design, indeed, but what will not an all-grasping, restless, and insatiable court aim at? Is it out of our power to check their career, in those mighty strides to dominion? Our Carolina, stretching to the mouth of the Mississippi, if the country be duly possessed and fortified, and proper alliances were made with the Indians, could not that river be rendered useless to them?

As to their title to the country bordering upon that river, 'tis as great a jest, as their confident pretensions to lop off a part of our Acadia, or Nova Scotia. Grants from crowns of lands that never were before heard of by the granters, are of no more consideration in justice and reason, than the legacies in Diego's will: but, even according to this title, the English have a prior right to the French in the Mississippi. King Charles the IIst granted all the country between Carolina and that river to the southward, which was called Carolina. Sir Robert Heath and his assigns alienated it to the late Dr Daniel Cox, who, in king William's reign, sent two ships to the Mississippi, with 200 people, to make a settlement; over whom Sir William Waller, so active in the discovery of the popish plot, was to have been governor. Is not this a plain proof, that the English have heretofore at least as great a right to the Mississippi as the French, at least to a good part of it, that which lies on the back of Carolina, and extends to the river's mouth in the bay of Mexico.

REMARKS.

The above contains a succinct state of the constant complaints of the wisest, and honestest part of this nation, with relation to the precarious condition of our commercial affairs in NORTH AMERICA, ever since the TREATY of UTRECHT. But,

The DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, has secured to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN, more effectually than ever was done before, all our colonies and plantations upon the continent of America. For all French possession in Canada, and all its DEPENDENCIES, and CAPE BRETON itself, the ISLAND OF ST JOHN, and all ACADIA, and its DEPENDENCIES, &c, &c. are all now absolutely annexed to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN, and that in the most plain, clear, and unexceptionable manner that words can express the cession of such acquisitions; and they are guarantied to this nation by the FRENCH themselves, as well as SPAIN and PORTUGAL, pursuant to the said DEFINITIVE TREATY.

By this treaty, we seem to have rectified all the mistakes, of the TREATY of UTRECHT, which have been so universally lamented by the nation ever since that period. By possessing ourselves of CAPE BRETON, the ISLAND of St JOHN, and the other ISLANDS in the Gulph, and river St Laurence, &c, &c. and leaving the FRENCH no other possession in this part of NORTH AMERICA, than those of the very trifling islands of St PETERS and MIQUELON, as a shelter for their fishermen, and this to remain unfortified likewise, should seem to put it out of the power of FRANCE, to entertain any hopes to be able to disturb or annoy us in these parts for a long time; unless we shall shamefully neglect to support and maintain, in the most effectual manner, all our NEW ACQUISITIONS obtained by this late treaty. If indeed, we do that, it will leave an eternal stain and ignominy upon the nation; and it is to be hoped, that such men, who shall dare to do so, will pay for it, with the terrors of the axe, or a gallows. Should FRANCE attempt again to disturb our tranquillity in these parts, there will now be very little difficulty to exclude them for ever from all liberty to fish on the BANKS of NEWFOUNDLAND; and therefore, I can hardly suppose to myself, that so politic a nation will soon run the hazard of sustaining such a further additional loss to their trade and navigation.

As the safety of the colonies on the continent belonging to GREAT-BRITAIN, seems so well secured on the Gulph and river of St Lawrence, and in all this part of NORTH AMERICA; so likewise do they appear to be no less secured on the GULPH of FLORIDA. For by annexing EAST and WEST FLORIDA to the crown of England, and securing to ourselves by the same treaty, the port of St AUGUSTINE, and PENSACOLA, and MOBILLE, as well as the RIGHT OF NAVIGATION into the MISSISSIPPI through the GULPH of MEXICO: by obtaining these points, we have secured as good a BARRIER to the southern parts of our continental colonies, as we have done to their northern parts by the possession of CAPE BRETON, and of CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES. And it looks very likely that the FRENCH will not soon be in a capacity to annoy us by their navigation in the Gulph of Mexico to the Mississippi, any more than in the Gulph of St Lawrence. For if they should attempt a fresh rupture with us soon, they run the risk of losing NEW ORLEANS, and their liberty of navigation in the Mississippi by means thereof; our settlements on the FLORIDA COAST, even at PENSACOLA itself, enabling us to extirpate the French entirely out of the Gulph of Mexico. If the SPANIARDS should again join them upon such an occasion, they also are now more likely to repent it than they did by engaging with them in the last war; by reason, that we being in possession of FLORIDA, are the better able to resent such treatment on the part of the SPANIARDS, than we were before FLORIDA, and the ports of PENSACOLA, and St AUGUSTINE were annexed to the BRITISH crown. By the assistance of these ports and possessions, together with the Bahama Islands, Georgia, and Carolina, we are now in a better capacity to obstruct and annoy the SPANISH commerce through the Gulph of FLORIDA. See the articles BAHAMA ISLANDS, and FLORIDA. If the SPANIARDS do quarrel with us again, they may probably once more experience the loss of the HAVANNA; which, if it should happen again, the court of England may chuse to retain instead of restore it, since in that case, the SPANIARDS might be at a loss to give us an equivalent. So that we are inclined to think, that Spain would not easily or soon be induced to join France against Britain, they both being far more likely to be losers than gainers by so doing, unless England should be shamefully remiss in her affairs, and neglect to make the most of the advantages she has obtained over them by the DEFINITIVE TREATY. All our American colonies, as well as our Islands, JAMAICA in particular, are rendered far more secure than they ever were before.—These things, we think, must be obvious to every man of candour.

Having traced the measures and success of France in regard to this part of British America, it may be time to take a view of what further strides they have made, to strike at the root of our sugar-islands, and others, which are also situated in the new world. Upon this occasion, I shall not, at present, take a further retrospection than from 1706, when Louis XIV, having himself formed a scheme to take the colony of Jamaica, the best of our sugar-colonies, and sent for the famous M. Mesnager, as he says in his Secret Memoirs, 'to draw it up 'in form: when the scheme was, after several alterations, 'brought to please the king, he told me, says Mesnager, he 'was extremely fond of that design, and asked me if I was 'willing to go to the king of Spain with it? I made his ma-'jesty sensible, what an honour I should esteem it, to be sent 'to any part of the world where his service required: I think, 'said the king, nobody is so able to tell my grandson, the 'king of Spain, my thoughts in all the particulars, as you, who 'have seen all the alterations, amendments, and additions, 'we have made, and know the ground-plot of the whole. '—Accordingly I went to Madrid, and laid the scheme before 'the king of Spain. But, when he came to debate it in his 'council of state, they were so backward, so ignorant, con-'ceived so ill of the design, and raised so many difficulties, 'that I was obliged to send his majesty word, I thought the 'Spanish court capable of doing nothing for themselves. The 'king was exceedingly vexed, that his proposals were not 'received with so much readiness as was expected, and call-'ed me home again, which I was very well pleased with; 'nothing being more disagreeable to any man who has lived 'in France, and especially at court, than that stiff, haughty, 'unconcerned way, that the Spaniards do all their business 'with.

'This project was in short thus: The king proposed to send 'fourteen men of war of the line to the Spanish West-Indies, 'to attack the English colony of Jamaica: his Majesty's mea-'sures were, that the ships should rendezvous at Cadiz, 'there to take in provisions, and as many Spanish seamen, 'as could be had there; from thence to proceed to the Ha-'vanna. This the king ordered, because it would amuse the 'English, who would not imagine that the design was so far 'out of the way.—The Spaniards made a difficulty of every 'thing; they spent three weeks in getting over the method 'to prevent the Spanish merchants going to America in our 'ships without licence, and would have had me gone back 'to Paris for the king's hand to an engagement, that the

'French ſhips ſhould carry no European merchandize with 'them; nay, they would have had the king's men of war 'ſubmit to be viſited by the cuſtom-houſe officers. Then 'they ſcrupled admitting the men of war into the port of 'Havanna, for fear, I ſuppoſe of, ſeizing it for the king of 'France; as if, when the king had given the king of Spain 'a kingdom, he would have attemped to take ſome of it 'again from him.—Tired with this impertinent ſlowneſs in 'their proceedings, and with the unperforming temper of 'the Spaniards, the king, as I ſaid, gave over the beſt de'ſign that was ever laid of that kind, and which could not 'have failed to have anſwered the end, had no uncommon 'diſaſter befallen it from the elements; for, as to the ene'mies, there was no fear of any preparation they could make, 'becauſe there was no poſſibility of their having any notice 'of it.

'The ſhips, as I have ſaid, were to have their rendezvous 'at Cadiz, and were to have 6000 men on board of regular 'troops, to whom the Spaniards were to join 2000, with '20 tranſports; and, after the rendezvous at Cadiz, they 'were to ſail from thence to the Havanna; becauſe it was 'his majeſty's opinion, if they went to Martinique, or St 'Chriſtopher's, the Engliſh would have notice of them, and 'would immediately arm on all hands to oppoſe them; but, 'as the Havanna was a Spaniſh port, between which and the 'Engliſh iſlands there was no opportunity of intelligence, it 'was the king's opinion, that it was eaſy for the fleet to lie 'there, and be joined by the other ſhips which ſhould come 'from Martinique, &c. and the Engliſh have no knowledge 'of it; which was, indeed, very reaſonable: the king's 'orders were then, that they ſhould ſend an expreſs to the 'ſaid colonies at Martinique, to join them with all the armed 'ſloops, or other ſhips they had, and, in a word, with all 'the force they could raiſe, which, as the king ſaid, he ex'pected ſhould be near 4000 men more, with ſhips and 'ſloops enough to carry them, without reckoning three men 'of war which were there already; and, as the king ob'ſerved, he was ſatisfied that the 4000 men from Mar'tinique and St Chriſtopher's would be much fitter for ſer'vice, than the 6000 from Europe; for of them his ma'jeſty ſaid, he ſhould always expect one half to be ſick.— 'With this force, the king's meaſures were, that they ſhould 'ſail from the Havanna directly to Barbadoes, and come to 'an anchor directly in the road; from whence they were to 'alarm all the reſt of the Engliſh iſlands, and, by making 'preparations to land, they ſhould at leaſt prevent any force 'from being ſent from thence to Jamaica, where the main 'deſign was to make a deſcent: after ſome time, the whole 'army and half the men of war were to ſail to Jamaica, 'which is all with a trade-wind and ſea-current, leaving 'ſeven or eight men of war at Barbadoes, to keep them 'alarmed: the forces were to go directly on ſhore, and at'tack the forts at the point, which there was no doubt, af'ter a ſhort battery, they would take ſword in hand; after 'which the whole iſland would be reduced of courſe, to'gether with it's booty in merchandize and negroes, which 'would be immenſe.

'The king was ſo wrapt up in this project, that it was no 'wonder if he was very much diſpleaſed with the Spaniards, 'that they had not an equal paſſion for it, when it was pro'poſed by me: and, when I brought his majeſty an account 'of their behaviour, he ſaid, They are the moſt ſtupid wiſe 'people in the world. However, the king, continues M. 'Meſnager, did not lay aſide this project, though he left out 'the Spaniards in the execution, and though he changed the 'nature of the attempt and ſcene of action, which was re'moved to Nevis, &c. There the enterprize was carried on 'with good ſucceſs, and our admiral (Ibberville) landed, 'deſtroyed, plundered, &c. and beſides the other booty taken, 'and the ſpoil done to the enemy, our men took as many 'negroes from the Engliſh, as they ſold afterwards to the 'Spaniards for 400,000 pieces of eight.'

Though the French have not gained any great point of us by victory, they have by intrigue and treaty duped us in our greateſt, our commercial intereſts; for the French incroachment on St Domingo, being ceded as a right, was thought of little conſequence, but it has proved ſuch, that both Spain and Britain have juſt reaſon to repent to this day; ſince, by that means, the Spaniards of that iſland are become little better than hewers of wood and drawers of water to the French; and our trade to Jamaica has felt ſeverely the eſtabliſhment of ſuch a power, in the tract of navigation through the windward paſſage to Europe.

Before the treaty of Utrecht was ratified, and in the very interval between the ceſſation of arms in Europe, and the time it was to take effect in America, a French ſquadron was equipped and diſpatched privately, to invade, take, and deſtroy the Britiſh Leeward Iſlands, as the much envied rivals of France in the ſugar-trade; and firſt Antigua was the deſtined ſacrifice, as the principal, and moſt important of theſe iſlands to Britain, for it's excellent harbours and ſituation in the tract of navigation to the other Leeward Iſlands, and to Jamaica. But Monſ. Caſſart, who commanded the expedition, failed in the attempt, partly by the vigilance of the inhabitants, and partly by ſome lucky accidents, but not by our naval power; and, afterwards attacking Montſerrat, he ruined it ſo effectually, that it is hardly reſtored to it's former condition to this day.

The plunder of that iſland falling very ſhort of the expence of the expedition, and the French convinced by experience, that open force could not give them a ſuperiority in theſe iſlands, have, ſince the peace of Utrecht, conſtantly increaſed their poſſeſſions and power, by incroachments; firſt upon Dominico, a fruitful iſland in ſight of Montſerrat, inhabited by Indians, the aborigines of theſe iſlands, who, for ſeveral generations have been ſubjects of England, under a commiſſion from lord Gray, and his ſucceſſors, and the chief governors of Barbadoes.

Some years after (viz. in 1722) the late duke of Montague, having obtained a grant from the crown, of the iſlands of St Lucia and St Vincent (two of the Caribbee Iſlands, included for many years in the commiſſion of ſucceſſive governors of Barbadoes, from the kings of Great-Britain) provided ſhips, military ſtores, and much people at a great expence, to poſſeſs thoſe iſlands: but, ſoon after landing at St Lucia, they were forced off by the French of Martinico, purſuant to an expreſs order of their monarch. Tho' this point is finally ſettled by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, yet it may be uſeful to know how the matter ſtood before.

The mandate of the French king, to the Sieur Chevalier de Feuquiere, governor and lieutenant-general of the Windward-Iſlands in America.

'His majeſty, having been informed, that the king of Eng'land has given the Iſlands of St Vincent and St Lucia to the 'duke of Montague, has made his complaint of it in Eng'land, and has alledged, that neither the one nor the other 'of theſe iſlands belong to that crown: the firſt of them 'ought to remain to the Caribbees, according to a convention 'made with that people, and the ſecond belongs to France; 'who has been willing to ſuſpend the ſettlement of that iſland, 'on the requeſt of the king of England. Notwithſtanding 'theſe reaſons, his majeſty has not been informed, that there 'has been any revocation of this grant. On the contrary, 'he underſtands, that the duke of Montague is preparing to 'ſend and take poſſeſſion of theſe iſlands, and to tranſport 'numbers of families thither. This undertaking being con'trary to the rights of his majeſty, his intention is, that in 'caſe the Engliſh ſhould take poſſeſſion of St Lucia, and 'ſettle there, the Sieur Chevalier de Feuquiere ſhall ſum'mon them to retire in fifteen days, in regard that iſland be'longs to France; and, if they do not depart, he ſhall 'compel them to it by force of arms. He ſhall take care to 'charge ſome of the wiſeſt and moſt experienced of his offi'cers with this expedition: his majeſty deſires there ſhould 'be as little effuſion of blood as poſſible; nor will have any 'pillage made; he only wiſhes the Engliſh would retire, and 'not poſſeſs themſelves of a country which belongs to him.'

Done at Verſailles, Sept. 21, 1722.

If the court of France had a juſt title to theſe iſlands, who can blame ſuch a ſpirited mandate? It would be rather commendable, and is well worthy of imitation, by thoſe who have a much clearer title, than bare allegations and poſitive aſſertions, to drive the French out of their incroachments on thoſe iſlands, as well as on the continent in America.

Captain Uring, appointed, by the late duke of Montague, his deputy-governor in this expedition, receiving this mandate, and the French governor's letter incloſing it, wherein he ſignified his intention to obey it; Mr Uring ſent a letter to the governor of Martinico, to acquaint him, that he had orders from the duke of Montague, the lord proprietor, under his Britiſh majeſty's patent, to plant St Lucia, and defend it; but propoſed ſuſpending all acts of hoſtility, till they could hear from their reſpective courts. At the ſame time Mr Uring ſent to the captains of two of our men of war, then at Port Royal in Jamaica, deſiring to know, whether, in purſuance of the letters to them directed from the admiralty, as well as the duke of Montague, he might depend on their aſſiſtance, in caſe he was attacked by the French: but they gave him no poſitive anſwer, and ſailed ſoon after to Barbadoes. Mr Uring alſo wrote to Mr Cox, the preſident of this iſland, for his aſſiſtance; to which he anſwered, That he was ready to give him all in his power. It ſeems, the captain of the men of war did not think the general orders in the grant of St Lucia, to all the governors and commanders to be aſſiſting to the colony, or the inſtructions from the admiralty to the ſame purpoſe, were ſufficient to juſtify their acting offenſively againſt the French, which muſt have brought on a war betwixt the two nations; nor would the governors of our American colonies take theſe general orders and inſtructions to be a ſufficient warrant for them to begin hoſtilities againſt the French.

The captains of our men of war not only declined to act in an hoſtile way, for fear of producing ill conſequences to Europe, but they even refuſed to give Mr Uring aſſiſtance towards fortifying and defending the colony by land.

Nevertheleſs, Mr Uring was very diligent in raiſing a fortification on the hill, which he propoſed to make defenſible before the fifteen days, to which his removal was limited by the French mandate, were expired. Mean time the French governor kept punctually to the letter of his mandate, and ſent betwixt 2 and 300 men, moſtly militia of Martinico; who landing at Shoque-Bay in his iſland, within an hour's march of the fort, at a time when ſo many of the planters were fallen ſick, and ſo many others had deſerted to the French, that Mr Uring found he had not 80 men left to bear arms; he was compelled to give up the iſland to the French general the marquis de Champigny, upon the following articles, viz. That the Engliſh might reimbark all their cannon, ſtores, arms, baggage, and every thing elſe without moleſtation; that the French ſhould alſo evacuate it, as well as the Engliſh; and that the iſland ſhould remain in that abandoned ſtate 'till the diſpute betwixt the two crowns relating to it was decided; but that the ſhips of either nation might, at all times, frequent it's ports for wood and water.

In purſuance of this capitulation, Mr Uring, having embarked whatever he had landed, demoliſhed the fort and barricado, ſtruck the flag, and carried it aboard; and ſailed for the iſland of Antigua, after ſending the Winchelſea man of war to take a view of the iſland of St Vincent, where the planters alſo had orders, from the duke of Montague, to attempt a ſettlement, in caſe they were driven from St Lucia: and a conſiderable reinforcement was, for this very purpoſe, arrived from his grace in the mean time at Barbadoes, which we ſhall take notice of preſently.

Though, at this juncture, our court might not think it adviſeable to reſent this behaviour of the French, yet his late majeſty king George II. ſent the following inſtructions to Henry Worſely, Eſq; governor and commander in chief of this iſland, as all his predeceſſors had been who were governors of Barbadoes.

'Truſty and well beloved, &c.

'Whereas the French have for many years claimed a right to 'the iſlands of St Lucia, and do inſiſt, that the right of the 'iſlands of St Vincent and Dominica, under your government, is in the Caribbeans now inhabiting the ſame; although we have an undoubted right to all the ſaid iſlands, 'yet we have thought fit to agree with the French court, 'that, until our right be determined, the ſaid iſlands ſhall be 'entirely evacuated by both nations. It is therefore our will 'and pleaſure, and you are accordingly to ſignify the ſame to 'ſuch of our ſubjects as ſhall be found inhabiting any of our 'ſaid iſlands, that they do quit them 'till the right ſhall be 'determined as aforeſaid, within 30 days from the publication hereof, in each of the ſaid iſlands. And you are to 'uſe your beſt endeavours, that no ſhips whatſoever frequent 'the ſaid iſlands, during the time aforeſaid, except for wood 'and water. But it is our will and pleaſure, that you do not 'execute this order, until the French governor of Martinico 'ſhall have received the like directions from the French court, 'and ſhall, jointly with you, put the ſame in execution, without exception, &c.'

30 Nov. 1730. H. NEWCASTLE.

From theſe inſtructions 'tis apparent, that the courts of England and France had come to an agreement about the immediate ſtate of this iſland, but not as to their right; for our king declares, fully and plainly, that he looked upon his to be wholly unimpeached by this diſpute; and ſo, to be ſure, it was. And it will appear ſtill more clearly, from the French king's letter on this head, to the governor of Martinico, dated the 26th of the month following, that the ſtate, not the right of this iſland, was the point then ſettled.

'Monſieur de Champigny,

'The Engliſh have, for ſome time paſt, formed pretenſions 'to the iſland of St Lucia, which belongs to me, and to which 'I have an inconteſtable right. They have laid the ſame 'pretenſions to the iſland of St Vincent and Dominica, which 'belong to the Caribbeans, natives of the country, according to the treaty of the 31ſt of March, 1660, and in the 'poſſeſſion of which it is my intention to ſupport them. I 'have, nevertheleſs, agreed with the court of England, that, 'till the pretenſions are determined, the ſaid iſlands ſhall be 'evacuated by both nations, &c.'

In order to know the foundation of the pretenſions of England to this iſland, it may be requiſite to give a little of it's hiſtory.

The French authors, particularly Labat, ſay, that, before 1637, neither French nor Engliſh thought of ſettling themſelves on this iſland, becauſe of the frequent attacks they had to ſuſtain from the Caribbeans of the other iſlands; and that both nations frequented it for catching tortoiſe, and building canoes, as an iſland that then had neither governor, fort, nor colony. But both Labat and Tertre, another French author, agree, that the Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637, and lived here eighteen months, or more, without any diſturbance from the natives, or others 'till 1639, when the ſavages drove them out, for this reaſon: An Engliſh veſſel being becalmed before St Dominica, ſome of the Caribbeans of that iſland thinking her to be a French ſhip, becauſe ſhe had a French flag, went aboard, as they uſually did the ſhips of that nation, and, drinking freely, the captain clapped his ſails before the wind, to put off: the ſavages, ſuſpecting his deſign, endeavoured ro recover their canoes; and, being hindered, leaped over-board, and ſwam to their iſland, except two, whom the Engliſh put in irons, and ſold for ſlaves. Thoſe who eſcaped, complaining of this treachery to the ſavages of Martinico and St Vincent, they maſſacred the Engliſh at Barbadoes, Antigua, and others of their new ſettlements: and then come to St Lucia in the night time, and, ſurprizing the Engliſh, killed the governor, and moſt of the inhabitants; plundered their warehouſes, and did incredible miſchief, which obliged thoſe who eſcaped to fly to Montſerrat. This ſo terrified the Engliſh, that they then gave over all thoughts of ſettling again on this iſland.

The civil wars in England breaking out, the Engliſh neglected this ſettlement; and, in 1644, M. de Parquet, the French governor of Martinico, ſent 35 or 40 men from Granada, under M. de Rouſſelan, well furniſhed with ammunition and proviſion, who took poſſeſſion of the iſland, and built a fort, planted proviſions, and cured tobacco. Rouſſelan being well beloved by the natives, becauſe he had married one of their women, the French enjoyed a happy tranquillity 'till 1654, when he died, and was ſucceeded by La Riviere; who, thinking to live with the natives upon as good terms as his predeceſſor had done, erected a ſtately habitation at a greater diſtance from the fort; where he had not lived long, ere the ſavages, hating the neighbourhood of the French, reſolved to drive them out of the iſland, and killed the French governor, and ſeveral others alſo who ſucceeded him.

In 1658, Parquet the governor of Martinico, ſent over a new governor, Monſ. Aigremont. In a few months after whoſe arrival, the Engliſh attacked the fort, but were beat off: nevertheleſs, the natives deſtroyed him in 1660. In 1663, the Engliſh purchaſed the iſland from the natives by a treaty, which was brought about by the influence of Mr Warner, ſon of the governor of St Chriſtopher's, by a Caribbean woman. That gentleman, to whom the Engliſh had given a commiſſion to be governor of Dominica, purſuaded his countrymen to ſell St Lucia fairly to the Engliſh; and the Engliſh ſent 14 or 1500 men on board of five men of war; who, being joined by 6 or 700 Caribbeans in 17 canoes, under the command of Mr Warner, came before this iſland the latter end of June, 1664, and had the fort, which was only of wood and palliſadoed, delivered to them without reſiſtance, on condition that Monſ. Bonnart, then the French governor, with the garriſon, which conſiſted at firſt but of 14 ſoldiers, part of whom had deſerted, ſhould be tranſported to Martinico, with their cannon, arms and baggage. A bloody flux and famine having ſoon reduced this colony from 1500 to 89 perſons, among whom was the governor, Mr Cook, and the principal officers; thoſe who ſurvived, abandoned the iſland the 6th of January, 1666, after ſetting fire to the fort, and diſperſed themſelves in the other adjacent colonies. Two days after a veſſel arrived from the lord Willoughby, governor and captain general of Barbadoes, and the other Engliſh Caribbee Iſlands, to the windward of Guardaloupe, with proviſions, ammunition, and all neceſſaries, but to no purpoſe, for the colony was gone.

Though the iſland was thus deſerted, yet, even while it remained in that condition, it was always conſidered as a part of the Britiſh dominions, was included in every commiſſion of the governor for the iſland of Barbadoes, and the governor aſſerted his juriſdiction over it, by frequently going thither in perſon, with great pomp, hoiſting the king's colours, firing guns, and making all ſigns of ſovereignty and dominion which are requiſite to maintain a national right.

The French king, alſo, in his treaties with king Charles II, and king James II, and likewiſe in thoſe of Ryſwick and Utrecht, ſtipulated to reſtore to the king of Great-Britain all the iſlands, countries, fortreſſes, and colonies, which may have been conquered by the moſt Chriſtian king, and ſuch as were in poſſeſſion of the king of Great-Britain before the war began: which implies an apparent conceſſion, that the Engliſh firſt poſſeſſed this iſland, and had, conſequently, a prior right to it, St Lucia being included in the words, all the Britiſh dominions. Nor could that right of theirs, we apprehend, be any way invalidated by their being drove out of it, and murdered, as above, by the ſavages.

Labat, the Frenchman, indeed, would inſinuate that the Engliſh forfeited their right to it, becauſe, for 20 years after they were drove out of it by the Caribbeans, they neglected to ſend men to it; and though, they ſay, Parquet, the French governor of Martinique, made a ſettlement there, they took no ſtep to oppoſe him, nor did any one thing either on the ſpot, or in Europe, to ſupport their pretenſions. But who does not ſee that this is a bare inſinuation only, and does not carry the face of any thing concluſively argumentative, nor proves the leaſt defect in our title?

Labat, without obſerving that the treaty abovementioned, by which the Engliſh fairly purchaſed the iſland, corroborated

their

their title to it, further informs us, that though in 1664, when the ſecond Weſt-India company bought this, and other iſland, of Parquet's heirs, St Lucia was in the hands of the Engliſh, it continued to name governors thereof 'till 1674, but that, by reaſon of the ſtagnation of the company's trade, during the long wars in 1673 and 1678, all the inhabitants retired to Martinique, Guardaloupe, and other ſtrong iſlands; ſo that, in 1700, there were none left but carpenters, who uſed to come from Martinique, to build canoes, &c. without any other inhabitants, of what nation or complexion ſoever. He adds, that it was afterwards a harbour of run-away ſoldiers and ſailors, who found enough here to ſubſiſt them, beſides the utmoſt ſecurity in the natural faſtneſſes on the brows of precipices, where 10 men might knock 10,000 on the head, by only rolling ſtones or ſtumps of trees, upon them. Sir Hans Sloane ſays, that, in 1689, when he was here, it was inhabited by a ſmall number of people from Barbadoes, who kept it on account of it's wood, whereof it has great plenty, which the Barbadians were very much in want of.

In 1719, the French king granted this iſland to the marſhal d'Etree, who ſent a colony to poſſeſs, ſettle, and plant it. The governor of Barbadoes immediately notified to the commanding officer of the ſaid colony, that, as the iſland belonged to his Britannick majeſty, if the French perſiſted in ſettling on it, he ſhould be obliged to diſpoſſeſs them by force; and, at the ſame time, our ambaſſador at Paris repreſented the matter with ſo much ſpirit and juſtice, as a violation of the rights of his Britannic majeſty, that orders were ſent to the marſhal d'Etree's colony to evacuate the iſland, which they did accordingly. Three years after this, his late majeſty, king George I, granted this iſland, and that of St Vincent, as we have ſeen, to his grace John duke of Montague: and, from the deduction of particulars given, it appears plain enough, that the Engliſh have an undoubted right to this territory: that the French have been no better than intruders here, and as ſuch, were obliged to quit it in the reign of king George I, as they had before done in that of king Charles II; ſince which our rights to this iſland have been confirmed by treaties: but their quitting it in 1719, when the marſhal d'Etree's colony evacuated it, by expreſs order of the French king, is the ſtrongeſt and cleareſt proof of all: for, had not their miniſters been ſenſible of their nation's having no juſt pretenſions to St Lucia, it is not to be ſuppoſed that they would ſo tamely have given up their ſettlement, after having exerted ſo much vigour to prevent ours: and as it was declared, by the mutual evacuation of this iſland in 1722-3, that it could not, or ſhould not, prejudice the claim of either, it cannot be alleged, with any ſhadow of juſtice, to defeat that right, or to be at all derogatory from it, though the proſecution of it was thereby, for a time, ſuſpended.

The French, alſo, uſed every artifice to prevent our poſſeſſion of the iſland of St Vincent, which was included in the patent of his grace the duke of Montague for St Lucia. They poiſoned the natives in our diſfavour, making them believe that we came to enſlave them, when our intention was quite otherwiſe. The like policy has been practiſed by this nation to Dominica and Tobago.

And are not the motives to this conduct of the French very apparent? Such is the natural ſituation of the Caribbee Iſlands, that they run in a chain acroſs that part of the weſtern ocean which terminates upon the continent of South America. Of that chain Antigua is the northern, and Tobago the ſouthern link. The French being poſſeſſed of Martinique, Guardaloupe, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands in the center; and, by late incroachments, have extended their poſſeſſion to Dominica, St Lucia, St Vincent, and Tobago: ſo that France attempted to have the whole chain of Carribbee Iſlands *, of any value for extent and harbours (except Antigua) which are ſituated in the track of navigation to the coaſt of Carraccas and Carthagena to the ſouthward; and to St Euſtatia, St Thomas, Santa Cruz, Porto-Rico, St Domingo, Cuba, Jamaica, Porto-Bello, and all the coaſt of New Spain; from thence to the bay of Mexico, and Miſſiſſippi, to the northward. What, therefore, could have hindered the French, in caſe of war, from intercepting all the navigation from Europe, in the paſſages to theſe ſeveral ports, whenever the naval power of France ſhould be in a tolerable good condition? more eſpecially if Antigua ſhould alſo fall under their dominion, which was far from being impoſſible, if it's great port, called Engliſh Harbour (the beſt of any in that part of the world for the reception and ſecurity of a Britiſh ſquadron) is not well fortified, and the Leeward Iſlands powerfully protected by our royal navy. For, if Antigua ſhould be loſt, or it's beſt harbour ruined, Montſerrat, Nevis, St Chriſtopher's, and all the leſſer iſlands to the weſtward of them, muſt, for want of harbours and protection, fall of courſe into the hands of our enemies. In that caſe, of what value can Jamaica be to this kingdom, when our fleets cannot paſs thither without a convoy, ſuperior to the naval power of France? And what trade can bear the immenſe expence of ſuch convoys? Could Britain with ſafety, therefore, reſt ſatisfied under the uſurpations of France, and, by that means, give it the power of intercepting all the trade of Europe to America? This is now prevented by the DEFINITIVE TREATY.

Thus it evidently appears, what influence theſe incroachments of France would have had upon the whole trade and navigation of America in time of war. But this was not all our danger; for by theſe poſſeſſions of the French, even in times of peace, would have cut off all ſupplies of hard timber, without which it is impoſſible to carry on the ſugar-works of Barbadoes and the Leeward Iſlands, but at immenſe expence, from the far diſtant colonies of the Dutch on the continent of South America, Berbice and Eſequebe: for neither Barbadoes nor the Leeward Iſlands produce large hard timber, fit for theſe purpoſes, nor even ſmall timber enough fit for carts, and other carriages neceſſary for plantation uſe; and therefore Barbadoes has, for many years, been ſupplied with a good ſhare of ſuch timber from Tobago, and the Leeward Iſlands from Dominica, 'till the French have pretended to lay claim to it. As the Britiſh dominions in North America cannot furniſh timber proper for theſe uſes *, and none now is to be had but from the Dutch, at a great diſtance, it follows, that the very exiſtence of Britiſh ſugar-colonies depended upon the courteſy of the Dutch, and that courteſy bought at their own price, beſides the expence of a longer voyage; or elſe we muſt reclaim immediately all thoſe iſlands which the French have unjuſtly uſurped. If this is not done, our ſugar-colonies muſt be ruined for want of ſupplies of timber, even in times of peace (as has been obſerved) and France will, by that means, ingroſs the ſugar-trade of the world †.

* Oak, or other timber of cold countries, ſplits in the hot climates, and ſoon decays; beſides being ſubject to be eaten to a honey-comb, by animals called wood-ants, more deſtructive of wood on ſhore, than worms are to the bottom of ſhips when in harbour.

† That the French have, for many years paſt, ſupplanted us in the ſugar-trade at foreign markets, is certain. By what meaſures they gradually and inſenſibly did this, and greatly increaſed the trade and navigation of their iſland colonies in general, ſhall be ſhewn under the articles FRENCH AMERICA, and SUGAR COLONIES; but now that valuable branch of our commerce may be effectually retrieved, and the Britiſh ſugar iſlands rendered of far more importance to this nation than ever they have been.

Notwithſtanding all the agreements made with the French in regard to the evacuation and neutrality of St Lucia, &c. the war with France was no ſooner broke out, but the French ſeized the iſland of St Lucia as their own in 1744, and ſent a governor to it, and a number of men, and 40 cannon, from 12 to 48 pounders, and have ſince fortified it with two forts, beſides batteries; and they had between 2000 and 3000 white people upon it, and ſeemed reſolved to maintain this iſland, as well as Dominica, St Vincent, and Tobago, although, according to the late treaty of Aix la Chapelle, they were obliged to evacuate the ſame, yet this was never complied with.

The French had about 2000 white men, being French, Engliſh, and Danes, beſides Indians, under a French governor, at Dominica, and had ſeveral ſugar-works on that iſland, and raiſed great quantities of ſugar, indigo, cotton, and other Weſt-India products, on this iſland.

They had people alſo at St Vincent's, interſperſed with the the native Indians, with whom they intermarried. They raiſed great quantities of tobacco, corn, and coffee, on this iſland: and they lately obtained ſuch an aſcendency over theſe Indians, as to make proclamation in that iſland, that no Engliſh, Dutch, or Danes, ſhall have any commerce with that iſland without a protection from the general of Martinique.

They had alſo fortified and ſettled Tobago ſince the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in ſpite of our naval force in theſe parts *,

* Barbadoes, being to the eaſtward, is not mentioned as in the chain of the Caribbee Iſlands; but yet, being one of them, is, from it's nearneſs to Tobago, in more imminent danger of invaſion from that iſland, whenever it became well ſettled by the French, becauſe an armament may be conveyed from one to the other in a very few hours; for the ſame reaſon the trade of Barbadoes might have been ſubject to perpetual interruption from privateers.

* The following inſtructions were given to Robert Lowther, Eſq; on the 23d of February, 1714-15, when he was appointed governor of Barbadoes, St Lucia, Dominica, and St Vincent, and the reſt of his majeſty's Caribbee Iſlands to the windward of Guardaloupe; which inſtructions have been continued to the ſeveral governors of Barbadoes ſince that time. Inſt. 106. 'If any of the ſubjects of a foreign power, 'or ſtate, have already planted themſelves upon any of the 'iſlands of St Lucia, Dominica, St Vincent, or Tobago, or 'ſhall hereafter attempt to do the ſame, you are to aſſert 'our right to the ſaid iſlands, excluſive of all others; 'and, in order to hinder the ſettlement of any colony 'there, you are to give notice to ſuch foreigners that ſhall 'pretend to make ſuch ſettlement, that, unleſs they ſhall re'move in ſuch time as you in your diſcretion ſhall aſſign, you 'ſhall be obliged by force to diſpoſſeſs them, and ſend them 'off the ſaid iſland.

Inſt. 109. 'You are not to encourage any planting, nor to 'grant to any perſon any lands or tenements which are 'now, or hereafter ſhall be, in our power to diſpoſe of in 'any of our iſlands under your government, except Barba'does, until you ſhall receive further orders from us 'therein.'

and

and inſiſted on it's belonging to the French king. From this laſt-mentioned iſland they may invade Barbadoes in one ſtretch, and in one night, as it lies ſouthwardly of Barbadoes, diſtance about 30 leagues.

Theſe attempts of our rivals muſt certainly have been undertaken with a deſign to ſupplant the Engliſh in all their ſugar colonies, becauſe they had before lands in their hands ſufficient to raiſe Weſt-India products wherewith to ſupply all Europe.

Wherefore this conduct of the French, it is humbly conceived, required the utmoſt attention: for, if they had been permitted to remain in poſſeſſion of theſe iſlands, it would have been of the utmoſt ill conſequence to the Britiſh nation, by reaſon, as obſerved, of their ſituation: they ſurround Barbadoes, and are to windward of the Leeward Iſlands. What muſt then have been the inevitable doom of our northern colonies and fiſheries in America, without our Britiſh ſugar colonies? and, to carry the conſequence in it's natural gradation, what would have become of our Britiſh trade to Africa and America?

According to the late treaty of Aix la Chapelle, it is ſtipulated, in the ninth article, as follows, viz.

'Their Britannic and moſt chriſtian majeſties oblige themſelves to cauſe to be delivered, upon the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, the duplicates of the orders addreſſed to the commiſſaries appointed to reſtore and receive reſpectively whatever may have been conquered, on either ſide in the Weſt Indies; and every thing beſides ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed on the foot that they were, or ought to be, before the preſent war.

'The ſaid reſpective commiſſaries ſhall be ready to ſet out on the firſt advice that their Britannic and moſt chriſtian majeſties ſhall receive of the exchange of the ratifications, furniſhed with all neceſſary inſtructions, commiſſions, powers, and orders, for the moſt expeditious accompliſhment of their ſaid majeſties intentions, and of the engagements taken by the preſent treaty.'

The iſlands of St Lucia, St Vincent, and Dominica, were, or ought to have been, neutral, at the time of this treaty, according to a formal evacuation in or about the year 1732, by commiſſaries appointed in Barbadoes and Martinique, to repair to St Lucia for that purpoſe, in purſuance of expreſs orders from their Britannic and moſt chriſtian majeſties, as beforementioned. The iſland of Tobago remained as it was before that war, at the time of the treaty, but was, in barefaced violation thereof, ſettled by the French in January 1749-50, under the protection of two French ſhips of war, which were ſent from Breſt for that purpoſe: and, therefore, were not the French obliged by treaty forthwith to have evacuated this iſland.

Thus have I, from a ſeries of inconteſtable facts, connected in the ſimpleſt and moſt obvious light, and repreſented in the moſt candid and unexaggerated manner, ſhewn the unjuſtifiable attempts of France to injure the Britiſh rights and poſſeſſions in America: but it is to be hoped, from the wiſdom of his majeſty's councils, that all theſe miſchiefs, which look with ſo formidable an aſpect towards the trade of this nation, have at length been happily prevented by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

How far, alſo, the ſchemes of this neighbouring nation have had a tendency to injure the commerce and poſſeſſion of other powers in America, in order to advance their own, ſhall be made appear in it's place. And when other nations, as well as we, enter into a critical examination of ſome of their late maps and charts, publiſhed by authority, they cannot longer remain inſenſible of the machinations that were really forming to their prejudice.

Before we conclude this article, it may be proper to intimate, that, under the general head of COLONIES, we ſhall conſider BRITISH AMERICA in various other lights, not leſs intereſting to theſe kingdoms than what has been already repreſented. Whatever ſome may pleaſe to think me deficient in, at preſent, upon this occaſion, I promiſe to make them amends under other ſubſequent heads, which relate to the commerce of America, particularly under the articles of FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, PLANTATIONS and COLONIES.

BRITISH AMERICA.

THE KING'S PROCLAMATION for the due ſettlement of our new Britiſh Acquiſitions in America, purſuant to the DEFINITIVE TREATY of February 10th 1763.

GEORGE R.

Whereas we have taken into our royal conſideration the extenſive and valuable acquiſitions in America, ſecured to our crown by the late definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Paris the 10th day of February laſt; and being deſirous, that all our loving ſubjects, as well of our kingdoms as of our colonies in America, may avail themſelves, with all convenient ſpeed, of the great benefits and advantages, which muſt accrue therefrom to their commerce, manufactures, and navigation; we have thought fit, with the advice of our privy council, to iſſue this our royal proclamation, hereby to publiſh and declare to all our loving ſubjects, that we have, with the advice of our ſaid privy council, granted our letters patent, under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, to erect, within the countries and iſlands ceded and confirmed to us by the ſaid treaty, four diſtinct and ſeparate governments, ſtiled and called by the names of Quebec, Eaſt Florida, Weſt Florida, and Grenada, and limited and bounded as follows, viz.

Firſt, The government of Quebec, bounded on the Labrador coaſt by the river St John, and from thence by a line drawn from the head of that river through the lake St John, to the ſouth end of the lake Nipiſſim; from whence the ſaid line, croſſing the river St Lawrence, and the lake Champlain, in 45 degrees of north latitude, paſſes along the Highlands which divide the rivers that empty themſelves into the ſaid river St Lawrence, from thoſe which fall into the ſea; and alſo along the north coaſt of the Baye des Chaleurs, and the coaſt of the gulph of St Lawrence to Cape Roſieres, and from thence croſſing the mouth of the river St Lawrence by the weſt end of the iſland of Anticoſti, terminates at the aforeſaid river of St John.

Secondly, The government of Eaſt Florida, bounded to the weſtward by the gulph of Mexico and the Apalachicola river; to the northward by a line drawn from that part of the ſaid river where the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers meet, to the ſource of St Mary's river, and by the courſe of the ſaid river to the Atlantic Ocean; and to the eaſtward and ſouthward by the Atlantic Ocean and the gulph of Florida, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the ſea coaſt.

Thirdly, The government of Weſt Florida, bounded to the ſouthward by the gulph of Mexico, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt, from the river Apalachicola to lake Ponchartrain; to the weſtward by the ſaid lake, the lake Maurepas, and the river Miſſiſſippi; to the northward by a line drawn due eaſt from that part of the river Miſſiſſippi, which lies in 31 degrees north latitude, to the river Apalachicola, or Chatahouchee; and to the eaſtward by the ſaid river.

Fourthly, The government of Grenada, comprehending the iſland of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the iſlands of Dominico, St Vincents, and Tobago.

And to the end that the open and free fiſhery of our ſubjects may be extended to, and carried on upon the coaſt of Labrador, and the adjacent iſlands, we have thought fit, with the advice of our ſaid privy council, to put all that coaſt, from the river St John's to Hudſon's ſtreights, together with the iſlands of Anticoſti and Madelaine, and all other ſmaller iſlands lying upon the ſaid coaſt, under the care and inſpection of our governor of Newfoundland.

We have alſo, with the advice of our privy council, thought fit to annex the iſlands of St John's and Cape Breton, or Iſle Royale, with the leſſer iſlands adjacent thereto, to our government of Nova Scotia.

We have alſo, with the advice of our privy council aforeſaid, annexed to our province of Georgia, all the lands lying between the rivers Atamaha and St Mary's.

And whereas it will greatly contribute to the ſpeedy ſettling our ſaid new governments, that our loving ſubjects ſhould be informed of our paternal care for the ſecurity of the liberties and properties of thoſe, who are and ſhall become inhabitants thereof; we have thought fit to publiſh and declare, by this our proclamation, that we have, in the letters patent under our great ſeal of Great-Britain, by which the ſaid governments are conſtituted, given expreſs power and direction to our governors of our ſaid colonies reſpectively, that ſo ſoon as the ſtate and circumſtances of the ſaid colonies will admit thereof, they ſhall, with the advice and conſent of the members of our council, ſummon and call general aſſemblies within the ſaid governments reſpectively, in ſuch manner and form as is uſed and directed in thoſe colonies and provinces in America, which are under our immediate government; and we have alſo given power to the ſaid governors, with the conſent of our ſaid councils, and the repreſentatives of the people, ſo to be ſummoned as aforeſaid, to make, conſtitute, and ordain laws, ſtatutes and ordinances for the public peace, welfare, and good government of our ſaid colonies, and of the people and inhabitants thereof, as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, and under ſuch regulations and reſtrictions as are uſed in other colonies; and in the mean time, and until ſuch aſſemblies can be called as aforeſaid, all perſons inhabiting in, or reſorting to our ſaid colonies, may confide in our royal protection, for the enjoyment of the benefit of the laws of our realm of England; for which purpoſe we have given power, under our great ſeal, to the governors of our ſaid colonies reſpectively, to erect and conſtitute, with the advice of our ſaid councils reſpectively, courts of judicature and public juſtice within our ſaid colonies, for the hearing and determining all cauſes, as well criminal as civil, according to law and equity, and as near as may be agreeable to the laws of England, with liberty to all perſons, who may think themſelves aggrieved by the ſentences of ſuch courts, in all civil caſes, to appeal, under the uſual limitations and reſtrictions to us, in our privy council.

We have alſo thought fit, with the advice of our privy council as aforeſaid, to give unto the governors and councils of our ſaid three new colonies upon the continent, full power and authority

authority to ſettle and agree with the inhabitants of our ſaid new colonies, or with any other perſons who ſhall reſort thereto, for ſuch lands, tenements, and hereditaments, as are now or hereafter ſhall be in our power to diſpoſe of, and them to grant to any ſuch perſon or perſons, upon ſuch terms, and under ſuch moderate quit-rents, ſervices, and acknowledgments, as have been appointed and ſettled in our other colonies, and under ſuch other conditions as ſhall appear to us to be neceſſary and expedient for the advantage of the grantees, and the improvement and ſettlement of our ſaid colonies.

And whereas we are deſirous, upon all occaſions, to teſtify our royal ſenſe and approbation of the conduct and bravery of the officers and ſoldiers of our armies, and to reward the ſame; we do hereby command and impower our governors of our ſaid three new colonies, and all other our governors of our ſeveral provinces on the continent of North America, to grant, without fee or reward, to ſuch reduced officers as have ſerved in North America during the late war, and to ſuch private ſoldiers as have been or ſhall be diſbanded in America, and are actually reſiding there, and ſhall perſonally apply for the ſame, the following quantities of lands, ſubject at the expiration of ten years to the ſame quit-rents as other lands are ſubject to in the province within which they are granted, as alſo ſubject to the ſame conditions of cultivation and improvement, viz.

To every perſon having the rank of a field-officer, 5000 acres.

To every captain 3000 acres.

To every ſubaltern or ſtaff-officer 2000 acres.

To every non-commiſſion officer 200 acres.

To every private man 50 acres.

We do likewiſe authoriſe and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our ſaid colonies upon the continent of North America, to grant the like quantities of land, and upon the ſame conditions, to ſuch reduced officers of our navy of like rank as ſerved on board our ſhips of war in North America at the times of the reduction of Louiſbourg and Quebec in the late war, and who ſhall perſonally apply to our reſpective governors for ſuch grants.

And whereas it is juſt and reaſonable, and eſſential to our intereſt, and the ſecurity of our colonies, that the ſeveral nations or tribes of Indians, with whom we are connected, and who live under our protection, ſhould not be moleſted or diſturbed in the poſſeſſion of ſuch parts of our dominions and territories as, not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us, are reſerved to them or any of them as their hunting grounds; we do therefore, with the advice of our privy council, declare it to be our royal will and pleaſure, that no governor or commander in chief in any of our colonies of Quebec, Eaſt Florida or Weſt Florida, do preſume, upon any pretence whatever, to grant warrants of ſurvey, or paſs any patents for land beyond the bounds of their reſpective governments, as deſcribed in their commiſſions; as alſo that no governor or commander in chief in any of our other colonies or plantations in America, do preſume for the preſent, and until our further pleaſure be known, to grant warrants of ſurvey, or paſs patents for any lands beyond the heads or ſources of any of the rivers which fall into the Atlantic ocean from the weſt and north-weſt; or upon any lands whatever, which not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us as aforeſaid, are reſerved to the ſaid Indians, or any of them.

And we do further declare it to be our royal will and pleaſure, for the preſent as aforeſaid, to reſerve under our ſovereignty, protection and dominion, for the uſe of the ſaid Indians, all the lands and territories not included within the limits of our ſaid three new governments, or within the limits of the territory granted to the Hudſon's-bay company; as alſo all the lands and territories lying to the weſtward of the ſources of the rivers which fall into the ſea from the weſt and north-weſt as aforeſaid; and we do hereby ſtrictly forbid, on pain of our diſpleaſure, all our loving ſubjects from making any purchaſes or ſettlements whatever, or taking poſſeſſion of any of the lands above reſerved, without our ſpecial leave and licence for that purpoſe firſt obtained.

And we do further ſtrictly enjoin and require all perſons whatever, who have either wilfully or inadvertently ſeated themſelves upon any lands within the countries above deſcribed, or upon any other lands, which not having been ceded to or purchaſed by us, are ſtill reſerved to the ſaid Indians as aforeſaid, forthwith to remove themſelves from ſuch ſettlements.

And whereas great frauds and abuſes have been committed in the purchaſing lands of the Indians, to the great prejudice of our intereſts, and to the great diſſatisfaction of the ſaid Indians; in order therefore to prevent ſuch irregularities for the future, and to the end that the Indians may be convinced of our juſtice and determined reſolution to remove all reaſonable cauſe of diſcontent, we do, with the advice of our privy council, ſtrictly enjoin and require, that no private perſon do preſume to make any purchaſe from the ſaid Indians of any lands reſerved to the ſaid Indians within thoſe parts of our colonies, where we have thought proper to allow ſettlement; but that if at any time any of the ſaid Indians ſhould be inclined to diſpoſe of the ſaid lands, the ſame ſhall be purchaſed only for us, in our name, at ſome public meeting or aſſembly of the ſaid Indians, to be held for that purpoſe by the governor or commander in chief of our colony reſpectively, within which they ſhall lye: and in caſe they ſhall lye within the limits of any proprietary government, they ſhall be purchaſed only for the uſe and in the name of ſuch proprietaries, conformable to ſuch directions and inſtructions as we or they ſhall think proper to give for that purpoſe: and we do, by the advice of our privy council, declare and enjoin, that the trade with the ſaid Indians ſhall be free and open to all our ſubjects whatever; provided that every perſon, who may incline to trade with the ſaid Indians, do take out a licence for carrying on ſuch trade, from the governor or commander in chief of any of our colonies reſpectively, where ſuch perſon ſhall reſide; and alſo give ſecurity to obſerve ſuch regulations as we ſhall at any time think fit, by ourſelves or by our commiſſaries, to be appointed for this purpoſe, to direct and appoint for the benefit of the ſaid trade: and we do hereby authorize, enjoin and require the governors and commanders in chief of all our colonies reſpectively, as well thoſe under our immediate government, as thoſe under the government and direction of proprietaries, to grant ſuch licences without fee or reward, taking eſpecial care to inſert therein a condition, that ſuch licence ſhall be void, and the ſecurity forfeited, in caſe the perſon, to whom the ſame is granted, ſhall refuſe or neglect to obſerve ſuch regulations as we ſhall think proper to preſcribe as aforeſaid.

And we do further expreſly enjoin and require all officers whatever, as well military as thoſe employed in the management and direction of Indian affairs within the territories reſerved as aforeſaid, for the uſe of the ſaid Indians, to ſeize and apprehend all perſons whatever, who, ſtanding charged with treaſons, miſpriſions of treaſon, murders, or other felonies or miſdemeanors, ſhall fly from juſtice and take refuge in the ſaid territory, and to ſend them under a proper guard to the colony where the crime was committed of which they ſtand accuſed, in order to take their trial for the ſame.

Given at our court at St James, the 7th day of October, 1763, in the third year of our reign.

Remarks.

Of the different exchanges between our plantations and London.

The various provinces on the continent of North America, and alſo the Leeward Iſlands and Jamaica, ſubject to Great-Britain, have for many years paſt varied greatly in the way of reckoning their monies or currencies, from what has been by law eſtabliſhed in England.

Barbadoes,	L. 130	per 100 l. ſterling.
Antigua,	175	
St Chriſtopher's, Nevis, and Montſerrat,	160	
Jamaica,	140	
Virginia,	125	
New England paper money,	525	
New York ditto,	160	
Penſylvania ditto,	170	
Maryland ditto	* 220	
South Carolina ditto,	750	
North Carolina ditto,	1000	

* In Maryland have been three kinds of currencies: contracts for ſterling, paid in bills of exchange; contracts for gold or ſilver currency, accounted at 133 ⅓ for 100 l. ſterling; and paper currency 220 for 100 l. ſterling, as above.

By the term currency, where it is relative to our ſugar-iſlands particularly, and is mentioned without the addition of coin, is meant the payments made in ſugar, rum, cotton, molaſſes, ginger, indigo, or other commodities, the produce of theſe iſlands, in contradiſtinction to payments made in gold and ſilver. The variation of coin in ſome of the iſlands, and leaving it to the option of a debtor there to pay in what CURRENCY he thinks moſt for his own advantage, has been productive of great frauds and miſchiefs to trade occaſionally; and therefore the fair merchant and planter wiſh for nothing ſo much as the eſtabliſhment of one COMMON CURRENCY in all the plantations. Cicero complains of the like confuſion in the Roman money, where he ſays, Jactabatur enim temporibus illis nummus ſic, ut nemo poſſet ſcire quid haberet; that money was ſo varied, and toſſed about, that no man could tell how much he was worth, till the Roman magiſtrate reformed it.

The four Leeward Iſlands, viz. Antigua, St Chriſtopher's, Nevis, and Montſerrat, though they have only one chief governor, have diſtinct aſſemblies; ſo that the laws of one iſland do not bind any of the others; nor can the whole be bound but by a law made by a general aſſembly of them all, which no one iſland can afterwards abrogate. There has been no ſuch aſſembly ſince the year 1705, and but one general law

that ever regulated their currency of coin, which was paſſed in the year 1694, and afterwards confirmed by the crown. As this law was never repealed by a general aſſembly; and as no act of government in one iſland could ſince legally alter the currency of the coin that had been ſettled by the authority of the whole, the legal currency of theſe Leeward Iſlands coin muſt be according to the act of 1694.

By this act, each piece of eight of Seville, Mexico, and Pillar, and each French crown, was to be current and paſs for 6 s. a Peru piece of eight for 5 s. and all monies whatſoever to be rated in proportion, except the eighth part of a Peru piece of eight, commonly called a ſeven pence halfpenny, which ſhall paſs for nine pence.

Upon this footing ſtood the currency of the coin in the Leeward iſlands till 1704, when, upon a repreſentation to the crown of the different rates at which, by divers indirect practices, the ſame ſpecies of foreign coins paſſed in the American plantations, (by which means, artful men drew the money from one colony to another, to their own private gain, but to the prejudice of the trade of the whole) Queen Anne, by her proclamation in the ſaid year, regulated the currency of each individual piece in all the plantations, as follows:

	Weight.	True value. Sterling	Curt. value abroad, not to exceed
	Pwt. gr.	s. d.	s. d.
Seville pieces of eight, old plate,	17 12	4 6	6 0 0
Ditto, new plate, - -	14 0	3 7 1/4	4 9 2 2/3
Mexico pieces of eight, - -	17 12	4 6	6 0 0
Pillar pieces of eight, - -	17 12	4 6 3/4	6 0 0
Peru pieces of eight, old plate,	17 12	4 5	5 10 2 2/3
Croſs dollars, - - -	18 0	4 4 3/4	5 10 1 1/3
Ducatoons of Flanders, - -	20 21	5 6	7 4 0
Ecus of France, or ſilver Louis,	17 12	4 6	6 0 0
Cruſadoes of Portugal, - -	11 4	2 10 1/4	3 9 2 2/3
Three guilder pieces of Holland,	20 7	5 2 1/4	6 10 3 2/6
Old rix-dollars of the empire,	18 0	4 6	6 0 0

The proclamation directed, that the half-quarters, and other parts, paſs in proportion to their denomination, and light pieces in proportion to their weight. This very proclamation was incorporated in, and enforced by an act of parliament, in the 6th of Queen Anne; which wiſely eſtabliſhed a SAMENESS of currency in all the plantations, and ordained it to be obeyed, under ſevere penalties. There was, indeed, a proviſo in the act, reſerving a power in the crown to alter the currency, either by proclamation, or by aſſenting to ſome act of aſſembly for that purpoſe; but as no ſuch proclamation or law has paſſed or iſſued, with regard to Barbadoes, the Leeward Iſlands, or Jamaica, the legal currency of their coin cannot exceed the proportions eſtabliſhed by the ſaid act.

When the people of Jamaica had raiſed their money, by agreeing to tender and receive it at an UNCERTAIN WEIGHT, and at 6 s. 3 d. the piece of eight, the lord Carteret, then ſecretary of ſtate, wrote a letter to the duke of Portland, the governor; wherein he tells him, after complaints made by ſome merchants, 'That the trade and credit of the iſland will be 'loſt, if the VARIATION OF THE COIN be not rectified; it 'being a bold attempt in thoſe who adviſed it, becauſe expreſly contrary to the act of the 6th of queen Anne, and the '47th inſtruction.'—The ſame royal inſtruction has been given to all governors of the Leeward Iſlands, to oblige them to take care, that the act be punctual y obeyed.

How it has been adhered to, experience has ſhewn; but to the honour of Barbadoes, it has obſerved the law more ſtrictly than any of our colonies, though it has ſuffered from the non-obſervance of it, by the people of the Leeward Iſlands, who for a conſiderable time drew away from Barbadoes their LIGHT MONEY, as there purchaſed by WEIGHT, and paſſed it among the Leeward Iſlands by TALE.

At Barbadoes, where the money is current, according to the 6th of queen Anne, and where the coin is ſtable and fixed as their weights and meaſures (as indeed it ought to be every where) freſh proviſions, ſuch as beef, veal, mutton, pork, and other neceſſaries of life, have been all more than 70 per cent. cheaper than they have been at Antigua.

Our readers in general, as well as the trader in particular, will be the better enabled to judge of the neceſſity of eſtabliſhing a SAMENESS OF CURRENCY in our American colonies, by the two following TABLES. The firſt is taken from a report made, and ſigned by the officers of the mint, to the duke of Newcaſtle, on the 19th of November 1740, in obedience to an order from the government, conſequent on an addreſs of the houſe of commons to his majeſty, for the ſaid officers to enquire into, and aſcertain the rates and proportions at which all foreign GOLD COINS are to be accounted, received or paid, in any of thoſe COLONIES. This TABLE, which ſhews the true aſſays of thoſe coins, with their WEIGHT, their VALUE, in ſterling, their VALUE IN THE PLANTATIONS, &c. was drawn up, in order to ſettle their TRUE CURRENCY in the ſaid colonies, and to ſuppreſs the FRAUDULENT CURRENCY, which they had obtained in the LEEWARD ISLANDS.

Denomination worſe than ſterling.	Aſſay, or fineneſs.	Weight.	Sterling value, per piece.	Current value per piece, in the plantations.	Sterling value, per ounce.	Current value per pound, in plantations.
	Car. gr.	Pwt. gr.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.
Louis d'or, - - - -	0 1 3/4	5 6	1 0 0 42/100	1 6 8 56/100	3 16 4	5 1 9
Old French guinea, - - -	0 1	5 5	1 0 0 59/100	1 6 8 78/100	3 17 0	5 2 8
Louis of 1725, French, call'd Merliton,	0 1 1/2	4 4	0 15 11 36/100	1 1 3 14/100	3 16 6 1/2	5 2 0 3/4
French piſtole, - - - -	0 0 1/2	4 7	0 16 7 38/100	1 2 1 84/100	3 17 5	5 3 3
Louis de Malt, - - -	0 1 5/8	6 6	1 3 10 60/100	1 11 10 13/100	3 16 5 1/4	5 1 11
Johannes of Portugal, - -	0 0 1/8	9 4	1 15 7 70/100	2 7 6 26/100	3 17 9	5 3 8
Moydore, - - - -	0 0 7/8	6 17	1 6 0 11/100	1 14 8 15/100	3 17 6 1/2	5 3 4 1/2
Spaniſh doubloon, mill'd, - -	0 0 1/2	17 9	3 7 3 20/100	4 9 8 36/100	3 17 5	5 3 3
Spaniſh piſtole, mill'd, - -	0 0 1/2	4 8 1/2	0 16 10 29/100	1 2 5 72/100	3 17 5	5 3 3
Spaniſh double doubloon, hammer'd,	0 0 5/8	17 6	3 5 1 94/100	4 6 10 59/100	3 15 6 1/2	5 0 9
Spaniſh piſtole, hammer'd, - - -	0 0 3/8	4 8 1/2	0 16 10 56/100	1 2 6 8/100	3 17 6 1/2	5 3 4 1/2
Barbary ducat, or chequin, - - -	0 1	2 3	0 7 10 77/100	0 10 6 26/100	3 14 4	4 19 1 1/4

For the farther illuſtration of an article of ſuch importance to the trade and intereſt of our American colonies, ſee the following Table; ſhewing how much each of theſe gold pieces have exceeded their values in the LEEWARD ISLANDS, where they have been paid at the following rates, viz.

Names of the pieces, as in the above Table of the Mint.	Plantation currency, as ſettled by the mint, without the fractions.	How current in the plantations for many years.	How much each piece went above its value, ſuppoſing them all full weight.
	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.
Louis d'or, - - - - -	1 6 8	1 13 0	0 6 4
The old French guinea, - - - -	1 6 8	1 13 0	0 6 4
Louis of 1725, call'd Merliton, - - -	1 1 3	1 8 0	0 6 9
French piſtole, - - - - -	1 2 1	1 8 0	0 5 11
Louis de Malt, - - - -	1 11 10	2 2 0	0 10 2
Johannes of Portugal, - - - -	2 7 6	3 12 0	1 4 6
Moydore, - - - - -	1 6 0	2 2 0	0 16 0
Spaniſh doubloon, mill'd, - - - - -	4 9 8	5 12 0	0 2 4
Spaniſh piſtole, mill'd, - - - - - -	1 2 5 3/4 nearly.	1 8 0	0 5 7
Spaniſh doubloon, hammer'd, - - - -	4 6 10	5 12 0	1 5 2
Spaniſh piſtole, hammer'd, - - - - -	1 2 6	1 8 0	0 5 6
Spaniſh piſtole hammer'd, better than ſterling,	1 2 10	1 8 0	0 5 2
Barbary ducat, or chequin, - - -	0 10 6	0 14 6	0 3 6

See our article CURRENCY.

BROCADE, or BROCADO, a ſtuff of gold, ſilver, or ſilk, raiſed, and inriched with flowers, foliages, or other ornaments, according to the fancy of the merchant, or manufacturers, who invent new faſhions.

Formerly that word ſignified only a ſtuff wove all of gold both in the warp and in the woof, or all of ſilver, or of both mixed together: thence it paſſed to thoſe ſtuffs in which there was ſilk mixed, to raiſe and terminate the gold or ſilver flowers. But, at preſent all ſtuffs, even of ſilk alone, whether they be grograms of Tours or of Naples, ſattins, and even bare taffeties or luſtrings, if they be but adorned and worked with ſome flowers, or other firgures, are called brocades.

The gold or ſilver brocades are among the four ſorts of cloth, on one of which traders, who would be admitted merchants and maſter-workmen of gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs in the city of Paris, are obliged to make their maſter-piece of workmanſhip, according to the 25th article of the regulations of the year 1667, concerning the manufactory of thoſe ſorts of ſtuffs.

The articles 49 and 50 of the ſame regulations, and the 16th of thoſe of Lyons of the ſame year, order to make the warp and threads of the brocades of ſpun and twiſted ſilk; and the warp doubled in a ſtay of $\frac{11}{24}$ of an ell, between the ſelvages, of pure and fine ſilk, without mixing with it any ſilk dyed raw, upon pain of forfeiting the ſtuffs, and paying a fine of 60 livres for the firſt offence, and a greater penalty in caſe of a ſecond offence.

Laws of England with regard to Brocade.

1. Gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof; or any thread, lace, fringe, or other work made of, copper, braſs, or any other inferior metal; or gold or ſilver wire or plate, foreign embroidery, or gold or ſilver brocade imported, to be forfeited and burnt, and 100 l. paid by the importer, for every parcel ſo imported.——10 Ann. cap. 26. § 65.—15 Geo. II. cap. 20. § 7.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 1.

2. Foreign embroidery, gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, brocade, or other work made thereof, or of gold or ſilver wire or plate, may not be ſold or expoſed to ſale, or diſpoſed of by exchange, barter, truck, or otherwiſe, nor worked or made up in, or upon any wearing apparel, on pain of it's being forfeited and burnt, together with the apparel or other materials; and the offender alſo forfeits 100 l. for every ſuch offence.——22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 2.

3. Such goods found and ſeized in the houſe, warehouſe, or cuſtody of any mercer, laceman, haberdaſher, upholder, milliner, taylor, or dealer in, vender, or maker up of the ſaid manufactures, beſides being forfeited and burnt, ſuch perſon, if they were brought or continued there with his knowledge or conſent, forfeits 100 l. for every piece or parcel. 22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 3.

4. Gold or ſilver thread, &c.—Such goods, after condemnation, are to be publickly burnt, at ſuch places as the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall direct.—22 Geo. II. cap. 36. §4.

5. In caſe of any queſtion ariſing where the goods were manufactured, the proof is to lie on the owner, claimer, or perſon proſecuted.——22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 6.

6. Nothing in this act is to extend to inflict any penalty on the wearer.——22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 7.

7. Proſecutions upon any act prohibiting the importation or ſale of ſuch goods, muſt be commenced within twelve months after diſcovery of the offence, or, in caſe of ſeizure, within three months after ſeizure.——22 Geo. II. cap. 36. § 8.

BROKAGE. See BROKERAGE.

BROKER, a name given to perſons of ſeveral and very different profeſſions, the chief of which are exchange-brokers, ſtock-brokers, pawn-brokers, and brokers ſimply ſo called, who ſell houſhold furniture and ſecond-hand apparel.

Exchange-BROKERS, are a kind of agents, or negociators, who contrive, propoſe, make, and conclude bargains between merchants and merchants, and merchants and tradeſmen, in matters of bills of exchange or merchandize, for which they have ſo much commiſſion. The French call them agents of bank and exchange, when they meddle only with bills or money, and courtiers, or brokers, when they make bargains for any ſort of merchandize. See AGENTS.

Laws of England with regard to Brokers.

The exchange-brokers are, by the ſtatute 10 Ric. II. cap. 1. called broggers, the original of which name is from a trader broken, and that from the Saxon broc, which ſignifies misfortune, which is often the true reaſon of a man's breaking: ſo that the broker came from one who was a broken trader by misfortune; and none but ſuch were formerly admitted to that employment. They were to be freemen of the city of London, and allowed and approved by the lord mayor and aldermen for their ability and honeſty. By the ſtatute 8 and 9 Will. III. they are to be licenſed in London by the lord mayor, who gives them an oath, and takes bond for the faithful execution of their offices: if any perſons ſhall act as brokers without being thus licenſed and admitted, they ſhall forfeit the ſum of 500 l. and perſons employing them 5 l. and brokers are to regiſter contracts, &c. under the like penalty: alſo brokers ſhall not deal for themſelves, on pain of forfeiting 200 l. They are to carry about them a ſilver medal, having the king's arms and the arms of the city, and pay 40 s. a year to the chamber of the city. Stat 6 Ann. cap. 16.

The exchange-brokers make it their buſineſs to know the alteration of the courſe of exchange, to inform merchants how it goes, and to give notice to thoſe who have money to receive or pay beyond ſea, who are the proper perſons for negociating the exchange with; and, when the matter is accompliſhed, that is, when the money for the bill is paid, and the bill delivered, they have for brokerage 2 s. for 100 l. ſterling.

By ſtatute 3 Geo. II. cap. 3. No perſon is to exerciſe the employment of a broker within the city of Briſtol, unleſs he be firſt admitted by the mayor, aldermen, and common-council of that city, under ſuch reſtrictions for his good behaviour, and as to fees, and the number of brokers, as the ſaid mayor, &c. ſhall think fit. Every broker is alſo to take an oath, and to give bond to the mayor and court of aldermen for the faithful diſcharge of his office, and pay 10 s. as a fee for his admittance, to the town-clerk of Briſtol. The mayor and court of aldermen ſhall order the names of all ſuch brokers, and the places of their habitation, to be affixed on the Tholſel, and in the council-houſe, and other public places within the city.

Any perſon acting as broker, not being ſworn and admitted, is to forfeit 100 l. and any perſon employing one as a broker, not being ſworn, ſhall forfeit 50 l.

Every ſworn broker is to keep a broker's book, in which he muſt enter all the contracts he ſhall make, within three days after making, with the parties names, on pain of forfeiting 20 l.

Every broker ſhall carry about him a medal of ſilver, on which ſhall be his majeſty's arms, and, on the reverſe, the arms of the city of Briſtol, with the name of ſuch broker, which medal he ſhall produce, if required on the concluding of every bargain by him made, to the parties concerned, on pain to forfeit 5 l.

If any ſuch broker ſhall deal for himſelf, in remittance of money, or buy any goods, to ſell again for his own benefit, or ſhall make profit in buying or ſelling any goods, &c. for the benefit of any other perſon, ſave in the way of a broker only, he ſhall forfeit for the firſt offence 20 l. for the ſecond offence 50 l. and for the third offence 100 l. and, being convicted of ſuch third offence, ſhall be incapable to act as a broker within the city of Briſtol.

In France, 'till the middle of the 17th century, they gave the name of broker (courtier) or exchange-broker (courtier de change) to thoſe whoſe buſineſs it was to intervene between merchants, traders, bankers, and other perſons, to make them borrow or lend money, or find or give bills of exchange. But, ſince the decree of the council made in the year 1639, the name of courtier de change has been changed into that of agent de change, banque et finance; and, even to render thoſe offices more honourable, they have added to them, in the beginning of the 18th century, the title of king's counſellor's. See AGENT of Exchange. So that, at preſent, the word courtier is confined to thoſe only who make bargains of merchandizes.

REMARKS.

The broker's profeſſion is very neceſſary in commerce, and renders it more eaſy, eſpecially in towns of great trade, there to have perſons of a good underſtanding, well known and eſteemed amongſt the merchants, workmen and tradeſmen, to give them notice where they may meet with the merchandizes they may have occaſion for, or with the materials proper for their ſeveral works, or for their manufactures; and to find for thoſe who have manufactured any ware, or who would ſell them, perſons ready or willing to buy or barter them.

Henry III. of France, as we have obſerved in the article of Agent of the bank, was the firſt who erected into an office, or ſettled employment, the functions of the brokers, which 'till then had been free: but that erection, or creation, did not take place 'till the following reign; nor was it ever put in practice but with regard to the exchange-brokers; and the ſame liberty does ſtill continue in all the cities of France, except a very few, where there are eſtabliſhed brokers, that is, whoſe employment is a poſt under the government, as at Bourdeaux, where there are ſuch ſettled brokers for all ſorts of merchandizes, and at Paris for peculiar ſorts of merchandizes only.

We may diſtinguiſh, as it were, two ſorts of brokers: the one who may be called ſimply brokers of merchandizes, and the other brokers of manufactures, workmen, and tradeſmen.

Their functions are alike; that is, to ſay, they all contrive to make people buy, ſell, or barter, for the ſake of their commiſſion, or brokerage; but the object of their functions is in ſome manner different, the former facilitating between merchants the ſale of the merchandizes which they have bought

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by wholeſale, or which the foreign merchants bring to market; and the latter applying themſelves only to procure to the manufacturers, workmen, and artificers, the materials proper for their ſeveral manufactories, or works, or to afford them opportunities and means for ſelling the ſtuffs, and other merchandizes, they have worked.

At Paris, which is, as it were, the center of the whole commerce of France, there is hardly a body or company of merchants, or even of tradeſmen, that have not their brokers, who are commonly choſen out of their own body, and meddle with no bargains but of ſuch merchandizes, or works, which by the ſtatutes it is lawful for the freemen of ſuch of the ſix bodies of merchants, or for thoſe of ſuch of the other companies of arts and trades, to ſell or to make reſpectively, for which each broker acts.

The brokers of the companies of arts and trades are commonly ſuch freemen, who, having not wherewithal to ſet up ſhop, get their livelihood by brokerage, each among two freemen of his own company. But, as for the brokers of the ſix bodies of merchants, they are, in ſome, appointed by the maſter and wardens, as in the drapers body; but, in others, the broker's profeſſion may be followed by any freeman who pleaſes, provided he does not, at the ſame time, follow that of a merchant, which is prohibited by the ſecond article of the ſecond title of the ordonnance of the year 1673: ſo that almoſt all the brokers of merchandizes are themſelves merchants, who have left off trade, or who have not ſtock enough to carry it on for their own account.

Where the broker's profeſſion has been erected into an employment under the government, as at Bourdeaux, and in ſome other cities, they alone follow that buſineſs, excluſively of all other perſons.

At Lyons, which is a free city, and in all the other towns, where there are no companies of arts and trades, any perſon may ſet up for a broker, provided he conform himſelf to the rules of policy eſtabliſhed in that reſpect, and have the qualifications required by the third article of the ſecond title of the ſame ordonnance of 1673.

As for Tours, where there are ſuch companies, and in all the other towns where there are any, a broker muſt be free of the company, or body, that trade in ſuch merchandizes, or works, as he would be a broker of.

We have obſerved above, that the brokers of merchandizes, and thoſe of the manufacturers and artificers, are the ſame; there is, however, a ſort of difference between them, which is, that the latter are not obliged to keep regiſters and journals, being commonly paid their brokerage content, immediately upon the ſtriking of the bargain: whereas it is cuſtomary with the former to keep books, wherein they enter all the bargains they make; and their books are admitted as vouchers in the courts of juſtice.

Both thoſe brokers are credited upon their word, with regard to the diſputes which are between merchants, manufacturers, workmen, and artificers, concerning the ſelling, buying, or bartering of the merchandizes for which they have bargained.

They reckon at Paris, among the city officers, who are under the juriſdictions of the provoſt of the merchants, and echevins, or aldermen, three ſorts of brokers:

1. The brokers of horſes, for the carriage of merchandizes by water. They are eſtabliſhed for the navigation, and take care to examine the horſes uſed to draw the boats up the river, to ſet the horſes together, and to oblige the carriers to repair their boats, or to break up ſuch as are no longer fit to ſerve.

Theſe brokers differ from thoſe horſe-brokers whom we call jockies, or horſe-courſers, and whom the French, alſo, ſtile courtiers de chevaux, whoſe buſineſs is to take, procure the ſelling, buying, or bartering all ſorts of beaſts of burden, for carriage or drawing. The office of theſe brokers is not erected at Paris into a poſt under the government.

2. Sworn wine-brokers on the keys, to examine and taſte all the wines that arrive there. It is their buſineſs to judge whether the caſks have not been filled or mixed with water, or with ſome other noxious liquor, and to give the buyers notice; and to ſee the caſks, or tuns, contain the quantity of liquor ſet down in the mark put upon them by the gauger.

Theſe brokers have nothing in common with the brokers of wine, brandy, cyder, and other liquors, eſtabliſhed at Paris by the ancient edicts, nor with thoſe created throughout the whole kingdom.

The 11th chapter of the ordonnance of the city of Paris, made in the year 1672, explains, in five articles, all the functions of thoſe ſworn wine-brokers, who are officers of the city.

By the firſt, they are obliged to taſte the wines as ſoon as they arrive, in order to judge of their quality.

The ſecond commands them to meet on the keys and places of ſale, in a ſufficient number, on the days of ſale, to make the citizens taſte the wines, if thereto required, and give them notice of the true meaſure and gauging of the caſks.

The third declares, that no man is obliged to employ a wine-broker, unleſs he pleaſes, but that when a broker has brought a buyer to merchant, or ſworn ſeller, he remains anſwerable for the buyer's ſolvency.

The fourth leaves to a citizen who is preſent to take, if he pleaſes, the bargain agreed upon by a broker for an abſent citizen.

Finally, the fifth ſettles, at four queues, or ſix muids (or hogſheads) the quantity of wine which a wine-broker, keeping a public houſe, may keep in his cellars at a time, over and above the wine of his own growth, and inheritance, or eſtate, which, nevertheleſs, he is not allowed to ſell, but to his gueſts.

3 Brokers of bacon and lard. Theſe are eſtabliſhed to examine thoſe ſorts of merchandizes, as they are landed or unloaded, and to anſwer for their goodneſs to the buyers, and to the ſeller for the price of his wares.

They alſo give the name of ſalt-brokers to petty officers of the gabelle, or ſalt-duty, who are preſent at the granaries on the days when the ſalt is diſtributed, and furniſh the meters with meaſures, and with pieces of cloth to put under them.

At Cairo, and in ſeveral parts of the Levant, they give the name of cenſals to thoſe Arabians who do the office of brokers; their manner of negociating the merchants affairs has ſomething ſo very ſingular, that it deſerves an article by itſelf. See therefore CENSAL.

There are at Amſterdam two ſorts of brokers, who are called maakelaars. Some are a kind of officers, and are ſtiled ſworn brokers, becauſe they are ſworn before the magiſtrates, or burgomaſters; the others are thoſe who, without any commiſſion, and without being owned by the magiſtrates, take upon themſelves the office of brokers: they are called ambulatory brokers.

There are of the former, that is to ſay, of the ſworn brokers 375 Chriſtian brokers, and 20 Jews; the others are almoſt double that number: ſo that there are above 1000 brokers at Amſterdam, both of exchange and merchandize, both ſworn and ambulatory.

The only difference there is between theſe two ſorts of brokers is, that the books and perſons of the ſworn brokers are admitted as evidences in the courts of juſtice; whereas the ambulatory brokers, in caſe of a diſpute, are not admitted, but, on the contrary, the contracts and bargains they made remain void.

The fees, or brokerage, of the ſworn brokers at Amſterdam, which have been ſettled by two regulations, the one made in January, 1613, and the other the 22d of November, 1623, are, with regard to bills of exchange, 18 ſtivers per 100 pounds groſs, or Flemiſh, which make 600 guilders, that is to ſay, three ſtivers for every 100 guilders, to be paid half by the drawer, and half by the remitter, that is, by him who gives the money.

Stock-BROKERS, are thoſe who are employed to buy and ſell ſhares in the joint ſtock of a company, or corporation.

As the practice of ſtock-jobbing has been carried to ſuch an exceſs as became not only ruinous to a great number of private families, but even affected, or, at leaſt, might ſoon affect, even the public credit of the nation, the legiſlature thought fit to put a ſtop to it, or at leaſt to bring it within certain bounds, and under ſome regulation: and, therefore, the following act was paſſed.

By ſtatute 7. Geo. II. cap. 8. ſect. 1. All contracts, upon which any premium ſhall be given for liberty to put upon, deliver, accept, or refuſe, any public ſtock, or ſecurities, and all wagers, puts and refuſals, relating to the preſent or future price of ſtocks, or ſecurities ſhall be void; and all premiums upon ſuch contracts, or wagers, ſhall be reſtored to the perſon who ſhall pay the ſame, who ſhall be at liberty, within ſix months from the making ſuch contract, or laying ſuch wager, to ſue for the ſame, with double coſt: and it ſhall be ſufficient therein for the plaintiff to alledge, that the defendant is indebted to the plaintiff, or has received to the plaintiff's uſe the money, or premium, ſo paid, whereby the plaintiff's action accrued according to the form of this ſtatute, without ſetting forth the ſpecial matter.

Sect. 2. Perſons who by this act ſhall be liable to be ſued, ſhall alſo be obliged to anſwer, upon oath, ſuch bill as ſhall be preferred in equity, for diſcovering any ſuch contract, or wager, and the premium given.

Sect. 3. Provided that the plaintiffs, relators, or informers in ſuch bill, give ſecurity to anſwer coſt.

Sect. 4. Every perſon who ſhall make any ſuch contracts, upon which any premium ſhall be given, for liberty to put upon, deliver, accept, or refuſe any public ſtock, or ſecurities, or any contracts in the nature of puts and refuſals, or ſhall lay any ſuch wager (except ſuch who ſhall bona fide ſue, and with effect proſecute, for the recovery of the premium paid by them; and except ſuch who ſhall voluntarily, before ſuit commenced, repay or tender ſuch premium, as they ſhall have received; and alſo except ſuch who ſhall diſcover ſuch tranſactions in any court of equity) ſhall forfeit 500 l. and all perſons negociating, or writing ſuch contracts, ſhall likewiſe forfeit 500 l. which penalties may be recovered by action of debt, or information, in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, one moiety to his majeſty, and the other moiety to them who ſhall ſue for the ſame.

Sect. 5. No money, or other conſideration, ſhall be voluntarily given, or received, for compounding any difference for the not delivering, or receiving, any public ſtock, or ſecurities; but all ſuch contracts ſhall be ſpecifically executed; and all perſons, who ſhall voluntarily compound ſuch difference, ſhall forfeit 100 l. one moiety to his majeſty, and the other moiety to them who ſhall ſue for the ſame.

Sect. 6. No perſon who ſhall ſell ſtock to be delivered and paid for on a certain day, and which ſhall be refuſed or neglected to be paid for, ſhall be obliged to transfer the ſame; but it ſhall be lawful for ſuch perſons to ſell ſuch ſtock to any other, and to receive, or recover from the perſon, who firſt contracted for the ſame, the damage which ſhall be ſuſtained.

Sect. 7. It ſhall be lawful for any perſon, who ſhall buy ſtock, to be accepted and paid for on a future day, and which ſhall be refuſed, or neglected to be transferred, to buy the like quantity of ſuch ſtock of any other perſon, at the current market-price; and to recover and receive, from the perſon who firſt contracted to deliver the ſame, the damage ſuſtained.

Sect. 8. All contracts which ſhall be made for the buying, or transferring, of ſtock, whereof the perſon, on whoſe behalf the contract ſhall be made to transfer the ſame, ſhall not, at the time of making ſuch contract, be actually poſſeſſed in his own right, or in the name of truſtees, ſhall be void; and every perſon on whoſe behalf, and with whoſe conſent, any contract ſhall be made to ſell ſtock, whereof ſuch perſon ſhall not be actually poſſeſſed in his own name, or in the name of truſtees, ſhall forfeit 500 l. And every broker, or agent, who ſhall negociate any ſuch contract, and ſhall know that the perſon on whoſe behalf ſuch contract ſhall be made, is not poſſeſſed of ſuch ſtock, ſhall forfeit 100 l.

Sect. 9. Every perſon, receiving brokerage in the buying or diſpoſing of ſtocks, ſhall keep a broker's book, in which he ſhall enter all contracts that he ſhall make, on the day of making ſuch contract, with the names of the principal parties; and ſuch broker, who ſhall not keep ſuch book, or ſhall wilfully omit to enter any ſuch contract, ſhall forfeit 50 l.

This act was made perpetual 10 Geo. II. cap. 8.

Pawn-Brokers. Theſe are perſons who keep ſhops, and lend money upon pledges to neceſſitous people, and moſt commonly at an exorbitant intereſt. They are more properly ſtiled pawn-takers, or tally-men.

Theſe are meant in the ſtatute 1 Jac. 1. cap. 21. ſect. 5. where it is declared, That the ſale of goods wrongfully taken to any broker or pawn-broker in London, Weſtminſter, Southwark, or within two miles of London, ſhall not alter the property.

And ſect. 7. If a broker, having received ſuch goods, ſhall not upon requeſt of the owner diſcover them, how and when he came by them, and to whom they are conveyed, he ſhall forfeit the double value thereof, to be recovered by action of debt, &c.

As it is thought that there are a great many abuſes committed by pawn-brokers, it was hoped, ſome few years ago, that the legiſlature would have made ſome act to regulate their trade, but this remains ſtill to be done. In Holland there are very good regulations concerning the pawn-broker's trade.

Brokers, are alſo thoſe who ſell old houſhold furniture, and wearing apparel. They are likewiſe called fripperers.

BROKERAGE, or BROKAGE, the fee or commiſſion paid to a broker for his trouble in negociating buſineſs between perſon and perſon. See Broker.

Brokerage. Thus they call at Bourdeaux a duty which is raiſed on all ſorts of merchandizes, of what nature ſoever they be, which are either imported or exported by ſea in that city; except, however, thoſe merchandizes, on which new duties are laid; on theſe no brokerage is raiſed, when it is ſaid in the decrees, edicts, or declarations, that thoſe merchandizes ſhall pay no other duties, but thoſe laid upon them in the ſaid decrees, edicts, or declarations.

This duty of brokerage is raiſed after two manners, either as it is fixed or ſettled, or by eſtimate or prizing.

The merchandizes on which that duty is ſettled, are as follow:

All ſorts of wines, which pay 30 ſols per ton.

Brandies, which pay 30 ſols per piece, containing 52 verges.

Vinegar, 30 ſols per ton.

Prunes, 15 ſols per piece, or hogſhead, weighing 6 hundred weight.

Honey, 30 ſols per tun.

Wheat, mixed corn, rye, millet, linſeed, muſtard-ſeed, walnuts, cheſnuts, 10 ſols per tun.

Galipot, or turpentine, 30 ſols per tun.

As for the duty by eſtimation or prize, it is paid for all the other merchandizes, at the rate of one per cent. of their value.

Beſides this, there is received, for brokerage duty, the firſt tun of freight on every ſhip that takes in it's cargo at Bourdeaux, which tun is commonly valued at eight livres on ſhips bound for any port of France, and at 10 livres on thoſe bound for foreign countries; or it is rated in proportion to the value of the cargo.

It muſt be obſerved, that though, in the fair-time, the merchants have the liberty to enter their merchandizes, without paying any local duty, yet they are never free from the brokerage duty.

Obſerve likewiſe, that no merchandize imported by land into Bourdeaux pays that duty of brokerage.

For the management of the office of brokerage duty there, of their two officers or commiſſioners, the one is the receiver, and the other comptroller. The former keeps two regiſters of receipts, and the other alſo three regiſters of comptrol.

The firſt regiſter ſerves to write down all the large acquittances of the ſhips which enter, either at what they call the Convoy (ſee Convoys), or at the Comptablie according to their number. They alſo ſet down, in that regiſter, the 8 or the 16 livres for freight.

In the ſecond regiſter are booked the duties of brokerage, either according as they are ſettled, or according to eſtimate, with the number of the ſhip's declaration.

The third regiſter is deſigned for entering the duties of brokerage paid for cargoes, where particulars are mentioned, and which are exported by ſea.

BRUNSWICK. The dutchy of Brunſwick, taken at large, includes the duchy of Hanover, the principality of Grubenhagen, and counties of Blakenburg and Rheinſtein; and is bounded on the ſouth by Thuringia and Heſſe Caſſel; on the weſt by the river Weſer, which parts it from the principality of Minden, and the counties of Lippe and Hoy; on the north by Lunenburg; and on the eaſt by Magdeburg, and the principalities of Halderſtadt and Anhalt. Here are iron mines in the mountains, one of which called Broeken, or Brockſberg, is reckoned the higheſt in Germany; at the bottom of which a ſalt-ſpring being diſcovered in the time of Julius duke of Brunſwick, he built a ſmall town for the workmen, called Julius-Hall, which is now grown rich and large, by their trade in ſalt, copper-kettles and pots, wire, &c.

Goslar is ſituate in a valley ſurrounded with mountains, in which are mines both of iron and ſilver, viz. thoſe of Steinberg, Hertzberg, Rammelſburg, Klockenburg, &c. The inhabitants are employed either in digging them, or ſmelting and refining, tempering, and vending the metals and minerals of all ſorts, that are dug out of them. The emperor Frederick II, Anno 1235, with conſent of the ſtates of the empire, granted to Otho I, duke of Brunſwick, the 10th of its mines to him, and his deſcendants.

Brunswick was once an imperial city, and a rich and powerful Hans-Town, but, after many ſtruggles being taken by the duke Rodolph Auguſtus, many of the merchants and tradeſmen removed to other places, and many of their noble houſes, warehouſes, and halls, are now empty, or converted to other uſes. The city, however, is ſtill rich and populous, though much ſhort of what it was, when free. Their chief trade is in tanning leather, and in brewing mum from a malt made of barley, with a ſmall mixture of wheat, well-hopped. There is one thin weak ſort for their common drink; but what they call ſhip-mum is ſcarce drinkable, 'till it has purged itſelf at ſea, by which they tranſport great quantities abroad. There is a ſet number of brewers, who have the privilege to make it from Michaelmas to Lady-day, but muſt not ſell any 'till it be old enough, leſt it ſhould loſe it's reputation. Butter and hops are likewiſe great commodities here, and they have a ſweet ſort of beer called brewhan. Betwixt the city of Brunſwick, Goſlar, and Thuringia, is the great mountain of Hartz, with the towns and rich mines of Rammelſburg, Wildman, Clauſthall, Lantenthall, Cellerfelt, or Zellerfield, and Grinde, or Grunde. Theſe belong in common to the families of Hanover and Brunſwick, but the greateſt ſhare to the former. There are above 110 that are called capital mines, ſeveral of which have many ſmaller ones belonging to them. Some of them are worked at the elector of Hanover's charge, and the reſt farmed out; ſo that they bring in a great revenue, 900,000 dollars having been coined in one year, from that of Clauſthall alone; and the adjacent country is well ſtored with wood for working them. They all lie together, according to Moll, in the north eaſt corner of Grubenhagen, on the borders of the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim. The mines of Rammelſburg, a high mountain near the city of Goſlar, 43 miles ſouth eaſt from Hanover, were diſcovered in the year 972, by one Ramme, whoſe horſe's foot turning up a piece of ore, as he was hunting, the duke Otho I. got a company of Franks, who underſtood minerals, to refine the metal, from whom the neighbouring town of Frankenburg had it's name. The miners increaſing, they found out that of Wildman in 1045, and that of Zellerfield, which is the chief, in 1070. Here the overſeer of the mines keeps his court, and pays the workmen every Saturday. The chief minerals in theſe mines are ſilver, lead, and two ſorts of copper; one melted from the ore, and the other made by vitriol water, in which, with great art, it is ſaid, they ſteep great plates of iron in troughs. They find many

many other profitable minerals here, though the nauſeous ſmells are often fatal to the workmen; as, 1. Grey vitriol. 2. The ink-ſtone of many colours; from which two, brayed and boiled together, is made green vitriol. 3. Another vitriol, which grows like icicles, and is uſed without any further cleanſing. 4. Blue vitriol from copper ore. 5. White vitriol from lead ore. 6. Miſy, of the nature and colour of Brimſtone. 7. Brimſtone from a peculiar ſort of ore, from whence drop the flores ſulphuris, which uſually coagulate like icicles.

BRUNSWICK-LUNENBURG. The dominions of this electorate may be laid out after the following manner, under theſe heads, viz.

The principality of Grubenhagen.
The duchy of Hanover, or Clanenburg.
The duchy of Lunenburg.
The duchy of Saxe Lawenburg.
The duchy of Bremen, including Verden.
The county of Hoya.
The county of Diepholt.

The revenues of the elector riſe, 1. From the ſalt-pits, or ſprings that riſe within the walls of Lunenburg. 2. From taxes on land, cattle, merchandize, public houſes and inns. 3. The greateſt revenues ariſe from the rich mines of ſilver, iron, and copper. The mines of Claufthall, with thoſe of St. Andrew and Allena, yield near 200,000 l. a year; but whether this computation is to be underſtood as clear of all charges, is not ſpecified: ſo that, upon the whole, this elector's revenue is calculated to amount to at leaſt 400,000 l. a year.

1. The principality of GRUBENHAGEN, is interſected in two parts by the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim: that on the eaſt ſide is bounded on the north by the duchy of Wolfembuttle; on the weſt by Hildeſheim; on the eaſt by Hartz foreſt; and on the ſouth by Eisfeld. The weſt part is alſo bounded on the north by Wolfembuttle; on the ſouth by Oberwaldt; and both on the eaſt and weſt by Hildeſheim. It's ſoil is very barren, moſt of it's treaſure being hidden under-ground; eſpecially in the eaſt part, where are moſt of the elector's mines of ſilver, copper, and lead; beſides the many ſorts of minerals. The eaſt part is generally inhabited by miners.

ANDREASBERG is famous for it's rich mines of iron.

EYMBECK drives a conſiderable trade in beer, which is in great requeſt; but was more ſo, before the ſweet malt liquor, called the brewhan, came ſo much in vogue.

2. The duchy of HANOVER has Grubenhagen, or that which Moll calls Brunſwick-Lunenburg, on the ſouth; Lunenburg-Zell on the north; the county of Schawenburg on the weſt; and the duchy of Brunſwick Wolfembuttle, and the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim on the eaſt. 'Tis more fruitful than the country on the ſouth ſide of it, has fine meadows and fields, breeds excellent horſes, and affords ſheep and wool for export, and ſalt and tobacco ſufficient for home conſumption.

At HANOVER are four fairs a year, much frequented by foreigners.

It was once a free imperial city, and a Hans-Town, when it had a flouriſhing commerce; but it's chief trade now is in that ſweet, but muddy liquor, called brewhan, which they ſend in great quantities to the neighbouring towns and villages.

Though the citizens of HAMELEN have the conveniency of commerce by the river Weſer, yet agriculture is the chief part of their employment and ſubſiſtence.

3. The duchy of BRUNSWICK-LUNENBURG, in which Zell is comprehended, and therefore called Lunenburg-Zell, has the dominions of Brandenburg and Mecklenburg on the eaſt; the county of Hoye, with the duchies of Bremen and Verden, on the weſt; the territories of Lubeck and Hamburgh, and the duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg, on the north; the duchy of Brunſwick, the biſhoprick of Hildeſheim, and the duchy of Calenburg on the ſouth. This duchy is for the moſt part a barren, ſandy deſert, and very thinly inhabited. It abounds with woods and foreſts, where are produced a great quantity of good fir, oak, and elm, which they ſell to the Hamburghers and the Dutch, together with wild ſwine, and all ſorts of deer, and other veniſon, of which there's a great plenty. A great part of it conſiſts of vaſt heaths and waſtes, yet in the barren parts the inhabitants keep bees, and make great profit of their honey and wax.

From ZELL a trade is carried on to Bremen, by the river Aller. The country round it abounds with woods and foreſts, and the product is the ſame with that of the duchy of Lunenburg.

WALSTRODE is a conſiderable town, with a good trade in honey, wax, wool, and beer.

HARBURG has great privileges, is populous, and enjoys a pretty good trade, having as convenient a ſituation for it as Hamburgh, with a tolerable harbour. 'Tis a great thoroughfare from that city to the ſouthern provinces.

LUNENBURG was formerly one of the Hans-Towns, and an imperial city. It's chief trade is in ſalt made from ſprings, which riſe within the walls. The water is greeniſh, but a mixture of lead purifies it, and makes it preferable to that of all other ſalt ſprings. Their ſalt-houſes are fenced, and conſtantly guarded, it being the main ſupport of the city, a conſiderable branch of the elector's revenue, and a conſtant employment for the poor. The ſalt is the beſt in Germany for colour and taſte, and therefore much of it is exported. Theſe ſalt-works are charged with penſions, payable to thoſe in office, to the clergy, and to ſchool-maſters.

SCHAEKENBURG is a large trading town at the conflux of the Elbe and the Weckt, or Beſſe.

4. The duchy of SAXE LAWENBURG lies on the north and ſouth banks of the Elbe, between Holſtein on the weſt and north; Mecklenburgh on the eaſt; and Lunenburg on the ſouth. It abounds in paſture and good cattle; is well ſupplied with wood and water, and has ſome ſmall, but populous, trading towns on the Elbe, beſides it's capital.

LAWENBURG is well ſituated for trade, only it is all engroſſed by Hamburgh.

N. B. The reſt of the dominions of this electorate, viz. the duchy of Bremen, Verden, the county of Hoya, and the county of Diepholt, will fall in under their proper heads, viz. BREMEN, and WESTPHALIA. See GERMANY, and HANOVER.

BUBBLE, a cant term, given to a kind of projects for raiſing money on imaginary grounds, much practiſed in France and England about the years 1719, 1720, and 1721.

The pretence of theſe ſchemes was the raiſing a capital for retrieving, ſetting on foot, or carrying on ſome promiſing and uſeful branch of trade, manufacture, machinery, or the like. To this end, propoſals were made out, ſhewing the advantages to be derived from the undertaking, and inviting perſons to be engaged in it. The ſum neceſſary to manage the affair, together with the profits expected from it, were divided into ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by any diſpoſed to adventure therein.

The ſurprizing riſe of the South Sea ſtock in the city of London, in the year 1720, gave birth to theſe projects: for the firſt deſigners of them gave out theſe propoſals, with the hopes of raiſing a ſum, which they intended privately to be laid out in South Sea ſtock, expecting by the riſe thereof to refund the ſubſcribers money, with a great gain to themſelves. Others, improving the hint, opened their deſigns with the ſame plauſible pretences, but abſolutely with intent to defraud the adventurers of their ſubſcription-money, without the leaſt view to reſtitution.

There was a third kind ſomewhat different: the projectors of theſe, to give the thing a better colour, propoſed to have books opened, and ſubſcriptions taken at ſome time to come, as ſoon as the affair ſhould be ripe for execution, and for dividing into ſhares; but, in the mean time, took money by way of premium, to intitle perſons to be admitted ſubſcribers, when the matter was to be laid open. Thus ſeveral thouſands of ſhares were beſpoke in a day, and premiums from one ſhilling to ſome pounds paid thereon, which the projectors very honeſtly put into their own pockets.

There were many and various ſorts of theſe bubbles, and the nature of them was very extraordinary. Some of them were authorized by patents: in others, the projectors and proprietors were formed into corporations, ſome for fiſheries, ſome for inſurances, ſome for mining, &c. Nay, ſuch was the frenzy of the times, that there were bubbles for cleaning the ſtreets, others for furniſhing ſhoes, others for ſtockings, others for phyſic, others for the maintenance of baſtard children; others for the buying bad titles, others for the lending money, &c. and thus people of all conditions became the eaſy dupes of theſe ſharping projectors. See the articles ACTION, COMPANIES, PROJECTOR, STOCKJOBBING.

REMARKS.

Bubbles, by which the public have been tricked and deceived, are of two kinds, viz. 1. Thoſe which we may properly enough term trading-bubbles. And, 2. Stock, or fund-bubbles. The former have been of various kinds, and the latter at different times; as in France and England in 1719 and 1720, and when any remarkable alterations have been made, with regard to the property of our monied corporations.

In order to give the more ſpecious colouring to trading-bubbles, they have been generally undertaken by ſuch crafty and deſigning fellows, who have had art enough to magnify the imaginary gain of their projects, with a view to obtain large ſubſcriptions before-hand, that a few of the cunning ones may ſuddenly grow immenſely rich, at the expence, and by the unwarineſs of numbers, who mean only to make a reaſonable advantage of their money, rather than let it lie dead.

As numbers have been egregiouſly duped and impoſed on, and many families ruined and undone by trading ſchemes, that have no foundation but in deceit and villainy, it may be uſeful, eſpecially to the growing and unexperienced generation, to throw ſome cautions in their way, with reſpect to public impoſitions of this kind.

Many of theſe nefarious deſigns have been carried on by companies, ſuch as the York Buildings, charitable Corporation, and too many others, as will fully appear in the ſequel of this work. I ſhall make a few obſervations, firſt upon trading bubbles, to prevent the public being impoſed on hereafter.

after. Let the nature and extent of the commerce propoſed be maturely weighed, as whether it will admit of the capital ſtock required, and whether leſs would not anſwer the purpoſes, and yet yield the adventurers only a reaſonable gain; whether the branch of trade is not already over-done, either among ourſelves, or by other nations; whether the public encouragement obtained is adequate to the buſineſs propoſed; and whether it ſo interferes with other branches which have a connection therewith, that it's conſtitution can be but of ſhort duration; whether there are not ſome latent ſiniſter views in the acting junto, either to make a jobb of their ſcheme; or by drawing in numbers into their ſubſcription at one rate, with deſign at the critical time, when they have effectually blinded their encouragers, to diſpoſe of their ſhares at an extravagant real advantage, and leave the imaginary fairy treaſure in the hands of the dupes; whether the management of the buſineſs lies in the hands of men of diſcernment as well as worth and honour, or whether the leading cabal may not conſiſt only of a few rotten conductors, who gloſs over their proceedings with equipage and pageantry, and make uſe of a borrowed property of others, in order to raiſe a real one to themſelves; whether many wiſe, upright, and opulent gentlemen may not be made tools of to raiſe the credit of a chimera, and become the bubble of bubbles, as well as the innocent widow and the orphan, and numberleſs others who have but ſmall fortunes, whereon to ſubſiſt; whether ſuch arts may not be made uſe of in the public news-papers, as even to deceive the moſt circumſpect as well as the credulous; whether authentic accounts of the profits and loſſes of any public enterprizes ſhould not be made public, from time to time, for the ſatisfaction of the proprietors, and not kept ſecret only, in the hands of a few deſigning managers; whether the choice of directors ought not to be ſo determined by private ballot, as that it may not be known for whom the electors vote; and be made annually, and by liſts of the proprietors, not by liſts formed by the managers themſelves, ſo as that the change of hands may go only in a round of thoſe who are in the ſecret to ——?

Theſe, 'tis humbly preſumed, are ſome of thoſe prudential precautions that are requiſite to be taken by the public, when great ſums of money are to be raiſed to proſecute any public ſchemes whatever, and what every honeſt man will readily acquieſce in.—There is, indeed, one particular, which I had forgot to intimate; though I judge it not leſs eſſentially neceſſary than any that has been ſuggeſted.—I mean, the neceſſity of proprietors in general making themſelves thoroughly acquainted, from time to time, with the true ſtate of the affairs of companies; and that men of the beſt ſenſe among them, and who never intend to act in the management, ſhould pretty conſtantly attend the public buſineſs, and ſcrutinize into all tranſactions.——To which end, I would moſt humbly ſubmit to conſideration, That gentlemen of the beſt education, and of the moſt knowledge of the world, ſhould make themſelves complete accountants; otherwiſe, how is it poſſible, that they ſhould be capable of examining into the ſtate of the accounts of public corporations? That I may not be miſunderſtood, I would deſire to obſerve, for the ſake of the private gentleman, as well as others, how far I judge this kind of knowledge neceſſary. A knowledge and readineſs in numerical computation is not the only qualification; for, beſides that, the thorough ſkill in the method of account-keeping, called debtor and creditor, by the way of charge and diſcharge, is indiſpenſably requiſite; this art being applicable to the tranſactions of public companies, as well as to the affairs of private gentlemen, merchants and other traders. The method of account-keeping by public companies, as well as the public offices, differs, indeed, from that uſed by merchants; but, though there is a difference in the form, there is none in the eſſence; a perſon who is grounded in the one, will apply it to the other eaſily, and be enabled to detect all fallacies, however ſubtilly diſguiſed.

The number of the books, in the office of the accountants, will multiply, according to the nature of the company's tranſactions; but, let them be ever ſo numerous, they are all of them reducible to a plain ledger (as I have ſhewn, under article BOOK-KEEPING, and BOOKS of Merchants) which, being always poſted up, will exhibit the true ſtate of the affairs of the greateſt corporations, as familiarly as that of private men. And, why ſhould not the ledger, and, indeed, all the other accounts of bodies corporate, be fairly laid before their general courts? Nay, why ſhould not every proprietor, who is intereſted to a certain degree, have the liberty of inſpecting the books at certain ſtated times, if not at all times? By this means, the man of penetration would be able to diſcern how the public buſineſs went on, and would be capable of preparing himſelf to ſpeak to the intereſt of ſocieties at their general courts; and, who can do that to good purpoſe, without a competent knowledge in the companies negociations? I muſt confeſs, that I have not diſcernment enough to diſcover, why the books and accounts of trading ſocieties, any more than thoſe of the public offices, where the ſtate of the national revenue is regiſtered, ſhould be kept private, when the intereſt of the public requires otherwiſe?

Where the tranſactions of great bodies are kept as they ought to be, by variety of chief officers, and their underling clerks, the various officers and clerks are ſuch checks upon each other, that it is extremely difficult, though not impoſſible, as is known from experience, for frauds to be committed by theſe officers.—Theſe, however, have but proved trifling in compariſon to thoſe which have been committed, by the mal-adminiſtration of the head officers; by thoſe who have had the chief, and, as it were, the ſole and uncontroulable direction and government of great bodies. Wherefore, the great lines of conduct are what the proprietors ſhould vigilantly attend to.

To enable the proprietors in general to make a right judgment of the ſtate of their affairs, why ſhould not their accounts be annually made public, that adventurers may be convinced, what dividend may, and what not be afforded, conſiſtent with the real proſperity of the corporation? Would not this be one way to prevent the public being made a bubble of?

The other ſpecies of bubbling ariſes from the nature of our national debts; for, if between eighty and ninety millions of money are ſo tied up, as to remain untranſferable, unnegociable, and not to change hands, who could ever be induced to lend the government money upon the moſt preſſing emergency, even in conſideration of the largeſt intereſt?

Though parliamentary ſecurity gives the real value to the national debt, or the public funds, they would be like the miſer's treaſure, uſeleſs to the poſſeſſor; or like the undiſcovered riches of the earth, did not circulation and credit ſet a market price upon them. As the beſt things may, ſo has the liberty of circulating our funds been greatly abuſed; nor can any thing, I am afraid, ever effectually prevent theſe general abuſes, while our national incumbrances continue, without doing a greater public injury, than can be ſuſtained by the preſent methods of circulation of the funds.

But, although a public miſchief is not to be abſolutely prevented, a private one, in a great meaſure, may, by a proper knowledge, and a competent judgment, to make a ſeaſonable uſe of that knowledge.

But this can only be obtained by thoſe, who duly attend to the tranſactions of the great corporations, and from time to time, make proper momento's of the ſtate of their affairs. The bulk of the public creditors are widows and orphans, and other ladies and gentlemen who cannot be ſuppoſed to have any knowledge in public buſineſs. Who then may we rely upon to watch over the conduct of great companies? To put the ſole confidence in directors, no one will contend for, who is at all acquainted with what is paſt. Who then is ſo fit to take care of public property, as the public proprietors themſelves? Such among theſe, who are of the beſt abilities without doors, ſhould attend to the conduct of thoſe within; ſhould call for accounts and vouchers at their general courts, and go to the root of their affairs, before ſchemes can be formed and executed to the public detriment. This vigilant inſpection, this conſtant ſcrutiny of the moſt judicious proprietors, who have no ſhare in the direction of public companies, is certainly the way to prevent thoſe calamities, which have been ſo often experienced. That gentlemen may not be deterred from duly entering into enquiries of this kind, we ſhall, in it's place, endeavour, to the beſt of our abilities, to ſet the nature, the conſtitution, and the tranſactions of theſe corporations in a true light, in order to prevent the creditors of the public, as well as the proprietors of trading bodies, from being impoſed upon hereafter.

There is another kind of impoſition, to which too many of the proprietors of our public funds are daily liable, not from any malverſation in thoſe, whom they have entruſted with the management of their affairs, but from their own voluntary act. I mean, their jobbing in the funds, for the ſake of more gain than their intereſt or dividends.

Would the proprietors pleaſe to conſider, how few, how very few, in compariſon to their great number, there are, who have, or can have, a competent intelligence and ſagacity to trade in the ſtocks to advantage, they would not be ſo eaſily made tools of upon thoſe occaſions as they are. Thoſe who make ſtock-dealing their employment, and lie in wait to take advantage of the innocent, the unwary, and ignorant, make it their buſineſs to get ſuch intelligence, as will anſwer their end, either by buying or ſelling ſtocks: and, if ſuch can obtain no real intelligence, to occaſion a fluctuation in the ſtocks, they make no great difficulty to invent ſuch as will anſwer their purpoſe. To which end, 'tis common to propagate one thing in the city, and whiſper another at St James's, and write different from either both at home and abroad. Have we not known from critical conjunctures, that letters have been forged as coming from foreign correſpondents, with intelligence only to raiſe or fall ſtocks, according to the intention of the forgers? Theſe are ſome of the artifices of money-jobbers; who knowing there is not one in a thouſand among the public creditors, that are able to ſee through their fineſſes, or indeed have either opportunity or diſcernment to penetrate them, they make a prey of the leſs knowing, by alarming their fears, or feeding their hopes. Whereas, were the public creditors more ſteady, and leſs intimi-

intimidated for fear of loſs, or elated with a view of gain, by the riſe or fall of ſtocks, they could never be made ſuch bubbles of, as they almoſt daily are: and, 'tis great weakneſs for thoſe, who have no opportunity of intelligence which may be relied on, to be ſtock-dabblers, or actuated to buy or ſell by the nod, the wink, or any other inſinuation of a broker, for the ſake of his commiſſion.

Theſe, I fear, are not the only evils neceſſarily attendant upon our national incumbrances; for, while men's minds are engaged in the ſhuffling of property from hand to hand among ourſelves only, which makes us never the richer, with all the buſtle of theſe tranſactions, they neglect ſolid and uſeful commerce, which alone can make the nation really richer. However wealthy the greateſt of theſe fund-jobbers may be, and however much he may plume himſelf upon his treaſure, it is the direct way to render all his monied property of little worth; for, the more ſtock-jobbing prevails by latent artifices, and the longer the public tranquillity ſhall continue, the higher will the premiums riſe: and will not this, has it not ever given occaſion to the reduction of their intereſt; and is there no danger, that they may be actuated to jobb with their ſtocks, 'till they themſelves become the inſtruments of ſo reducing their intereſt, that their principal will be worth nothing? Perhaps they may flatter themſelves with the trite notion, that, the lower their intereſt is, the higher will the price of their lands be: but, when money ſhall fetch little or no intereſt, what land will they be able to purchaſe with it?

This may deſerve the ſerious conſideration of the national creditors. But ſtock-jobbing, or ſtock-bubbling, if you pleaſe, ſeems, at preſent, to be brought to a kind of ſcience. The gameſters meet in Exchange-alley, and, juſt as if they were at box and dice, South-Sea, or this or the other ſtock is the main, which brings in all the bites to ſet high; and, when the cullies that are not in the ſecret throw at all, they commonly throw out and loſe the box, which the bites take, and the ſetters go round, laying moſt extravagant odds, upon the ſucceſs; but they cog the dice, and nick the main, and ſo ſweep away all the caſh. Does this kind of traffic enrich the nation? Will ſuch arts tend ever to realize the property of the public creditors? I wiſh they would conſider their own intereſt better, as well as that of the kingdom; for theſe, and other ſuch like meaſures, I am perſuaded, will ſoon tend to annihilate all their property.

For what's the worth of any thing?
But juſt as much as it will bring.

'Tis for the intereſt of the public creditors, that they ſhould be faithfully apprized of their preſent ſituation; and what is likely to be the fate of their poſterity, ſo far as it reſpects their monied properties. This I ſhall endeavour to do with all impartiality, and hope to convince them, that nothing can give ſolid treaſure to the nation, and render their properties permanently ſecure to their poſterity, but their encouragement of commerce, and contempt of ſtock-jobbing; that nothing can more effectually prevent their progeny being made the tools and bubbles of deſigning men, and make them independent, than to train up, eſpecially the younger branches of their families, to commerce, and not to deſpiſe that whereby their anceſtors acquired both their landed and monied eſtates. See the articles COMPANY, PUBLIC CREDIT, FUNDS, MONEY, ACTIONS, INTEREST of MONEY, MERCHANTS.

BUCCANEER, one who dries and ſmokes fleſh or fiſh, after the manner of the Americans. That name is particularly given to the French inhabitants of the iſland of St Domingo, whoſe whole employment is to hunt bulls or wild boars, in order to ſell the hides of the former, and the fleſh of the latter. Sometimes the word buccaneer ſignifies alſo thoſe famous adventurers of all the nations in Europe, who join together to make war againſt the Spaniards of America; and, under that name, their hiſtory has been publiſhed, in the year 1686, by Alexander Oliver Oexemelia. But we ſhall only ſpeak in this place of the buccaneers of St Domingo, and almoſt ſolely with regard to their trade.

Of the French buccaneers of St Domingo.

The French buccaneers eſtabliſhed in St Domingo are of two ſorts. The buccaneers ox-hunters, or rather hunters of bulls and cows, and the buccaneers boar-hunters, who are ſimply called hunters, though it ſeems that ſuch a name be leſs proper to them, than to the former, ſince the latter ſmoke and dry the fleſh of the wild boars, which is properly called buccaneering, whereas the former prepare only the hides, which is done without buccaneering.

As they both wear the ſame arms and the ſame dreſs, have the ſame followers or attendants, and the ſame packs of hounds, and enter into the ſame fellowſhips amongſt themſelves, we ſhall not ſpeak of them ſeparately, 'till we have given an account of what is common to both.

The chief part of the buccaneers equipage is a pack of 25 or 30 hounds, among which they have one or two ſetters. The price of theſe dogs, when the buccaneers ſell them amongſt themſelves, is about 6 crowns, or 18 livres.

Their arms and ammunition, both for war and the chace, (for they muſt always be prepared for the former, as well as for the latter, becauſe of the neighbourhood of the Spaniards, their ſworn enemies) are a gun four feet long, and of a bore proper for balls of 16 in the pound; 12 or 15 pounds of powder, kept in gourds well cloſed with wax; a proportionable quantity of ſhot, and two knives in one caſe, to finiſh killing the beaſt, after it is hunted down, to ſkin it, and cut it up. They have their guns from Dieppe and Nantes, and their powder from Cherbourg in Lower Normandy.

Their whole dreſs conſiſts in two ſhirts, a pair of breeches, and a kind of linnen frock, or waiſtcoat, and a cloth cap, or a hat without a brim, except before; their ſhoes are made of boar's, or of ox hides, being themſelves the tanners to the leather, and the ſhoemakers to make the ſhoes.

Laſtly, one of the chief parts of the buccaneers furniture, which they never forget, and which is, perhaps, the moſt neceſſary, is a ſmall tent, of very fine linnen, under which they paſs the nights, ſheltered from the muſkatoes, which may be looked upon as one of the plagues peculiar to South America, ſo much they abound there, and ſo troubleſome and inſufferable is their ſting. The cloth of which thoſe tents are made is ſo fine, that, after they have twiſted it, they hang over one ſhoulder, whence it hangs by their ſide, in the form of a bandaleer.

Each buccaneer has his mate, that is to ſay, a companion, or comrade, with whom he is in partnerſhip of every thing, of dogs, of ſervants, of merchandizes, &c. But, beſides this partnerſhip, which is, in a manner, for life, they alſo enter into other, compoſed of more perſons; for every hunting party they undertake, joining 10 or 12 together, not for the profit, every one hunting for his own private account, but that they may be in a condition to defend themſelves againſt the Spaniards, when they apprehend any danger of being aſſaulted.

All that we have obſerved relates both to the ox-hunters and to the boar-hunters. What is proper to each of them in particular ſhall be next deſcribed.

Buccaneers ox-hunters.

When the buccaneers, who have aſſociated themſelves together, in order to go a bull-hunting, are arrived at the place where they have agreed to hunt, if they be to continue there ſome time, they build little huts, with palmetto leaves, which the Americans call ajoupas, in which they pitch their tents. At break of day every one leaves his hut, and goes to what place he pleaſes, giving notice of it however to one another, that they may anſwer each other in caſe of an alarm, or unexpected attack.

In this hunting-march the maſter walks before the ſervants, and all the dogs follow in a file, except the ſetting-dog, which is to find out the bull, and, for that reaſon, is at the head of all. As ſoon as the beaſt is diſcovered, the ſetting-dog gives notice of it, by barking two or three times, by which the other dogs are animated, who thereupon run after the chace, being followed by the maſter and ſervants, who very often keep pace with the dogs.

At the animal's approach, they all ſhelter themſelves, if they can, behind ſome large tree, to avoid the fury of the bull, in caſe the maſter, who ſhoots firſt, does not lay the beaſt proſtrate; for there is nothing more terrible than one of theſe animals when wounded. If the creature falls down, the neareſt to it runs and ham-ſtrings it immediately, leſt it ſhould riſe again; after which the maſter takes out and breaks the four large bones, and ſucks the marrow quite hot, which ſerves him for a breakfaſt: he alſo gives a piece of fleſh to his ſetting-dog, but hinders the other hounds from taſting any 'till the laſt beaſt be killed, leſt it ſhould ſlacken their ardour for their chace.

A ſervant ſtays to finiſh flaying the beaſt, whoſe hide he carries to the hut, or to ſome other place appointed by his maſter, taking alſo ſometimes part of the fleſh, if it be a cow they killed, eſpecially the udders, which they reckon a delicate morſel, and which the ſervant takes care to dreſs againſt the company comes back from the chace, which commonly does not finiſh till every one, and even the maſter himſelf, be loaded with a hide, and ſometimes with two, if they be not too large and heavy.

If, on their return, they happen to meet with any beaſt, they throw down their burden; and, if they kill it, they flay it, and hang the hide on a tree, to hinder the wild dogs from ſpoiling it, and ſend afterwards a ſervant to fetch it.

Being arrived at their hut, every one ſpreads a hide on the ground, and faſtens it thereto, with 64 wooden pegs, the inner part of the hide outward, which they rub with ſalt and aſhes, well beaten together, to dry it the ſooner, which is commonly done in a very few days.

This work being done, they eat what the firſt ſervant dreſſed, a palmetto leaf ſerving both for diſh and plates, and a piece of ſharpened wood ſerving for a fork; to whet their appetite, which though they do not want, they ſeaſon their meat with a ſauce, which they call pimentade; it is made with the melted fat ſkimmed from the pot where the meat is boiled,

boiled, ſeaſoned with ſome lemon-juice, and a little of that ſort of pepper which is called pimento, or Guinea pepper. It is this hunting of the buccaneers, which they renew every day, and which continues the whole year, that furniſhes France with the fineſt hides brought from America.

The buccaneers put the hides in packs, which they call loads, mixing together hides of full-grown bulls, of young bullocks, and of cows.

Each of theſe loads is compoſed of two bull-hides, or of an equivalent, that is to ſay, either of two real bull-hides, or of one bull-hide and two cow-hides; or of four cow-hides; or of three young bullock's hides: three bullock's hides being reckoned equivalent to two full-grown bull's hides, and two cow's hides equivalent to one bull's hide. Theſe bulls they commonly call oxen in France, though they be not gelt.

Each load is commonly ſold for ſix pieces of eight rials, which is a Spaniſh coin, the French coin being but little current, or not at all, in the iſland of St Domingo.

Buccaneers wild boar-hunters.

Theſe buccaneers hunt wild boars after the ſame manner as thoſe we have juſt now mentioned hunt bulls; they have, as we have already obſerved, the ſame accoutrements, the ſame dogs, the ſame arms, the ſame wearing apparel: the only difference conſiſts in the animals they hunt, and the manner of dreſſing the fleſh of the wild boars which they kill, and in the trade they make of it.

On their return from the chace, each carries his boar to the hut, where, after flaying it, and taking out all the bones, ſo as there may remain nothing but the fleſh, they cut it all into narrow pieces, according to the ſize of the beaſt, or the parts they cut.

The fleſh being thus cut, and placed regularly upon palmetto leaves, they ſprinkle very ſmall ſalt over it, and, after it has taken ſalt, and caſt the brine, which requires but 10 or 12 hours, they carry it to the buccan, where they ſmoke it, after the manner we ſhall deſcribe hereafter. They commonly uſe the very bones of the beaſts they have killed, not only to increaſe the ſmoke, but alſo becauſe it has been obſerved that the ſmoke of thoſe bones (on account of the volatile ſalts which exhale from the bones) renders the meat more ſightly, and gives it a much better reliſh than any other material that might be uſed to fill the buccan with ſmoke.

This meat, coming from the buccan, is equally pleaſing both to the eye and to the taſte, yielding a very agreeable ſmell, and being of a freſh colour, which whets the appetite: ſo that many people eat it without any other dreſſing, and find it more ſavoury than when it is any other way prepared. It is true, indeed, that buccaned meat does not continue long in that ſtate of perfection and goodneſs; and even after ſix months time it dries to that degree, that it has no longer any but a ſharp taſte, and ſavours of nothing but ſalt.

This meat is ſold by the bundle, or pack, weighing commonly 60 pounds, at the rate of ſix pieces of eight per pack. The palmetto leaves ſerve to pack it up in, but their weight is deducted, ſo that there muſt be in each pack 60 pounds of net fleſh.

Theſe buccaneers have alſo a great trade of the lard of boars, which they melt, and gather in large pots, which they call potiches. This lard, which is called mantegua, is alſo ſold for about eight pieces of eight per pot.

There is a great trade, and a great conſumption, of each of theſe merchandizes in the French ſettlements of the iſland of St Domingo, and in thoſe of Tortuga: beſides which, they ſend great quantities of them to the Antilles, and even into the continent of French America. There is alſo a great deal of it ſold for the ſupport of the crews of the ſhips that come from France for trading, or which the privateers of Tortuga fit out, for cruizing againſt the Spaniards.

Spaniſh buccaneers.

The Spaniards, who have large ſettlements in the iſland of St Domingo, have alſo their buccaneers there, whom they call matadores, or monteros. Their chace has ſomething noble, which ſavours of the Spaniſh pride: the huntſman, being on horſeback, uſes the lance to ſtrike the bull, thinking it beneath his courage to ſhoot him at a diſtance.

When the ſervants, who are on foot, have diſcovered the beaſt, and, with their dogs, have drove it into ſome ſavannah, or meadow, in which the maſter waits for them on horſeback, armed with two lances, that matadore goes and hamſtrings it with the firſt lance, the head of which is made like a creſcent, or half-moon, and extremely ſharp, and kills it afterwards with the other lance, which is a common one.

This chace is very agreeable, the huntſman, making commonly, in order to attack the bull, the ſame turns, and the ſame ceremonies, which are practiſed in thoſe feſtivals ſo famous in Spain, wherein the greateſt lords expoſe themſelves ſometimes to the view of the people, to make them admire their intrepidity and their dexterity, in attacking thoſe furious animals: but then it is a very dangerous chace, thoſe bulls in their fury running often directly againſt the huntſman, who may think himſelf very happy if he comes off only with the loſs of his horſe, and if he is not himſelf mortally wounded.

The Spaniards dreſs their hides like the French, who have learnt it from them; and theſe hides being carried to the Havannah, a famous harbour in the iſland of Cuba, are part of the trade of that celebrated town. The flota and the galleons ſcarce ever fail touching there, on their return from Vera Cruz, and Porto-Bello, and load there thoſe hides, which they carry into Spain, where they are ſold for Havannah hides, the moſt eſteemed of all thoſe that are brought from America into Europe.

The buccan is the name they give to the place where they ſmoke the fleſh and fiſh, after the manner of the ſavages. It is a lodge, or hut, about 25 or 30 feet in circumference, all ſurrounded and covered with palmetto leaves.

In the middle of this hut, which has no other opening but the door, there is a large grid-iron, made of perches of wood, as thick as one's wriſt, and ſeven or eight feet long, which, being put croſs-ways, leave openings half a foot ſquare.

Large forked ſtakes, two feet high, ſupport that kind of grid-iron, from diſtance to diſtance, and raiſe it above ground, that wood, or other combuſtible matters, may be kindled under it, which produce more ſmoke then heat. Over this machine, which the Indians call barbucoa, they put the fiſh, or fleſh, which they would buccaneer.

The Caraibes or Caribbees, of the Antilles, and other Indian anthropophagi, or men-eaters (if any ſuch there be) of the continent of America, of whom the Europeans learnt the art of buccaneering fleſh and fiſh which they would preſerve or keep, have, they ſay, the cruel cuſtom of buccaneering men, as well as beaſts: and thus they ſmoke and roaſt the limbs which they cut from the bodies of the priſoners they make in war, on which they afterwards abominably feaſt; as cannot be read without horrour in the accounts, both ancient and modern, which we have of America, and of the cuſtoms and manners of it's original inhabitants.

But then, it muſt be obſerved, that, if ever they eat any human fleſh, it is only that of their enemies, taken in war, and out of a kind of revenge, and by way of triumph. For, as our ingenious voyager, Dampier, ſomewhere obſerves, there is no nation upon earth but to whom Providence has afforded ſufficient food, without being obliged to feed upon creatures of the ſame ſpecies with themſelves.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE is ſituate almoſt in the center of England. It is divided, on the ſouth, from Berkſhire by the Thames; and is bounded on the weſt by Oxfordſhire; on the north with Northamptonſhire; and, on the eaſt, with Bedfordſhire, Hertfordſhire, and Middleſex. The chief manufactures of this ſhire are paper and bone-lace, the latter of which is little inferior to that of Flanders.

CHIPPING-WYCOMB is reckoned one of the greateſt corn-markets in this part of England. There are ſeveral mills near it, both for corn and paper. After the wheat is ground, and dreſſed at the former, it is ſent to Marlow, and put on board the barges for London.

GREAT MARLOW. The chief manufacture of it is bone-lace; but it is of much more account for the navigation carried on by the Thames, which brings goods hither from the neighbouring towns, eſpecially great quantities of malt and meal from High Wycomb, and of beech from ſeveral parts of the country, which abounds with that wood more than any other country in England; and for the ſeveral corn and paper-mills in that neighbourhood, particularly on the little river Loddon, and three remarkable ones called the Temple-Mills, or the braſs-mills, for making Biſtram-Abbey battery-work, viz. braſs kettles, pans, &c. beſides a mill for making thimbles, and another for preſſing oil from rape and flax-ſeed.

OULNEY is a little town, noted for the manufacture of bone-lace, on the weſt ſide of the river Ouſe.

BUCKRAM, a ſort of coarſe cloth, made of hemp, gummed, calendered, and dyed ſeveral colours. It is put into thoſe places of the lining of a garment which one would have ſtiff, and to keep their forms. It is alſo uſed in the bodies of women's gowns; and it often ſerves to make wrappers, to cover, or wrap up cloths, ſerges, and ſuch other merchandizes in, to preſerve them, and keep them from the duſt, and their colours from fading.

Buckrams are ſold wholeſale by the dozen of ſmall pieces, or remnants, each about four ells long, and broad according to the pieces from which they were cut. Sometimes they uſe new pieces of linnen cloth to make buckrams of; but moſt commonly old ſheets, and old pieces of ſails. They make a great many at Paris, and they get, alſo, vaſt quantities from Normandy, particularly from Caen, Roan, and Alençon.

BUDZIACK TARTARY, ſituated on the rivers Neiſter, Bog, and Nieper, having Poland and Ruſſia on the north; Little Tartary on the eaſt; the black ſea on the ſouth; and Beſſarabia on the weſt; ſubject to the Turks. The chief town is Oczakow, and their chief traffic is that of making daily excurſions into the neighbouring plains, to ſteal Chriſtians, and ſell them for ſlaves to the gallies.

BUFF, BUFFLE, or more commonly BUFFALO, in Latin BUBALUS, a wild animal, reſembling an ox, except that it

it is longer and higher. It's horns are very black, it's body very thick, and it's hide very hard. It has ſhort and black hair, and hardly any on it's tail, but a great deal on the fore part of it's head, which is very ſmall in proportion to the reſt of it's body. It's horns are very broad, it's neck long and thick, it's tail ſhort, it's thighs thick and ſhort; it is properly a wild ox, which may be tamed, and which they put to labour in Italy, and in ſeveral other countries, as they do oxen in France; it's female yields milk like a cow.

Buffaloes are very common in the Levant, particularly about Conſtantinople and Smyrna. They abound alſo in Africa, and eſpecially in the kingdom of Congo. There are likewiſe a great many in Egypt, but they are not ſo fierce as thoſe of Europe. The merchandizes they afford to trade, are their horns, their hides, and their hair.

Of the horns are made ſeveral turner's works, particularly beads for chaplets, and ſnuff-boxes, which are pretty much valued.

Of the hides dreſſed with oil and well prepared, are made a ſort of coats, called buffs, or buff ſkins, in which the horſe and gens d'armes in France are dreſſed. They alſo make bandaleers, belts, pouches, gloves, &c. with buffalo's leather. Buffalo-hides, dried with the hair on, are part of the trade, which the Engliſh, French, Italians, and Dutch, drive at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and on the coaſt of Africa. They take them up there in return for the merchandizes which they carry thither from their own countries.

When the hides of elks, oxen, cows, and ſuch other animals, have been dreſſed with oil, like the buffalo-hides, they alſo give them the name of buffs, or buff-ſkins, and they are put to the ſame uſes. Thoſe of oxen and cows are the leaſt valued, they being moſt commonly uſed only to make belts, bandaleers, and pouches.

There are in France ſeveral manufactories deſigned for the dreſſing of thoſe ſorts of hides, viz. at Corbeil, near Paris, at Niort, at Lyons, at Roan, at Etampes, at Cone, &c. The firſt eſtabliſhment of theſe manufactures was owing to the Sieur Jabat, a native of Cologn, who had brought them to the higheſt degree of perfection.

Buffalo's-hair, after it is ſeparated from the hide by means of lime, before it is dreſſed with oil, is a ſort of flocks, which, being mixed with that of oxen, cows, or ſuch other animals, ſerves to ſtuff.

The French give the name of buffletin, both to a young buffalo, and to buff-ſkins ready dreſſed.

The buffs-hides from the Levant, of which there are three ſorts, namely, thoſe of Alexandria, thoſe of Conſtantinople, and thoſe called buffs-eſcars, which are of an inferior ſort, are reckoned among the merchandizes which come from the countries and territories under the dominion of the Grand Seignior, of the king of Perſia, and of Italy, and pay 20 per cent. of their value, according to the decree of the 15th of Auguſt, 1685, when they have been landed in foreign countries, and even without being ſo landed, when they enter by the port of Roan.

BULGARIA the Great. Bulgaria is divided into Great and Little, or Aſiatic and European. The latter, which lies along the ſouth coaſts of the Danube, having the Black Sea on the eaſt, and Macedonia on the weſt, is part of Turkey in Europe, and therefore is foreign to this article of Ruſſia, and will be ſpoken of in it's proper place.

BULGARIA the Great, is that of which we are now going to ſpeak, as part of Ruſſia in Europe. It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Caſan, on the eaſt by Baſhiria, on the ſouth by the Samara, which divides it from the kingdom of Aſtracan, and on the weſt by the Wolga.

This territory is ſo little known to us, that we are ſcarcely certain whether, or by whom it is inhabited; whether it be populous, fertile, &c. or the contrary. Some cities, not inconſiderable indeed, we find towards the weſtern ſide, as Bulgar the capital, advantageouſly ſituated on the Wolga, and eſteemed amongſt the moſt conſiderable cities of Ruſſia, 'Tis ſaid, that the mountains of Caf yield plenty of iron, cryſtal, and other valuable ſtones.

BULGARIA the Leſs, is bounded on the weſt by Servia, on the ſouth by Romania and Macedonia, from which it is parted by a ridge of mountains, called Argentaro, or Coſtegnaz; on the eaſt it has the Black Sea, on the north, Sanſon's maps bound it by the Danube, but, according to Wiſſcher's and to Mr Baudrand, it extends beyond that river. The chief product of this country is cattle, of which there are vaſt herds.

At SOPHIA the Jews have ſeveral ſynagogues, and drive a very great trade. There are about 100 Roman catholicks, with a prieſt, who ſays maſs publickly. Moſt of theſe are merchants of Raguſa, who trade here, as they alſo do at Belgrade. It is one of the greateſt thoroughfares in Turky, ſince all they who travel from Conſtantinople to Raguſa, Venice, or into Hungary, muſt neceſſarily paſs through this town.

BULLION, is uncoined gold or ſilver in the maſs. Thoſe metals are called ſo, either when ſmelted from the native ore, and when they are not perfectly refined; or when they are perfectly refined, and when they are melted down in bars or ingots, in any unwrought body, of any degree of fineneſs.

When gold and ſilver are in their purity, they are ſo ſoft and flexible, that they cannot well be wrought into any faſhion for uſe, without being firſt reduced and hardened with an alloy of ſome other baſer metal.

To prevent the abuſes which ſome might be tempted to commit in the making of ſuch alloys, the legiſlators of civilized countries have ordained, that there ſhall be no more than a certain proportion of a baſer metal, to a particular quantity of pure gold or ſilver, in order to make them of the fineneſs of what is called the ſtandard gold or ſilver of ſuch peculiar ſtate or nation. See the article STANDARD of gold and ſilver.

According to the laws of England, all ſorts of wrought plate, in general, ought to be made to the legal ſtandard: and the price of our ſtandard gold and ſilver is the common rule whereby to ſet a value on their bullion, whether the ſame be in ingots, bars, duſt, or in foreign ſpecie. Whence 'tis eaſy to conceive, that the value of bullion cannot be exactly known, without being aſſayed, that the exact quantity of pure metal therein contained may be determined; and conſequently, whether it be above or below the ſtandard.

In order to underſtand the nature and utility of ſuch aſſay, ſee the article ASSAY.

Of dealing in bullion ſilver.

In order to facilitate the arithmetical operations requiſite in buſineſs of this kind, the following tables may be helpful; eſpecially to thoſe who ſhould not be very expert at numbers, or to others who would chuſe to have a conſtant check to their calculations; which will ſave the time of a double operation by way of proof, or the time of a clerk in ſo doing.

The reader is deſired to obſerve, that a lb. weight of ſtandard ſilver is 11 ounces, 2 dwts, or penny-weight of fine ſilver, and 18 dwts of fine copper, which make together 12 ounces, or 1 lb. Troy weight, by which gold and ſilver are bought and ſold.

Of the Troy weights.

14	ounces 8	dwts	make	1	lb. Averdupois weight.
12	ounces	- - - -		1	lb. Troy weight.
20	dwts	- - - -		1	ounce.
24	grains	- - - -		1	penny-weight.
20	mites	- - - -		1	grain.
24	doits	- - - -		1	mite.
20	periots	- - - -		1	droit.
24	blanks	- - - -		1	periot.

N. B. In the firſt and ſecond Tables, the fractions are decimally expreſſed; [for which ſee the article ARITHMETIC.] For

1/8	of a grain, decimal parts	.125
1/4	- - - -	.250
3/8	- - - -	.325
1/2	- - - -	.500
5/8	- - - -	.625
3/4	- - - -	.750
7/8	- - - -	.875

1000 parts make the whole grain.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

FIRST TABLE,

Sheweth ſilver of any fineneſs, reduced to the legal ſtandard weight, from 100,000 oz. to one grain, and the thouſandth part of a grain.

Ounces.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	dt.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
100,000	225	4	12	108	19	—	—	1	027
90,000	202	14	1	297	18	—	—	—	972
80,000	180	3	14	486	17	—	—	—	918
70,000	157	13	6	675	16	—	—	—	864
60,000	135	2	16	864	15	—	—	—	810
50,000	112	12	6	054	14	—	—	—	756
40,000	90	1	19	243	13	—	—	—	702
30,000	67	11	8	432	12	—	—	—	648
20,000	45	—	21	621	11	—	—	—	594
10,000	22	10	10	810	10	—	—	—	540
9000	20	5	9	729	9	—	—	—	486
8000	18	—	8	648	8	—	—	—	432
7000	15	15	7	567	7	—	—	—	378
6000	13	10	6	486	6	—	—	—	324
5000	11	5	5	405	5	—	—	—	270
4000	9	—	4	324	4	—	—	—	216
3000	6	15	3	243	3	—	—	—	162
2000	4	10	2	162	2	—	—	—	108
1000	2	5	1	081	1	—	—	—	054
900	2	—	12	972	23 gr.	—	—	—	051
800	1	16	—	864	22	—	—	—	049
700	1	11	12	756	21	—	—	—	047
600	1	7	—	648	20	—	—	—	045
500	1	2	12	540	19	—	—	—	042
400	—	18	—	332	18	—	—	—	040
300	—	13	12	324	17	—	—	—	038
200	—	9	—	216	16	—	—	—	036
100	—	4	12	108	15	—	—	—	033
90	—	4	1	297	14	—	—	—	031
80	—	3	14	486	13	—	—	—	029
70	—	3	3	675	12	—	—	—	027
60	—	2	16	864	11	—	—	—	024
50	—	2	6	054	10	—	—	—	021
40	—	1	19	243	9	—	—	—	020
30	—	1	8	432	8	—	—	—	018
20	—	—	12	621	7	—	—	—	015
10	—	—	10	810	6	—	—	—	013
9	—	—	9	729	5	—	—	—	010
8	—	—	8	648	4	—	—	—	009
7	—	—	7	567	3	—	—	—	006
6	—	—	6	486	2	—	—	—	004
5	—	—	5	405	1	—	—	—	002
4	—	—	4	324					
3	—	—	3	243					
2	—	—	2	162					
1	—	—	1	081					

The uſe of the foregoing Table, for reducing ſilver to the ſtandard of England.

When you have a report of the aſſay-maſter, of what quantity of pure fine ſilver there is in a lb. weight of any bullion, more or leſs than there is in 1 lb. weight of ſtandard ſilver, the above table will ſhew how much it will amount to in any quantity of the ſaid bullion. For the finding out which, obſerve the following rules.

1. Reduce the report of better or worſe than ſtandard into half-penny weights.
2. Multiply the weight of the bullion by the aforeſaid half-penny weights.
3. Collect the product out of the foregoing table.

Having collected the product out of the table, add them together, and the total will be the weight, that muſt be added to the firſt weight, if it be better than ſtandard, in order to know the exact ſtandard weight. But if the bullion be worſe than ſtandard, then ſubſtract the total of the aforeſaid additions from the firſt weight, and the remainder will be the ſtandard weight. See the following examples.

Example 1. To know how much 189 ounces of ſilver, worſe than ſtandard, 19 dwts ½ will make, ſtandard weight.

Worſe 19 dwts ½
Multiply by 2
39 half dwts.
Multiply 189 ounces the groſs weight
By 39 half dwts.
Collect theſe 7371 ounces out of the foregoing table.

oz.		oz.	dts.	grs.	1000pts	
7000	makes	15	15	7	567	added
300	- -	0	13	12	324	
70	- -	0	3	3	675	
1	- -	0	0	1	081	
7371	is	16	12	0	647	worſe than ſtandard ſilver.
From		189	0	0	000	the weight
Deduct		16	12	0	647	worſe
Remains		172	7	23	353	the ſtandard weight.

Example 2. To know how much ſtandard weight there is in 267 ounces of ſilver, better than ſtandard 11 ½ dwts.

Better 11 ½ dwts
By 2
23 the half dwts
Multiply 207 ounces the groſs weight
By 23 the half dwts worſe
Makes 6141 called oz. collect theſe out of the foregoing table.

oz.		oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	
6000	is	13	10	6	486	added
100	-	0	4	12	108	
40	-	0	1	19	243	
1	-	0	0	1	081	
6141	-	13	16	14	918	better
To		267	0	0	000	the groſs weight
Add		13	16	14	918	better
Total		280	16	14	918	is the ſtandard weight.

To caſt up Bullion.

Example 3. At 5 s. 2 d. ⅛ per ounce ſtandard, to know what 267 oz. 17 dwts. 17 grs.

	oz.	dt.	gr.
	267	17	17
Multiply by			17
	1875	3	23
	2678	17	2
	4554	1	1

oz.	dt	gr.		oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
4000	0	0	is	9	0	14	324
500	0	0		1	2	12	540
50	0	0		0	2	6	054
4	0	0		0	0	4	324
0	1	0		0	0	0	054
0	0	1		0	0	0	002
4554	1	1	Sub.	10	5	3	298 worſe than ſtand.
			From	267	17	17	000 the groſs weight
			Rem. ſtand. wt.	257	12	13	702
							5
				1288	2	20	501
				42	18	18	283
				2	13	16	143
			At 5s. 2 d. ⅛ per oz. itd.	1333	15	6	935
			It amounts to	l. 66	13	9	

The ſame proved.

By the ſecond table following, when ſtandard is at

	s.	d.	1000pts	
	5	2	125	per ounce
8 ½ dwt. worſe is worth leſs	0	2	378	
Shews the value of the	4	11	747	per ounce
	12			

Silver is Pence 59,747 1000 parts per ounce
Multiply by 267 ounces, 17 dwts. 17 grs.

	15952449
10 dwts is	29873
5 - - - - - -	14936
1 - - - - - -	5971
16 gr. - - - -	1991
6 - - - - -	124
	12)16005(347
	1333(9

Anſwer l. 66 : 13 : 9 being the reverſe of the foregoing example.

SECOND TABLE.

Silver valued by the groſs weight.

It ſhewing how much an ounce of ſilver, of any fineneſs is worth more or leſs than an ounce of ſtandard ſilver, to the thouſandth part of a penny, from a ½ penny weight, better or worſe than ſtandard, to 8 ounces worſe.

The ſtandard prices from five ſhillings, to five ſhillings and ſix-pence ⅞ per ounce.

See the following Tables on the other ſide.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. to 5 s. $\frac{3}{8}$ of a Penny per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At d. Parts.	at 60 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 60 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 60 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	60 000	60 125	60 250	60 375
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 135	— 135	— 135	— 136
1 —	— 270	— 270	— 271	— 271
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 405	— 406	— 407	— 407
2 —	— 540	— 541	— 542	— 543
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 676	— 677	— 678	— 679
3 —	— 811	— 812	— 814	— 815
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 946	— 947	— 950	— 951
4 —	1 081	1 083	1 085	1 087
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 216	1 218	1 221	1 223
5 —	1 351	1 354	1 356	1 359
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 486	1 489	1 492	1 495
6 —	1 621	1 625	1 628	1 631
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 756	1 760	1 764	1 767
7 —	1 891	1 895	1 900	1 903
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 027	2 031	2 035	2 040
8 —	2 162	2 166	2 170	2 175
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 297	2 302	2 306	2 311
9 —	2 432	2 437	2 442	2 447
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 567	2 572	2 578	2 583
10 —	2 702	2 708	2 713	2 719
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 837	2 843	2 849	2 885
11 —	2 972	2 979	2 985	2 991
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 108	3 114	3 121	3 127
12 —	3 243	3 250	3 256	3 263
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 378	3 385	3 392	3 400
13 —	3 513	3 520	3 528	3 535
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 648	3 656	3 663	3 671
14 —	3 783	3 791	3 800	3 807
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 918	3 927	3 935	3 943
15 —	4 054	4 062	4 070	4 079
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 189	4 197	4 206	4 215
16 —	4 324	4 333	4 342	4 351
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 459	4 468	4 478	4 487
17 —	4 594	4 604	4 613	4 623
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 729	4 739	4 750	4 759
18 —	4 864	4 875	4 885	4 895
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 999	5 010	5 020	5 031
19 —	5 135	5 145	5 156	5 167
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 270	5 281	5 292	5 303
1 Oz.	5 405	5 416	5 427	5 440
2 Oz.	10 810	10 833	10 855	10 878
3	16 216	16 249	16 283	16 317
4	21 621	21 666	21 711	21 756
5	27 027	27 083	27 139	27 195
6	32 432	32 499	32 567	32 635
7	37 837	37 916	37 995	38 074
8	43 243	43 333	43 423	43 513

From 5 s. 1 d. to 5 s. 1 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 61 d. p. or d. Parts.	at 61 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 61 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 61 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	61 000	61 125	61 250	61 375
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 137	— 137	— 137	— 138
1 —	— 274	— 275	— 275	— 276
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 412	— 413	— 413	— 414
2 —	— 549	— 550	— 551	— 552
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 686	— 688	— 689	— 691
3 —	— 824	— 826	— 827	— 829
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 961	— 963	— 965	— 967
4 —	1 099	1 101	1 103	1 105
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 236	1 239	1 241	1 243
5 —	1 374	1 376	1 379	1 382
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 511	1 514	1 517	1 520
6 —	1 648	1 652	1 655	1 658
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 785	1 789	1 793	1 797
7 —	1 923	1 927	1 931	1 935
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 060	2 065	2 069	2 073
8 —	2 198	2 202	2 207	2 211
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 335	2 340	2 345	2 349
9 —	2 473	2 478	2 483	2 487
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 610	2 615	2 621	2 625
10 —	2 747	2 753	2 759	2 764
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 885	2 891	2 896	2 902
11 —	3 022	3 028	3 034	3 040
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 159	3 166	3 172	3 178
12 —	3 297	3 304	3 310	3 317
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 434	3 441	3 448	3 455
13 —	3 572	3 579	3 586	3 594
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 709	3 717	3 724	3 732
14 —	3 846	3 854	3 862	3 870
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 984	3 992	4 000	4 008
15 —	4 121	4 130	4 138	4 146
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 259	4 267	4 276	4 285
16 —	4 396	4 405	4 414	4 423
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 533	4 543	4 552	4 561
17 —	4 671	4 680	4 690	4 699
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 808	4 818	4 828	4 838
18 —	4 945	4 956	4 966	4 976
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 083	5 093	5 104	5 114
19 —	5 220	5 231	5 242	5 252
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 358	5 369	5 380	5 390
1 Oz.	5 495	5 506	5 518	5 529
2 Oz.	10 990	11 013	11 036	11 058
3	16 486	16 520	16 554	16 587
4	21 981	22 027	22 072	22 117
5	27 477	27 533	27 590	27 646
6	32 972	32 040	32 108	33 175
7	38 468	38 547	38 626	38 704
8	43 963	44 054	44 144	44 234

From 5 s $\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 5 s. $\frac{7}{8}$ of a Penny per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 60 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d. Parts.	at 60 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 60 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 60 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	60 500	60 625	60 750	60 875
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 136	— 136	— 136	— 137
1 —	— 272	— 273	— 273	— 274
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 408	— 409	— 410	— 411
2 —	— 545	— 546	— 547	— 548
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 681	— 682	— 684	— 685
3 —	— 817	— 819	— 820	— 822
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 953	— 955	— 957	— 959
4 —	1 090	1 092	1 094	1 096
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 226	1 228	1 231	1 233
5 —	1 362	1 365	1 368	1 371
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 498	1 501	1 505	1 508
6 —	1 635	1 638	1 641	1 648
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 771	1 775	1 778	1 782
7 —	1 907	1 911	1 915	1 919
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 043	2 048	2 052	2 056
8 —	2 180	2 184	2 189	2 193
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 316	2 321	2 326	2 330
9 —	2 452	2 457	2 462	2 467
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 588	2 594	2 600	2 605
10 —	2 725	2 730	2 736	2 742
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 861	2 867	2 873	2 879
11 —	2 997	3 003	3 010	3 016
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 134	3 140	3 146	3 153
12 —	3 270	3 277	3 283	3 290
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 406	3 413	3 420	3 428
13 —	3 542	3 550	3 557	3 565
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 679	3 686	3 694	3 702
14 —	3 815	3 823	3 831	3 839
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 951	3 959	3 967	3 976
15 —	4 087	4 096	4 104	4 113
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 224	4 232	4 241	4 250
16 —	4 360	4 369	4 378	4 487
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 496	4 505	4 515	4 524
17 —	4 632	4 642	4 652	4 661
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 769	4 778	4 788	4 798
18 —	4 905	4 914	4 925	4 935
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 041	5 051	5 062	5 072
19 —	5 177	5 188	5 199	5 210
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 314	5 325	5 336	5 347
1 Oz.	5 450	5 461	5 472	5 484
2 Oz.	10 900	10 923	10 945	10 968
3	16 351	16 385	16 418	16 452
4	21 801	21 846	21 891	21 936
5	27 252	27 308	27 364	27 421
6	32 702	32 770	32 837	32 905
7	38 153	38 231	38 310	38 389
8	43 603	43 693	43 783	43 873

From 5 s. 1 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 s. 5 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 61 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d. Parts	at 61 d $\frac{5}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 61 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 61 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	61 500	61 625	61 750	61 875
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 138	— 138	— 139	— 139
1 —	— 277	— 277	— 278	— 278
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 415	— 416	— 417	— 418
2 —	— 554	— 555	— 556	— 557
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 692	— 693	— 695	— 696
3 —	— 831	— 832	— 834	— 836
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 966	— 971	— 973	— 975
4 —	1 108	1 110	1 112	1 114
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 246	1 249	1 251	1 254
5 —	1 385	1 387	1 390	1 393
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 523	1 526	1 529	1 532
6 —	1 662	1 665	1 668	1 672
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 800	1 804	1 807	1 811
7 —	1 939	1 943	1 947	1 951
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 077	2 081	2 086	2 090
8 —	2 216	2 220	2 225	2 229
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 354	2 359	2 364	2 369
9 —	2 493	2 498	2 503	2 508
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 631	2 637	2 642	2 648
10 —	2 770	2 775	2 781	2 787
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 908	2 914	2 920	2 927
11 —	3 047	3 053	3 059	3 066
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 185	3 192	3 198	3 206
12 —	3 324	3 331	3 337	3 345
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 462	3 470	3 476	3 484
13 —	3 601	3 608	3 615	3 623
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 739	3 747	3 755	3 763
14 —	3 878	3 886	3 894	3 902
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 016	4 025	4 033	4 042
15 —	4 155	4 163	4 172	4 181
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 293	4 302	4 311	4 320
16 —	4 432	4 441	4 450	4 459
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 570	4 580	4 589	4 599
17 —	4 709	4 719	4 728	4 740
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 847	4 857	4 867	4 878
18 —	4 986	4 996	5 006	4 917
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 125	5 135	5 145	5 156
19 —	5 263	5 274	5 284	5 296
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 401	5 413	5 423	5 435
1 Oz.	5 540	5 551	5 563	5 574
2 Oz.	11 081	11 103	11 126	11 149
3	16 620	16 655	16 689	16 723
4	22 162	22 206	22 252	22 298
5	27 702	27 759	27 815	27 872
6	33 243	33 310	33 378	33 447
7	38 783	38 862	38 941	39 021
8	44 324	44 414	44 504	44 596

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. 2 d. to 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 62 d. p. or d. Parts.	at 62 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 62 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 62 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	62 000	62 125	62 250	62 375
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 139	— 139	— 140	— 140
1 —	— 279	— 279	— 280	— 280
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 418	— 419	— 420	— 421
2 —	— 558	— 559	— 560	— 561
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 698	— 699	— 701	— 702
3 —	— 837	— 839	— 841	— 842
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 977	— 979	— 981	— 983
4 —	1 117	1 119	1 121	1 123
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 256	1 259	1 261	1 264
5 —	1 396	1 399	1 402	1 404
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 536	1 539	1 542	1 545
6 —	1 675	1 678	1 682	1 685
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 815	1 818	1 822	1 825
7 —	1 954	1 958	1 962	1 966
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 094	2 098	2 103	2 107
8 —	2 234	2 238	2 243	2 247
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 373	2 378	2 383	2 388
9 —	2 513	2 518	2 523	2 528
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 653	2 658	2 663	2 669
10 —	2 792	2 798	2 804	2 809
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 932	2 938	2 944	2 950
11 —	3 072	3 078	3 084	3 090
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 211	3 218	3 224	3 231
12 —	3 351	3 358	3 364	3 372
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 490	3 498	3 505	3 513
13 —	3 630	3 637	3 645	3 654
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 770	3 777	3 785	3 795
14 —	3 909	3 917	3 925	3 935
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 049	4 057	4 065	4 075
15 —	4 189	4 197	4 206	4 215
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 328	4 337	4 346	4 355
16 —	4 468	4 477	4 486	4 495
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 608	4 617	4 626	4 635
17 —	4 747	4 757	4 766	4 776
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 887	4 897	4 907	4 916
18 —	5 027	5 037	5 047	5 057
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 166	5 177	5 187	5 197
19 —	5 306	5 317	5 327	5 338
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 445	5 456	5 467	5 478
1 Oz.	5 585	5 596	5 608	5 619
2 Oz.	11 171	11 193	11 216	11 238
3	16 756	16 790	16 824	16 858
4	22 342	22 387	22 432	22 477
5	27 927	27 984	28 040	28 096
6	33 513	33 581	33 648	33 716
7	39 099	39 178	39 256	39 335
8	44 684	44 774	44 864	44 954

From 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 62 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d. Parts.	at 62 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 62 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d. parts.	at 62 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	62 500	62 625	62 750	62 875
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 140	— 141	— 141	— 141
1 —	— 281	— 282	— 282	— 283
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 422	— 423	— 423	— 424
2 —	— 563	— 564	— 564	— 566
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 703	— 705	— 706	— 708
3 —	— 844	— 846	— 847	— 849
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 985	— 987	— 989	— 991
4 —	1 126	1 128	1 130	1 132
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 266	1 269	1 271	1 274
5 —	1 407	1 410	1 412	1 416
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 548	1 551	1 554	1 557
6 —	1 689	1 692	1 695	1 699
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 829	1 833	1 837	1 840
7 —	1 970	1 974	1 978	1 982
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 111	2 115	2 119	2 124
8 —	2 252	2 256	2 261	2 265
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 393	2 397	2 402	2 407
9 —	2 533	2 538	2 543	2 549
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 674	2 679	2 685	2 690
10 —	2 815	2 820	2 826	2 832
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 956	2 962	2 967	2 973
11 —	3 096	3 103	3 109	3 115
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 237	3 244	3 250	3 257
12 —	3 378	3 385	3 391	3 398
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 519	3 526	3 533	3 540
13 —	3 659	3 667	3 674	3 681
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 800	3 808	3 815	3 823
14 —	3 941	3 949	3 956	3 965
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 082	4 090	4 097	4 106
15 —	4 222	4 231	4 238	4 248
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 363	4 372	4 380	4 389
16 —	4 504	4 513	4 522	4 531
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 645	4 654	4 663	4 673
17 —	4 786	4 795	4 805	4 814
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 926	4 936	4 946	4 956
18 —	5 067	5 077	5 087	5 097
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 208	5 218	5 229	5 239
19 —	5 349	5 359	5 370	5 381
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 489	5 500	5 511	5 523
1 Oz.	5 630	5 641	5 653	5 664
2 Oz.	11 2 1	11 283	11 306	11 328
3	16 891	16 926	16 959	16 993
4	22 522	22 567	22 612	22 657
5	28 153	28 209	28 265	28 322
6	33 783	33 851	33 918	33 986
7	39 414	39 492	39 572	39 650
8	45 045	45 135	45 225	45 315

From 5 s. 3 d. to 5 s. 3 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 63 d. p. or d. Parts.	at 63 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 63 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 63 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	63 000	63 125	63 250	63 375
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 141	— 142	— 142	— 142
1 —	— 283	— 284	— 284	— 285
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 425	— 426	— 427	— 428
2 —	— 567	— 568	— 570	— 570
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 709	— 710	— 712	— 713
3 —	— 851	— 853	— 854	— 856
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 993	— 995	— 997	— 999
4 —	1 135	1 137	1 139	1 141
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 277	1 279	1 282	1 284
5 —	1 418	1 421	1 424	1 427
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 560	1 563	1 566	1 570
6 —	1 702	1 706	1 709	1 712
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 844	1 848	1 851	1 855
7 —	1 986	1 990	1 994	1 998
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 128	2 132	2 136	2 141
8 —	2 270	2 274	2 279	2 283
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 412	2 416	2 421	2 426
9 —	2 554	2 559	2 564	2 569
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 695	2 701	2 706	2 711
10 —	2 837	2 843	2 849	2 854
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 979	2 985	2 991	2 997
11 —	3 121	3 127	3 133	3 140
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 263	3 269	3 276	3 282
12 —	3 405	3 412	3 418	3 425
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 547	3 554	3 561	3 568
13 —	3 689	3 696	3 703	3 711
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 831	3 838	3 846	3 853
14 —	3 972	3 980	3 988	3 996
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 114	4 123	4 131	4 139
15 —	4 256	4 265	4 273	4 282
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 398	4 407	4 416	4 424
16 —	4 540	4 549	4 558	4 567
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 682	4 691	4 700	4 710
17 —	4 824	4 833	4 843	4 853
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 966	4 976	4 985	4 995
18 —	5 108	5 118	5 128	5 138
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 250	5 260	5 270	5 281
19 —	5 391	5 402	5 413	5 423
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 533	5 544	5 555	5 666
1 Oz.	5 675	5 686	5 698	5 709
2 Oz.	11 351	11 373	11 396	11 418
3	17 027	17 060	17 094	17 128
4	22 702	22 747	22 792	22 837
5	28 378	28 434	28 490	28 547
6	34 054	34 121	34 188	34 256
7	39 729	39 808	39 887	39 966
8	45 405	45 495	45 585	45 675

From 5 s. 3 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 s. 3 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	at 63 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d. Parts.	at 63 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 63 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 63 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.	63 500	63 625	63 750	63 875
$\frac{1}{2}$	— 143	— 143	— 143	— 143
1 —	— 286	— 286	— 287	— 287
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 429	— 429	— 430	— 431
2 —	— 572	— 573	— 574	— 575
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	— 715	— 716	— 717	— 719
3 —	— 858	— 859	— 861	— 863
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 001	1 003	1 005	1 007
4 —	1 144	1 146	1 148	1 150
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 287	1 289	1 292	1 294
5 —	1 430	1 432	1 435	1 439
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 573	1 576	1 579	1 582
6 —	1 716	1 719	1 722	1 726
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 859	1 862	1 866	1 870
7 —	2 002	2 006	2 010	2 014
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 145	2 149	2 153	2 157
8 —	2 288	2 292	2 297	2 301
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 431	2 436	2 440	2 445
9 —	2 574	2 580	2 584	2 589
9 $\frac{1}{2}$	2 717	2 722	2 728	2 733
10 —	2 860	2 865	2 871	2 877
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 003	3 009	3 015	3 021
11 —	3 146	3 152	3 158	3 164
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 289	3 295	3 302	3 308
12 —	3 432	3 438	3 445	3 452
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 575	3 581	3 589	3 596
13 —	3 718	3 725	3 733	3 740
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 861	3 868	3 876	3 884
14 —	4 004	4 012	4 020	4 028
14 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 147	4 155	4 163	4 171
15 —	4 290	4 298	4 307	4 315
15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 433	4 442	4 451	4 459
16 —	4 576	4 585	4 594	4 603
16 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 720	4 728	4 738	4 747
17 —	4 862	4 872	4 881	4 891
17 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 005	5 015	5 025	5 035
18 —	5 148	5 158	5 168	5 179
18 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 291	5 302	5 312	5 322
19 —	5 434	5 445	5 456	5 466
19 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 577	5 588	5 599	5 610
1 Oz.	5 720	5 731	5 743	5 754
2 Oz.	11 441	11 463	11 486	11 508
3	17 162	17 195	17 229	17 263
4	22 882	22 927	22 972	23 017
5	28 603	28 659	28 716	28 772
6	34 324	34 391	34 459	34 526
7	39 045	40 123	40 202	40 281
8	45 765	45 855	45 945	46 036

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. 4 d. to 5 s. 4 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.		at 64 d. p or d.	Parts.	at 64 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d.	Parts.	at 64 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d.	Parts	at 64 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d.	Parts.
Dwts.		64	000	64	125	64	250	64	375
	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	144	—	144	—	144	—	144
1	—	—	288	—	288	—	289	—	289
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	432	—	433	—	434	—	434
2	—	—	576	—	577	—	578	—	579
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	720	—	722	—	723	—	724
3	—	—	864	—	866	—	868	—	869
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	003	1	010	1	012	1	014
4	—	1	135	1	155	1	157	1	159
4	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	297	1	299	1	302	1	304
5	—	1	441	1	444	1	447	1	449
5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	585	1	588	1	591	1	594
6	—	1	729	1	733	1	736	1	739
6	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	873	1	877	1	881	1	884
7	—	2	018	2	021	2	025	2	029
7	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	162	2	166	2	170	2	174
8	—	2	306	2	310	2	315	2	319
8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	450	2	455	2	460	2	464
9	—	2	594	2	599	2	604	2	609
9	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	738	2	744	2	749	2	754
10	—	2	882	2	888	2	894	2	899
10	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	027	3	033	3	038	3	044
11	—	3	171	3	177	3	183	3	189
11	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	315	3	321	3	328	3	334
12	—	3	459	3	466	3	472	3	479
12	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	603	3	610	3	617	3	624
13	—	3	747	3	755	3	762	3	769
13	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	891	3	899	3	907	3	914
14	—	4	036	4	043	4	051	4	059
14	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	180	4	188	4	196	4	204
15	—	4	324	4	332	4	341	4	349
15	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	468	4	477	4	485	4	494
16	—	4	612	4	621	4	630	4	639
16	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	756	4	766	4	775	4	784
17	—	4	900	4	910	4	920	4	929
17	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	045	5	054	5	064	5	074
18	—	5	189	5	199	5	209	5	219
18	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	333	5	343	5	354	5	364
19	—	5	477	5	488	5	498	5	509
19	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	621	5	632	5	643	5	654
1	Oz.	5	765	5	777	5	788	5	799
2	Oz.	11	531	11	554	11	576	11	599
3		17	297	17	331	17	364	17	398
4		23	063	23	108	23	153	23	198
5		28	828	28	885	28	941	28	997
6		34	594	34	662	34	729	34	797
7		40	360	40	439	40	517	40	596
8		46	126	46	216	46	306	46	396

From 5 s. 4 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 s. 4 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.		at 64 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d.	Parts.	at 64 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ or d.	Parts.	at 64 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d.	Parts.	at 64 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d.	Parts.
Dwts.		64	500	64	625	64	750	64	875
	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	145	—	145	—	145	—	146
1	—	—	290	—	291	—	291	—	292
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	435	—	436	—	437	—	438
2	—	—	581	—	582	—	583	—	584
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	726	—	727	—	729	—	730
3	—	—	871	—	873	—	874	—	876
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	016	1	018	1	020	1	022
4	—	1	162	1	164	1	166	1	168
4	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	307	1	309	1	312	1	315
5	—	1	452	1	455	1	458	1	461
5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	597	1	601	1	604	1	607
6	—	1	743	1	746	1	749	1	753
6	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	888	1	892	1	895	1	899
7	—	2	033	2	037	2	041	2	045
7	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	179	2	183	2	187	2	191
8	—	2	324	2	328	2	333	2	337
8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	469	2	474	2	479	2	483
9	—	2	614	2	619	2	624	2	630
9	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	760	2	765	2	770	2	776
10	—	2	905	2	911	2	916	2	922
10	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	050	3	056	3	062	3	068
11	—	3	195	3	202	3	208	3	214
11	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	341	3	347	3	354	3	360
12	—	3	486	3	493	3	499	3	506
12	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	631	3	638	3	645	3	652
13	—	3	777	3	784	3	791	3	798
13	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	922	3	929	3	937	3	945
14	—	4	067	4	075	4	083	4	091
14	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	212	4	220	4	229	4	237
15	—	4	358	4	366	4	374	4	383
15	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	503	4	512	4	520	4	529
16	—	4	648	4	657	4	666	4	675
16	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	793	4	803	4	812	4	821
17	—	4	939	4	948	4	958	4	967
17	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	084	5	094	5	104	5	113
18	—	5	229	5	239	5	249	5	260
18	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	374	5	385	5	395	5	406
19	—	5	520	5	530	5	541	5	552
19	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	665	5	676	5	687	5	698
1	Oz.	5	810	5	822	5	833	5	844
2	Oz.	11	621	11	644	11	666	11	689
3		17	432	17	466	17	499	17	533
4		23	243	23	288	23	333	23	378
5		29	054	29	110	29	166	29	222
6		34	864	34	932	34	999	35	067
7		40	675	40	754	40	833	40	911
8		46	486	46	576	46	666	46	756

From 5 s. 5 d. to 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.		at 65 d. p. or d.	Parts.	at 65 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d.	Parts.	at 65 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d.	Parts.	at 65 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d.	Parts.
Dwts.		65	000	65	125	65	250	65	375
	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	146	—	146	—	146	—	147
1	—	—	292	—	293	—	293	—	294
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	439	—	440	—	440	—	441
2	—	—	585	—	586	—	587	—	588
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	731	—	733	—	734	—	736
3	—	—	878	—	880	—	881	—	883
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	024	1	026	1	028	1	030
4	—	1	171	1	173	1	175	1	177
4	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	317	1	320	1	322	1	325
5	—	1	463	1	466	1	469	1	472
5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	610	1	613	1	616	1	619
6	—	1	756	1	760	1	763	1	766
6	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	903	1	906	1	910	1	914
7	—	2	049	2	053	2	057	2	061
7	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	195	2	200	2	204	2	208
8	—	2	342	2	346	2	351	2	355
8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	488	2	493	2	498	2	503
9	—	2	635	2	640	2	645	2	650
9	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	781	2	786	2	792	2	797
10	—	2	927	2	933	2	939	2	944
10	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	074	3	080	3	086	3	092
11	—	3	220	3	226	3	233	3	239
11	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	367	3	373	3	380	3	386
12	—	3	513	3	520	3	527	3	533
12	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	659	3	666	3	673	3	681
13	—	3	806	3	813	3	820	3	828
13	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	952	3	959	3	967	3	975
14	—	4	099	4	106	4	114	4	122
14	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	245	4	253	4	261	4	269
15	—	4	390	4	400	4	408	4	417
15	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	538	4	546	4	555	4	564
16	—	4	684	4	693	4	702	4	711
16	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	831	4	840	4	849	4	858
17	—	4	977	4	987	4	996	5	006
17	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	123	5	133	5	143	5	153
18	—	5	270	5	280	5	290	5	300
18	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	416	5	427	5	437	5	447
19	—	5	563	5	573	5	584	5	595
19	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	709	5	720	5	731	5	742
1	Oz.	5	855	5	897	5	878	5	889
2	Oz.	11	711	11	734	11	756	11	779
3		17	567	17	601	17	635	17	668
4		23	423	23	468	23	513	23	558
5		29	279	29	335	29	391	29	448
6		35	135	35	202	35	270	35	337
7		40	990	41	069	41	148	41	227
8		46	846	46	936	47	026	47	116

From 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 s. 5 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.		at 65 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d.	Parts	at 65 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ or d.	Parts.	at 65 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d.	Parts	at 65 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d.	Parts.
Dwts.		65	500	65	625	65	750	65	875
	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	147	—	147	—	148	—	148
1	—	—	295	—	295	—	296	—	296
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	442	—	443	—	444	—	445
2	—	—	590	—	591	—	592	—	593
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	—	737	—	739	—	740	—	741
3	—	—	885	—	886	—	888	—	890
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	032	1	034	1	036	1	038
4	—	1	180	1	182	1	184	1	186
4	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	327	1	330	1	332	1	335
5	—	1	475	1	478	1	480	1	483
5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	622	1	625	1	628	1	632
6	—	1	770	1	773	1	777	1	780
6	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	917	1	921	1	925	1	928
7	—	2	065	2	069	2	073	2	077
7	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	212	2	217	2	221	2	225
8	—	2	360	2	364	2	369	2	373
8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	507	2	512	2	517	2	522
9	—	2	655	2	660	2	665	2	670
9	$\frac{1}{2}$	2	802	2	808	2	813	2	818
10	—	2	950	2	956	2	961	2	967
10	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	097	3	103	3	109	3	115
11	—	3	245	3	251	3	257	3	264
11	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	393	3	399	3	405	3	412
12	—	3	540	3	547	3	554	3	560
12	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	688	3	695	3	702	3	709
13	—	3	835	3	842	3	850	3	857
13	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	983	3	990	3	998	4	005
14	—	4	130	4	138	4	146	4	154
14	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	278	4	286	4	294	4	302
15	—	4	425	4	434	4	442	4	451
15	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	573	4	581	4	590	4	599
16	—	4	720	4	729	4	738	4	747
16	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	868	4	877	4	886	4	896
17	—	5	015	5	025	5	034	5	044
17	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	163	5	173	5	182	5	192
18	—	5	310	5	320	5	331	5	341
18	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	458	5	468	5	479	5	489
19	—	5	605	5	616	5	627	5	637
19	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	753	5	764	5	775	5	786
1	Oz.	5	900	5	912	5	923	5	934
2	Oz.	11	800	11	824	11	840	11	869
3		17	700	17	736	17	770	17	804
4		23	600	23	648	23	693	23	738
5		29	500	29	560	29	617	29	673
6		35	400	35	472	35	540	35	608
7		41	300	41	385	41	463	41	542
8		47	200	47	297	47	387	47	477

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION SILVER.

SECOND TABLE.

From 5 s. 6 d. to 5 s. 6 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.		at 66 d. p. or d. Parts.	at 66 d. $\frac{1}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 66 d. $\frac{1}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 66 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.		66 000	66 125	66 250	66 375
	$\frac{1}{2}$	— 148	— 148	— 149	— 149
1	—	— 297	— 297	— 298	— 298
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	— 445	— 446	— 447	— 448
2	—	— 594	— 595	— 596	— 597
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	— 743	— 744	— 746	— 747
3	—	— 891	— 893	— 895	— 896
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 040	1 042	1 044	1 046
4	—	1 189	1 191	1 193	1 195
4	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 337	1 340	1 342	1 345
5	—	1 486	1 489	1 492	1 494
5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 635	1 638	1 641	1 644
6	—	1 783	1 787	1 790	1 793
6	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 932	1 936	1 939	1 943
7	—	2 081	2 085	2 088	2 092
7	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 229	2 233	2 238	2 242
8	—	2 378	2 382	2 387	2 391
8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 527	2 531	2 536	2 541
9	—	2 675	2 680	2 685	2 690
9	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 824	2 829	2 835	2 840
10	—	2 972	2 978	2 984	2 989
10	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 121	3 127	3 133	3 139
11	—	3 270	3 276	3 282	3 288
11	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 418	3 425	3 431	3 438
12	—	3 567	3 574	3 581	3 587
12	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 716	3 723	3 730	3 737
13	—	3 864	3 872	3 879	3 886
13	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 013	4 021	4 028	4 036
14	—	4 162	4 170	4 177	4 185
14	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 310	4 318	4 327	4 335
15	—	4 459	4 467	4 476	4 484
15	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 608	4 616	4 625	4 634
16	—	4 756	4 765	4 774	4 783
16	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 905	4 914	4 923	4 933
17	—	5 054	5 063	5 073	5 082
17	$\frac{1}{2}$	5 202	5 212	5 222	5 232
18	—	5 351	5 361	5 371	5 381
18	$\frac{1}{2}$	5 500	5 510	5 520	5 531
19	—	5 648	5 659	5 670	5 680
19	$\frac{1}{2}$	5 797	5 808	5 819	5 830
1	Oz.	5 945	5 957	5 968	5 979
2	Oz.	11 891	11 914	11 936	11 959
3		17 837	17 871	17 905	17 939
4		23 783	23 828	23 873	23 918
5		29 729	29 786	29 842	29 898
6		35 675	35 743	35 810	35 878
7		41 621	41 700	41 779	41 858
8		47 567	47 657	47 747	47 837

From 5 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 s. 6 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.		at 66 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ or d. Parts.	at 66 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ or d. Parts.	at 66 d. $\frac{3}{4}$ or d. Parts.	at 66 d. $\frac{7}{8}$ or d. Parts.
Dwts.		66 500	66 625	66 750	51 875
	$\frac{1}{2}$	— 149	— 150	— 150	— 150
1	—	— 299	— 300	— 300	— 301
1	$\frac{1}{2}$	— 449	— 450	— 451	— 451
2	—	— 599	— 600	— 601	— 602
2	$\frac{1}{2}$	— 748	— 750	— 751	— 753
3	—	— 898	— 900	— 902	— 903
3	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 048	1 050	1 052	1 054
4	—	1 198	1 200	1 202	1 204
4	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 347	1 350	1 353	1 355
5	—	1 497	1 500	1 503	1 506
5	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 647	1 650	1 653	1 656
6	—	1 797	1 800	1 804	1 807
6	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 947	1 950	1 954	1 958
7	—	2 096	2 100	2 104	2 108
7	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 246	2 250	2 255	2 259
8	—	2 396	2 400	2 405	2 409
8	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 546	2 550	2 555	2 560
9	—	2 695	2 701	2 706	2 711
9	$\frac{1}{2}$	2 845	2 851	2 856	2 861
10	—	2 995	3 001	3 006	3 012
10	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 145	3 151	3 157	3 162
11	—	3 295	3 301	3 307	3 313
11	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 444	3 451	3 457	3 464
12	—	3 594	3 601	3 608	3 614
12	$\frac{1}{2}$	3 744	3 751	3 758	3 765
13	—	3 894	3 901	3 908	3 916
13	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 043	4 051	4 059	4 066
14	—	4 193	4 201	4 209	4 217
14	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 343	4 351	4 359	4 367
15	—	4 493	4 501	4 510	4 518
15	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 642	4 651	4 660	4 669
16	—	4 799	4 801	4 810	4 819
16	$\frac{1}{2}$	4 942	4 951	4 961	4 970
17	—	5 092	5 101	5 111	5 121
17	$\frac{1}{2}$	5 242	5 251	5 261	5 271
18	—	5 391	5 402	5 412	5 422
18	$\frac{1}{2}$	5 541	5 552	5 562	5 572
19	—	5 691	5 702	5 712	5 723
19	$\frac{1}{2}$	5 841	5 852	5 863	5 874
1	Oz.	5 990	6 002	6 013	6 024
2	Oz.	11 981	12 004	12 026	12 049
3		17 972	18 006	18 040	18 074
4		23 963	24 008	24 053	24 099
5		29 954	30 011	30 067	30 123
6		35 945	36 013	36 080	36 148
7		41 936	42 015	42 094	42 173
8		47 927	48 017	48 107	48 198

The uſe of the preceding Table.

When you have a parcel of ſilver, if it be finer or coarſer than ſtandard ſilver, this table ſhews, to the 1000th part of a penny, how much an ounce of ſilver is worth more or leſs than an ounce of ſilver of the goodneſs of ſtandard.

For inſtance, ſuppoſing that you have ſilver to ſell; that is worſe than ſtandard 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts, and would know what an ounce of this ſilver is worth, when ſtandard ſells at 5 s. 3 d. per ounce.

To anſwer this queſtion, look in the ſecond table for the price of ſtandard, which being ſuppoſed 5 s. 3 d. per ounce, you will find at the head of ſome of the columns: having found the ſtandard price, draw down your finger upon the ſaid column perpendicularly, 'till you have come to the ſum that ſtands even with the 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts. in the margin (your ſilver being ſo much worſe than ſtandard) and you will find there 4 d. 398, which is the value that the ſaid ſilver is worſe than ſtandard.

	s	d.	1000 pts
Therefore, from 5	: 3	:	000 per ounce ſtandard
Subſtract - -	0	: 4	: 398 worſe
The remainder is 4	: 10	:	602, being the value per ounce of the ſaid ſilver.

If the ſaid ſilver had been 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts better than ſtandard, then you muſt have

	s.	d.	1000 pts
Added the ſaid	0	: 4	: 398
To - - -	5	: 3	: 000 the ſtandard price
The total, being 5	: 7	:	389 per ounce, is the value of the ſaid ſilver above ſtandard.

The general rule.

When ſilver is better than ſtandard, add the value of the better to the price of ſtandard; if worſe, ſubſtract the value from it.

So that, at the head of each column throughout the ſaid table, you will find the ſtandard prices; and in the margin of each page are ſet the quantities of the reports of better or worſe. And, laſtly, underneath the ſaid ſtandard prices, even with the ſaid reports, are ſet down, to the thouſandth part of a penny, how much in value an ounce of bullion is worth more or leſs than ſtandard ſilver.——Example.

When ſtandard is worth 5 s. 3 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per ounce, ſilver 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts worſe is worth leſs by 5 d. 281: therefore, to know the value of an ounce of this laſt ſilver,

	s.	d.	1000 pts
From	5 : 3	:	375 equal to $\frac{3}{8}$ of a penny, decimally ex-
Subſtract	0 : 5	:	281 worſe [preſſed
Remains	4 : 10	:	094 per ounce, the anſwer required.

Another Example.

Suppoſe that you have ſilver to ſell that is 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts better than ſtandard, and ſtandard is worth at this time 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{3}{8}$ per ounce, you would know what an ounce of the ſaid ſilver is worth.

Look at the top of the table for 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{3}{8}$, and in the column underneath, even with 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts, you will find 1 d. 825, that is to ſay, the ſaid ſilver is worth ſo much more than an ounce of ſtandard: therefore,

	s.	d.	1000 pts
Add -	0	: 1	: 825
To -	5	: 2	: 375 or $\frac{3}{8}$, the ſtandard price,
This total 5	: 4	:	200 is the anſwer, ſilver of that fineneſs being worth ſo much.

SILVER caſt up per the groſs weight.

Example 1. To know how much 189 ounces of ſilver, worſe than ſtandard by 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts, will amount to, at 5 s. 2 d. $\frac{5}{8}$ per ounce ſtandard,

	s,	d.	1000 pts
From - - - -	5	: 2	: 625 per ounce
Take for 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ dwts worſe - -	0	: 5	: 500 p. 2d table
Remains the value - -	4	: 9	: 125 per ounce

12

pence 57 : 125

Multiply by 189 oz.

12) 10796|625

2|0)899(8

The anſwer l. 44 : 19 : 8 $\frac{1}{2}$

GOLD of any fineneſs reduced into ſtandard weight, by the following table, from 100,000 ounces to one grain, and to the thouſandth part of a grain.

Of the Gold Standard.

1lb weight, or one ounce of gold, muſt contain

22 carats of fine gold,
1 carat of fine ſilver,
1 carat of fine copper,

} Together they make 24 carats, or 1 lb. weight, or 1 ounce Troy weight.

N. B. The carat is a term uſed by refiners and plate-workers, and others who deal in gold and ſilver, by which they ſignify a certain compoſition of weights, made uſe of in the aſſaying and computing of ſtandard gold; and this carat contains either the 24th part of a pound, or the 24th part of an ounce, Troy weight.

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

A lb. carat is this ſubdivided:

12 ounces - - - - make 24 carats
4 grains - - - - make 1 carat
4 quarters - - - - make 1 grain
10 dwts Troy - - - - make 1 carat
2 dwts 12 grs Troy - - make 1 grain
15 grains Troy - - - make 1 quarter-grain

An ounce carat is ſubdivided thus:

1 ounce Troy - - - makes 24 carats
4 grains - - - - make 1 carat
4 quarters - - - - make 1 grain
20 grains Troy - - - make 1 carat
5 grains Troy - - - make 1 carat-grain

THIRD TABLE.

For reducing gold to ſtandard.

Ounces.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts	dt.	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000pts
100,000	284	1	19	636	19	—	—	1	294
90,000	255	13	15	272	18	—	—	1	226
80,000	227	5	10	909	17	—	—	1	158
70,000	198	17	6	545	16	—	—	1	090
60,000	170	9	2	181	15	—	—	1	022
50,000	142	—	21	818	14	—	—	—	954
40,000	113	12	17	454	13	—	—	—	885
30,000	85	4	13	090	12	—	—	—	817
20,000	56	16	8	727	11	—	—	—	749
10,000	28	8	4	363	10	—	—	—	681
9000	25	11	8	727	9	—	—	—	613
8000	22	14	13	090	8	—	—	—	545
7000	19	17	17	454	7	—	—	—	477
6000	17	—	21	818	6	—	—	—	442
5000	14	4	2	181	5	—	—	—	340
4000	11	7	6	545	4	—	—	—	272
3000	8	10	10	909	3	—	—	—	221
2000	5	13	15	272	2	—	—	—	136
1000	2	16	19	636	1	—	—	—	068
900	2	11	3	272	23 gr.	—	—	—	065
800	2	5	10	909	22	—	—	—	062
700	1	19	18	545	21	—	—	—	059
600	1	14	2	181	20	—	—	—	056
500	1	8	9	818	19	—	—	—	053
400	1	2	17	454	18	—	—	—	051
300	—	17	1	090	17	—	—	—	048
200	—	11	8	727	16	—	—	—	045
100	—	5	16	363	15	—	—	—	042
90	—	5	2	727	14	—	—	—	039
80	—	4	13	090	13	—	—	—	036
70	—	3	23	454	12	—	—	—	034
60	—	3	9	818	11	—	—	—	031
50	—	2	20	181	10	—	—	—	028
40	—	2	6	545	9	—	—	—	025
30	—	1	16	909	8	—	—	—	022
20	—	1	3	272	7	—	—	—	019
10	—	—	13	636	6	—	—	—	017
9	—	—	12	272	5	—	—	—	014
8	—	—	10	909	4	—	—	—	011
7	—	—	9	545	3	—	—	—	008
6	—	—	8	181	2	—	—	—	005
5	—	—	6	818	1	—	—	—	002
4	—	—	5	454					
3	—	—	4	090					
2	—	—	2	727					
1	—	—	1	363					

N. B. When you have multiplied the weight of the bullion, collect the product out of this table.

The uſe of the Third Table foregoing.

When you have got a report of how much fine gold there is in a lb. weight, or an ounce weight of any bullion, more or leſs than there is in a lb. or an ounce of ſtandard gold, the ſaid table ſhews how much it will amount to in any quantity of the ſaid bullion. For the finding out of which, obſerve the following rules.

1. Reduce the report of better or worſe than ſtandard gold into quarter-grains.
2. Multiply the weight of the bullion by theſe quarter-grains.
3. Collect the product out of the third table, and add them together.
4. If it be better than ſtandard gold, add to it the groſs weight, and the total will be the ſtandard weight; if it be worſe than ſtandard, deduct the total of the addition from the groſs weight, and the remainder will be the ſtandard weight.

Example 1. To know the ſtandard weight of 462 ounces of gold worſe than ſtandard by 3 grains $\frac{1}{4}$.

Worſe — $3\frac{1}{4}$
Multiply by 4

13 quarter grains

Multiply 462 the groſs weight
By — 13 the quarter-grains
Make - 6006 called ounces.

Collect out of the Third Table.

oz.		oz. dts. grs. 1000pts
6000	is	17 : 0 : 21 : 818
6	is	0 : 0 : 8 : 181
6006	is	17 : 1 : 5 : 999 worſe

	oz.	dts.	grs.	1000 pts
From	462	0	0	000 the groſs weight
Take	17	1	5	999 worſe
Remain	444	18	18	001 the ſtandard weight.

Example 2. To know the ſtandard weight of 596 ounces of gold, worſe 1 car. 1 gr. $\frac{3}{4}$.

car. gr.
1 : 1 $\frac{3}{4}$
4
5
4

23 quarter-grains, which multiplied by 596 oz. groſs weight, make 13708, which call ounces.

Collect out of the Table.

oz.		oz.	dt.	gr.	1000 pts
10000	is	28	8	4	363
3000	is	8	10	10	909
700	is	1	19	18	545
8	is	0	0	10	909
13708		38	18	20	726

	oz.	dt.	gr.	1000 pts	
From	596	0	0	000	the groſs weight.
Take	38	18	20	726	worſe than ſtandard.
Remains	557	1	3	274	ſtandard weight

Example 3. To know how much ſtandard gold there is in 67 oz. 19 dwts. 11 grs. better by 2 grains $\frac{1}{4}$.

	oz.	dts.	grs.		grs.
Multiply	67	19	11		2 $\frac{1}{4}$
By	0	0	9	quarter-grains	4
Collect	611	15	3	out of the 3 tab.	9 quarter-grains.

oz.	dts.	grs.		oz.	dts.	grs.	1000 pts
600	0	0		1	14	2	181
10	0	0		0	0	13	636
1	0	0		0	0	1	363
0	15	0		0	0	1	022
0	0	3		0	0	0	008
611	15	3		1	14	18	210 better than ſtand.

	oz.	dts.	grs.	
To	67	19	11	the groſs weight
Add	1	14	18	better
Makes	69	14	5	ſtandard weight.

Gold valued by the groſs weight, ſhewing how much an ounce of gold of any fineneſs is worth, more or leſs than an ounce of ſtandard gold, to the thouſandth part of a penny, from one quarter of a carat-grain better or worſe, to fix carats worſe than ſtandard.

The ſtandard prices from 3 l. 15 s. to 4 l. 1 s. per ounce.

FOURTH TABLE.

From 3 l. 15 s. to 3 l. 15 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 15 s. per			At 3 l. 15 s. 1 d.			At 3 l. 15 s. 2 d.		
	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts
$\frac{1}{4}$	—	2	556	—	2	559	—	2	562
$\frac{1}{2}$	—	5	113	—	5	119	—	5	125
$\frac{3}{4}$	—	7	670	—	7	778	—	7	687
1 Grain	—	10	227	—	10	238	—	10	250
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1	—	784	1	—	798	1	—	812
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	3	340	1	3	535	1	3	375
1 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	5	897	1	5	917	1	5	937
2 Grains	1	8	454	1	8	477	1	8	500
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	1	11	011	1	11	036	1	11	062
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	568	2	1	596	2	1	625
2 $\frac{3}{4}$	2	4	124	2	4	156	2	4	187
3 Grains	2	6	681	2	6	715	2	6	750
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	9	238	2	9	275	2	9	312
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	11	795	2	11	835	2	11	875
3 $\frac{3}{4}$	3	2	352	3	2	394	3	2	437
1 Carat	3	4	909	3	4	954	3	5	000
2	6	9	818	6	9	909	6	10	000
3	10	2	727	10	2	863	10	3	000
4	13	7	636	13	7	818	13	8	000
5	17	—	545	17	—	772	17	1	000
6	20	5	454	20	5	727	20	6	000

B. or W.	At 3 l. 15 s. 3 d.			At 3 l. 15 s. 4 d.			At 3 l. 15 s. 5 d.		
	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts	s.	d.	Parts
$\frac{1}{4}$	—	2	565	—	2	568	—	2	571
$\frac{1}{2}$	—	5	130	—	5	136	—	5	142
$\frac{3}{4}$	—	7	696	—	7	704	—	7	713
1 Grain	—	10	261	—	10	272	—	10	284
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1	—	826	1	—	840	1	—	855
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	3	392	1	3	409	1	3	426
1 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	5	957	1	5	977	1	5	997
2 Grains	1	8	522	1	8	545	1	8	568
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	1	11	088	1	11	113	1	11	139
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	1	653	2	1	681	2	1	710
2 $\frac{3}{4}$	2	4	218	2	4	249	2	4	281
3 Grains	2	6	784	2	6	818	2	6	852
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	9	349	2	9	386	2	9	423
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	11	914	2	11	954	2	11	994
3 $\frac{3}{4}$	3	2	480	3	2	522	3	2	565
1 Carat	3	5	045	3	5	090	3	5	136
2	6	10	091	6	10	181	6	10	272
3	10	3	136	10	3	272	10	3	408
4	13	8	181	13	8	363	13	8	545
5	17	1	227	17	1	454	17	1	681
6	20	6	272	20	6	545	20	6	817

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

FOURTH TABLE Continued.

From 3 l. 15 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 15 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 15 s. 6 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 15 s. 7 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 15 s. 8 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	573	—	2	576	—	2	579
½	—	5	147	—	5	153	—	5	159
¾	—	7	721	—	7	730	—	7	738
1 Grain	—	10	295	—	10	306	—	10	318
1 ¼	1	—	869	1	—	883	1	—	897
1 ½	1	3	443	1	3	460	1	3	477
1 ¾	1	6	017	1	6	036	1	6	056
2 Grains	1	8	590	1	8	613	1	8	636
2 ¼	1	11	164	1	11	190	1	11	215
2 ½	2	1	738	2	1	767	2	1	795
2 ¾	2	4	312	2	4	343	2	4	374
3 Grains	2	6	886	2	6	920	2	6	954
3 ¼	2	9	460	2	9	497	2	9	534
3 ½	3	—	034	3	—	073	3	—	113
3 ¾	3	2	607	3	2	650	3	2	693
1 Carat	3	5	181	3	5	227	3	5	272
2	6	10	363	6	10	454	6	10	545
3	10	3	545	10	3	681	10	3	817
4	13	8	727	13	8	908	13	9	090
5	17	1	908	17	2	136	17	2	363
6	20	7	090	20	7	363	20	7	635

From 3 l. 15 s. 9 d. to 3 l. 15 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 15 s. 9 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 15 s. 10 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 15 s. 11 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	582	—	2	585	—	2	588
½	—	5	164	—	5	170	—	5	176
¾	—	7	747	—	7	755	—	7	764
1 Grain	—	10	329	—	10	340	—	10	352
1 ¼	1	—	911	1	—	926	1	—	940
1 ½	1	3	494	1	3	511	1	3	528
1 ¾	1	6	076	1	6	096	1	6	116
2 Grains	1	8	659	1	8	681	1	8	704
¼	1	11	241	1	11	266	1	11	292
½	2	1	823	2	1	852	2	1	880
¾	2	4	406	2	4	437	2	4	468
3 Grains	2	6	988	2	7	022	2	7	056
3 ¼	2	9	570	2	9	607	2	9	644
3 ½	3	—	153	3	—	193	3	—	232
3 ¾	3	2	735	3	2	778	3	2	820
1 Carat	3	5	318	3	5	363	3	5	408
2	6	10	636	6	10	727	6	10	817
3	10	3	954	10	4	090	10	4	226
4	13	9	272	13	9	454	13	9	635
5	17	2	590	17	2	817	17	3	044
6	20	7	908	20	8	181	20	8	453

From 3 l. 16 s. to 3 l. 16 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 16 s. per s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 16 s. 1 d s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 16 s. 2 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	590	—	2	593	—	2	596
½	—	5	181	—	5	187	—	5	193
¾	—	7	772	—	7	781	—	7	789
1 Grain	—	10	363	—	10	375	—	10	386
1 ¼	1	—	954	1	—	968	1	—	982
1 ½	1	3	545	1	3	562	1	3	579
1 ¾	1	6	136	1	6	156	1	6	176
2 Grains	1	8	727	1	8	750	1	8	772
2 ¼	1	11	318	1	11	343	1	11	369
2 ½	2	1	909	2	1	937	2	1	965
2 ¾	2	4	499	2	4	531	2	4	562
3 Grains	2	7	090	2	7	125	2	7	159
3 ¼	2	9	681	2	9	718	2	9	755
3 ½	3	—	272	3	—	312	3	—	352
3 ¾	3	2	862	3	2	906	3	2	948
1 Carat	3	5	454	3	5	500	3	5	545
2	6	10	908	6	11	000	6	11	090
3	10	4	363	10	4	500	10	4	636
4	13	9	817	13	10	000	13	10	181
5	17	3	272	17	3	500	17	3	727
6	20	8	726	20	9	000	20	9	272

From 3 l. 16 s. 3 d. to 3 l. 16 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 16 s. 3 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 16 s. 4 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 16 s. 5 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	599	—	2	602	—	2	605
½	—	5	198	—	5	204	—	5	210
¾	—	7	798	—	7	806	—	7	815
1 Grain	—	10	397	—	10	409	—	10	420
1 ¼	1	—	997	1	1	011	1	1	025
1 ½	1	3	596	1	3	613	1	3	630
1 ¾	1	6	196	1	6	215	1	6	235
2 Grains	1	8	795	1	8	818	1	8	840
2 ¼	1	11	394	1	11	420	1	11	445
2 ½	2	1	994	2	2	022	2	2	051
2 ¾	2	4	593	2	4	624	2	4	656
3 Grains	2	7	193	2	7	227	2	7	261
3 ¼	2	9	792	2	9	829	2	9	866
3 ½	3	—	392	3	—	431	3	—	471
3 ¾	3	2	991	3	3	034	3	3	076
1 Carat	3	5	590	3	5	630	3	5	681
2	6	11	181	6	11	272	6	11	363
3	10	4	772	10	4	908	10	5	045
4	13	10	363	13	10	545	13	10	727
5	17	3	954	17	4	181	17	4	408
6	20	9	545	20	9	817	20	10	090

From 3 l. 16 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 16 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 16 s. 6 d. s.	d.	Parts.	At 3 l. 16 s. 7 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 16 s. 8 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	607	—	2	610	—	2	613
½	—	5	215	—	5	221	—	5	227
¾	—	7	823	—	7	832	—	7	840
1 Grain	—	10	431	—	10	443	—	10	454
1 ¼	1	1	039	1	1	053	1	1	068
1 ½	1	3	647	1	3	664	1	3	681
1 ¾	1	6	255	1	6	275	1	6	295
2 Grains	1	8	863	1	8	886	1	8	909
2 ¼	1	11	471	1	11	497	1	11	522
2 ½	2	2	079	2	2	107	2	2	136
2 ¾	2	4	687	2	4	718	2	4	749
3 Grains	2	7	295	2	7	329	2	7	363
3 ¼	2	9	903	2	9	940	2	9	977
3 ½	3	—	511	3	—	551	3	—	590
3 ¾	3	3	119	3	3	161	3	3	204
1 Carat	3	5	727	3	5	772	3	5	818
2	6	11	454	6	11	545	6	11	636
3	10	5	181	10	5	317	10	5	454
4	13	10	908	13	11	090	13	11	272
5	17	4	636	17	4	863	17	5	090
6	20	10	363	20	10	635	20	10	908

From 3 l. 16 s. 9 d. to 3 l. 16 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 16 s. 9 d. s.	d.	Parts.	At 3 l. 16 s. 10 d s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 16 s. 11 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	616	—	2	619	—	2	622
½	—	5	232	—	5	238	—	5	244
¾	—	7	849	—	7	857	—	7	866
1 Grain	—	10	465	—	10	477	—	10	488
1 ¼	1	1	082	1	1	096	1	1	110
1 ½	1	3	698	1	3	715	1	3	732
1 ¾	1	6	315	1	6	335	1	6	355
2 Grains	1	8	931	1	8	954	1	8	979
2 ¼	1	11	548	1	11	573	1	11	599
2 ½	2	2	164	2	2	193	2	2	221
2 ¾	2	4	781	2	4	812	2	4	843
3 Grains	2	7	397	2	7	431	2	7	465
3 ¼	2	10	014	2	10	051	2	10	087
3 ½	3	—	630	3	—	670	3	—	710
3 ¾	3	3	247	3	3	289	3	3	332
1 Carat	3	5	863	3	5	908	3	5	954
2	6	11	727	6	11	817	6	11	908
3	10	5	590	10	5	726	10	5	863
4	13	11	454	13	11	635	13	11	817
5	17	5	317	17	5	544	17	5	772
6	20	11	181	20	11	453	20	11	726

From 3 l. 17 s. to 3 l. 17 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B or W.	At 3 l. 17 s. per s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 1 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 2 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	625	—	2	627	—	2	630
½	—	5	250	—	5	255	—	5	261
¾	—	7	875	—	7	883	—	7	892
1 Grain	—	10	500	—	10	511	—	10	522
1 ¼	1	1	125	1	1	139	1	1	153
1 ½	1	3	750	1	3	767	1	3	784
1 ¾	1	6	375	1	6	394	1	6	414
2 Grains	1	9	000	1	9	022	1	9	045
2 ¼	1	11	625	1	11	650	1	11	676
2 ½	2	2	250	2	2	278	2	2	306
2 ¾	2	4	875	2	4	906	2	4	937
3 Grains	2	7	500	2	7	534	2	7	568
3 ¼	2	10	125	2	10	161	2	10	198
3 ½	3	—	750	3	—	789	3	—	829
3 ¾	3	3	375	3	3	417	3	3	460
1 Carat	3	6	000	3	6	045	3	6	090
2	7	—	000	7	—	090	7	—	181
3	10	6	000	10	6	136	10	6	272
4	14	—	000	14	—	181	14	—	363
5	17	6	000	17	6	227	17	6	454
6	21	—	000	21	—	272	21	—	545

From 3 l. 17 s. 3 d. to 3 l. 17 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 17 s. 3 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 4 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 5 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	633	—	2	636	—	2	639
½	—	5	267	—	5	272	—	5	278
¾	—	7	900	—	7	909	—	7	917
1 Grain	—	10	534	—	10	545	—	10	556
1 ¼	1	1	167	1	1	181	1	1	196
1 ½	1	3	801	1	3	818	1	3	835
1 ¾	1	6	434	1	6	454	1	6	474
2 Grains	1	9	068	1	9	090	1	9	113
2 ¼	1	11	701	1	11	727	1	11	752
2 ½	2	2	335	2	2	363	2	2	392
2 ¾	2	4	968	2	4	999	2	5	031
3 Grains	2	7	602	2	7	636	2	7	670
3 ¼	2	10	235	2	10	272	2	10	309
3 ½	3	—	869	3	—	909	3	—	948
3 ¾	3	3	502	3	3	545	3	3	583
1 Carat	3	6	136	3	6	181	3	6	227
2	7	—	272	7	—	363	7	—	454
3	10	6	408	10	6	545	10	6	681
4	14	—	545	14	—	727	14	—	908
5	17	6	681	17	6	908	17	7	135
6	21	—	817	21	1	090	21	1	385

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

FOURTH TABLE Continued.

From 3 l. 17 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 17 s. 11 d per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 17 s. 6 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 7 d s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 8 d: s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	642	—	2	644	—	2	647
½	—	5	284	—	5	289	—	5	295
¾	—	7	926	—	7	934	—	7	943
1 Grain	—	10	568	—	10	579	—	10	590
1 ¼	1	1	210	1	1	224	1	1	238
1 ½	1	3	852	1	3	869	1	3	886
1 ¾	1	6	494	1	6	514	1	6	534
2 Grains	1	9	136	1	9	159	1	9	181
2 ¼	1	11	778	1	11	803	1	11	829
2 ½	2	2	420	2	2	448	2	2	477
2 ¾	2	5	062	2	5	093	2	5	124
3 Grains	2	7	704	2	7	738	2	7	772
3 ¼	2	10	346	2	10	383	2	10	420
3 ½	3	—	988	3	1	028	3	1	068
3 ¾	3	3	630	3	3	673	3	3	715
1 Carat	3	6	272	3	6	318	3	6	363
2	7	—	545	7	—	636	7	—	727
3	10	6	817	10	6	954	10	7	090
4	14	1	099	14	1	272	14	1	454
5	17	7	363	17	7	590	17	7	817
6	21	1	636	21	1	908	21	2	181

B. or W.	At 3 l. 17 s. 9 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 10 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 17 s. 11 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	650	—	2	653	—	2	656
½	—	5	301	—	5	306	—	5	312
¾	—	7	951	—	7	960	—	7	968
1 Grain	—	10	602	—	10	613	—	10	624
1 ¼	1	1	252	1	1	267	1	1	281
1 ½	1	3	903	1	3	920	1	3	937
1 ¾	1	6	554	1	6	573	1	6	593
2 Grains	1	9	204	1	9	227	1	9	249
2 ¼	1	11	855	1	11	880	1	11	906
2 ½	2	2	505	2	2	534	2	2	562
2 ¾	2	5	156	2	5	187	2	5	218
3 Grains	2	7	806	2	7	840	2	7	874
3 ¼	2	10	457	2	10	494	2	10	531
3 ½	3	1	107	3	1	147	3	1	187
3 ¾	3	3	758	3	3	801	3	3	843
1 Carat	3	6	408	3	6	454	3	6	499
2	7	—	817	7	—	908	7	—	999
3	10	7	226	10	7	363	10	7	499
4	14	1	635	14	1	817	14	1	999
5	17	8	044	17	8	272	17	8	499
6	21	2	455	21	2	726	21	2	999

From 3 l. 18 s. 6 d. to 3 l. 18 s. 11 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 18 s. 6 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 7 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 8 d: s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	676	—	2	678	—	2	681
½	—	5	352	—	5	357	—	5	363
¾	—	8	028	—	8	036	—	8	045
1 Grain	—	10	704	—	10	715	—	10	727
1 ¼	1	1	380	1	1	394	1	1	409
1 ½	1	4	056	1	4	073	1	4	090
1 ¾	1	6	732	1	6	752	1	6	772
2 Grains	1	9	409	1	9	431	1	9	454
2 ¼	2	—	085	2	—	110	2	—	136
2 ½	2	2	761	2	2	789	2	2	818
2 ¾	2	5	437	2	5	468	2	5	500
3 Grains	2	8	113	2	8	147	2	8	181
3 ¼	2	10	789	2	10	826	2	10	863
3 ½	3	1	465	3	1	505	3	1	545
3 ¾	3	4	142	3	4	184	3	4	227
1 Carat	3	6	818	3	6	863	3	6	909
2	7	1	636	7	1	777	7	1	818
3	10	8	454	10	8	590	10	8	727
4	14	3	272	14	3	454	14	3	636
5	17	10	090	17	10	317	17	10	545
6	21	4	909	21	5	181	21	5	454

B. or W.	At 3 l. 18 s. 9 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 10 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 11 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	684	—	2	687	—	2	690
½	—	5	369	—	5	375	—	5	380
¾	—	8	053	—	8	062	—	8	071
1 Grain	—	10	738	—	10	750	—	10	761
1 ¼	1	1	423	1	1	437	1	1	451
1 ½	1	4	107	1	4	125	1	4	142
1 ¾	1	6	792	1	6	792	1	6	832
2 Grains	1	9	477	1	9	500	1	9	522
2 ¼	2	—	161	2	—	188	2	—	213
2 ½	2	2	846	2	2	875	2	2	903
2 ¾	2	5	531	2	5	562	2	5	593
3 Grains	2	8	215	2	8	250	2	8	284
3 ¼	2	10	900	2	10	937	2	10	974
3 ½	3	1	585	3	1	625	3	1	664
3 ¾	3	4	269	3	4	312	3	4	355
1 Carat	3	6	954	3	7	000	3	7	045
2	7	1	908	7	2	000	7	2	090
3	10	8	863	10	9	000	10	9	136
4	14	3	817	14	4	000	14	4	181
5	17	10	772	17	11	000	17	11	227
6	21	5	726	21	6	000	21	6	272

From 3 l. 18 s. to 3 l. 18 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 18 s. per s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 1 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 2 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	659	—	2	661	—	2	664
½	—	5	318	—	5	323	—	5	329
¾	—	7	977	—	7	985	—	7	994
1 Grain	—	10	636	—	10	647	—	10	659
1 ¼	1	1	295	1	1	309	1	1	323
1 ½	1	3	954	1	3	971	1	3	988
1 ¾	1	6	613	1	6	633	1	6	653
2 Grains	1	9	272	1	9	295	1	9	318
2 ¼	1	11	931	1	11	957	1	11	982
2 ½	2	2	590	2	2	619	2	2	647
2 ¾	2	5	250	2	5	281	2	5	312
3 Grains	2	7	909	2	7	943	2	7	977
3 ¼	2	10	568	2	10	605	2	10	642
3 ½	3	1	227	3	1	267	3	1	306
3 ¾	3	3	886	3	3	928	3	3	971
1 Carat	3	6	545	3	6	590	3	6	636
2	7	1	090	7	1	181	7	1	272
3	10	7	636	10	7	772	10	7	909
4	14	2	181	14	2	363	14	2	545
5	17	8	727	17	8	954	17	9	181
6	21	3	272	21	3	545	21	3	818

B. or W.	At 3 l. 18 s. 3 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 4 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 18 s. 5 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	667	—	2	670	—	2	673
½	—	5	335	—	5	340	—	5	346
¾	—	8	002	—	8	011	—	8	019
1 Grain	—	10	670	—	10	681	—	10	693
1 ¼	1	1	338	1	1	352	1	1	366
1 ½	1	4	005	1	4	022	1	4	039
1 ¾	1	6	673	1	6	693	1	6	713
2 Grains	1	9	340	1	9	363	1	9	386
2 ¼	2	—	008	2	—	034	2	—	059
2 ½	2	2	676	2	2	704	2	2	732
2 ¾	2	5	343	2	5	375	2	5	406
3 Grains	2	8	011	2	8	045	2	8	079
3 ¼	2	10	678	2	10	716	2	10	752
3 ½	3	1	346	3	1	386	3	1	426
3 ¾	3	4	014	3	4	057	3	4	099
1 Carat	3	6	681	3	6	727	3	6	772
2	7	1	363	7	1	454	7	1	545
3	10	8	045	10	8	181	10	8	317
4	14	2	727	14	2	909	14	3	090
5	17	9	408	17	9	636	17	9	863
6	21	4	090	21	4	363	21	4	635

From 3 l. 19 s. to 3 l. 19 s. 5 d. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 19 s. per s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 19 s. 1 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 19 s. 2 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	693	—	2	696	—	2	698
½	—	5	386	—	5	392	—	5	397
¾	—	8	079	—	8	088	—	8	096
1 Grain	—	10	772	—	10	784	—	10	795
1 ¼	1	1	465	1	1	480	1	1	494
1 ½	1	4	159	1	4	176	1	4	193
1 ¾	1	6	852	1	6	872	1	6	892
2 Grains	1	9	545	1	9	568	1	9	590
2 ¼	2	—	238	2	—	264	2	—	289
2 ½	2	2	931	2	2	960	2	2	988
2 ¾	2	5	625	2	5	656	2	5	687
3 Grains	2	8	318	2	8	352	2	8	386
3 ¼	2	11	011	2	11	048	2	11	085
3 ½	3	1	704	3	1	744	3	1	784
3 ¾	3	4	397	3	4	440	3	4	482
1 Carat	3	7	090	3	7	130	3	7	181
2	7	2	181	7	2	272	7	2	363
3	10	9	272	10	9	408	10	9	545
4	14	4	363	14	4	544	14	4	727
5	17	11	454	17	11	680	17	11	909
6	21	6	545	21	6	816	21	7	090

B. or W.	At 3 l. 19 s. 3 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 19 s. 4 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 19 s. 5 d. s:	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	701	—	2	704	—	2	707
½	—	5	403	—	5	409	—	5	414
¾	—	8	105	—	8	113	—	8	122
1 Grain	—	10	806	—	10	818	—	10	829
1 ¼	1	1	508	1	1	522	1	1	536
1 ½	1	4	210	1	4	227	1	4	244
1 ¾	1	6	911	1	6	931	1	6	951
2 Grains	1	9	613	1	9	636	1	9	659
2 ¼	2	—	315	2	—	340	2	—	366
2 ½	2	3	017	2	3	045	2	3	073
2 ¾	2	5	718	2	5	750	2	5	781
3 Grains	2	8	420	2	8	454	2	8	488
3 ¼	2	11	122	2	11	158	2	11	195
3 ½	3	1	823	3	1	863	3	1	903
3 ¾	3	4	525	3	4	568	3	4	610
1 Carat	3	7	227	3	7	272	3	7	318
2	7	2	454	7	2	545	7	2	636
3	10	9	681	10	9	818	10	9	954
4	14	4	908	14	5	090	14	5	272
5	18	—	135	18	—	363	18	—	590
6	21	7	363	21	7	636	21	7	908

TABLES for the Computation of BULLION GOLD.

FOURTH TABLE.

From 3 l. 19 s. 6 d. to 4 l. 1 s. per Ounce Standard.

B. or W.	At 3 l. 19 s. 6 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 19 s. 7 d. s	d.	Parts	At 3 l. 19 s. 8 d. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	710	—	2	713	—	2	715
½	—	5	420	—	5	426	—	5	431
¾	—	8	130	—	8	139	—	8	147
1 Grain	—	10	840	—	10	852	—	10	863
1 ¼	1	1	551	1	1	562	1	1	579
1 ½	1	4	261	1	4	278	1	4	295
1 ¾	1	6	971	1	6	991	1	7	011
2 Grains	1	9	681	1	9	704	1	9	727
2 ¼	2	—	392	2	—	417	2	—	443
2 ½	2	3	102	2	3	130	2	3	159
2 ¾	2	5	812	2	5	843	2	5	875
3 Grains	2	8	522	2	8	556	2	8	590
4 ¼	2	11	232	2	11	269	2	11	306
3 ½	3	1	943	3	1	982	3	2	022
3 ¾	3	4	653	3	4	695	3	4	738
1 Carat	3	7	363	3	7	409	3	7	454
2	7	2	727	7	2	818	7	2	909
3	10	10	090	10	10	227	10	10	363
4	14	5	454	14	5	636	14	5	818
5	18	—	818	18	1	045	18	1	272
6	21	8	181	21	8	454	21	2	727

B. or W.	At 3 l. 19 s. 10 d. s.	d.	Parts	At 4 l. per Oz. s.	d.	Parts	At 4 l. 1 s. p. Oz. s.	d.	Parts
¼	—	2	721	—	2	727	—	2	761
½	—	5	443	—	5	454	—	5	522
¾	—	8	164	—	8	181	—	8	284
1 Grain	—	10	886	—	10	909	—	11	045
1 ¼	1	1	607	1	1	636	1	1	806
1 ½	1	4	329	1	4	363	1	4	568
1 ¾	1	7	051	1	7	090	1	7	329
2 Grains	1	9	772	1	9	818	1	10	090
2 ¼	2	—	494	2	—	545	2	—	852
2 ½	2	3	215	2	3	272	2	3	613
2 ¾	2	5	937	2	6	000	2	6	375
3 Grains	2	8	659	2	8	727	2	9	136
3 ¼	2	11	380	2	11	454	2	11	897
3 ½	3	2	102	3	2	181	3	2	659
3 ¾	3	4	823	3	4	909	3	5	420
1 Carat	3	7	545	3	7	636	3	8	181
2	7	3	090	7	3	272	7	4	363
3	10	10	636	10	10	908	11	—	545
4	14	6	181	14	6	545	14	8	727
5	18	1	727	18	2	181	18	4	909
6	21	9	272	21	9	817	22	1	090

The use of the foregoing Table.

GOLD cast up by the gross weight.

Example 1. To know the intrinsic value of 462 ounces of gold worse than standard by three grains ¼, when standard is valued at 3 l. 18 s. per ounce.

	l.	s.	d.	1000pts	
From - - -	3	18	0	000	per ounce standard
Take for 3 gr. ¼ w.	0	2	10	568	per
The value per ounce	3	15	1	432	
Multiply by - - - - - -				462	ounces
	7	10	2	864	
	225	7	1	920	
	1502	7	10	800	
Answer - -	1735	5	1½, or 584		

The same proved by the third table.

The first example, which illustrates the third table, shews that 462 ounces of gold, worse than standard 3 grains ¼, makes 444 oz. 18 dwts. 18 grains standard;

	oz.	dts.	grs.	
And - -	444	18	18	at l. 3 : 18 per ounce
	1779	15	0	
	44	9	10½	
Comes to l.	1735	5	1½	

So that you may see, by the foregoing example, that the third table will prove the fourth in regard to gold, as the first will prove the second, in regard to silver.

Example 2. To know the value of 596 ounces of gold, worse 1 carat, 1 grain ¾, when standard is worth l. 3 : 15 : 5 per ounce.

	l.	s.	d.	1000pts.	
From - -	3	15	5	000	
Less - -	0	3	5	136	for 1 carat worse.
Less - -	0	1	5	997	for 1 grain ¾
Take - -	0	4	11	133	
Remains value	3	10	5	867	per ounce
Multiplied by				596	ounces.
	21	2	11	202	
	317	4	0	030	
	1762	4	5	500	
Answer	2100	11	4	732	

The same proved by the third table.

In the second example, which explains that table, you will find that 596 oz. worse 1 car. 1 gr. ¾, make standard 557 oz. 1 dwt. 3 grs. 274.

oz.	dts.	grs.	1000pts	
557	1	3	274	at l. 3 : 15 : 5 per ounce
1671	3	4	911	
278	10	6	818	
139	5	3	409	
11	12	1	284	
Come to l. 2100	11	4	422	

Example 3. To know how much sterling 67 oz. 19 dwts. 11 grs. of gold, better 2 grains ¼, will amount to, at 3 l. 17 s. 6 d. per ounce standard.

	l.	s	d.		
per ounce -	3	17	6		
	20				
	77	6			
For 1 gr. ¼ add	1	11	778	better	
	79	5	778		
	12				
Pence - -	953			778	per ounce
Multiply by				67	ounces
	6676446				
	5722668				
	476889	for 10 dts.			
	238444	5			
	190755	4			
	19870	—		10	grs.
	1987	—		1	
	12)6483 1 071				
	2 10)540 2 : 7				
	l. 270	2	7	the answer.	

The same also may be proved by the third table.

REMARKS relating to the practical Trade of BULLION.

When gold and silver are in their purity, or as purely refined as the nature of the metals will admit of [see the article REFINING] they are so flexible, that they cannot be so well wrought into any form for use, without being hardened with an allay [see the article ALLAY] of some baser metal.

To prevent the abuses which some might be tempted to commit in the making of such allays, the legislators of well policed countries have ordained, that there shall be no more than such a particular weight of a baser metal incorporated with the finer, to a certain quantity of pure gold, or silver, in order to render them of the fineness of what is called the standard gold or silver of particular countries.

We have already seen what are the rules of this proportion with regard to England. According to law, all sorts of wrought plate in general ought to be made in conformity to the standard: and the price of the said standard gold and silver is the common rule whereby to value bullion, whether it be in the mass, bars, dust, or in pieces of foreign money; so that the true value of bullion cannot be known without being assayed, [see ASSAY] the use of the assay being accurately to discover what quantity of allay there is contained in any bullion, more or less than there is in standard gold or silver: for, if there be less allay therein than there is in the standard, so much as there is less makes the bullion proportionably finer, and, consequently, more valuable, as we have seen by examples, than standard. On the other hand, if there be more allay in any bullion than the standard requires, such bullion will be coarser, or worse than standard, and, therefore, will be so much the less valuable.

From what has been said it is obvious, that all who traffic in bullion gold and silver, and foreign coins, &c. cannot be too delicate in having their assays made with accuracy, nor too expert in the computations necessary upon those occasions. Bullion being a commodity, like others, there is some sagacity required in the dealing therein, as well as in others, there being markets where, and seasons when, it is frequently to be bought cheap, and sold at others to an handsome profit.

How gold and silver in bullion, or foreign money, may occasionally be turned to advantage in Holland, &c. when the courses of exchange are favourable, shall be shewn under the articles of GOLD and SILVER, and other heads, to which we shall refer from time to time, as the nature of our subject requires.

Political REMARKS upon BULLION.

There has not been any capital article of traffic more generally misunderstood, perhaps, than what relates to gold and silver, or bullion, which some would have not to be reckoned a commodity, or merchandize, and, therefore, not permitted to go out, when once brought into the kingdom. But those who seem to have thought the cleared and deepest upon this matter, have been of a different sentiment; and, in consequence of judging bullion gold or silver to be merchandize,

dize, have contended for it's free exportation, as well as importation.

Thoſe nations that bring in gold or ſilver by means of their exports of variety of merchandize, are upon an equal footing with thoſe countries that have mines in their poſſeſſion, and barter their gold and ſilver for commodities; and, in ſuch trading ſtates, that have no gold or ſilver mines, gold and ſilver become a ſpecies of merchandize, as well as any other; a merchandize that may be turned in trade with advantage, and, therefore, more valuable in ſuch a country, than where they were firſt dug from the mines. Induſtry, and ſkill to improve trade, and the apt ſituation of a country for it, afford more real treaſure to a people than even the poſſeſſion of gold and ſilver mines: nor can any quantity thereof, that may be dug out of the mines, bear a proportion with what may be made to ariſe from the whole labour of a trading, induſtrious, and populous nation. For the national ſtock, though ſmall at firſt, is, by ſuch means, ever increaſing, and that increaſe ſtill accumulating more and more; ſo that the augmentation ariſing from ſuch accumulating increaſe, and the gold and ſilver gained from other nations in trade for commodities, makes a perpetual addition: which being permanent, ſuch nation has no bounds to it's wealth; while other countries that poſſeſs mines, and rely on their produce, generally work them chiefly for the induſtrious of other countries, and may become beggars, notwithſtanding their firſt property of all the gold and ſilver in the world.

The ſtrict prohibition in Spain againſt exporting gold and ſilver, was an early obſtruction to their commercial induſtry, and rendered that treaſure, in a great meaſure, uſeleſs to the bulk of the people. But if, on the contrary, gold and ſilver had been allowed commodities, it would, of courſe, have put them upon methods of turning them to more advantage: whereas, while their hands have been bound up by their own laws, the gold and ſilver brought from thence have been the tools wherewith other nations have wrought, and gained their riches. Had not this miſtaken policy diverted their thoughts from an active commerce, they would certainly have been, at this day, a different nation to what they are. At preſent, indeed, they ſeem to be ſenſible of their faux pas, and England, as well as other countries, is likely ſoon to experience the effects of a different policy, unleſs ſhe takes wiſe meaſures to prevent it, before it is too late.

Should it be objected to this reaſoning, that, as we have a great trade for our product and manufactures, and thereby bring in a general ballance of gold and ſilver, beſides other returns in commodities, for our expence, we ought only to carry out commodities in trade, and let the gold and ſilver remain among ourſelves, and by our laws prevent the exportation thereof; which is carrying out that treaſure again that comes to us by the ballance of our trade.

To this it has been anſwered, that gold and ſilver are no otherwiſe of intrinſic value of themſelves, than as they are a ſettled and conſtant meaſure whereby to value commodities of all kinds; which ſeems manifeſt from hence, that in ſuch countries, as in Africa, &c. where they are not the ſettled and conſtant meaſure for commodities, they are of no more uſe than any other trafficable commodity; and as particular ſpecies of merchandizes in demand throughout the world are to be had, ſome at one place, and ſome at another; ſo gold and ſilver are commodities wherein moſt nations agree, that the difference in the barter of all other commodities is anſwered and made up, and thereby of general uſe almoſt every-where; which being thus ſubſervient to trade, it is highly injurious, nay, it is it's very deſtruction, to take it from that uſe: but as to the imagination of retaining the ſame in the nation, without circulating out of it, this muſt be a national loſs: for that is keeping ſuch a dead ſtock to that value, which affords no manner of increaſe, and is of no more uſe, while it ſo continues, to the increaſe of the public capital (however ſhifted in private hands) than the like value of ſtatues, paintings, buildings, &c. the uſe of it among us ſerves to no other end than the convenient tranſacting of payments with one another, in our domeſtic negociations; and, when that end is anſwered, the plenty of gold and ſilver will be rather a national loſs (beſides it's lying dead) as it will naturally enhance the price of our own merchandizes to ourſelves, and thereby leſſen the demand for them by foreign nations; and conſequently, in time, ruin the trade, and impoveriſh the people, by enabling them to purſue only a paſſive, inſtead of an active general commerce, as has been hitherto the caſe of countries that have depended on their mines, and the miſtaken policy of not eſteeming gold and ſilver commodities.

To explain this matter by a familiar inſtance:

Suppoſe that our national debts, about ſeventy millions, were, by ſome accident, found under the ruins of Whitehall, in ſpecies of ſilver or gold, and were immediately iſſued out to the public creditors; ſuch an increaſe of treaſure, added to what we have already, would not be of that benefit to the kingdom, which ſome at firſt view may conceive; for, immediately the intereſt of money would, by the rule of proportion, ſink to one per cent. or rather to nothing, or elſe all the utenſils of our houſes muſt be made of theſe metals, or it muſt lie dead in the caſh-cheſt, without any proſpect of ever removing from thence; for, doubtleſs, ſuch who are againſt exporting money now, would be of the ſame mind then, if their arguments are of practical weight with themſelves; and what would be the natural conſequence of this, unleſs gold and ſilver were a commodity for export as well as import? By having the greater plenty of money, ſhould we not give the greater wages to the labourer, mechanic, and manufacturer, &c. and alſo for the native commodities of wool, lead, tin, corn, and ſo on? Beſides, ſuch perſons as now live by making ſome ſmall intereſt of their money, as gentlemen that are ſo wiſe as to lay up ſome part of their yearly revenues, widows, and minors, would not only be incapacitated to make any improvement of their money, but muſt pay more for their cloaths, and other neceſſaries, than they did before. But the greateſt misfortune of all is, that there would be no employment for our artizans and manufacturers; for foreign nations, which had not ſo much money in circulation, could not afford to buy our manufactures, at the enhanced value which our own plenty of money would raiſe them to: wherefore, under ſuch circumſtances, unleſs money was permitted the freedom of going and coming, of exporting as well as importing, according as people's occaſions required, (for no perſon exports money for his pleaſure) the nation would not grow the more proſperous.

But, upon the ſuppoſition of ſuch plenty of gold and ſilver, and thoſe, in every ſhape being eſteemed commodities: upon the ſuppoſition alſo of diſburdening our trade of it's preſent taxes, in conſequence of the diſcharge of our national debts, ſuch plenty of money, under a well regulated commerce, might be made inſtrumental ſo to univerſalize our trade, by raiſing an univerſal ſpirit for it among the people, that no nation, without the like capital of ready money, and the like advantage in all other reſpects, could work cheaper and underſell us; for the long credit that is now given in trade, for want of ready caſh to circulate it, is as heavy a clog on it as our debts and taxes *.

* I would by no means be thought to inſinuate any thing againſt the diſcharge of the national debts, and in conſequence thereof, leſſening the great weight of our taxes: on the contrary, I ſhall endeavour to ſhew by what meaſures and gradations thoſe incumbrances may, according to my humble judgment, be got rid of, without injury either to our commerce, the public credit, or to the national creditors.

But, ſhould it be granted convenient for us to keep within ourſelves all the bullion we can acquire, yet long experience has ſhewn the impracticability of keeping it by any laws: that could only be effectuated by the good management and regulation of our trade. Though the Spaniards make the exportation thereof death, nevertheleſs, in the way of trade, it is exported at noon-day; the ballance they pay for the manufactures of other countries, neceſſarily carries away their money, notwithſtanding the rigour and ſeverity of all their penal laws to prevent it *. It is, therefore, taking due care that the exportation of our native commodities ſhall always over-ballance the importation of foreign commodities, which muſt keep our money at home, and that only can do it. For if, upon the ballance of the exports and imports of our other commodities, we are gainers, and thereby payments are made to us in gold and ſilver, by other countries (for the ballance can be paid us in nothing elſe at laſt) that gold and ſilver being ſuffered to be made a commodity to fetch goods from ſome other countries, whence we cannot have them for any thing elſe, the re-exportation thereof to other countries would become a beneficial article in our commerce, and return a great ballance in it's own kind, (our trade otherwiſe, in products and manufactures, ſtill over-ballancing, as before) and would add greatly to the national ſtock; and, without ſuch a freedom in trade, a ſuperfluous plenty of bullion, or money, would be rather injurious than otherwiſe.

* This, alſo, ſhews the miſtaken policy of the Portugueze, in regard to the treatment our merchants have too long received at Liſbon; and which too, it is ſaid, is again revived, to the ſcandal of the Portugueze adminiſtration; ſeeing it is ſo recent that they owe their whole kingdom to Great-Britain.

If, by the wiſe regulation of our trade with foreign nations, the ballance is on our ſide, and we are gainers by ſending out our money to purchaſe ſuch goods, that may be ſold again to other countries, we muſt, as I have ſhewn under the article BALANCE of Trade, and alſo the article of BRITISH EMPIRE, by ſuch an increaſe of treaſure as this will give us, always be maſters of the exchange all over the world; which is ſuch an advantage in trade with any nation, that, although it may only be a trifle in our favour, it has a national tendency ariſing from itſelf, as I have ſhewn, to augment that ballance ſtill more and more to our emolument.

From what has been ſaid, it ſeems pretty evident, that gold and ſilver, or bullion, in any ſhape, ought to be reckoned a commodity, and is to be made uſe of to advantage in trade, as well as other commodities are; and, therefore, ought to have a free exportation, as conducive to the increaſe of the

capital ſtock of the kingdom. It muſt, however, be allowed, that, if we carry on ſuch a trade as importing conſumable commodities to be ſpent among us, more than our own commodities will anſwer in the ballance, which thereby muſt be paid in gold and ſilver, this will certainly be to our detriment, by draining us of our gold and ſilver, without any return, and be attended with a decay of our own manufactures: but, if this ſhould be our caſe, it is not to be remedied by any laws againſt the exportation of our gold and ſilver, but by the due regulation of our trade, by retrenching our conſumption of foreign merchandizes; by eſtabliſhing new trades and manufactures in the nation, and by purchaſing leſs merchandize of other countries, and ſelling more of our own; for the exportation of our gold and ſilver could not be the cauſe of ſuch our loſs, but the neceſſary and inevitable effect of ſuch our trade, vanity and luxury; which diſtinction ſhould be attentively and maturely conſidered.

There would be little difficulty to corroborate this reaſoning with a train of weighty arguments, and to confirm the ſame from the concurring ſentiments of the ableſt ſtateſmen; but, the letter B ſwelling to a length beyond the proportioned deſign, I ſhall refer the other matter to ſuch heads as have congruity with this topic; ſuch as the articles of COIN, GOLD, SILVER, MONEY, NATIONAL DEBTS, &c.

Bullion, or foreign coin of gold or ſilver, may, upon entry, be exported by any perſons, without payment of cuſtom or fees. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. ſect. 12. See COIN. Entered or ſhipped in the name of any other perſon, than the true owner and proprietor, forfeited, or the value. 6 and 7 Wil. III. cap. 17. ſect. 14. Seized, proof of it's being foreign, and not melted down in this kingdom, to lie upon the owner, claimer, or exporter. Ditto. See SILVER. Foreign coin, imported, may be landed without warrant.

Perſons having unlawful bullion ſhall be committed to goal by one juſtice for ſix months. Note. It is by one juſtice or warden of the company of goldſmiths, &c. within the bills of mortality, and by two juſtices in any town or place.

Two juſtices may grant a warrant, for a conſtable to ſearch any perſons houſes ſuſpected to have unlawful bullion, and to break open doors, boxes, &c. to ſearch for, and diſcover the ſame.

Perſons apprehending clippers, waſhers, counterfeiters, and filers of the current coin of this kingdom, ſhall have 40 l. paid them within one month after conviction, on certificate from the judge or juſtices before whom convicted.—Perſons guilty, convicting two, ſhall be pardoned; and an apprentice, making a diſcovery, ſhall be made a freeman. 6 and 7 W. III.

BUOY, a ſea-term, which has ſome connection with trade. It is a piece of wood, or of cork, ſometimes an empty barrel well cloſed, which floats upon the water, being tied to a ſmall cable faſtened at the bottom of the ſea, in order to let pilots and mariners know where the anchors are dropped in the harbours, or where thoſe lie, which have been left in the roads, becauſe they could not be taken up; the buoys ſerve alſo to ſhew where there are wrecks ſunk, or ſhallow places in the ſea, or other impediments which might be hurtful or dangerous to ſhips.

All thoſe buoys are diſtinguiſhed by the materials they are made of: the maſt-buoy is made with a piece of a maſt, or, for want of it, with a ſimple piece of wood; the barrel-buoy is made with ſtaves, tied together with hoops like a barrel; the cork-buoy is made of ſeveral pieces of cork, tied together with a rope.

A merchant-ſhip, lying in a harbour, ought to have a buoy at his anchor; and, if any loſs or damage ſhould happen for want of it, the maſter would be obliged to pay half the damage.

Sometimes the word buoy ſignifies a ſea-mark, to ſhew the difficult or dangerous paſſages.

When there are any duties or fees to be paid for buoys, the maſters of the ſhips are obliged to pay them, they not being reckoned among averages. See AVERAGE.

BURGUNDY. The duchy of Burgundy is bounded on the eaſt by the river Soane, which ſeparates it from Franche Comté; has Champagne on the north, Nivernois and Bourbonnois on the weſt, and Lyonnois on the ſouth. As it is one of the moſt fertile countries in France for corn and fruit, ſo there is none that produces more excellent wine, than that of Nuis, Chambertin, Belz, Coulange, Chaſſagne, Beaune, and Volenay, all in this province.

AUXERRE is very well ſituated for inland trade, both on account of the river, and it's eaſy communication with Paris; and yet it ſeems the inhabitants do not make all the advantage they could of that happy ſituation. This is the ſeat of four commiſſaries, who take cognizance of all affairs relating to the taille, and ſubſidies, or aids. Here is alſo kept a granary for ſalt.

At SEMUR alſo is a granary for ſalt; and ſeveral fairs are kept here in a year, and a market three times a week. The ſoil of this diſtrict is very good, abounding in corn and cattle, of which they drive a conſiderable trade; they have alſo very good wine.

MACON is the capital of the country of Mâconnois, famous for it's excellent wine. Here is a public granary of ſalt.

BOURG. Though this city be not well ſituated for trade, yet they keep there a great many fairs; all their trade conſiſts in horſes, cattle, and ſkins, which they whiten perfectly well, and ſell to the merchants of Grenoble and Lyons.

BURTHEN, or BURDEN of a ſhip, ſignifies it's contents, or how much it will carry. This is reckoned by the ton, of two thouſand pounds weight. Thus when we ſay, a ſhip, burthen a hundred ton, we mean, a ſhip capable to carry, in merchandizes, ammunition, proviſions, men, and ballaſt, a weight of a hundred times two thouſand pounds, or two hundred thouſand pounds weight, or two thouſand quintals: which muſt be underſtood proportionably of ſhips of a thouſand, or of two thouſand ton, which are the largeſt; and, when they are men of war, they are ſaid to be of the firſt or ſecond rate, &c. whoſe burthen, according to this evaluation, amounts ſometimes to above four millions of pounds.

BUSS, a ſmall ſea veſſel uſed by us and the Dutch in the herring-fiſhery. They call it in Dutch haering-buys; theſe veſſels are commonly from 48 to 60 tons burthen, and ſometimes more. They have two ſmall ſheds or cabins, one at the prow, and the other at the ſtern: that at the prow ſerves for a kitchen.

Each buſs has a maſter, an aſſiſtant, a mate, and ſeamen in proportion to the veſſel's bigneſs. The maſter commands in chief, and without his expreſs order the nets cannot be caſt nor taken up. The aſſiſtant has the command after him, and the mate next, whoſe buſineſs is to ſee the ſeamen manage the rigging in a proper manner; to mind thoſe who draw in the nets, and thoſe who kill, gut, and ſecure the herrings, as they are taken out of the ſea. The ſeamen do generally engage for a whole voyage in the lump.

The proviſions which they take on board the buſſes, conſiſt commonly in biſket, oatmeal, and dried, or ſalt fiſh; the crew being content for the reſt with what freſh fiſh they catch. See FISHERIES.

BUTESHIRE, in Scotland, contains two of the weſtern iſles, Bute and Arran, which lie in the firth of Clyde, north of Argyleſhire, eaſt from Cantyre, and weſt from Renfrew, Cunningham and Kyle. There is a great herring and cod-fiſhery on the coaſt. Arran has an excellent ſafe harbour and bay, on the eaſt ſide of the iſland.

REMARKS.

Is it not highly deſirable, that our whole fiſheries upon the coaſt of Scotland, were regulated and improved to the utmoſt degree of advantage they will ſo eaſily admit of? See FISHERIES, and SCOTLAND.

BUTLERAGE and PRISAGE. Theſe were originally the only cuſtom that was payable upon the importation of wines, and were taken and received by virtue of the regal prerogative, for the proper uſe of the crown: but, for many years paſt, there having been granted, by parliament, ſubſidies, or aids, to the kings of England, and theſe duties not repealed * but confirmed; they have been pleaſed to grant the ſame away to ſome noblemen, who, by virtue of ſuch grant or patent, is to enjoy the full benefit and advantage thereof, and may cauſe the ſame to be levied and collected in the ſame manner as the kings themſelves might, and were formerly wont to do.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. ſect. 16. 12th and 27th Rules of Book of Rates.

Butlerage is a duty of 2 s. for every ton of wine imported by merchants ſtrangers; being a compoſition (in lieu of the duty of priſage payable in kind by Engliſh only) in conſideration of the liberties and freedoms granted to them by king John and king Edward the Iſt, by a charter called Charta mercatoria *.

* 31 Edw. I. cap. 1. and 2. 27 Edw. III. cap. 26.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, from the end of Letter A.

THAT the reader may diſcern the connection of this part of our deſign, he is deſired to obſerve, that, at the cloſe of the letter A, we introduced him into a knowledge of the calculation of the DUTIES OF CUSTOMS, according to the method purſued in Sandby's book of rates, by an explanation of the table and liſt made uſe of for that purpoſe: after which we entered upon divers other particulars requiſite to the underſtanding of the practical buſineſs of that office.

Since the publication of Mr. Sandby's book of rates, another act of parliament was made in the 32d of Geo. II. intitled, An act for granting to his majeſty a ſubſidy of poundage upon certain goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and an additional duty on coffee and chocolate, &c.

The ſubſidy is 12 d. in the pound, to be raiſed, levied and collected upon all tobacco, foreign linnens, ſugar, and other groceries, as the ſame is underſtood in the book of rates, except currants; Eaſt India goods, except coffee and raw ſilks; foreign brandy and ſpirits, except rum of the produce of the Britiſh plantations; and paper, which ſhall be imported or brought into the kingdom of Great-Britain, according to the value or rate reſpectively ſet upon each of the ſaid commodities by the ſeveral books of rates, or any act or acts of parliament relating thereunto; which ſubſidy ſhall be paid by the importer of ſuch goods and merchandize, before the landing thereof, over and above all other duties charged or chargeable thereupon.

And it is further enacted and declared, by the authority aforeſaid, that the ſaid ſubſidy of poundage by this act impoſed, ſhall be raiſed, levied, collected and paid into his majeſty's exchequer, for the purpoſes in this act expreſſed, in ſuch and like form and manner, and with ſuch ALLOWANCES, DISCOUNTS, DRAWBACKS and EXEMPTIONS, and under ſuch PENALTIES and FORFEITURES, and according to ſuch RULES, METHODS, and DIRECTIONS, as are preſcribed or appointed for raiſing, levying, collecting and paying, the ſubſidy of five pounds per centum, granted by an act made in the twenty-firſt year of the reign of his late majeſty, intitled, An act for granting to his majeſty a ſubſidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandize to be imported into this kingdom, &c.—or as are contained in or by any other act or acts of parliament by the ſaid act of the twenty-firſt year of the reign of his late majeſty, referred unto, or any of them; and all and every the powers, authorities, rules, directions, penalties, forfeitures, clauſes, matters and things now in force, contained in the ſaid act made in the twenty-firſt year of his late majeſty's reign, &c. ſhall be in full force, and be duly obſerved, practiſed, and put in execution, &c. for raiſing and paying the ſubſidy of twelve-pence in the pound, by this act granted, as fully and effectually to all intents and purpoſes, as if the ſame or the like powers, authorities, rules, directions, penalties, &c. were particularly repeated and re-enacted in the body of this preſent act.

The clauſe, reſpecting the drawback, declares, Provided always, and it is hereby enacted and declared, that in all caſes where any goods or merchandizes, that have paid the ſubſidy hereby granted, ſhall at any time or times be again exported by any merchant or merchants, within three years from the importation thereof, THE SUBSIDY BY THIS ACT GRANTED, AND WHICH SHALL HAVE BEEN ACTUALLY PAID for ſuch goods, wares, or merchandizes, ſhall, without any delay or reward, be paid in to ſuch merchant or merchants who ſhall export the ſame, or the ſecurity vacated; except for ſuch goods or merchandizes, as by any former act or acts it is declared, no drawback ſhall be paid or allowed upon exportation of.

Then a drawback of three ſhillings per hundred weight is allowed on ſugar refined in Great Britain, and exported, oath made by refiner, that the ſugar ſo exported was produced from brown and muſcovado ſugar charged by this act, and that he believes, the ſame was imported from our plantations in America, and the duty duly paid at the time of importation.

The ſame act lays an additional duty of one ſhilling per lb. on coffee, and nine-pence per lb. on chocolate, to be collected as the former duties thereon.

REMARKS.

For the nature of computing this additional 12 d. in the pound, ſee the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, AT THE END OF LETTER A; which, if underſtood, no one can be at a loſs to compute this additional ſhilling in the pound, or any other of the like kind; and we have rather choſe to put the merchant importer in mind of the neceſſity of calculating his duties upon goods, according to the acts of parliament, than relying altogether on any ready calculated to his hand.—For the reaſon of which, we deſire him to conſult the concluſion of letter A.

And if what is there ſuggeſted ſhould be found to deſerve his conſideration, he will find, that what is there urged has relation as well to the preſent act of poundage, as it has to that of 1747; for as that of 1747 was bottomed upon the 12th of Charles II. and the merchant importer is intitled to the allowances therein ſet forth; and this act is bottomed alſo on that of 1747, he will diſcern what he ſeems to be intitled to by this laſt ſubſidy-act: but if the importers do not judge it prudent to have this matter only examined into, they muſt uſe their own pleaſure upon this occaſion.—The author has uprightly done his duty, by appriſing the public of what ſo materially concerns their intereſt, and there he leaves it; thinking it very improper to compute cuſtom-houſe tables for the payment of duties, which he is doubtful, for the reaſons given, whether they are legal or no.

As it would ſwell this work to an enormous ſize, to a ſize even little leſs than double, it will not be expected that we ſhould preſent the reader with only volumes of acts of parliaments, which he can have elſewhere at any time.—No; that would be doing him injuſtice.——We have interſperſed ſome of the eſſential, which the reader ſees the utility of; and when he has occaſion to conſult any particular act for his own ſatisfaction or government, either with relation to the cuſtom-houſe duties, or the exciſe, or any other part of the public revenue,—we refer him to Sandby's index at the end of his book of rates, and to the laws of exciſe; which together are very voluminous, and it would be an impoſition on the reader to fill theſe volumes therewith. But what we apprehend eſſential to be noticed, we have not omitted.

Of the buſineſs of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

In order to enter into the conſiſtency of this part of our deſign, the reader is further defired to attend to what has been ſaid at the cloſe of letter A. In purſuance of what is there promiſed, I ſhall proceed to ſome other parts of the practice of the cuſtom-houſe.

1. Of the INWARD BUSINESS, or what relates to the IMPORTATION of goods from FOREIGN PARTS into GREAT-BRITAIN.

In treating of this part of the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, it will be neceſſary, firſt of all, to give directions how to proceed with reſpect to ſhips, as well hovering on the coaſt, as coming within the limits of any port.

Ships hovering on the coaſt of Great-Britain.

* If ſhips laden with ſalt are hovering on the coaſt, and not proceeding on their voyage; the officers of the cuſtoms may compel them to come into port, and may continue on board till the ſalt be unladen, or the ſhips depart out of port to proceed on their voyage: and, if the ſalt is refuſed to be entered or unladen, or the ſhips do not depart within 20 days after they come into port (unleſs permitted by the chief officers of the cuſtoms to ſtay longer) it is forfeited, with double the value, to be recovered of the maſter.

* 1 Anne, cap. 21. §. 7. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 2.

† If ſhips or veſſels, of the burthen of 50 tons, or under, laden with cuſtomable, or prohibited goods, be found hovering on the coaſt, within the limits of any port, or if laden with brandy, within two leagues of the ſhore, and not proceeding on their voyages; the officers of the cuſtoms may go on board, and take an account of the lading, and demand ſecurity of the maſters by their bonds in treble the value of the goods, to proceed regularly on their voyages.

† 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 8. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. § 32. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 8. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3.

An Hovering Bond.

Noverint univerſi per præſentes, me, H. D. &c.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the 5th year of the reign of George I. intitled, An act againſt clandeſtine running uncuſtomed goods, and for the more effectual preventing of frauds relating to the cuſtoms (which was continued by two other acts, the one made in the 9th year of the reign of George I. and the other in the 2d of his late majeſty's) it is enacted, That where any ſhip or veſſel, of the burthen of 50 tons or under, laden with cuſtomable or prohibited goods, ſhall be found hovering on the coaſt, within the limits of any port, and not proceeding on her voyage, wind and weather permitting, the officers of the cuſtoms may go on board every ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and take an

account of the lading, and demand ſecurity of the maſter, or other perſon having the charge of ſuch veſſel, by his own bond to his majeſty, in treble the value of ſuch foreign goods, with condition, that ſuch veſſel (as ſoon as wind and weather, and the ſtate and condition of ſuch veſſel do permit) ſhall proceed on her voyage: and, if ſuch maſter, or other perſon, having the charge of ſuch veſſel, ſhall, upon ſuch demand, refuſe to enter into ſuch bond; or having entered into ſuch, ſhall not proceed on ſuch voyage (as ſoon as wind and weather, and the condition of the veſſel, will permit, unleſs otherwiſe ſuffered to make a longer ſtay by the collector [or other principal officer in his abſence] of the port where ſuch veſſel ſhall be, not exceeding 20 days) then, and in either of the ſaid caſes, all foreign goods on board ſuch veſſel ſhall, and may, by any officer, or officers of the cuſtoms, by the direction of the collector, or other principal officers as aforeſaid, be taken out of ſuch veſſel, and forthwith brought on ſhore and ſecured: and, in caſe the ſaid goods are cuſtomable, the cuſtoms and other duties ſhall be paid for the ſame.

And, as concerning wool, or any prohibited goods, or other goods liable to forfeiture, which may be found on board ſuch veſſel, at the time of their unlading as aforeſaid, the ſame are thereby declared to be ſubject to forfeiture: and the officers of the cuſtoms ſhall and may proſecute the ſame, as alſo the veſſel, in caſe ſhe ſhall be liable to condemnation: and it is in the ſame act provided, That after ſuch goods are ſo taken out of ſuch veſſel, and brought on ſhore, and ſecured, ſuch bonds ſo to be given ſhall be void, and delivered up, without any fee or reward: and ſuch bond, not being otherwiſe diſcharged, ſhall, on a proper certificate, returned under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, in any place or places beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants upon the place, That ſuch goods were there landed; or upon proof, by credible perſons, That ſuch goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas (the proof thereof being left to the judgment of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms) be vacated and diſcharged.

And, by another act of parliament, made in the 6th year of the reign of George I. intitled, An act for preventing frauds and abuſes in the public revenues of exciſe, cuſtoms, ſtamp-duties, poſt-office, and houſe-money, it is enacted, That where any veſſel of the burthen of 50 tons or under, being in part, or fully laden with brandy, ſhall be found at anchor, or hovering within two leagues from the ſhore, and not proceeding on her voyage (wind and weather permitting) it ſhall be lawful for any commander of any of his majeſty's ſhips of war, frigates, or armed ſloops, appointed for the guard of the coaſts, or for the commander of any yacht, ſmack, ſloop, or other boat or veſſel in the ſervice of the cuſtoms, or for any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms, to compel the maſter, or other perſon having the charge of ſuch veſſel, to come into port. And it is declared by the ſaid act, That ſuch maſter, or other perſon as aforeſaid, as likewiſe ſuch veſſel, and the brandy wherewith ſuch veſſel is laden in part, or in the whole, ſhall be ſubject to the ſame rules, regulations, penalties and forfeitures, as ſuch cargoes, veſſels, and the maſters, or others taking charge thereof, which hover within the limits of any port of this kingdom, are, by the aforeſaid act of the fifth year of the reign of George I. ſubject unto.

And whereas the ſhip Betty of Wells, under the burthen of 50 tons, whereof the above-bound H. D. is maſter; has been found hovering on the coaſt of this kingdom, within the limits of the port of Southampton [or at anchor, or hovering within two leagues of the ſhore of the coaſts of this kingdom] loaden with * 40 hogſheads of French wines, pretended to be bound for Stockholm, in the kingdom of Sweden, or to ſome other port or ports in foreign parts: now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if the ſaid ſhip (as ſoon as wind and weather, and the condition of the ſaid ſhip, do permit) ſhall proceed to the ſaid port of Stockholm, or to ſome other port in foreign parts: and, if a certificate † be returned under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrates, in any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants upon the place, that the ſaid 40 hogſheads of French wines were there landed; or upon proof, by credible perſons, that the ſaid goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſea: then this obligation ſhall be void and of none effect, or elſe ſhall remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

H. D.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

* Or the goods may be endorſed on the back of the bond.
† The certificate for the diſcharge of ſuch bonds, muſt mention the quantity of goods, and the time when landed.

But if the maſter, upon demand, refuſes to give ſuch bond, or, having given bond, neglects to proceed on his voyage (unleſs permitted to ſtay longer, but not to exceed 20 days) then the ſaid goods may be taken on ſhore and ſecured, the duties for thoſe that are cuſtomable paid, and thoſe that are prohibited proſecuted: and the goods being thus taken on ſhore, if bond was given, the ſame muſt be delivered up: but, if the ſhips proceed on their voyage after bond has been given, then the ſame muſt be diſcharged by a proper certificate, under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate in any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants upon the place; teſtifying that the goods were there landed; or upon proof, by credible perſons, that the goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas.

II. Ships coming within the limits of any port of Great-Britain.

With reſpect to foreigners ſhips it is to be particularly noted *; that ſuch ſhips freighted towards Great-Britain, or elſewhere, may not be compelled to come into any port of Great-Britain; nor to tarry there againſt the will of the maſter, &c. and if ſuch ſhips come voluntarily, or are driven in, part of the goods may be delivered, and the duties thereof paid, and the ſhip be permitted to proceed with the remainder, where the maſter, &c. pleaſeth, without payment of any duty. And that † ſhips belonging to foreigners in amity with her majeſty, may have the liberty of the Britiſh ports, being driven into the ſame by ſtreſs of weather, or coming to refit, or for ſupplies of water, or other neceſſaries for their ſhips uſe; and may ſtay in port to anſwer ſuch their occaſions; and ſuch their coming into port ſhall not be taken to be an importation of the goods on board, without breaking bulk: but if ſhips come into port without any viſible occaſion, or will ſtay there longer than occaſion requires, it is a preſumption that the intent of coming in was to diſcharge there; and, therefore, ſuch coming in, and ſtaying in port, will make an importation of the goods, and ſubject the maſter, ſhip, and goods, to cuſtoms, penalties, and forfeitures, as other ſhips and goods imported; and the officers of the cuſtoms may deal with ſuch ſhips as with Britiſh ſhips coming into port to unlade, &c.

* 28 Edw. III. cap. 13. § 3. 20 Rich. II. cap 4. § 1.
† Opinion of Sir Edward Northey, attorney-general, dated the 31ſt of July, 1712.

And when any ſhips, coming from foreign parts, arrive at any port of Great-Britain, the tide-ſurveyor muſt, in his own perſon, upon their firſt entrance within the limits of the port, place a ſufficient number of tideſmen on board, according to the burden of the ſhips, and the nature of their cargoes; for if the ſame conſiſt of wine, linnen, or tobacco, there muſt be at leaſt three men, and never leſs than two men, upon any one ſhip: in boarding which tideſmen, it muſt be obſerved that they have their due turns, and that thoſe which are eſtabliſhed be always employed before the extraordinary men. For the duty of ſuch tideſmen, from the time of their being placed on board to the time of their final diſcharge, ſee the article OFFICERS of the CUSTOMS.

Of foreign-built ſhips.

As * Britiſh built ſhips (by which is to be underſtood ſhips built in Great-Britain, Ireland, Jerſey, Guernſey, or the Britiſh plantations in Africa, or America) are intitled to ſeveral privileges and advantages, beyond all ſuch as are foreign-built, unleſs thoſe taken at ſea as prize, and lawfully condemned in the high court of admiralty; it may be proper to ſhew what requiſites are to be performed with reſpect to any foreign-built ſhips, in order to procure their freedoms: wherefore it muſt be obſerved, that no foreign-built ſhip whatſoever (that is, not built in any of his majeſty's dominions of Africa, or America, or other than ſuch as were bought before the 1ſt of October, 1662, and recorded in the Exchequer) may be deemed, or paſs, as a ſhip belonging to Great-Britain, or Ireland, or enjoying the benefit, or privilege, of ſuch a ſhip, although owned or manned by Britiſh, except ſuch ſhips only as are taken at ſea by letters of mart, or repriſal, and condemned in the court of admiralty as lawful prize.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 7, 10. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 6.

And, before ſuch prize-ſhips can be intitled to their freedoms, the claimer, or claimers of the property thereof, muſt make it appear to the chief officers of the cuſtoms at the port next to his or their abode, that he or they are not aliens, and that ſuch ſhips were, bona fide, and without fraud, bought for a valuable conſideration, &c. and likewiſe muſt make an entry, and pay duty for ſuch veſſel: and, for the proof of the property, &c. it muſt be made after the following manner:

An oath in order to procure a prize-ſhip's freedom.

Port of Southampton. } In purſuance of two acts of parliament, the one made in the 12th year of the reign of his majeſty king Charles II. intitled, An act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation; and the other in the 14th year of the ſame reign, intitled, An act for preventing frauds, and regulating abuſes in his majeſty's cuſtoms.

Benjamin Thornton of Southampton, in the county of Southampton, maketh oath, That the ſhip, or veſſel, formerly called the St Joſeph, of Bilboa, whereof Nicholas del Barco was maſter, and now called the Change, of Southampton, whereof James

Dines

Dines is, at preſent, maſter, being a Spaniſh-built fly-boat, burthen 250 tons, or thereabouts, was taken this preſent war with the Spaniards from the Spaniſh king's ſubjects, by the Durſley Galley, George Purvis commander, and condemned as lawful prize in his majeſty's high court of admiralty, as by ſentence of condemnation, dated the 9th of January, 17 doth appear; and that now no foreigner, or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, ſhare, or intereſt therein, but that himſelf this deponent, and George How, of Pool, are full and ſole owners of the ſaid ſhip, or veſſel, being by them bought on the ſecond inſtant of David White, of Liverpool, for 500 l. at which ſum he has this day valued the ſaid veſſel upon oath, and paid his majeſty's cuſtoms accordingly.

Benjamin Thornton.

Jurat' apud Southampton,
5 die Feb. 17 coram
A. B. Collector.

Note, All the part-owners are liable to take the ſame oath, before the chief officers of the cuſtoms at the next port to their abode.

Upon the aforeſaid oaths being made, a certificate under the hands and ſeals of the chief officers of the port muſt be granted; whereby ſuch ſhip or veſſel may, for the future, paſs, and be deemed as a ſhip belonging to the ſaid port, and enjoy the privilege of ſuch a ſhip, or veſſel; the form of which certificate may be as follows:

A certificate of oaths being made to the property, &c. of a prize-ſhip, in order to procure it's freedom.

Port of South-ampton. } Theſe are to certify all whom it may concern, That Benjamin Thornton, of Southampton, hath made oath, That the ſhip, or veſſel, formerly called the St Joſeph, of Bilboa, whereof Nicholas del Barco was maſter, and now called the Change, of Southampton, whereof James Dines is, at preſent, maſter, burthen about 250 tons, Spaniſh-built, was a prize taken this preſent war with the Spaniards, by one of his majeſty's ſhips of war, viz. the Durſley Galley, Capt. George Purvis commander, and condemned as ſuch in his majeſty's high court of admiralty, as by ſentence of condemnation, dated the
A. B. Collector. 9th of January, 17 doth appear; and that now no foreigner or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, ſhare, or intereſt therein; but that George How, of Pool, and himſelf the ſaid deponent are full and ſole owners thereof, being by them bought on the ſecond inſtant, of David White, of Liver-
B.C.Comptroller. pool, for 500 l. at which ſum the ſaid deponent hath this day valued the ſaid veſſel upon oath, and paid his majeſty's cuſtoms accordingly.

In witneſs whereof we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals of office. Dated at the Cuſtomhouſe of the port aforeſaid, this 5th day of February, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George III. by the grace of God, &c.

And if a foreign-built ſhip, which is not a prize, be bought by Britiſh, with a deſign to trade to and from Great-Britain *, though ſhe is ſtill liable to all extraordinary duties, upon account of her being foreign built, yet before ſhe may be deemed, or paſſed, as a ſhip belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland, the claimer, or claimers of the property, muſt, inſtead of the former, take the following oath:

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 6.

An oath, in order to cauſe a foreign built ſhip (not a prize) to to be deemed as a ſhip belonging to Great-Britain or Ireland.

Port of South-ampton. } In purſuance of an act of parliament made in the 12th year of the reign of his majeſty king Charles II. intitled *, An act for the encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation.

Andrew Brown, of Southampton, in the county of Southampton, maketh oath, That the ſhip, or veſſel, formerly called the Hope, of Dram, and now called the Delight, of Southampton, whereof Charles Dell is, at preſent, maſter, being a Daniſh-built veſſel, burden 300 tons or thereabouts, was, bona fide, and without fraud, bought, on the 13th of February, 17 of David Ellis, of Briſtol, for 750 l. by this deponent and William Man, of Portſmouth, who are full and ſole owners thereof; and that now no foreigner or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, ſhare, or intereſt therein.

Jurat' apud Southampton,
2 die Martii, 17 coram
A. B. Collector.

Andrew Brown.

12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 10.

Whereupon a certificate muſt be granted, as follows:

Port of South-ampton. } Theſe are to certify all whom it may concern, That Andrew Brown, of Southampton, hath made oath, That the ſhip, or veſſel, formerly called the Hope of Dram, and now called the Delight, of Southampton, whereof Charles Dell is, at preſent, maſter, being a Daniſh-built veſſel, burden about 300 tons, was, bona fide, and without fraud, bought, on the 13th
A. B. Col- of February, 17 of David Ellis, of Briſtol, for
lector. 750 l. by the ſaid deponent, and William Man, of
B.C.Comp- Portſmouth, who are full and ſole owners thereof;
troller. and that now no foreigner or alien, directly or indirectly, hath any part, ſhare, or intereſt therein.

In witneſs whereof we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals of office. Dated at the Cuſtom-houſe of the port aforeſaid, this fifth day of February, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George III. by the grace of God, &c.

Before theſe certificates are delivered to the owners of the veſſels, they muſt be regiſtered by the officers who granted them, and a duplicate thereof returned to the chief officers of the cuſtoms in London, with the names of the perſons bought of, the ſum paid for the ſame, and the names of the part owners (if any); the form of which regiſter may be as follows:

A regiſter of foreign built ſhips, condemned as prize in the high court of Admiralty, and alſo of ſuch as are not prize, but are of Britiſh property, and do belong to Great-Britain.

Ships former names.	Former maſters.	Ships preſent names.	Preſent maſters.	What country, and kind of built.	Tons burden.	From whom taken.	By whom taken.	Date of the ſentence of condemnation.	When bought.	Of whom bought.	Sum bought for	Owners Names.	When oath made.
St Joſeph, of Bilboa	Nicholas del Barco	Change of Southampton	James Dines	A Spaniſh fly-boat	250	Spaniards.	Durſley Galley, George Purvis	9 Jan. 1730.	2 Feb. 1730.	Daniel White of Liverpool	500 l.	Ben. Thornton, who made oath, and Geo. How, of Pool	5 Feb. 1730.
Hope, of Dram		Delight of Southampton	Charles Dell	A Daniſh	300				13 Feb. 1730.	David Ellis	750 l.	And. Brown, who made oath, and Wm. Man, of Portſmouth	2 Mar. 1730.

Of the REPORTING, or ENTERING *, of every ſhip, or veſſel, arriving from foreign parts, ſee alſo the End of Letter A. To which I ſhall further add, that, when the lading conſiſts but of a few ſpecies of goods (as in the caſe of ſhips from the Britiſh plantations) in filling up the body of the report, ſeparate columns may be erected for each particular kind of package, after the following manner:

* 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 5. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 2.

☞ In Ireland, where the cuſtoms are moſtly under the ſame regulations as in Great-Britain, every maſter is obliged not only to report after the ſame manner as in Great-Britain, but, before any goods are diſcharged out of his veſſel, he muſt give ſufficient ſecurity to the collector of the port, that his veſſel ſhall not depart out of the port 'till fully cleared, and diſcharged by the officers of the cuſtoms. Iriſh Act of Tonnage and Poundage.

Marks.	Numbers	Hhds ſugar.	Caſks pimento.	Bags Cott.	Tons logw.	Tons fuſtic.	Barrels indigo.	Serons bark.	Mahog. planks.	To whom conſigned.
A. B.	1 a 100	100	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Andrew Bull.
B. C.	3 a 8	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	Benjamin Curtis.
C. D.	1 a 40	10	4	6	17	—	—	3	—	Charles Deal.
D. E.	1 a 60	60	—	—	—	5	3	—	27	Daniel Ellen.
	Total 170		4	6	17	5	9	3	27	

And, as there are ſeveral other particular caſes and circumſtances which may frequently occur, the following requiſites are to be obſerved in the taking and filling up the bodies of ſuch reports, viz.

I. Prize, or other foreign ſhips, made free.

If a ſhip be a prize, or become free by any other means, after the name of the kingdom, &c. in which ſuch ſhip is ſaid to have been laden, there muſt be added,—which ſaid ſhip was, &c. [ſpecifying the particular circumſtances of capture and condemnation, or the pretence to freedom by any other title.]

II. Ships from the Mediterranean Sea.

* If the ſhip be Britiſh, and comes from any part of the Mediterranean Seas, beyond the port of Malaga, and hath two decks, and doth carry ſixteen guns mounted, with two men for each gun, and other ammunition proportionable (which is called an act, or qualified ſhip) or if one moiety of her full lading outwards, the laſt voyage, was fiſh, laden in any of his majeſty's dominions, the goods imported in ſuch ſhips are not liable to the duty of one per cent. which is payable when ſhips are not ſo qualified, or laden with fiſh: therefore, in theſe caſes, after the place's name, there muſt be added as follows: viz.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 11, §. 35, 36.

If the ſhip be qualified—which ſaid ſhip has double decks from ſtem to ſtern, with 16 [or more, as is the caſe] guns mounted, and other ammunition proportionable.

If the ſhip went out with fiſh—which ſaid ſhip went out from Yarmouth to Leghorn, this laſt voyage thither, full laden, [or at leaſt one moiety of her full lading] with fiſh of Britiſh taking and curing, and delivered the ſame at the ſaid port of Leghorn.

But, if a ſhip that is not qualified, or was not laden outwards with fiſh, has taken in ſome part of her lading beyond the port of Malaga, and ſome on this ſide; the different places where the goods were taken in muſt be particularly diſtinguiſhed in the report, as indeed in ſtrictneſs ſhould be practiſed in all caſes where a ſhip loads at ſeveral ports: which diſtinction may be made as follows:

Taken in at Leghorn.

A. B. —— 1 a 5 —— 5 caſes —— ſilk —— Andrew Bird.

Taken in at Cadiz.

B. C. —— 3 a 9 —— 2 bales —— kid-ſkins —— Benj. Croſs.

And, if the goods are ſuch, that they are liable to forfeiture, or ſubject to a different duty, upon account of the place at which they were taken in; the truth of their being taken in at the particular place alleged by the maſter, muſt be confirmed, by making the following addition to the oath of his report, viz.

And that the goods above-mentioned to be taken in at —— were really there laden on board, and were not landed at ——, nor any other place whatſoever; but have been kept on board the above ſhip, ever ſince the firſt ſhipping thereof at ——.

III. Ships from the Britiſh plantations.

If the ſhip came from the Britiſh plantations in America, or Africa, with ſugar, tobacco, cotton-wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtic, or other dying-wood, rice, molaſſes, hemp, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, bowſprits, copper-ore, beaver-ſkins, or other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any of the ſaid plantations, to bring ſuch goods to Great-Britain, or to ſome other of the ſaid plantations; therefore a certificate, that ſuch ſecurity has been given, muſt be produced by the maſter at the time of the entry of the ſhip; and the ſame muſt be noted in the report, after the name of the plantation —— which ſaid ſhip gave bond here [or at Jamaica] on the 29th of March, 1730, to return [or to come] to Great-Britain only.

The forms of which certificates are as follow:

1. A certificate for a ſhip that hath produced a certificate in the plantations, of bond being given in Great-Britain, to return to Great-Britain only.

Theſe are to certify all whom it may concern, That Daniel Bright, maſter or commander of the Taviſtock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, Engliſh built, regiſtered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, hath produced a certificate, bearing date the 29th of March, 1730, under the hands and ſeals of the principal officers of the cuſtom-houſe in the port of Southampton, with condition, That if the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſhall load any ſugar, tobacco, cotton-wool, indico, ginger, fuſtic, or other dying wood, as alſo rice, melaſſes, hemp, pitch, tar, turpentine, maſts, yards, bowſprits, copper-ore, beaver-ſkins, and other furs of the growth, production, or manufacture of any Britiſh plantations in America, Aſia, or Africa, the ſame commodities ſhall be, by the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, carried to ſome port of Great Britain, and be there unloaden and put on ſhore; the danger of the ſeas only excepted; and hath here loaden and taken on board 290 hogſheads of ſugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 caſks of indico.

Dated at Kingſton in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord king George II, of Great-Britain, &c. Anno Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher;
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

2. A Certificate for a ſhip that has given bond in the plantations to come to Great-Britain only.

Theſe are to certify all whom it may concern, That Daniel Bright, maſter or commander of the Taviſtock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, Engliſh built, regiſtered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, hath here loaden and taken on board 290 hogſheads of ſugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 caſks of indico, and hath alſo here given bond, with one ſufficient ſurety, in the ſum of 2000 l. ſterling, with conditions, that the ſaid goods and commodities ſhall be by the ſaid ſhip or veſſel carried to ſome port of Great-Britain, and to no other place, and be there unloaded and put on ſhore, the dangers of the ſeas only excepted.

Dated at Kingſton in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher;
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

3. A certificate for a ſhip that has given bond in the plantations, to come to Great-Britain, or to go to ſome other Britiſh plantation.

Theſe are to certify all whom it doth concern, That Daniel Bright, maſter or commander of the Taviſtock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, Engliſh-built, regiſtered at Southampton, hath here loaden and taken on board 290 hogſheads of ſugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 caſks of indico, and hath here given bond, with one ſufficient ſurety, in the ſum of 2000 l. ſterling, with conditions, that the ſaid goods and commodities ſhall be, by the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, carried to ſome port of Great-Britain, or to ſome other of his Majeſty's Britiſh plantations, and be there unloaden and put on ſhore, the dangers of the ſeas only excepted.

Dated at Kingſton in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher;
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

4. A certificate for a ſhip that has paid the duties due in the plantations, by an * act of the 25th year of the reign of king Charles II, and has given bond in the ſaid plantations to come to Great Britain, or to get to ſome other Britiſh plantation.

Theſe are to certify all whom it doth concern, That Daniel Bright, maſter or commander of the Taviſtock of London, burthen 200 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 18 guns, navigated with 40 men, Engliſh-built, regiſtered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, hath here loaden and taken on board 290 hogſheads of ſugar, 10 bags of cotton-wool, 50 bags of ginger, 7 caſks of indico, for which the rates and duties impoſed by the act of the 25th year of king Charles II, † for better ſecuring the plantation trade, are fully anſwered and paid; and hath here alſo given bond, with one ſufficient ſurety, in the ſum of 2000 l. with conditions, that the ſaid goods and commodities ſhall be, by the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, carried to ſome port of Great-Britain, or to ſome other of his majeſty's Britiſh plantations, and be there unloaden and put on ſhore, the danger of the ſeas only excepted.

Dated at Kingſton in Jamaica, the 17th day of May, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

* Cap. 7. §. 3.
† Cap. 7. §. 3.

And with reſpect to the certificates that are produced for ſhips that hath given ſecurity in the plantations, it muſt be obſerved, that at the time of entering ſuch ſhips, and producing the ſaid certificates, the maſter muſt confirm the truth thereof by his oath, which muſt be taken on the back of the ſaid certificate, after the following manner:

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Daniel Bright maketh oath, That he really became bound to his majeſty, at Kingſton in Jamaica, for the due landing of the goods within-mentioned, as is particularly expreſſed in the certificate on the other ſide.

Jurat' apud Southampton
tertio die Januarii 1730, Daniel Bright.
coram
A. B. Collector.

As it is likewiſe uſual for the maſter of every ſhip, coming from the Britiſh plantations, with any other goods than thoſe before enumerated, in the certificate, No. (1.) and for which ſecurity is to be given; to produce a certificate, that his ſaid ſhip hath been duly cleared at the cuſtom-houſe of ſome Britiſh plantation. I ſhall here inſert the form of ſuch certificate, being as follows:

A certificate that a ſhip, laden with goods not enumerated, was duly entered and cleared in the Britiſh plantations.

Theſe are to certify all whom it doth concern, That William Law, maſter or commander of the Endeavour of Briſtol, burthen 180 tons, or thereabouts, mounted with 12 guns, navigated with 30 men, Engliſh-built, regiſtered at Southampton, and bound for Southampton, having on board 4000 pipe and hogſhead ſtaves, 15 bundles of whale-fins, 40 barrels of train-oil, hath entered and cleared in the cuſtom-houſe at Boſton in New England, according to law.

A. B. Collector.

Given under our hands and ſeals of office, this 30th day of April, in the 4th year of the reign of our ſovereign lord George II, king of Great-Britain, &c. Annoque Domini 1730.

C. D. Naval-officer, D. E. Surveyor, E. F. Searcher. B. C. Comptroller.

* And if any ſhip from the Britiſh plantations in America, has any train-oil or whale-fins on board, in order to adjuſt the duty, the place of the owner's abode muſt be inſerted after the name of the place, thus;

The owners of which ſhip are of London, [Boſton, &c.]

* 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 2.

The foregoing regulations relate to ſhips coming directly from the Britiſh plantations to Great-Britain; but as rice * may, by a ſpecial licence, be laden in Carolina, and carried directly to any part of Europe, ſouthward of Cape Finiſterre, and there landed, and then the ſhip proceed to Great-Britain; this is a proper place to note what is to be obſerved on that head, which is,

* 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4.

1. That the ſaid licence having been delivered back to the maſter before the departure of the ſhip, with the marks, numbers, and contents of each caſk endorſed thereon, by the collector, comptroller, and naval officer; and they having made two copies of ſuch licence and endorſement, and cauſed the ſame to have been atteſted by the maſter, in order to be left with the ſaid officers; and the ſaid maſter having obtained a certificate of the conſul, or two known Britiſh merchants reſiding at the place where delivered, teſtifying the due landing of ſuch rice, and that they verily believe, that no other enumerated goods have been there landed: ſuch endorſed licence, and the certificate of landing, muſt, upon the maſter's return to Great-Britain, be produced to the officers of the port, where bond was given.

2. * That one of the aforeſaid copies of the endorſement having been tranſmitted, by the officers in Carolina, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; upon receipt thereof, or of the endorſed licence, the half ſubſidy, [and petty cuſtom, if the rice be the property of an alien] for the quantity of rice ſhipped in Carolina, muſt be demanded of the perſon who gave bond, at the time of granting the licence, by the collector that took ſuch bond.

* 3 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 5.

IV. Ships which have taken in goods to be delivered at ſeveral ports of Great-Britain.

* If a ſhip has taken in goods, for ſeveral ports of Great-Britain, the maſter muſt, upon his arrival at the firſt port, make his report of the whole cargo, in like manner as if it was all to be there delivered, diſtinguiſhing the particular goods that are to be landed at each port, after the following manner.

* 1ſt rule of book of rates.

For Portſmouth.

C. R.— 3 a 9 —— 7 caſks —— madder —— Charles Revell.

For Chicheſter.

N. S.— 1 a 10 —— 10 caſks —— linnen —— Nathaniel Smith.

For this port.

A. G.— 1 a 5 —— 5 hampers —— ſpaw-water — Amos Grove.
O. L.— 1 a 20 —— 20 balls —— ſundry goods — Oliver Long.

Whereupon, bulk may be broken, and the cuſtoms, &c. paid for no more than ſhall be entered and landed: and, when the maſter ſignifies his intention of proceeding to ſome other Britiſh port, the tide-ſurveyor muſt ſend tideſmen along with the ſhip to the next port, and a copy of the report made at the firſt port muſt be tranſmitted to the collector, &c. of ſuch next port, with the particular quantities, qualities, and conſignments of the goods there landed, ſpecified on the back thereof; remembering, that if priſage has been taken, it muſt be particularly mentioned, to prevent it's being taken again. The manner of which endorſement ſhould be as follows:

Port of Southampton.

Landed at this port, and for which his majeſty's duties have been here paid,
A. G.—— 1 a 5 —— 5 hampers —— ſpaw-water — Amos Grove.
O. L.—— 1 a 20 —— 20 bales —— ſundry goods — Oliver Long.
A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

And, when the ſhip arrives at the next port, the maſter muſt report his whole cargo, in the ſame manner as at the former port, mentioning the particular goods which have been there landed, and for which duties have been paid, as ſpecified in the endorſement on the firſt report, and adding to the oath or affirmation of the maſter, after this, or ſome ſuch other, mark *, otherwiſe than is particularly above expreſſed: and the like muſt be performed at every port, till the ſhip is wholly unladen.

V. Ships which have taken in goods to be delivered, part in Great-Britain, and part in foreign parts.

If part of a ſhip's cargo be taken in, with a deſign to be delivered in any port or ports of Great-Britain, and the reſt to be delivered in foreign parts, and the ſhip comes to Great-Britain firſt, to deliver the goods taken in with that deſign; the maſter muſt report in like manner, as if the whole cargo was to be there delivered, obſerving to add, after the place's name, in his report, now lying in —— bound for ——, and to diſtinguiſh what goods are deſigned for foreign parts, after the following manner:

The following goods were taken on board, with a deſign to be carried to Holland, and not to be landed in this, or any other port or place in Great-Britain.

B. K. —— 1 a 30 —— 30 caſks —— wine —— Benj. King.

And when the goods deſigned are landed, and the duties paid, the ſhip may be permitted to proceed to foreign parts, with the remainder of the cargo.

VI. Ships which have already delivered part of their cargo.

If a ſhip has delivered any part of her cargo, ſince ſhe came from her loading-port or ports, and before her arrival at any port of Great-Britain; the goods to be delivered muſt be particularly ſpecified in the report, after the following manner:

Landed at A——
Or,
Put on board the Delight in the open ſea:
Or,
Thrown over-board in a ſtorm.

R. S.—— 1 a 2 —— 2 bales —— ſilk —— Richard Smith.

And in theſe caſes there is added to the oath or affirmation of the maſter, otherwiſe than is particularly above expreſſed.

VII. Ships from Holland with ſpice.

* If a ſhip from Holland has any nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, or mace, on board; the licence, granted for the importation of the ſame, muſt be delivered up to the collector and comptroller of the port, and be annexed to the maſter's entry or report of his ſhip.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. § 46. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 21.

VIII. Ships from Greenland, &c.

* If a Britiſh ſhip comes from Greenland, Davis's Streights, and the adjoining or adjacent ſeas with whale-fins, oil, and blubber of whales, or ſeal-oil, and ſeal-ſkins, or any other produce of ſeals, or other fiſh or creatures caught in the aforeſaid place; in order to exempt the ſaid goods from duty, the maſter of the veſſel muſt, at the time of his reporting, make the following oath, either in the body of the report underneath the goods, or on the back thereof:

* 10 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 1. 12 Geo. I. cap. 26. § 7.

A. B. maketh oath, That the fins, &c. above [or within] mentioned, are, really and bona fide, the produce of whales and ſeals caught in the Greenland Seas [or Davis's Streights, or ſome other part of the adjacent ſeas] by the crew of a veſſel, whereof the maſter, and one third at leaſt of the mariners, were Britiſh ſubjects.

Jurat' 2°. die Januarii, 1730, coram nobis — A. B.

B. C. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

IX. Coaſting veſſels, which have taken in foreign goods at ſea.

* Though foreign goods may not be taken in by any coaſting veſſels out of ſhips at ſea, with intent to be fraudulently landed in Great-Britain, without payment of duty; yet it is apprehended that if, in caſe of diſtreſs, and without any intention of fraud, but purely for the ſecurity of any foreign goods from periſhing, they ſhould be taken on board a coaſter; the maſter muſt, upon his arrival in any port of Great-Britain, immediately acquaint the officers therewith, and make a report of his ſaid veſſel, in like manner as if ſuch veſſel had actually taken in and brought the ſaid goods from parts beyond the ſeas: in which reports, not only the goods, but the ſhip out of which they were taken, from whence ſhe came, how built, how manned, and where the goods were taken in, muſt be particularly expreſſed for hoys, from ſhips which have taken in goods to be delivered, part in Great-Britain, and part in foreign parts.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 8.

X. Uncertainty of any particular goods being on board.

If, upon reporting any veſſel, the maſter is doubtful or uncertain of any parcel or parcels of goods being on board, or of the quantities of any goods by tale, he muſt make an exception underneath the goods; the laſt being a caſe that frequently happens in ſhips from Norway, by reaſon of the difference between the accounts of the mate and the freighter. The form of ſuch exception may be as follows:

The above are the quantities of goods taken on board, according to my mate's account; but the freighter charged me with C. 1 : 1 : 15 deals more, I am uncertain which account is right.

Signed A. B.

XI. Omiſſions in a report.

When, upon the delivery of any ſhip, it appears that any part of the cargo has been omitted in the maſter's report, and he applies to the collector, &c. to mend the ſame; and though the officers have not any reaſon to believe, but that ſuch omiſſion was through inadvertency, and without any deſign of fraud; yet the ſame ſhould not be permitted, as the law ſtands; but the honourable the commiſſioners are to be acquainted with a true ſtate of the caſe, and if they are ſatisfied, and are pleaſed to give leave, then the goods, ſo omitted, may be added to the report, after the following manner:

Third day of March, 1730.——added by the commiſſioners leave of the twenty-eighth ultimo.

D. S. —— 4 —— 1 caſe ——linnen —— David Smith.

Signed——A. B. maſter.

And then the report is ſworn to de novo, inſerting the particular days underneath that, when ſworn to before.

Laſtly, it muſt be remembered, that if, in any of the aforeſaid reports, there are mentioned any ſmall caſks of wine under 25 gallons, though the ſame are, by 1 Geo. II. cap 17, prohibited to be imported, yet upon ſuch caſks being duly reported, and there being no appearance of fraud, the particular caſe and circumſtances muſt be repreſented to the commiſſioners, for their directions, whether it be adviſeable to wave the forfeiture, and to accept the duty, or to proſecute the ſame.

REMARKS.

From thus illuſtrating the method of reporting of SHIPS from foreign parts, it may be neceſſary further only to obſerve, that, where any privilege * is allowed to Britiſh-built ſhipping, it is meant ſhips of the built of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or the Britiſh ſettlements in Africa, Aſia, or America, and whereof the maſter, and three fourths of the mariners, are Britiſh; that is, his majeſty's ſubjects of Great-Britain, Ireland, and his plantations; and three fourths of the mariners ſuch during the whole voyage, unleſs in caſes of ſickneſs, death, &c.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 7. 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 6.

What has been hitherto ſaid, are the requiſites which are to be performed by merchants ſhips, upon their arrival from foreign parts: but, with reſpect to his majeſty's ſhips, it muſt be obſerved, * that no goods or merchandizes brought from parts beyond the ſeas, on board any ſhip or veſſel of war, may be unladen, &c. before the captain, &c. has ſignified in writing, under his hand, to the collector, &c. the names of every merchant or lader of any goods on board the ſaid ſhip, together with the number and marks, and the quantity and quality of every parcel of goods, to the beſt of his knowledge, and ſhall have anſwered upon oath to ſuch queſtions concerning ſuch goods, as ſhall be publickly-adminiſtered to him by the collector, &c. And ſuch ſhip ſhall be liable to all ſearchers, and, other rules which merchants ſhips are ſubject unto; and upon refuſal to make ſuch entries, the officers of the cuſtoms may bring on ſhore, into his majeſty's ſtorehouſe, all goods prohibited or uncuſtomed, which they ſhall find on board.

* 13 & 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 3. 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 5.

Of the aforeſaid reports of merchants ſhips, two are to be ſubſcribed by the maſter; one whereof is to be taken in a book to be kept at the port for that purpoſe, and the other on looſe paper, which muſt, from time to time be preſerved on a file, 'till the end of each quarter: when they are to be tranſmitted to the regiſter-general of all ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, in order that he may examine whether they are duly ſworn to and atteſted, and the ſhips manned according to the act of Navigation. See NAVIGATION ACT.

Having premiſed what is neceſſary to be obſerved in the ENTERING OF SHIPS from foreign ports, the next matter to be conſidered for the information of the merchant, as well as the officer of the cuſtoms, is the ENTERING OF THE GOODS therein imported. In relation to which it is to be carefully noted, * that, before a ſhip has been duly entered or reported as before directed, entries of any merchandizes whatſoever may not be taken, unleſs the ſhip is not deſigned for that port, but was actually forced in by ſome neceſſity; and then only for ſmall matters, and upon the maſter's oath, That they are only to ſupply neceſſaries for the ſhip: but when the ſhip is to deliver the whole, or any part of the cargo, at that port, and in order thereunto the maſter has made a regular report of his ſhip; there may be then accounted an importation of all the goods on board, deſigned to be delivered in any port of Great-Britain, ſo that the duties payable to the crown, on the importation of ſuch goods, are actually become due; and therefore, upon making ſuch report at each reſpective port †, every particular perſon that has any goods on board ſuch ſhip, muſt, with all poſſible ſpeed, and before the ſame may be unladen, make proper entries thereof with the collector, and pay or ſecure all the duties to which ſuch goods are liable; and ſuch entries muſt not, upon any pretence whatſoever, be delayed, but muſt be actually made, for ‖ tobacco, from the time of the maſter's report of the ſhip, and for all other goods, within twenty days: and as the duties become due upon the importation of all goods, whether an entry thereof be made or not; therefore, upon refuſal or neglect of entry within the aforeſaid times, an information, in the nature of an action of debt, may be brought againſt the importer, for the duties; more eſpecially after the ſaid thirty or twenty days are expired: but in all caſes of refuſal or neglect of making due entries, or where it ſhall ſo happen, that though due entries are made of the full number of hogſheads, caſks, or other packages of tobacco, yet, perhaps, not more than an half, one third, or one fourth, &c. part of the real quantity contained in ſuch packages, are entered, and that the tobacco is not landed or diſcharged 'till after the expiration of the thirty days; the importer muſt be called upon to perfect his entry, and the commiſſioners muſt be acquainted therewith, and their directions be obtained, for the officers government.

* Exchequer Rules.——7 Eliz.
† 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 10.
‖ 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 3.

And, in making theſe entries, it ſhould be obſerved, that there muſt be expreſſed the ſhips name, maſter's name, the place from whence arrived, and the importer's name, with the particular kinds and quantities of goods; and on one of the bills of entry [* the warrant] muſt be likewiſe expreſſed the marks, numbers, and contents of every parcel of ſuch goods as are rated to pay by the piece or meaſure, and the weight of the whole parcel of ſuch goods as are rated to pay by the weight; which will be only a tranſcript of the merchant's invoice, and may be inſerted either on the face of the warrant, as is uſual at the port of London, or on the back thereof, as is practiſed at many other out-ports: and, laſtly, the warrant being thus completed by the merchant, the ſame is to be ſigned by himſelf, or his known ſervant, factor, or agent, to teſtify, that the goods are not upon aliens, or ſtrangers, or denizens account; in which caſe they would be liable to extraordinary duties. But when the goods are declared to be imported by, or upon account of †, an alien or denizen, ſuch ſubſcription is not neceſſary, becauſe ſuch goods are then liable to the higheſt duties that can be paid.

* Though it is the practice of the out ports, for the collector to keep the bill ſubſcribed by the merchant, &c. and from the ſaid bill to form a warrant for the delivery of the goods; yet the practice of the port of London is, perhaps, the moſt conſiſtent with the plain ſenſe and ſpirit of the law, which is, to make the bill ſubſcribed by the merchant, to be the warrant.
† 1 Hen. VII. cap. 2. §. 1. 11 Hen. VII. cap. 14. §. 1. 22 Hen. VIII. cap. 8. §. 1.

With

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

With reſpect to the making and ſubſcribing of merchants entries at the cuſtom houſe, it muſt be obſerved, that * any Britiſh man may cuſtom, in his own name, the goods of another Britiſh man; ſo may one merchant ſtranger enter the goods of another merchant ſtranger: but he that ſo enters the goods of another perſon, that the king loſes his duty, forfeits the goods to the king, &c. and likewiſe all his own goods and chattels for ever.

* 3 Hen. VII. cap. 7. §. 1. 1 Hen. VIII. cap. 5. §. 3, 4, 5. 2 & and 3 Ed. VI. cap. 22. §. 4, 5. 1 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 6. But in Ireland, where the cuſtoms are moſtly under the ſame regulations, as in Great-Britain; the act of tonnage and poundage directs, That all goods be entered only in the name of the true owners, &c.

And, as to the perſons that are to be deemed aliens or ſtrangers, they are ſuch as are born in foreign countries, under the obedience of a ſtrange prince or ſtate, and out of the allegiance of the king of Great-Britain *; or a Britiſh man born, who has ſworn to be ſubject to any foreign prince; though if ſuch Britiſh born perſon returns to Great-Britain, and there inhabits, he muſt be deemed as Britiſh, and have a writ out of Chancery for the ſame: and likewiſe † the children of natural born ſubjects, though born out of the allegiance of his majeſty, &c, and all children born on board any ſhip belonging to, or in any place poſſeſſed by the South-Sea company, are ſo deemed natural born ſubjects of this kingdom.

* 14 & 15 Hen. VIII. cap. 4. §. 2.
† 7 Ann. cap. 5. §. 8. 9 Ann. cap. 21. §. 53. 10 Ann. cap. 5. §. 1. 4 Geo. II. cap. 21. §. 1, 2, 3.

The aforeſaid bills of entry being formed according to the aforegoing directions, and ſubſcribed by the merchant, &c. they will appear in the following form:

In the Delight of Southampton, David Stone, maſter, from Malaga.
On my own proper account and riſque. Henry Crew.
Or,
[on my own and company's account and riſque.]
Or,
[on Britiſh account and riſque.]
Signed, Henry Crew.
Or, for Henry Crew.
Signed A. B. ſervant, factor, or agent.
Then follows the quantity of the goods.

Which bill being produced to the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, they are each of them to take copies thereof, in order to compute the duties, if any due: and the ſaid copies are to be cloſed * and numbered in courſe, beginning a new number each quarter.

* It is the practice of ſome ports to file the entries of all ſorts of goods together, and to number them all ſucceſſively; but moſt ports make diſtinct numbers, and keep ſeparate files for the following ſorts of goods, viz.

One file for { Poundage goods (except tobacco.) / Tobacco. / Spaniſh, Portugal, &c. wines. / French wines. / Rheniſh wines. / Vinegar.

And when the ſaid officers have computed the duties on their reſpective bills or copies, and have agreed the ſame, the collector is to receive the duties: whereupon he is to inſert them on the bill ſubſcribed by the merchant, &c. which having been dated and numbered as the ſaid officer's copies were, he is to ſign his name thereto, and then deliver ſuch ſubſcribed bill to the cuſtomer and comptroller, in order to be ſigned by them alſo: after which, the ſaid bill is to be directed to the ſurveyor, and the particular land-waiters appointed to the ſhip, as a warrant for their examination and delivery of the books.

And the aforeſaid copies or duplicates of the entries, taken by the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, are to be preſerved upon ſeparate files, in order to be entered daily in proper and diſtinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpoſe.

For directions in computing the duties, ſee my New View of the Britiſh Cuſtoms, by TABULAR INSPECTION.

And, beſides the aforeſaid general requiſites, theſe further rules and directions are likewiſe to be obſerved with reſpect to the entering of the following particular ſorts of goods.

I. Goods not rated for the ſubſidies, additional duties, imports, ſecond 25 per cent. on French goods, and additional duty on drugs.

If the goods are not of the produce of * Eaſt-India, and are not rated in either of the columns of rates, in my TABULAR SHEETS, and are liable to duty upon importation, as the ſame muſt be levied † according to the value and price of ſuch goods, as they ſhall be aſcertained by the oaths or affirmations of the merchant [and not of his ſervant, &c.] taken in the preſence of the cuſtomer, collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor, or any two of them; therefore, inſtead of ſubſcribing the warrant bill as before directed, the merchant himſelf muſt make oath or affirmation thereon, as in the following example:

* 12 & 13 Will. III. cap. 11. §. 15. 2 & 3 Ann. cap. 9. §. 6, 7.
† 11 Geo. I. cap. 7. §. 7. 4th rule of add. Book of Rates.

18th of January, 1750. No. 19.

In the Providence of London, James Bell, maſter, from Rotterdam.
Joſeph Grove.

J. G. No. 3. } One box, containing certain unrated toys, at eighteen pounds all.

Joſeph Grove maketh oath, That the true value and price of the toys above mentioned, as they are here in Southampton, do not exceed eighteen pounds all, and that he is really the importer and proprietor thereof [or that himſelf and company are really the importers and proprietors thereof, or that they are imported upon Britiſh account here, or that he receives the ſame upon Britiſh account from beyond the ſeas.]

Jurat' 18 die Januarii
1750, coram nobis Signed—Joſeph Grove.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller, Cuſtomer, or Surveyor.

But in this, and all other caſes where oaths are required, if the perſon be a Quaker, inſtead of ſuch oaths, he may make ſolemn declaration or affirmation, in the following words:

* I, Joſeph Grove, do ſolemnly, ſincerely, and truely declare and affirm, That, &c.

* 8 Geo. I. cap. 6. §. 2.

II. Linnens chequered, ſtriped, &c. imported.

* Linnens chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, after the manufacture, or in the thread or yarn before the manufacture (except lawns, ſtriped or chequered linnens, being all white, Sileſia neckcloths ſtriped at the ends only, barras, or packing canvas and buckrams) being chargeable with two new duties, according to the true and real value thereof, upon the oath of the importer; ſuch value muſt be aſcertained, upon the warrant-bill, as in the following example:

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 66. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 5. 12 Ann. cap. 19. §. 1.

5th of February 1750. No. 37.

In the Hope of London, Daniel Grove maſter, from Hamburgh.
Henry Dalton.

H. D. No. 1, 2. } Two cheſts, containing thirty-two hundred ells, ſtriped narrow German linnen, valued for the new duties, at 4 l. 10 s. per hundred ells.

Henry Dalton maketh oath, That the true value and price of the narrow German linnen above-mentioned, as it is really worth, to be ſold in the port of Southampton, without any abatement for his majeſty's duties charged thereupon, by an act of the tenth year of the reign of queen Anne, or any former or other act or acts whatſoever, amounts to no more than 4 l. 10 s. per hundred ells.

Jurat' 5 die Feb. 1750. Henry Dalton.
coram nobis
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller, Cuſtomer, or Surveyor.

III. Hides, ſkins, and manufactures of leather, imported.

* Hides, and ſkins, and pieces of hides and ſkins, tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, and all wares made into manufactures of leather, or any manufacture, whereof the moſt valuable part is leather, (not particularly charged) being liable to two new duties, according to the true and real value thereof, upon oath of the importer, ſuch value muſt be aſcertained upon the warrant-bill, as in the following example:

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 1. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 1.

17th of March 1750.—No. 70.

In the Golden Lion of Hamburgh, George Pahle, from Hamburgh.
Edward Farmer.

E. F. No. 7. } One bale, containing one hundred and eighty ſeal-ſkins, valued for the new duties at 2 s. each.

Edward Farmer maketh oath, That the true value and price of the ſeal-ſkins above-mentioned, as they are really worth, to be ſold in the port of Southampton, without any abatement for his majeſty's duties charged thereupon, by the act of the ninth of the reign of queen Anne, or any former, or other act or acts whatſoever, amounts to no more than 2 s. per piece.

Jurat' 17 die Martii, coram nobis Signed—Edw. Farmer.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller, Cuſtomer, or Surveyor.

IV. Wines

CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

IV. Wines and vinegar, imported.

* As there is a variation in the impoſt-duty of wines and vinegar, with regard to the circumſtances of the importation, as being for merchandize, private uſe, or retailing; therefore, at the time of entry, proof muſt be made by oath on the warrant-bill, whether the wines and vinegar, therein mentioned, are imported for ſale or private uſe; the form of which proof muſt be as in the following example:

* 1 Jac. II. cap. 3. §. 6.

9th of January 1750.—No. 2.

In the Delight of Southampton, David Stone, from Malaga.
James Gerard.

J. G. No. 1 to 20. } Twenty caſks, containing nine tons of Spaniſh wine, unfilled for ſale.

James Gerard maketh oath, That the wine above-mentioned is imported by way of merchandize, and with intent to ſell again, and doth not belong either to vintner or retailer.

Jurat' 9 die Jan. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Signed—James Gerard.

3d of February 1750.—No. 9.

In the Neptune of Ipſwich, Arthur Wills, from Oporto.
David Strong.

D. S. No. 5 to 8. } Four caſks, containing three quarters of a ton of Portugal wine, filled for private uſe.

David Strong maketh oath, That the wine above-mentioned is imported for private uſe, and doth not belong either to vintner or retailer.

Signed—David Strong.

Jurat' 3 die Feb. 1750, coram A. B. Collector.

But, when wines and vinegars are imported by a retailer, an oath is not neceſſary, becauſe they are then chargeable with the higheſt duty; being not intitled to any diſcount out of the impoſt-duty, by virtue of the act which granted the ſame: and it muſt be remembered, that profeſſed vintners, or retailers, may not be permitted to enter any wines and vinegars, any otherwiſe than by retail, though they may be the property of a merchant, and are only conſigned to them to be ſold by wholeſale, as merchandize.

V. Muſcovia or Ruſſia linnen.

As Muſcovy or Ruſſia linnens are not contented, and to meaſure each piece in every bale would be extremely troubleſome; it is the practice, in the port of London, to deliver them by the merchant's invoice: and, for that purpoſe, a copy of ſuch invoice muſt be inſerted on (either the face or the back of) the warrant, and the truth thereof confirmed upon oath, as in the following example:

25th of January 1750.—No. 29.

In the Alexander of Archangel, foreign built and manned, George Kinger, from Archangel.
Abel Smith.

	No.	P.	Aſhins.	Aſh.	
6 Bales	1	101	2544	53	Plain linnen.
	2	99	2537	51	
	3	97	2496	47	
	4	109	2863	56	
	5	112	2879	77	
	6	-	4300	42	Diaper.
			17619	326	Wrappers.
			326		
			17945		

A. S. No. 1 to 6.—Six bales, containing ſixty-four hundred, an half, and thirteen ells, plain narrow Ruſſia linnen, and three thouſand nintey three yards of Ruſſia diaper napkins, not exceeding half an ell in breadth.

Abel Smith maketh oath, That the above is a true copy of the contents in the invoice of the ſix bales of Ruſſia linnen above-mentioned, as ſent to him from Archangel; and that the ſaid bales contain no more than ſeventeen thouſand, nine hundred, forty-five aſhins, including the wrappers, to the beſt of his knowledge and belief.

Jurat' 25 die Jan. coram A. B. Collector. Signed—Abel Smith.

VI. Train-oil and whale-fins from the Britiſh plantations.

As train-oil and whale-fins, of, and from the Britiſh plantations, are chargeable with much lower duties than if of foreign fiſhing, it is the practice of the port of London, to make proof, by oath upon the warrant, that the ſaid oil and fins are of Britiſh taking and curing.

16th of January 1750.—No. 16.

In the Mary of Yarmouth, James Joy maſter, from New England.
Matthew Martin.

M. M.

No. 1 to 65.—Sixty-five barrels, containing ſeven tons of train-oil.

R. V. 1 to 10.—Ten bundles, containing twelve hundred weight of whale fins. All of Britiſh taking and curing.

Matthew Martin maketh oath, that the train-oil and whale-fins above-mentioned are ſent him, this deponent, from New England, as of Britiſh taking and curing.

Jurat' 10 die Jan. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Signed—Matt. Martin.

VII. Goods prohibited to be imported for ſale.

As many ſorts of goods are prohibited to be imported into this kingdom, with intent to be ſold here; therefore, when ſmall quantities of ſuch goods are offered to be entered, under pretence that they are only for the importer's own uſe, proof thereof muſt be made by oath upon warrant, as in the following example. But if, by the largeneſs of the quantities, it may be preſumed they are for ſale, they muſt not be permitted to an entry.

18th of January, 1750.—No. 20.

In the Providence, of London, James Ball, maſter, from Rotterdam.
Benjamin Tunis.

B. T.

No. 1 to 65.—Four caſes, containing 450 feet of gally-tiles (being painted ware) for private uſe.

Benjamin Tunis, maketh oath, That the gally-tiles above-mentioned are imported for private uſe, and not with intent to be uttered, or ſold, in the kingdom of Great-Britain.

Jurat' 18 die Jan. 1750, coram A. B. Collector. Benjamin Tunis.

And in all other caſes, where any thing relating to the duties, or importations, cannot be any otherwiſe aſcertained and determined, the importer's oath muſt be taken, according to the nature of the caſe.

REMARKS.

From this ſhort ſurvey of the practical buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe, ſo far as I judge proper to extend the ſame at preſent, it appears, that cuſtom-houſe-oaths have multiplied in proportion to the multitude of laws which have been enacted, in relation to this great branch of the public revenue. See the articles AFFIDAVIT and OATHS, with regard to the REVENUE; wherein, under the former head, I have ſhewn the danger of multiplying oaths of this kind, and the ſentiments of ſome great men upon this occaſion; but, while the revenue continues in it's preſent ſtate and condition, this frequency of ſwearing, I am afraid, will never be laid aſide; which, with great reaſon, may be looked upon in the light of a grievance, no leſs to be lamented than that of mortgaging and anticipating the PUBLIC FUNDS, in conſequence of not raiſing the whole revenue WITHIN THE YEAR, and thereby preventing the increaſe of the weight of our debts, and taxes: by which politic meaſures the DUTIES OF CUSTOMS, which ought to be laid in the moſt delicate and judicious manner [ſee the article CUSTOMS] as well as all other our TAXES [ſee TAXES on Trade] upon our commerce, and occaſionably variable, as the circumſtances of trade with divers ſtates may change; yet they ſeem to be intailed from generation to generation without any alteration. For the effects of which, ſee the articles CUSTOMS, DUTIES, FUNDS, TRADE.

That high duties give encouragement to ſmuggling is certain. Where the avoiding high cuſtoms makes the profit great, no riſk, no danger, will deter from the attempting it; it is throwing out a bait to a greedy fiſh, he will ſnap at it, though immediate ruin enſues. This ſo greatly injures and diſcourages the fair trader, that it either tempts, or compels him, to turn ſmuggler too, and aſſociate himſelf with thoſe numerous examples of depravity we have at this time among our people, who live in a ſtate of war with the government, in defiance of laws; whereby an univerſal corruption of manners, and contempt of authority, have prevailed. Beſides the articles of luxury being thoſe things that are chiefly ſmuggled, as brandy, tea, French wines, laces, ſilks, &c. it ſpreads their conſumption among the lower claſs of people, who are tempted, at a leſs expence, to imitate the luxuries of their ſuperiors: and what greatly adds to the public evil is, that the ſame ſmugglers who ſteal theſe foreign luxuries and ſuperfluities in upon us, carry off vaſt quantities of raw wool, to the unſpeakable detriment of our manufactures and the nation. See BRITISH AMERICA, FRANCE, WOOL.

High duties alſo ruin our manufactures, more eſpecially that of the woollen. For ſuch cuſtoms prevent the bartering away our manufactures for foreign goods, not only for our own conſumption, but alſo for exportation; which might enlarge the vent of our own commodities conſiderably more than it, at preſent, is: for, if a merchant now exports our woollen goods, and would barter them for wines, the duties on them would amount to

more than the coſt of his woollen goods, which puts him under the neceſſity of having a double capital for ſuch an adventure, or laying it aſide for want thereof; whereby the ſales of great quantities of woollen manufactures are loſt to the nation.

As high cuſtoms enhance the expences of our navigation, muſt not freights be raiſed accordingly? By which, are not the prices of ſoap, oil, and dyeing materials, uſed in manufacturing our wool, advanced to the manufacturer? And the freights on the cloths, or ſtuffs exported, being alſo raiſed, are not theſe additional clogs upon the ſales of our woollen goods of all kinds?

High cuſtoms ingroſſing ſo large a ſhare of the ſtocks of our merchants, they are cramped, and deprived thereby of driving that extenſive trade, and vending in foreign countries thoſe quantities of our woollen goods, they would otherwiſe do. Moreover, the riſk of Britiſh merchants being greater than in Holland, and their loſſes heavier in proportion, as our duties are higher, their bankruptcies muſt, and are, more frequent. Does not this very ſenſibly affect our manufacturers, who are generally conſiderable creditors; for broken merchants are juſtly compared to ninepins, one of which ſeldom falls without beating down ſeveral others.

Nor does any thing recommend the uſe of the foreign manufactures of fine goods as high duties, by making them expenſive; which vanity, on that account, ſoon renders faſhionable, whilſt our own are deſpiſed, though far ſuperior in quality; which is a great diſcouragement to our manufactures.

Heavy duties, alſo, are the principal cauſe of the ſmuggling of wool, becauſe the gain being great by running tea, brandy, and French goods, on account of the cuſtoms, hath raiſed the contraband trade to a great height; and the ſmugglers cannot make their returns in any commodity of ſo quick and certain a vent, or that gives ſo good a profit, as our wool; for the French working cheaper, and their wool being coarſer, Engliſh and Iriſh wools are ſo much in demand, that they will give great prices for them, by returns in their own goods, for which reaſon they receive vaſt quantities, to the ruin of our manufactures.

Great cuſtoms on aſhes, bay-ſalt, cotton, copper, coals, drugs, foreign ſoap, flax, fruits, furs, hemp, iron, leather, linnens, oil, paper, rice, tobacco, tallow, threads, tapes, ſilk, and ſugar, being neceſſaries of life, or materials of manufacture, muſt neceſſarily render all our commodities dear, not only to our own people, but to foreigners likewiſe (though our workmen ſhould have no exciſes to pay), and ſuch diſcouragements give opportunity to foreigners to ſend their manufactures cheaper to foreign markets, and ſmuggle them, in defiance of all laws, into our own country, to the ruin of our own manufacturers; for all the above cuſtoms are as much taxes on our woollen manufacture as if laid on the wool itſelf; for the workmen muſt raiſe the money on the woollen goods he makes, to pay the duties of what he uſes of the above articles, with the advances thereupon, which are made by all the hands through which they paſs before they come to him. By this policy it is that we ourſelves drive away our own manufacturers; and foreigners could not rival the people of ſo fruitful a country as Britain, if we did not furniſh them with the means, by our high taxes and reſtraints, that are always prejudicial to trade, though deſigned to advance it, and never effect the thing intended, though fortified with the moſt rigorous penal laws: of which Mr Locke gives an inſtance, in his Conſiderations, &c. p. 116. 'It is death in Spain to export money; 'and yet they, who furniſh all the world with gold and ſilver, 'have leaſt of it among themſelves; trade fetches it away, 'notwithſtanding all their artificial and forced contrivances to 'keep it there: it follows trade, againſt the rigour of their laws, 'and their want of foreign commodities makes it openly be car-'ried out at noon-day.'

It is felony in England to export wool, and yet they, who furniſh all the world with wool, have leaſt of the manufacturing of it among themſelves; the ſmuggling trade fetches it away, notwithſtanding all our artificial and forced contrivances to keep it: it follows the ſmuggling trade, againſt the rigour of our laws; and our want of taking off the taxes on manufactures makes it openly be carried out at noon-day.

Whence it is evident, that neither death nor baniſhment can force trade to an unnatural channel; it may be compared, in one reſpect, to water, which cannot be compreſſed to a degree beyond it's natural dimenſions; the more force is exerted, the ſooner doth the veſſel break that contains it, and the water let looſe, never to return. The great De Witt, in his Memoirs, aſſerts, 'That the navigation, the fiſhery, the trade and manu-'factures, which are the four pillars of the ſtate, ſhould not be 'weakened or incumbered by any taxes, for it is they that give 'ſubſiſtance to the moſt part of the inhabitants, and which 'draw in all ſorts of ſtrangers; unleſs the neceſſity was ſo great 'that the country was threatened with an intire deſtruction; and 'theſe fundamentals ſhould be attacked upon the hopes that theſe 'taxes would not laſt long; at leaſt haſte ſhould be made, as ſoon 'as the ſtorm was over, to take them off. Again, this diſtinc-'tion ſhould be made, that manufactures ſhould not, or can-'not, be taxed at all, becauſe they are not fixed to the country, 'and we muſt fetch from foreign countries the ſtuffs and mate-'rials to work them up.'

High duties ſend away our ſpecie. Britain, having no mines of gold or ſilver, hath no other means of getting or preſerving it's treaſure but by foreign trade. As cuſtoms confine our trade to mere importation for our own neceſſaries, or vanities, and, at the ſame time, ruin our manufactures, what we want in exports to ballance the imports, muſt be paid in ſpecie [ſee BALLANCE of Trade] making the ballance of trade every year more and more againſt us; for, as we raiſe the prices of our goods ſo high by taxes that foreigners will not take them, and yet continue to import their ſuperfluities, which we now chiefly, and, in time, muſt intirely pay for with our gold and ſilver; and our high duties encouraging ſmugglers, who have ſeldom a ſettled habitation, or any ſtock of our manufactures by them, they carry out great quantities of ſpecie, to purchaſe their cargoes: ſuch large draughts make our mints lie idle, but by fits and ſtarts; we find our money diſappear, and grow ſcarcer and ſcarcer, our trade declines and our people ſtarve. To confirm all which further, ſee the articles CUSTOMS, EXCISES, NATIONAL DEBTS, and TAXES. Upon what ſolid principles our commerce and navigation may be advanced, ſee, alſo, the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURES, MECHANICS, ROYAL SOCIETY, and TRADE.

How far the preſent ſyſtem of the public revenue of this nation appears to be calculated for the intereſt, or otherwiſe, of our commerce and navigation, ſhall be conſidered alſo under the article FUNDS; wherein ſhall be conſidered, more eſpecially, the great principle of increaſing our debts, and reducing the intereſt of the national creditors; for however well-bottomed the PUBLIC CREDIT may ſeem to be upon this maxim, I am afraid, upon a juſt and diſpaſſionate enquiry, it will turn out otherwiſe than many gentlemen may flatter themſelves.

C.

C A B

C is the third letter of the alphabet; it is uſed either alone, or preceded, or followed, by ſome other letter, by merchants, bankers, traders, and book-keepers, as an abbreviation of certain terms, or words, which they are obliged to repeat very often in the articles which they ſet down in their journals, or other regiſters. Thus, among the French, C ſignifies Compte, account; C O, Compte Overt, open account; C C, Compte Courant, account current; M C, Mon Compte, my account; S C, Son Compte, his account; L C, Leur Compte, their account; N C, Notre Compte, our account, &c.

CABALISTE, a term of commerce, which is uſed at Thouloufe, and in the whole province of Languedoc. It ſignifies a merchant, who does not trade in his own name, but is concerned in the trade of another merchant in chief.

The 24th article of the general regulations of the exchange of Thouloufe, made in the year 1701, for the election of the prior and conſuls of the ſaid exchange, orders, that every merchant, or ſon of a merchant, actually trading, ſhall be obliged to accept the office of adminiſtrator of the fraternity, if he be nominated to it; and that all the cabaliſtes, and perſons concerned in the trade of a merchant in chief, ſhall alſo be liable to be named and choſen for the ſaid adminiſtration. See the article ANONYMOUS Partnerſhip, and Remarks thereon.

CABECA, or CABESSE. The Portugueze, who carry on the trade of ſilks in the Eaſt-Indies, diſtinguiſh them by the names of cabeça and bariga; that is to ſay, head and belly. The cabeça ſilks are the fineſt, the bariga are from 15 to 20 per cent. inferior to them. The Indian workmen endeavour to paſs them off one with the other; and there is hardly a bale of cabeça but what is mixed with a great deal of bariga: for which reaſon, the more experienced European merchants, who carry on that trade, take care to open the bales, and to examine all the ſkains, one after another. See the article of SILKS, where thoſe of the Indies are deſcribed.

The Dutch, who have a great trade in thoſe ſilks, diſtinguiſh two ſorts of cabeça's, namely, the moor-cabeſſa, and the common cabeſſa. The former is ſold at Amſterdam for about 21½ ſchellingen groſs, or Flemiſh; and the other for about 18.

REMARKS.

The ancient Portugueze, who had extended their trade in the Eaſt-Indies, introduced amongſt the merchants of thoſe countries, that is to ſay, among the Banians and the Chineſe, the diſtinction of the beſt and the worſt merchandizes, by the comparative names of head and belly: for, as they looked upon a man's head as the nobleſt, and the belly as the vileſt, parts of his body, they do the ſame with regard to merchandizes (with a deſign, perhaps, to be better underſtood by the Indian merchants) ſtiling the beſt the head, and the worſt the belly, of the ſame ſort, or kind, of merchandize. This cuſtom has continued to the preſent time in the Indies: and the European nations, who trade there, follow that cuſtom of diſtinguiſhing the merchandizes in the buying or ſelling, to make themſelves be better underſtood by the Banians and Chineſe.

CABIDOS, or CAVIDOS, a long meaſure uſed in Portugal, at Goa, and in other places of the Eaſt-Indies, belonging to the Portgueze, to meaſure ſtuffs, linens, &c.

The cabidos, like the Dutch ell, or that of Nuremberg, contains two feet and 11 lines, which make $\frac{4}{7}$ of the Paris ell, and the Paris ell makes one cabidos and $\frac{3}{4}$: ſo that ſeven cabidos make four ells of Paris.

To reduce cabidos's into Paris ells, you muſt, uſing the Rule of Three, ſay, If ſeven cabidos's make four ells of Paris, how many Paris ells will ſo many cabidos make? And, on the contrary, to reduce Paris ells into cabidos's, you muſt ſay, If four ells of Paris make ſeven cabidos's, how many cabidos's will ſo many ells of Paris make?

CABINET, a piece of joiner's workmanſhip. It is a kind of preſs, or cheſt, with ſeveral doors and drawers, to lock up the moſt precious things, or only to ſerve as an ornament in chambers, galleries, or other apartments.

There are common cabinets of oak, or of cheſnut; varniſhed cabinets of China and Japan; cabinets of inlaid work; ſome of ebony, and of other ſcarce and precious woods.

The cabinets of Germany were formerly in great repute in France, where they were very much eſteemed, on account of ſeveral mechanical rarities and curioſities, which they were filled with in the inſide. They are very much valued in foreign countries, and the Dutch carry ſome ſtill into the Eaſt; but they are almoſt entirely out of date in France, as well as the cabinets of ebony, which came from Venice.

CABLE, a thick, large, ſtrong rope, commonly of hemp, which ſerves to keep ſhips at anchor: but theſe are commonly called crane-ropes, and are of different ſizes. It is alſo ſaid of ropes which ſerve to raiſe heavy loads, by the help of cranes, pullies, and other engines. The name of cable is uſually given only to ſuch as have at leaſt three inches in diameter; thoſe that are leſs are only called ropes, of different names, according to their uſe.

Every cable, of what thickneſs ſoever it be, is compoſed of three ſtrands, every ſtrand of three ropes, and every rope of three twiſts; the twiſt is made of more or leſs threads, according as the cable is to be thicker or thinner. The words ſtrand, rope, and twiſt, are explained under their proper articles. In the manufacture of cables, after the ropes are made, they uſe ſticks, which they paſs firſt between the ropes of which they make the ſtrands, and afterwards between the ſtrands of which they make the cable; to the end that they may all twiſt the better, and be more regularly wound together: and alſo, to prevent them from twining, or intangling, they hang at the end of each ſtrand, and of each rope, a weight of lead, or of ſtone.

When the cable is made, and twiſted as it ought to be, they untwiſt three or four turns, that the reſt may better remain in their former poſition.

Cables that are too much twiſted burſt very eaſily; and, when they are ſpun ſoft, that is to ſay, not ſufficiently twiſted, they break. See ROPE-MAKER.

The number of threads, of which a cable ought to be compoſed, is always proportionable to its length and thickneſs; and it is by the number of threads that compoſe it, and make it's diameter and circumference, that one may judge of it's weight, and, conſequently, make an eſtimate of it's value, which is an expeditious way of computing the worth of cordage.

A cable of three inches in circumference, which amount to an inch in diameter, is compoſed of 48 common threads; and upon that footing are calculated two tables which the Sieur St. Aubin has given us, in his Dictionaire de Marine, to make both thoſe operations; which tables we have thought proper to inſert in this work, with the neceſſary inſtructions for uſing them, that the reader may want no information on a ſubject which none ought to be ignorant of, who are concerned in marine commerce, who fit out merchant-men for their own account, or freight them for the account of others.

A Table of the number of threads of which a cable muſt be compoſed, with regard to it's circumference; from three inches to 20, and from 48 threads to 1943.

Inches.	Threads.
3	48
4	77
5	121
6	174
7	238
8	311
9	393
10	485
11	598
12	699
13	821
14	952
15	1093
16	1244
17	1404
18	1574
19	1754
20	1943

In order to find, by this table, how much a cable of a certain given length ought to weigh; for inſtance, a cable between 110, or 120 fathoms long, you muſt meaſure the thickneſs of the cable in its circumference, and look into the table, to ſee how many threads it muſt be compoſed of, with regard to that circumference; then multiply by four the num-

ber of threads you have found, becauſe each thread, for making a cable of the propoſed length, weighs about four pounds; and the product of that multiplication will give you very near the weight of the cable. Thus a cable of 20 inches in circumference, which, according to the table, muſt have 1943 threads, will weigh 7772 pounds.

A Table to eſtimate the weight of a cable, by it's circumference.

Inches.	Pounds.
3	192
4	308
5	484
6	696
7	952
8	1244
9	1572
10	1940
11	2392
12	2796
13	3284
14	3808
15	4372
16	4976
17	5616
18	6296
19	7016
20	7772

By the two foregoing tables may be alſo found how many threads are required in every rope, according to the thickneſs one would give to a cable. For inſtance, for a cable of three ropes, which is required to be made 18 inches in circumference, you muſt put 550 threads in each rope, obſerving, however, that, if you would make the cable ſomething tighter, or cloſer than ordinarily, it will be both ſhorter and thinner; and if, on the contrary, you make it looſer, it will be longer and thicker.

Remark.

It ſeems that, in the inſtance given above, by the Sieur Aubin, we ſhould put the word ſtrand, inſtead of rope, ſince a cable being compoſed, as he explained it before, of three ſtrands, and each ſtrand of three ropes, it makes nine ropes for every cable; and, at that rate, the number of threads does not agree with the ropes, but with the ſtrands, the latter being really compoſed each of 550 threads, or thereabout, and the ropes, reckoning nine to each cable, can have but about 183 threads each.

There is no merchant-ſhip, though never ſo weak, but has, at leaſt, three cables; namely, the chief cable, or cable of the ſheet-anchor, a common cable, and a ſmaller one. The length of theſe cables is commonly from 110 to 120 fathoms.

By ſtatute 21 Hen. VIII. cap. 12. ſect. 2. No perſon dwelling within five miles of the town of Burport, in the county of Dorſet, ſhall ſell out of the market, holden within the ſaid town, any hemp which ſhall grow within the ſaid five miles, upon pain of forfeiture of the hemp.

Sect. 3. No perſons, other than ſuch as ſhall dwell within the ſaid town, ſhall make, out of the ſaid town, any cables, halſers, ropes, traces, halters, or other tackle made of hemp, within five miles of the ſaid town, upon pain of forfeiture of the ſaid cables, &c.

Sect. 4. Twenty pounds weight ſhall be accounted the ſtone.

Sect. 5. Every perſon dwelling within the ſaid diſtance may make cables, and other tackle for their own uſe. This act to endure to the next parliament. Continued indefinitely by 3 Car. I. cap. 4. 16. Car. I. cap. 4.

Stat. 35 Eliz. cap. 8. ſect. 3. If any perſon ſhall make cables of old or overworn ſtuff, which ſhall contain above ſeven inches in compaſs, every perſon ſo offending ſhall forfeit four times the value. And, if any perſon ſhall tar any halſers, or other cordage, made within this realm, of ſuch old and overworn ſtuff, being of leſſer aſſize, and not containing in compaſs ſeven inches, and by retail put to ſale the ſame, being ſo tarred, every perſon ſo offending ſhall forfeit the treble value, &c.

Sect. 4. Every perſon which ſhall offend againſt this act, ſhall be impriſoned during her majeſty's pleaſure.

Stat. 6. Ann. cap. 29. ſect. 13. Foreign cordage, or cable-yarn imported, upon exportation ſhall have no allowance, or drawback of duties.

Remarks.

As cables are one of the principal ſafeguards to ſhipping, and the lives of mariners, too much care cannot be taken by all intereſted in marine commerce, of this article in particular, and that the above ſtatute of Elizabeth ſhould be duly executed; having been well informed, that many rogueries are daily practiſed in the buſineſs of rope-making, which occaſion great loſſes to our merchants and inſurers.

CACAO, or COCAO, the nut of which chocolate is made.

That tree is of a middle-ſized height and bigneſs. It's wood is ſpungy, or porous, and very light: it's bark pretty ſmooth, and of a cinnamon colour, more or leſs deep, according to the age of the tree.

As the leaves fall but by degrees, and are continually ſucceeded by others, the tree never looks bare: it blows at all times, but more plentifully about the two ſolſtices, than at any other ſeaſon.

Its flowers, or bloſſoms, which are very regular, and in the form of roſes, but very ſmall, and without any ſcent, grow in bunches, between the ſtalks of the leaves and the wood, or rather from the places where the old leaves grew, the ſcar of which, if we may ſo call it, is to be ſeen at the places from whence they fell. A great quantity of theſe bloſſoms drop off; and of a thouſand there are hardly ten that ſet; ſo that the ground under the tree is all covered with thoſe falſe bloſſoms.

Each bloſſom hangs from the tree by a pedicle, or ſtalk, about half an inch long; the ſmaller the bloſſom is, with regard to the tree and the fruit, the more it appears ſingular, and worthy of attention.

When the bud begins to open, one may diſtinguiſh the calix, the petals, or leaves, and the heart of the bloſſoms.

This cacao-tree bears fruit almoſt the whole year, which ripens ſucceſſively. It does not grow on the ſlender branches, as our fruit in Europe does, but along the body of the mother-branches, which is no uncommon thing in thoſe countries, where ſeveral trees have the ſame property, ſuch as the apricot-tree, the calabaſh or gourd tree, the papayer, &c.

The cacao-fruit is contained in a pod, or cod, which, from being at firſt prodigiouſly ſmall, grows, in four months time, to the ſize and form of a cucumber, pointed at one end, and whoſe ſurface is furrowed like a melon.

The pod, in the firſt month, is either red, or white, or mixed with red, or yellow: theſe varieties of colours make three ſorts of cacao-trees, which have no other difference but that, which is not ſufficient to eſtabliſh three different kinds of ſpecies of cacao-trees: and, therefore, Monſieur Tournefort, after the example of Father Plumier, acknowledges but one kind of them, though the Spaniſh writers reckon four of them in Mexico, without any reaſon.

Of the firſt we mentioned above, the pod is of a deep red, eſpecially when it grows near the ſea-coaſt, but it becomes clearer and paler, as the fruit ripens.

The ſecond, of which the pod is white, is in the beginning of ſo clear a green, that it ſeems quite white; it becomes by degrees of a citron-colour, which, growing deeper from day to day, is at laſt quite yellow, when the fruit is come to it's maturity.

The third keeps a medium between the two former; for, as it ripens, the green colour grows paler, and the yellow deeper.

The only diſtinction one can make between the cacao fruit, is, that it comes from three different places, namely, from Caracca, from Maragnan, and from the French iſlands; the firſt is the moſt valued.

The white pods are flatter than the others, eſpecially on the ſide of the ſtalk by which they hang from the tree; and thoſe cacao-trees are more plentiful bearers than the others.

If you ſplit one of theſe pods lengthways, you will find it to be about one third part of an inch thick; it is filled with cacao-nuts, the intervals of which, before the fruit is ripe, are repleniſhed with a white and firm ſubſtance, which afterwards changes into a kind of mucilaginous matter, of a very pleaſant acid taſte: for which reaſon, people often delight in putting one of theſe nuts, with the ſubſtance that ſurrounds it, into their mouth, which is an agreeable refreſhment, and quenches the thirſt; but they take care not to bite it with their teeth, for, if they were to pierce the ſkin, or peel off the nut, they would find it extremely bitter.

When we examine attentively the inward conſtruction of thoſe pods, and anatomize, as it were, all its parts, it appears, that the fibres of the ſtalk of the fruit, paſſing through the pod, divide into five branches, each of which are ſubdivided into ſeveral threads; and every thread terminates at the thick end of one of thoſe nuts, making all together a kind of bunch, conſiſting commonly of 20, 25, 30, or 35 nuts, placed the one againſt the other within the pod, in a wonderful order.

The peel or ſkin of ſome of thoſe nuts being taken off, you meet, with the ſubſtance of the nut, which appears tender and ſmooth, inclining to purple or violet colour, and ſeemingly divided into ſeveral lobes, though in reality it has but two, but very irregular, and much entangled the one in the other.

Laſtly, if the nut or kernel be cut into two equal parts lengthways, you meet at the extremity of the thick end, a ſort of cylindrical grain, $\frac{1}{6}$ part of an inch long by about $\frac{1}{24}$ in diameter, which is the true germen, or ſeed of the plant. The Botaniſts call it the plume.

The cacao-tree grows naturally in ſeveral countries within the torrid zone, but particularly in Mexico, in the provinces

of Guatimala and Nicaragua, as alſo along the banks of the river of the Amazons, on the coaſt of Caracca, that is to ſay, from Comoma, or Nova Corduba, to Carthagena, and in the Golden Iſland.

The trade of cacao-nuts is carried on by a Spaniſh company, ſettled upon that coaſt.

There come likewiſe large quantities of cacao-nuts from Maragnan, in the north part of Brazil, by the way of Liſbon, which commonly is worth but half the price of that of Caracca, being ſmall and not ſo ripe, which gives it a harſh taſte: ſo that, if chocolate were made of the cacao-nuts of Maragnan only, it would be too rough and too dry: and, if it were made all of Caracca nuts, it would be too rich, and not keep ſo well; but when it is made with one half of the former, and the other half of the latter, it makes very good chocolate, which will keep well, and come cheaper.

There are alſo cacao-nuts from the iſles of Magdalen in the gulph of St. Lawrence in Canada, which come pretty near to the nuts of Caracca, as well as thoſe of Cayenne, which ſurpaſs thoſe of the other iſlands, being plump and full-grown, and ſell almoſt for the ſame price.

The Spaniards and the Portugueze were the firſt, whom the Americans made acquainted with cacao; they made uſe of it many years, without communication thereof to other nations, who had ſo little knowledge of it in thoſe days, that the Dutch privateers, being ignorant of the value of the prizes of cacao they took, uſed, out of ſpite, to throw all the nuts into the ſea, calling them, by deriſion, and in pretty bad Spaniſh, cacura de carnera, ſheep's treddles.

In the year 1649, they knew in all the Antilles, but of one cacao-tree, which was planted out of curioſity in the garden of an Engliſhman, ſettled in the iſland of St. Croix. In 1655, the Caribbees, who are the ſavages of the leſſer Antilles, ſhewed to Monſ. du Parquet ſeveral cacao-trees in the woods of the iſland of Martinico, of which he was the proprietor. This diſcovery gave occaſion to obſerve ſeveral other trees of the ſame kind, in the other woods of that iſland; and the cacao-walks, planted ſince then in that iſland owe very probably their origin, to the nuts taken from thoſe woods. One Benjamin planted there the firſt cacao-walk, about the year 1660: but it was not till 20 or 25 years after this, that the inhabitants of Martinico began to apply themſelves to the cultivation of cacao-trees, and to make walks or plantations of them; but we have related above, after what manner they have been ſince deſtroyed.

The cacao which comes from Caracca, is more unctuous or oily, and leſs bitter, than that of Maragnan, to which it is preferred both in Spain and in France. But in Germany, and in the north of Europe, people are of a quite different taſte. After all, the difference there is between the cacao-nuts of ſeveral places is not very conſiderable, ſince it obliges only to put more or leſs ſugar, to temper the greater or leſſer bitterneſs of that fruit. For it muſt be obſerved, as we have already hinted, that there is but one kind or ſpecies of cacao. As for the external differences obſervable in the nuts, they cannot proceed but from the greater or leſſer fruitfulneſs of the ſoil, and the care that has been taken in the cultivation.

The cacao-nuts of Caracca are a little flat, and, by their ſize and figure, reſemble pretty much one of our large beans. Thoſe of St. Domingo, of Jamaica, and of the iſle of Cuba, are generally larger than thoſe of the leſſer Antilles.

The larger and plumper the cacao is, the leſs diminution there is in the roaſting and grinding of it, which is a conſideration in favour of the cacao of Caracca and Cayenne.

Cacao, in order to be good, muſt have a very brown and pretty even ſkin or peel; and, when it is taken off, the nut or kernel muſt appear full, plump, and ſhining, of a hazle-nut colour, very dark on the outſide, a little more reddiſh within, of a bitteriſh and aſtringent taſte, without any greeniſh or muſty ſavour; which it acquires, either by being put in a moiſt place, or by being wetted with ſalt-water, in croſſing the ſea; in ſhort, it muſt not have any ſmell, nor be worm-eaten.

Cacao is one of the moſt oily fruits which nature produces; and has this wonderful advantage, that it never grows rank, how old ſoever it be, as all other fruits do, which have any analogy with this, ſuch as walnuts, almonds, kernels of pine-apples, piſtacho-nuts, olives, &c.

The Indians, in their firſt making of chocolate, took no great trouble about it; they uſed to roaſt their cacao in earthen pots, and having afterwards cleared it of the huſks, and bruiſed it between two ſtones, they made it into lumps or cakes with their hands.

The Spaniards, more ingenious than theſe Indians, and after their example the other European nations, make choice of the beſt and freſheſt cacao: they put about two pounds of it into a large iron-pan, over a clear fire, and ſtir it continually with a large ſpatula, till it be roaſted enough to diveſt the nuts eaſily of their huſks, which muſt be done one by one, putting them by themſelves, taking the utmoſt care to throw away all thoſe that are worm-eaten or muſty, and all the huſks of the good ones; for theſe pellicles never diſſolve in any liquor, nor even in the ſtomach, and fall to the bottom of the chocolate cups, when the cacao has not been well cleaned.

If the cacao be weighed after it is roaſted and ground, there will be found about $\frac{1}{8}$ part diminution, ſomething more or leſs, according to the nature and quality of the fruit.

The cacao being thus roaſted, and cleaned ſeveral times, is put again to roaſt in the ſame iron pan, but over a fire leſs fierce: the nuts muſt be continually ſtirred with a ſpatula, till they be equally roaſted, and to a requiſite degree; which is known, by their ſavoury taſte and brown colour, without being black; it is a miſtake to think they muſt taſte of the burning, and be of a black colour.

The cacao being properly roaſted and well cleaned, they pound it in a large mortar, to reduce it into a coarſe maſs; which they afterwards grind on a ſtone, till it be of the utmoſt fineneſs.

When the paſte is ſufficiently ground, they put it quite hot into tin moulds, wherein it congeals, and becomes ſolid in a very little time. The form of thoſe moulds is arbitrary: the cylindrical ones, which can hold two or three pounds of chocolate, are the moſt proper, becauſe, the bigger the cakes are, the longer they will keep good, and are moſt eaſily managed, when one would ſcrape them for uſe. Theſe cakes muſt be carefully wrapped up in paper, and kept in a dry place. Obſerve, that they are very liable to take any good or bad ſcent, and that is proper to keep them five or ſix months before they are uſed.

People were formerly very much prepoſſeſſed againſt the effects of cacao-nuts; but the daily repeated experience of their good qualities has prevented them from being out of faſhion from a groundleſs prejudice. And, indeed, cacao which is a bitter, alkaline, and very temperate ſubſtance, is a very ſweet and benign food, incapable of doing any harm, eaſy of digeſtion, and very proper to ſupply the exhauſted ſpirits, and, indeed, to preſerve the health of ancient people, and prolong their days. A proof of the truth of this commendation of cacao is, that the natives of New Spain, and of a great part of the Torrid Zone in America, always took a particular delight in this food, and that, even at this time, all the European colonies ſettled in thoſe parts, make a ſurprizing conſumption of it. Theſe people take chocolate at all times of the day, and in all ſeaſons, as a conſtant nutritious food, without diſtinction of ages, conſtitution, ſexes, or conditions, no one ever complaining of the leaſt inconveniency ariſing from it, eſpecially if a ſmall glaſs of water be taken after it.

The uſes to which cacao is commonly put, may be reduced to three; it is made into a ſweatmeat, as the reader will ſee preſently; alſo into chocolate, of which we ſhall ſpeak under it's proper article; and there is an oil extracted from it, to which they alſo give the name of butter. That oil is as ſweet as oil of almonds, and is made after the ſame manner; it is an extraordinary remedy for the cure of burns and ſcalds. Some of the Creolian ladies of America uſe it as a paint, to render the complexion freſh, and the ſkin ſoft and ſmooth.

There are ſome places in America, where the cacao-nuts or grains are uſed as money, but only amongſt the natives: they give twelve or fourteen grains for a Spaniſh ryal.

The trade of cacao at Amſterdam.

The cacao of the Caraccas is ſold at Amſterdam for 8 ſtivers and $\frac{1}{2}$ per pound, more or leſs; when it is in caſks, they allow ſo much for tare: but, when it is in bales, the tare is according to the weight. From 100 to 229 pounds, the tare is reckoned two pounds; from 230 to 249, three pounds; from 250 to any weight above that, four pounds. The ſerons to 99 pounds weight, give 8 pounds tare per ſeron: thoſe of 100 pounds and above, 10 per cent.

The cacao of Martinico is commonly in caſks, which are tared by the weight; if it be in bags, the ſame tare is allowed, as for that of the Caraccas.

Remarks.

The reader will not be diſpleaſed, I hope, to meet in this place with an account of cacao, as it is given us by Capt. W. Dampier, from his own knowlege and obſervations, as it will ſerve to rectify ſome miſtakes in what has already been repreſented. 'The cacao-tree, ſays he, grows no where in 'the north ſeas, but in the bay of Campeachy, on Coſta Rica, 'between Porto Bello and Nicaragua, chiefly up Carpenter's 'river, and on the coaſt of Caraccas, as high as the iſle of 'Trinidada. In the ſouth ſeas it grows in the river of Guiaquil, a little to the ſouthward of the Line, and in the valley of Collima, on the ſouth ſide of the continent of 'Mexico. Beſides theſe, I am confident there is no part 'in the world where the cacao grows, except in Jamaica, 'of which there are now but few remaining, of many and 'large walks or plantations of them, found there by the 'Engliſh at their firſt arrival, and ſince planted by them; 'and even theſe, though there is a great deal of care and 'pains beſtowed on them, yet ſeldom come to any thing, 'being generally blighted. The nuts of the coaſt of Ca'raccas, though leſs than thoſe of Coſta Rica, which are

'large

'large flat nuts, yet are better and fatter in my opinion, 'being ſo very oily, that we are forced to uſe water in rub-'bing them up; and the Spaniards that live here, inſtead of 'parching them to get off the ſhell, before they pound or 'rub them to make chocolate, do in a manner burn them to 'dry up the oil; for elſe, they ſay, it would fill them too 'much with blood, drinking chocolate as they do, five or 'ſix times a day. My worthy friend Mr. Ringroſe commends 'moſt the Guiaquil nut, I preſume, becauſe he had little 'knowledge of the reſt, for, being intimately acquainted 'with him, I know the courſe of his travels and experience. 'But I am perſuaded, had he known the reſt ſo well, as I 'pretend to have done, who have at ſeveral times been long 'uſed to, and in a manner lived upon the ſeveral ſorts of 'them above-mentioned, he would prefer the Caraccas nuts 'before any other; yet poſſibly the drying up of theſe nuts 'ſo much by the Spaniards here, as I ſaid, may leſſen their 'eſteem by thoſe Europeans, that uſe their chocolate ready 'rubbed up. So that we always chuſe to make it up ourſelves. 'The cacao-tree has a body about a foot and a half thick '(the largeſt ſort) and 7 or 8 feet high to the branches, which 'are large and ſpreading like an oak, with a pretty thick, 'ſmooth, dark green leaf, ſhaped like that of a plumb-tree, 'but larger. The nuts are incloſed in cods as big as both 'a man's fiſts put together, at the broad end of which there 'is a ſmall tough limber ſtalk, by which they hang pendu-'lous from the body of the tree, in all parts of it from top 'to bottom, ſcattered at irregular diſtances, and from the 'greater branches a little way up, eſpecially at the joints of 'them, or partings, where they hang thickeſt, but never on 'the ſmaller boughs. There may be ordinarily about 20 or '30 of theſe cods upon a well-bearing tree; and they have 'two crops of them in a year, one in December, but the 'beſt in June. The cod itſelf, or ſhell, is almoſt half an 'inch thick; neither ſpungy nor woody, but of a ſubſtance 'between both; brittle, yet harder than the rind of a lemon, 'like which it's ſurface is grained or knobbed, but more 'coarſe and unequal. The cods at firſt are of a dark green, 'but the ſide of them next the ſun of a muddy red. As 'they grow ripe, the green turns to a fine bright yellow, 'and the muddy to a more lively beautiful red, very plea-'ſant to the eye. They neither ripen nor are gathered at 'once: but for three weeks or a month, when the ſeaſon is, 'the overſeers of the plantations go every day about to ſee 'which are turned yellow, cutting at once, it may be, not 'above one from a tree. The cods, thus gathered, they lay 'in ſeveral heaps to ſweat, and then, burſting the ſhell with 'their hands, they pull out the nuts, which are the only ſub-'ſtance they contain, having no ſtalk or pith among them, 'and (except that theſe nuts lie in regular rows) are placed 'like the grains of maiz, but ſticking together, and ſo 'cloſely ſtowed, that, after they have been once ſeparated, 'it would be hard to place them again in ſo narrow a com-'paſs. There are generally near a hundred in a cod, in 'proportion to the greatneſs of which, for it varies, the nuts 'are bigger or leſs.

'When taken out, they dry them in the ſun upon matts 'ſpread on the ground; after which they need no more care, 'having a thin hard ſkin of their own, and much oil, which 'preſerves them. Salt water will not hurt them; for we 'had our bags rotten, lying in the bottom of our ſhip, and 'yet the nuts were never the worſe.

'They raiſe young trees of nuts, ſet with the great end down-'wards, in fine black mould, and in the ſame place where 'they are to bear, which they do in four or five years time, 'without the trouble of tranſplanting. There are ordinarily 'of theſe trees from 500 to 2000, and upwards, in a plan-'tation, or cacao-walk, as they call them; and they ſhelter 'the young trees from the weather with plantains, ſet about 'them for two or three years, deſtroying all the plantains 'by ſuch time the cacao-trees are of a pretty good body, and 'able to endure the heat, which I take to be moſt pernicious 'to them of any thing: for, though theſe vallies lie open to 'the north winds, unleſs a little ſheltered here and there by 'ſome groves of plantain trees, which are purpoſely ſet near 'the ſhores of the ſeveral bays, yet, by all that I could either 'obſerve or learn, the cacao's in this country are never 'blighted, as I have often known them to be in other places. 'Cacao-nuts are uſed as money in the bay of Campeachy.'

Dampier's voyages, vol. i. page 59—62.

The ſame author, in his Deſcription of the bay of Campeachy, page 111, mentions another kind of cacao. 'I have ſeen, ſays 'he, a ſort of white cacao brought from hence (from Villa de 'Moſa, in the above-mentioned bay) which I never met with 'any where elſe. It is of the ſame bigneſs and colour on the 'outſide, and with ſuch a thin huſky coat as the other; but the 'inner ſubſtance is white, like fine flour; and, when the out-'ward coat is broken, it crumbles as a lump of flower does. 'Thoſe that frequent the bay call it ſpuma, and affirm that it 'is much uſed by the Spaniards in thoſe parts, to make their 'chocolate froth. But I never yet met with any in England 'that knew it, except the right honourable the earl of Car-'bury, who was pleaſed to tell me he had ſeen of it.'

Father Labat (Nouveaux Voyages aux Iſles François de l'Ame-rique, tom. vi. page 384) pretends to find fault with this laſt aſſertion of Dampier, and adds, that he ſpoke with an infi-nite number of perſons who traded to Mexico, and on the coaſts of Guatimala, Carthagena, and Caraccas, who told him they never heard of that ſort of white cacao. But Dampier does not pretend that he found any of it on thoſe coaſts; he aſſerts poſitively that he never ſaw it but in the bay of Cam-peachy; ſo that Father Labat's information might be true, without affecting in the leaſt Dampier's veracity, as to this particular.

CACAO Preſerved, or ſweet-meats of cacao. They are made in the Antilles, are excellent, and far excel all the ſweet-meats made in Europe.

The cacao, which one would preſerve, muſt be gathered ſome time before it be quite ripe; the maturity of this fruit is known by it's pods beginning to turn yellow; they muſt be choſen, therefore, ſome days before they begin to take that colour.

The nuts, which are then delicate and tender, are put to ſoak in freſh clear water, which muſt be changed every morn-ing and every night during five or ſix days; after which they lard them with very thin bits of lemon-peel and cinnamon; then they make a ſyrup of the fineſt ſugar, but very thin, wherein they put the nuts: after it is taken from the fire, and ſufficiently clarified, they leave them in that ſyrup 24 hours. When they are taken out of it, and well dried, they make another ſyrup, but thicker, in which they leave them again a whole day. Laſtly, after they have paſſed them thus through five or ſix ſyrups, they make another, of a greater conſiſtency than the former, wherein they put muſk, amber, or other perfumes, as people like them; and in this laſt ſyrup the nuts are kept for uſe.

When they would have them dry, they take them out of the laſt ſyrup; and, having drained them well, they plunge them into another ſyrup very ſtrong of ſugar, and well clarified, and put them immediately into a ſtove, where they are candied. F. Labat, from whom this account is taken, obſerves, that this ſort of ſweet-meats requires a great deal of care, and conſumes a prodigious quantity of ſugar: he adds, that the confectioners of the French iſlands ſeldom make any, and cannot undertake it, or make it as it ſhould be, under a crown the pound. Labat Nouveaux Voyages aux Iſles de l'Amerique, tom. i. page 185, &c. See alſo Hiſtoire natu-relle du Cacao, page 94.

CACAO-Walk, or Plantation, is a place where cacao-trees are planted and cultivated. It is a kind of orchard of thoſe trees, planted in rows by a line.

The culture of cacao in the French iſlands in America.

The ſoil proper for making a cacao-walk muſt be freſh land, that is to ſay, ſuch as has not yet ſerved for any other crop; the tree which bears the cacao-nut being ſo tender, that it wants the whole ſap and nouriſhment of a newly cultivated ground: for experience has ſhewed, that, when the nut is planted in land that is not quite freſh, though it has reſted ſome years, it does not yield any thing comparable to what it will when the ſoil is otherwiſe, nor does the tree live long, and never produces good fruit, nor is ever a plentiful bearer. The ground deſigned for this tree muſt be very deep, becauſe, from what is obſerved of the other trees in theſe iſlands, it ſhoots a great many roots, which grow inceſſantly deep into the ground, though, at the ſame time, the tree grows up-wards, and produces bloſſoms and fruit. However, nothing is noxious to it except rocks and ſtones, for it will grow pretty well in a ſandy, and even in a clayey ground, if it does not meet with it about 7 or 8 feet below the good mould. Another precaution to be obſerved is, to plant a cacao-walk in a cool and low ſoil, near a river, or watered by ſome rivu-lets, or brooks, taking care, above all, that it be not too much expoſed to the open air, to the heat of the ſun, nor to the wind.

The extent of ſuch a plantation ſhould be of 200 paces ſquare, according to the meaſure of thoſe iſlands, or thereabout; and, if the ground deſigned for thoſe trees be larger, it is better to divide it into ſeveral ſquares of that extent, and cover them with good ſtrong hedges, than leave it expoſed to the above-mentioned inconveniences, if the ſquare were too large and too open.

The cacao-walk muſt be ſurrounded with large trees, or at leaſt covered by them, on thoſe ſides from which the ſettled winds blow. But yet, as frequent accidents may happen by thoſe trees being blown down in high ſtorms, ſome chooſe to make thoſe fences with two or three rows of orange trees, or immortal-wood, which, being pliant, are more proper to reſiſt high winds, or whoſe fall, at moſt, cannot much in-jure the cacao-trees which ſtand near them.

Thoſe fences ſhould alſo be covered with ſome rows of bona-no's and plantain-trees.

The ſoil being thus, as we have deſcribed, muſt be dug, or plowed, as deep as poſſible, becauſe land that is equally plowed is capable of receiving the rain more uniformly; and alſo, becauſe, being well levelled afterwards, the ſeveral par-ticulars requiſite may be the more eaſily made, according to the plan of the plantation.

To mark out the diviſions, they uſe a line as long as the whole ſpace that is to be planted out, with knots at every eighth foot; at each diviſion they plant a ſtalk, or ſtick, three or four feet long. Thus having gone along the whole line, they plant, at eight feet diſtance from the place where it firſt lay, and go on thus, from eight to eight feet, 'till the whole ground be divided, which form thus a perfect chequer: ſo that a ſpace of 100 fathoms, or 200 paces ſquare, may contain 5685 trees.

Some place the trees at ſix feet, or even but five feet diſtance, from each other; but it is certain that their being too cloſe hinders their growth, and prevents their producing large fruit, the trees robbing, as it were, one another of part of the ſap and nouriſhment they want; beſides that, they want room to extend their roots, without intangling with each other.

This diſtance of eight feet is regulated only with regard to the ſoil of the leſſer Antilles, for, in the large iſlands, and on the main land, where the ſoil is deeper and fatter, the diſtance between the trees muſt be 10 or 12 feet, that the trees, which are commonly larger and thicker, may have all the extent they require.

On the Caraccas coaſt they plant the cacao-trees at 12, and even 15 feet, diſtance from each other, and they contrive trenches to water them in great droughts; they made once a lucky experiment of this in Martinico.

The walks, or alleys, in the plantation, muſt be as ſtraight as poſſible, not only as that is moſt pleaſant to the eye, but becauſe one may more eaſily obſerve the ſlaves at their work, and gather the fruit, when ripe.

The nuts muſt be planted in the laſt quarter of the moon, and in rainy weather, or, at leaſt, when it is cloudy, and ſeems inclined to rain. They take the cacao-pods, when ripe, open them, take the nuts out as they want them, and plant them immediately one by one, for fear they ſhould dry, which would prevent their ſhooting.

All the cacao-trees are raiſed by planting the nuts, for it will not grow from cuttings. Care muſt be taken to plant none but large nuts; for, ſince in the fineſt pods there are nuts that miſcarry, it would be imprudent to plant them. You ſhould, alſo, place the thick end of the nut lowermoſt; for, if you planted it uppermoſt, the tree would grow up crooked: but, though you ſhould put the nut flat, the tree would, nevertheleſs, come up pretty well.

They generally put in three nuts round each ſtalk, or ſtick, three inches aſunder, and three or four inches deep; which is eaſily done when the ground has been newly plowed, or dug: otherwiſe, they uſe a dibble, with which they ſlightly ſtir the ground where they would plant the nuts. They plant three nuts round each ſtick, with no other view but in order to fill up the vacancies, where any happen to miſcarry: ſo that, if they have all took, when they are about 18 inches or two feet long, they leave only the faireſt near each ſtick, and take up the two others, to plant where any are wanting, or to form another plantation.

You may make nurſeries of cacao-trees, but the trees taken out of them ſeldom ſucceed well, becauſe they, being very tender, cannot be eaſily tranſplanted without hurting the roots, which hinders them from growing kindly: wherefore moſt of the cacao-trees are firſt planted from nuts; and the moſt curious, moſt experienced, and moſt underſtanding inhabitants of the iſlands, chooſe rather to put new nuts in the room of thoſe that did not come up, than ſupply their defect with plants from a nurſery.

The ſcorching heat of the ſun being very noxious to the newly-raiſed cacao-plants, becauſe of their great tenderneſs, they never fail planting two or three rows of caſſavy, in the middle of the alleys, at the ſame time they plant the nuts; and, 'till the caſſavy be large enough to ſmother the weeds, which grow naturally in freſh ground, care muſt be taken to weed it continually, for nothing is more detrimental to thoſe growing plants than thoſe weeds, which deprive them of the greateſt part of their nouriſhment.

After the firſt crop of caſſavy is taken up, which is at the end of fifteen months, others muſt be planted again, but in leſs quantity; that is to ſay, but one row in the middle of each alley, adding, however, on both ſides, water melons, common melons, cucumbers, pumkins, potatoes, *&c.* becauſe theſe plants, having broad leaves, cover the earth, and prevent the growth of weeds. Some plant the caſſavy a month before they put the nuts into the ground, which has a pretty good effect, becauſe it is the ſooner in a condition to ſkreen the cacao from the heat of the ſun, and to ſmother the weeds.

When the cacao-trees are ſo far grown as to overſhade the ground, every thing muſt be taken up, for nothing will thrive under them.

The cacao-nuts are commonly ſeven, eight, or 10 days before they appear above ground, according as the weather, more or leſs favourable to them, advances or retards their growth: 15 or 20 days after the plants have begun to ſhoot above ground, they are five or ſix inches high, and have four or ſix leaves, which always grow by pairs. The tree, when 10 or 12 months old, is near two foot high, and has 12 or 14, or even to 16, leaves. When it is between 20 and 24 months, it arrives to the height of three feet and a half, and, ſometimes, to four feet, when the bud, which 'till then always appeared in the center of the two laſt leaves, opens, and divides itſelf into five branches, but ſeldom into ſix, and almoſt never into ſeven.

The cylindrical grain of the germen ſwelling puſhes downwards the radicle, which becomes afterwards the prop of the tree, and on top the plume is a diminutive of trunk and branches.

When the tree is come to that height, the leaves do no longer grow upon the trunk, but appear on the chief branches, which, as they advance in length and thickneſs, produce other ſmaller branches, while, at the ſame time, the trunk grows proportionably higher and thicker.

The cocao-tree, when two years and a half old, begins to blow. It is proper to take off it's firſt bloſſoms, that the tree may gather ſtrength. At three years and a half they leave a few, becauſe then it bears already very fine fruit; when it is four years old, they do no longer pull off any bloſſoms, becauſe it is then ſtrong enough to bear fruit, without prejudicing it's growth. Laſtly, when it is ſix years old, it is properly in it's vigour.

From the falling of the bloſſoms 'till the fruit be perfectly ripe, is about four months. It's ripeneſs may be known when the part between the ribs that divide the pods begins to change colour, and become yellow; in which ſtate it is fit to be gathered. The whole pod muſt have changed colour, the little bud, or knobs, at the bottom, only remaining green.

In order to gather the fruit, they diſpoſe the negroes deſigned for this work in ſuch a manner that there be one aſſigned to each row of trees: every negroe has a baſket, and, according to the row aſſigned to him, gathers ſuch fruit as is ripe, without meddling with that which wants ſtill ſome time to ripen, not touching the bloſſoms.

They uſe no iron inſtruments for that purpoſe, nor do they ſhake the tree; they only break the ſtalk by which the fruit hangs, either twiſting it a little with a wooden fork, or pulling it off. As ſoon as the negroes have filled their baſkets, they carry them to the end of the walk, where they put all the fruit they have gathered in heaps.

When all is thus gathered and heaped, they take the nuts out of the pods, which they firſt cut length-ways with a knife, and, bruiſing them afterwards with a ſtone, or piece of hard wood; and, when the nuts are thus coarſely diveſted of the pulp, or mucilaginous ſubſtance that ſurrounds them, they houſe them.

It is not neceſſary to empty the pods, as ſoon as they are gathered; they may be left in a heap two or three days without danger of ſpoiling: but, if the nuts were to remain in the pods above four days, they would ſprout, and be ſpoiled: wherefore it is neceſſary to take them out of the pods, for the lateſt, on the morning of the fifth day.

As ſoon as the nuts are houſed, they put them into large wooden veſſels, or troughs, or into a ſquare place, made with boards, where they cover them with leaves, and put boards and ſtones over them, to keep them cloſe and well preſſed.

Thus they leave them four or five days, taking care, however, to turn them every morning. In that condition they ferment, and, loſing the whitiſh colour they had coming out of the pods, they become of a dark red.

It is pretended, that, without this fermentation, they would not keep, but grow mouldy, and would even ſprout, if they were put in a damp place: but, as for this laſt accident, it is very little to be feared, for, if one ſhould but ever ſo little delay putting the nuts into the ground, it is certain that they would never ſprout.

All that this fermentation produces is, that it diveſts the nuts of a ſuperfluous humidity they are imbibed with, ſo that there remains nothing in them but an oil that preſerves them, wherein their goodneſs chiefly conſiſts.

After the nuts are taken from the place where they have fermented, they are ſpread on hurdles, or in ſhallow boxes, with holes in the bottom, and expoſed to the ſun to dry, taking care to turn and ſtir them now and then, and to put them under ſhelter in the night-time, or in rainy or damp weather, water and dampneſs being very prejudicial to them.

Three days of ſun-ſhine and wind are ſufficient to dry them thoroughly; after which they are put into caſks, or bags, or in a garret, or granary, 'till there be an occaſion to diſpoſe of them.

Cacao-nuts may be kept as long as one pleaſes, without danger of ſpoiling, provided they be put in a dry place, and expoſed to the ſun two or three times a year; it is true, indeed, that, as they grow old, they loſe of their oleaginous quality, and, when they are too dry, they have no longer the ſame virtue and flavour which they had before.

They who would gain the reputation of ſelling the beſt kind of this commodity, take care, before they put the nuts into caſks, to ſeparate by themſelves all ſuch as are too ſmall, ill fed, or flat, which are only leſs pleaſant to the eye, and do not yield quite ſo much chocolate.

After that manner the cacao-nuts dried in the ſun are brought to us into Europe, and ſold by the druggiſts, who diſtinguiſh them,

them, without any reaſon, into large and ſmall Caraccas-nuts, and into large and ſmall cacao-nuts of the iſlands, for in thoſe places they know nothing of ſuch a diſtinction; and it is probable, that the tradeſmen who deal in them found their account in culling them out in that manner, for naturally the cacao-nuts coming from the ſame tree, and out of the ſame nut, are never all of the ſame ſize.

The pods contain 25 nuts each, and 400 nuts dried make a pound weight, which muſt be underſtood of the cacao-nuts of the leſſer Antilles iſlands, thoſe of St. Domingo being larger. Sixteen pods produce one pound of dried nuts, and eight only will give a pound of green nuts, which is a conſiderable diminution.

The inhabitants reckon their crop but at the rate of a pound, or a pound and a half, *per* tree, of the gathering made at Chriſtmas, and of a pound only at Midſummer, when their trees are from five to eight years old; but, after that period, they may hope for larger crops, eſpecially at Chriſtmas, when the crop is always better than at Midſummer, becauſe of the rainy ſeaſon which prevails about Chriſtmas, and is more favourable to the cacao-trees than dry weather.

It muſt be obſerved, that, in order to keep thoſe trees in a good condition, there are two works to be performed every year, without which they will hardly continue long: the firſt is, to earth them up, in order to prevent their young and ſlender roots from taking the air, and being dried up; the ſecond is, to prune the ends of the branches, to make them ſhoot new ones. The neglect of theſe two precautions has been the occaſion that many of the fineſt cacao-walks, or plantations, have decayed and periſhed by degrees.

The produce of a cacao-walk is very conſiderable, and the expence but ſmall: 20 negroes are ſufficient to manage a plantation of 50,000 cacao-trees, which may produce, one year with another, 100,000 pounds weight of nuts; theſe, at about 4 d. ½ per pound, the loweſt price they are generally ever ſold for in America, would produce 1,875 l. ſterling.

This whole article has been reviſed, and had additions made to it, from the Natural Hiſtory of Cacao and Sugar, written in French by a judicious traveller, who had lived 15 years in the American iſlands, and who aſſiduouſly obſerved all that he aſſerts. His book was printed at Paris in the year 1719; and the authors of the Journal des Sçavans, for the year 1720, have ſpoke of it with great applauſe, as of the moſt accurate work on thoſe ſubjects: Father Labat's account of them is not ſo much to be relied on.

Remarks.

Chocolate, which is made of the cacao-nut, being a commodity of general conſumption, every meaſure ſhould be tried to cultivate the cacao in the Britiſh colonies, that we may have no occaſion to take any from other nations; which is the chief reaſon for my dwelling ſo long upon this article.

CAFFILA, a company of merchants, or travellers, or rather a company compoſed of both, who join together, in order to go with more ſecurity through the dominions of the Grand Mogul, and through other countries on the continent of the Eaſt-Indies.

There are, alſo, ſuch caffilas, which croſs ſome parts of the deſerts of Africa, and particularly what is called the Sea of Sand, which lies between the kingdom of Morocco and thoſe of Tombut and Gago. This is a journey of 400 leagues, and takes up two months in going, and as many in coming back, the caffila travelling only by night, becauſe of the exceſſive heat of that country. The chief merchandize they bring back conſiſts in gold duſt, which they call atibar, and the Europeans tibir.

The caffila is properly what is called a caravan in the dominions of the Grand Signior, in thoſe of the king of Perſia, and in other parts of the Eaſt. See Caravan.

There is ſome difference between a caffila and a caravan, at leaſt in Perſia. The caffila belongs properly to ſome ſovereign, or lord, or to ſome powerful company of Europe, by which effects, or merchandizes, are carried from one place to another, by means of camels, horſes, mules, or aſſes, which go together in a file, or one after another. It is always led by an officer, who is at the head (as in caravans) under whom are the cameliers, muletiers, &c. with ſome ſoldiers, all well armed, who eſcort the caffila as a treaſure, the whole belonging to one maſter. Whereas a caravan is a company of particular merchants, who have each a certain number of beaſts of burden for their own account, and march all together, under the conduct of a chief, whom they are to reward in common. So that all caffilas may be called caravans, but all caravans cannot with propriety be called caffilas.

At Gombron, otherwiſe called Bander-Abaſſi, a town and harbour on the Perſian gulph, the Engliſh and the Dutch have each of them their caffila, which is larger or ſmaller, according as they have occaſion. Theſe travel to Iſpahan, and back again, which is a journey of about 170 leagues. It is by their caffilas theſe companies ſend merchandizes from the Eaſt-Indies to the capital of Perſia, where they have ware houſes, each under a chief: and from thence every caffila brings back, at different times, merchandizes from Perſia, for the Indies, whither they are carried in ſhips, which croſs all thoſe ſeas.

Caffila ſignifies, alſo, in the ſeveral ports which the Portugueze ſtill hold on the coaſt of the kingdom of Guzerat, or Cambaya, a ſmall fleet of merchant ſhips, which ſail from thoſe ports to Surat, or come back from thence, under the convoy of a man of war, which the king of Portugal keeps there for that purpoſe,

CAFRERIA, or the country of the Cafres, in the ſouthern parts of Africa. It begins at Cape Negroe, about the 15th degree and 30 minutes ſouth latitude; extends from thence ſouth-eaſterly to the Cape of Good Hope; thence north-eaſt to the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about the 25th degree of ſouth latitude, which river ſeparates it on the north-eaſt from Monomotapa; on the north it reaches almoſt to the equator, where it borders on the kingdom of Makoko, or Anziko, and on the north-weſt it has Congo, or Lower Guinea, with the kingdom of Benguela. Monſieur Martiniere obſerves, that Cafreria is not properly the name of any particular country, and that there is no nation called Cafres, that being, as Ludolf tells us, an opprobrious appellation, given by the Arabs to all thoſe who do not profeſs the Mahometan religion; it comes from the Arabic word Cafir, which ſignifies an infidel, or unbeliever. The Portugueze, taking the name in a more general ſenſe, have called Cafres all thoſe nations of Africa who have, or ſeem to have, no knowlege of a Deity. Some include the empire of Monomotapa within the country called Cafreria: but the inhabitants of that empire, being much leſs barbarous than the Cafres, and that country being very conſiderable, it will be proper to deſcribe the trade thereof by itſelf.

From the boundaries of Cafreria, as given above, it appears to be a very large country, extending from Cape Negro to that of Good Hope, near 20 degrees, or 1200 Engliſh miles, from north to ſouth; from the Cape of Good Hope north-eaſt to the mouth of the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about 850 miles; and from the ſame cape, almoſt to the equinoctial line, about 29 degrees, or 1740 miles. It's greateſt breadth, from Cape St. Tome to the mouth of the above-mentioned river, is about 900 miles; but, from the tropic of Capricorn, up to the equinoctial line, it's breadth is not much above 600 miles.

Cafreria may be divided into the kingdom of Mataman, the country of Hottentots, Terra de Natal, and Terra dos Fumos.

Mataman is bounded by the kingdom of Benguela on the north; by the river Bravahul on the eaſt and ſouth; and by the Ethiopic ocean on the weſt. It extends from Cape Negro, in ſouth latitude 16. 30. to the mouth of the river Bravahul, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, in ſouth latitude 24. ſo that it's greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 450 Engliſh miles; but it's greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, is not above 260 miles.

About 200 miles to the weſt of Cape Negro the climate is pretty temperate; and, though the coaſt be very ſandy, yet the country is pretty fruitful, and produces a great variety of proviſions. The lands are extremely ſandy all along the ſea-coaſt, and the harbours bad, and little frequented. Here are no towns nor cities bordering upon the ſea, but only poor ſcattering villages.

The country of the Hottentots is bounded on the north-weſt by part of the river Bravahul; on the north it extends to the tropic of Capricorn; on the north-eaſt the river of the Holy Ghoſt parts it from the empire of Monomotapa; on the eaſt and ſouth it has the eaſtern ocean; and, on the weſt, the Ethiopic ocean.

The Cape of Good Hope, which is the moſt famous place for any traffic among the Hottentots, was firſt diſcovered in the year 1493, by Bartholomew Dias, a Portugueze admiral, in the reign of John II. king of Portugal. The admiral gave it the name of Cabo dos totos los tormentos, i. e. the Cape of Great Sorrows, from the boiſterous winds that are almoſt continually roaring there. But the king changed that name into Cabo del buonne Eſperanza, i.e. the Cape of Good Hope, becauſe, ſaid he, there was now good hope of making proſperous voyages to the Eaſt-Indies: and by that name it has been known in Europe ever ſince.

This cape lies in latitude 34. 15. ſouth (according to the Preſent State of the Cape of Good Hope, given us by Mr. Kolben, who reſided there ſeveral years, and which was tranſlated from the High German into Engliſh, and printed in London in 1731.) After ſeveral obſervations of eclipſes, the ſame gentleman found that the longitude of the Cape was 37. 55. from the meridian of the Pike of Teneriff, eaſt. But, from the authorities of ſome later obſervations, which ſeem to be more accurate, the Cape is laid down in longitude 20. 10. eaſt of London.

Though this famous cape was firſt diſcovered by Dias the Portugueze, yet he only went ſo near it as to obſerve it's ſituation, bays, and anchorings; but the Portugueze never made any ſettlement there: nor did the Dutch, who firſt viſited it in the year 1600, immediately diſcern all the advantages ariſing from this ſituation: wherefore, they only touched there for many years, in their voyages to and from the Eaſt-Indies, to

to traffic for proviſions. For which purpoſe they went, from time to time, in bodies up into the country, and having thrown up a ſmall fort near the harbour, they there ſecured themſelves and their purchaſers of merchandizes in the night-time, 'till they had ſhipped them.

The Dutch made another uſe of the Cape, while things were carried on only in this way, which was a notable contrivance. Every commander going out was provided with a ſquare ſtone, upon which, at his departure from the Cape, he cauſed his own name, that of his ſhip, and the names of his principal officers, to be fairly cut, together with the day he arrived there, and the day he departed. The ſtone with ſuch inſcriptions was buried in a certain place without the fort, and under it was put a tin box, ſealed up, containing letters from the captain, and others, to the directors of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, together with ſuch other letters as any perſons on board thought fit to ſend into Europe. This ſtone and box were taken up the next ſhip that paſſed by the Cape, in her return, and by her conveyed to Holland. And whoever conſiders the ſituation of the Cape (as a ſort of half-way houſe in the Eaſt-India voyage) and the ſatisfaction the company, by this means, received, from time to time, concerning the fortune and condition of their ſhips, will acknowlege this a very uſeful contrivance.

After this manner the Dutch uſed the Cape 'till the year 1650, when, their fleet anchoring before it for the uſual purpoſe, Mr Van Riebeck, a ſurgeon belonging to it, had the penetration to diſcern the ſtill greater advantages which the company might reap from the Cape, by means of a very little cultivation. He obſerved that the country was plentifully ſtocked with cattle; that the ſoil was rich, and capable of generous productions; that the natives were tractable, and the harbour commodious and improveable; and, upon the whole, made a good judgment to what a degree the Dutch trade might be ſecured and facilitated by means of this ſituation: in a word, he ſaw that it was highly adviſeable for the Dutch to make a ſettlement there. He accordingly digeſted his obſervations, and, on his return to Holland, he laid them before the directors of the Eaſt-India company, who were ſo well ſatisfied therewith, that immediately after, on a grand conſultation on the ſame, they came to a reſolution to attempt a ſettlement at the Cape, without loſs of time. Upon which, four ſhips were immediately ordered for the Cape, with all the materials, inſtruments, artificers, and other hands neceſſary in ſuch an expedition. Van Riebeck the ſurgeon was appointed admiral, with a commiſſion, on his arrival, to act as governor and commander in chief of the intended ſettlement, and with power to treat, manage, and act for the introduction and eſtabliſhment of the Dutch, in ſuch a manner as he ſhould think fit. Van Riebeck arriving ſafely with thoſe four ſhips at the Cape, the natives were ſo captivated with the preſents he brought them of braſs, toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. and ſo charmed with his addreſs, that a treaty was no ſooner ſet a-foot than concluded; wherein it was agreed, that in conſideration of ſuch a quantity of certain toys and commodities to be deliver'd to the natives, as might coſt 50,000 guilders, the Dutch ſhould have full liberty to ſettle there. This was immediately performed, and the Dutch thereupon took poſſeſſion of the Cape, which, with a great deal of ceremony, was deliver'd up to them. The traffic of the Dutch with the natives was alſo, by the ſame treaty, eſtabliſhed on a good and ſolid foundation, with many conſiderable privileges and regulations for their commercial intereſts.

In conſequence of theſe meaſures, the governor raiſed a fort, wherein he built dwelling houſes, warehouſes, and an hoſpital, for the reception of the ſick. To this fort he added proper outworks, to ſecure himſelf from any attacks from the Europeans. But, in proceſs of time, ſettlers flowing abundantly to the Cape, and trade greatly increaſing, the then governor, whoſe name was Bax, took notice that the company's ſtorehouſes, which were without the fort, would be quickly too ſmall to receive all the company's merchandize at the Cape: he judged, likewiſe, that there was a neceſſity for augmenting the garriſon, ſince all the trading nations in Europe ſaw, and began to envy the Dutch, the advantages they made of the Cape, and that, therefore, it might be juſtly apprehended, that one or other of thoſe nations would attempt to wreſt it from them. Theſe things he repreſented to the court of directors, and propoſed to them the erecting of a new fort, in a more advantageous ſituation; which was accordingly done, and has been from time to time, ſo augmented, that it is at this day a very ſtrong and ſtately building, and provided with all manner of accommodations for a garriſon. It covers the harbour roundly, and is of admirable defence towards the country; and the company's ſtorehouſes for merchandizes here are very large and commodious.

The ſettlement being firmly eſtabliſhed, they increaſed and multiplied in people to ſuch a degree, that in few years, being ſtill joined by new ſettlers from Europe, they began to extend themſelves into new colonies along the coaſt. They are, at preſent, divided into four principal ones: the firſt is at the Cape, where are the grand forts, and the capital city; the ſecond is the Hallenbogeſh; the third the Drakenſton; and the fourth the Waveriſh colony. The Dutch Eaſt-India company has likewiſe bought, for the future increaſe of the people, all that tract of land called Terra de Natal, lying between Moſambique and the Cape; for which they paid in toys, commodities, and utenſils to the value of 30,000 guilders: ſo that the province is now become of great extent, and the government of it a conſiderable port.

The government of the Dutch colony at the Cape, ſtands at preſent, upon the eight following eſtabliſhments, namely, a grand council; a court of juſtice; a petty court of aſſaults, &c. a court of marriages; a chamber of orphans; an eccleſiaſtical council; a common council; and a board of militia; by means of all which, this colony is well regulated and governed.

In the neighbourhood of the Cape are three remarkable hills: the Table-Hill is the higheſt of the three. On the tops are ſeveral fine ſprings, the water as clear as cryſtal, and of a very delicate taſte. Though at a diſtance you diſcover on this hill no tokens of fertility, yet, when you aſcend it, you are charmed with it's fruitfulneſs: the ſtately trees with which it is adorned are hardly to be diſcover'd 'till you are juſt upon them. On this hill are two groves, between which a ſilver mine was diſcover'd ſome years ago. Some ore dug out of it was ſent to Holland; but, it not yielding, it ſeems, ſuch a quantity of pure ſilver as to induce the company to think that the produce of the mine would anſwer the charge of working it, the mine was cloſed up and neglected*. The beauty,

* This mine may probably be wrought to good profit ſome years hence. See the articles MINES and MINERALS.

the variety, the fragrancy of the flowers, that grow in great plenty, and delicately adorn the tops and ſides of this hill, are not to be expreſſed, ſays Mr Kolben; they are more delightful to the eye, and more odoriferous, than any he ever met with in Europe.

The other is called Lyon Hill, which is ſeparated from the former by a valley, whereon ſtands a hut, for the ſhelter of two men, poſted there by the government, to give notice to the fortreſs at the Cape of the appearance of any ſhip making in, of which they give ſignals to the fort.

The laſt of theſe is the Wind-Hill, which abounds with excellent paſture.

Part of the Hottentots have ſubmitted themſelves to the Hollanders, and are, therefore, ſtiled the company's Hottentots. The Dutch ſend annually about 50 or 60 perſons to trade with theſe Hottentots, who purchaſe their cattle, and give them, in exchange, arrack, tobacco, hemp, and ſuch ſeeds as they have occaſion for, by which means a good underſtanding is preſerved.

The Cafres here traffic with the rovers of the Red-Sea, who bring them manufactures of ſilk for elephant's teeth, wherein they greatly abound. Theſe manufactures the Cafres exchange, as ſhips from Europe touch at the land de Natal, for European commodities, often for tar, anchors, and cordage, which they exchange again with the rovers of the Red-Sea. The ſilk, which they do not put off to the Europeans, they diſpoſe of to the people of Monomotapa.

TERRA DOS FUMOS is but a very ſmall country, which has, the river Dellagoa on the ſouth, that parts it from the country of Natal; it has the country of the Naonetas on the weſt; the land of Zanguena on the north; and the Eaſtern Ocean on the weſt. It ſtands along the ſea-coaſt, from the mouth of the river Dellagoa to that of Rio de Ladroon, or the river of the robbers.

The moſt remarkable places here are Cape Pedras, in latitude 29, beyond which there is a creek, called Potto de Peſqueria, or the Fiſhing Place. The Europeans have no ſettlements for trade here; and the Cafres who inhabit this country have neither towns nor villages, nor any ſettled dwelling. The inland countries of the Cafres are ſo little known, and ſo triflingly, therefore, is trade cultivated with them, that it is not to our purpoſe to dwell longer upon them than merely to mention them.

To the north of the country of the Hottentots is the land of the MOZUMBO ACULUNGAS which has the kingdom of Mataman on the weſt; the Hottentot country on the ſouth; Monomotapa on the eaſt; and the province of Ohila on the north. Next to this northwards lies the province of Ohila. Further north is the kingdom of Abutua, which is ſaid to be rich in gold mines.

Dapper ſays that this province, which he calls Toraca, or Toroa, and others Butua, begins to the ſouth of the mountains of the moon, and extends northwards to the river Magnica, having the river Bravahul on the weſt. The town of Fatucoa abounds with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones; and there are two gold mines here at Boro and Quitici, 200 leagues diſtant from Sofale. They are eſteemed the richeſt in the whole country.

Going higher up to the north-eaſt, we find the kingdom of CHICOVA, abounding, travellers ſay, with ſilver mines.

In regard to theſe, and ſeveral other barbarous nations, it may be obſerved that their gold and ſilver and precious ſtones, &c. have no tendency, like arts and commerce, to civilize them, and give them any taſte for the rational enjoyments of life. See Remarks on BARBARY.

CAHYS,

CAHYS, or CHAYZ, a dry meaſure for corn, uſed in ſome parts of Spain, particularly at Seville and at Cadiz. Four cahys's make a fanega, and 50 fanega's a laſt of Amſterdam. Four anegra's make a cahys which amount to a buſhel.

CAJOU. See ACAJOU.

CALAMANCO, a woollen ſtuff manufactured in Brabant, in Flanders, particularly at Antwerp, Liſle, Tournay, Turcoin, Roubaix, and Lannoy. There are alſo, a great many made in England. In France they are of different breadths; ſome of $\frac{7}{12}$, others of $\frac{2}{3}$, of $\frac{7}{12}$, of $\frac{5}{8}$, or of $\frac{5}{12}$, of an ell, all Paris meaſure. As for the length of the pieces, there is nothing ſettled, the weavers making them longer or ſhorter, according as they pleaſe, or as they are commiſſioned by the merchants. This ſtuff has a fine gloſs upon it, and is checquered in the warp, whence the checks appear only on the right ſide. It is commonly wove wholly of wool; there are ſome, however, wherein the warp is mixed with ſilk, and others with goat's hair. There are calamancoes of all colours, and diverſly wrought; ſome are quite plain; others have broad ſtripes adorned with flowers; ſome with plain broad ſtripes; ſome with narrow ſtripes; and other s watered. This alſo, is no inconſiderable branch of the woollen manufacture of England, both for home wear and freign exportation. See WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE.

CALAMINE, or CALAMINARY STONE (Lapis Calaminaris) ſometimes alſo called CADMIA, and erroneouſly CALAMITE, is a mineral, or foſſil earth, of ſome uſe in medicine, but commonly employed by founders to dye copper yellow, that is to ſay, to turn it into braſs. See BRASS.

There are two ſorts of calamine, the grey and the red: the former is found in England, Germany, and the principality of Liege, in lead or copper mines. The red calamine is interſperſed with white veins, and is found near Bourges in Berry, and near Saumur in Anjou, where there are quarries quite full of that ſtone. Beſides theſe two ſorts of natural calamine, there are alſo factitious ones, the beſt of which is called POMPHOLYX; ſee that article.

Calamine, either grey or red, does not become yellow but when it is baked like bricks; and it is only after it has been thus baked that it is proper to turn copper yellow, and increaſe it's weight, that is to ſay, to turn it into braſs.

REMARKS.

That excellent metallurgiſt, Dr. Iſaac Lawſon, was the firſt who diſcovered that the lapis calaminaris is really the ore of zink; they both having the remarkable property of converting copper into braſs: yet they have been treated as different ſubſtances by the writers on theſe ſubjects. Zink, alſo, is generally confounded with biſmuth, though in reality a different body; but, the reguline matter of both theſe minerals having a very great external reſemblance, the vulgar have not diſtinguiſhed them; whence we hear of many ores of zink, which only mean ores of biſmuth.

Lapis calaminaris, the general ore of zink, is a ſpungy ſubſtance, of a lax and cavernous texture, yet conſiderably heavy. It is of no determinate ſhape or ſize, but is found in maſſes of very various and irregular figures, with rugged, uneven, and protuberant ſurfaces. It is of a pale browniſh-grey, but it is lax, and of a ſpungy texture, and is often found yellow, or reddiſh.

Though this ſubſtance is the genuine ore of zink, yet that mineral is not confined to this alone, but is frequently mixed among the matter of the ores of other metals, particularly that of lead; which is the caſe, as I have often ſeen, in Flintſhire in North Wales.

Our artificers have long been acquainted with zink, under the name of ſpelter; but no one has been able, 'till of late, to make any conjecture at what was it's origin; and ſome accurate metallurgiſts have acknowledged, that they have every where ſearched after the ore of zink in vain, particularly in England. We have much brought, alſo, from the Eaſt-Indies, under the name of tutenage, yet nobody ever knew from what, or how it was produced there; but the learned doctor before-mentioned, obſerving that the flowers of lapis calaminaris were the very ſame with thoſe of zink, and that it's effects on copper were alſo the ſame with thoſe of that metal, never ceaſed his endeavours 'till he found the method of ſeparating pure zink from that ore.

Lapis calaminaris, as obſerved above, is uſed in medicine; externally in cerates for burns, and in collyriums for the eyes: it's reguline matter ſerves much better for the purpoſe of turning copper into braſs, than the crude ore, and is uſed with leſs trouble.

There is great reaſon to believe, that all the zink, or tutenage, brought from the Eaſt-Indies, is procured from calamine; and we have now on foot, at home, a work eſtabliſhed by the great diſcoverer of this ore, which will probably, very ſoon make it unneceſſary to bring any zink from elſewhere into England.

We have mines of calamine at Wrington in Somerſetſhire, and in other places. It is generally dug in barren rocky ground, it's courſes running generally from eaſt to weſt. When dug, it is waſhed or buddled, as they call it, in a running water, which carries off the impure and earthy parts, leaving the lead, calamine, and other ſparry parts at bottom; then they put it into a ſieve, and ſhaking it well in water, the lead mixed with it ſinks to the bottom, the ſparry parts get to the top, and the calamine lies in the middle. Thus prepared, they calcine it in a reverberatory furnace, or oven, four or five hours, ſtirring and turning it all the while with iron rakes. This done, they beat it to powder, and ſift it, picking out of it what ſtones they find; and thus it is fit for uſe.

CALAMUS VERUS, called alſo CALAMUS AMARUS, is a kind of ruſh, or rather flag, of the bigneſs of a gooſe-quill, two or three feet high, divided with knots, from which the leaves ariſe, and bearing on the top umbels, loaded with yellow flowers. It's principal and almoſt only uſe is in Venice treacle.

This flag grows in the Levant, whence it is brought to Marſeilles, ſometimes whole and ſometimes in bundles, about half a foot long. It muſt be choſen thick, freſh, cleared from it's root and branches, and in bundles. It ought to be grey, reddiſh without, and whitiſh within; it's marrow, or pith ought to be white; it muſt break into ſplinters, and be of a bitterneſs unſufferable to the taſte.

Lemery does not ſay that it comes from the Levant, but from the Eaſt-Indies; and that, as this calamus is ſcarce, they ſubſtitute the calamus amarus, commonly called calamus aromaticus, inſtead of it, to make Venice treacle, and other compoſitions.

This calamus verus is called in Engliſh the ſweet cane, or ſweet ſmelling flag, and grows in ſeveral parts of England. It is much uſed as a cephalic and ſtomachic, eſpecially againſt complaints ariſing from a cold weak ſtomach. See ACORUS.

CALCULATION, the art of reckoning, or caſting up any accounts by numbers. Computation is a word ſynonymous therewith.

It is proverbial among traders to ſay, that an error in calculation is not to be admitted; that is to ſay, that no advantage is to be taken from the errors that may have crept inadvertently into accounts, but that juſtice may be done by rectifying them.

They ſay, likewiſe, that a merchant, or trader, has been miſtaken in his calculation, or accounts, when he has happened to take falſe meaſures, and has not ſo well ſucceeded in his undertakings as he expected.

CALCULATOR, one who calculates, or caſts up any thing by numbers, or algebra, &c. it is ſeldom uſed in ſpeaking of thoſe who calculate mercantile accounts, but commonly enough of aſtronomers, who calculate ephemerides, or make other aſtronomical ſupputations. In mercantile affairs we generally ſay ACCOMPTANT; ſee that article.

CALENDAR, an almanack, containing the order of the days, weeks, months, and feſtivals, or holy-days, in the whole year.

The Gregorian calendar is the ancient one, as it was reformed, or corected, by pope Gregory XIII, by a bull of the month of December 1581, but which did not take effect 'till October 1582. By this new calendar 10 days were at once ſubtracted from, or ſtruck out of, the year; ſo that the next day after the 4th of October, which ought to have been the 5th, was that year reckoned the 15th, and thus it has always continued ſince.

The Roman Catholics have uſed that calendar ever ſince it was reformed, and ſeveral Proteſtant ſtates, which at firſt refuſed to accept it, and ſtill followed the old one, have at laſt admitted it, moſt of the princes of that religion having ordered, towards the latter end of the 17th century, that it ſhould be uſed in their dominions, as being more convenient, and more certain.

The Engliſh, however, 'till lately, continued to reckon the days of their years according to the old calendar, which, 'till the laſt year of the laſt century, made a difference of 10 days between the old and new calendar; and, ſince that year the difference is of 11 days, becauſe the year 1700 was a leap-year, according to the old calendar, but not according to the new. All merchants, bankers, and traders, who deal with ſuch Proteſtants as have not yet admitted the new calendar, ought to be acquainted with that difference, becauſe of the days on which their bills of exchange become due.

CALENDAR, a machine uſed in manufactories, to preſs certain woollen and ſilk ſtuffs, and linnens to make them ſmooth, even, and gloſſy, or to give them waves, or water them, as may be ſeen in mohairs and tabbies.

The calendar is compoſed of two thick cylinders, or rollers, of very hard and poliſhed wood, round which the ſtuffs which are to be calendered are rolled very ſmooth.

Theſe rollers are placed croſs-ways, between two very thick boards of poliſhed wood, which are longer than they are broad; ſome call them tables.

The undermoſt board, which ſerves as a baſe for the whole machine, is fixed, and placed level, on a ſolid foundation of brick-work. The uppermoſt board is moveable, though loaded with large ſtones, cemented together, weighing 20,000 pounds, or more.

A cable wound round the tree, or axis, of a large wheel, ſomething

ſomething like that of a crane to raiſe ſtones, and tied with ſtrong rings to this uppermoſt board, ſerves to move it, ſometimes one way, ſometimes another, according as the men who walk in the wheel ſet it a going. It is this alternate motion, together with the prodigious weight of the uppermoſt board of the calendar, that renders the ſtuffs ſmooth and gloſſy, or gives them the waves, by making the cylinders on which they are put, roll with great force over the undermoſt board.

When they would put a roller from under the calendar, to put on another, they only incline the undermoſt board of the machine.

The dreſſing alone, with the many turns they make the ſtuffs and linens undergo in the calendar, gives the waves, or waters them, as the workmen call it. It is a miſtake to think (as ſome have aſſerted it, and, among others, Mr. Chambers) that they uſe rollers with a ſhallow indenture, or ingraving, cut into them.

There is at Paris a very extraordinary calendar, called, by way of eminence, the royal calendar. It was made by the order of the late Monſieur Colbert, miniſter and ſecretary of ſtate, and ſuperintendant of the arts and manufactures of that kingdom.

The undermoſt table of this calendar is a block of very well poliſhed marble, and the uppermoſt is lined underneath with a copper-plate, all of a piece, and extremely well poliſhed, wherein it differs from the other calendars, whoſe tables, or boards, are commonly of wood only.

There are ſome calendars without wheels, which are moved by a horſe, tied to a wooden bar, which turns ſometimes to the right, ſometimes to the left, a great pole, placed upright; at the top of which, about a kind of drum, is wound a cable, the two ends of which, being faſtened to the two ends of the uppermoſt board of the calendar, ſet it a going. The calendars moved by horſes are not reckoned ſo good as thoſe with wheels, the latter having a more uniform and certain motion.

At Paris none but the maſter-dyers of the beſt dye have the liberty of keeping calendars at their houſes; at Amiens, and in other places, every one may have them who pleaſes.

CALENDAR ſignifies, alſo, a ſmall black inſect, which gets into corn, and devours it ſo as to leave nothing but the huſks. Beſides the detriment thoſe vermine cauſe to the corn they get into, they alſo give the flour made of it a very bad taſte.

They give the name of calendared corn to that which has been devoured by thoſe inſects, which they ſift, or bolt, afterwards, to expoſe it to ſale; but it is in no eſteem, and ſells very indifferently.

CALF, the young one of a cow, and an animal too well known to want a particular deſcription.

A ſtill-born calf is that which came dead out of the cow's womb; a ſucking calf is that which ſtill ſucks, and has not yet eat any graſs or hay; a grazing calf that which eats graſs and hay.

River calves, in France, are very fat ſucking calves, which are fed in the neighbourhood of Roan in Normandy, where the paſtures are excellent.

The maw of a calf is a ſmall bag, found in a calf's body, full of curdled, or ſour milk, which is called runnet (or rennet by ſome) and is uſed to turn milk into curds, of which cheeſe is made.

Though it ſeems that calves ought to be conſidered only with regard to their fleſh, which is ſold in the ſhambles for food, yet it affords two ſorts of commodities for trade, namely, the ſkin, or hide, and the hair.

The calves hides are prepared by the tanners, tawyers, curriers, and leather-dreſſers, who ſell them to the ſhoemakers, ſaddlers, bookbinders, and ſuch other artificers who uſe them in their ſeveral works. The curried calves hides which are produced and manufactured in England, are reckoned the beſt.

Vellom, which is a ſort of parchment, is made with the ſkin of a ſtill-born calf, or of a very young ſucking calf. The tawyer begins the preparing of it, which is finiſhed by the parchment-maker.

Calves hair is mixed with that of oxen and cows, to ſtuff ſaddles, and ſome houſehold furniture of little value.

The bookſellers and bookbinders ſay, that a book is bound in plain calf, to ſignify that the calf's ſkin that covers it is whitiſh, without being marbled, nor ſpotted with red or black.

CALVES-Leather dreſſed with ſumach, is calves leather curried black on the hair ſide, to which they have given a red colour with ſumach on the fleſh-ſide. The maſter-girdlemakers uſe that ſort of leather.

CALVES-Leather from England. There is in France a great trade of that ſort of leather, which is dreſſed and prepared in England, and which they have in vain attempted to imitate in other places.

There was, nevertheleſs, formed at Paris, in the year 1665, a company of men of buſineſs, of whom the Sieurs de Saille, Monginot, and du Vodal, were the chief, who undertook to eſtabliſh a manufactory of thoſe leathers, in the ſuburb of St. Marcellus.

Monſieur Colbert, to whom France is obliged for ſo many other commercial eſtabliſhments, hoping he could be able to

ſupport this, which would have proved very advantageous to the kingdom, by ſaving above 2,000,000 of livres per annum, which are ſpent in buying thoſe foreign leathers, cau ed letters patent to be granted to the undertakers, containing an excluſive privilege for the manufacture of thoſe calves-leathers, according to the manner of thoſe in England. But the company, after having for four or five years carried on this manufacture, under the name of one Bonnet, a tanner of Paris, to whom thoſe privileges were granted, was obliged to give over this undertaking, by which the undertakers loſt above 100,000 livres.

However, the ſetting up of this company, though it met with ſuch bad ſucceſs, procured a great advantage to the merchants who carry on the trade of true Engliſh calves-leather: for, till that time, the Engliſh never ſuffered the French, nor any other foreigners, to buy up any of their calves-leather, but from 25 to 36 pounds weight per dozen, it being prohibited to export any out of England from 36 to 45 pounds per dozen, under the penalty of having one's wriſt cut off.

But, when it came to be known in England that this company, in caſe it ſhould ſucceed, would abſolutely ruin their trade of calve-ſkins, the greateſt demand for which was from France, the government of England not only took off the prohibition, and gave foreigners leave to buy up calves-leather of all weights and qualities, but alſo lowered the duty of exportation from 12 s. to 3; and, the better to ſecure to the Engliſh nation ſo profitable a branch of trade, they revived, and cauſed to be executed, the ancient ordonnances of the police relating to the proper dreſſing and preparing of this commodity, which, as it was thought in England, would render the imitation of them in France more difficult ſtill.

It is not, however, impoſſible for the French to arrive at a perfect way of dreſſing that ſort of leather; but then the ſkins of calves fed and killed in France, and particularly in the neighbourhood of Paris, are not ſo proper for it as thoſe of the Engliſh calves.

The chief reaſon is, that the ſkins, or hides of calves in France, are too ſmall and too weak, a defect which it is not poſſible to remedy, becauſe it is a natural one; for the calves in England are ſtronger, the moment they are calved, than they are in France when a fortnight old.

There is another reaſon alleged for this alſo, which is a pretty weighty one indeed, but as it only relates to the police, it might be eaſily remedied; which is, that, in France, calves are weaned too young, being ſeldom ſuffered to ſuck above three weeks, or even but a fortnight; and being alſo killed too ſoon, which hinders them from growing and gathering ſtrength; ſo that, when their hides are dreſſed after the Engliſh manner, they can never have the weight and quality neceſſary to be employed in the ſeveral works in which they who manufacture in leather commonly uſe them: whereas the calves in England are ſuffered to ſuck ſix weeks, and even more, and are ſeldom killed but when they are very ſtrong.

The laſt wars between the two kingdoms have engaged the French to find out ſome method whereby they might be able to make ſhift without the Engliſh calves-leather, and they prepare ſome at preſent, which, for goodneſs, come very near to thoſe of England.

CALIN, a kind of metal finer than lead, but inferior to tin. It is very common in China, Cochinchina, Japan, Siam, &c. It is commonly uſed in the Eaſt-Indies for covering the roofs of houſes, as we do lead in Europe; they likewiſe make of it ſeveral pieces of furniture. The tea-boxes which come from China are made of calin. They alſo make coffee-pots of it, ſome of which are even brought into Europe.

Is it not a mixture of tin and lead, and ſome other mineral, as zink, &c. rather than a metal of a new kind?

CALKING, or CAULKING, is to drive oakam, or ſpun yarn, or ſomething of that kind, into the ſeams of the planks, or rather leaks of a ſhip, to keep the water out. This is done with a mixture of tallow, pitch, and tar, as low as the ſhip draws water; but it is not put on till the leaks, or ſeams, have been well ſtopped with oakam; that is to ſay, old ropes untwiſted, and made again into a heap of hemp, which they drive with main force into the ſeams, or leaks; after which they do it over with the mixture abovementioned.

They drive the oakam in with an iron inſtrument called a calking-iron: it is made like a chiſſel; ſome are broad, ſome round, and others grooved.

CALLICOE, a kind of linen manufacture, made of cotton, chiefly in the Eaſt-Indies. There is a great trade in the province of Bengal in this commodity, which is tranſported in prodigious quantities into Perſia, Turkey, Arabia, Muſcovy, and all over Europe. Some of them are painted with flowers of various colours; and the women in the Indies make veils and ſcarfs of them, and, of ſome, coverlets for beds, and handkerchiefs. They make another ſort of this manufacture, which they never dye, and hath a ſtripe of gold and ſilver quite through the piece, and at each end, from the breadth of one inch to 12 or 15, they fix a tiſſue of gold, ſilver, and ſilk, intermixed with flowers; both ſides are alike. They make, alſo, other ſorts of cotton cloths at Brampour, becauſe there is no other province in all the Indies which has greater quantities of cotton.

At Seconge they are ſaid to make the beſt ſort of callicoes; in all other parts the colours are neither ſo lively nor laſting, but wear out with often waſhing; whereas thoſe made at Seconge grow the fairer, the more you waſh them. This is ſaid to ariſe from a peculiar virtue of the river that runs by the city, when the rain falls; for the workmen, having made ſuch prints upon their cottons as the foreign merchants give them, by ſeveral patterns, dip them into the river often, and that ſo fixes the colours, that they will always hold. There is alſo made at Seconge a ſort of calicut, ſo fine, that, when a man puts it on, his ſkin ſhall appear as plainly through it as if he was quite naked; but the merchants are not permitted to tranſport it, for the governor is obliged to ſend it all to the Great Mogul's ſeraglio, and the principal lords of the court, to make the ſultaneſſes and noblemens wives ſhifts and garments for the hot weather.

The city of Baroche, alſo, is very famous for trade, on account of the river, which has a peculiar quality to whiten their callicoes, and which are, therefore, brought from all parts of the Mogul's territories thither for that end.

This manufacture is brought into this nation by the Eaſt-India company, which is re-exported by private merchants to other parts of Europe and America.

Remarks.

The general wear of ſtained or printed India callicoes in this nation having, in the year 1719, become a general grievance, and occaſioned unſpeakable diſtreſs and calamity upon our own manufacturers, eſpecially the weavers, the following acts of parliament very juſtly took place, to prevent the wear of this manufacture.

By ſtat. 7 Geo. I. cap. 7. If any perſon ſhall uſe, or wear, in any apparel, any printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed callicoe, being convicted thereof by the oath of one or more witneſſes, before a juſtice of peace, they ſhall forfeit the ſum of 5 l. to the informer; and, upon complaint within ſix days after the offence, the juſtice to ſummon the party accuſed, and proceed to examination, and, on due proof, cauſe the penalty to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, &c.

If any mercer, or draper, ſhall expoſe to ſale any ſuch callicoe, or any bed, chair, window-curtain, or other furniture, made up, or mixed with callicoe (unleſs it be for exportation) every ſuch perſon ſhall forfeit the ſum of 20 l. and perſons uſing the ſame are liable to the like penalty: but callicoes made into furniture in families are exempted; and this act ſhall not extend to callicoes dyed all blue.

One moiety of the penalties inflicted, where they exceed 5 l. ſhall be paid to the informer, and the other to the poor, recoverable by action of debt, &c. within ſix months.

Nor to extend to linen-yarn, or cotton-wool, manufactured and printed in Great Britain, provided that the warp thereof be intirely linnen-yarn. See Linnen Cloth.

Callicoe-Printing. The ſtaining, painting, or printing of callicoe, was a buſineſs which employed great numbers of people before the preceding act of parliament took place; and ſince the printing and ſtaining of our own cottons, linnens, &c. hath been ſo much in faſhion, that our linnen printers, in general, are not leſs numerous than before the ſaid act took effect. It appears highly probable that the Indians, for making the fine, bright, and durable colours wherewith their callicoes and chinches are ſtained, uſe metalline ſolutions; for, ſome ſtained callicoes having been kept for 40 or 50 years, the bright colours have been obſerved to eat out the cloth, exactly in the ſame manner as the corroſive, acid ſpirits, which diſſolve metals, are found to do. Whence, to imitate their richeſt and nobleſt colours, we are directed to uſe proper metalline ſolutions, made ſomething after the manner of the following experiment.

Experiment.

The method of preparing a metalline colour from gold and tin.

Diſſolve gold in Aqua Regia [ſee that article] and dilute the fine yellow ſolution with a large proportion of fair water; to the mixture add a ſufficient quantity of a ſaturated ſolution of tin, made alſo in aqua regia at ſeveral times; and a moſt beautiful red, or purple coloured powder, will ſoon precipitate to the bottom of the containing glaſs. Decant the liquor, and dry the powder; a few grains whereof, being melted along with white chryſtalline glaſs, will tinge the glaſs throughout of an extremely fine purple, or ruby colour *.

* See Caſſius de Auro, p. 105.

By means of this experiment the ancient art of ſtaining glaſs red, long ſuppoſed to be loſt, ſeems at preſent to be reſtored. All the colours are eaſily given to glaſs [ſee the article Glass] but this ſeems to have been kept in very few hands till lately; and may be conſiderably diverſified, ſo as to introduce a grateful variety of beautiful red and purple colours in glaſs, for the making of curious artificial ſtones, and for divers other purpoſes, as we ſhall ſhew hereafter.

It ſhould ſeem, alſo, that the art of callico-printing, which wants a red colour equally perfect with the blue it has obtained, might hence be furniſhed with ſuch a red; though there is reaſon to ſuſpect that it might prove too dear for ordinary uſe. Yet this experiment may be a key to others of a ſimilar nature, which may come cheap enough for this, and various other uſeful purpoſes in trade. For as the perfection of this art conſiſts in diſcovering fixed, bright, and permanent colours, not ſubject to change for the worſe in the open air, ſuch colours ſhould rather be expected from mineral or metalline ſubſtances, than from thoſe of the vegetable and animal kingdoms, which uſually afford ſubjects of too lax and alterable a texture, for fine durable colours, unleſs they could be ſome way ſubſtantially fixed. See Pruſſian Blue, and Dyeing.

It would be a farther perfection, not only in this art, but alſo in the art of painting, to prepare the fineſt colours without employing either acid or alcaline ſalts, which uſually ſubject colours to change, or elſe are apt to prey upon the cloth, or canvas, as we ſee in verdigreaſe, the blue and green cryſtals of copper, &c. Whence we are directed, (1.) To ſearch for menſtruums that are neither acid, alkaline, or ſaline. (2.) For ſuch metalline or mineral calxes, precipitates, or powders, as will not loſe their colours by being well waſhed, to get out their ſalts. (3.) To prepare certain metalline matters by calcination, or the bare aſſiſtance of fire; and, (4.) To look out for native colours, wherein no ſaline matter abounds.

It may be worth the trying, whether certain metals are not ſoluble by triture, with the pureſt oils uſed in painting, and ſuch as contain neither acid nor alkaline ſalts; or whether mere water, the white of eggs, ſaliva, gum-water, milk, &c. may not, by the ſame means, be made to diſſolve them; ſo as that the metalline particles may be left behind upon callicoes, cloths, &c. when the aqueous or mucilaginous matter is dried, or waſhed away from them. But no great effect can be rationally expected in ſuch attempts, unleſs the triture be long continued, and mills, or other well-adapted engines, be uſed for the purpoſe: for we find, in all inſtances, that metals muſt be reduced to very fine particles, before they will tinge, or colour.

The pigments, or colours, obtained by cryſtallization, ſuch as the blue and green vitriols, or cryſtals of copper, &c. cannot be deprived of their aqueous, or ſaline parts, by a dry air, or by waſhing, without ſuffering extreme alterations, or being left in the form of a groſs, terreſtrial matter, differently coloured from what they were at firſt. Thus the fine green cryſtals of iron, by being expoſed to the air, become white, and, when well waſhed in water, loſe their greenneſs, and turn to a reddiſh, or yellow-coloured ochre, or earth: and, if deprived of their ſaline and aqueous parts, by a ſtrong diſtillation, they leave behind a brown, or red caput mortuum, which, being waſhed in water, affords not a green, but a brown-coloured pigment, or kind of Spaniſh brown. And, as this holds proportionably of other colours obtained by cryſtallization, there are little hopes of procuring durable pigments by that operation, which ſhall be of the ſame colour with the cryſtals themſelves; though, after being well waſhed, different colours may be thus procured.

Metalline and mineral matters are reducible to a conſiderable degree of ſubtilty, or ſmallneſs of parts, by fire, or dry calcination, ſo as to leave them durably poſſeſſed of their native, or adventitious colour. Thus lapis lazuli, by being calcined, becomes the fine, durable, rich blue, called ultramarine: light ochre, by the ſame treatment, becomes a light red, or the moſt uſeful fleſh-colour in painting; [ſee Colours] lead, by calcination, becomes durably red; and iron durably brown. But a proper method ſeems wanting for the dry calcination of the nobler metals of gold and ſilver; though, for the uſes of gilding, &c. theſe nobler metals are eaſily made to give colours, by dipping linnen rags into their reſpective ſolutions, then drying the rags, and ſetting them on fire, ſo as that they may burn to aſhes; whereby a dry and fine metalline powder is readily obtained.

Many native mineral pigments, or durable tinging ſubſtances, are already diſcovered, that do not abound with ſalts; ſuch as ochre, both yellow and red, cinnabar, or vermilion, zaffora, manganeſe, &c. and, doubtleſs, many others might be found in countries that abound with mines, or where a proper ſearch is made after new mineral ſubſtances. For theſe, if ſkilfully managed, will ſupply the place, at an eaſy charge, of many other expenſive materials, that are, at preſent, made uſe of, for want of more knowledge in the mineral kingdom, and more judgment in the nature of mineral and metalline ſolutions. See the articles Dyeing, Minerology, Metallurgy.

How uſeful in callicoe-printing, painting, dyeing, &c. many middle minerals of little worth may be rendered, ſhould ſeem to be inferred from the following Experiment:

Take an ounce of the abovementioned manganeſe, and pulverize it to a tolerable ſubtilty; to this put four ounces of clarified ſalt-petre, that has been once melted thoroughly in a crucible, or four ounces of clarified ſalt of tartar: melt them together in a crucible, 'till the ſalt hath diſſolved the manganeſe as thoroughly as it can do by fuſion. When effectually done, pour the maſs into an earthen veſſel; which let ſtand while it is near cold, but not quite ſo, for that will

mar the operation. Having in readineſs two or three Florence flaſks, filled with a clear ſoft water, put a ſmall part of the maſs into one of the flaſks, about half full of water, and continue putting in ſo much of the maſs 'till you find the water of a graſs-green colour: after which, add more water to the ſolution, 'till it appears of a deep red; and ſo continue adding water more and more, 'till the whole grows quite colourleſs. The water having thus diſſolved all the ſalt, the matter of the manganeſe, which gave the tincture, will gradually ſubſide at the bottom, free from all ſalts, in a browniſh-coloured powder. This mineral ſubſtance, which is of a fixed tinging nature, may, by this preparatory means, be made uſe of in callicoe-printing, without any corroſive ſalt, or ſpirit, to render the colour permanent, which greatly injures the quality of commodities.

The proper application of this, and a great variety of other experiments, which I have made upon all ſorts of bodies, I have reaſon to believe, will greatly contribute to the ſubſtantial improvement of variety of arts and trades. See METALLURGY, MINEROLOGY.

CALLIFORNIA is ſituate between 116 and 138 degrees of weſt longitude, and between 23 and 46 degrees of north latitude. It lies almoſt in the form of a cone reverſed. It was a matter of doubt for a long time, whether it was an iſland or a peninſula, but diſcovered to be the latter by Father Caino, or Kins, a German Jeſuit, who landed in California from the iſland of Sumatra, and paſſed into New Mexico, without croſſing any other water than Rio Azul, or the Blue River, about north latitude 35.

The more ſouthern part was known to the Spaniards ſoon after their diſcovery of Mexico; for Cortez diſcovered it in 1535; but they did not 'till very lately penetrate far into it, contenting themſelves with the pearl-fiſhery on the coaſt. But our Sir Francis Drake landed there in 1578, and took poſſeſſion of California for his miſtreſs, queen Elizabeth, by the name of New Albion; the king of the country actually inveſting him with it's ſovereignty, and preſenting him with his own crown of beautiful feathers; and the people, thinking the Engliſh to be more then men, began to ſacrifice to them, but were reſtrained *.

* Does not this give the Engliſh a juſter right to the poſſeſſion of this colony than the Spaniards can pretend to by a ſlight diſcovery only, and late ſlight poſſeſſion ſince; Sir Francis having taken fair poſſeſſion, in the name of our immortal Elizabeth, and been ſolemnly inveſted with it's ſovereignty? Though the Engliſh have never yet attempetd to ſettle any colonies here, yet, if the revival of our right ſhould ever become neceſſary, we ſeem to have a much better plea than the Spaniards. And as this nation has many years taken every advantage of us, by inſult and depredation, and has, for above theſe 20 years, amuſed us with ſhameful and dilatory negociations, it may not be uſeleſs, perhaps, to think of the revival of every kind of right to which we have any claim or pretenſions; in order, at leaſt, to make proper uſe thereof, to obtain that indiſputable right and ſecurity of trade and navigation to and from our long-poſſeſſed colonies in America; though the wiſdom of the nation ſhould not judge it adviſable to enlarge our poſſeſſions in the new world, without further provocation from the Spaniards. Hints of this kind being national, we think neceſſary to ſuggeſt them as they naturally ariſe, becauſe it will too evidently appear, throughout the courſe of this work, from facts inconteſtable, that we ſtand in need of reviving even every colourable right to our trade and poſſeſſions, ſince our real and undoubted ones are daily called in queſtion. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, BISCAY, SPANISH AMERICA, LOGWOOD, FRENCH AMERICA. Under which heads, together with others we ſhall from thence refer to, will be ſhewn, according to the ſentiments of the ableſt ſtateſmen, how we may be enabled ſo to deal with the Spaniards, in the way of trade, as to ſtand leſs in need of their friendſhip.

It is bounded on the north by a continent unknown; on the eaſt by the province of New Mexico, and the gulph of California, which ſome call the Purple or Red Sea; and by the South Sea on the ſouth and weſt. Though it lies for the moſt part in the temperate zone, there are great heats on the coaſt in the ſummer, but the inland part is very temperate; and though in the winter it is pretty cold, it is judged to be a healthy country.

In reſpect to the ſoil, the mountains are well wooded, and the plains well watered; they abound with fruit-trees, and are capable of bearing all ſorts of European grain. Here are deer, of which two kinds are peculiar to the country; all ſorts of fowl and birds, common in Europe or the Indies; a prodigious plenty of ſea and river fiſh, particularly cray-fiſh, which are taken out, and kept in reſervoirs: there is beſides, one of the greateſt pearl-fiſheries in the world; and it is thought to have mines. It has two conſiderable rivers, viz. Rio Colerado, and Rio du Carmel, with ſeveral other ſmall rivers, and variety of fine ports, both on the eaſt and weſt ſides, with innumerable bays, creeks, and roads, which is the reaſon of it's having been ſo much frequented by our privateers in the South Seas.

Such of the natives who live on the eaſt ſide, on the Purple ſhore, are great enemies to the Spaniards; but in other parts of the peninſula, they ſeem very hoſpitable to all ſtrangers. It is obſervable of this country, that, after the rainy ſeaſon is over, a great quantity of dew falls in the mornings, in April, May, and June, which not only renders the land exceeding fruitful, but, ſettling upon roſe leaves, candies and hardens like manna, and is ſweat as ſugar, though not ſo white and pleaſant to the eye. In the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt quite firm and clear as cryſtal, which, conſidering the extraordinary quantity of fiſh of all ſorts that are found there, might prove of unſpeakable advantage to any civilized people, who were poſſeſſed of the country.

Here is alſo excellent paſturage in all ſeaſons, for great and ſmall cattle. The banks of the rivers are covered with willows, reeds, and wild vines; and there is abundance of xicames here, better taſted than thoſe of any part of New Mexico. On the mountains there grows mercales, a fruit peculiar to this country, which is gathered all the year round. Almoſt every ſeaſon there is plenty of piſtachoes, of curious kinds, and figs of different colours. The trees are beautiful, and particularly thoſe called by the natives palo ſancto. It yields a great quantity of fruit, and a moſt excellent perfume is extracted therefrom.

Callifornia breeds fourteen ſorts of grain, which the natives feed on. They likewiſe uſe the roots of trees and plants, particularly the Yyuca, wherewith they make a ſort of bread. They have alſo excellent ſkirret, and a ſort of ſcarlet, or French beans, of which they eat great quantities, together with pumpions and water-melons, of a prodigious ſize. In ſhort, the ſoil is ſo rich, that many plants bear fruit three times a year. Here are lions, wild cats, and various other wild beaſts, like to thoſe of New Spain. And, beſides ſtags, hares, rabbets, &c. there is a ſpecies of animals not found in Europe, which may be called ſheep, becauſe they ſomewhat reſemble them in ſhape.

The inland country, eſpecially towards the north, is populous. It is but lately the Spaniards had any ſettlement at all on this peninſula; and what they have is only a village, near Cape Lucar, at the ſouth end of it, which is called Callifornia. The Manilla ſhips touch here ſometimes in their courſe to Acapulco, and it is like to become a conſiderable place in time, by their trading with the Indians for pearl.

There are many ſmall iſlands on the coaſts of this peninſula, both in the South Sea and in the Purple Sea, ſuch as the iſlands of St Catherine, St Clement, Paxoras, St Anne, and the iſland of Cedars, ſo called from the great number of thoſe trees that grows on it, of an uncommon ſize. The iſlands moſt known are three, which lie off St Lucar, towards the Mexican coaſt, and are called Las Tres Marias, or The Three Marys. They are but ſmall, have good wood and water, abundance of game, ſuch as fowls and hares, a wholeſome fruit called penquin, as large as a pullet's egg, and ſalt-pits, like thoſe of Callifornia; and, therefore, the Engliſh and French pirates have ſometimes wintered here, when cruizing in the South Seas. It is to be obſerved, that Capt. Dampier propoſed ſeeking a north-weſt paſſage, by doubling Cape Blanco, the moſt northern point in Callifornia.

CAMBAYA, or GUZURATTE, a kingdom in the Mogul empire: lies ſouth of the gulph of Indus, Tatta, and Jeſſelmere; north of the Indian Sea, and the kingdom of Decan; and weſt of Chandis and Chitor. It is cut in the middle by the gulph of Cambaya, which runs north-eaſt; ſo that the greateſt part of it is formed into a peninſula by that and the gulph of Indus. Thevenot ſays it is the pleaſanteſt province of Indoſtan, abounds with corn, and all the fruits common to Europe and the Indies, particularly the moſt delicious melons. It has ſtore of cattle, fowl, and fiſh, and ſeveral ſorts of pulſe, &c. and is ſo well watered, that it looks verdant all the year. Nor does the ſoil produce only all the neceſſaries of life, but great plenty of cotton, indigo, opium, aloes, and many other drugs; as alſo cryſtals, cornelians, rubies, ſaphires, agates, topazes, jaſper, and variety of other precious ſtones.

The inhabitants have not only a great traffic with their commodities, by it's navagable rivers, but make fine cotton linnen, ſilks, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, jewels, and plate, cabinets, &c. the exportation whereof inrich the inhabitants.

CUTCHNAGGEN is the firſt town ſouth of the river Indus, which ſeparates it from Sindy, or Tatta province, and is a place of ſome trade, and produces corn, cotton, coarſe cloth, and cheak, or ſhell-fiſh.

SANGAMA, the next province, alſo produces cotton and corn, as all the kingdom of Guzuratte does. Notwithſtanding, this place admits of no trade, not even at it's ſea-port Baet, which, though it be a ſafe and commodious harbour, gives refuge and protection to a medley of criminals, who fly their country for fear of juſtice. They ſtrive to board all ſhips they can come at, by ſailing as pirates.

JIGAL, another ſea-port, ſtands on a point of low land, called by it's own name. This city is the ſeat of the Mogul's governor, and makes a pretty good figure from the ſea, but, being a place of no trade, is little known, as is the caſe of all other places that are deſtitute of trade.

MANGAROUL, a maritime town, where once there was an Engliſh factory for trade, juſt under the tropic of Cancer. It's

trade

trade conſiſts in exporting of coarſe callicoes, white and dyed, wheat, pulſe, and butter, and has a market for pepper, ſugar, and the betel-nut. It is inhabited by Banians.

PATEN, PATE, or PETAN, between Mangerol and Din, is a great town on this coaſt, between Chevar and Corymar, which had formerly a very large trade, and has ſtill a conſiderable manufacture of ſilk-ſtuffs and coarſe callicoes, but is much decayed, ſince the trade was ruined by the roads being greatly infeſted with robbers.

PAREMAIN is a pretty large trading town, not far off, on the ſame coaſt, producing the ſame commodities.

DIU, DEW, or DIO, which is the next port, and the ſouthermoſt land on Guzuratte, is an iſland, three miles long, and two broad, with a city at the entrance of the gulph of Cambaya. It is ſeparated from the main by a narrow channel, over which is a ſtone bridge, and is the ſtrongeſt place belonging to the Portugueze in the Eaſt-Indies. It has a good ſafe harbour and had formerly a large trade; but, ſince the Engliſh, Dutch, and French ſettled in Cambaya and Surat, it is much decayed. The bulk of the inhabitants are Banians, there being but few Portugueze there, and but few of the former of any fortune, by reaſon of the oppreſſion of the Portugueze to ſuch as are monied men. Proviſions are very cheap here, and coral is the chief article of their traffic, it being not only greatly uſed by the Indians, but alſo by the eaſtern Tartars, who come hither to fetch it.

GOGA, is a large trading town, 10 leagues within the gulph, on the weſt ſide of it, which was burnt by the Portugueze. It has a ſafe harbour for the largeſt ſhips, and ſtrangers have a free commerce here in the merchandizes proper for importation to, or exportation from Guzarat.

GAMBAYA, or CAMBAUT, a city which gives name to the gulph, lies near the bottom of it, and in the neck of the peninſula, 47 miles ſouth-weſt of Amadabat, and 12 leagues north-eaſt from Goga. It is a place of much better ſtructure than the cities of Indoſtan commonly are, and has been a city of ſuch traffic, as to be called the Cairo of India; but, though it's trade is decayed, by the ſea's being retired half a league from it, ſo that great ſhips cannot come within three or four leagues of it, yet both the Engliſh and Dutch have ſtill a factory here. It ſtands on a river formed by the overflowing of the Indus into the bay, and is ſtill a place of great trade, though not half inhabited. It contributes very much to the wealth and grandeur of Surat, to which it is ſubordinate, and ſhares the advantages of the great city of Amadabat, becauſe what it exports by ſea comes hither for the moſt part, and is carried by the Surat ſhipping all over India, except what European ſhips carry for Europe.

The product and manufactures are inferior to thoſe of few towns of India. It abounds in grain, cattle, cotton, and ſilk. The cornelian and agate ſtones are found in its rivers, and, as many travellers ſay, in no other of the world, though they have quarries alſo of the latter at Nimroda, a village, four leagues from the town. Of the former they make rings, and ſtones for ſignets; of the latter, cabinets, bowls, cups, ſpoons, hafts for ſwords, daggers, and knives, buttons and ſtones to ſet in ſnuff-boxes. They embroider the beſt of any people in the world, and their fine quilts were formerly brought to Europe. In the ſuburbs, which are almoſt as large as the town, there are manufactures of indigo. The Dutch ſhips do not come hither till the end of September, becauſe there is a violent wind on this coaſt in the beginning of that month, ſo that it is hardly poſſible to eſcape a ſhipwreck. There are, likewiſe, dangerous banks in the gulph, which prove fatal to the brigantines that trade from hence to Surat, beſides the coaſts being infeſted by Malabar pirates.

BRADERA is a large town on the eaſt ſide of the gulph, under the tropic of Cancer, 50 miles ſouth-eaſt of Cambaya town, and at leaſt 55 from Amadabat, and about 15 leagues north of Baroach, in a country producing cotton, wheat, barley, rice, &c. and ſo abounding with lacque, that one village, called Sindickera, produces every year about 250,000 pounds weight of it.

SURAT, the greateſt place for trade and commerce in all the Mogul's dominions. It lies in eaſt longitude 72. 20. latitude 21. 30. Here are factories of Engliſh, Dutch, and French; but the Engliſh have the greateſt ſhare of it's commerce. Their chief, or governor, lives in the ſtate of a little prince: they enjoy greater privileges here than any other nation. Alſo, under the governor of this factory and his council, all the little detached factories which the Engliſh India company have ſettled within the country, and all their factories on this coaſt, and that of Malabar, as far as Ceylon, are directed, Surat being the head ſettlement on this ſide, as fort St. George is on the other. It is above 115 miles ſouth of Cambaya, and about 10 from the ſea. When the Engliſh firſt eſtabliſhed their commerce here, which was about the beginning of the ſixteenth century, they were highly eſteemed in the country; but the Portugueze, pretending then to a ſole right to the trade, diſturbed the Engliſh in theirs, murdering the people, and taking all their ſhips and veſſels they could; but the Engliſh were ſoon after ſeverely revenged on them, by an intire victory, wherein they killed above 1500 Portugueze, with the loſs of only 20 of their own men.

Surat was but an inconſiderable place till the ſettlement made here by the Engliſh, and by other nations ſoon after them: then, indeed, it became a large town in a few years.

The inhabitants are computed at about 200,000, among whom are many very rich, both Mahometans and Gentiles, who, however, do what they can to conceal their wealth, for fear of tempting the avarice of the Great Mogul, or his governors, to fleece them at pleaſure. The revenues of the province are kept here. Thoſe ariſing from the cuſtom-houſe, which is the richeſt in India, as well as from the land-rents and poll-tax, one with another, from 1690 to 1705, amounted to 162,500 l. a year. There is no book of rates here, as in China, but all things are indifferently charged ad valorem. The cuſtoms in the emperor's books are but 2 per cent. from the Mahometans, 3 and $\frac{3}{4}$ from the Chriſtians, except the Dutch, who pay but 2 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 5 per cent. from Gentiles. They puniſh thoſe who defraud the cuſtoms by whipping, and not by forfeiture of the goods. The land pays $\frac{1}{4}$ of it's product in corn, and the poll about a crown a head; the Chriſtians only are exempt from this tax. The Moors, Banians, Armenians, Arabs, and Jews, drive a much more conſiderable trade here than the Europeans.

The moſt numerous body in this city are the Banians, who are either merchants, bankers, brokers, or acomptants, collectors, and ſurveyors, but few or none handicrafts. Some of them who appear very mean and beggarly, carry rough diamonds about them for ſale, to the value of ſeveral thouſand pounds; for they are ſuch money-lovers, that they will traverſe the whole town to get a half-penny. Their manufacturers are chiefly weavers, and make moſt of the ſilks and ſtuffs that are wrought in Surat.

The ſoil on the land ſide is very fertile, but towards the ſea it is ſandy and barren. They have, however, great plenty of proviſions, and thoſe cheap. They are expert in the art of ſhip-building, and take the dimenſions of all the new Engliſh veſſels, in order to follow the model, if they approve it, in the next veſſels they build; but they by no means approve of the high ſterns of the Dutch. Their ſhip-building is altogether with teak, a firm and durable kind of timber; but, inſtead of caulking the ſeams, they rabbet the planks, and let them one into another ſo dexterouſly, with hammer and oakham, that they are exceeding tight. They make uſe of coire, or cacao-nut cordage, and have anchors and guns from Europe. Sometimes they procure Engliſhmen for their pilots, but are always manned with Laſcars, who are ſailors fitteſt for the climate, hired cheap, and eaſily maintained.

The Engliſh India company's affairs here are managed by a preſident and council, with different degrees of inferior ſervants, as ſenior and junior merchants, factors, &c. who live in good credit. The four principal officers of the company are, the accomptant, warehouſe-keeper, purſer-marine, and ſecretary; but, in the extent of the preſidency, the company has above a hundred ſervants. Offenders here, if refractory, are ſent home; but capital criminals are ſent to Bombay, and tried by the laws of England. The preſident, who, as intimated, ſuperintends the company's ſettlements on the weſt and north of India, lives in great ſplendor, is reſpected almoſt as much as the governor, and is choſe by the company. His grand council conſiſts of five members, who are generally choſen out of the company's factors; and from this council is commonly elected the deputy governor of Bombay, and the agent of Perſia. There are many young clerks, or apprentices, here to the company, who ſerve them a term of years, and, according to their behaviour, riſe gradually to be factors, merchants, and chiefs of factories. Theſe have their diet and lodging in the factory, as well as ſalaries, and ſome of them have the liberty of trading in India from port to port; and thoſe of good credit, who have not a capital, may borrow money to trade with of the Banians, at 25 per cent. bottomry [ſee BOTTOMRY] of which in ſome voyages, they make cent. per cent. There are alſo here free merchants, to whom the company grant licences to carry on a coaſting trade; many of whom, alſo, borrow large ſums on bottomry of the Banians.

Mr. Lockyer thinks this city the propereſt place in India for the reſidence of a virtuoſo, here being a conflux of the rarities of the coaſts of Africa and Malabar, Arabia, Perſia, and Indoſtan, &c. beſides the great collection of agates, cornelians, and other ſtones of Cambaya, always to be found in it's bazar. Their ſtreets are lined with ſhops of great variety of merchandize; their artiſts are very ingenious, eſpecially in inlaying and working in ivory, which is always a ſtaple commodity here, though vaſt quantities are imported hither every year from the coaſt of Africa, &c. inſomuch that there muſt be a ſurprizing conſumption thereof in the Mogul's dominions.

The goods proper for this place from Europe are, wine in cheſts, beer in caſks and bottles, fine hats, worſted ſtockings, and a few wigs for the Europeans; ſmall ſhot, lead, iron, caſe-knives, flint-glaſs, roſe-water, cochineal, red and white lead, the fineſt knives and ſword-blades, long and ſhort, toys, &c. for the country merchants; beſides which, our Eaſt-India company ſends coarſe cloths, and ſeveral other woollen manufactures; and cloth is exported from hence to Bantam. A cheſt of wine conſiſts of 10 bottles, each containing about five quarts;

quarts; or of two carboys, which, one with another, hold out five gallons each. A cheſt of roſe-water conſiſts of 24 bottles. The beſt is of a fine amber colour, and will keep ſeveral years, if properly prepared. The merchandizes proper for Surat, from Perſia, are galbanum, ammoniacum, aſſafœtida, gum elemi, tragacanth, and other drugs, apricots dried without the ſtones, Perſia brandy, coffee, rich ſilks, carpets, leather, lapis-tutiæ, piſtachia-nuts, ruinus, dates, almonds, prunella's, raiſins black and red, roſe-water, wines of Schiras, Aſhee, and Kiſſruſh, and worm-ſeed. Theſe goods are, in a great meaſure, the produce of the Perſian province of Carmania, where the Engliſh have a factory for the ſake of it's fine wool for hats. They are brought in caravans to the gulph of Ormus, where they are put on board Engliſh and Dutch veſſels, at great freight, for Surat. And Mr. Lockyer, who gives the rates of the freight, obſerves, that this is a main branch of our India company's profit, becauſe their ſhips are rarely diſpatched from thence for Surat but they are as deeply laden as they can ſwim, not only with paſſengers, but vaſt quantities of pearl, and other treaſures, on board, ſometimes to the value of 2 or 300,000 l. ſo that he looks upon Engliſh ſhips from Perſia to Surat, in the latter end of October and November, to be the richeſt veſſels on that ſide of the globe. He ſays the Dutch, though they have alſo a great deal of freight hither from Perſia, ſend ſo many ſhips together that they are ſeldom above half full. The goods proper for Surat from China are, quickſilver, vermillion, green tea, copper, tutanaque, ſugar, and it's candies, ſweetmeats, camphire, China roots, China ware, rhubarb, lacquered ware, umbrella's, damaſk, and all ſorts of toys, ſalt-petre, bees-wax, ſugar, &c. will turn to account from Bengal; as well as rice and cardamum from Panola, a French factory, and Telichery, an Engliſh factory on the Malabar coaſt; and Goa arrack, of about 13½ rupees a hogſhead, will fetch double the price, both here and at Bombay. Cowries and little ſea-ſhells are imported hither from Siam and the Phillipine iſlands; gold and elephants teeth from Sumatra, in exchange for corn, drugs, and Carmenia wool from Perſia, and for coffee from Mocha.

The inland factories ſubject to this are, Amadabat, where they purchaſe ſilks and gold atlaſſes; Agra, where they have indigo; Chuperti, where they have coarſe cloths; Sering, where they have chints; Baroche, where they have baftas, broad and narrow dimitties, and other fine callicoes; Bombay, and Rajapore, where they have ſalloes; Carwear, where they have dungares, and the heavieſt pepper; and Calicut, where they have ſpice, ambergreaſe, granate, opium, and ſalt-petre. At the Dutch factory are ſold ſpices, imported from Batavia, for part of which product they ſend back coarſe cloth for their planters, and, for the reſt, money. All ſorts of merchants goods are expoſed in the open air in the Caſtle-Green, both day and night, except during the monſoons; and here the bales are made ready for the ſhipping. It is a great diſadvantage to the European factories here that they are ſo much in the power of the Moors, that, if any of their veſſels are taken by pirates, they expect ſatisfaction; 'till which is done, they frequently block up their factories with a body of troops. The Surat gold being eſteemed extremely fine, it ſells in Europe for a better price than moſt others; and their ſilver ſurpaſſes that of Mexico. None of it's coin has been known to be clipped or debaſed. All the foreign coin the Mogul officers can lay hold of is melted down, and caſt into roupees, with the image of the reigning emperor, after whoſe death they ſink in value 1 or 2 6oths. There is an harbour near the village Suhella, or Sovally, which the ſailors call Swalley-Hole, 30 miles north of the town. The entrance to it is full of banks, which, at low water, are almoſt dry, and it is near half a mile broad. Here all ſhips bound to Surat formerly anchored; but, ſince 1666, none have had the privilege, except the Engliſh and the Dutch, who have each a port here, with yards, warehouſes, gardens, &c. which gives them an opportunity of running goods almoſt as they liſt. While the ſhips lie here, which is commonly from September to March, the Indians, Perſians, Armenians, and Turks, pitch their ſtraw huts along the coaſt like a fair; where they ſell callicoes, ſattin, procellane, cabinets of mother of pearl, ebony, ivory, agate, turquoiſes, heliotropes, plantanes, arrack, &c. Thevenot ſays, that, ſince the abovementioned prohibition, the ſhips of other nations lie at the bar, 12 miles below Surat, becauſe though ſmall craft can go up to it, veſſels of burden cannot enter the river 'till unladen, and at a ſpring tide.

The cuſtom-houſe waiters have 18 d. and the boat-men 15 d. for every paſſenger, who muſt alſo pay 2½ per cent. for what gold and ſilver they have about them; and the next day they muſt pay the duties abovementioned for their cargoes. During the ſeaſon of the ſhipping, eſpecially from January to April, Surat is ſo full of ſtrangers, that lodging is ſcarce; but from May to September there are ſuch dreadful ſtorms of wind, thunder, and rain, that, before they come the traders quit this coaſt. In the neighbouring fields they have groves of trees, from whence they draw a liquor, like toddy, much drank by the ſeamen and the Moors, when ſweetened with black ſugar. Of this ſugar, infuſed in water, and mixed with ſplit raiſins, they alſo make vinegar. They prepare other liquors by diſtilling rice, tarry, ſugar, and dates. That called the ſenſitive plant is common here; and they have plantations of tobacco and ſugar canes.

DAMAAN is a Portugueze factory, the ſecond they have in the Indies, and dependent, as their other Indian factories are, upon Goa. The chief trade of the place is in corn and rice; and ſeveral villages and iſlands belong to it, which pay tribute to the Portugueze. Captain Hamilton ſays, that, though it was formerly a place of good trade, it is now a poor one. Thevenot ſays, they make an excellent ſort of bread here of rice, as well as other corn; and that their drink, which is only the water of a ſtank, is very good: they have beef and pork; but Gamelli ſays they are ill-taſted; that their fiſh, which are but indifferent at the beſt, are very ſcarce; and that they have no oil, even for ſauce, but that of cocoa.

BACAIM, BASSAIM, or BASSEIN, 18 leagues along the ſhore, to the ſouth of Damaan, is another Portugueze factory, which, according to Dellon, is four times bigger than Damaan, and has even more people of faſhion than Goa. The coaſt produces oil and cocoa-nuts; and the adjacent country, for 15 miles, abounds with pleaſant fruit-gardens, and plantations of corn and ſugar-canes, which are cultivated and watered by the Moors, Gentiles, and Chriſtians, who dwell in the neighbouring villages. Captain Hamilton ſays it is a place of ſmall trade, becauſe moſt of it's riches lie dead, and buried in their churches, or in the hands of country gentlemen of pleaſure. The town is about half a league from the iſland Salſette, which inlet ſerves it as a harbour, on the eaſt ſide, for ſmall veſſels, but has not water enough for great ſhips. Between this and Damaan there are ſeveral rivers and villages, under the ſuperintendency of Surat; as Dumbaſs, a place of little conſequence, either in trade or manufacture; Nunſaree, where is a good manufacture of cotton cloth, both coarſe and fine; Gundavea, where they cut and export great quantities of teak-timber, of excellent uſe for building of houſes or ſhips; Seragoung, a river about four miles from Damaan, is noted only for being the boundary of the Mogul's dominions on the ſea ſide.

The moſt noted inland towns on the ſea-coaſt are,

1. AMAD-ABAT, AMED-ABAT, or ARMAD-ABAT; it is alſo called by ſome AMANDABAT, or AMADOVER. It ſtands 18 leagues north of Cambaya, and 168 miles north of Surat. It is a large ſtrong city, the capital of the province, and the ſeat of the Mogul's viceroy, who has the title of rajah, or prince, lives in very great ſplendor, and maintains 12,000 horſe, and 50 elephants, for the king's ſervice.

The Engliſh have a handſome lodge here, with convenient courts and warehouſes, full of the linnen goods of Lahor and Deli. Thevenot ſays, the Dutch merchants had alſo a factory, and dealt chiefly in painted callicoes. Pelſart, the Dutch factor, ſays, that when he was here, all ſorts of curious Indian cloths, ſattins, ſilks, and ſtuffs, formerly brought from China, cuſhions wrought with gold wire, ſpikenard, aſſa fœtida, and other drugs, white ſugar, and ſtuffs of Patana and Bengal, &c. were imported hither from Agra; and that they exported ſcarves for turbans, women's headdreſſes wrought with gold, velvet, ſattins, cocoa-nuts of Malabar, European cloth, lead, pewter, vermillion, quickſilver, and ſpices of all ſorts, which they bought of the Dutch at Surat. Mandelſoe ſays, there was ſcarce any nation in the world, or any commodity in Aſia, but might be ſeen in this city. They have a prodigious manufactory for ſilk and callicoes, as well as of gold and ſilver brocades; but they are both ſlight and dear, ſo that the inhabitants chiefly uſe China ſilks, which are finer and cheaper. He tells us, alſo, that, in the time that he was there, they dealt greatly in taffata's, carpets, ſugar in powder or candy, cummin, honey, lacque, opium, borax, ginger, mirabolans, tamarinds, and other preſerved fruits, ſalt-petre, ſal ammoniac, and indigo. They traffic likewiſe in diamonds, which are brought from Viſapour, with ambergreaſe and muſk from Pegu, Bengal, Moſambique, and Cape Verd. All goods exported or imported are cuſtom-free, except 15 d. which is paid for every waggon to the Mogul's receiver. Ogilby ſays, this is one of the four cities which the Mogul honours with his court; and Mandelſoe, that it has 25 large towns under it's juriſdiction, beſides 2,998 villages. The adjacent country, which is like a wilderneſs, abounds with all kind of fallow-deer, roe bucks, wild aſſes, boars, hares, panthers, tame buffaloes, tygers, and elephants. Their water is good; and, as they have no wine, they drink the liquor of the cacao-tree, in which they abound, and a kind of aqua vitæ, better than ours, which they make of rice, ſugar, and dates.

The beſt indigo is ſaid to be made in this place, in pits of 80 or 100 paces round, and made of lime, which grows as hard as marble. Tavernier ſays, they fill them half full of water, and then up to the brim with the herb which reſembles our hemp; others ſay it is like a yellow parſnip, and riſes ſix or ſeven feet high, with branches like a reed. The flower is like that of the thiſtle, and the ſeed like fœnugreek. They cut it three times a year, firſt when it is about three feet high, within half a foot of the ground. After they have ſtripped the leaves off of the ſtalk, they bruiſe and ſtir them in the water, till it is as thick as mud; and, after a few days ſet-

tling, draw off the water, fill baſkets with the ſlime, and make it up in pieces like children's tops, or in flat cakes, and afterwards dry them in the ſun. The merchants break the pieces, to obſerve the colour and ſmell, in both which the beſt reſembles our violets. Then it is ſifted, to ſeparate the duſt, during which the ſifters ſtop their noſtrils, keep a little cloth before their faces, with little holes for their eyes, and drink milk every half hour, to preſerve them from the piercing quality of the duſt; which, notwithſtanding all their precautions, makes them ſpit blue for a good while. Tavernier ſays, that he laid an egg by theſe ſifters in the morning, which, when he broke at night, was blue quite through. The natives are very apt to cheat the merchants in this commodity, by adulterating it with a blue ſand; ſo that, to prevent the impoſition, they burn ſome pieces of each parcel, when the indigo turns to aſhes, but the ſand remains. The indigo-fields are left fallow every fourth year. See INDIGO.

The meidan, or market-place, of Amadabat, is one of the largeſt and moſt agreeable of all the Indies, having on both ſides two rows of palm and tamarind-trees, intermixed with orange and lemon-trees, under which the merchants have their ſhops, expoſe their wares to ſale, and carry on their trade.

The Banians, moſt of whom are bankers, have very great buſineſs here in the way of exchange. There is not own of any note in the Grand Mogul's dominions, and even in all the Indies, but they can make remittances to, which is very convenient for the merchants, becauſe travelling is very dangerous throughout all Indoſtan, unleſs it be in caravans; and the ſea alſo is infeſted by the pirates of Malabar, who cruize in the Indian Sea, as the corſairs of Barbary do in the Mediterranean, and part of the ocean.

The Engliſh and Dutch, when they have a mind to go to Amadabat, are uſed to ſet out with the caravans that go thither from Surat, and afterwards with thoſe of Amadabat to Agra, when they have any buſineſs in that capital of the whole empire.

Amadabat is the place where the Engliſh and Dutch get all their linnens printed, and their ſalt-petre refined; and from the ſame city come all the blue linnens which are ſent into Perſia, Arabia, the kingdom of the Abyſſines, to the Red Sea, the coaſt of Melinda, to Moſambique, Madagaſcar, Java, Sumatra, Macaſſar, and to the Moluccoes.

The curent coins of Surat are rupees and pic's; yet, in accounts, they reckon rupees, ana's, and pic's; viz. 16 pic's to one ana, and four ana's to one rupee; Venetians and gubbers have no ſettled rate; we ſold the former, ſays Lockyer, for four rupees, one ana, one pic; and the latter for 4013 rupees. Theſe are both of the ſame weight, which is here one per cent. larger than in Gombroon.

They uſe different weights in buying and ſelling, which are appropriated to particular ſorts of goods; as bezoar by the tola, which is neareſt eight penny-weights Troy, and is divided into 32 vols; diamond-bolt by the ruttee of 17 ½ grains; Agra muſk by the ſeer; and bulky commodities by the maund, and candy boroch. I cannot tell, continues the ſame gentleman, how the ſmall weights riſe into the ſeer, but they commonly reckon 40 ſeer to a maund, and 20 maund to a candy. Pepper, aſſa fœtida, dry ginger, benjamin, turmeric, tyncell, and ſalt-petre, have 42 ſeer to the maund. Aloes, brimſtone, copperas, long pepper, dammer, ſtick-lacque, and wormſeed, have 44 ſeer to the maund: coho-ſeeds and myrrh, 42 ½, and opium, 40 ¾ ſeer to the maund: ſo that, in all bargains where the weight may be diſputed, it is neceſſary to agree how many ſeer ſhall go to the maund. I would not be underſtood to mention the above as always delivered at thoſe rates; but rather to ſhew how they have been, and may again be expected: remembering that, for the moſt part, goods wherein there is no waſte, as copper, quickſilver, vermillion, ivory, Lahor indigo, tutanaque, &c. are ſold 40 ſeer to a maund, which holds out 37 ⅓ pounds Engliſh, or three maund to 100.

Muſk Agra in cod was worth 25 rupees per ſeer, which, at 40 ſeer to 37 ⅓ pounds, is 14 ounces, 14 drams, $\frac{56}{60}$. Long bezoar, 2 ½ to 3 rupees per tola, is, at the higheſt, 7 ½ rupees per ounce Troy. Quickſilver at 60 rupees per maund is reckoned very cheap: Goa arrack 25 to 30 rupees per 100: Mexico 221 rupees per 100 dollars: pillar, 212 ½ rupees per 100 dollars: Perſian abaſſees, 56 rupees per 100 pieces *. See the articles EAST-INDIA TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

* This account was given by Mr. Lockyer, 1711, dedicated to the right honourable John earl Paulet.

CAMBIO, an Italian word, which ſignifies exchange. It is pretty commonly uſed in Provence, and ſome other nations, and particularly the Dutch have alſo adopted it. See the article EXCHANGE.

CAMBIST, a name given in France to thoſe who trade in notes and bills of exchange, and who conſtantly attend the public meeting-places of the merchants, in order to know the courſe of exchange upon the ſeveral foreign places, in order to draw or remit at a proper ſeaſon, and negotiate either money or bills. The word cambiſt, though a term of antiquity, is even now a technical word, of ſome uſe among the merchants, traders, and bankers. Some derive it from the Latin word cambium (or rather cambio) which ſignifies I exchange, or barter. Some authors pretend that cambium in Latin ſignifies the public place where the trade of exchanging is carried on; but I cannot find that it imports ſuch ſignification. Others derive cambiſt from the Italian word cambio, which ſome take for a verb, ſignifying I exchange, but of which Veneroni makes only a ſubſtantive, that ſignifies the exchange. See the article CAMBIO.

CAMBRESIS, a province in France, bounded on the north and eaſt by Hainault; on the weſt by Artois; and on the ſouth by Picardy. It is a ſmall province, about 16 miles in it's greateſt breadth from north to ſouth, and 25 leagues from eaſt to weſt.

Though the ſoil in this province be ſomewhat dry, yet it is very good and fruitful, and produces moſt ſorts of grain, and flax, the thread of which is ſo fine, that it has occaſioned the ſetting up here a manufacture of curious lawns, called cambricks, [ſee CAMBRICKS] from the capital city of this province. There are alſo excellent paſtures here, eſpecially for horſes and ſheep, the wool of which is extremely fine, and very much eſteemed. They had vines formerly, but the wine they produced was ſo indifferent, that they have been obliged to deſtroy the vineyards.

The inhabitants, in general, have great vivacity, and a genius well turned for the ſciences; they are, alſo, laborious, careful, and induſtrious.

CAMBRICK, is a ſpecies of linnen made of flax, very fine and white. This ſort of linnen derived it's name originally from the province of Cambreſis, in the French Netherlands, and from the city of Cambray, which is the capital thereof, where theſe linnens were firſt manufactured. Cambricks made in France, at preſent, are not confined to Cambray only; they are alſo made at Valenciennes, Arras, Bapaume, Veroins, St. Quintin, Noyon, and divers other places in the provinces of Hainault, Artois, and Picardy.

The manufacture of French cambricks hath long ſince proved of extraordinary, indeed of unſpeakable benefit and advantage to that kingdom. For many years, it appeared, that England did not, in this article, contribute leſs than two hundred thouſand pounds per annum to the intereſt of France; which, calculated from the peace of Utrecht to the taking place of the late act of parliament, did not, in that period of time, amount to leſs than between ſix and ſeven millions of money; which round ſum, added to our further national expence for other foreign cambricks and lawns, proved motive ſufficient to induce the parliament of Great Britain, to enact the following ſalutary laws, to prevent this great exhauſtion of our wealth.

LAWS of ENGLAND with reſpect to Cambricks.

By 18 Geo. II. it is enacted, That, after the 24th of June, 1748, it ſhall not be lawful for any perſon to wear in Great-Britain, in any garment whatſoever, any cambrick or French lawn, under the penalty of 5 l. to the informer for every offence, being convicted by oath of one or more credible witneſſes, before any one or more juſtice or juſtices of the peace, who are required, upon any complaint or information upon oath of ſuch offence, within ſix days after commitment, to ſummon the party accuſed, and, upon his or her appearance or contempt, to examine the fact: and upon due proof thereof, either by confeſſion, or by oath of one or more credible witneſs or witneſſes (which oath the juſtices are required to adminiſter) to determine the ſame, and, on conviction, to cauſe the penalty, by warrant under his or their hand and ſeal, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, &c. rendering the overplus (charges deducted); the party may appeal to the juſtices at next quarter-ſeſſions, giving ſix days notice thereof to the proſecutor, which juſtices at the ſaid ſeſſions are finally to determine the ſame.

Any perſon after the ſaid 24th of June, 1748, who ſhall vend, utter, ſell, and expoſe, any cambricks or French lawns, made or not made up (except for tranſportation only) and ſhall be thereof convicted, ſhall forfeit 5 l. to be recovered as aforeſaid.

If any perſon, after the ſaid 24th of June, 1748, be proſecuted for wearing any cambricks, &c. and ſuch perſon ſhall diſcover, on oath before a juſtice of the peace, the perſon who ſold ſuch cambricks, &c. to ſuch perſons ſo wearing the ſame, ſuch perſon, ſo diſcovering, is thereby freed from all forfeitures for wearing ſuch cambricks, &c. ſhall be liable to the ſaid penalties, and ſhall be recovered in manner aforeſaid.

That, after the 10th of May, 1745, no cambricks, or French lawns, ſhall be imported into any part of Great-Britain, until proof upon oath (or affirmation, if a Quaker) by the importer, at the time of entering the ſame, before a proper officer of the cuſtoms (which oath the officer is impowered to adminiſter) either that the ſame are the ſole property of the importer, or other his majeſty's ſubjects, and that no foreigner hath any property or concern therein; and, in that caſe, proof ſhall be given by the importer to the ſatisfaction of the ſaid officers, that the ſame were really ſhipped for importation, before the 10th of May, 1745.

After

After Auguſt 1, 1745, no foreign cambrick to be imported without proof aforeſaid, that they were ſhipped for direct importation before the ſaid day.

It ſhall be lawful to import into any part of Great-Britain, after the firſt of Auguſt, 1746, any cambricks or French lawns, or other linnen whatſoever, of the kind uſually entered under the denomination of cambricks, upon oath or affirmation by the importers, that they are intended for exportation only, and that the ſame are the property of his majeſty's ſubjects. And alſo upon the importer's giving ſecurity or bond to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners or chief officers at the place of importation, to the uſe of his majeſty, his heirs, &c. in double the value of the goods imported, and which bonds, oaths, &c. the proper officers are required to receive and adminiſter, for the payment of 5 l. for every piece of cambrick and French lawn, which ſhall not be exported out of this kingdom within three years after the entry. Pieces loſt by fire, &c. not liable to the penalty of 5 l. for not being exported.

By 21 Geo. II. for avoiding ſome doubts which might ariſe by 18 Geo. II. it is enacted, That, if any perſon or perſons, who after the 24th of June, 1748, and before the 25th of March 1749, ſhall be proſecuted for wearing any cambricks or French lawns, ſhall make an affidavit, or bring ſufficient proof, or by the oath of the huſband or wife, of the party accuſed, or by the oath of any credible perſon, before one or more juſtice, &c. of the peace, that the ſame was bought on or before the ſaid 24th of June 1748, ſuch wearer ſhall be diſcharged from any penalty inflicted by the ſaid act.

That after the ſaid 24th of June 1748, if any wearer of cambrick or French lawns, who ſhall be proſecuted by the ſaid recited act for wearing the ſame, and who ſhall have purchaſed the ſame after the 24th of June 1748, ſhall diſcover, to the ſatisfaction of the juſtice or juſtices, the ſeller of ſuch cambricks, &c. and likewiſe, that the ſame was ſold after the 24th of June 1748, ſo as ſuch ſeller ſhall be convicted, and become liable to the penalties inflicted by ſuch act, then ſuch wearer, ſo proſecuted, ſhall be diſcharged from any penalty by the ſaid act.

That, whenever any perſon informed againſt for wearing ſuch cambrick, &c. ſhall be excuſed from the penalty by diſcovering the ſeller, the penalty, inflicted on ſuch ſeller, ſhall go to the perſon who informed againſt the wearer.

Penalties, incurred by a feme covert, to be levied on the goods of the huſband.

If any milliner, ſempſtreſs, or other perſon, ſhall for hire, after the 24th of June 1748, make up any cambrick or French lawn, ſuch perſon ſhall be liable to the like penalties as the ſellers are liable to, by the ſaid 18 Geo. II. and the penalties to be applied in the like manner as the ſame are directed to be proſecuted, levied, and applied by this, or the ſaid recited act.

Quakers to make affirmation, and every corrupt affirming liable to the ſame penalties, as if the matter had been declared on oath.

Remarks.

Theſe acts of the legiſlature are ſufficiently declarative of the national injury we long ſuſtained, by the importation of French cambricks and lawns; and does it not ſtill well deſerve the public enquiry, whether the remedy provided hath been adequate to the diſeaſe? Under the article of Great-Britain, I have ſhewed how the balance of trade is ſtill againſt this nation, with thoſe countries from whence we take foreign linnens; and therefore, that the apparent intereſt of the kingdom calls aloud for further attention to this article. If it be conſidered, that the importation of foreign manufactures gives employment to the poor of other countries, and enriches thoſe in proportion as it impoveriſhes our own, and makes our poor ſtill poorer; does it not become the wiſdom of the nation to ſave theſe out-goings of our treaſures, eſpecially with nations that take conſiderably leſs of our commodities than we do of theirs?

It muſt be matter of indifferency to the dealers in foreign linnens of every claſs, in what kind of linnens they traffic, provided they gain as much by the one, as they do by the other. If the traders in foreign linnens could be put into a way to have equal advantages by trading in Scotch and Iriſh linnens, as they do, at preſent, by foreign, what motive could induce them to carry on a commerce injurious to the nation, and not more beneficial to themſelves? Does ſubſtituting the wear of muſlins inſtead of foreign cambricks, and lawns, effectually anſwer the national end of the act of parliament? If we pay as much to the Eaſt-Indians for this manufacture, as we did to France and Germany for their cambricks and lawns, how is the nation bettered? How is the money ſaved that we ſent out of the kingdom for foreign manufactures, which, I conceive, to be the great end of the act of parliament? If this change of manufacture only does not anſwer the national end propoſed; if alſo French cambricks and lawns are palmed upon the nation, under any other evaſive denomination; ought not this matter to be ſtill further enquired into, 'till the grievance may be effectually redreſſed, according to the true intent and meaning of the act? Since we have made ſuch extraordinary advancement in the quality of Scotch and Iriſh cambricks, does not the effectual remedy to this public evil lie in our own hands; and that only by the ſimple expedient of making it generally faſhionable to wear thoſe linnens, which we are able to make among ourſelves? When laws fail of their deſired effects in caſes of this nature, there is an eaſy way to prevent our legiſlators from being diſappointed in their good intention, namely, To make it faſhionable to pay due regard to the ſpirit of their own laws: and this is abſolutely in their power, however otherwiſe it may ſometimes be, to prevent due obedience being paid to their wiſeſt laws. If our legiſlators themſelves would, by their great example, encourage the wear of ſuch cambricks as we can make ourſelves, would not this prove more effectual to ſuppreſs the importation of foreign linnens, than all the written laws, and rigorous penalties, that can be deviſed? Many wiſe men have thought, that it concerns even the wiſdom of the legiſlature to interpoſe in the making of faſhions in general, and not leave an affair, of ſo great influence, to caprice and humour. The excellency of our Scotch, Iriſh, and Engliſh linnens of all kinds, depending upon the quality of the Flax, the delicacy in Spinning, Bleaching, and Designing, ſee theſe ſeveral articles, together with that of Linnens.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE, a county in England, bounded on the weſt by Huntingdonſhire and Bedfordſhire; on the ſouth by Hertfordſhire and Eſſex; on the north by Lincolnſhire; and on the eaſt by Norfolk and Suffolk.

It's air and ſoil are very different, according to it's different parts. About Cambridge and all the ſouth and eaſt parts, the air is judged to be very ſalubrious; in the Iſle of Ely it is reckoned damp and foggy. The ſoil in general is extremely fruitful.

The chief commodities of this country are, excellent corn, eſpecially barley, of which they make conſiderable quantities of malt. They abound in fine cattle, butter, ſaffron, coleſeed, hemp, fiſh, and wild fowl.

The principal manufactures of this county are paper and baſkets.

It's greateſt rivers are, 1. The Ouſe, which riſes in Northamptonſhire, and, after having watered the counties of Bucks and Bedford, runs through this county from weſt to eaſt, dividing it into two parts, and is navigable from Cambridge to Lynn in Norfolk, where it falls into the Ocean. 2. The river Cam, which riſes in Hertfordſhire, and falls into the Ouſe at Streatham-Meer, near Thetford. 3. The Welland, which comes out of Northamptonſhire, and runs into the German Ocean through the Waſh. The others that deſerve mention are, the Glene, the Witham, and the Grante. That called Moreton's-Leam, now Peterborough River imbanked, is navigable from Wiſbich to that city.

The principal place of general trade here is Sturbridge, where there is a fair, the moſt famous in the whole kingdom, both for people and wares. Some years ago it was reckoned the largeſt in Europe; and, though it is ſomewhat leſſened of late, it is ſtill very conſiderable. This fair is kept in a large corn-field, near Caſterton and Cambridge, which extends about half a mile ſquare to the river Cam. It is an eſtabliſhed cuſtom, that, if the field be not cleared of corn by ſuch a day in Auguſt, the fair-keepers have the liberty to trample it under foot, to build their booths; and, on the other hand, if they have not cleared the field by ſuch a day in September, the plowmen may re-enter with plough and cart.

There is one principal row in the fair called Cheapſide, after the name of that in our great city of London, where are almoſt all the trades of London, with coffee-houſes, taverns, eating-houſes, &c. which are all kept in tents and booths. The number of theſe, ranged as if they were ſo many ſtreets, ſurpaſs many towns as much in extent, as they do ſome whole provinces in traffic, eſpecially in the articles of wool and hops, there having been ſold here of the former 50 or 60,000 l. at one fair; and as to the latter, there is ſo large a quantity, that they ingroſs a great part of the whole field to themſelves; and the price they are ſold at here is a pretty near ſtandard to govern the prices elſewhere in England.

Beſides theſe, there is an area of 80 or 100 yards ſquare, called the Duddery, peculiar to wholeſale dealers in woollen goods, where they have room to bring in waggons, to load and unload, and to take down and open their packs before their booths, which are ſo large that the inſides may well enough be compared to ſo many Blackwell-Halls, being warehouſes well ſtored with goods. It has been ſaid, and I believe with great truth, that there has been a hundred thouſand pounds worth of woollen manufactures in leſs than a week's time. At this jubilee of commerce, if I may be allowed the expreſſion, here meet with chearfulneſs the traders of every claſs, whoſe buſineſs gives bread and employment to thouſands of our fellow-creatures. Here we find the clothiers from Lancaſhire and Yorkſhire, with cloths, kerſeys, cottons, penniſtons, and Manchester goods of all ſorts; alſo every kind of upholſter's wares, and Norwich ſtuffs in abundance, beſides the duroys, druggets, and the like manufactures of Devonſhire, from Exeter, Taunton, Briſtol, and other parts in the weſt.

The wool is chiefly bought up by the manufacturers of Norfolk,

folk, Suffolk, and Eſſex, and the hops by the dealers of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, Northampton, Lincoln, Leiceſter, Rutland, and even Stafford, Warwick, and Worceſter. It is no little advantage to this fair that the river Grant, or Cam, which runs cloſe by the north-weſt ſide of the fair, in it's courſe to Cambridge and Ely, is navigable; by which means all heavy goods are brought by water-carriage from London, &c. firſt to the port of Lynn in Norfolk, from thence in barges to the Ouſe, from the Ouſe into the Cam, and ſo to the very edge of the fair.

In like manner the heavy goods are ſent from hence by water to Lynn, and there ſhipped for the Humber and Tine, for the north of England, and even Scotland. Beſides the goods bought and ſold at this fair, very large commiſſions in every branch of commerce are then negociated for other parts of the kingdom.

So great is the concourſe of people at this rendezvous of commerce, that it is common to ſee even 50 London hackney coaches there, which ply night and morning to carry people to and from Cambridge; beſides the wherries, which are actually brought from London in waggons, to ply upon the river Cam, and to carry people up and down from the town and fair.

At this time a court of juſtice is held here every day by the magiſtrates of Cambridge, who proceed in a ſummary way, as is the practice of pye-powder courts; ſo that the fair is like to a well-governed city, without the diſorder and confuſion with which ſo great a concourſe of people is generally attended.

When the wholeſale buſineſs of the great hurry of the fair is over, the country gentry flock to it from all parts adjacent, and lay out a great deal of money in toys, drolls, puppet-ſhews, rope-dancing, and the like diverſions, which ſpread a univerſal gaiety among all countenances, the natural conſequences of commerce and innocent amuſement.

Remarks.

Our tradeſmen of London being under the diſagreeable neceſſity of ſending riders, at a great expence, to promote their buſineſs, into the country, ſhews the uſe and neceſſity of fairs in the way of trade. But, as this is a ſubject of more concern than the generality have an idea of, I ſhall defer what I have to ſay thereon 'till I come to the article Fairs, where I ſhall ſhew what is doing abroad, and what ought to be done at home, in that ſhape.

CAMBODIA, in the Eaſt-Indies, is a kingdom that lies on the eaſt ſide of the kingdom and gulph of Siam, having the Indian Ocean on the South; Cochinchina on the eaſt; and Laos kingdom, and the Kamois mountains, on the north. Moll makes it 400 miles, others only 310 from north to ſouth, where longeſt, and about 210, where broadeſt, but it grows very narrow towards the north. The weſt part is mountainous and deſert, but the midland lies low, and has the river Menemcon, or Mecon, running through the whole from north to ſouth, which annually begins to ſwell on the 1ſt of June, riſes 10 or 12 feet, and, in July and Auguſt, overflows the neighbouring lands.

The country abounds with rice, corn, oranges, citrons, mangoes, cocoa, and other Indian fruits, together with peaſe, butter, and oil. Here is alſo plenty of japan-wood, ſendal-wood, aquila-wood, ſticklack, lacque for japaning, and many ſorts of phyſical drugs. The country produces fine gold alſo, cambogia of a gold colour, in rolls; raw ſilk, at about 120 dollars per pecul; and elephants teeth, of which the largeſt are from 50 to 55 dollars. Captain Hamilton ſays, fleſh and fiſh are the only things that may be bought without a permit from the king, and they are ſo plentiful and cheap, that the captain ſays, he bought a bullock, which was between 4 and 500 weight, for a Spaniſh dollar, and that 140 pounds weight of rice may be purchaſed for eight-pence: but poultry are ſcarce.

The country abounds in amethyſts, garnets, ſaphires, cornelians, chryſolites, cats-eyes, properly called acates, and there are, alſo, thoſe called milk and blood-ſtones, allum and ſugar.

They will not ſuffer the Dutch to ſettle factories in this country, but are very deſirous of trading with the Engliſh. Mr. Hamilton ſays, that, when he came for this purpoſe to Ponteamaſs, he ſent his ſupercargoe, with preſents to the king, who received him in great ſtate, ſitting on a throne like a pulpit, with his face veiled below his eyes, and gave him free leave to trade. And the king, having taken ſome time to obtain the conſent of his guardian, the king of Cochinchina, invited the Engliſh to ſettle in his country, and to erect factories, or forts, in any part of his dominions, to protect their trade.

The Engliſh merchants had thoughts of ſettling a factory at Cambodia, the captital city, 'till 1705, when the people roſe upon them, and deſtroyed that which they had at the iſland of Paulo Andore, and burned their houſe, very few of the merchants eſcaping with their lives; ſo that our people have not been very forward to ſettle here ſince, eſpecially as they have been permitted to eſtabliſh factories in China, which the Dutch are not. To make themſelves amends for this, the Dutch ſettled their trade at this place, which, by the communication of rivers, and coaſting veſſels, ſtands very convenient to furniſh them with the principal commodities of China, which they bring away to Europe, without the trouble of going farther north to fetch them; for the river of Camboya has a northern branch, that, according to the Atlas Maritimus, is navigable a great way towards Cochinchina and the bay of Tonquin, with which, by that means, they have a correſpondence; but it is not ſo much to their advantage as a direct trade to China would be, the goods being, as it were, all bought at ſecond-hand, beſides being attended with the extra-charge of land-carriage.

Cupangsoap, ſays capt. Hamilton, is the firſt ſea-port we come to in this country, which affords elephants teeth, ſticklack, and the gum gambouge; but there is no free trade here without a licence from the court of Cambodia.

Ponteamas, is the next place, which had a very good trade for many years, having the conveniency of a pretty deep, but narrow river, which, in the rainy ſeaſons of the ſouth-weſt monſoons, has communication with Banſac, or Cambodia River: this conveniency brought the foreign commerce from Cambodia to this place, where it flouriſhed pretty well 'till 1717, when it was plundered and burnt by the Siam fleet. Captain Hamilton ſays, that few cared to trade to Cambodia, becauſe the navigation was long and troubleſome, which the reader will obſerve to be quite contrary to the foregoing aſſertion by the Atlas Maritimus, though the author ſays, in another place, that ſhips muſt warp up againſt the current at leaſt 180 miles: but this contradiction ſeems to be owing to his not clearly diſtinguiſhing between the eaſtern branch and the weſtern, of which the former is beſt.

There are ſeveral iſlands that lie off the coaſt of Cambodia, but none inhabited, becauſe it is infeſted by pirates, though there is one about three leagues weſt, called Guadrol, that is three leagues long, and one broad, which has good qualifications for a ſettlement, ſuch as fine ſandy bays, that are good harbours, plenty of wood and water, and a ſoil that is black and fat.

There are ſeveral ſmall uninhabited iſlands, alſo, between Ponteamas and the weſt entrance of the Cambodia river. The largeſt of thoſe is Pullo-Penjang, which conſiſts of eight iſlands in a cluſter, in 30 fathom water, that form a good harbour: Pullo-Ubi, which is the eaſtermoſt, affords good maſts for ſhipping, and is the center of navigation for theſe ſeas, eſpecially from Siam, Bantam, and Batavia, to the river Cambodia.

Pullo-Condore, is the largeſt and higheſt of four or five iſlands, about 40 leagues eaſt of Pullo-Ubi, 20 ſouth and by eaſt from the weſtermoſt mouth of the river Cambodia. Though Capt. Hamilton ſays it is a bad place for a colony, producing nothing but wood, water, and fiſh, and having but two harbours, neither of them good; yet the Engliſh ſettled here in 1702, when the factory of Chuſan, upon the coaſt of China, was broke up; but, having bargained with ſome Maccaſſers, natives of the iſland of Cabebes, to ſerve for ſoldiers, and help to erect a fort, and not diſcharging them at three years end, according to their contract, they roſe in the night, and murdered every Engliſhman they found in his bed.

They have a little rice, ſome potatoes, and very good banana's, but little elſe grows on the iſland, except ſome fine trees on the mountains, which afford timber for maſts, &c. particularly one of a very large kind, whoſe leaves and bark much reſemble a cheſnut, and the wood is extremely hard. There runs from it a ſort of roſin, which they procure by making a cavity in the trunk, three or four feet above ground, wherein, at a certain ſeaſon of the year, they kindle a fire, which makes the roſin liquify into the bottom, as into a receiver. With this roſin they make flambeaux, which they burn in the ſtead of candles. Dampier calls it pitch, and others oil, becauſe the matter is at firſt liquid, and is of the colour of the oil of nuts, though afterwards it turns whitiſh, has the conſiſtency of butter, and a very agreeable ſmell *.

* Is it not certain, that many vegetable productions will afford a more healthful, pleaſant, and agreeable matter for making of candles than tallow? As nothing is more diſagreeable to many, and therefore, perhaps, no way wholeſome to any, than the ſnuff of a candle when juſt extinguiſhed; ſo, while burning, there conſtantly evaporates a fume that may not be ſalubrious. The myrtle-tree affords fine candles, and of an exhilarating ſcent.

Martiniere ſays, the Engliſh bought this iſland in the laſt century, becauſe it has a good harbour, and lay convenient in the way to China; but, on their being maſſacred, as above, when their fort was demoliſhed, the ruins of which are ſtill to be ſeen, it reverted to the king of Cambodia.

The inhabitants employ themſelves for the moſt part in fiſhing, making the oil of tortoiſes, flambeaux, planks for the ſides of their veſſels, and in making brine for ſalting ſmall fiſh like anchovies, which abound in this ſea.

CAMLET, or, as ſome ſpell it, CAMBLET, a plain ſtuff, compoſed of a warp and woof, and which is manufactured on a loom with two treddles, as linnens and ſtamines are.

The

The camlets are either longer or ſhorter, broader or narrower, according to their ſeveral kinds and qualities, and the places where they are manufactured. There are camlets of all ſorts: ſome in goat's hair, both in the warp and woof; others, in which the warp is of hair, and the woof half hair and half ſilk; others again, wherein both the warp and woof are of wool: and, laſtly, ſome of which the warp is of wool, and the woof of thread.

Some are dyed in thread; that is to ſay, that the materials both of the warp and of the woof were dyed before they were wove, or wrought on the loom: others are dyed in the piece; others are marbled, or mixed; ſome are ſtriped, ſome waved, or watered, and ſome figured.

Camlets are proper for ſeveral uſes, according to their different kinds and qualities. Some ſerve to make garments, both for men and women; ſome for bed curtains, and other houſhold furniture, altar curtains, and other church ornaments, in France.

The places, under the King of France's dominion, where they make the greateſt quantities of camlets, are, Liſle in Flanders, Arras in Artois, Amiens in Picardy, La Neuville near Lyons, and ſome places in Auvergne. In time of peace the French do alſo import ſome from foreign countries, particularly from Bruſſels, Holland, and England, the latter of which are very much eſteemed.

Laſtly, there are ſilk camlets of ſeveral colours, eſpecially crimſon, carnation, or fleſh-colour, and purple, which are manufactured at Venice, Florence, Milan, Naples, and Lucca; but theſe are properly tabbies and taffeties, diſguiſed under the name of camlets.

The watered camlets of Verona, which are alſo called Verona carpets, may more properly be called a kind of tabbies.

Liſle furniſhes a great quantity of camlets, ſome all of hair, others all of wool, both warp and woof; their breadth moſt commonly is half an ell, or half an ell wanting $\frac{1}{16}$, each piece meaſuring 21 or 22 ells in length, Paris meaſure. Theſe camlets are wove white, and afterwards dyed of ſeveral colours, and then paſſed under the hot-preſs, to make them ſmooth, and give them that luſtre which is obſervable in them.

They alſo manufacture at Liſle, and in ſome other places of French Flanders, a prodigious quantity of ſmall camlets, or camelotines, which are very narrow and very light: theſe are chiefly deſigned for Spain. The Dutch give ſeveral names, and even pretty odd ones, to thoſe camlets; the chief of which names are, the amparillas, or nonpareille, polunitte, polomit, or polomitte, &c.

The camlets of Arras are commonly very coarſe, having a very round grain, more like that of barracans than that of common camlets. Moſt of them are manufactured white, afterwards dyed, and than calendered. Some are half an ell, and others three quarters and a half wide. The pieces are commonly 20 ells long, Paris meaſure.

They make a great many camlets at Amiens, whoſe names and qualities are different.

The firſt, which are reckoned the beſt, are called camlets after the manner of Bruſſels, becauſe they, in a manner, imitate the true Bruſſels camlets in the weaving, length, breadth, and materials they are made with.

The ſecond are a ſort of ſmall narrow barracans all of wool, which they ſometimes call camlets with twiſted thread, or camlets with a coarſe grain.

The third are called camlets quinettes, whoſe thread of the woof is but one ſingle thread, very much twiſted. It is all of wool: the piece is half an ell wide, and 21 ells long, Paris meaſure. They are commonly wove white, than dyed ſeveral colours, and afterwards preſſed, or calendered, hot.

The fourth go under the name of ſmall ſtriped camlets, becauſe they are ſtriped with ſeveral colours length-ways, from the head to the end of the piece. They are half an ell wide, and the pieces meaſure from 21 to 22 ells, Paris meaſure. They are likewiſe paſſed under the hot-preſs, as the quinettes camlets.

They make likewiſe at Amiens ſome ſmall camlets of thread and wool, half an ell wide: but there are few of theſe.

The camlets of Amiens, whoſe warp is of hair and wool, and the woof all of hair, are $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell wide, and in length from $32\frac{3}{4}$ to $38\frac{3}{4}$.

There are ſome, alſo, whereof the warp is of ſilk and wool twiſted together, and the woof of wool: they are alſo $\frac{3}{4}$ wide.

By a decree of the king's counſel of ſtate, made the 17th of March, 1717, for regulating the manufactures of Amiens, whoſe weavers have no particular ſtatutes, it is ordered:

I. That the warp of camlets all of wool, after the manner of Bruſſels, ſhall conſiſt of 840 threads: that they ſhall be half an ell wide between the liſts, and 36 ells long.

II. That the camlets inriched with two threads of ſilk, after the manner of Holland, ſhall have about 1100 threads in the warp, be half an ell broad, and from 36 to 40 ells long.

III. That the warp of the ſuperfine camlets, Bruſſels faſhion, ſhall be of goat's hair ſpun, or of camel's hair, with two threads of ſilk, and have between 1300 and 1500 threads; the woof to be double of goat's or camels hair, of the ſame length and breadth as the former.

IV. The ſtriped camlets, and the plain ones of a changeable colour, muſt have 396 threads in the warp, be half an ell wide between the two liſts, and $21\frac{1}{2}$ long, coming from the loom, that they may afterwards be full 21 ells long, according to the regulations of the year 1669.

They uſed formerly to make at Amiens a ſort of extraordinary camlets, which they called bangmers. It was wrought with ſquares, or with wave, and wove on a loom with ſeven or eight treddles. The warp and woof were of wool, and the figures of white Epinay thread. There was a pretty great conſumption of theſe camlets in France; and they uſed, alſo, to ſend conſiderable quantities of them into foreign countries, eſpecially into Portugal. But, at preſent, they make hardly any, they being abſolutely gone out of faſhion.

The camlets of la Neuville are much like thoſe of Bruſſels, and almoſt equally eſteemed; whence they are commonly called camlets after the manner of Bruſſels. Their moſt uſual breadth is half an ell and half a quarter, and the pieces are commonly from 35 to 40 ells long, Paris meaſure. France is obliged to the Sieurs Claude and Joſeph Verdun, two brothers, for the eſtabliſhment of this manufacture.

The camlets of Auvergne do not much differ from the ſtriped camlets and quinettes camlets of Amiens, but are coarſe, and of an inferior quality.

The 18th article of the general regulations for the manufactures, made in Auguſt, 1669, and the decrees of the council of the 19th of February, 1671, and the 11th of March, 1673, have ſettled the length and breadth of the ſeveral ſorts of camlets that are made in France.

The camlets of Bruſſels are either variegated or plain, without any ſtripes and figures. They are commonly half an ell and half a quarter wide, or $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell, and from 35 to 60 ells long, Paris meaſure. There are ſome all of hair, both in the warp and woof; ſome whereof the woof is of hair, and the warp half of hair, of the ſame colour with the woof, and half of ſilk, of another colour; which renders the camlet variegated, that is to ſay, that every thread of the warp is compoſed of two threads, the one of hair, and the other of ſilk, well twiſted together. The Bruſſels camlets are commonly calendered, and excel both in goodneſs and beauty above thoſe made in France, and even in Holland and in England, though the latter come pretty near them, and are very much eſteemed.

Figured camlets are thoſe of a ſingle colour, on which have been ſtamped, or imprinted, various figures, flowers, foliages, &c. This is performed with hot irons which are a kind of moulds, that are paſſed under a preſs at the ſame time with the ſtuff. The figured camlets come only from Amiens and Flanders. The trade of them was formerly pretty conſiderable; at preſent there are but few of them ſold, which ſerve commonly for church ornaments, or for making ſome houſhold furniture.

Waved camlets are thoſe on which a kind of waves have been impreſſed, as on tabbies, by making them paſs ſeveral times under the calender.

Water camlets are ſuch, which, being taken from the loom, undergo a certain preparation with water, after which they are put into the hot-preſs, that renders them ſmooth and gloſſy.

They who make camlets, and the merchants who deal in them, ought to be very careful that they do not acquire any falſe or bad plaits, becauſe it is very difficult to get them out again; which gave occaſion to this French proverb, That man reſembles a camlet, that is to ſay, he has taken his plait; intimating, that he has got an ill habit, of which it is impoſſible to cure him. All ſorts of camlets, even thoſe of Holland, muſt enter France only by the ports of Calais and St. Vallery, according to the decrees of the 8th of December, 1687, and the 3d of July, 1692.

CAMP. The Siameſe, and ſome other nations in the Eaſt-Indies, give the name of camps to the quarters which they aſſign to the foreigners who come to trade with them. In theſe camps every nation forms, as it were, a particular town, where they carry on all their trade. They not only keep their warehouſes and ſhops there, but alſo live in theſe camps, with their families, their factors, and agents. The Europeans are free from that ſubjection at Siam, and almoſt every-where elſe, and are at liberty to dwell in the cities, or in the ſuburbs, as they judge it moſt convenient for their trade.

CAMPHIRE, or, as ſome write it, CAMPHOR, a body of a particular nature, peculiar to itſelf, which is neither a reſin, nor a volatile ſalt, nor an oil, nor a juice, nor a bitumen, nor a gum, but a mixed ſubſtance, dry, white, tranſparent, and brittle, of a ſtrong and penetrating ſmell. It is eaſily evaporated in the air if it be a little hot. It is very inflammable, and cannot be eaſily extinguiſhed, burning even in water and in ſnow: wherefore, camphire appears to be chiefly compoſed of an inflammable principle rarified, mixed with ſome aqueous particles, and a very ſubtile and attenuated earth.

Camphire may probably be extracted from all plants (even from thoſe of Europe) which abound with an eſſential oil; yet it would differ with regard to the ſmell, always retaining that from which it is extracted. The reader may ſee, in the

Philoſophical Tranſactions, how Mr. Neuman, a celebrated chymiſt of Berlin, extracted camphire from thyme.

Camphire is divided into natural and fictitious, or artificial. Natural camphire comes two ways: 1. It is to be found in the iſlands of Borneo and Sumatra, in certain ſeaſons of the year, between the wood and the bark of a tree, which looks pretty much like ſalt; it is the moſt excellent and moſt precious of all, being, as it were, diſtilled by the heat of the ſun. It differs from the other ſorts, in not evaporating in the air. It is aſſerted, that this tree produces hardly one ounce of camphire, for which reaſon it is worth above a hundred times more than the fictitious camphire of Japan, and there is but very little of it, if any, exported out of the country. The ſecond ſort of natural camphire runs from inciſions made in the trunk and chief branches of a very thick tree which grows in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt-Indies, but chiefly in the iſland of Borneo.

The fictitious camphire is that of Japan. The tree from which they obtain it is very large and thick; they call it cuſnoſky in that country. It produces fine leaves, which, when full grown, become, by degrees, of a beautiful yellow. They ſmell very much of camphire, eſpecially the fruit, which hangs either ſingly, or in couples, by a long ſtalk. It is of a bright green, round, ſhort, very near of the figure of a common acorn, and is ſurrounded with a ſhell of a deep green. There is abundance of theſe trees in the weſtern parts of Japan, namely, in the province of Satzuma, and in the iſles of Goths: This tree grows ſometimes to ſuch a bigneſs, that two perſons could hardly graſp it. The Japaneſe know how to cut dextrouſly part of it's root, of which they make very pretty little tables. In order to get the camphire, they cut the remainder of the root, and the moſt tender ſhoots, into ſmall bits of the bigneſs of one joint of a finger: theſe they boil in water during 48 hours, in large iron or copper kettles, over which they put covers, in the ſhape of alembics, hollow, with long necks, which ſerve to keep and ſtop the camphire which riſes with the ſteam, by means of the fire. When all is cool again, they gather the camphire, and keep it for uſe. But, as this is the work of the countrymen in Japan, where this drug is ſo little valued that they hardly prepare any, unleſs the Dutch merchants give commiſſion for it in the preceding year, it is no wonder that this operation ſhould be performed in a very groſs manner, and that ſome ſmall particles of the wood ſhould be mixed with the camphire; for which reaſon the Dutch refine it either to ſeparate the wood from it, or, if it be of the ſecond natural ſort, to remove the earth, or ſand that mixed with it, whilſt it diſtilled from the tree, or was added to it to increaſe its weight. The Dutch, ſays Monſieur Garcin, have places on the weſtern coaſt of Sumatra, which afford them a great deal of camphire, and is the beſt in all the Eaſt-Indies, eſpecially that which grows at Baros, whence, alſo, comes the beſt benzoin. Though there be a great deal of camphire in Japan, yet the Japaneſe have ſo great a value for that of Baros, which the Dutch carry to them, that they buy it very dear of the latter, for that of Japan is good for little in compariſon to the other; and as it is cheap the Dutch buy it, and mix it with that of Sumatra, and, being thus mixed, it looks pretty fine.

The difference of theſe two ſorts of camphire, when crude, is not, perhaps, ſo great as may be commonly imagined. The Dutch underſtand perfectly well how to purify and refine this matter, and give it a proper form, of which the Japaneſe are perfectly ignorant.

This is the reaſon why the latter, who would have good and well-purified camphire, buy that of the Dutch at a very high price; and the Dutch, in their turn, are fond of that of the Japaneſe, becauſe it is very cheap, and they know how to refine it, wherein they find their account.

In Europe the merchants give the name of crude camphire to that which is brought from the Indies in ſmall loaves, or lumps, ſuch as are formed and found at the foot of the tree in which the inciſions were made. Camphire in that condition muſt be choſen in pieces that are brittle, white, clean, dry, and of a good ſcent, and, being crumbled, it muſt look like common white ſalt.

The Sieur Pomet, in his General Hiſtory of Drugs, charges the French artiſts with being either unwilling, or uncapable, to refine camphire, and chuſing rather to have recourſe to the Dutch, than to perform themſelves the ſublimation of it; which, however, does not ſeem very difficult, according to the method preſcribed by that author.

The manner of refining camphire, as deſcribed by Pomet and Lemery, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Paris, for the year 1705.

Crude camphire is refined in order to clear it of ſome earth, or ſand, that was mixed with it as it fell from the tree. To effect which, it is put into a matraſs, or any other ſublimatory veſſel, being firſt well broke and pounded. When the veſſel is half full, you ſtop, or ſhut it ſlightly, and put it over a middling fire; which immediately urges the moſt ſubtile parts of the camphire upwards, whereby it is at laſt intirely ſublimated, except the caput mortuum, reckoned worth nothing, which remains at the bottom of the veſſel. When the ſublimation is compleated, you have a refined camphire, white, tranſparent, and as fine as that which the Dutch prepare, and in bits more or leſs large, according to the quantity of crude camphire you have made uſe of. It is liquefied after ſublimation by a moderate heat, and caſt afterwards into moulds, to give whatever form the operator pleaſes.

Amongſt the camphire refined after that manner, there remains commonly a ſmall portion of it extremely white, in ſmall grains, which could not incorporate with the reſt, but is nevertheleſs of a good quality.

Refined camphire muſt be choſen the whiteſt, the cleareſt, the leaſt ſpotted, clear, light, friable, of a ſtrong, penetrating, diſagreeable ſmell, burning intirely, without leaving the leaſt remains; and as little broke as poſſible; though, for uſe, camphire in ſmall bits is not worſe, than that which is more large and entire.

It is not very eaſy to adulterate this drug: but what may make ſome difference, with regard to it's goodneſs, is it's being more or leſs purified or refined.

In order to preſerve this ſubſtance, and prevent the evaporation, it muſt be put into bran or linſeed, that this ſeed, by it's viſcoſity or clammineſs, may retain the particles of camphire, and prevent their diſſipation: for the traders therein obſerve that this drug, without ſomething of the like care, diminiſhes by being kept *.

* Quere, Will not the bran, or the linſeed, deſtroy the quality of refined camphire, though they may not diminiſh it's quantity? Is there not ſuch a magnetiſm in bodies, as to attract, imbibe, or repel the virtues of each other? eſpecially between ſuch oleaginous and aqueous bodies as linſeed and camphire? May not ſo dry and huſky a body, as bran, abſorb the ſubtile ſpirit of the camphire, and greatly injure it's virtues, though it ſhould not leſſen it's weight, the quality, perhaps, having little affinity with the quantity of matter?

They extract from camphire, by means of ſpirit of nitre, a ſort of oil of an amber colour, very much eſteemed for curing rotten bones. If the reader is curious to know ſomething more concerning this ſort of oil, he may conſult Monſ. Lemery's work, who is thought to have handled this ſubject better than any body elſe.

REMARKS.

EXPERIMENTS on CAMPHIRE.

I. Take one ounce of alcohol *, and by degrees add thereto an ounce of ſolid camphire; all which it will nearly diſſolve, in a very ſhort time, without any ebullition, or apparent alterations of fluidity, or tranſparency. After which, pour in a large proportion of fair water, which weakening the ſolution, and uniting with the alcohol, will cauſe it to let go the camphire, that now all roſe white, ſolid, and perfect, to the top of the mixture.

* Alcohol is an highly rectified ſpirit of wine, a liquor obtainable from vegetable ſubjects, by fermentation, diſtillation, and rectification: [ſee the article DISTILLATION.] It appears related to oil, becauſe totally inflammable; and, when carefully examined, to be the eſſential oil of the vegetable, intimately broke and ground in, among the particles of water; ſo as to form one uniform liquor, not eaſily ſeparable again into different parts.

From this experiment, we learn, that an highly rectified ſpirit of wine hath the power of diſſolving about it's own weight of camphire; which when duly examined, appears to be a particular kind of volatile, or eſſential oil, coagulated into a white and ſolid ſubſtance. And, as ſuch an oil, it is plentifully diſſolved in alcohol.

This alcohol is a capital menſtruum in chymiſtry, and fitted to diſſolve roſins, as well as oils. Though it does not thus mix inextricably with either, but leave them ſeparable again, by the bare addition of water, which it diſſolves more readily than either oil or roſin; and, therefore, lets them go to join with this, according to the law of precipitation: For, whenever one body has diſſolved another, and a third be added to the ſolution, which third has a greater relation to either of the former, than they have to each other, their union is ſeparated, and the third body diſſolved, inſtead of the firſt or ſecond, one of which is at liberty to riſe, or fall to the bottom, according to it's ſpecific gravity: as we ſaw remarkably in the preſent experiment, where the camphire, diſſolved in the ſpirit of wine, was ſoon made to float upon the ſurface, by the addition of water, which has a greater appetite of union, or relation, to ſpirit of wine, than that ſpirit has to camphire. And the phyſical reaſon hereof may appear, from what was juſt now ſaid of the compoſition of this ſpirit, it's being an intimate mixture of water and volatile oil.

EXPERIMENT II.

A facile and ſimple method of preparing a ſafe and effectual ſudorific from camphire.

If an ounce of refined camphire be beat and ground in a marble mortar, with two ounces of blanched almonds, the camphire will be thus ſubtilly divided, and brought into a uniform

uniform and conſiſtent maſs, fit for the forming of pills, boluſſes, &c. ſo as to be commodiouſly taken in the way of a ſudorific, diſcutient, or perſpirative remedy; the doſe whereof may be aſſigned, betwixt the limits of three grains and forty, or two ſcruples.

Sudorific, perſpirative, and alexipharmic medicines, make a large part of the common diſpenſatories: 'tis judged, that their places may be advantageouſly ſupplied by a few powerful ones of approved virtues; among which, this of camphire is eſteemed as a principle one, or, at leaſt, ſuperior to Gaſcoign's powder, lapis contrayervæ, bezoar, &c. whoſe virtues, at beſt, appear to be ſmall.

The virtues of camphire are not, indeed, univerſally agreed on by phyſicians; ſome eſteeming it hot, others cold; ſome of great, others of little efficacy: but the caſe is not to be decided by authorities, but experience, which ſeems to declare, that camphire is one of the moſt powerful, moſt immediate, and moſt innocent perſpiratives, ſudorifics, and alexipharmics, hitherto known: for a large doſe of it, ſuppoſe a ſcruple, or more, though given diſſolved in ſpirit of wine, to a healthy perſon, does not increaſe the pulſe, or excite a preternatural heat; but rather cauſes coolneſs and compoſure, with a gentle ſweating, or increaſe of perſpiration. So little have the virtues of this medicine been underſtood, or ſo little can the virtues of medicines in general be deduced from their apparent properties, or reaſoning a priori! The natural and medicinal hiſtory of this drug well deſerves to be traced: it appears to be an eſſential oil, of peculiar properties; though ſome would have it a roſin, others a gum. Certainly it ſtands alone, as a matter ſui generis; a body wherein the nature of roſins, gums, and eſſential oils, are concentrated in ſome degree. It is, perhaps, one of the moſt diſcutient and ſubtile remedies hitherto diſcovered, in the whole materia medica. Whence it proves highly anodyne, perſpirative, and preſervatory. And, from certain obſervations and experiments, it hath been judged, that, if all the virtues of this concrete were ſufficiently known, with regard to it's external as well as internal application, it might effectually ſupply the place of numerous other drugs and preparations, to the eaſe and advantage of pharmacy. See the article PHARMACY.

In caſes both of the recent and inveterate lues venerea, this medicine, ſkilfully prepared and applied, has been recommended to be uſed inſtead of the common ſudorific decoction of the woods. It may alſo be advantageouſly mixed along with the balſams, or fine turpentines, commonly uſed at the cloſe of that diſtemper, as the balſam capivi, &c. Some phyſicians have recommended it in all inflammatory, putrid, peſtilential, and even maniacal, diſeaſes. And whoever has the ſecret of prudently joining this ſimple medicine along with nitre, perhaps, performs cures ſcarce to be expected from other medicines frequently uſed for the ſame purpoſes. See the article NITRE.

CANADA, a colony in North America, belonging to the French, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, which has annexed CANADA and all it's DEPENDENCIES to the crown of GREAT-BRITAIN. See the article AMERICA, where the reader will find the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. We ſhall let this article ſtand as it did in our laſt edition, that the better judgment may be made of our affairs in AMERICA, at preſent. The limits of this large country are variouſly fixed by geographers, ſome extending them quite from Florida to the northern boundaries of America, or from 33 to 63 degrees north latitude (Robbe) though Canada, properly ſo called, and diſtinguiſhed, be only a ſmall province of this whole tract, and ſeated on the ſouth and eaſt of the river St. Lawrence, and eaſt of it's mouth. Others bound it on the north, by the land called Labrador, or New Britany; on the eaſt by the northern ſea and New England, &c. on the ſouth by Florida, and on the weſt by New Mexico, and the unknown tracts north of it. According to which, it will extend itſelf from the 25th to the 53d degree of latitude, and from 76 to 93 of weſt longitude: but it's greateſt extent is commonly taken from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt; that is, from the province of Padoau, in New Spain, to Cape Charles, near the bay of St. Laurence, which is reckoned near 900 leagues. Baron Hontan makes it to reach only from 39 to 65 degrees of latitude; that is, from the ſouth ſide of the lake Erie to the north ſide of Hudſon's-Bay, and in longitude from the river Miſſiſſippi to Cape Rare in Newfoundland; but it is plain from the more recent ſurveys, publiſhed by Monſ. Bellin, that the province of Louiſiana is, by this French geographer, made to reach farther, by a great many degrees weſtward, than the river abovementioned; though, how far the French think proper to make it, no one can decide, but they are ſure always to take elbow room enough, notwithſtanding they may happen, in this part of the world, to incroach a few hundred leagues now and then upon the Engliſh, whom they would gladly extirpate from all North America. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, and our maps of America, compared with thoſe of the Sieur D' Anville *.

* It is obſervable, in our attention to the conduct of the court of France, that they are very ſolicitous ſo dextrouſly to mould and faſhion their royal geographers and hydrographers in their office of marine, that all their maps and ſea-charts may moſt accurately quadrate with their political ſyſtem of incroachment upon the territories of other nations. For glaring inſtances of which, ſee our maps of North and South America, compared with thoſe of the Sieur D'Anville, that were executed under the patronage of the French court, and our articles of BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA; ſee alſo our maps of Africa, where it will appear, how ſhamefully the French have, within theſe few years, incroached upon the Britiſh rights and privileges of trade, ſeveral hundred leagues; and are now making ſtrides, at Moſambique, upon the rights of the Portugueze, if what is publicly ſaid and believed, be true.

The expence of the French court, in regard to the late article of map, and chart-making, hath been ſaid to exceed twenty thouſand pounds ſterling. See Le Neptune Oriental, ou Routier General des côtes des Indes orientales & de la Chine, enrichi de cartes hydrographiques tant général que particulieres, &c. Par Monſ. D'Après de Mannevillette. — This nation is not accuſtomed to be profuſe of their caſh, without the view of an ample equivalent in return: and it is a pretty artful, though imperceptible, way of obtaining compenſation, by firſt putting their geographers upon authenticating their imaginary rights, by pen and ink, that they may verify and confirm their extraordinary accuracy, by actual poſſeſſion.

As it's extent is ſo great both in length and breadth, it's temperature, climate, ſoil, &c. cannot but vary accordingly: all that part which is inhabited by the French, and which is moſtly along the banks of the great river St. Lawrence, is, generally ſpeaking, exceſſive cold in winter, though hot in ſummer, as moſt of thoſe American tracts commonly are, which do not lie too far to the northward. The reſt of the country, as far as it is known, is interſected with large woods, lakes, and rivers, which render it ſtill colder; it has, however, no inconſiderable quantity of good fertile lands; which, by experience, are found capable of producing corn, barley, rye and other grain, grapes, and fruit, and indeed, almoſt every thing that grows in France; but it's chief product is tobacco, which it yields in large quantities.

There is likewiſe plenty of ſtags, elks, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, and other wild creatures in the woods, beſides wild fowl and other game. The ſouthern parts, in particular, breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. a great variety of other animals, both wild and tame.

The meadow grounds, which are all well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed great quantities of large and ſmall cattle; and, where the arable land is well manured, it produces large and rich crops. The mountains abound with coal mines, and ſome, we are told, of ſilver, and other metals, though we do not learn that yet any great advantage is made thereof. The marſhy grounds, which are likewiſe very extenſive, ſwarm with otters, beavers, and other amphibious creatures, and the rivers and lakes with fiſh of all ſorts.

The lakes here are both large and numerous; the principal of which are thoſe of Erie, Michigan, Huſon, Superior, Frontenac, or Optavia, Nipiſſing, Temiſcaming, beſides others of a ſmaller ſize; but the largeſt of them is that which they name Superior, or Upper Lake; which is ſituate the fartheſt north, and is reckoned above 100 leagues in length, and about 70, where broadeſt, and hath ſeveral conſiderable iſlands on it: the chief whereof are the Royal Iſle, Philipeau, Pont Chartrain, Maurepas, St. Ann, St. Ignatius, the Tonerre, or Thunder-Iſland, and a good number of ſmaller ones, eſpecially near the coaſts.

The whole country abounds with very large rivers, which it is endleſs to enter into a detail of; the two principal are, thoſe of St. Lawrence, and the Miſſiſſippi. The former of which abounds with no leſs variety than plenty of fine fiſh, and receives ſeveral conſiderable rivers in it's courſe. The entrance into the bay of St. Lawrence lies between the Cape de Retz, on the iſle of Newfoundland, and the north cape in that called the Royal Iſland, or more commonly Cape Breton. That of the Miſſiſſippi, which runs through the greateſt part of the province of Louiſiana, from north to ſouth, is called by the French the river of St. Louis, and by the natives of Miſchiſipi, Miſſiſſippi, and Meſchagamiſii, on account of the vaſt tract of ground which it overflows at certain ſeaſons; and by the Spaniards alſo called La Paliſſada, from the prodigious quantities of timber which they ſend down upon it in floats to the ſea. It is navigable above 450 leagues up from it's mouth. The ſpring-head of this river is not yet ſatisfactorily known; but 'tis certain, that it diſcharges itſelf into the gulph of Mexico by two branches, which form an iſland of conſiderable length.

Canada, in it's largeſt ſenſe, is divided into eaſtern and weſtern, the former of which is commonly known by the name of Canada, or New France, and the latter, which is of much later diſcovery, Louiſiana, in honour of the late Lewis XIV. The eaſtern Canada contains the following provinces, viz. 1. Canada, properly ſo called. 2. Sanguenay. 3. Acadia. 4. Atrurumbeg. 5. New England. 6. New Holland. 7. New Sweden; the five laſt of which having been diſmembered from it ſome time ſince; ſo that there are but two provinces

in

in this eaſtern Canada, that now belong to the French, viz. Canada Proper and Sanguenay.

The former of theſe, including all to the north and weſt of the great river and lakes, contains the 28 tribes following, (which, however, we ſhall not take upon us to give a minute deſcription of, ſeeing it would take up too much room) viz. 1. Quovatovata. 2. Illinois. 3. Quioquihac. 4. Miamis. 5. Attiquemeques. 6. Maſkontens. 7. Aentordac. 8. Ontovagarmis. 9. Errahonanoate. 10. Hurons. 11. Chiantonati. 12. Outaovatz. 13. Chavuarear. 14. Enchek. 15. Aoſſendi. 16. Nipiſirinians. 17. Eachiriovacheon. 18. Taranton. 19. Quionontareon. 20. Algonkins. 21. Elſovataizonon. 22. Oavechiſſaton. 23. Skiarenons. 24. Aſtakouvanda, Oronons. 25 Nadoveſſoveronons. 26. Kiriſtinoas. 27. Iramnadous. 28. Jaetous. But, at preſent, it is divided into the 13 following provinces, moſt of them named from their capital towns or forts, viz. 1. Gaſpe. 2. St. Jean Iſle. 3. Miſcon Iſle. 4. Richlieu. 5. The three rivers, or Treable river. 6. Mont-Real Iſle. 7. Fort Frontenac. 8. De Conti. 9. St. François. 10. Nôtre Dame des Anges. 11. St. Alexis. 12. St. Michael. 13. St. Joſeph.

SANGUENAY contains the four following nations or tribes, viz. 1. The Eſquimaux. 2. Berſiamites, or Oupapinachois. 3. Oumionquois; and 4. Cocouchaquois, and is divided into the ſix following provinces, or cantons, called ſo from their chief towns or forts, viz. Quebec, a biſhoprick. 2 Silleri. 3. Tadouſſac. 4. Port-neuf, or New Port. 5 Chichequedec. 6. Port St. Nicholas. Theſe three laſt, together with Port-quartier, belong to the Eſquimaux, of which we ſhall ſpeak more fully in it's proper place. The numerous wild nations of theſe parts are enumerated by Baron Hontan, to whom we refer the reader for a particular account.

CANADA PROPER, is by far the moſt conſiderable province of all New France, the farther ſubdued, the beſt peopled, and the beſt cultivated. It hath on the north the Terra de Labrador, Hudſon's-Bay, and New Wales. On the eaſt the great river Sanguenay divides it from the province of that name; on the ſouth the great province of Louiſiana, and the Iroquois, and Etechemins; as to the northern boundaries, they are not known, and muſt be left to time to diſcover.

This province is allowed to have greater plenty of beavers, and larger and finer, than any other that are bred throughout Canada. Theſe, as well as the caſtors, are very much valued, not only for their furs, but the latter for it's teſticles, which have been, from long experience, found to be an efficacious remedy againſt ſeveral diſeaſes, eſpecially thoſe of the hyſteric kind; and accordingly the natives carry on a large commerce of both. The river Canada abounds with variety of fiſh, eſpecially carp of a prodigious ſize, and white porpoiſes as large as oxen, beſides great quantities of crocodiles, and other amphibious creatures.

This colony is ſaid by ſome to amount to 80,000 French, who live in plenty and tranquillity. They are free from all taxes, and have full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber for fuel or building, to ſow and plant as much land as they can cultivate. Their greateſt hardſhip is the winter cold, which is there ſo exceſſive from December 'till April, that the greateſt rivers freeze over, and the ſnow lies commonly two or three feet deep on the ground, though this part lies no farther north than from 40 to 48 degrees of latitude.

TREABLE RIVER, or the THREE RIVERS, ſo called from the three rivers which join their currents about a quarter of a mile below it, and fall into the great one of St. Lawrence, is the capital of the French government in New France, and much reſorted to by ſeveral nations, which come down theſe rivers to it, and trade with it in various kinds of furs. The town here is ſurrounded with palliſades, and advantageouſly ſituated in the center of the country, and conſequently free from the incurſions of the ſavage Iroquois. It is the reſidence of the governor, who keeps a major under him, and hath a monaſtry of recollects, who are the curates of the place. It was formerly the common empory, where the wild natives brought their furs, and other commodities, for ſale, before the Engliſh ſeized it, and their ſettlement at Mont Real. The colony was again reſtored anno 1635, and the Monks who had ſettled a miſſion there, returned to it, anno 1673. The country about it is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruits, &c. and hath a good number of lordſhips and handſome ſeats. On each ſide of the river ſtands a vaſt number of genteel houſes, ſcarce above a gun-ſhot from each other, and the river is full of pleaſure and fiſher boats, which catch vaſt quantities of fiſh.

MONT REAL is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name, in the river of St. Lawrence, about 14 leagues long, and 4 wide, where broadeſt, and very fertile in corn, fruits, &c. This town drives a prodigious trade with the natives, whoſe chiefs go firſt to pay their duty to the governor, and make him ſome preſents, in order to prevent the prices of goods which they come for, being raiſed to an exorbitant height. This concourſe begins about June, and ſome of them come hither from places diſtant above 500 leagues; the fair is kept along the banks of the river, where theſe natives exchange their commodities with the French; and there are placed centinels, at proper diſtances, to prevent the diſorders which might otherwiſe happen from ſuch vaſt crowds of different nations. This concourſe laſts for near three months. The natives bring thither all ſorts of furs, which they barter for guns, powder, ball, great coats, and other garments of the French manufacture, iron and braſs work, and trinkets of all ſorts.

SANGUENAY, a province in the eaſtern Canada, and is divided on the weſt from that properly ſo called, by the river of it's name. It hath on the north-eaſt the nation called Kileſtinaos, or Creſtinaux; on the north-weſt that of the Eſquimaux; on the ſouth-eaſt it is bounded by the river St. Lawrence, and on the ſouth-weſt by that of Sanguenay, at the mouth of which is the town of Three Rivers before-mentioned. It's extent is computed from this laſt-mentioned town, which is the frontier of Canada Proper, quite to the farther end of the bay called the Seven Iſles.

The territory and lands on each ſide of the river were found ſo indifferent, and the colony that ſettled at Tadouſſac ſuffered ſo much there, that it quite diſcouraged the French for a long time from ſettling; but at length, upon their ſailing up as high as Quebec, they found ſuch encouragement, as has been productive of their preſent proſperity there.

The river of Sanguenay ſprings from the lake St. John, and falls into that of St. Lawrence, at the town of Tadouſſac. The haven is capable of containing 25 men of war, and hath a good anchorage and ſhelter from ſtorms, it being of a round figure and deep, and ſurrounded at a diſtance with very high rocks. 'Tis needleſs, in a work of this kind, to dwell longer on the deſcription of this province, it being much the ſame, as to it's ſoil, climate, and inhabitants, with that of Canada Proper laſt deſcribed. It is remarkable, indeed, for an extraordinary plenty of marble of ſeveral kinds, inſomuch that not only the principal towns, forts, churches, and palaces, but even the houſes of private men are built of it.

Quebec is the capital of this province, and the other principal places are, Sillery, Tadouſſac, Port-neuf, Beau-port, St. Ann, Chicheque de Port, St. Nicholas, Port Caſtier, and Necouba.

QUEBEC, the metropolis of all Canada, and an epiſcopal ſee, is in lat. 46. 53. and weſt long. 70. 40. and ſituate on the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the little river, and on the north ſide of the former, and about 140 leagues from the ſea. The haven is large, and capable of containing at leaſt an 100 ſhips of the line; and the great river whereon it ſtands, though about four leagues wide, doth here ſhrink itſelf at once to the breadth of about a mile, and it is on that account, that the name of Quebec was given, which in the Algonkin Indian language, it ſeems, ſignifies a ſhrinking or growing narrower, which is a natural etymology enough of the name.

TADOUSSAC, and it's port, hath been taken notice of, in our brief deſcription of the river Sanguenay; and all that needs to be added, is, it's being a place of great reſort and traffic, both for the wild natives and for the French, much in the manner that hath been already obſerved.

The ESQUIMAUX, or ESKIMAUX, are one of the fierceſt, and hitherto unpoliſhed, people in all North America. They are ſeated on the moſt eaſtern verge of it, beyond the river of St. Lawrence, and ſpread themſelves up north and eaſt into the large tract of land, called Terra de Labrador, overagainſt Newfoundland, from 51 to 53 degrees of north latitude, and from 52 to 63, or more, of weſt longitude. Their chief trade is in furs of divers ſorts, for other European goods.

The BEISIAMITES, are ſeated on the weſt of the Eſquimaux, and are divided from them by the river of St. Margaret, and run along the north coaſt of the river St. Lawrence, overagainſt Canada. They are a people much reſembling the Eſquimaux, and carry on a traffic with the French of the ſame kind.

The IROQUOIS, are the moſt conſiderable and beſt known of all the Indian nations hereabouts. They are ſeated along the north ſide of the lake Ontario, Frontenac, and along the river of their name, which is that which carries the waters of the lake into the river of St. Lawrence. They are bounded on the north by the nations called Algonkins and Outavais, and the French ſettlements at and about Montreal; on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt by New England, New York, Jerſey, &c. on the ſouth by part of Canada Proper, and the lake Erie; and on the weſt by that of the Hurons, and the canal between theſe two lakes. They are ſo advantageouſly ſituated between the Engliſh and French, that they can join forces either with the higheſt bidder, or with thoſe who can keep them in the moſt ſubjection.

Their ſoil is high and rich, their water-melons, pumpions, &c. very large, ſweet, and of a fine colour and flavour; but they are too proud and lazy, to give themſelves much trouble about cultivating their lands, which is, perhaps, the cauſe of their producing ſo little. Their way of traffic is no way unlike to what we have before deſcribed.

The ILLINOIS, inhabit near the lake and river of that name. They live in villages at a great diſtance from each other, on the marſhy plains, on both ſides of the river, near which are large woods and hills, covered with a delightful verdure about nine months in the year, whilſt the current thereof, which is moſtly ſouth-weſt, is ſo ſmooth and agreeable, that veſſels of a conſiderable ſize may ſail up and down it with eaſe and ſafety,

ſafety, for a courſe of 120 leagues, before it falls into that of the Miſſiſſippi.

The lands on each ſide afford ſuch plenty of paſture, that they are covered with herds of large and ſmall cattle, as well as goats, deer, and other beaſts of the wilder kind. The river ſwarms with water-fowl of divers ſpecies, ſuch as ſwans, geeſe, cranes, ducks, &c.

They are great friends to the French, as they protect them from the other Indian nations, with which they are at enmity, and deal with them with honour and honeſty, and inviolably regard their alliances with theſe people. Are not theſe the natural means to attach theſe people to their intereſt, both with regard to their trade and poſſeſſions?

LOUISIANA. This vaſt tract, according to the moſt modeſt of the French geographers, is bounded on the ſouth by the gulph of Mexico, on the north by the Illinois, laſt deſcribed, and by the territories of the Parniaſſus, Paoducas, Oſages, Tionteteca's, Chavanons, and other Indian nations: on the eaſt by part of Florida, Georgia and Carolina, and on the weſt by New Mexico and New Spain.

It extends itſelf from north to ſouth about 15 degrees, that is, from 25 to the 40th north latitude, and from eaſt to weſt about 10 or 11, that is, from 86 to 96, or 97, according to Charlevoix. Monſ. de Leſle gives theſe boundaries a much larger extent, eſpecially on the north ſide, where they make it contiguous to Canada, laſt deſcribed; ſo that part of it is bounded, according to him, by New York, Penſylvania, Virginia, &c. and on the weſt by the rivers called Rio Bravo and Salado. According to Le Seur, another French writer, the northern boundaries of Louiſiana may reach as far as the northern pole. Neither are thoſe on the north-weſt leſs uncertain, the Miſſouri, a great river which gives name to a vaſt tract of land unknown, flowing from that point into the Miſſiſſippi, about four leagues above it's mouth; ſo that if we except the ſouth, where the ſea bounds it, all the reſt muſt be left an uncertainty; and ſo indeed it is likely to remain, 'till proper perſons be appointed to ſettle thoſe boundaries, on the eaſt with the Engliſh, and on the weſt with the Spaniards: 'till then they will ever be liable to diſputes, and, perhaps, to a continuing fluctuation, according as either of the three nations ſhall have opportunity to enlarge their own conqueſts, or incroach upon their neighbours.

The moſt conſiderable nations in Louiſiana, are the Chicaches, Chikai, or Chicas, Maubilians, Clamcoats, Cenos, Cadedaguio's, Ibitoupas, Tahuetas, Vacea, and many others. Their various rivers, frequently overflowing, render the country in general extremely fertile and pleaſant. Nothing is more delightful than their meadows, which are fit for ſeed of all kinds. In ſome parts, the ſoil yields three or four crops in a year, for the winter conſiſts only in heavy rains, without any nipping froſts. Almoſt all ſorts of trees that Europe affords are to be found here, beſides variety of others unknown to us; and ſome of them very eſtimable, ſuch as their tall and admirable cedars, a tree that diſtils gum, which is ſaid to excel all our European nobleſt perfumes, and cotton-trees, which are of a prodigious height. The whole country abounds with an infinite variety of game, fowl, cattle, and, indeed, every thing that life can deſire. See the article LOUISIANA by itſelf.

REMARKS.

How far the limits of the country the French intend to poſſeſs, may extend, is not yet known, and may, perhaps, remain a ſecret, 'till they are pleaſed to oblige us with an eclairciſement in their way. That part of it which was granted to Monſ. Crozat, is bounded by New Mexico, and the lands of the Engliſh of Carolina, Weſt and Eaſt; and by the river Illinois, and the gulph of Mexico, North and South; wherein if it be meant, as no doubt it is, that all the tracts of land not actually poſſeſſed by the Spaniards of Mexico, and the Engliſh of Carolina, though claimed reſpectively by both, ſhall be comprehended, it will take in more than two thirds of the gulph, and reckoning from St. Fe, in New Mexico, to our moſt weſterly ſettlements in Carolina, about 24 degrees of longitude, or 1440 miles, and, from the mouth of the Illinois to that of the Miſſiſſippi, 150 or 160 leagues in a ſtraight line.

But this is only a part of Louiſiana, which the king of France (by a reſervation expreſſed in the patent) may enlarge, when he thinks fit, the whole extent of that immenſe country reaching the South-Sea, Japan, and the Frozen Ocean.

Father Hennepin, in the account he dedicated to king William, of his travels through a great part of it, poſitively aſſerts, that Japan is contiguous to the Northern America (the great Grævius was alſo of this opinion) and that an eaſy paſſage may be infallibly found out, from Louiſiana to the South-Sea, through rivers that run beyond the Miſſiſſippi, deep enough to carry ſhips of great burthen; and he farther offered in return back in his majeſty's ſervice, to make the diſcovery. That great prince would, in all likelihood, have accepted the propoſal, and improved it to the advantage and glory of England, had it not been for his alliance with Spain, which likewiſe proved fatal to the ſettlements of the Scots in Darien.

It is a melancholy conſideration, that ſo noble an enterprize, founded on juſt and honourable motives, and carried on with invincible zeal and bravery, ſhould have been diſcouraged, betrayed, and ruined, and the French at the ſame time permitted to build forts, and plant colonies, under the command of Monſ. D'Iberville, in a country to which both England and Spain had a much better title. 'Tis true, indeed, that Monſ. D'Iberville's commiſſion impowered him only to eſtabliſh the colonies, and maintain the garriſons, which had preſerved the poſſeſſion of what was acquired to the crown of France by Monſ. Deſale; but one of the forts having been entirely razed by the Spaniards, and the garriſon carried off, and the other abandoned ſome years before the date of this commiſſion, the right inſiſted on, by virtue of that poſſeſſion, was extinguiſhed: beſides, if the charters granted by the crown of England, to the lords proprietors of Carolina, be allowed to be of any validity or force, it may be doubted whether a poſſeſſion, of much longer continuance, could devolve any right on the French.

The miſſionaries, who have had the moſt perfect knowlege of Louiſiana, give us ſo exalted an idea of it's uncommon beauties and productions, that one would take it for the Frenchman's paradiſe. So temperate is the clime, that the inhabitants enjoy a continual ſpring; the ſoil is ſo fertile, that (as Father Hennepin told king William) it yields two crops every year, without plowing or ſowing

Mr. Gage, who lived twelve years in the kingdom of Mexico, in his deſcription of New Gallicia, informs us, that the Spaniards were continually at war with the Indians, who inhabited the northern part of that province, for the ſake of the ſilver mines in their territories, fearing leſt the Engliſh from Virginia (for Carolina was not then planted) ſhould be beforehand with them, in gaining the poſſeſſion of theſe hidden treaſures. He farther adds, that he has often heard the Spaniards expreſs their ſurprize, that the people of that colony ſhould prefer a little paultry tobacco (as he terms it) before the invaluable advantages they muſt expect to draw from ſuch an eaſy conqueſt.

But the chief glory of Louiſiana is the famous Miſſiſſippi, in many reſpects the fineſt river in the world; it is free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable within 60 leagues of it's ſource: the channel is every-where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it floods. It's banks are adorned with a delightful variety of meadows and groves, and inhabited by almoſt two hundred different nations, whom the French found tractable to their meaſures. Our American ſeamen aſſert, that ſeveral of their rivers are fit to receive ſhips of the largeſt burthens, and have ſeveral ſafe and commodious harbours.

What renders the Miſſiſſippi more conſiderable, is a great number of other large and navigable rivers, that run from the eaſtward and weſtward, and mix at laſt with it's ſtream. Of the firſt Monſ. Deſale, in the account he preſented to Count Frontenac of his voyage, on this river, affirms, there are ſix or ſeven, 300 leagues each in length, that fall below the Illinois; and propoſes it as a matter of the laſt importance, that the diſcovery of them ſhould be carried on, to prevent the Engliſh of Carolina from interfering with the French in their commerce with the Indians, ſince ſome of theſe rivers take their riſe from the Apalachian Hills, not far from our ſettlements in that colony.

As it can hardly be imagined, that the French will ſo far neglect their intereſt, as not to continue their vigorous efforts for eſtabliſhing their commerce in this part of the world; ſo 'tis evident enough, that theſe ſettlements, whether we have war or peace with the French, will not only prove hurtful, but, I am afraid, deſtructive at laſt to our Britiſh plantations, and thereby weaken, in a very ſenſible manner, the ſtrength and power of England, by drying the ſtreams that convey thither the greateſt part of their wealth.

When the French have drawn a line along the borders of our ſettlements in every province, from St. Lawrence to the Miſſiſſippi, and built forts to ſecure the moſt convenient paſſes on the lakes and rivers that form the communication, they will effectually cut off all intercourſe and traffic between us and the Indians inhabiting the inland countries, and likewiſe compel thoſe who are neighbours and allies, by reaſon of the abſolute dependance they muſt have on the French for their liberty of hunting and fiſhing, to fall under their ſubjection, or ſtarve; and, beſides the incroachments on the rights of the Engliſh in America, and the loſs of a beneficial trade with the Indians in Canada, which has greatly inriched the French.

Beſides theſe hardſhips, we muſt expect to ſuffer continual incurſions and depredations from the ſavages on our frontiers, with whom we ſhall not be able to make either a real peace, or manage a ſucceſsful war, conſidering the advantages theſe ſavage nations have over the Europeans, by their way of fighting in the foreſts on the continent.

Experience has ſhewn theſe ſentiments not chimerical, as appears from the plan that La Hontan preſented to the court of France, by order of Count Frontenac, for deſtroying the Iroquois Indians, a warlike and numerous people, who have manifeſted their attachment to the Britiſh intereſt.

If the French be allowed, ſays a judicious writer, to poſſeſs themſelves of all Canada and Louiſiana, as they have chriſtened it.

it, and a war ſhould break out between the two crowns, the French will find it a matter of no great difficulty, with the aſſiſtance of the Indians, to invade from thence and Canada all the Engliſh plantations at once, and drive the inhabitants into the ſea.

The reader will eaſily perceive, by caſting his eye upon our map of America, that St. Lawrence and the Miſſiſſippi, with the lakes and rivers that run between them, ſurround by land all the provinces on the main of America, belonging to the crown of Great-Britain; and that from the branches of theſe great rivers, and ſome falling into the lakes Champlain and Errie, a ſafe and direct paſſage may be found out almoſt to every one of them, by means of other large rivers, with which the whole country abounds.

Through ſome of theſe channels the French have heretofore made many deſcents from Canada upon our northern colonies, deſtroyed our ſettlements, and laid waſte entire provinces: nor could the inhabitants of New York have ſecured themſelves from the fatal conſequences of the like attempts, but by the ſingular bravery of the Mohacks, who galled the French ſo ſenſibly, that they obliged them to retire within 60 leagues of Quebec, and ſue for peace on any terms.—And that they may eaſily penetrate the ſame way into thoſe Engliſh colonies that lie to the ſouthward, particularly Virginia and Carolina, and ſome rivers that run from the ſame ſide into the Miſſiſſippi, is obvious by their own accounts, and the diſcoveries of our Indian traders, who range over theſe parts of the continent.

All the plantations England is poſſeſſed of in this part of the world lie naked to every attack by land, we having no forts or garriſons to defend our frontiers; which, if we are not miſtaken in point of judgment, may one day deſerve the attention of our ſuperiors. The number of our people here are but inconſiderable, compared to the tract of land they inhabit; their dwellings, except toward the ſea, are ſcattered at a great diſtance from each other. In ſhort, there ſeems to be little protection for us to rely on, except that of the Indians; and, from the little care that has been taken to attach them to our intereſt, I am afraid there is no great dependance to be made on their friendſhip.

It was very extraordinary, that no effectual meaſures until lately were taken to ſettle and fortify Nova Scotia, the only province in America belonging to the crown that can be made a ſufficient barrier to cover any of our plantations from the invaſions of the French, and check their motions on that ſide by ſea and land; and yet, if the dread of many true friends to the kingdom is not groundleſs, there ſeems too much reaſon to believe, that a part of this province may one day be diſmembered from us, and tacked to the French Canada. See BRITISH AMERICA, where will be ſeen how the French have heretofore treated us in reſpect to this province, and the fiſhery at Canceaux. And, if ſkilful and judicious perſons are not employed to draw the imaginary line, in order to fix the boundaries, according to treaty, we muſt expect that our trade to theſe parts will be attended with the like miſchiefs it has been. Without this is done, the controverſy can never fairly be decided at Paris or London.

Though the French in Canada have neither exceeded us in numbers, nor the reſt of their countrymen in bravery, nevertheleſs it is certain, they have gained upon us for many years paſt. Nor will this ſeem any matter of wonder, to one who ſeriouſly reflects on the conſtitution and form of their government, and the encouragement they have from the crown of France, and their dexterous way of managing the Indians.

It has been a maxim conſtantly obſerved by all princes and ſtates who have planted colonies, or ſubdued nations, to keep them united under the command of particular governors, and in ſubordination to others, who preſided over the whole, to the end that juſtice might be impartially adminiſtered, ſeditions prevented, or eaſily ſuppreſſed, and each inferior government ſtrengthened and ſupported by the reſt. In the Roman empire, which contained 120 provinces, and near 300 colonies, we find only four prefects, or chief governors, under the emperor; in the kingdoms of Peru and Mexico two; and in Canada, to which Louiſiana is added, but one. And, leſt it ſhould be imagined that an extenſive command muſt neceſſarily be attended with arbitrary power, it may be affirmed, with a great deal of truth, that the governor-general of Canada is more effectually reſtrained from breaking in, either upon the rights of the crown, or thoſe of the ſubject, than the moſt petty governors, being liable to the check of the intendant in the firſt caſe, and of the ſovereign council in the laſt.

Beſides guards and garriſons, ſuch hath been the policy of that nation, that conſiderable bodies of regular troops have been employed in the ſervice of the colony, without the leaſt burden or charge to the planters: all civil officers, as well as military, have certain yearly penſions ſettled upon them, and none are admitted into places of the greateſt truſt, but ſuch who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves at the court of France by their merit, under whoſe adminiſtration the country is become extremely populous and proſperous. This extraordinary increaſe is, in a great meaſure, to be aſcribed to their intermarrying with the Indians, whom, by this means, they firmly engage in their intereſt. In every tribe there are ſome miſſionary prieſts, and, though few of the ſavages have been made thorough converts to their religion, yet, in all other matters, they look upon theſe fathers as tutelar gods, and are intirely directed by their counſels.

On the other hand, the country poſſeſſed by the Engliſh in America ſeems to be much in the ſame ſtate Britain was at the firſt entrance of the Romans, for as that 'was divided (to 'uſe the words of Sir William Temple) into ſeveral nations, 'each governed by its own kings and particular princes, 'different in their ends and councils, it was more eaſily ſub-'dued by united forces: for, Dum ſinguli pugnabant, univerſi 'vincebantur; i. e. While they fought in ſingle bodies, the 'whole iſland was conquered:' ſo in America, to draw the parallel no farther, we have thirteen colonies, at leaſt, ſeverally governed by their reſpective commanders in chief, according to their peculiar laws and conſtitutions. It would be too tedious, and foreign to my deſign, to conſider the ſeveral ſorts of government eſtabliſhed in theſe provinces, and the different views and intereſts they have to purſue; nor would I, by any means, give the reader occaſion to think that I am an enemy to thoſe liberties and privileges moſt of them enjoy by the favour of the crown: I ſhall therefore only obſerve, that next to being independent one of another, nothing weakens our plantations more, nor expoſes them to greater dangers in times of war with France, than the unſkilful adminiſtration (to call it no worſe) of thoſe who are appointed governors of many of them, and are left to truſt to providence for their ſubſiſtence. I will not ſay that all who go thither, like thoſe in David's camp, are in debt or diſtreſs, and, conſequently, unfit to advance matters of public intereſt; but we find ſome in London who can inform us, that, in time of war, the Indians have been ſupplied with powder and ſhot, the French with proviſions, and the Spaniards with naval ſtores. Themiſtocles ſaid, that he could not play on a fiddle, but underſtood how to make a little city a great one; but ſome of theſe fiddling gentlemen, by keeping up parties and factions, and oppreſſing the people under colour of his majeſty's authority, have made flouriſhing colonies poor ones.

And here may be mentioned another ſet of officers, who are ſettled in every province, by commiſſions from England, but without any ſalaries annexed to the ample powers they are inveſted with. Theſe are judges, advocates, regiſters, and marſhals of admiralty, who, having nothing to depend upon but the fees of court, and being altogether unqualified for ſuch employments, by promoting litigious actions, and pronouncing unjuſt decrees, have brought our trade under a very ſenſible decay. It is to be lamented that ſo uſeful a court, in theſe parts, ſhould not be better eſtabliſhed. If the nation conſidered how much their intereſt depends upon the proſperity of the plantations, and, at the ſame time, what diſcouragements they lie under by the means of ſuch volunteer governors, judges, &c. ſome of which have been known to uſe their commiſſions as ſome do letters of repriſals, they would order theſe grievances to be redreſſed.

To give a more diſtinct view of the difference between colonies depending abſolutely on the crown, and ſuch as are granted by patents or charters, with reſpect to the reſiſtance they are able to make in time of war, we need only compare Virginia and New York with New England and Carolina.

Virginia was planted anno 1584, at the charge, and by the direction, of the incomparable Sir Walter Raleigh, who took poſſeſſion of it in the name of queen Elizabeth. In the year 1606, a commiſſion was granted to ſome noblemen and merchants to advance the ſettlements under the government of captain Smith, who was ſucceeded by lord Delaware. Since that time the colony has flouriſhed greatly, having been ſupplied with great men for their governors, who not only kept the Indians in ſubjection, but acquired to the crown New York, Nova Scotia, and all the countries lying to the ſouthward of St. Lawrence, which has proved of extr ary emolument to the nation.

New York has been no leſs happily governed; they h. e inviolably maintained their alliance with the numerous nations of the Iroquois, and, by that means, preſerved the tranquillity of their country.

On the contrary, the inhabitants of New England and Carolina have frequently found the ſavages implacable enemies; for which, perhaps, the chief reaſon has formerly been, that the governors of theſe colonies have not had authority enough to prevent the unfair treatment which the Indians have frequently complained of, as defrauding them in their traffic by falſe weights and meaſures, and by neglecting to make them due ſatisfaction, when they have been wronged. In ſhort, that perſon ought to be a cunning man who treats with the Indians, and, therefore, the French leave that buſineſs to the Jeſuits.

To conclude this point; as his majeſty's dominions on this continent are cantoned into ſo many petty, independent ſtates, or commonwealths, whereof there is ſcarce one that can expect effectual relief or aſſiſtance from another, in the moſt imminent danger; as the inhabitants of each colony are unable to defend themſelves againſt a powerful army of French and Indians, and the adminiſtration of ſome of them is too

weak

weak and unſteady to be confided in; and it ſeems not very probable, from our preſent ſyſtem, that we ſhould ever, perhaps, ſucceed in engaging the Indians on our ſide, ſo as to ballance the weight of thoſe allied to the French; it ſeems to follow pretty evidently, that, ſome time or other, the Miſſiſſippi may drown our ſettlements on the main of America.

Another circumſtance that attends the French ſettling in the Louiſiana, with reſpect to us, is their being thereby, in ſome degree, maſters of the gulph of Mexico, and conſequently may one day be in a condition to ruin our trade to Jamaica; they being already in poſſeſſion of a great part of Hiſpaniola, and having fortified their ſettlements at the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, the Havannah and Vera Cruz may alſo fall into their hands. From what has been obſerved under the article BRITISH AMERICA, it is apparent that they have had their eye upon Jamaica; and, as we find how tenacious they are to poſſeſs themſelves of whatever they can of the Leeward and Caribbee iſles, and are vigorouſly augmenting their marine, it is more than probable that they will, ſome time or other, if they meet with no check in time, gain ſuch an aſcendant in America, as to extirpate the Engliſh out of it. And what a figure we ſhall then be able to make in commerce, and as a maritime power, is more eaſily imagined than deſcribed. If theſe are idle dreams, then numbers of men of the beſt ſenſe in the kingdom, nay, in Europe, are not awake; for it is the ſentiment of too many, that the French are now taking large ſtrides towards making a conqueſt of this iſland, it being the only power that has thwarted all their projects for univerſal empire. Thoſe who would laugh us out of our ſecurity, deſerve to be laughed at themſelves, when they are reminded how near the French, in the laſt war, were of conquering our neighbouring provinces, our natural allies, and what confuſion they put us into, by only ſlightly cheriſhing a handful of rebels.

When the French have effectually planted their whole territories from Canada all along the Miſſiſſippi, and ſecured themſelves in the iſland colonies they aim at, will they not be able to ſupply the markets of Europe with tobacco, ſugar, and every ſpecies of commodities produced in our plantations, at a much cheaper rate than we can? For, beſides the goodneſs of the ſoil, and the induſtry and frugality of the French, wherein they greatly exceed us, are not their planters furniſhed with neceſſaries from France, and negroes from Guinea, far cheaper than ours? [See the article FRENCH AMERICA, and FRENCH and BRITISH AFRICAN TRADES.]

Thoſe who are bred up in the hoſpitals (whereof there is a prodigious number in France) are ſent to America for planters, and every ſingle man of theſe is obliged to marry an Indian woman. And, to enable them to trade among themſelves, they had a ſupply of 25,000,000 in bank-bills granted them, by an arret of the 16th of July, 1719. [See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, and COLONIES BRITISH.

REMARKS.

The DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, having annexed CANADA and all its DEPENDENCIES to the crown of GREAT BRITAIN, and alſo FLORIDA and LOUISIANA, and ſettled their limits and boundaries, [See the article AMERICA, where is contained the ſaid treaty at large] we may expect that, in a few years, the whole face of the commerce of our BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES will be changed, and all thoſe fears and apprehenſions we ſo juſtly had of the power and machinations of our FRENCH rivals here be diſſipated. For by the ceſſion of all CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES to GREAT BRITAIN, and the very trifling poſſeſſions the FRENCH at preſent enjoy, of the ſmall iſlands of ST. PETER, and MIQUELON, for a ſhelter only for their fiſhermen at NEWFOUNDLAND, cannot enable that nation from thence to annoy this, in any of our territories of CANADA and its DEPENDENCIES. Stripped as FRANCE now is of CAPE BRETON, called, very properly, the DUNKIRK of NORTH AMERICA, they are deſtitute of every place, by the means whereof, they are capable to rendezvous any formidable naval power to do us any great injury in this part of the world, if we take due care to keep all our territories in this part of AMERICA, in a proper plight and condition, and ſhall be able to defend them by our maritime force. By the DEFINITIVE TREATY we ſeem likewiſe to have ſecured to ourſelves the ſafe and uninterrupted navigation to and from our colonies in America, both from Spain as well as France. By our ſettlements at Mobille and Penſacola, in Florida, and the right of navigation into the Miſſiſſippi, in the Gulph of Mexico; by our ſettlements of St. Auguſtine and St. Mattheo, in the Gulph of FLORIDA, together with our ſituations at the BAHAMA ISLANDS, and at GEORGIA and the CAROLINAS; we cannot but hope we ſhall be more able to annoy the trade and navigation of SPAIN and FRANCE, on any future rupture between them and us, than they will be to hurt ours. See the articles FLORIDA and BAHAMA ISLANDS, and thoſe other articles to which from them we refer. We ſeem, therefore, to have pretty well ſecured our North American colonies by ſea, from north to ſouth, by virtue of the DEFINITIVE TREATY: the difficulty, and the only one we labour under, is to ſecure our North American colonies from the inſults and ravages of the Indians, who lie to the weſtward of thoſe colonies. All proper meaſures will, doubtleſs, be taken by the government of GREAT-BRITAIN to mollify thoſe people, in our favour, and to attach them moſt effectually to our intereſt. This will now be the more eaſily accompliſhed, ſince the boundaries between us and France are now aſcertained by TREATY, which they never were before with regard to this part of the new world. Our right of navigation to and from the Miſſiſſippi through the Gulph of Mexico, will enable us to annoy our Indian enemies, as well as to aid and aſſiſt our friends: our new colonies will daily gather ſtrength, which in conjunction with the aſſiſtance of our old, promiſe fair to render our whole range of Britiſh plantations not only more ſecure, but more flouriſhing and proſperous than they ever were before. See the articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, PLANTATIONS, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS.

CANARY ISLANDS, lie to the weſt of the coaſt of Biledulgerid in Africa, between the 27th degree and 10 minutes, and the 29th and 50 minutes, of north latitude; and between the 12th and the 17th. 50. of longitude weſt of London.

Theſe iſlands have been ſubject to the crown of Spain ſince the year 1417. The air thereof is generally good, though hot, and the ſoil fertile, producing wheat, barley, millet, and excellent wine, which is tranſported thence to moſt parts of Europe, but more particularly to Great Britain. There are, alſo, abundance of pomegranate, pepper, fig, citron, and orange-trees; they yield, likewiſe, ſugars, dragon's-blood, and ſome other ſort of gums.

There are twelve of theſe iſlands, but only ſeven of note: we ſhall give a diſtinct deſcription of them, ſo far as conſiſts with the ſcope of our deſign.

I. LANZAROLA, or LANCEROLA, formerly Canturia (according to Barbot) lies in the 29th degree, 35 minutes, of north latitude, and 12. 30. longitude weſt of London. It is about 13 leagues long from north to ſouth, 9 in breadth, and 40 in compaſs. It is parted by a ridge of mountains, which afford nothing but paſture to ſheep and goats; but the vallies produce very good wheat and barley, though pretty ſandy and dry. Here are alſo aſſes, kine, camels, and good horſes.

II. FUERTE VENTURA, or FORTE VENTURA, lies under the 29th degree of north latitude, and under the 13th and 14th of longitude, eaſt from London. It is about 25 leagues long from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt; its breadth very irregular. The ſoil is partly mountainous, and partly champain, abounding in wheat and barley. There are ſeveral brooks of freſh water along the coaſt, and ſoft crooked trees on their banks, that yield gums, of which they make white ſalt. There are palm-trees, which bear dates; olive and maſtic-trees, orchel-weed for dyeing, and a ſort of fig-trees, which yield a balm as white as milk, that is of great virtue in ſeveral medicines. They make cheeſe of their goat's milk, of which this iſland breeds above 50,000 yearly. Their fleſh is very good; the inhabitants make great profit of their ſkins and fat. The harbours here are only fit for middling veſſels.

III. GREAT CANARIA, or CANARY, lies under the 28th degree of north latitude, and the 14th and 15th of longitude, weſt from London. It is in compaſs about 40 leagues; it is very fruitful, and remarkable for its excellent wines, which bear its name. It abounds alſo in melons, apples, oranges, citrons, pomegranates, figs, olives, peaches, and plantanes; as alſo with fir, dragon, and palm-trees, and likewiſe with wild fowl.

IV. TENERIFF lies under the 28th and 29th degrees of north latitude, and under the 16th and 17th of longitude weſt from London. It is about 18 leagues long, and 8 broad, and chiefly remarkable for its peak.

Oratavia lies on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and, being the chief ſea-port for trade, the principal Engliſh merchants reſide there, with their conſul. The port is but ordinary at beſt, and very bad, when the north-weſt winds blow.

The true Malmſey wine is produced in this iſland, and that near the town of Laguna is ſaid to be the beſt in the world. Here is, alſo, Canary wine, and Verdona, or green wine. The Canary grape grows chiefly on the weſt ſide of the iſland, and, therefore, is ſent to Oratavia. The Verdona wine is ſtrong-bodied, harſher, and ſharper than the Canary. It is not ſo much eſteemed in Europe, but is exported to the Weſt-Indies, and will keep beſt in hot countries. This ſort of wine is made chiefly on the eaſt ſide of the iſland, and ſhipped off at Vera Cruz.

Beſides theſe wines, here is, alſo, ſtore of grain, as wheat, barley, and maiz, which they often tranſport to other places. Here are, likewiſe, papahs, apples, pears, plums, cherries, pomegranates, citrons, oranges, lemons, limes, pumpkins, onions, eſteemed the beſt in the world, &c. They are well ſtocked with horſes, cows, mules, ſheep, goats, hogs, conies, and plenty of deer. Nor is there any want of poultry or fiſh. All the Canary iſles have of theſe commodities more or leſs.

V. GOMERA lies to the weſt of Teneriff, under the 28th degree of north latitude, and the 18th of longitude, weſt of London. It is about 22 leagues in compaſs, though but eight in length. It has a pretty good haven, and a town of the ſame name. The country is high, feeds ſmall cattle, produces dragon-trees, and is incompaſſed with great deep roads.

VI. FERRO, called HIERRO by the Spaniards, is the moſt weſterly of all the Canaries, and lies under the 27th and 28th degrees

degrees of north latitude, and under the 18th of longitude, weſt of London. It is 10 leagues long, five broad, and about 25 in compaſs. The ſoil is dry and barren in ſome parts for want of water. This iſland is particularly famous from the French navigators placing their firſt meridian in the center of it (Barbot), as the Dutch did theirs through the Peak of Teneriff: but, at preſent, moſt geographers reckon the firſt meridian from the capital city of their own country, as the Engliſh from London, the French from Paris, &c.

VII. PALMA lies to the north of Teneriff, under the 29th degree of north latitude, and under the 18th of longitude, weſt of London. It is about ſeven leagues in breadth, 10 in length, and 26 in compaſs. Here is the mountain of goats, from whence, it is ſaid, the iſland took its original name of Cafe-raria. It has a town of its preſent name, and a ſafe harbour, well frequented for wines, which ſome reckon the beſt of the Canaries, and like the Malmſey. They are tranſported thence to the Weſt Indies, and other places. The beſt comes from the neighbourhood of a place called Brenia, from whence they export above 12,000 pipes a year. There are here four fine ſugar-engines.

REMARKS.

Theſe iſlands of the Canaries, beſides the rich product and commerce of them, are of great uſe to the Spaniards by their ſituation. Here the Spaniſh fleets of galleons and flotas from Old Spain to New generally rendezvous, when outward bound, for freſh water and freſh proviſions, and wine, whereby they have a conſiderable help forward in their voyage; and, at their return, they appoint to rendezvous here, to meet with news from Europe, to know if it be peace or war, and whether they ſhall proceed for Cadiz, wait for convoy, or go for the north to make other ports for ſecurity: and ſometimes, in caſe of war in Europe, a ſquadron of men of war is ſent hither to meet and ſecure them. The iſlands are not ſo well furniſhed, indeed, to ſecure the galleons and rich fleets from Spain, becauſe, eſpecially at Teneriff, where the ſhips ordinarily meet, they have no good harbour to receive and defend the ſhipping; nor is the road, which is open, the beſt of its kind: but the general remedy of the ſailors, in caſe of a threatening ſtorm, or an enemy, is to go off to ſea, where they have ſea-room to help to ſtruggle with, or to run for the Azores, or other iſlands, where pretty good harbours are to be had.

They have ſome tolerable fortifications on ſhore, and ſome good batteries of guns planted on proper landing-places, which are one of their ſecurities. But the ſtrength of theſe iſlands conſiſts chiefly in this, that no troops care to make any effort upon the land, leſt, while they are on ſhore, the wind ſhould freſhen at ſea, and the ſhips be obliged to go off, and leave them; in which caſe they are ſure to be diſtreſſed for want of proviſions, and, perhaps, to be all loſt.

Theſe iſlands yield a pretty conſiderable revenue to the king of Spain yearly in wine, of which the quality is not only extraordinary, but the quantity large. In regard to other products in general, they are ſometimes not competent for the ſuſtenance of the iſlanders, who, therefore, are frequently under the neceſſity of being ſupplied with corn from Spain, or New England.

CANDIDATE. We have no other word in our language to expreſs what the French ſtile aſpirant. It ſignifies, in general, one who ſets up for any place, poſt or office; but it is ſaid more particularly, in France, of apprentices, who would become maſters, or freemen, either in one of the ſix bodies of merchants, or in any of the other companies of arts and trades: that is, they are candidates for the freedom of any peculiar company.

CANDIDATE to the freedom, in any of the ſix bodies of traders at Paris, is he, who being of a proper age, and having completed the time of his apprenticeſhip, and ſerved afterwards with a maſter as a journeyman, according to the police of France, would become a maſter himſelf, and take up his freedom.

No man can be admitted to his freedom in any of the bodies of merchants, unleſs he is full 20 years old, and produce the indenture and certificates of his apprenticeſhip, and of the ſervice he afterwards performed with his maſters. If the contents of the certificates ſhould not prove true, the candidate would loſe his right to the freedom, and the maſter who gave ſuch a certificate would be condemned to a fine of 500 livres, and the other certifiers to 300 livres each.

The candidate is to be examined upon book-keeping by ſingle and double entry, upon notes and bills of exchange, upon the rules of arithmetic, the qualities of the merchandizes, ſo far as they relate to that branch of trade he intends to follow; and every other eſſential requiſite proper to manifeſt his ſkill and accompliſhment for the buſineſs he would follow.

For the better regulation hereof, all private perſons and companies are forbidden to accept or receive from the candidates any preſents, or any other fees, but ſuch as are appointed by the ſtatutes, under what pretence or colour ſoever it might be, under penalty of a fine, which cannot be leſs than 100 livres. The candidate is alſo forbidden to give any feaſt or treat, upon pain of having his reception declared abſolutely void.

Beſides theſe general rules, extracted from the third, fourth, and fifth articles of the firſt title of the ordonnance made in France, in the year 1673, every one of the ſix bodies of merchants has ſome rules, or ſtatutes, peculiar to themſelves, either with regard to the time of the apprenticeſhip, or to the number of years a young man is to ſerve with a maſter as a journeyman; and, laſtly, with regard to the maſter-piece of workmanſhip, to which ſome are ſubject before they can be admitted; and, as they are not mentioned in the ordonnance, we preſume it will be acceptable to the reader to find them here, that he may ſee, at one view, all the obligations to which a candidate to ſuch freedom is liable, in any of the ſix bodies of merchants.

In the body of drapers, which is eſteemed the firſt of the ſix companies, the candidates are not obliged to the performance of any maſter piece of workmanſhip to ſhew their qualification; it is enough that they ſerved a merchant-draper three whole years as apprentices, and two years, after the end of their apprenticeſhip, as clerks, or journeymen, which make five years in all.

Though the apothecaries, grocers, druggiſts, confectioners, and wax-chandlers, make but one body, which is the ſecond of the ſix, yet the candidates are obliged to the performance of different things, according to the particular profeſſion they would follow in that body.

They who would be apothecaries, for example, are obliged to have been four years apprentices, and have ſerved ſix years more with the maſters, which make in all 10 years; beſides which, they are ſtrictly examined, and under the neceſſity of giving ſatisfactory teſtimony of their abilities for the profeſſion.

As for thoſe who would follow the buſineſs of grocers, druggiſts, wax-chandlers, or confectioners, they are obliged but to three years apprenticeſhip, and to ſerve the maſters three other years in the capacity of a journeyman, in all ſix years; and they are not bound to any maſter piece.

In the body of the merchant-jewellers, which is the third, the candidates are not obliged to perform a maſter-piece; it is enough, to obtain their freedom, that they ſerved a maſter-jeweller three years as apprentices, and three years more as journeymen, in all ſix years.

In the body of the merchant-furriers, or fell-mongers, which is the fourth, the candidates muſt prove their apprenticeſhip, and that they have afterwards ſerved with maſters: they muſt have ſerved four full years as apprentices, and four years as journeymen, in all eight years, and are obliged to the performance of a maſter-piece.

They who would take up their freedom in the body of the hoſiers, which is the fifth company, ought to have been apprentices five years, and to have ſerved five other years as journeymen, in all 10 years, and muſt undergo the maſter-piece.

Laſtly, they who would be made free of the ſixth and laſt body of merchants, which is that of the gold and ſilverſmiths, muſt prove their apprenticeſhips, and the time they ſerved as journeymen; the former is to be of eight years, and the latter of two years, 10 years in all: beſides which, they are obliged to make a maſter-piece, and to give ſecurity for 1000 livres. See APPRENTICE.

The Candidates to the freedom, in the companies of arts and trades, have alſo their rules and ſtatutes, relating to the time of the apprenticeſhip, to that of ſerving as journeymen, to the maſter-piece, &c. but almoſt all of them are different, according to the ſeveral profeſſions, and to the works made in them. See the articles where the ſeveral companies are mentioned, with the ſubſtance of their reſpective ſtatutes.

CANDLE, a ſmall taper of tallow, wax, or ſperma-ceti, the wick of which is commonly of ſeveral threads of cotton, ſpun and twiſted together.

A tallow candle, to be good, muſt be half ſheep's, or ewe's tallow, or rather goat's tallow, and half ox, or cow's, tallow, melted together and well purified. It is prohibited by the regulations in France to mix any other tallow or greaſe with them, and particularly hog's tallow, which laſt makes the candles gutter, and always gives an offenſive ſmell, with a black thick ſmoke, which is highly pernicious.

There is at Paris, as alſo in ſeveral of the chief cities in France, a company of tallow-chandlers, erected into a corporation, to whom alone it is lawful to deal in candles, either in the making or ſelling them.

Beſides the freemen of this company, who are obliged to undergo an apprenticeſhip, and to perform a maſter piece, there are, alſo, at Paris, 12 privileged tallow-chandlers, following the court, who are admitted by the high provoſt of the hotel, and have the right, with the other freemen of the company, to make and ſell all ſorts of candles.

There has been, for a long time, at Paris, a famous manufacture of candles, ſet up in St. Anthony's ſuburb, by the Sieur Le Brez: but, the time of privilege which he had obtained being expired, the making of theſe candles is become part of the trade of the company of tallow-chandlers, who have now the right to make them. However, the Sieur Le Brez, who

is free of that company, ſtill continues that trade, with good ſucceſs, having this advantage over the other tallow-chandlers, that his candles are eſteemed much better for their whiteneſs, for their firmneſs of the tallow, and for the brightneſs of the light they give.

There are two ſorts of tallow-candles, the one dipped, and the other moulded. The former are the common candles, the invention and uſe of which are very ancient in France; the others are the candles of the Sieur Le Brez's manufacture, mentioned above, who either invented, or improved and perfected them.

The method of making candles in general.

After the tallow has been weighed, and mixed in the proportions ſet forth in the ordonnances, or regulations, mentioned in the beginning of this article, it is cut into very ſmall pieces, that it may melt the ſooner; for the tallow in lumps, as the chandlers receive it from the butchers, is too difficult to melt, and would be in danger of burning, or turning black, if it were left too long over the fire.

When the tallow is perfectly melted, and well ſkimmed, they pour a certain quantity of water into it, proportionable to the quantity of tallow. This ſerves to precipitate to the bottom of the veſſel the impurities of the tallow, which may have eſcaped the ſkimmer. Obſerve, however, that there muſt be no water thrown into the tallow deſigned for the three firſt dips, becauſe the wick, being ſtill quite dry, would imbibe the water, which makes the candles crackle in burning, and renders them of bad uſe.

The tallow, thus melted, is poured into a tub, through a coarſe ſieve of horſe-hair, to purify it ſtill more. At the lower part of the tub there is a copper or braſs top, two or three inches above the bottom, by which the liquid tallow is drawn out on occaſion.

The tallow, thus prepared, may be uſed after it has ſettled about three hours; it will continue hot, and in a condition to be uſed, during 24 hours in ſummer, and 15 or 16 in winter; but, when the weather is too cold, care muſt be taken to keep it warm, either by covering it, or putting it near the fire.

Before they begin to melt the tallow, they are uſed to prepare a quantity of wicks, ſufficient to take up all the tallow they intend to melt.

The wicks are made of ſpun-cotton, which the tallow-chandlers buy in ſkains, and which they wind up into bottoms, or clues.

The bottoms of cotton made for the wicks of candles, commonly weigh half a pound; the wicks conſiſt of two, three, or four threads, according to the quality and ſize of the candles, it being equally prohibited by the ordonnances of France to make the wicks too thick or too thin.

By the 9th and 10th of Anne, certain duties are granted in England on Candles and Sope.

Makers of candles are not to uſe melting-houſes without due entry thereof at the Exciſe-Office, on pain of 100 l. And to give notice of making candles to the exciſe officer for the duties, and of the number, &c. or ſhall forfeit 50 l. Removing the candles before weighed by the officer, or mixing them with others, &c. is liable to penalties. See the article CAMBODIA, a note there about CANDLES.

CANDLE. A ſale, or auction, by inch of candle, is when a ſmall piece of candle being lighted, the by-ſtanders are allowed to bid for the merchandize which is ſelling; but, the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the laſt bidder.

CANDO, CANDI, or CONDI, a long meaſure uſed in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt-Indies, and particularly at Goa, the capital city of the ſettlements which the Portugueze ſtill enjoy there.

The cando of Goa is 17 Dutch ells and $\frac{7}{8}$, per 100, longer than the ells of Babel and Baſſora, and 6 $\frac{1}{2}$ than the varre, or ell of Ormus.

Silk and woollen ſtuffs are meaſured by the varre, and linens by the cando. The cando, or condo, uſed in the kingdom of Pegu, is equal to the ell of Venice.

CANE, a walking-ſtick. That which we intend to give an account of at preſent, is called by the Dutch rolting. It is a reed brought from the Eaſt-Indies. There is a great trade of them at Paris and at London. It is cuſtomary to adorn them with a head of gold, ſilver, agate, ivory, amber, and even ſometimes inriched with precious ſtones, and, frequently, the head is only of ſome ſort of wood. Sometimes, inſtead of a head, they put a ſpying-glaſs on the top of the cane.

Some are without knots, and very ſmooth and even; that is, when the reed was grown ſo long that the diſtance between two knots was large enough to make a cane. Others are full of knots, about two inches diſtant from each other; theſe laſt have very little elaſticity, and will not bend ſo well as the others.

Laſtly, there are canes made of ſeveral ſorts of precious wood, as ebony, St. Lucia's wood, roſe-wood, &c. Theſe, indeed, are nothing but ſticks, but, as they ſerve for the ſame purpoſes as canes, they have got that name.

CANES of Bengal. The moſt beautiful canes which the Europeans bring into England and France, &c. come from Bengal. Some of them are ſo fine, that people work them into veſſels, or bowls, which, being varniſhed over in the inſide, with black or yellow lacca, or of ſome other colour, will hold liquors, as well as glaſs, or China ware does, and the Indians uſe them for the ſame purpoſes.

Theſe bowls are made much after the ſame manner as thoſe fine oſier baſkets that they make in France and in Flanders, and which are very much eſteemed on account of the delicacy of the workmanſhip.

There are canes, alſo, that are ſlit into narrow bits, and ſerve to make rattans, which were formerly greatly uſed in the making of cane-chairs, and hoops for the ladies, in ſeveral parts of Europe.

CANE is alſo a long meaſure, which ſerves to meaſure bodies extended in length, as cloths, ſerges, linens, and other ſuch merchandizes. It is longer or ſhorter, according to the ſeveral countries and places where it is uſed.

At Montpelier, and in all Lower Languedoc, as alſo in Provence, in the country of Avignon, and in Dauphiné, the cane is 6 feet and $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch long, which make an ell and $\frac{2}{3}$ of Paris: ſo that three canes of Montpelier make 5 ells of Paris. This cane isſubdivided into eight ſpans, or palms.

In order to reduce the canes of Montpelier into Paris ells, the common rule of proportion is thus uſed; ſaying, If 3 canes of Montpelier make 5 ells of Paris, what will any other number of canes of Montpelier make in Paris ells? If, on the contrary, you would reduce Paris ells into canes of Montpelier, you muſt ſay, If 5 ells of Paris make three canes of Montpelier, how many canes of Montpelier will ſo many ells of Paris make? This method may ſerve, alſo, to reduce the canes of other places into Paris ells, and the ells of Paris into the canes of thoſe places.

Obſerve, that the uſe of the cane has been prohibited in Languedoc and Dauphiné, by two decrees of the king's council of ſtate, given the 24th of June, and the 27th of October, 1678; and that, according to thoſe decrees, they muſt uſe in thoſe provinces the Paris ell, inſtead of the cane, in the buying and ſelling of ſtuffs.

At Naples the cane is of 6 feet 10 inches and $\frac{1}{6}$, which make an ell and $\frac{5}{17}$ of Paris; ſo that 17 canes of Naples make 32 ells of Paris.

The cane of Thouloufe, and of all Upper Languedoc, and even of ſome cities in Guienne, is equal to the varre of Arragon; it is of five feet five inches and a half, which make an ell and a half of Paris; ſo that two canes of Thouloufe make three ells of Paris.

CANE is alſo ſaid of that which has been meaſured with a cane, as a cane of cloth, a cane of muſlin, &c.

CANE, a ſugar cane, is the reed with the juice of which ſugar is made. See SUGAR.

CANICA, a ſort of ſpice, which grows in the iſland of Cuba. It is a kind of wild cinnamon, but its taſte is more like that of cloves than of cinnamon. It is alſo uſed in medicine, where they ſubſtitute it in the room of caſſia. It is a pretty ſaleable commodity in the Spaniſh iſlands.

CANNON, a piece of ordnance made of metal, of a cylindrical form, and bored through its whole length, which is loaded with powder and ball, to ſerve in attacking of ſtrong places, in battles, either by ſea or by land. There are in France ſeveral royal founderies for the caſting of cannon. See FOUNDERY.

Cannon, and other pieces of ordnance, as well as their carriages, and all that ſerve to load or fire them, are contraband goods, the exportation of which is prohibited through the whole extent of the kingdom, territories, and dominions of the French king, according to the ordonnance of the year 1687, under the penalty of forfeiting the goods, paying a fine, and ſuffering other puniſhments, according to the nature of the caſe.

CANNON, with letter-founders and printers, ſignifies alſo the largeſt ſize of the letters they uſe. See LETTER-FOUNDER and PRINTER.

CANOE, a ſmall boat made of the trunk of a tree bored hollow, and ſometimes alſo of pieces of bark ſewed together. It is uſed by the natives of America to go a fiſhing in the ſea, or upon ſome expedition, either by ſea, or upon the rivers and lakes. The negroes in Guinea, and even many nations in the Eaſt-Indies, uſe alſo canoes. The French in Canada have likewiſe learnt the uſe of them, and go in canoes to the habitations of the ſavages, and carry them European commodities, which they exchange for ſkins and furs, &c. Theſe canoes are made only of the bark of trees, chiefly of birch: two men are ſufficient to manage ſuch a canoe: and, when the falls of the rivers oblige them to land, they carry the canoe and merchandizes on their ſhoulders, till they come above or below the fall, according as they go up or down the rivers or lakes. The largeſt canoes, made of the bark of trees, rarely hold above four perſons.

The canoes, made of the trunk of one tree, keep that name as long as they are ſo ſmall, that not above three or four people can go in them. When they are larger, thoſe of the Americans are called pirogues, and thoſe of Guinea cham.

The canoes of the ſavages, about Davis's-Streights, are more extraordinary. They are ſeven or eight feet long, and two broad; compoſed of ſmall ſticks of a very pliant wood, in the form of a hurdle, and covered with ſeal-ſkins: every canoe holds but one man, who ſits in a hole made in the middle of the canoe. The reader may ſee a more particular deſcription of the canoes, in the third chapter of the Decouverte d'un grand païs en l'Amerique Septentrionale, inſerted in the 9th volume of the Collection of the voyages to the North, in French.

CANTARO, a weight uſed in Italy, and particularly at Leghorn, to weigh ſome ſorts of merchandizes.

There are three ſorts of cantari, or quintals: one weighs 150 pounds, the other 151, and the third 160. The firſt ſerves to weigh allum and cheeſe; the ſecond for ſugar; and the laſt for wool and cod-fiſh. The other merchandizes are ſold by the 100 weight, or by the pound. Lead, wood of Campeachy, or logwood, or that called Brazil, &c. and other wood, are ſold by the 1000 weight. The pound of Leghorn is of 12 ounces, mark weight; and that of Paris, Amſterdam, Straſburgh, and Beſançon, where the weight is the ſame, of 16 ounces, alſo mark weight: and, at that rate, theſe three ſorts of cantari ought to yield at Paris as follows, viz.

The contaro of 150 pounds, 103 pounds and 8 ounces.

That of 151 pounds, 104 pounds and 3 ounces.

And that of 160 pounds, 110 pounds, 6 ounces, 3 drachms, and ſomething more. This laſt makes 136 pounds at Marſeilles.

CANTARO, is alſo a meaſure of contents uſed at Cochin; there are three ſorts of them, whoſe difference is only of a few pounds. They uſe the one or the other, according to the ſeveral merchandizes they would meaſure. Commonly the cantaro is of 4 rubis, and the rubi of 32 rotolis.

CANTHARIDES, a ſpecies of fly, or rather beetle.

This fly, whoſe venom is very violent, is green and ſhining: its green, however, is mixed with a little blue and yellow, of a golden colour; which makes it appear of a variable and agreeable colour; but it has ſuch an unpleaſant and diſagreeable ſmell, that it is not prudent to admire the colours to prejudice the ſmell.

The phyſicians, who compoſe ſome of their remedies with poiſons, make ſome of thoſe which are called topic medicines, with theſe venomous flies. Amongſt others, they make a plaiſter of them for the tooth-ach; they alſo enter into the compoſition of the beſt bliſters. The farriers likewiſe uſe them very much, for the cure of ſeveral diſtempers in horſes, particularly the farcy.

The country people about Paris carry thither almoſt all the cantharides, which are uſed by the apothecaries and the farriers; there are ſome, however, imported from foreign parts. Thoſe of Italy, which are bigger than the others, are not uſed in France. They uſe the ſmall ones which are ſold by the druggiſts.

When theſe flies are gathered, they kill them with the ſteam of hot vinegar, and then dry them in the ſun.

The cantharides muſt be choſen freſh, dry, and quite whole: they will not keep much above three years, without ſpoiling, and turning to duſt, and then they are good for nothing.

CANTIMARONS, or CATIMARONS, a kind of float or raft, uſed by the inhabitants of the coaſt of Coromandel to go a fiſhing, and to trade along the coaſt. They are made of three or four ſmall canoes, or of trunks of trees dug hollow, tied together with ropes of cocoa, with a triangular ſail in the middle, made of mats. The perſons who manage them are almoſt half in the water, there being only a place in the middle a little raiſed to put in their merchandizes; which laſt particular muſt be underſtood only of the trading cantimarons, and not of thoſe that go out a fiſhing.

CANVAS, a very clear unbleached cloth of hemp or flax, wove very regular in little ſquares. It is uſed for working tapeſtry with the needle, by paſſing the threads of gold, ſilver, ſilk, wool, through the intervals or ſquares.

Moſt of the canvas for tapeſtry, which is ſold at Paris, is made in the neighbourhood of Monfort l'Amours, and particularly at a place called Meſnil.

There is coarſe, middling, and fine canvas: the fineſt are generally made of flax, and the others of hemp. All the pieces of canvas are 45 ells long, Paris meaſure. But their breadth is very unequal, ſome being a quarter of an ell wide, others a quarter and a half, half an ell, half an ell and $\frac{1}{16}$, half an ell and $\frac{1}{8}$; $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ and an half of an ell, Paris meaſure. There are, however, ſome from 30 to 45 ells long, by 2 ells wide: but the weavers make none of that ſort, unleſs they are beſpoke by the merchants.

Though tapeſtry ſeems no great object of trade, yet, beſides what is uſed at Paris, and in the other great cities of France, they alſo export ſome into foreign countries, particularly into England, Poland, and ſome other places in the north of Europe.

CANVAS is alſo a coarſe cloth of hemp, unbleached, ſomewhat clear, which ſerves to cover women's ſtays, alſo to ſtiffen men's cloaths, and to make ſome other of their wearing apparel. Theſe canvaſſes are $\frac{5}{6}$ of an ell broad, and from 50 to 60 ells long, Paris meaſure: they are ſold by the current ell.

CANVAS is alſo a very coarſe cloth of hemp unbleached, which ſerves to make towels. This ſort of canvas is made in Normandy, in the neighbourhood of Alençon, and in Perche, towards Montagne. It is commonly 60 ells long, and $\frac{7}{12}$ of an ell broad, Paris meaſure.

CANVAS, or KANEFAS. Thus the Dutch call a ſort of very coarſe cloth made of hemp, very ſtrong and very cloſe, which are made in Holland, and ſerve to make ſails for ſhipping. Theſe cloths are ſold by rolls, or pieces about 28 ells long, and near $\frac{2}{3}$ of an ell wide, Paris meaſure. The French buy but few, not to ſay, none of theſe cloths of the Dutch.

REMARKS.

The frequent loſſes, ſome years ſince, of the ſails of our ſhipping, as well among the royal navy, as merchant-men, proved a great diſadvantage to the nation. This was generally allowed to be then owing to the canvas that was manufactured in England, and which came far ſhort of what we had from Holland, as to ſtrength and goodneſs. But our own canvas is lately very much improved, and the importation from Holland, in conſequence thereof, greatly diminiſhed. And this, it is to be earneſtly hoped and deſired, will ſoon be the caſe, in regard to every ſpecies of the linnen manufacture.

CAP-MERCHANT, in a trading ſhip, is the ſame officer, who is called purſer in a man of war. The French call him writer (ecrivain); he is appointed by the merchants to whom the ſhip belongs, to take care that nothing be embezzled nor ſquandered away.

By the laws of France, the cap-merchant is obliged to have a regiſter, or journal, marked with a flouriſh at the beginning and end by an officer of the admiralty, of the place from whence he is to ſail, or if there be no ſuch officer there, by two of the chief owners of the ſhip.

That regiſter contains an exact and particular inventory or account of the whole ſhip's cargo, as tackling, apparel, arms, proviſions, merchandizes, &c. In this book are likewiſe ſet down the names of all the paſſengers, if there be any; the freight that is agreed upon, the liſt of the whole crew, with their age, qualities, wages, and ſalaries; an account of what has been bought for the ſhip's uſe, ſince her departure, &c. the conſumption of proviſions and ammunition, in ſhort, all that relates to the expences of the voyage. In this regiſter, are entered all the reſolutions of the merchants, captains, pilots, and others, who have a right to vote upon emergencies; the names, ages, and qualities of thoſe who die, and if poſſible, the nature of the diſtemper that carried them off.

In a word, nothing happens or is done on board a trading veſſel, but an accurate and careful cap-merchant ſets down in his book, which cannot be kept too regularly; ſince, in caſe of need, it may be produced as a voucher before a court of juſtice.

The cap-merchant, in the above-mentioned nation, doth alſo perform the office of a recorder in criminal proceſſes, to take informations; and of a notary, to draw up and witneſs the laſt wills of thoſe who die on board, and make an inventory of what they leave.

To prevent all frauds or impoſition in this latter caſe, he is obliged to depoſit, into the records of the admiralty, the minutes, or originals of all the ſaid informations, wills, and inventories, four and twenty hours after the ſhip's return.

The cap-merchant cannot leave the ſhip till the voyage is finiſhed under the penalty of loſing all his wages, and paying an arbitrary fine.

In ſuch ſhips whoſe cargo is not conſiderable enough to bear the expence of a cap-merchant, the maſter himſelf, or the mate, if thereto requeſted by the maſter, performs the office of a cap merchant.

CAPER, is both the flower and fruit of the plant or ſhrub which is called the caper-buſh.

This plant, which is branchy and thorny, trails on the ground, and ſpreads very much in a circular manner. It delights in chinks and crevices of old walls or rocks, and in deſert barren places. It's leaves are very round. It's flower, when opened, is white, but before it blows, it is green, in the ſhape of a ſmall round olive, with a ſtalk. This bud is properly the fruit of the caper-buſh, which people preſerve in vinegar, or in ſalt, and of which there is a pretty conſiderable trade, as a pickle.

Father Le Breton, in his Deſcription of the chief plants of America, inſerted in the Memoirs of Trevoux, for the year 1732, &c. deſcribes this plant otherwiſe. It is, ſays he, a ſhrub, whoſe ſtalks or ſhanks riſe to the height of ſeven or eight feet; the bark is dyed with violet or purple; the leaves are large, firm, ſhining, nervous, wrinkled, and dry. The flower conſiſts of four leaves, expanded in the form of a ſmall roſe, the middle of which is filled with a tuft of ſtamina. The top of the piſtil is ſhaped like a peſtle, and becomes a fruit in form of a ſiliqua, near a foot long, which opens lengthways from one end to the other. The ſeeds, which are ſhaped like a kidney, are covered with a mucilaginous ſubſtance,

ſubſtance, proper to clean linnen; for it makes the water lather like unto ſoap*.

* May it not deſerve the attention of our linnen manufacturers, in Scotland and Ireland, to think of materials for the bleaching of linnen that will come cheaper than what they at preſent uſe? See BLEACHING. LINNENS.

CAPHAR, a duty which the Turks raiſe on the Chriſtians, who carry or ſend merchandizes from Aleppo to Jeruſalem, and other places in Syria. This duty of caphar was firſt impoſed by the chriſtians themſelves, when they were in poſſeſſion of the holy land, for the maintenance of the troops which were planted in difficult paſſes, to obſerve the Arabs, and prevent their incurſions: but the Turks, who have continued and increaſed that duty, make an ill uſe of it, taking occaſion from thence to affront the chriſtian travellers and merchants, extorting arbitrary and conſiderable ſums from them to defend them, as they pretend, againſt the Arabs; with whom nevertheleſs they keep up a ſecret intelligence, favouring their excurſions, pillage, and plunder.

CAPITAL, amongſt merchants, bankers, and traders, ſignifies the ſum of money which individuals bring to make up the common ſtock of a partnerſhip, when it is firſt formed. It is alſo ſaid of the ſtock which a merchant at firſt puts into trade, for his account. It ſignifies likewiſe the fund of a trading company or corporation, in which ſenſe the word ſtock is generally added to it. Thus we ſay, the capital ſtock of the bank, *&c.* The word capital is oppoſed to that of profit or gain, tho' the profit often increaſes the capital, and becomes itſelf part of the capital, when joined with the former.

CAPLAN, a ſort of ſmall fiſh, which abounds in thoſe places where they fiſh for cod: there is particularly great plenty of it on the coaſt of Placentia in Newfoundland. They uſe it to bait the hooks of the lines, with which they fiſh for cod.

CAPSTAN, CAPSTANE, or CAPSTERN, is an engine compoſed of a roller, or cylinder, placed perpendicularly to the horizon, and ſupported by ſtrong pieces of timber. The capſtan on ſhip-board, by means of a cable that winds round the cylinder, and of two leavers or bars, which are put acroſs the head of it, and moved by men, ſerves to draw or heave up the weightieſt burthens, which are faſtened to the end of the rope.

The chief uſe of capſtans on board ſhips, is to tow them and to weigh the anchors.

They ſerve alſo upon large boats on the river Seine, to tow them againſt the ſtream through bridges, by faſtening the end of the cable to the iron-rings, which are commonly fixed in the middle of the bridges. The capſtan is alſo uſed to take out of veſſels very large pieces of marble, or free-ſtone, and convey them to the places where they are to be wrought, when they are too large, and too heavy to be put into carts.

CAPTAIN of Merchantmen. See COMMANDERS of Merchantmen.

CARACOLI, a kind of metal, of which the Caribbees, or natives of the Leſſer Antilles, make a ſort of ornament, in the form of a creſcent, which they call caracoli. This metal comes from the main land, and the common opinion is, that it is a compound of ſilver, copper, and gold, ſomething like the Corinthian braſs of old. Theſe metals are ſo perfectly mixed and incorporated together, that the compound which reſults from them, it is ſaid, has a colour that never alters, how long ſoever it remains in the ſea, or under ground. It is ſomething brittle, and they who work it are obliged to mix a large proportion of gold with it, to make the compound more tough and malleable under the hammer.

The Engliſh and French ſilverſmiths have made ſeveral experiments thereon, in order to imitate this metal; they who come neareſt to it, put to ſix parts of ſilver three of copper, and one of gold: The ſkilful found this imitated mixture, though very fine, yet much inferior to that among the ſavages.

Father Labat, from whoſe relation this article is extracted, is of opinion that the caracoli is a ſimple metal as produced from the mines, and afterwards refined. They make with it in the French American iſlands rings, buckles, heads for canes, and ſuch other ſmall works.

CARAGI. Thus they call, in the Grand Signior's dominions, the duties of importation and exportation paid on merchandizes.

It muſt be obſerved, that the duty of importation is paid but once, and only at the cuſtom-houſe where the merchandizes are firſt unloaded. If they be not ſold, the importer, or owner, is at liberty to carry them to any other place, where, by producing the firſt receipt for the duty paid, he is free from any other cuſtom-houſe duty.

CARAGI, is alſo the name of the cuſtom-houſe officers who receive the duties. The general or chief officer, or director, of the cuſtom-houſe, is called caragi-bachi.

CARAGROUCH, a ſilver coin of the empire, weighing nine drachms, which does not amount to quite a French crown of three livres Tournois. It goes at Conſtantinople for 120 aſpers: there are four ſorts of them, which are all equally current, and of the ſame value.

CARAMANGOE, a drug which comes from China, and is proper to be uſed in medicine. The Tonquineſe value it very much. That which the Chineſe carry into Tonquin coſts them at Canton but ſix taels and two mas; and they ſell it again for 12 taels and five mas.

CARANNA, or KARANNA, a very ſcarce gum, which comes from New Spain. The trees from which it runs are like the palm-tree. When it is freſh, it is white, but, as it grows ſtale, it becomes greyiſh, inclining to green, in which condition it is ſent into Europe, where the white is ſeldom to be met with. It is brought in lumps, wrapped up in reed-leaves, or blades. To be of the beſt quality, it muſt be ſoft, and of a pleaſant aromatic ſmell, and as white as ſnow. As this gum is very dear, it is ſeldom ſold unadulterated, and other ſorts are often ſubſtituted in it's ſtead, which have not the ſame properties. When applied to the head, it has an extraordinary virtue to relieve it from pain, which renders it highly valuable. It produces the ſame effects in the joints, and is ſo much eſteemed in medicine, that it is become a proverb in pharmacy to ſay, Whatever the tacamahaca has not cured, the caranna will.

The Americans make a balm of it, which they pretend is a ſovereign remedy for the cure of wounds, and the hæmorrhoids or piles.

CARAPACE, a thick, ſolid, and firm ſhell, which covers the turtle, or tortoiſe, and to which adhere thoſe fine tranſparent ſhells which are known under the name of tortoiſe-ſhell, and of which ſnuff-boxes and ſeveral ſorts of inlaid works are made.

CARAT, or CARACT, is the common name of the weight which repreſents what degree of fineneſs gold is of.

The mint-maſter, or cuſtom, have fixed the purity, or perfection of gold, at 24 carats, though it is not poſſible ſo to purify and refine that metal but it will ſtill want about one fourth part of a carat in abſolute purity and perfection; that is to ſay, gold cannot be ſo refined but there will remain ſuch a proportion of inferior metal, or allay, therein. See ALLAY, and BULLION GOLD and SILVER.

The carat is divided into $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, and $\frac{1}{32}$. Theſe degrees ſerve to diſtinguiſh the greater or leſſer quantity of allay therein contained. For inſtance, gold of 22 carats is that which has two parts of ſilver, or of any other metal, and 22 of fine gold. See the articles ALLAY, AQUA REGIA, BULLION, GOLD, REFINING; under which heads, the whole buſineſs relating to all kinds of dealings in gold will be amply explained and illuſtrated, from it's firſt refining from the native ore to it's various uſes in all ſhapes whatſoever.

CARAT, which the Spaniards call Quilate, is alſo a certain weight, which goldſmiths and jewellers uſe, wherewith to weigh precious ſtones and pearls. This carat weighs four grains, but ſomething lighter than the grains of marc-weight. Each of theſe grains is ſubdivided into $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, &c. and upon that footing the price of pearls and precious ſtones is rated and fixed. Tavernier aſſerts, that the Grand Mogul's famous diamond, which is reckoned the biggeſt in the world, weighs 279 carats and $\frac{9}{16}$.

In Spain the carat, or quilate, is alſo of four grains: three carats make a tomin, eight tomins a caſtillan, ſix caſtillans and two tomins one ounce, and eight ounces a marc: but the marc of Spain is about $\frac{1}{7}$ lighter than that of France.

CARAVAN, or CARAVANNE, in the Eaſt, ſignifies a company, or aſſembly, of travellers and pilgrims, and more particularly of merchants, who, for their greater ſecurity, and in order to aſſiſt each other, travel together through the deſerts, and other dangerous places, which are infeſted with Arabs, or robbers. This is the true origin of theſe aſſociations.

There is a chief, or aga, who commands the caravan, and is attended by a certain number of janiſaries, or other militia, according to the countries from whence the caravans ſet out; which number of ſoldiers muſt be ſufficient to defend them, and conduct them with ſafety to the places for which they are deſigned, and on a day appointed. The caravan encamps every evening, near ſuch wells or brooks as their guides are acquainted with; and there is as ſtrict a diſcipline obſerved upon this occaſion as in armies in times of war.

Their beaſts of burden are horſes, but moſt commonly camels, who are capable of undergoing a very great fatigue, eat but little, and, above all, can be three, four, five, ſix, or even ſeven days, without drinking, to which they are broke, when very young.

REMARKS.

Of the caravans of Africa.

The caravan of Nubia goes twice a year into Egypt. It paſſes through Gary, a place on the left bank of the Nile, three or four days journey on this ſide of Dongola. There the merchants of Sannar, the capital of Fungi, thoſe of Gondar, the capital of Ethiopia, and many others from divers parts of Africa, meet at a certain time, when they know the caravan is to arrive. Then, ſetting out from Gary, the caravan leaves the banks of the Nile, and, croſſing the deſerts of Lybia, arrives, after a march of 13 days, into a valley, which

is 30 leagues long. This valley, which extends almoſt from north to ſouth, is planted with palm-trees, and very well cultivated, becauſe there is good water to be found by digging only one foot deep in the ground.

After ſome days reſt in this agreeable place, the caravan marches a whole day between ſteep mountains, in an even but narrow road; after which it arrives in a narrow paſs, through which it croſſes that chain of mountains which runs along the Nile on the ſide of Lybia, and comes at laſt to Manfelout, a town in Upper Egypt, where the duties to the prince are paid in black ſlaves, and where the caravan meets the Nile again, for the firſt time from it's ſetting out from Gary.

The firſt danger in ſo difficult a march is, that the caravan being to croſs immenſe plains of ſand, where it is impoſſible to obſerve or diſcover the leaſt track of a road, if the guides ſhould happen to loſe their way in thoſe unknown countries, the proviſion of water, neceſſary to conduct them directly to the place where they are to find more, muſt infallibly fail them by ſuch a delay, which is frequently of ſeveral days journey. In ſuch a caſe, the mules and horſes die with fatigue and thirſt in thoſe burning deſerts; and even the camels, notwithſtanding their extraordinary power to ſubſiſt without water, ſoon meet with the ſame fate; and the people of the caravan, wandering in thoſe frightful deſerts, generally periſh alſo.

The danger is infinitely greater ſtill, when a ſouth wind happens to riſe in thoſe ſandy places. The leaſt damage it occaſions is to dry up the leather budgets in which is kept the proviſion of water for the journey. This wind, which the Arabs ſtile poiſoned, does often ſtifle, in a moment, thoſe who have the misfortune to be then travelling: to prevent which they are obliged to throw themſelves immediately on the ground, putting their faces cloſe to the burning ſand, which ſurrounds them on all ſides, and covering their heads with ſome linnen for that purpoſe, leſt, by breathing, they ſhould ſwallow infallible death, which this wind diſſeminates every where within it's power of circulation.

Notwithſtanding thoſe dangers, trade, and the deſire of gain, makes a multitude of people run thoſe hazards, in order to become opulent by their traffic.

There arrives likewiſe at Cairo, every year, a numerous caravan from Tripoli, to which the merchants of Algiers, Tunis, and Morocco join themſelves, as well as thoſe who would go in pilgrimage to Mecca, though devotion be not the only motive of their journey. This caravan is much leſs numerous on it's return, becauſe the greateſt part of thoſe merchants who went by land, with only money, or very fine merchandizes for ſale, having employed their effects at Mecca in buying Indian commodities, which are bulky, embark at Alexandria, and return by ſea to Algiers.

There come likewiſe every year into Egypt ſeveral caravans from Syria, but the time of their arrival, or of their ſetting out, is not fixed. The journey of thoſe caravans is neither ſo difficult nor ſo dangerous as thoſe of the others, becauſe the deſerts which ſeparate theſe two countries, are croſſed in three days, and water here is not ſcarce. They meet even on that road with ſeveral caravanſeras, in which the travellers and their cattle are furniſhed gratis with all neceſſaries: ſo that theſe caravans enjoy all poſſible conveniences, eſpecially the rich people among them, who, nevertheleſs, live very ſoberly during their journey.

Theſe are the moſt famous caravans which go into Egypt, on the account of trade, according to Monſieur Mallet, in his laſt letter concerning the deſcription of Egypt.

Of the caravans of Aſia; extracted partly from Monſieur Bugnon's account.

In order to form a caravan, it is neceſſary to have the permiſſion, in writing, of a ſovereign prince, approved, and, as it were, authenticated at leaſt by two other ſovereign princes of the neighbourhood. That permiſſion muſt comprehend the number of men, carriages, and quantity of merchandizes, of which the caravan is to be compoſed. Thoſe merchants to whom the caravan belongs, appoint its officers, and regulate every thing that relates to it's policy or government during the march.

There are commonly four principal officers, namely, the caravanbachi, or head of the caravan, the captain of the march, the captain of ſtay, or reſt, and the captain of the diſtribution. The firſt has the uncontroulable command and authority over all the others, and gives them his orders; the ſecond is abſolute during the march; the third exerts his authority only when the caravan ſtops, and encamps in ſome place; the fourth orders the diſpoſition of every part of the caravan, in caſe of an attack and a battle. Beſides which, this military officer has alſo, during the march, the inſpection over the diſtribution of the proviſions, which is conducted, under his management, by ſeveral inferior officers, who are obliged to give ſecurity to the maſter of the caravan, each of them having the care of a certain number of men, elephants, dromedaries, &c. which they undertake to conduct, and furniſh with proviſions at their own riſk, according to the agreement ſtipulated.

The fifth officer of the caravan is the paymaſter, or treaſurer, who has under him a great many clerks and interpreters, who keep accurate journals of whatever happens; and it is by thoſe journals, ſigned by the ſuperior officers, that the owners of the caravan judge whether they have been well or ill ſerved and conducted.

Another kind of officers are the Arabian mathematicians, without whom no caravan will preſume to ſet out, there being commonly three of them in the large caravans. Theſe officers perform the functions both of quarter-maſters and of aids de camp, leading the troops when the caravan is attacked, and deſtining the quarters where the caravan is regulated duly to encamp.

They diſtinguiſh five ſorts of caravans; the heavy caravans, compoſed of elephants, dromedaries, camels, and horſes; the light caravans, which have but few elephants; the common caravans, where there are none of thoſe animals; the horſe-caravans, in which they uſe neither dromedaries nor camels; and, laſtly, the ſea-caravans, that is to ſay, a number of merchant-ſhips, under the convoy of ſome men of war: ſo that it may be obſerved, that the idea of a caravan is not wholly reſtrained to the land, but there are marine caravans alſo.

The proportion obſerved in the heavy caravans is as follows: when there are 500 elephants, they put 1000 dromedaries, and 2000 horſes at leaſt; and then the eſcort is compoſed of 4000 men on horſeback. There are two men required for leading one elephant, five for three dromedaries, and ſeven for eleven camels. This multitude of ſervants, together with the officers, and the paſſengers, whoſe number is not fixed, ſerve to ſupport the eſcort in caſe of a fight, and render the caravan more formidable, and, therefore, more ſecure. The paſſengers, indeed, are not, according to the laws and uſages of this mercantile cavalcade, obliged to fight; but, in caſe they refuſe it, they are not intitled to any proviſions whatever from the caravan, even though they ſhould offer to pay an extra price for them.

The officers and ſervants are paid every Monday, unleſs it be a new or full moon, in which caſe the payment is put off till the next day: they begin with paying the meaneſt of the ſervants.

Every elephant is mounted by what they call a nik, that is to ſay a lad nine or ten years old, brought up to that exerciſe, who drives the elephant, and pricks it now and then, in order to fire it, in a fight. The ſame lad loads alſo the firearms of two ſoldiers, who mount the elephant with him.

The day appointed for ſetting out is never altered.

In order to be better able to bear the great heat, the traders uſe drawers and ſtockings, made of a ſort of cotton, extracted, as ſome travellers tell us, from that kind of ſtone which the ancients called amianthus, which, being duly beaten and prepared, is proper to be ſpun, and is ſaid to be incombuſtible. See AMIANTHUS.

As moſt of the Arabian princes have no other means whereby to ſubſiſt than their robberies, they keep ſpies, who give them notice when the caravans ſet out, which they ſometimes attack with ſuperior force, aſſaulting chiefly the centre, in order to ſeparate the company, and carry off, if poſſible, the vanguard, wherein they pretty often meet with good ſucceſs. When they are repulſed, they generally come to ſome agreement, the conditions of which are pretty well performed, eſpecially if the aſſailants prove to be natives of Arabia; but, in caſe the caravan be beat, it is abſolutely plundered of all it's treaſure, and the whole convoy made ſlaves; but they ſhew a little more mercy to foreigners: ſometimes the taking of one caravan only is enough to enrich thoſe princes.

As the plague rages very often in the Eaſt, they are obliged to uſe great precautions, to prevent the caravans from carrying that dreadful diſtemper into the places through which they paſs, or from being themſelves infected therewith; wherefore, when they arrive near a town, the inhabitants and the people of the caravan have a ſolemn conference, concerning the ſtate of their health, and very ſincerely communicate to each other the ſtate of the caſe, if there be really any danger to fear on either ſide. When on either ſide they have juſt reaſon to ſuſpect any contagious diſtemper, they amicably agree that no communication whatever ſhould be ſuffered between them; and, if the caravan ſtands in need of proviſions, it is conveyed to them over the walls of the town, and that with the utmoſt precaution.

The profits made by the commerce of theſe caravans, whilſt upon the march, are often incredible; and our author relates, that, by ſeveral barters and exchanges of merchandizes, often repeated, a friend of his had gained 20,000 crowns, which had coſt him only a gold watch of 30 Louis d'ors, that he gave, in exchange for two rough diamonds, to a merchant of the caravan with which he travelled.

Theſe extraordinary profits, which are common enough, engage a great number of perſons to join with the caravans, and render the toil and inconveniencies of the journey leſs inſupportable: and, indeed, thoſe fatigues are not ſmall. Theſe travelling merchants muſt reſolve to accept every-where ſuch proviſions, and other conveniencies, as they find, and not

permit delicacy and eaſe to get the better of their deſire of honeſt gain by ſuch traffic: a trader muſt, like an heroic general, not mind the frightful confuſion of languages and nations, the fatigues of long marches, nor the exorbitant duties and impoſts paid at certain places; nor do the gallant enterprizing traders regard the audacious robberies and ſubtile tricks, to which they are expoſed among that multitude of vagabonds who frequent the caravans, with no other view but to live at the expence of the weak and incautious. Theſe laſt inconveniencies, indeed, may be prevented, at leaſt with regard to the moſt precious merchandizes, by putting them into the ſtrong and curious trunk of the caravan, which, like many in Europe, have variety of curious locks that cannot be opened but by thoſe who know the knack of them.

There ſet out from Erzerum, the capital of that part of Armenia which is under the dominion of the Grand Signior, a great many caravans, ſome more, ſome leſs numerous: there are ſome which conſiſt of Armenians only; ſuch are thoſe which carry ſilks to Tocat, and to Conſtantinople: theſe commonly ſet out in September.

The caravans of Siberia, at preſent, enter into the territories of China, by Selinginſkoy, ſituated in the 52d degree of north latitude, on the eaſtern bank of the river Selinga, by virtue of the laſt treaty of commerce between Ruſſia and the emperor of China; whereas formerly they uſed to paſs through Nerzinſkoy and Argun. We ſhall ſpeak of theſe caravans in the account of the commerce of Muſcovy.

There are alſo ſea caravans, eſtabliſhed for the ſame reaſons, and the ſame uſes, for inſtance, that of Conſtantinople for Alexandria. See the articles PERSIA, TURKY, and other places in the eaſt where they uſe caravans; ſee alſo CAFFILA.

CARAVANIER, is he who leads the camels, and other beaſts of burden, which are commonly uſed in the caravans in the Eaſt.

CARAVANSERA, or KARAVANSERA, a place appointed for receiving and loading the caravans. It is commonly a large ſquare building, in the middle of which there is a very ſpacious court. Under the arches, or piazza's, that ſurround it, there runs a bank, or elevation, raiſed ſome feet above the ground, where the merchants, and thoſe who travel with them in any capacity, take up their lodging, as well as they can, the beaſts of burden, being tied to the foot of the bank. Over the gates that lead into the court, there are ſometimes little rooms, which the keepers of the caravanſeras let out, at a very high price, to ſuch as have a mind to be private.

The caravanſeras in the Eaſt are ſomething in the nature of our capital inns in Europe, with this difference, however, that, in the caravanſeras you meet with little acommodations or proviſions, either for man or beaſt, but are obliged to carry almoſt every thing with you.

Moſt of theſe buildings are owing to the charity of the Mahometans; and the greateſt lords, either out of devotion, or vanity, ſpend prodigious ſums in founding them, eſpecially if they happen to be in dry, ſandy, and deſert places, whither the water is to be conveyed from a great diſtance, at a vaſt expence; for there is never a caravanſera without a well or ſpring of water.

There are few large towns in the Eaſt, eſpecially in the dominions of the Grand Signior, the king of Perſia, and the Grand Mogul, but have ſome of thoſe buildings. The caravanſeras of Conſtantinople, Iſpahan, and Agra, the capitals of the empires of Turky, Perſia, and Mogul, are the moſt famous, with regard both to their number and magnificence.

In theſe the foreign merchants have moſt of their warehouſes; for in theſe three cities there are ſeveral caravanſeras, which, beſides the common conſtruction, as above deſcribed, have ſeveral ſafe and convenient apartments, both for the merchants and their merchandizes.

The emperor Mahomet IV. cauſed ſuch caravanſeras to be built at ſome diſtance from one another between Conſtantinople and Damaſcus, and appointed conſiderable revenues for their maintenance. There all travellers, be they Chriſtians, Jews, or Mahometans, are equally well received.

There are alſo at Cairo in Egypt, very fine caravanſeras, which are always full of merchandizes and people; this is a motive that engages the great lords of that country to build ſuch edifices, becauſe they afford them no inconſiderable revenues.

The Nubians, Abyſſinians, and other nations of Africa, who reſort to Cairo, have there each their particular caravanſera, where they always lodge. The ſame muſt be obſerved of the merchants of Aleppo, Damaſcus, Conſtantinople, and other trading towns. Theſe caravanſeras are eſteemed ſacred dwellings, where it is not permitted to inſult any perſon, or to pillage any of the effects, which are depoſited there. They even carry their precautions ſo far, as not to ſuffer any man who is not married to lodge there, becauſe they are of opinion, that a man who has no wife is more dangerous than another. It is to the intereſt of the proprietors of theſe ſort of caravanſeras, that the travellers are indebted for the good order and ſecurity they meet with: this is what Monſ. Mallet tells us.

The caravanſeras of Schiras and Caſbin, two conſiderable towns in Perſia, have alſo a very great reputation, and little inferior to thoſe of the capital.

Beſides the caravanſeras which in the Eaſt ſerve inſtead of great inns, and furniſh accommodations for the merchants, there are ſome alſo at Iſpahan, which may be ſtiled bazars, or arched halls, where there are ſhops and warehouſes, wherein ſeveral ſorts of merchandize, and delicate pieces of workmanſhip are expoſed to ſale in the day-time, and locked up at night; and for which the keeper of the caravanſera anſwers, in conſideration of a certain fee or perquiſite.

The caravanſeraſker (thus the keeper thereof is called) does alſo keep an account of all the merchandizes that are ſold upon truſt; for he is obliged to book them regularly in his regiſter, with the names of the buyers and ſellers. He alſo is to demand the payment of the ſums due to the merchants for what has been ſold in the caravanſera, on the ſeller's paying two per cent.

CARAVANSERASKEER, the ſteward or keeper of a caravanſera. See the foregoing article.

CARBEQUI, or ASPER of COPPER, a coin which is current in the province of Georgia in Aſia, particularly at Teflis, the capital of it; 40 carbequi's make an abagi, and 10 carbequi's a chaburi. See ABAGI.

CARBUNCLE, a name ſometimes given to a red precious ſtone, more commonly called a ruby. But it is never called a carbuncle, when it's weight does not exceed 20 carats.

The ancients believed, and have written ſo many extraordinary, romantic, and incredulous tales, relating to the factitious carbuncle, as they called it; and the moderns, who have ſpoke of it on their authority, have added ſo many idle inventions of their own, ariſing from a warm, prepoſſeſſed, and enthuſiaſtic imagination, that, rather than deſcribe them, it conſiſts more with the tenour of this work to omit all ſuch relations.

CARD, a ſort of inſtrument or comb, compoſed of a great number of ſmall pieces, or points of iron wire, a little incurvated like hooks towards the middle, and faſtened very cloſely together by the feet, in rows. A piece of thick leather, which keeps them fait, is nailed by the edges on a flat piece of wood, which is an oblong ſquare, about a foot long, and near half a foot broad, with a handle placed in the middle, on the edge of the longeſt ſide: there are always two cards between which are put the materials that are to be worked.

Theſe cards are of very great uſe in the manufactories, where they ſerve to comb, diſentangle, and arange the wool and ſuch other materials, in order to put them in a condition to be ſpun, by the manufacturers of cloths, ſtuff, ſtockings, hair, &c. or to be uſed unſpun in ſeveral other works, in much the ſame manner as the wool and the hair, which the hatters employ in the manufacturing of hats.

The trade of theſe cards made in France is very conſiderable. They alſo import a great many, and pretty good ones, from foreign countries, eſpecially from Holland; theſe are ſmaller than thoſe that are made in France, but are very much eſteemed.

The beſt cards made in France, are thoſe at Paris, where the carders only mount them, the wood on which they are mounted, being ſent thither from Troyes in Champagne.

After thoſe of Paris, the cards of Roan and Dreux are reckoned the beſt: the other places in France where they are made, are Remorentin, Bourges, Aubigny in Richemont. Yvoyeles-prez in Berry, Orleans, Troye, Elbeuf, Chateauroux, Beauvais, Tours, Poictiers and St. Maixant.

REMARKS.

Cards for wool, in England, may not be imported, nor the wire taken out of old cards be put into new leather and boards, in order for ſale, upon forfeiture thereof, or of the value, if not ſeized.

But may be amended for the proprietors own uſe, or for tranſportation only. 3 Edw. IV. 1 Rich. III. 39 Eliz. 3 Car. I. 14 Car. II. 2 W. and M.

Carders, ſpinners, weavers, fullers, ſheermen, and dyers, not performing duty in their occupations, ſhall yield, to the party grieved, double damages, to be committed till payment. One juſtice to hear and determine complaints.

Carders, combers, ſorters, ſpinners, or weavers conveying away, imbezzling, detaining any wool or yarn, delivered by the clothier, or any other perſon, ſhall give the party grieved ſuch ſatisfaction, as two juſtices, mayor, &c. ſhall think fit; if not able, or willing to make ſatisfaction, for the firſt offence to be whipped, or ſet in the ſtocks in ſome market-town, or in any town where the offence is committed; the ſecond offence to incur the like, or ſuch further puniſhment by whipping, &c. as juſtices ſhall think proper. Conviction by one witneſs on oath, or confeſſion.

CARD, playing cards, are little pieces of fine thin paſteboard, made of ſeveral ſheets of paper paſted the one over the other, and cut afterwards into pieces in the form of an oblong ſquare of ſeveral ſizes, but moſt commonly (in England) three inches and a half long, and two and a half broad; on which are printed ſeveral points and figures. A certain number or aſſemblage of them ſerve to play ſeveral games. A full pack conſiſts of 52 cards.

A pack is always wrapt up in a piece of paper, on which are printed the name, ſign, dwelling-place, and ſometimes the motto of the maker: with the label of the ſtamp-office in England, ſignifying that the ſix-penny ſtamp duty has been paid and that there is a penalty of 10 l. for every pack ſold unlabelled.

In France they call a parcel of ſix packs un ſizain, a groſs is of 12 ſizains, or 72 packs.

The manner of making playing cards.

The moulds or blocks for theſe cards are exactly like thoſe that were uſed for the firſt books: they lay a ſheet of wet or moiſt paper on the form or block, which is firſt ſlightly done over with a ſort of ink, made with lampblack diluted in water, and mixed with ſome ſtarch to give it a body; they afterwards rub it off with a round liſt. The court-cards are coloured by means of ſeveral patters, ſtiled ſtanefiles. Theſe conſiſt of papers cut through with a penknife, and, in theſe apertures or openings, they apply ſeverally the various colours, as red, black, &c. Theſe patters are painted with oil colours, that the bruſhes may not wear them out: when the patter is laid on the paſteboard, they ſlightly paſs over it a bruſh full of colour, which, leaving it within the openings, forms the face or figure of the card.

REMARKS.

Cards and dice may, upon ſufficient ſecurity, be exported without payment of the ſtamp duty, 10 Ann. cap. 19. ſect. 170. 5 Geo. I. cap. 19. ſect. ult.

Playing-cards may not be imported, 10 Ann. cap. 19. ſect. 165.

CARDAMOMUM, or CARDAMUM, a medicinal plant and ſeed, which is aromatical, and is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle.

There are three ſorts of cardamums, the largeſt, the middle-ſized, and the ſmalleſt; which the druggiſts commonly call cardamum majus, medium, and minus. The largeſt cardamomum is nothing but the common grain, or ſeed of paradiſe, a ſort of pepper which grows at Rio Sextos, Petit Dieppe, and other parts on the coaſt of Africa. They have long uſed it in France, whilſt the pepper of the Indies was ſcarce, becauſe it came by the Mediterranean, and they could not get it at firſt hand, but by very long voyages.

The phyſicians who tried it, when it was firſt brought into France by the ſhips of Dieppe and St. Malo, found it not much different from the Indian pepper, except it's being ſharper and hotter. There is ſtill a pretty great trade of it.

The plants which produce the largeſt cardamomum, and is called by the ſame name, has green leaves. It's fruit is a kind of pod, or fig, of a pretty fine red; the ſeeds it contains is a grain of paradiſe, or ſmall pepper, for it is alſo called by that name. It is of a triangular figure, reddiſh on the outſide, and white within, of a ſharp and pungent taſte, and of an agreeable ſcent, eſpecially when it is freſh.

Some ſell it mixed with true Indian pepper. The iſle of St. Mary, near the great iſland of Madagaſcar, and Caramboul in that iſland, produce the largeſt cardamomum in very great plenty.

The leaves of the middle-ſized cardamomum are indented, end in a point, and grow three on a ſtalk, like trefoil or clover-graſs. The pods are two or three inches long, and of a triangular form, ſomewhat channelled and flattened at the end. It is a trailing plant, which does not riſe much from the ground. This kind is ſeldom ſeen in France. It is taken indifferently for the ſmalleſt ſort.

The ſmalleſt kind is gathered in the kingdom of Cananor, in the country of Malabar, on a mountain ſix or ſeven leagues diſtant from the ſea, which is ſaid by travellers to be the only place in the world, where it is to be met with. It's pods that are triangular, of a greyiſh white, a little ſtriped, are much ſmaller than thoſe of the middle-ſized, and contain a ſharp rough ſubſtance, which looks like meal, though it be really ſeed.

The ſoil where this plant grows, produces a very large income, for it requires neither plowing nor ſowing. All the trouble required is, to burn the weeds after the rains are paſt. The ſun dries them in a little time, and their aſhes are a ſufficient manure, to make the ſoil produce the cardamomum.

Almoſt all this cardamomum, which is the moſt valued and the moſt precious, is ſold and conſumed in the Eaſt, becauſe the eaſtern nations never think their rice well ſeaſoned, unleſs it be with this ſpice. Some of it, however, is brought into Europe, and the druggiſts in France buy it of the Engliſh and Dutch. The latter conſume a great deal of it, becauſe they take a delight in chewing it.

We meet with the cardamomums of Java, in the catalogues of the cargo of ſhips of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, which come from Batavia. And Nicholas de Graaf, in his voyage to the Eaſt-Indies, obſerves, that ſix cardamomum plants of Cananor do not equal one of Ceylon, where they grow very large and thick.

CARDED, as carded cotton, carded hair, carded wool, is cotton, hair, or wool, which has been worked with the inſtrument called a card. A card-full of cotton, of wool, &c. is the cotton or wool taken from both the cards, after they have been paſſed ſeveral times over each other.

CARDER, a workman who cards wool, hair, cotton, &c. At Paris, the carders are a particular company of tradeſmen. Their rules or ſtatutes are written in the thirtieth folio of the parchment book or regiſter of the ordonnances and ſtatutes, called the little cahier, or book, which is depoſited in the chamber of the king's atttorney in the Chatelet: theſe ſtatutes have been confirmed by letters patent of Lewis XI. dated the 24th of June, 1467, and increaſed, and again confirmed, by letters patent of Lewis XIV. given in September 1688, and regiſtered in the parliament the 22d of June 1691. By the rules and ſtatutes of this company, no man can be made free of it, unleſs he has been three years an apprentice, and ſerved one year more with a maſter as a journeyman: he is likewiſe obliged to perform a maſter-piece of workmanſhip, ſuch as is appointed by the jurymen of the trade, who may chuſe for that purpoſe one of the following works. 1. To make two or three cards full of wool or cotton. 2. To prepare a quarter of a pound of cotton on the hurdle, with a bow. 3. To ſpin with a ſpinning-wheel, matches proper for wax candles. 4. To card wool on the furnace. There are always, at the head of the carders company, three ſworn freemen, whoſe buſineſs is to watch and take notice of the abuſes and miſdemeanors that might be committed by any of the trade, and to defend the company's right and intereſt. Theſe jurats are choſen from year to year, that is to ſay, two in one year, and one the next, and ſo on. The laſt choſen jurats are to take care of the fraternity.

Beſides the power granted in France, to the freemen carders of Paris, by their ſtatutes, for carding and preparing wool and cotton, for cutting all ſorts of hair, for making cloth, ſpinning cotton-matches, and making cards; they have alſo, by the ſame ſtatutes, the liberty of dyeing, or cauſing to be dyed, at their own houſes, all ſorts of wool, in black, muſk-colour, and brown. But, by a decree of the council of ſtate, of the 10th of Auguſt 1700, they are forbidden to take off, cut, or card any hare's hair, and even to have the ſkins of thoſe animals in their houſes, becauſe the hatters are not allowed to uſe any hare's hair in the manufacture of hats.

CARDING, is the combing, diſentangling, and preparing wool, with the inſtruments called cards deſcribed above, that it may be fit for making the ſeveral works it is deſigned for. They alſo card wad, cotton, flax, hair, and other materials proper for ſeveral ſorts of manufactures.

Before the wool be carded, it muſt be greaſed with oil, of which one fourth part of the weight of the wool is required for that which is deſigned for making the woof of ſtuffs, and the eighth part for that of the warp.

By the regulations for the manufactures in France, made in Auguſt 1669, the clothworkers are forbidden to uſe iron teazles, to range or lay the nap or hair on the ſurface of the cloth; but they muſt uſe teazles made only with thiſtle.

CARD-MAKER, one who makes cards for carding wool, &c. See CARD and CARDER.

CARD-MAKER and SELLER, he who makes and ſells playing-cards. See CARDS, PLAYING-CARDS.

The card-makers of theſe cards, at Paris, are a pretty ancient and conſiderable company. The ſtatutes, by which they are ſtill governed, were drawn up, towards the latter end of the reign of Henry III. according to an edict of that prince, made in December 1581, by which it was ordered to reviſe and renew the ſtatutes of all the bodies and companies of arts and trades; but they were not approved and authorized before the year 1594, the ſixth year of the reign of his ſucceſſor king Henry IV. which delay was occaſioned by inteſtine diſorders and the civil wars of the League.

Theſe ſtatutes are reduced into 22 articles, to which ſome more were added in the year 1613, under the reign of Lewis XIII. and in 1681 under Lewis XIV.

By the firſt article it is ordered, That no man ſhall carry on the buſineſs of a card-maker, nor keep a ſhop in the city and ſuburbs of Paris, unleſs he be a freeman of the company.

The ſecond orders, That no one ſhall be admitted to take up his freedom, unleſs he has been an apprentice under a freeman during four years, and ſerved afterwards three years as a journeyman.

The third mentions the qualifications an apprentice ought to have, in order to be made free, viz. The enquiry that is to be made of his life and morals by the jurats; the obligation he is under to perform a maſter-piece of workmanſhip, which conſiſts in half a groſs of fine cards; the place where he is to perform it, namely, in the houſe of one of the jurats; and the ſalary or fee due to the jurats who were preſent at it, which amount in the whole to 40 ſols Pariſis for each of them under the penalty, for thoſe who demand or receive more, of paying four times the ſum, and being deprived of their place of jurats.

By the fourth it is ordered, That no man ſhall be allowed to follow the buſineſs of a card-maker in the city and ſuburbs of Paris, unleſs he keep a workſhop open to the ſtreet, and be admitted a freeman of the company.

The fifth orders, That no maſter ſhall have above one apprentice at a time, or two at moſt, who muſt be bound for four years before a notary-public; and it declares, that no maſter ſhall have the liberty to take two apprentices, unleſs he keep at leaſt five or ſix journeymen commonly at his houſe: however, any maſter is at liberty to take a ſecond apprentice, the laſt year of the time of the firſt.

By the ſixth, The maſters are forbidden to turn over any apprentice, without giving notice of it to the jurats, who are to keep a regiſter of it.

The ſeventh declares, That the maſter's children may learn the trade at their father's houſe, without being bound apprentices to them, and yet become thereby intitled to the privileges of the trade.

The eighth grants to the maſter's daughters the liberty to carry on the trade after their father's death, without undergoing any apprenticeſhip, and to ſerve as journey-women with any maſter.

The ninth and tenth grant to the maſter's or freemen's widows, the enjoyment of their huſband's privileges, as long as they continue widows; with this exception, however, that they cannot bind new apprentices, but only continue to keep thoſe who began their time with their late huſbands.

By the eleventh, all maſters are forbidden to carry, or ſend to be ſold, any cards at taverns or inns, and commands them not to ſell them any where but in their ſhops, unleſs they be ſent for by the citizens.

The twelfth orders, That no freeman of the company ſhall ſell, or expoſe to ſale, any fine cards, unleſs they be made of fine thin paſteboard on each ſide, and the colours be of indigo and vermillion, upon pain of forfeiture.

By the thirteenth, the hours for working are regulated; namely, to begin at five in the morning, and end at 10 at night, and not later, through all the ſeaſons of the year, except with regard to apprentices, when there is any work which might be ſpoiled by lying by.

The fourteenth relates to foreign cards, which muſt be viewed, examined, and marked by the jurats, before they be expoſed to ſale.

By the fifteenth, the jurats are forbidden to bring any action, or commence a law-ſuit, concerning the regulations of police, or relating to any matter of trade, without firſt giving notice of it to the company.

The ſixteenth orders all the freemen of the company to have each his particular mark, differing from that of any other, containing their name, ſirname, and ſign, without being at liberty to uſurp names, marks, counter-marks, ſigns, or motto's of others; which marks they ſhall be obliged to receive from the jurats, at the time they take up their freedom, and muſt be different from the marks, counter-marks, and ſigns of their fathers, maſters, or predeceſſors; the marks thus received from the jurats ſhall be placed on a board fixed up in the chamber of the king's attorney, in the Chatelet.

By the ſeventeenth, all journeymen and ſervants, receiving wages, are forbidden to leave their maſters before they have ſerved them a whole month; nor can the maſters give them any work before they are diſcharged by thoſe whom they ſerved before.

The eighteenth grants the freedom of the company to any journeyman who marries a freeman's daughter, and regulates the fees they are to pay on taking up their freedom, upon the ſame footing as they are paid by freemen's ſons.

The nineteenth treats of the number and election of the jurats: they are to be but two, one of whom is to be changed every year, ſo that each of them continue two years in office. The election is to be made the Thurſday next following the feſtival of Epiphany, by the whole company, which, for that purpoſe, is to meet before the king's attorney, at his chamber in the Chatelet of Paris. Theſe jurats are to make all ſearches and viſitations neceſſary concerning matters relating to the company's trade.

The twentieth ſpeaks of thoſe who work in chambers, not being freemen, and orders, that they ſhall either leave off working at that trade, or enter with maſters as journeymen, on the conditions above mentioned, unleſs they rather chuſe to take up their freedom.

The twenty-firſt orders, That, when there ſhall arrive any merchandizes belonging to that trade, but not bought by foreign merchants, all the freemen of the company ſhall be ſummoned to be preſent at the ſale of them, to buy any, if they have a mind to it.

Laſtly, the twenty-ſecond forbids all freemen to employ any workman who is not of the trade, and has not ſerved an apprenticeſhip.

After the death of Henry IV. Lewis XIII. ordered that a duty ſhould be paid the bodies of merchants, and the companies of arts and trades, for the confirmation of their ſtatutes. The company of the maſter-card-makers was the firſt who paid that duty; whereupon they not only obtained the confirmation of their ancient ſtatutes, but alſo the allowance of four new articles, drawn up by themſelves, and examined and approved by the provoſt of Paris, to be obſerved and executed, and have the ſame force as thoſe of the year 1594.

Theſe four articles are as follow, viz.

Firſt, That henceforth all the freemen of the company ſhall be obliged to put their name and ſirname, with the ſign and motto they have choſen, upon the knave of clubs of every pack of cards, both broad and narrow, upon pain of forfeiting the ſame, and paying a fine of 60 livres.

Secondly, All card-makers in the cities, and other places of the kingdom, are forbidden to make, counterfeit, invent, or falſify, either directly or indirectly, the moulds, prints, figures, and other characters, of the ſaid cards, which the card-makers of Paris have always enjoyed and uſed, on pain of forfeiting the ſaid cards, and all other merchandizes that might be packed up with them, and paying a fine of 50 livres.

Thirdly, All freemen card-makers, and ſuch as ſhall take up their freedom hereafter, are ordered to make all the cards, both broad and narrow, according to the moulds and prints which the maſters uſe at preſent, and of the ſame length and breadth; and for that purpoſe they ſhall be obliged to take the meaſure of the cuts they intend to have cut, or engraved, from the ſtandards that are to be kept by the jurats of the company, under the penalty of forfeiting all the cards otherwiſe made, of having all their moulds broke, and paying a fine of 60 livres.

Fourthly, All maſters are prohibited from making any of thoſe cards called in French maitreſſes cartes, either broad or narrow, but out of the pickings of the fine cards, under the penalty of forfeiting the ſaid cards, and a fine of 10 livres.

The letters patents by which theſe four articles are confirmed, were granted in February 1613.

The card-makers having been diſturbed in their privilege of buying and ſelling all ſorts of paper, by other companies who trade in the ſame commodities, were confirmed and ſupported in it by a decree given the 22d of February, 1681: it is the ſubſtance of this decree which the jurats who were truſted with the edition of their ſtatutes, added to thoſe of the year 1594, as a twenty-fifth article, though there was near a whole century between the two regulations.

The laſt article declares, That the card-makers have a right, and are in poſſeſſion, of buying and ſelling all ſorts of paper, after the uſual manner, according to the decree of the parliament, given the 22d of February, 1681.

CARDIGANSHIRE, in Wales, has Merioneth and Montgomeryſhire, in North Wales, on the north; Pembroke and Carmarthenſhire on the ſouth; Radnor and Brecknockſhire on the eaſt; and is waſhed on the weſt by the Iriſh ſea.

It is 40 miles in length, and 18 in breadth, according to Templeman, who gives it an area of 646 miles. Others make the length, from Cardigan to Plynlimmon on the north-eaſt, but 36 miles, and but 16 or 17 where broadeſt; and ſome no more than 32 from ſouth to north, and but 15 from eaſt to weſt.

It's air varies as the ſoil does; for, in the ſouth and weſt parts, which are more on a level than moſt parts of Wales, the air is mild and wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful. The northern and eaſtern parts, which are mountainous, are both barren and bleak; yet, in the worſt parts of the ſhire, there is paſture, in which are bred flocks of ſheep, and conſiderable herds of cattle; in the vales are ſeveral ſpacious lakes.

Coals and other fuel, indeed, are ſcarce, but there are ſeveral rich lead mines (the ore whereof often appears above ground) and ſome there are which produce ſilver. Here is plenty of river and ſea fiſh, and of fowl, both tame and wild; nor is there any ſcarcity of corn; lime to manure their land they are obliged to fetch from Carmarthenſhire. This county is ſo remarkably full of cattle, that ſome call it the nurſery for all England ſouth of Trent; though this is no great argument of it's fertility, becauſe it is well enough known that mountains or moors will breed, though not fatten, cattle.

It's principal rivers are the Teivi, the Rydal, and the Iſtwyth. The former wanders, as if it were loſt among the rocks and mountains, till it comes to Straetfleur, where it begins to run regularly to the ſouth-weſt, by Tregaron and Bangor, and, making an angle weſtward, falls into the Iriſh Sea below Cardigan. The Rydal riſes in the ſouth-weſt ſide of the Plynlimmon mountain, and runs ſouth and ſouth-weſt, till it falls into the Iriſh Sea, jointly with the river Iſtwyth, which riſes beyond the lead mines, on the north-eaſt of Cardiganſhire, and runs near on the ſame point with the Rydal, till it comes near Aber-Iſtwyth, where it falls into the Iriſh Sea.

CARDIGAN, ſituate at the mouth of the Teivi, leading into Pembrokeſhire, is a large, ancient, and populous borough, whoſe chief trade is to Ireland; to which, and to divers other parts, it exports lead from it's harbour, to the great advantage of the neighbouring country.

Cardigan Bay is a very large gulph of the ſea, bearing far from the land, ſtretching north and ſouth from Cardigan Point to Barſey Iſland, about 12 leagues north. There are ſeveral little tide-havens, and places in it, only fit for ſmall veſſels, and moſt of them are barred, and ſcarce worth naming, here being neither trade, nor any port fit for it.

At the north part, in a deep bight, there is a bay within a bay, a long gulph running in north-weſt by north, and, at the fartheſt end, it is called Pulhelly Bay, near which I have ſeen ſeveral conſiderable lead mines. At the bottom of it there is a ſmall river, which comes into the ſea with a full channel, and makes a pretty good haven, called Traeth Haven. On the north ſide of the bay there is good riding from ſeven to ten fathom water, and it is often made uſe of by ſhips in ſtreſs of weather, bound either to or from Ireland. If a north-weſt wind blows hard, ſhips bound from Cheſter to Dublin, which are frequently drove back, and glad to run for Barſey and this bay; and, in a ſouth-weſt wind, it has been the ſame with the coal ſhips bound from Swanzey for Dublin.

ABERISTWYTH, a town ſituate on the river Rydal, at the mouth

mouth of the river Iſtwyth. It is a populous and rich place, but dark and ſmoaky, ſo that the people look as if they had lived continually in the coal or lead mines. It is reckoned the moſt populous town in the county; it is pretty large, has a good market, and a thriving trade, both in lead and fiſh, eſpecially whiting, cod, and herring.

LLANBEDOR-VAWR, is a well built town, has a good market, but a poor harbour, and therefore no great trade.

LLANBADARN ST. PETER, or PONT STEFFAN, a ſmall town leading to Carmarthenſhire, and accommodated with good entertainment for travellers. Here is a great market for heifers, cows, calves, and ſheep, from the end of April to the beginning of July.

CARGADORS, a name which the Dutch have borrowed from the Portugueze, and which they uſe to ſignify a kind of brokers, whoſe only buſineſs is to find freight for ſhips outward bound, and to give notice, to the merchants who have commodities to ſend by ſea, of the ſhips that are ready to ſail, and of the places for which they are bound. See SHIP-BROKER.

If the cargador, to whom the maſter of the ſhip addreſſes himſelf, meets with a full cargo for it, he agrees for the price with the merchant who wants it; if, on the contrary, he finds only ſeveral parcels, or bales, of merchandizes, not ſufficient for a whole cargo, he diſperſes bills upon the exchange and cauſes ſeveral of them to be poſted up, according to the following model, which, for inſtance, is ſuppoſed to relate to the cargo of a ſhip bound for Konigſberg.

For Konigſberg.

'The ſhip lies before the Oude Stad's-Herberg, or the Old
'City-Inn.
'Captain Teunis (Anthony) Alopſe, of Vlieland, ſhall ſail
'(by God's leave) with his pink, an exceeding good ſailer,
'called the Shepherd, mounted with ſix guns, and other war-
'like ammunitions in proportion: if any be willing to give
'him any merchandizes, or other effects, he will receive and
'deliver them faithfully.
'Apply to Teunis Biok, broker, and to Peter Fleyms.

'N. B. Nothing ſhall be laden before notice is given to
'the cargadors, nor before the freight is agreed upon;
'and the bills of lading are to be ſent with the mer-
'chandizes.'

When the merchant has agreed about the freight of his merchandizes with the two cargadors, or with one of them, he procures a permit for exportation from the cuſtom-houſe, and ſends them on board by his own waterman, who brings him back a receipt from the mate to whom he has delivered them. In this receipt the mate declares that he has received, on board of ſuch a ſhip, ſo many bales, ſo many tons, or ſo many pieces of merchandize, with ſuch a mark; after which the merchant writes three or four bills of lading, of the ſame tenor, which he gives to the cargador, together with the mate's receipt: the cargador cauſes the bills of lading to be ſigned by the maſter of the ſhip, who keeps one for himſelf, and returns the others to be delivered to the merchant. See BILLS of Lading.

When any merchandizes are to be landed, which are ſent by ſea to Amſterdam, the cargadors commonly give notice to the merchants of the arrival of the ſhips: and then the merchant to whom any merchandizes are directed, cauſes them to be declared by the convoy-looper (that is to ſay, by the cuſtom-houſe officer whom he is uſed to employ) who brings him the permit for landing, which he need only give to his waterman, or to his cooper, who go and take out the merchandizes, and carry them to ſuch a place as the merchant has appointed.

When there is on board a ſhip any commodity which no body claims, or when the perſon to whom it is directed is unknown to the cargadors, one of the ſervants belonging to the exchange is ordered to give notice by public cry, for ſeveral days following, upon the exchange, that there are ſuch merchandizes, with ſuch mark and number, &c. on board ſuch a ſhip, coming from ſuch a place, laden by ſuch a one, and directed to ſuch a perſon, and that he who has got the order, or bill of lading, muſt come and demand them; that otherwiſe they will be lodged in a warehouſe at the owner's expence.

It muſt be obſerved, that, when a merchant receives by any ſhip ſuch merchandizes as are ſubject to leakage, if there be any caſks empty, or near it, ſo that they be not worth the freight that ſhould be paid for them, he is not obliged to take them, but may leave them for ſuch a part of the freight, which he deducts from that which he is to pay for the whole number of caſks directed to him.

But, if they be dry merchandizes, which were well-conditioned, when laden, but were injured or ſpoiled by ſome accident which happened during the voyage, the merchant to whom they are conſigned muſt not fail, when they are unlading, to enter a proteſt, or make a verbal proceſs of the condition in which he received them, to the end that they may be reckoned among the large averages, which he could

not obtain, if he omitted that formality. See AVERAGE. Laſtly, with regard to ſuch merchandizes as are liable to putrify, or ſpoil of themſelves, without any external accident, ſuch as raiſins, figs, cheſnuts, &c. the freight muſt be paid for them as if they were in a good condition.

CARGO, ſignifies commonly all the merchandizes and effects which are laden on board a ſhip, excluſive of the ſoldiers, crew, rigging, ammunition, proviſions, guns, &c. though all theſe things load it ſometimes more than the merchandizes.

We ſay, that a ſhip has it's cargoe, when it is as full of merchandizes as it can hold; that it has half it's cargo, when it is but half full; that it brings home a rich cargo, when it is laden with precious merchandizes, and in great quantity; that a merchant has made the whole cargo of a ſhip, or only one half, or one quarter of the cargo, when he has laden the whole ſhip at his own expence, or only one half, or one fourth of it.

CARLINA, CAROLINA, or CHAMÆLEON ALBUS, a medicinal plant, reckoned to be a ſovereign remedy againſt poiſon, and againſt the plague: it is alſo uſed for curing ſeveral other diſtempers.

There are two ſorts of carlina's, the white and the black, which hardly differ in any thing but the colour, and in that the white ſort ſhoots no ſtem, whereas the black grows pretty tall.

Some authors, and among others Mathiolus, in order, perhaps, to render this plant more precious and eſteemable, derive it's name of Carolina from Carolus Magnus, Charles the Great; and aſſert that it was diſcovered to that emperor by a miraculous viſion in order to cure his troops of the plague, which made a great havock in his camp. (Lemery obſerves only, that, under that emperor's reign, this plant was found to be good againſt the plague.)

Let this be real or fabulous, there is, at preſent, no occaſion to have recourſe to miraculous interpoſition to find the two ſorts of carlina's in the mountains of the Alps and the Pyrenees, and in the Golden Mountain of Auvergne. They grow there ſo plentifully, that the peaſants feed partly on their roots, and on that kind of artichokes which they produce.

The white carlina has a root about an inch thick, and one or two feet long; it is brown, and chopped on the outſide: it's leaves are of a pale green, indented, and prickly; they are placed circularly on the ground, above which they do not riſe much. The flower is flat, of four or five inches diameter; it riſes from the middle of the plant, without being ſupported by any ſtalk; it is ſhaped like a baſon, or rather like an artichoke, bordered with ſome narrowed and peaked leaves; it is of a yellow, carnation, and purpurine colour: it's ſeed is like that of wild ſaffron.

The black carlina is abſolutely like the white, except that it grows up into a ſtalk, or ſtem, and that it's leaves are of a deeper green. There is, however, another ſort, whoſe flowers are of a purple colour; but it is known to the moſt ſkilful botaniſts only, the druggiſts ſelling chiefly the roots of the black and white ſorts. Theſe roots, in order to be good, ought to be freſh, plump, of a ſweet taſte, and aromatic ſmell. The root of the black ſort differs from that of the white, only in being half open, and not ſo heavy.

CARLINO, a ſmall ſilver coin, which is current in the kingdom of Naples, and in Sicily. The carlino is worth about 3 d. $\frac{3}{4}$.

CARMARTHENSHIRE, a county in Wales, bounded on the eaſt with the ſhires of Brecknock and Glamorgan; the Severn Sea, or St. George's Channel, on the ſouth; Pembrokeſhire on the weſt; and Cardiganſhire on the north, from which it is ſeparated by the river Teivy.

According to Templeman, it is about 40 miles in length, 27 in breadth, and has an area of 869 ſquare miles. Others make it's greateſt length, from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, to be 35, and where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt, but 20 miles, which makes the circumference about 102 miles, or an area of about 700,000 acres.

It lies in the dioceſe of St. David's. The air here is reckoned milder and wholeſomer that in moſt of the neighbouring counties; and the ſoil, not being ſo rocky and mountainous, is more fruitful, eſpecially in corn and graſs, coals and lime, and it is pretty well cloathed with wood, and watered with about 28 rivers, large and ſmall.

The chief of the rivers are, the Towy, the Cothy, and the Tave. The former comes into the north-eaſt ſide of this county from Cardiganſhire, where it riſes, and, running ſouth and ſouth-weſt through the county, falls into the Engliſh Channel, about eight miles below Carmarthen. This river ſupplies the inhabitants plentifully with fiſh and fowl, eſpecially ſalmon.

The Cothy riſes on the north ſide of Carmarthenſhire, and runs ſouth, for the moſt part, till it joins the Towy, about five miles above Carmarthen.

The Tave, or Teivy, riſes in Cardiganſhire, and is the boundary between this county and that.

CARMARTHEN, ſituate upon the river Towy, is an induſtrious, thriving, and populous town, of great reſort, and drives a conſiderable trade. The river whereon it ſtands is navigable fo

for veſſels of 100 tons, quite up to the town, where is a very commodious key. This place is not only ſupplied with fiſh from its river, but with great plenty of fiſh, fowl, &c. from the adjacent country. There is ſuch a ſpirit of politeneſs, as well as induſtry, that ſome have called it the London of Wales.

KIDWELY, a town on a vaſt bay, called Tenby. It is a mayor-town, and had formerly a good ſhare in the cloathing trade; but the harbour, being too much choaked up with ſand, hath been very detrimental to the town, which, at preſent, is frequented only with fiſhermen.

LLANDILOVAWR, is a pretty good town, on an aſcent, with the river Towy at the bottom. This pariſh is 13 miles long, and 7 or 8 broad. It's markets are for corn, cattle, and other proviſions.

LLANGHAM, LLANHAM, or TALCHAM, ſtands on the Towy, near it's influx into the ſea; is a pretty good town, with ſome ſmall veſſels belonging to it, and an indifferent trade by ſea.

LLANALTHY, or LANELLY, ſtands on a river, or creek of the ſea, not far weſt from the Og, which ſeparates this county from Glamorganſhire. It is a pretty good town, much traded to for ſea-coal.

CARMELINE WOOL, of the vicunna, which is alſo called baſtard wool. It is the ſecond ſort of wool produced by the animal which the Spaniards call vicunna.

CARMEN, are ſuch who keep carts, in order to carry goods and merchandizes of all ſorts, for traders of every condition who may have occaſion for them.

Carmen, porters, watermen, or others, aſſiſting in the landing of goods, without a warrant and an officer, may be apprehended, by a warrant from a juſtice of the peace; and, being convicted by the oath of two witneſſes, may, for the firſt offence, be committed to jail, till they find ſecurity for their good behaviour; and, for the ſecond offence, to lie in priſon two months, without bail, or till they be diſcharged by the court of Exchequer, &c. or pay 5l. to the ſheriff.

All other regulations, relating to carmen employed in the city of London, are ſo well known by thoſe who employ them, that we ſhall leave out every thing of this kind, in order to make room for what is of more important uſe, leſs known, and, therefore, we hope far more acceptable, than what is in the vade mecum of every trader.

CARMINE, a very lively red colour, as it were velvety, uſed by painters in miniature, and ſometimes by painters in oil, but ſeldom by the latter, becauſe of it's exorbitant price. Carmine is the moſt precious and valuable commodity that is gathered from the cocheneal meſteque: it is a fecula, or powder, which ſettles at the bottom of the water, wherein cocheneal, couan, and antour have been put to ſteep, and well mixed together: they ſometimes add rocou, but it gives the carmine too much of an orange caſt. See COCHENEAL.

To be excellent, the carmine muſt be in powder almoſt impalpable, of a high colour, neatly and faithfully prepared.

Some make carmine with Brazil or Fernambouc wood, well beat in a mortar, and afterwards ſteeped in white vinegar: the ſcum which ariſes from this mixture, after it has been boiled, is the carmine; but it does not at all come up to the beauty of the former ſort.

The woollen-drapers make uſe of carmine, to colour and hide thoſe places in the ſcarlet cloth which remain whitiſh after dyeing and napping.

CARNARVONSHIRE, a county in Wales, bounded on the ſouth by Merionethſhire and the Iriſh Sea; on the eaſt by Denbighſhire, from which it is ſeparated by the river Conway; it is waſhed on the weſt and north by the Iriſh Sea; and on the north-weſt it is fronted by the Iſle of Angleſey.

Mr Templeman makes the length 47, the breadth 25 miles, and gives it an area of 459 ſquare miles, which is computed by others at 370,000 acres.

It has a ſharp piercing air, and abounds, in the middle eſpecially, with ſuch diſmal rocks and vaſt mountains, the tops of which are covered with ſnow ſeven or eight months in the year, that they may claim the name of the Britiſh Alps. Yet it is tolerably fertile, particularly in barley; and great herds of cattle, ſheep, and goats are fed on the mountains. That part towards Ireland is ſo fruitful, and alſo ſo populous, that it gives place to few ſhires in North Wales. The vallies between the hills are both pleaſant and fruitful; and both the rivers and coaſts abound with fiſh.

CARNARVON TOWN, ſtands on the channel that ſeparates this ſhire from the Iſle of Angleſea, and has a beautiful proſpect to the iſle; it is a ſmall, but clean, well-built town, and well inhabited, by people very courteous to ſtrangers, and the market is well ſupplied with corn, and all ſorts of proviſions. There is a ferry from hence to Angleſey, and from thence a direct road to Holyhead, in the way to Ireland.

CARNARVON BAY, lies between two points, at the ſouth entrance of the channel, which runs between the Main and the Iſle of Angleſey. Here is a tolerable harbour; for, though it has a bar, where there is not above ſeven or eight feet at low water, yet the tide riſes ſo high, that, at half-flood, almoſt any ſhips may go in or out; however, it is proper to take a pilot. There is very good anchoring in Carnarvon Bay off the bar, in 5 or 15 fathom.

BANGOR, or BANCHOR, lies at the north end of the ſame frith, or arm of the ſea, which is the paſſage to Angleſey, where it has a harbour for boats. This town is, at preſent, of little note, except for being the ſeat of a biſhop.

CONWAY, or ABER-CONWAY, ſituate at the mouth of the river Conway. This town, though the pooreſt, is notwithſtanding the pleaſanteſt in the county, for it's bigneſs, ſtanding on the ſide of a hill, on the banks of a fine navigable river, which empties itſelf about two miles off into the ſea, at the entrance of that arm of it which parts Angleſey from the main land.

It is reckoned the moſt beautiful river and port on all this ſide of Britain; the river, which is able to receive ſhips of almoſt any burden or number, and to bring them up to the town, being a fine ſtraight channel, broad as the Thames at Deptford, and deep, yet ſafe and ſecure from winds; but the town is old and decayed, and only ſhews what it might be, and what the want of trade has brought it to; for poverty in all places is the neceſſary conſequence of the want of commerce, as manifeſtly appears in numberleſs inſtances throughout this work: which ought to convince every man in this kingdom, without cavil or controverſy, that he who is an enemy to trade and commerce, is a friend only to barbariſm and ſavageneſs, that alone having poliſhed and civilized the human ſpecies, and made Britons different from the brutiſh Hottentots of the Cape. See BARBARY, and Remarks thereon.

PWL-HELI, or SALT-POOL, is a little town in the peninſula, on the ſouth ſide of the county, ſtands between two rivers, on the eaſtern ſhore, whoſe market is for corn and other proviſions, and hath a ſmall trade by ſea. The bay, to which it gives name, receives one of the rivers with a full channel, where it makes a pretty good haven, called Traath Haven, which we mentioned in Cardiganſhire.

CARNATION, a very lively red colour, thus called from caro, fleſh, becauſe it is like the colour of live fleſh newly cut, wherein it differs from what we call fleſh-colour, which is paler, and reſembles fleſh, covered with the white ſkin, and animated with a natural vermilion.

REMARKS.

The regulations made in France in Auguſt 1669, for dyeing ſilk, wool, and thread, order that ſilks to be dyed of a CARNATION AND ROSE COLOUR ſhall be ſteeped in allum, and dyed with pure Brazil wood; wool, and flocks of wool, to be dyed with madder, without mixing any fuſtic with it: and thread with Brazil, Fernambouc, or other ſuch wood, and rocou.

CAROBES, a ſort of beans, which grow plentifully in the iſland of Cyprus: moſt of the inhabitants live upon them; and, notwithſtanding the great conſumption they make of them, this pulſe, or, as ſome call them, this fruit, makes ſtill a great part of the trade of that iſland, whence they ſend yearly great quantities of it, in ſmall veſſels, to all the iſlands of the Archipelago.

This fruit is the ſame with the CAROUGE. See that article.

CAROLINA, a province in North America, belonging to the crown of Great Britain. See BRITISH AMERICA.

CAROLUS, a ſmall copper coin, with a little ſilver mixed with it: it was thus called becauſe it began to be ſtruck in France under the reign of king Charles VIII.

The carolus was worth 12 deniers, when it ceaſed to be current. It had been higher before, which muſt, however, be underſtood according as it had more or leſs ſilver mixed with it: for there have been Carolus's, and, amongſt others, thoſe of Lorrain, which were from five deniers, or penny-weights, and 20 grains, to three penny-weights and one grain fine; thoſe of France and Burgundy had, at moſt, but two penny-weights and 18 grains fine, except the carolus's ſtruck under the reign of Francis I, which had five penny-weights and four grains fine. Thoſe which are ſtill current in trade in Lorrain, or in ſome neighbouring provinces, go under the name of French ſols, for 12 or 15 deniers.

The half-carolus's are alſo of different value, and of ſeveral degrees fine, in proportion to the carolus's. Thoſe with three flowers de luce in bar, which are called old half-carolus's, have three penny-weights and 15 grains fine, and the new ones only two penny-weights and ſix grains.

CARPET, a ſort of covering of ſtuff, or other materials, wrought with the needle, or on a loom, which is part of the furniture of a houſe, and commonly ſpread over tables, or laid upon the floor.

They make ſeveral ſorts of carpets in France, and in other countries, of both which there is a conſiderable trade.

There is at Paris a manufactory of carpets, after the manner of Perſia, which are but little inferior to the true Perſian carpets, not to ſay, that they are even finer. They are, as it were, velvety, and do perfectly well imitate the carpets which come from the Levant.

France is obliged to the Sieur Dupont, upholſterer in ordinary to king Lewis XIII, and to his diſciple Simon Lourdet, for the eſtabliſhment of that incomparable manufactory.

Henry IV, by his warrant, dated the 4th of January, 1608, ſettled

ſettled them at firſt in the galleries of the Louvre, which he had built; and Lewis XIII, gave them, in 1631, the houſe called de la Savonnerie. This eſtabliſhment was regulated three years before this, and the two undertakers ſettled it under the inſpection of Monſieur de Fourcy, ſuperintendant of the king's buildings, and of the manufactories of the kingdom, by virtue of a decree of the council of ſtate, given the 17th of April, 1631.

In the year 1635, the Sieur Dupont publiſhed a ſmall treatiſe upon this ſort of manufacture, and gave it the following title, Stromatourgie, ou de l'excellence de la manufacture des Tapis de Turquie: that is, Stromaturgia, or of the excellency of the manufacture of Turky Carpets. This treatiſe is not only curious, for thoſe who would ſpeculatively trace arts of this nature to the root, but is very uſeful and inſtructive for all artiſts who would undertake to ſet up ſuch a manufactory.

Lewis XIV. being informed, towards the latter end of his life, that this manufactory, formerly ſo famous, was upon the decline, and in a very bad condition, and being willing to ſupport ſo conſiderable an eſtabliſhment, which was ſo much for the intereſt of trade, granted to it, by his edict of January, 1712, the ſame privileges which that of the Gobelins enjoyed, by virtue of the edict of November 1667, which privileges are ſet forth in 10 articles.

The firſt article ſettles the name of this manufactory, which is to be called The royal manufactory of the furniture belonging to the crown, for carpets made after the manner of Perſia and Turky: which title was to be put up over the chief gate of the houſe of the Savonnerie.

The ſecond puts this manufactory under the government and dependency of the director-general of the king's buildings, of a particular director, and of a comptroller; theſe two laſt to be appointed by the director-general.

The fourth ſettles a ſum of 250 livres per annum for the maintenance of each of the children, who ſhall be choſen by the director-general, to be educated and inſtructed in the ſaid manufactory.

The fifth and ſixth particularly mention the privileges to be obtained by the pupils, as, for inſtance, that of gaining the freedom of tapeſtry-makers.

Finally, the four laſt articles contain the privileges of the maſters and workmen of this manufactory, which are, amongſt others, being exempted from lodging ſoldiers in 12 houſes appointed for their dwelling in the neighbourhood of the Savonnerie, as alſo from guardianſhip, truſteeſhip, the watch, &c. and from all poll-taxes; and, laſtly, their right of committimus* at the Court of Requeſts of the Hotel, as being commercial officers of the king's palace.

* The right of committimus is a right, or privilege, which the king of France grants to the officers of his houſhold, and to ſome other perſons, whom he declares to have taken under his protection and ſafeguard, of pleading in the firſt inſtance before the Court of Requeſts of the Hotel, or Palace, in all matters, either merely perſonal, or real, or mixed, and to bring before that court all the cauſes that might be depending before other judges. Furetiere.

The abovementioned carpets, imitated from thoſe of the Levant, are made after the manner of a tiſſue, whoſe warp and woof contain very tight the ſilk and wool, which, being cut very cloſe, form a kind of velvet, or pluſh: they are alſo mixed with gold and ſilver thread, frizzled, or curled, which adds to their beauty, and increaſes their price.

Remarks.

Amidſt numberleſs other extraordinary encouragements given by the court of France for the eſtabliſhment of new manufactures, this is one that has not proved the leaſt beneficial to that kingdom; it not only preventing ſo large an importation of the Turky carpets, but has furniſhed them with a general manufacture for exportation. Are not theſe the natural and obvious meaſures to give bread to their own poor, and to cultivate the arts of commerce to the laſt perfection?

The chriſtening this eſtabliſhment with the title of the royal manufactory, &c. and putting the ſame under the inſpection of a ſuperintendant of the manufactories of the kingdom*, and proper officers under him, and generally ſupporting the deſign with the public purſe, was giving it ſuch a ſanction, that it could not miſcarry; ſince they had materials and artiſts to carry the ſame to a great perfection. See the articles Artificers, Manufacturers, Mechanics.

* This high officer, diſtinguiſhed by the title of ſuperintendant of the arts and manufactories of France, with other proper ſubordinate officers, hath proved of unſpeakable benefit and advantage to the manufactures of that kingdom.

Might it not prove of the utmoſt conſequence to the trade and manufactures of theſe kingdoms, if ſome ſuch officers were eſtabliſhed by authority, as guardians of the Britiſh manufactures in general; who ſhould lay before the parliament whatever merited public encouragement, as being too much for private undertakings? Was an inſtitution of this kind made a matter of ſolid and uncorruptible uſe, what might not be expected from it?

They make other ſorts of carpets at Roan, the capital of Normandy; at Arras, the capital of Artois; and at Felletin, a ſmall town in Lower Marche; theſe are called tapeſtry-carpets. Thoſe of Tournay are called carpets of Moucade.

The carpets imported into France from foreign countries, are thoſe of Perſia and Turkey, the latter either hairy or ſhorn, that is to ſay, with long or with ſhort hair. Theſe are moſt commonly imported by the way of Smyrna, where there are three ſorts of them.

Some of theſe are called moſquets, and are ſold by the piece, from ſix piaſters to 30 piaſters per piece, according to their ſize and fineneſs. Theſe are the moſt beautiful of all.

Others are ſtiled pic-carpets, becauſe they are ſold by the ſquare pic. They are the largeſt of all thoſe that come from the Levant. They are commonly ſold for half a piaſter per ſquare pic.

The moſt ordinary ſort are called cadene, and may be worth from one piaſter to two piaſters the carpet.

There are alſo carpets made in England, which are uſed either as floor-carpets, or to make chairs, and other houſhold furniture *.

* By the natural induſtry and ſkill of our Britiſh artiſts, we have, indeed, at length, got into the way of making very good carpets; and, if we are not yet arrived at the like perfection of our neighbours, for want of the like public encouragement, we ſhould, notwithſtanding, be content with what we can make at home; for, if people will buy them, this kind of encouragement will, in time, anſwer the end, at leaſt for home conſumption: though, was ſomething done by authority to animate our manufacturers, they would make a greater proficiency in ten years, than otherways in half a century; which would furniſh the nation with more commodities to ſell, and leſs to buy.

There are likewiſe carpets of Germany, ſome of which are made of woollen ſtuffs, as ſerges, and others of the like ſort: theſe are called ſquare carpets. Others are of wool alſo, but wrought with the needle, and pretty often embelliſhed with ſilk: laſtly, there are carpets made of dog's hair.

We ſhall not mention here thoſe fine carpets of painted chintzes which come from the Eaſt-Indies, becauſe we give an account of them in another place.

CARRIAGE, a vehicle ſerving to convey perſons, goods, merchandizes, and other things, from one place to another.

There are private and public carriages, as alſo land and water carriages. See Carrier.

Private carriages are thoſe which private people keep at their own expence, for their own conveniency, and that of their families; as theſe have no relation to trade, it is needleſs to give an account of them in this work.

Public carriages are thoſe which every one is free to make uſe of, on paying ſo much a head for perſons, or ſo much per pound weight for goods, merchandizes, or other effects.

There are again two ſorts of theſe carriages, ſome of which no man can keep, or let out, at leaſt in France, but by virtue of a privilege; ſuch are the waggons, carts, covered waggons, and horſes belonging to, or under the direction of the Poſt-Office; as alſo the ſtage-coaches and boats which ſet out on a ſet day, for certain towns in the provinces, and likewiſe poſt-chaiſes, calaſhes, litters, and horſes.

The other public carriages are thoſe which every one is at liberty to have, keep, and let out, after what manner, and to whom he pleaſes; ſuch are drays, cars without racks, the waggons and carts uſed by carriers, higglers, and others.

Water-carriages are, in general, all thoſe veſſels which ſerve to carry perſons or merchandize by ſea, rivers, lakes, or canals, whether ſailed, rowed, or drawn by men or by horſes; but the word carriage is ſeldom uſed, when we ſpeak of ſhips, frigates, or other large veſſels, which ſail over the ſea.

In France, the chief of the water-carriages are the ſtage-boats, barges, barks, wherries, boats, ſmall and large tenders, and ſeveral other ſorts of veſſels, which have different names, according to the rivers whereon they are uſed, or the provinces where they were built; all theſe water-carriages ſerve to tranſport, from place to place, wood, wine, corn, ſpices, ſalt, and other ſorts of drugs and merchandizes.

Land-carriages are either machines invented to carry more conveniently, and in greater quantity or number, perſons, and bales, cheſts, tuns, caſks, &c. of merchandizes, drawn by ſeveral ſorts of animals, according to the different countries, or thoſe animals which carry men, or on whoſe backs are put ſuch loads as they are able to bear.

The land-carriages, which are moſt commonly uſed in France, and in the greateſt part of Europe, for carrying men or merchandizes, are coaches, chariots, calaſhes, berlins, and waggons, with four wheels; or chaiſes, carts, and drays, with two wheels only. Theſe machines are drawn by horſes, mules, buffaloes, or oxen. In winter, when the earth is covered with ſnow, they uſe alſo ſledges, eſpecially in the northern countries; and in ſome parts, as in Lapland and Siberia, they are drawn by rein-deer, which are a kind of ſtags; every where elſe, they are moſt commonly drawn by horſes.

All the animals we have been mentioning, except the reindeer, are alſo proper to carry burthens on their backs, eſpecially the mules, which are of great uſe, particularly in mountainous countries, they being very ſure-footed.

In the caravans of Aſia, and the caffilas of Africa, they uſe camels and dromedaries. See the articles CAFFILA, and CARAVAN.

In ſome parts of America, and particularly in Peru and Chili, the vigonnas, lamas, and alpagnas, which are three ſorts of beaſts, of the bigneſs of a middle-ſized aſs, but not ſo ſtrong, are uſed, not only to carry wine, and other commodities, but alſo the mineral ſtones of the gold and ſilver mines, ſo common in that part of America.

Laſtly, the palanquin, which is carried on the ſhoulders of two, four, or ſix men, and the litter which is carried by two mules, are alſo carriages, but ſerve for travellers only. The former is uſed in the Eaſt-Indies, and the latter in moſt parts of Europe.

REMARKS.

CARRIAGES from Alexandretta to Aleppo.

Some particulars relating to the carriages, on which merchandizes are tranſported from Alexandretta to Aleppo.

All the merchandizes which arrive at Aleppo, whether they come thither from Alexandretta, where they arrive by ſea, or are brought by land from ſome other parts of the grand ſeignior's dominions, or from thoſe of the king of Perſia, are carried to Aleppo on camels, horſes, or mules; which obliges the merchants who trade thither, to make their cheſt or bales of ſuch a weight, and packed up after ſuch a manner, that they may be proper to be carried on the backs of thoſe animals, that they may not be obliged to unpack them, upon their arrival at Alexandretta.

The horſes and mules commonly carry two bales, weighing between 50 and 55 rottolis of Aleppo, which amount to 400, or 425 pounds of Amſterdam.

As to camels, their load, divided alſo into two bales, may be from 70 to 75 rottolis, which is about one third more than what horſes or mules can carry.

The Engliſh, French, and Dutch merchants always reckon upon that weight, there being ſeldom any bales that weigh any thing more.

CARRIAGE ſignifies alſo the money or perquiſite that is to be paid for carrying goods or merchandizes either by water or by land, in carts, waggons, ſtage-coaches, or on horſeback. For inſtance, we ſay paid ſo much for carriage from Cambridge to London. With regard to perſons, we uſe the word fare; whereas the French employ the word voiture, both with regard to perſons, and to goods or merchandizes. For carriage by ſea we uſe the word fraight, or freight. See FREIGHT.

Letter, or Bill of CARRIAGE, is a writing given to a carrier, or to the maſter of a waggon, cart, or other carriage, containing the number and quality of the pieces, cheſts, bales, &c. of merchandizes which he is entruſted with, that he may demand the payment of the carriage from thoſe to whom the merchandizes are directed, and that the perſon who receives them, may ſee whether they be delivered to him in a good condition, in the ſame number as they were given to the carrier, or on the day ſet down in the bill of carriage.

In commerce by ſea, the writing or regiſter in which are ſet down the merchandizes and paſſengers on board a merchantman, is called CHARTER-PARTY, or BILL OF LADING. See thoſe two articles.

REMARKS.

The principal LAWS of England in regard to CARRIAGE.

By the ſtatute 3 Will. & Mar. cap. 12. ſect. 24. the juſtices of peace of every county, &c. are required, at their quarter-ſeſſions after Eaſter yearly, to aſſeſs the prices of land carriage of goods to be brought into any place within their juriſdiction, by any common carrier: and the rates to certify to the mayors and other chief officers of the market-towns, to be hung up in ſome public place. And no common carrier ſhall take above the rates, upon pain of 5l. to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, by warrant of any two juſtices, where ſuch carrier ſhall reſide, to the uſe of the party grieved.

If any carrier ſhall travel with waggon, wain, cart, or carriage, with above ſix horſes, oxen, or other beaſts (except it be for carrying hay, ſtraw, corn, coal, timber, materials for building, ſtone, ammunition, or artillery) he ſhall forfeit 5l. to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of any of the ſaid beaſts, in three days; to be employed one moiety for the repairing of the highways, and the other to the proſecutor, being an inhabitant in the pariſh where the offence was committed, by ſtat. 9 Ann. cap. 18.

Perſons employed in the driving, or aſſiſting in the driving, with more than ſix horſes, are liable to the ſame penalty, by ſtat. 9 Ann. cap. 18.

The ſame ſtatute enacts, That any perſon or perſons, may diſcover and proſecute them who draw more than ſix horſes, &c. and ſeize and diſtrain all or any of the horſes, &c. and deliver the ſame to the ſurveyors of the highways, or other officers of the place; and, if the 5l. be not paid in three days, the diſtreſs is to be ſold, and the money delivered to the juſtice to be diſtributed.

Surveyors of the highways, or other pariſh-officers, refuſing or neglecting to deliver the money, by them received, to the juſtice, forfeit 20l. to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale; for want of diſtreſs, to be committed to the common goal 'till payment. One moiety of the forfeiture to the informer, the other to be laid out in repairing the highways. Stat. 9 Ann. cap. 18.

If any perſon refuſe or neglect to carry a horſe, &c. ſo diſtrained to the ſurveyor or other pariſh-officer, he likewiſe forfeits 20l. to be levied and diſpoſed ut ſupra.

Surveyors of highways neglecting to put 6 Ann. or any other law for repairing highways, in execution, forfeit 5l.

By ſtat. 1 Geo. I. no travelling waggon, &c. with any burthen, &c. (other than before excepted) ſhould at any time be drawn in any common highway, with above five horſes, &c.

But by the ſtat. 5 Geo. I. this act is altered, and it is enacted, That no travelling waggons, for hire, ſhall be drawn with more than ſix horſes, either in length, or in pairs, or ſideways; and no travelling cart to have more than three horſes, upon pain of forfeiting all the horſes above ſix in the waggon, and three in the cart, with all geers, accoutrements, &c. to the uſe of the ſeizer.

The horſes, &c. are to be delivered to the conſtable, or other pariſh-officer; and oath to be made of the offence before a juſtice of peace, who is thereupon to iſſue his precept to the conſtable, &c. to redeliver the horſes ſeized.

Travelling waggons are to be bound with ſtreaks or tire, two inches and a half in breadth, at leaſt when worn, or not to be drawn with above three horſes, on pain of forfeiting all the horſes exceeding that number, with the geers, &c. ſtreaks ſet on with roſe-headed nails, liable to the ſame penalty. Perſons hindering the ſeizure of horſes, to be committed for three months, and forfeit 10l. to be levied on their goods, if not paid in three days, by warrant from one juſtice. Carriages employed in huſbandry, and carrying cheeſe, butter, or any one tree, or piece of timber, or any one ſtone, or block of marble, caravans, and covered carriages of noblemen and gentlemen, for their private uſe, or timber, ammunition, or artillery, for his majeſty's uſe, are excepted.

Perſons, proſecuted for any matter done in execution of this act, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act and the ſpecial matter in evidence, and recover full coſts.

By ſtat. 6 Geo. I. cap. 6. it is enacted, That no perſon ſhall carry, in the cities of London or Weſtminſter, or within 10 miles thereof, in carts or waggons, having their wheels bound with iron, at any one load, any more than 7 hundred and $\frac{1}{2}$ of bricks, one chaldron of coals, 12 ſacks of meal, of 5 buſhels to the ſack, and 12 quarters of malt: and, if any perſon ſhould act contrary, he forfeits one of the horſes, with the geers, &c. to any one who will ſeize the ſame. The penalties to be levied and applied in the ſame manner as thoſe by 5 Geo. I. relating to carriages drawn on the highway. Oath to be made of the offence before a juſtice of peace, who, on conviction, is to order the forfeiture to the ſeizer, &c.

By an act of 3 Geo. I. the power of reforming abuſes, and of ſettling the rates of water-carriage on the Thames, &c. is veſted in the commiſſioners therein named for nine years, vide the act.

Truſtees appointed by ſeveral acts of parliament for repairing the highways through England, or any five of them, after the 29th of September, 1741, may cauſe engines to be erected at any of the turnpikes, and, by writing under their hands, may cauſe all carriages paſſing the turnpikes to be weighed with their loading, and may demand and take, over and above the toll already granted, 20s. for every hundred weight, above 6000 pounds weight. The money to be applied to the mending the highways.

The ſame remedy is given by diſtreſs, &c. as for the other toll.

If any perſon driving any cart, dray, or waggon in the ſtreets of London and Weſtminſter, Southwark, and other ſtreets and lanes within the bills of mortality, ſhall ride upon ſuch cart, &c. not having ſome other perſon on foot to guide the ſame, ſuch offender being convicted before the alderman of the ward, or a juſtice of peace, by oath of one witneſs, ſhall forfeit 10s. to be levied by diſtreſs, &c. one moiety to the informer, the other to the poor; and, in default of payment, to be ſent to the houſe of correction for three days.

A common carrier may refuſe to admit goods into his warehouſe, before he is ready to take his journey. 1 Raym. 652.

Taylor verſus ———

It was adjudged by Holt, chief juſtice, upon a trial of niſi prius at Hertford, 4 Aug. 1 Ann. reg. That if goods be delivered

to

to a carrier, and he does not deliver them according to the direction given him; upon demand of the goods from him, and refusal by him to deliver them, trover lies against him; or an action upon the case lies against him upon the custom. But if the goods be delivered to a servant of the carrier, or to his warehouse-keeper, and they are not delivered, &c. an action of trover does not lie against the carrier, &c. without an actual conversion by him. Raym. 792. CARIBBEE ISLANDS. See BRITISH AMERICA.

A carrier or hoyman is answerable for all losses, except those which happen by the act of God, or the enemies of the king. Ibid. 918. See our articles ROADS and RIVERS.

CARRIER, one who carries merchandizes or other goods from one place to another, in waggons, carts, or other wheel-carriages.

Merchandizes in bales, chests, &c. or of a solid substance and bulky, pay by the weight so much per pound, for carriage. Those that are liquid, as wine, brandy, cyder, beer, &c. pay commonly so much per cask, according to it's size.

The carriers in France, unless they be accompanied by those who trusted them with goods, or by some person in their name, are to take with them the bill of carriage of the merchandizes they have laden; the permits, if it be wine, brandy, or any other liquor; the receipts from the custom-offices by which they pass, and pass-ports, if there be occasion, and if they are to go through an enemy's country.

They are also obliged to pay toll on the road, wherever it is due, either for carriages and horses, or for merchandizes; with liberty, however, to demand the payment back, in case they did not agree to carry the goods, free from all charges, to the place for which they are designed.

Finally, the carriers answer for all damages, which the merchandizes may suffer through their fault; and with regard to other damages, for which, by the ordonnances and regulations, they cannot be answerable, they are obliged to get a verbal process or declaration of them, drawn up before the magistrates, who live nearest to the place where such accidents happened.

CARRIER, in France, in a larger sense, signifies any person who undertakes to carry from one place to another persons, merchandizes, writings, gold, silver, wine, wood, timber, &c. and even prisoners, for a certain price, either settled by the magistrates, and officers of the police, or by spontaneous agreement between the carrier and the merchants, or others who would employ them.

In this extensive signification of the word, are comprehended not only the carriers properly so called, as the masters of waggons and carts, and those of barges and boats, who carry goods freely throughout all France, either by land or by water, but also the messengers or post-men, the masters of stage-coaches, those who let out horses, the farmers of stage-boats, the post-masters, and other sorts of carriers, who are farmers, and have peculiar privileges and licences.

REMARKS.

The liberty of carrying goods by land or by water has always been considered, not only as very advantageous to trade, but even as absolutely necessary to support it, and make it flourish in France. This reason has always disappointed the attempts of the farmers of the king's revenues, who being unacquainted with, or regardless of, what may promote or prejudice commerce, have often endeavoured to farm out all the public carriages. And, indeed, the erecting of so many offices or posts of carriers, comptrollers, weighers, visitors, intendants, super-intendants, clerks, and commissaries of carriers, which were made from time to time, have generally been as soon suppressed, as they have taken effect; as appears from the several edicts, declarations, and decrees of the 30th of September, 1634, the 16th of May, 1635, the 20th of March, 1655, the 29th of March, 1656, the 12th of April, 1657, the 29th of July, and the month of October, 1658, and the 18th of June, 1659.

But although these offices have been suppressed, and the carriers restored to their antient freedom of carriage, yet most of the duties, which had been annexed to those offices, still subsist, and have been added to the king's farms; and it is partly for that reason, that all carriers, who carry bales, chests, &c. belonging to merchants, traders, or other persons, are obliged to make their carriages pass by the offices of the custom house, and those of the king's farms, in order to pay those duties, which have been kept up for the king's use *.

* These restrictions upon carriage, being as suddenly taken off as imposed, seem calculated only for the sake of the revenue, not for the benefit of trade, because all taxes upon carriages of merchandize must ultimately terminate upon trade.

This liberty or freedom of carriage both by land and by water does not, however, consist in an entire independency: for though the carriers be not united into a company or corporation, yet they have rules or regulations, which they are obliged to regard for the public security, and as a kind of discipline, which they are obliged to follow among themselves, and in their dealings with others.

An abstract of some of the principal laws of France, in regard to carriage.

1. All persons who have wherewithal to keep boats, barges, or carts and horses, may set up for carriers, either by land or by water, without any grant, permission, or licence.
2. Their setting out and arrival are not fixed to certain days, nor to or from certain places.
3. Lastly, there is no settled price for the carriage of merchandizes or other goods, but the carriers make an agreement with the merchants, or other persons, for the price, which may be more or less, according as the circumstances vary.

That liberty with regard to the price of carriage is so considerable, and of so great importance to trade, that the six bodies of the merchants of Paris, in a memorial presented, in 1701, to monsieur de Chamillard, then comptroller-general of the finances, for the execution of the regulation of 1678, concerning carriages, which were struck at by the declarations and decrees of 1681 and 1684, call that liberty the right arm of trade, and did not scruple to assert, that what cost them 25 or 30 livres carriage by the messengers, stage-coaches, and waggons farmed out, cost them but six livres by the common carriers, because of the fixed or settled price which the farmer-carriers never lessened, and of the voluntary price which they used to agree upon with the others, and which the merchants as well as the carriers might settle as they pleased.

The chief regulations relating to the carriers, particularly to those who arrive at, or set out from Paris, are the regulations contained in the second and third chapters of the ordonnance for the city of Paris, given by Lewis XIV, in December, 1672, concerning carriers by water; and the regulations of the 25th of June, 1678, concerning land-carriers.

The ordonnance of aids given in June, 1680, that of the 22d of July, 1681, and that of February 1687, relating to the five great farms, as also several decrees of the council, and, among others, those of the 25th of July, 1684, and the 29th of May, 1688, contain likewise several articles, relating both to land and water carriers, and particularly to their bills of carriage: from all these ordonnances, regulations, and decrees, we shall extract only the most important particulars, and such as are of a most common practice.

The chief articles of the ordonnance of the city of Paris, made in the year 1692, which relate to the water-carriers, are the 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8 and 9th of the second chapter, and the 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15 and 16th of the third.

By the first article of the second chapter it is lawful to carry goods and merchandizes every day in the year, except on the four solemn festivals, which are Christmas-day, Easter-day, Whit-sunday, and All-Saint's-day.

The second forbids navigation upon the rivers, but between the rising and setting of the sun, and not to set out in stormy weather.

The third and fifth regulate the passage through bridges and narrow passes, made by banks and sluices, as also the meeting of vessels in the rivers; and orders that vessels going down the stream must moor by the shore, 'till those that go up be got through the bridges and narrow passes; but, if they meet in the middle of a river, those that go up must moor by the shore, to let those pass which go down.

The seventh speaks of goods lost by bad weather, and those that are lost by the waterman's fault; and orders, that in the former case the carriers shall not be answerable for the loss of the goods, upon giving up their vessels and tackle within three days: but in the latter case they are to answer for the damages and interests.

The eighth article forbids all carriers to set out from the keys where they loaded, without bills of carriage, under the penalty of losing the price for carriage; but, in case the merchant or owner of the goods refuse to deliver the bill of carriage, the carrier, on proving such a refusal, is credited upon his word, both as to the quantity of the goods, and the price agreed upon for carriage.

Lastly, the ninth explains what is to be contained in the bills of carriage, for which see that article above.

The sixth article of the second chapter of the same ordonnance orders, that the carriers shall give notice to the owners, or their factors, of the arrival of their merchandizes, twenty-four hours after they are come to the keys, and produce to them their bills of carriage, in the margin of which is to be set down, by the said owners or factors, the day on which they were produced.

The seventh gives leave to the carriers to land the merchandizes, after the owners or factors to whom the bills of carriage are directed, have been summoned to send for their goods.

The eighth regulates what proceedings are to be had, and before what persons, when, after the summons mentioned in the foregoing article, the proprietor or his factor refuse to accept the bill of carriage, and to receive the merchandizes.

The eleventh article regulates the time, during which veſſels laden with corn, wine, hay, wood, coals, and other merchandizes, are to continue at the keys, which is ſettled at a fortnight for all theſe veſſels, except thoſe laden with wines, which are to continue a whole month at the keys. It is alſo ordered, that, in caſe the merchandizes could not be ſold within the limited time, the carriers ſhall be paid for that delay, and their veſſels reſtored to them in a good condition.

The twelfth obliges the carriers to deliver the merchandizes by tale or meaſure, only in caſe they were truſted with them after the ſame manner, and this clauſe be inſerted in the bill of carriage: yet, if the merchant had put a perſon on board the veſſel to watch, for the preſervation of the merchandizes, the carrier is not bound to anſwer for the number, quantity, or meaſure.

By the fourteenth, the merchandizes are anſwerable to the boats, as ſoon as they are moored to the keys, and as long as they remain in the ſaid boats.

By the fifteenth, on the contrary, the veſſels are anſwerable for the merchandizes, in caſe they have ſuffered any damage by the carrier's fault, or in caſe he does not deliver the whole of what he was entruſted with.

Laſtly, the ſixteenth article allows to the merchant, for whom the veſſel was laden, all the merchandizes that are found on board, over and above what is ſet down in the bills of carriage; but the merchant is, however, obliged to pay carriage for that overplus, which turns to his advantage.

The decree of the council made the 25th of June, 1678, for regulating the functions of meſſengers, maſters of ſtage-coaches, and carriers, by land, contains twenty-one articles, four of which only, viz. the 6th, 13th, 14th, and 20th relate to the carriers.

By the 6th they are forbidden to carry any letters, except the letters or bills of carriage of the merchandizes and other goods they are entruſted with, which bills muſt even be delivered open to them.

The 13th and 14th give leave to all private receivers, farmers of the king's demains and farms, and to all merchants, traders, and others, to ſend their money, merchandizes, and other goods, being their property, by the horſes, carts, or other carriages belonging to ſuch carriers, as they ſhall think proper to employ.

By the 20th, all meſſengers and maſters of ſtage-coaches are forbidden to moleſt the carriers in following their buſineſs, on condition that the latter do obſerve the edicts, declarations, decrees, and regulations.

A ſecond decree of the council, dated the 8th of Auguſt, 1681, and again a third given the 23d of January, 1684, both obtained by the credit of a great miniſter, who owned moſt of the public carriages, or had a ſhare in the profit of them, deprived the carriers of the liberty of unloading the merchandizes on the road, of carrying gold, ſilver, and jewels, which, before thoſe edicts, they were free to carry; and obliged them, when their own horſes happened to fail on the road, to uſe hired horſes, the farm of which belonged to that great miniſter, who was at that time ſuper-intendant of the poſt, or poſt-maſter general throughout the kingdom: but all theſe reſtraints being either againſt the eſtabliſhed cuſtom, or againſt the regulations made in the year 1678, and alſo very prejudicial to trade, as tending to a monopoly of carriage in general; the ſix bodies of the merchants of Paris, the traders of Lyons, thoſe of Moulins in Burgundy, and of ſeveral other conſiderable trading-towns, joined in a petition with the land and water carriers of thoſe and of many other cities; whereupon there was a fourth decree of the council, given the 2d of April, 1701, which, explaining that of 1684, reſtores to the merchants and traders of the kingdom the liberty, they always enjoyed before, of directing their cheſts, bales, &c. to the correſpondents, being merchants or others, they might have, for the ſake of trade, in the ſeveral towns of the kingdom, to ſend afterwards the ſaid cheſts, bales, &c. provided they weighed above fifty pounds, to the places they are deſigned for, by ſuch carriers as the ſaid correſpondents ſhall judge moſt convenient.

As the bills of carriage are thus neceſſary for carriers, both by land and by water, and as they are equally uſeful to the carriers, for ſecuring the price of their carriage, and the payment according to their agreement, and to the traders and other perſons for the ſecurity of their merchandizes and effects; and to the receivers of the aids, and of the king's farms, for receiving the duties due on ſuch merchandizes, &c. ſo there is nothing more exactly ſettled and regulated by the ordonnances, either of aids, or of the five great farms, and by a great many decrees, than the neceſſity and form of the ſaid bills of carriage.

The 2d and 3d articles of the 3d title, and the 1ſt article of the 7th title of ordonnance of aids, made in June 1680, order, that all wines be accompanied with double bills of carriage, made before a notary, or other public perſon; that they be filled up by the ſame hand; that they mention the place where the wine was loaded, the name, dwelling-place, and quality of the proprietor, of the place for which it is deſigned, and of the perſon to whom it is directed; and that theſe bills be examined by the officers of the cuſtom-houſes, through which the carriage is to paſs, upon pain of forfeiture and a fine.

The decrees of the council of July the 25th, 1684, and May the 29th, 1688, regulate the ſame with regard to the bills of carriage for brandies, which are ſold or carried from one place to another.

The 2d, 4th, and 5th articles of the title of the duties on ſea-fiſh, either freſh, dried, or ſalted, do likewiſe order the carriers who carry the ſaid fiſh deſigned for the city of Paris, to take ſuch bills of carriage, before they load the fiſh at the ſea-port towns, or other places from which they ſet out, to preſent them to the cuſtom houſe officers of the ſaid ports, to be there regiſtered and comptrolled: or, if there be no ſuch officers on the ſpot, to have them paſſed before the notary public, tabelliere, or recorder of the place; which bills ought to contain the quality and quantity of the commodity, the place for which it is deſigned, the name of the commiſſioner or merchant who ſends it, and the name of the perſon to whom it is directed.

Laſtly, to prevent all inconveniencies which might ariſe from the falſification or forging of bills of carriage, the ordonnance of July the 22d, 1681, articles 21ſt and 22d, of the common title of the king's farms, orders, That they who ſhall have falſified or forged bills of carriage, be for the firſt offence ſentenced to be whipped, and baniſhed for five years from the election or diſtrict, where the offence was committed, and pay a fine, which ſhall not be leſs than one fourth part of their eſtate; and, for the ſecond offence, they ſhall be condemned for nine years to the gallies, and pay a fine not leſs than one half of what they are worth.

CART, a land-carriage with two wheels, and drawn commonly with horſes, to carry heavy goods from one place to another. A cart-load is the quantity which a cart can carry: thus we ſay, a cart-load of hay, &c.

The uſe of carts being very common and convenient for the carriage of all ſorts of commodities, the officers of the police in France, and even the king's council, have not judged it unworthy their care and attention to regulate the functions, and often to ſettle the price thereof, in order to prevent monopolies and combinations to the prejudice of trade.

The king by his edicts, declarations, and decrees of his council, has regulated all that relates to the carriages and carriers, without the city of Paris, as the reader may ſee under thoſe articles; where alſo we have given ſome account of what relates to the carriages in England. See CARRIAGE and CARRIER.

As to what concerns the carriers and carmen of Paris, particularly thoſe who work on the keys of that capital city, it is regulated by ſeveral articles of the fourth chapter of the ordonnance of that city made in the year 1672.

The 17th article of that ordonnance commands all carmen, and other land-carriers, to be on the keys at the hours of ſale, with their carts or drays, and horſes put to them, that they may be ready to carry merchandizes at the rates ſettled by the provoſt of the merchants and echevins, forbidding them expreſly to demand any greater ſum, under the penalty of being whipped.

By the 18th, they and their ſervants are ordered to load themſelves the goods upon their carts or drays, except wood, corn, hay, and coals, for the loading and unloading of which, there are proper officers appointed; forbidding all wharf-porters, who ply on the keys, to meddle with the lading of any merchandizes on carts or drays, and to demand any thing from the merchants or citizens, upon pain alſo of being whipped.

The 19th forbids all carmen from aſſociating together in a confuſed and irregular manner, but they are to keep a due rank or order on the keys, and not to refuſe working for thoſe who chuſe them, and offer them the ſettled hire, under the ſame penalty.

The 20th orders, that, once every ſix months, there be poſted up in ſome viſible places on the keys, by the care of the king's attorney for the city, a paper, containing the rates of the wages of the ſaid carmen and carriers, as ſettled by the provoſt of the merchants, and by the echevins.

By the 22d, they are made anſwerable for the loſs or damage of any goods, happening by their fault, or by that of their ſervants.

The 23d, in order to prevent retailers from carrying off more goods than they are permitted to do by the regulations, forbids all carmen the loading of their carts, but in the preſence of the citizen who employs them, under the penalty of a fine.

The 24th commands them not to ſet out from the key, 'till the ſeller be paid, or have otherwiſe agreed with the buyer, upon pain of anſwering for the goods in their own name.

Laſtly, to prevent the carmen from diſturbing the citizens in the enjoyment of their rights and privileges, the 25th article gives leave to the latter to get the goods and proviſions, which they cauſed to be ſent to them by water, landed by their own ſervants, and to be carried home in their own carriages, if they think fit, without their being obliged to employ the public carmen; the latter being likewiſe prohibited, on pain

of being whipped, to do any work on the keys, unleſs they be choſen and employed by the citizens.

CARTWRIGHT, with us ſignifies only a man who makes carts: but the French word charron, which anſwers to it, has a more extenſive ſignification; it implying as well a workman who makes coaches of all ſorts, waggons, litters, calaſhes, berlins, carriages for the army, and for cannon, drays, ſledges, and other ſuch carriages, or requiſites belonging thereunto.

The company of the maſter-wheelwrights-coachmakers of the city and ſuburbs of Paris, is very numerous: which may be eaſily inferred, from the almoſt incredible number of coaches and other wheel-carriages, which are ſeen in that capital city of the kingdom, and which ſome reckon to be above fifteen thouſand. The antiquity of this company cannot, however, be traced up higher than the reign of Lewis XII. who gave the firſt ſtatutes to the maſter-wheelwrights, whom he erected into a body corporate by his letters patent, dated the 15th of October 1498.

Thoſe convenient vehicles, called coaches, being invented, or brought to a degree of perfection in the beginning of the next century, and becoming afterwards very common, they not only added, to the name of charron (wheelwright) which the freemen of that company bear, the appellation of coachmakers, which they have borne ever ſince, but it was alſo thought proper to renew and amend their ſtatutes, becauſe of the great variety of work which this new invention had introduced amongſt the mechanics *.

* By this and numerous other inſtances throughout this work, it appears, that laws and regulations, in regard to trade, have firſt taken their riſe from the natural and neceſſary practices of thoſe who are engaged in trade and the mechanic arts themſelves: wherefore, the legiſlators of trading nations cannot be too minutely informed of the peculiar circumſtances relating to all traders, from the loweſt mechanic to the ſupreme merchant: how otherwiſe can it be poſſible, that their laws ſhould ſo coincide with the nature of theſe particular trades and arts, as duly to promote the public intereſt of the whole? A knowlege, therefore, in the practical arts of traders, cannot be unbecoming the greateſt men in a country that ſubſiſts by commerce; for thoſe who attempt to reaſon upon trade, without this preliminary ſcience, muſt ever be in the dark; they may make laws one year, and ſuppreſs them the next; which only ſerve to confound and perplex the people, and injure trade inſtead of promoting it. The making of laws for the regulation of trade, without a proper knowlege of trade, is not leſs abſurd, than thoſe ſages, who have pretended to eſtabliſh philoſophy, without experimental knowlege; which for centuries filled the world with ideal and imaginary, inſtead of real and ſolid ſcience. Has not this been the true cauſe of our making and unmaking laws relating to commerce and navigation, wranglings, and controverſial ſcribbling upon this great ſubject? Has not this led men rather into the ſuperficial knowlege of metaphyſical whims, ſubtilties, and ridiculous diſtinctions, than into uſeful knowlege, that will bear the teſt, and advance the honeſt induſtry and happineſs of mankind?

The moſt conſiderable of theſe new regulations, compoſed chiefly of thoſe of the year 1498, were made in 1623. They were given to the company by Lewis XIII. who granted them alſo, in October that ſame year, letters patent for confirming their eſtabliſhment.

But, as theſe ſtatutes did not prove ſufficient to prevent or determine an infinite number of diſputes, which aroſe daily between the freemen of this company, and thoſe of the ſadlers, harneſs-makers, turners, upholſterers, ironmongers, carriers, people who let out coaches, &c. the parliament, before whom theſe diſputes were daily brought, declared at laſt by a decree of the 16th of July 1667, that the maſters cartwrights ſhould appear before his majeſty, in order to obtain new ſtatutes.

Theſe new regulations, obtained under the reign of Lewis XIV, and regiſtered in the parliament the 20th of November, 1668, are thoſe by which the freemen of this company are governed at preſent; for the alterations made in them between the years 1691 and 1713, on account of ſeveral offices and employments newly created, and incorporated with the company, do not relate, or, at leaſt, very little, to the government of the company, but only to the augmentation of the fees for apprenticeſhip, freedom, viſitations, &c. in order to pay off the ſums borrowed by the company, and paid into the king's exchequer, by virtue of the edicts for creating thoſe new offices, and of the decrees of the council for incorporating them.

Theſe ſtatutes are compoſed of 50 articles, whereof the 29th, 30th, 33d, 36th, 37th, 39th, 41ſt, and 43d, regulate what the freemen of every company, whoſe buſineſs has ſome connection with that of the cartwrights, and which have been mentioned above, may, or may not, concur with the maſter-cartwrights. The reſt of the articles contain the whole method of government of cartwrights amongſt themſelves, extracted partly from the ſtatutes of 1498, and from thoſe of 1623, and partly from the ſeveral decrees of parliament, and the ſentences of the Chatelet, given, ſince the year 1623, to the year 1668.

The company of the maſter-cartwright-coachmakers is governed by four jurats, or wardens, who cannot be elected into that office, unleſs they do actually dwell within the city of Paris, and have been ſtaff-bearers and adminiſtrators of the brotherhood of St Eloy, the patron of the company.

Two new jurats are choſen every year, in the room of two old ones, who, on their going out of office, are obliged to give an account of their wardenſhip, before eight ancient bachelors, two modern ones, and two young freemen.

As long as the jurats continue in office, they may advance each of them a ſum not exceeding 50 livres, for the preſſing emergencies of the company, by which they are afterwards reimburſed out of a capitation, or poll-tax, which is to be impoſed upon every freeman: but they are nevertheleſs forbidden to paſs any decree, or ſentence, concerning the corporation, without having firſt ſummoned together the number of bachelors and freemen fixed for the ſettling of their accounts.

The apprenticeſhip is of four years, as well as the journeymanſhip; the former with the ſame maſter with whom the apprentice was bound before a notary public, and the latter with ſuch a maſter as the journeyman thinks fit. The apprentice it moreover obliged to pay five livres for the fee of the brotherhood, the very day on which his indenture is ſigned.

No freeman can have above one apprentice at a time: he may, however, take a ſecond when the firſt has ſerved half his time out.

Whoever would be made free of the company, muſt perform a maſter-piece of workmanſhip, unleſs he be a freeman's ſon, or has married a freeman's widow, or daughter; in which caſes he is only obliged to a trial, and even without any expence.

The jurats and the ancient bachelors preſcribe the maſter-piece to him who would obtain his freedom; but yet all the freemen may be preſent at it. If he be found capable, he takes the oath, and receives his letters of freedom; but not 'till he has paid the fees due to the officers of the Chatelet, the vacations of jurats and bachelors, and the fees of his admiſſion: all which were ſettled at 600 livres, but has been much increaſed, particularly for the freemen without qualifications, ſince the year 1691.

If the perſon who would take up his freedom does not well perform his maſter-piece, he is ſent back, to ſerve two years longer with a freeman, to be afterwards admitted, in caſe he be then found capable.

No maſter can have above one ſhop open to the ſtreet; but yet every one is at liberty to have, beſides this, a yard in ſuch place of the city, or ſuburbs, as he thinks proper.

The number of journeymen is not limited; yet it is unlawful to intice any away, or to take a journeyman from another maſter, or widow-miſtreſs, without his or her conſent.

The jurats have a power to viſit not only the ſhops and work-places of the maſters, but alſo the keys where the timber for cartwrights work arrives: but ſuch freemen as have ſerved the office of jurats, and freemen's widows, are exempted from paying the fees for ſuch viſitations.

All the timber for cartwright's work brought to Paris for the account of foreign merchants, either by water or by land, is to be unloaded on the keys within the walls of the city, and remain there three working days; nor can it be carried off before ſix o'clock in the morning in ſummer, and eight in the winter. No freeman is at liberty to meet foreign merchants bringing goods to Paris, under the penalty of paying a fine, and forfeiting the goods bought: they may, nevertheleſs go, or ſend to buy, all ſorts of timber for cartwright's work, either yet ſtanding, or ready cut, and cauſe it to be brought and put up into their wharfs, or timber-yards.

Laſtly, to prevent all the abuſes which might happen in the making of carriages for coaches or carts, and other new works of the ſaid cartwrights, they are obliged, under the penalty of an arbitrary fine, to mark them with their particular mark, even thoſe that are made by their apprentices, or journeymen.

CARTWRIGHT'S TIMBER, is that which is uſed by the cartwrights and coachmakers. The timber is of two ſorts, particularly elm-timber, which is chiefly uſed in cartwright's work, namely, the round timber, and the hewn timber.

The round timber is that which is ſtill in logs, or blocks, that is to ſay, which has not yet been ſquared with the ſaw, and has the bark upon it ſtill; but has, nevertheleſs, been cut to a certain length, proportionable to the works in which the cartwrights would uſe it.

Hewn timber is that which has been ſquared with the ſaw, and reduced to the thickneſs and ſize proper for other works of the cartwrights.

With the round timber they make the naves, or ſtocks, of the wheels, the coach-beams, the jaunts, &c. The hewn timber ſerves to make the coach-ſtandards, poles, beams, &c.

Rules concerning round elm timber.

The round timber for naves, or ſtocks of wheels, ought to be ſix feet and a half high, and 10 inches diameter, at leaſt, at

the thinneſt end; thoſe pieces which are from 12 to 16 inches diameter are reckoned the beſt, becauſe they may ſerve for the largeſt cart-wheels.

The round timber for axle-trees muſt be ſix feet long, and from ſeven to eight inches diameter.

The pieces deſigned for poles ought to be of ſeveral ſizes, according as they are intended for coaches, or for other carriages. Thoſe for coaches muſt meaſure from 10 to 12 feet in length, and the others from 12 to 15, without any knots, and be well bent.

For the jaunts, the pieces muſt be two feet eight or 10 inches long, or even three feet.

Rules for the hewn timber uſed by cartwrights.

The pieces of timber for ſupporting the ſtandard of a coach muſt be cut ſix feet and a half long, ſix or ſeven inches broad, and four or five inches thick.

The ſtandards of ſix feet ſeven or eight inches long, five or ſix inches broad, and three or four inches thick.

And the poles nine feet long, three inches and a half ſquare at the ſmalleſt end, and four inches at the thickeſt end.

It muſt be obſerved, that there are ſeveral other pieces of elm timber uſed in the cart-wright's buſineſs; which they themſelves cut, the timber-merchants leaving ſeveral pieces, in the form of round timber, of divers ſizes and lengths, for which there are no ſettled rules, the workmen chuſing them at the ſales, or in the timber-yards, according as they find them proper for the ſeveral works wherein they would uſe them.

Other timber for cartwrights.

The aſh timber is commonly cut into ſtandards and poles: ſome of it is alſo left in pieces of round timber, proper to make thoſe ſorts of carriages on which they carry wine in France. Theſe pieces of round aſh timber ought to be from 10 to 18 feet long, and eight or nine inches diameter.

The yoke-elm timber is commonly cut into axle-trees, and other pieces in which elm is uſed; but it is ſeldom employed but in thoſe provinces where elm is ſcarce.

Of the branches of elm and yoke-elm, which are not large enough to be left in round timber, or cut for the ſeveral pieces of cartwright's work mentioned above, they commonly make the ſpokes of wheels, though they make them alſo ſometimes of other wood, and particularly of oak.

CASAN, CAZAN, or KASAN, a kingdom in Muſcovian Tartary, which the Ruſſians call Czarſtwo. Carauſkoy was formerly ſubject to it's own princes, who were eſteemed powerful monarchs, but was ſubdued by the Czar Bazilowitz, to which was added the kingdom of Aſtracan; ſince which, theſe two kingdoms have been looked on as the two richeſt jewels in the Czariſh diadem: this of Caſan, on account of it's extraordinary richneſs and fertility; that of Aſtracan, on account of it's vaſt and valuable traffic.

Caſan is bounded on the north by the provinces of Vaitka, laſt deſcribed, and Permia; on the eaſt by the Tumæan Tartary; on the ſouth by Barkiria, Bulgaria, and Aſtracan; on the weſt by the Lower Novogorod and Muſcovy, properly ſo called. It is watered by the two rivers Wolga and Kama, which run through it, and inrich both it's ſoil and it's traffic.

CASAN, a large and populous city, the ſeat of a Ruſſian metropolitan. It is ſituate on a fine ſpacious plain, on the river Caſauka, about ſeven verſtes from the place where it falls into the Wolga, in latitude 58. 38. It is excellently well ſituated for being well ſupplied with all manner of neceſſaries and proviſions, by land and water, and which are here in great plenty and cheapneſs.

CASE-HARDENING. The art hereof is a leſſer degree of ſteel-making, and practiſed by baking, calcination, or cementation, of razors, files, knife-blades, &c. in a kind of oven, or other cloſe veſſel, ſtratified with powdered charcoal, and hoofs and horns of animals, ſo as to exclude the air; and thus, by calcining with the ingredients in occluſo, or in a veſſel, oven, or furnace, where the open air cannot affect the ſubject, a coat of ſteel is given to inſtruments ſome depth below their ſurface.

On the other hand, iron becomes ſofter by a more gentle and longer-continued ignition; whereby it acquires a kind of ſpungineſs, which, however, is again condenſed, upon quenching the metal in cold water: but, to render it more ſoft and ductile, the way is to quench it in a decoction of animal excrements, either thoſe of men or brutes, or in ſtale urine, or in the juice of onions; by which means iron may be ſo mollified, as to become fit for the graver.

CASH, in commerce, ſignifies the ſtock of money which a merchant, trader, or banker has at his diſpoſal, wherewith to trade (ſome derive it from the French caiſſe, a trunk or cheſt to lock up money in). Thus we ſay, the caſh of ſuch a banker amounts to ten, twenty, or thirty thouſand pounds.

REMARKS.

The management of the caſh of a ſeparate or joint trader, in ſociety or partnerſhip, is of the utmoſt conſequence to render their trade ſucceſsful. With regard to the former, he ſhould always have his eye upon that eſſential account, in order to anſwer all demands, and to procure payment of debts, when due.

Among partners, the conduct of their traffic ſhould be ſo divided between the concerned, as to ſuit each other's talents and diſpoſition. Thus the buſineſs ſhould be divided between them, both with regard to the buying and ſelling of merchandizes, keeping the caſh, and the ledger; and ſeeing to what particular part of the buſineſs each is moſt fitly adapted. He who is of an active ſtirring temper, is more proper for buying and ſelling, than he who is of a more ſedate diſpoſition, and loves eaſe and reſt. Therefore the more active ſhould be employed in the buying and ſelling of merchandizes; the more ſedate in keeping the ledger and caſh; becauſe, having leſs vivacity, he may be more circumſpect in the management of ſedentary buſineſs, than if he were more active.

And, indeed, the ſucceſs of partnerſhips depends, in a great meaſure, on the prudence and good order of him who keeps the caſh and the books; which conſiſts in keeping the books without the leaſt confuſion, in knowing inſtantaneouſly what is due to the partnerſhip, or what it owes, and in calling in debts regularly, to anſwer all emergencies.

The moſt important of all is the management of the caſh. That does not conſiſt only in receiving and paying, which is very eaſy: he who manages it is to take care of many other things, from which the whole proſperity of the partnerſhip muſt proceed. For which reaſon he is to mind two things chiefly; firſt, that there be always money enough in caſh to pay the bills of exchange, which their correſpondents and manufacturers draw upon them; and, in caſe they keep manufactories, the bills or notes for monies borrowed, in order to buy the requiſite materials, and to pay workmen, that the courſe of buſineſs may by no means be interrupted.

Secondly, he muſt call in the debts regularly; for, as the caſh exhauſts, it muſt be timely repleniſhed.

Laſtly, he who keeps the account of caſh, ought to be like a good pilot, who wiſely foreſees the ſtorms that may happen, during the time of the partnerſhip, particularly if they have manufactories which depend on the faſhion; ſuch as wrought ſtuffs, that are in vogue, according as people's fancy leads them, and for which there is not the ſame demand at all times. They who deal, for inſtance, in gold, ſilver, ſilk, and flowered ſtuff, if there happen to be a public mourning for the death of a ſovereign prince, or any of the royal family, will find the ſale of ſuch goods at a ſtand; and yet they muſt duly pay what they owe, and ſtill uphold their manufactories, which muſt by no means ſtand ſtill, upon ſuch a temporary occaſion.

This is a very bad time for thoſe ſort of traders; their merchandizes remaining dead in the warehouſes; their debtors, who deal by retail, not being able to pay what they owe, becauſe their trade is alſo at a ſtand; yet their creditors will be paid, and thus the caſh becomes inevitably exhauſted.

When this is the caſe, he who keeps the caſh ought timely to think of prudential expedients, in order to raiſe money. To which end there are three that naturally preſent themſelves; the firſt is, to apply to the debtors; the ſecond, to negotiate bills of exchange; and the third, to have recourſe to particular friends.

At ſuch conjunctures little dependance is to be made on the company's debtors, becauſe they are not able to pay, by reaſon of the ſtagnation of their branch of trade; yet this is a time in which they muſt be uſed with tenderneſs and indulgence, that they may not be neceſſitated to break.

The credit for negotiating bills of exchange is uncertain, it depending on the caprice of men, more eſpecially at ſuch critical times; ſo that little ſtreſs is to be laid upon it at ſuch tickliſh times.

The ſafeſt expedient, at ſuch conjunctures, ſeems to be to have recourſe to particular friends, who are monied-men, and who will not refuſe to lend a trader, if they can do it with ſafety.

All theſe conſiderations will occur to the ſenſible man of buſineſs, who has the conduct of the caſh, in order to ſupport his trade and credit, that he may not be ſurprized: for which purpoſe, he ought always to have before him a ballance or account of the company's debtors and creditors, that he may know the ſtate of their affairs, in order to call in the active debts, or to renew the bills or notes for the paſſive debts, when ſuch bills or notes are become due. And, in caſe the money fails, he muſt be very diligent in both theſe particulars, and examine very carefully, whether thoſe whom they intruſt with merchandizes, are punctual in their payments; whether they be careful and prudent in their way of buſineſs, in order not to truſt them too much, or imprudently; for it is of the laſt importance to be well acquainted with the circumſtances and credit of thoſe with whom we deal.

The

The partner who keeps the caſh ought to know, that, if he be negligent in calling in the active debts, he does too great and irreparable prejudices to the partnerſhip. The firſt is, that a merchant, who is able to pay to-day, will perhaps prove inſolvent to-morrow, and may break by ſome unforeſeen accident; whereby a part, not the whole of the profit, which the partners ſhall have made, may be loſt. The ſecond is, that there being no money in caſh, if the partners are obliged to borrow any, the high intereſt, they muſt pay, will ſwallow up all their profit, and very often their capital alſo. Theſe plain obſervations may be of no little advantage, eſpecially to the young and unexperienced traders.

CASH of Loans, in French, caiſſe des emprunts. Thus they called in France a public caſh, which was eſtabliſhed at Paris in the Hôtel of the king's united farms, where all ſorts of perſons, of what quality and condition ſoever, both natives and foreigners, were allowed to carry their money, in order to improve it, and whence they could take it out again at the expiration of the term mentioned in the promiſſary notes; which the king's farmers-general gave them, and which were ſigned by four members of the company appointed for that purpoſe.

Theſe ſorts of promiſſary notes, wherein the name of the perſon who paid the value was left blank, were made payable to the bearer a year after date; and the intereſt for the whole year was not paid, 'till the notes became due, which were then either renewed, or paid off both intereſt and principal.

This caſh account was inſtituted, not only to render the management of his majeſty's farms the more eaſy, but to afford private people an opportunity of laying out their money with ſome profit, till they could diſpoſe of it more advantageouſly.

This caſh of loans was firſt eſtabliſhed in October, 1673, under the reign of Lewis XIV, Monſieur Colbert being then comptroller-general of the finances. It continued ſeveral years, being as uſeful to the ſtate, as to private people; the former meeting with ready ſupplies in the wars, wherein France was then engaged; and the latter a quick uſe of their money, with a ſafe intereſt: but this caſh was nevertheleſs ſuppreſſed towards the latter end of the ſeventeenth century, and the capital reimburſed to the owners, with the intereſt due thereon.

The conveniency of this caſh, which had been ſo long experienced, together with the immenſe expence which the ſtate was engaged in, towards the beginning of the eighteenth century, in order to ſupport the acceptance of the laſt will, which Charles II, king of Spain, had made in favour of the duke of Anjou, made the miniſters reſolve to revive that bank, though with ſome difference with regard to the intereſt for the ſums depoſited; which was paid at a higher rate in the new caſh of loans, than it had been in the old one.

This ſecond caſh of loans was eſtabliſhed in 1702, by virtue of a declaration of the king, dated the 11th of March, that ſame year.

By that declaration the intereſt was ſettled at the rate of 8 per cent. per annum. It was afterwards raiſed to 10 per cent. by a new declaration of the 25th of March 1705; but, after that, it was lowered again, and reduced to 6 per cent. by a third declaration of the 14th of October, 1710; upon which footing it continued till the year 1715, when it fell again to 4 per cent.

As theſe promiſſary notes came, through the misfortunes of the times, to amount to immenſe ſums, it was reſolved, in the year 1713, to pay off both the principal and intereſt; for the latter had not been paid regularly for ſome years, and the creditors had not been at liberty to take out their principal, as they ought to have been, according to the firſt ſcheme of this caſh of loans.

The firſt reimburſement of theſe funds was ordered by a declaration of the king, dated the 3d of October that ſame year 1713, at the rate of ſix millions of livres per annum; which were to be paid monthly, to ſuch of the creditors, on whom the lot ſhould fall, for their notes were to be drawn out by lot, in the form and manner preſcribed by that declaration.

This method of reimburſement was altered at the end of a year, and by a new declaration iſſued the 15th of December, 1714, the reimburſement was ſettled at $\frac{1}{20}$ per annum; ſo that in twenty years time the whole principal money, and all the intereſt due on the promiſſary notes of the caſh of loans, would be entirely diſcharged.

Six months after this, another declaration, given the 7th of May, 1715, made ſome new alterations, not only in the method of paying of thoſe notes, but alſo in the intereſt they bore, which was now reduced to 4 per cent. It was alſo ordered, that a certain number of the notes ſhould be drawn by lot every quarter of a year, in the preſence of two of his majeſties commiſſaries, to be entirely reimburſed and paid off, both intereſt and principal, from ſuch funds as were appointed by that declaration.

This declaration was juſt begun to be put in execution for the quarter of July, when an edict was iſſued in Auguſt, that ſame year, by which the caſh of loans and it's promiſſary notes were entirely aboliſhed and ſuppreſſed, and at the ſame time were created five millions of perpetual annuities on the Town-houſe, or Guild-hall of Paris, at 4 per cent. for reimburſing the ſaid promiſſary notes; which were to be paid off, ſome entirely, and others only by halves, according as they had been negotiated, or not negotiated; which was to be ſettled by the commiſſaries of the council.

Lewis XIV. dying in the beginning of September following, and the new adminiſtration taking other meaſures for paying off the national debts, Lewis XV, under the regency of Philip duke of Orleans, iſſued a declaration the 7th of December, that ſame year, by which all the royal bills and notes, of what nature ſoever they might be (which did conſequently include the promiſſary notes of the caſh of loans) were converted into bills of the ſtate (billets d'etat) for which his majeſty made himſelf ſecurity; promiſing to pay regularly intereſt upon them, at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, 'till he could ſucceſſively pay off the principal, by the moſt convenient means.

This declaration, which was only preparatory, was explained by another, dated the 1ſt of April, 1716, which ſettled the converſion of all the royal bills at 250 millions of bills of the ſtate, and regulated upon what footing each kind of paper, or note, was to be liquidated by the commiſſaries of the council.

By this reduction the promiſſary notes of the caſh of loan were brought under three claſſes:

The firſt was of thoſe, the value of which, had been originally paid in ready money, or partly in money, and partly in paper; theſe were reduced to three fourths.

The ſecond of ſuch notes, for which no real value had been paid, but which had been iſſued out ſome years before, to be negociated with a conſiderable loſs: theſe were reduced to two fifths.

Laſtly, the third claſs contained all thoſe notes, which it was notorious had been negotiated in the latter, and in the preceding reign, at above 80 per cent. diſcount: theſe were reduced to one fifth.

Since this declaration, there has been no mention made in France, either in trade or otherwiſe, of the notes of the caſh of loans; and they have been, under the general name of notes, or bills of the ſtate, paid off or annihilated, by the ſeveral methods appointed ſince by his majeſty for thoſe ſorts of bills; and which we have mentioned above, in the article of the ſeveral ſorts of bills, which are ſtill, or have been, formerly current in trade, both within the kingdom, and with foreigners.

CASH of Credit was a caſh eſtabliſhed in France, in behalf of thoſe country traders, who bring wine and other liquors to Paris.

This caſh was firſt eſtabliſhed in September, 1719. The edict orders, that the foreign traders and others ſhall be at liberty to receive there immediately the price of their wine and liquors, and take credit there, on paying a diſcount or intereſt of ſix deniers per livre; but yet, they who take no credit there, ſhall not be obliged to pay any ſuch diſcount.

As this new caſh met with very little favour from the wine-merchants, it was thought proper to give it, if poſſible, ſome ſanction, by a decree of the council, dated the 4th of April, 1722; and afterwards, by letters patent of the 28th of June, regiſtered in the court of aids the 14th of Auguſt that ſame year: but, all this proving ſtill inſufficient, there was a ſecond decree of the council, iſſued the 27th of September, 1723, which gives a very particular account of the benefits which the wine-merchants may reap from this caſh, and of the manner how it ought to be managed.

His majeſty declares firſt, that the fund of this caſh ſhall be formed from the money ariſing out of the duties, re-eſtabliſhed by the decrees of the 20th and 22d of March, 1722, and by the declaration of the 15th of May following.

In this caſh all country traders, and others in general, have liberty to take the credit, that is to ſay, to borrow the money, they have occaſion for; which, however, is not to exceed the value of half the wine, or liquors, they have brought to Paris, either by land or by water.

The intereſt, or diſcount, which was to be paid for taking credit there, was ſix deniers per livre (which is two and a half per cent.) but they who did not take credit there could not be obliged to pay that diſcount.

The credit for wine was eſtabliſhed merely by a ſingle deed, or bond, ſigned by the party, and wrote in a regiſter of large ſtampt paper, kept for that purpoſe, and marked with a peculiar flouriſh by the provoſt of the merchants.

After the reimburſement of the firſt credit, or money lent, which was always to be paid before any other debt, out of the money ariſing from the firſt ſale of the wine, a ſecond credit was to be granted to the merchant, and then a third, and even more afterwards, on his paying the ſame intereſt, or diſcount, of ſix deniers per livre: but the money lent was never to exceed half the value of the wine remaining to be ſold.

Upon reimburſing the firſt credit, or money lent, the veſſels of wine, which had been marked with the mark of the caſh of credit, were unmarked again, by cutting a croſs-bar on

the print of the former mark, and muſt be marked again every time a new credit was taken; that is to ſay, every time money was borrowed again upon the wine.

The wine-merchants, their partners, factors, or agents, had always the liberty to manage as they pleaſe the wine on which they borrowed money, as that on which they borrowed none, except with regard to the delivery of it, after they ſold it; for they could not deliver it but in the caſhier's preſence, who was to take back the money lent, out of the produce of the ſale.

After the reimburſement of all the money lent, the bond which the merchant ſigned on the regiſter was to be diſcharged, and the caſhier to give him a certificate, declaring, that the money ariſing from the ſale was delivered to him; but, in caſe part of the money only was repaid, a memorandum, or note, was to be written, both in the certificate and in the regiſter of the caſh, of the ſums which were received on account.

The wines of credit, that is to ſay, thoſe whereon money was borrowed, which, after the price they ſold for, had been put into the hands of the caſhier, while removing from the places where they had been depoſited, were to be unmarked by the inſpectors, keepers of ſuch depoſits, and of the mark of the caſh, and not by any other perſon; his majeſty ſtrictly forbidding all merchants, factors, agents, coopers, and others, having the management of the wines in the ſaid places, to unmark themſelves any wine of credit, upon pain of forfeiting the ſame, and paying a fine of 100 livres for every caſk of wine.

If there were any veſſels of wine of credit in a bad condition, which could not be mended, the wine was to be tranſvaſated into another veſſel, in the preſence of one of the clerks of the caſh, who was to mark that new veſſel, and the ſtaff of the old veſſel, on which the mark had been put, was alſo to have been broke in his preſence.

Laſtly, his majeſty orders that the money lent by the caſh on wine ſhould be paid before any other debts, of what nature ſoever they might be; and, in caſe the wine was ſeized, no ſale of it ſhould be made, or ordered, but with an expreſs condition and proviſo of paying the money lent, before any other, even before the expences of any law-ſuit, ſeizure, or execution.

There have been divers other expedients and artifices made uſe of in France, for the ſupport of private and public credit. See the Article CREDIT, both Private and Public.

REMARKS, in a national light.

From the circulation of the caſh of private traders, or gentlemen, we may, in ſome meaſure, judge of that of a nation, and what quantity is competent for the circulation of the commerce thereof. To trace things from their firſt principles.

Before the uſe of money, we may naturally enough conſider the proprietors of lands as employing ſlaves, ſervants, or vaſſals, to procure them the conveniencies of life. On this ſuppoſition, the proprietors muſt have as much allowed them of the produce of the land as was neceſſary to maintain them and their children.

Since the uſe of money, it is further natural to judge, that, when it's quantity, by altercations, gradually found out a par, or proportion, to the other commodities, the land-proprietors allowed thoſe who worked for them ſo much money per annum, or per diem, as anſwered to their ſubſiſtence, and that of their children, according to the manner of living to which they were uſed. If the proprietors gave them leſs, they could not ſubſiſt; if they gave them more, others would have offered themſelves to work for them cheaper; by which the proportion of men's wages in money was readily found out.

In the like manner the uncertain wages of all undertakers have found out their proportion, according to the gain and manner of living wherewith thoſe of that order contented themſelves.

Suppoſe an equal quantity of caſh, or money, to circulate conſtantly in a place, the proportion of money which every body brings to market, according to the means of ſubſiſting which he hath, naturally keeps the altercations at market (cæteris paribus) in a uniform ſituation; and the variation of prices, in the ordinary commodities of conſtant conſumption, proceed only from little inequalities, when ſome inhabitants ſpend more in one week than they do in another.

But the greater variations proceed from good or bad years of vent, and the plenty or ſcarcity of the commodities.

To come to the nature of the circulation of money, let us conſider the proprietor of a large landed eſtate, which he keeps in his own hands, and who has all ſorts of labourers, ſervants, tradeſmen, overſeers, &c.

Let it be ſuppoſed, alſo, that ſeveral of theſe overſeers and tradeſmen, to whom the land-proprietor uſually gave an allowance in commodities, for their maintenance, and the propagation of children [ſee the article BARTER] have, by their œconomy, from time to time, ſaved a good part of the ſaid commodities, and then exchanged them with Americans for money, at ſuch price as has been determined in the altercations between them. Let it be imagined, likewiſe, that all the inhabitants on the ſaid eſtate are fond of ſilver, and willingly receive it as a pledge for any commodities they lend to, or barter with each other; and reciprocally take it and give it, in abſolute barter, finding it ſo generally in requeſt, that they may have their commodities for it again, with little variation of price, whenever they want them.

Let us ſuppoſe a fixed quantity of this money circulating on this eſtate, as 2000 ounces of ſilver, and that ſubdivided into ſeveral ſmall pieces, as is the current money in a ſtate.

If the proprietor himſelf has purchaſed theſe 2000 ounces of ſilver from the Americans, or dug them out of his own ground, it will come to the ſame thing, provided he exchanges and barters them with the other inhabitants, his dependants, for the commodities which the land produces, and whereby they all ſubſiſt.

Let it be again conceived, that the proprietor, to avoid the trouble of keeping his eſtate in his own hands, and employing ſo many different overſeers, labourers, tradeſmen, &c. chuſing to live out of his own landed eſtate, and lets in parcels, to ſeveral of his own overſeers, on the ordinary foot that lands are let in England; and that he leaves the tradeſmen to ſet up as undertakers, for the ſupplying, as they can, the inhabitants, and himſelf and family. Suppoſe the quantity of money at which he lets his eſtate, be 1000 ounces of ſilver per annum.

It is the general opinion in England, that a farmer makes three rents; viz. the principal rent he pays the proprietor; a ſecond rent for the charge of his farm, and the wages of his ſervants; and a third rent for himſelf and family, whereon to ſubſiſt, and for the education of his children. This opinion is founded on experience, which ſhews, that, of a farm of 300 acres, of equal goodneſs, the produce of 100 acres ſold at market is ſufficient to pay the principal rent to the landlord, or proprietor. But in France and Germany, and other countries, the proportion ſeems different; in ſeveral parts of France, the proprietors have two-thirds of the produce of the land free, which makes the farmers, and all dependent on them, live ſo much the worſe *.

* This ſhould give our farmers and country people, in general, a juſt notion of the difference, by living under a French government and an Engliſh one, according to the ſteady conſtitution of our kingdom; which, agreeably to the judgment of the wiſeſt and beſt of men, can as little ſubſiſt by abſolute monarchy, as by republicaniſm or oligarchy.

In this œconomy the tradeſmen, who have ſet up for undertakers, buy of the farmers, &c. their materials; the clothier buys wool of the farmer, the tanner hides, the baker wheat, the butcher oxen, ſheep, &c. the land-proprietor, for the uſe of his family, buys what he wants of all theſe, who are ſuppoſed to have each of them a portion of the 2000 ounces of ſilver to ſet up.—And, as the land-proprietor is paid 1000 ounces of ſilver by his farmer once a year, he pays the ſaid quantity of money to them for that wherewith they ſupply him, by which they are reimburſed the ſums they had advanced in their undertakings, and find alſo a maintenance for themſelves and children.

The actors in regard to the ſecond rent, viz. the tradeſmen and undertakers, ſmiths, carpenters, &c. ſo far as they are aſſiſtant to the farmer; the labourers, ſervants, &c. belonging to the farmer; pay and receive of the farmer, and of one another reciprocally, 1000 ounces per annum, according to the ſuppoſition.

The farmers themſelves, who are the actors in regard to the third rent, and have a third part of the produce of the eſtate free, ſuppoſing they ſave and lay up nothing, create alſo for extraordinary expences for the education of their children, or for the better conveniency of living, a circulation alſo of 1000 ounces of ſilver per annum, according to this ſuppoſition: and ſo, upon the whole, if the eſtate be let for 1000 ounces of ſilver per annum, it ſeems to require 3000 ounces of ſilver to carry on the circulation of the three rents, if the payments be made once a year.

But, as it frequently happens that the farmer pays the labourers in villages with corn and commodities for their work, that ſuch part of their land as maintains the farmer's horſes requires no circulation, or barter in money; that the ſubſiſtence of the farmer's ſervants and family requires no money, ſince they often kill their own meat, and brew their own drink, and bake their own bread; and ſince no more money ſeems requiſite than for what the undertakers and tradeſmen do, and there being little of that required in villages, but for cloathing, carpenters work, ſmiths work, and the taylors, ſhoemakers, and the like: whereas all the proprietor's expence in his family, ſince he has no land in his own hands, is ſupplied by the undertakers; from which conſideration it ſhould ſeem, that the circulation of the two laſt rents does not require near ſo much money as the ſingle rent of the pro-

prietor, which is the principal ſource and cauſe of the circulation of money.

Yet I will ſuppoſe, that the circulation of the two laſt rents, together, are equal to that of the firſt rent.

So that, if the produce of all the land and labour in the eſtate in queſtion is equal to 3000 ounces of ſilver, the exchange and barter of the ſaid produce among the actors of the three rents will require but 2000 ounces of ſilver to carry on the circulation of the whole, and make all the payments once a year.

But, if the land proprietor ſtipulates the payment of his rent with the farmer once in ſix months; and if all the payments, made by the actors in the three rents, are alſo made once in ſix months; 1000 ounces, in two payments, will anſwer 2000 ounces in one payment.

And, if all the payments are made quarterly, 500 ounces will anſwer the whole circulation; and it often happens, that the farmers pay but a quarter's rent to the proprietors at a time, and 'tis obſervable in the country, that there is ſeldom more money in villages than what will anſwer a quarter's rent.

And, as the different kinds of the products of land ſeem to anſwer and correſpond to the four ſeaſons of the year, it ſeems natural to judge, that the wheels of caſh-circulation and barter of commodities are ſet a-going four times in a year, and in many countries the rents are ſtipulated to be paid quarterly.

Now, if we ſuppoſe this land-proprietor and ſeveral others to live together in the common center of their lands, where they form a city, and draw thither moſt of the undertakers and tradeſmen, who ſupply their families, and one another. As almoſt every thing is carried on and ſupplied in a city by undertakers, ſo almoſt all the barter requires money; but then, on this ſuppoſition, the circulation of money is very quick, all the undertakers and tradeſmen commonly paying their workmen and journeymen once a week, and ſeveral families paying their expences daily at market.

But theſe ſmall parcels of money, which go and come ſo frequently and quick in ſeveral ſmall rivulets of barter, are gathered together again in lumps, by the undertakers, as bakers, butchers, brewers, &c. and paid to the farmer, from whom all commodities are bought; and then are again paid quarterly to the land-proprietors, out of whoſe hands they are again ſpread into the rivulets of barter: and, theſe payments made, the proprietors ſeem to be the principal object to judge by, of the quantity of money in circulation, there being no great ſum required for the circulation of the other two rents. Cities are eſteemed to contain half the inhabitants of a ſtate, and to make more than half the conſumption of the produce of the land.

Though the detail of the circulation of money in a ſtate be indefinite, yet it appears from what has been ſaid, that it is not incomprehenſible, and 'till ſome body has the curioſity to examine the ſaid detail, and endeavours to come at better knowledge of the proportions of it, I ſhall lay it down as my opinion and conjecture of the matter in general, That the real caſh or money, neceſſary to carry on the circulation and barter in any ſtate, is nearly one third part of all the annual rents of the proprietors of the ſaid ſtate.

Whether money be ſcarce or plenty in a ſtate, this proportion will not change, becauſe, if it be ſcarce, the proprietor will ſell his land for leſs money; and, if it be plenty, he will ſell it for more, and this will always hold good in the long-run. But, if the circulation of money be ſlower or quicker generally in a ſtate, the proportion of money, required in circulation, will be more or leſs.

According to this ſuppoſition, if 2000 ounces of ſilver ſerved to carry on all the circulation on the eſtate we conſidered, the proprietors rents ought to have been 6000 ounces, and the three rents equal in value to 18,000 ounces, and conſequently the money which carries on the circulation and barter in a ſtate, may be eſteemed equal in value to the ninth part of the annual product of the lands of the ſaid ſtate.

Sir William Petty, in a manuſcript written in 1685, ſuppoſes frequently, that the circulating money in a ſtate is equal to the tenth part of the annual product of the land; and, though he aſſigns no reaſons any-where for ſuch a conjecture, it looks to me, as if his great experience and ſagacity had let him into that proportion.

As his ſuppoſition differs from what has been ſuggeſted but [illegible], I ſhould readily come into his notion, if it were able to lead me into any uſeful knowledge; whereas in fixing a proportion between the circulating money in a ſtate and the rents of the proprietors, whereof the ſum may be known by an exact land-tax, the knowlege of the actual ſum of money requiſite in circulation may be attained.

'Tis eaſy to conceive, that foreign trade requires no great additional ſum to carry on it's circulation in a ſtate, when the ballance of trade is equal. [See BALANCE of Trade.] In this caſe, the goods and commodities exported pay the value of thoſe that are imported; when the proprietors conſume the foreign commodities, they pay the undertakers of the foreign trade what they had advanced for them; and theſe pay the ſame value to the undertakers of the exported goods, which compenſate the imported ones; this is all paid out of the firſt rent: and, where the actors in the two other rents conſume foreign commodities, the money, neceſſary for the circulation of the ſaid rents alſo, is ſufficient to anſwer it.

All the influence foreign trade ſeems to have upon the circulation of money in a ſtate is, that it ſometimes retards it, and makes it paſs through the hands of more undertakers and brokers, than it otherwiſe would do.

If the proprietors of land at Paris wear Genoa velvets to the value of 10,000 ounces of ſilver, and theſe velvets are compenſated by 10,000 ounces value in French cloth, the proprietors out of their rents pay the velvet merchant, as undertaker, 10,000 ounces; he pays the ſum to the Genoa banker or remitter; he pays the ſame to the cloth merchant, who ſends French cloth to Genoa on his bills of exchange. But, if the proprietors at Paris wore cloth inſtead of the velvets, they would pay directly the 10,000 ounces to the cloth merchant, and ſo that money would not go through ſo many hands; 'tis in this ſenſe only that foreign trade can affect the circulation of money. See more under the articles CIRCULATION, CREDIT, MONEY.

CASHIER, he who keeps the caſh, or the money, which it is his buſineſs to receive and pay.

CASHOO, a medicinal and aromatic drug, which is reckoned among perfumes.

All that has been yet aſſerted, with regard to the compoſition and origin of this drug, is entirely fabulous: here follows an account, which will ſufficiently acquaint the phyſicians, apothecaries, and druggiſts, with what they ought to know of it. Caſhoo is certainly extracted from a tree, which is called catee in the country where it grows. That country is a province of Indoſtan, or the Mogul's empire, which is called Behar; the capital of it is Patna. This province, which the famous river Ganges croſſes, lies a hundred leagues above the kingdom of Bengal. Caſhoo is properly nothing but an extract made by a decoction and maceration of the parts of that tree, and rendered ſolid by evaporation. There are two ſorts of ſimple caſhoo, the rough, and the purified or refined; the latter is a compound of purified caſhoo mixed with aromatic drugs, and made into lozenges of ſeveral ſizes, the biggeſt of which are as large as a half-crown piece. This caſhoo is made for the uſe of the Indians, who chew it, either alone, or mixed with pinang, or areca. Rough caſhoo is a commodity, which is brought down the Ganges as far as Bengal, whence it is diſtributed by means of trade throughout all the Indies, where there is a great conſumption of it; and to the Europeans, who ſend it into Europe, but moſtly purified; for caſhoo is never uſed rough, neither in the Indies nor elſewhere.

They purify the caſhoo to different degrees, according to the uſe which the Indians would make of it. It appears, that the caſhoo which comes into Europe, is purified to the firſt degree only.

The word caſhoo is an abbreviation of that of catechoo, or catechu, according to the pronunciation and manner of ſpelling of the Portugueze; for, in their language, the letter u has the ſame ſound as our oo, or the French diphthong ou (and ch is pronounced like ſh in Engliſh). So that caſhoo in Engliſh, cachou French, and catechu Portugueze, are pronounced nearly after the ſame manner. It appears plainly from theſe obſervations, that the word catechu is a compound of two words uſed in the language of the country where the caſhoo-tree grows, namely, from cate, which is the name of that tree, and chou, chu, or ſhoo, which ſignifies the juice extracted from that tree.

The illuſtrious Monſ. De Juſſieu, of the royal academy of ſciences, and profeſſor of botany in the royal garden at Paris, has given an account of the caſhoo, in the Memoirs of that academy for the year 1720, with a view to give the public a perfect knowlege of it. He aſſerts in that account, that caſhoo is nothing but an extract of areca. He tells us further, That the obſervations, made there upon caſhoo, are chiefly owing to Monſ. Albert, chirurgeon-major ſettled at Pondicherry on the coaſt of Coromandel (where he died about the year 1725) which obſervations agree with the opinion of Helbigius quoted by Dale, and with that of Cleyer. It is pity that this chirurgeon, who was to be depended upon, as Monſ. De Juſſieu has done, ſhould have ſo ill obſerved the drug, which occaſioned that account. It is true, indeed, that in ſome places on the ſea-coaſt, where the areca-tree grows, the Indians have attempted to make a ſort of extract from areca, to imitate caſhoo; which they could the eaſier do, as it has the ſame, or very near the ſame, aſtringent quality. Yet they make very little of it, either becauſe its taſte is very different, or becauſe it is blacker, and does not yield much ſolid matter, which makes it as dear as the true caſhoo; and further, that ſpurious caſhoo is never expoſed to ſale. It is true alſo, that, in the maritime places, there are ſome perſons, who purify rough caſhoo with an infuſion or ſlight decoction of areca; whence it is thought better than that which is purified by diſſolving it in common water. The caſhoo being diſſolved, they filtrate or paſs it through a piece of linnen, and give the requiſite conſiſtency by evaporation.

Wher

When it is diſſolving, and they would prepare it for ſale, they add to it ſeveral ſorts of aromatic drugs, according to the taſte they would give it, to render it more compoſed and more odoriferous. All theſe things may have miſled Monſ. Albert.

In order to demonſtrate in the cleareſt manner, that caſhoo is not made of areca, let the following obſervations be conſidered. 1. In thoſe countries where the areca-tree grows, which are all near the ſea-coaſt, they make no true caſhoo, but get it from other places. 2. At Bengal, though it be pretty near the ſea, whence caſhoo is exported in ſhips, there grow no areca-trees, becauſe that country is too far north; for the areca tree will hardly grow beyond the 15th degree of latitude, nothing being more hurtful to it than drought and cold. 3. The areca which is carried to Bengal by ſea for ſale, is dearer there than rough caſhoo; and one ſeldom meets with both theſe drugs there at the ſame price, namely, of five or ſix ruppees per man. 4. Laſtly, the country where the caſhoo-tree grows lies in the 28th, 29th, or 30th degree of north latitude; ſo that it grows about 300 leagues more north-weſt than the areca-tree; and yet it comes from thence, as well as opium, for the uſe of all thoſe coaſts, and of all the Eaſt-India iſlands, where there is a prodigious conſumption of it, where people are exceſſively fond of chewing aſtringent drugs, of ſeveral kinds, mixed with aromatics, eſpecially pinang, or areca. The caſhoo-tree is, perhaps, a kind of acacia. Caſhoo was formerly thought to be an earth of Japan: But Monſ. Boulduc, of the Royal Academy of Paris, ſhewed, in 1709, by it's analyſis, or chymical reſolution, that it is intirely a vegetable ſubſtance, without any earth. It appears from theſe obſervations, which are Monſ. Garcin's, that truth comes not to us from diſtant countries but with great difficulties, and that whole ages are ſometimes required to find it out.

Caſhoo is very much valued in medicine. Amongſt other effects aſcribed to it, it is reckoned to ſtop the cough, and to ſtrengthen the ſtomach; beſides which, it ſweetens the breath, when being reduced into an impalpable powder, and mixed with ambergreaſe, and mucilages of gum-adragant, it is made into paſtils. Caſhoo muſt be choſen of a tanned red on the outſide, of a bright red within, very ſhining, and not burnt. Kœmpfer obſerves, that they prepare at Odowara perfumed caſhoo, of which they make pills, ſmall idols, flowers, and ſeveral other figures, which they put into little boxes for ſale. The women are very fond of it, and uſe a great deal of it, becauſe it faſtens the teeth, &c. This thickened juice is carried to Japan by the Dutch and the Chineſe; and, after it has been prepared at Macao, or at Odowara, mixed with amber, camphire of Borneo, and other drugs, they buy it again, to carry it to other places.

CASSAVA, CASSAVE, CASSAVI, or CASSADA, the root of a ſhrub, which the French call MANIOC, MAGNIOK, or MANIOQUE, and the Engliſh MANIHOT. Theſe roots, being raſped and baked, are what is properly called caſſava, or flour of manihot, and are uſed by all the natives of America inſtead of bread. They plant cuttings of this ſhrub in new grounds deſigned for cacao-walks; not only becauſe they are abſolutely neceſſary to a planter for the food of his negroes, but alſo to prevent the growing of weeds, and to ſhade the young cacao-plants, as they come up, whoſe tender ſhoots, and even their ſecond leaves, would not otherwiſe be able to ſtand the exceſſive heat of the ſun: for which reaſon they delay planting the cacao-nut 'till the manihot or caſſava-ſhrub be grown high enough to ſhade them. See CACAO.

REMARKS.

This ſhrub is very crooked, and full of knots: it's wood is ſoft and brittle: it grows very eaſily from cuttings. There are ſeveral ſorts of it, of different colours, ſome more forward and more fruitful than others. The flower conſiſts of five leaves, expanded in the form of a ſmall roſe. The fruit is a treble capſula, faſtened to a foot-ſtalk: each capſula contains an oval nut, or ſtone, with a brittle, marbled, and ſmooth ſhell, the almond of which is of the ſame figure, and oily. The bark of this ſhrub is ſo thick, and ſo full of ſap, that, being expoſed to the air and ſun, it is ſeveral months before it becomes quite dry. It is very common to ſee bits quite out of the ground, which nevertheleſs ſhoot out buds. They generally put up the caſſava-roots within a year, or thereabout, after planting; at the foot of every ſhrub are found ſeveral roots, of a fleſhy ſubſtance, without any ſenſible fibres: they are more or leſs thick, according to the nature of the plant, and the goodneſs of the ſoil. They waſh theſe roots in a great deal of water, to clean them from earth; and, having ſcraped the peel off, as we do carrots, they raſp them with large copper raſps, almoſt after the ſame manner as quinces are raſped, to take the juice out. They afterwards put the raſpings into a bag made of coarſe cloth, or ruſhes, and place them under a preſs, to ſqueeze out all the moiſture, which is hurtful to animals, and even poiſonous. They then take it out of the bags, and ſift it through a ſieve, made after the manner of the ſavages, and dreſs it two ways to make the caſſava-bread, or flour of manihot.

Firſt, when they would make caſſava-bread, they ſpread ſome of this ſifted flour, or meal, upon an iron placed over a clear fire, and, ſqueezing it with the flat of the hand, they make a large cake of it, about ⅓ of an inch thick, by 20 or 24 inches diameter; and, when it is baked on one ſide, they turn it on the other; and, if they would keep it for ſome time, they dry it afterwards in the ſun.

Secondly, when they would make what they call caſſava-meal or flour, they put it, being raſped, preſſed, and ſifted, as before, into a large copper pan, with a flat bottom, of four feet diameter, and five or ſix inches deep, mounted on a furnace of brick-work. They ſtir it continually with a wooden peel, that it may not ſtick to the pan, and be equally baked. This flour is pretty much like bread coarſely crumbled, and will keep a long time in a dry place. The ſavages make no flour of manihot; they eat only caſſava cakes, which they bake every day, becauſe, when it is quite hot, it is much more delicate and pleaſant to the taſte than when it is cold.

When the caſſava-juice is left to ſettle in a veſſel, there falls to the bottom of it a fæcula, or ſediment, which they call mooſſache, or muchacho, in Spaniſh, as if you ſhould ſay, the child of manihot; this they put to dry in the ſun. It is as white as ſnow, and they make pretty good cakes of it, which are called cracklings.

The landreſſes uſe this fecula inſtead of ſtarch, to ſtarch linnen with; and ſome inhabitants of America mix one third of it with two thirds of wheat-flour, and make bread of it, which is very white, and very well taſted. Hiſtoire nat. du cacao & du ſucre, and Obſervations critique d'un botaniſte habitant des iſles occidentales de l'Amerique, ſur les plantes decrites par le P. Labat dans ſon voyage aux iles, inſerted in the Mem. de Trevoux for the year 1730, p. 132.

CASSIA, a phyſical drug, which purges gently, and is commonly preſcribed by the phyſicians and apothecaries of France, and particularly by thoſe of Paris.

There are four ſorts of caſſia, which have all near the ſame properties, and almoſt the ſame figure, they being all black or brown ſticks, of ſeveral ſizes and lengths; but theſe four ſorts will be found to be very different, if we compare together the divers trees which produce them.

Theſe four ſorts are, caſſia of the Levant, caſſia of Egypt, caſſia of Brazil, and caſſia of the Antilles.

The caſſia of the Levant is the fruit of a very high tree, whoſe bark is of an aſh colour, and it's wood very ſolid, and of a very cloſe texture. Near the center, or middle of the tree, the wood is of an ebony black, and yellowiſh towards the bark.

This caſſia-tree ſhoots it's roots like the walnut-tree, and has broad leaves, of a pretty fine green. It's flowers, or bloſſoms, are yellowiſh, and produce a fruit, which is a kind of pod, long, round, maſſy, of a red colour, inclining to black. When the pod is ripe, it is full of a black and ſweetiſh pith, contained in ſmall cells of a ligneous ſubſtance; with this pith is mixed a very hard ſeed, in the form of ſmall white kernels, ſhaped like a heart: theſe are the ſeeds of the tree.

This caſſia muſt be choſen new, in thick heavy ſticks, not hollow, of a tanned colour, whoſe rind, when broke, is thin and white within, and full of a black and velvety pulp, of a ſweet taſte, without any ſour or muſty ſavour. This caſſia comes by the way of Marſeilles.

The caſſia of Egypt is very much like that of the Levant, with regard both to the tree and to the fruit; except that the tree grows taller, and it's leaves are much narrower, and that the fruit is ſlenderer, and has a more tender rind. It is brought to Marſeilles from Grand Cairo, and ought to be choſen like that of the Levant.

The caſſia of Brazil is the thickeſt of all; there is ſome whoſe pods are four or five inches round, or even more.

The tree which bears it has long and narrow leaves, a little roundiſh at the end, and placed with a wonderful ſymmetry on both ſides of the ſlender branches from which they hang. The flower is a kind of roſe, conſiſting of four or five leaves; from the center of the flower ariſes a piſtil, with two or three threads. This caſſia is not commonly to be met with in the ſhops of the grocers and druggiſts of Paris, there being few who have any of it but out of curioſity.

Laſtly, the caſſia of the Antilles, or of the French iſlands in America, is that which is moſt commonly ſold and uſed at Paris, whither it is ſent from thoſe iſlands.

The caſſia-tree of thoſe iſlands grows eaſily from cuttings; it comes up very quickly, and is a plentiful bearer. It's wood is whitiſh, pretty ſoft, but extremely tough: it's bark is grey, and very rough. This tree grows very tall: its leaves are long and narrow, and of a pale green: it bears yellow flowers, in large bunches, which are ſucceeded by ſiliqua's, or pods, in which the caſſia, which is, as it were, the pith, or marrow of them, is contained. Theſe pods hang from the branches like bundles of candles, 12, 15, or even 20 of them together: they are green before they are ripe. One may know, by their blackneſs, when it is time to gather them. As for their thickneſs and length, it depends on the age of the

the tree, and the ſoil in which it is planted. The longer, thicker, and heavier the caſſia-pods, or ſticks, are, the more the caſſia is valued.

The caſſia-tree is a native of thoſe iſlands; that is to ſay, that it was not tranſplanted there from any other place. It's fruit was formerly one of the beſt commodities of thoſe iſlands; but, ſince the number of thoſe trees has been increaſed to an exceſs, that trade is very much decayed.

There is nothing to be obſerved with regard to the choice of this caſſia, but what has been already ſaid of that of the Levant. We ſhall add, however, that, if a perſon would have it from Rochelle, Nantes, or Dieppe, it is proper that he ſhould give orders to his factors, or correſpondents in thoſe towns, to chuſe it new, without any mixture of what is ſtale, and without having been buried, the better to preſerve it; and to have it placed lengthways and neatly in the boxes, or veſſels, wherein it is to be tranſported, to prevent the ſticks from breaking.

They give the name of caſſia in ſticks, or caſſia fiſtula, to that whoſe pod is intire, and out of which the pitch has not yet been taken. For uſe, the pitch, or pulp, is taken out and ſifted. This muſt be had both of knowing and creditable apothecaries, or you muſt have it ſifted in your preſence; for it is very common to meet at moſt of the apothecaries ſhops with old caſſia, ſifted or boiled with ſugar, in order to preſerve it.

The greateſt demand for caſſia in France is at Paris, there being but little of that drug conſumed in the provinces of that kingdom.

In the Levant, and in the Antilles, they preſerve green caſſia, and the flowers of the caſſia-tree, which produce almoſt the ſame effects as the common caſſia. Theſe purging comfits muſt be choſen freſh; it's ſyrup muſt be boiled up to a conſiſtency, and taſte neither acid nor muſty.

CASSIA LIGNEA. Some authors underſtand by that name the caſſia in ſticks, or the caſſia fiſtula. But the true caſſia lignea is a kind of cinnamon, or bark, much reſembling the true cinnamon, which, like that, grows no where but in the iſland of Ceylon. Dioſcorides calls it caſſia dura.

This bark ſhould be thin, deep-coloured, of an agreeable, biting, and aromatic taſte: but, how good ſoever it may be choſen, it comes nothing near true cinnamon; for which reaſon there is no great demand for it by itſelf; nor would there, perhaps, be any, if the druggiſts, being greedy after ſordid or unjuſt gain, did not mix it with true cinnamon; an impoſition which deſerves puniſhment: for four pounds of caſſia lignea do not coſt ſo much as one pound of true fine cinnamon. However, the former is uſed in the compoſition of Venice treacle. See CINNAMON.

CASSIDONY, a mineral and precious ſtone, with veins of ſeveral colours: they make vaſes of this ſtone. Some imagine that theſe vaſes, which the ancients called murrina, and which they valued very much, were made of caſſidony: others pretend they were a kind of porcelain, or China ware. See PORCELAIN.

CASSONADE, or CASTONADE, caſk ſugar, or ſugar put into caſks, or cheſts, after the firſt purification, but which has not been refined. It is ſold either in powder or in lumps: the whiteſt, and of which the lumps are the largeſt, is the beſt. Many imagine that it ſweetens more than loaf ſugar; but then it is certain that it yields a great deal more ſcum. See SUGAR.

CASTILLANE, or CASTELLAN, a gold coin, which is current in Spain. It is worth 14 rials and 16 deniers, or 3 livres and 10 ſols French money, upon the footing as it antiently was.

CASTILLANE is alſo a weight uſed in Spain for weighing gold; it is the hundredth part of a pound Spaniſh weight, which is one ſeventh per cent. lighter than the pound mark-weight of Paris.

Fifty caſtillanes make a mark, 6 caſtillanes and 2 tomins an ounce; 8 tomins make a caſtillane; every tomin is of 12 grains, and the carat contains 4 grains.

The caſtillane is alſo in uſe at Bueynos Ayres, in the mines of Chili and Potoſi, and throughout all Spaniſh America.

What they commonly call a weight of gold in Spain, is always underſtood of the caſtillane. So that, when they ſay, ten thouſand weight of gold, it is as much as if they ſaid, the weight of ten thouſand gold caſtillanes.

CASTILLE. New and Old Caſtille, and Eſtramadura, in the kingdom of Spain, are parts of one province, rather than diſtinct provinces. New Caſtille is bounded on the north by Old Caſtille, from which it is every way divided by mountains, which are only known by the names of the countries through which they run. On the eaſt it is parted from Eſtramadura by another chain of them, called Guadalupe and La Sorene; on the ſouth from Andaluſia, by theſe called Sierra Morena, and by an imaginary line from Murcia; and on the eaſt, by the river Segura, and mountains of Almanza and Requene from Valencia; and from Arragon, by thoſe of Mayao, Daroka, and Malina. The length of this kingdom, from ſouth to north, is about 180 miles, and pretty near the ſame in breadth, where it is wideſt, but it's figure is irregular in the latter.

The country being all inland, and ſurrounded with ſuch mountains, which contract the ſun's rays, as it were, into a focus, and at the ſame time ſuppreſs the free paſſages of the cooling ſea-breezes, it's climate is conſequently hotter in ſummer, and colder in the winter, than thoſe which lie along the ſea-coaſts, under the ſame latitude. It is, nevertheleſs, very healthy, and it's ſoil generally fertile, producing abundance of wheat and other grain, plenty of wine, oil, fruit, and herb; feeds a great quantity of cattle, all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame; and is very well ſupplied with variety of fiſh, and green paſture, by the many rivers that run through it.

This province, large as it is, and the principal of the whole kingdom, has, nevertheleſs, but ſix cities, one archbiſhopric, and one biſhopric. But it is ſufficiently compenſated, (1.) By it's famed metropolis Madrid, which, though no city, is yet eſteemed one of the fineſt and moſt opulent towns in the world; (2.) By the celebrated univerſity of Complutum, now Alcala de Henarez; and (3.) By the noble archbiſhopric of Toledo, reckoned the moſt opulent in the univerſe, after that of Rome, and now poſſeſſed by one of the royal family. To all which we may add, that New Caſtille has likewiſe a conſiderable number of fine, large, and rich towns, not inferior to any in Europe.

MADRID, the reſidence of the kings of Spain, and capital of the whole monarchy, is ſeated in the very heart of Spain, on the banks of the little river Manzanares, and in a wholeſome and fertile ſoil.

TOLEDO is built on a high, ſteep, and craggy rock, almoſt inacceſſible on all ſides, and made much more ſo by the courſe of the river Tagus, now Tajo, which encompaſſes it almoſt round.

The plain about it is ſpacious, fertile, and delightful, and ſo well watered by the Tagus, one of the moſt conſiderable rivers in Spain, that it produces corn, wine, oil, fruits, and every thing that can be deſired either for conveniency or delight. The air here is particularly ſerene, clear, and healthy; on which account, and the extraordinary plenty, variety, and cheapneſs of proviſions, which ſell much cheaper than in any inland market of Spain, here reſide many noble families, beſides gentry, learned and religious perſons, ſtudents, &c. a much greater number of merchants, tradeſmen, and artificers, eſpecially in the ſilk and woollen manufactures; which two branches alone are ſaid to have employed near 10,000 hands.

CUANCA, CUANZA, is ſituate in the mountainous part of New Caſtille, called La Sierra, on the eaſtern ſide of it. It ſtands on a hill, difficult of acceſs, on the high road between Madrid and Valentia. It is watered on one ſide by the Xucar, on the other by the Huecar; ſo that the plain abounds with fine gardens, orchards, and paſture ground. The Tagus, Xucar, Cabrial, and Turio rivers, running acroſs this territory, fertilize the land, and make fruitful every thing that life and luxury can deſire.

GUADALAXARA is the capital city of a territory called Al-Carria, ſeated on the banks of the river Henarez. It has handſome ſtreets and ſtately houſes, delicate ſprings and fountains, curious gardens and orchards, and plenty of proviſions of all ſorts. It is about 30 miles to the north-eaſt of Madrid, and accounted an healthy and delightful ſituation.

HUETA-GUELA is ſituate in a pleaſant plain, by which runs the fine brook Cada, which bubbles out of the ground at a ſmall diſtance, and yet is ſtrong enough to turn 17 corn and ſeveral fulling mills. The territory about it is large, fertile, and delightful, and produces, beſides all neceſſaries for life, a very conſiderable quantity of ſaffron annually. It ſtands weſt-ſouth-weſt from Madrid about 60 miles, and ſomewhat more from Toledo weſt-north-weſt.

CIVIDAD REAL lies in a deep bottom, that, for want of a current to carry off the waters, which come pouring down the adjacent hills, after a violent rain, it is in continual danger of being overflowed. Notwithſtanding the badneſs of it's ſituation, yet the city is very populous, and carries on ſeveral manufactures, and is particularly famed for making of gloves. It no ways conſiſts with a work of this kind, to enumerate all the other towns in this province, that are no way conſiderable for their trade or manufactures.—On this province, therefore, I ſhall only make the following

REMARKS.

In Madrid has been ſet up a manufacture of tiſſues, lute-ſtrings, and other ſilks, no leſs curious in the workmanſhip, than in the colours and mixtures, in imitation of the fabrics of Lyons in France; and this manufacture has produced ſuch as the late king himſelf was not aſhamed to wear.

This ſucceſsful eſtabliſhment in Spain has been owing to workmen, and a famous dyer from the city of Lyons, procured by his late majeſty, at the charge of his own royal revenue; and to the encouragement of a houſe and ſupplies of money, which he ordered to be advanced in the infancy of the undertaking, giving alſo a monthly penſion of 15 doublons to the maſter-dyer, and 12 doublons to the head manufacturer.

Without the gates of Madrid has been raiſed alſo a fabric of prime tapeſtry, in imitation of thoſe of Flanders, by a maſter and workmen, whom his majeſty procured from that country, at the charge of the treaſury; and they continue in this important manufactory, working for the royal palaces, having the encouragement of houſes, workſhops, and indulgences, which his majeſty granted them.

And notwithſtanding there be not yet in either of the fabrics a competent number of maſters and workmen, for the conſiderable conſumption of this kingdom; yet the main difficulty has been ſurmounted, which is ſettling and bringing the manufactures to the perfection already mentioned; for it is an eaſy thing to enlarge, or add to what we have begun, and already eſtabliſhed upon a good footing.

'By this plain fact, ſays a celebrated Spaniſh author, IN 'THE VERY FACE OF THE COURT, many perſons might 'be undeceived, who believe and propagate a notion (up-'on what grounds I know not) that in this kingdom we 'cannot arrive at the perfection we have ſeen in theſe and 'other manufactures, either on account of the delicacy of 'the work, as if there was neither genius to invent, nor hands 'to execute in Spain; or for colours, as if his majeſty's pro-'vinces did not really ſupply the principal and beſt materials 'for them; or from our water, which they ſuppoſe not pro-'per for them, even when both the declaration of foreign 'artificers, and experience, ſhews it to be very fit for dying 'all ſorts of colours; and it is alſo certain, that, notwith-'ſtanding foreigners introduced theſe curious fabrics, many 'SPANIARDS now join in them, and already make them in 'equal perfection *.

* By theſe very meaſures the great Colbert laid the foundation for the preſent flouriſhing trade of France. See the article BRITAIN. And, by theſe and the like maxims of policy, Spain is likely to raiſe her trade and navigation to what pitch they deſire. See the articles BISCAY, CATALONIA, and SPAIN. Do we not ſee that Spain is daily drawing away ingenious artificers from various parts of Europe, as well as Great-Britain? Wherefore, is it not the intereſt of theſe kingdoms to give all fitting encouragement to ingenious artificers and mechanics, to keep them at home, to prevent their loſs from impoveriſhing our own nation, and enriching our rivals, by their commerce and navigation? See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURES, MECHANICS, and ſuch other heads we from thoſe ſhall refer to.

'The grand fabric of fine cloths at Guadalaxara is wholly 'owing to the vigilance and protection of his majeſty, 'though there has not been yet, in the management of it, 'the good œconomy, which is requiſite, and has been di-'rected by his majeſty's orders. But one great point has been 'obtained, that many of the good workmen employed in theſe 'manufactures are SPANIARDS, and ſome, who have been 'bred up in them, have diſperſed into other parts of the king-'dom, which is the principal advantage reſulting from the 'arrival and introduction of foreign maſters and workmen; 'therefore no ſcruple ought to be made of bearing the ex-'pence of their journey, and their firſt ſettlement.' [BRI-TONS! permit me to do myſelf the honour earneſtly to recommend to you to cheriſh and careſs your ingenious ARTIFICERS, your MECHANICS, your MANUFACTURERS, that no inducements may prevail with theſe moſt uſeful ſubjects of the three kingdoms to abandon their native country, to inrich others, and ruin their own!]

'And it well deſerves our notice (continues this wiſe Spa-'niard) that it has been found by experience in Guadalaxara, 'and other parts of Spain, that the Spaniſh women, and even 'the very young girls, ſpin wool better and quicker than the 'miſtreſſes of foreign families that inſtructed them, and 'were brought over for that purpoſe.

'By means of due ſupplies and encouragement from his 'majeſty to Don Joſeph de Aguada, knight of the order of 'Calatrava, for the fabric of cloths in Valdemero, the Spa-'niards have alſo gained the point of manufacturing them 'in that town, as fine as thoſe of ENGLAND, and of good 'colours and mixtures; as is manifeſt from the approbation 'they have received from his majeſty, who has worn them 'himſelf upon ſeveral occaſions *.'

* This again is following the example of Lewis the XIVth of France, who, by the very ſame means enabled his ſubjects, firſt, to ſupply his own kingdom with the woollen manufacture, and afterwards encouraged them to ſupplant England at foreign markets. 'Tis certain, from this policy of the court of Spain, that we muſt loſe the greateſt part of the trade of both Old and New Spain. Does not this merit the conſideration of the wiſdom of the nation?

This is but a ſlight ſketch of what has been done in Spain, in regard to their trading intereſts.——Hear what this noble Spaniard further urges, and which is now duly attended to at the court of Spain:—— 'It is out of diſpute, ſays he, 'upon another occaſion, that the commerce, we have many 'years carried on with other nations, has been very injurious

'to the Spaniſh monarchy; and the cauſe, whence our da-'mage has ariſen in the ſame commerce, has been pointed 'out. So that it will be eaſy to conceive, that, in order to 'promote our own intereſt, and poſſeſs the great and happy 'conſequences, which we aim at, and we are invited to, 'and enabled to obtain from the great plenty, and ſuperior 'quality, of our materials and fruits, we ought to labour, 'with zeal and addreſs, in all theſe meaſures, that can avail 'towards ſelling more commodities and fruits to foreigners, 'than we buy of them, for here lies all the ſecret, good con-'duct, and advantage of trade [ſee our article BRITAIN, or 'GREAT-BRITAIN] or at leaſt, that we be upon a par 'in the barter of commodities, which might be even ſuffici-'ent for the conſtitution of this kingdom. For, by virtue of 'it, there would be detained, in Spain, the greateſt part of 'the wealth that comes from the Indies, and theſe kingdoms 'be conſtantly rich and powerful. Nor ought we ever to 'loſe ſight of this maxim, that the vaſt treaſures, which ar-'rive at Cadiz from theſe parts, contribute nothing to our 'relief or advantage, but will rather be turned againſt this 'monarchy, ſo long as they paſs, directly from the ſame port, 'to the rivals of the crown, &c.'

OLD CASTILLE, a kingdom in Spain, borders all the way on the ſouth to New Caſtille, from which it is divided by a ridge of mountains, which change their names according to the places they are in. By that chain which is called Sierra de Tablada, and by thoſe of Pica and Banos, from Eſtramadura on the weſt; and by thoſe of Avila and Pernia, with the ſmall rivers of Carrian, Piſuergia, and Heban, from Leon on the north-weſt. It is parted again on the north from Aſturias and Biſcay, by another ridge of hills branching out from the Pyrenees, only in the center; between theſe two provinces, it has a narrow ſlip of land, which reaches quite to the bay of Biſcay, whereon it has ſeveral ſea-ports.

The climate here differs ſomewhat from that of New Caſtille, by reaſon of the country being more mountainous, which makes the ſeveral parts of it vary, according to their ſituation, the vallies being exceſſive hot, the upper grounds proportionably cold and bleak; and others, according as the proximity of the hills ſends down refreſhing gales, or cauſes a greater reflection of the ſun. Upon the whole, the ſoil is good in general, in ſome ſenſe or other, the plains yielding plenty of all ſorts of grain, fruit, wine, and other proviſions; the ſides of the hills good paſture for their numerous cattle, and their ſummits timber for building and fuel. Some of theſe mountains are ſo high, as to be covered with ſnow at the top all the ſummer, which is carried and ſold to the towns to cool their wine, which is a uſual thing in Spain.

The natives are, for the moſt part, grave, ſmart, witty, and polite, but ambitious aſſerters of the antiquity and nobility of their families. The gentry, in general, are more ſollicitous about theſe trifles, and the politeneſs and purity of the Caſtilian language, than they are to cultivate the noble arts of traffic; which would more effectually preſerve the antiquity of their families, and delicacy of their manners and language, than what they prefer.

I ſhall leave ſuch delicacies to be elaborately repreſented by others of a different taſte; they don't ſuit mine at preſent.

SEGOVIA is the chief city for commerce. It is ſituate in a low valley, at the foot of a ridge of mountains, and encompaſſed on the north by the river Ereſma, on the ſouth by the brook Clamores, and the river Frio, which runs through the midſt of it.

The city ſtands on a noble eminence, is rich, populous, and opulent, thro' not only the great number of rich and noble families, who make their chief reſidence there, but much more ſo by the large commerce, manufactures, and other trades which are carried on here. Here are 25 corn-mills, 14 fulling-mills, various paper-mills, and three places on a fine river, made extremely convenient for cleanſing of their wool. The principal mint of Spain is fixed in this city, which, when it works, can coin 30,000 ducats per day. Here is alſo good printing-paper made, but the woollen manufacture is here the beſt, and the moſt conſiderable in all Spain; for here is a vaſt quantity of the fineſt wool made from innumerable flocks, that are raiſed in the neighbouring plains, and the cloth that is made here, is eſteemed the beſt in all the world, and in higheſt requeſt both at home and abroad.

Here are alſo ſundry other manufactures and trades carried on with great induſtry and ſucceſs; and this city has this peculiar excellent regulation, that it ſuffers no perſons to live a looſe and idle life; all muſt work, if they will eat; and no perſons are here ſuffered to beg.

SIGUENZA is likewiſe a noble and opulent city, is excellently well ſituated, and fertilized by the river Henarez, which waters the verdant plains round about, ſo that they abound with corn, wine, paſture, and all kinds of fruits, game, fowl, &c. They have admirable mineral and medicinal ſprings, which are much reſorted to.

There are four ſea-port towns in this province on the bay of Biſcay, Laredo, St Andero, Caſtro de Urdiales, St Vincents de la Barguera; which are well walled, and have good harbours for ſhips of ſmall bulk, each under the government of

a Corregidor, who is alſo captain-general, which is a poſt of honour and profit.

CASTING, in foundery, is the running of a melted metal into a mould, prepared for that purpoſe. See FOUNDERY, IRON, and LEAD.

CASTOREUM. The liquor contained in the little bags or purſes, at the bottom of the os pubis of the beaver or caſtor, and not in it's teſticles, as the ancients imagined, ſince it is found in the females as well as in the males. See BEAVER.

The liquor contained in the two upper bags is a reſinous, flabby ſubſtance, adhering to the ſmall fibres of the bags, of a greyiſh colour without, yellowiſh within, inflammable, of a ſtrong, penetrating, and diſagreeable ſcent; this is the true caſtoreum: being expoſed to the air, it hardens by degrees in a month's time, and becomes browner, brittle, and friable: but, if you would have it become hard ſooner, you need only hang the bags, in which it is contained, in the chimney, and leave them there a few days, and they will ſoon dry, and you may eaſily know, by handling the bags, whether the ſubſtance in them is become ſolid and dry.

The two lower bags are placed, the one on the right, and the other on the left ſide of the anus. They contain an unctuous and adipous ſubſtance, which looks like honey; it is of a pale yellow colour, of a ſtrong fœtid ſmell, like that of the caſtoreum, but ſomething weaker and fainter: this liquor condenſes, as it grows ſtale, and becomes of the conſiſtency and colour of tallow. When it is freſh, the phyſicians aſcribe wonderful properties to it; but, when old, it grows black, and turns into a ſtrong poiſon.

One meets at the merchants with bags of caſtoreum, ſome larger, ſome ſmaller, according as the beaver, from which they were taken, was of a greater or leſſer magnitude. The beſt come from Dantzic; the caſtoreum of Canada is much inferior.

The bags muſt be choſen large, heavy, of a brown colour, of a ſtrong penetrating ſmell, full of hard, brittle, friable matter, yellowiſh, brown, interlaced with very thin membranes, and of a ſharp taſte. Care muſt be taken that it has not been mixed with honey, or any other drugs, to ſwell the bags, which may be known by ſqueezing them; thoſe which have been adulterated being ſoftiſh, and yielding a liquid and ſtinking honey: but the natural ones are heavy and hard, of a penetrating ſmell, and full of ſmall filaments or threads.

Beſides the Venice treacle and mithridate, in which caſtoreum is uſed, it is alſo employed in ſeveral hyſteric and cephalic medicines. An oil is likewiſe drawn from it, which is called oil of caſtor, or beaver; and, whilſt it is in it's liquid unctuous ſtate, it is uſed as an ointment for the cure of ſeveral diſtempers. See BEAVER.

CATALONIA, a principality in Old Spain, is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, by which it is parted from the province of Rouſſillon in France; on the weſt by Arragon and a ſmall part of Valentia: from the firſt of theſe it is parted by the rivers Nagnera and Maturana, and a ridge of hills, and from the latter by the river Genia. On the ſouth and eaſt it is waſhed by the Mediterranean, and hath many a convenient ſea-port along theſe ſhores.

The inland part is a mixture of plains and mountains; that part next to France is the moſt mountainous, but further in it abounds with delightful and ſpacious plains. The climate, which reaches from 41 to 43 degrees of north latitude, and from one degree to 3. 20 min. eaſt longitude, is therefore neither ſo hot as Andaluſia, nor ſo cold as Aſturia, and the north part of Spain; being moreover ſheltered on the north by the Pyrenees, and on the eaſt by the ſea. This temperature, joined to the many ſtreams and rivers with which the country abounds, makes it exceeding fertile and delightful.

It's product, which is here in great plenty, is excellent wheat, rich wine, ſweet oil, exquiſite honey, delicious fruits of moſt kinds, abundance of cattle, ſwarms of fowls, wild and tame, vaſt quantities of deer, hares, rabbets, and all other game; good hemp, fine flax, ſaffron, variety of corn, and other grain, herbs, &c. a conſiderable quantity of ſilk, fine wool, fiſh of all ſorts, and in very great plenty; quarries of marble, alabaſter, and jaſper-ſtone, coral from the ſea, ſalt, and many other commodities.

BARCELONA is the capital city of this province, and is inferior to few in Europe, that are not the courts of princes. It is delightfully ſeated on the Mediterranean coaſt, a little below the gulph of Lyons in France, and opens to the ſea in a beautiful ſemicircle, which, together with it's eminence and caſtle, and the beauty of it's ſumptuous edifices, afford an engaging proſpect to the ſhipping, eſpecially as it ſtands between two conſiderable rivers, the Lobregal and Beſes.

The coaſt it ſtands upon is a good ſafe road; and the port, though rather too ſmall, hath yet rendered it a place of great trade, eſpecially when Indian commodities were brought from Turkey and Egypt, through the Mediterranean.

It's territory round it is ſtored with all neceſſaries for ſuſtenance and delight, as wheat, and other kinds of grain; oil, rich wines, fruit of all ſorts, cattle, fowl, honey, wood, and game of moſt ſorts.

TERRAGONA, the ſecond city in this province, ſtands commodiouſly ſituate near the coaſt of the Mediterranean, on the brink of a pleaſant hill, at the foot of which is a ſafe and convenient harbour for ſmall ſhips, between the river Gaya and Francoli.

The climate here is ſo temperate, and the ſoil of ſo rich and warm a quality, that the trees bear fruit and bloſſom in the coldeſt months. The country here in general is adorned with delightful gardens, orchards, and country-ſeats; the fields abound with corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, and fruits of moſt kinds in very great perfection; with all kinds of fowl, and game, and fiſh for the ſea. It ſtands above 50 miles ſouth-weſt of Barcelona, and about 45 eaſt from Tortoſa.

TORTOSA is ſituate on the banks of the Ebro, not far from the ſea, and has a good bay formed by that river, that comes up almoſt to the walls of this city. It's ſituation is about 12 miles from the frontiers of the kingdom of Valentia, in the midſt of a pleaſant wood, and has a ſtately bridge over the river.

Without this city is a beautiful plain 18 miles long, and 6 in breadth, watered with the Ebro, and producing corn, wine, oil, fruit, timber for ſhipping, great quantity of palm-trees, with cattle, fowl, game, and other neceſſaries, beſide ſilk in abundance, which is here made into ſarcenets. Here is no want of curious ſprings, which fertilize the plain, and amply ſupply the city with water, beſides quarries of marble and jaſper, and ſalt-pits.

LERIDA, another antient city on the borders of this province next to Arragon, ſituate on the banks of the river Segre, which falls into the Ebro, a few miles below it. The country here is pleaſant and fertile, abounding with all kinds of proviſions, and the city is famed, among other things, for making excellent gloves.

URGEL lies between two high mountains, not far from the Pyrenees, and on the banks of the Segre, about 90 miles diſtant from north-weſt Barcelona. It's territory is ſurprizingly fruitful, yielding an hundred fold of corn and other grain, with extraordinary quantities of almonds and other fine fruit, and feeds multitudes of cattle.

GIRONA lies along the ſide of a hill, in the eaſt-part of this province, about 21 miles from the ſea, and about 60 north-eaſt from Barcelona. The river Ter waſhes the walls of this city. It's productions around are much the ſame with Urgel.

VICQUE, a ſmall city, but pleaſantly ſituated in a kind of peninſula, formed by the rivers Ter and Naguerra, which almoſt encompaſs it. It ſtands near 36 miles north of Barcelona, and adjacent to a fertile and delightful plain. About 6 miles from the city is the mountain Moſſen, where are found excellent white and purple amethyſts and topazes. They are dug out of a fat, reddiſh, or yellowiſh earth, and the beſt ſort of theſe laſt are thoſe of the deepeſt violet. In ſome neighbouring mountains are likewiſe found gold, emeralds, and other curious ſtones, but in ſo ſmall quantity, that they ſcarce anſwer the end of ſearching for. On the ſhore of the late Silles, near this city, are alſo found ſome good topazes.

SOLSONA ſtands on the river Cardona, in the heart of this province, at the foot of a mountain, and in a pleaſant plain, about 60 miles north-weſt from Barcelona, and near the like diſtance from Terragon. In regard to objects of commerce, it affords little elſe but vaſt quantities of dried peaches, which are packed away hence into ſeveral parts.

BALAGUER is pleaſantly ſituate on the river Segre. Between this place and Lerida is a ſmall town named Terroſio, whoſe ſituation, whether from the ſerenity of the air, or any peculiar virtue from it's ſoil, is reckoned ſo extraordinarily ſalubrious, as even to cure mad folks, though ever ſo raging and furious.

CARDONA ſtands about 60 miles diſtant from Barcelona, near which city is a mountain of ſalt, which yields an annual revenue to the duke proprietor of 30,000 pieces of eight. The ſalt is tranſparent, and, when powdered, is exceeding white.

Theſe are the cities of note in this Spaniſh province, which have any productions, or commodious ſituation for commerce.

REMARKS.

Mere narratives alone of the trade of this, or the other part of the world, not affording that idea of the true ſenſe and ſpirit of peculiar courts, in regard to their commercial views and intentions, the reader will obſerve, that, wherever a ſuitable occaſion naturally offers, I have endeavoured to ſuggeſt not only ſomething tending towards the national intereſts, but what may prove of perſonal benefit and advantage to practical traders in general.

The ſyſtem of the Court of Spain having taken a new turn of late years, in relation to the commerce and navigation of that kingdom; and which muſt ſoon very ſenſibly affect all Britiſh merchants and traders, who have dealings, in any ſhape, with that nation, and alſo importantly affect the trading intereſt of Great-Britain in general; I judge it no way repugnant to the nature of this work, to apprize the public of what is doing in foreign countries, with reſpect to trade.

And whatever I ſhall occaſionally repreſent, or urge upon that head, I hope will be candidly judged of; as being intended in a national, and no other light. When facts are ingenuouſly ſtated, and reaſoning deducible therefrom modeſtly and diſpaſſionately inforced, I am willing to flatter myſelf, that no man, in the three kingdoms, can have reaſon to be diſguſted. If I am miſtaken in point of judgment, in giving my humble ſentiments upon a great variety of very delicate and complicated points of a national nature, I perſuade myſelf, that I ſhall meet with candour from the ſenſible and honeſt part of mankind, who always make due allowances, when they are convinced of the uprightneſs of the intention.

It is as little in my power, as in my diſpoſition, to inſinuate any thing that might have the leaſt tendency to embroil the public affairs. It is every man's duty to do otherwiſe, who is a friend to his country and the conſtitution. It becomes every individual, who profeſſes theſe principles, and has ever given teſtimony thereof, to contribute all in his power, not to leſſen, but to add to the weight and dignity of his country, when ſhe is injured and oppreſſed by other nations. And, if this ſhould ever be the caſe of theſe kingdoms, long experience hath proved, that drawing the ſword, upon every ſuch occaſion, is not the way to redreſs grievances. This can only be done, to good purpoſe, by the peaceable arts of commerce; for it is this, and this only, that can put us above inſults; it is not plunging ourſelves into wars, and increaſing our incumbrances, that can right us, if we may judge from paſt experience, but we may always right ourſelves, by means of the ſpirit of commerce wiſely conducted.

Every nation hath an equal right with ourſelves to make all advantage, by trade, of their lawful territory and natural ſituation. This is no juſt cauſe for anger; but it ought to inſpire emulation.

The Spaniards are about to cultivate thoſe arts of trade, which they have long neglected, and been reproached and ſtigmatized on that account. The conſequence of which muſt be, that they will take leſs of the Britiſh produce and manufacture, as well as leſs of thoſe of other nations. This will prove a national loſs, but not irretrievable. For, if we take leſs of their product, in proportion, as they diminiſh the importation of our commodities, will not this prevent any national injury? And if our traders cannot gain ſo much by Spaniſh products, when we take leſs, they muſt avail themſelves by other branches of traffic. If the ſtriking out of any new and important branches of commerce requires public encouragement at their commencement, let traders ſtate their wants; let them properly and dutifully apply to the great repreſentative of the nation, and certainly they will not be denied what is nationally, though they may, what is perſonally, intereſting. Let the arts of commerce, thoſe national, thoſe truly important arts, be but as much cultivated in theſe kingdoms, as the arts of wrangling, party, civil and religious ſtrife have been; and I could almoſt preſume to propheſy, that, if we loſe one branch of trade, we may gain another equivalent: and I hope, nay, I ſhall zealouſly endeavour, that this work may prove inſtrumental to bring the ſtudies of commerce into more general eſteem in the nation than hitherto they may have been; the conſequence whereof, I may reaſonably hope, will be productive of variety of new branches of trade, as well as tend to improve many of the old.

Under the head of BISCAY, I have juſt opened the ſcene of Spaniſh policy, that is ſoon likely to diſplay itſelf. What that nation is about to do in Catalonia, as well as other provinces, let the Patriot-Spaniard * ſpeak for himſelf.

* Don Geronymo de Uztariz.

'I am ſatisfied, ſays he, that there is now in the kingdom 'of Valencia above 2000 looms of ſilk and wool; in the 'principality of Catalonia, above 500; and, in the king-'dom of Granada, 1000, including both ſorts; and there 'are alſo in other provinces manufactures of ſilk, though not 'very conſiderable; and, in almoſt all of them, no contemp-'tible number of looms for the ſeveral fabrics of wool, ſuch 'as the middling and coarſe cloths, bays, ſerges, camblets, 'droguets, &c. One may, I think, without raſhneſs, ſuppoſe 'the ſilken and woollen looms, that are now in Spain, to be '10,000. Now theſe, with the 60,000 new ones that have 'been imagined to be ſet up, would amount to 70,000; and 'one may reckon 14,000, or about $\frac{1}{5}$ part of them to be 'ſilk looms: and the remaining 56,000 of fine, middling, 'and coarſe wool, of which laſt there is no leſs con-'ſumption.

'I have already remarked, that in every ſilk and woollen 'loom, taken together, there might be yearly manufactured 'to the value of 700 dollars, including the expence of mate-'rials and dyeing goods. In this eſtimate I am moderate, as 'well to ſtand clear of every thing that might ſeem forced, 'either in the facts, or the reaſoning. But, as preciſeneſs is 'neceſſary in calculations, I ſhall here produce that made, a 'few years ago, by the preſident and inſpectors of the ſilk 'manufacture in the city of Seville, which is as follows:

'That, in every loom of entire tiſſue, there is yearly 'wrought up 100 weight of ſilk, and 220 ounces of leaf ſil-'ver or gold, more or leſs. Theſe manufactures yield 150 'yards, which, at the moderate price of 3 doublons, amounts 'to 450 doublons.

'In each loom for middling tiſſue, 150 pounds of ſilk, and '159 ounces of metal yearly, and theſe wrought up yearly '190 yards, which, at the rate of 2 doublons a yard, amount 'to 380 doublons.

'In every loom for brocades, 200 pounds of ſilk, and be-'tween 70 and 80 ounces of metal, which are manufactured 'annually into 300 yards, and, at a doubion and a half per 'yard, make 450 doublons.

'In a loom of double taffeta, there is uſed 280 pounds of 'ſilk annually, which wrought up produce 1800 yards, 'and, at the rate of 10 reals de vellon, will amount to 300 'doublons.

'In every loom of ſingle taffeta, is expended 200 pounds of 'ſilk yearly, with ſmall difference, and they yield above '3000 yards, which at the rate of 6 reals de vellon, are 'worth 300 doublons.

'In every loom of plain or ſtriped ſattins, there is uſed yearly '200 pounds of ſilk; which woven yield 1200 yards, and 'at the rate of 16 reals a yard, one with another, the whole 'amount will be 300 doublons.

'In every loom of damaſk, there is yearly expended 280 'pounds, which wrought up produce 1200 yards, and at 'the rate of 29 reals, one with another, are worth 400 'doublons.

'Though ſome perſons, continues our writer, may be a 'little jealous of theſe calculations; and willing to reduce 'them even $\frac{1}{6}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$, it muſt be acknowledged, that after this 'reduction, there will be manufactured annually in every 'loom, one with another, to the value of a 1000 dollars, in-'cluding the price of the materials. So that in the 14,000 'looms appropriated to ſilk, out of the 70,000 for this com-'modity and wool, there would be manufactured to the 'amount of 14 millions of dollars; not forgetting that there 'is a fluctuation in the prices from year to year, according 'to the quantity of ſilk and fruits, and from other accidents, 'that uſually raiſe and fall the markets.

'From the information of people of experience, and to be 'relied upon, we find that in every woollen-loom, one with 'another, allowing for the difference between fine, middling, 'and coarſe cloths, there can be yearly manufactured to the 'value of above 700 dollars, including the materials. Hence 'there would be annually wrought up in the above 56,000 'woollen looms, to the amount of 39 millions, which, added 'to the 14 millions produced by the ſilk manufactures, would 'make 53 millions of dollars.

'It may be obſerved, indeed, that all poſitions, founded on 'principles that are not quite determinate, are liable to ſome 'uncertainty: however, they do not fail of affording light, 'by their approaches to truth; eſpecially, when ſome of the 'principles whereon they are founded are certain.

'From what I ſhall offer elſewhere upon the number of in-'habitants in Spain, it will be found that it contains near '7,500,000 ſouls; and though there be many of theſe that 'yearly expend in manufactures of ſilk and wool, or of both 'ſorts, above 100 crowns, without any regard to linnen, it 'is alſo known, that the greateſt part of the inhabitants of 'both ſexes are found to be dreſſed in middling and coarſe 'cloths, and that every ſuit laſts them about two years. 'And when we conſider that the country people, and me-'chanics, take up for a ſuit ſix yards of ordinary cloth '(which is narrower than the fine) this, at 15 reals a yard, 'will amount to ſix dollars, and that two dollars more will 'be neceſſary for linings, the whole commodity will coſt eight 'dollars yearly; and, upon ſuppoſition a ſuit of cloaths ſhall 'wear two years, there will be expended by every individual 'four dollars a year. But, as it is alſo certain that many of 'theſe wear a cloak and a cap, the annual expence of every 'one of this claſs may be ſtated, in theſe commodities, at 'five dollars.

'Nor ſhould it be unobſerved, that younger boys and girls, 'of the lower claſs, will not expend, in cloaths, four dollars 'yearly; the ſame, alſo, will happen to a great number of 'women, excluſive alſo of linnen; but, in conſideration there 'are many of both ſexes that yearly expend in commodities of 'ſilk and wool from 20 to 100 dollars, and more, I am per-'ſuaded that, for every one of the 7,500,000, one with an-'other, we may fairly calculate their annual expence, in both 'commodities, at four dollars and a half, which, for the 'whole, will amount to ſomething above 33,000,000 of 'dollars: and, if we deduct this ſum from the 53,000,000, 'the ſuppoſed value of the fabrics manufactured in the above '70,000 looms, there would remain to us, of both commo-'dities, the value of 20,000,000. And, by means of this 'overplus, one may, I think, furniſh his majeſty's Indies 'both with the ſilks they are in want of, and alſo the fine 'cloths that go thither from Europe, ſince they have no oc-'caſion for ordinary cloths, by having them in plenty from 'their own fabrics. Nay, I am apt to believe, that, after 'the neceſſary ſupplies from Spain and the Indies, there will 'ſtill remain conſiderable quantities of the above ſilks and 'fine cloths, for exportation to ſeveral kingdoms and coun-

'tries

'tries in Europe, eſpecially thoſe of the north, that yield no 'ſilk, and but very little of fine wool.

'By this, and other wiſe proviſions, we ſhould accompliſh 'the grand point of ſelling others more commodities and 'fruits than we buy. For, even by the ſingle proviſion of 'ſetting up the 60,000 looms above mentioned, there would 'be, after ſupplying the kingdom of Spain, and the Indies, 'ſo many goods left, as would ſuffice, and even be more than 'a ballance for the ſpices, linnens, bacalao *, and other cured 'fiſh, we are obliged to have from foreign parts, for our faſt-'days; though the laſt article from abroad might be con-'ſiderably reduced, by taking ſuch ſteps as ſhall be propoſed 'in another place †.

* See the articles Biscay and Spain.

† Theſe we ſhall occaſionally ſhew, with humble expedients propoſed, to guard againſt any injury that this nation may ſuſtain thereby.

'After the ſuppoſed exportation of our ſilks and woollen cloths, 'we ſhould ſtill have the benefit of our wines, brandies, oils, 'raiſins, and other fruits, that are more than we conſume 'ourſelves, and go abroad in conſiderable quantities, beſides 'a great many ſmall wares, that might be made of the ex-'cellent iron of Biſcay, and other provinces, both for home 'and foreign conſumption; and great quantities of chryſtal 'and ſoap, that might be manufactured in theſe kingdoms, 'by means of the ſoſa and barilla *, which they abound 'with, and are acknowledged to be of ſuch ſuperior quality, 'that theſe two ingredients are eagerly deſired by all nations 'in Europe, and in preference to all other ſought after, and 'exported from Spain.

* A new manufacture of Caſtille ſoap, according to the real Spaniſh manner of making it, ſome of the ingredients whereof are ſaid to be ſoſa and barrilla, is lately ſet up in this kingdom, and is ſaid to meet with extraordinary encouragement. This, I have been well informed, has been introduced into the nation, by a late Turky captain of a merchantman, who many years uſed that trade with great reputation. See Soap.

'Moreover, the quickſilver, copper, tin, and other profit-'able metals, which his majeſty's dominions yield in great 'plenty, merit our conſideration; as alſo, that in many 'parts the ſoil is peculiarly adapted to the growth of flax 'and hemp, materials very advantageous, and will furniſh 'us with rigging and ſail-cloth, both for our own, and the 'ſupply of other countries.

'By theſe natural means, and which the conſtitution of theſe 'kingdoms renders very practicable, there would not only 'be prevented the extraction of many millions of gold and 'ſilver, but there might come in from foreign countries a 'conſiderable quantity of money.

'But, ſhould we ſucceed no farther than to detain all, or a 'moiety of the treaſures that come from the Indies, and have 'hitherto gone directly to other kingdoms, Spain ſerving them 'only for a paſſport, we ſhould then have that plenty, increaſe 'of people, ſtrength, and other advantages, we are now deſti-'tute of, by the deſertion and decay of the manufactures above-'mentioned, and which it is in our power to revive, enlarge, 'and improve, by granting ſome indulgences, and making 'a judicious reform of the duties upon exports and imports. 'For, though the commodities now exported from Spain are 'few, there would then go abroad large quantities; and, 'were they to pay no higher duty than 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of their 'value, the cuſtoms would yield more than at preſent. Nay, 'as the country would be rendered more populous by means 'of the manufactures, there would enſue an increaſe of the 'revenue, ariſing out of the more frequent ſales and pur-'chaſes, and a large conſumption of commodities and fruits: 'and, what is a natural conſequence, a better cultivation 'and produce from our lands, and an improvement in all 'mechanic arts. To all which ought to be added, as a ſure 'and ſettled principle, that though the treaſury ſhould not 'be ſo viſibly augmented, and go hand in hand with the 'wealth of the ſubjects, it would not be poſſible, under the 'obligation and tender regard we have for the king, to leave 'him poor, while we ourſelves are rich.

'Moreover, let us always recollect, when we think of this 'eſſential point, of re-eſtabliſhing and enlarging our manu-'factories, that we ought not to be diſcouraged by the lan-'guage of certain low-ſpirited perſons, that believe there is 'not ſufficient number of people in Spain to execute this 'grand project; for it ſhall be demonſtrated, that, by means 'of thoſe that now are here, and ſuch as commerce will al-'ways bring along with it, there will be a ſufficient number 'for this, and other proviſions for the relief of the kingdom.' This is a ſketch only of what is about to be done in Spain; and ought it not to rouſe and alarm us? What other extraordinary meaſures that nation is meditating, which may prove detrimental to the Britiſh trade, ſhall appear in it's proper place.

CATERGI, is the name of the public carriers in the Grand Signior's dominions. There is a remarkable particular to be obſerved with regard to them, which is, that whereas in France, and every-where elſe, the merchants, or travellers, give earneſt to thoſe who are to carry them, their baggage, or merchandizes; in Turky it is the carrier who gives earneſt to the merchant, and others, as a ſecurity that he will certainly carry their goods, or not ſet out without them.

CATHNESSHIRE, in Scotland, is alſo called the ſhire of WEIK. It is the moſt northern of all Scotland, has the ocean on the eaſt; Strathnaver and Sutherland, from which it is divided by Mount Orde, and a range of hills as far as Knocklin, and by the river Hallewdale, on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt; and on the north it is divided from the Orkney Iſlands by Pentland Frith. It comprehends all the country beyond the river Neſſe, and the loch into which it flows; and all the tract to the eaſt of the Mountain Orde was anciently called Cateyneſſe, and afterwards Cath-neſſe. It is 35 miles from north to ſouth, and about 20 in breadth: Templeman, who extends it about ſix miles more in both, gives it an area of 690 ſquare miles. Here are a few woods of birch, but they are little more than coppices.

In the foreſt of Moravins and Berridale, is great plenty of red-deer and roe-bucks, and they have good ſtore of cows, ſheep, goats, and wild fowl. At Dennet there is lead, at Old Urke copper, and iron ore at ſeveral places; but grazing and fiſhing are the chief ſupports of the inhabitants.

The ſhire is much indented by the many windings and breakings of the ſhore. The whole coaſt, except the bays, conſiſts of high rocks, and many promontories at the weſt end of the ſhire, pointing north to the opening of Pentland frith.

The ſea here is very dangerous, even in calm weather, except at ſtated times, by reaſon of the many vortexes, owing to the repulſe of the tides from the ſhore, and their paſſage between the Orkney Iſles. The inland country is mountainous, but, towards the coaſt, it is low, and produces corn enough both for the natives and for exportation; but, the ſoil being very moiſt and clayiſh, their harveſt is late, and the corn not ſo good as that of Roſs and Sutherland. Their firing is turf, for want of coal, yet all other neceſſaries are cheap. There is plenty of paſture in the fields and vallies, with good fowling and hunting in the mountains, and fiſhing in their rivers and lakes, as well as the ſea.

The ſhire is alſo populous, and has many ſmall towns and villages. Proviſions, eſpecially corn, cattle, and fiſh, are ſo plentiful here, that it is ſaid to be the cheapeſt market in the world, and that a man may live better upon 50 l. a year in this country, than he can in the ſouth upon 200 l.

The people here are ſo induſtrious, that, in ſome places, particularly from Weik to Dumbeth, which is about 12 miles, where there is no harbour, or bay, but one continued tract of rugged hard rocks, yet they have forced ſeveral harbours by art, and have made various laborious conveniencies, for the purpoſe of ſalting and drying fiſh for the market, which turn to as good account as their lands in general do.

Weik, is a royal burgh, and market-town. It ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the country, at the mouth of Murray Frith, where it falls into the German Ocean, and has a tide-harbour for ſmall veſſels; but it is not much frequented, as not being ſo ſafe as another about a mile to the north-eaſt.

Thurso, which lies oppoſite to it, on the weſt ſide of the ſhire, is a ſecure place for ſhips of any burden to ride in. A ſmall river runs by the eaſt ſide of it, called the Water of Thurſo, in which there is a good fiſhery for ſalmon, which keep in this river all the year long; ſo that they are to be had even in the winter-ſeaſon, by breaking the ice. They take ſeveral horſe-loads at a time, either by going into the water with nets, or by the contrivance of creels, with barred doors, carried from one ſide of the water to the other, and ſo made, as to let in the fiſh, and there to keep them. At one draught of the net they ſometimes take above 300 fine ſalmon.

CATTLE, a collective word, which ſignifies the four-footed animals, which ſerve either for tilling the ground, or for food to men. They are diſtinguiſhed into large or black cattle, and ſmall cattle: of the former are horſes, bulls, oxen, cows, and even calves and heifers; amongſt the latter are rams, ewes, ſheep, lambs, goats, kids, &c.

Cattle are the chief ſtock of a farm: they who deal in cattle are ſtiled graziers.

Laws of England in regard to cattle.

The keeping, feeding, and ſelling of cattle, being regulated in this nation by ſeveral acts of parliament, we ſhall give here an abſtract of thoſe acts.

Stat. 3 and 4 Edw. VI. cap. 19. ſect. 1. No perſon ſhall buy any oxen, ſteers, runts, kine, heifers, or calves, but only in open fair or market, and ſhall not ſell the ſame again alive, at the market or fair where he bought the ſame, upon pain of forfeiture of double the value.

Sect. 2. Provided that it ſhall be lawful for all perſons to buy oxen, &c. out of fair or market, for proviſion of their houſehold, team, or dairy.

Sect. 3. No butcher ſhall buy fat oxen, ſteers, runts, kine, heifers, calves, or ſheep, and ſell the ſame again alive, upon pain of forfeiture of every ſuch ox, &c.

Sect. 4. Every butcher may buy fat oxen, ſteers, runts, kine, heifers, calves, and ſheep, out of fair or market, ſo that ſuch butcher

butcher ſell not the ſame again alive. The one moiety of all which forfeitures ſhall be to the king, and the other moiety to him that will ſue for the ſame. This act, which was to endure to the end of the next parliament, was continued indefinitely by 3 Car. I. cap. 4. and 16 Car. I. cap. 4.

Stat. 2 and 3 Phil. & Mar. cap. 3. ſect. 2. Every perſon which ſhall keep or feed above ſix-ſcore ſheep for the moſt part of the year upon his ſeveral paſtures, or farms apt for milch kine, and wherein no other perſon hath common, ſhall yearly, for every three-ſcore ſheer ſheep, keep one milch cow, and ſhall rear up yearly for every ſix-ſcore ſheep one calf, upon pain of forfeiture for every month 20 s. for every cow ſo not kept, and twenty ſhillings for every calf not reared.

Sect. 3. Every perſon which upon his ſeveral paſtures ſhall keep above 20 oxen, runts, ſchrubs, ſteers, heifers, or kine, ſhall, for every 10 beaſts, keep one milch-cow, and rear yearly, and keep for one whole year, one calf for every two milch-kine, upon the pains afore-rehearſed, except the calves die within the year: the one half of which forfeitures ſhall be to the king and queen, and the other half to the party that within one year after the offence will ſue for the ſame in the courts of record, or before the juſtices of peace, at their general ſeſſions.

Sect. 4. This act ſhall not bind any perſon to keep milch-kine, nor to breed calves, for ſuch ſheep, or other beaſts, as he ſhall keep to be ſpent in his own houſe. This act to endure for ſeven years: but was made perpetual 13 Eliz. cap. 15.

Stat. 7 Jac. I. cap. 8. ſect. 2. The ſtatute 2 and 3 Phil. and Mar. cap. 3. ſhall extend to all grounds apt for milch-kine, and not to be laid open to common at any time of the year.

Stat. 18 Car. II. cap. 2. ſect. 1. Importation of cattle is a public nuſance, and ſhall be ſo adjudged; and if any great cattle, ſheep, or ſwine, or any beef, pork, or bacon (except for the neceſſary proviſion of ſhips, in which the ſame ſhall be brought, not expoſing the ſame to ſale) ſhall be imported, it ſhall be lawful for any conſtable, tithingman, headborough, churchwardens, or overſeers of the poor, to ſeize and keep the ſame eight and forty hours, in ſome public place where ſuch ſeizure ſhall be made; within which time, if the owners, or any for them, ſhall make it appear unto ſome juſtice of peace, by oath of two witneſſes, that the ſame were not imported from beyond the ſeas, the ſame ſhall be delivered: but, in default of ſuch proof, the ſame to be forfeited, one half to the uſe of the poor of the pariſh, the other half to his uſe that ſhall ſeize the ſame.

Sect. 3. Nothing in this act ſhall hinder the importation of cattle from the Iſle of Man, ſo as the number of the ſaid cattle do not exceed 600 head yearly, and that they be of the breed of the Iſle of Man, and be landed at the port of Cheſter.

Sect. 4. This act to continue ſeven years: made perpetual by 32 Car. II. cap. 2.

Stat. 20 Car. II. cap. 7. ſect. 3. Any inhabitant of the liberties, pariſhes, and places, where importation of cattle, beef, &c. ſhall be, may take the cattle and goods ſo imported, and, after ſeizure, ſhall deliver them to the conſtable, tithingman, headborough, churchwardens, and overſeers of the poor, &c. to be kept and diſpoſed in the manner in this act, and in the act 18 Car. II. cap. 2. mentioned.

Sect. 4. If no ſeizure ſhall be made by the officers or inhabitants of the liberty, &c. where ſuch cattle or goods ſhall be firſt imported, then ſuch liberty, &c. and the inhabitants thereof, neglecting to make ſeizure, ſhall forfeit 100l. for the uſe of the houſe of correction within the county, or liberty: and the monies ſo forfeited, and other forfeitures which are to accrue to the poor, ſhall be accounted for, as the overſeers of the poor are to account by the ſtatute 43 Eliz. cap. 2.

Sect. 5. Every veſſel, with all her tackle, in which any cattle, beef, &c. ſhall be imported, and out of which they ſhall be put on ſhore, ſhall be forfeited; and it ſhall be lawful for any perſon, within one year after ſuch importation, to ſeize the veſſel, and make ſale thereof to the beſt advantage; and one half of the monies ſhall be to the uſe of the poor of the pariſh where the ſame ſhall be ſeized, the other half to his uſe that ſhall ſeize the ſame. And it ſhall be lawful to any juſtice of peace of the county, or chief officer of the port-town where ſuch importation ſhall be, or where any of the cattle, beef, &c. ſo imported ſhall be brought, by warrant to cauſe to be apprehended all the maſters and ſeamen having charge of, or belonging to ſuch veſſel, and every other perſon employed in the landing, or taking care of the ſaid cattle, beef, &c. and them to commit to the common jail for three months.

Sect. 6. As often as it ſhall happen that any cattle, beef, &c. after the firſt ſeizure, ſhall be found in any other pariſh, or place, it ſhall be lawful for the conſtable of ſuch other pariſh, or place, to ſeize and diſpoſe the ſame as forfeited; the one moiety to the uſe of the poor of ſuch other pariſh, the other to the uſe of ſuch officer who ſhall ſeize the ſame; any former ſeizure in any other place notwithſtanding.

Sect. 7. If any action, &c. be proſecuted for any thing done by colour of this or the aforeſaid act, and it ſhall not be proved to the jury, that the cauſe of ſuch action, &c. did ariſe within ſuch county where ſuch action is laid, the defendant ſhall be found not guilty.

Sect. 8. If any action, &c. ſhall be proſecuted for any thing done in purſuance of this, or the aforeſaid act, the perſons ſued may plead the general iſſue, and if the plaintiff, &c. ſhall be nonſuited, &c. the defendants ſhall have treble coſts.

Sect. 10. If any perſons ſhall wilfully and fraudulently agree to evade the forfeitures upon importation of cattle or goods in this act ſpecified, and the ſame ſhall be put in execution, every ſuch perſon thereof indicted, or preſented within one year after ſuch offence, and being convicted, ſhall incur the pains contained in the ſtatute of præmunire, 16 Rich. II. cap. 5.

Stat. 22 Car. II. cap. 13. ſect. 6. There ſhall be paid, for every ox or ſteer that ſhall be exported, 1 s. and no more.

Sect. 7. It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to export cows or heifers, paying for each 1 s. and alſo to export ſwine or hogs, paying for each hog 2 d.

Sect. 8. It ſhall be lawful for any perſon to export, by way of merchandize, horſes or mares to any part in amity with his majeſty, paying for each 5 s.

Stat. 32 Car. II. cap. 2. ſect. 3. Any perſon may ſeize cattle and goods imported contrary to ſtat. 18 Car. II. cap. 2.

Sect. 5. Every ſeizer of ſuch cattle, ſheep, or ſwine, ſhall, within ſix days after conviction, cauſe the ſame to be killed; and the hides and tallow ſhall be to the uſe of the ſeizer, and the remainder ſhall be diſtributed amongſt the poor of the pariſh by the churchwardens and overſeers, upon notice to be given them by the ſeizer.

Sect. 6. In caſe the ſeizer, or the churchwardens and overſeers, ſhall fail in their duties in the execution of this act, every of them ſhall forfeit 40 s. for every one of the great cattle, and 10 s. for every ſheep or ſwine; one moiety to the poor of the pariſh, and the other to the informer; to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, by warrant of a juſtice of peace where the offence ſhall be committed, upon confeſſion of the party, view of the juſtice, or oath of one witneſs; and, for want of diſtreſs, the offenders to be committed to the common jail for three months, without bail.

Sect. 8. No mutton or lamb ſhall be imported, ſubject to the like ſeizures and penalties as are appointed againſt the importation of beef, pork, or bacon.

Sect. 10. If any great cattle, ſheep, or ſwine, ſhall be ſeized in purſuance of this, or the aforeſaid act, and afterwards ſhall be removed into, and found alive in any other pariſh or place, the ſame ſhall be liable to the ſame ſeizure, and the ſeizer and poor of the place have the like benefit, and the proof be incumbent upon the owner, as if ſuch cattle had never before been ſeized.

Sect. 11. If any Engliſh, or other cattle, driven or intermixed with Iriſh cattle, ſhall be ſeized together with them, ſuch cattle ſo intermixed and ſeized ſhall be deemed Iriſh.

CAUDEBEC, a ſort of hats, thus called from the town of Caudebec in Normandy, where they manufacture a great many of them. They are made of lamb's wool, of the hair or down of oſtriches, or of camel's hair. See HATS.

CAVIARY, CAVEER, or CAVEAR, the ſpawn or hard roes of Sturgeon, made into ſmall cakes an inch thick, and of a hand's breadth. Theſe are ſalted and dried in the ſun. The Italians ſettled at Moſcow drive a very great trade in this commodity throughout that empire, becauſe there is a prodigious quantity of ſturgeons taken at the mouth of the Wolga, and of the other rivers which fall into the Caſpian ſea.

After the caviary has been ſalted and dried, it is ſent up that river to Moſcow, whence it is diſtributed throughout all Ruſſia; and is in great eſteem by the Muſcovites, becauſe of their three lents, which they keep with a ſuperſtitious exactneſs.

There is alſo a pretty large quantity of it conſumed in Italy; and they begin to be acquainted with it in France, where it is reckoned no deſpicable diſh on the beſt tables.

The French and Italians get the caviary from Archangel, a port in Moſcovy; but they ſeldom get it at the firſt hand: they commonly buy it of the Engliſh and Dutch, but eſpecially of the latter, who drive the greateſt trade in Moſcovy. Good caviary ſhould be of a reddiſh brown and dry. It is eat with oil and lemon-juice.

The beſt caviary of Moſcovy is made with bolluca, a fiſh from about eight to ten feet long, which is catched in the Caſpian ſea. This caviary is by far preferable to that which is made of the ſturgeon's rows, and is delicious, when freſh made.

There is likewiſe a great deal of caviary brought from the Black Sea, particularly from Aſoph and Kilia, two towns of great trade; the one ſituated at the mouth of the Tanais or Don, and the other near the mouth of the Danube. This caviary is made of the hard roes of ſeveral fiſhes, particularly, of the ſturgeon. That which is ſold at Conſtantinople comes chiefly from Aſoph, from whence there is ſent, one year with another, to that capital of the Turkiſh empire, about ten thouſand butts or hogſheads, each butt weighing 7 quintals and a half.

As caviary is not rated in France, it pays there a duty of importation at the rate of 5 per cent. of it's value, according to

the eſtimate which is made in an amicable manner, agreeable to the laſt article of the tariff of 1664.

CEDAR. The cedar of mount Libanus (or Lebanon, as it is called in our Engliſh tranſlation of the bible) is famous in the Holy Scripture. This is reckoned one of the firſt and largeſt trees in the world: it grows to a prodigious height; is thick, ſtraight, and raiſed pyramid-wiſe; it's bark is even and ſmooth; it's wood very hard, beautiful, ſolid, inclining to a brown colour, and, as it were, incorruptible: with this precious timber was built Solomon's temple and his palace. We read alſo in the Holy Scriptures, how many cities this king of the Jews gave to king Hiram, in payment for the cedar-timber, which he ſent him for that magnificent ſtructure, without being yet able to ſatisfy him to his mind.

The cedar-tree puſhes out branches at the diſtance of 10 or 12 feet from the ground. They are large, and at a diſtance from each other. It's leaves are pretty much like thoſe of roſemary. It is an ever-green, and lives very long, but dies, as ſoon as it's top is cut off. The leaves ſtand upright, and the fruit hangs down; that fruit is a ſmall cone, like that of the pine-tree, except that it's rind is thinner, ſmoother, and more open. The ſeed is like that of the cypreſs-tree.

There are ſtill ſome cedars on mount Libanus, but in ſmall number, above and to the eaſt of Biblos and Tripoli. There are none to be ſeen any where elſe on thoſe mountains. But it is very probable, that there were a great many more formerly, ſince their timber was uſed in ſo many conſiderable works. There are ſome cedars alſo growing in ſome parts of Africa, in the iſle of Cyprus, and in that of Crete or Candia. Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian, aſſerts, that Solomon planted ſo large a quantity of cedars in Judea, that they were as numerous as the ſycamore-trees, which are very common in that country.

They uſed that timber not only for beams, and for the boards which covered the buildings, and made up the cielings of the apartments, but they put it likewiſe into the body of the walls, ſo that there were, for inſtance, three rows of ſtone, and one of cedar-wood. They alſo made ſtatues of it, when they would have them laſt a long time. It is uſed to make fine turners and inlaid work, and in ſome floors and ceilings of royal palaces, and other ſtately edifices; but, in thoſe places where it grows, it is employed in land and ſea-buildings, like common timber.

During the hotteſt ſeaſon of the year, there runs naturally, and without any inciſion, from the trunk and large branches of this tree, a white, clear, and tranſparent reſin, which is called cedar-gum, or maſticine-manna, which hardens and forms itſelf into grains like maſtic. The largeſt trees do hardly yield ſix ounces of it a day.

When the gum has done running of itſelf, they make inciſions into the tree, from whence iſſues afterwards an unctuous liquor, which dries, as it runs along the trunk of the tree. This is the reſin of cedar, which is to be ſold at the druggiſts ſhops; it is of a fine yellow colour, friable, lucid, tranſparent, and of a good ſmell.

Laſtly, the cedar furniſhes alſo a third ſort of drug, called turpentine, or reſin of cedar: it is a liquor clear, like water; of a ſtrong penetrating ſcent, contained in ſmall bladders or veſicles, which the exceſſive heat of the ſun cauſes to riſe on the trunk of the tree. Theſe gums and reſins of cedar are ſeldom to be met with in France.

Mr Miller obſerves, that what we meet with in the Scripture of the lofty cedars, can be no ways applicable to the ſtature of this tree; ſince, by the experience we have of thoſe now growing in England, as alſo from the teſtimony of ſeveral travellers, who have viſited thoſe few remaining trees on mount Libanus, they are not inclined to grow very lofty, but, on the contrary, extend their branches very far: to which the alluſion made by the pſalmiſt agrees very well, when he is deſcribing the flouriſhing ſtate of a nation: they ſhall ſpread their branches like the cedar-trees.

Ranwolf, in his travels, ſays, there were not at that time (i. e. anno 1574.) upon mount Libanus, more than 26 trees remaining, 24 of which ſtood in a circle; and the other two, which ſtood at a ſmall diſtance, had their branches almoſt conſumed with age; nor could he find any younger trees coming up to ſucceed them. Theſe trees, he ſays, were growing at the foot of a ſmall hill, on the top of the mountains, and amongſt the ſnow. Theſe having very large branches, they do commonly bend the tree to one ſide, but are extended to a great length, and in ſo delicate and pleaſant order, as if they were trimmed and made even with great diligence; by which they are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from fir-trees. The leaves, continues he, are very like to thoſe of the larch-tree, growing cloſe together in little bunches, upon ſmall brown ſhoots.

Maundrell, in his travels, aſſerts, there were but 16 large trees remaining, ſome of which were of a prodigious bulk; but that there were many more young trees of a ſmaller ſize: he meaſured one of the largeſt, and found it to be twelve yards ſix inches in girt, and yet ſound, and thirty-ſeven yards in the ſpread of it's boughs. At about five or ſix yards from the ground it was divided into five limbs, each of which was equal to a great tree. What Maundrell has related was confirmed to Mr Miller, by a worthy gentleman of his acquaintance, who was there in 1720, with this difference only, viz. in the dimenſions of the branches of the largeſt tree, which that gentleman meaſured, and found to be twenty-two yards diameter. Now, whether Maundrell meant 37 yards in circumference of the ſpreading branches, or the diameter of them, cannot be determined by his expreſſions, yet neither of them will agree with the abovementioned gentleman's account.

Monſieur le Bruyn reckons about thirty-five or thirty-ſix trees remaining upon mount Libanus, when he was there, and would perſuade us it was not eaſy to reckon their number. He alſo ſays, their cones do ſome of them grow dependent; which is abundantly confuted by the abovementioned travellers, as alſo from Mr Miller's own experience; for all the cones grow upon the upper part of the branches, and ſtand erect, having a ſtrong woody central ſtyle, by which it is firmly annexed to the branch, ſo as with difficulty to be taken off; which central ſtyle remains upon the branches, after the cone is fallen to pieces, ſo that they never drop off whole, as the pines do.

The wood of this famous tree is accounted proof againſt all putrefaction of animal bodies (but ſee the end of this article). The ſaw-duſt is thought to be one of the ſecrets uſed by thoſe mountebanks, who pretend to have the embalming myſtery. This wood is alſo ſaid to yield an oil, which is famous for preſerving books and writings; and the wood is thought, by lord Bacon, to continue above a thouſand years ſound. It is likewiſe recorded, that, in the temple of Apollo at Utica, there was found timber of near two thouſand years old. And the ſtatue of the goddeſs, in the famous Epheſian temple, was ſaid to be of this material alſo, as was moſt of the timber-work of that glorious ſtructure.

This ſort of timber is very dry, and ſubject to ſplit; nor does it well endure to be faſtened with nails; therefore pins of the ſame wood are much preferable.

Dampier tells us in his voyages (vol. I. p. 29.) that there are cedars in St Andreas, a ſmall uninhabited iſland, near that of Providence, to the weſtward of it, in 13 degr. 15 min. north latitude, and from Portobello north-north weſt, about 70 leagues. Jamaica alſo is well ſtored with cedars of it's own, chiefly among the rocky mountains. Thoſe of St Andreas grow likewiſe in ſtony ground, and are the largeſt that ever Dampier knew, ſays he, or heard of; the bodies alone being commonly 40 or 50 feet long, many 60 or 70, and upwards, and of a proportionable bigneſs. The Bermudas are alſo well ſtored with them; ſo is Virginia, which is generally a ſandy ſoil. Our author ſaw none in the Eaſt-Indies, nor in the South-Sea, except on the iſthmus of Panama. There is alſo plenty of ſtraight large cedars in the Maria's, three uninhabited iſlands in north latitude, 21 deg. 40 min. 40 leagues diſtant from cape St Lucas in California.

They make in America periagoes and canoes of cedar, and theſe are the beſt of any: they are nothing but the tree itſelf, made hollow boatwiſe, with a flat bottom; the canoe is generally ſharp at both ends, and the periago at one only, with the other end flat. But what is commonly ſaid of cedar, that the worm will not touch it, is a miſtake; for our author aſſerts, that he has ſeen of it very much worm-eaten.

As Dampier has given us no particular deſcription of the cedars he mentions, we cannot determine whether they be of the ſame kind with thoſe of mount Libanus, or with thoſe mentioned in the next article.

CEDAR of Phœnicia, otherwiſe called SMALL CEDAR, OXYCEDRUS, is a kind of cedar, which grows in Phœnicia and Cilicia; it is pretty much like the juniper-tree, for which reaſon ſome give it that name.

There are three ſorts of this tree, according to Lemery, which have different names in Latin. The trunk and branches of the firſt ſort are crooked and knotty; it's wood is reddiſh, and yields a ſmell like that of the cypreſs-tree; it's leaves are narrow, pointed, tougher, and ſharper than thoſe of the juniper-tree, always green, and like thoſe of the cypreſs-tree. It's catkins have ſeveral ſmall ſcales, and at the foot there are ſome membranaceous cods or pods, full of duſt. The fruit grows upon the ſame foot with the catkins, but at a diſtance from them; it is a berry, which, as it ripens, grows yellow, ſomewhat fleſhy, odoriferous, of a pleaſant taſte, each of which contains commonly three ligneous and hard ſtones, round on top, and flattened on the other ſide; each ſtone includes an oblong ſeed. In hot countries there iſſues from this tree a gum, which is called vernix.

The ſecond kind, called Cedrus minor altera, differs from the firſt in this, the tree is not ſo tall, and the berries are larger.

The third ſpecies is called Cedrus Hiſpanica procerior, folio maximo. The taller Spaniſh cedar, with very large leaves. It grows much higher than the other ſorts; it's berries are larger, and of a black colour.

Theſe cedars grow in hot countries, and in the plains along the Mediterranean, in Italy, Spain, Provence, and Languedoc.

doc. They are ever-greens; their wood is odoriferous; their leaves are good for the ſtomach; and their berries, which are called cedrides, are a cordial.

They extract from the cedar-wood, by the retort, after the common manner, a black oil, which is thought to be the true oil of cada, otherwiſe called cedria; inſtead of which, as it is very ſcarce, they uſe the oil extracted from the large and ſmall juniper-tree, or the clear oil of the pitch, which has kept the name of oil of cada. The true oil of cada is a ſovereign remedy for the cure of a morphew; it is likewiſe uſed with good ſucceſs for curing the ſcab, or itch, in horſes, oxen, or other cattle.

From the trunk of the oxycedrus is extracted, by inciſion, a very clear and tranſparent gum, which is the true ſandarac, but is ſeldom to be met with in France, or elſewhere, where they ſubſtitute in it's ſtead the gum of the juniper-tree.

CEDRA, or CEDRAT, a kind of citron-tree, the fruit of which has a very agreeable ſmell. That name is alſo ſometimes given to the citron it produces.

Theſe trees grow plentifully in Italy, where they make a liquid comfit with the ſmall citrons, or cedrats, which they preſerve intire, and a dry ſweet-meat with the large cedrats, which they cut into quarters to preſerve.

Cedrat-water, which is in high eſteem in France, on account of it's excellent perfume, and perhaps too becauſe, it is very ſcarce, is made with the zeſts, or ſmall thin pieces, cut from the ſurface of the peel of the fruit, before it be quite ripe; by ſqueezing theſe zeſts they expreſs the juice out, which they receive on a piece of glaſs, from whence it runs into ſome veſſel that is held under it. Some call it Barbadoes-water, but improperly: for cedrat is the pure juice of the citron, or lemon-peel; whereas Barbadoes-water is a mixture of brandy, or other ſpirits rectified, and not the pure cedrat-water, or juice.

CENSAL, a word uſed on the coaſt of Provence in France, and in the ports of the Levant. It ſignifies the ſame thing with the word broker; that is to ſay, one whoſe buſineſs is to procure to merchants and traders the buying and ſelling of their commodities, and who intervenes alſo ſometimes in other mercantile tranſactions, as negociating bills of exchange. See AGENT, and BROKERS.

The merchants and traders commonly pay one half per cent. to the cenſal for brokerage.

Moſt of the cenſals of the Levant, particularly they who act as brokers at Grand Cairo, are Arabs by nation. The contracts they make between the European merchants and thoſe of the country, are intirely carried on with ſhew and grimace: it is a perfect comedy, when the cenſal would oblige an European merchant to pay to his countrymen the price demanded at firſt for any commodity, or, at leaſt, to abate very little of it.

When the European has made his offer, which is always below the price demanded by the ſeller, the Arabian cenſal pretends to fall into a violent paſſion, he bawls and howls like a madman, or enthuſiaſt, and comes up to the merchant, as though he would ſeize him by the throat, and ſtrangle him, though he never touches him. In caſe this firſt ſcene does not ſucceed to his wiſhes, he quarrels with himſelf, tears his cloaths, beats his breaſt ſoundly with his fiſt, and, rolling himſelf on the ground, he cries out, like a furioſo, that an honourable merchant is inſulted, that his wares were not ſtolen, to be ſo unconſcionably undervalued, and diſpoſed of at ſo low a price. Finally, as the European merchant, who is uſed to that burleſque way of trading, continues ſedate and unmoved, and keeping to his firſt offer, the cenſal becomes quiet alſo, and, giving his hand to the merchant, embraces him very cloſe, as a token that the bargain is ſtruck, and concludes the farce with ſaying, Halla quebar, Halla quebir, i. e. God is great, God is very great: which words he pronounces with as much coolneſs and tranquillity, as though he had not juſt before counterfeited all the contortions and howlings of a man poſſeſſed with an evil ſpirit.

CENT, ſignifies properly a hundred, being an abridgment of the word centum; but it is often uſed in commerce to expreſs the profit or loſs ariſing from the ſale of any commodity: ſo that when we ſay, there is 10 per cent. profit, or 10 per cent. loſs, upon any merchandize that has been ſold, it is to be underſtood that the ſeller has either gained or loſt ten pounds on every hundred pounds of the price at which he bought that merchandize, which is $\frac{1}{10}$ of profit, or $\frac{1}{10}$ of loſs, upon the total of the ſale.

To gain 100 per cent. (or cent. per cent.) in trade, is the doubling of one's capital: to loſe 50 per cent. is to loſe one half of it.

CENT, is alſo uſed in the trade of money, and ſignifies the benefit, profit, or intereſt of any ſum of money, which is laid out for improvement. Thus we ſay, money is worth 4 or 5 per cent. upon exchange; that is to ſay, it brings 4 or 5 pounds profit for every hundred pounds laid or lent out.

CENT, is alſo uſed with regard to the draughts, or remittances of money, made from one place to another. Thus we ſay, it will coſt 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to remit money to ſuch a city.

When we ſay that a broker, or exchange-agent, takes one eighth per cent. fee or perquiſite, for the contracts or bargains that are made by his means and interpoſition, it is to be underſtood that there is to be paid to him the eighth part brokerage of a pound, which is 2 s. 6 d. for every hundred pounds he cauſed to be negociated. The one eighth per cent. is commonly paid by both the contracting parties; that is to ſay, by him who gives, and by him who receives, the money; ſo that the brokers get $\frac{2}{8}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. for every bargain, which amount to 5 s. or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a pound, for every 100 l. and 2 l. 10 s. for every 1000 l.

When an agent, or factor, ſets down at the bottom of an invoice, which he ſends to his principal, 2 per cent. commiſſion, it ſignifies that he takes, or charges for his trouble in tranſacting the buſineſs, and advancing his money, ſo many times two pounds, as there are hundreds of pounds in the ſum total of the invoice. It muſt be obſerved, that the ſo much per cent. for commiſſion is taken on the whole amount of the invoice; that is to ſay, both on the principal price of the commodities bought, and on the charges and expences incurred on account of the ſame, as duties paid, porterage, package, poſtage of letters, &c.

In the books, and other writings of merchants, bankers, and traders, the ſo much per cent. is ſet down by abbreviation: for inſtance, 2 p^{r} ^{c}, or 2 p^{r} c^{t}, which ſignifies 2 per cent.

CERUSE, or CERUSSE, otherwiſe called CALX of LEAD. It is white lead reduced into powder, and diluted with water on porphyry. They make it into a paſte, of which they form, in moulds, ſmall loaves, or cakes, of a pyramidical figure, which they dry afterwards, the better to carry them abroad. The workmen wrap them up in blue paper, rather than in any other, to make the ceruſe appear whiter.

The painters uſe ceruſe both in oil and water colours, with gum-water, and it makes a beautiful white. It is alſo the chief ingredient uſed in the paint for the ladies.

Ceruſe is a dangerous poiſon, when taken inwardly; it has even bad effects externally, of which the ladies ſhould take the greateſt care, ſince it ſpoils the eye-ſight and the teeth of thoſe perſons who uſe it for beautifying the face; and, beſides a great many other inconveniencies it occaſions, it ſeems to haſten old age, by making the wrinkles appear on the face ſooner than they would otherwiſe do.

The Venetian ceruſe is eſteemed the beſt ſort of all, yet there is the leaſt conſumption of it, which is owing, perhaps, to it's being very dear. They uſe at Paris, and in all France, as well as in other foreign countries, hardly any other ceruſe but that of England and Holland. The former is the worſt ſort, the latter is ſomething better. They are both made with white lead and white chalk; and, the chalk of England being leſs white, and the Engliſh mixing more of it with the ceruſe than the Dutch do, is the reaſon of their different degrees of goodneſs. To judge of it's quality, it muſt be choſen very white, both within and without, fine, clean, ſoft, and friable. That is the worſt kind which breaks the eaſieſt, as wanting the due texture and adheſion. See WHITE LEAD.

CESSION. It is a merchant's or trader's giving up, in caſes of bankruptcy, or yielding to his creditors all his goods, both moveable and immoveable, either voluntarily, or by a ſentence of a court of juſtice, to avoid a warrant for ſeizing his perſon, which they otherwiſe might obtain againſt him.

There are two ſorts of ceſſion, the voluntary and the judicial.

In France the voluntary ceſſion is, when a merchant, or trader, finding himſelf incapable to pay his creditors intirely, yields and makes over to them all his effects whatſoever, which ceſſion muſt be conſented to, and voluntarily accepted by his creditors: this is performed by a deed, which is called the contract of ceſſion of goods.

He who makes a voluntary ceſſion is obliged to give to his creditors a true account of all his effects and goods, both moveable and immoveable, without the leaſt exception, and to get his contract of ceſſion made with thoſe who ſigned it voluntarily, allowed and authorized by a court of juſtice, and to have it declared common to thoſe who refuſed to ſign it.

Though this voluntary ceſſion be accepted by the creditors, it is nevertheleſs infamous to him who made it; becauſe it is looked upon as a real bankruptcy, which renders that perſon incapable of ever obtaining a public employment, unleſs he afterwards intirely pays his creditors, and obtains letters of rehabilitation in Chancery.

A debtor, who has made ceſſion of his goods to his creditors, who accept voluntarily, without being forced to it, is diſcharged from all debts generally, nor can they have any action againſt him, nor any demand on the goods or effects he may have acquired after ſuch ceſſion.

The judicial ceſſion is that which is made by a merchant, or trader, who is actually kept in priſon by his creditors, and who, being abſolutely incapable to ſatisfy them, petitions a court of juſtice for leave to make ceſſion. This judicial ceſſion is certainly compulſive on the part of the creditors, ſince the

the debtor is commonly allowed the benefit of a ceſſion by an order from the judges, notwithſtanding the oppoſition made by the creditors to prevent it; which renders this ceſſion more infamous ſtill than that which is voluntary.

He who makes ceſſion is obliged to make it before the judges-conſuls of the place of his reſidence, the court ſitting; and, in caſe there be no conſuls, before the common aſſembly of the town; and this he is obliged to do bareheaded, perſonally, and not by proxy, or attorney, unleſs in caſe of ſickneſs, or for ſome other lawful reaſon: he is obliged to declare his name, ſirname, quality, and dwelling-place, and that he was admitted to make ceſſion of all his goods; which declaration is to be publiſhed by the recorder, and wrote in the public table, agreeably to the ordonnance given at Moulins by Charles VIII, the 28th of December, 1490, art. 34; to that given at Lyons by Lewis XII, in June, 1510, art. 70; to that of Lewis XIII, of January, 1629, art. 143; and to that of Lewis XIV, of March, 1673, tit. 10, art. 1.

According to cuſtom, he who makes ceſſion ought to be conducted by a tipſtaff, or other officer of juſtice, to the public place, on a market-day, there to publiſh, in the preſence of ſuch officer, the ceſſion he has made, of which publication the officer is to draw up a verbal proceſs.

There are ſome caſes wherein a man cannot be admitted to enjoy the benefit of ceſſion: as (1.) In caſe of a fraudulent bankruptcy.

(2.) For the remainder of an account of guardianſhip; which is an adjudged caſe, by a decree of the 17th of May, 1608.

(3.) When a foreigner had not obtained letters of naturalization, or a declaration to that purpoſe, art. 2. of tit. 10, of the ordonnance of 1673.

(4.) A natural-born Frenchman againſt a foreigner; thus adjudged by three decrees, of the 18th of April, 1566, 5th of December, 1591, and 17th of Auguſt, 1598.

(5.) For public money.

(6.) For falſe ſale. Decree of February the 8th, 1611.

(7.) They who have money intruſted with them by order of a court of juſtice.

(8.) For harveſts of corn. Decree of the 28th of March, 1583.

(9.) They who by an agreement with their creditors have obtained a delay of payment, and have received ſome remittances from them. Decree of the 11th of February, 1611.

(10.) They who have obtained letters of reſpite. Decree of the 8th of February, 1611.

(11.) And for wine ſold by a citizen in his cellar. Decree of the 11th of July, confirmed by another decree of the 12th of April, 1612.

(12.) A debtor cannot renounce, or give up the benefit of ceſſion, by a bond entered into with his creditors. Decree of the 22d of November, 1599.

(13.) The goods acquired by a judicial ceſſionary, after his ceſſion, either by inheritance, gift, or otherwiſe, are always bound to his creditors, to the full payment of what remains due to them: but yet they cannot attach his body.

Formerly, he who made ceſſion was obliged to wear a green cap, which was to be bought by his creditors; and if he were met with abroad by any of his creditors, without having the green cap on his head, ſuch creditor had power to put him in priſon again. This has been adjudged by ſeveral decrees: nevertheleſs this cuſtom has been abrogated, particularly with regard to ſuch ceſſionaries who have acted bonâ fide, and without fraud.

The ordonnance of Lewis XIII, made in January, 1629, declares, That they who ſhall make ceſſion, becauſe they have been ruined by loſſes in trade, and who ſhall be found honeſt, ſhall not be ſubject to infamy: yet, notwithſtanding the declaration in this ordonnance, this kind of ceſſion does ſtill paſs for diſhonourable in the general opinion of men; and they who made ſuch ceſſions are never choſen to any public poſt or office: ſo that one may ſay that ceſſion is a kind of civil death; but yet, when a ceſſionary has entirely paid his creditors, he may be reinſtated, by letters from the ſovereign. See the article BANKRUPTCY.

CESSIONARY, he who accepts the ceſſion, or transfer of any thing, or to whom it is made.

CESSIONARY, is alſo a merchant, or any other perſon, who yields or makes over all his goods and effects to his creditors, either by the authority of a court of juſtice, or voluntarily. See above CESSION.

CHALDRON, a dry meaſure uſed in England for coals; it contains twelve ſacks, or 36 buſhels heaped up, according to a buſhel which is ſealed and kept at Guildhall in London. The chaldron ſhould weigh 2000 pounds.

CHAMBER, is ſaid, eſpecially in France, of thoſe places where ſome aſſemblies are held, either for the adminiſtration of juſtice, or for treating of other buſineſs either public or private. The grand chamber, the chambers of inqueſts and requeſts, the chamber of accounts, and ſeveral others, eſtabliſhed in the palace of Paris and elſewhere, are of the number of the firſt. The chambers of commerce, the chambers of aſſurance, the royal or ſyndical chamber of the bookſellers, are of the laſt ſort.

We ſhall hereafter give an account of the chief chambers which relate to trade, to merchants, to bodies and companies of arts and trades, both in general and particular.

CHAMBER is ſaid, not only of the place where ſome aſſemblies are held, but alſo of the aſſemblies themſelves.

CHAMBER of Commerce, is an aſſembly of merchants and traders, where the affairs relating to trade are treated of.

The general eſtabliſhment of chambers of commerce, in ſeveral of the chief cities in France, was made the 30th of Auguſt, 1701; but the particular eſtabliſhments were not made 'till ſome years after, and moſt of them were eſtabliſhed at different times, as the intereſts of commerce made abſolutely neceſſary. There were, however, before the above mentioned year, ſome cities in this kingdom, that enjoyed the privilege of having a chamber of commerce. The city of Marſeilles, amongſt others, had one eſtabliſhed ſeveral years before, in imitation of which, that of Dunkirk, which is alſo anterior to the general eſtabliſhment, was erected by an edict of Lewis XIV, in the month of February 1700.

The chamber of Dunkirk is compoſed of a preſident and four counſellors, two of whom are choſen amongſt the echevins, actually in office, and two amongſt the moſt eminent merchants and traders, who have already borne the office of echevin, and that of penſionary.

Of the nature of theſe commercial eſtabliſhments.

Theſe ſix perſons meet twice a week in one of the rooms of the town-houſe, in order to confer together on the moſt proper meaſures requiſite to be taken, to make the trade of their own town flouriſh, to increaſe both the inland and foreign trade of the whole kingdom, and to receive all information and propoſals uſeful to any branches of traffic whatſoever; of all which they keep a regiſter, as well as of their own reſolutions: of which they ſend extracts every three months to the intendant, if he be on the ſpot, or, in his abſence, directly to Court, on any preſſing emergency.

It is alſo the preſident of this chamber, or, in default of him, the eldeſt of the conſuls, who gives certificates for the exportation of ſuch merchandizes, as cannot be exported without them.

The eſtabliſhing a royal council of commerce at Paris, in the year 1700, occaſioned the ſetting up of chambers of commerce in the other chief towns of the kingdom, in 1701.

In the firſt ſcheme of that council, the king thought proper to compoſe it of ſix commiſſaries or deputies from his council of ſtate, and of twelve of the chief merchants of Paris, and of the provinces; namely, two of that capital, and one of each of the following cities, viz. Lyons, Roan, Bourdeaux, Marſeilles, Rochelle, Nantz, St Malo, Liſle, Bayonne, and Dunkirk; to whom was afterwards added, by a decree of the council of September that ſame year, a deputy from the province of Languedoc, and conſequently of the city of Montpelier.

To the end that theſe merchants might be thoroughly informed of all that relates to the trade of the ſeveral provinces for which they are deputed, his majeſty afterwards judged it neceſſary to eſtabliſh theſe diſtinct chambers of commerce, with which they might correſpond, and which ſhould furniſh them with memorials, and all propoſitions which the council was maturely to weigh and conſider.

So wiſe and national a deſign gave occaſion to the decree of the council, given the 30th of Auguſt, 1701, which indeed was only a preliminary to the eſtabliſhment of the chambers of commerce; by which it was ordered, that the merchants and traders of Lyons, Liſle, Roan, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantz, St Malo, and Bayonne, as well as the province of Languedoc, ſhould ſend, on the 15th of October following, their opinions concerning the moſt proper and moſt advantageous method of eſtabliſhing ſuch chambers in their reſpective cities. Marſeilles and Dunkirk were not named in the decree, becauſe there was already a chamber of commerce eſtabliſhed in each of theſe cities.

Of the CHAMBER of COMMERCE in the city of Lyons.

This is the firſt of all the chambers that were eſtabliſhed, by virtue of the decree of the 30th of Auguſt, 1701.

The general aſſembly of the provoſt of the merchants, and of the echevins, both of thoſe actually ſerving, and of thoſe who had ſerved that office before, together with the chief traders choſen by the four bodies of merchants, being held the 20th of February 1702, and their reſolutions being ſent to Court, the king iſſued a decree, dated the 20th of July that ſame year, for the eſtabliſhment of the chamber of commerce in that city.

By that decree, the chamber was compoſed of the provoſt of the merchants, of one echevin being a trader, of an exconſul merchant, of a merchant draper, of two bankers, or two ſilk merchants, of a merchant grocer, or a merchant of gold lace, and of a maſter-weaver of the company of the ſilk-workers, having actually looms at work; all theſe, together, were ſtiled the Directors of the chamber of commerce.

In the abſence of the provoſt of the merchants, the echevin is chairman, and, in the abſence both of the provoſt of the mer-

chants and of the echevin, the exconſul takes the chair. The chamber meets once a week in the town-houſe.
The general aſſembly for the elections is held every year, on the 15th of December; and in this aſſembly they chuſe four new directors, ſo that every one remains but two years in office, nor can any one be continued but for two other years.
The election of a deputy to the royal council of commerce at Paris is made jointly by the corporation of the city, and the chamber of commerce, which have both the ſame ſecretary.
To defray the charges of the chamber, they take yearly 30,000 livres, out of the common caſh of the city, 8000 of which are deſigned for the ſalary of the deputy to the council of commerce, and 2000 for that of the ſecretary: the reſt is employed in paying the expences of the office; in diſtributing two ſilver medals to each of the directors, at the end of every meeting; and giving alſo a gold medal weighing five louis-d'ors to every one of them going out of office, as alſo to the deputy, when he ceaſes to perform the functions of that poſt.
There were two particular chambers of commerce eſtabliſhed in the year 1703. The one the 19th of June at Roan, and the other the 29th of December at Toulouſe.

Chamber of Commerce at Roan.

This is compoſed of the prior, two judges conſuls in office, the procurator ſyndic, and five merchants or traders, who have altogether the title of ſyndics of the commerce of the province of Normandy.
This chamber meets once a week in the conſular houſe.
The election of new ſyndics is made every year in December; two new ſyndics are choſen one year, and three the next, and thus alternately; ſo that every ſyndic continues at leaſt two years in office; he may even be continued two other years, but never for any longer time.
The nomination of a deputy to the Royal Council of Commerce is made jointly by the chamber, and by thoſe who have borne the offices of judge, conſuls, and ſyndics.
The ſecretary, who muſt be a merchant of ſkill and abilities, or at leaſt muſt have been in trade, is choſen every other year, and may be continued.
The deputy's ſalary is ſettled at 8000 livres per ann. and 4000 are deſigned for that of the ſecretary, for pens, ink, and paper, for fuel, candles, &c. as alſo for the diſtribution of two ſilver medals to each of the ſyndics, at the end of every meeting, and for a gold medal, to them and to the deputy, when they go out of office.
Towards ſettling a fund for theſe expences, the ſame decree eſtabliſhes a tariff of certain duties, which are to be paid, not only at Roan, but throughout the whole province of Normandy; and one of the ſyndics is appointed treaſurer, for the receiving and diſtributing the money ariſing from thoſe duties, and he is accountable to the chamber only.
Finally, no contract made upon the exchange is of any force, 'till it has been propoſed to the chamber, and approved by it.

Of the Chamber of Commerce at Toulouſe.

This is compoſed of ſeven perſons, beſides the ſecretary; namely, the prior of the exchange, who is chairman; the two conſuls of the exchange for the time being; and four merchants, either wholeſale dealers or retailers, either noblemen or others, who are ſtiled deputies.
The noblemen, when any are elected into theſe commercial inſtitutions, ſit on the prior's right hand, and in his abſence the eldeſt of them takes the chair.
The meeting of the chamber, wherein the ſyndic of the province of Languedoc has a right to ſit, when he pleaſes, is kept in the houſe of the exchange once a week.
Two of the deputies are changed yearly; they may be continued for two other years, but not againſt their inclinations; and they who have been deputies once, may be choſen again after ſome years interval; in caſe of an equality of votes, the election is determined by drawing lots.
The contracts made upon the exchange have no authority 'till they are approved by the chamber.
Laſtly, the ſtates of the provinces of Languedoc pay yearly a ſum of 600 livres, both for the ſecretary's ſalary, and for the other charges and expences of the chamber. But the decree, by which this chamber is eſtabliſhed, mentions neither the deputy to the royal council of commerce, nor his ſalary.

Of the Chamber of Commerce of Montpelier.

This was eſtabliſhed by a decree of the king's council of ſtate, given the 15th of January, 1704.
The number and qualities of the perſons who compoſe it, their name, rank, and functions, the place and days of their meetings, the election of the deputies, the ſum which the ſtates of the province furniſhes yearly, for bearing the expences of the chamber; in ſhort, all that relates to it's authority and prerogatives is ſo much like what we have related of the chamber of Toulouſe, that I judge it ſuperfluous to enter into further particulars. We need only add, that, if the decree does not mention the deputy to the royal council of commerce, it is, becauſe the king conſented, according to the reſolution of the ſtates of the province of Languedoc of the 12th of January, 1703, that the ſyndic-general of the ſaid province, whoſe turn it ſhould be to be ſent as deputy to the court, ſhould alſo perform the functions of deputy to the royal council of commerce, though he were no trader; with liberty, however, to the ſtates, to appoint, when they ſhould think proper, a merchant to fill up the place of deputy of the province to the royal council of commerce.

Of the Chamber of Commerce at Bourdeaux.

This is one of the laſt that was inſtituted. The decree of the council, by which it's eſtabliſhment was ordered, is dated the 25th of May, 1705.
It is compoſed of the judges and conſuls of that city, together with ſix merchants actually trading, or who have followed trade, and had due experience therein, they being ſubjects of the king, or naturalized: they are intitled Directors of the commerce of the province of Guyenne.
They have a ſecretary to regiſter their reſolutions; and one of the directors is appointed treaſurer, to receive, out of the general income of the province of Guyenne, 4086 livres per ann. which were before paid yearly by the king, for annual wages, granted to the bodies and companies of merchants and traders of the city of Bourdeaux, and have been appropriated by the general aſſembly of the ſaid bodies and companies, held the 5th of September, for defraying the charges and expences of the chamber.
That ſum is employed in paying the ſecretary's ſalary, in providing pens, ink, and paper, fire, and candles; ſilver medals; two of which are given to each deputy every aſſembly-day, which is held in the houſe of the exchange; and in gold medals for the directors going out of office; and for the deputy to the royal council of commerce, when he has executed his office.
The directors are choſen yearly, three at every time: all the other rights, functions, prerogatives, and authority of this chamber, particularly with regard to the agreements made upon the exchange, are like what has been related more at large in the account of the chamber of Toulouſe.

Of the Chamber of Commerce at Rochelle.

This is one of thoſe whoſe eſtabliſhment was delayed the longeſt. It was made in 1710, by virtue of a decree of the council, dated the 21ſt of October, and given upon the reſolution of the aſſembly of the merchants of that city, and by the advice of Monſ. Begon, intendant of juſtice and of the finances, within that diſtrict.
The chamber conſiſts of a director, four ſyndics, and a ſecretary, who are all to be elected, except the firſt nomination, which is made by the king.
Thirty merchants of that city are ſummoned together every year, to chuſe the director and two ſyndics; ſo that the director continues one year in office, and each ſyndic two years.
The ſecretary, who is appointed by the chamber, is changed every other year, and may be continued. They muſt all be merchants actually trading, or who have been in trade, fifteen years at leaſt *.

* Does not this article in particular, among various others couched under this head, indicate the moſt judicious and tendereſt care of the commerce of France?

The chamber meets but once a week, in the conſular houſe.
To this chamber, together with thirty merchants ſummoned for that purpoſe, belongs the right of appointing a deputy to the council of commerce, eſtabliſhed at Paris. And to the chamber alſo, but without the aſſiſtance or intercourſe of the other merchants, belongs the right of approving the agreements made upon the exchange, that they may be in force.
The charges of the chamber and the ſecretary's ſalary are ſettled at two thouſand livres per ann. and the deputy's ſalary, as well as the funds for defraying all theſe expences, are left to the king's will, who orders them as he thinks fit.
Laſtly, the director, ſyndics, and deputy, receive, at their going out of office, a gold medal worth 60 livres, and at every aſſembly are diſtributed, to all who are preſent, two ſilver medals weighing 6 penny-weights, each.
The intendant of Rochelle has a right to aſſiſt at thoſe aſſemblies when he pleaſes, and to take the chair.

Chamber of Commerce in the city of Liſle.

This was not eſtabliſhed 'till the 23d of July, 1714. The unfortunate events of the laſt years of the war in regard to the ſucceſſion of Spain, the famous ſiege of that city, which was taken in 1708 by the army of the princes confederated againſt France and Spain, after a very long and bloody defence, had prevented Lewis XIV. from beſtowing ſooner on this city that mark of his favour, and of his being well pleaſed with the zeal and loyalty of it's inhabitants. But, as ſoon as this important city had been reſtored to France by the treaty of Utrecht, a chamber of commerce was immediately eſtabliſhed there, the plan of which had been formed ſo ſoon as the year 1701.

That chamber is compoſed of a director, who is chairman, and four ſyndics, who were appointed the firſt time by the king. Two new ſyndics are choſen every year, in the room of two who go out of office, ſo that every ſyndic continues two years in place.

None can be choſen director, unleſs he has been a ſyndic.

At the meetings, the ſyndics of noble extraction have the precedency of the others.

In caſe they who are ſummoned to vote at the elections be choſen themſelves, they are obliged to accept the office, unleſs they have a lawful excuſe.

The chamber meets in the town-houſe or Guildhall of the city every Thurſday, from ten in the forenoon 'till twelve.

For the election of a deputy to the royal council of commerce are ſummoned, beſides the director and ſyndic, twenty eminent citizens.

The mercantile contracts, made upon the exchange, cannot be of force 'till approved by this chamber.

The charges of the ſecretary's ſalary, and for fire, candles, poſtage, &c. wherein are comprized the diſtribution of two ſilver medals, made every aſſembly-day to the director and ſyndics, and that of a gold medal of the value of 60 livres to the director and ſyndics, and to the deputies, when they go out of office, are ſettled at 2000 livres per ann.

The deputy's ſalary is left to the king's pleaſure, and the ſum appointed to him, as well as the above-mentioned 2000 livres, are charged upon the ſtock and income of the city.

Laſtly, the director and ſyndics, as long as they are in office, enjoy the ſame exemption of duties, as the magiſtrates and other members of the government, with regard to the proviſions they ſpend in their families *.

* Is not this very encouraging to theſe gentlemen duly to attend the public ſervice of trade, in thoſe uſeful capacities?

Remarks on thoſe Chambers of Commerce in France.

The inſtitution of theſe chambers of commerce in France, for the benefit of trade, had been attended with all the ſucceſs that could be wiſhed for by that kingdom. And, indeed, the more minutely we ſhall trace this politic ſtate, in the purſuit of her trading intereſts, the more, I am perſuaded, muſt every man, of the leaſt knowlege in public affairs, admire the wiſdom of their councils, and be the leſs ſurprized at the progreſs of their commerce and navigation before the late Definitive Treaty of 1763.

As no great deſigns take effect in kingdoms, without being firſt ſtarted and eſpouſed by perſonages of ſuperior abilities and zeal for their country's intereſt; ſo this was the caſe in regard to thoſe commercial eſtabliſhments, which may be gathered from the following memoirs:

Cardinal Richlieu's advice to Lewis XIII. in relation to naval power and trade.

'A great ſtate muſt never reſent an injury, without being 'able to revenge it; and therefore England being ſituated as 'it is, unleſs France is powerful in ſhips, the Engliſh may at- 'tempt whatever they pleaſe to our prejudice, without the 'leaſt fear of a return. They might hinder our fiſhing, 'diſturb our trade, and, in blocking up the mouths of our 'rivers, exact what toll they pleaſe from our merchants. 'They might land without danger in our iſlands, and even 'on our coaſts. Finally, the ſituation of the native coun- 'try of that haughty nation not permitting them to fear the 'greateſt land forces, the ancient envy they have againſt 'this kingdom, would apparently encourage them to dare 'every thing, ſhould our weakneſs not allow us to attempt 'ſomething to their prejudice.——Nature ſeems to have of- 'fered the empire of the ſea to France, by the advantageous 'ſituation of her two coaſts, equally provided with excellent 'havens, on the ocean, and on the Mediterranean. Britany 'alone contains the fineſt in the ocean; and Provence, which 'has but 160 miles extent, has many larger and ſafer than 'Spain and Italy together, &c.—It is a common, but a very 'true ſaying, that, as ſtates are often enlarged by war, ſo 'they are commonly enriched in time of peace by trade. 'The wealth of the Hollanders, which, properly ſpeaking, 'are only a handful of men, reduced into a corner of the 'earth, in which there is nothing but waters and meadows, 'is an example and proof of the uſefulneſs of trade, which 'admits of no conteſtation. Though that country pro- 'duces nothing but butter and cheeſe, yet they furniſh all 'the nations of Europe with the greateſt part of what is ne- 'ceſſary to them. Navigation has made them ſo famous, 'and ſo powerful throughout the whole world, that after 'having made themſelves maſters of the trade of the Eaſt- 'Indies, to the prejudice of the Portugueſe, who had been 'long ſettled there, they have cut out a great deal of work 'for the Spaniards in the Weſt-Indies. In England, the 'greateſt part of thoſe, whoſe circumſtances are the leaſt 'eaſy, maintain themſelves by common fiſheries; and the 'moſt conſiderable drive a greater trade in all the parts of 'the world, by the manufactures of their cloth, and by the 'ſale of lead, tin, and ſea coal, which are productions of 'their country. The kingdom of China, the entrance into 'which is allowed to nobody, is the only country in which 'that nation has no place ſettled for their trade.

'Trade will be the eaſier for us, in that we have a great num- 'ber of ſeamen, who hitherto have been obliged to ſeek out 'employment among our enemies, having none at home, 'and we have made no other uſe of them hitherto, but to get 'ſalt-fiſh and herrings. But having wherewith to employ our 'mariners, inſtead of being conſtrained to ſtrengthen our 'enemies, by weakening ourſelves, we ſhall be able to carry 'into Spain, and other countries, that which they have hi- 'therto brought to us, by the aſſiſtance of our men who ſerve 'them, &c.'—Thus far the cardinal: and the following preambles will demonſtrate the force of this mighty genius, ſince France has benefited by his foreſight and counſels, all that he himſelf did ſo prophetically wiſh, where he ſays to his prince, 'If my ſpirit, which will appear in theſe 'memoirs, can, after my death, contribute any thing to- 'wards the regulation of this great ſtate, in the management 'of which your majeſty has been pleaſed to give me a greater 'ſhare than I deſerve, I ſhall think myſelf infinitely happy.'

Tranſlation of the preamble of an edict of Lewis XIV. given at St Germains en Laye, in the month of March 1673, concerning commerce.

'Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, 'to all preſent and to come, health. As trade is the ſpring 'and fountain of the public abundance, and of the plenty 'of particular perſons, it has been our care, for many years, 'to render it flouriſhing in our kingdom: having, for that 'effect, eſtabliſhed ſeveral companies amongſt our ſubjects, 'by whoſe means they are provided with the commodities 'of the remoteſt countries, which formerly they only re- 'ceived by the intromiſſion of foreign nations; and having 'alſo cauſed a great number of ſhips to be built and armed 'for the advancement of commerce and navigation, and 'employed the force of our arms both by land and ſea, to 'maintain it's freedom: theſe things having in every reſpect 'the ſucceſs we expected, we have thought ourſelf obliged 'to provide for their continuance, by neceſſary regulations, '&c. For theſe cauſes, &c. we have ſaid, declared, and 'ordained, &c.'

An arret of the king's council of ſtate, for eſtabliſhing a council of commerce, June 29, 1700; from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

'The king having at all times been ſenſible of what impor- 'tance it was to the welfare of the ſtate to favour and protect 'the commerce of his people, as well within the kingdom 'as out of it, his majeſty has, on divers occaſions, iſſued 'ſeveral edicts, ordinances, declarations, and arrets, and 'made many uſeful regulations upon that ſubject: but the 'wars which have intervened, and the multitude of indiſ- 'penſable cares which took up his majeſty's thoughts, 'till 'the concluſion of the laſt peace, not allowing him to con- 'tinue the ſame application thereto; and his majeſty being 'more diſpoſed than ever to grant a particular protection to 'commerce, to ſhew his eſteem of the good merchants and 'traders of his kingdom, and to facilitate to them the means 'of making commerce flouriſh, and extending it; his ma- 'jeſty judges, that nothing can be more capable of producing 'this effect, than the forming a council of commerce, which 'ſhall be wholly attentive to the examining and promoting 'whatever may be moſt advantageous to commerce, and to 'the manufactures of the kingdom. Which his majeſty be- 'ing deſirous to ſettle, the report of M. Chamillart, counſel- 'lor in ordinary of the royal council, comptroller-general of 'the finances, being heard; the king, being in his council, 'has ordained, and ordains, that, for the future, a council 'of commerce ſhall be held, at leaſt once every week; which 'ſhall be compoſed of M. Dagueſſeau, counſellor in ordi- 'nary of ſtate, and of the royal council of the finances; of 'M. Chamillart, counſellor of the ſaid royal council, and 'comptroller-general of the finances; of the count de Pont- 'chartrain, counſellor to the king in all his councils, ſecre- 'tary of ſtate, and of his majeſty's orders; of M. Amelot, 'counſellor of ſtate; of M. d'Hernothon and Bauyn d'An- 'gervilliers, counſellors to his majeſty in his councils, maſ- 'ters of requeſts in ordinary of his houſhold; and of twelve 'of the principal trading merchants of the kingdom, or ſuch 'who ſhall have been a long time engaged in commerce: 'that, of this number of trading merchants, two ſhall always 'be of the town of Paris, and that each of the other ten 'ſhall be taken from the towns of Rouen, Bourdeaux, Lyons, 'Marſeilles, Rochelle, Nantes, St Malo, Liſle, Bayonne, and 'Dunkirk. That in the ſaid council of commerce ſhall be 'diſcuſſed, and examined, all the propoſitions and memorials 'which ſhall be ſent to it: together with the affairs and dif- 'ficulties which may ariſe concerning commerce, as well by 'land as by ſea, within the kingdom and out of it, and con- 'cerning works and manufactures; to the end that, upon 'the report which ſhall be made to his majeſty, of the reſo- 'lutions which ſhall have been taken thereupon in the ſaid

'council

'council of commerce, his majeſty may order what ſhall be 'moſt adviſeable. His majeſty's will and intention is, that 'the choice and nomination of the ſaid trading merchants, 'who are to be of the ſaid council of commerce, ſhall be made 'freely, and without clandeſtine caballing, by the corpora-'tion-magiſtrates of the town, and by the trading merchants 'in each of the ſaid towns. That thoſe who ſhall be choſen 'to be of the ſaid council of commerce, be men of known 'probity, and of capacity and experience in matters of com-'merce; and that for this purpoſe the town-magiſtrates, and 'the trading merchants, of the towns abovementioned, ſhall 'aſſemble in the month of July next, in each reſpective town-'houſe, to proceed to the ſaid election: ſo that the trading 'merchants, thus elected and named, may be able to arrive 'at Paris, or where the court ſhall reſide, by the end of 'September following, to begin their functions the firſt day 'of October. That the ſaid elections ſhall be for one year 'only, and ſhall be renewed yearly, in the manner above 'mentioned; with a proviſo, that the time of ſervice in the 'ſaid council may be prolonged, if it ſhall be judged proper 'ſo to do. His majeſty ordains, that the forenamed comp-'troller-general of the finances ſhall nominate two perſons 'intereſted in his majeſty's farms, to be called to the ſaid 'council, when the nature of affairs ſhall require. And, for 'ſecretary of the ſaid council of commerce, his majeſty has 'nominated M. Cruau de la Boulaye, counſellor to the king, 'corrector in ordinary in the chamber of accounts; who 'ſhall take care to keep an exact regiſter of all the propo-'ſitions, memorials, and affairs, which ſhall be brought 'before the ſaid council; as alſo of the reſolutions which 'ſhall be taken therein; copies whereof he ſhall deliver, 'according as he ſhall be ordered by the ſaid council. Done 'in the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty preſent, at Ver-'ſailles, the 29th day of June, 1700. Signed Philypeaux; 'and ſealed.'

Tranſlation of the preamble of an edict of the preſent king of France, dated at Fontainbleau in the month of October, 1727.

'Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, 'to all preſent and to come, greeting. The care which the 'late king, our moſt honoured lord and great-grandfather, 'took for the increaſe of our iſlands and colonies, the pains 'we ourſelf have taken, after his example, ſince our ac-'ceſſion to the crown, the expences already incurred, and 'thoſe which we are at annually for thoſe iſlands and colo-'nies, with a view to maintain and ſecure the ſaid iſlands 'and colonies, and to increaſe the navigation and commerce 'of our ſubjects, have had all the ſucceſs we could expect 'from them; inſomuch that our iſlands and colonies, which 'are conſiderably increaſed, are capable of ſupporting a con-'ſiderable navigation and commerce, by the conſumption 'and ſale of the negroes, goods, and merchandize, which 'are brought to them by the ſhips of our ſubjects, and by 'the cargoes of ſugars, cocoa's, cottons, indigoes, and 'other products of the ſaid iſlands and colonies, which they 'there take in exchange, in order to import the ſame into 'the harbours of our kingdom, &c. For theſe cauſes, '&c.'

Further REMARKS.

It would exceed the bounds of the article I am upon, to give the reader any juſt idea of the meaſures taken, from time to time, by the deputies of the council of trade in France, and of their judicious memorials, occaſionally preſented to the royal council. Nor would they appear in their proper light, by being given in a mere hiſtorical way, in a collective view only, without taking into conſideration, at the ſame time, ſuch eſſential circumſtances as tend fully to diſplay and illuſtrate their utility and importance. Wherefore, we ſhall reſerve thoſe tranſactions for their proper heads, in order to give them their due weight, conſiſtent with our narrative of facts recorded throughout this work.

I cannot, however, but take notice of an anecdote that has lately come to my knowlege, in regard to the proceedings of this uſeful body in France.—A gentleman of known character and honour, and who many years enjoyed a poſt of conſiderable truſt and profit under the crown, thought it might be of ſome ſervice to the intereſts of the trade of this nation, to make ſome of the proceedings of the council of commerce in France public in the Engliſh language; and, accordingly, he tranſlated them with that intent, and preſented them to ſome of the principal people then in the adminiſtration, judging that they might be as acceptable to them in particular, as he intended them to be to the public in general.—But, to his great ſurprize, was told, that they muſt by no means be made public; and, therefore, they were ſuppreſſed for above 20 years, and but a ſmall part of them has ever yet been made public, before the whole were incorporated through this dictionary. —Is it not extraordinary that any thing which might have a tendency to the intereſts of our traffic ſhould be ſtifled?—The application of the miniſters of France, from Richlieu to the preſent day, to the care of trade, is not only unqueſtionably glaring and manifeſt, but the good effects of their regulations abundantly confirm it to the whole world. 'The ſur-'prizing ſucceſs of the French in navigation (to which, in 'our fathers days, they were almoſt abſolute ſtrangers) is 'principally owing, ſays a judicious writer, to the excellent 'laws and ordonnances which have of late years been eſta-'bliſhed in that kingdom, for the regulation of all maritime 'affairs; in which their ſummary and eaſy method of pro-'ceeding has been found to be very beneficial to all that have 'had occaſion to be concerned in it. For, the government 'finding that the only means to have a powerful navy, was to 'encourage trade and navigation amongſt private perſons, 'nothing was omitted that could in any manner tend to the 'advancement of commerce.—And, indeed, if we conſider 'the prodigious increaſe of the naval ſtrength of France, we 'muſt acknowlege that they have been extremely induſtrious 'in promoting trade: and, if we examine the means they 'have uſed, we ſhall find them to be ſuch as ſeldom, if ever, 'miſſed of the deſired ſucceſs, becauſe particular care is taken 'to remove all manner of impediments that might obſtruct 'the progreſs and improvement of navigation *.—I hope no 'man of ſenſe will take amiſs what I here ſay to the advan-'tage of the laws and conſtitutions of France, as if I thereby 'ſeemed to have leſs reſpect than I ought to have for thoſe of 'England: though the French are enemies to us, we ſhould 'not be ſo much enemies to ourſelves as to reject the uſe of 'good laws, merely becauſe they are in force amongſt them, 'or have been deviſed by them. Whatever our practice may 'be, I can aſſure you, that they are never the leſs taken with 'good laws, for being enacted in bad governments: for, on 'the contrary, they have, in the matter of trade, conſulted 'all the laws and ſtatutes in force in any place of Europe; of 'which, retrenching what was ſuperfluous or inconvenient, 'and ſupplying what was deficient with proper regulations 'for every ſubject, they have certainly compiled the moſt 'complete ſyſtem of laws for trade and navigation that ever 'Europe ſaw. Nor would it, in the leaſt, be any diſhonour 'to us to follow their example, in things ſo worthy of imi-'tation, ſince the world acknowleges the reaſonableneſs of 'that uſeful maxim,

'Fas eſt & ab hoſte doceri.'——

* They take care that their laws and ordonnances are as well executed as wiſely adapted.

The eſtabliſhment of the lords commiſſioners of Trade and Plantations, in this kingdom, is certainly a noble inſtitution, and ſuch, perhaps, from whence the chambers of commerce in France, as well as that of the royal council, for the regulation of trade, might probably have been derived. It hath, however, with all humble ſubmiſſion, been greatly lamented, by many hearty friends to the intereſt of our trade, that we have not ſome other kinds of eſtabliſhment for the ſame laudable purpoſes to act in ſubordination to the BOARD OF TRADE, by laying, from time to time, before their lordſhips, during the receſs of parliament, what may be requiſite for the conſideration of the legiſlature annually, relative to concerns of trade and navigation.

'For the better encouraging of the trade of this kingdom, 'ſays the ingenious Mr Cary, late merchant of Briſtol, in 'his Diſcourſe on Trade, addreſſed to the Speaker, and to the 'honourable the Houſe of Commons, I think it well worthy 'the thoughts of a parliament, whether a ſtanding commit-'tee, made up of men well verſed therein, ſhould not be ap-'pointed; whoſe ſole buſineſs it ſhould be to conſider the 'ſtate thereof, and to find out ways to improve it; to ſee 'how the trades we drive with foreign kingdoms grow more 'or leſs profitable to us; how, and by what means, we are 'out-done by others in the trades we drive, or hindered from 'inlarging them; what is neceſſary to be prohibited, both 'in our exports and imports, and for how long time; to 'hear complaints from our factories abroad, and to correſ-'pond with our miniſters there, in affairs relating to our 'trade, and to repreſent all things rightly to the government, 'with their advice what courſes are proper to be taken for 'its encouragement; and generally to ſtudy by what means 'and methods the trade of this kingdom may be improved, 'both abroad and at home.

'If this was well ſettled, the good effects thereof would ſoon 'be ſeen; but then great care muſt be taken, that theſe 'places be not filled up with ſuch who know nothing of the 'buſineſs, and thereby this excellent inſtitution become only 'a matter of FORM AND EXPENCE.

'In the management of things of much leſs moment, we 'employ ſuch who are ſuppoſed to underſtand what they 'undertake, and believe they cannot be carried on without 'them; whilſt the general trade of the nation (which is the 'ſupport of our all) lies neglected, as if the coggs that di-'rect it's wheels did not need ſkill to keep them true: 'TRADE REQUIRES AS MUCH POLICY AS MATTERS OF 'STATE, and can never be kept in a regular motion by ac-'cident; when the frame of our trade is out of order, we 'know not where to begin to mend it, for want of a ſet of 'experienced builders, ready to receive applications, and 'able to judge where the defect lies.

'Such a committee, as this, will ſoon appear to be of great 'uſe and ſervice, both to the parliament in framing laws re-'lating to trade, and alſo the government, in the treaties 'of commerce they may make with foreign nations.

'As to the firſt, it has ſometimes been thought, that, when 'that great and glorious aſſembly, the parliament of Great-'Britain, hath meddled with trade, they have left it worſe 'than they found it; and the reaſon is, becauſe the laws re-'lating to trade require more time to look into their diſtant 'conſequences than a ſeſſions will admit; whereof we have 'had many inſtances.

'To begin with the French trade; in the 22d Car. II. a 'new impoſt was laid on wines, viz. 8l. per ton on the 'French, and 12l. per ton on the Spaniſh and Portugueze: 'this difference (with the low ſubſidies put on their linnens by 'former acts, in reſpect to thoſe of other places) was a great 'means of bringing the ballance of that trade ſo much againſt 'us, that the parliament, in the 7th and 8th of Will. III, 'thought fit to make an act, which, in effect, prohibited all 'trade with that nation for 21 years, by laying a great duty 'on the importations thence, in order to prevent a corre-'ſpondence, 'till the trade ſhould be better regulated.

'In the 14th Car. II. logwood was permitted, by act of 'parliament, to be imported, paying 5l. per ton duty: the 'ſame act repeals two ſtatutes of queen Elizabeth, againſt 'importing and uſing it in dyeing here, and ſets forth the 'ingenuity of our dyers, in finding out ways to fix the co-'lours made with it; and yet, at the ſame time, gave a 'drawback of 3l. 15s. per ton on all that ſhould be exported: 'whereby foreigners uſe it ſo much cheaper in their manu-'factures than ours can here; which proceeded from a too 'haſty making that law, and being adviſed, or rather abuſed, 'by thoſe who regarded more their own intereſt than that of 'the nation.

'By an act made 1 Jac. II. an impoſt of 2s. 4d. per cent. 'was laid on muſcovado ſugars imported from the planta-'tions, to be drawn back at exportation. The traders to the 'plantations ſtirred in this matter, and ſet forth, That ſuch 'a duty would diſcourage the refining them here, by hinder-'ing the exportation of refined ſugars, which was then con-'ſiderable, and carry that manufacture to Holland and Flan-'ders; but the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms prevailed againſt 'them, and the bill paſſed: the fatal conſequences whereof 'ſoon appeared; for the exporters of muſcovado ſugars 'drawing back 2s. 4d. per cent. by that act, and 9d. per 'cent. by the act of tunnage and poundage, foreign mar-'kets were ſupplied with refined ſugars from other places 'cheaper, by about 12 per cent. than we could furniſh them 'hence; by which means we were beat out of that trade: 'and, though the duty of 2s. 4d. per cent. was not con-'tinued, on the expiration of that act, by the parliament 2d 'Will. and Mar. as they did the 3d. per pound on Tobacco, 'the bad effects thereof being then apparent, yet it is difficult 'to retrieve a loſt trade, trading nations being like expert ge-'nerals, who make advantages of the miſtakes of each other, 'and take care to hold what they get.

'By a ſtatute 4th and 5th Will. and Mar. 20s. per ton was 'laid on lapis calaminaris dug here and exported, on an in-'formation given to the houſe of commons, that it was not 'to be had any where elſe; the merchants, concerned in ex-'porting that commodity, made application, and ſet forth, 'That ſuch a duty would bring in nothing to the crown, 'but be a total bar to it's exportation; yet the act paſſed, 'and we were like to have made a fatal experiment; for, 'till the ſtatute of the 7th and 8th of the ſame king, which 'reduced the duty to 2s. per ton, the exportation ceaſed; 'and, in the mean time, thoſe places which had been diſ-'couraged from digging and calcining it, becauſe we under-'ſold them, ſet again to work, and ſupplied the markets 'where we vended ours.

'What injury was done by the act made in the 9th and 10th 'Will. III. for the more effectual preventing the importation 'of foreign bone-lace, &c. doth ſufficiently appear by the pre-'amble of that made in the 11th and 12th of the ſame reign, 'for repealing it, three months after the prohibition of our 'woollen manufactures in Flanders (which was occaſioned 'by it) ſhould be there taken off.

'I mention theſe things with great ſubmiſſion to the judg-'ment of that glorious aſſembly, the wiſdom and ſtrength 'of the nation; to whom I only preſume, with all humility, 'to offer my thoughts, that it would very much tend to the 'putting matters of trade into a true light before them, if 'they were firſt referred to a body of men, well verſed in the 'true principles thereof, and able to ſee through the ſophiſti-'cal arguments of contending parties, to be by them conſi-'dered, and well digeſted, before they received the ſanction 'of a law.

'And, as to foreign treaties, I do not think our trade hath 'been ſo much bettered by them as it might have been, for 'want of ſuch a committee; the repreſentations made by 'private merchants (who generally differ according as their 'intereſts claſh with each other) tending rather to diſtract, 'than to inform the government; which would not be, if 'their firſt applications were made to an experienced com-'mittee, who had judgment enough to ſubtract out of them 'what was proper to be offered; by which means, our de-'mands might be rendered ſhort and comprehenſive.' See the articles FRANCE, FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, MARINE LAWS, ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MECHANICAL ARTS.

CHAMBER of Aſſurance, or Inſurance, is a ſociety, or aſſembly, of ſeveral perſons, merchants, traders, bankers, and others, to carry on the buſineſs of inſuring. See ASSURANCE.

Policies and contracts of aſſurance, or bottomry, had been many years uſed in France, and long experience had ſufficiently proved how uſeful they were to trade and navigation, and eſpecially to ſuch as undertake long voyages; ſince, by paying a ſmall ſum of money for inſuring their ſhips and goods, they prevented great loſſes, and even ſometimes their intire ruin: yet, before the year 1668, this buſineſs of inſuring was not carried on but in the maritime towns of France, and it was then judged moſt advantageous to ſettle it in the capital.

There were indeed, before that time, ſome meetings of aſſemblies of inſurance: but, as they were held only by private perſons, and were not authorized by the king's letters patents, they had but little credit, and their policies were neither many, nor for conſiderable ſums.

It was, therefore, by a decree of the council of ſtate, dated the 5th of June the ſame year 1668, that Lewis XIV, then reigning, granted leave to the merchants, traders, inſurers, and inſured, and other perſons of the city of Paris, properly qualified, who, for ſome time paſſed, had begun to meet for tranſacting the buſineſs of inſurance and bottomry, to continue their meetings, and even to ſet up an office, which was to be ſtiled the office of inſurance: over the door of which ſhould be put the following inſcription: The chamber, or office, of inſurances and bottomries, eſtabliſhed by the king; and, on the 16th of the ſame month, the lieutenant-general of the police ordered, by a ſentence, that the ſaid decree of the council ſhould be regiſtered in the rolls of that court.

This chamber was not brought at once to a degree of perfection; but, in 1671, the partners, or aſſociates, to the number of above 60, of the richeſt merchants, bankers, traders, and citizens of Paris who had a great credit in trade, made in their general aſſembly, held the 4th of December, a regulation, which was authorized by a decree of the council, given the 10th of the ſame month, and regiſtered in the rolls of the police by a ſentence of Monſ. de la Reynie, lieutenant-general of the ſaid police, the 16th of the ſame month of December.

This regulation contains, in 23 articles, the whole government, or adminiſtration, of the Chamber of Aſſurance.

The four firſt articles related to the eſtabliſhing of the general and particular offices; the laſt of which is ſtiled the chamber of council.

The fifth ſettles to the number of five the particular commiſſaries, or judges, for the affairs referred to it by the general office, in which number are included the judges, who report the caſes in a ſummary way; and to nine for affairs a little more conſiderable; all which judges, however, are to be named by the preſident, and conſented to by the parties concerned.

The ſixth orders the general aſſemblies to be held on two Fridays in the month, every fortnight; and the eleventh treats of the particular aſſemblies which are to meet on the other Fridays.

By the ſeventh it is ordered, that a catalogue ſhall be made of the inſurers and inſured, with their names and dwelling-places, to be put in the hall of the chief office.

The eighth ſettles the diſtribution of ſilver medals, to be given to 30 of the moſt ancient, who ſhall be preſent at the general aſſemblies, at the rate of four to each, there being no diſtribution to be made in the particular aſſemblies, according to the exception ſet down in the eleventh article.

The ninth and tenth appoint the preſident, and treat of the meetings of the inſurers and inſured.

The 12th, 13th, 14th, 15th, 16th, 18th, and 21ſt regulate the functions of the regiſter; the manner of keeping the books; the order to be obſerved in drawing up and cloſing the policies; the carefulneſs, diligence, and diſintereſtedneſs, with which the regiſter ought to deliver the deeds and extracts of the chamber; his correſpondences with the ſea-port towns, and his own, his caſhier's, or under-caſhier's aſſiduous attendance at the office.

The 17th orders the judges appointed by the chamber to conform their ſentences not only to the conditions ſet down and determined in the policies, but alſo to follow in every thing the ordonnances, regulations, ways and cuſtoms, of the ſea.

The 20th declares by whom the oath is to be adminiſtred, when required.

The 22d contains regulations concerning the prayers and maſſes to be ſaid for the inſurers and inſured after their death.

Laſtly, by the 23d, the chamber appoints a regiſter, and reſolves that his majeſty ſhall be humbly petitioned to order the authorizing of this regulation, by a decree of the ſuperior council.

The chamber added afterwards ſeveral other articles to theſe regulations, and explained and amended ſome others: and all thoſe regulations, wherein the public was concerned, were authorized by decrees of the council.

There is a decree of the 13th of September, 1672, for leaving the inſured at liberty to chuſe their debtor; it orders, alſo, that the policies be diſtributed among the inſurers with prudence and honeſty.

Another decree of the 26th of Auguſt, 1673, forbids the inſurers and inſured to carry the diſputes ariſing among them, on account of policies of inſurance and bottomry, before the ordinary courts of juſtice; but obliges them to chuſe arbitrators, among thoſe who compoſe the chamber, to be their judges.

There is a third edict, of the 11th of January 1675, relating to the inſurances made on a friend's account, and for finding out, when required, the true names of the perſons for whom any thing was inſured.

Things continued in that condition 'till the year 1683, when the chamber judging, by the few policies they made out, that it was proper to eſtabliſh the company upon another footing, deviſed ſeveral projects for ſetting up another ſociety, upon the ſame foundation of the former. But there paſſed three years before this ſociety was quite formed, when it was eſtabliſhed by virtue of an edict of the king, given in the month of May, 1686, and regiſtered that ſame year in parliament, the 30th of the ſame month; by which edict was erected and regulated a general company for inſurances and bottomries in the city of Paris.

That edict of creation contains, in 29 articles, the conditions under which the king was pleaſed to eſtabliſh this new company. The chief of theſe articles are, the ſecond, which ſettles the number of aſſociates, or partners, at 30 only; the fourth, which orders that the company ſhall have a capital fund, or ſtock, of 300,000 livres, divided into 75 actions, or ſhares, of 4000 livres each, and regulates the time during which the company is to continue at ſix years; the tenth, which orders that the policies of inſurance ſhall contain a clauſe, by which the parties concerned ſubmit themſelves to an arbitration, in caſe of any diſpute. The 14th mentions the appeals from the ſentences of the arbitrators, and orders that they ſhall be finally determined by a counſellor of ſtate, the lieutenant-general of the police, and the provoſt of the merchants. The 18th declares, that they who ſhall enter into the partnerſhip and commerce of inſurance, ſhall not be degraded from their nobility. The 22d eſtabliſhes and ſettles the fees of the regiſter. The 25th forbids all perſons, but ſuch as are members of the company, to carry on any commerce of inſurance and bottomry in the city of Paris. The 27th leaves the merchants traders, and other private perſons of the cities of Roan, Nantes, St Malo, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Marſeilles, &c. at liberty to continue the buſineſs of inſuring, but only upon the ſame footing as it was before the date of the edict. Laſtly, the 28th gives the partners leave to draw up amongſt themſelves ſuch articles and rules as they ſhall think proper for the management of the affairs of their partnerſhip, on condition, nevertheleſs, to get them authorized by a decree of the council.

In conſequence of the laſt mentioned article, the partners made a contract among themſelves, on the 20th of May, which contains the terms and regulations under which they enter into partnerſhip; theſe are ſet forth in 43 articles, the moſt important of which are as follow:

By the firſt, the company ſettles the number of the partners at 30, and it's duration at ſix years.

The ſecond eſtabliſhes the ſtock of 300,000 livres, ordered by the edict.

The ſixth and twelfth regulate the election of five directors, their power and meetings.

In the 13th it is agreed that the general aſſemblies ſhall be held on Tueſdays every week; and, in the 14th, that the directors ſhall meet every Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday.

The 16th treats of the books to be kept, of which there are to be ſeven.

In the 24th they ſpeak of arbitrations.

In the 28th mention is made of the general account of the ſhips, on which the company ſhall have lent money, or made inſurances, which is to be drawn up every year in December.

The 29th treats of the dividend of 10 per cent. to the profit of the partners, which is to be paid every year, on the 5th of January.

The 30th, 31ſt, 32d, and 33d articles explain the value and quality of the actions, or ſhares.

The 34th, 35th, 36th, and 38th treat of the caſh and the caſhier.

Laſtly, by the 44th the company retains the liberty of making, for the future, new reſolutions and by-laws, as occaſion ſhall require, and to get them authorized.

This firſt regulation, having the force of a contract, was approved, and the execution of it ordered by a decree of the council, given the 6th of June, 1686. See the article ASSURANCE.

CHAMPAGNE, a province in France, is bounded on the north by Hainault and Luxemburgh; on the eaſt by Lorrain and Franche Comté; on the ſouth by Burgundy; and, on the weſt, by the Iſle of France, and by Soiſſonnois. It lies between the 47th degree and 30 minutes of latitude, and the 50th degree and 10 minutes; and from the 3d degree of longitude eaſt of London to the 6th. It's form is like that of the ſection of a pyramid, the baſis of which lies towards Burgundy, and is about 40 leagues long: it's point, ſituate towards the Low countries, is 15 leagues; and it's height, from the borders of Burgundy to the Netherlands, about 45 leagues. It is watered by the Seine, the Marne, the Aiſne, the Aubre, the Veſle, and ſeveral others of leſs note. The Meuſe, or Maes, has it's ſpring in this province; but it ſoon runs into the duchy of Bar, which it croſſes from north to ſouth, and returns into this province, and paſſes by Sedan and Charleville; whence it runs through the county of Namur, biſhopric of Liege, and duchy of Guelderland, into Holland, where it falls into the ſea near the Briel.

The air here is extremely wholſome, the ſoil dry and chalky; ſo that it produces but little wheat, much rye, and chiefly an excellent ſort of light wine, the moſt delicate in all France, well known under the name of Champagne. There are here very good paſtures, and the country contains very large plains. It is bordered in many places with noble foreſts and mountains, affording not only great variety of game, but mines of iron and metals, of divers kinds. The chief trade of the inhabitants conſiſts in corn, wine, and iron, which is tranſported to other parts of the kingdom by means of their rivers, ſeveral of which are navigable.

CHAMPAGNE Proper contains,

1. TROYES, the capital city of the province, ſituate on the Seine, 20 leagues diſtant from Paris to the ſouth-eaſt, 23 from Rheims to the ſouth, 20 from Dijon to the north-weſt, and 10 from Sens to the eaſt. It is an ancient city, and one of the moſt conſiderable for it's manufactures, which conſiſt in linnen cloths, fuſtians, dimities, ſerges, druggets, tanning of leather, bleaching of wax, &c. Their trade formerly was ſo conſiderable, that ſeveral foreign princes would accept of no other ſecurities for the ſums they were to be paid by the French kings, but thoſe of the merchants of Troyes *: but the trade hereof, in regard to their manufactures, being removed to other parts of France, that city is not near ſo ſplendid as heretofore, which is frequently the caſe of many cities and trading towns in other nations, as well as France.

* Does not this ſhew the dignity and importance of merchants to a trading nation? See the article COMMERCE.

2. CHAALONS, or CHAALOONS SUR MARNE, is another city of trade, pleaſantly ſituated, in an agreeable plain, on the river Marne, about 17 leagues diſtant from Troyes to the north, and 28 from Paris to the eaſt. There are two ſmall rivers, or brooks, which run through this city, and fall into the Marne, a little beyond it. It is divided into three parts, viz. the city itſelf, the iſland formed in it by the river Marne, and the borough.

They have a pretty good trade here for oats, which they ſend to Paris. Formerly they ſold very conſiderable quantities of wine; but that branch of trade is now removed to Rheims. Some years ago they ſet up a manufactory of ſhalloons, and other thin woollen ſtuffs, which ſell very well, both within the kingdom and in foreign parts.

3. AY, is alſo ſituate on the river Marne, and remarkable only for the excellent wine produced in it's neighbourhood, and which is greatly eſteemed, both in France and in other countries.

4. RHEIMS, or REIMS, ſituate in the middle of a plain, where the river Veſle waſhes part of it's walls, which are extended in compaſs about an hour's journey. It is diſtant 25 leagues from Paris to the north-eaſt, ten from Soiſſons to the eaſt, 22 from Troyes to the north, and 8 from Chaalons to the north-weſt.

The chief trade here is that of wine, and of ſeveral thin woollen ſtuffs, or mixed with ſilk, manufactured in this city.

RETHELOIS, or MAZARINY, lies near the borders of Luxemburgh, and the country of Liege, in the northern part of Champagne. Part of this country is covered with woods, where there are a great many forges, for the manufacture of iron; the reſt abounds in paſtures, and is watered by various rivers, the moſt conſiderable whereof is the Aiſne.

RETHEL, or RETEL, the capital of Rethelois, lies on the river Aiſne, 7 leagues diſtant from Rheims to the north, 9 from Rocroy to the ſouth, and the ſame from Sedan to the ſouth-weſt. They make here the ſame ſorts of ſtuffs as at Rheims, but they are not reckoned of ſo good a quality.

SEDAN, ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the river Meuſe, near the borders of Luxemburgh, 9 miles diſtant from Rethel to the north-eaſt, and 5 from Charleville to the eaſt. It is one of the keys of the kingdom, and, conſequently, of the utmoſt importance.

They make here a great quantity of woollen cloths, which are as much eſteemed as thoſe of Holland, and of which they have a conſiderable traffic; they alſo make ſerges and thread laces: but theſe manufactures are not ſo conſiderable as be-

fore the moſt cruel and perfidious perſecution * of the proteſtants, and the revocation of the edict of Nantes.

* Ought not theſe wicked religious principles to give the true friends of liberty, the Proteſtants of this kingdom, as well as thoſe of all others, the higheſt deteſtation of a French government, who will ſacrifice not only the liberty, but even the trade of their ſubjects, for the Church's ſake? which ſhews that this neighbouring nation only encourages trade to inrich the ſubjects for a time, that they may poſſeſs the more to be fleeced of, when it is the will and pleaſure of their grand ——.

PERTHOIS, or PERTOIS, is ſituated along the banks of the river Marne, between Campagne Proper and the duchy of Bar. It's chief cities are,

1. VITRI-LE-FRANÇOIS, ſituate on the river Marne, 7 leagues above Chaalons. This city ſtands on a plain; it is very populous, and has a conſiderable trade, chiefly in corn, which renders it very opulent. It is the ſeat of a bailiwick, a preſidial court, and a granary for ſalt. The Marne, which here begins to be navigable, is of great advantage to the inhabitants, to tranſport their corn to Paris.
2. ST DIZIER, or DISIDERIPOLIS, is ſituated in a plain, on the river Marne, 6 leagues from Vitri-le-François to the eaſt. Beſides the Marne, this city is watered by another rivulet, which ſprings about two leagues higher, towards Bar-le-duc. On the ſouth and north of this place there are large foreſts, which afford timber for all veſſels on the Marne, which are built at St Dizier, in the neighbourhood of which there are alſo a great many forges for the iron manufacture; all which afford a pretty good trade to this city. There is alſo here a granary for ſalt.

There are ſome other ſmall towns and cities in this province, which would be tediouſly diſagreeable to enumerate, ſince they carry on little trade to be taken notice of.

CHARTER-PARTY, an inſtrument or writing drawn between merchants and maſters of ſhips, or between the owners and merchants, containing the ſeveral articles or particulars of their agreement, in regard to freight, and the carriage of merchandizes by ſea.

See the form of a charter-party of affreightment, at the end of this article.

A charter-party is made in conſequence of the affreightment of a ſhip, and the freight is the money agreed to be paid for the carriage of merchandizes by ſea.

Ships are freighted either by the ton, or by the great; and, in reſpect to time, the freight is contracted for at ſo much per month, or at a ſum certain for the whole voyage. If a ſhip freighted by the great ſhall be caſt away, the freight is loſt; but, if a merchant agrees by the ton, or at ſo much for every piece of goods, and by any accident the ſhip is caſt away, if part of the goods are ſaved, ſome are of opinion, that ſhe ought to be anſwered her freight pro rata: and, when a ſhip is inſured, and ſuch a misfortune happens, the inſured commonly transfer theſe goods over to the aſſurers, towards a ſatisfaction of what they make good, by virtue of their ſubſcriptions.

If a ſhip is freighted after the rate of 20 l. per month, that ſhe ſhall be out, to be paid after arrival in the port of London; and the ſhip is caſt away coming from the Downs, but the lading is all preſerved, the freight, in this caſe, ſhall be paid: for the money becomes due monthly by the contract, and the place mentioned is only to aſcertain where the ſame is to be paid; the ſhip is intitled to wages, like unto a labourer or mariner that ſerves by the month, who, if he dies in the voyage, his executors are to be anſwered pro rata. Beſides, the freight is due by intendment of law, on the bringing up of the commodities to the port of London, and their delivery there, and not of the ſhip. Mol. Jur. Maritim. 224, 225.

A contract is made between a merchant and a maſter of a ſhip, that, if he carries the merchant's goods to ſuch a port, he will then pay him ſo much money for freight: in making the voyage the ſhip is robbed by pirates, and part of her lading loſt, and afterwards the remainder is brought to the port of diſcharge: here the ſum agreed on for freight is not due, the agreement not being performed on the part of the maſter, and this is a conditional contract. But it is otherwiſe by the civil law; for, thereby, the ſame is a danger of the ſeas, which, if not expreſſed in naval agreements, yet is naturally implied, and there was no default in the maſter or his mariners: and had theſe goods, which the pirates carried away, been thrown overboard in ſtreſs of weather, it would not have worked a diſability in the maſter to receive the ſum agreed on; becauſe, both by the common law, and the law marine, the act of God, or that of the enemy, ſhall not have an effect to work a wrong in actions private: but a pirate is eſteemed an enemy in our law. 1 Brownl. 21. 1 Co. Rep. 97.

It was covenanted by charter-party, that a ſhip ſhould return within the river of Thames by a certain time (danger of the ſeas excepted) and after in the voyage, within the time for the return, the ſhip was taken upon the ſea by pirates, ſo that the maſter could not return to the river Thames at the exact time mentioned in the agreement: here, in the caſe of Pickering and Berkley, it was reſolved, that this impediment was within the exception; and the words, danger of the ſeas excepted, intend as well any danger upon the ſeas by pirates and men of war, as dangers of the ſeas by ſhipwreck, tempeſts, or the like. And in this caſe, before judgment was given, a certificate of merchants was read in court, by order of Roll juſtice, that the taking by pirates are amongſt merchants accounted perils of the ſea. Stiles's Rep. 132. 2 Roll. Abridg. 248.

If in caſe of a freight a time is fixed and agreed on between the merchant and a maſter of a ſhip, &c. for the commencement and finiſhing of the voyage; it may not be altered by the ſupercargo, without a ſpecial commiſſion from the merchant: if it be agreed, that the maſter ſhall ſail from London to any part abroad, in two months, and freight is accordingly agreed on, though the maſter doth not arrive at the port within the time, if he begins the voyage during the two months, the freight ſhall become due. So where an agreement is made for the ſhip to ſail the firſt fair wind, or opportunity, and does not, yet afterwards breaks ground, and arrives at her port, the freight will be due; for departure intitles the maſter to the freight, and to ſay the ſhip did not depart with the next wind, is but a circumſtance, which, in ſtrictneſs of law, is not traverſable: but, if a maſter ſhall weigh anchor, and proceed in his voyage, after a certain time agreed on for his departure, he is liable to make good all caſualties at ſea, and misfortunes whatſoever. Paſch. 2. Car. I. Poph. 161.

In mutual covenants between a maſter of a ſhip and a merchant, wherein the maſter of the ſhip covenanted to ſail with the firſt fair wind to Barcelona, and that the mariners ſhould attend with a boat to relade the ſhip, and then he would return with the firſt fair wind to London, and there unload and deliver the goods; and the merchant covenanted to pay him ſo much for freight, and ſo much a day during his ſtaying in port there for demurrage; and declared that he ſailed at ſuch a time with the firſt fair wind, and ſo on according to the agreement: to this the merchant pleaded, as to the freight, that the ſhip did not return directly to London, but went to Alicant and Tangier, and made divers deviations, whereby the goods were ſpoiled; and, as to the demurrage, the ſame was occaſioned by the negligence of the mariners, in not attending with the boat to relade the ſhip.—But the plea was held inſufficient, and the plaintiff, the maſter of the ſhip, had judgment; for the covenants are mutual and reciprocal, upon which each hath his action againſt the other, and cannot plead the breach of one covenant in bar of another; and therefore the merchant, the defendant, ought by action to recover his damages ſuſtained. 3 Lev. Rep. 41. Hill. 13 Car. II.

If the freighter of a ſhip ſhall put on board prohibited or unlawful merchandizes, by which the ſhip is detained, or the voyage impeded, he ſhall anſwer the freight contracted for: and when a ſhip is out at ſea, and taken by an enemy, if afterwards ſhe be retaken by another ſhip in amity, and reſtitution is made, whereupon ſhe proceeds in her voyage, the contract for freight is not determined; for, though the taking by the enemy diveſted the property out of the owners, yet by the laws of war that poſſeſſion was defeaſible, and, being recovered in battle afterwards, the owners became re-inveſted: ſo that the contract, by fiction of law, is of the ſame validity, as if the ſhip never had been taken; and the entire freight becomes due accordingly. Styles 220. 7 R. 2. Statham Abr. 54.

Where a ſhip is freighted out and in, no freight is due 'till the whole voyage is performed; ſo that, if the ſhip be caſt away coming home, the freight outwards as well as inwards becomes loſt: but if goods and merchandize are fully laden aboard, and, the ſhip having broke ground, the merchant after that on conſideration reſolves not to adventure, but will unlade again; by the law marine the freight is deſerved. If a ſhip in her voyage happens to become unable to perform it, without any fault in the maſter, or the maſter or ſhip be arreſted by ſome foreign prince or ſtate, the maſter may repair his ſhip to make her capable of the voyage, or may freight another ſhip: and, if the merchant will not agree to the ſame, then the freight will be due for ſo much as the ſhip hath earned, for otherwiſe the maſter is anſwerable for all damages that ſhall happen. And therefore, if the ſhip to which the goods are tranſlated periſh, the maſter muſt anſwer; but, if both the ſhips periſh, then he is diſcharged: and if the ſhip be in a ſinking condition, ſo that there is an extreme neceſſity, the goods may be put into any empty veſſel paſſing by, which in all appearance ſeems ſufficient; and, if that ſhip ſinks or periſhes, he is there excuſed. Leg. Oleron. and Rhod. Trin. 9 Jac. I. B. R. 1 Brownl.

If part of the lading be on ſhipboard, and, through ſome misfortune happening to the merchant, he has not his full lading aboard at the time agreed, the maſter is at liberty to contract with another, and ſhall have freight by way of damage for the time thoſe goods were on board; for theſe agreements are in law upon a condition precedent, and any failure as to compleat lading will determine the ſame, unleſs afterwards affirmed by the maſter's conſent: this is the higheſt juſtice,

that the ſhip and maſter ſhould be free in theſe caſes; and that by the delay of the merchant, on ſhipping a ſmall quantity of goods, the maſter may not loſe the ſeaſon of the year, or be defeated of the opportunity of paſſage. Moll. 218, 219. And, on the other hand, if the veſſel is not ready, and part of the goods are on ſhipboard, the merchant may ſhip the remainder of his goods aboard another veſſel, and diſcharge the firſt maſter; and may alſo recover damages againſt ſuch maſter or the owners for the reſt, which is grounded upon the like reaſon as the former: though, by the marine law, chance, or ſome other notorious neceſſity, will excuſe the maſter; but then he loſeth his freight 'till ſuch time as he breaks ground, and until that time he ſuſtains the loſs of the ſhip. But, if the fault be in the merchant, he is to anſwer for the damage to the maſter and the ſhip; or, according to the Rhodian laws, ſhall be obliged to provide for the ſhip's crew ten days at his own charge; and, after that, ſhall pay the full freight: and, if there be any damage afterwards, the merchant muſt run the riſque of that, and not the maſter or owners. By our common law, it ſeems to be otherwiſe; for, ſo long as the maſter hath the goods on ſhipboard, he is to ſee them forth-coming. Leg. Oleron. c. 21. Mich. 10 Car. I. 3 Cro. Rep. 383. 2 Cro.

Where a ſhip is not ready to take in, or the merchant not ready to lade aboard goods, the parties are at liberty; but nevertheleſs the perſon damnified on either ſide may bring an action againſt the other, to recompenſe and make ſatisfaction for the detriment ſuſtained; it has been held, that, by the common law of England, the party thus damnified by action of the caſe ſhall recover damages on the agreement; and by the naval laws of Rhodes, if there be an agreement, and earneſt given thereon, but no writing made, and the ſame is broke by the merchant, he loſeth his earneſt; and if it be broke by the owners of the ſhip, or the maſter, they forfeit double the earneſt given. Leg. Rhod. art. 19.

If any ſhip or veſſel is freighted from one port to another, and ſo to divers ports, on what is called a trading voyage, this is all but one voyage, if it be in conformity to the charter-party or agreement: and generally the touching at ſeveral ports by agreement imports not a diverſity, but a voyage entire; but, if the ſhip otherwiſe puts into any other port than what ſhe was freighted to, the maſter, by the laws of Oleron, ſhall anſwer damage to the merchant; unleſs he be forced in by ſtorm, enemies, or pirates, and then he muſt ſail to the port agreed at his own expence. And where a maſter freights out a ſhip, and afterwards privately takes in other goods, unknown to the firſt laders, he ſhall loſe his freight; and if here it falls out, that any of the freighters goods for the ſafety of the ſhip ſhall be caſt over-board, the reſt of the merchandize ſhall not be ſubject to the average, but the maſter out of his own purſe ſhall make good the ſame, Leg. Oleron, Leg. Naval. Rhod. c. 25. See AVERAGE.

Leakage occaſioned by ſtorm may in common caſes come into an average: and if freight be taken for an hundred tons of wine, and twenty of them leak out, ſo that there is not above eight inches from the buge upwards, the freight notwithſtanding becomes due; and one reaſon thereof is, becauſe from that gauge the king can demand his cuſtoms; but if they be under eight inches, in the opinion of ſome, the freighters may chuſe to reſign them to the maſter for freight, and thereby be diſcharged: but moſt perſons conceive otherwiſe, and hold, that if all the wine had leaked out, (if there was no fault in the maſter) there is no reaſon the ſhip ſhould loſe her freight; for the freight ariſes from the tonnage taken, and in ſome places abroad, particularly at Bourdeaux, the maſter is not allowed to ſtow the goods, but it is done by a particular officer appointed for that purpoſe. Hill. 26 & 27 Car. II. in B. R.

In caſe a ſhip ſhall be freighted for two hundred tons, or any other number of tons more or leſs, adding or thereabouts, this addition is commonly underſtood to be within five tons, the moiety of the number ten, whereof the whole number is compounded. If a charter-party is made, reciting the ſhip to be of the burthen of one hundred and fifty tons, and freight is agreed for at a ſum certain, to be paid at her return; the ſum agreed ſhall be paid, though the ſhip falls ſhort of that burthen; and, if no burthen is expreſſed, the ſum muſt be paid: but, if a ſhip freighted by the ton ſhall be found leſs than the burthen mentioned, there ſhall be no more paid than for the real tons. Lex. Mercat. Malines, 100. And the lading of a ſhip, in conſtruction of law, is bound for the freight, which, in point of payment, ſhall be preferred before any other debts to which the goods ſo laden are liable, though ſuch debts as to time were precedent to the freight; and the actions touching the ſame the law conſtrues favourably for the ſhip and the owners. Where a merchant unadviſedly takes freight, and contracts with a mariner that is not a maſter of a ſhip, he has no remedy againſt the owners if a loſs enſues: but the mariner may be ſubject to an action. 3 Keb. Rep. 444. 4 Inſt. 146.

A maſter of a ſhip is not bound to anſwer freight to the owners for paſſengers, where it appears that they are not able to pay: and if freight be contracted for the tranſporting of women, and they happen in the voyage to be delivered of children on ſhipboard, no freight becomes due for ſuch children. If any paſſenger dies aboard, the maſter of the ſhip is obliged to inventory his effects; and, if none lays claim to them within a year, the maſter becomes proprietor of the goods, but defeaſible. Moll. 221.

If freight be contracted for the lading of certain cattle from Dublin to Weſt-Cheſter, and ſome of them die before the ſhip's arrival there, the whole freight ſhall be paid, as well for the dead as the living: ſo where ſlaves, &c. are ſent aboard generally, and no agreement is made for lading or tranſporting them. But if a contract be for tranſporting ſlaves or cattle, or that the maſter ſhall have ſo much for every head or paſſenger, there ariſes due no more freight than only for ſuch as are living at the ſhip's arrival at her port of diſcharge, and not for the dead. Ibid.

Freight is governed by the contract, when reduced into a writing, commonly called a charter-party, executed between the owners and merchant, or the maſter in behalf of himſelf and owners, or himſelf and the merchant, or between them all: in which the maſter or owners generally covenant to provide a pilot, and other officers and mariners, and all things neceſſary for the voyage, and for the taking in and delivering out of the lading. And the charter-party doth ſettle the agreement of the parties, and what is to be paid by the merchant for the freight, as the bills of lading do the contents of the cargo; [ſee BILLS of Lading] and binds the maſter to deliver the goods in good condition at the place of diſcharge; and, for performance, the maſter obliges himſelf, ſhip, tackle, and furniture, to ſee the ſame done and performed. Lex. Mercat. Malines, 99. The common law always conſtrues charter-parties, as near as may be, according to the intention and deſign of them, and not according to the literal ſenſe of traders, or thoſe that merchandize by ſea, but they muſt be regularly pleaded. And, if the maſter of a ſhip enters into a charter-party for himſelf and owners, the maſter in that caſe may releaſe the freighters, without adviſing with the owners: though if the owners let out to freight ſuch a ſhip whereof A. B. is maſter, and he only covenants at the bottom and ſubſcribes his name, here his releaſe will not bind or affect the owners of the ſhip, but their releaſe on the other hand ſhall conclude the maſter; and the reaſon is, for that he is not a proper party to the indenture of charter-party. Trin. 29 Eliz. B. R. 2 Inſt. 673.

If without agreeing for the freight, by charter-party, any goods are put on board, the maſter ſhall have freight according to cuſtom; and if the goods ſhall be ſent to the ſhip ſecretly, without the maſter's knowlege, the ſame may be ſubjected to what freight the maſter thinks fit. And as to the maſters's anſwering for any goods and merchandize, when coffers, packs, or veſſels, or other marked goods are delivered cloſe packed or ſealed, and afterwards ſhall be received open and looſe, the maſter is to be charged for it, until on due trial he be acquitted thereof; alſo he muſt anſwer for the damage which rats do in a ſhip to any merchandize, for want of keeping a cat, as well as any other damage. Lex Mercat. Malines, 102.

And, concerning the marking of goods, both the common law and the civil law have great reſpect to it, in relation to the ſettling the property of the merchandize in the right owner; ſo that if one man ſhall uſe the mark of another, to the intent to do him damage, or bring him into any trouble, action of the caſe lies. 2 Cro. Rep. 471. But this relates more to home trade in general, and to aſcertain the goodneſs of commodities, than to goods uſually freighted to ſea.

A Charter-party of affreightment is drawn in the following form:

This charter-party indented, made, concluded and agreed upon, this day of, &c. in the year of our Lord, &c. between A. B. of, &c. mariner, maſter, and owner, of the good ſhip or veſſel called, &c. now riding at anchor at, &c. of the burthen of 200 tons, or thereabouts, of the one part, and C. D. of, &c. merchant of the other part, witneſſeth, That the ſaid A. B. for the conſiderations herein after-mentioned, hath granted and to freight letten, and by theſe preſents doth grant and to freight let unto the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, the whole tonnage of the hold, ſtern-ſheets, and half deck of the ſaid ſhip or veſſel called the, &c. from the port of London to, &c. in a voyage to be made with the ſaid ſhip, in manner hereafter mentioned, (that is to ſay) to ſail with the firſt fair wind and weather that ſhall happen after, &c. or before, &c. next, from the ſaid port of London, with the goods and merchandize of the ſaid C. D. his factors or aſſigns, on board to, &c. aforeſaid (the dangers of the ſeas excepted) and there unlade and make diſcharge of the ſaid goods and merchandizes, and deliver all the ſaid goods in good condition, and as they were delivered to him; and alſo ſhall there remain with the ſaid ſhip the ſpace of 21 days, and take, into and aboard the ſame ſhip again, the goods and merchandizes of the ſaid C. D. his factors or aſſigns, and ſhall then return to the port of London with the ſaid goods, in the time, &c. limited for the end of the ſaid voyage: In conſideration whereof, the ſaid C. D. for

for himſelf, his executors and adminiſtrators, doth covenant, promiſe, and grant, to and with the ſaid A B. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, by theſe preſents, that he the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, factors, or aſſigns, ſhall and will well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid, unto the ſaid A. B. his executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, for the freight of the ſaid ſhip and goods, the ſum of, &c. (or after the rate of 4l. of, &c. the ton, for every ton of goods and merchandizes that ſhall be unladen, of and from the ſaid ſhip, or at the rate of, &c. monthly, accounting the months as they ſhall fall out in the kalendar, for every month that the ſaid ſhip ſhall be in performing the ſaid voyage, and ſo in proportion for a ſhorter time than a month, to commence from, &c. and continue 'till the ſhip's return to, &c.) within 21 days after the ſaid ſhip's arrival, and goods returned and diſcharged in good condition at the port of London aforeſaid, for the end of the ſaid voyage: and alſo ſhall and will pay for demurrage (if any ſhall be by the default of him the ſaid C. D. his factors or aſſigns) the ſum of, &c. per day, daily and every day, as the ſame ſhall grow due. And the ſaid A. B. for himſelf, his executors and adminiſtrators, doth covenant, promiſe, and grant, to and with the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, by theſe preſents, that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſhall be ready at the port of London, to take in goods by the ſaid C. D. on or before, &c. next coming: and the ſaid C. D. for himſelf, his executors, &c. doth covenant and promiſe, within ten days after the ſaid ſhip or veſſel ſhall be thus ready, to have his goods put on board the ſaid ſhip, to proceed on the ſaid voyage; and alſo on the arrival of the ſaid ſhip at, &c. within ten days, to have his goods ready to put on board the ſaid ſhip, to return on the ſaid voyage. And the ſaid A. B. for himſelf, his executors, and adminiſtrators, doth further covenant and agree, to and with the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, that the ſaid ſhip or veſſel now is, and, at all times during the ſaid voyage, ſhall be, to the beſt endeavours of him the ſaid A. B. his executors and adminiſtrators, and at his and their own proper coſts and charges, in all things made and kept ſtiff, ſtaunch, ſtrong, well apparelled, furniſhed and provided, as well with men and mariners, ſufficient and able to ſail, guide, and govern the ſaid ſhip, as with all manner of rigging, boats, tackle, furniture, proviſion and appurtenances, fitting and neceſſary for the ſaid men and mariners, and for the ſaid ſhip during the voyage aforeſaid. And laſtly, for the performance of all and ſingular the covenants, grants, articles, and agreements, herein contained, on the part and behalf of the ſaid A. B. his executors or adminiſtrators, to be done and performed, the ſaid A. B. binds himſelf, his executors and adminiſtrators, and eſpecially the ſaid ſhip, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, unto the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns, in the penal ſum of 1000 l. of lawful money of Great-Britain, by theſe preſents. In witneſs whereof the parties above-named have to this preſent charter-party interchangeably ſet their hands and ſeals, the day and year firſt above written. For more matter upon this head, ſee the articles FREIGHT, COMMANDERS of Ships, SHIPPING, MARINE AFFAIRS.

In regard to the peculiar forms of charter-parties, it muſt be obſerved, that they are various, like other legal written inſtruments, according to the conditions of the agreements made upon theſe occaſions.

Some of the principal ordonnances of France, in regard to charter-parties, are as follow, viz.

I.

All articles for freighting of ſhips ſhall be reduced into writing, and agreed to by the merchants that freight, and the maſter or owners of the ſhips freighted.

II.

The maſter ſhall obſerve the orders of his owners, when he freights the ſhip at the place of their reſidence.

III.

The charter-party ſhall contain the name and burthen of the veſſel, the names of the maſter and freighters, the place and time of the lading and unlading the freight, the time the veſſel is to ſtay at the reſpective ports, and the convention about demurrage; to which the parties may add ſuch other conditions as they pleaſe.

IV.

The time of the lading and unlading the goods ſhall be regulated according to the cuſtom of the reſpective ports, except it be determined by the charter-party.

V.

If a ſhip be freighted by the month, and the times of the freight be not regulated by the charter-party, it ſhall only commence from the day that the ſhip ſhall ſail.

VI.

He who, after having received a ſummons in writing to fulfil the contract, refuſes it, or delays it, ſhall make good all the loſs and damage.

VII.

But if before the departure of the ſhip there ſhould happen an embargo, occaſioned by war, repriſals, or otherwiſe, with the country whither the ſhip is bound, the charter-party ſhall be diſſolved without any damages or charges for either party, and the merchant ſhall pay the charges of lading and unlading his goods; but, if the difference be with one another, the charter-party ſhall be valid in all it's points.

VIII.

If the ports be only ſhut, and the veſſels ſtopped by force for a time, the charter-party ſhall ſtill be valid, and the maſter and merchant ſhall be reciprocally obliged to expect the opening of the ports and the liberty of the ſhip, without any pretenſions for damages on either ſide.

IX.

However, the merchant may, at his own charge, unlade his goods during the embargo, or ſhutting up of the port, upon condition either to lade them again, or indemnify the maſter.

X.

The maſter ſhall be obliged, during the voyage, to have aboard the charter-party, and the other neceſſary deeds concerning his lading.

XI.

The ſhip, rigging, and tackle, and the freight of goods laded, ſhall be reſpectively, affected by the conventions of the charter-party.

CHEMISTRY, as defined by that great maſter thereof, Boerhaave, is an art which teaches the manner of performing certain phyſical operations, whereby bodies cognizable to the ſenſes, or capable of being rendered cognizable, and of being contained in veſſels, are ſo changed, by means of proper inſtruments, as to produce certain determined effects, and, at the ſame time, diſcover the cauſes thereof, for the ſervice of various arts.

REMARKS.

This being a branch of buſineſs of great extent in itſelf, as well as beneficial to various arts and trades, it is neceſſary to be taken notice of in a work of this nature. We ſhall, therefore, treat the ſubject in a manner ſuitable to our general deſign. To which end, I ſhall not trouble the man of buſineſs with what he may find in other authors, if his curioſity ſhould lead him further than I would preſume to give him an idea of. Such people of buſineſs who have not had ſomething of a taſte for philoſophic arts, which tend to promote general traffic and navigation, may think this a part of knowlege uſeleſs to them in their commercial province, and therefore deſpiſe it.

To diſabuſe and undeceive traders upon this occaſion, we need only enter a little into the nature of chemiſtry, and it's important utility to a great variety of arts and trade will glaringly diſplay itſelf.

The whole of chemiſtry may be comprehended under the art of reſolving bodies into their principles *, and of conſtituting new compounds from thoſe principles, by means of fire, air, water, earth, and particular menſtruums: ſo that the one may properly enough be diſtinguiſhed by analytical, the other by ſynthetical chemiſtry; the former reduces bodies to their component matters, the latter puts theſe component matters together again, in various manners, and thereby forms a large ſet of new productions, that would be abſolutely undiſcoverable in nature, without the interpoſition of this art. Such productions, for inſtance, are brandy, ſoap, glaſs, vitriol, &c.

* By principles the ſound practical chemiſt does not underſtand the original particles of matter, whereof all bodies are, by the mathematical and mechanical philoſophers, ſuppoſed to conſiſt. Thoſe particles remain undiſcernable to the ſenſe, though aſſiſted with the moſt finiſhed inſtruments; nor have their figures and original differences been determined by a juſt induction. Leaving to other philoſophers the diſquiſition of primary corpuſcles, or atoms, whereof many bodies and worlds have been formed in the fancy, we ſhall only ſay, that genuine chemiſtry contents itſelf with groſſer principles, which are evident to the ſenſe, and known to produce effects in the way of corporeal inſtruments. Theſe principles are ſufficient to anſwer the end of practical chemiſtry, which conſiſts in experiments, and the explanation of facts, and ſenſible objects. But, when once men leave the oracles of ſenſe, and introduce metaphyſical ſpeculations into chemiſtry, it is then the art becomes a corrupt fountain of hypotheſis and illuſion, which ever has, and ever will, only diſtract, inſtead of juſtly inſtructing mankind in matters of ſolid uſe and advantage.

To become, therefore, the uſeful and judicious chemiſt, the rule is, to keep cloſe to information of the ſenſes, the laws of induction, and the uſe of material and ſenſible principles. —Theſe ſenſible principles, as far as we know them, are expreſſed by the common words water, earth, ſalt, ſulphur, and mercury.

Though theſe definitions may be inadequate, yet they afford ſignificant marks, whereby they may be readily known and diſtinguiſhed for ordinary uſe. Juſt definitions can only be drawn from a full and perfect diſcovery of the nature and properties of bodies, which does not ſeem to be in the power of man to know; nor do we meet with theſe principles in a pure and perfect ſtate, unmixed with other bodies. When they appear to the ſenſes to be thus far purified, they are the principles we mean, or what are emphatically called chemical principles, though they may be every one of them deſtructible in that form; but then they ceaſe to be chemical principles.

To explain our meaning by experiments, ſo as to be underſtood by thoſe who have never been converſant with theſe things, (for there is no myſtery in them) people of the plaineſt ſenſe are the beſt turned to underſtand plain truths, founded on the plain and unqueſtionable authority of their ſenſes.

The experiments I have pitched on being the moſt familiar I could meet with, I ſhall make choice of them. The attentive reader will eaſily diſcern their application to other ſubjects.

Experiment I.

That vegetables are reſolvable, by fire, into four of the chemical principles, viz. water, oil, ſalt, and earth.

Take two pounds of wormwood, cut ſmall, and put it into a glaſs retort, in a ſmall ſand-heat; diſtil with degrees of fire, and a frequent change of receivers, and you will obtain (1.) an aqueous liquor; and (2.) an oil. Taking out the remainder, and burning, or calcining it, in the open air, it will turn to a grey kind of aſhes; which, boiled in fair water, will, (3.) communicate a ſalt thereto. Let the ſolution ſtand at reſt for ſome time; decant the clear liquor, and evaporate the ſuperfluous water, and the ſalt will be obtained in a dry form; and (4.) there will remain, at the bottom of the water, an earthly ſubſtance, wherein the aſhes were boiled.

This experiment, being duly attended to, is very inſtructive, and ſhews that the chemical principles, before-mentioned are not imaginary, or fictitious things, but things palpable, and evident to the ſenſes: for we have here a water, an oil, a ſalt, and an earth, all afforded us by a vegetable ſubject.

This experiment may be made general, without much variation: for all the vegetable ſubjects, hitherto examined in this manner, reſolve themſelves into the ſame general principles; they differ only (1.) in reſpect of the kind of ſalt, which in ſome is more volatile, in others more fixed; in ſome acid *, in others alkaline †: and (2.) In the nature or particular properties of the oil; which, in ſome plants, is more thin and fluid, in others more groſs and viſcous, &c. But all the principles thus obtained agree to the general definitions above laid down. So that there appears to be no vegetable in nature but what is thus reſolvable into water, oil, ſalt, and earth.

* By acids are meant all thoſe things that taſte ſour; as vinegar, tartar, juice of crabs, lemons, &c. ſpirit of nitre, ſpirit of ſalt, &c. and which, when mixed with a due proportion of alkali, conſtitute a natural body, wherein neither acid nor alkali prevails; whence it alters not the colour of ſyrup of violets.

† Alkali, is a word of extenſive ſignification, and chemically denotes a large tribe of bodies: for all bodies may be chemically conſidered under three tribes, or as being either alkalies, acids, or neutrals. Alkalies have this eſſential property, that, when mixed, or united with acids, they conſtitute neutrals. But a more common indication of an alkali is, that it turns ſyrup of violets green, as an acid turns it red; whilſt the admixture of a neutral body does not alter the colour of that ſyrup. Thus pot-aſh, ſalt of tartar, and all fixed vegetable ſalts, as likewiſe all volatile animal ſalts and ſpirits, are artificial alkalies; as chalk, the teſtaceous bodies, &c. are natural alkalies. Thus, in the vegetable kingdom, onions, leeks, garlic, muſtard, &c. are alkaline; as ſorrel, wood-ſorrel, the juice of lemons, oranges, verjuice, &c. are acid. Their difference, alſo, is manifeſt from the taſte, when the habit of thus diſtinguiſhing them is required.

To obtain theſe principles pure, we muſt (1.) Separate all the oil that may chance to remain ſuſpended in the water. This is effected in a conſiderable degree by the filtre; which, being kept continually filling up, ſo as that the lighter oil may not come in contact with the paper, the aqueous part is thus tranſmitted tolerably free from oil. (2.) But ſtill there may remain ſome ſmall proportion of oily and ſaline matter therein. If the ſaline matter be acid, the way to deſtroy it is, by mixing a little chalk, or any pure and fixed alkaline ſalt, with the liquor, whereby, alſo, more of the oil will be ſet at liberty: ſo that, being now filtred again, and gently diſtilled with a ſoft heat, the aqueous part will riſe much purer and paſs for water in the judgment of the ſenſes. (3.) If the plant were alkaline, and an alkaline ſalt abounds in the liquor, let it be made neutral with one that is acid; and thus, again, the water may be ſeparated pure, by means of the filtre, and rediſtillation. This is the method of manifeſting to the ſenſes that the chemical principle water is naturally lodged in, and may be ſeparated from, all vegetable ſubſtances.

In order to procure the ſulphur or oily principle pure, the unctuous matter obtained by this general proceſs may be waſhed from its adhering ſalts, and groſſer earth, in warm water, barely by ſhaking them in a glaſs together; then ſeparating the oil from the water, by means of the common ſeparating glaſs *, where, if the oil be ſpecifically heavier than water, it ſinks to the bottom, and may be ſuffered to run out firſt; if ſpecifically lighter, it floats at top, and may, by the finger applied to the bottom of the glaſs, or other contrivance, be kept behind, when all the water and feculent parts are run from it.

* Separating glaſs, is a bellied glaſs, open at top, and ending in a hollow ſtem below; ſo that a mixture of oil and water being poured into it, and ſuffered to reſt 'till they ſeparate, the water may be ſeparated from the oil.

To obtain the ſaline principle pure; (1.) If it be of the volatile urinous kind, the matter may be diſſolved in water, and made to paſs the filtre, then ſet, in a gentle heat, to ſublime; for it will thus riſe, and leave the water behind, as being much more volatile than that. (2.) If it be required ſtill purer, the beſt method hitherto known is, to ſublime it from finely pulverized chalk; then to ſaturate it with a clean ſpirit of ſea ſalt, ſo as to convert it into a true ſal-ammoniac, which being mixed with ſalt of tartar, and now again ſet to ſublime, the volatile ſalt will thus riſe again highly purified, ſo as long to retain it's whiteneſs. (3.) But, if the ſaline matter obtained be of the fixed kind, the method of purifying it is, to diſſolve it in fair cold water; ſuffer the ſolution to ſubſide, then decant the clear liquor, and evaporate it in a clean iron pan, or glaſs veſſel, 'till, with continual ſtirring, it becomes dry and white. (4.) Or, to purify it ſtill further, and render it perfectly white, let it be put into a clean crucible, and expoſed for a while amidſt the flame of burning charcoal, without melting.

Laſtly, to obtain the earthy principle in it's purity, let it be thoroughly calcined, boiled in ſeveral waters, to get out all it's ſalt, and then dry it over a clear fire, or in the ſun. And, when theſe ſeveral operations are performed in perfection, it is then we obtain what we properly mean by the chemical principles of vegetables.

And though it be not always neceſſary for the purpoſes of chemiſtry, or the common calls of life, to bring theſe principles to the degree of purity here mentioned, yet there are many caſes that abſolutely require them to be ſo purified; otherwiſe the operations wherein they are employed may eaſily miſcarry, which we deſire ſhould be noted, as one conſiderable reaſon of the failure of particular experiments and operations, both in chemiſtry itſelf, and many of the chemical arts, of glaſs-making, diſtillation, &c.

The uſes of this experiment

are numerous; we ſhall touch on a few of them. (1.) We may learn from it, that theſe chemical principles abound in different quantities in different vegetables, or in the ſame, at different ſeaſons or times of growth. For inſtance, olives, almonds, mace, &c. contain ſuch an over-proportion of oil, to the other principles, that it may be copiouſly obtained barely by preſſure. The vine, in the ſpring, affords a larger proportion of fixed alkaline ſalt than at any other ſeaſon; and the ſame holds of the wood uſually burnt for pot-aſh. And thus we find that the aqueous and ſaline principles preſide in vegetables in the ſpring, but the oily in the ſummer and the autumn; that all young plants abound more with water than ſuch as are full grown: and that oil is moſt plentifully contained in the oldeſt trees, and thoſe of the colder climates: whence we are directed to the proper times and ſeaſons, and places, for felling the timber deſigned for pitch, pot-aſh, fuel, and charcoal, &c. This, duly attended to, may be of great advantage to our plantations.

By applying this experiment to different vegetables, it has been found that vegetables are naturally diſtinguiſhable into two grand tribes, viz. the acid and the alkaline; the firſt affording a volatile acid, the other a volatile alkali, upon dry diſtillation. Thus guaiacum, cedar, box, cinnamon, cloves, ſorrel, mint, balm, &c. afford an acid; but garlick, leeks, onions, horſe-raddiſh, ſcurvy-graſs, muſtard, &c. afford an alkali; which, when rectified, is hardly diſtinguiſhable from that of animal ſubſtances, ſo as nearly to reſemble the ſpirit and ſalt of hartſhorn.

This experiment alſo ſhews us the methods of making, or procuring, tar, charcoal, fixed ſalt, and elementary earth, from vegetables; four capital particulars in uſeful arts and trades. Tar is the ſcorched oil of unctuous wood, forced out by fire, as the groſs oil is in the preſent experiment. Charcoal is wood burned cloſe to blackneſs. Soap, a mixture of fixed ſalt and oil; glaſs, a mixture of earth and fixed ſalt; and elementary earth makes all the teſts and copels for the refining of gold and ſilver. See Refining.

The preſent experiment ſhews, alſo, the nature of vegetable fumes; whereby, in the way of animal curation, fiſh and fleſh are long preſerved free from putrefaction or corruption: for wherever green wood, or any acid vegetable matter is burned, the acid particles go off with the ſmoke, and in this form penetrate and lodge in animal ſubſtances expoſed thereto; whereby this ſmoke acts upon them in the ſame manner as the fume of ſpirit of ſea-ſalt, or nitre, would do. And whether it be not a nitrous acid which thus tinges the hams, herrings, &c. red in drying, may deſerve examination.

This experiment ſhews that the force of fire is not ſufficient to reduce a vegetable ſubſtance to aſhes, without the help of air; and that ſo long as the fixed oil, which cauſes the blackneſs, remains in a vegetable coal, it will afford no fixed ſalt by decoction in water: whence we have a rule in the making of pot-aſh, and all the fixed ſalts whatever, to a greater advantage, by thoroughly calcining the ſubject, ſo as to leave no fixed oil behind. This may prove a matter of great uſe, both at home and in our plantations.

And hence we are, alſo, inſtructed in the phyſical nature of a vegetable coal, and ſee how it may have ſuch conſiderable effects upon metals, in the nature of a flux, ſince we find it contains a fixed oil, firmly united to the matter of a fixed alkali: whence, to uſe this coal, as a flux, is the ſame thing as to uſe a fixed ſalt, intimately united with a fixed oil, which may operate powerfully upon ores, as we ſhall ſhew under the articles METALLURGY, and IRON.

EXPERIMENT II.

That animal matters are reſolvable, by fire, into the four chemical principles, water, oil, ſalt, and earth.

Take four pounds of animal bones, that have been well boiled, to ſeparate their marrow, or fat, and then thoroughly dry them, and break them into ſmall lumps: put them into an earthen retort, to which lute a glaſs receiver, and diſtil with a degree of heat, in a naked fire. There will firſt come over, in drops, an aqueous limpid liquor, which reſerve apart, by changing the receiver; then, increaſing the fire, there will come over white fumes, a volatile ſalt, and a quantity of oil. When the veſſel is cool, the bones will be turned black in the retort; but, being calcined in a naked fire, with the admiſſion of the free air, they are turned white: then, boiling theſe white aſhes in water, you will find, by evaporation, that they communicate no fixed alkaline ſalt thereto.

This experiment is general, or ſucceeds, with little variation, in all other animal ſubjects, whether they be fleſh, blood, ſerum, fiſh, birds, whites of eggs, horn, hair, hoofs, ſilk, or the like; the principal difference being only that theſe ſubſtances reſpectively contain more or leſs earth, water, ſalt, and oil.

The uſes and application of this experiment.

The principles ſeparated by the preſent experiment appear to be, in general, the ſame with thoſe before gained from the vegetable ſubject: they may be ſeparately purified and made elementary, after the ſame methods as are there directed. Thus, by comparing the productions of both proceſſes together, we ſhall find that we have a water, an oil, a ſalt, and an earth, in both caſes. But in this caſe all the ſalt is volatile, the aſhes containing no fixed ſalt at all: whence this appears to be the principal chemical difference between vegetable and animal ſubjects, that the vegetable kind yield a fixed ſalt by calcination; and the animal kind one that is volatile by diſtillation. But this holds only of the acid ſpecies of vegetables; for the alkaline ſpecies yields little or no fixed ſalt upon calcination: ſo that, between the alkaline tribe of vegetables and the whole animal kingdom, there ſeems to be little difference, neither in this, or any other chemical reſpects.

But, though ſome difference ſhould be found between the animal and vegetable oils, as there is thought to be in the making of ſoap, and ſome other inſtances; yet the principles of animal and vegetable ſubjects may be juſtly reputed the ſame, as both equally agree to the general definitions of water, oil, ſalt, and earth, when their ſeveral principles are reduced to the ſame degrees of purity.

And hence ſome advantages might be derived to uſeful arts and trades, by making the ſubjects of one kingdom ſerve inſtead of thoſe of the other, when one is cheaper than the other. Thus a volatile ſpirit and ſalt, like thoſe of hartſhorn, may be drawn from the alkaline ſpecies of vegetables, and all putrified plants; at leaſt from bones purged of their fat by boiling in water. So ſolid ſoap is made of vegetable oils as well as of animal fats; and a volatile animal, and a volatile vegetable ſalt, may be each ſeparately converted into ſal-ammoniac, at a cheap rate.

Whence we learn, that the correſpondent animal and vegetable principles may, in many caſes, be uſed for one another, ſo as to render volatile ſalts and oils cheaper, and leſſen the expence attending their uſe in particular arts and trades; which is the great end we aim at, by familiarly leading the reader into ſome knowlege of this art, upon the right and fundamental principles thereof.

EXPERIMENT III.

That certain mineral, or metallic bodies, may contain four of the chemical principles, viz. ſulphur, ſalt, earth, and mercury.

Take two ounces of native cinnabar, reduced to fine powder, and mix it with ſix ounces of quick-lime; put the whole into an earthen retort, and diſtil into a baſon of water; you will find a quantity of running mercury at the bottom thereof.

The matter remaining behind in the retort, being boiled in a lixivium of pot-aſh, and the ſolution precipitated with allum, thus lets fall a fine kind of brimſtone, called lac ſulphuris, which will ſublime into true flowers of brimſtone, that may be melted and run into a roll. This brimſtone alſo being burned, in the common method, under a glaſs bell, reſolves into an acid liquor, leaving an uninflammable terreſtrial matter behind; which, being treated as an ore [ſee ORES] ſometimes affords a ſmall proportion of metal, either of iron or copper.

The uſe of this experiment.

This is very inſtructive, and might lead to conſiderable diſcoveries. It ſhews, that a true running mercury may lie concealed in metallic ores, or ſtony earths, where thoſe who have no knowlege of this art, would not ſuſpect; for native cinnabar is but an ore of mercury, conſiſting, as we ſee, of two different matters, ſulphur and quickſilver; which are ſeparable by diſtillation with quick-lime, or iron filings, and ſometimes by long boiling in a ſtrong alkaline lixivium. This experiment might be profitably applied, perhaps, to marquiſites, mundics, and various other mineral ſubſtances, and ſtony ſulphureous matters, that are rejected as worthleſs.

We may alſo obſerve, from this experiment, that, as common brimſtone reſolves itſelf into an acid liquor, and an earthy matter, we find that certain mineral metallic ſubſtances will, by a proper analyſis, afford the four chemical principles abovementioned, viz. running mercury, ſulphur, ſalt, and earth. But it is not ſuppoſed to hold univerſally, that all mineral ſubſtances ſhould afford a running mercury upon their analyzation, but ſuch of them only as are properly metallic.

Upon the whole, therefore, it may be concluded, that the five principles, viz. water, earth, ſalt, ſulphur, and perhaps mercury, are the true chemical principles of vegetable, animal, and mineral ſubſtances.

Of ſynthetical chemiſtry, or the art of recompoſing bodies after their analytical diſſolution.

This is extremely difficult to effect univerſally; yet it may be done in ſome caſes, ſo as that the recompoſed body ſhall be perfectly undiſtinguiſhable, by the ſenſes, from that which had never been ſeparated by the fire. And, if the art of chemiſtry were perfect, it would be able thus to recompoſe, at leaſt in ſome tolerable manner, all the bodies it divides. But, this branch of chemiſtry being rather of philoſophical * than ordinary uſe, we ſhall only give one inſtance of it in regard to brandy, which will convey an idea to our meaning.

* It would, however, ſhew an extreme perfection and power in the art of chemiſtry, to be able to do this; and prove, either that bodies might be taken to pieces by the fire, without altering, or injuring their natural parts; or, at leaſt, that any accidental alteration, brought upon them by the analyſis, might eaſily be rectified, or aboliſhed, by a recompoſition.

EXPERIMENT.

Brandy reſolved into it's component parts, and recompoſed.

(1.) To a pint of brandy let be added half a pound of dry ſalt of tartar; then ſet the containing glaſs in a gentle heat of ſand, where you will obſerve the ſalt to diſſolve into a liquor, by attracting to itſelf the water of the brandy, leaving a ſpirit of wine floating on the top. This ſpirit was decanted upon a little more dry ſalt of tartar, and found that this ſecond ſalt ſcarce relented. Then, pouring the ſpirit into a glaſs receiver, it was diſtilled gently over, and thus obtained a highly rectified ſpirit of wine. (2.) In the ſame manner was diſtilled the ſaline ſolution, left behind upon decanting the ſpirit; and thus obtained the water of the brandy in conſiderable purity, leaving the ſalt of tartar in a dry form behind. (3.) Laſtly, were mixed the ſpirit and the water together; and the brandy was found recompoſed, without any conſiderable alteration. See BRANDY, RUM.

It's uſe.

From hence we may judge of the recompoſition of wine, after it's ſpirit, or brandy, has been diſtilled from it; and, alſo, of the recompoſition of vinegar from it's ſpirit and reſiduum; both by means of a new fret, or a ſlight fermentation: and, if the operation in theſe caſes be dextrouſly performed, the recompoſition will be juſt and perfect. To perform many operations of this kind complete, proper intermediate ſubſtances are requiſite, which are either fermentable, or in a fermenting ſtate; ſuch as a little new wine, ſugar, juice of the grape, or the like; for theſe ſubſtances, coming to work on the liquor, lay hold both of their aqueous, ſpirituous, and ſaline parts, ſo as to bring them into the ſtate of mixture, or arrangement, wherein their perfection, as wines and vinegars, depends. And how far this method of recompoſition may be extended, ſeems hitherto little conſidered.

In the preſent experiment for the recompoſition of brandy, there are two conſtituent parts concerned, viz. alcohol and phlegm, which renders the ſeparation and combination ſo much the eaſier and more exact; nor is there any occaſion here for an intermediate ſubſtance, to procure, or recover, the natural union, becauſe alcohol readily mixes with water, barely by ſhaking, and this as intimately as is neceſſary to the conſtitution of brandy.

This experiment ſhews an uſeful method of obtaining ſpirit of wine from brandy, without diſtillation; and may be practiſed to great advantage in the large way of buſineſs, by adding pot-aſh to the brandy once diſtilled, and brought to a ſize commonly called three-fifths, that is, three parts alcohol and two of water: for the pot-aſh ſo employed is eaſily recoverable, without much loſs, barely by boiling the lixivium in an iron pot, where, being made dry, it will ſerve for the ſame purpoſe again. This ſlight experiment may prove of eminent ſervice where large parcels of brandies are to be rectified in a ſmall compaſs of time.

Remarks.

It is not our intention, under this general head, to give any thing of a ſyſtem of chemiſtry; but the application of it to a great number of important arts and trades will appear throughout this work, as, indeed, it has done already, and that in ſuch a light as will not only lay a foundation for the improvement of numerous branches of trade already eſtabliſhed, but tend to the inveſtigation of new arts and new trades: for chemiſtry, ſkilfully applied, may be juſtly ſaid to be the great parent of numberleſs branches of commerce, and numberleſs arts, whereby to render them more beneficial to thoſe therein concerned.

So that chemiſtry, thus adapted to the intereſt of the men of buſineſs, will free it from that diſeſteem it has met with from many, which has proceeded from a want of knowing it's proper office, extent, and uſefulneſs; and from the frequent miſapplication of it to things of a deluſory or phantaſtical nature, whereby well-intentioned perſons have been egregiouſly impoſed upon, by artful and deſigning villains; who, under the confident pretence of ſuperlative knowlege in this art, have extorted money from the unexperienced, and have proved themſelves as ſuperlatively ignorant in the art, as infamouſly deteſtable in their conduct*. This is the abuſe of the art.

* And here I am free to acknowlege, that I was, ſome years ſince, ſhamefully impoſed on by one of thoſe chemical jugglers, who go to and fro ſeeking whom they can devour. As it may be a uſeful precaution to guard others againſt the like impoſition, it may not be unacceptable to relate the caſe. I was intereſted in partnerſhip with an eminent merchant of the city of London, in a large manufacture of lead, which was ſettled in the north of England. The perſons, who had induced us to this undertaking, making extraordinary pretenſions to ſuperior ſkill in the arts of ſmelting and refining of that metal, we were prevailed on to follow their directions; who put us to no little expence in buildings, ſuitable to their intended ſchemes of operation.—The gentleman with whom I was concerned, and myſelf, being, at that time, quite ignorant in matters of this nature, we relied on the extraordinary judgment of our ſmelter and refiner, whom we ſoon found to be only pretenders, and intended to live upon us, as long as they could carry on their deluſion.—From this, and ſome other circumſtances of groſs deceit in the ſame way, upon my partner and ſelf, I was, from that time, determined to make chemiſtry, both in theory and practice, one branch of my ſtudy; and accordingly I conſulted lord Bacon, Boyle, Boerhaave, Shaw, Geoffroy, Lemery, &c. and the tranſactions of all the philoſophical ſocieties of Europe; and, at the ſame time, added practice to my theory, from the beſt information I could obtain. Theſe meaſures have led me to ſuch a diſcernment in this branch of philoſophy, as I flatter myſelf, will enable me not only to point out the means to prevent others being impoſed on, but to ſhew how this art may be applied to the advancement of ſeveral important branches of trade, according to the ſentiments of thoſe who have excelled herein. In the mean time, I ſhall only deſire the reader to pay what regard he thinks proper, to the following ſhort rules for his conduct in this art, the ſubſtance of which is given us by that great maſter thereof, the learned Dr Shaw.

Let the firſt rule be, with care and diligence, to obſerve the proceſſes uſed by nature, in the production of all thoſe things we would endeavour to imitate: for nature, as a moſt expert chemiſt, employs the very inſtruments which men alſo employ, viz. fire, water, air, and earth.

To illuſtrate this rule by an example; it appears, by numerous inſtances, that there is an acid or ſaline liquor naturally contained in the bowels of the earth; which acid, there mixing with various kinds of earthy matters, as a menſtruum, changes their natures, or makes them appear under different forms. Hence common brimſtone, allum, the native vitriol, &c. ſeem to have their origin.

For by an exact ſcrutiny, and attentive conſideration, it appears, that, when this general acid diſſolves a certain bituminous earth, it makes brimſtone; when a chalky earth, allum; when iron or copper, vitriol, &c. And accordingly, by uſing the ſame kind of general acid (which may be procured by burning brimſtone under a glaſs-bell) in the ſame manner as nature ſeems to employ it, we can likewiſe, by art, produce brimſtone, allum, or vitriol, when and where we pleaſe. And thus, if we could univerſally diſcover the proceſſes and inſtruments which nature employs in the production of her effects, we ſhould have certain rules for imitating her.

Our ſecond rule is, to gain a habit of transferring, diverſifying, enlarging, and improving an experiment, 'till it ends in ſome certain diſcovery, either of light to the underſtanding, or of uſe in life; one of which points all juſt experiments will end in, when duly proſecuted, and judiciouſly weighed and conſidered.

For unſucceſsful experiments are no leſs inſtructing than thoſe that ſucceed, which ought to be well remarked. The head muſt in all caſes co-operate with the hands; ſo that the mind ſhould be ever caſting about to diſcover the cauſes of failure, as well as of ſucceſs. This is a ſagacity which may be procured by uſe, and turned into a habit of invention and diſcovery: ſo that no ſingle experiment ſhall be performed, but ſome advantage will be immediately derived from it; nor no experiment be made, without ſome ſolid grounds of hope for ſucceſs.

The third rule to make this art to turn to advantage, with regard to the improvement of any branch of trade that we may have in view, is, to proſecute experiments in an orderly ſeries; and to let the inquiry ſuit the genius and temper of the enquirer, ſo that it may be proſecuted by him with vigour and pleaſure.——This hath been the practice of the greateſt maſters in this art.

Thus, if any one ſhould be averſe to the uſe of fire and furnace, he may ſtill improve chemiſtry and arts, or perform many ſerviceable chemical operations, without much apparatus or expence, or without the utenſils and inſtruments commonly employed in that art: which may therefore be as conveniently practiſed within a ſtudy or a parlour, as in a laboratory. For there are many chemical enquiries, that may be proſecuted without the uſe of fires and furnaces: and even ſuch diſpoſitions as are more delighted with ſpeculation than practice, may greatly contribute to the improvement of chemiſtry, by ſorting, ranging, and digeſting experiments into tables; ſhewing what they prove, and how far they reach; how far they fall ſhort, and how they may be carried farther: others might, to advantage, employ themſelves upon drawing things of uſe in life, from the experiments already known and publiſhed: and, laſtly, others might from a due conſideration of experiments, deduce new directions and rules of practice for producing in a ſure and conſtant manner, much greater effects than are uſually hoped for.

CHESHIRE, or the county palatine of CHESTER, is divided from Lancaſhire on the north, by the river Merſee; has a corner of Yorkſhire on the north-eaſt, Derbyſhire and Staffordſhire on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, Shropſhire and part of Flintſhire on the ſouth, and Derbyſhire, the weſt of Flintſhire, and the Iriſh ſea on the north-weſt corner, where a Cherſoneſe, ſixteen miles long and ſeven broad, is formed by two creeks of it, which receive all the rivers of the county.

The air of this county is reckoned healthy, being more ſerene and mild than that of Lancaſhire, and the ſoil for the moſt part good. On the borders of Staffordſhire and Derbyſhire 'tis full of riſings, though the hills are not of any great height. There's a peculiar ſort of ground in this ſhire, which the inhabitants call moſſes, a kind of mooriſh boggy earth, very fat and ſtringy, out of which are cut turfs in form of bricks, and dried in the ſun for fuel.

The chief rivers are the Dee, the Weaver, and the Merſee. The Dee abounds with ſalmon, and ſprings from two fountains in Wales, and is obſerved never to overflow by rain, but by the ſouth-weſt wind. It enters this county at Grafton, and runs north to Cheſter, where it falls into the Iriſh ſea by Park-Gate, which is the ſouthern creek of the Cherſoneſe. The Weaver riſes in Shropſhire, and, after a courſe of eighteen miles from ſouth to north, makes an angle at Nantwich, turns weſt, and runs into the northern creek of the Cherſoneſe, as does alſo the Merſee, which runs from the north-eaſt.

Beſides rivers, this ſhire has a great number of meres and lakes, which abound with carp and tench, trout, eels, &c. Here are ſo many parks, that few gentlemen of any conſiderable eſtates are without them; and the foreſts of Delamere and Macclesfield are very wide, and for the moſt part very woody.

The product of this county is more particularly cheeſe and ſalt. It's cheeſe is commended as the beſt in England, except ſuch as have taſted the Cheddar cheeſe of Somerſetſhire. But all the cheeſe that paſſes for Cheſhire at London, and other places, is not made in this county; for great part of it comes out of Wales, where ſome pretend the goats, as well as the cows, are milked for that uſe.

The county affords great plenty of corn, fleſh, fiſh, and of the moſt delicate ſalmon. It drives a conſiderable trade, not only by importing, but by returns, as having within itſelf ſalt-pits, mines, and metals. The graſs of this county, ſays Camden,

Camden, has a peculiar good quality; ſo that they make great ſtore of cheeſe, more agreeable, and better reliſhed, than thoſe of any other parts of the kingdom, even when they procure the ſame dairy-women to make them.

CHESTER, or, as 'tis commonly called, WEST CHESTER, from it's weſtern ſituation, to diſtinguiſh it from many other Cheſters in the kingdom. 'Tis a large, fine, well built city, and full of wealthy inhabitants, who, by it's neighbourhood to the Severn and to Ireland, carry on a very conſiderable trade; ſo that the ſhopkeepers here have good buſineſs, look with chearful countenances, and the gentry are remarkably hoſpitable. They have great fairs here every year, to which abundance of merchants and tradeſmen reſort, but particularly from Briſtol and Dublin.

NANTWICH is remarkable for it's ſalt ſprings, which in ſome places, ſays Dr Jackſon, are not above three or four yards deep, but the pit in this townſhip is full ſeven. In two places at Nantwich, the ſprings break up ſo to the meadows, as to fret away not only the graſs, but part of the earth, which has a ſalt liquor ouzing, as it were, out of the mud. The ſprings are about three miles from the ſea, and generally lie along the river Weaver; yet there is an appearance of the ſame vein at Middlewich. Under the article SALT, we ſhall ſhew the whole proceſs, with ſuch remarks as may be uſeful.

CHILI. This kingdom lies along the coaſt of the South-Sea, from the 25th to the 45th degree, 30 minutes of ſouth latitude; and from the 65th to the 73d 20. of longitude weſt from London, comprehending the whole country ſo called by the Spaniards, and not being confined to that only ſettled by them. It is bounded on the north by Peru; on the eaſt by Tucuman, a province of Paraguay, and part of Terra Magellanica; on the ſouth by part of the ſame Terra Magellanica; and on the weſt by the South-Sea. It's greateſt length, from north to ſouth, amounts to 1230 Engliſh miles. It's breadth is various; it may be ſaid to extend 120 leagues from eaſt to weſt, though in many places it is not above 20 or 30 leagues broad, which is in the general it's extent from the ſea to the Cordillera mountains, or Sierre Nevada de los Andes. Some writers give it a different extent, which, by no means, conſiſts with the nature of our work, to deſcend into tedious criticiſms about.

As this country lies to the ſouth of the equinoctial line, the ſeaſons are oppoſite to thoſe in the oppoſite part of the hemiſphere, though not exactly.—The weather in the general is ſteady and conſtant, without ſudden changes all the ſpring, ſummer, and autumn. In winter there are, indeed, degrees of heat and cold, as the days differ in length and ſhortneſs, according to the degrees of longitude and courſe of the ſun, which cauſes the ſame variations as in Europe, though in oppoſite months.

Few of the fruits of Peru, Mexico, and of all the continent of America, will thrive according to Ovaglie, though they bring thither plants, ſeeds, or ſettings, theſe countries being within, Chili without the tropics: for which reaſon the fruits of Europe take very well in Chili, and bear extraordinarily. The wines are noble and generous.—The Muſcadel is eſteemed the beſt.

This country abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, copper, tin, quickſilver, and lead. Of the copper of Chili are made all the great guns for Peru, and the neighbouring kingdoms. There is no great call for lead, for quickſilver leſs, Peru affording tolerable quantities. The ſilver mines are not very much wrought, becauſe thoſe of gold are wrought to more profit. They are ſo plenty, and ſo rich, that from the confines of Peru, to the extreme parts of the kingdom, as far as the ſtreights of Magellan, there are few parts wherein they do not diſcover ſome. All travellers, who have given any account that may be relied on, greatly extol the riches of this part of the world; the ſame is done by thoſe who have navigated the ſtreights of Magellan, though with too much exaggeration.

The other produce of this country conſiſts in cattle of all kinds, of which they ſend a great many mules to Potoſi; tallow, hides, and dried fiſh, they export into Peru; cordage and tackling, with which all the ſhips in the South-Seas are furniſhed from Chili; for hemp grows no where about theſe parts but in Chili. Cocoa nuts grow wild here in the mountains, and in great plenty. Almonds, and other the garden products that do not grow in Peru, are carried thither with handſome profit.

The diſtrict called IMPERIAL is a biſhopric, and contains ſeveral cities, ſea-port towns, and other places.

Imperial, which gives name to the biſhopric, lies in ſouth latitude 38. 30. and longitude 72. 15. weſt of London. It ſtands in one of the moſt agreeable ſituations of the whole country, on a pleaſant river called the Imperial, from the city. It is about 130 miles diſtant from Conception, 10 or 12 from the ſea, and 33 from the city of St Jago. All the territory of the city of Imperial is very fruitful, bearing corn, and all ſorts of fruit and pulſe, though the black grapes do not ripen ſo kindly as the white ones and muſcadines. The country is partly hills and partly vallies: the former are of eaſy aſcent, with good paſture and ſhelter for cattle. The land does not ſeem to require much watering, it having frequent and large dews that fertilize it.

The river Imperial is large, and runs a great way up into the country, and the banks of it are well inhabited by Indians: but it's mouth affords no good harbour for ſhipping of any burthen, for the flats there are within three fathoms and a half of depth.

LA CONCEPTION, otherwiſe called PENCO, is ſeated at the edge of the ſea, at the bottom of a bay of the ſame name, on the eaſt ſide of it, in lat. 36. 42. 53. and in long. 73. weſt of London. It has on the eaſt high mountains, from which come two little rivers, that run acroſs the town. Fruits of all kinds are here ſo plentiful, that they are obliged to thin them, otherwiſe the branches would break, nor could the fruit come to maturity. The country in which the town of Conception is ſeated, abounds in all things, not only to ſupply the neceſſaries of life, but alſo containing infinite wealth, according to Frezier.

OTORNO, an inland town, on the northern bank of the river Rio Bueno, about 45 miles from Baldivia, towards the ſouth-eaſt, and as many from the ſea-coaſt to the eaſt. The country about it is not fruitful, and produces hardly any of the neceſſaries of life. But it is very rich in gold mines, for which reaſon the town is populous. De Noort tells us, that this town is in about 42 degrees of ſouth latitude, is larger than Baldivia, has a Spaniſh governor, and that they make here woollen ſtuffs and linnen cloths.

CHILOE, a conſiderable iſland on the coaſt of Chili, lies in ſouth latitude 44. or rather from 42 to 44. The ſouth part is divided from the continent by a narrow ſea, and the continent there makes a bay. The coaſt is very ſubject to tempeſtuous weather, eſpecially in March, for then the winter begins, and people cannot put to ſea; ſo that they muſt winter there contentedly, 'till the return of ſummer.

Excepting wine, this iſland produces all neceſſary refreſhments and proviſions; and there are alſo large quantities of ambergreaſe found here. About this iſland there are forty more, which take their names from it.

VILLA RICA is about 10 miles diſtant from the Cordillera mountains, is ſeated on the weſtern bank of a lake, called Malabauguen by the Indians, which is three leagues long from eaſt to weſt, and two broad from north to ſouth. The ſoil about this city is very fruitful: it is a clay ground, of which they make very good bricks. Moſt of the inhabitants of this town work in wool, and make very good cloth and linen waiſtcoaſts.

ANGOL, or VILLA NUEVA DE LOS INFANTES, is about 100 miles from Conception to the ſouth-eaſt, and about 32 from the Cordillera. It ſtands in a very large open plain; the land is very fertile, fruits ripen very well; there is good wine, and good ſtore of raiſins dried in the ſun, figs, and other dried fruits; and vaſt quantities of tall cypreſſes, which yield a very ſweet-ſcented wood, of which they make a gum-lack.

LA SERENA, or COQUIMBO, lies in ſouth latitude 29. 54. 10. and in longitude 73. 35. 45. weſt from the obſervatory at Paris. The river Coquimbo runs winding through this town, almoſt every-where fordable, ſupplying it with water, and freſhening the adjacent meadows, after having run from the mountain, where, in it's paſſage, it fertilizes variety of vales, whoſe ſoil refuſes no ſort of tillage.

Peter Valdivia, who made choice of this pleaſant ſituation in the year 1544, to build a town on, which might ſerve for a retreat in the paſſage from Chili to Peru, being charmed with the deliciouſneſs of the climate, he called it la Serena, to which it had more right than any other place in the world, the name ſignifying the ſerene, there being here continually a ſerene and pleaſant ſky.

The diſcovery of the mines of Copiapo, and the vexations of the chief magiſtrates, have contributed towards unpeopling this part of Chili. Though theſe mines are near 100 leagues from Coquimbo by land, ſeveral families are gone thither to ſettle, which hath left this place ſo bare of people, that there are not above 300 men fit to bear arms, not including the neighbourhood. The fertility of the ſoil, however, keeps abundance of people in the adjacent country, whence they bring corn annually to load four or five ſhips, of about 400 tons burden, to ſend to Lima. They alſo ſupply St Jago with a large quantity of wine and oil, eſteemed the beſt along the coaſt. Theſe proviſions, together with ſome few hides, tallow, and dried fleſh, are all the trade of that place, where the inhabitants are poor by reaſon of their ſlothfulneſs, and the few Indians they have to ſerve them.

In winter, when the rains are ſomewhat plentiful, gold is found in almoſt all the rivulets that run down from the mountains, and would be found all the year, if they had that help. About 10 leagues to the eaſtward of the town, are the waſhing places of Andacol, the gold whereof is ſaid to be 23 carats fine. [See the article GOLD.] The works there always turn to great advantage, when there is no want of rain. The inhabitants confidently affirm, that the earth breeds; that is, that gold is continually growing; becauſe, 60 or 80 years after it has been waſhed, they find almoſt as much gold as they did at firſt. In that ſame vale, beſides the waſhing-places, there are on the mountains ſo many gold mines, and ſome of

ſilver, that they would employ 40,000 men, as Frezier was informed by the governor of Coquimbo; and they propoſed to ſet up mills there, but wanted labourers.

The copper mines are alſo very common, three leagues north-eaſt from Coquimbo. They have wrought a long time at a mine, which ſupplies almoſt all the coaſt of Chili and Peru, with utenſils for the kitchen. It is affirmed, that there are alſo mines of iron and quickſilver.

COPIAPO, lies about 175 miles to the north of La Serena. There are gold mines directly above the town, and others at two or three leagues diſtance, whence they bring the ore on mules to the mills, which are within the town. In the year 1713, there were ſix of thoſe mills they call trapiches, ſays Frezier, and they were making a ſeventh of that ſort, which they call the royal engine, with hammers and pounders: by means of theſe, properly applied, they are able to grind ten times as much as by the trapiches; that is, ſix cheſts a day, each cheſt yielding 12 ounces more or leſs. It muſt yield two there, they ſay, at leaſt, to pay the coſt. The ounce of gold is ſold here for about 12 or 13 pieces of eight each.

Beſides the gold mines, there are about Copiapo many mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead, which they do not work. There are alſo conſiderable quantities of loadſtone and lapis lazuli, which the people in general do not know to be of any worth. There is, 14 or 15 leagues from Copiapo, a place where there are many lead mines. On the high mountains of Cordillera, there are mines of the fineſt ſulphur; it is taken pure from the vein, without needing to be cleanſed. All the country here is full of mines of ſal gemm. Saltpetre is no leſs plentiful, being found in vales an inch thick on the ground.

DE LA MOCHA is an iſland that lies a ſmall diſtance from the coaſt, almoſt oppoſite the mouth of the river imperial. The natives are inveterate enemies to the Spaniards, from whoſe cruelty they fled and peopled the iſland. Sir John Narborough places this iſland in latitude 38. 30. and ſays, that the Spaniards told him there is gold here, but the natives will not part with it.

St MARY's iſland, is ſituate almoſt over-againſt the town of Conception, not many miles from the ſhore. It abounds with fruit-trees, corn, potatoes, ſheep, and hogs.

JUAN iſland, or that of John Fernando, lies in latitude 34. 45. about 200 leagues from the main, according to Dampier; but Capt. Sharp places it in 33. 40. It is full of hills and pleaſant vallies, which, if manured, would probably produce any thing proper for the climate. The woods afford divers ſorts of trees, ſome large and good for timber, for building, but not fit for maſts.

CHINA. The vaſt, ancient, and opulent empire of China is ſituate on the moſt eaſtern verge of the Aſiatic continent. It is bounded on the north by eaſt and weſt Tartary, from which it is divided by a prodigious wall of 1500 miles in length, and partly by high, craggy, and inacceſſible mountains. On the eaſt it is bounded by the eaſtern ocean, on the weſt by part of the Mogul's empire, and India extra Gangem, from which it is parted by ridges of other high mountains, and ſandy deſerts; and on the ſouth, partly by the kingdoms of Lao, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochinchina, and partly by the ſouthern ocean, or Indian ſea, which flows betwixt it and the Philippine iſlands. It is of ſuch great extent, that it reaches in latitude from 20 to almoſt 43 degrees; ſo that it's length from ſouth to north is about 1400 miles. But, if we take China in it's utmoſt extent, either in length or breadth, the former muſt be taken, from it's north-eaſtern frontier of Xai-yven in the province of Lyaouton, unto the laſt city of the province of Youn-nam, called Chyen-tyen, Kioun-min-fou; and then it's greateſt length will be about 400 German, or 1600 Engliſh miles; and if to theſe be ſtill added the iſland of Hay-nan, which belongs to China, and lies on the ſouth of the province of Quan-tong, two degrees more muſt be added to it's extent, and it muſt then be reckoned from the 18th degree inſtead of the 20th; ſo that it's utmoſt length, including that iſland, will be 1800 miles. It's breadth likewiſe may be reckoned to a much greater extent; and, if it be meaſured from the town of Nimpo, a ſea-port in the province of Che-kien, to the utmoſt boundaries of Su-chuen, it will amount to 315 German, or 1260 of our miles.

In general, the country is moſtly temperate, except only towards the north, where theſe parts are intolerably cold, not ſo much from their ſituation, as from the ridges of mountains that run along them, and are exceſſive high, and commonly covered with deep ſnows.

As China extends itſelf through ſo many different climates, and is in ſome parts mountainous, and in others champaign, the ſoil muſt differ accordingly: yet ſuch expert and diligent maſters of agriculture are the people there, that they leave no ſpot uncultivated. As they abound with artificial canals and reſervoirs for watering and fertilizing their low lands, ſo they have been no leſs induſtrious with reſpect to their high ones: firſt, by levelling a great many of them, wherever the labour and number of hands could compaſs it to advantage. Secondly, by levelling and flatting the very ſummits of many of their mountains, in order to make them bear variety of grain, pulſe, &c. And, thirdly, by dividing their declivities into ſo many flat ſtages as they could conveniently bear; by which means the waters, whether of rain and dew, or of the ſprings that come down from the tops, have a proper time to ſoak into the ground, and to nouriſh the ſeed ſown, inſtead of rooting it up, and waſhing it down, as they do in other countries, by the violence of their deſcent along their natural declivity. It is no ſmall delight to travel through the lower vallies, and behold thoſe ſides of the mountains cut into ſuch number of terraces one over the other, and all covered up to the top with variety of corn, fruits, &c. Theſe mountains are nothing near ſo hard and ſtony as our's are, but rather of a ſoft porous nature; and, what is ſtill more ſurprizing, may be dug with eaſe ſome hundreds of feet deep: ſo that the ſalts which tranſpire through theſe pores, prove a conſtant and excellent manure to theſe artificial grounds. But, where the mountains are rocky, they content themſelves with planting them with all ſorts of fruit, and other trees, according to the nature of the ground. They are no leſs curious and careful in improving every ſort, by ſuch manure as is proper to it; by which means, as well as by their abundance of water, and warmneſs of the climate, their ground yields them in ſome countries two, and ſometimes three plentiful harveſts in a year.

The product of the country is corn and grain of all ſorts, and in great plenty; and very rich paſture grounds, whereon they breed prodigious quantities of cattle; ſilk, cotton, honey, wax, fruits of all ſorts that we have in Europe, and ſeveral others that are not known here, and all exquiſite to the ſight and taſte. They have oranges, grapes, figs, pomegranates, ananas, and many others in as great perfection, as in any part of India: game is in great plenty and variety; particularly bears, boars, buffaloes, deer of ſeveral kinds, whoſe furs are a profitable commodity: beſides theſe, they have great numbers of elephants. Tygers are here very numerous and fierce, and extremely dangerous, theſe ſeeking their prey commonly in large droves. The leopards, and other wild creatures, are here in great quantities, beſides various kinds, which are not to be found in many other countries. The muſk-cat, which carries that noble perfume in a kind of bladder under it's navel, is caught here, and is in great eſteem: as for horſes, camels, oxen, ſwine, and other creatures, which are common with us in Europe, they have them in no leſs abundance there, particularly mules, which are here wild, and fitter to eat than for other uſes. Birds, ſuch as eagles, cranes, ſtorks, birds of paradiſe, pelicans, peacocks, pheaſants, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and a numberleſs variety of others. As for fiſh, there can be no doubt but that the multitude of rivers, canals, and lakes, as well as the ſea that runs along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of the country, muſt ſupply them with the greateſt plenty and variety of it. Beſides thoſe, moſt of the great and rich people have large canals and ponds filled with them for their own uſe: but thoſe who are moſt curious in theſe kinds of fiſh-ponds, adorn them with one particular kind, which they call the gold and ſilver fiſh, becauſe of their colour.

This ſtrange and beautiful ſpecies is about the length of one's finger, and thick in proportion: the male is of a delicate red from the head to the middle, and from thence to the tail of a bright colour, which by far exceeds the fineſt gilding: the female is white, and hath a tail like a noſegay; which, with part of it's body, ſhines like poliſhed ſilver. They generally ſwim near the ſurface of the water, and give a moſt exquiſite brightneſs and variety to it, and multiply ſo faſt, that if care be not taken of their eggs, which float upon the water, the whole ſurface will be covered with them: but they are exceedingly tender, and eaſily killed, by heat or cold, ſtrong ſmells, thunder, or the report of a cannon. The way of preſerving theſe eggs, is to take them gently out of the water, and put them in ſmall veſſels, well ſheltered from wind, rain, and cold, 'till they are hatched by the ſun, and grown to about an inch in length; when they may, with ſafety, be removed into their primitive reſervoirs, where they are juſtly admired as a wonder of nature.

The Chineſe ſilks are not only the fineſt and moſt valued in the world, but they have them in ſuch abundance, as to ſuffice this whole populous nation for cloathing and houſhold furniture, and to admit of prodigious exportations into foreign countries. They have likewiſe plenty of ſugar, tobacco, and oil extracted, not from olives, but from ſeeds: vaſt quantities of olives, of a different kind from our's, yet of a fine taſte, though either unfit to produce, or not thought worth extracting oil from them: excellent wines, ſome extracted from grapes, others from rice, others from quinces and other fruits, palm and other trees: camphire, ebony, ſanders-wood, oak, pine, and other lofty and ſtraight trees, are found in great abundance, eſpecially on thoſe mountains which are not otherwiſe cultivated. Theſe are ſo fine and ſtraight, that they ſerve for all ſorts of buildings both at land and ſea. The emperor builds all his ſhips with the fineſt of them, and hath them brought in prodigious quantities from all parts, ſome of them above 900 miles diſtance, partly by land and partly by water, in ſuch long floats as reach ſeveral miles in length. Some of them are of ſuch height and thick-

neſs, that they are uſed for columns in his palaces, and other public buildings. The timber merchants carry on a prodigious trade therein: they cut off all the ſuperfluous branches, and faſten 80 or 100 of the trees together; and they that have the care of conveying them from place to place, build them little houſes upon the float, and exerciſe their trade, dreſs their victuals, &c. upon them. Theſe are afterwards ſold at proper places for building of ſhips, barges, and other veſſels, as well as for houſes in the cities and towns The low country abounds with variety of canes, junks, bamboes, &c. of exquiſite beauty; with vaſt quantities of medicinal roots, ſuch as china-root, rhubarb, gen-ſen, and many more; and, among a vaſt variety of ſhrubs, that ſo much eſteemed of late in Europe, called tea, of which we ſhall ſpeak preſently.

The mountains abound with variety of metals and minerals; among the former, they have ſeveral mines of gold and ſilver, but which their emperors ſuffer not to be dug, but only permit ſuch, as have a mind, to gather what particles of the former are waſhed down by the rivers, and are found ſticking on the banks, or caught by fleeces, and other ſtrainers, laid acroſs the water; for we are told there are vaſt quantities of theſe brought down from the mountains, and that there are great multitudes of people, who live wholly upon this buſineſs; and that they find even ſome of that metal among the ſand and mud of thoſe rivers.

As for the common pretence, that their monarchs will not have theſe mines of ſilver wrought, becauſe the people ſhould not be forced to ſuch ſlaviſh work, it is a mere illuſion: it is more likely that they either keep them in caſe of need, or rather, perhaps, to keep down the price of labour, which would riſe in proportion to the quantity of circulating money. Whereas by this policy, I have been informed, that their workmen in general have not above five farthings ſterling per day; which makes ſuch immenſe quantities of their produce and manufacture circulate throughout the world.

Their mountains have alſo mines of copper, lead, iron, quickſilver, &c. which are digged and manufactured in great quantities, and with great neatneſs and curioſity; beſides which, they have ſome others, which are mixed in a peculiar manner, and which are kept as a great ſecret among them: ſuch for inſtance is that ſo famed one, called tonbaga, or donbaga, which is of the colour of very pale braſs, or dull kind of tin, but to which they aſcribe ſeveral extraordinary virtues; particularly thoſe of expelling poiſon, ſtopping hæmorrhages, and the like, by the bare wearing of a ring or necklace made of it.

Their mountains in ſome parts afford likewiſe plenty of pit-coal, and variety of minerals. But, of all the products of this country, the tea is that which deſerves moſt of our notice, as 'tis become ſo favourite a commodity among us. The Chineſe neither drink it in the manner we do in Europe, nor any thing near ſo ſtrong, but uſe it only as their common drink. It is reckoned, among them, a ſingular diluter and purifier of the blood; a great ſtrengthener of the brain and ſtomach, and promoter of digeſtion, perſpiration, and other ſecretions; particularly a great diuretic, and cleanſer of the reins and urethra. They drink it in great quantities in high fevers, in ſome ſorts of cholics, and other acute diſeaſes; think it a ſure though ſlow remedy againſt chronic ones, from it's admirable quality of ſweetening and diluting the blood.

There are ſeveral kinds of tea which grow in China, ſome finer, ſmoother, and more fragrant than others, according to the ſoil they grow in, but all originally the ſame; and theſe are called by different names, either from the towns or provinces where they gather it; as that named ſinglo, which is a moſt elegant ſort, and much in uſe in China among the richer ſort of people. Others are denominated from their peculiar ſort of colours or qualities; as particularly the vowi, or as others call it, bohi, or bohe, [bohea tea] ſo called, not from the mountains of Fokyen, where the beſt of that ſort is ſaid to grow, but from it's brown or dark colour. The laſt is the moſt eſteemed in China, both for it's taſte, flavour, and medicinal quality; and is given in great quantities to ſick people and valetudinarians. See the article TEA.

The moſt conſiderable of their rivers are, (1.) The Ky-am, or blue river, or, as others interpret it, the Son of the ſea, which riſes in the kingdom of Tibet, near the frontiers of the Mogul's dominions, about 34 degrees 50 minutes S. latit. and croſſes the country from eaſt and weſt, paſſing through Su-chan, Hun-quam, and Nan-kin, and falls into the ſea three leagues below Kiam-nin, over-againſt the iſland of Commin. It begins it's courſe ſouthward, then turns eaſtward, through the whole country, 'till it falls into the ſea eaſt of Nan-kin, in latitude 32, from a courſe of about 2100 miles; or, as Le Compte hath computed, 1200 miles in the whole. Near it's mouth it is computed about half a league in breadth, and it's courſe rapid and dangerous. It hath many iſlands in it, which yield a great revenue to the emperor, and produce great quantities of bulruſhes, which ſupply the want of other fuel.

2. The Ho-ambo, or the Yellow River, is ſo called, becauſe after rains eſpecially it is of that colour, and extremely muddy. It hath it's riſe near the extremity of the mountains, which divide the province of Su-chan from Tartary, near the frontiers of the Mogul; and, continuing it's courſe along the great Chineſe wall, runs twice through it into China, between the provinces Xanſi and Xenſi. It runs next through that of Hanam, and, after having croſſed part of that of Nan-kin, and a courſe above 1900 miles, it at length diſcharges itſelf into the eaſtern ſea, not far from the mouth of the Ky-am, in latitude 34. The ſtream thereof is ſo ſwift and ſtrong, that the veſſels which are towed up againſt it, require a great number of men or horſes.

There are many other great rivers of the ſame nature, alike rapid and muddy; ſome of which have great cataracts of vaſt height, and make a noiſe like continued claps of thunder.—There is one always as red as blood, another that glitters by night, occaſioned by the great quantity of precious ſtones contained in it, for which it is ſtiled the pearl-river. There is a third near Fomin, which turns blue in harveſt, at which time the inhabitants are uſed to dye that colour. We are told of another near Pan-gau, whoſe waters are ſo light, that they will bear no timber: thoſe of another near Ching-tien, are ſaid to be ſweet-ſcented; and that called Kin-xa, or Golden river, is ſo named, on account of the great quantity of gold ſand it has. There is one in the province of Fokien, whoſe water is green, and is affirmed to turn iron into copper, which they will believe who are witneſſes of it; that called Xo, or Cho, is ſaid to cure divers diſeaſes; but the moſt remarkable is, one that yearly riſes upon a certain day, with ſuch a prodigious high tide before the city of Hang-cheu, that multitudes of people crowd from all parts, to ſee ſo ſurprizing a phænomenon, which neither their own, nor European philoſophers, 'tis ſaid, have yet accounted for.

Theſe waters being almoſt every where brackiſh, they are forced to correct them with tea.—They ſupply the people in the inland part with ſalt, which is made, by paring off the ſuperficial earth of the muddy ſhores, drying it in the ſun, rubbing it ſmall, and throwing it into a pit, which they cover with ſalt water, and afterwards draining it into jars, and boiling it 'till they bring it to a proper conſiſtency: but, in the maritime parts, they make ſalt of ſea-water, after the uſual way. Their mountains alſo produce many ſalts, excellent quarries of ſtone, ſome of marble, ſo curiouſly variegated with landſkips, &c. as if drawn by deſign with a pencil. Several other ſorts are eſteemed for their fine colour and hardneſs, ſome of which bear a noble luſtre like diamonds; and others, when burnt, yield a metal, of which they make ſwords and other weapons. We are told of others of a precious kind, ſhaped like a ſwallow, others of great efficacy in divers diſeaſes.—The province of Quangſi is famed for a yellow earth, which has the virtue of expelling poiſon, and, by outward application, to cure the bite of venomous creatures. Some ſorts of earth they have of a fine vermillion colour, and others of a delicate white, which the ladies uſe for paints. In ſeveral places of the empire, they preſs a ſort of lime from the bark of a tree, which is tough like pitch, and which, when mixed with proper colours, ſerves to paint their houſes, cabinets, and other utenſils, and hath a fine luſtre and ſmoothneſs like glaſs. The lime is what they call giran, but is more commonly known amongſt us under the name of japan-work, becauſe that which comes from Japan far exceeds any that is made in China, both in luſtre and hardneſs, as well as in the fine variety of paintings upon it. This ſecret the Chineſe are ſo jealous of having diſcovered by foreigners, that they have poiſoned ſeveral, and ſome of our nation, whom they ſuſpected to have pried too cloſely into it.

Beſides the common bees-wax, they have another ſort, the cleareſt and whiteſt in the world; which is produced by an inſect no bigger than a flea, on the top branches of ſome particular trees, where theſe little creatures lay their eggs, which in the ſpring turn into ſmall worms. The proprietors of theſe trees gather this wax and make it into cakes, which are quite tranſparent. The inhabitants of Xantung put theſe worms into large canes, and ſell them to the adjacent provinces, and make a conſiderable profit of them.

The Chineſe are doubtleſs a very ingenious and induſtrious people, as appears by all their fine manufactures daily brought into Europe; ſuch as their wrought ſilks, cabinets, and other japanery, their curious porcellane; though in this they are excelled by the Japaneſe, and are ſtill likely to be more ſo by the Saxons and Germans, where a new manufacture of that kind is lately ſet up, which exceeds them both, eſpecially in the beauty of the painting. The admirable cultivation of their land, their great and many canals, and variety of magnificent ſtructures, are further teſtimonies of their genius and induſtry: to which we may add, what ſeems now generally agreed on all hands, that they have had the uſe of the mariner's compaſs, of gun-powder, and the art of printing, for many centuries: inſomuch that there are not thoſe wanting who have affirmed, that they were all three brought from thence into Europe, either by Paul the Venetian, or by ſome other channel. And, indeed, with reſpect to the laſt, whoever conſiders that the firſt eſſays of Fauſtus, who invented, or rather improved that art, were done upon wooden blocks, in the ſame way as has been done in China from time

immemorial,

immemorial, will be apt to own, that theirs gave the firſt notions to Europeans, though they have ſince ſo infinitely ſurpaſſed them. They are likewiſe maſters of ſeveral arts and ſciences, though not to the perfection we are; but they value themſelves extravagantly, and deſpiſe others highly, which is a great blemiſh to their characters.

PE-KE-LI, PE-KIN, or PEKIM, is the metropolis of this empire, and ſignifies the northern royal reſidence, in oppoſition to Nankin, which is the ſouthern one. This city hath, from time immemorial, been one of the principal of the empire, though under different appellations, which we leave others to enter into. This, and the province under it, are eſteemed the moſt populous of all the reſt, the latter, according to the royal regiſters, containing 418,900 families, or 3,450,000 ſouls, who pay yearly tribute to the emperor, beſides thoſe that are exempt from it, as officers, ſoldiers, prieſts, monks, &c. and their families.

The province of Pe-ke-li, however, is far from being the moſt fertile or delightful; though the greateſt part be flat, plain, and arable, yet ſome of it is quite barren, and others ſandy and gravelly, and produce but ſmall crops of any ſort. The air is healthy, but cold and keen in the winter, from the dry north winds that blow thither from the bleak regions of Tartary; inſomuch that the rivers are frozen deep enough for the heavieſt carriages to go over them.

Though this province produces little of it's own, in compariſon of the reſt, yet it hath plenty of every thing it wants brought to it from other provinces, not only on account of the court, but by expreſs orders from the emperor.

Pekin now conſiſts of two large cities, beſides ſuburbs, viz. the old and the new; the former may be called the Tartarian city, becauſe wholly inhabited by the Tartars, who drove the Chineſe out of it; and the latter the Chineſe city, they being moſtly of that nation who reſide in it.

Ham-chew, and ſome other neighbouring cities of this province, are near as large and populous; and Nankin is ſtill more ſpacious, and more peopled: inſomuch, as Le Compte ſays, you have ſcarce got out of one city, which you would think the largeſt in the empire, but you are in another equally large; ſo numerous and opulent are the cities of China! And what is extraordinary is, the incredible plenty and cheapneſs of all things in this vaſt metropolis. All manner of merchandizes and treaſures of the Indies are tranſported hither from all parts, by means of the Eaſtern Sea, and the royal canals. Several thouſands of royal ſhips, beſides a prodigious number of others, belonging to private perſons, are continually employed in ſupplying both court and city with every thing that can be wiſhed for, either for conveniency or luxury; and though ſituate in a barren country, yet, from its ſurprizing abundance, hath given riſe to a proverb, That, though nothing grows about Pekin, yet it never knows the want of any thing.

XANTUM, XANTON, XANTONG, SHANTON, the next province to Pekin, lies on the ſouth-eaſt of it. It's climate is much milder, and ſoil more fertile, and bears ſuch plenty of corn, and other grain, rice, pulſe, &c. that the crop of one year is ſufficient for ſeveral years ſuſtenance to it's inhabitants. It breeds, alſo, great multitudes of cattle, and abounds with wild and tame fowl, fiſh, &c. and produces a great quantity of ſilk, of which, beſides the common ſort, that is ſpun by the worms, they have another kind, which is found upon buſhes and trees, and is ſpun by a creature not unlike our caterpillars; and of both theſe they drive a conſiderable trade, by means of the great river Ci.

XANSI, or SHANSI, another province, is ſituate on the weſt ſide Pekeli. It is far from being as conſiderable as either of the former, but is full as fertile, and as populous in proportion to it's extent. It is in ſome parts very mountainous, but interſected with fertile plains, whilſt the hills abound with variety of fruit, and other trees, and foreſts of great extent and uſe. They have here, alſo, plenty of vines, whoſe grapes make a good liquor; but they chiefly dry the grapes, in order to ſend them into other parts of China.

XENSI, or SHENSI, is a province contiguous to that of Xanſi, and full weſt of it. It is the largeſt in the whole empire. The ſoil is rich and fertile, in arable and paſture lands; the latter breed numerous herds of large and ſmall cattle; but, as there often happens a ſcarcity of rain, the drought is apt to breed vaſt flights of caterpillars, graſhoppers, and other inſects, which do infinite damage to their productions. It is adjoining on the weſt to the kingdom of Thebet, which extends itſelf quite to the Mogul's empire. A great intercourſe and commerce is carried on by that means with the merchants of thoſe countries, eſpecially with the city of Zunning, which makes it a place of very conſiderable traffic.

The climate of this province is, in the general, ſerene and healthy; the ſoil is ſo well watered by rivers, brooks, and artificial canals, as well as by the vaſt number of hands employed in it, that it produces plenty of every thing, either for life or pleaſure. Here are rich mines of gold; which, though according to the policy of the Chineſe, are not permitted to be opened, yield great quantities of that metal to numerous families, who are employed in gathering that only which is waſhed down by their rivers, and of which we have had occaſion to ſpeak before.

HO-NAN province. The climate is ſo temperate and ſerene, and the ſoil ſo fertile, and well-watered, that it abounds with corn, rice, fruits, and all kinds of neceſſaries for life and delight, and might be ſtiled, ſay ſome, a kind of terreſtrial paradiſe. There are, indeed, ſome high mountains ſcattered, but theſe have their peculiar produce: ſome are covered with a fine variety of lofty trees, others abound with metals or minerals; ſo that there is ſcarce a ſpot that is not turned to great advantage. It is famed for a lake, which draws great numbers of thoſe who follow the ſilk manufacture, it's delicate waters giving it an inimitable luſtre.

NAN-KIN, or NANG-KING, is a province which, both for it's ſituation, fertility, opulence, and commerce, and for having been formerly the imperial reſidence, is inferior to few in the empire. This is the more probable, if we conſider the commodiouſneſs of it's harbours on the ſea-coaſts, and the great rivers that run through, or contiguous to it.—To all which we may add the vaſt number of merchant-ſhips, or, indeed, rather of whole fleets, that reſort thither from all parts of Aſia. There are few mountains in the whole province, except towards the ſouth; all the reſt is fruitful champain, abounding with all neceſſaries and luxuries of life. It alſo produces prodigious quantities of ſilk and cotton; which employ ſuch a vaſt number of hands, that, in the city of Xan-gay, and in the towns and villages under it, they reckon no leſs than 200,000 weavers in the latter of theſe manufactures. And their artiſts are ſo ingenious, that it is obſerved of this province, That whatever is worked in it, either of ſilk, cotton, &c. and bears the ſtamp of it, ſells at a much higher price than what is done in other parts of the empire.

Nan-kin, Nang-king, the metropolis, and formerly ſtiled the ſtately, opulent, and non-ſuch, &c. ſtands in latitude 32, and eaſt longitude from Pekin 2. 20. and is by far the largeſt and moſt populous in all the Chineſe empire, though it's decay is very viſible ſince the removal of the imperial city, and grand courts and tribunals to Pekin, and much more ſo, ſince it came into the hands of the inveterate Tartars.

The territory about the city is not only very fertile and delightful, but abounds with ſuperb ſtructures, which heighten the proſpect of the delicate orchards and gardens wherewith it is ſurrounded. This opulent city, beſides the ordinary tribute, ſends every year to the emperor at Pekin, with a view to ingratiate itſelf to the Tartarian monarch, five ſhips, laden with the fineſt ſilks, cloths, and other manufactures; which ſhips are ſo reſpected by the mariners, that all others lower their ſails to them. There are other veſſels that conſtantly go from hence with fine fiſh to the emperor, covered with ice to keep it freſh.

Suchen-fu, or, as others call it, Chien-cheu, is another capital in this province; which is ſo populous and rich, that travellers, at firſt view, are apt to think it the biggeſt and moſt opulent in the whole country. Neither is it agreed which has the preference, this or Nan-kin. Le Compte ſays, that a man who will ſtand but a few minutes by the water-ſide, and behold the vaſt multitudes that come and go to buy merchandizes, or pay the cuſtoms, would imagine it to be a fair, to which the whole Chineſe empire was crowded. The emperor's fleet, which conſiſts of 9,999 yonks, or veſſels, paſſes annually from this port to Peking, to carry the tribute, in money and merchandize, of the ſouthern provinces thither.

This city carries on a vaſt trade, not only with moſt cities in China, but alſo with Japan, from which it is parted only by a narrow channel. The brocades and embroideries made in this city are the moſt in requeſt, they being not only the fineſt but the cheapeſt, in proportion to their quality.

CHE-KY-ANG is reckoned the next maritime province to that of Nan-king. It is little inferior to any in the empire, with reſpect to advantageous ſituation, extent, populouſneſs, or opulence. The whole country is ſo beautifully variegated with hills, vales, and fruitful plains, watered, fertilized, and inriched with ſuch great numbers of canals, and large and ſmall rivers, that it abounds with whatever can be deſired. It is populous to a prodigy, and ſo well cultivated, that there is no ſpot but is turned to advantage. The very mountains are adorned with unſpeakable variety of trees, but eſpecially of the mulberry kind, over which hang an infinite number of ſilk-worms, that a ſurprizing quantity thereof is produced; inſomuch that they export vaſt quantities thereof to Japan, the Philippine Iſlands, to India, and even to Europe, beſides what is conſumed by it's numerous inhabitants; which is ſtill in ſuch abundance, that two or three ſuits of ſilk cloaths will hardly coſt ſo much as one of wool. To this we may add, that as they have found, by long experience, that the ſilk-worms which feed on the tendereſt leaves yield the fineſt ſilk; ſo they take the moſt care to have a conſtant ſupply of young mulberry-trees for that purpoſe, and produce the largeſt quantity of that which they can ſell the moſt of to foreign nations: ſo wiſe and politic are theſe people in conducting their trading intereſts.

Hang-chew, the firſt metropolis of Chekyang. It's ſituation

for trade is ſo advantageous, eſpecially on account of it's vaſt number of canals and noble rivers, that it drives a very conſiderable commerce in ſeveral manufactures, eſpecially in it's ſilk, which is eſteemed the fineſt in the world. This city has ſeven others of the ſecond and third rank, which are likewiſe very rich and populous.

Nimpo, another celebrated capital of Chekyang, ſtands on the confluence of the rivers of Kin and Yaw. The entrance into the port is ſomewhat difficult, eſpecially for large veſſels, there being but 15 feet of water at the bar in the ſpring-tides. It ſuffered greatly in the late wars, but hath recovered itſelf ſince, and keeps a good garriſon. About 20 leagues off at ſea, is the iſland of Chew-ſhaw, whoſe port is pretty good, but not conveniently ſituate for trade. Here it was our Engliſh put in at their firſt arrival, not being able, at firſt, to find their way to Nimpo, among ſo many iſlands as were along the coaſt. It was formerly much frequented by the Portugueze; it drives a great trade at preſent with Japan; and it was partly on that account that our Engliſh Eaſt-India company once endeavoured to have eſtabliſhed a commerce with that town. They drive a great trade here in ſalt-fiſh and fleſh.

SHUSAN, or CHEW-SHANG, lies over-againſt Nimpo, about 10 leagues eaſt from it. It is well-built and inhabited, ſince the Chineſe fled thither from the Tartars, upon their invaſion of China. It hath no leſs than 72 cities, ſituate along the coaſts, or within the bays, all well-peopled, and driving pretty conſiderable commerce. The principal one, called alſo Chew-ſhang, is walled and populous, and it is the place where our Eaſt-India company traded, as they were not allowed to go with their ſhips to Nimpo. This trade began anno 1700 with this town, which has a very ſafe and convenient bay, and lies in latitude 30. 5.

KIAN-SI is a large and fruitful province, well-peopled, and the plains ſupply the inhabitants with all the neceſſaries of life. The country abounds with rivers, large and navigable, particularly that of Cau, which divides it in the midſt. The vaſt number of it's canals and lakes afford plenty of fiſh, which is extremely cheap. The mountains of this province are no leſs rich in ſome commodities or other, ſome being covered with wood, others producing gold, ſilver, lead, iron, and tin, beſides variety of uſeful minerals, ſimples, and medicinal herbs. The ſilk is here fine, and manufactured in large quantities. Rice is no leſs plentiful and excellent, and the wine made of it is much admired by the Chineſe.

Nang-chang-fu was once a famed and opulent city, 'till deſtroyed by the Tartars, though it hath, by degrees, recovered ſome part of it's former grandeur, by means of it's fine canals and rivers, which facilitate it's commerce, particularly that of it's China ware, wrought at Zau-chew-fu, a city under it's juriſdiction, and which is in greater requeſt than what is made in other parts of China. It's peculiar beauty conſiſts in it's extraordinary whiteneſs, yet without ſhining, and it's having neither blue, nor any colours painted upon it, ſo that ſtrangers cannot be miſtaken about it. This peculiar excellency is allowed to be owing to that of the water *, the ſame materials not producing the like, when mixed with any other. The territory about it is rich, and well cultivated every-where. They breed a prodigious number of hogs, which are brought hither for ſale.

* If this be true, our China-makers ſhould duly attend to the purification of their water. Though the water may ſomething contribute to this, yet I am inclined to think that this delicate whiteneſs depends upon quite other principles, and that this is only thrown out by the ſubtile Chineſe, as a blind to the Europeans. See the article PORCELAN.

HU-QUENG, or HU-QUAM, is another inland province, adjoining on the weſt to Kian-ſi. It is very large, and little inferior to any in fertility, healthineſs, and opulence, it being a flat rich ſoil, interſected with numerous fine rivers, which facilitate it's commerce, as well as fertilize the land.—The province is ſo rich and fruitful, as to be ſtiled the granary of China, the land of fiſh, rice, corn, &c. inſomuch that it's numerous inhabitants tranſport vaſt quantities of thoſe commodities annually into other provinces. But the greateſt produce here is cotton, which grows, and is manufactured in vaſt quantities. It hath alſo very noble paſture-grounds, on which they feed a prodigious number of cattle.

The mountains have mines of excellent cryſtal, ſome metals and minerals, particularly talc; to ſay nothing of the numberleſs pines that grow on them, and are in univerſal uſe among all the Chineſe architects, in their moſt ſtately buildings. Gold is found here alſo among the ſand, which their rivers and torrents waſh down from the hills; and which laſt have alſo mines of iron, tin, tuttenage, &c. There are great quantities of paper made from the numerous bamboos that grow in the low lands; and in the plains are ſeen ſurprizing quantities of thoſe little worms which produce the wax, in the ſame manner as the bees do the honey.

Vu-cheng-fu, the metropolis of the whole province, is a very large populous city, and reſorted to by a great number of veſſels, which drive a conſiderable commerce with it. It at preſent vies with moſt cities of China for largeneſs, wealth, and magnificence. The circumadjacent territory is rich and fruitful, and abounds with rivers and canals. It is terminated at ſome diſtance by mountains, that produce a fine cryſtal, and others covered with ſtately trees. Beſides theſe, there may be ſaid to be a foreſt of maſts of trading veſſels, ranged along the river Kyang; beſides others of ſmaller ſize, which extend themſelves ſeveral miles on each ſide, inſomuch that there are ſeldom reckoned fewer than 8 or 10,000; and it is remarkable, that the river Kyang, though above 150 leagues from the ſea, is here full three miles wide, and deep enough to bear the largeſt ſhips.

Vu-cheng is not only the capital of the whole province, but of the northern diſtrict; and being ſeated, as it were, in the center of the whole empire, hath an eaſy communication with every part of it.

SEN-CHEU is another large and fruitful province, extending weſtward to the mountains of India. It abounds with rice, cotton, ſilk, and, in the general, is exceeding fruitful. It's mountains, beſides variety of woods, yield ſeveral mines of quickſilver, tin, &c. Here, alſo, are produced large quantities of rhubarb, China-root, and other medicinal drugs.

There are divers other capital provinces in China; but, as the produce and manufactures in general are much the ſame, it is needleſs to dwell longer upon them. We ſhall, therefore, only ſay ſomething to their ſhipping, and their coaſting-trade, deferring their trade to Europe 'till we come to the reſpective European nations intereſted therein, under the articles of their various trading companies, as EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, &c. and FRANCE, for a communication of trade between that empire and China, by the means of caravans. See CARAVANS.

The Chineſe ſhipping, ſays the Abbe Lambert, differ as much from ours as their dreſs. They pretend to have had it from the remoteſt antiquity, and that ſome thouſand years ago they had ſailed over all the Indian ſeas, and diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, though they then knew nothing of the compaſs, whatever they did afterwards. They have ſhips of all ranks, but ſo different in make from ours, that they are chiefly fit for rivers, but not ſo good for ſea. They uſe a vaſt number of flat-bottomed barks, of a prodigious ſize, ſome of which, called floating villages, have a great many houſes and families on board, who follow their reſpective occupations, and ſeldom or never go on ſhore. Thoſe belonging to the emperor, nobles, and governors of provinces, reſemble caſtles, and are divided into grand apartments, for all the uſes of ſtate and convenience.

The largeſt Chineſe veſſels of war are from an 150 to 300 tons burden. They are, properly ſpeaking, but flat boats, with two maſts. They do not exceed 80 or 90 feet in length, and 60 or 70 in breadth. The maſts, ſails, and rigging of theſe veſſels are ruder than their built; for their maſts are made of trees, no otherwiſe faſhioned than by lopping off their branches.

Theſe veſſels have neither mizen-maſt, bowſprit, nor top-gallant-maſt. All their maſts are the main-maſt and the fore-maſt, to which they ſometimes add a ſmall top-gallant-maſt, which is not of great uſe. The main-maſt is placed almoſt where we place ours, and the fore-maſt is on the fore-caſtle. The proportion of the one to the other is generally as two to three, and that of the main-maſt to the veſſel is nearly ſo, being generally more than two-thirds of the length of the veſſel. Their ſails are made of mats of bamboo, a kind of canes common in China [ſee BAMBOO] ſtrengthened every three feet by an horizontal rib of the ſame wood. At top and bottom are two pieces of wood; that above ſerves as a yard; that below, made in form of a plank, more than a foot broad, and about ſix inches thick, retains the ſail, when they want to hoiſt or furl it. Theſe veſſels are by no means good ſailors; however, they hold more wind than the Europeans. This is owing to the ſtiffneſs of their ſails, which do not yield to the wind: but, as the conſtruction of them is not advantageous, they loſe the advantage they have in this point over ours.

The Chineſe do not caulk their ſhips with pitch, as in Europe; their caulking is made of a particular gum, and is ſo good that the veſſel is kept dry by a well or two in the hold: they have as yet no knowledge of the pump. Their anchors are not iron, as ours, but are made of a hard and weighty wood, which they call iron-wood. They pretend that thoſe anchors are much better than thoſe of iron, becauſe, ſay they, thoſe laſt are ſubject to bend, which never happens to thoſe of wood.

They have neither pilot nor maſter. The ſteerſman conducts the ſhip, and gives orders for the working. However, they are pretty good ſailers, and good coaſting pilots; but very bad ones in the main ſea. They ſteer by that point of the compaſs which leads directly to the place they are bound to, without minding the ſhocks the veſſel receives. This negligence, or rather ignorance, proceeds from their not making long voyages.

China, 'till of late, might be looked upon as a monarchy wholly ſevered from the reſt of the world; neither ſuffering ſtrangers to ſet foot into it, nor their ſubjects to viſit foreign parts. They drive, indeed, a great and conſtant traffic among themſelves; every province being ambitious of communicating it's products and manufactures to the other, in order to keep all hands profitably employed. This had been their policy, even from the remoteſt times of their monarchy; but, at preſent, they have thought better of it, and, by opening a commerce with other countries, have increaſed the means of inriching their own. They now not only ſuffer, but encourage, both near and diſtant nations, particularly Europeans, to come and trade with them, and bring them their moſt valuable commodities; and, at the ſame time, allow their own people to diſperſe themſelves into a great number of foreign parts, whither they carry their ſilks, porcelan, japan, and other curious manufactures and knicknacks, as well as their tea, medicinal roots, drugs, ſugar, and other produce. They trade into moſt parts of India; they go to Batavia, Malacca, Achem, Siam, &c. eſpecially to the iſlands of Japan and Manillas, which are but a ſmall diſtance from them; and from which they bring, among other things, great quantities of ſilver and gold; and that which comes from Mexico to the Philippine Iſlands, by the Pacific Ocean, is carried to Canton, and thence diſperſed through the whole empire. No wonder then if it is ſo opulent and powerful, when all the four parts of the globe contribute to make it ſo.

The Chineſe, from remoteſt antiquity, exported the growth and commodities of their country, chiefly raw ſilk, wherein it abounds, all over the Eaſt. It is from thence they were, by the Greeks and Romans, called Seres. They traded particularly to the kingdoms and iſlands ſituate beyond Sumatra and Molucca to the eaſt. Since the late Tartarian conqueſt, many of them, unwilling to conform to the orders iſſued by their conquerors, to ſhave their heads after the manner of the Tartars, left their native country, and ſettled in the ſame kingdoms and iſlands which, 'till then, they had frequented only as traders. They had, alſo, from time almoſt immemorial, carried on a commerce with Japan, though but ſmall, and with few yonks. For, under the reigns of ſome former emperors, China was, as Japan now is, ſhut up, and kept from all commerce with foreign nations, and the inhabitants ſtrictly forbid, under ſevere penalties, to export the growth of the country, or to have any communication with their neighbours. Nevertheleſs, thoſe who lived along the ſea-coaſts, and in the neighbouring iſlands, found means, though with ſome difficulty, and in private, to fit out a ſmall number of yonks, and now and then to paſs over to the kingdoms and iſlands which lay neareſt, whereof Japan was one. Things ſtood thus, when the late Tartarian conqueror of China, and his ſucceſſor, the now reigning monarch of that mighty empire, thinking that it would very much conduce to the honour of his ſubjects, and to the advantage of his dominions, for the future, to permit a free and undiſturbed commerce, reſolved to ſuffer his ſubjects to trade abroad, and to give foreigners free acceſs to his dominions.

The Chineſe have, ever ſince, exported the produce and commodities of their country to a much greater quantity than before, and enlarged their trade and commerce, as with moſt eaſtern nations, ſo particularly with their neighbours the Japaneſe, by whom they had been all along received as welcome gueſts, and tolerated, becauſe of the affinity there is between the religion, cuſtoms, books, learned languages, arts and ſciences of both nations. Formerly they frequented the harbour of Oſacca, and others leſs ſecure, becauſe of the frequent cliffs, rocks, and ſhoals, which rendered the whole navigation that way exceedingly difficult and dangerous, and wholly impracticable for ſhips of any bulk. The Portugueze, ſome time after, ſhewed them the way to that of Nagaſaki, which is not only more ſecure, but was, in many other reſpects, much more advantageous. The reſort of merchants to this place, who came from all parts of the empire to trade with the Portugueze, was too great not to engage the Chineſe to put in there, preferably to other places. At laſt, orders coming from court, importing that the harbour of Nagaſaki ſhould be, for the future, the only one open to foreigners in all the Japaneſe dominions, fixed them there. Ever ſince, the Chineſe, as well thoſe who live in China, as others who were, by the late Tartarian conqueſt, diſperſed into the neighbouring countries and iſlands, beyond the Ganges to the eaſt, traded to Nagaſaki, either upon their own account, or that of their principals, for ſome time, with all the liberty they could poſſibly deſire.

They came over when, and with what number of people, yonks and goods, they pleaſed. So extenſive and advantageous a liberty could not but be very pleaſing to them, and put them upon thoughts of a ſurer eſtabliſhment; in order to which, and for the free exerciſe of their religion, they built three temples, according to the three chief languages ſpoken by them, each to be attended by prieſts of their own nation, ſent over from China. The number of Chineſe, and Chineſe yonks, ſoon increaſed to that degree, as made the ſuſpicious and circumſpect Japaneſe extremely jealous of them. For, to mention only ſome late inſtances, there came over to Nagaſaki, in the years 1683 and 1684, at leaſt 200 Chineſe yonks a year, every one with no leſs than 50 people on board, (at preſent they are not permitted to have more than 30 hands on board each yonk) ſo that no leſs than 10,000 people came over from China to Nagaſaki every year. Some of the largeſt yonks, beſides the neceſſary hands, brought over numbers of paſſengers, and other private perſons, who came to trade upon their own account; and ſeveral of them had from fifty to four-ſcore, and ſometimes 100 men on board.

Whoring, which is ſtrictly forbid in China, being openly permitted in Japan, many young rich perſons came over to Japan, purely for their pleaſure, and to ſpend ſome part of their money with Japaneſe wenches, which proved very beneficial to this town. Not long ago a Tartarian mandarin came over with a very numerous retinue, and in quality of admiral of a ſmall fleet of ſix yonks; but he was obliged forthwith to return to China; for the Japaneſe gave him to underſtand, that their country would not bear any other commanders and mandarins but ſuch as were natives of it. The liberty which the Chineſe for ſome time enjoyed in this country, was too great to continue long without alteration, and it quickly came to a fatal end.

The Japaneſe had notice given them that the Jeſuits, their mortal enemies, who had been baniſhed from Japan for ever, were favourably treated at the court of the then reigning Tartarian monarch of China, by whom they had liberty granted them to preach and propagate the goſpel in all the extent of his vaſt dominions: ſome books relating to the Roman catholic religion, which the fathers of the ſociety had found means to print in China, in the language of that country, were brought over to Japan, among other Chineſe books, and ſold privately; which made the Japaneſe apprehenſive, that, by this means, the Chriſtian religion, which had been exterminated with ſo much trouble, and the loſs of ſo many thouſand perſons, might be revived again in the country. Some ſuſpicion of Chriſtianity was thrown even on the importers of theſe books; and, if they were not looked upon as actual converts, they were thought, at leaſt, to be favourably inclined to the Roman catholic religion. For theſe ſeveral reaſons, which were of great moment with ſo jealous and apprehenſive a nation, it was propoſed at court to reduce the extenſive liberty of the Chineſe to a narrower compaſs, and to put them much upon the ſame foot with the Dutch, both with regard to their trade and way of life. The thoughts of the court tending at firſt to alter the ſtate of the Chineſe trade, and afterwards to ſhut up their perſons, as they had done the Dutch at Deſima, and to make their ſettlement ſubject to the ſame rigorous regulations and narrow inſpection which ours labour under, were ſtrongly ſupported by the arrival of the mandarin above-mentioned, and the daily increaſe of the Chineſe and Tartars ſuſpected of Chriſtianity, the very worſt thing they could have been ſuſpected of. And as to the firſt, I mean the regulations concerning their trade, that ſame year 1685, in which the Dutch had been reduced to the ſum of 300,000 thails, or 300 cheſts of ſilver per annum, the court thought fit to limit, alſo, the Chineſe to a certain ſum, beyond which none of their goods ſhould be ſold. This ſum is not to exceed 600 cheſts of ſilver, that is, 600,000 ſiumome, or thails, and according to the Dutch way of computation, 21 tons of gold.

It was ordered, at the ſame time, that the goods that might be reaſonably ſuppoſed to yield 600,000 thails, ſhould be brought over on board 70 yonks at furtheſt, and this according to the following diviſion, made by the Japaneſe themſelves: 17 yonks from the province Hoksju, or Foktsju; 16 from Nankin; 5 from the city and province of Canton; 5 from Neſa; 4 from Sintsjeu; 4 from the iſland Aymo, or Ayman, and the coaſt of the neighbouring continent of China; 3 from Kootz, or Kootsja; 3 from the kingdom of Siam, or Sijam; 2 from the kingdom of Tunquin; 2 from Cammon; 2 from the kingdom of Cambotſga, or Cambodia; 2 from Takkaſagga, otherwiſe Taſwaan, upon the iſland Formoſa; 1 from Fudaſam, ſituate below Kaktsju; 1 from Kootsji, or Coſijnſina; and 1 from Tani, which is one of the moſt conſiderable of the Kuiku Iſlands: beſides ſome others. After this manner the Japaneſe have thought fit to divide the allowed number of yonks among the Chineſe, ſettled in the ſeveral kingdoms and iſlands above-mentioned. They admit alſo one from Siakkatarria, or Batavia, and one from Proking, or Deking; which two laſt ſhould be either added to the foregoing, to make up the number of 70, or elſe admitted in lieu of ſuch as ſtaid too late, or were caſt away in their voyage; and yet, notwithſtanding the great accuracy and nice circumſpection of the Japaneſe, the Chineſe will frequently impoſe upon them. Thus, for inſtance, ſome of the yonks that come to Nagaſaki early in the year, after they have diſpoſed of their cargoes, return to clean, and to be new painted and varniſhed; then they take in another cargo, and other hands on board, and ſo make the voyage twice the ſame year, without the Japaneſe being able to diſcover the cheat. Others go to the province Satſuma early in the year, as if they had been caſt thither by chance, or ſtreſs of weather; diſpoſe of what goods they can, then haſte back to take in a new cargo, and ſo go up to Nagaſaki. If in going to Satſuma they

are met by the Japaneſe guard de coaſts, which, by order of the government, cruize in thoſe ſeas, to hinder the natives from carrying on a ſmuggling trade, they will then alter their courſe, as if they had been, againſt their inclinations, caſt out of it, and proceed directly on their voyage to Nagaſaki, as the only harbour foreigners are permitted to put into.

As to the ſecond of the two above-mentioned points, which the court had in view with regard to the Chineſe nation, I mean to ſhut them up, as they had done the Dutch at Deſima, that was not put in execution till three years after; for they as yet enjoyed ample liberty, till the year 1688, when the fine garden of Sije Sſugu Feſo, late ſteward of the imperial lands and tenements about Nagaſaki, was aſſigned them for their habitation. This garden was pleaſantly ſeated, almoſt at the end of the harbour, not far from the ſhore and town. It had been maintained with great expence, as the emperor's own property, and was curiouſly adorned with a great number of fine plants, both native and foreign, the profeſſor himſelf having been a great lover of botany. Upon this ſpot of ground ſeveral rows of ſmall houſes were built, to receive the Chineſe, every row covered with one common roof, and the whole ſurrounded with ditches, palliſadoes, and ſtrong, well-guarded, double gates. All this was done with ſo much expedition, that the ſame place which, at the beginning of February, was one of the pleaſanteſt gardens, had already, towards the latter end of May, the horrible aſpect of a ſtrong priſon, therein to ſecure the Chineſe, who, into the bargain, muſt pay ever ſince a yearly rent of 1600 thails for it. Whenever they come to Nagaſaki, they muſt live here; and ſo great is their covetouſneſs and love of gain, that they ſuffer themſelves to be as narrowly watched, and as badly, if not worſe accommodated, that the Dutch are at Deſima. However, there are ſome remarkable differences to be obſerved with regard to the accommodation of the Dutch and Chineſe. Theſe are, 1. The Chineſe are not allowed the favour of being admitted into the preſence of the emperor, as the Dutch are once a year; but, inſtead of this, they ſave the trouble and charges of a journey of three months, and of ſo many preſents which muſt be made to his imperial majeſty and his miniſters. 2. They have victuals and proviſions brought and offered them to ſale at the very gates of the factory; whereas we muſt be at the expence of maintaining a whole company of commiſſioners for victualling, all natives of Japan. 3. Being looked upon as private merchants, and withal increaſing the bad opinion the Japaneſe have of them, by the frequent diſputes and quarrels ariſing among them, they are not treated with ſo much civility as we are, by their inſpectors, guards, and interpreters, who made no ſcruple now and then to cane them, by way of puniſhment for ſmall miſdemeanors. 4. They have no director of their trade conſtantly reſiding there, as the Dutch have; but, when the ſale of their goods is over, they go on board their yonks, leaving in the mean time their houſes empty.

They have three ſales a year, at three different times; one in the ſpring, when they diſpoſe of their cargoes of twenty yonks, another in the ſummer for thirty others, and another in autumn again for twenty. What other yonks come over beyond this number, or after the ſale is over, muſt return without ſo much as being ſuffered to unlade. Their cargoes conſiſt in raw ſilk from China and Tonquin, and all ſorts of ſilken and woollen ſtuffs, which are likewiſe imported by the Dutch. They alſo import ſugar from ſeveral parts of the Eaſt-Indies, calamine-ſtone from Tonquin, for making of braſs or brazier's wares; turpentine (from wild piſtacho-trees); gum, myrrh, agate, and calamback-wood, from Tſiampa, Cambodia, and the neighbouring countries; the precious camphire of Baros from Borneo; the precious Chineſe root Niſin, or Ninſeng (wild ſugar-root) from Corea, ſeveral other drugs and medicines, ſimple and compound, from China, beſides ſeveral philoſophical and theological books printed in China. As to theſe books, it happened, that ſome relating to the Chriſtian religion, which were compoſed and printed by the Jeſuits in China, ſlipt in among the reſt. When this was firſt found out by the Japaneſe, they obliged the proprietor of the books to teſtify in the moſt ſolemn manner, that he was not a Chriſtian himſelf, and that he did not bring over thoſe books deſignedly, and knowing what they were; then, to make him more circumſpect for the future, they ſent him back with his yonk and whole cargo, without permitting him to diſpoſe of any one part of it. Upon this it was ordered, that for the future all the books whatſoever, imported by the Chineſe, ſhould be firſt examined, and one of each kind read and cenſured, before they ſhould have leave to ſell them. This office of cenſors, with a competent yearly allowance, hath been given to two learned men of this town; one whereof is father Prior of the monaſtery Siutokus, who is to read and cenſure all eccleſiaſtical books; the other is Sjutos, philoſopher, and phyſician to the Dairi, as he ſtiles himſelf, who is to read and cenſure all the philoſophical, hiſtorical, and other books. This latter gentleman reſides at Tahajamma, and wears long hair, which he ties together behind his head, as the cuſtom is among the philoſophers, phyſicians, and ſurgeons of the country.

The proceedings, at the ſale of the goods imported by the Chineſe, being nearly the ſame with the Dutch, I need not add any thing to that deſcription. It muſt be obſerved only, that as the voyage of the Chineſe is ſhorter than that of the Dutch, and not expoſed to ſo many dangers, nor liable to ſo great an expence, the government in conſideration of this hath laid a much greater duty upon all their commodities, viz. 60 per cent. to be paid by the buyer, for the benefit of the ſeveral officers concerned in the management of the Chineſe trade, and of other inhabitants of Nagaſaki, amongſt whom this money is afterwards diſtributed. This great duty is the reaſon, why their profits are not ſo conſiderable as that of the Dutch, the buyers, by whom the duty is to be paid, being not willing to offer great prices for them. It has been ordered beſides, ever ſince the reduction of that trade, that the money paid in for their goods ſhould not be exported, as it was done formerly, in copper or ſilver money, but ſhould all be laid out again in copper, and manufactures of the country; ſo that they are not now permitted to export one itzebo, or one farthing of Japaneſe money.

As ſoon as a yonk has diſpoſed of that part of her cargo, which in the diſtribution hath been aſſigned her for her portion, the funaban (or guard-ſhips, which as ſoon as ſhe comes into the harbour are poſted on both ſides of her) attend her out of the harbour, till ſhe gets to the main ſea. The day before her departure, the Chineſe Neptunus, or ſea idol, was fetched from the temple, where he was kept from the time of the yonk's arrival, and is with great pomp and ceremony, under the ſound of timbrels and other muſical inſtruments, carried on board. This idol is unknown in Japan, and not worſhipped by the Japaneſe. Chineſe ſailors carry him along with them in all their voyages, and make great vows to him, when they are in danger. Every evening a gilt paper is lighted before him, and thrown into the ſea as an offering, with ringing of bells, and playing upon muſical inſtruments. If they made a good voyage, particularly if they eſcaped ſome conſiderable danger, they play wejjangi, or comedies, at night in the open ſtreet, for his diverſion. They are likewiſe ſaid to ſacrifice to him ſwine and other animals, the fleſh whereof they afterward eat. For this reaſon they never ſacrifice cows to him, becauſe they have a great veneration for this animal, and religiouſly abſtain from eating it's fleſh. The Chineſe merchants returning commonly with a good quantity of undiſpoſed books on board, they are frequently followed by Japaneſe ſmugglers, who buy the remainder of their goods at a low price: but theſe unhappy wretches are almoſt as frequently caught by the Japaneſe cruizers, and delivered up to juſtice at Nagaſaki, which conſtantly proves ſevere and unmerciful enough to them.

There is another company of merchants from the Kiuku, or Siquejo iſlands, who are permitted to carry on a particular trade to the province Satzuma. By the Kiuku, or Siquejo iſlands, muſt be underſtood that chain of iſlands, which run down from the ſouth-weſt coaſt of Satzuma, towards the Philippine iſlands. The inhabitants ſpeak a broken Chineſe, which evinces their original deſcent from China. The Chineſe at all times traded to theſe iſlands. After the late Tartarian conqueſt of China, many came over with their families to ſettle there, and were well received by the inhabitants, as old acquaintance and countrymen. Some time ago theſe iſlands were invaded and conquered by the prince of Satzuma, under whoſe ſubjection they ſtill remain. Though they look upon the prince of Satzuma, as their conqueror or ſovereign, to whoſe bugjos, or lieutenants, they pay ſome ſmall part of the produce of their fields, by way of a tribute, yet they will not acknowlege the ſupremacy of the Japaneſe emperor. They ſend over every year a preſent to the Tartarian monarch of China, in token of ſubmiſſion. Though they might be looked upon, in ſome meaſure, as ſubjects of the Japaneſe emperor, yet they are, as to their trade, treated like other foreigners. They are ordered to go to the harbour of Satzuma, and not to preſume to frequent any other in the Japaneſe dominions. The import and ſale of their goods has been likewiſe limited to the yearly ſum of 125,000 thails, beyond which nothing ſhould be ſold. Nevertheleſs they diſpoſe of much greater cargoes, through the connivance of the Japaneſe directors of their trade, who are themſelves no loſers by it. The goods imported by them are all ſorts of ſilks and other ſtuffs, with ſeveral other Chineſe commodities, which they bring over from China on board their own yonk; ſome of the produce of their own country, as corn, rice, pulſe, fruits; ovamuri, a ſtrong ſort of brandy, made out of the remainder of their crop; takaragai and ſiamagai, that is, pearl-ſhells, and that ſort of ſmall ſhell called cowries in the Indies, which are brought chiefly from the Maldive iſlands to Bengal and Siam, where they go for current money. Out of thoſe which are imported into Japan by the inhabitants of the Kiuku iſlands, upon the ſhore whereof they are found in great plenty, is prepared a white check varniſh, which boys and girls paint themſelves withal. They likewiſe import a ſort of large flat ſhells, poliſhed and almoſt tranſparent, which the Japaneſe make uſe of inſtead of windows, and to ſhelter themſelves againſt rain and cold; ſome ſcarce flowers and plants in pots, beſides ſeveral other things.

REMARKS.

The port of Canton has not been long in repute with our India company, but the merchants of Madraſs have ſome years preferred it to Amoy, where they experienced the extravagant demands, charges, and abuſes of the Mandarins, ready to ſwallow up the whole profits of a voyage.—Here, [at Canton] a whole fleet may be freighted without danger of overſtaying the monſoons for a cargo, which is highly beneficial to the company.

In this trade, 'tis proper to conceal your money. The advantage received from it is keeping the hoppos and their officers from exactions, the knowlege of your riches might induce them to, it being in their power to retard or expedite your affairs.

Nothing is of ſo weighty conſideration in this traffic, as the judicious making of contracts.—To mix, as was formerly the caſe, ¾ or ⅔ ſilver with your goods, is inconſiſtent with the company's intereſt, many of the company's ſupercargoes having experienced, that the ſame things could have been bought with the money only.—Therefore a downright ſale, though you cannot get the full value of them in barter, is the beſt way to be free from the vexations you will otherwiſe labour under.—Here obſerve, lead, which is a material commodity, and the only one the company uſed to gain by, is always eſteemed as ready money.

China ware, pictures, fans, and lacquered ware, are better bought out of the ſhops than in contract, unleſs you can ſtay till a parcel is got ready; for theſe it is proper to reſerve a conſiderable ſum of money, more than will clear the other contracts and inveſtments.—By no means ſtint yourſelf in caſh, but rather keep too much, than leſs than will ſerve your occaſions.

Your factory being free for every one to bring in his goods, you muſt expect to be daily viſited by the greateſt ſharpers in China: ſome with one thing; ſome another to ſell; wherefore, to deal with them, you ſhould have your wits about you, till you have detected two or three of the ringleaders, which, for the future, will check their roguiſh ſpirits, and intimidate others from impoſition.—There is nothing like puniſhing a Chineſe in his pocket.—Unroll and meaſure the ſilks, which are ſometimes of two or three colours, and are often deficient in their dimenſions.—Never weigh your ſilver by their dotchins, for they have uſually two pair, one to receive, the other to pay by.—In weighing, ſee the beam is not longer on one ſide than the other, and take an equal number of draughts of both ſcales.—Some have two holes in the ends of the beam, or notches for the ſcales to hang in; which, as they uſe them, will augment or diminiſh the weight, as ſuits their intereſts.—In others the ends are to be let out, or drawn in imperceptibly, which has the ſame fraudulent effect.—But the leaſt perceptible artifice of this kind is, when the nut, or center of the beam wherein it hangs, is made to ſlide; a quarter of an inch added to one, and taken from the other ſide, will make a ſenſible alteration.—In the dotchin, an expert weigher will cheat 2 or 3 per cent. by placing and ſhaking the weight, and minding the motion of the pole only, without any other help.—To detect theſe, the beſt way is to try every thing by your Engliſh weights, without the aſſiſtance of any but your own people.—In fine, ballance the ſcales often, and they will not ſtick wax on the bottom of them, which otherwiſe they may attempt to do.

In package be very wary: if you truſt to them, it may be ill done, the goods changed, or ſhort in tale.—They have heretofore ſhewn no little dexterity in imitating cheſts, boxes, and caniſters, in ſhape, mark, and even in ſeals, and finding means to change them for the originals; and there is always reaſon to ſuſpect new inventions of this kind, they being wonderfully fruitful in theſe arts of deceit.—The Europeans having been ſo often bit by theſe ſuperlative ſharpers, too much care cannot be taken of them.

In all payments take receipts, and mention on them where the Chineſe live, who receive the money;—which will make them cautious how they deviate from their agreements, and put bad goods upon you. For, though they may be rogues enough in their hearts, they don't care to appear ſo in writing.

Tea grows in China, Tonquin, and Japan, but it is ſeldom exported from the latter; perhaps for want of ſkill to cure it, or that it is not ſo good in quality.—From Canton it is a profitable commodity to all parts of the world, where they have the knowlege of it, eſpecially green tea.—Bohea is of little worth among the Moors and Gentoos of India, Arabs and Perſians; probably, becauſe they have not been uſed to it; that of 45 tale would not fetch the price of green tea of 10 tale a pecul. Yet many virtues are aſcribed to the bohea.—There are ſeveral ways to know the good from the bad, which the buyer ſhould be well experienced in.—It ought to ſmell and taſte well, look all of a colour, and be very dry, criſp and brittle.—The beſt opens ſooneſt in hot water, and, the oftener it colours it, the ſtronger and better it is.—Small blackiſh leaves and dirty are ſigns of a bad ſort.

Singloe, or common green tea, is a ſmall lead-coloured leaf; the beſt ſort has a freſh ſtrong flavour peculiar to itſelf.—For trial, chew it, and, the greener it is, the better it is.—Or, put an equal quantity of ſeveral ſorts into different ſizable pots of water, and that which holds longeſt of a pale amber colour, may juſtly be preferred, for the worſt turns browniſh.—Afterwards put freſh water to it, 'till it has quite loſt it's virtue, and then if none of the leaves turn brown, or dark-coloured, you may depend on the goodneſs of it; the contrary ſhewing it to be old, ill cured, and on the decay.

Imperial or bing tea, is a large looſe leaf, of a very light green, when chewed; and, being infuſed, leaves the water very pale: it yields a pleaſant ſmell, but not ſo ſtrong as the ſingloe; it is the lighteſt ſort of all, and takes up a great deal of room in a ſhip.—If it once loſes it's criſpneſs, 'twill never recover; a pecul of tough or damp tea in China is not worth the freight in England.

'Tis not enough to know and purchaſe the beſt tea: for, without good management in it's package and ſtowage on board of ſhip, all your care may be rendered fruitleſs.—The company are ſo thoroughly ſenſible of this, that they are very particular in their orders to their ſupercargoes about it.—The following paragraph of their real inſtructions contains all that is neceſſary on that head:

'Tea is a commodity of that general uſe here, and ſo nicely 'to be managed in it's package, to preſerve it's flavour and 'virtue, that you cannot be too careful in putting it up: 'take ſpecial care, therefore, it be well cloſed in tutenague, 'then wrapped up in leaves, and ſo put into good tubs of 'dry well ſeaſoned wood, made tight and cloſe enough, to 'preſerve it from all manner of ſcent, which it is very ſub-'ject to imbibe, and thereby become of no value here: but 'you muſt be ſure that the wood of your tubs have no ſcent, 'whether ſweet or unſavoury, that will ſpoil the tea; ſo 'will camphire, muſk, and all other ſtrong-ſcented commo-'dities: wherefore no ſuch ſmell muſt come into the ſhip, 'at leaſt near the tea. For the like reaſon, take care the 'tutenague be well cured of the ſmell of the ſoldering oil 'before uſing. Bring no tea in ſmall pots, 'twill not keep. 'Be ſure the tea you bring be very new, and the beſt of it's 'ſort, remembering that, in this and every other commodity, 'the worſt pays as much freight as the beſt, and many times 'the ſame cuſtom. Keep the tea in the cooleſt place of the 'ſhip; what is put in the hold, open the hatches in fair 'weather to give it air, as often as you have opportunity; 'but you will ſee, by the captain's inſtruction, we have re-'quired that our tea be ſtowed between decks, abaft the after 'hatch-way with a bulk head, and a little gang-way made 'for paſſage, which do you ſee done accordingly; it being 'now peace, we are reſolved to diſpenſe with our old orders, 'in this particular, of ſtowing no goods between decks, 'when ſo great an advantage will accrue, as the preſerving 'the tea, a very conſiderable article in the profit and loſs of 'that commodity.'

Quickſilver is beſt tried by ſtraining through a white cloth, three or four times double, or ſhamoy leather; the beſt leaves no droſs nor filth behind.—Or ſet a little in a ſpoon over the flame of a candle, and it will ſoon evaporate, leaving a white, yellow, or black ſpot; and, as it excels in the former, ſo is it pure and free from lead, or other mixtures.

Vermilion in cakes is not to be counterfeited, but it may be foul; the beſt is clean, flaky, and of a ſhining or glittering crimſon colour, extraordinary heavy, and in large bright pieces, or lumps, two or three inches thick; never purchaſe it in powder, it being liable in that ſtate to great adulteration.

China-root ſhould be large, ſound, and weighty, without worm-holes, white or reddiſh within; there's no difference with reſpect to colour, in point of quality.

The beſt rhubarb is firm and ſolid; what comes from China is often deficient in both.

Tonquin muſk in cod is of a dark brown or liver colour, ſtrong-ſcented, and appears in ſmall round grains. If it proves gritty between the teeth, 'tis a certain ſign of it's bad quality, and an extraordinary weight gives grounds for a ſuſpicion of roguery. A bodkin or ſcoop will beſt diſcover the mixture of ſand, lead, or other ingredients uſed to augment the weight.—If 'tis mixed with goat's blood, 'twill not flame in burning like the genuine muſk, which leaves whitiſh or grey aſhes, inſtead of thoſe that are dirty and dark.—Old and decayed muſk the Chineſe rarely offer by itſelf; therefore examine the parcel well, that none of a faded colour be intermixed.—It ſhould not be quite dry, and, if very moiſt, 'twill loſe much in weight; wherefore both extremes are to be vigilantly guarded againſt.—Upon the whole, 'tis ſeldom a beneficial article in this branch of trade: for, conſidering the prime coſt, loſs in drying, China duty, freight, cuſtom in England, the company's charges, and the price 'tis generally ſold at in London, there's oftener loſs than gain to be got by it.

Raw ſilk is ſo nice a commodity, that 'tis no eaſy matter to judge within 4 or 5 per cent. of it's true value. It ſhould be carefully obſerved, that both inſide and out perfectly agree, that it be ungummed, neither damp or in any reſpect diſcoloured. Great delicacy ſhould be uſed in the package to preſerve it, and the cloſer it is, the greater advantage you'll have in the freight.

Wrought ſilks are cheap and good, of innumerable ſorts, faſhions, flowers, and prices: as damaſks, ſattins, taffaties, paunches, pelongs Tonquin and Canton, gelongs, gawſe, gold-flowered damaſks, velvets, palampores, embroideries, &c. Sattins and damaſks ſhould be of briſk lively colours for the European markets, and of flowers no ways reſembling European figures; and care ſhould be taken that they are full weight, according to agreement.

Tonquin pelongs are the fineſt; thoſe made at Canton are longer and broader. White paunches ought not to owe the beauty of their whiteneſs to brimſtone, which may be tried with a ſtrong fillip of the finger. Gillongs are a kind of ſilk crape, uſed by the officers of the army and navy for neck-cloths in time of war, but not in conſtant demand.

Gilt-paper-flowered-ſilks make a fine ſhow till they are worn in the rain, or damp with ſweat: the ſmall-flowered, and where the paper does not appear much on the backſide, are moſt valuable. The velvets of China are of different lengths and breadths, and often rotten with age, eſpecially black.—Palampores and embroideries are eſtimable for their largeneſs, fineneſs and figures, for the purchaſe of which there are no accurate directions to be given; the judgment of the buyer muſt determine him.

Nanquin goods are generally well made, and hold out the lengths; nor need you ſuffer in others, provided you merit the character of a careful man at firſt coming among thoſe traders; otherwiſe, he that is ignorant of the qualities will be certainly bit.—Pack every ſort in cheſts by itſelf; ſet the rolled pieces up an end; wrap them all in paper; leave a note of the contents on the top, and burn your mark on both ſides of the cover.

Copper in bars, in the form of ſticks of ſealing wax, is better than in plates; but the Japan copper is beſt of all: though in Gombroon and Muſkat the merchants make no difference. The cloſer and redder it looks within, on being broke, the better it is. There is no truſting to outward appearance: for, being heated red-hot, and quenched in common urine, it will receive a high red colour, that may deceive you. It is uſually packed a pecul in a cheſt, covered with mats, and bound with ſplit rattans.

Allum; the beſt is clear, dry, and free from dirt.

China camphire, is in ſmall, white, tranſparent grains, a little bigger than ſea-ſand; which being cloſe packed, and heated in the ſhip's hold, coagulate into a lump before it comes home. In cheſts or tubs it will waſte; therefore the beſt way to bring it is in China jars, or tutenague.

Sugar and Sugar-candy are ſorted into head, belly, and foot, which bear each a price proportionably greater than the other. Cochinchina affords of the latter the beſt in the world, being white, and as clear as cryſtal.

Theſe are commodities a little experience will gain a thorough knowlege in, and prevent impoſition.

Fans are in the greateſt perfection at Nanquin, from whence they are brought to Amoy, and this market, for ſale. There are great quantities made all over China; yet there is a ſenſible difference in the workmanſhip. The people of Amoy, having had the longeſt and greateſt commerce with us, know beſt what will pleaſe, and accordingly employ the fineſt workmen in the provinces, and provide it againſt the arrival of the Engliſh ſhips: for which reaſon not only the beſt fans, but the beſt pictures, toys, and lacquered ware have always been brought from that port: but, of late years, their beſt lacquermen have been drawn to Canton, which has rendered this a mart, more famous than ever the other was, for good workmanſhip of theſe kinds, as it has always likewiſe excelled in the ſilk manufactures. Before you ſet out, learn what ſize and faſhion is moſt taking, and provide yourſelf accordingly. Pictures are valued for the livelineſs and briſkneſs of the colours, and variety of figures. Odd fancies commonly hit the general taſte; and the Chineſe do not ſeem to have any taſte for pieces of gravity.

Lacquered ware ſhould be without ſpecks, ſmooth, and of ſo ſhining a black that you may eaſily ſee your face in it, the figures in raiſed work, and well executed; the bottoms, ſides, and corners ſound; and nothing ſhould be choſen but what is uſeful: the gold work ſhould not come off with ſlight rubbing, nor the ſubſtance of bowls, baſons, &c. be too thick. The fineſt, indeed, comes from Japan, but at ſo dear a rate, that it rarely turns to account, any more than the coarſeſt, which our own artiſts can greatly excel: therefore the beſt China is adviſable. Pack it tight in cheſts, or boxes, leſt it receive damage by the ſhip's motion; for the ſmalleſt part, worn or rubbed off, makes a great alteration in the value.

Porcelan, or China ware, is ſo tender a commodity, that good admonitions are as requiſite for package as purchaſe. The beſt of this alſo comes from Japan, which the fine Nankin ware ſo well imitates, that it muſt be a man of judgment and experience to diſtinguiſh one ſort from the other.

The Japan porcelan is heavieſt, of the coarſeſt grain, and freeſt from ſpecks, or riſings in the bottom; has five or ſix regular knobs, in large pieces, which are never obſerved in the other; and the gold and colours are delicately laid on: but the ground is ſeldom ſo white as the fine China. There is but little of it to be found in the ſhops, it being generally too dear for our market. However, the following ſorts, or what we call Nanquin japan, will turn to good account.—Try every piece with a ſmall ſtick, to diſcover the cracks, and take nothing of that which has the leaſt fire-flaw or diſcolour; otherwiſe you may agree to be allowed ſo much in the whole, or per cent. for damage.

For more matter upon this head, in regard to carrying on the Eaſt-India trade in general to the beſt advantage, we ſhall repreſent it under thoſe various heads to which we have heretofore referred. See our MAPS of Aſia.

CHOCOLATE, which is diluted in warm water, in order to make a nouriſhing liquor, is a paſte, whoſe chief ingredient is the powder of cacao-nuts, which are taken out of a long ſhell ſhaped like a cucumber; and to theſe nuts there is an additional mixture of ſome particular drugs. The Mexicans, in whoſe country the cacao-tree grows in the greateſt abundance, take the nuts and mix them with Indian corn, and ſuch ſugar as they extract from their canes, adding a few ſeeds of rocou, which are coloured with the fineſt vermilion in the world. They grind all theſe ingredients between a couple of ſtones, and work the mixture into a paſte, which they eat dry, when they are hungry, and diſſolve it in warm water, when they want to quench their thirſt.

The Spaniards, who find this compoſition very beneficial and acceptable, and know it to be a commodity of ſure conſumption, are ſo induſtrious to bring it to perfection, and make it extremely valuable, that at preſent a ſmall garden, planted with cacao-trees, is worth above twenty thouſand crowns to the proprietor. Complaints are made, that the Spaniards mix with the cacao-nuts too great a quantity of cloves and cinnamon, beſides other drugs without number. The grocers at Paris uſe few or none of theſe ingredients, and have much leſs regard for muſk and ambergreaſe, which a number of people are fond of to infatuation; they only chuſe out the beſt nuts, which are called Caracca, becauſe they are brought from the ports adjoining to the city of Caraccas in Terra Firma of America; with theſe nuts they mix a very ſmall quantity of cinnamon, the freſheſt vanilla *, and the fineſt ſugar, but very ſeldom any cloves; and they now have the art of making ſuch chocolate as is univerſally eſteemed.

* Vanilla is a ſhell full of a luſcious juice, and little black ſeeds of a moſt agreeable odour. It is gathered in America, and eſpecially in New Spain, from a tree of the ſame name.

Chocolate, ready made, or cacao-paſte, prohibited to be imported after the 24th of June 1724, upon forfeiture, with double the value, and the package, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 2.—Made in Great-Britain, the makers to enter it at the next office in writing, and upon oath; if within the bills of mortality, every week; and in any other part of Great-Britain, every ſix weeks, upon forfeiture of 50 l. 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 1. Made or ſold in Great-Britain, the pound avoirdupoiſe pays 1s. 6d.—To be paid by the maker, if within the bills of mortality, within one week, and in any other part of Great-Britain, within ſix weeks after entry.—To be under the management of the commiſſioners of the Exciſe, and their judgment to be final.—This duty to be levied by the powers, and under the penalties of the laws of exciſe on liquors; and all penalties to be ſued for and recovered by the ſame ways and means.—The duty not paid within the time limited, the penalty is 50 l. and not to deal till the duty be cleared off, upon forfeiture of treble the value; 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 18.—To be incloſed in papers, containing one pound each, and muſt be produced at the office where entered, to be ſtamped, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 19.—Counterfeiting the ſtamp, or ſelling it (knowingly) with ſuch a ſtamp, or affixing ſtamped papers taken from chocolate that has paid the duty, on ſuch as has not, the penalty 50 l. and twelve months impriſonment, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 22. and 11 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 13.—Damaged by lying by, may be opened in the preſence of the officer, and the ſtamps returned; and, after worked over again with freſh chocolate-nuts, be reſtamped, upon paying duty only for what is added, 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. ſect. 14.—But proof muſt be made before the collector, or a juſtice of peace, that the duties for the cacao-nuts have been paid, and that the chocolate had been formerly entered, 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. ſect. 15.—Upon three days notice, given in writing to the officer of the diviſion, private families may be permitted to make chocolate for private uſe; provided that not leſs than half an hundred weight of cacao-nuts be made into chocolate at one time, 11 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 23 and 25.—But, within three days after finiſhing, muſt be entered upon oath, brought to be ſtamped, and duty paid, upon forfeiture of treble the value, 10 Geo. I. cap. 10. ſect. 24.—By the act of 32 of Geo. II. a further additional duty of 9 d. per pound is laid on chocolate, to be levied and paid as the former duties. See CACAO.

CINNABAR, is the moſt valuable of all the ores of mercury. It is a moderately compact ſubſtance, extremely heavy, and of a bright red colour. It is ſometimes found in large maſſes, ſome-

ſometimes in ſmall ſpangles, in earths or ſtones. The places where native cinnabar is produced in plenty are chiefly in Spain and Hungary, and ſome parts of the Eaſt-Indies.

For medicinal uſes native cinnabar is to be choſen of the brighteſt red, the heavieſt that can be found, and ſuch as has no ſtony or earthy matter adhering to it. The moſt experienced naturaliſts and phyſicians have for thoſe uſes given the preference to the factitious, which is, in effect, the ſame ſubſtance; with this difference only, that the one is prepared by nature, in the bowels of the earth, the other in the laboratory of the chemiſt. The factitious has this advantage, that the quantity of mercury contained in it is certainly known, which in the native can only be conjectural; and we are ſure alſo of the former, that it contains nothing but mercury and ſulphur, which is more than we can always be certain of with regard to the native.

The native cinnabar very eaſily parts with it's quickſilver, on diſtillation, with the addition of iron filings, or quick-lime: the ſulphur, indeed, is not ſo eaſily ſeparated from this mineral; but, if it be boiled in a lixivium of wood-aſhes, or rather decrepitated nitre, it will eaſily be precipitated, by the addition of vinegar. The medicinal virtues of the native or factitious cinnabar, for they are the ſame thing when the native is pure, are very great. Our ableſt phyſicians have experienced it to be good in epilepſies, and in all complaints of the head and nerves; it is affirmed by ſome eminent phyſicians, that it is the moſt ſovereign remedy, even in caſes of lunacy, if properly prepared.

It is generally found, in it's pure and fluid ſtate, lodged in the accidental cavities of hard ſtone, and that often in conſiderable quantities. There are, alſo, ſeveral ſpecies of earth, peculiarly a reddiſh marl, and a pale brown clay, in which the quickſilver is lodged, and ſometimes in the pureſt cryſtalline ſtones.

It is alſo frequently found in a bluiſh indurated clay, and ſometimes in a greeniſh, or olive-coloured, talcky ſtone, in which it runs in ſcarlet veins. Theſe, and the variety of other appearances of this mineral, whether in ſpots, ſtains, or blended among the ſubſtance of the matter into which it falls, are of the number of the ores eaſily known; but there is another wherein there is not the leaſt appearance of redneſs; this is a greeniſh, orange-coloured, or blackiſh ſtone, for it eaſily aſſumes all theſe colours, and, when broken, has very little brightneſs, and nothing of the appearance of cinnabar. From all theſe ores the mercury is eaſily procured, by diſtillation in large retorts, with iron filings, or quick-lime, as before intimated.

The proceſs is as follows:

Let the retort be well coated, and of a peculiar form, having the neck very long, and turned down at the end, ſo that the glaſs receiver may be applied perpendicularly to it; and the quantity of the ore ought to be what will fill about two-thirds of the cavity of the retort: it ſhould be ſo placed that none of the fluid adhering to the neck may fall back into the belly, but that every particle collected muſt neceſſarily run down into the receiver.

The retort is to be ſet on a raiſed hearth, with a ſuitable bed of ſand, to keep it ſteady; a ſtone is to be placed at it's front, to ſupport it's neck, and keep the fire from reaching the recipient, and the recipient is then to be applied with cold water in it, the noſe of the retort being received an inch or two into the water.

In this ſtate a fire of charcoal is to be made about the retort, at firſt at a diſtance, gradually to ſeaſon it to the fire, but, by degrees, it muſt be brought nearer: the retort is to be kept ſlightly red-hot for about an hour: more or leſs time is to be allowed to this operation, according to the quantity of the ore, and it's richneſs, the poorer ores requiring a greater heat. When the veſſels are cold, the quickſilver will be found at the bottom of the water, in the receiver. This operation may be performed in a ſand-heat; but then it is neceſſary that the bottom of the furnace be kept red-hot during the time, and that the retort immediately touch it; but with this caution it does not do ſo well as when the ſeveral parts of the retort and the ore are equally heated. When there is little or no ſulphur in the ore, there needs no addition to it, it running very readily thus out of the retort; but, when it is of the cinnabarine kind, iron or lime muſt be added, and the fire be made a great deal ſtronger. See the article MERCURY.

CINNAMON. The cinnamon of our ſhops is a thin bark, always brought to us rolled up into a ſort of little tubules, or pipes; theſe are from the thickneſs of a gooſe-quill to that of a man's thumb, and ſometimes larger; and in length they are often two or three feet. The bark itſelf is alſo very different in thickneſs, as well as the rolls, or tubes, it forms itſelf into. It is ſometimes of the thickneſs of a crown-piece, or more, but uſually not thicker than a ſhilling: ſometimes we meet with it as thin as paper. It's ſurface is tolerably ſmooth and even, but not gloſſy: it's texture fibrous, and moderately firm; it breaks, however, tolerably eaſy, and is not very heavy. It's colour is browniſh, with a mixture of red. It is of an extremely fragrant and aromatic ſmell, and of an acrid and pungent but very agreeable taſte.

The greateſt deceits that are practiſed in the ſale of cinnamon are, the ſelling ſuch as has already had it's eſſential oil diſtilled from it, and been dried again, and the impoſing the caſſia lignea in it's place. The firſt of theſe cheats is diſcovered by want of pungency in the cinnamon; the ſecond, that the caſſia, when held a little time in the mouth, becomes mucilaginous, which the true cinnamon never does.

Our cinnamon is the interior or ſecond bark of the tree which produces it: the people who collect it take off the two barks together, and immediately ſeparating the outer one, which is rough, and has very little fragrancy, they lay the other to dry in the ſhade, in an airy place, where it rolls itſelf up into the form we ſee it in.

It's root is large, and divided into many branches, and it penetrates very deep into the ground: it's bark is of a reddiſh grey without, and red within: it's ſmell is like that of camphire, very ſtrong, but the woody part has no ſmell at all. The trunk is thick, and divides into a multitude of branches: the bark is green at firſt, but it grows reddiſh with age, and wraps itſelf cloſe to the wood, but it is covered with a greyiſh, looſe, and chapped rind: it is of a faintly aromatic taſte, while freſh, but acquires a very pungent one in drying: the wood is whitiſh, firm, and without ſmell. The leaves reſemble thoſe of the bay-tree, but they are larger, being four inches, or thereabouts, in length: they ſtand on moderately long pedicles, and though of no very remarkable ſmell while freſh, they become very fragrant in drying, and have the true ſmell of the cinnamon-bark; by which they are diſtinguiſhed from the malabathrum-leaves, which otherwiſe greatly reſemble them. The flowers are ſmall and whitiſh; they ſtand in cluſters at the end of the branches, and are ſucceeded by little berries, of an oblong figure, green at firſt, but afterwards bluiſh, and ſpotted with white: theſe ſtand in little hollow greeniſh cups; they conſiſt of a thin rind, incloſing a ſoft greeniſh pulp, of an auſtere, aſtringent, and ſubacid taſte, under which is an oblong, thin, and brittle ſtone, containing a kernel of the ſame ſhape, and of a reddiſh colour.

The tree grows in Ceylon ſo plentifully, that the woods and foreſts are full of it. The bark intended for uſe is taken from the branches of three years growth, or thereabouts. They take it off in ſpring and autumn, when the quantity of ſap between it and the wood makes it looſe. The branches thus ſtripped remain bare two or three years; but afterwards they acquire a new covering, of the ſame kind with the former. There is a thin membrane very obſervable on the inner ſurface of the cinnamon, when freſh taken from the tree, and which even is diſtinguiſhable with us, if carefully enquired after. This is truly a third bark of the tree. It is of a vaſtly more acrid taſte than the reſt, and is what alone contains the oil of the drug. Hoffman, who was at the pains of ſeparating ſome of it, found that it yielded, on diſtillation, ſix times as much oil of cinnamon as the common cinnamon taken in the groſs.

The ancients have treated very largely of a drug which they call cinnamon, and of another very nearly allied to it, which they call caſſia. Many have ſuppoſed their cinnamon and caſſia to be the produce of two different trees; that their cinnamon is now wholly unknown to us, and that their caſſia was the ſame with what we now call cinnamon. Their accounts of theſe ſpices are but little to be depended upon: they only received them from merchants, unwilling, perhaps, as well as unable, to give them true information about the origin of a drug of ſuch value. It appears, upon the whole, that our cinnamon, and their cinnamon and caſſia, are all three of the ſame kind. Their own accounts of their caſſia prove it to be the ſame with our cinnamon; and, from the ſame accounts, it is alſo eaſy to learn, that their caſſia and cinnamon were the produce of the ſame tree, but that the cinnamon was the ſmaller branches, cut off and ſold to them, wood and bark together; and their caſſia, the bark of the ſomewhat larger branches of the ſame tree, ſtripped off and ſold ſeparate.

The trade of cinnamon ſeems to have been carried on a great while in this double manner, till at length it was found better to ſtrip even the ſmaller branches, and to bring over only the bark, which is the cuſtom continued to this day; only we have changed the terms, and made the word cinnamon applicable to, and expreſſive of the bark, inſtead of the name caſſia, by which they called it.

The ancients had ſeveral kinds of caſſia, differing in colour, degree of pungency, and other circumſtances, which they called aſyphe, mold, and giſer, and by other names. Their cinnamon they alſo diſtinguiſhed, in the ſame manner, into the moſilitic, the mountain, the black and the white cinnamon. But all theſe are not to be ſuppoſed to have been the barks of different ſpecies of the cinnamon-tree; they were only different in trifling accidents, and were no other than the ſtrippings of the ſame ſpecies of tree, ſome of the larger, and others of the ſmaller branches, and ſome from the trees of one part of the eaſt, and others from thoſe of another. There

is as much difference, even now, between the cinnamon of Ceylon and that of Malabar and Java, between that which grows in good ſoil, and that of bad, and between that of the cultivated, and that of the wild trees, as between the ſeveral kinds of cinnamon deſcribed by the ancients under their various names.

All the virtues attributed by the antients to their cinnamon are found in ours: it is an aſtringent in the primæ viæ; but, in the more remote ſeats of action, it operates as an aperient and alexipharmic: it ſtops diarrhœas, and it promotes the menſes, and haſtens delivery: it ſtrengthens the viſcera, aſſiſts concoction, diſpels flatulencies, and is a very pleaſant cordial. It may be given in powder, from 10 grains to 20; but it is more frequently given in form of decoction, tincture, or infuſion. Beſides it's being an ingredient in many of the compoſitions of the ſhops, it is in ſuch eſteem as to be given in form of a ſimple and ſpirituous water, a tincture, and an eſſential oil.

CIRCULATION, in it's common acceptation, ſignifies the act of moving round, or in a circle. The light wherein I ſhall conſider this article, as conſiſtent with the tenor of our work, is as follows:

Remarks.

The circulation of all the goods and commodities in a ſtate is carried on by undertakers, and all at an uncertainty.

The farmer who ſows his corn, and feeds his flocks upon his farm, does not know what price the commodities will bear, ſince they may be ſcarce or plenty in a ſtate, according to the goodneſs or badneſs of the ſeaſon: if there be a great plenty, there will be too much for the conſumption of the year, and an overplus to ſerve the next year; and ſo the farmer's commodities will be cheaper: if there be a ſcarcity, they will be dear. Thus the farmer is an undertaker, who carries on his buſineſs at an uncertainty.

The conſumption of the farmer's commodities not being in his village only, but a good part of it in the neareſt city, he cannot go to the city, and ſit down there, to retail his commodities, without neglecting the buſineſs of his farm: nor will the proprietors of the city, or the artiſans and mechanics, and others there, buy ſo much of his commodities as they will conſume in their families in a year; their families may increaſe or decreaſe within the year, and they may conſume ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs, of each commodity, and few or none of them are able to lay up a year's proviſion for their families: ſo that ſeveral others ſet up for undertakers, and give a certain price for the farmer's commodities, and reſell them at an uncertain price. Such are the merchants of corn, wool, wine, butchers, tanners, &c. and all theſe undertakers work at an uncertainty, and bankruptcies happen frequently among them. It is impoſſible for any of them to know the conſumption of the city he is in, becauſe he cannot know the increaſe or decreaſe of the inhabitants within the year, and becauſe the ſame families conſume ſometimes more and ſometimes leſs of each kind in a year; and, becauſe of the rival undertakers in the ſame trade, ſome find more favour and confidence from their cuſtomers than others.

In like manner the undertaker who has bought the farmer's wool at a certain price, is not ſure of the price he ſhall have for it from the undertaker of the woollen manufacture. That price may vary in proportion to the plenty or ſcarcity of wool, with regard to the demand for it's conſumption; and this conſumption cannot be previouſly known or computed. In ſeveral families they do not know themſelves how long the fancy will hold them to wear the ſame cloaths, nor what ſort of cloth they will wear next. The undertaker of the manufacture runs the ſame hazard, beſides that of the change of mode, and faſhion, which may occaſion his having ſeveral unfaſhionable ſtuffs lie upon his hands, to be ſold off at under prices.

The retailers and ſhopkeepers of all kinds are alſo undertakers, and ſell at an uncertainty; what encourages and maintains them in a ſtate is, that their cuſtomers, or the conſumers, chuſe to give ſomething more to find what they want ready to their hand, when they have the fancy or means to buy, than to make a proviſion of thoſe things at the firſt hand; for, ſome of the conſumers want means to make a yearly proviſion beforehand, and few care to confine their fancy, which is ſo liable to vary, when, for a ſmall addition of price, they may pleaſe themſelves, and determine their humour in a ſhop, at the very time they come to the conſumption. Thus no body cares to beſpeak cloth for his family at the manufacturer's a year beforehand, when he may, for a ſmall matter more, pleaſe himſelf, when he has occaſion, at a woollen-draper's ſhop. The undertakers become conſumers and cuſtomers one in regard to the other: the woollen-draper to the wine-merchant, or brewer, and the wine-merchant to the woollen-draper; and thus is carried on the indefinite circulation of traffic in ſocieties.

The other undertakers, as mine-adventurers, merchants of all kinds, whether adventurers or ſhop-keepers, undertakers of public houſes, coffee-houſes, paſtry-cooks, hackney coaches, &c. ſubſiſt by undertaking at an uncertainty, and proportion themſelves in number to the demand of the conſumers and cuſtomers. If there be too many hackney coaches with regard to the cuſtomers who employ them, ſome of them muſt break, or put down their coaches; if too few, new ones will be erected.

The maſter tradeſmen, or undertakers, who keep journeymen at work, as ſhoe-makers, taylors, peruke-makers, &c. and the undertakers of their own labours, as tinkers, chimney-ſweepers, water-carriers, &c. ſubſiſt alſo at an uncertainty, and proportion themſelves in number to the demand, and to their cuſtomers. If a water-carrier keeps an account of what he earns in one year (ſuppoſe 20 l.) and in another year (ſuppoſe 15 l.) it will anſwer the ſame thing as if he were ſaid to have 20 l. wages from his cuſtomers in one year, and 15 l. in another: but, as he is an undertaker, his wages are uncertain.

The like may be ſaid of higher undertakers of their own labour, or ſcience, as painters, phyſicians, lawyers, &c.

From theſe inductions and explications, which may be applied, with a little variation, to all orders of men in ſociety, it appears, that every body in a ſtate is either an undertaker, or at wages, though their ranks and functions be very different. The courtier, who has a penſion, the general, who has pay, and the ſervant, who has wages, fall under the ſame denomination: all others in a ſtate are undertakers, or ſubſiſt at uncertain wages.

But the prince and proprietors of land alone are independent in a ſtate, and thoſe from whom the ſubſiſtance and riches of all other ranks of men flow. And, whereas the land is commonly in the hands of the gentry and nobility, it is not ſurprizing that the notion of gentlemen and noblemen has ever had ſo great an influence in the world.

But if any undertaker, or perſon at high wages, has ſaved wealth; that is, if any has a magazine of corn, wine, wool, lead, tin, copper, ſilver, gold, or any other commodities or goods that have an intrinſic value, or conſtant vent, he may ſo far be eſteemed wealthy and independent, though he has no land. With theſe he may buy all conveniencies of life, and make a better figure than if he had a ſmall portion of land, and may even become a land-proprietor: but theſe goods are more variable in their value than land, and more in danger of being loſt; and it ſhould not be forgot, that they have been acquired, one way or other, by the weight and influence, or at the expence of the proprietors of lands.

From all that has been ſaid, I think it appears, that the machine of circulation of traffic in a ſociety, which is principally concerned in eating, drinking, cloathing, and the other conveniencies of life, is carried on among us in Europe by undertakers, all at an uncertainty; and that, though political ſocieties and cities ſeem, from the indefinite numbers of people of different ranks, ſtations, and occupations which compoſe them, to have ſomething wonderful and incomprehenſible in their œconomy; yet it ſeems that the grand machine is commonly carried on with uncertainty, and that every thing finds it's own proportion, well or ill, according to chance or caprice, without any peculiar intellectual conduct, whereby the ſociety of commerce and circulation is governed.

Of the Circulation of money.

In conſequence of what has been ſaid under the article of Cash, we ſhall further add, in regard to the circulation of money; That we may conſider the money which goes out of the land-proprietor's pocket, and is ſpread into the ſeveral rivulets of barter in circulation; out of which it is again gathered into the farmer's purſe, to make another quarter's payment to the land-proprietor, according to what has been urged under the head of caſh, as before intimated.

If, purſuant to our example, the farmer has paid 1500 ounces of ſilver to the proprietor, and he pays out 115 ounces a week, while, on the other hand, the farmer gathers together 115 ounces a week, there will be but 115 ounces, properly ſpeaking, in motion; and at ſix weeks end, when the proprietor has but 750 ounces left, the farmer will have collected together the other 750 ounces: ſo that the whole 1500 ounces (with 115 ounces that are every week in circulation) are always kept up, and only paid and put in motion once a quarter.

But this ſeldom happens to be the caſe in a ſtate; for money is ſpread out into the little channels of trade without rule or proportion, and likewiſe gathered together without any proportion. Theſe ſame 1500 ounces are often paid away by ſeveral people to the land-proprietor, as ſoon as he has received them, and are not accumulated again together till near the end of the quarter, when the farmer receives them in a lump from the corn-chandler, woollen manufacturer, &c. in exchange for his commodities, which enables him to pay the landlord another quarter's rent. In this interval of time, theſe 1500 ounces may have gone to and fro in an hundred rivulets of barter, and helped on the circulation of the other two rents, as well as the principal rent they are underſtood to make the payment of.

This would, methinks, make it probable, that a leſs proportion of money, even than that which we have ſuppoſed,

might carry on the general circulation and barter neceſſary in a ſtate: the following argument ſeems to ſtrengthen the ſame notion.

All barters that are made by evaluation in a ſtate, require no ready money. If the woollen-draper ſells the baker 100 ounces of ſilver value of cloth, and the baker ſupplies the woollen-draper with the like value in bread, both at the market, or current price, it is ſo much bartered without money. Of theſe barters by evaluation there are ſeveral carried on in a ſtate where trade, credit, and honeſty flouriſh [ſee the Article BARTER] there are many of them uſed in the country, as well as in the cities: but I am to obſerve they could not be carried on, if the barters againſt money at markets, and the altercations, which fix the par between money and commodities, did not firſt naturally find out the price of things: ſo that, when in a village a certain quantity of corn is bartered and exchanged for a certain quantity of iron, the evaluation is made of the corn and of the iron, according to the prices they bear at the neareſt market.

The more barters are made by evaluation in a ſtate, the leſs ready money generally ſeems requiſite to carry on the circulation. If the woollen-draper ſupplies the wine-merchant with the cloth neceſſary for the conſumption of his family, at the current price; and the wine-merchant ſupplies the woollen-draper with the wine his family conſumes, alſo at the current price; and if they truſt one another in accounts, when they come to ſettle their ſaid accounts, at the year's end; all the money required to carry on this trade will be the ſum which pays the difference.

The barters by evaluation are moſt carried on by the undertakers and maſter tradeſmen, and between the farmers and labourers, and others who aſſiſt them: ſo that they ſeem principally to help the circulation of the two laſt rents; whereas the circulation of the firſt rent muſt be always carried on by ready money, except when the land-proprietor conſumes part of his farmer's commodities in kind, and allows it out of his rent, as is much practiſed in Italy. The Milaneſe nobility have a quantity of hay ſent in by their farmers, in part of their rent, for the maintenance of their coach-horſes, &c. and a quantity of wheat, which they exchange with the bakers for the bread they conſume in their families, beſides wine, &c. and theſe evaluations help out the circulation of the firſt rent.

From what has been ſaid, it ſhould ſeem to be inferred, that honeſty and confidence in dealings in a ſtate keep forward the barters by evaluation, and, conſequently, make money go farther in circulation; and experience tells us, that, when credit fails, the circulation is clogged, and money grows ſcarcer.

Another circumſtance, which helps circulation greatly, is goldſmiths and banks, as the bank of England, that of Amſterdam, of Venice, of Genoa, &c. Theſe prevent a great ſum from being kept in private hands without motion, and accelerate circulation.

Theſe reaſons ſeem to confirm that the circulation in a ſtate may be carried on with leſs money than what I have laid down under the article CASH: but the following reaſons may, perhaps, ſeem to counter-ballance them in ſome meaſure.

Provident ſaving people, of all ranks and orders, lay up money, ſome to enable them to marry, ſome to give portions to their children, and all againſt an evil day; and this money they keep up till it makes a ſum fit to bring them an intereſt. Several covetous and fearful people lay up and bury money: the money and eſtates of minors and of pleading parties, depoſited in the hands of the lawyers, makes no ſmall ſum; to which it may be added, that not only ſeveral proprietors, but alſo that ſeveral undertakers, ſervants, and workmen, have always ſome money, more or leſs, in their hands, which are never ſo empty but that a part of the old money ſtill remains, after they have received the new.

It is very difficult to make an eſtimate of ſuch articles, but they ſufficiently prove, in general, that a conſiderable ſum of the circulating money in a ſtate may be eſteemed to lie always without motion. If a gentleman makes it his remark, that he never had leſs money in his hands than 20l. at any time through the whole year, it is plain he might have kept the ſame individual 20l. by him without motion all that year; and that ſo much may be eſteemed to have lain by without circulation. It alſo happens that ſeveral large payments are made between undertakers, as well as at the terms farmers pay their rents, though theſe may very well be made out of the money required for the circulation of the two laſt rents. Upon the whole; I ſhould think my conjecture, from what has been ſaid under the article CASH and here, is not very wide; viz. That the money which carries on the whole circulation of a ſtate, is near the quantity of one third part of all the annual rents of the proprietors of the land; where the proprietors have one half or two thirds of the produce of the land, and where the circulation is not much helped by barters and by evaluations, the quantity of the money muſt certainly be greater.

CITRON, a fruit which comes from hot countries: the bark is yellow, wrinkled, and of an agreeable ſmell.

We ſhall ſpeak of them here only with relation to the commerce therein, and the traffic made of their juice or bark.

The moſt part, whether ſweet or ſharp, that are ſold in France, are got by druggiſts and grocers from ſome parts on the river Genes, amongſt others, from St Remo, or from ſome of the cities in the kingdom of Sardinia, as Nice and Mentone; whence they are brought by ſea to Marſeilles, and afterwards ſent to Paris, and elſewhere.

At St Remo and Mentone the vent of citron is not without the conſent of the council of the city, and that twice a year, at moſt thrice, according as the crop proves, but uſually in May and September.

They ſell thoſe only that will not paſs through an iron ring, the ſize of which is regulated by public authority; the reſt are rejected as too ſmall, and uſed only for the juice, which is brought to Avignon and Lyons in barrels, for the dyers.

Great quantities of the juice are brought from Sicily into France, for the ſame uſe; but they bring but few citrons, being not in much eſteem.

As to the citrons brought from Nice, there is not that care taken about them; but who will, may buy them, according to time and quality, be they big or little.

They ſell two ſorts of the oil of citron; the one, which is much eſteemed, and called the eſſence of cedar, which is made of the citron-peel, or of their rind raſped; the other, which is a common oil, greeniſh, clear, and fragrant, is made of the lees at the bottom of the caſks, in which the citron-juice is ſet to fine. Fifty pounds of the lees, which are called alſo baechas, uſually produce but three pounds of oil. The perfumers make uſe of theſe oils, eſpecially the eſſence of cedar.

The vinegar of cedar, which the perfumers alſo uſe, and is much eſteemed in France, is the juice expreſſed from a certain kind of citrons half ripe, which come from Borghere, near St Remo.

Small candied citrons, dry and moiſt, and great citron-peels, alſo candied, are brought from the Madeiras. The ſmall citrons ſhould be tender, green, and freſh; the great peels ſhould be choſen new, in little ſlices; clear and tranſparent, green on the out-ſide, well glazed within, plump, eaſy to cut, and not pricked.

It is ſaid that numbers of negroes are employed at Martinico in candying citrons.

Citronnate is the citron-peel candied, and cut into pieces, to be ſent abroad. Sorbec is made of the citron-juice and ſugar: the beſt comes from Alexandria.

Syrup of lemons is the ſame thing with ſyrup of citron. By the druggiſts it is called ſimply ſyrup of citrons; but the apothecaries ſell it by the name of ſyrup of lemons.

There are at Tonquin two ſorts of citrons, or lemons, yellow and green; but both ſo ſharp and acid, that it is impoſſible to eat them without prejudice to the ſtomach. However, they are not uſeleſs to the Tonquineſe, any more than to the other Indians; for they not only uſe them, as we do aqua fortis, to clean copper, tin, and other metals, which they intend to prepare for gilding, but alſo for dyeing, eſpecially ſilks.

Another uſe they make of them is to whiten linnen; and they put it in all their lixivia, particularly for fine ſtuffs, which gives them an admirable whiteneſs and beauty, as may be obſerved chiefly in all the cotton ſtuffs which come from the ſtates of the Mogul, and are whitened, as we Europeans imagine, with the juice of thoſe ſorts of lemons.

CIVET, a kind of perfume, which bears the name of the animal 'tis taken from, and to which 'tis peculiar.

The civet-cat is a little animal not unlike a cat, excepting that it's noſe is more pointed, that it's claws are leſs dangerous, and has a different cry.

'Tis known to be a quadruped common in Africa, the Indies, Peru, Brazil, New Spain, Guinea; that Belon, and after him ſome moderns, among others M. Perrault, in his Memoirs of Natural Hiſtory, acknowlege the civet-cat to be the hyena of Ariſtotle, and have called it the odoriferous hyena: others take it for a kind of wild cat, and call it felis zibethica, becauſe the perfume it bears the Arabians call zibet; whence it has it's French name civette. The Guinea civet pretty much reſembles that of the Levant, but what they call occidental civet is nothing like it.

Caſtellus, Fallopius, Thomas Bartholine, and even M. Perrault, have ſpoken but ſuperficially of the bag and perfume of that animal. 'Twill therefore be after the obſervations of M. Morand, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences for the year 1728, that we can talk knowingly hereon, and more juſtly than M. Savary; of which we ſhall ſelect the moſt remarkable particulars.

The bag is ſituated between the anus and pudenda of the animal, much in the ſame manner as the beavers carry their caſtoreum. It hangs outwardly between the thighs of the civet-cat. 'Tis pretty large. In ſhort, 'tis a cavity incloſed in a thick cover, and hath a long opening without reſembling the vulva.

The whole thickneſs of the covering is formed by an infinity of ſmall grains, which are the glandules through which the odorous liquor is filtred. Viewing theſe grains with a microſcope,

croſcope, M. Morand hath diſcovered, that they are accompanied with an infinite number of follicules, or little purſes, that contain the liquor already filtred. In that liquor, which is ſingular, are little hairs here and there without order. They have no roots viſible to us, nor are united with each other.

The cavity of the bag is poſſeſſed by two kinds of clews of ſhort ſilk, ſoaked in the odorous liquor, which looks like a white oil.

On compreſſing the ſubſtance of the covering, there ouzes through the pores, or rather excretory ducts of it's internal membrane, an odorous oil, which falls into the cavity of the bag; it comes out, not by ſeparate drops, but in a continued ſtream.

We are not ſufficiently acquainted with the nature of the civet-cat, to know on what occaſion it emits it's oil, or what uſe it makes of it; but we ſee the mechaniſm is intended to prevent a perpetual flux; the ſilken clews doing the office of a ſponge, which holds the liquor it has imbibed till expreſſed from it.

There is a great trade of civet at Calicut, at Baſſora, and in other parts of the Indies, and in Africa, where the animal that produces the perfume is found. Live civet-cats are to be ſeen alſo in France and in Holland, but 'tis ſaid by ſome, they have been only brought from the Levant. The French ſeldom keep them but as a rarity. As to the Dutch, who keep a great number, they draw the civet from them for ſale, and 'tis what furniſheth a part of that brought from Holland.

Before theſe animals had been ſeen in Europe, and obſervation made on the manner of extracting the perfume, 'twas commonly believed, on the relations of ſome travellers, to be only the ſweat of the animal, when irritated; and thoſe who love the inſtructive and diverting amuſement of travels, may perhaps remember to have read ſome, who confidently affirm, that they ſhut the civet-cats in iron-cages; and that, after having beat them a long time with rods, they gather with a ſpoon, through the bars of the cage, and from between the thighs of the animal, the ſweat or foam, which the anger and agitation have there produced; and that, without ſuch precaution, the animal would give no perfume.

Experience hath ſhewn us the falſity of this relation; and 'tis now no longer doubted, that the civet is an unctuous and thick liquor, found naturally in a bag, which that ſpecies of Aſiatic, or African cat, hath between the anus and pudenda, as we have mentioned before.

Civet muſt be choſen new, of a good conſiſtence; that is to ſay, neither too hard nor too ſoft, of a white colour, a ſtrong and diſagreeable ſcent. In fine, ſince in the Levant, without ſeeing it extracted itſelf, we run a riſk of having ſo phiſticated civet, we may well not expect to have it more pure in Europe: neither are we to give much credit to thoſe little inſcriptions, whether printed or written, which the Dutch uſually put on the pots of civet, as a certificate of their fidelity, and the purity of the perfume: beſides, it being very difficult to diſcover the fraud, the ſafeſt way is not to buy it but of dealers of known reputation.

'Tis little uſed in medicine, but very much by the confectioners and perfumers, who ought not, however, to uſe it but with moderation, leſt in lieu of an agreeable odour, they excite the contrary.

CLACKMANNANSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north by the Ochill-Hills, on the ſouth by the frith of Forth, on the eaſt with part of Perthſhire, and on the weſt with part of Stirlingſhire. 'Tis a plain fertile country towards the Frith, but the reſt is fitter for paſture, though that below the Ochill-Hills abounds both with paſture and corn. About Alloa and Clackmannan there are many coal-pits, which, together with their ſalt, they export in great quantities, not only to Edinburgh, but even to England, Holland, and France: for it yields the beſt and moſt coals of any part of Scotland, and is that we diſtinguiſh in England by the name of Scotch coal.

'Tis watered with the river Devan, which runs ſix miles through the ſhire.

CLACKMANNAN, the burgh or chief town, ſtands on a riſing ground, the caſtle whereof is a ſtately dwelling, with fine gardens and incloſures. But,

ALLOA, or ALLOWAY, is the moſt conſiderable town, and is a ſea-port, the laſt in the Forth, where that river falls into the arm of the ſea, called the Firth.

It has a very conſiderable trade, with ſeveral good ſhips; and divers manufactures are erected there, all relating to the buſineſs of navigation and commerce: as (1.) Sail-cloth, which is made here full as good as the Holland's duck, and better than the canvas or ſail-cloth of Ruſſia, or Poland. (2.) A large rope-walk and warehouſe of naval ſtores for the hemp and tar, &c. imported from Ruſſia, Livonia, Norway, &c. from which laſt, alſo, deals are imported; and here are four ſaw-mills employed in cutting and ſlitting them. Moreover,

REMARKS.

A factory was lately ſettled at this place for the merchants of Glaſgow, who, not being very far diſtant by land-carriage, have erected warehouſes for ſtowing their tobacco, ſugar, and other goods of their importing from the Britiſh colonies in America, to be ready for re-exportation to Holland, Hamburgh, Bremen, the Baltic, London, or wherever elſe they are wanted; and alſo for ſtowing ſuch commodities, as they import from Sweden, Ruſſia, Livonia, &c. till they are demanded elſewhere: ſo that Alloway bids fair, in time, to be the chief mart-town of all the inland parts of Scotland, and one of it's moſt conſiderable ſea-ports; for the river here is as broad as at London-Bridge, the water deep, and the tide flows ſo ſtrong, though it be ſo far from the ſea, that ſhips may lay their ſides to the wharf, which is at ſome diſtance from the town, and deliver and relade with the leaſt difficulty imaginable.

There are ſalt-pans all along this ſhore for boiling of ſalt, which is fetched away in great quantities, by ſhips that bring other goods from Bremen, Hamburgh, the Baltic, Norway, &c.

CLAYS, are earths pretty coherent, weighty, and compact, ſtiff, viſcid, and ductile, while moiſt; ſmooth to the touch, not readily diffuſible in water, and when mixed, not readily ſubſiding in it.

Of the white, tough, heavy clay.

This is very beautiful, and when pure perfectly white, heavy, and of a fine texture; when moiſt, it is ductile, ſtiff, and viſcid; when cut, leaves a kind of ſhining ſurface; when dry, it becomes tolerably hard, and of a ſmooth and even ſuperficies, except where made irregular by heterogeneous bodies that are mixed with it. Being examined by the microſcope, if clean and pure, it appears of a regular, firm texture: but in the maſs it diſcovers a mixture of adventitious particles of ſand, fragments of ſhells, &c.—Makes a briſk ebullition with aqua fortis.—It burns with a tolerable heat to a ſnow-white colour, and pretty hard, but vitrifies in a violent fire to a kind of green ſubſtance.—This earth was anciently found on the ſhores of Egypt, Syrene, and the iſland of Crete.

It was eſteemed in painting among the antients. At preſent it ſeems to be little ſought after, perhaps, for want of knowing it's quality.

Of the light, friable, white clay.

This is of a ſnow-white, and does not contract that yellowneſs from the air, which other white clays do on their ſurface. 'Tis dry and not ductile, while in the ſtratum; it is of a ſmooth ſuperficies, ſoft to the touch, and ſtains the fingers in handling; it ſlowly diffuſes itſelf in water, adheres pretty firmly to the tongue, and leaves a grittineſs between the teeth.—It makes no efferveſcence in aqua fortis.—In a moderate fire it burns to an additional hardneſs without much change of colour, but in a violent one it gives a pale green glaſs.

Much of it is dug in the iſle of Wight, and is uſed for tobacco-pipes; though not having a due tenacity, it requires another coarſe earth to be mixed with it; which is

The hard, heavy, white clay.

This is a denſe, ponderous, compact earth, of a dull white, and pretty cloſe texture, of a ſmoothiſh ſurface, and not eaſily breaking between the fingers; it melts ſlowly in the mouth, and is not eaſily diffuſible in water; it burns to a white colour, and very hard; in a violent fire it gives a foul green glaſs. This alſo is dug in the Iſle of Wight, and divers other parts of England, and is chiefly uſed in pipe-making.

The white tough clay

Is a firm and ſtiff matter, very compact and ponderous; it is viſcid, and cuts with a ſhining ſurface, which is ſmooth and even, though not gloſſy; it does not adhere to the tongue, and is difficultly diffuſible in water. It makes no efferveſcence with acids, and, in the fire, burns to a yellowiſh-grey, without any tendency to redneſs, but in a violent fire affords a deep green glaſs.

It makes an excellent brick of a remarkable ſtrength and hardneſs, and of a pale grey; but, like other fine clays, it requires much more working than the ordinary loams uſed in brick-making do; and, if not well worked, will crack and ſhrink in the drying, ſo as not to be ſaleable; for which reaſon 'tis ſeldom worked, notwithſtanding the excellence of the brick it makes: but 'tis probable that it might be uſed for making clinkers for the pavement of ſtables, &c. and the floors of ovens, which might turn to a better account than making of bricks.

Of the ſmooth greyiſh-white clay.

This is very hard and dry, of a cloſe and fine texture, and conſiderable weight; while in the ſtratum, it is of a pale grey, hard, not tough or viſcid, but crumbling into ſeparate clods in the digging; when dry, it becomes paler and whiter, and of a ſmooth ſhining ſurface; pretty readily diffuſible in water, and, ſeparated by that means, depoſits a ſmall quantity of fine, but very hard matter.

It generally lies near the ſurface, and over other clays; there is great plenty of it in various parts of the kingdom, and, though hitherto it may not have been much uſed, yet it ſeems capable of making a coarſe earthen-ware fit for gardener's pots, and other ſuch-like uſes.

Of the heavy grey clay.

This is hard and brittle, of an equal texture, and weighty; while in the ſtratum, it is of a duſky bluiſh colour, but dry, hard, and crumbling into thin, flat pieces, as if compoſed of diſtinct ſtrata; when dry, it is a compact maſs, of a pale bluiſh aſh-colour, and a ſmooth and ſhining ſurface. In the fire it crackles and flies into thin flakes of a pale yellowiſh-red; in a violent fire it gives a whitiſh glaſs. 'Tis frequent in many parts of the kingdom, and may deſerve trying for various uſes.

Of the ſoft, grey, alkaline clay.

This is an impure matter, moderately heavy, and of a looſe texture; in the ſtratum it is of a duſky grey, and more or leſs ſtreaked with a pure yellow clay; it cuts pretty regularly into maſſes, with a ſmooth ſurface; when dry, it becomes a little paler in colour, and of a rough ſurface. It difficultly diſſolves in water, and depoſites a ſmall quantity of a pale yellow ſand. It raiſes a violent ebullition with aqua fortis, and burns to a conſiderable hardneſs, and a fair reddiſh colour: in a violent fire 'tis converted into a pale bluiſh-green glaſs.
Many parts of the kingdom afford it, and in Staffordſhire in particular 'tis uſed in the potter's ware, though not unmixed with other ſorts.

The ſoft, aſh-coloured, heavy clay.

This is a looſe ſubſtance, of a coarſe irregular texture, and conſiderably weighty. It is of a deep dirty aſh-colour, variegated with a mixture of a coarſe deep yellow clay: it is not very ſtiff or viſcid, yet cuts pretty evenly with the ſpade, and ſhews an equal ſurface; when dry, it is of a paler colour, not very hard, but of an irregular rough ſurface; it eaſily breaks between the fingers, and does not ſtain the hands; it is more readily diffuſible in water than moſt other clays. It makes no efferveſcence in aqua fortis; in a moderate fire it acquires a reddiſh-brown colour, without much hardneſs; in a violent one it is converted into a coarſe green glaſs. It is found in various counties in England, and uſed in Staffordſhire by the potters: but this and the former earth are neither of them alone fit for the potter's uſe; they are mixed with ſome of the purer and ſtiffer clays to break their texture, and make them eaſier to work.

Of the ſmooth, purple and white, indurated clay.

This ſpecies is compoſed of extremely fine particles, of a firm, equal, and regular texture, and of a great weight. While in the ſtratum, 'tis very hard, and will not cut even with the ſpade as moſt of the clays will, but breaks irregularly into lumps of different ſhapes and ſizes, and becomes harder by lying in the air. It is of a perfectly fine, ſmooth, and gloſſy ſurface, ſofter to the touch than any of the other earths, and does not ſtain the fingers in handling, but drawn along a woollen cloth, or any other rough ſubſtance, leaves a very whitiſh line, fine and clean: it is in colour white, beautifully veined with purple of different degrees of deepneſs; it is of ſo fine a ſtructure of parts, that, if cut into thin pieces, it is in ſome degree tranſparent. It is very difficultly diffuſible in water; examined by the microſcope, it appears one regular and uniform maſs, a little more opaque in the purple parts than in the white, and ſo perfectly equal in all it's parts, that the beſt glaſſes can diſcover no blemiſh in it's texture. It burns to a great hardneſs and white colour, and in a violent fire to a pure white glaſs. It is dug in many parts of Cornwall, Devonſhire, and the neighbouring counties. Several celebrated naturaliſts and experimental philoſophers have recommended this in particular, for imitating the fine porcelane-ware of China: but, as it is liable to vitrification, I am afraid of itſelf it will ever fail in the trial: it may very probably make a very fine and delicate earthen-ware, and, by mixture with other ſuitable earths, may probably make an ordinary ſort of porcelane.

The ſmooth, green and white, indurated clay.

It is the hardeſt of all the earths. While in the ſtratum, it is too firm to be dug with ſpades, and, when it has laid ſome time in the open air, becomes of an almoſt ſtony conſiſtence. 'Tis of a compact and regular texture, conſiderably heavy, and of a very ſmooth and ſhining ſurface; in colour 'tis of a greyiſh-white, with a greater or leſſer admixture of green; it does not ſtain the fingers in handling, but, drawn along a rough ſurface, leaves a fine ſlender white line. It is more tranſparent than the laſt deſcribed, and more difficultly diffuſible in water than even that; it makes no efferveſcence with acids, acquires a great degree of hardneſs, and almoſt perfectly white colour in the fire; and yields in a violent one a coarſe greeniſh glaſs, with a faint caſt of the purple.

The ancients had it principally from Egypt, but 'tis now found plentifully in Italy, Germany, Saxony, and the iſland of Sardinia, but no where more ſo than in France, particularly about Briançon, whence 'tis there commonly called the Briançon chalk.
The ancients had it much in eſteem in medicine, but 'tis in no uſe that way among the moderns.

The pale yellow viſcid clay, with blue ſpots.

This is a perfectly fine and very valuable clay, of a compact texture, and conſiderable gravity. In the ſtratum 'tis of a pale yellow colour, and veined with blue of a tough viſcid texture; and eaſily cuts through with a ſpade, and ſhews of an equal and gloſſy ſurface. When dry, 'tis moderately hard, of ſomething paler colour than while in the ſtratum, and of a ſmooth even ſurface. It is pretty eaſily diffuſible in water; in a moderate fire it burns to a great hardneſs, and very beautiful red, and in a violent one runs to a coarſe bluiſh-green glaſs.
In Staffordſhire they account it one of their beſt earths, and uſe it in mixture for their pots; and in Northamptonſhire they work it alone for the fineſt and thinneſt, as mugs, diſhes, &c. it being a very fine tough ſort of clay, ductile to a great degree, and taking the glaze well: the ſame is in various other counties in England.

The duſky, bluiſh-brown, tough clay.

This is a very uſeful earth, of a ſtiff and compact texture, and very weighty; in the ſtratum 'tis of a duſky blackiſh-brown colour, conſiderably hard, yet cutting even with the ſpade, and of a gloſſy ſurface, generally ſprinkled with ſmall ſhining particles; when dry, it becomes of a paler colour and very hard, and the glittering particles are more viſible; it diffuſes ſlowly in water; in a moderate fire burns to a fair red colour, and in a fierce one vitrifies to a deep green ſubſtance.
It is dug in moſt counties in England; it is uſed in Staffordſhire among the potters, but it's principal uſe is in the making of tiles, for which 'tis eſteemed ſo excellent, as to have excluded the uſe of any other clay; it containing no ſand makes it endure the weather better than the brick earths; and it's tough texture makes it bend into all the neceſſary forms for tiling.

The hard, pale, brown clay.

This is a hard, yet leſs heavy clay, than moſt of the preceding; it is of a rough but firm ſtructure, generally full of ſhining particles; in the ſtratum it is of a duſky brown, and is very firm and hard, not to be cut even through with a ſpade, but breaking into irregular maſſes; when dry, it becomes very pale, almoſt of a ſtony hardneſs, of a rough ſurface, not ſtaining the hands; it is very difficultly diffuſible in water; it burns to a great hardneſs, and a ferrugineous red, or rather purple; in a violent fire it becomes a pale green glaſs.
'Tis dug almoſt all over the kingdom, and makes in Staffordſhire a very valuable kind of ſtrong veſſels, with an admixture of ſome of their tougher clays.

The hard, tough, whitiſh-blue clay.

This has been affirmed by ſome to be the earth of which the fine China ware is made. It is an extremely fine and beautiful earth, of a very pale bluiſh-white, remarkably ponderous, and of a compact and even texture. It is ſoft to the touch; not to be broken between the fingers, does not ſtain the hands, but, drawn over a rough ſurface, leaves a fine ſlender white line: thrown into water, it makes no ebullition, but ſlowly diffuſes, and in time wholly breaks in it, and is reduced to a ſubſtance like thick cream, at the bottom of the veſſel. In the fire it burns to a ſnow-white; in a very violent one it generates a pale bluiſh-white glaſs.
It is dug in ſome peculiar parts of China, but, it is ſaid, is not common there; and, where the pits are, is kept a great ſecret from all foreigners; it is now ſaid to be the earth of which the fine ware of that kingdom is made, and ſeems likely to be a very noble clay for ſome ſuch uſe; but probably that ware is not made of any one ſubſtance alone, but of a mixture of various, and thoſe alſo, perhaps, meliorated in an artificial manner.

Remarks.

Many may think it trifling to dwell ſo long upon an article of ſo little conſequence to trade, as they may imagine that of clays. But, if they are pleaſed to conſider the extenſiveneſs of the pottery-art alone, they will not find this matter a contemptible ſubject. 'Tis well known the great advantage the Hollanders have reaped by their Delft-ware; and the advances we have made, in our own nation, have proved of no inconſiderable benefit to the concerned and the public, in not only having prevented the importation of Dutch wares, but the conſumption of the China amongſt the maſs of the people.

That the nature of earths and clays is well deſerving our regard, may be urged from the unſpeakable advantage the Chineſe and the Japaneſe have reaped thereby, for ages paſt; and this univerſal manufacture could only have taken it's riſe from the knowlege of ſuch, who did not think matters of this nature below their contemplation; judging, doubtleſs, that nature affords nothing but what may be of ſome utility to mankind. The Europeans, in conſequence of the advantages reaped by the Indians, have made ſucceſsful attempts of the like nature; and we find that Dreſden has beat China or Japan, and that the ſame manufacture is lately eſtabliſhed in France, with all ſuitable public encouragement, and, as we are informed, is likely to outdo the Saxons. Nor have our own countrymen being negligent in imitating the ware of China; and although they have not had the honour of thoſe national encouragements, that the monarchs of France and Saxony have given to their manufacturers, yet it muſt be acknowledged, they have made extraordinary advances, and it is to be hoped they will meet with the encouragement of the government as well as the people.

From what has been obſerved, it muſt naturally occur to the land-proprietor, that he may frequently experience as great benefit to be made by clays, marls, loams, &c. as he may by his lands, conſidered in an arable or paſture ſtate.——— This has been experienced by many. And, if what has been ſaid be duly attended to, there can be no difficulty in making a judgment of the value of all ſorts of clays: the familiar uſe of his ſenſes, common water, a crucible, and aqua fortis, to which he may add a microſcope, if he pleaſes, will enable him to make a right judgment in matters of this nature, which will more fully appear, throughout the courſe of this work.

Clays being well burnt, have been found by late experience to make a fertile manure.

CLERK, in the way of trade and buſineſs, is one who exerciſes any function with the pen. Perſons under this reputable denomination being numerous, they may deſerve more notice, in a work of this kind, than that of a mere general deſcription of the nature of their office.

Remarks.

Introductory to which general character, I would refer the reader to the articles Accountant and Book-keeper; the latter of which having relation, more particularly, to the clerks of merchants and traders in general, I ſhall now make a few obſervations on thoſe belonging to another claſs of people of buſineſs: I mean thoſe gentlemen, who are placed in the public offices belonging to the crown revenue.

Although the whole plan of the management of buſineſs in theſe great offices is wiſely regulated, and every part of the whole executed, according to ſuch regulation; and although the clerks of every diſtinction are tied down to adhere inviolably to certain eſtabliſhed rules, forms, and uſages, in order to preſerve that uniformity, connection, and check with and upon each other, for the prevention of fraud, and the facilitating of the public buſineſs; yet every gentleman, who enters into ſuch a ſituation, ſhould not, methinks, look upon himſelf in the light only of a tranſcriber of common forms and precedents: for I think this is much below the character of one in this ſtation, though, at firſt, it may only be an inferior one. I would therefore, with all reſpect to theſe gentlemen, take leave to recommend, eſpecially to the more juvenile claſs, not only a deſire to become maſters of that branch to which they may be allotted, but to gain as much knowlege as they can of thoſe other branches, which may have a more immediate and neceſſary connection therewith. For, as the public buſineſs muſt be conducted according to ſtrict form, ſo an expertneſs in all the forms that have a direct dependency on each other, will render a clerk highly acceptable to his ſuperiors; who, for their own eaſe, will often advance ſuch a young gentleman, by reaſon of his qualifications, to ſerve them in more capacities than one: this has proved the caſe of many, who have had nothing but their merit to recommend them.———But many of theſe places being filled by the younger ſons of gentlemen of diſtinction, if they become friends enough to themſelves to add accompliſhment to the weight of their family-intereſt, ſuch a ſituation may prove far more to their honour and intereſt, than otherwiſe it might do. For, although mere intereſt will too often place a man in a poſt that he is no way qualified for, yet theſe people are never ſuffered to be the ſtamina that ſupport the execution of the public affairs; 'tis the intelligent, experienced clerk, ſecretary, accountant, or commiſſioner, that muſt hold the rudder or buſineſs cannot go on: and ſuch will maintain their places, let miniſters be changed ever ſo often, till they forfeit them by miſconduct. So that, however intereſt may get the better of merit, yet merit has very often got the better of intereſt, in the capacities I am ſpeaking of.

And if the great offices of the kingdom were looked upon by gentlemen of condition, in the light of proper nurſeries to their younger ſons, in order to initiate them gradually into public buſineſs, they might, I am inclined to believe, anſwer a good end; provided they had a previous, ſuitable erudition, to make the moſt advantageous uſe of their ſituation.—The ſame obſervations will hold good alſo, in regard to all great corporations, where good clerkſhip is required: the nature, and accompliſhments for which, in every capacity, will appear throughout this work.

CLOCK-MAKER is the workman who maketh clocks.

The clock-makers in Paris make one of the communities of arts and trades. They received their firſt ſtatutes in the year 1483, about the end of the reign of Lewis XI, which were confirmed to them in 1544, by Francis I; in 1554, by Henry II; in 1572, by Charles IX; and, in 1600, by Henry IV.

Thoſe ſtatutes are divided into twenty-four articles, the moſt eſſential of which we ſhall take notice of.

The apprenticeſhip is eight years, during which each maſter can take but one apprentice; and he may take a ſecond, after the expiration of the ſeventh year of the firſt apprentice.

If a maſter's ſon is bound as an apprentice to another, and not to his father, he is to finiſh and compleat the time for which he has bound himſelf.

None can be received as maſter, who hath not made ſome maſter-piece of workmanſhip, which, at leaſt, ought to be an alarm clock; and fulfilled the time of his indentures, and produced a diſcharge from the maſter whom he ſerved.

Maſter clock-makers are not to efface or change the names on pieces of clock-work, not of their own making, on pain of confiſcation and fine.

Jewellers, to whom it is permitted to traffic in all ſorts of merchandizes, may not, however, buy or ſell any clock-ware, which hath not been previouſly inſpected and marked by the wardens of the ſaid company, with permiſſion to the ſaid wardens to inſpect at the houſes of all, and thoſe who are within the privileges of the royal palace.

Maſters are permitted to make, or cauſe to be made, all ſorts of clock-work, be it in gold, ſilver, or other metal, as they ſhall find convenient, without being examined or moleſted by the maſter goldſmiths, on pain of 1500 livres fine on thoſe who ſhall incroach on their rights, agreeably to the decree of council of the 8th of May, 1643; with prohibition, according to the ſaid decree, to every maſter or journeyman goldſmith, or any other, to intermeddle, in the traffic or ſale of any workmanſhip of that profeſſion.

To determine the works pertaining to the art of clock-making, and which 'tis lawful for the maſter clock-makers to make or cauſe to be made; it is enacted by the laſt article of the ſaid ſtatutes, that every movement having the pinion of a wheel, and going by ſpring and by counterpoiſe, is reckoned a branch of this profeſſion.

In the year 1707, the offices of comptroller-viſitors of weights and meaſures, and of the regiſters of the company, were incorporated. By the letters patent of thoſe re-unions, the king granted to the company ſeveral new articles for their regulation. By the firſt, the rights of the four annual viſitations are reduced to 30 ſols each, 7 ſols 6 deniers of which belonged to thoſe jurats who ſhould be employed as inſpectors.

The jurats are to render an account of their office 15 days after they ſhall have quitted it, and the election of the new ones to be annually 15 days after the feaſt of St Elloi, in preſence of the elders, and other maſters, according to cuſtom.

Conformable to the regulations of arts and trades, 'tis lawful for all maſters of the ſaid company to ſettle themſelves in ſome city, borough, and place of the kingdom, as to them ſhall ſeem good, particularly at Lyons, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Caen, Tours, and Orleans, and there, with full liberty to exerciſe their profeſſion, on producing only their reception into the fraternity of the city of Paris.

All maſters of the company are prohibited to lend their name to any journeyman or retailer whatſoever, for the exerciſe of the ſaid profeſſion, on pain of 150 livres fine; and, in caſe of failure, they are liable to deprivation of the freedom, if it ſhall be ſo adjudged by the lieutenant of the police.

All journeymen foreigners, refugees, and others working in pretended privileged places, are obliged to withdraw from thence eight days after the publication of theſe preſents duly regiſtered, and to repair to work in the houſes of lawful maſters, with prohibition to the ſaid journeymen to work in a room, and to have furnaces, on pain of corporal puniſhment.

Beſide the maſter clock-makers, of whom we have ſpoken, there are at Paris two other ſorts of clock-makers; the one, which are officers of the king's chamber; and the other, which have apartments in the galleries of the Louvre. Theſe are not ſubject to the inſpection of the jurats, and have, moreover, the privilege of taking apprentices, who are intitled to the freedom, and may be received as others, with this difference only, that they are exempt from the payment of fees.

As to thoſe of the galleries of the Louvre, they are artificers, whether French, or ſtrangers, ſkilful in clock-making, to whom the king grants an apartment in the galleries of his caſtle of the Louvre, where they enjoy many prerogatives, by virtue of letters patent from Henry IV, who was the firſt of

of the kings of France that honoured uſeful arts, even to the lodging in his palace workmen of diſtinguiſhed ingenuity.

As the body of clock-makers is very conſiderable at Geneva, conſiſting of about 600 maſters, it may be worth while to ſee what are their ſtatutes, or ordinances.

There ſhall be two lords of the council, commiſſioner-inſpectors of this art, to preſide in all their aſſemblies, whether general, of the whole body, or of the jurats only, as well as in thoſe for delivering in the accounts, and diſpoſing of their money, and to authoriſe their reſolutions.

There ſhall be four jurats choſen from amongſt the citizens, or burgeſſes, maſters of the art, two of whom, who ſhall have been therein two years, ſhall go out of the office, and two new ones ſhall be choſen in their ſtead; and to this end the jurats, and thoſe who ſhall have officiated in that capacity, ſhall name four maſters, viz. two which ſhall have already paſſed the office, and two who have not; and theſe ſhall be preſented to the body convoked for that purpoſe, to be by them choſen by a majority of voices.

The office of jurats is to ſee that the ordinances relating to the art are duly obſerved, and to take care there be no treſpaſs; wherefore, they are obliged to viſit the artificers, at leaſt four times a year, with power to ſeize their work, that is not agreeable to the preſent ordinances, to make their report of it to the lords commiſſioners, and to puniſh the treſpaſſers, according to the exigence of the caſe.

No one ſhall be received as apprentice to this art, who is not a citizen, burgeſs, or native of the city, and full twelve years of age, and upon paying the uſual fees.

Apprentices may not diſcontinue their apprenticeſhip, without lawful cauſe, on pain of ſerving their time over again.

Workmen who are not maſters, may not work but with thoſe who are, nor make any piece of new work, or mend other for their own account, on pain of forfeiting them, and 25 crowns fine; one third to the informer, one third to the box, and the remainder to the lords commiſſioners and jurats; nor may the maſters permit their workmen to work any where but in their own dwelling-houſe, or to work on their own account, on pain of fine at pleaſure.

Whoſoever would be received maſter, ſhall addreſs himſelf to the lords commiſſioners and to the jurats, that at his requeſt they may aſſemble the body of maſters, to appoint him a maſter-piece of workmanſhip which ſhall be an alarm-clock, or a repeating one; unleſs on good conſideration he be diſpenſed with by the council, and only a plain watch required, which he is to make within four months, at one of the jurats own houſes; and he ſhall not make any other piece of work, or diſcontinue that without permiſſion, on pain of fine at diſcretion.

No journeyman may preſent himſelf to be received maſter, unleſs he be a citizen, burgeſs, or native of that city, full twenty-four years of age, and hath wrought two years as journeyman, from his apprenticeſhip and his being regiſtered, excepting the ſons of maſters diſpoſed to make their maſter-piece in a repeater, who may be admitted at the age of twenty-one, unleſs for ſome conſideration of merit, or other reaſon, it ſhall ſeem good to the lords commiſſioners to grant a diſpenſation.

Whoſoever has made his maſter-piece of workmanſhip, ſhall addreſs himſelf, as above, to the lords commiſſioners and jurats, that they may aſſemble the body of maſters, to whom he ſhall preſent his work for their examination; and, if found worthy to be admitted a maſter, ſhall pay for his reception 21 crowns, 5 of which go to the lords commiſſioners, 51 florins to the company's box, and the reſt to the four jurats, and thoſe four who laſt quitted their office, without any other expence on that occaſion.

If any citizen or burgeſs, who ſhall be eſtabliſhed out of the city, in any place diſtant therefrom above 20 leagues, and ſhall return thither to work as a maſter, he muſt produce the teſtimonials of his freedom from the place where he has been admitted thereto, with due approbation of his conduct, and that he is at leaſt 40 years of age; in which caſe he ſhall be acknowledged as a maſter, without producing a maſter-piece of workmanſhip, on paying the uſual fees.

Journeymen and apprentices, who ſhall have wrought in places or cities not diſtant above 20 leagues, may not return thither to work, without it's being made known to the lords commiſſioners and jurats, in order to their payment of 25 crowns fine, prohibiting all maſters to give them work, on pain of fine at diſcretion.

Maſters, who ſhall inſtruct more than one of their children in their profeſſion, may not, during the time of their apprenticeſhip, take any other apprentice.

All maſters or privileged perſons, who employ any ſervile ſervant, are enjoyned not to permit them to work at their trade, or to teach them to perform any part thereof appertaining to the art, on pain of 20 crowns fine, one third to the informer.

No maſter may take for his journeyman any who have ſerved their time in neighbouring places, within 20 leagues round, on pain of 10 crowns fine, and loſs of his freedom.

No maſter ſhall ſeduce or allure by promiſe, money, or otherwiſe, the ſervant of another, on pain of 10 crowns, and of coſts and damages.

No one ſhall buy of apprentices or journeymen any work begun or finiſhed, nor lend them money on it, on pain of 25 crowns fine, and loſs of what they have given for it.

No maſter may receive an apprentice, who hath not his diſcharge in due form; nor the journeyman of another maſter, without his conſent, or without it's being well known and approved, on pain of fine at diſcretion.

All workmen of the ſaid art, as alſo all engravers, gilders, and others concerned in clock-making, are prohibited to work, or cauſe to work, with thoſe who are not maſters, on pain of 25 crowns fine, and moreover, for thoſe who are maſters, loſs of their freedom.

All maſters, having work ordered, ſhall be obliged to deliver it well performed, and in good condition, within the time agreed upon, on pain of 25 florins forfeiture for every watch, and, in caſe of failure, ſuſpenſion of freedom for a year.

Whoſoever ſhall have pledged or ſold any works which ſhall be entruſted with him, ſhall be puniſhed as the caſe requires, and even with loſs of freedom.

All perſons, as well of the ſaid art, as others, whoſoever they be, are prohibited to cauſe to be made and buy, directly or indirectly, any foreign piece of finiſhed clock-work, white, or gilt, or to bring into the city to deal therein, under any pretence whatſoever, on pain of forfeiture, and 100 crowns fine, and to maſters loſs of freedom, and ſeverer puniſhment in caſe of failure; nor are they to ſend any furniture, or any kind of materials tending to finiſhing the work, on the like penalties. All maſters to whom they ſhall offer them, or who ſhall ſee expoſed to ſale foreign works, either gilt or not, of any kind, are enjoined to ſeize and carry them to the lords commiſſioners, to be adjudged according to that article, excepting large pendulums, not compriſed in the aforeſaid rule.

Alſo all who are not citizens, burgeſſes, or maſters of the ſaid art, are prohibited to negociate in the city any clock-work, on pain of forfeiture, and 10 crowns fine; none but citizens and burgeſſes being permitted to keep open ſhop.

All maſters are alſo prohibited to ſettle themſelves out of their diſtrict, in neighbouring places, to work there, on pain of privation of freedom.

It is alſo prohibited to make or uſe any box or equipage of gold or ſilver, without the ſtamp of the lords commiſſioners, and which is not of the fabric of that city; as alſo to uſe any which have not the maſter's name, on pain of forfeiture and fine of 25 crowns to thoſe who treſpaſs: prohibiting others on like penalty, to put on watches any dial-plate, which hath not the ſaid ſtamp, excepting enamelled dial-plates, the uſe of which is permitted.

All maſters, journeymen, and others, are prohibited to inſtruct, or cauſe to be inſtructed, their wives and daughters in the trade of clock-making, on pain of loſs of freedom to maſters, and 50 crowns fine to others.

All women and girls are likewiſe prohibited from working in clock-making; the fine 50 crowns, and forfeiture of their works and utenſils; they being only permitted to do the drudgery, make the needles, pillars, chains, keys, and to divide the wheels and the fuſees, and to gild the watches.

Very expreſs prohibitions are made to all citizens, burgeſſes, natives, or inhabitants, tutors or governors, and to all, who have government of children, not to put them apprentices to the trade of clock-making without the city, the diſtance of 20 leagues round, on pain of 500 florins fine, and, on default thereof, to cauſe their children to return within the time ſhall be aſſigned them by the lords commiſſioners, who preſide over the ſaid profeſſion, to be puniſhed as the caſe ſhall require.

No perſons are to concern themſelves in the brokage of clock-making, without permiſſion firſt had and obtained from the lords commiſſioners; the ſaid brokers ſhall give 100 crowns ſecurity, and take oath to perform their office faithfully, not to trade on their own account, alone or in company, nor to favour one to the prejudice of another; and, in caſe any foreign piece of work fall into their hands, to depoſit the ſame with the lords commiſſioners.

REMARKS.

Laws of England relating to CLOCK-MAKING.

Stat. 9 and 10, Will. III. c. 28, §. 2. no perſon ſhall export, or endeavour to export out of this kingdom, any outward or inward box, caſe, or dial-plate, of gold, ſilver, braſs, or other metal, for clock or watch, without the movement in or with every ſuch box, &c. made up fit for uſe, with the maker's name engraven thereon; nor any perſon ſhall make up any clock or watch, without putting their name and place of abode or freedom; and no other name or place, on every clock or watch, on penalty of forfeiting every ſuch box, caſe, and dial-plate, clock and watch, not made up and engraven as aforeſaid, and 20 l. one moiety to the king, the other to them that ſhall ſue for the ſame.

That

That the mechanic arts in general have been productive of very great benefits and advantages to commerce and navigation, will be denied by no one, who is at all acquainted with ſubjects of this nature: and although the world is highly indebted to the ſkill, ingenuity, and experience of the practical workmen themſelves, for the extraordinary advances they have made therein; yet it is equally certain, that workmen are not leſs indebted to the mechanic philoſopher; to the ſtudent, who has ſpeculatively conceived, in the mind, what the artizan executes with the hand: nor would the mere theory of the mechanic, or any other arts, profit ſociety, if we had not dexterous artificers to reduce to manual practice what the philoſopher hatches in his ſtudy: ſo that in the mechanic, as well as other arts, the theory and practice ſhould ever be united, for the uſeful purpoſes of trade and commerce.

But it is rare, very rare, indeed, that both the theoretical and practical knowledge unite in one and the ſame perſon. Yet we have experienced this not to be unexampled with regard to the buſineſs of clock and watch-making, in theſe two incomparable artiſts, the late Tompion, Graham, &c. and the living Ellicot, and others, who have done honour to this nation in their profeſſion, and rendered the clocks and watches of England in higher eſtimation throughout the world, than thoſe of any other nation. And yet the perfection to which theſe great artiſts have arrived, does not appear to be owing to any peculiar laws for the public regulation, or any public rewards for the encouragement of their art. Genius's, indeed, of the firſt rank, may ſoar above all difficulties, without being ſpurred on by political inſtigation; but this is the caſe of but few, in compariſon to the whole body of our mechanics and artificers; and, therefore, we have ſeen that, in France and Geneva, very extrordinary care is taken to bring up this claſs of people, that their workmanſhip may do honour to their country, and promote it's commercial proſperity. Whether, therefore, to prevent any degeneracy among Britiſh artificers, and to excite them to emulation to excel in theſe and ſuch-like arts, whereupon our traffic is founded, may not one day call for due attention from the wiſdom of the nation, is humbly ſubmitted. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, and ROYAL SOCIETY OF LONDON.

Monſieur Savary pretends to match the French watchmakers againſt the Engliſh——He aſſerts, that, if the Engliſh be in any condition to diſpute with them, they owe it entirely to the great number of French workmen, who took ſhelter here, upon the revocation of the edict of Nants.——That three fourths of the watches, made in England, are the work of Frenchmen.——From what authorities he ſays this, we know not: but it need not be told Engliſhmen that it is falſe; there not being one French name, that we know of, among all our celebrated watchmakers: nor, in the body of watchmakers, is there one eighth part French, according to Mr Chambers.——There are, I am very ſenſible, many French refugees, as well as many Germans, who are extraordinary artiſts in various principal branches of the watchmaking buſineſs.——But I never heard of any great maſters amongſt them here, that have obtained the character equal to thoſe whoſe names I have mentioned.——If there were, and they had come to my knowlege, I ſhould not be wanting in paying all regard due to their merit, becauſe I look upon thoſe proteſtant foreigners, who have taken up their abode among us, as part of ourſelves, and have greatly contributed to advance the trade of the nation, as I ſhall ſhew hereafter.

It is certain the French prefer our watches to their own; inſomuch that, to have them with the more eaſe, a number of Engliſh workmen were invited, or rather inticed, over in 1719, and eſtabliſhed with great countenance at Verſailles, under the direction of the famous Mr Law.—But the eſtabliſhment, though every thing promiſed well for it, fell to the ground in leſs than a year's time.—M. Savary imputes it's fall, intirely, to that ſtrong prejudice of the French people, in behalf of the Engliſh workmen, and to the opinion, that the watches did not come from England. But the truth is, the workmen ſent over, being moſt of them men of looſe characters, grew diſſolute, quarrelled with the prieſts, inſulted the magiſtrates, and were diſmiſſed of neceſſity.

CLOCK-WORK. It is probable that in all ages ſome inſtruments or other have been uſed for the meaſuring of time; but the earlieſt we read of is the dial of Ahaz.

Some pretend to give a deſcription of this dial of Ahaz: but, it being mere conjecture, and little to my purpoſe, I ſhall not trouble the reader with the various opinions about it.

Among the Greeks and Romans there were two ways chiefly uſed to meaſure their hours. One was by clepſydræ, or hour-glaſſes; the other by the ſolaria, or ſun-dials. They had alſo a veſſel, having a little hole in the bottom, which was ſet in the courts of judicature, full of water; by which the lawyers pleaded. This was, ſays Phavorinus, to prevent babbling, that ſuch as ſpeak ought to be brief in their ſpeeches.

As to the invention of thoſe water-watches (which were, no doubt, of more common uſe than only in the law-courts) the invention of them is attributed, by Cenſorinus, to P. Cornelius Naſica; the cenſor Scipio Naſica, Pliny calls him, and ſays, That he was the firſt that meaſured, by water, the hours of the night, as well as the day; and that clock he dedicated within doors, in the year U. C. 595; which time fell in about the time of Judas Maccabæus, about 150 years before Chriſt. The other way of meaſuring the hours, with ſun-dials, ſeems, from Pliny and Cenſorinus, to have been an earlier invention than the laſt. Pliny ſays, 'That Anaximenes Mileſius, the 'ſcholar of Anaximander, invented dialling, and was the firſt 'that ſhewed a ſun-dial at Lacedemon.' Vitruvius calls him Mileſius Anaximander. This Anaximander, or Anaximenes, was cotemporary with Pythagoras, ſays Laërtius, and flouriſhed about the time of the prophet Daniel.

But enough of theſe ancient time-engines.

There were other horological machines, which, whether pieces of clock-work or not, I leave to the reader's judgment.

The firſt is that of Dionyſius, which Plutarch commends for a very magnificent and illuſtrious piece. But this might be only a well delineated ſun-dial.

Another piece is that of Sapor, king of Perſia. Cardan ſaith it was made of glaſs; that the king could ſit in the middle of it, and ſee it's ſtars riſe and ſet. But, whether this ſphere was moved by clock-work, or whether it had any regular motion, does not clearly appear.

The laſt machine I ſhall mention, is one deſcribed by Vitruvius, which ſeems to be a piece of watch-work, moved by an equal influx of water.

Among divers feats which this machine performed (as ſounding trumpets, throwing ſtones, &c. one uſe of it was, to ſhew the hours (which were unequal in that age) through every month in the year.

The inventor of this famous machine, Vitruvius ſays, was one Cteſibius, a barber's ſon of Alexandria; which Cteſibius flouriſhed under Ptolemy Euergetes, ſays Athenæus, l. 4. and, if ſo, he lived about 140 years before our Saviour's days, and might be cotemporary with Archimedes.

Thus having given a ſhort account of the ancient ways of meaſuring time, we ſhall ſay ſomething more particularly of watch and clock-work; which is thought to be of a much later invention than the forementioned pieces, and to have had it's beginning in Germany, within leſs than 200 years. It is very probable that our ballance-clocks, or watches, and ſome other automata, might have their beginning there; or that watch and clock-work (which had long been buried in oblivion) might be revived there: but that watch and clock-work was the invention of that age purely, might be proved falſe, if we were diſpoſed to enter into a detail of that matter.

Some general rules and directions for the calculations neceſſary in making theſe machines, according to Mr Derham's Artificial Clock-Maker.

§. 1. For the clear underſtanding of which, it muſt be obſerved, that thoſe automata, whoſe calculation is intended, do by little interſtices, or ſtrokes, meaſure out longer portions of time. Thus the ſtrokes of the ballance of a watch meaſure out minutes, hours, days, &c.

Now to ſcatter thoſe ſtrokes among wheels and pinions, and to proportionate them, ſo as to meaſure time regularly, is the deſign of calculation. For the clearer diſcovery of which, it will be neceſſary to proceed leiſurely and gradually.

§. 2. And in the firſt place you are to know, that any wheel, being divided by it's pinion, ſhews how many turns that pinion hath to one turn of that wheel. Thus a wheel of 60 teeth, driving a pinion of 6, will turn round the pinion 10 times in going round once: 6)60(10.

From the fuſee to the ballance the wheels drive the pinions; and, conſequently, the pinions run faſter, or go more turns, that the wheels they run in. But it is contrary from the great wheel to the dial-wheel. Thus, in the laſt example, the wheel drives round the pinion 10 times; but, if the pinion drive the wheel, it muſt turn 10 times to drive the wheel round once.

§. 3. Before I proceed further, I muſt ſhew how to write down the wheels and pinions; which may be done either as vulgar fractions, or in the way of diviſion in vulgar arithmetic. For example: a wheel of 60, moving a pinion of 5, may be ſet down thus, $\frac{60}{5}$; or rather thus, 5)60; where the uppermoſt figure, 60, or numerator, is the wheel, the lowermoſt, or denominator, is the pinion: or, in the latter example, the firſt figure is the pinion, the next, without the hook, is the wheel.

The number of turns which the pinion hath in one turn of the wheel, is ſet without a hook, on the right-hand; as, 5)60(12; i. e. a pinion of 5, playing in a wheel of 60, moveth round 12 times in one turn of the wheel.

A whole

A whole movement may be noted thus, $\frac{4}{36}$, $\frac{55}{5}$, $\frac{45}{5}$, $\frac{40}{5}$,
4)36(9 17 notches in the crown-wheel: or rather, becauſe it
5)55(11 will be eaſieſt to conceive, as you ſee here in the
5)45(9 margin: where the uppermoſt number, above the
5)40(8 line, is the pinion of report 4, the dial-wheel 36,
17 and 9 turns of the pin of report. The ſecond number, under the line, is 5, the pinion; 55 is the great wheel, and 11 turns of the pinion it driveth. The third numbers are the ſecond wheel, &c. the fourth the contrate-wheel, &c. and the ſingle number 17, under all, is the number of the crown-wheel.

By the §. 2. before, knowing the number of turns which any pinion hath in one turn of the wheel it worketh in, you may alſo find out how many turns a wheel or a pinion hath, at a greater diſtance; as the contrate-wheel, crown-wheel, &c. for it is but multiplying together the quotients *, and the number produced is the number of turns. An example will make this matter plain: let us chuſe theſe three
5)55(11 numbers here ſet down; the firſt of which hath 11
5)45(9 turns, the next 9, and the laſt 8. If you multiply
5)40(8 11 and 9, it produceth 99, for 9 times 11 is 99; that is, in one turn of the wheel 55, there are 99 turns of the ſecond pinion 5, or the wheel 40, which runs concentrical, or in the ſame arbor with the ſecond pinion 5: for, as there are 11 turns of the firſt pinion 5, in one turn of the great wheel 55, or (which is the ſame) of the ſecond wheel 45, which is on the ſame ſpindle with that pinion 5; ſo there are 9 times 11 turns in the ſecond pinion 5, or wheel 40, in one turn of the great wheel 55. If you multiply 99 by the laſt quotient 8 (that is, 8 times 99 is 792) it ſhews the number of turns which the third and laſt pinion 5 hath: ſo that this third and laſt pinion turns 792 times in one turn of the firſt wheel 55. Another example will make it ſtill more plain. The example is in the margin.
8)80(10 The turns are 10, 9, and 8: theſe, multiplied as be-
6)54(9 fore, run thus, viz. 10 times 9 is 90; that is, the
5)40(8 pinion 6 (which is the pinion of the third wheel 40,
15 and runs in the ſecond wheel 54) turns 90 times in one turn of the firſt 80. This laſt product 90, being multiplied by 8, produces 720; that is, the pinion 5 (which is the pinion of the crown-wheel 15) turns 720 times in one turn of the firſt wheel of 80 teeth.

* By the quotients I commonly mean the number of turns; which number is ſet on the right hand, without the hook, as is ſhewn in the laſt paragraph; which I note here now, once for all.

§. 5. We may now proceed to that which is the very groundwork of all; which is, not only to find out the turns, but the beats, alſo, of the ballance, in thoſe turns of the wheels. By the laſt paragraph having found out the number of turns which the crown-wheel hath in one turn of the wheel you ſeek for, you muſt then multiply thoſe turns of the crown-wheel by it's number of notches, and this will give you half the number of beats in that one turn of the wheel; half the number of beats, I ſay, for the reaſons in the following ſixth ſection. For the explication of what hath been ſaid, we will take the example in the laſt ſection: the crown-wheel there has (as hath been ſaid) 720 turns to one turn of the firſt wheel: this number, multiplied by 15 (the notches in the crown-wheel) produces 10,800, which are half the number of ſtrokes of the ballance in one turn of the firſt wheel 80. The like may be done for any of the other wheels, as the wheels 54 or 40: but I ſhall not inſiſt upon theſe, having ſaid enough.

I ſhall give but one example more, which will fully and very plainly illuſtrate the whole matter. The example is in the margin, and it is of the old 16 hour watches, where-
4)32(8 in the pinion of report is 4, the dial-wheel 32, the
5)55(11 great wheel is 55, the pinion of the ſecond wheel
5)45(9 is 5, &c. the number of notches in the crown-wheel
5)40(8 are 17; the quotients, or number of turns in each, are, 8, 11, 9, 8: all which being multiplied, as before, make 6,336; this number, multiplied by 17,
17 produceth 107,712; which laſt ſum is half the number of beats in one turn of the dial-wheel. The half number of beats, in one turn of the great wheel, you will find to be 13,464: for 8 times 17 is 136, which is the half number of beats in one turn of the contrate-wheel 40; and 9 times 136 is 1,224, the half beats in one turn of the ſecond wheel; and 11 times 1,224 is 13,464, the half beats in one turn of the great wheel 55: and 8 times this laſt is 107,712, before named. If you multiply this by the two pallets, that is, double it, it is 215,424, which is the number of beats in one turn of the dial-wheel, or 12 hours. If you would know how many beats this watch hath in an hour, it is but dividing the beats in 12 hours into 12 parts, and it gives 17,952, which is called the train of the watch, or beats in an hour. If you divide this into 60 parts, it gives 299, and a little more, for the beats in a minute: and ſo you may go on to ſeconds and thirds, if you pleaſe.

Thus I have delivered my thoughts as plainly as I can, that I may be well underſtood, this being the very foundation of all the artificial part of clock-work; and, therefore, let the young practitioner exerciſe himſelf thoroughly in it, in more than one example.

§. 6. The ballance, or ſwing, hath two ſtrokes to every tooth of the crown-wheel: for each of the two pallets hath it's blow againſt each tooth of the crown-wheel; wherefore a pendulum that ſwings ſeconds, hath it's crown-wheel only 30 teeth.

The way to calculate, or contrive, the numbers of a piece of watch-work.

Having, in the laſt ſection, led on the reader to a general knowlege of calculations, I may now venture him further into the more obſcure and uſeful parts of that art: which I ſhall explain with all poſſible plainneſs, though leſs brevity than I could wiſh.

§. 1. Two wheels and pinions, of different numbers, may perform the ſame motion: as a wheel of 36 drives a pinion of 4, all one as a wheel of 45 drives a pinion of 5, or as a wheel of 90 drives one of 10; the turns of each are 9: therefore,

§. 2. In contriving a piece of work, you may make uſe of one wheel and one pinion, or many wheels and many pinions, provided that the many wheels and many pinions have the ſame proportion that the one wheel and one pinion have; an example or two of which will make the matter plain. Suppoſe, inſtead of a wheel of 1,440 teeth (too large a number for one wheel) and a pinion of 28 leaves, you had rather make uſe of three wheels and pinions, you may make uſe of three wheels of 36, 8, and 5, and of three pinions of 4, 7, and 1; which, being multiplied together continually, make the two ſums, viz. 36 times 8 is 288, and 5 times that is 1,440; and 4, 7, and 1, ſo multiplied, makes 28, the very ſum of the one wheel and one pinion.

Or you may, by ſection one, make uſe of different numbers, which will perform the ſame motion, although they reach not the ſame numbers. As, in the wheel 1,440 and pinion 28, there are 51 $\frac{3}{7}$ turns, now any number of wheels and pinions that will effect the ſame number 51 $\frac{3}{7}$ turns, will perform the ſame motion as that one wheel and one pinion. Future examples will make all plain.

In placing the wheels and pinions it matters not in what order they are ſet, nor, indeed, which pinion runs into which wheel; only for beauty and convenience they place them orderly, according to their different ſizes and numbers.

§. 4. If in breaking your train into parcels (of which preſently) any of your quotients ſhould not pleaſe you; or if you would alter any other two numbers, which are to be multiplied together, you may vary them by this rule: divide * your two numbers by any other two numbers, which will meaſure them, and then multiply the quotient by the alternate diviſors; the product of theſe two laſt numbers, found, ſhall be equal to the product of the two numbers firſt given. Thus, if you would vary 36 times 8, divide theſe by any two numbers that will evenly meaſure them, as 36 by 4, and 8 by 1: the fourth part of 36 is 9, and 8, divided by 1, gives 8; multiply 9 by 1, the product is 9; and 8, multiplied by 4, produceth 32: ſo that, for 36 times 8, you ſhall
9 8 have found 32 times 9. The operation is in the
36 × 8 margin, that you may ſee, and apprehend it the
4 1 better. Theſe numbers are equal, viz. 36 times 8
32 × 9 is equal to 32 times 9, both producing 288. If you divide 36 by 6, and 8 by 2, and multiply as before is ſaid, you will have, for 36 times 8, 24 times 12, equal to 288 alſo.

* Outhred Autom. §. 23.

If this rule ſeem to the unſkilful reader hard to be underſtood, let him not be diſcouraged, becauſe he may do without it, although it may be of good uſe to him that would be a more compleat artiſt.

§. 5. Becauſe in the following paragraphs I ſhall have frequent occaſion to uſe the rule of three, or rule of proportion, it will be neceſſary to ſhew the unſkilful reader how to work this uſeful rule.

If you find three or four numbers thus ſet, with four ſpots after the ſecond of them, it is the rule of proportion; as in this example: 2 : 4 :: 3 : 6; i. e. as 2 is to 4 : : ſo is 3 to 6. The way to work this rule, viz. by the three firſt numbers to find a fourth, is, to multiply the ſecond number and the third together, and divide their product by the firſt. Thus 4 times 3 is 12, which 12, divided by 2, gives 6, which is the number ſought for, and ſtands in the fourth place.

You will find the great uſe of this rule hereafter; only take care to bear it in mind all along. But, if there ſhould be occaſion for any farther inſtructions in the rule of three, I refer the reader to the article ARITHMETIC.

§. 6. To proceed. If, in ſeeking for your pinion of report, or by any other means, you happen to have a wheel and pinion fall out with croſs numbers, too big to be cut in wheels, and yet not to be altered by the former rules, you may find out two numbers of the ſame, or a near proportion, by this following

lowing rule, viz. as either of the two numbers given is to the other : : ſo is 360 to a fourth; divide that fourth number, as alſo 360, by any aliquot parts, as 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, 12, 15 (each of which numbers does exactly meaſure 360) or by any one of thoſe numbers that brings the quotient neareſt to an integer, or whole number. Thus, if you had theſe two numbers, 147 the wheel, and 170 the pinion, which are too great to be cut in ſmall wheels, and yet cannot be reduced into leſs, becauſe they have no other common meaſure but unity: ſay, therefore, according to the laſt paragraph, as 170 is to 147, or, as 147 is to 170 : : ſo is 360 to a fourth number ſought: in numbers thus, 170 : 147 : : 360 : 311; or, 147 : 170 : : 360, or 416. Divide the fourth number and 360 by one of the foregoing numbers, as 311 and 360 by 6, it gives 52 and 60. In numbers it is thus: $6\overline{)\begin{matrix}311(52\\360(60\end{matrix}}$ Divide by 8 it is thus, $8\overline{)\begin{matrix}311(39\\360(45\end{matrix}}$. If you divide 360 and 416 by 8, it will fall out exactly to be 45 and 52. $8\overline{)\begin{matrix}360(45.\\416(52\end{matrix}}$ wherefore, for the two numbers 147 and 170, you may take 52 and 60, or 39 and 45, or 45 and 52, &c.

§. 7. I ſhall add but one rule more before I come to the practice of what hath been laid down; which rule will be of perpetual uſe, and conſiſts of theſe five particulars:

1. To find what number of turns the fuſee will have, thus: As the beats of the ballance in one turn of the great wheel, or fuſee (ſuppoſe 26,928) is to the beats of the ballance in one hour (ſuppoſe 20,196) : : ſo is the continuance of the watch's going in hours (ſuppoſe 16) to the number of the turns of the fuſee 12. In numbers it will ſtand thus:

26,928 : 20,196 : : 16 : 12.

By ſection 4, you may remember, that you are to multiply 20,196 by 16; the product is 323,136. Divide this by 26,928, and there will ariſe 12 in the quotient, which muſt be placed in the fourth place, and is the number of turns which the fuſee hath.

2. By the beats and turns of the fuſee to find how many hours the watch will go, thus:

As the beats of the ballance in one hour are to the beats in the turns of the fuſee, ſo is the number of the turns of the fuſee to the continuance of the watch's going. In numbers thus: 20,196 : 26,928 : : 12 : 16.

3. To find the ſtrokes of the ballance in one turn of the fuſee, ſay, As the number of turns of the fuſee is to the continuance of the watch's going in hours, ſo are the beats in one hour to the beats of one turn of the fuſee. In numbers it is thus:

12 : 16 : : 20,196 : 26,928.

4. To find the beats of the ballance in an hour, ſay thus: As the hour of the watch's going is to the number of turns of the fuſee, ſo are the beats in one turn of the fuſee to the beats in an hour. In numbers thus:

16 : 12 : : 26,928 : 20,196.

5. To find what quotient is to be laid upon the pinion of report, ſay thus: As the beats in one turn of the great wheel are to the beats in an hour, ſo are the hours of the face of the clock (viz. 12, or 24) to the quotient of the hour-wheel, or dial-wheel, divided by the pinion of report, i. e. the number of turns which the pinion of report hath in one turn of the dial-wheel. In numbers thus:

26,928 : 20,196 : : 12 : 9.

Or rather, to avoid trouble, ſay thus: As the hours of the watch's going are to the number of the turns of the fuſee, ſo are the hours of the face to the quotient of the pinion of report. In numbers thus: 16 : 12 : : 12 : 9. If the hours of the face be 24, the quotient will be 18; thus:

16 : 12 : : 24 : 18.

N. B. This may be made ſerve to lay the pinion of report on any other wheel: As the beats in one turn in any wheel are to the beats in an hour, ſo are the hours of the face, or dial-plate of the watch, to the quotient of the dial-wheel, divided by the pinion of report, fixed on the ſpindle of the aforeſaid wheel.

CLOTH, in traffic, ſignifies a manufacture made of wool, wove on the loom; the expreſſion is applicable alſo to other manufactures made of hemp or flax, &c. but, in a more particular ſenſe, it implies a web or tiſſue of woollen threads interwoven, ſome whereof, called the warp, are extended in length from one end of the piece to the other; the reſt, called the woof, diſpoſed acroſs the firſt or breadthwiſe of the piece. Cloths are of divers qualities, fine or coarſe.

The goodneſs of cloth conſiſts in the following particulars. (1.) That the wool be of a good quality and well dreſſed. (2.) It muſt be equally ſpun, carefully obſerving that the thread of the warp be finer and better twiſted than that of the woof. (3.) The cloth muſt be well wrought, and beaten on the loom, ſo as to be every-where equally compact. (4.) The wool muſt not be finer at one end of the piece than in the reſt. (5.) The liſts muſt be ſufficiently ſtrong, of the ſame length with the ſtuff, and conſiſt of good wool, hair, or oſtrich-feathers, or, which is ſtill better, of Daniſh dog's-hair. (6.) The cloth muſt be free from knots and other imperfections. (7.) It muſt be well ſcoured with fuller's earth, well fulled with the beſt white ſoap, and afterwards waſhed in clear water. (8.) The hair or nap muſt be well drawn out with the teazel, without being too much opened. (9.) It muſt be ſhorn cloſe, without making it threadbare. (10.) It muſt be well dried. (11.) It muſt not be tenter-ſtretched, to force it to it's juſt dimenſions. (12.) It muſt be preſſed cold, not hot preſſed, the latter being very injurious to woollen cloth.

The manner of manufacturing in France white cloths which are intended for dyeing.

The beſt wools for the manufacturing of fine cloths are thoſe of Spain, particularly thoſe of Segovia. To uſe thoſe wools to the beſt advantage, they muſt be ſcoured with a liquor compoſed of three parts fair water, and one of urine. After the wool has continued long enough in the liquor to ſoak and diſſolve the greaſe, it is drained and well waſhed in running water. When it feels dry, and has no ſmell but the natural one of the ſheep, it is ſaid to be duly ſcoured.

After this it is hung to dry in the ſhade, the heat of the ſun making it harſh and inflexible. When dry, it is beat with rods upon hurdles of wood, or on cords, to cleanſe it from duſt and the groſſer filth; the more it is thus beat and cleanſed, the ſofter it becomes, and the better for ſpinning. After beating, it muſt be well picked, to free it from the reſt of the filth that had eſcaped the rods.

It is now in a proper condition to be oiled, and carded on large iron cards, placed ſlopewiſe. Olive oil is eſteemed the beſt for this purpoſe; one fifth of which ſhould be uſed for the wool intended for the woof, and a ninth for that deſigned for the warp.

After the wool has been well oiled, it is given to the ſpinners, who firſt card it on the knee with ſmall fine cards, and then ſpin it on the wheel; obſerving to make the thread of the warp ſmaller by one third than that of the woof, and much compacter twiſted, there being greater inconvenience in twiſting it too looſe than too tight: to which end, the latter ſhould be ſpun with the band open, or uncroſſed, and the former with it croſſed.

The thread thus ſpun, reeled, and made into ſkeins, that deſigned for the woof is wound on little tubes, pieces of paper, or ruſhes, ſo diſpoſed, as that they may be eaſily put in the eye of the ſhuttle. That for the warp is wound on a kind of large wooden bobbins, to diſpoſe it for warping. When warped, it is ſtiffened with ſize, the beſt of which is that made of ſhreds of parchment, and, when dry, is given to the weavers, who mount it on the loom.

The warp thus mounted, the weavers, who are two to each loom, one on each ſide, tread at the ſame time alternately on the treddle, firſt on the right ſtep and then on the left, which raiſes and lowers the threads of the warp equally; between which they throw, tranſverſely, the ſhuttle from the one to the other. And every time that the ſhuttle is thus thrown, and a thread of the woof* inſerted within the warp, they ſtrike it conjointly with the ſame frame wherein is faſtened the comb or reed, between whoſe teeth the threads of the warp are paſſed, repeating the ſtroke, as often as is neceſſary; in ſome cloths no leſs than twelve or thirteen times, viz. ſix with the warp open, and ſeven ſhut.

* One of the moſt uſeful inventions, perhaps, known in human ſociety, is that of weaving with the warp and woof. The warp, which the Latins call the ſtamen, is the baſe and foundation of the ſtuff: it conſiſts of a number of long twiſted threads extended on a loom, ſome whereof are raiſed up, and others depreſſed alternately, in order to receive and catch hold of another thread called the woof, which is thrown through them by means of a ſhuttle, an inſtrument with two points, and in the figure of a boat. Weaving with the warp and woof is more expeditious than that of any other way; it is alſo moſt convenient and the fitteſt to be diverſified, according to the exigency of the ſeaſons, and the taſte of nations and particular perſons. Hence proceeds that infinite number of different kinds of linnens, woollens, ſerges, cloths, cambletts, taffeta's, damaſks, velvets, and other ſtuffs, whoſe names vary according to the materials they are made of, and the different mixtures of the threads.

It is obſervable, that, the more the threads of the woof are ſtruck againſt each other, the cloſer the cloth is: hence it becomes enabled to ſuſtain the violence of the fulling-mill, as well as of the teazel, or fulling-thiſtle, without fretting or opening. The weavers having continued their work 'till the whole warp is filled with woof, the cloth is finiſhed: it is taken off the loom, by unrolling it from the beam whereon it had been rolled, in proportion as it was wove; and now given to be cleanſed of the knots, ends of threads, ſtraws, and other filth, which is done with little iron nippers.

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In this condition it is carried to the fullery, to be ſcoured with urine, or a kind of potter's-clay, well cleanſed and ſteeped in water, put along with the cloth in the trough, wherein it is fulled.

The cloth, being again cleared from the earth or urine, by waſhing it well in water, is returned to the former hands, to have the leſſer filth, ſmall ſtraws, and almoſt imperceptible knots taken off as before: then it is returned to the fuller, to be beat and fulled with hot water, wherein a ſuitable quantity of ſoap has been diſſolved for the occaſion. The ſoap moſt eſteemed is the Caſtile, or the white ſoap of Genoa. After fulling it is taken out to be ſmoothed, or pulled by the liſts lengthwiſe, to take out the wrinkles and crevices occaſioned by the force of the mallets or peſtles falling on the cloth, when in the troughs.

The ſmoothing is repeated every two hours, 'till the fulling be finiſhed, and the cloth brought to it's proper breadth; after which it is waſhed in clear water, to purge it of the ſoap, and given wet to the carders, to raiſe the hair or nap on the right-ſide, with the thiſtle or weed; wherewith they give it two rubs or courſes, the firſt againſt the grain, the ſecond with the grain.

After this preparation the clothworker takes the cloth, and gives it it's firſt cut or ſheering. After which, the carders reſume it, and, after wetting, give it as many more courſes with the teazel as the quality of the ſtuff requires; always obſerving to begin againſt the grain of the hair, and to end with it; as alſo to begin with a ſmoother thiſtle, proceeding ſtill with one ſharper and ſharper, as far as the ſixth degree.

After theſe operations the cloth, being dried, is returned to the clothworker, who ſheers it a ſecond time, and returns it to the carders, who repeat their operation as before, 'till the nap be well ranged on the ſurface of the cloth, from one end of the piece to the other.

It muſt be obſerved, that it is abſolutely neceſſary the cloth ſhould be wet, while in the hands of the carder; to which end it is ſprinkled with water from time to time.

The nap finiſhed and the cloth dried, the clothworker gives it as many cuts as he thinks requiſite, for the perfection of the ſtuff. It muſt be obſerved alſo, that all the ſheerings muſt be on the right-ſide except the two laſt, which muſt be on the other; and that the cloth cannot be too cloſe for ſheering.

The cloth, thus wove, ſcoured, napped, and ſhorn, is ſent to the dyer. Which performed, it is waſhed in fair water, and the worker takes it again, wet as it is; lays the nap, with a bruſh, on the table, and hangs it on the tenters; where it is ſtretched both in length and breadth, ſufficiently to ſmooth it, ſet it ſquare, and bring it to it's proper dimenſions, without ſtraining it too much; obſerving to bruſh it afreſh, the way of the nap, while a little moiſt on the tenters. When quite dry, the cloth is taken off from the tenters, and bruſhed again on the table, to finiſh the laying of the nap: after which it is folded, and laid cold under a preſs, to make it perfectly ſmooth and even, and give it a gloſs.

The gloſs is given by laying a leaf of vellum, or cap-paper, in each plait of the piece, and over the whole a ſquare plank of wood: whereon, by means of a lever, the ſcrew of a preſs is brought down, with the degree of force judged requiſite, with regard to the quality of the cloth. In France and Holland, none but ſcarlets, greens, blues, &c. receive this laſt preparation, blacks being judged better without it.

Laſtly, the cloth being taken out of the preſs, and the papers removed, it is in a condition for ſale or uſe.

With regard to the manufacture of mixed cloths, or thoſe wherein the wools are firſt dyed, then mixed, ſpun, and wove of the colours intended, the proceſs, except in what relates to the colour, is moſtly the ſame with that juſt repreſented.

The method of adjuſting the mixture, is by firſt making a felt or flock of the colours of the intended cloth, as a ſpecimen: the wool of each colour is weighed, and, when the ſpecimen is to the manufacturer's mind, he mixes, for uſe, a quantity in the ſame proportion; eſtimating each grain of the ſpecimen at 20 pounds weight of the ſame wool, in the cloth to be made.

Thus, for example, if he would mix three colours, viz. coffee-colour, feuille-mort, and the pale blue, the firſt to be the prevailing colour, he weighs the quantity of each: for inſtance, 70 grains of the firſt, 25 of the ſecond, and 20 of the third; then multiplies each by 20 pounds of wool; and, thus, again, 1400 pounds for the coffee-wool, 500 pounds for the feuille-mort, and 400 for the pale blue.

The wools of the ſpecimen, thus weighed, are mixed, oiled, carded, moiſtened with clear water, rubbed with black ſoap, and in this ſtate wrought a long time with the hands, 'till they be reduced into a piece of felt uſed by hatters.—It is then rinſed in water, to purge out the oil and ſoap; and, when dry, the nap is carded out with the teazel; then ſhorn again 'till the ground appear, and the ſeveral colours be diſcoverable.—Laſtly, wetting it a little and preſſing it, he examines it well, and, if he is not ſatisfied with it, makes another felt; if he is, he proceeds to mix his wools: when ſo done, it is beat on hurdles, cleaned, oiled, carded, ſpun, wove, &c. as in the white cloth.

For thoſe who would chuſe to have a connected idea of the uſual terms of woollen manufacturers, will find them in what follows, ranged according to the order of the operation.

The wool is waſhed,
Either in heaps, in ſtanding water; or in the coyriddle, in running water;
Or in tubs full of river water.

To prepare the bath or ſuds, is to let the wool ſoak in water, 'till it has thickened the water in the tub, by diſcharging it's greaſineſs and ſalt in it. Thence it is, that inſects ſeek clean wool, and will not touch that which retains it's natural moiſture.

Wool in the greaſe, is that which ſtill preſerves it's natural greaſineſs. This is better for keeping, becauſe the moth will not get into it.

A waſhing of wool, is a heap of wool, taken out of the tub, and ſet to drain in the air.

To waſh the wool alive, is to waſh it on the ſheep's back before ſheering.

The ſheers are ſciſſars made of one piece of ſteel, which forms the bow and two blades. The bow is a ſemicircle, from whence the two blades ſtretch forward. Theſe are preſſed cloſe to each other, and cut the wool under the workman's fingers, and then fly back by the ſpring of the bow.

A tod of wool is what is cut off of the ſkin of the ſheep, beginning at the legs, and ending at the head.

A fleece is the tod gathered up into a ſocket. Out of trade, a fleece ſometimes ſignifies a ſheep ſkin, with the wool on.

The puſhes are wool finer than the reſt, which ſhoot out by little tufts in different places. They are plucked off the ſheep before ſheering.

In the province of Berry this laſt name is given to the wool, which is taken off the thighs.

The breechings are thoſe, which are ſo hard and clotted, that they are of the conſiſtence of felt. They are alſo called clottings, becauſe the beaſt, eſpecially when ſick, dirts and clots them, by lying much on one ſide.

Pelled wool is that, which comes off from ſcabby ſheep.

Sprazeley or crudly wool is the young hungry wool, which ſhoots out before the old is ſhorn.

Locks or breeching are long white hairs, as ſtiff as badger's hair.

All theſe ſorts of wool are bad or rejected. Yet they ought not to be thrown away as uſeleſs. They are uſed in very coarſe works, ſuch as ordinary rugs.

Clipping is cutting off the coarſe ends of the wool, before it is waſhed. Theſe ends are called locks.

The fleece-wool is that, which hath been ſhorn off the ſheep, while alive.

The lamb's wool is that cut off lambs.

The glover's-wool is the wool which the leather-dreſſer takes off the ſkin, after the ſheep is killed.

The fell-wool is the wool ſtripped off ſheep, which died of ſome diſtemper. The uſe of this ſort is prohibited.

In ſorting Segovia wool it is diſtinguiſhed into firſt, ſecond, and third. The ſame order is obſerved in the ſorting of Spaniſh wool in general.

As to the other ſorts of wool, the only diſtinction that is made, is into the high wool, which is the longeſt, and is generally reſerved for combing; and the low wool, which is uſually carded. However, the long wool, when it is to make cloth, is alſo carded, becauſe it does better ſo than when combed.

Fine wool unſcoured is only fit for the market, and not for working. In order to work it, in ſome caſes they begin by waſhing and combing it; in others, by getting out the greaſe by boiling, in order to waſh and comb it afterwards: and there are other caſes ſtill, in which it is firſt dyed, then carried to the river, and thence to the comber.

The ſcouring boiler, or copper, has a croſs-bar on it, to ſupport the wool taken out of the water. There are alſo poles to ſtir the wool, peſtles to pound or beat it, hooks to draw it out, baſkets to hold and carry it to the river, where the cleaning of it is finiſhed.

Common wool, which has been waſhed on the ſheep's back, ought, before working, to be carefully examined, picked off the locks or clipped, and cleanſed of all refuſe.

In ſome manufactories, wool is wrought whole; in others, it is dyed before working.

For dyeing wool, the ſame utenſils are requiſite as for ſcouring.

The ingredients are the preparatory and colouring materials.

Setting the copper is to put the neceſſary ingredients into it.

Handling the wool is to open it, by ſtirring it with the poles, in order to make every part of it take the colour equally.

Increaſing the boiling is to inlarge the fire.

Cooling the wool is to ſpread it out in the air.

If the wool has been only grounded or galled; that is, if it has only had it's firſt dip, or the firſt tincture of galls, cop-

peras,

peras, or other ingredients, whether preparatory or colouring; then it muſt be brought in from the airing to the copper, to be there revived by a ſecond dip, which brightens the dye; or to be lowered by a new mixture, which either diminiſhes it's luſtre, or gives it another teint; or, in fine, to give it a deeper caſt of the ſame colour.

To beat the wool, whether dyed or white, is to ſpread it on a hurdle, and to open it's texture, by whipping it with ſwitches, in order to make it fit for combing, or carding and ſpinning.

For combing wool they uſe

A little furnace, which ſerves to warm the combs,

A vice and hook to fix combs,

A pair of combs, which are two little boards, almoſt ſquare, ſtuck with teeth of iron wire, ſome a little longer than the others. Each comb has it's handle.

A hammer, to put in and take out theſe teeth.

A braſs hollow tube, to mend them when out of order.

A file, to point them when blunt.

A windlas, to twiſt the wool ſoaked in ſoap-water, before it be put in the comb.

A tub, in which the ſoap is diſſolved.

To comb wool, is to comb the wool that has been ſprinkled with oil, in order to waſh it afterwards.

A certain quantity of wool is given by weight to the workmen.

A beating is a parcel of wool beaten on the hurdles.

A ſliver is a proper quantity of wool put into the teeth of the comb.

To diſcharge it, is to take out the ſliver, after having moved the right comb backward and forward on the left, and the left on the right.

The carding is the quantity of wool that ſticks to each comb, and is ſufficiently combed, after a certain number of movements of one comb on the other. There are always two cardings, as well as always two combs.

A diſtaff is two cardings joined together, which make up a ſufficient quantity for the diſtaff.

The ſhort wool, which cannot be wrought together, by combing, is not loſt. It goes to the card.

To brimſtone the wool, is to ſuſpend the ſeveral ſkins over the brimſtone room.

The brimſtone ſtove is a little ſtove well cloſed, and cemented at top, to whiten the wool by the fumes of brimſtone burning in a pan.

When dyed wool is combed, they begin by mixing it, according to the taſte and ſkill of the maſter workmen.

The different colours are effaced by the judgment in mixing them, whereby there reſults a new colour.

The comber follows a certain rule, in the quantity of each colour he takes for each combing. On which depends the uniformity of the colour required.

Carded wool is broke in a different manner from combed wool. It paſſes through two tools, called cards, which are two little quadrangular pieces of board, three or four times as broad or tall, with a handle to each, and thick-ſet with ſmall crooked wires. The cards are changed, beginning by the wideſt, and ending with the cloſeſt, in order to break the wool, and mix the colours the better.

Spinning is of two ſorts.

Twiſted thread is ſpun by the ſpindle or little reel, from combed wool, and ſerves for the warp, which is the ground of the little ſtuffs. The name of warp is alſo given to the threads running lengthwiſe in a piece of cloth, and which make the ground of it.

The ſlack-ſpun is made by the great wheel from carded wool, and is called the woof or ſhute. The woof croſſes the threads of the warp, and may be called ſhute, with regard to a ſtuff that has a pile.

The thread of the work in cloths is generally called back-thrown, becauſe being made from carded wool, as well as the woof, it is likewiſe ſpun by the great wheel, but with the circumſtance of croſſing the wheel-ſtring: which has a double good effect, viz. to make a thread ſomewhat better twiſted, and ſtronger, and give it a different twiſt from that of the woof; whereby they thicken better in the fulling-mill.

Stuffs may be divided into three ſorts, tammy, ſerge, and cloth.

Tammy, or ſtuffs of two tammies, are made of thread of warp upon thread of warp, that is, the warp is of twiſted thread, and the woof of the ſame, both made from combed wool.

Serge is made of ſlack-ſpun, or carded wool, on a warp of tammy, or combed wool.

Cloth is made of the two laſt threads, that is, both the warp and woof are of the thread ſpun from carded wool, and very little twiſted, in order to make a more ſubſtantial and woolly ſtuff.

Theſe three fundamental ſorts are ſubdivided into a vaſt number of others, according to certain qualities added to them, and different ways of working.

To weave is to work at the loom, or to make ſtuff. One weaver is ſufficient to make tammy and ſerges; becauſe, as theſe little ſtuffs are not wide, the ſame workman can throw his ſhuttle with his right-hand between the threads of the warp, and receive it with his left, in order to throw it the contrary way. But cloths and blankets, being very wide, are wrought by two weavers, one of whom throws the ſhuttle, the other receives and throws it back; and they go on thus alternately with as much regularity, as if the work was done by the two hands of the ſame man.

The loom is compoſed of ſeveral parts, whereof the chief are the loom-poſts and croſs-bars.

The three rolls or rollers, viz. the little one, the cane one.

The warp is at firſt faſtened at one end of the loom, on the leaſt of theſe rollers, and at the other end is rolled on the ſecond cylinder, which is thicker, and is called the cane-roll: according as the warp is filled with woof, the ſtuff is to be rolled under the loom in the knee-roll; and at the ſame time the ſame length of the thread of the warp is unrolled off the cane-roll, as that of the ſtuff rolled on the knee-roll.

The batten is a large moveable frame, ſuſpended on two pins at the top of the loom, to move freely backwards and forwards, under the workman's hands, who, after every throw of the ſhuttle, or thread of the woof, ſtrikes in this thread, more or leſs, with the batten or reed.

The reed or comb is made of two rods, with a long row of teeth of reeds, or braſs wire. It is placed at the lower part of the batten. Every thread of the warp paſſes ſingly, between two teeth of the reed: that ſo the batten may move without breaking the threads, and ſtrike in the woof equally, without leaving any part of it irregular.

The lams are behind the reed. Each lam is compoſed of two vergees, or laths, whoſe length ſhould be the width of the ſtuff, and of little ſtrings, ſtretched from one vergee to the other, which are called leiſhes. In the middle of each leiſh there is a loop, or little ring, of thread, horn, or glaſs, to receive one of the threads of the warp, which paſs through the loops of one lam; and between the leiſhes or threads of the other lam; and thoſe which paſs through the loops of the ſecond lam play freely between the threads of the firſt, ſo as to be able to deſcend, while the other aſcends: and thus theſe two lams being, near their ends, faſtened to a common cord, paſſed round a pulley at top, and at bottom to another cord, which ſupports a treddle, lying under the workman's feet; if he lowers the fore-lam with his left foot, the other lam muſt riſe up: the reverſe happens upon a contrary motion.

If there are a greater number of lams, to vary or figure the ſtuff, certain parcels of threads are thus raiſed and lowered at a time, whereby divers openings are made, to receive the throw of the ſhuttle. As often as the foot is changed, and the warp receives a new throw of the woof, the batten cloſes it, more or leſs, according to the quality of the ſtuff. When the increaſe of the ſtuff hinders the play of the batten, there is as much of the warp rolled off the cane-roll, as of the ſtuff rolled on the lower great cylinder.

Concerning the manner of guiding the threads of the warp, through the rings of the jack, on the warping-mill; of managing the ſeparation of the threads of the portee; of uniting ſeveral portees into one chain; and of making one entire warp of them all; of bruſhing, or moiſtening it with ſize, to make the threads glide eaſier in working; of mounting it on the loom, by faſtening it in a groove of the little roller; of paſſing the threads in good order through the teeth of the reed, and then dividing theſe ſame threads, and making ſome of them go through the loops of one lam, and between the leiſhes of the next, and others between the leiſhes of the firſt, and through the loops of the ſecond; of fixing and maintaining the diviſions of the threads, by the inſertion of ſeveral rods, which prevent their mixing; of facilitating, in fine, the unwinding and play of the warp and woof, by the uſual precautions, and proper tools: theſe operations are eaſily comprehended at firſt ſight. But their number is ſo great, that, if the workmen did not uſe great diſpatch, by every one conſtantly plying to his own part, ſheep's wool either would never be converted into clothing, or would bear too high a price for the common people*. Let us not remain unacquainted with what ſhews the greateſt induſtry, after the play of the lams.

* Since ſuch exquiſite dexterity in the manual operation is required by all any way practically concerned in the woollen manufacture, do not all our national advantages, ariſing from the woollen manufacture, depend upon our maintaining a ſucceſſion of the beſt artiſts and manufacturers, who are to act in every part hereof? for they are not bred in a few years. Ought not the wiſdom of the nation to be alarmed at thoſe daily artifices which are uſed to decoy and inſtigate our artiſts and manufacturers out of the kingdom, to the emolument of other countries, and the certain ruin of this? And can any thing effectually do this, but giving them all due and reaſonable encouragement to prevent their forſaking the kingdom?

The ſhuttle is a piece of hard wood, that runs tapering to a point at both ends, and has a cavity in the middle, called the box, or chamber, for receiving the quills.

The quill is a ſmall pipe of reed, on which a proper quantity of the thread of the woof has been wound, and which plays on the ſhuttle-pin.

The

The ſhuttle-pin is an iron wire, which runs through the quill, and with it is ſet in the chamber of the ſhuttle. It is put in, ſecured, and taken out, by the different action of a ſpring at the end of the chamber, where the ſhuttle pin is placed.

As the ſhuttle runs through the warp, the thread of the woof, which ſlips through a hole, or eye, in the ſide of the ſhuttle, and has been faſtened to the lizier, muſt run off the quill, which runs round as the ſhuttle goes on. When this quill is emptied, another is put in it's place; and the ends of the threads of the two quills are laid cloſe to one another, without knotting, only taking care to manage the throw of the ſhuttle, ſo as to be ſure of keeping both thoſe ends of the woof together.

The head of the piece is ſome few inches of the ſtuff, made with a different ſort of woof from the reſt. The names of the workmen and place are wrought in it, in France eſpecially: and afterwards the lead-ſeals are put to it, which are, or ought to be, a teſtimony of it's being examined, and found to be of good materials, and of the breadth and quality required by the laws for the reſpective ſorts.

The temple is compoſed of two flat notched rulers, ſecured one over another by a ſliding ring, and having pins and points at their ends. The workman faſtens the two ends, full of points, or ſpikes, to the two liziers, or liſts, which are the outer threads of the width of the ſtuff, and by bringing the vergees, or laths, more or leſs forward, he keeps the ſtuff conſtantly of an equal breadth.

If he did not take care to temple his ſtuff, the woof would ſhrink unequally, and bring the threads of the warp nearer together in ſome places, and in others farther aſunder; but, by removing his temple from time to time, to keep it near the laſt throws of the woof, he ſtrikes the woof in upon a ſquare, and ſo as to make it receive the ſtroke of the batten equally in every part.

The workman continues to throw the ſhuttle, to temple, and to wind off, alternately. When he is come to the end of the piece, he takes another ſort of thread for the woof, as he had done at beginning it, and makes a ſtripe of a different colour, for the names and ſeals, as above. Theſe two ends are called the head and the fag-end.

To ſteam a little ſtuff, as is done at Amiens, Rheims, and Le Mans, is to render it ſupple, by expoſing it to the ſteam of boiling water, in a ſquare kettle, or copper, where it is laid, ſtill on it's roller, with other pieces. This operation diſpoſes it for dreſſing well.

The fullery is a water-mill, for working great mallets on ſtuffs, either to cleanſe them, or thicken them to the conſiſtence of felt.

The ſtocks, or fuller's pots, are hollow veſſels, to hold the ſtuffs, which are continually turned under the ſtrokes of the mallets.

The leavers, or prominent bars, are the ends of pieces of timber, that run through the axle-tree, or arbour of the wheel, and which, as they paſs, catch the heads of the mallets, raiſe them up, and let them fall, as they go off.

To earth the ſtuff, is to rub it with fuller's earth.

To beat it in the earth, is to full the ſtuff with the earth on it, letting a water-cock run on it at the ſame time.

To ſcour cloth, is to full it, after ſoaping it with black ſoap, which carries off all ſpots.

To clean ſtuff, is to full it without water, 'till it has acquired the utmoſt thickneſs it is capable of, and beyond which it runs into a pap.

When ſtuffs come from the fulling-mill, they are aired, that is, hung out.

The pieces brought from off the poles, or tenters, ought to be made up, that is, properly folded on a table; then gummed at every fold, by ſprinkling the backſide with a ſolution of gum arabic in water.

To ſtretch the ſtuff, is to paſs it from one roller to another, keeping it conſtantly of the ſame breadth, over a braſier, by means of an iron bar, on which it ſlides; whereby the heat penetrates, and breaks it's ſtiffneſs: and, by thus paſſing ſeveral times from one roller on another, it is rendered pliant in every part alike.

There are ſome ſtuffs that are unrolled and rolled without fire: but it is always allowed to ſuch as are to be dreſſed very well.

The effects of this ſtretching are, 1. To ſmooth, or take out the bad folds; 2. To gum the whole piece equally, by the fire's ſpreading the moiſture every-where, which evaporates, and leaves the gum behind. 3. To ſtretch the whole in an uniform manner, which is of great conſequence in the wear of ſtuffs.

They are folded near a good fire.

They are leafed, by putting a leaf of paſteboard hot, between every two folds.

They are put between two thick boards of box, which take in the whole pile of folds.

They are left 10 or 12 hours in a ſtrong preſs: and this is repeated three or four times.

They are viſited for the laſt time; and, after drawing out the two ends, called the head and fag-end, the lead-ſeals, tickets, and other marks are put on, which denote the quality, breadth, length, dye, and other things preſcribed by the laws. Then they are put into the preſs again, and ſtitched, by ſecuring the folds looſely with thread, run through the liziers.

There are ſome other practices, peculiar to different manufactories; but they all tend to the ſame end.

Cloth is not ſtretched on the rollers; but, after having been fulled, teazled, tentered, or hung on the rack, ſhorn twice, cottoned, and the pile laid ſmooth one way, it is gummed, or folded on leaves, put to the preſs, the leaves are changed, and, inſtead of thick coarſe paſteboards, other thinner and ſmoother, called cards, are put between the folds: it returns to the preſs, or elſe to the calenders, which gives it it's laſt gloſs.

Of ſome of the principal laws of England, with regard to the manufacture of woollen cloth.

The woollen manufacture has, for ſeveral ages, been the care of this kingdom; inſomuch that near a hundred ſeveral acts of parliament have, from time to time, been made to ſupport, regulate, and encourage it.

Clothiers ſhall pay their work-folks in ready money, and not in wares, on pain of forfeiting treble damages, or ſums due to ſuch work-folks; and ſhall deliver them wool according to due weight: forfeiture on every default 6 d.

Every juſtice of peace, conſtable, &c. to hear and determine ſuch complaints, with power to commit the offender, 'till the party aggrieved be ſatisfied. 17 Edw. IV. c. 1.

By ſtat. 1. Geo. I. c. 15. the penalty of clothiers impoſing goods on their work-folks in lieu of money, is 40 s. juſtices of peace, and head officers, to appoint and ſwear officers, for the due obſerving of the ſtat. of 3 and 4 Edw. IV. c. 6. concerning the well ordering of cloth, with power to ſearch accordingly: forfeitures to be divided between the king and overſeers.

No overſeer, duly choſen, to refuſe the office, on pain of 40 s. and once every quarter to make due ſearch, on pain of 10 l. None ſhall interrupt overſeers in their office, on pain of 20 l. None ſhall take advantage of the forfeitures given by this act, unleſs ſuit be commenced within one year after they accrue. 3 and 4 Edw. III. c. 2. Cloths faulty in weight or meaſure, expoſed to ſail by retail, forfeited; to be divided into three parts, the firſt to the king, the ſecond to the juſtice, and third to the informer. Perſons not trying cloths to be bought and ſold, and not ſeizing and preſenting them, if faulty, forfeit double the value of the cloth.

Note, All ſtatutes repugnant to this repealed. Two juſtices of the county, and chief magiſtrates in corporations, impowered to hear complaints. 3 and 6 Edw. VI. c. 6.

Two juſtices in counties, and chief officers in corporations, to appoint and ſwear overſeers and ſearchers for faulty cloth. Juſtices may ſearch after and ſeize ropes, winches, and engines uſed for ſtretching northern cloths: who oppoſe, forfeit 10 l. 39 Eliz. c. 20. and, by 21 Jac. 1. overſeers may do the like.

All penalties for want of length, breadth, or weight, to be equally divided into three parts; one to the ſearchers, and two to the poor of the pariſh. See ſtat. 21 Jac. I. c. 18. how to be recovered. Theſe penalties under power of juſtices of peace.

Two juſtices in a county, and chief officer if in a corporation, with another, may order ſatisfaction (double value by 1 Ann.) or the offender to be whipped and put in the ſtocks.

A ſorter, carder, comber, ſpinſter, or weaver of wool, found guilty by confeſſion, or oath of one witneſs, of embezzling or detaining wool, and the receiver, is liable to the ſame puniſhment. 7 Jac. I. c. 7.

Juſtice negligent in appointing overſeers, or otherwiſe, in his duty, according to 39 Eliz. forfeits 5 l.

Juſtices have power to determine theſe offences in their ſeſſions; and to be convicted by juſtices of aſſize, upon proof of two witneſſes, if negligent.

Two juſtices may call before them any ſuſpected of making deceitful cloth; who is found guilty ſhall forfeit 5 l. or ſuffer impriſonment, 21 Jac. I. c. 18.

Overſeer, when choſe, on refuſal, forfeits 5 l. and to be committed 'till paid, by 39 Eliz. c. 20. He muſt ſearch once a month for defects in the northern cloths, 39 Eliz. c. 20. And muſt fix a leaden ſeal to each cloth, containing the length and breadth, which exempts from further ſearch. And any other perſon taking away ſuch ſeal without warrant, and convicted by oath of two witneſſes, or verdict, forfeits for the firſt offence 10 l, for the ſecond 20 l; one part to the king, another to the informer, and the third to the poor of the pariſh; and the offender to ſtand in the pillory, 39 Eliz. c. 20. Any perſon, beſides the overſeer, fixing a ſeal without a warrant, is liable to the ſame penalties. A ſearcher may enter any houſe, or other place, to find bad cloth, and, if he find any, ſhall ſtamp the word (faulty) on the ſeal; but he muſt not ſearch cloth ſearched before, on pain of 5 l. See ſtat. 12 Car. II. c. 22. relating to the manufacture of bays at Colcheſter.

Yorkſhire cloths muſt be of lengths and breadths preſcribed by 7 Ann. c. 13. and 1 Geo. I. c. 15. on penalty of 20s. conviction before one juſtice, by oath of the overſeer of cloth, or any other witneſs.

Owner of every fulling-mill ſhall affix a ſeal of lead, with his name, and length and breadth of cloth, when wet, on penalty of 20s. Every perſon who takes off, defaces, counterfeits, or alters the figures on the ſeal of the cloth before ſold, or that ſtretches or ſtrains cloth when wet, more than allowed by the act, or occupier of the fulling-mill cauſing to be milled in any one ſtock, at the ſame time, more than one whole, or two half broad-cloths, forfeits 20s. conviction as before, penalty to the poor of the pariſh, where, &c. and informer. Not paying in ſeven days, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale; or ſent to the houſe of correction; information in ten days; appeal to quarter-ſeſſions, &c. 7 Ann. c. 13.

By 10 Ann. c. 16. all mixed or medley broad-cloth ſhall be meaſured at the fulling mill, after it is milled, by the maſter of the mill, who ſhall firſt take oath (refuſal 20l. penalty by 1 Geo. I. c. 15.) before ſome juſtice, that he will truly perform ſuch meaſuring (the juſtice to give him a certificate of his having ſo done) and ſhall fix to it, before carried away, a ſeal of lead, and rivet the ſame, with his name ſtampt, mentioning in figures the length and breadth, for which the owner ſhall pay him a penny. The numbers ſo ſtamped to be a rule of payment to the buyer, except any part be damaged, and taken off, and then the reſt to be again meaſured, ſealed, &c.

If the maſter of the mill refuſe or neglect to affix ſuch ſeal, or any perſon afterwards take it off, deface, or alter the figures before the cloth is ſold; and if the buyer refuſe to accept the ſame, according to ſuch meaſure; the offender, convicted on oath, forfeits 20s. (by 1 Geo. I. c. 15. 20l.) for each cloth.

No clothier, fuller, &c. after ſuch cloth is fully wet, ſealed, and ſtamped, ſhall ſtretch it above one yard in twenty yards length, or above one nail in a yard in breadth, on penalty of 20s.

Every mill-man to keep in his mill a table, or board 12 feet long, and 3 feet wide, whereon the cloth ſhall be creſſed, and laid plain, with the length of a yard marked thereon, with one inch more, viz. 37 inches long, and in default thereof he forfeits 10l.

Every clothier, cloth-maker, &c. ſhall make payment in money for work done, and not impoſe goods or wares, on forfeiture of 20s.

Offences herein to be heard and determined by one or more juſtices where committed (the juſtice not to be concerned in the matter of the complaint) on oath of one witneſs; all penalties are one half to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh. Payment, refuſed for fourteen days after conviction, to be levied by diſtreſs; or the offender committed to gaol, or houſe of correction, 10 and 12 Ann. c. 20, 21.

This act not to extend to any cloth made or manufactured in the county of York, nor to invalidate any of the powers contained in the ſtat. 7 Ann. for aſcertaining the lengths and breadths of woollen cloth made in the county of York.

All mixed or medley cloth ſhall, at the buyer's inſtance, be put into water, and then meaſured by two indifferent perſons, one choſen by the buyer, the other by the ſeller; if they cannot agree, a third to be choſen; he refuſing, the keeper of Blackwell-hall, in London, to determine it, being firſt ſworn before ſome juſtice to admeaſure truly; if not in London, then by the magiſtrate or chief officer of ſuch place where, &c. as aforeſaid; 6d. for meaſuring to be paid by the buyer: if not the length or breadth mentioned on the ſeal, every ſuch clothier, &c. to forfeit the ſixth part of the value, conviction on oath before one juſtice. Owner or mill-man of any fulling-mill, refuſing to take oath for true admeaſuring cloth, &c. or to fix a ſeal of lead, with his name, &c. or to enter in a book in manner aforeſaid, forfeits 20s. to Chriſt's Hoſpital, if in London; if elſewhere, to the poor, &c. Note, the forfeiture of 20l. diſchargeth the forfeiture of 20s. buyer of, &c. to give two days notice to the ſeller, that his cloth ſhall be wetted for proof or admeaſurement.

Mixed or medley broad-cloths to be ſtamped with the watch-meaſure, or ſeal of the maſter, &c. by whom wetted. Clothier ſelling ſuch cloth, before ſealed and ſtamped as aforeſaid, forfeits the 6th part of the ſaid cloth.

Perſons aggrieved may appeal to quarter-ſeſſions, who may finally determine and give coſts. Not to affect any factor or his agent, only employed in the ſale of, &c. All perſons concerned in the woollen manufacture to pay their ſervants in money, not in goods or wares, on penalty of 40s. to be recovered and diſpoſed as before. Yorkſhire cloths, called, &c. ſhall be of ſuch meaſure, &c. See the act, on penalty of 20s. and 40s. penalty for any perſon to put any other name on his cloths than his own, 1 Geo. I. c. 15.

Any juſtice, overſeer, &c. may ſearch for tenters, &c. for the firſt offence he may deface them, for the ſecond ſell them, 48 Eliz. c. 10.

Juſtices, on information, muſt execute this law in ſeven days, on penalty of 5l. Clothiers refuſing to pay wages aſſeſſed at the ſeſſions, and convicted before two juſtices, forfeits 10s. to the party grieved, 1 Jac. I. c. 8.

By ſtat. 12 Geo. I. all contracts, &c. and all by-laws, in unlawful clubs and ſocieties, between wool-combers or weavers, on any account relating to their craft, are illegal and void; and any concerned, keeping up ſuch combination, being convicted on oath, ſhall be ſent either to the houſe of correction, not exceeding three months, or to the common goal.

By ſtat. 13 Geo. I. no maker of mixed medley or white cloth ſhall uſe any warping-bars, but only of the meaſure and length following, viz. every long warping-bar to be in length three yards three inches, and no more; and every round warping-bar four yards and four inches round, and no more; the thrums at the end of the bars not to exceed 18 inches in length, on forfeiture of 10l.

Every maker to give out wool, yarn, &c. by weight, at the rate of 16 ounces to the pound, and to receive back the ſame by the ſame weight without fraud, on forfeiture of 10l.

No clothier ſhall uſe any ends of yarn, wefts, or other refuſe (flocks and pinions only excepted) by working them up again, on pain of 3l.

Proſecutions to be heard by two or more juſtices—and the penalties levied by diſtreſs under their warrants, or the offender committed, not exceeding three months, or 'till ſatisfaction is made.

All diſputes relating to work, wages, &c. between clothier and weaver, to be heard by two or more juſtices, where the diſpute ſhall ariſe, who are to ſummon the parties, examine, &c. and give ſuch ſatisfaction and coſts, as to them ſhall ſeem reaſonable, to be levied by diſtreſs, &c.—

Perſons aggrieved may appeal to next quarter-ſeſſions, on ſix days notice given in writing of ſuch appeal; the orders and coſts there given to be final, and levied by diſtreſs, &c.

On information on oath, that any perſons are (or are ſuſpected to be) guilty of any of the ſaid ill practices, any two or more juſtices are to iſſue out their warrants to any conſtable, &c. directing to enter any houſe, or other ſuſpected place, to ſearch for and examine all bars and weights uſed by any clothier or maker of woollen cloths; who forfeit 5l. on interrupting ſuch officer in the execution of his office. Any peace-officer by warrant may ſearch any end-gatherer, his bag, or other convenience, for ends of yarn, wefts, &c. which if found (flocks and pinions only excepted) he ſhall carry him before one or more juſtices where he ſhall be found, and on conviction ſhall be deemed a dangerous and incorrigible rogue, and puniſhed as directed by ſtat. 12 Ann.

Every maker ſhall pay the weaver according to the number of yards that the chains are laid on the warping-bars, on forfeiture of 5l.

Every owner of tenters or racks in the counties of Glouceſter, Wilts, and Somerſet, ſhall meaſure his tenters, &c. and mark in figures the true length in yards upon the top bar; and on the foreſide, each yard 36 inches, to which ſhall be added one inch in lieu of the over meaſure, on pain of 5l.

Juſtices for the ſaid counties, in their Eaſter quarter-ſeſſions to chuſe certain ſkilful men for inſpectors yearly, allowing each not exceeding 30l. per annum, which inſpectors ſhall, at reaſonable times, inſpect every mill, ſhop, &c. of clothiers, mill-men, and others, and to meaſure every tenter, and cloth before it be carried thence; ſtamping his name on a lead-ſeal, to be furniſhed by the maker, and fixed on every cloth, regiſtering the clothier's, or other perſon's name, the number, length, &c. of every cloth made in their diviſions: clothiers, makers, &c. refuſing the inſpector's entrance, forfeit 10l. and an inſpector acting againſt his oath 20l.

Every maker of mixed or medley woollen broad-cloth ſhall pay to the inſpectors 2d. a piece for every cloth he makes, before the cloths are ſent away from the mills; and the inſpectors, every three months, muſt pay the money to the treaſurer of the county, to be applied by direction of the quarter-ſeſſions, towards the ſalaries of inſpectors; every mill-man, ſending home cloths not inſpected, forfeits 40s. for every piece.

This act not to make void any powers given by charter, or act of parliament, to the corporation of clothiers in the city of Worceſter.

Every proſecution for clothiers paying their labourers, in any other manner than in money, ſhall be commenced within three months next after the offence committed.

Any perſon, ſued in purſuance of this act, may plead the general iſſue, and give this act, and the ſpecial matter, in evidence; and if the plaintiff be nonſuited, &c. or a verdict be for the defendant, he ſhall recover treble coſts.

Yorkſhire cloths.

Stat. 4 and 5 P. and M. c. 5. contains variety of directions and penalties; but they are recoverable by action, &c. Stat. 39 Eliz. c. 20. was made for the counties north of Trent, and directs, ſealing, length, breadth, and weight, and prohibits overſtraining, or deceitful ſtretching or tentering. And overſeers appointed by the juſtices, to viſit houſes, &c. where cloths are; and if not found ſealed, &c. they are forfeited, and the overſeers may ſeize, and preſent them to the

juſtices

juſtices at the quarter-ſeſſions, to be diſpoſed as the ſtatute directs.

By ſtat. 7 Ann. c. 13. any clothier in Yorkſhire making, or expoſing to ſale, broad-cloths, which, after well ſcoured and milled, ſhall be leſs than five quarters and a half within the liſts, and an end or half-cloth leſs than 23 yards in length, and a long or whole cloth leſs than 46 yards in length; and whole thick kerſeys, and whole thick plains, leſs than 17 yards and an half long, and three quarters and a half broad, when fully wet; forfeits 20s. for every inch wanting in breadth; and for every yard the long cloths ſhall exceed 46 yards, and the half cloths 23 yards; and for every half yard the thick kerſeys, and thick plains, ſhall be ſhorter than 17 yards and an half. Mill-man in Yorkſhire, not fixing a ſeal of lead riveted and ſtamped, with his name at each end of the cloth, before it is carried from the mill, containing the number of yards and inches in the cloths, in length and breadth, when wet, ſcoured and milled; or if any other perſon take off, deface, counterfeit, or alter the figures, before the cloth is exported, or ſold to retailers, or ſtretch a piece of cloth more than an inch in breadth in a quarter of a yard, or piece of broad-cloth more than a yard in length in 20 yards, or the whole thick kerſeys, and whole thick plains, more than half a yard in every 17 yards and a half; or any fuller, milling or fulling in one ſtock, at the ſame time, more than one whole broad-cloth, or two half broad-cloths, ſhall, for every offence, forfeit 20s. The conviction to be on oath of any ſearcher of cloth for Yorkſhire, or of one witneſs before a juſtice, &c. who is neither a merchant or trader in the woollen manufacture. The forfeiture, not paid within ſeven days, to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, by warrant of the juſtice, &c. before whom the offender was convicted; half to the informer, the other to the poor of the pariſh, &c. or to be ſent to goal, or houſe of correction. The penalties to be inflicted within ten days after the offence committed or diſcovered.

By ſtat. 1 Geo. I. c. 15. all Yorkſhire cloths, called whole thick kerſeys, whole thick plains, huggabags, and broken-quilled kerſeys, not to be under 18 yards in length, or leſs than three quarters and an half broad, by the ſtandard yard-wand, when fully wet, and to be ſealed as Yorkſhire cloths are directed by the act 7 Anne, and under the ſame penalties.

Any clothier, &c. ſelling cloths wanting one inch in breadth, or half a yard in length, forfeits 20s; or ſtretching them above an inch in a quarter of a yard, or above half a yard in length, forfeits the like; or fixing other mark than his own chriſtian and ſurname, and place of reſidence, forfeits 50s. to be levied as mentioned in that act.

Penalties to be inflicted within twenty-one days.

By ſtat. 11 Geo. I. every woollen broad-cloth made in the Weſt Riding of the county of York, whether it be an end or half cloth, or a long or whole cloth, being well ſcoured and fully milled, to be five quarters and half by the ſtandard yard-wand in breadth, within the liſts in the water, being fully wet; and every ſuch cloth, called an end, not to exceed in length 24 yards, nor a whole cloth 48 yards.

Any clothier convicted of making or ſelling cloths not of the ſaid breadths, or which exceed the ſaid lengths, ſhall for every inch ſhort of breadth, and yard exceeding in length, forfeit 20s. But cloth in ſome parts of it (not exceeding one fifth of the whole length) falling ſhort in the breadth, without wilful default of the maker, may be ſold without incurring any penalty.

All woollen broad-cloth ſhall be meaſured at the fulling-mill, after 'tis fully milled, ſcoured, and thoroughly wet, by the maſter of the mill, who is to take an oath to meaſure it truly, who ſhall rivet a ſeal of lead, to be furniſhed by the clothier, at each end of the cloth, with his name at length, and the length and breadth of the cloth in figures, for which he ſhall be paid 2s. a quarter. Mill-man, failing herein, forfeits 5l. If a buyer ſuſpect the cloth, in ſix days after delivery, he may, on two days notice to the ſeller, wet the cloths four hours, and cauſe to be meaſured by two indifferent perſons, or a fit perſon nominated by the next juſtice, to be ſworn; and, if found deficient one fifth in length, the ſeller ſhall forfeit one ſixth part of the cloth to the poor; and the buyer at liberty, within three days, to return the cloth to the ſeller, and be repaid all the money and charges aſcertained on his oath, and recoverable by warrant from one or more juſtices, not dealers in woollen cloth.

Any clothier not weaving his name and place of abode at length into the head of his cloth, or expoſing to ſale without ſuch mark, or altering the ſeals, &c. forfeits 5l.

Every woollen broad-cloth ſhall be dreſſed in all parts alike, and every cloth-dreſſer's name affixed in lead, on pain of 5l.

Owners of tenters to mark the lengths in figures on the top bar of every tenter, on forfeiture of 5l. for every tenter not ſo numbered.

Juſtices may appoint ſearchers, with a ſalary not exceeding 15l. per ann. who may, by direction of a juſtice, enter in the day-time into any mill-houſe, ſhop, &c. to ſearch for cloth over-ſtretched, and meaſure any they ſuſpect; reſiſting them is 10l. penalty, and 5l. to the owner, if the ſearcher diſcover any frauds.

Every ſearcher to be ſworn to act to the beſt of his ſkill; if contrary, ſhall forfeit 20l. But he is not to examine cloth packed up for exportation, unleſs by warrant on oath of witneſſes on ſuſpicion of fraud; if none be found, the informer to pay the merchant 5s. for each cloth ſo unpacked.

None who have not ſerved ſeven years (clothiers widows and perſons marrying them excepted) ſhall make any broad-cloths in the ſaid Weſt Riding, on forfeiture of 10l. for every month.

None ſhall uſe cards of iron-wire or other metal in dreſſing cloth, on pain of 50l. but information to be within twenty days. And all convictions for offences to be on oath of one or more witneſſes, by one or more juſtices. The penalties to be divided between the informer and poor of the pariſh; not paid within ten days, to be levied by diſtreſs, &c. under warrant of the juſtices, or be committed to the houſe of correction.

Perſons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter-ſeſſions on ten days notice.

All actions to be brought in Com. Ebor. and not elſewhere.

Perſons ſued may plead the general iſſue, &c. and recover treble coſts.

By ſtat. 11 Geo. II. every maker of narrow woollen cloth, within the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire, to weave the initial letters of his name on every piece he makes (white kerſeys and half thicks excepted;) and, when fully wet, to be meaſured at the fulling-mill both by the millman and ſearcher. Each of whom ſhall affix a ſeal of lead, with name, length, &c. on pain of 20l. to the maſter, and 5l. to the millman and ſearchers reſpectively.

Every piece of the ſaid cloth ſhall be meaſured by the maker, after 'tis brought from the mill, before it be put on the tenters; if ſhort of the meaſure ſtamped at the mill, to be re-meaſured and re-ſtamped by the millman, on penalty of 5s.

Any dealer in ſuch cloth, after Auguſt 1, 1728, ſtretching the ſame more than one inch in a yard in length, and two inches in three quarters of a yard in breadth, to forfeit for the firſt half yard in length, or inch in breadth, 10s. for every half yard, or half inch, 20s.

Any perſon taking off, defacing, or counterfeiting the ſeals, or letters woven in the cloth, before ſold or cut by the retailer, or exported, forfeits 40s.

A ſum not exceeding 2d. for every piece, to be aſcertained by the quarter-ſeſſions aforeſaid, to be paid by the maker, to whom the juſtices ſhall appoint, for defraying the expence of obtaining and executing the act, as the juſtices ſhall appoint. And the millman, ſearcher, or other perſon appointed, may detain the cloth, 'till ſuch money be paid; and, on non-payment for eight days, may ſell what will ſatisfy the ſame.

All offences againſt this act ſhall be inquired of by a juſtice of the Riding, on oath of a credible witneſs, and notice firſt given to the party accuſed; the penalties of conviction, the charge of it being firſt deducted, to go one half to the informer, the other to the treaſurer of the Riding for the purpoſes of the act. And, if not paid within ten days, to be levied by diſtreſs, &c. or be committed to the houſe of correction for one month.

Proſecution againſt millman, &c. to be in eight days, and againſt clothier, &c. one month, and all proſecutions for penalties in one month after the offence.

Perſons aggrieved may appeal to the next quarter-ſeſſions, who may allow coſts, and their order to be final.

Clothiers may make their narrow cloths of what length and breadth they think fit.

Such cloths made in the ſaid Weſt Riding, as are milled in the counties of Lancaſter, Cheſter, or Derby, muſt be brought to the next fulling-mill, &c. under the penalty above.

Actions muſt be commenced in Com. Ebor. and all perſons, &c. may plead the general iſſue; and, if judgment be againſt the defendant, the penalty to have treble coſts, to be deemed a public act.

See the ſtat. 14 Geo. II. touching the better regulating of officers in the cloth trade, and the better ordering of cloth in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire.

For more matter on this head, ſee the article Wool.

Remarks.

To avoid being prolix, I ſhall not particularize the various penſions, indulgences, and other extraordinary encouragements, that have liberally been given in France, from time to time, to engage many ſkilful maſters and artificers of various kinds, who have undertaken to ſet up fabrics of cloths, &c. that now flouriſh in that kingdom; for the improvement of which it appears from an arret of 1664, that Lewis XIV. yearly appropriated a million of livres; (which, according to the value of money at that time, was conſiderably more than at preſent;) excluſive of indulgences in the cuſtoms, and ſeveral other ways.

'I have, ſays M. Savary, already had occaſion, more than 'once, and ſhall hereafter be obliged, to ſpeak of ſeveral 'maſters, that have made themſelves famous in France, by 'ſetting up different ſorts of manufactories. This would 'be a proper place to take notice of the many perſons, emi-

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'nent for undertakings of this kind, ſince the French turned 'their thoughts this way, and particularly ſince the reign of 'Henry IV. but, as they are very numerous, I ſhall attempt 'only to give ſome account of two, who are ſo much di'ſtinguiſhed in their profeſſion, and to whom France is ſo 'far obliged, that they no longer envy the beautiful cloths, 'black as well as other colours, that are made in Spain, 'England, and Holland, ſince they themſelves have ſet up 'this fabric, and raiſed it to the utmoſt perfection. One of 'theſe is Nicholas Cadeau, to whom the manufacture of Se'dan owes it's birth and perfection; the other Joſſe Vanro'bais, who ſet up that of Abbeville, which has been, and 'ſtill is, in high reputation.

'The former, a native of France, entering into partnerſhip 'in the year 1646, with John Binet and Yves de Marſeilles, 'two merchants of Paris, rich and able as himſelf, obtained 'a patent granted at Fontainbleau, for his new manufacture, 'in the month of July the ſame year.

'1. By this patent, the partners obtained the privilege of 'being, for the ſpace of 20 years, the ſole directors of the 'manufacture of woollen cloths, black as well as all other 'colours, that ſhould be made after the fabric and manner 'of Dutch cloths.

'2. The three directors and their children, that were already, 'or ſhould hereafter be born, were made nobility, and ho'noured with all the titles and privileges the noble families of 'FRANCE enjoy.

'3. A ſpecial commiſſion was granted to them and their 'iſſue, during the 20 years of their patent.

'4. Their foreign workmen were declared denizens, and 'both the French and foreigners diſcharged from all taxes, 'ſubſidies, quartering of ſoldiers, &c. and the ſame immunity 'was alſo extended to the houſes or lodgings of the directors, 'and every place, where the fabrics ſhould be carried on.

'5. The cloths made in their manufactory were exempt from 'being viſited by the civil officers, or the maſters and wardens 'of the trading companies; and the king reſerved to himſelf 'the right of judging all offences againſt this ordinance, 'if any ſhould happen.

'6. They were allowed to ſet up a brewery for malt liquor, 'both for the uſe of themſelves, their family and clerks; 'and alſo to ſell it to their workmen without paying any ex'ciſe, tax, &c. during the ſaid 20 years.

'7. Laſtly, his majeſty, willing to add profit to theſe ho'nours, not only gave an annual penſion of 500 livres to 'each of the three directors during life, but alſo granted 'them the ſum of 8000 livres yearly, during the 20 years of 'their patent. This he gave as a donation to them and their 'heirs, to relieve the great expence ſuch an eſtabliſhment 'could not fail to engage them in at firſt.

'One may ſay, that the ſucceſs went far beyond the hopes 'we at firſt conceived of this new manufactury. The cloths 'which go under the name of Sedans, from the city where 'the fabric was ſet up, may juſtly be eſteemed the moſt beau'tiful of the kind, if thoſe of Abbeville, I am going to 'ſpeak of, had not a party, that contend at leaſt for an 'equality.

'The excluſive privilege of the Sieur Cadeau was upon the 'point of expiring, when Mynheer Joſſe Vanrobais, a Dutch 'merchant, made a propoſal to ſet up a new manufacture of 'fine cloths, at Abbeville in Picardy, in imitation of thoſe of 'Spain and Holland.

'The patent he obtained in the month of October 1669, 'contains the following remarkable clauſes.

'1. That he ſhould ſet on foot 30 woollen looms, with as 'many fulling-mills as ſhould be neceſſary, and procure 50 'Dutch workmen to be employed in the manufactory.

'2. That there be granted paſſports to the workmen, and 'an exemption from the duties, for the looms, cloths, wool, 'and other neceſſaries in this eſtabliſhment.

'3. That proper places be aſſigned him for erecting two 'fulling-mills, one of them a wind-mill, the other a water-'mill, and ſuch buildings as ſhould be wanted for the fabric, 'and to lodge the workmen, with full liberty to chuſe the 'ſaid workmen, even dyers, braſiers, carders, ſheerers, &c. 'and without any of the companies having power to diſturb 'him under a pretence the ſaid workmen are not free.

'4. That he himſelf, his children, partners and workmen, 'that are foreigners, be declared denizens of France, and 'exempt from all taxes, ſubſidies, city impoſts, and quar'tering of ſoldiers.

'5. That he be allowed to build, at his own expence, for 'the uſe of his family and workmen, a brewery exempt alſo 'from exciſe, or other taxes.

'6. Laſtly, to encourage this eſtabliſhment, and defray in 'part the expences the projector would be at in ſetting out, 'the king not only gave him, as a free donation, the ſum of '12,000 livres paid at one time, and the quantity of eight 'minots of ſalt for every year of the 20, which his patent 'contained, at the price ſold to the merchants, but alſo '2000 livres for every loom he ſhould ſet up within the three 'firſt years. However, theſe laſt ſums were granted him 'but as a loan, and were to be repaid without intereſt.

'Joſeph Vanrobais, having punctually fulfilled his engage'ments, obtained, in 1681, a renewal of his patent for 15 'years longer, in his name, and that of Iſaac Vanrobais, his 'eldeſt brother, on condition of ſetting up 50 looms inſtead 'of 30, and, in conſideration of this, the king made him a 'free gift of 20,000 livres, over and above the 80,000 'livres which the loan amounted to, that had been lent him 'during the three firſt years of his former patent.

'In 1698, a third renewal was alſo granted for 10 years to 'Meſſ. Iſaac and Joſeph Vanrobais, brothers and ſons of the 'projector, who had mounted 80 looms in their manufactory, 'In ſhort, the looms in this manufactory exceeding 100 in 'the year 1708, and Joſeph Vanrobais, in partnerſhip with 'his brother Iſaac's widow, ambitious of raiſing new build'ings, and extending farther this happy and great eſtabliſh'ment, which has not perhaps it's like, obtained the ſame 'year a continuation of their patent for 15 more, with new 'privileges and immunities for themſelves, their workmen 'and partners. The king alſo, in favour of the partners, 'gave the nobility leave to enter this aſſociation, without it's 'being any imputation upon their honour.'

Thus far the author extends his account touching the woollen manufactories of Sedan and Abbeville. As to the tapeſtry, and other curious manufactures that have been ſet up, and ſtill continue in the Gobelines, he ſpeaks thus:

'By the name of the Gobelines, we mean a manufactory 'eſtabliſhed in Paris, at the end of the ſuburbs of St Marcel, 'for the fabric of the royal tapeſtry and furniture.

'The houſe where this manufacture is now carried on, was 'built by two brothers, whoſe names were Gobelines, that 'firſt brought to Paris the ſecret of that beautiful ſcarlet dye, 'which has preſerved their name, as well as the little river 'Bievre, on whoſe banks they erected their building, and 'which ever ſince has ſcarce been known at Paris by any 'other name, than that of the river Gobelines.

'In the year 1667, this place changed it's name from the 'folly of the Gobelines, which it had hitherto borne, to 'that of the royal hôtel des Gobelines, by virtue of an edict, 'Lewis XIV. publiſhed the ſame year, in the month of 'November.

'The promoter of this eſtabliſhment was moſt Monſ. Colbert, 'ſuperintendant of the buildings, gardens, arts, and manu'factures of France, of whom it is not poſſible to ſay too 'much, or give too high a commendation, in a Dictionary 'of Commerce, ſince he has done ſo much to make it flou'riſh in this kingdom, and to ſpur on the French to extend 'it to foreign countries, even to the moſt diſtant nations.

'The royal palaces he had quite rebuilt and ornamented, 'particularly the Louvre and the Thuilleries, the latter of 'which had been finiſhed under his direction, and the mag'nificent and inimitable front of the other was almoſt raiſed, 'put this miniſter, who was always attentive to the glory of 'his king and country, upon thinking how to procure fur'niture, ſuitable to the grandeur of the ſuperb buildings the 'king had ordered to be erected.

'With this view Monſ. Colbert collected together ſome of 'the moſt able workmen of the kingdom in all ſorts of ma'nufactures and arts, particularly painters, tapeſtry-weavers, 'engravers, goldſmiths, and workers in ebony. He invited 'alſo into France many of the above profeſſions, who were 'moſt famous in foreign countries. For theſe he obtained 'honourable privileges and conſiderable penſions; and, in 'order to render the eſtabliſhment he projected more ſecure, 'prevailed upon the king to make a purchaſe of the hôtel des 'Gobelines for the manufactory, and to preſcribe ſuch rules, 'as would inſure the continuance, and ſettle the manage'ment of it.

'The edict of 1667, which we have mentioned above, gave 'the finiſhing hand to this project, by the 17. articles it 'contains.

'After the preamble of the edict, in which is inſerted that 'of Henry IV. in 1607, for ſetting up a manufacture of 'tapeſtry in the ſame ſuburbs of St Marcel, and the declara'tions and rules laid down in conſequence of it, the king 'ordains and decrees,

'1. That the manufacture of tapeſtry and other works be 'eſtabliſhed in the hôtel, called des Gobelines, and the houſes 'and parts depending upon it, and belonging to his ma'jeſty; and that over the principal gate be ſet up a marble 'with this inſcription under the arms of France, THE 'ROYAL MANUFACTORY OF THE CROWN-FURNI'TURE.

'2. That the ſaid manufactures, and whatever depends upon 'them, be under the conduct and adminiſtration of the Sieur 'Colbert, ſuperintendant of the buildings, arts, and manu'factures of France, and his ſucceſſors in that office.

'3. That the particular direction of it be under the care of 'the Sieur le Brun, in quality of director, and, in caſe of a 'vacancy, under another director of abilities and ſkill in the 'art of painting, appointed by the ſuperintendant of the 'buildings, to form deſigns for the tapeſtries, ſculpture, and 'other works, to ſee them put in execution, and have the 'conduct and inſpection of the workmen.

'4. That

'4. That the ſuperintendant of the buildings, and the director under him, take care to ſupply the manufactory with good painters, maſters in the art of tapeſtry, goldſmiths, founders, engravers, lapidaries, carvers in ebony and wood, dyers and other good workmen in all the arts and crafts eſtabliſhed in the ſaid hôtel.

'5. That there be every year drawn out and ſtated an account of the maſters and workmen by the ſaid ſuperintendant, in order to their having their wages and ſtipends ſettled, and paid by the treaſurer of the buildings.

'6. That there be maintained in the ſaid manufactory 60 children at the expence of his majeſty; and, for the ſupport of each of them, that there be paid to the director 250 livres, by the ſaid treaſurer, in the ſpace of five years; viz. in the firſt year 100 livres, the ſecond 75, the third 30, the fourth 25, and the 5th 20 livres.

'7. That the children, from their admiſſion into the ſaid houſe, be put into the ſeminary of the director, over which he ſhall appoint a maſter-painter under himſelf, who ſhall have the care of their education and inſtruction, with an intent, that they ſhall be afterwards put apprentice to the maſters of the ſeveral arts and trades ſettled in the ſaid hôtel.

'8. That the ſaid children, after an apprenticeſhip of ſix years, and four years ſervice more in the ſaid manufactories, even apprentices to goldſmiths, though they ſhall not be ſons of maſters, be qualified to take and keep a ſhop in their ſeveral arts and trades, both in Paris, and any other town in the kingdom, without being obliged to undergo an examination, or do more than preſent themſelves before the maſters and wardens of their reſpective arts and trades, for admiſſion into the company without any charge, upon a ſingle teſtimonial of the ſaid ſuperintendant of the buildings.

'9. However, that ſuch of the ſaid children as ſhall have been employed for a year in the manufactures of the ſaid hôtel, with the conſent of their fathers and mothers, and ſhall after that time go away without leave from the ſuperintendant, be incapable of being free of the trade, at which they had been employed in the hôtel.

'10. That the workmen who ſhall have been employed ſix years together in the ſaid manufactories, be admitted in like manner to be maſters in the uſual form as above, upon the certificate of the ſuperintendant of the buildings.

'11. That the workmen employed in the ſaid manufactories be diſtributed in houſes near the hôtel des Gobelines, and that 12 of the ſaid houſes which they ſhall inhabit, have centinels, and be exempt from quartering ſoldiers.

'12. That foreign workmen employed, and actually ſerving in the ſaid hôtel, happening to die, poſſeſs the privilege of natives, and their effects go to thoſe that ſhall legally inherit; and that ſuch of the ſaid foreign workmen as ſhall have laboured there for ten years, be alſo reckoned true and native French, notwithſtanding they ſhall have left the manufactory after the ſaid term; and their inheritance be diſpoſed of as above, without any need of letters of naturalization, or other proof than an extract of the preſent edict, and a certificate from the ſuperintendant of the buildings.

'13. That all the ſaid workmen be exempt from wardenſhips, charges, watch and ward of the city, and other public or perſonal offices, ſo long as they be employed in the manufacture, unleſs it be their own choice.

'14. That they be equally exempt from all taxes and impoſts, even though they ſhould have gone out of places taxable, and in which they had even been aſſeſſed.

'15. That it be allowed the director to ſet up breweries in proper places to ſupply the workmen with beer, without any obſtruction from the company of brewers, or being obliged to pay any tax.

'16. And that the workmen may not be interrupted in their labour by law-ſuits, which they, their families, or domeſtics, may have in ſeveral or different juriſdictions, his majeſty appoints the maſters of the hôtel for the time being, to take cognizance of them upon the firſt action; and, after an appeal, the parliament of Paris.

'17. Laſtly, all merchants and other perſons, of whatever quality or condition they may be, are prohibited from buying or importing the tapeſtries of foreign countries, or to ſell or vend any foreign manufacture, except what was at that time in the kingdom, under the penalty of confiſcation of the ſame, and a fine of half the value of the tapeſtry confiſcated.

'It is from this royal manufactory des Gobelines, that ſo many curious works of all ſorts have proceeded, which ſerve for ornament to Verſailles and Marly, royal palaces that will always raiſe the admiration of foreigners, and be fine monuments of the grandeur of that potent prince for whom they were built, furniſhed, and ornamented. In this hôtel there have been alſo educated ſo many able workmen who have gone out of it ſince it's firſt foundation, and been diſtributed all over the kingdom, and eſpecially in the capital, where they have advanced the polite arts to ſo high a degree, that the French ſcarce any longer envy or lament the curious works of the Greeks and Romans. One may ſay alſo, that tapeſtries were advanced to the higheſt perfection during the ſuperintendance of Monſ. Colbert and Monſ. Louvois; and it is a point in doubt, whether England or Flanders have produced any thing ſuperior to Alexander's battles, the four ſeaſons, the four elements, the royal palaces, and the hiſtory of the principal acts of Lewis XIV. from his marriage to the firſt conqueſt of Franche Compte, wrought at Gobelines, from the deſigns of the famous Monſ. Le Brun. The ſame may be ſaid with juſtice of the tapeſtries Monſ. Louvois cauſed to be made during his ſuperintendancy, after the moſt beautiful originals in the king's cabinet, of Raphael, Julio Romano, and other famous painters in the ſchools of Italy, which he cauſed to be drawn in larger dimenſions by the moſt able French painters, ſuch as La Foſſe, the two Coypels, father and ſon, Jouvenet, Perſon, and many others that were at that time.'

By theſe and the like wiſe and profound meaſures, France has been enabled to ſupplant Great-Britain and Holland in the manufacture of cloth, which they have certainly carried to a very extraordinary perfection.

The care and thoughts the miniſters of France have employed for promoting their own manufactories, and turning every article of their commerce to the national advantage, is ſo very remarkable, that more rational methods could not have been taken, if they had been bred merchants, and their hearts wholly ſet upon regulating their commerce: whereas, with us, it hath been rare to find any who would allow themſelves the time to think properly on theſe ſubjects; inſomuch that when many things have been propoſed, which would apparently tend to the advantage of our commerce, they have been laid aſide as things not worthy of notice. But I am in hopes, that my poor labours in the public ſervice may ſomewhat contribute to induce perſons of diſtinction to pay a little regard to a ſubject, which can only give a permanent value to their landed eſtates, and render their monied property ſecure to their poſterity.

Of the meaſures which have been taken of late years in Spain, to encourage the making of cloth, and other of the woollen manufactures.

The reader will obſerve, that, in many parts of this work, I have kept a watchful eye upon whatever is doing in foreign countries, that may prove any way detrimental to the trade of theſe kingdoms. 'Tis therefore that I have endeavoured, as occaſion offered, to point out what is doing at preſent in Spain, in regard to commerce, and to ſhew how far we may be affected by ſuch meaſures. But, as nothing of this kind can be ſuddenly brought to perfection, it may be neceſſary to take a ſuccinct review of the foundation of what is now hatching in Spain, to the high injury of this nation.

The late king of Spain, October 23, 1718. was pleaſed to diſpatch the following decree to the council of the finances:

'Don John de Goyeneche, having repreſented, that by great induſtry, and at a conſiderable expence, he had founded in his own town of Olmeda de la Cebollo, ſeveral fabrics of cloths, buffs, ſhamois leather, hats, and other commodities, that are uſually imported from abroad, as alſo in New Baztan, and that he had done all this at his own charge: praying that an indulgence might be diſpenſed, for a time, to the ſaid town and it's juriſdiction, in the royal taxes which it is now charged with, for the better improvement and continuation of them, I thought proper to ſend a perſon of integrity and confidence to the ſaid town of Olmeda and it's diſtrict, to examine into the pretenſions of this memorial; and as it has been found, that, in the ſaid town of Olmeda, there were on foot 26 looms, which annually manufacture to the amount of 50,000 yards of cloth, reſembling that which comes from France for the cloathing of the troops; that he had imported the ſaid looms from that kingdom at his own charge, for the uſe of the principal manufacturer, granting him freely the materials, building him a houſe, and providing all the neceſſary utenſils; that he has alſo ſet up ſix other looms, for the fabric droguets and ſcarlets, ſuch as thoſe of Valdemero, in which are employed many perſons of both ſexes, introducing and communicating theſe arts to the natives of SPAIN; and has laid the foundation of a good building for an hoſpital, and another for a ſeminary, which he offers to endow for the reception and education of boys, to be employed in the ſaid fabrics; that, in the place called New Baztan, he has built 22 ſubſtantial houſes of ſtone and mortar, a very ſpacious church, and a houſe contiguous; and has alſo a diſtillery for brandy and hungary-water; a fabric for buff, ſhamois leather, ſoldiers hats, both middling and fine, with all proper utenſils, tan-pits, and other things neceſſary to ſupport theſe manufactories, allowing, at preſent, all the profits to the manufacturer; and that he has, at the ſame time, ſet up looms for ſilk handkerchiefs, ribbons, and girdles, ſuch as are made in Valencia, having drawn over the principal manufacturers, with their wives, chil-

dren,

'dren, and families from France, and the North, and col-
'lected together all such as he found useful in Spain, with
'great industry, labour, and expence, and settled various
'other trades, making such provision as ought to be in a
'town well supported and regulated, by transporting thither,
'at his own charge, families of peasants, giving them a suf-
'ficiency to live upon, and supplying them with tools for
'the cultivation of those lands that were barren and deserted;
'that he is building an inn, for the better entertainment of
'travellers; and, at the same time, has repaired the road
'to Madrid, making a new way for carriages, and shorten-
'ing it where it could be done, and has built a bridge over
'the river Tajuna, all at his own charge; as also a chapel,
'where the workmen, who live remote from the town, may
'hear mass; and has raised several plantations for the refresh-
'ment and advantage of the whole; that the village of Ol-
'meda, exclusive of the workmen, contains 18 families, and,
'for their poverty, are rated but at 13 and a half, and pay
'annually, for their composition, to the royal revenues, 30
'doublons, besides the alcavalas and cientos, which concern
'the said Don John de Goyeneche; and as I am desirous of
'shewing the grateful acknowlegments due to the zeal, ex-
'pence, and industry which have raised this new town, and
'the said fabrics, to the general benefit of these kingdoms,
'and my interest, and that others may be encouraged to imi-
'tate an example so laudible and useful, I have resolved, that
'to the said village of Olmeda de la Cebolla, to the town of
'New Baztan, and all other places within it's jurisdiction,
'no augmentation be made, nor shall be made, to the taxes
'paid by the whole district at this time, during the term of
'30 years, in order to establish, confirm, and improve these
'fabrics, and the new town which has been settled there.
'It shall be examined by the council of the finances; and,
'when it appears what sum they annually pay to all the re-
'venues, taxes, and duties, the instruments necessary for
'putting it in execution, shall be dispatched.'

His majesty, February 14, 1719, vouchsafed to issue out another decree, respecting the same manufactories, as follows:

'In consideration that Don John de Goyeneche had founded
'in the village of Olmeda, and in New Baztan, and it's ju-
'risdiction, various fabrics and manufactories, I was pleased,
'by a decree of October the 23d last year, to order that the
'said village, and it's jurisdiction, should not, for thirty
'years, be charged higher to the royal duties than what they
'were found actually to pay at that time; and now I have
'resolved, that neither the natives of this kingdom, who shall
'apply themselves to the manufactures which the said Goy-
'eneche has introduced in Olmeda, New Baztan, and it's ju-
'risdiction, nor the innkeepers and shopkeepers that supply
'them with provisions, shall find the said occupation any im-
'pediment, or bar, to their obtaining the honourable em-
'ployments of the republic, which can be enjoyed by the
'state, or degree, of labradores; and that all the manufac-
'tures of the said fabrics be, at the same time, exempt for
'thirty years from the alcavalas, cientos, and other duties, in
'every city, town, or place, where the first sale of them shall
'happen, and enjoy also an immunity from the duties of ports,
'custom-houses, and tolls; and this exemption from the alca-
'valas, cientos, &c. is to be understood, and observed in the
'form, and under the restrictions, the same was indulged to
'Don Joseph Aguado, for the cloths of his fabric in Valde-
'mero; and it is also my intention, that the said immunity
'extend to duties of importation upon all the utensils that
'shall be wanted for the several fabrics, the bran, and pastel
'for dyeing, beaver-skins and camels-hair for hats, and fish-
'oil for making buff, but to be also dispensed under the same
'restrictions it was granted to the said Aguado. And, at the
'same time, I have granted to the said Don John de Goye-
'neche, the privilege of purchasing, at prime cost, any ma-
'terials of wool, silk, skins, &c. that he shall want for his
'fabrics, or manufactures, and which shall have been bought
'up for exportation, but not such as shall have been bought
'for other manufactories, or by natives of these kingdoms
'for their own use; but upon condition, that it be within
'the space of one month after those goods shall have been
'bought, which he shall thus take at prime cost; and for
'which Goyeneche is obliged to pay the price, with cost and
'charges, to the very city, town, or place, where they shall
'be at the time of his claiming them. It shall be examined
'by the council of the finances, who shall dispatch the or-
'ders that are proper for putting it into execution, as far as
'relates to them.'

By means of these, and other encouragements dispensed by his majesty, have been established, enlarged, and improved, these fabrics, in the manner explained in various parts of this work; and a greater progress is still expected from the warm zeal and vigorous application of Don John de Goyeneche in this important concern, who, in conducting it, has shewn more regard for the public, than his own private interest; for it is certain, that, in the first years of such establishments, the expence runs higher than the gains, as many have found by experience.

His majesty, in his royal palace of Balsain, was pleased to grant the city of Valladolid an indulgence for their manufactures, mentioned in the following decree, dispatched July 18, 1722, to the council of the finances:

'The board of trade, by virtue of an order, in which I had
'enjoined them to consider of ways and means to revive the
'trade of these kingdoms, and prevent that which foreigners
'carry on in the Indies, has represented to me, that some
'improvement has been made to it by the city of Valladolid,
'which proposes to make an addition to their present manu-
'factories of 50 looms annually, for 20 successive years, to
'each of the fabrics of gold, silver, silk, and wool, provided,
'during such time, no alteration be made in the sum charged
'upon the city to the alcavalas, cientos, and millones, and
'that it continue upon the footing, and pay to these duties,
'revenues, and taxes, the same it did in the year 1713,
'when the city, and the places united with it, were distin-
'guished from the general farm of the province, by the sepa-
'rate composition and contract which the city and it's com-
'panies made, both for the payment of the alcavalas and
'cientos (which, to the end of the same year 1713, was a
'stated sum, by virtue of the privilege it had for that purpose)
'and for an equivalent to the millones; and as it has in view
'the important affair of re-establishing manufactures in these
'kingdoms, in order to revive it's trade, and that the com-
'modities consumed in it may no longer be supplied by fo-
'reigners, and that they be also prevented from introducing
'their goods into the Indies; for, if those provinces be once
'supplied by goods made in this kingdom, it will follow,
'they will no longer send them from other places; being de-
'sirous, at the same time, that the said city of Valladolid,
'by means of new fabrics, may recover itself out of the rui-
'nous situation it at present labours under, and which has
'been owing to the decayed trade, and the unhappy circum-
'stances of the times. Having conformed in every thing to
'this provision as the said board of trade has proposed it to
'me, I have resolved, that, in consequence of it, the coun-
'cil of the finances, and court of the millones, do make
'due provision, that from the 1st of January of this present
'year, to the end of that which comes in 1741, and com-
'prehends 20 years, for which this indulgence is to continue
'in force, that no demand be made upon the said city for
'itself, and the places that are incorporated with it, for the
'alcavalas, cientos, and millones, above what it was charged
'in the said year 1713, by the contract at that time made for
'the payment of them, by the same cities and it's compa-
'nies, under the express condition, that, to obtain this ad-
'vantage, and continue it for the time abovementioned, it
'be obliged to lay before that council, and the court of the
'millones, at the end of every one of the said 20 years, suf-
'ficient proof of having fulfilled it's part, by erecting the looms
'it has proposed to do, in the form and manner to which
'it shall be obliged by the said board of trade. It shall be
'laid before the council of the finances, and the court of
'the millones, in order to be carried into execution.'

This provision of his Catholic majesty has so happily succeeded, that those very manufactories, encouraged by his gracious indulgence, and cherished by an easy and ready market for their commodities, owing as well to their goodness and reasonable price, as the advantageous situation of Valladolid, in the center of Old Castille, and some other provinces, have already been considerably enlarged and improved.

Though his majesty has granted several other privileges and indulgences in favour of different manufactories, I forbear to take notice of all of them here, not so much from their being so very numerous, but, as they are very much alike, a repetition may seem idle; and, therefore, I shall only hint at some of these, and other provisions of his majesty, directed to the same end.

In Madrid has been set up a manufacture of tissues, lute-strings, and other silks, no less curious in the workmanship, than in the colours and mixtures, in imitation of the fabrics at Lyons in France; and this new manufacture has produced such as her majesty was not ashamed to wear.

This happy and successful establishment in Spain has been owing to workmen, and a famous dyer, from the said city of Lyons, procured by his majesty, at the charge of his own royal revenue, and to the encouragement of a house, and supplies of money, which he ordered to be advanced in the infancy of the undertaking, giving also a monthly pension of 15 doublons to the master-dyer, and another of 12 doublons to the head manufacturer.

Without the gates of Madrid has been raised also a fabric of prime tapestry, in imitation of those of Flanders, by a master and workmen, whom his majesty procured from that country, at the charge of the treasury; and they continue in this important manufactory, working for his royal palaces, having the encouragement of houses, work-shops, and indulgences, which his majesty has granted them. And, notwithstanding there be not in either of the fabrics a sufficient number of masters and workmen, for the considerable consumption of this kingdom, yet the main difficulty has been surmounted, which is settling and bringing the manufacture to the perfection already mentioned; for it is an easy thing to enlarge, or add to what is already established upon a good footing. By this plain fact, in the very face of the

court,

court, many perſons might be undeceived, ſays the ſage Spaniard, Uztariz, who believe and propagate a notion (upon what grounds I know not) that in this kingdom we cannot arrive at the perfection we have ſeen in theſe and other manufactures, either on account of the delicacy of the work, as if there was neither genius to invent, nor hands to execute, in Spain; or for the colours, as if his majeſty's provinces did not really ſupply the principal and beſt materials for them; or from our water, which they ſuppoſe not proper for them, even when both the declaration of foreign artificers, and experience, ſhews it to be very fit for dyeing all ſorts of colours; and it is alſo certain, that notwithſtanding foreigners introduced theſe curious fabrics, many Spaniards now join in them, and already make them in equal perfection.

The grand fabric of fine cloths at Guadalaxara is wholly owing to the vigilance and protection of his majeſty, though there has not been yet, in the management of it, the good œconomy which is requiſite, and has been directed by ſeveral of his majeſty's orders. But one great point has been obtained, that many of the good workmen employed in theſe manufactories are Spaniards, and ſome who have been bred up in them, have diſperſed into other parts of the kingdom, which is the principal advantage reſulting from the arrival and introduction of foreign maſters and workmen: therefore no ſcruple ought to be made of bearing the expence of their journey, and their firſt ſettlement. And it well deſerves our notice, that it has been found by experience in Guadalaxara, and other parts, that the Spaniſh women, and even the very young girls, ſpin wool better and quicker than the miſtreſſes of foreign families that inſtructed them, and were brought over for that purpoſe.

By means of a patent, continues the ſame Spaniſh Don, and ſupplies from his Catholic majeſty to Don Joſeph de Aguada, knight of the order of Calatrava, for the fabric of cloth in Valdemero, we have alſo gained the point of manufacturing them in that town, as fine as thoſe of ENGLAND, and of good colours and mixtures, as is manifeſt from the approbation they have received from his majeſty, who has worn them upon ſeveral occaſions.

Further REMARKS.

Upon the whole, in regard to the manufacture of woollen cloth, it is notorious, that France has long ſince not only ſupplied themſelves, but have, more or leſs, ſupplanted us in ſeveral of the capital markets of Europe, where we had much larger vent for that ſpecies of manufacture.—And we have alſo ſeen from the teſtimony of an able Spaniard himſelf, that his Catholic majeſty is actually purſuing the ſteps of France; and that not only in this grand particular, but in great variety of others. [See the articles BISCAY, CATALONIA, and SPAIN].

Nor has the cloth manufacture of this nation a little ſuffered of late years, and is likely to ſuffer more and more by theſe potentates: there are many others, likewiſe, that we uſed far more largely to ſupply therewith than we do at preſent; the Swedes and the Danes, the Auſtrians and the Pruſſians, have followed the example of the Hollanders, and ſettled manufactures of this kind, to our unſpeakable detriment; and our exports of cloth to Ruſſia do not increaſe.

Before we obtained the woollen manufacture in this kingdom, the Flemings we know had the whole in their hands, by means of our wool [ſee the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS]; and, as it ſhifted hands from them to us, ſo we ſhould not be too ſanguine in flattering ourſelves with the impoſſibility that it ſhould ever change hands again, from us to others: it may, at leaſt, be divided among a number of hands, and that will prove equally detrimental to us. The ſpirit that at preſent prevails throughout the whole world for manufactures and commerce in general, ſhould not ſuffer this nation to ſleep in a dull ſecurity of preſerving the intereſts of trade, without vigilantly purſuing them. When we ſee the impending danger, and are thoroughly convinced of it's injurious conſequences, I make no doubt but we have wiſe and upright, and active and powerful men enough in the kingdom, who will beſtir themſelves in behalf of commerce, and will throw in the whole weight of their power to aſſiſt, and give dignity to every adminiſtration that is reſolute to promote it.

CLOVE. The clove is a fruit gathered, while unripe, and dried for uſe. It ſomewhat reſembles a nail in figure; of a rough ſurface, and duſky brown colour, and has on the top a round body, the bigneſs of a pepper-corn. It's ſmell is extremely fragrant and aromatic, the taſte acrid and pungent.

The largeſt and darkeſt-coloured are to be choſen, and which feel oily, when preſſed.

They were not known to the ancient Greeks, but the Arabians were well acquainted with them.

The tree producing them is peculiar to the Molucca Iſlands, where the Dutch cultivate great quantities, whence moſt of the European markets are ſupplied. It grows upwards of 20 feet in height, and it's leaves reſemble thoſe of the bay-tree in ſhape

The cloves are gathered from October to the middle of February, partly by the hand, and partly by means of long twigs, with which they ſtrike them off. They are laid on hurdles, as ſoon as gathered, and a ſmall fire made under them; and afterwards dried in the ſun.

When freſh, they give a fragrant thick oil, on preſſure; on diſtillation, a vaſt quantity of an aromatic oil, part light and yellowiſh, which comes firſt over, but the remainder reddiſh, and ſinks in water.

Cloves are much uſed in foods, and make an ingredient in moſt family wines, or ſpirituous cordials. In medicine they are carminative, and are good againſt all cephalic diſorders from cold cauſes. They ſtrengthen the ſight, and will alone cure many kinds of head-achs. They are alſo cardiacal, and good againſt crudities of the ſtomach; as alſo provocatives to venery, and alexipharmic: the doſe from three grains to ſix or eight, but are ſeldom uſed ſingly, or in their crude ſtate. There is an eſſential oil made from them, per deſcenſum, poſſeſſing all their virtues, and much uſed, both in external application to carious bones, and as a remedy for the tooth-ach, and internally as an ingredient in the rougher cathartic pills.

The antophylli, or ripe cloves, are rarely in the ſhops; the Dutch preſerving them, while freſh, with ſugar, as a ſweetmeat, and are fond of them after meals, to promote digeſtion.

CLOUGH, or DRAUGHT, in trade, an allowance generally of two pounds in every 100 weight, for the turn of the ſcale, that the commodity may hold out weight, when ſold by retail.

COACH, a commodious vehicle for travelling, ſo well known in this kingdom to need no deſcription. Their invention was owing to the French, about the reign of their Francis I. They have, like other things, been brought to their preſent perfection by degrees: at preſent they ſeem to want nothing, either with regard to eaſe or magnificence. Lewis XIV. of France made divers ſumptuary laws for reſtraining the exceſſive richneſs of coaches, prohibiting the uſe of gold, ſilver, &c. therein; but they have been neglected.

Coach-making, with the variety of carriages for the like uſe, is an ingenious buſineſs, the greateſt part of it not being very laborious, and never more in uſe than at this time, ſome of our nobility and gentry even now taking pride in driving themſelves.

They were incorporated into a company in the year 1677, in the reign of king Charles II. and have a ſtand in St. Paul's Church-Yard, in which they ſit to attend the lord mayor of London on the day of his inſtallation.

COAL. That which we call pit-coal is an inflammable foſſil, a ſolid, dry, opake ſubſtance, found in large ſtrata, ſplitting horizontally more eaſily than in any other direction, of a gloſſy hue, ſoft and friable, not fuſible, but eaſily inflammable, and leaving a large reſiduum of aſhes.

Of the hard, duſky, black coal.

This is one of the ſpecies of coal in common uſe in London, and many other parts of the kingdom, and is called Scotch coal, though that name is not ſtrictly applied to this ſpecies alone; but the following kind, more diſtinctively called Welch coal, is often ſold under the ſame denomination. It is a conſiderable firm and compact ſubſtance, of a moderately cloſe texture, and pretty heavy: it is naturally of a rough, rugged, and duſty ſurface, and is uſually ſeen in flat maſſes, though it naturally conſtitutes large and continued ſtrata; but, being of a laminated ſtructure in theſe, it naturally breaks into maſſes of this ſhape in the digging, and theſe more readily ſplit, or break horizontally, than in any other direction, though by no means regularly or evenly in that. It is rough and harſh to the touch, and of a rude and rough ſurface: it is of a very ſtrong and deep black, but not at all gloſſy, and, when broken, is much leſs ſo than any other coal.

It makes no effervеſcence with acids.

Examined by the microſcope, it appears of a tolerable compact and cloſe texture, of an irregularly laminated ſtructure, and conſiderably bright.

It is very readily inflammable, and burns briſkly, giving a bright white flame, and burning away very quick into aſhes, not into cinders, in the manner of the common coal. This is owing to its being more purely bituminous, and regularly inflammable, the maſſes of the common coal becoming extinct before they are half conſumed, theſe never going out 'till they are wholly burned away.

It is dug in great quantities in many parts of the kingdom; about Limington there is ſo much of it, and ſuch quantities are ſent from thence, that in many places it is called Limington coal.

The hard gloſſy coal.

This is a ſpecies of coal ſometimes ſold in London under the name of Scotch coal, but known in many parts of this kingdom under the name of Welch coal, and is much eſteemed for it's burning with leſs ſmoke than any other kind.

It is a very firm and compact body, of a cloſe, even, and regular texture, and conſiderably heavy; it is of a tolerably

ſmooth

ſmooth ſurface, and ſoft to the touch, and is uſually brought to us in moderately large and irregular flat lumps. In the earth it compoſes very large and thick ſtrata, which being of a luminated ſtructure, it naturally falls into maſſes of this ſhape in breaking. It is the hardeſt of all the ſpecies of coal, but it is not nearly ſo hard as the ampelites: it breaks more eaſily horizontally than in any other direction, though not regularly or evenly in that, and, when freſh broken, is very bright and gloſſy, and of a very fine deep black.
It makes no efferveſcence with aqua fortis.
Examined by the microſcope, it appears of a very remarkable even texture, and of a laminated ſtructure, being compoſed of numerous ſmall and thin plates, or flakes, laid cloſely on one another, and each of theſe of many other, much thinner and finer; the microſcope ſhews, however, ſome parts of theſe thinner flakes to be much purer, blacker, and more gloſſy than the reſt.
It is dug in vaſt quantities in Wales, and in many parts of England; it is very readily inflammable, and burns with a bright, vivid, white flame, and almoſt wholly without ſmoak, but does not conſume ſo faſt as the former ſpecies, or burn away at once to aſhes, but makes cinders, like the common.
It is ſo remarkable for it's burning without ſmoak, that, in ſome parts of the kingdom, and in general in Wales, they make malt with it without previous burning.

The friable gloſſy coal.

This is a ſubſtance extremely well known, being the common firing of London, and of the greateſt part of the kingdom. It is dug in different degrees of purity and goodneſs in different places; and the fineſt of this kind is known, among the dealers in coal, by the name of Tanfield-Moor coal, the place where it is dug.
It is a friable ſubſtance, of a ſmooth and even texture, and but moderately heavy, being much lighter than either of the former ſpecies, though heavier than the cannel, or ampelites: it is of an irregular and uneven ſurface, and uſually comes to us in large thick maſſes, in various ſhapes, but not remarkably flat. It conſtitutes immenſe ſtrata in the earth, and is in thoſe of an irregularly-laminated ſtructure, and thence is naturally raiſed in broad and flat, rather than any other ſhaped pieces; but theſe are ſo brittle, that they are eaſily broken tranſverſely, and, therefore, ſeldom retain long their original flat form. It is ſmooth on the ſurface, and ſomewhat ſoft to the touch, and is of leſs hardneſs than any other coal: it breaks with a tolerable even, and very remarkably bright ſurface, and is of a fine deep ſhining black.
It makes no efferveſcence with aqua fortis.
Viewed by the microſcope, it appears of an irregular laminated ſtructure, and cloſe texture, and of a very remarkable brightneſs.
It is very readily inflammable, and does not burn ſoon to aſhes.
It is dug about Newcaſtle in England, whence it has it's name of Newcaſtle coal, and in vaſt plenty in a great many other parts of the kingdom.

Of charcoal.

Another ſpecies of coal is that which we diſtinguiſh by the name of charcoal, and which may be properly ſaid to be an artificial kind of fuel. The proceſs whereby it is made is by calcining or charring of wood, in a kind of occluſo; for, the fuel being ſo covered with earth, as only to admit of the inflammability of the wood, the ſulphur, that would otherwiſe evaporate, becomes in a great meaſure fixed on the ſame body, and thereby renders the fuel of conſiderably greater ſtrength, than the crude wood of itſelf would be: this is owing to ſaving the oleaginous quality of the fuel, which in crude wood goes off. It is therefore that this is made uſe of in divers metallic operations, with more ſucceſs than the crude wood can be. This is an article of conſiderable advantage to many Engliſh gentlemen, whoſe eſtates conſiſt in wood lands.

Of the trade of charcoal in France.

All the charcoal ſold in the city of Paris is brought thither, either by land or water, and the carriage, as well as the general traffic therein, are under divers regulations, the chief of which are as follow:
The coal, deſigned for Paris from the neighbouring provinces, muſt be carried directly thither, without ſtopping elſewhere, by the way for ſale.
Being arrived at Paris, or where-elſe intended, the price thereof is fixed from three days to three days; the meters, on arrival of the coal, being obliged, for that purpoſe, to conſult the magiſtrates.
The dealers therein are obliged to ſell what comes by water in their boats, by their wives, children, and ſervants, and not by agents.
All wet charcoal is prohibited to be ſold, or that which is too ſmall, or otherwiſe defective, without being examined by the proper officer.

Charm, or the ſmaller ſort of coal, muſt be ſold ſeparately, the price of which alſo muſt be fixed by the magiſtrate.
A certain number of boats only are permitted to expoſe their commodity to ſale, at one and the ſame time.
The dealers herein are obliged to have their coal equally good in all parts, to prevent impoſition.

Of pit-coal.

This is a merchandize in which there is a great trade in France. The lockſmiths, farriers, and other artificers, who are obliged to heat their iron to hammer it on an anvil, can't do without it. In England it is the common firing.
Places where it is moſtly got in France are in Auvergne, the mines of Braſſac, near Brionde, in the ſame province; St Stephen in the foreſt, the Niverneze, Bourgogne, Concourſon in Anjou, the neighbourhood of Mezieres and Charleville. (In 1740, were diſcovered at Doué, near Saumure, mines of coal that promiſe greatly. M. D. Janſac laid the plan of different ways for conveying it on the Loire.)
Great quantities of it come alſo from foreign countries, as out of Hainault, and the country of Liege.
England furniſhes a conſiderable quantity of it, which comes uſually by way of Rouen. This laſt is moſt eſteemed; tho' many pretend, that what comes from the mine in Auvergne is not inferior to it; and others give the preference to that of Hainault, becauſe it is fatter, and burns longer.
There are certain officers appointed in the parts of Paris where coals are ſold and uttered, called ſworn coal-meters.
Beſide thoſe who trade by wholeſale in pit-coal at Paris, there are two other ſorts of dealers in it; the one called retail home-dealers, the other foreign dealers, who, as ſoon as their merchandize is diſpoſed of, return home for a freſh loading: the former reſide in the city, and there retail the coal, of which they have boats loaded in the provinces by their agents, who ſend them to Paris.
The difference of trade, carried on by theſe two ſorts of dealers, conſiſts herein, that the former have permiſſion to keep ſtore-houſes, to depoſit their coal in for ſale: whereas the foreign dealers are obliged, as ſoon as they arrive at certain wharfs and havens, to ſell directly, without landing. But theſe have the preference of the others, as to the ſale at the wharfs, the burgeſs-dealers not being permitted to expoſe their coal to ſale, 'till the foreigners have ſold; which, however, is no otherwiſe to be underſtood, than as there is a ſufficiency of foreign merchandize to ſupply the city.
By a general regulation of both the prices, that which is ſet at the firſt expoſing it to ſale, is not to be augmented; and that if, during the ſale, any dealer makes abatement, he ſhall be obliged to ſell at that abated price.
By an order of council of the 6th of September, 1701, concerning merchandizes of Engliſh, Scotch, and Iriſh growth, the cuſtoms inwards for coal coming from thoſe countries, are fixed at 30 s. the barrel, conformable to the order of the 3d of July, 1692, for all ſorts of coal coming from foreign countries.
Pit-coal from Flanders and Hainault, and paſſing through the provinces of Champagne and Picardy, have been included in the ſame order of the 3d of July. But, the maſters of the forges of thoſe two provinces having repreſented the great prejudice that had accrued from it, the king, by a decree of the 19th of June, 1703, enacted, that, for the future, the cuſtoms inward on coals coming from Flanders and Hainault, ſhould be to the magiſtrates of Picardy and Champagne, but 10 s. the barrel of 300 pound weight, inſtead of 30 s.

Stone-coal.

This, which ſome very improperly confound with pit-coal, though they have nothing common, but their inflammability, is a mineral ſtone, dry, and ſulphureous, divers quarries of which are found in many provinces of France, particularly in the Nivernois and Bourbonnois. It is a kind of blackiſh pumice-ſtone, but more cloſe, leſs ſpongy, and much harder and heavier than the true pumice-ſtone. It is commonly ſold in great pieces, ſomewhat like the Holland's turf, but of a leſs regular figure. The fire it makes is lively, and laſts pretty long; but the vapour is hurtful, and of an inſufferable ſmell to thoſe who are not uſed to it. It ſerves for almoſt all the ſame uſes as pit and charcoal; and the trade in it is not inconſiderable, where the other two ſorts are ſcarce.
Wood having become very ſcarce and dear at Paris in 1714, ſome boat-loads of ſtone-coal were brought, which preſently ſold very well at the wharfs, the people crouding thither; and even many good houſes made trial of it in their ſtoves and anti-chambers; but the malignity of it's vapours, and ſulphureous ſmell, ſoon gave them a diſtaſte to it; and, the ſale of the firſt boats not ſucceeding, the new dealers in it brought no more to ſupply Paris. The wholeſale vend of it is by the quintal, and it is retailed by the pound.
It is ſome time ſince ſtone-coal has been diſcovered in the neighbourhood of Lauſanne in Switzerland; and uſed there, inſtead of wood, in the ſalt-pits.

Some of the laws of England relating to the coal-trade.

Keels in the port of Newcaſtle are to be meaſured by commiſſioners, before carriage of coals, on pain of forfeiture, 9 H. V. c. 10.

The ſack of coal to contain four buſhels of clean coal. 7 Ed. VI. c. 7.

Sea-coals brought into the river Thames and ſold, to contain thirty-ſix buſhels heaped to the chaldron, and one hundred and twelve pounds the hundred, on pain of forfeiture. The lord-mayor of London, &c. may ſet rates or prices upon coals ſold by retail. Retailers refuſing to ſell at thoſe rates, officers may enter wharfs, &c. by force, and make ſale at the rates appointed, 16 and 17 Car. II. c. 2. Extended to all counties, 17 Geo. II. c. 35.

Commiſſioners to be appointed by the king for meaſuring and marking of keels, boats, carriages, &c. for coals in Newcaſtle. Keels, &c. carrying coals before meaſured and marked, to be forfeited, with the coals; removing or altering marks, to forfeit 10l.

Coals imported to pay 5s. per chaldron duty, and culm 1s. and coals ſold by the ton, 5s. per ton; to be paid at the place of importation. Two mariners allowed to every hundred ton of ſhipping, preſs-free; preſſing them to forfeit 10l. Nine ſhips of war to convoy the coal-trade, 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 1.

This ſtatute takes off the duties ſupra, and impoſes a duty of 5s. per ton, or 7s. 6d. per chaldron for coals ſold by meaſure, to be paid by the importer for coals brought from Scotland, or any parts beyond ſea. For coals laid on board in Engliſh ports 3s. 4d. per ton, and 5s. per chaldron, and 1s. per chaldron for culm ſhipped in this kingdom, 9 and 10 W. III. c. 13.

Coals exported in foreign bottoms to pay 10s. per chaldron, in Britiſh bottoms only 3s. per chaldron, 6 Ann. c. 22.

This act grants an additional duty of 3s. per ton, and 4s. 6d. per chaldron for foreign coals, and 3s. per chaldron for water-born coals, appropriated to a lottery, 8 Ann. c. 4.

Welſh coals, &c. exported to Ireland, &c. to pay 1s. per chaldron; to the plantations, 2s. Coals imported from foreign parts, 2s. per ton, and 3s. per chaldron; carried from port to port, 1s. 4d. per ton, and 2s. the chaldron. Granted for 32 years, 9 Ann. c. 6.

Contracts between coal-owners, maſters of ſhips, &c. for reſtraining the buying of coals, &c. are void; and parties to forfeit 100l. factors, 50l. maſters of veſſels, 20l. certificates to be made of lading, &c. For falſe ones to forfeit 10l. Selling coals for other ſorts than they are, to forfeit 50l. Not above fifty laden colliers to continue in the port of Newcaſtle, &c. on pain of 50l. Work-people in the mines not to be employed who are hired by others, under the penalty of 5l. 9 Ann. c. 28. By 12 Ann. c. 17. is granted a duty of 1d. per chaldron for coals and culm, and 2d. for every ton of ſhipping coming into the port of London (except thoſe colliers, fiſhing veſſels, &c.) for the repair of Dagenham breach. No buyer of coals to act as agent for any maſter or owner of a ſhip importing coal, under the penalty of 200l. And coal-owners ſelling one ſort for another, or any particular coals in preference of others, ſhall forfeit 500l. Coal-ſacks to be ſealed and marked, and be four feet and two inches long, and twenty-ſix inches broad, on pain of 20s. And ſellers of coals ſhall keep a buſhel edged with iron, and ſealed and ſtamped, and put three buſhels to a ſack; uſing other meaſures, to forfeit 50l. Penalties above 5l. recovered by action of debt; and under, before juſtices of the peace, &c. 3 Geo. II. c. 26.

The price of coals not to be inhanced in the river Thames, by keeping turn on delivery, &c. on pain of 100l. 4 Geo. II. c. 30.

The lord-mayor and court of aldermen are impowered to ſet the price of all ſea-coals imported into London, and ports adjacent, for one year; and perſons ſelling coals out of any veſſel, yard, or warehouſe, for a higher price, ſhall forfeit 36s. per chaldron, to be levied by diſtreſs, by warrant of two juſtices, &c. And if any perſon, vending coals at Newcaſtle, refuſe to put on ſhip-board a loading of coals, on tender of payment of the price there, he is liable to the forfeiture of 100l. recoverable by action or information, 11 Geo. II. c. 15.

For preventing frauds in the admeaſurement of coals within the city and liberty of Weſtminſter, that part of the duchy of Lancaſter adjoining thereto, the pariſhes of St Giles in the Fields, St Mary le Bon, and ſuch part of the pariſh of St Andrew Holborn, as lies in the county of Middleſex, two principal land coal-meters are appointed, who are to take an oath for the due execution of their office, and appoint a ſufficient number of labouring coal-meters to attend at wharfs and warehouſes to meaſure out coals there, who are alſo to take an oath for the due execution of their office. A lighterman is not to break bulk, but in the preſence of a meter or the conſumer. All contracts for coals, directly from any lighter to the conſumer (not being leſs than five chaldron) ſhall be for pool-meaſure, and loaded ſeparately in the craft, and delivered without being meaſured, unleſs the buyer deſire it. Coals ſold for wharf meaſure, to be meaſured in the

preſence of a labouring coal-meter, as by ſtat. 16, 17 Car. II. The ſeller to pay 2d. per chaldron to the labouring coal-meter, and the like to the principal land coal-meter, who are to deliver tickets of the names of the buyer, ſeller, quantity, and price of the coals, day, &c. which ticket is to be delivered by the carman to the conſumer, who is thereupon to pay for the metage. Carman altering, or not delivering the ticket, forfeits 5l. Carts loaded with above eight buſhels, ſent without ſuch ticket, the ſender to forfeit 50l. and the driver 5l. Meter making falſe tickets, or falſe meaſure, rendered incapable of acting as a meter, and to forfeit 5l. No quantity above eight buſhels to be delivered, but in the preſence of a meter; and, if the buyer ſhall be diſſatisfied with the meaſure under this act, the coals, on acquainting the ſeller or carman during the delivery, and before he is diſcharged, may be re-meaſured by a ſea-coal-meter; the carman, on notice in writing of the buyer's being diſſatisfied with the meaſure, ſhall not depart 'till a ſea-coal-meter can be produced, 19 Geo. II. c. 35.

Remarks.

The coal-trade of England, that is, carrying coals from Newcaſtle, Sunderland, Blith, and other adjacent places in the north; as alſo from the Firth of Edinburgh in Scotland, and other places thereabouts, to the city of London, and to the port towns on the coaſt all the way, as well on this ſide of Newcaſtle north, as up the channel as high as Portſmouth weſt, is a prodigious article, and employs abundance of ſhipping and ſeamen; inſomuch that, in a time of urgent neceſſity, the colliery navigation alone has been able to ſupply the government with a body of ſeamen for the royal navy, able to man a conſiderable fleet at a very ſhort warning, and that without difficulty, when no other branch of trade would do the like.

Likewiſe the Whitehaven collieries in Cumberland, belonging to the honourable Sir James Lowther, Bart. furniſh ſeveral counties in Ireland with coals, and conſtantly employ upwards of 2000 ſeamen; which alſo is a noble nurſery for the royal navy of this kingdom. The port of Swanzey in Wales ſupplies the coaſt of Devonſhire, and other counties thereabouts.

The pit-coals ſufficiently ſupply not only all the ports, but by means of thoſe ports, and the navigable rivers, all the adjacent counties, very far inland, between the port of Newcaſtle and the river Thames; as Whitby, Scarborough, Hull, with the port of Grimſby: as for the Humber, the Hull, on which the town of Hull is ſituated, the Ouſe, and even all the rivers thereabouts, they are indeed an exception to this courſe of the trade, and are principally ſupplied by boats from the inland counties of Derby and Nottingham, by the Trent; and from the town of Wakefield, by the Calder, to the very city of York, upon the Ouſe; from whence alſo all the reſt of the rivers and towns on that ſide are furniſhed. But this is but of late years, and ſince the river Calder was made navigable, and a duty laid on the Newcaſtle coals.

The many thouſands of men employed under-ground in theſe collieries, as well as thoſe employed in the land-carriage, render this, as a domeſtic branch of traffic, ſtill the more important to the kingdom. Nor are theſe all the national benefits, which ariſe from the coal-trade; large quantities hereof being annually exported both to France and Holland. And it muſt be obſerved, that the riches, acquired to theſe kingdoms by this branch of trade, are like thoſe treaſures, which are obtained out of the ſea by our fiſheries, they being all certain real profit, without any loſs to the kingdom, and giving employment to prodigious numbers of our people.

Further Remarks.

The waſte and deſtruction which has been of the woods in Warwick, Stafford, Worceſter, Hereford, Monmouth, Gloceſter, Glamorgan, Pembroke, Shropſhire, and Suſſex, by the iron works, is not to be imagined. The ſcarcity of wood is thereby already grown ſo great, that where cord-wood has been ſold at five or ſix ſhillings per cord, within theſe few years, it is now riſen to upwards of twelve and fourteen ſhillings; and in ſome places is all conſumed.—And, if ſome care is not taken to preſerve our timber from theſe conſuming furnaces, we ſhall certainly ſoon ſtand in need of Oak to ſupply the royal navy, and alſo of ſhipping for the uſe of the merchant; to the great diſcouragement of ſhip-building and navigation, upon which the ſafety and figure of theſe kingdoms, as a maritime power, depend.

It is generally allowed, that, within about theſe ſeventy years, Ireland was better ſtored with Oak-timber than England; but ſeveral gentlemen from hence, as well as thoſe reſiding there, ſet up iron works, which, in a few years, ſwept away the wood to that degree, that they have had even a ſcarcity of ſmall ſtuff to produce bark for their tanning, nor ſcarce timber for their common and neceſſary uſes.

Their diſtreſs has been ſo great, that they have been forced to ſend to England and elſewhere for bark, and to Norway, &c. for building timber, and ſuffer their large hides to be exported

to Holland, Germany, and Flanders, where, to a great loſs in that manufactory, they have been tanned.

Now, if the quantity of bar-iron, which is at preſent made in England and Ireland, could be manufactured in large works with our pit-coal, or ſome peculiar ſorts thereof, theſe iron-works would be tranſplanted to the pit-coal, or the coal brought to the iron-works, and the growth of our woods, for a time, be duly promoted.—Or, for the ſake of theſe gentlemen's eſtates, which may conſiſt in woodlands, and are contiguous to furnaces already erected, thoſe furnaces might be obliged to conſume ſuch a quantity of wood, in conjunction with the pit-coal, in the manufacture of iron, as would do no injury to the wood-land eſtates, and prevent that ſcarcity of wood and oak, which is now complained of.

Moreover, if this diſcovery was made, as England, Scotland, and Ireland would, by means thereof, be enabled to ſupply themſelves with the general manufacture of iron, from the ore to the bar, this would prevent, we apprehend, from the proviſo before-intimated, the wood-land gentlemen from ſuſtaining any injury by ſo uſeful a diſcovery; and the eſtates of the pit-coal owners would be enriched in proportion to the additional conſumption of this kind of fuel throughout the three kingdoms.

Encouragement, indeed, has been given to our plantations, for the making of pig and ſow-iron; but we do not think that this meaſure has yet operated ſo ſucceſsfully, as to diminiſh our importation of the quantity of foreign bar-iron: nor are our woods ſufficient to ſupply the three kingdoms with this manufacture, made even from the American pig and ſow, provided they were able at preſent, amply to ſupply Great-Britain and Ireland therewith. So that the diſcovery of making bar-iron from the pit-coal fuel, or in conjunction with what wood-fuel we have among ourſelves, ſtill ſeems very deſireable; provided, by means thereof, it can be made near as cheap as it is imported from foreign countries.

But ſince ſuch a diſcovery cannot be carried into execution in great works, without being known to every one; and ſince alſo, that a common patent, in a manufacture of this kind, is more liable to be invaded and violated, than ſome of a different nature, by others who would envy ſo great a diſcovery, wherein they were not intereſted: Quere, therefore,

1. Whether it might not become the wiſdom of the nation to grant ſome reaſonable public reward and encouragement, by act of parliament, to whomſoever ſhall make the diſcovery, by the means of pit-coal fuel to ſupply England, Scotland, and Ireland with bar-iron, ſo cheap as it is imported from foreign countries? And, Quere,

2. Whether ſuch pretended diſcoverer, or diſcoverers, ſhould not be obliged to make, or rather cauſe to be made, in his or their abſence, 500 tuns, or more, of ſuch bar-iron, before he or they are intitled to any part of the public reward whatſoever, that ſhall be given by parliament for that purpoſe?

COBALT. It is a kind of marcaſite, or grey mineral, of an obſcure white, ſomewhat reſembling a French-plate, and the pyrites, though ſomewhat more obſcure, and contains a white arſenic, and fixed earth; it changes into a blue glaſs, when mixed with flint, and ſtony cinders. Biſmuth is alſo drawn from it; and that kind of azure, which painters uſe with white-lead, for a blue, and that ſerves to give the requiſite bluiſh caſt to ſtarch. It is ſaid alſo to contain uſually ſome copper, and a little ſilver. There are many mines of it in Germany, particularly in Saxony, in the territories of Schneebourg, and of Annebourg; it is found alſo in Alſace and the Dauphinate.

On the outſide of the mines of cobalt is found a kind of mineral, of the colour of the ſtreaked roſe, called the flower of cobalt.

The beſt way to diſtinguiſh this mineral, is to turn it into glaſs; for the glaſs of the pyrites is black; of copper, red; of ſilver, white; whereas that made with cobalt is ſapphire.

Cobalt being taken out of the mine, the heterogeneous matter is ſeparated from it with a hammer; it is calcined in a vaulted kiln, large, and flat at bottom, ſtirring it continually, that the fire may thoroughly pervade it, and ſeparate the arſenic; this is done 'till it ceaſes to ſmoke. Then they calcine very pure and choice flints, which, while hot, are caſt into cold water, to render them malleable, after which they beat and reduce them to powder. With three parts of theſe and one of ſtony cinders to make it run, they uſually mingle one part of calcined cobalt; this mixture is put into great pots, and ſet in a furnace to be turned into glaſs, a very ſtrong fire being made for 8, 10, and even 12 hours; the mixture being diligently ſtirred, that it may be equally fluid throughout; when it is as fluid as it will be, they take it out with an iron ladle, and caſt it into a copper full of cold water. The glaſs, being thus rendered more friable, is broke by a hammer that goes by water, and is afterwards paſſed through a braſs ſieve: what won't paſs is broken a-new, and reduced to a very fine powder. They waſh it afterwards, to ſeparate the ſandy and other heterogeneous particles, as alſo what whitiſh, aſh-coloured powder, called eſchel, and a blue powder called blank tarbe. It is afterwards put into veſſels for ſale: and, as there are different ſorts, ſo the prices likewiſe are various; and the veſſels have different marks, as O. C. for the ordinary ſort, M. C. for the middling, F. C. for the fine, F. F. C. for the finer, and F. F. F. C. for the very fineſt ſort, which is exceeding valuable and ſcarce. See ARSENIC.

COCHENEAL is a drug uſed in dying and medicine. It is a body of an irregular figure, but always oblong, convex on one ſide, and a little concave on the other; it has ſeveral tranſverſe furrows, like the inciſures on the backs of inſects. It is very light, and ſo friable, as eaſily to crumble between the fingers. It's colour is a pretty deep purple, and a ſtrong crimſon internally. It is chiefly brought from Mexico.

There are two ſorts of it; the martigne, which is eſteemed the fineſt, both for dying and medicine; and the wild, which is leſs valuable. This difference, in the ſame animal, is occaſioned only by the extraordinary care that is taken of the one, by being ſupplied with food of a proper kind; the other living in a wild ſtate of nature, without the like care.

Though this drug hath long been in uſe, yet it's hiſtory, like that of many others, is not yet, perhaps, fully known. It, being collected at Mexico, at a certain ſeaſon of the year, from a particular plant, was long thought to be only the ſeed of that plant; and thoſe who diſcovered it to be an animal, were laughed at. This was the caſe of Pomet, who deſpiſed Plumier, who firſt declared it of the animal kind. So much of it, however, hath been diſcovered, by expanding it's parts in water, and otherways examining it by microſcopes, that it is an inſect, having ſix legs, and a proboſcis deſtined for extracting the juice of the plant whereon it ſubſiſts.

Reaumur was the firſt who aſcertained to what claſs of the animal nature this inſect belonged. This author, after eſtabliſhing his claſs of gall-inſects, creatures that the leaſt of all other animals appear to be ſuch, eſtabliſhes a ſecond claſs, nearly approaching to the former, but one degree, at leaſt, above them, in their approaches to the characters of animal life, found in other living creatures.—Theſe he calls progall-inſects. They paſs a great part of their life fixed immoveably to ſome part of a plant, as the gall-inſects do, but they never loſe their figure like theſe creatures, but may always be known for animals.—Of this claſs is the cocheneal judged to be, an inſect of ſuch conſequence as an article of commerce, that it is not left to breed and propagate at random, but the niceſt management is applied to every ſeaſon and circumſtance of it's multiplication.

The plant on which the cocheneal is found, and raiſed by the Spaniards, is deſcribed by botaniſts under the name of opuntia major. It is compoſed wholly of leaves of an oval thick body, joined end to end, and running into ramifications by means of new ones, which grow out ſide-ways.—The flower is moderately large; the fruit reſembles our fig in ſhape, it is full of a crimſon juice, which tinges the urine crimſon after eating it. To this purple juice, the cocheneal owe their delicate colour; the ſame inſects having been obſerved by Plumier on other plants, and on all theſe without colour. The Mexicans plant the opuntia all around their habitations, for the ſake of the cocheneal, which they propagate thereon with great care, and make ſeveral collections in the year.

Upon the approach of the rainy ſeaſon, the collection of cocheneal is over for that year; then they take care for the next year's ſtore. From the caution of the Spaniards in this reſpect, we are, in a great meaſure, let into the hiſtory of this inſect. At the coming on of the wet ſeaſon, they cut off the pieces of the opuntia, on which there are any conſiderable number of theſe animals, which are not yet arrived at their maturity.—They houſe them, and preſerve them from all miſchief.—The opuntia, like the other ſucculent plants, remain freſh a long while after it is cut from the root or ſtem; the pieces thus cut off remain ſucculent for the rainy ſeaſon; at the end of this time, the inſects are found ſo well grown, that they are ready to bring forth their young.

The people now prepare for the multiplying theſe for the next year's crop; they make a ſmall kind of neſts in the ſhape of thoſe of birds, either of moſs, or of the thready matter of their cacao-nuts, or any other the like ſubſtance; into each of theſe neſts they put 12 or 14 of the inſects, and they then carry them out, and place them between the leaves of the opuntia's, the plantations of which they take care to have, at that time, in very good order.—The thorns of the opuntia make theſe neſts eaſily fixed, and in this manner they people their whole plantation in a few days; though the quantity is not ſmall that they place on them; for theſe very cocheneals of the neſts make their firſt crop, which is gathered not long after. They place generally two or three of theſe neſts, that is to ſay, they allow between 30 and 40 inſects to the jointing of every leaf of the plant to the next.

The free air has ſuch an effect on theſe inſects, that, within three or four days after their being expoſed to it, they bring forth their young in the neſt. Every mother produces ſeveral thouſands of theſe, which are at that time as ſmall as the minuteſt mite. The young inſects leave the neſts after a little time, and run about the plant; they ſoon after, however, fix themſelves, ſome on one part, ſome on another of it; but

but they always chuſe the moſt ſucculent part, and thoſe which are leaſt expoſed to the wind. They remain fixed to the place they chooſe, never ſtirring from it 'till they have acquired their full growth, and are themſelves ready to bring forth young. In all this time they never erode the leaves of the plant; they only ſuck part of it's juices, by means of their proboſcis.

In the colder countries, where the cocheneal inſect is raiſed, they always cover with matting, for ſome time, the plants on which they have placed the neſts, and where the young inſects have fixed themſelves.

So defenceleſs an animal, as the cocheneal in it's fixed ſtate, muſt needs be a prey to a number of other creatures: there are multitudes of inſects that feed on them: but the people who raiſe them are at infinite pains to keep the plants clear of all hoſtile inſects. There are many crops of cocheneal in a year. The firſt is, that of the parent animals placed in the neſts; this is a gathering made very eaſily; the creatures never leave the neſts they were placed in; when they have brought forth their young, they die there, and there is no more trouble neceſſary than the taking the neſts off the plant, and ſhaking them out.

The ſecond gathering is of the inſects, which had been brought forth by theſe, and have fixed themſelves on the ſeveral parts of the plants, as before mentioned.

This is about three months after the former; in this time, a little more or leſs, according to the favourableneſs or badneſs of the ſeaſon, theſe young inſects have acquired their full growth, and many of them are bringing forth their young. The Indians diſlodge theſe from the plants, by means of a little hair pencil, tolerably ſtiff, and fixed in a wooden handle, bruſhing them off by this means, and catching them as they fall.

They are very careful, in this ſecond gathering, not to ſtrip the plants wholly of the inſects; they carefully leave a great many of the old ones, and they never diſturb the young already produced by the others. The third crop is furniſhed by theſe young ones, and thoſe which are brought forth by the parent animal, they leave there.—This happens at about three months end, at which time their young ones are found to be full grown, and are gathered as the former, leaving a ſtore behind, as in the former gathering. Not long after this third gathering of the cocheneal, the rainy ſeaſon uſually comes on. The young inſects brought forth by thoſe they leave on the plants at the third gathering, are what they find on the leaves, which they at this time cut off and preſerve, during the wet ſeaſon, in their houſes, to be placed in neſts on the plants, as ſoon as this is over, and to furniſh three or four ſucceſſive crops the enſuing year.

They make a laſt gathering, at the time when they cut off the leaves for houſing: they cut off only ſo many as they judge will be ſufficient for the real produce; but the reſt of the plant is alſo full of the inſects, and there are yet on it many of the old, or parent animals, which they left there on the third gathering. The Indians, when they have houſed what quantity they like, make a gathering of theſe: they are not at the pains of diſlodging them ſingly with a pencil, as the others; but they bruſh over the whole plants in a careleſs manner, ſo that there fall off many fragments of the ſpines, &c. with the cocheneal, which are mixed with the old cocheneal and the young of various ſizes: this is of much leſs value than the other more carefully picked cocheneal. The Spaniards call this granille.

The parent animals of the former gatherings would, if not prevented, live many days after they were diſlodged from the plant, and would bring forth their young, which, being very ſmall and nimble, would get away in great quantities, and a great part of the weight of the cocheneal would be loſt. To prevent which, the Indians, as ſoon as they have finiſhed their gathering, deſtroy the creatures.

They have ſeveral ways of killing them: ſome do it by plunging the baſket in which they are into boiling water, and afterwards drying them in the ſun. Others have a ſort of ovens built in a coarſe way, on purpoſe for this occaſion; they put the cocheneal into theſe, as ſoon as gathered, and give juſt ſuch a heat as is enough to kill them. Theſe ovens they call temercales.

The Indian women have alſo a kind of flat ſtones, under which they kindle a fire, and then place them on their cakes, or loaves, of maize bread: theſe they call comales; and ſome uſe theſe to kill the cocheneal inſects in the ſame manner.

The difference in colour of the cocheneal we receive, is principally owing to the different methods thus uſed to kill the inſects, and to the different degrees of heat the Indians venture to give them. The cocheneal, while living, is uſually covered with a cottony, or downy matter, in the manner of gall-inſects. Thoſe which are killed by means of hot water loſe a great part of that powder in the operation. Thoſe, on the contrary, which are killed in the temercales, or ovens, retain this powdery matter, and become of a greyiſh colour, mixed with crimſon; and, finally, that which is dried on the comales, or baking-ſtones, runs a great hazard of being burned, and generally becomes blackiſh. The Spaniards, who are very nice in their diſtinctions of the cocheneal, call that which has been killed in water, and loſt it's greyneſs, renegrida; that which has been killed in the temercales, they call, from it's marbled appearance, jaſpeade; and the laſt, which is generally over-baked and blackiſh, negra.

The dead parent animals of the firſt crop of the year, which they take out of the neſts they had put them in, loſe much more of their weight in drying than any of the ſucceeding crops; four pounds of theſe dry to one pound; of the others, three pounds freſh generally afford a pound dry.

The impregnation of the cocheneal inſect is the ſame with that of all other inſects of the gall-inſect and progall-inſect claſs. All the creatures which we have been deſcribing as fixed on the opuntia, and as gathered from cocheneal, are females. The males of the ſame ſpecies are different animals; they are little flies, no way reſembling the cocheneal, though produced by the ſame mothers. The extreme ſmallneſs of the young cocheneals prevents any body's obſerving that ſome of them have wings, or rudiments, at leaſt, of wings at that time; and, as they afterwards grow up and appear ſo very different from the reſt, they are ſuppoſed to be creatures of another kind, accidentally fallen on the ſame plants.

The people who take care of the cocheneal, all agree in obſerving, that, at the time when that inſect is grown to it's full ſize, there are always ſeen on the ſame plants a number of little winged creatures, which they call butterflies; but it is eaſy for ſuch incurious obſervers to miſtake a fly with wings not tranſparent, and theſe ſo large as to cover the whole body, as is the caſe of the male kermes inſect, for a butterfly. Theſe flies are much ſmaller than the cocheneals, and are ſeen continually marching among, and walking over them: they all have a firm belief, that theſe flies make the cocheneals conceive; and, indeed, the whole is ſo analogous to what happens for the impregnation of the kermes, that there is little room to doubt but that the Indians are in the right.

The quantity of cocheneal brought annually into Europe is immenſe: it is computed that there is not leſs than eight or nine hundred thouſand weight annually imported from Spaniſh America.

It is a ſingular circumſtance attending cocheneal, that it is not liable to decay. People who have made collections of inſects, know how difficult it is to preſerve them, let whatever art be employed; other leſs inſects get into their bodies, and eat them. On the other hand, cocheneal preſerved in a box, with no particular care at all, will keep ever ſo long unhurt, and, after ever ſo great a time, is as fit for all purpoſes either of dyeing or medicine as at firſt.

Mr Neufville procured ſome cocheneal which had, by all accounts, remained in the ſtorehouſe whence he had it 130 years, and which was then perfectly good. And Mr Marchand of Paris produced before the royal academy ſome cocheneal, put up by his father in a box, the date on which ſhewed that it was 60 years before, and which was as good as any cocheneal of the laſt year.

Cocheneal is eſteemed a great cordial, ſudorific, alexipharmic, and febrifuge. It is alſo greatly uſed by the painters and dyers, the high crimſon colour it affords being ſcarce equalled by any thing, and making, according to their different management of it, all the degrees and kinds of red.

Remarks.

As this nation expends ſuch large ſums annually with the Spaniards in this article, ſhould it not excite us to it's cultivation in our own colonies, if poſſible? I am well informed, that an eminent merchant of the city of London received a letter not long ſince from Cales, in Spain, that gives an account the Spaniards intend to prohibit the importation of Britiſh linnens into Old Spain. And the other meaſures that court is now taking, in order to promote their own trade and navigation, at the expence of that of Great-Britain, certainly ought to alarm this nation, and put us upon every meaſure to take leſs of foreign products and manufactures, ſince we are likely daily to ſell leſs of our own.

Further Remarks.

Since, by the late DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, we have ſo greatly extended our acquiſitions in America, eſpecially on the continent; and, amongſt the reſt, the late SPANISH FLORIDA is ceded to the crown of Great-Britain: it is now judged, that ſome of our own poſſeſſions will furniſh us with this very important article, uſed in the ſcarlet dye, and other kinds of red dyes. See DYEING.

COCHINCHINA, or WEST CHINA, as the name implies, or the CHINESE COCHIN, was ſo called by the Portugueze, to diſtinguiſh it from Cochin on the Malabar coaſt. Including Chiampa on the ſouth, which, though reckoned part of Cambodia, is a province, or at leaſt tributary to Cochinchina, it extends from north latitude 11 degrees 30 minutes, to 16 degrees 10 minutes, being, according to Moll, 300 miles from north to ſouth, and 150, where broadeſt, from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by Tonquin; by the ſea of China on the eaſt; the Indian Ocean on the ſouth; and on the weſt by Cambodia, and a ridge of mountains, inhabited

by

by a ſavage people, called Kemois, who live independent of any government, becauſe their hills are inacceſſible. Cochinchina was formerly a part of the kingdom of Tonquin, but ſince is become a ſeparate kingdom.

As it lies upon a flat, as well as Tonquin (though it is reckoned more temperate, as being more open to the ſea) it is annually overflowed in the like manner; conſequently the ſeaſons are the ſame, and the ſoil equally fruitful in rice, which needs no manure but the mud left by the inundations from the mountains of the Kemois, which renders it ſo fruitful, that they have three harveſts in a year. Theſe inundations happen once a fortnight; at which time they have their greateſt fairs and markets, becauſe they can eaſily tranſport goods from one place to another by their boats.

Father Borri, the Jeſuit, ſays, they have ſugar-canes, and the ſame fruits as in India, all the year round, particularly oranges, ananas, bananas, melons, the can, gnoo, glacca, and durion, delicious fruits, peculiar to this and the neighbouring countries.

The country produces no grapes, and, therefore, inſtead of wine, they drink arac, or a liquor diſtilled from rice. They abound with wild and tame cattle, fowl and fiſh. They make a ſauce of ſalt fiſh ſteeped in water, which they barrel up in great quantities; it taſtes like muſtard, and ſerves as a whet to their rice. They make the ſame uſe of arac and betel as the other Indians, and they have ſome tobacco. They have vaſt woods of mulberry-trees, which run up as faſt as our hemp. Their ſilk is not ſo fine as the Chineſe, but ſtronger. They have the beſt timber in the world, particularly a ſort which abounds in the mountains, and is called the incorruptible tree, becauſe it never rots under earth or water, and is ſo ſolid that it ſerves for anchors: one ſort is black, and another red. They are exceeding tall, ſtraight, and ſo big, that two men can ſcarce fathom them.

They have, alſo, on the mountains of the Kemois, a tree of a moſt fragrant ſcent, which is ſuppoſed to be the ſame with lignum aloes. This, being reckoned the beſt product of the country, is engroſſed by the king, and is ſold here from five to 16 ducats a pound. It is highly valued both in China and Japan, where the logs of it are ſold for 200 ducats a pound, to make pillows for the king and nobility; and, among thoſe Indian nations which continue to burn their dead, great quantities of it are conſumed in the funeral piles. The young trees called aquila, or eagle-wood, are every one's property, which makes the old ones, called calamba, ſo ſcarce and dear. They have oak and large pines, for the building of ſhips; ſo that it is to the Chineſe of much the ſame ſervice as Norway is to England. In the general, they have the ſame kind of trees and plants, and the ſame ſort of animals, as there are in Tonquin.

They have mines of gold, as well as of diamonds; which they do not eſteem ſo highly as pearl. They make great account alſo of their coral and amber. In all the provinces there are great granaries, and large quantities of rice in them, which is frequently above 30 years old. One of the greateſt rarities in theſe parts, eſpecially in grand entertainments, is a ragoût made of the eatable birds-neſts, which ſome ſay are only found in Cochinchina, and others, in four iſlands only that lie on it's coaſt. Thoſe delicate birds-neſts making a large article of trade in this part of the world, we have taken notice of it under it's proper article.

Remarks.

The merchants of Tonquin, Cambodia, China, Macao, Japan, Manilla, and Malacca, trade hither with plate, which they exchange for the commodities of the country. The Portugueze are the moſt favoured here of any Europeans. The natives ſell not only a vaſt quantity of ſilk and aquila-wood, as already mentioned, to the Chineſe, but the latter fetch from hence abundance of timber and plank for ſhip-building. The Cochinchineſe themſelves not being inclined to travel, ſeldom ſail out of the ſight of their own ſhore, but purchaſe many trifles from foreigners, at great rates, particularly combs, needles, bracelets, glaſs pendants, &c. They are very fond of our hats, caps, girdles, ſhirts, and other cloaths, and, above all, ſet a great value on coral. The country has many large inlets of the ſea, and above 60 convenient landing-places, which nevertheleſs, ſays captain Hamilton, are not much frequented by ſtrangers. The Dutch having formerly put off ſome falſe dollars at Quinham, in payment for ſilks, and other China ſtuffs, the people ſeized their factors, and put one of them to death; for which, the next time the Dutch came upon this coaſt, they burned a town, and put the inhabitants to the ſword.

Their coin is round pieces of braſs, with the king's arms and enſigns ſtamped on them, and a hole through the middle, which ſerves to ſtring them, as they do by thouſands, every thouſand being worth two crowns.

It is divided into five provinces, excluſive of the kingdom of Champi; viz. Limuva, Cachiam, Quangum, Quignan, or Pulocambi, and Renam; and in this order, they lie ſouth of one another.

Captain Hamilton ſays, the ſea-coaſt is 700 miles in extent, from the river Cambodia to that of Quambin, and that it is very deep. According to him, it is a country much larger and richer than Cambodia, the inhabitants more brave and converſible. The Cochinchineſe draw one half of the cuſtoms and taxes raiſed in Cambodia by commerce and merchandizing; but they give little encouragement to ſtrangers to trade with them: ſo that they ſend their gold, raw ſilk, and drugs, to diſpoſe of chiefly to Cambodia, and ſome to Canton, Johore, and Batavia.

M. Choiſi, in the Journal of his Voyage to Siam, ſays, there are kings tributary to the king of Cochinchina. The king formerly gave leave to the merchants in China and Japan to build a city at Faifo, and on a bay, latitude 16, longitude 108½; which is divided into two parts, each under it's own government and laws; ſome call it Haifo, and place it in the province of Caccian, or Cacchian, and ſay it is the principal port frequented by foreigners, there being a fair here for about four months every year, to which the Chineſe import very conſiderable quantities of plate, as the Japaneſe do of ſilk; from whence the king draws a large revenue by cuſtoms and impoſts, and the people reap vaſt profit.

Borri ſays the bay ſtands on two inlets to the ſea, which are at firſt three or four leagues diſtant from one another, 'till, having run ſeven or eight leagues, they join in one ſtream, where the veſſels meet that come in both ways.

When the Dutch firſt came hither, the Portugueze at Macao ſent an embaſſy to the king of Cochinchina, to deſire him to exclude them from his country, as mortal enemies to their nation: but the Dutch having landed, while the ambaſſador was at court, and ſent preſents, which were well received, the king granted them a free trade; whereupon the Portugueze ambaſſador charged him with breach of his word, and ſtamped on the ground, to ſhew his reſentment. Mean time, the king had ordered the Dutch to land their goods againſt the fair as well as the Portugueze; but, while they were on the river in boats, the king's galies deſtroyed moſt of them, alleging the Dutch were notorious pirates, and he forbad them his country any more. On the other hand, he offered the Portugueze, to whom he had been a conſtant friend, three or four leagues of the fruitfulleſt part of his country Touron for building a city; which, according to our author, would be of the greateſt conſequence to the Portugueze, for the defence of ſuch ſhips as paſſed toward China, and for harbouring a fleet, to be kept in readineſs againſt the Dutch, who paſs this way to China and Japan.

Other cities and towns mentioned by travellers are, (1.) Caccian, a royal ſeat in the province of that name, and reſorted to by the Chineſe for trade. The Sanſons place it 35 miles ſouth-eaſt of Faifo, and the bay of Tonquin; and Borri ſix or ſeven legues from Touron. (2.) Sanſo, formerly a mart-town, but now decayed, becauſe its harbour is choaked with ſand. (3.) Neoceman, which Borri ſays is five miles long, and half a mile broad, in the province of Pulo-Cambi.

In the way to the kingdom of Chiampa, we come to a country to which Martiniere gives the name of the Deſert of Cochinchina, comprehending part of the kingdom of Cambodia, which has the mountains of the Kemois and Chiampa on the ſouth. Chiampa has the ſea on the eaſt and ſouth, and the town which gives name to it on the ſea-coaſt, in latitude 11½.

There are ſeveral iſlands on the coaſt, of which captain Hamilton ſays, thoſe neareſt the ſhore are not dangerous. But as they have no commerce, we ſhall take no notice of them.

COD-FISH, is ſo well known that I ſhall not ſpend words to deſcribe it.

It is excellent food, when freſh, and being well prepared and ſalted, will keep ſome time. Salted cod is the chief branch of the trade of ſalt-fiſh, which is very conſiderable throughout Europe and America.

There are two ſorts of it, the one called freſh, or white-cod, and the other dry, or prepared, and ſometimes melwel, or kneeling, which is the ſame ſort of fiſh, but differently ſalted and prepared for keeping, and what the Dutch call ſtock-fiſh.

Freſh Cod.

The fiſhery thereof is in the bay of Canada, on the great bank of Newfoundland, and on the iſle of St. Peter, and the iſle of Sable. The fiſhery elſewhere is inconſiderable. The veſſels uſed are double-decked, and carry from 100 to 150 tons, and bring from 30 to 35,000 cod at moſt, for fear of ſpoiling before brought to France, eſpecially thoſe firſt caught, unleſs ſalted with great care.

They are fitted out, beſides the neceſſary proviſion, with utenſils for the fiſhery.

Thoſe of 100 tons have commonly from 20 to 22 hands, including the maſter and boys; and thoſe of 150 tons 25 hands: and ſo of others in proportion.

The moſt eſſential part of the fiſhery is, to have a maſter who knows how to cut up the cod, one who is ſkilled to take the head off properly, and, above all, a good ſalter, on which the preſerving of them, and, conſequently, the ſucceſs of the voyage, chiefly depends.

It is ſaid the Biſcayans *, fiſhing for whales, diſcovered firſt the greater and leſſer Cod-Bank, a century before Chriſtopher Columbus's expedition, as well as Canada, and the new land of Bacalao, or Cod-Fiſh; and that it was a Biſcayan Newfoundlander who firſt reported it to Columbus, according to ſeveral coſmographers.

* See the article BISCAY, and Remarks thereupon.

Others aſcribe the diſcovery of it to a native of St Malo, named James Cartier, who is ſaid, in effect, to have directed the Britons to it. But, be this as it will, it is certain, ſince this diſcovery, all the European nations that trade by ſea have eſteemed a diſcovery of this important nature the moſt certain and advantageous branch of trade.

This great bank is about 25 leagues from Newfoundland, about 150 long, and 50 broad.

The merchants of the ſands of Olone, in Lower Poictou, intereſt themſelves moſt of all the French in this fiſhery, and with the moſt ſucceſs, though their city be ſmall, and haven bad, having had ſome years 100 veſſels.

Other places are Bourdeaux, Marenne, Rochelle, Pornic in the duchy of Retz, Granville, Havre de Grace, Dieppe, Hornfleur, and other places on the coaſt of Normandy; but theſe laſt trade little in time of war, becauſe of the riſque there is in going out and in, the Channel being commonly full of privateers.

The accuſtomed wages of the maſter and crew are one third of the fiſh they bring.

The beſt, fatteſt, and largeſt cods are thoſe caught on the ſouth of the great bank; and are, therefore, chiefly reſerved for Paris, where there is a great conſumption of them. Thoſe caught on the north ſide are commonly ſmall, and ſell for much leſs.

The beſt ſeaſon is from the beginning of February to the end of April; the fiſh, which in the winter retire to the deepeſt water, coming then on the banks, and fattening extremely.

What is caught from March to June keeps well; but thoſe taken in July, Auguſt, and September, when it is warm on the banks, are apt to ſpoil ſoon.

Some veſſels ſail from France in September, and return in January, for the Lent markets; but they run the riſque of bad voyages, not only on account of the gales in the Newfoundland ſeas, which are commonly very boiſterous, but that the fiſh, alſo, being much ſpent by the rigour of the weather, quit the great bank, which, during the milder ſeaſons, they frequented; ſo that only few are then to be found, and thoſe moſtly very lean and indifferent.

The voyage is made ſometimes in a month or ſix weeks, at others not under four or five months. When Lent draws on, and the fiſhermen have got half, or two-thirds of their lading, they haſten back, thoſe who firſt arrive getting to the beſt market; ſo that often they return with leſs.

Some are lucky enough to make a ſecond voyage, while others are ſtill fiſhing, and forced to return with a ſmall lading at laſt.

Every fiſher takes but one at a time; the moſt expert will take from 350 to 400 in a day; but that is the moſt, the weight of the fiſh, and a great coldneſs on the bank, fatiguing very much.

It is ſalted directly: when the head is taken off, and it is opened and gutted, the ſalter ſtows them in the bottom of the hold, head to tail, in beds a fathom or two ſquare, laying layers of ſalt and fiſh alternately, but never mixing fiſh caught on different days. When they have lain thus three or four days, to drain off the water, they are replaced in another part of the ſhip, and ſalted again; after which they are no more meddled with.

They are differently ſorted, according to the places where they are delivered and ſold.

At Nantes are four ſorts: firſt, the great cod, the 100 of which ſhould weigh 900 pounds; ſecondly, the middling cod, the 100 not weighing above 600 pounds; thirdly, the ſmall cod; and, fourthly, the refuſe cod.

The ſorting at Rochelle and Bourdeaux is much the ſame as at Nantes; only they do not reckon the ſmall cod among the refuſe, whereas at Nantes they do.

At Nantes, and moſt other ports in France, freſh cod is counted and ſold at the rate of 124, or 62 couple, the hundred; but at Orleans, and in Normandy, they give 132 cod to the hundred: at Paris only 108.

The greateſt quantity comes from Nantes, the river Loire moſt conveniently tranſporting them to other cities; and they are very cheap there, except in war time.

Freſh cod is alſo imported into France from Holland and Iceland, in March, April, and May, in barrels weighing from 250 to 300 pounds, the one ſalted dry, the other in pickle: the firſt are beſt, becauſe the pickle, being apt to change, ſpoils the fiſh.

The barrelled cod is commonly thick, and cut in pieces; it is called ſometimes cabillaud; what comes from Iceland is leſs than that from Holland. A laſt conſiſts of 12 barrels.

Dried cod-fiſh.

In this commerce veſſels of all burdens are uſed in France, but they are commonly large. As they can be dried only in the ſun, the veſſels depart from March to the end of April, that they may have the ſummer for their work.

Theſe veſſels carry out meal, brandy, biſcuit, peaſe, beans, ſyrup of ſugar, ſome ſtuffs, cloths, and a few other goods, which they truck with the inhabitants of the French colonies for their dried cod, their roes, and their oils.

The reddeſt is uſually moſt in eſteem.

They bait their hooks with herrings, of which great quantities are taken on the coaſt of Placentia.

Moſt of the veſſels that go to the coaſt of Petit Nord return uſually to Marſeilles, and the ports in Italy and the Levant; where having ſold their fiſh, they take in goods, either on their own account or on freight.

The wages here are the ſame as thoſe of the freſh cod-fiſhery, viz. one third of the fiſh they bring, with this difference, that if advance is made to the crews of the other fiſhery, it is diſcounted, at a rate agreed on between them, deducting the principal and intereſt from the amount of their ſhare.

Thoſe who go to Petit Nord have alſo one third; and, when the fiſh is ſold in the Levant, and the veſſels return laden to the weſt, they pay them by the month, from the day they begin to take in their ſecond lading.

The cod deſigned for ſalting, though of the ſame kind with the freſh cod, is much leſs, and, therefore, fitter for keeping, the ſalt more eaſily penetrating it. The fiſhery of both is much alike; but this is moſt expenſive, as they carry more hands, and are longer out; but they uſe one half leſs ſalt.

As the maſters arrive, they unrig their veſſels, leaving only their mates, with ſeven or eight men, and go on ſhore to work in a tent, covered with branches of trees, and ſome ſails, and on a ſcaffold of great trunks of pines, 12, 15, 16, and often 20 feet high, commonly from 40 to 60 feet long, and about one third in breadth. Here the chief work of ſalting is performed.

When the fiſh hath taken ſalt, they waſh and hang it to drain on rails; when drained, it is laid on kinds of ſtages, which are ſmall pieces of wood fixed acroſs, and covered with branches of trees, having the leaves ſtripped off, for the better paſſage of the air.

When they begin to be dry, they lay them ten or twelve thick, to keep in the heat, increaſing the heap every day to 20 or 25: then they are carried to the ſhore, where they are laid thinner, and turned every day. Laſtly, they ſalt them again, beginning with thoſe firſt ſalted, and pile them in great heaps, where they remain till they lade them on board.

They pile them in the veſſel on branches of trees, laid upon the ballaſt, and round the ſhip, with mats, to keep them dry.

The Biſcayans are accounted the moſt expert of all others in this fiſhing; wherefore the merchants of Bayonne and St John de Luz ſend hither ſeveral ſhips, beſide what go from Rochelle, Nantes, and St Malo.

It is ſold in moſt places by weight, excepting what is too moiſt and broken, which is ſold by tale; as alſo in the ports of Normandy, where it is ſold at the rate of 66 couple, or 132 cod, to the 100; at Paris, alſo, as the freſh cod is.

There are four kinds of merchandize belonging to the cod-fiſh, in which there is ſome traffic, viz. the zounds, the tongues, the roes, and the oil drawn from the livers. The firſt is ſalted at the fiſhery, together with the fiſh, and put up in barrels from 6 to 700 pounds. The tongues are done in like manner, and brought in barrels from four to 500 pounds.

Theſe are in no great eſteem at Paris, or any other part of the kingdom; the chief conſumption being in Burgundy and Champagne.

The roes are alſo ſalted in barrels; they ſerve to throw into the ſea to take fiſh, eſpecially pilchards, and are greatly uſed on the coaſt of Bretagne, where that fiſhery is conſiderable.

The oil comes in barrels, from 4 to 520 pounds. Much of it is ſent to Geneva: it is alſo uſed in France by the tanners, and even to burn, when the oil of nuts and train-oil is ſcarce.

An excellent kind of little cod, not unlike what they call lingue, is caught on the north of Scotland, towards the coaſt of Buchan, at a place called Battrag. It is ſalted and dried in the ſun, on the rocks, and ſometimes in the chimney.

It is moſtly conſumed where caught, and in other neighbouring places.

REMARKS.

We have here a ſketch of the trade of France with regard to the fiſhery of cod on the banks of Newfoundland; from whence we may make a tolerable judgment of the advantages which have derived to the navigation and commerce of that nation by this fiſhery, ſince the remarkable æra of the treaty of Utrecht*, which gave them the right of fiſhing on the banks of Newfoundland, and drying their cod upon ſtages there: from which, if they had been then excluded, Great-Britain would have preſerved ſuch a proportion of this trade in her own ſcale, as was then thrown into that of France; which would have made no little difference, in point of benefit, to the trade of this kingdom. See the articles FISHERIES, NEWFOUNDLAND.

* The article of the treaty of Utrecht, whereupon the French

ground their privilege of fiſhing at Newfoundland, and of drying their cod upon ſtages there erected.

'Art. 13. The iſland called Newfoundland, with the adjacent iſlands, ſhall, from this time forward, belong of right wholly to Britain; and, to that end, the town and fortreſs of Placentia, and whatever other places in the ſaid iſland are in the poſſeſſion of the French, ſhall be yielded and given up, within ſeven months from the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, or ſooner, if poſſible, by the moſt Chriſtian king, to thoſe who have a commiſſion from the queen of Great-Britain for that purpoſe.

'Nor ſhall the moſt Chriſtian king, his heirs and ſucceſſors, or any of their ſubjects, at any time hereafter lay claim to any right to the ſaid iſland and iſlands, or to any part of it to them. Moreover, it ſhall not be lawful for the ſubjects of France to fortify any place in the ſaid iſland of Newfoundland, or to erect any buildings there, beſides ſtages made of boards, and huts neceſſary and uſual for drying of fiſh; or to reſort to the ſaid iſland beyond the time neceſſary for fiſhing and drying of fiſh. But it ſhall be allowed to the ſubjects of France to catch fiſh, and to dry them on land, in that part only, and in no other beſides that, of the ſaid iſland of Newfoundland, which ſtretches from the place called Cape Bonaviſta, to the northern point of the ſaid iſland; and, from thence, running down by the weſtern ſide, reaches as far as the place called Point Riche. But the iſland called Cape-Breton, as alſo all others, both in the mouth of the river of St Lawrence, and in the gulph of the ſame name, ſhall hereafter belong of right to the French; and the moſt Chriſtian king ſhall have all manner of liberty to fortify any place or places therein.'

By means of an indulgence of this, that was weakly or wickedly granted to the French by this treaty, they have ever ſince exceedingly increaſed their fiſhery to Newfoundland, as well on the coaſt as on the great bank: the conſequences whereof, to our misfortune, we have too ſenſibly felt. But, as if the privilege of fiſhing was not enough to have granted them, they obtained, likewiſe, that, in the fiſhing ſeaſon, they may reſort to the very iſland of Newfoundland itſelf, and erect ſtages, &c. to cure and dry their fiſh there.

In the tenth year of the reign of Charles I. liberty was granted to the French of curing and drying fiſh at Newfoundland, but they paid a tribute for ſo doing. Since the peace of Utrecht, they not only paid no tribute, but, by their neighbourhood at Cape-Breton, obliged us to keep a garriſon at Newfoundland, to prevent our being ſurprized there.

Remarks.

But the caſe is widely altered between Great Britain and France, ſince by the Definitive Treaty of 1763, the French are now abſolutely deprived of the powerful fortifications of Cape-Breton, and of the poſſeſſions of all Canada and its Dependencies; and are now entitled to no poſſeſſions contiguous to Newfoundland, except the very ſmall iſlands of St Peter's and Miquelon, and which the VIth article of the Treaty ſays, 'The king of Great Britain cedes the Iſlands of St Pierre and Miquelon, in full right, to his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty, to ſerve as a ſhelter to the French fiſhermen; and his ſaid Chriſtian Majeſty engages not to fortify the ſaid iſlands, to erect no Buildings upon them, but merely for the convenience of the Fishery, and to keep upon them a guard of fifty men only for the police.'

Great Britain enjoying by the ſaid treaty, at preſent, the full right of poſſession, of all other places adjacent to the Newfoundland fiſheries, and France poſſeſſing only the before-mentioned two very ſmall iſlands, and thoſe under ſuch reſtrictions and limitations as the treaty has provided; there does not ſeem any great likelihood that it will ſoon be in the power of the French to diſturb the Britiſh ſubjects in this part of North America.—We ſeem to have nothing to dread from France in thoſe parts but their Smuggling-trade; and the ſame treaty having reſtrained them from fiſhing within a certain diſtance from the coaſts, a proper care taken on our parts to keep Guarda Coſtas there, may pretty effectually prevent ſuch practices. A vigilant look-out to oblige the French, at firſt, to adhere inviolably to the treaty, will deter them from any very detrimental practices of this ſort: and if they ſhould here groſly deviate from the ſenſe of the treaty, it ſeems now to be in the power of this nation to chaſtize them for ſo doing, without much expence at any time, and that, perhaps, by depriving them of the right of fiſhing at or near Newfoundland at all. I cannot therefore but be of opinion, that ſo wiſe and politic a kingdom will be cautious in the ſteps they ſhall take, leſt they ſhould hereafter be for ever excluded from the Newfoundland fiſheries.—This will prove a check upon them. For they are ſo extremely ſenſible of the prodigious advantage of this fiſhery, and ſo very intent upon purſuing it, that, from their firſt attempts to make themſelves conſiderable at ſea, they have had it perpetually in view.—They firſt obtained leave to fiſh, upon paying a duty of 5 per cent. Afterwards they got that acknowledgment relinquiſhed.—Not content with this, they went further ſtill; they procured a ceſſion to be made to them of the iſland of Cape Breton, a maiden fiſhery, that had ſcarce ever been touched before; whereas that of Newfoundland is greatly exhauſted, and alſo ſeveral iſlands in the gulph of St Lawrence. Still diſcontented, they further obtained the liberty of curing and drying their fiſh, ſetting up ſtages, and reſorting to our iſland of Newfoundland, during the time it is of any uſe to reſort thither, that is, during the fiſhing ſeaſon.—They, indeed, delivered us up the poſſeſſion of Placentia, and ſome other places in Newfoundland; but they took care to have a much better place yielded to them in lieu thereof; with this extraordinary favour to them more than to us, that they have the liberty granted them to frequent our iſland of Newfoundland, and erect ſtages, &c. but we had not the privilege allowed us of doing the ſame on any of their iſlands, or on the iſland of Cape Breton, which they had expreſs permiſſion granted them to fortify, as they pleaſed.

Great Britain having now poſſeſſed herſelf of Cape Breton, and all the ſtrong places in theſe parts of America, the caſe is quite changed from what it was.—The importance of Cape Breton alone to the French Newfoundland fiſheries appearing by the following letter, it may not be amiſs to inſert it.

Copy of a letter written by Monſ. de Pontchartrain, to Monſ. the duke de Gramond, from Fontainbleau, September 19, 1713.

'I have received, Sir, the letter you did me the honour to write me the 3d of this month, with two letters that were directed to you by the inhabitants of St Jean de Luz and Sibour, upon the ſubject of their fiſhery of dry fiſh. From the account I have given the king of their demand, his majeſty directed me to write, by his order, to Monſieur the duke d'Aumont, his ambaſſador extraordinary at London, to aſk of the queen of Great-Britain a permiſſion for them to go the next year to Placentia, and the liberty to continue their fiſhery in all the ports and harbours upon the coaſt of Newfoundland. I ſhall give myſelf the honour to acquaint you with Monſieur the duke d'Aumont's anſwer. I agree with you, Sir, that the country of la Bour will ſuffer very much, ſhould they be deprived of their liberty of carrying on their fiſhery of dry fiſh; and you will be perſuaded of the attention I have to procure to the merchants that drive this commerce, the means to continue them in it, when I have informed you, that the king ſent from Rochford, in the month of May laſt, one frigate to go and lay the firſt foundation of an eſtabliſhment in the iſland of Cape Breton, where fiſh is much more abundant than at the iſland of Newfoundland, and where one may take the fiſh, and manage the drying thereof eaſily. This frigate arrived, June 26, at Placentia, from whence ſhe was to continue her courſe for Cape Breton, to which place I have cauſed to be tranſported 100 men, to begin the ſettlement. His majeſty will ſend, in the beginning of the year, three ſhips, to tranſport thither the garriſon of Placentia, and the inhabitants of the iſland of Newfoundland, and to put the laſt hand to the eſtabliſhment of that port. The merchants of this kingdom may then ſend all ſuch ſhips as they ſhall think fit to order, for the fiſhing of dry fiſh, and for the oils that are made from the fiſh on the ſaid iſland. This favour ought to animate the merchants that drive this commerce, to carry it on with vigour, from the advantage they will draw from it. This is all I have been able to do in their favour. I deſire you to be perſuaded of the great ſincerity wherewith I have the honour to be.'—See America and Fisheries, &c.

COFFEE, whoſe good effects are univerſally eſteemed, is the berry of a ſmall tree, which formerly was known in no country but the kingdom of Yaman in Arabia; and as the ſeeds, which are found in the heart of the fruit, are qualified to clear the head, and relieve it from ſleepineſs, when they have been infuſed in water, the Arabian monks are ſaid to be the firſt who made uſe of them, that they might be able to perform their nocturnal devotions without drowſineſs. This artificial drink came eaſily into repute among thoſe nations that frequently invent new liquors to regale themſelves inſtead of wine, which the law of Mahomet has prohibited among them. Some Turkiſh doctors at firſt oppoſed the introduction of this liquor, and declared it to be too ſpirituous, and almoſt as inebriating as wine itſelf; but the mufti ſoon removed this difficulty, and coffee was vindicated from the imputation of any vinous quality, and was allowed to be lawful liquor. It was then publickly drank at Conſtantinople and Cairo, from whence it has been tranſmitted to us about 60 years ago.

It is a great pity that this uſeful and popular ſeed cannot be ſown, with any ſucceſs at leaſt, in our ſouthern provinces, ſay the French; but it will not ſucceed either there, or in any other part of the kingdom, by reaſon it ſhould be ſown immediately after it has been gathered. It was formerly imagined, and ſeveral people are ſtill perſuaded, that the Arabians of Brokka drenched the berries in a brine, or ſome lixivious liquor, before their exportation, to prevent their being ſown with any ſucceſs, and that they themſelves might not be

deprived of the profit of this plant, by it's propagation in other regions. But, ſince ſome of the trees have been tranſported to the Iſle of Bourbon, as well as to Batavia and Holland, and likewiſe from Holland to France, where they have been cultivated in a ſucceſsful manner, we have been convinced that the ſeeds of this plant will never proſper, if their plantation be delayed ever ſo little. Thoſe that were gathered at Amſterdam, and ſent to Paris, were unſucceſsful; but all ſuch as were gathered at Amſterdam, or in the king's gardens, from little trees which had been planted there, proved very thriving, when care was taken to ſet them the moment they were gathered.

The coffee-tree may be ſeen in the royal garden of France, where it's height does not exceed five or ſix feet, and it's ſtem is about an inch in thickneſs; but it riſes to the height of 40 feet in Arabia and Batavia, though it's thickneſs ſeldom exceeds five inches. It is always covered with flowers and fruit. It ſhoots out, through the whole length of it's ſtem, a growth of branches, which are exactly oppoſite to each other, and in different pairs, one of which croſſes the other. The leaves, which reſemble thoſe of the common laurel, are alſo ranged in couplets; at the bottom of theſe ſpring the fragrant flower-branches, which have a near ſimilitude to thoſe of jaſmin, and have five chives in their center. The berry, or fruit, which appears after theſe, is not much unlike a hard cherry in it's colour and ſhape: the fleſh, which is not diſagreeable, ſerves as a tegument to a couple of ſhells, each of which contains a ſeed. One of theſe is frequently abortive, becauſe it's due fecundity is ſeldom imparted to it in the flower ſeaſon; the other grows ſtronger, and receives a better nouriſhment. Some perſons infuſe all the fruit, after it has been dried; others chuſe the ſhells; but the beſt and moſt uſeful method is only to infuſe the berries, when they have been moderately roaſted in a veſſel of varniſhed earth, which is always preferable to one of braſs or iron. The berries are judged to be ſufficiently roaſted when they begin to aſſume a violet hue, and diſcharge an oil of an agreeable ſcent. The coffee which is newly ground has always the moſt virtue; and, when it is infuſed in boiling water, it loſes fewer of it's volatile parts than when it is immediately poured into cold water. When the heat of the fire raiſes the powder to the edge of the coffee-pot, it is precipitated with a few drops of cold water.

It is the opinion of our beſt and moſt experienced phyſicians that coffee promotes digeſtion, and corrects ſharp humours, when it is drank after meals. Several perſons prefer it in the morning, for it's diſſipation of vapours, and other diſorders of the head, and for imparting a livelineſs to the ſpirits. Every one knows how much the repoſe of the night is hazarded by the repeated uſe of this liquor in the ſame day, and what precautions are taken to correct the bitter flavours of it's ſalts with milk and ſugar, and bread; ſugar is a conſtant ingredient, bread is proper when this liquor is drank in a morning, and milk is neceſſary for thin conſtitutions, which would otherwiſe be injured by the ſalts.

Thoſe which are reckoned beſt, are the ſmall and greeniſh berries, and eſpecially thoſe which diſpenſe an agreeable ſcent, and are tranſmitted to us from Cairo by the way of Marſeilles: they are much more eſteemed than the large and inodorous ſpecies, which is tranſported to us over the ocean.

The iſland of Jamaica affords very good coffee; and other of our iſland colonies would afford very good, was due care taken to cultivate it.

COIN.

Sir Iſaac Newton's TABLE of the aſſays, weights, and values of moſt foreign ſilver and gold coins, actually made at the Mint, by order of the privy-council. With notes and explanations, ſhewing the methods of keeping accounts in thoſe cities, on which negociations in bills are uſually made; and a calculation of the real or intrinſic par of exchange.

FOREIGN SILVER COINS.

	Aſſay.	Weight	Standard Weight.	Value.
	dw.	dw. gr.	dw. gr. mi.	d.
The piaſter of Spain, or Seville piece of 8 reas, now reduced to 10	W. 1	17 12	17 10 2	54
The new Seville piece of eight	W. 1½	14	13 21 15	43.11
The Mexico piece of eight	W. 1	17 10⅝	17 8 14	53.83
The Pillar piece of eight	Stand.	17 9	17 9	53.87
The Peru piece of eight, coarſer, but of uncertain allay	W. 1	17 12	17 10 2	54
The old ecu of France, or piece of 60 ſols Tournois	W. 1½	19 14½	19 11 12	60.39
The new ecu, or piece of 5 livres, or 100 ſols				
N. B. The ecu of France ſhould be 2 dwts worſe by law.				
The cruſado of Portugal, or ducat worth 400 reas, now marked and raiſed to 480 reas	W. 2	11 4	11 1 13	34.3
The patacks, or patagons, of Portugal, worth 500 reas; now marked and raiſed to 600				
The ducaton of Flanders, or piece of 60 ſols, or patars	B. 4½	20 22	21 8 2	66.15
The patagon of Flanders, or croſs dollar, or piece of 48 patars	W. 12	18 1	17 1 13	52.91
The ducaton of Holland, or piece of 63 ſtivers	B. 3	20 21	21 3 15	65.59
The patagon leg dollar, or rix dollar of Holland, or piece of 50 ſtivers	W. 14	18	16 20 17	52.28
The three guilder piece of Holland, or piece of 60 ſtivers	W. 2	20 8	20 3 12	62.46
The guilder florin, or piece of 20 ſtivers	W. 2	6 18½	6 17 1	20.08
The ten ſhelling piece of Zealand, or piece of 60 ſtivers	W. 2	20 6	20 1 13	62.21
The lion dollar of Holland, or ⅔ of the ducaton	W. 44	17 14	14 2 7	43.07
The ducaton of Cologn	B. 3	20 18	21 — 15	65.02
The rix dollar, or patagon, of Cologn	W. 13	18	16 22 14	52.53
The rix dollar, or patagon, of the biſhop of Liege	W. 12	17 22½	16 22 5	55.48
The rix dollar of Mentz	W. 6½	18 8	17 19 18	55.27
The rix dollar of Franckfort	W. 9	18 8	17 14 4	54.53
The rix dollar of the elector Palatine of the Rhine and Bavaria, before 1620		18 5		
The rix dollar of Nuremburg	W. 6	18 10	17 22 1	55.55
The old rix dollar of Lunenburg	W. 10	18 11	17 15 2	54.65
The old rix dollar of Hanover	W. 8	18 12	17 20 2	55.03
The double gulden of the elector of Hanover	W. 7	18 18	18 3 16	56.29
The gulden of the Elector of Hanover, or piece of ⅔	B. 17½	8 10	9 1 18	28.14
The half gulden of the elector of Hanover, or piece of ⅔	B. 17½	4 5	4 12 19	14.07
The gulden of the duke of Zell, or piece of 16 gutz groſh	W. 43	11 2	8 22 12	27.07
The gulden of the biſhop of Hildeſheim, or piece of 24 manen groſh, now raiſed to 26	W. 40½	11 22	9 17 17	30.21
The rix dollar of Magdeburgh	W. 10	18 12	17 16 1	54.27
The gulden, or guilder, of Magdeburgh	W. 44	11 14	9 6	28.67
The old rix dollar of the elector of Brandenburgh	W. 9	18 13	17 19 1	55.17
The old gulden of Brandenburgh, now raiſed from 24 to 26 manen groſh	W. 43	12 4	9 19 9	30.41
The gulden of Brandenburgh, or piece of ⅓	W. 43	11 3	8 23 6	27.81
The half gulden of Brandenburgh, or piece of ⅓	W. 43	5 13	4 11 14	13.09
The gulden of the elector of Saxony, or piece of ⅔	W. 41	11 3	9 1 14	28.12
The old bank dollar of Hamburgh	W. 8	18 9	17 17 4	54.92
The old rix dollar of Lubec	W. 8½	18 16	17 22 17	55.54
The four mark piece of Denmark, of coarſer allay	W. 61	14 8	10 9 10	32.23
The four mark piece of Denmark, of finer allay	W. 21	11 13½	10 11 5	32.45
The eight mark piece of Sweden	Stand.	20	20	62
The four mark piece of Sweden	W. 58	13 12	9 23 7	30.92
The two mark piece of Sweden	W.	6 19		
The old dollar of Dantzick	W. 10½	18 9	17 12 4	54.27
The old rix dollar of Thorn near Dantzick	W. 12	18 8½	17 8 15	53.85
The rix dollars of Sigiſmund III. and Vladiſlaus IV. kings of Poland	W. 10	18 9	17 13 14	54.04
The rix dollar of the late emperor Leopold	W. 10½	18 9	17 12 4	54.27
The rix dollar of his predeceſſor Ferdinand III.	W. 10½	18 9	17 12 4	54.27
The rix dollar of Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria	W. 10½	18 5	17 8 7	53.78

The

	Assay. dw.	Weight dw. gr.	Standard Weight. dw. gr. mi.	Value. d.
The rix dollar of Basil	W. 7½	18 18½	18 3 6	56.24
The rix dollar of Zune	W. 13	18 1	16 23 13	52.65
The old ducat of Venice, with the words Ducatus Venetus upon it; a piece of 6 old livres, afterwards raised, I think, to 6 livres 4 sols de picoli	W. 23½	14 15	13 1 17	40.50
The half ducat	W. 23½	7 7½	6 12 18	20.25
The new ducat, with the no. 124 upon it, signifying 124 sols, or 6 livres 4 sols de picoli		18 2		
The half thereof		9 1		
The crusado croisat, or St Mark of Venice, with the no. 140 upon it, signifying 140 sols, or 7 livres de picoli		20 6		
The half crusado of the same form		10 3		
The quarter crusado of the same form		5 1½		
Another coin of Venice	W. 46	17 10	13 19 8	42.08
The piece of two jules	B. 6	3 15	3 17 7	11.05
The ducat de banco of Naples, or piece of 5 tarins, or 10 carlins, or 100 grains	W. 3	14 0½	13 1	40.43
The half ducat	W. 3	7 0½	6 12 10	20.21
The tarin, or fifth part of the ducat	W. 3	2 19½	2 14 12	8.09
The carlin, or tenth part of the ducat	W. 3	1 9½	1 7 6	4.04
The escudi ecu, or crown of Rome, or piece of 10 Julios, or 100 bayoches		20 14		
The teston of Rome, or piece of 3 julios	W. 1	5 21½	5 20 17	18.32
The ducat of Florence and Leghorn, or piece of 7 lires, or 10½ julios	B. 8	20 3	20 20 6	64.62
The julio of Rome		2 5		
The piaster ecu, or crown of Ferdinand II. duke of Tuscany	W. 1	17 12	17 10 2	54
The piaster ecu, or crown of Cosmus III. present duke of Tuscany, whose monies are about 4 per cent. lighter than those of his father; this piece is 8½ julios	W. 1	16 18	16 16 4	51.69
The croisat of Genoa, or piece of 7½ lires	B. 7	24 15	25 9 11	78.74
The ecu d'argent of Genoa, or piece of 7 lires 12 sols		17 21		
The piaster ecu, or crown of Milan		20 20		
The Philip of Milan, a piece of 7 livres		3 22		
The livre, or 20 sols piece of Savoy		1 23		
The 10 sols piece of Savoy	B. 16½	7 10	7 23 4	24.07
A roupee	W. 75	12 19	8 11 5	26.26
A gout gulden, or florin d'or, a Dutch coin of 28 stivers	W. 48	11	8 14 18	26.72
Another gout gulden	W. 48	12	9 9 15	29.15
Another				

GOLD COINS UNKNOWN.

	Assay. car. gr.	Weight. dw. gr.	Standard Weight. dw. gr. mi.	Value. s. d.
The old Louis d'or	W. 0 0½	4 8	4 7 8	16 9.3
The half and quarter in proportion	W. 0 0½	2 4	2 3 14	8 5
The new Louis d'or	W. 0 1½	5 5⅖	5 3 18	20 0.6
The half and quarter in proportion	W. 0 1½	2 14 7/10	2 13 19	10 0.3
The old Spanish double doublon	W. 0 0½	17 8	17 5 12	67 1.4
The old Spanish double pistole	W. 0 0½	8 16	8 14 16	33 6.7
The old Spanish pistole	W. 0 0½	4 8	4 7 8	16 9.3
The new Seville double pistole		8 16⅓		
The new Seville pistole		4 8⅙		
The half and quarter in proportion				
The doppia moeda, or double moeda of Portugal new coined	W. 0 0¼	6 22	6 21 12	26 10.4
The doppia moeda as they come into England	W. 0 0¼	6 21¾	6 21 7	26 9.9
The moeda of Portugal	W. 0 0¼	3 11	3 10 16	13 5.1
The half moeda	W. 0 0¼	1 17½	1 17 8	6 8.5
The Hungary ducat	B. 1 2	2 5⅔	2 9 7	9 3.6
The ducat of Holland, coined at Legem Imperii	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Campen in Holland	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of the bishop of Bamberg	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
The double ducat of the duke of Hanover	B. 1 2	4 10½	4 17 9	18 4.8
The ducat of the duke of Hanover	B. 1 2	2 5¼	2 8 18	9 2.7
The ducat of Brandenburgh	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Sweden	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Denmark	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
The ducat of Poland	B. 1 2	2 5	2 8 12	9 2.1
The ducat of Transylvania	B. 1 1½	2 4¾	2 7 6	8 11.6
The sequin, chequin, or zacheen of Venice	B. 1 3½	2 5¾	2 10 7	9 5.7
The old Italian pistole	W. 0 0¼	4 6¾	4 6 11	16 7.6
The double pistole of pope Urban, 1634		8 14½		
The half pistole of Innocent II, 1685		2 4		
A double pistole of Placentia		8 10		
A double pistole of Genoa, 1621		8 16		
A double pistole of Milan		8 13½		
A single pistole of Milan		4 6¾		
A pistole of Savoy, 1675		4 8½		
Double ducats of Castile, Genoa, Portugal, Florence, Hungary, and Venice	B. 1 2½	4 11	4 18 18	18 7.7
Single ducats of the same places	B. 1 2½	2 5½	2 9 9	9 3.8
Double ducats of several forms in Germany	B. 1 1	4 11	4 17 1	18 4
Single ducats of the same places	B. 1 1	2 5½	2 8 5½	9 2
Double ducats of Genoa	B. 1 2	4 11	4 18 6	18 6.5
Single ducats of Genoa, Besançon, and Zurich	B. 1 2	2 5½	2 9 3	9 3.2
Pistole of Rome, Milan, Venice, Florence, Savoy, Genoa, Orange, Trevou, Besançon	W. 0 0¼	4 6	4 5 17	16 6.7
A Barbary ducat, with Arabic letters on both sides in square tablets, without any effigies or escutcheon	W. 2 1½	2 16¼	2 9 6	9 3.5

N. B. The gold coin having been valued when guineas were at 21s. 6d. they are here reduced to the present standard of 21s.

A TABLE ſhewing into how many ſhillings a pound weight of ſilver hath, at ſeveral times, been coined; from Mr Lowndes, and Biſhop Fleetwood. Very uſeful for the readers of Mr Rapin's Hiſtory of England.

Years.	Fineneſs.		Shillings.	d.
28 E. I.	— 11 oz.	2 dw.	— 20	— 3
20 E. III.	— 11	2	— 22	— 6
27 E. III.	— 11	2	— 25	
9 H. V.	— 11	2	— 30	
1 H. VI.	— 11	2	— 37	— 6
4 H. VI.	— 11	2	— 30	
24 H. VI.	— 11	2	— 30	
49(39) H. VI.	— 11	2	— 37	— 6
5, 8, 11, 16, 24 E. IV. 1 R. III. 9 H. VII.	— 11	2	— 37	— 6
1 H. VIII.	— 11	2	— 45	
34 H. VIII.	— 10		— 48	
36 H. VIII.	— 6		— 48	
37 H. VIII.	— 4		— 48	
1 E. VI.	— 4		— 48	
3 E. VI.	— 6		— 72	
5 E. VI.	— 3		— 72	
6 E. VI.	— 11	1	— 60	
2 Mary	— 11		— 60	
2 Eliz.	— 11	2	— 60	
19 Eliz.	— 11	2	— 60	
43 Eliz.	— 11	2	— 62	

Which ſtandard has continued ever ſince.

For the computation of foreign monies into ſterling money, ſee the articles EXCHANGE, ARBITRATION, and all the chief STATES and EMPIRES in Europe, under their ordinary denomination, as FRANCE, HOLLAND, &c. &c.

An explanation of the foregoing tables of COINS.

For underſtanding the uſe of this table, it is to be obſerved, That the Engliſh pound Troy contains 12 ounces; one ounce 20 pennyweights; one pennyweight 24 grains; and one grain 20 mites.

The preſent Engliſh ſtandard for gold coin is 22 carats of fine gold, and two carats, or $\frac{1}{12}$, of alloy.

The ſilver coin contains 11 ounces two pennyweights fine ſilver, and 18 pennyweights of alloy, in the pound.

The firſt column of the preceding table expreſſeth the fineneſs of the aſſayed piece; the letter B ſignifying better, and W worſe, than the Engliſh ſtandard.

The ſecond column, the abſolute weight of the piece.

The third column, it's ſtandard weight, or it's quantity of ſtandard metal.

The fourth column, it's value in Engliſh money.

For example: in the ſecond article of ſilver coin, the new Seville piece of eight is $1\frac{1}{2}$ pennyweight in the pound worſe than the Engliſh ſtandard weight, 13 pennyweights, 21 grains, and 15 mites of ſterling ſilver; and is in value 43.11 decimal parts of a penny.

In the royal mint a pound of ſtandard gold is cut, or divided, into $44\frac{1}{2}$ parts, each a guinea, at which rate a guinea will weigh 5 pennyweights, nine grains, .4382 parts.

They were firſt coined in king Charles 2d's reign, and went for 20 ſhillings, and had their name from the gold whereof they were, being brought from that part of Africa called Guinea, which the elephant on them likewiſe denotes.

By the par of exchange is meant, the preciſe equality between any ſum or quantity of Engliſh money, and the money of a foreign country, into which it is exchanged, regard being had to the fineneſs as well as to the weight of each.

And becauſe this paper may be of uſe to others beſides merchants, who deſire to know the ſtate of our foreign trade, or our ſituation as to tranſactions in money with other countries; ſeeing the exchange with them, unleſs where ſubſidies are paid to princes abroad, armies or fleets maintained, or the dividends or ſale of our ſtocks belonging to foreigners may have influence; I ſay, the courſe of exchange indicates the ſtate of our commerce, as truly as the pulſe does that of the human body; and, for the uſe of ſuch gentlemen, there is here ſubjoined an account (in thoſe countries with whom we exchange) of the ſeveral denominations in which accounts are kept, as likewiſe the real courſe of exchange, from Caſtaign's Paper, as it ſtood March 28, 1729.

In Holland, or the Seven United Provinces, accounts are kept in guilders, ſtivers, and penings, or groſs. One guilder being equal to 20 ſtivers, and one ſtiver to 16 penings, or two groſs; ſix of their guilders they reckon equal to one pound, or 20 ſchillings Flemiſh, on which laſt the exchange between London and thoſe countries is always computed, and not on the guilder, though they are, by the above account of the ſeveral denominations, eaſily reduced one into the other. The real ſpecies are the rix dollar, valued at 50 ſtivers; the ducatoon = 63 ſtivers; but, though this be the current value of that piece, it is received at the bank of Amſterdam only at 60 ſtivers, which makes the difference, called agio, really of 5 per cent. between bank and current money.

The par of exchange between Engliſh and Dutch money is eaſily found, thus, as, by Sir Iſaac's table, the ducatoon of Holland is worth intrinſically 65.59 d. Engliſh, which is received at the bank, as has been already ſaid, at 60 ſtivers, or three guilders, and conſequently is equal to 10 ſchillings Flemiſh; therefore, by the rule of three, as 65.59 d. Engliſh is to 10 s. Flemiſh, ſo is 240 d. in a pound Engliſh to a fourth number, which will be found to be 36.59 s. Flemiſh; and ſo much bank money at Amſterdam ſhould be received for one pound, or 240 pence ſterl. This is the real par: and whatever is received more or leſs than this, is gain or loſs to England. In this, and the other calculations of the par, regard is had only to the coined ſilver of the ſeveral countries, and not to the accidental price, or value, that ſilver in bullion may be, for this never is long the ſame.

In Flanders, or the Ten Provinces, accounts are kept either as in Holland, or in pounds, ſchillings, and pence Flemiſh. One pound Flemiſh = 20 ſchillings, and one ſchilling = 12 pence; the rix dollar here only 48 ſtivers. In reducing the money of this country into that of Holland, you are to obſerve, that one pound Flemiſh, as it is called, is = to ſix guilders, and, of conſequence, one ſchilling Flemiſh = ſix ſtivers, or 12 groſs, one ſtiver being = two groſs.

Antwerp having been formerly the chief city of trade of the whole Seventeen Provinces, we exchange even upon Holland to this day in Flemiſh money. In ſome parts of Flanders they divide the ſhilling into patars, inſtead of pence, ſix whereof go to a ſhilling.

In Hamburgh, accounts are kept in marks lubſh; a mark is = 16 ſchillings; a ſchilling is = 12 pence, or deniers: a rix dollar is = three marks, or 48 ſchillings lubſh: but there is a difference between bank money and Hamburgh currency; bank money is 16 per cent. better. In exchange for London, they give ſo many ſchillings and groots Vlamiſh for a pound ſterling, 8 July, 1740, 34 ſchillings, two groot Vlamiſh, which is bank money, and makes 12 marks 13 ſhillings banco.

Leghorn. They keep their accounts in crowns of gold, which is divided into 20 ſolds, each ſold into 12 deniers. A crown of gold, which they mark thus €, is divided otherwiſe into $7\frac{1}{2}$ liras; and a dollar, or piaſter, of exchange, is = ſix liras, a ducat = ſeven liras.

Venice. They have two ſorts of ducats, one banque, and the other courant, the latter 20 per cent. worſe, or as the agio rules, than thoſe called bank ducats; each of them are divided into 124 ſoldi, or 24 gros, or ſix liras four ſols, for they account likewiſe by liras, ſoldi, and picoli, as we do in pounds, ſhillings, and pence; ſo that they have two ſorts of liras, though each divided in the ſame manner; one lira di gros is = 10 ducats. A ſequin being = 17 liras, and worth, by Sir Iſaac's table, 9 s. 5.7 d. ſterling. Say therefore, If 17 liras give 9 s. 5.7 d. what will 7 liras 8 ſoldi a ducat of bank give? Anſwer, 49.492 d.

Genoa. Accounts are kept in liras, ſols, and deniers, ſummed by 20 and 12, as we do, which are reduced into dollars, or piaſters, of 96 ſols.

In France, accounts are kept in livres, ſols, and deniers; one livre is = 20 ſols, and one ſol = 12 deniers.

In exchanging with that country we pay ſo many pence ſterling for their crown, by which crown is always meant 3 livres, or 60 ſols, though they have not always any coined piece of ſilver preciſely of the value of 3 livres; therefore this ideal or nominal crown, is to be diſtinguiſhed from the coined, or real piece of ſilver, which paſſes likewiſe under the name of a crown, or ecu, but, for diſtinction's ſake, is called un ecu d'argent, or ecu blank, or a crown of ſo many livres, for this crown in ſpecie may be double that of account, or exchange, and then, conſequently, the crown in exchange is paid in France by the half of that real or ſpecie crown.

The exchange between France and other countries varies more than any other, owing to the frequent alteration of their coin, which is done by the king's arret, wherein he declares and orders, how many crowns in ſpecie, or livres, ſols and deniers, are to be coined at his mints out of the mark, as they call it, or eight of their ounces of ſilver; but this mark is only 7 oz. 17 pwt. 12 gr. Engliſh weight; which, at 5 s. 2 d. is worth only l. 2 : 0 : 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſterling.

By the arret in France, of 15 June, 1726, the king orders, that there ſhould be coined out of the mark 8 $\frac{1}{8}$ crowns, each crown to paſs for 6 livres; that is, the mark, when coined, to paſs for 50 livres 5 ſols: from whence we have this equation, that 50 livres 5 ſols French are intrinſically worth, or = l. 2 : 0 : 8 $\frac{1}{4}$; from thence the par of exchange on the crown, or 3 livres French, may be deduced; for, if 50 livres 5 ſols be = l. 2 : 0 : 8 $\frac{1}{4}$, whatever is paid more or leſs than this is loſs or gain, and, conſequently, as the courſe of exchange then was, by the account ſubjoined from Caſtaign's Paper, France had the advantage of about 10 per cent. This ſhews their ignorance who, in books printed on this ſubject, pretend to note the par of exchange with France, as if their coin always remained the ſame; whereas there is no other way than by an actual aſſay, and weighing their ſpecies at the time, or ſeeing the king's arret: and indeed that exchange is ſo variable, that I have known it, within the ſpace of but a few years, from 5 l.

Engliſh to near 60d. for their crown of three livres; the firſt indeed was payable in their bank-notes, then in great diſcredit, viz. Anno 1720.

In Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, and all Spain, accounts are kept in maravedies, 34 of which is = to a rial, and 272 to a piaſter, or piece of $\frac{8}{8}$ rials new plate, or 10 of vellon. The piſtole of gold is = to 4 pieces of $\frac{8}{8}$. A rial of plate is worth 34 maravedies of plate, as a rial of vellon is worth 34 maravedies of vellon; ſo that thoſe two terms of plate and vellon, in Spain, not only ſignify the different metals of ſilver and copper, but the difference in accounts of money, for the piece of $\frac{8}{8}$ which is only = 272 maravedies of plate, is = 510 maravedies of vellon; ſo they ſay a rial of plate, or a rial of vellon; a maravedie of plate, or a maravedie of vellon; though the laſt is only a ſmall copper coin.

Another obſervation to be made on the exchange with Spain, is, the alteration in the augmenting their ſpecie; the dollar or piaſtre, which formerly went for 8 rials, being now raiſed to 10; ſo that London exchanging upon the piece of eight of 8 rials on that country ſtill as formerly, the alteration in the courſe of exchange ſhould be in proportion thus, if 10 rials of plate, or a dollar, be worth 54d. ſterling, what is 8 rials worth? Anſw. 43.2d.

Liſbon. Accounts are kept in reas, whereof 1000 go to what they call a millrea, which is no real coin but money of account; a cruſado of ſilver is 480 reas. But, as moſt payments are made in gold and few or none in ſilver, the moeda being worth only 26s. 10.4d. the rule to find the par will be as follows, if 4800 reas, for ſo many are in a moeda, give 26s. 10.4d. what will 1000 or one millrea give? Anſwer, 5s. 7.166d. which is near 2 per cent. in our favour.

The following table needs no explanation to merchants, but, to ſuch as are not, they are to be informed, that it is a copy of a paper uſually printed twice a week, by an eminent exchange-broker, or by one who is daily informed by the ſeveral dealers in exchange, of the current prices of the monies of the ſeveral countries we deal with in that way, and is looked upon to be very exact.

2. There are different ways among merchants of negotiating bills of exchange, according to the cuſtom of the countries abroad on which they are drawn; for example, if a bill is demanded on Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, or any other of the ſeventeen provinces, or on Hamburgh, the negotiation is always meant to be on the pound ſterling, and then the queſtion or bargain to be made is, how many ſchillings and pence Flemiſh are to be received in thoſe parts for each pound ſterling, and as this varies according to the demand, and one receives ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs, it is termed, by ſome writers on this ſubject of exchange, giving the certain for the uncertain, though not ſo properly. On other countries it is the reverſe of this, for a piece of a certain value or denomination is ſtipulated to be delivered abroad, and the agreement to be made is, how much Engliſh money is to be paid here for that piece of foreign coin; thus we exchange with France on their crown or three livres Tournois, with Spain on their piece of eight, with Portugal on their millrea, &c. as may be ſeen in the paper ſubjoined.

Laſtly, It is to be obſerved, that the value or prices of Engliſh money towards the left-hand are the rates at which bills were actually negotiated on the exchange of London the poſt-day of that date, and that the column towards the right-hand is the par or intrinſick value, by which may be known at any time which has the advantage, this or the country we exchange with.

Courſe of exchange by Caſtaign's paper, 28 March, 1729, the intrinſic or par at 5s. 2d.

		Flem.	s.	d.			Par.
Amſterdam,	for 1l. ſterl.	34	6	-	-		36.59
Rotterdam,		34	7	-	-		36.59
Antwerp,		35	3	-	-		35.17
Hamburgh,		33	7	-	-		35.17

	Engl.	d.			d.
Madrid, &c. for a p. of 8	43.5		Par alſo in Engl.		43.2
Genoa, for a dollar -	54.75		- - -		54
Leghorn, for a dollar -	51		whereof 2 ſorts, 1 worth 54, the other 51.69		54
Venice, for a ducat of bank	48.625		- -		49.492
Paris, for a crown, 3 liv.	32.5		- -		29.149
Liſbon, for a millrea	66		- -		67.166

Of the augmentation and diminution of COIN in denomination.

Under the article MONEY, I ſhall endeavour to ſhew the effects of the increaſe and decreaſe of the actual quantity of circulating money in a ſtate; what I propoſe to conſider, at preſent, is the nominal increaſe and decreaſe of money, as it hath been commonly practiſed in France.

Let the ounce or crown of ſilver in France be at 4 livres, and then let a recoinage be made with a new ſtamp; let an edict be iſſued, ordering the new ſtamped ounce to paſs for 5 livres in payments, while the old ſtamped ounce ſhall continue to paſs but for 4 livres, and in a month or two to be decried and made bullion, to be received only at the mint, like other bullion, at 4 livres the ounce.

If the general ballance of trade be at this time againſt France, this diſpoſition of the coin will prove ſoon ineffectual; for, as in this caſe there is money due to foreigners, the money-exporters will at firſt give 4 livres 5 ſols in new money for an old crown, or for an ounce of bullion; and then 4 liv. 10, 4 liv. 15, 4 liv. 17, 6, becauſe the old coin is as good in foreign countries as the new, and ſo the intention of the edict for the recoinage will be null and eluded: for, although the ignorant people may at firſt keep to the tenor of the edict, yet, as the money-exporters offer them more for their old coin than the mint, they will ſell it under the roſe, or make evaſive bargains againſt the law.

This will be the caſe, if the general ballance of trade be againſt France at the time of the recoinage; but, if the ballance be in favour of France, a good part of the old coin will be carried to the mint, according to the intention of the edict, to be recoined; for, though ſeveral money-proprietors will lock up the old ſpecies, and chuſe to keep it by them without intereſt for a year or two, rather than loſe 20 per cent. of their weight, yet, as there is no demand for the old ſpecies for exportation, thoſe who do not lock it up, have no way to employ it, but to carry it to the mint: all undertakers and conſumers muſt do ſo for the neceſſary exigences of barter, and the foreigners who have money payable in France, having none of the new ſtamp, muſt ſend their bullion to the mints in France by their correſpondents, to pay their debts.

Let us ſuppoſe 10,000,000 ounces of ſilver of 4 livres, or 40,000,000 of livres, carried on the circulation in Paris before the recoinage; that 2,000,000 ounces are locked up, and that 8,000,000 ounces are gradually recoined at the mint; theſe 8 millions, new ſtamped at 5 livres, will make 40,000,000 of livres in circulation, and conſequently a livre will go as far now as before, though it be one fifth part lighter: but, if about a year after the old coin is alſo raiſed to 5 livres the ounce, and the money locked up comes into circulation, there will be then 50,000,000 of livres in circulation, though ſtill no more than 10,000,000 of ounces of ſilver, and conſequently commodities will be dearer in denomination, or in livres, though ſtill of the ſame price as before, in weight of money.

Let us again ſuppoſe the coin to be diminiſhed by an edict 1 ſol, or 1 per cent. monthly for 20 months, when the ounce, or coin of 5 livres, ſhall be reduced to 4 livres, theſe will be, and commonly are, the conſequences.

The undertakers of the foreign trade will, from the facility they find of borrowing, as they fancy, without intereſt, bring in large quantities of foreign commodities for the conſumption of two or three years ſometimes, and at high prices, ſo raiſed and enhanced by the greatneſs of the demand: on the other hand, the undertakers of the French commodities will raiſe the price of them, and chuſe to keep their goods by them, rather than ſell them for a ſpecies that diminiſhes monthly, unleſs they can raiſe the price in proportion to the fall of money. Thus not only the foreign commodities, but alſo the home commodities in France, riſe extravagantly in their price, during the diminutions; and this dearneſs of the French commodities makes the foreigners buy as little of them as poſſible.

From theſe two operations it is plain, the ballance of trade ought to turn againſt France, during the time of the diminutions, and 'tis remarkable, that the exchange with foreign places, in theſe circumſtances, is 8 to 12 per cent. to the diſadvantage of France: ſo violent is the demand for the exportation of money. In the mean time, the French public funds riſe in value, and the king is enabled, by the fear people have of loſing by the diminution, to borrow good ſums upon which he is content to loſe the diminutions himſelf; but, in order to retrieve part of that loſs, he commonly makes a recoinage and augmentation, about the end of the time fixed for the diminutions.

At this juncture, the money in the king's coffers is locked up, 'till it can be iſſued in the new augmented coin. Several money-proprietors not only keep up their ſums at this time, but alſo long after the augmentation, rather than exchange them for new money at 20 per cent. loſs in the weight. Great ſums, as we obſerved, have been exported in the payment of the ballance of trade, and conſequently the ſcarcity of money in France at the cloſe of the diminution, and beginning of the augmentation, is ſo great, that barter and trade are in perfect convulſions.

'Tis not ſurprizing, that, in theſe circumſtances, all commodities grow vaſtly cheap in France; they have foreign commodities for the conſumption of ſeveral years, and their own commodities unexported by foreigners, and lying on their hands, are in great plenty. On the other hand, money, though lighter ſince the augmentation, is exceſſively ſcarce, and the king iſſues it out of the mint for the payment of his troops, officers, &c. barely for their ſuſtenance. So that the increaſe of the money in denomination does not anſwer, even nominally, the diminution of it's quantity by exportation and hoarding.

Now

Now the foreigners, finding the French commodities cheaper by 50 or 60 per cent. than before, will buy large quantities of them, while the French, on the other hand, want to buy nothing from the foreigners, and ſo the ballance of trade, which was againſt France during the diminutions, turns in it's favour about the time of the augmentations.

And this turn, it ſhould ſeem, ought to bring back into France the money exported, but it is to be conſidered, that the French bought the foreign goods at high prices, and now ſell their goods at very low prices; and ſo, upon the whole of theſe operations, the French are great loſers. On the contrary, the French undertakers bought foreign commodities for the conſumption of ſeveral years, and the foreigners who fear to loſe by the diminutions in their own country, do not go ſo far, and their undertakers or merchants only buy reaſonable large quantities, without over-trading themſelves by borrowing of money. And thus it happens the ballance of trade againſt France is ſtrong and violent at the time of the diminutions, but the ballance, which turns in favour of France at the time of the augmentations, is ſlower and more regular.

Though the new ſpecies after the augmentation is current at 20 per cent. above the price of the old ſpecies and bullion, at the mints in France; yet the foreigners will ſend bullion to be recoined in the French mints at 20 per cent. loſs in the weight, becauſe they have no new coin to ſend, and that they find the French commodities from 50 to 60 per cent. cheaper than before, out of which they can afford to loſe the 20 per cent. tax at the mint.

It has been obſerved, that the Hollanders, who, in the time of the diminutions, ſold the French merchants tea and ſpices, have had the ſame commodities ſent back to them after the augmentation, for about $\frac{2}{3}$ of the original coſt in Holland, and that the tax of the mint has come out of the ſaid $\frac{2}{3}$ ſent in ſpecie to Paris from Holland.

From what has been ſaid, it ſeems pretty apparent, that the king may levy a tax of 20 per cent. or more upon all the money carried to the mint, and that a great part is carried in at that diſadvantage, when the ballance of trade is in favour of France.—That, if an augmentation on recoining is made after diminutions, the ballance of trade will be naturally in favour of France.—And that the ſaid tax at the mint is levied at the expence of the French ſubjects only, and not of foreigners, who find the cheapneſs of French commodities an advantage, not only proportionable to the ſaid tax, but conſiderably exceeding it. And experience ſhews, that foreigners who travel in France, find their account better to ſpend their money there, while the tax of 20 per cent. is levied at the mint, than when the old and new coin are at the ſame price, and the ballance of trade equal or in favour of France. For, in this caſe, all the money in France enters into circulation, and enhances the price of commodities.

Nor does the tax at the mint only fall upon the French ſubjects, but it hurts them in the ballance of trade, when the new coin is counterfeited in foreign parts, and ſent into France. For, in this caſe, the foreigners get 20 per cent. from the French ſubjects for nothing, and yet have their commodities at low and cheap prices. And ſo much as they get by falſifying the French new coin, diminiſhes the ſum due to the French nation in the ballance of trade.

'Tis eaſy to conceive, that while the ballance is due to France, and the tax of 20 per cent. levied at the mint, the rule of foreign exchange with France muſt be taken from the par of the price of bullion at the mints in France, ounce for ounce, and not ounce for ounce of new coin; this tax, being a force and reſtraint on trade for the time it is practicable, makes an exception to the rule of exchanges we have laid down elſewhere in one reſpect; though, as an ounce of ſilver in bullion or old ſpecie is worth in France ſo much at that time, an ounce, ſent from a foreign country thither, will be juſt worth the ſame, and the exchange will be fixed upon that par, and conſequently the rule of exchanges, laid down in this work, will ſtand univerſally true. See the articles BALLANCE of Trade, CASH, CIRCULATION, EXCHANGE, MONEY.

However, the miſchief of this reſtraint on trade, as we have obſerved, falls wholly upon France; and it muſt ſurprize every one, who maturely conſiders the matter, to hear, that even a miniſter of the finances in France ſhould alledge, that this tax was a mighty advantage France maintained againſt foreigners, who were forced to pay 120 ounces for every 100 ounces they owed in France: and ſuppoſe it might be continued as long as the French government thought fit. But, if the inductions we have made were not ſufficient to prove the miſtake of theſe notions, it would be ſufficient to prove the error in the firſt of them, from this ſingle fact; That France is always lower and in greater diſtreſs at the times it makes that ſeeming advantage by foreign trade, than at any other time, all other circumſtances being equal.

Now it ſeems to be a matter of ſurprize, that whereas the augmentations and diminutions in France were ſo conſtantly practiſed for above 30 years, and that France loſt conſiderably in all theſe operations, as has been explained; and that many other ways of levying money for the king would be leſs prejudicial to the ſubject; I ſay, it ſeems ſurprizing, that the effects of theſe operations have not proved more fatal to France than they have appeared to be.

But it is to be obſerved, that bankruptcies in France occaſioned by the diminutions, whereby foreigners have often loſt greatly, have frequently ſaved France very large ſums: nothing clears a ballance due to foreign nations ſafter, than the bankruptcy of the undertakers and dealers concerned in it. In the year 1715, there were 19 foreign dealers in 20 broke in France. Of 27 dealers for foreign parts in the little city of Rochelle, 24 were broke in that year. And, of about 200 bankers at Paris, not above three or four ſtood it. After the South-Sea frenzy in England, the bankruptcies ſaved the nation above four millions of ounces, which otherwiſe muſt have been made good to foreigners.

But this is a ſorry way of clearing the ballance of trade, and 'tis apparent upon the whole, that the diminutions and augmentations in France, not only contribute to the impoveriſhing the kingdom, but keep it commonly under great uneaſineſſes, difficulties, and diſtractions.

Of the augmentation or diminution of the COIN in denomination, to fix a par between GOLD and SILVER.

The proportion of the value between gold and ſilver, has varied in different ages and countries, according to the quantity of theſe metals.

Before the diſcovery of the plate mines in the Weſt-Indies, an ounce of gold in Europe was equal in value to ten ounces of ſilver; but, ſince ſilver has been brought in great quantities out of New Spain, it was found in the altercations at market in Spain, that an ounce of gold was equal to 16 ounces of ſilver, and the value of gold and ſilver was fixed by law in that proportion; and the ſame rule was kept to nearly in the other countries of Europe, allowing ſome ſmall differences for the conveniencies of barter, and the management of ſome directors of mints. The Eaſt-India trade brought in gradually ſome little variation in this par, by exporting ſilver and bringing home gold; and, ſince that, the diſcovery of the Brazil gold mines has influenced it ſtill more.

In Japan, the proportion of gold to ſilver is 1 to 8, in China 1 to 10, in the Mogul empire 1 to 12, and ſo weſtward as you come nearer to the ſilver mines, as 1 to 13, to 14, &c. But, as the quantities of gold began to increaſe in Europe beyond the proportion of thoſe of ſilver, this laſt metal grew again in requeſt, and ſold in the altercations at an agio or profit againſt gold (upon the foot of the par of 1 to 16) of 2, 3, 5, 8 per cent. The French, in order to have a larger quantity of ſilver in circulation, as it is fitter in barter than gold, fixed the proportion of their gold coin to their ſilver coin in 1700, as 1 to 15: but the Engliſh let the old par remain, and the coins to find their own proportion in the altercations at market: but then, finding the inconveniencies of this in barter, where ſilver paſſed in coin for leſs than it did at the market; and, conſequently, obſerving that no ſilver remained in circulation but ſuch as was worn, in order to preſerve ſome for the common circulation and barter, they ſet themſelves to conſider of fixing a new par between gold and ſilver.

This might have been eaſily done, perhaps, if they had agreed to give ſilver coin that value by law, which it found at market by the agio given for it in exchange for gold; and if the ounce of ſtandard ſilver, which ſold for 5 s. 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. had been coined to paſs at a proportionable price by law, having regard to avoid fractions.

And in regard the ſame cauſes, which raiſed an agio upon ſilver, long ſubſiſted, they might reaſonably, for that time, have put the coin at 5 s. 6 d. by law, ſince it was nearly worth that at market.

But, inſtead of that, it was determined by Sir Iſaac Newton's repreſentation to the treaſury to lower gold, and in conſequence guineas were reduced from 21 s. 6 d. to 21 s. This reduction did not bring the proportion near enough, and the miſchief was only a little eaſed but not cured; and no ſilver for a long time was coined at the Tower, but ſome South Sea ſhillings under the old ſtandard, which was, 'tis conceived, very neceſſary, and ought to have been done at firſt.

Though the reduction of gold was not ſo natural, perhaps, as the raiſing the value of ſilver (or rather giving ſilver in coin the value it had at market); yet it would have equally anſwered the end of fixing the par neceſſary between theſe metals, if the reduction had been great enough. But ſtill it would have been, as in effect it was, a diſadvantage to England, with regard to foreigners.

The foreigners remitted all their money in the Engliſh funds in gold or guineas at 21 s. 6 d. If they ſent any part in ſilver, they had the market-price for it, 5 s. 4 d. to 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; and, if we ſuppoſe their capitals in the Engliſh funds to amount to no more, at that time, than only 5 millions ſterling, they paid for them in guineas at 21 s. 6 d. or ſomething equivalent, 4,651,163 guineas; and they received for them at 21 s. 4,761,904 guineas, which was a clear loſs of 110741 guineas.

If it ſhould be objected that foreigners remitted their funds by bills of exchange, it might be anſwered, that would have been

been the ſame thing as remitting them in guineas of 21s. 6d. ſince that operation would have hindered the exportation of ſo many guineas at 21s. 6d. or ſo much ſilver at 5s. 5d. ½ per ounce; and I have taken notice of this frivolous objection, becauſe ſome grave writers have uſed it on the like occaſions. If it ſhould be objected, that ſilver is the true old money of England by law, and as ſuch ought not to be altered, I anſwer in that caſe, that gold ought to have been merchandize as in China, and not money by law: if that had been the caſe in England, guineas would not have paſſed at market for above 20s. 8d. and there would have been no need of fixing any par between theſe metals; but, as the caſe ſtood, guineas were money at 21s. 6d. and no body could refuſe them at that price: and, as ſilver grew in requeſt above the value or proportion given it by law, it is humbly ſubmitted, whether or no a law ought not to have been made to give it that value, which the market gave it. And all laws for fixing the proportion of gold and ſilver were made in conſequence to the market-price in all ages, for there was no other rule but the market-price whereby to find their proportion.

The lowering of gold was, indeed, for the advantage of the revenue, the landed men, and the proprietors of the ſtocks; and ſeems only to have been to the diſadvantage of the farmers and others, who had payments to make in weightier money than before, and of the Engliſh nation in general with reſpect to foreigners.

The proportion between gold and ſilver, in England, is 15 1/5 to 1. The Engliſh gold coin is 22 carats fine, and 44 ½ guineas are cut out of a pound Troy: the ſilver coin is 11 ounces 2 penny-weights fine; that is, there are 18 penny-weights of alloy in the pound Troy, and 62 ſhillings are cut out of the pound. Whence the value of the pound weight of fine gold will amount to 50l. 19s. 5d. ½ ſterling, and the value of the ſame pound weight of fine ſilver to 3l. 7s. and ſomewhat more than a farthing, viz. 67.027s. Conſequently fine gold is to fine ſilver as 15 1/5 to 1, whereby it appears that gold is higher, and ſilver lower rated in England, than in any other nation in Europe.

In Spain and Portugal, indeed, the proportion of gold to ſilver, in their coin, is as 16 to 1; but, as this high price of gold carries away their ſilver, and there is, on that account, for the moſt part a premium of 6 per cent. on payments in ſilver, it comes to the ſame thing, as if gold was to ſilver there really as 15 1/3 to 1. So that we may ſay, without exception, gold is higher valued in England than any where elſe in Europe. The conſequence of which is the draining the kingdom of it's ſilver; and therefore 'tis humbly ſubmitted, if it may not be highly neceſſary ſome how to remedy ſuch an evil.

Some, indeed, have obſerved, that laws, which fix and ſettle the proportion between gold and ſilver coins, are very prejudicial: to ſupport which they reaſon thus,

For as metals themſelves, ſay they, vary here in value weekly as the proportion changes abroad, one or other of our coins muſt be carried away with loſs to the nation, as is often the caſe with our ſilver coins; as for example: A pound of ſtandard ſilver is coined into 62s. ſo that one pound and 1/62 thereof makes 63s. and exchanges for three guineas. By Caſtaign's paper of February 3, 1740, ſtandard ſilver was at 5s. 7d. ½ per ounce, which makes, for 1 pound and 1/62, 68s. 7d. 4/62, being above 5s. 7d. 4/62, which is more than the currency; almoſt 9 per cent. loſs to us, and gain to foreigners, who carry away our ſilver coin. Can we wonder at the ſcarcity of it, when we make it ſo profitable an article to be carried away? Mr Locke obſerves, in his Conſiderations, &c. p. 167: 'If your law ſet it, i. e. the proportion 'of gold to ſilver, at 15, when it is at the free market rate 'in the neighbouring countries as 16 to 1, will they not 'ſend hither their ſilver to fetch away your gold at 1/16 loſs 'to you? Or, if you will keep it's rate to ſilver as 15 to 1, 'when in Holland, France, and Spain, it's market value is 'but 14, will they not ſend hither their gold, and fetch 'away your ſilver at 1/15 loſs to you? This is unavoidable, 'if you will make money of both gold and ſilver at the ſame 'time, and ſet rates upon them by law in reſpect of one 'another.'

Sir Iſaac Newton's Repreſentation relating to the coin of England, in the year 1717.

An attempt was made this ſeſſion of parliament to lower the value of guineas. Mr Aiſlabie, then chancellor of the Exchequer, having taken notice of the great ſcarcity of ſilver coin, occaſioned chiefly by the exportation of ſilver and importation of gold, propoſed, that a ſpeedy remedy might be put to the growing evil, by lowering the value of gold ſpecies. Upon this the king was addreſſed for the repreſentations made by the officers of the mint, to the treaſury, in relation to the gold and ſilver coins. Accordingly Mr Lowndes preſented to the houſe ſeveral papers relating to the coins, and particularly Sir Iſaac Newton's repreſentation to the lords of the treaſury; which being referred to before, we preſume it will not be unacceptable to the reader:

'In obedience to your lordſhips order of reference of Auguſt '12, that I ſhould lay before your lordſhips a ſtate of the 'gold and ſilver coins of this kingdom in weight and fine-'neſs, and the value of gold in proportion to ſilver, with 'my obſervations and opinion, and what method may be 'beſt for preventing the melting down of the ſilver coin; I 'humbly repreſent, that a pound weight Troy of Gold, 11 'ounces fine, and 1 ounce allay, is cut into 44 ½ guineas; 'and a pound weight of ſilver, 11 ounces 2 pennyweights 'fine, and 18 pennyweights allay, is cut into 62s. and, 'according to this rate, a pound weight of fine gold is worth '15 pounds weight, 6 ounces, 17 pennyweights, and 5 grains 'of fine ſilver, reckoning a guinea at 1l. 1s. 6d. in ſilver 'money. But ſilver in bullion exportable is uſually worth '2d. or 3d. per ounce more than in coin. And, if at a 'medium ſuch bullion of ſtandard allay be valued at 5s. 4d. ½ 'per ounce, a pound weight of fine gold will be worth 14 'pounds weight, 11 ounces, 12 pennyweights, 9 grains of 'fine ſilver in bullion. And, at this rate, a guinea is worth 'but ſo much ſilver as would make 20s. 8d. When ſhips 'are lading for the Eaſt-Indies, the demand of ſilver for ex-'portation raiſes the price to 5s. 6d. or 5s. 8d. per ounce, 'or above; but I conſider not thoſe extraordinary caſes.

'A Spaniſh piſtole was coined for 32 reas, or 4 pieces of 8 'reas, uſually called pieces of eight, and is of equal allay, 'and the 16th part of the weight thereof. And a doppio 'moeda of Portugal was coined for ten cruſadoes of ſilver, 'and is of equal allay, and the 16th part of the weight 'thereof; gold is therefore, in Spain and Portugal, of ſixteen 'times more value than ſilver of equal weight and allay, ac-'cording to the ſtandard of thoſe kingdoms; at which rate, 'a guinea is worth 22s. 1d. But this high price keeps 'their gold at home in good plenty, and carries away the 'Spaniſh ſilver into all Europe; ſo that at home they make 'their payments in gold, and will not pay in ſilver without 'a premium. Upon the coming in of a plate-fleet, the 'premium ceaſes, or is but ſmall; but, as their ſilver goes 'away and becomes ſcarce, the premium increaſes, and is 'moſt commonly about 6 per cent. which being abated, a 'guinea becomes worth about 20s. 9d. in Spain and Portugal.

'In France, a pound weight of fine gold is reckoned worth '15 pounds weight of fine ſilver; in raiſing or falling their 'money, their king's edicts have ſometimes varied a little 'from this proportion, in exceſs or defect; but the varia-'tions have been ſo little, that I do not here conſider them. 'By the edict of May 1709, a new piſtole was coined for '4 new lewiſſes, and is of equal allay, and the 15th part 'of the weight thereof, except the errors of the mints. And 'by the ſame edict, fine gold is valued at 15 times it's weight 'of fine ſilver, and at this rate a guinea is worth 20s. 8d. ½. 'I conſider not here the confuſion made in the monies in 'France, by frequent edicts to ſend them to the mint, and 'give the king a tax out of them; I conſider the value only 'of gold and ſilver in proportion to one another.

'The ducats of Holland and Hungary, and the empire, 'were lately current in Holland among the common people 'in their markets and ordinary affairs, at 5 guilders in ſpe-'cie, and 5 ſtivers, and commonly changed for ſo much 'ſilver monies in three guilder pieces, and guilder pieces, as 'guineas are with us, for 21s. 6d. ſterling; at which rate 'a guinea is worth 20s. 7d. ½.

'According to the rates of gold to ſilver in Italy, Germany, 'Poland, Denmark, and Sweden, a guinea is worth about '20s. and 7d. 6d. 5d. or 4d. for the proportion varies a 'little within the ſeveral governments in thoſe countries. In 'Sweden, gold is loweſt in proportion to ſilver, and this 'hath made that kingdom, which formerly was content with 'copper money, abound of late with ſilver, ſent thither (I 'ſuſpect) for naval ſtores.

'In the end of king William's reign, and the firſt year of 'the late queen, when foreign coins abounded in England, 'I cauſed a great many of them to be aſſayed in the mint, 'and found by the aſſays *, that fine gold was to fine ſilver 'in Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, Italy, Germany, and 'the northern kingdoms, in the proportions above-men-'tioned, errors of the mints excepted.

* See the foregoing table of Sir Iſaac Newton's aſſays, weights, and values, of foreign ſilver and gold coins.

'In China and Japan, one pound weight of fine gold is 'worth but 9 or 10 pounds weight of fine ſilver; and, in the 'Eaſt-Indies, it may be worth 12. And this low price of 'gold, in proportion to ſilver, carries away the ſilver from 'all Europe.

'So then, by the courſe of trade and exchange between na-'tion and nation in all Europe, fine gold is to fine ſilver as '14 4/5, or 15 to one; and a guinea, at the ſame rate, is 'worth between 20s. 5d. and 20s. 8d. ½, except in ex-'traordinary caſes, as when a plate-fleet is juſt arrived in 'Spain, or ſhips are lading here for the Eaſt-Indies, which 'caſes I do not here conſider. And it appears by experience 'as well as by reaſon, that ſilver flows from thoſe places 'where it's value is loweſt in proportion to gold, as from 'Spain to all Europe, and from all Europe to the Eaſt-Indies, 'China, and Japan; and that gold is moſt plentiful in

'thoſe

‘ thoſe places, in which it's value is higheſt in proportion to ‘ ſilver, as in Spain and England.

‘ It is the demand for exportation, which hath raiſed the ‘ price of exportable ſilver about 2 d. or 3 d. in the ounce ‘ above that of ſilver in coin, and hath thereby created a ‘ temptation to export or melt down the ſilver coin, rather ‘ than give 2 d. or 3 d. more for foreign ſilver; and the de- ‘ mand for exportation ariſes from the higher price of ſil- ‘ ver in other places than in England, in proportion to ‘ gold, that is, from the higher price of gold in England ‘ than in other places, in proportion to ſilver, and therefore ‘ may be diminiſhed by lowering the value of gold in pro- ‘ portion to ſilver. If gold in England, or ſilver in the ‘ Eaſt-Indies, could be brought down ſo low as to bear the ‘ ſame proportion to one another in both places, there would ‘ be here no greater demand for ſilver than for gold to be ‘ exported to India: and, if gold were lowered only ſo as ‘ to have the ſame proportion to the ſilver money in Eng- ‘ land, which it hath to ſilver in the reſt of Europe, there ‘ would be no temptation to export ſilver rather than gold ‘ to any other part of Europe: and, to compaſs this laſt, ‘ there ſeems nothing more requiſite, than to take off about ‘ 10 d. or 12 d. from the guinea, ſo that the gold may bear ‘ the ſame proportion to the ſilver money in England, which ‘ it ought to do by the courſe of trade and exchange in Eu- ‘ rope; but, if only 6 d. were taken off at preſent, it would ‘ diminiſh the temptation to export or melt down the ſilver- ‘ coin, and by the effects would ſhew hereafter, better than ‘ can appear at preſent, what further reduction would be ‘ moſt convenient for the public.

‘ In the laſt year of king William, the dollars of Scotland, ‘ worth about 4 s. 6 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, were put away in the north of ‘ England for 5 s. and at this price began to flow in upon ‘ us; I gave notice thereof to the lords commiſſioners of the ‘ treaſury, and they ordered the collectors of taxes to forbear ‘ taking them, and thereby put a ſtop to the miſchief.

‘ At the ſame time, the louis d'ors of France, which were ‘ worth but 17 s. and three farthings a-piece, paſſed in Eng- ‘ land for 17 s. 6 d. I gave notice thereof to the lords com- ‘ miſſioners of the treaſury, and his late majeſty put out a ‘ proclamation that they ſhould go but at 17 s. and there- ‘ upon they came to the mint, and 1,400,000 l. were coined ‘ out of them; and, if the advantage of 5 d. one farthing a ‘ louis d'or ſufficed, at that time, to bring into England ſo ‘ great a quantity of French money, and the advantage of ‘ three farthings in a louis d'or to bring it to the mint, the ‘ advantage of 9 d. halfpenny in a guinea, or above, may ‘ have been ſufficient to bring the great quantity of gold ‘ which hath been coined in theſe laſt 15 years, without any ‘ foreign ſilver.

‘ Some years ago the Portugal moidores were received in the ‘ weſt of England at 28 s. a-piece; upon notice from the ‘ mint that they were worth only about 27 s. 7 d. the lords ‘ commiſſioners of the treaſury ordered their receivers of ‘ taxes to take them at no more than 27 s. 6 d. Afterwards, ‘ many gentlemen in the weſt ſent up to the treaſury a pe- ‘ tition, that the receivers might take them again at 28 s. ‘ and promiſed to get returns for this money at this rate, al- ‘ ledging, that when they went at 28 s. their country was ‘ full of gold, which they wanted very much: but the com- ‘ miſſioners of the treaſury conſidering, that at 28 s. the na- ‘ tion would loſe 5 d. a-piece, rejected the petition. And, ‘ if an advantage to the merchant of 5 d. in 28 s. did pour ‘ that money in upon us, much more hath an advantage to ‘ the merchant of 9 d. halfpenny in a guinea, or above, been ‘ able to bring into the Mint great quantities of gold with- ‘ out any foreign ſilver, and may be able to do ſo ſtill, 'till ‘ the cauſe be removed.

‘ If things be let alone 'till ſilver-money be a little ſcarcer, ‘ the gold will fall of itſelf; for people are already backward ‘ to give ſilver for gold, and will, in a little time, refuſe to ‘ make payments in ſilver without a premium, as they do ‘ in Spain, and this premium will be an abatement in the ‘ value of gold: and ſo the queſtion is, whether gold ſhall ‘ be lowered by the government, or let it alone 'till it falls ‘ of itſelf, by the want of ſilver-money?

‘ It may be ſaid, that there are great quantities of ſilver in ‘ plate, and, if the plate were coined, there would be no ‘ want of ſilver-money: but I reckon that ſilver is ſafer from ‘ exportation in the form of plate than in the form of mo- ‘ ney, becauſe of the greater value of the ſilver and faſhion ‘ together; and, therefore, I am not for coining the plate, ‘ 'till the temptation to export the ſilver-money (which is a ‘ profit of 2 d. or 3 d. an ounce) be diminiſhed: for, as ‘ often as men are neceſſitated to ſend away money for an- ‘ ſwering debts abroad, there will be a temptation to ſend ‘ away ſilver rather than gold, becauſe of the profit, which ‘ is almoſt 4 per cent. And, for the ſame reaſon, fo- ‘ reigners will chuſe to ſend hither their gold rather than ‘ their ſilver.

Mint-office, Sept. 21, 1717.

All which is moſt humbly ſubmitted to your lordſhips great wiſdom,

ISAAC NEWTON.

REMARKS.

As this is a point of no little importance to the intereſts of commerce, I would not willingly omit any uſeful matter, that may give due light into it; and therefore ſhall quote the ſentiments of the celebrated Marquis Belloni, merchant and banker at Rome, in his Diſſertation on Commerce, which has been publiſhed ſince the commencement of this work.

1. Though, ſays he, we have already ſhewn what is underſtood by the proportion between gold and ſilver, and how that was ſettled at it's firſt inſtitution; yet, as it is a matter of the greateſt conſequence to trade, and, when not duly regarded, may greatly diſtreſs a ſtate; it is neceſſary to dwell longer on this ſubject, and obſerve the various caſes, in which the alteration of this proportion cannot fail to produce ſome remarkable effects.—When gold and ſilver aſſumed the form of money, both theſe metals had affixed to them a determinate value: and though, in former ages, the proportion between them was ſo ſettled, that every ounce of gold was equivalent nearly to 12 ounces of ſilver; yet afterwards, when America was diſcovered, gold came to be of ſuch eſteem, that the ounce was equal nearly in value to 15 ounces of ſilver.—This was occaſioned, we may believe, by the greater increaſe of ſilver from the mines. As this regulation was founded on the greater or leſſer quantity of one of theſe metals, the preſent proportion of 1 to 15 does not ſeem ſo well adjuſted as might be wiſhed. Becauſe, from the preſent ſcarcity of ſilver, which is owing to the great ſums of that coin that are carried to the Eaſt-Indies, the cuſtom of working large quantities of ſilver into plate, and to the decreaſe in the produce of the mines, the price of gold ſeems to be raiſed too high; and it were much to be wiſhed, that it were reduced to it's juſt proportion.

2. The equality between gold and ſilver being duly adjuſted, all other interior kinds of money, of the ſame ſtandard, would be ſubjected to the ſame rule, whereby many inconveniencies and miſchiefs would be prevented. For it is not poſſible to diſregard this proportion, but the certain loſs of the one or the other of the ſpecies muſt enſue; ſince, either of them being raiſed in its extrinſic value, the other will be carried out of the kingdom, or wrought into plate. But, before we explain the effects, which proceed from the want of this proportion, it may be proper to refute a certain opinion, prevalent in moſt countries, which is, that, in regulating the current value of money among ourſelves, we ought to have regard to the practice of neighbouring countries.—This is a miſtake of ſo capital a nature, that it is of the laſt conſequence to have it quite obliterated from the minds of men. And, though ſome endeavour to eſtabliſh this error by the ſimilitude of a river, which, raiſed above it's banks by the additional water of a land-flood, overflows two ſtates, and thereby obliges that which lies on the lower ground, for it's own ſecurity, to keep a watchful eye over that which lies higheſt, and on the banks of the ſame river; it may be anſwered, that this ſimilitude has no relation to the preſent purpoſe; and that, ſetting aſide the caſe of which we took notice, that it would be the intereſt of all Europe to alter the proportion that now obtains between the two metals, that are the materials of money, in all other particular circumſtances no variation ought to be admitted therein. And it is very eaſy to demonſtrate, that, in regulating the current value of the coin of a kingdom, it is of no moment to regard the conduct of neighbouring ſtates.

3. For if we ſuppoſe, for example's ſake, a kingdom in which the values of the metals are ſo adjuſted, that, according to the common ſyſtem of kingdoms, the gold and ſilver are rated in a due proportion to each other; and that, with reſpect to trade, it is alſo upon an equal footing with foreign countries: if, I ſay, matters are thus ſettled within the kingdom, I do not ſee what reaſon it can have to apprehend any diſadvantage or injury from it's neighbours.—On the contrary, if the circumſtances of a neighbouring country, in conſequence of having it's money-ſyſtem regulated by a wrong proportion, could have any influence on this kingdom, it muſt certainly be to it's benefit rather than otherwiſe. If we ſuppoſe, that in a neighbouring principality the money-ſyſtem is ſo regulated, that either of the two ſpecies is rated too high in reſpect of the other; it will follow, that the ſpecies which is eſtimated below the juſt proportion, will remove out of this principality, and be carried in great quantities into the neighbouring kingdom, in lieu of the ſpecies that will go into the former, as the price of the money that has the greateſt intrinſic value. To make this matter more intelligible by an inſtance, let us ſuppoſe, that in any place the money-ſyſtem is ſo conſtituted, that gold is eſtimated at a lower rate in reſpect of ſilver, than the juſt and exact proportion between theſe metals doth admit; in this caſe, the gold will go out of that country, and at the ſame time that it moves into another, and draws the ſilver-money from thence, it will carry into the latter a profit equal to the difference between the price the gold is rated at in the former, and it's true intrinſic value. And, if the kingdom that receives this great advantage, be alſo ſuppoſed to adopt the uſual practice of eſtimating foreign money, at no more than

the ſimple price of gold or ſilver in bullion, as the rules of a well regulated mint require, it will alſo gain an additional profit from the metal itſelf ſo imported. But whereas, at the ſame time that this kingdom reaps ſo much profit, it will be expoſed to one particular inconvenience, viz. that, while it abounds with gold, it will, in ſome meaſure, labour under a ſcarcity of ſilver, it will be no difficult matter to remedy any diſadvantage, that by this means may be occaſioned to trade: for, by bringing down the foreign gold in this ſame kingdom to the proportion which prevails in the neighbouring ſtates, the end will be attained.

4. But, becauſe this affair of money is a matter of ſuch importance, that it ought not to be paſſed over in a ſuperficial manner, but be thoroughly examined into, before we proceed to other things relating to the neceſſity of a proportion in commerce; it will be proper to make ſome reflections on the cuſtom whereby, to keep the money of a kingdom within itſelf, it has been ordered and inforced by laws, that no money be carried out of the kingdom. And, becauſe it is my intention to lay down, with candor and ſincerity, what may be of the greateſt uſe to promote commerce and good œconomy in ſtates and kingdoms, I muſt ſay, yet without deſign to offend againſt the reverence that is due to the regulations of thoſe that are at the helm of affairs in ſtates and republics, that this prohibition, if other prudent meaſures, proper to promote the end, be not employed, will not prove an effectual remedy. See the articles BALLANCE of TRADE, CIRCULATION, CASH.

5. And, ſeeing the deſign is to prevent the exportation of money, another method, in my opinion, ought to be purſued, and that is, rather to have recourſe to SUCH EXPEDIENTS AS MAY CONTRIBUTE TO PRESERVE THE BALLANCE OF TRADE [and this, I will humbly preſume to ſay, is the whole tenor and deſign of this Univerſal Dictionary of Trade and Commerce, to Great-Britain and Ireland, and it's Colonies and Plantations in America, and it's ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies and Africa] ſince it is moſt certain, that, whenſoever the commerce of a ſtate ſtands upon this equal footing, it's money muſt of conſequence continue in it; but, when the equilibrium is diſturbed, and the ballance is againſt the ſtate, it's money muſt be carried to foreign nations to pay for the exceſs of goods imported, above thoſe that have been exported; and, to conclude, if the ballance of trade is in it's favour, the money muſt not only continue in it, but alſo increaſe and multiply. [See the articles GREAT BRITAIN, BRITISH AMERICA, MONEY, EXCHANGE.] Since then, this is the true ſtate of the matter, and that from the three caſes we have propoſed, the effects already intimated muſt neceſſarily follow; it is very evident, that the remedies which conſiſt merely in prohibiting the exportation of money, do not reach the cauſe and root of the diſtemper, nor prevent the evils that ſpring from the prevalence of a PASSIVE COMMERCE. [See the article BULLION.]

6. And, to give a more convincing proof of the truth of this, let us ſuppoſe a kingdom, whoſe paſſive commerce is greater than it's active, and that the ſubjects are ſo obedient to their prince, that they carry not one farthing out of his dominions: what will follow in ſuch a caſe? Suppoſing that the ballance of trade is againſt that kingdom, and that it has contracted a debt to foreigners; unleſs theſe foreigners, by a ſtrange and unexpected generoſity, ſhould think proper to remit the whole of that ſum of money, which they have a right to exact, for the exceſs of the commodities imported above the value of the goods exported out of that kingdom; the price of exchange will, in this event, riſe ſo high to the prejudice of the ſubjects thereof, that if money be not exported in great quantities, and no other means be left for paying the debt but that of exchange, the ſubjects will be reduced to ſuch diſtreſs, for want of commodities to diſpoſe of for relieving their credit, that, to cancel the debts they have contracted for goods, they will be obliged to return thoſe very goods which they have purchaſed for their own conſumption. While, on the contrary, ſtrangers, who have contracted any debt in that kingdom, or want to raiſe money for purchaſing goods, will have the advantage of exchanges as much under par, as the ſubjects of the ſaid kingdom will find them raiſed above it in other markets, to the benefit of foreigners. In this ſituation of affairs, if the ſovereign of that kingdom ſhall exert himſelf to ſtop the courſe of money, which will naturally go out of his dominions, and rather chuſe to apply a direct, though unnatural, remedy to this evil, which is but an effect of the paſſive commerce his ſubjects are engaged in, and the active trade carried on by foreigners, than to think of proper means to cut off the cauſe and root of the diſtemper, every one ſees to how little purpoſe his pains will be beſtowed. From all which we are put under an indiſpenſable neceſſity to conclude, that there is not a better, nor more certain means, to keep money from going out of a kingdom, than to take particular care, that commerce with other kingdoms be conſtantly kept upon an equal footing at leaſt, and that an exact and true proportion be preſerved between gold and ſilver.

7. This opinion of ours, with regard to the proviſion which ought to be made for money, is confirmed by that celebrated expreſſion of the famous M. Colbert of France; for this great man uſed to ſay, That whenever a kingdom has the BALLANCE OF FOREIGN TRADE AGAINST IT, and is engaged in a paſſive commerce, ſuppoſing it were poſſible, that, in ſuch a caſe, a wall could be drawn quite round it, to prevent the exportation of money; if the LEAST HOLE is left in that wall, we ought to conclude, that, by this very hole, the money would find it's way out.

8. Since we have already proved, that theſe two things, to wit, the keeping of commerce conſtantly in æquilibrio, and maintaining an exact proportion between gold and ſilver, are eſſential points of good conduct, with regard to the preſervation of money; and ſufficiently ſhewn how, by the prevalence of paſſive commerce, money comes to move out of a kingdom into other ſtates; we muſt now proceed to examine how, without the influence of a particular ſtate of commerce, we ſhall here ſuppoſe to be in æquilibrio, a mere variation from the juſt proportion that ought to be obſerved between gold and ſilver, with reſpect to other nations, may be the occaſion of very great diſadvantages to a kingdom in the affair of money. Suppoſe then, that in a particular kingdom, we imagine, a money-ſyſtem prevails, that ſhall raiſe the gold above it's real value, and that in this regulation, inſtead of the common proportion of 1 to 15 that now obtains, an ounce of gold is allowed to be equivalent to 16 ounces of ſilver: ſince ſuch an alteration would raiſe the gold $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. above it's value, and reduce the ſilver to juſt ſo much below it's worth: it is evident, that this increaſe of the current price of gold would naturally cauſe the ſilver to be exported out of that kingdom; and, as gold would be imported in it's ſtead, and increaſe greatly, the nation muſt unavoidably loſe $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. of all the ſilver that would be thus exported.

9. On the other hand, ſhould the ſilver-money be raiſed above it's value, ſo that 14 ounces ſhould be eſteemed equivalent to an ounce of gold; while the proportion ſhould ſtand thus, the ſilver-money would not only continue in the kingdom, but alſo increaſe greatly, and the gold coin would be exported in the ſame proportion, and the nation would loſe upon it $7\frac{1}{7}$ per cent. Moreover, from either of theſe variations, two abſurdities would follow; the one is, that both the prince and the people would loſe of that part of their monied-property $6\frac{2}{3}$, if the above diſproportion ſhould fall upon the gold coin; and $7\frac{1}{7}$, if it ſhould fall upon the ſilver. The other inconvenience would be, that there would be no ſpecie to circulate in the kingdom but either gold only, or ſilver only, according as the one or the other of theſe metals ſhould happen to be eſtimated above it's true proportion.

10. As we have ſeparately conſidered two evils in commerce, the one when the ballance thereof is againſt a kingdom, and the other when the exact proportion between gold and ſilver is not duly regarded, and have ſhewn what loſs may be ſuſtained by means of either ſingly, without the concurrence of the other; let us now examine of what dangerous conſequence theſe two diſorders may prove to the public ſtock, when they meet together in the ſame kingdom. Let us then ſuppoſe a ſtate is in ſuch a ſituation, that it lies under the weight of a paſſive commerce with foreign nations, and, at the ſame time, in it's regulations with regard to money, matters are ſo diſpoſed, that, neglecting the common proportion of 15 ounces of ſilver to 1 of gold, they allow 16 ounces of the former for one of the latter: it is certain, that, in ſuch a diſpoſition of affairs, this kingdom will be expoſed to two great diſadvantages; whereof that will certainly be the greateſt, which proceeds from it's having the ballance of trade againſt it; for, thereby, the foreign exchanges will riſe high, by which means the money of that kingdom will be carried into other ſtates in greater or ſmaller quantities, as this ballance of trade is more or leſs againſt it: the other diſadvantage will be, that, by reaſon of the extravagant price of gold, the ſilver will be carried out of the kingdom. Moreover, a diſadvantage ariſing from the firſt of theſe cauſes will be, that this kingdom will loſe ſo much of it's effective caſh, as will amount to the price of all thoſe commodities which are brought from abroad, above the proportion of the goods that are exported out of it; and a ſecond, proceeding from the like cauſe, will be, that in this loſs will be comprehended another, by which the kingdom, on account of the difference of the price, ariſing from the diſproportion of gold above ſilver, will loſe $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. and to the former two we may add a third loſs, conſiſting in the ſcarcity of ſilver coin, which is moſt commonly uſed in domeſtic trade.

11. On the other hand, if the ſilver money is raiſed above it's intrinſic worth, the ſame conſequence will follow with reſpect to gold coin. For, if we ſuppoſe a regulation made, by which 14 ounces of ſilver, and no more, ſhall be accounted equivalent to an ounce of gold, immediately after it's value is thus diminiſhed, the gold coin will be carried out of the kingdom; and, beſides the loſs the kingdom ſuſtains by the ballance of trade being againſt it, ſuch kingdom will loſe likewiſe by the exportation of gold $7\frac{1}{7}$ per cent. over and above the ſcarcity of gold it will labour under.

12. Beſides, whether the diſproportion ſuppoſed to be introduced into the money-ſyſtem affect the gold or ſilver coin,

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in either caſe the kingdom will ſuffer alike: to avoid which diſadvantages, reaſon ſhould ſeem to require, that theſe two metals be regulated in their proportion, according to that ſyſtem, which ought to ſerve as a conſtant and univerſal rule to all, and is the general practice of the kingdoms of Europe; that is, to fix unalterably the proportion between gold and ſilver, taking the meaſure thereof, with reſpect to more or leſs, from the moſt conſiderable and diſtinguiſhed parts of Europe; it being proper to take our rules in this matter from ſuch, and, indeed, ſeveral kingdoms have already taken thoſe proper methods, to prevent the ſcarcity of ſilver.

13. And becauſe it ſeems to be of ſome uſe to conſider all the poſſible circumſtances of a kingdom, which, for example's ſake, we are allowed to ſuppoſe, that we may inquire into the conſequences that will follow from each of them; in order to ſatisfy the deſires of thoſe who have a curioſity to know the various effects of the ſeveral conditions of any ſtate, let another ſituation of a kingdom be propoſed.—Suppoſe then that this kingdom, by having the ballance of trade againſt it, is ſubjected to a paſſive commerce with foreigners; but, with regard to it's regulations in the affair of money, ſuppoſe them to be ſuch, that the juſt proportion is obſerved between the two metals: how would we know what will follow from this ſituation of affairs? This will be a new ſort of diſorder, and worſe, perhaps, than any other; ſince it is manifeſt, that both the gold and ſilver will be equally carried out of ſuch a kingdom; whence ſo great loſs and detriment will follow, that it will be proper to ſhut up the mint, and coin no more money. For, as the ballance of commerce is ſuppoſed to be againſt the nation, it will keep the exchange high, in proportion to the exceſs of the paſſive above the active commerce of the ſtate: and, as gold and ſilver bullion muſt be purchaſed abroad, which can only be done by exchange, theſe materials will coſt more than the money to be made out of them; for though, with reſpect to money, it is the prerogative of the prince to determine the weight, fineneſs, and value, not only of gold, but alſo of ſilver coin; yet he has not the right of fixing the price of thoſe metals in bullion, this privilege belonging ſolely to commerce, which alſo regulates the courſe of exchange. Wherefore from hence, and what has been already ſaid, it may very plainly appear how the coining of money, in ſuch circumſtances, muſt be attended with inevitable loſs.—It now remains that we ſhew, how it may come to paſs that, ſuppoſing a kingdom has the ballance of trade againſt it, and that the proportion which ought to obtain between the two metals is not obſerved in it, money may, notwithſtanding, continue to be coined, for ſome time, without diſadvantage. For,

14. Suppoſe that, in this variation from the true proportion between the two ſpecies, the gold happens to be overvalued; in this caſe, as has been often obſerved, it will follow of conſequence, that the gold will remain in the kingdom, and the ſilver will be carried out of it, in greater or leſs quantities, according to the greatneſs of the ballance of commerce that is againſt it, and the degree of the ſuppoſed variation from the proportion that ought to ſubſiſt between the two metals. Mean time, becauſe the ſilver coin will bear a greater price abroad, and will be exported to pay the debt contracted to foreigners, for want of commodities to compenſate thoſe that were imported; the ballance of trade being thus diſcharged, by the ſilver ſo exported, the exchanges will be kept low, and, by means thereof, gold may be purchaſed to be coined into money.—But this will coſt no leſs than, in the firſt place, the loſs of all the ſilver coin, and, after that, of the gold alſo, if the ballance of trade ſtill continues againſt the nation; and then, the exchanges riſing ſtill higher and higher, the kingdom will fall daily into greater and greater diſtreſs. And what we have ſaid of gold may, with the ſame juſtice, be ſaid of ſilver, if it is raiſed above it's worth; ſince, from the overvaluing of ſilver, the ſame kind of effects will follow which have been obſerved already, when we ſuppoſed gold to be raiſed above it's juſt rate.

15. But, becauſe what we have hitherto offered will be of little uſe, if, after having diſcovered the ſources of national loſs and diſtreſs, we cannot fall upon the means for applying proper remedies: wherefore, that theſe obſervations may not ſerve merely to gratify a vain and fruitleſs curioſity, we ſhall, throughout the courſe of this practical and political Dictionary of Commerce, humbly propoſe expedients for bringing into a proper method thoſe things that may be amiſs in a ſtate, or at leaſt not altogether conſiſtent with good order and government; which, poſſibly, may be capable not only of ſatisfying the deſires of ſuch as want to have a thorough knowlege of commerce, but alſo furniſh proper hints to thoſe who may be zealous to eſtabliſh, upon a ſolid foundation, and, at the ſame time, ſtrengthen and improve the riches and power of a nation. See the articles ARBITRATION of Exchanges, BALLANCE of Trade, BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, CASH, CIRCULATION of Money, EXCHANGE, MONEY, and ſuch other heads to which from thoſe we ſhall refer.

The laws of England relating to COIN.

By 20 Ed. I. merchants are prohibited from trafficking with money, and importing clipped coin, &c. on pain of forfeiture.

Gold or ſilver plate, or coin, not to be exported without licence, on pain of forfeiture. Search to be made for falſe coin imported. 9 Ed. III. c. 1.

Money not to be impaired in weight or allay. 25 Ed. III. c. 13.

No coin to be current but the king's own, and any perſon may refuſe foreign coin. 27 Ed. III. c. 14.

Foreign coin not to be current in England, but to be melted down. 17 Rich. II. c. 1.

Coin or plate found in the cuſtody of perſons ready to paſs the ſeas, or in any ſhip, to be forfeited to the king. 2 Hen. IV. c. 5.

By 3 Hen. V. c. 6. it was firſt made treaſon to clip or file money.

Gold to be received in payment by the king's weight. 9 Hen. V. c. 11.

Mint-maſter to keep to his allay, and receive ſilver at the true value, on pain of double damages. 2 Hen. VI. c. 12.

Coins of gold and ſilver to continue current notwithſtanding ſome of them are cracked or worn, but not if they are clipped. Monies clipped to be exchanged at the Mint. Coin tranſported to Ireland above 6s 8d. or Iriſh coin imported above 3s. 4d. to be forfeited. A circle to be made round the outſide of money. 19 Hen. VII. c. 5. Halfpence and farthings to have ſtamps; and, when the bullion is under 100 l. the owner to have a tenth part in halfpence. 14 and 15 H. VIII. c. 12.

Counterfeiting, impairing, &c. of coin, or foreign coin made current, is made high treaſon, by 14 Eliz. c. 3, 4. and 18 Eliz. c. 1, 7.

Silver coin melted down to be forfeited, and double value. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 31.

Gold and ſilver delivered into the Mint, to be aſſayed, coined, and delivered out, according to the order and time of bringing in. A duty of 10s. per ton on wine, beer, &c. and 20s. for brandy imported, granted for the expence of coinage, which is not to exceed in officers, &c. 3000 l. per annum. 18 Car. II. c. 5.

The 25th Car. II. c. 8. directs the levying of the duties ſupra, &c. and the 18th Car. II. revived and continued by 1 Jac. II.

The 3d, 5th, and 12th of Will. III. c. 7. continue the two former.

Refuſing to receive cracked money in payment, to forfeit 5 l. 4 and 5 Will. & Mar. c. 16.

Advancing unclipped money to forfeit 10 l. for every 20s. Buying or ſelling clippings or filings, 500 l. penalty. Perſons melting coin to be impriſoned ſix months, beſides forfeiture, &c. Perſons apprehending money-coiners, clippers, &c. to have 40 l. reward; and guilty perſons diſcovering two others to be pardoned, &c. 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 17.

Perſons bringing plate to the Mint to be coined, not to pay for coinage, but to have the ſame weight of money delivered out. Perſons keeping public houſes to have no manufactured plate but ſpoons. Molten ſilver, or bullion, not to be ſhipped off without a certificate from the lord mayor, that oath has been made it is foreign bullion, under the penalty of 200 l. and officers may ſeize the bullion as forfeited. Gold or ſilver not exceeding 200,000 l. may be exported by a licence. Guineas not to go for more than 22s. 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 19.

Hammered ſilver coin brought to the Mint to be received at 5s. 4d. per ounce. Receivers of taxes, &c. to receive money at 5s. 8d. per ounce 'till ſuch a time, afterwards at 5s. 2d. only. Coin not clipped within the innermoſt ring to be received in tale, and not by weight. 8 Will. III. c. 2.

Monies received by the Mint, &c. at 5s. 4d. per ounce, and 5s. 8d. per ounce, to be delivered back to the bringers in, and receivers, &c. to be paid into the exchequer with an allowance of the deficiency in recoining; ſilver plate, &c. to contain 11 ounces and 10 penny weights of fine ſilver in every pound, and to be marked with the two firſt letters of the worker's name, on pain of forfeiture. Plate received at 5s. 4d. per ounce to be melted down. 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 7. 8.

By 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 26. it is high treaſon to make any ſtamp, die, mould, &c. for coining, except by perſons employed in the Mint, &c. conveying ſuch out of the Mint, the ſame; colouring metal reſembling coin like gold or ſilver, or marking it on the edges, is likewiſe treaſon; and mixing blanched copper with ſilver, to make it heavier, and look like gold, or receiving or paying counterfeit milled money, is felony. 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 26.

Hammered ſilver coin may be refuſed in payment, as not being the lawful coin of this kingdom. 9 Will. III. c. 2.

Any perſon may cut, break, or deface pieces of ſilver money ſuſpected to be counterfeit, or diminiſhed otherwiſe than by wearing; but if they appear to be money, &c. ſhall ſtand to the loſs. 9 and 10 Will. III. c. 21.

No perſon to make or coin any farthings or halfpence, or pieces to go for ſuch, of copper, under the penalty of 5 l. for every pound weight. 9 and 10 Will. III. c. 33.

By 4 and 5 Ann. c. 22. the lord treaſurer is impowered to iſſue,

iſſue, out of the monies ariſing by the coinage duty, the ſum of 500 l. above the ſum of 3000 l. allowed yearly for the uſe of the Mint.

The 7 Ann. c. 24. makes 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 26. perpetual; and continues 18 Car. II. c. 5. for ſeven years.

On a ſcarcity of ſilver coin, for remedy, guineas were ſunk to 21s. by proclamation. 3 Geo. I.

The coinage duty on wine, beer, &c. and brandy imported, is continued; and the Treaſury to cauſe money to be applied for defraying the expences of the Mint; ſo as with the coinage duties it exceed not 15,000 l. a year for England and Scotland. 4 Geo. II. c. 12. 12 Geo. II. c. 5. 19 Geo. II. c. 14.

Perſons counterfeiting broad pieces of gold, or uttering them knowingly, to be guilty of treaſon. 6 Geo. II. c. 26.

Waſhing, gilding, or altering the impreſſion of any real or counterfeit ſhilling or ſixpence, or braſs-money, to make the one paſs for a guinea or half-guinea, or the other for a ſhilling or ſix-pence, is high treaſon. Knowingly uttering falſe money, for the firſt offence ſix months impriſonment, for the ſecond two years impriſonment, and the third felony without benefit of clergy. If any perſon, knowingly uttering falſe money, ſhall have about him any other falſe money, or within ten days after utter any other falſe money, he ſhall ſuffer a year's impriſonment; and coiners of halfpence or farthings to ſuffer two years impriſonment, &c. 15 Geo. II. c. 28.

COLONIES. Under the article BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, and that alſo of BRITISH AMERICA, I have conſidered the plantations in certain lights, conſiſtent with the intereſt of the nation in general, as well as that of our planters and merchants concerned in the commerce of thoſe plantations in particular.—I ſhall here conſider them in other lights, conſonant to the ſame principles.

REMARKS.

It has been a matter of doubt with ſome, whether our colonies in America have not proved prejudicial to Great-Britain; and a moot point with others, whether any advantage to it. It is certain, that a country which takes no care to encourage an acceſſion of ſtrangers, will, in a courſe of years, find plantations of pernicious conſequence.—The colonies in America have proved highly detrimental to the Spaniards; but this is owing to the nature of their government; the Inquiſition frights away ſtrangers, their monaſteries prevent marriages, and there is no proviſion at all to repair what their colonies drain them of: whereas the Hollanders, who ſend out greater numbers every year than the Spaniards, are not depopulated by it; their conſtitution inviting more over to them than they ſend abroad; and in the Britiſh colonies all foreigners may be made denizens for an inconſiderable charge; whereby many of all nations are encouraged to ſettle and plant in our Indies; the crown thereby gains ſubjects of them and their poſterity, and the nation gains wealth by their labour and induſtry. There is alſo reaſon to think, that, for ſome years, the plantations have ſent, of their offspring, and the perſecutions abroad have brought over to his majeſty's dominions, as many people as went from them. Wherefore, we may ſafely advance, that our trade and navigation are greatly increaſed by our colonies, and that they really are a ſource of treaſure and naval power to this kingdom, ſince they work for us, and their treaſure centers here.

It is true, indeed, if a breach of the act of navigation, or any other beneficial act relating to our plantations, ſhould be connived at, or broke through in any particular that would prove injurious to the kingdom, even our own plantations may become more profitable to other nations than to this; but, while the governors, and the other officers under the crown, whoſe buſineſs it is to take care hereof, do their duty, they can never prove detrimental to the nation.

By inſiſting that no breach in the navigation, or other act of the legiſlature, ſhould be made, which has been enacted for the mutual benefit of England and her colonies, I would not have it inferred, that I am againſt permitting the inhabitants of our colonies to trade with each other, or that they ſhould be prohibited to trade to the colonies of foreign nations, or carry their product, according as the law at preſent tolerates, directly to foreign countries. For, by our colonies trading, under judicious national reſtrictions, with thoſe of other nations, we, in ſome meaſure, render foreign colonies and plantations the colonies and plantations of Great-Britain; which brings me to obſerve, that all laws in our ſouthern plantations which lay high duties on ſugar, indico, ginger, and other Weſt-India commodities, imported into them, when impartially conſidered, will be found not only prejudicial to them, but to the general trade and navigation of their mother kingdom; and therefore it is our intereſt, and ſhould be our care, that no laws laying ſuch duties ſhould remain in force, or be paſſed for the future. For

The inhabitants, by carrying on a trade with their foreign neighbours, do not only occaſion a greater quantity of the goods and merchandizes of Europe being ſent from hence to them, and a greater quantity of the product of America to be ſent from them hither, which would otherwiſe be carried from, and brought to Europe by foreigners, but an increaſe

of the ſeamen, and navigation in thoſe parts; which is of great ſtrength and ſecurity, as well as of great advantage, to our plantations in general.

The commodities they bring from the countries wherewith they trade, whether indico, cocheneal, logwood, and other dyeing-woods, cotton-wool, ſaſſaparilla, and other drugs, &c. are ſuch as are either re-exported from Great-Britain, or uſeful to us in working up our own manufactures, or ſuch as we ſhould need, and muſt ſend for, at a much dearer rate, from the mother-country of thoſe people with whom our's may trade in America.

And though ſome of our colonies are not only for preventing the importation of all goods of the ſame ſpecies they produce, but ſuffer particular planters to keep great runs of land in their poſſeſſion uncultivated, with deſign to prevent new ſettlements, whereby they imagine the prices of their commodities may be affected; yet if it be conſidered, that the markets in Great-Britain depend on the markets of all Europe in general, and that the European markets in general depend on the proportion between the annual conſumption and the whole quantity of each ſpecies annually produced by all nations; it muſt follow, that whether we or foreigners are the producers, carriers, importers, and exporters of American produce, yet their reſpective prices in each colony (the difference of freight, cuſtoms, and importations conſidered) will always bear proportion to the general conſumption of the whole quantity of each ſort, produced in all colonies, and in all parts; allowing only for the uſual contingencies that trade and commerce, agriculture and manufactures, are liable to in all countries.

If this be admitted, then it muſt certainly be the true intereſt of our colonies, as well as of their mother-kingdom, to enlarge their ſettlements, and to ſuffer the produce of foreign plantations, in Engliſh ſhipping, to be imported to and exported again from Great-Britain; for narrow-limited notions in trade and planting are only advanced by, and can only be of uſe to, particular perſons, but are always injurious to the public intereſts, in preventing the full employment of our own people, and giving our rivals and competitors in trade the opportunity of employing greater numbers of theirs, producing greater quantities of merchandizes, and underſelling us at foreign markets.

If a trade ſhould be carried on, by which the product of our colonies (except liquors and proviſions) ſhould be ſold to foreigners, and our colonies, in return, receive the goods and merchandizes of any foreign country in Europe, for conſumption among them, it would certainly be greatly prejudicial to the trade and navigation of Great-Britain; but this is pretty well provided againſt by the act of navigation, and other ſubſequent acts, and, if not ſufficiently ſo, the wiſdom of the nation will doubtleſs occaſionally enact ſuch laws as ſhall prove effectual in this reſpect.

The produce of our American colonies may be conſidered under two heads, viz. thoſe that produce commodities of a different nature to this kingdom, and thoſe that produce commodities of the ſame nature.—Thoſe under the firſt claſs, are Virginia, Maryland, Barbadoes, Antego, Montſerrat, Nevis, St Chriſtopher's, and Jamaica, whoſe products are tobacco, ſugar, indico, cotton, ginger, and ſundry kinds of drugs and dyeing woods.—Thoſe under the ſecond claſs, are New England, New York, Carolina, Penſylvania, &c. whoſe products are beef, pork, bread, beer, peaſe, rice, &c. cod-fiſh, mackarel, &c. maſts, boards, ſtaves, &c. furs, pitch, tar, turpentine, train-oil.—The product of the firſt is of a different nature to what is produced from the lands of Great-Britain; and, of the quantities thereof imported, ſuch a part has been annually re-exported, as hath proved one great means of the ballance we have had from abroad, with thoſe countries which take large quantities of our plantation commodities. The produce of the other is not of a different nature, unleſs rice, train oil, &c. and might be ſent, indeed, to our ſugar-colonies from Great-Britain.

But, however the countries under the latter head may interfere with the produce of this kingdom, yet it is certainly highly the intereſt of Great-Britain to preſerve, increaſe, maintain, and encourage it's colonies on the continent of America, ſince the French, as I have ſhewn under the article BRITISH AMERICA, have ſettled, and are daily increaſing their colonies and plantations upon the ſame continent, and contiguous thereunto, as if they aimed either at wreſting them out of our hands, or ſo awing them as to render them of little uſe to us. [This was the caſe of France, with regard to Britain, before the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.] See AMERICA. And, if theſe colonies ſhould ever fall into French hands, it will not be poſſible, I apprehend, to maintain a ballance of trade and power in America; and who will imagine that we can maintain them, after that, in Europe?

The value of tobacco from Virginia and Maryland, annually imported from thence, excluſive of the cuſtoms, is computed at 600,000 l. about two-thirds of which are re-exported; and the like value of the ſugars, indico, ginger, cotton, &c. annually imported from our iſland colonies, is 1,300,000 l. about one-third of which is alſo re-exported.

It is computed, likewiſe, that there is exported from Great-Britain and Ireland, to the ſeveral colonies belonging to the

crown in America, to the value of 850,000l. and that the importations from them all, including ſilver and gold, &c. are to the value of 2,600,000l. ſo that, over and above what we ſend to our colonies in our manufactures, produce, and foreign commodities, we have a ballance, in return thereof, to the value of 1,750,000l. which centers and remains among us, and is not like ſuch a ballance in foreign trade, as muſt be carried out again directly in money, or in bills of exchange, to any other part of the world.

It is true our northern colonies do not make us returns of themſelves in proportion to what they take annually from us, and yield commodities of little value, and yet have moſt drained us of people; but, if it were otherwiſe, the trade of our iſland colonies could not, perhaps, be carried on to ſo great advantage to their mother-country; for thoſe ſoils which produce the moſt eſtimable commodities, are not ſo proper to cultivate for corn, beef, pork, peaſe, &c. But, if they were, their hands are much more beneficially employed for the intereſt of Great-Britain. Beſides, the ſouthern plantations, in time of war, would be deſtitute of many neceſſaries, or obliged to employ their hands in planting proviſions, &c. were it not for the vicinity of the northern colonies.

It may be ſaid, indeed, that theſe proviſions might be furniſhed from Great-Britain, but at ſo dear a rate, as would, perhaps, much diſcourage thoſe plantations; for, beſides their being all conſiderably dearer, ſo ſome kinds of them could neither be ſo good nor ſo freſh.

Though our northern colonies may furniſh our ſouthern with proviſions, which might be ſent from hence, yet they make it ample compenſation by taking from it variety of manufactures, all ſorts of cloaths and furniture, much oftener renewed, and as good as the ſame number of people could afford to have at home. Whether, therefore, the northern colonies are beneficial to Great-Britain or no, depends on making a right ballance between the commodities we ſend thither, and the proviſions we might ſend to the ſouthern colonies, if they were not ſupplied by the northern.—But the preſent courſe of trade ſeems moſt nationally advantageous, by reaſon that the proviſions which we might ſend to Barbadoes, &c. would be the unimproved product of the earth, as grain of all kinds, or ſalt beef, pork, &c. whereas the goods we ſend to the northern colonies, are ſuch whoſe improvements may be juſtly ſaid, one with another, to be near four-fifths of the value of the whole commodities, as apparel, houſhold-furniture, &c.

If our northern colonies ſhould pretend to ſet up manufactures, and ſo cloath, as well as feed, their neighbours and fellow-ſubjects in the ſouthern colonies, their nearneſs and low price would give them ſuch advantage over this nation, as might prove of pernicious conſequence. But this fear ſeems remote, unleſs they are diſcouraged from raiſing proviſion, &c. and materials in general for variety of manufactures; as were the people of Virginia and Maryland, for ſome time, in planting tobacco, by the high impoſitions laid upon it's importation into this kingdom; who, in ſeveral counties in theſe colonies, made ſhoes, ſtockings, hats, linnen and woollen goods, not only for their own, but the uſe of their neighbours. Which it is our intereſt to prevent, and to encourage them in planting, and ſuch other branches of trade as interfere with the trade of other countries, not with that of our own.—THIS SEEMS TO BE THE NATURAL WAY TO RENDER COLONIES USEFUL TO THEIR MOTHER-COUNTRY; AND A NEGLECT IN THIS GREAT POINT TO MAKE THEM QUITE OTHERWISE.

Thoſe who may be any way doubtful whether our colonies and plantations have been, or ſtill are beneficial to theſe kingdoms, ſhould conſider what the condition of this country was before we had any plantations: in regard to which I think it may be truly affirmed, that it was very low and deſpicable. In the victorious reign of Edward III. there was a ballance of trade ſtruck, and delivered into the Exchequer, by which it appeared, that the exports of one year exceeded the imports by l. 255,214 : 13 : 8; which, for that time, was a large ſum. At the time queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced 36,000l. a year.—At the Reſtoration, they were let to farm for 400,000l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the Revolution.

The people of London, before we had any plantations, and but very little trade, were computed at about 100,000.—At the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now about ſix times that number.—In thoſe days we had not only our naval ſtores, but our ſhips from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linnen, and a thouſand other things, came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugar; all the products of America were poured into us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt-Indies, at their own price.—In ſhort, the legal intereſt of money was 12 per cent. and the common price of our lands 10 or 12 years purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall, and the whole ſhipping of the nation much inferior to what now belongs to the northern colonies only.—Theſe are certain facts. But, as ſoon as we began to extend our trade, and to make plantation-ſettlements abroad, the face of our affairs changed; the inhabitants of the city of London doubled before the end of the laſt period, and were again doubled before the end of this; our ſhipping increaſed in a ſtill greater proportion; we coined, within 20 years after that queen's death, about five millions at the Tower; in 20 years after that ſeven millions, and in the next 20 years eight millions; which are indubitable proofs, that we had gained a prodigious ballance of trade in our favour.

The next matter to be conſidered is, what our condition has been ſince we have eſtabliſhed colonies and plantations? And, with reſpect to this, I may venture to affirm that it has altered for the better, almoſt to a degree beyond credibility.—Our manufactures are prodigiouſly increaſed, chiefly by the demand for them in the plantations, where they at leaſt take off one half, and ſupply us with many valuable commodities for re-exportation, which is as great an emolument to the mother-kingdom as to the plantations themſelves.

Inſtead, alſo, of taking the quantities of foreign commodities from other nations, as we were wont to do, we actually, by means of our plantations, export thoſe very goods, and ſometimes to the very ſame nations from whence we formerly imported them; ſugar, rum, tobacco, are the ſources of private wealth and public revenue, which would have proved ſo many drains, that would have impoveriſhed us, had they not been raiſed in our own colonies.—It is now no longer in the power of the Ruſſians to make us pay what they pleaſe for hemp and flax.—The Swedes cannot, as they have heretofore done, compel us to pay their own price, and that too in ready money, for pitch and tar; [ſee the article NAVAL STORES] nor would it be in their power to diſtreſs us, ſhould they attempt it, by raiſing the prices of copper and iron.—Logwood, and other dyeing woods, are ſunk 75 per cent.—Indico, and other materials for dyeing alſo, are in our power, and at moderate prices.—In fine, the advantages are infinite that redound to us from our American empire, where we have, at leaſt, a million of Britiſh ſubjects, and between 1500 and 2000 ſail of ſhipping conſtantly employed; and they will daily increaſe in conſequence of our NEW AMERICAN acquiſitions, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. [See the article AMERICA.]—Such have been the fruits, ſuch is the condition of our plantations, and let any man doubt of the benefits reſulting from them to this nation, if he can.

When our colonies were in their INFANCY, they were ſome burden to this nation; and this muſt ever be the caſe of all plantations at their firſt ſettlement. But the national benefit has proved ſo unſpeakably greater, when compared with the FIRST EXPENCE, or any other ſince to protect them, that it bears no manner of proportion, and is almoſt beyond the power of computation. Paſt experience, therefore, ſhews how impolitic it is to deſert infant colonies, whoſe eſtabliſhment has been undertaken upon well-grounded motives, for the ſake of a few thouſand pounds beyond what might be expected, when they are likely to repay their mother-country in a ten thouſand-fold degree.—Lord Bacon ſome where ſays, That nothing is more mean and ignominious to a nation, than to deſert an infant colony, whoſe eſtabliſhment has been undertaken upon juſt and reaſonable expectations. See the article BRITISH AMERICA.

The next point to be taken notice of is, the improvements and additional benefits that may be ſtill made in, and accrue from, our plantations. We ought, in this reſpect, to conſider of what great extent that country is which we at preſent poſſeſs in the new world, to which this iſland does not bear greater proportion than the county of Norfolk to the whole kingdom of GREAT-BRITAIN and IRELAND conjointly conſidered, ſince our new acquiſitions. Whence we may conceive what room there is for improvements in ſo vaſt a tract of territory.

Some of our ſettlements on the continent, indeed, ſuch as CANADA, New England, New York, Penſylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, are tolerably well peopled; Nova Scotia * is not yet well ſettled; New Britain is an extenſive country, and capable of being turned to our advantage. It is ſo far from being ſettled, that it is ſcarce known to us. The ſame may be ſaid of all the country bordering on Hudſon's-Bay.

* CANADA and it's dependencies muſt neceſſarily take reaſonable time to well people.

As to the ſouthern continent colonies, as the Carolinas and Georgia, and the FLORIDAS, EAST and WEST, muſt inevitably prove unſpeakably beneficial to GREAT-BRITAIN. See BAHAMA-ISLANDS, FLORIDA, and MEXICO.

The iſlands of Bermudas and Barbadoes are pretty well peopled, as alſo moſt of the Leeward Iſlands; but there are ſeveral iſlands to which we have as good a title as to any of theſe, that are not ſettled at all, though, from the nature

of their climate, ſoil, and ſituation, they are ſuperior to moſt of thoſe of which we are poſſeſſed, as ſhall be ſhewn hereafter *.

* Hereby I meant the NEUTRAL ISLANDS, which are at preſent happily annexed to the crown of England, except St Lucia; and, in lieu of that, we have obtained the iſlands of GRANADA and the GRANADINES.

The noble iſland of Jamaica, which of itſelf would inrich any country to which it belonged, is not duly cultivated. So that our colonies may become a greater ſource of treaſure than hitherto they have given us.

To accompliſh which end, the meaſures are obvious.—The firſt is, improving ſuch of our colonies as are already well ſettled; the next, providing for the thorough planting ſuch as are at preſent but very indifferently, or ſcarce at all, peopled. —In reſpect to the firſt, nothing ſeems more advantageous than providing every colony with ſome ſtaple commodity, which does not interfere with other of our colonies, and which Europe, and the reſt of the world, ſtand in need of.—This would make the inhabitants of thoſe colonies eaſy, and render them certainly inſtrumental to promote the ſolid intereſt of their mother-kingdom.

Virginia and Maryland are poſſeſſed of the tobacco trade; in which, if any eaſe, encouragement, or advantage, can be granted them, moſt certainly they deſerve it. [See the article TOBACCO.] With reſpect to New England, Penſylvania, New York, and the Jerſeys, effectual ways and means ſhould be found to augment their commerce with England directly, by promoting their deſire and ability to furniſh us with all kinds of naval ſtores, and with what iron we are not able to furniſh ourſelves, but are obliged to take from foreign nations. See the article IRON.

There was, as to pitch and tar, a conſiderable bounty given, and for many years, indeed, produced no effect, which, for a time, might poſſibly countenance an opinion, that the friends to the plantations were too ſanguine in their notions on that head; but experience ſhewed the contrary. For, the circumſtances of the public making it neceſſary to try how far this might be practicable, it very ſoon appeared that the thing could be eaſily done; and, upon ſending over perſons well experienced in the methods of making pitch and tar, the people in the colonies ſoon fell into it, and ſuch quantities were imported, as not only ſupplied our wants, but enabled us to ſupply thoſe of ſeveral neighbours; and then, upon a ſuppoſition that the trade was effectually eſtabliſhed, the bounty was diſcontinued. And what was the conſequence of this meaſure? Truly, the importation of theſe commodities from Pruſſia, Sweden, and Norway, was revived; for the people of thoſe countries, building large bulky ſhips, peculiarly proper for tranſporting theſe commodities, by navigating theſe ſhips cheaper than we can do ours, are thereby able to underſell our countrymen in the colonies, by three or four ſhillings in a barrel: ſo that, to preſerve this trade, there grew a neceſſity of granting a new bounty upon pitch and tar from America, or laying a new duty upon what was imported from the north. See the article PITCH and TAR.

The ſame may be ſaid with regard to iron, of which, at preſent, we import near double as much from Sweden and Ruſſia, as is ſold to all the reſt of Europe, for which we pay moſtly in ready money; yet no queſtion can be made of the practicability of bringing the beſt part of the iron we want from our plantations; which ſhould, by all means, be done, if it can, 'till we are capable amply of ſupplying ourſelves, by the means of our pit-coal fuel, if a diſcovery of that nature ſhould ever be made. See the articles COALS and IRON.

In regard to hemp and flax, it is ſuppoſed that the Ruſſians exported to England, and all other parts, above the value of a million a year. If hemp and flax be ſo valuable a product for merchandize with them, there ſeems to be a much greater proſpect of it's being ſo to ourſelves, by raiſing them effectually in our plantations, becauſe they will not be ſubject to any land-carriage, but ſhipped immediately from the place of growth; becauſe land is cheaper in our plantations, than in the ſouth parts of Ruſſia. The climate, being equal with that in Egypt and Italy, is ſuppoſed to produce hemp and flax preferable to theirs.

With reſpect to the products of ſugar and tobacco, 'tis matter of fact, according to Sir Joſiah Child, that every white man employs four at home, that is to ſay, finds them work to ſupply him with utenſils requiſite for his work. Now, if ſugar and tobacco employ ſuch a number of hands, at home, certainly every perſon employed in the plantations, in raiſing and dreſſing of hemp and flax, muſt, by his labour, return more than twice the advantage that can be produced by ſugar and tobacco, for they are manufactured in the plantations: the refining the ſugar, and cutting the tobacco, with the little quantity that is rolled excepted. Whereas flax and hemp are materials for employing all idle hands; and, of conſequence, the poor's rates will ſoon be abated, and the nation, in a little time, will find what they yearly ſave thereby, will be more than ſufficient to encourage the people to begin that employment to effectual purpoſe. And, if once we come to be ſupplied with hemp and flax by the aforeſaid methods, every place will be filled with flax-dreſſers, and the overſeers of the poor in every pariſh, where the wool-ſpinning trade is not carried on, may very eaſily come at hemp and flax, which they will find as profitable to them, as the woollen is to the other; for many inconveniences have attended one manufacture interfering with another; beſides, there will be an intercourſe of trade created, by one part of the kingdom ſupplying the other with diſtinct manufactures. This will contribute to give full employment to the whole kingdom, and an univerſal chearfulneſs to every body: for the poor are never happier, than when they have full employment; and, when they are employed, riches are diffuſed throughout the whole nation.

Certain it is, that there is no want of timber of every ſort, for HOUSES, no leſs than SHIP-BUILDING, in our Britiſh North American colonies, the whole taken into conſideration, ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. Our NORWAY TRADE has too long drained this kingdom of immenſe ſums of ſpecie, for DEAL-BOARDS, TIMBER, SPARS, BAULKS, and ſome IRON; they take from us our GUINEAS, our CROWN PIECES, and BULLION, and but little of our TOBACCO, and a few coarſe woollens of no value. The Danes ſupply not only GREAT-BRITAIN, but HOLLAND, FRANCE, and SPAIN, with ſo great a quantity of FIR-TIMBER, DEALS, &c. that they do not load therewith ſo few as 2000 ſhips a year, and return ſeven-eighths, at leaſt, of the value, in ready money; and they carry away, perhaps, the greateſt quantity of our current coin of any trade whatever; they coveting chiefly our crown and half-crown pieces, which paſs more current in Norway than they do in England itſelf. For the ſupply of Britain and other nations with the ſeveral ſpecies of timber beforementioned, the Danes build large bulky ſhips; and why may not we at preſent, by means of our North American colonies, ſupply ourſelves with that timber we have ſo long taken from the Danes, at the expence of a ballance of trade to the diſadvantage of this nation, of no leſs than between 3 and 400,000 pounds per annum.

To the products of hemp and flax, we may add, that pot-aſhes, cocheneal, ſilk, and cotton, are the produce of Eaſt Florida in particular; which will prove a very eaſy and profitable employment for women and children, as indigo, rice, and other valuable commodities, will be raiſed by the ſtrength of the men. So that the reader will eaſily diſcern, that there is no difficulty at all in the way of enabling theſe northern colonies to pay us for our manufactures, and therefore nothing ſhould prevent their ſetting heartily about it.—The ſame obſervations will, in a great meaſure, hold good with regard to our ſouthern iſland-colonies, ſuch as the planting in great plenty coffee, tea, cacao, indico, and the ſhrub that produces cocheneal [ſee theſe articles]; but, above all, we ſhould by no means forget ſilk, for reaſons that have already been given under the article BRITISH AMERICA: at preſent we ſhall only obſerve, that there is great and extraordinary conveniency attends the cultivation of the laſt-mentioned commodity; that as it is proper for the ſame ſoil and climate, as hemp and flax, ſo they may be both carried on together; the ſilk harveſt, as it is called, being over before the hemp and flax are ripe. For more matter upon this head, ſee the article SILK.

As to our ſugar-iſlands, though they have already a ſtaple commodity of very great value, yet this ſhould not hinder us from conſidering how that commodity may be ſtill rendered more uſeful, both to the planters, and to Great-Britain in general; and how far alſo other things are capable of being improved in theſe iſlands. It was the opinion of Sir Joſiah Child, that ſugar may be made as much the commodity of this nation, as the gold and ſilver of Peru and Mexico are the peculiar treaſures of Spain. The reaſons he gives are very cogent, but it is certain that we have not yet fallen upon the right method of reducing his doctrine into practice, ſince, inſtead of exporting one half of the ſugar we bring home, as we formerly did, we do not, at preſent, export much above one ſixth, and this, not from any diminution in the general demand, but becauſe new markets have been found, at which foreigners can buy cheaper. The French, in particular, have ſo greatly improved their ſugar-iſlands, as to have done us great injury in this capital branch of trade at foreign markets;—which, I am afraid, was owing to our ſugar-trade labouring too long under many very great difficulties and diſcouragements, both at home and abroad.—Indeed, the wiſdom of the legiſlature has removed many of them; but, when the channel of any branch of trade has been diverted, it is no eaſy matter to bring the ſame into it's former current. To effectuate this, however, all hands ſhould be ſet to work, and all arts tried; and, 'till theſe ſucceed, our ſugar-planters ſhould endeavour to bring other commodities to market. But, how the ſugar-trade of our colonies may be greatly advanced, I ſhall endeavour to ſhew under the article SUGAR.

It has been computed, by ſome, that there is not leſs than a million and a half of white people in our plantations, which computation has been judged by others ſomewhat of the higheſt;

higheſt; perhaps it may be ſo, but, without doubt, it would be our intereſt to have two millions of white people there, and more, and no Negroe-ſlaves at all; for, with all ſubmiſſion to better judges, I cannot help thinking the ſlave-trade as nationally diſadvantageous, as it is inhuman, cruel, and unchriſtian-like. See NEGROES and AFRICAN TRADE.

Nor do I apprehend, that rendering our colonies populous in whites, inſtead of blacks, would either drain the Britiſh dominions, or at all endanger the dependency of our colonies upon their mother kingdom. On the contrary, I am of opinion with thoſe, who have thought, that the increaſe of people in the plantations, as it would increaſe our American trade in general, ſo it would certainly increaſe the number of our people at home, and that the methods proper to be taken for the better peopling our colonies, and improving them, would infallibly render them more dependent on their mother-kingdom.

Though the general propoſition, that the number of the people is the riches of a country, be true, yet it is true only of induſtrious and uſeful people; and it is in this ſenſe, and this only, that the number of people in Holland is quoted as an example: ſo that, if there be in any country numbers of people uſeleſs, they are ſo far from contributing to the wealth of that country, that they are one great cauſe of it's poverty. Now, it is certain, that though this nation might become more powerful and more rich, by being more numerous in people than it is; yet there is not any more probable means of accompliſhing this, than by employing our uſeful hands, which, perhaps, may be eaſier done abroad, in our plantations, than at home. We have prodigious numbers of vagabonds throughout the kingdom, who live no one knows how; there cannot therefore be any cruelty in ſending theſe people, where they ſhall be compelled to labour, and thereby maintain themſelves, and become uſeful to others. Many people are daily convicted of ſmall crimes, and, from the ignominy of the conviction and puniſhment, rendered deſperate, and come to the gallows: it would certainly be good policy, as well as charity, to put them in the way of honeſt labour, before they become ſuperlatively wicked.—Multitudes are, from time to time, releaſed out of priſon by acts of grace, and many private acts of benevolence, which ſet them at liberty; but, at the ſame time, leaves them in a little better condition than the liberty of ſtarving; and who can ſay, that it would not be highly laudable to find out means for giving theſe people bread as well as freedom?

I make no doubt, but there are people enough in theſe kingdoms, who have liberal hearts as well as weighty purſes, and who would be glad of an opportunity to raiſe a proper fund for ſending theſe people abroad; not like tranſports or negroes, but like unhappy Britons, with due proviſion for their comfortable maintenance in their paſſage, and a proper reception in the places they are ſent to.—This, as it is a very natural, ſo it bids fair for a very effectual way to eaſe our poor's rates, prevent robbers and murderers, ſtock our colonies with labourers, and enlarge the trade of the nation.

'Colonies, in the EAST or WEST INDIES, ſays the judicious Mr Magens, ſo far as they take off the uſeful and laborious, weaken and divide the mother-country; however, 'ſome make even this a queſtion, as the ſparing of certain 'numbers, who cannot find means of doing much, is the 'cauſe of others living better when they are gone, and of 'marrying and propagating their ſpecies more freely, as is 'rarely the caſe of men in diſtreſſed circumſtances. But, 'not to extend this argument farther, it is certainly true, 'that where-ever large colonies are to be planted, it is more 'politic to encourage foreigners, than to tranſplant too 'many of the natives: but it may be juſtly obſerved, that 'both England and France have many people that do more 'harm than good at home, and may either of them ſpare 'ſome thouſands annually, and ſtrengthen themſelves by it 'at home and abroad; but it muſt be admitted, that induſtrious foreigners are a happy acquiſition.

'Spain admits none, or rarely any foreigners in America; 'and that country being rich and charming to it, multitudes 'of the natives reſorted thither; and the Spaniards, at the 'beſt not being a very prolific people, they have much 'weakened and expoſed their country; by which means, 'they who were formerly dreaded for their power, are now 'ſimply reſpected for their wealth, and in no other manner 'have any influence on the affairs of Europe.'

But, in doing this, great conſideration ſhould be uſed, that there be nothing in it of ſhame, and as little of compulſion as may be. The terms ought to be ſuch, as may encourage people in diſtreſs to accept them, and the accepting them might be in the nature of a ſuperſedeas to all criminal proſecutions, not of a capital nature. They ſhould be ſent abroad for a term of years, or 'till they could repay a certain ſum of money to the corporation intruſted with the management of this ſcheme, and conſiderable rewards ſhould be given to ſuch as behaved well, and gained a competent ſettlement during the time limited for their remaining abroad; and, if to this, certain honorary preferments were added, it might anſwer very good purpoſes. 'Theſe are the outlines only of a great deſign, perhaps, not unworthy the attention of the

legiſlature, who, poſſibly, may think a tax on public diverſions, and divers other particulars, a reaſonable fund for ſuch a ſervice; there being nothing more juſt, than that luxury ſhould contribute to relieve neceſſity; and that thoſe who are able to be idle, ſhould be made willing to help thoſe that muſt work.

No trades deſerve ſo much our care to procure and preſerve, and encouragement to proſecute, as thoſe that employ the moſt ſhipping; although the commodities carried be of ſmall value in themſelves, as a great part of the commodities from our colonies are. For, beſides the gain accruing by the goods, the freight in ſuch trades, often more than the value of the goods, is all profit to the nation; and they bring with them a great acceſs of ſeamen and naval proweſs, the natural ſtrength and ſecurity of this kingdom.

Colonies and plantations are both ſtrength and riches to their mother-country, while they are obliged inviolably to regard her laws: and while ours have Britiſh blood in their veins, relations in Great-Britain, and a true ſenſe of the invaluable bleſſing of Britiſh liberty, and can get by trading with us; the ſtronger and greater they grow, the more the crown, as well as the kingdom, will gain by them; nothing but our arbitrary treatment of them, and our miſgovernment, can make them otherwiſe than beneficial to the nation in general.

In former times, thoſe who were intruſted with the chief power in our colonies, have granted ſuch large tracts of land, as well to themſelves as others, that many planters have been, and are at preſent, prevented from inlarging their plantations, whereby the increaſe of ſettlers has been prevented, and people in general diſcouraged from going thither as formerly. It has long been really matter of ſad complaint, that in moſt of our colonies there is no land, though in moſt of them ſuch vaſt quantities uncultivated, left near any ſettlement, that is unpatenteed, or not granted to ſome particular perſon; which may deſerve the attention of the public wiſdom, whether we conſider the loſs that has already enſued, and muſt enſue to this kingdom, by ſuch large tracts of land remaining uncultivated; and which the proprietors either cannot or will not ſettle and plant, or ſell, but on moſt exorbitant terms; which aſſuredly muſt be repugnant to the intention of the crown; for theſe grants of land were certainly given to be cultivated, and not to be monopolized, in order to raiſe their value upon other induſtrious planters, whoſe lands might be contiguous to them, and would gladly cultivate them ſo, as to render them beneficial to the nation as well as themſelves.

Numbers of men are to be preferred to the largeneſs of dominions; 'tis the increaſe of hands, and the right employment of them, as we have obſerved, wherein conſiſts the proſperity and happineſs of our nation; and ſure it is an egregious invaſion on the liberty and property of other Britiſh ſubjects, that perſons who have great tracts of land in America, will neither ſettle or ſell but on the moſt extravagant conditions; and therefore is it not highly reaſonable, that ſuch ſhall be obliged by the laws to do either the one or the other; whereby induſtrious planters who would increaſe their plantations, or others who would become ſuch, may be enabled to do ſo on reaſonable terms?

The grants of ſuch great tracts of land have too often been procured on very eaſy terms, and frequently upon wrong ſuggeſtions; many hold ſome thouſands of acres a piece, and thoſe largely ſurveyed; ſome patents are ſaid to contain double the quantity of land mentioned, or intended to be granted; whence it is that ſo many thouſand acres are taken up, but not planted.—This drives away the inhabitants and ſervants bred up only to planting, into parts where their labour is not ſo profitable, either to the crown or to the kingdom, as it would be in our colonies, eſpecially in thoſe not producing commodities that are of Britiſh growth: beſides, ſuch practices are the chief cauſe, that ſome have had no better ſucceſs, or made no greater progreſs in ſettlements, and therefore is a grievance that calls aloud for immediate redreſs.—The French ſuffer nothing of this kind in their plantations: however ſo little I may approve of ſome of the maxims of the French conſtitution, yet the caſe of their trade and plantations may deſerve our notice; they oblige every ſhip or veſſel, bound to any of their colonies, to carry ſuch a number of perſons, in proportion to it's tonnage or freight, paſſage free; not permitting any perſon to take up more land than he ſhall plant or manure in a limited time, or is neceſſary for him to his planting; and furniſhing perſons who will become ſettlers, with negroes, and all materials and requiſites wanting in making ſettlements, and only obliging them to repay the public out of the produce, one third of what is produced, 'till thereby the ſum advanced be fully repaid.—Theſe, among many other wiſe meaſures, have occaſioned the rapid progreſs that the French have made in their American commerce. See FRENCH AMERICA.

The general good of the community is ever to take place of that of any particular perſons; and therefore, if theſe large tracts of land in the hands of any of his majeſty's ſubjects, which remain uncultivated, were but ſettled, the benefit to Great-Britain would prove ineffably great; for it would not only be an encouragement to our neceſſitous people chear-

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fully to reſort thither, but add proportionate ſtrength to our colonies, greater variety to their productions, and enable them to ſell as cheap as our American competitors at foreign markets; all which will prove, not only the grand preſervative, but the general increaſe of our whole plantation commerce in the new world.

As the increaſe of people muſt neceſſarily occaſion an increaſe in the conſumption of all kinds of manufactures, ſo, the greater any country's demands are for them, the greater will be it's trade; and the more will the mother-country, as well as the plantations, become opulent and powerful.

The want of falling into meaſures ſomewhat adequate to thoſe of the French beforementioned, together with the falſe and narrow notions entertained by too many of our planters and others, in regard to the engroſſing of immenſe quantities of land, and keeping them barren and uſeleſs, are highly detrimental, and may, in time, be abſolutely ruinous to the Britiſh intereſt in America, if the utmoſt policy is not exerted, to render both our new and old American colonies proſperous.

Although ſome American land-proprietors and planters imagine, that, the fewer the ſettlements are, the better will the produce of their plantations ſell; yet, as this is a principle that muſt render our plantation-products dearer and dearer, can any meaſures more effectually tend to enable our rivals in the American trade to ſupplant us at foreign markets? Are not theſe planters and land-proprietors laying the certain foundation of ruin and deſtruction to our American intereſt, and conſequently to their own properties in the end?

Would they lay aſide ſuch notions and ſchemes, which have been, and ſtill are, pernicious and deſtructive, and fall upon effectual meaſures for the increaſe of people, and better ſettlement of their countries, their own intereſt would not only be the better ſecured and promoted, but thoſe of their mother-kingdom. I would by no means be underſtood, as propoſing to level the property or rightful poſſeſſions of any perſons intereſted in our plantations; my intention is only to ſhew the neceſſity of reſtraining ſuch methods as have been formerly practiſed, of taking up large tracts of land, and to compel thoſe who have taken them up, either to ſettle or ſell them; ſo that theſe practices may no longer prove a bar to the induſtry of others, and that our colonies may prove a laſting revenue to the crown, an inexhauſtible fund of treaſure to Great-Britain, and the certain means of multiplying our ſeamen and increaſing our navigation.

It is certain, that from the very time Sir Walter Raleigh, the father of our Engliſh colonies, and his aſſociates, firſt projected theſe eſtabliſhments, there have been perſons who have found an intereſt in miſrepreſenting or leſſening the value of them. When the intention of improving theſe diſtant countries, and the advantages that were hoped for thereby, were firſt ſet forth, there were ſome who treated them not only as chimerical, but as dangerous: they not only inſinuated the uncertainty of the ſucceſs, but the depopulating the nation, if it ſhould be contrary to their expectation. Theſe, and other objections, flowing either from a narrowneſs of underſtanding or of heart, have been diſproved by experience, which hath ſhewn, that what was then propoſed was practicable in itſelf, profitable in it's conſequences, and attended with none of thoſe evils, which thoſe puſillanimous or ill-intentioned people apprehended, or pretended ſo to do.

The difficulties which will always attend ſuch kind of ſettlements at the beginning, proved a new cauſe of clamour, and ever will; many malignant ſuggeſtions were made about ſacrificing ſo many Engliſhmen to the obſtinate deſire of ſettling colonies in countries, which then produced very little advantage. But, as theſe difficulties were gradually ſurmounted, thoſe complaints vaniſhed.—No ſooner were theſe lamentations over, but others aroſe in their ſtead; when it could be no longer ſaid that the colonies were uſeleſs, it was alledged that they were not uſeful enough to their mother-country; that, while we were loaded with taxes, they were abſolutely free; that the planters lived like princes, while the inhabitants of England laboured hard for a tolerable ſubſiſtance.—This produced cuſtoms and impoſitions upon plantation-commodities, which, if grievous to the plantations, muſt turn to our diſadvantage as well as theirs, and conſequently become detrimental to both.

At preſent there is a great change in the face of affairs in theſe parts of the world, which has produced a change in the ſentiments of thoſe who are ſettled there, and ought likewiſe to produce a change in our conduct.—The principal point in this change was, the ſurpriſing growth of the French power in America, before the laſt DEFINITIVE TREATY, and their arduous and unwarrantable attempts daily to augment their ſtrength there, in order to have gained the ballance of trade and power into their own hands, in this part of the world; which appeared from the true and undiſguiſed ſtate of the caſe, as I have given it under the article of BRITISH AMERICA, and which I ſhall further corroborate under the article FRENCH AMERICA, and in divers other parts of this work, that have a connection with each other.

If we had conſidered, that in the reign of Charles II. when France had very little trade, and her colonies were of no great conſequence, ſhe was then almoſt a match for all Europe beſide, and that too when the maritime powers were in the moſt flouriſhing condition; we might have eaſily foreſeen to what a height her power would increaſe with the addition of colonies and commerce.—But we did not ſufficiently provide againſt an evil, which of all others we ought moſt to have apprehended.

The very thing that had hitherto hindered us from conceiving as we ought to do of our danger in this reſpect, would have convinced us, if we had viewed it in the right light, and reaſoned upon it as became us. If we experience that, in conjunction with the greateſt powers upon the continent, we have not been able, for theſe ſixty years paſt, to ſet any bounds to the ambition of France in Europe, what limits were we like to ſet to her power in America, when it came to bear any proportion there, to what ſhe has attained here, but by giving an effectual check to her career of commerce and power in the new world, as we ſeem to have done by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763?

The nature of their government, though it makes their ſubjects leſs happy, renders their colonies the more formidable, and enables the prince to protect them more effectually, and to grant them, from time to time, greater encouragements; ſo that we need not wonder they have overcome ſo many difficulties, or that the trade of the French iſlands ſhould be ſo much more conſiderable now, than it was at the peace of Utrecht.—We may likewiſe be aſſured of this, that, the more their trade increaſes, the more it will be encouraged; becauſe of the ſteady and uniform conduct of the French miniſtry, to emulate each other in the care and protection thereof.

As to our apprehenſions in regard to the French colonies, time has ſhewn they were but too well founded; our ſettlements on the continent, as I have ſhewn, were ſurrounded by them; the correſpondence between Canada and Louiſiana was in ſome manner ſettled; and, though a little more time might have been requiſite to perfect the deſigns they had formed on that ſide; yet, if we had not obtained the peace we have done by the DEFINITIVE TREATY, they would have in few years perfected them, and then we ſhould have found our circumſtances very uneaſy. This muſt appear plain and certain to every man, who will turn his thoughts to what we have urged throughout this work: we ſhould not therefore admire, that thoſe who both felt and ſaw it, expreſſed themſelves with ſome warmth upon this topic.

REMARKS.

Before I conclude this article, it may be uſeful, I apprehend, to obviate ſome objections that have been too frequently made againſt due encouragement being given to our Britiſh colonies; one of which is, that, if they ſhould be encouraged, they would grow, ſhake off the Engliſh government, or attempt an independency of this kingdom.

To diſſipate fears and jealouſies of this kind, we deſire it may be obſerved,

1. If we conſider the ſituation of our colonies, which now ſtretch all along the coaſt of NORTH AMERICA, and are ſeparated from each other by great rivers, a very little to guard thoſe paſſages would make it impracticable for people the moſt deſperately inclined to unite in one body.

2. As the ſubſiſtance of theſe colonies is the ſupplying chiefly our ſugar plantations with flour, biſcuit, pipe-ſtaves, fiſh, and other proviſions, the prohibiting them that commerce would ſoon prove their deſtruction, there being above 800 veſſels belonging to the province of New England only, that are employed in the coaſting and fiſhing trade.

3. It is to be conſidered, that our colonies are under different governments. Maryland and Penſylvania have their reſpective proprietary governors, and the Jerſeys and New York alſo their diſtinct governors.—New England has alſo a diſtinct government from the reſt, &c. Is it eaſily practicable, therefore, for thoſe different governments to form a deſign of defection from England, without being diſcovered, and betraying one another?

New England has formerly, indeed, ſhewed an uncommon ſtiffneſs, very different from that regard they ought to have had for their mother-country, or a true ſenſe of the protection and tenderneſs which have been extended to them; but, we apprehend, what has heretofore been done, was rather owing to the perſonal cavils and machinations of ſome men who affected popularity, than to any general intention to aim at independency. It is certain, that the moſt judicious and opulent amongſt them highly deteſted ſuch proceedings.

But, if New England ſhould ever preſume to attempt to be independent of this kingdom, the ſtopping their ſupplying the ſugar iſlands, and their coaſting and fiſhing trades, would ſo diſtreſs them that they would not long be able to ſubſiſt, and the ſhare they poſſeſs of that trade would fall into the hands of the other colonies, which would greatly inrich them, and, perhaps, irrecoverably impoveriſh New England. But, if ſome turbulent men ſhould ever be capable of raiſing a ſpirit of defection among them, a ſquadron of light frigates would entirely cut off their trade; and, if that did not

effectually

effectually anſwer the end, the government of England would be compelled, contrary to their lenity, to do what other nations do of choice, viz. place ſtanding forces among them, to keep them in ſubjection, and oblige them to raiſe money to pay them. Theſe things are not ſuggeſted from the leaſt apprehenſion, that theſe people will ever be ſo infatuated, but to ſhew the conſequences that may reaſonably be preſumed to follow from ſo raſh and impolitic an attempt.

Some perſons have heretofore inſinuated that this colony might one day put themſelves under the protection of ſome foreign potentate; which muſt be either France, Spain, or Holland. In regard to the two former, the ſpirit of perſecution which prevails under their government, without any other reaſon, ſeems ſufficient to diſſipate apprehenſions of this kind. Moreover, the deſpotic power of thoſe nations differs ſo greatly from the mild and gentle government of England, that the very perſons who ſhould be unhappily ſpirited to raiſe ſuch diſturbances, would themſelves tremble at the thoughts of a change from the happy ſtate of freedom and liberty, to that of arbitrary will, perſecution, and tyranny: ſo that there could be no hopes left but from Holland; and, as we lie between them and New England, it is not very likely that ſuch an enterprize ſhould prove ſucceſsful; nor would a change of this nature any ways meliorate the condition of theſe people.

Although fears and jealouſies of this kind ſhould be abſolutely groundleſs, yet there are ſome who have apprehended miſchiefs of another nature, that may enſue from giving effectual encouragement to our plantations for the raiſing of hemp, flax, pot-aſh, pitch and tar, indico, ſilk, iron, &c. &c. &c. for that, as ſoon as they ſhall be eſtabliſhed in the methods of producing theſe rough materials, they will certainly ſet up thoſe manufactures with which we now ſupply them, and thereby deprive us of thoſe advantages we are intitled to reap from their eſtabliſhment.

But it is to be hoped, that the parliament of England will ever keep a watchful eye over our plantations, in regard to a matter of ſuch important concernment to this kingdom; for, if theſe attempts are not effectually reſtrained, they will ever occaſion ſuch heart-burnings between our colonies and their mother-country, as may, and certainly will, prove injurious to both. But keeping our planters to the raiſing ſuch materials for our Britiſh manufactures, as we are neceſſitated to take at preſent from foreign nations and their colonies, will effectually prevent jealouſies and miſunderſtanding between Britons and her American brethren, and give mutual ſtrength, riches, and power, to both.

Are not ſuch the natural means to render theſe kingdoms, and her plantations, more and more independent of other ſtates and empires, with reſpect to their maritime and commercial intereſt? And do we not daily experience the neceſſity of ſuch policy being ſteadily and vigorouſly purſued?

Have not moſt of the nations of Europe interfered with us, more or leſs, in divers of our ſtaple manufactures, within half a century, not only in our woollen, but in our lead and tin manufactures, as well as our fiſheries? Shall not the Britiſh colonies be effectually encouraged to raiſe raw ſilk for our Britiſh manufacturers to work up, when his Pruſſian majeſty, it ſeems, is about to do ſo in his German dominions, which are deſtitute of thoſe benefits and advantages for the purpoſe, that our colonies enjoy? Shall we be obliged to take hemp and flax, and other naval ſtores, from foreign countries, when our own colonies, if effectually promoted, will certainly afford us all that we want? Shall we import iron, pot-aſh, indico, cocheneal, dyeing woods, cacao, coffee, and drugs of various kinds, of foreign nations, when we can have them within ourſelves? Shall our linnen manufactures in Scotland and Ireland be cramped, or labour under any diſadvantages for rough materials ſuitable to their manufactures, when our Britiſh America is able to produce them, either in one colony or another? Why ſhould we not encourage the building of large bulky ſhips in our plantations, ſuch as are uſed by the Danes and Swedes, in order to import part of our timber, if we cannot the whole, from our continent colonies?

Let our plantations have every encouragement, that will interfere only with the commercial intereſts of foreign nations, and with thoſe more eſpecially who have rivalled and ſupplanted us in the ſugar, and other our plantation branches of trade; and they will be far more beneficially employed, than to think of ſetting up the manufactures of their mother-kingdom, or ſhaking off their dependency: nothing, I am perſuaded, will induce them to either of theſe, but the want of being promoted, in due ſubſerviency to the intereſt of Great-Britain.

Theſe kingdoms, with it's dependencies, is doubtleſs as well able to ſubſiſt within itſelf, as any nation in Europe: we are as happily ſituated, all our territories conſidered together, as any nation in the whole world, and a conſtitution ſuperior to any throughout the globe; we are bleſſed with an induſtrious and enterprizing people, accompliſhed for all the arts of commerce, war, or peace: we have proviſions in abundance, and thoſe of the beſt ſort, and are capable of raiſing more than ſufficient for double the number of inhabitants: we have the beſt materials for cloathing, and ſtand in need of nothing, either for uſe or luxury, but what we have at home, or might have from our colonies (which will demonſtrably appear throughout this undertaking: ſo that we might create ſuch an intercourſe of trade among ourſelves, and between us and our plantations, as would maintain a prodigious navigation, even though we traded to no other parts. See the articles AMERICA, BRITAIN, GREAT-BRITAIN, PLANTATIONS.

And, if our colonies, by means of all the encouragement which they require, became as populous in white people as they are capable of, and were not permitted at all to interfere with the manufactures of Great Britain, would they not import an additional quantity of manufactures from us, proportionate to the number of their inhabitants; and which they would be enabled to pay for, by means of thoſe rough materials wherewith they furniſhed England, Scotland, and Ireland? And although, in conſequence of taking theſe particulars before enumerated from our own plantations, we ſhould take leſs of the ſame from foreign countries; and, although theſe countries ſhould retaliate upon us, and take leſs of Britiſh products and manufactures; yet we ſhould gain as much, if not more, by encouraging of our plantations, rather than thoſe foreign nations; becauſe we, at preſent, pay a great annual ballance to many of theſe countries, which ballance being ſaved, that would abſolutely center within ourſelves and our colonies. Nay, 'tis reaſonable to believe, that our plantations, being brought to ſuch a flouriſhing ſtate and condition, would enable us to ſupply, in part, other foreign countries with their productions.

Nor would our maritime power, and the number of our ſeamen, be diminiſhed by this policy; for our conſtant navigation to and from our own colonies would, perhaps, prove as good a nurſery for our royal navy, as that we carry on with thoſe foreign nations, from whom we take ſuch commodities as might be raiſed in our own plantations: and, as our naval power is the grand bulwark whereon we muſt ever rely, to maintain our happy independency, as a free and a trading people, why need we be afraid to diſoblige other nations, by taking leſs in value in their commodities than they do of ours? Which maxim, we humbly conceive, ought to be the pole-ſtar, whereby the government of our plantations ſhould be ſteered. However, it would not be politic, perhaps, to put our plantations upon raiſing the whole of theſe commodities, which we at preſent take from other countries, wherewith we drive a trade nationally beneficial; but what objection can be made againſt raiſing thoſe materials in our own colonies, which we now take from theſe countries with which we carry on a commerce nationally diſadvantageous?

In order to judge of the real imminent danger our colonies and plantations were in before the PEACE, ſee the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, and the articles FRANCE and SPAIN. And, that we may take a view of this important ſubject in every light it will admit of, we ſhall re-conſider it under the article PLANTATIONS, SUGAR COLONIES.

For the regulation of the trade of our Britiſh Colonies, the following act of parliament paſſed in the year 1763, which being very important, we judge the whole of it requiſite to be given.

An Act for granting certain duties in the BRITISH COLONIES and PLANTATIONS in America; for continuing, amending, and making perpetual, an act paſſed in the ſixth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the ſecond, (intitled, AN ACT FOR THE BETTER SECURING AND ENCOURAGING THE TRADE OF HIS MAJESTY'S SUGAR COLONIES IN AMERICA;) for applying the produce of ſuch duties, and of the duties to ariſe by virtue of the ſaid act, towards defraying the expences of defending, protecting, and ſecuring, the ſaid colonies and plantations; for explaining an act made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles II. (intituled, AN ACT FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF THE GREENLAND AND EASTLAND TRADES;) and for altering and diſallowing ſeveral drawbacks on exports from this kingdom, and more effectually preventing the clandeſtine conveyance of goods to and from the ſaid colonies and plantations, and improving and ſecuring the trade between the ſame and Great Britain.

'Whereas it is expedient that new proviſions and regulations 'ſhould be eſtabliſhed for improving the revenue of this 'kingdom, and for extending and ſecuring the navigation 'and commerce between Great-Britain and your majeſty's 'dominions in AMERICA, which, by the peace, have been 'ſo happily enlarged: And whereas it is juſt and neceſſary, 'that a revenue be raiſed, in your majeſty's ſaid dominions 'in America, for defraying the expences of defending, protecting, and ſecuring the ſame; we, your majeſty's moſt 'dutiful and loyal ſubjects, the commons of Great Britain 'in parliament aſſembled, being deſirous to make ſome proviſion, in this preſent ſeſſion of parliament towards raiſing 'the ſaid revenue in AMERICA, have reſolved to give and 'grant unto your majeſty the ſeveral rates and duties herein 'after

after mentioned; that, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, there ſhall be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid unto his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, for and upon all WHITE OR CLAYED SUGARS, of the produce or manufacture of any colony or plantation in America, not under the DOMINION OF HIS MAJESTY, HIS HEIRS AND SUCCESSORS; for and upon INDICO, and COFFEE of FOREIGN PRODUCE or manufacture; for and upon all WINES (except French wine); for and upon all WROUGHT SILKS, BENGALS and STUFFS, mixed with SILK or HERBA, of the manufacture of PERSIA, CHINA, or EAST INDIA, and all CALLICO, painted, dyed, printed or ſtained there; and for and upon all FOREIGN LINNEN CLOTH called CAMBRICK and FRENCH LAWNS, which ſhall be imported or brought into any colony or plantation in AMERICA, which now is, or hereafter may be, under the dominion of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, the ſeveral RATES and DUTIES following; that is to ſay,

For every hundred weight avoirdupois of ſuch foreign white or clayed ſugars, one pound two ſhillings, over and above all other duties impoſed by any former act of parliament.

For every pound weight avoirdupois of ſuch foreign indico, ſix pence.

For every hundred weight avoirdupois of ſuch foreign coffee, which ſhall be imported from any place except Great Britain, two pounds nineteen ſhillings and nine pence.

For every ton of wine of the growth of the Madeira's, or of any other iſland or place from whence ſuch wine may be lawfully imported, and which ſhall be ſo imported from ſuch iſlands or places, the ſum of ſeven pounds.

For every ton of Portugal, Spaniſh, or any other wine, (except French wine) imported from Great Britain, the ſum of ten ſhillings.

For every pound weight avoirdupois of wrought ſilks, Bengals, and ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk or herba of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or Eaſt India, imported from Great Britain, two ſhillings.

For every piece of callico, painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained, in Perſia, China, or Eaſt India, imported from Great Britain, two ſhillings and ſix pence.

For every piece of foreign linnen cloth called Cambrick, imported from Great Britain, three ſhillings.

For every piece of French lawn imported from Great Britain, three ſhillings.

And after thoſe rates for any greater or leſſer quantity of ſuch goods reſpectively.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the ſaid 29th day of September 1764, there ſhall alſo be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid, unto his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, for and upon all coffee and pimento, of the growth and produce of any BRITISH COLONY or PLANTATION IN AMERICA, which ſhall be there laden on board any Britiſh ſhip or veſſel, to be carried out from thence to any other place whatſoever, except Great Britain, the ſeveral rates and duties following; that is to ſay,

For every hundred weight avoirdupois of ſuch Britiſh coffee, ſeven ſhillings.

For every pound weight avoirdupois of ſuch Britiſh pimento, one halfpenny.

And after thoſe rates for any greater or leſſer quantity of ſuch goods reſpectively.

And whereas an act was made in the ſixth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the ſecond, intituled, An act for the better ſecuring and encouraging the trade of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, which was to continue in force for five years, to be computed from the 24th day of June 1733, and to the end of the then next Seſſion of parliament; and which, by ſeveral ſubſequent acts, made in the 11th, the 19th, the 26th, the 29th, and the 31ſt years of the reign of his ſaid late majeſty, was from time to time continued; and by an act made in the firſt year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, was further continued until the end of this preſent ſeſſion of parliament; and although the ſaid act hath been found in ſome degree uſeful, yet it is highly expedient that the ſame ſhould be altered, enforced, and made more effectual; but in conſideration of the great diſtance of ſeveral of the ſaid colonies and plantations from this kingdom, it will be proper further to continue the ſaid Act for a ſhort ſpace, before any alterations and amendments ſhall take effect, in order that all perſons concerned may have due and proper notice thereof: Be it therefore enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, that the ſaid act, made in the ſixth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the ſecond, intituled, An act for the better ſecuring and encouraging the trade of his majeſty's ſugar colonies in America, ſhall be, and the ſame is hereby further continued until the 30th day of September 1764.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from the 29th day of September 1764, the ſaid act, ſubject to ſuch alterations and amendments as are herein after contained, ſhall be, and the ſame is hereby made perpetual.

And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That in lieu and inſtead of the rate and duty impoſed by the ſaid act upon molaſſes and ſyrups, there ſhall, from and after the ſaid 29th day of September 1764, be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid unto his majeſty, &c. for and upon every gallon of molaſſes or ſyrups, being the growth, product, or manufacture of any colony or plantation in America, not under the dominion of his majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, which ſhall be imported or brought into any colony or plantation in America, which now is, or hereafter may be, under the dominion of his Majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, the ſum of three pence.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That the ſaid rates and duties hereby charged upon ſuch foreign white or clayed ſugars, foreign indico, foreign coffee, wines, wrought ſilks, Bengals, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, callico, cambricks, French lawns, and foreign molaſſes or ſyrups, imported into any Britiſh American colony or plantation, ſhall be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid, in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch rules, ways, and means, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, (not otherwiſe altered by this act) as are mentioned and expreſſed in the ſaid act of parliament, made in the ſixth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the ſecond, with reſpect to the raiſing, levying, collecting, and payment of the rates and duties thereby granted; and that the aforeſaid duties hereby charged upon Britiſh coffee and pimento, exported from any Britiſh colony or plantation, ſhall be raiſed, levied, collected, and paid, in the ſame manner and form, and by ſuch rules, ways, and means, and under ſuch penalties and forfeitures, as are mentioned and referred unto in an act of parliament made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles the ſecond, intituled, An act for the encouragement of the Greenland and Eaſtland trades, and for the better ſecuring the plantation trade, with reſpect to the raiſing, levying, collecting, and payment of the rates and duties thereby granted upon the ſeveral goods therein particularly enumerated; and that all powers, penalties, proviſions, articles and clauſes, in thoſe acts reſpectively contained and referred unto, (except in ſuch caſes where any alteration is made by this act) ſhall be obſerved, applied, practiſed, and put in execution, for the raiſing, levying, collecting, and anſwering the reſpective rates and duties granted by this act, as fully and effectually, as if the ſame were particularly and at large re-enacted in the body of this preſent act, and applied to the rates and duties hereby impoſed; and as fully and effectually, to all intents and purpoſes, as the ſame could have been at any time put in execution, for the like purpoſes, with reſpect to the rates and duties granted by the ſaid former acts.

Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That, if the importer of any wines ſhall refuſe to pay the duties hereby impoſed thereon, it ſhall and may be lawful for the collector, or other proper officer of the cuſtoms where ſuch wines ſhall be imported, and he is hereby reſpectively required to take and ſecure the ſame, with the caſks or other package thereof, and to cauſe the ſame to be publickly ſold, within the ſpace of twenty days at the moſt after ſuch refuſal made, and at ſuch time and place as ſuch officer ſhall, by four or more days publick notice, appoint for that purpoſe; which wine ſhall be ſold to the beſt bidder, and the money ariſing by the ſale thereof ſhall be applied, in the firſt place, in payment of the ſaid duties, together with the charges that ſhall have been occaſioned by the ſaid ſale; and the overplus, if any, ſhall be paid to ſuch importer, or any other perſon authorized to receive the ſame.

Provided alſo, That if the money offered for the purchaſe of ſuch wine, ſhall not be ſufficient to diſcharge the duty and charges aforeſaid, then, and in every ſuch caſe, the collector or other proper officer, ſhall cauſe the wine to be ſtaved, ſpilt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed, and ſhall return the caſks or other package wherein the ſame was contained to ſuch importer.

And it is hereby declared and enacted, That every piece of callico intended to be charged with the duty herein before mentioned, if of the breadth of one yard and a quarter, or under, ſhall not exceed in length ten yards; and if above that breadth, ſhall not exceed ſix yards in length; and that every piece of cambrick and French lawn ſhall contain thirteen ells each, and ſhall pay duty for the ſame in thoſe proportions for any greater or leſſer quantity, according to the ſum herein before charged upon each piece of ſuch goods reſpectively.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That all the monies which, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, ſhall ariſe by the ſeveral rates and duties herein before granted; and alſo by the duties which, from and after the ſaid 29th day of September 1764, ſhall be raiſed upon ſugar and paneles, by virtue of the ſaid act made in the ſixth year of the reign of his ſaid late majeſty king George the ſecond, (except the neceſſary charges of raiſing, collecting, levying, recovering, anſwering, paying, and accounting for the ſame) ſhall be paid into the receipt of his majeſty's exchequer, and ſhall be entered ſeparate

and

‘ and apart from all other monies paid or payable to his ma-
‘ jeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors; and ſhall be there reſerved,
‘ to be from time to time diſpoſed of by parliament, towards
‘ defraying the neceſſary expences of defending, protecting,
‘ and ſecuring the Britiſh colonies and plantations in A-
‘ merica.
‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid,
‘ That from and after the tenth day of September 1764,
‘ upon the exportation of any ſort of wine (except French
‘ wines) from this kingdom to any Britiſh colony or planta-
‘ tion in America, as merchandize, the exporter ſhall be
‘ paid, in lieu of all former drawbacks, a drawback or al-
‘ lowance of all the duties paid upon the importation of ſuch
‘ wine, except the ſum of three pounds ten ſhillings per ton,
‘ part of the additional duty of four pounds per ton, granted
‘ by an act made in the laſt ſeſſion of parliament, intituled,
‘ An act for granting to his majeſty ſeveral additional du-
‘ ties upon wines imported into this kingdom, and certain
‘ duties upon all cyder and perry, and for raiſing the ſum
‘ of three millions five hundred thouſand pounds by way of
‘ annuities and lotteries, to be charged on the ſaid duties);
‘ and alſo except ſuch part of the duties paid upon wines
‘ imported by ſtrangers or aliens, or in foreign ſhips, as ex-
‘ ceeds what would have been payable upon ſuch wines, if
‘ the ſame had been imported by Britiſh ſubjects, and in
‘ Britiſh ſhips, any law, cuſtom, or uſage to the contrary
‘ notwithſtanding; which drawback or allowance ſhall be
‘ made in ſuch manner, and under ſuch rules, regulations,
‘ penalties, and forfeitures, in all reſpects, as any former
‘ drawback or allowance, payable out of the duties of cuſ-
‘ toms upon the exportation of ſuch wine, was, could, or
‘ might be made, before the paſſing of this act.
‘ Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, That
‘ upon the entry of any ſuch wine for exportation to any
‘ Britiſh colony or plantation in America, and before any
‘ debenture ſhall be made out for allowing the drawback
‘ thereon, the exporter ſhall give bond, with ſufficient ſecu-
‘ rity, to his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, to be ap-
‘ proved of by the collector, or other principal officer of the
‘ cuſtoms at the port of exportation, in treble the amount
‘ of the drawback, payable for the goods, that the ſame and
‘ every part thereof ſhall (the danger of the ſeas and ene-
‘ mies excepted) be really and truly exported to, and landed
‘ in, ſome Britiſh colony or plantation in America; and that
‘ the ſame ſhall not be exported, or carried to any other
‘ place or country whatſoever, nor relanded in any part of
‘ Great Britain, Ireland, or the iſlands of Guernſey, Jerſey,
‘ Alderney, Sark, or Man, or either of them: and ſuch
‘ bonds ſhall not be delivered up nor diſcharged until a cer-
‘ tificate ſhall be produced, under the hands and ſeals of the
‘ collector, or other principal officer of the cuſtoms at the
‘ port or place where ſuch goods ſhall be landed, teſtifying
‘ the landing thereof: and the condition of ſuch bond ſhall
‘ be, to produce ſuch certificate in eighteen months from the
‘ date of the bonds (the dangers of the ſeas and enemies ex-
‘ cepted).
‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority afore-
‘ ſaid, That from and after the firſt day of May 1764, no
‘ part of the rate or duty, commonly called the old ſubſidy,
‘ ſhall be repaid or drawn back, for any foreign goods of
‘ the growth, production, or manufacture of Europe or the
‘ Eaſt Indies, which ſhall be exported from this kingdom to
‘ any Britiſh colony or plantation in America, (wines, white
‘ callicoes, and muſlins, only excepted); any law, cuſtom,
‘ or uſage, to the contrary notwithſtanding.
‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid,
‘ That from and after the tenth day of September 1764,
‘ upon the exportation of any ſort of white callicoes or muſ-
‘ lins, except as herein after is mentioned, from this king-
‘ dom to any Britiſh colony or plantation in America, be-
‘ ſides the one half of the rate or duty commonly called the
‘ Old Subſidy, which now remains and is not drawn back
‘ for the ſame; there alſo ſhall not be repaid or drawn back
‘ the further ſum of four pounds fifteen ſhillings for every
‘ hundred pounds of the true and real value of ſuch goods,
‘ according to the groſs price at which they were ſold at the
‘ ſale of the United Company of Merchants trading to the
‘ Eaſt Indies, being the third part of the net duties granted
‘ thereon reſpectively by two ſeveral acts of parliament, the
‘ one made in the eleventh and twelfth year of the reign of
‘ king William the third, intituled, An act for laying fur-
‘ ther duties upon wrought ſilk, muſlins, and ſome other
‘ commodities of the Eaſt Indies, and for enlarging the time
‘ for purchaſing certain reverſionary annuities therein men-
‘ tioned; and the other made in the third and fourth year of
‘ the reign of queen Anne, intituled, An act for continuing
‘ duties upon low wines, and upon coffee, tea, chocolate,
‘ ſpices and pictures, and upon hawkers, pedlars, and petty
‘ chapmen, and upon muſlins; and for granting new duties
‘ upon ſeveral of the ſaid commodities, and alſo upon calli-
‘ coes, China ware, and drugs; any law, cuſtom, or uſage,
‘ to the contrary notwithſtanding.
‘ Provided always, and be it further enacted by the autho-
‘ rity aforeſaid, That until the firſt day of March 1765,
‘ upon the exportation from this kingdom, to any Britiſh
‘ colony or plantation in America, of ſuch white callicoes
‘ or muſlins only as were ſold on or before the 25th day of
‘ March 1764, at the ſale of the United Company of Mer-
‘ chants trading to the Eaſt Indies, ſuch and the ſame
‘ drawbacks ſhall be allowed as are now payable upon the
‘ exportation of the ſaid goods.
‘ And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That
‘ if any merchant or other perſon ſhall, from and after the
‘ firſt day of May 1764, enter any goods for exportation to
‘ parts beyond the ſeas, other than to the ſaid Britiſh colo-
‘ nies or plantations in America, in order to obtain any
‘ drawback not allowed by this act upon the exportation of
‘ ſuch goods to the ſaid Britiſh colonies or plantations; and
‘ the ſaid goods ſhall nevertheleſs be carried to any Britiſh
‘ colony or plantation in America, and landed there, con-
‘ trary to the true intent and meaning hereof, that then
‘ and in ſuch caſe the drawback ſhall be forfeited, and the
‘ exporter of ſuch goods, and the maſter of the ſhip or
‘ veſſel on board which the ſame were loaden and exported,
‘ ſhall forfeit double the amount of the drawback paid or
‘ to be paid for the ſame, and alſo treble the value of the
‘ ſaid goods.
‘ And it is further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That
‘ from and after the ſaid firſt day of May 1764, if any goods
‘ not allowed to draw back any part of the old ſubſidy, or
‘ any other duty by this act, ſhall be entered for exportation
‘ from this kingdom to any other place beyond the ſeas, ex-
‘ cept to ſome Britiſh colony or plantation in America, in
‘ every caſe where the exporter is required, by any law now
‘ in force, to ſwear that ſuch goods are not landed or in-
‘ tended to be landed in Great Britain, Ireland, or the Iſle
‘ of Man, there ſhall alſo be added to, and included in,
‘ the oath upon the debenture for ſuch goods, “ any Britiſh
“ colonies or plantations in America.”
‘ And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That
‘ from and after the 29th day of September 1764, no rum or
‘ ſpirits of the produce or manufacture of any of the colo-
‘ nies or plantations in America, not in the poſſeſſion, or
‘ under the dominion of his majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors,
‘ ſhall be imported or brought into any of the colonies or
‘ plantations in America, which now are, or hereafter may
‘ be, in the poſſeſſion, or under the dominion of his majeſty,
‘ his heirs or ſucceſſors, upon forfeiture of all ſuch rum or
‘ ſpirits, together with the ſhip or veſſel in which the ſame
‘ ſhall be imported, with the tackle, apparel, and furniture
‘ thereof, to be ſeized by any officer or officers of his ma-
‘ jeſty's cuſtoms, and proſecuted in ſuch manner and form
‘ as herein after is expreſſed; any law, cuſtom, or uſage to
‘ the contrary notwithſtanding.
‘ And it is hereby further enacted and declared by the au-
‘ thority aforeſaid, That from and after the 29th day of
‘ September 1764, nothing in the before recited act made in
‘ the ſixth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George
‘ the ſecond, or any other act of parliament, ſhall extend,
‘ or be conſtrued to extend, to give liberty to any perſon or
‘ perſons whatſoever to import into the kingdom of Ireland,
‘ any ſort of ſugars, but ſuch only as ſhall be fairly and bona
‘ fide loaden and ſhipped in Great Britain, and carried di-
‘ rectly from thence in ſhips navigated according to law.
‘ And for the better preventing frauds in the importation of
‘ foreign ſugars and paneles, rum and ſpirits, molaſſes and
‘ ſyrups, into any of his majeſty's dominions, under pretence
‘ that the ſame are the growth, produce, or manufacture of
‘ the Britiſh colonies or plantations, it is further enacted, by
‘ the authority aforeſaid, That, from and after the 29th day
‘ of September 1764, every perſon or perſons loading on
‘ board any ſhip or veſſel, in any of the Britiſh colonies or
‘ plantations in America, any rum or ſpirits, ſugars or pa-
‘ neles, molaſſes or ſyrups, as of the growth, product, or manu-
‘ facture of any Britiſh colony or plantation, ſhall, before the
‘ clearing out of the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, produce and deliver to
‘ the collector, or other principal officer of the cuſtoms at the
‘ loading port, an affidavit ſigned and ſworn to before ſome
‘ juſtice of the peace in the ſaid Britiſh colonies or planta-
‘ tions, either by the grower, maker, or ſhipper of ſuch
‘ goods, or his or their known agent or factor, expreſſing,
‘ in words at length, and not in figures, the quality of the
‘ goods ſo ſhipped, with the number and denomination of
‘ the packages, and deſcribing the name or names of the
‘ plantation or plantations, and the name of the colony
‘ where the ſame grew, or were produced and manufactured;
‘ which affidavit ſhall be atteſted, under the hand of the ſaid
‘ juſtice of the peace, to have been ſworn to in his preſence,
‘ who is hereby required to do the ſame without fee or re-
‘ ward: and the collector, or other principal officer of the
‘ cuſtoms to whom ſuch affidavit ſhall be delivered, ſhall
‘ thereupon grant to the maſter, or other perſon having the
‘ charge of the ſhip or veſſel, a certificate under his hand
‘ and ſeal of office, (without fee or reward) of his having
‘ received ſuch affidavit purſuant to the directions of this
‘ act; which certificate ſhall expreſs the quality of the goods
‘ ſhipped on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, with the number and
‘ denomination of the packages: and ſuch collector or other
‘ principal officer of the cuſtoms ſhall alſo, (without fee or
‘ reward) within thirty days after the ſailing of the ſhip or
‘ veſſel,

‘ veſſel, tranſmit an exact copy of the ſaid affidavit to the ‘ ſecretary's office for the reſpective colony or plantation ‘ where the goods were ſhipped, on forfeiture of five ‘ pounds.

‘ And it is further enacted, That upon the arrival of ſuch ‘ ſhip or veſſel into the port of her diſcharge, either in Great ‘ Britain, or any other port of his majeſty's dominions, where ‘ ſuch goods may be lawfully imported, the maſter, or other ‘ perſon taking the charge of the ſhip or veſſel, ſhall, at ‘ the time he makes his report of his ſhip or cargo, deli- ‘ ver the ſaid certificate to the collector, or other principal ‘ officer of the cuſtoms; and make oath before him, that ‘ the goods ſo reported are the ſame that are mentioned in ‘ the ſaid certificate, on forfeiture of one hundred pounds; ‘ and if any rum or ſpirits, ſugars or paneles, molaſſes or ‘ ſyrups, ſhall be imported or found on board any ſuch ſhip ‘ or veſſel, for which no certificate ſhall be produced, or ‘ which ſhall not agree therewith, the ſame ſhall be deemed ‘ and taken to be foreign rum and ſpirits, ſugar and pa- ‘ neles, molaſſes and ſyrups; and ſhall be liable to the ſame ‘ duties, reſtrictions, regulations, penalties and forfeitures, ‘ in all reſpects, as rum, ſpirits, ſugar, paneles, molaſſes ‘ and ſyrups, of the growth, produce or manufacture of ‘ any foreign colony or plantation would reſpectively be ‘ liable to by law.

‘ Provided always, That if any rum or ſpirits, ſugars or pa- ‘ neles, molaſſes or ſyrups, ſhall be imported into Great ‘ Britain from any Britiſh colony or plantation in America, ‘ without being included in ſuch certificate as is herein be- ‘ fore directed; and it ſhall be made to appear to the ſa- ‘ tisfaction of the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms at ‘ London or Edinburgh reſpectively, that the goods are ‘ really and truly the produce of ſuch Britiſh plantation or ‘ colony, and that no fraud was intended; it ſhall and may in ‘ ſuch caſe be lawful for the ſaid reſpective commiſſioners to ‘ permit the ſaid goods to be entered, upon payment of the ‘ like duties as ſuch goods would be liable to if this law ‘ had not been made.

‘ And whereas, by an act of parliament made in the twelfth ‘ year of the reign of king Charles the ſecond, intituled, ‘ An act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and na- ‘ vigation, and ſeveral ſubſequent acts of parliament which ‘ are now in force, it is, amongſt other things directed, that ‘ for every ſhip or veſſel that ſhall load any commodities, ‘ in thoſe acts particularly enumerated, at any Britiſh plan- ‘ tation, being the growth, product or manufacture thereof, ‘ bonds ſhall be given with one ſurety to the value of one ‘ thouſand pounds, if the ſhip be of leſs burden than one ‘ hundred tons, and of the ſum of two thouſand pounds if ‘ the ſhip be of greater burthen; that the ſame commodi- ‘ ties ſhall be brought by ſuch ſhip or veſſel to ſome other ‘ Britiſh plantation, or to ſome port in Great Britain: not- ‘ withſtanding which, there is great reaſon to apprehend ſuch ‘ goods are frequently carried to foreign parts, and landed ‘ there. And whereas great quantities of foreign molaſſes ‘ and ſyrups are clandeſtinely run on ſhore in the Britiſh ‘ colonies, to the prejudice of the revenue, and the great ‘ detriment of the trade of this kingdom and its American ‘ plantations; to remedy which practices for the future, be ‘ it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, that from and ‘ after the 29th day of September 1764, bond and ſecurity ‘ in the like penalty ſhall alſo be given, to the collector or ‘ other principal officer of the cuſtoms at any port or place ‘ in any of the Britiſh American colonies or plantations, with ‘ one ſurety, beſides the maſter of every ſhip or veſſel that ‘ ſhall lade or take on board there any goods not particu- ‘ larly enumerated in the ſaid acts, being the product or ma- ‘ nufacture of any of the ſaid colonies or plantations; with ‘ condition, that in caſe any molaſſes or ſyrups, being the ‘ produce of any of the plantations not under the dominion ‘ of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, ſhall be laden on ‘ board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, the ſame ſhall (the danger of ‘ the ſeas and enemies excepted) be brought, without fraud ‘ or wilful diminution, by the ſaid ſhip or veſſel, to ſome of ‘ his majeſty's colonies or plantations in America, or to ‘ ſome port in Great Britain; and that the maſter or other ‘ perſon having the charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall im- ‘ mediately upon his arrival at every port or place in Great ‘ Britain, or in the Britiſh American colonies and planta- ‘ tions, make a juſt and true report of all the goods laden ‘ on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel, under their true and proper de- ‘ nominations; and if any ſuch non-enumerated goods ſhall ‘ be laden on board any ſuch ſhip or veſſel, before ſuch bond ‘ ſhall be given, the goods ſo laden, together with the ſhip ‘ or veſſel and her furniture, ſhall be forfeited, and ſhall and ‘ may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms, and proſe- ‘ cuted in the manner herein after directed.

‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, ‘ That every maſter, or perſon having the charge of any ‘ ſhip or veſſel, ſhall, before he departs from any Britiſh ‘ colony or plantation where he receives his lading, take a ‘ certificate, under the hands and ſeals of the collector or ‘ other principal officer of the cuſtoms there (which certi- ‘ ficate ſuch officers are hereby required to grant without fee ‘ or reward) that bond hath been given purſuant to the di- ‘ rections of this or any other act of parliament as the caſe ‘ ſhall require; and the maſter, or perſon having the charge ‘ of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall keep ſuch certificate in his ‘ cuſtody till the voyage is compleated; and ſhall then de- ‘ liver the ſame up to the collector or other chief officer of ‘ the cuſtoms, at the port or place where he ſhall diſcharge ‘ his lading, either in Great Britain or in any Britiſh Ame- ‘ rican colony or plantation, on forfeiture of one hundred ‘ pounds for each and every offence.

‘ And it is hereby further enacted, That if any Britiſh ſhip ‘ or veſſel, laden as aforeſaid, with any goods of the pro- ‘ duce or manufacture of any Britiſh colony or plantation ‘ in America, or having on board any molaſſes or ſyrups, ‘ the produce of any foreign colony or plantation, ſhall be ‘ diſcovered by any officer of his Majeſty's cuſtoms, within ‘ two leagues of the ſhore of any Britiſh colony or planta- ‘ tion in America, and the maſter or perſon taking charge ‘ of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall not produce a certificate, that ‘ bond has been given, purſuant to the directions of this or ‘ any other act of parliament, as the caſe may require; or ‘ if he ſhall not produce ſuch certificate to the collector or ‘ other chief officer of the cuſtoms where he ſhall arrive, either ‘ in Great Britain or any Britiſh American colony or plan- ‘ tation, ſuch ſhip or veſſel, with her tackle, apparel and ‘ furniture, and all the goods therein laden ſhall be forfeited, ‘ and ſhall and may be ſeized and proſecuted as herein after ‘ is directed.

‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority afore- ‘ ſaid, That the ſaid bond directed to be given by this act, ‘ with reſpect to ſuch non-enumerated goods, ſhall continue ‘ in force for one year from and after the completion of the ‘ voyage; and in caſe no fraud ſhall appear within that time, ‘ it ſhall be lawful for the commiſſioners of his majeſty's ‘ cuſtoms, or any four or more of them, to direct the ſaid ‘ bond to be delivered up.

‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, ‘ That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, all ‘ coffee, pimento, cocoa nuts, whale fins, raw ſilk, hides ‘ and ſkins, pot and pearl aſhes, of the growth, production ‘ or manufacture of any Britiſh colony or plantation in ‘ America, ſhall be imported directly from thence into this ‘ kingdom, or ſome other Britiſh colony or plantation, un- ‘ der the like ſecurities, penalties and forfeitures, as are par- ‘ ticularly mentioned in two acts of parliament, made in the ‘ twelfth and twenty-fifth years of the reign of king Charles ‘ the ſecond, the former intituled, An act for the encou- ‘ raging and encreaſing of ſhipping and navigation; and ‘ the latter intituled, An act for the encouragement of the ‘ Greenland and Eaſtland trades, and for the better ſe- ‘ curing the plantation trade, or either of them, with re- ‘ ſpect to the goods in thoſe acts particularly enumerated; ‘ any law, cuſtom or uſage to the contrary notwithſtand- ‘ ing.

‘ And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, ‘ That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, no ‘ iron nor any ſort of wood, commonly called lumber, as ‘ ſpecified in an act paſſed in the eighth year of the reign of ‘ king George the firſt, intituled, An act for giving further ‘ encouragement for the importation of naval ſtores, and ‘ for other purpoſes therein mentioned, of the growth, pro- ‘ duction or manufacture of any Britiſh colony or planta- ‘ tion in America, ſhall be there loaden on board any ſhip ‘ or veſſel, to be carried from thence, until ſufficient bond ‘ ſhall be given, with one ſurety beſides the maſter of the ‘ veſſel, to the collector or other principal officer of the ‘ cuſtoms at the loading port, in a penalty of double the ‘ value of the goods, with condition, that the ſaid goods ‘ ſhall not be landed in any part of Europe except Great ‘ Britain; which bonds ſhall be diſcharged in the manner ‘ hereafter mentioned; that is to ſay, for ſuch of the ſaid ‘ goods as ſhall be entered for, or landed in Great Britain, ‘ the condition of the bonds ſhall be, to bring a certificate ‘ in diſcharge thereof, within eighteen months from the ‘ date of the bond; and within ſix months for ſuch of the ‘ ſaid goods as ſhall be entered for, or landed in any of the ‘ Britiſh colonies or plantations in America; which reſpec- ‘ tive certificates ſhall be under the hands and ſeals of the ‘ collector or other principal officer of the cuſtoms, reſident ‘ at the port or place where ſuch goods ſhall be landed, ‘ teſtifying the landing thereof; and for ſuch of the ſaid ‘ goods as ſhall be entered for, or landed at, any other place ‘ in America, Africa or Aſia, to bring the like certificate, ‘ within twelve months, under the common ſeal of the chief ‘ magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known ‘ Britiſh merchants reſiding there; or ſuch bond or bonds ‘ ſhall be diſcharged, in either of the ſaid caſes, by proof ‘ upon oath made by credible perſons, that the ſaid goods ‘ were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas.

‘ And for the better preventing frauds, in the importation or ‘ exportation of goods that are liable to the payment of du- ‘ ties, or are prohibited, in the Britiſh colonies or planta- ‘ tions in America, it is further enacted, by the authority ‘ aforeſaid, That from and after the 29th Day of September

‘ 1764,

1764, no goods, wares or merchandizes, of any kind whatſoever, ſhall be ſhipped or laden on board any ſhip or veſſel in any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America to be carried from thence to any other Britiſh colony or plantation, without a ſufferance or warrant firſt had and obtained from the collector or other proper officer of the cuſtoms at the port or place where ſuch goods ſhall be intended to be put on board; and the maſter of every ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall, before the ſame be removed or carried out from the port or place where he takes in his lading, take out a cocket or cockets, expreſſing the quantity or quality of the goods, and marks of the package ſo laden, with the merchants names by whom ſhipped and to whom conſigned; and if they are goods that are liable to the payment of any duty, either upon the importation into, or upon the exportation from the ſaid colonies or plantations, the ſaid cocket or cockets ſhall likewiſe diſtinctly ſpecify, that the duties have been paid for the ſame, referring to the times or dates of entry and payment of ſuch duties, and by whom they were paid; which cocket or cockets ſhall be produced by the maſter of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, to the collector or other principal officer of the cuſtoms, at the port or place where ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall arrive, in any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, before any part of the goods are unladen or put on ſhore: and if any goods or merchandizes ſhall be ſhipped as aforeſaid without ſuch ſufferance, or the veſſel ſhall depart and proceed on her voyage without ſuch cocket or cockets, or the goods ſhall be landed or put on ſhore before ſuch cocket or cockets are produced at the port or place of diſcharge, or if the goods do not agree in all reſpects therewith, the goods, in any or either of theſe caſes, ſhall be forfeited and loſt; and any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms is hereby impowered to ſtop any ſuch ſhip or veſſel, bound as aforeſaid, which ſhall be diſcovered within two leagues of the ſhore of any of the ſaid Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, and to ſeize and take from thence all the goods which ſhall be found on board ſuch ſhip or veſſel for which no ſuch cocket or cockets ſhall be produced to him.

And whereas Britiſh veſſels arriving from foreign parts at ſeveral of the out ports of this kingdom, fully or in part laden abroad with goods that are pretended to be deſtined to ſome foreign plantation, do frequently take on board ſome ſmall parcels of goods in this kingdom, which are entered outwards for ſome Britiſh colony or plantation, and a cocket and clearance thereupon granted for ſuch goods, under cover of which the whole cargoes of ſuch veſſels are clandeſtinely landed in the Britiſh American dominions, contrary to ſeveral acts of parliament now in force, to the great prejudice of the trade and revenue of this kingdom; for remedy whereof, be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That, from and after the firſt day of May 1764, no ſhip or veſſel ſhall, upon any pretence whatſoever, be cleared outwards from any port of this kingdom, for any land, iſland, plantation, colony, territory or place, to his majeſty belonging, or which ſhall hereafter belong unto, or be in the poſſeſſion or under the dominion of his majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, in America, unleſs the whole and entire cargo of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall be, bona fide, and without fraud, laden and ſhipped in this kingdom; and any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms is hereby impowered to ſtop any Britiſh ſhip or veſſel arriving from any port of Europe, which ſhall be diſcovered within two leagues of the ſhore of any of the ſaid Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, and to ſeize and take from thence, as forfeited, any goods (except as herein after mentioned) for which the maſter, or other perſon taking the charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, ſhall not produce a cocket or clearance from the collector or proper officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms, certifying, that the ſaid goods were laden on board the ſaid ſhip or veſſel in ſome port of Great Britain.

Provided always, that this act ſhall not extend, nor be conſtrued to extend, to forfeit, for want of ſuch cocket or clearance, any ſalt laden in Europe, for the fiſheries in New England, Newfoundland, Penſylvania, New York and Nova Scotia, or any other place to which ſalt is or ſhall be allowed by law to be carried; wines laden in the Madeiras, of the growth thereof; and wines of the growth of the weſtern iſlands, or Azores, and laden there; nor any horſes, victuals, or linen cloth, of and from Ireland, which may be laden on board ſuch ſhips or veſſels.

And it is hereby further enacted, That if any perſon or perſons ſhall counterfeit, raſe, alter or falſify any affidavit, certificate, ſufferance, cocket or clearance, required or directed by this act; or ſhall knowingly or willingly make uſe of any affidavit, certificate, ſufferance, cocket or clearance, ſo counterfeited, raſed, altered or falſified, ſuch perſon or perſons ſhall, for every ſuch offence, forfeit the ſum of five hundred pounds; and ſuch affidavit, certificate, ſufferance, cocket or clearance, ſhall be invalid and of no effect.

And whereas, by an act of parliament made in the ninth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the ſecond, intituled, An act for indemnifying perſons who have been guilty of offences againſt the laws made for ſecuring the revenue of cuſtoms and exciſe, and for enforcing thoſe laws for the future; and by other acts of parliament ſince made, which are now in force, in order to prevent the clandeſtine landing of goods in this kingdom, from veſſels which hover upon the coaſts thereof; ſeveral goods and veſſels, in thoſe laws particularly mentioned and deſcribed, are declared to be forfeited, if ſuch veſſels are found at anchor, or hovering within two leagues of the ſhore of this kingdom, without being compelled thereto by neceſſity or diſtreſs of weather; which laws have been found very beneficial to the publick revenue: And whereas, if ſome proviſion of this ſort was extended to his Majeſty's American dominions, it may be a means of preventing an illicit trade therewith, and tend to enforce an act made in the twelfth year of the reign of king Charles the ſecond, intituled, An act for the encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation; and another act made in the ſeventh and eighth years of the reign of king William the third, intituled, An act for preventing frauds, and regulating abuſes in the plantation trade, ſo far as thoſe laws do prohibit any goods or commodities to be imported into, or exported out of, any Britiſh colony or plantation in America, in any foreign ſhip or veſſel; to which end therefore, be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That, from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any foreign ſhip or veſſel whatſoever ſhall be found at anchor, or hovering within two leagues of the ſhore of any land, iſland, plantation, colony, territory or place, which ſhall or may be in the poſſeſſion, or under the dominion of his majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, in America, and ſhall not depart from the coaſt, and proceed upon her voyage to ſome foreign port or place, within forty-eight hours after the maſter or other perſon taking the charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel ſhall be required to do, by any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms, unleſs in caſe of unavoidable neceſſity and diſtreſs of weather, ſuch ſhip or veſſel, with all the goods therein laden, ſhall be forfeited and loſt, whether bulk ſhall have been broken or not; and ſhall and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms, in ſuch manner and form as herein after is expreſſed.

Provided always, that nothing herein contained ſhall extend, or be conſtrued to extend, to any ſhip or veſſel belonging to the ſubjects of the French king, which ſhall be found fiſhing, and not carrying on any illicit trade, on that part of the iſland of Newfoundland which ſtretches from the place called Cape Bonaviſta to the northern point of the ſaid iſland, and from thence running down to the weſtern ſide, reaches as far as the place called Point Riche.

And in order to prevent any illicit trade or commerce between his majeſty's ſubjects in America, and the ſubjects of the Crown of France, in the iſlands of Saint Pierre and Miguelan, it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any Britiſh ſhip or veſſel ſhall be found ſtanding into, or coming out from either of thoſe iſlands, or hovering or at anchor within two leagues of the coaſts thereof, or ſhall be diſcovered to have taken any goods or merchandizes on board at either of them, or to have been there for that purpoſe, ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and all the goods ſo taken on board there, ſhall be forfeited and loſt, and ſhall and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms; and the maſter, or other perſon having the charge of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, and every perſon concerned in taking any ſuch goods on board, ſhall forfeit treble the value thereof.

And to prevent the concealing any goods in falſe packages, or private places, on board any ſhip or veſſel arriving at any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, with intent to their being clandeſtinely landed there, be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, all goods which ſhall be found concealed in any place whatſoever on board any ſuch ſhip or veſſel, at any time after the maſter thereof ſhall have made his report to the collector, or other proper officer of the cuſtoms, and which ſhall not be compriſed or mentioned in the ſaid report, ſhall be forfeited and loſt, and ſhall and may be ſeized and proſecuted by any officer of the cuſtoms; and the maſter, or other perſon having the charge or command of ſuch ſhip or veſſel, (in caſe it can be made appear, that he was any wiſe conſenting or privy to ſuch fraud or concealment) ſhall forfeit treble the value of the goods ſo found.

And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any goods or merchandizes whatſoever, liable to the payment of duties in any Britiſh colony or plantation in America, by this or any other act of parliament, ſhall be loaden on board any ſhip or veſſel outward bound, or ſhall be unſhipped or landed from any ſhip or veſſel inward bound,

'bound, before the reſpective duties due thereon are paid, 'agreeable to law; or if any prohibited goods whatſoever 'ſhall be imported into, or exported out of any of the ſaid 'colonies or plantations, contrary to the true intent and 'meaning of this or any other act of parliament, every 'perſon who ſhall be aſſiſting or otherwiſe concerned, either 'in the loading outwards, or in the unſhipping or landing 'inwards, ſuch goods, or to whoſe hands the ſame ſhall 'knowingly come after the loading or unſhipping thereof, 'ſhall, for each and every offence, forfeit treble the value of 'ſuch goods, to be eſtimated and computed according to 'the beſt price that each reſpective commodity bears at the 'place where ſuch offence was committed; and all the 'boats, horſes, cattle and other carriages whatſoever, made 'uſe of in the loading, landing, removing, carriage or con-'veyance of any of the aforeſaid goods, ſhall alſo be for-'feited and loſt, and ſhall and may be ſeized and proſe-'cuted by any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms, as herein 'after mentioned.

'And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority afore-'ſaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, 'if any officer of his majeſty's cuſtoms ſhall, directly or in-'directly, take or receive any bribe, recompence or reward, 'in any kind whatſoever, or connive at any falſe entry, or 'make any colluſive ſeizure or agreement, or do any other 'act or deed whatſoever, by which his majeſty, his heirs 'or ſucceſſors, ſhall or may be defrauded in his or their du-'ties, or whereby any goods prohibited ſhall be ſuffered to 'paſs either inwards or outwards, or whereby the forfeitures 'and penalties inflicted by this or any other act of parlia-'ment relating to his majeſty's cuſtoms in America may be 'evaded; every ſuch officer therein offending, ſhall, for 'each and every offence, forfeit the ſum of five hundred 'pounds, and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty 'in any office or employment, civil or military. And if 'any perſon or perſons whatſoever ſhall give, offer, or pro-'miſe to give, any bribe, recompence or reward, to any 'officer of the cuſtoms, to do, conceal, or connive at any 'act, whereby any of the proviſions made by this or any 'other act of parliament, relating to his majeſty's cuſtoms 'in America, may be evaded or broken, every ſuch perſon 'or perſons ſhall, for each and every ſuch offence, (whether 'the ſame offer, propoſal or promiſe be accepted or per-'formed or not) forfeit the ſum of fifty pounds.

'And whereas, by an act of parliament made in the ſeventh 'and eighth years of the reign of king William the third, 'intituled, An act for preventing frauds and regulating 'abuſes in the plantation trade, all governors or command-'ers in chief of any of his majeſty's colonies or plantations 'are required to take a ſolemn oath, to do their utmoſt, 'that all the clauſes, matters and things contained in that 'act, and ſeveral other acts of parliament therein referred 'to, relating to the ſaid colonies and plantations, be punc-'tually and bona fide obſerved, according to the true in-'tent and meaning thereof. And whereas divers other good 'laws have been ſince made, for the better regulating and 'ſecuring the plantation trade, be it further enacted, by the 'authority aforeſaid, That all the preſent governors or 'commanders in chief of any Britiſh colony or plantation 'ſhall, before the 29th day of September 1764, and all 'who hereafter ſhall be made governors or commanders in 'chief of the ſaid colonies or plantations, or any of them, 'before their entrance into their government, ſhall take a 'ſolemn oath, to do their utmoſt that all the clauſes, mat-'ters and things, contained in any act of parliament here-'tofore made and now in force, relating to the ſaid colonies 'and plantations, and that all and every the clauſes con-'tained in this preſent act, be punctually and bona fide 'obſerved, according to the true intent and meaning there-'of, ſo far as appertains unto the ſaid governors or com-'manders in chief reſpectively, under the like penalties, 'forfeitures and diſabilities, either for neglecting to take 'the ſaid oath, or for wittingly neglecting to do their duty 'accordingly, as are mentioned and expreſſed in the ſaid re-'cited act made in the ſeventh and eighth years of the reign 'of king William the third; and the ſaid oath hereby re-'quired to be taken, ſhall be adminiſtred by ſuch perſon or 'perſons as hath or have been, or ſhall be, appointed to 'adminiſter the oath required to be taken by the ſaid act 'made in the ſeventh and eighth years of the reign of king 'William the third.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That 'all penalties and forfeitures herein before mentioned, which 'ſhall be incurred in Great Britain, ſhall and may be pro-'ſecuted, ſued for and recovered, in any of his majeſty's 'courts of Record at Weſtminſter, or in the court of Exche-'quer in Scotland reſpectively, and (all neceſſary charges 'for the recovery thereof being firſt deducted) ſhall be di-'vided and applied, one moiety to and for the uſe of his 'majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to 'the ſeizer or proſecutor.

'And it is hereby further enacted and declared, That from 'and after the 29th day of September 1764, all ſums of 'money granted and impoſed by this act, and by an act 'made in the 25th year of the reign of king Charles the 'ſecond, intituled, An act for the encouragement of the 'Greenland and Eaſtland trades, and for the better ſecuring 'the plantation trade, as rates or duties; and alſo all ſums 'of money impoſed as penalties or forfeitures, by this or 'any other act of parliament relating to the cuſtoms, which 'ſhall be paid, incurred or recovered, in any of the Britiſh 'colonies or plantations in America; ſhall be deemed, and 'are hereby declared to be ſterling money of Great Britain; 'and ſhall be collected, recovered and paid, to the amount 'of the value which ſuch nominal ſums bear in Great Bri-'tain; and that ſuch monies ſhall and may be received and 'taken, according to the proportion and value of five ſhil-'lings and ſix pence the ounce in ſilver; and that all the 'forfeitures and penalties inflicted by this or any other act 'or acts of parliament relating to the trade and revenues of 'the ſaid Britiſh colonies or plantations in America, which 'ſhall be incurred there, ſhall and may be proſecuted, ſued 'for and recovered, in any court of record, or in any court 'of admiralty, in the ſaid colonies or plantations where 'ſuch offence ſhall be committed, or in any court of vice 'admiralty which may or ſhall be appointed over all Ame-'rica (which court of admiralty or vice admiralty are here-'by reſpectively authorized and required to proceed, hear 'and determine the ſame) at the election of the informer or 'proſecutor.

'And it is hereby further enacted, That all penalties and 'forfeitures ſo recovered there, under this or any former 'act of parliament, ſhall be divided, paid and applied, as 'follows: That is to ſay, after deducting the charges of 'proſecution from the groſs produce thereof, one third part 'of the net produce ſhall be paid into the hands of the 'collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms at the port or place where 'ſuch penalties or forfeitures ſhall be recovered, for the uſe 'of his majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors; one third part to 'the governor or commander in chief of the ſaid colony or 'plantation; and the other third part to the perſon who 'ſhall ſeize, inform and ſue for the ſame; excepting ſuch 'ſeizures as ſhall be made at ſea, by the commanders or 'officers of his majeſty's ſhips or veſſels of war duly au-'thorized to make ſeizures; one moiety of which ſeizures, 'and of the penalties and forfeitures recovered thereon, firſt 'deducting the charges of proſecution from the groſs pro-'duce thereof, ſhall be paid, as aforeſaid, to the collectors 'of his majeſty's cuſtoms, to and for the uſe of his majeſty, 'his heirs and ſucceſſors, and the other moiety to him or 'them who ſhall ſeize, inform and ſue for the ſame; any 'law, cuſtom or uſage to the contrary notwithſtanding; 'ſubject nevertheleſs to ſuch diſtribution of the produce of 'the ſeizures ſo made at ſea, as well with regard to the 'moiety herein before granted to his majeſty, his heirs and 'ſucceſſors, as with regard to the other moiety given to the 'ſeizer or proſecutor, as his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors, 'ſhall think fit to order and direct, by any order or orders of 'council, or by any proclamation or proclamations, to be 'made for that purpoſe.

'Provided always, and it is hereby further enacted, by the 'authority aforeſaid, That if the produce of any ſeizure 'made in America, ſhall not be ſufficient to anſwer the ex-'pences of condemnation and ſale; or if, upon the trial of 'any ſeizure of any ſhip or goods, a verdict or ſentence 'ſhall be given for the claimant; in either of thoſe caſes, 'the charges attending the ſeizing and proſecuting ſuch ſhip 'or goods, ſhall and may, with the conſent and approbation 'of any four of the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, 'be paid out of any branch of the revenue of cuſtoms 'ariſing in any of the Britiſh colonies or plantations in 'America; any thing in this or any other act of parlia-'ment to the contrary notwithſtanding.

'And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority afore-'ſaid, That from and after the ſaid 29th day of September 1764, no perſon ſhall be admitted to enter a claim to any 'ſhip or goods ſeized in purſuance of this or any other act 'of parliament, and proſecuted in any of the Britiſh co-'lonies or plantations in America, until ſufficient ſecurity 'be firſt given, by perſons of known ability in the court 'where ſuch ſeizure is proſecuted, in the penalty of ſixty 'pounds, to anſwer the coſts and charges of proſecution; 'and in default of giving ſuch ſecurity, ſuch ſhip or goods 'ſhall be adjudged to be forfeited, and ſhall be condemned.

'And it is hereby further enacted, by the authority afore-'ſaid, That from and after the 29th day of September 1764, if any ſhip or goods ſhall be ſeized for any cauſe of 'forfeiture, and any diſpute ſhall ariſe, whether the cuſtoms 'or duties for ſuch goods have been paid, or the ſame have 'been lawfully imported or exported, or concerning the 'growth, product or manufacture of ſuch goods, or the 'place from whence ſuch goods were brought; then and in 'ſuch caſes, the proof thereof ſhall lie upon the owner or 'claimer of ſuch ſhip or goods, and not upon the officer 'who ſhall ſeize or ſtop the ſame; any law, cuſtom or 'uſage to the contrary notwithſtanding.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That 'from and after the 29th day of September 1764, in caſe

'any

'any information ſhall be commenced and brought to trial 'in America, on account of any ſeizure of any ſhip or 'goods, as forfeited by this or any other act of parliament 'relating to his majeſty's cuſtoms, wherein a verdict or 'ſentence ſhall be given for the claimer thereof; and it 'ſhall appear to the judge or court before whom the ſame 'ſhall be tried, that there was a probable cauſe of ſeizure, 'the judge or court before whom the ſame ſhall be tried 'ſhall certify, on the record or other proceedings, that there 'was a probable cauſe for the proſecutor's ſeizing the ſaid 'ſhip or goods; and in ſuch caſe, the defendant ſhall not 'be intitled to any coſts of ſuit whatſoever, nor ſhall the 'perſons who ſeized the ſaid ſhip or goods be liable to any 'action, or other ſuit or proſecution, on account of ſuch 'ſeizure; and in caſe any action, or other ſuit or proſecu-'tion, ſhall be commenced and brought to trial againſt any 'perſon or perſons whatſoever, on account of the ſeizing 'any ſuch ſhip or goods, where no information ſhall be 'commenced or brought to trial to condemn the ſame, and 'a verdict or ſentence ſhall be given upon ſuch action or 'proſecution againſt the defendant or defendants, if the 'court or judge, before whom ſuch action or proſecution 'ſhall be tried, ſhall certify in like manner as aforeſaid, that 'there was a probable cauſe for ſuch ſeizure; then the plain-'tiff, beſides his ſhip or goods ſo ſeized, or the value there-'of, ſhall not be intitled to above two pence damages, nor 'to any coſts of ſuit; nor ſhall the defendant, in ſuch 'proſecution, be fined above one ſhilling.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That 'if any action or ſuit ſhall be commenced either in Great 'Britain or America, againſt any perſon or perſons, for any 'thing done in purſuance of this or any other act of parlia-'ment relating to his majeſty's cuſtoms, the defendant 'or defendants in ſuch action or ſuit may plead the 'General Iſſue, and give the ſaid acts and the ſpecial 'matter in evidence at any trial to be had thereupon, and 'that the ſame was done in purſuance, and by the autho-'rity of ſuch act; and if it ſhall appear ſo to have been 'done, the jury ſhall find for the defendant or defendants; 'and if the plaintiff ſhall be nonſuited, and diſcontinue his 'action, after the defendant or defendants ſhall have ap-'peared; or if judgment ſhall be given upon any verdict or 'demurrer againſt the plaintiff, the defendant or defendants 'ſhall recover treble coſts, and have the like remedy for the 'ſame, as defendants have in other caſes by law.'

COMMANDERS, or CAPTAINS of trading ſhips, are ſuch head officers, as have the chief direction and command of merchant-men, as well with reſpect to the proper ſecurity of the cargo, as to the part of navigating the veſſel.

Remarks.

As the ſucceſs of merchants, in their foreign adventures, depends on the ſecurity of the navigation of ſhipping, ſo too much precaution cannot be taken in regard to the qualifications of their commanders: and that not only in relation to their ſkill and experience in the art of navigation, but their honour and honeſty, late, as well as paſt experience having ſhewn, that they are not always proof againſt fraud and corruption; though, for their number, and the peculiarity of their employment, there is not, in the general, as the great Mr Locke has obſerved, a more upright body of men in the three kingdoms. See the articles Assurances and Affidavit, with Remarks thereon.

But, beſides integrity and knowlege in navigation, I would deſire leave to recommend it to thoſe gentlemen, that ſome knowlege in accounts is what they ſhould by no means be deficient in. For want of which, they too frequently give great trouble and vexation to their merchants and owners, and, perhaps, may have very often injured themſelves as well as their employers.

Nor is it uſeleſs to the captains of trading veſſels to be acquainted with the peculiar forms of tranſacting buſineſs with conſuls, notaries, &c.

Another moſt eſſential qualification alſo to theſe gentlemen is, that of the art of navigation; which ſeeming to be rendered more conciſe and eaſy than any thing I ever met with, from the following diſcovery, which fell into my hands lately, and has not (as I have been informed) yet been made public, in the ſhape it now is, I have been requeſted to ſubmit the ſame to the public conſideration, and particularly in a ſhort addreſs to all commanders of ſhips, &c. which, as the art of navigation is perfectly compatible with a work of commerce, I judge it may not prove unacceptable; and more eſpecially ſo, as it contains another attempt to diſcover the longitude at ſea. This, indeed, has been ſo long attempted in vain, that many are of opinion, that it will ſcarce ever be diſcovered. Whether what follows is really any advance that way or not, is ſubmitted to general conſideration; and more particularly to the fair and candid trial and experience of all Commanders and Masters of Ships, as well in the ſervice of the royal navy, as that of merchants; and it is moſt humbly requeſted by the author, and many public-ſpirited gentlemen, that thoſe who ſhall have tried and experienced at ſea the

truth of the propoſition (if there be any truth in it) would be generous enough to communicate the ſame by letter, poſt paid, to the author, the Rev. Mr. Richard Locke, to be left at Mr. R. Horſefield, bookſeller in London. It is furthermore humbly deſired, that ſuch gentlemen, who ſhall be pleaſed to give themſelves this trouble, would ſign their names and places of abode, that the author may perſonally pay his duty to them for the trouble they may have given themſelves.

The title of the work is as follows: The New and Univerſal Problem to diſcover the Longitude at Sea, further explained and illuſtrated. In which is geometrically demonſtrated, that not only the Longitude and Courſe, but alſo the Diſtance run, is corrected by the ſame obſervation of Latitude and Diſtance run. With a general challenge to all the Mathematicians in the world to confute it, or ſhew any other Method of diſcovering the Longitude at Sea, that may be depended upon. By Richard Locke, a Clergyman and Reader to the Hon. Society of Lincoln's-Inn.

A paper printed in the London Evening Poſt, January 24, 1751. To the Hon. the Commiſſioners appointed to inſpect the Longitude, and to the Public in general, this Problem for finding the Longitude at Sea is humbly ſubmitted by the author, Richard Locke.

Whereas the author having made three ſeveral voyages to America, with a view, in a great meaſure, to diſcover the longitude: the firſt was with a good watch and an inſtrument to take true time, which he did to a great exactneſs: the ſecond was by an eclipſe of the moon, with an equal certainty; but neither of theſe methods can be depended upon at ſea: and the third, by a problem, by which the longitude, in the dead reckoning, is corrected by the ſame obſervation that the latitude is, and to the ſame certainty, without any regard to lee-way, currents of the ſea, or variation of the compaſs: and, becauſe it is a problem of univerſal benefit to mankind, I ſhall communicate the practical part to the public, reſerving the explication and demonſtration of this, and the other two methods, to a more convenient opportunity.

There are few that uſe the ſeas, but know how to correct the latitude in the dead reckoning, by an obſervation: as if the latitude, in the dead reckoning, is leſs than in the obſervation, they add the difference to the latitude, and hence find the longitude, by adding the ſame proportionable difference; and, if leſs, by ſubtracting in both caſes; which is very erroneous, and quite contrary to the truth: for, if the dead reckoning is found leſs than in obſervation, 'tis plain the courſe was taken too much, and diſtance too little, by reaſon of the lee-way, currents of the ſea, or variation of the compaſs: ſubtract therefore the difference from the longitude, this will give the true courſe anſwering to the obſerved latitude, and hence the true longitude: but if leſs, as when the courſe is too little and the diſtance too much, from the ſame cauſes, add the difference to the longitude, and it will give the true longitude and latitude. To inſtance in numbers; ſuppoſe, in the dead reckoning, the latitude is found to be 10 leagues and the longitude 15, but by an obſervation the latitude is found 15, ſubtract the difference from the longitude, and, adding it to the latitude, it will make the longitude 10, and the latitude 15; this, according to the uſual way of correction, would have made the longitude 20: but, if the latitude in the dead reckoning is 15, and only 10 in the obſervation, and the longitude 10, add the difference to the longitude, and the true latitude is 10, and longitude 15; which, according to the common correction, would have been only 5, probatum eſt, and which may eaſily be demonſtrated by the problem. And the author hopes, that as he hath freely thus imparted his ſcheme to the public, if it is found true in general practice, as it is in ſpeculation, and as he hath found it in practice himſelf, he ſhall be intitled at leaſt to ſome advantage of the promiſed reward; as it hath been very difficult and expenſive to him in the diſcovery, by ſtudy, travelling, and hindering him in his temporal affairs; and he further deſires thoſe who may make a trial of it, to be careful in working up their latitude and departure, and eſpecially of making obſervations; for, as much as they miſs in obſerving the latitude, ſo much they will miſs in the longitude, and no more, as he hath experimentally found, in the laſt voyage to America. Laus ſoli Deo.

Jan. 23, 1750-1. Richard Locke.

Introduction.

Having put out an advertiſement in the London Evening Poſt of January 24, 1751, concerning a new univerſal problem to find the longitude at ſea; wherein I only mentioned the practical part, and what I had found to be true, in a voyage from Virginia to England, without giving any explication or demonſtration of the problem, reſerving theſe things for a more convenient opportunity: but finding that this method could not give that ſatisfaction to the public as muſt neceſſarily be expected in a matter of ſo much conſequence to the world;

and beſides this diſcovery of a method to find the longitude at ſea, capable of demonſtration, is what hath, for many ages, employed the ingenious and inquiſitive part of mankind, though they generally looked too high, by ſearching for that among the ſtars which can only be had here upon this earth. Led by theſe motives, I was reſolved to publiſh the explication and demonſtration of this problem, and let it take it's fate in the world, as every one is at liberty to examine it; and this will put an end to thoſe difficulties, and eſpecially queſtions, that have been propoſed to me about it; for now it muſt ſtand or fall, as by time and experience it ſhall be found true or falſe.

The great reward promiſed for a diſcovery of it hath encouraged many ingenious attempts, and, no doubt, but very much improved the practical part of navigation; for a proſpect of reward is a certain ſpur to induſtry; and I cannot deny but that it was a great inducement to me, to be at ſome expences, and to bear with thoſe many difficulties, as I muſt neceſſarily be expoſed to, in ſtudy, and travelling to make thoſe experiments, as I ſhall now freely impart to the world, and only reſerve to myſelf the firſt and laſt ſhift of life, which is hope.

Having always a great deſire to mathematics, from my firſt ſtudying them in a college here in England, I applied myſelf to the ſtudy of the longitude, and publiſhed a pamphlet of it, ſome years ago; after that I was introduced in the company of the famous Dr Halley, and I propoſed the ſcheme to him; he aſked me, if I had been to ſea to try it? I told him I had been to Italy by ſea, but not with a deſign of diſcovering the longitude: I was thoroughly ſatisfied with the queſtion, and deſigned then not to concern myſelf any more about it; but meeting with ſome diſappointments in the affairs of life, which is but the common fate of all mankind, I was again reſolved to go abroad, and try my fortune in other parts of the world; and, in a great meaſure, with a view to make ſome new diſcovery about the longitude.

The firſt voyage that I made was from Portſmouth to Antigua, as chaplain of a man of war. I had then no other view of diſcovering it but by a very good watch, and a double equinoctial dial, to take true time, by which I could find the time at ſea as well as at land. At Portſmouth I put my watch to the true time of the ſun, and made no other obſervations before we came into 29 degrees of latitude: I firſt made the obſervation for latitude, and by the ſame inſtrument, ſome time after, I took the hour of the day, and found it 42 minutes after 2 o'clock; the watch ſtood then at 14 minutes after 4; the difference of time was 1 hour, 32 minutes, equal to 23 degrees of longitude weſt, as the time of the day was before the time of the watch; and, when we made Antigua, I found the difference between the watch and obſerved time to be 3 hours, 56 minutes, equal to 59 degrees of longitude weſt. By this trial I found the longitude might eaſily be diſcovered by this method, if it was poſſible to find a regular movement to diſcover true time; but this hath been hitherto impracticable, and I am apt to think will always be ſo.

Some time after this I made another voyage to America, and lived for ſome years at a town called Lancaſter, in Penſylvania; and, February 13, 1747, I obſerved a total eclipſe of the moon, which began there a little after 10 o'clock, and ended about as much before 2, the 14th day in the morning; hence I concluded, that the middle of the eclipſe, or full moon, was about 12 o'clock, or midnight; in this eclipſe at London I found, by tables made for that meridian, that the oppoſition, or full moon, was February 14, at 52 minutes after 4 o'clock in the morning. Theſe 4 hours 52 minutes in time are equal to 73 degrees 15 minutes in degrees, which anſwers very near to the computed difference, which is reckoned to be 75 degrees, equal to 5 hours in time; but this method cannot any way be depended upon to find the longitude at ſea, as there are ſo few eclipſes of the ſun or moon. Some, indeed, have imagined, that, if the place of the moon could be calculated and obſerved to a great exactneſs, it would be a great help towards the diſcovery of the longitude at ſea: but even this would be impracticable, and not to be depended upon; for the moon doth not always appear; and it's motion, or receſſion from the ſun, is ſo little, that it doth not amount to above 30 ſeconds, equal to two minutes in time, in one hour, which is equal to 15 degrees in longitude, and that is but two ſeconds for one degree, that it is impoſſible by any inſtruments to make ſuch nice obſervations, eſpecially at ſea, where the ſhip is always in motion: and there are no other obſervations by which it may be done, unleſs by the ſatellites of Jupiter, and theſe are inviſible without the help of teleſcopes, which are in that caſe wholly uſeleſs at ſea.

Wherefore we muſt neceſſarily have recourſe to mechanical principles; and, as diſtances in ſurveying, and all mechanical operations, are meaſured on land: ſo, by proper methods, it might be done to as great certainty, or at leaſtwiſe as much as ſhall be neceſſary, at ſea. There have been ſeveral methods invented and made uſe of; but what ſeems to be the beſt, is that of the log-line and half-minute glaſs, commonly uſed by the Engliſh; and by this problem it is demonſtrated, that, if the true diſtance is given, the longitude, or eaſting and weſting, may be found with as much certainty as the latitude is by obſervation, without any regard to the variation of the compaſs, lee-way of the ſhip, or currents of the ſea; becauſe it is corrected by the ſame obſervation that the latitude is. The demonſtration is founded on the principles of Euclid. Upon theſe conſiderations, and meeting with ſome diſappointments, it put me upon a third trial of finding the longitude in a mechanical way; and having got an inſtrument made, ſomething like a ſinical quadrant, with moving labels, by which triangles both plain and oblique may be calculated, much ſooner than by logarithms or ſcales, and much better, as I thought, than by the tables of latitude and departure; I was reſolved to make a third voyage to America, with a deſign to end my days there; but God, in his good providence, was pleaſed to order it otherways. In the voyage I wholly depended upon the diſtance run, without any certain method of correcting it; only allowed 50 feet between each knot, and the glaſs to be 30 ſeconds. Upon aſking how the log-line was divided? I was told by 45 feet, and the glaſs was 30 ſeconds, to keep the dead reckoning before the ſhip; and from hence I concluded to ſubtract 10 miles out of every 100, and 100 miles out of every 1000, which is according to the proportion of 45 : 50. A little before we made the land, I told the mate that we were 960 leagues weſt from the Lizard; he ſeemed to take little notice, and rather laughed at it; but a ſurgeon on board the ſhip, hearing me, laid a bottle of wine upon the reckoning, and got it: the journal I have by me, I made it, according to their diviſion of the log-line, to be 3300 miles from the Lizard to Cape Henry in Virginia, and, ſubtracting 100 out of every 1000, made it juſt 3000 miles, or 1000 leagues. The reckoning was ſo exact, that they gave it out in Virginia that I had found the longitude, though I had no other method at that time than what is mentioned before, which was wholly to depend upon the diſtance run, allowing the diviſions of the line to be 50 feet, and the glaſs 30 ſeconds.

I was ſettled in a pariſh in Virginia; but my health was ſo much impaired by age, and the change of climates, that I could not well perform ſuch long tedious journies as are required in their pariſhes; and meeting with other difficulties and perſecutions, and eſpecially the great ſcarcity of food and raiment; beſides the great number of negroes that are there, which has made it a mere neſt of thieves, and renders the country very diſagreeable; and, having at the ſame time diſcovered this problem, I thought it would be very envious in me to conceal a thing of ſo much benefit to the public, as it was by the goodneſs of God freely diſcovered to me. Upon theſe conſiderations, I thought it was better to come home than to live in miſery there; and in the paſſage, to make a thorough trial of it. I only took the diſtances as entered in the log-book, without examining into the glaſs or log-line, not doubting but that, as I corrected the latitude by obſervation, ſo I could correct the longitude by this problem, which I found to anſwer beyond expectation; for I made it juſt 3003 miles from Cape Henry to the Lizard, or 1001 leagues, as I have now the journal by me, which was but three miles difference between going and coming, though I was ſenſible, by the obſervations of latitude, that their log-line and half-minute glaſs were very much out, as well as keeping bad courſes.

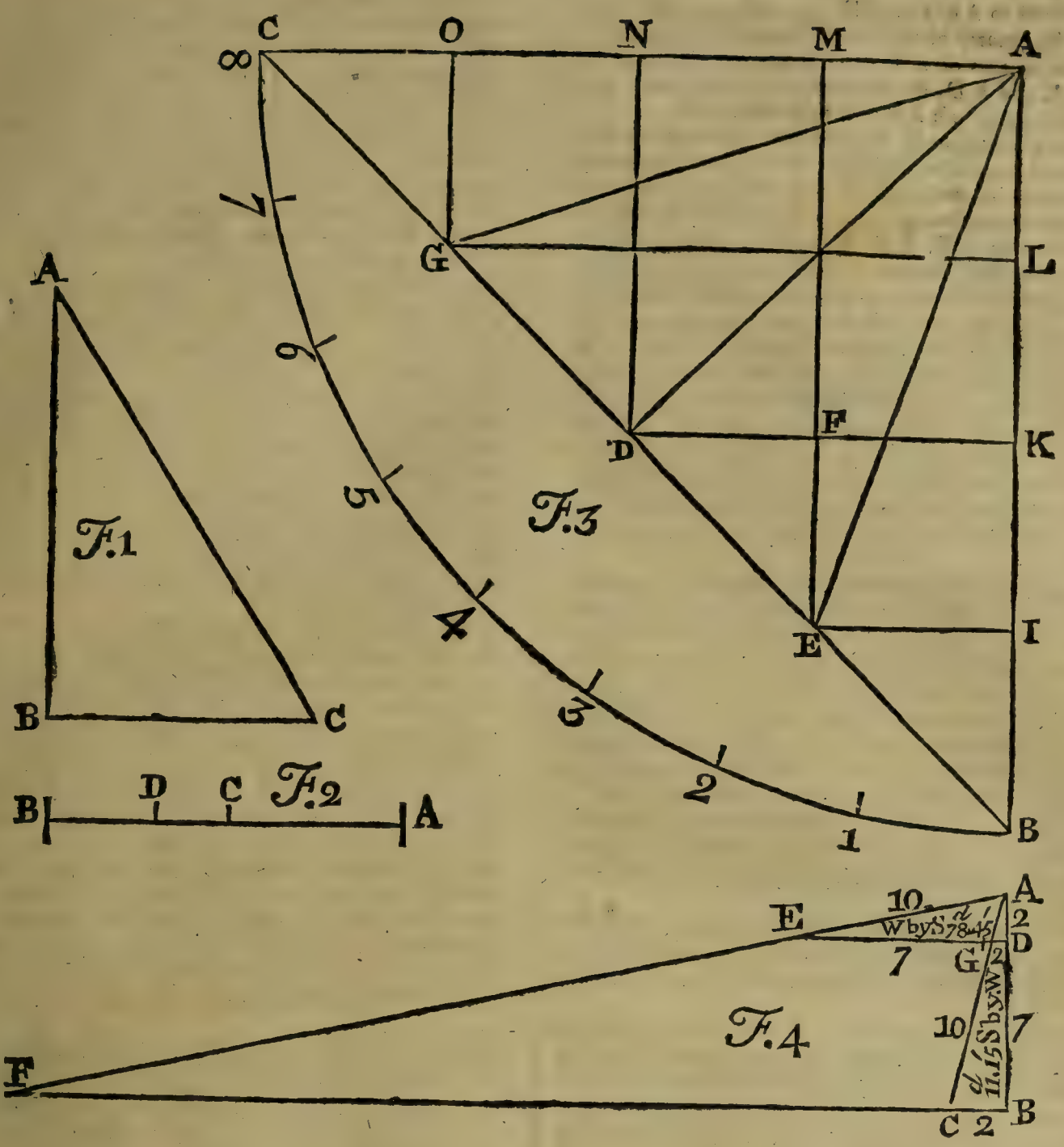
And, by this laſt voyage, I find that not only the latitude is corrected by the obſervation, but alſo the longitude and diſtance are corrected by this problem, to the ſame certainty, as I made no allowances for the diſtance run, as in the other voyage. This is what is evident in ſpeculation, and will appear ſo upon a cloſe examination of the problem; but I cannot expect that the truth and uſefulneſs of it ſhould depend upon this one voyage, but upon the general experience and practice of the world.

I muſt own I was adviſed not to publiſh it, before I had ſome promiſe of a reward; but to whom could I apply, that would take any notice of a bare propoſal, after ſo many attempts as have been made, and all to no purpoſe? And if this ſhould prove true in practice, as it is in ſpeculation, and as I have found it in practice, I doubt not of the generoſity of my country; they certainly will allow me ſome premium, or it will be a great diſcouragement to poſterity ever to attempt any thing for the public good.

Speramus quæ volumus, ſed quod accederit, feramus.

I cannot deny but formerly I publiſhed ſeveral attempts about the longitude; but I had not then that experience and trial as I have ſince had in this, though I always imagined that it might be done ſome ſuch way, as I publiſhed it in a Miſcellany of Mathematics; wherein I attempted the ſquaring of the circle, and found out a new and nearer proportion than of 7 : 22, which is 8 : 25, or that 3 diameters $\frac{1}{8}$ are equal to the circumference, and a problem to double, triple, &c. the cube, the correction of time, and in it likewiſe a method to find the diſtance run, without the help of an half-minute glaſs, &c. And this diſtance run, and a good obſervation of latitude, are all the requiſites that are neceſſary in navigation, for every thing elſe is corrected by this problem, to a mathematical certainty, and even the diſtance by a good obſervation. But time and experience tries all things. Laus Deo.

RICHARD LOCKE.



An explanation and demonſtration of the new and univerſal Problem, to find the Longitude at ſea, by the ſame obſervation, and with the ſame certainty, that the latitude is: and is now farther demonſtrated, by ſhewing how the diſtance is corrected, by adding or ſubtracting the lines of longitude and latitude, which makes it equivalent to a ſpherical triangle; and illuſtrated, by demonſtrating the abſolute impoſſibility of determining it by the common method; and that there is not the leaſt error in determining it by the problem. The impoſſibility of finding it by obſervation is ſhewn in the introduction. And,

1. If the longitude could be found by obſervation, without an imaginary or dead reckoning, as the latitude is, yet it would always be neceſſary to keep this reckoning at ſea, by reaſon of cloudy weather, that ſometimes obſervations cannot be made for weeks together.

2. The dead reckoning is the eſtimation of the ſhip's way, with reſpect to longitude and latitude, by the help of a log-line and half-minute glaſs, or any other method made uſe of at ſea, to find the diſtance run, and a compaſs for the angle of the courſe.

3. In order to calculate this reckoning, they form an imaginary right-angled triangle, the perpendicular to repreſent the meridian or latitude, the baſe the longitude or departure, which are the miles of eaſting or weſting from the meridian, and the hypothenuſe the diſtance run. Let A B C (fig. 1.) be the triangle, A B the difference of latitude, B C the longitude, and A C the diſtance run. In this triangle the angle A B C, made by the latitude A B, and longitude B C, is always right, let their courſes and diſtances be never ſo intricate, ſo as to paſs and repaſs the ſame meridian. The perpendicular, or latitude A B, is found by obſervation; the diſtance run, A C, by the half-minute glaſs and log-line, which is done with as much certainty as is neceſſary to find the longitude, becauſe even the diſtance is naturally corrected by the problem, as will appear afterwards.

4. The proportion of the log-line and half-minute glaſs. A geometrical mile is equal to 69 + Engliſh miles; hence to find the proportions of the log-line and half-minute glaſs: for as one degree is 69 miles one minute; in degrees, is equal to 6000 feet. One minute of time is the 60th part of an hour, a half-minute is the 120th part; hence divide the 6000 feet by 120, it gives 50 feet for the half-minute glaſs; and, as many 50 feet as the line runs out in one half-minute, ſo many miles will the ſhip's way be in one hour; and if the line be more or leſs than 50 feet, or glaſs than 30 ſeconds, proportional allowances muſt be made, as 30 to 50 are the proportions, as mentioned in the introduction.

5. Hence, when the latitude and diſtance run are given, the longitude is found independent of the angle of the courſe, by prop. 47. Eucl. 1. wherein he demonſtrates, that the ſquare of the hypothenuſe of a right-angled triangle is equal to the ſquares of both ſides, including the right-angle; or, to apply it to navigation, the ſquare of the diſtance run is equal to the ſquares of the longitude and latitude; and as the latitude and diſtance are given, the longitude is found, by ſquaring the diſtance run, and ſubtracting the ſquare of the latitude, the ſquare root of the remainder is the longitude: the angle of the courſe is found by caſe 5. of right-angled plain triangles. And, if the lines of longitude and latitude are given, the diſtance run is likewiſe given, for the ſquares of theſe lines are equal to the ſquare of the diſtance: this is for a ſingle courſe.

6. But, before we proceed to the problem for correcting a traverſe, it will be neceſſary, by way of lemma, to premiſe a propoſition of Euclid, to prove, that if, in a right-angled triangle, part of one ſide be taken away, and added to the other, the ſquares of the two ſides are ſtill equal to the ſquare of the hypothenuſe; but, as theſe lines are equal, or unequal to one another, their ſquares added together are more or leſs; hence their root, or the hypothenuſe, is longer or ſhorter, which naturally corrects the diſtance, and is thus demonſtrated.

Euclid, in prop. 4. b. 2, demonſtrates, that if a line A *b* (fig. 2.) be any way divided, as in *c* or *d*, &c. the ſquare of the whole line is equal to the ſquares of both the parts, and to two rectangles contained under the parts. And, in ſchol. and coroll. of prop. 5. of the ſame book, he demonſtrates, that if the line be equally divided in *c*, and unequally in *d*, the ſquares of the equally divided line are leſs than the ſquares of the unequally divided one, and the rectangles greater. See the prop. in Euclid.

7. But to apply this lemma, and demonſtrate how the taking from one ſide, and adding to the other, will only make the hypothenuſe longer or ſhorter, though the ſides are always of the ſame length. Let the ſides A B and A C of the quadrant A B C, (fig. 3.) be equally divided in L, K, I, and M, N, O, and the lines K D, N D, &c. be drawn; hence the ſquares, and conſequently the ſides of the ſquares, are all equal: let the ſide A B be equally divided in K, and unequally in I, and let A K and K D, equal to A K and K B, be made the two ſides of the rectangle A K D; hence the ſquares of A K and K D are equal to the ſquare of A D; but

ſuppoſe FD taken from KD, and added to AK, then AI and IE are equal to AK and KD, by axiom 2, and 3 Euclid 1, and the ſquares of AI and IE equal to the ſquare of AE; but the ſquares of AI and IE are greater than the ſquares of AK and KD, by the lemma or coroll. hence their root, or the hypothenuſe AE is longer than AD.

This makes no alteration in the problem, but only naturally corrects the diſtance at the ſame time the longitude and courſe are alſo corrected by the problem, and it is what makes the triangles in the traverſe equivalent to ſpherical triangles; for theſe hypothenuſes AE, AD, AG, &c. which are parts of the radii of circles, increaſe and decreaſe by means of the ſquares and powers of lines, as the chord BC, &c. of the quadrant; though the lines including the right angle, as AK and KD, AI and IE, &c. whoſe ſquares are equal to the ſquares of the hypothenuſes AD, AE, &c. are always equal to the whole radius, or AB, and hence equal to one another, as AK and KD, &c. are equal to AB=AI and IE, &c. (See the fig.) Hence, the greater the difference is between the obſerved and imaginary latitude, the greater are the errors in the courſe and diſtance, as is evident from the nature of triangles and power of lines, as they are here explained and applied.

8. But to proceed, and apply this to the traverſe, as corrected by an obſervation, and this new problem; for what anſwers in a ſingle triangle, will anſwer likewiſe in a traverſe of never ſo many triangles; for as diſtances cannot always be meaſured upon one courſe, by reaſon of contrary winds, wherefore they have recourſe to the compaſs, to find the angles of the ſeveral courſes, and, by the diſtances, to calculate the longitudes and latitudes, and, adding them together, to make one general reckoning, which is called a traverſe.

But the variation of the compaſs, the lee-way of the ſhip, currents of the ſea, beſide bad ſteering, render the angle of the courſe very uncertain, and conſequently not to be depended upon at ſea.

And there are two caſes, in which the latitude is affected by theſe errors; which are, that the latitude in obſervation is either more or leſs than the latitude in the traverſe, or dead reckoning.

And theſe are the two caſes which are to be corrected by the new problem and the obſervation of latitude, with reſpect to longitude, courſe, and diſtance; for, if the latitude by the obſervation is the ſame as the latitude in the traverſe, it is evident, that the courſe and diſtance were true, as the latitude in the traverſe is calculated from them, and from what was ſaid in the ſingle courſe, by the 47. Eucl. 1.

9. In the firſt caſe, when the obſerved latitude is more than the imaginary one, let AKD be the imaginary triangle, AK the latitude, AD the diſtance run, and DAK the angle of the courſe, the longitude KD is found by caſe 1. of plain triangles, or by prop. 47. Eucl 1. But ſuppoſe, by obſervation, the latitude is found to be more, or at I=AI, to make the ſquares of the obſerved latitude and longitude equal to the ſquare of the diſtance, ſubtract the difference of the latitudes, or FD equal to KI, from KD the longitude, and add it to AK the latitude, then AI is the latitude, as by obſervation, and IE=KF the corrected longitude, for their ſquares are equal to the ſquare of AE, the true diſtance run; but as the ſquares of AI and IE, or IB, are greater than the ſquares of AK and KD, or KB, by the lemma, hence their root or diſtance AE is longer than AD, though the lines AK and KD are equal to AI and IE; and hence the longitude, courſe, and diſtance, are corrected by the obſervation of latitude and diſtance run: and, as the true courſe is IAE, it is evident, the courſe DAK in the traverſe was taken too much, and diſtance AD too little.

Caſe 2, which is the reverſe of the former: let the latitude in the traverſe be leſs than the latitude in the obſervation; as ſuppoſe AIE the triangle, AI the latitude, AE the diſtance run, and EAI the angle of the courſe, by which the longitude IE is found by caſe 1. of plain triangles, or by prop. 47. Eucl. 1. But ſuppoſe, by obſervation, the latitude is found to be at K, or equal to AK, to make the ſquares of the obſerved latitude and longitude equal to the ſquare of the diſtance, ſubtract IK the difference between the obſerved and imaginary latitude, and add it to the longitude IE, or make KD equal to KI and IE: hence AK is the latitude, according to obſervation, and KD the corrected longitude, their ſquares being equal to the ſquares of AD; and hence AD is the true diſtance run: but as the ſquare of AK and KD, or KB, are leſs than the ſquares of AI and IE, or IB, though the lines are equal by the lemma, hence their root, or the diſtance AD, is leſs than the diſtance AE; hence the longitude, courſe, and diſtance, are corrected by the obſervation of latitude, and diſtance run; the true angle of the courſe was DAK; and hence it is plain, the computed courſe EAI was too little, and diſtance run AE too much.

10. A farther illuſtration of this new problem will appear, by ſhewing the abſolute impoſſibility of determining the longitude at ſea, or even at land (for the longitude might as well be found at land as at ſea, by the diſtance and difference of latitude) without the help of this univerſal problem, ſince it cannot be done by obſervation at ſea, ſo as to be depended upon, as mentioned in the introduction; and that this method is equivalent to an obſervation of longitude.

There are but two ways of correcting a traverſe by the obſervation of latitude, either by the lines of the triangle, or by the angle of the courſe. To correct by the lines, is what is done by this new problem, but the angle of the courſe is ſo uncertain, as mentioned before, that there can be no dependance upon that method, as will further appear, by comparing both methods in the two caſes, when the latitude is more or leſs; and by this will be made a proper application of this new problem to practice.

Caſe 1. When the latitude in obſervation is leſs than the latitude in the traverſe, let BAC (fig. 4.) or S. by W. =11 deg. 15 min. be the imaginary courſe, and let AC the diſtance run, be given 10 miles: hence, by caſe 7. of trigonometry, or by the tables of the difference of lat. and dep. the lat. AB is 9,8, and the long. BC 1,9 miles, or in integer numbers 9 and 2: but ſuppoſe, by obſervation, the latitude is found to be at D, or equal to AD 1,9 or 2 miles, according to the common method of correction by the angle, the triangles ABC and ADG being ſimilar, hence AB: BC :: AD : DG, or 9 : 2 :: 2, 4-tenths, and hence the diſtance run, AG, is only 2, 2, which is impoſſible, for that was given 10 miles.

But to correct it by the new problem, or the lines, ſubtract the difference between the latitude in obſervation, and the latitude in the traverſe, or DB from AB, and add to it the longitude BC, or make DE equal to DB and BC, hence AD is the lat. according to obſervation, DE the longitude corrected by the problem, and AE equal to AC the diſtance run, as was given: for AB and BC are equal to AD and DE, for DB and BC are equal to DE by conſtruction, and AD is common to both: hence AE is equal to AC the given diſtance run. In numbers, ſubtract 7, the difference of the latitudes, from 9, the remainder 2 is the obſerved latitude; add that 7 to 2 the longitude, it makes 9 for the corrected longitude, and hence the diſtance run is 10, as was given. The courſe is found, by caſe 5, to be W. by S.=78 degr. 45 min. Theſe propoſitions are univerſal, and will anſwer in all courſes.

In the ſecond caſe; when the lat. in obſervation is more than the latitude in the traverſe, let the courſe be EAD, W. by S. =78 deg. 45 min. AE the diſtance run 10 miles: hence by caſe 7. of trigonometry, or by the tables of the diff. of lat. and dep. DE the longitude in integer numbers is 9 miles, and AD the latitude 2 miles. But ſuppoſe, by an obſervation, the latitude is found to be AB, or 9 miles, according to the common method of correction, or by the angle, as the triangles are ſimilar, AD : DE :: AB : BF, or 2 : 9 :: 9 : 40 +, and the diſtance run AF is 42, which is impoſſible, for the diſtance run is only given 10 miles. But, to correct it by the problem, ſubtract BD the difference between the obſerved and imaginary latitude from DE the longitude, and add it to DA the imaginary lat. and the lat. is AB according to the obſervation, and the longitude BC, as corrected by the obſervation and diſtance run; for AB and BC are equal to AD and DE, hence AC=AE is the true diſtance, as was given, the angle of the courſe S. by W.= 11 degr. 15 min.

In numbers, ſubtract 7, the difference of the latitudes, from 9 the longitude, and add it to 2 the latitude, which makes the latitude 9 according to the obſervation, and the longitude 2 as corrected by the obſervation and diſtance run: hence the diſtance is 10, as was given by 47 Eucl. 1. the angle of the courſe is found, by caſe 5. of trigonometry, to be S. by W. = 11 deg. 15 min.

In the firſt caſe, the longitude corrected according to the common method, in only ſailing 10 miles, is above 8 miles too little; and, if it had been 100 miles, it would be above 80 miles too little. In the ſecond caſe, it is above 30 miles too much; and, if it had been 100 miles, it would have been above 300 miles too much; and not the leaſt error in correcting it according to the problem.

This is the uncertainty of determining the longitude by the common method, and, without ſome correction, the art of navigation in determining the longitude is uſeleſs, or mere gueſs-work, ſince it cannot be found by obſervation, as the latitude is: though this correction, by the obſervation and the problem, is equivalent to an obſervation of longitude; for the longitude, courſe, and diſtance, are corrected by the ſame obſervation as the latitude is, as muſt evidently appear upon a cloſe examination of the problem, by the principles of Euclid.

The truth and uſefulneſs of this univerſal problem depends only upon two mechanical principles of making a good obſervation of latitude, and meaſuring the diſtance run, without any regard to currents, lee-way, or variation of the compaſs, for theſe are corrected to a mathematical certainty, as any one acquainted with mathematical reaſoning, and eſpecially as applied to navigation, in this new and univerſal problem, might eaſily perceive.

And thus a ſhip might be carried round the world, even without a compaſs, if they can but make proper obſervations of

latitude, and measure a good distance, and miss no more in longitude, or easting and westing, than they do in latitude, by the help of this problem, with the observation of latitude, and the distance run: for should they lose their compass, or should it prove erroneous, as it frequently doth, let them make an imaginary course, and by the distance run calculate an imaginary triangle; and, if the imaginary latitude is more than the observed one, subtract the difference from the imaginary latitude, and add it to the longitude; if less, subtract the difference from the longitude, and add it to the latitude, and this will give the true latitude and longitude of the ship, according to the observation of latitude and distance run; for, by the problem, the observed latitude, and corrected longitude are always equal to the longitude and latitude in the traverse. This problem is universal for all courses, as I had some trial of it in a voyage from Virginia to England. Upon the 28th of November, 1750, being on board the Glouceſter, captain Whiteing commander, by the reckoning corrected by the problem, we were 2988 miles east from the capes of Virginia, in long. 69 deg. 18 min. the latitude, by observation, 49 deg. 24 min. I told the captain we were certainly near the longitude of the Lizard; they stifly maintained, that we were several degrees, at least 7, to the west of the Land's End; within a few hours we made the eastermost point of the Lizard, and it is well we did, for we had a great storm from the S. W. that night; and I do really think, that I missed no more in longitude than in observation of latitude, though there was a very bad dead reckoning kept the whole voyage. But,

12. What is meant by the longitude in the problem, is only the miles of easting or westing, or the departure from the meridian. To turn these miles into degrees of longitude, requires a different method; the latitude is at once determined by the observation, because the motions of the sun and stars are regular from the east to the west, and the lines of latitude are parallel and equidistant round the globe in both hemispheres; but the lines of longitude decrease in both hemispheres from the equator, till they meet in the poles, which makes the longitude different in every degree of latitude.

By miles here are meant geometrical miles, of 69 + English miles to one degree on the equator, equal to 60 geometrical miles, and may be found, by proportion, without the help of Mercator's tables: for, as circles are to one another as the squares of their diameters, their segments are in the same proportion by 2 Eucl. 12; hence the quadrant 90 : is to the square of one degree of longitude on the equator : : as the complement of the latitude : is to the square of one degree in that latitude. For instance, to know the miles of one degree in the latitude of 50 deg. square the 60 equatorial miles, and by proportion 90 : 3600 : : 40 : 1600, the square root is 40, the miles to one degree in the latitude of 50 deg. and dividing the miles of easting or westing by the miles of one degree of longitude, if in the same latitude, will give the degrees of longitude. But, if in different latitudes, divide by the miles of the middle latitude; two instances will be sufficient to shew the use of it in all cases.

For suppose two places in the latitude of 50 to be 3400 miles distant, the miles of longitude in that latitude are 40; by which divide the 3400 miles, the difference of longitude is 85 degrees. The reverse is to find the miles between two places 85 deg. distant in the latitude of 50 deg. multiply the 85 by 40, and it gives 3400 miles.

Let the other instance be of two places in different latitudes, as the Lizard in the latitude of 50 deg. and Cape-Henry, in Virginia, in the lat. of 37 deg. the miles of long. at the Lizard are 40, and at Cape-Henry 46 to a degree; these added are 86, the half is 43: the distance between the two places is about 3000 miles, which divide by 43, the degrees are 69 deg. 33 min. The reverse is to find the miles by the deg., multiply the 69 by 43, and add the 33 miles; it gives 3000 miles, the departure or longitude.

I shall conclude with instances in both cases; as when the latitude is more or less in the traverse than in the observation, in which will be shewn the method made use of in working the traverse, and correcting it by an observation of latitude; by which means the easting or westing of the ship is known to as much certainty by the distance run, and the problem, as the northing or southing is known by the observation of latitude; and this is all that is necessary to carry a ship to any part of the world. The latitude and departure are found by the 7th case of plain trigonometry, when the course and distance are given, or by the first case of plain sailing in the mariner's new calendar; or it may be done by proportion, without tables or scales, by squaring the distance; and 90 or the right-angle : is to the square of the distance : : as the course : is to the square of the longitude, or complement of the course is to the square of the latitude : the square root is the longitude or latitude. I shall put down part of the traverse that I made from Virginia to England, as mentioned before. On the 26th of November we were 2716 miles east from the capes of Virginia, long. 63 deg. 17 min. lat. by observ. 50 deg. 28 min.

Day.	Course	Dist.	Long. E.	Lat. W	Lat. N	Lat. S.	Lat. by Obſerv. Obſer.	Corr^{d}	D.
26	S.E. by E.	134	110			70	50°,28	2716	63°.17
27	S.E. by E.	28	23			15			
	E. S. E.	8	7,1			3			
	E. by S.	80	78			14			
	E. S. E.	15	14			2			
28			232,4			104	49°,24′	2988	69°,18′

The longitude was 232 miles east, and the latitude in the traverse 104 miles south. By observation, the latitude the 26th was 50 deg. 28 min., and the 28th 49 deg. 24 min., their difference is 64, and subtracted from 104, is 40 miles less than in the traverse; wherefore, according to the problem, add 40 to the longitude 232=272, and this, added to 2716, is equal to 2988 in deg. 69, 18, which was the time I told the captain that we were near the longitude of the Lizard, and made the eastern point a very few hours after; but, if the correction had been made according to the common method, the reckoning would have been 80 miles less, besides other corrections that were made through the whole voyage: for, every time we had an observation of latitude, I always corrected the longitude by that observation and the problem; and it is probable, had I not made these corrections, the reckoning might have been as short as theirs was, and we should not have endeavoured to make the land, which must have been of very dangerous consequence from the great storm we had from the S. W. that night. Laus soli Deo.

But, if the difference between the two observations had been more than the latitude in the traverse, the difference must have been subtracted from the longitude, and added to the latitude; for the latitude in the traverse must always be made equal to the latitude by observation.

Thus in a traverse by the problem, the latitude is corrected by observation, and by the latitude the longitude is corrected, and by the observed latitude and corrected longitude the true distance is found out, by squaring the longitude and latitude, and extracting their square root, which gives the true distance by the lemma. Laus soli Deo.

I shall conclude with this Laus soli Deo, and a challenge to all the mathematicians in the world to confute it, or shew any other method of determining the longitude at sea, to be depended upon with any certainty: and I affirm, that this method is quite new, and never published by any author before the 24th of January, 1751, when I first published it in the London-Evening-Post. I experimentally know this to be true and easy: and if it cannot be confuted, or shewn to be defective in any material point, the reward in honour, conscience, and justice, belongs to the discoverer. See LONGITUDE.

COMMERCE being the subject of this work, it may be necessary to say something on this head; not by way of declamation, which is as needless as haranguing learnedly on the benefit of air, rain, and sun-shine, when nature requires them; but in order to shew, that the province of a trader is not so contemptible a class of the community, as some would affect to make it.

A general complaint of the decay of trade, and a humour in many of the better sort of people, to make awkward and ill-grounded excuses for breeding their children up to it; together with a tendency to prefer what is called the professions, as law, divinity, and physic, to merchandize; should induce us to examine on what foundation this way of judging was erected. And, the more it is looked into, the less cause will there be for so feeble a way of thinking; for there is not only less likelihood for a man to raise himself to any degree of eminence in the professions, than by trade; but also that the road to honour and preferment is as open, where the merit is equal, in trade, as in law, divinity, or physic; and that many more estates of consideration* are acquired, and even with less obloquy, from the one than from the others.

* Mr Locke observes, that trade is a surer and shorter way to riches, than any other. Locke's works, vol. ii. p. 8. folio.

Supposing an eminent trader arrives only at the office of lord-mayor; in that capacity alone he becomes right-honourable, and invested with the sacred character of a judge, both in capital and civil matters, and precedes even the chancellor, and all other judges and officers of the crown*. Also, in case of an interregnum, is the chief magistrate in the realm †.

* The high rank of mayor is not merely confined to the city, for at a coronation, which is our prime ceremony of distinction, the mayor walks next but one to the prince of Wales.

† Upon the death of the king, the lord-mayor is said to be the prime person of England. For when king James I. was invited to come and take the English crown, upon the

death of queen Elizabeth; Sir Robert Lee, then lord-mayor, ſubſcribed in the firſt place, before all the great officers of the crown, and all the nobility. Seymour's Survey of London, vol. ii. pag. 35. And late inſtances of this kind happened on the abdication of king James II, when the mayor committed, by his warrant, the lord Jefferies to priſon, then chancellor of England, and a peer of the realm. About which time alſo, Sir John Chapman, mayor of London, committed Sir Robert Wright, lord chief juſtice of England, to the gaol of Newgate, which fully evidences the great eminence of this office. See the hiſtory of that time. Engliſh Baronetage, Ed. 1741, vol. v. p. 106.

And wiſe and great traders have arrived at the dignity of lord-chancellor, have been created peers of the realm, knights of the garter and bath, bannerets, and privy-counſellors. Which is as much as can be affirmed either of lawyers or divines, and more than can be proved, perhaps, in one ſingle inſtance, of the followers of phyſic.

Trade, by the conſtitution of our country, both with reſpect to it's public and private, it's ancient and modern, it's general and particular, laws, is certainly no degradation whatever; and it may with ſtrict truth be affirmed, that commerce is that alone, by which our nation ſupports it's head, and what renders us of that conſequence with foreign powers as we are. And if the following trade had here ever degraded (which, in effect, it never did) yet it is conceived that the brave ſtand, which was lately made by the citizens of London, to ſupport the credit and honour of the nation, and the proteſtant ſucceſſion, ſhould be a ſufficient cauſe alone to make traders eſteemed by all degrees, as gentlemen of worth; and not only ſo, but as a people and body of men, the moſt reſpectable and fitteſt to be encouraged of any in theſe realms, and a full proof to all intents and purpoſes, that merchandize is a worthy and honourable employment.

It would greatly exceed the limits to which I am confined, to enter into the antiquity and honour of trade among the Egyptians, Jews, Greeks, and Romans. Wherefore, we ſhall only examine on what footing of honour trade ſtood with our anceſtors; and how it is now, or ſhould be eſteemed with us.—To begin with the legiſlative power, there is no body of people, who have ſo large a ſhare allotted in it as traders. Our houſe of commons conſiſts of knights and burgeſſes; but the former, who are to conſider the landed-intereſt, are but few, when compared with the latter. There are no more than two allowed for any county, for many * only one; but moſt trading towns ſend one or more burghers to parliament, to look to their trading intereſt; and theſe the law (which is termed right and reaſon) intends to be ſuch in the reſpective towns as live there, and underſtand the intereſt, and are concerned in the benefit of the manufacture eſtabliſhed in that burgh or town †, for which they are choſen; and not ſtrangers, who, perhaps, are too often elected for their money.

* The counties ſend 80 knights, the cities 50 citizens, and the boroughs 334 burghers.

† In the proclamation for calling a parliament in 1620, advice is given firſt to caſt their eyes on knights and gentlemen, that are a light and guide in their county; then, on eminent lawyers, and ſubſtantial citizens and burgeſſes; ſuch as are intereſted, and have a portion in the eſtate. And not to diſvalue or diſparage the houſe with bankrupts, and neceſſitous perſons that want long parliaments only for protection; with lawyers of mean account and eſtimation; young men, that are not ripe for grave conſultations: mean dependants on great perſons, that may be thought to ſpeak under their command; and ſuch-like obſcure and inferior perſons. Lord Bacon's works, vol. iv. page 707. See alſo Statute, 1 Henry V. ch. 1.

This was the juſt ſcheme of our wiſe anceſtors, and doth evidently prove how high a value is ſet on trade by the conſtitution of our government: nor is this all, for it ſhall be ſhewn, that trade doth neither by the laws of the land, or honour, in the leaſt detract from gentility; but, on the contrary, that great traders have frequently been admitted by our princes into the upper houſe of parliament; that they have been appointed privy-counſellors for their wiſdom; and have, as obſerved, been created not only knights, but baronets, knights of the garter, and bath, bannerets, barons, and earls; which muſt fully demonſtrate that trading was not only formerly, but is, even now, of the greateſt conſequence to the Engliſh nation; and never did, or can, by our laws or cuſtoms, detract from any man or family; but, on the contrary, that a great part of our nobility are immediately deſcended from great traders.

Verſtegan, the Engliſh antiquary, in his Titles of honour *, mentions, that in old times, if a merchant ſo thrived, that he was able to croſs the ſeas thrice, he was ever after reputed a right-worthy Thein, and capable of higher advancement; ſo that from hence it appears, that traffic, at that time of day, ennobled it's followers, who were not ſo before: and, 'till lately, every man who had 40 l. a year in land, was qualified to be a knight, and from thence came the term of knight's fee with us. But as king Charles baſely miſuſed this law in his wants †, compelling every man, who had that qualification, to become a knight, or to compound; it was, for that cauſe, ranked among the chief grievances of his reign, and therefore was aboliſhed by act of parliament at the Reſtoration, as may be found in the hiſtories and ſtatutes of thoſe days.

* Page 367.

† Clarendon, ſpeaking of this abuſe, ſays, 'By this ill huſbandry, the king received a vaſt ſum of money from all perſons of quality, or, indeed, of any reaſonable condition, throughout the kingdom, upon the law of knighthood; which, though it had it's foundation in right, yet, in the circumſtances of proceeding, was very grievous; and no leſs projects of all kinds, many ridiculous, many ſcandalous, all very grievous, were ſet on foot.' Clar. vol. i. page 67.

The learned Camden * obſerves, that Richard II. advanced Michael de la Pole, a merchant, to the honour of earl of Suffolk, and made him chancellor of England. He was the ſon of William de la Pole, the firſt mayor of Kingſton upon Hull; who, upon account of his great wealth, had the dignity of a banneret conferred upon him, and was alſo made ſecond baron of the exchequer by Edward III. 'However, 'ſays Camden, his being a merchant did no how detract from 'his honour. For who knows not that even our noblemens 'ſons have been merchants? nor will I deny that he was 'nobly deſcended, though a merchant.'

* Camden's Britannia, page 376.

This Michael de la Pole was alſo knight of the garter, as Vincent *, in his Review of Brooke, obſerves; and that he could not have been ſo, at that time of day, by the ſtatutes of the order, had he not been a gentleman of three deſcents, as he was, being the ſon and grandſon of a knight, but that knight a merchant. 'From whence, ſays he, it follows, 'that Mercatura non derogat nobilitati; that is, Trade is 'no abatement of honour.'

* Page 700.

As it here may be aſked, What conſtitutes a gentleman with us? ſo the reply is eaſy: being a gentleman is being intitled to bear arms *. And Mr Camden obſerves, that the diſtinction of a gentleman of coat-armour (or an upſtart) and a gentleman of blood, is the bearing of arms from the grandfather; and that he who bears arms from his grandfather is, to all intents and purpoſes, a gentleman of blood; for which cauſe it is requiſite, by the ſtatutes of the Bath, that every knight, before his admiſſion, proves that he is ſo qualified; which done, it carries with it, if his merit be equal to the thing, a paſſport alſo to the order of the Garter.

* Notitia Anglicana, p. 24. alſo judge Doddridge's Honour's Pedigree, p. 147. Smith de Repub. Angl. & Forteſcue, fol. 82.

Guillim, in his chapter of Gentlemen, ſays, They have their beginning either of blood, as that they are born of worſhipful parents; or that they have done ſomething, either in peace or war, whereby they deſerve to bear arms, and be accounted gentlemen. He farther ſays, chap. 24. If a gentleman be bound an apprentice to a merchant, or other trader *, he hath not thereby loſt his gentility; and he deſires it may be remembered, for the honour of trade, that Henry VIII. thought it no diſhonour to him, when he quitted his queen, to take to his wife Anne, the daughter of Thomas Bullen, ſometime mayor of London. To which may be added the thought that the firſt William, who founded our royal race, was only the grandſon of a tanner.

* 'A young gentleman, whoſe father had been an apprentice 'in London, but of a good family, was inſulted in company 'for this very thing, as if he was no gentleman born, im-'plying that his father's apprenticeſhip had corrupted his 'blood. The father was ſtirred at this not a little, and 'was determined to have this matter fully ſifted: for which 'purpoſe, Philpot the herald ſet himſelf to ſtudy this point, 'deeming it very fit to be reſolved. And, in his book called 'the City's Advocate, he determines, that an apprentice in 'London is no diſhonour nor degradation, but rather an ho-'nour and degree; and that it is very fooliſh to embaſe ho-'neſt induſtry with diſgraceful cenſure, and unjuſt not to 'encourage it with praiſe and worſhip, as the ancient po-'licy of England did, and doth, in conſtituting corporations, 'and adorning the companies with banners of arms, and 'eſpecial members thereof with notes of nobility.' Strype.

We ſhall now give the names of divers conſiderable traders, who have been advanced to high honours, or poſts of truſt, by our reſpective princes; which may be found in the following liſt, mentioned by Seymour, in his Survey, vol. ii. page 74.

Sir John Blunt, mayor of London, made knight of the Bath with Edward prince of Wales, 34th of * Edward I.

* See Wotton's Baronets, vol. iv. p. 675.

Sir

Sir Godfrey Fielding, mercer, and mayor of London 1452, was made of the privy council to Henry VI. and Edward IV.
Sir Thomas Coke, draper and mayor, 1462, the 5th of Edward IV. was made knight of the Bath, and afterwards a banneret, by that king.
Sir Matthew Philip, goldſmith, and mayor 1463, was made a knight of the Bath, and a banneret, the 10th of that reign.
In 1464, Sir John Gilliot, merchant, lord mayor of York, was made a knight of the Bath *.

* See a catalogue of the mayors of York, printed by Step. Buckley, 1664, p. 28.

Sir Ralph Joſline, draper, and mayor 1465, made knight of the Bath, and afterwards a banneret *.

* Stow, page 419.

Henry Weaver, ſheriff of London, 1461, made a knight of the Bath *.

* Stow's Ann. page 419.

Sir John Young, grocer, made a banneret in the field.
Sir William Home, ſadler, and mayor 1487, made a banneret by Henry VII.
Sir John Percival, merchant-taylor, and mayor 1490, made a banneret by Henry VII.
Sir John Shaw, goldſmith and mayor, made a banneret by Henry VII.
Sir John Allen, mayor, 1528, made a privy-counſellor by king Henry VIII. *

* Baker's Chronicle, page 296.

Sir Thomas More, who was ſheriff of London about the year 1513, was afterwards chancellor of England, and of the privy-council to Henry VIII. *

* See Hollingſhed's Hiſtory, vol. ii. p. 341, 711, 938, &c.

Sir William Acton, made a knight and baronet, when ſheriff of London, 1628.
Sir Thomas Adams, mayor 1646, made a knight and baronet; and, ſince that time, many great traders in every reign have been advanced to that dignity: which may ſerve to ſhew, that trade with us is oftentimes the high road to honour. And now it ſhall be demonſtrated alſo, from Dugdale, and others, that many great traders have even been created peers of the kingdom, and that divers antient peers are deſcended from great traders.
It is affirmed by ſome hiſtorians, that Robert Harding, who was created baron Barkley by king Henry, was a citizen of Briſtol *.

* Baker's Chronicle, p. 58. and Dugdale's, vol. i. p. 351.

Thomas Legge, citizen and ſkinner of London, was twice mayor thereof; he married Elizabeth, one of the daughters of Thomas Beauchamp, earl of Warwick: which ſhews, that, even in thoſe dainty times, the firſt nobility thought it no degradation to match themſelves with eminent traders. This Thomas Legge was direct anceſtor to the earl of Dartmouth *.

* Collins's Peerage, vol. iii. page 100.

Sir Michael de la Pole, merchant, was created earl of Suffolk, chancellor of England, and knight of the garter *.

* Vincent on Brooke, p. 700. and Rapin, vol. iv. p. 406.

Sir Stephen Brown, grocer, twice mayor of London, in 1438 and 1448, and anceſtor to the lord viſcount Montague *.

* Seymour's Survey, vol. ii. p. 72 and 74. alſo Wotton's Baronets, vol. iii. p. 5.

Thomas Bullen, grandſon of Jeffery Bullen, mercer, and mayor of London, created viſcount Rochfort, and earl of Wiltſhire and Ormond.
Sir William Holles, mayor in 1539 *, whoſe great-grandſon, Sir John Holles, was created earl of Clare, and afterwards duke of Newcaſtle.

* Stow, in his Survey of London, ſays, that William Holles, who built Coventry-Croſs, was a baker; but Mr Gervaſe Holles, his grandſon, denies it. In Seymour's liſt of the mayors of London, though the trades of moſt of the other mayors are ſpecified, his is omitted. However, it is agreed on all hands, that he built Coventry-croſs, and was the great-grandfather of the earl of Clare. Concerning this difference it is of little importance, for, the lower his beginning was, the greater his merit thereby appears. See Dugdale's Warwickſhire, vol. i. p. 143.

Sir Edward Oſborne, clothworker, and mayor of London 1583, and anceſtor of the preſent Duke of Leeds. This Sir Edward Oſborne jumped out of a window on the bridge, into the Thames, to ſave his maſter's daughter's life, who was afterwards his wife *.

* See this ſtory at large, atteſted by the duke of Leeds, in Seymour's ſurvey of London, vol. ii. p. 78.

Sir Baptiſt Hicks, mercer of London, created lord Hicks and viſcount Camden, the 4th of Charles I. was anceſtor to the preſent earl of Gainſborough *. Wotton, in his Baronetage, obſerves, that this Sir Baptiſt Hicks was one of the firſt citizens that kept a ſhop after his knighthood; upon which, in 1607, he had ſome diſpute with an alderman about it, and alſo a conteſt for precedency, ſtanding on his knighthood; which matter came at laſt to be decided by the earl marſhal.

* Dugdale's Baronetage, page 462.

Sir Ralph Dormer, mercer, was mayor of London in 1529; of which family was Dormer earl of Carnarvon, as is alſo the preſent lord Dormer *.

* Dugdale's Bar. p. 428. ſee alſo Collins's Peerage, vol. iv. page 97.

Thomas Cromwell, earl of Eſſex, and knight of the Garter, ſon of Thomas Cromwell, a blackſmith of Putney.
Sir William Capell, draper, and mayor of London in 1503, was anceſtor to the preſent earl of Eſſex *.

* Seymour's Survey, vol. ii. p. 79. and Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 466.

Sir Richard Rich, mercer, and mayor of London 1441, and anceſtor of the Riches, earls of Warwick and Holland, and the baronets *.

* Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 387.

Sir John Coventry, mercer, and mayor of London 1425, and anceſtor of the preſent earl of Coventry *.

* Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 460.

Lionel Cranfield, merchant of London, was by James I. for his great abilities, made maſter of the requeſts; afterwards maſter of the king's wardrobe, then maſter of the wards, a privy-counſellor, lord-treaſurer, and earl of Middleſex *.

* Dugdale's Bar. vol. ii. page 466.

Sir William Fitzwilliams, a merchant-taylor, and ſervant ſome time to cardinal Wolſey, was choſen alderman of Bread-ſtreet ward in London, anno 1506; and, going afterwards to dwell at Milton in Northamptonſhire, he entertained there the cardinal, his former maſter, then in his misfortunes; for which being queſtioned by the king, he anſwered, that he had not done it contemptuouſly, but becauſe he had been his maſter, and partly the means of raiſing his fortune: with which anſwer the king was ſo well pleaſed, that he knighted him, and made him a privy-counſellor. In his laſt will he gave to king Henry VIII. his large ſhip, with all her tackle; to Sir Thomas Writheſly his collar of the garter, together with his beſt George, ſet with diamonds; and to his brethren, the merchant-taylors, his beſt ſtanding cup. He died anno 1542, and his will was proved the 16th of February that year. This eminent citizen of London, at his death, was knight of the garter, lord-keeper of the privy-ſeal, and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaſter, and was the immediate anceſtor to earl Fitzwilliams. See Seymour, vol. i. p. 240. alſo Stow's Survey of London, p. 89.
To this liſt may be added many more inſtances, but theſe may ſuffice, as England has few better houſes amongſt the nobility than ſome of thoſe noble families; and many of which titles ſtill live in their deſcendants.
Trade is ſo far here from being inconſiſtent with the character of a gentleman, that trade in England makes gentlemen, and has peopled this nation with nobles and gentlemen too: for, after a generation or two, the children of traders, or at leaſt their grand-children, come to be as good gentlemen, ſtateſmen, parliament-men, privy-counſellors, judges, biſhops, and noblemen, as thoſe of the higheſt birth and the moſt antient families; and nothing too high for them: thus the late earl of Haverſham was originally a merchant, the preſent earl of Tilney's grandfather the ſame, as well as the great-grandfather of the preſent duke of Bedford, and numberleſs others. And why ſhould not commerce, as well as law and divinity, or the ſword, be a road to the higheſt honours? Is the grandeur of this nation owing to wars? This has not ſo much as helped it: what conqueſts have we made abroad? what new kingdoms are added to the Britiſh empire? We have reduced no neighbouring nations, nor extended the poſſeſſion of our monarchs into the ſtates of others: we are butted and bounded as we were in queen Elizabeth's time: the Dutch, the Flemings, the French, are in view of us, as they were then; we have ſubjected no new provinces or people to our government; with few exceptions we are almoſt for dominions where king Edward I. left us; nay, we have loſt all the dominions which our antient kings for ſome hundreds of years held in France; ſuch as the rich and powerful provinces of Normandy, Poictou, Gaſcony, Britany, and Aquitain; and, inſtead of being inriched by war and victory, we have, on the contrary, been torn in pieces by civil wars and rebellions, as well in Ireland as in England, and that ſeveral times to the ruin of the richeſt families, and the ſlaughter of our nobility and gentry; nay, to the deſtruction even of monarchy itſelf, and this many years at a time, as in the long bloody wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York.
Theſe things prove abundantly that the preſent greatneſs of the Britiſh nation is not owing to war and conqueſt; and

that it can be owing to the profeſſion of law, or divinity, no one will ſay: what can it be owing to then but to our trade and commerce?

The ſplendor, the power, and dignity of Great-Britain, being thus raiſed by trade, it muſt be unaccountable folly and infatuation to leſſen that one article in our eſteem, which is the only fountain from whence we all, take us as a nation, are raiſed, and by which we are inriched and maintained. The Holy Scriptures, ſpeaking of the riches and glory of the city of Tyre, which, at that time, was the emporium of the world for foreign commerce, from whence all the ſilks and fine manufactures of Perſia and India were exported all over the weſtern world, ſay, that her merchants were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth: and, in another place, By thy traffic thou haſt increaſed thy riches. And certain it is, that nothing but our traffic has increaſed our riches, and given that illuſtrious ſplendor to our Britiſh nobility and gentry.

As all things are preſerved, and brought to a greater degree of perfection, by the ſame means by which they were firſt eſtabliſhed; ſo, without due attention to the intereſt of trade, when all nations are, more or leſs, plucking at that ſhare we have, muſt not this nation dwindle in wealth and power, while it's neighbours are riſing in both? To what degree this nation is really declining, and others increaſing in commerce, hath already appeared in this work, beyond contradiction, from facts and teſtimonials not to be overthrown by any declamatory artillery of the ſubtileſt ſophiſts; and the ſame will be more and more glaringly conſpicuous throughout this undertaking. And,

When the nobility and gentry of theſe kingdoms are pleaſed to conſider the honour of trade, and how numerous and how diſtinguiſhed the noble and honourable families are that have roſe to the higheſt dignities thereby, in wealth, and in knowledge of the nation's true intereſt; when others of our illuſtrious nobles and gentry, who have been advanced to the pinacle of grandeur by other channels than thoſe of commerce, ſhall alſo be pleaſed to conſider, that it is trade alone which gives a value to their landed eſtates, and adds to the glory of their ſovereign, as well as of themſelves; none among them, I am perſuaded, can treat a ſubject of ſuch conſideration with indifferency, nor look upon trade in a contemptuous light. For, after all the machinations and intrigues of politics that theſe kingdoms have, or can purſue, experience ever has, and ever will evince, that a tenacious regard to our commercial intereſts, both at home and abroad, will prove the great pillar of the ſtate.—And I am glad, I rejoice, to find this confirmed in the preſent ſentiments of a great and able miniſter, whoſe long experience in public buſineſs has brought him to a thorough knowledge of this great truth; and, therefore, in the breeding up one of his own ſons, has not only given trade the preference, but endeavoured to inſpire our young nobility to purſue ſtudies which tend to the promotion of the national commerce.

This hath been lately done in a pamphlet in favour of the woollen manufacture, ſaid to be written by the right honourable Horatio Walpole, ſen. Eſq; intitled, The complaints of the manufacturers, relating to the abuſes in marking the ſheep, and winding the wool, in a letter to the marquis of Rockingham; who, though a young nobleman, but lately of age, exerted himſelf, the firſt time of his appearance in the houſe of lords, in a very diſtinguiſhed manner, in favour of the WOOLLEN MANUFACTURERS of this kingdom; an example, which the honourable author of the before-mentioned treatiſe, from a true zeal to the commercial intereſts of his country, recommends to others of our young nobility.

And here I cannot but obſerve, that this young nobleman follows the example of his renowned anceſtor, the memorable earl of Strafford, who laid the firſt foundation of the linnen manufacture in Ireland, by ſowing great quantities of flax for ſeed, and ſetting up ſeveral looms at his own expence, to invite the Iriſh to follow that trade without prejudice to England; which has proved, and is at this day, the greateſt benefit and ſupport of that whole kingdom.

As commerce, from what has been obſerved, has proved the ſource of all the bleſſings which this nation enjoys, and the riſe of ſo many great families, and of great numbers more, as I could eaſily ſhew; ſo, the more country-gentlemen breed their younger children * to it, the likelier ſuch families are to be continued, and become uſeful to the public.

* Mr Locke, after recommending it to people to bring up their children to ſome trade, adds, 'But if the miſtaken 'parents, frightened with the name of trade, ſhall have 'an averſion to any thing of this kind in their children, yet 'he recommends the teaching them merchants accounts, as 'a ſcience well becoming every gentleman.' Locke's Works, vol. ii. page 95. folio.

The importance of an idle, uſeleſs, younger brother, is very finely ſet forth by Mr Addiſon, in his character of Will Wimble, who greatly laments the folly of ſome great families *,

* Lord Bacon aſſigneth the true cauſe of this, in ſaying, That nobility of birth commonly abateth induſtry; and he that is not induſtrious envieth him that is. Bacon's Works, vol. iii.

that had rather ſee their children ſtarve like gentlemen, than thrive in a profeſſion or trade, that they think is beneath their quality. 'This humour, ſays he, fills ſeveral parts of Eu-'rope with pride and beggary †; but it is the happineſs of a 'trading nation, like ours, that the younger ſons, though 'incapable of any liberal art or profeſſion, may be placed in 'ſuch a way of life, as may, perhaps, enable them to vie 'with the beſt of their families.' 'When I have, continues 'he in another place, been upon the Exchange, I have often 'fancied one of our old kings ſtanding in perſon, where he 'is repreſented in effigy, and looking down upon the wealthy 'concourſe of people with which that place is every day 'filled. In this caſe, how would he be ſurprized to hear all 'the languages of Europe ſpoke in this little ſpot of his for-'mer dominions, and to hear ſo many private men, who in 'his time would have been the vaſſals of ſome powerful ba-'ron, negociating like princes, for greater ſums of money 'than were formerly to be met with in his royal treaſury!

† Lord Bacon ſaith, That trade enableth the ſubject to live plentifully and happily; and that the realm is much inriched of late years by the trade of merchandize. Bacon's Works, vol. iii. pages 329, 573, and 580. And elſewhere he ſtiles the merchants vena porta; and ſays, 'If they flou-'riſh not, a kingdom may have good limbs, but will have 'empty veins, and flouriſh little.'

'Trade, without inlarging the Britiſh dominions, has given 'us a kind of an additional empire; it has multiplied the 'number of our riches, made our landed eſtates infinitely 'more valuable than they were formerly, and added to them 'an acceſſion of other eſtates, as valuable as lands themſelves.' And in another place he ſays, 'It is the great advantage of 'a trading nation, as there are very few in it ſo dull and 'heavy who may not be placed in ſtations of life which may 'give them an opportunity of making their fortunes. A well-'regulated commerce is not like law, phyſic, or divinity, 'to be overſtocked with hands; but, on the contrary, flou-'riſhes by multitudes, and gives employment to all it's pro-'feſſors. Fleets of merchantmen are ſo many ſquadrons of 'floating ſhops, that vend our wares and manufactures in 'all the markets of the world, and find out chapmen under 'both the tropics.'

The learned biſhop of Cambray gives us alſo his ſentiments on this ſubject, in the character of Narbal, in his account of the Phœnicians *, by whom it is ſuppoſed the learned archbiſhop meant the Engliſh. 'You ſee, ſays he, the power of 'the Phœnicians, who have rendered themſelves puiſſant to 'all their neighbouring nations, by the grandeur of their 'fleets. Trade, which they carry to the furtheſt quarters of 'the earth, has ſo enriched them, that they ſurpaſs the moſt 'flouriſhing people in glory.' And again, inſtructing Telemachus how to eſtabliſh a flouriſhing trade in Ithaca, 'Do, 'ſays he, as thoſe people do, receive, with kindneſs and with 'eaſe, all ſtrangers; let them find in your harbours ſafety 'and convenience, free from reſtraint, and never ſuffer 'yourſelf to be overcome, at any time, either with pride or 'avarice; the true way to get much is never to be too co-'vetous, and even ſometimes to forego gain. Make your-'ſelf beloved of all ſtrangers, and even bear with ſlight in-'conveniencies from them; fear to excite jealouſy by your 'pride; be ſtedfaſt to follow the laws of commerce, which 'are ſimple and eaſy; and ſuffer not your ſubjects, on any 'account, to infringe them. Keep a ſtrict hand over the 'fraud, negligence, or vain glory of the merchants, which 'ruins commerce, in ruining the traders themſelves; and, 'above all things, never attempt to confine commerce to 'your own proper intereſt.'

* Vide Les Avantures de Telemaque, lib. 3. p. 36.

This may be ſufficient to ſhew, how clearly this great prelate ſaw the advantage accruing from a free trade; and his countrymen, the French, have very greatly increaſed theirs, by following many of theſe wiſe maxims, to our infinite diſadvantage.

But even foreigners themſelves make a very great diſtinction and difference in our favour, betwixt an Engliſh trader, and thoſe of other nations. To this effect writes the baron de Polinitz *, a perſon well known in moſt of the courts of Europe: 'In England, ſays he, the nobility intermarry 'with traders daughters, as they do in France; however, a 'great diſtinction ſhould be made between the one and the 'other. In England, merchants are ſometimes ſprung of 'the greateſt houſes in the kingdom: and it has often hap-'pened, that younger branches of noble families, who have 'been brought up to trade, by the right of ſucceſſion have 'become peers. And frequently it falls out, that, when a 'lord eſpouſes a merchant's daughter, ſhe may be his cou-'ſin, or at leaſt a lady of a good family.

* Memoirs de Baron de Polinitz, vol. iv. p. 237.

'What is the true origin, ſays the ingenious Abbé Le Pluche, 'in order to ſupport the ſpirit of commerce in France, 'of the ſplendor and honours which attend the condition of 'noblemen? Is it not the juſt and well-grounded perſuaſion 'of their being born to promote the public good? 'Tis,

'indeed,

‘ indeed, in that view, that new honours and new rewards are
‘ beſtowed upon the man who has preſerved a town, a body
‘ of troops, a corporation, or the life of a ſingle citizen,
‘ dear to his country. It is prudence and activity that raiſe
‘ a man out of the common claſs, when his virtues have
‘ been exerted for the good of the ſtate. For ſcorn attends
‘ the braveſt man, who is only a pyrate or a dueliſt. What
‘ regard ought we not then to entertain for a gentleman,
‘ who, with capacity, attempts the eſtabliſhment of an ad-
‘ vantageous colony, or the advancement of thoſe in a lan-
‘ guiſhing condition? Deſtitute as we now begin to be of
‘ large timber for ſhip-building, what gratitude ſhould we
‘ not be bound to have for one, who would make it his taſk
‘ to carry to Louiſiana a ſufficient number of either vaga-
‘ bonds or volunteers, there to work the lofty woods which
‘ that land is covered with, by ſtopping, with pile-work and
‘ dykes, the inundations of the Miſſiſſipi; or by building
‘ for us ſhips upon the ſpot; or in ſhort, by yearly ballaſt-
‘ ing, with a number of the fineſt oaks, the ſhips that ſhould
‘ be ſent thither from the ſtocks of Breſt or Rochefort!
‘ What value does not the ſtate expreſs for the man, who, at
‘ the approach of a great ſcarcity of corn, embarks with all
‘ haſte with one or more ſhips, and timely brings back from
‘ the ports of Dantzic or London, or, from the coaſt of Bar-
‘ bary, a firſt proviſion of corn, which he prudently cauſes
‘ to be followed by ſtill more abundant ſupplies! However,
‘ it is not neceſſary, in order to render himſelf agreeable to
‘ the public, that a man ſhould have cut armies to pieces, or
‘ given bread to the whole ſtate.
‘ Has he not nouriſhed multitudes, and preſerved whole pro-
‘ vinces from endleſs calamities, when he has, by advances
‘ of money, or by a wiſe management, eſtabliſhed or main-
‘ tained three ſtuds of horſes, that will help the operations
‘ of huſbandry, and remount the cavalry; or great forges of
‘ an acknowledged benefit; or large manufactures, or plan-
‘ tations of wood in uſeleſs grounds; or plantations of mad-
‘ der, of woad, of fouic, of geneſtrol, of greening weed, of
‘ white mulberry-trees; or any other ſuch works, that will
‘ ſupply a multitude of families with employment, and feed
‘ a great many others, whom agriculture alone could not
‘ ſufficiently maintain?
‘ Let us caſt our eyes upon the caſtle of St Gobin *, formerly
‘ a heap of ruins, a paltry decayed country-houſe. It em-
‘ ploys now above five hundred workmen within it's walls,
‘ and gives ſubſiſtance without, to five hundred families of
‘ the adjacent places, by ſupplying them with work, or by
‘ buying their commodities. Not to mention the money
‘ which that manufacture brings us from foreign countries.
‘ Poſſibly a knight-errant will, with indignation, ſee the
‘ abodes of the ancient worthies employed for manual works.
‘ The low people of the neighbourhood, obliged to buy
‘ wood ſomewhat dearer than before, will, perhaps, curſe an
‘ eſtabliſhment which is the real proſperity of that country.
‘ But, can judgments like theſe bear examination? Public
‘ good ought to be the rule of our eſteem, as it is the foun-
‘ dation of true nobility.

* A manufacture of run and blown glaſſes in France, betwixt Laon, La Fere, and Chauny.

‘ Lewis XIV thought it ſo, when coming from the end of
‘ the Low-Countries to the aſſiſtance of Alſace, which was
‘ now ſeized upon, he went ſeveral leagues out of his road,
‘ purpoſely to honour with his viſit the works of St Gobin,
‘ of which he would have the particular account given him.
‘ Lewis XV. was of the ſame opinion, when he granted the
‘ fineſt prerogatives, and the moſt advantageous diſtinctions,
‘ to the eſtabliſhers of the manufactures of Abbeville and Se-
‘ dan. I omit many others. It was not in hopes that the
‘ deſcendants of Meſſieurs Cadeau and Van Robais ſhould
‘ beſtow their ſtocks to buy ſome indolent poſt, and at laſt
‘ live nobly by living idly; but rather on condition that theſe
‘ families would continue to maintain thereby an activity
‘ truly uſeful to the ſtate; by multiplying uſeful correſpond-
‘ ences with foreign countries, and by procuring a livelihood
‘ to thouſands of citizens. The manufacture of Abbeville
‘ does alone employ above two thouſand five hundred, with-
‘ in the ſpace of a thouſand ſquare feet, and imparts 'its
‘ plenty to all places round about.
‘ Our French are now ſo far from taking any fancy to Engliſh
‘ or Dutch ſtuffs, or from ſending their money to London to
‘ have a pendulum-clock, that our chamber and pocket
‘ clock-work is the only one now in uſe among us; and
‘ much valued by the ſtrangers themſelves, both for it's ex-
‘ actneſs and neatneſs. Our woollen cloth and ſmall ſtuffs
‘ are of very common uſe at Milan, Liſbon, and Cadiz, in
‘ all the Levant, and eſpecially in the French and Spaniſh
‘ colonies. Now I would aſk, if a gentleman will do leſs
‘ good and honour to France, by making an army of work-
‘ men go in good order, and by improving by his obſerva-
‘ tions, a machine much deſired, or a ſtuff equivalent to the
‘ product of the beſt lands, than if he had defended a poſt at
‘ war, or got together again the remains of a company diſ-
‘ perſed and put in confuſion? It is eaſier to run two or three
‘ riſks in one's life, than to maintain by a ſtubborn unſhaken
‘ vigilance, and to improve by new experiments, a colony, a
‘ ſtud of horſes, or any one of thoſe employments that gives
‘ bread to the multitude.
‘ Pray conſider, on the one hand, the narrow views of a
‘ gentleman's younger ſon who is poor, and charged with
‘ the management of a poultry-yard, or the villainy of a
‘ ſharper who borrows or pilfers money on all ſides to live:
‘ and, on the other, the ſagacity, the gentility, the eleva-
‘ tion of mind, and the whole liberal carriage of a gentle-
‘ man, who accounts to himſelf in his cloſet for the pro-
‘ duct of a ſucceſsful employment. He always appears with
‘ all the decency ſuitable to him. Every body courts him:
‘ he gives life and ſhelter to all under his protection. Which
‘ of theſe has degenerated? Doubtleſs the gentleman who
‘ ruins himſelf by gaming and debauchery. But, on the
‘ other hand, how truly the nobility of a Rouſſeau * or a
‘ Julienne † deſerves univerſal reſpect! It is by ſerving the
‘ public that we may become dear to it. Thus it is, that
‘ our younger children, inſtead of being a weight upon their
‘ elder brothers, might help to ſupport both them and their
‘ ſiſters, and introduce into a family, very often ſunk in
‘ debts, the aſſiſtance and ſplendor of the moſt lawfully ac-
‘ quired riches.

* Mr Rouſſeau, director of a large manufacture of woollen cloth at Sedan.
† Mr De Julienne, director of the manufacture of woollen cloth at the Gobelins.

‘ But it is not only our noble families that would gain much,
‘ by having ſome branch of the wholeſale trade cultivated
‘ by their younger brothers. The ſtate itſelf would infal-
‘ libly find, in this wiſe practice, an endleſs nurſery of ex-
‘ cellent men. A young gentleman, inwardly urged on by
‘ his birth, will leave no ſtone unturned to keep out of the
‘ common claſs, and will always make the moſt honourable
‘ uſe of his riches; by affording to the military man, his
‘ neighbour, the aſſiſtance of a kind advance of money, or
‘ by decorating his country with embelliſhments of the ut-
‘ moſt utility. However, it is a known matter of fact, that
‘ great enterprizes preceded by good ſtudies, and by travels
‘ judiciouſly employed, are both the ſchool and the trial of
‘ all talents.
‘ I have another thing to obſerve to you, concerning the
‘ advantage and the reſources of commerce, viz. That noble
‘ families, by ſcorning that kind of commerce to which they
‘ are invited both by the king and ſtate, deprive themſelves
‘ of the occaſions of becoming dear to mankind, and leave
‘ to merchants the whole advantage of the nobleſt enter-
‘ prizes. The ſentiments of noblemen grow meaner and
‘ narrower together with their circumſtances; and it is na-
‘ tural, on the contrary, to ſee merchants have the greateſt
‘ views, and raiſe themſelves to the nobleſt actions, in pro-
‘ portion as their knowlege and wealth increaſe. This may
‘ be proved by both reaſon and example.
‘ It would be needleſs to quote inſtances of the firſt kind:
‘ they are reckoned by thouſands. As to the merchants,
‘ whom a laudable induſtry has enabled to ſerve their coun-
‘ try, and at laſt to ſit on a level with the nobility; in-
‘ ſtead of quoting recent facts known to every one, let us
‘ go higher up to remote ages, and borrow our examples
‘ from the great. It is with private families as with whole
‘ cities, and even republics. The ſpirit of commerce be-
‘ comes the ſource of induſtry and opulence. Here we may
‘ recal the degree of ſplendor to which the cities of Tyre and
‘ Carthage were raiſed by a ſet of plain merchants. As long
‘ as theſe towns remained only trading towns, they were
‘ active, happy, and agreeable to the whole world. They
‘ committed a groſs miſtake, and worked their own ruin,
‘ when the ſpirit of conqueſts ſucceeded to the ſimple deſire
‘ of ſelf-preſervation. The cities of Genoa and Venice have
‘ been raiſed only by merchants, and the diminution of their
‘ former proſperity is barely the decay of their commerce,
‘ occaſioned by the aggrandizement of that of the Portu-
‘ gueze in the Indies; by the introduction of the Engliſh into
‘ the Mediterranean: I will add, and by the pageantry
‘ of certain families, who put too great a diſtance between
‘ nobility and induſtry. So long as the counts of Flanders
‘ careſſed and made much of the workers of woollen ſtuffs,
‘ and the undertakers of manufactures of cloth and camblets,
‘ nothing could be compared to the wealth of the cities of
‘ Bruges and Ghent. The indifference which was after-
‘ wards ſhewn for theſe works, deſtroyed them, and threw
‘ both towns, already reduced to the product of their lands,
‘ which were excellent, into a ſtate of mediocrity, from
‘ which they have never recovered. The workmen, loaded
‘ with impoſitions and inſults, carried their woollen cloth to
‘ England and Antwerp, where they introduced wealth, to
‘ which thoſe places were yet ſtrangers; and, to this ſpirit of
‘ traffic, which daily improved, are we to attribute the gran-
‘ deur and magnificence of London. The face of England
‘ is totally changed, firſt by the fabric of it's wool, and af-
‘ terwards by the multiplication of it's ſhipping. The entire

'decay of Antwerp came from the retiring of it's workmen 'to Amſterdam, and from the ſuppreſſing of it's ſhipping, 'which is loſt together with it's harbour.

'The city of Hamburgh being menaced, as well as all the 'Hans-Towns, with a quick deſtruction of it's wealth, by 'the neceſſity of ſharing the commerce of the Baltic with 'many nations, which had not been ſeen meddling with 'it before, has had the ſkill to extend the ſeveral branches 'of it's induſtry to other ſeas, and recover it's former 'vigour.

'Holland receives from, and ſends embaſſadors to, crowned 'heads. It ranks with the moſt diſtinguiſhed ſtates, and is 'behind none of them for the plenty of both the neceſſary 'and the agreeable, for the boldneſs of it's enterprizes, and 'the wiſdom of it's government. And what are the Dutch 'but a ſet of merchants, who take a pride in being ſuch? 'Let us, according to the deſires of certain ſyſtematical 'men, bring them back to their primitive condition. We 'ſhall find a handful of fiſhermen, of cheeſemongers and 'ſoldiers, groping in the dirt of that country, naturally un-'fit to be inhabited. But that time is over; ſince the ſpirit 'of commerce has ſpread itſelf over that little corner of the 'world, it has aſſumed another face. The waters have been 'carried off: the grounds of their habitations are daily 'raiſed, and rendered firmer and firmer. Their towns be-'come models of neatneſs and conveniency: the draining of 'the lands has even brought in gardening and huſbandry. 'Add to this, multitudes of inhabitants: an eager emulation 'in all arts, the moſt perfect marine; and the greateſt ho-'nours paid to the art military and refined politics; all in 'ſhort, has been introduced there with commerce, which 'works the preſervation and glory of families as well as of 'whole ſtates. I would aſk now, if the nobility can do 'greater things, or ever be diſparaged by operations of this 'kind?

'I ſhall add but two more inſtances of the grand views in-'ſpired by commerce and experience. The firſt is that of 'James Cœur, a merchant of the city of Bourges, who had 'alone a more extenſive commerce than all the merchants of 'France had together in his time; and by his wiſe coun-'ſels, as well as by the certainty of his caſh, humbled the 'houſe of Burgundy, inſured the crown of France to the 'lawful heir Charles VII, and by him to the branches of 'Valois and Bourbon his ſucceſſors.

'The other inſtance is that of the merchants of St. Malo, 'who, being exaſperated by the unjuſt requeſt which the 'congreſs of Gertruydenberg made to Lewis XIV, of em-'ploying his troops to force his grandſon, Philip V, to aban-'don the crown of Spain, to which the teſtament of Charles 'II had called him, joined the profits they had juſt made in 'the commerce of the Spaniſh colonies in America, and 'brought thirty-two millions in gold to the foot of the 'throne, at a time when the finances had been exhauſted by 'a long ſeries of unhappy events. Theſe thirty-two millions 'timely diſtributed in the mints of France, re-animated the 'war and all payments. The houſe now reigning in the 'kingdoms of France, Spain, and Naples, will never forget 'the agitation it was in at that time, and the happy means 'of maintaining it's rights found in that criſis, in the zeal 'of thoſe merchants. If tradeſmen have made ſo noble a uſe 'of their riches, what helps ought not the ſtate to expect, 'when treaſures ſhall be owing to the cares and ingenuity of 'gentlemen? The king and the commonwealth, on the 'contrary, have no ſentiments, nor any ſervice to expect 'from one who thinks his idleneſs a means to keep his no-'bility; juſt as the church has nothing to hope from a be-'neficed man, who argues upon and weighs the merit of an 'actreſs, or grounds upon principles the beſt manner of 'patching a face.

'Pleaſures, amuſements, and idleneſs, may, among a cer-'tain ſet of people, aſſume an outſide of nobility. But men 'who are as good citizens as they are truly noble, have a 'very different way of thinking. The habit of doing no-'thing has no other efficacy but that of adulterating our 'ſentiments; and the ſtate is no leſs grateful for the ſervice 'of ingenuity and prudence, than for thoſe of courage and 'intrepidity. In ſhort, it is the preſervation of the ſtate 'which conſtitutes our glory.

'I know my own way of thinking, and how to ſet bounds to 'my own deſires. But I ſhould think myſelf equally happy 'as a father, if my advices had rendered my eldeſt ſon a Tu-'renne, and made a James Cœur of the youngeſt.'

Thus we have an idea of the ſentiments of the French in regard to commerce, and how ſollicitous ſome of their wiſeſt men and warmeſt patriots are to promote a ſpirit ſo uſeful to the ſtate. And,

Since trade ſeems to be the moſt certain dependency of the younger branches of our Britiſh gentry, and the leaſt pre-carious road to fortune, honour, and independency in all re-ſpects, it is to be hoped, it is to be ardently wiſhed and de-ſired, as well for the intereſts of private families, as that of the three kingdoms in general, that none will think their quality above engaging in it, either in one capacity or an-other.

Of the order of MERCHANTS engaged in COMMERCE.

As this claſs of traders is ſuperior to that of any other, and the employment, as we have ſeen, is of ſo high credit and dignity, as to raiſe thoſe concerned in it to the ſupreme poſts of truſt and honour in the kingdom, no one bred to it ſhould methinks, be deficient in any uſeful or ornamental branch of knowlege, that hath a tendency to render the character as conſpicuouſly amiable, as it is importantly beneficial, to the community. Upon which occaſion, I conceive, the ſentiments of Sir Francis Brewſter, an eminent merchant of the city of London, in the reign of king William III, will not be unworthy the judicious reader's attention. In his Eſſays on Trade and Navigation, part the firſt, in the Pre-face, he makes the following obſervations: 'I think it, 'ſays he, a mortal diſtemper in trade (not to be cured in the 'firſt concoction) that we have ſo few men of univerſity 'learning converſant in true mercantile employments: if 'there were as much care to have men of the beſt heads and 'education in it, as there is in the laws, the nation would 'fetch more from abroad, and ſpend leſs in law-ſuits at 'home. We have it reckoned up by the infallible author, 'as the glory of a city, That her merchants were princes 'and nobles; their buſineſs and tranſactions in the world, 'with ſuch, is more than belongs to any other ſet of men: 'would it not then be the honour of a nation, as well as 'profit, to have men of the beſt ſenſe and learning in the 'foreign negoce of a kingdom? If ſuch had been in the 'trade of theſe kingdoms, it ſeems reaſonable to believe, we 'had not loſt the moſt conſiderable navigating trade and em-'ployment of our ſeamen.

'It would be an aſtoniſhing obſervation, to men of any coun-'try but our own, to ſee more heads employed in Weſtmin-'ſter-Hall to divide the gain of the nation, than there are 'hands on the Exchange to gather it together. I have ſome-'times thought, that if theſe kingdoms lay under the con-'fuſion and unintelligibleneſs of underſtanding in trade, as 'the builders of Babel did in languages, we might, without 'the ſin of theſe arrogant architects, erect ſuch towers in 'trade, as might overtop the univerſe in that myſtery. We 'ſee how all arts and ſciences have been improved in this 'kingdom, within the compaſs of one century, but, amongſt 'them all, the merchant's part the leaſt; and the reaſon is 'plain, men of ſmall learning and moderate underſtandings 'are generally put in it: for, though there are ſome of ex-'cellent parts and clear heads among them, yet the major 'part are not ſo poliſhed: I ſpeak not this to abate the re-'ſpect that I ſhall always think is due to the profeſſion, and 'all men in it; but we know it is the vanity of the nation: 'ſcarce a tradeſman but if he have a ſon, that a country 'ſchoolmaſter tells him would make a ſcholar, becauſe he 'learns his grammar well, but immediately paſſes the ap-'probation of his kindred, who judges it pity ſo hopeful a 'youth ſhould be loſt in trade; the univerſity is the only ſoil 'fit for him to be planted in.

'By ſuch diſpoſition of the youth of our nation, many a 'good tradeſman is loſt, and poor ſcholars in every reſpect 'made; and, if this humour prevails in mechanics, and 'men of ordinary quality, much more, and with better 'pretenſions, it affects our gentry; to be ſure the eldeſt ſon 'is above trade, and, if the younger be of a quaint and ſtu-'dious temper, they are thought fit for the law, not many 'for the pulpit; which, I confeſs, I likewiſe think a miſ-'take in our gentry: had we more of them in the clergy, 'we ſhould have fewer to deſpiſe, that might be better buil-'ders of houſes than of the church.

'But, to return to what I obſerve of the improvement in 'all the employments in the kingdom, I ſee none that have 'arrived to that vaſt increaſe as thoſe in the law: this, per-'haps, is accounted an evil; but I will not quarrel with the 'long-robe; I hope it will be no offence to wiſh them 'amongſt us, but not with their bar-gowns; they would, in 'my opinion, look better in a COUNTING-HOUSE than in 'the TEMPLE; and had the humour of our anceſtors run 'that way, as much as it did for the law, there might have 'been as great an enlargement in maritime traffic and na-'vigation, as there is now of the laws: I preſume none will 'ſay, that they began with equal numbers; trade had the 'primogeniture, and ſet forth with the employment of the 'people, before there could be work for lawyers; and I be-'lieve thoſe of the beſt value amongſt them do not think 'their growth and gain contribute to either, in the advan-'tage of the nation; though, without the profeſſion, there 'can be no ſecuring property; but perhaps the numbers make 'more work than there would be, if they were leſs. Ham-'burgh, though a place of great trade, allows but two: and, 'though our foreign plantations are filled with men of no 'better principles than they leave behind them, yet they 'have few among them who raiſe their fortunes by the law; 'for which no reaſon can be given, but that there is not a 'foundation and nurſery for that profeſſion, to breed up men 'of learning and ingenuity in.

'I have

'I have been the longer on this ſubject, becauſe there ſeems 'to me an expedient in this matter; and that is, to make 'ſuch proviſion for noblemen and gentlemen's children, as 'may be equally reputable with the inns of court, for young 'gentlemen to come to from the univerſities, and, with leſs 'charge than their expence in ſeven years ſtudying the law, 'become expert in trade.

'To be thus managed: in each maritime city and conſide-'rable part of the kingdom, to have a college built, in 'which there may be ſome perſons of experience in trade, to 'teach and direct in the myſtery of it, to all parts of the 'world: and, that they may have the practice as well as theo-'ry, that every perſon entering himſelf into the ſociety, 'may be obliged to bring in a thouſand pounds ſtock, which 'will make a capital, perhaps, of 20 or 30,000 l. ſterling, 'to traffic with in thirty cities, &c. in the kingdom: they 'to be obliged to ſpend five years in this ſociety, and at the 'end of that term to receive the principal they brought, 'allowing the caſualty of profit and loſs as it happens: go-'ing thus out, they will be entered in trade, and probably 'have a fund to begin with; and by this means trade will 'fall into the hands of gentlemen, perſons of learning and 'conſideration in the nation; and likewiſe preſerve from 'misfortunes numbers that now miſcarry in their ſtudies of 'the law, through ill converſation, and having no employ-'ments.

'To this project (a word now traduced to contempt, though 'in itſelf of good ſignification both for peace and war) I 'foreſee two objections that will be made, and they are 'theſe:

'Firſt, This will make too many merchants.

'Secondly, That this will leave no room for younger bro-'thers, that have nothing to prefer them in the world, but 'a ſmall ſum to put them apprentice to a merchant, by which 'they often raiſe their fortunes in the world.

'To the firſt I anſwer, That the evil of having too many 'merchants, is, in the numbers that are bred up from ap-'prentices, many of which, coming into buſineſs without 'funds, ſtrain their credit, which, to keep above water, they 'are forced to venture at all ways that have but a probability 'of ſucceſs, to keep themſelves in buſineſs; and then, to 'comply with their credit, often ſell to loſs, which, in the 'end, brings them to misfortune, and that begets an opinion 'that there are too many traders; whereas the true reaſon is 'the want of ſtock, not number of merchants.

'The ſecond objection, That this will hinder merchants 'from taking apprentices, is in part anſwered in the firſt, 'that their numbers prejudice trade: but there is a further 'conſideration in this matter, and that is, two ſorts of youth 'ſtand candidates for a mercantile education; gentlemen 'with a capital, others of leſs quality, with none. I think 'it will admit of no queſtion which ſhall be preferred; and 'that the other may be more profitably employed for the 'nation and themſelves, in trades that require more labour 'and leſs ſtock.

'But, after all I have ſaid, my wiſhes are greater than my 'expectation, to ſee trade thus courted in a kingdom, that 'treat it as ſome do their wives, conſidering them no far-'ther than to the production of a legitimate poſterity, re-'ſerving their careſſes and delights for a miſs; ſo the hu-'mour of this age ſeems to incline, whilſt foreign commerce 'is neglected, and men's thoughts and deſigns run after of-'fices and employments in the ſtate; to pay which, ſpi-'der-like, the nation ſpins out her bowels to catch flies; 'and the ſimile goes farther, ſuch food turns into poi-'ſon, where it feeds men faulty in their morals; and ſuch 'too often ſupplant better men, or find ways to be prefer-'red before them. To ſay this will be no offence to de-'ſerving men; and, for others, I ſhall only deſire them to 'ſuſpend their reſentments, until they hear what I have to ſay 'elſewhere, and then they will have more reaſon, becauſe it 'will come in my way to be more particular, when I come 'to ſpeak of the trade of Ireland; in which there have of 'late been ſuch notorious demonſtrations, how ill men in of-'fices and places of truſt may ruin and deſtroy a kingdom, as 'admits of no defence. I have, for this, the authority of 'both houſes of parliament, in their addreſſes to the king: 'and the infallible author tells us, that he who hath ſaid to 'the wicked, Thou art righteous, the people will curſe, na-'tions ſhall abhor him.'

Remarks.

Of the gentleman's knowledge in trade.

The gentleman, who has made the knowledge of trade one branch of his ſtudy, will be capable of judging for himſelf, which of his family have the beſt turned genius to engage with credit and honour in the practice thereof, and in what capacity therein a ſon may render himſelf the moſt conſpicuous. This is no little advantage, as well as ſatisfaction to a family; for it is not always ſafe to rely on the looſe and indifferent advice of others, in matters whereon the intereſt and happineſs of families depend. And,

If all the principal claſſes of commerce be ſtocked with the younger branches of perſons of the beſt families and fortunes; and the heads of thoſe families alſo become the zealous patrons and advocates of trade, in the ſeveral capacities of magiſtrates, ſenators, judges, and nobles; the intereſts of trade will never be neglected, or luke-warmly eſpouſed: the commerce of the nation will never be left to traders themſelves, to cut out national branches, at the hazard of their own fortunes, and by dint of their own ſagacity: no, all the able heads in the kingdom will be conſtantly engaged, ambitiouſly engaged in the guardianſhip of our trade and navigation; becauſe the ſtudy of it will convince them, that nothing elſe will prove a permanent ſupport of them and their families; which will multiply the number of our nobles and gentry, and, what is moſt deſirable, will laſtingly uphold their dignity and independency.

There is no branch of knowledge but may, if duly applied, contribute ſo to form and embelliſh the human mind, as to render men the more ſerviceable to ſociety: and whoever is deſirous to be uſeful, and to diſtinguiſh himſelf in any eminent capacity, will make his natural and acquired abilities ſubſervient to that chief end, and ſet no greater value on any accompliſhment, than as it is conducive to that, or ſome other end, beneficial to his country or his family.

What end can men of the firſt rank and condition, propoſe to themſelves better than that of making millions of their fellow-creatures happy? And what, in a land of liberty, like this, can anſwer that glorious intention better, than the promotion of commerce; every man's property here being duly ſecured, when thus acquired?

If the comprehenſiveneſs of the ſubject, and the difficulty in underſtanding many very complicated points, relating to the intereſt of trade, can be any motive to applications of this kind; I am apt to believe, this ſtudy will furniſh more knotty and intricate problems, than many are aware of. Certain I am, that upon trial it will be found no eaſy taſk to reduce knowledge of this kind to it's demonſtrative principles, and to be capable of applying theſe principles, according to the occaſional exigencies of the ſtate. We have, indeed, humbly endeavoured at ſomething of the former; how we have, and ſhall be able to ſucceed, is ſubmitted to the candid and judicious. Humanum eſt errare; at errores feliciter retractare vere divinum eſt.

I have endeavoured to make practical trade, and it's natural circulation in a ſtate, the foundation of what is ſuggeſted argumentatively; for I judge it as irrational and abſurd to reaſon upon trade, without making the practice of traders the baſis thereof, as to philoſophize without experimental knowlege; the theory and practice (or rather the political and practical conſideration of trade) ſhould go hand in hand, as well as the theory and practice in other ſciences; for practical trade, and facts ariſing conſequentially from it's national circulation, muſt be the touchſtone of all political reſearches: that is to ſay, in other words, the theory of trade, conſidered in a national light, muſt be founded in the practical ways and method of carrying it on.

Nor is this two-fold knowledge of trade of uſe only, as we humbly conceive, to the heads of our greateſt families, and to theſe younger branches, who may fall into any trading employment, but it may prove of no little utility, honour, and advantage, to ſuch younger ſons of our moſt diſtinguiſhed families, who are deſigned for any poſts of honour in foreign countries; ſuch as conſuls, preſidents, and ambaſſadors, &c. or to ſuch who may be inveſted hereafter with the high character of Plenipotentiary, in order to negotiate treaties of commerce with other powers, wherein the intereſt and honour of the kingdom, as well as the glory of our ſovereign, is always nearly concerned.

COMPANIES.

The origin of the companies of the city of London, viz. the principal twelve, of the time of their being incorporated, and by what kings and queens: as likewiſe the names of all the other companies.

1. The mercers (though then trading for the moſt part in ſtuffs of the native growth) were enabled to be a company, and permitted to purchaſe 20 l. per annum lands, in the 17th year of king Richard the ſecond's reign, Anno Domini 1393.

2. The grocers (though at that time greatly inferior to what they now are) called pepperers before, were incorporated, by the name aforeſaid, in the 20th year of king Edward III, Anno Dom. 1345.

3. The drapers, for the moſt part woollen, were incorporated in the 17th of king Henry VI, Anno 1630, having been a fraternity from the time that king Ed. III. ſo earneſtly promoted the woollen manufacture, by admitting the Flemings, and other nations, the free uſe of manual operation within his dominions: that ſo his ſubjects might learn the craft, and not be beholden to other nations, to work the growth of our own country, and pay them extraordinary rates, by the advance of exportation and importation, for what might be otherwiſe ordered to the advantage and glory of our own nation, by ſet-

ting many thouſands of poor people on work, otherwiſe incapable of getting whereby to ſubſiſt.

4. The fiſhmongers (a vocation no leſs advantageous to this kingdom by their incouragement of the fiſhing-trade) were, in former times, two companies, viz. ſtock-fiſhmongers, and ſalt-fiſhmongers; but, in the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII, Anno 1509, did bear their arms as at preſent they do, and in the 28th year of that king, Anno 1536, were united and incorporated in one body without diſtinction.

5. The goldſmiths (an ancient craft, ſo I may rightly term it, for formerly thoſe that ſold worked likewiſe their own plate) were incorporated and confirmed in the 16th year of king Richard IId's reign.

6. The ſkinners had the favour to be incorporated in the firſt year of the reign of king Edward III, Anno 1327, and were made a brotherhood in the 18th year of king Richard IId's reign.

7. The merchant-taylors had their firſt patent of arms granted by Sir Thomas Holne, clarencieux king at arms, being then called taylors, and linnen-armourers, viz. in the 21ſt of king Edward IV, Anno 1480; and ſince incorporated by Henry VII, by the name of merchant-taylors, viz. in the 17th of his reign, Anno 1501.

8. The haberdaſhers, or hurrers, formerly ſo called, were incorporated a brotherhood of St Catharine, in the 26th of Henry VI, Anno 1447, and, by the name of merchants haberdaſhers, confirmed in the 17th year of Henry VII.

9. The ſalters had their arms, and, as many ſuppoſe, were confirmed in the 20th year of Henry VIII, 1530, being a company of good eſteem.

10. The iron-mongers had the favour to be incorporated in the 3d year of king Edward IV, Anno 1462, at which time they were greatly increaſed, and the mines of our nation much improved.

11. The vintners, formerly called wine tunners, were incorporated in the reign of king Edward III, after he had conquered all Normandy, and by that means ingroſſed moſt of the French vintage; but were not confirmed 'till the 15th of Henry VI.

12. The cloth-workers had their arms granted by Thomas Benolt, clarencieux, in the 22d year of Henry VIII, but the time of their incorporation is uncertain.

Thoſe that remain, are theſe, whoſe names I ſhall only recite; the dyers, brewers, leatherſellers, pewterers, barbers, ſurgeons, armourers, white-bakers, wax-chandlers, tallow-chandlers, cutlers, girdlers, butchers, ſadlers, carpenters, cordwainers, painters, curriers, maſons, plumbers, innholders, founders, embroiderers, poulterers, cooks, coopers, bricklayers and tylers; bowyers, fletchers, blackſmiths, joiners, plaiſterers, weavers, fruiterers, ſcriveners, bottlemakers, and horners; ſtationers, marblers, wool-packers, farriers, paviers, lorimers or loriners, brown-bakers, wood-mongers, upholſterers, turners, glaziers, clerks, watermen, apothecaries, and ſilk-throwſters.

All of theſe are fraternities, and moſt of them incorporated, and have charters of privilege, and large immunities, though, in the days of our forefathers, many of them were not known, not having brought their ſeveral trades and crafts to perfection, for many of which they were obliged to be beholden to ſtrangers; but the natives of this kingdom being naturally ripe-witted, and of a toward genius, ſoon became arts-maſters, and out-did their teachers; ſo that, at this day, no nation under heaven can exceed them (if the materials be alike) in all reſpects.

But having given the reader an account of the reſpective companies, whoſe induſtry at home improved, to a miracle, what is brought to them from diſtant lands, I ſhall proceed to give a relation of the reſpective merchants, whoſe traffic by ſea firſt inriched the land, whilſt the land finds them wherewithal to drive on their commerce with all nations, from whence any valuable merchandize was brought. But, before this, I think it would be neceſſary to relate the firſt incorporation of the merchants of the ſtaple, who once were the chiefeſt boaſt, and moſt profitable to this nation: nor, indeed, leſs profitable to others, as France, Flanders, Holland, Saxony, and many other countries, the chief mart being eſtabliſhed at Calais, a little before taken from the French, by king Edward III, the profit of our Engliſh wool then chiefly obliging the Flemings to join with us, againſt their potent neighbour.

Of the firſt Companies that were eſtabliſhed in this kingdom for the benefit of foreign trade.

However injurious companies with joint ſtocks, and incorporated with excluſive privileges, may, at this time of day, be reckoned to the nation in original; yet it is certain, that they were the general parent of all our foreign commerce, private traders upon their own bottom being diſcouraged from hazarding their fortunes in foreign countries, 'till the methods of traffic had been firſt of all ſettled by joint ſtock companies. From this principle it is, that we find ſeveral nations now that are endeavouring to improve their trade, and eſtabliſh or increaſe maritime power, by the means of joint ſtock companies.

The bodies of merchants that were at firſt incorporated for thoſe purpoſes in England, were as follow:

1. The merchant-adventurers were incorporated by king Edward IV, from which time they traded with good ſucceſs 'till the reign of queen Elizabeth, who, for a further encouragement of their induſtry, not only confirmed, but enlarged their privileges.

2. The merchants of Ruſſia or Muſcovy, having improved their trade and commerce in that remote kingdom, to the inriching their native country, were incorporated by king Edward VI, greatly encouraged by queen Mary, and had their confirmation, with an enlargement of their privileges, from queen Elizabeth.

3. The merchants of Elbin were incorporated by queen Elizabeth, and by her greatly encouraged; ſhe, like a wiſe queen and patroneſs of trade and navigation, well knowing, that by traffick alone the kingdom could be inriched, her revenues improved, and ſhe rendered formidable to her aſpiring neighbours: but, by ſome diſguſt, the trade of Elbin was tranſplanted to Hamburgh, and other free ports and cities.

4. The Turky merchants, or merchants of the Levant, were likewiſe incorporated by the ſame princeſs, and were confirmed in their privileges by king James, with large additions.

5. The merchants of Spain, or more properly Spaniſh merchants, or ſuch of our nation as traded to Spain, were incorporated by queen Elizabeth.

6. The Eaſt-India merchants were alſo incorporated by that princeſs, Anno 1600.

7. In the latter end of queen Elizabeth's reign, and the beginning of king James's, the Eaſtland, Greenland, and French merchants, were ſettled in companies and traded with great ſucceſs, building many ſhips, continually employing ſeveral thouſand perſons in the management of their affairs, exporting commodities of our own growth, and importing the productions of other countries.

8. There were likewiſe a company of Virginia, or Weſt-India merchants, whoſe great induſtry and ſagacity tended to the firſt ſettling and improvement of our colonies in America. And moſt nations that make any conſiderable figure in trade at preſent, made uſe of the like kind of policy, in the firſt eſtabliſhment of their foreign traffick.

But, ſince the trade of this kingdom and the number of traders have increaſed, and the methods of aſſurance of ſhipping and merchandize, and navigation to all parts of the known world, have become familiar to us, theſe companies, in the opinion of moſt men, have been looked upon in the light of monopolies; and, therefore, their privileges have from time to time been leſſened, in order to eſtabliſh an abſolutely free and general trade; and experience hath ſhewn, that the trade of the nation has advanced, in proportion as monopolies have been laid aſide.

But, whether it may, or may not, be for the national intereſts of trade, to continue ſome ſpecies of companies, with excluſive privileges, ſuch as the late Royal Aſſiento, &c. we ſhall conſider, when we come to ſpeak of the conſtitution, nature, and ſtate, of the ſeveral trading companies, under their reſpective names, which now exiſt in Great-Britain, and other parts of the world. See theſe ſeveral companies, as the EAST-INDIA COMPANY, the SOUTH-SEA COMPANY, the TURKY COMPANY, &c. See alſo the articles MONOPOLIES, CREDIT, PUBLIC CREDIT, STOCK-JOBBING.

REMARKS.

As Sir Joſiah Child is eſteemed the ableſt advocate for ſome kind of trading companies with joint ſtocks and excluſive privileges, I judge it neceſſary to quote his ſentiments thereupon at large; intending to give them a thorough examination under the articles of thoſe reſpective companies which he ſpeaks of that are in being. Sir Joſiah's ſentiments are as follow:

'Companies, ſays he, of merchants, in his time, are of two 'ſorts, viz. companies in joint ſtock, ſuch as the Eaſt-India 'company, the Morocco company, which is a branch of the 'Turky company, and the Greenland company; the other 'ſorts are companies who trade not by a joint ſtock, but 'only are under a government and regulation; ſuch are the 'Hamburgh company, the Eaſtland company, the Muſ'covy company.

'It has for many years been a moot caſe, whether any in'corporating of merchants be for public good or not.

'1. That for countries with which his majeſty has no al'liance, nor can have any, by reaſon of their diſtance, or 'barbarity, or non-communication with the princes of 'Chriſtendom, &c. where there is a neceſſity of maintain'ing forces and forts (ſuch as Eaſt-India and Guinea) com'panies of merchants are abſolutely neceſſary.

'2. It ſeems evident to me, that the greateſt part of thoſe two 'trades ought for public good to be managed by joint ſtocks.

'3. It

'3. It is queſtionable to me, whether any other company of 'merchants are for public good or hurt.

'4. I conclude, however, that all reſtrictions of trade are 'nought, and conſequently that no company whatſoever, 'whether they trade in a joint ſtock, or under regulation, 'can be for public good, except it may be eaſy for all or 'any of his majeſty's ſubjects to be admitted into all or any 'of the ſaid companies, at any time, for a very conſider-'able fine; and that if the fine exceed 20l. including all 'charges of admiſſion, it is too much, and that for theſe 'reaſons.

'1. Becauſe the Dutch, who thrive beſt by trade, and have 'the ſureſt rules to thrive by, admit not only any of their 'own people, but even Jews, and all kind of aliens, to be 'free of any of their ſocieties of merchants, or any of their 'cities or towns corporate.

'2. Nothing in the world can enable us to cope with the 'Dutch in any trade, but increaſe of hands and ſtock, which 'a general admiſſion will do; many hands and much ſtock 'being as neceſſary to the proſperity of any trade, as men 'and money to warfare.

'3. There is no pretence of any good to the nation by com-'panies, but only order and regulation of trade; and, if 'that be preſerved (which the admiſſion of all that will come 'in and ſubmit to the regulation, will not prejudice) all the 'good to the nation that can be hoped for by companies is 'obtained.

'4. The Eaſtland, beſides our native commodities, conſume 'great quantities of Italian, Spaniſh, Portugal, and French 'commodities, viz. oil, wine, fruit, ſugar, ſuccads, ſhu-'mack, &c. Now in regard our eaſt country merchants 'of England are few, compared with the Dutch, and in-'tend principally that one trade out and home, and conſe-'quently are not ſo converſant in the aforeſaid commodi-'ties, nor forward to adventure upon them, and ſeeing that 'by the company's charter, our Italian, Spaniſh, Portugal, 'and French merchants, who underſtand thoſe commodi-'ties perfectly well, are excluded thoſe trades, or at leaſt, 'if the company will give them leave to ſend out thoſe goods, 'are not permitted to bring in the returns; it follows, that 'the Dutch muſt ſupply Denmark, Sweden, and all parts of 'the Baltic, with moſt of thoſe commodities; and ſo it is in 'fact.

'5. The Dutch, though they have no Eaſtland companies, 'yet have ten times the trade to the eaſtern parts as we; 'and, for Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where we have no 'companies, we have yet left full as much, if not more 'trade, than the Dutch. And for Ruſſia and Greenland, 'where we have companies (and I think eſtabliſhed by act 'or acts of parliament) our trade is in effect wholly loſt, 'while the Dutch have, without companies, increaſed theirs 'to above forty times the bulk of what the reſidue of ours 'now is.

'From whence may be inferred,

'1. That reſtrained limited companies are not alone ſuffi-'cient to preſerve and increaſe a trade.

'2. That limited companies, though eſtabliſhed by act of 'parliament, may loſe a trade.

'3. That trade may be carried on to any part of Chriſten-'dom, and increaſed without companies.

'4. That we have declined more, at leaſt have increaſed leſs, 'in thoſe trades limited to companies, than in others where 'all his majeſty's ſubjects have had equal freedom to trade.

'The common objections againſt this eaſy admiſſion of all 'his majeſty's ſubjects into companies of merchants, are,

'Object. 1. If all perſons may come into any company of 'merchants on ſuch eaſy terms, then young gentlemen, ſhop-'keepers, and divers others, will turn merchants, who thro' 'their own unſkilfulneſs will pay dear for our native commo-'dities here, and ſell them cheap abroad; and alſo buy foreign 'commodities dear abroad, and ſell them here for leſs than their 'coſt, to the ruin of themſelves, and deſtruction of trade.

'I anſwer, Firſt, Caveat emptor, let particular men look to 'themſelves, and ſo doubtleſs they will in thoſe trades for 'which there are now companies, as well as they do in others 'for which there are no companies.

'It is the care of law-makers firſt and principally to provide 'for the people in groſs, not particulars; and, if the conſe-'quence of ſo eaſy an admiſſion ſhould be to make our manu-'factures cheap abroad, and foreign commodities cheap here, 'as is alledged, our nation in general would have the advan-'tage both ways.

'Object. 2. If all ſhould be admitted, &c. ſhopkeepers, be-'ing the retailers of the ſame commodities the company im-'ports, would have ſo much the advantage of the merchant, 'that they would beat the merchant wholly out of the trade.

'I anſwer, Firſt, We ſee no ſuch thing in Holland, nor in 'the open trades, viz. France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, and 'all our own plantations; neither can that well be; for to 'drive a retail trade, to any purpoſe, requires a man's full 'ſtock, as well as his full attendance, and ſo does it to drive 'the trade of a merchant, and therefore few can find ſtock 'and time to attend both; from whence it follows, that, 'of the many hundreds which in my memory have turned 'merchants, very few continued long to follow both, but 'commonly, after two or three years experience, betook 'themſelves wholly to merchandizing, or returned to the 'ſole exerciſe of their retail way; but whether they do or 'do not, concerns not the nation in general, whoſe common 'intereſt is to buy cheap, whatever appellation the ſeller 'has, whether that of a mere merchant, gentleman, or a 'ſhopkeeper.

'Object. 3. If ſhopkeepers and other unexperienced perſons 'may turn merchants, &c. they will through ignorance ne-'glect buying and ſending out our native manufactures, and 'will ſend out our money, or bills of exchange, to buy foreign 'commodities, which is an apparent national loſs.

'I anſwer, that ſhopkeepers are, like all other men, led by 'their profit, and, if it be for their advantage to ſend out 'manufactures, they will do it without forcing; and, if it 'be for their profit to ſend over money or bills of exchange, 'they will do that, and ſo will merchants as ſoon and as 'much as they.

'Object. 4. If any be admitted, &c. what do we get by 'our ſeven years ſervice, and the great ſums of money our 'parents gave to bind out apprentices to merchants, &c. 'and who will hereafter bind his ſon to a merchant?

'I anſwer, the end of ſervice, and giving of money with 'apprentices, I have always underſtood to be the learning 'of the art or ſcience of merchandizing, not the purchaſing 'of an immunity or monopoly to the prejudice of our coun-'try; and that it is ſo, is evident from the practice, there 'being many general merchants that are free of no particu-'lar company, who can have as large ſums of money with 'apprentices, as any others that are free of one or more 'particular companies of merchants; and many merchants 'that are free of particular companies, to whom few will 'give any conſiderable ſums of money with apprentices, the 'proportion of money given with apprentices not following 'the company a merchant is free of, but the condition of 'the maſter, as to his more or leſs reputed ſkill in his call-'ing, thriving, or going backward, greater or leſſer trade, 'well or ill government of himſelf and family, &c.

'Object. 5. If all ſhould be admitted on ſuch eaſy terms, 'will not that be manifeſt injuſtice to the companies of mer-'chants, who, by themſelves or predeceſſors, have been at 'great diſburſements to purchaſe privileges and immunities 'abroad, as the Turky company and the Hamburgh com-'pany have done?

'I anſwer, that I am yet to learn that any company of mer-'chants not trading with a joint ſtock, ſuch as the Turky, 'Hamburgh, Muſcovy, and Eaſtland companies, ever pur-'chaſed their privileges, or built and maintained forts, caſ-'tles, or factories, or made any wars at their own charge; 'but I know the Turky company do maintain an ambaſſador 'and two conſuls, and are ſometimes neceſſitated to make 'preſents to the Grand Seignior, or his great officers; and 'the Hamburgh company are at ſome charge to maintain 'their deputy and miniſter at Hamburgh; and I think it 'would be great injuſtice that any ſhould trade to the places 'within their charters, without paying the ſame duties or le-'vations towards the company's charge, as the preſent ad-'venturers do pay; but I know not why any ſhould be bar-'red from trading to thoſe places, or forced to pay a great 'fine for admiſſion, that are willing to pay the company's 'duties, and ſubmit to the company's regulation and orders 'in other reſpects.

'Object. 6. If all may be admitted as aforeſaid, then ſuch 'numbers of ſhopkeepers and others would come into the 'ſociety of merchants, as would by the majority of votes ſo 'much alter the governors, deputy, and aſſiſtants, of the re-'ſpective companies, that ignorant perſons would come into 'thoſe ruling places, to the general prejudice of thoſe trades.

'I anſwer, Thoſe that make this objection, if they be mer-'chants, know there is very little in it; for that it is not to be 'expected that twenty ſhopkeepers will come into any one 'company in a year, and therefore can have no conſiderable 'influence upon the elections; but, if many more ſhould 'come in, it would be the better for the nation, and not 'the worſe for the company, for that all men are led by 'their intereſt; and it being the common intereſt of all that 'engage in any trade, that the trade ſhould be regulated and 'governed by wiſe, honeſt, and able men, there is no doubt 'but moſt men will vote for ſuch as they eſteem ſo to be, 'which is manifeſt in the Eaſt-India company, where nei-'ther gentlemen nor ſhopkeepers were at firſt excluded, nei-'ther are they yet kept out, any Engliſhman whatſoever be-'ing permitted to come into that company that will buy an 'action, paying only five pounds to the company for his ad-'miſſion, and yet undeniable experience has convinced all 'gainſayers in this matter; that company, ſince it's having 'had ſo large and national a foundation, having likewiſe had 'a ſucceſſion of much better governors, deputies, and aſſiſt-'ants, than ever it had upon that narrow bottom it ſtood 'formerly, when none could be admitted to the freedom of 'that company for leſs than a fine of fifty pounds; and the 'ſucceſs has been anſwerable, for the firſt company ſettled 'upon that narrow-limited intereſt, although their ſtock was

'larger than this, decayed and finally came to ruin and de-
'ſtruction; whereas, on the contrary, this being ſettled on
'more rational, and conſequently more juſt, as well as more
'profitable principles, has, through God's goodneſs, thriven
'and increaſed to the trebling of their firſt ſtock.'

CONNAUGHT, a province in Ireland, is ſeparated from the province of Leinſter on the eaſt by the Shannon, which alſo parts it from Munſter on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt; has the province of Ulſter, and a part of the Weſtern-ocean, on the north and north-weſt; and the main ocean on the weſt. It is 130 miles in length, from Cape Lean, the moſt ſouth point of Thomond, to the north parts of Letrim; about 84 in breadth, from the eaſt point of Letrim to Black-Harbour in the weſt part of Mayo; and about 500 in circumference, containing, according to Mr Templeman, an area of 6072 ſquare miles.

In ſome places it is verdant and agreeable, in others gloomy and dangerous, being pretty thick ſet with bogs and woods, and the air not ſo clear as elſewhere, by reaſon of the vapours and foggy miſts. The ſoil is fruitful enough, and abounds with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey. It has many convenient bays and creeks for navigation, but few rivers of conſiderable note beſides the Shannon. The chief are, 1. May, in the county of Mayo, which, for a little way, divides it from Sligo, and falls into the ocean by Mayo and Killala. 2. The Suc, divides Roſcommon into Gallway, and falls into the Shannon, near Clonefert. 3. The Droſos, a river in the county of Thomond, which falls into the Shannon eaſt of Clare; and, 4. Gyll, a ſmall river in Gallway, which runs into the bay of that name.

GALLWAY, the county, has part of Roſcommon, King's County, and Tipperary (from which laſt it is parted by the Shannon) on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt; the main ocean on the weſt; Mayo, Meath, and Roſcommon, on the north and north-eaſt: and Thomond on the ſouth: it being much of a warm, lime-ſtone ſoil, which rewards the induſtry both of the huſbandman and the ſhepherd; it abounds in general with corn, paſture, and cattle.

Gallway, the county town, ſtands on an iſland, by the fall of the lake Corbes, or Lough Corrib, into the bay of it's own name. It is a very ſtrong, neat, rich city, the capital of all the weſt part of Ireland, and the third, if not the ſecond, city of the kingdom; nor is it inferior to any of the reſt in wealth, it being ſo well ſeated for commerce, not only to France and Spain, but to the Weſt-Indies, on a large, ſafe, and delicate harbour, called the bay of Gallway, capable of a vaſt fleet of ſhips, that it has been eſteemed as the greateſt place of trade in all the kingdom. The buildings, eſpecially the public ſtructures, are generally of ſtone, handſome and lofty, built almoſt round, in form of towers, and inhabited by a ſet of as ſubſtantial merchants and ſhopkeepers as moſt cities in the three kingdoms, in proportion to it's magnitude; and the merchants in general here have a conſiderable ſhare of commerce to moſt of the trading parts of Europe. The harbour, indeed, lies a little way off from the city, ſo that the goods are delivered by lighters; but it is ſo ſmall a diſtance, that it is no obſtruction to the commerce.

Gallway Bay, which runs above 30 miles up the country, has innumerable harbours and roads on every ſide, and is one of the nobleſt entrances in the world, were there, ſay ſome, a ſuitable conflux of ſhips and trading towns; but there does not ſeem any great occaſion for more than what belongs to Gallway itſelf. It is ſheltered at the mouth of the ſouth iſles of Arran, through which are three paſſages for ſhips, beſides the north paſſage at the mouth of the bay. In the ſeaſon here is a very conſiderable herring fiſhery.

Among it's many harbours, is that particularly called Batter-bay, as fine an harbour as moſt in Europe for it's extent. It is four miles in length, is narrow, but has a very ſafe entrance. It is a mile, in ſome places two miles broad, a deep channel, 10 or 12 fathom water, and not leſs than five cloſe to the ſhore on both ſides. It has good anchorage, without any rock or ſhoal; but here are no towns, no ſhips, no trade, which is the fate of all this coaſt.

MAYO COUNTY, has a ſea upon the weſt and north; is bounded on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by the county of Gallway; by Roſcommon on the eaſt; and on the north-eaſt by Slego. It is mountainous and rough on the ſides next the ſea, but in other parts has paſturage, and it is well ſtocked with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey, and watered with many large and diverting lakes and rivers.

In the north-weſt corner of the county there is a ſort of peninſula, joined to the main land by a narrow iſthmus, on the north ſide whereof lies Broad-haven, which is a bay with a good harbour. About ſeven miles croſs the bay lie two iſlands, ſafe againſt winds, but not frequented, except when ſhips are forced in by a tempeſt. There is a good ſalmon fiſhery in a river which falls into a bay north of theſe iſlands.

ROSCOMMON COUNTY, has Mayo and Gallway, with the river Suc between them, on the weſt; King's County, and part of Gallway, on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt; Slego and Letrim on the north and north eaſt; and Longford, Eaſt Meath, and part of King's County, on the eaſt, together with part of Letrim, from which it is ſeparated by the Shannon. This county is for the moſt part a champain and fruitful country, which, with little cultivation, yields plenty of corn, graſs, and is well ſtocked with cattle.

SLEGO, or SLIGO COUNTY, lies full upon the ſea to the north and north-weſt, where it is alſo bounded by the river Trobis, which ſprings from the Lough Ern in Ulſter. It has Mayo on the weſt; part of that county, and Roſcommon, on the ſouth; and the county of Letrim on the eaſt. It is divided from the two laſt mentioned counties by the Curlew Mountains, and the river Suc. Great part of this county is mountainous and boggy; but it's lower grounds and bottoms have a good ſoil, both for the ploughman and the grazier.

Slego Town, is a borough, or market town, and the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ſhips of 200 tons may come up to the town-key. The town is populous, but not large; nor is the trade here conſiderable, though much better than many of the other places beyond it.

LETRIM COUNTY, has Slego, and part of Roſcommon, on the weſt and ſouth-weſt; Donnegal-Bay on the north; Longford and Leinſter on the ſouth-eaſt; and the counties of Fermanagh and Cavan, in Ulſter, on the eaſt and north-eaſt. It is a wild mountainous country, and full of rank graſs, which feeds an infinite number of cattle; and Camden, even in his time, ſays above 120,000 have been grazing in this narrow county at one time; and, ſince, their number is ſaid to have greatly increaſed.

CONSULS; among the Romans they were chief officers, yearly choſen, to govern the city of Rome: but long ſince abrogated. Our conſuls abroad take care of the affairs and intereſts of merchants there, where they are appointed by the king, as at Liſbon, &c.

A trial before them was formerly the dernier reſort; and merchants courts, called prior and conſuls, eſtabliſhed in France, Italy, and Germany, to determine cauſes in the moſt ſummary way, to avoid interruption of traffic; and this authority at Roan was very great and extenſive.

By the laws of France, he that ſhall obtain letters patent to be conſul in the Levant, and other trading ſea-ports of the Mediterranean, under the Grand Seignior, is to make intimation of it in the aſſembly of merchants where he is eſtabliſhed, to be recorded in the offices of the conſulſhip and admiralty, &c. and ſhall take the oath required. They are to call to the aſſemblies they ſhall hold, all the merchants of their nation, captains and patrons, upon the place; and, as to their juriſdiction, they are to conform to the cuſtoms and treaties made with the princes where they reſide; to keep exact memoirs of their proceedings, and ſend once a year to the ſecretary of ſtate for maritime affairs.

By the treaty of Utrecht between Great-Britain and Spain, the conſul reſiding in the king of Spain's dominions ſhall be named by our king, with as full power as any former conſul. The eſtates of the Engliſh dying inteſtate in Spain ſhall be inventoried by him, and intruſted with two or three merchants, for ſecurity and benefit of the proprietors and creditors. The ſtatute 9 Geo. II. c. 25. enacts, That it ſhall be lawful for perſons appointed by the conſul at the ports of Cadiz and St Mary's in Spain, with the majority of the Britiſh merchants and factors there, to receive from all Engliſh and Iriſh ſhips, trading there, any ſums of money not exceeding one rial plate per ducat, on the freight of goods and merchandize (except tonnage goods) there imported, and on all tonnage goods, not exceeding two rials plate per ton; and all their bills of lading ſhall ſpecify to pay the ſame, under denomination of contribution, as by act of parliament, &c.

And all Britiſh or Iriſh commanders trading to the ſaid ports, and delivering there, ſhall, within ten days after their arrival, deliver a manifeſto upon oath, ſpecifying the particulars of the cargo, and to whom conſigned; which oath is to be adminiſtered by the conſul, or whom he ſhall appoint, and the clearances outwards detained by him, 'till payment of the money is made; and, any departing without his clearances, the conſul, on ſuch maſter's return to any port in the king's dominions, may have an action at law againſt him for the ſaid money.

All monies raiſed to be applied to the relief of ſhipwrecked mariners, and other diſtreſſed perſons, his majeſty's ſubjects, and other charitable uſes, as appointed by the conſul, &c.

The conſul ſhall, alſo, as occaſion requires, call a general meeting of the Britiſh merchants and factors; the majority of whom ſhall order all matters relating to the premiſſes.

The 10th Geo. II. c. 14. is for collecting at the port of Leghorn certain ſmall ſums, uſually contributed by the merchants trading there, for relief of ſhipwrecked mariners, captives, &c. appointed by the conſul and majority of the merchants there.

The money to be one third of a livre per ton, or bale, on goods imported, payable by all Britiſh maſters trading there, which they ſhall be reimburſed by their freighters, or thoſe to whom the goods are conſigned, or the receivers: and maſters, not ſpecifying the payment in the bills of lading, ſhall be anſwerable for the ſame: and, where no ſuch bill appears, or the tonnage is not ſettled, to be valued by two indifferent merchants there, one to be choſen by the conſul, the other

by the commander, within ten days after unlading; and, if they do not agree, an umpire, being a Britiſh merchant, ſhall be choſen, to determine the valuation in three days, and then ſuch money to be paid.

Of the conſuls of the FRENCH NATION more particularly.

Article 1. No perſon to call himſelf conſul of the French nation in foreign countries, without having our commiſſions, which ſhall not be granted to any under the age of thirty years.

2. The conſulſhip becoming vacant, the moſt ancient of the deputies of the nation in office, for the time, ſhall officiate, 'till we take order about it.

3. He that ſhall obtain our letters to be conſul in the ſea-port towns and places of trade in the Levant, and other places of the Mediterranean, under the Grand Seignior, ſhall cauſe intimation thereof to be made in the aſſembly of merchants where he is eſtabliſhed, and cauſe them to be recorded in the chancery and offices of the admiralty, and chamber of Marſeilles, and ſhall take the oath required.

4. We enjoin the conſuls to call to the aſſemblies which they ſhall hold for the affairs of commerce, and of the nation in general, all the French merchants, captains, and patrons upon the place, who ſhall be obliged to aſſiſt thereat, under pain of an arbitrary fine, applicable to the redemption of captives.

5. The artificers and ſeamen, ſettled in thoſe ports, ſhall not be admitted to ſuch aſſemblies.

6. The reſolutions of the nation ſhall be ſigned by thoſe which have aſſiſted at them, and put in execution by order of the conſul.

7. The deputies of the nation ſhall be obliged, after their time is expired, to be accountable to the conſul for the monies they have handled, and for their intermiſſions for the common intereſt, in preſence of the new deputies, and the moſt eminent merchants.

8. The conſul ſhall ſend, every three months, to the lieutenant of the admiralty and the deputies of commerce of Marſeilles, a copy of the deliberations taken in the aſſemblies, and of the accounts given in by the deputies of the nation, to be imparted to the aldermen, and conſidered by them and the deputies of commerce, if need be.

9. The conſuls ſhall keep exact and faithful memoirs of the important office of their conſulſhips, and ſhall ſend them once a year to the ſecretary of ſtate for maritime affairs.

10. We forbid the conſuls to borrow, in the name of the nation, any ſums of money of Turks, Moors, Jews, or other perſons, under any pretence whatſoever; and even to aſſeſs thoſe of the nation, except by virtue of a general reſolution in writing, which ſhall contain the reaſons and the neceſſity of it; if otherwiſe, they ſhall pay it themſelves.

11. We forbid, under pain of extortion, to levy greater duties than thoſe allowed them, or to exact any at all of the maſters and patrons of ſhips, who ſhall only come to an anchor in the ports and roads of the places of their eſtabliſhment, without lading or unlading any goods.

12. And as to their juriſdiction, as well in matters criminal as civil, the conſuls ſhall conform themſelves to the cuſtoms and the treaties made with the ſovereigns of the places where they reſide.

13. The deciſions of the conſuls ſhall be executed by proviſion, in matters civil, in giving bail; and definitively, and without appeal, in criminal matters, if there be no corporal puniſhment to be inflicted; the whole providing that they be given in preſence of the deputies and four eminent men of the nation.

14. And, where the crime deſerves a corporal puniſhment, they ſhall prepare the proceſs, and ſend it, with the criminal, in the firſt ſhip belonging to any of our ſubjects returning into our kingdom, to be judged by the officers of the admiralty of the firſt port where the ſhip ſhall break bulk.

15. The conſuls, after making enquiry, and with advice of the deputies of the nation, may baniſh out of the places of their eſtabliſhment the French that are of a ſcandalous life and converſation. We enjoin our captains and maſters to embark them upon the order of the conſul, under pain of 500 livres fine, applicable to the redemption of captives.

16. The conſuls may put in as well for the exerciſe of the chancery, as for the execution of their own ſentences, and other acts of juſtice, ſuch perſons as they think capable of thoſe poſts, to whom they ſhall adminiſter an oath, and for whom they ſhall be in a civil ſenſe reſponſible.

17. The fees for the acts and orders of the chancery ſhall be regulated by them, with the advice of the deputies of the French nation, and of the moſt antient merchants; which ſhall be put up in the moſt apparent place of the office, and an extract thereof ſhall be immediately ſent by every conſul to the lieutenant of the admiralty and the deputies of trade at Marſeilles.

18. The appeals from the ſentences of the conſuls, eſtabliſhed as well in the ports of the Levant, as upon the coaſts of Africa and Barbary, ſhall be carried before the parliament of Aix; and all the others, to the parliaments neareſt to the places where the ſentences are given.

19. In caſe of conteſtation between the conſuls and the merchants, either in the Levant, or upon the coaſts of Africa and Barbary, for their private affairs, they ſhall have recourſe to the court of admiralty at Marſeilles.

20. The conſul ſhall be obliged to take an inventory of the goods and effects of ſuch as die without heirs upon the place, and alſo of the effects ſaved from ſhipwreck; with which he ſhall charge the chancellor under the inventory, in the preſence of two eminent merchants, who ſhall ſign it.

21. But, if the defunct had conſtituted an attorney to receive his effects, or if any factor preſent himſelf with bills of lading for the goods that are ſaved, the effects ſhall be delivered to them.

22. The conſul ſhall be obliged to ſend forthwith a copy of the inventory of the goods of the defunct, or the effects ſaved from ſhipwreck, to the officers of the admiralty, and the deputies of trade at Marſeilles, whom we enjoin to acquaint them concerned.

23. No inſtruments written in foreign countries where there are conſuls, ſhall be of any value, if they be not made authentic by them.

24. Teſtaments received by the chancellor, within the extent of the conſulſhip, and in the preſence of the conſul and two witneſſes, and ſigned by them, ſhall be deemed authentic.

The firſt juriſdiction of conſuls, eſtabliſhed in France, was that of Thouloufe; the edict of it's eſtabliſhment in the month of July 1549, in the reign of Henry II; that of Paris was not created 'till 14 years after, in November 1563, by an edict of Charles IX. They were afterwards eſtabliſhed in all the other principal trading cities of the kingdom, whoſe names follow in alphabetical order, with the dates of ſuch creations.

A

Agde, Alby, Alençon, Angouleſme, Arles } March 1710
Angers, February 6, 1563
Auxerre, 1565

B

Bayeux, March 1710
Bayonne
Beauvais, June } 1564
Bourges, Auguſt }
Bourdeaux, December 1563
Brionde, July 1704

C

Caën, March 1700
Calais
Châlons on the Marne
Châlons on the Saone
Chartres
Chatteleraut
Clermont in Auvergne
Compeigne

D

Dieppe
Dijon
Dunkirk, February 1700

G

Grenoble, March 1710

L

Langres, March 1711
Limoges, Auguſt 1600
Liſle
Lyons, December 1595

M

Le Mans, March 1710
Marſeilles
Montauban, March 1710
Montpelier, May 1691
Morlaix

N

Narbonne, March 1710
Nantes
Nevers, Niſmes } March 1710
Niort

O

Orleans, February 1599

P

Paris, November 1563
Poictiers, May 1566

R

Rennes, March 1710
Rheims
Riom
Rochelle, November 1565
Rouen

S

Saulieu
Sedan, March 1711
Semur in Burgundy
Sens, 1563
Soiſſons
St Malo
St Quintin, March 1710

T

Thiers
Thouloufe, July 1549
Tours
Troyes

V

Valenciennes
Vannes, Vienne, Vire } 1710

X

Xaintes, March 1710.

The ordonnance of March 1670 declares the edict of their eſtabliſhment in Paris common for all the ſeats of judges and conſuls of the kingdom, and all other edicts and declarations concerning conſular juriſdiction, inrolled in the parliaments.

In Paris, and ſeveral other cities, is a judge and four conſuls; in others a judge and only two conſuls.

In Thouloufe, Rouen, and ſome other cities, they are called prior and conſuls.

At Bourges, the judge is called judge-provoſt.

At Rouen, and in ſome other places, there is a ſupernumerary conſul, who acts as procurator to the king, but he has no deliberative voice.

Every conſular juriſdiction hath it's regiſter and it's cryers.

The judges and conſuls of Paris hold their ſittings behind St Mederic, in a particular place called the conſul's, or conſular houſe.

They give audience there thrice a week, morning and afternoon, on Monday, Wedneſday, and Friday.

Their decrees are not of force but in writing. They extend to corporal conſtraint, and are executory to the amount

of 500 livres, any oppoſition or appeal whatever notwithſtanding; and the appeals, lodged there, go directly to the great chamber of the parliament.

No procurators are ſuitors to the juriſdiction of conſuls, every one may plead his cauſe there. Even thoſe who cannot appear, or who have not capacity to defend themſelves, are permitted to employ whom they think fit.

There are, however, in the conſular juriſdictions, perſons allowed by the judge and conſuls, to defend parties; but they have no other retribution for their ſalaries and vocations, than what is given them voluntarily, by thoſe who intruſt their cauſes with them.

In order to have a perfect knowledge of the conſular juriſdiction, it's privileges, the manner of proceeding there, the matters within it's cognizance, and the perſons ſubject to it, recourſe may be had to the edict of Charles IX, of 1563; to the ordonnance of the month of April, 1667, tit. 16; of March, 1673, tit. 12; and to the regulations and orders that have been made concerning it: which is the eaſier, as an exact collection of them was printed by Dennis Thierry, in 1705, by the care of the judges and conſuls of Paris, who have added to it a very uſeful and clear inſtruction.

There are four qualifications neceſſary for the obtaining the conſulſhip at Paris, and in ſeveral other places. As 1ſt, To have been, or to be actually, a merchant. 2dly, To be a native of the kingdom. 3dly, To be an inhabitant of that city. And 4thly, To be of an unblemiſhed character.

The firſt judge conſul ought to be at leaſt 40 years of age, the others 27, on pain of nullity to their elections. It having been thus decreed for all the conſular juriſdictions of the kingdom, by order of the king's council of ſtate, of the 9th of September 1673, in conformity to the king's edict of February 1672, which regulates the age of other officers of judicature.

No one may be elected firſt judge, who hath not before been conſul: and the office of each held but a year, and they may not be continued under any pretence whatever.

When any one is elected firſt judge or conſul, there is no diſpenſation from performing his office; and, on refuſal, he may be conſtrained in the ſame manner as is practiſed with regard to other offices of the city.

If any of thoſe in office are neceſſarily obliged to be abſent for ſome conſiderable time, they muſt acquaint the conſul, and aſk leave; in which caſe, ſome elder is choſen to officiate in their abſence.

If any die during their conſulſhip, others are elected in their place.

The order and ceremonies uſed at Paris, in the election of a judge and four conſuls of the merchants.

Three days before the election, which is uſually held on the eve of Candlemas-day, the judge and conſuls in office iſſue a commiſſion, commanding all the old judges and conſuls, maſters and wardens of the ſix companies of merchants, &c. to meet on the eve for the election in the judiciary hall of the conſuls, to aſſiſt and accompany them in a proceſſion to church, &c. At return from which, the judges and conſuls in charge take their ſeat, and the regiſter or his deputy, having read the commiſſion, call by name the aforeſaid perſons there aſſembled, receiving from them, in their caps, billets given to them on return from church, containing the name of each voice; and their oath being taken by the judge in charge, to proceed ſincerely at the election, and to chuſe perſons capable, and of probity; the billets are all balloted, and ſhuffled in the regiſter's, or his deputy's cap, whence the judge takes thirty, rejecting the reſt; which thirty, with the judge and conſuls in office, are the electors.

Of theſe 30 billets, two are drawn, viz. one by the judge, the other by the firſt conſul; and the perſons named in them are ſcrutators of the election, and placed with the regiſter and his deputy, on the ſeat where they uſually write.

Then the acting judges and conſuls name, with a loud voice, the perſons to whom they give their voice; afterwards the two ſcrutators give theirs, and then the firſt of them calls one after another the names in the 28 remaining billets, who are electors: theſe give their voice, which is written by the regiſter and his deputy, and publickly counted in preſence of the ſcrutators.

When it happens that two of the elected have a like number of voices, their names are written on two billets of equal ſize, which are balloted in the regiſter's cap; and the firſt, which is drawn by the judge, hath the preference.

The election being ended, the judge and conſuls in charge declare thoſe who are elected; and, being accompanied with the regiſter and cryers, proceed to give an account of the election to the firſt preſident, and who appoint them a day, to preſent the new elected perſons to the court, to take their oath.

On the day appointed, they are preſented by the procurator-general, or by one of the general advocates, the former judges and conſuls quitting their office; who, with the new elected ones, after the oath taken, return to the conſular houſe; where, after maſs, the new ones are inſtalled in their ſeats by the old ones, who ſtay with them to aſſiſt them that morning.

The week after the election, the judge and conſuls iſſue commiſſions to the companies of merchants, willing them to elect a certain number of merchants from their body, to attend the conſular houſe in turn, weekly, on the days of audience, and other extraordinary days commanded, to aſſiſt them with their advice, in certain particular affairs.

The merchants, thus elected by the companies, are uſually named counſellors of the conſuls.

Theſe counſellors are to attend regularly in the conſular hall, on ſet days: or they incur a fine, from which they cannot be diſcharged without legal cauſe.

Their office is to examine the accounts of the parties in a ſeparate chamber, and to make their report of it immediately before the audience.

Art. 1. The number of judges and conſuls, in Paris, ſhall continue fixed at five, viz. one judge and four conſuls, as it hath been 'till now.

2. It being our will, that agreeably to the edict of November, 1563, the judge and conſuls, for the time being, do, at the end of the year, aſſemble to the number of 60 merchants citizens, from the ſeveral companies, who, in conjunction with the five in office, and no others, ſhall elect 30 from among them, who, without leaving the place, ſhall proceed with the ſaid judge and conſuls, firſt to the election of a new judge, and after of four conſuls, two whereof to enter on the office, with two who ſhall remain of the preceding election; the two others to enter after ſix months, reckoning from the day of the election, when the two remaining of the preceding election ſhall quit; neither of them entering on their office, 'till after the oath taken in the great chamber of the parliament, in the uſual manner.

3. The judge ſhall always be choſen, as uſual, from among the old conſuls, who, as well as the four conſuls to officiate with him, ſhall be of different companies and trades, nor of the ſame company with thoſe elected at the ſame time with him, or with whom he ſhall officiate for the ſpace of ſix months, according to the laſt article.

4. That for eſtabliſhing the order already preſcribed, after enrollment of theſe preſents, the judge and conſuls, actually in place, convene to the number of 60 merchants of the ſaid city, as preſcribed above, to elect in like manner 30, who ſhall proceed forthwith to the election, as well of a new judge, as of four conſuls, which judge ſhall officiate to the end of January 1729; of the conſuls, two ſhall enter immediately with the two older conſuls actually in place, the other two not 'till Auguſt of the preſent year; at which time the two remaining of the election in 1727 ſhall go out, thoſe who enter in Auguſt to remain 'till Auguſt 1729, all after taking the oath aforeſaid, &c. This form to be uſed for the future in all elections, injoining our court of parliament to ſee it done.

Of the prior and conſuls of Toulouſe.

The city of Toulouſe owes the eſtabliſhment of the merchants exchange, and of the prior and conſuls who have the direction of it, to king Henry II.

The letters patent for this creation were given at Paris, in July 1549.

'Till then it's commerce had been in truth very flouriſhing, much owing to the advantage of it's rivers, the continual concourſe of ſtrangers, and, above all, the happy genius and induſtry of it's inhabitants.

One thing only was wanting to ſecure and augment a commerce already ſo great, which was an exchange, where merchants might meet to communicate of their affairs, and a particular juriſdiction to determine their differences, ſuch as at Anvers and Lyons, then the moſt famous cities of Europe for the riches and extent of their negotiations.

To procure therefore this advantage to Toulouſe, Henry II. eſtabliſhed there a common exchange, after the form of that at Lyons, and with the ſame franchiſes, privileges, and liberties.

By the ſame edict, a conſular juriſdiction was alſo eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a prior and two conſuls, to be elected every year, for the deciding all differences on account of merchandize, exchanges, aſſurances, accounts, &c. ariſing among merchants, to be immediately carried by appeal to the court of the parliament of the ſaid city; the king nevertheleſs permitting the ſaid prior and conſuls to call, to the judgments of proceedings within their cognizance, ſuch perſons as they ſhall think fit.

Moreover, they are permitted, but only with conſent of all or moſt part of the merchants, to improve, aſſeſs, and levy, money neceſſary, as well for the purchaſe, building, and maintaining a place for the ſaid exchange, as for repairing rivers, havens, and paſſages.

This edict was regiſtered in the court of the parliament of Toulouſe, December 23, 1549.

About two years after, were iſſued letters patent of the 27th of May 1551, as well for the regulation of the election of prior and conſuls of the new exchange, as to confirm the extent of their juriſdiction. It conſiſts of ten articles.

The

The firſt imports, that the election be made every year by plurality of voices of the electors, to be merchants dwelling in that city, and other ſtrangers (that is to ſay, houſekeepers) reſiding at the time of the election.
The ſame article ſettles the bounds of the juriſdiction, on the foot of that of conſervator of fairs of Lyons, Brie, and Champagne.
The ſecond eſtabliſhes what is called at Toulouſe the council of the retinue, permitting the prior and conſuls to take with them ſuch a number of merchants as they ſhall think neceſſary, be it twenty and more, to proceed on judgments in relation to merchandizing, and to ſee to the execution of their decrees.
The third and fourth contain the inſtruction of proceſſes, and the execution of decrees made in them, as well in the diſtrict of the parliament of Toulouſe, as elſewhere.
The fifth ſubjects to the ſaid juriſdiction of the prior and conſuls, not only the merchants, but alſo their factors, correſpondents, commiſſaries ſent for traffic, as well within as out of the kingdom, as is practiſed in the conſervation of Lyons; in order to obviate the expences, which would be conſiderable, were the merchants obliged to purſue their factors, correſpondents, and commiſſaries, in different diſtricts, and before different judges.
The ſixth mentions the fines to which the parties ſentenced are liable, of which one moiety ſhall be to the king.
By the ſeventh, merchants of the exchange are permitted to appoint an advocate or procurator ſyndic, to have charge of the affairs of the exchange, to conduct their proceedings to the beſt advantage, as well before the prior and conſuls, as any other judges.
The eighth permits, in like manner, the ſaid merchants to meet together for the elections and other common affairs, as often as they pleaſe, without being obliged to aſk any other permiſſion.
The ninth ſpeaks of merchandizes the growth of Languedoc, Louragais, and other places, particularly woad, for the good culture and dreſſing of which, the king permits the merchants of the ſaid exchange to ſend viſitors and inſpectors, to make their report to the prior and conſuls, who on the ſaid report ſhall take cognizance of any abuſes committed.
The tenth and laſt article ordains the eſtabliſhment of a regiſter to ſign all judgments and decrees of the prior and conſuls, which ſhall be executed as expreſſed by the letters patent, granted by Francis I. to the city of Lyons, in February 1535, ſaving the appeal in the dernier reſort to the parliament of Toulouſe. The nomination of a regiſter was ſince confirmed to the prior and conſuls, by other letters patent of the 15th of June 1551.
The court of the parliament of Toulouſe, having made a difficulty of enregiſtering theſe laſt letters in form of regulation, the king gave letters mandatory, the 9th of September 1551, for the ſaid enregiſtry, which was at length made the 8th of March of the following year, with this reſtriction, however, that where the proceeding ſhall be by conſtraint, arreſt, and impriſonment of perſons, the ſaid impriſonment ſhall not take place againſt their heirs or ſucceſſors.
After the death of Henry II, Francis II, his ſon, confirmed to the prior and conſuls of Toulouſe the rights which had been before granted them. The letters of confirmation are of the 20th of March 1559.
The elections continued almoſt a century, conformable to the articles of regulation in 1551; but ſome abuſes creeping in ſince, and divers conteſts ariſing on the quality of the candidates, the merchants, who had been principal magiſtrates, claiming preference of thoſe who had not, the affair was laid before the parliament of Toulouſe, and afterwards referred to the council, where, after depending above fifty years, and more than fifteen decrees both of council and parliament, ſometimes in favour of the capitouls *, and ſometimes of the merchants, who had not been ſuch; a definitive decree of the king's council was at length given in June 1700, enacting,

* The chief magiſtrates of Toulouſe are ſo called.

That the edict of July 1549, for erecting the exchange of Toulouſe, together with the letters patent of 1551, ſhould be executed according to their form and tenor: importing, that all good and loyal merchants inhabiting the ſaid city of Toulouſe, whether they have been capitouls or not, ſhould be indiſcriminately elected at the changes of the prior and conſuls of the ſaid exchange, and that, in caſe of conteſt or treſpaſs againſt the preſent decree, all juriſdiction hereof to be referred to the parliament of Toulouſe, with prohibition to the parties to refer again to the council.
The body of merchants of the exchange, in purſuance of this decree, having petitioned the parliament for leave to meet for the making a new regulation, capable of re-eſtabliſhing peace among them, as well on the ſubject of elections, as of other things relating to the police, and juriſdiction of the exchange, of which having obtained permiſſion by a decree of the 11th of December 1700, the general aſſembly began to be held the 8th of April 1701.
During the three ſittings of this aſſembly, the regulation was formed, which hath ever ſince been obſerved in the exchange of Toulouſe.
'Tis compoſed of 47 articles, which may be reduced to ſeven claſſes, viz. 1. Of elections, conſiſting of 10 articles. 2. Of the retinue, which hath ſeven. 3. Of precedences, in three articles. 4. Of thoſe who may be, or who are excluded, alſo in three articles. 5. Of bailiffs—of the king's chapels, in three articles. 6. Of audiences and formalities to be obſerved in the judgments there given, in 15 articles. 7. Of the ſyndic, in ſix articles.
The following is an extract of what is moſt important in theſe ſeven claſſes.

Of the elections.

That of the prior and conſuls is to be on the 28th of November yearly. The nine perſons out of whom the three new officers are to be choſen, are to be preſented by the prior and conſuls in office, and to be principal merchants, trading in their own name, and on their own account, and to be good and loyal ſubjects, and houſekeepers in the city of Toulouſe. They are to be choſen indifferently, from among the merchants who have been capitouls, or who have not.
They may not be related, within the degree of the ordonnance, to thoſe who make the nomination, and muſt have ſerved at the exchange, ten years at leaſt, in quality of judges-counſellors of the retinue.
None may hold the ſaid offices twice ſucceſſively, at leaſt without conſent of the body, had in a general aſſembly.
A merchant may be choſen firſt conſul, without having been ſecond conſul, and prior, without having been either firſt or ſecond.
The election is to be by the general body of principal merchants, and foreigners of the diſtrict, who ſhall be then at Toulouſe.
After the election, thoſe who are choſen are to take oath before the prior and conſuls, or on their refuſal before the judges-counſellors, who hold the next place after them.
None may refuſe to accept the charge, or perform the office, after being choſen.

Of the retinue.

There are a certain number of merchants, called judges-counſellors of the retinue, choſen by the prior and counſellors, to aſſiſt in rendering juſtice during their year, and, with their advice, to ſuperintend all affairs, as well of the exchange as of the general body of merchants.
They are to be 60 in number, actually eminent merchants, good and loyal inhabitants of Toulouſe, taken from the different companies that compoſe the general body of merchants of that city.
The prior and conſuls are to agree between themſelves in the choice of the 60, otherwiſe they are each to name 20.
The merchants, choſen for the retinue, are to take the oath in the month of their election, unleſs prevented by abſence or illneſs; on default, they are to be razed out of the liſt, and others put in their place.
They aſſiſt at the exchange, and in the aſſemblies, as well general as particular, in a gown and band, at leaſt if they have not been priors or conſuls; in which caſe, they have a right to be there in the uſual robe of the juriſdiction.

Of the ſeſſions.

Thoſe who have been priors or conſuls, precede all other merchants, as well at the exchange, as on every other occaſion.
The elder priors take the right-hand of the officiating prior, next to the firſt conſul; and the elder conſuls at the left, next to the ſecond conſul, both according to the date of their elections: which rules their rank alſo, when the prior puts to the vote.
Thoſe who have been neither priors nor conſuls, obſerve no rank or precedence, and place themſelves indifferently as they enter the aſſemblies.

Of thoſe who may offer themſelves at the election, or who are excluded.

No merchant may be choſen prior or conſul, if indebted to the exchange: on the contrary, the creditors of the exchange and body of merchants have a right to ſtand candidates.
The treaſurer hath alſo the ſame right; but, if choſen, he is to deliver the ſtock he hath in his hands, to the new treaſurer who ſhall be choſen in his room. As alſo to deliver his accounts and vouchers to commiſſaries appointed to examine them; on failure, he is to be ſuſpended the offices of prior or conſul, 'till theſe two obligations are ſatisfied.

Of the bailiffs or treaſurers of the chapel royal.

Theſe are in number four, and ſerve jointly during the year; they are named immediately after the election of the prior and conſuls, each bailiff naming his ſucceſſor.
During their year of ſervice, they have a deliberative voice at the exchange.

They are to be actually tradeſmen, or ſons of tradeſmen, working at their father's trade. The partners of the principal merchants, may alſo be made bailiffs; all who have been priors or conſuls, are excluded.
The baliffs have charge of the ſervice in the king's chapel, and of the diſtribution of the white wax, uſually given to thoſe of the retinue who aſſiſt at high maſs.

Of the audiences and formalities of judgments.

The audience is to be on all days not holidays, at three o'clock in the afternoon, from Eaſter to All Saints, and at two from All Saints to Eaſter.
It holds commonly two hours, and longer, if the caſe, or the common good, require it.
The prior and conſuls are to hold the court, and, in their abſence, he who holds the firſt place after the officers.
The diviſions which happen in the audience, may be ſettled by the firſt of the judges-counſellors that enters, unleſs the aſſembly ſees fit to name three merchants for the deciſion.
The minute-book is to be ſigned by him who hath been preſident, and, when judges are to be appointed for any affair, they are to be named by the preſident.
In caſe of refuſal of ſome one of the judges, the party refuſing muſt give to the preſident a memorial, containing his reaſons; and, if it relate to an affair of the audience, the parties ſhall be permitted, after the pleadings and before judgment, to give the reaſons of their refuſal. This article has been reformed.
The number of judges granted is not to exceed twelve, the third part of whom to be taken indifferently from among the ancient priors and conſuls, and the reſt of the merchants, without comprehending the prior and conſuls in office.
The proteſts for bills of exchange may be made either by a notary, or a cryer, or ſerjeant, or by the cryer of the conſular juriſdiction; in which proteſts the ſaid bills of exchange ſhall be copied, with the orders and acceptances, if any; which ſhall be left ſigned to the party, conformable to the ordonnance of 1673, and the edict of Auguſt 1664. That, in all the proceedings of the juriſdiction of the exchange, the ſaid ordonnances and edicts be obſerved.
The articles of that claſs alſo mention what is depoſited, the inventory of the regiſters, bundles and papers, which are in the regiſtry of the juriſdiction of the exchange, and alſo the reference of affairs, whether before a judge-counſellor in the cities of the diſtrict, or ſyndic, or other advocate.

Of the ſyndic.

The ſyndic of the exchange of Toulouſe, is always taken from among the moſt eminent advocates of parliament; and he is not to be choſen or changed, when thought proper, but in a general aſſembly.
In order to the election, the prior and conſuls convene three advocates, whom they think fitteſt for the employ; from theſe three the ſyndic is choſen in a general aſſembly, by a plurality of voices.
By the oath which he takes before the prior and ſyndic, he promiſeth to procure the good, profit, honour, and advantage of the juriſdiction, and to defend it againſt all oppoſers.
The ſyndic may not preſide in any audience, or judgments of proceſs by report to the aſſembly of the exchange; wherefore, to avoid ſtrife in point of precedence, he has always his place on a ſeat at the right ſide of the table where the reports are made.
Laſtly, he is enjoined to act in all affairs of the company as he ſhall ſee fit, and under the orders of the prior and conſuls.
The 47th and laſt article of the regulation enjoins, that, in the general meetings of the exchange, they ſhall always carry the current regiſter of deliberations, to enter therein thoſe which ſhall be taken in the ſaid meetings; which ſhall be ſigned by the prior and conſuls, declaring thoſe null which ſhall not be inſerted in the regiſter, with prohibition to the regiſter to draw up any otherwiſe, on pain of being proceeded againſt according to law.
By conſent of the general meeting of the 21ſt of December 1701, the 19th and 34th articles of the preceding regulation, one of which regulates the ſittings, and the ſecond concerns the exceptions of the judges, were reformed; and, with reſpect to the firſt, it was ordained that the prior and conſuls of each year ſhould precede thoſe of the following; and as to the ſecond, that the cauſes of the exceptions might be propoſed before or after the pleading, at the choice of the parties.

Judges-conſuls of Bourdeaux.

The city of Bourdeaux owes the eſtabliſhment of it's conſulſhip to Charles IX. it was created in 1563, by an edict given at Paris, in the month of December of the ſame year.
The edict conſiſts of 22 articles; one part of which reſpects the election of the officers of that new juriſdiction, the other it's cognizance. The moſt eſſential of which we ſhall abridge here.
The firſt election is by the maſters and jurats of Bourdeaux, in a meeting of 50 merchants, convoked for that purpoſe.
The judges elected were only three; of whom one was called judge of the merchants, and the two others conſuls; which hath ever ſince been obſerved, with this difference only, that, in the following elections, there have been required only 40 electors.
In order to be elected, he muſt profeſs commerce, be a native of the kingdom, and an inhabitant of Bourdeaux.
The change of theſe three officers is annual, none of whom may be continued more than a year, on any pretence whatſoever.
About the end of the year, the judges-conſuls meet, and, being aſſiſted by 40 merchants citizens, proceed to a new election.
In order to which, the 40 convened chuſe forthwith 20 to be electors, who, without going from the place, are, with the three officers about to quit, then to name thoſe who are to ſucceed, on pain of making void the election.
The new elected officers take the oath before their three predeceſſors.
The judges conſuls are prohibited to take or receive any thing, under the pretence of fees, or otherwiſe, on pain of the crime of extortion.
They name their regiſter, and are permitted to chuſe ſome perſon of experience to fill that place, a merchant, or other whom they think proper, who is to make his duplicates on paper, and not on parchment, and not to take for his ſalaries and vacations more than 10 deniers Tournois for every leaf, on pain of corporal puniſhment. This article hath been ſince deviated from by a ſubſequent tarif.
Laſtly, their ſentences are definitive, and not ſubject to an appeal, for ſums under 500 livres; and thoſe who are ſubject to them cannot be relieved but in the parliament of Bourdeaux.
By the ſame edict it is ordained, there ſhall be eſtabliſhed at Bourdeaux a place of exchange, like thoſe of Lyons, Toulouſe, and Rouen, to be called the common place of merchants, with the ſame privileges, franchiſes, and liberties, as in thoſe cities; and, that the merchants might have a convenient place to meet in, and confer on their affairs, permiſſion is given them to purchaſe a houſe, with money raiſed by impoſt on the ſaid merchants, as ſhall be ſettled by commiſſaries for that purpoſe.
The place to be open from nine in the morning to eleven, and from four in the afternoon 'till ſix; during which time all bailiffs, or ſheriffs officers, &c. are prohibited to exerciſe their functions in regard to civil affairs.
This edict was inrolled in the parliament of Bourdeaux the 27th of April, 1564.
The abſence or illneſs of the judge and conſuls often interrupting the ſittings of the conſulſhip, againſt which no proviſion being made by the aforeſaid edict, the king (Charles IX.) ordained by a declaration of the 22d of July, 1566, that, in caſe of illneſs, abſence, exception, or other lawful hindrance of the ſaid judge and conſuls, one of the three officers, aſſiſted by the oldeſt merchants called to council, or, in defect of the three officers in charge, the two eldeſt of the merchants, might attend the diſpatch of juſtice, and their decrees be of the ſame force as if given by the judge and conſuls. Theſe merchants are choſen annually by the judge and conſuls; they are called the elect of the council, and have the ſame juriſdiction in the exchange of Bourdeaux as the judges-counſellors of the retinue have in that of Toulouſe.
The rights, privileges, and franchiſes, granted the judge and conſuls of Bourdeaux, by letters patents of 1563, 1565, and 1566, were confirmed anew, in 1596, by Henry IV. and they to be exempt, during the year of their office, from all other public offices; and the exchange, and its officers, to enjoy the ſame power with thoſe of Paris, Orleans, Bourges, Troyes, and Angers.
Lewis XIII. in like manner confirmed the rights of their juriſdiction, eſpecially with regard to the decrees for ſums under 500 livres, which are declared ſubject to no appeal, prohibiting the parliament, and other judges, to moleſt them, or interfere with their right of deciſion.
The 22d article of the edict of 1563 had fixed the ſalaries of the regiſter at 10 deniers Tournois the leaf; but, a century having induced great changes and abuſes, M. Dagueſſeau, intendant of Guienne in 1668, formed a tarif for it's regulation.
Another was afterwards made in 1682, but by private authority of the judge and conſuls only, that occaſioned divers conteſts: which being repreſented to the king in council, a new tarif was formed, with prohibition to regiſters, or other deputies, to take, for the future, more than is therein allowed, on pain of incurring the guilt of extortion.
Since the eſtabliſhment of the two free fairs of Bourdeaux, the foreign traders that come thither have been accuſtomed to ſet out their wares along the ſtreets in ſuch quarters of the city as they ſhould think fit, which cauſed much confuſion. It being repreſented to the king that it would be more for the good of commerce to re-unite the ſaid foreign traders in ſome certain place, and that for the future they might not expoſe their wares but in the court of the exchange; an order was made in 1653, that, during the two fairs held at

Bourdeaux,

Bourdeaux, their wares ſhould be ſet out there, and no where elſe, being the moſt commodious place for that purpoſe.

Which order having been peaceably executed, and the exchange drawing great profit from the rents of the ſhops, the farmer of the king's revenue, envying the merchants herein, claimed it as part of the demeſnes; but the judge and conſuls upheld the body of merchants in the property of the ſaid houſe, and defeated the farmer's claim.

CONSULS, are alſo officers of the king, appointed by commiſſions, in the ſea-ports of the Levant, on the coaſts of Africa, Barbary, Spain, Portugal, and other foreign countries, where there is any conſiderable trade.

Theſe commiſſions are not granted to any under 30 years of age.

There is alſo a vice-conſul, deputed by the conſul to act in his place, where he cannot be in perſon.

When the conſulſhip is vacant, the oldeſt of the deputies then in office, is to officiate as conſul, 'till one be appointed by the king.

He who obtains the king's letters to be conſul in any city or place of trade in the Grand Seignior's dominions, and other places in the Mediterranean, is to make publication of it in the meeting of the merchants where he is appointed.

The conſul is to call, to the meetings aſſigned by him for the general affairs of commerce, all merchants, captains, and owners of ſhips in the ports; who are to aſſiſt him herein, on pain of fine at diſcretion, to be employed for redemption of captives.

Neither artiſans nor ſailors are admitted to theſe aſſemblies; and the reſolutions there taken are to be ſigned by them who have aſſiſted therein, and to be executed by command of the conſul.

The deputies of the nation, at the expiration of their time, are to render an account to the council how they have managed the money and common affairs, in preſence of the new elected deputies, and of the ſenior merchants.

Every three months the conſul is to ſend to the lieutenant of the admiralty, and deputies of the commerce of Marſeilles, a copy of the conſultations in the aſſemblies, and of the accounts rendered by the deputies of the nation, to be communicated to the ſheriffs, and to be by them and the deputies of commerce debated, if neceſſary.

The conſul is to keep an exact and faithful memorial of the important affairs of his conſulſhip, and every year to ſend it to the ſecretary of ſtate, who hath the juriſdiction of maritime affairs.

The conſul is not to borrow, in the nation's name, any ſums of money of Turks, Moors, Jews, or others, under any pretence whatſoever, or even to aſſeſs thoſe of the nation, unleſs by common conſent, with the cauſes and neceſſity, on pain of paying in his own name.

The conſul is alſo prohibited, on pain of incurring the crime of extortion, to levy greater fees than are granted to him, or to require any of maſters and owners of ſhips, who anchor in the ports and roads of his eſtabliſhment, without lading or delivering any goods there.

As to the juriſdiction, as well in civil as criminal matters, the conſuls are to conform to the cuſtoms, and to the capitulations made with the ſovereigns of the places of their eſtabliſhment, and their ſentences to be executed proviſionally in civil matters, in giving bail; and definitively, and without appeal, in criminal caſes, when there is no corporal puniſhment, provided it be done in concert with the deputies and four eminent perſons of the nation; and, when he inflicts corporal puniſhment, the proceſs is to be drawn up, and ſent with the criminal, in the firſt veſſel of the king's ſubjects returning to France, to be judged by the officers of the admiralty of the firſt port where the veſſel is to unlade.

'Till 1722, the police concerning the decrees of the conſuls in civil matters, contained in the 13th article of the ordinance in Auguſt 1681, had always been obſerved, and, as much as poſſible, thoſe decrees iſſued with the deputies and four eminent perſons of the nation.

But the king, being informed that, for the moſt part, there were conſulſhips where there were not perſons capable of aſſiſting in the proceedings, the cognizance whereof belonged to them; to prevent this, his majeſty ordained by a declaration, in the ſaid year 1722, That the conſuls of the French nation in foreign countries might, for the future, give their ſentence on civil matters, in conjunction with the two deputies of the nation, or, on their default, two of the principal French merchants; and their decrees to be put in execution as before.

The conſul hath power, on information made, and by advice of the deputies of the nation, to cauſe all Frenchmen whoſe lives and conducts are found to be ſcandalous, to depart from the places of their ſettlement; and captains and maſters of French veſſels are to take them on board, on the conſul's order, on pain of 500 livres fine, for redemption of captives.

The conſul hath power to appoint, as well for the exerciſe of the chancery as for the execution of his judgments, and other acts of juſtice, perſons whom he ſhall think proper, who are to take the oath, and for which he is civilly reſponſible.

The rights of the acts and diſpatches of the chancery of the conſulſhip, which have been regulated by the conſul, with advice of the deputies of the nation, the extract of which hath been ſent to the lieutenant of the admiralty, and to the deputies of commerce of Marſeilles, are to be written in a book, and placed in the moſt public part of the chancery.

The appeals from the ſentences of conſuls, eſtabliſhed as well in the ports of the Levant, as on the coaſts of Africa and Barbary, are to be referred to the parliament of Aix; and all others to the neareſt parliament.

When conteſts happen between the conſuls and merchants, both in the Levant and on the coaſts of Africa and Barbary, on their private affairs, the parties are to apply to the admiralty of Marſeilles.

The conſul is to make an inventory of the goods and effects of thoſe who die without heirs, as alſo of effects ſaved from ſhipwreck, with which he is to charge the chancellor, at the foot of the inventory, in preſence of two eminent merchants, who are to ſign with him: but, if the deceaſed hath appointed an executor to collect his effects, or if a commiſſioner who takes charge of goods ſaved, offers himſelf, the effects are to be delivered again to them.

The conſul is to ſend, as ſoon as poſſible, a copy of the inventory of the deceaſed's goods, or of thoſe ſaved from ſhipwreck, to the officers of the admiralty, and to the deputies of commerce of Marſeilles, to notice it to the intereſted perſons.

Acts made in foreign countries, where there are conſuls, are of no validity in France, if not made legal by them; and wills received by the chancellor within the diſtrict of the conſulſhip, in preſence of the conſul, and of two witneſſes, and ſigned by them, are accounted ratified.

Policies of aſſurance, bottomries, and all other maritime contracts, may be paſſed in the chancery of the conſulſhip, in preſence of two witneſſes, who are to ſign.

The chancellor is to have a regiſter, and marked on each leaf by the conſul and oldeſt deputies, in which he is to write the debates and acts of the conſulſhip, to enroll the policies of aſſurance, the obligations and contracts he hath received, bills of lading, policies of aſſurances, acts of bottomries, &c. which are depoſited in his hands by the mariners and paſſengers; accounts agreed on by the deputies of the nation; and the wills and inventories of effects left by deceaſed perſons, or ſaved from ſhipwreck; and generally, all acts and proceedings made in quality of chancellor.

Maſters of veſſels who arrive at ports where there are conſuls of the French nation, are, on their arrival, to repreſent the place of their departure, to make report of their voyage, and to take from them, on departing, a certificate of the time of their arrival and departure, and of the ſtate and quality of their lading.

The French conſuls are in the nature of ambaſſadors, or envoys of France, at the courts on which their conſulſhips depend.

It is they who ſupport the commerce and intereſts of the nation, whoſe cauſes they are obliged to undertake on all reaſonable occaſions.

It is they who are to diſpoſe of the ſums given, and preſents that are to be made, to the lords and principal perſons of the places, to ſecure their protection, and put a ſtop to, or prevent, the oppreſſions or inſults ſhewn to ſtrangers by the people of the country, on every the ſlighteſt occaſion, to exact ſomething from them. Theſe kind of diſburſements are at expence of the whole nation.

The conſuls have dues aſſigned them. In ſome places their dues are on all merchandize brought and unladen by the French within their diſtrict, and on what is imported and exported, and that at ſo much per cent. of their value. In other places they have ſo much per cent. on the freight, either at the arrival or departure of the ſhips; that is to ſay, of thoſe that load and unload; for thoſe which only anchor in the harbours and roads are exempt from thoſe dues, as before obſerved.

There are conſuls, or vice-conſuls, of the French nation, in the principal trading cities of Spain, Italy, Portugal, of the North, and in all or moſt of the ports of the Levant, and of Barbary.

They continue uſually in time of peace only; for as ſoon as war is declared, and trade ſtopped, they are to return home.

Formerly France had a conſul in Holland, and Holland one in France; but, by the treaty of trade and navigation made between thoſe two nations the 20th of September, 1697, no conſul is to be admitted on either ſide for the future.

Moſt foreign nations, whoſe trade is conſiderable, have conſuls alſo, in the ſame places and ports as the French, eſpecially the Engliſh and Dutch, with juriſdiction, &c. ſomething the ſame as thoſe of France; and, if they were more ſo, they would prove of far more important ſervice to their reſpective countries. They are commonly diſtinguiſhed by adding the name of their nation.

A liſt of the Conſuls and Vice-conſuls of France, reſiding in Spain, Italy, Portugal, the North, and the ports of the Levant, and coaſts of Barbary.

SPAIN.

Cadiz
Alicant
Gijon, and the ports of the Aſturias
Minorca, yielded to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht
Malaga
Barcelona
St Andero
Gibraltar, at preſent belonging to the Engliſh
Carthagena
Corunna, and the harbours of Galicia
Teneriff, and the harbours of the Canary Iſlands.

ITALY.

Nice, and the harbours of Comté
Naples, and the ports of that kingdom
Ancona
Sinigaglia
Venice
Raguſa
The iſland of Corfu
The iſle of Cerigo
The iſle of Zante
Genoa, and the ports of the republic
Meſſina, and the ports of Sicily
Rovigno
The iſle of Malta
Leghorn
Rome
Cagliari, and the ports of Sardinia.

PORTUGAL.

Liſbon
Iſle of Tercera
Porto
Iſle of St Michael
Iſle of Madeira
Iſle of Fayal.

THE NORTH.

Elſineur
Berghen in Norway.

PORTS OF THE LEVANT AND BARBARY.

Smyrna
Seyde
Cyprus
Tripoli in Barbary
Sala
Athens
Naples in Romania
Iſpahan and Perſia
Zea in the Archipelago
Saillade in Albania
Aleppo
Cance, and the iſle of Candia
Iſle of Negropont
The Morea
Durazzo in Albania
Cairo
Salonica
Jeruſalem
Tunis
Algiers
Naxia, Paros, and other iſles of the Archipelago
Iſles of Tine and Miconi
Lo Cavale.

There was alſo formerly a conſul at Satalia; but, that port not being thought conſiderable enough to entertain one, the conſulſhip was re-united to that of Aleppo, by an order of council of July 1691.

The ſame order eſtabliſhed one at Jeruſalem, where there had been none before. The motives to this laſt eſtabliſhment were, to give the French, and all Catholics in that holy city, the ſuccours they might expect from the protection of his moſt Chriſtian majeſty.

It has already been obſerved, that the conſul's dues are in ſome places on the goods, and in others on the bottoms.

That difference, as alſo the different qualities of goods from thoſe ports, preventing the uniformity, and, conſequently, cauſing great difficulties in the gathering them, which obſtructed the commerce of the French in the Levant; Lewis the XIVth, by the ſame order of 1691, ſuppreſſed all their dues, with prohibition to exact any for the future from merchants and maſters of French ſhips and veſſels, under pretence of ſalary, interpreter, or any other whatſoever, on pain of being guilty of extortion. Permitting them, nevertheleſs, ſtill to receive the ſaid dues from ſtrangers trading to the Levant, under the banner and protection of France; not for themſelves, but for the profit of the chamber of commerce of Marſeilles. And, in order to defray the expences for which the ſaid dues were granted to the conſuls, the king enacted, That, from the 1ſt of January 1692, it ſhould be levied on all merchandizes coming from the Levant, Candia, Archipelago, the Morea, and Barbary, at their arrival in the haven of Marſeilles, in regard to veſſels that ſhould end their voyage there; and, on thoſe who ſhould end their voyage in Italy, or elſewhere, it ſhould be paid to the deputies of the nation reſiding in the ports. And, in caſe the ſaid veſſels have been laden in different ports, in the ſame voyage, then to pay at the rate of thoſe of the ports where they have touched, and where the rates are higheſt. Excepting, however, ſhips that touch at Conſtantinople and Smyrna, who are to pay the new right, in the ſame proportion they have been accuſtomed to pay the right of cottimo *, which is to be paid, as before, with the ſaid new right.

* A term of commerce uſed by the French in the ports of the Levant, ſignifying a duty impoſed by the conſul, and applied to the French Levant company.

It is from the produce of this new right the king would have the proviſion for the conſuls aſſigned; to be fixed at 10,000 livres, and remitted yearly from quarter to quarter, by the ſheriffs and deputies of Marſeilles, to the deputies reſiding in the ſaid ports, to be paid and employed conformably to the tarif.

The king enacting moreover, that, in regard to the extraordinary expences, they ſhall not be fixed by the conſuls, but purſuant to a deliberation of the body of the nation, aſſembled for that purpoſe in the accuſtomed manner; prohibiting them to deliver their ordinance of payment otherwiſe, interdicting in like manner them, their officers, and domeſtics, to trade directly or indirectly, on pain of privation of their conſulſhip, and 3000 livres fine.

The rights of the French conſulſhips in Spain have alſo been regulated ſince the year 1660, by an order of the 20th of January.

For a long time theſe rights were received by the conſuls at the rate of one half per cent. on goods belonging to the king's ſubjects, coming in or out of the ports of Spain, where the conſul reſided; they from time to time obtaining, according to their credit and favour, commiſſions for the payment of this right to them.

But the king being informed that this right could not be exacted in any port of Spain, without ſenſible prejudice to his ſubjects trading there; and moreover, that the old cuſtom was, for the conſuls to receive only ſome ſmall ſums on every French ſhip arriving there; revoked and annulled all commiſſions, 'till that time granted to any conſulſhips of Spain for the right of one half per cent. and prohibiting the bearers of them to meddle with the office of the ſaid conſuls; as alſo them, and all others inveſted with the office of conſuls, to levy the ſaid right, under pretence of thoſe commiſſions: enacting, that, for the future, the ſaid conſuls ſhould receive for their rights as follows, viz.

Thoſe in the ports of the provinces of Biſcay and Galicia, 24 rials of plate for every French ſhip and bark.

Thoſe of the ports of Huelus, Seville, San Lucar de Barameda, Port St Mary, and Cadiz, 70 rials of plate for every ſhip; and 32 rials for every bark, ſeytie, and polacre.

Laſtly, thoſe of all the ports ſituated within the ſtreights of Gibraltar, as far as Catalonia, and that included, 36 rials of plate for every ſhip, and 24 for every bark, ſeytie and polacre, to be received, on the lading or unlading of the ſaid ſhips, in manner as had been always practiſed before the war between the two crowns.

It may not be unacceptable to recite here the ordinances of Lewis XIV. one of July 1686, the other of February the year following, relating to the French conſuls in foreign countries.

By the firſt, the king having been informed that his conſuls, reſiding in the ports of his allies, gave certificates not only to the French dwelling out of the kingdom, but even to foreigners, who by that means ſailed ſecurely, without fear of the Barbary corſairs, to whom the king had given peace; which deprived his ſubjects of the advantage that they ought to have in trade over other nations, who had not thoſe paſſports; to remedy this abuſe, prohibited all French conſuls to give ſuch certificates, for the future, on any pretence whatſoever; enjoining his ambaſſadors and reſidents in the ſtates where the ſaid conſuls are eſtabliſhed, to ſee the ſaid ordinance obeyed.

By the ſecond, the king ſtrictly prohibits all maſters and ſailors of his ſubjects ſhips, being in foreign parts, from going before the judges there, on account of differences they may have with each other, on pain of puniſhment for diſobedience; enjoining them to apply to the conſuls there eſtabliſhed, who are to adminiſter the moſt ſpeedy and ſummary juſtice to them in their power, and without coſt.

Of the nature of the conſular power in Spain.

The conſulſhip court in Spain is conſtituted of a prior and conſuls. Before the diſcovery of the Weſt-Indies, this court of the conſulſhips was erected in the cities of Burgos, Barcelona, Valencia, Saragoſſa, and the town of Bilboa: afterwards, the trade increaſing ſo conſiderably at Seville, it was eſtabliſhed there under the emperor Charles V. and confirmed by his ſon king Philip II. under ſeveral ordinances. By the firſt inſtitution, the merchants of Seville trading to the Weſt-Indies were to chuſe every year a prior and two conſuls; but, experience proving it inconvenient that they ſhould all three come into the employment together, it was ordered, in the year 1588, that he who had been ſecond conſul one year, ſhould be firſt conſul the next, and ſo only a prior and ſecond conſul was erected.

The prior and conſul here cauſe proclamation to be made on the ſecond day of the year in the India-Houſe, at the town-hall and exchange, for all thoſe who will be preſent at the chuſing of electors, to appear the next day after the Epiphany in the hall of the conſulſhip, which is in the India-Houſe.

The day after the Epiphany, the judge of the appeals, prior and conſuls, meet with all the merchants trading to the Weſt-Indies, at two in the afternoon, at the chamber of the conſulſhip; where, in the preſence of a notary, every one delivers in the names of 30 traders, written down, to the judge of appeals, who puts them into a box, to compare them at laſt.

The preſident of the India-Houſe may and ought to be preſent, and then the papers with the names are delivered to him;

him; yet this does not exclude the judge of appeals, without whom no election can be made. Before I proceed to give an account of the form uſed in the election, it will not be amiſs to acquaint the reader, that it has often been put off, for ſome time, by reaſon of the prior and conſuls in being having ſome matter of moment to determine, whereof they had full knowledge, and which would take up new ones much time to be duly informed in. But,

This prorogation cannot be made without expreſs order from the council of the Indies. In the year 1608 it was propoſed to chuſe a prior for two years, and the conſuls for three; but this did not take effect. There has alſo been an attempt made to alter the form of the election, which not ſucceeding need not be mentioned.

None are allowed to vote but married men, widowers, or houſekeepers, who are above 25 years of age, excluding all ſervants, clerks, and ſtrangers; but, as to theſe laſt, neither their ſons nor grandſons are allowed to elect, or be elected. The day after the electors are choſen, they are to meet in the ſame chamber of the conſulſhip, where every one ſhall ſwear before the judge of appeals, prior, and conſuls, that they will proceed in their election according to conſcience, and name ſuch perſons as they believe will be zealous for the honour of God, do juſtice, and ſtudy the general good of the community. At leaſt 20 or 30 of the electors muſt be preſent to make the election. Having taken the oath as above, every one delivers in the perſon's name in writing, for whom he votes to be prior, to the preſident, if there; otherwiſe to the judge of the appeals, who throws them into an urn, then takes them out again, and, being laid on the table, the ſecretary counts whether there be as many as electors preſent.—Then the preſident, or judge, opens and reads them, the ſecretary ſetting down how many votes every man has; and he who has the majority carries the point.

If any two have equal votes, the judge of appeals decides the matter. The prior and conſuls of the foregoing year have no vote, unleſs they be choſen electors. The conſul is choſen in the ſame manner. As ſoon as elected, the judge of appeals tenders the oath to the new prior and conſul, that they will duly exerciſe their office for the ſervice of God and the king, the advantage of the traders, and do impartial juſtice; which done, the old ones quit their places, and the new ones take poſſeſſion of them. The whole tranſaction is recorded by the ſecretary, and ſigned by the preſident, judge of appeals, late prior and conſul, and all the electors preſent. The electors continue for two years. If any one of them be ſick, or abſent upon any other lawful account, he may ſend his vote in writing, ſealed up. It is not permitted to chuſe father and ſon, two brothers, two partners, nor thoſe that were prior and conſul together ſome years before, to exerciſe thoſe employments.

Merchants trading to the Weſt-Indies, who farm or inſure the cuſtoms, may not be candidates for prior or conſul; or, if they farm, after they are in poſſeſſion of theſe places, they forfeit them. The prior and conſul that go out remain as counſellors to thoſe that come in, and the electors chuſe five deputies to aſſiſt them in all their buſineſs. Thoſe that are choſen prior, conſul, counſellor, or deputy, and refuſe to ſtand, are fined 50,000 maravedies, and obliged to ſerve the office too. They are obliged to ſit thrice a week, that is, on Mondays, Wedneſdays, and Fridays, two hours at a time; in winter from nine to eleven, in ſummer from eight 'till ten; and, if any of theſe days be a holyday, the ſitting is put off 'till the next day. The prior and one conſul, or the two conſuls without the prior, may diſpatch the ſame buſineſs as if all three were together, provided they agree in their opinions; for, if they differ, then the prior, or eldeſt conſul of the foregoing year, or the next in authority, is admitted, and has a caſting vote. The ſame is done when two of the three do not agree in judgment. All three ought never to be abſent, at once, but, if they are, then thoſe of the foregoing year act as if they were in preſent poſſeſſion.

By grants from the emperor Charles V. and his ſon prince Philip, in his name, the prior and conſuls have authority to try all cauſes relating to merchandize carried to the Weſt-Indies, or brought thence by merchants, companies, or factors; to buying and ſelling bills of exchange, negociating aſſurances, adjuſting matters of accounts, freight, or factorage, and all other things belonging to the trade of the Indies or Spain, and in all civil cauſes about meum and tuum; but, if the trial be criminal, they are to refer it to the chamber of juſtice in the India-Houſe. And this power is privative, ſo that any trader may refuſe to ſubmit to any then in court, and the prior and conſuls ſhall put a ſtop to any proceedings of this nature.---Only thoſe are allowed the privileges and immunities of merchants, who trade by ſea, and ſell by wholeſale, which employment is looked upon as honourable; whereas thoſe that ſell by retail are accounted mean in compariſon to the others, and, accordingly, are excluded from this corporation of traders to the Indies.

This court of conſulſhip, alſo, is authorized to take cognizance of all bankers, or others, that break. Factors of merchants trading to the Weſt-Indies, though they live out of Seville, may be obliged to appear before the court of conſulſhip, to give an account of what they have been intruſted with. The prior and conſuls are to be reſpected as the king's judges, and may fine any perſon that ſhall fail therein, as far as 30,000 maravedies, provided the perſon that received the affront does not vote in his own behalf; but, if the affront was more than words, then the court of the India-Houſe ſhall puniſh the offender according to law. The prior and conſuls may ſummon all, or any of the traders, for affairs relating to the conſulſhip, and fine ſuch as ſhall refuſe to come. They are allowed a lawyer, as aſſeſſor, with a ſalary, a door-keeper, or cryer, as alſo the chuſing their alguazil and eſcrivano, the eſcrivano's of flota's and armada's, but theſe to be approved of by the preſident. They have a ſecretary, and a keeper of the exchange, comptrollers, receivers, and other officers. They may ſend any perſon or perſons to court about their buſineſs, and aſſign them an allowance all the while they are following of it. They had formerly the chief management of the flota's and armada's, but, at preſent, only propoſe what ſtowage will be requiſite. They have a full power to execute all ſentences given by them, and, therefore, are allowed an alguazil of their own; and all perſons are required not to obſtruct, but to be aiding and aſſiſting to them, that their buſineſs may be ſpeedily diſpatched, without the delays cauſed by lawyers. From the court of conſulſhip there lies an appeal to the judge by office, or commiſſioner of the India-Houſe, yearly appointed for this purpoſe by the king, who, together with two ſuch India merchants as he ſhall think fit, having ſworn to do impartial juſtice, ſhall decide the matter, as is uſual among merchants, without bills or anſwers, or any writings of lawyers, but only upon matter of fact made out; and, if they ratify the judgment given, there lies no further appeal; but, if they reverſe the former decree, and either party require it, the ſame judge of appeals is to grant a review, aſſociating to himſelf two other merchants, who are to be ſworn as the two others were, and their reſolution is final, ſo that there is no appeal from their judgment. The appeal from the prior and conſuls muſt be brought within five days after judgment given, and ſo the ſecond appeal, in caſe the firſt judgment be reverſed. The judge of appeals, if he think fit, may adviſe with a lawyer, but is not obliged to it.

The court of conſulſhip is to take an account of ſhips caſt away in the Weſt-India voyage, and to particularize where they were loſt, and what plate or merchandize was ſaved. Then the preſident and commiſſioners of the India-Houſe ſend their orders to the magiſtrates where their ſhips were caſt away, for ſecuring the effects, which being brought, the prior and conſuls ſhall receive what belongs to the merchants trading to the Weſt-Indies incorporate, to deliver it to them; but that which appertains to other merchants not incorporate, is to be delivered them by order of the chamber of direction. If ſhips be loſt in the Weſt-Indies, the king's officers there take charge of what is ſaved, or elſe the magiſtrates of the place, and return the value to the India-Houſe, where it is delivered to the owners. This court may appoint perſons in all the ports of the Indies, to ſee their ordinances fulfilled. Their papers are to be kept in a cheſt, with three keys, the prior and each conſul to keep one, that none may be taken away without the knowledge of them all. The prior and conſuls are ſubordinate to the India-Houſe, but no way to be moleſted by the commiſſioners in the execution of any thing that belongs to them. The court of conſulſhip is ever joined, in all public acts, with that of the India-Houſe, as the body to the head; and, when the prior and conſuls come into the chamber of direction, they ſit upon the bench up the ſteps, on the right-hand, and have a bench covered with a carpet in the chapel, to hear ſermons; but, when they go to other churches, they have chairs on the right-hand, the comptrollers of haberia's, or the duty for convoys, being on the left, and the viſitors ſit on the right, below the conſuls. When they appear abroad in public, the viſitor's coach goes firſt, then that of the comptrollers of haberia's, then that of the conſuls, next the judges, or commiſſioners, of both chambers, and laſtly the preſident.

All commodities, ſhipped for the Indies, are to pay one in the thouſand, above other duties, for the proper uſe of the court of conſulſhip, which appoints a receiver for it, who is to give an account of the produce to the preſident and commiſſioners, as alſo of the other revenues coming in, as office-fees, and ſome ſettled revenues. Whoſoever has traded to the Indies above a year, or ſends for the firſt time to the value of above 1000 ducats, is obliged to pay this one per thouſand. The king has granted the court of conſulſhip the perpetual government of the exchange. In all matters relating to trade, generally the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe take the advice of the prior and conſuls, who, upon all occaſions, have been very ſerviceable to the crown, advancing very conſiderable ſums of money, as neceſſities have required.

Remarks.

From the foregoing narrative, in regard to the nature of the conſular office, as exerciſed by the Engliſh, the French, and the

the Spaniards, it is obvious that their inſtitution is a kind of court-merchant, to determine affairs relating to commerce in a ſummary way.

With regard to France and Spain, this office, we may obſerve, is to be conſidered in a two-fold light, that is to ſay, in a domeſtic, as well as a foreign one; but, in reſpect to England, only in the latter, we having no conſular eſtabliſhment within the kingdom, derived from our own laws and conſtitution, to ſettle and adjuſt matters of diſpute and controverſy between traders in that eaſy, unexpenſive, and ſummary manner, that thoſe other nations have judged requiſite to inſtitute. Conſuls, indeed, who are reſident in England from foreign States, act upon the ſame principles as our Britiſh conſuls that reſide in foreign States; but theſe are not our own domeſtic conſuls, ſuch as are eſtabliſhed in ſeveral of the provinces of France, or of the nature of that office, as we have deſcribed the ſame to be exerciſed in Spain. For theſe are a ſpecies of courts of judicature, eſtabliſhed and ſet apart wholly to conſider of, and determine upon, matters of trade and navigation, as well between natives and natives, as between natives and foreigners.

Inſtitutions of this kind, as eſtabliſhed in France, certainly anſwer very good purpoſes to the trading intereſts of that kingdom, in two eſſential reſpects; (1.) As they prevent tedious litigations at law between traders; and, (2.) As they bring the conſular courts familiarly acquainted with the affairs of commerce, which renders their deciſions eaſy to the court, and no way vexatious or expenſive to the ſubject. For, as theſe determinations are all recorded in theſe courts, from time to time, when any point occurs that may not have been determined by their predeceſſors, or which may be a new caſe, they have from an index of references, immediate recourſe to caſes, as ſimilar as they can find, and form a judgment therefrom, in the manner that our courts of law make their deciſions, from conſulting a ſimilitude of caſes of their learned predeceſſors, and weighing them conſiſtently with the fundamental principles of law. But, theſe conſular courts being reſtrained merely to matters of trade, they become more ſkilful, judicious, and expert, in this one ſpecies of caſes, than any court could poſſibly be, wherein they undertake the deciſion of caſes of every kind. Nor are courts of this nature eſtabliſhed only in France and Spain, but, in moſt other trading nations, merchant-judges are appointed for the trying of merchants affairs ſummarily. And, perhaps, if ſuch courts were duly eſtabliſhed and authorized in Great-Britain and Ireland, they certainly might and would prove highly beneficial, not only according to the opinion of ſome of the moſt judicious merchants this kingdom ever had, but according to the ſentiments of our ableſt ſtateſmen, who have well underſtood the nature of trade, and have been for removing all clogs and obſtructions to it's proſperity. This matter, however, we ſhall not here enter into, but defer it's conſideration to the article MERCHANT-COURT, where we ſhall give the ſentiments of thoſe who have favoured a deſign of this nature, ſhew how theſe eſtabliſhments are regulated in foreign countries, and humbly ſubmit our own remarks to the reader's judgment.

As the affairs of our trade, and the intereſts, rights, and privileges of our merchants and ſeamen in foreign countries, are ordinarily left to the conduct of our Britiſh conſuls, they cannot be too well qualified for this province: nor is it of leſs dignity and honour to our merchants reſiding in other countries, to our maſters of ſhips, and to our ſeamen in general, than benefit and advantage to them, and to our trade in general, to have perſons of abilities appointed for ſtations of ſo great importance to the kingdom. There have been inſtances of ſome gentlemen that have been appointed in this capacity, who, being well qualified for their poſt, and having a happy talent at reconciling differences between their countrymen and foreigners, and ſupporting their ſtation with a becoming dignity, have prevented great broils and heart-burnings between kingdoms, which might have broke out into a flame, had the proper accompliſhments been wanting for ſuch a truſt.

Beſides, a conſul being always on the ſpot, daily converſant with the practice of trade, and with the traders of thoſe nations, as well as of his own, if he is a man of diſcernment, he will not be at a loſs to diſcover what difficulties and diſcouragements the trade of his own nation labours under, and what advantages our rivals may have over us, by an infraction of treaties, which may be winked at, highly to our diſadvantage, and greatly to the benefit of our competitors. But a conſul of judgment and ſagacity, who does not keep at ſuch a diſtance from practical traders, as an ambaſſador, may have greater opportunities of knowing our grievances in commerce, and of pointing out the proper way and means to redreſs them, than one who repreſents his ſovereign in a ſuperior capacity. Wherefore it ſeems reaſonable, that gentlemen of this claſs ſhould have appointments from the government, as well as thoſe other privileges to which they are intitled, as in Turkey, a certain duty on the goods loaded and unloaded; and others a ſtipend on the ſhipping only.

And, with all humble ſubmiſſion to my ſuperiors in judgment, I would beg leave to ſuggeſt the following queſtions.

1. Whether the capacity of a conſulſhip may not be looked upon as a proper preparatory ſtation to that of an ambaſſador in ordinary at foreign courts, eſpecially where the intereſt of our trade is always at ſtake?

2. Whether a gentleman, having acted in this ſtation, in a manner no way derogatory to the intereſt and honour of his country, may not reaſonably be preſumed to underſtand our commercial intereſts better than one who has never had opportunities of being practically informed in affairs of this nature; and whether a perſon thus qualified, and by means of a ſuitable appointment from the government, may not be better enabled to ſupport the dignity of the office than is done in general at preſent, give proper intelligence, in regard to matters of commerce, either to ambaſſadors in ordinary or extraordinary, and to the adminiſtration, &c. and thereby far more contribute to the intereſt of trade than they can at preſent?

3. Whether, if this poſt was conſtituted as introductory to a higher ſtation under the crown, it might not prove an inducement to the younger branches of our moſt noble and honourable families to make the ſtudies of commerce one eſſential part of their erudition?

4. Whether, if this practice was introduced, many of the ſons of thoſe honourable families would not chuſe to be bred merchants, in order firſt to become conſuls, and afterwards reſidents, envoys, ambaſſadors, &c. at foreign courts?

5. Whether thoſe young perſons of great families and diſtinction would not hereby reap far greater benefits and advantages by travel in this manner into foreign countries (for conſulſhips might be ſo judiciouſly ſhifted from time to time, ſo as to give a young gentleman of erudition an opportunity of ſeeing ſeveral of the principal nations in Europe, and underſtanding their trade) and thus, by his travel and experience in the trade of various nations, be able to accumulate ſuch a fund of commercial knowlege, as could not fail to accompliſh him to repreſent his ſovereign hereafter, with all deſireable dignity and ſplendor at foreign courts, return to his native country with applauſe, and become as conſpicuous for the care and protection of the trade of his country at home, as he was abroad?

6. Whether this might not prove the means of rendering the name of a merchant as honourable in this kingdom as it ever ought to be, according to what is repreſented under the article of COMMERCE: and whether, in conſequence hereof, we might not hope to ſee the grand repreſentative of the nation filled with thoſe who underſtand trade, as well foreign as domeſtic, and from whom, when they had done with the practice of it, we might expect the ſoundeſt judgment, in regard to the commerce of the nation in general, and his majeſty the beſt councils upon thoſe important occaſions? See the article MERCHANT-COURT.

CONTRIBUTIONS and AVERAGES, [ſee AVERAGE.] is commonly uſed by the law-merchant, for that contribution which is made towards loſſes ſuſtained, where goods are caſt into the ſea for the ſafeguard of the ſhip, &c. during a tempeſt: 'tis ſo called, becauſe allotted after the rate of every man's goods aboard.

By the antient laws and cuſtoms of the ſea in a ſtorm, on extreme neceſſity, the goods, wares, guns, &c. may, by conſulting the mariners, be thrown overboard for preſervation of the ſhip; and, if they conſent not, the maſter may, notwithſtanding, command the caſting overboard what goods, &c. he ſhall think fitting, for ſafety of the reſt, if the danger continues: but, if there be a merchant or ſupercargo aboard, on requeſt he ſhould begin firſt; then the mariners, who ſhall anſwer double, if they embezzle to their own uſe. And, if the merchant refuſe, the maſter and mariners may proceed without him, taking care that things of leaſt value and greateſt weight be flung overboard: if the ſhip happen to arrive ſafe at her port, the maſter and greateſt part of the crew are to make oath, that the goods were caſt overboard for ſafety of the ſhip; the remainder, whether they pay freight, muſt come into the average.

All the parties intereſted are to bear the loſs by a general contribution; and a maſter, or purſer, ſhall contribute for preſervation; alſo the paſſengers for what they have in the ſhip; and where they have no goods, in regard they are a burthen to it, 'tis ſaid, an eſtimate ſhall be made of their apparel, rings, &c. towards a contribution for the loſs; and generally money, jewels, cloaths, and all things (except the cloaths borne on a man's body, or victuals, &c.) are liable to contribution and average. And the goods loſt ſhall be valued, and alſo thoſe ſaved; which being known, a proportionable value ſhall be contributed by the goods ſaved, towards reparation of thoſe loſt; and, if any of the goods ſaved are ſpoiled or injured, the ſame muſt come into the contribution for the damage received.

If there happen to be plate, &c. in cheſt or bale, at the time of caſting over the goods, and a ſupercargo aboard, he is to notice it to the maſter or mariners.

And, as to the eſtimation in theſe caſes, ſome have held, that regard is had, not to what might be got by the goods loſt, but the damage ſuſtained, and are therefore to be valued only

at what they coſt: but others ſay, they are to be valued at what they might be ſold for, when caſt overboard. According to the Lex Mercatoria of Malins, this order is to be obſerved; if caſt overboard before half the voyage is performed, they are to be valued at the price they coſt; but, if after, at the price of the reſt, when ſold. And the cuſtom is now general, for the goods ſaved and loſt, to be eſtimated at what thoſe ſaved are ſold for, freight and other neceſſary charges firſt deducted.

If a ſhip's gear or apparel be loſt by ſtorm, 'tis not within the average, unleſs in the avoiding a danger, as flinging the maſt overboard, &c. which is to be made good by the ſhip and lading pro rata. The laws of Oleron ordain, that in ſuch caſe the maſter is firſt to conſult thoſe aboard, who have goods and merchandize in the veſſel.

But, if any perſons aboard deſire the maſter to put into any port for fear of pirates, and in going out he loſes anchors or cables, they ſhall pay for them.

The goods caſt overboard to lighten the ſhip make no derelict, ſo as to be forſaken, or wilfully caſt away. If ſuch goods ſhipped in England are taken up by another Engliſh ſhip at ſea, an action lies to recover the goods: and any being thrown overboard, and afterwards recovered, the contribution ceaſes, ſaving for the damage received. If, before they are recovered, the owner hath had an average, he is to reſtore the money, deducting for the loſs by the damage.

Some ſea ordonnances require ſuch of the ſhip's utenſils to be firſt thrown overboard, as are not of the greateſt ſervice, then the ſeamens cheſts, and after them other things: yet ſome things ſeem to be excepted in ſome caſes, as cannon and other inſtruments, or proviſions to relieve a city in time of war, the law preferring the urgent ſervice of the prince, to the ſubject's life.

If a ſhip be indiſcreetly laden above the birth-mark, and an ejection happen, no contribution ſhall be made, but ſatisfaction made by the ſhip's maſter or owners. Or if forbidden goods be put on board, and happen to be the cauſe of damage, the maſter ſhall bear the loſs, and may alſo be proſecuted; or, if he take in things without leave of the freighters, and a ſtorm ariſe, in which part of their goods are thrown overboard, he only ſhall anſwer it; nor ſhall contribution be had for goods brought ſecretly on board, unknown to the maſter or purſer, if they are ejected.

If, a ſhip being taken at ſea, the maſter, to get the ſhip and lading out of the enemy's hands, engages to pay a ſum of money, and ſurrenders himſelf as a ſecurity, he ſhall be redeemed at the coſt and charges of the ſhip and lading, according to every man's intereſt, by a contribution; as alſo if a pirate takes part to ſpare the reſt; but, if by violence, the reſt are not ſubject to average, unleſs ſo agreed by the merchants: though, where an enemy takes goods, the remainder ſhall be liable to average.

Contribution is to be paid for the pilot's fee, that hath brought a ſhip into port for her ſafeguard; and likewiſe for raiſing the ſhip off the ground, when there is no fault in the maſter. And, if damage be received by two ſhip's ſtriking againſt each other, and there be no fault in either, contribution is to be made by a juſt equality; but, if there be fault on either ſide, full ſatisfaction ſhall be made the merchant injured: if one ſhip periſhes, as the loſs cannot be proportioned, there can be no contribution; as otherwiſe a perſon might ſet an old weak ſhip againſt a ſtrong one, for an extraordinary recompence. Alſo this hinders not the owners of a ſuffering ſhip from bringing their action to recover damage; but, if done in the night, the party muſt prove he made out light or fire, or gave other notice, by crying or calling out.

As the common law eſteems the ſhip's cargo ſecurity for the freight due, ſo the maritime law adjudges them for the average, 'till which is ſettled, the maſter is not to deliver them; if therefore the merchant will not agree to it when ſettled, the maſter may detain the lading; and may bar any action at law in that caſe, by pleading the ſpecial matter.

If a lighter, or the ſhip's boat, having part of the cargo, periſh, and the ſhip be ſaved, contribution is to be made; but, if the contrary happen, none is recoverable.

Where paſſengers caſt goods out of a ferry-boat, in a tempeſt, to preſerve their lives, the owners ſhall have no remedy; unleſs the boatman have ſurcharged the boat, againſt whom they may have an action.

After a general ſhipwreck is no contribution. An average is paid to maſters, for taking care of goods, expreſſed in the bills of lading. See BILLS of Lading.

CONVOYS at ſea, and CRUIZERS, for the better ſecuring the trade of this kingdom.

A convoy ſignifies one or more men of war, to accompany and protect merchant-ſhips in time of war; and cruizers are ſhips of war appointed to croſs the ſeas to and fro, particularly on the coaſts of this kingdom, for clearing the ſame from enemies.

REMARKS

Containing ſome caſes determined in our courts of judicature, relative to CONVOYS, &c.

A ſhip, inſured to a certain place abroad, was warranted to depart with convoy: and, being loſt, an action of the caſe was brought, wherein the jury found a ſpecial verdict to this purpoſe, viz. That the ſhip departed out of the river Thames under convoy; from which ſhe was ſeparated about the Iſle of Wight by bad weather, and put in at Torbay, and was detained there by contrary winds; that the maſter, expecting to meet the convoy, ſailed out, but could not meet with her for ſtreſs of weather; that the ſhip was taken by the French, and ſo loſt, &c. Here the queſtion was, concerning the true meaning of thoſe words, viz. Warranted to depart with convoy?

The counſel for the plaintiff inſiſted, that no more was intended than a departure with convoy, at firſt ſetting out; which being provided, and ſo found by the verdict, they had fulfilled their warranty. And that what the maſter did afterwards, ought not to prejudice the plaintiff; for the maſter is in nature of a common carrier, to convey goods from one port to another; but as 'tis here found, he did not miſbehave himſelf, for he came forth to meet his convoy, and did endeavour it, but was hindered by ſtreſs of weather. And ſuppoſe the words had been, warranted to depart with convoy, and ſo to continue to the end of the voyage (dangers of the ſea only excepted) if the ſhip ſhould happen to be taken by the enemy, that is a danger at ſea; or if the convoy leave her, being commanded another way by the king; or in caſe ſhe be aſſaulted and will not fight; the inſurers ſhall loſe nothing in either of theſe caſes: for the words ſignify, that all neceſſary care ſhall be taken to preſerve the ſhip which was done in this caſe.

For the defendant it was ſaid, that by theſe words, the ſhip ought to go all the way with convoy, and not from the river only, where there is no danger from an enemy, for that could never be the meaning or intention of the parties, and that ſhe ſhould be left at ſea where there is danger. This agreement is but a parole contract, and muſt be conſtrued according to the minds of the parties, and not according to the ſtrict ſenſe of the words: as, when a perſon is obliged to ſecure a thing under ſuch terms and circumſtances, the manner of the promiſe muſt be obſerved and purſued. So if a promiſe be made to deliver goods at London, and for that purpoſe they are put in a boat, which is afterwards loſt, though the party uſed his endeavour, that ſhall not diſcharge him, becauſe, having undertaken the thing on his part, he ought to perform it.

'Tis found by the jury, that the maſter departed out of the bay, to meet the convoy, which muſt be to ſail with and be protected by her the reſt of the voyage. Here was a ſeverance by bad weather: now the ſhip might have come up to the convoy, or that to the ſhip; ſhe did not ſtir 'till the ſhip was taken, therefore, the other parties being to provide convoy, here is a breach of the agreement on their ſide, which will hinder their bringing this action, eſpecially as 'tis an entire agreement, and no precedent condition.

The court declared, that the word depart is only terminus a quo; and, if the ſhip had departed from London, and came back again by fraud, that had been no departure within the intention of this agreement. But, as 'tis found, the voyage was begun with convoy: the ſeparation afterwards by ſtreſs of weather, both endeavouring to ſave themſelves, and afterwards to find each other; and there being no fraud found in the maſter; judgment was given for the plaintiff. Though it might have been otherwiſe determined, if the convoy had run from the ſhip, and by that means ſhe had been taken.

By 6 Ann. c. 13. 'tis enacted, That, for the better preſerving ſhips employed in the trade of Great-Britain, over and above the ſhips of war for the line of battle, and convoys for remote parts, forty-three men of war ſhall be employed as cruizers, viz. ſix third rates, twenty fourth rates, thirteen fifth rates, and four ſixth rates, to cruize in ſuch ſtations as the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty ſhall direct; nine to be on the north-eaſt of Great-Britain, and three on the north-weſt coaſts thereof. To be careened at leaſt three times a year, and the ſeamen not to be turned over to any other ſhips: but on neceſſity, any of the ſaid cruizers, by appointment of the lord admiral, &c. to be employed in the line of battle on this ſide of Cape Finiſterre; otherwiſe to be always uſed in home cruizing, except when they are careening or refitting.

The lord high admiral, or commiſſioners of the admiralty, to appoint a commiſſioner of the navy, or other perſon, to ſuperviſe theſe cruizers, and ſee all neceſſaries be immediately provided when they come into port, and, when refitted, to order them to ſea again. And they ſhall ſend up to the admiralty, within eight days of the meeting of the parliament, an account digeſted into eight columns, relating to the ſaid ſhips. And the lord admiral, &c. ſhall, every year during the war, appoint the aforeſaid ſhips to be cruizers or convoys on this ſide Cape Finiſterre; and, when any happen to be taken or loſt, another of the ſame rate to be appointed to ſupply it's room.

If any ſhip of war, privateer, &c. ſhall be taken as prize, and ſo adjudged in the courts of admiralty, the officers and ſeamen, actually then on board, ſhall, after condemnation, have the ſole intereſt in it to their own uſe, without being

further accountable; the prize to be ſold by thoſe whom they ſhall under their hands and ſeals appoint, and the whole produce divided among them as directed by proclamation.

But, if the lord high admiral, &c. ſhall think fit to take into her majeſty's ſervice any ſuch prize-ſhip, it ſhall be appraiſed by officers appointed: and, on producing ſuch appraiſement, with a certificate of the delivery of the ſhip ſo taken, the commiſſioners of the navy ſhall make out bills for paying the full value, to be diſtributed as aforeſaid.

And, for a further encouragement, the treaſurer of the navy ſhall pay, upon bills made forth by the commiſſioners of the navy, to the officers, ſeamen, and others, on board any man of war, &c. in ſuch action, 5 l. for every man that was living on board the ſhip taken as prize, at the beginning of the engagement; the number to be proved by the oaths of three or more of the chief officers, &c. belonging to the prize at the time of her being taken, before the mayor, or chief magiſtrate of the port whither ſuch prize is brought: who is required to adminiſter ſuch oath, and forthwith grant a certificate without fee or reward. On producing which certificate, and a copy of the condemnation, the commiſſioners ſhall, within fifteen days, make out bills for the amount of ſuch bounty, payable to the captors, to be divided among them, according to the proclamation.

Nothing herein ſhall exempt any ſhips, goods, or merchandize, taken as prize, from payment of cuſtoms, or being ſubject to ſuch reſtrictions as the ſame are liable to by the laws of the realm: but, when brought into port, ſhall be unladen in preſence of the cuſtom-houſe officers for ſuch port, and kept in her majeſty's warehouſes 'till appraiſed and ſold. The captors may bring appraiſers to view, appraiſe, and buy them at reaſonable times, and, when ſold, the cuſtoms to be paid before delivery, &c.

All appraiſements and ſales of ſuch ſhips and goods to be made by agents named in equal numbers by the commander, officers, and ſeamen; if the captain appoints one or more perſons, then the other officers, or majority, ſhall name the like number, and all the ſhip's company, the ſame number, to act in their behalf. And after ſale public notice to be given, of the day appointed for payment of the ſeveral ſhares, after which, if any remain in the agent's hands, or be not legally demanded within three years, it ſhall go to Greenwich hoſpital.

And the bills, made out, ſhall be payable to the agents appointed, to be diſtributed as abovementioned.

If any officer or ſeamen ſhall break bulk on board, or embezzle any of the goods, tackle, &c. he ſhall forfeit treble the value of all ſuch goods, &c. one third to Greenwich hoſpital, the other two thirds to the informer.

A proclamation iſſued purſuant to this act, appointing the diſtribution of prizes taken, and the bounty for taking ſhips of war, &c.

By which was ordered, That the net proceed of all prizes, and bounty-money for priſoners taken, be divided into eight equal parts; whereof three eights to the captain, one eighth ſhall go to a flag-officer, if actually on board. To the marine captains, ſea lieutenants, and maſter, one eighth, to be equally divided among them. The marine lieutenants, boatſwain, gunner, purſer, carpenter, maſter's mate, ſurgeons, and chaplain, one eighth. The midſhipmen, carpenter's mates, boatſwain's mates, gunner's mates, yeoman of the ſheets, coxſwain, quarter-maſter, quarter-maſter's mates, ſurgeon's mate, yeomen of the powder-room, and ſerjeants of marines, one eighth. The trumpeter's, quarter-gunners, carpenter's crew, ſteward, cook, armourer, ſteward's mate, cook's mate, gunſmith, cooper, ſwabber, ordinary trumpeter, barber, able ſeamen, ordinary ſeamen, volunteers by letter, and marine ſoldiers, two eighths.

Every captain of a man of war, taking any prize, is, as ſoon as may be, to tranſmit to the navy-board a true liſt of the names of all the officers, &c. on board, at the taking of ſuch prize.

And in caſe any ſea captain, inferior commiſſioner, &c. belonging to any ſhip of war, be abſent at the time of the capture, their ſhare ſhall be caſt into thoſe allowed to the trumpeter, quarter-gunners, &c.

The commiſſioners of the navy are required, after condemnation of the prize, to examine the before-mentioned liſt by the ſhip's muſter-book, and ſee that it agrees in all points, and, upon requeſt, ſhall forthwith grant a certificate of the truth of any liſt, to the agents named by the captors; and, on application, are to give the ſaid agents all ſuch liſts as they ſhall find requiſite, and to be otherwiſe aiding and aſſiſting to the ſaid agents as ſhall be neceſſary.

And the agents, appointed to make ſales of the prizes, ſhall notice the day and place for payment of the ſhares, in the London Gazette, that the notification of three years within which the ſhares are to be demanded, or to go to Greenwich hoſpital, may be aſcertained.

By order of council, made in the reign of king William III, and afterwards confirmed by queen Anne, a method was directed to be obſerved by the commanders of men of war, &c. in examining and ſecuring the priſoners taken on board privateers, for the more eaſy conviction of traitors and pirates, being Britiſh ſubjects, found in privateers belonging to the enemy.

All priſoners ſuſpected as ſuch to be carefully examined, and ſuch as own their country, ſhall ſign their examinations: alſo three or four of the ſhip's company ſhall take particular notice of ſuch as confeſs themſelves born Britiſh ſubjects, or are ſuſpected to be ſo by their language, or any other circumſtances, to the end they may ſpeak poſitively on a trial.

On taking any privateer, the papers, particularly the commiſſion, and roll de l'equipage, are carefully to be ſecured, and after particular notice taken of them, and being ſigned by three or four of the ſhip's crew, that they may be able to prove the ſame, if required: they are to be tranſmitted to the judge of the admiralty at Doctor's-Commons.

If no commiſſion be found, all the priſoners are to be carried before ſome magiſtrate as ſoon as brought on ſhore, with ſuch witneſſes as are thought requiſite, who can ſpeak to the manner of capture, &c. and thereupon all the ſaid priſoners ſhall be committed as pirates.

The captains, officers, and ſailors, of all ſhips appointed to convoy merchants ſhips or others, ſhall duly attend upon that charge without delay, according to their inſtructions; and whoſoever ſhall neglect their duty in this caſe, and not defend the ſhips and merchandize in their convoy, or ſhall extort any reward, from any merchant or maſter of ſhip for convoying ſuch ſhips belonging to his majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be obliged to make reparation of the damage, as the court of admiralty ſhall adjudge, and ſhall be otherwiſe puniſhed by a court martial. 13 Car. II. confirmed by 22 Geo. II.

Cruizers are commonly the beſt ſailing ſhips, appointed by the admiralty in certain latitudes, in order to meet with and deſtroy the enemy; they are commonly of the ſmalleſt rates, and muſt on no account leave their ſtations during the time for which they are appointed, except obliged ſo to do by ſtreſs of weather, or damage. It was enacted by 6 Ann. that, beſides the line of battle ſhips, forty and three others ſhould be employed as convoys and cruizers for the preſervation of the merchants ſhipping; four of which were to be third rates, ſixteen fourth rates, and the reſt of competent ſtrength to protect our trade.

See the article ASSURANCE, the latter part, in regard to CONVOYS.

COPIES of Authors. Under the articles BOOK and BOOKSELLER, we have endeavoured to ſhew the reaſonableneſs and equity of a law for the aſcertaining of literary property, as an encouragement to men of letters to devote their time to the ſervice of the public, by compoſing, printing, and publiſhing their works. And, having referred from thoſe heads to the article of COPIES, we ſhall here conclude what we have to urge further on that matter.

There is not, perhaps, in nature, a principle more juſt, more unexceptionable, and rational, than that every individual ſhould be intitled to the effects of his own labour and induſtry; and it is the duty as well as intereſt of the community to protect him therein: nor can any thing prove a greater obſtacle and diſcouragement to learning and ſcience, than the inſecurity and precarioufneſs of this kind of property; and therefore nothing can be more detrimental to civil ſociety, which is upheld by literature, and muſt degenerate into a ſtate of ſavage barbariſm and brutality without it; which is the condition of all countries, where learning is contemned.

It is not every one, indeed, that ſtands in need of turning author for gain's ſake; people of large and independent fortunes, when they are diſpoſed to ſerve the public in that capacity, commonly preſent their copies to bookſellers, or to ſome favourite to whom their worth may be an acceptable preſent. But theſe are but very few, when compared to the number of others, who have been obliged to ſtudy and publiſh their performances, from the reaſonable and laudable motives of private as well as public intereſt and advantage. For perſons, qualified and ſollicitous to ſerve communities this way to any laſting purpoſe, are ſeldom engaged in active life for their ſupport and maintenance; nor are ſuch ſtations rarely compatible with a life of cloſe ſtudy, which muſt be a life of ſolitude and retirement from that hurry and action required in the ordinary concerns of mankind.

Perſons thus naturally turned to contemplation, and ſponta-neouſly excluding themſelves from all benefits derived from the other ways of ſubſiſtence, have they not as good a right to the ſecurity of their literary property, as men have to any other kind of property whatſoever? Nay, as property of this kind is liable to be artfully pirated, either by piece-meal, or by curtailing, or enlarging with trifling additions, emendations, and corrections, as they are too often very falſly called; does not being thus liable to public plunder and outrage render literary property precarious enough, though the wiſdom of the legiſlature ſhould interpoſe to make the ſtrongeſt law to ſecure it?

The expence of a perſon's education, and the many years ſevere ſtudy and application, as well as general converſation, that every man muſt have the benefit of, before he is capable of producing any work of literature, whereby he can ſubſiſt with decency, ſufficiently ſhews how much more hazardous

the caſe of ſuch men is, who are deſirous to be uſeful in this capacity, than that of any other claſs in the community.

To deny ſubjects, who thus devote themſelves to the public ſervice, a due protection for their literary property by the laws, is tacitly to deny the utility of books and literature, to ſtrike at the foundation of all ſeminaries, colleges, and univerſities, for the promotion of letters: is it not in effect to declare rather in favour of the life of a ſavage-negro or Indian, than that of a civilized Briton?

'Although all learning, as the great lord Bacon obſerves, 'ſhould be referred to action, yet we may here eaſily fall into 'the error of ſuppoſing the ſtomach idle, becauſe it neither 'performs the office of motion, as the limbs; nor of ſenſe, 'as the head; though it digeſts and diſtributes to all the 'other parts: in like manner if a man thinks philoſophy 'and univerſality but idle ſtudies, he does not conſider that 'all profeſſions are from thence ſupplied.' For more matter on this head, ſee the articles BOOK and BOOKSELLER.

COPPER-Mines, are in various parts of the world more or leſs. The moſt noted are thoſe which Dr Edward Brown gave an account of to the Royal Society. They are as follow:

Hern-Ground is a little town in Hungary, ſeated very high between two hills, upon a part of land of the ſame name, an Hungarian mile diſtant from Newſol. In this town is the entrance into a large copper-mine very much digged.

I went in through a cuniculus, called Tach-ſtoln. The ſteep deſcents are made by ladders or trees ſet upright, with deep notches or ſtairs cut in them to ſtay the foot upon. They are not troubled with water, the mine lying high in the hill: but they are moleſted with duſt and damps.

The veins of this mine are large, many of them cumulate, and the ore very rich: in an hundred pounds of ore, they ordinarily find twenty pounds of copper; ſometimes thirty or forty, half copper, and even to ſixty in the hundred. Much of the ore is joined ſo faſt in the rock, that it is ſeparated with great difficulty. There are divers ſorts of ore, but the chief difference is between the yellow and the black; the yellow is pure copper ore, the black contains alſo a proportion of ſilver.

They find no quickſilver here; the mother of the ore is yellow, and the copper ore heated, and caſt into water, maketh it become like that of ſome ſulphureous baths.

They ſeparate the metal from the ore with great difficulty. The ore commonly paſſes 14 times through the furnace: ſometimes it is burned, and other times melted, ſometimes by itſelf, and ſometimes mixed with other minerals and it's own droſs.

There are divers ſorts of vitriol found in this mine, green, blue, reddiſh, and white. There is alſo a green earth, or ſediment of a green water called berggrun; there are likewiſe ſtones found of a beautiful green and blue colour, and one ſort on which turcoiſes have been found, therefore called the mother of the turcois.

There are alſo two ſprings of a vitriolic water, which are affirmed to turn into iron copper; they are called the Old and New Zimcut; theſe ſprings lie deep in the mine: the iron is ordinarily left in the water 14 days; I took divers pieces formerly iron, now appearing to be copper, out of the Old Zimcut; they are hard within the water, and do not totally loſe their figure, and fall into powder; they will eaſily melt without the addition of any other ſubſtance.

They make handſome cups and veſſels out of this ſort of copper.

There is a heap of copper ore by Darwent, near Keſwick; but, I ſuppoſe, the weather hath eaten out all the copper that was in it: it is reported by Mr Davies to Dr Liſter, that the thickneſs of the vein at Gouldſcope in Newlands was ſix feet; there are no ſhafts now in being, either at Newlands or Caldbeck; there are divers adits, but they are uſeleſs, the workmen have wrought down the ore far below them; there is part of an adit wrought at Caldbeck, but it is uncertain what it coſt finiſhing; for ſome ſtone may be wrought for 20 s. a fathom, and ſome of it may prove ſo hard, that it may coſt 10 l. a fathom.

A 1000 l. ſtock will be enough to begin with, to get ore at Caldbeck mines, and then there muſt be melting-houſes built, which coſt 500 l. or more; and, before copper be made ready for ſale at the market, and the work come to pay itſelf, it will be ſix or ſeven years at leaſt, and by that time 10,000 l. will be ſtock little enough.

The firſt work that was found, and wrought by the Dutchmen in Coniſton-Fells, is called low work; by an account given to Dr Liſter. It hath a ſtulm or ſhaft to draw water from the mine. This work was left good, and hath been wrought from the day to the evening end of the ſaid work, forty fathoms, or thereabouts; the ſeam or vein of copper ore, then left, was above three quarters of a yard thick of good ore; which ſeam or vein did go from the evening end to the morning end of the ſaid work, and was eſteemed 200 fathoms betwixt, wrought as the vein went; and was, when left, all near of a breadth or thickneſs. The copper ore, in this work, was mixed with ſome ſilver or lead ore.

The ſecond work, called white work, or new work, about forty fathom from the firſt, was wrought about ten fathom deep; the ſeam, then left, was about twenty-two inches of good copper ore.

The third is called tung-brow, a little diſtant from the laſt, being wrought about thirty fathom, and the ſeam about two feet thick of the like ore.

The fourth is called God's-bleſſing, or thurdlehead, being wrought about thirty fathom, and being from the laſt mine about a mile, the thickneſs of the ſeam of ore above a yard, when left off, and thought to be much of it gold ore.

The fifth, called hen-cragg, is a mile from the laſt, wrought about two fathoms; a ſmall ſeam, but excellent ore.

The ſixth work is called ſumy-work, at Lever's-water, at the water-ſide; and, a little above that, Hanch Clocker's work; a little above that, George Tower's and William Dixon's work; Bartle Clocker's work; near the laſt, Richard Tower's work; then John Saclock's work, and Hanch Mire's work; being in all ſeven works, and lie all together, and about a mile from the fifth work aboveſaid; and wrought about ten or twelve fathom; the ſeam of ore about ſixteen inches thick; the ſtone very ſoft, and the ore very rich, and much of the ſaid ore green. If the turn was drained, it is thought that all theſe ſeven works would come into one, and that it would be the beſt work that ever was in theſe parts.

The ſeventh work is called gray-cragg-beck, wrought but a little, the ſeam about eighteen inches thick, of as good ore as any of the other works.

The eighth is called John Dixon's work in Brumſel, was wrought about two fathom, the ſeam about twenty-four inches thick, and eſteemed the beſt ore, except God's-bleſſing; it is about half a mile from the laſt work.

The ninth work is called the wide work, or Thomas Hirn's work, wrought about 60 fathom, and left a ſeam above 26 inches thick, when the work was given over, of very good ore. It has a ſhaft or pump to draw the water away, and it is from the laſt work about two miles.

The tenth work is called three-kings in Tilburthwait, being three works, and wrought about forty fathom a-piece, the ſeam being about fourteen inches of very good ore.

Theſe are all the works that have been wrought in Coniſton-Fells: moſt of them have ſmall ſeams near the copper, of a grey ſort of ore in ſmall threads.

There are lately diſcovered three veins in Torverwel, and about ten in other places, and all within two miles of the firſt work in Coniſton-Fells, and as hopeful as thoſe that have been wrought in.

When the ore that was got at Coniſton came to be ſmelted at Keſwick, they found it ſo much to exceed the copper ore of either Caldbeck or Newlands, that they let fall theſe works, and ſent the workmen to Coniſton-Fells; ſo that there were 140 men kept conſtantly at the works there; and the ore that they got, did ſufficiently furniſh and ſupply the ſmelt-houſes at Keſwick.

The rate that was given for getting of copper ore, was according to it's goodneſs, from 8 s. a kibble, to 2 s. 6 d. every kibble being near a horſe-load in weight, it being firſt beaten very ſmall, waſhed and ſifted through an iron ſieve, then meaſured or weighed.

There was near the firſt work a ſtamp-houſe, which went by water, and ſeveral perſons were employed to bring the refuſe from each work, that the miners did throw away, to the ſtamp-houſe, where it was ſtamped, waſhed, and ordered, and they had 2 s. 6 d. for their pains.

Of the ſmelting and refining of copper from it's native ore.

Under the article ASSAY, I have ſhewed the moſt facile methods of making trials in ſmall quantities of all kinds of ores, in order to aſcertain their value, either with regard to the purchaſe, or the ſale of them in large quantities. I ſhall now ſhew how the copper ores may be managed in the great works, ſo as to be duly ſmelted and refined for their copper.

REMARKS.

Previous to which, I judge it eligible to take notice of what the learned Mr Boyle ſays in regard to fluxes in general, which are made uſe of in the ſeparation of metals from their ores:

'I muſt not omit, ſays that great man, that though many, 'who make trials of ores, value their own flux powders, or 'ſuch as are cried up by others; yet they commonly ſeem 'to expect nothing from thoſe they prefer, more than that 'they ſhould facilitate the fuſion of the ore, as that which 'being once done, the metalline part will ſeparate by it's 'own weight, or, as it were, ſpontaneouſly. But yet, 'having purpoſely examined the matter more nicely, and 'compared the quantities of metal obtained from two portions, of equal weight, of the ſame ore, we found thoſe 'proportions conſiderably differed; though that which yielded leaſt metal, was fluxed down with a coſtly and well 'adapted powder. And I doubt not, but from other metalline ores, a greater quantity of pure metal is obtainable, 'by ſome flux powders, that are but little employed, or 'known, than by others that are much more common and 'famous. Thus two equal portions of the ſame lead ore, 'clear of ſpar, being the one reduced with a due weight of 'nitre and tartar fulminated together, afforded me a much

leſs

'leſs proportion of malleable lead, than the other, by means 'of half, or a quarter the quantity of filings of iron. And, 'to inſtance in a much more precious mineral than lead ore, 'I tried the like with ſome ounces of good native cinnabar, 'finely pulverized; by adding to one half a fixed alkali of 'tartar, and to the other a different flux-powder, we ob-'tained from the former twice as much mercury as we did 'from the latter, though diſtilled with a fixed alkali, even 'of a mineral nature.'

Theſe obſervations of that great experimentaliſt in philoſophy being attended to, it becomes the ſmelter in large works as well as the ſmall aſſayer of ores, to conſider well what kind of flux is the beſt adapted to the quality of the ore he is about to work upon. For there are divers ſorts of copper, as well as of other ores; that is, the metal may be ſometimes mixed with a ſtony, ſparry, ſandy, arſenical, or ſulphureous matter, &c. for, according to the nature of the heterogeneous matter wherewith the metal is entangled by nature, the metallurgiſt muſt accommodate his fluxing materials, otherwiſe he may be liable either to vitrify part of the metal, or ſo ſcorify the ſame, and lock it up in it's impure matter, that he cannot ſeparate it, eſpecially where tons of ore are worked at a time, but at a very great expence, and ſometimes, indeed, at the expence of the ruin of his furnace. This I have ſeen done by ſome unſkilful people, when they have been ſmelting ores in the great works, ſomething different in their nature to what they had been uſed to.

Wherefore, in order to make a right judgment what fluxing materials are the beſt adapted to the nature of the ore, when wrought in the large way, it is requiſite that judicious aſſays be previouſly made; in order to determine not only which affords the greateſt quantity of metal, but which ſeparates the ſame in the pureſt manner, and neareſt to it's deſired ſtate of malleability, and alſo which expedites the fuſibility, becauſe of the ſaving of fuel in the courſe of the operation: and, without thoſe previous aſſays, it is by no means adviſeable to ſmelt large quantities of ore, that have never been ſmelted before by the operators. But perſons well experienced in theſe things will, at the ſight of an ore, make a very good judgment, whether it is of the hard or the ſoft kind, and what methods are proper to be taken therewith, as by mixing various ſorts together, or by ſuiting their fluxing materials accordingly.

Of the general methods of ſeparating copper from it's ore.

After a proper aſſay, the ore is treated according to the ſubſtances with which it is mixed. If it abounds with ſilver, 'tis firſt gently warmed or calcined, 'till a great part of the ſulphur goes off in fume. At Goſlaw in Germany, they firſt break the ore in pretty large lumps, then burn it in an open fire of wood and charcoal; after which they beat it ſmaller, and warm it twice again: and thus make it fit for the firſt furnace, where it is melted into a ſtony red matter, called copper-ſtone; which, being again roaſted and melted, becomes black copper; this they roaſt again, in order ſtill more to free it from it's ſulphur, and now it is in a fit ſtate to be nealed for it's ſilver; which they extract, by adding four parts of lead to one of the black copper, then melting them together in a ſtrong fire, and caſting the maſs into moulds, where it hardens into blocks. Theſe are carried to another furnace, and buried in charcoal; giving only a gentle heat, 'till the lead and ſilver melt and run away together into the receiver, leaving the copper-blocks unmelted behind, which are thus honey-combed and drained of their ſilver; but left capable of being brought to tough and malleable copper, by repeated fuſion. In the Hungarian mines we have ſeen, that Dr Brown tells us, they ſometimes burn the ore, and ſometimes melt it; and this ſometimes by itſelf, and ſometimes mixed, with other minerals and it's own droſs.

The purification of copper chiefly depends upon totally freeing it from it's ſulphur, which may be done for the more curious uſes, by melting it ſeveral times with fixed alkali's, nitre, or borax.

After the heterogeneous parts have been thrown off, as before directed, from the proper earth of the ore, the pure metal then remains to be ſeparated from this earth by fuſion.

But there are two difficulties, at leaſt one or other of them always found in this affair. For, (1.) This proper mineral earth, how fluxible ſoever it may prove in gold and ſilver, yet ſcarce comes up to the fuſibility of the pure metal; but is apt rather to flow thick and ſluggiſh, unleſs the fire be very intenſe indeed: but 'tis plain, that, if this ſubſtance remains viſcous, the moleculæ of the metal cannot ſink through it, in order to form a metalline maſs at the bottom. (2.) Sometimes only a very ſmall quantity of pure metal lies concealed in a vaſt body of ſuch adhering earth, or wrapped up with the matter of other metals; whence one of theſe two inconveniencies muſt ariſe, viz. either that the ſmall quantity of metal cannot well, under ſo great a load of recrement, come into a little maſs; or elſe, if it could, it muſt of neceſſity be ſo violently agitated and toſſed about by the ſtrong fire required to keep ſo large a bulk of ſlag in fuſion, as in the ebullition to be again involved, as it were, in little drops or bubbles among the pappy maſs of the ſcoria.

Theſe two inconveniences have their two remedies. (1.) The firſt is, to add ſuch ſubſtances as promote vitrification, and, at the ſame time, cauſe a thin flux of the vitrified body. Such ſubſtances are, for the large work, ſand, fluxile mud, alkaline ſalts, tartar, nitre, &c. and, for the ſmall, glaſs of lead, a little borax, or any compound flux-ſalt, the baſis whereof are commonly tartar and nitre. (2.) The ſecond is, to add a metal itſelf. This is a common way, and ſeems greatly improveable, if it can be brought to anſwer the expence. In this caſe, as a greater maſs of metal cannot, by the ſame fire, be ſo much agitated and toſſed about as a leſs, or, if it could be agitated as much, yet all it's particles would cohere more firmly in a large maſs than in a ſmall one; hence, by ſuch an addition of metal, the little maſs that would otherwiſe be with difficulty collected from the ſeveral falling particles of the melted matter, is artificially enlarged, ſo as to cover the whole bottom of the melting-pot; in conſequence whereof, all the ſingle metallic particles that fall afterwards, are eaſily catched and detained below, by the large metalline maſs, which there lies ready to receive them.

Copper, being in itſelf of difficult fuſion, requires ſuch a fire as is able to melt it's glaſſy ſcoria ſufficiently thin, at the ſame time that it is melted itſelf; and this it does, unleſs the flints ſhould prove very obſtinate indeed. Hence bare fuſion, ſometimes, without any other aſſiſtance, will bring out this metal from it's ore, and throw it down into a maſs, the ſcoria here flowing ſo thin, as readily to ſuffer the metalline particles to ſink through it; but, when the ore is more ſtubborn, it's ſeparation may be promoted by metalline, or other additions, as abovementioned.

In ſhort, the difficulty of thus ſeparating the metal from it's proper earth, is principally found in the ores of ſilver, gold, and copper; but lead and tin, being very fuſible bodies, are much eaſier melted from their adhering mineral matter. See the articles ASSAY, METALLURGY, ORES.

COPPERAS, COPPERAS STONES, which ſome call GOLD STONES, are found on the ſea-ſhore in Eſſex, Hampſhire, and ſo weſtward. There are great quantities in the cliffs, but not ſo good as thoſe on the ſhore, where the tides ebb and flow over them.

The beſt of them are of a bright, ſhining, ſilver colour; the next, ſuch as are of a ruſty deep yellow; the worſt, ſuch as have gravel and dirt in them, of a ſadder umber colour.

In the midſt of theſe ſtones are ſometimes found the ſhells of cockles, and other ſmall ſhell-fiſhes, ſmall pieces of the planks of ſhips, and pieces of ſea-coal.

In order to the making of copperas, they make beds, according as the ground will permit; thoſe at Deptford are about 100 feet long, 15 feet broad at the top, and 12 feet deep, ſhelving all the way to the bottom.

They ram the bed very well, firſt with ſtrong clay, and then with the rubbiſh of chalk, whereby the liquor, which drains out of the diſſolution of the ſtones, is conveyed into a wooden ſhallow trough, laid in the middle of the bed, and covered with a board; being alſo boarded on all ſides, and laid lower at one end than the other, whereby the liquor is conveyed into a ciſtern under the boiling-houſe.

When the beds are indifferently well dried, they lay on the ſtones about two feet thick.

Theſe ſtones will be five or ſix years before they yield any conſiderable quantity of liquor; and, before that, the liquor which they yield is but weak.

They ripen by the ſun and rain: yet experience proves, that the watering the ſtones, although with water prepared by lying in the ſun, and poured through very ſmall holes of a watering-pot, doth retard the work.

In time theſe ſtones turn into a kind of vitriolic earth, which will ſwell and ferment like leavened dough.

When the bed is come to perfection, then once in four years they refreſh it, by laying new ſtones on the top.

When they make a new bed, they take a good quantity of the old fermented earth, and mingle it with new ſtones, whereby the work is haſtened. Thus the old earth never becomes uſeleſs.

The ciſtern beforementioned is made of ſtrong oaken boards, well jointed and caulked. That at Deptford will contain 700 tons of liquor. Great care is to be taken that the liquor doth not drain through the beds, or out of the ciſtern. The beſt way to prevent the ſame, is to divide the ciſtern in the middle, by oaken boards, caulked as before; whereby one of them may be mended in caſe of a defect.

The more rain falls, the more, but the weaker, will be the liquor; the goodneſs whereof is tried by weights prepared for that purpoſe. Fourteen penny-weights is rich; or, an egg being put into the liquor, the higher it ſwims above the liquor, the ſtronger it is: ſometimes the egg will ſwim near half above the liquor.

Within one minute after an egg is put in, the ambient liquor will boil and froth, and, in three minutes, the ſhell will be quite worn off.

A drop of this liquor, falling on the manufactures of hemp, flax, or cotton-wool, will preſently burn a hole through it, as alſo in woollen and leather.

Out of the aforeſaid ciſtern, the liquor is pumped into a boiler

of

of lead, about eight feet ſquare, containing about 12 tons, which is thus ordered. Firſt they lay long pieces of caſt iron, 12 inches ſquare, as long as the breadth of the boiler, about 12 inches one from another, and 24 inches above the ſurface of the fire. Then croſſwiſe they lay ordinary flat iron bars, as cloſe as they can lie, the ſides being made up with brick-work. In the middle of the botton of this boiler is laid a trough of lead, wherein they put at firſt 100 pounds weight of old iron.

The fuel for boiling is Newcaſtle coals. By degrees, in the boiling, they put in more iron, amounting in all to 1500 pounds weight in a boiling. As the liquor waſtes in boiling, they pump in freſh liquor into the boiler; whereby, and by a defect in ordering the fire, they were wont to be above 20 days before it was enough; when that is, they try, by taking up a ſmall quantity of liquor into a ſhallow earthen pan, and obſerving how ſoon it will gather and cruſt about the ſides, thereof. But now of late, by the ingenious contrivance of Sir Nicholas Criſp, the work is much facilitated; for, at his work at Deptford, they boil off three boilers of ordinary liquor in one week; which is done firſt by ordering the furnace ſo, as that the heat is conveyed to all parts of the bottom and ſides of the furnace.

Then, whereas they were wont to pump cold liquor into the boiler, to ſupply the waſte in boiling, whereby the boiler was checked ſometimes ten hours, Sir Nicholas's work hath now a veſſel of lead, which he calls a heater, placed at the end of the boiler, and a little higher, ſupported by bars of iron, as before, and filled with liquor, which, by a conveyance of heat from the furnace, is kept near boiling hot, and ſo continually ſupplies the waſte of the boiler, without hindering the boiling. Thirdly, by putting due proportions of iron from time to time into the boiler; as ſoon as they perceive the liquor to boil ſlowly, they put in more iron, which will ſoon quicken it. Beſides, if they do not continually ſupply the boiling liquor with iron, the copperas will gather to the bottom of the boiler, and melt it; and ſo it will do, if the liquor be not preſently drawn off from the boiler into a cooler, ſo ſoon as it is enough.

The cooler is oblong, 20 feet long, nine feet over at the top, five feet deep, tapered towards the bottom, made of tarras. Into this they let the liquor run, ſo ſoon as it is boiled enough. The copperas herein will be gathering, or ſhooting, 14 or 15 days, and gathers as much on the ſides as in the bottom, viz. about five inches thick. Some put buſhes into the cooler, about which the copperas will gather; but at Deptford they make no uſe of any.

That which ſticks to the ſides, and to the buſhes, is of a bright green, that in the bottom of a foul and dirty colour.

In the end of 14 days they convey the liquor into another cooler, and reſerve it to be boiled again with new liquor.

The copperas they ſhovel on a floor adjoining, ſo that the liquor may drain from it into a cooler.

The ſteam which comes from the boiling is of an acrimonious ſmell.

Copperas may be boiled without iron, but with difficulty; without it the boiler will be in danger of melting.

Sometimes, in ſtirring the earth upon the beds, they find pieces of copperas, produced by lying in the ſun.

The common green vitriol, or Engliſh copperas, is made at Deptford in the following manner, from pyrites, which are round, ponderous, cloſe ſtones, of a duſky colour on the outſide, but having their inner ſubſtance radiated like a ſtar, from the center to the circumference. They originally yield no taſte of vitriol, and are found along the ſhores of Eſſex, Suſſex, &c. When calcined, they yield a fume like that of brimſtone, and leave a red calx, containing iron, behind. Expoſed to the open air in heaps, for a length of time, they ſeem to ferment, heave, ſwell, crack, and fall to pieces, and then yield a white downy efflorescence, of an acrid ſtyptic taſte: and thus the white ſubſtance of the ſtone ſeems to diſſolve, and fall to duſt, of a ſaline, vitriolic, and ſulphureous taſte and ſmell.

A heap of theſe ſtones, two or three feet thick, they lay in a bed, well rammed: where, being turned once in ſix months, in five or ſix years, by the action of the air and rain, they begin to diſſolve, and yield a liquor, which is received in pits, and hence conveyed into a ciſtern in a boiling houſe. The liquor at length being pumped out of the ciſtern into a leaden boiler, and a quantity of iron added thereto, in two or three days the boiling is compleated, care having been taken all along, to ſupply it with freſh quantities of iron, to reſtore the boiling, whenever it ſeems to abate; when boiled ſufficiently, it is drawn off into a cooler, with ſticks acroſs, where it is left 14 or 15 days, to ſhoot.

It appears that the diverſity of colours in vitriols ariſes from the difference wherein the ſalt, or acid, is received; in blue, the ſalt is joined with copper; in green, with iron; in white, with calamine, or ſome ferrugineous earth, mixed with lead or tin. As to red vitriol, called colcothar, it's colour is adventitious, and ſeems to ariſe from a calcination which the vitriol undergoes, either by art, or ſome ſubterraneous fire.

This is not only ſupported by the natural hiſtory of vitriol, but ſeems to be confirmed by numerous analyſes made of the ſeveral kinds of vitriol, and the artificial preparation of them upon ſuch principles; ſo that it may pretty ſafely paſs for a general truth, that all vitriol conſiſts of water, a metalline part, and an acid combined: that the water gives the tranſparency, or cryſtalline form; that the acid diſſolves the metal, and thus gives the colour; and that all three are thus united together.

It's uſes.

The uſes of copperas are numerous. It is the chief ingredient in the dyeing of wool, cloths, and hats black, in making ink, in tanning and dreſſing leather, &c. And from hence is prepared oil of vitriol, and a kind of Spaniſh brown for painters.

CORAL is a plant of a peculiar ſtructure and figure: it is met with in the ſhops in ſmall branched pieces: they are of a pale red colour, of a hard and ſtony nature, very heavy, and have neither ſmell nor taſte.

Theſe are the fragments of the coral plant; the larger pieces are uſed for other purpoſes, and are dearer, but theſe poſſeſs as much virtue. The plant grows not only on rocks and ſtones, but on ſea-ſhells, and on any ſolid body it meets with at the bottom of the water.

When freſh taken out of the ſea, it has much more virtue than after it has been kept for years in the ſhops.

It is evident, from many experiments, that it is not, as ſome ſuppoſe, a mere terreſtrial abſorbent; it plainly contains particles of a bituminous, ſaline, and urinous nature: which, however, are found in greater perfection, when freſh, than after keeping. We uſe it as an aſtringent and abſorbent in diarrhœas, the fluor albus, and hæmorrhages, but only in conjunction with other medicines of the ſame intention.

The beſt method of preparing a real tincture of coral is, by extracting the red colour with oil of anniſeed, then diſtilling off the greater part of the oil, adding oil of tartar to the remainder, and evaporating the whole to a dry maſs, on which ſpirit of wine is to be poured, to extract the tincture.

We hear of white coral in the ſhops, which many ſuppoſe of greater virtues than the red; but what we meet with under this name, is a ſpecies of another ſea-plant, the madrepora. The ſeveral ſpecies of it in the ſhops, under the name of white coral, are all light and hollow, and marked with holes on the outſide. A chemical analyſis ſhews it cannot poſſeſs the virtues of the red, whatever people may imagine, for it yields no oil or bituminous matter on diſtillation, but only a volatile urinous ſpirit.

Of the Coral Fishery.

Red coral is found in the Mediterranean, on the ſhores of Provence, from Cape de la Couronne, to that of St Tropez; about the iſles of Majorca and Minorca; on the ſouth of Sicily; on the coaſts of Africa; and laſtly in the Ethiopic Ocean, about Cape Negro.

The divers ſay that the little branches are found only in the caverns whoſe ſituation is parallel to the earth's ſurface, and are open to the ſouth.

In Provence they uſe two machines in fiſhing for it. The one, which pulls it from the rocks, is a large wooden croſs, in the center of which is a heavy leaden ball, and it is ſuſtained by a very long and ſtrong cord. At each extremity of the croſs is fixed a round net. When it is let down into the water, where the divers have found there is plenty of coral, he that guides it puſhes one or two arms of the croſs into the cavities, which entangles the coral in the netting, and thoſe who are in the boat break it, and draw it out of the water.

The other machine uſed for drawing coral out of the deepeſt waters where they fiſh for it, is a very long beam, at the end of which is fixed an iron ring, a foot and an half in diameter, having a reticular bag, with two round nets on each ſide. This beam is faſtened, by two very long ropes, to the ſtem and ſtern of the boat. It is let down to the bottom by means of a plummet fixed to it, and is directed into the deep caverns by the boat's motion. The ring breaks off the ſmall branches on the top of the caverns, and the nets entangle and retain the others. Sometimes they find branches that weigh three or four pounds weight, but it is ſeldom. The reaſon they find large branches but rarely, is becauſe they have liberty of fiſhing too often, that the plants have not time to attain their full growth, which requires ſome years.

As they fiſh at random, where they think there is large coral, they break the young ſprigs they meet with there, forcing their inſtruments to and fro, in hopes of getting the large branches, which does not always anſwer their end: though they commonly prefer a quantity in weight to the bigneſs of the pieces, becauſe they agree with their maſters for ſo much the pound.

The manner of fiſhing for coral being nearly the ſame wherever it is found, it will ſuffice to inſtance in that uſed at the Baſtion of France, where a great quantity is got, under the direction of the company eſtabliſhed at Marſeilles for that fiſhery.

The fiſhers, who come yearly at the ſeaſon to fiſh for the company, bring nothing but themſelves, every thing needful

being found them, even to the boats and veſſels, and delivered to them fitted for ſea, with ſails, anchors, &c. of all which they are to give an account at their return.

There are ſeven or eight men to a boat, one of whom is the patron, or proprietor. When the net is thrown by the caſter, the reſt work the veſſel, and help to draw the ſame in.

Before the fiſhers go to ſea, they are allowed advance-money, and have ſtore of proviſion, and cordage for their engines, on terms ſtipulated.

They are agreed with, alſo, for the price of the coral, which is ſometimes more, ſometimes leſs, a pound; and they engage, on pain of corporal puniſhment, that neither they nor their crew ſhall embezzle any, but to deliver it to the proprietors.

When the fiſhery is ended, which amounts, one year with another, to 25 quintals of coral for each boat, it is divided into 13 parts, of which the proprietor hath four, the caſter two, and the other ſix men one each; the thirteenth belongs to the company, for payment of the boat furniſhed them.

The coral-fiſhing is both fatiguing and dangerous. The fiſhers, having bound two rafters of wood croſs-wiſe, and fixed leads to them, wind a quantity of hemp looſely about it, intermingled with ſome large netting. This inſtrument is let down where they think there is coral, which being ſtrongly entangled in the hemp and netting, they pull it up again; for which even ſix boats are ſometimes required; and if, in hauling in, the rope happens to break, the fiſhermen run the hazard of being loſt.

Large quantities of it are uſed for necklaces, chaplets, and other like works, to adorn the cabinets of the curious; and ſeveral nations have a particular eſteem for it, eſpecially the Japaneſe, who prefer it to any of the moſt precious ſtones.

Coral is part of the traffic of Marſeilles. Bracelets and necklaces of it are made only there and at Genis, and ſell very well up the Levant. Beſide the red coral and white, which are the moſt common, there is ſome alſo of a roſe-colour and fleſh-colour, ſome half red, half white, brown, &c. which laſt comes from America, the others being commonly found in the Mediterranean, and on the Barbary coaſt.

There is a kind of wood, called in Europe coral-wood, from the livelineſs of it's colour, much reſembling that of coral. It grows in the American iſlands, chiefly in thoſe called the Windward Iſlands. Some druggiſts ſell it for ſaunders, though it hath none of it's properties but the colour. It is a fit wood for turners and inlaid work.

There are, alſo, in theſe iſlands, two kinds of trees ſo called, their fruit being as red as coral, except one little black ſpot, where the bud is. The grocers and druggiſts call them red, or American peas; they are extreme bitter, and ſome pretend that, ſteeped in lemon-juice, they will ſolder gold and ſilver, like borax.

CORASAN, or KHORASSAN, including the kingdom of Balk, has Perſian Irack with Aſtrabad on the weſt, from which 'tis parted by a large deſert; Farſiſtar, with Segeſtan, on the ſouth; the Grand Mogul's dominions on the eaſt and north-eaſt, and Uſbeck Tartary on the north. It is very populous and fruitful, and produces the beſt manna in the world.

HERAT is an ancient and conſiderable city, has a very good trade, being reſorted to by the Indian merchants. They make here very fine tapeſtry, and abundances of roſe-water.

CORDAGE; the term is uſed in general for all ſorts of cord, whether ſmall, middling, or great, made uſe of in the rigging of ſhips.

Cordage, cable-laid, as the ſeamen term it, is made with nine ſtrands, i. e. the firſt three ſtrands are laid ſlack, and then three of them being cloſed together make a cable or cablet; the ſame for tacks, but they are laid tapering.

Cordage, hawſer-laid, is made only with three ſtrands.

Cordage, ſtays, are cable-laid, but made with four ſtrands as cables are with three, with an addition of an heart which goes through the center of them.

The price of cordage and cables at St Peterſburgh, in 1742, was 1 rouble 20 copecs the poude.

Cordage ſtuped, is that which, having been put in a tub in a very warm place, hath caſt out it's moiſture.

White cordage, is that which hath not yet been tarred.

Cordage tarred in ſpinning, is that which is made of rope-yarn ready tarred.

Cordage tarred in the ſtove, is that which hath paſſed thro' hot tar in coming out of the ſtove. Every quintal of cordage may take about 20 pounds of tar.

Cordage re-made, is that which is made of ropes uſed before.

Cordage, when very old, is uſed for oakum to caulk the ſeams of ſhips with.

Change cordage, is that kept in reſerve, in caſe what is in uſe fails.

When a rope is ſaid to be ſix inches, 'tis to be underſtood of it's circumference. A rope of 60 threads, is one compoſed of ſo many rope-yarns.

Cordage is uſually made of ſpun hemp: the great number of veſſels built and fitted out at Amſterdam, either for war or trade, occaſion a great commerce of all ſorts of cordage neceſſary for them. All which ſells by the ſchippont of 300 pounds.

The ſchippont of cordage of neat hemp coſts uſually 56 florins; that of Koningſberg about 58 florins, that of Muſcovy from 30 to 47 florins. Deductions for weight and prompt payment are one per cent. on each.

The quantity of cordage uſed in rigging a veſſel is almoſt inconceivable. Every rope hath it's name and particular uſe.

REMARKS.

As the quantity of cordage is ſo very extraordinary that is uſed in our own veſſels and ſhipping both at home and abroad; and as alſo the quantities uſed by all the Europeans, Americans, and Aſiatics, is immenſely great; too much encouragement cannot be given to the growth of hemp in our own colonies and plantations; to the end that we might by that means, at leaſt, amply ſupply ourſelves, if we could not obtain any ſhare in the ſupply of other nations. See the articles CABLE, COLONIES, and HEMP.

COREA, a kingdom ſituate on the moſt eaſtern part of China, between it and Japan. 'Tis a large peninſula, bounded on the weſt by the Yellow Sea, on the eaſt by that of Japan, on the ſouth by the Chineſe ocean, and on the north by the kingdom of Nienche, which belongs to Tartary.

The country towards the north is but barren, mountainous, and full of wild beaſts: but the ſouthern part is rich and fertile, and breeds quantities of large and ſmall cattle, fowl and game of all ſorts, as well as ſilk, cotton, flax, and the like; all which are manufactured there, except ſilk, which they have not the art of dreſſing for weaving, but ſend it unwrought, either to China or Japan, the only two countries they trade with. Some of their mountains produce gold and ſilver, and their ſea pearls and other fine fiſh.

Their coaſts are very difficult of acceſs, being full of ſhelves, rocks, &c. very dangerous to thoſe who are not acquainted with them.

CORN; hereof are ſeveral ſpecies, ſuch as wheat, rye, and barley; millet and rice; oats, maiz, and lentils, peaſe, and a number of other kinds. Each of theſe has it's uſefulneſs and propriety.

REMARKS.

Wheat, which is the ſtrongeſt nouriſhment, ſeldom ſucceeds but in ſoils that are hot or vigorous, or at leaſt marſhy. Rye proſpers in a moderate ſoil, and ſometimes is contented with the lighteſt. Barley, oats, buck-wheat, and millet, thrive in a ſandy ground, and will grow in the beſt ſoils, if they have been well pulverized.

Strong ſoils require much cultivation, and are ſatisfied with a light manure; but lands that are thin, demand a ſtrong manure, and light culture.

Arable lands are generally ranged into three diviſions, nearly equal. One is ſown before the winter-ſeaſon, with wheat and rye, or elſe with meſlin, which is a mixture of both. The ſecond muſt be allowed a winter's fallow, and may be ſown in the ſpring with the ſmaller grain, as oats and barley, &c.

The third diviſion is ſuffered to lie fallow, but is not therefore altogether unactive; for, beſides ſome kinds of huſbandry beſtowed on it, 'tis continually receiving freſh ſupplies, it acquiring a richneſs from the ſnows, and is moiſtened by the dews and rains; and even the winds impart prolific ſalts and juices to it. So that it's inactivity is a ſeries of preparatives, and an acquiſition of materials for new productions.

The firſt tillage is in autumn, on lands that have produced a harveſt of March grain. This operation only prepares the earth in a proper manner, deſtroying the ſprouting weeds. Some farmers defer it to the end of winter.

The ſecond is in ſpring, and in ſome places at Midſummer.

The third precedes the ſeaſon for ſowing. Sometimes a tranſverſe ploughing is required beſides.

When the ſeed is ſown, the earth is ſcattered lightly over it, by means of a harrow, in ſtrong ſoils; but, in light ſoils, they uſe a little plough, that the earth may more effectually cover the ſeed.

Manure is as important as tillage. 'Tis ſometimes required for the beſt lands, and is always neceſſary to thoſe that are weak. A good ſoil is not dunged for ſmall grain, but a weak one will not produce it without manure.

Though manure is of various kinds, there being hardly any refuſe ſubſtance but what is of uſe herein; none has more prolific qualities, than the ſoil ſwept from populous cities; eſpecially thoſe where a great number of kitchens, and dyers of wool, are continually diſcharging into the ſtreets a fat and oily ſediment, which is very beneficial to corn. In ſhort, all matter whatever, capable of producing large quantities of ſalts, will communicate fertility, when properly diſpoſed upon lands.

Corn for ſeed ſhould be well choſen, and firſt ſteeped in a lixivious liquor: but ſome huſbandmen only mix their corn with bruiſed lime, and ſow both together. The ſpecies that are ſown before the winter ſeaſon, are the autumnal wheat, barley, and rye, which laſt is the food of the poor people, and thrives in the worſt ſoils, and drieſt years. Starth-corn, or autumnal barley, is ſown before the winter ſeaſon. 'Tis cut in June, and is ſerviceable to the poor people, 'till harveſt ſupplies them with their winter proviſion.

The

The ſmall grains ſown in March, are oats and barley, lentils and little round beans. The firſt is an important article in commerce, being the chief food of horſes.

Of the method of preſerving CORN.

Corn is very different from fruits, with reſpect to the manner of it's preſervation; and is capable of being preſerved in public granaries, for preſſing occaſions, and of being kept for ſeveral centuries.

The firſt method is to let it remain in the ſpike, the only expedient for conveying it to the iſlands and provinces of America. The inhabitants of thoſe countries ſow it in the ear, and raiſe it to maturity by that precaution; but this method of preſerving it would be attended with ſeveral inconveniencies among us. Corn is apt to rot or ſprout, if any the leaſt moiſture is in the heap. The rats likewiſe infeſt it, and the detriment is frequently very great, before 'tis diſcovered. And our want of ſtraw alſo obliges us to ſeparate the grain from the ear.

The ſecond is to turn and winnow it frequently, or to pour it through a trough, or mill-hopper, from one floor to another, whence 'tis again raiſed by a crane, to the upper floor. Being thus moved and aired, every fifteen days for the firſt ſix months, 'twill require leſs labour for the future, if lodged in a dry place. But, if through neglect mites be permitted to ſlide into the heap, they will ſoon ſwarm like ant-hills, and reduce the corn to a heap of duſt. This muſt be avoided therefore, by moving the grain anew, and rubbing the places adjacent with oils and herbs, whoſe ſtrong odour may chace them away, for which garlic and dwarf-elder are very effectual. They may be likewiſe expoſed to the open ſun, which immediately kills them; or a brood of chickens let in, who, 'tis ſaid, will quit the grain to prey upon the mites, as faſt as they appear.

When the corn has been preſerved from all impurities for the ſpace of two years, and has exhaled all it's fire, it may be kept for forty, fifty, or even a hundred years, by lodging it in pits, covered with ſtrong planks, cloſely joined together; but the ſafer way is to cover the heap with a thin ſurface of quick lime, which ſhould be diſſolved, by ſprinkling it over with a ſmall quantity of water. This cauſes the grains to ſhoot to the depth of two or three fingers, and incloſes them with an incruſtation, through which neither air nor inſects can penetrate.

In the year 1707, a magazine of corn was opened in the citadel of Mentz, which had been ſtored up in * 1578, and the bread made of it proved very good. The Abbé de Louvois, travelling to the frontiers of Champagne, ſaw in the caſtle of Sedan, a heap of corn, which had been lodged there an hundred and ten years, and preſerved, notwithſtanding the moiſture of the place, which at firſt made it ſprout above a foot deep. The leaves and firſt ſhoots of the ſtems, wanting air began to rot, and ſunk down upon their roots; which glutinous compoſt, incorporating with the grains beneath, and growing dry, hardened into a very thick cruſt, which preſerved the reſt of the heap. Some of the bread made of it was ſent to court, and proved extraordinary good.

* Memoirs de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1708.

The following obſervations made by the Abbé Pluche and Mr Needham, and tranſmitted to our Royal Society, affording ſome light into the nature of this vegetable, they may not prove unacceptable to many.

Having with the aſſiſtance of the microſcope, ſays the Abbé, viewed the ſmut of corn, I obſerved the ſtalks were all ſpotted and pricked with ſmall burnings: now as the ſmut happens after a fine rain, followed by a bright ſunſhine, the cauſe of this evil is, that the focus of thoſe very ſmall drops is juſt near them, and on the ſtalk that ſupports them: wherefore the ſun's rays, collected in this point, muſt there burn; which dries up the ſtalk, and prevents the ear from graining.

The ſecond remark is on the corn that grows up into ears, the grains of which are for the moſt part full of meal, quite black. With the microſcope I ſaw, all around or above theſe black grains, ſmall long bodies, rolled up, and having each a pedicle; which I found to be the flowers that could not reach their due form, or come forth and ripen; ſo that the grain being deprived of this help, could not develope it's germ, and produced only a black meal, for want of the unfolding of certain veſſels.

The third remark is, the reaſon that invites thruſhes or ſtarlings under the legs of black cattle grazing in a paſture. Not being able to get near them, I obſerved them at a diſtance with a good glaſs. I ſaw all theſe birds thruſt their heads and half their bodies down into the graſs, in ſuch manner that their tails remained erect in the air, as that of a duck upon diving, which makes me think, that thoſe birds ſeek after worms in the earth; and that they gather about the cattle, becauſe as they are large animals, upon trampling on the ground, they oblige ſuch worms to come forth, as happen to be preſſed under the weight of their hoofs.

Upon opening lately the ſmall black grains of ſmutty wheat, ſays Mr Needham, which they here diſtinguiſh from blighted corn, the latter affording nothing but a black duſt, into which the whole ſubſtance of the ear is converted; I perceived a ſoft white fibrous ſubſtance, a ſmall portion of which I placed upon my object-plate: it ſeemed to conſiſt wholly of longitudinal fibres bundled together; and you will be ſurprized, perhaps, that I ſhould ſay, without any the leaſt ſign of life or motion. I dropped a globule of water upon it, in order to try if the parts, when ſeparated, might be viewed more conveniently; when, to my great ſurprize, theſe imaginary fibres, as it were, inſtantly ſeparated from each other, took life, moved irregularly, not with a progreſſive, but twiſting motion; and continued ſo to do for the ſpace of nine or ten hours, when I threw them away.

I am ſatisfied they are a ſpecies of aquatic animals, and may be denominated worms, eels, or ſerpents, which they much reſemble. This, if conſidered, will appear to be ſomething very ſingular: but I have ſince repeated the experiment ſeveral times, with the ſame ſucceſs, and gratified others with a ſight of it.

Of the maxims of France and other parts in regard to CORN.

In France, corn of the growth of the kingdom is reckoned as a contraband commodity; and may not be exported, how plenteous ſoever the crop, without permiſſion, either general or particular, purſuant to the old or new ordonnances in that behalf made, among others of 1577 and of 1699, on pain of forfeiture, and 500 livres fine.

The general permiſſions for exportation are uſually granted by order of council for a certain time, as ſpecified therein.

There is alſo another ſort of general permiſſions granted in like manner, but not extending beyond the kingdom; on declaration made to the intendants of the places it is ſent to, and certificates of the arrival and delivery there.

In times of dearth and ſcarcity, as that which happened in France in 1709, other permiſſions more general are granted for parts within the kingdom, as were the orders of Auguſt and September that year, which permitted a free trade in all ſorts of grain, even of meal and pulſe, as well from city to city, and market to market, as from one province to another throughout the whole kingdom, without being obliged to give notice, or to obſerve any of the uſual formalities.

As to particular permiſſions, they are paſſports ſigned by a ſecretary of ſtate, bearing the perſons names to whom they are granted; the quantity and quality of the corn; the ports by which it is to paſs, or to be ſhipped; the place intended for, and other the like circumſtances.

There have been many ordonnances and royal declarations made in France for government of the inland trade herein, and the quality of the perſons that may uſe it.

The moſt noted and important are thoſe of Charles IX, 1567, Henry III, 1577, and Lewis XIV, 1699; beſides a great number of others, moſtly in 1709, a year ſo fatal to France, by the entire loſs of all it's corn, as ſcarce to be repaired by the many wiſe regulations which the prudence and care of the magiſtrates cauſed to be publiſhed almoſt every day.

In the ordonnance of Auguſt 1699, amongſt other articles, merchants of the kingdom may import corn from foreign countries; and in times of plenty export it, by virtue of general or particular permiſſions; and all combinations among corn-merchants, whether reſiding in the ſame or different cities, are prohibited on pain of 2000 livres fine, and being declared incapable of trading in corn for the future. And all, both merchants and others, are prohibited to enhance or buy corn or other grain, while green and before the harveſt, on pain of 3000 livres fine, and corporal puniſhment; and all ſuch bargains are declared null, even thoſe made ſix months before the date of the declaration.

Beſides theſe general ones, the city of Paris hath alſo particular regulations, concerning corn brought thither by water, made in 1672. In which all dealers, trading on the river for the ſupply of Paris, are prohibited to buy ſtanding corn, on pain of forfeiture to the ſeller, and fine to the buyer. And dealers may not buy grain or meal within ten leagues of the city.

The dealers, &c. are obliged, immediately on the arrival of their grain or meal, to preſent their bill of parcels to the ſworn corn-meters, who are faithfully to regiſter it, and carry copies every Monday to the recorder of the city. Dealers may not land or houſe their corn if muſty or heated, or if the boat be in danger, but it muſt remain in the boat 'till ſold. Citizens of Paris may put the corn and meal of their own growth, or which is brought for their proviſion, into granaries.

The magazines of Dantzick are ſo vaſt, and always ſo well filled, that, in ſome years, 800,000 tons of corn are exported from that city: it's merchants have an excluſive privilege for all the corn of Poland brought into their city, and the Dantzickers are obliged to buy whatever quantity is brought, at a price fixed by the magiſtrate.

The magazines of Amſterdam are not leſs conſiderable than thoſe of Dantzick; few cities having a greater corn-trade, there being even a ſeparate exchange, where many thouſand dealers meet every day, that trade only in corn; and hath nothing in common with the general exchange, from which it is diſtant a quarter of a league.

Corn is very plentiful and ſo very cheap in China, becauſe they prefer rice for their bread; that a man may buy enough for about a ſhilling to ſuſtain him a month.

The laws of England relating to CORN.

Corn, the quarter to contain 8 buſhels ſtriked, each buſhel containing 8 gallons. 15 Rich. II. cap. 4. ſect. 1. 11 Hen. VII. cap. 4. ſect. 1. 22 Car. II. cap. 13. ſect. 1.

And grain imported, the old ſubſidy was increaſed from the original duty, granted by 12 Car. II. cap. 4, to the following duty per quarter Wincheſter meaſure, when they did not exceed the reſpective prices, oppoſite to each ſpecies, viz.

	Prices. s.	d.	Duty. s.	d.
Wheat - -	48	0	5	4
Rye - - -	32	0	4	0
Barley and malt	28	0	2	8
Buck-wheat -	28	0	2	0
Oats - - -	13	4	1	4
Peaſe and beans	32	0	4	0

15 Car. II. cap. cap. ſect. 3. But by 22 Car. II. cap. 13. was further increaſed.

Imported—Juſtices of the peace for the ſeveral counties, at every quarter-ſeſſions, are to give in charge (in open court) to the grand jury, to make enquiry and preſentment, upon their oaths, of the common market prices of middling Engliſh corn; which preſentment is to be made in open court, and certified by the juſtices in writing to the chief officer and collector of the cuſtoms, to be hung up publickly in the cuſtom-houſe, that the duties may be collected according to the ſaid prices. 5 Geo. II. cap. 12. ſect. 1, 2, 3.

In the city of London, the mayor, aldermen, as juſtices, in the months of October and April, are to determine the prices of middling Engliſh corn, by the oaths of two or more honeſt perſons ſkilled in the prices, being neither cornchandlers, mealmen, factors, or merchants, &c. intereſted in the corn, but ſubſtantial houſekeepers, living in Middleſex or Surry, having each a freehold eſtate of 20 l. or a leaſehold of 50 l. per ann. or by ſuch other ways and means as they ſhall think fit, and to certify the ſame as above. 1 Jac. II. cap. 19. ſect. 3, 4. 5 Geo. II. cap. cap. 12. ſect. 4.

But, juſtices omitting or neglecting to determine the prices, the collector of the cuſtoms muſt receive the duties according to the loweſt prices of the ſeveral ſorts rated by the act of 22 Car. II. cap. 13. 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. ſec. 3.

As to wheat, rye, barley, malt, beans, peaſe, and all other ſorts of corn and grain, ground or unground, and bread, biſcuit, or meal, they may be exported free of all duties. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. ſect. 12. 11 and 12 W. III. cap. 20. ſect. 4. 1 Ann. cap. 12. ſect. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 27. ſect. 1. 6 Ann. cap. 19. ſect. 1. 7 Ann. cap. 7. ſect. 28.

Exported, the bounty and regulations of

The bounty on CORN exported.

		Prices per Quarter Wincheſt. Meaſure. l.	s.	d.	Bounty per Quarter Wincheſt. Meaſure. l.	s.	d.
By 1 Will and M. c. 12. ſect. 2.	Wheat - - -	2	8	0	0	5	0
	Rye - - - -	1	12	0	0	3	6
	Barley - - -	1	4	0	0	2	6
	Malt - - - -	1	4	0	0	2	6
	But the exciſe of 6 d. per buſhel muſt not be reckoned into the price of malt, 13 and 14 W. III. cap. 5. ſect. 31. 12 Ann. cap. 2. ſect. 3.						
By 5 Ann. c. 8. art. 6. c. 29. ſect. 10, 15.	Beer, alias Bigg - -	1	4	0	0	2	6
	Malt, made of wheat -	2	8	0	0	5	0
	Oatmeal, when oats do not exceed - -	0	15	0	0	2	6

When the above ſorts of corn, either ground or unground, do not, at the port of exportation, exceed the reſpective prices in the firſt column, and ſhall be ſhipped on board any Britiſh ſhip, whereof the maſter, and at leaſt two thirds of the mariners, are Britiſh ſubjects, in order to be exported to parts beyond the ſeas, the exporter is to be allowed the reſpective bounties in the ſecond column: provided a certificate in writing, under the hand of the exporter, containing the quantity and quality of the corn, be firſt brought to the collector of the port, and the truth thereof confirmed by the oath of one or more credible perſon or perſons, and bond be given by the exporter, in the penalty of 10 l. for every ton of oatmeal, or 40 buſhels of beer, alias bigg, and 200 l. at leaſt for every 100 tons of all the other ſorts (i. e. 8 s. per quarter) that the ſame ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be re-landed in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey. 1 W. and M. cap. 12. ſect. 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. ſec. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. ſect. 15.

In order to adjuſt the quantity for which the bounty is to be paid, the corn is to be admeaſured by the proper officers of the cuſtoms, who, for the greater expedition, may make uſe of a tub or meaſure, containing four Wincheſter buſhels; or, if the ſaid corn be intended to be exported in ſacks, they are to chuſe two out of any number not exceeding twenty ſacks, and ſo in proportion, and thereby compute the whole quantity: but, if exported from London, may be meaſured by the ſworn meters, from whoſe certificate the ſearchers may certify the quantity ſhipped for exportation. 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. ſect. 4, 5.

But, with reſpect to malt, the bounty is to be allowed after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt for exportation; as ſhall appear by a certificate from the officer, with whom the corn or grain, intended to be made into malt for exportation, was entered. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. ſect. 14, 15.

The aforeſaid bounty to be paid by the collector of the port, upon demand made by the exporter: unleſs he has not ſufficient money in his hands, and then (except for bigg and oatmeal) he is to certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who are to cauſe the money to be paid by the receiver-general within three months. 1 W. and M. cap. 12. ſect. 2. 12 and 13 W. III. cap. 10. ſect. 91. 5 Ann. cap. 29. ſect. 10. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. ſect. 15.

The aforeſaid bond, given for exportation, may be delivered up to be cancelled, upon producing a certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, in any place beyond the ſeas, or under the hand and ſeal of two known Britiſh merchants, teſtifying that the corn was there landed, or upon proof by credible perſons, that it was taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas, 1 W. and M. cap. 12. ſect 2. 5 Ann. cap. 29. ſect. 10.

Malt, re-landed in Great-Britain, is forfeited, with treble the value, beſides the penalty of the bond. 3 Geo. II. cap. 7. ſect. 15. and ſince continued yearly with the malt-act.

The bounty on ſpirits, drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, exported.

	l.	s.	d.
For every ton of ſpirits drawn from barley, malt, or other corn, there ſhall be paid to the exporter, by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or the proper officers belonging to them, when barley is at 24 s. per quarter, or under; on ſuch proof of the exportation thereof, as is directed by the act of 1 W. and M. for the encouraging the exportation of corn, out of the duties liable to the payment of the bounties on corn exported, 1 l. 10 s. and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſſer quantity.	1	10	0

C O R

An account of the ſeveral ſorts and quantities of CORN, which were exported from Chriſtmas 1734 to Chriſtmas 1735: as alſo from what places and ports, and in what quantities they were exported: together with an account of the bounty that was paid thereon.

Ports.	Barley. Qrtrs.	Buſh.	Malt. Qrtrs.	Buſh.	Oatmeal. Qrtrs.	Buſh.	Rye. Qrtrs.	Buſh.	Wheat. Qrtrs.	Buſh.	Bounty. l.	s.	d.
Arundel	200	—	466	—	—	—	—	—	13,090	—	447	18	1½
Barnſtaple	182	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	1	25	15	7½
Beaumaris	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41	—	10	5	0
Berwick	2,396	—	425	—	—	—	—	—	10,944	—	3,094	1	5
Biddeford	600	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	292	5	148	5	3¾
Blackney and Clay	81	—	9,369	—	—	—	18	—	254	—	1,066	10	6
Bridlington	—	—	50	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	6	5
Briſtol	1,127	6	185	3	—	—	—	—	554	5	308	17	6
Bridgewater	628	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	78	10	11¼
Cheſter	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	391	3	97	16	10½
Chicheſter	603	4	11,339	2	—	—	—	—	8,748	—	3,941	4	4½
Colcheſter	685	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,510	4	463	6	6¾
Cowes	689	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,241	4½	646	11	6¾
Dartmouth	2,537	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	313	2	395	9	0
Dover	429	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	4,015	—	1,057	8	9
Exeter	7,693	4	—	—	1,279	4	—	—	1,134	2¾	1,405	4	2½
Falmouth	335	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	728	—	223	18	9
Harwich	622	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,200	—	377	15	0
Hull	—	—	8,063	—	—	—	—	—	3,732	4	2,231	0	0
Ipſwich	864	7	394	—	—	—	—	—	2,282	5	728	6	3
Liverpool	9	4	—	—	7	4	—	—	991	2	249	18	9
Lynn Regis	5,747	6	17,411	2	—	—	549	4	6,778	3	4,534	4	6
Malden	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	600	—	150	0	0
Milford	51	—	—	—	583	5	—	—	2,796	4	778	9	0¾
Minehead	285	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	702	7	211	7	6
Newhaven	898	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,088	7	384	9	8¾
Padſtow	118	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	770	—	207	5	0
Penzance	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	150	—	37	10	0
Plymouth	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	100	—	25	0	0
Poole	690	—	87	3	10	13	—	—	1,159	3	389	18	7
Portſmouth	2,190	2	8,245	1	—	—	—	—	16,876	4½	5,523	11	3
Sandwich	349	—	3,595	3	—	—	—	—	2,485	7½	1,085	18	7¼
Shoreham	4,890	—	2,842	7	—	—	—	—	3,007	4	1,821	6	1
Southampton	3,013	2	2,358	—	—	—	—	—	9,443	3¾	3,098	4	9¾
Stockton	333	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41	12	6
Wells	292	—	60,247	—	—	—	217	—	210	2	6,849	15	7
Weymouth	—	—	226	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	28	5	3¾
Wiſbich	216	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	659	—	191	16	3
Whitehaven	42	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5	6	10½
Whitby	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	15	4¾	3	17	11½
Yarmouth	9,802	1	92,374	7	—	—	494	—	5,938	3	13,629	17	10¾
London	8,914	6	2,101	6	39	6	51	—	59,784	2	16,429	5	2½
Totals	57,520	3	219,781	7	1,920	6	1,329	4	153,343	5¾	72,433	12	7¾

Cuſtom-Houſe, London, 8 Mar. 1735.

Exam. J——n O——d, Ac' Gen.

By barley -	7,190	0	11½
By malt -	26,434	18	0½
By oatmeal -	240	1	10¾
By rye -	232	13	3
By wheat -	38,335	18	6
Total	72,433	12	7¾

An account of the true market-price of wheat and malt at Windsor, for above 100 years. Began and published by William Fleetwood, bishop of Ely, from 1646 to 1706; and since continued in the same manner to the year 1752.

Years.	Wheat per quarter.			Malt per quarter.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1646	2	8	0	1	9	0
1647	3	13	8	1	17	0
1648	4	5	0	2	0	0
1649	4	0	0	2	2	0
1650	3	16	8	1	18	6
1651	3	13	4	1	9	0
1652	2	9	6	1	8	0
1653	1	15	6	1	8	0
1654	1	6	0	1	0	8
1655	1	13	4	1	0	0
1656	2	3	0	1	4	0
1657	2	6	8	1	8	4
1658	3	5	0	1	9	4
1659	3	6	0	2	8	8
1660	2	16	6	1	12	8
1661	3	10	0	1	13	4
1662	3	14	0	2	2	0
1663	2	17	0	1	12	8
1664	2	0	6	1	10	0
1665	2	9	4	1	8	4
1666	1	16	0	1	6	0
1667	1	16	0	1	2	8
1668	2	0	0	1	4	0
1669	2	4	4	1	7	4
1670	2	1	8	1	6	6
1671	2	2	0	1	5	4
1672	2	1	0	1	2	0
1673	2	6	8	1	4	0
1674	3	8	8	1	14	0
1675	3	4	8	1	14	0
1676	1	18	0	1	6	0
1677	2	2	0	1	8	0
1678	2	19	0	1	8	8
1679	3	0	0	1	6	8
1680	2	5	0	1	2	8
1681	2	6	8	1	4	8
1682	2	4	0	1	8	0
1683	2	0	0	1	8	8
1684	2	4	0	1	5	4
1685	2	6	8	1	8	0
1686	1	14	0	1	5	4
1687	1	5	2	1	4	0
1688	2	6	0	1	2	0
1689	1	10	0	1	0	0
1690	1	14	8	0	19	4
1691	1	14	0	0	17	4
1692	2	6	8	1	4	4
1693	3	7	8	1	10	0
1694	3	4	0	1	12	0
1695	2	13	0	1	12	0
1696	3	11	0	1	8	0
1697	3	0	0	1	8	0
1698	3	8	4	1	12	0
1699	3	4	0	1	19	4
1700	2	0	0	1	11	4
1701	1	17	8	1	4	0
1702	1	9	6	1	8	0
1703	1	16	0	1	3	4
1704	2	6	6	1	8	0
1705	1	10	0	1	6	0
1706	1	6	0	1	2	0
1707	1	8	6	1	3	4
1708	2	1	6	1	8	0
1709	3	18	6	1	13	4
1710	3	18	0	1	16	0
1711	2	14	0	1	15	4
1712	2	6	4	1	10	8
1713	2	11	0	1	7	0
1714	2	10	4	1	9	4
1715	2	3	0	1	10	8
1716	2	8	0	1	8	0
1717	2	5	8	1	5	4
1718	1	18	10	1	4	8
1719	1	15	0	1	6	8
1720	1	17	0	1	11	4
1721	1	17	6	1	8	4
1722	1	16	0	1	2	8
1723	1	14	8	1	3	8
1724	1	17	0	1	10	0
1725	2	8	6	1	8	0
1726	2	6	0	1	8	0
1727	2	2	0	1	8	0
1728	2	14	6	1	12	0
1729	2	6	10	1	15	4
1730	1	16	6	1	7	0
1731	1	12	10	1	0	5
1732	1	6	8	1	5	8
1733	1	8	4	1	2	8
1734	1	18	10	1	2	8
1735	2	3	0	1	2	8
1736	2	0	4	1	4	0
1737	1	18	0	1	6	8
1738	1	15	6	1	8	0
1739	1	18	6	1	6	0
1740	2	10	8	1	12	0
1741	2	6	8	1	12	8
1742	1	14	0	1	10	8
1743	1	4	10	1	8	8
1744	1	4	10	1	4	8
1745	1	7	6	1	3	4
1746	1	19	0	1	2	4
1747	1	14	10	1	2	8
1748	1	17	0	1	3	4
1749	1	16	0	1	5	4
1750	1	12	6	1	5	4
1751	1	18	6	1	5	4
1752	2	1	10	1	7	4

N. B. In this computation you are to know, that in every year there are two prices of corn, the one at Lady-Day, the other at Michaelmas; both which are put together, and the half is taken for the common price of that year. In the price of malt, the tax of 6 d. per bushel is not charged, which is an addition of 4 s. to every article of the malt, from the commencing of the malt-tax.

Remarks.

The bounty which has been allowed upon corn making, at present, a topic of conversation among the landed and trading interest, in regard to it's continuance, or otherwise; and, being likely to be brought before the parliament the ensuing session, it may not be unuseful to give a state of the argument, as it hath hitherto passed without doors pro and con.

In a treatise said to be written by the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. on the causes of the decay of our foreign trade, he observes, That the laws which give a bounty on exported corn, fish, and flesh, are very prejudicial to our manufactures. For,

'Wages depending on the high or low price corn, fish, and 'flesh bear, the bounties on their exportation serve only to 'feed foreigners cheaper than our own people, to run away 'with our trade: the pretence of encouraging tillage by a 'bounty on corn can have no weight now, since our great 'improvements in husbandry, much less if we erected maga-'zines in every county, against times of scarcity: foreigners 'never buy provisions 'till they want them, and then they 'must have them, whether we give bounties or no.'

The British Merchant, vol. ii. p. 247, says, 'If we were to 'become a province to France, we should be obliged to give a 'bounty on wool, as we do on our corn, that France might 'have it cheaper than our people.' And, in p. 400, 'he com-'putes the value of the manufacture in our woollen goods in 'general, at three times the value of the wool.—Now I ap-'peal to all men of sense, whether it be not much more pre-'judicial, in this case, to feed the workmen cheaper, than 'to sell cheaper the materials; the manufacture being as 'three to one in our woollen trade only, a bounty on ex-'ported wool, though absurd and destructive, stops there: 'but bounties on exported corn, fish, and flesh, serve to feed 'the French cheaper than our own people, to run away not 'only with our woollen, but also with our silk, linen, and 'iron manufactures, and every thing else we can undertake, 'all trade, all navigation. Is not this conduct most absurd, 'most destructive? Could we have acted more servilely, had 'we become a province to France; or, rather, is not this 'the way to make us so? All attempts to confine our wool 'at home must prove vain, until our people are eased of 'taxes, monopolies, and ill-judged laws, equally with or be-'yond foreigners; for, while the French can underwork us 'so much, they can afford to give vast prices for our wool; 'and what effect any prohibition will have against vast pro-'fits, the reader may judge,' &c.

In confirmation of this strain of reasoning, it has been further urged, That, should the public employ one man a whole year in a piece of work, to be sent abroad, and given away, this would plainly be to lose the value of one man's labour: but the loss would be exactly the same, if twelve men should be so employed for a month; or if one twelfth part of the whole year's work should be given away.

Supposing then, that the bounty makes the price of our corn abroad less by one twelfth part than it would otherwise be, it is evident that the nation gives away one part in twelve of all the labour employed in growing this corn, and exporting it, and of the rents of the land on which it grows. To give a bounty on corn exported, is, therefore, nothing less than to hire our people to work for foreigners, not for the beneficial purposes of selling to them goods of all kinds perfectly manufactured, and at their market-price, but to make a necessary of life the cheaper to their manufacturers, seamen, and labourers of every kind.

There are two reasons for the continuance of the bounty, which seem to be most specious: one is urged by the farmer and land-owner, the other by the trader; each of them neglects the interest of the other, and mistakes his own. The farmer says, that, without a bounty, no corn will be exported; and that, without an exportation, he could not pay his rent. But he here neglects the interest of trade, which requires that corn, and all provisions, should be as cheap as possible: for whatever makes them dear, must make labour dear also, and must lessen the sale of our manufactures in foreign markets. And, if the farmer thinks this of no importance to him, he mistakes his own interest: his particular trade, as well as others, requires that labour should be cheap; and the general trade of the nation cannot be hurt, but he must suffer with it: for, if our trade decreases, the number of our people must decrease also; and nothing can support the farmer's business in any country but a great number of inhabitants: this enables him to join together the trades of farming and grazing: his cattle improve his ground, and make it produce more corn, and at less expence, than any other method of husbandry. But he will never feed cattle where he cannot sell them; and he cannot sell them where there are not people to eat them. This will explain the improvements which have been made in our lands since the Revolution.

As our trade, and the number of our people, have increased, the farmer has found a greater demand for beef, mutton, butter, &c. and the stock which he keeps to answer this great demand, manures his land without expence; and, by enabling him to grow on all his lands grass and corn alternately, makes the crops of both more plentiful. Hence it is, that common fields have been inclosed, barren heaths converted to tillage, old pastures broken up, and the farmers in general enabled to pay their advanced rents. Thus all the improvements in farming, and the value of our lands, depend on the increase of trade; and the bounty allowed on the exportation of corn can never be of service to the farmer or the land-owner, if it is prejudicial to the trader.

Let us see, therefore, what the trader says to it.—He objects, that, by taking away the bounty, and, consequently, making our corn cheap, the industry of the common people will be lessened. To give this objection the more weight it is said, that the traders in our manufacture-towns find the greatest difficulty in carrying on their business, upon every extraordinary call from abroad, for our manufactures: that the workmen proportion the value of their labour to the demands for the manufactures; and, when the price of three days labour will maintain their families a week, will not work six days; and, if the necessaries of life were to be had at a cheaper rate, the case would be still worse. It must be allowed, that this is true with regard to all labour in England, where a monopoly is given to every kind of manufacture, and the traders are not allowed to employ such hands as they think fit and able to work for them, but are confined to such only as the law has qualified: but it is very manifest, that, in all countries

where induſtry is not reſtrained, the price of proviſions muſt affect the price of labour. And,

This will always be diminiſhed, when the neceſſaries of life grow cheaper; and the objection ſhews not that the increaſe of the price of corn, by a bounty on it's exportation, is beneficial to trade; but that there is another evil in our law, which we ſhould endeavour to remove: the evil conſiſts in the various difficulties and diſcouragements which are put upon induſtry. Many trades a man may not lawfully exerciſe, who has not ſerved an apprenticeſhip: others he may not join together: at others he may not work within the limits of a corporation. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the laws of this kind: we need only obſerve of them, that every effect they can poſſibly have muſt be detrimental to trade: for every man, if not reſtrained by law, would paſs from one employment to another, as the various turns in trade ſhould require, and would always be employed in the buſineſs for which he was beſt fitted, or in which he was moſt wanted. In this caſe, either all trades would have a ſufficient number of workmen, or would equally want them; and the conſequence of ſuch a general want would be nothing elſe but drawing hither great numbers of foreigners; whereas our preſent reſtraints often put it in the power of workmen to demand higher wages than their work deſerves, and thus prevent the ſale of our manufactures abroad.

There is no complaint more common among our merchants, than that foreigners underwork us in almoſt every kind of manufacture; and can we be ſurprized at it? when the general tendency of our laws is to make labour dear at home, and cheap abroad; when we either forbid our people to work, or oblige them to work in ſome diſadvantageous manner; when we lay all our taxes on trade, or, which is ſtill worſe for trade, on the neceſſaries of life; and when we contrive to feed the labourers, manufacturers, and ſeamen of foreign countries, with our corn, at a cheaper rate than our own people can have it? To raiſe the price of corn at home, in whatever manner it is done, is the ſame thing as to lay a tax on the conſumption of it; and to do that in ſuch a manner as leſſens the price of it abroad, is to apply this tax to the benefit of foreigners. If then we conſider the miſchiefs that the bounty on corn does to trade and farming, in their true light, we may venture to pronounce, that a general exciſe on all the bread we eat, could not be attended with more pernicious conſequences.

Others, who have endeavoured to maintain the reaſonableneſs of taking away the bounty, argue from this principle, That the price of wheat in England has been lower ſince the bounty was granted than before, and compare the prices of wheat, as they ſtood from the ſeveral mediums taken upon different numbers of years, ſince the bounty was firſt allowed in the year 1689, with the prices found from mediums, taken upon equal numbers of years before the bounty took place; which eſtimation is taken from the foregoing account of biſhop Fleetwood, which is generally eſteemed accurate.

The price of wheat per quarter, upon a medium taken on 43 years, from 1646, being the firſt year the account commences, to 1688, the year before the bounty was allowed, appears to be at the rate of - - - l. 2 : 10 : 8

From the medium taken on 43 years, from 1689, being the firſt year the bounty was allowed, to 1731, the price of wheat per quarter appears to be - - - - l. 1 : 18 : 0

An annual loſs to the farmer ſince the bounty took place - - - l. 0 : 12 : 8

From 1699 to 1688, being the laſt 20 years before the bounty was allowed, the price of wheat per quarter was, at a medium, - l. 2 : 6 : 2

From 1726 to 1745, being the laſt 20 years in this account, the price of wheat, at a medium, per quarter, was - - - l. 1 : 17 : 9¾

An annual loſs to the farmer in price ſince the bounty took place - - l. 0 : 8 : 4¼

The medium on wheat from 1649 to 1668, being 20 years, was per quarter - l. 2 : 12 : 8½

The medium from 1706 to 1725, being 20 years, was per quarter - - l. 2 : 4 : 9

An annual loſs to the farmer in price ſince the bounty took place - - l. 0 : 7 : 11¼

The medium on wheat for 14 years, from 1675 to 1688, was per quarter - l. 2 : 5 : 4¼

The medium of wheat for 14 years, from 1732 to 1745, was per quarter - - l. 1 : 15 : 6½

An annual loſs to the farmer in price ſince the bounty took place - - l. 0 : 9 : 9¾

Moreover it is obſervable, that, from the year 1689, being the year when the bounty was firſt granted, to the year 1745, when the account ends, containing the ſpace of 57 years, the farmer has received annually 8 s. 5 d. per quarter leſs for his wheat than it bore, one year with another, for 43 years preceding the year when the bounty was firſt allowed.

If the prices of barley, and other kinds of corn, had been ſtated in the biſhop's account, we might have been enabled to have made the ſame computations on them, which would have ſhewn how the mediums ſtood upon them; and it is reaſonable to believe that they would appear, upon ſuch eſtimate, to be lowered conſiderably in the prices, ſince the bounty.

If the freight from London to Holland be deducted, which is 1 s. 5 d. ½ per quarter, out of 2 s. 6 d. which is the bounty per quarter, the remainder, being 1 s. 0 d. ½, is the encouragement given to the merchant to export barley; which encouragement is at the rate of l. 7 : 7 : 11 per cent. So likewiſe with regard to wheat; when the price of wheat is at 1 l. 4 s. per quarter, deducting the freight, which ſuppoſed to be 1 s. 5 d. ½ per quarter, out of the bounty of 5 s. per quarter, the remainder, 3 s. 5 d. ½, is the encouragement given by the bounty per quarter to export wheat, which, in the way of trade, is at the rate of l. 14 : 15 : 1 per cent. So that in the caſe of barley it appears, that, whatever the corn-merchant will allow out of this l. 7 : 7 : 11 per cent. to tempt the foreigners to buy our corn, that allowance, whatever it be, whether at the rate of 2, 3, or 4 per cent. will be the advantage that every ſuch foreigner will have, in his manufactory of barley of Engliſh growth, over the Engliſh manufacturer of the ſame commodity at every foreign market. And l. 14 : 15 : 1 per cent. we ſee, is the encouragement which the bounty on wheat gives to the merchant: whatever proportion of this encouragement, whether it be 5, 6, 8, or 10 per cent. he may chuſe to allow out of this to the foreigner, juſt ſo much cheaper will the foreigner be enabled to work, and ſell his manufacture, than an Engliſhman can.

What is ſtill more grievous in this caſe is, that we always find it very difficult, if not impoſſible, in all caſes where there is any conſiderable degree of diſproportion in the price of a foreign manufacture and our own, to prevent, by any penal laws, ſuch manufacture from being run in upon us.

That the running of the foreign manufacture of this kind has increaſed upon us ever ſince the bounty took place, appears from the many laws which have been made, ever ſince that time, to prevent the foreign manufacture of this kind from a vent in our home-market.

If this be a true repreſentation of the ill effects of this bounty beſides the loſs occaſioned by it to the nation in general, how great is that which it immediately brings on the farmer? and how can we, without taking off this bounty, pretend to make any regulation for raiſing the price of ſpirituous liquors, to prevent the melancholy effects that ariſe from the exceſs in the uſe of them?

But, if the bounty be withdrawn, a check will be given to the introduction of any ſuch foreign-manufactured liquors, and we may then venture, properly and ſafely, to lay ſome further additional duty upon our own, which will increaſe their price, and, conſequently, it will be eaſier to ſuppreſs that general depravity and debauchery in theſe liquors that ſo univerſally prevails among the poor, even among our mechanics and manufacturers.

If, notwithſtanding what has been urged, that the farmer has ſold his wheat at the annual rate of 8 s. 5 d. per quarter leſs, ſince the bounty was allowed in the year 1689, than he did before for the courſe of 43 years preceding that time, it may be ſaid, that Holland, or any other particular country, will be furniſhed with corn from other parts of Europe, inſtead of buying our's and ſo continue their manufactory of ſpirituous liquors: and that, as the Engliſh manufacturers of this kind have never yet gained any vent at a foreign market, it is a mere chimæra to expect they ever ſhould gain ſuch vent.

In anſwer to this, it may be ſaid, that, when the price of corn in England is lower than it is in Holland, and in other foreign market or markets, our corn will have a vent at ſuch foreign market or markets, without the aſſiſtance of a bounty; and that, in fact, Holland buys our corn for no other reaſon than becauſe it buys it cheaper, or as cheap, as it does of any other country: and all other countries that purchaſe it of us are moved by the ſame conſiderations: that, in fact, corn has been, of late years, produced in England with as little, or leſs expence, than in any part of Europe, notwithſtanding the many diſadvantages under which farming labours from ſeveral laws, meant, indeed, for it's encouragement, but, in truth, very injurious to it's true intereſt *.

* Such, for inſtance, is reckoned, by ſome, the law prohibiting the importation of great cattle, which raiſes their price exceſſively, and is, therefore, a palpable hindrance to the farmer's purchaſing ſuch numbers of them as he could conveniently fatten, or otherwiſe make a profit of, which he now loſes; and this loſs is accompanied with another, that of their manure, which annually leſſens his crops of corn. —The farmers alſo nearly and ſenſibly feel the want of a free market at home, which Smithfield certainly is not.— The prohibition on raw hides is likewiſe thought to be an injury to the farmer, as it diſcourages the manufacture of leather at home, and promotes it abroad; and, conſequently, leſſens the farmer's price for raw hides, and conſiderably leſſens the

the number of hands in England, which as neceſſarily decreaſes manufactures of this and other kinds, and manufactures are ultimately the ſupport of farming.

To ſay, as ſome do, that becauſe poſſibly we never have had any vent for our manufacture of ſpirituous liquors in any foreign markets, that therefore we can never arrive at ſuch perfection in goodneſs and cheapneſs as to gain one, ſeems groundleſs, and only a mere ipſe dixit, unleſs it can be proved that our laws, in regard to trade, direct ſuch regulations as give a fair trial to the induſtry and capacities of the people: but we have not yet made any ſuch effectual trial, nor is it, perhaps, poſſible to make it as long as the bounty ſhall remain. Our Britiſh diſtillery is arrived at great perfection; and what lengths they might go, under proper regulations, is not eaſy to ſay.

Thus I have candidly and impartially ſtated the argument for withdrawing the bounty. I ſhall now attempt to do equal juſtice to the other ſide of the queſtion, and ſubmit the whole to the judgment of thoſe who may make a national uſe of it.

The demonſtration which is ſaid to be given of the prejudice of this bounty to the national wealth, is not convincing from the compariſon drawn of giving away the labour of a man, nor is it a juſt ſimile: for it is not true that the bounty is given away to foreigners; it is our own land-owners, and our own people at home, who receive all the benefits of it: for it is by means of the bounty alone that we are enabled to ſupply foreign markets as cheap as other corn-countries do; without it we ſhould not have ſold near ſo much to the French even this year; they having purchaſed very large quantities elſewhere, and at cheaper rates, notwithſtanding the bounty. And, when the merchant here makes an eſtimate of the advantage of exporting corn, from the ſtate of markets abroad, he would very rarely find encouragement for the undertaking without the bounty, by which he eſteems the coſt ſo much leſſened; for there are divers charges of collecting and ſhipping grain, of freight and ſale, &c. that greatly enhance the price, and make it come dearer to the conſumer. Wherefore, it is by means of the bounty alone that our lands are improved, common fields incloſed, barren heaths converted to tillage, and old paſtures broken up; and it is the bounty alone that enables the farmer to pay his advanced rent, though ſome aſcribe all theſe benefits to quite a different, and altogether an inſufficient cauſe. The bounty was wiſely deſigned by our anceſtors, to make England the chief granary of Europe; and the event has verified their excellent diſcernment, by bringing in millions of money into the kingdom, which we could have never had reaſon to expect, while other countries, without this bounty, could have underſold us. And, as the riches of a nation depend upon the multitude of inhabitants uſefully employed; ſo, without theſe improvements of the land, there muſt have been leſs work, and would, conſequently, have been leſs people in the kingdom.

Since then it is the bounty which has ſo much increaſed the value of our lands, according to the intention of parliament, in wiſely granting it, the withdrawing it muſt have the contrary effect; for then the farmers muſt be undone, and the corn-trade be abſolutely loſt to the kingdom, or there muſt neceſſarily be a reduction of rents of more than 30 per cent. which will ſcarcely be reliſhed by the land-owners, even if totally exempted from the land-tax, which does not ſeem very likely ſoon, if ever to be the caſe. Nor would ſuch a declenſion in the value of lands fail to make ſtrange havock in the kingdom; for, though the bounty has greatly encreaſed the value of lands, yet every purchaſer of land buys that advantage; and, as the bounty is of more importance to the land than would be, perhaps, even a total exemption from a land-tax, though the ballance in the preſent ſituation is greatly in favour of the revenue: it ſeems, therefore, for the general intereſt of the nation, that the old laws be continued; and as they have ſo much increaſed the trade and riches of the nation, it is wiſdom to know when we are well in ſo important a circumſtance, and not attempt an alteration, leſt the point ſhould be miſtaken, and other nations get this trade out of our hands: for, without the bounty, we have little reaſon to expect but a very ſmall ſhare of it, unleſs in times of very extraordinary plenty at home, and of extreme want abroad, which may but ſeldom happen together.

We find already that ſeveral neighbouring nations, and ſome of our moſt diſtant provinces, are vying with us in this branch of trade. Denmark, Hamburgh, Dantzick, and the Baltic, have, for ſome years paſt, furniſhed very large quantities of corn to the places where it has been wanted, and at much cheaper rates than could be had from us, notwithſtanding the bounty; and our own plantations in America not only ſupply much to Spain and Portugal, but even come ſo near to us as Ireland and the Bay of Biſcay, and underſell us at theſe places; not to mention what a flouriſhing trade this is in Sicily, Naples, the Levant, Morea, &c.—So that all theſe countries, if we reſign to them this part of our commerce, will grow more potent by ſea and land; and Britiſh America may alſo contribute to the ruin of Great-Britain. Wherefore, upon any reduction of the bounty, the corn-trade muſt decline in England, and a gradual neglect of tillage at home will encourage it more and more abroad; which may, in time, ſubject us to the miſery of ſeeking foreign ſupplies even for our own uſe; which was a caſe that ſhould not be forgotten, when a few years ſince our crop failed, and we imported large quantities from abroad. Does it not therefore become the wiſdom of the nation to ſtrive, by every prudent meaſure, to ſecure the corn-trade to the kingdom? For may not any falſe ſtep upon ſo tender and delicate an occaſion open a wide door to poverty and diſtreſs?

It is an experienced truth, and therefore become an univerſal maxim, that thoſe who can furniſh cheapeſt a commodity of equal goodneſs, will have the trade; but, from what has been ſaid, in favour of withdrawing the bounty, the corn-trade is repreſented only as ſubſervient to all others, and to bear ſcarce any proportion to the manufactures, though perhaps the corn-trade, conſidered in it's full extent, is as conſiderable a branch as moſt of them; and, if not the firſt, may, we apprehend, be accounted the ſecond moſt valuable branch belonging to the kingdom. If we reflect a little upon the extent of it, we ſhall, perhaps, find the tract of land dependent thereon is the moſt conſiderable part of the nation, and the ſame alſo of the inhabitants and people therein employed. And, I believe, there is not any one branch of foreign trade, which is ſo beneficial to the intereſt of navigation, for the bounty is well and wiſely confined to the employment of our own ſhipping; 'tis a bulky commodity, and therefore employs the more veſſels. Were we to take a ſurvey of all the out-ports great and ſmall, upon the coaſts of this kingdom, we ſhould be ſurprized to ſee how the number of ſhips and veſſels are increaſed, which have no other dependance than the corn-trade; and, if there is an increaſe of ſhipping, there muſt alſo be an increaſe of mariners, which all agree to be the beſt ſecurity of the kingdom. The employment of theſe ſhips and mariners neceſſarily occaſions buſineſs among various ſorts of mechanics and artificers aſhore: in ſhort, 'tis certain, that a multitude of families have their ſole dependance on the employment of ſhipping in the corn-trade, and, when any ſtagnation happens, the conſequences are ſoon evidently experienced.

Was the bounty on corn withdrawn, it might then be loaded on foreign ſhipping as well as our own, and a preference would be given to them, for what ſhare of this trade we might have remaining, becauſe they will generally carry it much cheaper than our's, and this would prove a fatal ſtroke to our navigation. Is it not, therefore, as material that we ſhould ſtudy to preſerve the corn-buſineſs, as any other of equal importance to the nation, and not ſuffer other countries to underſell us; which, without the bounty, they certainly can and will do?

Beſide, we do not conceive that the exportation of corn has any material influence upon the manufactories of the nation, the chief of which are ſituated generally in the interior parts of the kingdom, where the exportation can have very little effect upon the price. Theſe are not countries that generally produce abundance of corn, and therefore the people more eaſily conceive miſtaken notions about ſending it out of the kingdom.—And, though our manufacturers merit a tender care and regard, yet the intereſt of the farmer is not to be neglected. Is all the ſea-coaſt, whoſe chief dependance is on the exportation of corn, to be totally undone for want of other employment?

'Tis an experienced truth, that cheapneſs and plenty do not always encourage induſtry in the poor. But a permanent change on the price of proviſion muſt affect the price of labour: yet the change that is ſometimes wrought in the price of corn by large exportation, is not permanent, but accidental and temporary; and ſuch there muſt of neceſſity always be in the price of proviſions, if from no other cauſe than the difference of our crops at home; for large demands for corn abroad are not permanent, and therefore it is that the exportation (though a ſeeming paradox) makes it cheap at home; for, our lands being improved, people ſow all they can upon the preſumption of an exportation, which elſe there would not be encouragement to do; and, as the foreign demand is precarious, ſo it often happens, that we have large ſtocks in the kingdom, and little or no vent for it: the price of corn may, indeed, for a ſeaſon advance, through the heat of the circulation for foreign markets; as is the caſe, more or leſs, in moſt other merchandizes; but experience proves, that corn is only dear for a continuance, when the crop has proved light at home: a deficiency this way will ſoon overballance the largeſt exportation ever known, and the farmer muſt then ſell his corn at a dearer rate, or can't pay his rent, as eſtates are now in general let. When we have a plentiful crop, wheat is and will be cheap, and large ſtocks left even after the greateſt exportation. What then would be the conſequence, if no bounty was allowed to encourage the exportation, and eſpecially as our plenty often happens, when there is no great demand for it abroad? 'Tis certain, therefore, that, by the exportation of corn, there is no permanent advance of the price, but, on the contrary, there are often accidental changes, when it is thereby lowered; and, to make it appear that the price of bread is not, on an average, at any unreaſonable price for the labourer, wheat has not, for the laſt ſeven years, met at more than 26 s. 6 d. per quarter

Exchequer meaſure, and that in a place of conſiderable exportation; nor is it conceived, that a ſmall advance of bread would be perceptible in the ſale of any piece of goods manufactured and ſent abroad.

Moreover, if great cheapneſs of corn be moſt advantageous to the kingdom, why is it that the legiſlature does not freely ſuffer it to be imported, when it may, but that ſuch liberty would be deſtructive to the landed intereſt of the kingdom?

'Tis obſervable, that very oppoſite and contradictory arguments have been offered againſt the bounty on corn. From the foregoing account of biſhop Fleetwood, of the market-price of wheat at Windſor, it is ſaid, that the price has declined ever ſince the bounty has been allowed; from whence is inferred a ſwelling account of the farmer's loſs, and of the prejudice it has been to his intereſt; not conſidering, that the annual product of the land has been much more conſiderable. So that what has been ſaid againſt the bounty, has been argued from ſelf contradictory principles, which ſerve to corroborate what has been urged in favour of it's continuance; for, at the ſame time it has improved our lands by encouraging the exportation of corn, it has alſo made corn the cheaper to the manufacturers, &c.

Some have propoſed to leſſen the bounty on wheat and augment it on flour; but 'tis conceived that this would be of no ſervice, though the more can be manufactured at home would be certainly beſt; but ſome countries abroad impoſe a larger duty on flour than on wheat, and Holland even prohibits it; in others flour is not ſo ſaleable a commodity; in Spain they will ſcarce touch it, if they can have wheat; beſides, flour is a merchandize more ſubject to ſpoil in hot countries, and therefore ſuch an alteration would not be prudent to make.

The doctrine of allowing bounties, upon various ſpecies of goods, has by long experience proved to be of advantage to the nation, and therefore ſhould not in any inſtance be altered, without the moſt mature deliberation: ſuch are the bounties on Britiſh made ſail-cloth, the Britiſh manufactures of ſilk, fiſh, and fleſh, naval ſtores, Britiſh made gun-powder, on Britiſh ſpirits drawn from corn, Britiſh refined ſugar, Britiſh and Iriſh linnens, &c.—None of theſe articles ſeem to be of that conſequence to the nation, as the great article of corn; and therefore, if the wiſdom of the nation ſhall judge it found policy to continue theſe, our repreſentatives will hardly be induced, we humbly apprehend, to withdraw that upon corn, which ſo nearly and ſenſibly muſt affect the whole landed intereſt of the nation. And wherefore do we allow drawbacks upon the re-exportation, even of foreign commodities, but for the general benefit of our navigation, the freight being all clear gain to the kingdom? Are not theſe drawbacks a kind of bounties allowed upon foreign merchandizes, and can we therefore, conſiſtently with ourſelves, withdraw the bounty, which has long been experienced to be ſo nationally beneficial? Has not the wiſdom of the legiſlature taken care, that this commodity ſhall be ſhipped on board Britiſh ſhips, whereof the maſter, and at leaſt two thirds of the mariners, are to be Britiſh ſubjects? Is not this greatly for the encouragement of the Britiſh navigation?

When the bounties that were granted upon the raiſing of pitch and tar in the Britiſh plantations, had pretty well enabled us to ſupply ourſelves with theſe commodities, they were withdrawn, and theſe trades ſoon returned again to the hands of the Swedes and Ruſſians; which obliged us to renew the bounties, or to give up the trade.

With regard to any deficiency that may have happened in the funds, which have been appropriated for the payment of theſe bounties on corn, and for which the debentures have been duly and legally made out, we are ſurprized, that any doubt can be made of the payment thereof, upon proper and becoming application; nor is it leſs extraordinary for people to ſuggeſt, as ſome have done, that, if there is no ſuch deficiency, the public money muſt have been alienated, and applied to other purpoſes than intended by parliament; for no perſon or perſons in this kingdom, I am apt to believe, would dare thus to miſapply the public money, when it may be ſo eaſily detected.

CORNWALL, is bounded by the Engliſh channel on the ſouth, St George's channel on the weſt, Briſtol channel on the north, and is parted from Devonſhire on the eaſt by the river Tamar, and is in circumference about 150 miles.

It's chief rivers are the Tamar and Hamel. The air is clear and healthful, but ſharp; and, being almoſt encompaſſed with the ſea, ſubjects it to violent flaws of wind. Though mountainous and rocky, it hath all kinds of ſoil, the vallies affording plenty of paſture; and the land near them well cultivated, being manured with a ſea-weed called ore-wood, and a fat ſort of ſand. Here are the beſt ſlate tiles, which are not only uſed in England, but exported in great quantities; as alſo the moor-ſtone for facing windows, doors, and chimnies; which, when poliſhed, looks as well as the Egyptian granate. It abounds with tin and lead-mines, and along with the tin a yellow ore is dug, called mundic, yielding good copper.

In their rivers and bays are trout, lobſters, oyſters, ſoles, &c. but they profit moſt by their pilchards (called the Spaniſh ca-

pon) becauſe ſerved up by them, dreſſed with oil and lemon, as a dainty: pilchards are ſaved three ways, viz. by fuming, preſſing, or pickling, which employs great numbers of women and children, to the great relief of their neceſſity.

Their chief metal and manufacture is tin. When the ore is brought above ground in the ſtone, 'tis broke with hammers, then carried to the ſtamping-mills, which makes it ready for other mills, that grind it to powder: when waſhed and cleared from earth, &c. 'tis melted into pigs of three or four hundred weight, marked with the owner's name, and the value ſet upon it at the coining-houſe. The ſtamp is the ſeal of the duchy of Cornwall. The tinners are regulated by laws called Stannary. Since the Norman conqueſt, the tinners had from time to time new offices and privileges granted them: one is, that no Engliſhman in that duchy ſhall pay cuſtom for exporting Corniſh cloth, granted them in conſideration of their paying 4 s. for the coinage of every hundred weight of tin, whereas Devonſhire pays no more than 8 d. They have alſo the freedom to take ſand out of the ſea, and carry it to any part of the county for manure. The coinage towns are Leſkard, Leſtwithiel, Truro, Helſton, and Penſance. And the tinners are reckoned at leaſt 100,000.

This county, though ſo remote from the royal reſidence, ſends no leſs than 44 members to parliament, which is but one leſs than what repreſents all North Britain; and almoſt double the number returned from the whole principality of Wales, or from any of the counties of England, ſome of which are much larger, if not three times more populous and wealthy than it.

LAUNCESTON, the chief town, is a populous trading place, and gives title of viſcount to the prince of Wales.

LESKARD is one of the largeſt and beſt built towns in the county, and has, perhaps, the greateſt market and trade, eſpecially in all manufactures of leather.

LESTWITHIEL is a well built town. It's chief trade is the woollen manufacture.

TRURO is a branch of the port of Falmouth, and ſtands at the conflux of two rivers, that almoſt encompaſs the town, and form a large wharf. It's chief trade is ſhipping off tin and copper ore, which laſt is found in great quantities in the mountains betwixt this and St Michael's, and is much improved ſince the mills erected near Briſtol, &c. for the battery-wares. It's mayor, who is choſen out of the aldermen, has large privileges, being alſo mayor of Falmouth; and the keyage of goods, laden and unladen there, belongs to this corporation.

BODMIN almoſt in the center of the county, has a good corn and fleſh-market.

HELSTON is a large, populous, trading town; ſeveral tin ſhips take in their lading here. King John gave it the liberty to build a Guildhall, to pay no toll but in the city of London, to be impleaded no where but in their own borough, and to enjoy the privileges of Launceſton-Caſtle.

SALTASH is but a league from Plymouth dock. The inhabitants trade much in malt and beer. It has ſeveral large privileges over the haven belonging to it.

WESTLOW has a trade in pilchards, &c. but not ſo conſiderable as at Eaſtlow.

PENRYN is a neat built town, well watered with rivulets, and has an arm of the ſea on each ſide, with a good cuſtom-houſe and key. This, and other towns near it, drive ſo conſiderable a trade in drying and vending pilchards, and in the Newfoundland fiſhery, that here are many merchants.

TREGONY is on the ſame river. It's chief manufacture is ſerge.

ST IVES, though now a poor harbour, being almoſt choaked up with ſand, has thriven much by trade with pilchards and ſlates. Not far from it are ſome copper-mines.

FOWEY is a populous and pretty town, and has many flouriſhing merchants, who have a great ſhare in the pilchard fiſhery.

KELLINGTON is not inferior to the better half of the Corniſh boroughs for buildings and wealth. It's chief trade is the woollen manufacture.

FALMOUTH is by much the richeſt and beſt trading town in the county, and larger than any three of it's boroughs that ſend members. 'Tis well built, and it's trade much increaſed ſince the eſtabliſhment of the packets between this place, Portugal, and the Weſt-Indies.

The cuſtom-houſe for moſt of the towns in this county is eſtabliſhed at this town, where the duties are very conſiderable.

HELFORD is a harbour where the tin ſhips often load, and here are many veſſels in the pilchard trade.

PENSANCE, the fartheſt town of any note in the weſt of England, is well built and populous, having many ſhips belonging to it. Veins of lead, tin, and copper, are ſaid to be ſeen here, even to low-water mark, and in the very ſea.

PADSTOW lies convenient for trade with Ireland. It's chief trade, beſides that in ſlate-tiles, is the herring fiſhery. New Iſland, here, is noted for good camphire and ſea fowl.

COROMANDEL, in the Mogul empire. This coaſt ſtretches ſouth-weſt from the bay of Bengal, or rather the

limits of Golconda to thoſe of Madera. Moſt of the country is plain, and they have but few mountains or trees. So fruitful it is in rice, that 'tis ſaid to have took it's name thence; yet ſometimes, for want of the uſual rains, the famine is ſuch, that the natives ſell themſelves for food. They have multitudes of ſheep with no wool, but a little hair.

They have ſcarce any thing curious about them but their looms for weaving ſeveral ſorts of fine ſilks, callicoes, and muſlins; their chief manufacture, for which the Europeans deal with them, and their cotton cloth, which is reckoned the fineſt in the Indies; yet they work in ſorry dark huts like hogſties. Not only European goods are in requeſt here, but all ſorts of ſpice and gold, which they underſtand very well.

The Engliſh and Dutch have ſo many forts, factories, and other ſettlements on this coaſt, that they may be ſaid to poſſeſs the whole; yet they are ſubject to the Great Mogul, who has numbers of his ſubjects in all the places they poſſeſs.

The chief places of any trade as they lie from north to ſouth, are,

1. PETTIPOLY, which lies a league up a pretty large river. It is the largeſt harbour on this coaſt, but the bar has ſome ſhallows ſcarce paſſable but by ſmall veſſels. The printed and dyed ſtuffs of this place are highly valued. They have alſo good indigo here.
2. KISNIPATAN, a little more ſouthward, on a good large river, formerly bought good ſtore of cotton cloth of the Engliſh factories, but greatly decreaſed ſince: as alſo Armegon.
3. CARRERA, on a large river, is noted for a plant uſed in dyeing; as are alſo Caletour and Penna, two ſmall places near it.
4. PALIACATE, at the mouth of a river of that name, 9 leagues north from fort St George, and 140 miles ſouth from Pettipoly, is a chief factory of the Dutch, to which all their others on this coaſt are ſubordinate. The pagans here trade in painted and white callicoes, and other linnen. The Banians and Jews are the chief traders. Here the Dutch refine what ſaltpetre they bring from Bengal, and make gunpowder for their other factories. Great quantities of cotton-ſtockings are knit here, and exported to all the European factories in India.
5. FORT ST GEORGE, or MADRASPATAN, put in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh Eaſt-India company, by one of the pagan princes, above ſixſcore years ago, ratified by the king of Golconda, to whoſe ſovereign the company pays 7000 pagodas (worth about 9 s. each) per ann. for the royalties and cuſtoms; by which 'tis ſaid they gain four times the ſum, the whole amounting to 30,000 piſtoles at leaſt. It is a place of the utmoſt importance to the company, for it's ſtrength, wealth, and the great annual returns it makes in callicoes and muſlins. The governor here preſides alſo over all the ſettlements on the Coromandel coaſt, and the weſt coaſt of Sumatra; the perſon, who is ſaid to preſide at Bencoolen, being but a deputy-governor there. He is alſo captain of the firſt company of ſoldiers.

It is divided by ſome into three, though they are properly only two towns, viz. the Engliſh or White Town, and the Black City, on the north ſide of it, called by the Moors, Madraſs, or Chinnepatan.

The number of houſes, in the whole White Town, is not much above 120; they are neat, and have Italian porticoes and rows of trees before their doors.

The Black Town or City is much the largeſt, and is more than a mile and half in compaſs.

The river by which it is waſhed, falls at the diſtance of half a mile into the ſea; but, before the wet ſeaſon, the bar is cut to widen it's paſſage, or it would overflow the country. It runs thus with a great ſtream two months in the year, after which the bar cloſes of itſelf, and forms a peninſula three miles round, which feeds numbers of ſheep and hogs, and ſome cows; but the ſoil is ſo poor, notwithſtanding the charge the company has been at to improve it, that the cattle would ſtarve, had they no other ſuſtenance.

They trade from hence to all parts eaſt of the cape of Good Hope; but the greateſt ſhips uſe the Mocha, Perſia, and Surat market, with Bengal and China commodities, and touch by the way on the Malabar coaſt, for pepper, cacao-nuts, coyre, and ſeveral drugs, the produce of that coaſt.

The European goods that ſell beſt here, are lead, wine, beer in caſks or bottles, ale, cyder, cheeſe, cloth-hats, fine ribbands, gold and ſilver lace, thread and worſted ſtockings, and all other ſorts of haberdaſhery.

Returns are made to Europe in all the product of the Indies, particularly cotton cloth and muſlins, which are cheaper here than at Surat, but dearer than in Bengal.

6. ST THOMAS, about two leagues ſouth of fort St George. 'Tis inhabited by weavers and dyers, and noted for the beſt coloured ſtuffs in India: but there is no factory here, and the people poor, the trade being removed to Madras.
7. COBELON, ſix leagues ſouth of fort St George.

SADRASPATAN, thirty miles ſouth of fort St George, is a ſmall Dutch factory; the town is populous, but the houſes mean; it ſtands in a healthful country and fruitful ſoil.

CONYMERE, formerly an Engliſh factory, 'till transferred to fort St David.

PONDICHERRY, is one of the moſt eminent factories belonging to the French.

The chief revenues of the company ariſe from cuſtoms of 5 per cent. on goods imported and exported by ſea; choultry, or land cuſtom, of two and a half per cent. on cloth, proviſions, &c. brought in from the country; which, when exported, pay two and a half per cent. more; anchorage duty, paſſes, coinage, &c. which all together are very conſiderable; for the mint alone brings above 1000 pagodas a month into the company's coffers, at one half per cent. for coinage of gold, and two per cent. for ſilver. The bullion that comes from Europe, &c. is coined into roupies, which are ſtamped with Perſian characters, declaring the Mogul's name, year of his reign, and ſome of his epithets. They alſo coin gold into pagodas of different denominations and value. The Moors have alſo mettas, or toll-houſes round the city, where they receive about ſeven per cent. on all goods that paſs by them, except what is for the French, who only pay the choultry above-mentioned. Beſides the neighbouring villages which the merchants or others farm of the company, at certain rents, amounting in the whole to near 1300 pagodas a year, the ſcavenger, fiſhing-farm, wine licence, &c. are equally advantageous to it. Another conſiderable branch of the company's profit is the tobacco and betal farm, which is a ſmall duty laid on thoſe commodities, and leaſed out to the black merchants for 8000 pagodas per ann. And another branch is the arrack farm, or the ſole licence of making Pariar arrack, for which they are paid 3600 pagodas a year. The common people prefer this to the beſt Batavia or Goa arrack, only becauſe it is more heating. 'Tis obſerved, that theſe three laſt-mentioned commodities, whence ſuch vaſt profit ariſes, are all conſumed by the inhabitants, who are no leſs within the company's bounds than 300,000 ſouls.

TEGNAPATAN belongs to the Dutch, as alſo CARCAL and TIREPOLIER.

The principality of GINGI, extending 160 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 80 in breadth, abounds in rice, ſalt, and fruits, but ſo ſtocked with people, that they are forced to have proviſions from other countries. It exports, to other parts of the Indies, linnen and woollen ſtuffs; importing chiefly ſpices, ſandal-wood, Chineſe ſilks, velvets, ſattins, &c. It has but two towns, and both within land, viz.

1. GINGI, or CHENGIER, it's capital, is ſaid to be very populous, and three times as big as Rotterdam, well fortified, and lies in a pleaſant valley by a fine river.
2. CIDAMBARAN, about 46 miles N. W. from Gingi, of chief note for it's ſtately pagods.

The principality of TANJAOR, on the ſouth of Gingi, extends 139 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 73 along the coaſt. The Europeans find it very unhealthful, but trade greatly here in rice, painted callicoe, dye-woods, &c. for which they give bars of ſilver in exchange.

1. FORT ST DAVID is a ſtrong fort and factory belonging to the Engliſh. It is of great profit to the company, becauſe of the rents they have here, and the great quantities of callicoes and muſlins carried hence to Europe. The country is healthful, pleaſant, and fruitful, and watered with ſeveral rivers, which ſerve as walls to fortify the ſettlement.
2. PORTO NOVO, a Dutch factory. The country is fertile, pleaſant, and healthful, and produces good cotton cloth, which is either ſold at home, or exported to Pegu, Tanacerim, Queda, Jehore, and Atcheen, or Sumatra.
3. TRANQUEBAR, a fortreſs and colony of the Danes. It is ſaid to be one of the largeſt towns in the Indies, next to Batavia, but their trade is inconſiderable.
4. NEGAPATAN belongs to the Dutch. The colony affords little beſides tobacco and long-cloth.
5. TANJAOR, the capitol, is an inland town; but we have no exact account of it.

MADURA, commonly called the FISHING-COAST, or PEARL-COAST, becauſe of the oyſter-fiſhery, which produces great quantities of pearl, but they are ſmall, not comparable to the true oriental pearl, in the gulph of Perſia. It is ſaid no leſs than 60,000 people are employed in this fiſhery, and guarding the veſſels.

This country belongs now to the Dutch. It bears no herbs or plants, but thiſtles or houſeleeks.

It's only inland towns of note are,

1. MADURA the capital.
2. TICHERAPALI, one of the moſt famous places in India.

The moſt remarkable on the coaſt are,

1. TENDY, whence many hundreds of cattle are yearly tranſported to the iſland of Ceylon, to which they croſs in four or five hours.
2. TUTUCORIN, a Dutch factory. A great quantity of cloth is wove in this town The beſt lime in the Eaſt-Indies is made here, of oyſter-ſhells. The Dutch colony here ſuperintends the pearl-fiſhery, which is ſaid to bring their company at leaſt 20,000 l. a year.
3. MANAPAAR, another Dutch factory, ſtanding on a high ground, about a mile from the ſea.

4. PERIPATAN, one of the chief towns on the coaſt, and the capital of the Maravas and Paravas, a barbarous ſort of robbers, ſo called.

MARAVA, is a large kingdom, tributary to that of Madura. One quarter of this country is emphatically called The Robbers County, where they come out of their foreſts 5 or 600 in a night, to plunder where they can. All endeavours uſed by their prince to check them have hitherto proved ineffectual. In the year 1709 only, they laid waſte above 500 conſiderable ſettlements.

The greateſt trade here is in fiſh, which they carry up the country, to exchange for rice, and other neceſſary proviſions, of which the fiſhing coaſt is quite deſtitute; the whole coaſt, for about twelve leagues, being covered with a kind of brambles, and a dry burning ſand, except a foreſt about five or ſix leagues in length, infeſted by tygers.

CORSICA, is an iſland of the Mediterranean, ſituate between that of Sardinia and the ſouthern coaſts of Italy. It's greateſt length is computed to be about 110 Italian miles, and it's breadth about 80. It hath the ſtate, city, and ſea of Genoa on the north; Sardinia on the ſouth, from which it is parted by a ſtreight about eight ſmall miles over; the Tuſcan Sea, and Naples toward the eaſt; and the Mediterranean on the weſt.

It is at preſent divided into four diſtricts, or provinces, each ſubdivided into cantons, called by the natives pieves.

The iſland is, in general, ſo woody and mountainous, and the ground ſo dry and ſtony, that few things grow in it, but by dint of labour. Some parts of it, indeed, produce good corn, wines, figs, almonds, &c. and ſome paſture-grounds breed, alſo, quantities of cattle, and their foreſts plenty of deer and other game, as their coaſts do fiſh, which is very good, particularly the ton, a kind of ſturgeon, and a ſmall fiſh, called ſardinas. Some good coral is likewiſe found about them.

The iſland, however, is but thinly peopled, by reaſon of it's unwholſome air, and it's more diſagreeable government under the Genoeſe.

The Corſicans are repreſented as uncivilized, brutiſh, cruel, and revengeful; inſomuch that the name of Corſair, which ſignifies a pirate, or rover, is thought to be derived hence; but it muſt be confeſſed they are bold and valiant, and, for the moſt part, very good ſoldiers, on which account they are uſually among the Pope's guard.

Places of any note in the iſland are thoſe which follow:

I. In the northern province, or diſtrict, called DI ANO LI MONTI.

BASTIA, the capital of the iſland, ſituate on the north-eaſt part of it. It has a good harbour, defended by a fort, and is alſo the reſidence of the Genoeſe governor.

SAN FIORENZO is a ſmall but convenient ſea-port, with a good haven, ſituate on the north ſide of the iſland, on a gulph of the ſame name.

NEBIO, once a fine city, but now reduced almoſt to the condition of a village. It ſtands about a mile from the north coaſt and from the caſtle of St Fiorenzo, and about 11 north-weſt from Baſtia.

CENTURI ſtands on the utmoſt northern cape, overagainſt the iſland Centuria, to which it gives name. It is now inconſiderable, and thinly inhabited.

MARIANA, anciently a famed city and Roman colony, hath now nothing left but it's noble ruins, ſtill to be ſeen on the eaſtern coaſt, about 15 miles ſouth of Baſtia.

II. In the ſouthern part, or DI LA LI MONTI,

BONIFACIO, ſituate on the moſt ſouthern verge of the iſland, and is a very ſtrong and well-peopled city. It ſtands on a high rock, and hath a very convenient harbour. It ſtands in latitude 41. 20. 9. 35. eaſt, and about 25 miles ſouth-weſt from

PORTO VECCHIO, a noble ſpacious ſea-port, capable of containing a good number of large veſſels, which is ſheltered on ſeveral ſides from the wind. It is eaſily diſcovered at a diſtance by a high mountain, craggy, and indented on the top, a little to the ſouth of which is the haven. But the entry, eſpecially on the north ſide, is ſomewhat dangerous, by reaſon of ſeveral rocks even with the ſurface of the water. The town itſelf hath nothing now worth ſpeaking of.

CASA BARBARICA is a ſmall ſea-port on the ſame coaſt, only famed now for the coral which is gathered in that ſea, in great quantity, and of a good ſort.

III. On the eaſtern ſide, or LATO DI DENTRO,

ALERIA, a very ancient biſhopric, but the air was ſo unhealthy, that it's inhabitants were forced to abandon it, ſo that it is now in ruins.

CORTE is a ſtrong and well-peopled city, built on a rock, and defended by a ſtout caſtle.

ACCIO, VENACO, ALESANO, &c. have nothing worth further notice.

IV. On the weſtern ſide, or LATO DI FUORI,

ADDIAZZO, on the weſtern coaſt, ſouth of the gulph of the ſame name, projects into the ſea in form of a peninſula. It is by ſome eſteemed the capital of the iſland, is well peopled, and much reſorted to by the Genoeſe merchants. It's territory rich and fertile, eſpecially in wines of an exquiſite taſte, for which Carceri and Mezana, beſides about 30 other villages are famed, and ſome of them, that are near the coaſt, walled in, by reaſon of the Corſairs which infeſt it.

CALVI is a ſtrong town, ſituated on a craggy high hill, and fenced about with good outworks: It's inhabitants are called Calves.

The gulph of Calvi is large and deep, but hath ſome dangerous rocks before it, but which may be eaſily avoided, becauſe the town, which ſtands very high, is a ſure land-mark for ſteering into it.

BALAGNA, SAGONA, ORNANO, and a few other places, have nothing worth mentioning in regard to trade.

REMARK.

However ſmall the trade of this iſland may be, at preſent, by reaſon of thoſe contentions and heart-burnings between them and the Genoeſe, if once it comes under the dominion of another potentate, as is not impoſſible, perhaps, a little time would put a new face upon their affairs, to the no great advantage, very probably, of any powers who have an intereſt in trading to the Mediterranean.

COTTON-TREE, is of three kinds: one creeps on the earth, like a vine; the ſecond is like a buſhy dwarf-tree; and the third is as tall as an oak: all three, after producing beautiful flowers, are loaded with a fruit as large as a walnut, whoſe outward coat is entirely black. When fully ripe, it opens and diſcovers a down, extremely white, which is the cotton. They ſeparate the ſeeds from it by a mill, and then ſpin the cotton, and prepare it for all ſorts of fine works, as ſtockings, waiſtcoats, quilts, tapeſtry, curtains, &c. With this they likewiſe make muſlin, and ſometimes mix the cotton with wool, ſometimes with ſilk, and gold itſelf.

The fineſt cotton comes from Bengal, and the coaſt of Coromandel.

The trade herein is very great, and it is diſtinguiſhed into cotton-wool and cotton-thread.

The firſt is brought moſtly from Cyprus, St John d'Acre, and Smyrna. The moſt eſteemed is white, long, and ſoft. Thoſe who buy it in bales, ſhould ſee that it has not been wet, moiſture being very prejudicial to it.

The crop of cotton in wool is very conſiderable about Smyrna, and more than in any other part of the Levant. The grain is ſown in July, and reaped in October: the fineſt is that of the plain of Darnamas, the price of which is uſually from ſix to ſeven piaſters the quintal of 44 oco's.

The charges of a bale of cotton-wool, weighing 230 rottons, at ſeven piaſters the quintal, amount to two piaſters 39 aſpers.

Of cotton-thread, that of Damas, called cotton d'once, and of Jeruſalem, called bazas, are the moſt eſteemed, as alſo that of the Antilles Iſles.

It is to be choſen white, fine, very dry, and evenly ſpun.

The other cotton-threads are, the half-bazas, the remes, the beledin, and gondezel; the payas and montaſiri, the geneguins, the baquiers, the joſſelaſſars, of which there are two ſorts.

Thoſe of India, known by the names of Tutucorin, Java, Bengal, and Surat, are of four or five ſorts, diſtinguiſhed by the letters A, B, C, &c. They are ſold in bags, with a deduction of one pound and a half on each, for thoſe of Tutucorin, which are the deareſt, and two pounds on each bag of the other ſorts.

For thoſe of Fielebas, Smyrna, Aleppo, and Jeruſalem, the deduction at Amſterdam is eight in the 100 for the tare, and two in the 100 for weight, and on the value one per cent. for prompt payment.

The onattee, or ſilk cotton, which grows in Perſia, is the produce of a ſhrub, the fruit of which is large and long, in the form of green lambruches; when ripe, it opens and diſcovers a fine and light ſilk, which the wind eaſily diſperſes, if the fruit be not gathered before it is entirely opened. The ſeed reſembles ſmall lentils, each having a kind of tail, conſiſting of gloſſy filaments, of which they make mattreſſes.

Cotton of Siam.

A kind of ſilky cotton in the Antilles ſo called, the grain having been brought from Siam. It is of an extraordinary fineneſs, even ſurpaſſing ſilk in ſoftneſs. They make hoſe of it there, preferable to ſilk ones for their luſtre and beauty; they ſell there from ten to twelve, and fifteen crowns a pair: but there are very few made, the work taking up much time; ſo that what are made is more for curioſity, than as a branch of traffic.

The mill, uſed in the Antilles Iſles for ſeparating the cotton, is a long ſquare frame, conſiſting of four beams, about four feet high, joined together by eight croſs-pieces, four above, and four below; two long ſpindles, channelled, which croſs the frame, and turn round contrary ways, by means of ſome treddles, on which the workman puts his feet, and of two handles on the ſides. Before the frame is a moveable board, eight inches broad, and as long as the mill, placed overagainſt the ſpindles. On this board the workman, who ſits before it, puts the cotton in a pannier, placed at his left-hand, to ſpread it to the right on the ſpindles, when he puts them in motion.

The ſpace between the ſpindles being wide enough to give paſſage to the cotton, which they draw in turning round, but not to admit the ſeeds, ſeparates them, the cotton falling into a bag that hangs under the mill, and the ſeed falling to the ground,

ground, between the workman's legs. To direct the cotton into the bag, there is a board under the ſpindles like that above them, inclining towards it.

A good workman will cleanſe from 55 to 60 pounds in a day.

The manner of packing cotton, as practiſed in the Antilles.

The bags are made of coarſe ſoile de vitrée, of which they take three ells and a half each: the breadth is one ell three inches. When the bag has been well ſoaked in water, they hang it up, extending the mouth of it to croſs pieces of timber, nailed to poſts fixed in the ground, ſeven or eight feet high; he who packs it, goes into the bag, which is ſix feet nine inches deep, or thereabouts, and there preſſes down the cotton, which another hands to him, with hands and feet, obſerving to tread it equally every-where, and putting in but little at a time. When the bag is full, they ſew it up. The bag ſhould contain from 300 to 320 pounds of cotton.

The beſt time to pack cotton is in moiſt and rainy weather, ſo it be done under cover. The tare abated in the Antilles is three in the 100.

REMARKS.

Cotton being a production applicable to a great variety of manufactures, it cannot be too much cultivated in our own plantations that will admit of it. And whether it may not become a material ingredient in a variety of more articles of trade than what it has yet been applied to in this nation, may well deſerve to be conſidered.

COURLAND, a duchy. This country, called alſo KURELAND, is by ſome reckoned one of the diviſions of Lithuania. It has the gulph of Riga, and the river Dwina, on the north; the Baltic Sea on the weſt; Samogitia on the ſouth; and Lithuania on the eaſt. It is about 190 miles from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt, but the breadth not proportionable, being but 80 where broadeſt, and not above 20 in the eaſtern part. It is a plain fruitful country, abounding with corn and honey, though in ſome parts fenny, and full of lakes and rivers. It was formerly tributary to Sweden, but ſince to the Poles: for, though it had it's own duke, yet he paid homage to the king of Poland. On the baniſhment of count de Biron to Siberia, the ſtates choſe for their duke prince Lewis-Erneſt of Brunſwick-Wolfembuttle.

It is a populous country, but liable to be harraſſed when there is a war between the Poles and the Muſcovites, or Swedes. They dry their wheat and barley with wood in the ſtraw, and then threſh it, which makes the Dutch prefer it to the corn of Poland, becauſe it preſerves it better. Their chief commodities are oats, flax, hemp, yarn, honey, wax, linſeed, tar, maſts, timber of all ſorts, pot-aſhes, tallow, goat-ſkins, &c. which are carried to Riga, Libaw, Windaw, and Memel, to be exported. They have plenty of black cattle and horſes, and have many commodities from Riga. One of their ways of huſbandry is, where there is a valley, to let the water in to lie upon it for three or four years, and to ſtock it with fiſh, which renders the ground ſo ſoft and fat, that, when it is drained, it requires but one eaſy plowing; the firſt two years they ſow it with barley, and the third with oats.

The air is clear and healthy; and, though the winters are ſevere and tedious, and the ſummers not very long, yet the excellency of the ſoil, the cool ſummer nights, refreſhing dews, and ſucceeding hot days, ripen both their ſummer and winter corn.

It's principal rivers are the Dwina, the Aa, and the Windaw. There are ſeveral lakes here appropriated to the public, called Free Seas, where any noblemen throughout the duchy, though he has no eſtate near them, has liberty of fiſhing.

Places of moſt note are,

1. WINDAW, at the mouth of the river aforeſaid, near the Baltic. Here formerly the ſtates of Courland held their aſſemblies, which made it populous; but it is now much decayed, being only ſupported by building ſhips for the duke, and by it's trade in pitch, tar, wax, &c. It hath uſually a garriſon of Poles, but under command of the duke.
2. LIBAW, lies on the coaſt, has a good road and harbour, where the duke's ſhips are alſo built, and has the greateſt trade of any of his towns.
3. PILTYN, on the river Anger, is a palatinate, and the ſeat of the biſhop of Courland.
4. MITTAW, on the river Muſſa, 32 miles ſouth of Riga, the capital of the whole duchy, and the ſeat and burial-place of it's dukes, who have a magnificent caſtle, fortified by two baſtions, encompaſſed by marſhes, and has always a ſtrong garriſon. The town is meanly built, but well fortified, and large, containing about 12,000 inhabitants. The Aa, on which the caſtle ſtands, paſſes by this city to the Dwina, with a deep channel, which might be navigable, if the people of Riga had not, for their own intereſt, choaked up the mouth of it.
5. BAUSKE, is another ſtrong town, on the ſame river, with a caſtle built on a rock, which has a large garriſon.

CREDIT, and firſt of PRIVATE CREDIT, in regard to matters of trade.

The ordinary credit practiſed among perſons engaged in commerce of every kind, eſpecially in the ſmaller way of dealings, is a matter ſo well known, that we may paſs over any obſervations on this point, and proceed briefly to conſider thoſe kinds of credit which are uſed among traders of a ſuperior claſs. Theſe may be reduced under two heads, the borrowing money on credit and the buying and ſelling commodities on credit.

REMARKS on the conſequences of long credit in private trade.

Every conſiderable trader ought to have ſome eſtate, ſtock, or portion of his own, ſufficient to enable him to carry on the traffic he is engaged in.

The moſt judicious traders, like bankers, are always careful to keep their dealings within the extent and tether of the capital, ſo that no diſappointment in their returns may incapacitate them to ſupport their credit.

Yet traders of worth, judgment, and œconomy, may ſometimes lie under the neceſſity of borrowing money, for the carrying on their buſineſs to the beſt advantage; as, when the merchant has commodities on his hands, which he is willing to keep for a riſing market, or on account of monies owing him, which he cannot get in in time, wherewith to anſwer the exigencies of his affairs, or for the payment of cuſtoms, &c.—On theſe occaſions, the taking up money at intereſt is no diſreputation, but a great convenience to the carrying on his traffic: but then the borrower ought to be ſo juſt to his own reputation, and to his creditors, as to be well aſſured that he has ſufficient effects within his power to pay off his obligations in due time.

But, if the trader ſhall borrow money to the extent of his credit, and launch out into trade, ſo as to employ it with the ſame freedom as if it were his own proper ſtock; ſuch a way of management is very precarious, and will be attended with dangerous circumſtances; for, as trade is liable to unforeſeen accidents, if ſuch a trader ſhall meet with loſſes or diſappointments, and bring his credit into doubt, this may and will draw the demands of all his creditors upon him at once, and render him incapable of drawing in ſo much of his ſcattered effects as will pay his debts, and thereby will ruin his credit, although he might believe that he had more than enough to ſatisfy all the world.

As, therefore, a wiſe man will trade ſo cautiouſly as not to hazard the loſs of his own proper eſtate at once, much more ſhould an honeſt man be careful not to involve the eſtates of other men in his perſonal trading adventures; but he that knows he has loſt his own fortune, and endeavours to recover it by trading with the ſtocks of other men, can have no pretence to the character of either wiſe or honeſt.

The dealing for goods on credit was, probably, at firſt introduced by the truſting of young beginners, whoſe chiefeſt, or, perhaps, only ſtock, might be the opinion of their capacity, induſtry, and honeſty; and, as this is continued to retailers, and ſuch who trade for ſmall ſums, it may be reckoned a commendable and uſeful practice in trade; but whether the practiſing this in the way of great wholeſale traders, in ſo large a manner as is common in England, may be advantageous to trade, is a conſideration that will admit of great doubt.

This maxim we may, however, advance with ſome confidence, That merchants ought never to purchaſe their goods for exportation upon long credit, with intent to diſcharge the debt by the returns of the ſame goods; for this has an injurious influence upon trade ſeveral ways, whereof divers inſtances may be given. It tends to force trade, and glut the foreign markets with greater quantities of merchandize than is ordinarily required, whereby the price of the commodities comes to be abated, to the prejudice not only of the fair trader, but alſo of the trade of the nation in general.

When the price of goods is lowered, the manufacturers commonly endeavour to make them worſe in quality, that they may be able to ſell them at lower prices, and that brings them into diſeſteem, and, by degrees, ſtagnates the ſale, and tranſfers the trade to other countries, who ſupply the ſame markets with better commodities, becauſe they do not over-ſtock them. And here it may be remarked, that, for the preventing ſo great an evil, all our manufactures ought to be ſtrictly kept up to a ſtaple, or teſt, to warrant their reputation.

He that buys goods for time, muſt conſequently pay the dearer for them, and, as is before obſerved, muſt force a ſale abroad, that he may have the returns in time, to anſwer his credit; and if, by the falling the markets, the money-dealer gets little or nothing, he, to be ſure, muſt ſell for loſs: and, if he makes his returns by merchandize, his neceſſities compel him to ſell his importation immediately, for the raiſing preſent money, which oftentimes turns to loſs alſo: ſo that this way of traffic is not only highly injurious to trade in general, but ſuch traders moſt commonly undo themſelves, and involve others in their ruin.

It ſhould ſeem, therefore, to be an eſtabliſhed principle among merchants, that, when they have occaſion to make uſe of their credit, it ſhould always be for the borrowing of money, but never for the buying of goods, wherein their greateſt care ought to be exerciſed, that they may be purchaſed at the beſt hand. Nor is the large credit given to our wholeſale traders a prudential or juſtifiable practice in trade. Previouſly to entering upon this point, it may be requiſite to obſerve, that it is not uſed in any other trading nation to that extent as it is in England.

England. If any imagine that the cuſtom of the Dutch contradicts this aſſertion, becauſe they give three months time upon all contracts, they will find that this credit is only in notion, but nothing leſs in practice; for the merchant always expects his money, when called for, and allows the buyer 1 per cent. for prompt payment: but, if any dealer ſhould inſiſt upon the time, and refuſe to pay 'till the three months are expired, though he may not be ſued 'till that time, he loſes his reputation, and muſt expect no more credit.

Nothing is more apparent, than that the original, natural, and genuine way of trade, muſt have been to buy and ſell for ready money, and that the ſelling large quantities of goods on truſt has been ſuperinduced through ill cuſtom, which, with us, by long uſage, is become ſo habitual, that we ſcarcely attend to the danger and inconveniencies, or endeavour to reform it. To give a clear view of this matter, we may obſerve an inſtance how it was introduced, and how rectified in a foreign country.

The uſual way of vending goods in Spain for the expence of the country, was by the traders of the inland cities, who came to the ſea-ports, and purchaſed with their ready money, from the factors of the ſeveral nations reſiding there; but they never thought of ſuch a thing as the aſking for credit, 'till the factors, being overſtocked with goods, would perſuade them to take more, and pay for them the next journey: thus by degrees, they run into a truſting trade, which continued for ſome years; but the inland traders being hereby alſo enabled to give credit to their under-dealers, fell to be more and more behind in their pay, and, being preſſed by their factors, moſt of them, who had lived comfortably while they traded upon their own ſtocks, came to be ruined by adventuring upon truſt; the factors diſobliged their principals by contracting great loſſes by bad debts, whereby many of them loſt their buſineſs; new factors were ſent over, and poſitive orders given by the principals, to ſell none of their goods but for ready money: thus the trade was reduced to it's origin ſtate, and ſo it long continued, and all parties proſpered.

If we look at home, we ſhall find this miſchief radicated in the whole courſe of our trade, to a degree beyond compariſon in any other nation, the greater part of our inland traders, who deal for very great ſums, continuing to manage their buſineſs in this way; and, though many of them who act with extraordinary prudence and circumſpection obtain conſiderable eſtates, yet, if they account the ſlowneſs of their returns, together with the loſſes which accrue by the bad debts of ſuch whom they truſt again, they might, perhaps, have made far greater improvements, if this way of truſting and being truſted had never been introduced.

On the other hand, it is ſo natural for young men to aim at the way of living and trading like the wealthy maſters whom they have ſerved, that finding credit ſo eaſy, and their acquaintance large among the country chapmen, they launch out into trade far beyond the power of their own ſtock; and, though they may hold it for a time, yet when they meet with diſappointments and loſſes from their under-dealers, and come to faulter in their own credit, how many have we ſeen ruined? and how great the loſſes they have brought on their creditors? Whence it comes to paſs, that the number of bankrupts in England is greater than in other trading countries.

As the injury to our trade by this kind of dealing is very manifeſt, nor an eaſy taſk to ſhew wherein it is at all helpful, it ſeems to be merely a vice in trade; which, if it could be removed, the trade of the nation would certainly become more flouriſhing in general, and more beneficial to the individuals therein concerned.

If any ſhould imagine, that this great credit contributes any thing to the promoting and enlarging of trade, this notion will appear groundleſs, when it ſhall be conſidered, that it adds nothing to the vent and conſumption of commodities; for there will remain no leſs occaſion for conſumption, if this exceſs of credit were leſſened; the only effect thereof being, that it enables people to overſtock themſelves with goods, and conſequently this lies a dead weight on the whole trading ſtock of the nation, and cramps the merchant in his trade, by the tedious length of the returns.

If it ſhould be further argued, that the leſſening of this ſort of credit would be a great hindrance to young tradeſmen, who begin with ſmall ſtocks; let it be obſerved, that men uſually place their ſons to trades, ſuitable to the portions they deſign to give them; and, when they ſhall receive leſs credit from the merchant, they will give leſs credit in their ſales with a good grace, and ſo will continue to hold a ſhare in trade proportionable to their ſtock, which is as much as the prudent and honeſt man ſhould aim at: nor can there be any doubt, but, under ſuch a regulation, more tradeſmen would thrive, and fewer would miſcarry, than under the preſent miſgoverned exceſs of credit: and, if the want of competent ſtocks ſhould diſcourage ſmall ſhopkeepers, and tend to leſſen their numbers for the future, the youth of incompetent fortunes might be bred up to employments, not the leſs uſeful to the ſtate; let the younger ſons of gentlemen with handſome capitals turn ſhopkeepers, and others manufacturers and artificers, who are the fundamental ſtamina of all our commerce.

That there is a poſſibility of reforming this ill cuſtom, in reſpect of the buyers, is apparent, from the practice of the Eaſt-India company, who make the trader pay for the goods bought, before he receives them; yet we ſee this is no obſtruction to the currency of vending their commodities through the nation. As a multitude of ſellers, indeed, cannot be brought to an univerſal concert in their buſineſs, like thoſe who trade upon a joint ſtock; on their part it will be a work of more difficulty and time, but that ſhould be no diſcouragement to the attempt.

However, 'tis probable, that ſome natural courſes might be fallen upon, which would by degrees prove effectual for the remedying this corruption in trade; and therefore, to contribute ſomething towards ſo good a deſign, I'll take leave to revive the ſentiment of Mr Higgs, a very eminent merchant of the city of London, upon the like occaſion, who lived in the latter end of king William the IIId's time: 'Suppoſe, ſays he, that the ſeller of merchandize who gives credit, ſhould require his debtor to give a note under his hand, upon the ſame paper with the bill of parcels, promiſing to pay the ſum therein mentioned at the time agreed, with intereſt for any forbearance after due, and that he ſhould get the ſame to be regiſtered and atteſted in any court of record, at the ſeller's direction, upon delivery of which atteſted note, the debtor ſhall receive the goods bought; and, in caſe of non-payment at the time, or to the creditor's ſatisfaction, he might, without the trouble of ſuing in the common way (ſince the bill of parcels and regiſtry make any further proof or trial needleſs) take out execution, and levy the whole, or what part of the debt remained unpaid, upon the goods of the debtor, when he pleaſed.

We know, indeed, that the acknowledging of judgment, in the manner now practiſed, is effectually the ſame with what is here propoſed; but, as that is become a word of terror, and what men in good credit will not ſubmit to, it may be requiſite to inſtitute ſomething with a milder appellation in the ſtead of it, though it may not be the leſs effectual: and, if upon the firſt introduction, it can but be brought into common practice, time will familiariſe it, and none who deſire credit, would ſcruple compliance; in order to which, it would greatly facilitate the general introduction of this laudable practice, if no judgment was to be valid between trader and trader, but what ſhould be obtained upon trial in open court, and that ſuch regiſtered notes ſhould have preference before all other contracts; but more eſpecially, if no proof for debts upon dealing between tradeſmen for the value of above 20 l. were admitted, except what ſhould be regiſtered: was ſome ſuch proviſion as this made by law, people in general would eaſily come into it, and few creditors would truſt their goods to buyers, who ſhould refuſe to comply with ſuch a ſecurity, as could alone ſubject them to be under the power of the law. This would moſt certainly make people more cautious in over-buying themſelves, bring them to ſome punctuality in their payments, and, as few men of good eſtates would care to hamper themſelves with ſuch ſevere obligations, would be likely to bring back the bulky part of dealing, to the old laudable way of buying and ſelling for ready money.

If the neceſſitous ſort of people ſhould think, that this ſhortening of credit would prove a grievance, let ſuch conſider, that 'tis their improvidence which makes and keeps them poor; if they buy at truſt, they muſt pay for it at one time or other, or be in danger of a gaol; and they know that they pay much more for truſt, than if they bought for ready money; ſo that the paying, at firſt, will ſave them what they are obliged to pay at laſt: this, under the name of ſaving, is the ſame as getting; for this difference in price is money merely waſted, becauſe they neither eat, nor drink, nor wear the more for it; and, after all, they need not fear the want of credit for their neceſſary proviſion; ſuch credit for a week or two (and they can want no more, when wages is well paid) will always be given to thoſe who maintain an honeſt reputation.

In the like manner may the rich be argued with: if they run into debt, 'tis their luxury and improvidence that brings and keeps them under ſuch difficulties; it cannot be an unacceptable ſervice to ſuggeſt, how they may get rid of theſe voluntary taxations: let them pay ready money for all they buy, which would ſave many a gentleman more than the amount of his involuntary taxes: but, perhaps, ſome are already in debt, and think they can't live without continuing ſo: let them retrench their expences for a year or two, 'till they get one half year's rent of their eſtates before-hand, and this would enable them, if they can be content to live upon their own eſtates, to keep out of debt for ever after: if their incumbrances are too heavy to be ſo ſoon diſcharged, 'tis moſt prudent to mortgage their eſtates (if ſelling abſolutely ſhould not be the more eligible) for ſo much as would clear them, and put them in ſtock for half a year's expence.—This would anſwer the end, and induce general œconomy: if they are ſo wiſely determined as to ſee the end of their eſtates, borrowing money, to buy all their ſuperfluities at the beſt hand, is ſtill the beſt huſbandry, becauſe that would hold out the longeſt.

Thus, after the difficulties which at firſt attend general alterations of any kind, are over, all degrees of people will find their account in it; money will become more plenty in circulation; rents will be better paid; improvident people will be induced to frugality; which is the firſt principle conducive to national as well as private riches.—Tradeſmen, who have ſtocks of their own great or ſmall, would make larger improvements for their families, as well by means of their quicker returns, as by preventing the many loſſes, which they have been uſed to ſuſtain from bad debts, as likewiſe from leſſening their number, becauſe then ſuch as have no ſtock, muſt live no longer upon the public, but will be obliged to apply themſelves to labour, or ſuch other employments as are ſuitable to their condition; whereby they will become much more uſeful in their generation.'

CREDIT, or PUBLIC CREDIT. The proſperity of the trading as well as the landed intereſt of theſe kingdoms always depending upon the flouriſhing ſtate of the public credit, the reader would naturally expect, conſiſtently with the ſcope of this work, that an article of ſuch concernment ſhould not be omitted.

To ſet this matter in a due light, it is neceſſary to enquire what is meant by the public credit of the nation.

Firſt, Credit may be ſaid to run high, when the commodities of a nation find a ready vent, and are ſold at a good price; and when dealers may be ſafely truſted with them, upon reaſonable aſſurance of being paid.

Secondly, When lands and houſes find ready purchaſers; and when money is to be borrowed at low intereſt, in order to carry on trade and manufactures, at ſuch rates as may enable us to underſel our neighbours.

Thirdly, When people think it ſafe and advantageous to venture large ſtocks in trade and dealing, and do not lock up their money in cheſts, or hide it under-ground. And,

Fourthly, When notes, mortgages, and public and private ſecurity will paſs for money, or eaſily procure money, by ſelling for as much ſilver or gold as they are ſecurity for; which can never happen, but upon a preſumption that the ſame money may be had for them again.

In all theſe caſes, 'tis abundantly the intereſt of a nation, to promote credit and mutual confidence; and the only poſſible way effectually to do this, is to maintain public honour and honeſty; to provide ſpeedy remedies for private injuſtice and oppreſſion; to protect the innocent and helpleſs from being deſtroyed by fraud and rapine.

But national credit can never be ſupported by lending money without ſecurity, or drawing in other people to do ſo; by raiſing ſtocks and commodities by artifice and fraud, to unnatural and imaginary values; and conſequently, delivering up helpleſs women and orphans, with the ignorant and unwary, but induſtrious ſubject, to be devoured by pickpockets, ſtock-jobbers, and bubble-mongers; a ſort of vermin that are bred and nouriſhed in the corruption of the ſtate.

This is a method, which, inſtead of preſerving public credit, deſtroys all property; turns the ſtock and wealth of a nation out of the important channels of trade and commerce; and, inſtead of nouriſhing the body politic, produces only ulcers, eruptions, and often epidemical plague-ſores: it ſtarves the poor, miſguides and impoveriſhes the rich, deſtroys manufactures, ruins our navigation, and raiſes general murmurs and diſquietudes, which often terminate in nothing leſs than inſurrections, &c.

An idea of the public credit being, at preſent, in the ordinary acceptation, confined to the ſtate and condition of the public funds, debts, and money-tranſactions of the nation, we ſhall, under this article, reſtrain ourſelves to theſe conſiderations, and give a ſhort ſketch of the eſſential parts of their hiſtory, from the death of queen Anne to the preſent time, which will be a retroſpect ſufficient under this general head.

After two ſuch bloody and expenſive wars, as thoſe were of king William and queen Anne, it was full time to think of effectual ways and means to leſſen thoſe heavy national debts and incumbrances we had incurred, and to cultivate the arts of peace and traffic, which alone could put public affairs in a flouriſhing condition.

To which end, no expedient appeared adequate to that great work, 'till the irredeemable debts were brought into a ſtate of redemption, in order to reduce the high intereſt of the public creditors, and appropriate the ſavings thereby made, to the eſtabliſhment of a ſubſtantial fund to ſink the principal debt. This was done, effectually done, by thoſe wiſe and ſalutary meaſures, and the ſinking fund for that purpoſe, in conſequence thereof, had it's being and exiſtence. And, to ſuch a height was this fund raiſed in the year 1727, by the reduction of intereſt of the principal part of the national debts, from 6 to 5, and afterwards from 5 to 4 per cent. in conjunction with the encreaſe of the duties of thoſe funds, whoſe ſurpluſſages conſtituted the ſinking fund, that it amounted to no leſs than 1,200,000 l.

Here was preſented the moſt deſirable proſpect that could be wiſhed, for diſcharging our national debts; the whole of which being reckoned at about 50 millions, at 4 per cent. we will ſuppoſe; by the inviolable application of this fund to the payment of ſuch debts, would have abſolutely diſcharged the ſame, in ſo ſhort a term as 25 years and 1 month, without reducing the intereſt of the public creditors lower than to 4 per cent. So that by this time, from the efficacious operation of this fund, had it been no otherwiſe applied, it would have paid 50 millions of debt.

Let it be ſuppoſed, that the exigences of public affairs required, as faſt as the old national debt was diſcharging annually by the ſaid ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. when the intereſt of the funds was at 4 per cent. to contract annually a freſh debt, even of the ſame ſum of 1,200,000: the queſtion I would beg leave to put is, whether, under ſuch circumſtances, it was more for the intereſt of the nation, and the ſupport of public credit, that this, 1,200,000 l. of freſh debt, ſhould be taken out of the ſinking fund, and applied to the current ſervice, or that the ſaid 1,200,000 l. ſhould have been raiſed by freſh loans, upon NEW FUNDS, created for the payment of the like annual intereſt thereof?

To many this may appear to be the ſame thing to the nation; for, ſay they, if the nation pays off one year 1,200,000 l. of the public debt, by means of the ſinking fund, and contracts a freſh debt of the ſame ſum of 1,200,000 l. by freſh loans upon NEW DUTIES, wherein is the difference to the public? This queſtion, indeed, is very natural to be aſked; but reaſon and the power of numbers will ſhew a very great difference, in point of intereſt to the kingdom. For, if 1,200,000 l. was annually raiſed for 25 years and 1 month together, by freſh loans upon new funds, the freſh principal debt which the nation ſhould hereby contract, would be 25 times 1,200,000 l. which is 30 millions, and for the odd month we will ſay the $\frac{1}{12}$ part of the ſaid 1,200,000 l. which would have made the whole freſh principal debt to have been 30,100,000 l. To which, if the intereſt of the 1,200,000 l. is paid annually, as we ſuppoſe the ſinking fund to be paid annually to diſcharge the old debt of 50 millions, at the ſame rate of intereſt, being 4 per cent. the annuity to be paid for intereſt of the freſh debt of 1,200,000 l. will be 48,000 l. which, in 25 years and 1 month, will amount to the ſum of 1,204,000 l. This intereſt money being added to the foregoing principal freſh debt of 30,100,000 l. will make the ſum total 31,304,000 l.

But, as a ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. ſteadily and inviolably applied for 25 years and one month, will diſcharge a debt of 50 millions, and the raiſing of 1,200,000 l. per ann. a freſh debt upon new funds, will contract a principal debt of no more than 30,100,000 l. in the ſame term of 25 years and one month, together with intereſt paid, which makes the whole no more than 31,304,000 l.: ſo much as the difference is between 50 millions of money, and 31,304,000 l. is what the nation would have ſaved, by preferring the one method of raiſing of the money to the other; and that amounts to no leſs a national ſaving in 25 years and one month, than the round ſum of EIGHTEEN MILLIONS, SIX HUNDRED AND NINETY SIX THOUSAND POUNDS.

As this may a little ſurprize people, who are unacquainted with the power of numbers, I ſhall endeavour to explain this myſtery; which will be ſeen through in an inſtant, by any tolerable arithmetician, when I only ſay, that, in the caſe of applying the annual ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. inviolably to the payment of the old debt of 50 millions, the nation would have reaped the benefit of compound intereſt; whereas in the raiſing annually of a freſh principal debt of 1,200,000 l. upon new funds, the nation pays only ſimple intereſt for the ſaid principal debt, as it is contracted.

For the reader is deſired to obſerve, that the annual income of the ſinking fund, in this manner applied, to the diſcharge of the 50 millions of the principal of the public debts, increaſes yearly, in the ſame manner and proportion, as a principal ſum put out and continued at compound intereſt, or intereſt upon intereſt, at ſuch a rate of intereſt as the principal ſum to be paid off is ſuppoſed to carry: that the increaſe of the ſinking fund, in every year, is made by the intereſt of that principal ſum, which was paid off the year next before it; and that the whole of the increaſe of the ſinking fund, in any one year from the beginning, to apply the ſame in diſcharge of the principal debt of 50 millions, is the ſum of the intereſt of all the principal ſums that have been in the year before paid off by it; and that the whole of the debt propoſed to be paid off by a ſinking fund, in this manner applied, will be completely diſcharged the year before the ſinking fund itſelf is increaſed, by the addition of the whole intereſt of the debt to be paid off.

If then the preceding computations can ſtand the teſt, it will appear, that the above ſinking fund, in this manner increaſing, by the addition of the intereſt of the principal ſums in every year paid off, and conſequently by additions in every year greater than thoſe made to it in the year before, would have been ſufficient, not only to have diſcharged the whole even of our preſent debts, but any probable addition that ſhould in the mean time be made to them, by freſh loans on new invented funds, in a few years after the preſent debts would have been diſcharged; and that the time required for the diſcharge of our debts, increaſed by an addition in the manner before repreſented, would by no means have been length-

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ened out, or the payment of the whole of our debts by the ſinking fund retarded, in proportion to the addition to, or increaſe of the debt itſelf: the total payment of our debts becoming by no means deſperate by ſuch a permanent ſinking fund, upon account of any determined additional debt, unleſs ſuch additional debts are ſuppoſed to be continued increaſing in every year in the ſame, or a greater proportion to one another, than that in which the additions yearly made to the ſinking fund ſhall increaſe.

See the articles INTEREST, and COMPOUND INTEREST, where all the caſes, and varieties ariſing upon calculations of this kind, ſhall be fully ſhewn and illuſtrated by examples.

It would, however, be true, that if at any time, on the diſcharge of any part of the principal debt, the intereſt were not added to, and applied to the farther diſcharge of the remaining debt, but another equal or greater principal ſum ſhould be borrowed on the ſame annuity, the progreſs of a ſinking ſund would, by ſuch meaſures, be ſtopped, if the ſame ſum were borrowed; and, if a greater ſum was borrowed, it would be put backwards: but, as long as theſe meaſures ſhould not be taken, or ſuch a ſinking fund diverted to any other purpoſe than the diſcharge of our debts, the effectual payment of them, is, by this expedient, by no means to be deſpaired of, from the increaſe of them by freſh loans on new duties.

To ſuch who are not well enough acquainted with numbers to diſcern the reaſon of what has been ſaid, with regard to the efficacy of the ſinking fund, the following tables may be uſeful, they repreſenting how ſuch a fund of a million only, would have operated upon a debt of 50 millions, by being reduced from 6 to 4 per cent. from the year 1727; and alſo how a ſinking fund of 1,500,000 l. would have operated upon the like debt, had it then been reduced to 3 per cent.

COMPUTATIONS at 4 per Cent.

	Payments made at Midſummer in every year.			Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1728	1,000,000	0	0	1,000,000	0	0
	40,000	0	0			
1729	1,040,000	0	0	2,040,000	0	0
	41,600	0	0			
1730	1,081,600	0	0	3,121,600	0	0
	43,264	0	0			
1731	1,124,864	0	0	4,246,464	0	0
	44,994	11	2 3/8			
1732	1,169,858	11	2 3/8	5,416,322	11	2 3/8
	46,794	6	10 1/8			
1733	1,316,652	18	0 1/2	6,632,975	9	0 7/8
	48,666	2	3 1/4			
1734	1,265,319	0	4 1/4	7,898,294	9	5 1/8
	50,612	15	2 1/2			
1735	1,315,931	15	6 3/4	9,214,226	4	11 7/8
	52,637	5	5			
1736	1,368,569	0	11 3/4	10,582,795	5	10 5/8
	54,742	15	2 3/4			
1737	1,423,311	16	2 1/8	12,006,107	2	0 3/4
	56,932	9	5			
1738	1,480,244	5	7 1/2	13,486,351	7	8 1/4
	59,209	15	2 1/2			
1739	1,539,454	0	10	15,025,805	8	0 1/4
	61,578	3	2 3/4			
1740	1,601,032	4	0 3/4	16,626,837	12	7
	64,041	5	9 1/4			
1741	1,665,073	9	10	18,291,911	2	5
	66,602	18	9 1/2			
1742	1,731,676	8	7 1/2	20,023,587	11	0 1/2
	69,267	1	1 3/4			
1743	1,800,943	9	9 1/4	21,824,531	0	9 3/4
	72,037	14	9 1/2			
1744	1,872,981	4	6 3/4	23,697,512	5	3 1/2
	74,919	4	11 3/4			
1745	1,947,900	9	6 1/2	25,645,412	14	10
	77,916	0	4 1/2			
1746	2,025,816	9	11	27,671,229	4	9
	81,032	13	2 1/4			
1747	2,106,849	3	1 1/4	29,778,078	7	10 1/4
	84,273	19	3 3/4			
1748	2,191,123	2	5	31,969,201	10	3 1/4
	87,644	18	6			
1749	2,278,768	0	11	34,247,969	11	2 1/4
	91,150	14	1			
1750	2,369,918	15	0	36,617,988	6	2 1/4
	94,796	15	0			
1751	2,464,715	10	0	39,082,703	16	2 1/4
	98,588	12	4 3/4			
1752	2,563,304	2	4 3/4	41,646,007	18	7
	102,532	3	3 1/2			
1753	2,665,836	5	8 1/4	44,311,844	4	3 1/4
	106,633	9	0 1/2			
1754	2,772,469	14	8 3/4	47,094,313	19	0
	110,898	15	9 1/2			
1755	2,883,368	10	6 1/4	49,977,682	9	6 1/4
	115,334	14	9 3/4	22,317	10	5 3/4
1756	2,998,703	5	4	50,000,000	0	0
	1,296	14	8			
	3,000,000	0	0			

COMPUTATIONS at 3 per cent.

	Payments made at Midſummer in every year.			Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
1728	1,500,000	0	0	1,500,000	0	0
	45,000	0	0			
1729	1,545,000	0	0	3,045,000	0	0
	46,350	0	0			
1730	1,591,350	0	0	4,636,350	0	0
	47,740	10	0			
1731	1,639,090	10	0	6,275,440	10	0
	49,272	14	0			
1732	1,688,363	4	0	7,963,803	14	0
	50,650	17	4 1/2			
1733	1,739,014	1	4 1/2	9,702,817	15	4 1/2
	52,170	8	5 1/2			
1734	1,791,184	9	9 3/4	11,494,002	5	1 1/4
	53,735	10	8 1/4			
1735	1,844,920	0	6	13,338,922	5	7 1/4
	55,347	12	0			
1736	1,900,267	12	6	15,239,189	18	1 1/4
	57,008	0	6 3/4			
1737	1,957,275	13	0 3/4	17,196,465	11	2
	58,718	0	6 1/2			
1738	2,015,993	13	6 1/4	19,212,459	4	8 1/4
	60,479	16	2 1/2			
1739	2,076,473	9	8 3/4	21,289,032	14	5
	62,544	4	1			
1740	2,139,017	13	9 3/4	23,428,050	8	2 3/4
	64,170	10	7 3/4			
1741	2,203,188	4	5 1/2	25,631,238	12	7 1/4
	66,095	12	11 1/4			
1742	2,269,283	17	4 3/4	27,900,522	10	0
	68,078	10	3 3/4			
1743	2,337,362	7	8 1/2	30,237,884	17	8 1/2
	70,120	17	5			
1744	2,407,483	5	1 1/2	32,645,368	2	10
	72,224	9	11 1/2			
1745	2,479,707	15	1	35,125,075	17	11
	74,391	4	7 3/4			
1746	2,554,098	19	8 3/4	37,679,174	17	7 3/4
	76,622	19	4 1/4			
1747	2,630,721	19	1	40,309,896	16	8 3/4
	78,921	13	2			
1748	2,709,643	12	3	43,019,540	8	11 3/4
	81,289	6	2			
1749	2,790,932	18	5	45,810,473	7	4 3/4
	83,727	19	9			
1750	2,874,660	18	2	48,685,134	5	6 3/4
	86,239	16	8 1/2	1,314,865	14	5 1/4
1751 1/2	2,960,900	14	10 1/2	50,000,000	0	0
	39,099	5	1 1/2			
	3,000,000	0	0			

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Thus it appears, if what has been ſaid be duly attended to, that, if the ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. intereſt at 4 per cent. had been ſacredly applied to the payment of the old debt of about fifty millions, in the year 1727, and we had contracted a million of freſh principal debt every year from that time, upon new funds at 4 per cent. intereſt, the nation would now, in the year 1752, have been no more than 24,000,000 l. in debt; which would have diſburthened the kingdom of a national debt of above fifty millions: and this, we humbly conceive, would have proved an infinitely better ſupport to the public credit, than all the ſchemes and projects that have been broached from the time of the eſtabliſhment of the ſinking fund to this day.

We know, by lamentable experience, what effects tampering with the funds in the year 1720 had on the public credit; and we alſo know, that no ſervice whatever was done to the public credit by the ſcheme of reduction of intereſt propoſed in the year 1736. For, although the title of a pamphlet now before me, reported to have been written by the honourable gentleman who propoſed that ſcheme, ſays, Reaſons for the more ſpeedy leſſening the national debt, and taking off the moſt burthenſome of the taxes: yet, with all humble ſubmiſſion to the judgment of that great man, the contrary we ſee is demonſtrable; for no meaſures can ever expedite the payment of the national debt ſo ſoon as a permanent ſinking fund, without the diminution of taxes. For if, according to that ſcheme, the nation had ſaved 1 per cent. upon fifty millions, and had taken off taxes to the amount of 500,000 l. per annum, how could ſuch meaſures have put the national debt into a more expeditious way of redemption, than by adding the ſaving of 500,000 l. per annum to the ſinking fund, and to have inviolably applied the whole money that ever the ſinking fund produced to that purpoſe?

The primary and fundamental principle of reducing the intereſt of the public creditors, was in order to eſtabliſh and increaſe the ſinking fund from time to time, with intent to accelerate the payment of the principal debt, and to be a certain ſecurity to the national creditors, that their principal debt was in a fair way to be paid; nay, was as certain and ſecure of being paid, as their intereſt itſelf. This was the grand pillar upon which the public credit was fixed by the eſtabliſhment of a ſinking fund; and, 'till the ſinking fund is effectually redeemed, and ſacredly and inviolably applied to the payment of our national debts (which, we have ſeen, might have been greatly advanced by it, and yet the nation have borrowed money by freſh loans upon new funds) the public credit of this kingdom can never be ſettled upon it's right baſis, let whatever other projects be hatched, under that ſpecious colour. Beſide, did it not coſt the nation above three millions in the public accounts, in order to put the old national debt into a ſtate of redemption? To attempt, therefore, to render the debt again irredeemable for 14 years, as was propoſed by the ſcheme of 1736, was not that undoing what had coſt the nation ſo much money to bring about.

The grand principle upon which the reduction of intereſt was firſt founded, was, as before obſerved, for the eſtabliſhment of a ſinking fund, for a ſecurity to the public creditors that their principal ſhould certainly be paid; but, if the public creditors had been told that all the ſavings by the reduction of their intereſt was to be applied to the current ſervice, I am perſuaded they would never have acquieſced to have made their irredeemable debts redeemable, and, conſequently, their intereſt could not have been reduced at all. And, indeed, if the long and ſhort annuities, &c. had been continued in their original ſtate, perhaps, the public credit of the nation would have been in a better condition that it has been ſince the ſinking fund was otherwiſe applied, than it ſeems, in the opinion of many, to have been firſt intended.

The great argument for the reduction of intereſt has been the large ſums that are paid to foreigners for intereſt of that proportion of the national debt which is due to them. But if the ſinking fund had been applied only to the payment of the old debt before 1727, and all new debts that we have contracted ſince had only been amongſt ourſelves, and all foreigners had been excluded from becoming creditors of the nation, this would have effectually prevented any money going out of the kingdom for the payment of intereſt to foreigners; and, had the public credit been duly ſupported by a permanent ſinking fund of a million and an half, and we had raiſed a new debt of a million a year, among ourſelves, ſuch would have been the flouriſhing ſtate of the public credit, I am inclined to believe that we ſhould not have had occaſion for one ſhilling of the money of foreigners. This, alſo, would have preſerved the Dutch courſe of exchange always in our favour, inſtead of the contrary, which has been the caſe ever ſince we have been millions indebted to foreigners; and I am afraid that this is a greater diſadvantage to our commerce with Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, and many parts of Germany, than moſt people are aware of. See the article BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN.

All tampering with the funds, in order to reduce the intereſt lower and lower, we humbly conceive is not the natural way to ſupport the public credit in a flouriſhing condition, unleſs theſe ſavings are applied to an inviolable ſinking fund for the payment of the principal debt. Nor is the occaſional high price of ſtocks a concluſive argument, as ſome would have us believe, of the good plight of the public credit, becauſe this may be eaſily brought about by art, to anſwer temporary purpoſes, and at length to reduce the intereſt of the public funds, even to nothing.

Let us ſuppoſe, upon the exiſtence of a large ſinking fund, when the intereſt of the public creditors was 4 per cent. that a miniſter of great abilities has the management of the Treaſury, and a great influence on the directors of the Bank of England, who have a thorough confidence in his veracity, as well as diſcernment; that he endeavours to reduce the intereſt of the public creditors, with a view to increaſe the ſinking fund, in order to ſink part of the national debts. If the affairs of the nation run ſmoothly, and without any fears, we conceive ſuch a miniſter will be able to effect this reduction, without bringing any additional ſum of money into the nation; that is, without the nation being the richer to induce it to give real cauſe for ſuch a reduction of intereſt.

If the miniſter directs the Bank to ſtrike Bank notes for large ſums (promiſing, or engaging, in the name of the legiſlature, to indemnify the Bank in caſe of any ſudden call for ready money) for which no ready money has been depoſited, directs theſe notes to be offered for ſtock, and effectually propoſes good parcels of ſtock to be bought gradually, the ſtocks will riſe in the altercations, and the owners of the ſtock who ſold it finding the price to continue high, and not being in the channels of commerce to make an intereſt otherwiſe of their money, will want to buy in again, rather than let their bank notes lie idle.

They will, perhaps, try to lend out their money upon mortgages; but the notion of a reduction of intereſt, and the increaſe of the number of lenders, occaſioned by the operation, will make thoſe who mortgage their eſtates demand money at 4 per cent. and all this while there will be no occaſion for ready money, but for the intereſt of the ſtocks; and of the mortgages (for here we do not ſuppoſe new mortgages, but a paying off of old mortgages ſeems to require ready money, and will increaſe the number of borrowers, and raiſe intereſt) for the capitals in both may be paid in bank bills: and ſo, while this game is ſlowly and dextrouſly managed, the high prices of ſtock go gradually diminiſhing the intereſt of the public creditors; and when the miniſter has, by theſe methods, reduced the intereſt under 4 per cent. in the public funds, mortgages, and great payments, he will be able to get in the bank notes he ordered to be ſtruck, by ſelling the ſtock bought, and leaving it, perhaps, in the hands of the firſt owners at a higher price.

By offering reimburſement, the miniſter may eaſily bring the proprietors of redeemable funds to take 2 per cent. inſtead of 4 per cent. and be ſatisfied with the ſame funds at that price. And thus, by increaſing the ſaving fund, he may effectually pay off ſome part of the capital, and ſo diminiſh the debt, and increaſe the number of lenders.

The like ends may be attained by an able miniſter, if he can, by his own example, and aſſurances of lowering intereſt, engage ſuch as have by them large parcels of bank notes, to buy ſtocks upon ſuch encouragement, and borrow bank bills of others to buy ſtocks, and keep them in their hands 'till thoſe who ſold them want to buy in again at high prices.

All this, I ſay, an able miniſter may do by means of credit, without any ſenſible alteration in the increaſe, or circulation, of the ſpecies of the nation, which will not be much influenced by theſe operations; only, indeed, here and there ſome of the ſpecie-lenders of the firſt claſs, ſeeing a general notion of the reduction of intereſt by the example of that in the funds, will more readily give way to the altercations. But this will not affect the fiſh-women of Billingſgate, who pay a ſhilling a week intereſt for a guinea; nor will the wool-merchant ſell his wool to the hatter for time the cheaper; and all the loweſt undertakers, who are the ſources of intereſt, will continue in our ſpeculation much as they did before; and, by that time the miniſter's operations are at an end, and the owners of ſtocks ſit down with them at an intereſt of 3 per cent. the proportion of ſpecie lenders and borrowers being not at all altered, the intereſt of hard money will appear to be ſtill 4 per cent. upon good ſecurity, and the ſtocks will conſequently return to their proportion, and fall accordingly. For, if intereſt can be had for ſpecie on good ſecurity at 4 per cent. the owner of ſtock, who at this time has but 3 per cent. will ſell out, and draw in the value of his ſtock in ſpecie, to lend it; and the ſale of ſtock will conſequently fall the price of it.

From what has been ſaid it is pretty plain, from the foregoing conſiderations, that banks and credit have a vaſt influence upon the riſe and fall of ſtocks and public funds, where a project is laid for the raiſing of their price, when there is no additional ſum of ſpecies required: but they have not ſo great an influence upon the general circulation, and barter of a nation, which is moſtly gathered from minute payments into large ſums, and from ſuch ſums diſtributed into minute payments, all which require ſpecie.

In the South-Sea time, 1720, the capital of South-Sea ſtock was at 1000, and thoſe of the bubbles, at the then high rates, were computed to amount to 800 millions ſterling; and the half-yearly intereſt of the South-Sea capital, at 1000, would have

have required ten millions ſterling, which was, perhaps, more than all the circulating money then in England.

Yet credit and paper-circulation kept this mighty fabric up, ſo long as no more ſpecie was required in circulation than uſual; but, when the proſpect of ſo much imaginary wealth made people increaſe their expences greatly, and bring in great quantities of foreign commodities for their luxury (both which articles were to be anſwered by ready money) the machine tumbled in a few months. This example juſtifies what has been ſuggeſted, that, in particular caſes, as in that of buying and ſelling of ſtocks, banks and credit may produce ſurprizing effects, where the management may not require any additional circulation of ſpecie.

If a miniſter ſhould, by means of the credit of a bank, try to reduce intereſt in a nation forcibly from 4 to 2, by offering to lend bank notes to all people at 2 per cent. he may probably unhinge his whole project; and whereas ſeveral in that caſe, who are diffident of the ſucceſs, ſell out their ſtock, and call in their ſpecie, they ſtop the channel of circulation, and cauſe ſuch a call on the Bank, as will ſoon blow it up. This was the caſe at Paris in 1719 and 1720, though the ſcheme there was not wholly for reduction of intereſt; but, the other operations at Paris not relating to our preſent purpoſe, we ſhall not now examine the cauſes of the miſcarriage there.

If then the lowering of intereſt is effected by artificial contrivances, ſuch as Mr. Locke calls the ſhuffling of property from one hand to another, and which, as he obſerves, will put our affairs into diſorder: if ſo, none of theſe advantages that neceſſarily flow from a natural low intereſt, can be expected: inſtead of it's being the ſignificant ſymptom of a proſperous ſituation of our affairs, it will not a little contribute to bring us into a conſumptive condition. 'The nation may look 'well, ſaid a great man in the houſe of commons, to all 'outward appearance; the national intereſt of money may 'be lower than ever it was, and may continue ſo for ſome 'time, and yet that nation may be in a galloping conſumption;' and it is to be feared, that, if ſome people are not ſtopped in their career of tampering with the funds, they will at length give ſuch a blow to the public credit, as cannot be eaſily, if ever effectually reſtored. Nor can any meaſures laſtingly preſerve it, but the ſteady redemption of the ſinking fund; for certainly it can never be ſound policy to mortgage that fund, on which alone we depend for our redemption.

National wealth and power, and, conſequently, the good ſtate of public credit, conſiſt in numbers of people employed in trade and manufactures, and in magazines of home and foreign commodities, wherewith to ſupply other nations, and thereby increaſe our navigation. It is only the ſolid advancement of our commerce, and ſo regulating the ſame as to preſerve the general ballance in our favour, that can prove the effectual and permanent means of upholding the public credit of the kingdom. The fall, therefore, or riſe of intereſt, as Mr Locke again obſerves, cauſing neither more or leſs land, money, or commodities, than there was before, cannot contribute to this, that being a NATURAL AND NECESSARY CONSEQUENCE ARISING THEREFROM; that is to ſay, the lowneſs of intereſt is not the cauſe, but the effect, of riches. This that great man confirms in another place, where he ſays, That the lowneſs of intereſt in Holland is not the effect of politic contrivance in the government to promote trade, but as the conſequence of the great plenty of money. So that the flouriſhing ſtate of trade does not depend on the lowneſs of intereſt, but as it is a means of ſupplying the trader with money proportional to the demands of trade: wherefore, it is not forcing down the intereſt of money by any unnatural meaſures, that will promote commerce, which alone can maintain the public credit upon a ſubſtantial baſis; and, before ſchemes are hatched for the reduction of the intereſt of the national creditor ſtill further and further, in order to force people into trade, as is pretended by ſome, ought they not firſt to cut out new branches of trade, wherein the public creditors may beneficially employ their money? When this is the caſe, the intereſt of money will reduce itſelf.

Some people, it ſeems, give out that there is to be no end of the reduction of intereſt: if ſo, numbers of the public creditors muſt break into their principal, or ſtarve. The intereſt we pay to foreigners is doubtleſs a grievance; and will not what we have humbly ſuggeſted, lay the ax to the root of that grievance? Let the ſinking fund be abſolutely freed from it's incumbrances, and inviolably applied to the payment of our preſent debts; and, if we run more into debt, let it be to ourſelves only, and then it will matter not whether the intereſt be further lowered or no; for, in that caſe, the more intereſt-money the public creditors received, the more would be the ſpending-money of the nation. But, if the intereſt is reduced ſo low that the public creditors have little or no money to ſpend, muſt not trade ſuffer in proportion, or muſt not thouſands and thouſands of the public creditors be undone, by ſubſiſting on their principal?

Upon the whole it appears, we humbly conceive, that the diverting the ſinking fund from the payment of thoſe national debts which were contracted before the year 1716, was a very unluckly miſtake in the public meaſures. That it was not done intentionally I have very good grounds to believe, but really from not conſidering the weight of what is humbly ſubmitted to the public attention; and, although the emergencies of ſtate have occaſioned this fund of redemption to be applied to the current ſervice, yet I am willing to flatter myſelf, that one day it will be diſburthened from it's incumbrances; and I could wiſh, I could rejoice, that the preſent adminiſtration, or any other, would in earneſt undertake this deſireable work, being convinced that they would reap as great glory by redeeming the ſinking fund, and applying it to the payment of the increaſed debt, as their predeceſſors had honour in it's firſt eſtabliſhment. And,

If that once comes to paſs, what will this nation have to fear either from the haughty inſults of the Spaniard, or the undermining machinations of the French? For, as the ſinking fund would ſteadily go on diſcharging our preſent debts, ſo, whenever the emergencies of the government required further loans, within the limits of what ſum ſhould be annually diſcharged, ſuch loans being made upon new funds, what power could ever preſume to trifle, or maltreat theſe kingdoms? Our ſovereign, and his miniſtry, would have ſuch weight and influence at every court in Europe, that the name of a Briton would be revered over the whole globe.—And, when our preſent national debts were abſolutely diſcharged, and thoſe taxes taken off from our trade that have been appropriated for the payment of the intereſt and principal of our debts, we ſhall be enabled to afford our produce and manufactures ſo cheap at foreign markets, that no nation will be able to rival and ſupplant us.—We ſhall then be able to ſupport the ſovereignty of the ſeas, and the ballance of power in reality; diſſipate all ſchemes both at home and abroad, that ſhall be hatched for the deſtruction of this the beſt of conſtitutions, for preſerving the liberties and properties of all who live under it.

But if, on the contrary, no efficacious meaſures ſhall be taken to procure and preſerve to the kingdom a proper fund, to ſink the national incumbrances; if the public credit of theſe kingdoms is never to have a ſteady and invariable fund to ſupport it, by convincing the whole world that, though our debts are great, yet that we can certainly and eaſily pay them, even though we ſhould be forced into a freſh war: when this comes once more to be the ſtate of theſe kingdoms, men of the higheſt honour and integrity will chearfully enter into the ſervice of their king and country, and the nation will be able liberally to reward them for their zeal in their country's intereſt; which brings to my mind the generous ſentiments of Mr Hutchenſon, who ſomewhere ſays, if I remember right, That, rather than miniſters of ſtate ſhould have any motives to induce them to retard the payment of the national debts, he would propoſe every able and honeſt miniſter who would zealouſly promote their diſcharge, ſhould be allowed by parliament half a million, or more, for himſelf and his family, that he might have no temptation to obſtruct a work of ſo great emolument to the kingdom, and ſo honourable to himſelf.

'But if, ſays the ſame gentleman, a conduct contrary to this 'be held, will it not give juſt reaſon to ſuſpect, that there is 'nothing leſs in view than the diſcharge of the public debts? 'and that all that is intended by the deſigned leſſening of intereſt, is only to provide new funds for ſuch debts as the ill 'management of a miniſtry ſhall think fit to bring upon the 'nation! And ſo a fund of three millions, which, at the rate 'of ſix per cent. per annum, is ſufficient to anſwer the intereſt 'of a debt of fifty millions, at the rate of five per cent. per 'annum, will be ſufficient to anſwer the intereſt of a debt of 'ſixty millions, and, at the rate of four per cent. per annum, 'to anſwer a debt of ſeventy-five millions, &c.

'And in this manner a deſigning miniſtry may be able to increaſe the national debt to a moiety more than it at preſent 'is, without raiſing any new taxes on the people: but, if 'the debt ſhould once increaſe to ſo monſtrous a bulk, by reduction only of intereſt to ſo low a rate, and without any 'new proviſion of funds, will there be afterwards a poſſibility 'for the diſcharge thereof? And it is very eaſy to gueſs what 'the conſequence would be, if the nation once ſaw that they 'were to groan, not for a few years, but for ever, under ſo 'inſupportable a load: therefore it is impoſſible to hope, 'that the proprietors of the funds will concur in the leſſening 'their own preſent income, if they have any grounds left 'them to ſuſpect that this will be ſo far from ſecuring to them 'the repayment of their principal, that, inſtead thereof, it 'may be a moſt effectual method intirely to defeat the ſame.'

Among the many advantages that accrued to this kingdom by the happy revolution in 1688, the parliamentary ſettlement of the revenues and expence of the nation is not the leaſt to be valued. Before that period of time, the incomes and iſſues of the public revenue were intirely in the diſpoſition of the crown, and ſo blended together, that our liberties were precarious at home, and we could never be ſure that the kingdom was in ſuch a poſture of defence, as to be ſafe from foreign invaſions; but now, by annual ſeſſions of parliament, the care of ſettling and providing ways and means of making annual ſupplies for the navy, guards, and garriſons, lies upon the legiſlature; and we need not be apprehenſive that any miniſter can be able to hurt the conſtitution, or endanger the ſafety of the nation, by miſapplication of the public money,

without cenſure: the ſtate of the navy is laid before the houſes of lords and commons every winter, and made out in the moſt exact and authentic manner from the proper officers.

King Charles II. ſuffered the fleet of England to moulder away to nothing; and king James II. made a ſhift to get a ſtanding army, without the conſent of parliament; which, if it had been falſe to God and their country, might have been a ſufficient inſtrument to have ſubverted the conſtitution of the government: but the good providence that watched over the liberty of the nation, permitted that weak prince to attempt a force upon the conſcience, before he had ſecured the ſword or the purſe. Now, ſince the revolution, proviſion is made by parliamentary grants of money, from year to year, for maintaining a ſettled number of land forces, and no more than are abſolutely neceſſary for the ſupport of the honour and dignity of the crown, and for the ſecurity of the kingdom at home, and from any ſudden inſult from abroad. As theſe forces are kept up by conſent of parliament, and are very regularly and well paid, they are not likely to be any way dangerous to our liberties: all hazards in future times of this nature are prevented, by the preſent diſpoſition of the revenues of the kingdom.

But, that we may paſs a right judgment upon the public revenues, let us look as far back as the year 1721, when they fell into the channel in which they have ever ſince ſo happily continued. The credit of the nation was at that time upon the brink of ruin; the unfortunate ſufferers by the South-Sea ſcheme were become formidable even to the government itſelf, being joined by the Jacobites and malecontented pretenders to patriotiſm; and theſe men (as we have frequently found by experience) are like Sampſon's foxes, linked cloſe together by the tails, thongh their heads ſtand different ways. And, indeed, it cannot be otherwiſe, when the joint work of them both was to inflame: beſides, at this critical time, ſeveral of the robbers and highwaymen of the year 1720 cunningly joined themſelves with the hue and cry, which did very much contribute to the hurry of the purſuit, and increaſe the noiſe, the fury, and clamour: yet, notwithſtanding all the difficulties of this too general calamity, which the year 1720 brought upon us, the ſcene ſoon changed, under the prudence and moderation of a ſteady direction: a clear head and an honeſt heart worked through all theſe difficulties, public credit revived, and money was ſoon borrowed at very low intereſt, to carry on the current ſervice of the government; ſtocks have had no other riſe or fall than what was occaſioned by the management of the gameſters of the alley, in which the credit of the kingdom is no more concerned, than it is in the queſtion, who wins or loſes at the Bath or Newmarket.

Care has been taken duly to pay the intereſt to the creditors of the public; and, as we have no reaſon to deſpair of the eſtabliſhment of a permanent ſinking fund, ſo the public creditors will then be as ſecure in the payment of their principal, as they are at preſent of their intereſt.

'It is true, ſays Sir J— B——d, in the year 1736, in defence of his ſcheme for the reduction of intereſt, ſome modern politicians have run upon a notion, and ſeveral perſons are weak enough to believe, that the not paying off the public debt will engage people the more to preſerve the preſent government. This policy, indeed, of theirs would hold good, if it could be made out that the public creditors are ſtronger, and more in number, than thoſe concerned in the payments to the public. But it rather ſeems to hold in ſenſe and reaſon, That the throne of that prince, in a free nation, muſt be moſt firmly eſtabliſhed, whoſe affairs will permit him to aſk, or who deſires to collect, the feweſt taxes from his people.' See the articles DUTIES, FUNDS, INTEREST, NATIONAL DEBTS.

Here then we find that the ſentiments of this honourable gentleman were very clear and expreſs in regard to the neceſſity of the diſcharge of the national incumbrances; and, from the title of his reaſons given in vindication of his ſcheme, it ſeems to be intended rather to accelerate, than retard, that great work: which, to comprehend, I am quite at a loſs, as it propoſed, if I underſtand the deſign right, the taking the ſame annuity off in taxes as was intended to be ſaved by the reduction of intereſt: which taking off taxes that were appropriated by parliament for the inviolable payment not only of the intereſt of the public creditors, but, in the judgment of many great men, for the redemption of their principal debt alſo, could never expedite and haſten the diſcharge of the debts; nothing can ever do that, but the taking off taxes, in conſequence of ſuch payment, in an honourable and parliamentary way. Nor could theſe taxes, we apprehend, without conſent of the public creditors, and conſiſtent with the faith of parliament, have been taken off, 'till the principal debt for which they were mortgaged was juſtly and duly diſcharged. For, when the public creditors lend their money upon any certain fund which may be propoſed, to induce them to ſuch loans, do they not always conſider, whether ſuch funds are likely to prove effectual in anſwering the conditions offered to them? If the fund offered to them is liable to fail of good ſecurity for the due and regular payment of their intereſt, they are never readily induced to part with their property upon ſuch a precarious foundation. Nor, if ſuch fund is ſubject to be annihilated, or any way alienated from it's primary intention, will people lend their money upon it?

In regard to all funds, therefore, that have been, or ſhall be appropriated by parliament, as a ſecurity for the payment of the annuity of the national creditors, it can never be conſonant to the faith of parliament either to take them off, or otherwiſe apply them, without the concurrence of thoſe creditors to whom ſuch funds have been, or ſhall be mortgaged, for their ſecurity: wherefore it is the ſenſe of parliament that theſe funds ſhould not be temporary, but perpetual, 'till the redemption of the principal. Nay, we further humbly conceive and it has been the ſentiment of ſome of the greateſt men in the kingdom, that ſuch funds are as inviolably bound for the repayment of the principal debt, as the intereſt; and, therefore, the funds propoſed ought always to have afforded a ſinking fund, that would have diſcharged the debt in a reaſonable number of years, and not only a ſcanty annuity: had this been always the caſe, with reſpect to all the debts that we have gradually contracted, as ſecure proviſion would have been made for the repayment of the principal, as for the intereſt.

And 'till a certain and clear, unincumbered, and permanent ſinking fund, for the payment of the national debts, in a reaſonable number of years, does take place, it is my humble opinion that the public credit of this kingdom will never be bottomed on a ſolid foundation; ſeeing our PUBLIC DEBTS are almoſt trebled ſince the reign of queen Anne.

As our funds, indeed, are at preſent circumſtanced, 'Public ſecurities, as the ingenious Mr Hume obſerves, are with us become a kind of money, and paſs as readily at the current price as gold and ſilver. Wherever any profitable undertaking offers itſelf, however expenſive, there are never wanting hands enough to embrace it; nor need a trader, who has ſums in the public ſtocks, fear to launch out into the moſt extenſive trade; ſince he is poſſeſſed of funds, which will anſwer the moſt ſudden demand that can be made upon him. No merchant thinks it neceſſary to keep by him any conſiderable caſh. Bank ſtock, or India bonds, eſpecially the latter, ſerve to all the ſame purpoſes; becauſe he can diſpoſe of them, or pledge them to a banker, in a quarter of an hour; and at the ſame time they are not idle, even when in his ſcrutore, but bring him in a conſtant revenue.

'In ſhort, our national debts furniſh merchants with a ſpecies of money, that is continually multiplying in their hands, and produce ſure gain, beſides the profits of their commerce. This muſt enable them to trade upon leſs profit. The ſmall profit of the merchant, renders the commodity cheaper, cauſes a greater conſumption, quickens the labour of the common people, and helps to ſpread arts and induſtry through the whole ſociety.

'There are alſo, we may obſerve, in England, and in all ſtates, that have both commerce and public debts, a ſet of men, who are half merchants, half ſtock-holders, and may be ſuppoſed willing to trade for ſmall profits; becauſe commerce is not their principal or ſole ſupport, and their revenues in the funds are a ſure reſource for themſelves and their families. Were there no funds, great merchants would have no expedient for realizing or ſecuring any part of their profit, but by making purchaſes of land, and land has many diſadvantages in compariſon of funds. Requiring more care and inſpection, it divides the time and attention of the merchant; upon any tempting offer or extraordinary accident in trade, it is not ſo eaſily converted into money; and as it attracts too much, both by the many natural pleaſures it affords, and the authority it gives, it ſoon converts the citizen into the country gentleman. More men, therefore, with large ſtocks and incomes, may naturally be ſuppoſed to continue in trade, where there are public debts: and this, it muſt be owned, is of ſome advantage to commerce, by diminiſhing it's profits, promoting circulation, and encouraging induſtry *.

* 'On this head, I ſhall obſerve, without interrupting the thread of the argument, that the multiplicity of our public debts ſerves rather to ſink the intereſt, and that, the more the government borrows, the cheaper may they expect to borrow; contrary to firſt appearance, and contrary to common opinion. The profits of trade have an influence on intereſt.'

'But, in oppoſition to theſe two favourable circumſtances, perhaps of no very great importance, weigh the many diſadvantages that attend our public debts, in the whole interior œconomy of the ſtate: you will find no compariſon betwixt the ill and the good, that reſult from them.

'Firſt, 'Tis certain, that national debts cauſe a mighty confluence of people and riches to the capital, by the great ſums which are levied in the provinces to pay the intereſt of thoſe debts; and perhaps too by the advantages in trade above-mentioned, which they give the merchants in the capital above the reſt of the kingdom. The queſtion is, 'Whether, in our caſe, it be for the public intereſt, that ſo many privileges ſhould be conferred on London, which has already arrived at ſuch an enormous ſize, and ſeems ſtill

'increaſing?

'increaſing? Some men are apprehenſive of the conſe-
'quences. For my part, I cannot forbear thinking, that,
'though the head is undoubtedly too big for the body, yet
'that great city is ſo happily ſituated, that it's exceſſive bulk
'cauſes leſs inconvenience, than even a ſmaller capital to a
'greater kingdom. There is more difference betwixt the
'prices of all proviſions in Paris and Languedoc, than be-
'twixt thoſe in London and Yorkſhire.
'Secondly, Public ſtocks, being a kind of paper credit, have
'all the diſadvantages attending that ſpecies of money. They
'baniſh gold and ſilver from the moſt conſiderable commerce
'of the State, reduce them to common circulation, and by
'that means render all proviſions and labour dearer than
'otherwiſe they would be.
'Thirdly, The taxes, which are levied to pay the intereſt of
'theſe debts, are a check upon induſtry, heighten the price
'of labour, and are an oppreſſion on the poorer ſort.
'Fourthly, As foreigners poſſeſs a ſhare of our national funds,
'they render the public in a manner tributary to them, and
'may in time occaſion the tranſport of our people and our
'induſtry.
'Fifthly, The greateſt part of public ſtock being always in
'the hands of idle people, who live on their revenue, our
'funds give great encouragement to an uſeleſs and inactive
'life.
'But, though the injury that ariſes to commerce and induſtry
'from our public funds, will appear, upon ballancing the
'whole, very conſiderable, it is trivial in compariſon of the
'prejudice that reſults to the State, conſidered as a body poli-
'tic, which muſt ſupport itſelf in the ſociety of nations, and
'have various tranſactions with other ſtates, in wars and ne-
'gociations. The ill there is pure and unmixed, without
'any favourable circumſtance to atone for it. And 'tis an
'ill too, of a nature the higheſt and moſt important.'

CROATIA was once divided between the Hungarians and Turks; but is ſince ſubject for the moſt part to the emperor of Germany, who has the title of king of Croatia.

The preſent boundaries of this province, are the river Save on the north and north-eaſt, which parts it from Sclavonia; Boſnia on the eaſt, Carniola on the weſt, and Morlachia on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt.

It is above 80 miles in length either way. It pays above twice the ſum that Sclavonia does to the emperor's extraordinary ſubſidies. The ſoil is fruitful in wine, oil, &c. as well as all neceſſaries for life, where 'tis cultivated; but being a frontier province, like Sclavonia, labours under the ſame inconveniencies. The people, called Croats, are of a good ſtature, valiant, hardy and good ſoldiers, eſpecially the horſemen, who are ſo famous, that they are entertained in moſt of the courts of Germany as their horſe-guards. Chief places are,

1. CARLSTADT, near the frontiers of Carniola, is a ſtrong fortreſs, and always well furniſhed with a good garriſon and ſtores, maintained by the Carniolans, to whom it is a bulwark againſt the Turks.
2. SISEG, or SISAKEN, ſtands on the Save, 33 miles eaſt of Carlſtadt.
3. CASTANOWITZ, a ſtrong caſtle, conſiſting of three towers, and a wall according to the antient manner of fortifications.

CUMBERLAND is bounded on the eaſt with Northumberland and Durham, on the ſouth-eaſt with Weſtmoreland, on the ſouth with a ſmall part of Lancaſhire, has the Iriſh ſea on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, and Scotland on the north and north-weſt, and is 168 miles in circumference.

The air is ſharp but agreeable, and the ſoil affords good paſture to great flocks of ſheep, whoſe fleſh is particularly ſweet and good; it's plains abound with corn, and it's lakes with wild fowl and fiſh, which laſt they have in plenty alſo from the ocean.

The county abounds with rivers, and thoſe bodies of waters, called by the inhabitants meres. Chief rivers are the Derwent, famous for the ſalmon-fiſhing, and the Eden, beſides ſeveral others of leſſer note. The ſouth part of the county, called Copeland, abounds with rich veins of copper; and at Newlands, and other places among the mountains of Derwent-Fells, ſome rich veins of copper, not without a mixture of gold and ſilver, were diſcovered in former ages. Here is alſo abundance of black-lead, as alſo mines of coal, lapis calaminaris, and lead ore.

CARLISLE, is pleaſantly ſituate between three fine rivers, abounding with fiſh. 'Tis a ſea-port, but without ſhips, merchants, or trade, yet wealthy and populous, and the key of England on the weſt ſea, as Berwick upon Tweed is on the eaſt ſea.

COCKERMOUTH is a populous trading town, with a harbour for veſſels of good burthen, and a caſtle.

RAVENGLASS, in that part of the ſhire called Copeland, is a well built town, and has a good fiſhery.

WHITEHAVEN, ſo called from the white cliffs near it, which ſhelter the haven from tempeſts, is a populous rich town, chiefly beholden for it's improvement to the Lowther family, from which Sir John Lowther, Bart. took his title of diſtinction; and his ſon, the preſent Hon. Sir James Lowther, has now a very great eſtate here. He has been at a vaſt charge to make the harbour more commodious, and to beautify the town, the trade of which is chiefly in ſalt and coal, with which it furniſhes Ireland and part of Scotland; as it did the latter alſo with tobacco and ſugars before the union. In time of war or croſs winds, 'tis common to ſee 200 ſail at once go off for Dublin, laden with coals. And Sir James Lowther, Bart. in particular, is ſaid to ſend as many coals to Ireland, and the Iſle of Man, as bring him, at leaſt, 20,000 l. a year.

KESWICK, was long ago noted for mines of black-lead, and is inhabited by miners, who have water-works by the Derwent for ſmelting the lead, and ſawing of boards.

WORKINGTON, is a noted place for the fiſhing of ſalmon, which, like thoſe of Carliſle, are carried from hence, freſh as they take them, to London; where, by travelling night and day, and changing horſes, they arrive ſweet and good.

PENRITH, vulgo PERITH, is a large, populous, well built town, noted for tanners, and reckoned the ſecond in the county for trade and wealth. It has a good weekly corn-market, and a much greater for cattle, every Tueſday fortnight, from Whitſunday to the firſt of Auguſt.

CURRENCY, or PAPER-CURRENCY, in regard to the Britiſh colonies in America.

On the firſt ſettlement of theſe colonies, an Engliſh crown was 5 s. in denomination, but the trade there was carried on chiefly by exchanging one commodity for another, and with little or no ſilver or gold: ſugar, tobacco, and rice ſerved as a medium for trade in ſome of the plantations.

In Barbadoes, the merchants kept their books, and the public officers received their fees in ſugar, fixed as a ſtandard at 12 s. 6 d. per 100 weight; ſo that the exchange, between that iſland and England, varied in proportion to the price of ſugar in England, and 100 l. in Barbadoes was ſometimes worth 105 l. to 108 l. ſterling in England.

As the American commerce flouriſhed, foreign ſilver and gold coins were introduced, and became a medium for trade; and bills of credit, commonly called paper-money, or paper-currency, were remitted to ſome colonies by their governments, to be diſcharged by a tax, or otherwiſe, at certain times to come, which added to their medium of trade and circulation, and anſwered the intention of theſe colonies, whilſt they kept within due bounds.

As the ſaid ſilver coins went by tale, and were not milled, they were clipped to ſuch a degree, that the exchange to England varied in proportion, and the paper-currency alſo varied in value, and was depreciated in ſeveral of the colonies, occaſioned by their remitting more than their trade and property could bear, or from ſome other miſtaken conduct; and, in ſome other of the colonies, ſuch paper-money, notwithſtanding it's under value, went in diſcharge of prior contracts, made when ſuch money was of a greater value; and inſtead of varying in denomination in proportion to it's intrinſic value with ſilver, the principal ſtandard in other countries, they varied the nominal price of ſilver in proportion to the value of their paper-money: ſo that an ounce of ſilver that formerly went for 6 s. 8 d. has ſince gone for 28 s. money of New England per ounce, and for 42 s. money of Carolina per ounce: whereby, in proceſs of time, almoſt every province, as well as the iſlands, varied more or leſs in their currency, and conſequently in their reſpective exchange between Great-Britain, the center of it's plantation commerce, and theſe colonies, which put the whole American trade upon a ſtate of uncertainty and into ſuch confuſion, that no trader could tell how to value his debts after they were once contracted.

Her majeſty queen Anne, by her royal proclamation bearing date the 18th of June 1704, did publiſh and declare, 'That,
'from and after the firſt day of January next enſuing, no
'Seville, Pillar, or Mexico pieces of eight, though of the
'full weight of 17 pennyweights and an half, ſhould be ac-
'counted, received, taken or paid, within any of the colo-
'nies or plantations, as well thoſe under proprietors and
'charters, as under her majeſty's immediate commiſſion and
'government, at above the rate of 6 s. per piece current mo-
'ney, for the diſcharge of any contracts or bargains to be
'made after the firſt day of January next; the halves, quar-
'ters, and other leſſer pieces of the ſame coin, to be ac-
'counted, received, taken, or paid in the ſame proportion;
'and that the currency of all pieces of eight, of Peru dol-
'lars, and other foreign ſpecies of ſilver coins, whether of
'the ſame or baſer alloy, ſhould, after the firſt day of Ja-
'nuary next, ſtand regulated, according to their weight and
'fineneſs, according and in proportion to the rate before
'limited and ſet for the piece of eight of Seville, Pillar, and
'Mexico; ſo that no foreign coins of any ſort be permitted
'to exceed the ſame proportion, on any account whatſoever.'

In the 6th year of the ſaid queen Anne, an act was paſſed for aſcertaining the foreign coins of her majeſty's colonies and plantations in America, whereby it was enacted, 'That if
'any perſon within any of the ſaid colonies or plantations,
'as well thoſe under proprietors and charters, as under her
'majeſty's immediate commiſſion and government, ſhould,
'after the firſt day of May 1709, for the diſcharge of any
'contracts or bargains to be hereafter made, account, re-
'ceive, take, or pay any of the ſeveral ſpecies of foreign

'ſilver coins mentioned in the before recited proclamation, 'at any greater or higher rate, than at which the ſame is 'thereby regulated, ſettled, and allowed, to be accounted, 'received, taken, or paid; every ſuch perſon ſo receiving, 'accounting, taking, or paying the ſame, contrary to the 'directions therein contained, ſhall ſuffer ſix months im-'priſonment without bail or mainprize, &c. and ſhall like-'wiſe forfeit the ſum of 10 l. for every ſuch offence, &c. 'But with a proviſo, that nothing in the proclamation ſhould 'extend, or be conſtrued to compel any perſon to receive 'any of the ſaid ſpecies of foreign ſilver coins, at the re-'ſpective rates in the ſaid proclamation mentioned. By the 'above-mentioned regulation, ſilver at 17 dwts. 12 grs. for '6 s. is equal to 6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{7}$ per ounce.'

And there is a further proviſo in the ſaid act of the 6th of queen Anne, whereby it is declared, 'That nothing in the 'ſaid act contained ſhall extend, or be conſtrued to reſtrain 'her majeſty from regulating and ſettling the ſeveral rates of 'the ſpecies of foreign ſilver coins, within any of the ſaid 'colonies or plantations, in ſuch other manner, and accord-'ing to ſuch other rates and proportion, as her majeſty, by 'her royal proclamation for that purpoſe to be iſſued, ſhall, 'from time to time, judge proper and neceſſary, or from giv-'ing her aſſent to any law hereafter to be made in any of 'the ſaid colonies or plantations; but that ſuch farther re-'gulations may be made, and ſuch aſſent given, in as full 'and ample manner to all intents and purpoſes, as the ſame 'might have been done in caſe this act had not been made, 'and no otherwiſe, any thing before contained to the con-'trary hereof in any wiſe notwithſtanding.'

The changing the value of current money in any country, muſt certainly make a conſiderable change in any mens properties, unleſs due care is taken to proportion and aſcertain the old currency with the new intended currency.

But this not being fully provided for by the ſaid proclamation or act, although they extended only to contracts made after a certain day to come after the proclamation, yet as the contracts, made before that time, remained under a ſtate of uncertainty and difficulty, few of the colonies have, or could, without much loſs and confuſion, obſerve this intended regulation.

Barbadoes, indeed, ſtruggled through it with much difficulty and loſs to many of it's inhabitants, and obſerve it to this day. The money-holders lent their money juſt before the regulation took effect, for ſeveral months without intereſt; the borrowers paid it their creditors, ſome with loſs and ſome without; ſo it paſſed from hand to hand, and exchange, between England and that iſland, fell from 60 to 25 per cent. which proved a great loſs to ſeveral, and particularly to thoſe who contracted debts, while ſuch exchange was at 60 per cent. and paid them when it was reduced to 25 per cent. and alſo to thoſe who had light clipped money upon their hands. However, ſince this regulation, this colony has had an extenſive credit, becauſe every creditor is ſure his money will be of equal value when it is repaid: and the exchange, between that iſland and London, became about 30 per cent. which is near the proportion between 5 s. 3 d. the value of an ounce of ſilver in England, and 6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{7}$ the value of an ounce of ſilver in Barbadoes.

The exchange of the Leeward iſlands plays at about 60 per cent. and that of Jamaica at about 40 per cent. and varies from time to time, according to the nominal value they put upon their gold and ſilver, and other incidents.

Carolina for the ſame reaſons, and from a large emiſſion of paper-money, raiſed their exchange to 700 per cent. advance, and New England to upwards of 400 per cent. advance, which proved a great loſs from time to time, to ſuch as had given credit in and to thoſe provinces; but, as ſuch loſs happened gradually, it was not felt ſo ſeverely as at firſt view it may appear, and the price of ſilver and exchange in New England varied but little for ſeveral years.

New York, the Jerſeys, and Penſylvania allow 8 s. 6 d. to 9 s. for an ounce of ſilver, and their exchange is from about 65 to 70 per cent. Maryland allows 10 s. to 11 s. per ounce, and exchange there is at about 100 per cent. advance. Bermudas is much as Barbadoes, and Virginia is at 6 s. 8 d. per ounce, and exchange there is about 25 per cent.

Now, for the better regulating all money and exchange throughout his majeſty's colonies and plantations in America, it may be propoſed, that there be an equal and fixed price for ſilver throughout all thoſe colonies and plantations; and that all contracts or bargains, from ſome certain day to come, be made for ſuch money, and ſuch money to be accounted, received, taken, paid, ſued for and recovered accordingly. And no recovery to be made for any money of different ſorts or denominations that ſhall be contracted for after ſuch time, except for ſuch money, and at ſuch prices as ſhall be herein after mentioned. This will naturally be called ſterling money, proclamation money, or new money, and what is now current, be it what it will, will be called old currency, or old money. In order to prevent any loſs or inconvenience by ſuch a regulation, to any creditor, debtor, or money-holder, it may be ſuppoſed, that the ſtandard of ſilver ſhould be fixed at 5 s. 3 d. per ounce, the price of ſilver in pieces of eight or bars; then 100 l. new money would be equal in value to 130 l. old currency in Barbadoes and Bermudas, and 140 l. old currency in Jamaica, 160 l. old currency in the Leeward Iſlands 500 l. old currency in New England, 165 l. old currency in New York, the Jerſeys, and Penſylvania, 125 l. old currency in Virginia, 200 l. paper-money in Maryland, 800 l. paper-money in Carolina. Or in ſuch proportions as the currency of the ſeveral and reſpective colonies ſhall really bear to either of the undermentioned prices of ſilver, as may be found moſt agreeable; viz.

6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{7}$ per ounce, which is equal to 6 s. for 17 dwts. 12 grs. the price regulated by queen Anne's proclamation, confirmed by an act of parliament in the 6th year of her reign.

5 s. 6 d. per ounce, the price aſcertained for payment of the duties on foreign ſugar, rum, and molaſſes, imported into the Britiſh plantations in America, 6 Geo. II. cap. 13.

5 s. 3 d. per ounce, may be accounted the price of ſilver in pieces of eight or bars.

5 s. 2 d. per ounce, is the price of Engliſh ſilver coin or ſterling.

Notwithſtanding ſuch a regulation, there would ſtill be a ſmall exchange in the ſeveral plantations, in proportion to the riſque, charge, and other incidents, attending the tranſporting money from one country to another; but every one, for the future, may expect an equal value upon the repayment of the money he ſhall credit, lend, or trade for in the plantations, without having the value of his property depreciated by any law or cuſtom, while it is in other people's hands; which is the principal deſign of the propoſition.

And gold muſt and will always bear a value in proportion to ſuch a ſtandard of ſilver: [ſee the article BULLION] but it is however propoſed, that all gold coins, and other commodities, do paſs for the ſatisfaction of all contracts made, or to be made, before ſuch a period of time, at the ſeveral and reſpective rates or prices, and in like manner as they now paſs in each and every colony reſpectively. And ſhould there be a neceſſity for creating and iſſuing out bills of credit, commonly called paper-money, to anſwer a medium of trade, or any extraordinary emergency in any of the plantations, there might be proviſo's, that ſome reaſonable ſums, to be limited, may be iſſued or emitted, provided there be a fund ſufficient to anſwer an intereſt on all bills of 20 s. value or more; and likewiſe gradually to pay off, diſcharge, and ſink the ſame within a limited time. But that nothing in any act, to be made in any of the ſaid plantations or colonies, extend, or be conſtrued to compel any perſon to receive any ſuch bills of credit or paper-money in diſcharge of any debt, or to allow or account the ſame a legal tender, unleſs ſuch acts ſhall have firſt received the royal approbation.

Now ſuppoſe order ſhould be taken, that all bargains and contracts that ſhall be made after the firſt day of January next, in any of his majeſty's plantations or colonies in America, be made, received, paid, and recovered, conformably to the act paſſed in the 6th year of the reign of queen Anne, intitled, An act for aſcertaining the rates of foreign coins in her majeſty's plantations in America: and that all bargains and contracts, made or to be made, in the ſaid plantations or colonies before that time, be paid, received, and recovered, at the current value or rate that the current monies, of any kind or nature ſoever, actually bore on the firſt day of February laſt, in the ſaid plantations or colonies reſpectively, in proportion to 6 s. for 17 dwts. and 12 grs. or 6 s. 10 d. $\frac{2}{7}$ per ounce, the price of ſilver aſcertained by the ſaid act. And that the rates or value of all ſuch current money, as it ſtood on the ſaid firſt day of February, be ſettled and aſcertained by the governor and council of each province or colony reſpectively, or by ſome other authority.

This regulation would be no ways prejudicial to any debtor, creditor, legatee, annuitant, or any other perſon whatſoever; ſince the money of all ſorts current, or that may hereafter be emitted as above propoſed, will paſs at it's reſpective value, according to contract, to a fixed ſtandard of ſilver, in like manner as moidores, guineas, and other coins, or as India bonds, and other public ſecurities, now paſs in Great-Britain.

On the other hand, ſuppoſe the ſaid proclamation and act ſhould be attempted to be put in execution, without any regard to contracts made before ſuch an attempt, the greateſt confuſion muſt enſue in ſome of the colonies; ſince, in New England and Carolina, every debtor, to comply with that act, without ſome further proviſo, muſt pay the value of 4 or 500 guineas for every 100 guineas he contracted to pay, or ſtands chargeable with, by means of any legacy, annuity, or otherwiſe, even if it was but a few months before: or, to ſpeak in other words, he muſt pay four or five times as much as he ought to pay. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, and MONEY.

REMARKS.

The ſeveral provinces on the continent of North America, and alſo the Leeward Iſlands, and Jamaica, ſubject to the crown of Great-Britain, have ever ſince their being ſettled, or ſubject to the ſaid government, or at leaſt within theſe ſeventy years laſt paſt, varied greatly in the way of reckon-

ing

ing their monies or currencies, from what has been by law eſtabliſhed in England or Great-Britain. The currencies in the colonies have fluctuated and varied ſo much, that they have differed greatly both as to time and place, ſeldom being the ſame in two different provinces at a time, and often changing value in the ſame place. In ſome of the provinces, they have deviated ſo much from ſterling money, in the way of reckoning their monies, and run on to ſuch a degree of depreciation, that two ſhillings ſterling hath become equal to one pound nominal currency, or one pound ſterling equal to ten pounds. At Boſton, in New England, they run on in a continual courſe of depreciation in the ſpace of 47 years, in an irregular progreſſive advance, from 133 l. currency for 100 l. ſterling to 1100 l. currency for 100 l. ſterling. — A ſtate of all the degrees of depreciations in the reſpective years the variations or changes happened, from the year 1702, to the year 1749, together with the value of ſilver, both by the ounce and dollar, that correſpond with the ſaid depreciation, are ſet down in the following table.

Years	Exchange	Oz. of Silv. Cur. s.	d.	Dollar Ster. s.	d.
1702	133	6	10½	4	6
1705	135	7	0	4	6¼
1713	150	8	0	4	7½
1716	175	9	3	4	7
1717	225	12	0	4	7½
1722	270	14	0	4	6½
1728	340	18	0	4	7
1730	380	20	0	4	7½
1737	500	26	0	4	6
1741	550	28	0	4	5
1749	1100	60	0	4	8½

Their money having thus run on to 1100 l. currency for 100 l. ſterling, or 11 for one, a ſtop was put to the farther depreciation of the money of the province of Maſſachuſett's Bay, in the year 1750, by a remittance in money ſent over from England, to the amount of 183,000 l. ſterling, to reimburſe the expence that province had been at in the reduction of CAPE BRETON in the French war 1740; the money was moſtly compoſed of Spaniſh dollars. Their depreciated paper money, or province bills, were called in, and paid off, at the rate of 45 ſhillings currency for each dollar, and the bills burnt and deſtroyed; and a law made, by which the par of exchange with that province and England is fixed at 133⅓ l. currency for 100 l. ſterling, and the dollar at 6 s. the ſame currency. This change was a pleaſant event, eſpecially to them who have correſpondence with that province; but I have been informed, that tho' they are obliged to keep their accounts agreeable to the ſaid law, yet ſince that time they have for ſome years negotiated their bills with England in old tenor, or the old currency; and that ſo late, as within theſe ſix years laſt paſt: but it has been ſince ſaid that the practice is now entirely laid aſide.

The currency of Rhode Iſland has run on in a courſe of depreciation, from the year 1744 to the year 1759, from 450 l. to 2300 l. currency for 100 l. ſterling — an amazing depreciation indeed, which makes the trade carried on by that province (which is pretty conſiderable) perplexing to themſelves and their correſpondents; but I am informed, they are endeavouring to put a ſtop to ſuch a mad depreciation, and to put their currency under ſome regulation, which it is to be hoped by this time is effected.

The currencies of ſeveral of the provinces have at times gone backwards and forwards in varying their exchanges with England; ſome ſeem to be fixed, and others in a variable ſituation. The parts of exchange with the ſeveral provinces are at preſent, or lately were,

Boſton, in New England	133⅓	South Carolina	700
New York, and Eaſt Jerſey	175 or 171 5/7	Georgia	100
Penſilvania, and Weſt Jerſey	165 or 160 3/7	Jamaica	140
Virginia	125	Barbadoes	135
Maryland	145	Nevis and Montſerrat	175
North Carolina	145	Antigua and St. Chriſtophers	165

By late information from Quebec and Montreal, as alſo from Halifax in Nova Scotia, Anapolis, and the bay of Fundy, the rate of their currencies may be fixed at 108, 109, or 110; the ſeveral ſpecies of money current in all theſe reſpective places, at preſent indicate, that theſe muſt be the equitable rates of exchange, the dollar paſſing in them all for 5 s. the piſtole for 18 s. the Engliſh guinea for 22 s. 6 d. the johannes or 36 s. piece for 38 s. 6 d. and the moidore for 29 s. in their reſpective places, at Quebec and Montreal the New York traders, which ſupply the places with proviſions, deal with the inhabitants in New York currency, in receiving dollars at 7 s. 6 d. and gold in proportion. But theſe exchanges and values of money in ſpecie in thoſe places may be no ſtandard for after times, as they may probably ſoon vary.

A queſtion naturally will ariſe, How hath it come to paſs; or what is the reaſon, that the ſeveral currencies of the Britiſh colonies have differed ſo much one from another: both in reſpect to time and place, and ſtill do differ, from what is by law eſtabliſhed in England?

In anſwer to which, I hope the following reaſons will, in a great degree, be ſatisfactory. The ſeveral provinces in their infancy had but little trade, and conſequently little money. The tools, utenſils, and neceſſaries for planting, they were at firſt ſupplied with from Britain, involved them in debt, before they were able to raiſe goods for exportation to pay their creditors; and the goods they firſt raiſed were often ſo ordinary in quality, or ſo little in quantity, that they were able to export to a foreign market, that the net proceeds of the ſame often turned out poorly, by which means the planters remained continually in debt to the Britiſh merchants, and occaſioned the balance of trade to be always againſt them; and having neither goods nor caſh ſufficient to remit their creditors, the conſequence has been, that many bad debts have been made, and great loſſes ſuſtained, as the merchants of Great-Britain have but too fatally experienced.

When the northern colonies became more thriving, and by the produce they raiſed, were enabled to ſupply the ſugar iſlands with proviſions, as flour, biſcuit, ſalt, fiſh of ſeveral ſorts, horſes, live ſheep, hogs, geeſe, &c. beſides what is called lumber, viz. timber, ſtaves, heading, and hoops, &c. they drew money from thence: the only ſources they at firſt, or even at preſent can be furniſhed with a ſupply of money: (the remittances made thither in the laſt and preſent wars excepted) the money they imported from the iſlands, together with their produce, were not ſufficient to ſupply their creditors in Britain, which prevented the caſh ſtaying with them, and obliged them to ſhip it off with their other merchandize towards paying their debts here, which obliged the provinces to create and iſſue bills of credit, commonly called paper money, to circulate in trade among themſelves, gold and ſilver being as much a merchandize as any they dealt in. The trade of the northern colonies continuing for many years in a bad ſtate, and the balance with Britain always againſt them, occaſioned the ready money they had amongſt them to be picked up by the merchants and factors reſiding in America, acting for their correſpondents or employers in Britain; and caſh or bullion being a certain remittance, preferable to bills of exchange or produce, which were very precarious, the bills being often ſent back proteſted, and the goods coming to a bad market: this made the merchants and factors rival each other in purchaſing gold and ſilver, and from time to time raiſed the price; and in proportion as the nominal value of the ſame advanced, the price of bills and the rates of their currencies kept pace with it, and proportionally depreciated as the nominal value of the ſpecie advanced, compared with the value of money in Britain.

This is evident, by caſting an eye on the table of the courſe of depreciation of the currency of Boſton, inſerted in the preceding pages; wherein it appears, that the nominal prices of ſilver the ounce in that province, for the ſpace of 47 years, was always nearly proportionable to the depreciated rates of exchange in the periods of time the ſaid currency varied: and it is not to be doubted, but the change of the value of money preceded the alteration of the exchange.

From what has been ſaid it may naturally be inferred, that in whatſoever province in Britiſh America, whoſe trade does not import them ſo much caſh from one quarter as the demand is upon them from another, or in other terms, which have the balance of trade againſt them, their currency will be unſtable, and ſubject to depreciation. As contrary cauſes always produce contrary effects, ſo in the affair under conſideration it appears, that the iſlands and provinces that have a flouriſhing trade, and an influx of money to anſwer foreign demands upon them, that their currencies have fixed for a long time in one ſtate.

In the iſland of Jamaica, in conſequence of its great and valuable productions, and the caſh it imports from the neighbouring fountain heads; the Spaniſh iſlands and continent, has preſerved it's currency in one ſtate for many years: has never had the uſe of paper money, nor even copper, their current money being all gold or ſilver, neither has the price of bills varied in above 20 years, always being at 140. And it is much the ſame in the other ſugar iſlands, except the price of their bills are ſubject to vary. New York and Penſilvania currencies ſeem fixed for the ſame reaſon: and it is to be hoped, more of the provinces will be able to keep their currencies from further depreciating.

It may be of uſe to ſome readers to note, that to whatever degree of depreciation the currencies of the colonies have been at, the denomination of pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings, have been retained, altho' they have none of the money amongſt them of theſe denominations.

Since the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763 has taken place, and ſuch extenſive new acquiſitions have been thereby ceded to the crown of Great-Britain; it is not to be doubted, but our American affairs, will meet with all due attention from

the government of their mother country: and there are, perhaps, few points that may merit conſideration more than the preſervation of an uniformity and SAMENESS OF CURRENCY amongſt the whole of our colonies. See BRITISH AMERICA, the latter end of that article.

CUSTOMS. The old ſubſidy, or ſubſidy inwards, firſt granted by the act, 12 Car. II. cap. 4. and continued, as to one half, to Auguſt 1, 1708, by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4. and as to the other half, for ever, by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 1. This is a tax of 6 l. per ton upon ſome wines, and 4 l. 10 s. upon others, and on perry, rape, cyder, and vinegar, imported into the port of London by Britiſh ſubjects in Britiſh ſhips, navigated according to law; and, upon all other goods ſo imported, it is a tax of 5 l. per cent. ad valorem; as to which I ſhall now in general obſerve, that, when goods are to pay any tax according to the value, that value is to be aſcertained by the two books of rates, or, if not there rated, by the oath of the importer, or by the price at a public ſale; and, when goods are valued by the oath of the importer, the officer may take the goods, paying the importer the price he puts upon them, with 10 l. per cent. profit, and the produce at a public ſale, after all diſburſements for duties, &c. is to be paid to the crown, for the uſe of the ſinking fund.

2. The petty cuſtom, or alien's duty, payable by alien or denizen importers, granted and continued by the ſame acts, and is a fourth more than the former.

3. The additional duty granted and continued by the ſame acts, being an additional duty of 3 l. per ton on ſome wines, and 4 l. upon all others; and a moiety of the neat old ſubſidy by way of additional duty upon all wrought ſilks, except Eaſt-Indian; and upon all linnens, except Iriſh and calicoes; and 1 d. per pound on tobacco of the Britiſh plantations.

4. The one per cent. inwards, granted by the act, 14 Car. II. cap. 11, and continued by the ſaid two acts of queen Anne, being a tax of 1 l. per cent. ad valorem, upon all goods imported from any place in the Mediterranean beyond Malaga, in any Britiſh ſhip that hath not two decks, and carries leſs than 16 guns mounted, with two men for each gun, and ammunition proportionable. The deſign of this tax is to oblige our merchants to make uſe of defenſible ſhips, in order to prevent our ſeamen's being made ſlaves by the Barbary pirates; but ſhips exporting Britiſh fiſh are excepted.

5. The compoſition on petty ſeizures, which is an indulgence allowed by cuſtom to our cuſtom-houſe officers; for one moiety of all goods, ſeized and condemned, belongs to the crown, and muſt be paid or ſecured, before the officer can have the goods to ſell; but when the duty of the goods ſeized does not exceed 40 s. the officer is allowed to compound with the collector.

II. That, which I before called the ſecond branch of the cuſtoms, I ſhall now divide into two; the firſt of which is called the ſubſidy outwards, firſt granted by the ſaid act, 12 Car. II. cap. 4, and continued to March 8, 1742, by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, being a tax of 5 l. per cent. upon all goods exported, with ſeveral original exceptions; and now moſt goods are exempted, except dying goods, and ſeveral others neceſſary in our manufactures; and except leather, white woollen cloths, and coals, which pay particular duties after mentioned.

III. The one per cent. outwards, being the ſame, and firſt granted by the ſame act, with the one per cent. inwards; and continued by the ſaid 3d money-act, Anne, to the ſame time.

IV. The duty on tanned leather exported, being a duty of 1 s. per hundred firſt granted by the act, 20 Car. II. cap. 5, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, continued for 32 years, from March 8, 1710.

V. The impoſt on wine and vinegar, firſt granted by the act, 1 Jac. II. cap. 3, and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever; being an additional tax of 8 l. per ton on all vinegar and French wines, and 12 l. a ton on all other wines.

VI. The impoſt on tobacco, firſt granted by the act, 1 Jac. II. cap. 4, and by the laſt-mentioned act of queen Anne, continued for ever; being an additional tax of 3 d. per pound on tobacco of the Britiſh plantations, and 6 d. upon all foreign tobacco.

VII. The coinage-duty, firſt granted by the act, 18 Car. II. cap. 5, and by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 1, continued to the end of the firſt ſeſſion of parliament, after March 1, 1715-16, being an additional tax of 10 s. per ton on all wines, vinegar, cyder, beer, brandy, and ſtrong waters, imported.

VIII. The coal-duty, firſt granted by the act, 1 Jac. II. cap. 15, and by the 4th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 2, continued to September 29, 1716. It was at firſt 1 s. 6 d. per chalder or ton on coals imported, or brought coaſt-ways into the port of London; but, by the act which continued it, was reduced to 1 s. and it was firſt appropriated to the building of St Paul's, London; and by the 2d act, to the finiſhing that church, and repairing St Peter's, Weſtminſter.

IX. The impoſt 1690, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 2, and by the ſaid 8th money-act of queen Anne continued for ever. It is an additional tax of fifty-five different kinds, upon as many different ſorts of goods imported, many of which are neceſſary in our manufactures, ſuch as pot-aſhes, brimſtone, candles, cordage, drugs even for dyers uſe, unwrought iron, oil, hempſeed, raw ſilk, ſtarch, ſteel, beaver-wool, wood, &c. and the tax is generally at leaſt 5 per cent. ad valorem.

X. The impoſt 1692-3, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, W. and M. parl. II. ſeſſ. 4, and by the ſaid 8th money-act of queen Anne continued for ever. It is likewiſe an additional tax of 72 different kinds, upon as many different ſorts of goods particularly named; and upon all other ſorts of goods, not particularly rated in the firſt book of rates, except mum, and except goods particularly charged with this or the ſaid impoſt 1690; it is a general additional tax of 5 l. per cent. ad valorem. By this tax likewiſe, many ſorts of goods that are neceſſary in our manufactures, are particularly charged; ſuch as rough amber, wood-aſhes, lamp-black, dyeing-woods, except thoſe particularly excepted; elephants-teeth, rough flax, furs, goats-hair, rough hemp, hides, incle, indigo, iron, leather, roſin, ſalt not uſed in curing fiſh, tar, tow, &c. and all French goods in general, except wines (hereby particularly charged with 8 l. per ton) brandies, vinegar, and ſalt, are charged with a duty of 25 l. per cent. ad valorem.

XI. The ſalt-duty, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 5, and by the 7th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever. It is an additional tax of 3 d. a gallon upon all ſalt imported, and was put under the management of the commiſſioners of exciſe; but as it is paid upon importation, and collected by the officers of the cuſtoms, I ſtate it as a branch of our cuſtoms.

XII. The new duty on ſpice and pictures, firſt granted by the 5th money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 6, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever. It is an additional duty of 5 l. per cent. ad valorem, upon pictures, cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmegs; and upon tea 1 s. coffee 6 d. cocoa 6 d. and chocolate 1 s. per pound.

XIII. The ſecond 25 per cent. on French goods, firſt granted by the 5th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 1, from February 28, 1695-6, to February 28, 1716-17; being an additional duty of 25 l. per ton on French wines; 30 l. on ſingle, 60 l. on double French brandies; 15 l. on French vinegar, and 25 l. per cent. ad valorem on all other French goods; ſo that, by this and the ſaid 9th branch, all French goods were ſubjected to a duty of 50 l. per cent. over and above all other duties; but I do not know by what odd contrivance Dunkirk was, ſoon after the beginning of the late king's reign, allowed to be a port, and all ſorts of French goods, except wines, allowed to be imported thence as Flemiſh; though, by the treaty of Utrecht, it was expreſsly ſtipulated, that the harbour ſhould be filled up, and never again reſtored. Surely, our commiſſioners of the cuſtoms would not have ventured to have done ſo, without orders from ſome perſons in a ſuperior ſtation!

XIV. The new duty on coals, culm, and cinders. This and the next branch were at firſt both granted together; but, as they were afterwards divided and appropriated to different purpoſes, I muſt now ſtate them ſeparately. Both theſe branches were firſt granted on coals and culm, by the 3d money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3, and extended to cinders by the 2d money-act, W. III. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 1, being an additional duty of 7 s. 6 d. per chalder, and 5 s. per ton on coals imported, and 5 s. per chalder, and 3 s. 4 d. per ton on coals carried coaſt-ways from one port of England to another; 1 s. per chalder on culm, and 5 s. per chalder on cinders. This duty having been continued to September 30, 1710, three fifths of it were from thence continued to September 30, 1742, by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 2.

XV. The additional duty on coals, culm, and cinders, firſt granted as before-mentioned; and, as to the other two fifths, continued to March 8, 1742-3, by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1.

XVI. The new or further ſubſidy, firſt granted by the 5th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3, and by the 2d money-act of the laſt parliament of king William, and firſt of queen Anne, continued to her for life; being an additional tax upon wines, and all goods imported equal to the old ſubſidy, with very few exceptions.

XVII. The new duty on whale-fins, firſt granted by the 12th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3, and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever; being an additional tax of 3 d. per pound weight on thoſe imported by the Greenland company, and 6 d. per pound on thoſe imported by others.

XVIII. The further duty on ſalt, firſt granted by the 11th money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3, and thereby at once granted for ever, being an additional duty of 7 d. per gallon on all ſalt imported. This duty was likewiſe to be under the management of the commiſſioners of exciſe, but I ſtate it as a branch of our cuſtoms, for the ſame reaſon I have already given, with reſpect to the former duty on ſalt.

XIX. The 15 per cent. on muſlins, firſt granted by the 2d money-act, W. III. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 2, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever, being an additional

ditional tax of 15 l. per cent. ad valorem on muſlins, under which general name are comprehended twenty-five different ſorts of goods imported from the Eaſt-Indies. This tax was at firſt laid upon almoſt all other ſorts of Indian manufactures; but they were ſoon after prohibited to be worn in Great-Britain, and freed from this tax.

XX. The exciſe on foreign liquors, imported, ſhall be taken notice of under the article EXCISE.

XXI. The duties called priſage and butlerage, the former of which is payable by all natives, importers of wine, except the merchants of London, Southampton, Cheſter, and the Cinque Ports, being one ton, if ten tons, or more, and under 20, be imported; and two tons, if 20 tons, or more, be imported by one ſhip; and the latter is payable by all foreigners, importers of wine, in lieu of priſage, being 2 s. per ton on the quantity imported; which duties belong by cuſtom hereditarily to the crown.

XXII. A new additional duty upon coals imported into the port of London, firſt granted by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. ſeſſ. 1, from May 15, 1708, to May 15, 1716, being an additional tax of 2 s. per chalder or ton, and appropriated to the ſame purpoſe, as the 8th branch of the cuſtoms beforementioned. This tax, together with the ſaid 8th branch were continued to the 28th of September 1724, and, from the reſpective times of their expiration, appropriated to the building fifty new churches, by the 9th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1.

XXIII. The one third ſubſidy, firſt granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. ſeſſ. 2, and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4, continued to March 8, 1806-7, being an additional tax upon all wines and merchandize imported, equal to one third of the old ſubſidy.

XXIV. The additional duty on ſpice and pictures, and new duty on drugs, firſt granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3, and by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever. By this branch an additional duty of 5 l. per cent. ad valorem is laid upon all ſpice, and 20 l. per cent. on all pictures (for ſale or private uſe) imported; on drugs 10 l. per cent. ad valorem on ſome, and 4 l. per cent. on others; on coffee, tea, and chocolate, an additional duty equal to that in the eleventh branch; on China ware 12 l. per cent. as ſold at the public ſale; and on white calicoes, not charged as muſlins, or Indian dimities, and on all other manufactures of cotton, 15 l. per cent. as ſold at the public ſale.

XXV. The two thirds ſubſidy, firſt granted by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3, and by the ſame act with the former continued for ever; being an additional tax on all wines and merchandize imported, equal to two thirds of the old ſubſidy; but ſeveral ſorts of goods are exempted from this duty.

XXVI. The duty on white woollen cloths exported, being a duty 5 s. per piece, granted without limitation of time, by an act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4, as mentioned in part.

XXVII. The new duty on pepper and raiſins, and a further new duty on ſpice, firſt granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 2. to continue for thirty-two years from Lady-Day 1710, by which an additional duty of 1 s. 6 d. per pound was laid on all pepper imported (long pepper was afterwards excepted) 5 s. per hundred weight on raiſins, 3 s. per pound on ſnuff, not of our plantations, and on ſpiceries, viz. nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, and mace, a new duty equal to all the duties then payable upon them.

XXVIII. The new duty on candles imported, firſt granted by the 5th money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 2, and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, continued for ever; being an additional duty of 4 d. per pound on wax, and a halfpenny per pound on tallow-candles imported.

XXIX. The duty on coals exported, granted for 32 years, from March 8, 1710-11, in lieu of all former duties, by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, being a duty of ſeven different kinds upon coals exported.

XXX. The additional duty on candles imported, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, to continue for 32 years from March 25, 1711, being a new additional tax equal to the former.

XXXI. The new duty on hides, ſkins, &c. imported, firſt granted by the 6th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, to continue for 32 years from June 24, 1711, being an additional tax of twenty-one ſeveral particular kinds, upon twenty-one particular ſorts of hides and ſkins named in the act, and upon all others not named, or pieces of hides or ſkins, or manufactures conſiſting moſtly of leather, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem; and upon parchment 6 d. per dozen, and upon vellum 1 s. per dozen.

XXXII. The new duty on hops imported, firſt granted by the 7th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1, for four years from June 1, 1711, being an additional tax of 3 d. per pound on all hops imported.

XXXIII. A new duty upon rock-ſalt exported to Ireland, after June 11, 1711, being a duty of 9 s. per ton; but the exporter is allowed the draw-back for the former duty, upon ſhewing a certificate of it's having been paid. It was firſt impoſed for thirty-two years from the above day, by the 10th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1.

XXXIV. The new duty on ſoap, paper, &c. imported, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 2, to continue for 32 years on ſoap, from the 10th of June 1712; on paper, from the 24th of June 1712; and on linnens ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed after the manufacture, from July 20, 1712. By this branch an additional duty of 2 d. per pound is laid upon all ſoap imported; additional duties of fifty ſeveral kinds are laid upon ſo many ſorts of paper particularly named, and upon all ſorts of paper not named, 20 l. per cent. ad valorem; and upon the linnens above deſcribed, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem. Books, prints, and maps imported, were likewiſe by this act loaded with an additional duty of 30 l. per cent. ad valorem; but this tax was afterwards aboliſhed.

XXXV. The additional duty on hides, ſkins, &c. imported, was firſt granted by the 4th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 2, to continue for thirty-two years from Aug. 1. 1712, on hides, &c; from July 1, 1712, on wire; and from June 16, 1712, on coffee, tea, and drugs, except drugs for dyeing, and turpentine from the plantations. By this branch new additional duties of twenty-one different kinds were laid upon twenty-one ſorts of hides and ſkins particularly named, and on all others not named, on all pieces, and on all manufactures moſtly of leather, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem. And the following additional duties were laid upon the following goods imported, viz. on parchment, 2 s. per dozen; on vellum, 3 s. per dozen; on ſtarch, 2 d. per pound; on coffee, 1 s. per pound; on tea from the Eaſt-Indies, 2 s. per pound, and from any other place, 5 s. per pound; and on drugs 20 l. per cent. ad valorem. How cruel is it to tax ſo highly even the ſickneſs and diſeaſes of the people!

XXXVI. The new duty on coals exported, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 5. ſeſſ. 1, to continue for thirty-two years from Auguſt 2, 1714, being an additional duty of 5 s. per chalder on coals exported on foreign bottoms, and 3 s. on thoſe exported in Britiſh bottoms. This was ſo far a wiſe regulation: but the duty was not high enough, becauſe the duties upon coals brought to London ſtill exceed thoſe on coals exported.

XXXVII. The new duty on ſail-cloth, imported, firſt impoſed by an act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 3, for ſeven years from July 21, 1713, being an additional duty of 1 d. per ell.

XXXVIII. The additional duty on ſoap, paper, &c. imported, firſt granted by the 3d money-act, Anne, parl. 5. ſeſſ. 1, to continue for thirty-two years from Auguſt 2, 1714, being an additional duty upon ſoap and paper imported, of half the duty impoſed by the 30th branch, upon the linnens there deſcribed, an additional duty of 15 l. per cent. ad valorem, and a new additional duty of 2 d. per pound on ſtarch.

To this long liſt I ſhall add two other branches of cuſtoms, which I have not before-mentioned, becauſe they are ſeldom, if ever, brought into any account; and the firſt will never, I hope, produce any thing conſiderable; but the laſt is now, I believe, conſiderable, and will, I hope, be every year more and more ſo. The two I mean are,

XXXIX. A duty of 5 s. per ton on all French ſhips, impoſed by the act, 12 Car. II. cap. 18, to continue as long as the duty of 50 ſous per ton, or any part thereof, on Britiſh ſhips, is continued in France, and for three months after. But, whether Dunkirk ſhips have been obliged to pay this duty, I know not.

XL. Is what we uſually call the plantation duties, impoſed by the act, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. for ever; being duties of ſeveral kinds upon ſeveral ſorts of goods, ſhipped in our plantations, and not to be brought to England. To theſe we ſhould likewiſe add,

XLI. The Barbadoes duty, which is a duty of 4 l. 10 s. per cent. payable in Barbadoes, and the Leeward Iſlands, on goods exported from thence, every ſhilling of which is now brought home, inſtead of being applied towards the ſupport of thoſe iſlands, as it was at firſt deſigned, when granted by the people there.

REMARKS.

Theſe were our cuſtom-duties ſubſiſting at the end of queen Anne's reign; what additions upon additions have been made ſince, may be ſeen in Saxby's Book of Rates. But without enumerating all of them, which are too tedious, we may ſee, what a maze our merchants muſt be in about them, when they come to their computation. If likewiſe we conſider the many exceptions, and exceptions from exceptions; the many regulations, and regulations of regulations, for collecting thoſe cuſtoms, we muſt conclude it no eaſy matter for any merchant in this country to be maſter of this branch of his buſineſs, if he be what we call a general merchant.

In order to lead perſons deſirous to be well acquainted with the methods of calculating the duties of cuſtoms, as they are repreſented in Saxby, the beſt BOOK OF RATES at preſent extant, we refer to the concluſion of every letter throughout this work, where this buſineſs is ſufficiently treated of to underſtand the preſent ſtate of thoſe duties, and indeed any future variations to which they may be liable.

But why we have not included a book of rates ready computed, ſee the end of letter A, and it's concluſion, called a SHORT ENQUIRY, &c.

Of ſome determined caſes in law relating to the buſineſs of the Cuſtoms.

Every merchant ſhall have free liberty to break bulk in any port allowed by law, and to pay cuſtom for no more than he ſhall enter and land; provided the maſter, or purſer, firſt make declaration upon oath, before any two principal officers of the port, of the true contents of his ſhip's lading, and ſhall after declare upon oath, before the cuſtomer, collector, &c. or any two of them, the quantity and quality of the goods landed at the other port where bulk was firſt broken, and to whom they did belong.

A merchant brought 80 tons of bay-ſalt to a port in England, and out of that ſhip ſold 20 tons, and diſcharged the ſame into another then in the ſame port, without being actually put on ſhore; for the reſt, being 60 tons, the maſter agreed for the cuſtoms, and landed them: thoſe 20 tons, though always water-borne, were yet adjudged to pay; the diſcharging them out of the ſhip amounting to as much as laying them on land, the ſame being done in port, and the king would otherwiſe be defrauded. But a ſhip carried in by ſtorm, and part landed, to preſerve the veſſel, before the duty paid, is not ſubject to a forfeiture. Coke, 12 part. fol. 17, 18. Plowden, 9. Fogaſſa's caſe.

2. All foreign goods (except wines, currants, and wrought ſilks) firſt imported, ſhall be again exported by any Engliſh merchant within 12 months, and thoſe exporting ſuch goods, ſhall have allowance, and be repaid by the officer that received the ſame, one moiety of the ſubſidy that was paid at firſt, on due proof made by certificate of the due entry, &c. after all which duly performed, the moiety firſt paid inwards ſhall, without delay, be repaid, as alſo the whole additional duty of ſilk, linnen, and tobacco, as before directed. If the officer refuſe to pay, whether the merchant-exporter may not bring an action againſt him upon the debt created in law, as he that hath a tally may do? Hobart, 270. Lutw. 215, 221. 14 Hen. VII.

3. And if there be any agreement now in force, formerly made with merchants ſtrangers, or their factors, or ſhall hereafter with any merchant, or factor, for foreign goods, to be brought into the port of London, or any other of this kingdom, or principality of Wales, and to be exported again by way of compoſition: all other merchants his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall be admitted into the ſame, and not excluded any privilege granted the ſtranger by any private agreement, under the ſame condition and reſtriction as the merchant-ſtranger. Rolls Abridg. 599.

4. Every merchant, as well Engliſh as ſtrangers, ſhipping any kind of wines that have formerly paid all duties inwards, ſhall be allowed them, except to Engliſhmen 20 s. per ton, and the ſtranger 25 s. per ton, on due proof of the entry and payment inwards, and of the ſhipping to be exported, as above.

5. Any merchant, denizen, or ſtranger, exporting Spaniſh, or foreign wool, ſhall have liberty ſo to do, with this further condition, of not exporting them in any other than Engliſh ſhipping, on pain of confiſcation. 12 Car. II. cap. 32. 14 Car. II. cap. 18.

6. Every merchant, Engliſh or ſtranger, that ſhall ſhip or export currants formerly entered, ſhall be allowed thoſe ſubſidies paid inwards, except 1 s. 6 d. for every hundred weight to the Engliſh, and 1 s. 8 d. ½ to the ſtranger, on due proof, as in the ſecond article.

7. If any merchant, having duly paid all duties inwards for foreign goods, and, by reaſon of bad ſale, be forced to keep the ſame, or any part, after the ſpace of a year, he may ſhip the ſame for exportation, without further duty, on proof the ſame was entered, and ſubſidy paid inward.

8. Every merchant importing wines, on due entries of the ſame, ſhall be allowed 12 per cent. for leakage.

9. Every hogſhead of wine that ſhall be run out, and not full ſeven inches, ſhall be accounted for outs, and pay no ſubſidy. And by ſome it is conceived, no freight ſhall be paid for the ſame; but that ſhould ſeem hard, as the fault may be in the caſks, or ill ſtowing (of which, by cuſtom, the maſter has no charge, eſpecially French wines, but it belongs to certain officers beyond ſeas, from whence they are imported) beſides the goods, empty or full, take up tonnage in his ſhip. Boyce verſ. Cole, ſenior and junior. Hill. 27 Car. II. in B. R.

10. If any wines prove corrupt, and fit only to diſtil into hot waters, or to make vinegar, the owner ſhall be abated in the ſubſidy according to his damages, by diſcretion of the collectors and one of the principal officers.

11. Any tobacco, or other goods imported, receiving damage by ſalt water, or otherwiſe, ſo as to prejudice the ſale, the principal officers of the Cuſtom-Houſe, or any two of them, may chuſe two indifferent merchants, who ſhall certify and declare, on their corporal oaths, the damage they have received, and diminution of value, according to which abatement is to be made. There is a book at the Cuſtom-Houſe in which is a general value ſet on all goods, among which is tobacco.

By an act 12 Ann. cap. 8. §. 8. there is to be no allowance for damaged tobacco; but, on refuſal of the duties, the tobacco is to be burned.

12. All merchants-ſtrangers, who do pay double ſubſidy for lead, tin, woollen cloth, ſhall alſo pay double for native manufactures of wool; and for all other goods, inwards or outwards, 3 d. in the pound beſides the ſubſidy. Nor can ſuch merchants-ſtrangers land their goods before they have agreed for the cuſtoms, notwithſtanding charta mercatoria.

13. Merchants, trading into the port of London, may lade and unlade their goods at any lawful keys, &c. between the Tower and London-Bridge, and between ſun-riſing and ſetting, from the 10th of September to the 10th of March; and between ſix in the morning and ſix in the evening, from the 10th of March to the 10th of September, giving notice to the reſpective officers to attend, who, on refuſal, forfeit for every default 5 l.

14. The merchants of York, Kingſton upon Hull, and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, and their members, ſhall be allowed free of cuſtom two of the northern cloths and kerſeys in 10 to be ſhipped in thoſe ports in the name of double wrappers, as formerly allowed them there.

15. The merchants of Exeter, and other weſtern parts, ſhall be allowed, free of ſubſidies, one perpetuana in 10 for a wrapper, and three Devons dozen in 20 for wrappers, to be ſhipped out of the ports of Exeter, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Barnſtaple, Lyme Regis, or the members thereof.

16. All merchants tranſporting any ſort of woollen, whether new or old drapery, as alſo all bays and cottons, ſhall be allowed one in 10 for a wrapper, free of cuſtom.

N. B. All theſe ſeveral allowances are not by act of parliament, but purely his majeſty's gracious benignity towards encouraging the merchants trade.

17. Every merchant ſhall be allowed, on all other goods liable to poundage, five in the hundred of all the ſaid ſubſidies of poundage.

18. The officers who ſit above in the Cuſtom-Houſe of London, ſhall attend there from nine to twelve in the forenoon, and one officer in the afternoon, during ſuch time as the officers are to wait at the water-ſide, for the better deciding all controverſies that may happen concerning merchants warrants; all other officers ſhall attend in the Cuſtom-Houſe of every reſpective port, from nine to twelve, and from two to four.

19. Every merchant, making entry inwards or outwards ſhall be diſpatched in order as he comes; and if any officer put any merchant, or his ſervant, duly attending and making his entries, to draw any other gratuity than is limited in the act of tonnage and poundage, &c. if the maſter-officer, he ſhall, upon complaint, be ſtrictly admoniſhed of his duty; but, if the clerk, he ſhall be preſently diſcharged of his ſervice.

20. The lord mayor, commonalty, and citizens of London, their officers, or deputies, for the offices of package, ſcavage, baleage, or portage, of any goods of aliens, or their ſons born unfreemen, imported or exported into, or out of the city of London, or ports thereof, unto or from parts beyond the ſeas, concerning receiving or taking any fee or rates heretofore uſually taken, may receive the ſame, any thing in the act of tonnage, &c. or other act, to the contrary notwithſtanding.

21. All antient duties heretofore lawfully taken by any city or town corporate, their farmers, &c. for maintenance of bridges, keys, &c. ſhall and may be received as formerly, any thing to the contrary notwithſtanding.

22. The under-ſearcher, or other officers of Graveſend, may ſearch any ſhip outward-bound, but not, without reaſonable cauſe, detain them above three tides, on pain of loſing their office, and rendering damage to the merchant and owner; nor ſhall the officers of the out-ports detain any outward-bound ſhip above one tide after ſhe is laden, and ready to ſet ſail, on like penalty.

23. All timber in balks eight inches ſquare, and upwards, imported from beyond ſeas, ſhall be rated according to the meaſure of timber, the foot ſquare 3 d. for the value, and, according to that rate, ſhall pay for ſubſidy 12 d. in the pound, according to poundage; and all under eight inches ſquare, and above five, ſhall pay as mentioned in the book of rates for middle balks; and all under, according to the rate of ſmall balks.

24. For avoiding oppreſſions, in exacting unreaſonable fees, no officer, or clerk of any Cuſtom-Houſe, ſhall exact, require, or receive, greater fees than are, or ſhall be eſtabliſhed by parliament, on default to forfeit his office.

25. All fees to be paid to the cuſtomer, comptroller, &c. in the port of London, for cockets outwards, ſhall be paid in one ſum, to him who delivers the cocket; and the merchant, after payment of all duties, is to keep his own cocket till he ſhall ſhip out his goods ſo entered, when he is to deliver the ſame to either ſearcher, together with the mark and number of his goods.

26. The Cuſtom-Houſe officers ſhall allow to all perſons monies due to them for the half ſubſidy, and the Algier duty of foreign goods.

27. Any merchant denizen born, having his goods taken at ſea, or loſt, the duties being paid, or agreed for, may, on due proof, ſhip from the ſame port the like quantity, without paying any thing. 27 Ed. III. cap. 13. 12 Car. II. cap. 4.

If the importer pay ready money, he ſhall be allowed 10 per cent. for what he ſhall pay down.

28. Ships of war may be entered and ſearched for unaccuſtomed

tomed goods the officers to ſee none be unladen, or embezzled, on pain of 100l. fine. 14 Car. II. cap. 11.

Goods conveyed ſecretly into ſhips, and carried away without duties paid, the owners forfeit double value, except coals, which only forfeit double duty.

29. Allowances are to be given merchants for damaged goods, of 5 per cent. on all imported, and 12 per cent. on all wines allowed debentures; but, if leſs be ſhipped than is in the certificate, the goods to be forfeited, and the ſubſidy to be received; and goods ſhipped out are not to be landed again in England, on pain of forfeiture.

All goods coming out, or carried into Scotland by land, ſhall paſs through Berwick or Carliſle, and pay cuſtom, on pain of forfeiture.

And, although by this act are many allowances, they are reſtrained to ſuch who traffic in ſhips.

And, whereas all manner of woollen cloths are prohibited by law to be tranſported, his majeſty was pleaſed to grant (by letters patents dated the 24th of February, 27 Car. II.) unto Frances, counteſs of Portland, full powers for 31 years to licenſe the tranſporting ſuch goods, notwithſtanding ſuch prohibitory laws; which is now put in execution by agreement, and the compoſition with her deputies at the Cuſtom-Houſe.

CYDER, is the juice of apples, but not of ſuch as are eſteemed for common uſe: it is produced from the moſt ſavage claſſes of this fruit, and from thoſe whoſe flavour is leaſt agreeable to the palate. Some of them are ſweet, others very acid: theſe latter produce very bad cyder; and the beſt method will be either to root up the plant, or improve it by grafting. The ſweet apples are the only proper fruits for affording an agreeable cyder, which neither offends the palate, nor intoxicates the head: they ſhould be gathered from the tree, but may be ſhaken down with poles. They are afterwards expoſed in heaps to the open air, after which they are carried into the conſervatory, where each ſpecies is ranged according to it's particular degree of maturity, and in order to be preſſed, at different times, 'till the winter be far advanced. The ſound fruits are firſt bruiſed in a large circular trough, under two wooden wheels, placed in an upright poſition, and whoſe axle-trees are faſtened to a turning beam, drawn round by a horſe. Thoſe who are unprovided with an engine of this nature, may bruiſe the apples with peſtles. After which the pulpy ſubſtance is conveyed to a preſs, whoſe ſtructure correſponds with that of the wine-preſs; and, to prevent it's being ſcattered, it is diſpoſed into a ſquare bed, four or five inches thick; this is afterwards covered with a ſurface of ſtraw, which ought to have a ſmall projection over the ſides of the heap. A ſecond ſquare of the cruſhed fruit is raiſed upon this ſpread of ſtraw, another lay of which muſt cover the new ſquare; and this diſpoſition is alternately formed, as long as is judged convenient. Inſtead of ſtraw, in France, they make uſe of large hair-cloths, which are more adapted to contain the murc. The great beams of the preſs are then lower'd with the wheel, and the juice flows into a fat that is ſunk into the earth; whence it is afterwards ſhifted into veſſels, where it is ſuffered to ferment for the ſpace of 15 days, or three weeks, and it is then ſtopped up.

There is another ſmall preſs, which prevents the trouble of ranging the ſeveral beds of fruit and ſtraw; it is called a box-preſs, from it's ſhape, and is calculated to contain the ſeveral fruits that are to be preſſed, whether apples, pears, or grapes. One end terminates in a moveable beam, worked by a wheel and a ſcrew, and the juice flows through the cavities that open in the ſide.

If we would have cyder in it's perfection, and to flower in the glaſs, we muſt wait 'till it has been properly prepared in the vat, and, when it begins to taſte agreeably, it muſt be glued like wine, and may then be drawn off in bottles, which will preſerve it much better, and longer, than caſks.

The laſt act relating to cyder containing the tenor of that preceding it, we judge it needleſs to give the former.

The laſt act of 1763, relating to Cyder.

Whereas by an act made in the laſt ſeſſions of parliament, intituled, 'an act for granting to his majeſty ſeveral additional duties upon wines imported into this kingdom, and certain duties upon all cyder and perry, and for raiſing the ſum of three millions five hundred thouſand pounds, by way of annuities and lotteries to be charged on the ſaid duties: a duty of four ſhillings per hogſhead was, from and after the fifth day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three, granted upon all cyder and perry which ſhould be made in Great-Britain, to be paid by the maker thereof, over and above all other duties then payable for cyder or perry; and it was thereby directed, that the amount of the ſaid duty ſhould be paid within the ſpace of ſix weeks, to be computed from the time of making the charge, in manner therein mentioned, by the officer or officers of exciſe; and all makers of cyder and perry were thereby authorized to compound for the ſaid duty, after the rate therein mentioned, in reſpect of the cyder and perry to be conſumed in their own private families only, in ſuch manner, with ſuch exemptions, privileges, and advantages, and under ſuch regulations, as are in the ſaid act allowed and provided: and whereas it would be a great relief to the perſons ſubject to the ſaid duty, or to the compoſition in lieu thereof, many of whom are induſtrious perſons with large families, if the time for payments of the ſaid duty were enlarged, and the compoſition of five ſhillings, authorized to be made by the ſaid act, were lowered: be it therefore enacted by the king's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That from and after the fifth day of July one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four, in lieu and inſtead of the time of ſix weeks, limited by the ſaid act for the payment of the ſaid duty on cyder and perry, the ſpace of ſix calender months ſhall be and is hereby allowed for the payment of the ſaid duty, to be computed from the time of making the charge thereof; and the ſaid duty ſhall, from and after the expiration of the ſaid ſix months, be recovered and levied in ſuch manner as the ſame could or might have been recovered and levied by virtue of the ſaid former act, at or after the expiration of the ſaid time therein limited for payment thereof; and be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the fifth day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four, when any perſon, being a maker of cyder or perry within this kingdom, ſhall be deſirous of compounding for the ſaid duty on cyder and perry, to be conſumed in the private family of ſuch perſon only, it ſhall be lawful for the commiſſioners of exciſe for the time being in England and Scotland reſpectively, as the caſe may be, or the major part of ſuch reſpective commiſſioners, or ſuch perſon or perſons as they, or the major part of them, ſhall reſpectively appoint for that purpoſe; and, in default of ſuch appointment, then for the collector and ſupervifor for the diſtrict and diviſion within which the perſon deſiring to make ſuch compoſition doth or ſhall inhabit (and the ſaid commiſſioners of exciſe, and the perſons ſo to be appointed by them, and in default thereof, ſuch collector and ſupervifors as aforeſaid, are hereby reſpectively required) upon receiving from ſuch perſon an exact liſt, ſigned by him or her, of the ſeveral perſons of the age of eight years and upwards, whereof his or her family conſiſts (ſpecifying their chriſtian and ſurnames therein) to compound and agree with every perſon ſo delivering in ſuch liſt, for and in lieu of the duty of four ſhillings granted by the ſaid act on cyder and perry to be conſumed in his or her own private family only, at the rate of two ſhillings per annum for each perſon which ſhall be mentioned in ſuch liſt, in lieu and inſtead of the compoſition of five ſhillings authorized to be made by the ſaid act; which compoſition, after the rate of two ſhillings as aforeſaid, ſhall laſt for one year, and be renewed annually; and the money ariſing thereby ſhall be paid down at the reſpective times of making the compoſition; and in caſe the family of any perſon making the compoſition ſhall be increaſed at any time during the year compounded for, then every perſon whoſe family ſhall be ſo increaſed ſhall deliver in an additional liſt, containing the names of the ſeveral perſons of the age of eight years and upwards added to the family, and ſhall then alſo pay down a proportionable compoſition for the perſons ſo added, videlicet, two-pence for each calender month that ſhall be unexpired of the year for which his or her compoſition was made, for each and every perſon ſo added, and like manner freſh liſts ſhall be delivered, and compoſitions made accordingly every year: and that the monies ariſing by the ſaid compoſitions ſhall be applied in ſuch manner, and for ſuch purpoſes, as the duties granted by the ſaid act were thereby directed to be applied; and all parts of the ſaid act (not hereby altered) relating to the compoſitions thereby authorized to be made for the ſaid duty, and alſo to the perſons compounding in purſuance of the power thereby given, and for preventing and puniſhing all frauds, with reſpect to the ſaid compoſitions, and for ſecuring the ſaid duty, ſhall take effect, and be in full force, applied, and put in execution, with reſpect to the compoſition hereby allowed to be made, and to all perſons compounding under the authority of this act, and for preventing and puniſhing all frauds in relation thereto, and for ſecuring the ſaid duty, as fully and effectually, to all intents and purpoſes, as if ſuch parts of the ſaid act were herein ſpecially repeated, re-enacted, and applied to this preſent act.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the fifth day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four, all and every perſon and perſons, not being a compounder or compounders, who ſhall intend to make any cyder or perry, at or with any mill preſs, or other utenſil whatſoever, not being the property of ſuch perſon or perſons, but of any other perſon or perſons, whether compounding or not compounding for the ſaid duty, ſhall, ten days at the leaſt before he, ſhe, or they ſhall begin to make cyder or perry, make a true and particular entry in writing, at the office of exciſe next to the place where ſuch cyder or perry ſhall be intended to be made, of his, her, or their reſpective name or names; and

'and of every mill, preſs, and other utenſil ſo intended to 'be imployed; and of the name or names of the owner or 'owners thereof, and alſo of every ſtorehouſe, warehouſe, 'cellar, or other place wherein ſuch maker or makers intend 'to lay or keep ſuch cyder or perry; and if any ſuch maker 'or makers ſhall make uſe of any other mill, preſs, or uten-'ſil, ſtorehouſe, warehouſe, cellar, or other place whatſo-'ever, either for the making, laying, or keeping, any cyder 'or perry, without having made ſuch entry as aforeſaid, or 'any entry thereof, in purſuance of the ſaid former act, he, 'ſhe, or they, ſhall reſpectively forfeit and loſe the ſum of 'twenty-five pounds for every ſuch offence: and all and 'every the officers of exciſe, ſhall, at all times in the day-'time, be permitted, upon their requeſts, to enter the mill-'houſe, ſtorehouſe, warehouſe, cellar, and all other places 'whatſoever uſed by any ſuch maker or makers as aforeſaid, 'either for the making, laying, or keeping of cyder or 'perry, of which notice ſhall or ought to have been given, 'in purſuance of this act; and to gauge and take an ac-'count of all the cyder or perry which ſhall be there found, 'and ſhall thereof make return or report in writing to the 'reſpective commiſſioners of exciſe in Great-Britain, or 'ſuch other perſon or perſons as they ſhall reſpectively ap-'point to receive the ſame, leaving a true copy of ſuch re-'port in writing, under his or their hand or hands, with 'or for ſuch maker or makers of cyder or perry: and ſuch 'report or return of the ſaid officer or officers ſhall be a 'charge upon ſuch maker or makers of cyder or perry; and 'the amount of the duties thereby charged ſhall be paid by 'ſuch maker or makers reſpectively, within ſuch time as is 'by this act appointed.—Provided always, and be it further 'enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after 'the ſaid fifth day of July, no owner or proprietor what-'ſoever of any mill, preſs, or other utenſil for the making 'of cyder or perry, which ſhall be let out or lent to any 'other perſon for the purpoſe of making cyder or perry, ſhall 'be obliged to give any notice of the letting or lending ſuch 'mill, preſs, or other utenſil, or of the making cyder or 'perry therewith, by the perſon to whom the ſame ſhall be 'ſo let or lent; any thing in the ſaid former act contained 'to the contrary thereof in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

'And for the better accommodation of ſuch makers of cyder 'or perry, who ſhall compound for the duty on cyder and 'perry granted by the ſaid recited act: be it further enacted, 'by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the fifth 'day of July, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-four, 'when any ſuch maker ſhall intend to ſell or diſpoſe of any 'cyder or perry immediately from the mill pound's mouth, 'or place where the ſame ſhall be made, the officer of exciſe 'of the diviſion or place where ſuch makers ſhall reſide, ſhall, 'and he is hereby required, during the time of making cyder 'or perry only, and at no other time, to deliver to, and 'leave with ſuch maker, if demanded, in writing, a ſuffi-'cient quantity of blank certificates, numbered one, two, 'three, and ſo on in an arithmetical progreſſion, to be filled 'up by ſuch maker, and ſubſcribed by him or her, who 'ſhall expreſs in each of the ſaid certificates that ſhall be 'filled up, the exact number of gallons of cyder or perry, 'intended to be ſent therewith, and the number of caſks or 'package containing the ſame, and the place to which, and 'the name and place of abode of the perſons to whom, ſuch 'cyder or perry is to be ſent, and the time when ſuch cer-'tificate is filled up; which certificate (provided it accom-'panies the quantity of cyder or perry mentioned therein) 'ſhall be a ſufficient protection for the removal of ſuch cyder 'or perry, immediately from the mill pound mouth, or place 'where the ſame ſhall be made; and that the officer of ex-'ciſe, at the ſame time that he delivers any quantity of blank 'certificates, to any ſuch maker as aforeſaid, ſhall alſo de-'liver to ſuch maker a like quantity of blank counterparts 'of ſuch certificates, bearing the ſame numbers with the 'certificates: and ſuch maker is hereby required, whenever 'he fills up the blanks of any certificate for the removal of 'cyder or perry, as aforeſaid, at the ſame time to fill up and 'ſubſcribe the blanks of the counterpart thereof, in all par-'ticulars agreeable to the certificate; and ſuch maker ſhall, 'at the time of the delivery of the ſaid blank certificates, 'and counterparts, give a receipt to the officer of exciſe 'delivering the ſame, acknowledging that he or ſhe hath 'received ſo many blank certificates, and the counterparts 'thereof, numbered as aforeſaid; which counterparts ſo fil-'led up, ſhall be returned by ſuch maker to the reſpective 'officer of exciſe, whenever he ſhall require the ſame; and 'ſuch maker ſhall then alſo ſhew to the officer, all the cer-'tificates and counterparts not uſed or filled up; to the end 'the officer may then know what number of certificates 'have been filled up; and ſuch maker ſhall, at reſpective 'times, when he or ſhe ſhall deliver up ſuch counterparts 'ſo filled up, from time to time declare upon oath (or af-'firmation, if a quaker) to be adminiſtered by the ſuperviſor 'of exciſe of the diviſion or diſtrict where ſuch maker reſides, 'that the ſeveral quantities of cyder and perry ſpecified in 'the ſeveral counterparts ſo directed to be delivered up, con-'tain the whole quantity of cyder and perry which he or 'ſhe ſhall have ſold or diſpoſed of, from his or her mill 'pound's mouth, or place where the ſame was made; and 'the reſpective officers of exciſe within their ſeveral diviſions 'are hereby required, from time to time, from the ſeveral 'counterparts of ſuch certificates ſo filled up, ſworn to, and 'delivered as aforeſaid, to make returns or reports in writing 'of the ſeveral quantities of cyder and perry ſold or diſpoſed 'of as aforeſaid, by every ſuch maker reſpectively, to the 'reſpective commiſſioners of exciſe in Great-Britain, or ſuch 'other perſon or peſons as they ſhall reſpectively appoint to 'receive the ſame, leaving true copies of ſuch report in 'writing, under his or their hand or hands, with or for 'ſuch reſpective maker; and ſuch returns or reports of the 'ſaid officer or officers, ſhall be the charges upon ſuch 'reſpective makers of cyder or perry: and the amount of the 'duties thereby charged, ſhall be paid reſpectively by ſuch 'makers, to the reſpective collectors of exciſe, within whoſe 'collection ſuch makers ſhall dwell and inhabit, or to ſuch 'other perſon or perſons as the ſaid reſpective commiſſioners 'of exciſe ſhall reſpectively appoint to receive the ſame, 'within the ſpace of ſix calendar months, to be computed 'from the time of making ſuch charge: and if any ſuch 'maker of cyder or perry, ſhall neglect or refuſe to deliver 'to the officer of exciſe, when required, all the counterparts 'of certificates then filled up, or to declare upon oath or 'affirmation as aforeſaid, or to ſhew to the officer all the 'certificates and counterparts not uſed or filled up, or ſhall 'ſell or diſpoſe of more cyder or perry from the mill pound's 'mouth or place of making, than is mentioned in ſuch 'counterparts ſo delivered up, or ſhall fraudulently inſert in 'the blank of either counterpart or certificate, a greater or 'leſs quantity of cyder or perry than is really ſent with ſuch 'certificate: every ſuch maker offending in any of the ſaid 'caſes, for every ſuch offence ſhall reſpectively forfeit and 'loſe the ſum of twenty-five pounds: and that no certificate 'to be filled up by any ſuch maker, ſhall be in force for the 'removal of cyder or perry, immediately from the mill 'pound's mouth or place of making, but between the firſt 'day of September and the thirty-firſt day of December, in 'each year; and that every ſuch maker ſhall, every year, 'within ten days next after the thirty-firſt day of December 'in each year, deliver, or cauſe to be delivered, to the 'officer of exciſe of the diviſion or place where he or ſhe 'reſides, all the blank certificates and counterparts thereof 'which have not been filled up by ſuch maker: and if any 'ſuch maker of cyder or perry, ſhall neglect or refuſe by the 'ſpace of ten days next after the thirty-firſt day of December 'in any year, to deliver or cauſe to be delivered, to the 'proper officer of exciſe, all the blank certificates and coun-'terparts thereof which have not been filled up by ſuch maker, 'every ſuch maker ſhall for every ſuch offence reſpectively, 'forfeit and loſe the ſum of twenty-five pounds.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That 'if from and after the ſaid fifth day of July, any perſon or per-'ſons whatſoever ſhall aſſault, oppoſe, moleſt, or hinder, any of-'ficer or officers of exciſe, in the due execution of any of the 'powers or authorities given and granted by this act: all and 'every the party or parties ſo offending, ſhall, for every ſuch 'offence reſpectively, forfeit and loſe the ſum of fifty pounds.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That 'if any officer of exciſe ſhall refuſe, or wilfully neglect, to 'leave a true copy of his report in writing, with the maker 'or makers of cyder and perry, as this or the ſaid former 'act directs, or to grant a certificate for the removal of any 'cyder or perry, upon reaſonable requeſt made for that pur-'poſe: or if any maker of cyder and perry, authorized and 'impowered by this preſent act to compound and agree for and 'in lieu of the duty granted by the ſaid former act, ſhall offer 'to make ſuch compoſitions and agreement, and if ſuch of-'ficer of exciſe ſhall refuſe, or wilfully neglect, to accept ſuch 'compoſitions and agreement as this preſent act directs; every 'ſuch officer of exciſe ſo refuſing or wilfully neglecting, ſhall 'for each refuſal or neglect, forfeit and pay the ſum of forty 'ſhillings; which forfeiture and penalty ſhall and may be ſued 'for, levied, recovered, and applied, in like manner as the other 'forfeitures and penalties impoſed by this, or the ſaid former 'act, may be ſued for, levied, recovered, and applied.

'And be it further enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That 'the ſeveral penalties impoſed by this act, ſhall and may be ſued 'for, recovered, levied, mitigated and diſpoſed of, by the ſame 'ways, means, and methods, and in the ſame proportions as 'any penalty impoſed by the ſaid recited act may be ſued for, 'recovered, levied, mitigated, or diſpoſed of: and be it further 'enacted, by the authority aforeſaid, That if any perſon or 'perſons, ſhall at any time or times be ſued, moleſted, or pro-'ſecuted, for any thing by him, her, or them, done or exe-'cuted, in purſuance of or by colour of this act, or of any 'matter or thing in this act containing, ſuch perſon or perſons 'ſhall and may plead the general iſſue, and give this act, and 'the ſpecial matter in evidence, in his, her, or their defence, 'or defences; and if afterwards a verdict ſhall paſs for the 'defendant or defendants, or the plaintiff or plaintiffs ſhall 'become nonſuited, or diſcontinue his, her, or their action 'or proſecution, or judgment ſhall be given againſt him or 'them, upon demurrer, or otherwiſe; then ſuch defendant 'or defendants, ſhall have treble coſts awarded to him, her, 'or them, againſt ſuch plaintiff or plaintiffs.'

A Con-

A Continuation of the Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-Houſe from the End of Letter B.

TO give the reader a thorough idea of this part of our work, he is deſired deliberately to conſult what we have ſaid at the concluſion of the letter A, and alſo what is ſaid at the end of letter B, together with what other matter we ſhall offer as we go on alphabetically.

As * the duties on corn imported are to be levied according to the prices thereof at the times and ports of importation, † therefore the juſtices of the peace, for the ſeveral counties of Great-Britain, muſt, at the reſpective quarter-ſeſſions next after Michaelmas and Eaſter-day yearly, by the oaths of two or more honeſt and ſubſtantial perſons, being neither merchants nor factors for the importing of corn, and by ſuch other ways and means as to them ſhall ſeem fit, examine and determine the common market-prices of middling Britiſh corn and grain, and certify the ſame, with two ſuch oaths made in writing annexed, unto the chief officer of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, in order to be hung up in ſome public place in the Cuſtom-Houſe, to aſcertain the prices according to which the duties ought to be paid.

* 22 Car. II. cap. 13. §. 1, 2.
† 1 Jac. II. cap. 19. §. 3, 4.

And, in order to prevent omiſſions, or neglect in the ſaid juſtices, the collector and comptroller are, in due time, to ſend to the clerk of the peace, and deſire him to remind them of ſettling the prices of corn and grain, and to grant a certificate thereof; copies of which certificates are to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners. * But if, notwithſtanding, the juſtices do omit or neglect to determine the prices, the collector of the cuſtoms muſt receive the duties according to the loweſt prices of the ſeveral ſorts of corn mentioned in the act of tillage, 22 Car. II. cap. 13.

* 2 Geo. II. cap. 18. §. 3.

Spice.

* Though no goods of the growth of Aſia may be imported from any country but that of their growth, &c. yet † nutmegs, cinnamon, cloves, and mace, may be imported from any parts beyond the ſeas, in Britiſh ſhips, whereof the maſter, and at leaſt three fourths of the mariners, are Britiſh, provided notice of the quantity and quality thereof be firſt given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and the place into which they are intended to be imported, be ſignified, and a licence, under the hands of three of the ſaid commiſſioners, be delivered to the merchant demanding the ſame, after the following form:

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 4.
† 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 7. §. 3. 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 4. §. 6. 8 Ann. cap. 7. §. 26. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 45, 46.

Cuſtom-Houſe, London, 6th of December, 1730.

Whereas Henry Criſp hath given notice to us the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, that he intends to lade at Rotterdam in Holland, and to import into the port of Southampton, two hundred pounds of cinnamon, one thouſand five hundred pounds of nutmegs, ſix hundred pounds of cloves, ſix hundred pounds of mace,

The ſaid Henry Criſp is therefore, by virtue of the ſeveral laws now in force, hereby licenſed to import the ſaid ſpice into the ſaid port of Southampton, in a Britiſh ſhip, duly navigated: but the maſter, purſer, or other perſon taking charge of the ſhip importing the ſaid ſpice, is to deliver up this licence to the collector and comptroller of the ſaid port of Southampton, at the time of his or their entering the ſhip; and the name of the ſhip and maſter, together with the marks and numbers of each caſk, bale, or parcel, and the quantity and quality of ſuch ſpice, is to be regularly endorſed on the back hereof; and this licence annexed to the entry, or report of the ſhip: otherwiſe the ſpice beforementioned will be forfeited, and deemed to be imported without a licence, and the ſhip importing the ſame will be ſubject to forfeiture.

* { A B. / B C. / C D. } Commiſſioners.

* Or the cuſtomer, or collector, and comptroller of the port of importation. 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 45.

N. B. In caſe any nutmegs, cloves, mace, or cinnamon, ſhall be found on board any ſhip in bags, or other ſmall parcels, packed in hogſheads, caſks, or bales, the ſame will be forfeited. Notwithſtanding a licence be granted for the importing any nutmegs, cloves, mace, or cinnamon, yet if each caſk of nutmegs, cloves, or mace, ſo imported, ſhall not contain nett three hundred pounds weight, or upwards, and each bale of cinnamon nett ſeventy pounds weight, or upwards, ſuch nutmegs, cloves, mace, or cinnamon, will be forfeited, and deemed to be imported without a licence; and ſuch ſpice, as alſo the ſhip importing the ſame, may be proſecuted *.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 45, 47. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 21.

Goods imported from Guernſey, Jerſey, Sark, and Alderney.

* Goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Jerſey, Guernſey, Sark, and Alderney, may be imported from thence free of all duties (except ſuch as are due for the like goods of the growth, &c. of Great-Britain, and except † ſalt and ‡ brandy, aqua vitæ, ſtrong waters, or ſpirits, vinegar, cyder, perry, beer, ale, and mum) upon producing a proper certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief; the tenor of which certificate is uſually as follows:

* 3 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 5.
† 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 11. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10.
‡ 2 W. and M. cap. 9.

Guernſey. By the honourable A. B. Eſq; lieutenant-governor and commander in chief of his majeſty's caſtle and iſland of Guernſey, &c.

Theſe are to certify, that B. C. hath here ſhipped and laden on board the Delight of Newcaſtle, whereof Mark Low is maſter, for Southampton, two bales, containing fifty dozen pair of hoſe, and thirty waiſtcoats, and twenty tons of pebble-ſtones, of the product and manufacture of this iſland, as per oath made before the royal court: therefore are to paſs cuſtom-free.

Given under my hand and ſeal at St Peter's Port, this 2d of March, 1730,

Jurat. coram nobis, A. B.
C. D. Judge Delegate,
D. E. ———————

Which certificate muſt be produced to the principal officers of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, and the truth thereof confirmed by oath made on the warrant, to which it muſt be annexed; the form of which oath may be as follows:

12th of March, 1730.——N. 68.

In the Delight of Newcaſtle, Mark Low, from Guernſey.
William Fell.

Twenty tons of pebble-ſtones, fifty dozen pair of hoſe, thirty waiſtcoats, of the product and manufacture of Guernſey, as per certificate from thence, dated the ſecond inſtant, and hereunto annexed.

Mark Low, maſter of the above ſhip, maketh oath, That the goods abovementioned were actually laden on board his ſaid ſhip in the iſland of Guernſey, and that they are the ſame which are mentioned in, and for which the annexed certificate from thence, bearing date the ſecond inſtant, was granted; and that he verily believes, and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the ſaid goods are of the product and manufacture of the iſland of Guernſey.

Signed—Mark Low.

Jurat. 12° die Martii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Linnen, hemp, flax, thread, or yarn, imported from Ireland.

* Hemp or flax, thread, yarn, and linnen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, being permitted to be imported directly from thence by Britiſh or Iriſh, duty free; the maſter of the veſſel, in order to exempt them from duty, muſt bring a certificate from the chief officers of the port in Ireland where ſhipped, expreſſing the marks, numbers, weights, or tale, of the ſpecies of each bale, or parcel, mentioned in the bill of lading, with the names and places of abode of the exporters from Ireland, and the names and places of abode of the perſons that have ſworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of that kingdom, and where and to whom in Great-Britain conſigned.
The form of which certificate is uſually as follows:

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. §. 1.

Port of Dublin.

Theſe are to certify, that A. B. of this city, hath entered here three hundred and ten pieces, being ſeven thouſand, five hundred, and eighty yards, of plain Iriſh linnen cloth, duty free; to be ſhip-
* Loc. Sig. ped on board the Hope of London, William Wilſon maſter, for Southampton; which ſaid linnen cloth
* Loc. Sig. is of the product and manufacture of this kingdom, as appears by the affidavit of B. C. of this city, taken before us the 9th inſtant.

Witneſs our hands and ſeals of office this 10th day of February, 1730.

C. D. Collector, D. E. Cuſtomer, E. F. Comptroller.

Which certificate muſt be produced to the principal officers of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, and the truth thereof be

confirmed by oath made on the warrant, to which it must be annexed. The form of which oath must be as follows:

25th of February, 1730.——No. 54.
In the Hope of London, William Wilson master, from Dublin.

Francis Willis.

F. W. No. 1 a 5. Five bales, containing seven thousand, five hundred, and eighty yards, plain Irish linnen, as per certificate, dated the 10th instant, hereunto annexed.

William Wilson, master of the above ship, maketh oath, That the five bales of linnen abovementioned were actually laden on board his said ship at Dublin, in Ireland, and that the said bales, and linnen therein contained, are the same which are mentioned in, and were taken on board, by virtue of the certificate from thence, dated the 10th instant, now produced: and that he verily believes, and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the said linnen is of the product and manufacture of the kingdom of Ireland.

Signed—William Wilson.

Jurat' 25° die Februarii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland.

* Wool, wool-fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, serges, bays, kerseys, says, frizes, druggets, shalloons, stuffs, cloth serges, or any other drapery made of, or mixed with, wool, or wool-flocks, and manufactured in the kingdom of Ireland, may be imported from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kingsale, Cork, Drogheda, and New Ross, into Biddeford, Barnstaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford-Haven, Chester, and Liverpool, provided notice be first given to the customer or collector, &c. of the port into which the same are intended to be brought, of the quality, quantity, and package, with the marks and numbers, and the name of the ship and master, and the port into which they are imported; and bond be entered into with one or more sufficient sureties, in treble the value of the goods, for the due landing of the same.

* 1 W. and M. cap. 32. §. 6. 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 28. §. 5. 10 and 11 W. III. cap. 10. §. 10, 14. 4 Ann. cap. 7. §. 1.

The form of which bond must be as follows:

Noverint universi, &c.

Whereas the above bounden Benjamin Forward, hath given notice to the customer or collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Chester, of his intentions of lading, at the port of Dublin in the kingdom of Ireland, eighty packs, containing one thousand eight
B. F. hundred stone of Irish wool (marked and numbered as
No. 1 a 80 in the margin) on board the ship Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is master, in order to be imported into the port of Chester, and for which he hath desired a licence accordingly:

Now the condition of this obligation is such, That if the said Benjamin Forward, or his assigns, or any of them, shall not carry the said wool so laden at Dublin in the kingdom of Ireland, into any port beyond the seas, but shall duly and truly import the same in the aforesaid vessel, into the port of Chester, or into some of the following ports of Great-Britain, viz. Biddeford, Barnstaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Bristol, Milford-Haven, or Liverpool, and shall there unlade, and put on shore the same, the dangers of the seas excepted: then this present obligation to be void and of none effect, or else to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of
A. B. Collector. Benjamin Forward *.
B. C. Comptroller. James Hopkins *.

And, when bond is thus given, the chief customer or collector, &c. of the port, must grant a licence under their hands and seals of office, for the importation of the goods therein specified: which licence must be in the following form:

Port of Chester.

In pursuance of an act of parliament made in the tenth and eleventh years of the reign of king William the IIId, intitled, An act to prevent the exportation of wool out of the kingdoms of Ireland and England into foreign parts, and for the encouragement of the woollen manufactures in the kingdom of England,

We do hereby certify, That Benjamin Forward of Chester hath given notice of his intention of lading at the port of Dublin, in the kingdom of Ireland, eighty packs, containing one thousand eight
B. F. hundred stone of Irish wool, marked and numbered
No. 1 a 80 as in the margin, on board the ship Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is master; to
Loc. Sig.* be imported into the port of Chester, and hath here given security, according to the said act, for the
Loc. Sig.* landing thereof accordingly, the danger of the seas excepted; therefore he the said Benjamin Forward is hereby licensed to lade and import the same, according to the said act. Witness our hands and seals of office, the 27th day of January 1730.
A. B. Collector, B. C. Customer, C. D. Comptroller.

* And when, by virtue of the aforesaid licence, such wool, &c. arrives at the intended port of Great-Britain, it must be observed whether the cockets granted in Ireland, for the exportation thereof, are wrote on paper (and not on parchment) and are signed by three of the chief officers of the port; and whether the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers, are indorsed thereon as the law directs, otherwise the landing must not be permitted; but, if the said requisites are duly performed, entries are to be made, and warrants granted for the landing, as for other goods: and, at the landing the said goods, they are to be carefully viewed and examined by the surveyor and land-waiters, in order that the landing may be certified to the officers of the loading-port in Ireland, after the following manner:

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 7.

Port of Chester. } Know ye, That Benjamin Forward hath landed in this port, out of the ship Fortune of Liverpool, James Hopkins master, from Dublin, eighty packs, containing one thousand eight hundred stone of Irish wool, as appears by the indorsed particulars; which came by cocket from thence, dated the 18th day of February, 1730, mentioning to have there laden eighty packs, containing one thousand eight hundred stone of Irish wool; and for which a licence was granted at this port, the 27th day of January 1730: which said goods were consigned to Benjamin Forward, and delivered by D. E. land-waiter.

Certified the 15th day of March 1730.
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.
C. D. Surveyor.

* This certificate to be made on paper, not parchment, and to express the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers of the goods, which must not be obliterated or interlined.

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. §. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. §. 7, 9.

Duplicates of which certificates, with the indorsements thereon, are likewise, from time to time, to be transmitted to the commissioners of the customs in London.

* And as it is required that a register be kept at the custom-house in London, of all wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland; wherein are to be specified the particular qualities and quantities thereof, the masters and owners names, and to whom consigned; in order to be compared with an account, that is to be sent from the commissioners of the revenue in Ireland, every half year. Therefore, besides the aforesaid duplicates, an account of all wool, &c. imported into the respective ports, must be transmitted every half year to the commissioners of the customs, in the following form:

* 1 W. and M. cap. 32. §. 11. 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 28. §. 6. 10 and 11 W. III. cap. 10. §. 6.

Port of Chester.

An account of wool, wool-fells, shortlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worsted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, serges, bays, kerseys, says, frizes, druggets, shalloons, stuffs, cloth-serges, &c. imported from Ireland into this port, between the 25th of December 1730 and the 24th of June 1731.

Loading ports.	Dates of cockets.	Ships names.	Masters names.	Owners names.	To whom consigned.	Marks and numbers.	Quality of the package	Quantities of wool.	Quantitie of wool-flocks.	Quantities woollen.	Of yarn worsted	No. of wool-fells.
Dublin.	18 Feb. 1720	Fortune.	J Hopkins	John Dod.	B. Forward	B F 1 a 80.	80 Packs.	1800 Stone				

Naval

Naval ſtores imported from the Britiſh plantations in America, and trees fit for maſts, yards, or bowſprits, imported from Scotland.

* The aforeſaid ſtores imported directly from any of the Britiſh plantations in America, or the trees from that part of Great-Britain called Scotland, being intitled to a reward or premium, therefore, in order to procure the ſame, the following requiſites muſt be performed at the time of importation.

* 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 10. §. 1, 2. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 2. 8 Geo. I. cap. 12. §. 1. 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 4, 12.

Upon the maſter's arrival, he muſt produce to the chief officers of the cuſtoms, at the port of importation, the certificate which was granted at the loading port, viz.

If the ſhip comes from the Britiſh plantations.

A certificate under the hands and ſeals of the governor, lieutenant-governor, collector of the cuſtoms, and naval officer in the ſaid plantations, or any two of them, teſtifying, that, before the departure of the ſhip, the perſon loading the ſaid naval ſtores, had made oath before them, that the ſame were, truly and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of the ſaid plantations: and, with reſpect to the high bounty or premium on tar, the ſaid certificate muſt likewiſe expreſs, That it has appeared to them, by the oath of the owner or maker of the tar for which ſuch certificate was granted, that the tar therein mentioned was made from green trees prepared for that purpoſe, after the following manner; that is to ſay, that, when ſuch trees were fit to bark, the bark thereof was ſtripped eight feet, or thereabouts, up from the root of each tree, a ſlip of the bark of about four inches in breadth having been left on one ſide of each tree; and that each tree, after having been ſo barked, had ſtood during one year at the leaſt, and was not before cut down for the making of tar; and that the ſaid tar was made without mixture of any other tar therewith. The form of which certificate is uſually as follows:

Port of Boſton, in New England } In the Alice of Hull, Daniel Granger maſter, for Southampton.

William Ford.

Four bundles, containing three tons of hemp, of the produce of one of his majeſty's plantations in America, as appears to us by the following oath:

Jurat' William Ford, That the hemp abovementioned, by him ſhipped on board the abovenamed ſhip, the Alice of Hull, whereof Daniel Granger is maſter, bound for Southampton, is truly and bonâ fide, according to the beſt of his knowlege, of the growth and produce of his majeſty's plantations a-
* Loc. Sig. bovenamed †. In teſtimony whereof, we have hereunto ſet our hands and ſeals of office, at the Cuſtom-
* Loc. Sig. Houſe aforeſaid, this eighteenth day of December, in the fourth of his majeſty's reign, annoque Domini 1730.

A. B. Collector of the Cuſtoms, B. C. Naval Officer.

† When the certificate is for tar, made from trees purpoſely prepared, in the manner beforementioned, there muſt then be added after this reference,—And that the ſaid tar was made from green trees, prepared for that purpoſe, as the law directs.

If the ſhip comes from North Britain, or Scotland.

A certificate under the hands and ſeals of the comptroller and collector of the cuſtoms, and the naval officer, or any two of them, reſiding at the port of exportation in North Britain, teſtifying, that, before the departure of the ſhip, the perſons concerned, or employed, in cutting down ſuch trees, or any two of them, had made affidavit in writing before them, or any two of them, That ſuch trees were truly, and bonâ fide, of the growth and produce of North Britain: in which affidavit muſt be ſpecified the particular number, quantity, and qualities of the trees, together with the time when they were cut down, the name of the proprietor, and the place where the ſame did grow; and in the aforeſaid certificate muſt be inſerted a true copy of this affidavit. The form of the certificate may be the ſame as that from the Britiſh plantations beforementioned, except only in the tenor of the affidavit, which muſt be formed according to the foregoing directions, and, therefore, it needs not be exemplified.

And, after the goods mentioned in any of the aforeſaid certificates are duly landed, the truth of ſuch certificates muſt be confirmed by the oath of the maſter, made either upon the back thereof, or upon ſeparate paper, in the following words, viz.

Daniel Granger, maſter of the ſhip Alice of Hull, lately arrived from Boſton in New England, maketh oath, That the four bundles of hemp within mentioned, were really and truly laden on board his ſaid ſhip at Boſton, a Britiſh plantation in America, [or at ——— in Scotland,] and that the four bundles of hemp, which he hath now delivered out of his ſaid ſhip in this port of Southampton, are the very ſame goods which he took on board at Boſton as aforeſaid, and that he knows [or verily believes] every part thereof to be of the growth and product [or manufacture] of the ſaid province, or of ſome other of his majeſty's colonies and plantations in America [or of ſome part of Scotland].

Signed—Daniel Granger.

Jurat' apud Southampton, 7° die Martii, 1730, coram me A. B. Collector.

Goods for which ſecurity may be taken for payment of ſome of the duties.

As, for the greater eaſe and encouragement of trade, part of the duties on ſeveral ſorts of goods are not obliged to be paid down at entry, but ſecurity may be taken for payment of the ſame at certain periods of time, I ſhall here give the neceſſary directions which are to be obſerved in taking ſuch ſecurities, which are as follow:

1. That * all obligations and ſpecialities, made for any cauſe concerning the king's moſt royal majeſty, or to his heirs, or to their uſe, &c. muſt be made to his majeſty, and to his heirs (kings) in his or their name or names, by theſe words, Domino regi, and to be paid to his majeſty by theſe words, Solvendis eidem domino regi, hæredibus vel executoribus ſuis: and that, for all other obligations taken otherwiſe, the offender is to ſuffer ſuch impriſonment as ſhall be judged by the king and his council: and, likewiſe, that, if the debt of ſuch obligations is not ſatisfied in the king's life-time, they are to come, and remain, to his heirs or executors.

* 38 Hen. VIII. cap. 39. §. 2, 3.

2. That the collector is to endeavour, with the privity and approbation of the comptroller, to take good and ſufficient ſecurities, by one, two, or more perſons beſides the importer, for the ſeveral bondable duties; which approbation he may ſignify, either by being a witneſs to the bond, or by a proper certificate under his hand, according to the following form:

I do approve of Dennis Dove and Samuel Lloyd, of Southampton, as ſufficient ſecurities for the ſum of one thouſand ſeven hundred pounds. Dated the third of February, 1730.

B. C. Comptroller.

Thus having premiſed all that was neceſſary to be noted in relation to bonds in general, I ſhall next proceed to exemplify the ſeveral particular bonds that are to be taken for the ſecurity of the duties on goods and merchandizes imported.

1. A bond for the additional duty on linnens and wrought ſilk imported.

* Linnens and wrought ſilks imported, being chargeable with an additional duty of a full moiety of net old ſubſidy, and the importer being at liberty either to pay down ſuch additional duty, or to give ſecurity for the payment of the ſame within twelve months from the importation: therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give ſuch ſecurity, it muſt be after the following form:

* Clauſes in the book of rates after linnen and ſilk.

Noverint univerſi per præſentes, nos A. B. & B. C. ſingulos de Southamptonia, in comitatu Southamptoniæ, mercatores, teneri & firmiter obligari ſereniſſimo domino noſtro Georgio Secundo, Dei gratia, Magnæ Britanniæ, Franciæ, & Hiberniæ, regi, fidei defenſori, &c. in centum libris, bonæ & legalis monetæ Magnæ Britanniæ, ſolvendis eidem domino regi, hæredibus vel executoribus ſuis: ad quam quidem ſolutionem bene & fideliter faciendam, obligamus nos & * utrumque [aut † quemlibet] noſtrum, per ſe, pro toto & in ſolido, hæredes, executores, & adminiſtratores noſtros & * utriuſque [aut † cujuſlibet] noſtrum, firmiter per præſentes. Sigillis noſtris ſigillat'. Dat' nono die Februarii, anno regni regis prædicti quarto, annoque Domini 1730.

* If but two obligors.
† If more than two obligors.

The condition of this obligation is ſuch, That, if the abovebounden A. B. and B. C. their executors, adminiſtrators, or aſſigns, or any of them, do well and truly pay, or cauſe to be paid, unto C. D. collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms in the ſaid port of Southampton, or to the collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms in the ſaid port for the time being, for his ſaid majeſty's uſe, the ſum of forty-nine pounds, nineteen ſhillings, and five pence, of lawful money, on or before the ninth day of February, which ſhall be in the year of our Lord one thouſand, ſeven hundred, and thirty-one; being for the additional duty of five hundred twenty-ſix hundred ells of narrow German linnen, imported from Hamburgh, in the ſhip Hope of London, whereof Daniel Grove is maſter, and entered this day at the Cuſtom-Houſe in the port of Southampton, in the name of A. B. then this preſent obligation to be void, or elſe to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
C. D. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

A. B. *
B. C. *

2. A bond for the additional duty on wines imported.

* All wines imported, being chargeable with an additional duty, and the importer being at liberty either to pay down such additional duty, or to give good security for the payment of the same within nine months from the importation: therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be performed in the manner before prescribed in the bond for the additional duty on linnens and wrought silk, with this only variation, that, for this duty, the time of payment must be limited to nine months from the importation.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 14.

3. A bond for the impost on wines and vinegar imported.

* All wines and vinegar imported, being chargeable with an impost, and the importer being at liberty either to pay down such impost, or to become bound with two, or more, sufficient sureties, or procure three other persons, to become bound to his majesty for the payment of the same, by three several and equal payments; the first whereof to be made within three months, the second within six months, and the third and last within nine months after the date of the obligation; therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be after the following form:

* 1 Jac. II. cap. 3. §. 3.

Noverint universi, &c.

The condition of this obligation is such, That, if the above-bounden Humphry Hill, George Salter, and Mark Forward, their executors, administrators, or assigns, or any of them, do well and truly pay unto A. B. collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, or to the collector of his majesty's customs in the said port for the time being, for his majesty's use, the sum of fifty-nine pounds and nine pence half-penny, of lawful money, on or before the fifteenth day of April; and the sum of fifty-nine pounds and nine pence half-penny of lawful money, on or before the fifteenth day of July; and also the sum of fifty-nine pounds and nine-pence three-farthings, of lawful money, on or before the fifteenth day of October, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand, seven hundred, and thirty-one; being for the impost-duty of eighteen tons of Spanish wine, filled for sale, imported from Malaga, in the ship Delight of Southampton, whereof David Stone is master, and entered this day at the Custom-House in the port of Southampton, in the name of Humphry Hill: then this present obligation to be void, or else to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

	l.	s.	d.
1st paym. 15 April	59	0	$9\frac{1}{2}$
2d —— 15 July	59	0	$9\frac{1}{2}$
3d and last 15 Octob.	59	0	$9\frac{1}{4}$
l.	177	2	$4\frac{3}{4}$

Sealed and delivered in the presence of
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

Humphry Hill, *
George Salter, *
Mark Forward. *

4. A bond for { Impost 1690 *, / Impost $169\frac{2}{3}$ †, / New duty on whale-fins ‡.

The importers of the several species of goods chargeable with the aforementioned duties, being at their liberties either to pay down the said duties, or to give security for payment of the same within twelve months after the importation, by four equal and quarterly payments: therefore, when it is their choice to give such security, it must be performed in the manner before prescribed in the bond for the impost-duty on wines and vinegar; with this only variation, that as in that bond the total duty was divided into three equal parts, and three quarterly days assigned for their respective payments; so here the total duties must be divided into four equal parts, and four quarterly days be assigned for the several respective payments.

* 2 Will. and Mar. cap. 4. §. 54.
† 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 5. §. 6.
‡ 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 45. §. 5.

5. A bond for the new duty on pepper, raisins, &c. imported.

* The importers of the goods liable to this duty being at their liberty either to pay down the said duty, or to give security for the payment of the same within twelve months: therefore, when it is the importer's choice to give such security, it must be performed in the method prescribed in the bond for the additional duty on linnen and wrought silks.

* 8 Ann. cap. 7. §. 15.

6. A bond for the { Additional duty / New subsidy - / $\frac{1}{3}$ Subsidy - - / Impost - - - } on tobacco from the British plantations.

The importers of tobacco being at liberty either to pay down the aforesaid duties, or to give security for payment of the same: therefore, when the latter is their choice, they must * become bound, with one or more sufficient sureties, to be approved of by the collector and comptroller of the port, in one or more bond or bonds, for payment of the said duties within eighteen months, to commence at the end of thirty days after the master's report of the ship, or from the entry of the goods within those thirty days, which shall first happen; the form of which bond must be as follows:

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 3.

Noverint universi, &c.

The condition of this obligation is such, That, if the above-bounden Dennis Dove and Samuel Lloyd, their executors, administrators, or assigns, or any of them, do well and truly pay, or cause to be paid, unto A. B. collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, or to the collector of his majesty's customs in the said port for the time being, for his said majesty's use, the sum of one thousand seven hundred pounds, of lawful money, on or before the third day of August, which shall be in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and thirty-two, being for the additional duty, new subsidy, one-third subsidy, and impost, of ninety thousand pounds weight of British plantation tobacco, entered this day in the name of Dennis Dove, having been imported from Virginia in the ship Olive-Branch of Liverpool, whereof Giles Ellis is master, who reported the twenty-eighth day of January last, at the Custom-House in the port of Southampton: then this present obligation to be void, or else to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

	l.	s.	d.
Additional duty	318	15	0
New subsidy -	318	15	0
$\frac{1}{3}$ Subsidy - -	106	5	0
Impost - - -	956	5	0
	1700	0	0

Sealed and delivered in the presence of
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

Dennis Dove, *
Samuel Lloyd. *

7. A bond for the new duty on salt.

The bonds being made out and executed, according to the aforegoing directions and examples, they are, besides being inserted in distinct columns in the entry-book inwards, to be entered by way of charge on the left-hand side of a separate account, which is to be erected for every importer, in two particular books, which are to be kept for that purpose, the one by the collector, and the other by the comptroller: and, after the bonds are so entered, they are to be immediately locked up in the king's cheft, there to remain under the distinct locks of the collector and comptroller, 'till duly discharged.

Date

Date of Bonds.	Humphry Hill, Principal, George Salter, Mark Forward, Sureties. Dr.	Quantities and Qualities of the Goods imported.	Addition. Duty.	New Subsidy.	One third Subsidy.	Impost on Wine.	Impost on Tobacco	Impost 1690.	Impost 1692-3.
1730 15 Jan.	To bonds for goods imported in the Delight of Southampton, David Stone master, from Malaga	18 Tons of Spanish wine filled for sale.	64 16 0			177 2 4¾			
			64 16 0			177 2 4¾			
	Char. Alstrom, Principal, Edm. Crowder, Surety Dr.								
3 Feb.	To bonds for goods imported in the Martha of Pool, John Willis master, from Sweden	70 Tons of iron						80 10 0	
								80 10 0	
	Dennis Dove, Principal, Samuel Lloyd, Surety Dr.								
3 Feb.	To bonds for goods imported in the Olive-Branch of Liverpool, Giles Ellis master, from Virginia	lb. 90,000 Tobac.	318 15 0	318 15 0	106 5 0		956 5 0		
			318 15 0	318 15 0	106 5 0		956 5 0		
	Aaron Holt, Principal, Samuel Fell, Surety Dr.								
7 Feb.	To bonds for goods imported in the Welcome of Hull, Charles Jones master, from Maryland	lb. 4000 Tobacco	14 3 4	14 3 4	4 14 5¼		42 10 0		
	George Tims, Principal, William Dod, Surety Dr.								
13 Feb.	To bonds for goods imported in the Welcome of Hull, Charles Jones master, from Maryland	lb. 8000 Tobacco	28 6 8	28 6 8	9 8 10½		85 0 0		
	Jam. Withers, Principal, Henry Dalton, Surety Dr.								
3 Mar.	To bonds for goods imported in the Neptune of Liverpool, William Wells master, from Petersburgh	400 hund. Hemp, 200 hund. Tow							18 6 8
									18 6 8
	John Sims, Principal, Aaron Wilson, Surety Dr.								
1730 22 Mar.	To bonds for coals brought coastward in the Hope of Lanelly, himself master, from Lanelly	43¾ Chalders	3 s. Coals 6 11 3	2 s. Coals 4 7 6	N. D. on S.				
	Jam. Moreton, Principal, George How, Surety Dr.								
1730 23 Mar.	To bonds for goods imported in the Mary of Bristol, Humph. Kell master, from Cadiz	90 Weys Span. salt			360 0 0				
	Henry Bicknel, Principal, Thomas Ford, Surety Dr.								
24 Mar.	To bonds for salt taken out	[illegible] W[illegible]							

Date of Payments, Debentures, &c.	Per Contra—Cr.	Quantities and Qualities of the Goods exported, &c.	Addition. Duty.	New Subsidy.	One third Subsidy.	Impost on Wine.	Impost on Tobacco	Impost 1690.	Impost 1692-3.
1731									
15 April	By cash					59 0 9½			
15 July	By cash					59 0 9½			
15 October	By cash in full		64 16 0			59 0 9½			
			64 16 0			177 2 4¾			
	Per Contra—Cr.								
29 March	By a certif. of over-entry	30 Iron						4 1 4½	
3 May	By cash							16 1 1½	
2 August	By cash							20 2 6	
3 Novemb.	By cash							20 2 6	
3 February	By cash							20 2 6	
								80 10 0	
	Per Contra—Cr.	lb.							
20 March	By debentures	35167 Tobac.	124 11 0	124 11 0	41 10 4				
7 Novemb.	By cash in full	5488	194 4 0	194 4 0	64 14 8			373 13 0	
		9000	318 15 0	318 15 0	106 5 0			582 12 0	
								956 5 0	
	Per Contra—Cr.	lb.							
20 March	By debentures	2500 Tobacco	8 17 1	8 17 1	2 19 0½				
	By ballance	1500	5 6 3	5 6 3	1 15 4¾			26 11 3	
		4000	14 3 4	14 3 4	4 14 5¼			15 18 9	
								42 10 0	
	Per Contra—Cr.	lb.							
20 March	By debentures	8000 Tobacco	28 6 8	28 6 8	9 8 10½			85 0 0	
	Per Contra—Cr.	C.							
28 March	By a certificate of damage	160 Tow da. ½							2 0 0
8 June	By cash								2 11 8
6 Septemb.	By cash								4 11 8
7 Decemb.	By cash								4 11 8
8 March	By cash in full								4 11 8
									18 6 8
1731	Per Contra—Cr.								
20 June	By cash in full	43¾ Chalders	3 s. Coals 6 11 3	2 s. Coals 4 7 6	N. D. on S.				
	Per Contra—Cr.								
18 Septemb.	By cash in full	90 Weys			360 0 0				
	Per Contra—Cr.								
20 Septemb.	By cash in full	25 Weys 15 Bushels			101 10 0				

The amount of the ſeveral bonds which have been taken, being charged to the debtor-ſide of each merchant's proper account as before exemplified, and the bonds themſelves being repoſited in the king's cheſts; I ſhall next ſhew how the ſaid accounts and bonds are to be diſcharged.

Upon the receipt of the whole, or any part of a bond, either by money, debentures, or certificates of damage or over-entry; the ſum received, or to be allowed, muſt be immediately poſted to the diſcharge of the proper bond, on the right-hand or credit-ſide of the accounts, wherein they before had been charged debtor; and, if diſcharged by money, the ſum received muſt be likewiſe entered by the collector and comptroller in diſtinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpoſe, in the method ſpecified at the end of the quarter-book, under the title of, An account of money received in diſcharge of bonds formerly taken.

And in thoſe bonds where the conditions require the payment to be made at ſeveral times, or where any part of a bond is paid before it becomes due, or wherein any part of the goods therein mentioned, have had an allowance for damage, or have been over-entered, or, being intitled to a drawback, have been exported; when ſuch payments are made, or regular debentures or certificates produced, their amounts muſt be likewiſe immediately endorſed on the backs of their reſpective bonds, by way of diſcharge for ſo much as they do amount to. The form of which endorſement may be as follows:

20th of April, 1731.

Paid, in part of this bond, ſix hundred and ſixty-four pounds, five ſhillings, and four-pence, by debentures relating - - - } l. 664 s. 5 d. 4

Signed Dennis Dove.

Witneſs { A. B. Collector. B. C. Comptroller.

viz.	Additional duty -	124	11 0
	New ſubſidy - -	124	11 0
	One third ſubſidy	41	10 4
	Impoſt - - -	373	13 0
		664	5 4

And when the bonds are fully diſcharged, either by payment in money, or by debentures or certificates relating, they are to be delivered up to the obligors.

But, if the payments of the bonds are not punctually made on the days ſpecified in the conditions, the collector is to demand the ſame; and, if they are not diſcharged within fourteen days after demand, the bonds muſt be ſent up (more eſpecially in vacation-times, that the benefit of the approaching terms may not be loſt) to the proper ſollicitor of the cuſtoms, with a ſchedule thereof, atteſted under the hands of the collector and comptroller, in order to be put in ſuit, for the principal and intereſt: and, if the obligors are thought to be totally inſolvent, a diſtinct liſt of ſuch bonds, with a certificate under the hands of the collector and comptroller, of the conditions of the obligors, and the reaſon of their inſolvency, are to be likewiſe ſent to the ſaid ſollicitor: and, for the due proſecutions of ſuch bonds that are thought to be recoverable, not only the collector is to keep a conſtant correſpondence with the ſaid ſollicitor, who will ſend the proceſſes; but alſo the country-attorney, employed in ſolliciting the ſame with the ſheriff, muſt correſpond with him, and follow his directions.

And, after bonds are thus ſent up to the ſollicitor to be proſecuted, the collector is not to look upon himſelf as diſcharged thereof, and from taking any further care in getting in the money due thereupon; but muſt uſe his utmoſt endeavour to recover the ſame: and as ſoon as any money, whether principal or intereſt, is received upon ſuch bonds, the ſollicitor is to be acquainted therewith; who, if the whole appears to be diſcharged, muſt ſend down the bond, in order to be delivered up to the obligors.

And with regard to the payment of bonds for cuſtoms, or other duties on goods imported, which have elapſed their times, it muſt be obſerved, * that the penalties are not to be diſcharged without full payment of the principal, together with † intereſt, at 6 l. per cent. per annum, to be reckoned from the day on which the principal became due, until the actual payment, &c. unleſs the treaſury, upon repreſentation of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſhall think fit to remit it; but intereſt may not be remitted to any corporation or company trading by charter: and when intereſt is due on any bond, and there is any money received thereon, ſuch money is firſt to be applied to the diſcharge of the intereſt then due, and the reſidue towards the principal: and, when any intereſt is received upon bonds, the ſame muſt be entered by the collector and comptroller, in diſtinct books, to be kept by each of them for that purpoſe, in the method ſpecified at the end of the quarter-book, under the title of, An account of intereſt received on bonds formerly taken, &c. And the money, as well principal as intereſt, received upon account of bonds, is to be inſerted in the proper abſtracts, and to be remitted to the receiver-general, in like manner as the money paid upon the entry of goods.

* 4 Ann. cap. 6. §. 26, 27.

† But, with reſpect to tobacco-bonds, it is the opinion of the attorney-general, That intereſt is not due thereon, when the tobacco is exported within three years (the time allowed by law for the exportation) from the importation; though, in ſtrictneſs, the bonds are forfeited, and may be put in ſuit, if they are not paid, or the tobacco exported in eighteen months. And therefore, when ſuch bonds are become due, the commiſſioners muſt be acquainted whether the tobacco is in being and where, and if really intended for exportation; as alſo whether the ſureties are at that time of ability to anſwer the penalty of the bond.

Laſtly, with reſpect to tobacco-bonds, it muſt be obſerved, that if after they have been given as before directed, for payment of the duties at the end of eighteen months; the importer ſhould diſcharge the whole, or any part thereof, in ready money, before the expiration of the ſaid time, he muſt be allowed a diſcount, after the rate of ſeven per cent. per annum, in proportion to the time unexpired: for the payment of which diſcount, a certificate muſt be made out after the following form: but conſiſtent with the alterations that ſhall happen from time to time.

Dennis Dove.

Date of bond.	Ship and Maſter's name.	Date of the Ship's Rep.	Quantity of Tobacco.	Addition. Duty.	New Subſidy.	⅓ Subſidy.	Impoſt.	Total.	Time unexpired.
			lb.						
			Enter'd outw. 35228						
			Short landed - 61						
1730	Olive-branch	28 Jan.	Debenture for 35167	124 11 0	124 11 0	41 10 4	373 13 0	664 5 4	From 7 Nov. 1731 } Days
3 Feb.	Giles Ellis	1730	Paid for - 5483	3 194 4 0	194 4 0	64 14 8	582 12 0	1035 14 8	To Auguſt 1732, } 269
			Enter'd inw. 90000	318 15 0	318 15 0	106 5 0	956 5 0	1700 0 0	

This is to certify, That Mr Dennis Dove did, on the 7th day of November, 1731, pay the ſum of one thouſand thirty-five pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and eight-pence, in full diſcharge of the above-mentioned bond.

A. B. Collector. B. C. Comptroller.

The diſcount after the rate of 7 per cent. per annum, to be allowed for the payment of the one thouſand thirty-five pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and eight-pence, above-mentioned, two hundred and ſixty-nine days before the expiration of the bond, amounts to fifty-three pounds, eight ſhillings, and ſeven-pence.

		l.	s.	d.
Viz.	Additional duty -	10	0	4¼
	New ſubſidy - -	10	0	4¼
	⅓ Subſidy - -	3	6	9¼
	Impoſt - - -	30	1	1¼
		53	8	7

A. B. Collector. B. C. Comptroller.

This certificate being thus made out, the quantity of tobacco for which the duties are repaid, and the time of payment, are to be noted in the margin of the entry-book inwards, oppoſite to the reſpective entry; to prevent the allowance of diſcount more than once, or to remind the officers that the ſaid diſcount muſt be deducted from the drawback, in caſe any part of ſuch tobacco ſhould be afterwards exported: which being performed, the amount of the ſaid certificate is to be paid to the merchant, taking his receipt for the ſame, on the back thereof, after the following manner:

Southampton, 10th of November, 1731.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of fifty-three pounds, eight ſhillings, and ſeven-pence, in full of this certificate - - - - - - } l. 53 s. 8 d. 7

Signed Dennis Dove.

Witneſs
B. C. Comptroller.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

But, before theſe certificates are paid to the merchants, they muſt be entered in ſeparate books, to be kept by the collector and comptroller for that purpoſe, after the following form:

No. of certificates.	Merchants names.	Ships and maſters names.	Date of the bond.	Date of the Ships report.	When paid duties.	Quantity of tobacco paid for.	Additional Duty.	New Subſidy.	One third Subſidy.	Import.	Time elapſed.
1	Dennis Dove	Olive-branch, Giles Ellis	3 Feb. 1730.	28 Jan. 1730.	7 Nov. 1731.	lb. 54833	10 0 4 ½	10 0 4 ½	3 6 9 ¼	30 1 1 ½	269 Days.

And, at the end of each month, theſe ſeveral duties muſt be added up, and their particular totals transferred to the diſcharge of the reſpective duties, in the proper column in the monthly abſtracts; and alſo, at the end of each quarter, the totals of the three months muſt be added together, and their amount tranſferred to the credit-ſide of the quarterly account-current.

All that I have further to ſay in relation to bonds, is, that, at the cloſe of each quarter, a true ſtate thereof muſt be tranſmitted with the other quarterly accounts; which ſtate muſt conſiſt of two parts, viz. bonds formerly taken, and bonds taken in that quarter: the left-hand ſide, or charge of the former part whereof, ſuppoſes accounts to have been before opened, and a former quarterly ſtate to have been tranſmitted; and therefore is only a tranſcript (from ſuch former ſtate) of the total of each merchant's bonds remaining in the collector's hands, at the end of that quarter; and the right-hand ſide, or diſcharge, is formed from the books of the account of money received in diſcharge of bonds formerly taken; and the books of debenture, certificates of over-entries, damages and diſcounts; the total of which diſcharges being deducted from the charges, the difference muſt be inſerted in the laſt column but one, which ſhews the ſums due upon every particular bond, and muſt be likewiſe transferred to the laſt column, unleſs there be more bonds than one belonging to the ſame merchant, and then the total of all that merchant's bonds muſt be inſerted in one ſum in the ſaid laſt column; and, as a proof of the truth, may be confronted with the reſpective merchant's accounts in the bond-book.

And, as to the latter part of the ſaid ſtate, the left-hand ſide is only a tranſcript from that quarter's cuſtom and coal-account; and the right-hand ſide muſt be diſcharged in like manner as before directed for the former part of this account: and as frequently there will not be any diſcharge, therefore, in that caſe, the whole charge muſt be transferred to the two laſt columns, under the titles of, bonds remaining at the end of the quarter. But, more fully to illuſtrate the method of the aforeſaid ſtate of bonds, I ſhall here add an example of the form, being as follows:

Port of Southampton.

The State of Bonds for the Quarter, ending at Lady-day, 1731.

Bonds in the Collector's Hands at the Beginning of, and taken in the aforesaid Quarter.

Merchants Names.	Sureties Names.	Dates of Reports.	Dates of Bonds.	For what Duties.	The Total * Sums bound for.	When payable.
I. BONDS remaining at the Beginning of the Quarter.						
Francis Finch	Joel Dawkins	3 Aug. 1729	7 Aug. 1729	Bondable Duties on Tobacco	226 13 4	7 Feb. 1730
William Maud	Roger Davies	9 Nov. 1730	23 Nov. 1730	Ditto — — —	200 10 0	23 May 1730
Henry Freeman	Charles Cook	— — —	5 Dec. 1730	Impoſt on Wine — —	45 2 6	5 Sept. 1731
Daniel Grove	William Tomkins	— — —	20 Dec. 1730	Coaſt Duties on Coals —	20 15 0	20 March 1730
John Sims	Charles Dell	— — —	22 Nov. 1730	Ditto — — —	10 18 9	22 Feb. 1730
					503 19 7	
II. BONDS taken in the aforesaid Quarter.						
John Sims	Aaron Wilſon	— — —	22 Mar. 1730	Coaſt Duties on Coals —	10 18 9	22 June 1731
Charles Alſtrum	Edmund Crowder	— — —	3 Feb. 1730	Impoſt 1690 — —	80 10 0	¾ M°. from the Date
James Withers	Henry Dalton	— — —	8 Mar. 1730	Impoſt 169⅔ — —	18 6 8	Ditto
Dennis Dove	Samuel Lloyd	28 Jan. 1730	3 Feb. 1730	Bondable Duties on Tobacco	1700 0 0	3 Aug. 1732
Aaron Holt	Samuel Fell	4 Feb. 1730	7 Feb. 1730	Ditto — — —	75 11 1¾	7 Aug. 1732
George Tims	William Dod	4 Feb. 1730	13 Feb. 1730	Ditto — — —	151 2 2½	13 Aug. 1732
Humphry Hill	Geo. Salter, M. Forward	— — —	15 Jan. 1730	Additional Duty on Wine	64 16 0	15 Octob. 1731
				Impoſt on Wine — —	177 2 4¾	¾ M°. from the Date
James Moreton	George How	— — —	23 Mar. 1730	New Duty on Salt — —	360 0 0	23 Sept. 1731
Henry Bicknel	Thomas Ford	— — —	24 Mar. 1730	Ditto — — — —	101 10 0	24 Sept. 1731
				The Total Charge —	3243 16 8½	

Bonds diſcharged in the aforesaid Quarter.

When diſcharged.	How diſcharged. By Money.	By Debent.	By Certific	By Diſcount.	Intereſt received thereon.
19 March 1730	226 13 4				1 9 9¼
— — —	— — —				
— — —	— — —				
28 Feb. 1730	20 15 0				
24 March 1730	10 18 9				0 1 0½
	258 7 1				
— — —					
— — —					
— — —					
20 March 1730		664 5 4			
20 March 1730		47 4 5½			
20 March 1730		151 2 2¼			
— — —					
— — —					
— — —					
	258 7 1	862 12 0			
Total Diſcharge —	1120 19 1				

Bonds remaining at the End of the Quarter, viz.

The Sums due * on each Bond.	The Total of each Merch. Bonds.
200 10 0	200 10 0
45 2 6	45 2 6
— — —	
245 12 6	245 12 6
10 18 9	10 18 9
80 10 0	80 10 0
18 6 8	18 6 8
1035 14 8	1035 14 8
28 6 7¾	28 6 7¾
241 18 4¾	241 18 4¾
360 0 0	360 0 0
101 10 0	101 10 0
Remains undiſcharged — — —	2122 17 7½
Diſcharged this Quarter — —	1120 19 1
The Total Charge as per Contra —	3243 16 8½

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

* Inſtead of theſe totals only, it is the Practice of many Ports to inſert the ſeveral reſpective Branches in diſtinct Columns, which I muſt acknowlege to be the moſt regular Method; and in ſome Ports it is the Practice to ſpecify all the ſeveral Duties in theſe two Columns, thus — — — — —

For what Duties.	The Sums bound for.
Addition. Duty	42 10 0
New Subſidy	42 10 0
One third Subſ.	14 3 4
Impoſt — —	127 10 0
	226 13 4

But the above being a preſcribed Form, printed with a Copper-plate, I choſe rather to exemplify it, than thoſe before-mentioned, which muſt be purpoſely written by the Officers.

A CONTINUATION of the BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE.

Bills of ſight.

When goods come conſigned to any merchant, and he has not received any invoice, bill of lading, or other advice, from his correſpondent, or happens by any other means to be ignorant of the real quantities and qualities of the ſaid goods, ſo that he is not capable of making a perfect entry of the ſame, he muſt acquaint the collector and comptroller thereof, and deſire a bill at ſight, or view, in order to have them brought on ſhore and examined; who, upon the merchant's making oath to the truth of his allegations, and depoſiting ſuch a ſum of money in the collector's hands as may be conjectured to be ſufficient to anſwer the duties, will grant ſuch bill. The form whereof, and the whole method of execution, muſt be as follows:

23d of January, 1730.

In the Swift of Lyme, Benjamin Lyon maſter, from Oſtend.

Andrew Fountain.

Sight, A.F. No. 1 a 5. { 2 caſes, 1 bale, 2 packets } of merchandize, quantity, and quality unknown.

Andrew Fountain maketh oath, That neither he, nor any other perſon for his uſe, has received any invoice, bill of lading, or other advice, or doth know the contents of any of the goods abovementioned, ſo as to be capable of making a true and perfect entry thereof, without having them firſt examined by the officers of the cuſtoms.

Signed—Andrew Fountain.

Jurat' 23° die Januarii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Sufficient money being depoſited to ſecure the duties, you may permit the goods abovementioned to be landed under your care, and to be brought to his majeſty's warehouſe, to be there viewed, examined, &c. by the ſurveyor and the proper land-waiters, who are to endorſe the particular quantities and qualities on the back hereof, and return the ſame to us immediately, that a perfect entry may be made: but the goods are not to be delivered till ſuch perfect entry be made, and his majeſty's full duties be paid.

Depoſited fifty pounds.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

To { D. E. Surveyor, * E. F. Tide-Surveyor, F. G. G. H. } Land-Waiters.

Theſe bills being thus made out, they are to be entered on the left-hand ſide of a book, to be kept for that purpoſe, in the method hereafter mentioned; and, if the ſhip lies in the road, or any great diſtance from the key, they are to be directed to the * tide-ſurveyor, as well as the land-ſurveyor and land-waiters, and put into his hands to fetch them to the lawful key, where he is to deliver them into the cuſtody of the land-ſurveyor, and proper land-waiters, endorſing his part of the execution on the back thereof thus:

25th of January, 1730.

Delivered the goods within mentioned, into the cuſtody of F. G. land-waiter.

E. F. Tide-ſurveyor.

But, if the ſhip lies near the key, the land-waiter may ſend for the goods on ſhore, as is uſual in other caſes.

The goods having been carefully examined by the ſurveyor and land-waiters, they are (as directed in the ſaid bills) to ſignify how they find them, by endorſing the particular quantities and qualities on the backs of the bills, after the following manner:

Landed by virtue, and in full [or in part] of this ſight, forty demi cambricks, plain; one hundred and thirty ells of Flanders linnen, under 1 ⅛ ell; eighty ells of Flanders linnen, above 1 ⅛, and under two ells, plain; forty yards of Flanders damaſk napkining, under 1 ⅛ ell; twelve yards of Flanders damaſk tabling, above two, and under three ells; one hundred and ten yards of thread bone-lace.

Certified the 27th of January, 1730.

D. E. Surveyor,
F. G. } Land-waiters.
G. H. }

Theſe bills, being thus fully executed and completed, are to be immediately returned to the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, that a perfect entry may be formed therefrom in the king's books, and his majeſty's full duties be charged to account, which they are to ſignify to the ſurveyor and land-waiters, by inſerting the ſaid duties on the bill, underneath their certificate of the execution, and ſubſcribing their names thereto, as is uſual in all other warrants: and, in adjuſting theſe bills, after the full duties are deducted from the ſum depoſited, the remainder (if any) muſt be returned to the importer.

The duties being thus adjuſted and fully paid for the goods, and the ſame ſignified on the bills of ſight, they are forthwith returned to the ſurveyor and land-waiters, as a perfect warrant to them, for the delivery of the goods to the importer, which they are to permit accordingly: and, if ſuch perfect warrant is not ſo returned, they are to demand the ſame the next day.

And if, at the cloſe of a month, there are any ſights ſtanding out unperfected, and, conſequently, the money depoſited remaining in the collector's hands, ſuch depoſits are to be inſerted on the back of that month's abſtract.

The aforeſaid bills of ſight, and their executions, are, before they are delivered to the officers to whom directed, to be entered in proper books to be kept by the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, after the following manner:

Date.	Bills at ſight.	Sums depoſited.	Their execution.	Sums charged for duties.	When charged.
1730	In the Swift of Lyme, Benjamin Lyon, from Oſtend. Andrew Fountain.				
23 Jan.	A. F. No. 1 a 5. 2 caſes, 1 bale, 2 packets } of merchandize, quantity and quality unknown.	50 0 0	40 demi cambricks, plain; 130 ells, plain Flanders linnen, under 1 ⅛ ell; 80 ells plain Flanders linnen, above 1 ⅛, and under 2 ells; 40 yards Flanders damaſk napkining, under 1 ⅛ ell; 12 yards Flanders damaſk tabling, above 2, and under 3 ells; 110 yards thread bone-lace - - - - - D. E. Surveyor, F. G. G. H. } Land-waiters.	22 8 9 ¼	In full, 28 Jan. 1730. No. 31.

Foreign goods returned.

When foreign goods, which have been regularly imported, have been afterwards exported, and are, for want of ſale, or the great ſcarcity of ſuch goods here, &c. deſired to be returned, or again imported, into any port of Great-Britain, notwithſtanding there is not any law for ſuch re-importation, yet, upon payment of the like duties that were due upon the firſt importation, (though, perhaps, the goods were exported out of time, and, conſequently, were not intitled to any drawback) it is the practice to indulge the merchant in ſuch re-importation, although ſuch goods may be prohibited to be originally imported from that place, upon performance of the following requiſites: the firſt whereof is, to ſignify to the ſearcher, &c. the time when, and the ſhip in which they were exported; who thereupon will have recourſe to their books, and, in caſe they find that ſuch entry outwards was duly made, will grant a certificate, or duplicate thereof, as follows:

In the Hope of Whitehaven, William Hall, for Peterſburgh.

Edmund Froſt.

One thouſand pounds of Virginia tobacco, the ſubſidy inwards whereof was paid, and the other duties ſecured, by William Tims, the ninth of July, 1728. Dated the third of May, 1729.

The goods abovementioned were regularly ſhipped off, but four hundred eighty-ſix pounds of tobacco [*for which a debenture hath paſſed] being part of the above entry, are now returned, in the † Neptune of Liverpool, William Wells maſter, from Peterſburgh, as the merchant is ready to make oath. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe at Southampton, the 15th of March, 1730.

A. B. Searcher,
B. C. Land-waiter.

* To be omitted, if exported out of time.
† Or the ſame ſhip and maſter.

If the goods were entered outwards at any other port, this certificate muſt be granted by the officers of that port: but, if the cocket whereby they were ſhipped be produced, I apprehend that will fully ſerve the ſame purpoſe.

And on the back of the aforeſaid certificate proof muſt be made, by the oath of the merchant, that the goods then returned

turned are the ſame therein mentioned. The form of which proof muſt be as follows:

15th of March, 1730.——No. 6.

In the Neptune of Liverpool, William Wells maſter, from Peterſburgh.

Returned.

E. F. No. 1 a 40 } Forty boxes, containing four hundred eighty-ſix pounds of Virginia tobacco.

Edmund Froſt maketh oath, That the tobacco abovementioned is now returned as part of the entry outwards within mentioned, which was formerly exported from hence, and not ſold, nor the property changed beyond ſea; but he verily believes it to be the ſame tobacco which was exported as aforeſaid, and no other.

Signed—Edmund Froſt.

Jurat' 15° die Martii, 1730,
coram me C. D. Collector.

Whereupon an entry muſt be made, as for other goods imported, and the duties paid, or ſecured, being inſerted underneath the merchant's oath; the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, are to ſubſcribe their names thereto, and direct it to the ſurveyor and proper land-waiter, as a warrant for their delivery of the goods.

Britiſh goods returned.

When goods of the product or manufacture of Great-Britain, which have been exported to foreign parts, are, for want of ſale, or any other occaſion, deſired to be returned into any port of Great-Britain, a bill of ſtore may be granted for the landing and delivering of the ſame: as a foundation for which, the ſearcher, &c. muſt be applied to, for a certificate, or duplicate of the entry outwards, in like manner as before directed for foreign goods, which muſt be as follows:

In the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights.

Benjamin Jones.

One hundred and a half of haberdaſhery ware.
Ten dozen of felt, and five dozen of caſtor-hats.
Four fothers of lead.

Dated the 23d of January, 1730.

The goods abovementioned were regularly ſhipped off; but four dozen of felt, and three dozen of caſtor-hats *, being part of the above entry, are now returned in the Welcome of London, George Criſp maſter, from Leghorn, as the merchant offereth to affirm. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe in Southampton, the 23d of March, 1730.

A. B. Searcher,
B. C. Land-waiter.

* But, if the goods were intitled to, and received any bounty, upon the exportation, there muſt be added after this reference—for which a debenture has paſſed—and the bounty muſt be repaid for the quantity returned, as in the entry inwards.

On the back of which certificate proof muſt be made, by the oath of the merchant, that the goods therein mentioned to be returned, are of Britiſh manufacture, &c. The form of which proof muſt be as follows:

23d of March, 1730.——No. 76.

In the Welcome of London, George Criſp maſter, from Leghorn.

Benjamin Jones.

STORE.
B. S.

No. 1, 2. Two boxes, containing four dozen of felt, and three dozen of caſtor-hats, of Britiſh manufacture, returned, being part of a greater quantity formerly exported from hence, per cocket dated the twenty-third day of January, 1730, as appears by the certificate within mentioned.

Benjamin Jones maketh oath, That the hats abovementioned are all of Britiſh manufacture, and were formerly exported from hence as within mentioned, and are now returned as the ſame, and no other.

Signed—Benjamin Jones.

Jurat' 23° die Martii, 1730,
coram me C. D. Collector.

Whereupon an entry muſt be made in the books inwards, as for foreign goods imported; and the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller, having ſubſcribed their names underneath the merchant's oath, the ſame is to be directed to the ſurveyor and proper land-waiter, as a warrant for their delivery of the goods.

But, as it may ſometimes ſo happen, that the entry outwards cannot be fixed upon, by reaſon of the diſtance of time, the loſs of papers or accounts, or ſeveral other accidents: therefore, in that caſe, as there cannot be any other proof, the oath of the merchant only muſt be deemed ſufficient, and may be taken as follows:

In the Welcome of London, George Criſp maſter, from Leghorn.

Benjamin Jones.

B. S.

No. 1, 2. Two boxes, containing four dozen of felt, and three dozen of caſtor-hats, of Britiſh manufacture.

Benjamin Jones maketh oath, That the hats abovementioned are ſent to him this deponent, as part of a larger quantity formerly exported from hence, and that, according to the beſt of his knowlege and belief, they are all of the manufacture of Great-Britain.

Signed—Benjamin Jones.

Jurat' 23° die Martii, 1730,
coram me C. D. Collector.

An entry muſt be made in the books inwards, and this oath muſt be ſubſcribed and directed as a warrant for the delivery of the goods, in like manner as when the particular entry is proved.

Sufferances for landing goods at an unlawful key.

Though foreign goods and merchandizes have been entered, and his majeſty's duties duly paid, and a warrant be thereupon granted for the delivery thereof; yet if the merchant, for his conveniency, is deſirous to land them at any other place than the lawful keys appointed by his majeſty's commiſſion out of the court of Exchequer, a ſpecial ſufferance muſt be granted for that purpoſe, after the following manner:

In the Guſtavus of Stockholm, Hans Gronberg, from Sweden.

Roger Dove.

Two thouſand ninety-ſix bars, containing forty tons of Swediſh iron; one hundred and twenty barrels, containing ten laſts of tar.

A warrant having been paſſed by us for delivery of the abovementioned goods, and the importer having ſignified to us the inconveniency that would attend the bringing the ſame to the lawful key, we have granted this ſpecial ſufferance for landing the ſame at ———

You are, therefore, to permit the ſame to be unladen into lighters, and afterwards landed at the ſaid place, in like manner, and with the like care, examination, and inſpection, as is uſual at the lawful key: for which this ſhall be your voucher.

Dated at the cuſtom-houſe, Southampton,
the 21ſt of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

To { D. E. Surveyor, E. F. F. G. } Land-waiters:

But, before ſuch ſufferances are delivered to the officers to whom directed, they muſt be entered in a particular book to be kept for that purpoſe; which being only a tranſcript from the ſaid ſufferances, of the names of the ſhip, the maſter, the place arrived from, the importer, the particular goods, and the place to be landed at, need not be exemplified.

DAALDER,

D.

DAALDER, a name given by the Dutch to pieces of 30 ſols, coined by them, and which are worth one florin, or guilder and half, being equivalent to the ſmall French crown of 3 livres tournois, or 60 ſols. Heretofore, according to the old rate of money in that kingdom, the daalder went for 37 ſols, 6 deniers.

Daalders are coined alſo at Hamburgh, called daalders lups, or lubs, of 2 marks lubs each. It is worth from 32 to 33 ſols of Holland, and from 66 to 70 ſols in France. It is uſed as current money in many other cities of Germany, and in keeping their books of accounts. Formerly they went for 40 French ſols. The Hollanders call alſo every ſort of crown a daalder, which is worth no more than 30 ſols; they denominate them differently, viz. ryks-daalder, that is to ſay, an imperial crown.

DACZAJIE, a ſilver money current in Perſia, worth 5 mamoudis; two daczajies make the haſaer denaire.

DALLE, a nominal money, uſed in keeping books of account in many cities of Germany: it is worth 32 ſols lubs, which makes 40 French ſols; the ſol lubs being ſomewhat more than the ſol tournois.

DALLER, or, as we commonly ſay in Engliſh, dollar, a German word, ſignifying a crown-piece, a kind of ſilver-money. The Germans commonly pronounce it taller, and the Dutch daalder, or more properly ryx-daalder, to diſtinguiſh it from daalder, another ſort of ſilver money worth 30 ſols, coined by them. See DAALDER.

The dallers, or German crowns, are coined in many ſtates of the empire, as well as in Holland. Thoſe which the French properly call crowns, and the Spaniards piaſtres, or pieces of eight, have different marks, according to the ſtamp of the different ſovereignties where they are coined. There are demi-dallers of 30 ſols, and quarter dallers of 15 ſols.

Dallers are not all of equal weight, and of the ſame ſtandard. Thoſe of Holland are but 8 deniers, 20 grains fine, and weigh only 22 deniers, 12 grains.

The dallers of Baſle, and of St. Gal, are of the ſame weight with the Dutch ones, but they are 10 deniers, 3 grains fine.

The dallers of almoſt all the other German cities, weigh as thoſe of Holland, and are one denier finer than thoſe of St. Gal.

The Francfort dallers are of a higher ſtandard than any other, being 11 deniers, 11 grains fine. On the contrary, ſome of thoſe at Mantone are of the loweſt, being only 5 deniers, 32 grains fine. Laſtly, there are ſome that weigh but 21 deniers, as the dallers of Mantone of 1616; others no more than 19, as thoſe of Savoy, called ſpardins.

It is the Dutch dallers that partly ſerve for the great traffic carried on by them in the Levant, where that kind of piaſtre is called aſlani, from it's ſtamp, which is a lion. See ASLANI.

If we may believe Sir John Chardin, theſe dallers are not only of a very baſe alloy, but he moreover aſſures us, that the demi-dallers, and, above all, the quarter dallers, which are current in the Turkiſh ports of the Mediterranean, are almoſt all counterfeit.

The daller goes at Cavio for 33 meidins in exchange, and for 38, ſometimes more in ſpecie, at the rate of 18 French deniers the meidin, or 3 Turkiſh aſpres. They go for much the ſame at Conſtantinople, and other parts of the Turkiſh empire.

DALLER is alſo money of account, uſed in ſome parts of Germany, as, among others, at Augſbourg, and Bolzano.

DALMATIA is ſeated along the coaſt of the Adriatic ſea, or gulph of Venice, having Albania on the ſouth-eaſt, Boſnia on the north-eaſt, Morlachia on the north-weſt, and the gulph of Venice on the ſouth-weſt. It extends in length near 200 miles; but it's greateſt breadth is not above 45. The ſoil is in ſome parts mountainous, but otherwiſe very fruitful, producing corn, wine, oil, honey, and wax.

This country is at preſent divided into three parts, viz. Venetian Dalmatia, Turkiſh Dalmatia, and the republic of Raguſa.

The Venetian territories in Dalmatia conſiſt, at preſent, of theſe following cities: Zara or Jadera, Nona, Scardona, Sebonica, St. Nicholo, Trau, Spalato, Cliſſa, Ciclut, and Riſano.

ZARA, or JADERA, about 150 miles ſouth eaſt from Venice, is ſituate on, or rather almoſt ſurrounded with, the Adriatic ſea, and joined to the continent by a bridge, and is the capital of a county of it's name. It is now one of the beſt fortified places belonging to the Venetians, and the metropolis of Dalmatia.

NONA is another well-fortified town on the Adriatic, and almoſt encompaſſed with water. It ſtands over againſt the long iſland of Pago, from which it is parted by a channel about four miles broad. Neither of theſe are remarkable for any great trade.

SCARDONA, about 30 miles ſouth-eaſt of Zara, though formerly a conſiderable city, is, at preſent, conſiderable for little elſe but it's biſhopric, ſuffragan to the ſee of Spalato, which was tranſlated hither from the maritime Belgrade, in the year 1120.

SEBONICA is a well-fortified city on the ſame gulph, and on the oppoſite ſide of the river Cherſa, from Scardona. It's port is ſo ſpacious, that it can contain a large naval fleet. It ſtands about 40 miles ſouth-eaſt from Zara, 30 north-weſt from Spalato, and about 190 from Venice.

ST. NICHOLO is a ſtrong fort, and ſo advantageouſly ſituated, that it commands the channel that leads to Sebonica; ſo that no ſhip can ſail into it, without leave of the governor.

TRAU is a ſmall, but ſtrong town, built upon an iſland, which joins to the continent, by a bridge on one ſide, and to the iſland of Bua at another. But neither of theſe places have any commerce to ſignify.

SPALATO is a pretty large, and well fortified city, with a very capacious and ſafe harbour. It is ſituate between the two contadas, or territories, of Trau and Cliſſa. It is one of the ſea ports, where the Turkiſh caravans unload their merchandize for Venice. [See the article CARAVAN.] It hath a fine lazaretto for ſhips that perform quarentine [ſee the article QUARENTINE] and the proſpect of the port and city.

CLISSA is remarkable only for a ſtrong caſtle, ſtanding between two hills.

CICLUT has another fortreſs, ſituate on an iſland formed by the river Narenta. It ſtands about 55 miles ſouth of Spalato.

RISANO was formerly a commodious port, ſeated at the further end of a gulph of that name; but that place has been ſo ruined by the Turks, that the gulph now takes it's name from

CATARO, ſituate on the eaſt-ſide of it, over-againſt the fartheſt point of Italy. This port, together with Caſtlenovo, and Budoa, are well-fortified places.

The principal iſlands on this coaſt, belonging to the Venetians, are,

CHERSO, which has a pretty convenient harbour, is fertile, producing good wine, corn, and oil; at preſent it is inhabited by a mixture of nations, which are obliging to ſtrangers, and have little or no commerce with the corſairs that infeſt theſe parts. It ſtands between Iſtria and Morachia, about 12 miles from Fiume to the ſouth, and as many to the eaſt from Fianano.

VELIA is ſituate on the ſame gulph with the former. It produces plenty of wine, wood, and ſilk, and is famed for a ſmall, but fine and fleet breed of horſes.

PAGO is ſo barren, that all the corn that is gathered here, is not ſufficient to maintain it's inhabitants 3 months in the year; and the wine about as much more. It hath ſome ſalt-pits, which yield pretty conſiderable quantities of that commodity, but, being obliged to pay three fourths of it to the republic, that contributes to impoveriſh the people.

LESINA, or LIESMA, is ſituate at the farther end of the golfo di Narenta. This country is chiefly inhabited by huſband-

men, who cultivate the more fertile parts of it, which, tho' mountainous, produces plenty of corn, wine, olives, ſaffron, honey, and all ſorts of fruit; ſo that they here abound with all kinds of neceſſaries for life. They make a conſiderable gain alſo, from the vaſt quantities of fiſh caught round this iſland.

There are many other ſmaller iſlands which deſerve no notice; ſo that we ſhall refer to the iſlands which the Venetians poſſeſs on the Ionian and Egean ſea, or Archipelago; the chiefeſt whereof are, as follow:

CEPHALONIA is one of the largeſt iſlands that the Venetians have in this ſea. It is very fertile, eſpecially in red wines, excellent Muſcadine raiſins and currants, and delicate oil; wherein all the people here carry on a very advantageous traffic. Here is a ſpacious port, and well ſheltered on all ſides, but not good for anchoring of ſhipping. At the entrance is a large village, where moſt of the raiſin merchants reſide. There are alſo two more ports; the one at Percarda, the other at Luxun; the former for ſmall, the latter for larger veſſels. It is under the 38th degree of latitude, and 20 of eaſt longitude.

CORFU is the next conſiderable iſland on this coaſt for bigneſs, but much more for it's wealth and populouſneſs. It extends itſelf along the coaſts called Della Chimera, from north to ſouth about 50 miles. This iſland is very ſalubrious, and well peopled, it being computed to have about ſixty thouſand ſouls. It furniſhes Venice with vaſt quantities of ſalt, and is, beſides, very fertile in corn, wine, and oil, and all ſorts of fruits, and trees for timber, eſpecially cedar.

ZANT, or the golden iſland, as it is called, is ſituate on the ſame coaſt, on the ſouth ſide of Cephalonia, from which it is divided by a channel about 12 miles in breadth. The country is very fruitful in corn, wine, oil, and a great variety of the moſt delicate fruits, eſpecially the Muſcadine grapes; which, as that ſort of wine is pretty common in Italy, they here moſtly dry up, and ſend into England, Holland, &c. with many other commodities; on which account it is ſaid to be a golden iſland to the Venetians, as all places which afford a good commerce, are much better than mines of gold to the ſtates, to which they belong.

The Engliſh and Dutch have here a factory and conſul, and a number of merchants and factors for the ſtaple commodities of this place, raiſins and currants, which are very fine and cheap: but our nation is eſteemed the greateſt promoter of that trade, as they deſtroy more of that commodity, than perhaps, half of Europe beſides; which is a great diſadvantage to theſe kingdoms, and therefore behoves us to think of ways and means to provide ourſelves with what fruits we ſtand in need of, in our own colonies; which we have great reaſon to believe, is far from impracticable. See the articles WINES, and PLANTATIONS. Zant ſtands between Cephalonia, and the cape Torneſe in Morea; about 15 miles ſouth of the former, and 12 weſt from the latter, under the 38th degree of latitude, and 21 eaſt longitude.

MILO is a ſmall iſland, ſituate on the Egean ſea, or, as it is commonly called, Archipelago, [ſee ARCHIPELAGO] and is about 60 miles in compaſs, and of a round figure, well peopled and cultivated, and has one of the largeſt and moſt commodious havens in all the Mediterranean. The port of Milo is 6 miles long, 3 broad, and hath a ſufficient depth of water for ſhips of any burthen, but is moſtly frequented by pirates. The iſland is pleaſant and fruitful, though mountainous, except a fine plain of about 6 or 7 miles in length; in which is ſituate Milo, the capital of the iſland.

The mines of iron here are very advantageous; and one part of the city, called St. Jean di Ferro (St. John of Iron) is moſtly employed in manufacturing it, and keeps a perpetual fire for that purpoſe. This is, perhaps, the only thing that keeps the city tenantable; ſince, beſides the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, it is, in many other reſpects, made more ſo, eſpecially from the filthineſs of the ſtreets, and the great number of hogs that are there reared and killed.—Notwithſtanding all this, the people live here at a high rate, every thing being in great plenty and cheap, from the commerce they drive.

CERIGO is the fartheſt weſtern iſland in the Egean ſea, or Archipelago, and lies 12 miles to the ſouth of cape St. Angelo in Morea. It is mountainous and barren, and produces hardly corn and wine ſufficient for it's inhabitants, but hath plenty of other proviſions, which are here very cheap. It hath but one good harbour, which ſtands on the ſouth-ſide of it, and can contain above 50 large veſſels, and may be ſhut with a chain.

CIMOLO is a ſmall iſland, about 18 or 20 miles in compaſs, and is barren and mountainous. The inhabitants are moſtly Greeks, but rude and ignorant, living chiefly on the debauchery of the pirates and corſairs, who frequent it on account of the women, who are here both handſome and kind enough to keep up a conſtant and advantageous commerce with them.

TURKISH DALMATIA. The Turks have ſkirts of the upland country, towards the limits of Servia and Boſnia; where the moſt conſiderable cities and towns are as follow:

NARENTA is ſeated on the mouth of a river of the ſame name, which falling there into the gulph of Venice, forms a ſmall bay, called the bay of Narenta. This city is 50 miles diſtant from Spalato to the ſouth-eaſt, and 25 from Raguſa towards the north. It's territory conſiſts of one ſingle valley, about 30 miles long: the river Narenta overflows it, during certain months of the year; which renders the country extremely fruitful, which produces plenty of corn.

RAGUSIAN DALMATIA lies on the ſea-coaſt, partly iſland, and peniſula, which latter is called Sabioncello, and partly on the main land of Dalmatia, which bounds it on the eaſt, and partly on the north; as the bay of Narenta, and the iſland of Leſina, do on the north and weſt, and the Adriatic ſea on the ſouth. The country is about 60 miles long, but not proportionably broad. The ſoil is not over fruitful, but the country is pretty populous.

The chief towns belonging to this republic are,

RAGUSA, RAGUSI-VECCHIO, STAGNA, STAGNO PICCOLO, but they have no extraordinary trade.

To the Raguſians are alſo ſubject the following iſlands:

MELEDA, ſeated near the peninſula of Sabioncello, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtreight. It is about 30 miles in length from eaſt to weſt; but it's breadth is very unequal, the coaſt, eſpecially towards the north, being cut by many bays and inlets.

The ſea hereabouts abounds with fiſh, and the ſoil of this iſland is very fit for vineyards, producing very heady red wine: it abounds alſo with orange and lemon-trees; but it does not produce corn enough for the uſe of it's inhabitants, though they are not much above two thouſand. In this iſland are ſix villages, with ſeveral ports and harbours, the chief of which lie on that coaſt which looks towards the main land: the whole iſland is governed by a gentleman who takes the title of Count, and is appointed annually by the grand council of Raguſa.

CUZZOLA is ſeparated from the peninſula of Sabioncello, by a ſtreight about ſix miles broad, called the gulph of Santa Croce; it's greateſt length is of about 40 miles, and it's breadth 10 or 12. Here are five villages very well peopled. The iſland abounds with foreſts, which afford great plenty of timber for ſhip-building. In theſe foreſts there is a kind of animal called Zachalia, pretty much like dogs, whoſe ſkins ſerve to make ſome indifferent furs. This iſland belonged formerly to the Raguſians, but they have yielded it to the Venetians.

REMARKS.

The coaſts of Dalmatia and Croatia are full of very good harbours, ſtrong towns, good rivers, and people enough, but not much trade upon the whole. The people are a hardy, military race, not inured to commerce or arts, nor inclined to the ſea, or much to ſhip-building, either for their own trade, or that of others: ſo that the Venetians are not to expect any great advantage in point of trade from that part of Dalmatia, which is under their dominions, unleſs it ſhould appear they had changed the genius of the people, and put manufactures into their hands.

The chief benefit the Venetians have from this country, is, that they receive a great quantity of corn and mutton from hence, and ſome black cattle; but though the coaſt is the Venetians, the country is not theirs far within the land; it is partly the Emperor's, eſpecially the Croatian ſide, and a great part of the Dalmatian ſide belongs to the Turks.

The coaſt is interſperſed with iſlands which, as well as the inland towns on the continent, are generally well fortified: ſo that what trade they have is well guarded; and as they are often alarmed, the people are brave, which makes the ſeamen on this ſhore be eſteemed the beſt the Venetians have, only they are but few in number: ſome of them, indeed, are tolerably good ſailors, and the Venetians frequently hire them and their ſhips alſo for their merchandizing voyages; they being eſteemed good pilots, as well as bold fellows.

The fiſhermen here work in larger boats than uſual, becauſe as Venice is the only market for their fiſh, ſo the gulph being at the north part of the Dalmatian coaſt, at leaſt 60 or 80 miles over, they muſt have good boats, the ſea ſometimes being very tempeſtuous.

The ſeamen here are called Venetians, though they are not ſo; and the landmen are called Mortaques, though they are both Dalmatians or Croatians. But they all ſpeak Italian, or rather a kind of Lingua Frank, common to all the ſeafaring people in the Levant.

The Venetians make, however, ſome advantage of trade this way, by furniſhing all the people with cloaths and manufactures of all kinds, alſo with ammunition, and fire-arms, and weapons of all ſorts: nor do they ſuffer any body to trade with the Dalmatians, but themſelves and the Raguſians.

The republic of Raguſa is a place of trade, and, as they are a free ſtate, ſo they have a free trade, as well among the Turks as Chriſtians. The number of their people creates them a trade; but they have no extraordinary commerce weſtward, and we rarely ſee a ſhip or bark of Raguſa on this ſide the Archipelago, or on this ſide of Italy.

They trade chiefly among the Turks, and under their protection, and principally when the Venetians have a war with the

the Turks; then the peaceable Raguſians are the carriers of that part of the world, for they go and come free on both ſides.

The time of war, therefore, is the harveſt of the Raguſian commerce; for, as they paſs and repaſs to Conſtantinople, to Smyrna, Salonichi, to Alexandria, and to Venice, they are hired to all thoſe places by the Venetians, and ſometimes by the Turks.

They are alſo conſtant traders at the imperial port of Trieſte, and bring thither all the merchandizes of the Levant, and the like to Venice: ſo that they are the proper medium of trade when it is interrupted by a war. They are eſteemed excellent ſeamen, but you hardly ever find them ſailing in any ſhips but their own; nor will they, on any occaſion, be hired either as victuallers, tenders, or tranſports, or for any other buſineſs, againſt the Turks; which is political, they preſerving, by that means, the friendſhip of the Turks; and as they live, as it were, under the Turkiſh power, they would miſtake their intereſt if they provoked them on war-like conjunctures.

DAMASK, a ſilk ſtuff, with a raiſed pattern, ſo as that which hath the right ſide of the damaſk, is that which hath the flowers raiſed and ſattined.

Damaſks ſhould be of dreſſed ſilk, both in warp and in woof; and in France $\frac{11}{24}$ of an ell in breadth.

They have a ſtuff in France, which they call the caffart damaſk, made in imitation of the true damaſk, but having the woof of hair, coarſe ſilk, thread, wool, or cotton. Some have the warp of ſilk, and the woof of thread; others are all thread, both warp and woof, and others again all of wool.

They are made of three ſizes, being either $\frac{1}{16}$ leſs than half-ell, or full half-ell, or half-ell $\frac{1}{16}$ wide.

They are made, in France, particularly at Chalons in Champagne, and in ſome places in Flanders, as at Tournay, and the neighbouring parts, and which are intirely of wool. Thoſe of Tournay are $\frac{3}{8}$ wide, and 20 ells long.

Chineſe, or India, damaſks, are ſeven, eleven, and twelve ells in length, and from $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{7}{16}$ wide. They are called Chineſe, becauſe for the moſt part coming from thence; and India damaſks, becauſe bought of the Indians by the company's factors. They are of various colours.

The word DAMASK is alſo applied to a very fine ſteel, in ſome parts of the Levant, chiefly at Damaſcus in Syria, whence it is ſo called. It is uſed for ſword and cutlaſs-blades, and is finely tempered.

Some authors pretend it comes from the kingdom of Golconda in the Eaſt-Indies, and that the method of tempering it with allum was invented there, and which the Europeans have not yet been able effectually to imitate.

DAMASKEENING, or DAMASKING, the operation of beautifying iron, ſteel, &c. by making inciſions therein, and filling them up with gold or ſilver wire, chiefly uſed for adorning ſword blades, guards and gripes, locks of piſtols, &c.

The name which this art hath preſerved ſhews alſo whence we had it, pointing out that famous city of the Levant where it was invented, or at leaſt, whoſe artificers have made the fineſt pieces of work of this kind.

But, if we owe the invention of this kind of ſculpture to Damaſcus, yet M. Felibien, in his Principles of Architecture, ſeems to give the honour of perfecting this art to France, and pretends that Curſinet, a cutler at Paris, who wrought in the reign of Henry IV. and lived to the time of Lewis XIV. ſurpaſſed all others before him herein. Be that as it will, it is certain there have been ſince ſeveral French cutlers not inferior to Curſinet.

They only damaſk, at preſent, the hilts of ſwords, and ſome part of the blades; ſuits of armour, and horſe-trappings, were damaſked, when they were in faſhion; but, if theſe are at any time made now, they are plain.

Damaſking partakes of the moſaique, of engraving, and of carving. As to the moſaique, it hath inlaid work; as to engraving, it cuts the metal, repreſenting divers figures; and as in chaſing, gold and ſilver is wrought in relievo.

There are two ways of damaſking: the one, which is the fineſt, is where the metal is cut deep with proper inſtruments, and inlaid with thick gold and ſilver wire; the other only ſuperficial.

In the firſt the inciſions are made in the dove-tail manner, that the gold and ſilver wire, which is forcibly drove in, may be firmly fixed. In the other, having heated the ſteel 'till it becomes of a blue, or violet colour, they hatch it over and acroſs with the knife, then draw the deſign, or ornaments intended, with a fine braſs point, or bodkin; which done, they take fine gold wire, and chaſing it according to the figure before deſigned, they carefully ſink it into the hatches of the metal, with a tool ſuitable to the occaſion.

Several artiſans are permitted by their ſtatutes to adorn their works by damaſkeening; among others, the cutlers, gunſmiths, ſpurriers, and armourers.

DAMASSE', or PETITE VENISE, a kind of wrought linnen made in Flanders, ſo called from the faſhion of it's large flowers, ſomething like thoſe of damaſks: it is uſed chiefly for tables. A table-cloth and a dozen napkins of this ſort is called a damaſk-ſervice.

There is alſo a ſilk ſtuff ſo called, which looks like a damaſk on one ſide, and on the other is plain.

DANCING-MASTER, he who teacheth to dance.

The reader will doubtleſs be ſurprized to find this article in a Commercial Dictionary; nor ſhould we, though Mr. Savary has taken notice of it, was it not to ſhew the Engliſh reader, that every kind of buſineſs in France is under ſuitable regulations; which I have done with a view to convince this nation, that the proſperity and ſplendor of that kingdom has not ſprung from chance, but refined policy.

The ſtatutes of this company are of the year 1658, given, approved, and confirmed by Lewis XIV. enrolled in the Chatelet the 13th of January, 1659, and in parliament the 22d of Auguſt following.

The chief, or head of the company, and who governs with the maſters of the fraternity, hath the title and quality of king of all the violins, dancing-maſters, and muſicians, both high and low, in the kingdom. He does not enter on his charge by election, but by letters of commiſſion from the king, as being one of the officers of his houſhold.

As to the maſters of the fraternity, they are elected yearly by plurality of voices, and hold the ſame place in that body for their authority and functions, as the wardens in the other companies.

There are two regiſtries, where the indentures of apprenticeſhip, and copies of freedom are to be enrolled; that of the king of the violins, and that of the maſters of the fraternity. Apprentices are bound for four years, but one year may be given them. The candidates are to perform before the king of the violins, who may ſummon there 24 maſters at his pleaſure; but only 10 for the ſons, and the huſbands of maſters daughters: all of them have their letters from this king. The violins of the king's chamber are received by their diſcretionary warrants; however, they pay the fees.

None who is not a maſter may keep a ball-room, or ſchool, whether for dancing or inſtruments, nor give ſerenades, or concerts at weddings, or public aſſemblies: even maſters themſelves are prohibited from playing in taverns and infamous places, on pain of fine to be levied, as by decree of the Chatelet of the 2d of March, 1644, and of the parliament the 11th of July, 1648.

Laſtly, the king of the violins is permitted to nominate the lieutenants in every city, for cauſing the ſtatutes to be obſerved, receiving and ratifying letters, iſſuing out all proviſional letters on the ſaid king's preſentation; which lieutenants are intitled to one moiety of the ſaid king's fees for the reception of apprentices and maſters.

REMARKS.

'Tis certain, that regulations of this kind, in regard even to the profeſſion of dancing-maſters, have not a little contributed to render the French nation famous over all Europe, for excelling in this art, both in theory and practice: indeed, the natural ſprightlineſs and vivacity of theſe people in general, may adminiſter ſomething to the perfection for which they are ſo remarkable: yet this alone, without being controlled by ſuitable regulations, might not have anſwered the end.

Though various concurrent cauſes may jointly help to make monſieur ſurpaſs others in giving inſtructions for this ornamental accompliſhment, yet all theſe would hardly have the apparent effect, without ſomething of ſtate policy to countenance, and encourage this gay ſpirit.

That the court of France, and all the nobility and gentry of that kingdom, ſeem to have an ambition to attract the eyes of the whole world, from the ſplendor and elegancy of their dancing, as well as their other belles aſſemblées, will hardly be doubted by thoſe who have ſeen them.

Whether the cultivating the arts of gaiety to the degree this nation ſeems ſo induſtriouſly to do, be merely owing to a natural diſpoſition for the external politeſſe, or to ſtatecraft, or to both, we ſhall not enquire: certain it is, this gives ſuch an attractive power to that kingdom, as to draw thither the moſt illuſtrious, both young and old, of all nations in Chriſtendom; the one for erudition and travel, the other for pleaſure and joyous amuſement. Does not this occaſion the ſpending immenſe ſums in France? Nay, it is to be queſtioned, whether that nation has any ſingle fund that brings more treaſure into it, than what proceeds from general ſources of this kind. With what contempt is a dancing-maſter looked on among us, who is not either a Frenchman, or has not been ſome time in France to gain that air, that je ne ſçay quoy of this kingdom? If our ſtage-dancers are not à la mode de France, our ſingers and muſicians Italians, who that is remarkable either for taſte or diſtinction, would be ſeen at our public theatres and operas? It matters little to a ſtate, by what ways and means riches are brought into it, provided they are ſo: if ſome nations have the knack of fiddling and ſinging others out of their money; if ſome have the art of painting or dancing wealth into their public treaſury, why are not theſe meaſures as laudable and politic to aggrandize ſtates as any other? The money brought into nations by ſuch means, being all clear

gain,

gain, without any ſort of hazard, why are they leſs eligible than others?

'Twas not, perhaps, the leaſt material branch of Lewis the XIVth's ſyſtem of policy, to inſtitute ſeminaries in the ſtate for education of every kind, and liberally to reward the profeſſors of all ſorts, in order to ground the principles of education upon plans better calculated for the improvement of youth than any other, probably, in Europe. Nor has this proved only of unſpeakable emolument to the nobles and gentry of that kingdom, by ſupplying a ſucceſſion of men of diſtinguiſhed abilities to manage it's affairs both at home and abroad, with honour and advantage, but theſe literary eſtabliſhments have repaid their expence to the crown in a tenfold degree, by the money they have occaſioned to be ſpent by foreigners upon their account.

The French have no occaſion to ſend their youth of figure and condition abroad for education, and therefore it is they travel little themſelves, but receive all travellers, and grow wiſe by ſtaying at home. On the contrary, whether we have occaſion or no, 'tis become faſhionable to ſend the ſons of our greateſt families to foreign univerſities and colleges. Why are theſe things ſo? Will not our own ſeminaries of literature afford as great benefit, even with regard to polite and ornamental, as well as ſolid erudition of every kind? If they will not, as they are at preſent conſtituted, are they not capable of doing ſo? Will not the great and generous endowments of Oxford and Cambridge, admit of giving due encouragement to the ableſt profeſſors of every kind? They certainly will.

No nation have exceeded Britons in every art and ſcience, in every part of uſeful or polite literature. Though we may not equal our neighbours the French in the vivacity of the heel, they have never in general ſurpaſſed us in the buſineſs of the head; unleſs now and then in ſome political ſtrokes, which we muſt allow to have been maſterly: yet this has been the fault of particular miniſters, not that of the Britiſh genius in general.

Why may not our Engliſh univerſities be rendered the reſort of foreigners of diſtinction, as well as thoſe of any other country? Might not this occaſion as much money to be ſpent in the nation by foreigners, as is now ſpent out of it for travel, and the like occaſion?

That our univerſities, indeed, did not admit of that univerſal knowledge that was deſirable, his late majeſty ſoon diſcovered, upon his acceſſion to the crown of theſe kingdoms: wherefore in his great wiſdom, he eſtabliſhed profeſſors for the ſtudy of modern hiſtory and the modern languages. If theſe inſtitutions ſhould be rendered mere ſinecures, and by no means anſwer the wiſe and gracious intentions of the king, why is not effectual care taken that they ſhould do ſo?

Nor is it to be doubted, but ſuch was the diſcernment of his majeſty, that he hoped and deſired, that his royal example would be followed, by inſtitutions of the like kind, at every college in Oxford and Cambridge. Had this been the caſe, there would not by this time, have been any living language in Europe, which might not have been ſpoken with as much purity and elegance at theſe Engliſh ſeminaries, as any court in Chriſtendom? By which means, might not our Britiſh nobility and gentry, have become as familiar with all the European languages, or with the principal of them, as with their own, and thoſe of the antients? This would have been, we conceive, the natural way to have drawn foreigners, more or leſs, of the firſt rank and fortunes, from all the courts of Europe, to our univerſities; which would have been attended with conſequences, that might have greatly promoted the intereſts of theſe kingdoms. It would have rendered our language as familiar to theſe foreigners, as theirs would have become to us; and then why ſhould not the Engliſh tongue have become as univerſal as the French? Which might have been attended with effects not leſs intereſting to us, than that policy has really been to our great rivals. This would have naturally brought the greateſt men at all the principal courts, better acquainted with our books and conſtitution than they at preſent are; and what might not have been leſs beneficial to the nation, ſuch acquaintance and familiarity might, by this means, have been cemented between our Britiſh nobles and gentry, and thoſe of other nations, as to have in their conſequences, highly promoted the intereſt of theſe kingdoms, and not leſs her commercial than any other. For long experience has verified, that no friendſhips are more inviolable and honourable, than thoſe contracted between fellow-ſtudents and collegians: and, 'tis certainly more for the benefit of this kingdom, ſo to form and plan our literary ſeminaries, that foreigners may rather be inclined to reſort hither to ſpend their money, and be bred amongſt us, than for our great men to be bred up in other countries.

DANK, or DANCK, a little piece of ſilver current in Perſia, and ſome parts of Arabia. It weighs the ſixteenth part of a drachm.

DANK is alſo a little weight, uſed by the Arabians to weigh jewels and drugs, when theſe laſt are uſed in the compoſition of medicines. It is the ſixth part of an Arabian drachm, which is eight grains French weight.

DATES are a fruit ſomewhat of the ſhape of an acorn; they are compoſed of a thin, light, and gloſſy membrane, ſomewhat pellucid, and yellowiſh; which contains a fine ſoft and pulpy fruit, which is firm, ſweet, and ſomewhat vinous to the taſte, eſculent and wholeſome, and within this is incloſed a ſolid, tough, and hard kernel, of a pale grey colour on the outſide, and within finely marbled like the nutmeg.

For medicinal uſe they are to be choſen large, full, freſh, yellow on the ſurface, ſoft and tender, not too much wrinkled; ſuch as have a vinous taſte, and do not rattle when ſhaken.

They are produced in many parts of Europe, but do not ripen perfectly there: the beſt are from Tunis; they are alſo very fine and good in Egypt, and in many parts of the Eaſt. Thoſe of Spain and France look well, but are never perfectly ripe, and are very ſubject to decay.

They are preſerved three different ways; ſome preſſed and dry, others preſſed more moderately, and again moiſtened with their own juice, and others not preſſed at all, but moiſtened with the juice of other dates as they are packed up, which is done in baſkets or in ſkins. Thoſe preſerved this laſt way are much the beſt. Dates have always been eſteemed moderately ſtrengthening and aſtringent; they are preſcribed for habitual diarrhœas, weakneſſes of the ſtomach, and for ſtrengthening the womb; but at preſent are little uſed in England, being even left out of the pectoral decoctions, in which they uſed to be an ingredient.

DAUPHINE', in France, is ſeparated from Lyonnois and Languedoc on the weſt, by the Rhone, which parts it on the north alſo from Breſſe and Bugey, on the eaſt it has Piedmont, and on the ſouth Provence, and the country of Avignon.

The ſoil in ſome parts is very fruitful, but two thirds of the province are barren and mountainous.

It's principal rivers are the Rhone, Durance, Iſere, and the Drome.

GRENOBLE is the capital city, the wollen ſtuffs, of which they make a great many, are but coarſe, but their ſkins and gloves are very much eſteemed.

VIENNE was once a very large and famous city, but is at preſent not above the fourth part of it's former extent; the inhabitants are very expert in making divers ſorts of manufactures, particularly plates of iron and ſteel, paper, &c. by means of mills and engines upon the river Jura.

DEBENTURE, a term in traffic, uſed at the cuſtom-houſe, when the exporter of any goods or merchandizes, is intitled by act of parliament to any bounty or drawback on their exportation; and this debenture is a peculiar certificate ſigned by the officers of the cuſtoms, which entitles the trader to the receipt of ſuch bounty or drawback.

REMARKS.

The bounties and drawbacks allowed in this kingdom for the encouragement of trade, making a very conſiderable part of the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, and requiring all debentures upon ſuch occaſions to be made out correctly, and in due form, according to the ſeveral acts of parliament made in that behalf, we have judged it ſerviceable to all merchants, as well at the out-ports, as at the port of London, to be well informed in what ſo nearly concerns their intereſt, leſt (as was the caſe the other day with an eminent merchant of the city of London, in regard to a drawback) they ſhould be ſufferers for want of duly obſerving form and time, in the exportation of certificate goods. See the article DRAWBACKS.

Of the nature of DEBENTURES, and the ſeveral eſſential forms thereof relating to the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe, as well at the out-ports as the port of London.

* All merchandizes that are deſigned to be taken on board for that voyage, being entered and ſhipped, and all other requiſites performed, as we have, and ſhall repreſent, at the end of every letter, according to the nature of the goods, and the place to be exported to; before the veſſel may depart, the maſter muſt deliver to the collector, &c. a content (uſually called in the out-ports a report) in writing, under his hand, of the name of every merchant and other perſon, that ſhall have laden any goods on board his ſhip, together with the marks and numbers of the goods; and muſt publickly, in the open cuſtom-houſe, upon oath, anſwer to ſuch queſtions as ſhall be demanded of him by the collector, &c.

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 3.

But, before this content or report be ſworn to by the maſter, it muſt be compared by the ſearcher, ſurveyor, and land-waiter, with the merchant's endorſements on their cockets; and, if found to agree, the ſame muſt be certified thereon: the form of which content or report, and the execution of what is required to be done, muſt be as follows;

Port of Southampton. } In the ſhip Taviſtock of London, Britiſh built, property all Britiſh, about two hundred tons, with thirty-nine men, of which thirty-ſeven are Britiſh men, and two are foreigners, beſides Daniel Bright, a Britiſh man, maſter for this preſent voyage to Jamaica in America.

Marks

Marks	Numb.	Out.pack.	Inw.cont.	Exporters.
S. G.	1	1 box	lace	Sam. Grimes
W. T.	1 a 3	3 boxes	ſundry goods	Will. Turner
	4	1 bale		
R. G.	9	1 box	ſundry goods	Rog. Grainger
J. H.	3	1 trunk	ſtockings	James Hart
R. A.	1	1 box	ſundry goods	Robert Aſhby
	2	1 cheſt		
	3 a 6	4 caſks		
	7 a 9	3 trunks		
		C.		
Looſe —	77	2 0 iron		Oliv. Seldon
	18	0 0 cord.		

Examined by the cockets, Signed—Daniel Bright.
D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

Supraſcriptam declarationem omni modo eſſe veram, ad ſancta Dei evangelia dictus Daniel Bright Solenniter juravit $\frac{18}{24}$ die Martii 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector or Cuſtomer,
B. C. Comptroller.

You do ſwear [or, if a quaker, ſolemnly, ſincere, and truly declare and affirm] That the entry or content above written, now tendered and ſubſcribed by you, is a juſt report of the name of your ſhip, its burden, built, property, numbers and country of mariners, the preſent maſter and voyage; and that it further contains a juſt and true account of all the goods, wares, and merchandizes, laden on board your ſaid ſhip for this preſent voyage, together with the particular marks, numbers, quantities, qualities, and properties of the ſame, to the beſt of your knowledge and belief; and that if you have on board any certificate-goods, or goods that receive a draw-back, bounty, or premium from his majeſty on exportation, you will not ſuffer them to be relanded, or unſhipped in order to be relanded, in any part of Great-Britain, without the preſence of an officer of the cuſtoms: and that you will not take in any more goods for this preſent voyage, without duly entering the ſame, and adding them to this report. So help you God.

Daniel Bright.

Or, if the maſter be a quaker,
Supraſcriptam declarationem omni modo eſſe veram, dictus Daniel Bright Solenniter declaravit $\frac{18}{24}$ die Martii 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector or Cuſtomer,
B. C. Comptroller.

The ſhip being thus cleared, it is to be noted in the margin of the ſhip's entry-book outwards, mentioning the particular day: and, if the maſter ſhould afterwards take in any more goods, they muſt be added to the report, underneath the former goods, thus:

Added the 24th of March, 1730.

B. R. No. 3. 1 Cheſt Glaſs and earthen ware B. Reeves.

Examined by the cockets, Signed—Daniel Bright.
D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

And then the report muſt be ſworn to de novo, inſerting the day, under that ſworn to before: the like muſt be repeated as often as any goods are taken in after clearing.

If a ſhip trades in goods for different places, they ſhould be particularly diſtinguiſhed in the report: as ſuppoſe the aforeſaid veſſel had taken in goods for Ireland, Madeira, and Jamaica.

For Ireland.

S. G.	1	1 box	lace	Samuel Grimes.

For Madeira.

W. T.	1 to 3	3 boxes	ſundry goods	Will. Turner.
	4	1 bale		

For Jamaica.

R. G.	9	1 box	ſundry goods	Rog. Grainger.

The maſter having cleared, all the cockets are to be delivered to the ſearcher, ſurveyor, and land-waiter, who are to examine the ſhip, to ſee if there be any more goods on board than mentioned in the indorſements of the cockets; and, if there be not, they are to diſcharge the tideſmen, and deliver the cockets to the maſter, permitting him to proceed on his voyage.

And, if after a ſhip has cleared for foreign parts, at any one port of Great-Britain, ſhe ſhould proceed to any other to take in more goods, ſhe muſt alſo clear at each of thoſe reſpective ports; and the goods taken in at the former, muſt be ſpecified in theſe ports: as ſuppoſe the fore-mentioned ſhip was to proceed to Chicheſter, in the report muſt be mentioned the goods ſhipped at Southampton, and alſo thoſe taken in there, and ſo at every port.

Of the aforeſaid reports, two are to be ſubſcribed by the maſter; one of which is to be taken in a book to be kept at the port for that purpoſe; and the other on looſe paper, to be kept on a file, till the end of each quarter, when they are to be tranſmitted to the regiſter-general of all ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, to be examined whether duly ſworn to and atteſted, and the ſhips navigated according to the act of navigation.

The ſhips being regularly cleared out and diſcharged according to the foregoing directions, and actually ſailed out of the port on their intended voyages, debentures may be made out from the exporters entries, in order to obtain the drawbacks, allowances, bounties, or premiums, that are due on exportation of any goods on board: * the which debentures for foreign goods, are to be paid within one month after demand. † And, in making out theſe debentures, it muſt be obſerved, That every piece of vellum, parchment, or paper, containing any debenture for drawing back cuſtoms or duties, muſt, before writing, be ſtamped, and pay a duty of eight pence.

* 2d Rule of book of rates.

† 9 Ann. cap. 23. §. 22, 24.

The forms of the ſeveral kinds of debentures are as follow:

1. A debenture for all corn, except malt.

Port of Southampton.

Jurat Caleb White, That the contents of the certificate are true, coram nobis
E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller.

Jurat Caleb White, That the corn herein mentioned, both for quantity and quality, was really exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and is not relanded, nor intended to be relanded in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.
Jurat 26° die Januarii 1730, coram nobis
E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of ſeventy pounds, that the corn above-mentioned, (the danger of the ſeas excepted) ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

E. F. Collector,
F. G. Comptroller.

Theſe are to certify, That I Caleb White have ſhipped for Rotterdam, in the Goodfellow of Hull, a Britiſh ſhip, whereof William Miller, the maſter, and two thirds of the mariners, are his majeſty's ſubjects, ninety-one quarters of wheat, forty-nine quarters of rye, thirty-eight quarters five buſhels of barley, Wincheſter meaſure; and that the price of wheat, of the meaſure aforeſaid, in the port of Southampton, the laſt market-day, did not exceed forty-eight ſhillings per quarter, of rye thirty-two ſhillings, and of barley twenty-four ſhillings per quarter.

Witneſs my hand, the 8th of Jan. 1730,

Caleb White.

See the article Corn.

The corn above-mentioned, viz. ninety-one quarters of wheat, forty-nine quarters of rye, and thirty-eight quarters five buſhels of barley, was ſhipped in the ſaid ſhip on the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th days of January, 1730. Certified the 18th day of Jan. 1730.

A. B. Searcher, B. C. Surveyor,
C. D. Land-waiter.

The veſſel above-mentioned is Britiſh built [or foreign built made free]; the maſter and two thirds of the mariners his majeſty's ſubjects.

D. E. Surveyor of the act of navigation.

On the back of the aforegoing corn-debenture.

	l.	s.	d.
The money to be paid for the corn within-mentioned, purſuant to an act of parliament, for encouraging the exportation of corn, amounts to thirty-ſix pounds, three ſhillings, and three farthings —— ——	36	3	0 $\frac{3}{4}$

E. F. Collector,
F. G. Cuſtomer,
G. H. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 27th day of January, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of E. F.—their collector in this port, the ſum of thirty-ſix pounds, three ſhillings, and three farthings, in full of this debenture ——	36	3	6 $\frac{3}{4}$

Witneſs Caleb White.
F. G. Comptroller.

But if the collector has not money ſufficient in his hands, to pay the bounty due to the exporter, for any corn but beer, alias bigg, malt made of wheat, and oatmeal; he muſt certify the ſame to the commiſſioners as follows:

Theſe are to certify the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, that I have not monies ariſing out of the

cuſtoms and duties in this port, chargeable with the payment of the monies for the exportation of corn, ſufficient to pay this debenture.

E. F. Collector.

The debenture being produced to the commiſſioners, their ſecretary is to examine it, and then ſignify the ſame as follows:

I have examined this debenture, and do find the requiſites of law duly performed; and, by the aforegoing certificate of the collector, it appears that there is not money in that port to pay the ſame.

G. H. Secretary.

Whereupon the commiſſioners order the payment as follows:

Cuſtom-houſe, London, the 3d day of February, 1730.

You are, in three months from the date hereof, to pay in full of this debenture, out of the money in your hands, chargeable with the payment of money for the exportation of corn, the ſum of thirty-ſix pounds, three ſhillings, and three farthings.

To M. N. Eſq; receiver-general, and caſhier of his majeſty's cuſtoms.
See the article CORN.

H. I.
J. K.
K. L.
L. M.
} Commiſſioners.

A debenture for malt.

As to the form of a debenture for malt exported, it will appear, by the following example, to be not much different from that for all other corn; but it is to be noted, that the bounty for malt is not to be computed on the real quantity ſhipped, as for all other corn, but * after the rate of thirty quarters, and no more for every twenty quarters of barley, or other corn or grain entered and made into malt, as ſhall appear by a certificate from the officers, with whom the corn to be made into malt for export, was entered; though the barley or other grain, in making, ſhould have exceeded or fallen ſhort of a quantity in proportion to thirty quarters malt, for every twenty quarters corn.

* 12 & 13 W. III. cap. 10. §. 91, &c.

The form of the debenture.

Port of Southampton.

Jurat. A. B. That the malt herein mentioned is not relanded, or intended to be relanded in Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

14 die Januarii 1730, coram nobis

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

Theſe are to certify, That I A. B. of Southampton, did, on the 10th day of January, 1730, enter for Rotterdam, on the ſhip Goodfellow of Hull, a Britiſh ſhip, whereof William Miller the maſter, and two thirds of the mariners, are his majeſty's ſubjects, one hundred and ſeventeen quarters, and two buſhels of malt, Wincheſter meaſure; and that the price of malt, Wincheſter meaſure, in the port of Southampton, the laſt market-day, did not exceed twenty-four ſhillings per quarter.

Witneſs my hand, the 10th day of January, 1730.

A. B.

Juravit A. B. That the contents of the certificate above-mentioned are true, coram nobis

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

Bond is taken on the penalty of 50 pounds, that the malt abovementioned (the danger of the ſeas excepted) ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and not be again landed in the kingdom of Great-Britain, or the iſlands of Guernſey or Jerſey.

B. C. Collector,
D. E. Comptroller.

By a certificate produced to us from the proper officers of exciſe (which is hereunto annexed) it appears, that the aforeſaid one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt were made from one hundred and five quarters and one buſhel of barley [or other grain]: and by an act of 3 Geo. II. the ſaid A. B. is entitled to a bounty or premium of two ſhillings and ſixpence per quarter upon one hundred fifty-ſeven quarters four buſhels of malt, being according to the rate of thirty quarters of malt, for every twenty quarters of barley, or other grain malted for exportation.

B. C. Collector, C. D. Cuſtomer, D. E. Comptroller.

The one hundred and ſeventeen quarters and two buſhels of malt, abovementioned, were ſhipped in the ſaid ſhip, the 12th day of January, 1730.

Certified the 14th of Jan. 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
G. H. Land-waiter.

The veſſel above-mentioned is Britiſh-built, the maſter and two thirds of the mariners his majeſty's ſubjects.

H. I. Surveyor of the act of navigation.

On the back of the foregoing malt-debenture.

The bounty-money to be paid for the malt within-mentioned, amounts to nineteen pounds thirteen ſhillings and nine pence — } 19 13 9

B. C. Collector, C. D. Cuſtomer, D. E. Comptroller.

And, if the collector hath not money in his hands ſufficient to pay the bounty, it muſt be certified to the commiſſioners, in like manner as for other corn.

And to theſe debentures muſt be annexed the exciſe-certificates, from which the bodies of the debentures were filled up, as a voucher for the computation of the bounty.

And when, for want of money, any corn-debentures are not paid at the port, but certified to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; before they are delivered to the exporters, they muſt be entered in a book to be kept for that purpoſe, after the following form: and from thence muſt be tranſcribed a duplicate in the ſame form, which muſt be ſigned by the collector and comptroller, and tranſmitted to the commiſſioners as often as any debentures are made out and certified, in order to be compared with the debentures, when produced for payment.

Port of Southampton.

Corn-debentures certified to the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms.

When certified.	Date of debentures.	Exporter's nam.	Ship's name and place.	Maſter's name.	Whither bound.	Species of corn.								Bounty or ſum certified.			When duplicates ſent to the commiſſioners.
						Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Malt.					
						q.	b.	q.	b	q.	b.	q.	b.				
1730 27 Jan.	1730 8 Jan.	Caleb White.	Goodfellow of Hull.	William Miller.	Rotterdam.	91	—	49	—	38	5	———		36	3	0^3	1730. 28 January

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

2. A debenture for Britiſh manufactures of ſilk.

Port of Southampton.

Anthony Toms did enter with us, the 15th day of March, 1730, in the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller, maſter, for Rotterdam, twelve pieces, containing 35 pounds of wrought ſilk, avoirdupoiſe weight, all Britiſh manufacture, as apppears by certificate under the hand of Anthony Toms.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of ſeventy pounds, that the wrought ſilk abovementioned, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or brought on ſhore again in any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The twelve pieces, containing thirty-five pounds of wrought ſilk abovementioned, were ſhipped the 16th of March, 1730. Certified the 9th of April, 1731.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

Jurat Anthony Toms, That the goods above-mentioned, ſhipped as here certified, are all Britiſh manufacture, and exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and not landed, nor intended to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 10° die Aprilis, 1731, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

3. A debenture for Britiſh manufactures mixt with ſilk.

Port of Southampton.

Thomas Brown did enter with us, the 3d day of January, 1730, in the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers maſter, for Guernſey, ninety-ſix ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, containing ſix hundred and forty pounds avoirdupoiſe

Bond is taken in the penalty of two hundred pounds, that the ſtuffs mixt with ſilk above-mentioned, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or brought on ſhore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

poiſe weight, all Britiſh manufacture; and two third parts of the ends or threads of the warp of each piece whereof, either all ſilk, or elſe mixed or twiſted with ſilk in the warp, as appears by certificate under the hand of Thomas Brown.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

The ninety-ſix ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, containing ſix hundred and forty pounds above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 4th of January, 1730. Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

Jurat Thomas Brown, That the goods above-mentioned, ſhipped as here certified, are all Britiſh manufacture, and exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and not landed, or intended to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 24° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

4. A debenture for Britiſh manufactures of ſilk only, and mixed with ſilk.

Port of Southampton.

Charles Coverley did enter with us, the 22d day of January, 1730, in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, ſixteen ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, containing ninety-two pounds; forty-three pair of ſilk-ſtockings, containing twenty pounds avoirdupoiſe weight, all Britiſh manufacture; and two third parts of the ends or threads of the warp of the ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, either all ſilk, or elſe mixed or twiſted with ſilk in the warp, as appears by certificate under the hand of Charles Coverley.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of eighty pounds, that the ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, and ſilk-ſtockings above-mentioned, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or brought on ſhore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The ſixteen ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, containing ninety-two pounds, and forty-three pair of ſilk ſtockings, containing twenty-pounds, above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 22d of January, 1730. Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

Jurat Charles Coverley, That the goods above-mentioned, ſhipped as here certified, are all Britiſh manufacture, and exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded, nor intended to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 23° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The three laſt debentures muſt have the bounty to be paid, endorſed thereon, thus:

The money to be paid for the ſilk manufactures within-mentioned, amounts to five pounds, five ſhillings — — — } 5 5 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, 11 April, 1731.

Received of the honourable commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of five pounds, five ſhillings, in full of this debenture — — — } 5 5 0

Witneſs
C. D. Comptroller. Anthony Toms.

5. A debenture for Britiſh made gun-powder.

Port of Southampton.

Henry Hubbard did enter with us, the nineteenth day of March, 1730, in the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers, maſter, for Guernſey, forty-four hundred weight, an half, and ſixteen pounds of Britiſh made gun-powder.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of two hundred and fifty pounds, that the gun-powder above-mentioned, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded or brought on ſhore again, into any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The forty-four hundred weight, an half, and ſixteen pounds of Britiſh-made gun-powder above-mentioned, were ſhipped the nineteenth day of March preſent. Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

Jurat Henry Hubbard, That the gun-powder above-mentioned, ſhipped as here certified, is all of Britiſh manufacture, and is exported to parts beyond the ſeas, by way of merchandize, and not for the uſe of the ſhip in the voyage, and is not relanded, or intended to be relanded, in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 24° die Martii, 1730, coram me

A. B. Collector [Cuſtomer, or Comptroller.]

On the back of the ſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the bounty to be paid, thus:

The bounty to be paid for the Britiſh-made gun-powder within-mentioned, amounts to eleven pounds five ſhillings — — — } l. s. d. 11 5 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* And then the ſaid bounty may be paid by the collector, with the privity of the comptroller, out of the cuſtoms, or other duties upon goods imported, taking the exporter's receipt for the ſame on the back of the debenture, as follows:

* 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1, 4.

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of eleven pounds, five ſhillings, in full of this debenture — — — } l. s. d. 11 5 0

Witneſs
C. D. Comptroller. Henry Hubbard.

6. A debenture for Britiſh refined ſugar.

Port of Southampton.

Paul Hemmings did enter with us, the 9th of February, 1730, in the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller, maſter, for Rotterdam, one hundred forty-eight hundred weight, three quarters, and ſeventeen pounds, of Britiſh refined ſugar, being produced from brown and muſcovado ſugars, imported from his majeſty's plantations in America; the duties whereof were duly paid at the time of the importation, as it doth appear by oath of Thomas Crompton, taken before the principal officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, at the time of entry outwards. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the day and year above-mentioned.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat Paul Hemmings, That the refined ſugar within-mentioned, is duly exported, and not landed, nor intended to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

Jurat 24° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The one hundred forty-eight hundred weight, three quarters, and ſeventeen pounds, of Britiſh refined ſugar above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 11th of February, 1730. Certified the 24th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the duties to be repaid; and, underneath the ſame, the exporter's receipt taken for the repayment thereof, as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
The new ſubſidy to be repaid for the refined ſugar within-mentioned, amounts to twenty-two pounds, ſix ſhillings, and eight-pence half-penny — — —	22	6	8½
The one-third ſubſidy to be repaid for the ſaid ſugar, amounts to ſeven pounds, eight ſhillings, and eleven pence — — —	7	8	11
	29	15	7½

Southampton,

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of twenty-nine pounds, fifteen ſhillings, and ſeven pence half-penny, in full of this debenture — — } l. 29 s. 15 d. 7½

Paul Hemmings.

Witneſs C. D Comptroller.

7. A debenture for Britiſh-made ſail-cloth.

Port of Southampton. } Aaron Thornton did enter with us, the 27th of January, 1730, in the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers maſter, for Guernſey, forty bolts, containing one thouſand, one hundred, and twenty ells of Britiſh-made ſail-cloth.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

The forty bolts, containing one thouſand, one hundred, and twenty ells of Britiſh-made ſail-cloth above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 29th of January laſt. Certified the 21ſt of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher, E. F. Surveyor, F. G. Land-waiter.

Jurat Aaron Thornton, That the ſail-cloth above-mentioned was made in Great-Britain, and is actually exported, or ſhipped to be exported, without any intention to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain; and that no former reward was made for the ſame ſail-cloth, by virtue of * an act of parliament paſſed in the twelfth year of her late majeſty queen Anne.

Jurat 22 die Martii, 1730, coram nobis

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller.

* 12 Ann. cap. 16. §. 2.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the bounty to be paid; and underneath the ſame the exporter's receipt for the payment, as follows:

The money to be paid for the ſail-cloth within mentioned, amounts to nine pounds, ſix ſhillings, and eight pence — — } l. 9 s. 6 d. 8

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 23d of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of nine pounds, ſix ſhillings, and eight pence, in full of this debenture — — } l. 9 s. 6 d. 8

Aaron Thornton.

Witneſs C. D. Comptroller.

8. A debenture for hides and calve-ſkins tanned, tawed, or dreſſed.

Port of Southampton.

Theſe are to certify, That Bartholomew Richardſon did enter with us, the 16th day of February, 1730, in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, twelve bales of tanned hides and calve-ſkins, containing one hundred and ſix hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds, avoirdupoiſe weight; and hath made oath, that all the tanned hides and calve-ſkins contained in the ſaid twelve bales reſpectively (weighing as above-mentioned) were marked with the marks, or ſtamps, denoting the charging of the duties of one penny and one half-penny per pound, payable for the ſame by the ſeveral acts of parliament made in that behalf, and not with the marks, or ſtamps, denoting the charging of the duty of one half-penny per pound, as being ſtock in hand, the 24th day of June, 1711.

Certified this 19th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of one hundred pounds, that all the ſaid tanned hides and calve-ſkins ſhall be exported into foreign parts, and ſhall not be relanded, or brought on ſhore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

The one hundred and ſix hundred weight, one quarter, and nine pounds, of tanned hides and calves-ſkins above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 18th of February laſt.

Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

E. F. Searcher,
F. G. Surveyor,
G. H. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the duties to be repaid, as follows:

The two third parts of the old duty payable by the 9th of Anne, to be repaid for the tanned hides and calve-ſkins within-mentioned, amount to thirty-three pounds, one ſhilling, and ſeven pence half-penny. — — } l. 33 s. 1 d. 7½

The two third parts of the additional duty payable by the 10th of Anne, to be repaid for the ſaid hides and ſkins, amount to ſixteen pounds, ten ſhillings, and nine pence half-penny — — — } 16 10 9½

Total 49 12 5

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the cuſtoms.

Note, Hides and calve-ſkins, dreſſed or curried, are to be allowed one penny per pound weight. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6. Sheep and lamb-ſkins tanned, tawed, or dreſſed, are to be allowed two third parts of the duties formerly paid. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 69.

* The debenture being thus executed by the officers of the cuſtoms, the ſame is to be delivered to the exporter, in order to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and ſkins at the port of exportation, who is forthwith, out of the monies in his hands ariſing from the ſaid duties, to repay the two third parts (as above) of the duties which were before paid; or, in default thereof, the commiſſioners are to repay the ſame.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 40. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 5.

9. A debenture for manufactures of tanned leather.

Port of Southampton.

* William Turner did enter with us, the 16th of February, 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, four dozen and an half of men's leather-heel ſhoes, three dozen of women's ſhoes, fifteen dozen of boys and girls ſhoes, made of tanned hides and calve-ſkins, weighing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, chargeable with a duty of one penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the ninth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne, and an additional duty of one half-penny per pound weight, by an act of parliament of the tenth year of her ſaid late majeſty's reign.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 39. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 41. that the ſhoes above-mentioned, and every part thereof, ſhall be exported for parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded, or brought on ſhore again, in any port or part of Great-Britain.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

The ſhoes above-mentioned, containing two hundred forty-nine pounds weight, were ſhipped the 16th of February laſt.

Certified the 20th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the duties to be repaid, as follows:

The old duty payable by the ninth of Anne, to be repaid for the ſhoes within-mentioned, amounts to one pound and nine pence — — } l. 1 s. 0 d. 9

The additional duty payable by the tenth of Anne, to be repaid for the ſaid ſhoes, amounts to ten ſhillings and four pence half-penny — — } 0 10 4½

The total 1 11 1½

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller, } of the cuſtoms.

* The debenture thus executed, is to be delivered to the exporter, to be produced to the collector of the duties on hides and ſkins, at the port of exportation, or to the commiſſioners for the ſaid duties; who are forthwith to repay one penny half-penny for every pound, although the marks, or ſtamps, to denote the payment of the duties, do not appear on ſuch ſhoes [or other wares].

* 9 Ann. cap. 11. §. 41. 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 4. 12 Ann. cap. 9. §. 68.

10. A debenture for gold and ſilver lace, thread and fringe.

Port of Southampton.

* Roger Grainger did enter with us, the 3d of March, 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread; twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace; ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe; all made ſince the 1ſt of July, 1712, and of plate-wire ſpun upon ſilk, as appears by the oath of William Brooks.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

Bond is taken in the penalty of thirty-eight pounds, that the above-mentioned gold thread, ſilver lace, and gold fringe, ſhall be ſhipped and exported, and that the ſame, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

The twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 6th of March preſent.

Certified the 19th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the allowance, as follows:

The allowance to be made for the gold thread, ſilver lace, and gold fringe, within-mentioned, amounts to eighteen pounds, nineteen ſhillings, and ten pence three farthings — } l. s. d. 18 19 10¾

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the cuſtoms.

This debenture is to be delivered to the exporter, to be produced to the collector of the duty on gilt and ſilver wire, at the port of exportation, who is forthwith to pay the allowance, or, in default, the commiſſioners of the ſaid duty are to pay it.

11. A debenture for Britiſh wrought plate.

Port of Southampton.

* Theſe are to certify, that Joel Criſp did enter with us, the 12th day of January, 1730, in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, one hundred and fifty ounces Troy of ſilver plate wrought, all made ſince the firſt day of June, 1720, and marked with the mark, or ſtamp, denoting it not to be leſs in fineneſs than that of eleven ounces and two penny-weights of fine ſilver in every pound Troy, as appears by the oath of Arthur Strong.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 4.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 8l. that all the ſaid ſilver plate wrought ſhall be exported into foreign parts, and not relanded again in any part of Great-Britain.

The one hundred and fifty ounces Troy of ſilver plate wrought, above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 13th of January laſt.

Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be indorſed the drawback to be repaid, as follows:

The duty to be repaid for the ſilver plate wrought, within-mentioned, amounts to three pounds fifteen ſhillings — } l. s. d. 3 15 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the cuſtoms.

* This debenture is to be delivered to the exporter, to be produced to the collector of the duty on wrought plate, by whom, or by the commiſſioners of the ſaid duty, the allowance is to be paid.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18.

12. A debenture for printed callicoes.

Port of Southampt.

Robert Aſhby did enter with us, the 16th of March, 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, ſeven hundred and twenty yards ſquare of printed callicoes; the duties whereof have been paid for his majeſty's uſe, to the proper officers appointed to receive the ſame, after the rate of ſix-pence per yard ſquare, being printed ſince the ſecond day of Auguſt, 1714, as appears by the oath [or affirmation] of Robert Aſhby.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

*Oath is taken, that the printed callicoes herein-mentioned, are not landed, nor intended to be relanded, in the iſle of Man.

* i. e. on the debenture for the cuſtoms.

Bond is taken in the penalty of thirty-ſix pounds, that the abovementioned printed callicoes ſhall be ſhipped and exported, and not relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

The ſeven hundred and twenty yards ſquare of printed callicoes, above mentioned, were ſhipped the 20th of March preſent.

Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

13. A debenture for printed linens and ſilks.

Port of Southampton.

Robert Aſhby did enter with us, the 16th day of March, 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, four hundred yards ſquare of printed linens, and * three hundred ninety-ſix yards ſquare of printed ſilk handkerchiefs; the duties whereof have been paid for his majeſty's uſe, to the proper officers appointed to receive the ſame, after the rate of three pence per yard ſquare for the linen, and four pence per yard ſquare for the handkerchiefs, being printed ſince the ſecond day of Auguſt, 1714, as appears by the oath [or affirmation] of Robert Aſhby.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

* If the linens or ſilks are foreign, and printed in Great-Britain, it muſt be here certified, that the oath is taken, &c. as for callicoes.

Bond is taken in the penalty of twenty-four pounds, that the above-mentioned printed linens and ſilk handkerchiefs, ſhall be ſhipped and exported, and that the ſame, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

The four hundred yards ſquare of printed linens, and three hundred ninety-ſix yards ſquare of printed ſilk handkerchiefs above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 20th of March preſent.

Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

On the back of the two laſt debentures muſt be endorſed the drawback to be repaid, as follows:

The duty to be repaid for the printed linens and printed ſilk handkerchiefs, within-mentioned, amounts to eleven pounds twelve ſhillings — } l. s. d. 11 12 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, } of the cuſtoms.

* The debentures are to be delivered to the exporter, to produce to the collector of thoſe duties, by whom, or the commiſſioners, the drawback is to be paid, or the ſecurity given diſcharged, if they were only ſecured.

* 10 Ann. cap. 19. §. 93. 12 Ann. cap. 9.

14. A debenture for Britiſh ſtarch.

Port of Southampton.

Roger Crompton did enter with us, the 13th day of February, 1730, in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, ſixty-three hundred weight, three quarters, and twenty-one pounds of Britiſh-made ſtarch, making ſeven thouſand, one hundred, ſixty-one pounds net; the duties whereof have been paid for his majeſty's uſe, to the proper officers appointed to receive the ſame, after the rate of two-pence per pound weight, being made ſince the ſecond

of Auguſt, 1714, as appears by the oath [or affirmation] of Charles Owen.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Bond is taken in the penalty of 120l. that the above-mentioned ſtarch ſhall be ſhipped and exported, and that the ſame, or any part, ſhall not be relanded in any part of Great-Britain.

The ſeven thouſand, one hundred, and ſixty-one pounds of ſtarch above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 13th of February laſt.

Certified the 22d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

15. Debentures for Britiſh ſoap, paper, and candles.

The form of theſe is exactly the ſame as of that for ſtarch; but the particular goods, the duties paid, and the proof of it, muſt be inſerted according to the following examples, viz.

SOAP.

Twenty-four firkins, and forty-eight half-firkins, containing three thouſand ſeventy-two pounds avoirdupoiſe weight, of Britiſh ſoft ſoap, the duties whereof have been paid for his majeſty's uſe, after the rate of one penny half-penny per pound, as appears by certificate under the hand of G. H. the collector, dated the 26th of January, 1730.

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Four hundred and eight yards ſquare of Britiſh ſtained paper, the duties whereof have been paid for his majeſty's uſe, after the rate of one penny half-penny per yard ſquare, as appears by certificate under the hand of G. H. the collector, dated the 12th of January, 1730.

CANDLES.

Five hundred pounds of Britiſh tallow candles, and three hundred and forty pounds of Britiſh wax candles, avoirdupoiſe weight, the duties whereof have been paid for his majeſty's uſe, after the rate of one penny per pound for the tallow candles, and eight pence per pound for the wax candles, as appears by certificate under the hand of G. H. the collector, dated the 14th of February, 1730.

On the back muſt be endorſed the drawbacks to be repaid, as follow:

The duty to be repaid for the ſtarch within-mentioned, amounts to fifty-nine pounds, thirteen ſhillings, and ſix-pence — — — } l. s. d. 59 13 6

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller, } of the cuſtoms.

Being thus executed, they are to be delivered to the exporter, in order to procure the drawback.

16. A debenture for fiſh.

Port of Southampton. Theſe are to certify, That Thomas Fielding did enter with us, the 27th day of February, 1730, in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, ſixty-eight barrels of ſalmon, of Britiſh taking and curing. Witneſs our hands, the 9th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector,, B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat Thomas Fielding, That all the fiſh herein - mentioned, are Britiſh taken, and really exported to, or for, parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded, or intended to be relanded, in Great-Britain.

Thomas Fielding, exporter [or his agent.]

Jurat 22° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

Theſe are to certify, That we have examined the (*) ſixty-eight barrels of ſalmon above-mentioned, each barrel containing forty-two gallons wine-meaſure, and marked, or branded, with the letters E. A. and find them all to be well cured, and merchantable, and that they were ſhipped the 1ſt day of March preſent.

Certified the 20th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Aſſiſtant-Searcher.

In filling up the ſearcher's certificate of the ſhipping and condition of the fiſh, it muſt be obſerved, that the number, ſize, and ſpecies of the fiſh, muſt be diſtinctly expreſſed, and that, after this mark (*), there muſt be added as follows, according to the ſeveral reſpective ſorts, viz.

—Caſks of pilchards, or ſhads, each caſk containing 50 gallons wine meaſure.

—Hundreds of cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, each fiſh containing 14 inches, or upwards, in length, from the bone in the fins to the third joint in the tail, and punched in the tail, according to act of parliament.

—Barrels of wet cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, each barrel containing 32 gallons, wine meaſure.

— Hundreds weight of dried cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, called haberdines.

—Barrels of white herrings, or full, or clean, ſhotten red herrings, containing 32 gallons, wine meaſure.

And for ſalmon, pilchards, ſhads, herrings, and dried red ſprats, muſt be added, That each barrel, or caſk, is marked, or branded, with the letters E. A.

And on the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the bounty that is to be paid on the exportation, thus:

The premium to be paid for the fiſh exported, as within-mentioned, amounts to fifteen pounds, ſix ſhillings — — — } l. s. d. 15 6 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

And, if the collector has proper money in his hands to pay the ſame, the exporter's receipt muſt be taken for ſuch bounty, as follows:

Southampton, the 23d day of March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of fifteen pounds, ſix ſhillings, in full of this debenture — — — } l. s. d. 15 6 0

Witneſs C. D. Comptroller.

But, if the collector has not ſufficient money in his hands on the new duty on ſalt imported, or on the branches chargeable with the payment of corn debentures, the ſame muſt be certified to the commiſſioners, as follows:

Theſe are to certify the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, That the collector of Southampton has not money in his hands ariſing by the duty of three pence per gallon on foreign ſalt, or by cuſtoms, out of which the bounties for corn are payable, ſufficient to pay this debenture. Witneſs our hands this 23d day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

And when this debenture, with the aforegoing certificate thereon, is produced to the commiſſioners, their ſecretary is to examine it, and ſignify the ſame, as follows:

I have examined this debenture, and do find the requiſites of law duly performed; and by the aforegoing certificate it appears, that there is not ſufficient money in that port to pay the ſame.

F. G. Secretary.

Whereupon the commiſſioners will order the payment, as follows:

Cuſtom-houſe, London, the 27th day of March, 1730.

You are, in three months from the date hereof, to pay in full of this debenture, out of ſuch money as ſhall then be in your hands, ariſing by the duty of three pence per gallon on foreign ſalt imported, or, if the ſame be deficient, out of the cuſtoms or duties chargeable with the payment of the bounty for the exportation of corn or grain, the ſum of fifteen pounds ſix ſhillings.

To L. M. Eſq; receiver-general, and caſhier of his majeſty's cuſtoms.

G. H.
H. I.
J. K.
K. L. } Commiſſioners.

And when, for want of money, the debentures are not paid at the port, but certified to the commiſſioners, duplicates thereof muſt be drawn out in proper columns, in like manner as before deſcribed for corn-debentures, in order to be ſent therewith.

17. A debenture for beef or pork.

Port of Southampt. Theſe are to certify, That John Fowler did enter with us, the 20th day of March, 1730, in the Dil gence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, one hundred caſks, quantity one hundred ninety-five barrels and an half of ſalt beef, for ſale, each barrel containing thirty-two gallons, wine meaſure, all good and merchantable, and ſalted with foreign ſalt only (without any mixture of Britiſh or Iriſh ſalt) for which the duties have been paid, and not drawn back, and

Jurat John Fowler, That all the beef, herein - mentioned, was ſalted with foreign ſalt only (without any mixture of Britiſh or Iriſh ſalt) for which the duties have been paid, and not drawn back, and

no

that the ſame is really exported to parts beyond the ſeas, for ſale, and that no part thereof was ſpent, or intended to be ſpent, for the ſhip's uſe, and was not relanded, or intended to be relanded, in Great-Britain.

John Fowler, exporter [or his agent].

Jurat 24° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

not drawn back. Witneſs our hands this 23d day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

Theſe are to certify, That we have examined the one hundred ninety-five barrels and an half of ſalted beef abovementioned, each barrel containing thirty-two gallons, wine-meaſure, which have been actually ſhipped for ſale; and that all the ſaid beef is good and merchantable, and the caſks branded with the letters E. A. Witneſs our hands this 23d day of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Aſſiſtant-Searcher.

And on the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the bounty that is to be paid on the exportation, thus:

	l.	s.	d.
The premium to be paid for the one hundred ninety-five barrels and an half of ſalted beef, exported as within-mentioned, amounts to fourteen pounds, thirteen ſhillings, and three pence	14	13	3

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Cuſtomer,
C. D. Comptroller.

For the payment of which debenture, or the certificate of the want of money, and all other requiſites, ſee the directions before given for the fiſh exported, the bounty being payable out of the ſaid duties.

18. A debenture for coals.

Port of Southampton.

John How did enter with us, the 18th day of March, 1730, in the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller maſter, for Rotterdam, twenty-two chalders of coals, Newcaſtle meaſure, making forty-two chalders of coals Wincheſter; the coaſt duties whereof were paid [or ſecured, &c. as in the certificate] by Benjamin Thorn, the 7th day of January laſt, as it doth appear by the certificate of the collector of the ſaid duties. And, for further manifeſtation of his juſt dealing herein, he hath alſo taken oath before us for the ſame. Cuſtom-houſe the day and year aboveſaid.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat John How, that the coals abovementioned are really exported to parts beyond the ſeas, and not landed, or intended to be relanded, in any part of Great-Britain.

The twenty-two chalders of coals, Newcaſtle meaſure, making forty-two chalders of coals Wincheſter meaſure, above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 18th and 19th of March preſent.

Certified the 20th of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

Jurat 23° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector,
C. D. Comptroller.

On the back muſt be endorſed the duties to be repaid, and underneath the exporter's receipt. But in computing the duties it muſt be obſerved,

1. That, if the duties were paid down at entry, the drawback muſt be repaid in ready money, with the diſcount deducted.
2. That, if the duties were ſecured, the bond muſt be diſcharged for the amount of the drawback, by endorſing it.
3. That, if the duties were ſecured at entry, but the bond paid off before the entry outwards, or before the debenture be finiſhed, the drawback muſt be repaid in money, with or without diſcount, as was the caſe of the entry.

	l.	s.	d.
The coaſt-duty of three ſhillings the chalder, to be repaid for the coals within-mentioned, amounts to ſix pounds, two ſhillings, and ten pence farthing	6	2	$10\frac{1}{4}$
The coaſt-duty of two ſhillings in the chalder, to be repaid for the ſaid coals, amounts to four pounds, one ſhilling, and ten pence three-farthings	4	1	$10\frac{3}{4}$
	10	4	9

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

	l.	s.	d.
Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of ten pounds, four ſhillings, and nine pence, in full of this debenture	10	4	9

Witneſs
C. D. Comptroller.

John How.

19. A debenture for foreign goods.

* As foreign goods imported, and afterwards exported to foreign parts within three years (accounting from the maſter's report of the ſhip) are intitled to the drawback of ſuch duties as are by law to be repaid: therefore, when regularly ſhipped for exportation, debentures muſt be formed from the certificate of the payment, or ſecurity inwards.

In making out the debentures it muſt be obſerved, that, if the goods mentioned in the certificate were imported at any other port, ſeparate debentures muſt be made; and, when ſhipped, and the exportation duly ſworn to, they muſt be ſent to the port, or ports, of importation, to have the duties computed and repaid; and the original certificate muſt be ſent therewith; and, if the duties were paid at London, a duplicate in the following form:

* Second, fourth, ſixth, and twenty-ſixth rules of the book of rates. 9 and 10 W. III. cap. 23. §. 18. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.

Port of Southampton.

In the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica.

Robert Aſhby.

The ſubſidy, new ſubſidy, one third ſubſidy, two thirds ſubſidy, additional duty, and impoſt inwards, for ſeventy-two callicoes, were paid at London by the united company, the 30th of May laſt, being for the 15 per cent. on callicoes; twenty long cloths at ſixty-five ſhillings per piece, lot F V A, folio 104, ſold Lane by the Grantham; as by certificate from London, in the name of Salter and company, dated the 3d of January laſt. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe, the 20th of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

To D. E. collector outwards,
in the port of London.

Of the aforeſaid debentures there are but two ſorts, viz. one for tobacco, and another for all other foreign goods.

I. Debentures for tobacco.

In the execution whereof, it muſt be particularly obſerved,

1. * That debentures for the ſame quantity may be made in one or more parchments; and therefore it is the practice of London, Briſtol, &c. when the bondable duties were ſecured at importation, to make out a diſtinct debenture for them, and another for the old ſubſidy; in moſt other ports they are uſually made on the ſame parchment, by inſerting the money and bonds in different columns.

* 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 10. §. 5.

2. * That the exporter's oath muſt be printed, ſpecifying whether he acts for himſelf, or by commiſſion.

* 7 and 8 W. III. cap. 10. §. 5. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 24.

3. * If exported to any other foreign parts than Ireland, the word Ireland muſt be added to the oath, after Great-Britain.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 50.

4. * That as no tobacco may be conſumed on board ſhips of war in Europe, but what has paid full duties, and been manufactured in Great-Britain; no drawback is to be allowed for tobacco exported in any man of war.

* 6 Ann. cap. 22. §. 13.

5. * That the eight pounds per hogſhead of 350 pounds, or more, allowed for draught at importation, muſt not be deducted on exportation.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 15.

6. * That debentures for tobacco exported to Ireland muſt not be paid, till a certificate be produced, teſtifying the landing thereof as follows:

* 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 18.

Port of Dublin.

Theſe are to certify all whom it may concern, That George Hill of this city, merchant, hath landed here, out of the Hope of Dublin, James Butler maſter, from Southampton, forty-four thouſand, ſeven hundred, fifty-three pounds of Britiſh plantation tobacco, which came per cocket from thence in the name of Nicholas Stone, dated the 8th of March laſt, for * forty-five thouſand, ſeven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of the ſaid tobacco: his majeſty's full duties whereof were here paid by the ſaid merchant, the 28th of March laſt.

Witneſs our hands and ſeals of office, this fourth day of April, 1731.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Comptroller, or Surveyor.

* To be omitted where there is no variation between the quantities ſhipped in Great-Britain, and landed in Ireland.

Each cocket muſt have one of theſe, and muſt be annexed to the reſpective debentures, to be tranſmitted as vouchers; without which the collector will not have credit for the ſame: but where the ſubſidy is repaid in money, and the debenture for the bonded duties remains in the merchant's cuſtody, the original certificate muſt be annexed to the ſubſidy debenture, and a duplicate of it atteſted by the collector and comptroller, annexed to the debenture for the bonded duties.

7. * That if, on producing the aforeſaid certificate, there appears to be any difference in weight, ſo as the quantity landed is leſs than that ſhipped; the exporter muſt have an allowance not exceeding two per cent.

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 48.

8. That no perſons may ſwear to the exportation, but ſuch as are permitted to ſwear to debentures for other goods.

A debenture for the old ſubſidy of tobacco, when the other duties are ſecured.

Port of Southampton.

Nicholas Stone did enter with us, the 8th day of March, 1730, in the Hope of Dublin, James Butler maſter, for Ireland, forty-five thouſand, ſeven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of Britiſh-plantation tobacco; the ſubſidy whereof was paid inwards by Dennis Dove, the 3d of February laſt; Aaron Holt, the 7th of February laſt; and George Tims, the 13th of February laſt, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards: and, for further manifeſtation of his juſt dealing herein, he hath alſo taken oath [or affirmation] before us, for the ſame.

Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the day and year aboveſaid.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

	lb. tob.	
Landed in Ireland as per certificate, dated the 4th day of April, 1731, no more than	44753	The forty-five thouſand, ſeven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of tobacco above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 9th of March preſent. Certified the 22d of March, 1730.
Two per cent. of 45728 lb. ſhipped -	914	
Drawback to be allowed for ——	45667	* E. F. Searcher, F. G. Surveyor, G. H. Land-waiter.

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* Second rule of the book of rates.

Jurat Nicholas Stone, That all the tobacco ſhipped, as here certified, is really and truly exported for parts beyond the ſeas, on his own account [or on his own and company's account, or on * the account of George Hill of Dublin, for whom this deponent acts in the direction of the voyage] and that none of the ſaid tobacco hath been ſince landed, or is intended to be relanded in Great-Britain [Ireland, when not exported thither] or the Iſle of Man.

Jurat 19° die Aprilis, 1731, coram nobis
A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* In London and Briſtol, the exporters of tobacco by commiſſion ſwear, On commiſſion, having the direction of the voyage.

On the back of the aforeſaid debenture muſt be endorſed the old ſubſidy to be repaid, as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
The ſubſidy to be repaid for the tobacco within-mentioned, amounts to one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and two-pence farthing ——	142	14	2¼

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 20th of April, 1731.

	l.	s.	d.
Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and two-pence farthing, in full of this debenture ——	142	14	2¼

Witneſs,
C. D. Comptroller. Nicholas Stone.

Note, When the bondable duties are likewiſe paid at importation, they muſt be ſpecified in the ſame debenture with the old ſubſidy, and but one debenture made out for all the duties: but, when ſecured, there muſt be a ſeparate debenture in form following:

A debenture for the bondable duties of tobacco.

Port of Southampton.

Nicholas Stone did enter with us, the 8th day of March, 1730, in the Hope of Dublin, James Butler maſter, for Ireland, forty-five thouſand, ſeven hundred, twenty-eight pounds of Britiſh-plantation tobacco; the additional duty, new ſubſidy, one third ſubſidy, and impoſt whereof were ſecured inwards, as follows, viz. for thirty-five thouſand, two hundred, twenty-eight pounds, by Dennis Dove, the 3d of February laſt, out of the Olive-Branch of Ipſwich, Giles Ellis maſter, reported the 28th of January laſt; for two thouſand five hundred pounds by Aaron Holt, the 7th of February laſt, and for eight thouſand pounds by George Tims, the 13th of February laſt, out of the Welcome of Whitehaven, Charles Jones maſter, reported the 4th of February laſt, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards; and, for further manifeſtation of his juſt dealing herein, he hath alſo taken oath [or affirmation] before us for the ſame.

Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the day and year aboveſaid.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

The officer's certificate of the ſhipping, and the exporter's oath, muſt be the ſame as on the foregoing debenture for the old ſubſidy.

On the back muſt be endorſed the ſeveral duties to be diſcharged on the bonds, as follows:

	Bonds.		
The additional duty to be diſcharged on bonds for the tobacco within-mentioned, amounts to one hundred ſixty-one pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and nine pence ——	161	14	9
The new ſubſidy to be diſcharged for the ſame, amounts to one hundred ſixty-one pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and nine pence ——	161	14	9
The one third ſubſidy to be diſcharged for the ſame, amounts to fifty-three pounds, eighteen ſhillings, and three pence —	58	18	3
Impoſt on tobacco to be diſcharged for the ſame, amounts to four hundred eighty-three pounds, four ſhillings, and three pence —	483	4	3
	860	12	0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 20th of April, 1731.

	l.	s.	d.
Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of eight hundred ſixty-two pounds, twelve ſhillings, by endorſement on bonds, in full of this debenture — —	862	12	0

Witneſs,
C. D. Comptroller. Nicholas Stone.

But if the officers chuſe to make out but one debenture for the old ſubſidy, and the bondable duties, as is the practice of ſome ports, it muſt be in the form following:

A debenture for all duties on tobacco, when the bondable duties are ſecured.

Port of Southampton.

Nicholas Stone did enter with us, the 8th day of March, 1730, in the Hope of Dublin, James Butler maſter, for Ireland, forty-five thouſand, ſeven hundred, twenty-eight pounds, of Britiſh-plantation tobacco; the ſubſidy inwards whereof was paid, and the additional duty, new ſubſidy, one third ſubſidy, and impoſt inwards, were ſecured as follows, viz. for thirty-five thouſand, two hundred, twenty pounds, by Dennis Dove, the 3d of February laſt, out of the Olive-Branch of Ipſwich, Giles Ellis maſter, reported the 28th of January laſt; for two thouſand five hundred pounds, by Aaron Holt, the 7th of February laſt, and for eight thouſand pounds, by George Tims, the 13th of February laſt, out of the Welcome of Whitehaven, Charles Jones maſter, reported the 4th of February laſt, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards:

wards: and, for further manifeſtation of his juſt dealing herein, he hath alſo taken oath [or affirmation] before us for the ſame.

Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the day and year aboveſaid.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

The officer's certificate of the ſhipping, and the exporter's oath, with the remarks of the quantity landed in Ireland, muſt be the ſame as on the foregoing debenture for the old ſubſidy only.

On the back muſt be endorſed the ſeveral duties to be paid in money, and diſcharged on bonds, as follows:

	Money.	Bonds.
The ſubſidy to be repaid for the tobacco within-mentioned, amounts to one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and two pence farthing	142 14 2¼	
The additional duty to be diſcharged on bonds for the ſame, amounts to one hundred ſixty-one pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and nine pence		161 14 9
The new ſubſidy to be diſcharged for the ſame, amounts to one hundred ſixty-one pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and nine pence		161 14 9
The one third ſubſidy to be diſcharged for the ſame, amounts to fifty-three pounds, eighteen ſhillings, and three pence		53 18 3
The impoſt on tobacco to be diſcharged for the ſame, amounts to four hundred eighty-five pounds, four ſhillings, and three pence		485 4 3
	142 14 2¼	862 12 0

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 20th of April, 1731.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of	l.	s.	d.
one hundred forty-two pounds, fourteen ſhillings, and two pence farthing in money, and eight hundred, ſixty-two pounds, twelve ſhillings by endorſement on bonds, making together one thouſand and five pounds, ſix ſhillings, and two pence farthing, being in full of this debenture	1005	6	2¼

Witneſs Nicholas Stone.
C. D. Comptroller.

And as the bondable duties on this debenture are to be applied towards the diſcharge of ſeveral bonds; therefore it would be proper to annex a ſcheme of the particular appropriations of the ſeveral duties in the following form:

NICHOLAS STONE.

In the Hope of Dublin, James Butler maſter, for Ireland, 45667 pounds of Britiſh-plantation tobacco, to be appropriated to the diſcharge of the following bonds; viz.

Importers.	Date of bonds.	Ships and dates of reports.	Quant. exported.	Add. duty.	New Subſidy.	One third Subſidy.	Impoſt.
Dennis Dove.	3 Feb. 1730.	Olive Branch, Giles Ellis, 28 Jan. 1730.	* 35167	124 11 0	124 11 0	41 10 4	373 13 0
Aaron Hoit.	7 Ditto	Welcome, Charles Jones, 4 Feb.	2500	8 17 1	8 17 1	2 19 0	26 11 3
George Tims.	13 Ditto	Ditto	8000	28 6 8	28 6 8	9 8 10½	85 0 0
			45667	161 14 9	161 14 9	53 18 3	485 4 3

* The 61 lb. of tobacco being the difference between the quantity to be allowed for, and that ſhipped, is deducted from this article.

With reſpect to the bondable duties on tobacco, it muſt be obſerved, that if it ſhould happen that they have been ſecured at importation, and the bond be paid off before the debenture be paſſed, thoſe duties muſt be paid in money: and if the bond was paid off before due, ſo that diſcount was allowed for the time unexpired, it muſt be ſpecified on the debenture, and the diſcount deducted.

II. Debentures for all other foreign goods.

In which is to be obſerved,

1. * That no perſon may be admitted to ſwear to the exportation, but the true exporter, either as proprietor, or who, being employed by commiſſion, is concerned in the direction of the voyage.

* 4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 15. §. 13. 6 and 7 W. III. cap. 7. §. 5. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 24.

2. * That debenture for any certificate goods exported to Ireland muſt not be allowed, 'till certificate be produced, teſtifying the landing thereof: one of which certificates is to be required for each cocket, and annexed to the debentures, before the ſame are paſſed; and tranſmitted as vouchers, or the collector will not have credit for the ſame: but where the ſubſidy is repaid in money, and the debenture for the bonded duties remains in the merchant's cuſtody, the original certificate muſt be annexed to the ſubſidy debenture, and a duplicate of it atteſted by the collector and comptroller, annexed to the debenture for the bonded duties: and theſe certificates and duplicates are to be numbered to diſtinguiſh whether it be 1ſt, 2d, 3d, &c. duplicate.

* 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 11. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 18. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 5. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 8. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 2.

And according to the quantity landed (if leſs than ſhipped in Great-Britain) the drawback muſt be allowed, and for no more.

3. * That a debenture muſt not be made out for any ſalt landed in Ireland, unleſs entered outwards at exportation for ſome port in Ireland.

* 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 13.

4. That the collector and comptroller are to give the importers of ſalt, credit, in their account, for what ſalt ſhall be exported to any foreign parts, by debentures.

A debenture for any other foreign goods than tobacco.

Port of Southampton.

Robert Aſhby did enter with us, the 16th day of March, 1730, in the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica.

The ſubſidy, new ſubſidy, and one third ſubſidy inwards, were paid for ſeven hundred, an half, and ten ells plain, narrow, Germany linen, by James Owen, the 18th of June, 1729; one hundred forty-ſeven ells plain Holland's linen, under 1 ⅛ ell wide, by Roger Smith, the 7th of December, and 15th of January laſt; three hundred weight and an half of currants, and ten pounds of nutmegs, by William Barber, the 4th inſtant; twenty reams of ordinary paper, being for the new duties, fine ſool's-cap, by John Short, the 3d of May, 1729; eight pounds of rhubarb, fourteen pounds of gentian, and ſeven pounds of ſcammony, from the place of their growth, by Samuel Hurſt, the 8th of April, and 16th of November laſt; two hundred weight, three quarters, and fourteen pounds of battery; five hundred weight, one quarter, and ſeven pounds of metal prepared, by Ralph Snow, the 3d of Auguſt, and 19th of November laſt. The two thirds ſubſidy was likewiſe paid for, all but linen and currants; the additional duty was paid for linen; the impoſt 1690 was paid for, all but Holland's linen, nutmegs, battery and metal prepared; the impoſt 1692-3 was paid for battery, and metal prepared; the new duty was paid for nutmegs, paper, and drugs; the additional new duty was paid for nutmegs, as doth appear by the certificate of the collector inwards: and, for further manifeſtation of his juſt dealing herein, he hath alſo taken oath [or affirmation] before us for the ſame.

Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the day and year aboveſaid.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Jurat Robert Aſhby, That the goods mentioned in this debenture, are really and bonâ fide, exported for parts beyond the ſeas, on his own account [or on his own and company's account, or * on account of A. B. of

The ſeven hundred, an half, and ten ells plain, narrow Germany linen, one hundred forty-ſeven ells plain Holland's linen, under 1 ⅛ ell wide, three hundred weight and an half of currants, ten pounds of nutmegs, twenty reams of ordinary paper, being for the new duties, fine ſool's cap; eight pounds of rhubarb, fourteen pounds of gentian, ſeven pounds of ſcammony, two hundred weight, three

Jamaica, for whom this deponent acts in the direction of the voyage] and that no part hereof has been ſince landed, or is intended to be re-landed in Great-Britain, or the Iſle of Man.

Jurat 23° die Martii, 1730, coram nobis
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

quarters, and fourteen pounds of battery; five hundred weight, one quarter, and ſeven pounds of metal, prepared above-mentioned, were ſhipped the 17th of March preſent.

Certified the 23d of March, 1730.

D. E. Searcher,
E. F. Surveyor,
F. G. Landwaiter.

* In London and Briſtol, the exporters of goods by commiſſion ſwear, On commiſſion, having the direction of the voyage.

On the back muſt be endorſed the ſeveral duties to be repaid; and underneath the exporter's receipt, as follows:

	l.	s.	d.
The ſubſidy to be repaid for the goods within-mentioned, amounts to four pounds, four ſhillings, and one penny half-penny	4	4	1 ½
The additional duty to be paid for the ſame, amounts to one pound, eight ſhillings, and eight pence	1	8	8
Cuſtoms —	5	12	9 ½
The new ſubſidy to be repaid, ſeven pounds, nine ſhillings, and one penny farthing —	7	9	1 ¼
The one-third ſubſidy to be repaid, two pounds, nine ſhillings, and eight pence farthing	2	9	8 ¼
The two-thirds ſubſidy to be repaid, two pounds, three ſhillings, and ſeven pence farthing	2	3	7 ¼
The impoſt 1690 to be repaid, two pounds, four ſhillings, and eleven pence three farthings	2	4	11 ¾
The impoſt 1692-3 to be repaid, one pound, eighteen ſhillings, and four pence half-penny	1	18	4 ½
The new duty on ſpice, &c. to be repaid, one ſhilling	0	1	0
The additional duty on ſpice, &c. to be repaid, eleven ſhillings, two pence three farthings	0	11	2 ¾
The new duty on pepper, &c. to be repaid, ſix ſhillings, and ſix pence half-penny	0	6	6 ½
The new duty on ſoap, &c. to be repaid, two pounds, ten ſhillings	2	10	0
The additional duty on ſoap, &c. one pound, five ſhillings	1	5	0
	26	12	3 ¾

A. B. Collector, B. C, Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 24th of March, 1730.

	l.	s.	d.
Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of A. B. their collector in this port, the ſum of twenty-ſix pounds, twelve ſhillings, and three pence three farthings, in full of this debenture	26	12	3 ¾

Witneſs,
C. D. Comptroller.

Robert Aſhby.

On recourſe to the entry outwards, from which this debenture was formed, it will appear that there were likewiſe entered raiſins ſolis and callicoes, though not inſerted in the debenture, becauſe the duties of the former were paid at Pool, and of the latter at London: in ſuch caſes ſeparate debentures muſt be made out, and ſent to the reſpective ports, to have the duties there computed and repaid; and the exportation ſworn to, if exported by his order, who ſent them from the port of importation; remembering to have a diſtinct parchment for the duty of 15 per cent. on muſlins or callicoes.

All the ſeveral kinds of debentures, the forms of which are here given, muſt, before delivered or paid to the exporters be entered into a ſeparate book, to be kept for that purpoſe by the collector and comptroller, in the forms preceding.

See the TABLE thereof.

DEBIT, among book-keepers, is uſed to expreſs the left-hand page of the ledger, to which are carried all articles ſupplied, or paid, on the ſubject of an account, or that is charged to that account.

DEBTOR and CREDITOR, an art ſo called, which is made uſe of by the moſt ſkilful and eminent traders, in order to keep an exact account of all their commercial tranſactions.

REMARKS.

Under the articles of ACCOUNTANTSHIP, BOOK-KEEPER, and BOOKS of MERCHANTS, we have gradually introduced the reader into a knowledge of this uſeful and important method of account-keeping; to all which we refer: and under the head of BANKING I have, upon a ſingle ſheet, exhibited to one view, in a plain practical light, how eaſily this art is applicable to that branch of buſineſs. This I have done in the ledger-form only, judging that the moſt intelligible, as it is the moſt eſſential book of all, and all others only preparatory thereunto. And having given a full account of the nature and uſe of all books auxiliary to this, under the article BOOKS of MERCHANTS, I ſhall not repeat what I have there ſaid, but proceed to delineate the whole art of DEBTOR and CREDITOR, according to it's true and fundamental principles, at one view, and that alſo upon one ſingle ſheet for that purpoſe; which, being comprehended, will enable any perſon to apply this art to any kind of negoce whatſoever, and that either of a public or private nature.

I am the more readily induced to chuſe this ledger-form rather than any other given in the ordinary way by voluminous writers upon this ſubject, the ſpecimen before given thereof, in regard to the buſineſs of banking, having met with ſo good a reception.

Previous to which, I ſhall only deſire the reader to obſerve the few following general rules, for his government in the ſtating of accounts, according to the method of debtor and creditor, or the genuine Italian method, by double entry. As

1. The account unto which any thing comes, or upon account of which any thing goes out, is to be charged debtor for the ſame, and it's total amount.

2. That account from whence the ſame comes, is to be diſcharged thereof, or made creditor for it.

And although this art is of ſo very extenſive a nature as to be applicable to every kind of buſineſs whatſoever, where accounts are requiſite, that the ſtate of ſuch accounts ſhould juſtly and truly appear upon the ledger; yet all kinds of accounts that can happen upon this principal book, are reducible to ſo few a number, as four; and, if I may be allowed an expreſſion borrowed from the mariner, the boxing about of theſe four diſtinct ſpecies of accounts, ſuitably to the nature of the tranſaction, either by way of charge or diſcharge, or according as theſe certain accounts ſhall require to be ſtated, either as debtors or creditors, comprehends this whole ſcience, notwithſtanding the prolixity of authors who have profeſſedly wrote thereupon.

A General VIEW of a LEDGER, kept according to the Method of Accountantſhip by DOUBLE ENTRY.

CASH - - - - - - - - - - - - Dr.
Comprehends all money received.

PER CONTRA - - - - - - - - - Cr.
Comprehends all money paid.

MERCHANDIZE GENERAL - - Dr.
Comprehends all merchandize bought.

PER CONTRA - - - - - - - - Cr.
Comprehends all merchandize ſold.

PERSONAL ACCOUNTS - - - Dr.
Comprehends when any perſons ought to be debited.

PER CONTRA - - - - - - - - Cr.
Comprehends when any perſons ought to be credited.

DESIGNS - - - - - - - - - - Dr.
Comprehends all intermediate accounts, ſuch as charges of merchandize, commiſſion, voyages, ſhipping, draughts, remittances, exchanges, profit and loſs, &c.

PER CONTRA - - - - - - - - Cr.

EXPLANATION by EXAMPLES.

1. If you buy goods for ready money, you debit MERCHANDIZE GENERAL, or PARTICULAR, and credit CASH.

2. If you ſell goods for ready money, you debit CASH, and credit MERCHANDIZE GENERAL, or PARTICULAR.

3. If you buy goods part for ready money, and part on credit, you debit MERCHANDIZE GENERAL, or PARTICULAR, and credit CASH for the ſum paid, and the PERSONAL ACCOUNT for the ſum due.

4. If you ſell goods on credit, you debit the PERSONAL ACCOUNT, and credit MERCHANDIZE GENERAL or PARTICULAR.

5. If you ſell goods for a part credit, and a part ready money, you debit CASH for what you receive, and PERSONAL ACCOUNT for what remains due, and credit MERCHANDIZE GENERAL or PARTICULAR by both,

6. If you order foreign merchandizes to be ſent for your own account, you debit DESIGNS, or VOYAGE, from, &c. to, &c. and credit PERSONAL ACCOUNT for the whole coſt and charge, as per invoice and inſurance, &c. in the foreign money of the country *.

* As your foreign correſpondent, in this reſpect, acts as a factor for you, and you are indebted to him only, according to the invoice, in the money of his country, you muſt enter this tranſaction under the head of ſuch perſonal account thus: A. B. of Liſbon. My foreign account, and credit him in millreas, the money of account in Liſbon, and value ſuch money at the price of exchange; and, when you pay him, either by remitting him, or by his drawing on you, you debit A. B. in the ſame foreign account, and credit the account of draughts or remittances, 'till you have paid the money, and then debit either of them, and credit caſh. And, as you credit his perſonal account, according as the courſe of exchange then is, ſo you debit him according to what you really pay for ſuch foreign money, whereby the difference between the ſterling columns of ſuch foreign account will ſhew whether you gain or loſe by the exchange, from the firſt valuation.

7. If you ſend a foreign correſpondent goods for his account, you debit his PERSONAL ſterling account, and credit MERCHANDIZE.—Or, if you buy the goods on credit, you may credit the ſeller for what is due, and CASH, or CHARGES of MERCHANDIZE *, for what you expend, and credit COMMISSION ACCOUNT for your commiſſion.

* This account of CHARGES of MERCHANDIZE frequently anſwers the end of an intermediate account to PROFIT and LOSS, and may be made an excellent blind upon many occaſions; for it is debtor to caſh only for what is really paid on that account, but it may be creditor for more, and for commiſſion, &c.—And the difference in the ballance paſſed to profit and loſs, or to capital ſtock, &c.—By this account the profits or loſſes of traders may be ſo artfully concealed, to anſwer temporary purpoſes, &c. as few can diſcover but the thorough-paced accountant.

8. If you import goods from a foreign correſpondent to ſell by commiſſion, you debit MERCHANDIZE FOR ACCOUNT, OF SUCH PERSON, and credit CHARGES OF MERCHANDIZE, for the duties and all incident expences.—And when you make out the account of ſales * of thoſe goods, and ſend the ſame to your correſpondent, you include your commiſſion therein.—And, in your own books, you debet merchandize account of ſuch perſon to COMMISSION, and to the STERLING ACCOUNT of ſuch correſpondent, and credit, COMMISSION account, and ſuch correſpondent's STERLING ACCOUNT.

* See the article ACCOUNT OF SALES, under the article ACCOUNT, where are contained ſome particular remarks upon the making out ſuch accounts.

9. If you ſend goods to a foreign correſpondent to ſell for your account by commiſſion, you debet VOYAGE to ſuch a place, conſigned to ſuch perſon, and credit MERCHANDIZE for the coſt, and CHARGES OF MERCHANDIZE for all incident expences.—And ſend an invoice * therewith.

* An invoice is an account of the coſt and charges of the goods ſent, for the government of your factor in the ſales of ſuch goods. But it being cuſtomary among merchants to add 5 or 10 per cent. or more, upon the invoice, in order to induce a factor to ſell more to the advantage of his principal, it is ſeldom much regarded. See the article INVOICE.

10. When your factor renders you an account of ſales of ſuch goods, you debet his foreign account, and credit the account of VOYAGE to him conſigned; which you value in the outer column in ſterling money, according to exchange, which is rectified afterwards on the ballance of the account, as before obſerved. So that the profit or loſs upon ſuch goods, will appear upon the account of voyage, &c. And when your factor remits you, or you draw upon him for the net produce of your goods, you debet the account of DESIGNS (i. e. DRAUGHTS or REMITTANCES) and credit your factor's FOREIGN ACCOUNT.—And, when you receive the money, you debet the account of CASH, and credit the account of DRAUGHTS or REMITTANCES; which concludes the whole adventure.

REMARKS.

If theſe few inſtances only are thoroughly comprehended, and the reaſon of them, the attentive reader will eaſily obſerve, that the boxing of theſe four different kinds of accounts, by way of charge and diſcharge, to keep the books in a ballance, includes the whole art: and any perſon who repreſents theſe four articles before him, they will prove a conſtant guide in the ſtating of all manner of accounts, though ever ſo complicated.

And, when he has made himſelf a maſter of the true debtors and creditors, the regiſtering tranſactions minutely and circumſtantially in the waſte-book and journal, in order to be poſted from thence into the ledger, will be extremely eaſy.

But, leſt what has been ſaid ſhould not prove ſo intelligible as I could wiſh, I ſhall make uſe of another method of explication.

As all tranſactions in trade are mutual between perſon and perſon, ſo the conſideration how thoſe we deal with are to ſtate their accounts, in order to be in conformity with our own, will ſerve to help the young accountant to the true method of ſtating of his debits and credits. Example:

If you in England agree with a foreign correſpondent to be equally concerned with him in a cargo of merchandize, and conſign the ſame to him for diſpoſal, the firſt coſt, charge and inſurance, &c. being 2000l.—Conſider, you muſt either have ſuch merchandize by you, or you muſt purchaſe them—If you have them by you, they muſt ſtand debtor in your books for their prime coſt and charge, as before ſhewn.—Or, if you purchaſe them, they will ſtand debtor to the ſeller, if you had credit, or to caſh, if bought for ready money, and perſons or caſh muſt have credit for the ſame.—When ſuch merchandizes go out of your poſſeſſion, reaſon ſays that they muſt no longer remain debtor, as if they ſtill remained in your poſſeſſion.—If ſo, when you part with theſe goods, you are certain that they muſt have credit.—What then is the proper creditor is the next queſtion? For every debtor muſt have it's counterpart creditor, to conſtitute the double entry, and every creditor it's counterpart debtor.

If you part with theſe merchandizes to be ſent by ſea to a foreign correſpondent for your joint account, reaſon dictates that ſuch a correſpondent cannot be a debtor for the whole, ſince he is but a half part intereſted therein. But reaſon ſays, as ſoon as the goods are ſhipped, that he is anſwerable for his part, wherefore here is one debtor. Quere, What ſays plain reaſon ought to be the other, that both may make up the whole?—The anſwer is ſo eaſy, that it can ſcarce be miſtaken.

DESIGNS muſt be the other, under the title of voyage to ſuch place, conſigned to ſuch a one.—So that, by this method of entry, there will be two debtors to make up the counterpart creditor.—Whence it appears, that when your foreign correſpondent, and partner in this adventure, renders you an account of ſales for your part, you debet him and credit the voyage aforeſaid; whereby the profit or loſs ariſing will appear upon this voyage-account on the ledger.

There is another manner of ſtating this tranſaction. Let voyage, &c. in company, &c. be debtor to merchandize for the whole coſt and charge of the adventure, and debit your foreign correſpondent to the voyage; which method of entry rendering the voyage in company, &c. debtor for the whole, and creditor for one half, leaves that account virtually a debtor only for one half: and, being made creditor for one half, the net proceeds will conſequently ſhew the profit or loſs upon this occurrence.

Conſider on the other hand, how your foreign correſpondent ſtates this affair in his books. Upon writing him that you have ſhipped ſuch goods for your joint account, he ſtates the affair in his book thus: Voyage from London, in company, &c. debtor to your ſterling account, for his half part of the coſt, charge, and inſurance, &c. and gives your ſterling account credit in conformity; which ſhews the true ſtate of his affairs with you, if he dies before the goods arrive.—On their arrival, he pays duties and other charges.—For which he may either debit the voyage, &c. for his half part, and you for your's in your foreign account, to his account of caſh, and credit that account for what money he expends; or he may diſcharge the voyage account by debiting merchandize in company thereto for his own part, and to the account of caſh for the whole he expends, and then debit you to merchandize in company, &c. for your part of the cuſtoms and charges 'till ſold.—And, when ſold, may give you credit by merchandize in company for your half the net produce, excluſive of thoſe duties and firſt charges.—Or he may place the whole charges to the company account, and credit you at the concluſion for your half the clear net proceeds, &c.

If you order a correſpondent at one foreign port to lade goods for another foreign port, and conſign them to ſuch a one for your account and riſk, how muſt this account be ſtated in your books?

'Tis certain that he who ſends the goods, according to your order and direction, is your creditor for their coſt and charge.—But the perſon to whom you ordered them to be conſigned, cannot

cannot be your debtor before he has received thoſe goods. Here therefore interpoſes the intermediate account of Deſigns, under the denomination of voyage from ſuch a place conſigned to ſuch a one debtor, and the perſon who ſends the goods is the creditor in his foreign account of money of his own country, as before intimated.

When your correſpondent, to whom you have conſigned ſuch goods, writes you of the ſale, and net produce thereof, you debit him in his foreign account, in the money of his country, and credit the account of voyage, &c. conſigned to him. Whereby the profit or loſs ariſing from this adventure will appear upon the voyage account, when the values of the foreign money come to be aſcertained in ſterling. And as the firſt correſpondent who ſent and conſigned theſe goods to the latter by your order, is your creditor, and the other is your debtor; it is natural in the courſe of buſineſs, eſpecially if the exchanges ſhould at ſuch time prove favourable, to order your creditor to draw upon your debtor for his reimburſement, or your debtor to remit to your creditor.—Let which will of theſe two be the caſe, you muſt debit the creditor, or credit the debtor; which keeps both their accounts in a juſt light in your own books.—Or, if it is more convenient or advantageous for you to remit your foreign creditor, or order him to draw on you, you debit him in his foreign account, wherein he had credit, to draughts or remittances in conformity, and credit either the one or the other, according as the tranſaction has fell out.—And, when you actually pay the money for ſuch draught, or remittance, you debit one of theſe accounts to caſh, and credit caſh, which keeps all the accounts right and in a ballance.

Let it be conſidered alſo, in what manner both theſe foreign correſpondents enter theſe mercantile negotiations in their books.—As that correſpondent to whom you gave the firſt order, is your creditor in your own books; ſo you are of courſe his debtor in his books, in your account current in the money of his country, for the coſt, charge, commiſſion, and inſurance, if not made by yourſelf, for the amount of the whole invoice of ſuch goods ſent for your account.—If then you are a debtor in ſuch correſpondent's books, what is it reaſonable to make the counterpart creditor?—The anſwer is mighty natural, from the principles before laid down. Merchandizes going out of his poſſeſſion, 'tis certain, that account is one creditor to make up a part of the whole; and, as there neceſſarily accrue charges of merchandize, and commiſſion, &c. theſe diſtinct intermediate accounts of Deſigns will make up the other part.—And when he draws upon you, or you remit him for the whole, he then credits or diſcharges you, and debits his account of draughts or remittances.—And, when he receives his money for the bill of exchange, he debits his account of caſh, and credits draughts or remittances, according as the affair has turned out.

The other correſpondent, who has the diſpoſal of your goods, does, upon the receipt thereof, pay the duties, freight, and other incident charges.—For which he debits merchandize for your account, and credits his caſh for what he expends upon this occaſion.—When he diſpoſes of your goods, as it muſt be either for ready money, on credit, or for both:—He credits your merchandize account by theſe reſpective accounts, and debits them as counterparts conformably thereunto.—So that, in order to conclude this account upon his books, he debits the ſame for all after-charges, and his commiſſion, and credits the account of charges of merchandize, and commiſſion; and, by ſubtracting the ſum total on the debit ſide from that on the credit, ſhews him what is due to you for the net proceed of ſuch merchandize.—Which he paſſes from the debit of your merchandize account to the credit of your account current, upon his rendering you an account of ſales for the ſame.—Or upon his remitting you for the ſame, or your drawing on him for it, or any foreign correſpondent, by your order, he then debits your account current, and credits draughts or remittances, 'till the bill or bills of exchange ſhall be paid.—And, when actually paid, he debits either, or both of theſe accounts, if the tranſaction requires it, and credits the account of caſh, which ends this tranſaction in his books.

By thus conſidering, how all, and every the different parties with whom you tranſact buſineſs, ſtate their tranſactions with you in their books, you will, as it were, be naturally led to the ſtating of any thing that occurs in your own books, even in the moſt ſingular and perplexed caſes; and that, with the aſſiſtance only of thoſe four diſtinct ſpecies of accounts, ſuppoſed to exiſt upon the ledger; nothing happening, which falls not under ſome peculiar ſubdiviſion of the one or of the other.

That nothing, however, may be wanting to render this admirable method of accountantſhip perfectly intelligible, we ſhall add to what has been already repreſented, under the various heads before referred to, a variety of very curious and real mercantile tranſactions; which will not only very amply exemplify the ſcience, but at the ſame time exhibit in what manner the practical art of merchandizing is carried on by thoſe, who have been eſteemed to be the moſt ſkilful therein. This we ſhall do, under the article MERCANTILE ACCOUNTANTSHIP, and LEDGER; where likewiſe ſhall be ſhewn,

how this method of accounts by debtor and creditor is applicable to the accounts of the nation; and may ſerve to aſcertain indiſputably the true and genuine ſenſe of all acts of parliament, that may be hereafter made, in regard to the FUNDS, and PUBLIC REVENUE of this kingdom; the public and the public creditors always righted, in any future variations, with regard to their property, and many rancorous diſputes and altercations, both within doors and without, thereby happily prevented.

Some of the principal laws of England, relating to debt and debtors.

3 Edw. III. c. 23. None to diſtrain a foreigner in any city, town, &c. for any debt not juſtly his, on pain of grievous puniſhment.

2 Rich. II. c. 3. Judgment ſhall be given againſt a debtor, who, having made a fraudulent conveyance to defraud creditors, retires into a privileged place, and refuſes to appear on proclamation by the ſheriff.

3 Jac. I. c. 15. 14 Geo. II. c. 10. Citizens and freemen of London, and others, having debts owing under 40 s. to cauſe the debtor to be ſummoned to the court of Requeſts at Guildhall; refuſing to appear, to be impriſoned in one of the compters, &c. But this act not to extend to debts for rent, or on real contracts, &c.

4 and 5 Ann. c. 16. In debt on ſingle bill, &c. the defendant may plead payment in bar. And pending an action on bond, &c. the defendant may bring in principal, intereſt, and coſts; and the court ſhall give judgment to diſcharge the defendant.

1 Stat. 2 Geo. II. cap. 22. ſect. 11. Mutual debts between plaintiff and defendant, or if either party ſue or be ſued, as executor or adminiſtrator, between the teſtator or inteſtate, and either party, one debt may be ſet againſt the other, and matter given in evidence on the general iſſue, or pleaded in bar, as the caſe ſhall require, if notice be then given of the ſum to be inſiſted on, and on what account due. Made perpetual, 8 Geo. II. cap. 24.

2 Stat. 8 Geo. II. cap. 24. ſect. 5. Mutual debts may be ſet againſt each other, by being pleaded or in the general iſſue, though deemed of a different nature, unleſs either accrue by penalty contained in a bond or ſpecialty. In ſuch caſes it ſhall be pleaded in bar, ſetting forth what is juſtly due on either ſide.

Debt to the king.

1 Mag. chart. 9 Hen. III. cap. 8. and 18. The king's debt not to be levied on lands, when there are goods and chattels to ſatisfy; nor ſhall pledges be diſtrained when the principal is ſufficient, and if they anſwer the debt, to have the debtor's lands, &c.

9 Hen. III. c. 18. King's debtors dying, he ſhall be ſerved before the executor.

1 Edw. I. c. 19. The ſheriff, having received the king's debt, upon his next account ſhall diſcharge the debtor, on pain to forfeit treble value; and the ſheriff to give a tally to the king's debtor on payment.

28 Edw. I. c. 12. Beaſts of the plough not to be diſtrained for the king's debt, if others may be found.

25 Edw. III. ſtat. 5. c. 19. Notwithſtanding the king's protection, creditors may proceed to judgment againſt his debtor with a ceſſet executio, 'till the king's debt be paid.

13 Eliz. c. 3. All lands, tenements, and hereditaments of the queen's accountant, and lands purchaſed in others names in truſt for ſuch, liable to execution, as if found by writing obligatory, &c. and the queen may ſell in ſix months to ſatisfy the debt, &c.

27 Eliz. c. 3. The queen, &c. may make ſale of the accountant's lands, &c. as well after his death, as in his life-time. But the heir's lands not to be ſold during his minority; and, if the accountant or debtor had a quietus in his life-time, that ſhall diſcharge the heir of the debt.

7 Jac. I. c. 15. No debt ſhall be aſſigned to the king, &c. by any debtor or accountant, other than ſuch as did originally grow due to the king's debtor, &c.

DEBTS of the NATION, or the NATIONAL DEBTS. Under the head of PUBLIC CREDIT, I have obſerved the connection between the landed, trading, and monied intereſts of theſe kingdoms, and how they reciprocally uphold and maintain each other: I have alſo there endeavoured, and elſewhere, to ſhew upon what foundation the public credit of the nation really ſtands; and upon what principles, in my humble judgment, the ſame may be built upon ſuch a rock, that no temporary blaſt, coming from domeſtic or foreign foes, can ever greatly endanger it: which ſentiments are grounded upon a ſure and certain method of gradually diſcharging our old debts, in a moderate number of years, by a conſtant and permanent ſinking fund, to be applied, inviolably applied, for that purpoſe: where alſo I have ſuggeſted, that on all future exigencies of the ſtate, when money is wanted beyond what can be conveniently raiſed within the year, it ſhould be borrowed within ourſelves, and nothing of FOREIGNERS, that the nation may not be drained of it's current caſh for the payment of their intereſts.

It being my deſire to communicate as much uſeful matter in as narrow a nompaſs as I am able, I have not exceeeded the quantity of a ſheet and a quarter, upon a ſubject of ſuch high concernment: within which ſpace the judicious reader will grant, that a ſubject of this nature could not be exhauſted. It is, therefore, we have referred to various other heads, that naturally correſpond with the ſubject, which is not to be avoided in a work digeſted into this form.—Among the reſt, having referred, from the article of PUBLIC CREDIT, to that of NATIONAL DEBTS, I ſhall purſue the ſubject in ſomething of a different light, in order further to elucidate the matter, ſince our NATIONAL DEBTS are near trebled ſince the reign of Queen Anne.

It is allowed on all hands, that nothing is ſo great a clog, burden, and incumbrance on our trade, as the taxes with which it is loaded; more eſpecially thoſe which are laid upon our own produce and manufactures: wherefore it is alſo allowed, that nothing can be more for the general benefit of our whole commerce, than the taking off thoſe taxes which are the moſt detrimental thereto. But the grand queſtion is, how they can be taken off, conſiſtent with the parliamentary faith, and without injury to the national creditors?

As the bulk of thoſe taxes are ſettled by parliament as a ſecurity to the public creditors, for the due and regular payment of their intereſt, and, as obſerved under the article of PUBLIC CREDIT, in the opinion of many of the wiſeſt men in the kingdom, ſettled alſo 'till the redemption of the principal debt, how can they be taken off, 'till ſuch debt is juſtly and honourably paid?

If then thoſe taxes, which are ſacredly appropriated for thoſe purpoſes, and which lie ſo heavy upon our trade, cannot, without the conſent of the public creditors, be annihilated, or alienated, does not the reduction of taxes abſolutely depend on the redemption of the principal debts, for which they have been mortgaged? This being the caſe, are not all ſchemes and projects to poſtpone and retard the PAYMENT OF SUCH DEBTS, by rendering them again and again IRREDEEMABLE, calculated to perpetuate thoſe taxes to the end of time, and, conſequently, to the effectual ruin and deſtruction of all our trade and navigation? There can be no greater enemies, therefore, to the general commerce and the public credit of theſe kingdoms, than ſuch who are brooding low ſchemes to prevent the gradual payment of the debts of the nation, from that weak and ſhameful maxim, that it is better for the public creditors to continue PERPETUAL ANNUITANTS only, and never to receive their principal money at all; that is, in other words, it is better for the public creditor, as well as the trade of the whole nation, to labour under the preſſure of our preſent taxes, than that our debts ſhould ever be diſcharged.

Let ſuch who will preſume to maintain theſe principles, weigh what the learned Mr. Hume ſays upon this ſubject, and they may poſſibly be brought a little to their ſenſes.

'I muſt confeſs, ſays this ingenious gentleman, that there is 'a ſtrange ſupineneſs, from long cuſtom, crept into all ranks 'of men, with regard to public debts; not unlike what di'vines complain of with regard to their religious doctrines. We 'all own, that the moſt ſanguine imagination cannot hope ei'ther that THIS, OR ANY FUTURE MINISTRY, will be poſ'ſeſſed of ſuch rigid and ſteady frugality, as to make any con'ſiderable progreſs in the payment of our debts, or that the 'ſituation of foreign affairs will, for any long time, allow 'them leiſure and tranquillity ſufficient for ſuch an under'taking*. What then is to become of us? Were we ever 'ſo good Chriſtians, and ever ſo reſigned to providence, 'this methinks were a curious queſtion, even conſidered as 'a ſpeculative one, and what it might not be altogether im'poſſible to form ſome conjectural ſolution of. The events 'here will depend little upon the contingencies of battles, 'negociations, intrigues, and factions. There ſeems to be 'a natural progreſs of things, which may guide our reaſon'ing. As it would have required but a moderate ſhare of 'prudence, when we firſt began this practice of mortgaging, 'to have foretold, from the nature of men and of miniſters, 'that things would neceſſarily be carried the length we 'ſee; ſo, now that we have at laſt happily reached it, it 'may not be difficult to gueſs at the conſequence. It muſt, 'indeed, be one of theſe two events, either the nation muſt 'deſtroy PUBLIC CREDIT, or public credit will DESTROY 'THE NATION. It is impoſſible they can both ſubſiſt, after 'the manner they have been hitherto managed, in this as 'well as in ſome other nations.

* 'In times of peace and ſecurity, when alone it is poſſible 'to pay debts, the monied intereſt are averſe to receive par'tial payments, which they know not how to diſpoſe of to 'advantage; and the landed intereſt are averſe to continue 'the taxes requiſite for that purpoſe: why, therefore, ſhould 'a miniſter perſevere in a meaſure ſo diſagreeable to all 'parties? For the ſake, I ſuppoſe, of a poſterity, which 'he will never ſee, or of a few reaſonable, reflecting peo'ple, whoſe united intereſt, perhaps, will not be able to 'ſecure him the ſmalleſt borough in England. It is not 'likely we ſhall ever find any miniſter ſo bad a politician: 'with regard to theſe narrow, DESTRUCTIVE MAXIMS 'OF POLITICS, ALL MINISTERS ARE EXPERT ENOUGH.

'There was, indeed, a ſcheme for the payment of our debts, 'which was propoſed by an excellent citizen, Mr Hutchin'ſon, above 30 years ago, and which was much approved 'of by ſome men of ſenſe, but was never likely to take ef'fect. He aſſerted that there was a fallacy in imagining that 'the public owed this debt; for that really every individual 'owed a proportional ſhare of it, and paid, in his taxes, a 'proportional ſhare of the intereſt, beſide the expences of 'levying theſe taxes. Had we not better then, ſays he, 'make a proportional diſtribution amongſt us, and each of 'us contribute a ſum ſuitable to his property, and by that 'means diſcharge at once all our funds and public mort'gages? He ſeems not to have conſidered, that the labo'rious poor pay a conſiderable part of the taxes by their an'nual conſumptions, though they could not advance, at 'once, a proportional part of the ſum required. Not to 'mention, that property in money, and ſtock in trade, 'might eaſily be concealed and diſguiſed, and that viſible 'property in lands and houſes would really at laſt anſwer 'for the whole: an inequality and oppreſſion, which never 'would be ſubmitted to. But, though this project is never 'likely to take place, it is not altogether improbable, that, 'when the nation becomes heartily SICK OF THEIR DEBTS, 'and are cruelly oppreſſed by them, ſome daring projector may 'ariſe, with viſionary ſchemes for their diſcharge. And as 'public credit will begin, by that time, to be a little frail, 'the leaſt touch will deſtroy it, as happened in France; and 'in this manner it will die of the doctor*.

* 'Some neighbouring ſtates practiſe an eaſy expedient, by 'which they lighten their public debts. The French have 'a cuſtom (as the Romans formerly had) of augmenting 'their money; and this the nation has been ſo much fa'miliarized to, that it hurts not public credit, though it 'be really cutting off at once, by an edict, ſo much of their 'debts. The Dutch diminiſh the intereſt without the con'ſent of their creditors; or, which is the ſame thing, they 'arbitrarily tax the funds, as well as other property. Could 'we practiſe either of theſe methods, we need never be 'oppreſſed by the national debt; and it is not impoſſible 'but one of theſe, or ſome other method, may at all ad'ventures be tried, on the augmentation of our incum'brances and difficulties. But people in this country are 'ſo good reaſoners upon whatever regards their intereſt, 'that ſuch a practice will deceive no body, and public 'credit will probably tumble at once, by ſo dangerous a 'trial. So great dupes are the generality of mankind, 'that, notwithſtanding ſuch a violent ſhock to public cre'dit as a voluntary bankruptcy in England would occaſion, 'it would not probably be long ere credit would again re'vive in as flouriſhing a condition as before. The preſent 'king of France, during the late war, borrowed money at 'lower intereſt than ever his grandfather did, and as low 'as the Britiſh parliament, comparing the natural rate of 'intereſt in both kingdoms. And though men are com'monly more governed by what they have ſeen, than by 'what they foreſee, with whatever certainty, yet promiſes, 'proteſtations, fair appearances, with the allurements of 'preſent intereſt, have ſuch powerful influence, as few are 'able to reſiſt. Mankind are, in all ages, caught by the 'ſame baits; the ſame tricks, played over and over again, 'ſtill trepan them. The heights of popularity and patriot'iſm are ſtill the beaten road to power and tyranny; flat'tery to treachery; ſtanding armies to arbitrary govern'ment; and the glory of God to the temporal intereſt of 'the clergy. The fear of an everlaſting deſtruction of cre'dit, allowing it to be an evil, is a needleſs bugbear. A 'prudent man in reality, would rather lend to the public 'immediately after they had taken a ſponge to their debts, 'than at preſent, as much as an opulent knave, even tho' 'one could not force him to pay, is a preferable debtor to 'an honeſt bankrupt: for the former, in order to carry on 'buſineſs, may find it his intereſt to diſcharge his debts, 'where they are not exorbitant: the latter has it not in 'his power. The public is a debtor, whom no man can 'oblige to pay. The only check which the creditors have 'on it, is the intereſt of preſerving credit; an intereſt 'which may be eaſily overballanced by a very great debt, 'and by a difficult and extraordinary emergence, even 'ſuppoſing that credit irrecoverable. Not to mention, that 'a preſent neceſſity often forces ſtates into meaſures which 'are, ſtrictly ſpeaking, againſt their intereſt.

'But it is more probable, that the breach of national faith 'will be the neceſſary effect of wars, defeats, misfortunes, 'and public calamities, or even, perhaps, of VICTORIES AND 'CONQUESTS. I muſt confeſs, when I ſee princes and ſtates 'fighting and quarrelling amidſt their debts, funds, and pub'lic mortgages, it always brings to my mind a match of 'cudgel playing fought in a china-ſhop. How can it be 'expected that ſovereigns will ſpare a ſpecies of property 'which is pernicious to themſelves and to the public, when 'they have ſo little compaſſion on lives and properties, which 'are ſo uſeful to both? Let the time come (and ſurely it 'will come) when the new funds, created for the exigencies 'of the year, are not ſubſcribed to, and raiſe not the money 'projected. Suppoſe either that the caſh of the nation is ex'hauſted, or that our faith, which has been hitherto ſo ample,

'begins to fail us: ſuppoſe that, in this diſtreſs, the nation 'is threatened with an invaſion, a rebellion is ſuſpected, or 'broke out at home, a ſquadron cannot be equipped for 'want of pay, victuals, or repairs, or even a foreign ſubſidy 'cannot be advanced: what muſt a prince or miniſter do in 'ſuch emergence? The right of ſelf-preſervation is unalien-'able in every individual, much more in every community; 'and the folly of our ſtateſmen muſt then be greater than the 'folly of thoſe who firſt contracted debts, or, what is more, 'than that of thoſe who truſted, or continue to truſt, this 'ſecurity, if theſe ſtateſmen have the means of ſafety in their 'hands, and do not employ it. The funds, created and mort-'gaged, will, by that time, bring in a large yearly revenue 'ſufficient for the defence and ſecurity of the nation; money 'perhaps is lying in the Exchequer, ready for the diſcharge 'of the quarterly intereſt: neceſſity calls, fear urges, reaſon 'exhorts, compaſſion alone exclaims: the money will imme-'diately be ſeized for the CURRENT SERVICE, under the moſt 'ſolemn proteſtations, perhaps, of being immediatelyreplaced. 'But no more is requiſite. The whole fabric, already totter-'ing, falls to the ground, and buries thouſands in its ruins 'And this, I think, may be called the natural death of PUB-'LIC CREDIT: for to this period it tends as naturally as an 'animal body to its diſſolution and deſtruction.

'Theſe two events, ſuppoſed above are calamitous: thou-'ſands are thereby ſacrificed, to the ſafety of millions. But 'we are not without danger, that the contrary event may 'take place, and that millions may be ſacrificed for ever, to 'the temporary ſafety of thouſands *. Our popular govern-'ment, perhaps, will render it difficult or dangerous for a 'miniſter to venture on ſo deſperate an expeditnt, as that of 'a voluntary bankruptcy. And, though the houſe of lords 'be altogether compoſed of the proprietors of lands, and the 'houſe of commons chiefly, and conſequently, neither of 'them can be ſuppoſed to have great property in the funds; 'yet the connections of the members may be ſo great with the 'proprietors, as to render them more tenacious of public 'faith, than prudence, policy, or even juſtice, ſtrictly ſpeak-'ing, requires: and, perhaps too, our foreign enemies, or 'rather enemy (for we have but one to dread) may be ſo 'politic as to diſcover, that our ſafety lies in deſpair, and 'may not, therefore, ſhew the danger open and barefaced, 'till it be inevitable. The ballance of power in Europe, our 'grandfathers, our fathers, and we, have all juſtly eſteemed 'too unequal to be preſerved without our attention and aſ-'ſiſtance. But our children, weary with the ſtruggle and 'fettered with incumbrances, may ſit down ſecure, and ſee 'their neighbours oppreſſed and conquered, 'till at laſt they 'themſelves, and their creditors, lie both at the mercy of 'the conqueror. And this may properly enough be denomi-'nated the violent death of our public credit.

* 'I have heard it has been computed, that the whole credi-'tors of the public, natives and foreigners, amount only to '17,000. Theſe make a figure at preſent on their income; 'but in caſe of a public bankruptcy, would in an inſtant 'become the loweſt, as well as the moſt wretched, of the 'people. The dignity and authority of the landed gentry 'and nobility is much better rooted, and would render the 'contention very unequal, if ever we come to that ex-'tremity. One would incline to aſſign to this event a very 'near period, ſuch as half a century, had not our fathers 'prophecies of this kind been already found fallacious, by 'the duration of our public credit ſo much beyond all rea-'ſonable expectation. When the aſtrologers in France 'were every year fortelling the death of Henry IV. Theſe 'fellows, ſays he, muſt be right at laſt; we ſhall, there-'fore, be more cautious than to aſſign any preciſe date, 'and ſhall content ourſelves with pointing out the event 'in general.

'Theſe ſeem to be the events which are not very remote, and 'which reaſon foreſees as clearly almoſt as ſhe can do any 'thing that lies in the womb of time. And tho' the ancients 'maintained, that, in order to reach the gift of prophecy, a 'certain divine fury or madneſs, was requiſite, one may 'ſafely affirm, that, in order to deliver ſuch prophecies as 'theſe, no more is neceſſary, than merely to be in one's 'ſenſes, free from the influence of popular madneſs and de-'luſion.'

REMARKS before the laſt war.

According to the judgment of this gentleman, we find he entertains but a very melancholy idea of the ſtate of the monied intereſt, and the inſtability of the public credit of this kingdom. However, we cannot help thinking but this learned writer hath carried his imagination rather too far, it having been ſhewn, under the article of PUBLIC CREDIT, that ſuch is the efficacious operation of a PERMANENT SINKING FUND, that we need not be under ſuch terrible apprehenſions. Nor have we reaſon to deſpair of ſtill having ſuch a clear fund, as will be inviolably applied to the diſcharge of our debts; and which will, in leſs than half the ordinary age of man, effectually reduce all public debts contracted before 1716, by the wars of king William and queen Anne: nay, if our debts had been even an hundred millions in the year 1727, it will clearly appear, from a further continuation of thoſe computations given under PUBLIC CREDIT, that they would have been abſolutely diſcharged by a ſinking fund of one million, only at four per cent. before the year 1770, and, by a ſinking fund of one million at three per cent. before the year 1766; whence it will eaſily be inferred, that if the preſent debts of the nation were even an hundred, inſtead of fourſcore millions, a ſinking fund of a million only, reckoned even at four per cent. would abſolutely diſcharge them in 43 years; and, reckoned at three per cent. in 39 years: and the greater a ſinking fund ſhall be rendered, a debt of ſo great a magnitude would be diſcharged in a leſſer number of years: ſo that the monied intereſt have no reaſon to conſider themſelves in a ſtate of deſperation, as the learned author before quoted ſeems to do.

The longer our debts continue, and the longer thoſe taxes continue upon our general trade for the payment of their intereſt, and redemption of the principal, the longer muſt our commercial intereſt languiſh, and the greater opportunities will other nations have to ſupplant us therein; whereby the revenue muſt be proportionably diminiſhed, and then, perhaps, we can have no great foundation for hope that our debts will ever be paid.

I have dwelt the longer upon the nature and powerful efficacy of a DEBT-PAYING FUND, if I may be allowed the expreſſion, becauſe it appears to be the moſt natural, as well as the moſt effectual way, that ever was propoſed for the payment of our national debts.—It is moreover the moſt gradual, and a method the leaſt detrimental to the public creditors, of diſcharging their debts, and, perhaps, the only way we can fall upon to get out of debt to FOREIGNERS, and contract freſh debts only among ourſelves, by new loans upon new funds, whenever the emergencies of the ſtate require it. See the article PUBLIC CREDIT.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

Since the preceding ſentiments, our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES have ſwelled to ſuch an enormous height, and in ſo few years, that now the moſt ſanguine for the poſſibility of their total diſcharge, are ſtaggered; and many wiſe men think it impoſſible that they ever ſhould be ſo; and conſequently the public creditors muſt become PERPETUAL ANNUITANTS.

Should this prove the caſe, the whole weight of our TAX-INCUMBRANCES muſt perpetually remain for the payment of the annuitants. But this the nation will find difficult to bear, without A CHANGE IN THE WHOLE CONSTITUTION OF THE NATIONAL REVENUE; and even was that done, as is not judged impracticable, it would not preſerve us from future wars; and if we ſtill go on BORROWING and FUNDING, we certainly muſt come to our NE PLUS ULTRA at laſt, and that muſt be, when we can find no NEW TAX FUNDS, whereby to increaſe the national incumbrances. How much longer it can be reaſonably preſumed, that the nation will be able to bear ſuch a ſyſtem to prevail, requires no great foreſight to predict. It can prevail no longer, than that ſuch muſt inevitably be the WEIGHT OF OUR TAXES upon our WHOLE TRADE AND NAVIGATION (for there they ultimately terminate) as to render our commodities in general ſo EXCESSIVELY DEAR, that no foreign nation will be in a capacity to purchaſe them; and when we are diſabled from the SALE OF OUR OWN WARES, how long can we be ſuppoſed able to buy and import thoſe of other nations? Every man ſees that cannot be long.

When this comes to be the caſe, the firſt great branch of the PUBLIC REVENUE that will feel it, will be the CUSTOMS. When the foreign ſales of our manufactures are ſtopt, what likewiſe will be the ſtate of our EXCISES? Muſt not they as well as the CUSTOMS feel the effects? They moſt aſſuredly muſt. How then can the annuitants be paid their revenues, when we have loſt thoſe funds that are mortgaged for that purpoſe? We ſhall not be in a condition to pay them, and we then muſt unavoidably become a BANKRUPT NATION.

Continued

Continued from the article of PUBLIC CREDIT.

COMPUTATIONS at 4 per cent.

	Payments made at Midsummer in every year. l.	s.	d.	Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year. l.	s.	d.
1755				49,977,682	9	6 3/4
1756	2,998,703	5	4	52,976,385	14	10 1/4
	119,948	2	7 1/4			
1757	3,118,651	7	11 1/4	56,095,037	2	9 1/2
	124,746	1	1 1/4			
1758	3,243,397	9	0 1/2	59,338,434	11	10
	129,735	17	11 1/2			
1759	3,373,113	7	0	62,711,547	18	10
	134,924	10	8			
1760	3,508,037	17	8 1/2	66,219,585	16	6
	140,321	10	3 1/2			
1761	3,648,359	7	11 1/2	69,867,945	4	5 1/2
	145,934	7	6			
1762	3,794,293	15	5 1/2	73,662,238	19	11
	151,771	15	0			
1763	3,946,065	10	5 1/2	77,608,304	9	4 1/2
	157,842	12	5 1/4			
1764	4,103,908	2	10 3/4	81,712,212	12	3 1/4
	164,156	6	6			
1765	4,268,064	9	4 3/4	85,980,277	1	8
	170,722	11	6 1/2			
1766	4,438,787	0	11 1/4	90,419,064	2	7 1/4
	177,551	9	6 3/4			
1767	4,616,338	10	6	95,035,402	13	1 1/4
	184,653	10	9 1/4			
1768	4,800,992	1	3 3/4	99,836,394	14	5
	192,039	13	7 3/4	163,605	5	7
1769	4,993,031	14	11 1/2	100,000,000	0	0
	6968	5	0 1/2			
	5,000,000	0	0			

COMPUTATIONS at 3 per cent.

	Payments made at Midsummer in every year. l.	s.	d.	Total of all the payments from the beginning in every year. l.	s.	d.
1750				48,685,134	5	6 3/4
1751	2,960,900	14	10 1/2	51,646,034	0	5 1/4
	88,827	0	5 1/2			
1752	3,049,727	15	4	54,695,761	15	9 1/4
	91,491	16	1 3/4			
1753	3,141,219	11	5 3/4	57,836,981	7	3
	94,236	11	7 3/4			
1754	3,235,456	3	1 1/2	61,072,437	10	4 1/2
	97,063	13	8 1/4			
1755	3,332,519	10	9 3/4	64,404,957	7	2 1/4
	99,975	11	10 3/4			
1756	3,432,495	8	8 1/2	67,837,452	15	10 3/4
	102,974	17	3			
1757	3,535,470	5	11 1/2	71,372,923	1	10 1/4
	106,064	2	2			
1758	3,641,534	8	1 1/2	75,014,457	9	11
	109,246	0	7 3/4			
1759	3,750,780	8	9 1/4	78,765,237	18	9
	112,520	8	3 1/4			
1760	3,863,303	17	0 1/2	82,628,541	15	9 1/2
	115,899	2	3 3/4			
1761	3,979,202	19	4 1/4	86,607,744	15	1 3/4
	119,376	1	10			
1762	4,098,579	1	2 1/4	90,706,323	16	4
	122,957	7	4 1/2			
1763	4,221,536	8	6 3/4	94,927,860	4	10 3/4
	126,646	1	9 1/4			
1764	4,348,182	10	4	99,276,042	15	2 3/4
	130,745	9	6	723,957	4	9 1/2
1765	4,478,927	19	10	100,000,000	0	0
	21,072	2	0			
	4,500,000	0	0			

REMARKS.

Some people ſeem to be quite inſenſible of the weight of our national debts, and therefore judge lightly of the taxes which they have occaſioned, and think to ballance all theſe evils, by highly magnifying the riches of the kingdom in general. This is certainly the way to entail them ſo long upon the nation, 'till we muſt inevitably ſink under them, and be ſwallowed up by a neighbouring potentate, who, at this time is conſulting effectual ways and means to diſcharge their debts. And that ſome efficacious ſcheme for the ſame purpoſe is expedient for this nation, or rather abſolutely neceſſary, I am more convinced than I care to expreſs; for I would not willingly, as a certain great man ſaid upon a ſimilar occaſion, give a handle to our enemies to entertain a mean opinion of us. I know we are a rich and wealthy nation, and have great reſources; but let us conſider what the ſacred hiſtory reports of the riches of Solomon: his treaſure was immenſe, ſuch as enabled him to build a temple at Jeruſalem (according to the computation of learned men) of almoſt incredible value. Yet his riches have long ſince vaniſhed, the place where the temple ſtood, and even Jeruſalem itſelf, that contained it, is ſcarcely now to be found. God forbid that this ſhould ever chance to be our caſe, by going beyond our ſtrength, and not thinking, without delay, of effectual ways and means, for the payment of our national debts. For more matter on this ſubject, ſee the articles CREDIT, PUBLIC CREDIT, FUNDS, DUTIES, EXCHEQUER, LABOUR, TAXES, STOCK-JOBBING; where I ſhall more particularly conſider the effects to the public creditors of paying the debts, and how the leaſt prejudice may be done them, whenever that comes to be the caſe.

DECLARATION, a term of the cuſtom-houſe, and of commerce, in France. It contains a particular account, or invoice, of what is contained in the bales, or caſes, brought to the offices for entrance inward or outward. By the ordinance of the five great farms of 1687, tradeſmen and carriers, on entering goods in France for import or export, are to make delaration of them, which is to contain the quality, weight, number, and meaſure of the goods; the merchant or factor's name that ſends them, and to whom conſigned; the place of lading and delivery, with the marks and number of the bales.

They are to be ſigned by the merchant or owner of the goods, or his factor, or by the carrier only, and regiſtered by the clerks of the office where made.

In a word, 'tis properly a duplicate of the invoices, that remain in the hands of the viſitors, receivers, or comptrollers of the cuſtoms, for ſecurity and juſtification that they have paid the cuſtoms.

On theſe declarations, the clerks give what's called an acquittance of payment.

Carriers and conveyers of goods, whether by land or water, who have not their declarations in hand, are, at their arrival, to declare in the offices, on the regiſter, the number of the bales, &c. their marks and numbers; with charge to make within fifteen days if by land, and ſix weeks if by ſea, a declaration of their goods in full; during which, the bales, &c. are to remain as a depoſit in the office.

When a declaration hath been once given, it may not be augmented or diminiſhed, on pretence of omiſſion or otherwiſe.

When the declarations are made, the goods are to be viewed, weighed, meaſured, and numbered by the clerks: and the cuſtoms due to the king, paid according to the tariffs and orders of council. If a declaration be found falſe in the quality of the merchandizes, they are confiſcated, and all of the ſame invoice, belonging to him who made it, and even whatever elſe is therewith, if belonging to him; but neither the goods nor what elſe is therewith belonging to others, unleſs they are confederates in the fraud. If the declaration be falſe in the quantity, the forfeiture is only of what's not mentioned.

All that's here mentioned concerning regulations in France, is conformable to the ordonnance of the five great farms, of February 1687, title 2. articles 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 13. which enact penalties on thoſe who treſpaſs.

Rule for the form and manner in which the declarations of dealers and merchants are to be made for goods imported into, or exported out of the kingdom, or provinces reputed foreign.

The ſecond title of the ordonnance of farms, in February 1687, ſeems by the cautions to provide againſt the conteſts that might ariſe between merchants and cuſtom-houſe officers, on the ſubject of declarations; which, after forty years experience and difficulties daily occurring herein, being found to need explication; the king in council, having cauſed the memorials of the merchants and farmers to be examined, made a new regulation the 9th of Auguſt 1723, to ſerve for the future, as a certain rule, and to be obſerved in all ports and offices, both within the limits of the five great farms, and in the provinces reputed foreign.

The letters patents enforcing obſervance thereof, are of the 30th of September in the ſame year, and their inrollment in the court of aids the 13th of October following.

The matter of declarations, whether inward or outward, being one of the moſt important of commerce, we ſhall here inſert the nine artices of which this regulation conſiſts.

I. They ſhall contain the quantity, weight, number, and meaſure of the goods; the merchant or factor's name; the place of lading and delivery, with the marks and numbers of the bales in the margin.

II. They ſhall be relative to the tariff; that is to ſay, that the maſter of the veſſel, merchant and carrier, ſhall declare, by weight, goods whoſe cuſtoms are to be paid by weight; by

by meaſure, thoſe which are ſo payable; and by number, thoſe that pay by number.

III. Thoſe declarations ſhall be eſteemed entire with reſpect to goods, the cuſtoms of which are paid by the weight, when the weight of theſe goods exceed not that declared above one tenth, which exceſs being paid, they ſhall not be ſeized or forfeited; but, if it exceed one tenth, that overplus ſhall be forfeited to the farmer of the revenue with a fine of 300 livres for every offence.

IV. The preceding article ſhall not extend to iron, copper, lead, and tin, which may not exceed one twentieth of the weight declared, and, on paying the dues for that exceſs, are not to be ſeized or forfeited, otherwiſe to be liable, as by the laſt article.

V. The declarations of all goods, whoſe cuſtoms are payable by number, ſhall alſo be reckoned compleat, if not exceeding one tenth of the number declared, on paying for the exceſs; and the goods not ſeized or forfeited, otherwiſe they are liable to the penalties of the third article.

VI. With reſpect to coarſe ſugars, ſyrups, oils, and butters, which are goods ſubject to waſte and leakage, the cuſtoms to be on the abſolute weight, without obliging the merchants to a declaration; but only to report the declarations of weight made at the place of lading, and to repreſent the ſame number of pipes, barrels, &c. in good condition.

VII. Carriers and conveyers of goods by land or water, not having their invoices or declarations at their arrival, ſhall make them on the regiſter of the number of their bales, &c. with charge to make particular declaration within 15 days, if by land, and ſix weeks if by ſea; leaving their bales the mean while in the office: on failure, the goods to be forfeited, and the carriers fined 300 livres.

VIII. If goods have taken wet in the voyage, and the weight be increaſed above five in the hundred, deduction ſhall be made of the exceſs over and above the natural weight, to verify which, and make the ſaid deduction, the merchant ſhall produce the invoice; and, if the increaſe exceed not five in the hundred, the farmer ſhall not be obliged to make deduction.

IX. The other articles of the ſecond title of the ordinance in 1687 to be put in execution, according to their form and tenor, in what does not deviate from the preſent regulation.

DEMURRAGE, in commerce, an allowance made to the maſter of a ſhip by the merchants, for ſtaying in a port longer than the time firſt appointed for his departure.

DENBIGHSHIRE is bounded on the ſouth with Montgomeryſhire; on the weſt with thoſe of Merioneth and Caernarvon; on the eaſt with Shropſhire and Cheſhire; and on the north with the Iriſh ſea and Flintſhire. It is in circumference near 118 miles, the air wholeſome, but ſharp, the hills ſurrounding it retaining the ſnow for a long time. The ſoil is various; the moſt pleaſant, fruitful, and healthy part is the Vale of Clwyd. It's rivers of moſt note are the Clwyd, Elwy, Dee, and Conway.

The chief commodity here, beſides goats, ſheep, and black cattle, is rye, commonly called amel-corn, though here are ſeveral mines that yield great parcels of lead ore, particularly that called the marquis of Powis's.

DENBIGH, the county-town, has a good trade, and is inhabited by many glovers and tanners.

WREXHAM has a good market for flannel, which the factors buy up, and ſend to London, it being a conſiderable manufacture, and the chief employ of the poor through all this part of the country.

DENIER TOURNOIS. A ſmall piece of copper-money, formerly current in France, and ſo ſtill in ſome provinces beyond the Loire.

The officers of the mint of France call it deneral, or denier of price, to diſtinguiſh it from what they call denier of weight.

Theſe have been ſeldom coined in France, ſince the year 1049, which, with thoſe coined towards the end of Lewis XIIIth's reign, were the work of the famous Varin, and are maſter pieces, as to money: wherefore the curious keep them among the moſt rare medals.

They have been ſometimes taken for the maille; though this denier, which has alſo been a current ſpecies, was only a part and ſubdiviſion thereof, and worth but half the denier.

There are at preſent in France ſeveral little copper-pieces, which, having no proper name, are diſtinguiſhed only by their value in deniers: ſuch are the pieces of 36, 30, 24, 18, 12, 6, 4, and 2 deniers. The pieces of 4, and of 2 deniers, were coined at Straſbourg, for currency in the province of Alſace, purſuant to the declaration of the 6th of Sept. 1695. Thoſe of 6 deniers were coined in the mints of Aix, Montpelier, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, by the edict of October 1709, and are little current.

DENMARK, one of the moſt antient kingdoms of Europe, is divided into two parts by the Baltic ſea; namely, the Peninſula annexed to the continent of Germany, and the iſlands. The former, which contains the duchy of Holſtein, South-Jutland, or Sleſwick, and North-Jutland, is bounded on the weſt and north by the German ocean; on the eaſt by that part of the ſea called Categate, and the Middle-fort Sound; and on the ſouth by the river Elbe. It's greateſt length from ſouth to north is about 224 miles; but it's breadth (not including the iſlands) is not above 74 miles; and in ſome places much narrower. The iſlands, which make up the other part of this kingdom, are Zealand, Funen, Langeland, Laland, Falſter, Bornholm, and many others of leſs note.

The air, though very cold in Denmark, is not ſo ſharp as in ſome places of Germany, though ſituated much more to the ſouth; the vapours of the ſea, ſurrounding it, melting and diſſolving the nitrous particles, carried by the wind from northern countries, before they arrive here.

The ſoil, though in moſt places barren and mountainous, has good paſtures, which feed vaſt herds of kine, and an excellent race of horſes; but the country in general produces but little corn.

It has no rivers navigable for veſſels of any conſiderable burden. There are lakes which afford a good quantity of fiſh; and the foreſts are abundantly ſtocked with veniſon of all ſorts, and wild fowl in great plenty.

It's commodities for exportation are very few; cattle is the chief, which they ſell to the Netherlands: but, as for manufactures, they have ſo few as not to deſerve notice.

SOUTH JUTLAND, or the duchy of SLESWICK.

Chief towns of this duchy are as follow:

1. SLESWICK, the capital, ſeated on a ſmall arm of the ſea, called the Sley, was formerly a place of very great trade, but it is now almoſt dwindled to nothing.
2. GOTTORP, about ſix miles from Sleſwick to the ſouth-weſt, of note only for it's fortreſs, and noble palace. Here is a toll-booth or cuſtom-houſe, where toll is paid for great numbers of black cattle, that paſs from Jutland into Germany, and produces a conſiderable ſum to the king, the toll being ſome years for above 50,000 head of cattle.
3. TONNINGEN has a pretty good trade, which increaſes daily, by means of it's commodious harbour, formed by the Eyder, on which it is ſituated; it is much frequented by the Dutch for black cattle.
4. HUSUM has a harbour capable of ſmall veſſels, and every week a market for cattle, the neighbouring country abounding with paſtures; in time of war, above 4000 horſes have been ſold here in a year. In the gulph, on the weſt of the town, they fiſh vaſt quantities of excellent oyſters.
5. FLENSBURG, ſo called from the bay or gulph on which it ſtands, and which is formed by the Baltic. The bay makes a fine haven, where ſhips of great burden may ride ſafe, and come up to the very warehouſes.
6. APENRADE ſtands on another gulph of the Baltic, ſixteen miles north-weſt of Flenſburg. It has a port at the bottom of the bay, much frequented by the Daniſh fiſhermen, and has a pretty good trade with the adjacent iſlands.
7. HADERSLEBEN is a good ſea-port town, near 20 miles north of Apenrade. The country about it abounds with fruitful corn fields, and excellent paſtures, which, with the fiſh taken out of the lake and gulph near it, render this a pretty flouriſhing place.
8. TUNDER lies in a fruitful ſoil, and had formerly a conſiderable trade, now loſt, the harbour being choaked up with ſand.

NORTH JUTLAND.

The moſt conſiderable towns herein are:

1. REPIN, a place of conſiderable trade. Hither are brought almoſt all the black cattle from many parts of Jutland, which are ſhipped off, eſpecially for Holland: and they export corn to neighbouring countries, all which afford them great profit.
2. COLDING, though it lies commodious for trade, has hardly any but in cattle.
3. RINCOPING lies on a bay of the German ocean, made by a neck of land 25 miles in length from north to ſouth, ſo that ſhips ride in the port ſafe from all winds.
4. AARHUS, at the mouth of the river Gude, which runs through it, and a little lower falls into the Categate, is a neat pleaſant town, well ſupplied with all neceſſaries, and has a good harbour.
5. RANDERS, on the river Gude alſo, is a place of good trade, and famous for the beſt ſalmon in Jutland.
6. SCHEVE has the reputation of breeding the beſt horſes in the north.
7. SCHAGEN is more frequented by merchants from all parts of Europe, than any other town in Jutland, becauſe they touch here in their way to the Sound. It's trade would be far greater, but for the dangerous coaſt it lies on.

The ISLANDS of DENMARK.

ZEALAND, the largeſt and moſt fruitful in the Baltic ſea, is, in length, about 68 miles, and in breadth about 60. In it are the following conſiderable cities or towns:

1. COPENHAGEN, the capital of the kingdom, is thus called from it's ſafe and commodious harbour; it's name ſignifying the merchant's port. And it may be juſtly reckoned, in all reſpects, one of the beſt in the whole world.
2. HELSENEUR is about 20 miles diſtant from Copenhagen to the north, and is defended by the neighbouring impregnable caſtle

caſtle of Croonenburg, which commands this ſide of the Sound, as Helſinburg does the other. Every ſhip that paſſes this ſtreight muſt ſtrike ſail at Croonenburg, and come to the town to compound for the cuſtom, under penalty of forfeiting veſſel and cargo.

3. FREDERICKSBURG, a ſmall town 20 miles north-weſt of Copenhagen, is of note only for the ſtately caſtle and royal palace that ſtand near it.
4. HOLBECK, a pretty conſiderable town, ſtands at the bottom of a narrow bay, that affords it ſome trade.
5. KALLUNBURG has a ſafe harbour, and pretty good trade.
6. KOGE is a ſmall but very populous town, ſeated on a bay of the Sound. It is enriched by trade, which conſiſts chiefly in corn and fiſh.

FUNEN is about 36 miles from eaſt to weſt, and 30 from north to ſouth. It is better peopled than Zealand. The moſt conſiderable towns for trade are:

1. ODENSEE, a large handſome town. They brew here excellent beer, reckoned the beſt in all Denmark.
2. NYBURG, about 13 miles eaſt of Odenſee, has an excellent port, which occaſions ſome trade. Here people embark to paſs into Zealand.
3. SCHWINBORG is a pleaſant town, and has a large and commodious harbour.

ARROE, LANGELAND, LALAND, and the reſt of the ſmaller iſlands of Denmark. Theſe have no towns of any conſiderable trade.

The port of Copenhagen is not only the fineſt in the Baltic ſea, but alſo one of the moſt commodious in all Europe. So that the chief trade of Denmark is carried on here, though there is ſome at Elſineur. But the trade of either of theſe cities is ſmall, in compariſon of that on the reſt of the Baltic. Goods, which ſell beſt in Denmark, are ſalt, chiefly that of Spain and Portugal, rather than of France; but the wines and brandies of France are the moſt eſteemed. Great quantities of paper are alſo imported; gold and ſilver ſtuff; ſilk and woollen ſtuffs, chiefly thoſe of Holland; ſpiceries and drugs.

Tallow, hemp, cod, ſtock-fiſh, and wheat and rye from Zealand, are the chief commodities they export, timber being prohibited.

The Dutch tranſport alſo from Jutland great numbers of lean cattle, which they fatten in their paſtures, with conſiderable advantage.

The French have an advantage over other nations in paſſing the Sound, that their goods are not inſpected; nor need they, if they will not pay the cuſtoms 'till three months after, on the maſter's declaration and bill of lading.

The cities next to Copenhagen for trade, are Ulſted, Chriſtianſtadt, Carelſcroon, Saltſbourg, Carelſhaven, and chiefly Elſeneur. From all which are exported ſmall mats, fir-planks, pitch and tar, tallow, ox and cow-hides, and deer-ſkins.

Theſe cities, except the capital, are chiefly traded with by exchange of the merchandize, or with rixdollars carried thither in ſpecie.

Accounts are kept there in rixdollars, marcs, and ſhillings Dantz. The rixdollar at the rate of 6 marcs, or 4 oorts; the marc 16 ſchellings, and the ſchelling 3 penins. The oort is 24 ſchellings, or one mark and half.

Two Daniſh marcs of 116 ſols Danois, make one marc lubs of 8 ſols.

Copenhagen exchanges with Amſterdam, and gives a 107 rixdollars, more or leſs, for 100 rixdollars banco of Amſterdam. Bills of exchange have ten days of grace.

Frederic IV. in December 1699, enacted, that for the future the new-ſtile ſhould be obſerved in all his dominions.

Weights and meaſures of Denmark.

The weight at Copenhagen for heavy goods, is the ſchippond of 320 pounds. It is divided into 20 lieſponds, and each lieſpond into 161.

The pound is leſs than that of France and Amſterdam by about $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. The ell is one third leſs than that of Holland, and equal to the Engliſh yard.

The 100 feet of Copenhagen make $103\frac{1}{3}$ at Amſterdam.

Real money current at Copenhagen.

The par of the following money is calculated on the rate of the rixdaelder of 6 marcs Danois, amounting to 5 livres of France (in 1751.)

A roſe noble is 4 rixdaelders, or 24 marcs Danois, or 20 livres of France.

The ducat, 2 rixdaelders, or 12 marcs Danois, or 10 livres French.

A rixdaelder or daller is 6 marcs Danois, or 5 livres French. It is alſo 3 marcs lubs, or 48 ſchellings lubs, or 96 ſchellings Danois.

The halft, or $\frac{1}{2}$ rixdaelder, and the $\frac{1}{4}$ in proportion.

A ſlicht daller, 4 marcs Danois, or 32 ſchellings lubs, or 3 livres 6 ſols French.

The halft or demi ſlicht daller, and the quarter in proportion.

A rix marc Danois, 16 ſchellings lubs or ſtivers a Danois, in French money 1 livre 13 ſols.

The lubs ſchelin, or ſchelling of Lubec, is one ſchelling Danois, 3 fenins or doubles, in French money 1 ſol.

In 1710, the king of Denmark cauſed pieces to be ſtruck of 12 ſols Danois, or 6 ſols of Lubec; not to mention other leſſer pieces, and of an inferior intrinſic value by 13 per cent. which occaſioned confuſion in the agio, and daily buſineſs at Hamburgh, that money advancing the agio to 25 per cent. to the year 1717, and in 1724 to 33.

In 1726 theſe pieces were reduced on the part of Denmark, from 6 to 5 ſols, and the other ſmall pieces in proportion; and thoſe of 16 to 15. This reduced the intrinſic value as near as poſſible to that of the good money of Hamburgh, which by that means became 2 per cent. better than that of the new current money there.

The crowns of Denmark are 32 ſols of banque in fine ſilver, at Hamburgh.

REMARKS.

The paſſage or ſtreight, called the Sound, is between the iſle of Zealand and the continent of Scanie. On the Swediſh ſide is the city of Helſingbourg, with a ruined caſtle, between which and Elſeneur, all ſhips trading to the Baltic paſs and repaſs; ſo that, next to the ſtreight of Gibraltar, it is the moſt important and frequented.

The loſs of Schonen, though it was conſiderable to the Danes, in regard to the largeneſs and fruitfulneſs of the province, yet it was more ſo, with reſpect to the dominion of this great paſſage. For though the Danes, by the treaty of peace, have expreſsly retained their title to it, and receive toll from all ſhips that paſs, except thoſe of the Swedes, yet they do not eſteem the ſecurity of that title ſo firm as they could wiſh; for, not being maſters of the land on both ſides, they may have the right, but not the power, to aſſert it upon occaſion; and ſeem only to enjoy it according to their good behaviour; their ſtronger neighbours, the Swedes, being able to make uſe of the firſt opportunity given them to their prejudice.

This toll being very conſiderable, and having occaſioned many diſputes, it may not be amiſs to inſert here an account of the original and nature of it.

It is ſaid to have been at firſt laid by the conſent of the traders into the Baltic, who were willing to allow a ſmall matter for each ſhip that paſſed, towards maintaining of lights on certain places of that coaſt, for the better direction of ſailors in dark nights: hereupon this paſſage of the Sound became the moſt uſed; that other of the Great Belt being in a little time quite neglected, as well becauſe of the great conveniency of thoſe lights to ſhips paſſing in and out of the Eaſt-Sea, as becauſe of an agreement made, that no ſhip ſhould paſs the other way, that all might pay their ſhares; it being unreaſonable that ſuch ſhips ſhould have the advantage of thoſe lights in dark or ſtormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards maintaining thoſe fires, by paſſing another way in good weather.

Beſides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been ſo inſignificant, conſidering the ſmall ſum each ſhip was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge, ſolely for the uſe of their own trading ſhips, becauſe they were maſters of ſo few, as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other hanſe-towns, being the greateſt traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe, by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches. But there being no fixed rule, or treaty, to be governed by, with regard to the different bulk of the ſhips belonging to ſo many different nations, the Danes began, in proceſs of time, to grow arbitrary, and exacted ſmaller or greater ſums, according to the ſtrength or weakneſs of thoſe they had to deal with, or according to their friendſhip or diſcontent with thoſe princes or ſtates, to whom the ſeveral ſhips belonged: therefore the emperor Charles V. to aſcertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was ſigned at Spire on the Rhine, and was in behalf of his ſubjects of the Netherlands, who had a great traffic in the Baltic, and agreed, that, as a toll-cuſtom in the Sound, every ſhip of 200 tons, and under, ſhould pay two roſe-nobles at it's entrance into, or return from the Baltic; and every ſhip above 200 tons, three roſe-nobles. A roſe-noble is worth about eighteen ſhillings ſterling.

This agreement remained in force, 'till ſuch time as the United Provinces ſhook off the Spaniſh yoke; and then the Danes, taking an advantage of thoſe wars, raiſed their toll to an extravagant rate, the troubleſome times not affording the Dutch leiſure to mind the redreſſing ſuch a miſchief. However, about the year 1600, they joined themſelves with the city of Lubeck, in oppoſition to ſuch an extravagant toll as was taken from both of them; that from thenceforth the Dutch paid more, or leſs, as fortune was favourable, or adverſe to them, but generally little. In 1647, the firſt treaty was made

made between Denmark and the United Provinces, as ſovereigns, for this toll; and they were obliged to pay a certain ſum for each ſhip. This was to continue forty years; after which, if in the mean time no new treaty were made, that of Spire was to be in force.

This treaty of 1647 expired in 1687, and the Danes agreed to make an interim-treaty, 'till ſuch time as the many differences between them and the Hollanders, in this and other matters, could be adjuſted at leiſure, and concluded by a more laſting and ſolemn one.

This interim-treaty, which was but for four years, expired in 1691; ſo that, no new treaty being made and compleated during that time, the antient treaty of Spire remains in force, and no other.

The treaties of the Engliſh with Denmark are grounded on thoſe between the Dutch and that kingdom, and have reference to them, with a covenant, that we ſhall be treated as a nation in the ſtricteſt friendſhip with the Danes.

From this ſhort hiſtory of the original of this impoſition, it appears how ſlightly grounded the king of Denmark's title is to this right; which from an eaſy contribution the merchants choſe to pay for their own conveniency, and whereof the king of Denmark was only treaſurer or truſtee, to ſee it fairly laid out for the common uſe, is grown to be a heavy impoſition upon trade, as well as a kind of a ſervile acknowledgment of his ſovereignty of thoſe ſeas; and is purely owing to his taking an advantage of the difficulties of the Hollanders during their wars with Spain, and the connivance of king James I. in prejudice of the Engliſh; he favouring the Danes, upon account of his marriage to a daughter of that crown; and, upon theſe two examples, all the leſſer ſtates were forced to ſubmit.

Nor is it conceiveable how it could be otherwiſe brought about; ſince it is very well known, that the paſſage of the Sound is not the only one into the Baltic, there being two others, called the Greater and the Leſſer Belt; the former is ſo commodious and large, that, during the wars between the Danes and the Swedes, the whole Dutch fleet choſe to paſs through it, and continued in it for four or five months together: and the Daniſh ſtrength at ſea never appeared yet ſo formidable, as to oblige the Engliſh and Dutch to chuſe which paſſage it pleaſed. Beſides, the breadth of the Sound, in the narroweſt part, is four Engliſh miles over, and every where of a ſufficient depth; ſo that the king of Denmark's caſtles could not command the channel, when he was maſter of both ſides; much leſs, now he has but one. It is plain, therefore, this pretended ſovereignty is very precarious, being partly founded on a breach of truſt, as well as on the careleſſneſs of ſome princes concerned in it, to the great injury of trade.

This toll affords the king yearly a conſiderable profit, though much leſs than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced 240,000 rix dollars per annum; but, ſince 1645, it has not yielded above 190,000; ſome years not above 80,000; and, in 1691, it did not extend to full 70,000.

Further Remarks.

This country has infinite advantage of a ſea-coaſt for the encouragement of navigation; and their king, by that means, has a tolerable good fleet. Yet, as obſerved, they have only the port of Copenhagen that is conſiderable. But their whole country does not ſupply any great matter for merchandizing; they have few of the eſſential funds of trade; they have neither an extraordinary produce of the earth, nor manufactures among the people: and ſome have aſſerted, that they ſcarce ever loaded one ſhip with their own productions and manufactures, to any part of the world, except corn, and that not very frequently.

At preſent, indeed, in imitation of many other powers of Europe, they ſeem to give more than ordinary attention to the affairs of commerce and navigation, as well in the Eaſt-Indies as in Europe; and their merchants begin to increaſe not only at Copenhagen, but at Altena near Hamburgh, who indeed are not, properly ſpeaking, to be called merchants of Denmark, though many of them are Danes, and they are admirably ſituated for the fiſheries great and ſmall; that is, for the herring-fiſhery, and for the north-ſea cod-fiſhing, which is on their own coaſt, and for the whole fiſhery in Greenland; but they do not ſeem to exert themſelves in any but the whale-fiſhing, and that to no great degree; but, on the contrary, they buy their herrings, and their train oil, and their whalebone of the Dutch: ſo indolent have they been 'till lately, and ſo averſe to trade, that though the beſt harponiers, and the beſt ſteerſmen, and moſt ſkilled in the whale-fiſhing, are found among the ſubjects of the king of Denmark, particularly in Jutland, Sleſwick, Ditmerſan, and thoſe parts; yet they generally go to Greenland, in the ſervice of the Dutch, the Bremers, or the Hamburghers.

Some years ſince they made a new ſettlement upon the point of that country we call Greenland, at the entrance of Davis's Streights, and planted ſome people there. But the trade with the inhabitants ſeems ſo inconſiderable, and the climate ſo ſeverely cold, that we can hardly ſuppoſe it will ever encourage the people to bear the extremities of the ſeaſon, for the ſake of the profits of it. Their returns from thence are nothing but ſkins of beaſts, bear, fox, ſeal, deer, ſome beaver, and a little train oil: the goods they vend are chiefly coarſe woollen cloth and flannel, with ſome linen, all for clothing; the reſt is in wrought iron, tools, fire-arms, fiſhing-tackle, and the like.

The Danes, as they have neither mines or manufactures, are principally employed, either as ſeamen by the Hamburghers, Lubeckers, and Hollanders, or as countrymen in breeding and feeding of cattle. The country of Jutland is exceeding fruitful in graſs, breeds very large black cattle, and good horſes. This affords them a quantity of butter, hides, and tallow; and theſe are the chief of their exportation on that ſide. The overplus of their cattle are driven lean into Holland, to be fatted there, as the Scots and Welch drive theirs into England for ſale.

The fat cattle are ſent to Hamburgh, Lubeck, and over the Elbe, into that part of Germany called the circles of Weſtphalia and Lower Saxony, where, it is ſaid, the Danes, ſome years ſince, did not ſell leſs than 50,000 head of fat bullocks, beſides a great number of horſes; but it was a great loſs to them when the Dutch prohibited the Jutland bullocks, upon which the king of Denmark forbad their buying horſes in his country.

To the dominions of Denmark, as we have before more particularly obſerved, muſt be added that of Norway, which, though a ſeparate kingdom, and formerly a very powerful one, governed by a king of it's own, is now ſubject to the crown of Denmark, and in a great meaſure compenſates, by it's trade and ſhipping, the deficiency of Denmark itſelf.

Though the ſoil of this country is the moſt barren of any of the northern parts of the world, yet, by reaſon of the numberleſs large woods of fir, which every where cover the ground, and by the prodigious length of it's coaſt, which extends from latitude 58. ½ to the north kyn, or cape, in latitude 71, it is made opulent by exporting their fir timber, deals, maſts, yards, ſpars, baulks, &c. as alſo pitch and tar, more or leſs, to almoſt all the neighbouring nations, eſpecially to thoſe which have any thing of maritime commerce. This trade, alſo becomes a nurſery of ſeamen to the king of Denmark, whenever he has occaſion to man his fleet.

They take no inconſiderable quantity of white fiſh on their coaſt, which we call ſtock-fiſh, and which the Dutch and Hamburghers conſtantly buy to victual their ſhips. They catch, alſo, abundance of lobſters on their coaſts; but this is more generally done by the Engliſh and Dutch.

They ſupply Great-Britain and Holland, France and Spain, with ſo great a quantity of fir-timber, deals, &c. that they do not thereby load ſo few as 2000 ſhips a year, and return ſeven-eighths, at leaſt, of the value in ready money; and ſome have complained in England, that they carry away the greateſt quantity of our current coin of any trade whatever, they coveting chiefly our crowns and half-crown pieces, which go current in Norway to good advantage, and are frequently ſeen as plentiful there almoſt as in England itſelf, in proportion to the place.

As this branch of the timber trade is generally allowed to be ſo detrimental to Great-Britain, ſhould we not, by every meaſure in our power, encourage our own navigation, by building large bulky ſhips, ſuch as are uſed by the Danes and Swedes, in order to import part, at leaſt, of our timber from our preſent extenſive new acquiſitions in North America. See America, British America, Colonies, Plantations.

Remarks ſince the Treaty of 1763.

The Definitive Treaty of 1763, having annexed Canada and it's Dependencies, and thereby including all the French Louisiana, contained on the eaſtern ſide of the Miſſiſſippi; and ſince that treaty has likewiſe ſecured to us the freedom of navigation on the Miſſiſſippi, through the Gulph of Mexico, and obtained for us all Spaniſh Florida, and in conſequence thereof the ports and harbours of Mobille and Penſacola in the ſame gulph; ſince now we are poſſeſſed of the Port of St. Auguſtine, alſo in the Gulph of Florida, and that there is ceded to us in America, all the Gulph and River of St. Lawrence, and Cape Breton, and we have gained, without reſtriction, all Acadia and its dependencies, and that there is a final end to all our former diſputes and controverſies, in North America, in general, what hinders that we ſhall not be able to ſupply ourſelves with all the timber we can ſtand in need of, from theſe vaſt continental poſſeſſions? That there is timber enough, and of the various kinds wherein we ſtand in need, in North America, may be ſeen under our ſeveral colonies, as we have deſcribed them.—And ſince we are poſſeſſed of the navigation of the river Miſſiſſippi, and all it's divers branches to the eaſtward, and of the rivers Mobille and Penſacola, the Ohio, and of many of the great lakes, we can hardly ſtand in need of water carriage to convey the timber from the ſeveral internal parts, where it abounds. If we want people to fell it, ſhould not all meaſures be taken to people our new acquiſitions, for this and other

other important purpoſes, which theſe territories will admit of? Are there not proteſtants enough to be drawn, by reaſonable encouragement, from all parts of Europe? There certainly is; and therefore it will be inexcuſable, if we do not ſupply ourſelves with all the timber we have occaſion for from Norway; and will not this ſave the nation ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds per ann. and proportionally improve our American navigation.

DERBYSHIRE is bounded on the eaſt with Nottinghamſhire, and a part of Leiceſterſhire, which alſo bounds it on the ſouth; on the weſt by Staffordſhire, and part of Cheſhire; and, on the north, by Yorkſhire: in circumference about 130 miles. It's chief rivers are the Dove and Derwent. The air on the eaſt ſide is wholeſome and agreeable; but, in the Peak, ſharper, and more variable as to rain and wind. The ſoil is in ſome parts well cultivated and fruitful, in others barren and mountainous, hence called the Peak, from a Saxon word, ſignifying an eminence; but its ſubterraneous riches in mines and quarries make this tract almoſt as profitable as the other part, it yielding great quantities of the beſt lead, antimony, mill-ſtones, ſcythe-ſtones, and grind-ſtones, marble, alabaſter, green and white vitriol, allum, pit-coal, and iron, for the forming of which, here are forges, which, with the lead and other conſiderable works, conſume ſuch quantities of wood, that the country has little left.

BUXTON WELLS, in this county, are much reſorted to for their waters, which create a good appetite, and open obſtructions. This bath is of a temperate heat, and recommended by phyſicians, both for drinking and bathing, particularly in ſcorbutic or rheumatic complaints.

At MATLOCK, a village on the banks of the Derwent, are the ſmelting-mills, at which they melt the lead ore, and run it into a mould, where it is formed into pigs, and afterwards refined for it's ſilver: the bellows are kept in motion by water. See the article LEAD.

DERBY, the county-town, ſituate on the weſt bank of the Derwent, over which it has a very fine ſtone bridge, well-built, but ancient. The river has lately been made navigable into the Trent. It is a fine, beautiful, and pleaſant town, and has more families of gentlemen in it than is uſual in towns ſo remote; perhaps the more, becauſe the Peak, which takes up the larger part of the county, is ſo inhoſpitable, rugged, and wild a place, that the gentry chuſe to reſide at Derby, rather than upon their eſtates, as they do elſewhere.

REMARKS.

Here is a curioſity of a very extraordinary nature, and the only one of the kind in theſe kingdoms: I mean thoſe mills on the river Derwent, which work the three capital Italian engines for the making organzine, or thrown ſilk; which, before theſe mills were erected, was purchaſed by the Engliſh merchants, with ready money, in Italy; by which invention one hand will twiſt as much ſilk as before could be done by fifty, and that in a much truer and better manner.

This engine contains 26,586 wheels, and 97,746 movements, which work 73,726 yards of ſilk-thread, every time the water-wheel goes round, which is three times in one minute, and 318,504,960 yards in one day and night. One water-wheel gives motion to all the reſt of the wheels and movements, of which any one may be ſtopped ſeparately. One fire-engine, likewiſe, conveys warm air into every individual part of the machine, and the whole work is governed by one regulator. The houſe which contains this engine is not only five or ſix ſtories high, but not leſs than half a quarter of a mile in length.

The model of this engine is ſaid to have been taken by the brother of the late Sir Thomas Lombe, merchant of the city of London, from the original in the king of Sardinia's dominions, who, under the diſguiſe of a common workman, or by ſome other artifice, ſecretly drew the plan thereof upon paper, and then made his eſcape to England, and communicated the ſame to his brother Sir Thomas, who acting in concert with him, employed an excellent practical mechanic, one Soracle, a perſon admirably well ſkilled in mill-work, and with the aid of the draughtſman, Mr Lombe, they jointly completed the whole piece of machinery; which has proved of no little advantage to the ſilk trade of theſe kingdoms in general.

In the fifth year of the reign of George I. a patent paſſed to ſecure to Sir Thomas Lombe the ſole property of this machine for 14 years, it being looked upon, in this kingdom, as a new invention for the intereſt of trade; but the requiſite buildings and engines, and the inſtructing of proper perſons to work them, took up ſo much time, that the term of 14 years was near elapſed before Sir Thomas could make any advantage thereof: whereupon he applied to parliament for a conſideration from the public; and the parliament accordingly, to preſerve ſo uſeful an undertaking for the benefit of the kingdom in general, allotted 14,000 l. to be paid to Sir Thomas, on condition that he ſhould allow a perfect model to be taken of his new-diſcovered engines, in order to ſecure and perpetuate the art of making the ſame.

The preamble to this act ſets forth, That Sir Thomas Lombe did, with the utmoſt difficulty and hazard, and at a very great expence, diſcover the art of making and working the three capital engines made uſe of by the Italians to make their organzine ſilk, and did introduce theſe arts and inventions into this kingdom, &c.

Daily experience convincing us that foreigners are prying into every myſtery of trade belonging to theſe kingdoms, and ſtealing away our very artiſts themſelves, it is certainly for our intereſt to retaliate upon them, and endeavour to introduce whatever peculiar arts and branches of commerce, wherein they alſo excel, into our own kingdoms: and if, by the payment of our national debts, and, in conſequence thereof, the reduction of our taxes on trade, we can be capable of ſelling our commodities equally cheap, how can they eaſily ſupplant us at foreign markets?

While other trading nations ſhall be conſtantly making advances in their traffic, by ſhorter ways of labour, and every other art that the human mind can poſſibly inveſtigate, we cannot expect to maintain our ground in the commercial ſyſtem that now prevails over the world, unleſs we encourage the like arts. If other nations ſhall make uſe of ſaw-mills for their timber, whereby one man will perform the buſineſs of ten, or more, in the manual laborious way; if another nation ſhall make uſe of ſilk or woollen looms for the manufactures of their cloth, &c. whereby the dexterity of one artiſt can do more than 20 hands can by the means of knitting-needles: will not that nation who joins the art of mechaniſm to that of labour, be able to make their manufactures ſurprizingly cheaper than thoſe who prefer the mere corporal drudgery to the gift of ſcience? The great things to be executed by the means of mechanical powers, founded on geometrical principles, are wonderful to the Indian, who is totally ignorant thereof: the application of the mere lever and the pulley would aſtoniſh him, and infinitely more the ſaying of Archemides, Da mihi punctum, & terram movebo. It is true, that, when the machine for ſtocking-weaving was firſt invented, it deprived many thouſands of their bread pro tempore, who got their living by knitting of that article of apparel: ſo, likewiſe, when printing was invented, thoſe who were ſupported by mere writing were gradually laid aſide.—But no one will preſume to maintain, that, if other nations fall into theſe, and ſuch like arts, whereby they greatly leſſen the expence of their manufactures, we ought to deſpiſe what they embrace.

Nothing certainly is more univerſally beneficial to commerce in general, than the mechanic arts, which are founded on geometrical principles, and applicable to an infinite variety of engines.—The ſupreme wiſdom, by creating man ſo little and ſo weak, had, in all appearance, no other intention than to render him active, ingenious, and induſtrious. Senſible, therefore, of his indigence, he turns himſelf every way; he calls to his ſuccour force againſt force, velocity againſt gravity, and gravity againſt velocity, one ſhock, in ſhort, againſt another. Thus, by the aid of mechanics, this little being, not above five or ſix feet high, with two arms only, will diſpatch as much work as a giant, whom one would imagine to have a thouſand. The large and maſſy bodies with which nature abounds would ſeem almoſt to drive him to deſpair. What would become of him, when any violent tempeſt ariſes? How will he croſs rapid and deep waters, that obſtruct his paſſage? By the power of mechanics, he keeps nature in ſubjection; the winds are ſubſervient to his direction, and convey him at pleaſure beyond the ſeas; he erects ſuch edifices as will ſerve from one age to another; he throws ſuch bridges over rivers, that become of unſpeakable benefit to trade, and that poſterity will look on with admiration.

The moſt common machines made uſe of to ſupply his want of ſtrength, are the lever; the beam, or ballance, with equal or unequal arms; the pulley, ſimple or compounded; the fixed or moveable pullies; the axle-tree and all capſtanes; the crane and calender; the dented wheel, the ſcrew, the wedge, and mills of all kinds.—The due application of theſe to the uſes of trade is ſo great, that ſtudies of this kind cannot be too cloſely purſued in a trading nation. See the article MECHANICAL ARTS.

DESIGN, or DESIGNING, in the manufactories, expreſſes the figures wherewith the workman enriches his ſtuff, or ſilk, and which he copies after ſome painter, or eminent draughtſman; as in diaper, damaſk, and other flowered ſilk and tapeſtry, and the like, &c.

In undertaking of ſuch kinds of figured ſtuffs, it is neceſſary, ſays Monſ. Savary, that, before the firſt ſtroke of the ſhuttle, the whole deſign be repreſented on the threads of the warp; we do not mean in colours, but with an infinite number of little packthreads, which being diſpoſed ſo as to raiſe the threads of the warp, let the workmen ſee, from time to time, what kind of ſilk is to be put in the eye of the ſhuttle for woof. This method of preparing the work is called reading the deſign, and reading the figure, which is performed after the following manner:

A paper is provided, conſiderably broader than the ſtuff, and of a length proportionate to what is intended to be repreſented thereon. This they divide lengthwiſe, by as as many black lines

lines as there are intended to be threads in the warp; and croſs theſe lines by others drawn breadthwiſe, which, with the former, make little equal ſquares.

On the paper thus ſquared the draughtſman deſigns his figures, and heightens them with colours, as he ſees fit. When the deſign is finiſhed, a workman reads it, while another lays it on the ſimblot.

To read the deſign, is to tell the perſon who manages the loom the number of ſquares, or threads, compriſed in the ſpace he is reading, intimating, at the ſame time, whether it is ground or figure.

To put what is ready on the ſimblot, is to faſten little ſtrings to the ſeveral packthreads, which are to raiſe the threads named: this they continue to do, 'till the whole is read.

Every piece being compoſed of ſeveral repetitions of the ſame deſign, when the whole deſign is drawn, the drawer to rebegin the deſign afreſh, has nothing to do but raiſe the little ſtrings with ſlip-knots to the top of the ſimblot, which he had let down to the bottom. This he is to repeat as is neceſſary, 'till the whole be manufactured.

The ribbon-weavers have likewiſe a deſign, but far more ſimple than that we have deſcribed. It is drawn on paper, with lines and ſquares, repreſenting the threads of the warp and woof. But inſtead of lines, of which the figures of the former conſiſt, theſe are conſtituted of points only, or dots, placed in certain of the little ſquares, formed by the interſection of the lines. Theſe points mark the threads of the warp that are to be raiſed, and the ſpaces left blank denote the threads that are to keep their ſituation. The reſt is managed as in the former.

DESIGN is alſo uſed, in painting, for the firſt idea of a large work, drawn roughly, and in little, with intention to be executed and finiſhed in large. The art of painting has been, by ſome of the greateſt maſters, divided into the deſign, or draught, the proportion, the expreſſion, the clair-obſcure, the ordonnance, the colouring, and the perſpective. See the article PAINTING.

Deſign in painting is the ſimple contour, or outlines of the figures intended to be repreſented, or the lines that terminate and circumſcribe them. Such deſign is ſometimes drawn in crayons, or ink, without any ſhadows at all; ſometimes it is hatched, that is, the ſhadows are expreſſed by ſenſible lines, uſually drawn acroſs each other with the pen, crayon, or graver. Sometimes, again, the ſhadows are done with the crayon rubbed, ſo as there do not appear any lines: at other times, the grains or ſtrokes of the crayon appear, as not being rubbed: ſometimes the deſign is waſhed, that is, the ſhadows are done with a pencil, in Indian-ink, or ſome other liquor; and ſometimes the deſign is coloured, that is, colours are laid on much like thoſe intended for the grand work. The eſſential requiſites of a deſign are correctneſs, good taſte, elegance, character, diverſity, expreſſion, and perſpective. Correctneſs depends on the proportions, and a knowledge of anatomy. Taſte is a certain manner of deſigning, peculiar to one's ſelf, derived either from nature, maſters, or ſtudies, or all of them unitedly. Elegance gives a delicacy that not only ſtrikes perſons of judgment, but communicates an agreeableneſs that pleaſes univerſally. The character is what is peculiar to each thing; wherein there muſt be diverſity, inaſmuch as every thing has it's particular character to diſtinguiſh it. The expreſſion is the repreſentation of the parts of a painting, or figure, according to the ſituation they are in with reſpect to the point of ſight.

The deſign, or draught, is a part of the greateſt import and extent in painting. It is acquired chiefly by genius and application, rules being of leſs avail here than in any of the other branches of the art, as colouring, clair-obſcure, expreſſion, &c.

The principal rules given by the beſt maſters that regard deſign are, that novices accuſtom themſelves to copy good originals at firſt ſight: not to uſe ſquares in drawing, for fear of ſtinting and confining their judgment: to deſign well after the life, before they begin the practice of perſpective rules: in deſigning after the life, to learn to adjuſt the magnitude of their figures to the viſual angles, and the diſtance of the eye from the model, or object: to mark out all the parts of their deſign before they begin to ſhadow: to make their contours in great pieces, without taking notice of the little muſcles, and other breaks: to make themſelves maſters of the rules of perſpective: to obſerve every ſtroke as to it's perpendicular parallel and diſtance; and particularly ſo to compare, and oppoſe the parts that meet upon, and traverſe the perpendicular, as to form a kind of ſquare in the mind, which is the great, and almoſt the only rule of deſigning juſtly: to have a regard not only to the model, but alſo to the part already deſigned; there being no ſuch thing as deſigning with ſtrict juſtneſs, but by comparing and proportioning every part to the firſt.

The reſt relates to perſpective; as that thoſe objects be ſeen, at one view, where rays meet in a point: that the eye and object be always conceived as immoveable: that the ſpace, or medium between them be conceived tranſparent: and that the eye, object, and picture, be at a juſt diſtance, which is uſually double the bigneſs of the ſubject, or picture.

REMARKS.

The great utility of the art of deſign, or drawing in general, being repreſented in a very juſt light by the ingenious Mr. Gwyn, in his eſſay on that ſubject, including propoſals for erecting a public academy, for educating the Britiſh youth in drawing, and ſeveral arts depending thereon, it may not be unacceptable to many of our readers to quote him upon this occaſion.

'In regard, ſays that gentleman, to the mechanic arts, I would 'deſire every polite reader to aſſiſt me with his imagination, 'and every artiſt to make the particular application of my ge'neral remarks to himſelf, and his own buſineſs: for ſhould I 'enumerate all I could now think of, to whom drawing is 'either abſolutely neceſſary, or would be greatly uſeful, I 'ſhould incur the charge of a needleſs prolixity, if not of 'deſcending lower than the picture hitherto given of my 'ſubject may ſeem to require. The bailiff, farmer, and all 'whoſe buſineſs is relative to lands, may include themſelves 'in what we have ſaid of the ſurveyor; the carpenter, ma'ſon, bricklayer, glazier, with ſome others whoſe trades 'have reſpect to building, might be diſpleaſed, if put in any 'other claſs than that of architects; and real architects, 'while they find the aſſiſtance of theſe artiſts neceſſary to exe'cute their deſigns, muſt not be aſhamed to ſhelter their 'auxiliaries. All whoſe employment is in the faſhioning of 'earth, wood, metal or ſtone, or in ornamenting the va'rious utenſils of life faſhioned from theſe, muſt acknowledge 'that drawing turns greatly to their account, and that, if 'they can form no deſigns of their own, they are conſtantly 'obliged to copy thoſe of the better artiſts.

'Weavers, embroiderers, and others employed in manufac'turing of ſilks or cottons, are obliged, if unſkilled them'ſelves, to have recourſe to thoſe who profeſs pattern-draw'ing*. How much ſuperior to theſe dependent artiſts ſhall 'we eſteem thoſe engravers, who, with great neatneſs of the 'burin, have few or no ideas of their own to follow, and are 'obliged to work after the deſigns of others in all they per'form? Muſt it not occur to all ſuch, that their great 'defect is the want of ſkill in the art of drawing? Can any 'labour ſeem too arduous, if by it they may attain this origi'nal idea, this animating ſoul of all their other ſkill? I leave 'this thought to the reflection of every one who is ſenſible 'of his own deficiency.

* 'Hence the complaints of perſons engaged in thoſe parts 'of the weaving trade, where deſign, invention, or, as 'they term it, fancy, are concerned. Theſe men have 'long been convinced of the neceſſity of drawing in thoſe 'branches, and with great concern lament, that, notwith'ſtanding the perfection to which the ſilk manufacture is 'brought in London, particularly in Spital-Fields, our 'greateſt artiſts, for want of ſkill to delineate, and thereby 'improve their own conceptions, are, in the article of bro'caded ſilks in particular, reduced to the neceſſity either 'of calling in the aſſiſtance of the better-inſtructed, though 'not more ingenious, French, who reſide among them, or 'of ſervilely imitating their leſs elaborate performances.

'In a word, the aſtronomers cannot in fancy parcel out the 'heavens, nor the geographer deſcribe the diviſions of the 'earth that really exiſt, without ſome proficiency in the art 'of drawing. Under the direction of theſe we place all the 'artiſts who work on inſtruments for the meaſure of time or 'ſpace, by whatſoever denomination they are known. Not 'one of theſe mechanics but is ſtrictly bound to the rules of 'exact proportion.

'To navigators, continues this gentleman in another place, 'who traverſe the vaſt ocean, and whoſe ſafety depends upon 'their knowledge of their ſituation every moment, the art 'of drawing is ſo abſolutely neceſſary, that the neglect of it 'hitherto has been equally fatal and unaccountable. In the 'art of war how requiſite it is, and how ſhameſully it has 'on our part been pretermitted, the recent experience of the 'four or five years laſt elapſed, does but too fully demon'ſtrate. We can only hope that the inſtitutions at Wool'wich and Portſmouth, by training up a ſufficient number 'of young men in the uſeful parts of knowledge, of which 'this of drawing is one of the moſt eſſential, may vindicate 'to our nation, in future wars, as much applauſe for our 'military ſkill, as is now given without reſerve to our 'courage. If we do not imitate our neighbours in an art, 'which is now become ſo effectual, as almoſt to take the 'place of numbers, weight, and perſonal proweſs, how ſhal 'we ever hope again to conquer them in the field, or to 'maintain our ſuperiority over them on the ocean?

'In the Ordonnance Marine, Lewis XIV. orders, 'That 'there be profeſſors to teach navigation publicly in all the 'ſea-port towns, who muſt know deſigning, and teach it 'their ſcholars, in order to lay down the appearances of 'coaſts, and the like. They are to keep their ſchools open, 'and read four times a week to the ſeamen, where they muſt 'have charts, globes, ſpheres, compaſſes, quadrants, aſtro'labes, and all books and inſtruments neceſſary to teach their 'art. The directors of hoſpitals are obliged to ſend thither, 'yearly, two or three of their boys to be taught, and to fur-

 niſh

'niſh them with books and inſtruments. Thoſe profeſſors 'are obliged to examine the journals depoſited in the office of 'admiralty, in the places of their eſtabliſhment, to correct 'the errors in preſence of the ſeamen, and to reſtore them 'within a month.'

'King Charles II. who well underſtood the importance of 'eſtabliſhments of this nature, founded ſuch a ſchool in 'Chriſt's Hoſpital, which has produced many eminent pro-'ficients. King William eſtabliſhed a mathematical lecture, 'to breed up engineers and officers; which was diſcontinued, 'however, after the peace of Ryſwic. The fault of the 'Engliſh has uſually been, to neglect the means of teaching 'military qualifications when the uſe of them has not been 'immediately neceſſary. But the above-mentioned ſchools, 'now eſtabliſhed at Woolwich and Portſmouth, to teach 'the arts relating to war, ſeem to promiſe a more laſting du-'ration.

'It appears from the account, lately publiſhed, of the moſt 'remarkable voyage of the preſent age, that the honourable 'gentleman, ſince called up to the rank of nobility, who 'commanded in it, had a true ſenſe of the whole duty of his 'employment, and looked upon the application of a ſkill in 'drawing as no inconſiderable part of it. We muſt take the 'ſentiments, in the introduction of that work, for the com-'mander's own, though publiſhed under another name. 'They are ſo full to the point I am upon, and their autho-'rity is ſo much better than my own, that a quotation from 'them will ſupply the place of much that I muſt elſe have 'ſaid upon the ſubject of drawing, with reſpect to the 'public.

'I cannot, ſays Mr. Walter, in the right honourable lord 'Anſon's Voyage round the world, finiſh this introduction, 'without adding a few reflections on a matter very nearly 'connected with the preſent ſubject, and, as I conceive, 'neither deſtitute of utility, nor unworthy of the attention 'of the public; I mean, the animating my countrymen, 'both in their public and private ſtations, to the encourage-'ment and purſuit of all kinds of geographical and nautical 'obſervations, and of every ſpecies of mechanical and com-'mercial information. It is by a ſettled attachment to theſe 'ſeemingly minute particulars, that our ambitious neigh-'bours have eſtabliſhed ſome part of that power with which 'we are now ſtruggling: and, as we have the means in our 'hands of purſuing thoſe ſubjects more effectually than they 'can, it would be a diſhonour to us longer to neglect ſo 'eaſy and beneficial a practice: for, as we have a navy 'much more numerous than theirs, great part of which is 'conſtantly employed in very diſtant ſtations, either in 'the protection of our colonies and commerce, or in aſſiſt-'ing our allies againſt the common enemy, this gives us 'frequent opportunities of furniſhing ourſelves with ſuch 'kind of materials as are here recommended, and ſuch as 'might turn greatly to our advantage, either in war or 'peace.

'For, not to mention what might be expected from the 'officers of the navy, if their application to theſe ſubjects 'were properly encouraged, it would create no new ex-'pence to the government to eſtabliſh a particular regulation 'for this purpoſe; ſince all that would be requiſite would be 'conſtantly to embark on board ſome of our men of war, 'which are ſent on theſe diſtant cruizes, a perſon, who, 'with the character of an engineer, and the ſkill and talents 'neceſſary to that profeſſion, ſhould be employed in draw-'ing ſuch coaſts, and planning ſuch harbours, as the ſhip 'ſhould touch at, and in making ſuch other obſervations of 'all kinds, as might either prove of advantage to future na-'vigators, or might any ways tend to promote the public 'ſervice.

'Beſides, perſons habituated to this employment (which could 'not fail, at the ſame time, of improving them in their pro-'per buſineſs) would be extremely uſeful in many other lights, 'and might ſerve to ſecure our fleets from thoſe diſgraces, 'with which their attempts againſt places on ſhore have been 'often attended: and, in a nation like ours, where all ſci-'ences are more eagerly and univerſally purſued, and better 'underſtood than in any other part of the world, proper ſub-'jects for ſuch employments could not be long wanting, if 'due encouragement were given to them.

'This method here recommended is known to have been fre-'quently practiſed by the French, particularly in the inſtance 'of Monſ. Frezier, who has publiſhed a celebrated voyage 'to the South-Seas: for this perſon, in the year 1711, was 'purpoſely ſent by the French king into that country, on 'board a merchantman, that he might examine and deſcribe 'the coaſt, and take plans of all the fortified places, the 'better to enable the French to proſecute their illicit trade, 'or, in caſe of a rupture with the court of Spain, to form 'their enterprizes in thoſe ſeas with more readineſs and 'certainty.

'Should we purſue this method, we might hope, that the 'emulation among thoſe who were thus employed, and the 'experience, which, even in time of peace, they would 'thereby acquire, might at length promiſe us a number of 'able engineers, and might efface the national ſcandal,

'which our deficiency in that ſpecies of men has ſometimes 'expoſed us to: and, ſurely, every ſtep to encourage and 'improve this profeſſion, is of great moment to the public; 'as no perſons, when they are properly inſtructed, make 'better returns in war, for the encouragement, and emolu-'ments beſtowed on them in time of peace. Of which the 'advantages the French have reaped from their dexterity '(too numerous and recent to be ſoon forgot) are an ample 'confirmation.

'And having mentioned engineers, or ſuch as are ſkilled in 'drawing, and the other uſeful practices of that profeſſion, 'as the propereſt perſons to be employed in theſe foreign 'enquiries, I cannot (as it offers itſelf ſo naturally to the 'ſubject in hand) but lament, how very imperfect many of 'our accounts of diſtant countries are rendered, by the rela-'tors being unſkilful in drawing, and in the general princi-'ples of ſurveying, even where other abilities have not been 'wanting. Had more of our travellers been initiated in 'theſe acquirements, and had there been added thereto 'ſome little ſkill in the common aſtronomical obſervations, '(all which a perſon of ordinary talents might attain with a 'very moderate ſhare of application) we ſhould, by this 'time, have ſeen the geography of the globe much correcter 'than we now find it; the dangers of navigation would have 'been conſiderably leſſened, and the manners, arts, and pro-'duce of foreign countries, would have been much better 'known to us than they are. Indeed, when I conſider the 'ſtrong incitements that all travellers have to acquire ſome 'part, at leaſt, of theſe qualifications, eſpecially drawing; 'when I conſider how much it would facilitate their obſer-'vations, aſſiſt and ſtrengthen their memories, and of how 'tedious, and often unintelligible, a load of deſcription it 'would rid them, I cannot but wonder that any perſon, 'that intends to viſit diſtant countries, with a view of in-'forming either himſelf or others, ſhould be unfurniſhed with 'ſo uſeful a piece of ſkill.

'And, to inforce this argument ſtill farther, I muſt add, 'that, beſides the uſes of drawing which are already men-'tioned, there is one, which, though not ſo obvious, is yet, 'perhaps, of more conſequence than all that has been hi-'therto urged; and that is, that thoſe who are accuſtomed 'to draw objects, obſerve them with more diſtinctneſs than 'others who are not habituated to this practice: for we may 'eaſily find, by a little experience, that, in viewing any ob-'ject, however ſimple, our attention or memory is ſcarcely 'at any time ſo ſtrong, as to enable us, when we have turn-'ed our eyes away from it, to recollect exactly every part it 'conſiſted of, and to recall all the circumſtances of it's ap-'pearance; ſince, on examination, it will be diſcovered, 'that in ſome we were miſtaken, and others we had over-'looked: but he that is employed in drawing what he ſees, 'is at the ſame time employed in rectifying this inatten-'tion; for, by confronting his ideas copied on the paper, 'with the object he intends to repreſent, he finds in what 'manner he has been deceived in it's appearance, and hence 'in time acquires the habit of obſerving much more at one 'view, and retains what he ſees with more correctneſs, than 'he could ever have done without his practice and proficiency 'in drawing.

'If what has been ſaid merits the attention of travellers of 'all ſorts, it is, I think, more particularly applicable to the 'gentlemen of the navy; ſince, without drawing and plan-'ning, neither charts nor views of land can be taken; and, 'without thoſe, it is ſufficiently evident, that navigation 'is at a full ſtand. It is doubtleſs from a perſuaſion of theſe 'qualifications, that his majeſty has eſtabliſhed a drawing-'maſter at Portſmouth, for the inſtruction of thoſe who are 'preſumed to be afterwards intruſted with the command of 'the royal navy: and though ſome have been ſo far miſled, 'as to ſuppoſe, that the perfection of ſea-officers conſiſted in 'a turn of mind and temper reſembling the boiſterous ele-'ment they had to deal with, and have condemned all li-'terature and ſcience as effeminate, and derogatory to that 'ferocity, which, they would perſuade us, was the moſt 'unerring characteriſtic of courage: yet it is to be hoped, 'that ſuch abſurdities as theſe have at no time been authorized 'by the public opinion, and that the belief of them daily di-'miniſhes.'

Since the firſt publication of this work, the SOCIETY OF ARTS, MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE, has been eſtabliſhed; and, from the encouragement they have given, the art of DESIGNING has been far more cultivated in this kingdom than heretofore: notwithſtanding, this ſociety does not as yet ſeem to be planned upon the moſt uſeful foundation that it might be, ſee the article ROYAL SOCIETY, the concluſive REMARKS thereon.

DEVONSHIRE, has the Engliſh channel on the ſouth, Briſtol channel on the north, is divided on the weſt from Cornwall, by the river Tamar, and is bounded on the eaſt with Somerſetſhire.

'Tis about 69 miles in length, 66 in breadth, and 200 in circumference, being the largeſt and moſt populous county in England, Yorkſhire excepted.

The air is mild, except on the hills and dry heaths, where, if

ſharp, 'tis healthful. The ſoil various, in ſome parts mooriſh and barren, in others as fruitful, eſpecially the ſouthern parts, called the Garden of Devonſhire.

That part, called the South Hams, is famous for it's rough cyder: and it's tin mines were formerly in great abundance, but there is very little tin dug in this county now.

It's commodities are corn, cattle, wool, &c. and it's manufactures, kerſies, ſerges, druggets, perpetuana's, long ells, ſhalloons, narrow cloths, &c. as alſo bone-lace.

Chief rivers are Tamar, Tave Lad, Ock, Tame, Touridge, Ex, and Dart.

EXETER, the chief city, and one of the principal in the kingdom for it's building, wealth, extent, and number of inhabitants. The ſea flowed up formerly to the very walls of the city, and ſhips could load and unload at that called the Water-Gate: an advantage they were afterwards deprived of, but have ſince recovered by the contrivances of ſluices and gates, that veſſels of 150 tons can now come up to their key. Of all it's fairs, which are ſeven, Lammas-fair is the greateſt, being much frequented by mercers, linen-drapers, haberdaſhers, &c. from London; and it laſts three whole, and two half days.

As great a trade as is now carried on here, for ſerges, and other woollen goods, in which 'tis computed that 600,000 l. at leaſt is yearly traded for; yet were the markets for wool, yarn, and kerſeys, not erected till the 30th of Henry the VIIIth, before which the merchants drove a conſiderable trade to Spain and France. There were weavers here before Henry VIII. but Crediton kept the wool-market and cloth-trade. The ſerge-market, kept weekly, is ſaid to be the greateſt in England, next to the brig-market at Leeds; and that ſometimes as many ſerges have been ſold in a week, as amount to 60 or 80,000 l. for, beſides the vaſt quantities of woollen goods uſually ſhipped for Spain, Portugal, and Italy, the Dutch give large commiſſions for buying up ſerges, perpetuana's, &c. for Holland and Germany. That to France is not very conſiderable, and too much of what there is, is in the hands of ſmugglers, that miſchievous practice being moſt ſucceſsful on the ſouth coaſt of England. 'Tis particularly remarked of this city, that it is almoſt as full of gentry as of tradeſmen, and that there have been more mayors and bailiffs of it, who have deſcended from, or given riſe to, good families, than of any other of it's bigneſs in England; it's great trade and flouriſhing ſtate tempting gentlemen to ſettle their ſons here, contrary to the practice in the midland and northern counties; where, according to the vain and ruinous notion of the Normans, trade was left to the vulgar, and gentlemen were not to foul their fingers with it. See the article COMMERCE.

From the mouth of the river Ex to Torbay, the ſhore is full of villages, but nothing remarkable for traffic.

TORBAY is famous for the landing of the prince of Orange, afterwards king of Great Britain, with his army, in 1688.

DARTMOUTH town and harbour, are five miles weſt from Berry-Point, which is the weſt part of land that makes the bay: being on the mouth of the river Dart, a river of a long courſe and deep channel, and which makes an excellent harbour at this place, able to receive a royal navy. The entrance, indeed, is narrow, but the channel is good; and 'tis commanded by a caſtle, ſo placed at the mouth of the river, that nothing can paſs but under the very muzzle of it's guns.

The town has a large key, is very populous, and the merchants have here great buſineſs, being ſeated as it were in the center of the pilchard-fiſhing, which they manage very much to advantage. They alſo trade conſiderably with France, Portugal, and to the Mediterranean, and ſeveral very good ſhips belong to the town. They have likewiſe very conſiderable trade to Newfoundland.

It is to be obſerved here, and I ſpeak it now for the whole coaſt, that in all the towns that lie thereon, beginning at Southampton and reaching the land's end, and even after that into the Severn ſea, and ſo to both ſides of that ſea, the Welſh as well as Engliſh, there are abundance of conſiderable merchants, who trade independent of London, having two particular branches, which they manage with great ſucceſs, excluſive of their ordinary correſpondence; namely, the pilchard and herring-fiſheries, and the Newfoundland fiſhing. They deal very largely alſo in other things, as in the ſerges and manufactures of Exeter, and of other parts of Devonſhire, and eſpecially in copper and block-tin, plentifully found in the mines of Cornwall and ſome in Devonſhire, and hardly any where elſe in England.

PLYMOUTH, anciently no more than a fiſhing-town, is now the largeſt in the ſhire, containing near as many ſouls as Exeter, and is one of the chief magazines in the kingdom, owing to it's port, one of the biggeſt and ſafeſt in England, having two harbours, capable of containing 1000 ſail.

It has a good pilchard-fiſhing on the coaſt, and drives a conſiderable trade to the Streights and Weſt-Indies.

BARNSTAPLE has a good trade to America and to Ireland, from whence 'tis an eſtabliſhed port for landing wool; and imports more wine and other merchandize than Biddeford, and is every whit as conſiderable; for, though it's rival cures more fiſh, yet Barnſtaple drives a greater trade with the ſerge-makers of Tiverton, Taunton, and Exeter, who come hither to buy ſhad-fiſh, wool, yarn, &c.

HONITON is an ancient borough; the firſt ſerge manufacture in Devonſhire was here; but 'tis now much employed in that of lace, and the broadeſt ſort made in England, of which great quantities are ſent to London.

ASHBURTON, ſituated among hills, noted for mines of tin and copper, and has a manufacture of ſerge.

CLIFTON DARTMOUTH HARDNESS, has a harbour where 500 ſail of ſhips may ride ſafe; here live ſome conſiderable merchants, who trade to Portugal, Italy, and the plantations, but eſpecially to Newfoundland, and from thence to Italy, &c. with fiſh. Beſides this, a pilchard-fiſhery is carried on hereabouts, with the greateſt number of veſſels of any port in the weſt, except Falmouth.

TIVERTON is an ancient town, noted for the greateſt woollen manufacture in the county next to Exeter.

BIDDEFORD is inhabited by wealthy merchants, who ſend fleets yearly to the Weſt-Indies, particularly Virginia and Newfoundland, and to Ireland, from whence 'tis an eſtabliſhed port as well as Barnſtaple, for landing wool: forty or fifty ſail, belonging to this port, have been employed to fetch cod from Newfoundland: and others are ſent to Liverpool and Warrington for rock-ſalk, which is here diſſolved by the ſea-water into brine, and then boiled up into a new ſalt, juſtly called ſalt upon ſalt, with which they cure their herrings.

DIAMOND. Stones of this denomination admitting of a branch of trade of no little extent, we may reaſonably enough expect, that the reader would judge it a material omiſſion, if we were to take no notice of them.

The genuine diamond is a pure, hard, ſolid, tranſparent, ſparkling, precious ſubſtance; the moſt perfect of all the gems of the cryſtal kind; excelling all other bodies in the luſtre of it's reflecting light, and enduring the fierceſt fire for a very long time, without melting.

As the ſize, ſo is the ſhape of diamonds irregular. Yet it ſeems to have one determinate form, into which it naturally concretes, when unimpeded by foreign accidental matter; and ſo have the various ſalts; and art can eaſily obſtruct thoſe ſalts from cryſtallizing in their natural determinate figure, and give them very different and irregular forms.—What art is capable of doing above ground, we may preſume nature may do by accident under it: common cryſtal and ſpar, which have their natural ſpecificated figures, and angular forms, generate into irregular and ſhapeleſs maſſes.

The diamond is often blemiſhed, with white, yellow, or black ſpots, which greatly diminiſh it's ſplendor, and therefore it's value, whence divers practices have been uſed to get them out. They are of different colours, white, yellowiſh, bluiſh, reddiſh, &c.

They conſiſt of cryſtal laminæ, ſomewhat in the nature of Iceland cryſtal, ſo that ſkilful lapidaries can frequently ſeparate them with the edge of a knife. They are not calcinable by common fire, nor in the focus of a burning-glaſs, if only the plain flat ſurfaces be thus expoſed to the ſun's rays; but, if the edges of the plates are turned to the rays, they ſplit, ſeparate, and run into a kind of glaſs, which has not the luſtre of a diamond.

The diamond, the moſt readily of all ſubſtances, emits fire with ſteel.

It makes no efferveſcence, nor ſuffers any the leaſt change in the moſt powerful acid menſtruums.

The common colour of diamonds being generally known by ſight, 'tis not neceſſary, nor would it be eaſy, to deſcribe it by words; the moſt uſual colour of theſe gems is not the only one. That celebrated French jeweller, Monſieur Tavernier, gives an account of a fair diamond that he had, of a very red colour. There are others of a golden yellow, which might be taken for an excellent topaz.

That the real virtues of gems may be probably derived from the metalline, or mineral tinctures, or rather corpuſcles that were imbodied with the matter of the gem, whilſt it was yet fluid, or ſoft, and afterwards coagulated therewith, appears probable; becauſe ſome have been really diſcovered to be impregnated with metalline, and more particularly with ferrugineous particles, if we may credit the great Mr. Boyle's aſſertion, in regard to an experiment made with his own hands; for he, having taken a moderately vigorous loadſtone, and applied it to a diamond of a dull colour, found that it had in it particles enough of a ferrugineous nature, to make it magnetic; and obſerved, that it would not only ſuffer itſelf to be taken up by the ſtrongeſt pole of the loadſtone, but, when that pole was offered within a convenient diſtance, it would readily leap through the air to faſten itſelf to it.

Jewellers and lapidaries, and, indeed, the general opinion of mankind, allow, that the goodneſs of diamonds conſiſts in their water or colour, luſtre and weight: the white is eſteemed the moſt perfect colour: their blemiſhes and imperfections conſiſt in veins, flaws, ſpecks of red or black ſand, and a bluiſh or yellowiſh caſt.

European artiſts examine the goodneſs of their rough diamonds, by day light; the Indians do it by night; in order to which, ſays M. Savary, they make a hole in a wall a foot

ſquare,

ſquare, and place a lamp therein, with a thick wick, by the light of which they form a judgment of the quality of the ſtone.

Dr Wall, in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, ſeems to have fell upon a good method of judging of theſe gems: a diamond, with an eaſy ſlight friction in the dark, with any ſoft animal ſubſtance, as woollen, ſilk, or the like, appears luminous in it's whole body: if you continue rubbing it for ſome time, and then expoſe it to the eye, it will remain luminous for ſome time. If the ſun be eighteen degrees below the horizon, holding up a piece of bays, or flannel ſtretched tight between both hands at ſome diſtance from the eye, and another rubbing the other ſide of the bays, or flannel, pretty briſkly with a diamond, the light is much more ſplendid and delightful than any other way. But what the doctor judges the moſt extraordinary is, that a diamond, being expoſed to the open air, in view of the ſky, gives almoſt the ſame light of itſelf, without rubbing, as if rubbed in a dark room: but, if in the open air, you put the hand, or any thing elſe a little over it, to prevent it's open and immediate communication with the ſky, it gives no light, which is a diſtinguiſhing criterion of a diamond.

ROUGH DIAMOND is the ſtone as nature produces it in the mines.

BRILLIANT DIAMOND is that quite flat underneath, but it's upper part cut in divers little faces, uſually triangles, the uppermoſt whereof terminate in a point.

TABLE DIAMOND is that which has a large ſquare face atop, encompaſſed with four leſſer.

DIAMOND-CUTTER is an artificer who cuts diamonds, is ſkilled and deals in them. See the more general article LAPIDARY.

Of the DIAMOND MINES, and trafficking thereat.

The places whence we have diamonds, are the Eaſt-Indies and the Braſils; they are found in the former, in the iſland of Borneo, and in the kingdoms of Viſſapour, Golconda, and Bengal. In all theſe places, they are generally found clear and colourleſs, yet are ſometimes met with, tinged with the colours of the other gems, by the mixture of ſome metalline particles, as before obſerved, according to Mr. Boyle.

They are found partly in mines, partly in rivers.

At Raolconda, a town in the Eaſt-Indies, five leagues diſtant from Golconda, and eight or nine from Viſſapour, in the province of Conutica, is a diamond mine, diſcovered not above 200 years ago: therein are found the pureſt ſtones, with the moſt ſplendid water; but being forced to get them out of the rocks, with a great iron-lever, and many blows, they frequently flaw the diamonds by ſhivering them, and make them look no better than cryſtal: which is the reaſon why there are ſo many ſoft ſtones found in this mine, though they make a great ſhew.

If a ſtone be free from flaws, they give it only a turn or two upon the wheel, that it may loſe as little as poſſible of it's weight; but, if it has any flaws, points, or black ſpecks, they cut it into facets, and work the flaw into a ridge to hide it.

The diamond trade at the mines is free and juſt, and tranſacted without any talking on either ſide, the buyer and ſeller expreſſing themſelves, by taking each other by the hands; and ſo, in the ſame place where they are many people, a parcel of goods ſhall be ſold ſeven or eight times, and no man know it.

At Gani, or Colour, ſeven days journey from Golconda eaſtwards, is another diamond mine; it lies between the town and a mountain; and the nearer they dig to the mountain, the larger ſtones they find; but there is none on the top.

This mine was found not above an hundred years ago, by a countryman, who, digging his ground to ſow millet, found a large diamond 25 carats weight: upon which the rich men in the town fell to digging, and found, as they do to this day, bigger ſtones than in any other mines, viz. ſome above 40 carats, and one of 900, which Margimola preſented to Aureng-Zeb.

But the miſchief of theſe ſtones is, that they partake of the quality of the ſoil, and are few of them quite pure and clean, and free from all blemiſh; ſome being black, others red, and others yellow and green. Near Soumelpour, in the kingdom of Bengal, is a river called Gouel, where there are diamonds found mixed with the ſand.

In the iſland of Borneo, which is the largeſt iſland in the world, is another river, called Succadan, in the ſand whereof they find diamonds, as hard as any in the other mines; but the queen of the mine will permit none to be carried out of it; ſo that all that come from thence are conveyed out by ſtealth.

At Rocolconda mine they weigh by mangolins, which are each a carat and $\frac{3}{4}$, and pay in new pagodas, as they do alſo at Colour.

At Soumelpour mine, they weigh by rahs, which are each $\frac{7}{8}$ of a carat, and pay in roupees.

Of the value of diamonds at thoſe places.

The price of diamonds here is thus to be known: if it be a thick ſtone, well ſquared, and have all it's corners, and the water be white and lively, without ſpecks or flaws, ſuch a ſtone is worth ten pounds fifteen ſhillings ſterling; or of the ſame value, if it is cut in facets, which they call a roſe-diamond, if it be a fair breadth, and of the ſame perfection; and, if a ſtone weighs more carats, it is raiſed in price. Imperfect diamonds are not above one half of the value of the perfect.

Murfilli, a kingdom northward about 500 miles from Malabar. They have here diamonds in their hills, which they ſearch for after great rains.

Here the diamonds are ſo ſcattered in the earth, and lie ſo thin, that, in the moſt plentiful mines, 'tis rare to find one in digging, or 'till they have prepared the ſtuff, and ſearched purpoſely for them.

Of the method in general for ſearching for diamonds in the mines.

The diamonds being frequently incloſed in hard clods of earth, and the new mines in the kingdom of Golconda, in particular, having the earth ſo fixed about them, they cannot move it ſufficiently to diſcover their tranſparency, till they have prepared the ſtuff, and ſearched very vigilantly for them; and was it not for the peculiarity of their form, they would not know them from other ſtones.

At the firſt opening of the mine, the unſkilful labourers ſometimes, to try what they have found, lay the ſubſtance on a great ſtone, and ſtriking thereon with another, to their coſtly experience, diſcover they have broken a diamond.

Near the place where they dig they raiſe a wall, with ſuch rugged ſtones as they find at hand, whereof all the mines afford plenty, of about two feet high, and ſix feet over, flooring it well with the ſame; for the laying of which, they have no other mortar than the earth tempered with water. To ſtrengthen and cement the ſame, they throw up a bank againſt the ſide of it, in one part whereof they leave a ſmall vent about two inches from the bottom, by which it empties itſelf into a little pit made in the earth to receive ſmall ſtones, if by chance any ſhould run through.

The vent being ſtopped, they fill the ciſtern they have made with water, ſoaking therein as much of the earth they dig out of the mine, as it can conveniently receive at a time, breaking the clods, picking out the great ſtones, and ſtirring the whole with ſhovels 'till the water is all muddy, the gravelly earth falling to the bottom; after which they open the vent, letting out the foul water, and ſupply it with clean, 'till all the earthy ſubſtance be waſhed away, and none but a gravelly one remains at the bottom.

Thus they continue waſhing for ſeveral hours 'till ten o'clock in the morning, and then ſpread the gravelly ſtuff they have ſo waſhed, on a place made plain and ſmooth for that purpoſe near the ciſtern, which being ſo dried by the heat of the ſun at that time of the day, they ſo vigilantly look, that the ſmalleſt bit of a ſtone can hardly eſcape them. They never examine the ſtuff they have waſhed, but between the hours of ten and three, leſt any cloud, by interpoſing, intercept the briſk beams of the ſun, which they hold very requiſite to aſſiſt them in their ſearch, thoſe diamonds conſtantly reflecting them when they ſhine on them, rendering themſelves thereby the more conſpicuous.

Some of the moſt expert labourers are employed in ſearching, he that ſets them to work uſually overlooking; but 'tis ſcarce poſſible, eſpecially where many are employed, to watch them ſo narrowly, but that they may ſteal part of what they find, and ſell it privately for their own uſe. If they find a large ſtone, they do not preſently carry it to their employer, but keep on ſearching, having an eye on him, 'till they obſerve he takes notice of it, when, with the turn of their hand, they give him a glimpſe of it, but deliver it not 'till they have done work, and then very privately; it being the general endeavour to conceal what they find, leſt it ſhould come to the knowledge of the governor of the place, and he requires a ſhare; which, in the kingdom of Golconda, is uſually practiſed, without any reſpect to the agreement made with them. The miners, thoſe that employ them, and the merchants that buy the ſtones of them, are uſually pagans, few or no muſſulmen following the employment. The labourers and their employers, are Tellingas, commonly natives of, or near the place.—The merchants here are the Banians of Guzzarat, who for ſome generations have forſaken their own country to take up this trade; in which they have had ſuch ſucceſs, that 'tis now ſolely engroſſed by them, who, correſponding with their countrymen in Surat, Goa, Golconda, Viſſapour, Agra, and Dilu, and other places in India, furniſh them with diamonds.

The governors of the mines are alſo idolaters. In the king of Golconda's dominions, a Tellinga brammee rents moſt of them, whoſe agreement with the adventurer is, that all the ſtones found, under a pagoda weight, are to be his own; all that weight, and above, is to be his for the king's uſe. But, although this agreement be ſigned and ſealed, he don't mind the performance, but endeavours to engroſs all the profit to himſelf, by tyrannically ſqueezing both merchants and miners; whom he not only taxes very high, but maintains

ſpies

ſpies among them of their own people. On the leaſt ſuſpicion that they have been any ways fortunate, he immediately makes a demand on them, and raiſes their tax, elſe on a falſe pretence, that they have found a great ſtone, puniſhes them corporally, 'till they ſurrender what they have, to redeem their bodies from torture.

Beſides, the exciſe is ſo high on all ſorts of proviſions, beetle and tobacco, which with them are eſteemed neceſſaries, that the price of all things is doubled; by which rigid impoſition, there is hardly a man to be found worth five hundred pounds amongſt them, moſt of them dealing by monies taken up at intereſt of uſurers, who reſide there purpoſely to furniſh them, who, with the governor, eat up their gains; ſo that all who can, deſert their country, and reſide in places where they meet with better treatment.—Both merchants and miners here go generally naked, having only a mean cloth about their middle, and a ſaſh on their heads; they dare not wear a coat, leſt the governor ſhould imagine that they have greatly proſpered, and are become rich, and make that a pretence to increaſe his oppreſſive impoſitions.

The wiſeſt, when they find a great ſtone, conceal it 'till they have an opportunity, and then with their wife and children run all away into the Viſſapour country, where they are ſecure againſt the like tyrannical impoſitions. The government in the Viſſapour country is better; their contracts obſerved, taxes eaſier, and no ſuch impoſitions on proviſions; the merchant appears genteel, among whom are ſeveral of conſiderable eſtates, which they are permitted to enjoy peaceably; by reaſon whereof their mines are much more populous, and more beneficially wrought than thoſe of Golconda. Among the Portugueze ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies, many of the jeſuits at Goa not only engaged in trade, contrary to the rules of their order, and their duty as miſſionaries, but even deſcended ſo low, as to diſguiſe themſelves in the habits of faquirs, or Mahometan monks, that they might have an opportunity of viſiting the diamond mines, and purchaſing ſtones there of extraordinary value.

We owe this circumſtance to the Hiſtory of Holland by M. de la Neuville, who tells us, that the Dutch, being extremely piqued at the trouble the jeſuits gave them in China, diſcovered this practice to the governor of the diamond mines at Viſſapour, who caught two of theſe poor reverend fathers, diſguiſed like faquirs, with ſtones about them to the value of 25,000 l. which he took from them, and, after whipping them publickly for profaning the habit of theſe holy men, took ſuch meaſures, as prevented their carrying on this lucrative commerce in this ſhape ever after.

Of the Brazil Diamond Mines belonging to the king of Portugal.

It is about 40 years ago, that ſome precious ſtones were brought to the city of St. Sebaſtian, the capital of the Brazils, taken out of a ſmall river lying weſtward of that city, which were, at firſt, judged to be very fine pebbles, but it was not ſo ſoon they were brought over to Europe.

About the cloſe of the laſt general war, theſe fine pebbles were found in greater quantities; and 'tis ſaid, that ſome rich planters began to employ their ſlaves in digging the black heavy earth, on the ſides of the mountains, from whence this river deſcended, and then theſe ſtones were found in greater plenty; ſome of them were very large, but moſt of them of a black or yellowiſh caſt, which highly prejudiced their ſplendor, and greatly depreciated their value: yet many of the yellow ſtones were brought to Liſbon, and ſold for topazes.

The king of Portugal afterwards interpoſed, and the working of theſe mines was prohibited: which, notwithſtanding, did not obſtruct their being brought in conſiderable quantities; for ſometimes 'twas reported they were found in this or that river, and not dug from any mine; at other times they were chriſtened with new names, and many ſent to St. Salvador, and from thence exported to Europe, under a notion of their coming by the Goa fleet from the Eaſt-Indies. This involuntary fraud raiſed the value, and at length the crown of Portugal became convinced, that ſuch as pretended to great ſkill in ſtones had deceived them, and that ſome of theſe Brazil diamonds were ſcarce to be diſtinguiſhed from the orientals.

Upon this the court altered their meaſures, and it was permitted by the royal authority to ſend over rough diamonds in the Rio Janeiro fleet, under certain reſtrictions; which permiſſion rendering the value of theſe jewels ſtill more and more apparent, the king of Portugal reſolved to put this trade under a new regulation; which commenced in the year 1740, when his Portugueze majeſty let theſe mines to a company at Rio Janeiro, for a certain ſtipulated annual rent, which is ſaid to be 138,000 cruſades, upon condition, that the ſaid company employ no more than 600 ſlaves at theſe mines.

The coming of theſe ſtones into Europe, eſpecially at firſt, ſunk the price of diamonds conſiderably, and has ever ſince, doubtleſs, had ſome influence upon the price.

Of the moſt eſtimable diamonds in the world.

The fineſt diamonds in the world that we know of, are, that known in France by the name of the Great Sancy, one of the ſtones of the crown, and weighs 106 carats; from which it has it's name, which is a corruption of the words cent fix: another is that of the grand duke of Tuſcany's, which weighs 139 $\frac{1}{2}$ carats; and one belonging to the Great Mogul, weighing 279 $\frac{9}{16}$ carats.

The celebrated jeweller and traveller Monſ. Tavernier, according to a rule which he had formed for eſtimating diamonds, valued that of the Great Mogul at above half a million ſterling; others have valued it at above 700,000 l. ſterling. But, there being no fixed and determinate method among the Europeans for eſtimating diamonds, 'tis no wonder that artiſts greatly differ; but the Eaſt-Indians ſeem to have one certain and invariable way of valuation, and which does not appear to depend upon any temporary ſcarcity or plenty of thoſe gems. The judicious Mr. Jefferies, indeed in his late treatiſe on diamonds and pearls, has endeavoured to introduce the like certain and determined method of valuing this ſpecies of jewels, the Europeans having no ſure guide to go by, neither the merchants nor the jewellers.

Monſ. Tavernier informs us, that the king of Golconda is ſaid to wear upon the crown of his head a jewel almoſt a foot long, which is ſaid to be of ineſtimable value. It is a roſe of great diamonds, three or four inches diameter, on the top of which there is a little crown, and out of it iſſues a branch faſhioned like that of a palm-tree; but it is round, and the palm-branch, which is crooked at the top, is a good inch in diameter, and about half a foot long. It is made up of ſprigs, which are, as it were, the leaves of it, and each of them have at the end a lovely long pearl, ſhaped like a pear. At the foot of this poſey there are two bands of gold in the faſhion of table bracelets, in which are inchaſed large diamonds, ſet round with rubies, which, with great pearls that hang dangling on all ſides, make an exceeding fair ſhew; and theſe bands have claſps of diamonds to faſten the jewels to the head. Beſides this jewel, he hath other conſiderable pieces, and ſuch numbers of precious ſtones, that, if there were merchants who could give him the worth of them, he would be the richeſt king in the Indies.

Of the cutting of diamonds, and the choice of them rough.

A diamond cannot be cut but by itſelf, and it's own ſubſtance. In order to poliſh them, they firſt rub two againſt each other, fixed at the end of a ſtock held in the hand. The duſt that comes off by this friction, is uſed to poliſh them with; which is done by means of wheels of hardened ſteel, turned by a mill, and moiſtened with the diamond duſt mixed with olive oil. They uſe the ſame duſt mixed with water and vinegar, wherewith to cut diamonds; which is done with an iron wire, as fine as a hair.

Inſtead of ſawing, they ſometimes in the Indies cleave them, a riſk the Europeans do not care to run, leſt they ſhould break them; but the Indians do it boldly, and therefore, perhaps, very ſucceſsfully. Rough diamonds ſhould be choſen compact, of a good form, not glaſſy, or full of threads and veins, which renders them unfit for cutting: ſuch as theſe are pounded in a ſteel mortar made on purpoſe, and the duſt uſed as above-mentioned.

The glaſſineſs of them is cauſed by the miners, who, to get them more eaſily out of the vein, which winds between two rocks, break the rocks with a ſtrong iron crow; which concuſſion ſhivers the ſtones, and makes them appear glaſſy.

The perfection of a diamond conſiſts in it's water, luſtre, and weight; it's defects are glaſſineſs, reddiſh or black ſpots of ſand. In Europe, the merchants and jewellers examine them by day-light; but in the Indies they chuſe the night-time, making a hole a foot ſquare in a wall, in which they ſet a lamp with a large wick, at which they view them, held in their fingers. The water they call celeſtial is the worſt of all, and difficultly diſcerned in a rough diamond: the infallible ſecret, it ſeems, practiſed by the Indians for the diſcovery, is to examine them in the ſhade of ſome buſhy tree.

Of artificial diamonds, and various pretended methods of making them, which thoſe may try, if they pleaſe, whoſe intereſt it concerns.

Art, which imitates nature in ſo many things, hath attempted it alſo in this admirable production, but very imperfectly, the beſt of them being far ſhort of the natural; for which reaſon they bear no price, in compariſon to the other. There is, however, a pretty great trade in them for maſquerades and play-houſe habits.

There is a particular ſort of falſe diamonds, called Alençon diamonds, made of ſtones, or cryſtals, found near Alençon, a city of Normandy. The village where they are produced, and which is about two leagues from the city, is called Hertré; the ſoil is full of glittering ſand, and of a hard and grey rock. There are of theſe diamonds ſo clean and brilliant, that ſome are deceived herein.

On the coaſt of Medoc alſo are found certain hard and tranſparent flints, which, being properly cut, are not to be diſtinguiſhed, among falſe diamonds.

The way of making the diamonds of Alençon.

Take an earthen glazed pot, ſet it on a little furnace, put in it filings of ſteel, with ſome vine aſhes at diſcretion, wherein place by one another cryſtals cut and poliſhed; then pour common water gently on them, which boil during the ſpace of twelve hours, taking care to add boiling water freſh into the veſſel, as the water conſumes in it by boiling, and take care it boil continually. Then ſee if your cryſtals have acquired the colour and hardneſs you expected: if not, continue the fire ſome hours longer, and they will be like the true diamonds of Alençon; taking care to repoliſh them again at the wheel, to give them colour and brightneſs.

The pretended way to give the true colour and hardneſs of a diamond, to cryſtals and diamonds of Alençon.

There are cryſtals and precious ſtones, which have neither the colour nor natural hardneſs of diamonds, and which, ſome have aſſerted, may be imitated by art, according to the following proceſs:

Take good Dutch tripoly, and make a paſte of it with water out of a ſmith's forge, wherein you muſt wrap up the quantity you deſign of cryſtal, or diamonds of Alençon cut and poliſhed; then ſet it in a crucible covered and luted on a gradual fire, where let it ſtand 'till the crucible becomes red-hot. A little time after take it out, and take out the ſtones; then poliſh them again at the wheel, to give them their colour.

To ſet them in work, take Indian paper, with leaves of tin, like thoſe you put behind looking-glaſſes; then let them be ſet by a ſkilful jeweller, and they will not be diſtinguiſhable from ſome natural diamonds, but by nice diſcerners.

Another pretended way to harden cryſtals and diamonds of Alençon.

Cryſtals alſo acquire hardneſs in the paſte we are now going to deſcribe, becauſe their humidity exhales, and they become more fixed.

Take barley-meal well ſifted, with petroleum, or rock-oil; then cut that paſte in the middle, and put all your ſtones in order, ſo that they may not touch one another. Then cover your ſtones with the other half of the paſte, and put them in a crucible covered with another, and luted well together, and let it dry. After which, ſet this crucible in a gradual wheel-fire, from five to ſix hours, a ſmall fire the two firſt hours, which increaſe every two hours, 'till the end of the ſix: let the whole cool of itſelf. Then break your crucibles, and you will find your ſtones mended beyond expectation; which repoliſh at the wheel, and let them be ſet by an experienced jeweller.

Another proceſs ſaid to anſwer the ſame end as the preceding, and to give a ſuperior luſtre.

Although this is ſaid to be an important ſecret, and may be abuſed, yet we ſhall communicate it; becauſe, if true, it will put people upon their guard, and convince them of the neceſſity of dealing only with people of honour and credit in the diamond way.

Take one pound of loadſtone, a pound of quick lime, and half a pound of common ſulphur, the whole reduced to powder, and well mixed. With this powder cement your cryſtals and diamonds of Alençon well cut, in a crucible covered and well luted: being dry, ſet it in a glaſs-houſe furnace, if you have not one ready for the purpoſe, three days, in a place where the matters may be continually red-hot without fuſion; and take care not to take out the crucible all at once, but let it cool gently, otherwiſe the ſtones might break. Having broken the crucible, you will find your ſtones to have acquired an additional brilliancy as well as hardneſs, and will reſemble the diamonds of the old rock, which repoliſh at the wheel to give the colour, and let them be well ſet.

A pretended method to make artificial diamonds.

Take of the fineſt natural cryſtal, calcined and reduced to ſubtile powder what quantity you pleaſe; fill a pot with it, and ſet it in a glaſs-houſe furnace twelve hours, to be melted and purified: then drop the melted matter into cold water, dry it, and reduce it again to powder; add to that powder it's weight of fine ſalt of tartar, made according to the proceſs below *. Mix theſe two powders well, and make little pills of them with common water. Then wipe theſe pills, and put them into an earthen pot on a ſtrong fire, there to grow red-hot for twelve hours ſpace, without melting. Afterwards put them into a pot in a glaſs-houſe furnace, where leave them two days, to be well melted and purified.—Then put the matter twelve hours in the annealing furnace, to cool very gradually. Break the crucible, and you will have a fine material for the imitation of diamonds, which cut and poliſh at the wheel.

* The way of making ſalt of tartar proper for this occaſion.

Thoſe who, in their operations of artificial gems, have made no uſe of ſalt of tartar, have, without doubt, been ignorant of the following fine preparation; for if, to that end, you uſe the ordinary ſalt of tartar, there is a ſulphur and foulneſs in it, which renders cryſtal obſcure, and conſequently would be hurtful in thoſe operations.

To make this ſalt, you muſt firſt calcine your tartar, 'till it becomes grey, and not to perfect whiteneſs; then diſſolve it in the fineſt clear water to embrace the ſalt; filter that water, and then evaporate it over the fire, and you will have remaining, at the bottom of the veſſel, a white ſalt. To take away all foulneſs from this part, diſſolve it again in warm water, and evaporate it again over a gentle clear fire: take it from the fire, and caſt it into cold water, and you will find it will leave on the ſurface of the water a thick froth, which you muſt ſkim off with a ſkimmer, that has little holes no bigger than ſmall pins heads: put the veſſel again on the fire, and evaporate the water as before. —Take it off the fire, and caſt upon it freſh cold water, and ſkim it well as before. Reiterate this proceſs, 'till you find no more froth; then evaporate the whole over a gentle fire 'till it be dry, and you will have a ſalt of tartar well purified, which is not ſo forcible as the other, becauſe it is free from all that unctuoſity which cauſes the fuſion. Keep this ſalt of tartar in a veſſel well ſtopped, and make uſe of it in cryſtal as directed.

The following is a rate, or manner of eſtimating the value of diamonds, ſaid to be drawn up by a perſon well verſed in ſuch matters; but, as Mr Jefferies's rule ſeems to be more generally regarded, we ſhall give that alſo.

Table DIAMONDS.

Dutch cut.

	lib.	ſh.		lib.	ſh.	ſterl.
A diamond weighing 1 grain, is worth from	1	0	to	1	1	
1 ½	1	16	to	1	17	
2	2	15	to	3	0	
2 ½	3	12	to	3	15	
3	4	15	to	5	0	
4	7	17	to	8	0	
5	15	0	to	15	15	
6	22	0	to	25	0	
7	30	0	to	34	0	
8	42	0	to	45	0	
9	60	0	—	—	—	
10	75	0	—	—	—	
12	112	0	to	120	0	
15	187	0	to	220	0	
19	330	0	to	380	0	
24	450	0	—	—	—	
30	700	0	to	735	0	
40	1500	0	to	1800	0	
50	3500	0	to	4500	0	
60	4500	0	to	5620	0	

Antwerp cut.

	lib.	ſh.		lib.	ſh.	ſterl.
A diamond weighing 1 grain, is worth from	0	15	to	1	18	
1 ½	1	6	to	1	10	
2	2	2	to	2	5	
3	3	12	to	3	15	
4	6	0	to	6	7	
5	10	10	to	11	5	
6	13	10	to	15	0	
7	18	15	to	22	10	
8	24	0	to	26	0	
9	33	15	—	—	—	
10	37	0	to	40	0	
12	55	0	to	58	0	
15	112	0	to	130	0	
18	247	0	—	—	—	
24	315	0	—	—	—	
40	900	0	to	970	0	
50	2200	0	to	2300	0	
60	3500	0	to	4500	0	

Mr Jefferies's method of valuing WROUGHT DIAMONDS in conjunction with ROUGH DIAMONDS, out of which they are ſuppoſed to be brought.

An example is here given to ſhew in what manner the value of a wrought diamond, of one carat, is to be found, upon the principle advanced, ſuppoſing rough diamonds to be valued at two pounds the carat.

The weight of ſuch a ſtone muſt be doubled (on account of half being ſuppoſed to be loſt in working it) which is conſidered as it's original weight, making two carats; then multiply the weight into itſelf, which ſqueres it, and makes 4; laſtly, multiply the 4 by 2, that produces eight pounds, which

which is the value of a ſtone of one carat wrought or poliſhed, and is equal to the value of the rough diamond of 2 carats, out of which it is ſuppoſed to be made. This ſingle inſtance is here given, to ſhew the value of rough diamonds in the price of wrought ones; and as a farther explanation of the rule of valuing them, and previous to the offering any other, it is to be obſerved, that, although two pounds is laid down as the general price of rough diamonds, it is nevertheleſs to be underſtood, that rough diamonds differ in their value, according to their different degrees of perfection or imperfection, and according to the loſs of weight they may be ſuppoſed to ſuſtain in being truly wrought; as it is well known, that ſome will loſe abundantly more than others, ariſing from their ill forms, and other defects that may attend them, which are ſo numerous and difficult to be expreſſed, that what may be ſaid of them would probably not be underſtood, but by the moſt experienced traders and manufacturers of them.

This conſideration, and that of it's being but of little concern to the public, prevents my ſaying any thing more relating thereto.

In farther explaining the principle of valuing wrought diamonds, three other inſtances, beſides that already given, will be offered, to ſhew the operation of the principle in coming at the value of rough diamonds, which it is judged will be ſufficient in other caſes in this way of proceeding. After that will be offered three more of the ſame weight, in a different manner of proceeding, but to the ſame end. Here it may be proper to hint, that all the inſtances that will be given, are founded upon the price of rough diamonds in general, being put at two pounds the carat, viz. good and bad blended together; ſo that two pounds is the price of the middle ſort only: and it is alſo to be remembered, that, in manufacturing, half the weight is ſuppoſed to be waſted. And as miſtakes may be made in calculating the value of particular diamonds, in the ways hereafter preſcribed, it is here noted, that the prices of diamonds, from one of one carat, to one of an hundred carats, of this degree of goodneſs, are contained in the 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16th plates of Mr. Jefferies's Eſſay; which will prove the truth or falſity of any calculation: and it is alſo to be obſerved, that the expence of manufacture is excluded in all the inſtances that he has given on this occaſion, the reaſons of which appear in his tract.

Now follow the three inſtances propoſed, to explain this firſt method of finding the value of any wrought diamonds.

The firſt Instance.

To find the value of one of 5 carats weight, the weight muſt be doubled, on account of half being ſuppoſed loſt in working it; that replaces it's original weight, which makes 10 carats; then multiply 10 by 10, that ſquares the weight, and makes 100 carats; and, laſtly, the 100 muſt be multiplied by 2 pounds, the price of one carat; that produces 200 pounds, and is the value of a wrought ſtone of 5 carats, and the price of the diamond, when rough.

Example.

Multiplied by - -	10 pounds
	10 carats
Makes - - - -	100
Multiplied by - -	2 pounds
Makes - - - -	200 pounds.

Second Instance.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{8}$, the weight muſt be doubled, that makes 10 $\frac{1}{4}$; next multiply that weight by 4, to bring it into 4ths, or grains, which makes 41; then multiply 41 by 41, that makes 1681, the ſquare of the weight in ſixteenths; therefore divide the 1681 by 16, that brings it again into carats, and makes 105 carats $\frac{1}{16}$; which, multiplied by 2 pounds, produces 210l. 2s. 6d. and is the value of the ſtone, rough or wrought.

Example.

Carats
10 $\frac{1}{4}$
4
41
41
41
164

16) 1681 (105 $\frac{1}{16}$
2

l. 210 2 6

Third Instance.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{4}$, the weight doubled is 10 carats $\frac{1}{2}$; reduce that weight into grains, by multiplying it by 4, that makes 42; then multiplying 42 by 42, that makes 1764, the ſquare of the weight in ſixteenths; which divide by 16, that brings them again into carats, and makes 110 carats and $\frac{4}{16}$; which multiply by 21. that produces 220l. 10s. and is the value of the ſtone, rough or wrought.

Example.

Carats
10 $\frac{2}{4}$
4
42
42
84
168

16) 1764 (110 $\frac{4}{16}$
2

l. 220 10

The second Method of valuing wrought Diamonds in conjunction with the rough Diamonds, out of which they are ſuppoſed to be wrought.

Firſt Instance.

To find the value of a diamond of 5 carats weight, as in the foregoing caſes, ſo in this the weight muſt be doubled; that makes 10 carats. As a rough diamond of one carat is valued at 2 pounds, every carat in this ſtone accumulates 10 times that value; and ſo every carat in this ſtone is to be valued at 20 pounds; therefore multiply 10 carats by 20 pounds, that will produce 200 pounds, and is the value of the ſtone, rough or wrought.

Example.

	10 carats
Multiplied by - -	20 pounds
Makes the total -	200

Second Instance.

To find the value of one of 5 carats; the weight doubled makes 10 carats $\frac{1}{4}$; next reckon that weight in the foregoing manner, that makes every carat in this ſtone worth 20 pounds 10 ſhillings: ſo firſt multiply 10 carats by 20 pounds, that makes 200 pounds; then multiply 10 carats by 10 ſhillings, that makes 100 ſhillings, or 5 pounds; next add the value of the 4th of a carat at the rate of 20l. 10s. that makes 5l. 2s. 6d. laſtly, caſt up theſe three ſums, the total will be 210l. 2s. 6d. and is the value of the ſtone, rough or wrought.

Example.

	10 carats		
Multiplied by - -	20 pounds		
Makes - - - -	200 pounds		
10 carats mult. by 10s. makes	5		
The value of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a carat at 20l. 10s. is - - - -	-	5	2 6
Makes the total - - - -	210	2	6

Third Instance.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{4}$; the weight doubled makes 10 carats $\frac{1}{2}$; reckon that weight as in the two other caſes, that makes every carat in this ſtone worth 21 pounds: ſo multiply 10 carats by 21 pounds, that makes 210l. then add the value of the half carat at 21 the carat, that makes 10l. 10s. laſtly, add the two ſums together, the total will be 220l. 10s. and is the value of the ſtone, rough or wrought.

Example.

	10 carats	
Multiplied by - -	21	
Makes - - - -	210	
The value of the $\frac{1}{2}$ carat added, which is -	-	10 10
Makes the total - - - -	220	10

The inſtances that have been given of two methods, for finding the value of wrought diamonds, as they ſtand connected with the rough (out of which they are ſuppoſed to be made) it is apprehended, are a ſufficient explanation of the principle for valuing rough and wrought diamonds, and prove it's being founded on reaſon.

Of

Of the method of valuing WROUGHT DIAMONDS, excluſive of any regard to ROUGH DIAMONDS.

As inſtances have been given of two different methods of attaining the value of wrought diamonds, in which caſes the value of rough diamonds, of double their weights, have been jointly conſidered, they being ſuppoſed to be made from ſuch rough diamonds; three inſtances of manufactured diamonds, of the ſame weights, will be now offered, to ſhew in what manner their value may be found, excluſive of any regard to rough diamonds: and as the laſt method appears the ſhorteſt, and moſt eaſy to be underſtood, that method will be made uſe of on this occaſion.

This is to be known, by applying the price they bear manufactured, which has been ſhewn, viz. that, as rough diamonds are valued at two pounds the carat, a wrought diamond of one carat is worth eight pounds; ſo to find the value of a ſtone of that degree of goodneſs, whatever number of carats are contained in ſuch a diamond, each is to be valued at 8 pounds; and whatever ſum they make, muſt be multiplied by the weight of the diamond. The inſtances are as follow:

First INSTANCE.

To find the value of ſuch a diamond of 5 carats weight, reckon every carat at eight pounds; then multiply 5 carats by 8 pounds, that makes 40 pounds; ſo every carat is to be valued at 40 pounds; then multiply 5 by 40, that produces 200 l. and is the value of ſuch a diamond.

EXAMPLE.

		5 carats
Multiplied by	-	40 pounds
Makes the total	-	200

Second INSTANCE.

To find the value of one of 5 carats $\frac{1}{8}$, at the rate of 8 pounds the carat, multiply 5 by 8, that makes 40; then add to that the value of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 8 pounds, that is one pound; ſo the value of every carat in this ſtone is 41 pounds; then multiply 5 by 41, that makes 205 pounds; next add the value of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 41 pounds, that makes 5 l. 2 s. 6 d. Theſe two ſums caſt up reduce 210 l. 2 s. 6 d. and is the value of the diamond.

EXAMPLE.

		5 carats
Multiply by	-	41 pounds
Makes	- -	205
To which is added the value of $\frac{1}{8}$ of 41 l. which is		5 2 6
Makes the total		210 2 6

Third INSTANCE.

One of five carats $\frac{1}{4}$, the value of each carat is 42 pounds; multiply 5 by 42, that makes - -	210 pounds
Then add the value of $\frac{1}{4}$ of 42 l. which is	10 10
Makes the total - - -	220 10

REMARKS.

There being divers curious tables in the ingenious Mr. Jefferies's treatiſe of diamonds, relating to this new method of computation, I would recommend the peruſal thereof to all perſons of diſtinction, who are purchaſers of theſe jewels, as well as dealers therein: and as there have certainly been counterfeit diamonds impoſed upon the world, and that gentleman has offered his ſervice to the public, as an agent or broker therein, in order to prevent gentlemen being defrauded; I ſhould think it the intereſt of people of figure to employ ſo ſkilful a perſon, in a matter wherein they are liable to be greatly deceived. Nay, it has been ſaid, that even a royal perſonage of this kingdom was ſhamefully impoſed upon in jewels, which gave occaſion to the following lines:

But Annius, crafty ſeer, with ebon wand,
And well diſſembled em'rald in his hand,
Falſe as his gems, and canker'd as his coins, &c.
POPE's Dunciad.

The ingenious Mr. Ellicot, an eminent watchmaker in the city of London, hath given a memorial in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for 1745, on the ſpecific gravity of diamonds, whoſe climate, ſize, and tranſparency differ. Theſe differences produce not on the gravity $\frac{1}{148}$. The ſpecific gravity of the diamonds of Brazil is to that of the oriental ones, as 3513 is to 3517.

Some fine ſtones found in the mountains in the neighbourhood of Baffa, a large town of the iſle of Cyprus, are called Baffa diamonds; they are much eſteemed, and may be eaſily taken for true ones, though the connoiſſeurs find ſome difference.

A letter from Mr. John Ellicot, F. R. S. to the preſident, concerning the ſpecific gravity of diamonds, read July 4, 1745.

As from ſome experiments I have lately had the opportunity of making, it appears highly probable, that what has formerly been publiſhed concerning the ſpecific gravity of diamonds, is not to be depended upon; I hope a ſhort account of theſe experiments will not be unacceptable, eſpecially as I do not find the leaſt notice taken of the ſpecific gravity of diamonds, in any of the tables publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

In the account the honourable Mr. Boyle has given of diamonds (as publiſhed by Dr. Shaw, in his abridgment of that gentleman's philoſophical works*) he relates it 'as the opinion of a famous and experienced cutter of diamonds, that 'ſome rough diamonds were conſiderably heavier than others, 'of the ſame bigneſs, eſpecially, if they were cloudy or foul; 'and Mr. Boyle mentions one that weighed 8 grains and $\frac{8}{16}$; 'which, being carefully weighed in water, according to the 'rules of hydroſtatics, proved to an equal bulk of that li'quor, as $2\frac{2}{23}$ to 1; ſo that, as far as could be judged by 'that experiment, a diamond weighs not thrice ſo much as 'water.' And yet, in this table of ſpecific gravities, that of a diamond is ſaid to be to water as 3400 to 1000, or as 3, 4 to 1; and therefore, according to theſe two accounts, there ſhould be ſome diamonds, whoſe ſpecific gravity ſhall differ nearly the $\frac{1}{8}$ from others; which, I am perſuaded, is a much greater difference than could be expected in any bodies of the ſame kind, or that which, on a more nice examination, will be found to be in diamonds.

* Page 83. vol. v. new edition of Mr. Boyle's works in folio.

The firſt diamonds I had the opportunity of ſeeing weighed, were two very large ones from the Brazils, which were furniſhed by Mr. Chace, a merchant in Auſtin-friars: the ſpecific gravities of theſe were found to be much greater than the heavieſt of Mr. Boyle's, the one being as 3518, and the other as 3521 to 1000, and the difference between them leſs than the one thouſandth part. There were two ſmaller Brazil diamonds weighed at the ſame time, which indeed were not quite ſo heavy as the former, the lighteſt being but as 3501, the other as 3511; but as theſe were of the ſame kind, and comparatively ſmall, I judged this difference could not be much depended on. Having had therefore an opportunity, ſome time ſince, of a large parcel of Eaſt-India diamonds, I choſe out 10, which, both in ſhape and colour, and every other reſpect, were as different from each other as poſſible. Theſe being weighed in the ſame ſcales and water as the former, the lighteſt proved to be as 3512, and the heavieſt as 3525; the very near agreement of theſe laſt with each other, and with the former, though weighed at about eight months diſtance, makes it highly probable, that ſo great a difference as appears from the place above-cited, and Mr. Boyle's table, is not to be found in any diamonds whatſoever, much leſs ſo great a difference as appears between the lighteſt of his, and the heavieſt of mine, being above $\frac{1}{7}$ of the whole.

I had never made any experiments myſelf, by which I could form a judgment, how much of the difference between theſe and former trials might ariſe from the different tempers and qualities of the waters uſed; warm water being lighter than cold, and pump-water generally heavier than river-water: but, taking it for granted, that all perſons who make ſuch experiments uſe common and not mineral waters, and waters of the natural temper, and not heated deſignedly, I am aſſured by a friend, who has made many careful trials for this particular purpoſe (an account of which he has promiſed me he ſhall lay before the royal ſociety) that the ſpecific gravity of any body will not differ above $\frac{1}{200}$ at the moſt, on account of the quality of the water and temper taken together; whereas the heavieſt of Mr. Boyle's diamonds, as in his tables, differs from the lighteſt of mine, by above one thirty-fifth part, which is about ſix times as much as $\frac{1}{200}$: and yet I can think of no other way of accounting for the reſt of this difference, unleſs it ſhould ariſe from the ſmallneſs of the diamonds, or any defect in the inſtruments with which his experiments were made.

The ſcales in which theſe diamonds were weighed, turned very ſenſibly with the two hundredth part of a grain; and, as one of the diamonds weighed above 92 grains, it was capable of being weighed to leſs than the 18,000th part: ſeveral of them were weighed twice over, both in water and air, and the weights found to agree to the greateſt exactneſs; and if to this is added the very near agreement of the weights of the ſeveral diamonds, though weighed at different times, and at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, I think it highly improbable, that there could be any conſiderable miſtake in theſe trials; and therefore their ſpecific gravities, as in the following table, may fully be depended on.

I have

I have ſet down the weights of the ſeveral diamonds both in air and water; that, if any miſtake ſhould have happened, it may be the more eaſily rectified.

I am, SIR, with the greateſt reſpect,
Your obedient humble ſervant,
JOHN ELLICOT.

N		In air. grains.	In water. grains.	Spec. grav.
	Water - - -			1000
1	A Brazil diamond, fine water, rough coat -	92,425	66,16	3518
2	A Brazil diamond, fine water, rough coat -	88,21	63,16	3521
3	Ditto, fine bright coat -	10,025	7,170	3511
4	Ditto, fine bright coat -	9,560	6,830	3501
5	An Eaſt-India diamond, pale blue - -	26,485	18,945	3512
6	Ditto, bright yellow -	23,33	16,71	3524
7	Ditto, very fine water, bright coat - -	20,66	14'8	3525
8	Ditto, very bad water, honey-comb coat -	20,38	14,59	3519
9	Ditto, very hard bluiſh caſt -	22,5	16,1	3515
10	Ditto, very ſoft, good water	22,615	16,2	3525
11	Ditto, a large red foul in it	25,48	18,23	3514
12	Ditto, ſoft bad water -	29,525	21,140	3521
13	Ditto, ſoft brown coat -	26,535	18,99	3516
14	Ditto, very deep green coat	25,25	18,08	3521

The mean ſpecific gravity of the Brazil diamonds appears to be - - - 3513
The mean of the Eaſt-India diamonds - 3519
The mean of both to be - - 3517

DIRECTION-CHAMBER, is a court inſtituted in Old Spain, for the regulation of divers affairs, relating to their commerce to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies.

In order to diſpatch the buſineſs of this court, the preſident and commiſſioners, or judges by office, meet; and if any notable affair occurs, which the preſident thinks fit to conſult the oydores, or lawyers, about, he ſends for them, who take their places according to ſeniority.

So great variety of people repairing to this chamber on buſineſs, it was impoſſible to aſſign every degree it's place; but the general rule is, that the ſeinte y quatros, or aldermen of Seville; jurados, another ſort of magiſtrates, &c. ſit on the ſide benches, all others ſtanding below. Any nobleman of Caſtile, counſellor of the king, or archbiſhop, have a chair under the canopy, on the preſident's left-hand; but all others, though admirals, ſit on the ſide benches.

The whole juriſdiction was in this chamber alone, 'till the erecting the chamber of juſtice in 1563. From their firſt inſtitution 'till that time, they had full power in all caſes relating to affairs of the Weſt-Indies. Suits ariſing on matters not concerning the king's revenue, may be tried at the parties pleaſure, before this or any other court; and ſo in caſe of controverſies ariſing after the fleet is cleared, and goods delivered, unleſs the parties be owners, or maſters of ſhips, pilots, or ſailors.

This court has the right of trying thoſe that loſe ſhips, or are the cauſe of it; and of thoſe that intercept or break open letters ſent to the Weſt-Indies. In trials between ſeveral owners of one ſhip, about the ſale or freight of her, no appeal is allowed from this tribunal to the council. Factors, not anſwering their merchants returns, may, by their order, be brought from the Weſt-Indies; and even have been taken out of churches, giving ſecurity not to inflict corporal puniſhment.

This chamber takes all ſureties, as well for their own officers as for admirals, vice-admirals, and maſters of ſhips trading to the Weſt-Indies, of all which copies are delivered to the ſollicitor.

If any buſineſs occur when the court is not ſitting, the commiſſioners are called together. The preſident, or in his abſence, the eldeſt commiſſioner, delivers what has been determined. When any thing is put to the vote, the court is cleared, and the youngeſt ſpeaks firſt, but the eldeſt ſigns firſt. If they cannot agree in opinion, and the delay will not be prejudicial, 'tis referred to the king, ſending the ſeveral opinions to the council. But, if the buſineſs requires diſpatch, or is not of great moment, moſt votes carry it; he that diſſents may enter his diſſent, but muſt ſign the decree, to give it the greater authority.

This court alſo makes choice of ſhips, both in the armadas and flotas; pays the hire of ſhips occaſionally preſſed to make up the armadas; admits thoſe thought fit to make up the flotas; appoints maſters, licences, paſſengers, examines all rates and contracts for proviſions, &c. paſſes all orders for payments out of the revenue, &c. as alſo for freight due to maſters of veſſels, and for defraying religious perſons, that go to the Weſt-Indies on the king's account. He has alſo in charge making the moſt of uncoined ſilver and gold, pearls,

emeralds, and other commodities of the revenue, fines, ſalaries of the council, &c. puts up, and diſpoſes all packets of letters from the king, or private perſons, and forwards all that come over for the king and council.

The preſident and commiſſioners are to look to the receipt of the quickſilver brought from the mine at Almaden, or any other place the king ſhall direct; to ſee it well put up, according to order, and to obſerve that all officers under them obey their reſpective ordonnances, and the inſtructions given them.

The commiſſioners are to draw up the informations againſt maſters of ſhips, ſailors, and paſſengers, upon their viſiting ſhips, and to examine witneſſes, and then refer the whole to the chamber of juſtice. All warrants for apprehending any perſons, iſſued by either chamber, muſt be directed to the alguaziles of the ſame court. No ſuits are to be ſent up to the council before judgment given; no perſons apprehended by this court, who appeal to the council to be diſcharged, 'till their cauſes are determined; and the alguaziles may be ſent to all parts of the kingdom, not excepting the king's court; where, before they execute their warrants, they are to acquaint the king's attorney-general with them.

Any perſon upon trial, excepting againſt a judge of either chamber, is to give in the cauſe of ſuch exception upon oath, in writing; and, if he proves not his allegations, ſhall be fined the tenth part of the value of the buſineſs depending, if the principal exceed not 300,000 maravedies. The preſident, and other judges, are to declare the ſufficiency of the exceptions, as practiſed in this and all other courts. This is to be done with due modeſty, the party begging leave of the preſident, or of the judge he excepts againſt; and the petition is not to be delivered to the eſcrivano or clerk, but to the preſident; for if the cauſes of exception alledged be not found ſufficient to allow it, though they be proved, the petition is to be torn, and the petitioner fined 3000 maravedies.

DIRECTION, the government or conduct of a thing: it ſignifies alſo the employ of a director; as likewiſe the extent of a director's juriſdiction.

DIRECTION, in the matter of gabels in France, is a certain number of ſalt granaries depoſits, and controlls, united under one and the ſame management, and depending on the ſame chamber of direction.

They are ſeventeen in number, which are, Paris, Soiſſons, Abbeville, St. Quintin, Chalons, Troyes, Orleans, Tours, Anjou, Laval, Le Mans, Berry, Moulins, Rouen, Caen, Alençon, and Dijon.

DIRECTION, in France, is ſaid alſo of a meeting of many creditors, to compromiſe a debtor's affairs, as well among themſelves as with him. 'Tis ſo called, becauſe, to avoid confuſion and for the ſake of good order, they nominate and chuſe, by plurality of voices, a few perſons to direct them.

DIRECTOR, he who preſides in an aſſembly, or directs and conducts an affair.

We ſhall ſpeak here only of the directors whoſe offices relate to trade and mercantile concerns. The chief of theſe are, the directors of companies, and of the chambers of commerce, [ſee the article CHAMBER of COMMERCE;] the directors of the five great farms of France, thoſe of the aids and gabels, and the directors of creditors in the failures and bankruptcy of merchants.

The directors of trading companies in France,

Are uſually conſiderable perſons, choſe by plurality of voices from among the proprietors or ſtock-holders, who have a certain quantity of actions in the company's ſtock, and who are preſumed to have moſt probity, reputation, and experience, in the trade the company carries on.

'Tis not always neceſſary for them to profeſs trade, and they are often choſen from among the magiſtrates and officers of the finances; but it muſt be confeſſed, that, howſoever knowing and ingenious directors of this ſtamp may be, they are far from being ſo well qualified for the office as ſkilful, wealthy, and experienced merchants; and 'tis perhaps, in the opinions of good judges, owing hereunto, that many companies eſtabliſhed in France, where this election of directors not merchants, is more common than elſewhere, have miſcarried.

Their number is often regulated by letters patents, or royal charters, in the ſtates wherein the ſettlement is made. Sometimes the intereſted parties or ſtock-holders, are left to their liberty of chuſing as many as they think neceſſary. It ſeldom happens that the prince names all of them, but he often appoints ſome, eſpecially at the firſt eſtabliſhment of a trading company.

The Dutch Eaſt-India company, which has been a model for moſt others, hath ſixty directors, divided into ſix chambers; twenty in that of Amſterdam, twelve in Zealand, and ſeven in each of the chambers of Delft, Rotterdam, Horn, and Enchuyſen.

The French India company, eſtabliſhed in 1664, had twenty-one, twelve of the city of Paris, and nine of the other moſt important and trading cities of the kingdom.

Theſe directors, meeting in a certain number on a day appointed by letters patents, debate on the company's affairs, draw up regulations, ſubſcribe letters, receive the accounts,

make the ſub-diviſions, ſign ordonnances of payment for the caſhier's diſcharge; and laſtly, determine concerning the police to be obſerved, whether among them in Europe, or in the counting-houſe, lodges, forts, and colonies, where they have deputies reſiding to carry on their trade, and to regulate their forces for it's ſecurity.

It belongs alſo to the directors or deputies choſen from among them, to appoint the number of veſſels, the purchaſe of them, their fitting out and cargo, the times of their going out, the places they are to touch at in their voyage; and, laſtly, the number of officers and ſailors, and of the merchants, ſub-merchants, writers, and deputies, who are to have care of the merchandizes.

They alſo, on the return of the ſhips, receive and examine the journals of the captains and pilots, the bills of lading, purſers accounts; hear the complaints of the crews, and pay them their wages: and, laſtly, cauſe the goods to be laid in the company's warehouſes, advertiſe the public by their bills of the days and hours of their ſale, in which the goods are diſpoſed of to the laſt and higheſt bidders.

Here might be added more of their functions, but, beſides that ſuch an enumeration would be tireſome, theſe which are the principal, may ſeem to give a ſufficient idea.

Moſt companies in France allow their directors certain fees of preſence, as they are termed, to render them more aſſiduous in the meetings, and to prevent their affairs ſuffering, by their not meeting to the number ſettled by the regulations. In France 'tis cuſtomary, beſide theſe dues of preſence, to diſtribute ſilver medals with the company's arms and device to the directors preſent, with increaſe on the part of thoſe abſent.

Beſide theſe directors who reſide in Europe, and there ſuperintend the general œconomy of the trading companies, they are alſo in the principal places of Aſia, Africa, and America, where they trade, and are diſtinguiſhed by the title of directors-general, and, by an honourable abbreviation, generals; ſuch is the general of the French company at Pondicherry, the Dutch general at Batavia, and the Daniſh at Tranquebar.

The Engliſh give them the quality of preſidents; they have two of them in the Eaſt-Indies, one at Surat, and the other at Bantam. But this laſt has not reſided there for ſome time.

Theſe directors-general abſolutely diſpoſe of all the company's effects, regulate their trade, eſtabliſh new counting-houſes, command all the merchants, ſub-merchants, commiſſioners, and even captains of ſhips, make preſents to princes and their miniſters, ſend ambaſſadors to them, make treaties of commerce with them, declare war, &c. in all which they are, indeed, ſubordinate to the European directors: but, as thoſe orders are long in coming, that it would be frequently dangerous to wait for them, they are a kind of ſovereigns, that may do every thing in their maſters names, only on adviſing them thereof when done, either to receive confirmation, or an order to give account of it, according as they are ſatisfied or otherwiſe with their conduct.

'Tis true, theſe generals have uſually a council; but which they either do not conſult, or ſeldom follow it's advice: ſo that it may be ſaid, that although the ſucceſs of a trading company ſeems to depend on the aſſembly of the directors in Europe, who give the orders, it depends ſtill more on the director-general, who is to execute them abroad.

We ſpeak not here of particular directors, who act, whether in Europe or out of it, by order of the directors-general, becauſe they are but deputies, and little different, as to their office, from the directors of the cuſtoms, farms, aids, and gabels, of whom we ſhall ſpeak in another place.

Directors of the chambers of commerce in France. See the article CHAMBERS of COMMERCE.

The decrees of the council of ſtate of Lewis the XIVth, for erecting thoſe chambers in ſome cities of France, gave the quality of directors, to merchants compoſing ſome of thoſe chambers.

In ſome chambers they are called ſyndics, and in others deputies.

They are merchants choſen yearly, by plurality of voices, in the different bodies of merchants of the cities, where ſuch chambers are eſtabliſhed; they meet once or twice a week in the hall of the city, or other place, appointed by the decrees for erection, there to debate on affairs of trade, and to anſwer memorials and conſultations ſent them by the deputy, which each CHAMBER keeps at Paris, near the ROYAL COUNCIL OF COMMERCE. They alſo ratify and confirm, or invalidate all contracts in trade, made on the places of exchange in thoſe cities; none of which may be received among the merchants and bankers, unleſs approved and authenticated by the chamber.

Every meeting-day, ſilver medals are diſtributed to them, and a gold medal to each at going out of their office. The number of medals, and the weight and value thereof, are different, according to the different decrees of their eſtabliſhment.

REMARKS.

Under the article COMPANIES, we have conſidered the nature of them in general, and referred to other heads, in order more particularly to elucidate ſome eſſential circumſtances relating thereto, which, I humbly conceive, may deſerve the public attention.

Being at preſent upon the directors of trading companies, it may not be altogether uſeleſs to dwell a little upon this matter. Previous to which I ſhall take leave to recommend the reader to the articles ACTION, BUBBLE, and ASSIENTO, which will render what I have further to obſerve the more intelligible.

Although certain excluſive trading companies may not have proved ſo much to the intereſts of the national commerce, as if thoſe branches of trade had been, or at leaſt were at preſent, free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects; yet ſome companies, peculiarly circumſtanced, may poſſibly prove beneficial, under certain temporary reſtrictions and regulations; in order to cut out, by dint of a joint ſtock capital, ſuch a commerce as could otherwiſe never have taken place at all, private adventurers neither being able or willing to run the riſque neceſſary upon ſuch commencements.

But, when theſe new branches of trade have been well eſtabliſhed, and the primary adventurers have reaped a reaſonable compenſation for their hazard, it may not be, at certain points of time, leſs national to lay them aſide, than it was politic firſt to eſtabliſh them. And one great reaſon for this may be, not only the nature and conſtitution of the company, but the executive management of their affairs, by thoſe who are appointed their governors and directors. For, although the conſtitution of a company be ever ſo wiſely and nationally deviſed, yet, if corruption once creeps into the public management, there is ſeldom any end of it, 'till it draws on, and terminates in a cataſtrophe generally calamitous.—Some of theſe may, perhaps, ſpin out their ſtate of corruption, by a regular ſucceſſion of villains to a long day; and therefore the evil appears the leſs flagrant and nefarious, by being ſo artfully concealed, as only to ſteal gradually, and, as it were, inſenſibly, upon the public; whereby the property of ſuch companies changing hands ſo often, and every new proprietor loſing only a little, the malignancy of the corruption has been ſtifled; and though it has not, from the length of time, appeared with ſo flagitious an aſpect, yet it has not in reality been the leſs enormous.

What renders evils of this kind the more univerſally injurious, is, that by far the greater majority of the proprietors are widows and orphans, and other perſons, who are not ſufficiently knowing in the affairs of public companies, to effectually detect any ſcenes of iniquity that may be carrying on.—Nay, experience hath evinced, that many of the directors themſelves have been excluded from the grand ſecret, which was hatching by the ſuperlative harpies, to enrich and aggrandize themſelves on the ruin of thouſands: and, if thoſe within doors, who have ſet at the board of direction, have ſometimes been egregiouſly deceived by their brethren, 'tis no wonder, that all without doors have too often been their dupes and bubbles.

Wherefore, it is not only the right and national conſtitution of a public trading company that is neceſſary, the upright conduct and management of their affairs is vigilantly to be inſpected. For, if the directors of ſuch companies are either weak or wicked, they may be inſtrumental to the greateſt public calamity, as hath proved the caſe. Is it not the intereſt, therefore, of the moſt ſagacious proprietors, to make themſelves maſters, not only of the nature and conſtitution of ſuch corporations, but of the conduct of their ſucceſſive directors? If thoſe who are the moſt ſkilful and experienced, will not take this trouble upon them; if they will not duly attend the general courts, and ſtudiouſly inform themſelves of whatever paſſes, can they expect that the widow and the orphan, and thoſe that are unborn, ſhould take care of their intereſt for them?

Nor are the qualifications of integrity and ability the only ones requiſite in ſuch a director; due attention and application to the public buſineſs is equally neceſſary; for acts of neglect and omiſſion may be as detrimental to the proprietors, as thoſe of commiſſion; and although ſome ſhould think, that they may not deſerve that degree of puniſhment, yet they merit ſuch as is adequate to their criminal conduct: nay, it may be a moot point with the caſuiſt to determine, whether acts of omiſſion, eſpecially in caſes where the welfare of thouſands is concerned, are not equally culpable with thoſe of commiſſion; for the weight of intereſt, honour, and reputation of ſuch, may prove wire-draws to numbers to embark in theſe corporations, who would never have done ſo, if the high character, credit, and diſintereſtedneſs of ſome of the managers, were not the inducement: and, if theſe neglect their duty, why are they not as criminal as thoſe who commit acts of ſupererogation, to enrich themſelves by the public plunder?

DIRECTORS of CREDITORS, are perſons of ability and probity, choſen in France by votes of the creditors, to inſpect and examine the debtor's affairs, and to procure as far as poſſible, by common methods of juſtice, the payment of what's due to each in particular.

These kind of directions are chiefly used in the failure or bankruptcy of some trader or merchant, whose affairs are in a bad situation; but who, though unfortunate, is of integrity, and puts himself in the hands of his creditors, without concealing any of his effects.

If the failure is considerable, the directors chosen are, for their own security, to cause the act of their nomination to be confirmed, in the consular jurisdiction, if there be one at the place; if not, in such other jurisdictions as are where the failure happens; and to have chose, by the same assembly that names them, a notary to receive the acts of the deliberations, which shall be made by the general assemblies of the creditors, of which they are likewise to note the place, days, and hour of sitting, that none may have cause of complaint, or plead ignorance.

The powers usually given them by the creditors, are:

To proceed to make a schedule of all the effects, both active and passive; and of registers, bundles of letters, and other papers of their debtor.

To see and examine the estate they shall have produced, his books and records, and to see if they are within the terms of the ordonnance made for that purpose. See BANKRUPT.

To cause his wares and moveables to be sold, and to deposit the money in the hands, either of the notary of the direction, or of some other responsible person.

To sue for, and recover all the active debts.

Lastly, to examine the contracts of constitutions, transactions, obligations, letters, bills of exchange, and other vouchers, of those who pretend to be creditors, in order to report all these things to the general assemblies.

The principal obligations of the directors are, not to make advantage of their power, and the confidence reposed in them, but to use it for the good and advantage of all the creditors in general.

To admit no one to the meetings who is not a creditor, or at least charged with a letter of attorney, by some one whose credit is indisputable.

To bring the opposing parties to a consent at the opening of the seals, and to appoint the senior to act in behalf of all.

To examine, in proceeding to the inventory of the goods, the pieces that are claimed, to be restored to their owners, in case they are acknowledged to be such as they ought, according to the observed custom in such cases.

The schedule of goods, moveables, and papers being made, to examine the book and memoirs, to see if they are conformable to the estate of his effects given in.

To cause the bankrupt to give an account of his actions, that is to say of his losses, and whether they proceed from shipwrecks, bankruptcies of his debtors, and other such-like events, merely unfortunate.

To examine exactly the credit of such creditor, their hypotheque and right to the goods of the bankrupt, even of the wife's right, to avoid all surprize, too common on these occasions.

To view attentively the dates of the sales of immoveables, cessions of active debts, bills of exchange drawn, or orders passed by the bankrupt; to see if they be not made to suspected persons, and within too short a time of his failure.

To draw out a true state, in debit and credit, of all his effects, active and passive.

Lastly, to give an account, and make an exact and faithful report, by one of the directors at the general meeting of the creditors, of all their observations and discoveries, not severely exaggerating any thing against the debtor, or favouring him through false pity; not making any overture either for or against him, but leaving to himself the liberty of making his proposals, and to the creditors of accepting them, by a remittance, or time, or of treating him with rigour by sale of his effects, and dividing to themselves the produce.

DIRECTORS GENERAL of the five great farms of the gabels, and aids, &c. in France, are chief commissioners, who have the direction of these farms, each in the districts appointed them by the general farmers. They have not the inspection of each other; but each hath the general direction of his district; whence the quality of directors general hath been given equally to all, being not accountable to any but the general farmers.

They are to make a circuit at least once a year, in all the courts under their directions; they examine and take the receivers accounts, registers of comptrollers, and inform themselves of the conduct of others employed, whom they may, in some cases, even deprive of their authority, 'till it shall be otherwise ordered by the superiors.

There is also, in the custom-house of Paris, a general director of accounts, to whom are sent all the accounts of the general directors, to be examined, and put in condition to be settled by those who are charged with that office by the farmers general.

DISCOUNT, a term used among traders, merchants, and bankers. When by the two former, it is used sometimes on occasion of their buying commodities on the usual time of credit, with a condition that the seller shall allow the buyer a certain discount, at the rate of so much per cent. per annum, for the time for which the credit is generally given, upon condition that the buyer pays ready money for such commodities, instead of taking the time of credit. Also traders and merchants, frequently taking promissory notes for monies due payable to them, or order, at a certain time, and sometimes having occasion for money before the time is elapsed, procure those notes to be discounted by bankers, or other monied men, before the time of payment; which discount is more or less, according to the credit and reputation of the person who drew the note, and the indorser, or indorsers, &c. Bills of exchange also are discounted by bankers, and the bank of England; wherein consists one article of the profits of banking. See BANKING.

The Sieur de la Porte informs us, that they make a distinction in France with regard to money due for the purchase and sale of commodities, and on account of raising money by discounting bills of exchange; the latter being computed upon the principles of common interest, by so much on the 100 l. and that occasioned by commodities, on the hundred pound and the discount added together: but, bills of exchange being far more frequently negociable on the account of the sale and purchase of merchandize, than by the way of mere banking, either of a foreign or domestic nature, there seems to be no reason for this distinction.

REMARKS.

This affair of discount being too generally mistaken, it may be necessary to say something upon the subject.

Dr Harris, in his Lexicon, tells us, that the discount for one day is asserted to be the 365th part of a year: however this mistake came, I know not; but his two folio pages of tables of discount, being constructed upon the same principle, are likewise erroneous, as are all those which have been since built thereupon.

The most accurate tables of discount extant in our language, that I have met with, are those of Mr. Smart, which are founded upon the following true principles of decimal arithmetic. See ARITHMETIC.

To find the annual discount of one pound, at 2 per cent. divide .02 by 1.02; and $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. divide .025 by 1.025; at 3 per cent. by 1.03; at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. .035 by 1.035, &c. and the several quotients will be the discounts required.

And thus the discount of one pound for one year is found, at the several rates following, viz.

At	2 per cent. the discount is found to be	.0196,0784,5237
	$2\frac{1}{2}$	.0243,9024,3902
	3	.0291,2621,3592
	$3\frac{1}{2}$	.0338,1642,5121
	4	.0384,6153,8462
	$4\frac{1}{2}$	.0430,6220,0957
	5	.0476,1904,7619
	6	.0566,0377,3585
	7	.0654,2056,0748
	8	.0740,7407,4074
	9	.0825,6880,7339
	10	.0909,0909,0909

The discount of one pound, for one year, being multiplied by any principal sum, the product will be the annual discount of that principal.

EXAMPLES.

What is the discount of 100 l. for one year, at 5 per cent?

The discount of one pound for one year, at 5 per cent. is	.0476,19, &c.
Which multiplied by the principal sum	100
The product will be	4,7619, &c.

Answer, l. 4 : 15 : $2\frac{3}{4}$.

So that he who allows 5 l. for the discount of 100 l. for one year, at 5 per cent. (than which nothing is more common) wrongs himself; for he ought to receive so much money as, at 5 per cent. interest, will amount to 100 l. in one year, which less than l. 95 : 4 : $9\frac{1}{4}$ will not do.

What is the discount of 9342 l. at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for one year?

The discount of one pound for one year, as above, at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. is	.0430,62, &c.
Which multiplied by the principal sum	9342
The product will be	402,2852, &c.

Answer, l. 402 : 5 : $8\frac{1}{2}$.

Thus the annual discount of any sum is found, by one multiplication.

The discount of one pound for any number of days is found thus, viz. first, find in the table of simple interest [see INTEREST TABLES] what is the interest of one pound, for any given number of days, at any given rate: then say, by the

the common rule of three, As 1 l. and the intereſt ſo found, is to 1 l. ſo is 1 l. to a fourth number, the arithmetical complement of which ſaid fourth number, will be the diſcount of 1 l. for the ſame number of days, at the ſame rate.

Or, to expreſs it otherwiſe, divide unity by 1 l. and the intereſt thereof, and the arithmetical complement of the quotient, will be the diſcount required.

EXAMPLE at 5 per cent.

1ſt find 1 l. and the intereſt thereof, for 1 day, to be 1.0001,3699
2 ——— 1.0002,7397
3 ——— 1.0004,1096
4 ——— 1.0005,4795
5 ——— 1.0006,8493
&c.

Then divide unity by

	And the quotient will be	The arithmetical complement of which is	And is the diſcount of one pound for
1.0001,3699	.9998,6303	.0001,3697	1 day
1.0002,7397	.9997,2610	.0002,7390	2
1.0004,1096	.9995,8921	.0004,1079	3
1.0005,4795	.9994,5235	.0005,4765	4
1.0006,8493	.9993,1554	.0006,8446	5
1.0008,2192	.9991,7876	.0008,2124	6
1.0009,5890	.9990,4202	.0009,5798	7
1.0010,9589	.9989,0531	.0010,9469	8
1.0012,3288	.9987,6864	.0012,3136	9
1.0013,6986	.9986,3201	.0013,6799	10
1.0136,9863	.9864,8649	.0135,1351	100
1.0273,9726	.9733,3333	.0266,6667	200
	&c.		

And thus the tables of diſcount may be conſtructed for uſe. With reſpect to the various diſcounts and allowances granted by ſeveral acts of parliament to merchants, importers and exporters, ſee the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE at the end of letter A, concerning the manner of computing the DUTIES of cuſtoms, and deducting the ſeveral diſcounts: and ſee alſo the concluſive part of letter A, following the RULES, ORDERS, and DIRECTIONS, &c. relative to the cuſtom-houſe diſcounts.

DISCREDIT, loſs or diminution of the credit any thing had before. This word is in France, ſays Mr. Savary, very new, the uſe of it not having been introduced into commerce but ſince the year 1719, when the decrees of the council of ſtate uſed it to expreſs the loſs ſuſtained by the actions of the India company, bank-bills, and the little currency they had with the public.

The term was invented in oppoſition to that of credit, which ſignifies the favour that trading bills, as well public as private, are wont ſometimes to have ſuddenly, according to the conjunctures, in the negociations between merchants and bankers.

DISTILLATION. The arts here to be conſidered are thoſe of malt-diſtilling, rectifying, and compounding.

EXPERIMENT I.

The method of diſtilling malt-waſh, or a fermented mixture of meal and malt for ſpirit.

Fill two thirds of a ſtill, firſt moiſtened by the ſteam of boiling water, with malt-waſh; immediately clap on the head, and lute it down, there will ſoon run a ſpirituous inflammable liquor.

Thus is obtained what the malt-diſtillers call a malt low wine; what comes over, after the ſpirit falls off from being proof, is called faints.

This experiment may be rendered general, with ſlight variation, for, if any wine, beer, or fermented liquor from ſugar, treacle, fruits, &c. be thus treated, it affords a ſpirit, differing only according to the nature of the ſubject.

But none of them will afford the leaſt inflammable ſpirit without a previous fermentation.

The requiſite cautions for ſucceſs are, (1.) That the fermentation be well performed. (2.) That it be gently diſtilled, with a ſoft, well-regulated fire. (3.) That the groſſer oil, apt to riſe along with the ſpirit, be let out by flannel under the noſe of the worm. Theſe cautions obſerved, the low wines will be pure and vinous.

All the ſpirit being thus obtained, there remains in the ſtill what they commonly call bottoms, generally given to the hogs.

EXPERIMENT II.

The method of ſimple rectification, or diſtilling the lower wines into proof ſpirits for ſale.

The lower wines of the laſt experiment, diſtilled in a bath-heat, give a higher rectified ſpirit than before; which being let down with fair water, to a certain ſize or ſtandard, called proof, which the malt-diſtillers underſtand by proof-goods, or their rectified malt-ſpirit.

The inconveniencies of this art, on account of the many large veſſels required, which increaſe the labour and price of the commodity, might, perhaps, be remedied by the introduction of a new art, ſubſervient to the malt-diſtillers, and confined to the boiling down the malt-wort to a rob: wherefore we recommend it to thoſe who are ſkilled in this branch of diſtillation, to try whether a ſpirit ſuperior to that of treacle may not be procured from the rob of malt, prudently prepared and fermented.

EXPERIMENT III.

The art of a rectifier; by which the proof-goods are made into a cleaner ſpirit, for the finer uſes of the compounder and apothecary.

If three ounces of a mixture of tartar and nitre, calcined to a blackneſs, be added to two gallons of the common proof-ſpirit of the laſt experiment, and all that will run in an uninterrupted ſtream be drawn over with a bath-heat. This ſpirit, made proof with fair water, is the common ſaleable proof-goods of the rectifying diſtiller, when he works to a truth. If it be deſired ſtill cheaper, one of the beſt methods is, to dilute the ſtrongeſt part, that comes over firſt, with a large proportion of water, and draw off the ſpirit gently again in balneo, making it up proof with fine ſoft water. But this gives the ſpirit a nauſeous and diſagreeable flavour; nor do the rectifiers know any good method for the purpoſe, being little apprehenſive that it is the oil of the malt reſiding in the ſpirit which cauſes all their trouble; or that it is the eſſential oil of the ſubject which gives to malt-ſpirits, brandies, rums, and arracks, their particular flavour: for if, by ſeparating it, the ſpirit could be rendered flavourleſs and taſteleſs, it would be ſuſceptible of any by the addition of other eſſential oils, ſo as to reſemble either French brandy, rum, or arrack.

The chemiſts have helped them to a tolerable expedient for covering the imperfections which they cannot cleanſe, viz. by adding dulcified ſpirit of nitre; a ſmall proportion whereof gives an agreeable vinoſity to a hogſhead of ſpirit: but this has it's inconvenience; for the flavour is apt to be loſt, when the ſpirit is kept in a caſk, though ſucceſsful, if well ſtopped down in a glaſs.

The art of the rectifier might be ſet aſide as uſeleſs, if the original malt-diſtiller could make his ſpirits perfect at a ſecond operation, as we judge it might, and would recommend as an improvement, firſt, the brewing in perfection; ſecondly, the keeping their waſh, after the manner of ſtale beer, 'till it has entirely loſt it's malt flavour, and acquired a pungent acid vinocity; and, thirdly, leaving out the lees, to diſtil with a well-regulated fire. It is ſcarce to be conceived how agreeable a ſpirit may be thus procured from malt, at the very firſt diſtillation.

EXPERIMENT IV.

The method of examining proof in ſpirits, and detecting the invalidity of the common way of judging of the purity, genuineneſs, and goodneſs of brandies, rums, and arracks.

The common method, by ſtriking a phial of common proof-ſpirit againſt the palm of the hand, is a mere fallacy and deception.

To prevent being impoſed upon in this way, we might have recourſe to the hydroſtatical ballance: a gallon of alcohol is computed to weigh ſeven pounds and a half, and a gallon of water eight pounds; whence the compound gravity of an equal mixture of both may be aſſigned. See the article BRANDY.

One of the beſt methods to prevent being impoſed on, is to acquire a habit of judging by the taſte and ſmell.

The beſt method of making cordial or compound waters.

Infuſe a pound of freſh citron-peel in two gallons of good melaſſes ſpirit; draw off the ſpirit gently by the ſtill, with care to avoid the faints; then making up, as they call it, with ſoft water, ſo as to leave the liquor proof, add half a pound of fine ſugar: and thus is procured a genuine citron-water.

This is general, and ſhews the uſual methods of making all the compound or cordial waters, by thoſe called compounders, and alſo by the apothecaries.

The perfection of this branch of diſtillation depends upon the obſervance of a few rules, eaſy to be complied with; which we ſhall here lay down, as judging them of conſequence to the improvement not only of the art of the compounder, but alſo of a branch of pharmacy and medicine.

(1.) To uſe a well-cleanſed ſpirit, freed from it's own eſſential oil. For, as the ſpirit is to be impregnated with the eſſential oil of other ingredients, it ought firſt to have depoſited it's own.

(2.) To ſuit the time of previous digeſtion to the tenacity of the ingredients, or the ponderoſity of their oil. Thus rhodium-wood and cinnamon require longer digeſtion than calamus aromaticus, or lemon-peel: ſometimes, alſo, cohobation proves neceſſary, as particularly in making the ſtrong cinnamon-water.

(3.) To ſuit the fire, or ſtrength of the diſtillation, to the ponderoſity of the oil intended to be raiſed with the ſpirit. Thus cinnamon water ſhould be diſtilled off briſker than the ſpirit of mint or baum.

(4.) That a due proportion of only the fine eſſential oil of the ingredients be thoroughly united with the ſpirit, ſo as to keep out the groſſer and leſs fragrant oil.

This

This may be chiefly effected by leaving out the faints, and making up to ſtrong proof with fine ſoft water, in their ſtead. And on the obſervance of theſe four eaſy rules, the perfection of the art of compound diſtillation ſeems to depend.

The addition of fine ſugar, being of little moment, may be uſed or omitted occaſionally. And, if theſe directions be obſerved, there will be no need of fining down cordial waters with allum, whites of eggs, or the like, as they will be preſently bright, ſweet, and pleaſant-taſted, without farther trouble.

Remarks.

1. We learn from our preſent enquiry, that inflammable ſpirits are produced by vinous fermentation.

2. That the action of fermentation produces ſuch a change in the waſh, as renders it ſeparable by fire into ſeveral portions of matters, beſides the inflammable ſpirit, ſpecifically different from what the liquor would have afforded without fermentation.

3. That, at different times of diſtillation, there comes over a liquor of different properties, viz. firſt, an extremely acrid, aromatic, and biting one, which goes off by degrees, and ends in acidity.

4. That the art of malt-diſtilling may be conſiderably improved, (1.) By reducing the brewing and fermenting parts to one operation; (2.) by diſtilling ſlow; and, (3.) by keeping out the groſs oil of the ſubject.

5. That this art may be further improved, by fermenting a clear, well brewed wort, and keeping it to be ſtale.

6. That the perfection of the art of malt-diſtilling requires the aſſiſtance of a new one, to produce a kind of treacle from malt.

7. That the eſſential oil of the vegetable ſubject is what gives to all ſpirits their particular odours and flavours.

8. That the fineſt and moſt efficacious part of this oil, always riſes firſt in diſtillation.

9. That the purity of the ſpirit, merely ſuch, greatly depends on their being cleanſed firſt of their eſſential oil, next of the phlegm.

10. That brandies are a mixture of one half water, and the other alcohol; and, therefore, their water may be commodiouſly left behind, upon exportation or carriage.

11. That the perfection of rectification depends upon finding out a ſimple method of ſeparating all the oil and water from a ſpirit.

12. That a ſure method of determining the ſtrength of brandies, is by deflagration, or burning away their alcohol; then examining the remaining phlegm by weight or meaſure.

DISTILLER, he who diſtilleth, or worketh in that part of chemiſtry, which, by means of fire, raiſed to certain degrees, ſeparates, and draws, from mixtures, waters, ſpirits, eſſences, and extracts.

Phyſicians and apothecaries cannot diſpenſe without moſt of the chemical operations performed by diſtillation; and many artizans require for their work oils, ſtrong waters, and divers other drugs, that are diſtilled by the alembic.

Diſtillation, ſo uſeful both for health and trade, may nevertheleſs be very contrary to both, by the ill uſe that is eaſily made of it; for, as it ſupplies excellent remedies for the conſervation of life, and drugs for ſeveral manufactures, ſo likewiſe the deadlieſt poiſons are prepared by it, and waters that change and diſſolve metals for purification.

To prevent the ill effects of an operation otherwiſe ſo neceſſary, ſeveral ordinances, decrees, and regulations, have been made, eſpecially for the city of Paris, where no one is permitted to have furnaces, alembics, retorts, recipients, and other veſſels and utenſils proper for that part of chemiſtry, without letters obtained from the king, or permiſſions from the magiſtrates, or, laſtly, unleſs he be received maſter in the company of diſtillers there eſtabliſhed.

The royal ordinances, and regulations of the police, permitting thoſe only to diſtil who have obtained letters, are ancient, and have been often renewed; but, with reſpect to the company of diſtillers, it is new, having not ſubſiſted a century.

Of the company of diſtillers at Paris.

The decree of the court of coins, which erected that company into a ſworn body, and gave the ſtatutes, is dated the 5th of April, 1639: the maſters are there ſtiled maſters of the art and craft of diſtillers of ſtrong waters, brandy, and other waters, ſpirits and eſſences, circumſtances and dependences, in the city and ſuburbs of Paris.

They conſiſt of 25 articles. Two jurats, called alſo wardens of the craft, of whom one is elected every year, are to ſee to the performance of them, in conjunction with the two eldeſt bachelors.

Theſe jurats have a right to viſit not only maſters, but all who practiſe chemical diſtillations, and others who keep furnaces and laboratories for diſtilling, maſters and refiners of the Mint excepted. Beſides theſe viſits of the jurats, they are made, from time to time, by two officers of the court of coins, expreſsly deputed for thoſe exraordinary viſits.

No one may exerciſe the trade of a diſtiller, unleſs he is maſter, nor be received maſter, unleſs he has ſerved his apprenticeſhip.

Apprentices may not be bound for leſs than four years, and muſt afterwards ſerve two years as journeymen, before they take their freedom.

Each maſter can take but one apprentice at a time.

Every apprentice, not a maſter's ſon, muſt perform a maſter-piece of work before he can receive his freedom; a maſter's ſon, however, is to produce vouchers of his four years ſervice, either with his father or ſome other.

The maſter-piece is made in preſence of the jurats, and a counſellor of the court of coins.

Beſide what relates to diſtillation, the candidate is to be examined, whether he can read and write, and to ſhew by certificate that he is 24 years of age. Maſters ſons are not exempt from theſe two articles, no more than from the new examen that all are to undergo, when they appear at the court to take the oath.

Widows, continuing ſuch, may have furnaces, and keep journeymen, but not bind apprentices.

Maſter diſtillers are permitted to diſtil all ſorts of ſtrong waters, oils, ſpirits, and eſſences, except aqua regia, which all perſons, of what quality ſoever, are prohibited to make or ſell, leſt it ſhould be uſed to diminiſh the coin, without altering the impreſs.

The maſters are obliged to keep a regiſter of the quantity of ſtrong waters they vend, and of the quality, names, and abode of the perſons to whom ſold, and not to ſell more than two pounds at a time, without permiſſion of the court, unleſs to the maſters of the Mint, and to the refiners.

They may not lend their furnaces, nor ſuffer foreigners to work at them at home, without permiſſion likewiſe obtained, and are even obliged to give notice to the court of coins, of perſons whom they know to have a laboratory and furnaces, without having had letters or permiſſion.

Foreign merchandizes are to be brought by the merchants to the company's court, to be viewed; no diſtiller of Paris may buy them, nor foreign dealer ſell, before ſuch inſpection.

Laſtly, all conteſts relating to the ſaid trade, the viſitations of jurats, maſters, apprentices, and journeymen, are to be referred to the court of monies, to which alone the cognizance is reſerved, on pain of 500 livres fine.

Diſtillers in brandies, and ſpirit of wine, is one of the qualifications that the maſter vinegar-makers of Paris take in their ſtatutes.

A ſhort hiſtory of the laws of England in regard to Diſtillers.

Stat. 10 and 11 W. III. cap. 4. A diſtiller ſhall not keep any private pipe, ſtop-cock, &c. by which liquors fit for diſtillation may be conveyed from one back, or veſſel, to another, under the penalty of 100 l. and officers of the exciſe, with a conſtable, &c. may dig and break up the ground, or other place, to ſearch for ſuch pipes, &c. which ſhall be ſeized as forfeited, &c.

6 Geo. I. cap. 20. Diſtillers to make an entry of all warehouſes for keeping brandy, on pain of 20 l. and forfeiture of the liquor; and no brandy ſhall be ſold but in places entered, under penalty of 40 s. a gallon.

2 Geo. II. c. 17. An exciſe duty of 5 s. per gallon to be paid by diſtillers for all mixed or compound waters called gin, geneva, &c. and entries made of ſtills and ſtill-houſes, on pain of forfeiting 20 l. Retailers of theſe liquors, ſelling leſs than a gallon, to take out a licence at the chief exciſe-office, and pay 20 l. yearly, or ſhall forfeit 50 l. But waters uſed by apothecaries, and arrack, rum, citron-water, Iriſh uſquebaugh, &c. are excepted.

3 Geo. II. cap. 7. Cyder, &c. uſed in diſtilling ſtrong waters, ſhall be exempted from the duty of exciſe; but diſtillers, uſing it in any other way but diſtillation, are liable to 5 l. penalty.

6 Geo. II. cap. 17. Duty on compound waters or ſpirits, and French brandy, &c. taken off, and other duties granted, of 1 s. and 2 s. a gallon, to be raiſed in the ſame manner as exciſe upon beer, &c. and diſtillers or others may export ſpirits drawn from corn of Great-Britain, without other mixture, and, on oath that duties are paid, ſhall be allowed a drawback of 4 l. 18 s. per ton, &c.

9 Geo. II. cap. 23. No perſon to retail brandy, rum, or geneva, by any name, in leſs quantity than two gallons, without firſt taking out licences, and paying 50 l. to the next office of exciſe, &c. on penalty of 100 l. and perſons retailing theſe ſpirituous liquors to pay a duty of 20 s. per gallon: ſuch retailers are to make a true entry of all their warehouſes, ſhops, cellars, &c. under the penalty of 20 l. and 40 s. for every gallon of liquor concealed; and officers for the ſaid duties have power to enter warehouſes, and take an account thereof.

If any perſon who ſells goods, wares, or proviſions by retail, do give away any ſpirituous liquors to ſervants, &c. it ſhall be deemed a retailing them: and no perſon ſhall hawk, or ſell brandy, &c. about the ſtreets, highways, or fields, in any wheelbarrow or baſket, or on a bulk, ſtall, or ſhed, &c. on pain of 10 l. being convicted before a juſtice; and, not pay-

ing it, to be committed to the houſe of correction for two months.

This act ſhall not extend to phyſicians or apothecaries, &c. as to any ſpirituous liquors uſed in medicines, nor to charge with duties aqua vitæ retailed in Scotland: and perſons who have been diſtillers ſeven years, may exerciſe any other trade, &c.

10 Geo. II. c. 17. Forfeitures impoſed on unlawful retailers of ſpirituous liquors, &c. to be recovered and mitigated as by laws of exciſe, except otherwiſe ordained by 9 Geo. II. cap. 23.

And, where offenders cannot pay fines, the commiſſioners to advance rewards for information, and ſuch offenders to be whipped.

11 Geo. II. cap. 26. The occupiers of any houſe, or place, where ſpirituous liquors are ſold, if privy thereto, to be judged retailers, and forfeit 100 l. and perſons to the number of five that, in a riotous manner, aſſemble to beat or wound informers, or reſcue offenders, ſhall be guilty of felony, and tranſported: and, if any officer of the peace refuſes to be aiding in execution of theſe acts, he ſhall forfeit 20 l. to be levied by diſtreſs and ſale.

16 Geo. II. cap. 8. The duties laid by ſtat. 9 Geo. II. cap. 23. are repealed. No perſon ſhall retail any diſtilled ſpirituous liquors, without firſt taking out a licence from the commiſſioners of exciſe, &c. and paying 20 s. yearly, under the penalty of 10 l. or to be committed to the houſe of correction, and kept to hard labour for two months. Theſe licences are to be granted only to perſons who keep taverns, victualling-houſes, inns, coffee-houſes, or alehouſes.

17 Geo. II. cap. 17. But if ſuch tavern-men, &c. ſhall afterwards, during his licence, exerciſe the trade of a diſtiller, grocer, or chandler, or keep a brandy-ſhop for ſale of ſpirituous liquors, his licence ſhall be void, and he forfeit 10 l. for every offence.

19 Geo. II. cap. 12. Additional duties to be paid on ſpirituous liquors over and above what is already payable.

For every gallon of low wines, or ſpirits of the firſt extraction, drawn from foreign materials, 3 d. drawn from waſh made of malt, 1 d. drawn from brewers waſh, a half-penny; drawn from any other Engliſh materials, three-farthings; for every gallon of ſpirits made of wine or cyder imported, 3 d. made of any other materials, three half-pence. Low wines drawn from molaſſes only, and ſpirits drawn from ſuch low wines, not ſubject to this additional duty.

20 Geo. II. cap. 39. Diſtillers within the bills of mortality, may have licences for retailing ſpirituous liquors, on payment of 5 l. yearly. Diſtillers in partnerſhip to have but one licence. Diſtiller not to have a licence, unleſs inhabiting within the city of London, paying church and poor's rates for the value of 20 l. per ann. and, inhabiting in any parts of the bills of mortality, he pay thoſe rates for the value of 10 l. per ann. Diſtiller retailing but in his own ſhop, and in more than one ſhop, or permitting tippling in his ſhop, houſe, or any place thereunto belonging, forfeits 10 l. and every perſon found tippling there ſhall forfeit 20 s.

DORSETSHIRE, has Somerſetſhire and Wiltſhire on the north; Devonſhire, and ſome part of Somerſetſhire, on the weſt; Hampſhire on the eaſt; and the Engliſh Channel on the ſouth; and is about 150 miles in circumference.

It is eſteemed one of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom. The air is ſomewhat ſharp on the hills, mild and pleaſant on the coaſt, and healthy almoſt throughout. The ſoil in the vallies is rich, both in paſture and arable, and the downs and hills feed an incredible number of ſheep, ſome of the largeſt and fineſt brought to Smithfield market, both for fleſh and wool. It produces hemp and flax, and great quantities of cloth are made here, both woollen and linen; and is famous for it's plenty of excellent ſtone, in the quarries at Portland and Purbeck, in the laſt of which marble has been found ſometimes. Many kinds of uſeful earth are diſperſed up and down the country, particularly the beſt tobacco-pipe clay, about Pool and Wareham, and exported to London, Cheſter, &c.

It's principal rivers are the Stower, Frome, Piddle, Lyddon, Dulliſh, and Allen, whence they are ſupplied with all ſorts of river-fiſh, as from their ports with ſea-fiſh; and the rocks on the coaſt abound with ſamphire and eringo.

DORCHESTER, the ſhire-town, has almoſt loſt the broad-cloth manufacture, for which it was once ſo famous, and it's ſerge-trade is not very conſiderable; but the townſmen make great profit by their ſheep, of which no leſs than 600,000 are ſaid to be fed within ſix miles round the town. It is obſervable, that their downs abound with thyme, and other aromatic herbage, ſo nouriſhing that their ewes generally bring two lambs; for which reaſon they are bought up by the farmers of the eaſt part of England, and even Banſtead Downs, ſo famed for good mutton, are ſupplied hence.

LYME-REGIS is a fine harbour in the Channel, with a key inferior to none in England. It had formerly a very flouriſhing trade to France, Spain, &c. and the cuſtoms amounted ſome years to 16,000 l. but it ſtands on ſuch a high ſteep rock, that the merchants are forced to lade and unlade their goods at a place called the Cobb, a quarter of a mile from it, which coſts a great deal to maintain; and that part of the town which lies at the foot of the rock is ſo low, that at ſpring-tides, the cellars, &c. are overflowed 10 or 12 feet, to the great damage of the inhabitants.

WEYMOUTH is a place of ſome trade ſtill, though not ſo conſiderable as formerly, the high duties on French goods having ſpoiled it in this, and all the ports on the ſouth of England; where a clandeſtine one too much prevails. The Newfoundland trade thrives here; and it's wine trade is alſo conſiderable.

POOL is a populous and rich town, being one of the moſt conſiderable ports in the weſt of England. Here is plenty of good fiſh, particularly large oyſters, which, it is obſerved, have more and bigger pearls, than any others in England; great numbers of them pickled are ſent not only to London, but to the Weſt-Indies, Spain, Italy, &c.

DOVER-PIER and RYE-HARBOUR.

Duties for the repair of Dover-Pier and Rye-Harbour.

By 11 and 12 W. III. cap. 5. granted from 1 May 1700, to 1 May 1709.

By 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 7. continued from 30 April 1709, to 1 May 1718.

By 4 Geo. I. cap. 13. thence continued to 1 May 1727.

By 9 Geo. I. cap. 30. continued from 1 May 1723, to 1 May 1744, unleſs the harbours be repaired and ſecured ſooner.

This duty was firſt granted for raiſing 30,100 l. towards the repair of Dover-Harbour only: but by 9 Geo. I. cap. 30. and 10 Geo. I. cap. 7. is, from the 1ſt of May 1723, to be collected for, and appropriated to, the repair of Dover and Rye-Harbours in the following manner, viz.

	The duties. Dover.	Rye.
Sea-coals, for every chalder, and grind-ſtones, for every ton — —	0 0 0½	— 0 0 1
The tons or chalder to be accounted according to the entry of goods at the cuſtom-houſe.		
All other goods, for every ton of the burden of the ſhip — —	0 0 1	— 0 0 2

Which duties are payable by the maſter or owner of every ſhip or veſſel, of the burden of twenty tons or upwards, and not exceeding three hundred tons, for every loading and diſcharging within this realm, for, from, to, or by Dover, or coming into the harbour there (even if ſuch ſhips are but tranſient ſhips, which put into port, and lie for winds or orders, without making any report, yet take in ſtores and proviſions) not having a cocket (or certificate) teſtifying the payment before that voyage; except ſuch veſſels as are laden with Purbeck or Portland ſtones, or ſhips belonging to the ports of Weymouth, Melcomb-Regis, and Lyme-Regis, producing certificates made upon oath before the reſpective mayors, under the corporation's common ſeal, That their owners are inhabitants of thoſe corporations, or ſhips, Engliſh built, and manned according to the act of navigation, belonging to Great Yarmouth, producing certificates made upon oath before the bailiffs, under the ſeal of the office, That the owners, or the major part of them, are inhabitants of the ſaid corporation; or ſhips belonging to Ramſgate, producing certificates, made upon oath before the mayor of the corporation, of which the ſaid port is a member, That the major part of the owners are inhabitants thereof. But coaſters or fiſhermen are not to pay theſe duties oftener than once in any one year, unleſs they ſhall at any time diſcharge or load any goods, from, or to, foreign parts; in which caſe, they muſt pay only for ſuch foreign voyages.

The Dover duty is to be paid to the cuſtomer or collector of the cuſtoms, or their deputies, and the Rye duty, to ſuch perſons as the mayor and jurats of Rye ſhall appoint (which is generally the collector of the cuſtoms) in the port where the ſhip ſhall ſet forth or arrive, before the loading or unloading of the goods: therefore, at the time of entry of any ſhip, inwards, outwards, or coaſtwiſe, and before the entry of the goods, the ſaid collector or receiver muſt demand and receive the ſame: unleſs the veſſel be a coaſter, and the maſter or owner does produce a certificate, whereby it ſhall appear, that the duties have been paid within twelve months.

And, in order to diſcover the true burden of every ſhip, according to which theſe duties ought to be paid, upon her arrival at, or departure from, any port, the collector muſt require the ſame to be confirmed upon the oath of the maſter or owner in the following manner:

James Bell maketh oath, That the burden of the ſhip the Providence of London, whereof he is maſter [or owner] now bound for [or lately arrived from] Rotterdam, doth not exceed eighty tons.

Signed—James Bell.

Jurat apud Southampton, 9 die Jan. 1730, coram me A. B. Collector.

According

According to which burden, the collector is to demand and receive the duty of the master or owner; and, upon receipt thereof, must testify the same by a certificate under his hand, in the following form:

Port of Southampton.

These are to certify, That James Bell hath this day paid the Dover-Pier duty of one penny per ton, and the Rye-Harbour duty of two pence per ton, for the ship Providence of London *, burden eighty tons, whereof he [or B. C.] is master for [or from] Rotterdam. Dated the ninth of January 1730.

A. B. Collector.

* If the vessel be a coaster or a fishing vessel, there must be here added—being a coasting or fishing vessel.

So that if such vessel shall put into any other port, during that voyage, to load or discharge any goods, it may appear to the collector there, that these duties have been already paid: and, unless such certificates can be produced, the duties must at all times be demanded and received.

Upon the receipt of any money for these duties, a fair and true entry thereof must be forthwith made, in a proper book to be kept for that purpose; from which, at the end of every quarter, must be transcribed an account, in order to be forthwith transmitted to Mr. ——, who, by the warden and assistants of Dover-Harbour, and by the commissioners and trustees of Rye-Harbour, is desired, authorized, and appointed to inspect into the management and collecting of these duties, in the several ports of this kingdom, and to act and do all things necessary for the better collecting and receiving the full of the aforesaid duties; and with whom the collectors are, in all cases, for the service of the said duties, to advise and correspond: but, if it should so happen, that there has not been any money at all collected, a nill-account must be sent up in the usual form.

And, as to the money so received, it must from time to time, as fast as it comes to the collector's hands, or at the end of every month at fartherst, be remitted to the receiver-general and cashier of his majesty's customs, in the port of London, in order to be by him paid to the respective treasurers of Dover and Rye Harbours.

* And, in consideration of the trouble which the collectors or receivers are at, in receiving and accounting for these duties, they are to have an allowance of one shilling and sixpence in the pound, out of the money by them collected; besides a reimbursement of any reasonable expences that shall be thought necessary in the employment of boats, &c. in collecting these duties from transient ships.

* 9 Geo. I. cap. 30. §. 12. and orders of the wardens, commissioners, &c. dated 1 and 3 July 1729.

The form of the aforesaid account of these duties, must be as follows, remembering to distinguish what is received for transient ships.

Port of Southampton. } An account of all ships and vessels which have laden or discharged any goods in this port, to, for, from, or by Dover; and the duties towards the repair of Dover and Rye Harbours; collected in the quarter ending at Lady-day 1731, for such of the said vessels as are liable thereto.

Number of entry.	Dates of entry.	Ships names.	Of what place.	Masters names.	Burden of the ships per masters oath.	Chalders of coals, or tons of stone.	From whence.	Whither bound	Dates of certificates of coasters or fishermen, or exempt ships, and by whom granted, or other reasons of non-paym.	Duties. Dover.	Duties. Rye.
					Tons	No				l. s. d.	l. s. d.
1	9 Jan.	Providence	London	J. Bell	80			Rotterd.		0 3 4	0 6 8
						Chald.					
2	25 Jan.	Industry	Hull	C. Cowley		119 coa's	Newcastle			0 4 11½	0 9 11
3	3 Feb.	Reward	Cowes	G. Howard	16			Liverpool	Under burden —	0 0 0	0 0 0
4	17 Feb.	Change	Bristol	W. Web	150		Jamaica			0 12 6	1 5 0
5	5 March.	Delight	Ramsgate	H. Bell				London	Exempted per certificate of A. B. mayor of C. dated 3 Febr. 1722 —	0 0 0	0 0 0
6	16 March	Diligence	Lynn	H. Hopkins	150			Streights		0 12 6	1 5 0
7	22 March	Hope	Pool	N. Thornton				Bristol.	Paid at Bristol 12 Dec last, as per certificate of A. B. collec.	0 0 0	0 0 0
									Dover —	1 13 3½	3 6 7
									Rye —	3 6 7	
									Total —	4 19 10½	

And, at the bottom of the aforesaid account, in the book, must be formed an account current of that quarter's collection, in the following form, viz.

The commissioners of the Dover and Rye-Harbour duties.

		Dr.
30 Jan.	To remittance to Hen. Selwyn, Esq; receiver-general of his majesty's customs, per bill of A. B. on B. C. at ten days after sight —	1 5 0
28 Feb.	To ditto, per bill of C. D. on D. E. at twelve days after sight —	2 0 0
24 Mar.	To ditto, per bill of E. F. on F. G. at ten days after sight — —	1 13 6
	To poundage on the receipt of this quarter	0 7 6
		5 6 0
	To ballance due from the collector, or be carried to next quarter's account	0 5 0
		5 11 0

Per Contra

	Cr. l.	s.	d.
By ballance from last quarter's account —	0	11	1½
By the receipt of this quarter as by account above — — —	4	19	10½
	5	11	0

A. B. Collector.

But, on the transcript or duplicate, which is to be transmitted to Mr. ——, the title of this account current must be changed, by making the collector debtor for what the commissioners are here made creditors, and creditor for what they are here made debtors. And, at the bottom thereof, the truth of the said account must be confirmed by the oath of the collector, customer, or other person, who actually made the collection, in the following manner, viz.

A. B. collector of his majesty's customs in the port of Southampton, maketh oath, That the above state of the collection of the duties, payable for the repair of Dover and Rye-Harbours, as now rendered and subscribed by me, contains a just and true account of all the money collected for those duties, at this port, during the said quarter; and that the several disbursements, therein charged, were actually paid, and were absolutely necessary for the service of that revenue.

Jurat apud Southampton,
27 die Martii, 1731,
coram me
B. C. Comptroller.

A. B.

For the penalties on neglecting or refusing to collect these duties, or putting the laws in execution, &c. I must refer to the several acts which granted and continued the same, as quoted at the beginning of this head.

DOWNS, a road near the coast of Deal, in Kent, through which shipping pass in going out and returning home, and frequently make some stay; here also squadrons of men of war commonly rendezvous.

REMARKS.

Concerning foreign ships unlading wines, &c. in the Downs. By an act 12 Car. II. for the increasing shipping and navigation, it is enacted, &c. That no wines shall be imported into England, in any ship whatsoever, but in such as do truly and without fraud belong to the people thereof; except such foreign ships as are the built of that country of which the said wines are the growth, under the penalty of loss of ship and goods, provided that, for prevention of frauds in concealing alien's goods, all wines imported in any other ship or vessel, than which doth truly and without fraud belong to England, shall be deemed alien's goods, payable stranger's customs.

By

By the ſaid act it is further provided, That no foreign built ſhip ſhall be deemed to paſs as a ſhip to England belonging, or enjoy the privilege of ſuch a ſhip or veſſel, until ſuch time that he or they, claiming the ſaid ſhip to be theirs, ſhall make it appear to the chief officers of the cuſtoms, that he or they are not aliens; and ſhall have taken an oath before ſuch officers, that ſuch ſhip or veſſel was, bona fide, without fraud, bought for a valuable conſideration, and that no foreigner hath any ſhare therein; that upon ſuch oath he or they ſhall receive, under the hand and ſeal of the ſaid officers, a certificate, whereby ſuch ſhip or veſſel may for the future paſs, and be deemed as a ſhip belonging to the ſaid port, and enjoy the privilege of ſuch a ſhip or veſſel.

By the act of frauds, 14 Car. II. for the better increaſe of ſhipping and navigation, it is enacted, That the officers of the cuſtoms, in all the ports of England, ſhall give an account to the collector and ſurveyor, &c.

By the act of tonnage and poundage, it is enacted, If any wines, goods, or other merchandize, whereof the ſubſidies aforeſaid, are, or ſhall be, due, ſhall at any time after be ſhipped, or put into any boat or veſſel, to the intent to be carried into parts beyond the ſeas, or elſe to be brought from parts beyond ſeas, into any port, place, or creek of this realm, and unſhipped to be landed, and the cuſtoms not paid, or lawfully tendered, they ſhall be forfeited. 12 Car. II.

By the act of frauds it is enacted, That if any goods or merchandize ſhall be laden, or taken in from the ſhore, into any bark, &c. to be carried aboard any ſhip or veſſel outward bound, for foreign parts, or laden or taken in from or out of any ſhip or veſſel arriving from foreign parts without the warrant, and the preſence of one or more officers of the cuſtoms, ſuch bark, hoy, &c. ſhall be forfeited and loſt, and the maſter, &c. knowing and conſenting, ſhall forfeit the value of the goods ſo ſhipped. 12 Car. II.

A merchant having imported French wines into the Downs in a foreign built ſhip, the proprietors thereof having not performed the requiſites injoined by the ſaid act of navigation, in order to the making the ſaid ſhip free, and to enjoy the privilege of a ſhip belonging to England, and hath taken the wines out of the ſaid ſhip, and embarked the ſame into Engliſh built barks or hoys, which have brought the ſame into the port of London, or otherwiſe, intending to relade the ſaid wines upon ſome other ſhips riding in the Downs, bound for ſome other foreign parts.

Quære I. Whether theſe wines being ſo imported, doth not render ſhip and goods liable to forfeiture?

Admitting the Downs are not within any port, as I ſuppoſe they are not, then I conceive the bare carrying of the ſhip and goods thither, makes no forfeiture; for the words of the law are, that no wines ſhall be imported into England, &c. into any ſhip whatſoever, but what belongs to the people of England, are the built of the country, &c. Now, admitting the ſhip was not a privileged ſhip to import wines, yet I conceive the ſhip not coming into any port, nor into England (which I do not take the Downs to be as to the purpoſe) is not forfeited within the words of the law; and it being a penal law, I think will not be extended by equity to create a forfeiture, though the fact ſeems to bear evaſion of the true event of the law. The opinion of Edward Ward, Eſq;

Quære II. Whether the unlading of the ſaid goods in the Downs, upon either of the ſaid caſes, be an unſhipping within the act of tonnage and poundage?

I conceive the Downs are neither port, place, or creek of this realm, within the act of tonnage and poundage; and the unſhipping there without paying or compounding, is no forfeiture for the reaſons aforeſaid. The ſame learned gentleman's opinion.

Third quære, If not forfeited on either clauſes, then, whether the ſaid wines are not liable to pay aliens duty, according to the other clauſe aforeſaid?

The clauſe in the act of navigation that impoſes aliens duties on wines brought in foreign ſhips, extends only to wines imported in to any ports or places of England; and it ſeems the meaning of the act was, that wines for which aliens duties are to be paid, are ſuch as are imported in foreign ſhips, into ſome town or port, in regard it gives aliens duties, alſo, in this caſe, to the town or port of importation; and I conceive the Downs, in that caſe, is not any port or place of England; and, when the wines are imported into the port in an Engliſh veſſel, the demand of aliens duties is not warranted by the words of the law; for, though the greateſt part of the voyage is in a foreign-built ſhip, yet the aliens duties are not due by the words of the act, but upon importation into the port by a foreign veſſel, which might have been otherwiſe, had the duty been impoſed on wines brought from France, &c. in foreign-built ſhips: then it would have been reaſonable, that the greater part of the voyage in a foreign ſhip ſhould have made the wines liable to aliens duties; but here the duty ariſes, and takes it's commencement, upon the importation into England in foreign ſhips, which is not in the caſe; and, therefore, I much doubt whether aliens duties be due or no, as this caſe is, though it is an evaſion of the law. The ſame learned lawyer's opinion.

Fourth quære, Whether the ſaid hoy, or bark, taking out the ſaid goods without the preſence of an officer, the ſame be forfeited by the ſaid clauſe in the act of frauds?

I conceive the clauſe in the act of frauds refers to ſhip any goods within a port, which this ſhip was not; and ſo the words, coming in and arriving from foreign parts, ſeem to import: for, when a ſhip is in port, ſhe cannot unlade any goods without a warrant, or officer; but that, I conceive, doth not hold when the ſhip is at ſea, and not in port; for then no officer has any thing to do to go on board her; and where a warrant, or preſence of an officer, is not neceſſary, there is no forfeiture of the bark, &c. ſo that within the caſe, I conceive, the bark is not forfeited within the clauſe.

But, upon the whole matter, I conceive it very fit, as this caſe is, to have a judicial determination of the matter. For as, on one hand, the words of the laws are not tranſgreſſed, ſo, on the other, the true intent and meaning of the law is evaded: and I am of opinion, if the fact of the caſe was done with a fraudulent intent to evade the laws, that aliens duties in the caſe put ought to be paid; but, if the wines were not originally intended to be brought into England, but to be carried to ſome other place, and by ſtreſs of weather, in any other accident or juſtifiable cauſe, were brought into England; that, in ſuch caſe, neither forfeitures nor aliens duties ought to be anſwered.

March 30, 1675. Edward Ward.

When Sir Richard Temple, Sir Edward Deering, Sir George Downing, Sir William Lowther, Charles Cheyney, Eſq; Francis Millington, Eſq; and John Upton, Eſq; were commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſeveral projects were thought of to enlarge the ports of this kingdom, and give the cuſtom-houſe officers a power to collect the king's duties, even in ſome places out at ſea; and a draught of his majeſty's commiſſioners for approving and confirming ports and keys, &c. was drawn, wherein certain perſons were impowered 'to repair '(to uſe the words of the draught) unto our ſaid port of Sand-'wich, to Dover and Rocheſter, Feverſham and Deal, mem-'bers of the ſaid port, and to ſearch, find out, and ſurvey the 'open places thereabouts, and to aſſign and appoint all ſuch, 'and ſo many place or places, to be keys, or wharfs, for 'the landing or diſcharging, lading or ſhipping any goods, 'wares, or merchandize, within our ſaid port, or the ſaid 'ſeveral members thereof, &c. and to ſet down, appoint, and 'ſettle the extent, bounds, and limits of the ſaid port, and 'the members thereof, &c.'

This commiſſion was ſhewn to the moſt noted lawyers then living; and, there being ſomething in their opinions that relates to the maritime ſovereignty of the kings and queens of England, it is thought fit to let the reader ſee what was the judgment of ſuch eminent council in ſo weighty a caſe, which had ſome reference alſo to an act of parliament.

Sir Robert Sawyer's opinion.

Becauſe ſome doubt may ariſe whether ſuch part of the main ſea as is limited to be within the precincts of the port, may be taken in by virtue of the act of parliament, I have added a clauſe of declaration by the king's prerogative, not relative to the act, which will not be ſo effectual, unleſs theſe were to paſs under the great ſeal; but, in caſe that way ſhould be thought too chargeable, it may be of advantage to let the clauſe be inſerted, and the Exchequer ſeal, few perſons being able to diſcern the different operations of the two ſeals.

Robert Sawyer.

Sir William Jones, attorney-general, his opinion.

I am of opinion, that it will be no advantage to have this clauſe of the prerogative royal, nor that it will make it better to have it under the great ſeal: for I think no declaration under the great ſeal can make, that the open ſea, which is out of England, ſhall be part of a port; but I think, if this commiſſion under the Exchequer ſeal, purſuant to the act, will not do it, it cannot be done at all.

William Jones.

Edward Ward, Eſq; his opinion.

I conceive this may be a proper form for ſuch a commiſſion; but as to the validity of it in extending the port into any part of the main ſea, and ſubjecting thereby all perſons to the duties and penalties of a port, that ſhall come within that part of the ſea which is made part of the port, I take it to be a doubtful caſe.

Edward Ward.

DRAWBACKS, are certain duties, either of the cuſtoms or of the exciſe, that are allowed upon the exportation of ſome of our own manufactures, or upon certain foreign merchandize that have paid a duty at importation.

Some of the principal laws relating thereunto.

In regard to foreign goods re-exported—

The time for the allowance thereof extended to three years, from the date of the report of the maſter at the time of importation, after the 24th of June, 1721. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 10.

For

Allowances and abatements upon, or out of any duties now in force, to continue 'till thoſe duties ceaſe. 3 Geo. I. cap 7. §. 40.

The oaths of the merchants importing and exporting, required to obtain the drawback of foreign goods; affirming the truth of the officer's certificate of the entry, and due payment of the duties, may be made by the agent, or huſband, of any corporation or company, or by the known ſervant of any merchant, uſually employed in making his entries, and paying his cuſtoms. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. §. 14.

Not to be allowed for any foreign goods exported to the Iſle of Man. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 21.

Foreign goods entered outwards.—If leſs in quantity or value be fraudulently ſhipped out than is expreſſed in the exporter's certificate, the goods therein mentioned, or their value, are forfeited, and no drawback to be allowed for the ſame. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 12.

Foreign goods exported by certificate, in order to obtain the drawback, not ſhipped or exported, or relanded in Great-Britain (unleſs, in caſe of diſtreſs, to ſave them from periſhing, which muſt be forthwith ſignified to the officers of the cuſtoms) are to loſe the benefit of the drawback, and are forfeited, or their value, with the veſſel and boats, horſes, carriages, &c. employed in the relanding thereof: and the perſons concerned in the unſhipping or relanding, or to whoſe hands the goods ſhall knowingly come, or by whoſe privity, knowledge, or direction, they are relanded, are to forfeit double the amount of the drawback. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 12. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 16. To be ſued for within five years after commiſſion of the offence.

The ſeizure of the horſes, or other carriages, and the veſſels or boats, if of the burden of 15 tons, or under, may be adjuſted by two or more juſtices of the peace, by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. 8 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 16, 17. and 11 Geo. I. cap. 29. §. 4.

Officers of the cuſtoms conniving at, or aſſiſting in any fraud relating to certificate goods; beſide other penalties, are to forfeit their office, be rendered incapable, and to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 17.

Maſters, or other perſons belonging to any ſhip aſſiſting in, or conniving at, the fraudulent relanding of ſuch goods, beſides other penalties, are to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or mainprize. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 17.

Bonds given for the exportation of certificate goods to Ireland, muſt not be delivered up, nor drawback allowed for any goods, 'till a certificate under the hands and ſeals of the collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor of the cuſtoms, or any two of them, of ſome port in Ireland, be produced, teſtifying the landing: the condition of the bond being to produce ſuch certificate in ſix months from the date thereof. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 18. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 15. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. §. 8. 2 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3.

Such certificate, not produced in time, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may put the bonds in ſuit. Ditto.

Frauds committed in the exportation of tobacco, or any other goods, diſcovered to any officer of the cuſtoms, by any perſon (except the exporter) ſuch perſon to have one half of the officer's or proſecutor's ſhare of what ſhall be recovered, the charge of proſecution being firſt deducted, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms to cauſe ſuch charges to be equally paid by the crown and proſecutor. Perſons aiding the exporter in ſuch frauds, diſcovering their offence, ſhall be acquitted. 9 Geo. I. cap. 21. §. 7. See the article DEBENTURES, where the eſſential cuſtom-houſe forms upon theſe occaſions are very amply repreſented, for the benefit of traders, as well as the officers of the crown.

Whoever would ſee the variety of laws and circumſtances, wherein DRAWBACKS on the re-exportation of merchandize are allowed, ſhould conſult the Index to Saxby's Book of Rates; from whence he muſt have recourſe to the ſeveral acts of parliament, which may be occaſionally needful to the merchant.

REMARKS.

The intention of our laws in allowing of drawbacks ſeems to be twofold, (1.) To encourage the exportation of ſuch of our manufactures as are liable to duties, to the end that they be ſold cheaper to foreigners; and, (2.) That ſuch foreign merchandizes that may have been imported, and have continued here for three years from the date of the maſter's report of their importation, may be ſold in other foreign countries ſo cheap as to induce foreigners to purchaſe them; whereby the nation gains the advantage of their freight, which is ſo much clear profit to the kingdom; and the merchant alſo gains, otherwiſe he would not be at the trouble to traffic in ſuch certificate goods.

The wiſdom of the legiſlature, in regard to drawbacks and bounties, is very conſpicuous; ſuch policy having a tendency towards rendering this kingdom the marine carriers of Europe, and thereby approximating ſomething towards the nature of a free port. And long experience having evinced, that theſe re-

ſtrictive encouragements have proved greatly inſtrumental to the employment of our ſhipping, and increaſe of our ſeamen; there may not be manifeſted ſo great policy in withdrawing, as there was at firſt of eſtabliſhing them for the benefit of commerce. If this principle of encouragement was carried greater lengths, inſtead of being contracted, as has for ſome time been rumoured that it will be, it might prove of no little further benefit to our navigation. See the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBENTURES, DUTIES, FUNDS, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS], NAVIGATION, SHIPPING.

DROGMAN, or DRAGOMAN, or DRUGERMAN, a name given in the Levant to the interpreters kept by the ambaſſadors of Chriſtian nations reſiding at the Porte, to aſſiſt them in treating of their maſters affairs. The conſuls have them alſo, as well for their own uſe, as for that of the merchants of their nation trading there.

They being abſolutely neceſſary in the Levant trade, and the good ſucceſs of it depending in part on their fidelity and ſkill, Lewis XIV, in 1669, enacted, by an order of council, that, for the future, the interpreters in the Levant, reſiding at Conſtantinople, Smyrna, and other places, ſhould be Frenchmen, and appointed by an aſſembly of merchants, in preſence of the conſuls, before whom they ſhould take the oath, drawn up in writing in the chancery of the ports.

The ſame order enacted, that every three years ſix boys, from eight to ten years of age, inclinable to go, ſhould be ſent thither, and committed to the care of the Capuchin friars of the convents there, to be inſtructed and qualified for the office of drogmans, or interpreters.

A year after another order was made, enforcing, and, where neceſſary, explaining the firſt, and enacting, that, in each of the three firſt years, ſix boys ſhould be ſent, that there might, in leſs time, be a ſufficient number for the ſervice of the nation, without being obliged to have recourſe to foreigners.

The penſions of each of theſe boys were ſettled at 300 livres, to be paid by the chamber of commerce at Marſeilles, on the duty of half per cent. called cottimo. This laſt order was of the 31ſt of October, 1670.

REMARK.

Whoever conſiders the difficulties and impoſitions to which foreigners are liable in their way of perſonal traffic, in nations whoſe language they are unacquainted with, will readily diſcern the neceſſity and wiſdom of the above regulation, in regard to preſerving a ſucceſſion of interpreters, upon whoſe fidelity and ſkill the French traders may rely, in the whole courſe of the Levant trade. See the article CONSULS.

DRUGGETS, a ſtuff ſometimes all wool, and ſometimes half wool, half thread, ſometimes corded, but uſually plain.

They are often called, in France, pinchina's, though they have very little affinity with the true pinchina's that come from Toulon or from Chalons in Champagne.

The places in France where moſt druggets are made, are, Le Lude, Amboiſe, Partenay, Niort, Rheims, Rouen, Darnetal, Verneuil au Perche, Troyes, Chaumont en Baſſigny, Langres, and Chalons in Champagne.

Very fine druggets, but of a particular faſhion, are made alſo at Bedarieux in Languedoc, and in many neighbouring villages. Theſe druggets are ſold in Germany. The druggets of Lude are entirely of wool, without cording; they are half-ell wide, and the length of the pieces from 40 to 50 ells, Paris meaſure, which is to be underſtood alſo of all the other lengths and breadths of druggets hereafter mentioned.

At Amboiſe are made two ſorts of druggets, entirely wool, the one corded, the other plain. The corded, called in the country petits draps, are two-thirds wide, and from 30 to 40 ells long; the plain ones are half-ell wide, and from 50 to 60 ells long.

The druggets of Partenay are not corded: their width is half-ell, and length from 40 to 55 ells: ſome are all wool, and others have the warp thread.

The druggets of Niort are all of wool, ſome corded, ſome plain, half-ell wide, and from 40 to 50 in length. The corded are moſt eſteemed, being generally very cloſe and ſtrong.

The druggets of Rheims are not corded: they are half-ell wide, and the length from 35 to 40 ells. They are commonly all of prime Segovian wool, finely ſpun, which makes them ſuperior in quality to all other ſorts of druggets made in France, which are, for the moſt part, made of the wool of the country, coarſely ſpun.

At Rouen they make three ſorts of plain druggets: the one all of wool, half-ell wide, from 25 to 67 ells long; another, which is often called berluche, or breluche, has the woof of wool, and the warp of thread, of the ſame length and breadth with the other: this ſort comes neareſt in quality and price to thoſe of Verneuil au Perche. The third ſort, commonly called eſpagnolettes, are entirely of wool, with a nap on one ſide, and ſometimes on both, which makes them very warm: they are $\frac{5}{8}$ of an ell wide, and from 60 to 80 ells long. They are

of different qualities; ſome very fine, all of Spaniſh wool; others coarſer, only mixed with Spaniſh wool; and others all of country wool, which are the coarſeſt and leaſt eſteemed.
They are all wove white, and afterwards dyed of different colours.
The druggets of Darnetal are in every reſpect like thoſe of Rouen.
At Verneuil au Perche, the druggets are half-ell wide, from 42 to 65 ells long, the warp of thread, and the woof of coarſe wool of the country. They are of very low price, and chiefly conſumed in Beauſſe, Orleanois, and the parts about Paris, being worn by the peaſants.
The druggets of Troyes are corded on one ſide, the woof of wool, the warp of thread; they are half-ell wide, and their length from 35 ells to 46; they are not much more eſteemed than thoſe of Verneuil, already ſpoken of.
At Chaumont in Baſſigny they are altogether like thoſe of Troyes, excepting that the pieces contain from 35 ells to 60.
The druggets of Langres are in every thing like thoſe of Chaumont.
Chalons in Champagne ſupplies druggets corded, all woollen; ſome five-eighths, others two-thirds, of an ell wide, from 16 to 35 ells long. Theſe are alſo called eſpagnolettes, and of very good quality.
Scarce any but the eſpagnolettes of Rouen and of Darnetal, and ſome threaded druggets, are dyed in the piece; the others are dyed in the wool; that is to ſay, the wool they are compoſed of is dyed of different colours, and mixed, before it is carded, ſpun, or wrought in the loom.
Thoſe are called threaded druggets that have the woof of wool and the warp of thread.
The corded druggets are wrought with the ſhuttle on a loom of four marches, as the ſerges of Moui, Beauvois, and other like ſtuffs corded.
As to the plain druggets, they are wrought on a loom of two marches, with the ſhuttle, in the ſame manner as cloth, camlets, and other like ſtuffs not corded.
According to the 20th and 22d articles of the general regulation of the manufactures, in Auguſt 1669, druggets are to be of two lengths and breadths, viz. half-ell wide, and 21 ells long, and ſeven-twelfths wide, and from 35 to 40 ells long; but, by the regulation of the 19th of February 1671, all druggets for the future are permitted to be made only half-ell wide. The order of the council of ſtate in 1698, for regulating the manufactures of the province of Poictou, amongſt other articles, hath ſix relating to the lengths and breadths of druggets made in that province.
And that of Auguſt 1718, regulating the woollen manufactures of the generality of Bourgogne, hath five articles to the ſame purpoſe, for druggets of that province.

DRUGS, a general term for goods in the druggiſts and grocery way, eſpecially for thoſe uſed in medicine and dyeing.

Drugs for Dyers.

Of theſe there are two principal ſorts; drugs that do not give any colour of themſelves, but prepare the ſtuff to make the dye, or make the colours more lively and ſtrong, and drugs that colour.
Of the firſt ſort are allum, tartar, arſenic, realgal, ſalt-petre, nitre, ſal gem, ſal ammoniac, common ſalt, mineral ſalt, ſalt of cryſtal, of tartar, agaric, ſpirit of wine, urine, pewter, bran, ſtarch, lime, and common aſhes, &c.
Some of the colouring drugs are woad, indigo, ſcarlet-wood, logwood, iron-wood, &c. ſcarlet-grain, cocheneal, madder, goat's-hair, greening-weed, ſavoury, chimney-ſoot, &c.
All theſe drugs, both the colouring and the non-colouring, are uſed only by the dyers of the great dye, as they are diſtinguiſhed in France, except the greening-weed, which the other dyers may make uſe of in their blacks and greys.
There are other drugs uſed in common by both, which colour either faintly, or very much; as the root, bark, and leaf of the walnut-tree, the rind of the nut, gall-nuts, ſumach, and copperas, &c.
Dyers of the ſmall dye may alſo uſe India-wood and verdigreaſe, which the others are prohibited.
Drugs prohibited all dyers in France are, Brazil-wood, rocou, baſtard ſaffron, turnſole, orcanette, filings of iron and copper, ironmongers, cutlers, and grinders duſt, old rodoul and old ſumach.
As to fuſtic-wood, yellow wood, trantanel, malherbe, and alder-bark, they are permitted only in the provinces that have not the convenience of getting better drugs.

The principal drugs in medicine.

Theſe make the greateſt part of the wholeſale trade in the druggiſts and ſpicery way; ſome are produced in France, but the moſt part is brought from the Levant and the Eaſt-Indies.
The chief drugs imported into this kingdom are from the Eaſt-Indies, and are as follows: allum, china-root, camphire, rhubarb, muſk, vermillion, ſoy of Japan; ketchup, ſtick-lack, roſam aloes, ſhell-lack, borax, lapis lazuli, galangal, benjamin, aquila-wood, cambogia, putchuck, or coſtus dulcis; dragon's blood, cubebs, cardamums, olibanum, chengue, ſalt-petre, aloes hepatica, bezoar-ſtone, lignum aloes, caſſia, Goa ſtone, opium, unicorn's-horn, civet, frankincenſe, tamarinds, turmeric, rock-ſalt, ſaffron, myrrh, manna, renes, tacamac, ambergreaſe, dammer, coyr, cowries, chank, nux vomica, ſnake-ſtone, caſſia lignum, aſſa-fœtida, dry-ginger, long pepper, tyncal, ſago, lapis tutiæ, worm-ſeed, galbanum, gum elemi, ammoniacum, tragant.
Pomet's General Hiſtory of drugs, Lemery's treatiſe thereon, and Geoffroy's Medical Eſſay, ought not to be overlooked by the curious, no more than by merchants concerned in the trade of drugs.

DRUG is uſed alſo to ſignify things of little value, expoſed to ſale.

DRUG; what is ſo called by the fan-makers is a compoſition of gum Arabic, and ſome other ingredients, uſed by them to lay leaves of gold or ſilver on their fans, or to cover them with either of thoſe metals in powder.
They uſe it, alſo, to paſte together the papers, gawzes, taffeta's, and other like matters uſed by them for their fans.
The maſters make a great myſtery of this compoſition, though it ſeems to be nothing elſe but the gum, and a little honey diſſolved in water. They apply it with a very fine ſpunge.

DRUG ſignifies alſo a ſalt, or cinder of glaſs, uſed by ſome in bleaching cloth.
One Alexander Le Grand having introduced the uſe of it in France, and his drug, which he had brought out of Lorrain, being ſeized by the maſter and wardens of the grocers company there; the affair being carried before the lieutenant-general of the police, and many trials made of the good and bad effects of that ſalt, the ſaid Le Grand, and all others, were prohibited to ſell it for bleachings and lyes, and all laundreſſes to buy or uſe it, on pain of 300 livres fine, the ſaid drug being found corroſive, deſtructive of the linen, and capable of hurting the health of thoſe who uſe it. This ſentence paſſed the 15th of March, 1710, was confirmed by order of the council, the 23d of September following, prohibiting all perſons to import from Lorrain, or elſewhere, into France, the drug called ſalt, or cinders, of glaſs, on pain of forfeiture both of merchandize, and of horſes and carriages uſed in the conveyance, and a fine of 3000 livres.

Remarks.

Nothing giving a greater luſtre, and, therefore, reputation, to woollen manufactures of every kind, than the excellency of the dyes, which give the colours; we find that the French have been more ſtrict and curious in their public regulations relating to the qualities thereof, than any nation whatſoever. See the article DYEING.

Laws of England relating to drugs in general.

I. Stat. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 34. §. 2. For recompenſe to ſuch who may have any loan upon the duty on tin reduced, the old ſubſidy to be received for drugs imported from the place of their growth in Engliſh ſhipping, ſhall be according to the full value of the ſpecies in the book of rates, and not according to the abatement to one third; and for all drugs otherwiſe imported, treble ſuch value.
II. Sect. 3. This ſhall not lay a further duty on drugs uſed in dyeing.
Made perpetual by 7 Ann. cap. 7. §. 26.
III. Stat. 3 Ann. cap. 4. §. 8. There ſhall be paid to her majeſty upon callicoes, China ware, and drugs (except drugs for dyeing) imported, over and above all other duties, the rates upon callicoes, &c. mentioned in the act, and upon all drugs (dyeing drugs excepted) rated in the book of rates, 10 per cent. according to the values charged; and for unrated drugs (dyeing drugs excepted) four per cent. of the true value: and by unrated drugs are meant clove-bark, Jeſuits-bark, callabaſha, caſſenna, ſechia, brugiata, grana Germanica, gum mountjack, jeſſamine ointment, lapis hyacinthi, oil of anniſeeds, oil of caraway-ſeeds, oil of cinnamon, oil of cloves, oil or balſam of copavia, oil of juniper, oil of lignum Rhodium, oil of peony, oil of ſaſſafras; pomatum, ſal tamariſcæ, and all chemical ſalts; ſnake-root, terra dulcis, turpentine of Germany; all chemical preparations, phyſical oils, and medicinal drugs (except drugs uſed for dyeing, and coffee, tea, chocolate, cocoa-paſte, and cocoa-nuts). And dyeing drugs, by this, or other acts, exempted from duties, are aqua fortis, argol, annotto, allum, orchelia, cocheneal, cream of tartar, copperas, gum Arabic, gum Senega, ſtick-lack, cake-lack, madder roots, or rubea tinctorum; ſaunders red, ſal ammoniac, ſal gem, turnſole, verdigreaſe, iſinglaſs, plantain, litharge, bay-berries, antimony, pomegranate-peels, arſenic, agaric, ſena, galls, indico, litmus, madder, orchal, ſafflore, ſhumac, caſſumba; logwood, Brazil-wood, Braziletto-wood, Nicaragua-wood, fuſtic, red-wood, Japan-wood; woad, weld, valonia-grain, or ſcarlet powder; grain of Seville in berries, and grains of Portugal, or rota; Engliſh berries from the plantations, French berries, and ſalt-petre.
IV. Sect. 9. The duties upon the ſaid unrated drugs imported from India, and other places within the limits of the Eaſt-India company, ſhall be aſcertained according to the prices, upon ſale at the candle, as by ſtat. 2 Ann. cap. 9. and the value of

of ſuch unrated drugs imported from other parts ſhall be affirmed by the oaths of the importers.

V. Sect. 10. The ſaid duties upon unrated drugs imported from parts not within the limits of the Eaſt-India company, ſhall be paid by the importers upon importation.

VI. Stat. 7 Ann. cap. 8. §. 12. Jeſuits-bark, ſarſaparilla, balſam of Peru and Tolu, and all other drugs of the produce of America, may be imported from her majeſty's plantations in America, in ſhips regularly manned and navigated, paying the ſame duty as if they were imported from the place of their growth.

VII. Stat. 1 Geo. I. cap. 43. §. 3. Sena imported ſhall be liable to the duties charged by the act of tonnage and poundage, and the acts for increaſing the ſame, and the duties laid by other acts, as if the exemption for drugs uſed in dyeing had not been.

VIII. Stat. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 10. It ſhall be lawful to import all drugs herein after enumerated, which are uſed for dyeing, viz. agaric, annotto, antimonium crudum, aqua fortis, argol, arſenic; bay-berries, Brazil-wood, Braziletto-wood, cocheneal, cream of tartar; fuſtic; galls, gum Arabic or Senega; indico, iſinglaſs; litmus, logwood; madder, madder-roots; Nicaragua-wood; orchal, orchelia; pomegranate-peels; red-wood; ſafflore, ſal ammoniac, ſal gem, Sappan-wood, red ſaunders, ſhumac, ſticklack; turnſole; valonia and verdegreaſe, without paying any cuſtom (ſalt-petre excepted), ſo as entry be firſt made thereof in the cuſtom-houſe, and ſo as the ſame be landed in preſence of the proper officer, and that ſuch importation be according to the rules in 12 Car. II. cap. 18. for encouraging navigation; and, on failure of the ſaid conditions, the ſaid goods ſhall be liable to the duties.

IX. Sect. 11. On all foreign goods uſed for dyeing, which ſhall be imported duty free by this act, and ſhall be again exported, there ſhall be paid a ſubſidy of poundage upon the value of 20 s. according to the rates hereafter mentioned, the ſum of 6 d. viz.

	l.	s.	d.
Agaric trimmed, per pound	0	6	8
Agaric rough	0	1	8
Annotto	0	1	0
Antimonium crudum, per hundred weight	0	6	8
Aqua fortis, the bottle four gallons	2	5	0
Argol, per hundred weight	1	3	4
Arſenic, per pound	0	0	1⅓
Bay-berries, per hundred weight	0	4	5⅓
Brazil, or Furnamback-wood	1	15	0
Braziletto, or Jamaica-wood	1	1	8
Cocheneal, per pound	0	6	8
Cream of tartar, per hundred weight	2	0	0
Fuſtic	0	5	0
Galls	2	0	0
Gum Arabic, or gum Senega	0	10	0
Indico, per pound	0	3	4
Iſinglaſs, per hundred weight	1	13	4
Litmus	1	0	0
Logwood	2	0	0
Madder	1	10	0
Madder-roots, per pound	0	0	4
Nicaragua-wood, the ton	8	0	0
Orchal, per hundred weight	2	0	0
Orchelia	1	0	0
Pomegranate-peels	0	13	4
Red-wood, or Guinea-wood	1	10	0
Safflore, per pound	0	1	0
Sal armoniac	0	0	6⅔
Sal gem	0	0	2⅔
Sappan-wood, per hundred weight	0	10	0
Red ſaunders	1	6	8
Shumac	0	13	4
Stick-lack, per pound	0	0	4
Turnſole	0	0	2⅔
Valonia, per ton weight	7	0	0
Verdegreaſe, per pound	0	0	6⅔

Which ſubſidy of 6 d. on exportation, ſhall be raiſed, &c. as the ſubſidy of poundage on goods exported by any law of the cuſtoms.

X. Sect. 12. The produce of the ſubſidy hereby granted (charges of management excepted), ſhall be appropriated to the ſame uſes as the poundage on other goods exported.

See Saxby's Book of Rates for Duties on Drugs imported.

DUMBARTONSHIRE, or LENNOX, in Scotland, is bounded on the ſouth with the rivers Clyde and it's Firth, with Argyleſhire on the north-weſt; on the weſt it has Loch-Lung, on the north are the Grampian hills, and on the eaſt Menteith and Sterlingſhire. The lower part, which lies to the eaſt, is very fruitful in corn, and the hilly breeds numerous flocks of ſheep. It has a noble herring-fiſhery, in two bays that break into it, from the mouth of the Clyde. The Loch-Lomond, that ſpreads itſelf under the mountains, 24 miles in length and 8 in breadth, abounds with fiſh, particularly one delicious ſort, called pollac, of the eel kind, peculiar to it, and the banks are lined with fiſhermen's cottages.

DUMFRIESSHIRE, in Scotland, has on the weſt Galloway and Kyle; on the eaſt Solway Firth, and the marſhes of Scotland and England; on the north part of Clydſdale, Tweedale, and Tiviotdale; and on the ſouth the Iriſh ſea.

The ſoil in general is fitter for paſturage than corn, yet the mountains with which it is encompaſſed, are fruitful in corn.

Dumfries, the chief town, is a pleaſant and thriving place, called by ſome the Liverpool of Scotland; it's market and fairs for cattle, which are held on Candlemas, Holyrood, and Martinmas-days, each a week, are the beſt in all the ſouth of Scotland.

DUNOIS. This little province in France, bounded on the eaſt by Orleanois, on the ſouth by Blaiſois, on the weſt by Vendomois, and on the north by the Leſſer Perche, is about 10 leagues in length, and 7 or 8 in breadth: and is watered by four rivers, viz. the Loire, Convoye, Egre, and Hierre.

Chateau-Dun, on the Loire, is the capital of the country. They make cyder here, and in ſome pariſhes of the diſtrict are manufactories of woollen ſtuffs, which they ſell at Tours, Orleans, and Paris.

DURHAM, or the county palatine or biſhopric thereof, has Yorkſhire on the ſouth, Northumberland on the North-weſt, Cumberland and Weſtmoreland on the weſt, and is waſhed on the eaſt by the German ocean, being about 107 miles in circumference.

The air is ſharp, and the ſoil various, but upon the whole not to be reckoned the moſt fruitful; yet 'tis thick ſet with towns, and very rich in mines of coal and lead.

It's chief rivers are the Tees and Were, the latter of which runs into the ſea at Sunderland, a port much frequented by colliers.

Darlington is one of the moſt noted places in the north of England, for the linen manufacture; particularly that ſort called huckabacks, great quantities of which, ſome ten quarters wide, are ſent yearly to London, &c. they being made no where elſe in England. Some fine linen cloth is alſo made; the water of the Skern, on which it ſtands, being ſo famous for bleaching of linen, that quantities have been ſent hither from Scotland for that purpoſe.

Stockton is a well built town, of great reſort and buſineſs, two leagues up the Tees from it's mouth.

South Shields in this county, ſo called, to diſtinguiſh it from North Shields in Northumberland, is of great note for it's ſalt-works, here being above 200 pans for that purpoſe, which are ſaid to conſume near 100,000 chaldron of coals yearly.

Bernards-Castle, on the north ſide of the river Tees, is an ancient and well built town. The manufactures here are ſtockings, bridles, reins, and belts.

Marwood is a little town lower on the ſame river, noted alſo for the ſtocking manufacture.

Sunderland ſtands on the ſouth bank of the river Were, and is a populous well built borough and ſea-port: but, the harbour having a ſhallow and difficult entrance, the ſhips moſtly take in their loadings of coals, which is the principal commodity ſhipped here, in the open road.

DUTCH AMERICA. The only colonies which the Dutch have at preſent in America, are, Surinam, Aprowack, Berbice, and Boron, all ſituated on the continent of South America, Aruba, and Curaccao, three iſlands, which are amongſt thoſe called Sottovento, or under the wind; and, laſtly, Saba, St Euſtacia, and half of St Martin's, three of the leſſer Antilles.

A memorial drawn up in 1721, concerning the trade which the Dutch carry on with the Spaniards in America.

The Dutch had formerly a much greater number of colonies in America than they have at preſent. They had in Guiana Viapoco, Aprowack, Surinam, Berbice, and Steperche.

The firſt of theſe colonies were entirely deſtroyed in 1677, by a ſquadron of French men of war, commanded by count d'Etrées, afterwards marſhal of France. Aprowack and Steperche were neglected, and the inhabitants removed to Surinam; ſo that the Dutch have now only Surinam and Berbice in that part of the world.

Among the Antilles, they have Aruba, St Euſtacia, Curaccao, and ſome other ſmall iſlands.

The whole trade that is carried on in their colonies amongſt the Antilles, both to America and to Africa, is in the hands of a company eſtabliſhed by letters patent, by which an excluſive privilege was granted to it, together with an exemption from all duties of importation: it is called the Company of the Weſt.

This company has but one third part of the trade; of the two remaining thirds, one belongs to the city of Amſterdam, and the other to the heirs of Mynheer Van Somerſdyk; but the whole trade is managed by the company.

Private perſons may obtain licences from the company to trade in America, on paying two per cent. on the commodities they carry thither, and five per cent. on thoſe they bring back in return.

The declaration of the merchandizes, both in going and coming, is to be made at the company's office, after which they are free from all duties, as if they belonged to the company.

This

This trade is of two ſorts, viz. that which is carried on from Holland with the inhabitants of the colonies, and that which is carried on with the Spaniards. The latter is properly the ſubject of this memorial.

The company employs ſeveral ſhips, ſending ſome from Holland with commodities proper, both for the maintenance of the colonies, and for the trade with the Spaniards; and others from the caſtle of St. George del Mina, one of their chief ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, laden with negroes for their own colonies, and for thoſe of the Spaniards.

It is to be obſerved, that none but the company's ſhips have a ſhare in this laſt branch of trade, no licence being ever granted to private perſons for carrying on the negro trade.

When theſe laſt ſhips, of which there are ſeldom above two or three every year, are arrived at Curaccao, the Spaniards of the main land of America, and thoſe of Porto Rico and Hiſpaniola, go thither in pirogues, which are a kind of long barks, to buy the number of negroes they have occaſion for, chuſing always the healthieſt and ſtrongeſt. Thoſe which they refuſe, and which are ſtiled Macron negroes, are kept partly for the ſervice of the Dutch colony at Curaccao, and partly for that of Surinam, whither the company ſends them. When the Spaniards neglect to fetch the negroes, the company carries them to the Spaniſh plantations, but with the precautions hereafter mentioned, that they may not be ſurprized in carrying on a contraband trade, prohibited under very ſevere penalties by the ordonnances of the king of Spain; and yet ſo conſtantly and ſo ſafely continued by the colluſion of the king's officers.

As to thoſe commodities which are brought in the company's ſhips ſailing from Holland, as ſoon as they arrive, they are depoſited in the warehouſes which belong to the company in the iſland, 'till there be a favourable opportunity to diſpoſe of them; that is to ſay, 'till they have entered into ſome correſpondence, either with the governors of ſome ſea-port towns, or, in caſe they be too ſtiff, or inſiſt upon too high a perquiſite for their connivance, with ſome private perſons, who agree about a harbour or road, to carry on their trade, whither they ſend their barks, with ſuch commodities as they have a mind to give in exchange; particularly a great many piaſters, or a good deal of gold or ſilver, either in ingots or in bars. Yet, after what manner ſoever this is carried on, it ſeldom happens but the king of Spain's officers have ſome ſhare in the profits of this contraband trade; even they who affect outwardly the greateſt ſeverity to prevent it, do ſecretly employ their confidents to trade for their account: ſo that private perſons are very often only the factors or commiſſioners of thoſe officers.

The merchandizes proper for this trade, are fine linens, cambrics, printed cottons of ſeveral colours, common lace made at Antwerp after the faſhion of Spain, hard ware, fine and coarſe, made at Nuremberg and Liege, a great quantity of ſpices, particularly of cinnamon, all ſorts of woollen manufactures made at Liſle, Valenciennes, Abbeville, Leyden, and Haerlem; cloth and thread for ſails, cordage for ſhipping, white and yellow wax, hats, all ſorts of ſtuffs, gold, ſilver, and ſilk ribbons, French brandy in caſks, or in thick glaſs bottles, and ſome other merchandizes.

It muſt be obſerved, with regard to ſtuffs and ribbons, that it is no matter whether they be new or old faſhioned, they being always new for the Spaniards when they arrive from Europe: ſo that the company never buy of the manufacturers but ſuch gold and ſilver ſtuffs as are out of faſhion, even ſuch as will no longer ſerve even for the trade of Germany.

All that we have hitherto ſaid of trade, relates only to that which the company herſelf carries on. As for the licenſed ſhips, which commonly take in their lading at Amſterdam, Rotterdam, or in Zealand, beſides their cargo, which conſiſts in the above-mentioned merchandizes, they are armed with ſeveral guns, and carry a greater number of ſeamen than the company's ſhips, that they may be able to defend themſelves in caſe they be ſurprized in any foreign port or road; for they only touch at Curaccao to get intelligence, and to get on board ſome perſon acquainted with the places where they are to caſt anchor, in order to diſpoſe of their commodities with the greateſt diſpatch and ſecurity.

But, when they have finiſhed their trade, they are uſed to go back to Curaccao, in order to complete their cargo with the produce of that iſland, as ſugar, indico, cotton in the wool, wood for dyers, hides, and ſalt, which laſt is made in the ſalt-pits of Curaccao.

Beſides gold and ſilver in ingots, bars, or coin, which this trade with the Spaniards affords, the Dutch alſo get from them a great deal of cocheneal, hides, cacao, vanilla, tobacco of Verina, quina-quina, or jeſuit's bark, and ſarſaparilla, &c.

This is the ſtate of the trade which the Dutch Weſt-India company, and the private perſons who are licenſed, carry on with the Spaniards in America; and this trade, the profit of which the Engliſh of Jamaica, the French of St. Domingo, and the Danes of St. Thomas, ſhare with the Dutch, has not a little contributed to the prejudice of the commerce both of Cadiz and the other cities in Old Spain, which drive a trade with America; and of the European merchants, who are concerned in that trade with the Spaniards. For it is an eaſy matter to perceive, that ſince the four above-mentioned nations have uſed themſelves to carry on that trade, and furniſh yearly the inhabitants of Spaniſh America with ſo prodigious a quantity of European merchandizes, which they formerly received only by way of Old Spain, the galleons and flota's cannot come back ſo richly laden as they uſed to do.

Remarks.

As the author of this memorial explains but very ſuperficially after what manner that contraband trade is carried on, we judge it will prove ſome ſatisfaction to the reader to find, in this place, what a French writer (father Labat) ſays of it, in his curious and entertaining account of the French iſlands in America, of which a new edition was publiſhed in the year 1742. Nouveaux voyages aux iſles de l'Amerique, Tom. VII. chap. 9.

The trade of the European nations with the Spaniards in America.

All European nations are forbidden to go and trade with the Spaniards, under any pretence whatſoever. The Spaniards ſeize without mercy all the veſſels they can meet with, whether they find them at anchor on their coaſts, or meet with them at ſome diſtance, becauſe they ſuppoſe that they are there with no other view but to trade; and the finding on board either merchandizes manufactured in their dominions, or any Spaniſh money, is to them a full and ſufficient proof of ſuch illicit trade.

But yet, theſe are laws which people know how to evade many ways. Here follow ſome inſtances of theſe evaſions.

When the maſter of a veſſel would enter into ſome of their harbours to trade there, he pretends to be in want of water, wood, or proviſions. He ſends a petition to the governor by an officer, who ſets forth the ſhip's occaſions: at other times it is a maſt that is ſprung, or a leak in the veſſel, that can neither be found nor ſtopped, without unlading the ſhip, and ſetting her on one ſide. They prevail upon the governor to believe what they would have him, by the obliging application of a conſiderable preſent: after the ſame manner they blind the other officers, whoſe aſſiſtance they may have occaſion for; and then they get leave to enter the port and unlade the ſhip, in order to find out the leak, and to put the ſhip in a condition to continue her voyage.

They obſerve many formalities. The merchandizes are carefully locked up in a warehouſe, and the door by which they are put in is ſealed: but they take care that there be another door, through which the merchandizes are taken out in the night time, and their place filled up with cheſts of indico, cocheneal, vanilla, with ſilver in bars or coined, with tobacco, and other American commodities. And, as ſoon as this trade is finiſhed, the leak is found to be ſtopped, the maſt repaired, and the ſhip in a condition to ſail.

But all this alone is not ſufficient; an expedient muſt be found, that they who have bought the European merchandize, may ſell them again. For that purpoſe, the maſter of the ſhip repreſents to the governor and to his officers, that he wants money to buy the proviſions he has occaſion for, and to pay for what he was furniſhed with, in order to repair his veſſel, and humbly begs leave to ſell ſome merchandizes to the amount of what he is to buy, or pay for.

The governor and his council agree to it, with ſuch grimaces or ſhew, as they think proper to make, and the maſter ſells a few cheſts or bales of merchandize, to the end that the reſt of the cargo, which theſe gentlemen or their agents have bought, may be ſold publickly, without giving occaſion to complaints; becauſe it is always ſuppoſed that it is no more, but what the Spaniards got leave to buy from thoſe foreigners. Thus the largeſt cargoes are commonly ſold.

As for thoſe that are leſs, and with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and Daniſh barks are commonly laden, they carry them to ſmall harbours, far diſtant from any town, or to the mouth of ſome river. They give notice to the inhabitants by letting off a gun, and they who have a mind to trade come in their canoes, to buy ſuch merchandizes as they have occaſion for.

This trade is chiefly carried on in the night-time; but the Europeans muſt be conſtantly upon their guard, always armed, and never ſuffer more people to come on board, than they are able to drive back again, if they attempted to inſult them. There is never any credit given in this part of commerce, they deal only for ready money, or for merchandizes delivered on the ſpot.

They commonly make an intrenchment before the cabin, or under the forecaſtle of the bark or veſſel, with a table, on which they expoſe their merchandize to view. The cap-merchant or factor, with other people armed, are within the intrenchment with ſmall arms; they put alſo ſome others above the cabin, or in the forecaſtle; the reſt of the crew, well armed, remain upon deck with the captain, or ſome other officer to receive and entertain the perſons who come on board, to make them drink, and conduct them back with civility; and, if they be people of ſome diſtinction, or who buy a great deal, to ſalute them with ſome guns at their departure. They are very fond of that honour, and one may be ſure to loſe nothing by it.

But, notwithſtanding all this, the European traders muſt be upon their guard, and take care that they be always ſtronger than the Spaniards; for, if they meet with an opportunity to ſeize upon the veſſel, they ſeldom miſs it; they plunder the ſhip, and ſink it afterwards with the whole crew, that there may be no perſon left to reproach them with their perfidy. To conclude, one muſt keep a watchful eye upon the Spaniards hands, for they are very nimble-fingered.

Further REMARKS.

The Dutch, however they have extended themſelves in other parts of the world, and carry on a moſt beneficial commerce with Africa and Aſia, have, upon the whole, had but indifferent ſucceſs, in point of poſſeſſion, in America; which may not, upon the whole, be detrimental, ſince they have ſo large territories in Aſia. They had once, indeed, a conſiderable footing there; upon which a Weſt-India company was formed, about the year 1636 to 1652; and, by an extraordinary ſtep in politics, got one of the beſt colonies in the world for trade into their hands; they had even the greateſt part of the Brazils, if not all of it, in actual poſſeſſion, and maintained it for ſeveral years; which, had they held 'till now, with all the great improvements ſince made, and poſſeſſed the prodigious mines of gold diſcovered there, they had been ſuperior in trade to every nation in the world.

But the Portugueze in Europe having revolted from the Spaniards in 1640, to whom they had been ſubject for above half a century, they alſo meditated a revolt from the Dutch in the Brazils, which they effected in 1645, and drove them out of the whole country.

This ſtruck ſo great a blow to the Dutch trading intereſts in America, as to break their Weſt-India company. They have ſtill the name of a company, and good encouragement from the States-General; are concerned in divers branches of trade, particularly that of Africa; yet they ſtand but on a very ſlight foundation, when compared with the original company.

This misfortune to the Dutch in America, was followed by another, which was the loſs of the colony of New Amſterdam, now called New York; and which was taken from them by the Engliſh in 1665, and afterwards conceded to England by the treaty of Nimeguen.

We have ſeen from what remains to the Dutch in America, that they have no great ſhare of power there; nor is the courſe of their trade with other of the colonies belonging to any potentates in that part of the world, little better than a contraband trade, if what Monſ. Labat and other travellers tell us be fact; yet they ſeem to carry on what trade they have here very quietly and unmoleſtedly: nor do they ſeem any way diſpoſed to ſubmit the ſovereignty of the American ſeas to the Spaniards, or any other power; and therefore will not ſuffer their ſhipping to be ſearched any where upon the high ſeas, under pretence of illicit trade. But if their ſhips are catched in the ports of New Spain, carrying on any contraband trade, they do not ſcruple to ſubmit to the Spaniſh laws upon ſuch occaſions. That traders of this and of all nations endeavour, by every ſubterfuge, to evade being taken in port, is little to be doubted; nor does it ſeem any way improbable, but ſuch like artifices as have been intimated by father Labat, are really practiſed. And, if the Spaniſh viceroys, governors, or other inferior officers, appointed by the crown of Spain to reſide in America, will connive at, promote, and encourage this commerce, ſo lucrative to themſelves, as well as to the others concerned; it ſeems ſcarce poſſible for thoſe princes, whoſe ſubjects are thus decoyed to trade with the Spaniards, ever to prevent it. But there does not appear any ſuch difficulty on the ſide of the court of Spain; for, if they make their laws in Old Spain ſo ſevere and rigorous as to deter their own ſubjects, as well thoſe in power as otherwiſe; this ſmuggling trade would, in New Spain, meet with as great a check, as it has lately done in England, from the wiſdom and juſtice, as well as from the good execution of our laws relating thereunto.

Wherefore, in regard to this matter, which hath for ſo many years created heart-burnings between the courts of London and Madrid, in particular, it appears that the court of Spain itſelf is to blame, for not taking effectual meaſures to prevent ſmuggling in their own colonies, and not the court of London, out of whoſe power it abſolutely is to prevent their ſubjects carrying on ſuch a trade, if the Spaniards themſelves will decoy the Britiſh ſubjects into it.

No reaſonable Spaniard, not even the moſt zealous Spaniſh patriot, would preſume to aſſert before the face of the impartial world, that it is more in the power of the Britiſh nation to prevent their ſubjects from carrying on this commerce by ſea, than it is in the power of the Spaniſh nation to prevent the ſame by land in Spaniſh America. And, if this is really the true and candid ſtate of this important caſe between the two nations; if it is eaſy, very eaſy, by proper laws duly executed on the ſide of the court of Spain, to prevent this contraband trade in America: and if, as it certainly is, it be next kin to an impoſſibility, on the ſide of the court of England, to prevent their ſubjects from being allured into this gainful trade, may we not, without the leaſt

partiality towards our own nation, ſay, that the blame really lies on the ſide of the Spaniſh, and not on that of the Britiſh court?

That the court of England have done all on their ſide to cultivate a friendſhip with the Spaniſh nation, the whole world is witneſs of; nay, that they have condeſcended to do more to oblige that court ſince the treaty of Seville than all Europe beſide, is not to be diſputed: as an Engliſhman, therefore, as a lover of the Spaniſh nation, may I not be allowed to aſk on this important occaſion, upon what principles of reaſon and juſtice, the court of Spain can put the labouring oar upon the court of London?

To prevent this evil, this ſmuggling trade on the ſide of the Britiſh ſubjects, where is the reaſon, that this nation ſhould ſubmit to the ſearch of their ſhipping on the high ſeas of America? When the ſhips of the French and the Dutch, &c. are catched in this illicit trade, and their cargoes and veſſels ſeized and confiſcated, in the ports of New Spain, by the faithful officers of that crown, we never hear of any complaints or remonſtrances to the court of Spain about it on the ſide of theſe ſtates, nor clamours made by the mercantile people upon ſuch occaſions: the reaſon whereof is, that it is allowed to be the univerſal law of nations, for all trading ſtates to acquieſce in thoſe laws which are made to prevent ſmuggling, and thereby to ſecure the legal revenues. But it is neither conſiſtent with the laws of nations, nature, nor common juſtice, for any one maritime nation, in times of peace, to be required to ſubmit to the ſearch of their ſhipping upon the high ſeas, under pretence of their having been concerned in an illicit trade; for this is uſurping abſolute dominion over the high ſeas, without any colour of reaſon: it is more particularly ſo in regard to the Britiſh ſhipping, when they are obliged to ſubmit to ſuch a ſearch in their going to, or returning from, our own colony of Jamaica; it being abſolutely neceſſary for the ſecurity of their navigation only, by reaſon of the winds and currents, and upon no other pretence whatſoever, to keep as cloſe to the Spaniſh coaſt as poſſible, both in the Windward Paſſage, and in the Gulph of Florida. For proof of which, ſee the article ANTILLES ISLANDS and SPANISH AMERICA.

If the court of Spain, therefore, ſhould ſtill prove inflexible enough, to inſiſt upon this point, and even under any kind of reſtriction or limitation whatſoever, it hardly ſeems poſſible, that any laſting friendſhip ſhould ſubſiſt between the two nations. No Spaniard of judgment or candour will preſume to ſay, that the court of England is to blame, they having already manifeſted a greater condeſcenſion and cordiality towards that kingdom, to induce them to give up this unreaſonable claim, than they could ever expect. And, if they ſhould continue ſo refractory, as ſtill to inſiſt upon a matter, which is ſo apparently unreaſonable, it can proceed from no other motives, but to extort ſtill greater conceſſions from the court of England than what they have, for peace ſake, hitherto granted. But this, perhaps, will ſcarce ever be complied with; the Britiſh nation will be under the diſagreeable neceſſity of ever breaking friendſhip with a power, whoſe uſurpations they can ſee no end of, even after conceſſion upon conceſſion.

It muſt certainly be bad policy in the court of Spain to be eternally wrangling with a nation, to whom they are more beholden than to any other in the world beſide, for the great conſumption of their produce; and eſpecially ſo, as our exports to the Spaniſh nation are declining, by reaſon of their having ſet up woollen and other manufactures of their own. But we hope that the Spaniards will be wiſe enough to acquieſce in the moderate and reaſonable demands of the Britiſh court, and not again compel them to ſuch meaſures, as may one day prove fatal to Spain, notwithſtanding hitherto they have come too well off. For more matter upon this head, ſee the articles LOGWOOD and SPANISH AMERICA.

The DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY. This company eſtabliſhed itſelf in 1621, and it's charter was dated the 10th of June the ſame year, with an excluſive privilege to carry on, for the term of 24 years, all the trade of the African coaſts, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope: and in America, from the ſouth point of Newfoundland, through the Streights of Magellan, of Le Maire, and others, as far as that of Anian, as well in the north as ſouth ſeas.

The directors were divided into five chambers; twenty for that of Amſterdam, twelve for Zealand, fourteen for every chamber of the Meuſe, and of the north quarter, and fourteen likewiſe for that of Frieſland.

The government, or general direction, was intruſted with nineteen directors, taken out of every chamber, in proportion to it's contribution to the joint ſtock; eight for Amſterdam, which advanced $\frac{5}{9}$ths; four for Zealand, who were there for $\frac{2}{9}$ths; and two for each of the three others, who contributed only $\frac{1}{9}$th a piece: the nineteenth director was choſen by the States General, who had even a right to name ſeveral, as they thought fit.

The 4th of June 1647, the company renewed their charter for 25 years; but were ſcarce able to hold out the time of

this laſt grant, by the immenſe loſſes and expences occaſioned by undertakings ſucceſsful at firſt, but ruinous in the event.

Such was, amongſt others, the taking the bay of Todos los Santos, Fernambouc, and the beſt part of Brazil from the Portugueze; an extraordinary ſucceſs, and of immenſe profit to the company, if it could have ſupported it; but, as it engaged them afterwards in expences beyond their ſtrength, it reduced them to a weakneſs, from which they could not recover: although, in 1629, their admiral, Peter Hain had brought into Holland the Spaniſh plate fleet, which was immenſely rich; and their hopes of poſſeſſing the reſt of Brazil appeared ſo well grounded, that Maurice, count of Naſſau, diſdained not to be their general in that new conqueſt.

This company's weakneſs, which it was in vain attempted more than once to unite to that of the Eaſt-Indies, cauſed it's diſſolution at the expiration of it's charter; and, the 20th of September, 1674, a new company, compoſed of antient partners and their creditors, obtained letters patents from the States, and entered into the ſame rights and eſtabliſhments with the former, which it hath enjoyed ſucceſsfully enough, conducting itſelf always with honour.

It's firſt ſtock was about ſix millions of florins; and it's principal ſettlements were, one at Cape Verd, and the other on the gold coaſt of Guinea, for the African coaſts; and thoſe for America, at Tobago, Curaccoa, and in the New Low Countries, ſituate between Virginia and New England.

Dutch company of Surinam.

The Zealanders having poſſeſſed themſelves of the colony of Surinam from the Engliſh, during the wars between England and Holland, the ſtates of Zealand, in 1682, yielded their part of that conqueſt, to the Dutch Weſt-India company, who, on the 23d of December the ſame year, obtained letters patents of the States for that acquiſition. Since that time, the colony is divided into three parts, one of which belongs to the city of Amſterdam, another to the Weſt-India company, and the third to the illuſtrious family of Somerſdyck in Holland. Of theſe three proprietors the company of Surinam conſiſts, the conduct of which is committed to ten directors; five on the part of Amſterdam, four for the American company, and one for the houſe of Somerſdyck.

This company, as already obſerved, makes part of the Weſt-India company.

By their charter, which conſiſts of thirty-two articles, are regulated the rights due to the company, the franchiſes and privileges of the colonies and planters; the number of military officers and municipal magiſtrates, the ſovereign council, the criminal and civil juriſdictions, and, in ſhort, the whole police concerning both old and new inhabitants.

The rights reſerved to the Weſt-India company, are thoſe of laſtage for ſhips going in and out of Surinam, at the rate of 3 livres the laſt; the right of weight on merchandize at the rate of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. both out and in, and the capitation payable in ſugar, both on white and black, at the rate of 50 pounds of ſugar the year: beſide theſe three rights, the company enjoys the excluſive privilege of trading in negroes, with obligation to furniſh the colony yearly with ſuch a number of ſlaves as it ſhall require, which ſhall be ſold publickly, and preſented two and two to the buyers, without diſtinction of rich or poor: the payment to be at three times, from ſix months to ſix months, according to the clauſes and conditions agreed on between the company's factor and the inhabitants. The franchiſes of the colonies and planters conſiſt, firſt, in a free ſettlement in the colony with their family, cattle, and goods, provided they are ſubjects of the States-General, and with liberty of leaving it when they ſhall think fit, to return to Holland or ſettle elſewhere.

2dly, In being ſubject to the impoſition of no right but thoſe before ſpecified, except caſes of extreme neceſſity, whether for the good of the ſtate in general, or that of the colony in particular.

3dly, In paying no more for their freight and paſſage from Europe to America, than 30 florins for every perſon above 12 years, including their maintenance, and only 15 florins for all under that age.

4thly, In liberty of ſhipping their effects on board ſuch veſſels as they ſhall think fit.

5thly, That the ſhips employed by the company in the negroe-trade, may not ſhip goods homewards to the prejudice of other ſhips, but only ſuch effects as belong to them, and proceed from the ſale of negroes, or the company's rights and impoſts.

6thly, Merchants, being arrived there with their ſhips and merchandize, may ſettle in places they ſhall find convenient for their trade, provided, however, it cauſe no inconvenience to the inhabitants, nor prejudice to the company's rights.

7thly, The governor and council to be ſworn to maintain all the colonies and merchants in the aboveſaid privileges.

With regard to the government, it ſhall be in the hands of the council of ſtate, compoſed of the governor and ten counſellors; which laſt may be augmented as the colony fortifies itſelf, to the number of forty, the governor at the choice of the company, but always with the approbation of L. H. P. and the counſellors at firſt by plurality of voices of the inhabitants, and afterwards at the nomination of the counſellors themſelves, when they are thirty in number

Though the governor is to have the chief authority both in civil and military affairs, they may not, however, be determined but in the council, and by plurality of voices, and then only in conformity with the company's orders.

Juſtice, in criminal caſes, ſhall likewiſe be within the cognizance of the governor and council of ſtate. Civil juſtice ſhall be adminiſtered by the governor, aſſiſted with ſix counſellors, choſen out of the inhabitants, three of whom ſhall quit the office in two years: all which counſellors, as well thoſe of the council of ſtate as others, ſhall exerciſe their office without fee or reward.

Neither the governor, nor his council, may charge the colony with other impoſts or rights than thoſe above-mentioned, without the company's approbation. With which, nevertheleſs, they may exact ſome ſmall ſums for maintenance of miniſters for the ſervice of the church, ſchoolmaſters, and the like, as they ſhall judge neceſſary and uſeful.

Laſtly, As the colony may poſſibly become a charge to the Weſt-India company, the directors of the ſaid company ſhall at all times be permitted to withdraw, in which caſe the ſtate is to take charge of, and give order in the affair.

Merchandize imported from Surinam.

It's greateſt trade conſiſts in ſugars, worth commonly from 7 or 8 dutes, to 12 or 15 the pound; alſo ſmall candied citrons and oranges, ſome rocou, vanilloes, which are large and plump, but not ſo good as thoſe from the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. In 1718, they began to plant coffee here, which ſucceeded to a wonder, and is in no leſs eſteem than that of the Levant.

The DUTCH COMPANY of the NORTH. This company has not an excluſive privilege; private perſons have equal right, alſo, to trade in the parts of it's conceſſion, and the advantage received by it's letters patents conſiſts only in ſome privileges, of no great conſequence.

There are alſo in Holland companies for the Baltic Sea, for the fiſhery of Nova Zembla, Davis's Streights, and Groenland; but theſe fiſheries are not thereby interdicted to thoſe who will undertake them: all the difference between the company's fiſheries and thoſe of private adventurers is, that theſe laſt may not go aſhore to cut up their fiſh, and melt their fat, being obliged to cut their whales up, and bring them to Holland in pieces to be melted.

The DUTCH LEVANT COMPANY. There is not, properly ſpeaking, a Levant company in Holland: but the commerce carried on by private perſons is ſo conſiderable, and of ſuch great conſequence to the commonwealth itſelf, that the States-General have not diſdained to take charge of it, and to eſtabliſh there an order and regulations, which all Dutch merchants in that trade are obliged to obſerve.

And for this purpoſe the States have appointed at Amſterdam a chamber of direction, compoſed of ſix deputies anda regiſter, all merchants, who, under authority of the burgo-maſters, have charge of all things relating to the navigation and commerce of the Mediterranean Sea; particularly that which they maintain with equal profit and reputation at Smyrna and Conſtantinople.

It is this company that nominates the conſuls of the Levantine ports, which it is, nevertheleſs, obliged to preſent, and ſubmit to the approbation of the States-General. It decides, alſo, the number and force of the convoys neceſſary to ſecure the navigation of the merchant-men; and determines the differences that may ariſe between merchants on the ſubject of trade; and hath even a right, when needful, to add new regulations to the old ones, but they are of no validity 'till confirmed by the States-General.

DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

A ſhort hiſtory of the Dutch Eaſt-India company.

This company was firſt undertaken by nine merchants only of Amſterdam, who ſubſcribed no more than 70,000 guilders for a capital ſtock. They were called the new company.

In the year 1594, they fitted out four ſhips, having in all 62 guns and 288 able ſeamen. Being well victualled for ſo long a voyage, and well furniſhed with ammunition, they ſailed from the Texel the 2d of April, 1595.

They were particularly inſtructed to avoid trading in any place where the Portugueze had their ſettlements and factories; more eſpecially where they had any forts, that they might avoid falling into the hands of the Spaniards, and likewiſe to avoid, as much as poſſible, being embroiled with the Portugueze.

They arrived at the Cape of Good Hope the 2d of Auguſt, from whence they went to Madagaſcar and the iſland St. Mary, and, ſtretching away to the ſouth-eaſt, they touched no where more 'till they came to the iſland of Sumatra, leaving the coaſt of

of Malabar, the iſland of Ceylon, the coaſt of Coromandel, and the bay of Bengal (in all which they are now ſo powerful) on the left-hand, for fear of the Portugueze.

On their arrival on the coaſt of Sumatra, on the 11th of June, 1596, they commenced traffic with the Arabian and Chineſe merchants, and began a trade with the natives, particularly in pepper and other ſpices, which they found were brought to the port of Bantam, as to a kind of mart.

The natives behaved to them with great courteouſneſs and civility at firſt: but the Portugueze there being ſurprized to ſee the Hollanders in theſe ſeas, where they had never heard of them before, they were not a little irritated, nor neglected any inſidious meaſures to incenſe the king of the country againſt them, which ſoon occaſioned a prohibition of traffic between them; and, indeed, were in danger of being ſurprized by the perfidy of the natives, who, under pretence of friendſhip, invited them among them, and murdered thirteen of their men, among whom was their principal commander, captain Molenaer, and two of their ſupercargoes. They, however, diſcovered the treachery time enough to ſave the reſt and their ſhips; the Indians having laid their plot, in concert with the Portugueze, ſo as to have ſurprized the ſhips alſo.

By the loſs of men from their firſt ſetting out, they were ſo weakened, as to be under the neceſſity of reducing their four ſhips to three, and accordingly burnt one, the better to man the reſt. With this force they left Bantam, and touched again on the iſland of Borneo, diſcovering the coaſts as they paſſed; and, having traded in ſeveral places to advantage, they came to the iſle of Baly, to the eaſt of the iſland of Java. Here they were ſo well received, that two of their men, by the conſent of the others, and at the requeſt of the king of the country, ſtaid behind, with intent to cultivate the friendſhip begun; being aſſured by their countrymen, that they ſhould return the next time they came. Here they took in ſeveral merchandizes, ſuch as the country produced, and ſuch as other Indian veſſels frequently brought thither, as China goods, ſilk, ſpices, and pepper: here eſpecially, they found great plenty of rice, which was no little comfort to them, their bread being all ſpent. They ſtored all their ſhips with this rice, and took in a large quantity more than they could conſume, which they carried home as merchandize. Being thus pretty well freighted, they ſet ſail to return to their own country, whither they arrived the 4th of Auguſt the ſame year; having, in leſs than five months, made their voyage from the fartheſt part of the iſle of Java. A paſſage ſo extraordinary, as has hardly been ever done ſince. And, although they made no extraordinary profit, yet they were far from being loſers by the voyage; ſo that the next year the company reſolved to proſecute the trade again. While they were preparing for the ſecond expedition, there ſtarted up another ſett of merchants, ſeven in number, and they began to fit out three ſhips for the ſame purpoſe: but the States, to prevent confuſion in the beginning of the trade, obliged them all to join in one company, and forbid any other to interfere for that year. From this union of nine merchants only, ſprung the firſt Eaſt-India company of Holland. The ſhips for the ſecond voyage were ſix in number.—The admiral of this fleet, which was the richeſt and ſtrongeſt that ever had put to ſea from their coaſts on any ſingle expedition, was Jacques de Neck, the vice-admiral Wybrant Warwijeck: theſe were appointed for their diſtinguiſhed probity, courage, and experience, in marine and merchandizing affairs: beſides whom, they had ſeven ſupercargoes, who, with the two admirals and the captains, were conſtituted the council. One of theſe captains was the famous Heemſkirk, who, endeavouring to find out the north-eaſt paſſage to China in the year 1596, wintered with all his company on the northermoſt part of Nova Zembla: and the pilot of the whole fleet was our countryman, the famous John David, an Engliſhman, who firſt propoſed the deſign.

This fleet was admirably provided, as, indeed, was the firſt, with the ſtouteſt and ableſt ſeamen that could be had; and, as much as poſſible, they choſe all unmarried men, that no home affections might make them backward in any hazard, or haſty to return before their commanders ſhould require it. Knowing alſo, that the Portugueze were determined to attack them wherever they found them, they choſe ſuch ſhips as were not only ſtrong and able to bear the ſea, but good ſailors, and which would work well in an engagement, if put to the neceſſity of fighting: in ſhort, they were fitted out as ſhips of war, with plenty of proper arms and ammunition, &c.

They likewiſe carried ſuch cargoes of merchandize as might prove gainful in traffic; beſides which, they carried alſo 2,300,000 pieces of eight in ſpecie, moſt of which had been taken from the Spaniards in an attack upon their galleons, in their return from New Spain: ſo that, in this voyage, they bought the Spaniards out of the trade with their own money.

This fleet ſailed the firſt of May 1598, and paſſed the Cape of Good Hope July 10; from whence, without delay, they went for Madagaſcar, where they took in freſh water and proviſion in ſpite of the Portugueze, who had a ſmall fort in

St Auguſtine's bay, but durſt not ſtir out of it. Hence they made for the coaſt of Malabar, and reſolved to ſhew themſelves to the Portugueze wherever they ſhould have occaſion: accordingly they arrived on the coaſt ſome leagues to the ſouthward of Goa, traded with the natives, purſued, making diſcoveries of the ſoundings, harbours, and roads, and coaſted the whole country of India, the iſland Ceylon, the bay of Bengal, and came at laſt to the Streights of Baly, on the ſouth-eaſt of Java, where they had left their two men. Thus they became a terror to the Portugueze, braved them wherever they came, though they did not offer to attack them; and, in about two years and one month, they returned into their own country very richly laden, with about ſix millions and one half of guilders in merchandizes, having ſettled two factories, one on the iſland of Java, the other in Sumatra.

From this time they continued to ſend ſhips every year, and at length ſeized upon that ſpot of ground and port, where they have now built the famous city of Batavia, the glory of the Indies, and the ſtrength of the Dutch intereſt in that part of the world.

The ſame company ſent out four ſhips more after them the next year, before they had any account of the ſucceſs of their main fleet; which teſtified the ſatisfaction they had in the practicability of the undertaking, and the aſſurance of the profit, in caſe of their ſafe return.

In the year 1600, the Zealanders ſet out on the like adventure, but loſt the firſt ſhip they fitted out on the coaſt of England, being overſet about five days after putting to ſea, and all her men drowned. This, however, did not diſcourage the Zealanders; they purſued their deſign upon their own foot, 'till the year 1604, when they alſo were taken into the general company: and thus this company have gone on ſucceſsfully to this day.

As by means of this company they grew rich at Amſterdam, from the conflux of merchants from Flanders, ſo in proportion they increaſed their trade: and, as the Eaſt-India trade occaſioned a great increaſe of their other commerce, ſo, when the Indian merchandizes were brought home, they exported them again to all parts of the world where they had any trade, particularly to the Baltic, to Muſcovy, and other places in the North, and eſpecially up the Rhine, the Maeſe, the Ems, the Weſer, and the Elbe, into all parts of Germany and France.

As to their Eaſt-India trade in general, and it's increaſe to the preſent time, it is no eaſy matter to make a computation how extraordinary it hath, from time to time, contributed to inrich the Hollanders in general: that they bring home great treaſure every year is not to be diſputed.

In regard to the extent of their commerce in the Indies, and the number of their factories and ſettlements there, they have the fort and watering-place at the Cape of Good Hope, in latitude 36 ½ ſouth of the Line; a ſettlement maintained not for trade, but for relief and ſupply of their ſhips in their paſſage out and home, as St Helena is to the Engliſh in our Eaſt-India trade.

They have alſo the iſland Mauritius, ſo chriſtened in honour of Grave Maurice, who was, at the time of it's diſcovery, their great champion againſt the Spaniards. This lies between the iſland of Madagaſcar and the coaſt of Malabar, or the Perſian gulph; and is, as the Cape, not uſed for traffic, but chiefly for watering, taking in freſh proviſions, and other relief to their ſhips on the voyage. It is in the latitude of 16 degrees 35 minutes ſouth.

With reſpect to their commerce, they have a factory at Mocha, in the ſtreight of Babelmandel, juſt within the entrance of the Red Sea, called, on that occaſion, the gulph of Mocha. And here they trade, as we do, for coffee and ſome few drugs only: but in coffee here and at Batavia, where they had planted it, they trade far more largely than any other nation.

Their other ſettlements in the Perſian gulph, and on the coaſt of Malabar, from Surat, on the ſouth of the river Indus, to Cape Comeron, in which ſpace they have the following ſeveral factories, viz.

Gombroon in Perſia, latitude	27	½	
Ormus, in the gulph -	27	4	
Choule, near Bombay -	18	½	Theſe are on the ſhore properly called India.
Rigapore Dunde - -	18	31	
Baſſaloco, alias Baynenar			
Bodven - - - - -	13	¾	
Cannanore, the firſt factory of the Dutch on the coaſt of Malabar, latitude - -	11	50	Theſe are on the coaſt of Malabar.
Pamari - - - - -	10	¾	
Crananera - - -	10	20	
Cochin, a very ſtrong ſettlement			
Porchatt, by the Portugueze called Labra de Porcha -	9	½	
Carnapole - - - - -	9		
Quilon, or Caylon - -	8	45	
Cape Comeron - -	7	25	

Beſide theſe factories, they have the whole trade of the great iſland Ceylon, the chief product whereof is cinnamon: and their chief factories in relation thereto are at Colombo and Manteil,

Manteil, on the weſt ſide of the iſland; at Calapetene, in an iſland on the ſame ſhore; at Jetrapatan, on the north point of the iſland; and Point Pedro on the ſame, being the extreme land north.

From Ceylon they enter the bay of Bengal, and trade on the coaſt of Coromandel and Golconda, up to the river Ganges, where they have ſeveral factories in common with the Engliſh, and ſome that are wholly their own. Hence they go on to the coaſt of Siam, the great iſland of Sumatra, and the peninſula of Malacca, called the Indian Cherſoneſus, or the Streights of Sincapore. This, and the Streights of Sunda, are the entrance into the Indian Ocean, or the ſeas of China and Borneo, and lie between the ſouth end of the iſland Sumatra and the weſt end of Java, called Java-head, on one hand; and between the ſouth part of Malacca, or the ſaid Indian Cherſoneſus, and the north-weſt part of Borneo.

Their factories and ſettlements on the coaſts of Coromandel and Golconda, and the kingdom of Bengal, which are ſeparately their own, are as follow:

On the coaſt of Coromandel, from latitude 10 ½, to latitude 22 ½.

Negapatan, in latitude	11 degrees
Porta Nova	11 ¾
Sadraſſapatan	12 40 minutes
Cabelon	12 50
Pullacat	13 ½
Caletore	14 ½
Petipoly	16 10
Muſſalapatan	16 20
Balaſore, Pipley, on the river Pipley, Baſnagul, on the river Ganges, Huguli, on ditto, Patana, on ditto, Dacca, on ditto	All in or near the ſame latitude.
Bengal	22 ½
Aracan	21 ½

From hence they have the trade of the great iſlands of Java and Borneo; and beyond them eaſtwards, of the Molucca's, or Spice Iſlands; which trade is wholly theirs, without any competitors: they had alſo a ſhare of the trade northward to China, the iſland of Formoſa, and Japan; but they loſt it afterwards.

On the north-eaſt-ſide of the iſle of Java, in the latitude of about 7 degrees ſouth, ſtands the ſpacious and royal city of Batavia, wholly built by the Dutch, where their governor and council of the Indies reſide, and where, they tell us, they are more ſtrong, though not more populous, than in Europe; which, compared with the enemies who are in condition to offend them, may be true, but not otherwiſe.

Their ſettlements in theſe parts, that is, beyond the Streights of Sunda eaſt, and north, are not (as in the fore-mentioned places) under other kings and governments, but were got by forcible entry and conqueſt: we mean the iſlands of Java, Borneo, Madure, and Celebes, and the Spice Iſlands.

From theſe ſeveral countries they import the following merchandizes: from Mocha, coffee, and ſome few drugs; from the coaſt of India, Malabar, Coromandel, and Golconda, all kinds of Indian manufactures, ſuch as wrought ſilks, callicoes, muſlins, with other great variety of manufactures of cotton and flax; alſo ſhell-lack, ſtick-lack, red-wood, ſalt-petre, a great variety of drugs [ſee the article DRUGS], dye-ſtuffs, &c. From Borneo, and the coaſt of Malacca, pepper, and ſome gold and diamonds [ſee the article DIAMOND]. From Bengal, and the river Ganges, raw ſilks and wrought ſilks, of divers kinds, with diamonds, indico, lahore, cowries, &c. From Sumatra, Java, and Batavia, pepper, coffee, the laſt planted in Java, by the Dutch themſelves. From Ceylon, cinnamon, and ſome few drugs, ſalt-petre, and pearl. From Banda, Gilolla, Ternate, Amboyna, &c. ſpices, viz. nutmegs, cloves, mace, &c. From China, raw ſilks, wrought ſilks, Japan and China ware, tea and arrack.

The Dutch carry out conſiderably more European goods to India than the Engliſh, becauſe the number of their people there, eſpecially in their great ſettlements at Batavia, Borneo, and the Summer Iſlands, are prodigiouſly increaſed, and require greater quantities for conſumption.

REMARKS.

From this ſuccinct ſtate of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, we may form ſome judgment of the weight and influence of this republic in Aſia; which, when compared with any other ſingle European power that have trade and ſettlements there, they are far ſuperior: ſome have not ſcrupled to aſſert, that their commerce and power there is little inferior to all the other Europeans conjunctively; but this, we are inclined to think, is carrying the point much too far.

The iſland of BORNEO, which the Dutch poſſeſs in this part of the world, is not only the largeſt in Aſia, but in the world itſelf, a very few excepted, being near 12 degrees, that is, 700 miles in length, from north to ſouth; and 10 degrees, or 600 miles in breadth; the form almoſt circular, or rather elliptical. The Portugueze Jeſuit, Vintimeglia, who deſcribes it, ſays it meaſures 1650 Italian miles in circumference: ſo that it is certainly the largeſt iſland in Aſia, not excepting even that of Japan itſelf.

This iſland lying in the very centre of heat, the equator paſſing juſt over it, we might expect it, like Africa, to be ſcorched up, and given over to uninhabited drought and barrenneſs; but, on the contrary, we are ſurprized to find it infinitely populous, being not only filled with native inhabitants, but thronged with ſtrangers of all the trading nations round it, ſuch as Chineſes, Japoneſes, Siamites, Malayans, Maccaſſars, and Javanes, or Batavians, beſides Europeans, as Dutch, Portugueze, and ſome few Engliſh. In a word, Borneo invites her neighbours by the moſt powerful arguments of commerce; a product inimitably rich [the ſpices,] and, in ſome reſpects, not to be equalled in quantity in the whole world.

Here, alſo, are the moſt exquiſite diamonds. The diamond-mines of Golconda are, indeed, wonderful in themſelves, and the diamonds are not found here either in that manner, or that quantity: but then, on the other hand, the diamonds at Borneo are of the fineſt and moſt perfect water, truly brilliant: in ſhort, here are the moſt admirable diamonds in the whole globe, nor is the quantity ſmall that they find here.

As this is a product of the concealed part of nature, the ſurface might be a cruſt for all this, as it is in Africa, where the mountains are fruitful in gold, and the rivers ſpangle with the duſt of it; and yet the ſoil ſcarce yielding food for man or beaſt. But in Borneo, though with the ſun in the zenith, you have the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, the hills covered with flouriſhing woods, the meadows and fields enriched with fragrant and medicinal vegetables; the trees yielding the moſt odoriferous and ſalubrious gums and drugs: they have here the fineſt and beſt camphire in the world; the beſt caſſia, of divers ſorts; excellent pepper, and the beſt rice in all the eaſtern parts of Aſia. They have very good cinnamon, though not ſo exquiſite as that of Ceylon, and ſeveral other valuable ſpices, particularly cloves. They have, beſides theſe, numberleſs variety of fruits, neceſſary for the ſuſtenance of human nature: and, for manufacturing, here is no end of the production of cotton: they have, likewiſe, more honey and wax than there is in any other place in India. Here the Dutch in particular, and the Malayans and Chineſes, have their ſeveral factories and colonies, all different; the firſt being Chriſtians, the ſecond Mahometans, the laſt Pagans.—The Hollanders are maſters of the very beſt parts on the coaſt: they call the largeſt and moſt populous city Borneo, after the name of the iſland: it is a large, populous, and well-ſituated town, the ſtreets ſpacious, and well watered.—This place is the ſeat of commerce; the harbour ſafe, deep, ſecure from winds, without rocks or ſhoals that have any danger attending them, and is able to receive the largeſt ſhips.

Eaſt of Borneo lie the Spice Iſlands, which, together with that of Batavia and Ceylon, may juſtly be called the Dutch empire in the iſlands of the Indies. It is true, in Batavia and Ceylon they are not ſole lords; but it is not becauſe they have not power to poſſeſs the reſt, but becauſe they have the dominion of trade, which is ſufficient to them, and more they have no occaſion for: however, in thoſe we are about to ſpeak of, they may be ſaid to be abſolute lords of the place, without any to interfere with them. As

The iſland of CELEBES, on the eaſt of Borneo. This is not, indeed, called one of the Spice Iſlands, but it produces a great quantity of ſpices; and the Dutch, for that reaſon, think it worth while to keep the poſſeſſion of it. They have a very conſiderable trade with the people of Borneo and China: but the Dutch are abſolute maſters of the place and trade too. The town is very ſtrong, having divers good forts to guard the entrance into the harbour; and the Dutch maintain a good garriſon here againſt all events.

The Nutmeg Iſlands are BANDA, PULO-WAY, PULO-RIN, NERA, GUMENAPE, GULIGIEN.—The Clove Iſlands are TERNATE, FIDORE, MOTIR, MACHIAM, BACHIA, all ſubject entirely to the Dutch, and ſtrengthened with forts and caſtles.

AMBOYNA alſo produces cloves, and is ſubject to the Dutch; yet neither does this, or ſeveral others where cloves are produced, commonly paſs for any of the Spice Iſlands. The Engliſh had formerly a factory in this iſland, and, by that means a ſhare with the Dutch in the ſpice trade; and, perhaps, in time might have obtained a firmer footing there; nor is it unlikely that the proſpect of increaſing their intereſt, in that valuable branch of commerce was one of the reaſons which moved the Dutch to the horrid maſſacre of the Engliſh: which ſcene I chuſe to paſs over in ſilence.—I ſhall only obſerve that the Engliſh, by this act of cruelty, were outed of their factory, and, in conſequence, of the ſpice trade, which is now as it were wholly engroſſed by the Dutch. The Dutch are abſolute lords of theſe Spice Iſlands; nor can any other nation have any buſineſs here, there being no inhabitants

habitants but mere natives to buy any thing, who are poor and few; and theſe have nothing to ſell but ſpices, which no body can publickly diſpoſe of but the Dutch governor.

The iſland of JAVA, alſo merits our particular attention, as as well for it's important ſituation, and being the greateſt colony the Hollanders have in theſe parts, as for the city of Batavia, built by them, and which is now the metropolis and center of all their commerce, and of all their ſtrength in the Indies.

Java is ſituate in the latitude of 6 to 9 degrees ſouth. It lies oppoſite to the ſouth-eaſt end of Sumatra; and the paſſage of the ſea, which runs between, is called the Streights of Sunda, the breadth between being about five or ſix leagues.

On the north ſide are a great variety of good harbours, creeks, and rivers, and two very noted towns, or cities, viz. Bantam and Batavia. The former is properly an Indian city; it was the capital city of the chief kingdom of the Javans, and which was once the moſt famous in the iſland. The Engliſh, for many years, had here a flouriſhing factory, eſpecially for pepper, but quitted it for that of Bencouli, which has been much more advantageous to our Engliſh Eaſt-India company.

The harbour is good, and much frequented: it is ordinary to ſee in this port at a time 3 or 400 ſail of Chineſe junks, and barks of Siam and Pegu, as alſo of Bengal, ſome to buy, others to ſell; for the produce of the place is very well ſuited to the commerce of theſe countries, here being conſtantly a loading of pepper of rice, for any ſhips that come, as alſo a great plenty of all ſorts of fruits common to the Indies.—They have alſo abundance of cattle, and their beef is good, and will take ſalt well, notwithſtanding the heat of the climate.—The Dutch here too have obtained the ſovereignty of the whole place.

But the glory of this iſland, and of all the European ſettlements in the Indies, is the city of Batavia, the center, as ſaid, of all the ſtrength of the traffic of the Dutch in this part of the world; where they are ſo powerful, and have ſo many ſubjects, ſo many iſlands, kingdoms, principalities, and dominions depending on them, and are ſo able to ſupport, protect, and employ them, that it is to be admired that any other European nation ſhould have ſo much as a footing in the Indies, and that the Dutch do not ſupplant and drive all the European factories out of this quarter of the world. The number of ſhips they are able to fit out here, the number of ſeamen they are able to raiſe, and the number of natives they have trained up to the ſea, are ſo great, that no nation in Europe can produce a ſtrength at that diſtance able to cope with them. This appeared on ſeveral occaſions in their wars with the Portugueze, wherein, by plain force, they drove them out of all the beſt factories in the Indies, except Goa, where they are, indeed, ſo well fortified, that no power ſouth of the Line can ever ſupplant them.

At the city of Batavia is ſeated their government civil and military: here are their magazines, as well naval and marine, as for armies and land expeditions: and from hence, upon any emergency, they fit out ſhips of war as they find needful, without the expence and hazard of ſending them from Europe.—Nay, here they are able to build ſhips, as well as to repair their old men of war, at a cheap rate, of what bulk and force they pleaſe. And for theſe purpoſes they have rope-walks to make cordage, forges to make anchors, founderies to caſt their cannon, mills to make gunpowder: ſo that they can never be ſuppreſſed for want of ammunition, or be obliged to wait for ſupplies from Europe, as all other European powers and factories muſt do in ſuch caſes.—Batavia is the general magazine of the Indies, as Amſterdam is of the United Provinces.

This city of Batavia, when the Dutch came thither, was no more than an Indian village, encompaſſed with a kind of palliſade of bamboo-canes. The Dutch pitched on it for the advantage of it's ſituation, all other conſiderations aſide, not regarding the low, watery, and fenny lands about it, or it's being ſubject to inundations by the river, which runs into the ſea here, paſſing through the middle of the city. Theſe things the Dutch being uſed to, and by experience accuſtomed to provide againſt, they preſently made ſubſervient to the city, by cutting channels, drains, and canals, to carry off the water upon any land-floods, ſo they turned the currents as they pleaſed. And, in regard to ſtorms from the ſea, there lie in the offing 17 or 18 iſlands, which keep off the winds, and break the waves, when the ſea would otherwiſe come rolling in: ſo that the ſea between theſe iſlands and the port is always ſecure, and makes the road a good harbour, and as ſafe riding, as if the ſhips were in a mole: and this harbour is able to receive 1000 ſail of ſhips at a time, beſide ſloops and barks, and other ſmall craft, which go into the river, and lie with their heads cloſe under the ſhore, faſtened to piles.

Beſides the ſtrength of the city, which is very conſiderable, and more than ſufficient to reſiſt any force which, in that part of the world, could be raiſed againſt it; they have five very ſtrong forts at a diſtance, whereby all the flat country, for ſeveral leagues about the city, is protected againſt the inroads of the natives. This is neceſſary, they having abundance of ſluices within theſe forts, ſome for ſtopping and turning of waters when floods happen, ſo as to prevent injury to the city; and others for uſeful manufactures, as powder-mills, ſugar-mills, corn-mills, paper-mills, ſaw-mills, &c.

In the beginning of the Dutch ſettlement here, the Javan kings often attacked them, and particularly the king of Bantam once beſieged them in a formal manner, with a very great army, being joined by the Engliſh with ſeven or eight ſtout ſhips; by which the city, then being in it's infancy, was reduced to great extremity. But, in the height of their diſtreſs, their fleet from the Molucca's, conſiſting of 17 men of war, and 1200 ſoldiers on board, came to their relief; upon which the Engliſh ſhips retired to Bantam, and, the Dutch ſuccours being landed, they ſallied upon the Javans, routed their whole army, and drove them from the ſiege with a horrible ſlaughter: ſince which they have made themſelves too ſtrong to be attacked; nor would a regular army of 40,000 men (Europeans) be able to ſubdue this ſingle city, it being generally well ſtored with proviſions, and having a good garriſon; and being ſurrounded with water, no approaches could be made, or attacks formed againſt it, in the ordinary way of military conduct.

CEYLON is a large iſland, lying off the ſouth coaſt of the Mogul's country. It is known to Europe for little but the production of cinnamon, though it yields alſo pepper and ginger, but not in the like quantities. As the coaſt is chiefly our buſineſs, we ſhall only obſerve, that the Dutch are fully maſters of the ſea-coaſt, and thereby of all the trade and product of the iſland: nor is the poſſeſſion maintained with any difficulty; for the Dutch, who leave the natives wholly to themſelves, are concerned only to ſecure the cinnamon, and keep other Europeans from them.

The Portugueze were here, as they had been of moſt of the ſea-coaſts of the Indies, lords of this whole country; nor were they ſo eaſily diſpoſſeſſed here as in other places, but defended themſelves bravely many years, 'till, about 1664, they were effectually ſupplanted by the ſuperior power of the Dutch, and forced to ſurrender their poſſeſſion, which they had held above 150 years.

On the extreme point of this iſland due north is a large piece of land, about eight leagues long, and four or five broad; 'tis a peninſula, ſurrounded by the ſea on all parts, except on the ſouth eaſt corner, where it is joined to the reſt of the iſland by a narrow ſlip, not half a league over. In the reſt of the iſland, the Dutch have only their fortified poſts, and ſome ſmall dependent places adjacent, leaving the government of the country wholly to the natives: but here the whole place is their own, and they have not only a ſtrong fortification at the north end of it, called Point Pedro, fronting that part of the ſea which looks towards the coaſt of Coromandel, but they have ſeveral other forts alſo. They have another ſtrong fortreſs on the ſouth-weſt part of the peninſula, called Jaffnapatam; it is built ſquare with four regular baſtions, and a large ditch with a counterſcarp: the Dutch take great care to preſerve it, maintaining a ſtrong garriſon always in it.

Beſides this peninſula, the Dutch have the city of Punta Galla on the ſouth part of the iſland. This was the capital city under the Portugueze government, and is ſo ſtill under the Dutch; being large, well built, populous, and ſtrong. 'Tis the ſeat of the Dutch governor, and, as the fortifications are all good, here is a ſtrong garriſon kept too. The ſituation of this town is alſo ſuch, that it is ſtrong by nature near the ſea, and almoſt ſurrounded with it: the harbour is good, and the ſhips moor almoſt on ſhore. The Dutch have beſides four ſtrong forts, viz. Negumbo, Columbo, Balecalo, and Trinquemale: the two firſt on the weſt ſide of the iſland, the next on the eaſt-ſide, and the laſt to the north-eaſt, all ſufficiently ſtrong, to defend themſelves againſt the natives, and ſecure their commerce.

Further REMARKS on the Dutch Eaſt-India company.

It may deſerve conſideration, from what a ſmall beginning this mighty power and commerce of the Dutch in the Indies originally ſprung: it was ſet on foot by nine merchants only, and but with a few thouſand pounds ſterling: but, indeed, the riſe of the Dutch in Europe is not leſs extraordinary, they having aroſe only from a few fiſhermen. As this manifeſts what wonders are to be wrought by induſtry, parſimony, and commerce ſteadily and wiſely purſued and conducted; ſo it muſt prove a powerful argument to ſet a-foot any new commercial undertakings, although in their infancy they may meet with great difficulties and diſcouragements, which is the caſe of moſt notable enterprizes at their commencement.

By theſe obſervations, I have, at preſent, more particularly in view the eſtabliſhment of the Britiſh fiſheries, which, at length have happily taken place in theſe kingdoms: and, as we have conviction before our eyes, that one of the greateſt trading ſtates in Europe took it's origin from the fiſheries alone, have we not the utmoſt reaſon to hope for and expect very proſperous conſequences, from this noble and pub-

lic-ſpirited undertaking? No nation being more happily circumſtanced to carry on this branch of commerce, we can have no reaſon to doubt, but we ſhall have our ſhare in this article of traffic over the whole world: and, if this great and national deſign is conducted by a ſucceſſion of gentlemen of worth, honour, integrity, and abilities, no way inferior to thoſe worthy patriots who have been ſo diſtinguiſhedly zealous in promoting our fiſheries, we need be under no apprehenſion of malverſation in the management of their affairs. To leave this ſhort digreſſion, and return again to the Dutch Eaſt-India company.

This company is governed by ſixty-five directors, divided into different chambers; twenty for that of Amſterdam, which alone poſſeſs one moiety of the ſtock; twelve in that of Zealand, which held one fourth; fourteen in thoſe of Delft and Rotterdam, which together furniſhed one eighth; and a like number for thoſe of Enchuyſen and Hoorn, which likewiſe together made the other eighth.

Seventeen directors were yet taken out of ſixty-five for the common affairs of the ſix chambers, and that in the ſame proportion; eight for the chamber of Amſterdam, four for that of Zealand, two for thoſe of Delft and Rotterdam, and two for Enchuyſen and Hoorn: for the ſeventeenth, he was taken alternately from Zealand, the Meuſe, or North Holland. 'Tis by this ſecond direction, that the number, equipment, and departure of the ſhips are regulated.

The company hath a right to contract alliances with princes, whoſe dominions lie eaſt of the Cape of Good Hope, and in Magellan's Streights, all along and beyond them; to build forts and place governors and garriſons there, and to appoint officers of juſtice and police, but the treaties are made in the name of the States; in whoſe name alſo, the officers, both military and juſticiary, are ſworn.

At the expiration of every charter, the company is obliged to renew it, which it hath already done five times ſince the firſt grant. Theſe coſt the company conſiderable ſums.

The grant of 1698 was confirmed ſince about the end of 1717, by proclamation of the States-General, prohibiting all their ſubjects to ſend their ſhips, or to ſail within the limits granted the company, or to trade directly or indirectly, or to aſſociate themſelves with foreigners for trade, or to make uſe of their ſhips.

Nothing could have been concerted with more wiſdom or prudence, than the police and diſcipline, by which every thing in that company is regulated, whether with regard to the election of the directors of the ſix chambers, or the government of envoys, and the returns of ſhips, or the choice of the ſixteen particular directors, the ſale of merchandize, and the repartitions of profits; or, laſtly, the politique of theſe ſovereigns of one part of the great Indies, whom nevertheleſs we reproach in this laſt reſpect, for their jealouſy againſt other nations, ſometimes a little bloody, and a religion weak enough to yield, as occaſion requires, to the intereſts of their commerce: it muſt however be confeſſed, that they are not without apologiſts for both theſe complaints.

'Twould be difficult to remark all the compting-houſes, factories, reſidences, or commercial ſettlements, in which they maintain merchants and factors; there being no place, any thing conſiderable for trade, from the bottom of the Perſian gulph to the coaſt of China, on which they have not ſettlements.

While the Dutch navigators meditated a paſſage by the north to the kingdom of Calay, and from thence to China, Cornelius Houtman, a Hollander, who had been a long time in the Portugueze ſervice, a man as curious as laborious, was taken by the Turks; and, having a long time in vain ſolicited thoſe of his nation for redemption from ſlavery, he addreſſed himſelf to ſome merchants of Amſterdam, propoſing, that if they would pay the ſums required for his ranſom, he would acquaint them with all he had learnt concerning the commerce of the Indies, and with the courſe they muſt keep in the voyage.

Theſe merchants, ſtruck with the propoſition, made not the leaſt heſitation to grant Houtman's requeſt, enjoining him ſecrecy as to the ſum required for his ranſom: he was ſet at liberty, arrived in Holland, made his report to his benefactors, and encouraged them to form a company, who reſolved, in 1595, to ſend four veſſels to the Indies, keeping the rout called the Portugueze.

If we read with attention the different relations of the wiſe, prudent, and courageous manner, in which thoſe illuſtrious merchants have acted, to form the fineſt eſtabliſhment in the world, we cannot but be ſtruck with the abilities of thoſe firſt founders, who could ſurmount the numberleſs obſtacles that lay in the way of their enterprize. What muſt their labour and reſolution not have been, to ſettle themſelves in ſo remote a country, where they had not a foot of land; a country inhabited by their moſt powerful enemies, who had been in poſſeſſion of it a century and a half? What muſt not our admiration be, that a few private merchants ſhould have laid the foundation of a company at preſent ſo formidable? The princes and kings of the world will here find leſſons of conſummate policy; they will here learn, moreover, if they doubt it, that there is nothing more advantageous or glorious to a ſtate, than a commerce well underſtood and directed; and that the way the Dutch made uſe of to conquer their enemies, was rather to attach them to the company by the proffered advantages of traffic, than by force of arms, which they never uſed, but to preſerve the dominion they had acquired by commerce.

'Twas on the 20th of March 1602, that the States-General ſummoned to the Hague the principal merchants of Amſterdam and Zealand, who had been intereſted in that firſt enterprize; and, after hearing their report, the States reſolved to aboliſh all the petty ſocieties formed 'till then, that there might be but one only body, and that, from that time, no private perſon ſhould trade between the Cape of Good Hope and the Eaſt-Indies, to the prejudice of the company; with liberty, however, to all thoſe who would intereſt themſelves in the company, to whom for that effect they granted letters patents dated that ſame day; and, in the treaty of peace, made at Munſter in 1648, it was ſpecially reſolved,

That the king of Spain might not extend his limits in the Eaſt-Indies, but that he ſhould be bounded by what he then poſſeſſed; that the conqueſts which might be made by the United Provinces, ſhould remain to them, whether over the natives of the country, or over the Portugueze, whatever the event might be of the war then ſubſiſting between Spain and Portugal.

The protection, granted by the States-General to the company, was no ſooner known, than every one was for intereſting himſelf in that commerce; ſo that, in a very ſhort time, they formed a capital ſtock, which, with that of the preceding petty ſocieties, amounted to 6,459,840 florins, bank money.

Amſterdam advanced	—	3,674,915
Zealand	—— ——	1,333,882
Delft	—— ——	470,000
Rotterdam	— —	177,400
Hoorn	— —	266,868
Enchuyſen	— —	536,775

Total Fl. 6,459,840 Banco.

This which is called the old capital of the company has proſpered ſo conſiderably, that it began to divide,

The year 1605	in July 15	
1606	in March 75	
1607	in July 40	
1608	in April 20	
1609	in June 25	
1610	in Auguſt 50	per cent. in money.
1612	in Decem. 57½	
1615	in Auguſt 42½	
1616	in Febr. 62½	
1620	in April 37½	
1623		25 per cent. in cloves.
1625	in Auguſt 20	
1627	in March 12½	
1629	in January 25	per cent. in money.
1631	in January 17½	
1633	in Decem. 20	
1635	March 20	
	May 12½	
	Auguſt 12	
1636	March 25	per cent. in cloves.
	Novem. 12½	
1637	March 15	
	Novem. 25	
1638	October 19	per cent. in ſpicery.
	Novem. 25	
1640	January 15	per cent. in cloves.
	Novem. 25	per cent. in money.
1641	Febr. 15	per cent. in cloves.
	Novem. 25	
1642	Decem. 50	per cent. in money.
1643	January 15	per cent. in cloves.
1644	Novem. 25	
1644	Decemb. 20	
1646	January 22½	
	Decem. 25	
1648	January 25	
1649	January 30	
1650	January 20	
1651	January 15	
1652	January 25	
1653	January 12½	
1654	June 15	
1655	January 12½	
1656	Decemb. 27½	per cent. in money.
1658	Decemb. 40	
1661	Novemb. 25	
1663	Novemb. 30	
1665	January 27½	
1668	June 12½	
1669	July 12½	
1670	June 40	
1671	June 45	
	July 15	
1672	June 15	

The year 1673	June	33⅓	per cent. in bonds on Holl.
1676	February	25	per cent. in money.
1679	January	12½	per cent. in bonds on Holl.
1680	January	25	per cent. in bonds on the company.
1681	January	22½	
1682	July	33⅓	
1685	February	40	per cent. in money.
1686	May	12½	
1687	April	20	
1688	April	33⅓	
1689	April	33⅓	
1690	April	40	per cent. in obligations.
1691	Auguſt	20	
1692	April	25	
1693	April	20	
1694	April	20	
1695	Novemb.	25	
1696	June	15	
1697	June	15	
1698	June	15	
	Sept.	15	
1699	June	20	per cent. in money.
	Decem.	15	
1700	July	25	
1701	May	20	
1702	May	20	
1703	May	25	
1704	June	25	
1705	May	25	
1706	May	25	
1707	April	25	
1708	May	25	
1709	May	25	
1710	May	25	
1711	May	25	
1712	May	15	
1713	May	30	
1714	May	33⅓	
1715	April	40	
1716	May	40	
1717	May	40	
1718	May	40	
1719	May	40	
1720	May	40	

2602⅔ per cent.

By the calculation here made, we ſee, that, during 63 years, the company hath divided 1749⅓ per cent. which amounts to about 22⅝ per cent. of the capital ſtock one year with another.
The proſperity this famous company enjoys, is owing to the wiſe adminiſtration of the 65 directors:

18 for the city of Amſterdam,
12 for Zealand,
7 for the city of Delſt,
7 for Rotterdam,
7 for Hoorn,
7 for Enchuyſen,
1 for Haerlem,
1 for Leyden,
1 for Dort,
1 for Tergow,
1 for the province of Guelderland,
1 for the province of Frieſeland,
1 for that of Utrecht.

These ſeven directors reſiding at Amſterdam.

65

Each of theſe directors is charged with certain affairs in the cities, or factories, of their diviſion, called chambers; as for example, the chamber of Amſterdam, the chamber of Rotterdam, &c. None may hold the office of director, unleſs he hath at leaſt 6000 florins in the company, reckoning from the primitive ſtock, which makes nearly the 1076th part of the ſaid capital. Theſe 6000 florins are worth about 50 or 55,000 florins.
Beſides theſe directors, the nobility have a deputy-director in South Holland, and in the other provinces.
Independent of theſe directors and deputies, there are, beſides, eight principal participating deputies, viz.

4 for the city of Amſterdam,
2 for Zealand,
1 for South Holland,
1 for North Holland.

They have a deliberative, but not a concluſive voice, in certain aſſemblies to which they have a right of admittance.
There are moreover in the body two advocates, who aſſiſt at the general aſſemblies, and at thoſe at Amſterdam. Their office in the company is nearly the ſame with that of the grand penſioner in the ſtates of Holland.
All theſe different directors have each their deliberative voice in the chamber of their city: but it is the general aſſembly that regulates all the important affairs of the company; it is held uſually three times a year.
The firſt of theſe aſſemblies regulates the ſale of ſpiceries, and the dividends to be made by the company.

The ſecond is to deliberate on the anſwers to be made by the company to letters received from the Indies.
The third regulates the ſales made in October and November, and the number of ſhips to be fitted out, and ſent to the Indies the current year.
All theſe ſorts of aſſemblies are called the aſſemblies of 17, and they are compoſed of

8 directors for the city of Amſterdam,
4 for Zealand,
1 for Delft,
1 for Rotterdam,
1 for Hoorn,
1 for Enchuyſen,

16; and the ſeventeenth is deputy in turn of one of the four ſmall chambers.
Beſide that aſſembly of 17, there is alſo a general aſſembly held every year at the Hague: it is compoſed of

4 directors of Amſterdam,
2 of Zealand,
1 of Delft,
1 of Rotterdam,
1 of Hoorn,
1 of Enchuyſen.

10

This aſſembly of 10, generally examines the letters and papers received from the Indies, and forms a rough draught of an anſwer, which is afterwards ſent to the aſſembly of 17, to reſolve upon what they ſhall judge convenient.
Every director hath ſome particular charge; four of the city of Amſterdam are appointed to have care of the ſtore-houſes, as alſo to buy the merchandize which the company is for ſending to the Indies, and to take care of the merchandize unſold: three or four others ſet over the finances, and to receive and deliver the company's revenues: ſeven others perform what is neceſſary for fitting out the ſhips; and a very ſmall number of them are authorized to tranſact the ſecret affairs of the company.
We ſhall not finiſh this article without obſerving, that the company maintains and employs uſually in it's ſtore-houſes more than 1200 workmen, as well for the building as fitting out ſhips; 50 workmen are yearly employed in picking and cleanſing the ſpiceries.
What is here related gives us a ſufficient idea of the riches of that company in thoſe parts where it took it's riſe; which, however, are ſmall in compariſon of thoſe they have acquired in the Indies, and of their power at Batavia, a city which ſurpaſſes thoſe of Europe in beauty, and the grandeur and power of their general there, who, we are aſſured, commands upwards of 50,000 men, excluſive of the fleets at his diſpoſal.
We are yet to explain the manner in which the capital ſtock was divided. We have remarked, that it was originally 6,459,840 florins, bank money, which was divided into ſhares of 500 livres gros, at ſix florins each; ſo that each ſhare amounted to 3000 florins; theſe were called capital actions, or, ſimply, actions of the India company. They are bought and ſold as ſtocks are in England, at a higher or lower price, according to the dividends the company think fit to make, who, we are aſſured, always make a reſerve of immenſe ſums, as a proviſion againſt thoſe loſſes which have often happened to it, without being obſerved by the public; a wiſe and prudent precaution, which has, and will ſupport, the credit of that illuſtrious company, and deſerves to be an example, in this reſpect in particular, to all other trading companies in Europe.
Upon the whole, one of the reaſons why the Dutch Eaſt-India company flouriſhes, and is become the richeſt and moſt powerful of all others we know of, is it's being abſolute, and inveſted with a kind of ſovereignty and dominion, more eſpecially over the many ports, provinces, and colonies it poſſeſſes in thoſe parts: for it appoints magiſtrates, admirals, generals, and governors; ſends and receives embaſſies from kings and ſovereign princes, makes peace and war at pleaſure, and by it's own authority; adminiſters juſtice to all, appoints tribunals to judge in their name, with plenary power, and no appeal; puniſhes and remits offences; beſtows rewards becoming the dignity of kings; ſettles colonies, builds fortifications, levies troops, maintains numerous armies and garriſons, fits out fleets, and coins money.
And, though there is acknowledged a dependance upon the States-General, it may be ſaid they ſeldom exert their power; and, while the Republic preſerves the right of ſovereignty, it tacitly leaves the exerciſe and poſſeſſion of it to the merchants of this company. Theſe vaſt powers were, and ſtill are, requiſite to cheriſh and preſerve this flouriſhing branch of trade; and the proprietors juſtly merited them: for, by their own vigilance, fatigue, and expence, they have conquered and preſerved all the countries they poſſeſs in thoſe parts of Aſia, and their fortreſſes on the coaſt of Africa, for refreſhment, refitting, and protection of their ſhips.

This company, we have ſeen, was raiſed and projected upon the ſpoils of the Portugueze, and afterwards at the expence of the Engliſh. And to what a degree this corporation might raiſe it's power and influence in Aſia, and, conſequently, in Europe, were there not other potent and opulent European trading companies, to maintain a kind of ballance of commerce and influence againſt them, is not eaſy to ſay. Experience has ſhewn, that there is no little danger in truſting them with the upper hand, either in the Indies or Africa; the affair of Amboyna will never be forgotten, no more than their tyranny and cruelty to the Engliſh African company formerly, which was the firſt, and, perhaps, the principal cauſe of their ruin. Quære, therefore,

Whether thoſe judge the beſt in regard to the trading intereſt of theſe kingdoms, who are for ſupporting the united Eaſt-India company of England in their preſent privileges and immunities, and even for enlarging them; or thoſe who are for annihilating that company, and laying the trade abſolutely open?

In order to form a juſt, candid, and diſpaſſionate judgment of this matter, we have given the ſhort hiſtory and ſtate of the Dutch Eaſt-India company: in it's place, we ſhall give a ſuccinct hiſtory and ſtate of the French Eaſt-India company, and of thoſe of the other potentates who carry on a commerce to that part of the world. For, without the intelligent reader hath thoſe points fairly laid before him, we humbly conceive that it is not poſſible for him to make a true judgment of the queſtion. Our buſineſs, therefore, is ſo to lay all requiſite facts only before the reader, that he may not be miſled in a matter of this high importance and concernment to the trade and maritime power of the kingdom in general. See the articles EAST-INDIA COMPANY, FRANCE, PORTUGUEZE EAST-INDIA TRADE, SWEDISH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

DUTIES, in regard to trade, are thoſe impoſts, or taxes, which are laid on merchandizes at importation or exportation, which are commonly called the duties of cuſtoms; the taxes of exciſe, alſo, are frequently diſtinguiſhed by the duties of exciſe.

REMARKS.

We ſhall here conſider duties in another light than what we have hitherto done, under ſynonymous heads.

The principles on which all duties and cuſtoms ſhould be laid on foreign merchandizes which are imported into theſe kingdoms, are ſuch as tend to cement a mutual friendſhip and traffic between one nation and another; and, therefore, due care ſhould be taken in the laying of them, that they may anſwer ſo good an end, and be reciprocal in both countries: they ſhould be ſo laid as to make the exports of this nation, at leaſt, equal to our imports from thoſe nations wherewith we trade; ſo that a ballance in money ſhould not be iſſued out of Great-Britain to pay for the goods and merchandizes of other countries; to the end that no greater numbers of our landholders and manufacturers ſhould be deprived of their revenues ariſing from the product of the lands, and the labour of the people, by foreign importations, than by exportations to ſuch countries.

Theſe are the national principles, upon which all our treaties of commerce with other countries are to be grounded: and, as all ſtates and empires are daily making their utmoſt efforts for the advancement of commerce, and to prevent the importation of our manufactures into their kingdoms: as ſuch-like meaſures are the moſt effectual reſtraints and prohibitions upon our commerce, there ſeems no other way to redreſs the grievance, than by retaliating upon them, and ſupplying ourſelves, at leaſt, with their commodities in a degree of proportion diminiſhed equal to what they have leſſened in ours. For, if this policy is neglected, and traders are left to act at random, according to their own will, nothing is more certain than that they are taking ſteps gradually to ruin the nation, notwithſtanding the duties of cuſtoms ſhould be daily encreaſed, by theſe augmented impoſts. So that the additional encreaſe of the cuſtom-houſe revenue is not an infallible criterion of an encreaſe of national commerce and treaſure.

But one fundamental branch of the ſupport of the royal revenue depending on the good plight and augmentation of the duties ariſing on cuſtoms, it is no wonder that, ever ſince thoſe duties have exiſted, every meaſure has been taken to improve and encreaſe them. But let every judicious man conſider upon what principles of policy can this part of the public revenue poſſibly be encreaſed? Does not this encreaſe of revenue ariſe from the encreaſe of foreign imports? And, as the importation and conſumption of theſe imports diminiſh, will not the cuſtom-houſe revenue decline?

Now, ſince the encreaſe of the conſumption of foreign productions and manufactures, among us, has an inevitable tendency to impoveriſh our own nation, and enrich others, the greater care that is taken to encreaſe and improve the cuſtom-houſe branch of the revenue, UNLESS BY THE PREVENTION OF SMUGGLING, can it have any other effect than to haſten the ruin, rather than promote the opulence of the kingdom? unleſs our exports in value keep pace with our imports. As our exports, however, do not, according to the conſtitution of the public revenue, afford an encreaſe of the duties of cuſtoms any way proportionate to our imports, men in power have not thoſe inducements to rouſe and ſtimulate them ſo much in regard to the one, as they have in regard to the other.

In regard, likewiſe, to our duties of exciſe, let it be candidly conſidered, how far they may affect the general commerce and wealth, and power of the nation. Are they not laid even upon thoſe neceſſaries of life which affect the labour of the huſbandman and the farmer, and, conſequently, the country gentleman, as well as the artiſan, mechanics and manufacturers of every claſs, throughout the whole kingdom? The public, as well as the perſonal royal revenue of our ſovereign himſelf, doth alſo greatly depend on the keeping up, if not encreaſing, the product of the exciſe funds; and the very being and exiſtence of theſe funds depend upon clogging and encumbering our native productions and manufactures: as this is the caſe, no one will preſume to ſay that the conſtitution of this, any more than the cuſtom-houſe branch of the revenue, is ſo laid as neceſſarily to advance that commerce and navigation, which alone can ſupport and uphold the ſtate. It is true there are drawbacks allowed of the exciſe-duties upon the exportation of ſome commodities to foreign countries; ſuch as on beer, ale, &c. yet the duties on ſoap and candles, and other the neceſſaries of life, that are conſumed in our mechanic and manufactural arts, are not drawn back, but render the workmanſhip of thoſe artiſts dearer, in proportion to the weight of theſe taxes; which muſt unavoidably prove detrimental to our traffic, as it occaſions other nations to underſell us. See the article BONDING OF CUSTOM-HOUSE DUTIES.

As our intent is only to ſet things in that ſingle point of view which relates to trade, I ſhall conſider exciſes in no other light at preſent than as taxes on commodities, but attempt to ſhew the augmentative faculty of all ſuch taxes, and the great prejudice they do to trade; for, whatever raiſes the neceſſaries of life, raiſes labour, and, of courſe, the price of every thing that is produced by labour. How our exciſes do really encumber our traffic will appear preſently, they trebling themſelves almoſt to the people for what they raiſe to the government; and it is to be greatly feared it would appear much more, if we could go to the bottom of the incumbrance; for it is to be conſidered that tradeſmen in a country, by their mutual dependance on each other, are like wheels in a machine, in which, if one is touched, the others are affected.

Amidſt ſo many trading movers, to what degree the oppreſſion is encreaſed, is not eaſy to ſay; nor can we be ſtartled at the largeneſs of ſuch computations; for, being circulated chiefly among ourſelves, and going out by dribblets, we hardly perceive them, but yet are ſurprized to find wages and neceſſaries grow dearer and dearer, becauſe few uſe themſelves to conſider the immenſity of ſuch collected advances in ſuch ſums: if, however, we compare the difference of the prices of neceſſaries between England and France, we ſhall find that difference obviouſly accounting for the prodigious amount of the conſequences of our taxes; nor can it be a trifle that makes ſuch a fruitful country, as England is, ſo dear, and it's trade declining: for our working people, being forced to purchaſe the neceſſaries of life dear, muſt work dear to live, until their willing working hands are tied up by foreigners, who live leſs taxed, and, of courſe, work cheaper; ſo that they muſt, and do, underſell us at all markets for manufactured goods, where they come in competition with us, and, in time, muſt and will ſtop all ſuch exports.

And we may appeal to the judgment of every honeſt man converſant in trade, whether he does not experience our trade to decline year after year, more eſpecially our woollen trade, which has been eſtimated to be as neceſſary to us as bread is to the life of man; for our dearer goods muſt lie unſold, or be ſold with loſs, which muſt ſtop, or break our merchants; they, our clothiers and weavers, &c. they, their journeymen, who muſt either ſtarve, turn beggars, thieves, or fly to our enemies, and help them to ruin us the faſter; which has certainly happened too much of late years. See the articles ARTIFICER and MANUFACTURERS.

Oppreſs trade, and the generality of the common people become miſerable, and burdenſome to the rich; every accidental ſlackening of trade encreaſes that wretched number.—A poor man, by the ſeverity of weather, the dead time of year in his particular trade (for all trades have ſuch times) ſickneſs, or various other accidents, cannot work, but, having ſaved ten good ſhillings, is determined to allow himſelf only bare neceſſaries, which, if untaxed, might coſt about 4 d. per day; his money then will hold 30 days.

But if neceſſaries are advanced, by the conſequences of our taxes, 2 d. per day on his conſumption, in that caſe 6 d. per day is only equal to the above 4 d. for his maintenance, and he can then hold out but 20 days, and is forced the earlier by 10 days (in which poſſibly he might get employment) to ſtarve, beg, or ſteal.

Abſolute ſtarving, we muſt hope, ſeldom or never happens among ſo humane a people as the Engliſh; but want of neceſſaries may ſo impair a poor man's health, that he may never recover it, and then an uſeful ſubject, part of the riches of the nation, is loſt.

Begging but 10 days learns the poor man an idle way of life, that few ever get rid of, and then, inſtead of an uſeful, he becomes a burthenſome, and, oftentimes, a villainous ſubject.

From ſtealing, whereby he becomes the bane of ſociety, and, not contented with injuring his neighbour in his property, he is prompted ſometimes to take away life; and in both caſes he expoſes himſelf to be cut off by the hand of juſtice: every way a loſs to the nation.—In all theſe caſes, the poor man may have a large family of children, adding miſery to miſery. Encourage but trade, by enabling the poor to work as cheap as our neighbours, and their children will be trained to labour, become induſtrious and uſeful ſubjects, live comfortably as journeymen, or perhaps, as maſters, and contribute their aſſiſtance to add more power to the nation, and help to eaſe the rich of their taxes; for, the greater number of individuals there are in a country capable of paying, the leſs the tax will be on them, if equally laid. It is the intereſt of the rich to permit the poor to get money for their ſupport; for, by preventing them, they bring the greater weight on their own ſhoulders, becauſe theſe oppreſſions do not ſtop with the poor, but extend, like a plague, to the rich and the noble, whoſe fortunes inevitably moulder away by them.—Theſe are the chief cauſes of the declining condition of their tenants, that great encreaſe of the poor's tax under which the nation now labours, and which, in ſome places, hath not been leſs than 8 s. in the pound, and muſt, by degrees, inevitably ſink the value of landed eſtates, until one ruin involves all. See POOR. How to diſencumber our trade from pernicious taxes, ſee the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT], DEBTS, i. e. NATIONAL DEBTS, EXCISE, FUNDS, TAXES, TRADE.

'To ſhew, ſays the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. how 'exciſes, cuſtoms, and ſalt-duties, encreaſe the expences of 'the people, and, conſequently, ruin our trade, the follow-'ing account may not be improper.

'Firſt, the duties themſelves.

'The net produce of the taxes following was, before the 'war, computed to be, one year with another, as under:

'Exciſe, about - -	l. 2,800,000	
'Cuſtoms, about - -	1,700,000	
'Salt, about - - -	150,000	
	4,650,000	
'The charges of raiſing theſe duties are about 10 per cent.	465,000	
		5,115,000

'Secondly, the advanced price of thoſe goods the above duties are laid on.

'Woeful experience teaches us, that a very ſmall duty laid on commodities raiſes the prices of them conſiderably to the conſumer, beyond the groſs duty.

'By the fees given to officers, the tyrants of traders.

'By tradeſmen's loſs of time in attending upon exciſemen, or at cuſtom-houſes: a trader's time is his bread.

'By taking away a quarter part of our trader's ſtocks for duties, and forcing them to take as great profits on $\frac{3}{4}$ of their ſtocks laid out in goods, in order to live, as they would on the whole, if duty-free.

'By tradeſmen's profits on the duty and advances in all the hands that all taxed goods come thro' to the conſumer; as for example:

'Suppoſe there ſhould be no other tax but that on leather, let us ſee how many advances that would make on the price of ſhoes.

'The grazier lays (1), on the beaſt he fats, his advanced price of ſhoes; he ſells to the butcher, who takes (2) his profit on the grazier's advanced price of the beaſt; and raiſes (3) on the hide his advanced price of ſhoes; he ſells to the tanner, whoſe journeymen raiſe (4) their wages, on account of the advanced price of ſhoes. The tanner pays (5) the tax of 2 d. per pound on leather, takes (6) his profit on the before-mentioned five advances, and raiſes (7), on the tanned hide, his advanced price of ſhoes. He ſells to the leather cutter, who takes (8) his profit on the before-mentioned ſeven advances, and raiſes (9), on the hide he cuts, his advanced price of ſhoes. He ſells to the ſhoemaker, whoſe journeymen raiſe (10), their wages, on account of their advanced price of ſhoes. The ſhoemaker takes (11) his profit on the before-mentioned ten advances, and raiſes (12), on the ſhoes he makes, the advanced price of the ſhoes he wears; he ſells to the conſumer, with all theſe twelve advances, highly magnified beyond the bare duty.

'So much for the tax on leather only: but the grazier, butcher, tanner, leather-cutter, and ſhoemaker, uſe ſoap: that ſoap, like leather, 'is taxed, and, like that leather-tax, muſt be 'raiſed: but that cauſed twelve advances on our 'ſhoes; true; place, therefore, twelve advances 'more on ſhoes for the ſoap-tax. Theſe tradeſmen uſe candles; twelve advances more for the 'tax on them; and the ſame for every other tax 'on neceſſaries.

'All which, duly conſidered, might be computed at above cent. per cent. on the groſs produce of the duties; but, though the large duties cauſe ſome farther advance on all the goods they are laid on, charged with profit upon profit through every hand they paſs, yet, as they keep not pace with the ſmall duties, and all calculations appear faireſt, when moderate, I chuſe to abate in the advances, and to ſet them only at 50 per cent. - - - 2,557,500

'The amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on - - 7,672,500

'Let us ſee how this 7,672,500 l. circulates through the people, advances the prices of our goods, conſequently ruins trade.

'Firſt, This dearneſs of all neceſſaries, which raiſes the firſt coſt of goods, muſt advance the price of all labour.

'The Spectator, No. 200, computes that the people without property, who work for their daily bread, do conſume $\frac{2}{3}$ of our cuſtoms and exciſes; therefore they pay $\frac{2}{3}$ of them and their conſequences. As theſe people live but from hand to mouth, whatever is laid on them they muſt, therefore, ſhift off, or they cannot live; and, ſince theſe various taxes have been projected, they muſt earn enough, when they do work, to pay the taxes, the advanced price of taxed goods, and the advanced prices of all other neceſſaries, viz. meat, bread, cloathing, or whatever they can uſe, not only for the conſumption of the days they are employed, but for thoſe alſo that they are not; therefore, they are the cauſe of raiſing the wages of the working people $\frac{2}{3}$ of 7,672,500 l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, which makes - - 5,115,000

'Secondly, This dearneſs of all neceſſaries forces the maſter-tradeſmen to raiſe on their cuſtomers the taxes and advances on their conſumption.

'The above Spectator allows $\frac{1}{3}$ conſumption of our cuſtoms and exciſes to people with property; but, as theſe may be divided into two claſſes, viz. thoſe in trade, and thoſe out of trade, and the proportion conſumed by each not being aſcertained by any author, I ſhall compute them at half and half: therefore the maſter tradeſmen, or people with property in trade, viz. merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, farmers, wholeſale dealers, and retailing ſhop-keepers, muſt each lay on the goods they conſume, whether food, cloathing, or utenſils, their $\frac{1}{6}$ conſumption of 7,672,500 l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, makes - - - 1,278,750

'Thirdly, Tradeſmen's paying advanced prices on their goods muſt have advanced profits: for, whether they lay out their ſtocks of money in goods that bear their natural value only, or goods that bear double value by taxes, ſtill a living profit muſt be obtained on the ſtocks they employ. 6,393,750

'For the wages of the manufacturer, the mechanic, the labourer, and the expences of the maſter-tradeſman, being of neceſſity raiſed, the firſt coſt of goods muſt be ſo too; and, conſidering the various tradeſmen's hands that goods paſs through from the workman, or labourer, to the conſumer, charged with profit upon profit by each of them (which, in the little trades, muſt be very great, otherwiſe, their returns being ſmall, they could not live) the advance thereby occaſioned may, at a moderate rate, be computed at 50 per cent. to the conſumer, on the above two articles, which raiſe the firſt coſt of goods, and makes - - 3,196,875

'People with property, out of trade, their $\frac{1}{6}$ of 7,672,500 l. the amount of the advanced price of the goods the above duties are laid on, makes 1,278,750

Total advance - 10,869,375

'This is part of the amount of the conſequences of raiſing 4,650,000 l. for the government, by our preſent manner of taxing goods.

'Our other taxes are, the land-tax, the groſs produce, at about 4 s. in the pound, is about - - 1,960,000
'The ſtamps, windows, poſt-office, &c. their computed groſs produce about - - 500,000
'The poor's tax is computed, on a middling rate to equal the land-tax, but muſt be much more when trade is reduced, and the price of proviſions high: however, to reckon it at no more than the land-tax, or - - - 1,960,000
'General amount of all our taxes, and part of their conſequences before the late war - 15,289,375
'Let us now ſee the amount of our taxes with regard to our expences. The Britiſh Merchant vol. i. p. 165, computes our people at ſeven millions, and their expences at 7 l. per head; but, as neceſſaries are grown dearer ſince the year 1713, when he wrote, and the number of people encreaſed, I ſhall compute the people at eight millions and their expences at 8 l. per head, which makes our total expences annually 64,000,000
'Of which 64,000,000, the people pay for the taxes, and their conſequences, as above - 15,289,375
'Which being ſubtracted, their expences, if untaxed, would be only - - 48,710,625

'15,289,375 l. charged on 48,710,625 l. is a tax of above 31 per cent. on the expences of the people, which muſt add a prodigious artificial value to our goods, conſequently render them leſs ſaleable, and ruin our trade.
'If it be aſked, Whether foreigners, for what goods they take of us, do not pay on that conſumption a great portion of our taxes?
'The anſwer is, that it muſt be admitted they do; but, if that was originally intended and expected to continue the ſame as at the firſt laying on our taxes, it will be the ſtrongeſt argument againſt them; for, as our taxes on neceſſaries are proved to be ſo burdenſome and extenſive, by raiſing the prices of our goods, foreigners take leſs of them yearly: and, when the demand is reduced, the people, having leſs work, find leſs money to pay, and yet have their taxes proportionably encreaſed on them as they loſe their trade: for, as the government abates neither expences or taxes, and, if one method of taxing fails, another is tried, what foreigners ceaſe to pay we muſt: or, in other words, the leſs trade and money, the more taxes; and, the more our taxes are, the leſs and leſs trade and money we know we muſt expect. Is not this like adding to a horſe's burden, and diminiſhing his meat? And muſt we wonder if he ſinks under his load? Perhaps figures may explain this ſtill clearer, by ſtating a ſimilar account through 30 years.
'Suppoſe that in the year 1710 all our taxes, and part of their conſequences, were as they are now, viz. 15,289,375 l. that foreigners paid then $\frac{1}{7}$ of them, and our own people $\frac{6}{7}$; that foreigners going to cheaper markets ſince, have ceaſed taking goods from us yearly in proportion to 1 per cent. only on their former $\frac{1}{7}$ part of our taxes, and their conſequences, the account every five years will ſtand thus:

	Foreigners paid of our taxes, &c.	Our own people paid
Anno 1710	l. 2,184,196	l. 13,105,179
1715	2,074,987	13,214,388
1720	1,965,778	13,323,597
1725	1,856,569	13,432,806
1730	1,747,360	13,542,015
1735	1,638,151	13,651,224
1740	1,528,942	13,760,433

'By this it plainly appears in what manner our preſent taxes drive away our trade, and burden our people, who had, by this account, 655,254 l. more to pay in 1740, than they had in 1710, with $\frac{3}{15}$ leſs trade to pay it with.
'To conclude this head. Two of our greateſt authors clearly foreſaw, at the laying on our numerous exciſes, cuſtoms, &c. that theſe unhappy conſequences muſt neceſſarily follow; and their arguments are a full proof of what has been already advanced.
'Mr. Locke, in his Conſiderations, &c. p. 90, ſays, That, for raiſing three millions on commodities, and bringing ſo much into the Exchequer, there muſt go a great deal more than three millions out of the ſubjects pockets; for a tax of that nature cannot be levied by officers to watch every little rivulet of trade, without a great charge, eſpecially at firſt trial; but, ſuppoſing no more charge in raiſing it than of land-tax, and that there are only three millions to be paid, it is evident, that, to do this out of commodities, they muſt to the conſumer be raiſed $\frac{1}{4}$ in their price, ſo that every thing to him that uſes it muſt be a quarter dearer. Let us ſee now who, at the long-run, muſt pay this quarter, and where it will light: it is plain the merchant and broker neither will nor can, for, if he pays a quarter more for commodities than he did, he will ſell them at a price proportionably raiſed; the poor labourer and handicraftſman cannot, for he juſt lives from hand to mouth already, and all his food, cloathing, and utenſils, coſting a quarter more than they did before, either his wages muſt riſe with the price of things, to make him live, or elſe, not being able to maintain himſelf and family by his labour, he comes to the pariſh.
'And afterwards he proves, that, in the home-conſumption, the whole burden falls on land at laſt.
'Dr. D'avenant, in his Eſſay on Trade, vol. iii. p. 30, aſſerts, That, as to manufactures, high exciſes in time of peace are utterly deſtructive to that principal part of England's wealth; for if malt, coals, ſalt, leather, and other things bear a great price, the wages of ſervants, workmen, and artificers, will conſequently riſe, for the income muſt bear ſome proportion to the expence; and, if ſuch as ſet the poor to work find wages for labour, or manufactures advance upon them, they muſt riſe in the price of their commodity, or they cannot live; all which would ſignify little, if nothing but our own dealings among one another, were thereby affected: but it has a conſequence far more pernicious in relation to our foreign trade, for it is the exportation of our own product that muſt make England rich.
'And in page 31, But the conſequence of ſuch duties, in times of peace, will fall moſt heavily upon our woollen manufactures, of which moſt have more value from the workmanſhip than the materials; and, if the price of this workmanſhip be enhanced, it will, in a ſhort courſe of time, put a neceſſity upon thoſe we deal with, of ſetting up manufactures of their own, ſuch as they can, or buying goods of the like kind and uſe from nations that can afford them cheaper.' That this is matter of fact, ſee articles SPAIN, FRANCE, HOLLAND, PRUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK, &c.

Further REMARKS.

The preceding obſervations having been made before the laſt war, when the PUBLIC DEBTS of the kingdom did not exceed 80 millions, and our DUTIES and TAXES in general were proportionate to ſuch principal PUBLIC DEBTS; the evils hereby lamented have encreaſed, as our PUBLIC DEBTS have ſince done; and to what an enormous height they are now brought, and to what a degree the nation is incumbered, in conſequence thereof, our trade and navigation muſt inevitably feel, ſenſibly feel, for ſome time, till we experience the proſperous effects of the late DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, and the moſt efficacious operations of the SINKING FUND, for our gradual redemption from ſuch an immenſe load of national taxes and new duties of exciſe and cuſtoms. See DEBTS, NATIONAL DEBTS, REVENUE, TAXES.

DWINA, a principality in the empire of Ruſſia, having the White-Sea on the north, and the principality of Rubernmiſki on the ſouth.

The river Dwina, or, as it is in ſome places called, the Suchana, riſes in the province of Jeraſlow, paſſing within 30 miles of the lake Bielejezero, in the province of Bielejezero, and in the latitude of 57 degrees 40 minutes north. It runs weſt for about 40 miles, and then turns north for at leaſt 40 more; during which courſe it paſſes within 30 miles of the ſaid lake; which lake emptying itſelf into the great river Wolga: here it was that a navigation was ſaid to be deſigned by the late Czar Peter the Great, to begin from the Dwina, and to be carried into that lake, and ſo into the Wolga, by a canal of only 30 miles in length.

From this part the river turns away eaſt, and, being encreaſed with ſeveral ſmall rivers, forms a ſufficient ſtream ſo as to bear boats tolerably large, but eſpecially floats of timber, with which they ſupply the carriage to Wologda, the firſt city of note upon the river Dwina, and which has been thereabout 60 miles navigable.

From this city of Wologda to Jeraſlow, on the Wolga, is about 70 miles by land. Here the goods which formerly came from England to Archangel, and were to go to Aſtracan on the Caſpian Sea, and ſo to Perſia, uſed to be landed: and, being carried upon camels to Jeraſlow, were then embarked on board their great ballatoons upon the Wolga, and went down that river above 2000 miles to Aſtracan.

WOLOGDA is a large, ill-built, but populous city, upon the Dwina, about 120 miles from it's head; it was always a town of great trade before the building of Peterſburgh, becauſe of the navigation to and from Archangel, which conveyed merchants goods by two ſuch great rivers.

From Wologda the Dwina goes on to Toſopiloez and Cheleleb 60 miles; thence to Strelitza, where the Strelitz guards were firſt raiſed; thence paſſing through ſeveral populous towns, it runs on to Oſterough, in latitude 60; then, turning it's mighty channel to the north-weſt, it runs, by innumerable, populous, and ſome fortified places, to Archangel.

Though it muſt be a long way about, yet it is to be obſerved that the Ruſſian and Muſcovite merchants and travellers, who undertake the paſſage from Moſcow to China by land, come all this way, viz. to Jeraſlow by the Wolga, in boats; and then, hiring horſes to carry their baggage to Wologda, they their take boat again, and go near 400 miles north-eaſt down the river Dwina, then they land, and buy horſes and camels, and ſo go away eaſt about 600 miles more, to Tobolſky, upon the river Tobol. See the article RUSSIA.

DYEING. Somewhat a-kin to painting is the art of dyeing, which gives the moſt beautiful colours to ſilk, cotton, linen, and woollen, for apparel in general; and alſo affords us hangings, flags for ſhipping, and innumerable other particulars, for home, as well as foreign conſumption. This art depends chiefly on three things, viz. 1. Diſpoſing the ſurface of the ſtuffs to receive and retain the colours, which is performed by waſhing them in different lyes, digeſting, beating them, &c. in which human urine putrified, a ſharp ſalt of aſhes, divers ſoaps, and galls of animals, are of principal uſe; by means whereof, the viſcous gluten of the ſilk-worms, naturally adhering to their threads, is waſhed and cleanſed from them, and thus they become fitted gradually to imbibe the colours.

By theſe alſo, the greaſy foulneſs, adhering to wool and flax, is ſcoured off. In every article of which, the uſe of chemiſtry is ſufficiently conſpicuous. The 2d is, So to grind the colours, as that they may enter the body duly prepared, and preſerve their brightneſs undiminiſhed; in which chemiſtry alſo is known to be of ſingular importance, as appears from the manner of dyeing ſcarlet, diſcovered by Cornelius Drebble, citizen of Alemaar; a man extremely well ſkilled in chemiſtry (which recommended him to the king of England) and enumerated among the ſuperlative philoſophers of thoſe times.

Among other of his experiments, he left an account of one concerning the method of dyeing wool with a bright flame-colour; which method his ſon-in-law, Kufflaar, afterwards putting in practice, raiſed an immenſe fortune by it. Spirit of nitre is found to heighten and improve the rich colour of cocheneal, into the brightneſs of burning fire; but then it's acrimony corrodes and damages the wool, which is prevented by dulcifying it with tin: after which it neither hurts wool nor ſilk, yet retains all it's luſtre and vivacity. The third conſiſts in having beautiful colours, wherein the uſe of chemiſtry likewiſe is obvious. I once ſhewed ſome colours, ſays the learned Boerhaave, which I had prepared from ſolutions of copper, to ſome ſkilful maſter-dyers, who were ſurprized with the beauty of them, and would have given any money to have been able to give colours of ſuch brightneſs to their ſtuffs, &c. and no wonder, ſince the blue, violet, and green of copper, which may be raiſed or weakened at pleaſure, afford ſo agreeable a variety, that a perſon who could dye woollen, ſilken, linen, or cotton cloths therewith, would gain an immenſe eſtate.

A ſhort account of what is done in particular trades, by the art of dyeing or colouration, according to Sir W. Petty.

1. There is a whitening of wax, and ſeveral ſorts of linen and cotton cloths, by the ſun, air, and reciprocal effuſions of water.
2. Colouring of wood and leather by lime, ſalt, and liquors, as in ſtaves, canes, and marble leathers.
3. Colouring of paper, viz. marbled paper, by diſtempering the colours with ox-gall, and applying them upon a ſtiff gummed liquor.
4. Colouring, or rather diſcolouring the colours of ſilks, tiffanies, &c. by brimſtone.
5. Colouring of ſeveral iron and copper works into black, with oil.
6. Colouring of leather into gold colour, or rather ſilver leaves into gold by varniſhes, and in other caſes by urine and ſulphur.
7. Dyeing of marble and alabaſter with heat and coloured oils.
8. Colouring ſilver into the braſs colour with brimſtone or urine.
9. Colouring the barrels and locks of guns into blue and purple, with the temper of ſmall-coal heat.
10. Colouring of glaſs (made of ſands, flints, &c.) as alſo of cryſtals and earthen ware, with the ruſts and ſolutions of metals.
11. The colouring of live hair, as in Poland, horſe and man's hair, as alſo the colouring of furrs.
12. Enameling and annealing.
13. Applying colours, as in the printing of books and pictures, and as in making of playing cards, being each of them performed in a ſeveral way.
14. Gilding and tinning with mercury, block-tin, ſal armoniac.
15. Colouring metals, as copper with calamy into braſs, and with zink or ſpelter into a golden colour, or into a ſilver one with arſenic: and of iron into a reſemblance of copper, with Hungarian vitriol.
16. Making painters colours, by preparing of earth, chalk, and ſlates; as in umber, ochre, Cullen earth, &c. as alſo out of calces of lead, as ceruſe and minium; by ſublimates of mercury and brimſtone, as in vermilion; by tinging white earths variouſly, as in verdeter, and ſome of the lakes; by concrete juices or fæculæ, as in gambugium, indico, pinks, ſap-green, and lakes: as alſo by ruſts, as in verdegreaſe, &c.
17. The applying of theſe colours by the adheſion of ox-gall, as in the marble paper, aforeſaid; or by gum-water, as in limning; or by clammy drying oils (ſuch as are the oils of linſeed, nuts, ſpike, turpentine, &c.)

DYE

18. The watering of tabbies.
19. The laſt we ſhall name is the colouring of wool, linen, cotton, ſilk, hair, feathers, horn, leather, and the threads and webs of them with woods, roots, herbs, ſeeds, leaves, ſalts, limes, lixiviums, waters, heats, fermentations, macerations, and other great variety of management: an account of all which is a ſhort hiſtory of dyeing.

The materials uſed in this art of colouration are,

Iron and ſteel, or what is produced from them, in all true blacks (called Spaniſh blacks) though not in Flanders blacks, viz. they uſe copperas, ſteel-filings and ſlippe, which is the ſtuff found in the troughs of grind-ſtones, whereon edge-tools have been ground.

They alſo uſe pewter for Bow dye ſcarlet; viz. they diſſolve bars of pewter in the aqua fortis they uſe, and make alſo their dyeing-kettles or furnace of this metal.

Litharge is uſed by ſome, though acknowledged by few, perhaps, to add weight to dyed ſilk; litharge being a calx of lead, one of the heavieſt and moſt colouring metals.

Antimony is much uſed to the ſame purpoſe, though we know there be a very tingent ſulphur in this mineral, which affordeth variety of colour, by the precipitations and other operations upon it.

Arſenic is uſed in crimſon upon pretence of giving luſtre, although thoſe who pretend not to be wanting in giving luſtre to their ſilks, do utterly diſown it's uſe.

Verdegreaſe is uſed by linen dyers in their yellow and greeniſh colours, although of itſelf it ſtrike no deeper colour than of pale ſtraws.

Of mineral ſalts uſed in dyeing, the chief is allum; the true uſe thereof ſeems to be in regard to the fixation of colours.

1. It may be alſo uſed to make common water a fit menſtruum for extracting the tingent particles of ſeveral hard materials; for allum is uſed with ſuch materials which ſpend eaſy enough, as Brazil-wood, logwood, &c. And withal, that the ſtuffs to be dyed are firſt boiled in allum liquors, and the allum afterwards cleared from the ſaid ſtuff again, before any colour at all be applied.
2. Whether it be uſed to ſcour the ſordes, which may interpoſe between the coloranda and the dyeing ſtuff, and ſo hinder the due adheſion of the one into the other, the boiling of ſeveral things firſt in allum ſeeming to tend this way. But I find this work to be done in cloth and rugs, by a due ſcouring of the ſame in the fulling-mills with earth, and in ſilk with ſoaps, by which they boil out the gums and other ſordes, hindering or vitiating the intended colours.
3. Whether allum doth intenerate the hairs of wool, and hair ſtuff, as grograms, &c. whereby they may the better receive and imbibe their colours? Unto which opinion I was led, ſays Sir William, by the dyers; ſaying, that, after their ſtuffs were well boiled in allum, they then cleared them of the allum again: but we find the moſt open-bodied cottons and ſilks to have allum uſed upon them, as well as the harder hairs. Nor is allum uſed in many colours, viz. in no woad or indico blues; and yet the ſtuffs, dyed blue, are without any previous inteneration quickly tinged, and that with a ſlight and ſhort immerſion thereof into the blue fat.
4. Whether it contribute to the colour itſelf, as copperas doth to galls, in order to make a black; or as juice of lemons doth to cocheneal in the incarnatives, or as aqua fortis, impregnated with pewter, doth in the Bow ſcarlet, changing it from a red roſe crimſon to a flame colour. This uſe is certainly not to be denied to allum in ſome caſes; but we ſee in others, that the ſame colours may be dyed without allum as well as with it, though neither ſo bright, lively, or laſting.
5. Wherefore, fifthly, I conclude (as the moſt probable opinion) that the uſe of allum is to unite the cloth and the colour, as clammy oils and gum-waters do in painting and limning; allum being ſuch a thing, whoſe particles diſſolved with hot liquors will ſtick to the ſtuffs, and pitch themſelves into their pores; and on which the particles of the dyeing drugs will alſo catch hold, as we ſee the particles of copperas, and other cryſtallizing materials, do of boughs and twigs in the veſſel, for cryſtallization.

A ſecond uſe I imagine of allum, is the extracting or drying up of ſome ſuch particles, as could not conſiſt with the colour to be ſtruck; for we ſee allum is uſed in dreſſing of alutas, or white leather, which it drieth, as the ſalt of hen-dung doth in ox-hides, and common ſalt in preſerving fleſh meat; for a ſheep-ſkin newly flayed could not be coloured as braſils are, unleſs it were firſt dreſſed into leather with allum, &c. which is neceſſary to the colour, even although the allum be, as it is, cleared out of the leather again, before the colouring, with bran, yolks of eggs, &c. Wherefore, as accidentally it makes a wet raw ſkin take a bright colour, by extracting ſome impeding particles; ſo doth it alſo out of other materials, though, perhaps, leſs diſcernably. Another uſe of it is, I ſuppoſe, to brighten a colour: for, as we ſee the fineſt and moſt glaſſy materials make the moſt orient colours, as feathers, flowers, &c. ſo certainly if boiling cloth in allum incruſtate it with a kind of glaſſy particles, the tinging them yields more brightneſs, than tinging a ſca-

brous

brous matter. Anologous hereunto, I take the uſe of bran and bran-liquors to be; for it yielding a moſt fine flour (as we ſee in making ſtarch) this I conceive, entering the pores of the ſtuff, levigates the ſuperfices, thus making the colour more beautiful, as we ſee all woods to be gilded are firſt ſmoothed over with white colours.

And, indeed, all other woods are thus prepared by priming, before the ultimate colours be laid on.

The next mineral ſalt is ſalt-petre, not uſed by antient dyers, and but by few of the modern: and that not 'till the wonderful uſe of aqua fortis (whereof ſalt-petre is an ingredient) was obſerved in the Bow ſcarlet: nor is it uſed now, but to bright colours, by back-boiling them, for which argol is more commonly uſed. Lime is much uſed in working blue fats.

Of the animal family are uſed cocheneal, urine of labouring men, kept 'till it be ſtale and ſtinking; honey, yolks of eggs, and ox-gall. The three latter ſo rarely, that I ſhall ſay little more of them here, only obſerving of urine that it is uſed to ſcour, and help the fermenting and heating of wood; and alſo in the blue fats inſtead of lime: it diſchargeth the yellow, and is therefore uſed to ſpend weld withal.

Dyers uſe two ſorts of water, viz. river and well water. The laſt, which is harſh, they uſe in reds and other colours wanting reſtringency, and in dyeing materials of the ſlacker contextures, as in callicoe, fuſtian, and the ſeveral ſpecies of cotton works. But 'tis naught for blues, and makes yellows and greens look ruſty.

River water is more fat and oily, and therefore uſed in moſt caſes, and muſt be had in great quantities for waſhing and rinſing their cloths after dyeing.

Water is called by dyers white liquor, but a mixture of one part bran and five of river water, boiled an hour, and put into leaden ciſterns to ſettle, is what they call liquor abſolutely. This, when it turns ſour, is not good, which will be in three or four days in ſummer: this liquor, beſides the afore-named uſes, contributes ſomething, I conceive, to the holding of the colour; for it is uſed to mealy dyeing ſtuffs, ſuch as mather is, being the powder of a root; with which the flour of the bran being joined and made glutinous by boiling, I doubt not, but both ſticking upon the villi of the ſtuff, the mather ſticks the better for the ſtarchy paſtineſs of the bran flour.

Gums have been uſed by dyers about ſilk, viz. gum arabic, dragant, maſtic, dragon's blood. Theſe tend little to the tincture, no more than gum in writing-ink, which only gives it's conſiſtence; ſo gum may give the ſilk a gloſſineſs: and, laſtly, to encreaſe weight; for if an ounce of gum, worth a penny, can be incorporated into a pound of ſilk, it produces three ſhillings, the price of an ounce of ſilk.

Having ſpoken thus far of ſome of the dyeing ſtuffs, I ſhall inſert a catalogue of moſt dyeing materials.

The three peculiar ingredients for black, are copperas, filings of ſteel, and ſlippe.

The reſtringent binding materials, are alder-bark, pomegranate-peels, walnut rinds and roots, oaken ſapling-bark, and ſaw-duſt of the ſame, crab-tree bark, galls, and ſumach.

The ſalts are allum, ſalt-petre, ſal armoniac, pot-aſhes, and ſtone-lime, unto which urine may be enumerated as a liquid ſalt.

The liquors are well and river water, wine, aqua vitæ, vinegar, lemon-juice, and aqua fortis, honey and molaſſes.

Ingredients of another claſs, are bran, wheaten flour, yolks of eggs, leaven, cummin-ſeed, fenugrec-ſeed, agaric, and ſenna.

Gums are, gum arabic, dragant, maſtic, and dragon's blood.

The ſmecticks, or abſterſives, are fuller's-earth, ſoap, linſeed-oil, and ox-gall.

The metals and minerals are pewter, verdegreaſe, antimony, litharge, and arſenic.

The colourings are of three ſorts, viz. blue, yellow, and red, of which logwood, old fuſtic, and mather, are chief.

The blues are woad, indico, and logwood: the yellows, weld, wood-wax, and old fuſtic: the reds, are red-wood, braſil, mather, cocheneal, ſafflowers, kermes-berries and ſanders; the arnotto and young fuſtic for orange-colours.

In cloth-dyeing, wood ſoot is of good uſe.

Red-wood muſt be chopt into ſmall pieces, then ground in a mill as corn is. 'Tis uſed in dyeing cloth and rugs of the coarſer ſort: the colour is extracted by long boiling with galls. It makes a kind of brick colour red, and holdeth much better than braſil. The cloth is to be boiled with it, ſo that it is only for ſuch as are not prejudiced by much boiling.

Braſil is chopt and ground like red-wood: it dyeth a pink-colour or carnation, for which 'tis uſed with allum; and, with addition of pot-aſhes, for purples.

Braſil ſteept in water giveth a claret colour, which a drop or two of lemon-juice, or vinegar, turneth to the colour of Canary ſack, agreeing herein with cocheneal. This colour ſoon ſtaineth, as may appear by the change ſo ſmall a quantity of an acid liquor makes upon it.

Mather, uſed to the beſt advantage, dyeth on cloth a colour neareſt to our Bow dye, or new ſcarlet, as ſafflower doth in ſilk, ſo that the baſtard ſcarlets are dyed with it. This colour endures much boiling, and is uſed both with allum and argol: it holdeth well.

Mather is uſed with bran liquor inſtead of white liquor.

Cocheneal is alſo uſed with bran liquor in pewter-furnaces, and with aqua fortis for the ſcarlet dye, called in grain. Kags dyed in the dregs are called turnſole, and uſed to colour wines, cocheneal being eſteemed rather cordial than unwholeſome.

Any acid liquor takes off the intenſe redneſs of this colour, inclining it to an orange, flame, or ſcarlet colour: with this colour alſo the Spaniſh leather and flocks are dyed which ladies uſe. The extract of it makes the fineſt lake.

Arnotto dyeth of itſelf an orange colour, is uſed with pot-aſhes upon ſilk, linen, and cottons, but not cloth, as not penetrating into a thick ſubſtance.

Weld dyeth a deep lemon colour. Painters pink is made of it.

Wood-wax dies the ſame as weld, being uſed in greater quantities. 'Tis uſed for coarſe cloths, and is ſet with pot-aſhes or urine.

Fuſtic is chopt and ground as the other woods.

The young fuſtic dyeth a kind of reddiſh orange colour; the old, a hair colour, with ſeveral degrees of yellowneſs between: 'tis uſed with ſlaked lime. The colours dyed with old fuſtic hold extremely, and are not to be diſcharged, will ſpend with ſalts or without, and will not work hot or cold.

Soot of wood. This containeth in itſelf both a colour and ſalt, wherefore nothing is added to extract it's colour, which of itſelf is the colour of honey; but the foundation of many others upon wool and cloth, for to other things 'tis not uſed.

Woad being chopt and ground is made into balls, and dried in the ſun.

Engliſh woad is accounted the ſtrongeſt, 'tis tried by ſtaining white paper or a limed wall with it; if the colour be a French green, it is good.

'Tis uſed with pot-aſhes called ware.

Lime, or calke, which is a ſtrong lime, is uſed to accelerate the fermentation of the woad.

The making and uſing woad is one of the moſt myſterious, nice, and hazardous operations in dyeing: it is one of the moſt laſting colours, and the foundation of ſo many, that the dyers have a certain ſcale to compute the degrees of it by.

Logwood maketh a purpliſh blue, and may be uſed without allum: being now uſed with galls, 'tis leſs fading than formerly.

General obſervations upon DYEING.

1. All materials (which of themſelves do give colour) are either red, yellow, or blue; ſo that out of them, and the primitive fundamental colour white, all that great variety which we ſee in dyed ſtuffs doth ariſe.

2. That few of the colouring materials (as cocheneal, ſoot, wood-wax, woad) are in their outward and firſt appearance of the ſame colour, which by the ſlighteſt diſtempers and ſolutions in the weakeſt menſtrua, the dye upon cloth, ſilk, &c.

3. That many of them will not yield their colours without much grinding, ſteeping, boiling, fermenting, or corroſion by powerful menſtrua, as red-wood, weld, woad, arnotto, &c.

4. That many of them will of themſelves give no colouring at all, as copperas or galls, or with much diſadvantage, unleſs the cloth, or other ſtuff to be dyed, be as it were, firſt covered or incruſtated with ſome other matter, though colourleſs aforehand, as mather, weld, braſil with allum.

5. That ſome of them, by the help of other colourleſs ingredients, do ſtrike different colours from what they would alone, and of themſelves, as cocheneal, braſil, &c.

6. That ſome colours, as mather, indico, and woad, by reiterated tinctures, will at laſt become black.

7. That, although green be the moſt frequent and common of natural colours, yet there is no ſimple ingredient, now uſed alone, to dye green with upon any material; ſap-green being the neareſt, which is uſed by country people.

8. There is no black thing in uſe which dyes black, tho' both the coal and ſoot of moſt things burnt or ſcorched be of that colour; and the blacker, by how much the matter before it was burnt was whiter, as in ivory black.

9. The tincture of ſome dyeing ſtuffs will fade even with lying, or with the air, or will ſtain even with water, but very much with wine, vinegar, urine, &c.

10. Some of the dyers materials are uſed to bind and ſtrengthen a colour, ſome to brighten it, ſome to give luſtre to the ſtuff, ſome to diſcharge and take off the colour, either in whole or in part, and ſome out of fraud, to make the material dyed (if coſtly) heavier.

11. That ſome dyeing ingredients or drugs, by the coarſeneſs of their bodies, make the thread of the dyed ſtuff ſeem coarſer; and ſome by ſhrinking them ſmaller, and ſome by ſmoothing them finer.

12. Many of the ſame colours are dyed upon ſeveral ſtuffs, with ſeveral materials; as red-wood is uſed in cloth, not in ſilks; arnotto in ſilks, not in cloth, and may be dyed at ſeveral prices.

13. That

13. That ſcouring and waſhing of ſtuffs, to be dyed, is to be done with ſpecial materials; as ſometimes with ox-galls, ſometimes fuller's-earth, ſometimes ſoap: this latter being in ſome caſes pernicious, where pot-aſhes will ſtain or alter the colour.

14. Where great quantities of ſtuffs are to be dyed together, or where they are to be done with great ſpeed, and where the pieces are very long, broad, thick, or otherwiſe, they are to be differently handled, both in reſpect to the veſſels and ingredients.

15. In ſome colours and ſtuffs the tingent liquor muſt be boiling, in other caſes blood-warm, in ſome it may be cold.

16. Some tingent liquors are fitted for uſe by long keeping, and in ſome the virtue wears away by the ſame.

17. Some colours or ſtuffs are beſt dyed by reiterated dippings into the ſame liquor, ſome by continuing longer, and others a leſſer time therein.

18. In ſome caſes, the matter of the veſſel wherein the liquors are heated, and the tinctures prepared, muſt be regarded, as the kettles muſt be pewter for Bow dye.

19. There is little reckoning made how much liquor is uſed in proportion to the dyeing drugs, it being rather adjuſted to the bulk of the ſtuffs, as the veſſels are to their breadth: the quantity of dyeing drugs being proportioned to the colour higher or lower, and to the ſtuffs both; as likewiſe the ſalts are to dyeing drugs.

Concerning the weight which colours give to ſilk (in which 'tis moſt taken notice of, being ſold by weight, and a commodity of great price): 'tis obſerved, that one pound of raw ſilk loſeth four ounces, by waſhing out the gums and natural ſordes.

That the ſame ſcoured ſilk may be raiſed to above thirty ounces from the remaining twelve, if it be dyed black with ſome materials.

The reaſon of this is, becauſe all gravitating drugs may be dyed black, being all of colours lighter than that: whereas, perhaps, there are few or no materials, wherewith to increaſe the weight of ſilk, which will conſiſt with fair light colours.

Of a thing truly uſeful in dyeing, eſpecially of black, nothing encreaſes weight ſo much as galls, by which black ſilks are reſtored to as much weight as they loſt by waſhing out their gum: nor is it counted extraordinary that blacks ſhould gain about four or ſix ounces in the dyeing, upon each pound.

Next to galls, old fuſtic increaſes the weight about $1\frac{1}{2}$ in 12.

Mather about one ounce.

Weld half an ounce.

The blue fats, in deep blues of the fifth ſtall, gives no conſiderable weight.

Neither doth logwood, cocheneal nor arnotto: nor even copperas, where galls are not.

Slippe adds much to the weight, and giveth a deeper black than copperas itſelf, which is a good excuſe for the dyers that uſe it.

Dyers in France, of the great and good dye.

Theſe have been ever diſtinguiſhed from thoſe of the leſſer dye, as may be ſeen by a regulation made by the provoſt of Paris in November 1383, but, for a long time before that of 1669, there was no difference as to the maſters of the two companies; for, if the latter engaged in dyes of a price and quality that did not belong to them, thoſe of the great dye thought it not beneath them to work in the leſſer dye.

In the regulation of 1669, are ſeveral articles common to both companies, though formed chiefly as ſtatutes for the great dyers, the other company not being confirmed 'till ten years after, by letters patents in 1679.

Thoſe new ſtatutes of 1669 contain 62 articles, which may be reduced to four claſſes or titles.

The firſt, in ten articles, treats of the ſeparation and eſtabliſhment of the two companies, their difference, wardens, drugs permitted and prohibited, &c.

The ſecond preſcribes manner and faſhions, according to the colours and qualities of the ſtuffs.

The third regulates the work of the leſſer dyers.

And the fourth and laſt claſs treats of the police of the maſter-dyers, their widows and apprentices.

We ſhall here extract only what is moſt important in the firſt and two laſt of theſe claſſes.

At the time of the regulation in 1669, there were in Paris but three dyers of the great dye in woollen ſtuffs: to form a body ſomewhat more conſiderable, it enacted, That three dyers of the leſſer dye ſhould be nominated by the lieutenant-general of the police, to work for the future at the great dye, performing, however, their maſter-piece of workmanſhip by thoſe who ſhould be choſen.

They were afterwards ſeparated from each other, not being permitted the ſame wardens to govern them, nor to intermeddle in each other's craft.

A warden is to be elected yearly, to ſee to the performance of the new ſtatutes granted to the maſters of the great dye; who, 15 days after his election, at the company's expence, is to tender, in preſence of the officers of police, and maſters and wardens of the drapery, 12 pieces of cloth of Valogne or Berry, and four pieces of ſilk, of colours requiſite for patterns of unmixed ones.

It treats next of drugs and ingredients allowed or prohibited to both. See DRUGS.

The eighth article is of ſtuffs which may be dyed in the great dye only.

The ninth and tenth, which are the laſt of the firſt claſs, treat of the ſcouring of cloths dyed black, and of the erecting fulling mills: it treats alſo of ſome preparations of blacks.

The third claſs begins with ſtuffs appertaining to the leſſer dye, and prohibits maſter clothworkers and others to uſe any fat but hogs-lard. It afterwards diſtinguiſhes the cloths of each dye; enacting, that all woollen deſigned for tapeſtry, ſhall be of the good dye as preſcribed for cloths. 'Tis alſo prohibited to uſe, in the dyeing woollens by the leſſer dye, alder-bark, filings of iron or copper, or Indian wood.

In regard to inſpections and marks, one of the moſt eſſential points of the regulation enacts four ſorts; thoſe of the drapers with the dyers; of the jurat dyer with the maſters of the company; thoſe of the maſters and wardens for foreign merchandizes unladen at the halls; and, laſtly, of the ſame perſons for goods carried to fairs.

The drapers inſpection of the dyers, is to be by a draper who hath gone through the office, commiſſioned hereunto by the drapers company; to which, not only the maſters of the great dye are ſubject, but even their warden; during the fifteen days his commiſſion laſts, he examines not only the drugs and ingredients, but alſo the ſtuffs dyed, marking them with the name of the cities where dyed, and with the dyer's name and quality of the ſtuff.

The wardens inſpection differs not from that in other companies.

The third inſpection is that of the maſters and wardens of the drapers in the halls, and was deſigned, as well to ſee if the woollen ſtuffs of French manufacture have the proper marks, as to examine if foreign woollen ſtuffs were of the good dye, and to make them accordingly. To facilitate this important inſpection, all goods not deſigned for fairs, are to be brought directly to the halls, and there remain three days; prohibiting all drapers, mercers, &c. on pain of forfeiture, and 1000 livres fine, to receive any into their houſes, ſhops, or warehouſes, 'till inſpected and marked.

Laſtly, the inſpection and mark made at fairs are the ſame.

The police of the company of maſter dyers, which makes the fourth claſs, conſiſts:

1ſt, In that none may receive his freedom, 'till after four years apprenticeſhip, and ſerving three years as a journeyman.

2dly, No maſter may take more than one apprentice at a time, whom the maſter, eight days after his apprenticeſhip, is to oblige to perform a trial or maſter-piece of dyeing, in preſence of the warden in office, to be afterwards enrolled in the journeymen's roll.

3dly, Apprentices may not, during their apprenticeſhip, abſent themſelves without due cauſe, ſo deemed by the officers of police, on pain of erazement out of the company's books, without they will ſubmit to ſerve a new apprenticeſhip.

4thly, Journeymen, after four years apprenticeſhip and three years ſervice, may not be received maſters without ſpecial privilege, or a maſter-piece of workmanſhip performed in preſence of the warden and two ancient maſters; which is to be compoſed by the candidate of three balls of Languedoc woad, from which, properly prepared, he is to draw a blue dye, and uſe it in cloths, and this during ſix days, and no longer; but maſters ſons are not obliged to this, but only to trial of a good dye during two days.

5thly, Maſters widows may continue the buſineſs, but not take new apprentices; the ſaid widows, as alſo maſters daughters, make journeymen free by marriage.

Beſides theſe five particulars, there are two others regulating the days of meeting, viz. thoſe of the chamber for the affairs of the company, and the general yearly meeting; in which laſt reports are made of treſpaſſes committed that year, to prevent and puniſh which proper remedies are conſulted.

By the 56th article of theſe ſtatutes, maſter-dyers are permitted to have in their houſes tenters, on which to extend and dry their ſtuffs when dyed, provided, however, they reach not beyond one half of the ſtreet, and that the ſtuffs on them come not within three fathoms of the ground.

A new regulation in France for dyers marks.

By the 58th article of the regulation already mentioned, all maſter-dyers of woollen ſtuffs are to have a ſmall anvil, with their name engraved on it, that the inſpector applying his lead to the ends of the ſtuffs, may impreſs the dyer's name on it.

They are, moreover, not to put on their leads the words manufactures royale, unleſs intitled to it by letters patents.

Some dyers, however, eſpecially thoſe of the borough of Darnetal, not content with the ſimplicity of the uſual mark, by a manifeſt treſpaſs, uſing gilded lead with pompous impreſſions, without permiſſion obtained, the king, to ſtop this, ordained the execution of the ſtatutes a-new, with very expreſs prohibitions, on pain of forfeiture, and 500 livres fine.

There are three orders of council of the year 1725, concerning

cerning the dyers. The firſt of which permits them to dye black with the walnut-tree root, light ſtuffs not fulled, under certain conditions.

The ſecond permits, in like manner, the dyers of Languedoc, Auvergne, &c. to dye cadis and cordelats, of half ell and under, with the leſſer dye.

The third prohibits all dyers and others to ſend, or encourage the ſending, out of the kingdom, dyed ſilks fit to make ſtuffs of.

In regard to dyers of the leſſer dye in France.

Their ſtatutes are ancient.

All the ſworn companies being obliged by the ordonnance of Orleans to reform their ſtatutes, and take new letters patents of confirmation; theſe dyers obtained letters of Charles IX, in 1575, ſince confirmed by Henry IV, in 1604, and by Lewis XIII, in 1618, and laſtly by Lewis XIV, in 1679, the letters patents being inrolled in parliament in 1680.

Amongſt other things common to all other patents, it in particular enacts, That they are, in their art and craft of the leſſer dye, to uſe gall, copperas, alder-bark, Indian wood, orchel, braſil, and dyer's weed, to ſoften the blacks, as alſo to dye in black, muſc, triſtamic, &c. which properly diſtinguiſh that company from others, to whom thoſe ſorts of drugs are prohibited.

The ſtatutes confirmed in 1679, conſiſting chiefly of the articles already given, in ſpeaking of the great dyers, we ſhall inſert here only the moſt eſſential, and peculiar to thoſe of the leſſer dye.

The apprenticeſhip is to be four years indifferently with maſters of either dye, and the ſervice afterwards three years with thoſe of the leſſer dye.

The maſter-piece of workmanſhip conſiſts in four pieces of dye, two of cloth, and two of light ſtuffs: the cloths to be black. Of the ſmall ſtuffs, one is to be dyed in caſtor, and the other in brown bread, or bran, but without partaking of the greater dye.

Maſter's ſons to ſerve only two years apprenticeſhip, and the ſame time as journeymen, either with their father or a ſtranger; and, at reception to their freedom, are held only to a ſingle trial, which is to a piece of cloth black, and a piece of light ſtuff at their option. Journeymen marrying maſters daughters or widows, have the ſame exemption from a maſter-piece of workmanſhip.

No journeymen or apprentices may dye on their own account, on pain of exemplary puniſhment.

Laſtly, beſides the inſpections of their own wardens, they are ſubjected to thoſe of the wardens of the company of the great dyers.

Before the year 1679, dyers in ſilk, woollen, and thread, claimed alſo a right to viſit thoſe of the leſſer dye, in conjunction with the maſters of the great dye.

Dyers in ſilk, wool, and thread.

Though theſe be conſidered as one company only, yet in ſome reſpects they may be accounted as three different ones, only re-united in one body.

In effect, the maſters are not indifferently permitted to dye ſilk, wool, and thread, nor even to dwell and work together. The dyeing each of theſe materials forms different profeſſions, which have their maſters, apprentices, maſter-pieces of ſkill, drugs, &c. and, if one of theſe three freedoms is choſe, may not have liberty to paſs in the two others.

Theſe three trades, thus united, are in ſome ſort conſidered as dyers of the great dyes, as they are to uſe the beſt drugs in many of their dyes.

Their firſt ſtatutes are very antient, but moſtly repealed by the regulation of 1669.

The new regulation has 98 articles, ſome of the moſt eſſential are as follow:

The 1ſt, after re-uniting them in one company, reſtrains the ſilk-dyers to dye and ſell ſilk only, and ſo of the other two; and every maſter to be received, for the future, is to perform his maſter-piece of workmanſhip only in one of the three dyes wherein he ſhall chuſe to work.

The 2d treats of the election of wardens, half of whom are always to be maſter ſilk-dyers, and the other half woollen and thread-dyers: ſo that, of four wardens, two of them are to be for the ſilk-dyers, one for the woollen, and the other for the thread dye.

By the 3d, the general viſitations of the wardens are fixed at four in the year, to which the ſilk-throwſters are alſo ſubject. Beſide treſpaſſes and faults in dyeing which the wardens are to obſerve in their circuits, and report as the caſe requires, they are alſo to take the names of the dyers, their ſons, apprentices, and journeymen, to know if they have been regiſtered in the company's books.

The 83d enacts, that none may uſe the trade, that has not been apprentice and journeyman the due time, performed a maſter-piece, and been received maſter.

By the 84th article, every maſter is to have a punch graved on one ſide, with the name and arms of the city where he lives; without which marks, they may not ſell or deliver any dyed ſtuffs, nor any perſons receive them, on pain of 100 livres fine for every treſpaſs, and forfeiture of the goods not marked.

The 85th requires every dyer to keep a regiſter of the ſilks, woollens, and threads, &c. delivered them to dye.

The goods which the ſilk-dyers may ſell by wholeſale or retail, are all ſorts of ſilks raw and dyed, &c. Thoſe of the woollen dyers, are woollens dyed, and canvaſſes proper for tapeſtries; the thread-dyers, all kinds of linen thread, mohair and cotton, marking thread, &c.

The 87th is concerning tenters in the ſtreet, and is the ſame as the 56th of the great dye.

By the 88th, their weights and meaſures are to be thoſe uſed in the place of their abode.

By the 89th, they have the privilege of preference on goods dyed by them, that may have been ſeized and ſold, but only for the two laſt years.

The four following articles relate to apprenticeſhips, journeymen, maſter-pieces, freedoms, and widows privileges.

The apprenticeſhip is four ſucceſſive years with one maſter, who may take but two apprentices at a time, the ſecond to be bound two years after the firſt. The ſervice as journeyman is two years, foreigners excepted, who muſt ſerve four years before they can be free.

Widows may continue their profeſſion, and continue apprentices taken by their huſbands, but not bind any anew.

The 94th article prohibits maſters to uſe more than one ſhop or workhouſe, as alſo to lend their name to others to hold them in their ſtead.

The four laſt articles relate to the particular meetings of the company, the cuſtody of records and papers, fines, and the general meeting.

The particular meetings are fixed too nce a month, with liberty, however, to the wardens, to convoke extraordinary ones, if neceſſary.

The papers, records, &c. are to be put, an inventory of them being firſt made, into a cheſt, with two keys, depoſited in the company's chamber; one of the keys to be kept by one of the wardens of the ſilk-dyers, the other alternatively by thoſe of the woollen and thread-dyers.

The fines and confiſcations belong one moiety to the king, one quarter to the wardens that ſeize, and the other to the poor.

The general meeting is exactly the ſame in all reſpects, as that of the great dyers, with this only difference, that, in the room of the wardens of the drapery, a mercer and ſilk-worker are called to it.

Theſe ſtatutes of 1669 were obſerved without alteration 'till 1691, when, exigencies of ſtate having obliged Lewis XIV to ſeek for ſupplies by the creation of many new offices, wardens were created for all the companies in Paris: which offices having been ſince re-united and incorporated that of the ſilk, woollen, and thread-dyers, among others requeſted an incorporation, and propoſed to raiſe money for the finances: on account of which, they increaſed the fees of binding apprentices and taking freedoms, annual viſitations, and enrollment of journeymen in the company's regiſter.

The ſame thing happening in 1694 and 1701, for the incorporation and re-union of the offices of auditors of company's accounts and ſuch-like, a new augmentation was made of the ſame fees.

Laſtly, two edicts in 1704 having created the offices of comptroller-viſitors of weights and meaſures, and of regiſters to enroll all acts concerning the police of the companies of arts and trades, the dyers obtained a re-union by letters patents of 1707, conſiſting of ten articles; four of which augment their fees, the others relate to diſcipline, permitting the wardens to receive ſix maſters without quality. Children born before their fathers freedoms, are obliged to one ſingle trial only. All maſters of the company of Paris are intitled to freedom in all cities of the kingdom, namely Lyons, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Toulouſe, Caen, Orleans, Tours, and Amiens. The wardens may viſit privileged, or retired into privileged places. Though maſters may have but one ſhop, they may, however, eſtabliſh a calender in another houſe, with reſtraint to work only in their dyeing trade. Finally, all maſters are prohibited from bringing to their houſes, or ſhops, any woollens not unladen at the chambers to be viſited by one of the wardens, and the fee paid at the accuſtomed rate of two ſols ſix deniers the bale.

The 6th article of the new regulation enacts, that conformable to the import of all other patents of re-union of offices and augmentation of fees, when the company ſhall be reimburſed a ſum they have advanced to the ſtate, no other than the old and accuſtomed fees ſhall be exacted.

DYER in leather, an artificer who colours ſkins, either on the one ſide or the other, in the cold or hot dye.

Hat-DYER, is ſaid of maſter-hatters, who give themſelves particularly to the dyeing of hats. Though there be in effect but one freedom in this company, the maſters ſeem to be divided into three diſtinct profeſſions, the one making the hats, the others dyeing them, and the third fitting up and ſelling them. See HATS.

Of the encouragements propoſed to be given in SPAIN with regard to the art of DYEING.

Though the company, or trade, of good dyers in ſilk and wool, ſays a patriot Spaniard, are but few every where, it is to be conſidered, that, upon this art or myſtery, we depend for one of the moſt eſſential recommendations of our woven goods, and what procures them the readieſt vent both at home and abroad; for it will turn to ſmall account that the materials are good, and well wrought up, unleſs the mixture and colours be anſwerable, and grateful to the eye of the purchaſer. It may be ſaid, that a piece of cloth, or any other ſort of goods, ill dyed, is much the ſame as if it was very much ſtained.

The importance of a good dye is alſo confirmed by experience. The great eſteem and univerſal market the ſilks of Lyons have obtained in all parts of the world proceed more from the liveline's of the colours, and a happy fancy in diſpoſing of them, than all other things put together. As then we can give due encouragement to dyers for a trifling reward, being few in number, and by this means ſecure one of the principal perfections theſe goods want to recommend themſelves, and come to a good market every where, I eſteem it our intereſt to let nothing be charged upon maſter-dyers in the provinces of the crown of Caſtille, for any thing relative to this craft, to the alcavalas, cientos, millones, or any other taxes, even to make up the compoſition of the place they live in, or upon any other account, and that they pay only the impoſts upon proviſions and commodities, which they ſhall purchaſe and conſume, as all other families do.

It will alſo be proper encouragement to let them buy, free of all duties, a certain portion of dyeing ingredients, and alſo their coppers, and other veſſels and utenſils neceſſary to the craft; and that the maſter be exempt from quartering, &c. ſoldiers, and troubleſome offices: and in large cities, where there are various manufactories, I would have them allowed a houſe capable both of receiving their family, and exerciſing their trade, at the charge of the arbitrios and proprios of the ſaid towns; a trifling expence, and would yield vaſt benefits to the treaſury, and the cities themſelves. For we may depend upon this, that, let there be ever ſo many good manufactures, they cannot be preſerved, and all the pains and charge we have been at in raiſing many of them will be miſerably defeated, if we ſhall ſtill be in want of good dyers; for thoſe we have at preſent are few, and moſt of them not maſters of their buſineſs. But it is to be underſtood, that a title to theſe privileges and advantages is, giving ſatisfactory proofs of their ability in the trade, and in an examination before the viſitors of the ſaid fabrics, by order of the intendant, or corregidor, whom it ſhall concern; and with their aſſiſtance, or their deputies, in order that their claim may be fairly made out.

In regulating and carrying into execution the immunities and indulgencies already propoſed, it may happen that time and experience oblige us, in prudence, to make ſome alterations; for it is often the caſe, even in diſpoſitions that have been reſolved upon after a conſultation of the ableſt tribunals, and determined by princes and republics of the greateſt wiſdom, as appears from the many laws, ſtatutes, ordinances, and other national regulations, collected together in the body of ſtatutes, where we frequently, and from time to time, find ſeveral variations, amending ſome, explaining others, repealing many, and making all ſuch new laws as ſhall be judged proper, juſt as the times make neceſſary, and events ariſe in the courſe of things. It will, therefore, be no ſurprize, if the regulations, or propoſals, which a zeal for the ſervice of his majeſty, and the intereſt of the public, have put me upon, may, in many inſtances, be reformed for the better. But, that theſe indulgences diſpenſed by his majeſty may not be received as inviolable privileges, and it may appear net quite ſo harſh, and with an air of novelty, when on this very account ſome alterations ſhould be made, it will be very proper that, in the very patents which his majeſty ſhall grant, both for the immunities and other encouragements above-mentioned, there be inſerted this proviſionary clauſe, For the preſent, and during my pleaſure.

The laws of England relating to DYERS.

Stat. 23 Eliz. c. 9. §. 3. No cloths, kerſeys, bays, friſadoes, hoſen, or other things in nature of cloth, ſhall be maddered for black, unleſs firſt grounded with woad only, or with woad and ancle, alias blue indico, unleſs the madder be put in with

ſumach or galls. And no perſon ſhall dye cloth, &c. upon pain of forfeiting the value of the thing dyed, one moiety to the queen, and the other to him that will ſue for the ſame.

§. 4. It ſhall be lawful to dye gall-black, ſumach, or plain black, wherein no madder is uſed.

§. 5. Every dyer dyeing cloths, &c. maddered, and not woaded, ſhall, before delivery, fix a ſeal of lead to them, with the letter M, on pain of forfeiture, for every yard, &c. 3s. 4d. And any perſon ſelling cloths, &c. maddered and not woaded, without notice firſt given to the buyer, ſhall forfeit double the value of all ſuch cloth, &c. to the party who ſhall ſue for the ſame.

13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 26. Any perſon may import logwood, alias blockwood, to uſe in dyeing.

§ 27. Provided ſuch importation be according to the act of navigation, 12 Car. II. cap. 18. and paying a ſubſidy to his majeſty, as provided in the act of tonnage, &c.

13 Geo. I. c. 24. §. 1. Any perſon within England, Wales, or Berwick, dyeing black any bays, or other woollen goods, as madder-blacks, not being dyed throughout, with woad, indigo, and madder only, or dyeing any cloths, long-ells, &c. for woaded blacks, not being woaded throughout, ſhall forfeit for the ſame as follows, viz.

For every long Bocking bays, containing 70 yards, 44s.

For every Colcheſter bays, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards, 22s. and ſo in proportion for bays, or other woollen goods.

For every cloth dyed black, not being woaded throughout, containing 44 yards, 40s.

For every piece of bays falſly dyed as aforeſaid, containing 70 yards, 30s.

For every Colcheſter, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards, 12s.

For every perpetuana, or ſtuff, falſly dyed, 4s. and ſo in proportion for any other woollen goods deceitfully dyed for woaded blacks.

§. 2. All woollen goods, truly maddered black, ſhall be marked with a red and a blue roſe; and all woollen goods truly woaded black, with a blue roſe: and any perſon counterfeiting the ſaid marks, or fixing ſuch to any goods falſly dyed for maddered or woaded blacks, forfeits 4l. for every piece of goods ſo marked.

§. 3. Any perſon, uſing logwood in dyeing blue, ſhall forfeit 40s. for every piece ſo dyed, containing 44 yards, and 22s. for every long piece of Bocking bays, containing 70 yards; and 12s. for every Colcheſter, or ſhort bays, containing 35 yards; and 4s. for every perpetuana, or ſtuff, containing 24 yards; and ſo in proportion for all other woollen goods.

§. 4. All perſons occupying the trade of dyeing woollen manufactures within the city of London, or ten miles compaſs, ſhall be ſubject to the inſpection of the company of dyers of London; and the maſter, wardens, and court of aſſiſtants of the ſaid company, may appoint ſearchers within the ſaid limits; and, out of the ſaid limits, juſtices, at their quarter-ſeſſions, may appoint ſuch ſearchers; who, taking to their aſſiſtance a conſtable, or other peace-officer (who are required to be aſſiſting) may, at all ſeaſonable times in the day-time, enter the ſhop, or workhouſe, of any perſons uſing the trade of dyeing, to ſearch all cloths, and other woollen goods, to be dyed black or blue; and any perſon oppoſing forfeits 10l.

§. 5. All offences againſt this act, where the forfeitures exceed 5l. may be recovered by action of debt, &c. in any court of record at Weſtminſter; and, where the penalties ſhall not exceed 5l. the matter ſhall be heard and determined by two or more juſtices for the county, city, &c. where the offence ſhall be committed (ſuch juſtices not being concerned in the matter of the complaint) which examination ſhall be upon oath of one witneſs: and all forfeitures by this act within the city of London, and ten miles diſtance, ſhall go one moiety to the informer, and the other to the company of dyers; and, beyond ſuch compaſs, the whole ſhall go to the informers; and any offenders refuſing to pay, if not exceeding 5l. in 20 days after conviction, the juſtices before whom they were convicted may iſſue warrants for levying the ſame by diſtreſs and ſale of goods, or commit the offenders to hard labour for three months.

§. 6. All proſecutions for offences againſt this act ſhall be commenced within 40 days, and proſecuted without wilful delay; and perſons aggrieved may appeal to the next quarter-ſeſſions, and the determination ſhall be final, and coſts allowed.

§. 7. If any ſuit be commenced for any thing done in execution of this act, the defendant may plead the general iſſue; and, if the plaintiff be nonſuited, &c. the defendant ſhall recover treble coſts. And this act ſhall be a public act.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the end of letter C.

A ſufferance for the landing and examining of paſſengers baggage and wearing apparel.

IN the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Rotterdam.

Moſes Wharton.

Four portmanteaus, Three boxes, Three trunks } Containing baggage and wearing apparel, linen and woollen.

You may permit the goods above-mentioned to be landed, and examined upon the lawful keys, unleſs the proprietor, or his agent, deſire them to be ſent back to the warehouſe: and, after examination, you are to certify on the back of this ſufferance how you find the ſaid goods, enumerating the particulars; and, if any cuſtomable goods be found among them, not concealed, you are to take care the duty thereof be paid; but, if prohibited, or concealed, they will be liable to ſeizure. Dated at the Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the 17th day of January, 1730.

A B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

To D. E. Surveyor, E. F. F. G. Land-waiters.

Secondly, before theſe ſufferances are delivered to be executed, they muſt be entered on the left-hand ſide of a particular book, to be kept by the collector for that purpoſe, in the following form:

Sufferances for paſſengers baggage and wearing apparel.

The ſufferances granted.						Their Execution.		
Date of the ſufferances.	Paſſengers. names.	Ships names. and places.	Maſters names.	From whence.	Outward package.	When examined.	The ſeveral ſpecies of the goods.	By whom examined.
1730. 17 Jan.	Moſ. Wharton.	Providence of London	JamesBell	Rotterdam	4 Portmanteaus, 3 Boxes, 3 Trunks	18 Jan.	30 ells plain holland linen, under 1 1/8 ell; 1 lb. 1/2 Dutch wrought ſilk; papers and books of accounts; 3lb. tea; 1 Indian damaſk gown and petticoat; certain old wearing apparel.	D. E. Surveyor. E. F. F. G. Land-waiters.

Thirdly, The ſufferances being thus entered, they are to be delivered to the officers to whom they are directed, who are carefully to examine the goods, and then report the particulars of each paſſenger's baggage on the back, thus:

18 Jan. 1730. Examined four portmanteaus, three boxes, and three trunks, and found them to contain thirty ells plain hollands linen, under 1 1/8 ell; one pound and a half of Dutch wrought ſilk; certain papers and books of account; three pounds of tea; one Indian damaſk gown and petticoat; certain old wearing apparel.

D. E. Surveyor.
E. F. F. G. Land-waiters.

And they are to be returned to the collector, &c. for their further directions; who, under the officer's endorſement, are to direct all ſuch apparel and baggage as appear to be worn, and to belong to the paſſengers, to be delivered without any entry, if not of prohibited goods: but ſuch cloaths, or ſmall parcels, as have not been worn, and are cuſtomable, muſt be entered, and the prohibited proſecuted. The direction muſt be as follows:

The linen and ſilk to be entered; the tea, gown, and petticoat to be proſecuted; and the reſt delivered.

A. B. Collector, B. C. Cuſtomer, C. D. Comptroller.

Laſtly, The examination, or execution, is to be entered on the right-hand ſide of the book, where the ſufferances were entered when granted; and then to be returned (with perfect warrants for the goods liable to duties) to the officers they were directed to, who may, by virtue thereof, deliver the goods to the owner; and, with their executions, to be entered in the land-waiter's books, and preſerved, in order to be jerqued with the ſeveral perfect warrants granted for that particular ſhip.

The aforegoing are directions for the entering of all ſorts of goods and merchandize imported from foreign parts, under all circumſtances; the method to be obſerved in the examination and delivery of them is as follows:

When entered, and the warrants, &c. granted for the landing and delivery, produced to the land-waiters (to be appointed by the collector, by noting their names in the report-book, or a particular one for that purpoſe) they are to accept it as an authority to permit the landing and delivery, but may not examine the goods on board, but order them on ſhore at the merchant's charge: certifying the entry to the tideſmen on board the ſhip, before they permit them to be unladen. The certificate to be as follows:

In the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Rotterdam.

O. R.
No. 1, 2 Two fats
3, 4 Two bags
5 to 44 Forty bolts
45 One box
46 One caſe
47 One bale

21ſt of January, 1730. A. B. B. C. Land-waiters.

To the officers on board the ſaid ſhip.

And, if there is ſufferance to permit landing them at any other place than the lawful keys, it muſt be mentioned in the order thus:

Sufferance for———

By virtue of the order the tideſmen on board are to let the goods be brought on ſhore, and to deliver them to proper land-waiters, who are to attend at landing them, to examine, taſte, weigh, meaſure, gauge, number, &c. according to the nature thereof; and to take an account of the quantities and qualities, in order to adjuſt the duties to be paid: but, that land waiters may be prepared to take an account of the examination and delivery, when the ſhip is reported, a blank book is to be delivered to each whom the collector ſhall appoint to ſee ſuch ſhip diſcharged; the title to be as follows:

Cuſtom-houſe, Southampton,
8th day of January, 1730.

This book, containing twelve leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of the lading of the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Holland, reported the 8th day of January, 1730.

B. C. Collector.

And as to ſhips that do not report, &c. every land-waiter muſt have a general pocket-book delivered to him, to enter all warrants directed to him for delivery of goods. The title as follows:

This book, containing one hundred leaves, delivered to Mr. A. B. land-waiter, to take an account of the delivery of all goods landed out of ſuch ſhips as do not report.

B. C. Collector.

In the landing, examining, and delivery of all goods and merchandizes, it muſt be carefully obſerved,

1. That none be landed or delivered without a proper warrant; otherwiſe they are liable to ſeizure.

2. That no more be delivered than what the land-waiters have perfect warrants for; and if, upon examination of ſuch dry goods as pay duty by tale or meaſure, the importer appears to have endorſed ſhort, they muſt be ſeized: but, in caſe of ſhort entries upon goods paying duties by weight or gauge, the land-waiters

waiters muſt give the merchant an account in writing, that he may make a poſt or additional entry of it, before the goods be taken off the keys: unleſs the quantity ſhort entered be very ſmall, which may be entered in a book kept for that purpoſe in the cuſtom-houſe, that the collector may know the quantity and quality, to demand the duties of the merchant; which the land-waiters are to ſee poſted the next day at fartheſt, though, in ſtrictneſs, they are not to give any credit; and to prevent it, the ſurveyor muſt, 14 days after the expiration of every month, deliver to the collector, and comptroller a liſt of all ſhips cleared the preceding month, with the poſt entries that were ſtanding out ſix days after the ſhips were cleared; who are to enquire into the reaſons, and charge the officers concerned in giving ſuch credit, and ſend their anſwers to the commiſſioners, with their obſervations.

The form of the poſt-entry book may be as follows:

When poſted.	
No. 47. Lady-day quarter, 1731.	In the Providence of London, James Bell maſter, from Rotterdam. George Hunt. Poſt on No. 17. 20th of February, 1730. Juniper berries. C. qrs. lb. Delivered 3 : 3 : 14 Entered 3 : 0 : 4 Short 0 : 3 : 10 C. D. Land-waiter.
	27th of February, 1730. In the Providence aforeſaid. Daniel Fuller.
No. 58. Lady-day quarter, 1731.	Poſt on No. 25. Crop Madder. C. qrs. lb.: Delivered 23 : 2 : 7; Entered 20 : 0 : 0; Short 3 : 2 : 7 Old Iron. Tons C. qrs. lb.: 5 : 17 : 3 : 14; 5 : 00 : 0 : 00; 0 : 17 : 3 : 14 Broken Glaſs. C. qrs. lb.: 23 : 1 : 0; 20 : 0 : 0; 3 : 1 : 0 Pearl Barley. C. qrs. lb.: 9 : 0 : 7; 8 : 0 : 0; 1 : 0 : 7 C. D. Land-waiter.

3. That the account of all goods muſt be taken in the proper books, at the time of examination, &c. and not in any other books, or looſe papers.

4. That the marks and numbers of all caſks, &c. muſt be carefully obſerved, and placed to the proper merchant's accounts; and each day's work compared with the account taken by the merchant, his ſervant, cooper, &c.

5. That goods are not to be brought to the warehouſe, without bill of ſight, or other warrant, or conſent of the ſurveyor, under his hand and the land-waiter's book.

6. That, upon any miſtake in taking account of any goods, the land-waiters are not to eraſe their books, but ſtrike the pen through the error, and make true figures, &c. and write the reaſon.

7. That the land ſurveyor duly attend at the water-ſide, and frequently every day inſpect the land-waiters.

8. That, after payment of the new duties, and before delivery of any hides and ſkins liable to thoſe duties, the ſame are to be ſtamped with a hammer and ſtamp, to be kept, when not in uſe, under ſeparate locks of the collector and comptroller.

9. That, after payment of new duties, and before delivery of linens chequered, ſtriped, printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed, they are to be ſtamped with a proper ſeal, to be kept as before; and after entry and being ſtamped, the land-waiter is to keep an account in his book, which is to be marked by the land-ſurveyor.

10. If, on examination of goods at delivery, the merchant appears to have over-entered, the following regulations muſt be obſerved, to procure repayment; and tho' he ſhould be over-entered on ſome, and ſhort on others, the one muſt not be deducted from the other, but a poſt-entry be made for what is ſhort, and the over-entry obtained as before-mentioned, being as follows:

1. On the face of the warrant, at bottom, muſt be certified the quantity over-entered thus:

The merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk.

B. C. C. D. Land-waiters.

On the back of the warrant the merchant, his ſervant, or agent, muſt make oath to the quantity of goods received, and the occaſion of the over-entry, thus:

James Croſs maketh oath, That neither himſelf [if the goods were taken up by a ſervant or agent, there muſt be likewiſe added, nor A. B. the proprietor] nor any other perſon for him, to his uſe, did to his knowledge or belief, receive any more than three hundred twenty-ſeven pounds of the ſilk within mentioned, nor had any more landed out of the within mentioned ſhip, and that this over-entry was occaſioned by a * miſtake in caſting up the invoice.

Signed—James Croſs.

Jurat 16° die Martii, 1730,
coram me D. E. Collector.

* Or any other occaſion, as may be the caſe.

Underneath which oath muſt be certified as follows:

Upon examination, as alſo by affidavit above, we find the merchant is over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk.

B. C. C. D. Land-waiters.

Certified the 16th of March, 1730.
A. B. Surveyor.

Whereupon a certificate muſt be made out, in order to repay the duties for the goods ſo over-entered, as follows:

This is to certify, That James Croſs did enter and pay cuſtom inwards in the ſhip Endeavour of Briſtol, William How maſter, from Leghorn, the 7th day of February, 1730, for three hundred and ſixty pounds of thrown ſilk; and we the officers under-written did examine the goods at the delivery out of the ſaid ſhip, and found no more than three hundred and twenty-ſeven pounds: ſo that the ſaid merchant has over-entered thirty-three pounds of thrown ſilk; and, for further manifeſtation of the truth thereof, he hath made oath, That neither he, nor any other perſon to his uſe or knowledge, had any goods ſo over-entered aboard the ſaid ſhip, or in any place landed, without payment of cuſtom. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the 16th of March, 1730.

A. B. Surveyor,
B. C. C. D. Land-waiters.

On the back whereof muſt be wrote the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt, thus:

	l.	s.	d.
The ſubſidy to be repaid for the goods over-entered as within mentioned, amounts to one pound, ſix ſhillings, and one penny half-penny	1	6	1½
The new ſubſidy to be repaid, amounts to one pound ſix ſhillings and one penny half-penny	1	6	1½
The ⅓ ſubſidy to be repaid for the ſame, amounts to eight ſhillings and eight pence half-penny	0	8	8½
The ⅔ ſubſidy amounts to ſeventeen ſhillings and five pence	0	17	5
The impoſt 169⅔, amounts to one pound, five ſhillings, and nine pence farthing	1	5	9¼
	5	4	1¾

D. E. Collector, E. F. Cuſtomer, F. G. Comptroller.

Southampton, 17 March, 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of D. E. their collector in this port, the ſum of five pounds four ſhillings, and one penny three farthings, in full of this certificate — 5 4 1¾

James Croſs.

Witneſs
F. G. Comptroller.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards muſt be diſcharged for the over-entered goods, by writing them off in the margin of the book: and the whole entered in books to be kept for that purpoſe by the collector and comptroller, as hereafter ſhewn.

11. That all goods are to be entered as found: if therefore on examination of any * poundage goods, except tobacco, they appear to have received damage, &c. ſo as to prejudice the merchant in the ſale of them, proper allowances muſt be made, but never in conſideration of the meanneſs; but, if the merchant is not ſatisfied with the allowance, then the collector, and any other principal officer with him, may appoint two in-

* 11th Rule of the book of rates.

different merchants upon their oaths, to adjuſt the allowance: the form of the oath as follows:

A. B. and B. C. of Southampton, ſoap-makers, do ſeverally make oath, That they have viewed and examined the damaged ſoap imported by Henry Shaw, in the Welcome of London, George Criſp maſter, from Leghorn, entered the 3d of March 1730, and that according to the beſt of their ſkills and judgments (being experienced in the nature and value of ſuch goods) they do adjudge and believe, that the ſaid ſoap is leſſened one fifth part of it's true value by the damage it has received.

Jurat apud Southampton, 11 die Martii 1730, coram nobis
C. D. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

A. B.
B. C.

Whereupon the officers or other perſons who have adjuſted the damage, are to certify the ſame on the back of the warrant, thus:

We have viewed ſixteen cheſts, containing forty-one hundred, three quarters, and ſeven pounds of hard ſoap, landed by virtue of this, and one other warrant, bearing date the tenth inſtant, and do find the ſame damnified, and decayed by ſalt water, or otherwiſe, that we judge the quantity of one fifth part fit to be allowed for damage. Certified the eleventh of March 1730.

A. B. Surveyor. B. C. } Land-waiters, &c.
C. D. }

Which allowances for damage muſt be always made upon the keys, or in the king's warehouſe, immediately after the landing of the goods, and before taken into the merchant's poſſeſſion: and the quantity allowed not deducted from that ſhort entered (if any) but a poſt entry made for it; and a certificate for repayment of the goods allowed for damage, as follows:

We whoſe names are underwritten, being officers thereunto appointed by the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, do atteſt and certify, that we have viewed ſixteen cheſts, containing forty-one hundred weight, three quarters and ſeven pounds, of hard ſoap, part of twenty-four cheſts, containing fifty-eight hundred weight, three quarters, and ſeven pounds of hard ſoap, entered by Henry Shaw, in two warrants paſſed in the cuſtom-houſe, the third and tenth days of March preſent, in the ſhip Welcome of London, George Criſp maſter, from Leghorn, and do find them ſo damnified and decayed, that we do judge the quantity of * one fifth part to be a reaſonable allowance for damage, [† and increaſe of weight;] and accordingly did endorſe the ſame upon the original warrant aforeſaid; which, upon allowance thereof by the collector, is to be cancelled. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the twelfth day of March 1730.

A. B. Surveyor. B. C. } Land-waiters.
C. D. }

* Or ſometimes a certain quantity is allowed upon the whole, as one, two, &c. hundred weight, &c.

† If the goods deſerve it and the allowance be upon that account.

On the back muſt be wrote the particular duties to be repaid, with the merchant's receipt, thus:

	l.	s.	d.
The ſubſidy to be repaid for the damaged goods within mentioned, amounts to one pound three ſhillings and ten pence - - -	1	3	10
The new ſubſidy amounts to one pound three ſhillings and ten pence - - -	1	3	10
The one third ſubſidy amounts to ſeven ſhillings and eleven pence farthing - - -	0	7	11¼
The two third ſubſidy amounts to fifteen ſhillings and ten pence three farthings - -	0	15	10¾
The new duty on ſoap, &c. amounts to ſeven pounds ſixteen ſhillings and one penny -	7	16	1
The additional duty on ſoap, &c. amounts to three pounds eighteen ſhillings and an halfpenny	3	18	0½
	15	5	7½

D. E. Collector. E. F. Cuſtomer. F. G. Comptroller.

Southampton, the 14th of March 1730.

Received of the honourable the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by the hands of D. E. their collector in this port, the ſum of fifteen pounds five ſhillings and ſeven pence halfpenny, in full of this certificate - - - - 15 5 7½

Witneſs
F. G. Comptroller.

Henry Shaw.

But, before the duties are repaid, the entry inwards, referred to in the ſaid certificate, muſt be diſcharged for ſo much goods as were allowed for damage, by writing off in the margin of the book: and the whole entered in particular books kept for that purpoſe.

12. That though no allowance be made to the importers of tobacco, for damage or quality, yet if, on delivery, any part appears to be damaged, and the merchant is not willing to enter and pay, or ſecure the duties, he may refuſe the whole, or ſeparate the damaged part (but not the ſtalk from the leaf) by cutting off from the hogſheads, &c. what he refuſes to enter, &c. which any three or more principal officers may cauſe to be burnt, or deſtroyed: and a certificate of it be made out as follows:

Theſe are to certify, That Dennis Dove of Southampton, merchant, did, on the third day of February 1730, enter one hundred and fifty hogſheads of Britiſh plantation tobacco, in the ſhip Olive Branch of Liverpool, Giles Ellis, maſter, from Virginia, containing ninety thouſand pounds; and, whereas the ſaid Dennis Dove hath ſeparated, from nine of the ſaid hogſheads, one thouſand three hundred fifty-two pounds of damaged tobacco, and delivered the ſame to the proper officer to be burnt, and deſires to be allowed one halfpenny for every pound of ſuch damaged tobacco, for which he refuſes to pay or ſecure the full duties; purſuant to an act in the ninth year of his late majeſty, For the better ſecuring and aſcertaining the duties on tobacco: 'tis hereby further certified, That we have viewed the ſaid tobacco, and, according to the beſt of our judgments, it hath received damage on board, or by ſome accident ſince the ſhip's arrival, by which the merchant is intitled to the ſaid allowance; which is not made in conſideration of any other damage, or for meanneſs of the tobacco, and does not exceed thirty ſhillings for all the tobacco in any one of the ſaid nine hogſheads, as limitted by the ſaid act. Dated at the cuſtom-houſe, Southampton, the eighteenth day of February, 1730.

A. B. Surveyor,
B. C. } Land-waiters.
C. D. }

The chief laws relative to the DAMAGES of goods imported.

DAMAGES on goods imported (except tobacco and wines) are to be adjuſted by two indifferent merchants upon oath, to be choſen by the principal officers of the cuſtoms, &c. See the RULES, ORDERS, and DIRECTIONS, concerning the regulations of the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe, ſigned by Harbottle Grimſtone, Bart. Speaker of the houſe of Commons, at the end of letter A, rule 11.

The chief laws relating to DEAL-BOARDS.

DEAL-BOARDS, fir-timber, may not be imported from the NETHERLANDS, or GERMANY, on forfeiture of the ſhip and goods, 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 23. except deal-boards, fir-timber, fir-planks, and maſts of the growth of Germany, which may be imported from thence only by Britiſh, in Britiſh built ſhips, owned by Britiſh, upon payment of the like duties, as if from Norway, 6 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 1, 2, 3.

DEBENTURES. See the article DEBENTURES.

DENMARK. The trade thither free to all perſons, 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 6.

DIAMONDS, jewels, pearls, and precious ſtones, to paſs free inwards and outwards without warrant or fee, 6 Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 1.

DISCOUNTS allowed the importers, on payment of the duties. See the rules, orders, and directions at the end of letter A, &c.

DRAWBACKS on foreign goods. See the article DRAWBACKS; and the latter end of letter A.

DRUGS. See Book of Rates, and the latter end of the letter A.

DUTIES in general. See the latter end of letter A.

DYEING-GOODS exempted from the new, one third and two third ſubſidies, and the additional duty on ſpice, &c. are allum of all ſorts, antimonium, (except crudum) Britiſh berries from the plantations, cakelack, caſſumba, copperas of all ſorts, French berries, grain, or ſcarlet powder, grains of Portugal or rota grains of Seville in berries, litharge of all ſorts, platain, ſalt petre, weld, woad, 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 4. §. 8. 1 Geo. I. cap. 43. §. 3. Which may be imported free of all duties, provided entry and other requiſites of law be performed as before, a agaric, annotto, antimonium crudum, aqua fortis, argol arſenic, bayberries, braſil-wood, braziletto wood, cochenea cream of tartar, fuſtic, galls, gum arabic or gum ſenec indico of all ſorts, iſinglaſs, litmus, logwood, madder of a ſorts, madder-roots, Nicaragua-wood, orchal or orchelia, or a chelica (or Spaniſh weed) pomegranate peels, red wood, ſafflor ſal armoniac, ſal gem, ſapan wood, red ſaunders, ſhumac ſticklack, turnſole, valonia, verdigreaſe; but on failure of t aforeſaid requiſites, are to pay as formerly. 3 and 4 Ann. ca 4. §. 8. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 10.

Foreign dyeing-goods, liable to duty outwards. See Bo of Rates.

E.

EAR

EARTH, a due knowledge of the nature hereof, adminiſtering matter for the benefit of divers kinds of traffic, it may be uſeful to give the man of buſineſs ſuch an idea thereof, that he may poſſibly reap ſome advantage by it. See AGRICULTURE, HUSBANDRY, FARMING.

Our knowlege of the earth reaches but little below it's ſurface. So far as men have ever dug, it appears a compages of numerous ſolid ſubſtances, ranged in a diſorderly manner, ſeemingly to us; which may be phyſically neceſſary, to afford different partitions or beds, of ſoil, gravel, clay, ſtone, coal, marcaſites, ores, gems, &c. each ſerving as a matrix to the other, and all affording no inconſiderable articles for commerce.

By the ordinary uſe of the word earth, is meant the ſoil, mould, or coat, wherein vegetables grow. This coat, which reaches but a ſmall depth, is the ſeat of vegetation; and an analyſis of this earth, or garden mould, may not a little contribute to ſome beneficial improvements in agriculture.

EXPERIMENT I.

Take two pounds of freſh, black, and rich garden mould, and ſtir it well in two quarts of fair water, gently warmed; then let the groſſer part ſettle to the bottom, and filtre the liquor through cap-paper, and you will find that it will paſs conſiderably muddy, or impregnated with the finer parts of the earth, which it would not eaſily depoſit upon many days ſtanding in a quiet place.

REMARKS.

The deſign of the experiment is to obtain a proper liquor for diſcovering the matter which the earth affords to plants in vegetation, or the natural juices and natural ſalts of garden mould; becauſe nothing ſeems capable of riſing in vegetation, but what is ſoluble in moderately warm water, and will paſs the pores of paper, ſomewhat in the ſame manner as it does the natural abſorbing veſſels, or ſtrainers of a plant. Whence the filtred liquor, in the preceding experiment, may be examined chemically; as by evaporation, or the way of trying mineral waters, &c.

In regard to the methods of aſſaying CLAYS, COAL, MARCASITE, ORES, GEMS, &c. ſee theſe reſpective articles.

EXPERIMENT II.

A general analyſis of common water.

There being few ſpecies of earth from which ſome degree of an aqueous quality is not diſtillable; and water being an auxiliary inſtrument to vegetation in conjunction with garden mould, it may be uſeful to thoſe, who would aim at improvements in agriculture of any kind, to give the analyſis of this active fluid body, as united with earth, rather than as ſeparately conſidered.

Common water, being put into the exhauſted receiver of the air-pump, throws up numerous bubbles and explodes; and, therefore, contains what may, by way of diſtinction, be called æther, or ſpirit.

It contains alſo a merely aqueous part, diſtinct from æther, and the earthy ſediment, as appears from diſtilled common water.

It contains a dry ſolid matter, which is either earthy or ſaline, as appears upon a full evaporation; and from the inſides of tea-kettles, which, after long uſe, are lined with a ſtony matter, that beats off in flakes, or cruſty pieces.

That water is accounted beſt and wholſomeſt, which is lighteſt, moſt ſpirituous, and freeſt from earthy ſediments; and theſe properties are uſually found in pure rain water: this being naturally diſtilled from the ocean and rivers, or by the ſun's heat raiſed up into the atmoſphere, from whence it is returned, much after the manner of diſtillation.

Neither can the qualities of earth be duly conſidered, abſtractedly from it's conſtant attendant, the atmoſphere. This is a kind of dry fluid, no leſs eſſential to the earth than the moiſt one. It ſeems as heterogeneous as the earth or water, though more rarified. It is diſſimilar in it's parts, like the

body of the earth; and has ſomething analogous to beds, or particular portions, abounding with different kinds of effluvia, according to the difference of the countries and places, over which it extends. Thus over mount Ætna, or other vulcano's, it muſt neceſſarily be impregnated, after the manner of certain mineral waters, with the fumes of burning minerals; over the iſland Ceylon, with aromatic effluvia; over London with the ſmoak of ſea-coal, &c.

EXPERIMENT III.

A general analyſis of the air, as having a cloſe connection with the earth.

That the air is an elaſtic fluid, appears by it's diſtending bladders, and breaking glaſſes in the exhauſted receiver of the air-pump. 2. That it is eſſential to life, appears by animals dying without it. 3. That it may receive inviſible influence or alteration, as well as viſible effluvia, appears from it's becoming poiſonous by paſſing through fire, and by containing groſs ſmoak, and the fine particles of fermenting or putrefying bodies: and 4. That it is naturally a compound, appears by the water it depoſits in dry ſalt of tartar, and by changing the colours of various bodies.—The earth and air continuing inſeparably conjoined, the one muſt neceſſarily participate of the qualities of the other.

Of the earth in regard to vegetation.

The earth's ſurface is generally found covered with verdure, or a vegetable coat, and in ſome places with ſand, duſt, and mud.

Under this ſuperficial coat, there uſually lies a bed of mould, or under-turf earth, of different depths, from one foot to two, three, or more, in different places. This mould, or under-turf earth, is the proper matrix of vegetables.

EXPERIMENT I.

Take four pounds of freſh, black, and crumbly garden mould, eſteemed the beſt ſort, and what has lain ſome time expoſed to the atmoſphere, and not been exhauſted in vegetation. Elixate the ſame in fair boiling water, 'till all that is capable of diſſolution, and imbibition by the water, may be ſo.

Having thus obtained a lixivium, or ſolution, filtre the ſame through thick double paper, in order to obtain it tranſparent, at leaſt free from any groſs terreſtrial parts, that might otherwiſe lodge therein.—This ſolution contains all the parts of the ſubject that are ſoluble in boiling water.

To bring theſe parts to a cloſer juxtapoſition, that they may manifeſt themſelves to the ſenſes, and particularly to the taſte, exhale away the more aqueous fluid in the form of a vapour, and compare the concentrated ſolution, with a portion of the former that remained unevaporated, and you'll find it taſte more ſaline.

To gain a fuller information, evaporate a portion ſtill higher, and ſet it to cryſtallize, to ſee if any ſalt would ſhoot, which will adminiſter great inſight into the qualities of the earth you would aſſay. See the article ASSAY, in regard to mineral earths.

To a part of your filtred ſolution, you may add the ſyrup of violets, to diſcover whether the ſolution be acid, alkaline, or neutral.

Waſh the remaining terreſtrial matter in ſeveral waters, every time decanting the upper muddy liquor, after a little ſtanding, in order to procure the pure ſand contained in the mould, which will ſtill more and more enlighten your judgment in it's nature and quality.

REMARKS.

Experiments of this kind diſcover a method of reſolving the matrix earth of vegetables into it's conſtituent parts, without altering their natural form and properties. Whence it ſhould ſeem, that a true judgment might be formed of mould, both in general and particular, and a rule be obtained for their artificial mixture or compoſition. For example, if you had any mould from the Spice Iſlands, where either

either the clove or the cinnamon grows; or from any part of Aſia, where the tea grows, or America, where the cacao is produced; we might be directed, by this analyſis, to mix up a mould that ſhould reſemble it, for producing theſe vegetables in England. But, to render theſe experiments ſucceſsful, no leſs regard muſt be had to the ſtate and ingredients of the atmoſphere, than to the ſtate and ingredients of the ſoil.

To render theſe ſimple experiments ſtill the more inſtructive, for diſcovering the principles of vegetation, and the nature of earths and plants, it were proper to compare them with a ſimilar analyſis of certain vegetable ſubjects.

Thus by bruiſing a tender plant, elixating all it's ſoluble parts with warm water, exhaling the humidity, and ſetting the remainder to cryſtallize, you'll obtain the native ſaline parts of the plant, in the form of a ſolid ſalt, which appears either of the tartareous or nitrous kind, according to the nature of the plant.

And, though any alkaline plant, as creſſes, were watered in it's growth with a ſolution of nitre, which upon diſtillation affords much acid ſpirit, the plant would ſtill prove alkaline: and the ſame holds of every plant and ſalt hitherto tried. Whence there appears to be a power in plants of changing any other ſalt into their own; which is alſo the caſe of animals. And hence we likewiſe find, upon experience, that compoſts, abounding in ſea-ſalt, nitre, or urinous ſalts, all agree to promote vegetation.

But, as there may be certain more fixed parts naturally contained in mould, than will diſſolve in boiling water; and as theſe parts may poſſibly be looſened, digeſted, and rendered capable of aſcending into vegetables, by the long continued action of the ſun and atmoſphere; it may be uſeful to try ſome other analyſis of the ſame ſubject.

Experiment II.

The analyſis of garden mould by fire.

Weigh two pounds of garden mould of the kind before deſcribed, and put it into an earthen retort; commit it to a naked fire, working by ſlow degrees of heat into a glaſs receiver; at laſt keeping the retort ignited, for ſome time. There will come over (1.) a water; (2.) an oil; and (3.) a volatile ſpirit almoſt like that of hartſhorn; and (4.) there will remain behind a dry caput mortuum, or apparently fixed earth.

Elixate part of the caput mortuum, and dry it, and by triture reduce the ſame into a ſimilar powder, with deſign to put each parcel into a ſeparate pot, and expoſe them to the open air for a twelvemonth, to try whether they would then prove fertile.

By comparing this proceſs with the ſame performed upon a vegetable, an animal, and a mineral ſubſtance, it appears, that one ſimple fixed earth is the baſis of all animal, vegetable, mineral, and earthy matters; or the true ſtamen, ſupport, and ſkeleton of fleſh, bone, wood, metals, and earths, &c. being of itſelf of a fixed and unalterable nature.

Of bolar earths.—See Bole.

Theſe earths are diviſible into two ſpecies, according as they are more or leſs tenacious; in which light loam and clay may repreſent them all. And even theſe two ſeem only to differ in reſpect of fineneſs or coarſeneſs of their component parts, which renders them more or leſs tenacious and adheſive.

Experiment III.

(1.) Mix common loam into a maſs with water, then dry it, which will ſhew that, compared with clay, it would eaſily crumble and fall into powder. But (2.) beating ſome loam fine in a mortar, and mixing it well with water, it will cling like clay, and when dried adhere much more tenaciouſly than before.

Remarks.

This experiment ſhews, that loam and clay, or all the bolar earths, are nearly the ſame thing, when their component parts, or gravelly and ſandy matters, are reduced to the ſame degree of fineneſs: it ſupplies us alſo with a rule for the improvement of the art of pottery, and the imitation of China ware. [See Porcelain, and Pottery.] This rule is to grind or beat the earths employed, to an extreme degree of fineneſs; accordingly porcelain has been imitated in Europe, by tobacco-pipe clay, and other earths exceedingly fine ground, mixed into a paſte with water, and properly dried and baked.

Under bolar earths, may be ranged all the hungry garden earths, all the ſandy field earths, all the clay or marly earths, and all the mixtures hereof.

Of ſaline earths.

By which are meant all thoſe wherein any quantity of acid, alkaline, or neutral ſalt is contained.

Upon ſtrict examination, no earth, perhaps, would be found without ſome proportion of ſalt; which is generally thought to be the principle that cements all earths together. And the following experiments ſeem to ſhew ſome reaſon for the opinion.

Experiment IV.

That a ſaline matter may give tenacity and firmneſs to earth.

(1.) Slack quick lime with a ſufficient quantity of water, to bring it into a kind of paſte. (2.) Suffer the moiſture to exhale gradually, and the lime will acquire a ſtony hardneſs. (3.) Pour a larger quantity of water upon another parcel of quick lime than ſuffices to make it into a paſte, decant the wall, and you'll find it ſaline. (4.) Elixate the remaining matter with ſeveral quantities of freſh water, to extract all the ſalt of the lime. (5.) Dry the calx thus deprived of it's ſalt, and you'll find it has loſt it's tenacity, and will become crumbly or duſty.

Remarks.

This experiment ſhews the nature and compoſition of lime, which, mixed with ſand, makes the common mortar for building. We ſee it is the alkaline ſalt contained in the lime, and either extricated, or produced, in calcining the lime-ſtone, that occaſions the mortar to concrete and harden; and, where the ſalt is in it's full proportion, the lime is ſtrongeſt, and the mortar hardeſt and moſt durable. This ſaline principle in lime gives it an advantage over chalk, as a compoſt for lands exhauſted of their natural ſalts in vegetation: for the alkaline ſalt of the lime, by ſtrongly attracting the humidity of the air, as all ſalts do when they begin to run per deliquium, whereby they ſwell, dilate, crumble, and open the earth wherein it is mixed, in order more kindly to adminiſter the virtues contained both in the earth and the air to the roots of vegetables in general; whence it is obſervable, that the atmoſphere has the freer action thereon, while the alkaline ſalt of the lime becomes of a nitrous fertilizing quality.

Under the general head of ſaline earths may be reckoned all thoſe that are calcined, or burned in the fire; as all the kinds of lime, pot-aſh, ſalt of tartar, ſoot, &c. theſe being but mixtures of ſalt and earth.

Of ſulphureous earths:

Such as coal, bitumen, brimſtone, crude ores, marcaſites braſs lumps, mundics, or the like: for, though theſe may be diſtinguiſhed in reſpect of leſſer differences, yet, in general, they are all a compoſition of ſulphur, uninflammable earth, and a ſmall proportion of metal.

The analyſis of ſulphureous earths by an example in mundics.

Experiment V.

Take half a pound of Corniſh mundic, reduced to fine powder, and put it into an earthen retort; which, placed in a naked fire, fit on a capacious receiver, and lute the junctures well with a mixture of loam and horſe-dung.—Give degrees of fire, up to the ſtrongeſt.—Let all cool, and take off.—You will find a ſmall proportion of an acid liquor, exactly like the ſpirit of ſulphur by the bell, at the bottom of the receiver, and a conſiderable quantity of flowers of ſulphur ſublimed to the top.

The caput mortuum being taken out, and fluxed with half it's weight of clean iron filings, will afford a metallic reguline ſubſtance. Whence we ſee that marcaſites chiefly reſolve into ſulphur, and a more fixed earthy part; which, being treated in the aſſay as lead only, yields a proportion of metal. And hence, perhaps, all the pyrites, braſs lumps, marcaſites, and mundics, are but cruder kinds of ore; and, if they could be brought to full maturity, they would prove real ones.

Theſe marcaſites, upon long lying in the open air, attract the moiſture thereof, and hence grow hot, in ſome meaſure diſſolve, from an efflorescence on the ſurface; and, by degrees, turn into a vitriol, of the ſame kind with the metal they contain.

Thus, if that metal were iron, the vitriol becomes green, or martial; if copper, blue, or cupereous: and on this is founded the artificial method of making vitriol, how practiſed in ſeveral parts of England. Moreover,

From the heating, fuming, and firing of theſe ſulphureous earths, by the moiſture of the air, we may learn, perhaps, the origin of hot baths, mineral waters, damps and fires in mines: for it is found that a pile of theſe ſulphureous earths, being barely moiſtened, will at firſt ſmoke, and at length take fire, and burn like glowing coals.

This experiment likewiſe ſhews the method of examining theſe marcaſites (which have been frequently taken for rich ores both in England and elſewhere) and of extracting the metal they may contain, after having firſt ſeparated their ſulphur. Many ſkilful metalliſts have been impoſed on by the ſpecious ſhew of theſe marcaſites, they having uſually a great ſpecific gravity,

gravity, and ſome of them a greater than real ones: ſo that they may poſſibly contain the matter of metals, though in a crude, imperfect, and unfixed ſtate. But, to bring this matter to the teſt, requires more than ordinary knowlege in metallurgy. See the articles METALLURGY, ASSAY, MARCASITE.

Of ſtony earths.

That ignition may deſtroy the tenacity, or coheſion, of ſtony earths, ſhewn in alabaſter.

Reduce about a couple of pounds of ſoft alabaſter to to fine powder; put it into a flat iron pan, and apply a ſoft heat, that the matter may not glow, yet remain too hot to be touched; by which means the powder will be brought to flow, or run, ſomething like quickſilver; and, being gently ſtirred, will boil and bubble. If you let it continue thus, with a ſoft heat, it will run off the ſpatula, held almoſt horizontally.—Remove it from the fire to grow cold, put it into a glaſs, kept cloſe ſtopped, in a dry place, as gypſum, or calcined alabaſter.

A quantity of the gypſum thus prepared, being brought into a pappy conſiſtence with water, the humid maſs will ſoon become ſo hard and rigid, as to ring, or afford a clear ſound, when ſtruck with the finger, or any more ſolid inſtrument.

But a parcel of the ſame powder, kept in a ſtate of ignition for ſome time, before it is taken out of the calcining pan, and being mixed with water, it will acquire a looſe, friable conſiſtence, or a much leſs degree of tenacity than the other. The unignited ſort, alſo, by being kept in the open air, loſes of it's coagulating virtue; and, when once conſolidated with water, will become unfit for the like purpoſe again.

Thus all the ſtony earths that do not vitrify in the fire are, by ignition, reduced to fine powder: ſo may flints themſelves, by being often ignited and quenched in water. Thus white marble, or cryſtal, is reduced to a powder, fit for the making of pure white glaſs.

This experiment alſo ſhews us an earthy matter, apparently fluid over the fire, that will harden in water; and will ſerve to direct a further enquiry after cheap bodies, that will grow ſtill harder under water, which might prove of great ſervice in bridge-works, water-works, and the like.

The preſent uſe of this preparation is for taking off faces, impreſſions, and figures, and the ſtopping of leaky pipes or veſſels, that tranſmit or contain water.

The ſeveral earths hitherto mentioned conſtitute an opake aggregate of diſtinct qualities; ſuch an one whoſe parts are not commoveable by the ſubtle motion of light; but there is another ſpecies of earths, that come into a tenaciouſly cohering aggregate, and admit of an intenſe and inherent motion of their ſmalleſt conſtituent parts.

Such are gems; ſome whereof are homogeneous, and perfectly tranſparent, as the diamond, ruby, ſapphire, jacinth, emerald, &c. to which may be added various kinds of ſands and glaſſes, thoſe commonly called mettalline fluors, and the white claſs of cryſtals.

There are other gems, that are coloured, whoſe tranſparency is partly obſcured by the interpoſition of a ſmall quantity of exceedingly fine opake matter; which, ſometimes proving larger in quantity, totally obſcures the ſtones, renders them opake, and poſſeſſed of firmneſs, and of exceedingly bright poliſh. See the article GEMS.

There are ſome again, as it were, unequally mixed of theſe two. Of this kind are all the coloured gems in general; of the ſecond, the turquoiſe, the opal, the onyx, the carneol, the red jaſper, &c.—And of the laſt, the variegated jaſper and agate.

Theſe tranſparent earths, whilſt under a tremulous motion in their aggregate generation, are ſtruck upon by the rays of light, which they again throw off in the ſame angle; whence proceeds the ſplendor of tranſparent gems, viz. from the light thus reflected on their ſurface.

Theſe diaphanous earths have this tremulous property in common with ſonorous earths, as approximating thereto, either in the individual tenuity of their whole ſubſtance, or ſome principle thereof: for, as the corpuſcles that are capable of being impelled by the light of the ſun, moving the rays of the air, muſt needs be greatly attenuated; ſo theſe corpuſcles, which, in the aggregate, are movable by ſo ſubtle a tremulous, or undulatory motion, as to vibrate the phyſical lines of the air, muſt alſo neceſſarily be exceedingly minute. But ſuch bodies as are either tranſparent, or, if opake, the moſt attenuated metals, which, being concreted into an aggregate, are ſo intimately combined, that a ray of light can ſcarce deſcend below their ſurface, but it is immediately repelled, as may be demonſtrated to the ſenſes from optics.

A due knowlege of thoſe gems depends upon two principal things, viz. their hardneſs and their colour. Their hardneſs is commonly allowed to ſtand in this order: the diamond firſt, as moſt compact of all; after which follow the ruby, the ſapphire, the jacinth, the emerald, the amethyſt, the garnet, the carneol, chalcedon, the onyx, the jaſper; after theſe ſucceed the agate, porphyry, and marble. This difference, however, is not regular and conſtant, but frequently varies.

Good cryſtals may be allowed to ſucceed the onyx, but the whole claſs of metalline glaſſy fluors ſeems to be ſtill ſofter.

In point of colour, the diamond is valued for it's tranſparency, the ruby for its purple, the ſapphire for it's blue, the emerald for it's green, the jacinth for it's orange, the amethyſt for it's violet, the turquoiſe for it's azure, the carneol for it's carnation, the onyx for its tawny, the jaſper, agate, and porphyry for their vermilion, green, and variegated colour, and the garnet for it's tranſparent blood-red.

All theſe gems, as they are ſometimes found coloured, or ſpotted, along with their tranſparency, ſo are they ſometimes perfectly limpid and colourleſs; in which caſe the diamond-cutter knows how to diſtinguiſh their ſeveral ſpecies, from their different degrees of hardneſs upon the mill. See the article DIAMOND.

For the cutting or poliſhing of gems, the fine powder of the fragments of thoſe that are next in degree of hardneſs is always requiſite to grind and wear away the ſofter; but, as none of them are harder than the diamond, this can only be poliſhed with its own powder.

Mr Boyle has many curious obſervations upon this ſubject of gems, in ſpeaking of diamonds that ſhone in the dark; where he finds that ſuch diamonds as are left with ſmall aſperities, or inequalities, upon their ſurface, through an imperfection in the poliſhing, have all of them this faculty, viz. of ſhining luminous in the darkeſt places.

As to the thing that gives the colour to gems, there are many different opinions, or rather conjectures. Whatever it be, it is certainly a real ſubſtance, that variouſly reflects the light in it's motion. But that this body ſhould be copper, for inſtance, which gives the fine blue to ſapphire, or to lapis lazuli, becauſe it gives the like colour to ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, ſeems the leſs probable, as this colour does not abſolutely depend upon the copper, but upon the property of the ſpirit therewith united: for the ſame copper turns an acid ſpirit of a green colour; and, with glaſs, ſometimes makes a green, ſometimes a red, ſometimes a blue, and ſometimes a black.

Upon no better foundation alſo, perhaps, ſtands that opinion of the garnet, as receiving it's colour from iron, becauſe that metal exhibits ſuch a colour in it's glaſs: for iron does not produce ſuch effects quatenus iron per ſe, but as iron differently prepared; and ſuch preparations thereof are no where to be found natural; for inſtance, the crocus martis with vinegar, &c.

It may be further obſerved of the bolar earths, that they are a kind of aggregate, conſiſting of numerous other leſſer aggregates, or ſenſible moleculæ; or, indeed, that they commonly are no more than a rude heap, or heterogeneous maſs, containing many of the earths abovementioned, both opake, tranſparent, and metalline.

Whence it is no wonder that iron, for inſtance, by modern experiments, has been eaſily made out of common loam: for, as iron is an heterogeneous body, tempered up with much opake and much vitreſcible earth, alone with ſome metalline parts; it is not at all improbable either that the two firſt earths, which are found to exiſt plentifully in loam, ſhould be readily combined by the addition of the third; or that all of them, being preſent together, ſhould be joined by a ſuitable operation, and ſeparated from the other parts that do not unite therewith.

Upon the ſame foundation depend thoſe extractions from emery, blood-ſtone, and the crocus of iron itſelf, whereby gold receives an augmentation; what is thus extracted, now putting on a metalline form along with the gold, and preſerving it upon moſt trials, 'till at length, by the acceſſion of the metalline complement, they every one become permanent and perfect gold *.

* See Becher. Miner. Arenar. page 909—927.

To ſeparate thoſe ſeveral earths that are ſo blended, is a work of no little art, particularly to get the opake, calcarious, or homogeneous bolar earth, clear of that which is tranſparent and vitreſcible. But it is much leſs labour to ſeparate the metalline parts from them both.

The beſt way, poſſibly, of ſeparating the finer earthy particles from the larger ſands, is by waſhing, which alſo eaſily gets the ſmalleſt metalline parts away from thoſe of the ſame ſize, and that in a ſtricter ſenſe are called earthy.

Under this head of earths may be ranged thoſe artificial tenacious clays called lutes, which are commonly oppoſed to the violence of the fire, to hinder the eſcape of ſubtile ſubſtances, and are very neceſſary in chemical operations.

Earths of this kind are either deſigned for the making of earthen veſſels, ſuch as retorts, crucibles, &c. or for coating over veſſels of glaſs, ſo as to defend them in a naked fire, or for the ſtopping of junctures, orifices, or cracks, of receiving, preſerving, and diſtilling veſſels, in thoſe parts that are fartheſt from the fire.

There are ſome natural clays found fit, whereof to form veſſels for diſtillation, ſublimation, calcination, and reverberation, as being well contempered with a ſufficient quantity of a tenacious ſubſtance, ſo as to require no previous preparation for the hand of the potter, who is to give them their figure.

There are other clays that require to be artificially tempered, to fit them for this purpoſe. Thus thoſe that when dry cohere but looſely, may be mixed with a ſuitable proportion of iron ſcales, or filings; and thoſe that remain ſoft in the fire, with powdered flints or glaſs. Sometimes, likewiſe, a little litharge is found proper, as giving the veſſels a greater degree of tenacity.

For crucibles, and other pots for the melting of metals, the native Haſſian earth is to be generally preferred, or that of Auſtria; but the Haſſian being ſandy, and the Auſtrian martial, this is ſooneſt preyed upon, and deſtroyed by ſalts and antimony, and that by lead.

But as lead, and the glaſs of lead, immediately break, or run through all ſorts of the common crucibles, thoſe who have occaſion for violent fires ſhould ſtudy the nature and quality of ſuch earths as will the beſt ſtand the fire, and will not vitrify by the ſulphur of ores, or the penetration of fluxes. In regard to which, nature alone, perhaps, affords no diſtinct ſpecies of earth that will effectually anſwer ſuch purpoſes: whence we muſt call in art and philoſophy to our aid; and thoſe who are the beſt acquainted with chemical analyſis will have the advantage over thoſe who are ignorant therein.

Of metalline earths:

For there are reaſons to judge, that even metals themſelves are but a ſpecies of earths *, as they both burn into aſhes, and melt into glaſs; whilſt their metalline ductile form appears owing to nothing more than a certain proportion of ſulphur, or oil, they contain; which, when burned out, leaves them terreſtrical calces, or certain metalline earths, of a nature peculiar to each metal. Thus we may divide earths into two general tribes, viz. the friable and the malleable. We have gone through the former ſpecies, the other we ſhall ſpeak of under the article MINEROLOGY.

* See Becher's Phyſica Subterranea.

REMARKS.

It would be very tedious, and of no great ſignificancy, to enumerate all the particular differences of theſe earths, either friable or otherwiſe, or thoſe that are uſed medicinally, or in any other application. Thoſe that are the moſt eſſential we have noticed, and ſhall do ſo, ſo far as we judge conſiſtent with the nature of our work.

From the foregoing enquiries we learn, that the atmoſphere, with it's conſtituent parts, is a chief inſtrument in promoting the fertilization of the earth, whereby all vegetables, and thence all animals are fed, ſupported, and maintained; that the mould for vegetation may, in ſome meaſure, be ſupplied with the air at different times, and afterwards, by lying immediately under the turf, receives whatever richneſs, or fine matter, deſcends from above, in the form of dews, rains, ſnow, hail, or other more ſubtle and invincible conveyance: and that this invigorating ſubſtance, ſoaking through the upper turf, may be thereby defended from the winds and heating ſun, as by a ſkreen, for being exhaled too ſoon again. Thus the atmoſphere appears to exerciſe a kind of renovating power, ſo as to ſupply even exhauſted and barren ſoils with freſh vigour and animation, and fit them for the production of new crops. Which conſiderations point out a good rule for recruiting withered and exhauſted vegetables, by expoſing them to a kindly atmoſphere, rather than by bare watering of them, which might only ſerve to injure and corrupt them the ſooner.

Hence ſome capital directions may be formed for the improvement of huſbandry, horticulture, and the raiſing and improving of fruit and foreſt trees, by finding the nature, compoſition, and ingredients of the ſoil, wherein each kind of grain, plant, and tree, is moſt nouriſhed and delighted:

That it is poſſible, by rational experiments, to diſcover the beſt kind of ſteepings for grain and ſeed, and the beſt kinds of compoſts and manure for land; according to the nature, or preſent exigence of the ſoil, or the fruit intended to be produced; or any one particular ſalt, oil, or property to be introduced, either into the ground or the ſeed:

That water, as well as fire, may prove a uſeful chemical analyzer in ſome caſes:

That compoſts, before they can produce their effects, muſt, in ſome degree, approach to the nature of the ſoil they are deſigned to improve:

That by earths are underſtood ſuch groſs ſubſtances as are of themſelves inſoluble in water, and indeſtructible in the fire, yet with fixed alkali melt into glaſs, or with any unctuous matter aſſume the form of a metal, according to their reſpective natures; and, conſequently, that even earths, though apparently exhauſted ſimple bodies, have yet their reſpective or peculiar properties and effects:

That the moſt fixed part of earth has many inſtrumental efficacies, not only as floating in the air, and as forming the bed, or matrix, of vegetables, but alſo in conſtituting the ſolid parts, or ſtamina, of all vegetables, animal and mineral ſubſtances, and affording us all our veſſels of glaſs, ſtone, wood, and metal; our furnaces, crucibles, and retorts; and being, perhaps, in itſelf, the moſt fixed and unchangeable body in nature:

That a high degree of trituration, or reducing the particles of certain bolar earths, clays, and ſtony earths, to an extreme fineneſs, may contribute to the improvement of pottery. For which purpoſe, trituration, ſifting, ſubſidence in water, and decantation, might be uſed to great advantage. See the article POTTERY.

That the making of lime may be improved, for the purpoſes of buildings, manure, and water-works, by a due choice of the materials, and a ſuitable calcination.

That ſome conſiderable uſe and improvement might, with proper ſkill and application, be made in the buſineſs of braſs lumps, marcaſites, mundics, and infinite other ſpecies of mineral bodies. See MINEROLOGY and METALLURGY.

That marcaſites, or other minerals, by attracting the moiſture of the air, may be the efficient cauſe of ſubterraneous fires, hot ſprings, damps in mines, mineral waters, &c.

That the matter of metals may poſſibly be looſe, immature, or unconcocted, in certain mineral matters; ſo as in the fire to evaporate with the volatile ſulphur, or other unctuous unfixed parts of the mineral, unleſs detained, and brought to greater perfection, either by nature or art.

That fire may have the ſame effect as air or time, on certain ſtony matters, and make them looſe, crumbly, and incoherent.

Further REMARKS.

On the uſefulneſs of the knowlege of all kinds of earths to the country gentlemen in general.

Under the articles ASSAY, BOLE, and CLAYS, we have already ſhewn how highly profitable the knowlege of all earths may oftentimes prove to gentlemen of landed eſtates in general; that they may oftentimes have a much larger ſhare of property within the compaſs of a few acres, than in ſome thouſands, and yet be totally ignorant of the matter, for want of a little turn and application to ſtudies of this nature. And from the ſimple and familiar experiments we have exhibited, will appear, that there is neither any great trouble or expence attending reſearches of this nature. Whence one ſhould preſume that gentlemen, for their own ſakes, for the intereſt of their poſterity, would attend more to the contemplation of nature, and practical lucrative philoſophy, than they are generally wont to do.

As I have no little deſire to be of all uſe, according to the beſt of my ſmall abilities, to this great claſs of the community, I ſhall not be wanting in any pains to lay before them, in ſuch a manner as to give them the leaſt trouble and moſt ſatisfaction, yet a good reliſh for thoſe advances and improvements that have been made by philoſophic experimentaliſts, which have been made not leſs for the intereſts of land than traffic. For, however much perſons of great landed eſtates may depend upon mere practical, laborious men, for their care and improvement of them; yet ſpeculation is not the leſs requiſite; I mean, ſpeculation grounded on a repeated ſeries of rational and infallible experiments; for, without this, ſpeculation tends to as little uſe in regard to the improvement of lands and trade, as enthuſiaſm, viſionary ſchemes, and metaphyſic controverſy, have done to the advancement of religion and ſound politics.

In regard to the choice of land ſtewards, it may deſerve the conſideration of people of diſtinction, whether ſuch ſervant, having ſomething of a knowlege in what we have repreſented under this article, and a general taſte for ſtudies of this kind, might not frequently prove highly benefical to a gentleman's eſtate? And, if a gentleman himſelf had a turn for ſtudies of this nature, he would eaſily direct ſuch a courſe of experiments to be made, though he ſhould not chuſe to trouble himſelf about them. If what has been urged on my part upon this matter, for the benefit of the landed gentlemen of theſe kingdoms, ſhould fail of the deſired weight and influence, permit me, candid and generous reader, to recommend and inforce what hath been humbly ſubmitted, in the words of the great and learned biſhop Spratt, in his Hiſtory of the Royal Society.

'For the improvement of theſe arts of peaceable fame, the gentlemen of England have, indeed, another privilege, which can ſcarce be equalled by any kingdom in Europe; and that is the convenience and benefit of being ſcattered in the country. And in truth, the uſual courſe of life of the Engliſh gentlemen is ſo well placed between the troubleſome noiſe of pompous magnificence, and the baſeneſs of avaricious ſordidneſs, that the true happineſs of living according to the rules and pleaſures of uncorrupt nature, is more in their power than any others. To them, in this way of life, there can nothing offer itſelf which may not be turned to a philoſophical uſe. Their country-ſeats, being removed from the tumults of cities, give them the beſt opportunity, and freedom of obſervations. Their hoſpitality, and familiar way of converſing with their neighbourhood, will always ſupply them with intelligence. The leiſure which their retirements afford

'afford them is so great, that either they must spend their 'thoughts about such attempts, or in more chargeable and 'less innocent divertisements. If they will consider the hea-'vens, and the motions of the stars; they have there a quieter 'hemisphere, and a clearer air, for that purpose. If they 'will observe the generations, breedings, diseases, and cures 'of living creatures; their stables, their stalls, their kennels, 'their parks, their ponds, will give them eternal matter of 'enquiry. If they would satisfy their minds with the ad-'vancing of fruits, the beautifying, the ripening, the better-'ing of plants; their pastures, their orchards, their groves, 'their gardens, their nurseries, will furnish them with per-'petual contemplations. They may not only make their 'business, but their very sports, most serviceable to experi-'mental knowledge. For that, if it be rightly educated, 'will stand in need of such recreations as much as the gen-'tlemen themselves, from their hunting, hawking, fishing, 'and fowling, that is able to receive as much solid profit as 'they delight.

'On both these accounts the English gentry has the advantage 'of those of France, Spain, Italy, or Germany; who are 'generally either shut up in towns, and dream away their 'lives in the diversions of cities; or else are engaged to fol-'low their princes wills to foreign wars.

'Nor do they only excel other nations in such opportunities, 'but our own nobility of all former times. First, they are 'now far more numerous, and so more may be spared from 'the civil business of their country. Besides this, thy are 'now bred up and live in a quite different fashion. The 'course of their ancestors lives was grave and reserved; they 'conversed with few but their own servants, and seldom 'travelled farther than their own lands: this way served 'well enough to keep up their state and their port, but not 'to help their understandings. For the formalities of life 'do often counterfeit wisdom, but never beget it. Whereas 'now they are engaged in freer roads of education; now the 'vast distance between them and other orders of men is no 'more observed; now their conversation is large and gene-'ral; now the world is become more active and industri-'ous; now more of them have seen the use and manners of 'men, and more apply themselves to traffick and business than 'ever.

'This alteration has been caused in our memory, either by 'so many families being advanced to the highest degrees of 'nobility for their excelling in the arts of the gown; or by 'their frequent intermarriages with citizens; or by the tra-'vels of the king and the royal family; or else by the civil 'war itself, which is always wont to be the cruellest tyrant, 'or the best reformer; either utterly to lay waste, or to ci-'vilize and beautify, and ripen the arts of all countries. And 'still we have reason to expect, that this change will proceed 'farther for the better, if our gentlemen shall more conde-'scend to engage in commerce, and to regard the philosophy 'of nature.

'Nor ought our gentry to be averse from the promoting of 'trade out of any little jealousy, that thereby they shall de-'base themselves, and corrupt their blood: for they are to 'know, that traffick and commerce have given mankind a 'higher degree than any title of nobility, even that of civi-'lity and humanity itself. And, at this time especially above 'all others, they have no reason to despise trade as below 'them, when it has so great an influence on the very govern-'ment of the world. In former ages, indeed, this was not 'so remarkable. The seats of empire and trade were sel-'dom or never the same. Tyre and Sidon, and Cades and 'Marseilles, had more traffick, but less command than Rome 'or Athens, or Sparta or Macedon. But now it is quite 'otherwise. It is now most certain, that, in those coasts 'whither the greatest trade shall constantly flow, the great-'est riches and power will be established. The cause of this 'difference between the ancient times and our own, is hard 'to be discovered: perhaps it is this, that formerly the great-'est part of the world lived rudely, on their own natural 'productions: but now so many nations being civilized, and 'living splendidly, there is a far greater consumption of all 'foreign commodities; and so the gain of trade is become 'great enough to over-balance all other strength: whether 'this be the reason or no, it matters not, but the observa-'tion is true. And this we see is sufficiently known to all 'our neighbours, who are earnestly bent upon the advancing 'of commerce, as the best means not only to enrich particu-'lar merchants, but to enlarge the empire.

'The next thing to be recommended to the gentlemen of 'England, has a near kindred with the other, and that is 'the philosophy of nature and arts. For the want of such an 'easy course of studies, so many of them have miscarried in 'their first years, and have ever after abhorred all manner of 'sober works. What else do signify the universal complaints 'of those, who direct the education of great mens children? 'Why do they find them so hard to be fixed to any manner 'of knowledge? Their teachers, indeed, are wont to im-'pute it the delicacy of their breeding, and to their mo-'ther's fondness. But the chief cause of the mischief lies 'deeper. They fill their heads with difficult and unintel-

'ligible notions, which neither afford them pleasure in learn-'ing, nor profit in remembering them; they chiefly instruct 'them in such arts, which are made for the beaten tracks of 'professions, and not for gentlemen. Whereas their minds 'should be charmed by the allurements of sweeter and more 'plausible studies, and for this purpose experiments are the 'fittest. Their objects they may feel and behold, their pro-'ductions are most popular; their method is intelligible, and 'equal to their capacities; so that in them they may soon 'become their own teachers.

'Nor are they to contemn them for their plainness, and the 'homely matters about which they are often employed. If 'they shall think scorn to foul their fingers about them on 'this account, let them cast their eyes back on the original 'nobility of all countries. And if that be true, that every 'thing is preserved and restored by the same means which did 'beget it at first, they then may be taught, that their pre-'sent honour cannot be maintained by intemperate pleasures, 'or the gawdy shews of pomp, but by true labours and in-'dustrious virtue: let them reflect upon those great men, 'who first made the name of nobility venerable. And they 'shall find, that amidst the government of nations, the dis-'patch of armies, and noise of victories, some of them dis-'dained not to work with a spade, to dig the earth, and to 'cultivate with triumphing hands the vine and the olive. 'These, indeed, were times, of which it were well if we 'had more footsteps, than in ancient authors. Then the 'minds of men were innocent and strong, and bountiful as 'the earth in which they laboured. Then the vices of hu-'man nature were not their pride, but their scorn. Then 'virtue itself was neither adulterated by the false idols of 'goodness, nor puffed up by the empty forms of greatness, as 'since it has been in some countries of Europe, which are 'arrived at that corruption of manners, that perhaps some 'severe moralists will think it had been more needful for me 'to persuade the men of this age to continue men, than to 'turn philosophers.

'But in this history I will forbear all farther complaints, 'which were acceptable to the humour of this time, even in 'our divine and moral works, in which they are necessary. 'I therefore return to that which I undertook, to the agree-'ableness of this design, to all conditions and degrees of 'our nobility. If they require such studies as are propor-'tionable to the greatness of their titles, they have here 'those things to consider, from whence even they them-'selves fetch the distinctions of their gentility. The mine-'rals, the plants, the stones, the planets, the animals, they 'bear in their arms, are the chief instruments of heraldry, 'by which those houses are exalted above those of the vulgar. 'And it is a shame for them to boast of the bearing of those 'creatures they do not understand. If they value the an-'tiquity of families and long race of pedigrees, what can be 'more worthy their consideration, than all the divers line-'ages of nature? These have more proof of their ancient 'descent than any of them can shew. For they have all 'continued down in a right line, from cause to effect, from 'the creation to this day. If they shall confine themselves 'to the country, they have this for their cheap diversion. 'If they return to the city, this will afford them in every 'shop occasions to INFORM THEIR JUDGMENTS, AND 'NOT TO DEVOUR THEIR ESTATES. If they go forth 'to public service, to the leading of armies or navies, they 'have this for their perpetual counsellor, and very often for 'their preserver. There are so many natural and mechani-'cal things, to be accurately observed by the greatest cap-'tains, as the advantages of different arms and ammunitions, 'the passages of rivers, the streights of mountains, the course 'of tides, the signs of weather, the air, the sun, the wind, 'and the like; that, though I will not determine the know-'lege of nature to be absolutely necessary to the great office 'of a general, yet I may venture to affirm, that it will often 'prove a wonderful assistance and ornament to the course of 'glory which he pursues.'

EAST-INDIA COMPANY. See COMPANIES.

The laws of England in regard thereto.

No person may trade thither, 'till sufficient security be given to the commissioners of the customs, that all the goods caused by them to be there laden, shall be brought, without breaking bulk, to some port of England: which security the English East-India company are to give under their common seal, after the rate of 2500*l.* for every 100 tons they are let at, for every ship by them sent out, according to the form prescribed. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. sect. 68.—6 Ann. cap. 3. sect. 1. But the South-Sea company may, by consent of the East-India company, under their common seal, send yearly to Madagascar four ships to take in negroes to be transported to Buenos Ayres, having first given security to the East-India company, not to trade for any other goods. 13 Geo. I. cap. 8. sect. 1, 2, 3, 6, 7. 3 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 15.

The goods imported from thence, must be brought to some port of Great-Britain, and be there unladen, and be openly and publickly sold by inch of candle, upon forfeiture of their

value. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. ſect. 68.—6 Ann. cap. 3. ſect. 2.

The united company and corporation impowered by theſe acts, are to have the whole, ſole, and excluſive trade to and from thence, and to and from all places between the Cape of Good Hope and ſtreights of Magellan for ever: but ſubject to redemption of parliament by three years notice, after the 25th of March 1780; upon the expiration whereof, and repayment to the ſaid company of the capital ſtock or debt of 4,200,000 l. and all arrears of annuities payable in reſpect thereof, their right and title to ſuch trade are to ceaſe and determine. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. ſect. 80.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. ſect. 9, 10, 11, 12. 17 Geo. II. cap. 17. ſect. 2, 3, 14.

The trade and corporation of the united company continued, although their fund ſhould be redeemed. 10 Ann. cap. 28. ſect. 1.—17 Geo. II. cap. 17. ſect. 12, 15.

Perſons not qualified, going or trading thither, forfeit the ſhip and goods, and double the value thereof: one fourth part to the ſeizer or informer, and the other three fourths to the uſe of the company, who are to bear the charges of proſecution. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. ſect. 80.—13 Geo. I. cap. 8. ſect. 3.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. ſect. 9.—17 Geo. II. cap. 17. ſect. 12.

Any of his majeſty's ſubjects (not lawfully authorized) going to, or being found in the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be guilty of an high crime and miſdemeanor, and may be proſecuted within ſix years, and, being convicted thereof, ſhall be liable to ſuch penalty as the court ſhall think fit. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 1.—7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 1.—9. Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 6.

Every perſon ſo offending may be ſeized and brought to England, and committed to the next county goal, by any juſtice of peace, 'till ſufficient ſecurity be given, by natural born ſubjects or denizens, for their appearance to anſwer the proſecution, and not to depart out of the kingdom without leave. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 2.— 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 7.

Perſons trading or going thither, under foreign commiſſions, forfeit 500 l. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 3.

The South Sea company's trade to any of the limits to which they are intitled, not to be prejudiced by theſe acts. 5 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 5.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. ſect. 15.

Goods traded for contrary to law, forfeited with double the value. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 3.

Contracts for ſhips in foreign ſervices, to trade thither, void. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 2.

Goods not belonging to the company, or perſons licenſed by them, ſhipped on board ſhips bound thither, or taken out of ſhips from thence, before their arrival, forfeited, with double the value; the maſter, privy thereto, forfeits 1000 l. and all his wages. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 4.

Bills of complaint may be exhibited againſt illegal traders, for diſcovery thereof, and recovery of the duty, and 30 per cent. to the company. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 5.

Officers not to proſecute for forfeitures and penalties, without the conſent of the directors of the company. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 7.

The Levant company's trade to the Levant ſeas, not to be prejudiced by theſe acts. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 8. 3 Geo. II. cap. 14. ſect. 16.

Goods, of the product of the Eaſt-Indies, may not be imported into any place belonging to the Britiſh crown, unleſs ſhipped from Great-Britain, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods, or their value: officers of the cuſtoms conniving thereat, or delaying proſecution, forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 9.

None of his majeſty's ſubjects may contribute to, or promote the eſtabliſhing, or carrying on any foreign company trading to the Eaſt-Indies, from any part of the Auſtrian Netherlands, or any other place, upon forfeiture of their ſhare in ſuch company, with treble the value: one third part thereof to the uſe of his majeſty, and two thirds to the uſe of the company, if they inform or ſue, otherwiſe one third part of ſuch two thirds to the uſe of the informer or ſuer. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 2.

Bills of complaint may be exhibited for the diſcovery of offences, and recovery of the ſingle value only, one third part for the uſe of his majeſty, and the other two thirds for the uſe of the company. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 2.

But, if a commom informer declares his intention of proſecution at law, and inſtead thereof, the directors ſhall chuſe to have it commenced by bills of complaint, they are to allow him one third of the aforeſaid two third parts. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 3.

Any of his majeſty's ſubjects accepting of any ſhare in truſt, or knowing any other ſubject to have any intereſt or ſhare in any foreign company, not diſcovering the ſame to the united company, within ſix months, ſhall forfeit treble the value of ſuch ſhares, or one year's impriſonment. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 4.

But making a voluntary diſcovery to the directors in writing, within the time afore limited, to have a moiety of the forfeiture. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 5.

The forfeitures and penalties inflicted by the acts of 9 and 10 Will. III. 6 Ann. 5 Geo. I. and theſe acts may he proſecuted by the attorney-general, the united company, or any officer of the cuſtoms: one third part to be for the uſe of his majeſty, one third to the uſe of the company, and the other to the uſe of the officers. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 6.—3 Geo. II. cap. 14. ſect. 9.

The united company may export ſtores, proviſions, utenſils of war, and neceſſaries for their garriſons and ſettlements, free of duty, provided the duty would not have exceeded 300 l. in any one year. 7 Geo. I. cap. 21. ſect. 13.

A capias in the firſt proceſs, may be iſſued for offences againſt any act for the encouraging and ſecuring the lawful trade thither. 9 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 8.

The duty of 5 l. per cent. for the maintenance of ambaſſadors, &c. is, after 29 September 1714, repealed for goods imported from thence by the Engliſh company. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. ſect. 75, 76, 77.—6 Ann. cap. 17. ſect. 8.

Wrought ſilks, Bengals and ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China, or Perſia, and callicoes printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed there, prohibited to be worn in Great-Britain; and are, upon importation, to pay only the half ſubſidy. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 1, 10.

Such goods to be imported into the port of London only, and there regularly entered, upon forfeiture, and 500 l. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 3.

After entry, to be ſecured in proper warehouſes, approved by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms; and not to be taken thence, but in order for exportation, and until ſufficient ſecurity be given accordingly.

Such ſecurity may be diſcharged, upon certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants, at the place where landed, teſtifying the ſame, or upon proof that the goods were taken by enemies or periſhed at ſea. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 2.

Such bonds not proſecuted within three years, nor judgment obtained within two years after proſecution, void. 8 Ann. cap. 13. ſect. 24, 25.

Officers refuſing to deliver them up accordingly, are to pay damage and treble damages. 8 Ann. cap. 13. ſect. 24, 25.

Proprietors may affix one lock to every warehouſe, and may view, ſort, or deliver ſuch goods for exportation, in the preſence of the warehouſe-keeper, who is to attend at all ſeaſonable times. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 8.

Found in any place other than in the aforeſaid warehouſes, are forfeited, and upon ſeizure muſt be carried to the next cuſtom-houſe, and, after condemnation, are to be publickly ſold by the candle for exportation, the buyers giving ſecurity accordingly: one third part of the produce of ſuch ſale to be paid to the king, and the other two thirds to the ſeizer or proſecutor. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 2.

The perſons knowingly harbouring or ſelling ſuch goods, are likewiſe to forfeit 200 l. one third to the king, two thirds to the proſecutor. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 2.

The place of the manufacture diſputed, the proof to lie upon the owner. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 4.

Warehouſe-keepers are to enter in a book every cheſt, bale, and number of pieces therein contained, brought into, and carried out of the aforeſaid warehouſes; and every ſix months tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, upon oath, an exact account thereof, and of what are then remaining, in order to be by them laid before the parliament in the firſt week of every ſeſſion. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 6.

Within one month after the aforeſaid account has been tranſmitted, the commiſſioners are to cauſe the books and warehouſes to be inſpected, and the account examined; and, if it appears that any goods have been illegally delivered, the warehouſe-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and 500 l. and be diſabled from any public employment. 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 6.

Eaſt-India unrated goods, callicoes, China ware, and drugs of the product of Eaſt-India, or China, landed or taken out of any ſhip before entry, and ſecurity of the duties, or without a warrant from the officers, are forfeited, or their value, two thirds to the uſe of his majeſty, who is to bear the charges of proſecution, and one third to the ſeizer, or ſuer. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 9. § 8. 3 and 4 Ann. cap. 4. § 11.

Wrought ſilks, Bengals, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk, or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or Eaſt-India, or callicoes painted, dyed, printed, ſtained there, imported into this kingdom, and ſecured in warehouſes (purſuant to 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10.) and appearing, upon examination by the proper officer, to be ſtained or damaged, or unfit for foreign markets, unleſs cleaned and refreſhed, dyed, glazed, or calendered, may, by leave of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, be taken out to be ſo manufactured, under the care and in the cuſtody of an officer, appointed by them, bond being firſt given in double the value, to return them again within the time the commiſſioners ſhall think reaſonable to limit.

The officer to be paid for his trouble by the perſon at whoſe requeſt the goods are taken out; and any diſpute ariſing about his allowance, is to be determined by the commiſſioners. 15 and 16 Geo. I. cap. 31. § 9.

The warehouſe-keeper, in the account of the goods received into, and delivered out of the warehouſe (which he is directed to keep, and tranſmit to the commiſſioners upon oath every ſix months, by 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10.) is to inſert an account of all goods delivered out to be cleared, &c. in purſuance of this act, and of what is returned to the warehouſe, with the days and times when, and of what is remaining in the care and cuſtody of the officer of the warehouſe. 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 21. § 10.

Any officer entruſted with the care and cuſtody of the goods delivered out, and not returning them again to the warehouſe, is to forfeit the value of the goods, and 500 l. and be for ever diſabled from any public employment for the future. 15 and 16 Geo. II. cap. 31. § 11.

East-India goods prohibited.

* Wrought ſilks, Bengal, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or Eaſt-India, and callicoes painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there, which have been ſeized as forfeited, being, after condemnation, to be ſold for exportation only; therefore the exporter, beſides paſſing an entry as for other goods, muſt, before ſhipping, give ſecurity for the due exportation.

* 11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 2.

25th of February, 1730.—No. 32.

In the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller maſter, for Rotterdam.

Thomas Brooks.

Three pieces of Indian taffeties
Four Indian damaſk night-gowns
One piece of cherriderry - -
Nine remnants of chints - -
Seven pieces of pelongs - -
} Condemned in Michaelmas term 1730, and for the due exportation whereof ſecurity is given.

A bond for the exportation of prohibited East-India, &c. goods.

Noverint univerſi, &c.

Whereas by an act of parliament made in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III. intitled, An Act for the more effectual employing the poor, by encouraging the manufactures of this kingdom, it is, amongſt other things, enacted, That all wrought ſilks, Bengals, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Perſia, China, or Eaſt-India, and all callicoes painted, dyed, printed, or ſtained there, which ſhall be ſeized as forfeited by virtue of that act, ſhall be carried to the next cuſtom-houſe, and, after condemnation, ſhall be ſold for exportation: and whereas the above-bounden Thomas Brooks did, on the 28th day of January laſt, buy, at a public ſale at the cuſtom-houſe of the port of Southampton, three pieces of Indian taffety, four Indian damaſk night-gowns, one piece of cherriderry, nine remnants of chints, ſeven pieces of pelongs, ſeized by A. B. and condemned in his majeſty's court of Exchequer in Michaelmas term 1730, (being of the ſpecies and manufacture in the ſaid act mentioned) and this day entered outwards in his name, on board the Goodfellow of Hull, William Miller maſter, for Rotterdam.

* Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if, in purſuance of the ſaid act, the ſaid goods, and every part thereof, ſhall be really and truly exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and no part thereof be relanded, or unſhipped, with intent to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain: and, if the above-bounden Thomas Brooks and William Miller ſhall likewiſe bring a * certificate under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, in any place or places beyond the ſeas, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Engliſh merchants upon the place where the ſaid goods ſhall be landed, teſtifying, that ſuch goods, and every part thereof, were there landed; or, in caſe ſuch goods ſhall be taken by enemies, or periſh in the ſeas, ſhall make due proof thereof by credible perſons, before the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms: then this obligation to be void, or elſe to remain in full force and virtue.

11 and 12 Will. III. cap. 10. § 2.

But, if the goods are to be exported to Ireland, then that part of the bond which is inſerted after this mark *, muſt be made as follows:

And whereas by a clauſe in an act made in the fifth year of the reign of his late majeſty, intitled, * An act againſt the clandeſtine running of uncuſtomed goods, and, for the more effectual preventing of frauds relating to the cuſtoms, it is enacted, That no bond given for the exportation of coffee, tea, or other certificate goods exported to Ireland, ſhall be delivered up until a certificate ſhall be produced under the hands and ſeals of the collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor of the cuſtoms, of ſome port in Ireland, or any two of them.

* 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. § 5. 9 Geo. I. cap. 8. § 8.

Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if, in purſuance of the ſaid acts, the ſaid goods, and every part thereof, ſhall be really and truly exported into ſome port in Ireland, and no part relanded or unſhipped with intent to be relanded in any part of Great-Britain: and, if the above-bounden Thomas Brooks and William Miller ſhall likewiſe, in ſix months after the date hereof, produce a certificate under the hands and ſeals of the collector, comptroller, and ſurveyor of the cuſtoms, of ſome port in Ireland, or any two of them, where the ſaid Goods ſhall be landed, teſtifying that the ſaid goods, and every part thereof, were there landed; or ſhall make proof by credible perſons, before the commiſſioners of his majeſty's cuſtoms, that ſuch goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas: then this obligation to be void, or elſe to remain in full force and virtue.

Thomas Brooks, *
William Miller. *

Sealed and delivered in preſence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

A ſhort hiſtory of the East-India company.

This company is the moſt flouriſhing trading company in the kingdom, as likewiſe one of the greateſt in Europe for wealth, power, and immunities; which appears by the ſhips of burden they conſtantly employ, the beneficial ſettlements they have abroad, their large magazines and ſtorehouſes for merchandizes, and ſales of goods at home, with the particular laws and ſtatutes made in their favour.

This corporation was originally formed towards the latter end of the reign of queen Elizabeth, their charter bearing date in 1599. Their charter was renewed by king James I. and alſo by Charles II. in 1662, who added largely to their privileges.—This is the foundation of the company, and was confirmed by king James II.

The ſubſcriptions, or ſhares, in this company, were only of 50 l. originally; the directors having a conſiderable dividend, to make in 1676, it was judged eligible to add the profits of the ſtock, inſtead of withdrawing them; whereby the ſhares were doubled, and became advanced from 50 l. to 100 l.

The firſt capital of this company was no more than 369,891 l. 5 s. which, being doubled by this expedient, amounted to 739,782 l. 10 s. which, if 963,639 l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be 1,703,422 l.

The company ſuſtaining loſſes by the Dutch in India, and by the Great Mogul, began to decline at the Revolution.---The war with France put it into ſo deſperate a condition, that, appearing ſcarc epoſſible to be ſupported, a new one was erected.

The riſe of this new company was occaſioned by the great caſe of the old one being taken into conſideration by the parliament, which caſe had been depending ſome years.----Becauſe of it's intricacy, it had been firſt referred by the parliament to the king, and by him back to the parliament again in the year 1698; when the old company offering to advance 700,000 l. at 4 per cent. for the ſervice of the government, in caſe the trade to India might be ſettled on them, excluſive of all others, the parliament ſeemed inclined to embrace their propoſals.

In the interim, however, another body of merchants, of whom Mr Sheperd was the chief, and who were ſupported by Mr Montague, chancellor of the Exchequer, propoſed to the houſe of commons to raiſe two millions, at 8 per cent. upon condition that the trade to India might be ſettled on the ſubſcribers, excluſive of all others: they propoſed alſo, that theſe ſubſcribers ſhould not be obliged to trade in a joint ſtock; but, if any members of them ſhould afterwards deſire to be incorporated, a charter ſhould be granted to them for that purpoſe.

The parliament judged this new overture not only to be more advantageous to the government, but alſo very likely to ſettle this controverted trade on a better foundation than it was on before: wherefore a bill was brought in for ſettling the trade to the Eaſt-Indies, according to thoſe limitations, and ſome further reſolutions.---In conſequence of which, the old East-India company preſented a petition againſt this bill; which, notwithſtanding, was paſſed in favour of the new company, who obtained a charter of incorporation, dated September 5, 1698, by the name of 'The General Society intitled to the 'advantages given by an act of parliament for advancing a ſum 'not exceeding two millions, for the ſervice of the crown of 'England.' Whereby the ſum total of all the ſubſcriptions was made the principal ſtock of the corporation; and the new company became inveſted with the ſame privileges as were granted to the old company by the charter of king Charles II. However, the old company was by the act indulged with leave to trade to the Indies until Michaelmas 1701.

The fund of this new company became ſo conſiderable, and ſubſcriptions were carried on with ſuch facility, that, in leſs than two years, the company put to ſea 40 ſhips equipped for it's commerce; which was double the number employed by the old company in the moſt flouriſhing times of it's traffick; and they ſent annually, at leaſt, a million ſterling in ſpecie to the Indies, whereas the old company had never ſent above 500,000 l.

The two companies ſubſiſted a few years in a ſeparate ſtate, when, having a due regard to their common intereſts, and for the prevention of ſeveral inconveniencies that might otherwiſe have happened, both to themſelves and the nation in general, they agreed upon ſeveral articles for their union.

Accordingly, in the year 1702, a new charter of union was granted the two companies by queen Anne, under the name of The United company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt-Indies, which was eſſentially the ſame with thoſe of king Charles and king William; becauſe, by the union they adopted all the regulations made for the government of the old company: ſo that the united company ſhould rather be deemed the old company continued, than a corporation erected upon a different eſtabliſhment. Which charter being ſince expired, another, with new powers, was granted them, 'till 1730; and, in the 17th year of king George II. was continued until the 25th of March, 1780; when, on three years notice, and repayment of the capital ſtock borrowed by the government, and the annuities, the company's right to the ſole and excluſive trade to the Eaſt-Indies is to ceaſe and determine.

To the 2,000,000l. advanced by the new company to William III. the united company, in the 6th year of queen Anne, lent the government 1,200,000l. more, which made their whole loan amount to 3,200,000l. being, what may properly be called, the capital ſtock of the company: the firſt loan of 2,000,000l. was ſecured by the government, out of the duties upon ſalt, and the additional ſtamp duties, granted in the 9th and 10th years of William III. chargeable with the payment of 160,000l. as a yearly fund for paying the Intereſt at 8 per cent. but by the act of the 3d of George II. this annuity of 160,000l. was reduced to 128,000l. and tranſferred as a charge upon the aggregate fund; and, in 1749, it was reduced to 3 ½ per cent. until Chriſtmas 1757, and after that to 3 per cent. But, beſides this 3,200,000l. there is a million more due by the public to this company, being lent by them at 3 per cent. in the ſaid 17th year of king George II.

In regard to the œconomy and policy of this company, all perſons, without exception, are admitted members thereof, as well foreigners as natives, men and women; with this circumſtance, that 500l. in the ſtock of the company, gives the owner a vote in the general courts, and 2000l. qualifies him to be choſen a director. The directors are 24 in number, including the chairman and deputy chairman, who may be re-elected for four years ſucceſſively. They have ſalaries of 150l. a year, and the chairman of 200l. The meetings, or courts of directors, are to be held, at leaſt, once a week; but are commonly oftener, being ſummoned as occaſion requires.

Out of the body of directors are choſen divers committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, committee of buying, committee of the treaſury, committee of warehouſes, committee of ſhipping, committee of accounts, committee of private trade, committee of the houſe, and committee to prevent the growth of private trade.

This company is not only granted an excluſive privilege of trade to the Indies, and other extraordinary conceſſions from the government, by their charter, but there are ſeveral acts of parliament made in it's behalf, whereby all the Britiſh ſubjects are reſtrained from going to the Eaſt-Indies, but in virtue of a licence granted by the company, to ſuch who are called free merchants, and trade in the Indies from port to port.—The Britiſh ſubjects, likewiſe, are prohibited from procuring, or acting under any foreign commiſſion, for ſailing to, or trading there; or from ſubſcribing to, or promoting any foreign company, for trading there, under ſevere penalties.

Remarks.

Under the article Dutch East-India Company, the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that we have ſhewn what extraordinary power and dominion that republic hath obtained in Aſia, in conſequence of that noble and glorious eſtabliſhment; and which hath not a little contributed to augment the empire of that ſtate in Europe alſo. From conſidering what has been ſaid, under the articles France, Portuguese East-India Company, and that of the East-India Trade in general, we ſhall be able to make a tolerable judgment, whether it is, or is not, intereſting for England to continue to uphold and maintain their ſhare in this commerce, by means of a well conſtituted company, with the like, or more extenſive privileges and immunities, than what the preſent Eaſt-India company of this kingdom enjoys. And, without having a pretty minute and circumſtantial account of the ſtate of the trade of the other European potentates in Aſia, and all the emolument and empire they derive therefrom, we cannot, it is preſumed, be capable of judging, as we ought, of this important matter.

Some have not ſcrupled to ſuggeſt, that the trade of the Eaſt-Indies is a loſing trade to Europe in general; and even, that no nation ever gains by it. If this be the caſe, it is ſomething extraordinary, that all the principal European potentates ſhould be ſo inſenſible to their intereſt, as zealouſly to cultivate and promote a traffic that is detrimental to them: it is ſtill more to be admired, if this is ſuch a loſing and injurious trade, that, nevertheleſs, new ſtates are ardently ſtruggling to obtain a footing in it: they all carry the ſame on too, by the ſame means; that is to ſay, by joint ſtock excluſive companies, with ſuch privileges and immunities as ſhall give them a degree of weight and influence, in that part of the world, in ſome meaſure proportionate to thoſe which other European powers poſſeſs; in order to maintain ſuch a balance of trade and intereſt among the natives, as may prevent any one potentate engroſſing the whole to themſelves. For, was the whole of this commerce in the hands of any one European ſtate, however ruinous ſome may imagine this trade to be, it ſeems more likely to enable ſuch ſtate to gain the univerſal empire, and maſtery over all Europe, and thereby give law to the whole world.

Wherefore, it ſeems to be for the intereſt of all the chief powers of Europe, not to permit any one of them to obtain too great an aſcendant in this traffic, but to endeavour to take ſome ſhare therein. The queſtion then lies, which are the moſt eligible meaſures for a ſtate to purſue to that end? While all other nations make uſe of powerful joint-ſtock corporations, and thoſe endowed with weighty immunities and encouragements from their reſpective ſtates; it does not ſeem politic, in any of the reſt, to reject the like meaſures; it does not appear very likely, that a regulated company, without a joint-ſtock, ſhould ſo effectually ballance the weight of many others in the Indies with large joint capitals and excluſive privileges; much leſs, perhaps, would they be capable of making any head againſt them, or participating of any tolerable ſhare of that commerce, provided the trade was abſolutely free and open to all the ſubjects of any one trading ſtate, with a regulated company, without a joint trading-fund, and without a degree of ſtrength and dominion, by forts, caſtles, &c. ſomething proportionate to thoſe of other powers: no trading nation, without thoſe advantages in India, could be upon an equality with thoſe who poſſeſſed them; and conſequently could not be ſuppoſed to carry on ſo lucrative a commerce. The better to illuſtrate my meaning, permit me to make uſe of a familiar compariſon, derived from the preſent military ſyſtem, that is about to take place all over Europe: the king of Pruſſia, if I remember right, was the firſt prince who introduced a new military diſcipline in his armies, with a view, on occaſion, to give them ſuperior advantages thereby over an enemy, in the time of action.—When other powers, who are upon the qui vive, were ſenſible of the inequality they might have in combat with armies, diſciplined in a manner ſo highly ſuperior it ſeems, do we not find that the other powers of Europe are ſtriking into the ſame military exerciſe, in order to be upon an equality, in regard to diſcipline? And, if the ſame principle is not purſued, with reſpect to the commercial intereſt of ſtates; if thoſe who are inferior, in point of policy in conducting any branch of trade, to others, can never expect to be equal to them in proſperity therein: on the contrary, they muſt, and will ever be behind-hand with thoſe in ſucceſs, who are beforehand with them in power, wiſdom, and good conduct.

The principle objection againſt our Eaſt-India company is, that it exports our ſilver; but, as it has been ſhewn under the article Bullion, and it's references, and will be further ſhewn, under the head of Money, that it is for the Intereſt of the kingdom to allow a free exportation both of gold and ſilver, the force of this objection, we apprehend, is pretty well obviated.

Money, as a proper medium, is certainly abſolutely neceſſary to the carrying on trade, for, where that fails, men cannot buy, and trade immediately ſtagnates; credit, which is to ſupply that defect, is only the expectation and aſſurance of money, when it is demanded: nevertheleſs, it is a great miſtake, perhaps, though a very common one, to think, that money is the cauſe of a good or bad trade; ſince it is not money that ſo much influences trade, as it is trade that diſcovers the money, which is the medium whereby trade is the more conveniently managed, but not the ſole ſource from whence it ariſes: thus, when trade is quick and briſk, then money, the medium, is more in view than when it is otherwiſe; and then, by changing hands oftener, an hundred pounds makes as great an appearance in commerce as a much greater ſum.

No private trader, or company, ſends money or bullion to other countries, but with a view to gain the more by it. It was a maxim of the wiſe prince Ferdinand the Firſt, great duke of Tuſcany, who raiſed the trade of his ſubjects to an incredible height from nothing, to lend them money, and permit them to ſend the ſame out of his dominions, in the way of commerce. Mr Mun, a very ſkilful and eminent Engliſh merchant, tells us, that he himſelf experienced the duke's liberality, upon the like occaſion, who lent him no leſs than 40,000 crowns gratis, although he knew that he ſhould ſend the whole away, and that in ſpecie too, to Turkey, to purchaſe merchandize; the duke being well aſſured, ſays he, that in the courſe of that trade, the ſame would return again, according to the Italian proverb, with a duck in the mouth. This judicious old gentleman further informs us, that, by this policy, the duke encouraged trade to ſuch a degree, that, of

of his own knowlege, Leghorn, which was only a poor little town, became a fair and ſtrong city; being, in his time, become the moſt famous place of commerce in all Chriſtendom. Well, but if this commerce, by the re-exportation of the merchandizes we import from thence, is not only beneficial to the company, but to the general trade and navigation of the kingdom by our re-exportation of Eaſt-India merchandize; yet it will be aſked, whether it would not prove highly more ſo, if it was laid abſolutely free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects; experience manifeſting, that freedom of trade, and the annihilation of all monopolies, will ever produce greater increaſe and proſperity: This maxim, in the general, is allowed to be ſound policy; but in the caſe before us, it ſeems to be a matter of no little doubt, in relation to the trade of the Eaſt-Indies. For,

Although the government ſhould be at the expence of ſupporting and maintaining forts and caſtles there, or laid a duty upon the trade on all imports or exports, ad valorem; yet, it is greatly to be feared, that ſuch meaſures would not enable the Britiſh nation to maintain that weight of influence, dignity, and commerce, that either the Dutch, the French, or the Portugueſe, at preſent do: nay, ſuch is the peculiar nature of this traffic, that a mere military force, capable only of ſupporting forts and garriſons, might, from the peculiarity of their conduct, be more liable to deſtroy, than cultivate and cement commercial friendſhips, upon a footing equal to thoſe who wiſely conſtitute a proper trading intereſt, at the head of their military, which is abſolutely requiſite upon theſe occaſions.

A regulated company, duly ſupported by a Britiſh government, might certainly be very well deviſed for the temporary ſupport of a general freedom of trade; but, that the nation could permanently preſerve ſuch a diſtant commerce, any thing like what the meaneſt of our rivals therein do, I have never yet ſeen ſatisfactorily proved to the kingdom; and, until it is, I muſt, for my own part, always be an advocate for the continuance of the Eaſt-India company, rather with additional power, privileges, and immunities, than any diminution of thoſe which they at preſent poſſeſs. Nay, with all deference to the judgment of our ſuperiors, in matters of this nature, I muſt confeſs, that I am at a loſs to diſcern the diſadvantage that could ariſe to theſe kingdoms, if our Eaſt-India company were equally powerful in Aſia, even with that of the Dutch; which I have lately ſhewn to have been, and ſtill continues to be, attended with unſpeakable commercial emolument to the Hollanders. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

It is frequently ſaid, that our Eaſt-India company does not trade and exert themſelves to the full extent of their charter; but that, if private traders had the un-reſtrained liberty to drive this trade to the full latitude it would admit of, they would leave no part of the Indies untraded to; eſpecially all that are within the limits and juriſdiction of the Britiſh rights.

In regard to the company's not proſecuting this commerce to its extent, as is pretended that the ſame will admit of, it cannot proceed from a deficiency of capital or credit; and what reaſon have we to believe, that they ſhould be backwards in augmenting their gains to the utmoſt degree in their power? A company, it is ſaid, cannot trade at ſo ſmall an expence, and therefore cannot afford to trade for ſo ſmall profit, as private traders can. This is allowed to be true, in the general; but, before this matter comes to be conſidered, the previous queſtion is, whether we ſhould enjoy any ſhare at all in this trade, if not by virtue of the company's forts and ſettlements? The extenſive correſpondence, and high credit of this company in the Indies, will certainly capacitate them to traffic in every corner of that part of the world, within their rights and privileges, where they can be gainers; and to do ſo where they muſt be loſers, would ſhew little regard to the intereſt of the proprietors: but the point, if I am rightly informed, lies here; ſuch branches of trade, by which the company either cannot gain at all by, or are not ſo gainful as others they prefer to engage in, are actually carried on by private Britiſh merchants, under the company's licence and authority; nor is the company very ſcrupulous, to my certain knowlege, in granting ſuch licences to perſons of reputation; they have readily granted one to a gentleman I had the honour, a few years ſince, to recommend to ſome of the directors of that company.

We are aware of the difference between a general freedom to carry on a trade from Europe to the Eaſt-Indies by Britiſh ſubjects, and a licence to carry on a coaſting trade only in the Indies; but thoſe free merchants who do obtain ſuch licences, and only traffic in ſuch of our own commodities as the company ſhall export, very amply ſupply moſt, if not all places therewith, which are actually within the juriſdiction of the company, and ſometimes, perhaps, without it. It is true there are ſome duties paid to the company, in aid of ſupporting their forts and ſettlements; but conſiderably more, we may preſume, would be laid, for that purpoſe, upon all free Britiſh traders from Europe, ſhould that commerce be ever made free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects.

From what we have urged, we would not be underſtood to ſo much as inſinuate, that the toleration granted to thoſe licenſed

merchants, can be attended with ſuch advantages to our private traders, as they might poſſibly reap, under the circumſtances of an unreſtrained free and open traffic to Aſia from Europe, and all other parts of the world: the difference, we believe, would be very great, as well in point of intereſt to the kingdom in general, as to the ſeparate traders in particular. But what is to be dreaded is, that if we ſhould be induced to lay ſo diſtant a trade open, while our formidable rivals therein carry the ſame on by joint-ſtock companies, with great public encouragements, privileges, and immunities, we ſhould loſe all ſhare therein whatſoever. However, when other European nations lay their Eaſt-India trades entirely open to their reſpective ſubjects, we may venture, I preſume, to follow their example without hazard; and 'till then, it ſeems, in my humble judgement, to be as weak and abſurd, as it would be to ſend a body of unarmed and unammunitioned men into the field, againſt the like number, well ſupplied with artillery, arms, and ammunition.

To purſue this point a degree further, in regard to the continuance of this company.

The trade to the Eaſt-Indies is of ſuch a nature, that it is of the laſt conſequence to the nation to have, from time to time, diſtinct accounts of its ſtate and condition: which could not be ſo well, or at leaſt not ſo eaſily received, if it was not managed by a joint-ſtock company; as on the other hand, the neceſſary inſtructions and regulations could not, with ſuch facility, be any other way conveyed. The conduct of all other nations, who, whenever they have adventured to interfere in this trade, have conſtantly put it under the management of ſuch a company. And whoever ſhall conſider how things are to be diſtributed and conducted in the Indies, and what a connection and dependency there is between the commerce of the ſeveral countries included within the extent of the Eaſt-India company's charter, will eaſily diſcern, that if the whole trade were in the hands of a disjointed number of ſeparate traders, and not under the management and direction of a body of men, converſant and thoroughly experienced therein; and not only capable of giving judicious directions, but duly impowered to ſee thoſe directions carried into execution; it does not ſeem very probable that this commerce ſhould continue proſperous, or even that it ſhould at all ſubſiſt.

It may alſo be conceived, that, if the poſſeſſion of the forts and ſettlements were in the crown, and the management of the trade only in the hands of the company, it could not but be attended with numberleſs inconveniences, as, indeed, experience ſhewed, in the reign of king Charles II. when Bombay came to the crown by his marriage with the Infanta of Portugal; and, therefore, both that iſland, and the iſland of St Helena, have been granted to the Eaſt-India company, for the ſake of public conveniency.

We may likewiſe diſcover, from the diſorder of the company's affairs in that reign, and in the reign of king James, that it is highly detrimental to this commerce, and to the benefits reſulting from thence to the nation, that the company ſhould be immediately under the power of the crown, ſo as to ſtand indebted for all encouragement, and to have no other reſource in caſe of grievances, than what they can draw from royal power; for this on the one hand renders trade precarious, and, on the other, intereſts a great body of people in the ſupport of the prerogative, which might be attended with conſequences injurious to the conſtitution.

Experience has effectually ſhewn the miſchiefs which flowed from the ſubſiſtence of two Eaſt-India companies at the ſame time; ſo great they were, that both companies ſoon became ſenſible, that nothing, but the union of their intereſts, could poſſibly afford a proper remedy. Yet we conceive, that the laying this trade open, which is what hath been often contended for, would be a ſcheme big with ſtill greater evils and inconveniencies, becauſe it would be at the bottom a multiplication of companies, all acting upon ſeparate intereſts, which would certainly be perpetually claſhing and interfering with each other, and give the powerful and united trading intereſt of other nations opportunities to deſtroy them all, and for ever extirpate Britons from the whole Aſiatic traffic. So that as all other countries carry on this trade by joint-ſtock opulent companies, endowed with weighty privileges by their reſpective ſtates, there does not ſeem any other way for us to preſerve the trade; we muſt either ſupport the Eaſt-India company, or reſolve to give up our commerce to the Eaſt-Indies, there being no middle courſe for us to ſteer; and, from a juſt ſenſe of this, we may preſume it was, that ſo much has been done by parliament in favour of this company, and ſo many new powers granted them.

But, notwithſtanding this, it is for the intereſt of the public as well as of the proprietors of the company, that a watchful eye ſhould be had over this company, leſt thoſe privileges and immunities ſhould be abuſed; leſt the commerce ſhould not be conducted as well for the intereſts of the nation, as that of the conſtituents of the corporation. And, if any reaſonable meaſures can be ſuggeſted for the advancement of theſe reciprocal intereſts, they ſhould be laid before the legiſlature: if the company do not extend their traffic to that pitch their charter will admit, whereby the nation and proprietors may

receive the full benefit intended by ſuch a conſtituted company: if this is owing to want of greater powers and immunities than what they at preſent poſſeſs, it is for the intereſt of the public that theſe powers ſhould be enlarged: or, if it can be made appear, that many beneficial branches of trade may be carried on within the limits of their charter, even by ſeparate traders, which the company do not think worth their while to intermeddle with: if this, I ſay, can be fully made appear, there is no reaſon why the nation ſhould loſe the benefit thereof, if they can be proved to be nationally, as well as privately beneficial. But, if on the other hand, ſuch branches of the Eaſt-India trade, as the company do not engage in, would prove detrimental rather than otherwiſe to the kingdom, the public is ſtill the more indebted to the company for neglecting ſuch trade.

Upon the ſuppoſition that private traders could make it appear, that they could vend in the Eaſt-Indies much larger quantities of our native Britiſh commodities than the campany do, and that without importing much larger quantities of India produce and manufactures, in conſequence thereof, for home conſumption, and with more and more far gainful re-exportation: if that proportion of Eaſt-India commerce, ſaid to be neglected by the company, can be propoſed to be carried on by private traders to the intereſt of the nation, and no way detrimental to the company, why do not private traders apply to parliament with ſuch propoſition? If ſuch propoſition was no way injurious to the intereſts of the company, and ſuch traders would chuſe to trade to certain places, and to a certain degree from Europe, under the licence and protection of the company, there is no reaſon to believe, but a Britiſh parliament would be induced to pay all due attention to ſuch propoſition; provided ſuch ſeparate traders would make ſome reaſonable allowance to the company for ſuch their licence and protection.

But, if theſe branches of trade, propoſed to be carried on by private traders, ſhould prove no additional advantage to the nation, but only take ſo much profit out of the ſcale of the company, as they at preſent bring into the kingdom, where would be the greater national emolument by ſuch propoſition?

As many of the gentlemen who are in the direction of that honourable company, have, by their long experience and reſidence abroad, obtained a perfect knowledge of the Eaſt-India commerce; ſo, if any greater advantages can be propoſed to be made by the company, in conjunction with thoſe of the public, we may preſume, from the known honour, integrity, and judgment of theſe gentlemen, they would not neglect them. But, if there ſhould be any beneficial branches of commerce capable of being carried on by the company, and which may have eſcaped the cognizance of theſe honourable gentlemen, I am perſuaded that they would not be unmindful, if any thing ſhould be candidly laid before them for the intereſt of the trade of the company, in conjunction with that of the nation, and private traders alſo.

If, upon due examination, it ſhould be found practicable for the company to open a direct and immediate correſpondence, in order to take off a greater quantity of our commodities, as hath been ſuggeſted, either by the Cape of Good Hope or by the Streights of Magellan, or by any other reaſonable meaſures, with the ſouthern continent; it is reaſonable, that any thing of this kind ſhould be properly recommended to the company; and, if found unexceptionable, in the opinion of competent judges, they ſhould be obliged to make ſuch attempts; or, if they refuſed, that any private perſons might be allowed to undertake them, and have ſuitable encouragements given them by the public. For it muſt be allowed, that this, and all other companies, are but ſo many corporations endowed with powers in truſt for the public, for which they are, and muſt be accountable to the public; and alſo be liable to ſuch alterations, extenſions, and reſtrictions, as may render them more ſerviceable to the public.

The popular objections againſt this company, are as follow:

The firſt is grounded on the exportation of bullion, which is ſtated thus: the common meaſure of all things in a commercial way, is ſilver, and conſequently the great criterion of the wealth of the nation, is her drawing this common meaſure from other nations; but the Eaſt-India trade is carried on by exporting this real, this intrinſic wealth, as it is called by ſome, which never returns, but is employed to bring back things that are not neceſſary, but mere inſtruments of luxury.

Before we proceed to anſwer this objection, which has been done in ſome meaſure en paſſant, it may be requiſite previouſly to obſerve, that the neceſſaries of life are in every country, at leaſt in every habitable country: and it is to what ſome call luxury, that all trade whatever is owing: ſo that, if we admit this principle, we ſhould not only drink ſage inſtead of green tea, but make uſe of honey inſtead of ſugar. We ſhould, in ſhort, endeavour to cultivate and improve the produce of our own country, live upon it, and leave all the reſt of the world to ſhift for itſelf.

How juſt a maxim this would be, for people who inhabit an iſland, and how reaſonable it is for thoſe who derived moſt of the bleſſings they enjoy from trade and maritime power to talk thus, we leave the reader to judge. But, if once we ſet this objection ſo far aſide, as to allow that trade is a commendable thing; that it gives bread to myriads of the human

ſpecies, and makes the country wherein it flouriſhes rich and happy; the particular trade to the Eaſt-Indies becomes as defenceable as any other: for, if exporting of bullion does not impoveriſh the nation, then there is no weight at all in the objection: that it does not under the circumſtances of the preſent Eaſt-India trade, may be thus further urged, in corroboration of what we have ſaid under theſe heads to which we have referred at the beginning of this article.

When the firſt charter was granted to the Eaſt-India company, this evil was foreſeen, and properly guarded againſt by a proviſo, that the company ſhould be obliged to bring in as large a quantity of bullion as they carried out, in the interval between the voyages made, at the riſque of the company. In reality, therefore, there never was any foundation for this complaint, that the quantity of ſilver in this kingdom ſhould be diminiſhed by the Eaſt-India trade. But, by degrees, and as this commerce increaſed, inſtead of impoveriſhing, it has greatly increaſed the wealth of this nation, by bringing in on one hand large quantities of ſilver for the Indian merchandizes re-exported, and detaining here on the other as great ſums of money, that muſt otherwiſe have been exported for foreign produce and manufactures; which would have been worn here, if we had not been better and cheaper ſupplied from India.

It has been formerly objected, that the wearing of India piece-goods prejudiced our own woollen and ſilk manufactures; but this in a great meaſure has been cured by the laws paſſed for that purpoſe. It may not be amiſs, however, to obſerve, that theſe manufactures are chiefly to be encouraged, which contribute to exportation; ſince it is certain, that the cheaper people can be cloathed here, let that cloathing come from where it will, the cheaper they can afford to work: and, it is the cheapneſs of labour, that is the great point to be ſtudied in a trading nation; for, if we can under-work other nations, we ſhall infallibly undermine their trade, and extend our own.

Another objection is, that even the exportation of Indian goods is diſadvantageous to the nation, becauſe it is conjectured to leſſen the conſumption of our own manufactures in thoſe countries to which the produce of India is exported: a very ſtrong objection this, at firſt view, and yet fallacious at the bottom. For this objection ſuppoſes what is manifeſtly falſe; it ſuppoſes that it depends upon our exportation, whether the inhabitants of thoſe countries to which we ſend them, ſhall wear the manufactures of the Indies or not: but it is notorious, that, if we did not, the Dutch or the French would ſupply them therewith; and would not this have the ſame effect as to the excluſion of our manufactures? Wherefore the true ſtate of the queſtion turns here, whether we ſhall take their money, or their goods, for Indian commodities, or whether we ſhall ſubmit to let them lay out that, or part with thoſe for Indian commodities, which we might ſupply to other people? Is not the truth of this ſtill further confirmed, from the ardent endeavours of all thoſe powers, who are ſtruggling to have a direct correſpondence with India, in order to obtain greater quantities of the goods of that country; and does not this manifeſtly prove, that the appetites of thoſe people for theſe things were ſo ſtrong, that it was no way in our power to check or correct them?

The ſole objection then againſt this commerce, that has any real weight, ſeems to lie here, that it is againſt the intereſt of the weſtern to correſpond with the eaſtern part of the world. The reaſons brought to prove this are only plauſible, far from concluſive.—It is ſaid, that the ballance of trade is againſt us; that we import the commodities and manufactures of India, and export ſilver to pay for them.—That this drains Europe to ſuch a degree, as that, ſince the diſcovery of the paſſage by the Cape of Good Hope, the Indians have gained from the Europeans upwards of two hundred millions in ſilver; which immenſe ſum they poſſeſs, while all that we have received from it, is long ſince loſt and conſumed.—This ſay ſome zealous and ſanguine writers, who generally overſhoot the mark of truth, ſufficiently proves, that it would be for the benefit of the weſtern part of the world, if they had no commerce at all with the eaſtern; and that it would be an advantage to Europe in general, if the commerce to the Indies were totally aboliſhed.

Admitting this to be true, how does it concern and affect us? are we the legiſlators of Europe! have we the ſic volo ſic jubeo in our power, to compel the Dutch to diſſolve their company, and recall their ſubjects from the Indies? Can we forbid the French to trade to the Eaſt-Indies, or even the powers of Portugal, Sweden, and Denmark, &c.? Would they not all, and very juſtly too, laugh at us all for our preſumption? Muſt we not then be content to take the world as it lies before us, ſince the humour of trading to India cannot be extinguiſhed? We, as a trading nation, muſt endeavour ſo to manage that humour, and ſo to conduct that commerce, as that both may turn to our advantage. It certainly is for our intereſt not only effectually to maintain and ſupport the acquiſitions made by our company in that part of the world, but to enable the company to enlarge and extend their power and commerce; while the reſt of the world have a taſte for theſe commodities, we muſt engage the company to take off as

large

large a quantity of our own produce and manufactures as is poſſible: let us alſo duly encourage the exportation of ſuch goods and manufactures as the company brings home, as being of great conſequence to the trade of the nation: let us at all events, and by whatever means it can be done, prevent the ſmuggling of Indian commodities into theſe kingdoms; for ſuch as promote that practice, are the greateſt enemies to our commerce, and cannot gain a ſingle ſhilling without robbing the nation of five.

Upon the whole, it ſeems evident that our commerce to the Eaſt-Indies is one great wheel that moves many other; nor does there appear to be any reaſon for diſſatisfaction at ſeeing it managed by an excluſive company, which is now conſtituted on a very good baſis for the national intereſts; and, though our commerce thither is carried on in this ſhape, yet it is certainly beneficial to the kingdom in general.—Nor do the objections againſt the company appear to be of that weight, as ſome warm people, who ſeem, I am afraid, to be too much miſled by the word monopoly, imagine; for 'tis certainly more eligible, that a body of our own ſubjects ſhould engroſs the advantages ariſing from this trade, than that other nations ſhould monopolize the whole to themſelves, and leave us no ſhare therein: and there is infinitely more reaſon to believe that this would be the caſe, if this trade was laid open, than while it continues in the hands of a powerful and opulent company, whoſe affairs are wiſely, equitably, and honourably conducted.

It imports us, at this juncture more than ever, to be well informed, and clearly convinced as to theſe things; becauſe moſt certain it is, that there never was a conjuncture when the thorough underſtanding of them was of ſo great conſequence to the public intereſts.

In our conſiderations upon the nature of this trade, it ſhould never be forgot, that, ſince the Europeans have carried it on, their ſhipping and commerce in general have been much extended; from the time the Portugueſe diſcovered the paſſage by the Cape of Good Hope, the face of Europe has been entirely changed, and this nation in particular, has grown infinitely more conſiderable in compariſon of other parts of the world, than it was before we engaged in this commerce. And,

If the trade of the Eaſt-Indies has carried out ſome millions of our ſilver wealth, may we not reaſonably enough aſk, how we came by thoſe millions? Has it not been from America and the Weſtern Indies! And, how came theſe to be diſcovered? Was it not by ſearching out a new paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies? If, therefore, by carrying on the commerce of the Eaſt-Indies, we have fallen upon another commerce, which has not only ſupplied ſilver ſufficient for the Eaſt-India trade, but likewiſe brings in annually an immenſe treaſure beſides, there can be no pretence for imagining that Europe in general has been, or ever can be, a loſer by carrying on this traffic. Providence ſeems to exclude theſe narrow notions, and, by dividing the treaſures of the world in ſuch a manner as to make commerce the intereſt of all nations, has provided effectually againſt this imaginary evil of trading, 'till we have nothing wherewith to trade.

Beſides, the Europeans owe many other great advantages to this commerce in the Eaſt; it being the great ſupport of the maritime power of Europe, and making us maſters of all the other parts of the globe; who, if it had not been for this maritime power, might long ſince have been maſters of us. Let any man conſider the wide difference, in point of dominion, number of ſubjects, and whatever elſe contributes to magnificence and power, between the little republic of Holland, and the great empires of Turkey, Perſia, and India; and remember, that this commerce has rendered a company, in that little republic, formidable even to all thoſe great and mighty empires, and capable of maintaining herſelf, and protecting her concerns againſt them all: theſe facts being duly attended to, do they not irrefragably demonſtrate the high importance of this commerce, and that it was a very wiſe and right meaſure to promote and encourage it? Can there be a clearer and ſtronger demonſtration than this, which is founded on experience as well as reaſon? Might not the point be ſafely reſted here, without further conſideration? See the Article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, the article FRANCE, and EAST-INDIA TRADE in general.

Before we leave this point, we'll take leave only to obſerve, that, if the intereſt, weight and power of our Eaſt-India company can be further promoted in Aſia than it is, it certainly muſt prove proportionably to the benefit and advantage of the public in general, as well as of the corporation in particular. Nay, if ever the time ſhould come, from a change in the circumſtances of the European commerce, that it may be judged expedient, by a Britiſh legiſlature, to lay this trade abſolutely open, the more the Britiſh intereſt is advanced by the company before ſuch a change ſhould take place, would it not tend the more to the intereſt of private traders in general, when they ſhould take poſſeſſion of that traffic? That it certainly would, no man who conſiders the matter with candor and diſpaſſion, will gainſay.

The Dutch have done every thing to increaſe their dominion in Aſia; and, having prodigious numbers of the native inhabitants under their power, have introduced the European cuſtoms, modes, and habits among great numbers of them. By which means they have obtained not only a greater vent for European manufactures in general amongſt the native Aſiatics than any other ſtate that trades there, but as great a quantity, perhaps, as they all do together.—Could our Eaſt-India company be effectually enabled to bring the natives, in like manner, under their controul and authority, what immenſe quantities of our Britiſh commodities and manufactures might we not alſo vend in this EASTERN COMMERCE? Could this be done before the trade ſhould be laid open, what unſpeakable emolument would ariſe to private traders, and to the kingdom in general, in conſideration of ſuch additional proſperity to the company?

Further REMARKS, how far the Eaſt-India company may be inſtrumental to increaſe the trade of the nation.

The mere eſtabliſhment of forts, ſettlements, and factories upon the ſea-coaſts, do not ſeem to be ſo well calculated for an extenſive commerce, as having populous colonies under dominion; which are governed by principles and maxims ſubſervient to the intereſt of the mother-country. But, however impracticable it may appear to ſome, to increaſe the power of our Eaſt-India company in Aſia, and thereby render them capable of exporting far greater quantities of our native produce and manufactures than they at preſent can; yet there is one very great advantage that this company, I apprehend, may be inſtrumental to procure to theſe kingdoms, before ever it's annihilation ſhall be thought of; and which, perhaps, never can be accompliſhed, not effectually accompliſhed, but by the means of ſo powerful and opulent a company.

The matter I would humbly preſume only to ſuggeſt at preſent, is ſimply this, viz.

That whereas it is allowed on all hands, that the INLAND TRADE to AFRICA hath hitherto been but very triflingly cultivated by any, or all the European powers, who are therein intereſted, in compariſon to the extent the ſame will admit of: and whereas the principal obſtruction hereunto, ſeems to be the great attention that theſe powers have choſe to give to that unnatural, unjuſt, cruel, and barbarous commerce, commonly called the SLAVE TRADE, and the little regard that has been given to a natural, juſt, humane, and civilized commerce, with thoſe people; and whereas the trade to Africa, with reſpect to theſe kingdoms, ſeems even yet to remain unſettled, as being again, according to report, to be brought under the conſideration of parliament: it is humbly propoſed:

(1.) That every branch of the trade to Africa, excepting that which is commonly called the ſlave-trade, ſhall be given to the Eaſt-India company by act of parliament, with an excluſive privilege for —— years; with ſuch other encouragements and immunities as to the wiſdom of the legiſlature ſhall ſeem meet.

(2.) That the forts and caſtles in Africa, and every thing thereto appertaining, which belongs to the public, be veſted in the Eaſt-India company, and the annual ſupport which is now allowed by parliament to the preſent African company, ſhall be granted to the ſaid Eaſt-India company, in order the better to enable them to ſupport and maintain theſe forts and caſtles already erected in Africa.

(3.) That any one or more of thoſe forts upon the coaſt of Africa, except Cape Coaſt-Caſtle upon the Gold-Coaſt, or James Fort in the River Gambia, be veſted in the private and ſeparate Britiſh traders, in order the better to accommodate them, in their carrying on the ſlave-trade; which forts ſhall be duly maintained and ſupported by the Eaſt-India company, at the ſtated ſum of 10,000l. per annum.

(4.) That the whole ſlave-trade be left in the hands of the ſeparate Britiſh traders; and that the Eaſt-India company ſhall have no toleration whatſoever to interfere therein, with the intereſt of the ſeparate Britiſh traders.

(5.) That every other branch of the African Trade ſhall be ſolely under the controul, direction, and management of the ſaid Eaſt-India company.

(6.) That the Eaſt-India company, when poſſeſſed of theſe additional powers and privileges, ſhall be diſtinguiſhed by the name of The Royal Eaſt-India and African Company, or by whatever other appellation the wiſdom of parliament may judge the more eligible.

(7.) The one half of the commodities ad valorem, to be vended in Africa by the ſaid Royal Eaſt-India company, ſhall be of Britiſh produce and manufacture, and the other half of the produce and manufactures of the Eaſt-Indies.

(8.) That the ſaid Royal Eaſt-India and African company ſhall be obliged to erect —— inland forts and factories at their own expence, in order to facilitate trade between the moſt interior parts of Africa and the ſea-coaſt.

REMARKS.

If the whole African trade, except that part commonly called the ſlave trade, was abſolutely veſted in the Eaſt-India company,

pany, upon ſome reaſonable terms and condition, there is no doubt to be made, but that trade would, by means of ſo powerful and wealthy a company, be carried on to the very center of that great extended and populous country: and what immenſe quantities of our own, as well as of the Eaſt-India commodities, might be vended among theſe people, is not eaſy to ſay; eſpecially if theſe negro people could be gradually civilized, and brought generally to wear, and otherwiſe conſume the European and Indian commodities. But it can never be expected, without the erection of interior forts and factories; and thoſe duly maintained and upheld by a powerful company, with a large joint trading ſtock, that this trade will ever be encreaſed to the degree it is capable of. And, as it would be the intereſt of this company to cultivate the inland commerce to the utmoſt extent, as having no manner of concern with the ſlave trade, there is all reaſon to believe, that where we now export twenty ſhillings worth of commodities to Africa, we might then perhaps export one hundred pounds worth. There are conſiderable quantities of the Eaſt-India goods at preſent ſent to Africa; but, if that company were ſo ſettled there as to increaſe the commerce in that part of the world, to the degree it is certainly capable of, the conſumption of thoſe would certainly, as well as that of Britiſh commodities in general, increaſe beyond imagination. And we very well know, that thoſe people have the valuable commodities of ivory, gums, dyeing woods, gold, &c. &c. and doubtleſs, when the trade came to be extended to the degree it will admit of, there would be diſcovered an infinite variety of trafficable particulars, with which the Europeans at preſent are totally unacquainted.

So well conſtituted a company, ſupported for half a century only, with ſuch powers and privileges as before intimated, or with ſuch others as ſhall make it for the intereſt of the company to drive the inland trade to it's utmoſt height, would be inſtrumental, we may reaſonably believe, to make Britons, as well acquainted with the interior territories of that extended country, as they at preſent are with the coaſt only. So that if the wiſdom of the nation ſhould, at any time hereafter, judge it for the public intereſts to deprive this company of it's excluſive Aſiatic privilege of trade, and lay the trade quite open; would not the ſeparate traders and the public in general, reap unſpeakably greater advantage by the commerce of Africa, than they ever poſſibly can do, if ſome powerful company does not undertake the eſtabliſhment of this very extenſive and gainful branch of commerce?

Nor do we apprehend that ſeparate traders can have the leaſt reaſon to complain, or object againſt the eſtabliſhment of ſuch an extended commerce into the heart of Africa, as may eaſily be effectuated by virtue of ſo well conſtituted a company, and perhaps, by no other meaſures whatſoever.

Having endeavoured, to the beſt of my power and ability, to inform myſelf, in regard to what has been urged againſt every kind of trading company that has exiſted in this nation; I am not unapprized of what may be objected againſt my own propoſition, and particularly what may be offered from the conſideration of the miſcarriage of the late Royal African company: from which ſome probably may pleaſe to argue, that it is impoſſible for any kind of African company long to ſubſiſt, without annihilation of their trading capital.

But, with all deference to the judgment of thoſe who are pleaſed to think ſo, I would beg leave to ſubmit a ſhort paragraph or two to their impartial reflection.---With reſpect to this late company, it muſt be obſerved, that they were never bottomed upon a parliamentary conſtitution; that they were ever in the precarious ſituation of depending only upon the royal prerogative, without any parliamentary ſanction. 'Tis no wonder, therefore, that they could never raiſe above the capital ſtock of a hundred thouſand pounds; the bulk of which was ſoon ſunk in the purchaſe, repairs, and erection of forts and caſtles; in conſequence of which, they had ſo trifling a ſtock left wherewith to trade, that it was not poſſible, under all theſe diſadvantages and diſcouragements, they ſhould ever make a tolerable progreſs in this commerce, any way proportionate to the apparent extent it is capable of. Where is the admiration, therefore, that a company, erected upon ſo ſandy a foundation, ſhould never be able to ſupport it's head, and at length ſink?

As this trade has yet never had a fair trial, by means of a company founded upon parliamentary authority, no man can preſume to ſay, that what has never been tried will miſcarry.

See the articles DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY, FRANCE, and BULLION.

REMARKS.

The following caſe, containing ſome argument that tends to explain and illuſtrate the nature and computation of the cuſtom-houſe duties, in regard to Eaſt-India commodities, I judge it may be uſeful to record the ſame in this work.

De Term. Sanct. Hill. 10 Annæ.

In the EXCHEQUER.

Sir Edward Northey, Knt. her majeſty's attorney-general, on behalf of her majeſty, plaintiff; and the united company of merchants of England, trading to the Eaſt-Indies, defendants.

The information ſets forth, That, by the laws and ſtatutes of this realm, there are ſeveral cuſtoms, impoſitions, and other duties payable to her majeſty, her heirs and ſucceſſors, at the cuſtom-houſe, upon goods, wares, and merchandizes, imported from Perſia, China, or the Eaſt-Indies: in all thoſe duties, there is a diſtinction between the groſs duties and net duties. The groſs duty is the ſum per cent. given or granted by the ſeveral acts of parliament, which direct ſmall allowances to be made thereout to the merchants for prompt payment; and, thoſe allowances being deducted, the remainder is the net duty payable to the crown: all which duties are to be collected and levied in ſuch method, and with ſuch abatements and allowances as are thereby preſcribed, viz. where any of ſuch commodities are particularly rated in the book of rates, there the ſaid duties are to be collected and levied according to ſuch rates. But where any of the ſaid commodities are not mentioned or ſet down in the ſaid book of rates, nor any value put upon them, there the value of ſuch goods according to which the duties are to be paid (except coffee) are to be reckoned according to the groſs price at which ſuch goods ſhall be ſold openly and fairly, by way of auction, or by inch of candle; making ſuch allowances only out of the ſame, as are provided by an act made 2 Annæ reginæ, intitled, An act for granting to her majeſty an additional ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage for three years, and for laying a duty on French wines, and for aſcertaining the value of unrated goods, imported from the Eaſt-Indies (which act, by another act 4 Annæ, is continued for ninety-eight years). By which act it is enacted, That, out of the value of the ſaid goods ſo to be aſcertained by the price at the candle, there ſhould be a deduction and allowance made of ſo much as the net duties, payable to her majeſty for the ſame goods reſpectively, do amount unto (except the duty of 5 l. per cent. payable to the queen for the uſe of the company) and of ſo much as the company, bona fide, ſhall allow for prompt payment to the perſons, who, at ſuch ſales, ſhall buy the ſaid goods at times (which is uſually reckoned at 6 l. 10 s. per cent. upon the groſs price) and alſo upon the whole values of the ſaid goods ſo to be aſcertained, by the price at the candle, there ſhall be deducted and allowed 6 l. for every 100 l. for the company's charges in keeping ſuch goods, from the time of importation 'till the ſale by the candle; and in that proportion for a greater or leſſer value. By which ſaid clauſe, the values of ſuch unrated goods, according to which the duties are to be collected, muſt be ſuch values as remain after the three deductions and allowances before-mentioned, are made out of the groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle; and, when thoſe allowances are deducted out of the groſs price, the duties are to be collected and paid for the remaining ſum.

The allowance of the net duties is appointed to be only of ſuch net duties as are payable to the crown, that is, what the crown actually receives for the ſame goods reſpectively; which, for an example, in the caſe of China ware, are computed at 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. ½, in every 100 l. groſs value. Therefore, deducting the 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. ½, together with 6 l. 10 s. for prompt payment to the buyer at the time, and 6 l. for charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale, making in all 42 l. 9 s. 7 d. ½ out of each 100 l. groſs value of China wares ſold, the remaining ſum, according to which the duties are to be reckoned and collected, will be 57 l. 10 s. 4 d. ½, and no leſs; and, according to that proportion, the crown is intitled to receive for duties, in every 100 l. groſs value of China wares ſo ſold, the ſaid ſum of 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. ½; and ſo pro rata for a greater or leſſer value, as appears by the ſpecimen No. 2. following, as was annexed to the information.

By other acts of parliament, there is a duty of 15 l. per cent. laid upon muſlins and callicoes, over and above all other duties; which duty is to be reckoned according to the groſs price at which ſuch goods are ſold: and if the ſame be paid to the crown within twenty days after the ſale (ſuch ſale being made within twelve months after the importation thereof) there is a diſcount of 5 l. per cent. allowed, which reduces the ſaid 15 l. to 14 l. 5 s. per cent. and therefore, to aſcertain the other duties chargeable upon that commodity, there muſt be a reduction of the ſaid 15 l. to 14 l. 5 s. per cent. out of every 100 l. groſs price, as well as of the ſaid other three allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 d. and of the other net duties, actually paid to the crown, computed at 19 l. 0 s. 11 d. which ſaid four allowances, making together 45 l. 15 s. 11 d. being deducted out of each 100 l. groſs price, the remaining ſum, according to which the ſaid other duties are to be collected for callicoes and muſlins, will be 54 l. 4 s. 1 d. and no leſs.

And the information further ſets forth, that, between the 8th of March, 1703, the time the ſaid act of parliament commenced, and the 12th of February, 1711, the defendants had imported into this kingdom great quantities of unrated goods from the Eaſt-Indies, and other parts, liable to pay the ſeveral duties charged upon the ſame, which they had long ſince ſold, and refuſed to pay the crown the duties for the ſame, according to the computations in the following ſpecimens, No. 2 and 4, which the attorney-general annexed to the information,

formation, and prayed that they might be taken as part thereof; and that the defendants took advantage of the practice formerly uſed by the officers of the cuſtoms, who, in computing the ſaid duties, had deducted more out of the groſs price for the net duties than what ought to be deducted; by means whereof, the crown received leſs for the ſaid duties than what ought to have been paid; and that the defendants inſiſted, that no more ought to be paid to the crown for ſuch unrated goods than what ariſes from the groſs price thereof, upon ſale by the candle, after a deduction made not only of the net duties payable to the crown for the ſame goods, but of the duties for the groſs price at the candle, amounting to 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. which was deducting duties upon ſuch duties, and alſo upon the ſaid allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. making in all 64 l. 12 s. 6 d. which being deducted out of 100 l. the groſs price of China ware, reduces the ſame to 35 l. 7 s. 6 d. and the duties then ariſing from ſuch reduced value, amounted to no more than 18 l. 8 s. 9 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; by which method of computation, the duties for every 100 l. groſs value of China ware, would be leſs by 11 l. 10 s. 10 d. than what ought really to be paid, according to the true method of computation, as appeared by the following ſpecimen, No. 2. compared with the defendants ſpecimen following, No. 3. which was alſo annexed to the ſaid information.

And the attorney-general further ſet forth, That, in the inſtances of callicoes and muſlins, the defendants inſiſted on the like deduction of duties upon duties, and alſo of duties upon the ſaid allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. thereby reducing the 100 l. groſs price at the candle to 38 l. 2 s. 3 d. and that the duties ariſing from that reduced value amounted to no more than 13 l. 7 s. 10 d. by which means the duties, payable to the crown for every 100 l. groſs value of callicoes and muſlins, would be leſs by 5 l. 13 s. 1 d. than what ought to be paid, as appeared by the ſpecimen following, No. 4. compared with the defendants ſpecimen, No. 5. following, which was alſo annexed to the information; and that, likewiſe, in all other caſes of unrated goods imported from the Eaſt-Indies, the defendants inſiſted upon the like manner of deducting the duties, and reducing the groſs price, ſo as the crown loſt a conſiderable proportion of the duties which ought to be received.

And farther ſetting forth, that the commiſſioners and officers of the cuſtoms had required the defendants to pay to the crown the duties of ſuch unrated goods imported by the defendants within time aforeſaid, as the ſame had been computed in the method before ſet forth, viz. reckoning the duties of 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. $\frac{1}{2}$, to be due for every 100 l. groſs value of China ware, and 19 l. 0 s. 11 d. to be due for every 100 l. groſs value of callicoes and muſlins, beyond the 15 l. or 14 l. 5 s. per cent. as it ſhould happen, and ſo pro rata for a greater or leſſer value, and alſo reckoning the duties of the other unrated goods according to their reſpective proportions; but that the now defendants had refuſed to account with the crown for the duties of China ware, callicoes and muſlins, or any other unrated goods, upon the foot of the ſaid computation, or to pay the monies due or payable to the ſame; by reaſon whereof ſeveral great ſums of money, exceeding in the whole 20,000 l. were ſtill due and unſatisfied to the crown from the defendants, for the duties of ſuch unrated goods.

Wherefore it was prayed by the information, that the defendants might account with her majeſty for the duties of the ſaid unrated goods, according to the ſpecimens No. 2 and 4, following, and that the method thereby propoſed, of collecting the duties upon unrated goods, by making a deduction out of the groſs price of ſuch ſum only, for net duties as the crown actually received for the ſame goods reſpectively, might be eſtabliſhed by the decree of the court.

To which information the defendants put in their anſwer, and thereby inſiſted, That the duties of the unrated goods had been always paid by them according to the ſpecimens, No. 3 and 5, following, which they apprehend to be according to the obvious meaning of the ſaid act, 2 Annæ reginæ, and to the ancient and known practice of the cuſtom-houſe in collecting the duties; and, according to which, all merchants in England had paid cuſtoms upon unrated goods, and that the method of computation inſiſted on by the attorney-general would be attended with great difficulties and delays.

And farther, that ſeveral goods had been ſold by them at the public ſales by the candle, part whereof did not belong to the defendants, but were for the account of private perſons, who had liberty to trade to the Eaſt-Indies, and of whom they received no more for their cuſtoms than what the ſame amounted to by the old method of computation, which was publickly known and allowed, by the officers of the cuſtoms; and that the ſum which was univerſally taken and underſtood, at the time of ſale, to be the duties for thoſe goods, was the rule for the drawback upon the exportation thereof; and that, if the duties had been then known to be higher, the drawback muſt have been ſo likewiſe, and that would, in ſome meaſure, have raiſed the price (though not equal to the advance of the duties) as well of the goods for domeſtic conſumption, as of thoſe for exportation; ſo that it would be a manifeſt loſs to the defendants, if, by a new conſtruction, they ſhould be made liable to a higher duty, and hoped they ſhould not be obliged to the intricate way of computation propoſed in the information, but that they might account for the duties according to the ancient method.

And the ſaid defendants farther inſiſted, that, where callicoes and muſlins had been expoſed to ſale openly, by auction, or by inch of candle, within twelve months after the importation thereof, and the ſaid goods, for want of a market, could not be ſold within that time, and had been ſold afterwards, that, in ſuch caſe, upon payment of the duty of 15 l. per cent. on ſuch goods, within twenty days after the time of ſale, the defendants were intitled to the allowance of 5 l. per cent. in the act mentioned, although ſuch ſale happened to be after the expiration of the ſaid twelve months.

The attorney-general having replied, and the cauſe being at iſſue, divers witneſſes were examined, as well for the queen as for the defendants; and the cauſe came on to be heard February 10, 1714, when the court took time to give their opinions therein: and, the cauſe coming again to be heard on the 25th of the ſame February, the court unanimouſly declared, that the deduction, or allowance, which was to be made to the defendants, for duties payable to her majeſty out of the groſs price, at the candle, of unrated Eaſt-India goods, ſhould be the very ſame, and no other, than that which the defendants ſhould pay to her majeſty for the ſame goods reſpectively; and that the methods inſiſted upon by the defendants, for aſcertaining the values, and computing the duties, of the ſaid unrated Eaſt-India goods, and, as the defendants in their anſwer had ſet forth, had been to that time uſed by the officers of the cuſtoms, were not according to the direction of the ſaid act of parliament of the ſecond year of her late majeſty's reign, but erroneous, and liable to great abſurdities; and that the methods inſiſted upon by the attorney-general, in his information, for aſcertaining the values, and computing the duties, of the ſaid unrated goods, and contained in the ſpecimens No. 2 and 4, following, were the right and true methods for aſcertaining the values, and computing the duties, of the ſaid unrated goods, purſuant to the direction, intent, and meaning of the ſaid act of parliament; which ſaid two ſpecimens the court did ratify and confirm, and decree to be obſerved and practiſed by the officers of the cuſtoms, as the true and right methods for aſcertaining the values, and computing the duties of unrated Eaſt-India goods, agreeable to the directions of the ſaid act of parliament.

And the court farther declared, that the allowanee of 5 l. per cent. made to the defendants, ought not to be made out of the ſaid duty of 15 l. per cent. charged upon muſlins and callicoes, but where the ſale thereof ſhould be made within twelve months after the importation of thoſe goods; and the ſaid duty of 15 l. per cent. paid within twenty days after the time of ſuch ſale, according to the directions of the ſaid act of parliament, in ſuch caſe provided, and not otherwiſe.

And the court thereupon did order and decree, that the defendant ſhould account with her majeſty for the duties due to the crown for the ſeveral unrated goods, which had been by them imported ſince the 8th of March 1703, according to the ſpecimens No. 2 and 4 following, confirmed by the court, for ſuch ſums of money as ſhould appear to be due according to thoſe ſpecimens, over and above what had been already paid by them; and it was referred to the deputy remembrancer of the ſaid court, to take the ſaid account, according to the directions and declarations aforeſaid, and to report what was thereupon due from the defendants to her majeſty; but the defendants were therein to account for the duties of their own goods only, and not for the duties of ſuch goods as ſhould appear to belong to private perſons, who had liberty, or were licenſed or permitted by the defendants, to trade to the Eaſt-Indies.

In the taking of which account, the deputy was to make the defendants all juſt allowances, and to be armed with a commiſſion for examination of witneſſes, for proving ſuch account.

Purſuant to this decree, a charge was exhibited before the deputy remembrancer on behalf of the crown, containing an account of the difference of the duties payable for goods which had been imported by the defendants, according to the former method of computation, and of the duties payable by the method eſtabliſhed by the decree, amounting to the ſum of 26,222 l. 1 s. 8 d. $\frac{1}{2}$; in which account the defendants were charged only with the duties of goods imported between the 28th of November 1705, the time of the arrival of the firſt ſhip after they were conſtituted a company, and 7th of September 1713. And a further charge was afterwards exhibited before the deputy on the crown's behalf, for the duties of tea for home conſumption, which had been omitted in the firſt charge, amounting to the ſum of 4029 l. 10 s. 2 d. ſo that the whole charge upon the defendants amounted to the ſum of 30,251 l. 11 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$. The defendants, after great delays, gave in their diſcharge, containing an account of the duties of goods imported by them which were not their own goods, but belonging to private perſons, who had liberty, or were licenſed or permitted by the defendants to trade to the Eaſt-Indies, amounting to the ſum

of 6846 l. 4 s. 4 d. which, by the decree, they were not to account for, and which they craved an allowance of, out of the duties charged upon them in the charge given in on the crown's behalf.

Upon theſe charges and diſcharges divers witneſſes were examined before the deputy on both ſides, and ſo great a progreſs was made in the account, that the deputy was ready to prepare a draught of his report; but, the defendants after all theſe proceedings and length of time, thought fit to appeal from the ſaid decree to the houſe of Lords.

I cannot but obſerve, that this cauſe, ſays the reporter, was defended in the face of the moſt certain of all ſciences, the mathematics. It is alſo againſt the expreſs words of the act, deducting the queen's net duties, and they deduct the groſs duties. And it is alſo againſt the meaning of the act, that the ſubject ſhould pay duty for the queen's duty. And the reſult of their computation is, that all the parts are not equal to the whole: and that, the more duty is laid on, the leſs the queen receives, becauſe you deduct more than you pay; for, the higher you lay the duties, the deductions are the greater. The defendants inſiſted the queen's method was intricate, and framed on fictitious numbers by the operations of algebra, above common capacities. The very title of the act gives an additional duty, and this computation takes it away: they do not ſay the queen's method is wrong, nor that theirs is right: ſo that indeed the calculation of the Eaſt-India company was an impoſition in all it's ſignifications, viz. upon the ſubject as a tax, and on the queen by way of fraud. The defendants did acquieſce for * ſeventeen years before they did appeal, and were ſo well ſatisfied with the juſtice and equity thereof, that they have complied with the calculation thereby eſtabliſhed, in the payment of theſe duties, ever ſince the decree pronounced in the Exchequer.

* The company had no longer time; for that, by a ſtanding order of the houſe of lords made 24th of March 1725, appeals are to be brought within five years after the decree or order, in the court below, is ſigned and inrolled, &c.

This cauſe was heard in the houſe of lords, on Monday the 19th day of March 1732, and was called, in the houſe of lords, The Algebraic Cauſe; becauſe that was the cleareſt and beſt method of proof: tho' it may be done by vulgar arithmetic.

The ſum which the act charges with the payment of this net duty is called the net value: and this net value has ever the ſame proportion to the net duty, that the groſs value has to the groſs duty. Now the act requires, that the net value, charged with the payment of the net duty, ſhould be the groſs value, diminiſhed by two ſeveral ſums; the one is the ſum 12 l. 10 s. part of the allowance to the company, for warehouſe room 6 l. per cent, and that for prompt payment 6 l. ½ per cent. already determined and known; the other is, the net duty payable, which is quite unknown, and the only thing wanting. For it is expreſsly ſaid in the act, that the net duty payable on the 100 l. groſs value of Eaſt-India goods, is not to be reckoned into the net value: and conſequently, the net duty payable (whatever it is) together with the company's allowance, muſt be deducted from the groſs value, and the remainder is to be the net value charged to pay the net duty payable: ſo that the meaning of the act is no more, than that the ſum or net value, paying net duty, ſhould be the groſs value, leſſened by that very duty, and alſo by the company's allowance.

Now, in the manner of computing by the direction of this act, there are two very different methods, viz, a right method and a wrong one: And a very ignorant accountant cannot readily ſee how the net duty payable (which is as yet unknown) can be ſubducted from the groſs value, in order to find the net value, paying the net duty: and therefore, without any farther conſideration, he ſubducts the groſs duty (inſtead of the net duty payable) together with the company's allowance, out of the groſs value, and takes the remainder for the net value paying duty; and concludes, that this net value has the ſame proportion to the net duty, that the groſs value has to it's groſs duty.

While the company's allowances continue to be 12 l. 10 s. as they now are, it is not in the power of parliament to lay a groſs duty on the 100 l. groſs value, that can poſſibly yield to the crown a net duty of above 19 l. 2 s. 9 d. ¾; and, in order to raiſe ſo much duty, the 100 l. groſs value muſt be charged with only 43 l. 15 s. groſs duty: if the 100 l. groſs value is charged with more, as it is at preſent with 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. groſs duty (on China ware) it muſt by this method of computation, produce a leſs net duty, as now it does only 18 l. 8 s. 9 d. ¾; whereas, in computing by the method directed in the act, it would produce 29 l. 19 s. 7 d. ½, net duty; and, if the 100 l. groſs value was ſtill charged with a greater groſs duty, it would conſequently, by the common method of computation, ſtill produce a leſs net duty. This their method of computing, as it is grounded upon a ridiculous ſuppoſition, ſo the practice thereof ſeems to be involved in one continued blunder; as if the intention of the act ſhould be, that, the more impoſition is laid, the leſs will be the duty payable to the crown; or that the real deſign of the act, was to leſſen the duty by laying on a greater.

In the next place, if the 100 l. groſs value was charged with 87 l. 10 s. groſs duty, and the company's allowance 12 l. 10 s. the net duty produced would be nothing; for, by this method of computing, the net duty of 100 l. groſs value, becomes nothing whenever the groſs duty charged on 100 l. groſs value, is equal to the exceſs of 100 l. above the company's allowance. So that while the company's allowance is 20 l. per cent. no duty can be laid on the 100 l. groſs value, that will yield the crown a net duty of above 16 l.

It is indeed ſtrange, that any body ſhould be able to find a difficulty in ſuch an eaſy affair as this is; an accountant but indifferently ſkilled, would by the rule of common ſenſe only, and common arithmetic, as uſual in the like caſes, inveſtigate a general method, whereby the computation will be ſtrictly performed.

By this true method of computation, the ſum of the net value, it's net duty, and the company's allowances, is equal to, or makes up the groſs value 100 l. as being the ſeveral parts whereof it conſiſts: but, by the method hitherto uſed, what they call the net value, it's net duty, and the compan's allowances, will not make up the whole groſs value, though eſteemed to be all the parts thereof; and this computation may be made by the common rule of three in vulgar arithmetic, as well as by algebra.

After the matter had been fully argued, the houſe of lords were unanimouſly of opinion, that the judgment in the Exchequer, in this cauſe, ſhould be affirmed; with this variation, that the account which the appellants were to make to the crown, ſhould be taken from the time the information was exhibited only, and not from the 8th of March 1703.

The following ſpecimens were printed on the appeal in 1732.

Specimen, No. 2.

Containing the method inſiſted upon by the attorney-general for aſcertaining the values, according to which the duties are to be paid to his majeſty, upon unrated China wares, referred to by the information in the court of Exchequer, and confirmed by the decree of that court.

The granted or charged duties by the ſeveral laws and ſtatutes now in force upon 100 l. value of unrated China wares, are as follow, viz.

	Groſs duties.			Allowance for prompt payment.			Net duties.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Subſidy by 12 Car. II.	7	10	00	00	07	06	07	02	06
Impoſt by 2 W. & M. cap. 4.	20	00	00	01	05	00	18	15	00
New ſubſidy by 1 queen Anne	7	10	00	00	07	06	07	02	06
⅓ ſubſidy by 2 queen Anne	2	10	00	00	02	06	02	07	06
12 per cent. by 3 queen Anne	12	00	00	00	00	00	12	00	00
⅔ ſubſidy by 3 queen Anne	5	00	00	00	05	00	04	15	00
	54	10	00	02	07	06	52	02	06

EXAMPLE.

The groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle - - - -				100 0 0
The allowance made for prompt payment to the buyer at time	6	10	0	
The allowance made to the company for charges in keeping the goods till ſale - - -	6	0	0	
Together ———				12 10 0
Remains				87 10 0
Then ſay, as 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. is to 100 l. ſo is 87 l. 10 s. to the net value - - - -				57 10 4½
According to which reduced value the net duties payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods (in proportion as 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. is to 100 l.) will be - - - -				29 19 7½
To which reduced value and net duties ariſing from thence, if there be added the allowances of 6 l. 10 s. to the buyer at time, and of 6 l. to the company for their charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale, making together - - - - - -				12 10 0
You will thereby diſcover the truth of the propoſition, by obſerving that theſe parts make up the groſs price or full value without any defect or exceſs - - -				100 0 0

Again,

Again,

The groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle - - -	100 0 0	
The net duties payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods - -	29 19 7½	
The allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. making - - -	12 10 0	
Together ———		42 9 7½
Remains (as above) for the net value - -		57 10 4½

l. s. d.

29 19 7½ the duties payable by this ſpecimen.

18 08 9½ the duties paid by the appellants according to their ſpecimen No. 3. following.

11 10 10 difference to the king.

Specimen, No. 3.

Containing the method inſiſted upon by the appellants, the Eaſt-India company, for aſcertaining the values, according to which the duties are to be paid to his majeſty, upon unrated China wares, referred to by the information in the court of Exchequer.

	l.	s.	d.
Out of the groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle - -	100	0	0
They take the granted or charged net duties on 100 l. (not the net duties payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods) - -	52	2	6
The allowance for prompt payment to the buyer at time - -	6	10	0
The allowance to the company for charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale - - - - -	6	0	0
Together ———	64	12	6
Thereby reducing the groſs price to - -	35	7	6
According to which reduced value they compute the net duties which they make payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods, (in proportion as 52 l. 2 s. 6 d. is to 100 l. which amounts to no more than - -	18	8	9½
To which reduced value and net duties ariſing from thence, if there be added the allowance of 6 l. 10 s. to the buyer at time, and of 6 l. to the company for their charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale, making together - - - - - -	12	10	0
You will thereby plainly diſcover the great abuſe, by obſerving, that theſe ſums put all together amount to no more than - -	66	6	3½
Which is ſhort of the groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold - - -	33	13	8½

Of which 33 l. 13 s. 8 d. ½ the king receives no part.

Groſs price 100 0 0

Again,

The groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle - -	100 0 0	
The net duties paid to his majeſty for the ſame goods - -	18 8 9½	
The allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. making - - -	12 10 0	
Together ———		30 18 9½
Remains inſtead of 35 l. 7 s. 6 d. - -		69 1 2½

N. B. By this method there has been no more than 18 l. 8 s. 9 d. ½ paid to the king for duties, when there has been allowed to the company for the ſame duties 52 l. 2 s. 6 d.

Specimen, No. 4.

Containing the method inſiſted upon by the attorney-general, for aſcertaining the values, according to which the duties are to be paid to his majeſty, upon unrated muſlins and callicoes, referred to by the information in the court of Exchequer, and confirmed by the decree of that court.

The granted or charged duties upon 100 l. value thereof are as follow, viz.

	Groſs duties			Allowance for prompt payment.			Net duties.		
	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Subſidy by 12 Car. 2.	5	0	0	0	5	0	4	15	0
Additional duty	2	10	0	0	7	3	2	2	9
Impoſt by 2 W. & M.	20	0	0	1	5	0	18	15	0
New ſubſidy by 1 queen Anne	5	0	0	0	5	0	4	15	0
⅓ ſubſidy by 2 queen Anne	1	13	4	0	1	8	1	11	8
⅔ ſubſidy by 3 queen Anne	3	6	8	0	3	4	3	3	4
	37	10	0	2	7	3	35	2	9
15 per cent. on the groſs price by 3 queen Anne cap. 4.	15	0	0	0	15	0	14	5	0

EXAMPLE.

The groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle - - -	100 0 0	
The allowance made to the buyer at time - - -	6 10 0	
The allowance made to the company for their charges in keeping the goods - - -	6 0 0	
The net duty of 15 l. per cent. chargeable upon the groſs price	14 5 0	
Together ———		26 15 0
Remains		73 5 0
Then ſay, as 35 l. 2 s. 9 d. is to 100 l. ſo is 73 l. 5 s. to the reduced value - -		54 4 1
According to which reduced value, the net duties payable to his majeſty, for the ſame goods in proportion as 35 l. 2 s. 9 d. is to the 100 l. (beſides the net duty of 15 l. per cent. payable to his majeſty upon the groſs price) will be - - - -		19 0 11
The net duty of 15 l. per cent. on the groſs price - - - - -		14 5 0
To which reduced value and net duties, if there be added the allowances of 6 l. 10 s. to the buyer at a time, and of 6 l. to the company for their charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale, making together - -		12 10 0
You will thereby diſcover the truth of the propoſition, by obſerving, that theſe parts make up the groſs price or full value at which the goods are ſold, without any defect or exceſs - - -		100 0 0

Again,

The groſs price or value at which the goods are ſold by the candle - -	100 0 0	
The net duties payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods -	33 5 11	
The allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and 6 l. making - -	12 10 0	
Together ———		45 15 11
Remains (as above) for the net value - -		54 4 1

l. s. d.

33 5 11 the duties payable by this ſpecimen.

27 12 10 the duties paid by the appellants according to their ſpecimen, No. 5.

5 13 1 difference to the king.

Specimen, No. 5.

Containing the method inſiſted upon by the appellants, the Eaſt-India company, for aſcertaining the values, according to which the duties are to be paid to his majeſty, upon unrated muſlins and callicoes, referred to by the information in the court of Exchequer.

	l.	s.	d.
The groſs price, or value, at which the goods are ſold by the candle - - -	100	0	0
The allowance made to the buyer at time - - -	6	10	0
The allowance made to the company for their charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale - -	6	0	0
The ſum which they take out as the net duties payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods - -	49	7	9
Together ———	61	17	9
Thereby reducing the groſs price to - -	38	2	3
According to which reduced value they compute the net duties payable to his majeſty for the ſame goods, in proportion as 35 l. 2 s. 9d. is to 100 l. which amounts to no more than	13	7	10
Beſides the net duty of 15 l. per cent. chargeable upon the groſs price - -	14	5	0
To which reduced value and net duties, if there be added the allowance of 6 l. 10 s. to the buyer at time, and of 6 l. to the company, for their charges in keeping the goods 'till ſale, making together - - - -	12	10	0
You will thereby plainly diſcover the great abuſe, by obſerving, that theſe ſums, put all together, amount to no more than -	78	5	1
Which is ſhort of the groſs price, or value, at which the goods are ſold - -	21	14	11

Of which 21 l. 14 s. 11 d. the king receives no part.

Groſs price 100 0 0

Again,

Again,			
The groſs price, or value, at which the goods are ſold by the candle - - -	100	0	0
The net duties paid to his majeſty for the ſame goods - -	27	12	10
The allowances of 6 l. 10 s. and of 6 l. making - - -	12	10	0
Together ———	40	2	10
Remains, inſtead of 38 l. 2 s. 3 d. - -	59	17	2

N. B. By this method there has been no more than 27 l. 12 s. 10 d. paid to the king for duties, when there has been allowed to the company for the ſame duties 49 l. 7 s. 9 d.

REMARKS.

This caſe, brought firſt into the court of Exchequer, and afterwards before the houſe of lords, relating to the duties laid upon Eaſt-India goods, confirms what we have occaſionally done ourſelves the honour to recommend, in regard to the neceſſity that people of the firſt diſtinction lie under, even thoſe in whom the dernier reſort of juſtice is veſted, to be duly acquainted with the nature of the crown revenue, and of the accurate computations which are requiſite to be made with reſpect thereunto.

So ſenſible of this was a late right honourable gentleman, Mr Winnington, who, in the opinion of every body, would have been at the head of the finances of this kingdom, if he had lived, that he did not ſcruple to condeſcend, for the ſake of expedition, to be inſtructed, even when he was one of the firſt royal counſellors of ſtate, in the moſt conciſe practical methods of calculating the duties of cuſtoms, with all imaginable accuracy; frequently ſaying, that, as nothing was of greater concern to a ſtate, than for it's miniſters to be thoroughly knowing in it's revenues; ſo nothing could more familiarly contribute to ſuch thorough knowlege, than ſkill in the practical computation; for that this would more effectually impreſs upon the mind all the variety of caſes relating to the revenue, than the mere thumbing over of acts of parliament, without minutely deſcending to the very computations themſelves.—That, for want of this, he had frequently experienced himſelf, as well as other miniſters of ſtate, to be at no little loſs in their deliberations upon matters of that important nature. Nor can it be in the power of thoſe in authority, without this ſkill, to judge and determine juſtly, whether the officers of the revenue did juſtice to the crown, or to the trader.

And as it may be prudential, at certain conjunctures, that the royal revenue may, from a change and alteration in circumſtances of our trade, with regard to other nations, undergo variations; ſo it is ſcarce poſſible for any man to judge rightly of theſe matters, without a competent and minute ſkill in theſe concerns; for thoſe who content themſelves with general notions of theſe things, can only have general, and, conſequently, ſuperficial ones thereof, and can never make experienced and judicious financiers.—And how indiſpenſably neceſſary this knowlege is, both to the practical trader, as well as to the lawyer, who would go to the root of theſe matters, is to apparent to need animadverſion.

The foregoing caſe including ſomething of the nature of diſcounts and allowances which are made to traders, in conſideration of the prompt payment of the duties of cuſtoms, it brings to my mind a doubt that has occurred to me, in regard to the additional ſubſidy of 5 per cent. that was granted in the year 1747, by the act of parliament intituled,

An act for granting to his majeſty a ſubſidy of poundage upon all goods and merchandizes to be imported into this kingdom; and for raiſing a certain ſum of money by annuities and a lottery, to be charged on the ſaid ſubſidy, &c.

The clauſe in the ſaid act that grants this additional ſubſidy of 12 d. in the pound, or 5 per cent. runs thus: 'And be 'it enacted, &c. that, over and above all ſubſidies of tonnage and poundage, and over and above all additional duties, impoſitions, and other duties whatſoever, by any 'other act or acts of parliament, or otherwiſe howſoever 'already due and payable, or which ought to be paid to his 'majeſty, his heirs or ſucceſſors, for or upon any goods or 'merchandizes, which, from and after the 1ſt day of March 'which ſhall be in the year of our lord 1747, ſhall be imported or brought into the kingdom of Great Britain, one 'further ſubſidy of poundage, of twelve pence in the pound, 'ſhall be paid to his majeſty, his heirs, or ſucceſſors, upon 'all manner of goods or merchandizes to be imported, or 'brought into this realm, or any his majeſty's dominions to 'the ſame belonging, at any time or times after the ſaid 1ſt 'day of March, 1747, by the importer of ſuch goods or 'merchandizes, before the landing thereof, according to the 'ſeveral particular rates and values of the ſame goods and 'merchandizes, as the ſame are now particularly and reſpectively rated and valued, in the reſpective books of rates 'referred to by the acts of the 12th year of the reign of king 'Charles II. and the 11th year of his late majeſty, or by 'any other act or acts of parliament, and ſo after that rate 'or value, or which do now pay any duty ad valorem.'

Then follows the clauſe in the ſaid act, ſignifying how the aforeſaid duty is to be levied, viz.

'And be it further enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that 'the ſubſidy of poundage, hereby granted, ſhall be raiſed, 'levied, and collected, by the reſpective officers of his ma'jeſty's cuſtoms in this kingdom, under the management 'and direction of the reſpective commiſſioners of the cu'ſtoms for the time being; and ſhall be brought and paid, or 'anſwered into the receipt of his majeſty's Exchequer, for the 'purpoſes in this act mentioned (ſuch additional charge as 'ſhall be neceſſary for the management of this revenue only 'excepted) and that all and every the clauſes, powers, direc'tions, penalties, forfeitures, matters and things whatſoever, 'contained in the ſaid act of the twelfth year of the reign of 'king Charles II. or in any other laws or ſtatutes whatſoever 'now in force, for raiſing, levying, collecting, anſwering, 'and paying, the ſubſidy of tonnage and poundage thereby 'granted, ſhall be applied, practiſed, and put into execution, 'for the raiſing, levying, ſecuring, collecting, anſwering, 'and paying the ſubſidy of poundage by this act granted, as 'fully and effectually, to all intents and purpoſes, as if all 'and every the ſaid clauſes, powers, directions, penalties, 'and forfeitures, were particularly repeated, and again en'acted in the body of this preſent act.'

QUERE, Does not the foregoing clauſe in this act of parliament intitle the merchants to every advantage in point of payment of this duty, as theſe other acts intitle him to, upon which this act of 1747 is grounded?

If ſo, Have not our merchants a right, according to this act, to a diſcount of 5 per cent. for prompt payment of this additional duty of twelve pence in the pound upon their imports?

'Tis true, the practice that was immediately fell into at the cuſtom-houſe, in conſequence of this act, hath not given the merchants this advantage; but, if their acquieſcence under this diſadvantage hath proceeded from inadvertency, both on the ſide of the merchant, as well as of the officers of the cuſtoms, ought not the ſame to be rectified?

This is ſuggeſted with no view to injure the revenue in it's juſt and legal rights, nor to give the merchants more than they are juſtly and legally intitled to.—And, if my doubt upon this occaſion happens to be groundleſs, I am willing to think it is no way criminal; and, therefore, it is moſt humbly ſubmitted to the merchants of this kingdom, whether this matter may deſerve their conſideration. See the BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, at the end of LETTER A, particularly THE CONCLUSION.

And, if in the courſe of this work, I ſhould on the other hand diſcover any detriment done to the revenue by traders, I ſhall not be wanting to detect the ſame, in order to right the crown in it's revenue, as well as the merchants in their legal rights and immunities.

EAST-INDIA TRADE in general. Under the article ASIA, we have drawn the outlines of the commerce of that part of the world, as it hath a general relation to the other quarters thereof. In order to deſcend the more minutely into the nature of this traffic, we have conſidered the ſame under the heads of the reſpective great companies engaged in this commerce; ſuch as the EAST-INDIA COMPANY of England, the DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, the FRENCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, &c. the trades whereof are all carried on with peculiar privileges and immunities, excluſive of all the other ſubjects of thoſe reſpective ſtates. From a conſideration, therefore, of the diſtinct degree of commerce carried by thoſe reſpective companies for the benefit and advantage of their peculiar ſtates and empires, we may form a pretty right judgment of the meaſures, which may, from time to time, be requiſite to be taken by Great-Britain for the ſupport and maintenance of ſuch a ſhare in this traffic, as may enable them to vie with their rivals therein; and to prevent any one or more of them, from monopolizing the whole to themſelves, and excluding Great-Britain from poſſeſſing any ſhare or proportion therein.

For a more particular account and ſtate of this commerce, ſee alſo the articles BENGAL, COROMANDEL, CHINA, JAPAN, ACAPULCO or MANILLA SHIPS, and ſuch other heads as we have occaſionally referred to in relation hereunto. We ſhall, at preſent, conſider this trade in another light than what we have hitherto done, with intent to view the ſame in every point, that may contribute to enable us to judge of the ſame the more comprehenſively.

Wherefore, we ſhall conſider it, (1.) As a general traffic carried on between Europe, as one country, and the body of the Indies as another. (2.) As a particular trade carried on from one Indian nation to another, more particularly with regard to their coaſting trade, managed partly by the Indians among themſelves, and partly by the European companies, which have forts and factories there: and this is a very conſiderable trade in itſelf, ſuch as

1. The

1. The trade of the Turks from Aden to the Gulph of Mocca, to Mocha, and along the Red Sea to Sues, whence their coffee and other goods are carried to Egypt, to Alexandria, and thence by ſea or land to Conſtantinople, Aleppo, Smyrna, and other places.

2. The trade of the Arabians and Perſians up the gulph of Ormus, or Perſia, to Baſſora, by which they ſupply the great caravans with Perſian and Indian goods of all ſorts, to be carried by the Euphrates and Tygris to Bagdat, and thence to Trapezond on the Black Sea one way, and over the deſarts upon camels to Aleppo another way.

3. The coaſting trade of the European merchants and Indians on the weſt ſide of the coaſt of India, as that of Guzurattee, India, and Malabar, as far as the pearl-fiſhing of Madura; and the like coaſting trade of the Europeans on the other ſide of India, as that of COROMANDEL and BENGAL, [ſee thoſe articles.]

4. The river-trade up the river Ganges, wherein there are ſeveral factories and ſettlements of the European nations, beſides the trade of the natives.

5. Another trade on this ſide of India, is that of Achia on the iſland of Sumatra, and from thence ſouth, along the weſt ſhore of the iſland to Bencoolen, and to the Streights of Sunda, thence to the weſt ſide of the iſland of Java, and thence ſtill ſouth to the Streights of Bailly, and iſlands of Tinier and the Molucca's: alſo on the eaſt ſhore of the iſle Sumatra, the coaſt of Molacca, and thence thro' the Streights of Sincapore to the North Side of the iſle Bornio. Here the trade divides itſelf north, to the eaſtern coaſt of Aſia, the extent of the known world on that ſide, and the moſt eaſterly part of the Terra Firma of the globe.—As the gulph of Siam, coaſt of Camboyda, the kingdom of Cochin-china and Tonquin, and the Empire of China, to which is joined that of Great Tartary.

Upon all theſe long extended ſhores, there is a very great coaſting trade carried on by the Chineſe and Malayan merchants at Borneo, Batavia, and the Iſlands where they are permitted to traffic. To which may be added that of the empire of Japan.

South of Borneo lies the Dutch ſettlement of Batavia, on the iſland of Java, where the Javans and other nations drive a conſiderable trade from port to port, and iſle to iſle, in ſmall veſſels of their own.

This trade takes alſo another courſe from Borneo, and to the numerous iſlands of theſe ſeas; this is done not only to Ternate, Tydore, Celebes, Gillolloo, and to all the iſlands where the Dutch are extremely powerful.—[See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY], but likewiſe to the Philippines, and among the Spaniards. [See ACAPULCO].

Beſides this coaſting trade, the Indians have a large inland circulating commerce with each other; and various merchandizes, which are the product of remote interior cities and countries, are brought down to be ſold at the European factories, and at thoſe ſea-ports where the European merchants are ſettled; ſuch as indigo from Lahore, which is brought to Surat: the diamonds of Golconda, the pearls of Madora, and an infinite variety of other merchandizes, of the produce and manufacture of the inland countries.—And European merchandizes landed either on the weſt or the eaſt ſide of the great peninſula of the Indies, that is, the coaſts of Malabar or Golconda.—We find alſo the manufactures and produce of almoſt all the provinces of the Mogul empire, to be bought at Iſpahan in Perſia, and other inland cities in the ſame country, whither they are carried by caravans. See the article CARAVAN.

The Chineſe, alſo in particular, have a vaſt domeſtic commerce by the navigation of numerous rivers and canals, and particularly by that inimitable canal deſcribed by Mynheer Nieuhoff, which traverſes the whole Chineſe empire from Canton to Pekin, by which the merchandize of all thoſe countries to which the Chineſe trade, and whom they admit to traffic among them, as well as the goods and growth of the provinces through which it paſſes, are carried to the emperor's court, as the demand makes neceſſary; which, indeed, is the foundation, and original occaſion of all commerce in the world.

Beſides this, the river Loang, or Koang, and the Yellow River, are ſaid to be navigable above 600 or 700 miles, and both of them ſurround the empire; and theſe rivers, running through vaſt lakes or inland ſeas, empty themſelves into the ocean, and thereby facilitate commerce.

The firſt of theſe rivers is covered with ſmall veſſels of all ſizes, continually employed in carrying proviſions to the great and opulent city of Nankin, beſides ſuch as are employed in carrying immenſe quantities of merchandizes, the produce of the provinces through which theſe rivers paſs, and the manufactures of the ſeveral cities by which they alſo go.

This may give ſome idea of the manner how trade is managed in this vaſt extended empire; and among ſuch a prodigious number of people, who are not only the moſt ingenious, but unexceptionably the moſt induſtrious people for traffic in the whole world.

From the confluence of theſe great rivers it is, that the city of Nankin is become ſo immenſely opulent and populous, being the great center of all the inland commerce of theſe united empires; there being hardly a city in all China, but has a trading communication with Nankin, either by ſea or river navigation: by which all the produce of the land, as well as the manufactures of the people, are conveyed to it, as to the great emporium of the whole country: and from hence again all the foreign merchandizes, which are imported at Amoy, Canton, or Nankin, are returned to the interior parts of the empire.

The productions of the ſea, as concerned in merchandizing, are,

Pearl, the true Oriental pearl; the ſeveral ſorts whereof are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the countries where they are found, as alſo by their fineneſs, beauty, colour, and ſize.—They are found in the Arabian gulph, or Red Sea, though not on the Aſian ſide, and not, indeed, ſo properly in the Eaſt-Indies: but, as they are found by the Turks and Arabians in ther colony on the Æthiopian ſhore of the gulph, and are directly brought to Jeddo on the Arabian coaſt, and thence ſent farther into Europe, viz. by the way of Suez, and then by caravans to Conſtantinople, we muſt include them in this trade: the kind is exceeding good, the ſhape delicate, and the ſize ſometimes large.—The largeſt and fineſt pearl now to be ſeen in the world, are found at Baſſora in the Perſian gulph. They are found too on the Fiſhing coaſt of Madura, between the iſland of Ceylon and the coaſt of Coromandel. Though the quantity here is conſiderable, the kind is inferior to thoſe of the gulph.—Some likewiſe are found in the Philippine Iſlands, but the quantity is but ſmall.

Of the pearl-fiſhery in the Eaſt-Indies.

Between the coaſt of Madura and the iſle of Ceylon, are divers conſiderable pearl-banks near the ſea. Theſe banks are rocks of white coral-ſtones, whereon the oyſter-ſhells, containing the pearls are faſtened. Some of theſe banks are 12 or 13 fathoms, and others at 15 fathoms from the ſhore.—The oyſters live about ſix years, after which the ſhells open and the pearls are loſt.—The banks are ſearched yearly, to ſee whether the pearls are come to their maturity.—After the oyſters are come to their perfection, the time of pearl fiſhing is proclaimed throughout the whole country; and the merchants reſort thither from the other parts of India, even from Arabia and Turky, who ſet up their tents near the ſea-ſide to purchaſe the pearls.

They fiſh for the oyſter-ſhells containing the pearls, in boats about 28 feet long; of which you ſhall ſee 3 or 400 at a time, each of which has ſeven or eight ſtones, which ſerve inſtead of anchors, and ſix or ſeven divers, who dive naked, except a thin waiſtcoat, after each other.—They have each a net hanging down from the Neck, and gloves in their hands, being to pluck the oyſters from the rock.—Theſe divers have alſo ſtones about their necks to make them dive the ſwifter.

All the oyſter-ſhels brought up, are laid in great heaps 'till the fiſhery is over, after which a wooden houſe is erected for the company and the nayk, where each receives his ſhare, the boats being obliged to fiſh one day for the nayk, another for the company.—Theſe take care that the fiſhers be not diſturbed in their fiſhery, the governor and two judges being every day near the ſea ſhore, to decide ſuch differences as may ariſe among them.—After all the ſhells are opened, in the preſence of the commiſſioners, and the pearls taken out, they are ſold, according to their different ſizes, to the beſt bidder. The pearl duſt is bought and ſold by the Dutch.

They have alſo coral red and white, to which the pearl-oyſters are generally found ſticking; and ſo faſtened to the coral, that ſometimes, in breaking off the oyſters, they bring up coral with them, which is generally white. See the article CORAL.

Though the ſea in this part of the world is very full of fiſh, and the rivers and lakes much more; yet neither is the quantity ſo great as in our northern parts: nor are there ſuch periodical ſhoals, as is the caſe with the herring, mackarel, pilchards, &c.—There are no fiſh catched here in ſuch quantities, as to load ſhips or ſaiks, ſo as to be cured, and become a conſiderable branch of trade, from one climate to another, as merchandize.

The product of the land conſiſts in great variety, viz.

That of the bowels of the earth, ſuch as mines of jewels, of metal, and minerals, of dyers earths, and ſuch produce as is dug out of the earth in moſt, or all other parts of the known world. Alſo,

The product of the ſurface of the earth, ſuch as plants, drugs, gums, and other the like particulars, of infinite kinds, which furniſh a ſurpriſing variety of matter for merchandizes.

As to the product of the bowels of the earth, under which head we conſider the diamond, ſee the article DIAMOND, where thoſe of the Eaſt-Indies are fully treated of.

They have alſo divers other jewels, or precious ſtones, in theſe countries, ſuch as fine rubies, exceeding ſplendid and beautiful, in Ceylon; alſo the topaz, the turquoiſe, and the

emerald, in the Mogul's country; the ſapphire in Siam; and the amethyſt in Pegu; and an extraordinary agate and jaſper in China and Japan.

There are mines of gold, or rather gold in general, whether in mines or otherwiſe. This is found in many places, but chiefly our commerce for this commodity is at

Achim, the capital of Sumatra, where it is found in great quantities, it being the chief return of merchandizes carried thither.

It is found in Pegu alſo, whence it is brought to Achim, to be ſold to the merchants. Likewiſe in

China and Japan: in the former they ſell it for ſilver, to the great advantage of the merchants, particularly at Canton, Amory, and other places.

They have it too at the Philippine iſlands, particularly near Manilla, where it is found in mines, and where, it is ſaid, that one mine yields the king of Spain 200,000 ducats a year, beſides ſeveral others, wherein they do not work.

In the iſland of Borneo, where they ſift it out of the ſands of the rivers, in their ſearch after diamonds. See the Article GOLD.

In theſe Indies there are alſo mines of ſilver; but it is very ſcarce in Aſia: it is found in Japan, but in no conſiderable quantities; nor is there any of it found in the Indies in general, as I can yet learn, which is the reaſon they put ſo great a value thereon, as to buy it with their gold, to great advantage.

In Pegu they have iron, as alſo in Siam and Japan; that of Pegu nearly approaches to the quality of ſteel.

In China they have ſome copper; but that metal is chiefly in Japan: the beſt is that made up in ſmall bars, like ſticks of wax, which is very red and bright. See the article COPPER.

The Chineſe, who are the greateſt cheats in trade in the world, adulterate their copper, and put ſeveral ingredients therein, to make it appear like that of Japan.

Tutenage is a metal unknown except in the Eaſt-Indies. It is found in Malacca and Sumatra; but the fineſt is in China: it ſeems to be a ſpecies of tin, but ſoft as lead, and blackiſh; and, though not ſo bright as either, is yet more compact.

They have a metal, which ſome have ſaid is real block-tin; and, though it is not ſo hard and fine as our Cornwall tin, yet it is very valuable. This is principally found in China; but they have it likewiſe in Pegu, and the Dutch buy it at Achim, and other places, in the Streights of Malacca. It mixes well with lead, and makes tolerable good pewter, but will not ſcour ſo bright.

The minerals and foſſils found are very numerous; ſuch as ſulphur, of which there are great quantities in the Mogul empire, though it is not brought to Europe but in ſmall quantities, the Europeans having ſuch plenty from Italy, Sicily, the Archipelago, Barbary, and other places.

Red earth, a known commodity brought to England in pretty large quantities, for the uſe of the dyers. Allum abounds in the Mogul empire, Pegu, Sumatra, and in China.—Saltpetre is a conſiderable article in the European importation from India, the conſumption whereof depends upon the conſumption of Gun-powder.—See the article GUN-POWDER.

It is found in moſt parts of India, eſpecially on the coaſts of Malabar, and India Proper; they have it alſo in China in great quantities, in the province of Xenſi, where they dig it out of the earth, as plentifully as we do chalk, notwithſtanding it is ſo dear in Europe.

Potter's earth; of which they make their porcelain manufacture, and which, for diſtinction, we call China ware: the beſt is found in the province of Kianſi, on the banks of the great river Kiang. This kind of earth is ſaid to be found no where but in China and Japan, though ſome have of late pretended that it is to be had in North-America.—But this I have never heard ſatisfactorily confirmed.—Nor can the earth or clay be procured in China or Japan, there to be brought over unwrought: but, whether it requires a particular preparation, as ſome inſinuate, and which cannot be performed in Europe to that perfection; though not only the Dreſden, but the Engliſh manufacture, are admirable approximations.

But the ſurface of the earth is ſtill richer than the bowels of it; and the growth is prodigious, as well in drugs, gums, and rare plants, as in other things; which raiſe a new fund of wealth, by their being the ſubject of manufacture, and employing innumerable multitudes of their people. In regard to the growth of the country, in what we call plants, fruits, or ſuch things as are for food, and are uſed in the courſe of trade, are

Teas of divers kinds, from China, Cochinchina, and Japan.—Sago from ſeveral parts, as Malacca, Java, Borneo, &c.—Coffee, chiefly from Mocha in Arabia, with ſome from the Dutch and French Settlements.—This coffee is now a prodigious article in commerce.—And to ſum up all in our enumeration of particulars of this kind, with one article of an immenſe value, and to which we can ſcarce find an equal in the world, is the ſpice; which is comprehended under the heads of nutmegs, mace, and cloves.—Theſe are the proper

goods of the Dutch at the Molucca's, or Spice Iſlands, where they are only produced. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Cinnamon at the iſland of Ceylon, and ſome in Borneo.—Pepper on the coaſt of Malabar, but chiefly, and of the beſt kind, on the iſlands of Java and Sumatra. Sugar in Bengal, China, and Cochin-china; alſo in Java, Borneo and Ceylon.

The firſt of theſe five articles of ſpice are not only prodigious in quantity, inſomuch that the Dutch, who have the whole importation in their own hands, ſupply all Europe, Africa, and America with them, and the reſt of Aſia alſo, but theſe ſpices are raiſed in no other part of the world, and it is thought cannot be; by which the Dutch have the advantage of keeping up the price to what height they pleaſe: and it is certain, that, though the nutmegs are produced in no place but the iſle of Banda, and five little adjacent iſlands, and that theſe are but very ſmall places, yet they ſuffer ſome hundreds of tons of nutmegs to be burned at a time, rather than ſend ſo many to Europe as to overſtock the markets, and thereby ſink the price. The like is ſaid to be done on the ſame occaſion by the pepper. Sir William Temple, in his Obſervations upon Holland, ſays, 'That a Dutchman, who had been at the Spice Iſlands, 'told him, that he ſaw, at one time, three heaps of nutmegs 'burned, each of which was more than an ordinary church 'could hold.

REMARKS.

Quere, If the price of ſpices in general was lower, the profits might not be more than at preſent are made thereon, ſeeing the conſumption thereof would viſibly increaſe, by the greater cheapneſs, as is uſual in the like caſes? But this, it ſeems, the Dutch will not truſt to.

With reſpect to the coffee and tea already mentioned, it ſhould not be forgot, that the demand in trade for theſe two articles is ſo increaſed of late years in Europe, that they ſeem, in ſome ſort, to be equal to the ſpices of the Dutch.

The arrack is a ſpirit extracted from ſeveral materials, and is a conſiderable merchandize, the quantity whereof brought to Europe being extremely great; the principal ſorts are made at Goa by the Portugueze, and at Batavia by the Dutch.

Of the drugs, and ſuch plants and other produce as come from this part of the world, ſee the article DRUGS.

Theſe productions, which tend to the employment of their people, are chiefly ſilk, cotton, and herba. Raw ſilk is produced in quantity chiefly in the kingdoms of Bengal and China. See BENGAL and CHINA. The quantity as well of wrought ſilks as of callicoes, which the people of India and China are obliged to conſume at home for their ordinary wearing, muſt be exceeding great, if we conſider, (1.) That theſe are the ordinary manufactures for their cloathing: and whether we ſpeak of the rich or the poor, they have no other kind of apparel, having no materials to make any thing for their wearing but thoſe of ſilk, cotton, and herba. (2.) That the extent of the country included in theſe bounds beforementioned, is ſo prodigious large, as to include the two vaſt empires of the Mogul and China, with the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, Cambodia, Cochin-china, Tonquin, and all the iſlands of the Indian and Arabian ſeas. (3.) That all theſe countries are ſo prodigiou s populous, that they reckon 8,000,000 of people in the City of Nankin only, in thoſe of Canton and Pekin 2,000,000 each, and in others in proportion. (4.) That the manufactures we ſpeak of, callicoes eſpecially, are not a durable wear, ſo that the people muſt cloath often.

All theſe articles conſidered, the quantities of the manufactures which they conſume at home muſt be exceeding great, and employ great numbers of people in making them; yet they have ſo many to ſpare for exportation, that they are able to make and export goods enough of the ſilken and cotton manufactures, to cloath all the people of Europe, beſides their own conſumption.

Their ſilk manufactures are ſo various, and their names ſo numerous, that it would be tedious to enumerate them. The like may be ſaid of the cottons, under the name of callicoes, of infinite varieties, both white and painted, or printed, with figures of divers colours: they are all diſtinguiſhed under one general name of callicoes, whether muſlins, chints, or plain, &c. The herba is the bark of a certain tree, which, being drawn out very fine, works like ſilk, and is mixed with either ſilk or cotton; of which we ſee divers kinds among the ordinary importations of the Eaſt-India company.

Theſe are the moſt conſiderable manufactures of the Indies: there are two others from China in particular, which, as they are of the kind ſingular to themſelves, ſo they are alſo very valuable articles. The one is their porcelain, or China, as obſerved before; and the lacquered ware, called Japan ware, though not coming from thence: which ſhew not only the excellency of the materials, viz. of the earth for the one, and the lacque, or varniſh, for the other, but alſo the ingenuity of the workmanſhip in both.

All the Engliſh and Dutch factories in the Mogul's country are full of merchats, as well Europeans as Moors, Arabs,

Meſtizes,

Meſtizes, Malabars, &c. the latter having been inſtructed by the Engliſh and the Portugueze in merchandizing: and, as there is a very great trade carried on hence with the Turks and Perſians, as alſo with the Arabs, ſo they are of late exceedingly increaſed in ſhipping, and build good ſhips at Muſcat, and the river Indus, at Guzuratte, and other places, and even at Surat.

The ſeveral ſorts of ſhips known in the Eaſt-Indies are, akas, veſſels uſed by the Arabs at Aden; country ſhips, as they are called, built ſquare-ſterned, as the Engliſh, but built by the Moors, who had their models from England; galleons, being large ſhips, built by the Portugueze at Goa, and uſed to go from thence to Melinda, on the coaſt of Africa, and then to the Brazils. Sloops of the European builders among the ſeveral factories, eſpecially at Batavia, Surat, and Goa, as alſo at Fort St George. Ships of China, called jonks, of a form peculiar to themſelves, from 50 to 120 tons; jonks of Japan, of a like burden, better ſailors, and of different ſhapes, but not ſo well built as the China jonks; proes of Sumatra and Malacca, burden about 15 to 20 tons; tonnys, a kind of hoys, or lighters, to load and unload larger ſhips; flying boats, built like our ſmall fiſhing boats; great galleons, built at Manilla, for the Acapulco trade, ſometimes of 1000 to 1600 tons burden.

They have, alſo, a vaſt variety of ſmall craft, in the ſeveral rivers, and among the iſlands, all differing, and peculiar to the reſpective places, and which are very curious, not only in their ſhape, but in their manner of working, which would be too tedious for us to deſcribe.

By theſe veſſels the whole commerce is carried on. Although the Perſians are maſters of all the eaſtern coaſt of the Perſian Gulph, and have ſeveral good towns there, and Gomberoon in particular, yet they have not one veſſel of any burden belonging to them.

It is much the ſame with the Turks in the Arabian Gulph, at Baharen, Baſſora, and other places; and they hire the akas of Aden in the greateſt part of their trade.

The exports of the commodities of the Indies to Europe are certainly very conſiderable; nor are their imports, perhaps, ſo diſproportionate from the Europeans as ſome are wont to conceive.—The quantity of European goods the Turks on the Arabian coaſt of the Red Sea take off, brought by the way of Suez, and thence to Alexandria, are not inconſiderable; whereby they are ſupplied from Europe by the Turky companies of the ſeveral European nations.

That there has been a viſible increaſe of the trade to the Indies from Europe, as well as from Europe to the Indies, within half a century, is apparent to the whole world, from the increaſe of the European factories there: for theſe ſettlements are numerous, increaſing in people, and extending their power and juriſdiction, and, by this means, civilizing the people, and reconciling them to the European cuſtoms and uſages, as particularly to their cloathing themſelves, in which particular they went naked and ſavage before. This has been effectuated more particularly by the Dutch than by any other European power whatſoever. For proof of which ſee the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

In conſequence of this European commerce, the Indian nations takes every day more and more of the European merchandizes: our Britiſh Eaſt-India company ſell more of our woollen, and divers other manufactures, by means of the weight of their commercial intereſt, than, perhaps, they could ever have done without the exiſtence of ſuch a company.—The Chineſe, alſo, have increaſed in their Britiſh imports, as well of the woollen as other our Britiſh manufactures.—Our manufactures generally ſold among them are, broad cloths of every colour, and more particularly the black.—Our camblets, ſcarlets, and other colours, ſerges, perpets; lead and lead-ſhot; Birmingham wares of all kinds; glaſs manufactures of every ſort; our clock and watch-work, which are in as high eſteem with the Indians as with the reſt of the trading world.—And theſe our exports are increaſing daily.

The general augment of the exports from Europe is more particularly manifeſt from the increaſe of the Dutch factories in the Spice Iſlands, eſpecially in Batavia, where their ſettlements are not now mere ſimple factories, but they are become populous and opulent colonies and plantations; the property of the country being their own, and not ſubject to any power of the princes, or lords of the adjacent territories, as they are at Surat, and other places. Wherefore,

By virtue of theſe eſtabliſhments of the Dutch, they take off, as ours do at Madras or Fort St. George, and as thoſe of the Portugueze do at Goa, much greater quantities of the growth and manufactures of Europe than they ever did before.—Nor is this confined to the mere article of apparel; they take, beſides, the European equipages, as coaches and horſes, &c. particularly at Batavia, where coaches are kept more numerouſly and ſplendidly than even their maſters do in Europe. It is the ſame at Goa and Fort St. George; and we have a greater ſhare in the trade to the factories and ſettlements of other European powers, by means of our Eaſt-India company, than our company will admit them to have at our Britiſh forts and ſettlements, if the repeated informations which I have received from various hands are not to be queſtioned.

It appears upon the whole, from the general circumſtances of this Aſiatic traffic, that, ſince the Europeans have zealouſly engaged therein, the ballance of profit, however great it may heretofore have been in favour of the Eaſt-Indians, has been for ſome years declining; and our own Eaſt-India company hath not been the leaſt inſtrumental to contribute their ſhare in this turn of the ſcale.

The chief proſpect of any laſting advancement to be made in the Eaſt-India trade, depends on the number and power of the Europeans ſo increaſing, that they may bring the natives under their dominion to come into the European way of living, viz. in dreſſing, eating, and drinking, whereby the export of ſuch goods will come to be increaſed, in proportion to the dominion that the Europeans obtain among theſe Indians.

Of this the Portugueze have ſet an example on the coaſt of Moſambique, the city of Melinda, and other parts thereabouts, where the people are brought into the European way of living, and cloath themſelves after the manner of the Portugueze, and live as regularly. It is true, that the people are more tractable and docile there than the natives of Java, China, and Malabar; and, which is ſtill more, have no manufactures of their own to eſtabliſh, in the room of thoſe which the Portugueze bring them.

'I was ſurprized, ſays an Engliſh paſſenger, who went on 'ſhore at Melinda (the ſhip he was in being driven up thither 'in their voyage to Mocha) to ſee, in the country adjacent, 'whole villages of the natives cloathed in the Engliſh manu-'factures, and having waiſtcoats, breeches, and ſtockings, 'hats and ſhoes, leather, ſerge, and ſtuffs, ſuch as we wear 'in England; and ſome of the better ſort having good broad-'cloth coats, bayes-clokes, &c. which they wore, notwith-'ſtanding the heats, and eſpecially in the rainy ſeaſons, to 'keep them dry, and warm in the nights, which are damp 'and unwholeſome.'

This muſt be a reaſon, alſo, why the Portugueze export ſuch quantities of the Britiſh manufactures to the Brazils, which is as hot a climate, in ſome parts, as that of Zanguebar, and much in the ſame latitude; and from whence, alſo, they are carried into Africa, on the eaſtern ſhore, where, by their authority they have, in ſome meaſure civilized the people, and brought them to abhor going naked, as much as the Europeans themſelves do: and, further to confirm the practicability hereof, we may judge, from what the Dutch have done in Java, Borneo, and Malacca, and other places, as well by their example as by their authority: and this, added to the increaſe of people, would certainly conſtantly add to the increaſe of the conſumption of European commodities, in the ſeveral parts of India, as well as in Arabia and China.

This will appear more probable, if we calculate the numbers of people already under the government and influence of the ſeveral nations planted there. Thus the Portugueze are ſaid to have 100,000 people in the iſland and city of Goa; ſome ſay half as many more.—The Engliſh are judged to have no leſs than 200,000 ſouls, in a great degree under their juriſdiction, at Fort St George, the city of Madras, and the adjacent parts, ſubject to their government; beſides thoſe at Fort St. David's, Calcutta, and other places, where they are ſettled as proprietors, in ſome degree, of the adjacent country. The Dutch exceed them both at Batavia, and in the Spice Iſlands, where they have an abſolute dominion: in which, including the iſlands of Borneo and Ceylon, it is certain that they have above 500,000 ſubjects.

If theſe numbers are near the truth, it is no way ſtrange that the Dutch ſhips go out generally ſo well freighted for Batavia, and carry by far, greater quantities of European merchandizes than formerly, or that they carry out more than any others.

This is alſo a reaſon why, among the Portugueze and the Dutch, the conſumption of European goods muſt neceſſarily increaſe; but the Engliſh have not the ſame advantages, becauſe all their factories or ſettlements, Fort St George excepted, are under the juriſdiction of the great Mogul, or ſome other abſolute government, who do not ſubmit ſo eaſily to the Europeans, as at Java and elſewhere.

The commerce of the Philippines is the ſame.

The trade carried on between Perſia and India, by ſea, is a very remarkable kind of commerce: it is indeed, an exchange of the moſt valuable merchandizes of the world, and the quantity too, is very conſiderable; for they have a very great conſumption of Indian and Chineſe goods, which are partly ſent up the country to Iſpahan, and partly up the Tygris, by Baſſora, to Bagdat.

As the Perſians have no ſhips of their own, this commerce is carried on by the Armenian merchants, in country ſhips, as they are called, or in Engliſh or Dutch ſhips, for which they are paid a very good rate; ſo that our Europeans are always fond of taking freight there, and eſpecially becauſe the Perſians pay in ſpecie.

The Perſians import from India, a very great quantity of callicoes, as well painted or printed, as white; the latter is to make

make up their turbands, which, for thoſe above the poorer ſort, are folded about with white callicoe; and all the women are cloathed, either in their own wrought ſilks, or in painted callicoes, of Surat, and the coaſt.

They import above a thouſand tons of pepper yearly, from the coaſt of Malabar, by the Dutch; chiefly brought by the Portugueze from Goa, beſides ſome from Surat, by the Engliſh.

They alſo import all ſorts of ſpice; as cloves, nutmegs, mace, and cinnamon; from Coulang and Ceylon, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch, or of ſuch merchants as buy them at the Dutch factories.

They export a great many drugs, ſuch as rhubarb, galbanum-ſena, galls, and many other valuable things, which are not ſo plentiful among the Indians as in Perſia: for there they import indigo, allums, camphire, China-root, cardamums, ginger, ſugar, ſal armoniac, turmeric, ſticklac, and many more.—Add to this, that they import from China a very great quantity of China ware, of the fineſt kinds.—They bring from China a great quantity of metals, ſuch as block-tin, tutenague, China alſo, and Japan copper, iron and ſteel, from Pegu and Siam.—They bring alſo gold from China, and diamonds from the mines in Golconda; of the firſt they buy a very great quantity; for it comes from China as a merchandize. Alſo, they import the white China raw ſilk, which they uſe in their ſilk manufactures, mixed with the fine ſilk of Georgia and Guylan.

Theſe goods, and many more (for almoſt all the goods of India and China are vendible at Gombroon) they ſend up the country, upon camels, to Iſpahan, as, northward to Bagdat by boats, and thence to ſeveral parts of Aſia, as, to Aleppo, Trepezond, Taurus, Erzirum, and many other places; for Bagdat is the center of all the trade between India, Perſia, and the leſſer Aſia.

In return for thoſe, they have the advantage of all the European traders; for they ſend no money, but rather receive money in the ballance of trade: and it is obſervable, that all the ſhips, from Gombroon to Surat, are deep laden, and very rich, with Perſian wines, Armenian brandies, Arabian coffee, raiſins, almonds, from Iſpahan, in great quantities; ivory, imported from Mocca or Melinda, and the coaſt of Zanguebar; wax, dates in bales, prunella's in boxes, roſe water in cheſts, for which they have a great traffic among the Mogul Indians; rich Perſian ſilks, rich Turky carpets, leather dreſt like the Italian cordevants, lapis tutia, purl duſt, oriental purl, drugs and gums of ſurpriſing varieties, piſtaches, Carmenia wool, bought by the Engliſh for the hat-making trade, Engliſh cloth in bales.

As all theſe goods meet with a current ſale, either at Surat or at Goa; the Perſian merchants, that is, the Armenians and Jews, drive a very great trade at Gombroon; and it is ordinary to have from 15 to 20 country ſhips in the port at a time, beſides Engliſh ſhips belonging to the company, and Dutch alſo: and their loading is ſo valuable, that frequently an Engliſh ſhip, of 400 tons, laden from Gombroon to Surat, hath been worth 200,000l. ſterling.

They have alſo the advantage of carrying great numbers of paſſengers, being merchants and their ſervants; for the Armenian merchants ordinarily go with their goods to Surat, and come back with the returns.—The Engliſh merchants of Surat have always ſhips of their own, which are wholly employed in their coaſting trade, between Gombroon and Surat, and are built at Surat, or in the river Indus: they are good veſſels, and tolerable ſailors, but have not the beſt of ſeamen.

Upon the whole, the ordinary channels of the Eaſt-India trade, as now carried on, are as follow, viz.

A trade by the caravans, over the deſarts—[See the article CARAVAN] from Bagdat, on the great river Tygris, to Aleppo, and from thence, by leſſer caravans, to Conſtantinople one way, and to Alexandretta (now called Scanderoon) another; and from both theſe into the eaſtern parts of Europe by ſea.

By theſe caravans, indeed, the raw ſilk, galls and drugs, and other goods of Perſia are carried; and they are the chief part of the loading of the caravans. Together with them, they have always a large quantity of goods, of the growth and product of the Indies, ſuch as fine callicoes, curious wrought ſilks, ſpices, drugs, diamonds, and pearl, all which are carried from the coaſt of India and Malabar into the gulph of Perſia, and up to Baſſora, at the bottom of that gulph.—From thence they are carried, by ſmaller veſſels, up the Tygris, or Euphrates, for there they are joined, and landed at Bagdat, as above.

Another trade is by the Red Sea.—The manner of carring on which formerly differed from the preſent; all the ſpices, and rich goods of India, China, and the iſlands, were brought in the jonks and barks of India (and it is believed they might in thoſe days, be better furniſhed with ſhipping, than they now are) to the port of Adlu, then a great and flouriſhing city, famous for commerce, ſituate on the ſouthern coaſt of Arabia Fœlix: here they unloaded, and went back; and the merchants of Adlu partly relading the goods in ſhips of their own, and partly ſending them, by land-carriage, to Jeddo, ſent them up to the port of Suez, at the bottom of the Gulph, or Red Sea.—Here they were landed, and carried over-land opon camels and other carriages to the river Nile, a paſſage of about 50 miles; and thence to Alexandria, where the Venetian merchants, who then had that whole trade in their hands, received them, exported them chiefly to Venice, and from thence to all the trading ports of Europe.

Theſe were the antient, and, at that time, the only ways of carrying on commerce between Europe and the Indies.—As the navigation by long ſea has leſſened the trade above deſcribed, and that the groſs of all the Indian commodities comes directly to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope; ſo the ſhipping, between the ſeveral parts of India and the Arabian port of Adlu, decayed, and was wholly interrupted: by this means the ſaid port alſo was entirely ruined, her trade cut off; and declining continually, without hope or poſſibility of recovery, is now ſo loſt and forgot, that from having many hundred ſail of veſſels, of all ſorts, belonging to it, they are not ſo much as heard of among the European ſailors.

But a trade to Suez is ſtill carried on, though ſmall; it conſiſts only of a correſpondence between that port and the city of Mocha, which ſtands near the mouth of the Red Sea; from whence the whole ſea is now called the gulph of Mocha. This trade conſiſts in loading a few ſmall veſſels, at Mocha, with coffee, drugs, and elephants teeth, which are brought thither from Melinda, or from the coaſt of Ethiopia, or both, and ſometimes horſes for the Grand Seignior.—Of the coffee, about 5000 bags, or bales, are immediately for the Grand Seignior; nor can any coffee be ſhipped 'till the baſſa of Mocha gives notice that the Grand Seignior's coffee is ſecured, and ready to ſhip off.

There are ſome few Alexandrian merchants at Suez, chiefly Jews, who employ a few ſhips to go conſtantly twice a year from Suez to Goa, the Portugueze colony on the Indian coaſt, and who bring back large cargoes, of all the fine goods of the Indies, as alſo ſome quantities of ſpices, and eſpecially pepper and cinnamon. But theſe cargoes are generally freighted for the city of Grand Cairo, and may be ſaid to be wholly conſumed there.—Theſe ſhips might make three voyages a year, if they were people more uſed to buſineſs and diſpatch; for, thoſe ſeas being generally quiet and free from ſtorms, it may be called a fair weather voyage both out and home; but they are an indolent people, and but very indifferent navigators.

To this ſmall remain of a trade is that great and ancient commerce of India, by the way of Alexandria, reduced: thus the two northern channels of the Eaſt-India trade are accounted for.

There is a courſe of trade alſo, from the Mogul's country, to Armenia and Georgia, or to Samercand, on the river Oxus. There is alſo another commerce, by land, from India into Europe, and that very conſiderable; which is the paſſage by land, from China to Muſcovy; to the practicability of which, Czar Peter the Great highly contributed.---This renowned prince, whoſe heart was ſet upon the cultivation of commerce, and thereby civilizing his populous empire, could not make the way ſhorter than it is, neither could he alter the ſeverity of the climates, through which the way lies; but ſpared no pains to make it both ſafe and eaſy for travellers, and for the ſecurity of their merchandizes. (1.) By building towns and lodging-places, at convenient diſtances, for the merchants to reſt at: whereas before, the country was quite deſolate, and there were no towns, ſometimes, for 10 or 20 days travel together. (2.) By fortifying thoſe accommodations, and poſting troops at them, ſufficient to defend the travellers, and with orders to the governors of thoſe places, to ſend out parties upon notice, either to convoy the merchants to the next port, or to advance and meet them if coming, eſpecially if any notice was given of their being in danger.

This memorable monarch took care likewiſe, that ſufficient proviſions ſhould be always had at thoſe places, for ſupply of the travellers, as well horſe as man, and that at very reaſonable rates; that they ſhould be well uſed on all occaſions, without exacting upon them, either for lodging, or for horſes or camels; which, upon failing of others, might be always ready to be either hired or bought, as occaſion required.

By this means, no inconſiderable quantity of merchandizes is every year carried from China into Europe, particularly tea, raw ſilk, called China ſilk, fine wrought ſilks, and all ſorts of goods not of a groſs and bulky nature, and too heavy for ſuch a kind of conveyance: and theſe caravans, ſometimes conſiſt of 3 or 400 camels and horſes together.

But the bulk of the commerce is wholly by ſea. For example, there is a trade from Madagaſcar, from Goa, on the coaſt of India proper, and from the ports of Mozembique and Zanguebar, to the bay of Todos los Santos, in the Braſils.---This is a trade peculiar to the Portugueze: all their ſhips from China and from India come to this coaſt of Africa, or Madagaſcar; and there taking in refreſhments, and ſome merchandizes, ſuch as gold, civet, elephants teeth, &c. and ſometimes ſlaves, they go away to the Braſils.

The

The other ſhips, which go conſtantly between this coaſt and the Braſils, and which take the benefit of the others, becauſe they are always ſhips of force, carry chiefly ſlaves, ſome ivory and gold, and go back directly, from the Braſils to the ſame place again, without going forward into Europe, or to any place elſe.

They have little in the Braſils to carry to the Indies, except ſugar and tobacco; neither of which have any extraordinary demand there, though they make a ſhift to put off as much as loads two or three ſhips a year.

The reſt of the trade is the grand commerce from Holland, England, France, Sweden, Denmark, by the Cape of Good Hope, and ſo to all the ſeveral parts of India and China; which, in general, conſtitutes the European Eaſt-India trade.

It is managed in Europe by excluſive companies wholly, no nation admitting interlopers any privileges of commerce thither from Europe: the Engliſh did formerly, indeed, ſuffer it; but upon the union of the two companies, effected by the perſonal interpoſition of the late king William III. the company obtained a complete excluſion of all ſeparate traders to the Indies, and have now that whole trade in their hands.

The Engliſh part is managed, in the Indies, by factories, under the direction of the company, and by governors and officers, who are accountable to the company.—Theſe are chiefly at Surat, Bombay, Fort St George, Calecut, Bencoolen, Chuſan, &c.—Theſe have many other leſſer factories under them, which are all accountable to the governors of the head factories, as they are alſo to the company.

Theſe governments have many advantages in trade; they have peculiar powers and privileges from England; moſt of them are now incorporated, and made bodies politic, as the fort of St George has been many years, and is now, not only a fort and factory, but a city, with a diſtrict adjoining, which is enjoyed in property and ſovereignty; and the governor for the company has under his dominion, including the ſeveral diſtricts, upwards of 200,000 people of all ſorts, entirely independent of any Indian government, as the like is under the Dutch governor at Batavia, and the Portugueſe at Goa.

But this trade is not confined to the factories; for they trade from place to place, not only as factors, for the company, but as private or free merchants, and on their own particular account, under the licence and authority of the company: and this they do to ſuch a degree, as well by ſea as land, that the cuſtoms received by the proper officers, for the company, at Fort St George only, including their land as well as ſea imports, rarely amount to leſs than 30,000 l. ſterling per ann. which goes towards ſupporting the expences of the factory.

It would be too tedious to deſcribe the manner of the civil governments, in all theſe ſettled factories of the Europeans, the ſtate and magnificence of their governors, and of their other officers, at Goa, Fort St George, Batavia, Pondicherry, &c. It is enough to obſerve only, that it is commerce alone that upholds all this ſplendor.

The number of ſhips, generally employed by the ſeveral companies in this trade, is conſiderable. The number, at preſent employed by the Engliſh company, is much greater than ever; not only in conſequence of the increaſe of their trade, but becauſe they find it convenient not to employ veſſels of ſuch exceeding great burden as formerly. For it was ordinary for the ſhips trading to India, in the time of king Charles the IId, to carry 7 or 800 tons burden, and ſome have been heretofore employed from 800 to 1000 tons. But now the trade is generally carried on in ſhips of 3 or 400 tons, but then ſo many of theſe are employed, that 'tis not unuſual for the company to have from 30 to 60 ſail ſometimes in their ſervice.

The Dutch, whoſe fleets are generally from 20 to 30 or 40 ſail a year, have many more ſhips employed in this trade; they have rarely leſs than 100 ſail engaged in this commerce. Beſides, the Engliſh and Dutch, eſpecially the latter, have a great many ſhips always in the country, though built in Europe, for carrying on the trade there from place to place: ſo that it is judged, and that without exaggeration, that the Dutch do not employ leſs than 200 ſail always in their India commerce, and the Engliſh about one third of the number; and the French have greatly enlarged this branch of their commerce within theſe few years, and aim at vieing with them both. See FRANCE.

There is ſtill another ſort of commerce with India, which has not been yet mentioned, and which is carried on by the Spaniards from the weſtern coaſt of America, as Mexico, to the Philippine Iſlands. But the number of ſhips employed therein are not above two or three in a year, though they are generally very large; ſome being occaſionally even 1600 or 2000 tons. The voyage is long, being oftentimes three or four months between the Philippines and the iſland of California.

Further REMARKS.

From this general ſtate of the trade of the Eaſt Indies, it appears, that the improvement thereof, with reſpect to the intereſt of the Europeans, depends more upon the ſettlement of colonies and plantations, as the Dutch and the Portugueze have done, and as the French, it ſeems, are at preſent doing, than upon the ſettlement of ſea-coaſts, forts and factories only; for 'tis pretty apparent, we conceive, from what hath been urged under the article of DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, that nothing but the ſame ſyſtem of commercial policy, which that wiſe republic has purſued, could have rendered them ſo potent and opulent in this part of the world.

Nor have they, by theſe meaſures, at all depopulated their ſtate in Europe, as ſome might, at firſt view, apprehend to be the conſequence of ſuch their conduct: on the contrary, they have increaſed in people, by means of communication with the native Indians; whereby they have alſo increaſed their trading power in Europe, in proportion as they have increaſed their territories and their dominion in Aſia.

We deſire to be underſtood only to mean and intend, from what has been ſaid, that our own kingdom, by purſuing the example of the wiſe Hollanders in the Aſiatic traffic, may gain an aſcendancy in that part of the world, no way inferior to this neighbouring ſtate: and, without falling on ſuch like meaſures, it is to be feared, that we ſhall rather daily loſe, than gain ground in that improveable and extenſive branch of commerce.

What ſeems to have a tendency to confirm us in our humble judgment, with reſpect to the natural advancement of this India trade, is the peculiarity of the way of traffic in theſe people; which it is obſervable differs, in one eſſential reſpect, from that of the whole world beſides. For no man yet that ever I heard of, ever ſaw any capital trading veſſel of Eaſt-India in any part of Europe. What is the motive to thoſe Indian nations for thus conducting their commerce, that they ſhould forego one of the greateſt advantages, that the wiſeſt Europeans have to increaſe their foreign trade and their maritime power? Inſtead of their giving themſelves the trouble to carry, in their own ſhipping, their own produce and manufactures to the European nations, they attract them, by a ſecret kind of policy that we do not ſeem to be acquainted with, not only into their ocean, but even their very rivers, to come and purchaſe their commodities of all ſorts, upon their own terms and conditions.

Is not this, in effect, commanding the trade of the whole world? And what do the Eaſt-Indians, the Chineſe, the Japaneſe, &c. mean by this, but explicitly declaring, by their admirable ſyſtem of commercial policy, that the whole world ſhall bow down unto them? On the other hand, are not all the nations of Chriſtendom ſtriving to outvie each other in paying homage to theſe Indian nations! Are they not all bent upon the eſtabliſhment of Eaſt-India companies, in order to viſit and pay reſpect even to theſe heathen nations, as they are called by ſome in a religious ſenſe?

May it not deſerve our enquiry, upon what principles of policy theſe nations ſeem to have an aſcendency, in this reſpect, over the reſt of the whole trading world? Is not every commercial ſtate in Europe glad to have a vent for their commodities, even when they carry them in their own ſhipping to other countries? Where is the ſtate in all Europe, that can preſume to command the ſubjects of other ſtates, like thoſe Indians, to bring treaſures into their territories, to employ their poor, and add to the grandeur of their power?

'Tis infinitely more eaſy to diſcern effects, than to trace out the real cauſes thereof. We therefore would only preſume to ſuggeſt, whether theſe effects may not have been naturally produced from the following cauſes.

(1.) From the extraordinary wiſdom and policy of theſe ſeveral ſtates and empires, in deviſing ſuch laws for the general government of the people, as have an effectual tendency to render them induſtrious and parſimonious?

(2.) Whether their laws alſo are not as vigilantly executed, as they are judiciouſly contrived, for the benefit of ſociety?

(3.) Whether their non-diſtraction of the maſs of the common people, with religious and other idle controverſies, has not had a tendency to quiet their minds, to ſtimulate them to excel, rather in uſeful, innocent, and virtuous arts, than to concern themſelves in matters that few, in compariſon to the whole, have either leiſure or qualification to comprehend?

(4.) Whether the general cheapneſs of their manufactures, in compariſon to thoſe of the European nations, is not the great inducement to others to fetch them from the Indies, in order to diſpoſe of them to advantage to thoſe ſtates, which cannot purchaſe them at firſt hand?

(5.) Whether the cauſe of their cheapneſs of labour does not proceed from the greater culture of land among theſe people in general, than is among the Europeans, in proportion to the number of inhabitants; and, in conſequence thereof, to the greater plenty of the productions of nature, and therefore their greater cheapneſs?

(6.) Whether the taxes in general in theſe ſtates and empires, with reſpect to commerce, are not more wiſely laid than among the European potentates; and whether they are incumbered with the like burthen of national debts?

(7.) Whether they do not, from the principles of policy, bury, or ſome how conceal, the bulk of the ſilver which they

receive in the courſe of traffic from the Europeans, in order to keep the leſs quantity of money in circulation, with a view to keep the price of labour among all their manufacturers at a certain ſtandard? And,

(8.) Whether their non-uſe of paper circulation, in conſequence of having no national debts, may not alſo greatly contribute to keep the price of labour low, and their product and manufactures permanently cheap?

An authentic account of the weights, meaſures, exchanges, cuſtoms, duties, port-charges, &c. &c.

FORT ST GEORGE or MADRAS.

Gold and ſilver weights.

	oz.	dw.	gr.	
1 Pagoda is - -	0	2	4 $\frac{71}{100}$	Troy.
9$\frac{1}{6}$ Ditto - -	1	0	0	
8 Ditto - 1 dollar weight	0	17	14	
100 Dollars - -	88	1	17	
100 Venetian ducats -	11	0	5	
100 Gubbers at a medium	10	17	12	
1 Rupee - - -	0	7	11	
100 Ditto - - -	37	5	20	

Great weights.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	
10 Pagodas is 1 pollam, equal to	0	1	3$\frac{1}{4}$	Avoirdup.
8 Pollams is 1 ſeer, or 9 oz. Troy	0	9	10	
5 Seer is 1 vis - -	3	0	2	
1 Maund is - -	25	0	0	
20 Ditto is 1 candy -	500	0	0	
1 Pecul is - -	132	0	0	

Grain meaſures.

	lb.	oz.	
1 Meaſure weighs about -	2	10	Avoirdupoiſe.
8 Ditto is 1 mercal - -	21	0	
3200 Ditto is 400 ditto, or 1 garſe	8400	0	

1 Madras rupee weighs 7 dw. 11 gr. Troy, and is better than Engliſh ſtandard, 14 dw. 10 gr. in 1 lb. It is country touch 9$\frac{7}{8}$. China touch 98$\frac{3}{4}$.

1 Madras pagoda weighs 2 dw. 4$\frac{3}{4}$ gr. is Engliſh matt. 20 car. 2$\frac{4}{5}$ gr. country touch 8$\frac{5}{8}$, China 86$\frac{1}{4}$.

1 Allumgect pagoda 1 dw. 22 gr. Engliſh matt. 23 car. 2$\frac{4}{5}$ gr. country touch 9$\frac{7}{8}$, China 98$\frac{3}{4}$.

Weights.

10 Pagodas weight is equal to 1 Pollam.
40 Pollams - - 1 Vis, or 3$\frac{1}{8}$ lb. Avoirdup.
8 Vis - - 1 Maund, or 25 lb. Ditto.
20 Maunds - - 1 Candy, or 500 lb. Ditto.

1 Madras maund is equal to ,667377 decimal parts of a Surat maund.

1 Madras dollar weighs 17 dw. 14 gr. ,8125 Troy.

1 Ditto pagoda weighs 2 dw. 4 gr. ,8516 Ditto.

Liquid and dry meaſures.

1 Meaſure is equal to 1$\frac{1}{2}$ pint Engliſh of 423 cubic inches.
8 Ditto - 1 Mercal - of 3384 Ditto.
400 Mercals - 1 Garſe of 1,353,600 Ditto.

1 Covid is equal to 18 $\frac{6}{10}$ inches.

N. B. 1 meaſure weighs about 2 lb. 8 oz. Avoirdupoſe. 8 Ditto 21 to 22 lb.

3200 Ditto is 400 mercals, or 1 garſe, which weighs 8400 lb. which is 3$\frac{3}{4}$ tons, or 100 Bengal baazar maunds of 82 lb. 2 oz. 2 dr. each.

Coins.

80 Caſh make 1 fanam.

36 Fanams make 1 pagoda poiſe 2 dw. 4 gr. is 8,625 matts fine.

100 Madras rupees weigh 37 oz. 5 dw. 20 gr. and are better than ſtandard 14$\frac{1}{2}$ dw.

100 Bombay ditto, are better than ſtandard 10$\frac{1}{2}$ dw.

N. B. 36 Fanams to a pagoda, is the exchange by which all the ſervants belonging to the company, receive their ſalaries; but, in the baazar, the general exchange in trade is from 40 to 42 fanams for a pagoda.

BENGAL.

Weights.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	deci.	
16 Chittacks make 1 ſeer of	1	14	14	,8666	Avoir.
40 Seer is 1 maund of	74	10	10	,666	

11 Factory maunds of 74 lb. 10 oz. 10 dr. each, is 10 baazar maunds.

1 Baazar maund is equal to 82 lb. 2 oz. 2 dr.

1 Secca weight is equal to 7 dw. 11 gr. ,5511 dec. Troy.

Coins.

12 Pice make - - -	1	Anna.
16 Annas - - -	1	Rupee.

To reduce Madras or Surat rupees to current rupees, you muſt add 10 per cent. and, to bring current rupees to Madras rupees, you muſt multiply the ſum by 100, and divide that product by 110, and the quotient is the anſwer in Madras rupees.

4 Cowries make - -	1	Gunda.
20 Gundas is - - -	1	Ponn.
32 Ponns is - - -	1	Current rupee.

Though they ſometimes riſe and fall according to the quantity of cowries in the place.

Cargoes are commonly ſold from 40 to 42 ponns per Arcat rupee, which is 8 per cent. better than current rupees.

Meaſures.

1 Meaſure is - - -	5	Seer.
8 Ditto is - - -	40	Seer.

The covid (in cloth meaſure) is 9 inches.

CALLICUTT and TELLICHERRY.

Weights.

100 Pool is 1 maund weight from 30 lb. Avoir. to 29 lb. 10 oz. 6 dr.

20 Maund 1 candy weight from 600 lb. Avoir. to 598 lb.

1 Callicutt miſcal is to ,14375 dec. or Troy weight, 2 dw. 21 gr. and is to 1 Surat tola ,36836 dec. to 11 vis ,78752 decimals.

Coins.

16 Tarr or vis is equal to -	1	Fanam called galee.
5 Fanams - -	1	Rupee.

1 Spaniſh dollar, full weight, is accounted 2$\frac{1}{4}$ rupees, but paſs in the baazar only from 10 fanams 4 tarr to 10$\frac{1}{2}$ fanams.

Meaſure.

1 Covid is 18 inches Engliſh. And the Callicutt guz made uſe of in meaſuring timber is equal to 28 $\frac{2}{10}$ inches Engliſh. They likewiſe, ſometimes at Callicutt, meaſure their timber by the covid and borrells. 12 Borrells is 1 covid, when the timber is ſawed; and 24 borrells is 1 covid, when unſawed. The price generally is 1 Callicut fanam per ſolid covid.

BOMBAY.

Great Weights.

		lb.	oz.	
15 Pice is -	1 Seer, and weighs	0	15$\frac{1}{5}$	Avoir.
600 Ditto is	40 Seer, and weighs 1 Maund, or -	38	0	Ditto.
12000 Ditto is 800 ditto, ditto,	20 maund, or 1 candy	760	0	Ditto.

Small Weights.

6 Chowe is - - -	1 Grain Bombay
2$\frac{1}{2}$ Grains - - -	1 Voll
40 Voll - - -	1 Tola
32 Tola and 13 voll is - -	12 Ounces Troy.

Weights for grain, &c.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	
20 Adolens is 1 Para, or - -	34	8	12	Avoir.
500 Ditto is 25 ditto, or 1 Mora -	863	12	12	Ditto.

Coins.

	rup.	annas.	pice.
1 Venetian is - - -	3	14	0
1 Gubber is - - -	3	12	6
1 Gold Moor, or rupee - -	13	8	0

They keep their accounts in rupees, quarters, and rees.

100 Rees is - - -	1	Quarter.
400 Ditto is - - -	1	Rupee

They have (beſides theſe rees, which are made of lead, with a ſtamp on them) a ſmall coin made of toothenague, called pice, 80 of which go to a rupee.

Goods are bought and ſold here by the Bombay candy, or maund, Surat candy, or maund, and by the pucca, or Bengal maund, which is two Surat maunds; but, in contracts, the candy or maund you buy or ſell with is always mentioned.

SURAT.

SURAT.

Gold and ſilver weights.

	Oz.	dw.	gr.	
1 Chowle is as 1 rutta,				
3 Rutta is 1 voll - -	0	0	$5\frac{20}{32}$	Troy.
32 Voll is 1 tola - -	0	7	$18\frac{2}{11}$	
$82\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto is 2 tolas and $18\frac{1}{2}$ volls, or	1	0	0	
$9\frac{1}{4}$ Voll is 1 Venetian weight -	0	2	$5\frac{5}{14}$	
100 Ditto is 28 tola 29 voll	11	14	22	
73 Voll is 1 dollar weight -	0	17	18	
100 Ditto weight 228 tola 4 voll. - -	88	15	0	
31 Tola is very near -	12	0	0	
The ſeer for coral is 18 great pice, or 27 common pice weight -	12	5	20	
Ditto for muſk - -	11	0	0	
The Surat ſeer is 30 pice, and weighs at a medium - -	13	12	0	

	Rup.	Ann.	Pice.
1 Spaniſh dollar full weight 73 volls, is -	2	3	0
100 Ditto ditto - - -	219	12	9
100 Ounces Mexico dollars -	247	0	0

Great weights.

	lb.	oz.	dr.	
30 Pice is 1 ſeer or - -	0	14	7	Avoir.
40 Seer is 1 maund - -	37	5	7	
20 Maund is 1 candy - -	746	12	12	
1 Maund at Agra is equal to 1 maund 14 ſeer of Surat, or -	50	10	0	

The Pucca maund is $74\frac{2}{3}$ equal to Bengal factory maund.
Metals are ſold at 40 ſeer to the maund, but all periſhable goods, and ſuch as are not free from dirt and duſt, are from 41 to 44 ſeer to the maund, as the buyer and ſeller can agree; though cuſtom now has fixed every particular kind of goods to a ſtated number of ſeer to a maund.

Meaſures

Are the larger and leſſer covid, viz.
1 Covid of 36 inches, and 1 covid 27 inches.
By the latter all things are ſold, except broad cloth, velvet, and ſattin, which are ſold by the large covid or Engliſh yard.

Coins

Are gold and ſilver, rupees, annas, and pice.

4 Pice make - - -	1 Anna
16 Annas or 64 pice make -	1 Rupee ſilver.
$13\frac{1}{2}$ Silver rupees are equal to -	1 Rupee gold.

Theſe are the chief weights, meaſures, and coins in India, which are made uſe of at the Britiſh forts and ſettlements there, to which we at preſent give the more particular attention; and under the articles DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, PORTUGUESE EAST-INDIA TRADE, MEASURES and WEIGHTS in general, will be contained what elſe is requiſite in regard to matters of this nature.
Thoſe who would chuſe to be more minutely acquainted with particulars of this kind, may conſult the ingenious and induſtrious Mr Brooke's tract upon this ſubject, which will be of great uſe to all gentlemen who trade to thoſe parts, by preventing the many and too frequent frauds and impoſitions committed by the natives, in their ordinary way of traffic with the Europeans.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE in ITALY, is bounded on the north by the gulph of Venice and the Venetian dominions, on the eaſt by the kingdom of Naples, on the ſouth by the Mediterranean, and on the weſt by Tuſcany and Modena.
The air upon the whole is foggy and unwholſome, but the ſoil rich and fertile, and would, if duly cultivated, produce the greateſt plenty of corn, wine, oil, &c.
This ſtate comprehends the following territories, viz.
I. The duchy of FERRARA.
II. The duchy of BOLOGNA.
It hath no town of any note except it's capital.
BOLOGNA, ſituated on the Rheno and Savona, and hath a large channel cut between the Rheno and the Po, which wonderfully facilitates the tranſportation of all commodities to and from the city: they export chiefly wax, ſilk, hemp, flax, hams, tobacco, perfumes, ſweetmeats, and a curious ſmall breed of dogs, ſo little, that the ladies carry them about in their muffs and apron-pockets. Beſides theſe, they export great quantities of wrought ſilks of all ſorts, rich velvets, leather bottles, and other manufactures of this city; beſides olives, and other fruits, produced in great plenty in the neighbourhood of it.
III. The province of ROMAGNA.
The chief town of any note for trade is FAENZA, which is famed among other things for a fine earthen ware, called by it's name, and not inferior to the Dutch delft, and for it's fine linen manufacture.

IV. The duchy of URBINO.
FANO is a maritime town on the gulph of Venice; for the convenience of trade, a canal has been dug, and lined with ſquare ſtones, which, by opening ſome ſluices, brings various kinds of merchandize into it.
SINIGAGLIA is pleaſantly ſeated on a large plain, near the Adriatic Sea, hath a convenient port for ſmall veſſels, and drives on a pretty good commerce.
V. The marquiſate of ANCONA.
RECANATI on the river Muſone, in the gulph of Venice, is reckoned a good trading city, and famed for a fair in September, which laſts 15 days, and was formerly much reſorted to.
TOLENTINO hath it's commercial fairs, which draw a concourſe of merchants of all ſorts to it.
VI. The PERUGIANO, or territory of PERUGIA.
PASSIGNIANO is a ſmall city, ſituate on the north-eaſt of the lake of Perugia. This, and another ſmall but well peopled city, called Caſtiglione del Lago, on the weſt ſhore of the ſame lake, drive a good trade of the fiſh caught in it, and ſupply the whole territory.
VII. The ORVIETANO.
Here are no towns of any note for trade.
VIII. ST. PETER'S PATRIMONY.
CIVITA VECCHIA hath a good convenient harbour, and a ſpacious dock for ſhips, with an artificial mole, at the end of which is a ſtrong high tower, which at once defends the entrance into the port, and ſerves as a light-houſe to it. But it's ſcarcity of freſh water makes it a very inconvenient place, and is thinly inhabited on account of it's unwholſome air; though the Popes have done all they could to draw a good traffic thither.
IX. CAMPAGNA, or CAMPANIA DI ROMA.
X. The province of SABINA.
XI. OMBRIA, or the duchy of SPOLETO.
FOLIGNI, on the river Tubino, is inhabited by a great number of rich merchants, whoſe traffic conſiſts chiefly in cloth, gold and ſilver lace, ſpicery, ſweetmeats, ſilks, and other ſuch commodities, all manufactured within it's walls. It hath, beſides, a celebrated fair in April, which laſts a month, and contributes much to the trade and wealth of the place.
XII. CITTA DI CASTELLA.
In this territory, which is neither fruitful, pleaſant, rich nor populous, is no town of any note.
EDINBURGHSHIRE, or MID-LOTHIAN. This, which is the principal ſhire in Scotland, is bounded on the eaſt with the ſhire of Hadington, or Eaſt-Lothian, on the ſouth with Selkirk and Tweedale, on the weſt with Lanerick, and on the north with the Firth of Forth.
It yields conſiderable quantities of corn, with good paſturage, and is abundantly furniſhed with all neceſſaries, particularly coal and lime-ſtone.
EDINBURGH, the metroplis of Scotland, is a mile from the port of Leith, conſiſts chiefly of one ſtreet, but a very noble one; the city is four miles in compaſs, and as populous as any city in Europe for it's bigneſs. The markets here are very well ſupplied with all neceſſaries, and kept for the moſt part in diſtinct places walled in.
LEITH, which is the port of Edinburgh, lies on the Forth, and has a good mole or harbour, one of the moſt frequented in all Scotland. The entrance of which is made good, by a long jet or pier on the eaſt ſide, bigger than thoſe at Genoa and Leghorn. The mouth of it is dry at low water, and the ſea ebbs about half a mile out from it north. The merchants of Edinburgh generally keep the groſs quantity of all their heavy goods here to be ready for carriage, either by land or ſea; ſo that 'tis not improperly called the warehouſe, as well as port of Edinburgh. Here are alſo ſome works not common in Scotland, viz. a glaſs-houſe for making all ſorts of green glaſs, eſpecially bottles, carried on by a company who have their workmen and materials from England; a ſugar-bakehouſe, and a ſaw-mill for cutting timber, ſlitting deals, and the like. See the article SCOTLAND.
EGYPT, is commonly divided into Lower, Middle and Upper.
I. LOWER EGYPT, or Egypt properly ſo called, is ſo ſtiled on account of it's ſituation, according to the courſe of the Nile, it being the laſt of the three through which that river runs, and from which it diſcharges itſelf into the ſea. It is bounded on the ſouth by Middle Egypt, on the north by the ſea, on the weſt by the deſert of Barca, and on the eaſt by the iſthmus of Suez.
This country is very fertile, and ſo well improved, that it abounds with paſture grounds, corn, wine, rice, dates, ſenna, caſſia, baulm, phyſical drugs, plants, &c.
It's principal towns are,
BUSIRIS, an ancient city, but now dwindled into a village called Aboaſir.
ALEXANDRIA, by the Turks called SCANDERIC, is ſituate at the mouth of the Canopean branch of the Nile, where it forms a noble, ſpacious haven, in form of a creſcent; and which, though not very ſafe, is much frequented.
ROSETTO, is a healthy, pleaſant, and populous city, ſituate on a branch of the Nile.

It has a conſiderable manufacture of ſtriped and coarſe linnen, but it's chief buſineſs is carrying of the European merchandizes, which are brought thither from Alexandria to Cairo in boats. For which purpoſe the Europeans have here their vice-conſuls and factors to expedite buſineſs, and the letters, bills, &c. brought from Alexandria. As for letters of conſequence, they are conveyed by land acroſs the deſert by foot-meſſengers directly to Cairo.

DAMIETTA ſtands on one of the eaſtern branches of the Nile, about 10 miles from the mouth of it. 'Tis reckoned one of the keys of Egypt, is large, though ill built, and hath about 25,000 inhabitants, without reckoning a good large and populous town on the other ſide of the river, chiefly inhabited by ſailors and fiſhermen, and a much greater number of ſtrangers from all parts, on account of traffic; all which have contributed not a little to make it opulent and conſiderable. As for the inhabitants, they are all greedy of gain, and ſeverally employed; ſome in mechanic trades, others in manufactures, particularly that of fine linen cloth of all colours, and in great requeſt.

MAQUILLA, a handſome populous town, carries on ſeveral kinds of linen and cotton manufactures, beſides the making great quantities of ſal armoniac, and hatching vaſt multitudes of eggs in ovens.

II. MIDDLE EGYPT.

This province is ſituate between the Upper and Lower Egypt, having the former on the ſouth, and the latter, juſt now deſcribed, on the north, the Red Sea on the eaſt, and the deſert of Barca on the weſt. At preſent it is chiefly known by the names of Baheirah and Beneſor.

It is divided in two by the Nile, on the banks of which the ſoil is fruitful; but the farther the land runs from it, the more ſandy and barren.

It's chief cities are,

CAIRO, the capital of Egypt, and by far the largeſt and moſt populous in the whole kingdom, is pleaſantly ſituated on the Nile.

It appears from the vaſt number of ſquares, caravanſeras, bazars, and other ſuch public buildings, to have been a place of extraordinary commerce, now decayed, ſince the trade to the Eaſt-Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; yet it ſtill carries on a pretty many manufactures, eſpecially that of Turky carpets, and a good trade by means of the caravans. See the articles CARAVAN and EAST-INDIA TRADE.

SUEZ is a ſmall city, with an old caſtle, both now almoſt ruined; it's haven ſo ſhallow, that large veſſels cannot get into it; though there is a good road by it, where they can ride ſafely.

FIUM is a large and populous city. The principal commerce of it conſiſts in linnen, plain and ſtriped, leather of a fine ſort and in great requeſt, carpets, and the fineſt mats in all Egypt, beſides figs, raiſins, oranges, lemons, and other fruits, which it ſends to Cairo.

III. The HIGHER or UPPER EGYPT.

This province is bounded on the eaſt ſide by the Red Sea all the way, on the north by Middle Egypt, on the weſt by the deſert of Barca, and on the ſouth by Nubia and the coaſt of Abex. It is by far the leaſt cultivated and populous of all the three. Moſt of it's towns, or rather villages, are very thinly peopled. The chief commodities are corn, pulſe, rice, linnen, and leather.

The towns of it are,

BENESONEF, chiefly remarkable for a manufacture of a narrow kind of ſtriped carpet, made of wool and coarſe thread without nap, uſed by the meaner ſort to cover the cuſhions of their ſophas, &c.

MINIO, a neat town, famed for an earthen manufacture of water-pots, or veſſels, not only very curiouſly made, but ſaid to give an uncommon freſhneſs to the water; and, on that account, in great requeſt all over Egypt, and eſpecially at Cairo.

ABOUTIC, now a village, and of note only for the vaſt quantities of black poppies that grow in and about it, and of which the Turks and Arabs make the beſt opium, which is conveyed thence all over, not only Turky, but India. The cauſe of it's decay is ſaid to be owing to the robbers that infeſted it.

ESNE makes a better appearance than moſt towns in this province. It's inhabitants are rich, eſpecially in corn and cattle, and drive a conſiderable commerce up the Nile into Nubia, as well as by the land caravans through the deſert.

REMARKS.

Egypt, though a large country, lies but little on the ſea-coaſt, and that affords ſtill leſs that is remarkable for our puposе. It begins to the eaſt part, where the deſert coaſt of Barca and Tripoli are ſaid to end; and we find nothing here that deſerves our notice, 'till we come to the mouth of the Nile, and nothing there but Alexandria. The corn they have here is generally ſhipped off at ſome of the little creeks upon the coaſt, and ſent to Conſtantinople, or in ſmall coaſting veſſels to Alexandria, in order to be carried thence to Europe. The city of Alexandria boaſts of it's antiquity,

having been built by Alexander the Great after the taking of Tyre, that he might preſerve the trade between India and Europe, which he found, to his great diſſatisfaction, was ruined by the deſtruction of Tyre: ſo great a value was ſet upon the Eaſt-India trade, even in thoſe days!

This trade from India was carried on for many ages with infinite advantage by the Tyrians. And Alexander, who was ill adviſed in extirpating the Phœnician merchants, to make the world amends, erected this city, making it a free port, and giving it his own name; and exerted his utmoſt ſagacity and authority to bring the Indian merchants to ſettle there, and make it the ſtaple of their manufactures, which, however, he could never effectually do: a great part of the commerce took another turn, and paſſing from India by the river Oxus, and the city Samercand into the Caſpian Sea, and thence by land to Trapezond, from whence it croſſed the Euxine Sea, and, paſſing all the other ſeas needful, centered at length in the city of Corinth, which by that means became a great and opulent City. See the article TURKY TRADE.

Muſt not this, as well as numberleſs other inſtances throughout this work, convince us of the danger there is from diverting the channel of trade ourſelves, or ſuffering thoſe branches belonging to us to be broke in upon by rivals?

Alexander, however, ſo far prevailed, that a great part of the trade from India came this way, particularly ſuch of it as was driven on the coaſt of Malabar, and in the Perſian gulph; which, coming up the Red Sea, landed their goods at Elam, now Suez; and they were thence carried over land to the Nile, and then again by water to Alexandria.

That this city, in the moſt flouriſhing ſtate of it's commerce, was a large, opulent, ſtrong, and magnificent city, is certain; and that, ſince the decay of it's trade, it is now little more than the ſkeleton of what it has been, is not leſs true. It's conflagration by the Saracens, indeed, effected it's preſent ruinous ſtate, in compariſon to what it was in it's ſplendor. It has ſtill ſome trade, and is populous, but not conſiderable. Roſetta and Damietta, and even Grand Cairo, have loſt the fund of their wealth and glory from the time that the Portugueze, unhappily for them, found the way to the Eaſt-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.

The means whereby this country is rendered ſo extraordinary fertile in corn, &c. are by the courſe and overflowings of the famous river the Nile. As to it's ſwelling, geographers inform us, that it correſponds exactly with the rainy ſeaſons between the tropics: they commence in the mountains about the beginning of May, and the water of the Nile begins to ſwell about the middle of it; ſo that there are fifteen days allowed by nature for the courſe of the water from the latitude of Ethiopia to that of Egypt, which is eſteemed a pretty exact allowance; the diſtance being from 13 or 15, to the latitude of 28 and 30, which may very well correſpond with the time.---As to the continuance of the inundation, this is ſaid to be juſt the ſame, keeping time with the rains; for, as it is in ſeveral parts of Africa, ſo it is in Ethiopia, the rains abate at the beginning of September, and ceaſe by the beginning of October: thus the inundation anſwers exactly fifteen days, the ſame ſpace as before: after the rains begin to abate in Ethiopia, the inundation of the river begins to abate in Egypt; and, ten days after the rains ceaſe in Ethiopia, the Nile is quite reduced to it's ancient channel in Egypt. This being the caſe, there can be no room any longer to doubt, whether the rains in Ethiopia are the cauſe of the inundation or no.---In regard to the height to which the waters ariſe, ſome authors give an account of the ſwell being about forty feet in height perpendicularly; which, though it be extraordinary to imagine, and muſt, in our imagination, place all the towns on a hilly ſituation, or ſuppoſe them to be laid under water; yet, ſince ſo many affirm it for truth, we leave that as we find it.---The effects of this inundation are fructifying the earth, not only moiſtening it inſtead of rain, but enriching the land with the fattening ſlimy ſubſtance, which it receives from the richneſs of the ſoil in Ethiopia, from whence it comes. This is ſaid to be particular to the river Nile, as the country of Ethiopia is particularly rich and fruitful beyond all that part of Africa. It is true, that the Niger, the Congo, and ſeveral other rivers on the coaſt of Africa, which overflow the country, do make it fruitful, and enrich the ſoil as well as the Nile does, but none in ſo extraordinary a manner.

The Shire of ELGIN, in Scotland. This comprehends one part of Murray, and is bounded on the eaſt by the river Spey; on the weſt by the ſhire of Nairn, and part of Loquhaber; has Aberdeenſhire and Badenoch on the ſouth; and is parted on the North from Inverneſsſhire by the Frith and river Neſs. The air is wholſome, and the winter mild; the ſouth ſide mountainous, but abounds with paſture, as the low country does with corn, which is ſoon ripe. Here are ſeveral great woods of fir-trees, &c. 10 miles long, with ſome large woods of oak.

ELGIN, the chief town, and a royal burgh, is ſituate in a pleaſant plain, and fruitful, though ſandy ſoil. The Highland gentry come to live here every winter. The town ſtands on the river Loſſie, which falls into the ſea a few miles below it.

This

This river abounds moſt with ſalmon of any in the iſland, except the Dee and Don, and may, indeed, one year with another, be ſaid to equal them, 80 or 100 laſts being annually pickled and exported, and all taken in a few of the ſummer months, and within the ſpace of one mile, at the village of Germach. It abounds with fiſh, indeed, to the very head; but theſe are moſtly uſed for home conſumption, and taken either with ſpears by day, or in wicker baſkets, or little boats covered with hides, by night.

EMBARGOES on ſhips, and QUARANTINES.

An embargo is an arreſt on ſhips or merchandize by public authority, and is commonly on foreign ſhips in time of war, being a prohibition of ſtate for ſecurity againſt enemies, and, indeed, to endamage them.

The king may lay embargoes on ſhips, or employ thoſe of his ſubjects, in time of danger, for ſervice and defence of the nation; but they muſt not be for the private advantage of a particular trader or company: and, therefore, a warrant to ſtay a ſingle ſhip in no legal embargo, as in the caſe of Mr Sands, and Sir Joſiah Child, in king William the Third's reign, which was as follows:

On the 13th of December, 34 Car. II. Mr Sands being about to ſail for the Madeiras, in the ſhip Expectation, with divers goods to trade there, Sir Joſiah Child entered a plaint in the Admiralty court, and proceſs iſſued to ſtop the ſhip, and Mr Sands to give ſecurity that he would not ſail within the limits of the Eaſt-India company, which he refuſed. There was judgment for the plaintiff Sands in the Common Pleas, and damages recovered to 1500l. and, on a writ of error brought, the error aſſigned was in point of judgment, viz. whether the matter on record was ſufficient to charge the defendant Child? It was urged that what he had done was lawful: for the king may ſtop any ſubject's ſhip, and ſhut the ports of the kingdom at his pleaſure, in time of danger: and ſo, likewiſe, he may reſtrain his ſubjects from departing, leſt they ſhould aſſiſt his enemies. And, to prevent ſuch departure of ſhips, it has been uſual to petition the king, who thereupon directs his advocate to require caution that the maſter trade not with infidels; and this in conformity to the common law of the land.

It was anſwered in favour of Mr Sands, that ſtopping this ſhip was illegal. At common law, no man is prohibited to travel out of the realm, whether to trade with infidels or not, as appears by ſtat. 26 Henry VIII. cap. 10. which impowered the king, during life, to reſtrain trading to particular places, and had been to little purpoſe, if he could have done it without help of parliament; and, the common law being reſtored by the expiration of that act, no force can be put on any man's property, without breach of the peace, and private injury.

And no inference can be made form embargoes, which are only in war-time, and are a prohibition by advice of council, and not at proſecution of parties; for Mr Sands, and the ſhip's crew, might have gone to any infidels, refraining from trading within the company's charter; and finding the charter is not material, for, if that had any power, there had been no need of petitioning the council.

And, in another term, the plaintiff's judgment was affirmed: but the court declared, the partners of the ſhip ſhould have been joined with the plaintiff in this action; which might have been pleaded in abatement, but was omitted, and the plaintiff had his judgment. Trin. 4 Will. and M. 4 Mod. Rep. 176, 179, 181.

Quarantine is the term of 40 days, in which perſons from foreign parts, infected with the plague, are not permitted to come on ſhore.

Several places in the Baltic being infected with the plague, an act was made, 9 Ann. cap. 2. that then, and at all times hereafter, all veſſels coming to England or Ireland from infected places, ſhall make their quarantine as directed by the queen, or her ſucceſſors; during which no perſon ſhall go on board ſuch ſhip, without proper licence.

And, if any maſter of a ſhip, coming from an infected place, ſhall come on ſhore, or permit any other, or go on board any other veſſel, during the time of quarantine, without licence, he forfeits the ſhip to the queen, &c. and the perſon coming on ſhore, or going on board any other ſhip, may be compelled to return; and, on conviction by oath of one or more witneſſes, ſhall forfeit a ſum not exceeding 20l. or be committed to the houſe of correction.

Any perſon going on board, and returning without licence, may be compelled on board again, there to remain during quarantine, and the maſter ſhall maintain him. And any boat or ſkiff belonging to ſuch ſhip, may be detained for the time.

Juſtices of the peace where quarantine is made, are to cauſe watches to be ſet day and night, in convenient places for the aforeſaid purpoſes. When the ſhip has performed quarantine, the cuſtomer and juſtice ſhall give a certificate, and the ſhip, &c. be no longer detained. But the goods ſhall afterwards be opened and aired, as appointed by proclamation.

The ſtat. 7 Geo. I. cap. 3. enacted, That, during the infection at Marſeilles, and in all future times, when any country ſhall be infected, all ſhips, perſons, goods, &c. ſhall perform quarantine as directed by proclamation, notifying the king's order made in privy council.

And if, during ſuch orders, any ſhip attempts to enter any port, the principal officer of the cuſtoms, and the perſons authoriſed to ſee quarantine performed, ſhall go off to ſuch ſhip, and at diſtance demand the following particulars, viz. ſhip's and commander's name, place where the cargo was laden, places touched at in the Voyage, whether ſuch places were infected, how long the ſhip had been in her paſſage, how many perſons on board, when ſet ſail, &c.

And if it appear, on ſuch examination, that any perſon on board is infected, then it ſhall be lawful for all whom it may concern to reſiſt the entrance of ſuch ſhip, by any kind of force whatſoever: and the maſter, not diſcovering the ſame, ſhall be adjudged a felon; alſo, if, on demand made, he ſhall not make true diſcovery in the particulars beforementioned, he forfeits 200l.

If any maſter, or other having charge, ſhall quit, or ſuffer any other to quit ſuch ſhip, or ſhall not, on due notice, cauſe ſhip and lading to be conveyed as appointed during quarantine, forfeits every ſuch ſhip, with the tackle, &c. and ſuch maſter, for every offence, forfeits 200l. and every perſon going on ſhore, &c. may be compelled to return on board, and ſhall, for every offence, forfeit 200l. and ſuffer ſix months impriſonment.

If, at any time, any place in Great-Britain, Ireland, or the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, ſhall be infected, and the ſame made appear to the king in council, his majeſty, with advice of his privy council, may make the neceſſary orders for the ſafety of his ſubjects. And any perſon whatever, neglecting to execute ſuch orders, ſhall forfeit his office, be incapacitated, and ſubject to 100l. penalty.

During times of infection in any part of Great-Britain, &c. or France, Spain, Portugal, or the Low Countries, his majeſty may, by proclamation, reſtrain all veſſels under 20 tons from ſailing out of any port of Great-Britain, &c. without ſecurity from the maſter in penalty of 500l. not to go to or touch at any place mentioned in the proclamation: and, if ſuch veſſel ſail without ſuch ſecurity given, ſhe ſhall, with her tackle, &c. be forfeited to the king, and the maſter, on conviction, forfeit 50l. or be impriſoned for three months.

All goods ſpecified in orders relating to quarantine, ſhall, in any veſſel whatſoever, be ſubject to ſuch orders. And all ſuch orders are to be read in all pariſh churches.

Any infected veſſel, &c. being entered any place of the king's dominions, his majeſty may impower any perſons to burn ſuch ſhip, &c. or ſo much as ſhall be neceſſary to prevent the ſpreading of the infection.

The 8th Geo. I. cap. 8. declared it lawful for the king, by proclamation, to reſtrain all perſons from going to infected places, and from exporting thither any goods whatſoever, or to import any from ſuch place.

All goods, &c. exported contrary thereto, with tackle, &c. ſhall be foreited, and ſeized, wherever found; and every perſon ſhiping ſuch goods forfeit double the value: alſo perſons, procuring ſuch goods to be imported, forfeit treble value, &c. beſides other pains and penalties.

Any perſon going to an infected place, after ſuch proclamation, incurs a præmunire.

By the 8th George I. cap. 10. certain clauſes in the act 7 Geo. I. cap. 3. are repealed.

But, by the ſtat. 1 Geo. II. cap 13. for performing quarantine, it is enacted, That, when any country is infected, his majeſty may order ſhips, houſes, or lazarets, to be provided for perſons to perform quarantine, and alſo ſheds, &c. for opening and airing of goods, &c. in places approved of by two or more juſtices for the county, &c. where the ſame lie, paying ſuch rent, &c. as ſhall be agreed on.

The proper officers ſhall compel all perſons, goods, &c. comprized within ſuch orders, to repair, or be conveyed, to ſome of the ſhips, &c. provided as beforementioned: and perſons refuſing, or being placed in ſuch ſhip, &c. eſcaping thence, or attempting it, may be compelled to return, and, on refuſal, or actually eſcaping, &c. ſhall be deemed felons, and ſuffer without benefit of clergy.

Any perſon not infected, preſuming to enter any ſhip, &c. appointed as aforeſaid, while infected perſons are there, and attempting to return thence, unleſs particularly authorized, may be compelled to repair to ſome ſhip, &c. to perform quarantine: and, if he eſcape, ſhall be guilty of felony.

And any officer hereunto appointed, ſuffering any perſon, ſhip, &c. to depart, or be removed thence, unleſs by ſome particular order, ſhall be adjudged a felon.

There is a clauſe in this ſtatute, that whereas cotton, ſkins, human hair, and certain other ſpecies of goods, are more eſpecially liable to retain infection, and may be brought from places infected, into other countries, and thence imported in ſhips liable to quarantine: therefore, any foreign country being infected, all ſuch goods, &c. particularly ſpecified in any order concerning quarantine, ſhall be liable to ſuch order.

By 6 Geo. II. cap. 34. ſuch parts of the act 1 Geo. II. cap. 13. as were to continue in force two years only, ſhall be revived, and continue a longer time; and the king may, by proclamation, prohibit his ſubjects going to any infected place therein mentioned during the time, and under the regulations therein ſpecified. Alſo to prohibit all perſons to come from any infected place into Great-Britain or Ireland, &c. under

the regulations preſcribed. And all perſons, exporting goods contrary thereto, forfeit double the value.

If, after ſuch proclamation, any perſon ſhall go to any infected place, contrary thereto, he forfeits 500l. half to his majeſty, half to him who ſues for it; and perſons coming from any infected place, or landing goods, &c. contrary to ſuch proclamation, ſhall be guilty of felony, the ſhip or goods be forfeited to the king: and all perſons, cauſing ſuch goods to be imported, ſhall forfeit treble value, two thirds to the king, the other to him who proſecutes.

In every proclamation prohibiting commerce with any infected place, reaſonable time is to be allowed before it commences, according to the diſtance of the infected places from Great-Britain, Ireland, &c. and the time in which notice may arrive at ſuch infected places.

Any action, or ſuit, commenced for any thing done, in purſuance of this act, the defendant may plead the general iſſue, and, if judgment be given againſt the plaintiff, the defendant ſhall recover treble coſts.

If goods be laden on board, and after an embargo, or reſtraint from the prince or ſtate, comes forth, and then he breaks ground, or endeavours to ſail, if any damage accrues, he muſt be reſponſible for the ſame. The reaſon is, becauſe his freight is due, and muſt be paid; nay, although the goods be ſeized as contraband.

A ſhip was hired to J. S. in England, to freight at 3l. 10s. per ton, to Bourdeaux; then an embargo is laid; ſhe afterwards proceeds to Bourdeaux; the maſter, not diſcovering his firſt agreement, agrees with the correſpondent there of J. S. to allow him 6l. 10s. the ton; upon this laſt agreement he recovered at law, and equity would not relieve, becauſe the performance of the firſt agreement was hindered by the embargo.

EMERALDS. The emerald is a greeniſh ſtone, found in different parts of the world, as Ethiopia, Egypt, Perſia, and both the Indies. The higheſt prized, or moſt valued emeralds, are thoſe called the prime emeralds, in that they are commonly pure and neat, that is to ſay, of a fine beautiful green, inclining to the blue. There is ſome appearance that emeralds are found in iron-mines, becauſe I have ſeen where the iron has ſtuck to them. It is by ſome affirmed, that the emerald takes it's green colour in the mine, according to the degree of it's perfections, as fruits ripen upon the trees; which I cannot confirm, having never ſeen the truth of it. They are ſeldom found genuine with the druggiſts, therefore ſhould be bought of the lapidaries.

Some authors have made twelve kinds of emeralds, as the Scythian, the Bactrian, Egyptian, Cyprian, Attic, Ethiopic, Medic, Chalcedonian, Samian, Sicillian, Laconic, and Cyprian, or chalcoſmaragdus; to which, of late, has been added a thirteenth, called the ſmaragdites, or baſtard emerald. This ſtone has been of great eſteem, not only for its glory, but the uſe it was applied to, being ſet in the breaſt-plate of judgment.

The ſmaragdo-praſinus, ſmaragdites, or baſtard emerald, is a tranſparent green gem, of a mixed beauty, between a praſinus and an emerald. Being compared with the praſinus, it has the greeneſs of glaſs, without yellowneſs; but, being compared with the emerald, it has a yellowiſh greenneſs, which is not in the emerald. It is ſeldom perfectly tranſparent, becauſe of ſome clouds in it, and is of two kinds; firſt, the Bohemian, which is almoſt tranſparent; and, ſecondly, the American, which is but half tranſparent. This ſtone is ſaid to be dieuretic, expels gravel, hinders the breeding of the ſtone, and eaſes pains of the kidneys, and the gout.

According to Lemery, ſmaragdus-praſinus, or the emerald, is a fine, green, precious ſtone, that is diaphanous, ſhining, reſplendent, but moderately hard. There are two kinds, one oriental, and the other occidental. The firſt ſort is harder, finer, and more eſteemed. It repreſents, by it's agreeable colour and pleaſantneſs, the verdure of the fields, and fills the eye with a ſudden glaring light. It is brought from the Eaſt-Indies. The ſecond ſort may be diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, Peruvian and European; the Peruvian ſhews a very fine, pleaſant, green colour, but does not ſhoot it's rays like the oriental, and is ſometimes filled with little greeniſh clouds. Theſe are plentiful in Peru, and pretty large. The European ſort is not ſo hard or reſplendent, and the leaſt valued of all. They are found in Cyprus, Great-Britain, and ſeveral other places. The weſtern are generally much larger than thoſe of the eaſt: for they are ſometimes met with as big as the palm of a man's hand. Both kinds are proper to ſtop the flux of the belly, and hæmorrhages, to ſweeten the too acrid humours, being finely powdered, and taken inwardly; the doſe from ſix grains to half a drachm.

The emerald to be uſed in medicine is the ſmaragdus, Kentam. 47. De Laet. 33. Charlt. 38. It is of a glorious green, but more brittle than any of the other gems. If thrown upon a clear fire, it emits a fine flame, and totally loſes it's colour; which is a proof that it's colour depends on a ſulphur, which is ſeparable from it without deſtroying it's ſubſtance; for the ſtone ſtill remains hard and tranſparent, though colourleſs, like cryſtal.

To imitate a green emerald colour in glaſs.

Take common glaſs, well purified from it's ſalt, without manganeſe [ſee the articles MANGANESE and GLASS]. Put it in a crucible in a air-furnace, and, when well melted and purified, add to it, for example, to 100 pounds of glaſs, three ounces of crocus martis *; mix well the glaſs at the ſame time, to make it incorporate with the crocus; then let it reſt an hour, that it may thoroughly take the colour. This way nothing will come out yellowiſh; it will loſe that foulneſs and blueneſs which the common metal always has, and will become green. Then add, to the ſame quantity of 100 pounds of glaſs, a pound of the ſcales of copper, thrice calcined †, and put it in at ſix different times, mixing it well each time with the glaſs; let it ſtand two hours, to imbibe the tincture. After this, ſtir it again, and examine if it be as you would have it; if the colour be too blue, you muſt add thereto ſome crocus martis, prepared as before, and you will have a very fine emerald colour. Twenty-four hours after, mix it as before, and you may work it as you pleaſe.

* To prepare crocus martis for this occaſion.

Take filings of iron, or rather of ſteel; mix them well in earthen pans, with ſtrong vinegar, only ſprinkling them ſo much that they may be thoroughly wet; ſpread them in pans, and ſet them in the ſun 'till they be dry, or, if the ſun be overclouded, ſet them in the open air; then powder them, and ſprinkle them again with vinegar, and dry them as before. Repeat this proceſs of powdering, ſprinkling, and drying, eight times: at laſt grind and ſearce them well, and you will have a very fine powder, of the colour of powdered brick, which keep in cloſe veſſels for uſe.

† Take the ſcales which the braſiers make when they hammer pans, kettles, &c. as being much cheaper than new copper. Waſh them well, and put them into crucibles, at the mouth of a reverberatory furnace, for calcination, for the ſpace of four days: when cold, pound them and ſearce them. Set that powder a ſecond time in the ſame reverberatory, during four days longer, and you will have little balls, of a black colour, which muſt be pounded and ſearced again, and put the third time into the reverberatory, for four other days. Reduce them to powder, as before, and keep them for the aboveſaid uſe.

Another Oriental emerald green, of a finer luſtre.

Put into a crucible four pounds of common frit of pulveraine, five pounds of common white glaſs pulverized, five pounds of cryſtal-frit well waſhed; add to this compoſition three pounds of minium, or red lead: mix them all well together, and in a little time they will be pretty well purified: after which, caſt all that metal into water, to purify it more, taking care that no part of the lead ſink to the bottom of the pot wherein it is caſt, for it will break it, if ſpeedy care be not had to take up again what is precipitated.

This glaſs thus waſhed, and after dried, muſt be put into the pot again, to be melted and purified, during the ſpace of one day; after which, add a little of the caput mortuum of vitriol of copper, without any corroſive, together with a ſmall quantity of crocus martis; ſtirring the metal, and proceeding as we have ſhewn before, and you will have an admirable oriental emerald green, which may be wrought as you pleaſe.

Of an artificial colour of ſea-green, for a tincture of glaſs.

The colour of ſea-green is given by the Italians to beryl, which is a precious ſtone found particularly at the foot of Mount Taurus, by the river Euphrates, which has the green blue of the ſea. It is found in the Indies of a colour ſomewhat paler, and which occaſions it's being called by divers names; and, when the colour is deeper, they commonly paſs for other precious ſtones: wherefore it is the water which expreſſes it's colour. See the article DIAMOND.

This colour, which is one of the fineſt ſky-colours, ought to be made in fine and well-purified cryſtal, which the Italians call bollito, for, if it be made in common glaſs, it has not that luſtre; you muſt likewiſe put no manganeſe in this colour. See the articles GLASS and MANGANESE.

To make it therefore very fine and beautiful, take cryſtal-frit, put it into a crucible in the furnace, where being well melted and clear, ſkim off the ſalt, which will ſwim on the ſurface like oil, with an iron ladle: for, if you do not ſkim this off clean, the colour will be foul and oily.

The matter being thus well purified, you muſt add to every 20 pounds ſix ounces of the powder of copper, or rather braſs, calcined *, with a fourth part of zaffer prepared, alſo in powder [ſee ZAFFER] and well mixed both together. In putting theſe powders into the pot on the cryſtalline metal, you muſt do it little by little, leſt the cryſtalline ſwelling ſhould boil over, whereof care muſt be taken, by ſtirring it well all the while.

* Take the thin leaves of braſs, and put them into a crucible, well covered and luted, and place them in the mouth of a furnace to calcine and let them ſtand there for four

days, at a coal fire, ſo that the leaves may not melt; for then they would be quite unfit for this uſe. The four days being expired, the whole will be calcined; after which, pound them on a porphyry ſtone, and ſearce them through a fine ſieve, and you will have a blackiſh powder, which muſt be ſpread on tiles, and put into the mouth of the furnace again, to calcine in the open heat, not contiguous to the coals, for four days longer. Take it out, and blow off the aſhes gently with bellows that may have fallen thereon: reduce it again into powder, ſearceing it through a fine ſieve, as before, and keep it for the uſe propoſed.

The certain touchſtone to know when the calcination is well performed, is when the glaſs riſes and ſwells with ebullition, upon your putting the calcined matter into it: if it does not, you muſt calcine other leaves of braſs, theſe being not ſerviceable in this operation, by reaſon of their being over-burned in the calcination, which muſt be carefully avoided.

This being done, let the metal ſtand ſtill and ſettle, for the ſpace of three hours, that the colour may incorporate, and then ſtir it again, and a proof may be made of the metal. Twenty-four hours after the mixing of the powders, it may be wrought: for, by that time, it will be well coloured; but the whole muſt be well mixed at firſt, for fear the colour ſhould not be duly intermixed throughout the whole: to effect which, proper care muſt be taken of every ſtep in the proceſs, and the tinctures rightly proportioned in quantity to the cryſtalline metal in the pot, according to what has been obſerved.

To make a fair emerald, in a method ſomething different.

Take of natural cryſtal four ounces, of red lead four ounces, verdegreaſe 48 grains, crocus martis, prepared with vinegar as before, eight grains; let the whole be finely pulverized and ſifted. Put theſe together in a crucible, leaving, at leaſt, one inch empty; lute it well, and put it into a potter's furnace, where they make their earthen ware, and let it ſtand there as long as they do their pots. When cold, break the crucible, and you will find the matter of a fine emerald colour, which, after it is cut, and ſet in gold, will near equal in beauty an oriental emerald.

If you find that your matter is not refined and purified enough, put it a ſecond time into the like furnace, and, in lifting off the cover, you will find the matter ſhining; you may then break the crucible, but not before; for, if you ſhould put the matter into another crucible, the paſte would be cloudy, and full of bliſters. If you cannot have the convenience of a potter's furnace, you may build one yourſelf at a ſmall expence, wherein you may place 20 crucibles at once, each with different colours, and one baking will produce a great variety of artificial gems. Heat the furnace with hard and dry wood, and keep your matter in fuſion 24 hours, which time it will generally require to be ſufficiently purified for the purpoſe: if you let it ſtand half a dozen hours longer, you may have no reaſon to grudge the expence of fuel.

Remarks.

Under the article Diamond, and the article Earth, we have ſuggeſted ſome things of no little uſe, if duly attended to, and properly executed, in regard to the making of artificial ſtones; and, when we come to the article of Gems, we ſhall purſue this point to a far greater extent.

This curious art is already arrived to ſuch perfection, that it is capable of imitating precious ſtones in their luſtre, colour, and beauty, even to ſurpaſs the natural ones, except in the degree of hardneſs, which to obtain, has been, and doubtleſs ſtill is, the endeavour of many ingenious men.

The art of making artificial gems conſiſts chiefly in imitating rightly the tinctures of thoſe that are real: they muſt be extracted from ſuch things as reſiſt the fire, and do not change their colour, though of a volatile nature: thus verdegreaſe, being put into the fire per ſe, is changed to another colour; but, when put in fuſion with cryſtal, it retains it's natural colour, by reaſon of the fixation it receives from the cryſtal.

You muſt, therefore, in the general, take ſuch colours as change not when mixed together: wherefore, ſince blue and yellow make a green, you muſt take ſuch blue as ſhall not prejudice the yellow when you mix them; and alſo ſuch a yellow as ſhall not be detrimental to the blue, and ſo of the other colours.

As natural cryſtal is a general body to work upon on theſe occaſions, it may not be uſeleſs to ſhew it's method of previous preparation.

Take natural cryſtal, the cleareſt you can get; fill a large crucible with the pieces thereof, and cover it with a lid broader than the mouth of the crucible, to prevent the falling of aſhes or coals into it: put it into a ſmall furnace on burning coals, and, when the cryſtal is thoroughly hot, caſt it into a pretty large veſſel of cold water: then take it out of the water, dry it on an earthen plate, and put it into the ſame crucible again: cover it, and proceed as before, repeating it a dozen times ſucceſſively, and changing every time the water: when the cryſtal eaſily breaks and crumbles, and is thoroughly white, it is a ſign that it is calcined enough; if there appear any black parts in the veins, break off the white, and put theſe again into the furnace, and proceed therewith as before, 'till only the perfect white remain behind.

After you have dried this calcined cryſtal thoroughly, grind it to an impalpable powder, on a marble or rather porphyry ſtone, and ſearce it through a ſilken ſieve. Of this powder of cryſtal, as it is uſed for all artificial gems, of which we ſhall treat in their order, it will be proper to have a ſufficient quantity by you, to have recourſe to when at work; for the frit of cryſtal, be it ever ſo good, will not come up to the luſtre of natural cryſtal, prepared as before required.

Thoſe who are any thing acquainted with the nature and properties of metals and minerals, well know that moſt, excepting gold and ſilver, are capable of vitrification; and, therefore, it is nothing ſtrange that there ſhould be ſuch an affinity between glaſſy, cryſtalline bodies, and metalline ones, ſo as to diſpoſe the one, when properly prepared, to give up it's tinctures to the others: for upon knowing, ſays that great philoſopher Mr Boyle, the different methods of producing the adventitious colours of metals and minerals in bodies capable of vitrification, depends the art of making counterfeit gems; for white pure ſand, or calcined cryſtal, gives the body in their preparation; and it is for the moſt part ſome metalline or mineral calx, mixed in a ſmall proportion with it, that gives the colour. Calcined lead, fuſed with fine white ſand, or cryſtal, reduced by ignition, and ſubſequent extractions in water, to a ſubtile powder, will, of itſelf, be brought, by a due decoction, to give a clear maſs, coloured like a German amethyſt. But this colour may be overpowered by thoſe of ſeveral other mineral pigments; ſo that with a glaſs of lead you may emulate the freſh and lovely green of the emerald; though, in many caſes, the colour which the lead itſelf, upon vitrification, tends to, may vitiate that of the pigment deſigned to appear in the maſs; but a little experimental knowlege in matters of this nature, will eaſily lead a perſon of any genius and attention to diſcover the juſt application of theſe things to each other.

Glaſs, cryſtal, diamond, borax, nitre, and other tranſparent ſolid bodies, loſe their tranſparency, and appear white upon being reduced to powder; that is, by a bare alteration of their groſs texture, or a ſimple reduction to ſmaller parts, ſo as to reflect many of the rays of light which they before tranſmitted.

As metals have a ſtrong texture in their metalline form, ſo they preſerve their natural colours durably, unleſs corroded or diſſolved by their ſuitable menſtruum, ſuch as aqua fortis, aqua regia, &c. [ſee thoſe articles] after which, their ſolutions ſtrike particular durable colours, and afford the ſtrongeſt ſtains.

Iron, diſſolved in ſtale ſmall beer, gives the beautiful yellow uſed in callicoe-printing; when ſublimed with ſal armoniac, it alſo affords a yellow. [See Ammoniac.] The common iron-moulds made by ink are owing to the iron diſſolved in the copperas, whereof the common black writing-ink is made.

Copper, melted with zink, appears of a gold colour. Mr Boyle ſomewhere ſays, that copper mixed with zink, prepared in a peculiar manner, produced as fine a colour as he ever ſaw any gold of: copper, alſo, diſſolved in aqua fortis, affords a beautiful green for painters; and, in any urinous ſpirit, it gives a beautiful blue; and the ſolutions may be reduced to dry colours by cryſtallization or evaporation. The ſame metal, precipitated with common ſalt, out of aqua fortis, gives the turquoiſe colour to white glaſs, when melted therewith.

Tin, a white or colourleſs metal, affords a light blue colour, by being fluxed with antimony and nitre. The ſame metal is neceſſary in ſtriking the ſcarlet-dye, with aqua fortis and cocheneal: it's calx, by ſtrong fuſion, turns to a glaſs of the opal colour.

So lead, being corroded by the fumes of vinegar, makes the fine white called ceruſe, and the white fucus called magiſtery of lead; by being coloured in a ſtrong naked fire, minium, or red lead; and this, melted into glaſs with ſand, is the foundation of the art of imitating all the coloured gems whatever; for this glaſs itſelf will reſemble the hyacinth; and, by the addition of prepared gold and tin, the ruby; the ſapphire with cobalt, the emerald with iron and copper, according to the preceding proceſſes; the amethyſt with gold, and the granat with iron, &c.

Silver, another white, colourleſs metal, being diſſolved in aqua fortis, if chalk is put to the ſolution, turns of a beautiful purple, or amethyſt colour; and it's own ſolution, though pale as water, durably ſtains the nails, the ſkin, the hair, and other animal ſubſtances, brown or black.

Quickſilver, mixed with brimſtone, makes a black maſs; which, by ſublimation, affords the beautiful red pigment, called cinnabar, or vermillion; and the ſolution of quickſilver, being precipitated with common ſalt, yields a ſnow-white powder, which alſo turns black by being mixed with ſulphur.

Gold, diſſolved in aqua regia, affords a fine yellow liquor, which ſtains animal ſubſtances beautifully purple; and, if the ſolution

ſolution be ſufficiently weakened with water, and mixed with a ſolution of tin, a fine red, or purple powder, may be thus obtained for ſtaining glaſs moſt beautifully red.

From theſe, and numberleſs other metallurgical experiments, which will appear throughout this work, it is apparent, that metalline and mineral bodies may be ſo prepared as to communicate colours of all kinds to cryſtalline and glaſſy matters; whereby the gems of every colour may be more beautifully imitated by art, than thoſe who have never been converſant with this kind of experiments, can eaſily imagine.

But then the experimentaliſt muſt be extremely circumſpect in conducting every ſtep of the proceſſes, otherwiſe he may miſcarry, and condemn their veracity, when his own weakneſs and inattention only deſerve to be blamed. Perſons who have never ſeen any thing of experimental philoſophy, nor condeſcended to foul their hands with charcoal, or exerciſe their heads with thinking on ſubjects of this nature, are too apt to ſlight the whole either as uſeleſs, or too myſterious: whereas, had ſuch but firſt ſeen all the courſes of this ſort of philoſophy, which are given by the ſeveral profeſſors, and eſpecially thoſe of chemical philoſophy, this might give them a general idea, and afterwards a general reliſh, for the practice by themſelves; for a man may as reaſonably hope to make an artiſt of this ſtamp, without ſelf-practice, as to become a muſician equally celebrated with an Handel or a Geminiani, only by hearing them play on the reſpective inſtruments whereon they excel.

Natural philoſophy is not that barren thing it has long been accounted by the pedant and ſchoolman, whoſe knowlege conſiſts only in cavalling and diſputing, and ringing the changes upon other men's thoughts, for want of any thing new and uſeful of their own: I only wiſh that I could rouze up the generality of inquiſitive perſons, and excite the curioſity of mankind to the making of experiments, from which alone the greateſt advancement of uſeful knowlege is to be expected. The inventions of philoſophical heads ſet great numbers of mechanical hands to work, and furniſh them with the means of procuring not only a ſubſiſtance, but eſtates too.

Our modern naturaliſts and jewellers divide the emerald, as produced by nature, into the Oriental and Peruvian: the former is harder, more brilliant, and tranſparent, than the Peruvian, which has generally clouds found in it, and therefore has leſs luſtre.

Some authors inform us, that emeralds have been taken out of iron mines: Pomet aſſures us, that he had one to which the iron ore was ſtill adhering, and which I have ſeen myſelf. This ſtone is ſuppoſed to grow more and more perfect in the mine, like the ruby, and to arrive at it's general greenneſs by ſlow degrees.—It is the common opinion, that the emerald grows in the jaſper; it is certain, that ſome jaſpers are ſo perfectly green, that they have been taken for emeralds.

The ordinary matrix of this ſtone is the preme, which is held among the coarſer precious ſtones; being hard, tranſparent, half opaque, and uſually mixed with yellow, green, white, blue, &c.

Monſ. Savary gives us an eſtimate of the values of the different kinds of Peruvian emeralds. Rough emeralds.—Thoſe of the firſt and coarſeſt ſort, called plaſmes, for grinding, are worth 27 s. ſterling the marc, or 8 ounces. The demi-morillons, 8 l. ſterling per marc. Good Morillons, which are only little pieces, but of a fine colour, from 13 to 15 l. per marc. Emeralds larger than morillons, and called of the third colour or ſort, are valued at from 50 to 60 l. the marc. Thoſe called of the ſecond ſort, which are in larger and finer pieces than the preceding, are worth from 65 to 75 l. per marc. Thoſe of the firſt colour, otherwiſe called negres cartes, are worth from 110 to 115 l.

Emeralds ready cut, or poliſhed and not cut, being of good ſtones, and a fine colour, are worth,

	l.	s.	d.
Thoſe weighing one carat or four grains	0	10	0
Thoſe of two carats	1	7	0
Thoſe of three carats	2	5	0
Thoſe of four carats	3	10	0
Thoſe of five carats	4	10	0
Thoſe of ſix carats	7	10	0
Thoſe of ſeven carats	15	0	0
Thoſe of eight carats	19	0	0
Thoſe of nine carats	23	0	0
Thoſe of ten carats	33	0	0

ENAMEL, a kind of coloured glaſs.

The glaſs uſed for enamelling, is called cryſtalline, and ſhould be made with the beſt Alicant ſalt, and ſand, vitrified together.

Pewter and lead in equal parts, and calcined in a reverberatory fire, with the cryſtalline matter, are the principal compoſitions of the enamel; the other materials added by the artizan, are only to colour it.

There are three ſorts of enamels; thoſe which counterfeit precious ſtones, thoſe uſed by the painters in enamel, and thoſe with which they make pretty curious works, wherein there is ſo conſiderable a trade at Nevers in France. Theſe laſt are peculiar to the goldſmiths and enamellers in gold, ſilver and other metals; and 'tis with this ſort of enamel, with the white at leaſt, that the Delft-ware-potters varniſh their works. Thoſe ſubſtances which imitate precious ſtones, and ſuch as are for enamel-painting, are melted and prepared by the artificers who exerciſe this art. The others come from Venice and Holland.

The compoſition of all three ſorts is the ſame in the main, differing only in the colouring or tranſparency.

Of enamel-painting.

This is performed on plates of gold or ſilver, and moſt commonly of copper, enamelled with the white enamel; whereon they paint with colours which are melted in the fire, where they take a brightneſs and luſtre like that of glaſs

This painting is the moſt prized of all, for it's peculiar brightneſs and vivacity, which is the moſt permanent, the force of it's colours not being effaced or ſullied with time, as in other painting, and continuing always as freſh as when it came out of the workman's hands. 'Tis uſually in miniature, it being more difficult the larger it is, by reaſon of certain accidents 'tis liable to in the operation.

They are commonly made in plates to ſet in ſnuff-boxes, dial-plates for watches, and other things of the like ſize.

The colours uſed muſt be ground with water, in a mortar of agate, 'till they are extreme fine, and, when uſed, muſt be mixed with oil of ſpike ſomewhat thick.

They begin at firſt by drawing out exactly the ſubject to be painted, with red vitriol mixed with oil of ſpike, marking all parts of the deſign very lightly with a ſmall pencil.

After this the colours are to be laid on, obſerving the mixtures and colours that agree to the different parts of the ſubject: for which 'tis neceſſary to underſtand painting in miniature, that art being a great help to the execution of this.

When the colours are all laid, the painting muſt be gently dried over a ſlow fire to evaporate the oil, and the colours afterwards melted to incorporate them with the enamel, making the plate red-hot in a fire like what the enamellers uſe.

Afterwards that part of the painting muſt be paſſed over again which the fire hath any thing effaced, ſtrengthening the ſhades and colours, and committing it again to the fire, obſerving the ſame methods as before, which is to be repeated 'till the work is finiſhed.

They uſe few colours: the chief are purple, azure, blue, and yellow, and clear green enamel, or inſtead of it a mixture of blue and yellow, ſhell black, and the red of vitriol. There are many others, which need not be minutely deſcribed, becauſe, with theſe few, a ſkilful painter knows how, by mixing them, to compoſe a great variety of others.

Enamel for painting.

The white enamel fit for enamelling the plate to be painted on, is the ſame with that commonly uſed by thoſe who make enamelled dial-plates. 'Tis prepared by braying and cleanſing it with aqua fortis, after which being well waſhed in clear water, 'tis pounded afreſh in a mortar of Chalcedonian flint, or agate, as already ſaid.

The red brown is made with the lees of vitriol and ſalt-petre, or with the ruſt of iron, well ground upon an agate, with the fineſt oil of ſpike.

The blue is made with azure, which the painters in oil uſe, well cleanſed and prepared, with good brandy, expoſed five or ſix days in a bottle to the ſun. If they would have the azure to be very fine, they muſt take ſome zaffer, adding to it about a third part of pebbles, or rather very pure cryſtal; and having pounded and put them into two crucibles well luted, and ſet them in a glaſs-houſe furnace for 24 hours, they are afterwards to be ground afreſh with oil of ſpike.

The vermillion red is made with vitriol calcined between two crucibles luted, cleanſed with aqua fortis, and waſhed with clean water; the fire ſhould be moderate, and continued about half an hour.

Lac red is compoſed of fine gold, diſſolved in aqua regia, with ſal armoniac or common ſalt, and then digeſted 24 hours in a ſand-heat in a cucurbit with ſpring-water and mercury. The powder remaining in the cucurbit, after pouring off the water, is to be ground with twice it's weight of flour of ſulphur, and put in a crucible over a ſlow fire; and, when the ſulphur is exhaled, the remaining red powder is to be ground with pebbles.

Laſtly, white copperas calcined makes a colour ſomewhat like the umbre uſed by painters in water-colours.

Enamel of goldſmiths, enamellers, and other workers in enamel.

Such of theſe ſorts of enamels as come from Venice and Holland, are in ſmall flat panes of different ſizes, commonly four inches over, and about $\frac{1}{3}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch thick. Every pane has the maker's mark on it, made with a kind of large bodkin;

bodkin; the moſt common are a ſyren, an ape, a ſun, and the like.

The moſt uſual colours of the Venetian enamels, are white, ſlate-colour, gridelin, ſky-blue, fleſh-colour, yellow, green, another deeper blue. Theſe ſeven colours are, as it were, the baſis of all the others, which ariſe from the mixture of them; and the white in particular is as the matrix of the ſix other principal colours.

The white, as already obſerved, is made with cryſtalline, pewter and lead calcined together in a reverberatory fire; and this is uſed by the goldſmiths and enamellers in metal, the potters, painters in enamel, and the maſter bead-makers in enamel: by adding azure to it, they make the gridelin. If roſe-copper and Cyprus vitriol be put to it, the enamel becomes a ſky-blue; if the Perigord ſtone, 'tis a fleſh colour. Ruſt of iron mixed with the white enamel makes a yellow, and filings of copper a green, &c.

The manner of working in enamel.

Moſt enamelled works are wrought in France at the fire of a lamp, in which inſtead of oil, they put melted horſe-fat, which they call oil of horſe. The rag-gatherers and thoſe who ſkin them, prepare and ſell this oil.

The lamp which is of copper, or whited iron, conſiſts of two pieces; in one of which is a kind of oval plate ſix inches long and two high, in which they put the oil and the cotton. The other part called the box, in which the lamp is incloſed, ſerves only to receive the oil, which boils over by the force of the fire.

A table of what height and ſize they think fit, ſerves to ſet the lamp on, or even three others, if four workmen have a mind to work together. Under the table, about the middle of it's height, is a double pair of organ bellows, which one of the workmen moves up and down with his foot, to keep up the flame of the lamps, which is hereby excited to an almoſt inconceivable height of vehemence. Grooves made with a gauge in the upper part of the table, and covered with parchment, convey the wind of the bellows to the pipe, which is before each lamp, and which are of glaſs; and, that the enamellers may not be incommoded with the heat of the lamp, every pipe is covered at ſix inches diſtance, with a little tin-plate fixed into the table by a wooden handle.

When the works don't require a long blaſt, they only uſe a glaſs pipe, into which they blow with their mouth.

'Tis incredible to what a degree of delicacy and fineneſs, the threads of enamel may be drawn at the lamp. Thoſe which are uſed in making falſe tufts of feathers are ſo fine, that they may be wound on a reel like ſilk or thread. The fictitious jet of all colours uſed in embroideries, are alſo made of enamel, and that with ſo much art, that every ſmall piece hath it's hole to paſs the ſilk through which the embroiderers uſe: theſe holes are made in blowing them into long pieces, which they afterwards cut with a proper tool.

The Venetian or Dutch enamels are ſeldom uſed alone; they commonly melt them in an iron ladle, with an equal part of glaſs or cryſtal; when perfectly fuſed, 'tis drawn out into threads of different ſizes, according to the nature of the work. They take it out of the ladle, while liquid, with two pieces of broken tobacco-pipes, which they extend from each other at arms length. If the thread is required ſtill longer, then another workman holds one end, whilſt he that works it holds it to the flame of the lamp.

Theſe threads when cold are cut into what lengths the workmen thinks fit, but commonly from ten to twelve inches. As theſe threads are round, if they are required to be flat, they uſe for that purpoſe a pair of iron pincers; which they muſt do, while 'tis warm.

They have another kind of pincer with which they draw it at the lamp, when they are making figured and ſuch-like works.

When the enameller is at work, he ſits before his lamp, with his foot on the ſtep that moves the bellows, and holding in his left-hand the work to be enamelled, or the braſs or iron wires the figures are to be formed on, he directs with his right the enamel thread which he holds to the flame, with a management and patience equally admirable.

There are few things they can't make or repreſent with enamel, and ſome figures are as well finiſhed as if done by the moſt ſkilful carvers.

ENAMEL in tablets or common inde, is a blue enamel, of a high colour, ground with indigo and ſtarch, reduced to the conſiſtence of paſte, and formed into tablets with gum-water. This drug is ſeldom uſed but to mark ſheep with, though there are ſome grocers and druggiſts diſhoneſt enough to ſell it for the true inde. To diſcover the fraud, 'tis ſufficient to diſſolve it in water; for the enamel of which this common inde is made, ſinks to the bottom like ſand, which it does not in the genuine.

ENAMEL is alſo a kind of blue mineral, reduced to powder, and purified by many lotions, uſed by the waſhers and laundreſſes to tinge their cloaths of a fine blue, which renders them agreeable to the eye, and more tranſparent.

This enamel is an ingredient in the blue ſtarch; the beſt is ſaid to be made in Holland. Grocers and druggiſts deal in it in Holland, theſe laſt only by retail.

ENAMEL ſignifies alſo a ſort of potter's ware, or enamelled porcelain, very fine, and almoſt tranſparent.

They imitate it in ſome glaſs-houſes, and it ſucceeds there very well.

To ENAMEL, is to lay the enamel upon metals, as gold, ſilver, copper, and to melt it at the fire; or to make divers curious works in it at a lamp. It ſignifies alſo to paint in enamel.

ENAMELLER, he who worketh in enamel. The goldſmiths and jewellers who ſet precious ſtones, lapidaries who counterfeit them in enamel, and painters who work in miniature on enamel at the fire, are compriſed in the general term of enamellers; though, in France, in particular, they make a part, one of the goldſmiths, and the other of the maſter painters and carvers company of the city of Paris.

The enamellers, properly ſo called, in that nation, are thoſe they call bead and button-makers in enamel.

Theſe laſt have long compoſed one of the companies of arts and crafts of the city and ſuburbs of Paris, and ſtill make part of that of the maſter glaſſmen and potters, to whom they have been united.

The edict of their erection into a ſworn body is dated the 6th of July 1566, enrolled in parliament the 17th of the ſame month and year, and publiſhed at the Chatelet the 26th of Auguſt following.

'Twas given by Charles the IXth, and confirmed by letters patents of Henry III. dated April 1582, enrolled in parliament the 23d of May 1583, and again by Henry IV. in September 1599, who added ſome others to the twenty articles in the ſtatutes of the firſt edict. There appears nothing of the enrollment in parliament of theſe laſt letters patents, which were only at the Chatelet the 6th of July 1600.

At length, on the reſpective petitions of the maſters of that company, and of the maſter glaſſmen-potters, Lewis XIV. reunited them, that for the future they might be only one and the ſame body, without derogating either from their ancient ſtatutes or their qualifications, both remaining to them in common.

The ſtatutes of the edict of Charles IX. conſiſt of twenty articles, and the augmentation granted by letters patents of Henry IV. of three others. By this edict, the maſters have only the quality of bead and button-makers in enamel; theſe letters added to it glaſs and cryſtalline enamel-makers.

Four wardens, two of whom are renewed every year, are charged with the diſcipline of the body, with viſitations, maſter-pieces of workmanſhip and trials, and with the reception of perſons to the freedom, as alſo the affair of apprenticeſhips.

No maſter may be received, that hath not ſerved his apprenticeſhip with maſters in Paris, or ſome ſworn city maſter at leaſt.

The apprenticeſhip, even of maſters ſons, if they learn with any others but their father, muſt be five years eight days; after which, if the apprentice applies for his freedom, information muſt be had of his life, manners, and apprenticeſhip, before any maſter-piece of workmanſhip or trials be delivered to him.

Every maſter may bind but one apprentice at a time, but he may take a new one in the laſt year. A maſter's ſon holds not the place of apprentice with his father, but with a ſtranger.

Widows continuing ſuch, enjoy the privileges of their craft, and may continue an apprentice bound, but not take a new one. And they, as well as maſters daughters, make apprentices and journeymen free by marrying them.

Foreign merchandize is to be viewed by the wardens, who are to come as ſoon as advertiſed of it, on pain of damages and intereſts from the foreigners.

Maſters of the company may make all ſorts of bead-rolls, enamelled buttons, gilding on glaſs and enamel, ear-pendants, toys, and all other ſuch-like works, with enamel, and cryſtal paſſing through the fire and furnace.

It belongs to them likewiſe to ſtring all girdles, caſkanets, chains, collars, bracelets, bead-rolls, and chaplets of the ſame materials and like workmanſhip, even to the enriching and ornamenting them with gold and ſilver; they are alſo permitted to ſell, buy, and work, all glaſs wares, which depend on and ariſe in conſequence of all the ſaid works; without permiſſion, however, to gild any works in horn and bone, theſe laſt belonging to the craft of thoſe called bead-makers in horn and wood only.

Finally, all perſons, dealers, and others, are prohibited to have any ſort of enamel, or to keep peculiar ſorts for ſale, except maſter enamellers.

REMARKS.

The foundation of the art of enamelling, as well as that of imitating natural ſtones, depends not only upon a thorough knowledge of the properties of all natural glaſſy and cryſtalline bodies, but on the experimental knowledge of artificial glaſs-making; and not only on theſe, for without a competent diſcernment into the qualities of all mineral and metal-

line bodies, and all the changes which they are capable of undergoing by art, it is not poſſible that any enameller ſhould arrive at that perfection his art will admit of.

There is one thing in particular that we will take leave to recommend to enamellers, that is, the vitrification of all mineral and metalline bodies; which will afford an extraordinary variety of very curious and permanent colours for their art. To which end they will find the proper application of antimony greatly to contribute, and more particularly it's ſulphur auratum, as it is commonly called by the chemiſt. But, having ſpoken to this already, under the article ANTIMONY, the reader is deſired to conſult what has been there ſuggeſted.—Likewiſe, in order to judge what ſort of colours the infinite diverſity of middle minerals and marcaſitical bodies will admit of, a ſmall proportion of them in powder may be melted with the fixed clarified ſalt of tartar, or nitre, and let run per deliquium, or be thrown into clear water.—Borax alſo will diſſolve many mineral ſubſtances, and bolar earth, and exhibit to what colours they are likely to adminiſter in the art of enamelling, &c.

ENGLAND. In order to make a judgment of the commerce of England, we have under the article BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, taken a ſurvey thereof in the following lights. (1.) With regard to it's domeſtic traffic in general. (2.) With reſpect to it's connection with Scotland and Ireland. (3.) In relation to it's trade with her colonies and plantations in America [ſee the articles BRITISH AMERICA, and COLONIES]. And (4.) With regard to the ballance of trade, both general and particular, with other ſtates and empires. See the article BALLANCE of TRADE.

At preſent we ſhall conſider the commerce of England in other lights. And (1.) Let us take a ſuccinct view of it's ſea coaſts and navigable rivers, and how nature, from the ſituation thereof, has furniſhed this part of Great-Britain with every advantage to enable her to carry on foreign traffic, to a degree of extent no way inferior to any part of the known world.

(1.) We ſhall begin at the mouth of the river Thames on the Eſſex ſide, and go north to Berwick upon Tweed. (2.) We ſhall begin again at the mouth of the Thames on the Kentiſh ſide, and going ſouth to the South Foreland and Dungeneſs, then turning weſt to the Land's-end in cornwall, and the iſles of Scilly. (3.) We ſhall begin at the mouth of the Severn ſea, and coaſt from thence to the ſouth-weſt point of Wales, called St. David's.

With reſpect to the firſt of theſe conſiderations.

The Naze and the North Foreland make the mouth of the Thames, the diſtance about ſixty miles. From the Naze on the Eſſex ſhore, the firſt town is Harwich, diſtant about five miles. The chief buſineſs of this town, in queen Anne's war, depended on the grand ferry between England and Holland, and the coming in and going out of the packet-boats. But ſince that time ſloops have been ſet up, which run directly from the river to Holland, &c. and take off great numbers of paſſengers, the town hath diminiſhed in advantages of this kind. This town, however, enjoys a tolerable maritime trade, has a market every Tueſday and Friday, and two annual fairs, one on May-day, the other on the 28th of October. The harbour is of great extent, the river Stower from Maningtree, and the river Oowel from Ipſwich, empty themſelves here; and the channels of both empty themſelves here, and the channels of both are large and deep, and ſafe for all weathers; and, where they join, they make a large bay or road, able to receive the biggeſt ſhips of war, and the greateſt number, perhaps, that ever were ſeen together. In the Dutch war, great uſe was made of this harbour; there have been 100 ſail of men of war with their attendants, and between 3 and 400 ſail of colliers, all riding in it at a time, with great ſafety and convenience. Here is a yard and launch for building and repairing ſhips of war. It has a good fort, and ſo ſituate as to oblige veſſels to paſs cloſe under it's cannon. Oppoſite to the fort, on the ſouth ſide of the mouth of the harbour, and on an high hill, ſtands a large and high built light-houſe, for the direction of mariners.

Between the Naze and this place, they find the copperas-ſtone [ſee COPPERAS] in great quantities; and, here and at Walton, are ſeveral conſiderable copperas works.

From Harwich, the ſhore of Suffolk extends north-eaſt to Aldborough, and then due north to the town of Great Yarmouth, and to thoſe famous ſhoals, which they call Yarmouth Roads: there are ſome creeks and harbours for ſmall veſſels between them, as at Woodbridge, Aldborough, Swale, &c. but not for ſhips of burden.

Yarmouth, beſides all her other commerce to London, has the particular trade of exporting corn to Holland, more than any port of England beſides, and the chief trade of exporting the woollen manufactures of cloth, kerſies, &c. from Leeds, Wakefield, Hallifax, and all the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; and alſo of lead and mill-ſtones from Derby and Nottinghamſhire; which make a conſiderable trade there to Holland, Bremen, Hamburgh, &c.

Yarmouth hath the fineſt market-place, and the beſt furniſhed with proviſions, of any in the three kingdoms.—It has likewiſe the moſt ſpacious key or wharf in all Britain, or perhaps in Europe, that at Seville in Spain only excepted: the ſhips here lie ſo cloſe to one another, and with their bow-ſprits over the ſhore, that you may ſtep from the ſhore into any of the ſhips directly, without going from one into another; and they lie in this manner ſo cloſe, that one may walk over them as over a bridge, for ſometimes a quarter of a mile or more together.

They have a fiſhing fair, which is kept here at Michaelmas for the catching of Herrings; during which ſeaſon, all the fiſhing veſſels from any other part of England are allowed to catch, bring in, and ſell their fiſh, free of all toll or tax, as the burghers or freemen of the town are.

Norwich is a large and populous manufacturing city, ſituate on the river Yare, navigable to Yarmouth; and, as it is a place of conſiderable trade, adds to the commerce of Yarmouth, by receiving a great quantity of imported merchandizes from thence, by the navigation of the Yare: ſuch as coal, wine, fiſh, oil, and other heavy goods.

The manufactures of this city of commerce are, generally ſpeaking, ſent to London, where their chiefeſt markets are; they are alſo exported at Yarmouth in conſiderable quantities; eſpecially to Holland and the ſhores of Germany; likewiſe to Sweden, to Norway, and other parts of the Baltic and northern ſeas; and this adds alſo to the trade of Yarmouth.

Lynn-Regis and Boſton, ſtand at the mouths of two large rivers, which are ſeverally navigable far into the country; and that navigation gives thoſe ports a conſiderable advantage in commerce, eſpecially the firſt, which ſtand at the united mouth or entrance into the ſea of ſeveral leſſer rivers falling into one; by means whereof this port has an intercourſe of trade even into the very heart of the kingdom, as high almoſt as to Northampton. Take the particulars in brief thus: the Great Ouſe is the main river, into which all the reſt flow: this river riſes in Buckinghamſhire, and, taking a long circuet north, runs by Buckingham, Stoney-Stratford, Newport-Pagnel, and Oulney, all of them large trading market-towns in the counties of Bucks and Bedford; thence it runs to Bedford, a large populous town, full of trade, where it begins to be navigable, and from thence paſſes through St Neots, Huntingdon, St Ives, Ely, Downham, and Lynn. In it's courſe the Ouſe receives the Nyne from Northampton and Peterborough; and obtained an act of parliament to make it ſo to Fotheringay, Oundle, Thrapſton, Wellingborough, and Northampton.—It receives likewiſe, the river Cam from Cambridge, and the Leſſer Ouſe from Thetford and Brandon in Norfolk, which is navigable for large barges.—It alſo receives the Mildenhall from Suffolk, which is navigable to St Edmundſbury.

By means of theſe rivers, Lynn commands the trade of all that inland part of England, which is comprized in the counties of Cambridge, Huntingdon, the north part of Bucks, all Bedford and Northampton, and the inland parts of Norfolk and Suffolk; all which counties are ſupplied, eſpecially with coal and wine from Lynn, which is the greateſt port of importation for theſe two articles of any place on all the eaſtern coaſt of England, from London to Berwick upon Tweed. In return for which, Lynn receives back all the corn which theſe counties yield for exportation, and is therefore, next to Hull, the greateſt port for the exportation of corn.

A little weſt of Lynn are ſmaller navigable rivers, which carry ſome trade to the ports of Spalding and Wiſbich, the navigation going ſome lengths within the country; by the firſt to Stamford, by the laſt to the iſle of Ely.

North from hence, the ſhore offers nothing of moment 'till you come to the mouth of Humber, where lies the port of Grimſby, eminent chiefly for a good road for ſhipping, and which is to the Humber and towns on it, as the Downs are to the river of Thames, a ſafe riding for ſhips to wait for a fair wind to carry them out to ſea.

The next place deſerving our regard, is the port of Hull, whoſe town is the moſt noted and conſiderable place of trade in all this part of England. The trade between this port and London, eſpecially for corn, lead, and butter; and the trade between this port and Holland for the like commodities, and for the cloth, kerſies, and other manufactures of Leeds, Hallifax, and other great and populous towns of Weſt Yorkſhire, is ſuch, that they not only employ few ſhips, but fleets, conſiſting from 50 to 60 ſail at a time, and, in time of war, it has been an 100 ſail or more.

Newcaſtle upon Tyne, indeed, may contend with it; as Liverpool is now able to do, a place prodigiouſly increaſed in trade within a few years paſt, and daily increaſing; whereas Hull does not ſeem to have advanced to the like degree, but certainly it is the principal port of trade in all this part of England.

What has contributed to the increaſe of the trade of Hull, is the great number of large navigable rivers, which make their influx into the ſea near it, viz. by the Humber; by which Hull has a communication of commerce and navigation with a great part of England, eſpecially with the inland parts, which have no foreign traffic by any other channel. Theſe rivers are, (1.) The Ouſe, navigable up to York, and thence near to Burroughbridge and Rippon. (2.) The Trent, with the

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the rivers Idle, Witham, Don, and Darwent; by the navigation of which, no inconſiderable trade is carried on to the towns of Bautry, Gainſborough, Newark, and the city of Lincoln, the towns of Nottingham and Derby, and even to the city of Lichfield; and all the heavy goods of theſe countries, ſuch as lead from Derby and Nottinghamſhire, iron wares from Sheffield, cheeſe from Warwick and Staffordſhire, and even from Cheſhire itſelf, are brought to this port, and from hence exported to Holland, Hamburgh, and the Baltic, as alſo to France and Spain.

But what is alſo very conſiderable is, that by all theſe rivers ſuch a prodigious quantity of corn is brought down out of theſe counties to Hull, as renders it, perhaps, the greateſt port in England for exportation of corn, even ſometimes exceding London itſelf.

North from the Spurnhead is Burlington, or Bridlington, diſtant about ten leagues, famous for a bay, uſeful for it's ſafety to the ſailors and their ſhipping, in caſe of ſtrong gales of wind and winter-ſtorms from the north-north-weſt and north-eaſt. This place is of late years become remarkable for a great corn-market. The head of land, which runs out far into the ſea north of the town, is called by the ſailors Flambro'head.

The next harbour north of Flambro' is called Robin Hood's-Bay, a good road for ſhips bound to the ſouthward, but too open to the north-eaſt. The next port is Whitby, a town remarkable for building the beſt and ſtrongeſt ſhips for the coal trade, of any on this coaſt: they have a ſmall haven with a good pier, for the repairs of which they obtained an act of parliament. The river being ſmall, they have no great advantage by an inland trade; yet they ſhip off no ſmall quantities of butter and corn for London, and ſometimes for Holland: but their chief buſineſs is in ſhipping for the coal trade.

Here the coaſt falls north-weſt to the mouth of the Tees, but there is no trading town on the coaſt; Stockton, which is the port here, being two leagues up the river, which is capable of good ſhips at the entrance, but the current is ſo dangerous, that ſometimes the ſhips are obliged to provide for their ſafety; the tide alſo flows the leſs up the river, ſo that there is no long navigation here, otherwiſe the Tees would be a fine river for trade. They abound with excellent ſalmon in this river, and they have a good trade for butter and bacon, but 'tis chiefly to London.

The next port is Sunderland, famous for the pit-coal trade. Were the harbour as good here as at ſome ports, ſo that large ſhips might go in and out with ſafety, the coal trade of this port would equal, if not exceed that of Newcaſtle: for not only great quantities of coal are found upon the banks of the river Wear, which comes into the ſea here, but they are the beſt kind of coal, as thoſe called Lumley coal, alſo divers others, which are greatly eſteemed.

But the port of Sunderland is barred up, and the ſhips are obliged to take in their loading in the open road; which makes it ſo dangerous to the keelmen, that often they dare not venture off to the ſhips, and are frequently loſt in the attempt. Wherefore the ſhips which load here, are generally ſmaller than thoſe at Newcaſtle; they have, indeed, one advantage of the Newcaſtle people, that in caſe of contrary winds, as particularly a north-eaſt, which, though fair when they are at ſea, yet does not permit the ſhips at Newcaſtle to get out of the Tyne; whereas the ſhips at Sunderland, riding in the open ſea, are ready to ſail as ſoon as they can get their loading in: ſo that it has been known they have delivered their coals at London, and, beating up againſt the wind in their return, have got back to Sunderland, before the ſhips at Shields, which were loaden at their coming away, had been able to get over the bar.

Sunderland, by means of the coal trade, has many years been a thriving town, very populous, has a great many ſhips belonging to the place, and abundance of able ſeamen, thoſe of Sunderland being eſteemed among the colliers, as ſome of the beſt in the countty.

Within the mouth of the river Tyne, are the towns of North and South Shields. On the ſouth ſide are great numbers of ſalt-works, which furniſh not only the city of London, but all the towns and cities between this place and that metropolis; alſo all the counties which are furniſhed by means of the Thames and Medway to the weſtward and ſouthward of London. Theſe ſalt-works are ſaid to conſume no leſs than 100,000 chaldron of coals in a year.

On the ſide of North Shields, where the river making a bay, and the channel running near the ſhore, it makes alſo a deep and ſafe road for the laden colliers to lie in, when they want a wind to go over the bar, and here 3 or 400 ſail of theſe ſhips are ſeen lying together.

Upon this river, about two leagues and half lies the town of Newcaſtle, to which theſe towns of South and North Shields, are like out-ports, as Graveſend is to London, or as Harwich to Ipſwich. The river is large, the channel good and ſafe up to Newcaſtle, and the tide flows with a ſtrong current to the town, and far beyond it; ſhips of any burden may come up to the key of the town, but the colliers generally take in their lading below, between Newcaſtle and Shields.—

The coal trade, which maintains this very large and populous town is a prodigy, and affords more permanent treaſure and maritime power to the nation, than if we were poſſeſſed of ſome of the gold or ſilver mines in America.

From hence to Berwick, we have nothing conſiderable upon the coaſt, except ſome coal-wharfs and ſalt-works, and Holy-Iſland, which is occaſionally a good harbour for our ſhips from Ruſſia and the other northern parts, when contrary winds have taken them ſhort in their way to London. This hath frequently proved of no little importance to our merchants ſhips.

Berwick is a good town but a mean port.—No ſhips that draw above twelve feet water can well trade there, neither is there any good riding in the offing near the bar, the ſhore being ſteep and rocky, the cliffs high; and, in caſe of a ſtorm off ſea, no relief but what is found in good anchors and cables.

We ſhall now take a view of the ſouth and weſt coaſts of England, as before intimated.

The firſt place remarkable on this ſhore is Sandwich, in a ſmall bay called by it's name, on the bank of the little river Stour, navigable as high as Fordwich. It is one of the Cinque Ports. See the article PORTS. It's haven admits of no ſhips of burden ſo as to come to it's key.—It's chief buſineſs conſiſts of ſmall ſhipping and malting.

Between this and the Foreland is Ramſgate, in the iſle of Thanet, and is a member of the town and port of Sandwich. An act of parliament was lately paſſed, whereby it's harbour is like to be rendered capable of receiving 200 ſail of ſhipping; and a new pier is erected, capable of reſiſting the moſt tempeſtuous weather.

From hence a high ridge of ſand and beach ſecures the ſhore, and the Good-win-Sands, lying parallel with the land, make a tolerable ſafe road, which we call the Downs: and, though ſometimes, upon miſtakes of pilots or ſtreſs of weather, ſhips have been driven upon thoſe ſands and loſt; yet, generally ſpeaking, the Downs is eſteemed a very good road, and the merchants ſhips to and from London, and to and from all the ſouth and weſtern parts of the world, uſually ſtop here. Whence they take their departure for their voyages outward bound, and here they notify their arrival to their merchants, when they return homeward bound. See the article DOWNS.

From this cuſtom of the ſhips ſtopping here, and the great confluence of people, as well ſeamen as merchants, on theſe occaſions, the modern town of Deal has increaſed to an extraordinary magnitude, and to be more rich, populous, and better built, than moſt of thoſe in it's neighbourhood: this town was, within about half a century, no more than a trifling village, conſiſting of a few fiſhing huts, with which the people uſed to go off, and trade with the ſhips in the paſſage of the Downs. But ſuch are ever the happy effects of trade and navigation, that it quite changes the face of the moſt ſavage and depopulated places, and renders them opulent, flouriſhing, and magnificent.

Folkſtone and Hythe, two Cinque Ports, are alſo weſt or ſouth-weſt of this at a ſmall diſtance. From hence the ſhore makes a large bay, which is the coaſt of that ſmuggling country called Romney-Marſh, which has been ſo remarkable for the owling trade, or that of wool-running from England to France; a moſt pernicious traffic to this kingdom, but highly beneficial to that of France. See the article WOOL.

This marſh, which contains no leſs than 40 or 50,000 acres of fruitful land, is eſteemed the richeſt paſture in England, and fattens vaſt flocks of ſheep and black cattle, ſent hither from all parts, and ſold in the markets of London.

At the end of this level, ſouth-weſt from Hythe, lies Dungeneſs, from whence the ſhore falling off, the coaſt lies eaſt and weſt; and under the weſt ſide of this point is a ſafe road for ſhips, if, coming from the weſtward, they chance to be taken ſhort with an eaſterly wind and cannot reach the Downs.

From hence we come to Rye, as the next place of any conſideration. This is a fair ſituated and well built town, and by the addition of French refugees, which ſettled here at the time of their flight from France, is become pretty populous; and, were it not for the badneſs of their harbour, it would be a town of good trade. Yet this harbour was once capable of receiving the whole royal navy of England; though at preſent ſo choaked up with ſand for want of a ſtrong back water, that 'tis almoſt uſeleſs; which is ſaid to be occaſioned by reaſon the gentlemen in the country have incloſed the low grounds upon the river, and thereby prevented the tide from ſpreading itſelf upon the flood, which obſtruct a due quantity of water coming in to make a ſtrong ebb. Was this port fully reſtored to it's former goodneſs, it would certainly prove a great convenience to merchants ſhipping, in caſe of diſtreſs, either in going up or down the channel; there not being one good harbour, where any ſhips of burden can put in for ſafety between the Downs and Portſmouth, if the ſtorm happens to make a lee-ſhore, as did in the caſe of his majeſty king George I. when he returned from Holland in 1725-6.

The chief trade of this town is in hops, wool, timber, cannon, and caſt iron of divers forms, which are caſt at the iron works at Bakely and at Breed.—The mackarel and herrings, taken here in their ſeaſon, are reckoned the beſt in their

kind. The reſt of the ſeaſon they trowl for ſoles, plaiſe, turbut, brill, &c. which are carried every day to London.

A Little beyond Rye, we ſee the ruins of Winchelſea, once a good ſea-port and flouriſhing city; but with it's trade it has loſt all appearance of a city, which experience hath always ſhewn will be the caſe of all places whatſoever. The loſs happened, indeed, by the ſea forſaking it; for whereas they ſhew you the vaults, cellars, and warehouſes, where the merchants goods uſed to lie, and the wharfs and cranes where they were landed, you now ſee the green marſhes extended where once the ſhips might ſail, and the very graſs grows in the ſtreets where they are paved.

Weſt from this we have nothing of note but Haſtings, a ſmall town; and, though the chief of the Cinque Ports, yet of little conſideration, having neither trade or harbour, fort or caſtle. Great ſums of money have been expended to make this a good harbour, but tempeſtuous weather has hitherto obſtructed it. London is ſupplied from hence with abundance of fiſh, which are taken upon this coaſt, and which, indeed, is the chief of their buſineſs.

'Till we come from hence to St Helens, Spithead, and Portſmouth, there is nothing remarkable, except ſome ſmall towns on the coaſt, as Shoreham and Arundel, two places eminent for building of ſhips, hoys, and ketches; the firſt at Shoreham, the latter at Arundel: they are great builders of ſhipping, by reaſon of the prodigious quantities of large timber, which this part of England affords more plentifully near the ſea than elſewhere.

Portſmouth is the next place conſiderable upon the ſea-coaſt of England; in it's preſent flouriſhing condition it is a formidable place, eſpecially by ſea, though the fortifications on the landſide are alſo very good. The ſituation is ſuch both by land and water, that the whole kingdom does not afford the like for the protection of the royal navy. The entrance of the harbour is ſafe, but narrow, guarded on both ſides by terrible batteries of guns, and thoſe ſo numerous, and ſo well pointed from divers places, that, if it be defended with all deſirable bravery and fidelity, it may be ſaid to be almoſt impregnable to any fleet of ſhips, how ſtrong ſoever.

Within this entrance the ſhips may ride three or four miles up the harbour, ſo as to be out of the reach of all batteries, cannon, or bombs. In regard to the ſtrength of the town by land, there is a large horn-work on the ſouth-ſide, running out towards South-Sea Caſtle: there is alſo a very good counterſcarp, a double mole, and ravelins to cover the curtains; beſides various advanced works in every place where requiſite; and double palliſadoes round the whole place.

The dock and ſhip-yard, which are to the north of the town, were before ſecured by the ſtrength of the harbour, and by the town; but the late King William, not ſatisfied with that cover, ordered them to be particularly fortified, and new lines and baſtions drawn round the whole place; which being done, the dock and ſhip-yards are now an additional ſtrength, diſtinct from the town, and they mutually cover and ſtrengthen each other; ſo that the dock and yards cannot be taken 'till the town is. The government has bought more ground, for additional works; and no doubt it may be rendered impregnable by land, as well as by ſea, ſince a ſhallow water may be brought quite round it.

It is amazing to ſee the extraordinary quantities here of all ſorts of military and naval ſtores, and the exact order in which every diſtinct tool is laid up, ſo that the workmen can find what they want in the dark. The rope-houſe is near a quarter of a mile in length. Some of the cables made here require 100 men to work them; and their labour is ſo hard, that they cannot work at them with any vigour above four hours a day. The leaſt number of men employed continually in the yard is ſaid to be 1000. The docks and ſhip-yards reſemble a diſtinct town, there being particular rows of dwellings, built at the public expence, for all the principal officers; and they are under a ſeparate government from the garriſon. Here is alſo a fine key for laying up the cannon; the arſenal of Venice is not better diſpoſed.

The town of Portſmouth is a large, populous, and opulent corporation, having grown ſo during the three laſt great wars; and the ſuburbs are become a kind of diſtinct town, and appear with a very proſperous aſpect on the ſide of the London road.

From Portſmouth weſt the ſeveral inlets of water go almoſt every way, making divers creeks and harbours, wherein are ſafe riding for ſhipping, even of the greateſt burden, as at Baſsleton, Southampton, Rumſey, and other places.

Southampton was once a very flouriſhing town, in compariſon to what it is at preſent. It has ſeveral privileges in trade, which London itſelf has not. Here is ſettled the trade between Jerſey and Guernſey; and a large quantity of wool is exported from hence thither, for the uſe of the manufacture of theſe iſlands, which conſiſts chiefly in the knitting of worſted hoſe, which they ſend to England for ſale. Here were alſo a great many merchants who traded to Newfoundland, which rendered this place, as it were, the general mart of England for the purchaſe and ſale of theſe fiſh: but the town of Pool has at preſent, the principal ſhare of that trade, and the exchange of London hath engroſſed the mercantile correſpondence.

This town has likewiſe been eminent for the building of good ſhips, and ſome are built there ſtill, the ſea flowing up to the very walls of the town. Here alſo is carried on the wine-trade, and too much of the French brandy-trade by ſmuggling, though that of late years is greatly abated.

The Iſle of Wight offers nothing material, except the road of St Helens, at the eaſt end of it, where the royal navy uſually makes it's rendezvous in time of war with France, or any of the powers of Europe which lie to the ſouth or weſt. It is a good road in caſe of ſtorms from the ſouth-weſt, or from the north-weſt, but otherwiſe not judged ſo good by experienced mariners; which is an inducement to run the royal ſhipping up to Spithead, and the merchants ſhipping to Cowes, on the north ſide of the Iſle of Wight.

Lymington, in Hampſhire, is a ſmall but populous ſea-port, on a hill that has a fine proſpect of the Iſle of Wight, in the narrow part of the Streights called the Needles, at the enterance of the bay of Southampton. Conſiderable quantities of ſalt are made here, which is ſaid to exceed moſt in England for preſerving fleſh; and the ſouth parts of the kingdom are chiefly ſupplied with it from hence. The ſea is not above a mile from the town. Here is a key, with cuſtomhouſe officers attending.

Weſt from Lymington, diſtant about 16 miles, lies the town of Pool, a port of good trade, abounding with merchants of honour and worth, and eſpecially engaged in the fiſhing-trade of Newfoundland, which, as before obſerved, has been, in ſome meaſure, removed from Southampton hither. The town is well peopled, and has a very good harbour for ſhips.

The iſle, or rather peninſula of Purbeck, which incloſes the weſt and ſouth parts of this bay, is eſteemed the moſt ſouther-ly land of Great-Britain. From the north part of the Iſle of Purbeck the land draws in a little to Weymouth, a ſmall town and port lying in the bottom of a bay behind Portland.

Upon the ſouth point of the iſland of Portland two light-houſes are erected; which have proved importantly preſerving of our ſhipping and ſeamen. This iſland ſeems to be one ſolid rock of free-ſtone; and it is from hence that we fetch moſt of the fine white ſtone uſed in ſeveral of the public buildings in the city of London, which comes cheap by reaſon of the ſea-carriage.

On the north ſide of the iſland, and oppoſite to Weymouth, is a ſmall but ſtrong caſtle, built of Portland ſtone, where a garriſon is conſtantly kept, to command the road. The town of Weymouth has alſo a ſmall harbour, and has been ſome time a populous and flouriſhing town, has many reputable merchants, and a pretty large number of ſhips belonging to them. They alſo build pretty good ſhips here. They have a ſhare of the Newfoundland fiſhing trade here.—They have good fiſhing alſo for freſh fiſh, which they carry away by horſes that run day and night with them, to Bath and Briſtol. they have ſome ſhare too in the wine-trade.

Lime is a town of good trade, has very good ſhips belonging to it; and the merchants are more particularly engaged in the pilchard fiſhing at home, and the Newfoundland fiſhing abroad; both which are profitable trades.

There is an ancient and artificial mote made here, which they call the Cobb; and it ſerves the merchants very well inſtead of a harbour.

From Lime we meet with no town of conſideration till we come to Dartmouth, except that of the city of Exeter; yet, as this lies up the river Exe, or Iſca, beyond the navigation of ſhips, it does not fall immediately under our ſea-coaſt deſcription: but under it's county of DEVONSHIRE we have minutely deſcribed it's commerce: ſomething, however, may be neceſſary to be ſaid at preſent. Though it has not the conveniency of a harbour for great ſhips quite up to the town, yet their trade is very conſiderable; Topſham, lying at the diſtance of four miles, is their port, and they bring all their heavy goods up in lighters to the city. They trade directly to Holland, France, and moſt other nations, but chiefly to Holland for their ſerges: to London their trade is ſo large, that, by a moderate computation, they cannot trade for ſo little as 800,000 l. a year; many have reckoned it conſiderably more.

The river Exe, indeed, is now ſo well cleared, and the channel ſo deepened, that the ſmaller ſhips, which uſed to come up no farther than Topſham, come now quite up to the city, to the great eaſe and encouragement of our merchants there.

From the mouth of the river Exe to Torbay, the ſhore is full of villages, but has nothing remarkable. About five miles weſt from Berry-Point is Dartmouth town and harbour, being ſituated on the mouth of the river Dart, a river of a long courſe and deep channel, and which makes an excellent harbour at this place, able to receive a royal navy.—The entrance, indeed, is narrow, but the channel is good; and it is commanded by a caſtle, ſo placed at the mouth of the river, that nothing can paſs but under the very muzzle of it's cannon. The town has a large key, is very populous, and the merchants here do not want buſineſs, being ſeated, as it were, in the centre of the pilchard-fiſhing, which is no inconſiderable branch of trade, and which they conduct much to the advantage both of themſelves and the kingdom. They

alſo trade largely with France, Portugal, and to the Mediterranean; and ſeveral very good ſhips belong to the town: nor is their trade to Newfoundland inconſiderable. And, indeed, in all the towns on this coaſt, beginning at Southampton, and reaching to the Land's-End, and even, after that, into the Severn Sea (the Welſh as well as the Engliſh ſides) there are abundance of wealthy and ſkilful merchants who trade independent of London, having two particular trades, which they manage with great ſucceſs, excluſive of their ordinary correſpondence: theſe are, in general, the pilchard and herring-fiſheries, as well as the Newfoundland. They likewiſe traffick largely in the ſerges and manufactures of Exeter, and other parts of Devonſhire; alſo in copper and tin, the latter of which is ſo plentifully found in the mines of Cornwall, and ſome in Devonſhire, and to little purpoſe any where elſe in England. The trade is much the ſame at Plymouth as at Dartmouth, and is the next port on this ſhore, and the moſt conſiderable in this part of England. It is a large, populous town, ſituate to very great advantage, both for commerce and for war. It is placed on a point of land, between two as good harbours as any in Britain, and is able to receive into either of them the whole royal navy.

This is a town of great importance for it's ſituation: for upon the edge of the water, between the two harbours, ſtands the citadel, which commands them both, and is itſelf very ſtrong, but is made ſtronger by a caſtle juſt oppoſite to it, in a ſmall iſland called St Nicholas's Iſland.—This caſtle commands the whole harbour and ſound.---The town lies on the ſide of this harbour, called Catwater, where the key is, the ſhips being able to come up cloſe to the town; and no ſhips are ſo large but they may, with ſafety, come and remain there. Here lie the men of war; and here, in the time of the late king William, as was done at Portſmouth, the government built ſhip-yards and docks, with ſtorehouſes and dwelling-houſes, proper for the officers attending, being for the laying up, and fitting out ſuch men of war as ſhould have their appointed ſtation here. In conſequence of the concourſe of people reſorting hither on ſuch occaſions as the fleet make neceſſary, a large town has been erected, which has done ſome injury, doubtleſs, to that of Plymouth.

The town of Plymouth, however, as it is a large, populous, and wealthy town, will always preſerve itſelf in good condition, while it's ſpacious road and ſafe harbour is ſo general a receptacle of all the fleets of merchants ſhips which come in from Spain, Italy, and the Weſt-Indies, who generally make it the firſt port for refreſhment which they put in at: nor can the town at the yards and docks on the river Tamar ever interfere with this port.

Weſt of Plymouth lies the Lizard, about 18 leagues; the coaſt full of deep bay, and many very good harbours, as Eaſtlow, Fowy, and Falmouth; the laſt, in particular, famous for it's being, except Milford-Haven in South Wales, the greateſt and beſt inlet or gulph from the ſea in Great-Britain, as well for the receiving ſhips for trade, as for ſheltering them from ſtorms. It is ſo commodious a harbour, that ſhips of the greateſt burden come up to it's key.---There is ſuch ſhelter in the harbour and creeks, that the whole royal navy may ride ſafe here in any wind. The town is well built, and is mightily increaſed ſince the eſtabliſhment of the packet-boats here from Spain and Portugal, and the Weſt-Indies; which not only bring over large quantities of gold in ſpecie, and in bars, on account of the merchants of London, but the Falmouth merchants trade with the Portugueze in ſhips of their own; and they have alſo no inconſiderable ſhare in the gainful trade of pilchard fiſhing.---The cuſtom-houſe for moſt of the Corniſh towns, as well as the head collector, is ſettled here, where the duties, including thoſe of the other ports, are very conſiderable: this contributes to increaſe the buſineſs of the town.

Beyond this is nothing of moment but Penſance, which is weſt of the Lizard; and this is remarkable chiefly for the ſhipping off tin for the London market, which creates a pretty large buſineſs in the town. Beſides this branch of trade, they have a prodigious advantage ariſing from the pilchard-fiſhery, and they are, in general, reckoned to have one of the beſt fiſh-markets in England. They have a pier, or key, running pretty far out into the bay, againſt which veſſels unload, and lie afloat, at low water.

We are now come to the Land's End of England weſt, and have nothing to obſerve further but the iſles of Scilly, which have proved very fatal to our merchants ſhips in their return from the ſouthward and weſtward.

Theſe fatal effects having proceeded from mariners not being ſo well acquainted as could be wiſhed with the ſituation of the Lizard Point, and the iſlands of Scilly, what the learned Dr Halley has remarked hereon may well deſerve attention, for the benefit of our navigation. In regard to which the doctor obſerves, that they are laid down in former charts too far northerly.

'The Lizard-Point, ſays he, by undoubted obſervation, lies 'in lat. 49 degrees 55 minutes, whereas, in moſt charts and 'books of navigation, that point of land, and the iſlands of 'Scilly, lying eaſt and weſt of each other, are laid down 'to the northward of 50 degrees, and, in ſome, full 50 degrees 10 minutes. Nor was this without a good effect, ſo 'long as the variation continued eaſterly, as it was when 'theſe charts were made.' The doctor then proceeds to lay down rules for maſters of ſhips to go by, coming into the Channel, relating to the courſe they ſhould ſteer to keep their parallel, which, as they vary with the variation, are made permanent, by reducing his particular to theſe general rules following:

'But, ſince the variation is become conſiderably weſterly (as 'it has been ever ſince the year 1657) all ſhips ſtanding in 'out of the ocean, eaſt by the compaſs, get the variation to 'the northward of their true courſe, and thereby alter their 'latitude to the northward, in about half a day's ſailing, 'very conſiderably; ſo that, if they miſs having an obſervation for two or three days, at coming into the Channel, 'and do not allow for this variation weſtward, they fail not 'to fall greatly to the northward of their expectation, eſpecially if they reckon Scilly in, or above, 50 degrees; and, 'by this means, ſhips are often expoſed to the danger of running up the Briſtol Channel (not knowing their latitude) or 'fall in with the rocks of Scilly, and are loſt.

'Some have attributed theſe accidents to the indraught of St 'George's Channel, by the tide of flood being ſuppoſed to 'ſet more to the northward than is compenſated by the ebb 'ſetting out; but, the variation being allowed for, it hath 'been found that the ſaid draught is inſenſible. It is, therefore, recommended to all maſters of ſhips, coming into the 'Channel, that they ſteer on a courſe as much to the ſouthward of the eaſt as the variation, at any time, is weſterly, 'which will exactly keep their parallel; and alſo, that they 'come out of the ocean on a parallel, not more northerly 'than 49 degrees 40 minutes, which will bring them fair by 'the Lizard.'

But, under the article of SCILLY ISLANDS, we ſhall be more minute, full, and explicit, in regard to a matter that ſo nearly concerns the lives of our Britiſh ſeamen.

We ſhall therefore, at preſent, only obſerve, that ſeveral of theſe iſlands, like the county of Cornwall, afford tin, and alſo ſome lead and copper; the tin is diſcoverable by the banks next the ſea, where the marks of the ore, in ſome places, are viſible upon the ſurface.

On the north ſide of theſe iſlands opens the Briſtol Channel, which is called, by our geographers, the Severn Sea. The ſouth ſhore of this channel is the north coaſt of the counties of Cornwall and Devon. Here are but few ports, but they are places of good trade, occaſioned, (1.) By the large correſpondence of thoſe counties with Ireland and Wales, which is carried on from that ſide of the counties, by reaſon of the ſhores being oppoſite, and which occaſions that Minehead and Barnſtaple are two of the ports appointed by act of parliament for the importation of wool from Ireland. (2.) By reaſon of the herring-fiſhery, that lies within this ſea, where the merchants, even of the ſouth ſhore of Cornwall and Devon, employ a great number of veſſels and people to take and cure them. Theſe are cured after a different manner from the other herrings, viz. by preſſing, which they call packing in this country. Here, alſo, they have the rock-ſalt, brought from the river Merſee in Lancaſhire, and which they diſſolve firſt in ſea-water, thereby making a brine of four-fold ſtrength, which they then boil up into a new ſalt, equal to that called ſalt upon ſalt, which the Dutch boaſt ſo much of for the cure of their herrings. See the article SALT.

The chief ports on this coaſt are St Ives, a ſmall but proſperous trading town, having a good port and a bay; where, this being otherwiſe a hazardous coaſt, ſhips frequently put in for ſhelter in great diſtreſs, and are ſecured from danger.

Eaſt from hence is neither port nor harbour 'till we come to the mouth of the river Allan, which, having a wide and deep channel, makes a good haven at the town of Padſtow. This river, coming from the eaſt part of the country, firſt runs ſouth-weſt, but, turning ſhort, and joining other ſtreams, makes a large river, and goes north for the Severn Sea; the effect of which makes, as it were, a paſs into the weſtern part of this county, and, if well guarded, keeps all paſſing from England ſhut up, into the weſt of Cornwall.

Eaſt from Hartland Point lie the towns of Biddeford and Barnſtaple: they are reckoned twin-ports, the rivers going into the ſea by one and the ſame mouth, though, before that they are diſtinct rivers, and both navigable. The port, in general, is very good, and, even ſeparately conſidered, ſhips of very good burden go up to either of the two towns, which are well built and populous. The key at Biddeford is the moſt ſpacious, and of the greateſt extent of the two, of any in all the weſt or ſouth part of England.

Oppoſite to this port, ſomething to the weſt, lies the Iſle of Lundy, well known for the road on the north ſide of it, which is very good, and where ſhips often ride for a wind in their paſſage out from Briſtol, and other ports in this channel.

To the eaſtward is Minehead, a ſea-port of good trade, and which has an excellent harbour, though without a river. It is a clean, well built town; and, being one of the ports limited by act of parliament for the landing of wool from Ireland, it has, by conſequence, a conſtant correſpondence with

that kingdom, though the landing of wool, as we have ſeen, is allowed in other ports alſo.

Hence the ſhore bears away eaſt, to the mouth of the river Ivel, or Bridgewater River, and then goes north to the mouth of the Avon, which is called Briſtol River. Bridgewater, though a port lying ſeven miles from the ſea, and has but a ſmall river, yet has ſome tolerable trade: they import coals from Swanzey in Wales, which is but a ſhort paſſage over the mouth of the Severn. They alſo bring their heavy goods by ſea from Briſtol, it being too long a voyage to make it worth their while to bring them from London.

Here are three ſeveral rivers, which fall together into the ſea at one mouth: the channel is deep and good, though not broad. There is an artificial navigation to the town of Taunton, which carrying on a large manufacture, though not near ſo great as formerly, have all their coals, and many other goods, brought up this canal.

As the mouth of the Avon, on which the city of Briſtol is ſituated, lies north of the Start-Point, which is the mouth of the Bridgewater River; ſo the city of Briſtol lies within the land, about the like diſtance; with this difference, that the Avon is a very large, deep, and ſafe channel, able to carry ſhips of the greateſt burden even into the very ſtreets of Briſtol; for their key is in the heart of the city. The city of Briſtol, eſteemed for it's trade the ſecond in England, lies in the bottom of that great gulph called the Severn Sea, and which is, on that account, named the Briſtol Channel. It is a large, populous, and wealthy city. The merchants here have not only a very extenſive foreign trade, but they trade with leſs dependency on London than any other town in Britain; it is evident, in this reſpect, that, whatſoever exportations they make to any part of the world, they are able to bring the full returns to their own port, and can diſpoſe of them there. This is not the caſe of any other port in England, except Liverpool; but they are often obliged either to ſhip part of their effects in the ports abroad, on the ſhips bound for London, or to conſign their own ſhips to London, in order as well to get freight, as to diſpoſe of their own cargoes. But the Briſtol merchants, as they have a very great trade abroad, ſo they have always buyers at home for their returns, and ſuch buyers that no cargo is too big for them; to this end the Briſtol ſhop-keepers, who, in the general, are wholeſale dealers, have ſo great an inland trade among all the weſtern counties, that they maintain carriers, as the London tradeſmen do, to all the principal counties and towns from Southampton in the ſouth, even to the banks of the Trent north; for, though they have no navigable river that way, yet they drive a very great trade through all thoſe counties.

By the river Wyſe and the Severn they have, alſo, the whole trade of South Wales, as it were, to themſelves, and a great part of North Wales. Their trade to Ireland, likewiſe, hath greatly increaſed within half a century.

Going round the iſle of Angleſey in North Wales, the land falls off eaſt to the mouth of the river Dee, which leads to the antient city of Cheſter.

Cheſter is a large fine city, well built, and full of wealthy inhabitants. Nor is it's trade inconſiderable; for, by it's neighbourhood to the Severn and to Ireland, the traders there have a very good buſineſs, as may be ſeen by the great fair held here annually, to which abundance of tradeſmen and merchants reſort from all parts, more particularly from Briſtol and from Dublin.

We no ſooner paſs Cheſter-Water by ſea north, but you are in ſight of Liverpool-Water, or the river Merſee, open upon the right; and, though that river is not near ſo large as the river Dee, no not including the Wever, another river which falls into the ſame mouth, yet the opening, at leaſt as high as Liverpool, is infinitely before it; for hither ſhips of any burden, with their full loading, may come up, and ride juſt before the town.

This is the moſt flouriſhing town in all this part of England, increaſed prodigiouſly within a few years, and ſtill daily increaſes; inſomuch that it is ſaid to be more than four, if not five times as large as it was in the beginning of the late king James's reign. The inhabitants are univerſally merchants, and very ſkilful and judicious traders in general; and, in ſpite of their ſituation, they trade conſiderably to all the northern parts of the world, even to Hamburgh, Norway, and the Baltic: they trade, alſo, to France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy. As for their trade to the Engliſh colonies in America, to Guinea, and to Ireland, they not only rival the city of Briſtol, but begin to go beyond her in ſeveral articles.

The wet dock is the only thing of it's kind in Britain, London excepted, and is a notable work, of great expence, but fully anſwering the end, and accommodating the town in all the eſſential parts of maritime buſineſs, for the laying up and fitting out their ſhips, which, before, was both difficult and hazardous.

There is a navigation farther up the Merſee, and that for ſhips of burden too, near to the town of Warrington, and alſo up the ſouth channel, which they call the river Wever, (1.) For rock-ſalt, which is dug out of the earth in Lancaſhire and Cheſhire, which is ſhipped off here in large quantities, and carried not only into Devonſhire and Somerſetſhire, and even to Briſtol, but round to ſeveral parts in the ſouth of England, particularly to London, Colcheſter, and to other places. This ſalt is diſſolved in ſea-water, then boiled up again into a ſtronger and finer ſalt, and is then as good as that ſtrong ſalt called ſalt upon ſalt, which the Dutch make of the St Ubes ſalt, and with which they cure their herrings. (2.) They alſo ſhip off great quantities of Cheſhire cheeſe, and lead, manufactured from the ore with pit-coal in Flintſhire.

The moſt authentic account we have of the foreign, coaſting, and Iriſh trade of Liverpool, is as follows:

A liſt of the company of merchants trading to Africa, eſtabliſhed by an act of parliament, paſſed in the 23d year of king George II. intitled, An act for extending and improving the trade to Africa, belonging to Liverpool, June 24, 1752.

Armitage, Robert
Atherton, John
Aſhton, John
Boſtock, John
Bulkely, William
Blundell, Jonathan
Backhouſe, John
Blundell, Bryan
Blundell, Richard
Blackburn, John
Bradley, George
Brooks, John
Benſon, William
Ball, Thomas
Bridge, Edward
Blundell, William
Brooks, Joſeph
Brooks, Jonathan
Bird, Joſeph
Crowder, Thomas
Croſbie, James
Cunliffe, Foſter
Cunliffe, Ellis
Cunliffe, Robert
Campbell, George
Clay, Robert
Craven, Charles
Clayton, John
Crompton, John
Clews, George
Chalmar, Thomas
Davis, Joſeph
Deane, Edward
Dobb, William
Dunbar, Thomas
Earl, Ralph
Eddie, David
Ellams, Elliot
Forbes, Edward
Farmer, Joſeph
Ford, Richard
Fletcher, Potter
Gildart, Richard
Goodwin, William
Goore, Charles
Gorrell, John
Gildart, James
Gordon, James
Goodwin, John
Hardman, John
Heywood, Arthur
Heywood, Benjamin
Heſketh, Robert
Hughes, Richard
Hardwar, Henry
Higgiſon, William
Hallhead, Robert
Hughes, John, Capt.
Kendall, Thomas
Knight, John
Leatherbarrow, Thomas
Laidler, George
Lee, Pierce
Lowndes, Edward
Lowndes, Charles
Mears, Thomas
Maneſty, Joſeph
Nicholas, Richard
Nicholſon, John
Ogden, Samuel
Ogden, Edmund
Oldham, Iſaac
Okill, John
Pritchard, Owen
Parr, John
Parr, Edward
Pardoe, James
Penket, William
Pole, William
Parker, John
Rowe, William
Reed, Samuel
Strong, Matthew
Shaw, Samuel
Savage, Richard
Seel, Thomas
Strong, John
Smith, Samuel
Seel, Robert
Smith, Robert, Broad-Street, London
Tarleton, John
Townſend, Henry
Townſend, Richard
Trafford, Edward
Tarleton, John
Unſworth, Levinus
Williamſon, William
Whytell, Chriſtopher
Whalley, William
White, Henry, Lancaſter
Williamſon, John

Total 101.

N. B. There are 135 merchants free of the African company in London, and 157 in Briſtol, whereas their trade to Africa is not ſo extenſive as the merchants of Liverpool.

A liſt of the veſſels trading from Liverpool to the coaſt of Africa; with their commanders and owners names, what part of the coaſt each ſhip goes to, and for what number of ſlaves. December, 1752.

	Slaves
Africa, ——— Halliſon, Cenin, John Welſh and co.	250
Antigua Merchant, Robert Thomas, Angola, James Gildart and company - - - -	200
Annabella, William Harriſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, W. Dobb and company - - - -	260
Angleſea, James Caruthers, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Tim. Farrar and company - - -	380
Alice Galley, Richard Jackſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Robert Cheſhyre and company - -	350

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	Slaves.
Anne Galley, Nehemiah Holland, Callabar, William Whalley and company	340
Adlington, Thomas Perkin, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, J. Maneſty and company	320
African, John Newton, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, J. Maneſty and company	250
Allen, James Strangeways, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, John Brooks and company	250
Achilles, Thomas Patrick, Hen. Hardwar and co.	450
Barbadoes Merchant, John Wilſon, Angola, G. Campbell and company	500
Betty, Samuel Sacheverell, John Robinſon	100
Blake, Alexander Torbet, Callabar, Jo. Bird and co.	460
Boyne, William Wilkinſon, Bonny, Ed. Forbes and co.	400
Beverley, William Lowe, Angola, Ed. Lowndes and co.	200
Brooke, Thomas Kewly, Old Callabar, Roger Brooks and company	400
Barclay, John Gadſon, Old Callabar, John Welſh and company	450
Bulkeley, Chriſtopher Baitſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and company	350
Britannia, James Pemberton, ditto, Thomas Leatherbarrow and company	300
Bridget, ——— Hayſton, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and company	250
Cheſterfield, Patrick Black, Old Callabar, William Whalley and company	440
Clayton (taken by pirates, and retaken by a Portugueze man of war) J. Clayton and company	440
Cumberland, John Griffin, Gambia, Edward Deane and company	260
Charming Nancy, Th. Roberts, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, W. Davenport and company	170
Cavendiſh, Robert Jennings, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Rd. Nicholas and company	170
Cecilia, Rd. Younge, Gambia, Fr. Green and co.	120
Duke of Cumberland, John Croſbie, Bonny, James Croſbie and company	450
Dolphin, Joſeph Pederick, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Ed. Forbes and company	200
Enterprize, Samuel Greenhow, Gambia (miſſing) John Yates and company	130
Elijah, —— ——, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Ed. Lowndes and company	200
Elizabeth, William Hayes, Gambia, Samuel Shaw and company	200
Ellis and Robert, R. Jackſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, F. Cunliffe, ſons and company	320
Eaton, John Hughes, Angola, John Okill and co. (wood and teeth)	550
Fanny, William Jenkinſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, John Knight and company	120
Florimel, Samuel Linnekar, Callabar, Richard Townſend and company	320
Frodſham, James Powell, Angola, Nich. Torr and co.	450
Fortune, Hugh Williams, Bonny, Henry Townſend and company	480
Foſter, Edward Cropper, Benin, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and company	200
Ferret, Joſeph Welch, Wind. Coaſt, &c. John Welch and company	50
George, Charles Cooke, Angola, G. Campbell and company	250
Grace, ------ --------, Old Callabar, Edward Forbes and company	400
Greyhound, ------ --------, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Rd. Savage and company	120
Heſketh, James Thomſon, New Callabar, Richard Nicholas and company	260
Hector, Brook Kellſal, New Callabar, Wm Gregſon and company	480
Hardman, Joſeph Yoward, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Joſeph Hardman and company	300
Jenny, Thomas Darbyſhire, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, John Knight and company	450
Judith, Nich. Southworth, Bonny, John Welch and co.	350
James, John Sacheverill, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Ja. Gildart	120
Knight, Wm Boates, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, John Knight and company	400
Lintott, Ralph Lowe, New Callabar, Richard Nicholas and company	400
Lord Strange, Edward Smith, Benin, Wm Halliday and company	230
Lovely Betty, Geo. Jackſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Geo. Campbell and company	140
Little Billy, Thomas Dickenſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, John Knight and company	60
Merſey, John Gee, Benin, John Kennion and co.	300
Middleham, John Welch, Old Callabar, Richard Gildart and ſons	320
Methwen, John Copple, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Ja. Croſbie and company	280
Minerva, Thomas Jordan, Gambia, James Pardoe and company	400
Mercury, John Walker, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Kennion and Holme	100
Molly, Richard Rigby, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Richard Golding and company	320
Neptune, Thomas Thompſon, Old Callabar, Joſeph and Jona. Brooks and company	450
Nelly, John Simmons, Old Callabar, William Williamſon and company	320
Nancy, John Honeyford, Bonny, Thomas Kendall and company	400
Nancy, Robert Hewin, Bonny, Pet. Holme and co.	400
Nancy, Thomas Midgeley, Gambia, Knight, Mairs and company	300
Orrel, James Griffin, Gambia, William Whalley and company	120
Ormond, Succeſs, ------ ---------, Angola, William Williamſon and company	300
Pardoe, ----- --------, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, James Pardoe and company	240
Priſcilla, William Parkinſon, Angola, John Welch and company	350
Phœbe, W. Lawſon, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Arth. and Ben. Heywood and company	280
Prince William, John Valentine, Angola, Richard Gildart and ſons	200
Rider, Michael Ruſh, Angola, Richard Gildart and ſons	300
Ranger, James Sanders, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, William Farington and company	300
Sterling Caſtle, Charles Gardner, Bonny, John Backhouſe and company	300
Sarah, Alexander Lawſon, Bonny, Thomas Crowder and company	550
Saliſbury, Thomas Marſden, Old Callabar, Robert Armitage and company	350
Samuel and Nancy, James Lowe, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, Richard Savage and company	220
Swan, Peter Leay, Bonny, John Tarlton and company	400
Sammy and Biddy, R. Grayſon, Windward Coaſt, &c. Jon. Blundell and company	120
Schemer, Robert Grimſhaw, Windward Coaſt, &c. T. Chalmers and company	120
Stronge, Thomas Cubbin, Bonny, Matthew and John Stronge and company	300
Tarlton, James Thompſon, Bonny, John Tarlton and company	340
Triton, Charles Jenkinſon, Bonny, Levinus Unſworth and company	240
Thomas, James Hutchinſon, Gambia, George Campbell and company	200
True Blue, Benjamin Wade, Benin, John Cheſhyre and company	300
Thomas and Martha, J. Gillman, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, G. Campbell and company	200
Vigilant, Wm Freeman, Wind. and Gold Coaſt, (miſſing) J. Bridge and company	160
Union, Tim. Anyon, Wind and Gold Coaſt, James Pardoe and company	350
William and Betty, Thomas Barclay, Angola, Samuel Shaw and company	400

A liſt of veſſels employed in the Weſt-India and American trade, &c. belonging to Liverpool, with their preſent commanders and owners names.

Alice and Betty, Richard Hutchinſon, Antigua, Chriſtopher Bailey and co.
Aaron, Samuel Woodward, Montſerat, William Williamſon and co.
Anſon, Will. Pemberton, Jamaica, Joſeph Maneſty and co.
Auſtin, Mat. Holme, South Carolina, John Knight and co.
Allerton, James Wallace, Virginia, John Hardman and co.
Antigua Packet, J. Caviſh, Antigua, Tho. Falkner and co.
Brownbill, James Neale, Montſerat, Tho. Brownbill and co.
Barbadoes Packet, Arthur Harding, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
Betty and Peggy, Philip Nagle, Antigua, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Betty, Geo. Drinkwater, St Chriſtophers, Wm Williamſon and co.
Baldwin, Geo. Matthews, Jamaica, Charles Lowndes and co.
Cunliffe, Jo. Cleater, Maryland, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Charming Peggy, —— ——, Virginia, Robert Seel.
Carter, Sam. Lea, Antigua, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and co.
Cæſar, Joſeph Wayles, Antigua, Richard Nicholas and co.
Cato, Charles Slater, Maryland, Edward Lowndes and co.
Charles, Tho. Nunns, North Carolina, Joſeph Davies and co.
Choptank, Edward Barnes, Maryland, Ed. Lowndes and co.
Catherine, J. Matthews, South Carolina, Jo. Maneſty and co.
Deane, Chriſtopher Betagh, New York, Edward Forbes.
Draper, Tho. Benn, St Chriſtophers, John Backhouſe and co.

Expedition,

Expedition, William Campbell, North Carolina, John Campbell and co.
Elizabeth, Nath. Sayers, New London, Geo. Campbell and co.
Eagle, William Coppell, Montſerat, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Everton, Thomas Kelly, Virginia, Charles Goore.
Elizabeth, Jonath. Howard, Montſerat, John Tarlton and co.
Entwiſle, John Smith, John Entwiſle.
Eſther, Gilbert Rigby, Montſerat, John Hardman and co.
Edward, John Murdock, America, Timothy Farrar and co.
Earl of Cheſter, Fr. Lowdes, Lowndes and co.
Fanny, James Brown, St Chriſtopher, John Tarlton and co.
Good Intent, Richard Rimmer, Nova Scotia, Peter Meddows and co.
Granville, Ja. Leſſely, North Carolina, Geo. Campbell and co.
Greyhound, Iſaac Wakely, Barbadoes, John Knight and co.
Golden Lion, J. Metcalfe, Greenland, Cha. Goore and co.
Gildart, George Sweeting, Virginia, James Gildart and co.
George, Jo. Arthur, Philadelphia, G. Campbell.
Grampus, Job Lewis, Carolina, James Pardoe.
Hillary, Timothy Wheelwright, Jamaica, Rd Hillary and co.
Hopewell, Francis Bare, Jamaica, John Kennion and co.
Happy Return, James Waugh, Antigua, George Campbell.
Hotherſall, Tho. Bruce, St Chriſtophers, W. Leconby and co.
Happy, James Barrow, St Chriſtophers, John Crompton and co.
Hopewell, Alexander Caterwood, Newbury, James Pardoe.
Jenny, John Quay, St Chriſtophers, W. Williamſon and co.
Iſaac, John Mac'Neale, Barbadoes, Iſaac Oldham and co.
Jonathan, James Nottingham, North Carolina, Bryan Blundell and co.
James Galley, Ja. Walling, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
Jenny, John Scorfield, St Chriſtophers, Tho. Molyneux and co.
Kingſton, John Jump, St Chriſtophers, Charles Goore.
Lamb, James Kennedy, Barbadoes, Steel Perkins and co.
Lucy, Nich. Boulton, Antigua, John Tarlton and co.
Lloyd, Samuel Venables, Virginia, James Gildart.
Liverpool Merchant, Samuel Matthews, Maryland, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Monmouth, Henry Twentyman, Virginia, John Backhouſe.
Melling, J. Matthews, Philadelphia, Morris Melling and co.
Mercury, —— Hutton, Jamaica, Richard Cribb and co.
Mary Anne, John Quay, St Chriſtophers, Harriſon, Barton, and co.
Molly, John Stanton, Jamaica, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Merry Mack, Edward Fryer, G. Campbell and co.
Nanny, Elliot Cooke, Antigua, John Tarlton and co.
Naſſau, John Gawith, Virginia, James Gildart.
Nancy, John Foſter, Tortola. Thomas Falkner and co.
Neptune, George Johnſton, Virginia, Thomas Dunbarr.
Polly, James Clements, Jamaica, Nich. Torr and co.
Parkſide, James Foley, Jamaica, John Knight and co.
Preſton, James Simpſon, Jamaica, Richard Savage and co.
Pemberton, ------ ------, Jamaica, Bryan Blundell and co.
Prince of Wales, Robert Gordon, Barbadoes, Arthur and Benjamin Heywood.
Proſpect, Richard Hutchinſon, Barbadoes, John Prat and co.
Providence, ------ ------, South Carolina W. Halliday and co.
Providence, Joſeph Taylor, Nevis, Bryan Blundell and co.
Panther, Leonard Benſon, Antigua, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Preſcot, Bryan Smith, Jamaica, Francis Watts and co.
Phœnix, Samuel Kelly, Virginia, Samuel Smith.
Prince, Richard Overton, Montſerat, John Crompton and co.
Prince of Orange, Conſtantine Hodſon, Maryland, Foſter Cunliffe, ſons and co.
Prince Edward, ——————, Nevis, Bryan Blundell and co.
Penelope, John Chubbard, Leghorn and Naples, James Pardoe.
Recovery, Jonath. Slade, Philadelphia, John Okill and co.
Recovery, John Robinſon, Antigua, William Spencer and co.
Rice, —— Middleton, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
Robert, Peter Kennedy, Antigua, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Recovery, W. Robinſon, Jamaica, Joſeph Maneſty and co.
Roſs, ------ ------, Barbadoes, G. Campbell and co.
Richard, J. Platt, St Chriſtophers, W. Williamſon and co.
Radbourne, Tho. Ward, Virginia, John Backhouſe and co.
Spencer, Robert Whitlow, Jamaica, William Spencer and co.
Shawe, James Bennet, Antigua, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
Suſannah, Will. Day, Barbadoes, George Campbell and co.
Speedwell, John Thorton, Virginia, Charles Goore.
Tryton, Robert Boyd, Maryland, Edward Lowndes and co.
Tyger, Gawin Burrows, Jamaica, Joſ. and Jonath, Brooks.
Telemachus, T. Feartlough, South Carolina, Potter Fletcher.
Trafford, Tho. Goodaker, Maryland, Edward Trafford.
Tryal, Peter Johnſon, Antigua, John Tarlton and co.
Tryal, Pat. Harold, Tortola, Collins and Hartley.
Vine, Robert Makin, Maryland, Edward Lowndes and co.
Volunteer, Tho. Naylor, Jamaica, Will. Barker and co.
Upton, John Gardiner, Maryland, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
William, W. Nobler, Maryland, John Goodwin and ſon.
Windſor, ------ ------, Maryland, Edward Trafford.
Wheel of Fortune, Thomas Middleton, Montſerrat, Foſter Cunliffe and ſons.
William and Robert, Ja. Chambers, Virginia, J. Bird and co.
William and Nancy, W. Settle, Maryland, G. Bradley and co.
Warren, Robert Loxham, Virginia, James Croſbie.

A liſt of veſſels that commonly take freight from Liverpool, for different parts of Europe.

Ann, Pat. Stronge.
Adventure, Stephen Reed.
Ball, David Guthrie.
Clare, David Welch.
Concord, John Barrow.
Duke of Cumberland, Joſ. Houſton.
Diana, James Hurſt.
Diana, Wilfred Inman.
Dorothy, Robert Moiſter.
Elizabeth, Alex. Jolly.
Endeavour, W. Cooke.
Happy Chance, J. Boggs.
Hope, Benjamin Kirby.
John and Thomas, Thomas Rymer.
Iſaac and Barbara, Ant. Piper.
Iſabella, Henry Hinde.
Jennet, John Gardner.
Jane, Anthony Cocks.
Kirkham, James Shaw.
Marquis of Rockingham, W. Briggs.
Princeſs of Wales, J. Kingſton.
Parker, John Harriſon.
Stadtholder, John Johnſon.
Suſannah, Robert Durham.
Sarah and Martha, Robert Atkinſon.
Tryal, Richard Newton.
Two Brothers, J. Clements.
Unity, Abraham Williams.

Veſſels from Liverpool in the coaſting and Iriſh trade, &c.

[Frequently take freight for different parts of Europe.]

Abigail, J. Mac'loughlane.
Annabella, A. Drumgold.
Argyle, J. Mac'Targot.
Bidſton, Chriſt. Hindley.
Betty and Peggy, W. More.
Betty, Robert Wallace.
Betty and Peggy, J. Marten.
Boyne, James Lampart.
Betty and Peggy, Am. Sharp.
Bank-key, John Abram.
Betty, Thomas Ward.
Charming Molly, Nicholas Shimmins.
Charming Jenny, G. Geddas.
Catherine, John Hamilton.
Dublin Trader, G. Hartwell.
Dean Swift, Dan. Stringer.
Dorcas, Gawan Hamilton.
Draper, Robert Moor.
Drogheda Merch. J. Hays.
Duke, Thomas Deaz.
Dreadnought, —— Barnes.
Devonſhire, John Janny.
Ellen, Daniel Graham.
Endeavour, Richard Barry.
Elizabeth and Anne, William Midgeley.
Experiment, Walter Young.
Ellinor, — — —
Friendſhip, Alex. Robb.
Fair Play, Charles Griffin.
Gwydier, Chriſt. Roſhall.
Game Cock, James Neale.
George and William, John Crocket.
Hibernia, And. Moreton.
Hawke, Hugh Cunning.
Hopewell, James Shuter.
Henry, Francis Ellis.
John, William Weſton.
Induſtry, Richard Kenyon.
John and Alice, William Jackſon.
John, Matthew Johnſon.
John and Robert, J. Semple.
John and Thomas, Thomas Johnſton.
Induſtry, John Moor.
Judith, William Semple.
Jolly Cooper, J. Robinſon.
Jane, James Heſlep.
Lamb, William Carliſle.
Liverpool, Sam. Rimmer.
Lamb, Peter Wright.
Molly, John Moor.
Mary Ann, Joſeph Furlong.
Morning Star, Sol. Hog.
Mary Jane, James Coſtollo.
Martha and Mary, Thomas Howel.
Manchеſter, Rand. MacDonald.
Martin, Thomas Prieſt.
Martha, Tho. MacKewn.
Margaret, Sam. Dawſon.
Medlicot, Michael Chevers.
Martin, Joſeph Maynard.
Mawberry, And. Millar,
Mary, Bart. Murray.
Margaret, John Atkinſon.
Newton, John Cartwright.
Nancy, Chriſt. Baker.
Newry Trader, Archibald MacDonald.
Nathaniel, Parr, Withers.
New Draper, Edw. Semple.
Nancy, Robert Stevenſon.
Owners Endeavour, James Stevenſon.
Prince William, J. Chiſolm.
Ponſonby, Rob. Linnekar.
Phœnix, Robert Johnſon.
Proſperity, James Doyle.
Prince William, James Clindinen.
Prince of Orange, Archibald MacCombe.
Prince Edward, — —
Proſperity, John Wilſon.
Prince William, Robert Mac Makin.
Peggy, William Jackſon.
Peter, Peter Swainſon.
Royal Oak, J. Thompſon.
Robert and David, Hugh MacNabb.
Roſs, George Duncan.
Reſolution, J. Warburton.
Recovery, William Jackſon.
Stanhope, Murdock MacEver.
Succeſs, Charles Lace.
Sugar-houſe, R. Hughes.
Salford, John Andrews.
Speedwell, Nath. Allen.
Sea-flower, Joſeph Pugmore.
Sankey, — — —
Sally and Betty, Richard Hutchinſon.
True Love, Robert Miller.
Thomas and Nancy, John Brooks.
Vernon, John Burrowdale.
William, James Ward.
William and Betty, William Quirk.
Worthington, Sam. Lang.
William and Sarah, Adam Weer.
Warrington, J. Sherwin.

Veſſels from Liverpool in the London and cheeſe trade.

Alexander, Edw. Howard.
Diligence, Row. Hunter.
Deacon, William Taylor.
Elizabeth, Cha. Howard.
Elizabeth and Rebecca, Joſ. Deane.
Edward and Mary, John Littler.
Friendſhip, Sam. Hunter.
Halſey, Thomas Harriſon.
John and Mary, William Barrow.
Lyon, Edmund Lyon.
Manchеſter, Francis Cooke.
Nathaniel, Sam. Hunter.
Prince Henry, Edw. Daniel.
Richmond, William Taylor.
Robert, John Saliſbury.
Smith, Samuel Saliſbury.
Sally & Betty, Steph. Serjeant.

Salmon, Henry Aſhton. William, William Vinor.
Trout, John Urmſon.

N. B. There are upwards of eighty river ſloops employed in the ſalt trade, &c. burthen from forty to ſeventy tons; and many coaſters that trade to Liverpool conſtantly (not here inſerted) belonging to different ports.

For the inland trade of Liverpool, ſee the article LANCASHIRE.

From this port we have no other moment upon the coaſt, 'till we come to Whitehaven in Cumberland; which is, in particular, very eminent for the coal trade, great quantities being conſtantly ſhipped off here for Ireland; inſomuch that in times of war here are ſometimes fleets of ſhips, containing 150 or 200 ſail at a time, loaden with pit-coal, and bound for Dublin and other parts of Ireland. This trade alone makes Whitehaven not only populous, but wealthy alſo, and the adjacent country is by that means much improved, a great number of people being always maintained, both by land and ſea, in this conſiderable branch of trade. But the foreign commerce of this port to America, and other parts, is greatly advanced within theſe thirty years, and is daily increaſing.

From hence to Solway Firth, which parts England and Scotland, we ſee nothing material upon the coaſt. The city of Carliſle is, indeed, a ſea-port, but has very little trade.

REMARKS.

From this ſhort ſurvey of the coaſt and ſea-ports of England, and it's ſituation in regard to maritime commerce, we may make a tolerable judgment how far nature ſeems to have contributed to render it a wealthy and powerful trading nation. But, when we conſider the union of England with Wales and Scotland, and alſo the dependency of Ireland on this kingdom, as likewiſe her colonies and plantations in America, it muſt greatly exalt our idea of the advantages which England hath, and yet may derive from being ſo happily circumſtanced by conſtitution, as well as ſituated by nature.

In the reign of queen Elizabeth, the Engliſh began to trade to the Eaſt-Indies and to Turky: and, by the help of the Netherlanders who fled hither for ſhelter, the manufacture for bays and ſerges was eſtabliſhed in England. See the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

This wiſe princeſs alſo greatly improved the coin, and rendered the naval force of England conſiderable, in order to protect and advance her commercial intereſts. Her jealouſy of ſupporting a ſuperiority at ſea for this important purpoſe was ſuch, that, although ſhe gave the Hollanders all the aſſiſtance ſhe could againſt the Spaniards, they were not ſuffered to build ſhips of war. For want of guarding againſt which in the two ſucceeding reigns, the Dutch became very formidable by ſea, and diſputed the dominion thereof with Cromwell and Charles II.

This renowned princeſs likewiſe promoted the navigation and commerce of her ſubjects, opened a paſſage for them into both the Indies, and excited that ſpirit which afterwards induced us to make ſettlements in the moſt diſtant parts of the globe; and, by a wiſe and happy conjunction of our labours both here and at home, at once extended our wealth and our proweſs, without the diminution of our people; contrary to this the effects of plantations made then by other countries, which have ſuffered at home by aggrandizing themſelves abroad; whereas our power at home is conſtantly augmented, in proportion to the advantages derived from our ſettlements abroad: and to this circulation of our commerce it is in reality owing, that our ſtrength is ſo much greater, our lands ſo much more valuable, and our wealth ſo much increaſed, as it is ſince that time; which has enabled us to keep pace in power with other our neighbouring nations, who muſt long ſince have ſwallowed us up, had our commercial intereſts been neglected, in proportion as they have purſued theirs.

Some people have made a diſtinction between the intereſts and the commerce of Great-Britain, but this ſeems to be a diſtinction without a difference; for the intereſt and the commerce of Great-Britain are ſo inſeparably united, that they may well be conſidered as one and the ſame. For commerce is that tie, by which the ſeveral, and even the moſt diſtant parts of this empire, are connected and kept together, ſo as to be rendered parts of the ſame whole, and to receive not only conſtant protection, but nouriſhment from the vital parts of our government.

Whatever, therefore, promotes and extends our commerce, is conſiſtent with our true intereſts, and whatever weakens it is repugnant thereto. Conſidering things in this light, we may derive from thence a juſt notion of the ſolid and permanent advantage of Great-Britain, with relation to the other powers of Europe; and, by this criterion, be ever able to judge, when the real intereſts of the kingdom are purſued, when they are neglected and abandoned.

If it be true, that the ſafety of Great-Britain depends, chiefly, on her being miſtreſs of the ſeas, and that the trade of Britain has never flouriſhed ſo much, or it's glory been ſo far extended, as in thoſe reigns when it's naval ſtrength was principally attended to; it follows, that this ought, at all times, to be the grand point in view.

To give ſome aſſiſtance on the continent, when the liberties of Europe are threatened, is undoubtedly right, provided there be ſuch an alliance formed, as is likely to check and fruſtate the deſigns of an ambitious potentate; but it has been the opinion of many conſiderate men, that going into land wars ought, as much as poſſible, to be avoided by Great-Britain; becauſe, as her ſtrength is thereby divided, her naval power muſt be diminiſhed.

At it has, moreover, been found, by dear bought experience, that dominions upon the continent coſt more to get and keep than they are worth, nothing, but the preſervation of the ballance of our power, can induce Britain to intermeddle at any time upon the continent. When this is really in danger, and ſtrong confederacies are formed for it's ſupport, the weight of Great-Britain thrown into the ſcale may have glorious conſequences; but, if other powers cannot ſee, or will not heartily oppoſe this danger which concerns them more immediately, it ſeems the wiſeſt way for this kingdom to ſave her blood and her treaſure, and to provide, by augmenting her natural maritime ſtrength, which we have ſeen her coaſts will admit of, againſt the worſt.

Suppoſing that, by the ſupineſs or infatuation of other powers on the continent, ſome one prince ſhould arrive at univerſal monarchy, is it not probable that he would have buſineſs enough upon his hands, to ſupport himſelf in his new conqueſts? If this were not the caſe, and he ſhould form any deſign upon this iſland, it would require many years to get ſuch a fleet together, as could look that of Britain in the face? And in the mean time, by his death, or many other accidents, might not the poſture of affairs upon the continent be entirely changed? To ſuppoſe further, what can ſcarce ever happen, but by her own ill conduct, that the ſuperiority at ſea was loſt, as the invading ſo populous an iſland, whoſe inhabitants are naturally brave, would be dangerous and very expenſive; and there is no inſtance in hiſtory of it's being ever conquered, except the people were at variance amongſt themſelves, it may be juſtly preſumed, that the conqueſt of Britain would, even then, be very difficult.

With regard to Germany, Poland, and other ſtates, which have no maritime force, Great-Britain has nothing to fear. On the contrary, 'tis for their intereſt to be upon good terms with her, who may, by cauſing a diverſion on ſome occaſions in their favour, be of good ſervice to them.

It is of importance for the Portugueze to be on good terms with this nation, not only becauſe of the great conſumption of her produce, but becauſe ſhe is capable of aſſiſting them greatly, in caſe of a war with Spain. On the other ſide, as her trade to Portugal, if preſerved upon the footing of the treaty of commerce made by Sir Paul Methuen, will continue as it has done, advantageous, and therefore her breaking with that power would be impolitic. But, if the Portugueze change their ſyſtem, and in any reſpect violate or ſuperſede that treaty, Britain would be under the neceſſity of retaliating upon them, and ſupplying herſelf with the produce, which ſhe at preſent takes from that kingdom; the practicability of which I ſhall endeavour to demonſtrate in it's place.

The naval force of Spain bears no proportion to that of Britain; yet, while the conſumption of Britiſh commodities is great, both in New and Old Spain, it is for our intereſt to continue in amity with that nation: beſides, no ports are more convenient for annoying the Engliſh trade by privateers, than thoſe of Spain. But, if the court of Madrid change their plan of policy, and virtually render null and ineffectual all treaties of commerce that have long ſubſiſted between England and Spain, we ſhall doubtleſs be under the neceſſity alſo of changing our commercial meaſures, in order to render all their ſchemes of trade abortive, which may prove detrimental to theſe kingdoms: and, how far we really have that in our power, we ſhall labour to evince in the ſequel of this work.

Our affairs with the crown of Spain have been long in a perplexed ſituation, notwithſtanding it is generally thought the Spaniſh miniſters have ſuch true notions of the intereſt of their own nation, as to be perſuaded, that nothing concerns them more than to live upon good terms with Great-Britain. It is our intereſt likewiſe, without queſtion, to live in a perfect correſpondence with that court; and, therefore, no pains ought to be ſpared that are requiſite to remove all jealouſies and diſcontents on both ſides.

It was hoped, that this would have been effectually done by the definitive treaty of Aix la Chapelle; but it ſeems that the neceſſity of reſtoring the tranquillity of Europe, made it eligible to conclude that treaty, without adjuſting the differences between the Britiſh and Spaniſh courts, which were left to a particular negociation; that we are yet to expect an abſolute concluſion of the moſt eſſential part of this important buſineſs: which, as it has proceeded ſlowly, we have good ground to apprehend, will, when it is brought to a determination, ſettle the terms of correſpondence to the mutual ſatisfaction of both nations.

Delays are very diſagreeable in all points of national concern, more eſpecially ſo in points of great conſequence, ſuch as this undoubtedly is, both to us and to the Spaniards. Yet after all,

all, if, by bearing with theſe delays, things can be adjuſted, ſo as to leave no grounds for future diſputes; inſtead of patching up expedient agreements to ſerve a preſent turn, which never afford content to either party, and are ſeldom long obſerved, we ſhall have good cauſe to excuſe thoſe delays, and to be well pleaſed with the final iſſue of them.

In the mean time, we have the ſatisfaction of knowing, that at length the ſyſtem of expedients is exploded; for, if there had been the leaſt intention of returning to that ſort of practice, we might doubtleſs have had ſomething of that kind long ago. It was certainly better to treat with clearneſs and dignity, to explain and go to the bottom of grievances on both ſides, that both old and freſh wounds might be thoroughly healed, and not ſkinned over, that our miniſters may have a full, explicit, and well concerted treaty for their guide, upon which the ſubjects of both crowns may rely, without any doubts as to the ſenſe of the remaining articles, or any fears of their not being punctually executed.

Remarks.

We waited for this well-grounded and concluſive adjuſtment of affairs between Great-Britain and Spain, 'till the laſt war broke out between England and France; and inſtead of matters being ſettled between us and Spain, they joined France againſt us, as was repeatedly ſuſpected throughout this work, would have been the caſe. This junction of Spain with France, coſt them the loſs of the Havannah, and in conſequence thereof, the abſolute ceſſion of Florida to Great-Britain, by the definitive treaty of 1763. See America, British America, Spanish America.

Notwithſtanding that France is near three times as large as Great-Britain, her maritime force could never yet come in abſolute competition with that of England: which is, perhaps, in a great meaſure, owing to the number of troops kept up in France, for ſupporting arbitrary power, and garriſoning an extenſive frontier. While ſo many hands are thus employed, and no innovation takes place in the conſtitution of that kingdom, which might greatly augment it's maritime power, we ſhall be able to deal with them; and eſpecially ſo, if we can ſtir up a conſtant jealouſy betwixt France and the neighbouring powers, and prevent, if it can be done with ſafety to ourſelves, all further acquiſitions of the French in the Low Countries; for, if France ſhould apply herſelf to the improving her marine, ſome ports there would be very ſerviceable for that purpoſe: and, if this was not done, Britain might, by being in poſſeſſion of them, loſe the trade carried on into, and through Flanders.

Certain it is, that let whatever public meaſures be carrying on in France at this conjuncture (and, perhaps, only to blind the eyes of the reſt of Europe), yet 'tis certain they do not loſe ſight of the great point of advancing their maritime power. For the wiſeſt heads in that kingdom, amidſt all their pretended confuſion, which may probably terminate to our high diſadvantage, are uſing their utmoſt efforts to eſtabliſh, if poſſible, a naval power, equal, if not ſuperior to others, in order to raviſh from us our commerce, and one day to ſtrike a blow that may be fatal to theſe kingdoms.

Ought not this, therefore, to put us upon our guard; ought it not to rouſe and animate us to make uſe, in time, of thoſe advantages, which, by the favour of the happy ſituation of our coaſts, we at preſent poſſeſs, that the like ſpirit ſhould ſteadily take place in this kingdom, as hath been raiſing in France ever ſince the concluſion of the late peace. For, ſince that period, there is not a port in France where they are capable of ſhip-building, but more or leſs have been put upon the ſtocks; others alſo built in America, and many of our own ſhips employed in the late war purchaſed by them, and every magazine in the kingdom filled with naval ſtores. To what end can theſe preparations be made in times of peace? Do we not well know, that the French in the late war experienced their royal navy was not able to ſtand in competition with ours; and, therefore, from the day of the peace of Aix la Chapelle being concluded, they have moſt aſſuredly been increaſing their marine, in order to obtain that ſuperiority by ſea, which they found themſelves deficient in during the late war. If, by expoſing the meaſures of this rival nation in their true light, I can any way contribute to the inſpiring my countrymen with a generous reſolution to ſupport their trade, to maintain their reputation in maritime affairs, and to keep a vigilant eye over the ambitious and reſtleſs views of this haughty neighbour, my end will be fully anſwered; but, whether I am ſo fortunate or not, it will be ſome conſolation to me that I have done my duty; that I have ſhewn, and ſhall more effectually ſhew, from facts inconteſtable, the danger our trade is really in, the cauſes of that danger, and the remedies which ought to be timely applied to prevent it.

Whoever hath done me the honour to attend to the ſeries of facts I have already candidly laid before the public in this elaborate work, to evince the exquiſite policy of France, in regard to their commercial and maritime intereſts, can never believe that our fears are groundleſs and imaginary: and what may ſerve as additional proof that they are not ſo, is the ſtate of the negotiations between us and France ſince the peace; for I believe it will be difficult to ſhew, that, in one inſtance, they have hitherto acted honourably by this nation, and manifeſted any cordial and ſincere intentions to render the pacification ſolid and permanent on their ſide, though the court of London has done every thing on their part towards that ſalutary end.

An inveterate hatred, or a perpetual oppoſition to France, is a maxim that was never laid down by any wiſe Engliſh ſtateſman, and ought never to be received and countenanced. In queen Elizabeth's time we aſſiſted the preſent reigning family, and medals were ſtruck with the arms of England, France, and Holland, as powers whoſe intereſts were thoroughly united, and at that time they were ſo; and our regard for the French was as well founded then, as that which we teſtify for the houſe of Auſtria is now.

The cauſe that we are humbly ambitious to ſupport, is the cauſe of our trade and of our liberties: I am perſuaded that this nation nath no innate, hereditary, and groundleſs averſion to the French nation; for, were their miniſters as upright and ſincere in their treaties and negotiations, as the people in general are ingenious, induſtrious, honourable, wiſe, and politic, both nations might purſue the peaceful arts of commerce, and make the ſubjects of both contribute to the reciprocal proſperity and happineſs of each other: they might, perhaps, ſo conduct their ſyſtems of policy, as not ſo much to interfere with each other in their concerns of trade as they at preſent do; for this creates jealouſies and heart-burnings between the two nations, and 'tis to be feared ever will do ſo, while this is the caſe. But, whenever their ſtateſmen ſhall abandon that plan, which they have ſo many years ſteadily purſued, and which is dangerous and deſtructive, in it's nature, even to themſelves as well as others, they will infallibly diſarm us; they will extinguiſh that animoſity, which their boundleſs ambition, and not our obſtinacy or perverſeneſs, has excited.

There have been, within the memory of the preſent generation, certain ſeaſons, in which the French miniſters either really or ſeemingly laid aſide theſe ſchemes, and affected to act upon other principles, that very ſoon produced an alteration in the conduct of other powers towards them, which fully juſtifies this obſervation; and therefore their politicians have no juſt grounds for imputing to the fierceneſs of our manners, or an hereditary hatred towards their country, that alacrity we have ſhewn in entering into all alliances againſt them, but ought rather to aſcribe it to that rectitude of judgment, which is natural to a free people, and which will always appear amongſt us, as long as we continue free.

Although the northern powers are not to be dreaded by Britain, it is for her intereſt to ſupport the ballance of power betwixt them; becauſe, if any one was maſter of the Baltic, he might obſtruct her trade there, and in the end vie with the naval force of this nation.

The land force of Holland being greatly inferior, and the marine not equal to that of England, 'tis not likely the Dutch ſhould break with Great-Britain. On the other ſide, as the Hollanders are rivals to this kingdom by ſea and in trade, the conduct of queen Elizabeth, who conſtantly ſupported that republic, yet took care to prevent it's becoming too formidable by ſea, ſeems the wiſeſt meaſures that can be purſued by Britain: for the falling of the United Provinces, into other hands, might prove a terrible blow to the Proteſtant religion, and in the end deſtructive of the commerce of Great-Britain.

The ballance in Italy is judged to concern us more remotely, notwithſtanding which, we have hitherto ſhewn a juſt and laudable regard to that likewiſe; and, indeed, diſtance in this reſpect is of little conſequence, more eſpecially to a maritime power. Our commerce in the Mediterranean, and in the Levant, is of very high importance; and we cannot but be ſenſible, that whatever alterations have been felt in the Italian ballance, have alſo affected thoſe branches of our commerce in a very ſenſible degree; ſo that whatever ſteps we have taken, either during the continuance of peace by negotiations, or in time of war, by ſupporting the only prince in Italy, who declared for the common cauſe, and was true to his own intereſts, which were likewiſe ours, were certainly right and juſt meaſures, and have no doubt left thoſe impreſſions, which will never be obliterated by any arts or intrigues. Whether the affair of Corſica may not deſerve the regard of this nation in particular, is ſubmitted to conſideration; and, whether a certain unfortunate nobleman, who was crowned king of that iſland, might not be inſtrumental to prevent thoſe people from coming under the dominion of the houſe of Bourbon in any ſhape whatever, may poſſibly merit the regard of the maritime powers before it is too late. The injuries our merchants are liable to from the inſults offered to the nation by the corſairs of Barbary, will not allow us to doubt, that it is our true intereſt to keep the Italian ſtates firmly united to us; that, when occaſion requires, they may afford us all the conveniencies in their power towards chaſtiſing theſe barbarians, as our uſing vigorous meaſures in ſuch caſes, and ſending a powerful fleet into the Mediterranean, will contribute more to keep them in awe, and make us reſpected by the Italian potentates, as well as to obtain juſtice from theſe piratical governments; which is ſcarce to be expected from mild and temporary meaſures.

The many alterations that happen daily in the world, afford and will always afford, ſufficient reaſons for exerting ourſelves, not without hazard and expence, in favour of ſome or other of our allies; which, however, muſt be done, and done with ſpirit and chearfulneſs, if we will remain a free, a great, and a reſpectable people. It is in vain to hope to maintain our character by a ſelfiſh and ſurly, or by a lukewarm and inactive behaviour; if we reaſon ever ſo little with ourſelves, we may be ſatisfied of this; if we conſult hiſtory, hiſtory will convince us; if we have recourſe to experience, experience will read us the ſame lecture.

Neither ought we to conſider what we do as any burthen or inconvenience, ſince it ariſes from the rank and figure we make in the world, from thoſe connections which have been the fruit of our ſignificancy, and by which that is upheld and ſecured. In ſhort, when we ſuccour our neighbours, we do it from a principle of juſtice to ourſelves; we flouriſh chiefly from the commerce that we have with them; and, having thus a ſtake in their welfare, it is really conſulting our own intereſt, when we fulfil thoſe preſervative engagements that were entered into, on account of that ſtake; and therefore, inſtead of repining that we are obliged to it, we ought to rejoice that it is in our power, and ſhew by our alacrity, how much it is in our will.

Theſe are the general principles of Britiſh policy, deduced from our paſt tranſactions; which, after having been often deliberately and ſolemnly examined in the wiſeſt and greateſt aſſemblies in this nation, have received repeated, as well as public ſanctions; ſo that, if private men err in adopting them, it will be very difficult to eſtabliſh other maxims which are attended with clearer evidence, and ſupported by better authority.

In order the better to judge of the true intereſt of theſe kingdoms in regard to it's trade, and where the ballance really lies with all nations, we refer to the articles BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, and BRITISH AMERICA, and ſo ſuch other heads alſo as are there intimated.

REMARK.

The foregoing obſervations being drawn up juſt after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, and prognoſticating what has ſince happened by the laſt war, we think it of ſome utility to let them remain unaltered, that poſterity may the better judge from time to time of the conduct of England and France, and other powers, towards each other. And it is obſervable that, indeed, whatever we prejudged to be the conſequence of the meaſures taken by France in NORTH-AMERICA, and the alarms we received there ſoon after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, has come to paſs: and this judgment we made was formed from a vigilant attention to the drift and tenour of their whole conduct. And they muſt acknowledge, that it has been wholly owing to their reſtleſs and inſidious politics to diſtreſs and injure this nation, that they have at length obliged us to extirpate them from all CANADA and it's DEPENDENCIES, and poſſeſſed ourſelves of CAPE BRETON, to awe them for the future in this part of the world. From the ſame principle of future ſecurity to the ſouthern parts of our continental colonies, we have annexed Florida to the crown of England, and obtain St Auguſtine, Penſacola, and Mobille, and the freedom of navigation in the MISSISSIPPI, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. See AMERICA.

Of the monies of England, both real and imaginary, with relation to practical trade.

Accounts are kept in London, the metropolis of England, and throughout the Britiſh dominions, in pounds, ſhillings, pence, and farthings: 4 farthings they reckon equal to one penny, 12 pence to a ſhilling, and 20 ſhillings to a pound.

The money of this kingdom, as well as that of moſt others in Europe, is imaginary as well as real. By the imaginary is meant all the denominations which are made uſe of to expreſs any ſum of money, which is not the juſt value of any real ſpecies of copper, ſilver, gold, or any other metal; as a pound, a mark, an angel, a noble, &c. theſe being all imaginary, becauſe there are no ſuch ſpecies at this time current; a pound being the value of 20 s. a mark 13s. 4d. an angel 10s. a noble 6s. 8d.—Real money is any real ſpecies, or pieces of money, current in payment at a certain rate, as a guinea, a crown, a ſhilling, &c. *

* We ſhould not be ſo minute in theſe things, was it not for the ſatisfaction of foreigners, who have encouraged this work as much as our natives.

The copper monies current in England are, a farthing and an halfpenny; two of the former being equal to one of the latter. —The ſilver monies are, thoſe valued at a penny, two-pence, three-pence, four-pence, ſix-pence, and twelve-pence, or one ſhilling; a piece at 2 s. 6 d. called half a crown, and a piece at 5 s. called a crown-piece.—This ſilver coin is of the ſtandard of 11 oz. 2 dwts. Troy, fine, called ſterling.

The gold coin is of 22 carats fine, which is the ſtandard thereof. The ſpecies hereof are, a piece called a guinea, valued at 21 s. an half-guinea, at 10 s. 6 d. a quarter-guinea, valued at 5 s. 3 d. The quarter-guineas were only coined in the reign of king George I. and were ſo few, that they are rarely to be met with but in the cabinets of the curious. The ſilver pence, two-pence, three-pence, and groats, are not ſo uncommon as the quarter-guineas.

REMARK.

As there are variety of uſeful queſtions relating to the weight, fineneſs, and valuation of gold and ſilver, which may be reſolved by knowing the proportions they bear to each other, I would refer the reader to our articles of BULLION, COIN, GOLD, and SILVER.

Of the weights of ENGLAND, and it's dependencies.

The moſt common uſed throughout the kingdom are the Troy and the averdupoiſe weight. The Troy is divided as follows, 24 grains = to a penny-weight, 20 penny-weights = an ounce, and 12 ounces = a pound. Theſe weights are uſed for bread, gold, ſilver, and medicines.—Eight pounds Troy is a gallon, 16 lb. a peck, and 64 lb. a buſhel; whereby weight and meaſure are reduced into each other.

Wet meaſure is alſo derived from this pound Troy, both on land and on ſhip-board, as alſo grain and corn, as before; for theſe 12 ounces, made into a concave meaſure, is called a pint; eight of theſe pints make a gallon (containing 231 cubical inches) of wine, brandy, cyder, &c. according to the ſtandard of the Engliſh Exchequer: whence is drawn the exciſe-meaſure of all vendible caſks: a hogſhead is to contain 63 gallons, a tierce 42 gallons, a pipe 126 gallons, and a ton 252 gallons, and weighs 1890 lb. avoirdupoiſe, or 2016 lb. Troy.

Of the refiners weights in England.

Theſe are ſtill a part of the Troy, the leaſt of which is a blank, 24 of which make a periot, 20 periots a mite, 20 mites a grain, &c. and what they denominate carats, are the $\frac{1}{24}$ part of a pound, an ounce, or any other weight. See the articles ALLAY, ASSAY, GOLD, SILVER, REFINING.

Of the jewellers weights in England.

Thoſe uſed in the weighing of jewels, and other precious ſtones, are the parts of an ounce Troy: they divide that ounce into 152 parts, which are called carats; theſe carats are again ſubdivided into grains, or $\frac{1}{4}$ quarters, and into $\frac{1}{8}$, $\frac{1}{16}$, $\frac{1}{32}$, $\frac{1}{64}$, &c. parts. See the article DIAMOND.

Of the avoirdupoiſe weight.

In this weight we reckon 16 drachms = 1 ounce, 16 ounces = 1 pound, 28 pounds = 1 quarter of an hundred weight, or of 112 lb. and 20 hundred weight = 1 ton weight.

This weight is uſed for all groſs goods, ſuch as ſugar, hemp, flax, butter, cheeſe, &c. of which there are three quintals, viz. (1.) Of a 100 lb. by which ſugars, &c. are bought and ſold in the Engliſh ſettlements in America. (2.) Of 112 lb. by which all groſs goods are weighed throughout England. (3.) 120 lb. called the ſtannary hundred, by which tin, &c. is weighed to the king's farmers. Wool is commonly bought by the tod.—7 lb. averdupoiſe = 1 clove, 14 lb. = a ſtone, 28 lb. = tod, 182 lb. = a wey, 364 lb. = a ſeck, 430 lb. = a laſt; i. e. 2 cloves = 1 ſtone, 2 ſtone = a tod, $6\frac{1}{2}$ tods = a wey, 2 weys = 1 ſack, and 12 ſacks = a laſt: but, when it is ſtapled or ſorted, it is ſold by the pack, containing 6 ſcore, or 120 lb. Lead is ſold by the fodder, and a load = 175 lb.

A fodder at London = $19\frac{1}{2}$ C. wt.
at Newcaſtle = 21
at Stockton = 22
} 112 lb. to the C. wt.
at Hull = $19\frac{1}{2}$ C. ſtannary wt. of 120 lb. to the C.

From this pound avoirdupoiſe of 16 ounces, there are formed other weights; a ſtone of 7 lb. 8 lb. 14 lb. 16 lb. 20 lb. and ſometimes, a clove of 7 lb. 8 lb. and 10 lb. and ſometimes, a tod of 20 lb. 28 lb. 32 lb. &c.

Raw ſilk from Perſia and Turky is ſold by this pound, but a pound = 24 ounces, or 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb.

Gun-powder, 100 lb. avoirdupoiſe = a barrel, 24 barrels = a laſt.

Of freighting of ſhips. The term ton uſed upon this occaſion, ſignifies 2000 lb. weight; when it is ſaid that a ſhip is ſo many tons burden, it is to be underſtood that it carries ſo many times 2000 lb. weight.—Theſe tons, however, are different, according to the nature of the goods.—By weight they generally allow 2000 lb. avoirdupoiſe, but for bulky goods they make ſome abatement of the weight.—By meaſure, there is generally allowed to the ton two pipes or butts of wine, ſo many pieces of brandy, ſo many barrels of herrings, ſo many butts of oil, &c. for barrelled goods, and ſometimes by the C. wt.—But for bale goods, boxes and caſes, &c. they generally reckon 40 cubical feet to the ton. In Holland and the northern countries they reckon their freight by laſts, which are two Engliſh tons, or 4000 lb. weight; and all contracts are made at ſo much per laſt.

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Meaſures for linen, ſilk, woollen, &c.

Thoſe moſt in uſe throughout the kingdom of England are of three kinds, viz. (1.) The yard, which contains 16 nails, or 36 inches; and by this yard all ſorts of woollen cloths, wrought ſilks, many kinds of linens, tape, &c. are meaſured and ſold. (2.) The Engliſh ell, containing 20 nails, or 45 inches; and this is of uſe chiefly in meaſuring thoſe linens called hollands. (3.) The Flemiſh ell, for meaſuring tapeſtry, containing 12 nails, or 27 inches.

Of fuel.

Theſe, according to the ſtatute, are coals and wood.—Of coals, 36 buſhels = 1 chaldron, and, on ſhipboard, 21 chaldron = to a ſcore, and 112 lb. avoirdupoiſe = an hundred weight, 8 chaldron at Newcaſtle = about 15 at London.

Wood fuel is aſſized into ſhids, billets, faggots, faſl wood, and cord wood. A ſhid is to be 4 feet long, and, according as they are marked and notched, their proportion muſt be in the girth; viz. if they have but one notch, the muſt be 16 inches in the girth; if 2 notches, 23 inches; if 3 notches, 28 inches; if 4 notches, 33 inches; and, if 5 notches, 38 inches about.—Billets are to be 3 feet long, of which there ſhould be three ſorts, viz. a ſingle, a caſk, and a caſk of two; the firſt is 7 inches, the ſecond 10 inches, and the third 14 inches about: they are ſold by the hundred or five ſcore.—Faggots are to be 3 feet long, and at the band 24 inches about, beſides the knot: of ſuch faggots 50 go to the load.—Bavins and ſpray-wood are ſold by the hundred, which are accounted a load.—Cord-wood is the bigger ſort of fire-wood, and it is meaſured by a cord or line, whereof there are two meaſures; that of 14 feet in length, 3 feet in breadth, and 3 feet in height.—The other is eight feet in length, 4 feet in height, and 4 in breadth.

Of corn meaſure.

The gallon is found, by the ſtatutes of England, to hold 8 pints, and to weigh 8 pounds Troy.

2 gallons = a peck = 16 lb.	or pints,	or = 2	gallons.
4 pecks = a buſhel = 64,	or	— 8	
2 buſhels = a ſtrike = 128,	or	— 16	
2 ſtrikes = a coomb = 256,	or	— 32	
2 coombs = a quart = 512,	or	— 64	
6 quarters = a wey = 3072,	or	— 384	
10 quarters = a laſt = 5120,	or	— 640	

However, a ton of wheat in London commonly weighs, avoirdupoiſe weight, between 2200 and 2500 lb.—Of rye, between 2100 and 2240 lb.—Of barley, between 1709 and 1800 lb. Corn is uſually ſold in England by the quarter: 5 quarters are commonly reckoned to a ton in freight: according to the above Troy weight, a ton of corn weighs 2400 lb. avoirdupoiſe weight.

Of ſalt meaſure.

Salt is ſold from the pits by weight, reckoning 7 lb. avoirdupoiſe to a gallon, 56 lb. to the buſhel, and 42 buſhels to the ton for freight: 5 buſhels is one ſack, and 4 hundred weight is one quarter.

Long meaſure.

For timber, horſes, &c. 3 barley-corns = 1 inch, 4 inches is one hand horſe-meaſure, 12 inches is 1 foot, 5 feet a geometrical pace, 6 feet a fathom, and 16 ½ feet a pole, or perch; 40 poles a furlong, 8 furlongs are one mile, ſtatute meaſure.

The pole, or perch, differs from the above meaſure in ſeveral parts of the kingdom.

Land Meaſure. Nine ſquare feet is one ſquare yard, 272 ſquare feet is one ſquare pole, or perch, 40 ſquares poles is one ſquare rood, and 4 ſquare rood is 1 ſquare acre, and 640 ſquare acres is one ſquare mile, according to the ſtatute meaſure of this kingdom.

Of ale and beer meaſure.

2 Pints = 1 quart, 4 quarts = 1 gallon, to contain 282 cubical inches, and holds 10 pounds 3 ounces avoirdupoiſe weight, of rain water; 8 gallons = 1 firkin of ale, 2 firkins = 1 kilderkin, 2 kilderkins = 1 barrel, 12 barrels = laſt.

Of beer, 9 gallons = 1 firkin, 2 ſuch firkins = 1 kilderkin, 2 kilderkins = 1 barrel, 1½ barrel = 1 hogſhead, 2 hogſheads = pipe, or but, and 2 pipes, or buts = 1 ton.

Of wine, brandy, cyder, &c. meaſure.

2 Pints = 1 quart, 2 quarts = 1 pottle, 2 pottles = 1 gallon, containing 231 cubical inches, and holds 8 pounds, 1 ounce, 4 drachms, avoirdupoiſe weight, of rain water; 18 gallons = 1 ſtatute rundlet, 42 gallons = 1 tierce, 1 ½ tierce, or 63 gallons = 1 hogſhead, 84 gallons = 1 puncheon, 126 gallons, or 2 hogſheads = 1 pipe, or butt, and 4 hogſheads, or 2 pipes, or 252 gallons = 1 ton of wine, brandy, cyder, vinegar, &c. according to ſtatute meaſure.

A veſſel that holds	50 lb.	weight of rain water,
will hold - -	53	of river water,
or - - - -	45	of butter or oil,
	39	of linſeed oil,
	35	of honey,
	850	of quickſilver.

Of oil.

The cuſtom of London, in regard to many commodities, diſagrees in their meaſures from the ſtatute; as, in oil, 236 gallons, by merchants called the civil gauge, is commonly ſold for the ton, and not 252 gallons, as before mentioned.—Eels 25 = a ſtrike, and 10 ſtrikes = a barrel.—Of herrings, 120 = an hundred, and 1200 = a barrel, 12 barrels = a laſt.—Furs, fletcher, greys, gennets, mortars, mucks, and ſable ſkins, 40 ſkins make a timber, and ſome other ſkins 5 ſcore to the hundred.—Paper, 24 ſheets = 1 quire, 20 quires = a ream, and 10 ream = 1 bale.—Parchment, 12 ſkins = a dozen, and 5 dozen = 1 roll.

A TABLE, repreſenting the conformity which the WEIGHTS of the principal TRADING CITIES of EUROPE have with each other, taken from that of Mynheer Samuel Ricard, late of Amſterdam, publiſhed in the year 1732, and quoted in 1747, as the moſt authentic of it's kind, by the Sieur Jean Laure, merchant of Lyons, in his Treatiſe dedicated to the Count de Maurepas: With the difference only of tranſpoſing one of the columns, in order to place ENGLAND or LONDON in the front, as Mynheer Ricard has done Holland and Amſterdam for the United Provinces, and the Sieur Larue Paris, for the uſe of the French nation more particularly.

☞ As the weight of Amſterdam, Paris, Bourdeaux, Beſançon, and ſeveral other places, have but a very trifling difference, they are comprehended under thoſe of Amſterdam, as thoſe of Nuremberg are under Frankfort, and others in the ſame manner.

	Make	A Of Engl. Scotl. and Ireland.	B Of Amſterdam, Paris, &c.	C Of Antwerp or Brabant.	D Of Roüen, the viſcounty weight.	E Of Lyons, the city weight.	F Of Rochelle.	G Of Toulouſe and Upper Languedoc.	H Of Marſeilles and Provence.	I Of Geneva.	K Of Hamburgh.	L Of Frankfort, &c.	M Of Leipſic, &c.	N Of Genoa.	O Of Leghorn.	P Of Milan.	Q Of Venice.	R Of Naples.	S Of Seville, Cadiz, &c.	T Of Portugal.	V Of Liege.
A 100 lb. of England, Scotland, and Irel. London		100 —	91 8	96 8	88 —	106 —	90 9	107 11	113 —	81 7	93 5	89 7	96 1	137 4	132 11	153 11	152 —	154 10	97 —	104 13	96 5
B 100 lb. of Amſterdam, Paris, &c.		109 8	100 —	105 8	96 4	116 —	99 —	118 —	123 8	89 —	102 —	98 —	105 —	150 —	145 —	168 —	166 —	169 —	106 —	114 8	105 4
C 100 lb. of Antwerp, or Brabant		103 12	94 12	100 —	91 4	110 —	93 13	111 12	117 —	84 5	96 10	92 13	99 8	142 2	137 6	159 3	157 ½	160 2	108 —	108 8	99 11
D 100 lb. of Roüen, the viſcounty		113 14	104 —	109 12	100 —	120 8	102 15	122 11	128 8	92 9	106 —	102 —	109 4	156 —	150 13	174 11	172 ⅓	175 12	110 4	119 —	109 7
E 100 lb. of Lyons, the city		94 3	86 —	90 12	82 12	100 —	85 2	101 8	106 4	76 8	87 12	84 4	90 5	129 —	124 11	144 8	142 ¼	145 6	91 3	98 8	90 8
F 100 lb. of Rochelle		110 9	101 —	106 8	97 3	117 —	100 —	119 3	124 12	89 14	103 —	99 —	106 —	151 8	146 7	169 11	167 10	170 11	107 —	115 10	106 5
G 100 lb. of Thoulouſe, and Upper Languedoc		92 6	84 12	89 6	81 8	98 5	83 15	100 —	105 4	75 7	86 7	83 —	89 8	127 2	122 14	142 6	140 —	143 4	89 13	97 —	89 3
H 100 lb. of Marſeilles and Provence		88 11	81 —	85 8	78 —	94 —	80 3	95 9	100 —	72 —	82 10	79 6	85 8	121 8	117 7	136 1	134 8	136 14	85 13	92 12	85 4
I 100 lb. of Genoa		123 —	112 6	118 8	108 —	130 5	111 6	132 9	128 4	100 —	114 10	110 2	118 —	168 9	163 —	188 13	186 8	189 14	119 2	128 8	118 4
K 100 lb. of Hamburgh		107 5	98 —	103 6	94 4	113 10	97 —	115 10	121 —	87 4	100 —	89 11	102 15	147 —	142 2	164 10	162 11	165 10	103 13	112 4	103 2
L 100 lb. of Frankfort		111 11	102 —	107 8	98 3	118 5	101 —	120 6	126 —	90 12	104 —	100 —	107 1	153 —	147 14	171 6	169 5	172 6	108 2	116 13	107 6
M 100 lb. of Leipſic		104 5	95 4	100 —	91 12	110 8	94 4	112 6	117 12	84 12	92 2	93 5	100 —	142 13	138 1	160 —	158 2	161 —	101 —	109 —	100 4
N 100 lb. of Genoa		73 —	66 ⅔	70 5	64 —	77 5	66 —	78 10	82 5	59 5	68 —	65 5	70 —	100 —	96 11	112 —	110 11	112 11	70 11	76 5	70 6
O 100 lb. of Leghorn		75 8	69 —	72 12	66 6	80 —	68 5	81 6	85 4	61 6	70 6	67 10	72 8	103 8	100 —	119 —	114 8	116 9	73 —	79 —	72 10
P 100 lb. of Milan		65 3	59 8	62 12	57 4	69 —	58 14	70 3	73 8	13 —	60 1	58 5	62 8	89 4	86 4	100 —	98 12	100 8	63 —	68 2	62 10
Q 100 lb. of Venice		65 11	60 —	63 6	57 12	69 10	59 6	70 13	74 2	53 6	61 3	58 13	63 —	90 —	87 —	100 13	100 —	101 6	63 9	68 11	63 2
R 100 lb. of Naples		64 10	59 —	62 4	57 —	68 7	58 6	69 10	72 14	52 8	60 2	57 13	62 —	88 8	85 8	99 2	98 —	100 —	62 8	67 9	62 —
S 100 lb. of Seville, Cadiz, &c.		103 7	94 8	99 12	91 —	109 10	93 9	111 8	116 11	84 2	96 6	92 10	99 4	141 12	137 —	158 12	156 14	159 12	100 —	108 3	99 14
T 100 lb. of Portugal		95 4	87 8	92 —	84 4	101 8	86 10	103 4	108 —	77 14	89 4	85 12	91 13	131 14	126 13	147 —	145 4	148 —	92 12	100 —	92 —
V 100 lb. of Liege		104 —	95 —	100 3	91 7	110 3	94 —	112 —	117 5	84 8	96 14	93 —	99 12	142 8	137 12	159 9	157 11	160 10	100 9	108 12	100 —

N. B. Such is the uſe of this Table, that by means hereof may be eaſily diſcerned, at one view, the conformity which the weights of one place, therein exhibited, have with thoſe of another: for example; if you would know how many pounds 100 lb. weight Engliſh make at Amſterdam, look for England in the firſt column, and from thence paſs your eye along the line 'till you come to the column under the title of Amſterdam at the top, and you will find that 91 lb. 8 ounces (reckoning 16 ounces to the pound) are equal to 100 l. Engliſh; and in like manner you may find the agreement between any other weight of theſe places ſpecified in the Table.

A TABLE, repreſenting the conformity which the LONG MEASURES of the principal TRADING CITIES of EUROPE have with each other, publiſhed in 1747, as the moſt authentic of it's kind, by the Sieur Jean Larue, merchant at Lyons, in his Treatiſe dedicated to the Count de Maurepas: With the difference only of tranſpoſing one of the columns, in order to place ENGLAND or LONDON in the front, as the Sieur Larue has done Paris, for the uſe of the French nation more particularly.

☞ The ells of Amſterdam, Haerlem, Leyden, the Hague, Rotterdam, and other cities of Holland, as well as the ell of Nuremberg, are equal among themſelves. They are alſo comprehended under the ell of Amſterdam, as that of Oſnaburgh is under that of France and England, and the ell of Bern and Baſil under that of Hamburgh, Frankfort, and Leipſic.

Make

		A Yards of England, Scotl. and Irel.	B Ells of France and England.	C Ells of Holland and Amſterdam.	D Ells of Antwerp and Bruſſels.	E Ells of Hamb. Frankf. Leipſic, and Cologn.	F Ells of Breſlaw in Sileſia.	G Ells of Dantzick.	H Ells of Bergue and Drontheim.	I Ells of Sweden or Stockholm.	K Ells of St Gall for linen.	L Ells of St Gall for cloth.	M Ells of Geneva.	N Canes of Marſeilles and Montpelier.	O Canes of Toulouſe, Albi, and Caſtres.	P Canes of Genoa of 9 palmos.	Q Canes of Rome.	R Vares of Caſtille and Biſcay.	S Vares of Cadiz and Andaluſia.	T Vares of Portugal or Liſbon.	V Covedos of Portugal or Liſbon.	W Braſſes of Venice.	X Braſſes of Bergamo, Mod. and Boulog. and Mantua.	Y Braſſes of Florence, Legh. and Lucca.	Z Braſſes of Milan.
A	100 Yards of England, Scotland, and Ireland	100 —	78 —	133 ⅓	131 ⅔	160 —	166 ⅔	150 —	146 ⅔	154 —	114 ⅔	149 ⅓	80 —	46 ⅔	50 —	40 ⅔	44 —	107 —	109 ⅕	81 ⅓	133 ⅓	136 —	104 ⅓	154 ¾	171 ⅓
B	100 Ells of France and England	128 ¼	100 —	173 ⅓	166 ⅔	205 ¼	213 ¾	192 ⅘	188 —	195 ¾	147 —	191 ½	102 ⅗	59 ⅘	64 ⅕	52 ⅕	56 ⅘	136 ⅞	140 —	104 ⅓	171 —	174 ⅘	179 —	199 ⅕	219 ⅓
C	100 Ells of Holland or Amſterdam	75 —	75 ⅔	100 —	98 —	120 —	125 —	112 ½	110 —	114 ½	86 —	112 —	60 —	35 —	37 ½	30 —	33 —	80 —	81 ⅘	61 —	100 —	102 —	105 —	116 ⅕	128 ⅓
D	100 Ells of Antwerp and Bruſſels	76 —	60 —	101 ¼	100 —	121 ½	126 ⅗	114 —	111 ⅘	116 —	87 —	113 ⅘	60 ⅗	35 ⅘	38 —	30 ⅗	33 ⅗	81 —	84 —	61 ⅗	101 ¼	103 ⅗	106 —	118 —	130 —
E	100 Ells of Hamburgh, Frankfort, &c.	62 ½	48 ⅞	83 ⅓	82 ⅓	100 —	104 ⅕	92 ⅗	91 ¾	95 ½	71 ⅖	91	50 —	29 ⅘	31 ¼	25 ⅘	27 ⅕	65 ⅘	68 ⅕	50 ⅘	83 ⅓	85 —	88	97 —	107 —
F	100 Ells of Breſlaw in Sileſia	60 —	46 ⅗	80 —	79 —	96 —	100 —	89 ⅘	88 —	91 ½	68 ¾	89 ⅗	48 —	28 —	30 —	24 —	26 —	64 —	65 ⅕	48 ⅗	80 —	81 ⅗	84	93 ⅓	102 —
G	100 Ells of Dantzick	66 ¾	52 —	89 —	87 ¾	96 ¾	111 ¼	100 —	98 —	102 —	76 —	99 ⅖	53 ⅗	31 —	33 ¾	27 —	29 ⅕	71 ⅕	72 ⅕	54 ¼	89 —	90 —	93	103 ¾	114 —
H	100 Ells of Bergue and Drontheim	67 ¼	52 ¾	90 —	89 —	108 —	112 ½	101 ⅛	100 —	103 —	77 —	100 ⅘	54 —	31 —	33 ¾	27 —	29 —	72 —	74 —	55 —	90 —	91	94	105 —	115 —
I	100 Ells of Sweden or Stockholm	65 —	51 ¼	87 ½	86 —	105 —	109 ¼	97 ¾	96 ¼	100 —	75 ¼	98 —	52 ½	30 —	32 ¾	26 —	28 —	70 —	71 ½	53 ½	87 ½	89	92 —	102 —	112 —
K	100 Ells of St Gall for linen	87 —	67 ¾	116 —	114 —	139 ⅕	145 —	130 —	127 ¾	133 —	100 —	130 —	69 ⅖	40 —	43 —	35 ⅘	38 —	92 ⅘	95 —	70 ¼	116 —	118 —	122 —	135 ⅕	149 —
L	100 Ells of St Gall for cloth	67 —	52 —	89 ⅓	88 —	107 ⅕	111 ¾	100 —	98 ½	102 ½	76 ⅘	100 —	53 ⅗	31 —	33 —	27 —	29 —	71 —	73 —	54 ½	89 ⅓	91 ⅕	94 —	104 —	114 —
M	100 Ells of Geneva	124 ¼	97 ½	166 ⅔	164 —	200 —	208 ⅓	187 ½	183 ¾	191 —	143 ⅓	130 ⅔	100 —	58 —	107 —	87 —	94 ⅘	228 —	234 —	174 —	286 —	291 ¾	301 —	333 —	367 —
N	100 Canes of Marſeilles and Montpelier	214 ½	167 ⅓	286 —	282 —	343 ⅕	357 ½	321 ¾	314 ¼	327 ½	246 —	320 —	171 ¼	100 —	107 —	87 —	94 ⅘	213 ⅗	218 —	162 —	266 ⅔	272 —	280 —	309 —	342 —
O	100 Canes of Toulouſe and Upper Languedoc	199 ½	156 —	266 ⅔	263 —	320 —	333 —	300 —	293 ⅓	304 —	229 ⅓	298 —	160 —	93 —	100 —	81 ⅓	88 —	213 ⅗	218 —	162 —	266 ⅔	272 —	280 —	309 —	342 —
P	100 Canes of Genoa of 9 palmos	245 ¼	191 ⅓	327 —	323 —	392 ⅘	408 ½	367 ⅘	359 ¾	374 ½	281 ½	366 —	196 ⅕	114 —	122 ⅖	100 —	108 —	261 ⅗	268 ⅕	199 ½	327 —	333 ½	344 —	381 —	420 —
Q	100 Canes of Rome	227 ¼	177 ¾	303 —	299 —	363 ⅗	378 ¾	340 ⅘	333 ⅓	347 —	260 —	339 ½	181 ⅘	116 —	113 —	92 ⅘	100 —	242 ⅘	245 ¾	184 ⅘	303 —	309 —	319 —	353 —	389 —
R	100 Vares of Caſtille and Biſcay	93 ¾	73 ⅗	125 —	123 —	150 —	156 ¼	140 ⅔	137 ⅓	143 ¼	107 ½	140 —	75 —	43 ¾	46 ⅘	38 ⅕	41 ¼	100 —	102 ⅓	76 ⅕	125 —	127 ½	131 ⅛	145 ⅗	159 —
S	100 Vares of Cadiz and Andaluſia	91 ¾	71 ⅔	122 ¼	119 —	146 ⅗	152 ¾	138 —	134 ⅓	139 ¼	105 —	137 —	73 ⅓	42 ⅘	45 —	37 ¼	40 ⅔	97 ⅔	100 —	74 ⅔	122 ¼	125 ¼	179 —	142 —	157 —
T	100 Vares of Portugal or Liſbon	123 —	96 —	164 —	162 —	196 ⅘	205 —	184 ⅕	180 ¼	187 ½	141 —	183 ⅗	94 ⅘	57 —	61 ½	50 —	54 ⅕	131 ⅓	134 —	100 —	164 —	167 ¼	172 ⅗	191 —	210 ⅗
V	100 Covedos of Portugal or Liſbon	74 —	58 ½	100 —	98 ¾	120 —	125 —	112 ½	110 —	114 ½	86 —	112 —	60 —	35 —	37 ½	30 ⅔	33 —	80 —	81 ⅘	61 —	100 —	102 —	105 —	116 ½	128 ½
W	100 Braſſes of Venice	73 ½	57 ⅔	98 —	96 ¾	117 ⅘	122 ½	104 ½	107 ¾	112 ½	84 ¼	109 ¼	58 ¾	34 ½	36 ¾	29 ¾	32 ⅗	78 ⅘	80 —	59 ¾	98 —	100 —	103 —	114 —	126 —
X	100 Braſſes of Bergamo, &c.	72 ¼	55 —	95 —	93 ¼	114 —	118 ¾	106 ¼	104 ½	108 ¼	81 ¼	106 ¼	57 —	33 —	35 ⅘	29 —	31 ⅗	76 —	78 —	58 —	95 —	97 —	100 —	100 —	122 —
Y	100 Braſſes of Florence, Leghorn, &c.	65 ½	50 —	85 ½	84 —	102 ⅘	106 ¼	96 ¼	94 —	98 —	73 ½	95 ¼	51 ⅘	30 —	32 —	26 ½	28 —	68 ⅘	70 —	52 ½	95 ½	87 ½	95 —	100 —	109 ⅘
Z	100 Braſſes of Milan	58 ½	45 ⅗	78 —	77 —	93 ⅗	97 ½	87 ¼	85 ⅘	89 ¼	67 —	87 ⅓	46 ⅘	27 ⅗	29 ¼	23 ⅘	25	62 ⅘	63	47 ½	78 —	79 ½	82 ½	91 —	100 —

N. B. By means of this Table, the reader may pleaſe to obſerve, that 100 ells of Paris and of England make 173 ½ of Holland; and in like manner you will find how the meaſures of other places in the table correſpond with each other. By the common rule of three, or proportion, you will eaſily make your computations for any quantity required. But there are more conciſe rules, which are practiſed by the moſt expert merchants. See the examples following.

An example of the reduction of the weights of ſeveral countries, when compared together, into thoſe of any particular country.

Suppoſe 100 lb. of Amſterdam be equal to 100 lb. of Paris, 100 lb. of Paris to be 150 lb. in Genoa, 100 lb. of Genoa to be 70 lb. in Leipſic, 100 lb. of Leipſic to be 160 lb. in Milan. Quære, How many pounds of Milan will 548 lb. of Amſterdam weigh?

That the reader may be grounded in the reaſon and foundation of the conciſe rule of equation, which we ſhall make uſe of in order to obtain the ſolution of this queſtion; he is deſired to turn to the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, where he will find the ſame applied to the foreign monies of particular countries, which will ſerve equally for the explanation of what follows.

The queſtion equated according to the univerſal rule there given and explained, of conjunction.

Antecedents.		Conſequents.
100 lb. of Amſterdam	=	100 lb. Paris.
100 lb. of Paris	=	150 lb. Genoa,
100 lb. of Genoa	=	70 lb. Leipſick,
100 lb. of Leipſick	=	160 lb. Milan.
2		3
5		4
5		2

Ergo $\frac{3 \times 2 \times 7}{25} \times 548 = 920$ lb. $\frac{16}{25}$ anſwer of Milan = 548 lb. of Amſterdam.

REMARKS.

We call this rule that of conjunction, becauſe it joins together ſeveral rules of three into one; by which, and by the relation that ſeveral antecedents have to their conſequents, the proportion between the firſt antecedent and the laſt conſequent is diſcovered, as well as the proportions between the others in their ſeveral reſpects.

(1). To diſpoſe this right rule, the antecedents muſt be ranged in the left-hand column, and the conſequents in the right-hand one.

(2.) The firſt antecedent, and the laſt conſequent, whoſe antecedent is ſought, muſt be of the like ſpecies: ſo muſt the ſecond conſequent and the third antecedent; which order muſt be continued throughout the rule.

(3.) The terms being thus diſpoſed, you find a diviſor and a dividend.

(4.) Multiply all the antecedents, in a continued multiplication by one another, and the laſt product will be the general diviſor. And,

(5.) Multiply, in the ſame manner, all the conſequents, and the laſt product will be the dividend.---And, dividing the one by the other, the quotient will give you the antecedent required by the queſtion.

This rule may be ſo abridged, as to give the arithemetician but very little trouble, in compariſon to that which he muſt have, provided he multiplies all the whole numbers (and alſo their fractions, when the caſe contains them) on both ſides of the equation.

To exemplify ſuch abridgment by the preceding example.

According to the axioms laid down under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, equal quantities, divided by equal quantities, their products are equal, and in the ſame proportion.---In the example before us, the two 100's on both ſides cancel each other, and let the laſt cypher of the three remaining antecedents be cancelled, viz. 100 lb. of Paris, 100 lb. of Genoa, and 100 lb. of Leipſick, which is dividing them by 10; and, to preſerve the equality on the ſide of the conſequents, cancel alſo the laſt cyphers of 150 lb. of Genoa, 70 lb. of Leipſick, and 160 lb. of Milan.---After which, divide one of the remaining 10's on the antecedent ſide by 5, and the 15 on the conſequent ſide by 5, and the quotes will be 2 on the ſide of the antecedents, and 3 on that of the conſequents.---Then divide the 2 on the left ſide by 2, and 16 by 2 on the right ſide. Then divide one of the remaining 10's on the antecedent ſide, and the 8 on the conſequent ſide again by 2, and the quotients will be 5 and 4; which being again repeated for the remaining 10, and 4 on both ſides, leaves another 5 on the antecedent ſide, and 2 on the conſequent one.---And there being no further room for common diviſions, by reaſon of the odd numbers 5 and 5 on the one ſide, and 7 and 3 on the other, the operation is abbreviated, as far as it will admit of; and the anſwer is as before ſhewn, viz. $3 \times 2 = 6 \times 7 = 42 \times 548 = 23016$, which, being divided by 5 and 5, or 25, the quotient is $920\frac{16}{52}$, the true anſwer.

An example with regard to MEASURES.

Suppoſe a merchant of Hamburgh, not knowing the proportion between the ell of that place and the yard of London, and having orders to procure 81 yards of cloth, of which 7 ells of Hamburgh muſt be had for 3 l. ſterling: how ſhall he diſcover how may pounds ſterling the 81 yards will amount to, only by knowing that 7 ells of France make 9 yards of London, and that 7 ells of Holland make 4 ells of France, and that 1 ell of Holland makes $1\frac{1}{5}$ ell of Hamburgh.

Diſpoſition of the terms.

Antecedents.		Conſequents.
If 9 yards Engliſh	=	7 ells of Paris,
2. 4 ells of Paris	=	7 ells of Amſterdam,
1 ell of Amſterdam	=	$1\frac{1}{5}$ Hamburgh, 6 3

5 3 5 7 ells of Hamburgh = 3 l. ſterling,

How many pounds ſterling are 81 yards Engliſh?

So that 5×2 is the diviſor, and $\frac{9 \times 3 \times 3 \times 7}{10} = 56$ l. 14 s. ſterling, the anſwer.

The general rule.

In the firſt place, reduce the two terms, $1\frac{1}{5}$ ell, and 7 ells of Hamburgh, into the denomination of the fraction, to have 6 in the conſequent, which ſet down on the right ſide, and 35 in the antecedent, which ſet down on the left ſide; after which, cancel the $1\frac{1}{5}$ and the 7 ells of Hamburgh. It is a general rule, that when there is a fraction either in the antecedent or the conſequent column, both the terms that accompany the fraction, and the other that is of the ſame ſpecies, muſt be reduced into the denominations of the fraction.

Begin the abbreviation of the terms by the multiple 81, which contains 9 times the antecedent 9, and cancel the 81 and the 9, ſetting down 9 on the right of the 81.

And, ſeeing 35 contains 5 times the conſequent 7 ells of Paris, cancel the 35 and the 7, and ſet down 5 on the left of 35.

Then take half of the antecedent 4, and of the conſqeuent 6, and, cancelling them, ſet down 2 on the left of 4, and 3 on the right of 6.

Then finding, at the ſide of the antecedent, 2, 1 and 5, which are not cancelled, multiply them by each other, to have in that laſt product the diviſor 10.

And, finding at the ſide of the conſequents 7, 3, 3, 9, that are not cancelled, multiply them into each other, to have in the laſt product the dividend.---Then dividing, you will have in the quotient 56 l. 14 s. ſterling, which is the ſolution of the queſtion.

The proof of this rule of conjunction may be reduced from what has been ſaid under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES.

Of the exchanges of ENGLAND with other the principal places of Europe, and their method of computation.

England, or London, exchanges in Holland (i. e. on Amſterdam and Rotterdam) at ſo many ſchellings and groots Flemiſh per pound ſterling.

One pound Flemiſh is 20 ſchellings Flemiſh, or 6 guilders; 1 ſchelling Flemiſh is 12 groots Flemiſh, or 6 ſtivers; 1 groot Flemiſh is $\frac{1}{2}$ ſtiver, or 8 pennings.

Books of accounts are kept in Holland ſometimes in pounds, ſchellings, and groots Flemiſh, but more commonly in guilders, or florins, ſtivers, and pennings; 16 pennings = 1 ſtiver, 20 ſtivers = 1 guilder, or florin, and 40 groots = 1 guilder.

If London draws on, or remits to Amſterdam, l. 852 : 12 : 6 ſterling, at 34 ſch. 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ groots Flemiſh, per pound ſterling, how many guilders, ſtivers, and pennings muſt be paid or received in bank money in Amſterdam?

CASE I.

l.	s.	d.		ſch.	grts.
852	: 12	: 6	ſterling, at	34	: 4 $\frac{1}{2}$
825				12	
4260				412	
1704				2	
6816			half groots	825	= 1 l. ſterling,

s. d.
10 = $\frac{1}{2}$ 412 : $\frac{1}{2}$ = $\frac{5}{8}$
2 : 6 = $\frac{1}{4}$ 103 : $\frac{1}{8}$

8|0)7034|1|5 : $\frac{5}{8}$

guilders 8792 : $\frac{5}{8}\frac{5}{0}$ = 27 groots $\frac{1}{2}$ = 13 ſtiv. 12 pen. $\frac{5}{8}$ of the half groot = 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ pennings, which makes the total 8792 guil. 13 ſtiv. 14 pen. $\frac{1}{2}$ bank money.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the price of exchange into half groots, which, being multiplied by the pound ſterling, gives the half groots therein contained; and, for the 12 s. 6 d. take 10 s. as the half

of 825, and 2s. 6d. as the fourth of that quotient: add the whole together, and the ſum total is the half Flemiſh groots contained in the ſterling money; which being divided by 80 (the half groots in a guilder) produces the anſwer in guilders. The 55 half groots = 27 ½ whole groots = 13 ſtivers and 12 pennings; the ⅛ of the half groot = 2 pennings ½, as above, which make 8792 guilders, 13 ſtivers, 14 pennings ½, Dutch bank money of Amſterdam.

Case I. reverſed.

guild. ſtiv. pen. ſtiv. pen. [much ſterling?
8792 : 13 : 14½ Amſt. at 34 : 4½ per l. ſterl. how-

40 12

351706 groots 412 groots
8 8

2813662 pennings 3300 pennings
2 2

66|00)56273|25 half pen. 852 l. 6600 half pennings
528.. [12s. 6 d. ſterling, the proof.
·347
330
·173
132
·4125
20
825|00 = 12 s.
66
165
132
33 = 6 d.

Instruction.

Reduce both the ſum of Dutch money, and the price of exchange, which is in Dutch money alſo, into one denomination, and divide the ſum by the price, and you have the anſwer in pounds ſterling; and, for the remainder, multiply by the ſubdenomination of the pound ſterling (20 and 12) and you have the ſhillings and pence equivalent to the fraction.

In the preceding caſe, the guilders are reduced into groots by multiplying by 40, and, for the 13 ſtivers, you take in 26 groots; 8 pennings making a groot, you multiply by 8, and take in the 14 pennings: there being alſo an half penning, make it neceſſary to reduce the produce into half pennings, and take in the half.

The price of exchange likewiſe, being multiplied by 12 and 8, reduces that into half pennings, and, dividing the half pennings in the whole ſum by thoſe contained in one pound ſterling, muſt neceſſarily give the number of pounds as before.

Case I.

Exemplified by another method of operation, thus:

l. s. d. ſtiv. pen.
852 : 12 : 6 ſterling, at 34 : 4½
206 : 4 ½ 6

5112 206 ſtiv. 4 pen. =
pen. 17040 1 l. ſterling.
4 = ¼ 213
10 s. = ½ 103 : 2
2s. 6d. = ¼ 25 : 12 ½
ſtivers 2|0)17585|3 : 14 ½
guilders 8792 : 13 : 14 ½ bank money of Amſterdam.

Instruction.

A ſchelling Flemiſh being 6 ſtivers, and 2 groots = 1 ſtiver, you multiply the 34 by 6, and, for the 4 groots, take in 2 ſtivers: and, as 1 ſtiver = 16 pennings, and 2 groots = 1 ſtiver, ſo half of a groot = 4 pennings: therefore, multiply the ſum of pounds ſterling by the ſtivers and pennings in 1 l. and the produce gives the ſtivers and pennings in the whole ſum of pounds; and, for the 12 s. 6d. take the half of the ſtivers and pennings in 1 l. and, for the 2 s. 6 d. take the fourth of that product: add the whole together, and you have the anſwer in ſtivers, which being divided by 20 (the ſtivers in a guilder) the anſwer is produced in guilders, ſtivers, and pennings of Amſterdam.

Case II.

To convert the bank money of Amſterdam into current money, the agio being at 4 ⅜ per cent. as it lately was at Amſterdam.

The agio is the difference, or advanced price, between the bank and current money of Holland: i. e. to ſay, in the preſent caſe, 104 guilders ⅜, current money, is ſuppoſed equal to 100 guilders bank money: quære, how much current money will guild. 8792 : 13 : 4½ bank money of Amſterdam make, agio at 4 ⅜?

The queſtion ſtated, according to the rule of proportion, runs thus:

As 100 guilders bank money is to 104 guilders ⅜ current: ſo is 8792 : 13 : 4½ bank given to the required current money. But as this may be greatly abridged by the common rule for computing the rate of exchange upon money, it is needleſs to ſhew the tedious method by the ordinary rule of proportion.

guild. ſtiv. pen.
8792 : 13 : 4 ½
4 ⅜

35170 : 13 : 2
⅜ = ¼ 2198 : 3 : 5 ⅛
⅛ = ½ 1099 : 1 : 10 4/8 ½
1|00)384|67 : 18 : 1 5/8 ½
20
13|58
16
349
58
guild. 8792 : 13 : 4 ½ bank money 9|29
384 : 13 : 9 ½ agio 8
guild. 9177 : 6 : 14 current money 2|37

To reduce which again into bank, ſay, by the rule of proportion, as 104 guilders ⅜, current money, is to 100 guilders banco: ſo is guilders 9177 : 6 : 14, current money, to guilders 8792 : 13 : 4½ banco.

Uſance in dealing in bills of exchange, at Amſterdam, is not reckoned there as in many other places, either preciſely 30 days, or 31, or 28, or 29; but their uſance is drawn on a certain day, and is payable the ſame day in the paying month, without regard to the number of intervening days. They generally allow ſix days of grace.

For more matter, in regard to the exchange of the United Provinces, ſee the article of Holland, where, under the city of Amſterdam, we ſhall treat more largely of this matter.

Case. III.

England exchanges on Antwerp for ſchellings and groots Flemiſh per pound ſterling.

Suppoſe 482 l. 18 s. ſterling, to be reduced into Flemiſh pounds, at 35 ſtivers 10 pennings, near the preſent price of exchange, howmuch Flemiſh money will it make?

l. s. ſtiv. pen.
482 : 18 ſter. at 35 : 10 per pound ſterl.
35 : 10
2410
Flemiſh 1446
6d. = ½ 241 d.
4d. = ⅓ 160 : 8
10s. ſterl. = ½ 17 : 11
8s. = ⅖ 7 : 2
7 : 2
1730|3 : 11
l. 865 : 3 : 11 Flemiſh. —Reduce the ſame to
20 [ſterling, at the like exchange.
17303
12 l. s. ſtiv. pen.
43|0)207604|7(482 : 18 ſterling, at 35 : 10
172..
·356 the proof 12
344 430
·124
86
387
20
43|0)7741|0(18
43
344
344

This is ſo plain and familiar, that it is needleſs to enlarge. For more matter, in regard to practical mercantile concerns, ſee the article Netherlands; ſee alſo Austrian Netherlands.

Case IV.

England, or London, exchanges on Hamburgh, as on Holland and Antwerp, from 32 to 35 ſchellings and groots Flemiſh per pound ſterling.

Books of accounts are kept in marks, ſchellings, and pence lubs; and by ſome in rixdollars, ſchellings, and pence; and by others in pounds, ſhillings, and pence Flemiſh. A mark = 16 ſchellings lubs, 1 ſchelling = 12 pence, 1 rixdollar = 3 marks, or 48 ſchellings lubs. A pound Flemiſh = 7 ½ marks, or 2 ½ rixdollars; 1 ſhilling Flemiſh = 6 ſhillings lubs, and the pound Flemiſh = 120 ſhillings lubs, and the rixdollar = 8 ſchellings Flemiſh.

If Hamburgh draws Flemiſh money on London, the operation is performed as under the caſe of Antwerp.

But,

But ſuppoſe Hamburgh draws upon London for 4117 marks, 5 ſols lubs, at 33 : 10 exchange, what muſt be paid for this draught in London?

marks.

4117 : 5, - at 33 : 10
16 — 6 ſhil. lubs. = 1 ſchel. Flem. and
203)65877 ſhil. lubs. 203 ſhil. lubs. [2 groots = 1 ſhil.
gives l. 324 : 10 : 4 1/8 ſterling.

INSTRUCTION.

Let the ſum and the price be reduced into the ſame denomination, and the former divided by the latter, and the fractions of a pound reduced as before, in caſe the firſt.

CASE IV. reverſed.

l. 324 : 10 : 4 ſterling, at 33 : 10, how much mark money of Hamburgh?

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the price of exchange into ſchellings lubs, as before; multiply by the ſame, and take your aliquot parts, as directed in the other caſe, and divide the ſum total by 16, to reduce the ſame into marks.—For the remaining fraction, reduce it into the ſubdenominations of the mark.

In regard to what other practical matters are requiſite, with relation to the mercantile affairs of the city of Hamburgh, ſee the article LOWER SAXONY, Hamburgh being in that circle of the empire of Germany.

CASE V.

England exchanges with France on the crown of three livres Tournois, or 60 ſols French, and gives pence ſterling, more or leſs, for this exchange crown.

Accounts are kept in France in livres, ſols, and deniers, reckoning 12 deniers to the ſol, and 20 ſols to one livre, or franc.

Suppoſe Paris owes to London 4186 livres, 7 ſols, 5 deniers, and remits the ſame ſum to London at 31 1/2 ſterling per crown.

INSTRUCTION.

Divide the livres, ſols, and deniers Tournois, by 3 throughout, and that will reduce them into French exchange crowns. Then multiply the crowns by the pence ſterling, and take the aliquot parts for the fractional parts, according to the ſubdenomination of the integers, as in the foregoing caſes, and you will have the anſwer in pence ſterling, which reduce into pounds, &c.

The reverſe of this is ſo eaſy, that it is needleſs to add more than to obſerve, that, when you are to reduce ſterling money into French exchange crowns, reduce the ſum given and price of exchange into the like denomination, and divide the one by the other; and, for any fractional parts that may remain, proceed as in the preceding examples, according to the ſubdenomination of your integer.

If you would have French livres Tournois, inſtead of French exchange crowns, you are only to multiply the crowns, ſols, and deniers, by 3 throughout, and the product will be livres, ſols, and deniers.

For further matter relating to the exchange, and other practical mercantile concerns of France, ſee the general article FRANCE.

CASE VI.

England exchanges with Spain upon the piaſtre, or dollar of 8/8, for an uncertain number of pence ſterling.

They keep their accounts after divers manners, in different provinces and cities, all which would be too prolix to ſhew under this general article of ENGLAND; where we intend no more than to ſhew the ordinary method of computing the exchange between us and Spain: but, under the general article of SPAIN, we ſhall be very full and circumſtantial in regard hereunto.

In Madrid, Cadiz, Malaga, and all the Spaniſh places of trade in the Streights, Mediterranean, Africa, and the Weſt-Indies, the Spaniards keep their accounts chiefly in piaſtres, or dollars, rials, half-rials, and quartiles, reckoning 16 quartiles to a rial, and 8 rials to a dollar; or in dollars, rials, and maravedies, reckoning 34 maravedies to a rial, and 8 rials to the dollar.—The old piaſtre is valued at 8, the new at 10 rials of plate.

Suppoſe Cadiz remits to London 3537 dollars, 6 rials, at 40 7/8 per dollar, what will this remittance amount to in England?

3537 : 6
40 7/8
141480
7/8 24759
rials 3094 7/8
4 = 1/2 20 3/8 4/4
2 = 1/2 10 1/8 2/8
12)144605 1/2 1/4 = 2/8
20)12050 : 5 1/2
l. 602 : 10 : 5 1/2 ſterling.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the dollars by 40; for the 7/8 multiply by 7, cancel

the product, and divide by 8; for the 6 rials, take 4 the half, and 2 the half of that product: add the whole, it gives pence ſterling, which reduce to pounds.

The 7/8 may be taken by 4, the half, 2, the half of that, and 1, the half of 2.

The reverſe of this is ſo intelligible, that we ſhall not trouble our readers with what is conceived ſuperfluous, and may be reaſonably thought only to ſpin out the quantity, rather than to conſult the quality of our matter.

If Spain be indebted to London in maravedies, you muſt reduce them to dollars, by dividing them by 272, and proceed as before.

As 8 rials make this dollar, and 34 maravedies make a piece of eight, 34 × 8 = 272.

CASE VII.

England exchanges on Leghorn for the dollars of 6 livres, and gives pence ſterling, more or leſs, for the ſame. They reckon 12 deniers to the ſol, and 20 ſols to the dollar.

As thoſe who have digeſted the caſes foregoing can ſtand in need of no information to reduce Leghorn money into ſterling, nor ſterling into Leghorn money, we ſhall not dwell any longer upon this ſubject.

CASE VIII.

England exchanges on Genoa for the piaſtre of 5 livres, for pence ſterling, more or leſs: ſo that to reduce livres into piaſtres, or piaſtres into livres, muſt be mighty eaſy to thoſe who underſtand common arithmetic, and what we have already obſerved; alſo, to reduce theſe dollars into ſterling, and that again into thoſe dollars, or livres, cannot but be equally familiar. They keep their accounts in livres, ſols, and deniers, by 12 and 20, or in dollars of 100 ſols.

Under the article GENOA we ſhall conſider what elſe may be neceſſary.

CASE IX.

England exchanges on Venice upon the ducat of 24 grains, or groſs banco, for pence ſterling, more or leſs.

They keep their accounts in livres, ſols, and deniers current, and reckon 12 deniers to the ſol, and 20 ſols to a livre. The bank and bankers keep their accounts in livres, ſols, and groſſes, reckoning 12 groſs to a ſol, 20 ſols to a livre, and the livre at 10 ducats bank, or 12 ducats current.—The ducat bank is valued at 6 livres 4 ſols, or 124 ſols current, or 24 groſſes.—The current money is what is uſually bargained for in the buying of merchandizes, and is 20 per cent. worſe than bank.

To multiply examples of converting ducats of Venice, when you know their ſubdenominations, into ſterling, or ſterling into them, is needleſs we apprehend. See the article VENICE.

CASE X.

England exchanges with Portugal on the milrea, and gives pence, more or leſs, for the ſame.

Throughout this kingdom in general they keep their accounts in milreas and reas, accounting 1000 reas to a milrea; and ſeparating the milreas from the reas thus, 976℔859, which ſignifies 976 milreas, and 859 reas.

Let it be ſuppoſed that Liſbon, or Oporto, which are the principal places of exchange, remits to London 4366 milreas, 183 reas, at 5 s. 5 d. 1/8 exchange, how much ſterling muſt be paid in London for this remittance?

4366 ℔ 183
5 s. = 1/4 1091 ℔ 54575
5 d. = 1/12 90 ℔ 9621625
1/8 = 1/8 11 ℔ 3702703
l. 1193, 8781828
20
17.5636560
12
6.7638720
4
3.0554880

Anſwer, l. 1193 : 17 : 6 3/4 ſterling.

INSTRUCTION.

The milrea being divided into 1000ths, we conſider them as ſo many decimal parts. See the article ARITHMETIC.

Then 5 s. being 1/4 of a pound, and 5 d. 1/12 of 5 s. and 1/8 the 1/8 of 5 d. we divide accordingly, and ſum up the whole; which makes pounds, and the decimal parts of a pound, the value of which is found by multiplying by 20, 12, and 4, and cutting off the number of decimal places.

The reverſe of this being only to reduce the ſum and the price of exchange into eights of pence, and divide the one by the other, there can be no difficulty, and, therefore, requires no further explication. See the article PORTUGAL.

CASE XI.

England and Scotland exchange at ſo much per cent. Since the union of the two kingdoms, the ſame ſpecies of gold and ſilver as are coined in the king's mint at the Tower of London, paſs current in Scotland.

CASE XII.

England on Ireland. The exchange between London and Dublin runs from about 5 or 6 to 12 per cent. and they exchange to moſt foreign places by the way of London; that is to ſay, they give 105 to 112 l. Iriſh per 100 l. ſterling.

They keep their accounts in pounds, ſhillings, and pence; reckoning 12 pence to a ſhilling, and 20 ſhillings to a pound Iriſh money. As whoever can caſt up the common intereſt of money, cannot be at a loſs to caſt up the exchange between London and Ireland, ſo I ſhall not dwell upon it.

England exchanges on her American Plantations.

In the Britiſh dominions in America and the Weſt-Indies, they keep their accounts in pounds, ſhillings and pence, as they do in London, but in America generally call their money currency.

In moſt of the Britiſh ſettlements upon the continent of America, they have few coins of any ſort circulating among them; what few they have, are chiefly French and Spaniſh pieces: ſo that they are obliged to ſubſtitute a paper currency for a medium of their commerce, for want of a competency of caſh for circulation. See the articles CURRENCY, i. e. PAPER CURRENCY, CASH, and CIRCULATION.

The following table ſhews at what value the foreign coins are to paſs in the Engliſh colonies and plantations on the iſlands in America, according to an act of parliament made in the ſixth year of queen Anne, for aſcertaining their value.

The TABLE.

	Weight dwt.	gr.	true val. s.	d.	Cur. value. s.	d.	f.
Pieces of $\frac{8}{8}$ (old plate) of Seville	17	12	4	6	6	0	
Ditto of new - - -	14		3	$7\frac{1}{4}$	4	9	2 $\frac{2}{3}$
Mexico ditto - - -	17	12	4	6	6	0	
Pillar ditto - - -	17	12	4	$6\frac{3}{4}$	6	0	
Peru ditto (old plate - -	17	12	4	5	5	10	$2\frac{2}{3}$
Croſs dollars - - -	18		4	$4\frac{3}{4}$	5	10	$1\frac{1}{3}$
Ducattoons of Flanders - -	20	21	5	6	7	4	
French crowns or ecus - -	17	12	4	6	6	0	
Cruſadoes of Portugal - -	11	4	2	$10\frac{1}{4}$	3	9	$2\frac{2}{3}$
Three guilder pieces of Holland	20	7	5	$2\frac{1}{4}$	6	10	$3\frac{2}{3}$
Old rix-dollars of the empire -	18	10	4	6	6	0	

The half quarters, and other parts in proportion to their denominations; and light pieces in proportion to their weights.

And to remedy the inconveniences which were cauſed by the different rates at which pieces of the ſame ſpecies were current, it was ordered by proclamation, and confirmed by the ſaid act of parliament, that, after the firſt of January 1704, no pillar, Mexico or Seville pieces of eight, though of full weight as above, ſhall be received nor paid at above ſix ſhillings a-piece; and the half, quarters, and the other leſſer pieces in proportion.

And the currency of all other pieces above-mentioned are not to exceed the ſame proportion.

And the ſaid act enjoins, That, if any one ſhall receive or pay any of the ſaid pieces for any more than as above, they ſhall forfeit ten pounds.

A WEST-INDIA TABLE.

When any ſum is advanced upon an ounce of ſterling ſilver, upon 5 s. for an ounce, or when any ſum is advanced over 4 l. for an ounce of ſtandard gold, this table ſhews how much the ſaid advanced money amounts to per cent. from 50 l. advanced upon 4 l. an ounce of ſtandard gold, to the $\frac{1}{372}$ parts of a penny; and upon ſilver, from 2 l. advanced upon 5 s. for an ounce, to the $\frac{1}{1288}$ part of a penny.

	On gold per cent. l.	s.	d.	On ſil. per ct. l.	s.	d.
50 Pounds advanced on 4 l. amounts to - -	1250	—	—	—	—	—
45 Pounds on ditto to - -	1125	—	—	—	—	—
40 Pounds - - -	1000	—	—	—	—	—
35 Pounds - - -	875	—	—	—	—	—
30 Pounds - - -	750	—	—	—	—	—
25 Pounds - - -	625	—	—	—	—	—
20 Pounds - - -	500	—	—	—	—	—
19 Pounds - - -	475	—	—	—	—	—
18 Pounds - - -	450	—	—	—	—	—
17 Pounds - - -	425	—	—	—	—	—
16 Pounds - - -	400	—	—	—	—	—
15 Pounds - - -	375	—	—	—	—	—
14 Pounds - - -	350	—	—	—	—	—
13 Pounds - - -	325	—	—	—	—	—
12 Pounds - - -	300	—	—	—	—	—
11 Pounds - - -	275	—	—	—	—	—
10 Pounds - - -	250	—	—	—	—	—
9 Pounds - - -	225	—	—	—	—	—
8 Pounds - - -	200	—	—	—	—	—
7 Pounds - - -	175	—	—	—	—	—
6 Pounds - - -	150	—	—	—	—	—
5 Pounds - - -	125	—	—	—	—	—
4 Pounds - - -	100	—	—	—	—	—
3 Pounds - - -	75	—	—	—	—	—
2 Pounds - - -	50	—	—	800	0	0
1 Pounds - - -	25	—	—	400	0	0
19 Shillings on an ounce -	23	15	—	380	0	0
18 Shillings - - -	22	10	—	360	0	0
17 Shillings - - - -	21	5	—	340	0	0
16 Shillings - - - -	20	—	—	320	0	0
15 Shillings - - - -	18	15	—	300	0	0
14 Shillings - - - -	17	10	—	280	0	0
13 Shillings - - - -	16	5	—	260	0	0
12 Shillings - - - -	15	—	—	240	0	0
11 Shillings - - - -	13	15	—	220	0	0
10 Shillings - - - -	12	10	—	200	0	0
9 Shillings - - - -	11	5	—	180	0	0
8 Shillings - - - -	10	—	—	160	0	0
7 Shillings - - - -	8	15	—	140	0	0
6 Shillings - - - -	7	10	—	120	0	0
5 Shillings - - - -	6	5	—	100	0	0
4 Shillings - - - -	5	—	—	80	0	0
3 Shillings - - - -	3	15	—	60	0	0
2 Shillings - - - -	2	10	—	40	0	0
1 Shilling - - - -	1	5	—	20	0	0
11 Pence on an ounce to -	1	2	11	18	6	8
10 Pence - - - -	1	—	10	16	13	4
9 Pence - - - -	—	18	9	15	0	0
8 Pence - - - -	—	16	8	13	6	8
7 Pence - - - -	—	14	7	11	13	4
6 Pence - - - -	—	12	6	10	0	0
5 Pence - - - -	—	10	5	8	6	8
4 Pence - - - -	—	8	4	6	13	4
3 Pence - - - -	—	6	3	5	0	0
2 Pence - - - -	—	4	2	3	6	8
1 Penny - - - -	—	2	1	1	13	4
3 Farthings on an ounce -	—	1	$6\frac{3}{4}$	1	5	0
2 Farthings - - - -	—	1	— $\frac{1}{2}$	0	16	8
1 Farthing - - - -	—	—	$6\frac{1}{4}$	0	8	4
$\frac{1}{8}$ of a penny - - -	—	—	$3\frac{1}{8}$	0	4	2
$\frac{1}{16}$ of a penny - - -	—	—	$1\frac{9}{16}$	0	2	1
$\frac{1}{32}$ of a penny - - -	—	—	— $\frac{25}{32}$	0	1	$0\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{64}$ of a penny - - -	—	—	—	0	0	$6\frac{1}{4}$
$\frac{1}{128}$ of a penny - - -	—	—	—	0	0	$3\frac{1}{8}$

The foregoing table explained.

Suppoſe that ſilver was bought in Jamaica at 7 s. 5 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ of their currency per ounce, to know how much the advance money amounts to per ounce.

From the given price in currency	7	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	per ounce.
Subtract for the ſterling value -	5	0	per ounce.
The remainder is the ſum advanced	2	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	per ounce.

Then to know how much the advanced price amounts to per cent. look in the foregoing calculation.

Firſt for 2s. which upon ſilver amounts to l.	40	0	0	per cent.
Then look for 5 d. which is -	8	6	8	ditto
Then look for $\frac{1}{2}$, which is -	0	16	8	ditto
The 2s. 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$ advanced on the ounce amounts to - -	49	3	4	ditto

Which is the diſcount that currency ſhould be at, when ſilver is ſold at 7s. 5d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per ounce.

An example of the gold.

Suppoſe that gold is bought in Carolina at 9 l. 15 s. 7 d. (of their currency) per ounce, and you would know how much the advanced ſum amounts to per ounce.

From the given price - - l.	9	15	7	per ounce.
Take the ſterling value - -	4	0	0	per ounce.
The remainder is the advanced price	5	15	7	per ounce.

Then to know how much the advanced price upon the ſaid ounce of gold amounts to per cent.

In the foregoing table look for 5 l. which amounts to - -	125	0	0	per cent.
Then look for 15 s. which is -	18	15	0	per cent.
Look alſo for the 7 d. which is -	0	14	7	per cent.
The ſum total ſhews that 5 l. 15 s. 7 d. advance upon an ounce of gold, is at the rate of - - -	144	9	7	per cent.

Which is the diſcount that currency ſhould be at, when an ounce of gold, valued at 4 l. ſterling, is ſold for 9 l. 15 s. 7 d. of their currency.

Some

Some examples on the ſimple arbitration of the exchanges, which may be compared with thoſe under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES.

CASE I.

Suppoſe London exchanges on Amſterdam at 35 : 2 ½.
And on Paris at 32 ⅛.
Quere, What is the proportional arbitrated price between Amſterdam and Paris?

OPERATION.

1 Crown Paris = 32 ⅛ d. London.

240d. London = 422 ½ grots Amſterdam, i. e. 35 × 12 + 2

8	257
2	845
48	169

$\therefore \frac{257 \times 169}{8 \times 2 \times 48} = 56$ grots Amſterdam. $\frac{425}{768}$.

CASE II. by way of proof of CASE I.

Let Paris exchange on London at 32 ⅛,
And on Amſterdam at 56 $\frac{425}{768}$.
Quere, What is the proportional arbitrated price between London and Amſterdam?

OPERATION.

1. 1 ſterling = 240 d. ſterling.

32 ⅛ d. = 56 grots Amſterdam $\frac{425}{768}$

768	43433
257	8
56	
8	20
2	5

$\therefore \frac{23433 \times 5}{257 \times 2} = 422$ grots ½ = 35 : 2 ½. Proof.

CASE III.

Let Amſterdam exchange on Paris at 56 $\frac{425}{768}$,
And on London at 35 : 2 ½.
Quere, What is the proportional arbitrated price between London and Paris?

OPERATION.

1 Crown Paris = 56 $\frac{425}{768}$ grots Amſterdam.

422 ½ grots Amſt. = 240 d. London.

768	43433
845	2
64	20
32	4
169	
8	

$\therefore \frac{43433}{169 \times 8} = 32$ d. ⅛ ſterling. Proof.

INSTRUCTION.

By comparing what has been ſaid under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES with theſe examples, and alſo what has been obſerved with relation to the application of this rule of conjunction, as well to foreign weights and meaſures under this article of ENGLAND, the reader cannot be at any loſs, we conceive, to comprehend the reaſon and foundation hereof.

However, leſt the utility and application of theſe operations ſhould not be ſo thoroughly underſtood as we could deſire, a little further illuſtration may not be altogether uſeleſs.

Let it, therefore, be ſuppoſed, that 100 l. ſterling is circulated from London to Amſterdam at the price of exchange in the examples preceding, viz. at 35 : 2 ½, how many guilders of Holland will this produce?

100 l. ſterling, at 422 ½ grots Amſterdam per pound ſterling, will produce 1056 : 10 guilders of Amſterdam. [See the preceding part of this article ENGLAND.]

Theſe 1056 : 10 guilders, circulated from Amſterdam to Paris, will produce at the arbitrated price of exchange (viz. 56 $\frac{425}{768}$ grots per crown of France) 747 crowns : 1 : 7 ½ of France.—And theſe crowns drawn home to London, at the above exchange of 32 ⅛ pence ſterling per French crown, will produce the ſame 100 l. ſterling.

This demonſtrably proves, that the ſaid price of 56 $\frac{425}{768}$ is the true arbitrated price of exchange.

The APPLICATION.

Whence it very obviouſly follows, that, if the real price of exchange in being at the time theſe computations are made (as in the firſt of the three foregoing caſes) is more or leſs between Amſterdam and Paris than the exact arbitrated price, you may draw home more or leſs than your 100 l. ſterling. But, that you might not draw leſs, ſee what I have ſaid under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, which need not be repeated; for, in tranſactions of this kind, the ſkilful and accurate merchant will watch the occaſion to buy bills of exchange where they are cheapeſt, in order to diſpoſe of them at ſuch places, where they will, for the time being, ſell the deareſt. And,

With regard to the variation of the prices of exchange during the time of theſe negotiations, ſee what I have ſaid upon that head under the before-mentioned article. See likewiſe the general article of EXCHANGE. For, as that judicious and experienced merchant Mr. Mun obſerves, in his advice to his ſon, whom he intended to breed up to merchandizing, 'That 'he ought to underſtand, and to be a diligent obſerver of the 'rates of exchanges by bills from one ſtate to another, 'whereby he may the better direct his affairs, and remit 'over and receive home his monies to the moſt advantage 'poſſible.'

REMARKS. For the advancement of the general commerce of this kingdom.

Thus have we run through on this head of ENGLAND, in conjunction with what has been ſaid under the articles BRITAIN [GREAT BRITAIN, BRITISH AMERICA, and COLONIES] ſome of the moſt eſſential particulars, which relate to the commerce of this kingdom; and theſe we have not only conſidered in a political, but in a practical light, which is accommodated to the affairs and tranſactions of traders in general; all which, together with what elſe we have already repreſented, and that we ſhall further repreſent, under the various articles to which the reader is referred, will, we apprehend, afford a connected ſeries of the moſt uſeful matter, whereby to form the univerſal, as well as the particular merchant; and not only this, the ſupreme claſs of traders, but likewiſe every other ſpecies; there being ſcarce any trader, or any other man of buſineſs in theſe kingdoms, that hath any connection with commerce, but will find, we may humbly preſume to ſay, ſome matter, ſome uſeful matter, which is really intereſting to his profeſſion.

Before we conclude this article of ENGLAND, it may not be improper to obſerve the bent, the ſpirit, the univerſal paſſion, if the expreſſion may be allowed, of all civilized countries, for trade and commerce: of which this kingdom cannot be too jealous, nor keep to vigilant an eye over. Nor ſhould the accounts of the commercial tranſactions of our neighbouring ſtates be tranſmitted to us by piece-meal, and in a very imperfect manner, through the channel of newspapers only: on the contrary, would it not prove importantly uſeful, if our conſuls, reſidents, envoys, and even ambaſſadors abroad, were, by virtue of their office, obliged, by authority, to tranſmit a faithful narrative, to our lords commiſſioners of trade, of all ſuch like meaſures; and which ſhould, from time to time, be communicated to the public by that honourable board, in the GAZETTE. For nothing of this kind ſhould be kept from the knowlege of the people, to the end that they might timely prevent thoſe evil conſequences, which may threaten our own trade and navigation. When our artizans and manufacturers, when our traders and merchants in general ſhall be made ſenſible by authority, of what is doing in other countries to their perſonal injury, as well as that of the nation, they would ſpeedily endeavour to avail themſelves of ſuch intelligence; they would ſtruggle ſo to counteract their competitors, as to ſuſtain the leaſt detriment, if they ſhould not be capable of totally defeating thoſe rival enterprizes: they would, by their ſpontaneous induſtry and ingenuity, not only ſtrive to preſerve the trade they poſſeſſed, but would zealouſly attempt to obtain a ſhare in any new branches that might be fell upon in foreign ſtates: and, by a dutiful application to the great repreſentative of this kingdom, they would certainly meet with all reaſonable regard, becauſe the parliament would then be convinced of the indiſpenſable neceſſity thereof, from the authentic teſtimony of the officers of the crown reſiding in foreign countries.

And, as the fundamental ſource of new and proſperous branches of commerce, is the happy invention and diſcovery of new mechanical and manufactural arts and inventions, it is to be lamented, that perſons of the firſt rank and dignity do not endeavour to inform themſelves of the moſt eligible meaſures for their advancement. Such politics would certainly not redound leſs to their intereſt, than to their honour and glory; and that not only conſidered as conſtituents of the ſame community, but, if theſe promoters of ſuch commercial arts were perſons in power and authority, they would draw to themſelves ſuch friendſhips and attachments to their perſonal intereſt, that no little ſtorms of ſtate could poſſibly ſhake or diſcompoſe them; for what temporary junto's or cabals could diſturb the repoſe of miniſters, who ſhould engage the trading intereſt of the nation in their favour and ſupport? The landed part of the kingdom begin now to be ſo thoroughly convinced of their intimate connection of in-

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tereſt with the trading part thereof, that the voice of the trading intereſt will in the general be ever followed by that of the land; and the monied intereſts will rarely act in oppoſition to thoſe of land and trade: ſo that gentlemen in power ſeem to have nothing to fear, if they do not neglect our commerce.

Gentlemen of deep learning have, we are afraid, been too apt to imagine, that trade, and it's dependant arts of mechanics and manufactures, and others that have relation thereto, are not only beneath their ſtudy, but will afford them neither that delight in the purſuit, nor glory in the acquiſition, as the more general kind of academical literature does. If gentlemen would candidly condeſcend to examine this notion, it is not improbable, but that they may find it ſuch as to deſerve being ranked among the tribe of vulgar etrors.

The ſtudy of philoſophy was in no age or civilized country thought unbecoming the dignity of the greateſt men: I do not mean the verboſe, the diſputative, the pedantic ſpecies of philoſophy, which has taught men little elſe than to ring the changes upon words and pompous muſical periods, and to quibble expertly with the ſchool logic and ſophiſtry: we mean, on the other hand, that natural philoſophy, which affords all the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life to ſtates and empires; ſuch whereby our own dominions are extended abroad, as a knowlege in phyſics ſecures us at home. And, methinks, it appears highly probable, that good naturaliſts may greatly reform trade, or improve it; ſince, in the general, it depends upon a number of the productions of nature; and chiefly lies in the hands of the mechanics, the manufacturers, and other artizans.

Thus, for inſtance, the huſbandmen's ſkill conſiſts in the knowlege of a few plants and animals, their relation to peculiar ſoils, and management, with the influence of the celeſtial bodies and meteors thereupon; all which ſubjects fall properly under the cognizance of a naturaliſt. He, therefore, who has attentively conſidered the nature of generation, nutrition, and accretion, both in plants and animals, and knows how to vary a uſeful experiment, ſo as to remedy the inconveniencies or ſupply the defects thereof, and can dextrouſly apply his own, and others obſervations, may cultivate the art of huſbandry to as much advantage as the ordinary farmer tills his land. And moſt of the nobleſt diſcoveries in huſbandry have been owing to the ſagacity of the experienced naturaliſt. See the article HUSBANDRY.

And here it brings to my reflection a notable attempt, ſaid lately to be made in France; which, if it ſhould happen to prove ſucceſsful, will be another memorable inſtance of the abilities of the naturaliſt to advance the intereſt of commerce in that nation: the undertaking I have in view, is no leſs, if I am rightly informed, than an attempt to make the ſheep of that kingdom to produce in the general as good wool; that is to ſay, as good, in quality and ſtaple, as that of England or Ireland; and it is reported, but with what certainty we cannot preſume to ſay, that all royal encouragement is given to this deſign, and ſuch a progreſs hath been made already herein, as promiſes the deſirable ſucceſs to that kingdom.

If a deſign, of this high concernment to the woollen manufactures of France, ſhould be attended with the proſperity aimed at, it muſt prove of far greater detriment to the trade of this nation, than the clandeſtine exportation of our wool. But, if any thing of this kind ſhould be found ſo generally practicable as to anſwer the purpoſe intended, ſhould it not excite our naturaliſts to think of ways and means ſo to manage our ſheep, that we may be capable of carrying on our woollen manufactures, without the aid of Spaniſh wool? And, if the one ſhould prove experimentally practicable in France, we may have ſome grounds not to deſpair of accompliſhing the other in England: which, if we ſhould be able to effectuate, it may make us ſome compenſation for the loſs we may ſuſtain on the ſide of France *.

* It is allowed by our woollen manufacturers in general, that the wool of Lemſter in Herefordſhire, which they call their ore, is no way inferior to the Segovia wool of Spain. Quere therefore, Whether it may not deſerve the conſideration of an uſeful philoſopher to enquire into the natural cauſes hereof, in order that other parts of England may from thence be brought to yield us an ample ſufficiency of wool of the quality of that of Spain, without being obliged to purchaſe what we want of that kingdom.

Chemical experiments, made with judgment and accuracy, will give ſuch inſight into the nature and quality of ſoils, as may afford uſeful directions towards the melioration of paſture, as well as of arable and wood-lands. From experiments which have been made upon earths, dungs, and ſeeds, ſalts have abounded in the liquors they have yielded. Whoever has obſerved theſe many particulars in this art, which cauſed Sir Francis Bacon to pronounce nitre to be the life of vegetables, and conſiders how land is improved by pigeons dung, which impregnates it with ſalt-petre, and knows that moſt fat earths, defended from the ſun and rain, and left to themſelves, will ſoon abound in nitrous ſalt: whoever conſiders theſe things, will, perhaps, believe an enquiry into the nature of ſalt-petre may be of very profitable uſe in huſbandry and farming.

The knowlege of the nature and diſtinction of ſaline bodies may greatly aſſiſt, to ſhew the differences of the various ſaltneſs that is found in ſoils, and with what ſort each plant or ſeed is moſt delighted. By this means, many tracts of land now thought barren, for want of a knowlege hereof, might be rendered very advantageous: and why may not, therefore, that which is already very good in quality, be rendered, by ſound philoſophy, ſtill much better; and conſequently, wherein is the improbability of paſture land being ſo improved in ſoil and ſuitable production, as to rear ſheep in ſo neighbouring a country as that of France, where wool ſhall be no way inferior to that of England? And why may we not ſave ourſelves the expence of Spaniſh wool?

Certain it is, that ground may be made to yield much better crops than uſual, by being ſucceſſively ſown with a proper variety of ſeed, agreeable to the nature of the particular ſalt at preſent inherent in the earth; for, by the abſence of one kind of ſalt, it is better prepared to feed thoſe plants that delight in another. Of this the huſbandmen have, in ſome meaſure, already taken notice, as appears by their ſowing turneps in grounds too remote for the convenient carriage of compoſt, to ſerve for manure, and fit them for wheat. And why may not any land, except mere ſand, without much culture, be rendered fertile, were we but well acquainted with the ſoil, and provided with the various ſorts of grain, that nature affords in different countries?

There are various ſoils, both in England and elſewhere, left quite uncultivated, wherein ſome foreign vegetables might thrive and proſper. Many large tracts of ſteep and craggy land, expoſed to the ſouthern ſun, lie waſted in ſeveral hot countries, where grapes are not planted; though in France, Italy, and even the Alps, ſuch lands are turned into excellent vineyards. An experienced way of cauſing wheat to grow and proſper, even in clay, where no grain had thriven, has been ſucceſsfully practiſed; and the art conſiſted in ſteeping the ſeed for a determined time, in a certain expreſſed oil that is not dear; whence it ſhould ſeem, that, without altering the ſoil, a ſlight change, properly made in the ſeed alone, may ſo fit them for each other, as to yield a large increaſe.

The more comprehenſive any trade is, the more improvements it will admit of from philoſophy; becauſe, depending upon many natural productions and operations, there muſt ariſe many particulars to be meliorated or reformed, either in the manufacture or profeſſion. Thus corn, in huſbandry, renders a knowlege of the whole art of tillage convenient, with the ways to order cattle, the dairy, an orchard, a kitchen-garden, wood, flax, hemp, hops, bees, &c. and the particular productions of ſome of theſe, as honey, cyder, &c. are capable of improvement, and require ſkill to manage. In the variety of particulars, therefore, wherewith the huſbandman deals, there muſt be ſome, wherein the ſuperior knowlege and experience of the naturaliſt will be ſerviceable. And, as one of the principal parts of huſbandry depends upon preſerving the improvement of cattle, and preſerving them from diſeaſes, and alſo the fruits of the earth from putrefaction, natural philoſophy conduces to theſe great ends. He who knows how to accelerate and retard putrefaction in bodies, may ſhew the huſbandman how to prepare variety of manures, either for the paſtural or other purpoſes; to enrich his land with the peculiar kind of ſalt it wants; and alſo how to preſerve ſeveral ſeeds, flowers, and fruits, beyond their natural duration.

To purſue the uſe of practical philoſophy to trade a ſtep farther. An attentive conſideration of the parts that conſtitute each particular trade, would ſhew how all depend upon philoſophy, and might be farther improved. Thus the principal parts of refining are a knowlege of the preparation of AQUA FORTIS [ſee that article,] and it's operation upon ſilver, copper, and gold, with the means to purge it, that neither gold may be diſſolved, nor ſilver precipitated, when diſſolved thereby; to know what proportion is diſſolvable therein, and the quantity of water neceſſary to weaken the ſolution; how long copper-plates ſhould lie to precipitate the ſilver it contains, how lead is colliquated with, and what proportion thereof is requiſite to carry off the baſer metals upon the teſt; how cupels are beſt made, and with theſe to draw off lead or antimony from gold or ſilver; and laſtly, to know the proper proportion of gold and ſilver, to make water-gold [ſee the article GOLD]. This trade, indeed, is underſtood by few, and yet is not ſo diffuſive and complicated as hundreds of others; notwithſtanding, if they all were reſolved into their component parts, it would doubtleſs appear, that moſt of them are only corollaries, deduced from particular obſervations in philoſophy, and the application thereof to the uſes of commerce. And, if ſo, 'tis more than probable, that farther diſcoveries in the nature of the materials, the ſubjects of trade, and a knowlege of the laws they obſerve, may reform or meliorate ſeveral of it's branches. See ROYAL SOCIETY.

APPLICATION.

Without launching deeper into a philoſophical ſtrain under the preſent article, we would only take leave to obſerve,

(1.) That ſince it might be demonſtrated, in numberleſs inſtances, that every kind of trade is improveable by this true and uſeful philoſophy, it follows, that theſe experimental ſtudies cannot be too much cultivated in a trading nation, nor too much encouragement given to thoſe who need it, that ſhall become the happy inſtruments of communicating whatever may have a tendency to the advancement of any branch of our commerce.

(2.) That it ſeems to be the intereſt of the ſtate to propoſe ſuitable rewards and honours to thoſe who ſhall excel in any thing of this kind, and not leave a matter of ſuch conſequence to the mere ſpontaneous diſpoſition of the people, without any hope or expectation of advantage, except what the benevolence of ſome great man, an encourager of theſe ſtudies, may pleaſe bounteouſly to beſtow; and this too often obtained only by mean cringing and ſollicitation, or by fulſome and flattering dedications of any ingenious and elaborate performance, which men of learning and ſcience may preſent to the public.

(3.) It is obſervable, that, in this kingdom in particular, the making of laws for the benefit of commerce does, in the general, take riſe from the application and remonſtrances of traders themſelves to the legiſlature; and even to obtain the moſt reaſonable and ſalutary laws upon theſe important occaſions, has been, I am afraid, too freequently attended, not only with great expence to the ſupplicants, but ſuch delay and procraſtination as has proved extremely detrimental to the private concerns of traders, more eſpecially to thoſe whoſe reſidence has happened to be at ſea-ports and trading towns, ſome hundred miles diſtant from the metropolis: whereas, in ſome neighbouring countries, the riſe of all laws which relate to commerce, proceeds from the valuntary act and deed of the ſtate itſelf; from the deliberate judgment of a ſucceſſion of wiſe and able commiſſioners and miniſters, appointed by authority, who have made it their buſineſs duly to enquire into all grievances that trade labours under, and inſtantly to afford all public aid and aſſiſtance to any peculiar branch thereof that may ſtand in need of it: ſo that the intereſts of trade, in ſome foreign countries, are not left to the vague will and judgment of traders, whether they will or will not apply to the ſtate for ſuitable encouragement or no, or whether they apply in a manner ſuitable to the exigencies of peculiar branches; no; on the contrary, thoſe in authority are of themſelves ſollicitous to diſcover the wants of trade, and every difficulty and diſcouragement under which it lies; in order to remove them without delay, and without putting traders to the expence and fatigue of attendance month after month, and year after year, to the great neglect of their private concerns; which muſt neceſſarily prove proportionably detrimental to the general commerce of ſuch nations.

That what has been ſuggeſted, with regard to foreign nations, is matter of fact, will further appear throughout this work, than what it already has done, from a ſeries of the public acts, arrêts, and councils of ſeveral nations in Europe; which are zealouſly ſtruggling to gain a ſuperiority over others in their affairs of commerce.

For the means of permanently advancing the trade and navigation of our own nation in particular, ſee the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, EARTH, HUSBANDRY, LANDED INTEREST, TRADE, ROYAL SOCIETY.

ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY. We having, under the article AFRICA, referred to the article ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, it may be neceſſary to give a ſhort hiſtory thereof, to which recourſe may be occaſionally had hereafter.

A ſhort Hiſtory of the AFRICAN COMPANY.

The Portugueze being the firſt that diſcovered the coaſt of Africa, they built one fort on the iſland of Arguin, on the north coaſt; another, called St George del Mina, on the Gold Coaſt; and a third at a place called Loango St Paul's, on the coaſt of Angola, to the ſouthward of the Equinoctial Line: by virtue of which poſſeſſions, they not only claimed, and (for many years) enjoyed, the right in and to all the ſaid lands and countries, but likewiſe ſeized and confiſcated the ſhips of all other nations, as often as they found any of them trading on any part of the ſaid coaſt.

About the latter end of the reign of king Edward VI. ſome London merchants fitted out the firſt Engliſh ſhips that ever traded to Guinea; and, in the reign of queen Mary, and for the firſt ten or twelve years of queen Elizabeth, ſundry other private ſhips were fitted out for the ſame parts: but the Engliſh not having as yet any ſettlements or plantations in the Weſt-Indies, and, conſequently, no occaſion for negroes, ſuch ſhips traded only for gold, elephants teeth, and malaguetta; and all ſuch voyages were undertaken and performed at the hazard of loſing the ſhips and cargoes, if they fell into the hands of the Portugueze, without the leaſt ground to hope for any redreſs or ſatisfaction for the ſame.

Queen Elizabeth, in the 30th year of her reign, being then at war with Spain and Portugal, erected a company for the better diſcovering and carrying on a trade from the northern moſt part of the river Senegal, and from and within that river, all along that coaſt, unto the ſouthermoſt part of the river Gambia, and within the ſame; and gave and granted unto them the whole and ſole trade in, to, and from the ſaid rivers and countries, for a certain term of years; with prohibition to all others her ſubjects to trade to the ſame places, on pain of forfeiture of ſhips and goods: and theſe were the firſt Engliſh merchants that ever trade to the coaſt of Guinea, by and under the authority and protection of the crown of England.

In the reigns of king James I. and king Charles I. and during the time of the uſurpation, ſundry perſons were encouraged, by public authority, to trade to other parts of Africa, and to take ſuch meaſures for the better carrying on and improving the ſame, as they ſhould judge moſt proper. In purſuance whereof, they built one fort, at a place called Cormantine, on the Gold Coaſt, and another in the river Gambia, on the north coaſt: and theſe were the only places of any conſequence which the Engliſh were in poſſeſſion of at the Reſtoration.

The States-General of the United Provinces obſerving, as we may imagine, the meaſures taken in England for encouraging of a trade to Africa, did alſo, about the year 1621, erect and eſtabliſh a company, which they called the Weſt-India Company; and, for their encouragement, gave and granted unto them all the lands and countries which they could conquer, or gain poſſeſſion of in Africa, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and in America, from the ſouthermoſt part of Newfoundland to the Streights of Magellan and La Maire, on the eaſt ſide, and from thoſe ſtreights to the Streights of Anian, on the weſt ſide; with the whole and ſole trade, and liberty and right of trading into and from all ſuch lands and countries; and alſo with prohibition to all others their ſubjects to trade to, or frequent them, or any of them, under the ſevereſt penalties. Whereupon the ſaid company applied themſelves to the making of divers great and important conqueſts in Brazil and Africa: and ſuch ſucceſs attended their arms, eſpecially in Africa, that, in the year 1637, they took the ſtrong fortreſs of St George del Mina, on the Gold Coaſt; and, in a year or two more, all the other Portugueze forts and ſettlements on the ſame coaſt: all which places were afterwards yielded to them by the treaty of truce and navigation concluded (anno 1641) between the crown of Portugal and the States.

From this time, and in virtue of theſe poſſeſſions, thus taken from and yielded by the Portugueze, the Dutch Weſt-India company took upon themſelves to claim the ſole right and property in and to all the lands and countries in Africa, from Cape Palmas to Cape Lopez, comprehending all the Gold Coaſt and Whydah, and ſundry other great and populous countries on each ſide of them. And, although the Engliſh had built a fort at Cormantine, and ſettled factories at ſundry other places on the Gold Coaſt, before the Dutch had made the ſaid conqueſts, and had, therefore, as good a right and title as themſelves to a free trade at all places on the ſame coaſt, not in their actual poſſeſſion or occupation; yet, from this time forward, the Dutch Weſt-India company always kept one or two cruizers on the ſaid coaſt, whoſe chief buſineſs was to watch all ſuch Engliſh ſhips as came to trade there, and to follow them from place to place, and either to lie between them and the ſhore, and intercept their trade with the natives, or to frighten them off the coaſt, and ruin their voyages, or to ſeize and carry them to St George del Mina; and this not only when ſuch ſhips were found trading on the Gold Coaſt, and at places near any of the ſaid Dutch company's forts and ſettlements, but alſo at places ſeveral hundreds of miles diſtant from them.

King Charles II. ſoon after his reſtoration, being made acquainted with the dangerous and precarious ſtate and condition to which the trade of his ſubjects in thoſe parts was reduced; and having likewiſe received many complaints touching the interruptions given to, and depredations committed upon, the ſhips of this nation, by the Dutch Weſt-India company on the coaſt of Africa, it became neceſſary to conſider not only of a proper method for protecting and ſecuring the ſaid trade for the future, but likewiſe how and in what manner reparation might be obtained for ſuch damages and depredations.

For the firſt, it being now evident that the ſingle and ſeparate endeavours of private Engliſh merchants were by no means ſufficient to contend with the united power and intereſt of the ſaid Dutch Weſt-India company in thoſe parts of the world; and the Engliſh having found, by former experience in the Eaſt-Indies, what little ſtreſs was to be laid on any treaty that might be concluded between the two nations in Europe, for the ſecurity of ſuch a diſtant branch of our trade: the only choice which his majeſty had left for maintaining and defending the right of his ſubjects to a free and unmoleſted trade in Africa, againſt the pretenſions and incroachments of ſuch a rival, was to incorporate and unite ſuch of his own ſubjects as ſhould be willing to engage in the ſaid trade, into one body, and to give and grant unto them ſuch powers, privileges, and encouragements, as the circumſtances of the trade at that time required; which was accordingly done by letters patents under the great ſeal of England, bearing date the 10th day of January, 1662; and the

ſaid united body of Engliſh merchants was called The Company of Royal Adventurers of England trading into Africa. As to the ſecond, his majeſty was pleaſed to cauſe a particular account of the damages complained of to be drawn up, and tranſmitted to his envoy at the Hague, with orders to demand and inſiſt upon full reparation for the ſame. And, for the better protecting of the new company, it was likewiſe judged neceſſary to fit out a man of war to the coaſt of Africa, under the command of captain Holmes. But neither the one or the other of theſe ſteps had the deſired effect: for in Holland the ſtates ſtarted ſo many difficulties, and made ſuch delays, that no ſatisfaction could be obtained for any paſt injuries. And as to affairs in Africa, as ſoon as they had advice that captain Holmes had by aſſault taken, and poſſeſſed himſelf of a fort near Cape de Verde, belonging to their Weſt-India company, they made all imaginable preparations to fit out a ſquadron for the coaſt of Africa, to retake the ſaid fort by force of Arms; notwithſtanding his majeſty aſſured them, that he had given no commiſſion or order to captain Holmes for that purpoſe, nor did know upon what grounds he had proceeded to that act of hoſtility; that he expected him ſhortly at home, and that he would then proceed in a very ſtrict examination of his proceedings, and would cauſe exemplary juſtice to be done, as well in redelivering the fort, as in puniſhing the perſon, if his carriage and demeanour deſerved it. Which having no better ſucceſs than the former meſſages, in relation to reparation for about TWENTY SHIPS taken from his ſubjects on the coaſt of Guinea: and the Dutch ambaſſador telling his majeſty in plain terms, That they had given inſtructions to the admiral of their fleet, that was then going for Guinea, to take their fort near Cape Verde by force, and to take any Engliſh which had had a hand in doing them injury: his majeſty then found himſelf under a neceſſity of fitting out a ſtrong ſquadron likewiſe for the ſame parts, under the command of prince Rupert; which the States no ſooner had notice of, but they altered their language, and, for avoiding the effuſion of Chriſtian blood, as they pretended, propoſed that the fleets on either ſide might be detained within the harbours, and not ſuffered to put to ſea; and that ſome expedients might be found out by treaty for each other's ſatisfaction: but, in the mean time that they were making this plauſible offer, they ſent ſecret orders to their fleet in the Streights, under the command of De Ruyter, to make all poſſible haſte to Guinea, to execute all thoſe inſtructions which they had given to their fleet at home; which orders he executed ſo rigorouſly, that he not only retook the fort near Cape de Verde, and ſeized and confiſcated all the Engliſh ſhips that he could meet with, but alſo, by the aſſiſtance of the natives of one of the adjacent countries, who had been bribed by the Dutch general at Elmina for that purpoſe, he attacked and took the Engliſh fort at Cormantine, and put a Dutch garriſon into the ſame.

Some time before this the parliament had made an enquiry into the obſtructions and incroachments of the Hollanders upon our trade, and into the loſſes which our merchants had ſuſtained thereby; which they found to amount to the value of 7 or 800,000l. and thereupon both houſes came to this reſolution, April 21, 1664, That the wrongs, diſhonours, and indignities done to his majeſty, by the ſubjects of the United Provinces by invading his rights in India, Africa, and elſewhere: and the damages, affronts, and injuries done by them to our merchants, were the greateſt obſtructions of our foreign trade: and that the ſame be humbly and ſpeedily preſented to his majeſty, and that he be moſt humbly moved to take ſome ſpeedy and effectual courſe for redreſs thereof, and all other of the like nature, and for prevention of the like in future; and that, in proſecution thereof, they would, with their lives and fortunes, aſſiſt his majeſty againſt all oppoſitions whatſoever.

This reſolution being preſented to his majeſty the 27th of April 1664, he was thereupon pleaſed to renew his inſtances with the States for the ſatisfaction ſo long demanded, with more vigour than ever; inſomuch, that in an audience of the 25th of June following, he told the Dutch ambaſſador, That it was not to be ſuffered that the Dutch Weſt-India company, only by the means of a few forts, and three or four ſhips, ſhould pretend to render the coaſts of Africa inacceſſible to all others, by blocking up the havens againſt their commerce, and keeping them off, and driving them from every place. But the States turned a deaf ear to all theſe remonſtrances: the loſſes of our merchants amounted to too great a ſum to be eaſily reimburſed; and the advantages of the trade to Africa, could they have wholly engroſſed and ſecured the ſame to themſelves, were too great and important to be willingly parted with. And therefore, inſtead of ſhewing any inclination to give the requiſite ſatisfaction on either of thoſe heads, they choſe to renew their attacks upon the Engliſh in Africa with more reſolution than ever, under the conduct of their admiral De Ruyter, as aforeſaid. And on the other hand, the king having tried all other methods in vain, found himſelf obliged, upon the firſt notice of De Ruyter's proceedings in Africa, to comply with the deſires of his parliament, and with the voice of his people; and accordingly, on the 22d day of February 1664-5, his majeſty declared war in form againſt the States General of the United Provinces.

Nothing is more evident, than that the chief view of the Dutch at this time, and for ſome years before, had been to exclude the Engliſh entirely from the trade to Africa, and to engroſs the ſame wholly to themſelves. And it is equally apparent, that the value which they then ſet upon this trade was ſuch, that, rather than conſent that the Engliſh ſhould enjoy a ſhare thereof peaceably and quietly, they made it their choice to ſtand all the hazards, and to bear all the inconveniencies of a war with England. But, however, it ſo fell out, that the event did not anſwer their expectations: for, in ſpite of all the efforts of the Dutch, the Engliſh company kept their footing in Africa; and, by the third article of the treaty of peace concluded at Breda, anno 1667, it was mutually agreed, that each party ſhould keep and enjoy all ſuch lands, iſlands, towns, fortreſſes, places, and colonies, as during that war, or before, the one had by force of arms, or otherwiſe, taken from the other. And, in virtue of this article, the Duch Weſt-India company kept poſſeſſion of the Engliſh fort at Cormantine, and the Royal African company kept poſſeſſion of the caſtle at Cabo Corſo, which they had (by the aſſiſtance of Capt. Holmes) retaken from the Dutch before the war began, and to which they had an undoubted right.

But the ſtipulations in this treaty, in favour of the ſaid Engliſh company, were by no means ſufficient to enable them to bear up againſt the many difficulties they had to ſtruggle with. They had found it extremely difficult to perſuade people to come in at firſt, and be concerned with them in ſo precarious and hazardous a trade, by which means their ſtock was much too ſmall for ſuch an undertaking: they had been obliged to be at great charges in Africa, and they had met with many ſevere loſſes by captures, and otherwiſe at ſea, during the war; and, for want of a ſufficient ſtock to begin with, they had contracted a large debt at home: and, under theſe circumſtances, they were ſo far from being able to carry on and improve their trade, or to make any new acquiſitions, that it was with the utmoſt difficulty that they could keep and preſerve thoſe places which they had ſtill in their poſſeſſion.

For extricating themſelves, therefore, out of theſe and the like difficulties, as well as for opening a way for others to undertake the care, management, and improvement of ſo valuable a trade with more ſucceſs, they conſented and agreed, for and in conſideration of a certain ſum of money, which was to be paid unto them by another new company then intended to be eſtabliſhed, to ſurrender their charter to the crown, and to aſſign and transfer all their eſtate, property, intereſts, and effects in Africa, and elſewhere, unto the ſaid new company.

His majeſty likewiſe approving of this, as the moſt proper expedient, as well for doing juſtice to the company of royal adventurers, as for the better preſerving and enlarging the trade to Africa, was thereupon pleaſed to accept of the ſaid ſurrender; and by his letters patents under the great ſeal of England, bearing date the 27th day of September, 1672, to eſtabliſh and incorporate the late royal African company of England, and to give and grant unto them, all and ſingular, the lands, countries, havens, roads, rivers, and other places in Africa, from the port of Sally in South Barbary, to the Cape of Good Hope, for and during the term of one thouſand years; with the ſole, intire, and only trade and traffic into and from the ſaid countries and places, with prohibition to all others his ſubjects, to viſit or frequent the ſame, without the licence and conſent of the ſaid company: and alſo, with ſuch other powers and privileges, as were then judged proper and neceſſary, for enabling and encouraging them to undertake ſo hazardous and chargeable a work.

Hereupon the new company provided proper books to take ſubſcriptions in, and kept them open for near twelve months, and invited all his majeſty's ſubjects that pleaſed to become adventurers with them, and to ſubſcribe for what ſums they thought fit, towards raiſing a ſufficient joint ſtock for retrieving the ſaid trade out of the dangerous and precarious condition it was then in, and for the better ſecuring and enlarging the ſame for the future. But ſo backward and fearful were merchants and others at this time to be concerned therein, that all the ſubſcriptions they could get from all parts of the kingdom, amounted only to the ſum of 111,100l.

With this ſtock, however, ſmall as it was, this company applied themſelves with all poſſible vigour, to purſue the ends of their eſtabliſhment. At this time the Dutch Weſt-India company were in poſſeſſion of the ſtrong fortreſs of St George del Mina; and of the Engliſh fort at Cormantine, then called fort Amſterdam; and they had likewiſe another, called Fort St Anthony at Axim; another, called Fort St Sebaſtian, on the river Chamah; a fifth, called Fort Naſſau, at a place called Mouree, about two leagues to the leeward of Cape Coaſt; a ſixth, called Creveceur, at Acra; and a ſeventh, called Fort Conraadſburg, at St Jago, within cannon-ſhot of St George del Mina; all on the Gold Coaſt, and lying very commodious to ſuccour and aſſiſt one another in any caſe of need: the Danes were in poſſeſſion of one ſmall, but impregnable fort (afterwards called Fort Royal) on the

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top of a hill, within gun-ſhot of Cape Coaſt; and of another at Acra, to the eaſtward of the Dutch fort at the ſame place. The elector of Brandenburg (the late king of Pruſſia) had one good fort, at Cape Three Points, and two ſmaller ones at ſome little diſtance to the eaſtward of the ſame: and the new Engliſh company were in poſſeſſion of one ſmall fort at Cabo Corſo, that being the only fort on this coaſt, which the Dutch had not diſpoſſeſſed the former company of during the late war.

The firſt thing, therefore, which this company found moſt neceſſary to be done, was to endeavour, by all lawful ways and means, to ſtrengthen themſelves, as much as poſſible on this coaſt, as other nations, and eſpecially the Dutch, had done before them. And, for this purpoſe, they enlarged Cape Coaſt Caſtle, and made it ſix times larger, ſtronger, and more commodious than before: they built one fort at Acra, another at Dick's-cove, a third at Winnebah, a fourth at Succundee, a fifth at Commenda, and rebuilt a ſixth at Anamaboe, all on the Gold Coaſt, and three of them within muſket-ſhot of Dutch forts; and they likewiſe purchaſed Frederickſburg, now Fort Royal, of the Danes, without which Cape Coaſt Caſtle could not be ſafe: and they alſo built another fort from the ground at Wydah, for the ſecurity of the negro trade at that place.

And, although in the proſecution of theſe works, the ſaid company met with all poſſible oppoſition from the Dutch Weſt-India company on the Gold Coaſt, which often broke out into open hoſtilities, and many times ended not without bloodſhed on both ſides; and the company were put to an incredible charge and expence in purchaſing the conſent and aſſiſtance of the natives, for making ſuch ſettlements, as well as for tranſporting, from time to time, the neceſſary ſupplies of ſoldiers, artificers, proviſions, and all other neceſſaries and materials from England for ſuch buildings; all which were rendered ſtill more difficult, chargeable and hazardous, by the long war which enſued with France: yet, nevertheleſs, the ſaid company never ceaſed their care and endeavours, 'till they had completely finiſhed their ſaid undertakings, and thereby put the Engliſh intereſt on this part of the coaſt of Africa on an equal foot with the Dutch, and much ſuperior to that of any other nation whatſoever. All which they effected during the ſhort time that they were permitted to enjoy the privileges granted them by their charter.

On the north coaſt, where it was natural to think the company ſhould have met with leſs oppoſition, and more ſucceſs, matters did not ſucceed altogether to their wiſhes. The Dutch Weſt-India company were in poſſeſſion of the forts of Arguin and Goree; the French Senegal company (which was eſtabliſhed anno 1673) were in poſſeſſion of a ſmall fort on an iſland within the bar, in the river Senegal; and the royal African company of England had one ſmall fort in the river Gambia, and another ſettlement in the river Sierraleon. And in this ſituation affairs continued 'till about the year 1677; and the companies of each nation traded freely to all places on the open coaſt (not in the actual poſſeſſion of any of the others) from Cape Blanco to Cape Mount.

In the years 1677 and 1678, the French took the Dutch forts on the iſlands of Arguin and Goree, which ſoon after were yielded to France by the treaty of Nimeguen: and, in the year 1685, the French king, judging the grant to the Senegal company, which extended from Cape Blanco to the Cape of Good Hope, too large, reſtrained that company to that part of the coaſt which extends from Cape Blanco to the river Sierraleon; and erected another company, which was called the Guinea Company, and gave and granted unto them the ſole trade to and from all that part of the coaſt which extends from the river Sierraleon to the Cape of Good Hope. And from this time the French trade to Africa was managed and carried on by thoſe two diſtinct companies.

The laſt of theſe companies made no great progreſs in their trade 'till about the year 1702, that the French king gave them the contract, which he had made with Spain, for introducing a certain number of negroes yearly into the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies. But that contract being afterwards transferred to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, the ſaid company was ſoon after aboliſhed, and the trade to Africa, within their limits, laid open to all the ſubjects of France; in which condition it continued from the year 1716 to 1720, and no longer.

As for the Senegal company, they were ſcarcely warm in their new poſſeſſions, before they ſet up a claim to all that part of the coaſt which extends from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, comprehending above 500 miles in length. In the year 1681, they would fain have hindered the royal African company of England's ſhips from trading all along that coaſt: but, not being as yet in a condition to conteſt that point with them, they dropped their pretenſions againſt them for that time. In the years 1683, 1684, and 1685, they ſeized and confiſcated ſeveral ſhips belonging to the Portugueze, Dutch, and Pruſſians. And, in the laſt of thoſe years, they renewed their claim againſt the royal African company: from which time they continued to give them frequent interruptions in their trade, 'till at laſt a war broke out between the two nations; which, together with the difficulties the company fell under at home ſoon after, put it in a manner wholly out of their power to aſſert and maintain their own and their country's rights againſt ſuch incroachments, as otherwiſe they might and would undoubtedly have done.

Remark.

Does not this, as well as the general conduct of France towards Great Britain, ſhew the neceſſity under which we lay, to annex the river Senegal to the crown of this kingdom, as we have done by the Definitive Treaty of 1763?

The loſſes and damages which the company ſuſtained, during the courſe of the war, were more and greater than can be eaſily imagined. But one of the chiefeſt was the loſs of their fort in the river Gambia, anno 1695, which, by the negligence of their ſervants, making no defence, was taken and plundered by a ſquadron of French men of war, and all the fortifications demoliſhed and razed to the ground. And, as a farther addition to this misfortune, when the company came to take poſſeſſion thereof again, after the peace, they found the French ſettled in the river, and claiming an equal ſhare of the trade thereof with themſelves.

In the year 1697, the parliament, having taken the trade to Africa into their conſideration, thought fit, as a further means of inlarging and improving the ſame, to lay the trade open to all his majeſty's ſubjects for 13 years, and from thence to the end of the next ſeſſion of parliament; and, in regard that the royal African company of England had been at the charge of building and maintaining a conſiderable number of forts and caſtles on the ſaid coaſt, which the parliament likewiſe judged neceſſary to be kept up and maintained in future, for the preſervation and better carrying on the ſaid trade, they were further pleaſed to impoſe a duty of 10 per cent. ad valorem, on all goods and merchandize exported to Africa, during the ſaid term, to be anſwered and paid to the ſaid company, for enabling them to keep and maintain their ſaid forts and caſtles.

This act continued in force from the 24th of June, 1698, to the 24th of June, 1712; in which time the charges which the company were at in maintaining their ſaid forts and caſtles, amounted, at a medium, to about 20,000 l. per ann. and, in 14 years, to 280,000 l. in the whole. The Duty which the ſeparate traders paid in the ſame time, amounted, in the whole, to 73,785 l. 10 s. 6 d. ½, and no more; and 10 per cent. upon the company's own exports for the ſame time, amounted to the ſum of 36,387 l. 13 s. 1 d. ½. From whence it appears, that, even while that act continued in force, the total of the 10 per cent. duty came very much ſhort of half the charges and expences which the company were at in keeping and maintaining their ſaid forts and caſtles.

Since the expiration of this act, in 1712, to this day, all others his majeſty's ſubjects have traded as freely and openly to all parts of Africa, as they did or might do under the authority of the ſaid act; and the ſaid company did, at their own coſt and charge, bear and defray the charges and expences of keeping and maintaining their ſaid forts and caſtles, which, at a very moderate computation, has been repreſented, by the ſaid late royal African company, to amount to above 250,000 l. By which means, and by the extravagant riſe in the prices of negroes at Anamaboe, and other places on the coaſt, and by the decay of the gold trade which enſued thereupon, the proprietors of the company were, for many years paſt, obliged either to raiſe ſundry great ſums of money for keeping and maintaining their ſaid forts and caſtles, without receiving any profit from the trade in return for the ſame; or to run the riſque not only of loſing all the money which they had from time to time raiſed and expended for ſupporting their own property, but of becoming acceſſaries to the intire loſs of the trade to Africa, and conſequently, by relinquiſhing and abandoning their ſaid forts and caſtles, to be ſeized and poſſeſſed by ſuch foreign nations as were long watching for an opportunity to get them into their hands.

This being the caſe with regard to the company, and it being the ſenſe of the nation, that the trade to Africa ſhould continue free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, the only thing that remained to be conſidered was, whether, or no, forts and caſtles were neceſſary to be kept up and maintained for the preſervation of the ſaid trade to this kingdom? And, if they were neceſſary to be kept up and maintained for that purpoſe, who, upon the foot of an open trade, ought in juſtice and reaſon to bear and defray the charges of them?

That it is abſolutely neceſſary that forts and caſtles ſhould be kept up and maintained in Africa, was urged from theſe conſiderations.

For 250 years paſt, it has been the conſtant policy of all ſuch European nations as have been ſo fortunate as to make any new diſcoveries, and to gain any eſtabliſhed power and authority in remote and barbarous countries, to build and maintain forts and caſtles; and, in virtue of ſuch poſſeſſions, to claim a right to whole kingdoms, and to tracts of land of a vaſt extent, and to exclude all other nations from trading in, to, or from them.

By this method the Portugueze long enjoyed the whole trade to Africa and to the Eaſt-Indies.

By the like meaſures the Spaniards, for many years, claimed and engroſſed almoſt the whole continent of America, and moſt of the iſlands adjacent thereto, to themſelves.

By this method the Hollanders have rendered themſelves abſolute maſters of all thoſe iſlands in the Eaſt which produce cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, and mace, and from them ſupply the whole world with thoſe commodities, by ſuch quantities, and at ſuch prices, as they think fit.

By this method the ſame people, for ſome time before and after the year 1660, attempted to gain the whole and intire poſſeſſion of the moſt valuable parts of the coaſt of Africa, and to exclude this nation from any part, ſhare, or intereſt therein; and thereby brought upon themſelves a war with this kingdom in 1664.

Before the royal African company had built a ſufficient number of forts and caſtles on the Gold Coaſt, the Dutch interrupted our trade, and ſeized and confiſcated our ſhips on the ſaid coaſt, and within it's dependencies; which, as they pretend, extend from Cape Palmas to Cape Lopez, and contains a tract of land of above 1200 miles. Since the royal African company have built and maintained a ſufficient number of forts and caſtles on the Gold Coaſt, the ſaid company, and all other Britiſh ſhips and veſſels, have traded freely to the ſaid coaſt, and to all places dependent thereon, without the leaſt interruption or moleſtation from the Dutch, or any other nation.

Before the French got poſſeſſion of the forts in the river Senegal, and on the iſlands of Arguin and Goree, on the north coaſt, the Engliſh traded freely and openly to all places on the ſaid coaſt, without any let or moleſtation. Since the French have been in poſſeſſion of thoſe forts, they have not only taken upon themſelves to exclude the Britiſh nation from thoſe parts, and do now actually take and confiſcate all ſuch Britiſh ſhips and veſſels as venture to go thither; but they come freely and uninterruptedly to trade within our African company's rights and privileges, and traffic under the very noſe of our forts and cannon.

In thoſe places where the royal African company have forts, as in the river Gambia, the Britiſh ſeparate traders trade freely with the natives. In thoſe places where other nations have forts and caſtles, and the royal African company have none, there all Britiſh private traders are either abſolutely denied the liberty of trading, or their ſhips are actually taken and confiſcated.

For the better ſupporting of forts and caſtles in Africa, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty has not only given and granted unto the India company of Paris the whole and ſole trade of that coaſt, from Cape Blanco to the Cape of Good Hope, but likewiſe allows them the following great and extraordinary privileges and encouragements, viz. an exemption from all duties for merchandize exported to Africa, and to the French iſlands and colonies in America: an exemption from half the cuſtoms of all goods and merchandizes imported from Africa; and from half the cuſtoms on all ſugars, and other merchandize, imported from the French iſlands and colonies in America, being the produce of the ſale of negroes there: an exemption from all tolls of any kind upon their goods and merchandize in France: a bounty of 13 livres, to be paid out of his own revenue, for every negro carried to the French iſlands and colonies in America: and, laſtly, a bounty of 20 livres for every eight ounces of gold duſt which they ſhall bring into France.

I. An exemption from all local and provincial duties of any kind, upon their goods and merchandize in France, as alſo from all duties for merchandize exported to Africa, wherewith to purchaſe negroes, &c. which, conſidering the number of ſhips they employ in this trade, cannot be computed at near ſo ſmall a ſum as 150,000 l. ſterling per ann. nor the whole exemption at ſo ſmall a rate as 3 per cent. thereon: ſay only - - - - l. 3000

II. An exemption from half the cuſtoms on all ſugars, and other merchandize imported from the French iſlands and colonies in America, being the produce of the ſale of negroes there: the amount of which will appear by the following moderate computation, viz. - - -

Suppoſe 15000 negroes only (whereas good judges reckon them not leſs than double that number) are imported into the French ſugar iſlands annually; and that 10000 of that number only ſhould be ſold for ſugar to be returned to France, at the rate of 40 hundred weight of ſugar only per head,

The duty on importation of ſugar into France is 3 per cent. on about two-thirds of the value; which is at the rate of 2 per cent. There is alſo an inland duty of

Carried over l. 3000

Brought over l. 3000

three livres, or 2 s. 9 d. ſterling per hundred weight.

Suppoſe the price of ſuch ſugars is computed at no more than 25s. per hundred, which, upon 10,000 negroes, makes 400,000 weight of ſugar: and this, at 1 per cent. being one half of the duty upon importation, amounts to - - l. 5000

400,000 hundred weight of ſugar, at 1 s. 4 d. ½ per hundred, being half of the above inland duty of three livres, or 2 s. 9 d. ſterling per hundred weight, is - l. 27,500

III. A bounty of 10 livres, or 9 s. 2 d. ſterling, to be paid out of the king's revenue, for every negro carried to the French ſugar iſlands and colonies in America; which, upon the ſaid 15,000 negroes only, amounts to - - l. 6,875

IV. A bounty of 9 s. 2 d. for every ounce of gold duſt that ſhall be imported from Africa into France. Suppoſe only 5000 ounces of gold imported from Africa into France, which is quite trifling and inconſiderable, when we recollect how rich their ſhips in the Guinea trade are in gold, as appeared by ſome captures made in the late war, is - - - - - l. 2,296

The total is per ann. in ſterling money - l. 44,671

N. B. The exemption of duties on what the other 5000 negroes produce in coffee, indigo, cotton, cocoa, &c. is left out in this account, leſt any exaggeration ſhould be made: and in every other article things are extremely under-rated, which every one at all acquainted with the extent of the French trade to Africa and America need not be apprized of.

Nothing can be a more modeſt computation than this is. But, if to thoſe extraordinary encouragements we tack that of excluſive powers and immunities beſides, it muſt certainly give the French a great weight of influence and authority in their negroe-trade in Africa.

Yet their encouragements do not terminate here only: there is one ſingle article alone, which ſeems to be ſo well calculated to make the moſt of the labour of negroes, and encourage their planters, that it may not, perhaps, be eſteemed inferior in it's good conſequences to all the reſt, conſidered together: and that is, the maxim of giving their moſt induſtrious planters credit out of the public ſtock, or the king's treaſury, for negroes, and other planting materials. The management of this part of their encouragement, it ſeems, lies between the comptroller-general of the finances and the company: they are, indeed, as prudence directs, cautious of their planters to whom they give ſuch credit; but, if they are perſons of known probity and induſtry, and make proper application, they need want no credit for negroes, or any other planting materials *.

* The French king alſo grants lands in his plantations, gratis, to poor induſtrious people, ſent thither from France, and gives them other encouragements to go over and ſettle there; and moreover lends money to his American ſubjects, in caſe of hurricanes, which deſtroy their plantations, and other unavoidable misfortunes.

Meaſures of this nature, it may be worth obſervation, have been the conſtant practice of France, when they have aimed at carrying any capital point in trade. It was by thus giving credit to traders out of the toyal treaſury, that the celebrated Monſieur Colbert firſt enabled France to rival England in the woollen manufactory; for, after he had brought the French to furniſh their own people, and cloath their own nobility and gentry, and even the king himſelf, with their own woollen manufactures, and exclude the Engliſh manufactures from France by a law, they turned their thoughts upon ſupplanting us at foreign markets. To which end that great ſtateſman cauſed credit to be given to exporters, even, 'till the returns of their woollen goods came from abroad. This was done particularly to the Turky merchants at Marſeilles, who had credit for the woollen manufactures of Niſmes, 'till the return of their ſhips from Smyrna and Scanderoon: by which wiſe encouragement the Marſeillians firſt ſupplanted the Engliſh in the Levant trade; in which, we are too ſenſible, they have increaſed ever ſince.

In like manner, the States-General of the United Provinces, for the better enabling their Weſt-India company to keep and maintain their forts and caſtles in Africa, have not only given and granted unto the ſaid company the whole and ſole trade of Africa, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, but do likewiſe pay and allow unto them the following extraordinary aids and incomes, viz. from the ſeveral provinces of North Holland, Zeland, and Groningen, a ſubſidy of 38,000 florins per annum: a duty of 3 per cent. on all goods and merchandize exported to, or imported from,

any

any place between Newfoundland and Cape Florida: a duty of 2 per cent. on all goods and merchandize exported to, or imported from, any place on the continent of America from Cape Florida to the river Oroonoko, including Curaſſo; both which are computed to amount to 100,000 florins per annum: a duty of five guilders per laſt on all ſhips trading to Cuba, Hiſpaniola, Jamaica, Porto Rico, and other Caribbee Iſlands, or to any place from the river Oroonoko to the Streights of Magellan and La Maire, and from thence to the Streights of Anian, computed at 3000 florins per annum: one third part of the net income of the colony at Surinam, computed at 10,000 florins per annum: the clear profits of the colony of Iſacape, computed at 20,000 florins per annum: and all the profits ariſing from the captures and licences which they are authorized to make upon, or to grant to, ſuch Portugueze ſhips as come upon the coaſt from Liſbon or Brazil for negroes, valued at 100,000 florins per annum, making in the whole 271,600 florins, or about 25,000 l. ſterling per annum, communibus annis.

Now as it is evident, from the ſuccinct hiſtory we have given of this trade, that the recovery of it out of the dangerous and precarious ſtate and condition to which it was reduced about the year 1660, is wholly and ſolely owing to the care which the company took, and to the charge and expence which they were at for many years together, in building and maintaining a proper number of forts and caſtles on the coaſt of Africa; it is apparent, that the ſafety and preſervation of our trade to Africa, againſt the pretenſions and incroachments of ſuch nations as are ſtrongly ſettled in thoſe parts, depends abſolutely upon our keeping up and maintaining the ſaid company's forts and caſtles on the ſame coaſt in a defenſible condition.

This point, therefore, being thus eſtabliſhed upon the ſtrongeſt evidence that matters of this nature are capable of, the next thing that remains to be conſidered is, Since forts and caſtles on the coaſt of Africa are abſolutely neceſſary for the preſervation of that trade to this kingdom, and ſince it has been free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, it was but juſt and equitable that the public ſhould have ſupported thoſe forts and ſettlements.

While the company enjoyed the whole and ſole trade to Africa, they purchaſed, built, and maintained their ſaid forts and caſtles at their own ſole coſt and charge, and thereby acquired an undoubted right and property in and to them. The charges of keeping them from the year 1672 to the year 1698, was not leſs, according to the company's accounts, than 15,000 l. per ann. which, in 26 years, amounts to the ſum of 390,000 l. The charges for the next 14 years, viz. from 1698 to 1712, at 20,000 l. per annum, deducting the amount of the duty which the ſeparate traders paid in the ſame time, came to about 206,000 l. And the charges which the company were at on the ſame account, for the ſucceeding 17 years, reckoning but 15,000 l. per annum, comes to 255,000 l. which three ſums make together the ſum of 851,000 l. And ſo much, at leaſt, the company repreſented that they had expended in keeping and maintaining their ſaid forts and caſtles ſince the commencement of their charter; and that, excluſive of many other neceſſary articles of expence, which might be brought in, if they had a mind to ſwell the account. Now, although the company did willingly and chearfully bear the expence of the firſt period, becauſe nothing had been done by public authority in all that time to deprive them of any of their privileges; although they continued to keep and ſupport their ſaid forts and caſtles for the next ſucceeding 14 years, in hopes that the duty of 10 per cent. upon their own and the ſeparate traders exports to Africa would have fully defrayed that charge, as the parliament undoubtedly intended it ſhould; and although the company, for the preſervation of their own property, as well as for the protection of the trade, continued to keep up and maintain their forts and caſtles for 17 years after, at their own ſole coſt and charge; whereby they expended in the ſervice of their country above 250,000 l. yet, while the trade to Africa remained free and open to all others his majeſty's ſubjects, there was no reaſon why the company ſhould be obliged to keep and maintain the ſaid forts and caſtles at their own ſole coſt and charge.

Accordingly, in the year 1730, the company petitioned the parliament, and they obtained 10,000 l. to enable them to ſupport their forts and ſettlements; which ſum was annually continued to them, except two or three years interruption, 'till the laſt change made in the ſtate of this company, by an act of parliament made in the year 1751, intitled,

An act for the application of a ſum of money therein mentioned, granted to his majeſty, for making compenſation and ſatisfaction to the royal African company of England, for their charter, lands, forts, caſtles, ſlaves, military ſtores, and all other their effects whatſoever; and to veſt the lands, forts, caſtles, ſlaves, and military ſtores, and all other their effects, in the company of merchants trading to Africa, and for other purpoſes in the act mentioned.

By this act the ſaid company were diveſted of their charter, and, after the 10th of April, 1752, ceaſed to be a corporation, and their forts, caſtles, and all other their poſſeſſions in Africa, are veſted in the new company of merchants trading to Africa; and, in conſequence of the trade to Africa being, by virtue of the ſaid act, and that alſo of the 23d of Geo. II, made free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects, the parliament allow the ſaid company 10,000 l. per annum for the ſupport of the forts and caſtles for the public ſervice.

REMARKS.

Thus have we given a brief and faithful hiſtory of the beginning and end of the late African corporation; upon which I ſhall take leave to make the following queries:

1. Whether ſo extenſive and populous a country as Africa is, will not admit of a far more extenſive and profitable trade to Great-Britain than it yet ever has done?
2. Whether the people of this country, notwithſtanding their colour, are not capable of being civilized, as well as thoſe of many other have been; and whether the primitive inhabitants of all countries, ſo far as we have been able to trace them, were not once as ſavage and inhumanized as the negroes of Africa; and whether the antient Britons themſelves, of this our own country, were not once upon a level with the Africans?
3. Whether, therefore, there is not a probability that thoſe people might, in time, by proper management exerciſed by the Europeans, become as wiſe, as induſtrious, as ingenious, and as humane, as the people of any other country has done?
4. Whether their rational faculties are not, in the general, equal to thoſe of any other of the human ſpecies; and whether they are not, from experience, as capable of mechanical and manufactural arts and trades as even the bulk of the Europeans?
5. Whether it would not be more to the intereſt of all the European nations concerned in the trade to Africa, rather to endeavour to cultivate a friendly, humane, and civilized commerce with thoſe people, into the very center of their extended country, than to content themſelves only with ſkimming a trifling portion of trade upon the ſea-coaſt of Africa. See our article EAST-INDIA COMPANY.
6. Whether the greateſt hindrance and obſtruction to the Europeans cultivating a humane and Chriſtian-like commerce with thoſe populous countries, has not wholly proceeded from that unjuſt, inhumane, and unchriſtain-like traffic called the SLAVE TRADE, which is carried on by the Europeans?
7. Whether this trade, and this only, was not the primary cauſe, and ſtill continues to be the chief cauſe, of thoſe eternal and inceſſant broils, quarrels, and animoſities, which ſubſiſt between the negro princes and chiefs; and, conſequently, of thoſe eternal wars which ſubſiſt among them, and which they are induced to carry on, in order to make priſoners of one another, for the ſake of the ſlave trade?
8. Whether, if trade was carried on with them for a ſeries of years, as it has been with other countries that have not been leſs barbarous, and the Europeans gave no encouragement whatever to the ſlave-trade, thoſe cruel wars among the Blacks would not ceaſe, and a fair and honourable commerce in time take place throughout the whole country?
9. Whether the example of the Dutch in the Eaſt-Indies, who have civilized innumerable of the natives, and brought them to the European way of cloathing, &c. does not give reaſonable hopes, that theſe ſuggeſtions are not viſionary, but founded on experience, as well as on humane and Chriſtian-like principles?
10. Whether commerce in general has not proved the great means of gradually civilizing all nations, even the moſt ſavage and brutal; and why not the Africans?.
11. Whether the territories of thoſe European nations that are intereſted in the colonies and plantations in America, are not populous enough, or may not be rendered ſo, by proper encouragement given to intermarriages amongſt them, and to the breed of foundling infants, to ſupply their reſpective colonies with labourers, in the place of negro ſlaves?
12. Whether the Britiſh dominions in general have not at preſent an extent of territory ſufficient to increaſe and multiply their inhabitants; and whether it is not their own fault that they do not increaſe them ſufficiently to ſupply their colonies and plantations with Whites inſtead of Blacks.

How the trade to the moſt interior parts of Africa may be extended for the benefit of Great-Britain, ſee particularly the article EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

An ACCOUNT of the caſtle ſlaves, canoe men, military ſtores, canoes, and veſſels, belonging to the late Royal African Company of England, at their ſeveral forts on the coaſt of Africa, according to the ſurveys made by the order of Tho. Pye, Eſq; commander of his majeſty's ſhip Humber, in the year 1749; and which are delivered up to the preſent new company of merchants trading to Africa, according to the act of parliament of 1751.

Names of Ports.	Caſtle ſlaves.	No	Guns.	Pound.	Where mounted.	Shot.	No	Powder.	Muſquets.	No.	Military ſtores.	No	Veſſels.	No.
CAPE COAST CASTLE.	Carpenters —	10	12	12				lb	Muſquets —	23	Bayonets —	23	Lively	
			2	9	On the platform.	Different ſizes	4616	3000 damaged.	At Queen Anne's Point.	4	Swords —	19	ſchooner —	
	Blackſmiths —	7	10	3							Cartouch-boxes	20	A launch —	
			5	1							Halberts —	6	Seventeen	
	Armourers —	3	4	9	On the S E baſtion.						Bells —	26	hand canoe	1
	Brickmakers -	3	2	6							Drums —	6	13 Hand ditto	1
	Bricklayers —	9	2	9	On the S W round baſtion.						Daggers —	2	11 Hand ditto	1
	Gunner —	1	4	6							Partizans —	2	9 Hand ditto	1
	Goldſmiths —	3	5	6	On the N W baſtion.								5 Hand ditto	1
	Slaves cooks —	2	5	1	On the N E baſtion.									
			1	3										
	Chief cooks —	3												
			3	9										
	Doctors ſervants —	2	2	6	On Greenhill-Point.									
	Coopers —	3	1	4										
			2	3										
	Chapel ſervants —	7												
			1	6	Braſs on the parade.									
	Gold-takers —	2												
			3	4	In the ſpur unſerviceable.									
	Men —	137	1	3										
	Canoe men —	20	1	3	Braſs on the lieutenants room									
	Women —	79												
	Children —	76	3	12	At Fort Royal, diſmounted and nailed up.									
			2	9										
			3	6										
			1	2	At Phipps tower, carriages broke, &c.									
COMMENDA.			7	3	S W baſtion.	From 9 pounders to 2 pounders —	800	Powder 390 lb	Muſquets —	6	Granado ſhells	42	13 Hand canoe	1
	Bomb boy —	1	2	4					Bayonets —	6	Formers —	6	7 Hand ditto	1
			2	2					Cartouch-boxes —	10	Copper ladles	2	5 Hand ditto	1
	Sawyers —	10	3	3	S E baſtion.						Swords —	6	3 Hand ditto	1
	Women —	6	2	6					Buccaneer-guns —	9	Fathom 2½ in rope —	30		
			1	4										
	Children —	5							Danes guns —	30	Lead ball —	538 lb.		
			1	9							Gun flints —	347		
			2	4							Iron bars —	3		
			3	3										
SUCCONDEE.	Men —	5	1	9	N baſtion.	From 2 pounders to 6 pounders —	360	None.	Muſquets. —	6	Powder-horns-	2	11 Hand canoe	1
			3	4							Priming-wires	13	3 Hand ditto	1
	Women —	2	2	3							Braſs ladles —	2		
			3	4	W baſtion						Worms —	7		
	Children —	3									Country match	40 fath.		
			1	5							Coehorn —	1		
			2	4	S baſtion						Bayonets —	6		
			1	2							Swords —	6		
			3	3										
			7	2	E baſtion									
			2	4										
			3	6										
			1	9	N E curtain									
			1	5										
DICK'S COVE.	Sawyers —	4	8	3	S platform	Different ſizes from 3 to 6 pounders —	150	104 lb.	Muſquets —	6	Copper ladles	2	5 Hand canoes	
	Carpenters —	4	1	4							Worms —	6	2 Hand ditto	
	Smiths —	4	3	3	N E baſtion						Formers —	3		
	Maſons —	2	2	6							Match —	50 lb.		
	For all uſes —	43	5	4	S W baſtion.						Muſquet-ball -	3		
			2	4	S E baſtion						Swords —	6		
	Sick —	5	ſwiv	10	S W platform						Bayonets —	6		
			3	4	N W baſtion						Cartouch-boxes -	6		
											Halbert —	1		
TANTUMQUERRY.	Men —	6	2	4		From 1 pounder to 9 pounders.	241	3 C wt	Danes guns —	6	Granadoes —	30	None.	
			1	1	S E baſtion				Cutlaſſes —	3	Copper ladles	1		
	Women —	4	1	9							Worms —	5		
			3	4	S W baſtion.						Country match	20 fath.		
			2	4	N E baſtion						Powder-horn -	1		
			2	1										
			1	4										
			1	4	S W baſtion									
			1	2										
			1	1										
			2	4	Unſerviciable in the tower.									
			1	4	N. B. All hardly fit for uſe.									

Names

Names of Ports.	Caſtle ſlaves.	No	Guns.	Pound.	Where mounted.	Shot.	No	Powder.	Muſquets.	No	Military ſtores.	No	Veſſels.	No
WINNEBAH.	Men ——	8	2	3	S E baſtion.	From 3 pounders to 6 pounders.	197	2C wt	Muſquets with bayonets and ſlings ——	5	Hand granadoes ——	8	None.	
	Women ——	5	1	4							All ſorts of military ſtores wanting:			
			1	8										
			1	6	S W baſtion.				Swords ——	5				
			2	4										
			1	8	N E baſtion.									
			1	3										
			1	4	NW baſtion.									
			3	3	Platform									
			2	3	Over the gate.									
ACCRA.	Men ——	7	3	6	N W baſtion	From 1 pounder to 9 pounders —	600	5 C wt	Muſquets ——	6	Hand granadoes ——	50	7 Hand Canoes	1
			1	9									5 Hand ditto	1
	Women ——	15	2	4							Sponges ——	3	3 Hand ditto	1
	Children ——	4	2	6	N E baſtion						Worms ——	8		
	Canoe men —	6	3	4							Copper ladles	1		
			1	9	S W baſtion									
			3	4										
			2	3	S E baſtion									
			2	4										
			8	6	Platform									
			6	3										
WHYDAH.	Men ——	33	7	3	S W baſtion	From 2 pounders to 9 pounders —	380	240 lb.	Muſquets ——	56	Copper ladles	6	11 Hand canoe, bad	1
	Women ——	46	2	4					Blunderbuſſes	5	Worms ——	2		
			2	2										
	Children ——	27												
			3	3	S E baſtion.									
			2	6										
	Canoe men —	12	1	4										
			1	9										
			2	4	N E baſtion.									
			3	3										
			7	3										
			2	6	NW baſtion.									
			2	4										
			1	4	Parade.									
JAMES ISLAND, GAMBIA.	Sawyers ——	4	5	6	N W baſtion, one of the 4 pounders out of repair.	Of ſeveral different ſizes	900	Barrels No 12. Muſquet cartridges, filled, 200.	Muſquets in very bad repair ——	48	Match ——	0	Sloops 20 tons each, and 5 guns	2
	Carpenters —	4	2	4					Coehorns ——	2	Hand-ſpikes -	17		
											Rammer heads	9		
	Smiths ——	4	4	6	N E baſtion						Cordage ——	0	Long boats —	4
					S E baſtion, the 4 pounders very bad, and 2 guns wanting.						Iron Crows —	0	Canoes ——	6
	Maſons ——	2	5	6										
	For all uſes —	43	1	4										
	Sick ——	5	5	6	S W baſtion, 1 gun wanting.									
			1	4										
			4	24	N Half-moon.									
			1	12										
			3	9	W Half-moon.									
			2	24										
			15	0	Swivels unmounted.									
			8	0	Not fit for uſe.									

N. B. The gun carriages in good repair, the trunks moſt of them iron; but in want of all military ſtores, except what is mentioned under that article.

REMARKS.

From this view of the forts and ſettlements belonging to Great-Britain on the coaſt of Africa, and now veſted in the company of merchants trading thereto, a judgment may be made of our ſtrength there, when compared with that of other European nations, who have forts and ſettlements upon the ſame coaſt.

That our readers may have all deſirable ſatisfaction upon this head, we ſhall now give an account of the forts and ſettlements in Africa, which belong to other European powers who have a ſhare in this commerce.

1. The northermoſt ſettlement is that at Arguin, on the Gum-Coaſt, in the latitude of 20 degrees north, formerly belonging to the king of Pruſſia, for which, in the late queen's time, on occaſion of an overture made by the ſaid king to diſpoſe of that and another ſmall fort at Cape Three Points, which is afterwards mentioned, to this nation, he demanded for them 200,000 crowns; but they have ſince been purchaſed of him by the Dutch, for 30,000 l. ſterling. And afterwards taken by the French in 1721, and now in their poſſeſſion.

2. The river Senegal, in the latitude of 16 degrees north, where the French have ſeveral very conſiderable forts, ſettlements, and plantations, for a great many miles up the river.

3. The Iſland Goree, a little ſouthward of Cape de Verde where the French are likewiſe ſettled, and have a very ſtrong caſtle.

4. Cutcheo and Biſſeo, two Portugueze ſettlements, lying in 12 degrees north latitude.

5. Ancobra, the firſt European factory on the Gold-Coaſt, belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company.

6. Axim, about one league to the eaſtward of Ancobra, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company.

7. Frederickſburg, at Cape Three Points, about five leagues to the eaſtward of Axim, a fort formerly belonging to the king of Pruſſia; lately ſold by him, together with that at Arguin, before-mentioned, to the Dutch, for 30,000 l. afterwards taken and demoliſhed by the natives, and lately recovered out of their hands, at the expence of a long and chargeable war, and now reſettled by the Dutch Weſt-India company.

8. Butteroe, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about eleven leagues eaſtward of Cape Three Points.

9. Tacquerado, a factory-houſe belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about three leagues eaſtward of Butteroe.

10. Succundee, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about three leagues eaſtward of Tacquerado.

11. Shumah, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about four leagues to the eaſtward of Succundee.

12. Commenda, a fort belonging to the ſaid company, about five leagues eaſtward of Shumah, and within gun-ſhot of an Engliſh fort.

13. St George del Mina, the principal fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, on the Gold-Coaſt, about four leagues eaſtward of Commenda.

14. St Jago, a fort on the top of a hill, within gun-ſhot of St George del Mina, belonging to the ſame company.

15. Mourea, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about four leagues to the eaſtward of St George del Mina.

16. Cormantine, a fort built by the Engliſh, and, in the war in 1665, taken by the Dutch, and now belonging to the

Dutch Weſt-India company, about five leagues to the eaſtward of Mourea.

17. Apong, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about ten leagues to the eaſtward of Cormantine.

18. Borracoe, a fort belonging to the Dutch Weſt-India company, about eleven leagues to the eaſtward of Apong.

19. Acra, a fort belonging to the king of Denmark about two miles to the eaſtward of the Dutch fort.

20. St Loango St Paul's, in the latitude of 10 degrees ſouth, where the Portugueze have ſeveral forts and ſettlements, and a large city; and thereby carry on a very great and advantageous inland trade for ſome hundreds of miles.

By this account of the forts and ſettlements of other nations, we cannot doubt a moment of the high value they ſet upon the trade to Africa, and with what care, induſtry, and expence they have laboured to gain and ſecure to themſelves a ſhare therein.

See our new and correct MAP of the coaſt of Africa, from Cape Blanco, latitude 20 degrees 40 minutes north, to the coaſt of Angola, latitude 11 degrees ſouth, where the ſettlements belonging to the ſeveral European powers are delineated according to their ſituation, with the flags of the reſpective countries to which they belong. Upon the ſame ſheet alſo, we have given a ſeparate correct map of the GOLD-COAST upon a larger ſcale. And, in our large map of the coaſt of Africa, we repreſent the great encroachments that the French, when this work was firſt publiſhed, made on our trade to Africa in general, and upon the GUM-COAST in particular.

REMARKS.

But by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, article IX. "His moſt chriſtian majeſty cedes, in full right, and quarantees to the king of Great-Britain, the river SENEGAL, with the FORTS and FACTORIES of ST LEWIS, PODOR, and GALAM; and with all the rights and dependencies of the ſaid river SENEGAL."

By means of this acquiſition in AFRICA, added to our other antient ſettlements upon that coaſt Great-Britain at preſent has it in her power more than ever ſhe had, to prevent any future encroachments of the French, or any other ſtate upon the commerce of Africa; and more eſpecially ſo, if that whole commerce ſhould be put upon a more ſtable, permanent, and extenſive footing, in order to enlarge and extend the INLAND-TRADE of that part of the world, by a propoſition for that purpoſe, or ſome thing ſimilar thereto, which I have ſuggeſted under the article EAST-INDIA COMPANY. See EAST-INDIA COMPANY. For by the laſt peace, a better foundation is laid to carry DESIGNS of that kind into execution, with far leſs obſtruction than when we ſuffered the French to monopolize the gum trade, and the whole commerce of the river Senegal to themſelves, and uſurp the right to trade for the beſt negroes to ANNAMABOE, and other places on the African coaſt, under the very noſe of our beſt Britiſh forts and caſtles there.—And this that rival nation was ſuffered to do for above theſe 30 years paſt with impunity, to the eternal ignominy of this kingdom, and thoſe who had the adminiſtration of public affairs, during that long period of time.—Yet theſe men dare at preſent to dub themſelves friends to the Britiſh nation, when they moſt ſhamefully neglected the care and protection of it's trade in general, as appears throughout this work. By their diſregard to the Britiſh African trade in particular, they ſuffered France to ſtock all their ſugar colonies, with the very beſt of negroes to be had on the coaſt, by encroachments on our rights of trade there, whereby they raiſed their SUGAR COLONIES to the pitch they were before the definitive treaty, and by that means ſupplanted us almoſt in the whole ſugar trade of Europe, to the unſpeakable emolument of France, and proportionate detriment of theſe kingdoms. See AMERICA for the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

ENGRAFFING. In order to purſue the art of engraffing to the beſt advantage, our garden ought to be ſtored with ſtocks of all ſorts; that is, with ſuch as are pomiferous, or apple-bearing; pruniferous, or plumb-bearing; bacciferous, or berry-bearing; nuciferous, or nut-bearing; glandiferous, or maſt-bearing; and ſiliquiferous, or cod-bearing; becauſe we may ſometimes meet with that which will only be increaſed by graffing; and, as moſt trees fall under one or other of theſe claſſes, ſo our nurſeries ſhould be provided with ſtocks of theſe ſeveral ſorts, that we may graff the apple-bearing upon the apple-bearing, and the pruniferous upon the pruniferous, and ſo on.

The wildings, which are engraffed on, are called the ſtock, and the twig, or ſhoot, which we are to engraff upon the ſtock, is called the cyon, or graff; every cyon or graff, when it is rightly diſpoſed on the ſtock, according to art, will take root in the ſtock, and retain the virtues of it's mother plant.

Some ſort of plants will more readily join by eneying, or inoculating, than by graffing; and there are others which will not take by either of theſe ways, but by inarching only: again, there are ſome which will only join by approaching; all which we ſhall conſider, obſerving, by the way, that nature gives us large liberties in graffing ſuch, as that we may graff apples upon pears, or pears upon apples, and both theſe upon the common white thorn, upon which, alſo we may graff medlars, the lazeoli and ſervices; and upon the graffs we may alſo graff the quince: all theſe may be made to grow upon one tree by whip-graffing, or by cleft-graffing, or ſtock-graffing, or by inoculating, eneying, or budding.

So the pruniferous fruits, ſuch as peaches, nectarines, apricots, cherries of all ſorts, and plumbs of all ſorts, may be budded upon plumbs, or upon one another; and what ſeems extraordinary, is, that the lauro-cerafus, which is our common laurel and ever-green, may be inoculated upon the cherry and the plumb, and be made a companion for all thoſe of the pruniferous race. By this we may obſerve, that theſe graffs, or buds, are ſo many plants of different kinds, which grow upon one plant; which is like one certain ſort of ſoil, wherein we find growing many plants of different ſorts; but we muſt obſerve, that one kind will proſper better than another.

The firſt ſort of graffing we ſhall mention, is that which is called whip-graffing, or rind graffing: this is performed by paring off part of the bark on one ſide of the ſtock, either after we have cut off the head of the ſtock, or elſe while the head remains on the ſtock, for it is done both ways: if we cut off the head of the ſtock, then the bark we take off muſt leave the wood bare about an inch and half from the place where the head is cut off downwards towards the root, and as wide as the cyon which we deſign to join to it; then we muſt, with our knife, ſlit the ſtock down from a little below the place where the head is cut off, guiding it with the grain of the wood, 'till we have made a tongue on the ſide of the ſtock where the bark is pared off, about an inch long; this being done, we are next to pare off the bark from one ſide of the cyon, and then with our knife make a tongue in the wood of the cyon, of ſuch a length as may fit exactly with that in the ſtock; which, when we have placed together, ſo that the barks of both the cyon and ſtock join, we muſt tie them faſt with baſs, and cover all the wounded part with fine loam, well mixed with cow-dung; or elſe we may cover the wounded part with the following mixture, viz.

To four ounces of bees-wax add as much tallow, and when theſe are melted together, add about an ounce and a half of roſin; which muſt be uſed, when it is blood-warm with a ſoft bruſh; then we need not tie the cyon and the ſtock together, for theſe coverings are only deſigned to keep the air and the wet from the wounded part 'till they are united, which they ſoon will be, if the tongues of the ſtock and the cyon are well wedged into one another.

When this ſort of graffing is uſed without cutting off the head of the ſtock, the bark is then taken from the ſtock in any ſmooth part of a ſhoot, i. e. between the buds, and, fitting the cyon to it as before with tongues, the wounded part is covered with ſome of the aforementioned graffing-wax. This laſt operation may be done when the ſap is in it's higheſt fluences; but the firſt muſt be done juſt before the buds begin to ſhoot.

Cleft-graffing, or ſtock-graffing, is performed by cutting off the head of the ſtock, and then with the knife ſlitting the ſtock downwards an inch or two, in proportion to the bigneſs of it, and of the cyon to be put into it; then the bottom part of the cyon is cut wedge-wiſe, of the ſame width with the ſlit, and ſo place the cyon in the opening we have made in the ſtock, that the bark of the ſtock and the cyon both join or match with one another.

If the ſtock happens to be very large, as ſometimes it is in this kind of graffing, ſuch as an old tree ſawed off, which may meaſure, perhaps, three feet in the girt, then we muſt be forced to open the places where we are to fix our graffs, with chiſſels, and keep them ſo open with wedges 'till the graffs are fixed to your mind: in ſuch ſtocks, three or four graffs may be placed, but two are ſufficient, if you could be ſure they would all take.

In Worceſterſhire it is common enough to graff apples this way, with cyons, which meaſure about five inches in the girt, and they proſper very well; but it muſt be obſerved, that the cyons may be larger if they are of trees that have tender wood, than if they are of a hard wood. When this is done, lay on ſome of the graffing wax, as before directed, ſo as to cover all the wounded parts of the ſtock and cyon. In this caſe, where the ſtock is large, there is vegetable matter enough in it to feed the cyons to good advantage; ſo that the third year they will produce extraordinary large fruits, though, before the old head was cut from it, the fruit was hardly bigger than hazle nuts. Here is another example of a tree growing upon a tree; and, as the cleft-graffing is practicable upon the oldeſt trees, ſo it is to be done upon plants which are not above three months old from the ſeed. The method is, when orange-trees are raiſed from their ſeed, that, as ſoon as you find they have got a ſtalk about three quarters of an inch above the ear-leaves, you cut off the top, and, making an inciſion croſs that ſtalk, bear your knife downwards towards the part where the ear-leaves join with it, and then chuſing a tender ſhoot of a bearing tree, that will match with the ſtock, you cut the bottom of it in the manner of a wedge, and place it

ſt as before obſerved, ſo that the barks may join, and then apply ſome of the graffing-wax warm, with a fine painting bruſh. This operation may be performed all the ſummer long.

The ſureſt way of graffing is that of inarching, or inlaying the young ſhoots of one tree into another; for here, if the part which acts as a cyon does not happen to join with the ſtock, it may ſtill remain on the tree. To perform this, you muſt have a collection of ſtocks in pots, that, when you have any particular tree which you have a mind to increaſe, you may bring the ſtock to it; and then, cutting off the head of the ſtock, you chuſe out ſuch a ſhoot of the valuable tree, as may, with the moſt eaſe, be brought down to the ſtock; then both theſe muſt be ordered with tongues, as in the whip-graffing, only you muſt leave that part which is to act as a cyon, to join with the tree in ſuch a manner, that it may be well fed with the juices of the tree: to do which, you ſhould cut the tongue of the graff half way only through the ſhoot. Being thus ordered, you are to tie the two joining parts very cloſe, and cover them with a mixture of loam and cow-dung, taking care to ſecure the inlaid branch from flying from the ſtock, which ſometimes it will do, if it is not well ſecured by ſtrings and ſticks: for though this is a work to be done in the ſummer, when the plants have their ſap in the greateſt fluency, yet the mildeſt ſummer is not without it's ſtorms. Some plants, it ſhould be obſerved, muſt remain thus joined 'till the ſecond year, before they are cut from the bearing, or the deſired plant; eſpecially thoſe whoſe enarched ſhoots are of a more hardy or woody nature; but, where you can inarch green ſhoots, ſuch as thoſe of oranges or lemons, if you perform this work in May, you may cut them off in Auguſt, if you find they have taken hold of the ſtocks.

When you have cut out plants from the mother-tree, you muſt ſet them immediately in ſome place of ſhelter, where the winds may not get at them, otherwiſe the new heads, which are tenderly joined, will be ſubject to break from the ſtocks; or, if the ſtocks be growing in the natural ground, then, when you cut the young inarch from the tree, you muſt be careful to guard them well with ſtakes.

'The art of graffing in the cleft conſiſts, ſays Agricola, in taking a ſecond graff, and placing it in the cut of a branch or ſtock of a young tree. This manner is generally known; yet there are many gardeners who, out of twenty graffs, have eighteen fail. They will ſay, perhaps, they have an unlucky hand; but I ſay rather they have an unſkilful hand, which he experienced to his coſt. But at length, ſays he, I have found out one that never fails. He cuts off the head of the wild ſtock very ſhort, or very near the earth, and takes, for that purpoſe, a cyon that has ſhot out well that year, and, after having carefully ſmoothed the ſurface of the trunk, then, with a pruning-knife, he makes a gaſh from north to ſouth, and cuts the graff juſt in the joint, whether it be a branch of two or three years old, or a long ſhoot of the ſame year, and makes the intail on each ſide near the bud.

It is beſt to cut the graff on both ſides, as we cut a pen, a little ſlanting, taking great care not to do the leaſt hurt to the pith; and obſerving not to make the cut too far in; for the deeper the wound in the tree is, the more difficult it is to cure. It is ſtrange that ſome people make great wounds in trees, the effect ever ſhewing them to be in the wrong. We muſt likewiſe take care in fixing the graff in the wild ſtock, that the bark of the one anſwers exactly to the bark of the other, for ſo the ſap riſes the better into the graff. All this being done, we muſt cover the whole with graffing-wax, which is generally known; but it's compoſition is different. My gardener took half a pound of common pitch, a quarter of a pound of wax, and half an ounce of the oil of almonds: theſe he melted together over a fire, and, when the compoſition was well mixed, he made long rolls of it, to keep for uſe; but, if it was made in ſpring or autumn, he put a moderate quantity of terpentine to it. After having covered the cleft with it, he put a double paper, or linnen, over the top of the tree, tying it gently with baſs, eſpecially on ſtone fruit-trees; and, to hinder the too great preſſure, he put on each ſide of the cleft a narrow ſlip of the bark.

There is a method of graffing two or three times upon one another, which is a good way, and is called reiterated graffing, or the double or treble inciſion. This operation is thus performed: they firſt graff a good cyon on a wild ſtock; this they cut away to the half or a third part, and fix another graff on it, of a better kind, and on that another; for, the oftener a tree is ingraffed, the finer fruit it produces: in this manner muſcat pears have been cultivated of an exquiſite flavour.

I took from my orchard a ſtock graffed with the pound-pear, whereon I graffed a good ſummer bon chrétien; when this branch had ſhot, I graffed a cyon of the bergamot on it, which I alſo cut, and graffed upon it a cyon of the muſcat pear, which has given me great ſatisfaction. I uſed alſo to graff in the ſplint or intail, which is propereſt for large, wild, and unfruitful trees, that have a ſtock of a foot or two diameter; this is done in the manner following: cut off the head of the tree, leaving the trunk only half a man's height from the

foot; then ſmooth the top with a knife; after which, divide the ſtock into ſix, ſeven, or as many more parts as you deſign graffs; which, when you have marked out, take a good knife, and with a mallet ſtrike it on the marked place, through the bark into the wood; then withdraw your knife, and make an inciſion againſt it on the other ſide, ſo as to reſemble an angle; then take a graff an inch thick, and cut it alſo at the bottom on both ſides angle-wiſe; then fix it in the great ſtock, ſo as the wood may fit with the wood, and the bark with the bark. You may make an intail over it, ſo as to hold them together: when this is done, you muſt take care to cement the top, and tie it, as it ought, with baſs. This is a diverting, though troubleſome operation; but, when all the graffs take, they will pay very well for your trouble. There is alſo another manner of graffing, which is called ingraffing of branches. This is a very certain and profitable operation, and is beſt practiſed on large well-grown trees, and even upon the old, with great ſatisfaction. In this caſe, you muſt not diveſt the tree of all it's branches at once, but only lop off the half, which is enough at firſt; for, if we take away all, we find that the volatile ſap, which circulates vigorouſly towards the top, will choak the tree by it's ſuperabundance. When the branches are well prepared for the purpoſe, we make uſe of graffs of three or four years old, and take care to ſupport them with ſtakes, to prevent any inconveniency from the wind, or otherwiſe: you will have perhaps, the ſame year, or the ſecond or third, ſuch a quantity of fruit as the youngeſt and ſoundeſt trees would hardly produce.

When I had ſufficiently examined this manner, a curioſity ſeized me of trying another method. In the month of February I took up ſeveral wild ſtocks, which were freſh and ſound, and, after lopping off their heads, I ingraffed them in the ordinary manner; then I put them in the cellar in pots of ſand, and took a requiſite care of them; they begun then to revive and grow, and to ſhoot out gradually. In April I brought them by degrees into the air, and then they begun to bloom apace, and in May they were in full flower.

Being deſirous to proceed ſtill further, I looked into ſeveral treatiſes of gardening; and, among other methods for the improvement of trees, I found one which is called graffing in the bark. In this operation you do not cut the ſtock as in the ordinary manner; but only thruſt the graff between the wood and the bark: this is moſt proper for kernel-fruits. I take a ſound graff of one, two, or three years old, and at the bottom, near a bud, I make an inciſion with a graffing-knife, but not ſo deep as to hurt the pith; then I cut the reſt of the wood, pointing towards the bottom, a knot's length, but only on one ſide, in ſuch a manner as not to injure the inner green rind. Whether the aperture between the wood and the bark ſhould be made on the north or eaſt ſide, is what I will not determine at preſent; yet I have found this a very good way too, and have made an inciſion in the bark near the top, as long as the graff required: then opening the inciſion with a little ivory graffing-knife, with a good edge, I there thruſt in the prepared graff, ſo as that the place where it's bark was peeled off was turned outwards, and joined to the bark of the ſtock. This place muſt be covered with graffing-wax, and the whole bound up with the baſs. Nevertheleſs, you muſt put on both ſides, between the ligature, a bit of looſe bark, that it may bind the tighter; for, if they do not preſs cloſely one upon the other, there grows a kind of callus or excreſcence, which not only deforms the whole tree, but is a great prejudice to its growth.

Though this method gave me a great deal of pleaſure, yet ſtill I was not ſatisfied, but was earneſt to diſcover ſome other better ways of improvement. To this end I viſited, from time to time, the fine country-ſeats at Kumpfmuhl, a little village a quarter of a league from Ratiſbon, where we ſometimes find very extraordinary gardeners. Among others, I found one occupied in inarching a lemon-tree, which he did in the following manner: he placed a wild lemon-tree in a pot, near a fruitful one, towards which he inclined it a little; then he choſe a ſound branch of the bearing tree, and bowed it towards the wild one, to ſee whether it would match well with it as to height and thickneſs. Having found all right to his mind, he cut the wild ſtock ſloping juſt under the crown, and ſmoothed it well with his graffing-knife; then he ſlit the ſtock, as the cuſtom is in common graffing, and placed the crooked branch only at the entrance of the gap, ſo as the barks bound cloſely one upon another, and the branch ſtood upright.

Before this, he had cut the branch a little on both ſides (where the inſertion was to be made) from the bark to the wood; afterwards he bound up the graffed place as in the ordinary way, and, ſetting up a ſtick near it, he tied the ſtock to it, that it might not be hurt by the ſhaking of the wind. As ſoon as the branch began to ſhoot a-new (which happens commonly in leſs than ſix months) and that he found the graff to be well joined, he cut it from the bearing tree, and left the young graff to feed only upon the wild ſtock. This is a very pretty way, and is infallible, inaſmuch as the wild ſtock contributes jointly with the bearing tree towards an abundant nutrition, 'till the graff has taken.

The ſame gardener took an occaſion, while I was with him, of ſpeaking of a multiplication by union, which he thus performed. He placed a wild orange ſtock near a fruitful tree, and, after having picked out a ſound branch of each, and cut a little of the bark and wood from each of them, about two or three inches in length, in the place where they were to embrace, or be joined together, he cloſed them ſtrictly one upon the other, each remaining upon it's tree, and then plaiſtered them with graffing-wax, and tied them. In this manner the branches grew one within another; and, when he ſaw they were perfectly united, he cut the branch of the bearing tree, ſo that it remained joined with the wild one, which, by this means was improved. It muſt be obſerved, during this union, that, to prevent the agitation of the wind, we muſt tie the trees to ſmall ſtocks. The ſame thing may be done by fruit-trees, when they are near each other. The operation, which we may call embracing, is very like this, and is performed as follow: we put the branches croſs-wiſe, one over the other, and then make an inciſion in each branch, in proportion to the thickneſs of the branches; then we plaſter them over with graffing-wax, and bind them as before deſcribed. Though theſe two different methods cannot be uſed with reſpect to all trees, becauſe they often are at too great a diſtance one from the other, and the branches cannot be eaſily brought together, yet theſe are inventions not to be deſpiſed.'

REMARKS.

As there is no topic of more general utility and emolument than the cultivation of lands, and the improvement of the vegetable tribe; ſo nothing is more deſerviug of our aſſiduous ſtudy and contemplation, than what tends to this end. And, although many of our own countrymen, as well as foreigners, have obliged the world with ſome uſeful and curious performances upon this ſubject, yet we do not apprehend it is exhauſted; we are rather inclined to believe, that there are far more diſcoveries behind than have hitherto been made into the nature and cauſe of vegetation.

Nothing is more certain than that great improvements have been made by art in agriculture in general, within this century. Is not our own country, in particular, a glaring inſtance of the truth hereof, from the innumerable examples of exotics that have been here raiſed by practical philoſophy? Have we little more to boaſt of in regard to our natural productions than the crab? There ſeems, therefore, leſs to be owing to the climate, than to ſoil and philoſophical management; and, if ſo, it does not ſeem at all improbable, but that almoſt whatever grows in one climate, may be produced in another; and this not under cover only, and by the means of ſtoves, but generally in the open air; for if heat, and all it's efficacious qualities, can be ſo adminiſtered by art and philoſophy to the roots of vegetables, why may not the ſpices of Aſia be as well produced in Great-Britain as in the Indies? The Holy Scriptures inform us, that he who was eſteemed the wiſeſt of men, was ſo far from diſregarding a knowlege of the vegetable kingdom, that he was well acquainted with the ſame, even from the hyſſop upon the wall to the cedar of Lebanon. Theſe are only occaſional hints, which may be improved upon hereafter, to the benefit of individuals, as well as the whole kingdom.

ENGRAVING, the art of cutting metals and precious ſtones, and repreſenting thereon whatever device the artiſt pleaſes, in order to ſtrike off great numbers of the impreſſion from ſuch engraving, in a ſhort time and at a ſmall price.

Among the French, in particular, this art is divided into ſeveral branches, according to the matters whereon it is practiſed, and the manner of execution. The firſt way of engraving, on wood, is diſtinguiſhed at preſent, with us, by cutting in wood; that on metals, with aquafortis, is named etching; that by the knife, burniſher, or ſcraper, mezzotinto; that on ſtones, carving or ſtone-cutting; and that performed with the graver on metals, or precious ſtones, ſignifies that branch of engraving which we ſhall, at preſent attend to.

The principles whereon this art is grounded, are the ſame with thoſe of painting, viz. DESIGN [ſee that article] which an engraver ought to make his peculiar ſtudy; for, without that, he will neither be able to imitate the performances of the greateſt maſters in painting, nor to deſign any thing exquiſite of his own: his workmanſhip may, indeed, be delicately engraved, but will ever want that juſtneſs, that accuracy, and that ſpirit, which are the characteriſtics of a maſterly performance.

In imitating the paintings of eminent maſters, the engraver ſhould ſtudiouſly conform himſelf to the manner, taſte, and beauty of the copy, in order to preſerve that elegance of character which diſtinguiſhes the ſtile of one maſter from that of another. And, to the end that he may become familiar with the ſuperior and affecting delicacies of thoſe who have excelled, he ſhould devote himſelf to the paintings of Raphael, Caracci, Dominichino, Pouſſin, and others, and, at firſt, more particularly to the forming of the outlines of their figures.

To do which to any tolerable perfection, it is neceſſary that an engraver ſhould underſtand perſpective and architecture. The former will enable him with eaſe to throw backwards, by the natural degradations of ſtrong and faint, the figures, and other objects of the picture, or deſign he would execute; the latter will capacitate him to preſerve the due proportion of it's orders.

To execute well in this art, as well as in others, every material therein uſed ſhould be duly regarded. Thus the copper which the beſt workmen chuſe, is the red, that being eſteemed the tougheſt. Before the engraver begins to trace any thing on theſe plates, he cannot be too careful of their poliſh, and that his graver ought to be of the pureſt ſteel, well tempered for the occaſion, and never blunt.

There are in this, as in other manual arts, ſome who, at the firſt glance of their performances, ſhew an extraordinary facility, others great labour, in their workmanſhip. Of the former are Goltzius, Muler, Lucas, Kilian, and ſome others, who ſeem to diſplay more dexterity in the command of their inſtruments than juſtneſs and proportion in their outlines, the expreſſion or effect of light and ſhade. The elaborate pieces too frequently abound with infinite ſtrokes and points, and theſe often confounded together, without any ſignificant order.

In conducting the ſtrokes of the graver, care ought to be taken that they always flow freely and naturally, and that odd fantaſtical winding are avoided, which proceed rather from caprice than judgment and neceſſity: yet the contrary extreme is to be guarded againſt, which young artiſts are apt to run into, who, when they would be thought to engrave finely, make none but ſtraight ſtrokes; whereas the graver muſt be conducted according to the various riſings and cavities of the muſcles, which depends upon a knowlege in anatomy, as well as deſign.

In the repreſentation of ſculpture, the work ſhould never be made dark, becauſe as ſtatues, &c. are commonly made of white marble, or ſtone, the colour reflecting on all ſides does not produce ſuch dark ſhades as other matters.

In regard to drapery of every kind, if the diverſity of ſtuffs can be repreſented by engraving, it generally adds to the beauty of the piece. As on theſe occaſions there is a neceſſity of croſſing the ſtrokes, it ſhould be obſerved, that the ſecond, ſhould be finer than the firſt, and the third than the ſecond, it making the work appear more ſoft and mellow. Stuffs that have a luſtre ſhould be ſtruck with ſtronger and ſtraighter ſtrokes than others; for theſe being commonly of ſilk, produce flat and broken folds, which being expreſſed by one or two ſtrokes, according to the lightneſs or darkneſs of their colours, ſhould have finer ones between them. Velvet and pluſh are expreſſed in the like manner, by fine ſtrokes between others, with this difference: the firſt ſtrokes ſhould be much ſtronger than for ſtuffs, and the finer ones between them ſhould hold the ſame proportion as thoſe in ſtuffs do. Metals, as veſſels of gold and copper, or armour of poliſhed ſteel, are to be engraved alſo with fine ſtrokes, between ſtrong ones, it being the oppoſition of light and ſhade that occaſions the luſtre.

With reſpect to architecture, perſpective ſhews us, that the ſtrokes which form receding objects tend to the point of view: if a piece to be engraved contains any entire columns, it will be proper to repreſent them, as far as can poſſibly be done, by perpendicular lines; for, in croſſing them according to their roundneſs, thoſe ſtrokes which are near their capitals, being oppoſed to thoſe which are near their baſis, produce a diſagreeable effect, unleſs ſuppoſed to be at a great diſtance, which renders the object near parallel.

For landſkips. The practiſers of etching may form the outlines by it, particularly of the leaves of trees. This is ſometimes more expeditious than engraving, and does as well, provided it be done with diſcretion, not too ſtrong, and that care be taken in finiſhing it well with the graver, that the etching be imperceptible, becauſe it has not the ſoftneſs of engraving.

In repreſenting of ſteep objects, the firſt ſtrokes ſhould be frequently interrupted and broken off, the ſecond ſtraight, cutting the others with acute angles, and accompanied with long points. If you would repreſent rocks, the ſecond ſtrokes ſhould not form the angles ſo acute as for other things, flints and pebbles ſhining commonly more than other matters. The objects receding towards the horizon ſhould be touched very lightly, and charged with little ſhade, though the maſs ſhould appear dark, as it may happen from ſome ſhades, ſuppoſed to proceed from clouds intercepting the rays of the ſun; inaſmuch as theſe ſhades, however ſtrong they may appear, are always faint, compared to thoſe which are on the figures and other bodies in the forepart of the piece, on account of the diſtance and air that intervenes between the objects.

All waters are either calm, or agitated by waves, or by caſcades and rapid currents, like rivers, &c.

Calms are repreſented by ſtraight ſtrokes, running parallel with the horizon, with finer ones between them, which are to be omitted in ſome places, to make their ſhining reflection which proceeds from the water. By the ſame ſecond ſtrokes, alſo, made more or leſs ſtrong, according as the nature of things require, and ſometimes by perpendicular ones, the forms of objects, either reflected on the ſurface of the water, or advanced at a diſtance on it's banks, are repreſented: obſerving

ſerving that they are to be repreſented ſtrongly or faintly, in proportion as they approach to, or recede from, the fore part of the piece: and, if trees are to be repreſented, it ſhould be with outlines, particularly if in the fore-part of the piece, and the water clear, they being naturally ſo repreſented by the reflection of the water. Thoſe which are agitated, as are the waves of the ſea, are repreſented by ſtrokes, bending according to the agitation of the water, with finer ones between them, cutting them with very acute angles. Thoſe which fall with rapidity from rocks or precipices, are to be expreſſed by firſt ſtrokes, according to the nature of their fall, with finer ones between them, leaving the lights formed by the beams of the ſun, falling directly on them, very bright, and the more ſo, as they approach the fore-part of the piece. When the clouds appear thick and agitated, the graver ſhould be turned about, according to their form and agitation; and, if they prodece dark ſhades, which require double ſtrokes, the ſecond ſhould cut the firſt with more acute angles than in figures, becauſe it gives a certain tranſparency very proper for thoſe bodies, which are only vapours; but then the firſt ſtrokes ſhould be ſtronger than the ſecond. Flat clouds, loſing themſelves inſenſibly with the ſky, muſt be formed by ſtrokes parallel with the horizon, waved a little, according as they appear more or leſs thick; and, if it be neceſſary to uſe ſecond ſtrokes, they ſhould cut the firſt with angles more acute than the former, and the extremities of them ſhould be done with ſo light a hand, as not to form any out-line. The calm ſerene ſky ſhould be expreſſed by parallel ſtrokes, very ſtraight, without any winding.

Though all the parts of a piece of engraving may be executed according to the rules of art, yet, unleſs there be a general proportion and harmony diffuſed throughout the whole, it will not appear beautiful. Therefore,

The principal objects of a piece ſhould be wholly ſketched out before any parts of them are finiſhed. For example: if it is an hiſtorical piece, containing groupes of figures, the principal ſhould be ſo perfectly deſigned, that their expreſſion ſhould be as viſibly as if they were only intended for ſketches: for, if the engraver waits to perfect the deſigning as he finiſhes them, he will frequently miſtake, and ſometimes not be able to recover himſelf, without defacing the whole, and beginning again; which many will not do, for fear of ſpoiling the neatneſs of their engraving, wherein they have exerted their utmoſt abilities, imagining that the whole merit of an engraver conſiſts in that; which is the reaſon we ſee abundance of plates finely engraved, but without expreſſion. An engraver ſhould ſtudiouſly endeavour to join correctneſs and juſtneſs of deſign, with the neatneſs and elegancy of engraving: and not neglect the former, and place his whole merit in the engaging allurements of the latter, which frequently render his performance inſipid and lifeleſs. Nor ſhould the other extreme be run into, which would make the work faint; it ſhould, on the contrary, be ſtrong and bold; for the efficacy of a print does not conſiſt in it's darkneſs, but in the juſt degradation of light and ſhade, which ſhould be more or leſs energic, according as it approximates to, or recedes from the ſight.

On examining the works of eminent maſters, we ſhall find in the general, that they are not dark, unleſs they become ſo by length of time; they imitate nature, which is not ſo, particularly in fleſh, except in night-pieces, where the objects are repreſented as enlightened by lamps or torches.

Small works require finer and more delicate engraving than large ones; in croſſing, the ſtrokes ſhould form more acute angles, that the engraving may not appear ſtiff and heavy, notwithſtanding the figures are ſmall. If the work requires to be highly finiſhed, it ought not, for that reaſon, to be ove-laboured, but ſo artfully executed, as to appear done with facility and expedition, although it has coſt extraordinary labour and application.

When the figures are large and bold, they require ſtrong, firm, and bold ſtrokes, and thoſe to be continued and never broken off, but when the muſcles and folds make it abſolutely neceſſary; and theſe, as well as the ſmaller miniature pieces, ſhould appear to the beholder as performed unelaborately and expertly.

If the piece requires croſſing the ſtrokes (as is the caſe particularlp in the ſhades, to expreſs well the energy and harmony of a painting) they ſhould be croſſed the contrary way to that they were ſketched, and the angles formed by the ſecond ſtrokes ſhould be more acute: this contributes greatly to the neatneſs and ſpirit of a print.

There ſhould never be much too much engraving on the lights, but they ſhould be gently paſſed over, and with few ſtrokes; they ſhould be unconfined, and the half ſhadings of the artiſt which he deſires to finiſh to perfection, ſhould be very lively and bright; for, if they are very dark, they obſtruct the effect intended, as it will be difficult to find a darkneſs in the ſhades ſufficient to give them life and roundneſs: and, if the engraving is from a deſign taken from a painting, the lights and ſhades ought to be rather larger than the original; for, though it be finiſhed ever ſo highly, it is never ſo exactly done as the painting; which for that reaſon requires more labour on account of it's colours.

In regard to the imitation of colours, as etching, or engraving with aqua fortis, is at preſent ſo much in vogue, and never carried to ſo much perfection as at preſent, as ſtrong expreſſion of paſſions, as fine adjuſtment of light and ſhade, as well as a beautiful manner of engraving, are, by means of this art united, when executed by the hand of a maſterly artiſt, who is capable of expreſſing himſelf with equal vivacity and judgment in the different parts of his profeſſion. The etching here intended, is that which cannot be fine without the aid of the graver, which gives it all the luſtre and perfection deſired. This the ancients have not ſhewn in their performances of this kind, they not ſo well underſtanding the various graces proper for painting and engraving as the moderns. For, by the means of aqua fortis, a performance may, by a ſkilful artiſt, be carried to an extraordinary degree of perfection; and that with a celerity to the graver, little inferior to that of the pencil: it enables the profeſſor, almoſt inſtantly, to expreſs the productions of his genius with all it's vivacity, and with far more freedom than can be done without it.

There are three ordinary objections made by ſome ſort of critics againſt engraving, viz. (1.) That 'tis eaſy to diſtinguiſh thoſe prints that have been engraved by the painters themſelves, or by other painters from their works. (2.) That an engraver by profeſſion can never acquire the ſtile of a painter; ſo that they pretend to know by a print, whether it was engraved by a painter, or an engraver by profeſſion. (3.) That the modern engravers cannot poſſibly expreſs the works of the ancient painters, ſo well as thoſe have done who were contemporaries with them; by reaſon, ſay they, every engraver executes according to the guſto of the time he lived in, and therefore 'tis impoſſible for a modern artiſt to expreſs the works of Raphael, in the ſame manner as Mark Antonio, Auguſtine of Venice, Sylveſter of Ravenna, &c. have done. With reſpect to the firſt of theſe it has been obſerved, that there are ſome prints engraved by Simon Cantarini from Guido and Louis Caracci, which are preferable to many that were inconteſtably engraved by Guido himſelf. Beſides, as theſe objectors do not agree among themſelves with regard to many of Guido's prints, ſome * affirming, and others denying, that they were engraved by Guido himeſelf; this diverſity of ſentiments does not ſhew that any great regard is to be paid to theſe opinions.

* Among others, a print from Louis Caracci, engraved by Simon Cantarini, repreſenting a man poſſeſſed by an evil ſpirit, which moſt of theſe critics believe was engraved by Guido himſelf.

In anſwer to the ſecond objection it is ſaid, There are many pieces engraved by Gerard Audran, which, if theſe gentlemen had ſeen without knowing they were done by him, they would rather have judged them the productions of a painter than an engraver: for they are touched with ſo much elegance and ſagacity, that 'tis much to be queſtioned whether any painter could have excelled them. For conviction hereof, we need only view the judges in the print of the martyrdom of St Laurence, from Le Sieur; the Pyrrhus ſaved from, Pouſſin; the Rape of Truth, from the ſame; the Paſſage of the Red Sea, from Verdier, &c.

The famous Bernard Picart choſe ſeveral deſigns which had never been engraved; and, having privately engraved them, and printed ſome copies on dirty paper, he ſecretly diſperſed them, and had the ſatisfaction to experience, that not one of thoſe critics ever ſuſpected they were not prints which had been engraved and printed in Italy. One of thoſe pieces was from Pouſſin, and only ſketched as with a pen, which many took for deſign; another was a ſmall Holy Virgin, in an oval, from Carlo Maratti, which had been engraved before at Paris, almoſt as large as the life, by his father Stephen Picart. Thoſe who had never ſeen the large print, thought the ſmall the work of one of Guido's diſciples, for Guido himſelf and thoſe who had ſeen it, took the ſmall one for an original, engraved by Carlo Maratti. There was alſo a print of Rebecca, which they did him the honour to aſcribe to him, both for the invention and engraving. There were alſo three other prints, the one a Jeſuit, another a St Jerom, and another a Holy Virgin on the clouds, which ſome imagined were done by Guido himſelf, and others by ſome of his diſciples.

With regard to the third opinion, theſe gentlemen do not ſeem to obſerve, that they confound the manner of engraving, which they are uſed to ſee in thoſe old prints, with the ſtile of the painter; ſo that when they ſee a print of one of Raphael's compoſitions, with all the outlines traced with an equal black ſtroke, and with a fine and faint engraving, without degradation of light and ſhade, or roundneſs of the figures, as all the engravings of that time are, they approve it as if it was Raphael's manner, which is abſolutely falſe. To prove which, thoſe who have opportunity, need only compare Mark Antonio's, or any other engraver's prints of that age, with the original deſign, and they will find they have been far from imitating them: they have taken the liberty even to make grounds to ſome deſigns that had none, and finiſh ſome parts according to their own fancy, that were only lightly touched.

It is not intended by any thing here ſaid, to leſſen the eſteem that is due to the merit of theſe artiſts, they having not only preſerved to poſterity the idea of many excellent performances, the originals whereof being either loſt, or not to be ſeen but by few, but as being the primitive inventors of engraving.

All that perfection is not to be expected from the firſt inventors of arts, that they may be expected to acquire in a ſeries of years among nations that cultivate them; and, indeed, it ſeems an unaccountable weakneſs to ſet ſo ſuperlative a value upon their works, and to diſeſteem, in proportion, the more admirable performances of the moderns. Highly reaſonable it is, that the prints of former ages ſhould bear a better price than the modern ones; not by reaſon they are better, but by reaſon they are very ſcarce, and only to be met with in the collections of perſons of diſtinction, who are the ſuperior claſs of connoiſſeurs. And, if one of our fine modern prints was as rare and as ancient as thoſe of the firſt maſters, it not only would, but ought to bear a better price than thoſe of their anceſtors.

The ancient print of Raphael's Holy family, taken from a painting in the French king's cabinet, is greatly inferior to that engraved by Mr Edelink; yet there are virtuoſi who have the ancient one, that diſdain to look on Mr Edelink's; and this, perhaps, only from the vanity of eſteeming nought but what is antique, leſt the ſuperlative excellence of the moderns ſhould depreciate the value of their poſſeſſions.

Some gentlemen, of a juſt diſcernment and true taſte, will ſcarce believe that prejudice will carry people ſuch lengths, but 'tis too general and notorious to be gainſaid; and ſome have thought, that the dealers in prints themſelves have been the firſt propagaters of theſe ridiculous prejudices; for few lovers of prints, being competent judges of them, the generality rely too much on the dictation and profound judgment of their printſellers, who, from mercenary views only, endeavour artfully to excite a contempt for the modern performances, becauſe they are eaſily to be had, and the ancients ſcarce. Mr Picart gives us an inſtance of this. One Peſne, an excellent deſigner on paper, but a very indifferent engraver, engraved the Seven ſacraments of Pouſſin, each on two plates. After a number of them had been worked off and diſperſed, Gerard Audran having bought the plates, with Peſne's deſigns of them, retouched them and made them incomparably better than before. Though Audran's merit is ſo well known, yet a print-dealer at Paris had the confidence, offering to ſell one of the firſt copies, to ſay, Theſe are fine, they are not thoſe that were retouched by Audran. Thus theſe people prepoſſeſs the minds of unexperienced young gentlemen, who propagate the ſame; and when once they have embraced an error, they think it diſhonourable to retract.

Nor is this any recent prejudice. In the time of Henry Golzius, there were ſome critics who laboured under it; and were not leſs mortified, when impoſed on by that great maſter's imitation of the ſtiles of Albert Durer, Lucas of Leyden, &c. than thoſe were, whom Bernard Picart deceived in the following manner.—To undeceive ſome, who were prepoſſeſſed with an opinion, that the modern engravers could not repreſent the works of Raphael ſo well as thoſe did who were his contemporaries, I was obliged, ſays he, to engrave ſome prints, which had been engraved by ſome of tho ancient maſters, as by Mark Antonio, and ſome others; but the difficulty was to come at the originals, from whence they had engraved them: at length he met with two, and, after having examined and compared them with the prints which had been formerly performed from them, he thought himſelf capable of improving them.

The firſt was a Venus, who touches one of the arrows of Cupid, and ſhews that ſhe feels the effects of the touch at her heart: this Picart engraved like the deſign, without ground, or any addition.—The ſecond was a bacchanal, which had been formerly engraved by Auguſtine of Venice. The deſign from whence he performed, is certainly the ſame from which Auguſtine engraved; the ſtrokes are the ſame, the ſize the ſame, and the out-lines of the figures are the ſame, but the muſcles within are quite different. The ſatyrs have crowns of ivy on their heads, which in the old print are like cuttings or ſlips: the antient engraver has made ſmall white leaves, all of the ſame form, ranged on a ground equally dark; whereas in the deſign they are leaves careleſly diſpoſed, which form a maſs of light on a light. There is alſo a child, the back part of the hair of whoſe head reſembles little iron hooks ranged round it. The hair of the heads, ſkin and beard, are extremely ſtiff, and equally black, which are not ſo in the deſign, where the maſſes of light and ſhade are obſerved.—The belly of Silenus, in the old print, has wrinkles as dark as poſſible, and between his paps are ſome things that look like laces to tie them together, which one can make nothing of.—If any one will give himſelf the trouble to examine the whole, part by part, he will find there is not one of them exact, Even without having the original before him, the ſpectator need only have a juſt idea of the conſtruction of the human body to judge, that Raphael could never have acquired the reputation which he ſo juſtly has, if his works were like thoſe ancient prints; becauſe he would have ſhewed himſelf inferior to many painters who are by far inferior to him. We cannot, therefore, comprehend, from what reaſons ſome gentlemen would attempt to perſuade us, that this is the true ſtile of Raphael; and that it is impoſſible to engrave his works at preſent, to that perfection which the ancients did. For, ſuppoſing that a modern engraver is a maſter of the art of engraving, and can give figures roundneſs, and a proper degradation of light and ſhade; why cannot he expreſs a picture or deſign, where all theſe are obſerved, not only as well, but far better than the ancient engravers, who had neither that freedom of hand which the moderns have, nor underſtood how to give their figures that roundneſs, or the degradation of light and ſhade?

Theſe ancient engravers might, poſſibly, underſtand deſigning on paper very well; but, admitting that, is it not certain they had not that freedom of hand to trace with the graver what they would on copper? And what hinders the modern engravers from being as good maſters of deſign as the ancients ever were?

Thoſe gentlemen's prejudices do not only extend to the prints from Raphael's work, they pretend alſo to draw conſequences from them, to thoſe of Rubens. In this reſpect, indeed, they may be more in the right; for the prints of Bolſwert, Voſtermans, Pontius, and Soutman, are ſo well engraved, and have ſo much of the painter's ſtile in them, that, perhaps, they cannot be excelled; in this Rubens has been more happy than Raphael. But there are many other prints engraved from the works of Rubens by other engravers of that age, which ars very meanly done, and which thoſe gentlemen hunt after, while they deſpiſe others engraved by maſters of this age, though infinitely more in the ſtile of Rubens. In which they ſeem to blame, there being engravers now living who can copy his works as well as the beſt of his time, and much better than the others.

Remarks.

Engraving ſeems to be the ſame in one reſpect with relation to painting, as printing is to the hand-writing, this art being capable of multiplying copies ad infinitum. To make a fine collection of paintings, requires not only a large fortune, but an exquiſite judgment to underſtand their beauties, and to diſtinguiſh curiouſly copies from originals, in order to prevent deceit and impoſition: as the more delicate and coſtly pieces of painting are only for perſons of fortune and diſtinction, ſo prints in general are adapted to all ranks of men, and all conditions; they not only coſt much leſs than paintings, but the knowlege of them is far more eaſily attained, and the impoſition no way detrimental to the purchaſer: as likewiſe they comprehend all ſorts of ſubjects, they are not leſs uſeful, inſtructive, and entertaining.

Prints divert youth, and inform and admoniſh them at the ſame time, by the lively and efficacious impreſſion which they make on their juvenile minds. Nor is inſtruction by this art the more readily received by youth in general only, but is more durably impreſſed than that conveyed by words without thoſe ſtriking viſible images of repreſentation. If you would have a child retain any paſſage either in ſacred or profane hiſtory, by amuſing him with a print of it, and explaining the ſubject once to him, he will rarely forget the impreſſion, which the different characters that compoſe it will make on him. They are likewiſe no indifferent amuſement to perſons of mature years, by recalling many things to their minds, which length of time and variety of tranſactions and readings had obliterated. They are as uſeful as engaging; they repreſent abſent things to us, as if they were preſent; they inſtantly convey us, without hazard or expence, to the moſt diſtant countries, and make us as well acquainted with them, and with their peculiar modes, cuſtoms, and natural hiſtory, as with thoſe of our own country: they make us, as it were, contemporaries with the greateſt men of all ages, by exhibiting their lively reſemblance.

If the ancients had enjoyed this advantage from the primitive ages of the world, we ſhould have known, by the means of prints, whatever they had that was curious and eſtimable, and deſerving to be tranſmitted to poſterity; the famous temples, and ſumptuous edifices of every kind, ſo celebrated by hiſtorians; the magnificent works of the Aſiatics, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans; the memorable ſtatues, whoſe ruins cauſe the admiration and regret of connoiſſeurs; in ſhort, all the rarities and admirable things of antiquity would have been handed down to the remoteſt ages, by the help of the art of engraving; whereby we ſhould have inherited all their arts and knowlege to a far more certain degree than we poſſibly can do by verbal deſcription, however lively the repreſentation may be drawn.

As the beſt things may be abuſed, ſo may this admirable art be proſtituted to the vileſt, moſt debauched, and deteſtable purpoſes; and when it is ſo, I ſee no reaſon why the authors and propagaters thereof ſhould not be as liable to puniſhment by the laws, as any others who are the promoters and perpetrators of vice and immorality.

On the other hand, no art, perhaps, can have a happier and more influential tendency to the advancement of virtue, religion, and induſtry: nothing has a more familiar efficacy to form an univerſal good taſte than prints: they may diffuſe

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and communicate a general bias and emulation for the liberal and polite arts; nay, there is ſcarce any other art whatſoever, to which this may not be made auxiliary, as moſt ſubjects may be engraved or etched: as all mathematical and anatomical figures, fables, emblems, devices, ornaments, animals, plants, flowers, fruits, pourtraits, cabinets, hiſtories, &c. &c.

Of the accompliſhments of the engraver.

As this art is applicable to moſt others, ſo, to arrive at any excellency therein, it requires a knowlege in divers other arts, as geometry, perſpective, anatomy, drawing, painting, ſculpture, and, above all, deſigning; all which require not only a regular education in every branch, but good ſenſe and application, to arrive at any tolerable perfection; and to adapt them to engraving, requires a genius happily turned for the profeſſion, in order to become diſtinguiſhedly eminent therein.

What is ordinarily called genius, is certainly an innate diſcernment, and ſtrong impulſe and propenſity to excel in any peculiar art: without which nature ſeems to be unnaturally conſtrained; and, when that is the caſe, the performances of ſuch perſons will alſo appear forced, uncouth, and unnatural alſo, like the diſpoſition of the performer; for as ſome poet ſays,

No art without a genius can prevail,
And parts without the help of art will fail;
But both ingredients jointly muſt unite,
To make the happy character complete.

Mankind ſeeing with different eyes, 'tis no wonder they read nature in different lights; and he that has the moſt acute connatural faculties to diſcern, and enter into the ineffable beauties, and wonderful appearances of that divine book, will certainly be more capable of exhibiting it's infinite varieties, either by the graver or pencil: the man of a true ſtrong natural genius, reads as well as ſees things in different views from thoſe of a contrary ſtamp, and therefore can pourtray the illuſtrious actions of paſt ages, with an elegance and ſublimity no way inferior to the deſcription of the nobleſt hiſtorian, and ſuperlative poets: in a word, the painter and the engraver ſhould be no way inferior, in point of natural and acquired abilities, to any other profeſſion whatſoever; and, without a delicate fancy, and a luxuriant imagination, improved by a good taſte and a correct judgment, all his performances will be lifeleſs and inſipid, notwithſtanding he may be ſkilful in every partial preliminary qualification.

What a learned and ingenious gentleman ſays of painting, may, with equal truth and propriety, be ſaid of engraving:—'What a tedious thing would it be to deſcribe by words the view of a country (that from Greenwich-hill for inſtance) and how imperfect an idea muſt we receive from hence! Painting ſhews the thing immediately and exactly. No words can give you an idea of the face and perſon of one you have never ſeen; painting does it effectually, with the addition of ſo much of his character as can be known from hence; and, moreover, in an inſtant recalls to your memory, at leaſt the moſt conſiderable particulars of what you have heard concerning him, or occaſions that to be told which you have never heard.

Auguſtino Caracci, diſcourſing one day of the excellency of the antient ſculpture, was profuſe in his praiſes of the Laocoon, and obſerving his brother Annibale neither ſpoke, nor ſeemed to take any notice of what he ſaid, reproached him as not enough eſteeming ſo ſtupendious a work: he then went on, deſcribing every particular in that noble remain of antiquity. Annibale turned himſelf to the wall, and with a piece of charcoal drew the ſtatue as exactly as if it had been before him: the reſt of the company were ſurprized, and Auguſtino was ſilenced; confeſſing his brother had taken a more effectual way to demonſtrate the beauties of that wonderful piece of ſculpture: Li poeti dipingono con le parole, li pittori parlano con l'opere, ſaid Annibale.

When Marius, being driven from Rome by Sylla, was priſoner at Minturnæ, and a ſoldier was ſent to murther him, upon his coming into the room with his ſword drawn for that purpoſe, Marias ſaid aloud, Σὺ δὴ τολμᾷς ἄνθρωπη Γάϊον Μάριον ἀναιρεῖν? Dareſt thou, man, kill Caius Marius? which ſo terrified the ruffian, that he retired without being able to effect what he came about. This ſtory, and all that Plutarch has wrote concerning him, gives me not a greater idea of him, than one glance of the eye upon his ſtatue that I have ſeen; 'tis in the noble collection of antiques, at lord Pomfret's ſeat near Towceſter in Northamptonſhire. The Odyſſes cannot give a greater idea of Ulyſſes, than a drawing I have of Polydore, where he is diſcovering himſelf to Penelope, and Telemachus by bending the bow. And I conceive as highly of St Paul by once walking through the gallery of Raphael at Hampton-Court, as by reading the whole book of the Acts of the Apoſtles, though written by divine inſpiration. So that not only painting furniſhes us with ideas, but it carries that matter farther than any other way whatſoever.'

Of the modern engravers, and of the merit of thoſe of this kingdom in particular.

Though we have before ſhewn the reaſons wherefore the modern engravers may be preſumed to excel the antients, yet there ſeems ſtill ſomething more due to the characters of the preſent artiſts, who are our contemporaries. Nothing weighing with us ſo much as example; a few inſtances may not be uſeleſs.

The firſt I ſhall give is that of the engravings of the kings and queens, and of ſeveral illuſtrious perſons, in Mr Rapin's Hiſtory of England, by Mr Houbraken, and other the beſt maſters. But, the univerſal approbation of this work ſufficiently ſpeaking for it's merit in this, as well as all other reſpects, it needs no encomium.

Another inſtance we have is in the illuſtrious perſons of Great-Britain, with their lives and characters by Thomas Birch, D. D. and Secretary of the Royal Society.

The public was ſome time ſince obliged to Meſſ. Knapton for this elegant work, which hath recommended itſelf to all perſons of taſte for the polite arts.

The execution of the plates in general hath been deemed excellent by the beſt judges, particularly thoſe engraved by that eminent maſter, the ingenious Mr Houbraken; who, for his maſterly ſtile, and the delicacy and vivacity of his expreſſion, is univerſally admired. Gravelot, Vertue, and other the beſt hands in this kingdom, have alſo been employed in the courſe of this undertaking. Theſe engravings are copied after the original paintings of the beſt maſters that Europe hath produced, whoſe names are reſpectively mentioned at the bottom of the ſeveral plates, with the names alſo of thoſe perſons of diſtinction in whoſe poſſeſſion the originals are.

Another inſtance we have in Albinus's Anatomical Tables, on 40 large copper plates, 15 inches by 22, moſt beautifully engraved, and printed on large imperial paper. Theſe alſo were publiſhed by Meſſ. Knapton.

Theſe plates repreſent various figures of the human ſkeleton, and of the ſeveral orders of the human muſcles; alſo views of the particular parts, whereon all that belongs to the make or habit of each muſcle, is ſhewn at large from the body: together with tables of Explanation, and an hiſtorical account of the work either in Latin or Engliſh. The whole contains a complete anatomical deſcription of the human ſkeleton and muſcles, more accurately and beautifully engraved than ever was done before, in this or any other nation, and the whole performed by our Engliſh Engravers, and printed on 80 ſheets of large imperial paper.

Supplementary to the foregoing, are contained alſo the following, viz.

1. Three whole length anatomical tables, repreſenting the fore view of a man, and two different views of a woman, taken from Bidloo's anatomy, and enlarged to the ſame ſize as Albinus's anatomical figures of the bones and muſcles. Each figure printed on a ſheet of imperial paper, with explanations of the figures, printed on one ſheet of the ſame ſize.

2. A complete ſyſtem of the blood-veſſels, taken from Albinus's edition of Euſtachius, alſo from Ruyſch, Haller, and Trew, beautifully engraved, and printed on four ſheets of large imperial paper (the ſame ſize as Albinus's anatomical tables of the bones and muſcles). Together with tables of explication, containing the text of Euſtachius, Albinus, &c. tranſlated into Engliſh, and printed on ſeven ſheets of large imperial paper.

3. A compleſete ſyſtem of the nerves, taken from the abovementioned authors, beautifully engraved, and printed on four ſheets of large imperial paper, with tables of explanation.

Another inſtance we will beg leave to give, is in regard to the maps of North and South America, that are contained in this our Dictionary of Commerce; and which, although we have deſired the ſubſcribers acceptance thereof gratis, yet no expence has been ſpared to have them executed in the beſt manner, which has been done by the engravers of this nation; and we will preſume to appeal to the judgment of connoiſſeurs, whether they are not performed equal to any thing of the like kind that ever appeared in Europe.

Another ſpecimen we would produce to evince that the art of engraving is arrived to as great perfection in England as in any part of the world, is the following pieces, lately publiſhed by Meſſ. J. and P. Knapton, and Mr Robert Dodſley; which are the firſt ſeries of a ſet of prints, entitled English History Delineated; comprehending what may be called the ancient hiſtory, being the period from the landing of Julius Cæſar to the Conqueſt, viz. 1. The Landing of Julius Cæsar. 2. The Noble Behaviour of Caractacus the Briton, before the Emperor Claudius at Rome. 3. Vortigern and Rowena; or the ſettlement of the Saxons in England. 4. The Converſion of the Saxons to Chriſtianity. 5. Alfred the Great in the Iſland of Athelney, receiving News of a Victory over the Danes. 6. The Norman Conquest; or the battle of Haſtings.

The drawings, which are 18 inches by 14, are finiſhed in a maſterly manner by Mr Hayman and Mr Blakey, in Indian

ink; and are engraved with great delicacy and correctneſs, by Ravenet, Grignion, and Scotin: being intended to exhibit a ſpecimen of the preſent perfection of theſe arts in England, as alſo, to fix the principal events of our hiſtory in the mind; of which a ſuccinct account is printed in ſix pages only, by way of explaining and connecting the ſeries of events together.

In regard to hiſtory, nothing can be more uſeful than an attempt of this nature, in order to fix in the remembrance the cardinal events of memorable tranſactions: and as the art of engraving is yet but in it's infancy in England, it is to be greatly hoped and deſired that this, as well as every other maſterly performance which is executed in our own nation, will meet with public encouragement ſuitable to it's merit, as well for the honour of the nation and our riſing artiſts, as for the benefit of it's traffick: ſo that, inſtead of importing immenſe quantities of foreign prints, we may not only ſupply ourſelves, but become exporters of a commodity that is univerſally vendible.

Further to confirm the truth of what has been ſaid, with reſpect to the extrordinary abilities and ingenuity of our artiſts in this profeſſion, I cannot in juſtice omit taking notice of ſome maſterly pieces which have been lately executed among us; the one is engraved from a capital painting of Teniers, repreſenting a country-wake, containing 150 figures, wherein the painter has introduced himſelf and family. This print is engraved in a very elegant and ſkilful manner, is two feet five inches broad, by one foot eight inches high, engraved by the ingenious Mr Thomas Major, engraver to his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, and performed under the patronage of his royal highneſs the duke of Cumberland, and dedicated to him by permiſſion; his royal highneſs not being leſs ſollicitous, in time of peace, to promote all uſeful and polite arts that tend to the glory of the nation and the benefit of commerce, than he proved himſelf anxious, in time of war and rebellion, to preſerve us from thoſe evils, which threatened the ruin of our trade, our religion, and our liberties.—The other performances I allude to are two hiſtorical compoſitions, engraved from a painting of the celebrated Guido Rheni; the one a Cleopatra, in the collection of her royal highneſs the princeſs of Wales; and the other a Magdalene, in the collection of Roger Hareng, Eſq; by that eminent maſter Mr Robert Strange, who is allowed to be inferior to none in his profeſſion. Theſe performances are 16 inches and a half high, and 12 inches and a half broad.

Of deſign, as it has relation to engraving and to weaving.

Though the bulk of our maſterly pieces of engraving may be taken from the performances of the moſt eminent and diſtinguiſhed painters, yet the plenty of patterns of theſe great maſters ſhould by no means, methinks, obſtruct our engravers from ſtudying the art of deſign, in order to enable them to form and invent new compoſitions, that the painter might ſometimes copy from the engraver, as well as the engraver from the painter. And, indeed, by engravers depending too much on copying only the original pieces of the moſt celebrated maſters, they may cramp the natural force and growth of their own genius, by conſtraining and forming it wholly upon that of others, and may have leſs knowlege of their own, for contenting themſelves with that of others before them. 'So a man that only tranſlates, ſays Sir William 'Temple ſomewhere, ſhall never be a poet; nor a painter 'that only copies; nor a ſwimmer that ſwims always with 'bladders. So people that truſt wholly to others charity, 'and without induſtry of their own, will always be poor.' We do not ſuggeſt this to depreciate, by any means, thoſe copies which engravers have taken from the originals of the moſt celebrated painters; they may be the beſt for the young artiſts to commence with; and not only ſo, but may be more acceptable to the public in general than any new productions that the generality of engravers may be able to perform; and thoſe ſhew more judgment by continuing copyiſts than inventors. But our firſt rate genii in this excellent art ſhould be ambitious, methinks, ſometimes to ſhew the world that they are not leſs able to deſign a new piece of their own, than always to imitate thoſe of others; though it is certainly more to the reputation of an artiſt to imitate excellently, than to invent meanly.

Having, under the article DESIGN, quoted Mr Gwyn's eſſay on that ſubject, and particularly a note, wherein it is ſaid, 'That the ſilk weavers of this kingdom, with regard to de'ſign, are reduced to the neceſſity of calling in to their aſ'ſiſtance the better-inſtructed, though not more ingenious, 'French, &c.' See the article DESIGN.

But I find that Mr Gwyn has been miſinformed with reſpect to this matter; and, I having quoted him, it is neceſſary that I ſhould ſet the public right, in what ſo nearly concerns one of the moſt capital and intereſting branches of the manufactures of this kingdom.

There are two particulars aſſerted in Mr Gwyn's note, (1.) That, for want of ſkill in drawing, or delineating, as he calls it, the Engliſh deſigners are obliged to call in the aſſiſtance of the better-inſtructed French. (2.) That the perſons engaged in the flowered branch of the weaving trade lament this misfortune. But, if we can prove the firſt of theſe propoſitions to be abſolutely falſe, the other will fall of courſe. That it really is ſo, we ſhall appeal to FACTS, and give a ſhort account of the progreſs of DESIGNING in England, which is well known to moſt, if not all perſons concerned in the weaving trade.

In the reign of king Charles II. there were few or no ſilks manufactured in England, but they were imported from France at the expence of above three quarters of a million ſterling per annum.

After the Revolution the French refugees ſettled the ſilk manufactures in London, and particularly the flowered ſilks. The principal perſons herein concerned were Mr Lauſon, Mariſcot, and Monceaux, and the firſt deſigner and pattern-drawer was Mr Boudoin. About the ſame time Mr Joſeph Dandridge began, alſo, the profeſſion of deſigning, and carried on the ſame for near 40 years, with great reputation. This gentleman has been well known not only by his amuſements, his love of natural hiſtory (as may be ſeen in the Natural Hiſtories of Birds, by Mr George Edwards and Mr Albin) but in his own peculiar profeſſion as an Engliſh deſigner, or pattern-drawer, for the manufacture of flowered ſilks, wherein he eminently diſtinguiſhed himſelf, and is deſervedly remembered with great reſpect by the trade.

Mr Dandridge was not only equal, at that time, in his performances to any of the French, but was far ſuperior to them, or to any one of his time, in deſigns for damaſks.

It is to be obſerved at this period, that neither the French nor Engliſh obſerved any of the principles of painting in their brocades. Their flowers had ſeldom above two colours, and theſe were not diſpoſed according to the chairo obſcuro, but in the manner of compartment, or ſhadowing, in a regular order, from black to white, through any medium or colour, either red, blue, green, &c. Neither was the drawing in perſpective, but according to the geometrical form of the objects, as they are commonly exhibited in botanical books and collections.

About the year 1732 three deſigners attempted to introduce the principles of painting into the loom, and ſucceeded. Mr John Vanſomer (ſon of Mr Vanſomer, a conſiderable painter, by whom he was inſtructed in the principles of painting, and in thoſe of drawing for the loom by Mr Dandridge) Mrs Anna Maria Garthwaite, and Mr Peter Mazell. At that time one third of the brocade ſilks worn in England were French. But the Engliſh deſigning was ſo highly advanced, and ſo generally approved, that in leſs than ten years the preference was not only given in England to the Engliſh deſigning, to that of France (and, as to the goodneſs of our manufactures, we have always had the ſuperiority, ſince it's firſt eſtabliſhment among the Engliſh) but we alſo began to export, and foreigners, even the French themſelves, fixed an honourable name to our taſte for deſign, viz. LE GOUT ANGLOIS, being at leaſt equal, in that kingdom itſelf, to LE GOUT FRANÇOIS; and, could we bring theſe our ſilken manufactures as cheap to market as the French, we ſhould be in a fair way of ſupplying a great part of Europe. But, indeed, as our ſilk manufactures are not only ſuperior in quality to thoſe of the French, but our deſigning is ſo likewiſe, they cannot be ſaid to be at all dearer than the French, though they cannot be afforded ſo cheap, by reaſon of their ſuperior quality.

About the year 1744, and ſince, there has been an increaſe of the number of Engliſh deſigners, who have greatly contributed to the perfection of this art. Mrs Phœbe Wright had eminently diſtinguiſhed herſelf by the correctneſs and elegancy of her drawing and her colouring. Mr Gray, Mr Henry Knapton, and Mr Hincliffe, have alſo been highly inſtrumental to add to and ſupport the reputation of theſe our Engliſh ſilken manufactures.

From this ſhort account is plainly ſeen the miſtake into which Mr Gwyn was led; for it may be depended on, that 'till the year 1750, there has not ſettled in England any foreign deſigner: the few that are come over were ſo ſhamefully unqualified, that they could find little or no employment here: we have named thoſe to whom the public is indebted for bringing this art to the high perfection it is now in; nor is there one Frenchman among them, the firſt excepted, who was a Proteſtant refugee.

And indeed deſign and drawing in England, ſo far as they relate to the ſilk manufactory, ſeem at preſent to be brought to ſuch a degree of perfection, as ſcarce to admit of any farther improvement; and, with regard to the French, we are ſo far from being inferior, that we excel them not only in compoſition of grace, but in taſte and colouring likewiſe.

The deſigns of the French have a poverty and embarraſſment in them, to ſay nothing of the conſtant repetition of the ſame objects, which tire and offend the diſcerning and judicious eye. They give indeed a glare of colours in their ſilks, that impoſe upon ſuch who are effected only with tawdry tinſel appearances, and are ignorant of what is really juſt and beautiful: whereas the Engliſh compoſitions are founded upon the true principles of deſign; their drawings are graceful and elegant; ſo that the manufactures of ſilk produced by the principal artiſts in England, who are all Engliſh, are really pic-

tures of great delicacy and ornament; and, when compared with the French, the contraſt ſeems as great as between good ſenſe and affectation; and, withal, the Engliſh of late years have excelled even in luxuriancy of imagination and fancy.

To ſo ſuperior a degree of excellency is the quality of this noble manufacture arrived in theſe kingdoms, and to ſo exalted a height of beauty and elegancy is the admirable art of deſigning brought, with regard to our flowered ſilks of every kind, that we may preſume to ſay, England herein has happily obtained the tranſcendency and maſterſhip over the whole world: and, while this is the caſe, it is to be hoped, it is to be earneſtly deſired, by all true friends to the ſolid intereſt of theſe kingdoms, that the utmoſt diſcouragement will be given to foreign ſilks, while we have ſo much better of our own to wear; and that the nobility and gentry of theſe kingdoms will delight to follow that noble and ever-memorable example lately given by our illuſtrious monarch and father of his people, to promote the Britiſh manufactures in every reſpect: and as our darling prince, his grandſon, who is heir apparent to the crown of theſe kingdoms, has given alſo, and continues daily to give the moſt diſtinguiſhed teſtimonies of his deſire to advance and encourage to the utmoſt, our own manufactures, in oppoſition to thoſe of foreigners: as likewiſe that moſt amiable and incomparable princeſs, her royal highneſs the princeſs of Wales, has, and daily does conſpicuouſly intereſt herſelf in favour of our own manufactures: it is to be hoped, that it will now prove a mark of public infamy, deteſtation, and reſentment, for any one to diſregard theſe royal examples; and a diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of public honour, glory, and applauſe, to all perſons of diſtinction who ſhall imitate the virtues of the royal family, and teſtify the ſame regard and attachment to their country's intereſt and happineſs.

Before I conclude this article, I would take leave to obſerve, that, if our ambaſſadors, envoys, reſidents, and their ladies, who reſide in foreign countries, would take as much pride to be cloathed in the Britiſh manufactures, as thoſe of foreign nations here do to be cloathed in thoſe of their reſpective nations, might it not tend to introduce the wear of our manufactures at many courts in Europe, when they had ocular demonſtration, that our ſilks, as well as our cloths, were really ſuperior to thoſe of the whole world?

I have dwelt the longer upon this article, in order to do juſtice to all any way concerned in the proſperity of the weaving trade of this kingdom, as well as our deſigners and engravers; and, although I was unluckily miſled, by the quotation of a note from Mr Gwyn, yet I cannot believe but that gentleman was as innocently led into the miſtake as I was into the tranſcribing it; and I am inclined to believe, that gentlemen would as readily retract his error, and atone for the miſtake he has involuntarily committed, as I have chearfully done.

ENTRE DUERO E MINHO, a province in Portugal. This province is ſo called from it's being ſituate between thoſe two famed rivers. It hath the Minho on the north, to divide it from Galicia, and the Duero on the ſouth, which parts it from Beira; on the weſt it is bounded by the ocean, and on the eaſt by a ridge of mountains, which ſevers it from the province of Tra los Montes. It is ſmall, but the beſt inhabited, and hath the greateſt number of cities, towns, and villages, of all the other provinces of Portugal, and one of the moſt fertile, though mountainous, having many other rivers beſides the two that incloſe it, and a vaſt number of rivulets and ſweet ſprings to water it; ſo that it abounds in good paſture more than any other parts of Portugal; and it's plains are every-where covered with vines, fruit, and other trees of all ſorts, but it hath not ſufficient corn for it's inhabitants.

Places of any note for trade are,

OPORTO, a famed city and ſea-port ſituate on the north ſide of the Duero, about three miles from the ſea. The port, a very commodious one, is ſo well known and frequented by our nation, that we need ſay the leſs of it. The harbour is ſafe againſt all winds; but, when the floods come down, no anchor can hold the ſhips; at which time they are forced to moor them alongſide each other, by the walls, to avoid the fury of the torrent: at the entrance into it there is a dangerous bar.

GUIMARANES, an antient town, ſeated upon a hill. The chief manufacture of this place is linen and fine thread, of both which conſiderable quantities are made and exported.

VIANA DE FEZ DE LIMA, ſo called, becauſe it is ſituate at the mouth of the river Lima. This town is become very conſiderable for trade ever ſince the great conſumption of Portugueze wines in England, and is itſelf famed for a delicate ſort of it's own product, which is ſmall, and not unlike the French, nor hardly inferior to it; whereas thoſe that grow in the more ſouthern parts are heavier, and leſs pleaſant.

AMARANTE, on the banks of the river Tamada, hath a linen manufacture.

ESSEX, a county in England, is in a manner a peninſula, being waſhed on the eaſt by the German Ocean; on the north by the Stour; on the weſt by the rivers Lea and Stort; and on the ſouth by the Thames, and is in circumference about 140 miles.

The air is generally temperate, but near the ſea and the Thames it is moiſt, and the inhabitants are ſubject to agues.

It abounds with corn, cattle, wood, and wild fowl; and, about Saffron-Walden, produces great quantities of ſaffron.

It is particularly obſerved of this county, that, generally ſpeaking, the ſoil is beſt where the air is worſt, and è contra. They have plenty of fiſh of all ſorts; and by the ſea-ſide are decoys of great profit to the owners in the winter ſeaſon.

It's chief towns are, 1. COLCHESTER, a large populous place. This, and all the towns round it, were the moſt noted places in England for making bays and ſays; which trade was firſt introduced into Colcheſter, in the year 1570, by the Proteſtant Dutch and Flemings. They made four ſeveral ſorts of bays, which were diſtinguiſhed by the names of rents, cuts, crowns, and croſſes. There have been 1000 or 1200 bays, at leaſt, made weekly in Colcheſter.

This trade was firſt moſt ſenſibly hurt by our wars with Spain, eſpecially queen Anne's wars. By which, and other concurrent cauſes, the Dutch congregation (which had the management of that trade) not being able to carry it on, diſſolved themſelves in 1728.

Perpetuana's uſed alſo to be made here in great numbers; but now hardly any, or rather none.

At preſent there are but two ſorts of bays made, viz.

1. The fine, or Spaniſh bay, with a yellow liſt.

2. The Portugal bay, which is coarſer and thicker, and has a blue liſt.

About theſe there are 600 looms, and upwards, employed, each managed by one hand, ſince the engines invented by Solomon Smith: and there are not 20 in the whole town managed by two hands.

But the number of ſpinners, winders, combers, beaters, and roughers, &c. amount to a much more conſiderable number.

The bay-trade is removed, in a great meaſure, into the weſt and northern parts of the kingdom, where the poor are more eaſily ſatisfied, proviſions cheaper, and coals very plentiful.

This town is alſo of ſome note for it's excellent oyſters, which the inhabitants have a peculiar art in barrelling, and ſend in great quantities to London, and other parts; and it is famous alſo for candying eryngo-roots.

2. MALDEN, ſtands on an eminence near the ſea. It is pretty large and populous, has a convenient haven on an arm of the ſea, for ſhips of 400 tons; and ſome of the inhabitants drive a conſiderable trade in coal, iron, deals, and corn.

A little beyond this town begins Blackwater-Bay, famous for the pits of thoſe excellent oyſters called Wall-fleet, from the ſhore where they lie, which is five miles long, and guarded by a wall of earth, to keep out the ſea.

3. HARWICH, ſtands near the mouth of the Stour. It is a very ſafe harbour, and has a good maritime trade. Here is a very good yard for building ſhips, with the conveniency of ſtorehouſes, cranes, launches, and all ſuch neceſſaries. It is the ſtation for the packet-boats which paſs to and from Holland, Germany, and other parts, with the mails and paſſengers.

4. MANNINGTREE, is a ſmall town, but has a good trade. It ſtands on the Stour, over which it has a bridge.

5. BRAINTREE, had formerly a great trade in bays and ſays, but, within theſe few years, much decreaſed.

6. BOCKING, parted from Braintree by a ſmall ſtream only, is one of the largeſt villages in Eſſex. It is adorned with fine ſpacious houſes of clothiers, inriched by the manufacture and trade of bays, of which this village has a peculiar ſort, called Bockings.

7. COGGESHALL, was formerly a great cloathing town, but it's trade is now much decayed.

8. SAFFRON-WALDEN, ſo called from it's ſituation among many pleaſant fields of ſaffron; but it is not ſo much cultivated here of late years as formerly.

9. CHELMSFORD, is a pretty large populous town, and a great thoroughfare.

10. INGATESTONE, is another large thoroughfare, with a conſiderable market for live cattle brought out of Suffolk, and other parts.

ESTREMADURA, The province of, in Portugal, is a narrow ſlip of land, running along the ſea-coaſt about 110 miles; in breadth it is ſcarce 50, and in ſome places much narrower.

It is bounded on the north by the river Mondego; on the ſouth it borders upon part of Beira, and the province of Alentejo; it hath again Beira on the eaſt, and the ocean on the weſt.

The land is, for the moſt part, the beſt in Portugal, and the climate very pleaſant and mild, by it's being ſo near the Weſtern, or Pacific Ocean. It produces wheat, and other grain, in great plenty, abundance of wine, oil, fruits of all ſorts, eſpecially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. Here is alſo a great variety of manufactures carried on, and a large ſhare of trade; all which is owing partly to it's commodious ſituation and ſea-ports, to it's nearneſs to the city of Liſbon, and noble river Tagus.

The moſt conſiderable places for largeneſs, opulence, &c. are,

LISBON, the metropolis of Portugal, is pleaſantly ſeated on the banks of the Tajo. The harbour is one of the moſt commodious in Europe, being capacious enough of itſelf to contain 10,000 ſhips, all riding in ſafety, and not incumbering each other. The bar is very dangerous to paſs without pilots.

SETUBAL,

SETUBAL, corruptly called ST UBES, is ſeated on a handſome bay cloſe to the ocean, is much reſorted to by moſt northern nations, eſpecially for the vaſt quantities of ſalt made here.

The province of ESTREMADURA, in Spain, is divided from Portugal, or from the Portugueze Eſtremadura on the weſt, by the rivers Elia, Caya, and ſome others of leſs note; on the north it joins on the kingdom of Leon; has Old and New Caſtille on the eaſt, and Andaluſia nn the ſouth.

The air is hot, and ſomewhat ſultry, but the ſoil exceeding fertile, and well cultivated, the natives being laborious, and much addicted to tillage.

This rich province contains ſeven cities, many large ſtately towns, equal to cities, and a great number of populous and wealthy villages, not inferior to good towns.

Place of chief note is

MERIDA, on the banks of the Guadiana, in a wholeſome air and fertile country, formerly a noble city, but now has little left of it's ancient grandeur but the ruins.

EUROPE, one of the four diviſions made, by geographers, of the whole world. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the ſouth by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; on the eaſt by Aſia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine, or Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais, or Don, almoſt to the river Oby, in Muſcovy; and, on the weſt, it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean.

It is extended between 34 and 80 degrees north latitude, and between 5 and 80 degrees of longitude, reckoning the firſt meridian to paſs through the iſland of Teneriff. It contains in breadth, as a continent from the North Cape to Cape Metepan in the Morea, about 2600 miles; and in length, from the mouth of the river Oby in the eaſt, to Cape St Vincent in Portugal, weſt, about 2800 miles.

Although Europe be the leaſt of the four parts of the world, it is by much to be preferred for the mildneſs of the air, the fertility of the ſoil throughout, the many navigable rivers, the great plenty of corn, cattle, wine, oil, and all things requiſite not only for the ſuſtenance and comfort, but even for the luxury of human life; but more eſpecially for the beauty, ſtrength, courage, ingenuity, induſtry, and wiſdom of it's inhabitants; the excellency of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of their ſubjects; and, which ſurpaſſes all, the purity and ſanctity of their religion, eſpecially the Proteſtant part; which, as it has happily checked the power of eccleſiaſtical tyranny and oppreſſion, ſo it has brought the judicious and learned laity to think for themſelves, as well in matters of religion as in ſcience of all kinds. Yet Proteſtantiſm has not ſet aſide the prieſthood, much leſs attempted to extirpate it; on the contrary, they have only reduced it within the bounds of ſcripture, and as near to the practice of the primitive Chriſtians, for the three firſt centuries, as we can obtain any ſatisfactory knowlege of; nor do any Chriſtians more highly venerate this order, when it's dignity is ſupported by wiſe and good men.

The CHRISTIAN RELIGION is profeſſed throughout all Europe, except that part of it poſſeſſed by the Turks: but, by reaſon of the innovations made by the church of Rome, the weſtern church is divided; Italy, Spain, France, part of Germany, and the Netherlands, with Poland, ſtill following the doctrine of the church of Rome; whereas England, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, great part of Germany, the United Provinces, Swiſſerland, &c. have embraced the reformation, and profeſs the Proteſtant religion; and in Muſcovy, ſome parts of Poland, in Walachia, Moldavia, Podolia, Volhinia, and Greece, the doctrine of the eaſtern, or Greek church, is followed.

Europe hath for many ages been exceeding populous, and her inhabitants, in general, illuſtrious for their courage, their wiſdom and virtue; by which they conquered the greateſt part of Aſia and Africa, and ſubjected them to the two empires of Greece and Rome; and, in theſe latter ages, almoſt one half of the earth, that was formerly unknown, hath been diſcovered by Europeans, and poſſeſſed by the colonies they have ſent thither.

For learning and arts the Europeans have been moſt renowned: all the ſcholaſtic ſciences they have brought to a much greater perfection than either the Aſiatics or Africans ever did; and the invention and improvement of numberleſs uſeful and ingenious arts, particularly that of navigation, on which all intercourſe of foreign commerce between diſtant nations depends, is wholly owing to the genius and induſtry of the inhabitants of this part of the world.

The principal ſovereignties of Europe are as follow:

The empires of Germany, Ruſſia, and Turky.

The kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, France, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, Denmark, Poland, Hungary, Bohemia, Pruſſia, Sardinia, Naples and Sicily, which are termed the Two Sicilies, and the popedom of Rome.

The republics of Venice, United Netherlands, Swiſſerland, the Griſons, Genoa, Lucca, and the ſmall republics of Geneva and Raguſa.

Next to theſe may be reckoned the electorates of Germany, whoſe princes chuſe the emperor; of whom the three firſt are ſpiritual, and all the others temporal princes; viz.

The archbiſhoprics and electorates of { Mentz, Triers, Cologne, } Temporal { Bavaria, Saxony, Brandenburg, Palatine, Brunſwic Lunenburg, }

And the kingdom of Bohemia.

There are, beſides theſe, no leſs than 300 ſubaltern ſovereignties in Germany, Italy. &c. whoſe poſſeſſors, whether ſpiritual, as archbiſhops and biſhops, or temporal, as princes, landgraves, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, &c. though they are tributaries, or feoffees, to the emperor, or ſome other ſuperior prince, have authority in their own ſtates.

Of the ſpiritual, the moſt conſiderable are,

The grand maſter of the Teutonic order.

The grand maſter of Malta.

The grand prior of Malta, who is alſo called the grand prior in Germany.

The abbots and princes of Fulda in Germany, St Gall in Swiſſerland, and ſome others.

Of the temporal the moſt conſiderable are,

The archduke of Auſtria, the great duke of Tuſcany, the landgraves of Heſſe Caſſel, Rheinfelds, Darmſtat, Homberg.

The dukes of Savoy and Modena, &c. in Italy. The duchies of Milan, Mantua, Mirandola, Parma, and Placentia are, at preſent, in the houſe of Auſtria,. The dukes of Mecklemburg, Wirtemburg, Holſtein, Saxe-Weymar, Eyſenach, Gotha, &c. in Germany, and the duke of Courland in Poland.

The princes of Anhalt, Aremberg, Hohenzollern, Naſſau, and Eaſt Frieſland, Furſtemberg, Lichtenſtein, Waldeck, Tour and Taxis, &c. in Germany.

The marquiſſes of Baden, Dourlach, Brandenburgh, Cullenbach, and Brandenburgh-Anſpach, in Germany.

The Counts of Hanau, Solms, Traun, Schlick, Staremberg, &c.

Beſides theſe, there are the cham of the European Tartary, the hoſpodars of Walachia, Moldavia, &c.

Of the commerce of Europe, with relation to the other quarters of the world.

When we ſpeak of the trade of Europe in general, we muſt ſpeak of it complexly, as it is in the product and improvements of all it's parts, and as it reſpects it's correſpondence with the other three parts particularly.

1. Reſpecting Africa, it's inhabitants, Egypt excepted, being moſtly barbarians, ſuch as the Moors and Mahometans on the north and north-eaſt part, and the Ethiopians on the north-eaſt, or the mere ſavages and negroes of the ſouth and weſt parts; they all take no great quantities of merchandizes from Europe; they take very little, indeed, in compariſon of the returns made to Europe in exchange.

The European goods ſent to Africa are ſuch as the Moors of the coaſt on the ſouth ſhores of the Mediterranean Sea take off, which conſiſts chiefly in ſome Engliſh and French woollen and linen manufactures, and great quantities of toys and baubles: in return for which, Europe receives from that ſide of Africa far more than an equivalent in corn, ſalt, almonds, wax, copper, and a large quantity of very valuable drugs.

From the coaſt of Africa, on the ſide of the ocean weſt, and on the ſide of the Indian or Ethiopian Seas eaſt, Europe receives annually an immenſe treaſure, either brought immediately to them, or carried by the European merchants in their own ſhips, and for their own account, to America; ſo that is properly the European trade, and conſiſts of gold, elephants teeth, ſlaves, drugs.

By theſe articles (the quantity and value of which is infinitely great, conſidering a great part thereof is procured by the exchange of mere toys and trifles, ſcarce worth naming) the ballance of the commerce between Europe and Africa is greatly to the advantage of the former; and that ſo far, that it is mighty extraordinary and unaccountable that the ſeveral maritime nations of Europe do not extend that commerce to a far greater degree; which it is manifeſt might be done with the greateſt eaſe, and to ſuch a height as, perhaps, might equal all the preſent improvements by colonies and plantations in America, many of which are remote, dangerous, and unhealthy, liable to certain charge, to diſaſter and miſcarriage: whereas Africa is near hand, every way equal in it's fertility, ſuperior in it's production, the trade ſafe, the country in many parts extremely healthy, the people tractable, and the returns immenſely rich, and doubtleſs abounding, if we could once carry our traffic into the center of this great and populous country, with an infinite variety of commercial articles, that the Europeans, at preſent, are abſolutely ſtrangers to.

In what manner the trade to Africa may be greatly improved and extended, ſee the articles AMERICA, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY.

America is to be next conſidered with reſpect to Europe. This is by far the largeſt country of the four, into which the world is generally divided; and, if we may give credit to the meaſurement of geographers, it is equal to the other three, and beyond them all, perhaps, in it's extent. And it is found, by the experience of commerce, to be infinitely be-

yond

yond them all in it's produce, either on it's ſurface, or from it's intrails; for as to manufactures, and the labour of the people, America being unimproved, and the people therein unemployed, that part is not ſcarce begun: ſo that Europe and Aſia, in this reſpect, go infinitely beyond it; what may be the conſequence hereafter, we would not conjecture.

With all the wealth of it's product, America is yet in it's ſtate of bondage rather, being, at preſent, dependent on, and the property of, the people of Europe; it is under the government of it's power, and in the poſſeſſion of it's people.

As the land is the property of Europe, ſo is the commerce; and all the wealth of the country paſſes yearly away, like a tribute, to the ſeveral parts of Europe to which the various parts of America belong. And though it is true that the wealth of America goes away, as a tribute to Europe, yet it is alſo true, that it goes thither by way of commerce too, and in return for the manufactures of Europe, which are ſent to them in America for their ſupply. In a word, the Europeans receive the whole product of the country, from end to end, and ſend the Americans, in the room thereof, a few cloaths to wear; and theſe very cloaths are chiefly for the uſe of the Europeans ſettled there for maintaining the poſſeſſion, as lords of the country, and who having diſpoſſeſſed the native inhabitants, and driven them into corners, rule them with a rod of iron, eſpecially the Spaniards.

The produce of America is a prodigy of wealth, immeaſurable in it's quantity, and inexpreſſible in it's value. It conſiſts chiefly of gold, ſilver, pearl, emeralds, hides of beaſts, tobacco, ſugar, cacao, cocheneal, indigo, peltry, drugs, ſpice, cotton, dyers woods, fiſh, &c.—Theſe are returned to Europe in it's proper diviſions thus: the gold chiefly to Portugal from the Braſils; which is afterwards diſſeminated, in the courſe of the Portugal trade, to divers other parts of Europe. See the article PORTUGAL.—The ſilver to Spain, from the ſhores of the South Seas, and from Mexico and Peru, which is alſo diſperſed throughout the other parts of Europe, in the channels of the Spaniſh commerce. See the article SPAIN.—The fiſh from Newfoundland, &c. is ſent to various parts of Europe.

Upon the whole of this commerce, 'tis certain that Europe alſo is the gainer, and that to an exceſs ſcarce to be conceived; the ballance being ſo great in it's favour, that it has, together with that wealth from Africa already mentioned, immenſely enriched and aggrandized all the trading European nations that have any great concern in theſe capital branches of commerce.

Aſia is a country extremely rich alſo in it's product, though, in that reſpect, not to be compared with either of the former two; but it is rendered extremely rich, by the prodigious numbers and inimitable diligence, induſtry, and application of it's inhabitants; who are ſo circumſtanced, that they call for little from any other part of the world: and they are ſo indefatigable, aſſiduous, and ingenious in the mechanic and manufactural arts, ſo amply ſupplied by nature with materials and their workmanſhip is ſo extremely cheap, that they are able to fill the whole world with their manufactures and produce.

By which means the ſtate of trade between Europe and Aſia ſtands thus: Europe calls for a vaſt variety of goods from Aſia; great quantities of which are diſperſed into America and Africa, by way of barter and exchange for the productions of theſe parts of the world: ſo that although a conſiderable part of the ſilver that comes from America is ſent to Aſia for their produce and manufactures; yet, as ſilver is one of the plentiful productions of America, it is the ſame thing as the American bartering any other commodity for the Aſiatic commodities, and therefore the trade of Aſia cannot be ſo injurious to the wealth of Europe, as ſome have been wont to apprehend. For let it be ſuppoſed, that every ounce of ſilver that was ever produced in America centered in Europe, and was in circulation, it is to be queſtioned whether Europe would be ever the richer, and the comparative ſtate of the riches of theſe European nations who ſhared in the American ſilver, would be the ſame as it is at preſent: the labour and manufactures of theſe nations in Europe would be ſo much dearer, in their reciprocal barter and exchanges of produce and manufactures with each other; which would ſtill keep upon the ſame comparative equality, with reſpect to their riches. But, if the riches of nations ſo much conſiſts in the plenty of ſilver, as ſome are pleaſed to think, the immenſe quantity of wrought plate which is at preſent in Europe, demonſtrates, that all the ſilver that hath come from America, has not been ſent to Aſia; an immenſe quantity of it lies dead in theſe articles: and it is, perhaps, a moot point, whether theſe nations would be e'er the richer, if all the wrought plate among them was coined into money, and preſerved as long as the courſe of trade would permit, in their commercial circulation. See the articles ASIA, BALLANCE of TRADE, BULLION, CASH, CIRCULATION, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, EAST-INDIA TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY of ENGLAND, GOLD, SILVER, MONEY.

If the trade of Aſia had, for a ſeries of years, been ſo diſadvantageous to Europe, as is by ſome ſuggeſted, it would certainly have greatly impoveriſhed all theſe nations therein concerned, which does not appear to be the caſe: on the contrary, not only thoſe who have been long intereſted in this trade, are zealous to preſerve and increaſe it, but new powers are daily ſtruggling to obtain ſome ſhare therein; which they would hardly do, if they were not convinced that this trade, upon the whole, is really beneficial to the reſpective potentates therein engaged.

Before I conclude this article, the peculiar policy of the Aſiatics, in regard to the importation of ſilver from Europe, may deſerve conſideration; for although ſilver is a commodity, which they take partly in barter for their produce, and manufactures, yet, if we are rightly informed, this ſilver is not coined into money, and kept in circulation: no, to prevent this, the princes and great men not only make up large quantities into wrought plate, but they bury under ground immenſe quantities; whereby they effectually prevent it's coming into their commercial circulation, and conſequently by that means they prevent the riſe in all the neceſſaries, even luxuries of life, and thereby keep the price of labour always low and at a ſtand: ſo that by this policy they can afford to ſell their produce and manufactures cheaper than any other nation whatſoever. And, if an huſbandman, mechanic, manufacturer, or any other perſon, in Aſia, can purchaſe as much for the value of ſix-pence ſterling in money, as a European can do for two ſhillings ſterling, does not the ſix-pence anſwer the ſame end to the Aſiatic, as the two ſhillings does to the European? In ſome of the hiſtories of this part of the world, that I have met with (but I can't at preſent recollect which) it is ſaid, that ſuch is the policy of ſeveral of the governments in the Eaſt-Indies, that their prieſts propagate a notion among the people, that, the more ſilver they die poſſeſſed of, the happier they will be in a future ſtate: which notion occaſions the ſilver to be hoarded and buried, and thereby kept out of circulation to prevent any riſe in the price of labour and commodities: and this is ſaid to be the occaſion of the ſurprizing cheapneſs of all their produce and manufactures, when bought at firſt hand, in compariſon to thoſe of the richeſt European nations.

If this principle, upon examination, ſhould be found to be good policy, may not the great paper circulation of the kingdom of Great-Britain in particular, which is occaſioned by our national debts and taxes, deſerve ſerious conſideration? For, if paper circulation, by authority, will anſwer the end of coined money, the more paper there is in circulation by way of transfer or otherwiſe, the more money there is, in effect, in circulation: and if ſo, do not our debts and taxes in this reſpect, as well as in others, contribute to keep up the price of labour, and render our produce and manufactures proportionally dearer than otherwiſe they would be? Can any thing, therefore, more importantly concern the intereſts of our commerce, than the exonerating us from our national debts, and in conſequence thereof, from the payment of thoſe taxes which are appropriated for the payment of the intereſt and the principal thereof? For when the whole debt ſhall be paid off, and all the paper effects thereby occaſioned be annihilated, and conſequently the public taxes abated, will not all merchandizes fall in their price?

That this will prove the caſe, there are two reaſons aſſignable, ſays Eraſmus Philips, Eſq; in the ſtate of the nation: 'The firſt is, that when thoſe paper effects (which now have 'the operation of money) are ſunk, their operation muſt 'ceaſe of courſe; for as the value of commodities has riſen 'by the increaſe of gold and ſilver within theſe 150 years, 'ſo would they of neceſſity fall in their price, if our gold 'and ſilver were conſiderably diminiſhed; the conſequence 'muſt be the ſame of that which has the operation of 'money.

'The ſecond reaſon is very obvious; for goods that are taxed 'bear a price in proportion to the impoſt upon them; when 'they are free from this incumbrance, there can be no rea'ſon why they ſhould not come to their natural value; (If I 'may uſe the expreſſion) for inſtance, if the duty on malt 'be ſix-pence per buſhel; when this duty is taken off, malt 'of courſe ſhould be ſix-pence a buſhel cheaper than before. 'The ſame muſt be ſaid of all other commodities that are 'taxed.' See the articles DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] FUNDS, TAXES.

Some have imagined, that it was for the advantage of a ſtate to be indebted to itſelf: they thought that this multiplied riches by increaſing the circulation.

Thoſe who are of this opinion have, I believe, confounded a circulating paper, which repreſents money, or a circulating paper, which is the ſign of the profits that a company has, or will make by commerce, with a paper which repreſents a debt. The two firſt are extremely advantageous to the ſtate, the laſt can never be ſo, and all that we can expect from it is, that individuals have a good ſecurity for their payment. But let us ſee the inconveniencies which reſult from it.

1. If foreigners poſſeſs much paper, which repreſents a debt, they annually draw out of the nation a conſiderable ſum for intereſt. To prevent which, ſee the article DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS.]

2. A nation that is thus perpetually in debt, ought to have the exchange very low.

3. The taxes raiſed for the payment of the intereſt of the debt are a hurt to the manufacturers, by raiſing the price of the artificers labour. See our articles DUTIES, DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS.]

4. It takes the true revenue of the ſtate from thoſe who have activity and induſtry, to convey it to the indolent; that is, it gives the materials for labour to thoſe who do not labour, and clogs with difficulties the induſtrious artiſt.

Theſe are it's inconveniences: I know of no advantages. Ten perſons have each a yearly income of a thouſand crowns, either in land or trade; this raiſes to the nation at 5 per cent. a capital of 200,000 crowns. If theſe ten perſons employed the half of their income, that is, 5000 crowns, in paying the intereſt of an 100,000 crowns, which they had borrowed of others, that would be only to the ſtate, as 200,000; that is, in the language of the algebraiſt, 200,000 crowns — 100,000 crowns + 100,000 crowns = 200,000 crowns.

People are thrown, perhaps, into this error, by reflecting, that the paper which repreſents the debt of a nation, is the ſign of riches; for none but a rich ſtate can ſupport ſuch paper, without falling into decay. And if it does not fall, it is a proof that the ſtate has other riches beſides. They ſay that it is not an evil, becauſe there are reſources againſt it, and that it is an advantage, becauſe theſe reſources ſurpaſs the evil.

REMARKS.

Though Europe is eſteemed the moſt happy and valuable quarter of the globe, theſe prerogatives are not derived from it's ſize, ſince it is the leaſt of all the four into which the world is divided.

It has been ſuppoſed, that if the whole habitable globe was divided into 300 parts, Europe will contain of theſe 27, Aſia 101, Africa 82, and America 90. In reſpect, though ſhe excels America, and perhaps Africa, yet ſhe falls far ſhort of Aſia, if we may depend on the account of the leaſt exceptionable travellers. With regard to ſubterranean riches, her gold and ſilver mines are not to be compared with thoſe in the other quarters of the world; ſhe has few precious ſtones, and as to ſpices and perfumes, we well know from whence they come.

But with regard to territory, if we conſider what the Spaniards, the Engliſh, the Portugueze, the French, and the Dutch, poſſeſs in other parts of the world, it may be ſaid, that the dominions of the European powers are equal, if not ſuperior to Aſia; and if it does not contain ſo many people within it's own limits, yet it commands more. And,

In conſequence of their trade, the Europeans enjoy all that nature has beſtowed on the other parts of the world. The trade of Europe has, in a courſe of ages, undergone great alterations. Upon the fall of the Roman empire, it ſeemed to be in ſome meaſure extinguiſhed, but ſoon revived among the Saxons, who, when they became maſters of this iſland, eſtabliſhed a great maritime power here, which did not continue long, the Danes becoming maſters of this country.

After ſome ages, commerce and maritime power retired ſouthward, and were in a manner engroſſed by the Italian ſtates, particularly by the Venetians and Genoeſe, who ſhared the traffic of the eaſt.

In the 13th century, ſeveral free cities in Germany began to league together for the ſupport of their trade, and made their confederacy known to the world, by the title of the Hanſeatic league. As their trade acquired them immenſe wealth and power, ſo it rendered them haughty and inſolent, which, with other concurring circumſtances, at length brought on their ruin; for in the 15th century, the Portugueze perfected a new route to the Eaſt-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; and about the ſame time the Spaniards diſcovered America, which threw the trade of Europe and it's chief naval power into the hands of thoſe nations, who, if they had known how to cultivate them, and uſe them with moderation, might not only have raiſed it higher, but made it more durable than it proved. But the boundleſs ambition and cruel oppreſſion of the Spaniards, animated the United Provinces to throw off their yoke, and engaged them and the Engliſh to ſhare in thoſe riches, which were the ſource of the Spaniſh power, and this gave riſe to the maritime powers. The progreſs of the Dutch from this time, in commerce and naval power, was amazingly rapid; for in the ſpace of about half a century, from having ſcarce any ſhips at all, they came to have more than all Europe together.

Since that time, Great-Britain, by extending her commerce, and multiplying her colonies, has raiſed her maritime force to an equality with the Dutch. The French too have, of late years, not only raiſed a conſiderable maritime force, but have extended their traffic into all parts of the world; for though the wars before the laſt, in a great meaſure, ruined their navy, yet we experienced by the war in 1741, that they had greatly raiſed it again, and carried their commerce to a pitch beyond all our apprehenſions: and, whatever diſadvantages they had ſuſtained in either, they were in a fair way to retrieve, and to extend them to what degree they pleaſed, had not a ſtop been put to this career by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763. So that the maritime affairs of Europe have in this laſt century ſuffered a very great change.

The like attention to commerce and maritime power has, within theſe fifty years, appeared in almoſt every other nation in Europe. The Swedes and Danes have ſet up Eaſt-India companies; the Ruſſians have opened a new and beneficial traffic, as well on the Caſpian, as on the Black Sea. The houſe of Auſtria has ſhewed a great deſire of reviving the antient commerce of the Low Countries. The Genoeſe have, within theſe few years, erected a company of aſſurance, to encourage their ſubjects to venture upon long voyages, and if poſſible, to recover their antient reputation as a maritime power. Nay, even the Spaniards themſelves, who in this reſpect have ſlept for ſuch a number of years, have at length opened their eyes, have erected ſome, and have had under conſideration the erecting ſeveral other companies, and eſtabliſhed divers capital manufactures for the encouragement and extenſion of trade throughout their European dominions, and have aimed at the eſtabliſhment of a FISHERY in NEWFOUNDLAND; but the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, has put an effectual ſtop to their pretenſions. See BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA.

Whence 'tis plain, that the Navigation and ſhipping of the Europeans in general, is, within the laſt fifty years, greatly increaſed: as a farther proof hereof, we need only conſider the numerous fleets and great embarkations of different powers, ſuch as the Ruſſians, Swedes, and Danes in the north, the invaſion of Sicily and Africa by the Spaniards, and many others.

That nation which augments it's commerce and maritime power to the greateſt extent, bids fair to give law to the reſt, unleſs by a preſervative confederacy of the leſſer powers, they ſhould become a match for the greateſt potentate.

Thus, for inſtance, if the houſe of Bourbon ſhould ever acquire as great a proportion of trade and naval power as either of the maritime powers, by which name they are at preſent diſtinguiſhed, this would be an acquiſition of much more conſequence, than any they have hitherto made in point of territories or dominion.

It is therefore the intereſt of the maritime powers to ſuſtain their characters in that reſpect at all events; ſince by this means only, they can preſerve their independency, protect their ſubjects wherever they may be ſettled or diſperſed, and aſſiſt their allies, notwithſtanding the ſuperior power, as well as boundleſs ambition of any aſpiring neighbour. We need not wonder then, at a common notion which prevails, as if we had a right to preſcribe to ſome other nations the bounds of their naval greatneſs; and to ſay the truth, we ſeem to have laid a good foundation for this by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

What has been ſaid in relation to trade and commerce, may anſwer the end expected from it in an hiſtorical light, and enable us, in ſome meaſure, to judge of the nature, extent, and comparative ſtrength of what is ſtiled maritime power. We ſee and know, that whatever ſtate or power is poſſeſſed of an extenſive commerce, may have a proportionate naval force, the effects whereof will render her conſiderable; yet it is requiſite to know how this ariſes, and why the ſtrength and dominion of a maritime power is firmer and more durable than that which ariſes from a great extent of territory, multitudes of ſubjects, or rich and fruitful countries, which is what we ſhall explain and apply.

Trade is certainly the ſtrength and happineſs of a nation, let the form of it's government be what it will; becauſe it introduces induſtry and arts, by which the manners of a people are civilized, even from the greateſt ſavageneſs and brutality. See BARBARY. REMARKS thereon.

Nor is it the number of ſubjects only, but the number of uſeful ſubjects, that is, trading ſubjects, that make a ſtate powerful. Commerce introduces property, and without ſecurity with reſpect to that, the inducements to purſue trade will flag; and otherwiſe it will thrive and proſper, and will draw an inconceivable flux of people, wherever it is thoroughly eſtabliſhed, and wiſely cheriſhed and promoted.

Hence we may eaſily aſſign the true cauſes of the long duration of republics renowned for their trade; ſuch as Tyre and Carthage in antient times, the Venetians and Genoeſe in later ages. It is almoſt impoſſible, that a nation active and induſtrious in commerce, and in conſequence thereof rich and populous, and living under a mild government, ſhould not exert a greater force when employed in attacking others, and have much greater reſources in caſe ſhe is attacked herſelf, than other ſtates that are defective in thoſe advantages; whence it will appear, how the ſtates of Holland roſe to ſuch a vaſt power in ſo ſhort a time, and how her ſubjects have been able to thrive and grow opulent under taxes and impoſitions, which muſt have beggared them in any other ſituation than that of a trading republic. See HOLLAND. Beſides,

Trade quite changes the comparative ſtrength of ſtates and kingdoms, becauſe wherever it reſides, it creates ſo many and ſo great advantages, and begets ſuch relations and connections, as render a trading country infinitely ſuperior to her neighbours, who are differently circumſtanced. For,

ſuch a ſtate, if on the Continent, can fortify her great towns, ſo as to reſiſt a power ten times ſtronger, in reſpect to people; ſhe can maintain, if requiſite, great numbers of regular troops, and on emergency hire more of her neighbours, beſides what ſhe may be able to do by the help of her maritime force. Hence ariſes that great ſtrength and real power ſhewn by trading republics, when attacked either by ambitious princes, or even by powerful confederacies.

Thus the Venetians have often been too hard for the Turks, the Genoeſe for the moſt powerful princes in Italy; and, in earlier times, the Lubeckers for the greateſt powers in the north. Hence the famous league of Cambray, which was formed for the deſtruction of the ſtate of Venice in 1509, came to nothing, though the greateſt princes of that time engaged in it, and though the Venetians themſelves were guilty of ſome indiſcretions, and though they had been much exhauſted by former wars. Thus alſo the famous confederacy between France and Great-Britain againſt Holland in 1672, proved abortive, though at the firſt, even the Dutch themſelves thought their affairs deſperate; but their love of liberty animated them to exert themſelves to the utmoſt, and their commerce furniſhed them with the means of getting tolerably out of the war.

Nor has trade only a great influence on the particular affairs of nations ſeparately conſidered, and is almoſt the ſole cauſe of a comparative difference in the ſtrength and forces of moſt of the powers of Europe, but is alſo of unſpeakable advantage to the European quarter of the globe in general; frees us from apprehenſions of being over-run by thoſe barbarous empires which the Mahommedan religion has eſtabliſhed in the world, and likewiſe brings us every thing that is rich and coſtly, every thing that is curious and eſtimable, even from the remoteſt quarters of the earth; ſo that to trade alone, all is due to this part of the world: in a word, it is to commerce that the people of Europe owe their freedom and independency, their learning and arts, their extenſive colonies abroad, and their riches at home; and above all, that naval power, which ſo much ſurpaſſes any thing of the ſame kind in other parts of the world, and whatever was attempted in that way in former ages.

The reciprocal connections between nations reſulting from trade, have quite altered the ſtate of things, and produced within theſe two or three centuries paſt, a kind of new ſyſtem in Europe, by which every ſtate is led to have a much greater concern than formerly for what may happen to another. As in former ages a quarrel in the north could only have affected the north, but in the laſt century things were totally altered. Both the Dutch and we have ſent our fleets into the Baltic, upon the quarrel that happened between the Swedes and Danes, a little before the reſtoration of king Charles II. Not long after this, the crown of Sweden became a contracting party in the famous triple alliance for maintaining the peace of Europe, preſerving the Spaniſh Low Countries, and ſetting bounds to the power of France. After the Revolution, towards the cloſe of the reign of king William, both the maritime powers ſent their fleets again into the Baltic, with the ſame view, and with the ſame ſucceſs, and the like has been done more than once ſince. In all thoſe caſes the pretence was, the love of juſtice, and a punctual performance of treaties, in which there was ſomewhat of truth; but the real deſign was, to prevent thoſe inconveniencies which muſt have befallen the maritime powers, if either Sweden or Denmark had been undone by thoſe wars. May it not therefore be truly ſaid, that a notion of the BALLANCE OF POWER (in the ſtrict ſenſe of that phraſe) was created by TRADE, and muſt continue to be the object more eſpecially of trading countries ſo long as they would preſerve their commerce and their freedom?

Whenever any power in Europe therefore attempts to oppreſs another, or betrays a deſign of increaſing it's own ſtrength, by weakening or conquering it's neighbour, other potentates are ready to interpoſe; from a quick ſenſe, not only of the inconveniencies that muſt ariſe from the incroachments made by ſuch a power, but from the juſt apprehenſions that this muſt prove prejudicial to commerce in general, and to that in ſeveral nations in particular; who, to prevent that, will not ſcruple to take up arms.

Whence it appears, that the ballance of power is not an empty name, or a chimerical thing, but a juſt and ſignificant expreſſion, though a new and figurative one. For the meaning is, the preſerving the ſeveral governments of Europe in their preſent condition, and the preventing any in particular from acquiring ſuch a meaſure of power, as may be dangerous or fatal to thoſe reciprocal intereſts before obſerved; which as they took riſe from, are abſolutely neceſſary to the continuance of commerce: for any attempts thereupon muſt be felt by every nation that has a ſhare of trade to preſerve. Whence it follows, that it is the intereſt of all the powers in Europe to ſupport each other's independency, and prevent whatever has the appearance of an UNIVERSAL MONARCHY, or the introducing the influence of one court over the greateſt part of the reſt; becauſe this muſt be detrimental to the whole, and injurious to the freedom, learning, arts, manufactures and commerce of Europe in general.

Without urging more on this head, it appears, that peace and good neighbourhood, the encouragement of arts and ſciences, and the purſuit of manufactures and commerce, as they are agreeable to the intereſt of every particular ſtate, ſo they are beſt for the whole; and would contribute to render every particular country of Europe infinitely more populous, and the people in all countries much more happy, than any vain endeavours to aggrandize particular ſtates at the expence of others, and the ſlaughter of human nature.

EXCHANGE. Under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, we have ſhewed how this practical part of exchange may occaſionally conduce to the merchant's intereſt in particular, as well as that of the nation in general: this we have done by a few ſimple arbitrations, according to the moſt conciſe methods of operation, which are practiſed by the more ſkilful and expert negociators of money by exchange. This branch of practical exchange will be continued in a more complex manner throughout this work. And on conſulting the article BILLS of EXCHANGE, the reader will not only find an ample account of the principal cuſtoms and uſages relating thereunto in ſome of the chief trading nations of Europe, but likewiſe the laws of England and Scotland in particular, and thoſe from the moſt approved authorities.

With reſpect to the computation of exchanges, and the converting of ſterling money into the monies of the principal countries in Europe, and vice verſa, with which we have direct courſes of exchange eſtabliſhed, the reader will find the principles thereof exemplified, with all deſirable brevity and perſpicuity, under the article ENGLAND, towards the concluſion thereof. There he will find alſo our references to ſuch other heads, with regard to the ſubject of practical exchanges, as will, altogether, make a more complete ſyſtem of this branch of mercantile erudition than is to be met with elſewhere, either in the Engliſh or any other language.

Under the article BALLANCE of TRADE, we have conſidered the nature of exchange in a political and national light, in order to diſcover how far the courſes of exchange between nation and nation, together with the price of bullion gold and ſilver, and the true ſtate of the cuſtom-houſe accounts, will contribute to give an inſight into the particular ballance of trade, and all money tranſactions between one country and another, and enable us to judge likewiſe how the general ballance ſtands with all nations.

To exemplify and illuſtrate what I have urged under the foregoing heads from reaſon and authority, I have again reſumed the ſubject under the article BRITAIN, or GREAT-BRITAIN, where we have applied thoſe general principles before laid down, to the preſent ſtate of our own kingdom, by ſhewing how the courſes of exchange at any time may be compared with the chief countries of Europe with which we drive any conſiderable commerce; with a view to make the beſt judgment we can of the ſtate of our trade and all money tranſactions, from time to time, by means of a due conſideration of ſaid courſes.

But as the conſideration of ſubjects in variety of lights tends to a further and more ſatisfactory ecclairciſſment thereof, we ſhall here again touch upon this topic of exchange, it being more natural for the reader, eſpecially at firſt, to conſult this head than thoſe others, which we have before intimated; although, upon peruſal of what is there ſaid, I flatter myſelf, that the judicious obſervator will not judge what is before urged any way unnatural, or repugnant to the articles under which the matter is contained.

Of exchange in a political light.

The relative abundance and ſcarcity of ſpecie in different countries, forms what is called the courſe of exchange.

Exchange is a fixing of the actual and momentary value of money.

Silver, as a metal, has a value like all other merchandizes, and an additional value as it is capable of becoming the ſign of other merchandizes. If it was no more than a mere merchandize, it would perhaps loſe much of it's value.

Silver, as money, has a value, which the prince in ſome reſpects can fix, and in others he cannot.

The prince eſtabliſhes a proportion between a quantity of ſilver as metal, and the ſame quantity as money. (2.) He fixes the proportion between the ſeveral metals made uſe of as money. (3.) He eſtabliſhes the weight and ſtandard of every piece of money. In fine (4.) He gives to every piece that ideal value whereof we have ſpoken. We ſhall call the value of money in theſe four reſpects it's poſitive value, becauſe it may be fixed by law.

The coin of every ſtate has, beſides this, a relative value, as it is compared with the money of other countries. This relative value is eſtabliſhed by the exchange, and greatly depends on it's poſitive value. It is fixed by the current courſe of commerce, and by the general opinion of the merchants, never by the decrees of the prince; becauſe it is liable to inceſſant variations, and depends on the accidental circumſtances of trade, the money tranſactions between nations, and the ſtate of the public credit, &c.

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The ſeveral nations in fixing this relative value, are chiefly guided by that which has the greateſt quantity of ſpecie. If ſhe has as much ſpecie as all the others together, it is then moſt proper for the others to regulate theirs by her ſtandard; and this regulation between all the others will pretty nearly agree with the regulation made with this principal nation.

In the actual ſtate of the univerſe, * Holland is the nation we are ſpeaking of. Let us examine a little the courſe of exchange with relation to her and France for example.

* The Dutch have more eſtabliſhed courſes of exchange eſtabliſhed throughout Europe than any other ſtate, and are a greater medium of exchange negotiations than any other; they regulate the exchange for almoſt all Europe, by a kind of determination among themſelves, in a manner moſt agreeable to their own intereſt. See the article HOLLAND.

They have in Holland a piece of money called a florin, or a guilder, worth 20 ſous, or 40 half ſous or gros. But to render our ideas as ſimple as poſſible, let us imagine that they have not any ſuch piece of money in Holland as a florin or guilder, and that they have no other but the gros; a man who ſhould have 1000 florins, would have 40,000 gros, and ſo of the reſt. Now the exchange with Holland is determined, by knowing how many gros every piece of money in other countries is worth; and as in France they commonly reckon by a crown of three livres, the exchange makes it neceſſary for the French to know how many gros are contained in a crown of three livres. If the courſe of exchange is at 54, a crown of three livres will be worth 54 gros; if it is at 60, it will be worth 60 gros. If ſilver is ſcarce in France, a crown of three livres will be worth more gros; if plentiful, it will be worth leſs.

This ſcarcity or plenty, from whence reſults the mutability of the courſe of exchange, is not the real, but a relative ſcarcity or plenty. For example, when France has greater occaſion for funds in Holland, than the Dutch of having funds in France, ſpecie is ſaid to be common in France, and ſcarce in Holland, and vice verſa.

Let it be ſuppoſed, that the courſe of exchange between Holland and France is at 54; if France and Holland compoſed only one city, they would act as the French do, when they give change for a crown: the Frenchman would take three livres out of his pocket, and the Dutchman 54 gros from his. But as there is ſome diſtance between Paris and Amſterdam, it is neceſſary that he who for a French crown of three livres gives 54 gros which he has in Holland, ſhould give a bill of exchange for 54 gros, payable in Holland. The 54 gros is not the thing in queſtion, but a bill for that ſum. Thus, in order to judge of the * ſcarcity or plenty of ſpecie, we muſt know if there are in France more bills of 54 gros, drawn upon Holland, than there are crowns drawn upon France. If there are more bills from Holland, than there are from France, ſpecie is ſcarce in France, and common in Holland; it then becomes neceſſary that the exchange ſhould riſe, and that the Dutch give for a French crown more than 54 gros; otherwiſe the Frenchman will not part with it, and vice verſa.

* There is much ſpecie in a place, when there is more ſpecie than paper; there is little, when there is more paper than ſpecie.

Thus the various turns in the courſe of exchange form an account of debtor and creditor, which muſt be frequently ſettled, and which the ſtate in debt can no more diſcharge by exchange, than an individual can pay a debt by giving change for a piece of ſilver.

Let it be ſuppoſed that there are but three ſtates in the world, Holland, France and Spain; the ſeveral individuals in Spain are indebted to France, to the value of 100,000 marks * of ſilver; and that ſeveral individuals of France owe in Spain 110,000 marks: now, if ſome circumſtance, both in Spain and France, ſhould cauſe each ſuddenly to withdraw his ſpecie, what will then be the courſe of exchange? Theſe two nations will reciprocally acquit each other of an 100,000 marks: but France will ſtill owe 10,000 marks to Spain, and the Spaniards will ſtill have bills upon France, to the value of 10,000 marks; while France will have none at all upon Spain.

* A mark is a weight of eight ounces.

But if Holland was in a contrary ſituation with reſpect to France, and in order to ballance their account, muſt pay her 10,000 marks, the French would have two ways of paying the Spaniards; either by giving their creditors in Spain bills for 10,000 marks upon their debtors in Holland, or elſe by ſending ſpecie to the value of 10,000 marks to Spain.

From hence it follows, that when a ſtate has occaſion to remit a ſum of money into another country, it is indifferent, in the nature of things, whether ſpecie be conveyed thither, or or they take bills of exchange. The advantage or diſadvantage of theſe two methods ſolely depends on actual circumſtances. The French muſt enquire which will yield moſt gros in Holland, money carried thither in ſpecie, or a bill upon Holland for the like ſum *.

* With the expence of carriage and inſurance deducted.

When money of the ſame ſtandard and weight in France yields money of the ſame ſtandard and weight in Holland, it is ſaid that the exchange is at par. In the actual ſtate of ſpecie, which was in 1744, the par was nearly at 54 gros to the French crown of three livres. When the exchange is above 54 gros, the French ſay it is high; when beneath, they ſay it is low.

In order to know the loſs and gain of a ſtate, in a particular ſituation of exchange, it muſt be conſidered as debtor and creditor, as buyer and ſeller. When the exchange is below par, it loſes as debtor, and gains as creditor; it loſes as buyer, and gains as ſeller. It is obvious it loſes as debtor: ſuppoſe, for example, France owes Holland a certain number of gros there are in a crown, the more crowns ſhe has to pay. On the contrary, if France is creditor, for a certain number of gros, the leſs number of gros there are in a crown, the more crowns ſhe will receive. The ſtate loſes alſo as a buyer; for there muſt be the ſame number of gros, to buy the ſame quantity of merchandiſes; and while the exchange is low, every French crown is worth fewer gros. For the ſame reaſon the ſtate gains as a ſeller: you ſell your merchandiſe in Holland for a certain number of gros; you receive then more French crowns, when for every 50 gros you receive a crown, than you would do if you received only the ſame crown for every 54. The contrary to this takes place in the other ſtate. If the Dutch are indebted a certain number of crowns to France, they will gain; if they are owing to them, they will loſe; if they ſell, they loſe; if they buy, they gain.

Again: when the exchange between France and Holland is below par; for example, if it ſhould be at 50 inſtead of 54, it ſhould follow that France, on ſending bills of exchange to Holland for 54,000, could buy merchandiſes only to the value of 50,000; and that, on the other hand, the Dutch ſending the value of 50,000 to France, might buy 50,000 crowns, which makes a difference of $\frac{4}{54}$; that is, a loſs to France of more than $\frac{1}{7}$; ſo that France would be obliged to ſend to Holland $\frac{1}{7}$ more in ſpecie or merchandiſe than ſhe would do, was the exchange at par. And as the miſchief muſt conſtantly increaſe, becauſe a debt of this kind would bring the exchange ſtill lower, France would in the end be ruined. It ſeems, we ſay, as if this ſhould certainly follow; and yet it does not, becauſe ſtates conſtantly lean towards a ballance, in order to preſerve their independency. Thus they borrow only in proportion to their ability to pay, and meaſure their buying by what they ſell; and taking the example from what has been ſaid, if the exchange falls in France, from 54 to 50, the Dutch, who buy merchandiſes in France to the value of a thouſand crowns, for which they uſed to pay 54,000 gros, would now pay only 50,000, if the French would conſent to it. But the merchandiſe of France will riſe inſenſibly, and the profit will be ſhared between the French and the Dutch; for when a merchant can gain, he eaſily ſhares his profit: there then ariſes a communication of profit between the French and the Dutch.

In the ſame manner the French, who bought merchandiſes of Holland for 54,000 gros, and who, when the exchange was at 54, paid for them 1000 crowns, will be obliged to add $\frac{4}{54}$ more in French crowns to buy the ſame merchandiſes. But the French merchant, being ſenſible of the loſs he ſuffers, will take up leſs of the merchandiſe of Holland. The French and the Dutch merchant will then be both loſers, the ſtate will inſenſibly fall into a ballance, and the lowering of the exchange will not be attended with theſe inconveniencies which he had reaſon to fear.

A merchant may ſend his ſtock into a foreign country, when the exchange is below par, without injuring his fortune; becauſe when it returns, he recovers what he had loſt; but a prince, who ſends only ſpecie into a foreign country, which never can return, is always a loſer.

When the merchants have great dealings in any country, the exchange there infallibly riſes. This proceeds from their entering into many engagements, buying great quantities of merchandiſes, and drawing upon foreign countries to pay for them.

A prince may amaſs great wealth in his dominions, and yet ſpecie may be really ſcarce and relatively common; for inſtance, a ſtate is indebted for many merchandiſes to a foreign country, the exchange will be low, though ſpecie be ſcarce.

The exchange of all places conſtantly tends to a certain proportion, and that in the very nature of things. If the courſe of exchange from Ireland to England is below par, that of Ireland to Holland will be ſtill lower; that is, in a compound ratio of that of Ireland to England, and that of England to Holland: for a Dutch merchant, who can have his ſpecie indirectly from Ireland, by the way of England, will not chuſe to pay dearer by having it the direct way.

This, we ſay, ought naturally to be the caſe; but, however, it is not exactly ſo; there are always circumſtances which vary theſe things; and the different profit of drawing by one place, or of drawing by another, conſtitutes the particular art and dexterity of the foreign bankers, the nature of which

I have

I have already explained, under the article ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, and ſhall illuſtrate the ſame by a great variety of examples more, under the heads of all the capital ſtates and kingdoms throughout Europe. See alſo the article BANKERS, and the article ENGLAND, the latter part of it.

When a ſtate varies it's ſpecie; when France, for inſtance, gives the name of ſix livres, or two crowns, to what was before called three livres or one crown; this new denomination, which adds nothing real to the crown, ought not to procure a ſingle gros more from Holland by the exchange. The French ought only to have, for the two new crowns, the ſame number of gros, which they before received for the old one. If this does not happen, it muſt not be imputed as an effect of the regulation itſelf, but to the novelty and ſuddenneſs of the affair. The exchange adheres to what is already eſtabliſhed, and is not altered 'till after a certain time.

When a ſtate, inſtead of only raiſing the ſpecie by a law, calls it in, in order to diminiſh it's ſize, it frequently happens that, during the time taken up in it's paſſing again through the mint, there are two kinds of money; the large, which is the old, and the ſmall, which is the new; and as the large is cried down, as not to be received as money, and bills of exchange muſt conſequently be paid in the new, one would imagine then that the exchange ſhould be regulated by the new. If, for example, in France the antient crown of three livres, being worth in Holland 60 gros, was reduced one half, the new crown ought to be valued only at 30. On the other hand, it ſeems as if the exchange ought to be regulated by the old coin; becauſe the banker, who has ſpecie, and receives bills, is obliged to carry the old coin to the mint, in order to change it for the new; by which he muſt be a loſer. The exchange then ought to be fixed between the value of the old coin and that of the new. The value of the old is decreaſed, if we may call it ſo, both becauſe there is already ſome of the new in trade, and becauſe the foreign bankers cannot keep up to the rigour of the law; having an intereſt in letting looſe the old coin from their coffers, and being even ſometimes forced to make payments with it.

Again, the value of the new ſpecie muſt riſe; becauſe the banker, having this, finds himſelf in a ſituation, in which, as we ſhall prove, he will reap great advantage by procuring the old. The exchange ſhould then be fixed, as we have ſaid, between the old and the new coin. For then the bankers find it for their intereſt to ſend the old out of the kingdom; becauſe, by this means, they procure the ſame advantage as they could receive from a regular exchange of the old ſpecie, that is a great many gros in Holland, and, in return, a regular exchange a little lower, between the old and the new ſpecie, which would bring many crowns to France.

Suppoſe that three livres of the old French crown yield by the actual exchange 45 gros, and that, by ſending this ſame crown to Holland, they receive 60: but, with a bill of 45 gros, they procure a crown of three livres in France, which being ſent in the old ſpecie to Holland, ſtill yields 60 gros: thus all the old ſpecie would be ſent out of the kingdom, and the bankers would run away with the whole profit.

To remedy this, new meaſures muſt be taken. The government, which coined the new ſpecie, would itſelf be obliged to ſend great quantities of the old, to the nation which regulates the exchange; and, by thus gaining credit there, raiſe the exchange pretty nearly to as many gros for a crown of three livres, as they could receive for ſending the old crown of three livres out of the country: we ſay, to nearly the ſame; for, while the profits are ſmall, the bankers will not be tempted to ſend it abroad, becauſe of the expence of carriage, and the danger of confiſcations.

It is fit that we ſhould give a very clear idea of this. Monſieur Bernard, or any other banker in France, employed by the ſtate, propoſes bills upon Holland, and gives them at one, two, or three gros higher than the actual exchange; he has made a proviſion, in a foreign country, by means of the old ſpecie, which he has continually been ſending thither; and thus he has raiſed the exchange to the point we have juſt mentioned. In the mean time, by diſpoſing of his bills, he ſeizes on all the new ſpecie, and obliges the other bankers, who have payments to make, to carry their old ſpecie to the mint; and, as he inſenſibly obtains all the ſpecie, he obliges the other bankers to give him bills of exchange at a very high price. By this means he profits in the end, in a great meaſure, for the loſs he ſuſtained at the beginning.

It is evident, that, during theſe tranſactions, the ſtate muſt be in a dangerous criſis. Specie muſt become extremely ſcarce, 1. Becauſe much the greateſt part is cried down. 2. Becauſe a part will be ſent into foreign countries. 3. Becauſe every one will lay it up, as not being willing to give that profit to the prince, which he hopes to receive himſelf. It is dangerous to do it ſlowly; and dangerous alſo, to do it too precipitately. If the ſuppoſed gain be immoderate, the inconveniences increaſe in proportion.

From what has ben ſaid, we ſee, that, when the exchange is lower than the ſpecie, a profit may be made by ſending it abroad; for the ſame reaſon, when it is higher than the ſpecie, there is a profit in cauſing it to return.

But there is a caſe in which profit may be made by ſending the ſpecie out of the kingdom, when the exchange is at par; that is, by ſending it into a foreign country to be coined over again. When it returns, an advantage may be made of it, whether it be circulated in the country, or paid for foreign bills.

Suppoſe a company has been erected in a ſtate, with a prodigious ſtock, and this ſtock has a few months been raiſed 20 or 25 times above the original purchaſe: ſuppoſe again, the ſame ſtate eſtabliſhed a bank, whoſe bills were to perform the office of ſpecie, while the numerary value of theſe bills was prodigious, in order to anſwer to the numerary value of the ſtocks (this was Mr Law's ſyſtem in France) it would follow, from the nature of things, that the ſtocks and theſe bills would vaniſh in the ſame manner as they aroſe. Stocks cannot be ſuddenly raiſed 20 or 25 times above their original value, without giving a number of people the means of procuring immenſe riches in paper: every one would ſeek to ſecure his fortune, and as the exchange offers the moſt eaſy way of it from home, or conveying it whither one pleaſes, people would inceſſantly remit a part of their effects to the nation that regulates the exchange. A project for making continual remittances into a foreign country, muſt lower the exchange.

Let us ſuppoſe, that at the time of Mr Law's ſyſtem in France, in proportion to the ſtandard and weight of the ſilver coin, the exchange was fixed at 44 gros Dutch, to the French crown; when a vaſt quantity of paper became money, they were unwilling to give more than 39 gros for a crown, and afterwards 38, 37, &c. This proceeded ſo far, that after a while they would give but 8 gros, and at laſt there was no exchange at all.

The exchange ought, in this caſe, to have regulated the proportion between the ſpecie and the paper of France. It is ſuppoſed, that, by the weight and ſtandard of the ſilver, the crown of three livres in ſilver was worth 40 gros, and that, the exchange being made in paper, the crown of three livres in paper was worth only 8 gros, the difference was $\frac{4}{5}$. The crown of three livres in paper was then worth $\frac{4}{5}$ leſs than the crown of 3 livres in ſilver.

Although it could be proved, that the courſe of exchange alone is not the infallible criterion *, whereby to judge occaſionally of the particular BALLANCE OF TRADE, only between one country and another; yet it is, perhaps, the moſt certain characteriſtic, whereby to judge of the ballance of money-tranſactions in general between nation and nation; and that is the ſame thing in effect; commercial tranſactions being comprehended in all money-tranſactions, let them be upon whatever accidental or temporary account they will.

* How far the price of exchange may be helpful to give us an inſight into the ſtate of trade between one nation and another. See the article BALLANCE OF TRADE, and BRITAIN, i. e. [GREAT-BRITAIN.]

But if the nature and courſes of exchange be conſidered only as one auxiliary medium of reaſoning, in conjunction with other eſſential conſiderations, in order to make a true judgment of the ſtate of money-concerns between nations, and where the ballance of the account lies, it well deſerves the ſtudy of the rulers of a trading kingdom: and therefore it may be occaſionally of important utility, to view this topic in every light, wherein it may, and has been uſefully conſidered.

I.

Exchange has been ſhortly defined by ſome, to be nothing but a compenſation of value from one country to another.

II.

If our commerce and diſburſements in foreign countries are equal to their commerce and diſburſements in ours, the compenſation is equal; in which caſe the ballance of that trade, and money diſburſements, are ſaid to be equal, and the exchange at par; that is to ſay, one who gives money in the one country ſhall receive as much from the other in weight and ſtandard. Thus, if the Frenchman for each of his crowns that are now current for three livres, which he gives at Paris in new ſpecie, receives 54 $\frac{1}{3}$ gros, current money, or 52 gros of bank money, in Holland, and 29 d. $\frac{149}{1000}$ ſterling of London; and if the Hollander, for his 54 $\frac{1}{3}$ gros, current money, or for his 52 gros of bank money, receives a crown of three livres at Paris, then they both receive preciſely as much as they give; if they receive more, they gain; if leſs they loſe.

REMARKS.

Two ſorts of money are, as it were, the ſoul and mover of commerce, the one real, and the other ideal. The real money conſiſts of gold and ſilver; it was introduced for the facility of commerce; it made ſale ſucceed to barter, by becoming the price and meaſure of whatever enters into commerce among men. But, as the incumbrance and difficulty of tranſporting theſe ſpecies was ſtill an impediment to commerce, recourſe was had to letters, or bills of exchange, from one country or place upon another; and, in order to make the negociations and computations the eaſier, money

of account, or exchange, was imagined, as pounds, ſhillings, and pence ſterling, in England; livres, ſols, and crowns in France; deniers, ſols, and livres de gros, in Holland, &c. This laſt ſort of imaginary, or ideal money, which conſiſts in a certain number of pieces of real money, may be called political money.

Theſe two ſorts of money furniſh two ſorts of compariſons, equalities, or proportions; 1. Between the weight, ſtandard, and value of the real monies of one country, and the weight, ſtandard, and value of the real monies of another country: this ſort of equality we ſhall call the real par.

The real par, or that exact equality between the current monies, is the moſt eſſential point, and yet the leaſt known, in the commerce of exchange: it is, likewiſe, the moſt fixed point whence we can ſet out; for the weight and ſtandard of coins are every-where more ſteady than their numerical value.

The ſecond equality which we are to conſider, is between the monies of exchange of one country and thoſe of another, which admit of frequent variations as to the quantity of the one which muſt be given to equal the other. Theſe variations, which proceed from the arbitrary value which ſovereigns affix to the real money in their dominions, and from the plenty or ſcarcity of bills of exchange of one place upon another, make preciſely what we call exchanges. Their equality conſiſts in finding the proportion of one exchange to two or more exchanges given: that is what we ſhall call the political par.

This par is, therefore, an exact equality between the values of exchange of different markets, compared with one another; it is what ought to be conſidered by the trader as a moſt important object of his ſtudy*. He ought to trace out the difference of theſe exchanges, make exact and frequent compariſons of them, examine every day what is the reſult of the changes laid together. It is from this nice and particular examination that he diſcovers the paths that he ought to purſue, and the circuits which he may, or which he ought to make, from place to place, that he may be capable of improving every advantage which offers to him from each exchange in particular, and to ſhun making remittances directly upon any trading city whoſe exchange ſhall not appear favourable to him.

* For the reaſons hereof ſee the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, and the article ENGLAND, in the latter part of it. See alſo the articles FRANCE, HOLLAND, and all the chief trading ſtates in Europe, under their reſpective denominations.

Here then offer to our conſideration two ſorts of parities, which muſt not be confounded, the REAL PAR, and the POLITICAL PAR. No body has hitherto treated at all ſatisfactorily of the real par: in order, therefore, to do that, in a manner the moſt accurate and uſeful, we muſt be perfectly acquainted with the weights, ſtandards, and values of all the real coins of every ſtate in Europe. We muſt be above the difficulty of calculations which this delicate ſubject requires, ſo that none of them may give any obſtruction to our profitable views and ſpeculations.

It is neceſſary likewiſe for us to know, and that with the utmoſt preciſion, the moſt exact proportion that is poſſible between the weights with which gold and ſilver are weighed in our own country, and thoſe with which they are weighed in all others; for, upon our exact knowlege of the proportion between all thoſe different weights, the compariſon of the money of one ſtate with that of another abſolutely depends.

In the ordinary books of commerce, or of foreign exchange, made up by arithmeticians, we find the proportions of weights and meaſures; but there are proportions between the weights with which merchandizes are weighed only, and theſe are commonly inaccurately given: beſides that theſe weights are not every-where the ſame with which gold and ſilver are weighed, the importance of thoſe metals requires much more exactneſs and preciſion than is either required, or really beſtowed, on merchandizes in general: thus one who was to follow thoſe proportions would be egregiouſly miſtaken.

As to the manner of finding the REAL PAR between the real coins of two ſtates, or the POLITICAL PAR between the money of exchange of two or more ſtates, we ſhall give preſently a general formulary, by the proper application whereof all thoſe parities may be diſcovered; it ſuppoſes an exact knowlege of all the real coins, of their weights, ſtandards, and values in every ſtate.

III.

If a nation ſupplies us with more than it takes from us, or if we diſburſe more money therein than ſuch ſtate does among us, we muſt neceſſarily pay that overplus, which is the ballance of trade and all money tranſactions between the two nations; either in money or bullion.

In order to pay that ballance due to the foreign country, the demand for their money, or for their bills of exchange, becomes greater among us than their quantity: this is what raiſes their price, and lowers the exchange below par*, becauſe, in that caſe, the Dutch give to the French, we will ſuppoſe, leſs than 54 $\frac{1}{2\frac{1}{3}}$ gros of current money, or than 52 gros of bank money, and the Engliſh leſs than 29$\frac{14}{105}$ pence ſterling, for the French exchange crown. In that caſe the French receive leſs, or they give more money than they have received; which makes the price of exchange diſadvantageous to France; it falls below par, or it's true value. Thus exchange has become a traffic; and this difference of the par to what is given, makes the courſe of exchange. In the example before us, it ſhews that France is indebted to her foreign neighbour, and, conſequently, that the commerce which is carried on with that nation is burdenſome and expenſive to her.

* We ſay the exchange is lowered, when it falls below par; many people ſay it riſes, becauſe they mean, in the preſent caſe, that a greater quantity of French livres, or crowns, are to be given for a certain quantity of foreign money.

In like manner, every time that France ſhall ſupply a foreign country with more than it receives from thence, that country will be indebted to France, and the exchange will be to the diſadvantage of France; becauſe the need which that country will have of French bills of exchange, in order to pay that ballance, will increaſe it's demand for ſuch bills of exchange; and, in that caſe, they will be obliged to give France more than they really owe them, which makes the exchange to riſe above par; becauſe, for the French exchange crown, the Dutch give the French more than 54 gros current money, or more than 52 gros of bank money, and the Engliſh more than 29$\frac{14}{105}$ pence ſterling: in that caſe the exchange is to the advantage of France.

According to theſe principles, the exchange, which is above par, is advantageous to France, and ſhews that the trade and money tranſactions which they carry on with Holland, is favourable to them, ſince the ballance is on their ſide.

And the exchange which is below par is diſadvantageous to France, and ſhews that their trade is burdenſome and expenſive to that nation, ſince they are indebted to the foreigners: whence the following concluſions ſeem natural enough to be drawn in the general.

1. That exchange ſhews which of two nations is owing the other, and, conſequently, that it is the true barometer of commerce and money-diſburſements between them.

2. That the nation which is indebted has the diſadvantage in commerce and money-diſburſements, and that the one to which a ballance is owing has the advantage.

And, 3. That the advantageous commerce, &c. neceſſarily draws ſpecie, or bullion, into the ſtate which has the advantage, or to which the ballance is owing; and that they are exported out of the ſtate which has the diſadvantage, or which is indebted.

There are, however, caſes which may occaſion ſome exception to this rule. There happen, at ſome particular times, extraordinary movements in the courſe of exchange. Thoſe which are owing to ſome particular turn of trade, are ſeldom of any continuance, nor conſiderably felt by traders; things ſpeedily return into their natural ſituation, and the ballance leans ſometimes to one ſide, ſometimes to another; but it is quite otherwiſe, when thoſe movements are occaſioned by cauſes that are ſuperior to, and independent of, commerce. For example, a recoinage of money, which brings too much advantage to a prince, and, conſequently, too much loſs to his ſubjects, a chamber of juſtice, a viſa in foreign nations, induce people to ſend their money abroad, in order to ſave a part of their loſs; for, in theſe caſes, though a nation may not be debtors, the exchange will fall at once.

It is the ſame caſe when a ſtate, for ſome political conſideration, is obliged to pay great ſums in foreign countries, without having received a compenſation; then that export is the fall of exchange, as is the caſe between England and Holland, when money is remitted to pay armies upon the continent, or large ſubſidies to foreign princes, through the medium of Holland, or for the payment of intereſt of ſuch part of our national debts as are due to the Dutch, or others which paſs through Dutch hands, &c. and falls of the exchange which are occaſioned by theſe cauſes, are generally of longer continuance than thoſe occaſioned in the way of mere commerce. In ſuch caſes, before engaging in exchange, it ought to be nicely ſtudied, and narrowly examined; and, if it be found not capable of affording ſome profitable returns, it is much better to tranſport money in kind than to ruin or prejudice trade.

Upon the whole, it ſeems that they who attentively conſider the daily courſe of exchange, by obſerving which of two nations is indebted to the other, or which has the advantage or diſadvantage in trade and money diſburſements, will alſo diſcern what is moſt eligible to be done for the ſupporting that exchange, or for the benefiting trade. This method of knowing the ballance of trade and money negociations between nations, is infinitely more certain and expeditious than that of examining the import and export of merchandize; for this enables the legiſlature daily to take ſuch meaſures, as may either maintain and preſerve the advantage, if we have it, or recover it, if we have it not: whereas that which reſults from the examination of commodities which are imported or exported, can only be known a long time after; and then it is out of time frequently to put thoſe meaſures in

execution which may be requiſite: perhaps it is neceſſary to make uſe of both the one and the other. See the articles EXPORTATION and IMPORTATION.

A very ingenious French author, who intitles his work Reflections politique ſur les finances & les commerce de France, applying his ſkill in the foreign exchange to diſcover how detrimental to France were thoſe riſes and falls of money which they formerly practiſed, and what effects they had upon trade: we apprehend his argument may deſerve our attention, becauſe it opens a new ſcene of reaſoning to thoſe who have never conſidered things in the ſame light. The period from which he reckons, is from the general recoinage of the money, which was made by virtue of the edict of May, 1709, to the month of April, 1717, when the bank notes commenced, paſſing over the period of Mr Law's ſcheme, and reſumes his enquiry at the new coinage of the ſpecie, by the edict of Auguſt, 1723, and carries the ſame down to the end of the year 1734. In theſe two intervals of time, he ſhews what effects both the riſing and falling of the money in France had upon exchange, and conſequently upon the trade of that nation.

The ſtate of money and exchange in France, in 1709, before and at the end of the recoinage.

The quantity of gold and ſilver bullion, and, among others, of piaſtres, which came into the ports of France by their maritime trade, was what occaſioned the recoinage, according to the edict of April 1709, of lewidors of 32 to the mark, fixed at 16 livres 10 ſols, and of crowns of eight to the mark, at four livres eight ſols.

Before the edict, the current money conſiſted of lewidors of $36\frac{1}{4}$ to the mark, and of crowns of nine to the mark. The arret of council, dated November 20, regiſtered December 10, 1708, fixes this old lewidor, againſt the 1ſt of January, 1709, at 12 livres 15 ſols each, and the crown at three livres eight ſols. The proportion between gold and ſilver was then 15 to one; and, by the rates which the edict of April ſets upon the new pieces of money which it orders to be coined, this proportion is ſtill 15 to one. But the reſolution of this edict did not long continue; the multiplicity of reformations and coinages of more money having produced in the public a great number of pieces of different ſtandards, it was thought of conſequence to remedy the ſame by a new coinage, which was appointed by the edict of May, 1709, regiſtered the 14th.

This edict ordains, that the lewidores coined by virtue of the edict of April preceding, of 32 to the mark, ſhall paſs for 20 livres, inſtead of 16, 10 ſols, and the crowns of eight to the mark for five livres, inſtead of four livres eight ſols.

This changed the regular proportion between gold and ſilver, which was 15, into 16; which raiſed the price of gold, and lowered that of ſilver.

The new ſpecie, which were ordered to be coined by this edict of May, were lewidores of 30 to the mark, weighing more than the preceding ones, and yet fixed only at 20 livres; and crowns of eight to the mark, eſtimated at five livres. The effect of which was, to lower the proportion of gold a ſixteenth, and reſtore the proportion of 15 to one between gold and ſilver, which the raiſing the ſpecie by the edict of April had changed. See the article COIN.

Theſe numerical values of the lewidor at 20 livres, and of the crown at five livres, continued all the reſt of that year 1709, and during the following years 1710, 1711, 1712, to the firſt day of December, 1713: thus they were fixed and conſtant for upwards of four years and a half.

On the 28th of January 1709, the exchange of Paris upon Amſterdam was at 87 gros for our crown of exchange, which is always three French livres; and on the 1ſt of February, it was at 88, and the French crown of 9 to the mark paſſed for three livres eight ſols.

This is the ſtate which our monies and exchange were in at the beginning of 1709: the queſtion is, whether this exchange was advantageous to France, or the contrary? In order to find out this, we muſt know what was the real par of our crown of exchange at that time, againſt the gros in Holland, with reſpect to the ſtandard, weight, and numerical value of the coins which were current in France and Holland, in January and February 1709. This is what the ſolution of the following problem will give us with the utmoſt exactneſs.

The crowns which were current in France were at 10 pennyweights 22 grains of ſtandard, at the rate of nine to the mark, and paſſed for three livres eight ſols a piece.

The crowns or rixdollars of ſtandard Holland, at 10 pennyweights five grains of ſiver, at the rate of $8\frac{8}{10}$ to the mark, paſſed for 100 gros of current money, or 96 of bank money.

What was the par of the French crown of exchange, which is always three livres, againſt gros, according to theſe two hypotheſes?

The firſt calculation, for the current money.		The ſecond calculation for the bank money.	
x deniers = 3 livres.		x deniers = 3 livres.	
$3\frac{2}{5}$ livres = 1 crown.		$3\frac{2}{5}$ livres = 1 crown.	
12 crowns = 10 $\frac{11}{12}$ ſtand.		12 crowns = 1 $\frac{11}{12}$ ſtand.	
9 = 1 mark.		9 = 1 mark.	
1 mark = $8\frac{8}{19}$ r.		1 mark = $8\frac{8}{19}$ r.	
10 $\frac{5}{24}$ r. = 12 ſtand.		10 $\frac{5}{24}$ r. = 12	
1 = 100 d.		1 = 96 d.	
17	5	17	5
245	24	245	24
12	131	3	131
19	160	12	160
3	2	19	32
49		49	2
On this ſide the following terms are multiplied continually into one another, viz.		And on this the following terms, viz.	
17	100	17	131
19	131	19	160
3	160	49	32
49			2
47481 x = 4192000		15827 x = 1341440	
x = 88 $\frac{7}{25}$		x = 84 $\frac{3}{4}$	

INSTRUCTION.

For the reaſon of theſe operations, ſee the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES, alſo that of ENGLAND, the latter part of it.

According to the firſt calculation above, the par required was 84 $\frac{7}{25}$ gros current money, ſuppoſing, as all who have treated of foreign exchange do, that the rixdollar is taken, at the bank of Amſterdam, only for 48 ſols, or 96 gros, of bank money; and, by the ſtatutes of that city for exchange, made the 11th of December, 1643, part 3. b. 1. tit. 8 and 9. all bills of exchange, to the ſum of 300 florins, and upwards, muſt be paid in bank money, under pain of forfeiting 25 florins, and of holding the payment invalid, whatever condition, clauſes, and ſtipulations they may contain, or may be inſerted into them by the accepter; we muſt have recourſe to the par in gros of bank money, which was $84\frac{3}{4}$, according to the ſecond preceding calculation. This par of bank money is what we ſhall follow on the preſent occaſion.

Examination of the French courſe of exchange, from the 1ſt of January, 1709, to the end of September, 1713.

According to the foregoing calculations, he who gave three livres at Paris, and who received 88 $\frac{7}{25}$ gros of current Dutch money, or $84\frac{3}{4}$ gros of bank money, received weight for weight, and ſtandard for ſtandard, preciſely as much as he gave if he received more, he was a gainer; if leſs, he was a loſer.

In January 1709, the exchange was at 87 gros, and, on the 1ſt of February, at 88; that is to ſay, $2\frac{1}{4}$ and 3^{1} gros above the par $84\frac{3}{4}$ of bank money: that was from $2\frac{13}{20}$ to $3\frac{87}{100}$ per cent. which the French received more than they gave: which ſhews that the trade then carried on by the French was to their advantage from $2\frac{65}{100}$ to $3\frac{83}{100}$ per cent. bank money.

The effect of lowering the ſpecie in France.

The arret of council, dated February 19, 1709, regiſtered the 4th of March, and publiſhed the 26th, reduces the old lewidor to 12 livres 10 ſols, and the old crown to three livres ſeven ſols; this is a fall of five ſols per lewis, and of one ſol per crown.

On the 8th of March the exchange was at 85 gros; and, as this fall of the coin brought the par to 86 gros bank money, the exchange was one gros below it, and to the diſadvantage of France $1\frac{7}{43}$ per cent. Thus this fall made France loſe not only the advantage which they had before, from $2\frac{65}{100}$ to $3\frac{83}{100}$ per cent. but alſo $1\frac{7}{43}$ per cent. more, which makes a difference in prejudice to France between 4 and 5 per cent.

The edict of April, regiſtered the 22d, in conſequence of which there was a new coinage of lewidors, of 32 to the mark, and of crowns, of 9 to the mark, gives theſe pieces the ſame currency with thoſe that were coined by virtue of the arret of February 19; but it fixes the mark of thoſe crowns carried to the mint at 32 livres 10 ſols. This was as if they had been received upon the foot of 3 livres, 12 ſols, $2\frac{2}{3}$ deniers each, which produced a riſe of 5 ſols per crown; but the execution of this edict was of no great extent; it was interrupted by that of May following. Thus the current value of theſe ſpecies, according to the arret of February 19, publiſhed the 26th of May, ſtill took place, and conſequently, the par was 86 in bank money.

On April 25, 1709, the exchange was at 84 gros: it was, therefore, a gros below par, which ſtill cauſed a loſs to France of $2\frac{17}{13}$ per cent.

The

The edict of May following, registered the 14th, and published the 18th in the morning, orders this crown of 9 to the mark to be received in the offices and royal receipts, at the rate of 3 livres 10 sols, and the mark in the mints at 32 livres 10 sols.

The rise of gold in proportion of $\frac{1}{5}$, and of silver $\frac{1}{8}$.

This edict orders a new coinage of lewidors, of 30 to the mark, fixed at 20 livres, and of crowns of 8 to the mark, at 5 livres. It raises the lewidor of 32 to the mark, which was at 16 livres 10 sols, to 20 livres, or the new lewidor; and the crown of 8 to the mark to 5 livres; instead of 4 livres 8 sols; thereby it advanced the price of the mark of coined gold to 640 livres, and that of silver to 40 livres; and, by fixing the mark of the old lewidors at 487 livres 10 sols, it leaves between the old gold and the new a difference of 152 livres 10 sols, or of 31 $\frac{7}{25}$ per cent. and, between the old silver and the new, a difference of 7 livres 10 sols, or of 23 $\frac{1}{13}$ per cent.

These two differences are not equal, as they ought to have been; and this inequality was a disorder in the numerical value affixed to those species. This great disproportion between the price of those old species and that of the new, is an exception to the general rule resulting from the principles before laid down; which difference must needs have occasioned the old species to be sought after, and transported into foreign countries; whence, after having melted them down, and recoined them into new ones, they were returned to France, which always makes the exchange fall to their disadvantage; and, in that case, foreigners gain thereby a good part of the profit which would have fallen to the king. This is a real loss to the state; which must be understood in the sequel, every time we have occasion to use the same reasoning.

It is true, the edict of May, by fixing at 20 livres the new lewidors of 30 to the mark, which it orders to be coined, reduces the mark of these new lewidores to 600 livres; which restored the proportion of 15 to 1 between gold and silver, and left between the old gold and the new, only a difference of 112 livres 10 sols, or of 23 $\frac{1}{13}$ per cent. as is that of the old silver to the new; but equalling this pernicious difference is far from taking it away: consequently, the disorder of a heavy and light money still subsists.

It is no way difficult to apprehend that these sorts of operations cannot be favourable to commerce, and that this rising the proportion of gold $\frac{1}{5}$, and of silver $\frac{1}{8}$, neither was, nor possibly could, prove a means of saving the state, as the author of the Essai politique sur le commerce says in his book.

This edict and arret of May 14, published the 20th, proportions the value of the old specie near to an equality with that of the new, by settling the old crown of 9 to the mark at 3 livres 10 sols; which reduces the par to 82 $\frac{1}{3}$ gros bank money. On the 25th of the same month of May, the exchange was at 84 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros: this was 2 $\frac{1}{6}$ above par, and, consequently, to the profit of France 2 $\frac{31}{50}$ per cent. which shews the necessity there was of raising the old species, in order to proportion them to the new, or to lower the new ones, to adjust them to the proportion of the old.

The arret of June 4, 1709, published the 7th, brings the old specie near to an equal value with the new, by fixing the crown at 3 livres 12 sols; but the arret of the 25th of the same month, published the 1st of July, reduces it to 3 livres 10 sols. Those of July 20, and August 13, confirm this rate. On the 1st of October they are still reduced to 3 livres 7 sols, and they are to be no more current, nor taken in payments, against the 1st of January, 1710, according to the arrets of December 7 and 28, anno 1709. These are alterations of money which are unfavourable to the exchange of France.

This exchange was, on the 12th of July, at 86 gros; that was, 3 $\frac{2}{3}$ above the par, 82 $\frac{1}{3}$ bank money, which makes 4 $\frac{45}{100}$ per cent. in the favour of France: the mark, however, of these crowns was still received at the mints upon the foot of 32 livres 10 sols, which was the same thing as if these crowns had been received at the rate of 3 livres 12 sols a piece; at this rate the par was 80 $\frac{1}{25}$ gros of bank money: and the exchange, during all the rest of that year 1709, kept between 86 and 83 $\frac{1}{2}$. It was therefore still above par from 5 $\frac{24}{25}$, to 3 $\frac{24}{25}$ gros; which brought an advantage to France of between 7 $\frac{44}{100}$ and 4 $\frac{94}{100}$ per cent. notwithstanding all those variations that happened to the old specie.

Those alterations in the specie of France extremely embarrassed it's trade; whereby the revenues of the state, and of every private person, must suffer, which demonstrates the advantage of keeping the coin fixed and invariable.

ANNO 1710.

On the 1st day of January, this year 1710, the old pieces were cried down; they were no longer current by virtue of the arrets of his majesty's councils of state, dated December 7 and 28, 1709: they were only received in the offices, and in payment of the king's revenue, at the rate of 13 livres 10 sols the lewidor, and of 3 livres 13 sols the crown. In the mean time, these same arrets order the species and gold and silver bullion, which shall be carried to the mints without mint-bills, to be paid there upon the foot of 508 livres 15 sols the mark of old lewidors, of Spanish pistoles, and gold leopolds of Lorrain; and of 33 livres, 18 sols, 4 deniers the mark of crowns, piasters, and silver leopolds of Lorrain: which was the same thing as if those crowns had been received at the mint upon the foot of 3 livres, 15 sols, 4 deniers a piece: this is manifest.

The raising of the old specie.

This rise of the old specie brings again their rate near to that fixed for the new; it reduces their par to 76 $\frac{84}{100}$ gros bank money, the crown being reckoned at 3 livres 15 sols, as above: now the course of exchange, during this year 1710, was at these rates, 80, 80 $\frac{3}{4}$, 81, and 81 $\frac{1}{4}$; that is to say, it was between 3 $\frac{16}{100}$ and 4 $\frac{41}{100}$ gros above par, and between 4 $\frac{11}{100}$ and 5 $\frac{73}{100}$ per cent. to the advantage of France: which shews very plainly the necessity of abolishing the difference that is still subsisting between the old specie and the new, whereby none make any profit but the king, and whom the French call BILLONEURS, or those who carry on an illicit trade of buying and selling money, melting it down, and exporting bullion, &c.

The lowering of the old specie.

The declaration of October 7, 1710, registered in parliament the 14th, and in the court of mint the 22d of the same month, restored the currency of the old specie upon the foot of 13 livres the lewis, and of 3 livres 10 sols the crown piece, and the mark of those crowns at 32 livres 10 sols; this is at the rate of 3 livres 12 sols a piece. The fall of 5 sols per crown restores the par of the French exchange crown to 82 $\frac{1}{3}$ gros bank money. Now on the 16th of November The exchange was at 81: this was 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ gros below par, or 1 $\frac{61}{100}$ per cent. in prejudice to France. The suppression of the old specie set France upon an advantage between 4 $\frac{11}{100}$ and 5 $\frac{73}{100}$ per cent. and their restoration made France lose 1 $\frac{61}{100}$ per cent. This makes a difference in disfavour of France of 5 $\frac{72}{100}$ and 7 $\frac{38}{100}$ per cent. the mean whereof was 6 $\frac{55}{100}$ per cent.

ANNO 1711.

During the ten first months of 1711, when things remained in this situation, the exchange was at 77 $\frac{1}{2}$, 77, 74, 74 $\frac{1}{4}$, 71 $\frac{3}{4}$, 71 $\frac{1}{4}$, and 72. Now, the old crown being reckoned at 3 livres 12 sols, the par of the crown of exchange was 80 $\frac{1}{25}$ gros of bank money: the exchange was, therefore, from 2 $\frac{79}{100}$ to 8 $\frac{4}{100}$ gros below par, which caused a loss to France from 3 $\frac{48}{100}$ to 10 per cent.

It is therefore plain, that the crying down of those old species had been advantageous to France, and that their restoration, at the rate so disproportioned to the new, as that upon the foot whereof the above declaration restored them, makes France lose not only the advantage they had during the suppression, but it lays the nation under a prodigious disadvantage.

A year passed before the French came to be sensible of this disorder, but at length it was sensibly felt. As an effectual remedy for it, there was a necessity either to suppress the currency of those old species altogether, or raise their value in proportion to that of the new; or else lower the value of the new, so as to bring them near to a level with the old: but neither of these means would have satisfied the exigencies of the state at that time. The next best method was therefore taken, namely, to diminish the evil, and redress it in part, by giving those old species a value nearer to that of the new.

The raising of the old specie.

This was one by the king's declaration of October 24, 1711, registered the 27th, and published the 29th; which fixes the mark of the old lewidores at 561 livres, and that of the old crowns at 37 livres 8 sols: this was as if they had been received at the rate of 4 livres 3 sols a piece.

This rise of the old specie reduced the par of their crown of exchange to be 69 $\frac{44}{100}$ gros bank money. Now the very day after the publishing of this declaration, that is to say, the 30th of October, the exchange was at 71 $\frac{1}{4}$, on the 5th of November at 75 $\frac{1}{2}$, on the 12th at 71 $\frac{3}{4}$, on the 16th at 71, on the 27th at 71 $\frac{1}{4}$, and on the 30th of December at 71 $\frac{1}{2}$. It was therefore between 2 $\frac{21}{100}$, and 1 $\frac{56}{100}$ above par; which made from 3 $\frac{32}{100}$, to 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. in the favour of France; and, on the 5th of November, the advantage was 8 $\frac{72}{100}$ per cent. This declaration therefore made France recover all the loss which they had sustained, of between 3 $\frac{48}{100}$ and 10 per cent. and 3 $\frac{82}{100}$ and 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. besides as aboveSaid: which brought about a difference, to the benefit of France, of between 6 $\frac{72}{100}$, and 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. This proves, that to raise the old species, in order to proportion their value to the new, was a good expedient.

ANNO 1712.

According to the declaration of the 24th of October 1711, the mark of lewidors, of Spanish pistoles, and of gold leopolds

polds of Lorrain is reduced, on the 1ſt of January in this year 1712, to 540 livres; and that of the old crowns, piaſters, and ſilver leopolds of Lorrain, to 36 livres: this was as if thoſe crowns had been received upon the foot of 4 livres each. And, with a view to make them circulate, this declaration adve:tiſed, that they were to be lowered againſt the 1ſt of February following, but, as they were not carried to the mints, where they were expected, this fall was ſeveral times prorogued. The arret of council, dated November 29, gives notice of the laſt prorogation, and that the lowering was to take effect on the 1ſt of January 1713.

The lowering of the old ſpecie.

That old crown of 9 to the mark, which was received before in the mints upon the foot of 4 livres 3 ſols, being now only upon the foot of 4 livres, is lowered 3 ſols; and by this procedure, which ſettles a great difference between their value and that of the new, the par upon Amſterdam is brought to 72 $\frac{1}{25}$ gros of bank money, and that upon London to 40 $\frac{5}{8}$ d. ſterling.

During the eleven firſt months of this year 1712, the exchange of Paris upon Amſterdam was about theſe rates 71, 70 $\frac{3}{4}$, 70 $\frac{1}{2}$, 70 $\frac{1}{4}$, 70, 69 $\frac{3}{4}$, and 69 $\frac{1}{2}$, all of them below par between 1 $\frac{1}{25}$, and 2 $\frac{54}{100}$ gros; which made our trade ſuffer between 2 $\frac{8}{100}$ and 3 $\frac{52}{100}$ per cent. If to this loſs we add the advantage we had at the end of 1711, which was from 3 $\frac{32}{100}$ to 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. we ſhall ſee that this lowering of the old ſpecies, widening the difference between their value and that of the new, inſtead of bringing them nearer to an equality, occaſioned a loſs to France of 5 $\frac{4}{100}$, and 5 $\frac{77}{100}$ per cent. Thus to lower the old ſpecies, ſo as to widen the difference between their value and that of the new, is to increaſe the diſproportion, and conſequently a very bad expedient.

The exchange between Paris and London was, on the 22d of November 1712, at 42 $\frac{1}{2}$, and on the 24th at 41 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling; it was therfore above the par, which was 40 $\frac{5}{8}$, from 1 $\frac{7}{8}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$ d. ſterling; which made a profit from 4 $\frac{61}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{53}{100}$ per cent. to the advantage of France, the mean whereof was 3 $\frac{7}{100}$ per cent.

The ſituation which theſe expedients lay before us deſerves conſideration. We have ſeen that France were loſers with Holland from 2 $\frac{8}{100}$ to 3 $\frac{52}{100}$ per cent. And at the ſame time that France had the advantage with England, from 4 $\frac{61}{100}$ to 1 $\frac{53}{100}$ per cent. Here then, in theſe two places of exchange, is a difference with reſpect to France, from 6 $\frac{69}{100}$ to 5 $\frac{5}{100}$ per cent. Whence it follows from all theſe expedients, that all alterations of the coin are burdenſome and diſadvantageous to nations, and that the further the value of the old ſpecies is from that of the new, the more is their circulation, and conſequently trade, injured; becauſe that which is loweſt valued in France, remains there hoarded up, or paſſes into foreign countries, which makes France fall under great diſadvantages. For,

If the ſpecie remains hoarded, it is a ſtock which becomes uſeleſs, both to the public and the poſſeſſor; which increaſes diſtruſt, cramps circulation, and conſequently commerce.

If it paſſes into foreign countries, it will be there melted down, and recoined into new ſpecies: by which means foreigners gain the profit; and beſides, that tranſported money turns out of work all thoſe whom it might have employed, which impairs the revenue, prejudices manufactures, and is of general injury to all the inhabitants; whence it apparently follows, that there never ſhould be two ſpecies of money in a ſtate, whoſe values are diſproportioned to one another. Theſe expedients are contrary to the true intereſts of nations.

Abſtracting from the fall of the coin on the 1ſt of January this year, we may ſay, that the declaration of the 24th of October 1711, ſtill left, between the value of the old ſpecies and that of the new, too conſiderable a difference in France, to induce the public, as was deſired, to carry their old ſpecies and gold and ſilver bullion to the mints.

Accordingly theſe were not brought thither ſo ſoon, and in ſo great quantities as the French court wiſhed for. To haſten them forward, attempts and threatenings were uſed to lower them, by the arrets of council in April 5, May 28, Auguſt 30, October 29, and November 29, of this ſame year 1712, but all proved ineffectual. The French miniſtry was obliged, in order to bring them forth into circulation, and to give not only motion to that part, which, for want of circulation, was become an uſeleſs ſtock to the public, and even to the owners themſelves, but alſo to reſtore uniformity to the coins, a thing ſo abſolutely neceſſary for the good of commerce, they were obliged entirely to give up, with the profit of converting theſe ſpecies and bullion carried to the mints, 'till the 1ſt of February next 1713. Theſe are the terms of the king of France's declaration, December 10, 1712, regiſtered and publiſhed the 16th, whereby his majeſty ordains, that from the day of publiſhing that declaration, to the 1ſt of February next, the old ſpecies and gold and ſilver bullion ſhall be received in the mints, and by the money-changers eſtabliſhed in the ſeveral cities of the kingdom, and paid in ready money, at the rate 585 livres the mark of old Lewis, and of 39 livres that of the old crowns.

The riſe of the old ſpecie.

In order to bring thoſe old pieces into circulation, this declaration intimated a lowering of the coin againſt the 1ſt of February 1713: and ſeeing the event did not anſwer expectation, this lowering was poſtponed to the 1ſt of April following, by the arrets of January 31 and February 21.

The riſe of the old ſpecie, having brought it's value near to that of the new, reduced the par of the old crown of exchange to 66 $\frac{1}{2}$. Now, during the reſt of December 1712, the exchange was at 70 and 69 $\frac{3}{4}$ gros, which was 3 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ gros above the par 66 $\frac{1}{2}$ bank money, or 5 $\frac{25}{100}$, and 4 $\frac{88}{100}$ per cent. in our favour.

Upon London the par of the old crown of exchange was 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. ſterling. The exchange between Paris and London was, on the 27th of December the ſame year 1712, at 41 $\frac{7}{8}$, that was 4 $\frac{3}{8}$ d. ſterling above par, or 11 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. to the advantage of France.

Theſe effects ſhew plainly, that theſe old pieces were no ſooner brought nearly to a proportional value with the new ones, than the trade of France recovered, as we have now ſeen, with the higheſt evidence; and this is a manifeſt proof, that it was kept under in France, only becauſe the old and the new ſpecies were diſproportioned to one another, and thoſe pieces which were the leaſt raiſed, or which gave the loweſt price, remained a dead and inactive ſtock, or were tranſported out of the kindom of France.

The nine firſt months of 1713.

During the month of January 1713, the exchange was from 69 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 69 $\frac{1}{2}$: this was ſtill above the par 66 $\frac{1}{2}$ from 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 3 gros; which was 4 $\frac{88}{100}$ and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the advantage of France.

The exchange between Paris and London was, on the 9th of January 1713, at 39 $\frac{1}{4}$ d. ſterling. It was therefore, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ ſterling above the par 37 $\frac{1}{2}$, making 4 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. to the profit of France.

Here are the exchanges of Amſterdam and London upon a level, making both of them 4 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. to the advantage of France: thus the inequality found between them, in the month of December the laſt year, did not long ſubſiſt; nor indeed was it poſſible, in the nature of things, that it could laſt long.

And during the months of February, March, April, May, June, July, Auguſt, and September 1713, the exchange varied between 68, 68 $\frac{1}{4}$, and 67 $\frac{1}{2}$. This was 1 $\frac{3}{4}$, and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ and 1 gros above the par of the bank money; conſequently to the advantage of France from 2 $\frac{63}{100}$ to 2 $\frac{1}{4}$ and 1 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. which advantage, diminiſhed by the reports raiſed about the falls of the coin that were advertiſed by the arret of September, which we are coming to.

On the firſt of September 1713, the exchange of Paris upon London was at 38 d. ſterling, this was 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, penny above the par, or 1 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. in the favour of France. Theſe were the effects of lowering the coin in France, which were even ſenſibly felt beforehand: they diminiſhed their advantage upon Amſterdam and London more than 3 per cent.

Before we come to thoſe falls of the coin in France that were advertiſed by the arret of council, September 30, I ſhall briefly give a recapitulation of the general advantages of the French trade, from the month of January 1709, to the end of September 1713.

	With Holland.		With England.	
	Advantage.	Disadvantage.	Advantage.	Disadvantage.
In January and February 1709	2 65/100 to 3 63/100			
In March		1 16/100 to 1 16/100		
In April		2 32/100 to 2 32/100		
In May	2 62/100 to 62/100			
Reſt of the year	7 44/100 to 4 24/100			
The ten firſt months of 1710	4 11/100 to 5 73/100			
The two laſt months		3 48/100 to 10		
The ten firſt months of 1711		1 61/100 to 1 61/100		
The two laſt months	3 22/100 to 2 25/100			
The eleven firſt months of 1712		2 8/100 to 3 62/100	4 61/100 to 1 33/100	
December	5 26/100 to 4 88/100		11 66/100 to 11 66/100	
January 1713	4 88/100 to 4 50/100		4 66/100 to 4 66/100	
The eight months following	2 63/100 to 1 66/100		1 33/100 to 1 33/100	
	32 81/100 to 30 41/100	10 65/100 to 18 61/100	22 26/100 to 19 18/100	
	30 41/100	18 61/100	19 18/100	
Totals	63 32/100	29 36/100	41 44/100	
Advantages and diſadvantages at a medium	31 66/100	14 66/100	20 72/100	

Notwithſtanding the frequent variations that befel the French old coins, and the prodigious difference that has always been between their value and that of the new, yet we may obſerve by the foregoing table, that the French trade was, upon the whole, rather advantageous than the contrary, with England and Holland; ſince their advantages at a medium, taken between the higheſt and the loweſt, is here repreſented to be for Holland 31 66/100, whereas the diſadvantages alſo at a medium is only 14 66/100: thus the mean advantage is to the mean diſadvantage, as 3166 is to 1468, or as 2 3/20 is to 1.

And with England the mean advantage, from the beginning of 1712, is repreſented by 20 72/100, without any diſadvantage. England, therefore, had taken more of the French commodities, arts and manufactures, than the French had taken from the Engliſh: this made to the advantage of the commerce of France; and if the Utrecht treaty of commerce had taken effect with that nation, what additional advantages might not have enſued to that kingdom, is no eaſy matter to ſay. See the article France.

To what a pitch then might the French trade within this period have arrived, had it not been diſturbed and cramped by all theſe alterations of their old ſpecie, and ſtill more by the conſiderable difference that has always been left between their value and that of the new? For nothing brought it under any diſadvantage, but one or both of theſe two caſes.

The arret of council dated September 30, 1713, intimates no leſs than eight falls of that ſame ſpecie of 1709, to follow one another at the diſtance of two months, each at the rate of 10 ſols per lewidor, and of two ſols and a half per crown. The firſt to take effect on the firſt of December following: it reduces the lewidor from 20 livres to 19 livres 10 ſols, and the crown from 5 livres to 4 livres 17 ſols 6 deniers. See the article Coin.

Remarks.

However impolitic the notion may be of riſing or falling the numerical value of coin; yet theſe principles are ſtill floating in ſome men's heads; for the late French author of the Eſſai Politique ſur le Commerce maintains this ſyſtem; and he will hardly be taken for a weak man. His tract is wrote with a great deal of ſpirit and lively eloquence, which makes it the more dangerous, becauſe ſeveral of it's maxims are falſe, and of univerſal bad tendency. The writer before quoted, therefore, thought proper to guard his countrymen againſt the pernicious influence of ſome of it's principles, eſpecially thoſe relating to money; he detects the fallacy of the other's reaſoning, in every particular, lays open the fatal conſequences that flowed from the frequent variations of the coin, under Lewis XIV, and in other reigns; and by tracing the ſubject to it's firſt principles, ſhews that the ſame conſequences muſt always inevitably follow, from purſuing ſuch impolitical meaſures. This ingenious gentleman has taken great pains to ſet his countrymen right, in a matter wherein he thinks the intereſt of their commerce is ſo nearly concerned; and from the general ſtrain of his reaſoning, it appears, what good uſe he has made of ſome of the beſt of our writers, upon the ſame ſubject, particularly of Mun and Locke, if not of Vaughan and King, &c. he often citing the authority of the two former, with whom he is perfectly agreed, as to the ſubſtance of the argument, which he has carried to a great length, and confirmed, by a different medium of reaſoning, the ſentiments of thoſe of our own writers: and indeed, by applying their principles arithmetically to exchange, he ſeems the more ſatisfactorily to have corroborated their judgment, by really demonſtrating how detrimental, from time to time, the variations of the coin of France proved to their commerce.

The foundation upon which the learned author reaſons, is the courſe of exchange; which he aſſerts to be the true barometer of commerce, and all money-negociations, between nation and nation: ſo that the reader is deſired to obſerve, that our author does not affirm the courſe of exchange always ſhews where the ballance of trade only lies, but where the ballance of trade, and all occaſional money-concerns, included in the general account, lies. And this ſeems to be, or ought to be meant and intended, by all who have taken the courſe of exchange for a guide, in their diſquiſitions of this nature.

I had not taken any notice of this, did I not frequently obſerve, in writing and converſation, that many gentlemen ſeem to miſtake this matter, when they object againſt the courſe of exchange being the characteriſtic of the ballance of trade between nation and nation, by urging that all money affairs are not therein included; whereas the contrary ſeems to have been intended by all who have touched upon this ſubject with any degree of diſcernment. They except againſt any ſudden changes in the ſtate, with regard to their public credit, &c. and any cauſe, foreign to the ordinary currency of commerce, &c. And this the reader will pleaſe to remark, once for all, is what is intended in every part of this work, where this ſubject is handled. See the articles referred to at the beginning of this head of Exchange.

In order to judge how the courſes of exchange between England and other the principal countries of Europe, did, from time to time, correſpond with the intrinſic value of the foreign monies of thoſe ſtates, his late majeſty's privy-council ordered Sir Iſaac Newton, then mint-maſter of the tower of London, to make actual aſſays, weights and values, of moſt foreign ſilver and gold coins: and it is not to be doubted, that ſo incomparable a perſon, who was not leſs profoundly ſkilled in the art of aſſaying, than in all other parts of philoſophy, made thoſe aſſays with all imaginable accuracy; eſpecially when it was by the expreſs order of the council of this kingdom: nor is it to be ſuppoſed, but a gentleman, ſo ſuperlatively cautious and circumſpect in all his other performances, with which he honoured the world of his own accord, ſhould be any way remiſs in this, which was done by the royal authority: we cannot believe, but on ſo important an occaſion, that great man was as curious in making choice of the proper pieces of foreign coins, for that purpoſe, as he was in his method of aſſaying the ſame. When the ſtandard of foreign coins is varied, it is requiſite, for the public ſatisfaction and general uſe of trade, that theſe aſſays ſhould be again made by authority, with as much accuracy as thoſe which we may preſume were made under the direction of Sir Iſaac: but, 'till that is done, we are inclined to believe, that the public will hardly pay a greater regard to the report of any private man, than to that made by authority, by ſo diſtinguiſhed a perſon *.

* In regard to the nature of aſſaying of metals, coins and ores, See what I have ſaid under the article of Assay, and alſo under the articles Gold, Silver, Refining, and Smelting.

But if it ſhould have ſo fallen out, that our great mint-maſter hath happened to have fallen upon a piece of foreign coin,

coin, ſome very ſmall matter lighter or heavier than it ſhould have been; this would not have defeated the end of ſo nearly knowing where the ballance of trade lies, by exchange, as may be ſatisfactory both the government, as well as to the private merchant: and, if this point is ſufficiently anſwered by aſſays, made by authority, that is what is chiefly required. Upon a new coinage, in foreign countries, or as the coins grow lighter by wear, traders who have dealings that way, will eaſily diſcover the worth of what they deal in.

Some, however, are of opinion, that the courſe of exchange does not indicate the ballance of trade and money-tranſactions, between one foreign nation and another; nor will others allow it to be of any help, or any auxiliary medium whatſoever, whereby to judge of the general ballance of accounts, between one ſtate and another.

Theſe gentlemen ſeeming to be ſomething ſingular in their way of judging, and differing from all the ableſt writers upon this ſubject, I ſhall further add, to what I have already ſaid in the preceding parts of this work, another quotation upon this head, from the Britiſh Merchant, which contains the ſame ſentiments of the moſt experienced merchants, as well as of two of the greateſt ſtateſmen that this kingdom ever had; viz. The right honourable CHARLES late earl of HALLIFAX, and the right honourable JAMES late earl of STANHOPE.

'The ſtated maxims, ſay they, among merchants, to know 'whether the trade be for or againſt us, is to have recourſe 'to the courſe of the exchange. It is a nicety many of our 'merchants themſelves are unacquainted with; yet as the 'exchange holds the ballance of trade, ſo as that is for or 'againſt us, it immediately decides the point.

'If the exchange be above the par of the money of the country we trade with, it is a plain argument that the ballance 'is on their ſide; for no man will bring ſilver from a country, when the exchange is more favourable than the coin.

'If a country takes more of our commodities, than we take 'of theirs, they muſt pay the ballance in money; and, in 'ſuch a caſe, the exchange muſt neceſſarily be under the par 'of the money, for there can never be found ſufficient bills of 'exchange; and, if there are bills, they cannot be on England, but muſt be on ſome country with which Spain has an 'over-ballance; and then, the debt being removed to that 'country, there the ballance will be decided, according as 'we over or under-trade that country.

'That the fact of the exchange decides the ballance of all 'countries, with whom there are exchanges, I think is very 'plain from what I have already ſaid. But I will give two 'inſtances of an over-ballance and an under-ballance, which 'will be conviction enough to any underſtanding trader on 'the exchange.

'The trade to Portugal has been of ſuch a magnitude, that 'it is notorious to the world we have had a vaſt importation 'of gold from thence. As our trade increaſed, ſo the exchange declined; and in ſome years when corn was cheap 'here, and dear in Portugal, our ballance was ſo very great, 'that notwithſtanding we paid ſubſidies to the king of Portugal, and paid for troops, there were alſo vaſt ſums for 'ſupplies of our armies in Valencia and Catalonia; yet ſtill 'the over-ballance lay ſo much againſt them, that the exchange has been at 5s. 2d. and 5s. a millree; now a 'millree in Portugueze gold weighs, according to the Engliſh 'ſtandard, 5s. 9d. ſo that there was 10, 12, and 15 per 'cent. difference between the exchange and the intrinſic value of the money.

'In ſome years, when we had a want of corn ourſelves, and 'therefore could not ſupply Portugal, the exchange immediately found the want of ſo great an over-ballance, and roſe 'to 5s. 4d. 5s. 5d. and 5s. 6d.. At which laſt price, in 'time of war, gold would not turn to account; nor now, 'conſidering that there is three per cent. at leaſt, charges 'without inſurance, and that 5 per cent. will make 5s. 6d. 'coſt 5s. 9d. which is the ſtandard of the millree; ſo that 'there is but 2 per cent. for the time and hazard.

'Our trade to Holland, during the war, was on a contrary 'foot, notwithſtanding our vaſt over-ballance againſt them 'in commodities: yet by our paying ſuch a ſum to ſubſiſt 'the armies in Flanders, and ſubſidies to ſeveral princes, the 'ballance lay during the whole war againſt us; ſo that, as 'faſt almoſt as we brought gold from Portugal, it was carried over to pay the ballance.

'The exchange immediately found the ballance of trade, 'and went declining from 36s. 8d. and 37s. as it was in the 'peace; and as our expence increaſed abroad, by augmenting the number of troops in our pay, ſo the exchange went 'declining as the ballance againſt us was greater. And 'though in ſome exigencies it was at 32s. 6d. and 33s. yet, 'that being but caſual, it came to a medium of 33s. 8d. 'and 34s. So that there was 9 per cent. difference betwixt 'the time of peace, and time of war; and ſince the ceſſation, and our drawing off our troops, as our expence went 'decreaſing, ſo the exchange went advancing, and has come 'to 36s. and 36s. 4d. but not yet arrived to the height it 'was before the war; for to this day we have ſubſiſted troops 'in Flanders, and very lately made a remit of 40,000 l. for 'the ſubſiſting the troops ſtill left. And when Dunkirk is 'demoliſhed, and all our troops withdrawn, our over-ballance 'will increaſe, and conſequently the exchange advance.

'Thus having plainly proved, that the exchange is the Standard by which you may know where the ballance lies, it 'muſt now remain only to prove, that the exchange in Spain 'has hitherto been above the ſtandard.

'Though the exchange has been in Spain at 52 d. per piece 'of eight, yet it has alſo been at 50 d. So we will take the 'medium of 51 d. Though I could prove that ſeveral quantities of pieces of eight which were brought into England, 'coſt the importer 52 d. and ſome, by draughts made on 'Holland, more.

'Now, 1000 pieces, remitted by bills at 51 d. per piece of 'eight, is 212 l. 10s. ſterling.

'1000 pieces of eight will weigh about 870 ounces. And tho' 'ſome were ſold that came by men of war from Cadiz at 5s. 2 d. per ounce, yet others were ſold at 5s. 4d. ¼: but the 'Eaſt-India company, who were the greateſt purchaſers, 'fixed the price at 5s. 3d. for what they bought; and, after 'they had bought the quantity they wanted, they gave liberty to the private traders to buy, who, before they had 'made up their quantities, advanced it to 5s. 4d. and 4d. ¼

		l.	s.	d.
870 ounces ſold here at 5s. 3d. per oz. is	—	228	7	6
Premio to purchaſe pieces of eight in Spain, 5 pct. —	50			
Carrying on ſhip-board, and riſque, 2 pct. — —	20			
Commiſſion, 1 pct. — —	10			
Freight, 1 pct. — —	10			
Inſurance, 1 pct. — —	10			
Commiſſion where landed, and charges to London. — —	10			
110 ps. at 51d.		23	7	6
		205	0	0
Loſs by bringing 1000 pieces of eight from Spain, in ſpecie, which have not produced ſo much as if remitted by bill of exchange. —		7	10	0
		212	10	0

'So that, if they bought their pieces of eight at above 1 ¼ pct. 'premio, a bill of exchange was more profitable. Now I 'do affirm, that the major part of the pieces of eight that we 'imported, coſt from 3 to 5 ½ pct. premio.

'Suppoſe then, they had carried it to the mint at 5s. 2d. the 'loſs would be 2 pct. more than the above calculation. I 'appeal therefore to any reaſonable man, if the pieces of 'eight, thus imported, could be the ballance of our trade? 'Had it been, that would neceſſarily have ſhewed itſelf in 'this trade, as well as in the facts I lay down in that of Portugal and Holland.

'So that, until the Mercator, * can ſhew the exchange in 'Spain is under the par of the ſilver, I do aſſert and affirm, 'the ballance of that trade is againſt us.

* This was a writer employed by queen Anne's miniſtry, during the laſt four years of her reign, to ſupport the treaty of commerce then made by France, which has been univerſally condemned ever ſince, by all true friends to the intereſt of the nation.

'And, notwithſtanding the entries in the cuſtom-houſe, yet 'if the goods do not find expence at a market, it will be no 'proof. When they do, and that Spain does conſume more 'of our exports, than we import from them, the exchange 'will be in our favour, and then I will join iſſue with the 'Mercator, we have an over-ballance.

'And though the Mercator treats the notion of an over-ballance againſt us with Spain, as a novel, yet it is no novelty to the traders thither: and, I believe, I may juſtly affirm, that none of the pieces of eight that came home, 'were the product of the manufactures of England: if ſo, 'I would deſire the Mercator to ſhew how he came by them, 'or whether he thinks we could purchaſe them without an 'over-ballance of trade with ſome other country? If not, 'we muſt pay back as many ounces, in Spain, as we brought 'in.

'And though he exclaims at this aſſertion, as ſtarted for 'ſome deſign, yet I am very well aſſured, that in the hearing 'before the late houſe of commons, againſt the treaty of 'commerce with France, this over-ballance of Spain againſt 'us was then aſſerted; and the perſon that ſpoke, appealed 'to the whole body of the traders to Spain. That though 'ſome ſhips were arrived, and others on the way home, with 'pieces of eight, yet not one bag of them was the produce 'of the manufactures of England.

'This, had it been a novel notion, or not fact, would cer-

'tainly

'tainly have met with a contradiction: we had then had 'about ten months truce with Spain; and what proves that 'there was no alteration of the trade in our favour, the 'exchange was againſt us then, and has continued ſo ever 'ſince.'

I queſtion not but this will convince any man, who underſtands the nature of trade, that the exchange is what will always, and in all countries, decide where the ballance lies.

Thus far the Britiſh Merchant. And, for the further confirmation of what is here ſaid, See the articles ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGES, BALLANCE OF TRADE, BRITAIN, i. e. [GREAT-BRITAIN], COINS.

It having been alſo ſhewn, under this article of exchange, how far variations in the money of a country affect the courſe of exchange, and conſequently how far they affect the commerce of a nation; it may not be altogether uſeleſs to ſhew the precarious ſtate and condition of the people in general, who are ſo unhappy as to live under ſuch an abſolute government, where their property can be raiſed or fell, at the will of their ſovereign, in order to fill his coffers at their expence, and ſometimes at the total ruin of numberleſs of his ſubjects. As ſuch kind of governments, when conſidered in contraſt with our own, will appear terrible, and our own amiable; it may contribute to maintain that ſpirit of loyalty, towards the preſent eſtabliſhment, which may tend to ſecure, to lateſt poſterity, our properties, our religion, and our liberties.

However unneceſſary ſome may think this, who are already well apprized of the fatal conſequences of arbitrary rule; yet, as this work is in every one's hands, it may not be uſeleſs in diffuſing theſe principles the more univerſally.

'Every Engliſhman, ſays our darling countryman, Mr. Addiſon, and true friend to our trade and liberties, will be a good ſubject to king George, in proportion as he is a good Engliſhman, and a lover of the conſtitution of his country. In order to awaken, in my readers, the love of this their conſtitution, it may be neceſſary to ſet forth it's ſuperior excellency, to that form of government, which many wicked and ignorant men have, of late years, endeavoured to introduce among us. I ſhall not, therefore, think it improper to take notice, from time to time, of any particular act of power, exerted by thoſe among whom the pretender to his majeſty's crown has been educated; which would prove fatal to this nation, ſhould it be conquered and governed by a perſon, who, in all probability, would put in practice the politics in which he has been ſo long inſtructed.

There has been nothing more obſervable in the reign of his preſent Gallic majeſty, than the method he has taken, for ſupplying his exchequer with a neceſſary ſum of money. The ways and means for raiſing it has been an edict, or a command in writing, ſigned by himſelf, to increaſe the value of louis d'ors, from 14 to 16 livres, by virtue of a new ſtamp, which will be ſtruck upon them. As this method will bring all the gold of the kingdom into his hands, it is provided by the ſame edict, that they ſhall be paid out again to the people, at 20 livres each; ſo that 4 livres in the ſcore, by this means, accrue to his majeſty, out of all the money in the kingdom of France.

This method of raiſing money is conſiſtent with that form of government, and with the repeated practice of their late grand monarque; ſo that I ſhall not here conſider the many evil conſequences which it muſt have upon their TRADE, their EXCHANGE, and PUBLIC CREDIT. I ſhall only take notice of the whimſical circumſtances a people muſt lie under, who can be thus made poor or rich by an edict, which can throw an allay into a louis d'or, and debaſe it into half it's former value, or, if his majeſty pleaſes, raiſe the price of it, not by the acceſſion of metal, but of a mark. By the preſent edict many a man in France will ſwell into a plumb, who fell ſeveral thouſand pounds ſhort of it the day before it's publication. This conveys a kind of fairy treaſure into their cheſts, even while they are under lock and key; and is a ſecret of multiplication, without addition. It is natural, however, for the vanity of the French nation to grow inſolent upon this imaginary wealth, not conſidering, that their neighbours think them no more rich, by virtue of an edict to make 14, 20, than they would think them more formidable, ſhould there be another edict to make every man in the kingdom ſeven feet high.

It was uſual for his late moſt chriſtian majeſty, to ſink the value of their louis dor's about the time he was to receive the taxes of his good people, and to raiſe them when he had got them ſafe into his coffers. And there is no queſtion, but the preſent government, in that kingdom, will ſo far obſerve this kind of conduct, as to reduce the 20 livres to their old number of 14, when they have paid them out of their hands; which will immediately ſink the preſent tympany of wealth, and re-eſtabliſh the natural poverty of the Gallic nation. One cannot but pity the melancholy condition of a miſer in this country, who is perpetually telling his livres, without being able to know how rich he is. He is as ridiculouſly puzzled and perplexed, as a man that counts the ſtones on Saliſbury plain; which can never be ſettled, to any certain number, but are more, or fewer, every time he reckons them.

I have heard of a young French lady, a ſubject of Louis XIV, who was contracted to a marquis, upon the foot of a five thouſand pounds fortune which ſhe had by her in ſpecie; but, one of theſe unlucky edicts coming out a week before the intended marriage, ſhe loſt a thouſand pounds, and her bridegroom into the bargain.

The uncertainty of riches is a ſubject much diſcourſed of in all countries, but may be inſiſted on more emphatically in France than any other. A man is here under ſuch a kind of ſituation, as one who is managed by a juggler. He fancies he has ſo many pieces of money in his hand; but let him graſp them never ſo carefully, upon a word or two of the artiſt, they increaſe, or dwindle to what number the doctor is pleaſed to name.

This method of lowering or advancing money, we, who have the happineſs to be in another form of government, ſhould look upon as an unwarrantable kind of clipping and coining. However, as it is an expedient that is often practiſed, and may be juſtified in that conſtitution, which has been ſo thoroughly ſtudied by the pretender to his majeſty's crown, I do not ſee what ſhould have hindered him from making uſe of ſo expeditious a method for raiſing a ſupply, if he had ſucceeded in his late attempt to dethrone his majeſty, and ſubvert our conſtitution. I ſhall leave it to the conſideration of the reader, if, in ſuch a caſe, the following edict, or ſomething very like it, might not have been expected.

WHEREAS theſe our kingdoms have long groaned under an expenſive and conſuming land war, which has very much exhauſted the treaſure of the nation, we, being willing to increaſe the wealth of our people, and not thinking it adviſeable, for this purpoſe, to make uſe of the tedious methods of merchandiſe and commerce, which have been always promoted by a faction among the worſt of our ſubjects, and were ſo wiſely diſcountenanced by the beſt of them in the late reign, do hereby enact, by our ſole will and pleaſure, that every ſhilling in Great-Britain ſhall paſs, in all payments, for fourteen pence, 'till the firſt of September next, and that every other piece of money ſhall riſe and paſs current in the ſame proportion. The advantage which will accrue to theſe nations, by this our royal donative, will viſibly appear to all men of ſound principles, who are ſo juſtly famous for their antipathy to ſtrangers, and would not ſee the landed intereſt of their country weakened by the importation of foreign gold and ſilver: but ſince, by reaſon of the great debts which we have contracted abroad, during our ——— years reign, as well as of our preſent exigencies, it will be neceſſary to fill our exchequer, by the moſt prudent and expeditious methods, we do alſo hereby order every one of our ſubjects, to bring in theſe his fourteen penny pieces, and all the other current caſh of the kingdom, by what new title ſoever dignified or diſtinguiſhed, to the maſter of our mint; who, after having ſet a mark upon them, ſhall deliver out to them, on or after the firſt of September aforeſaid, their reſpective ſums, taking only four-pence for ourſelf, for ſuch his mark on every fourteen-penny piece, which, from thenceforth, ſhall paſs in payment for eighteen-pence, and ſo in proportion for the reſt. By this method the money of this nation will be more, by one third, than it is at preſent; and we ſhall content ourſelf with not quite one fifth part of the current caſh of our loving ſubjects; which will but barely ſuffice to clear the intereſt of all thoſe ſums in which we ſtand indebted to our moſt dear brother and ally. We are glad of this opportunity of ſhewing ſuch an inſtance of our goodneſs to our ſubjects, by this our royal edict, which ſhall be read in every pariſh church of Great-Britain, immediately after the celebration of HIGH-MASS. FOR SUCH IS OUR PLEASURE.' Freeholder, No. (18). See the article COIN, MONEY.

EXCHEQUER, is a court of law at Weſtminſter-Hall, wherein are tried all cauſes relating to the royal treaſury, in regard to the accounts of the nation, diſburſements, cuſtoms, fines, &c. The immediate profits of the crown, as of franchiſes, lands, tenements, hereditaments, ſeizures, and fines laid on the ſubject, &c. are within the juriſdiction of this court. The king's attorney-general may exhibit bills for any matter concerning the king's inheritance or profits; ſo alſo may any perſon who finds himſelf aggrieved in any cauſe proſecuted againſt him on behalf of the king, or any patent by grant of the king, exhibit his bill againſt the king's attorney, &c. to be relieved by equity in this court.

The LOWER EXCHEQUER, called alſo the RECEIPT of the EXCHEQUER, is the place wherein the king's revenue is received and diſburſed. The principal officers hereof are, the lord-treaſuerer, a ſecretary of the Treaſury, a chancellor of the Exchequer, two chamberlains of the Exchequer, an auditor of the receipts of the Exchequer, four tellers, a clerk of the pells, an uſher of the receipt, a tally-cutter, &c.

Some of the principal laws relating to the Exchequer.

1 Stat. de Scacc. 51 Hen. III. ſtat. 5. § 1. All bailiffs, ſheriffs, and other miniſters, to be anſwerable in the Exchequer for their receipts of iſſues, eſcheats, and of their bailiwicks, and there make account to the treaſury and barons; and all ſheriffs,

ſheriffs, farmers, bailiffs of franchiſes, and other, which ought to come at the profer of the Exchequer the day after the feaſt of St Michael, and after the cloſe of Eaſter, to pay their farms, rents, and iſſues, ſhall come at the aforeſaid terms; on default, their bodies to remain until they pay, or make agreement; and he that will not come to be amerced. Sheriffs and bailiffs at the ſame terms ſhall pay ſuch money as they have received at the ſummons of the Exchequer, and other the king's debts, and ſhall be ready to ſhew their account of the things aforeſaid.

Sect. 2. All bailiffs of franchiſes which ought to levy the king's debts, and to anſwer to the ſheriffs according to the eſtreats of the ſummons of the Exchequer, ſhall come and anſwer ſufficiently; and ſuch as do not, their bodies to remain in ward of the ſheriffs; who, for default, ſhall cauſe their own bailiffs to levy the debts, as in time paſt: bailiffs not coming at the day appointed by the ſheriffs, the ſheriffs ſhall enter into franchiſes, and levy the debts.

Sect. 3. Juſtices and bailiffs of Cheſter, or one of them, ſhall come at the profer of St Michael every year, with what they owe unto the king, as likewiſe at the profer of the utas of Eaſter: and the juſtices of Cheſter ſhall have day to account, from year to year, in quindena Paſchæ, and the bailiffs thereof the day after the cloſe of Eaſter. And all ſheriffs, except of Weſtmoreland, Lancaſter, Worceſter, Rutland, or Cornwall, ſhall keep all eſcheats not in the king's fees within their ſhires, and of the iſſues thereof they ſhall anſwer in the Exchequer, at the terms aforeſaid; and at their turns ſhall do the offices of ſuch other things as the king's eſcheators have uſed to do, once or twice in the year, to as little grievance of the people as they can: and the ſheriffs ſhall ſeize the eſcheats that fall to the king in fee, and ſhall certify the king of them without delay.

Sect. 4. The king ſhall aſſign three able perſons to ſurvey and extend the eſcheats throughout the kingdom, from year to year: and the ſheriffs, by their council, to improve and let to farm ſuch as they ſhall think moſt for the king's advantage.

Sect. 5. The ſheriff of Cumberland to execute the office of eſcheator in Weſtmoreland and Lancaſter, and the ſheriff of Nottingham in Rutland, and the ſheriff of Glouceſter in Worceſter, and the ſheriff of Devonſhire in Cornwall: theſe three perſons to keep the king's demeſns, and to approve them, and be anſwerable for the iſſues, and to have power to let ſmall manors or demeſns; the farmers to anſwer their farms to thoſe, and they at the Exchequer, the day after the Aſcenſion.

Sect. 6. The principal collectors of the cuſtoms, at the two terms beforementioned, ſhall pay the money they have received of the ſaid cuſtom, and make account of all parcels received in any of the ports, ſo that they ſhall anſwer of every ſhip where it was charged, and how much it carried, and of every loading in the ſhip whereof cuſtom is due.

Sect. 7. The warden of the wardrobe ſhall make account yearly, in the feaſt of St Margaret; and the treaſurer and barons ſhall be charged by their oath, not to attend to hear the pleas of other men while they have to do with the king's buſineſs, unleſs it concerneth the king's own debt; and, when a ſheriff or bailiff hath begun his account, none other ſhall be received to account 'till he hath accounted, and his money be received. And the conſtable, marſhal, chamberlain, and others of fee in the Exchequer, ſhall preſent unto the king ſuch as they ſhall put in their places to do their offices, which muſt be of good fame and ſufficient, for whoſe acts themſelves will anſwer.

Sect. 8. The king commandeth the treaſurer and barons of the Exchequer, upon their allegiance and oath made to him, not to admit others for them that be not ſuch; and that the Exchequer be not charged with more perſons than is neceſſary; and that none of them there ſworn to the king ſhall put in his room any other clerk, or lay-perſon, except he be ſworn, nor that without licence of the treaſurer; any ſo doing, to be removed from his office, and none other received in his ſtead without the king's licence; and, if any put in without the treaſurer's licence do treſpaſs, he ſhall be puniſhed, whether he be officer of fee or other; and the treaſurer ſhall put no other in his room 'till he hath licence from the king. And if he that keepeth the room of another by licence of the treaſurer, doth any thing he ought not, he ſhall be puniſhed according to the treſpaſs, if he have whereof; and, if he have not, he that put him in ſhall be charged; and, if he be not ſufficient, he that put him in office ſhall be charged, whether he be of fee or otherwiſe.

Sect. 9. All they ſhall make oath, That, if any of them perceive that another doth commit any offence, or other thing diſhoneſt, in any office in this court, they ſhall certify to the treaſurer, or barons, and they ſhall return it, and, if need require, ſhall certify it to the king; and, about the feaſt of St Margaret, before the Exchequer be cloſed, they ſhall cauſe ſearch to be made, whether any ſheriff or bailiff that ought to have accounted have not done ſo, and thereof a remembrance ſhall be made in a roll; and, if it be a ſheriff, his account ſhall be firſt heard after Michaelmas, before any other be received; and, if he be a bailiff, he ſhall be ſummoned, or diſtrained to come, at a certain day, to account; ſo that no account ſhall be ſuffered to ſleep. And all ſurveyors of the king's works ſhall be choſen by the oath of wiſe men, and ſhall be of ſuch as may attend beſt, and ſufficient to anſwer the king, and ſhall ſwear to bear true witneſs; and, if the treaſurer or barons have any in ſuſpection of falſe allowances for works, or other things, the truth ſhall be enquired, and he that is attainted ſhall anſwer to the king as much as the allowance amounteth unto, and be impriſoned one year and 40 days, and puniſhed at the king's pleaſure; and the ſurveyors ſhall be puniſhed for their conſent, and likewiſe he that upon his account ſhall conceal ſuch things whereof he ought to have charged himſelf, ſhall be puniſhed in like manner.

Sect. 10. The juſtices, commiſſioners, and others, ſhall deliver into the Exchequer, at the feaſt of St Michael, from year to year, the eſtreats of fines and amercements made and taxed before them, and of all things wherefore the eſtreats are wont to be delivered there: and they of the Exchequer ſhall make the eſtreats of the ſummons through all ſhires, ſaving that the eſtreats in eyre of all pleas ſhall be delivered immediately after the eyre made.

Stat. Rutl. 10 Ed. I. §. 1. Bodies of the ſhires not to be written in every roll, but in a yearly roll by themſelves, and every thing ſhall be yearly read upon the ſheriff's account in every county. The remnants of the ſame ſhires ſhall be written by later dates in the annual rolls, and the ſheriffs ſhall be charged therewith; and of allowances view ſhall be made in the Exchequer, and the treaſurer and barons ſhall certify the chancellor of the allowances ſo to be made, and the writs of allowances ſhall be according to the ſame certificate; and there ſhall be written in the annual rolls the farms of ſheriffs, the profits of counties, the farms of ſerjeants and aſſerts, the farms of cities, boroughs, towns, and other farms, whereof there is anſwer made yearly in the Exchequer; and in them alſo ſhall be written all ſtalled and groſs debts, whereof is hope ſomewhat ſhall be paid; and all debts that ſeem to be clear. When it is come to account, or to the title of new obligations, nothing ſhall be written in the annual roll but thoſe debts whereof there is hope of payment, and whereof the ſheriff is anſwerable, and debts that ſeem clear in the originals.

Sect. 2. Of dead farms and debts deſperate one roll ſhall be made, and read every year upon the accounts of ſheriffs, and debts whereof the ſheriff ſhall be written in the annual roll, and there ſhall be acquitted.

Sect. 3. It ſhall be proclaimed in every county, that all who have tallies of the Exchequer for their own or anceſtors debts, paid uſually there, and not yet allowed, which ſhall come out ſtill in the ſummons of the Exchequer, that ſuch tallies be delivered to the ſheriffs, to be allowed at the Exchequer at their accounts; and the ſheriffs ſhall make to them their writings, witneſſing the receipt of thoſe tallies, deputing two knights, between whom and the ſheriffs, indentures ſhall be made of ſuch receipts, with the ſeals of them both.

Sect. 5. The knights deputed ſhall ſend the parts of their indentures, at the term appointed, unto the Exchequer, that, by view of them, the tallies ſo received by the ſheriffs may be allowed upon their accounts.

Sect. 6. It ſhall be proclaimed, that, except thoſe who have ſuch tallies do offer them to the ſheriffs and knights to be executed, they ſhall be diſtrained for the whole debt.

Sect. 7. Debts which yet come into the ſummons of the Exchequer, whereof the debtors do profer tallies againſt divers ſheriffs, ſhall be defalked and acquitted.

Sect. 8. Certain perſons ſhall be ſent into every ſhire, with power to enquire of ſuch debts, and to call afore them the ſheriffs, their heirs, &c. and the tenants of their lands, that have received the debts, and to proceed to the taking of inqueſts, whether the parties (againſt whom the tallies were ſhewed) do come or not, ſo the ſheriff return that he hath ſummoned them; and, the truth being diſcuſſed, the inquiſitors ſhall made rolls of what ſhall be convict and confeſſed before them; and, the inrollment being made, the tallies ſhall be broken; the ſheriffs to have in their cuſtody the tranſcripts of the rolls, under the ſeals of the inquiſitors, and ſhall ſurceaſe in making diſtreſſes for the debts contained in the ſame, 'till otherwiſe commanded: and inquiſitors ſhall ſend thoſe rolls to the Exchequer, under their ſeals.

Sect. 9. Chamberlains ſhall not make to the ſheriffs, or their bailiffs, tallies dividendi, without particulars of the debts, and the names of them that paid them, into which particulars he would have ſuch dividends parted; and, being ſo received, they ſhall not be numbered into other particulars.

Sect. 10. All debts of inſolvents returned by the ſheriffs, ſhall be eſtreated in rolls, and delivered to faithful men, who ſhall enquire after the form provided by the treaſurer and barons.

Sect. 11. No plea to be holden in the Exchequer, unleſs it ſpecially concern the king and his miniſters aforeſaid.

Artic. ſuper chart. 28 Edw. I. ſtat. 3. cap. 4. No common pleas ſhall be holden in the Exchequer contrary to the great charter.

Stat. 37 Edw. III. cap. 4. Becauſe many people, acquitted by judgment in the Exchequer in one place, be grieved in

other offices of it, the clerk of the remembrance ſhall be titled to ſit above the clerk of the pipe, to ſee the diſcharges made in the pipe, and to imbreviate the ſame in the remembrance, and to cauſe proceſs thereupon to ceaſe; and that the ſummons of the pipe be withdrawn, according as the parties be diſcharged; and, in whomſoever any default be found, the treaſurer, by the king's command, ſhall puniſh the ſame.

Stat. 1 Rich. II. cap. 5. At what time any debts be paid, and the tallies thereof made, rejoined, and allowed in the Exchequer, that debt ſhall never run more in demand; and if, after allowance made there, any clerk of the Exchequer make any proceſs to levy the ſame, and that be proved, the clerk to loſe his office, and be impriſoned 'till he hath made agree to the party, if any will ſue by the diſcretion of the treaſurer and barons.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 10. The barons of the Exchequer ſhall have power to hear every anſwer of every demand made in the Exchequer, ſo that every perſon there impeached ſhall by himſelf, or any other perſon, be received to plead, ſue, and have his reaſonable diſcharge, without tarrying or ſuing any writ.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 12. The accounts in the Exchequer ſhall be more ſhortly heard, made, and engroſſed than they were wont; ſaving that the parcels be as plain as they were wont by ordinance of the barons of the Exchequer.

Stat. 5. Rich. II. cap. 13. Two clerks to be aſſigned to make parcels of the accounts in the Exchequer, to them that will that demand, and to be ſworn they do no falſity in their office, and to take for their labour reaſonably, according to the ordinance of the barons.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 14. The accounts of nichil in the Exchequer ſhall be altogether put away; or, if any ſuch ought there to abide, the accountants, immediately after oath made, ſhall be examined by the barons, if they ought to anſwer the king of any thing in that behalf; and, if it be found by their oath they ought not, they ſhall be diſcharged to yield other account before any auditor, the king's right ſaved.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 15. The clerk of the pipe and remembrancer ſhall be ſworn to ſee, from term to term, all the writs of the great ſeal or privy-ſeal, ſent to the Exchequer the ſame term, for the final diſcharge of any perſon of any demand due in the Exchequer; and every of them to whom it pertaineth ſhall duly execute the ſaid commandments: and the ſaid two remembrancers ſhall be ſworn to make a ſchedule every term of all perſons diſcharged in their offices by judgments, or in other manner, in the ſame term, of any demands in the Exchequer, containing the manner of the diſcharges, and deliver the ſchedule to the clerk of the pipe the ſame term, for him to diſcharge the parties thereof in the great roll. The clerk of the pipe ſhall alſo be ſworn from term to term to require the ſame ſchedules, and diſcharge the parties as aforeſaid. In like manner ſhall the clerk of the pipe cauſe to be certified in writing to the remembrancers all diſcharges in his office, that a man diſcharged in one place may be diſcharged in all.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 16. Though many times perſons have had livery of their lands out of the king's hands, by judgment in the King's-Bench, or elſewhere, and have after procured the tenor of the records to be ſent by mittimus to the Exchequer, to diſcharge them of the accounts for them: the officers would not diſcharge them 'till the records and proceſſes were newly entered in the Exchequer, and new judgment there again given: it is ordained that, after ſuch record, or tenor of the ſame, ſhall come into the Exchequer, the remembrancer, in whoſe office ſuch accounts ſhall be demanded, ſhall cauſe the ſuit to ceaſe by words to be entered upon the endorſement of the writ, concerning the tenor of it, without making new proceſs.

Stat. 5 Rich. II. cap. 17. Nothing ſhall be given to the clerk for making a commiſſion in the Exchequer, above 2 s. nor for the record of a niſi prius with the writ, but 2 s. only.

Stat. 13 Rich. II. ſtat. 1. cap. 14. No recognizance nor bond of the double (for the king's debts and farms) ſhall be taken in the Exchequer, provided the king have ſufficient ſurety for his duty.

Stat. 1 Rich. III. cap. 14. §. 2. If any diſme be granted by either province of the clergy, if the collectors come by proceſs before the barons of the Exchequer, and enter in their account, they ſhall not be bound to anſwer bills there put againſt them, but only touching the account.

Sect. 3. Provided that the accountant take no privilege of the Exchequer by reaſon of the account.

Stat. 1 Jac. I. cap. 2. §. 2. All iſſues loſt, which, by intent of the late queen Elizabeth's privy-ſeal, and the orders hereunto annexed, ought to be diſcharged, ſhall be diſcharged.

Sect. 3. If the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, or his clerks, ſhall award any proceſs, exact any pleading, or take any fees, or demean themſelves contrary to their ſaid orders, the perſons ſo offending, or, if unable, the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, ſhall forfeit 20 l. the one moiety to his majeſty, and the other to the party grieved, to be ſued for, within two years of the offence committed, in any of his majeſty's courts at Weſtminſter.

Orders by Sir William Cecil, baron of Burleigh, lord-treaſurer of England; Sir Walter Mildmay, chancellor and vice-treaſurer of the Exchequer; Sir Edward Saunders, lord chief baron of the ſaid court; and other the barons of the ſame; calling unto them Gilbert Gerrard, Eſq; attorney-general, and Thomas Bromley, Eſq; ſollicitor-general to her majeſty, and made 15 Junii, anno Domini 1573.

1. No proceſs ad faciend' fidelitatem, nor any writ of ſcire facias, capias, or diſtreſs, from the fines eſtreated out of the Common-Pleas, ſhall iſſue out of the treaſurer's remembrancer's office, upon any ſuppoſal, upon pain by former ſtatutes limited, and by the orders of the ſaid court, but upon juſt grounds; and the ſame ſhall be vouched in the proceſſes, according to the book, term, year, roll, and record thereof, that it may be certainly found. And if, by any known record remaining in that office, it may appear the ſame tenure hath been traverſed, then the proceſſes to be diſcharged by the traverſe without pleading. 3. Where the firſt tenant in any ſuch writ from the ſaid original, or ſuch inrollment is returned by the ſheriff mort or nihil habet, then ſhall go out according to the antient courſe of the court a diſtring-tenent, againſt the tenants of the ſame lands to the ſheriff, to do their ſervice due to the king, and to ſhew their entry into the ſame, who returning the name of the tenant of the lands in the writ, there ſhall go proceſs every term againſt the new tenants to do their ſervice and ſhew their entry, and they to loſe iſſues thereupon, 'till they come in and make their fine for reſpect of fealty, or do their fealty according to the courſe of the Exchequer. 6. Where any writ of reverſion ſhall be made upon any record for lands, wherein the prince is in reverſion, if it appear by ſufficient matter of record within the court, that the grant or record whereupon the writ of reverſion is made, is determined, the party, upon ſhewing forth ſuch record, ſhall be diſcharged without pleading. 8. The iſſues loſt by her majeſty's ſubjects, which her highneſs hath appointed by privy ſeal to be diſcharged, be as followeth, viz. all iſſues loſt upon any that are returned tenants of lands, which they have not, ſhall be now diſcharged, though they have other lands within the ſhire. All iſſues, loſt upon any heir within age, ſhall be diſcharged. All iſſues loſt upon lands in the queen's hands, by extent or otherwiſe, ſhall be diſcharged. All iſſues loſt upon farmers and tenants of any lands for life, years, or at will, ſhall be diſcharged. All iſſues loſt by ſundry other vexations, as well by untrue returns and miſ-returns of ſheriffs and under-ſheriffs, may be diſcharged, moderated, or otherwiſe ordered, as the court ſhall think meet. All iſſues loſt by any perſon returned in any jury in the Exchequer, or in any attaint or jury before the juſtices of aſſize, which, at the time of their appearance appointed, were beyond ſea in her majeſty's ſervice, or by ſpecial licence in writing, or were in priſon, or in ordinary of her majeſty's chamber or houſhold, and bound to perſonal attendance there, ſhall be diſcharged. The treaſurer's remembrancer ſhall pay every ſubject's charges, as by the court of Exchequer ſhall be ſet, that ſhall be vexed by any writ upon a ſuppoſal, and not upon juſt ground vouched, as before declared.

Sect. 4. If thought fit, for the knowlege and preſervation of the crown's tenures, and ſo ordered in court, that proceſs ſhould iſſue againſt any, the treaſurer's remembrancer may iſſue proceſs, without incurring the penalties of this act; in which caſe, no ſuch tenure appearing, the party ſhall be diſmiſſed without pleading or fees.

Stat. 1 Will. and Mary, ſtat. 2. cap. 1. ſect. 52. Any collector keeping in hands money by him collected, longer than is directed, or paying any part to others than the receiver-general, or his deputy, forfeits 5 l. and any head collector keeping money paid him by any collector, by virtue of this act, longer than directed, or paying it to other than the receiver-general or deputy, forfeits 20 l. and any receiver-general or deputy paying ſuch monies to any (other than the receipt of the Exchequer, and that within times limited by this act) or by any warrant of the commiſſioners of the treaſury, or upon any tally of pro or of anticipation, or other way, whereby to divert payment into the receipt of the Exchequer, for every offence of himſelf or deputy, forfeits 500 l. to him who ſues in any court of record.

Sect. 53. The commiſſioners of the treaſury ſhall not direct warrants to any of the ſaid collectors, &c. for payment of any monies hereby given, to any perſons other than the receipt of the Exchequer, nor direct any warrant to the officer for ſtriking any tally of pro or anticipation, nor do any other thing to divert payment into the Exchequer; nor ſhall officers of the Exchequer ſtrike, direct, or record the ſtriking ſuch tallies, on any account whatſoever; nor ſhall any teller throw down any bill, whereby to charge himſelf with any of the ſaid monies, 'till he have actually received the ſame.

Sect. 54. The officers of the receipt of Exchequer ſhall keep the ſum hereby appropriated, and the account of it, diſtinct from all other monies and accounts; and the commiſſioners of the treaſury ſhall not ſign any warrant or order, or do any other thing for the iſſuing of any part of the ſaid ſum, other than as aforeſaid; nor ſhall the auditor of the

receipt draw any order for iſſuing any part other than as aforeſaid; nor direct, or the clerk of the pells record, or any teller make payment of, any of the ſaid monies, by warrant, order, or other way whatſoever, other than for the uſes aforeſaid, and to be ſo mentioned in ſuch warrant or order.

Sect. 57. Any of the officers appointed by this act, receiving the ſaid ſum, or part, and afterwards miſapplying the ſame by virtue of any warrant from the commiſſioners of the treaſury, or other ſuperior officers, ſhall forfeit the like ſum ſo miſapplied, recoverable in any court of record, one moiety to the informer, the other to the poor.

Sect. 58. Any officer of the Exchequer, offending againſt this law, forfeits his office, and is diſabled to hold the ſame or any other.

Sect. 59. No ſtay of proſecution upon any command, warrant, or order, by non vult proſequi, ſhall be allowed by any court in any ſuit for recovery of the penalties by this act inflicted.

Theſe directions are revived by ſeveral ſubſequent acts, particularly 12 Will. III. cap. 11. ſect. 27. and applied to the monies thereby appropriated, and made perpetual by 1 Geo. I. cap. 12. and alſo by 9 Will. III. cap. 44.

Stat. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 28. ſect. 1. When money is brought into the receipt of the Exchequer, the teller, the officers of the tally-court attending, ſhall receive and weigh the ſame, and making entry thereof ſhall throw down bills written on parchment and ſigned, into the tally-court, whereby a tally may be duly levied according to the nature of the payment; and ſuch teller, his clerk, or ſubſtitute, ſhall not for ſuch money give a note, importing a depoſitum, or other private note or ſecurity, to prevent the due charging thereof in the Exchequer, upon pain that ſuch teller, who ſhall offend againſt this act, ſhall forfeit his office, and be diſabled to ſerve the king in any office, and forfeit double damages to the king or party, and coſts; and every teller's clerk ſo offending, by giving any private note, &c. whereby the due charging is hindered, forfeits double the ſum for which the note was given; one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, and alſo be removed from the receipt.

Sect. 2. No teller to charge himſelf by bill with receipt of any money in the Exchequer, but when the officers of the tally-court are there preſent; nor ſhall any teller, or his ſubſtitute, throw down into the ſaid court any bill, purporting the receiving any money, unleſs ſuch teller or his clerks have actually received the ſame; except where tallies are levied by warrant of the commiſſioners of the treaſury or treaſurer of the Exchequer; or where the perſon for whom any tally ſhall be levied, ſhall on the ſame day give a diſcharge according to the courſe of the exchequer, upon ſome order or debenture for the money; on pain of incurring the like forfeiture of office and diſability as before-mentioned, and forfeiting double the ſum ſo unduly charged; one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, and for clerks and ſubſtitutes the like penalty as aforeſaid.

Sect. 3. No teller, his clerk, or ſubſtitute, after the bills thrown down into the tally-court, ſhall lend, pay, or depart with, ſuch money out of his office, without an order or debenture for the ſame, made by the auditor, and recorded by the clerk of the pells, and taking a receipt to diſcharge the king according to antient courſe, under like penalties, as for unduly charging any money not received.

Sect. 4. Chamberlains or their deputies, and other officers, clerks and deputies of the tally-court, ſhall daily, except Sundays and holidays, conſtantly attend, from eight of the clock to one from Lady-day to Michaelmas, and from nine to one from Michaelmas to Lady-day yearly, unleſs ſick, or have leave from the commiſſioners of the treaſury or under-treaſurer of the Exchequer; in which caſe their room ſhall be ſufficiently ſupplied as accuſtomed, on pain to anſwer the king, or party ſuffering by ſuch abſence, double damages and full coſts. And the auditors of receipt, writer of tallies, clerks of the pells, the four tellers, and other officers, ſhall by themſelves or deputies attend, under like penalties.

Sect. 5. The firſt clerk in the auditor of receipt's office, clerk of the pells, and four tellers, ſhall be ſworn to the due performance of all matters of their offices, the oath to be tendered by the commiſſioners of the treaſury, or under-treaſurer of the Exchequer, or by the barons or any of them.

Sect. 6. None of the monies in the receipt of the Exchequer ſhall be thence iſſued, but in purſuance of ſome grant under the great ſeal, or under the privy ſeal, or purſuant to ſome act of parliament.

Sect. 7. Tables ſhall be ſet at the door of the auditor of the receipt, ſhewing how far the officers there have proceeded in the repayment of loans on the credit of revenues, and how far the monies, paid in by the receivers, extend to diſcharge principal and intereſt upon the ſaid taxes, &c.

Sect. 8. The auditor of the receipt ſhall (for his lawful fees) enter all letters patent and privy ſeals, for iſſuing the king's treaſure, and ſhall draw orders or make the debentures for iſſuing thereof, as required by the treaſury or treaſurer of the Exchequer, and ſhall keep entries thereof, and weekly take the tellers accounts, and make certificate to the treaſury of all receipts, iſſues, and remains, of the king's money there, and make out the impreſt certificates, and tranſmit the ordinary impreſt-rolls half yearly to the remembrancer; and ſhall half yearly, at Eaſter and Michaelmas, tranſmit to the treaſury the declaration of the receipts, iſſues, and remains at the Exchequer, as hath been antiently accuſtomed. And the clerk of the pells ſhall (for his lawful fees) enroll all letters patent and privy ſeals for iſſuing the king's treaſure, and enter all receipts and iſſues at the Exchequer, and take the tellers weekly accounts, and certify to the treaſury, weekly, the receipts and remains of the king's money there, and examine the impreſt-certificates and impreſt-rolls, and tranſmit to the treaſury, half yearly, declarations of the receipts, iſſues, and remains, within the half year, and ſhall in all matters obſerve the antient method. And the ſaid officers, their deputies and clerks, ſhall be anſwerable for their demeanors, as well to the king, as to any perſon who may ſuffer by any neglect.

Sect. 9. All penalties by this act ſhall be recovered in any of the king's courts of record.

Sect. 10. This act not to leſſen the lawful power which the commiſſioners of the treaſury or treaſurer ought to have in their places.

Sect. 11. This act not to alter any method of receipts or payments by bills of credit in the Exchequer, allowed by parliament.

Sect. 12. All the money in the receipt ſhall be kept in cheſts under three locks and keys, the tellers to keep one, the clerk of the pells one, and the other ſhall be kept by the eldeſt of the two deputy chamberlains; and no orders, &c. ſhall be paid the ſame day they are ſent up from the auditor's office to the clerk of the pells (except for the navy, ordnance, forces, or for monies regiſtered); and the clerk of the pells and deputy chamberlains ſhall, every morning, except Sundays and holidays, cauſe the cheſt to be opened in their preſence, and ſo much money taken out and left with the tellers, as will ſatisfy the orders ready to be ſatisfied, and the reſt to be locked up again; and every day ſee all the money received that day (except what ſhall be paid away) to be firſt weighed in the bags, a ticket of the contents put into each bag, and ſo ſecured in the cheſts. And, if monies in the cheſts be directed to be iſſued for the navy, ordnance, &c. ſo that payment muſt not be deferred, the clerk of the pells and deputy chamberlains ſhall go up to the tellers offices and ſee the cheſts opened for that money, and the public ſervice diſpatched, and the cheſts ſecured again; and, when the clerk of the pells cannot attend, his eldeſt clerk ſhall keep the keys of the cheſts; if the deputy chamberlain cannot attend, his keys ſhall be kept by his fellow; and no money ſhall be taken out of the cheſts, but in the preſence of the teller, the clerk of the pells, and deputy chamberlain; or, if ſick or abſent, of their clerks, as aforementioned.

Sect. 13. The auditor of the receipt, or his chief clerk, ſhall, at leaſt once in 28 days, viſit every teller's caſh, and by numbering the bags, opening ſome of them, and, if he thinks fit, by weighing or telling the money, ſee that the tellers have the remains wherewith he charges them; and, at leaſt once in three months, he ſhall examine the tellers vouchers for the payments he allows them in his weekly certificate.

Stat. 12 Geo. I. cap. 12. ſect. 19. The commiſſioners of the treaſury ſhall cauſe to be prepared Exchequer-bills, not exceeding in the whole 500,000 l. ſterling.

Sect. 20. The ſaid bills ſhall bear an intereſt of 2 d. per cent. per diem, payable to the bearers; but the intereſt ſhall be ſaved on ſuch of the bills as ſhall at any time be in the receipt of the Exchequer, or the hands of any receivers or collectors of taxes.

Sect. 21. The bills ſhall be numbered arithmetically, and regiſtered accordingly, ſo that the principal ſums may be paid off in courſe; and the intereſt ſhall be payable every three months, and on every bill be indorſed the ſum, after which the principal to be contained therein ſhall be paid in courſe; and the bills marked with ſuch cheques or counterfoils as the treaſury ſhall direct; and the perſon who is to have the paying off the bills ſhall have one part of the cheques, &c. and the contractors for circulating the bills the other; and all the parts of the cheques, &c. ſhall be delivered back into the Exchequer, when the bills ſhall be cancelled.

Sect. 22. Theſe bills ſhall be placed as caſh in the tellers offices, and the tellers be chargeable with the proportion of them.

Sect. 23. Theſe bills ſhall be current in like manner, and ſubject to ſuch rules as are preſcribed by the land-tax act concerning the Exchequer-bills thereby authorized, and all the clauſes relating to the currency, exchanging, &c. of theſe bills, ſhall be conſtrued to extend, as well to the Exchequer-bills to be made forth by this act, as to the bills made forth in purſuance of the ſaid act; the ſaid clauſes being the ſame as in ſtat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 1.

Sect. 24. All theſe bills ſhall be charged on the monies that ſhall ariſe by the duties hereby charged on the retailers of beer and ale; and be iſſued towards taking in, circulating, and diſcharging theſe bills, as the treaſury ſhall think fit.

Sect.

Sect. 25. Every year, during the continuance of these bills, the treasury shall on Michaelmas-day, or within 20 days after, cause a true account to be taken of all the monies that shall in the preceding year have been paid into the Exchequer, on account of the said duties or compositions upon retailers of beer and ale, and how much thereof will be necessary for the interest on the said bills, and for the charges of circulating; and, if any surplus remain, it shall be applied towards paying off the principal.

Sect. 26. In case, on any such feast-day, the money arisen in the preceding year shall not be sufficient to discharge such interest or charges, such deficiency shall be made good out of the first supplies to be granted in parliament; and, if such supply be not granted within six months, the same shall be made good out of the sinking fund.

Sect. 27. What monies shall be issued out of the sinking fund, shall be replaced out of the first aids to be granted in parliament.

Stat. 7 Geo. II. cap. 6. sect. 2. There shall be kept in the office of the auditor of the receipt a register, to enter all the money payable upon this act, for granting the duties upon salt, &c. and it shall be lawful for any persons to lend his majesty, upon the credit of the said duties, sums of money not exceeding in the whole one million; with interest not exceeding 4 per cent. so as such loans be allowed by three commissioners of the treasury, the interest to be paid every three months, and the monies lent not assessed in any tax. And every such lender shall have a tally of loan, and an order for repayment; such orders to be registered, and all persons paid in course. And no fee demanded for the same, on pain of treble damages to the party grieved, with costs; or, if the officer himself take or demand any fee, then to forfeit his place also. And, if any undue preference be made in registry or payment, the party offending shall be liable to pay the value of the debt with costs, and be forejudged of his office. And if such preference be unduly made by any deputy or clerk, without privity of his master, he shall be liable to the action, and ever incapable of his place. And in case the auditor shall not direct, or the clerk of the pells record, or tellers make payment as directed, to forfeit as aforesaid, the penalties to be recovered in any of his majesty's courts.

Sect. 3. If several tallies or orders bear date, or be brought the same day to the auditor, it shall be no undue preference which of those be entered first, so he enters them all the same day; also it shall not be any undue preference, if the auditor direct, &c. and the tellers pay, subsequent orders of persons that demand their money, so as there be money reserved to satisfy precedent orders, interest being to cease from the time the money is so reserved.

Sect. 4. All persons to whom money shall be due for loans by this act, by assignment indorsed on their order, may assign such order, or any part thereof, which being notified in the office of the auditor, and an entry made in the registry (which the officers shall without fee make) shall intitle such assignee, and so toties quoties.

Sect. 5. The commissioners of the treasury may raise the said sum of one million, or any part thereof, by Exchequer-bills, with like powers and directions, as in 12 Geo. I. cap. 12.

Stat. 8 Geo. II. cap. 12. sect. 4. It shall be lawful for any persons to lend to his majesty sums not exceeding 500,000 l. upon credit of the duties upon salt by this act continued, upon orders of loan, to be made out, as in 7 Geo. II. cap. 6.

Stat. 10 Geo. II. cap. 17. sect. 13. It shall be lawful to any persons to lend to his majesty, at the receipt of the Exchequer, sums not exceeding in the whole 500,000 l. at 3 per cent. to be secured by orders of loan or Exchequer-bills, upon the duties upon sweets granted by this act, as in 7 Geo. II. cap. 6.

Stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 17. sect. 13. It shall be lawful for any persons to lend to his majesty, at the receipt, &c. upon credit of the duties upon malt, &c. by this act granted, sums not exceeding 750,000 l. at 3 per cent. to be secured by orders of loan or Exchequer-bills, as in 7 Geo. II. cap. 6.

Sect. 31. The said Exchequer-bills shall be current to all receivers and collectors of the customs, excise, or any revenue and at the receipt of the Exchequer; and such bill as shall be received at the Exchequer, shall be locked up as cash; and all receivers and collectors of the revenue shall, out of any money in their hands, pay such of the same bills as shall be brought to them; and, in case any such receiver or collector neglect to exchange such bills for money by the space of 24 hours, the person demanding it may bring an action of debt, or on the case, for monies due upon such bills, against such receiver or collector, having money in his hands; in which action the plaintiff may declare, that such receiver or collector is indebted to the plaintiff in the money demanded upon every such bill, according to the form of the statute, and hath not paid the same, and the plaintiff shall deliver up such bills to the defendant.

Sect. 32. As any of the bills shall be paid or lent into the Exchequer, the officers there shall cause tallies to be levied and delivered to the payers or lenders, as if they had made such payments or loans in specie.

Sect. 33. The interest due on any of the bills shall be allowed to all persons paying the same to any receiver or collector, to the days whereon such bills shall be so paid.

Sect. 34. Provided no interest be paid on any such bills while remaining in the hands of any receivers or collectors, or any teller of the Exchequer.

Sect. 35. Whoso shall pay any such bills to any receivers or collectors, or into the Exchequer, shall, at the time of such payment, &c. on each bill put their names, and write thereon, in words at length, the day of the month and year, in which they so paid, lent, or exchanged, such bills; all which the said receivers and collectors, and also the tellers, are to see done.

Sect. 36. The bills may be re-issued, and the teller from whose office such bills shall be re-issued, shall indorse on them, in words at length, the day of the month and year in which they were so re-issued, and also on what account last received into the Exchequer, and sign the same, from which time the interest of such time shall revive.

Sect. 37. The same bills shall be so re-issued for the principal money contained in them, and for the interest due on them, and allowed by the teller when such bills were last paid into the Exchequer.

Sect. 38. Every receiver-general of the revenues shall keep books of account of all monies by him received, and enter the sums in them, with the names of the collectors from whom received, how much in money, and how much in Exchequer-bills and what Exchequer-bills shall have been exchanged by such receiver-general pursuant to this act, to which account every person concerned shall have free access without fee; and the said accounts shall lie open at one certain place within the limits of his receipt; and such receiver neglecting to keep such books, or enter any money by him received and paid by the space of three days, or refusing any person concerned to inspect them, forfeits 100 l. to any who shall sue for the same in any court of record.

Sect. 39. In case any of the Exchequer-bills aforesaid be filled up by the indorsement, or by accident be defaced, the commissioners of the treasury may cause new bills to be made forth at the receipt of the Exchequer, in lieu of such bills filled up or defaced; and such bills to bear the same numbers, dates, and principal sums, and carry the like interest as the bills cancelled.

Sect. 40. Commissioners of the treasury may cause Exchequer-bills for large sums, not exceeding 5000 l. each, to be made forth and placed as cash in the receipt, in lieu of the like value of the principal contained in bills made forth for lesser sums.

Sect. 41. Any person forging any Exchequer-bill made forth by virtue of this act, before the same be paid off and cancelled, or any indorsement thereupon, or tender in payment any such forged bill, or any Exchequer-bill, with such counterfeit indorsement, or demanding money for such bill, knowing the bill or the indorsement to be forged, and with intent to defraud his majesty or any other person; such person so offending, being thereof convicted, shall be adjudged a felon without benefit of clergy.

There are also other directions relating to the application of the duties, as in 12 Geo. I. cap. 12.

These are the usual directions which are repeated or referred to in all acts of parliament directing the issuing of Exchequer-bills.

Stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 14. sect. 130. Any persons may lend his majesty sums not exceeding one million, upon credit of the land-tax granted by this act for the year 1738, to be secured, as in 11 Geo. II. cap. 1.

Stat. 11 Geo. II. cap. 27. sect. 2. Any persons may advance, into the receipt of his majesty's Exchequer, sums not exceeding 500,000 l. for purchasing annuities at 3 per cent. charged upon the sinking fund 'till redemption by parliament; or the commissioners of the treasury may raise the money, or any part of it, by issuing Exchequer-bills, with the usual directions.

REMARKS.

From this sketch of the statutes, in relation to the constitution of the Exchequer, the following particulars are observable.

That the Exchequer is the great check upon all the other offices, which relate to the public revenue; that all the receipts and payments, which pass through the various channels of the revenue, ultimately terminate here, and the monies are issued from hence, and applied to the several articles, ordinary and extraordinary, to which they are appropriated by the authority of parliament.

That so various and so strict are the checks, upon each other, among the several officers, appointed for the management and regulation of the Exchequer, that it is scarce possible for any frauds whatever to be carried on, without being detected. At the beginning, indeed, of the reign of his late majesty king George II. the Exchequer was robbed of 4191 l. 14 s. 6 d. which was made good by parliament; but this accident is quite foreign to the consideration of the admirable constitution of this office.

Sir Thomas Clifford, who was at the head of the treasury, in the time of king Charles II. having involved his royal master

maſter in great perplexities, adviſed the ſhutting up the exchequer; a project of ſuch extenſive miſchief, as was, perhaps, never, equalled, at leaſt excelled, till the late flagitious contrivance of the South-Sea-Scheme, in our days.

The conſequence of public credit has been ſo well underſtood in all well-governed nations, that to break it has ever been eſteemed rooting up the very foundation of a ſtate. With the Greeks and Romans, what was more ſacred and inviolable? And, though in thoſe ages the public faith did no ſo frequently concern pecuniary payments, yet that does not make any difference, as to the conſequence.

Among modern princes and ſtates, even with ſome of the moſt arbitrary, nothing is more inviolable than public funds. Great loans have been formerly made to the ſee of Rome, by which the Pope's revenues are much incumbered, and he pays, every year, conſiderable ſums for intereſt of money borrowed by his predeceſſors; and though this does, and has, for years paſt, much exhauſted the apoſtolic chamber, and is ſo heavy an incumbrance on the ſee of Rome; yet no Pope (who in other things claims power to diſpenſe with the laws of God and man) would ever attempt a thing ſo barbarous, ſo impolitic, and without precedent, in any wiſe ſtate, as to break the public faith: not one of them would ever attempt ſo much as to reduce the intereſt, but by conſent of the creditors; in order to which, one Pope, having provided a great ſum of money, cauſed notice to be given, that thoſe who would not accept a leſs intereſt, ſhould take their principal, which few would do, when they found their ſecurity ſo good.

It were eaſy to ſhew, from hiſtory, what ill effects the breach of public faith has produced. Henry the Third of France, having called an aſſembly of the ſtates-general at Blois, on ſecurity of the public faith, prevailed with the Duke of Guiſe, and his adherents, to put themſelves into his power. His own weakneſs, or the ill advice of ſome about him, made him think it his intereſt to break through an obligation ſo ſacred; and, by the death of the duke, and others of his party, to ſave, as he thought, much treaſure and blood, and become ſafe and eaſy on his throne. But he ſoon had cauſe to repent of his folly; for, after that action, no man would ever truſt him, he never had a quiet moment, ſhort and turbulent was the reſt of his reign, and his end tragical.

The inſtance of his contemporary, Philip the Second of Spain, may come nearer our caſe. In his wars of Flanders, he had been often ſupplied with money by the merchants of Antwerp, to the great advantage of his affairs; but a piece of ſuch good huſbandry came into his head, as thinking that theſe tally-jobbing merchants, as they were then called, of Antwerp, had got too much by lending him money; therefore, in his profound wiſdom, he thought it convenient to break his faith with them, in moderating their gains, (as the hiſtorian words it) by which he ſeemed to have ſaved forty or fifty thouſand pounds. But what followed? In the next line we are told, that neither they, nor any other, would truſt him any more; which, in a few days, was the occaſion of his loſing the then great city of Amiens, and, after infinite vexations and mutinies of his armies, for want of pay, by which his affairs were wonderfully retarded, and thoſe of his enemies much advanced. In ſhort, this ungenerous and impolitic action contributed, not a little, to his loſs of many provinces.

It may not be amiſs here to take notice, what ſort of men have been the moſt uſeful in their generation, and ſhewed the moſt application and ſkill, in ſupporting the government at the beginning of the revolution, in giving credit to our affairs, and ſupplying our wants in all emergencies: we ſhould not forget what ſort of men, in the city, and of what principles, were the moſt liberal and hearty in their loans to his majeſty upon every occaſion; they were all true friends to our trade, our public credit, and our liberties: to the number of whom we ſhould add thoſe who projected and wiſely eſtabliſhed the bank of England; a deſign ſo happy, and ſo ſeaſonable, that the naming of it is ſufficient to bring to our remembrance, of what extraordinary uſe it was to the government in the moſt critical conjuncture: it was, at one time, the very prop of our affairs; and the preſent aid that admirable corporation at preſent gives to the exchequer, ſufficiently evinces it's high concernment to the public credit.

The miſerable condition to which this kingdom was reduced, by the clipt money, and the riſe of guineas, at the time we are ſpeaking, no ſtory can furniſh us with a more diſmal example: at this criſis, the enemies of our eſtabliſhment thought themſelves certain of gaining their point; and they judged pretty right; for, if the currency of the clipt money, and the monſtrous bulk of guineas, had not been overcome, they had been ſure of our necks under their feet.

When we were under all theſe difficulties; when we wanted money to pay the army and navy; when all trade was at a ſtand, and we had not money to go to market, that admirable expedient of the EXCHEQUER BILLS ſupplied our emergencies, while our ſilver was in the mint, raiſed a new ſpecie amongſt us, and came as ſeaſonable as the manna in the wilderneſs; which demonſtrates of what important utility to the ſtate the credit of the exchequer may be rendered, if it be ſacredly and inviolably ſupported, and never over-ſtrained, by iſſuing more of theſe bills, than the ſunds will, in a reaſonable time, ſink and diſcharge. For,

In the raiſing the public ſupplies, a proper quantity of exchequer bills might be every year iſſued on the land and the malt taxes, at a reaſonable intereſt, to be ſunk, in courſe, by the produce of the tax on which they were iſſued.

The iſſuing ſuch exchequer bills would ſupply, in ſome degree, the want of money; and could never occaſion any run on the exchequer, not being payable on demand.

The inconveniency which aroſe, in former times, from iſſuing exchequer bills, proceeded from the quantity being too large; and there not being a fund to ſink them in a reaſonable time.

People would be glad to take ſuch bills in payment; becauſe thereby they would be enabled to make intereſt of their running caſh.

Thoſe who contract with the government, would be glad to agree to have their payments in ſuch bills; which would keep navy and victualling bills from being at diſcount; and conſequently the government would buy their goods cheaper, than when the contractors are at an uncertainty what they ſhall be paid. See the articles FUNDS, TAXES, TRADE.

EXCISE.

A ſhort hiſtory of exciſes in this kingdom.

I. That called the temporary exciſe, firſt granted by an act, 12 Car. II. cap. 23. and by the 2d. money-act, parl. laſt of king W. and firſt of queen Anne, continued to her majeſty during her life, being 15d. per barrel, upon every barrel of beer or ale, above 6s. the barrel, and 3d. per barrel, for every barrel of 6s. or under, brewed for retail: 15d. for every hogſhead of cyder or perry, ſold by retail; 1d. for every gallon of ſtrong water, or aqua-vitæ, &c.

II. The hereditary exciſe, granted at firſt for ever, by an act, 12 Car. II. cap. 24. being the very ſame with the former.

III. A new exciſe, granted at firſt to king William and queen Mary, their heirs and ſucceſſors, for 96 years, from January 25, 1692-3, by the ſecond money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4. and continued for 15 years longer, by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4, being, for every barrel of beer or ale, above 6s. the barrel, 9d. and for every barrel of 6s. or under, 3d. for every hogſhead of cyder or perry, 1s. 3d. &c.

IV. A ſecond new exciſe, firſt granted by the third money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 5. until May 17, 1713, and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 1. continued from thence for 95 years, being, for beer or ale, the ſame with the laſt, and cyder or perry 1s. per hogſhead, &c.

V. A third new exciſe, at firſt granted for ever, by the fifth money-act of the ſame ſeſſion of W. and M. being the very ſame with the ſecond new exciſe. In this exciſe, the price of the liquor is to be reckoned excluſive of the duty.

VI. An exciſe upon ſalt, firſt granted by the third money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 5. and continued for ever, by the ſeventh money-act, W. III. parl. I. ſeſſ. 1. being three half-pence per gallon, upon all home-made ſalt, or rock-ſalt.

VII. A ſecond exciſe upon ſalt, granted at firſt for ever, by the eleventh money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 3. being 3d. half-penny per gallon, for all home-made ſalt, or rock-ſalt.

VIII. An exciſe upon malt, firſt granted by the ſeventh money-act, W. III. parl. 1. ſeſſ. 2. revived by the firſt money-act of parl. laſt of King William, and firſt of queen Anne, and continued annually to the 24th of June, 1715, being 6d. the buſhel, on all malt made for ſale, or not for ſale, for every barrel of mum made for ſale, 10s. for every barrel of ſweets made for ſale, 12s. and for every hogſhead of cyder and perry made for ſale, 4s. all theſe duties upon liquors being over and above the then preſent duties.

IX. An exciſe on ſweets, over and above the exciſe impoſed by the ſaid malt-act, or any former duty, was firſt granted by the ſecond money-act, W. III. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 1. and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4. continued to March 25, 1808; being an additional duty of 36s. the barrel, upon all ſweets made for ſale.

X. An exciſe on low wines or ſpirits, firſt granted by the fifth money-act, W. and M. parl. 2. ſeſſ. 2. and by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 2. ſeſſ. 4. continued to June 23, 1807; being then an additional exciſe, or duty of 6d. a gallon upon ſpirits drawn from foreign materials, and on thoſe drawn from Engliſh materials, 1d.

XI. A fourth new exciſe upon home-made liquors, at firſt granted from Lady-day 1710, to Lady-day 1742, by the fourth money-act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 2. being an additional exciſe upon every barrel of beer or ale, brewed for ſale, above 6s. the barrel, (excluſive of the duties) 3d. and for every barrel at 6s. or under, 1d. for every hogſhead of cyder and perry, 5d. for every gallon of ſtrong waters, or aqua vitæ, 1d. This exciſe was not laid upon any ſuch liquors imported.

XII. An exciſe on candles, firſt granted by the fifth money-act,

act, Anne, parl. 3. ſeſſ. 2. and by the 8th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1. continued for ever; being a duty of 4 d. the pound on wax, and a half-penny the pound on tallow candles, made in Great-Britain, for ſale, or not for ſale; but makers, for their own uſe, might compound at 1 s. a head, for every perſon in their family.

XIII. An additional exciſe on candles was at firſt granted for 32 years, from Lady-day 1711, by the third money act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1. being an additional duty, the ſame with the former in every reſpect.

XIV. An exciſe upon hides and ſkins tanned, &c. in Britain, firſt granted by the 6th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1. for 32 years, from Midſummer 1711. This is an exciſe of ſeventeen different kinds, upon ſo many different ſorts of hides and ſkins particularly named, and upon all others not named, 15 l. per cent. ad valorem.

XV. An exciſe on home-made vellum and parchment, firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time; being 1 s. per dozen on vellum, and 6 d. the dozen on parchment.

XVI. An exciſe on hops of home-growth, firſt granted by the 7th money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 1. for 4 years, from June 1, 1711, being 1 d. per pound.

XVII. An exciſe on paper, paſte-boards, milled-boards, and ſcale-boards, was firſt granted for 32 years, from June 10, 1712, by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 4. ſeſſ. 2. being a duty of eleven different kinds, on ſo many different ſorts of paper particularly named, made in Great-Britain; on paſte-boards, &c. 3 s. the hundred weight; and on all ſorts of paper not named, 12 l. per cent. on the value.

XVIII. An exciſe on ſoap, firſt granted by the ſame act, for the ſame time; being a duty of 1 d. the pound, on all ſoap made in Great-Britain.

XIX. An exciſe upon printed ſilks, callicoes, linens, and ſtuffs, made in Great-Britain, and printed, painted, ſtained, or dyed here, was firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time, being a duty of 3 d. on ſilks and callicoes, and three half-pence on linen and ſtuffs, the yard ſquare, excepting ſilk handkerchiefs and callicoes, linens and fuſtians, dyed of one colour, and ſtuffs made of woollen, or the greateſt part in value of woollen.

XX. An additional exciſe on hides and ſkins, &c. of Great-Britain, firſt granted for 32 years, from Auguſt 1, 1712, by the fourth money-act of the ſame ſeſſion, being an additional duty of different kinds, upon ſo many different ſorts of hides and ſkins, particularly named, and on all others not named, 15 l. per cent. on the value.

XXI. An additional exciſe on home-made vellum and parchment, firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time, being an additional duty of 2 s. the dozen on vellum, and 1 s. the dozen on parchment.

XXII. An exciſe on ſtarch made in Britain, firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time, being a duty of 1 d. the pound.

XXIII. An exciſe on gilt and ſilver wire made in Britain, firſt granted by the ſame act, for 32 years, from July 1, 1712, being a duty of 8 d. the ounce on gilt wire, and 6 d. the ounce on ſilver wire.

XXIV. An additional exciſe on paper, paſteboards, &c. firſt granted by the third money-act, Anne, parl. 5. ſeſſ. 1, for 32 years, from Auguſt 2, 1714; being an additional duty of eleven different kinds, on ſo many different ſorts of home-made paper particularly named; on paſteboard, &c. 1 s. 6. the hundred weight; and on all ſorts of paper not named, 6 l. per cent. on the value; and on painted paper for hangings, a half-penny the yard ſquare.

XXV. An additional exciſe on home-made ſoap, firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time, being an additional duty of a half-penny the pound.

XXVI. An additional exciſe on home-made ſtarch, firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time, being 1 d. the pound.

XXVII. An additional exciſe on printed filks, callicoes, &c. firſt granted by the ſame act, and for the ſame time; being an additional duty of 6 d. the yard of half-yard broad filks; 1 d. the yard ſquare of ſilk handkerchiefs; 3 d. the yard ſquare of callicoes, and three half-pence the yard ſquare of linens and ſtuffs, excepting, as before, callicoes, &c. dyed of one colour, and woollen ſtuffs.

Exciſe on liquors imported.

This duty being under the direction of the honourable the commiſſioners of exciſe, it is uſual for them, by their deputation, to impower the collector and ſurveyor of the cuſtoms in each out-port, to levy, collect, and manage it on their behalf, in conjunction with their own port-gauger: and, therefore, at the time of the entry of any exciſeable liquors for the cuſtoms, the collector of that revenue muſt likewiſe demand and receive the exciſe-duty thereon; and, in order thereto, a bill muſt be drawn from the cuſtom-entry, which muſt be dated and numbered in courſe, beginning a new number at each quarter-day. The form of this bill of entry may be as follows:

4 January, 1730. No. 1.

In the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, from Jamaica.

Benjamin Bowles.

3 caſks, containing 150 gallons of rum, exciſe l. 27 : 10 : 0.

A bill of entry being thus formed, and the exciſe duty received, the collector of the cuſtoms muſt, beſides the cuſtom-warrant, grant a diſtinct warrant to the proper officers, who are to examine, gauge, and deliver ſuch imported liquors, on the behalf of the commiſſioners of the exciſe, as a voucher to them for ſo doing. The form may be as follows:

Port of Southampton.

4 January, 1730.—No. 1.

In the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, from Jamaica.

Benjamin Bowles.

B. B. No. 1 to 3. } Three caſks, containing one hundred and fifty gallons of Rum. Exciſe l. 27 : 10 : 0.

A. B. Collector.

To { B. C. Surveyor, C. D. Gauger.

The warrant being thus made, it muſt be delivered to the officers to whom directed, who are to take all imaginable care in the examining, gauging, and diſcharging of the liquors therein ſpecified; and demean themſelves in all reſpects relating thereto, as is practiſed by the officers of the cuſtoms in the diſcharge of the like goods: and the bill of entry from whence the warrant was drawn muſt be preſerved upon a file, in order to be entered daily in a proper book, to be kept for that purpoſe, in the following form:

An Account of exciſeable liquors imported in the quarter ending at Lady-day 1731.

Dates.	No.		Exciſe. l.	s.	d.
		In the Taviſtoc of London, Daniel Bright, from Jamaica,			
4 January	1	Benjamin Bowles ——— 150 gallons rum - - -	27	10	—
		In the George of London, Roger Hill. from Dantzick,			
7	2	William Hill ——— 10 barrels ſpruce beer - - -	7	10	—
		In the Elizabeth of Bremen, John Behn, from Bremen,			
9	3	Andrew Doyle ——— 6 barrels mum - - -	7	10	—
		In the Providence of London, James Bell, from Rotterdam			
13	4	Joſeph Bright ——— 756 gallons ſingle brandy - -	138	12	—
		50 gallons geneva - - -	21	13	4
		In the Providence aforeſaid, poſt on No. 4.			
12 February	5	Joſeph Bright ——— 157 gallons ſingle brandy - -	28	15	8
		9 gallons geneva - - -	3	18	—
		In the Delight of Southampton, David Stone, from Malaga,			
15	6	Samuel Hoames ——— 756 gallons ſingle brandy - -	138	12	—
		In the Hope of Dublin, William Wilſon, from Dublin,			
25	7	Benjamin Tower ——— 15 gallons uſquebaugh - -	2	15	—
		In the Avery of Liverpool, Benjamin Dawes, from Jamaica,			
2 March	8	Edward Sims ——— 16 gallons citron water - - -	2	18	8
		In the Vineyard of Southampton, Charles Cook, from Bourdeaux,			
17	9	Richard Garth ——— 1008 gallons ſingle brandy - -	184	16	—
20	10	Samuel Franks ——— 12 gallons Hungary-water - -	4	—	—
24		Sold out of his majeſty's warehouſe, at a public ſale, on the 23d inſtant, after having lain there unentered for the ſpace of ſix months, purſuant to the acts of the 12th of Anne, and 12 George I. and the orders of the honourable the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, dated the 17th and 22d inſtant, 298 gallons ſingle brandy - - - - - - - -	54	12	8
		Total - - -	623	3	4

And immediately after the end of each quarter, there muſt be tranſcribed, from this book, in order to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of exciſe, as a voucher for the duties with which the collector is to be charged, an abſtract of the exciſeable liquors imported during the preceding quarter, in the following form:

Hants Collection, Port of Southampton. } An ABSTRACT of the exciſeable liquors imported in the quarter ending at Lady-day 1731.

No. of entries.	Dates of entries.	Ships names.	Maſters names.	From whence.	Merchants names.	Quantities and qualities. Brandy.	Rum.	Citron-water.	Uſque-baugh.	Geneva.	Hunſtary-water.	Spruce-beer.	Mum.	Duty. l.	s.	d.
						Gall.	Gall.	Gall.	Gall.	Gall.	Gall.	Bar.	Bar.			
1	4 Jan.	Taviſtock	Dan. Bright	Jamaica	Ben. Bowles	—	150	—	—	—	—	—	—	27	10	—
2	7	George	Roger Hill	Dantzick	Wil. Hill	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	—	7	10	—
3	9	Elizabeth	John Behn	Bremen	And. Doyle	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	7	10	—
4	13	Providence	James Bell	Rotterdam	Joſ. Bright	756	—	—	—	50	—	—	—	160	5	4
5	12 Feb.	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	157	—	—	—	9	—	—	—	32	13	8
6	15	Delight	David Stone	Malaga	S. Hoames	756	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	138	12	—
7	25	Hope	Wil. Wilſon	Dublin	Ben. Tower	—	—	—	15	—	—	—	—	2	15	—
8	2 Mar.	Avery	Ben. Dawes	Jamaica	Ed. Sims	—	—	16	—	—	—	—	—	2	18	8
9	17	Vineyard	Char. Cook	Bourdeaux	Rich. Garth	1008	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	184	16	—
10	20	Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	S. Franks	—	—	—	—	—	12	—	—	4	—	—
3	24	Sold out of his majeſty's warehouſes at a public ſale, on the 23d inſtant, having lain there unentered for the ſpace of ſix months, purſuant to the acts of the 12th of Anne, and 12 George I. and the orders of the honourable the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, dated the 17th and 22d inſtant - -				298	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	54	12	8
						2975	150	16	15	59	12	10	6	623	3	4

A. B. Collector.
B. C. Surveyor,
C. D. Gauuger.

But though this abſtract is not to be ſent oftner than once a quarter, yet the duty muſt be remitted to the commiſſioners, from time to time, as received, in the ſame manner as before directed for the remittances of the cuſtoms; obſerving that, when bills are returned for non-acceptance, the collector muſt, in his account current, charge himſelf debtor for the ſaid bills, and claim credit for thoſe ſent in lieu thereof; and that when ſuch bills are repaid, the charges of proteſt and intereſt, 'till the actual time of repayment, muſt be charged for the ſame; and that under the ſecond bill muſt be mentioned the number of the firſt, and that it is in lieu thereof.

And in conſideration of the trouble in levying, collecting, and accounting for this duty, the commiſſioners of exciſe make the following allowances, out of the duties received, to the ſeveral officers concerned, viz.

To the collector, 6 d. in the pound, but not to exceed 40 l. per annum.

To the ſurveyor, 6 d. in the pound, but not to exceed 30 l. per annum.

To the gauger, 6 d. in the pound, which muſt not exceed 20 l. per annum.

Which the collector muſt deduct, and pay out of the duty by him collected.

Laſtly, at the end of each quarter, a true ſtate of the collection muſt be made, in a proper book to be kept for that purpoſe, by forming an account current thereof, which muſt be compoſed of the ſeveral receipts, payments, and remittances, during that quarter. The form of which account current muſt be as follows:

EXC

The honourable the commiſſioners of exciſe on liquors, their account current, from the 25th of December, 1730, to the 25th of March, 1731. Dr.

Contra - - - - - - - - Cr.

	l.	s.	d.
To remittances during this quarter - - -	682	15	—
To poſtage of letters - - - -	—	1	8
To * poundage to the collector, ſurveyor, and gauger, on the receipt of 1357 l. 8 s. 4 d. in ‡ the whole year, as by vouchers herewith ſent - - - - -	83	18	8½
To ballance due to the king to be carried to next quarter's account - - - -	9	16	5½
	776	11	10

	l.	s.	d.
By ballance due to the king laſt quarter - -	2	16	2
By the receipt this quarter, as by vouchers ſent - - - - - -	663	3	4
By bills of exchange returned for non-payment - - - - - -	150	—	—
By intereſt received on ditto - - -	—	8	10
By charges of proteſt on ditto - - -	—	3	6
	776	11	10

* Poundage to { Collector at 6 d. the pound, being under 40 l. — l. 33 : 18 : 8½
Surveyor, the 6 d. exceeding — 30 : 00 : 0
Gauger, the 6 d. exceeding — 20 : 00 : 0
l. 83 : 18 : 8½

‡ The year's account muſt be made up at Midſummer.

From this account muſt be formed another of the ſame nature, to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of exciſe, with the quarterly abſtract; by tranſpoſing the ſides, and making the collector debtor for what is in the above account, the commiſſioners are made creditors, and creditors for what they are made debtors. See EXCISE.

REMARKS.

'The greateſt exciſes, ſays John Hamden, Eſq; which are laid in Holland, are upon commodities, which are not of the growth of the country. Their corn comes from Dantzick, their fleſh from Denmark, and ſo of ſeveral other things: ſo that, by loading them, they oblige their people to conſume the goods of their own growth and country, ſuch as cheeſe, milk, herrings, &c. whereas, if an exciſe be laid here, it muſt be upon things growing, in a great meaſure, in our own country, which undoubtedly will hinder the conſumption; for, the dearer they are, the leſs people will buy of them, and the more they will reduce their families, that they may live cheap. The policy of our anceſtors tended to encourage the conſumption of all home commodities, which is certainly the true intereſt of the nation. Such a tax would go directly againſt this maxim. Heretofore the gentry and nobility of England lived altogether in the country, where they continually ſpent the product of the land; now they all flock to London, where their way of living is quite different from that uſed heretofore, and they do not expend in proportion the third part of things of our product to what they did when they lived among their neighbours.

The yeomen or gentlemen of ſmaller eſtates are now, generally ſpeaking, the only conſtant reſidents in the country. If an exciſe ſhould come to raiſe the price of all things, how ſhall theſe men maintain their families? and if they put them off, or diminiſh them, who ſhall ſpend the growth of the lands?

It is evident, this tax will fall very hard every-where upon the poor farmers; and thoſe who are beſt able to pay it will be moſt ſpared. For example: if an exciſe ſhould be laid upon malt, where will the burden lie? The price of it will certainly ſink in the country, for want of conſumption, by reaſon of the new impoſition. The brewers in great cities and towns, ſuch as London, Briſtol, Exeter, Norwich, &c. will be the only gainers, ſince they will buy their malt cheap, and ſell their drink dearer than before; and the poor farmer muſt bear the loſs, which will be the cauſe of throwing up the lands in all parts of the kingdom, more or leſs.

But another thing, which I confeſs, ſays he, with me, is of the higheſt weight, is this: we know the ſafety of the nation depends upon the liberty of elections of members of parliament. The exciſemen go already (in the year 1692) a great way in many corporations, by their intereſt in inns and alehouſes, in influencing the elections to parliament. What then do we think they will do when they have an intereſt almoſt in every private houſe, when the exciſe may become more general?

If there were no other objection againſt taxing by an exciſe, I ſhould think this one abundantly ſufficient, with any man who knows how much the being and well-being of the nation depends upon free parliaments, and, conſequently, the intire liberty of thoſe who are electors in giving their votes.

If ſuch an exciſe ſhould not be general at firſt, yet, when once that way of taxing is brought in, it will tend to become general: if it be laid one time upon ſome commodities, it will next time be laid on others. All we have will come to be exciſeable; and it will be with us at length as it is at Amſterdam, where (to uſe the words of one who has lately written in that country*) a diſh of fiſh, with it's ſauce, before it be ſerved up to their table, pays exciſe thirty ſeveral times. And one thing more I muſt add, which is, that no tax whatever is ſo chargeable in the gathering as an exciſe.

* Sir William Temple.

Perhaps there may be ſome who do not ſufficiently apprehend the dangerous conſequences of this manner of taxing; and for their ſervice it is that I ſet down my thoughts upon this matter. No man in England is more thoroughly ſenſible of the neceſſity of carrying on this war. I am of opinion that the liberty of this nation, the preſervation of this government, and the ſecurity of the Proteſtant intereſt throughout Europe, do mainly depend upon the ſucceſs of it. I have ſhewed, that it is impoſſible to go on with it, without giving great ſums of money; and I am heartily for giving thoſe ſums, when our repreſentatives ſhall know what they are, by having an exact ſtate of the war for the next year laid before them. This is reaſonable and neceſſary, and more than this cannot be deſired: ONLY WE WOULD HAVE THE TAXES SO LAID, AS, WHEN THE NECESSITY OF TAXING CEASES, THE TAXES MAY CEASE WITH THAT NECESSITY.

There will doubtleſs be many propoſals made in parliament, of different natures, for ways and methods of raiſing maney. Whenever there is occaſion for a tax, there is always great variety of projects of that kind; but, when all is done, I humbly conceive there will be nothing upon the whole matter found ſo ſafe, and ſo much for the good of the nation, as a land-tax. Other things may help, but this will be the main reſource. It is true, this will ſmart while it laſts, but we are ſure to have an end of it. The members of parliament themſelves will be obliged in intereſt to take it off, when the occaſion ceaſes; and, beſides, the freeholders of England will never endure the continuance of a land-tax longer than there is an evident neceſſity for it. This is the way which our anceſtors walked in upon theſe occaſions, and this is the ſafe and ſure way.

It has been laid down in parliament as a good rule, to ſupport the government, in time of peace, by taxes on trade; and, in time of war, to have recourſe to the land, becauſe that tax will not be in danger of being continued when the war is over. Let no man be miſled by a pretence of convenience, or diſburdening his land in this way of taxing; all theſe are miſtaken arguments; and, though they were not ſo, though all the conveniences in the world were to be found in this new method [by exciſes], yet the ſingle conſideration of what the nation hazards in giving a revenue, that probably will never be diſcontinued, and the danger to which the liberties of the kingdom will be expoſed, if ever the crown ſhall be rich enough to govern without parliaments, is abundantly ſufficient to over-ballance whatever can be alleged to the contrary, from topics of preſent eaſe or private intereſt. The conſtitution, the conſtitution is our happineſs; let any inconveniences be ſubmitted to rather than that brought into danger. We ſtand upon a needle's point; the revenue of the crown is ſo very high already, that one remove more does our buſineſs. England can never be undone, but by it's own conſent; have a care then of giving that fatal conſent. We have hitherto been the envy of all our neighbours for our liberties, and the privileges we enjoy; the greateſt of which is, being governed by laws made by our repreſentatives. All we have is owing to the preſervation of parliaments, and making their frequent meetings neceſſary. Let taxes be laid ſo, that they may ceaſe with their cauſe, and ſo parliaments may not become unneceſſary. I ſhall ſtop here, and ſay no more concerning a land-tax, becauſe this paper is long already, and becauſe my chief intent in writing it, as I ſaid before, was not ſo much to urge arguments for a land-tax, as to offer ſome conſiderations which might ſhew the danger of a general exciſe.'

This is the ſubſtance of what Mr. Hamden urged againſt exciſes

ciſes in the reign of king William III. and in miniature contains the whole that was wire-drawn out in numerous pamphlets a few years ſince, excepting the arguments deducible from trials without juries, which made a formidable part of this controverſy.

The condition of mankind is ſuch by nature, that they all depend on one another; the greateſt are as much obliged to the leaſt, as thoſe are to them; nor is there any perſon, high or low, in ſuch a ſtate as to be able to live without the good-will and aſſiſtance of others. But, nevertheleſs, as no body is bound to beſtow ſo much of his labour or his goods as another may want, ſo it is plain that, whatever he receives in conſideration of his pains or conveniency, is not given away by the other, but only changed.

Though this truth be ſelf-evident in the caſe of ſervants, traffic, cloathing or feeding ourſelves, yet very few make becoming reflections on it with reſpect to magiſtrates, who are neither bound to ſpend all their time for our ſafety and welfare, nor able to govern and protect us without thoſe revenues we allow them, to ſupport their dignity as well as their power.

The reaſon why men ſo little think of this matter, and are wont to grudge what they give to the government, though not what they ſpend on their domeſtic neceſſaries, is, becauſe the benefits we enjoy from our magiſtrates are common to all, and thoſe things we purchaſe by our money peculiar to ourſelves. I hope I need not uſe many words to perſuade the people of this nation, that there is no price too great for liberty in general, nor the particular conſtitution with which they are bleſſed; and that it is not enough to preſerve it from internal corruption, but that it muſt be alſo defended from external violence; which can never be done if we do not maintain the ballance of commercial and maritime power.

In regard to the raiſing of money from time to time, as the exigencies of the ſtate ſhall require, it is neceſſary that taxes ſhould be ſo laid as to prove the leaſt injurious to the conſtitution, and leaſt detrimental to our commerce, and in the moſt eaſy and agreeable manner to the general ſenſe of the people without doors; for, if they are ready and willing to pay the aggregate of whatever ſhall be abſolutely requiſite for the ſupport of the eſtabliſhment, and for the true intereſt and glory of the kingdom, it does not ſeem any way unreaſonable that ſuch a condeſcenſion ſhould be paid to the general voice of the people, as to permit them to pay thoſe taxes in ſuch a ſhape as may be the moſt pleaſing to them, and will preſerve them in the beſt diſpoſition, good humour, and attachment to that government and conſtitution which they are willing to ſupport.

EXPORTATION, is that part of foreign commerce, which is diſtinguiſhed by the active, or ſelling part, in oppoſition to importation, which is called the paſſive, or buying part. And, although mutual intercourſes of trade cannot be ſuppoſed to be carried on with other nations by ſelling, or exporting all, and buying or importing no merchandizes from others; yet that nation is certainly the wiſeſt, that ſo conducts it's affairs, as to ſell more to other nations than it buys of them, in order to keep the advantage in it's favour.

The obvious meaſures, requiſite to promote the exportation of produce and manufactures, may be comprehended under the following particulars:

1. That our lands be cultivated in ſuch quantities, as to render all the neceſſaries and conveniences of life as cheap as they are in thoſe nations, who are ſtruggling to rival and ſupplant us in our commerce and navigation. See the article LANDED INTEREST.

2. To this end, that all taxes and incumbrances whatſoever, as ſoon as may be done with ſafety, be taken off from the neceſſaries and conveniences of life, that our people may work as cheap as thoſe of other nations, and our commodities carried to foreign markets as cheap as they do, and, if poſſible, better in quality for the price. See the articles DEBTS NATIONAL, and TAXES.

3. That reaſonable public encouragement be given to thoſe, who ſhall make any capital improvements in huſbandry, farming, and agriculture, &c. ſo as to afford not only our native productions deſirably cheap, but to promote the cultivation of ſuch valuable exotics as our lands will admit of, in order to make merchandize of them to ſome other nations. See the articles HUSBANDRY and MANURE.

4. That all reaſonable public encouragement be given to thoſe who ſhall make any material diſcoveries in the mechanical and manufactural arts; either by improvements in the old commodities, or by the invention of new, whereby general induſtry may be promoted, and our traffic and navigation with foreign countries advanced. See the articles ARTIFICER and MANUFACTURERS.

5. That working, mechanical, and manufacturing ſchools be eſtabliſhed for children over the kingdom, in order to prevent ſloth, debauchery, and villainy, by habituating infants from their cradle to honeſt induſtry, and thereby to render labour in general cheap throughout the kingdom. See the articles LABOUR, POOR.

6. That all meaſures be taken to render the kingdom populous in uſeful artiſts and manufacturers, and ſeamen, more eſpecially in our own natives. See the article PEOPLE.

7. That our fiſheries of every kind be promoted to the utmoſt extent which they will admit of, as a nurſery to our ſeamen, as well as for the benefit of our traffic. See the article FISHERIES.

8. By importing rather foreign materials for manufactures, than things manufactured. See MANUFACTURERS.

9. By preventing the exportation of ſuch quantities of wool as may injure our own woollen manufactures: and that every meaſure may be uſed to work up the whole of our wool, by the improvement of new kinds of woollen manufactures; as thoſe with wool and ſilk, wool and cotton, wool and linen, wool and hair, &c. and to apply the material of wool to whatever elſe it will admit of, eſpecially in the lieu of any general manufacture, wrought with foreign materials: ſuch, for example, as woollen hats for men, which, doubtleſs, might be properly ſtiffened for the purpoſe; woollen hats for the ladies, woollen wigs for labourers, &c. which might not only become generally faſhionable at home, and in our own plantations among the lower claſs of people, but might, perhaps, be exported in large quantities to other countries.—In ſhort, to promote whatever manufactures could be thought of, whereby all the wool produced in Great-Britain could be worked up, ſeems the moſt natural and the moſt effectual way to prevent it's being ſent abroad, to the detriment of our woollen manufactory at home. See WOOL.

10. That encouragement be given to thoſe who ſhall be inſtrumental to improve our fineſt wool in certain counties, that it may effectually anſwer the end of Spaniſh wool, ſo that we may have no occaſion to import the ſame from that kingdom; eſpecially ſince they have ſtole away our woollen manufacturers, ſhip-builders, and divers other artizans, in order to raiſe their own trade upon the ruin of our's, if they can. See the articles BISCAY, CASTILLE, CATALONIA, SPAIN.

11. That the produce of ſilk be duly encouraged in thoſe our plantations which may be proper for it, and that our own ſilken manufactures be preferred in our general wear to thoſe of foreigners. See the articles GEORGIA, SILK MANUFACTURE, and PIEDMONT.

12. That the trade of our colonies and plantations be improved to the utmoſt, ſo that they do not interfere with the commerce of their mother-country, but that they be ſo regulated as to enable us to rival our competitors in ſuch branches as they are able to outdo us in.

13. That a ſtanding committee of trade be appointed by parliament, compoſed of perſons well verſed therein, whoſe buſineſs ſhould be conſtantly to conſider the ſtate thereof, and to find out ways and means to improve it; to enquire how the trades we carry on with foreign countries, grow more or leſs profitable; how, and by what means, we are outdone by others in the trades we drive, or hindered from enlarging them; what is neceſſary to be prohibited, both with regard to our exports as well as imports, and for how long time; to hear complaints from our factories abroad, and to correſpond with our miniſters there, in affairs relating to our trade, and to repreſent the reſult of their enquiries to parliament, with their opinion, what courſes may, from time to time, be proper to be taken for it's encouragement; and to repreſent what bounties and drawbacks, &c. may be neceſſary for the advancement of particular branches. That this committee enquire into all improvements that ſhall be made for the benefit of trade, and lay them before parliament; and that ſuch artiſts may be rewarded at the public expence, according to their merits. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MANUFACTURERS, MERCHANT-COURT, ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

14. That proper treaties of commerce be made with nations, that may prove mutually and laſtingly beneficial. See the article TREATIES of COMMERCE.

15. That our merchants who export our product and manufactures, be ſecured in their foreign traffic, and the payment of their cuſtoms made as eaſy to them as may be.—That good convoys and good cruizers, in time of war, be provided for the ſafety of their ſhipping and merchandizes, to the end that aſſurance may be kept low, and our merchandize come as cheap as poſſible to foreign markets, as well in times of war as peace. See the article ASSURANCE.

16. That courts-merchant be erected in the kingdom, conſiſting of able and experienced traders, for the ſpeedy deciding of all differences between merchants, relating to maritime and other commercial affairs.

17. That a mercantile college be eſtabliſhed in the kingdom, for the bringing up merchants with every deſirable accompliſhment requiſite for their profeſſion, in as regular a manner as they are trained up for the moſt learned profeſſions.—And alſo for initiating the ſons of perſons of diſtinction into the regular ſtudy of commerce, in order to render them the more conſpicuouſly uſeful to their country in any public capacity. See the articles COMMERCE, MERCANTILE-COLLEGE.

REMARKS.

That great eſtates have been acquired of late years, and that perſons of all degrees live more ſplendid and expenſive than in former ages, cannot be any proof that our riches are increaſed,

creaſed, unleſs it alſo appeared, that ſuch eſtates had been acquired by the exportation of our products and manufactories, and gains made thereon, or by ſome other profitable engagements with foreigners. If they are acquired at home amongſt ourſelves, it could not add to the capital ſtock of the nation, though they occaſion a great alteration in the fortunes of particular men. A prodigal expenſive way of living is a proof indeed that a nation hath ſome ſtock and riches; but as all extravagant expences have a natural tendency to exhauſt the treaſure of a nation, ſo they ought rather to create a ſuſpicion that ſuch a nation muſt grow poor, than afford any argument that therefore it muſt neceſſarily be rich.

The millions of money which have been got by trafficking in the public funds ſince the Revolution, the advantages taken in receiving and paying the public money, and by ſeveral other ways unknown to former ages, as it occaſioned the giving of great ſupplies, which hath fallen very heavy upon the people, to make good what was thus got out of the public income, and diverted to private uſes; ſo, when land could not bear the incumbrance, was levied by ſeveral impoſitions on trade; which laſt, as they have been, ſo ever will be, as long as they continue, a dead weight thereupon: likewiſe the drawing of ſuch great ſums of money out of it's right channel, hath made a great alteration in the employment of the capital of the nation and of the people: for, though impoſitions on trade are in effect but a burthen on land, or landed men, by another name, yet as traders are firſt to pay them, and ſuch impoſitions have always been found troubleſome, an obſtruction to commerce, and a diminution of traders profits, they will always think themſelves moſt concerned therein.

If, upon an enquiry into the uſefulneſs of the ſeveral orders, ranks, degrees, and employments of men, it appears that merchants, tradeſmen, and ſeamen, and ſuch as are employed under them, that carry on our foreign trades; huſbandmen, and ſuch as are employed under them, to render the products of the earth uſeful; are chiefly thoſe that can be a means of bringing in riches, or providing neceſſaries for the ſupport of a nation; then nothing can be more neceſſary and beneficial, than to uſe all means to encourage and increaſe the number of ſuch, and to diſcover what trades and employments are practiſed that are uſeleſs and unprofitable, that they may be diſcouraged, or rather diſcharged, as a ſuperfluous burthen and a load upon the nation; leſt ſuch, like Pharaoh's lean kine, ſhould in time deſtroy thoſe that are valuable. As the univerſal employment and good management of our people muſt be the way to obtain and increaſe national wealth and power, ſo good huſbandry in our dealings with foreign nations, will be found the beſt and ſureſt way to preſerve and retain them. The expence and conſumption of ſuch commodities as have, and are always like to be purchaſed with our money, ſhould in the firſt place be taken care of, that we may have as few of ſuch as may conſiſt with our ſafety and our intereſt.

It is true, that the continuance of trade depends much upon a mutual conveniency between nations; but the advantage and increaſe of riches, expected by trade, depends upon our exporting more goods than we import; to which nothing can conduce ſo much, as the producing and manufacturing, at home, as many ſorts of goods as is poſſible, or having them from foreign parts for tranſportation, ſo cheap and good as that they may be preferred by, and ſold again to other foreigners, before the goods of ſuch other nations as are our competitors: and the ſpending of no more of our own goods, or of thoſe we bring from foreign parts, at home, than our neceſſities require, is the beſt way to run little in debt to foreign nations; for then we may either import the leſs, or have the more to tranſport to foreign markets. All prodigality at home, in the conſumption of commodities that are fit for foreign markets, is in effect a conſuming of ſo much of the treaſure of the nation; becauſe they would yield and produce treaſure, more or leſs, if they were not ſo conſumed; whence it is obvious, that as nothing has a more inevitable tendency to reduce a nation to poverty, than an unlimited, vain, prodigal way of living, ſo it is impoſſible to propoſe any way to recover and enrich a nation, equal to that of general labour, induſtry and ingenuity: for labour, induſtry, and ingenious arts, are the means of bringing treaſure into a trading nation, and frugality and parſimony the only way to keep and retain it; which can only be done by conſuming leſs of foreign commodities, and exporting more of our own.

An abſtract of the laws relative to the Eaſt-India Company.

Of the practical buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe, continued from end of Letter D, with regard to EAST-INDIA GOODS.

—Goods imported from thence muſt be brought to ſome part of Great Britain, and be there unladen, and be openly and publicly ſold by inch of candle, upon forfeiture of their value. 9 & 10 W. III. c. 44. § 68.—and 6 Ann, c. 3. § 2.

—The united company impowered to have the ſole and excluſive trade to and from India, and to and from all places between the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE and STREIGHTS OF MAGELLAN, for ever: but ſubject to redemption of parliament, by three years notice, after the 25th of March 1780; upon the expiration whereof, and repayment to the ſaid company of the capital ſtock or debt of 4,200,000 l. and all arrears of annuities payable in reſpect thereof, their right and title to ſuch trade are to ceaſe and determine. 9 & 10 Will. III. c. 44. § 80. & 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 9, 10, 11 & 12. & 17 Geo. II. c. 17. § 2, 3, & 14.

—The trade and corporation of the united company continued, although their fund ſhould be redeemed. 10 Ann. c. 28. § 1. & 17 Geo. II. c. 17. § 12, 15.

—Perſons not qualified, going or trading thither, forfeit the ſhip and goods, and double the value thereof: one fourth part to the ſeizer or informer, and the other three fourths to the uſe of the company, who are to bear the charges of proſecution. 9 & 10 W. III. c. 44. § 80. & 13 Geo. I. c. 8. § 3. & 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 9. & 17 Geo. II. c. 17. § 12.

—Any of his majeſty's ſubjects (not lawfully authorized) going to, or being found in the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be guilty of an high crime and miſdemeanour, and may be proſecuted within ſix years; and being convicted thereof, ſhall be liable to ſuch penalty as the court ſhall think fit. 5 Geo. I. c. 21. § 1. & 7 Geo. II. c. 21. § 1. & 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 6.

—Every perſon ſo offending may be ſeized, and brought to England, and committed to the next county goal, by any juſtice of the peace, 'till ſufficient ſecurity be given, by natural-born ſubjects or denizens, for their appearance to anſwer the proſecution: and not to depart out of the kingdom without leave. 5 Geo. I. c. 21. § 2. & 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 7.

—Perſons trading or going thither under foreign commiſſions, forfeit 500 l. 5 Geo. I. c. 21. § 3.

—Eaſt-India Goods traded for contrary to law, forfeited, with double the value. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 3.

—Contracts for ſhips, in foreign ſervices, to trade thither, void, 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 2.

—Goods not belonging to the company, or perſons licenſed by them, ſhipped on board ſhips bound thither, or taken out of ſhips from thence before their arrival, forfeited, with double the value: the maſter privy thereto forfeits 1000 l. and all his wages. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 4.

—Bills of complaint may be exhibited againſt illegal traders, for diſcovery thereof, and recovery of the duty, and 30 l. per cent. to the company. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 5.

—Officers not to proſecute for forfeitures and penalties, without the conſent of the directors of the company. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 7.

—The Levant company's trade to the Levant ſeas not to be prejudiced by theſe acts. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 8. & 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 16.

—Goods of the produce of the Eaſt-Indies, may not be imported into any place belonging to the Britiſh crown, unleſs ſhipped from Great Britain, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods, or their value: officers of the cuſtoms conniving thereat, or delaying proſecution, forfeit 500 l. and rendered incapable. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 9.

—None of his majeſty's ſubjects may contribute to, or promote the eſtabliſhing or carrying on any foreign company trading to the Eaſt-Indies, from any part of the Auſtrian Netherlands, or any other place; upon forfeiture of their ſhare in ſuch company, with treble the value: one third part thereof to the uſe of his majeſty, and two thirds to the uſe of the company, if they inform or ſue; otherwiſe one third part of ſuch two thirds to the uſe of the informer, or ſuer. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 1.

—Bills of complaint may be exhibited for the diſcovery of offences, and recovery of the ſingle value only; one third part whereof for the uſe of his majeſty, and the other two thirds for the uſe of the company. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 2.

—But if a common informer declares his intention of proſecution at law, and inſtead thereof, the directors ſhall chooſe to have it commenced by bills of complaint, they are to allow him one third of the aforeſaid two third parts. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 3.

—Any of his majeſty's ſubjects accepting of any ſhare in truſt, or knowing any other ſubject to have any intereſt or ſhare in any foreign company, not diſcovering the ſame to the united company, within ſix months, ſhall forfeit treble the value of ſuch ſhares, or one year's impriſonment. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 4.

—But making a voluntary diſcovery to the directors in writing, within the time afore limited, to have a moiety of the forfeiture. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 5.

—The forfeitures and penalties inflicted by the acts of 9 & 10 Will. III. 6 Ann. 5 Geo. I. and theſe acts, may be proſecuted by the attorney-general, the united company, or any officer of the cuſtoms; one third whereof to be for the uſe of his majeſty, one third to the uſe of the company, and the other to the uſe of the officers. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 6. and 3 Geo. II. c. 14. § 9.

—The united company may export ſtores, proviſions, utenſils of war, and neceſſaries for their garriſons and ſettlements, free of duty, provided the duty would not have exceeded 300 l. in any one year. 7 Geo. I. c. 21. § 13.

—A Capias in the firſt proceſs may be iſſued for offences againſt any act for the encouraging and ſecuring the lawful trade thither. 9 Geo. I. c. 26. § 8.

—Wrought

—Wrought ſilks, Bengals and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk or herba, of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China or Perſia, and callicoes, printed, painted, ſtained or dyed there, prohibited to be worn in Great Britain; and are, upon importation, to pay only the half ſubſidy. 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 17. § 1, 10.

—Such goods to be imported into the port of London only, and there regularly entered, upon forfeiture, and 500 l. 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 10. § 3.

—After entry, to be ſecured in proper warehouſes, approved by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms: and not to be taken thence, but in order for exportation, and until ſufficient ſecurity be given accordingly.

—Such ſecurity may be diſcharged upon certificate, under the common ſeal of the chief magiſtrate, or under the hands and ſeals of two known Britiſh merchants, at the place where landed, teſtifying the ſame, or upon proof that the goods were taken by enemies, or periſhed at ſea. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 2.

—Such bonds not proſecuted within three years, nor judgment obtained within two years after proſecution, void. 8 Ann. c. 13. § 24, 25.

—Officers refuſing to deliver them up accordingly, are to pay damage, and treble damages. 8 Ann. c. 13. § 24, 25.

—Proprietors may affix one lock to every warehouſe, and may view, ſort or deliver ſuch goods for exportation, in the preſence of the warehouſe-keeper, who is to attend at all ſeaſonable times. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 8.

—Found in any place, other than in the aforeſaid warehouſes, are forfeited; and upon ſeizure muſt be carried to the next cuſtom-houſe, and after condemnation, are to be publicly ſold by the candle for exportation, the buyers giving ſecurity accordingly. One third part of the produce of ſuch ſale to be paid to the king, and the other two thirds to the ſeizer or proſecutor. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 2.

—The perſons knowingly harbouring or ſelling ſuch goods, are likewiſe to forfeit 200 l. one third to the king, two thirds to the proſecutor. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 2.

—The place of manufacture diſputed, the proof to lie upon the owner. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 4.

—Warehouſe-keepers are to enter in a book every cheſt, bale, and number of pieces therein contained, brought into and carried out of the aforeſaid warehouſes; and every ſix months tranſmit to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, upon oath, an exact account thereof, and of what are then remaining, in order to be by them laid before the parliament, in the firſt week of every ſeſſion. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 6.

—Within one month after the aforeſaid account has been tranſmitted, the commiſſioners are to cauſe the books and warehouſes to be inſpected, and the account examined; and if it appears that any goods have been illegally delivered, the warehouſe-keeper is to forfeit the value thereof, and 500 l. and be diſabled from any public employment. 11 & 12 W. III. c. 10. § 6.

—Unrated goods, calicoes, china-ware and drugs, of the produce of Eaſt-Indies or China, landed or taken out of any ſhip before entry, and ſecurity of the duties, or without a warrant from the officers, are forfeited, or their value: two thirds to the uſe of his majeſty, who is to bear the charges of proſecution, and one third to the ſeizer or ſuer. 2 & 3 Ann. c. 9. § 8. & 3 & 4 Ann. c. 4. § 11.

EAST-INDIA wrought ſilks, Bengals, and ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk or herba of the manufacture of China, Perſia, or Eaſt-India, or calicoes painted, dyed, printed, ſtained there, imported into this kingdom, and ſecured in warehouſes, (purſuant to 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 10) and appearing, upon examination by the proper officer, to be ſtained or damaged, or unfit for foreign markets, unleſs cleaned and refreſhed, dyed, glazed or calendered, may, by leave of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, be taken out to be ſo manufactured, under the care, and in the cuſtody of an officer appointed by them: bond being firſt given, in double the value, to return them again, within the time the commiſſioners ſhall think reaſonable to limit.—And

—The officer to be paid for his trouble by the perſon at whoſe requeſt the goods are taken out; and any diſpute ariſing about his allowance, is to be determined by the commiſſioners. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. § 9.

—The warehouſe-keepers, in the account of the goods received into, and delivered out of the warehouſes, (which he is directed to keep and tranſmit to the commiſſioners, upon oath, every ſix months, by 11 & 12 Will. III. c. 10.) is to inſert an account of all goods delivered out to be cleaned, &c. in purſuance of this act, and of what is returned to the warehouſe, with the days and times when, and of what is remaining in the care and cuſtody of the officer out of the warehouſe. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. § 10.

—Any officer intruſted with the care and cuſtody of the goods delivered out, and not returning them again to the warehouſe, is to forfeit the value of the goods, and 500 l. and be for ever diſabled from any public employment for the future. 15 & 16 Geo. II. c. 31. § 11.

The method of aſcertaining the values of unrated goods imported from thence, not to be altered by the additional book of rates.

Directions in regard to the method of entry by bills of ſight or ſufferance, on proper ſecurity for payment of the duties, and examples of the computation of the duties on goods imported from thence, rated or unrated, from pag. 345, to page 355.

Of Saxby.		
Goods unrated,	Manufactured	—The duty and drawback, page 349, &c. ditto.
	Unmanufactured	—The duty and drawback, page 349, &c. ditto.
	Prohibited	—The duty, page 355, ditto.

F.

FACTORS.

Of factors, agents, and ſupercargoes.

A factor is a merchant's agent, reſiding abroad, conſtituted by letter of attorney, to act for his principal; and one may act for ſeveral merchants, who all run a joint riſque of his actions: factorage is the allowance.

A ſupercargo is employed by merchants to go a voyage over ſea, and diſpoſe of the cargo to the beſt advantage.

Of ſome principal laws of England in regard to factors and ſupercargoes.

In factors commiſſions on ſuch occaſions, 'tis common to impower them expreſsly to diſpoſe of the merchandize as if it were their own; by which the factor's actions will be excuſed, though to the principal's loſs. But a bare commiſſion to ſell is not ſufficient authority for the factor to truſt any perſon, ſo that he ſhould receive the money on the delivery of the goods: and, by the general power, he may not truſt beyond one, two, or three months, &c. the uſual time allowed in ſales, otherwiſe he ſhall be anſwerable out of his own eſtate.

A factor ſhould preſently on ſale of any goods receive a quid pro quo, or he does not well execute the commiſſion given him; and he ought to ſell to the beſt advantage of his principal, and render a faithful account; and, in performance of the truſt repoſed in him, he is either to return the commodity to his employer, or bring the money received for it. 1 Bulſtrode Report. 103.

A merchant delivers goods to his factor to ſell, which he cannot but for ready money, without a particular commiſſion; for if he can find no buyers, he is not anſwerable: and if the goods are periſhable, and can't be ſold for ready money, he muſt have authority to ſell upon truſt. If the goods are burnt, or the factor is robbed, without his own default, he is not liable; but in this caſe of periſhable goods, it was not alledged he could not ſell for ready money; and the ſale was made beyond ſea, where the buyer was not to be found. And as a maſter is not bound by his ſervant's contract, unleſs conſenting, or at leaſt the goods coming to his uſe; ſo neither ſhall a factor ſell but for ready money, without particular orders. 2 Mod. 100, 101.

It has been adjudged by Holt, chief juſtice, that every factor of common right ſhould ſell for ready money; but if he be where the uſage is to ſell on truſt, there if he ſell to a perſon of good credit, who afterwards becomes inſolvent, he is diſcharged, but not if the man's credit were bad at the time of ſale. If there be no ſuch uſage, and he on the general authority ſells upon truſt, he only is chargeable, howſoever able the buyer is; for having exceeded his authority, there is no contract between the vendee and the factor's principal, and ſuch ſale is a converſion in the factor. Paſch. 13. Will. III.

If a factor ſelling goods on credit does, before payment, die indebted by ſpecialty more than his aſſets will pay, this money ſhall be paid to the principal, and not to the factor's adminiſtrator as part of his aſſets, deducting only the factor's commiſſion. Decreed in equity, Hill. 1708. 2 Vern. 638.

If a factor give a man time for payment of money contracted on ſale of his principal's goods, and after that time is elapſed, ſell him goods of his own for ready money, and he becomes inſolvent, the factor in equity and honeſty ſhould indemnify his principal, but he is not compellable by the common law. Molloy 440.

And if any factor ſells goods for another, either by themſelves or among other things, not adviſing his principal, but dealing afterwards with the ſame man, he becomes inſolvent, the factor ſhall be anſwerable, becauſe he gave not the owner advice of the ſale in due time, and 'tis as if he had ſold them contrary to commiſſion, for the ſalary of factorage binds him to it. Alſo, if by a merchant's commiſſion he buy a commodity for his account, with the merchant's money or credit, and he gives no advice of it, but ſell it again for his own benefit, the merchant ſhall recover this benefit, and the factor be likewiſe amerced for the fraud.

If a factor by commiſſion buys goods above the price limited to him, or not of the ſort and goodneſs, as by the authority they ought to be, he muſt take them to his own account, and the merchant may diſclaim the buying of them: as he may likewiſe, if they are ſhipped for another place than he ordered: but in ſuch caſe, if the price riſeth, and the factor thereupon fraudulently ladeth them for ſome other port, the merchant may recover damages on proof.

A factor, ſelling under the price limited to him, is to make good the difference, unleſs he gives a ſufficient reaſon for ſo doing. Lex Mercat. Malines, 82.

A factor and ſervant differ in this, that the firſt is made by merchant's letters, and takes commiſſion, but the ſervant is entertained with yearly wages, ſome without: a factor is anſwerable for loſs ſuſtained by miſuſing his commiſſion, a ſervant only incurs diſpleaſure; factors muſt therefore punctually obſerve their commiſſions. And factors deal moſt commonly for ſeveral, but a ſervant, dealing for others by his maſter's direction, can be no loſer if they break, for he has only his maſter's credit: wherefore intimations, citations, attachments, and other lawful courſes, are executed againſt ſervants, and not againſt factors.

No factor, acting for account of another, can juſtify receding from his orders, though it might be to advantage, unleſs commiſſioned to act for the beſt. And here, if four or five merchants remit to one factor four or five diſtinct parcels of goods, which he diſpoſes jointly to one perſon, who pays one moiety down, and contracts for the reſt at a certain time: before which if he break, the principals ſhall bear an equal ſhare of the loſs. Lex Mercat. Malines, 81, 82.

If the factor ſell at one time to one man goods belonging to divers, to be paid for in one or more payments, without diſtinction made by the buyer for what parcels he pays any ſum in part, as ſhopkeepers do, the factor muſt make proportionable diſtribution of the monies received, according to the amount of each parcel, 'till all be paid; and if loſs happen, or all be not paid, it is to be diſtributed in like manner.

As fidelity, diligence, and honeſty are expected from the factor, the law requires the like of the principal: if, therefore, a merchant remits counterfeit jewels to his factor, who ſells them as if true, if he receive loſs or prejudice by impriſonment or other puniſhment, the principal ſhall not only make full ſatisfaction to the factor, but alſo to the party who bought the jewels: for he ſhall anſwer for his factor in all caſes where he is privy to the act or wrong. This was inſiſted on in the caſe of Southern againſt How, on a ſale made to the king of Barbary; though in that caſe, after various arguments, judgment was given againſt the plaintiff. 2 Cro. 468. Bridgm. 126, 128.

And ſo in contracts; if a factor buy goods on account of the principal, eſpecially if uſed ſo to do, the contract ſhall oblige the principal, who is properly to be proſecuted for non-performance. But it has been held, if a factor or ſervant buy things generally, not declaring on the contract that it is as a factor only, &c. he is chargeable in his own right. 2 Keb. 812.

The actions of factors depend on buying and ſelling, entering goods, freighting ſhips, and all other like matters of commerce; and, their truſt being great, they ſhould be provident, for the benefit of their principals. If goods ſent to a factor be through his negligence falſe entered, or landed without an officer of the cuſtoms, ſo as they incur a ſeizure, he ſhall make good the damage: but, if he make his entry according to the invoice, or advice by letter, and there happens a miſtake, if any goods be loſt, he ſhall be acquitted. Lane's Rep. 65.

In Chancery it has been decreed, that, if a factor ſaves the cuſtoms due to a foreign prince, which by the laws is felony in the factor, and forfeiture of all the freight, he ſhall have the benefit, and not the employer; for he ran the hazard wholly, and has poſſeſſion, which is a right againſt all, except him that hath the very right. Though, if the duties were due to our king, the factor ſhall diſcover the ſame, if the merchant bring a bill againſt him; for this cuſtom, being founded in fraud, is void. Abr. Caſ. Eſq. 369, 370.

If the principal order his factor to inſure ſhip and goods, as ſoon as laden, having money in hand, and he neglect, if the

the ſhip miſcarry, by the cuſtom of merchants, he ſhall anſwer it; or if he make any compoſition with the inſurers after inſurance, without orders ſo to do, he is anſwerable for the whole aſſurance.

A factor, entering into charter party of affreightment with a maſter of a ſhip, it obliges him only; unleſs he lades abroad generally the principal's goods, when both principal and lading are liable, and not the factor.

A merchant ſends goods to his factor, and about a month after draws a bill on him; which, having effects in hand, he accepts, the principal becomes a bankrupt, and the goods in the factor's hands are ſeized; it has been conceived, that, at law, the factor muſt anſwer the bill, and can only come in as a creditor, for what he paid by his acceptance of it. Molloy 442.

Goods remitted to a factor muſt be carefully preſerved; yet, if he buys for his principal, and they receive damage afterwards, but not through his negligence, the principal ſhall bear the loſs.

A factor, having made conſiderable profit for his principal, muſt be careful in the diſpoſal of it. If he ſell the principal's goods for counterfeit money, the loſs is his own; but if he receives money, which is afterwards leſſened in value where he reſides, the loſs is to the merchant.

A factor is accountable for all lawful goods coming ſafe to his hands, and ſhall ſuffer for not obſerving orders: if, having orders not to ſell any goods particularly ſpecified, he ſell them, he is anſwerable for the damage that ſhall be received; goods bought or exchanged without orders, the merchant may take, or turn them on the factor's hands. And, where a factor has bought or ſold purſuant to orders, he muſt immediately give advice of it, leſt they ſhould be contradicted, and his reputation ſuffer: and he is to ſhip off goods bought, the firſt opportunity, giving the ſpeedieſt advice, and ſending a bill of lading. Factors ſhould carefully note the contents of their principal's letters, and ſend ſpeedy and particular anſwers; and ſhould ſtudy the nature, value, riſe, and fall of goods, both at home and abroad: and the want of frequent writing to their principals is often of pernicious conſequence, in divers reſpects.

The gain of factorage is certain, however the voyage or ſale prove to the merchant; but the commiſſions vary; at Jamaica, Barbadoes, Virginia, and moſt of the weſtern parts of the world, the commiſſion runs at 8 per cent. generally through Italy, two and a half; France, Spain, and Portugal, &c. two; and in Holland, and other places near home, one and a half per cent.

Where a factor, at the Canaries, deſerves money for factorage, it is ſaid, he cannot bring an action for it, unleſs the principal refuſe to account; and, if it appears that the factor hath money in his hands, he may detain, and cannot bring any action; but, if directed to veſt all the produce of the adventure in wines, he may bring an action for factorage, and his pains, becauſe he cannot detain, and hath no other remedy. Comberb 349.

If a factor, by error of account, wrongs a merchant, he is to make good, not only the principal, but intereſt for the time: and, if the error be in his own wrong, the merchant is to anſwer it, in like manner.

By the ſtatute no governor, or deputy governor, of any of the American plantations, or the judges there, or any other for their uſe, ſhall be factor or agent for the African company, or others, for the ſale of negroes; and any perſon offending therein, forfeits 500l. recoverable in any court of record at Weſtminſter, 9 and 10. W. III. cap 26. This was the law when the African company was a united corporation.

A bond from a factor to his principal, for faithful ſervice abroad.

Know all men, by theſe preſents, that we C. D. of, &c. and E. F. of, &c. in the county of, &c. gentlemen, are held and firmly bound to A. B. of, &c. merchant, in two thouſand pounds, of good and lawful money of Great-Britain, to be paid to the ſaid A. B. or to his certain attorney, his executors, adminiſtrators, and aſſigns; for which payment to be well and truly made, we bind ourſelves, and each and either of us by himſelf for and in the whole, our heirs, executors, and adminiſtrators, and of either of us, firmly by theſe preſents, ſealed with our ſeals. Dated this day of, &c. in the year of the reign, &c.

Whereas the above-named A. B. hath, at the requeſt of the above-bound E. F. and C. C. preferred the ſaid C. D. as his factor, to ſerve him at Port Royal in Jamaica, and other ports and places beyond ſeas; and the ſaid C. D. is, upon his departure for Port Royal aforeſaid, to take upon him the ſaid buſineſs and employment. Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, that if the ſaid C. D. ſhall from time to time, and at all times, during his employment abroad, in the ſervice of the ſaid A. B. whenever he ſhall be thereunto required by the ſaid A. B. his Executors, adminiſtrators, agents, or aſſigns, make and give unto him, or them, true and perfect accounts in writing, of, for, and concerning all and every ſuch goods, merchandize, money, bills of exchange, and other things whatſoever, at any time or times hereafter conſigned or ſent to him, the ſaid C. D. by or from the ſaid A. B. his executors, agents, or aſſigns; and of and for all and every the return, proceed, and benefit to be had or gotten for, or in reſpect of the ſaid goods, money, merchandizes, bills of exchange, and other things whatſoever, for which he the ſaid C. D. ſhall or may be charged or anſwerable, and which ſhall come to, or be committed to his charge, cuſtody, or diſpoſition, by and from the ſaid A. B. or any other perſon or perſons, wherewith the ſaid C. D. his executors, adminiſtrators, ſhall, can, or may, be lawfully charged or chargeable, by reaſon of his ſaid employment, in any reſpect whatſoever: and ſhall likewiſe well and truly remit, pay, and deliver unto the ſaid A. B. his executors, adminiſtrators and aſſigns, upon every ſuch account made, all ſuch money, goods, wares, merchandizes, notes, ſecurities for debts, and other things in his hands, in ſuch nature and quality as the ſame ſhall then be and conſiſt, as by and upon the ſame account, ſhall appear to be due or belong to the ſaid A. B. his executors, or aſſigns. And farther, if the ſaid C. D. ſhall, from time to time, during the ſaid employment, follow the orders and directions of the ſaid A. B. his agents and aſſigns, concerning the management of his buſineſs, and the ſale, diſpoſal, and proceeds of all and every the goods, merchandizes, and effects committed to his care; then this obligation ſhall be void, or elſe to remain, &c.

Remarks.

The factors meant and intended, by what has been ſaid, are ſuch as are more properly called ſupercargoes, and return backwards and forwards to their principals, and not take up their reſidence wholly in foreign countries.

It is the univerſal cuſtom of merchants of the higheſt credit, throughout Europe, to act mutually in the capacity of factors for each other: the buſineſs ſo executed is called commiſſion buſineſs; and is generally deſirable by all merchants, provided they have always effects in their hands, as a ſecurity for all the affairs which they tranſact for the account of others. But this claſs of traders, of eſtabliſhed reputation, have current, as well as commiſſion accounts, conſtantly between them, and draw on, remit to, and ſend commiſſions to each other, only by the intercourſe of letters; which, among men of honour and worth, are as obligatory and authoritative, as all the bonds and ties of law: nay, traders may frequently retard and ſpin out the proceedings at law, but they cannot obſtruct the courſe of their mercantile negociations, for a ſingle day, without the hazard of being undone, and loſing all their credit in the trading world.

A merchant, conſidered as a principal in ſending goods to foreign countries, to be diſpoſed of for his account, either by a factor, or ſupercargoe, who returns perſonally to the country, from time to time, where the principal reſides, or to one who lives altogether in a foreign country, makes out an invoice of the merchandizes which he ſo ſends or conſigns. This invoice is ſuppoſed to contain a particular account of the whole prime coſt and charges attending ſuch merchandizes, for the government of his factor or ſuperchargoe, in the ſale thereof. But merchants, upon theſe occaſions, generally make an addition to ſuch invoice, from 5 to 10 or 12 per cent. or more, eſpecially if the goods happen to be well bought, or have roſe in their price from the time of purchaſe, to that of exportation. This riſe upon the invoice, has ſometimes a good, ſometimes the contrary effect; for, when factors know this to be ſometimes a practice with their principal, they are apt to ſurmiſe that it is never otherwiſe, and diſpoſe of their goods accordingly. It is, however, for the intereſt of factors, eſpecially of thoſe who act conſtantly in that capacity, to promote that of their principals; for he that does ſo, will never want commiſſions. See the article Account of Sales.

Further Remarks with relation to Factors in Spain.

The practice of the court of Spain formerly, and which, it ſeems, is of late revived, with relation to mercantile factors, may deſerve attention, as it ſhews the natural way of firſt eſtabliſhing commerce with diſtant countries, and by which one means, amidſt numberleſs other wiſe ones, at preſent, Spain is zealouſly aiming at the increaſe of her commerce and maritime power.

'The importance of ſettling factors in foreign ſea-ports is very obvious, ſays the politic Spaniard Uztaritz, with a view of promoting an active commerce, agreeable to the antient practiſe of the Spaniards, as it appears from a ſtatute in the year 1494; ſince it is for want of this meaſure, that his majeſty's ſubjects cannot have either magazines or houſes, in thoſe countries, on their own account, whither they may tranſmit their merchandize, depoſit it in warehouſes, and cauſe it to be ſold at the beſt market. And though our merchants are under neceſſity of importing certain goods from abroad, eſpecially linens, ſpicery, ſome materials, and other things, that are now conſumed in Spain and America, and which foreigners vend among us, at very high prices, we are at as great a loſs for factors, and other perſons to be confided in, and of our own nation, whom we may charge with the purchaſe and ſhipping of them to Spain.

By this want of ſafe correſpondents, our merchants alſo ſuſtain a prejudice, by having no perſon, to whom they may make aſſignments for the barter of one commodity for another, upon

upon which greater profits are uſually made, than by ſelling for ready money, as well from the difficulty of extracting the money they were ſold for, or it's not being current in thoſe parts, where the owner reſides, as to prevent the loſs, which is experienced ſometimes in bills of exchange; beſides that, there are times and places where they cannot be procured; difficulties and diſadvantages that merit the firſt attention of our traders, in order to provide againſt them, before they engage in buying up any conſiderable quantity of goods to ſend abroad. So that upon this, and other accounts, the principal profits now turn out to their advantage, while we poſſeſs only the very trifling intereſt of a paſſive trade.

Though we have conſuls in certain ports, theſe cannot ſupply the want of factors, or other agents in commerce; of the former, becauſe moſt of thoſe conſuls, not being natives of this kingdom, have, in general, too little regard for the nation, to be intruſted with it's intereſts; of the latter, becauſe they are appointed to be judges, in many concerns of trade and navigation, and to take care, that captains, and other mariners, as well as traders, who are ſubjects, obſerve the orders and inſtructions of their ſovereign, and therefore ought not to be both judge and party *, as they would be, if they were allowed to take commiſſions. From this inconſiſtence, and for other reaſons, Lewis XIV, gave repeated orders, in the year 1691, for prohibiting all ſorts of trade to the French conſuls, their officers, domeſtics, and other dependants, directly or indirectly, under the penalty of loſing their places, and a fine of three thouſand livres.

* See the article CONSULS.

In thoſe parts, where there are families of the ſame nation or country ſettled in trade, there is no need of ſending factors, or others to execute the commiſſions abovementioned, ſince by means of thoſe families, already reſiding there, a mutual correſpondence may be formed, for buying, ſelling, depoſiting goods, remittances, and other tranſactions, as it is done by the generality of other nations, particularly in Spain, where we find many French, Engliſh, Dutch, Germans, Swedes, Italians, and others, trading, and making this kingdom, as it were, their place of abode.

The generality of theſe foreigners, who are ſettled, and trade in Spain, are uſually in partnerſhip with thoſe very correſpondents abroad, and divide the profit and loſſes, in proportion to the ſhare of the ſtock or buſineſs each of them has, agreeable to the articles of partnerſhip, and other obligations ſubſiſting between them. And, for want of ſuch families and partnerſhips, they then make uſe of perſons, who merely diſcharge the office of a factor or broker, and have no farther intereſt in the buſineſs, than ſo much per cent. upon the goods, which is more or leſs, according to the reſpective country, and the quality of the merchandize or employment.

There are alſo certain foreigners, that live in their own country, and maintain a correſpondence with Spaniards, mutually ſending commiſſions to each other; but theſe are very few.

From theſe inſtances it may be collected, that as there are no Spaniſh families ſettled for a trade in France, England, Germany, and other parts, by our negligence in this important intereſt, for ſome years paſt, it is abſolutely neceſſary for us to avail ourſelves of the meaſure abovementioned, ſend over and maintain factors, with a ſtated ſalary, in ſuch ports and places, as we ſhall be moſt likely to eſtabliſh and maintain an active commerce with, and that the ſalaries granted out of the revenue be continued, 'till there be ſettlements of families and other perſons in thoſe parts, who, by the ſame traffic, and the gains they will be daily making, are enabled to form and ſupport ſuch a mutual correſpondence, for the tranſaction of buſineſs, without having recourſe to the ſending and maintaining factors with ſalaries.

Though there be a very large and profitable trade carried on by ſeveral nation, in the ports of that extenſive coaſt of the Mediterranean in Europe, Aſia, and Africa, the Spaniards can never have any conſiderable ſhare of it, ſo long as they purſue the maxim of being continually at war with all the Moors and Turks, under whoſe government the generality of thoſe countries are found to be; notwithſtanding it be notorious, that this war, proceeding from a zeal for our religion, has done greater injury to ourſelves, than to thoſe infidels, at leaſt for many years paſt, as I have ſhewn. Hence, in reſpect to the Mediterranean, we can only trade in ſome ports of Italy, and on the ſouthern coaſt of France, where our commerce cannot be very large, becauſe thoſe countries have nearly the ſame commodities and fruits, that are the growth and produce of this kingdom, on account of a reſemblance between the climates, ſo that, during the preſent ſtate of Europe, there cannot ſubſiſt any conſiderable traffic in merchandize and proviſions, between each other, either by way of ſale or barter †. However, we ſhould not, on this account, ſlight a branch of commerce, though but a middling one, which it is in our power to poſſeſs in thoſe places.

† Does not this ſhew, from the pen of a wiſe Spaniard himſelf, how impolitic it is for Spain, not to cultivate a ſtrict friendſhip with Great-Britain; who takes ſo much, and France ſo little of their produce?

In the northern provinces we have an opportunity of opening a more extenſive and advantageous trade, than in the Mediterranean, upon account of the neceſſity they lie under of having many things from this kingdom, particularly wines, brandies, oil, and other fruits, beſides ſilks and cloths, which we ſhould be enabled to ſupply them with, when our MANUFACTORIES SHALL BE IN A MORE FLOURISHING CONDITION; and, in exchange for what we ſhould carry thither, we might import from thoſe countries linens, ſpicery, ſome materials, and other things, which they now bring us themſelves, eſpecially for the uſe of our Indies, and ſell them to us at high rates.

We have alſo a fair opportunity of opening an advantageous commerce at Liſbon, by tranſmitting thither many commodities and fruits, eſpecially ſilks, as well for the conſumption of that kingdom, as for the exportation that may be from thence to their Indies; and even to ſome parts of Europe, as there is a great number of ſhips and merchants, of ſeveral nations, collected together in that port and city; eſpecially, if, for the encouragement of this, and other branches of traffic, we would reduce, as I propoſed, the exceſſive duties, and remove the other clogs which now diſtreſs the Spaniſh fabrics, as well in the manufactory, as in their paſſing through the cuſtom-houſes; ſince we are ſenſible, that, in ſpite of theſe heavy loads, ſome ſilks of Granada and Valencia find a vent in Portugal *; and this traffic will be much extended, after we have taken off the embargo upon it already mentioned.

* Here we ſee the danger of a Spaniſh rival in the Portugal trade.

Upon theſe conſiderations, I eſteem it a very ſeaſonable meaſure to ſend and eſtabliſh factors in

Liſbon,	Copenhagen,
Bourdeaux,	Dantzick,
Bayonne,	Stockholm,
Nantes,	Peterſburg,
Roan,	Marſeilles,
London,	Genoa,
Oſtend,	Leghorn,
Amſterdam,	Naples,
Hamburgh,	Meſſina.

The advantage of ſettling a factor at Liſbon has been already conſidered, and, in ſupport of my opinion, that we do the ſame in the other ſea-ports, I ſhall point out ſome of our principal inducements to it.

Bourdeaux is one of the richeſt and greateſt trading towns in France. In that city are two fairs held every year; one in ſpring, another in autumn, when very great numbers of people, of different nations, are collected together: ſome coming by ſea, others by the famous canal, which croſſes the country to the Mediterranean.

Bayonne has not a very great number of inhabitants, nor a great deal of meachandize and fruits of her own; but is a place through which paſſes a conſiderable part of the goods for the traffic between France and Spain, and where frequent commiſſions are ſent for buying, carriage, and other tranſactions of buſineſs.

Nantes, in the province of Britany, is ſo famous for it's trade and riches, that in this inſtance it is unneceſſary to aſſign any reaſons, and I ſhall only intimate ſome of the principal foundations of it's riſe and grandeur. It is ſituated at the mouth of the Loire, a very large river, and navigable for above a hundred leagues, croſſing many fruitful provinces of France, with the advantage of a communication by canals, that are navigable, with ſeveral other rivers, in particular Seyne, which is well known to paſs by Paris, Roan, and other great cities; inſomuch that the ſaid town of Nantes poſſeſſes the convenience of receiving, by ſea, a very large quantity of commodities, materials, and fruits from other kingdoms, at a ſmall expence, in the greateſt part of the provinces of France; and the ſame favourable ſituation enables it to collect together a variety of merchandize and proviſions, of their growth and manufacture, and afterwards ſend them abroad, as they conſtantly do, eſpecially linens from Britany, which abounds with them, and from whence are ſhipped vaſt quantities for Spain, and the Spaniſh Indies, introduced, in part, by the channel of Cadiz, and the reſt by means of their own colonies.

Roan, a very rich and large town in Normandy, and ſituated at the entrance of the River Seyne, carrying on a foreign commerce by the port of Havre de Grace, poſſeſſes the ſame advantages with Nantes, both for a foreign and inland trade, by means of that, and ſome other navigable rivers, with which it has communication; and, notwithſtanding it's courſe is not ſo long as that of the Loire, it has the advantage of a nearer communication with Paris by water, for the tranſport of many things conſumed in that rich capital; whence are alſo brought quantities of merchandize, and other goods, conveyed down the abovementioned river, and paſſing by Roan, and Havre de Grace, to be ſhipped for a foreign market.

The town of Oſtend is not very wealthy, but it is the only good port and channel, for almoſt all the commerce, which the

the Spaniſh Low Countries, now in poſſeſſion of the Auſtrians, uſually carry on with the kingdom of Spain.

The great commerce between this kingdom and London, Amſterdam, and Hamburgh, is ſo notorious that it would be idle to dwell upon it.

Copenhagen, beſides its being the reſidence of the Court of Denmark, a place of middling trade, and an excellent port, is ſituated at the entrance of the Baltic, ſo that it may facilitate an inland commerce in that kingdom, and ſerve as a place to touch at for the trade to Denmark, Sweden, Livonia, Muſcovy, and other parts of the Baltic.

Moſt of the commerce of the great kingdom of Poland, and duchy of Lithuania, is made by the town and port of Dantzick, ſituated a league from the ſea, at the mouth of the river Viſtula, or Weyſel; as this river is navigable for above an hundred leagues, traverſing the beſt provinces of that crown, it gives that city an opportunity of ſupplying them, at a ſmall charge, with variety of foreign merchandize and fruits; and for the ſame reaſon, facilitates the extraction and conveyance of the commodities and fruits of that kingdom, and it's united ſtates, to the ſaid port, in order to be ſhipped for foreign markets; more eſpecially grain, of which it yields ſo great plenty, that moſt part of the prodigious magazines always in Holland is fetched from thence, as well for their own conſumption, as that of Spain, Portugal, and other parts of Europe, in years of ſcarcity; which cannot be thought ſtrange, ſince we have aſſurances from many hands, that foreigners export, by the channel of Dantzick, above eight hundred thouſand tons of grain, one year with another.

Some provinces of Muſcovy and Sweden, liable to bad harveſts, from the exceſſive coldneſs of their climates, and more than ordinary moiſture of the ſoil, are alſo uſually ſupplied with grain from Poland, purchaſing it at Dantzick, either on account of private traders, or that of their ſovereigns; and ſince the great diſtance does not deter the Hollanders from fetching, and ſending it to market, even as far as the kingdoms of Spain and Portugal, and other remote countries, it ſeems, that, whenever we experience a bad harveſt in Spain, the bad effects of it may be prevented, by ſending early notice of it to the factor, whom we ſhall have in that city, with orders to buy up, either by himſelf, or other hands, by degrees, and with great privacy, conſiderable quantities of the ſaid grain, which is ordinarily very cheap; and that this be done, either for the account of the revenue, or of ſome merchants, who ſhall be formed into a company for this purpoſe, as it is on ſuch occaſions; and that they be charged alſo with the tranſport of it, ſending their own ſhips freighted with our commodities and fruits, which are generally eſteemed, and find a good market in Poland and it's neighbouring provinces; even though we ſhould diſpenſe them ſome indulgences and abatements in the duties.

And, in caſe this cannot be done in due time, that they may avail themſelves of foreign ſhipping, ſince it is already known, that in the times of diſtreſs, when we dread a failure or ſcarcity of bread, it is abſolutely neceſſary for us to have recourſe to all practicable means for a ſeaſonable remedy againſt the evil.

Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, is the port by which is carried on moſt of the trade of that large kingdom, where is very much eſteemed, and a good market for ſeveral commodities and fruits of the ſouthern provinces of Spain; and into theſe are alſo imported from thence a great quantity of merchandize, eſpecially copper, iron manufactured, and to be manufactured, pitch, tar, and other commodities, for the land and ſea ſervice, and other uſes.

Peterſburgh, ſituated at the very bottom of the gulph of Finland, is one of the ports upon the Baltic, a town lately formed, and has a good harbour. It owes it's birth to the famous Peter Alexiowitz, Czar of Muſcovy, who deſigned it, not only for the reſidence of this ſplendid court, but alſo for the ſeat of moſt part of that grand commerce he had projected; and which that glorious prince was daily improving throughout his vaſt dominions; but we ſhall ſpeak more fully, in another place, of the aſtoniſhing meaſures of his political government.

Then, with a deſign of making the port and city of Peterſburgh the ſeat of the principal commerce of his empire, he made ſeveral laws and proviſions for transferring to it the conſiderable trade of the famous port of Archangel, ſituated at the mouth of the river Dwina, which diſcharges itſelf into the White Sea, at the diſtance of ſeven or eight leagues; becauſe their commerce to that port was really more chargeable, and attended with difficulties, and the navigation very hazardous, upon account of the great and dangerous courſe of the ſhipping along the vaſt frozen coaſt of Norway and Lapland, practicable only in the few ſummer months; while Peterſburgh ſtands clear of all theſe inconveniencies, by it's ſituation in a more temperate climate, almoſt in the center of Europe, and very convenient for it's eaſy communication, both with the ſeveral provinces upon the Baltic, and many other parts of Europe.

If we paſs to the Mediterranean, in whoſe ports I recommend the ſettlement of five factories, it is obſervable, that a very large traffic is carried on, by the channel of Marſeilles, between France and other kingdoms of Europe, as well as ſeveral provinces of Africa and Aſia, both in the Mediterranean and out of it; not only by the French themſelves, but alſo by many veſſels and merchants of foreign countries, which I have ſeen collected together in that town: whence it muſt be inferred, that ſome commodities and fruits of the kingdom of Spain, and the Spaniſh Indies, were they exported, and depoſited in that city, might find a good market and we might purchaſe there, at more reaſonable prices than in Spain, ſome things, which we want from abroad, and cannot go and buy, at the firſt hand, upon the coaſt of Africa and Aſia in the Mediterranean, and under the dominion of the Moors and Turks; as it ought always to be conſidered, that the circumſtances of Marſeilles being a free port, (excepting for certain ſorts of goods) may much facilitate the buying, ſelling, and barter of ſuch commodities, as we ſhall find an intereſt in; and that we can eaſily ſettle a correſpondence from thence with Lyons, an opulent city, that carries on a vaſt foreign, as well as home trade, notwithſtanding it's great diſtance from the ſea.

It is alſo well known, that a conſiderable commerce is made at Genoa, both by reaſon of their manufactories of paper and ſilks, and by it's being a convenient paſſage for a trade in many ſorts of merchandize, which go and come from the ſtate of Milan, Germany, and other parts.

Leghorn, in the ſtate of Florence, from it's ſituation, the freedom of it's port, and great trade with the Levant, and other parts, may be reckoned another Marſeilles, eſpecially from the vaſt number of veſſels and merchants I have ſeen there, collected together from various nations at two ſeveral times, which I have happened to be in that city; and this facilitates the purchaſe, ſale, and barter of many ſorts of commodities and fruits. For theſe reaſons, I think we ſhall meet with a good market for ſilks, cloaths, tobaccoes, and other things, that may be exported from theſe kingdoms, and depoſited in warehouſes there, as ſoon as the ſpaniſh duties ſhall be reduced, and ſome other regulations made, that have been propoſed, with a view to promote the home, as well as foreign commerce of Spain.

Naples, the capital and court of that kingdom, has alſo a conſiderable trade; and we may likewiſe find there a good market for many Spaniſh American commodities, ſuch as tobacco, cocoa, ſugar, cochineal, &c. by bartering them for linens, raw ſilk, and other things.

Meſſina, ſituated on the eaſtern coaſt of Sicily, and at a ſmall diſtance from Naples, carries on a large commerce in curious ſilk, of it's own produce, diſpoſing of moſt of it manufactured, and the reſt in the ſkein, to the French, Genoeſe, and other nations. It has a very ſpacious and ſafe port, and by it's being in the courſe of moſt part of that great number of ſhips, which go and come from the Levant, it is made a place to touch at, and is convenient for refreſhment and refitting; and alſo for a traffic with them, both going and coming, by their diſpoſing of ſome ſorts of merchandize, and ſhipping others, as well as for other branches of trade, which are favoured by it's advantageous ſituation; and more eſpecially from the circumſtance of it's lying in the narrow ſea, which ſeparates the two plentiful kingdoms of Naples and Sicily.

I have already intimated, that this kind of factors is uſually ſupported by the brokerage, which is paid by the merchants upon the commiſſions ſent to them, for their trouble of buying, ſelling, and other ſervices. But as his majeſty's ſubjects have not, at this time, a commerce of ſufficient extent for the maintenance of them, and ſuch a ſettlement, in thoſe parts, is a previous meaſure, and requiſite, in order to invite and eſtabliſh ſuch an intereſt for the nation; it will be abſolutely neceſſary, in the mean time, and until the trade be ſo far advanced, as to yield factorage or commiſſions ſufficient to maintain them in a decent manner, that THE REVENUE CONTRIBUTE SOME SHARE TOWARDS THE FIRST ESTABLISHMENT OF WHAT IS A NECESSARY FOUNDATION FOR THIS FOREIGN TRAFFIC, FROM WHICH WILL RESULT A VERY CONSIDERABLE ADVANTAGE TO HIS MAJESTY'S TREASURY, AND AN UNIVERSAL BENEFIT TO HIS SUBJECTS. And in this view, I am of opinion, there ſhould be aſſigned, to each of the eighteen factors, that ſhall be appointed, and ſent to the ſaid ports, a ſalary of eight hundred dollars yearly; ordering it ſo, that three hundred be allotted for his own ſupport, two hundred for a book-keeper, who ſhall be in the nature of a deputy, as well to aſſiſt him in the commiſſions, as to do the whole, in caſe of ſickneſs, abſence, or death, 'till his majeſty make ſome other proviſion; and the remaining three hundred dollars for the hire of a houſe, ſpacious and ſufficient for the reception of his own family, and his book-keeper, and for warehouſes to depoſit and preſerve all the goods that ſhall be ſent him, or he ſhall purchaſe, 'till they be ſhipped to his coreſpondents; together with a declaration, that if the book-keeper ſhould chuſe rather to cloth and maintain himſelf, with the ſaid ſtipend of two hundred dollars, the factor is to put them into his hands, and be obliged to grant him a proper apartment in

his

his own houſe, beſides the two hundred dollars; and the book-keeper is always to live in it, that he may be ready to give his aſſiſtance.

It will be alſo a proper regulation, that, ſo long as the factors have a ſtipend out of the Treaſury, the merchants, who are his majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be remitted half the commiſſion paid by thoſe of other nations, who do not poſſeſs a like advantage. The ſame rule is to be obſerved in reſpect to the charge of Warehouſe-room. But, whenever his majeſty's ſubjects ſhall think fit to ſtop the ſaid ſalary, that then the factorage uſual in the place where each of them ſhall reſide, may be regularly charged to their correſpondents.

Thoſe factors may be very uſeful, not only in cheriſhing an ACTIVE COMMERCE in foreign countries, and confirming it to his majeſty's ſubjects, but alſo inſtrumental in promoting ſome other ſervices of the crown, eſpecially in reſpect to our armaments by ſea or land. For though this kingdom yields moſt of the neceſſaries for theſe and other uſes, it is evident, that, as ſome manufactures are ſtill at a low ebb, and other things requiſite for the trade between this kingdom and the Indies, are ſcarce, we often find ourſelves obliged to get ſupplies from abroad. Thus we want tin and copper for our founderies of artillery, and other uſes; as alſo hemp, rigging, ſail-cloth, pitch, tar, roſin, tallow, planking, and other things for the uſe of the men of war and gallies, purchaſing them of foreigners at Cadiz, and other places, at very high prices; whence reſults, alſo, this great diſadvantage, that careening, and other works in our dock-yards, uſually come exceſſive dear.

But the evils enſuing from thence may be prevented, by an inſtruction to the officers, whoſe buſineſs ſhall be, at that time, to draw out before-hand a memorial of the particulars of what ſhall be neceſſary for the ſaid ſervice, diſtinguiſhing thoſe things which may be obtained from the preſent fabrics in the kingdom, or what may be further provided by them, from thoſe we are under a neceſſity of having from abroad.

With the help of ſuch previous information, the neceſſary orders may be iſſued for manufacturing, procuring, or purchaſing, on his majeſty's account, all the commodities and materials which can be gotten on the continent of Spain, of it's own produce and manufacture, and a proportionable quantity of each kind collected together in the ports, yards, or magazines of the place where they are to be conſumed in building, arming, careening, and fitting out ſhips, and other uſes; having beforehand a magazine of ſtores ſufficient for three or four years, and conſtantly replacing thoſe which ſhall be made uſe of, that we may never be under a neceſſity of purchaſing theſe commodities at ſuch times as we are in immediate want of them; for what is then bought, is uſually very dear, and not ſo good; nay, ſometimes we cannot ſupply ourſelves at any rate.

And, if the ſame memorial contains alſo a liſt of the ſeveral materials and commodities which will be neceſſary to import from abroad, it may then be conſidered what countries or places are moſt likely to ſupply us with them at reaſonable prices, and of due goodneſs, that we may ſend advice to the reſpective factors, and commiſſion them to purchaſe, and ſhip them on his majeſty's account to ſuch ports as they ſhall be directed, having firſt made the uſual inſurances, according to the diſtance and navigation from thence.

And theſe commiſſions ſhould be always governed by this conſideration, that they buy up and tranſmit to Spain a ſufficient ſupply for the conſumption of four or five years; and that the orders and proper remittances be made, even before the ſtores in hand are actually expended, ſo that the magazines may be conſtantly full. But it is to be underſtood, that our factors are to execute theſe and other commiſſions, for the uſe of his majeſty, without any charge, or demand upon the revenue for factorage, or wharehouſe-room, ſo long as they ſhall enjoy a ſalary from his majeſty; but all the neceſſary charges and diſburſements which they ſhall have made, are to be duly paid them.

Beſides the benefits which I have ſaid will accrue from an eſtabliſhment of factors, we may expect, by this means, to get an inſight into the ſeveral policies, of which foreigners avail themſelves, for the improvement and ſucceſs of their trade; as we ſhall thus gain a certain knowlege of the circumſtances of each country or ſtate, and what particular advantages may be made in each place, from buying, ſelling, or bartering any particular merchandize.

By a correſpondence with theſe very factors, we ſhall alſo obtain, at an eaſy rate, an information of what happens, or is tranſacting, in the kingdoms and ſtates where they ſhall reſide; a piece of knowlege that may be very uſeful on ſeveral important occaſions.

As we ſhall poſſeſs theſe and other advantages from ſuch a meaſure, we muſt needs think, that the ſum of 3400 doublons will be very uſefully expended yearly in ſalaries to all the eighteen factors, as it does not amount to the charge of maintaining a ſingle ambaſſador in ordinary; and yet ſometimes ſeveral miniſters are diſpatched, and maintained at the ſame time, in this public character, at a great expence, and to tranſact affairs of much leſs conſequence to the general good of the monarchy, than the benefits we may flatter ourſelves with receiving from the eſtabliſhment of theſe factors.

Beſides, ſhould not more than half of them ſucceed, there would be enough to make a great improvement in the active commerce of the nation, to augment conſiderably his majeſty's revenue, and benefit of his ſubjects; and this limited expence of thoſe factors would but continue a few years a charge upon the revenue; for if, by their means, that active commerce, which is ſo expedient and deſirable, be once eſtabliſhed, they will be enabled to ſupport themſelves upon their commiſſions only, and their ſtipends may ceaſe: and if it ſhould be found, that our intention is not anſwered by this proviſion in any of the ports, we need no longer maintain a factor in that place.

An eſtabliſhment of factors would, however, be a very idle thing, unleſs we make choice of perſons of honour and fidelity, and at leaſt a tolerable ſkill in trade, eſpecially in keeping mercantile accounts; and, to ſecure a prudent management in this article, and that the perſons appointed may be in full credit with the merchants themſelves, who are to intruſt them with their commiſſions and intereſts, it will be proper to refer the choice of them to the principal cities, which, for their ſituation, and other reaſons, ſhall be moſt likely to ſtrike out a trade in the places where the factors are to reſide. I think too, that, though they be not made ſecurity for the good behaviour of them, they will be in ſome meaſure under ſuch an obligation, becauſe the very confidence of his majeſty in ſubmitting them to their election, obliges them to it, beſides the intereſt which their traders muſt have in deputing a proper perſon.

I have underſtood, alſo, that the principal commerce of Spain with the North is by ports in the kingdom of Seville, the traffic of Cantabria, Galicia, and Auſturias, being not extenſive to thoſe parts; that very large quantities of wine, raiſins, and oil, are exported from Malaga to London; that Granada, though it be at ſome diſtance from a ſea-port, has correſpondence and traffic with Liſbon, vending certain ſilks there. As to the ports of Italy, it is well known, that the principal traffic with them is by the channel of Barcelona, Alicant, and Carthagena, excluſive of what goes to Andaluſia to be ſhipped for the Indies.

In conſideration of theſe circumſtances, I am of opinion the choice of the factors ſhould be intruſted to the following cities and towns, for the places ſet down oppoſite to them.

To Granada	for	Liſbon,
To Pamplona	for	Bayonne,
To Seville	for	Bourdeaux, Nantes, Hamburgh,
To Cadiz	for	Roan, Amſterdam,
To Malaga	for	London,
To San Lucar de Barrameda	for	Dantzick.
To Corunna	for	Oſtend,
To Santander	for	Copenhagen,
To San Sebaſtian	for	Stockholm,
To Bilboa	for	Peterſburgh,
To Carthagena	for	Genoa,
To Allicant	for	Leghorn,
To Barcelona	for	Marſeilles, Naples, Meſſina.

Though this propoſal of ſubmitting the choice of the factors to the thirteen cities and towns, points out the foreign ports where thoſe are to reſide who are nominated by each of them, it is only to add an improving circumſtance in carrying this ſcheme into execution. But there can be no conſiderable objection to depart from this rule, whenever it ſhall be expedient, from better knowlege of the ſeveral places, and other reaſons, and appointing them a ſettlement at the ports and in the places beſt adapted to each of the eighteen juſt now propoſed, ſince the main thing is, that perſons be elected by the thirteen cities of Spain before recited, whom they ſhall find beſt qualified for the truſt in their reſpective provinces, as by their experience and knowlege of them they will be good judges of their qualifications; but it muſt be underſtood, that though each city name one, they are to be factors for that and all other places in the kingdom, which ſhall be willing to trade in the port or town where each of them ſhall reſide.

But, though the ſaid cities be inveſted with a power of chuſing the perſons for this office, it is to be with a condition, that they do not act 'till they have the approbation of his majeſty; and, therefore, their nomination is to be preſented to the corregidor of each place, who is to tranſmit it to his majeſty's hands, with a detail of the qualifications that recommend the perſon elected into it. But it is intended that this approbation of his majeſty ſubſiſt no longer than the factors enjoy a ſalary out of the revenue.

After his majeſty has been pleaſed to grant his approbation, there ſhould be given to each of them a deſpacho, or patent, ſigned by his majeſty's own hand, and underſigned by the ſecretary for the time being, appointing him a factor for the

Spaniſh

Spaniſh nation in the port or country he has been nominated to, and containing the ſum of which is to be paid him for a ſalary, and how it is to be diſtributed, together with all ſuch inſtructions as tend to the better diſcharge of his office.

To be intitled to this approbation, or choice, it ſhould be an invariable condition, that the perſon be a native of this kingdom, or have a patent of naturalization, and be at leaſt 30 years of age.

The aſſiſtant, which each factor is to take along with him in quality of a book-keeper, ought to be one to his own liking, as he is to anſwer for his doing his duty in the office. It will, therefore, be expedient, as ſoon as each factor ſhall be elected and approved, that he have leave to nominate a perſon, whom he ſhall think qualified for this employment, and that he accordingly give him his nomination, ſigned under his own hand, which is to be preſented to the council of the city and town which it ſhall concern, that they may be alſo judges of the propriety of his nomination; and, after the city council have approved his choice, the factors ſhall not be empowered to remove him, without a juſt cauſe, giving, at the ſame time, notice of it to the ſaid council, and his reaſons for doing ſo; any in filling up any vacancy, whatever may be the cauſe of it, the ſame formalities ſhall be obſerved as before; though the factor may, in the mean time, employ ſuch perſon as he ſhall pleaſe.

It will alſo be expedient, that the book-keeper be choſen out of the natives of this kingdom, and at leaſt twenty years of age.

Should there be conſuls eſtabliſhed in the above-mentioned cities and towns for managing and conducting the affairs of trade, it would be fitteſt for theſe to have the choice of perſons to be employed as factors; but, in caſe there be none, and it is a troubleſome circumſtance to aſſemble, and bring the merchants of each of them to an agreement in the choice, it ſhould, I think, be left, in the mean time, to the diſpoſal of the city council, in the ſhape propoſed.'

FAIR, a concourſe of merchants, manufacturers, and ſundry others of various profeſſions, natives and foreigners, who meet yearly, or at other fixed times, in ſome certain place, on fixed days, to buy and ſell; and whither others reſort, out of curioſity only, to partake of the uſual diverſions of theſe public places.

The word is alſo uſed for places where, on certain days, ſome one ſort of merchandize is permitted to be ſold, of which there are two ſorts at Paris, viz.

The fair for gammons, called alſo the bacon fair, held yearly in the ſtreet of Notre Dame; it holds but one day, which is the Tueſday in Paſſion week: at which time is ſold ſo great a quantity of hams, flitches of bacon, and other ſalted pork, as is ſcarce to be expreſſed.

The onion fair begins on the Notre Dame in September, and holds 'till the end of the month; during which, an inconceivable quantity of black and red onions is brought, of which the citizens lay in for the whole year. It is held in the Iſle of Notre Dame, along the Quai Bourbon.

FAIR ſignifies alſo the place where tradeſmen meet together, keep their ſhops, and carry on their trade.

Many are held in the open fields, under tents and booths, as that of Guibray and Beaucaire, in France; others within walled places, with ſhops ranged in a regular manner, like ſtreets; but all without covering, unleſs a few trees are planted as a ſhelter from the ſun: ſuch is the fair of St Lawrence at Paris, which is held in the ſummer.

The ſhops where the dealers have their goods, particularly in the two great fairs of Paris, that of Caen, and other principal cities of France, are uſually termed lodges.

Of the dealers that frequent fairs, ſome have their fixed abode in ſome city, others travel with their goods and families from fair to fair.

Though it be not eſſential to theſe meetings of traders to have comedians, rope-dancers, and the like, yet there are few conſiderable ones without enough of them, and, perhaps, is what greatly contributes to the trade of them, the nobility and country gentry flocking to them more for their diverſion than what they buy there, which might be had perhaps better and cheaper at home. It is well known how the nobility of Languedoc flock to the fair of Beaucaire, and thoſe of Normandy to that of Guibray; but it is nothing in compariſon of the aſſemblies of German princes and nobles at the three fairs of Leipſic, and the two of Frankfort on the Maine.

It is the right of ſovereignty alone to give patents for the eſtabliſhment of a fair, whether it be a free one, or have it's franchiſe reſtrained under ſome local right, or on the foot only of a common fair, without any franchiſes.

FREE FAIRS in France, &c.

There are ſeveral in France, but the prerogatives and franchiſes of ſome are greater than of others.

The chief are, St Germains, held at Paris the day after Candlemas-day.

The four fairs of Lyons.

Rheims has alſo four; Chartres in Beauce has three; Merinville three, Rouen two, Bourdeaux two; Troyes, Mormant in Brie, and St Denis have each of them two; Caen hath one free fair, and Bayonne one, which laſts 15 days; Clermont in Auvergne, Senlis, and Vitry le François, each one.

The fair of Montrichard in Touraine is alſo famous for the great concourſe of traders to it from all the provinces of the kingdom, but particularly for the great trade in woollen ſtuffs, amounting, one time with another, to 12,000 pieces.

The fair of Guibray in Lower Normandy.

The fair of Beaucaire in Languedoc.

The free fair of Dieppe was the laſt eſtabliſhed.

Of all theſe, we ſhall ſpeak particularly here only of that of St Germain, the two of St Dennis, the four of Lyons and of Rheims, the two of Rouen, of Bourdeaux and Troyes, thoſe of Caen, Dieppe, and Toulon; there being nothing remarkable to mention of the others, thoſe of Guibray and Beaucaire excepted.

But we ſhall firſt ſay ſomething in general of the fairs of Champagne and Brie, on the model of which all the others at preſent held in France were eſtabliſhed.

The free fairs of Champagne and Brie.

Theſe, which were at firſt eſtablſhed by the earls of thoſe provinces, in 16 of the chief cities of them, have long been the moſt celebrated in France, if not in all Europe.

Some of thoſe cities had even ſix fairs yearly, ſeveral four, and none but had two at leaſt.

Traders, allured by the great franchiſes, liberties, and privileges granted them there, run in troops at all times of the year, even from Germany, Italy, particularly from Florence, Lucca, Venice, and Genoa, with gold, ſilver, and ſilk ſtuffs, ſpices, and other rich goods of their country, or of the Levant, taking in exchange, cloths, leather, and other commodities of Champagne and Brie, or brought thither from other parts of France.

In this flouriſhing ſtate were theſe fairs, when the two counties were united to the French crown, in 1284, which, however, was ſo far from adding new luſtre to them, as might have been expected, that they loſt their antient reputation in about 40 years time, and dealers, eſpecially foreigners, ceaſed to frequent them, finding little ſecurity, and new charges and impoſitions. To recover their former repute, Philip de Valois granted letters patent, in 1349, confirming their antient franchiſes, and ſuppreſſing the new impoſitions, which had the deſired ſucceſs; and it is by their model that all his ſucceſſors, down to Lewis XV, had governed themſelves in this matter.

Thoſe letters have 36 articles, the moſt eſſential of which, as ranged in five claſſes, are as follow.

The franchiſes.

All foreign dealers, their factors, &c. have free liberty, under the royal protection, to reſort to theſe fairs with their goods, provided, however, that they be deſigned for them, to be there ſold or exchanged, or to return with them, on failure of ſuch ſale, within the appointed time.

They are exempted from all dues, impoſitions, &c. according to the good and antient uſages, cuſtoms, and liberties of the ſaid fairs.

No favours, or letters of reſpite, may be granted againſt the ſaid dealers, or the cuſtoms and liberties of the ſaid fairs, all ſuch, if obtained, being null.

No dealers reſorting to, or returning from them, ſhall be ſtopped or moleſted, without ſpecial warrant from the wardens of the conſervation, and for obligations made truly and really in the fair.

Wardens of the privileges.

Judges appointed during the fair are ſo called; they are to ſee the franchiſes preſerved, and take cognizance of conteſts that may ariſe between traders. Every fair is to have two wardens, one chancellor, who keeps the ſeal, and two lieutenants, 40 notaries, and 100 ſerjeants.

The wardens and chancellors are ſworn in the chamber of accounts in Paris, where they are yearly to make their report of the ſtate of the fairs.

No judgment may be given in the fair time but by the two wardens together, or by the warden preſent, and the chancellor.

The time that goods muſt be in the fair to have the franchiſe

The drapers and traders of the 17 cities of Champagne and Brie, that are to frequent the fairs, that is to ſay, thoſe of cities in which one of theſe 17 fairs are held, may not ſell their cloaths, or other ſtuffs, wholeſale or retail, within or without the kingdom, on pain of forfeiture, unleſs firſt ſent to one of the ſaid fairs, and expoſed to ſale from the firſt day of the cloths to the ſixth following; they being, however, at liberty to diſpoſe of them as they pleaſe, if not ſold in that time.

Horſe-dealers, both ſubjects and foreigners, muſt have their ſtables in the ſaid fairs, from the third day of the cloths 'till the fair ends.

Farmers, curriers, &c. muſt bring their leather to the fair, and expoſe it all together from the firſt of the three days,

without reſerving any for the laſt days, or ſelling in any other place than what is deſigned for the ſale of leather.
In like manner all other wares brought into the fair are to remain on ſale, ſome ſix days, others three days only, according to their nature and quality.

Inspections.

Theſe are of two kinds, one by the wardens conſervators, and the other by examiners, choſen out of the trading companies that frequent fairs.
The wardens inſpection is at the opening of every fair, to ſee that the dealers have all ſuitable convenience and ſecurity.
The inſpectors are to be two good judges of the nature, quality, and goodneſs of all commodities brought, and to ſtop and ſeize what are not good, but not without advice of ſix, five, or four experienced perſons in the ſaid trades.

The police of exchanges, bonds, and payments, made at fairs.

All tradeſmen, both French and foreigners, may agree in their contracts for payment of goods ſold in the fair, to be paid in gold and ſilver, current at the time of making the contract, notwithſtanding any ordinance concerning money to the contrary.
None, unleſs he hath actual reſidence in fairs, may uſe the ſeal, or other obligations, or enjoy the privileges of them.
All letters, acts, contracts, &c. relating to fairs, are null, unleſs they are under the authenticated ſeal of the ſaid fairs.
Intereſt for loans, and goods ſold on credit in fairs, may not exceed fifteen livres per cent.
The intereſt may not be added to the principal in renewing bonds made at fairs. Nor may bonds, made at any other time, run in the ſtile of thoſe at fairs, as if made there.
Though, as already obſerved, theſe fairs were as a rule in the eſtabliſhment of all others ſince, yet it has not been always followed without ſome deviation, according as the times, place, and circumſtances required, as may be noticed in what we ſhall ſay of the principal fairs at preſent in France.

The fair of St Lawrence.

This fair, ſo called from it's ſituation near St Lawrence's church, is ſo very antient, that we know not it's origin. 'Tis held in a place walled in, one part of which is uncovered; the other is formed into fine and large ſtreets, with ſhops on both ſides, well built and covered. 'Tis chiefly frequented by the goldſmiths and mercers, painters, ſempſtreſſes, lemonade-ſellers, toymen, earthenware people, gingerbread bakers, &c.
They come to it alſo from Amiens, Beauvais, Rheims, and other places of Picardy and Champagne, with ſlight ſtuffs made here, both plain and ſtriped, and camblets of all ſorts.
Formerly it was held only one day, but at preſent it laſts two months; beginning the day after St James's day, and ending at Michaelmas. 'Tis proclaimed by ſound of trumpet, as that of St Germain.

The fair of St Germain.

This fair is opened the day after Candlemas-day. 'Tis greatly frequented by traders from Amiens, Beaumont, Rheims, Orleans, and Nugent, with various ſorts of cloths and ſtuffs. The goldſmiths, jewellers, and toymen of Paris, have fine and well furniſhed ſhops in it.
Two inſpectors are to be preſent at opening the bales of ſtuffs.
There is alſo another inſpection made by the maſters and wardens of the drapery and mercery.
There come to this fair, as generally reckoned, one year with another, about 1400 bales of cloths and other woollen ſtuffs, of which the inſpector of manufactures of the cuſtomhouſe at Paris is to keep a particular regiſter.
The halls under which the fair is held, are reckoned the fineſt piece of carpentry in the univerſe, drawing the admiration of all experienced architects, as well as carpenters, 'Tis divided into two different halls, which compoſe but one incloſure, and under the ſame cover nine ſtreets in a line, cutting each other, and dividing it into 24 parts or iſles.
The ſhops have little rooms or ſtorehouſes over them, and behind ſome of them are yards with wells, in caſe of fire.
The ſtreets are diſtinguiſhed by the names of the different trades, as the Goldſmiths-ſtreet, the Mercers-ſtreet, &c.

The fairs of Lyons.

Of theſe, one begins the firſt Monday after Low Sunday, the other the 4th of Auguſt, the third the 3d of November, and the fourth the firſt Monday after Eaſter.
'Tis meant of theſe four fairs of ſuch note throughout all Europe, when 'tis ſaid of bills of exchange, that they are payable at Lyons in the fairs.
The payments of the fair of the firſt Monday after Eaſter, are on the firſt of March: of that on the Monday after Low Sunday, are on the firſt of June: thoſe of that on the 4th of Auguſt, are made on the firſt of September, and the other on the firſt of December.
The opening of every payment is with ceremony, for the magiſtrate comes to the lodge of the exchange, accompanied with his regiſter and ſix ſyndics, viz. two French, two Italians, and two Swiſs, or Germans; and there, after a ſhort diſcourſe to the aſſiſtants, recommending probity in trade, and obſervance of the laws, cuſtoms, and uſages of the place, the laws, cuſtoms, and uſages are read, and the clerk draws up a verbal proceſs of the opening of the payment.
The next day they meet at the city-hall, and by plurality of voices ſettle the courſe of exchange for all cities, with which Lyons hath any commercial correſpondence.
This regulation, indeed, is but mere form, almoſt all the commerce in bills and money being regulated by uſages contrary to thoſe eſtabliſhed there. But, on any diſpute, recourſe may be had to them.
The preſent franchiſes of theſe fairs, with reſpect to exemption from duties, are, that all goods intended for foreign countries, ſent out of the city, during the fifteen days of either of theſe fairs, pay no cuſtoms outwards, provided the bales and parcels be marked with the city arms, and have certificates of franchiſe properly made out. To enjoy this privilege, the merchandizes muſt be ſent out of the kingdom before the firſt day of the following fair, unleſs otherwiſe permitted.

The fairs of Rheims.

The continuance of theſe four free fairs is different, two of them holding eight days, the other two only three days.
Their franchiſes, &c. are the very ſame with thoſe of Champagne.

The fairs of Rouen.

The one is called Candlemas-fair, and begins the 3d of February; and the other called Pentecoſt-fair, opens the day after that feſtival; they both hold fifteen days.
Goods ſold and exchanged at them, and carried out of Rouen during the fifteen days, pay but half dues outwards.
They are much frequented by foreigners, particularly the Dutch, Engliſh, and Scotch, and other northern nations; the advantageous ſituation of the city for trade contributing not a little to this concourſe of foreign traders.

The fairs of Bourdeaux.

One begins the firſt of March, the other the fifteenth of October; they laſt fifteen days. The laſt is commonly the moſt conſiderable.
There are almoſt conſtantly in the port about a hundred foreign veſſels; but, at the fair times, 'tir cuſtomary to ſee 4 or 500, and ſometimes more, and ſome of them even upwards of 500 tons. For which, and the great quantities of wines and brandies ſold at them, they are very famous, being inferior to no others in France.
They have the ſame privileges, &c. with thoſe of Paris, Lyons, Brie, Champagne, and Poictou.
The judges conſuls are, at theſe fairs, to perform the office of conſervators, with the ſame juriſdiction as thoſe of Lyons.

The fairs of Troyes.

One of them is fixed to the Monday after the ſecond Sunday in Lent, and the other to the firſt of September. Goods ſold at them are exempted from all cuſtoms outwards, local dues excepted, under certain reſtrictions.

The fairs of St Dennis.

One of theſe two fairs held yearly at St Dennis, a little city of the iſle of France, in the neighbourhood of Paris, is called the Landy. 'Tis the firſt of them, and begins the Monday after St Barnabas, and holds fifteen days. The other begins the fair after St Dennis's day in October, and holds but eight days. They have both the ſame franchiſes and privileges with that of St Germain. The chief trade at them is in cloths and woollen and ſilk ſtuffs; brought from ſeveral provinces, chiefly Champagne, Picardy, Poictou, &c.
All goods brought into the fair are ſubject to two inſpections; the one gratuitous, by the inſpectors; the other, with payment of dues, more or leſs, according to the quality of the ſtuffs. 'Tis by the maſters and wardens of the drapers and mercers company of Paris, the dues are ſettled at the rate of 20, 10, 5, or 3 ſols the piece.

The fair of Caen.

This fair is very famous, and ſcarce inferior to that of Guibray.
It begins the day after Low Sunday, and holds fifteen days; of which the firſt eight days are called the great week, the others the leſſer; becauſe formerly the franchiſe laſted only the firſt eight, and becauſe the concourſe of traders was greater, which laſt continues ſtill, but not the diſtinction of franchiſes.
This fair is not only conſiderable for the quantities of all ſorts of merchandizes, particularly woollen manufactures, but for the number of cattle and horſes brought to it from Normandy and the neighbouring provinces.

The fair of Dieppe.

'Tis a free fair, eſtabliſhed by letters patent in October 1696, and was opened for the firſt time on the 1ſt of December the

ſame year. It holds fifteen days. It's franchiſes and privileges are, that all goods brought into the port of Dieppe, during the fair, and there ſold or bartered, are exempt from one moiety of duties inward and outward.
While the fair laſts, foreign merchandizes that have been imported and not ſold, may be carried out free of cuſtoms.
All foreigners may diſpoſe of their effects brought during the fair.
Goods, declared to be for the fair, may not be ſeized while it laſts. Nor are they liable to inſpection by the wardens.

The fair of Toulon.

This fair begins the third of November, aud holds fifteen working days.
It's franchiſes granted in 1708 are, that no goods, whilſt it laſts, are ſubject to any duties; and all traders, both French and foreigners, enjoy the franchiſes and liberties granted to the fairs of Lyons, Brie, Champagne, Rouen, and other cities. Theſe franchiſes, however, have certain proviſional modifications, obtained by the farmers-general in 1709.

The inſpectors of fairs in France.

They are to attend at all conſiderable fairs, where there's any great trade, in ſtuffs and other woollen goods, to inſpect and mark them; and to ſeize them if deficient, and not conformable to the regulations by authority. But this examination muſt be with great circumſpection and reſerve, at hours moſt convenient to buyers and ſellers. They are to be accompanied, in the performance of their office, by the judge of the police of manufactures, and the wardens and jurats of the places.
Some free fairs have their own judge, and particular juriſdiction.
There are ſeveral things to be obſerved by wholeſale men, who reſort to, or ſend their agents to fairs, in order to trade ſucceſsfully, it having it's difficulties as well as it's advantages.
They ſhould not engage in this trade unleſs they have a partner, or at leaſt ſome ſafe perſon, with whom they can intruſt the bulk of their affairs in their abſence.
They ſhould know what goods are proper, and if they will anſwer the expences of carriage, &c.
They muſt be careful not to carry goods, of which there are conſiderable manufactures in or near the places where the fairs are held.
They are to ſell for more or leſs, according to the times of payment; and allowance is to be made, in regard that the dealers of provinces, who buy at fairs, are not ſo punctual in their payments, as thoſe of great trading cities.
The invoice muſt be made before the goods are packed; and if ſeveral bales, they muſt be made ſeparately, and the bales carefully marked and numbered.
They muſt be careful to keep a particular diary of the fairs, wherein to write down all the goods ſold or bought during the fair; and afterwards, when returned home, they muſt enter methodically into the journal of their trade.
They muſt not omit to take promiſſory notes or bills of the traders with whom they deal, payable at the following fair, or ſome other time agreed on, to avoid conteſts about payments.
They are not to be diſmayed, if a commodity, proper for a fair, has neither been aſked for nor ſold; but to carry it again the next year, when it will probably ſell to good advantage.

Beaſt and horſe fairs, &c.

Thoſe held at Chenerailles, a greet town of Auvergne, are famous for their quantity of fat cattle, brought for the moſt part to Paris. They are on the firſt Tueſdays of every month.
There are three annual beaſt-feaſts at Braiſne le Comte, near Soiſſons; namely, on the 6th of May, the 14th of September, and the 14th of December. The greateſt part of the cattle bought here comes to Paris alſo.
The fairs of Nangis and Crecy in Brie, on the 4th of July, and 29th of September, are likewiſe very conſiderable, and from which the graziers and butchers of the iſle of France are uſually ſupplied.
Though the fairs of Guibray ane Caen are chiefly for the trade of linen and woollen goods, and the like, they are, notwithſtanding, to be conſidered as two of the principal fairs of the kingdom for Norman horſes. There are many other horſe-fairs in different parts of Normandy.
At the fair of Fontenay in Poictou, are ſold moſt of the horſes bred in that province. 'Tis held on the 24th of June, and is one of the moſt noted in the kingdom for that traffic.
At Nogent on the Seine, is a conſiderable horſe fair, the 11th of Auguſt.
The fair at Niort, on the 1ſt of December, is properly for foals.
Montely is a fair chiefly for cows, great numbers of which are bought up by the farmers and peaſants about Paris, and all the iſle of France. 'Tis held the 9th of September in an open field.
There are alſo, in ſeveral of the villages about Paris, fairs for pigs.
Beſides all which, there are innumerable others of leſſer note, nor worth particular mention.

The fairs of Germany.

The moſt noted of theſe are at Frankfort, Leipſic, and Naumbourg, not only on account of the great trade, but the vaſt concourſe of princes of the empire, nobility, and people, who come to them from all parts of Germany, to partake of the diverſions to be had.

Frankfort on the Maine,

Has two fairs yearly, one in the ſpring, the other in autumn. The firſt, which is alſo called Eaſter, or Midlent fair, begins the Sunday before Palm Sunday: the opening of the September fair is not fixed. They are declared by ſound of bell, and hold three weeks.
Theſe fairs, ſo noted for the ſale of all ſorts of goods, and a great number of fine horſes, are ſtill more ſo for the quantity of all ſorts of books, chiefly from Holland, Germany, and Geneva.
'Tis a long time ſince the monnoie de change, or imaginary money, has been aboliſhed, and they uſe now only current money: that which was formerly effective, is inſenſibly become imaginary.
To avoid the monopoly that ſeveral bankers practiſed on the eves of the fairs, in gathering the current effective, to raiſe the price above the currency to the loſs of private perſons, the magiſtrate has wiſely regulated without aboliſhing it.
When a perſon draws on the fairs, it muſt not be omitted to explain whether it be in currency or in money, for the current is worth about 5 per cent. more than the money.
Formerly all bills of exchange were payable the ſecond week, but at preſent many are payable the third week, which is the time of paying aſſignations, but it muſt be mentioned; every bill on the fair, without ſuch clauſe, being accounted payable the ſecond week of the fair.
Payments are made by transfer of the parties on the exchange, as is practiſed at Lyons, and other cities of change.

Leipsic.

It's fairs are in no leſs repute than thoſe of Frankfort, if not more. There are three in the year. One the firſt of January, the other three weeks after Eaſter, and the third after Michaelmas, and continue each of them fourteen days.
The opening of theſe fairs is publiſhed on the firſt day, and the breaking them up on the laſt, ſo that the twelve intermediate days are properly the fair time, in which buſineſs is tranſacted. The acceptance of bills of exchange, payable in the fairs, is uſually the twefth day after their opening: however, thoſe on whom they are drawn, may defer the acceptance to the week of payment.
The time of payment does not begin 'till after the publication of the cloſe of the fair, and continues to the 5th day following incluſive; during which time, if not paid, they are to be proteſted.
The proteſt for non-acceptance may be made before the week of payments; but the bearer of a bill is not obliged to it for his ſurety, nor even to return the proteſted bill before the end of the fair, there being often bankers and merchants who will accept and pay them.
Bills may be proteſted for non-payment 'till ten in the evening of the laſt day of payments, but not later.
The traders and bankers ſeldom return their proteſted bills 'till three days after the five days of payment, in hopes of finding ſome to honour them; but, if not paid in that time, they muſt be returned to the drawer, with the proteſts, by the firſt poſt, after the week of payments.
The fair of Naumbourg, though very conſiderable, is more commonly called a market. 'Tis opened the 29th of June, and holds eight days. The negociations, with reſpect to exchanges and proteſts, are much the ſame as thoſe at Leipſic fairs.
The acceptance of bills is on the firſt and ſecond day of the market, and are payable there the 3d of July at furtheſt, or elſe proteſted; but they are ſeldom returned with the proteſt before the 5th.
Zurzack in Smitzerland is of note for it's two fairs, one of which begins two days after Pentecoſt, and the other the 1ſt of September. The Dutch, eſpecially from Amſterdam, drive a great trade at it, both as to what they carry and bring away; which laſt are all ſorts of ſilks and ſtuffs made in Switzerland, for which they carry painted cloths, muſlins, cottons, drugs, woollen cloths and ſtuffs, tea, chocolate, coffee, ſpices, drugs for dyers, &c.
All the different ſorts of money made or current in Switzerland, are alſo here, ſo that, to prevent diſputes about buying and ſelling, traders agree in what ſpecie they chuſe to pay or be paid.

The fairs of Novi.

Novi is a little city in the Milaneſe, and has four annual fairs; the firſt of which begins the 1ſt of February, the ſecond on the 2d of May, the third on the 1ſt of Auguſt, and fourth on the 2d of November. Though there reſorts here

no ſmall concourſe of tradeſmen with all ſorts of commodities, yet 'tis not that which renders them ſo conſiderable, as that the moſt eminent bankers and merchants, from Lyons, Italy, and ſome other more remote parts, meet here to ſettle their affairs and ballance accounts, chiefly in matters of bank and exchange.

Each of theſe fairs laſts uſually eight days, but they are often prolonged one, and ſometimes two days more, on remonſtrances of the merchants and bankers to the magiſtrates, that they have not had ſufficient time to ſettle their accounts and affairs.

As this fair is very different from others, being principally for regulating payments four times a year, it might properly be called the transfer, or meeting fair; for, of the many millions there negociated in a year, there's not above 100,000 crowns paid in ſpecie.

The bankers of Genoa, and the principal cities of Italy, and even of France, Spain, and the Low Countries, uſed to ſend ſome one to this fair with a procuration, if they could not go themſelves, with their ballance-account of what they had to pay and receive.

At preſent this fair is not the only one of the kind, thoſe of Lyons, Bolzano, and many others, imitate it; and, by their payments, the merchants have brought ſuch credit to their fair, as hath diminiſhed that of Novi; which, though very conſiderable, is frequented by few but Genoeſe.

This fair hath it's judges to decide all matters, both civil and criminal. If diſputes ariſe between merchants of different nations, one of the ſame nation is choſe to decide it, in conjunction with the judges.

The fair of Sinigaglia, a little city in the duchy of Urbino, on the weſt coaſt of the Venetian Gulph, is held in Auguſt, and is famous for the great reſort of traders to it from all parts of Italy and the neighbouring ſtates, eſpecially the Venetians.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, hath two fairs, one in May, the other in September, very much frequented by Engliſh, French, Dutch, &c.

The propereſt time for the Riga trade is the fair time, but 'tis ſomewhat inconvenient to foreigners, who cannot deliver their veſſels, nor hire warehouſes in the city, 'till the burghers have made their purchaſes, and taken what they think fit of the goods imported.

Theſe fairs are not ſo famous as they have been.

At Rama in the Holy Land is a weekly fair, to which the Arabians bring great quantities of goods, particularly galls, ſena, and gum arabic.

The fairs of Porto Bello, La Vera Cruz, and the Havannah, are the moſt conſiderable in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies: the two firſt continue while the flota or galleons ſtay in their ports; and the other is opened at the arrival of the flota or galleons, according as either arrives firſt in their return to Europe: the Havannah being the place where they meet, before they make for the Streight of Bahama.

The principal fairs of ENGLAND:

1. Sturbridge fair, near Cambridge, beyond all compariſon the greateſt in Britain, and perhaps in the world.
2. Briſtol, two fairs, very near as great as that of Sturbridge.
3. Exeter.
4. Weſt Cheſter.
5. Edinburgh.

Alſo ſeveral marts, as { Lynn. Boſton. Beverly. Gainſborough. Howden, &c.

6. Weyhill fair } for ſheep.
7. Burford, fair, }
8. Pancraſs fair in Staffordſhire, for ſaddle horſes.
9. Bartholomew fair at London, for lean and Welſh black cattle.
10. St Faith's in Norfolk, for Scots runts.
11. Yarmouth fiſhing fair for herrings, the only fiſhing fair in Great Britain, or that I have heard of in the world, except the fiſhing for pearl oyſters, near Ceylon in the Eaſt-Indies.
12. Ipſwich butter fair.
13. Woodborough-Hill near Blandford in Dorſetſhire, famous for weſt country manufactures, Devonſhire kerſeys, Wiltſhire druggets, &c.
14. Two cheeſe fairs at Atherſton and Chipping Norton.

With innumerable other fairs, beſides weekly markets for all ſorts of goods, as well our own as of foreign growth.

Some of the principal laws of England, relating to FAIRS and MARKETS.

Fairs kept longer than they ought, to be ſeized by the king's hand, and proclamation to be made how long fairs are to continue. 2 E. III. c. 15.

Merchants not to ſell wares after the fair is ended, on pain of forfeiting double value. 5 E. III. c. 5.

In the court of Piepowder, oath to be made, that the matter of the declaration was done within the juriſdiction and time of the fair. 17 E. IV. c. 2.

3 H. VII. c. 9. This ſtatute authoriſes citizens of London to carry their wares to fairs and markets out of the city.

Owners of fairs or markets, to appoint toll-takers or booth-keepers, on pain of 40 s. And they to give account of horſes ſold, &c. under the like penalty. 2 and 3 P. and M. c. 7.

Sellers of horſes to procure vouchers of the ſale of the horſe to them, and, for every falſe voucher, ſhall forfeit 5 l. The names of the buyer, ſeller, and voucher, and price of the horſe, to be entered in the toll-taker's book, and a note thereof delivered to the buyer. A horſe ſtolen may be redeemed by the owner, in ſix months, repaying the buyer, &c. 31 E. c. 12.

REMARK.

The origin of trading fairs was to facilitate the buying and ſelling of merchandizes, in the inland parts of trading countries; and, while the fairs in Great-Britain were duly attended, by the eminent tradeſmen from the metropolis, and other chief trading cities, ſhop-keepers reſident in the interior counties were more cheaply ſupplied with merchandizes, and could afford to ſell their own at a much cheaper rate than they have been able to do, ſince the cuſtom of riders has been introduced among the country ſhop-keepers; for this cuſtom has been inſtrumental to lay a voluntary kind of additional taxation upon our own commodities.

FARMING, the art of cultivating land, and breeding of cattle. See AGRICULTURE.

In the examining, purchaſing, or farming of lands, there are two things chiefly to be conſidered, the wholſomeneſs of the air, and the fruitfulneſs of the place. Next to which muſt be obſerved, the roads, water, and neighbourhood; the former is beneficial with regard to the great article of carriage, water with reſpect to fertility, and the other with regard to the ſale of the productions of the land. Beſides theſe conſiderations, the farmer ſhould never poſſeſs more land than he is well able to manage, both by his purſe and his perſon. The antients applaud ſpacious tracts of land, but recommend the well cultivation of ſmall ones; for land of a large extent, not duly cultivated, will yield leſs than that of a narrow extent, managed to the beſt advantage.

To make a right judgment of the nature and quality of ſoils, ſee the articles CHEMISTRY, EARTH, MANURE, and ſuch other heads as we ſhall from theſe refer to; where are ſhewn the experimental methods of improving ſoils, ſuitable to the productions intended to be cultivated; whence it ſhould ſeem to appear, that the farmer ought not to be a perſon ſo meanly bred as the generality are; for although ſuch who undertake this employment, are commonly bred and cut out for labour chiefly, yet the mere working parts ſeem to be the meaneſt qualification in this buſineſs: his head may be of more benefit to him in an hour, than his hands in a twelvemonth. Nor do I ſee any reaſon, why the art of farming ſhould not be as rationally and experimentally taught as any other, ſince it ſo greatly conduces to the ſuſtenance of mankind in general. Vegetation is an extenſive field of ſtudy; and, though much has been writ upon the ſubject, yet no body has yet reduced the improvements that have been already made therein to any thing of a ſyſtem, ſo as to lead either the gentleman or the practical farmer into a regular knowlege of the art.

Nor can we be of opinion, that this art is yet brought to it's ultimate perfection in this, or any other country; we are rather inclined to believe, that there is far more to be diſcovered than has been, even with regard to the point of vegetation only: and, in relation to that part which comprehends the breeding of different ſorts of cattle, we ſeem to be far ſhort of the knowlege requiſite.

One who is qualified to direct every branch of the buſineſs of farming, will, with a moderate quantity of land, find ſufficient employment, without uſing the ſpade, or attending the plough himſelf; the conſideration of making every inch of land turn to the moſt beneficial account, and giving ſuch attendance on his ſervants, that they duly execute his orders, will engroſs the whole of his time.

Beſides theſe, there are divers other particulars, though leſs beneficial, which ſhould by no means be ſlighted by the induſtrious and ſkilful farmer: ſuch as the management of bees to the beſt advantage, the making of cyder, the breeding of ducks, geeſe, and poultry, &c. and the producing and rearing whatever elſe he can do at the leaſt expence and the moſt advantage, according to the nature and ſituation of his land, and the extent of his judgment and his caſh.

However the mere practical farmer, who jogs on in the beaten track of huſbandry only, may be eſteemed the moſt knowing and ſkilful in his buſineſs, and however the ordi-

nary

nary practice therein may be presumed to govern the theory, yet that is certainly a very indifferent guide towards the establishing a true one; because the practice of this class in general, as well as most other mere practical people, is governed more by custom from father to son, and from master to servant, than from any certain judgment in the operations of the laws of nature. Nor are such who are too much hurried in their way of business to give daily bread to their families, qualified to dive so far into nature, as to make any extraordinary improvements in their profession. And indeed the art of farming being the art of nursing nature according to her own laws, 'tis requisite the rational farmer should be first well acquainted with these laws, which will render him a better nurse to nature, than he could be without such knowlege.

To arrive at such knowlege, it must be granted, wholly depends upon experimental knowlege; and the knowlege of the ordinary practical farmer, who daily watches his fields and his cattle, and makes his general observations upon the seasons, and the weather, &c. is the best foundation to improve upon; for he that is unacquainted with the progress already made in this art, cannot be presumed to make any further advancement therein.

In some arts perhaps it may be more eligible at once to relinquish the antiquated paths, and to strike out new ones; but the intelligent farmer should not venture upon a new road, 'till he is well instructed in the old.

This art having nature to deal with in it's living and animated state, requires different treatment, and different talents from those which have only the dead and lifeless matters to work upon, as the objects of their labour and dexterity; for nature herein is to be strictly studied, humoured and obeyed; in other things, if she is only faintly mimicked, it may answer the end of the artizan.

To arrive at the thorough knowlege of all that has been discovered by the practical farmer in the divers parts of business which come under that denomination, is no easy task: it is not acquired by residing within the smoke of his own farm, or that of his parish, or of his county; he should be skilled in the methods of culture and husbandry practised in divers counties. To obtain a just notion whereof, he should not only see with his own eyes, but he should compare notes with his brethren, be communicative in what he may know, in order to gain a knowlege of what others may be acquainted with: in a word, he should not only attentively survey the practice and improvements of others, both in his own and in distant counties; and not only converse with the living, but with the dead: I mean he should read, as well as view the works of others, and should never cease to experimentalize.

We would by no means recommend to the farmer to turn book-worm, and to thumb over the many musty volumes that have been scribbled upon the subject of husbandry; nor would we put him upon the expensive trials of every whimsical experiment that has been broached.—This would prove detrimental, instead of otherwise, to the farmer.—But 'tis as requisite, methinks, that the farmer should be able to read some of the best things wrote upon the subject of husbandry, as to repeat the liturgy, or sing psalms in his country church.

The interest of the land proprietor being connected with that of the farmer, and the gentleman having more leisure, fortune, and a better education, for the making of experimental improvements in husbandry and agriculture in general; it should seem to be not less for the advantage of the gentleman than the farmer, for the former to be able to communicate such knowlege to a tenant, as may render him prosperous; for it is not always industry alone, that will enable the farmer to pay his rent; the want of skill to improve land to the pitch it will admit of, is, perhaps, as often the cause of his ill success, as an unkindly season, or pestilence among his cattle.

Nor is there less benevolence than policy herein; for what can give a humane and generous mind more joy, than to render all happy and prosperous that subsist under him? And to what better account can a gentleman's education tend, than to the due improvement of his own estate?

Whoever considers the way of life of the farmer from the cradle to his grave, needs little to convince him how unlikely the generality of such are to cultivate lands to the best advantage. However self-wise the honest farmer may think himself, yet 'tis to be feared, that want of knowlege is as often the cause of his poverty as want of money: and when this is the case, how happy would it be for these useful and industrious subjects to receive admonition from their landlords, how to improve their farms to the best advantage? Would it tend less to the glory and honour of the British gentry to supply their tenants with knowlege, than to shew them tenderness, and even lend them money to exert their industry to the utmost!

Without any compliment to our country, it may with great truth be said, that no nation in Europe has produced wiser or more learned men in general, than Great-Britain. The knowlege of the Antients was certainly very great, far greater, perhaps, than the most learned antiquaries have been able to trace: and 'till within the last century or two, the world seems to have reaped little benefit, by standing upon their shoulders. But since the Europeans have happily fell upon the experimental study of physics, and joined thereto that of mathematics, it may be presumed, that the Moderns upon the whole are not behind, if they have not yet surpassed the Antients in arts and sciences, notwithstanding what the learned Sir William Temple insinuates to the contrary, in his excellent essay upon the antient and modern learning. It has indeed been the opinion of many very learned men, that the Antients had infinitely more knowlege in physics than the Moderns, but that they concealed it under the veil of hieroglyphic and mythology. True it is, that they seem to convey far more in this their mode of writing, than is generally understood; and yet, probably, really meant far less than what many have extravagantly imagined. However,

The method taken by the Moderns for the advancement of natural knowlege, seems far more generous, for they make mysteries of nothing: on the contrary, they have established societies in various parts of Europe for it's general cultivation; and, unreservedly, not only communicate their discoveries to each other, but to the world in general.

And as the pursuits of these truly learned societies have been productive of such real good to mankind in general, and thereby cultivated the noble arts of commerce, to a degree infinitely beyond what they ever were in the world before: and as commerce tends to knit and cement the whole human species, by the ties of interest and civility; that knowlege which promotes it cannot be too much cultivated, nor can the gentry of this nation reap less honour and glory, and interest thereby, than from any other pursuits. The victories which make the greatest part of history, and attract admiration the most, have little other effect than the desolation of countries, the destruction of cities, and the slaughter of our own species. These boasted heroes of antiquity, have they made a single man the better? have they made numbers happy? If they have sometimes founded estates and empires, how dearly have they made their contemporaries pay for it, by the rivers of blood they have shed? Of what utility to us are a Nimrod, Cyrus, or an Alexander? All these princes and conquerors, with all their magnificence and boundless projects, are returned into nothing with regard to us; they are dispersed like vapours, and vanished like phantoms.

But the discoverers of useful arts for the benefit of general commerce labour for all ages. We still enjoy the fruits of their application and industry. They have procured for us all the conveniencies of life. They have converted all nature to our use. They have taught us to extract from the bowels of the earth, and even from the deeps of the sea, the most precious riches; they have opened to us the treasures of all the sciences, and guided us to knowlege the most useful and worthy of our nature.

We do not enough consider the obligations we are under to those experimental philosophers, who made the first essays in arts, and applied themselves in these important, but elaborate researches. Are we not indebted to their labour and ingenuity, that we are commodiously housed, that we are cloathed, that we have cities and temples? Is it not by their aid that our hands cultivate the land, and that materials for numberless productions are obtained, for the unspeakable utility, comfort and ornament of human life? Have all the conquerors together done any thing that can be imagined parallel with such services? All our admiration turns generally on the side of these heroes of blood, whilst we scarce take notice of what we owe to those improvers of commercial science.

The land of a kingdom is the great parent of every thing for the use, the convenience, and delight of mankind: is it not therefore of the last importance that it should be employed to the best advantage? Is not this much more useful than to extend its limits?

One reason of the small produce of the land is, because agriculture is not looked upon as an art that requires study, reflection, and rules: every one abandons himself to his own taste and method, whilst no body thinks of making a serious scrutiny into them, of trying experiments, and of uniting precepts with experience. The Antients did not think in this manner. They judged three things necessary to success in agriculture. The will: this employment should be loved, desired, and delighted in, and followed, in consequence, out of pleasure. The power: it is requisite to be in a condition to make the necessary expences for the breeding and fattening of cattle and fowl of all sorts, for labour, and for whatever is necessary to the manuring and improving of lands; and this is what most of our husbandmen want. The skill: it is necessary to have studied maturely all that relates to the cultivation of lands, without which the two first things are not only ineffectual, but occasion great losses to the master of a family, who has the affliction to see that the produce of the lands is far from answering the expences he has been at, or the hopes he had conceived from them; because those expences have been laid out without discretion, and without knowlege of the application of them. To these three heads

a fourth may be added, which the antients had not forgot; that is, experience, which preſides in all arts, is infinitely above precepts, and makes even the faults we have committed our advantage: for from doing wrong, we often learn to do right.

Agriculture was in quite different eſteem with the antients, to what it is with us: which is evident from the multitude and quality of the writers upon this ſubject. Varro cites to the number of fifty among the Greeks only. He wrote upon it alſo himſelf, and Columella after him. The three Latin authors, Cato, Varro, and Columella, entered into a wonderful detail upon all the parts of agriculture. Would it be an ungrateful and barren employment to compare their opinions and reflections with the modern practice?

Columella, who lived in the time of Tiberius, deplores, in a very warm and eloquent manner, the general contempt into which agriculture was fallen in his time, and the perſuaſion men were under, that to ſucceed in it, there was no occaſion for a maſter. 'I ſee at Rome, ſaid he, the ſchool of 'philoſophers, rhetoricians, geometricians, muſicians, and 'what is more aſtoniſhing, of people ſolely employed, ſome 'in preparing diſhes proper to pique the appetite, and excite 'gluttnoy, and others to adorn the head with artificial curls, 'but not one for agriculture. However, the reſt might be 'well ſpared; and the republic flouriſhed long without any 'of thoſe frivolous arts; but it is not poſſible to want that 'of huſbandry, becauſe life depends upon it.

'Beſides, is there a more honeſt or legal means of preſerving 'or increaſing a patrimony? Is the profeſſion of arms of this 'kind, and the acquiſition of ſpoils, always dyed with human blood, and amaſſed by the ruin of an infinity of perſons? Or is commerce ſo, which, tearing citizens away 'from their native country, expoſes them to the fury of the 'winds and ſeas, and drags them into unknown worlds in 'purſuit of riches? Or is the trade of money and uſury more 'laudable, odious and fatal as they are, even to thoſe they 'ſeem to relieve? Can any one compare any of theſe methods with wiſe and innocent agriculture, which only the 'depravity of our manners can render contemptible, and by 'a neceſſary conſequence, almoſt barren and uſeleſs?

'Many people imagine, that the ſterility of our lands, which 'are much leſs fertile now than in times paſt, proceeds from 'the intemperance of the air, the inclemency of ſeaſons, or 'from the alteration of the lands themſelves, that, weakened 'and exhauſted by long and continued labour, are no longer 'capable of producing their fruits with the ſame vigour and 'abundance. This is a miſtake, ſays Columella: we ought 'not to imagine that the earth, to whom the author of nature has communicated a perpetual fecundity, is liable to 'barrenneſs, as to a kind of diſeaſe. After it's having received from it's maſter a divine and immortal youth, which 'has occaſioned it's being called the common mother of all 'things, becauſe it always has brought forth, and ever will 'bring forth from it's womb, whatever ſubſiſts, it is not to 'be feared that it will fall into decay and old age, like man. 'It is neither to the badneſs, nor to length of time, that the 'barrenneſs of our lands is to be imputed; but ſolely to our 'own fault and neglect: we ſhould blame only ourſelves, 'who abandon thoſe eſtates to our ſlaves, which, in the 'days of our anceſtors, were cultivated by the moſt noble 'and illuſtrious.'

This reflection of Columella's ſeems very ſolid, and is confirmed by experience. The land of Canaan (and as much may be ſaid of other countries) was very fertile at the time the people of God took poſſeſſion of it, and had been ſeven years inhabited by the Canaanites. From thence to the Babyloniſh captivity was almoſt a thouſand years. In the latter days, there is no mention of it's being exhauſted, or worn out by time, without ſpeaking of after-ages. If, therefore, it has been almoſt entirely barren during a long courſe of years, as it is ſaid, we ought to conclude, with Columella, that it is not from it's being exhauſted, or grown old, but becauſe it is deſert and neglected; and we ought alſo to conclude, that the fertility of ſome countries, of which ſo much is ſaid in hiſtory, ariſes from the particular attention of the inhabitants in tilling the land, in cultivating the vines, and breeding of cattle. See the Hiſtory of the arts and ſciences of the Antients, by Mr Rollin.

And here it may not be improper to take notice, in conſequence of what has been ſaid, of what the learned biſhop Sprat has obſerved, when he ſays, 'That it would be no 'hindrance to the minds of men, if, beſides thoſe courſes of 'ſtudies which are now followed, there were alſo trial made 'of ſome other more practical ways to prepare their minds 'for the world, and the buſineſs of human life.

'It is not enough to urge againſt this, that the multiplicity 'of methods would hinder and confound the ſpirits of young 'men; for it is apparent that nothing more ſuppreſſes the 'genius of learners than the formality and the confinement 'of the precepts by which they are inſtructed. To this purpoſe I will venture to propoſe to the conſideration of wiſe 'men, whether this way of TEACHING BY PRACTICE AND EXPERIMENTS would not at leaſt be as beneficial 'as the other by UNIVERSAL RULES; whether it were not 'as profitable to apply the eyes and the hands of children to 'ſee and to touch all the ſeveral kinds of ſenſible things, as 'to oblige them to learn and remember the difficult doctrines 'of general arts? In a word, whether a MECHANICAL 'EDUCATION would not excel the METHODICAL?

'This certainly is no new device: for it was that which Plato 'intended when he injoined his ſcholars to begin with geometry; whereby, without queſtion, he deſigned that his 'diſciples ſhould firſt handle material things, and grow familiar to viſible objects, before they entered on the retired 'ſpeculations of other more abſtracted ſciences.

'According to this counſel of the father of philoſophers, it 'would not be amiſs, if, before young ſcholars be far engaged 'in the beaten tracks of the ſchools, the myſteries of manual 'arts *, the names of their inſtruments, the ſecrets of their 'operations, the effects of natural cauſes, the ſeveral kinds 'of beaſts, of birds, of fiſhes, of plants, of ſtones, of minerals, of earths, of waters, and all their common virtues 'and qualities, were propoſed to be the ſubjects of their firſt 'thoughts and obſervations.

* 'I have one thing more to add, ſays the learned Mr Locke, 'which, as ſoon as I mention, I ſhall run the danger of being ſuſpected to have forgot what I am about, and what I 'have above written concerning education, all tending towards a gentleman's calling, with which a trade ſeems only 'inconſiſtent: and yet I cannot forbear to ſay, I would have 'him learn a trade, a manual trade; nay two or three, but 'one more particularly.

'The buſy inclination of children being always to be directed to ſomething that may be uſeful to them, the advantages propoſed from what they are ſet about may 'be conſidered of two kinds; 1. Where the ſkill itſelf that 'is got by exerciſe is worth the having. Thus ſkill not 'only in languages and learned ſciences, but in painting, 'turning, gardening, tempering and working in iron, and 'all other uſeful arts, is worth the having. 2. Where the 'exerciſe itſelf, without any conſideration, is neceſſary or 'uſeful for health. Knowlege in ſome things is ſo neceſſary 'to be got by children, whilſt they are young, that ſome 'part of their time is to be allotted to their improvement 'in them, though theſe employments contribute nothing 'at all to their health: ſuch are reading and writing, and 'all other ſedentary ſtudies, for the cultivating of the mind, 'which unavoidably take up a great part of gentlemens time, quite from their cradles. Other manual arts, 'which are both got and exerciſed by labour, do many of 'them, by that exerciſe, not only increaſe our dexterity 'and ſkill, but contribute to our health too, eſpecially ſuch 'as employ us in the open air. In theſe, then, health and 'improvement may be joined together; and of theſe ſhould 'ſome fit ones be choſen, to be made the recreations of 'one whoſe chief buſineſs is with books and ſtudy. In this 'choice, the age and inclination of the perſon is to be 'conſidered, and conſtraint always to be avoided in bringing him to it: for command and force may often create, 'but can never cure an averſion; and whatever any one 'is brought to by compulſion, he will leave as ſoon as he 'can, and be little profited, and leſs recreated by, whilſt he 'is at it. Locke's Works, vol. iii. fol. p. 90, 91.

'It may be here ſuggeſted, that the vaſt number of ſuch 'particulars will ſoon overwhelm their tender minds, before 'they are well eſtabliſhed by time or uſe. But, on the contrary, it is evident, that the memories of youth are fitter 'to retain ſuch ſenſible images than thoſe of a fuller age. It 'is memory that has moſt vigour in children, and judgment 'in men: which, if rightly conſidered, will confirm what I 'ſaid, that perhaps we take a prepoſterous courſe in education, by teaching general rules before particular things; 'and that therein we have not a ſufficient regard to the different advantages of youth and manhood. We load the 'minds of children with doctrines and precepts, to apprehend which they are moſt unfit, by reaſon of the weakneſs 'of their underſtandings; whereas they might, with more 'profit, be exerciſed in the conſideration of viſible and ſenſible things; of whoſe impreſſions they are moſt capable, 'becauſe of the ſtrength of their memories, and the perfection 'of their ſenſes.' So far the learned biſhop.

Now what kind of practical and experimental education ſeems more naturally adapted to the minds of young perſons of diſtinction, than ſuch as have a tendency to the preſervation and improvement of their landed eſtates? And what can be more pleaſing and agreeable to the minds of youth, if engagingly repreſented to them, than gardening? When once they delight in this, what lengths may they be not brought to go in agriculture in general? When they were ſenſibly, at ſtated times, by way of diverſion only, led into the due obſervance of theſe things, they would, as they grew up, take equal delight in muſing upon whatever elſe might conduce to the improvement of their eſtates againſt they came to them. This would enable them either to become experienced gentlemen farmers themſelves, or render them capable of ſo examining into the ſkill and experience of their farming tenants, as to know whether they deſerved to be continued or not. Nay, theſe amuſements would qualify them to inſtruct their tenants how to improve their eſtates to the beſt advantage.

What

What lord Bacon obſerves, in his New Atlantis, or Plan of a Philoſophical Society, may deſerve the attention of the landed gentlemen of this kingdom:

'We have many large orchards and gardens, ſays he, wherein 'we do not ſo much regard beauty, as variety of ground and ſoil, 'proper for different trees and plants. Some of theſe places 'are very extenſive, and planted with vines, fruit-trees, and 'ſhrubs, that bear berries for making ſeveral kinds of drinks, 'beſides wines. Here alſo we try experiments of graffing 'and inoculating, as well of wild trees as fruit trees; which 'produce many effects *. Here likewiſe, by art, we make 'trees and flowers to come earlier or later than their ſeaſons, 'and to ſhoot and bear abundantly out of their natural courſes. 'By art we alſo render them larger, and their fruit bigger, 'ſweeter, and more different in taſte, ſmell, colour, and 'figure, than nature alone produces them; and others we 'ſo order, that they become of ſingular medicinal uſe.

* See Bacon's Sylva Sylvarum, under the articles Vegetables and Vegetation.

'We have alſo methods of making plants riſe by mixtures of 'earths, without ſeeds; and likewiſe of ſhaking new plants, 'differing from the vulgar, and of converting one plant into 'another *, &c.' See the articles AGRICULTURE, EARTH, CHEMISTRY, MANURE, HUSBANDRY.

* Though gardening, and the ſubject of vegetation in general, has received conſiderable improvements of late, yet there ſeems to be wanting a ſkilful ſagacity in this art, to direct the proper experiments both of light and profit. This ſagacity might, in good meaſure, be learned from what we ſhall repreſent throughout this work.

FEES of the cuſtom-houſe; wherein our importers and exporters are greatly intereſted.

THE FEES and ALLOWANCES due and payable to the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, in the port of London.

AN ORDER of the houſe of commons in parliament aſſembled, eſtabliſhing and appointing the ſaid fees.

Whereas, in and by an act of this preſent parliament, intitled, *An act for confirming of public acts, an act therein, intitled, †A ſubſidy granted to the king of tonnage and poundage, and other ſums of money payable upon merchandize, exported or imported, was confirmed; by which act ſo confirmed, it is (amongſt other things) enacted and ordained, that during the continuance of that grant, ‡ where the goods exported or imported amount to the value of five pounds, or more, the cuſtomers or collectors, and all other his majeſty's officers in the ſeveral ports, ſhall take and receive ſuch fees (and none other) as were taken in the fourth year of the late king James, until ſuch time as the ſaid fees ſhould be otherwiſe ſettled by act of parliament.

* 13 Car. II. cap. 7 † 12 Car. II. cap. 4.
‡ 12 Car. II. cap. 4. § 8.

And whereas alſo, amongſt the rules, orders, and directions annexed to the book of rates, (ratified and confirmed by the aforeſaid act) it is ordered and directed, that, for the avoiding all oppreſſions, by any of the officers of the cuſtoms, in any port of this kingdom, in exacting unreaſonable fees from the merchant, by reaſon of any entries, or otherwiſe touching the ſhipping or unſhipping of any goods, wares, or merchandize, it is ordered, * that no officer, clerk, or other, belonging to any cuſtom-houſe whatſoever, ſhall exact, require, or receive any other, or greater fee of any merchant, or other whatſoever, than ſuch as are, or ſhall be eſtabliſhed by the commons in parliament aſſembled. And if any officer, or other, ſhall offend contrary to this order, he ſhall forfeit his office and place, and be for ever after incapable of any office in the cuſtom-houſe.

* 24th rule, page 303.

In proſecution of which ſaid ſeveral clauſes, in the act and book of rates beforementioned, and for the ſettlement and certainty of all the aforeſaid fees, for ſatisfaction, as well of merchants and others, as of the officers, what fees are to be paid and received, for any cauſe, matter, or thing whatſoever, for or concerning the import or exportation, ſhipping, landing, or entering of any ſhip's goods, wares, or merchandizes, of what nature, or in what kind ſoever: it is ordered and declared, by the commons in parliament aſſembled, that the ſeveral and reſpective fees and allowances, mentioned in a ſchedule, or table of fees, relating to the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging (and none other) ſhall be paid to the officers and others employed, and to be employed, in and about his majeſty's cuſtoms, in the port aforeſaid, and are by the authority aforeſaid ſettled and confirmed.

And be it further ordered and declared, by the authority aforeſaid, that the fees and allowances, hereby intended, are ſet down, mentioned, and expreſſed, in a ſchedule, or table of fees, intitled, Fees and allowances due and payable to the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms and ſubſidies, in the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging,

and ſubſcribed with the hand of Sir Edward Turner, knt. now ſpeaker of the houſe of commons in parliament aſſembled; and every particular clauſe, therein mentioned and contained, ſhall be and remain as effectual, to all intents and purpoſes, as if the ſame were included, and particularly expreſſed within the body of this order: and, in caſe any merchant, maſter of a ſhip, or other perſon or perſons whatſoever, ſhall refuſe to pay all, or any of the fees hereby ordered or intended, that, in ſuch caſe, it ſhall and may be lawful, for all and every officer and officers, to make ſtay of every bill of entry, cocket, or other warrant, that ſhall be tendered or given in, for paſſing of any ſhip's goods or merchandizes whatſoever, exceeding the value of five pounds in the book of rates, for which the fees ſhall be detained and denied to be paid as aforeſaid.

And be it further ordered and ordained, that copies or tranſcripts of this order and table of fees ſhall be made and ſet up in public view, in the cuſtom-houſe of London, and in all other offices or places where the ſaid fees, or any of them, are to be paid or received.

FEES and ALLOWANCES due and payable to the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms and ſubſidies in the port of London, and the members and creeks thereunto belonging, viz.

For the officers of the petty cuſtoms outwards.	Cuſtomer. s.	Cuſtomer. d.	Comptroller. s.	Comptroller. d.	Surveyor. s.	Surveyor. d.	Survey. Gener. s.	Survey. Gener. d.
For a cloth cocket by Engliſh freemen of London	0	6	0	4	0	4	0	4
For a ſtranger's cocket, or unfreemen	0	8	0	6	0	6	0	6
For a cloth certificate, by ſtrangers or Britiſh, to paſs according to the old rate	0	8	0	4	0	4	0	4
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
For a ſhip's entry to the Streights, Canaries, or Weſtern Iſlands	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
For clearing of ſhips and examining the books	1	0	0	6	0	6	0	6
For every indorſement	0	4						
For making a bond to the king's majeſty's uſe	0	6						
For every entry in the certificate-book	0	2						
To the cuſtomer's clerks.								
More for a cloth cocket, or certificate	0	6	0	2	0	2	0	2
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas	0	4						

Subſidy outwards.	Collector. s.	Collector. d.	Comptroller. s.	Comptroller. d.	Surveyor. s.	Surveyor. d.	Survey. Gener. s.	Survey. Gener. d.
For every entry within the Levant, or beyond the Streights mouth	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
For every ſhip's entry going to foreign ports	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
For every ſhip's entry going to the out-ports	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	1
For clearing of every ſhip paſſing to foreign ports, and examining the ſhip's contents	1	0	0	6	0	6	0	6
For every Engliſh cocket by freemen	0	8	0	4	0	4	0	4
For every ſtranger's cocket, or unfreeman of London	1	0	0	6	0	6	0	6
For making every certificate cocket, as well Britiſh as ſtrangers, for goods which pay ſubſidy inwards, and pay no ſubſidy outwards	0	8	0	4	0	4	0	4
For every certificate upon warrants from his majeſty or the Lord-treaſurer, paying no duties	1	6	0	8	0	8	0	8
For indorſement of all warrants and licences	0	4	0	4	0	0	0	0
For a ſoaring bill, licenſing ſuch as bring in victuals, to carry out ſome beer as by ſtore	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
Coaſt ſufferances, to be given without fees								
For every coaſt cocket outwards, and entering in his majeſty's books, for a whole ſhip or veſſel paſſing into the open ſeas	1	0	0	8	0	8	0	8
For a bond for the ſame	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
For diſcharging the ſame bond, and filing the certificate to the bond	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	0
For making every certificate of return	1	0	0	2	0	2	0	2

Col-

	Collector.		Comptroller.		Surveyor.		Survey. Gener.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
For making, entering, and keeping an account of every debenture for repayment of half-subsidy, or other sums of money	1	0	0	4	0	4	0	4
For making and entering a transire, or let-pass, from port to port in England, Wales, or Berwick	0	4	0	2	0	0	0	0
To the clerks.								
For a cocket by British, or others	0	4	0	2	0	2	0	2
For a ship's entry crossing the seas	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0
To the clerk of the coast-cockets, for making a bill, or ticket, to the lord-mayor, or for corn, victuals, and other provisions	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	0

Petty customs inwards.	Collector.		Customer.		Comptroller.		Surveyor.		Survey. Gener.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
For every stranger's warrant	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	2	0	2
For taking every bond	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
For every bill at sight	1	0	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
For discharging every bond	0	0	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0
For every great employment to employ the proceed of goods	0	0	0	6	1	0	1	0		

Subsidy inwards.	Collector.		Comptroller.		Surveyor.		Survey. Gener.	
	s.	d	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
For every warrant by British freemen of London	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
For every warrant for strangers, or unfreemen	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
To the clerk, for making the shipper's entry	1	0						
For making a bond to his majesty's use	0	6						
For every oath administered by the collector	0	2						
For a ship's entry with the particular contents, viz. from the East-Indies	2	6						
—From the Streights	2	6						
—From Spain, Portugal, and the West-Indies, or British plantations	2	0						
—From Dunkirk or France	1	0						
—From Flanders, Holland, Ireland, or any eastern or northern parts	1	0						
For every ship or vessel less than 20 tons	0	8						
For every stranger's ship's entry to pay double fees								
For every certificate of foreign goods imported, to be shipped out free of subsidy, 18d. which is understood 6d. for the searcher, although several ships, and 12d. for the certificate	1	6						
If the goods be under the value of 20l. according to the book of rates, the merchant is to pay for the certificate, in all, but	0	6						
For examining and comparing every debenture with the original certificate								
For a certificate of foreign goods coming from any of the out-ports to London, or from any other port to a port within this nation.	0	6	0	2	0	2	0	2
For goods sent by sea by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports, from London	0	6	0	2	0	2	0	2
For casting up the sum, and keeping an account of every debenture, and paying the money	0	8						

For every bale, pack, chest, truss, case, or other package, brought into the king's warehouse, to be allowed to the officer when the merchant is short entered about five shillings, to be paid to the proper officer, 2d.

Great customs.	2 Customer.		Comptroller.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.
For a cocket of calve-skins	2	0	1	0
For a coast-cocket outwards of wools, woolfells, leather, skins, and hides	2	0	1	0
For a bond for his majesty's use	1	0	0	0
For filing the return	0	6	0	0
For a return and discharge outwards	2	4	1	0
For the packer, for telling and packing every dacre of dressed calve-skins, allowing ten dozen to the dacre	0	0	0	6
For packing every dacre of undressed calve-skins, and telling	0	0	0	6

Fees concerning several officers, as well inwards as outwards, to be paid to the clerks.	Customer.		Comptroller.		Surveyor.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
For every bill of portage	0	6	0	3	0	3
For a second or parcel cocket outwards	0	2	0	2	0	2

To the king's majesty's waiters, being in number eighteen.

Received in the custom-house above stairs:

	s.	d.
For every British man's foreign goods or merchandizes, of what nature soever, paying custom or subsidy inwards in the port of London, or coming thither from any place or port by cocket	1	0
For every stranger's foreign goods in like manner, paying custom or subsidy inwards in the same port, or coming thither by cocket	1	6
For certifying every cocket of British goods brought up to London	0	6

Received at the water-side by the said king's waiters, and others attending, to be divided as formerly.

	s.	d.
For a bill of store, or portage, for any thing above ten shillings custom	1	0
For a bill of sight, bill of sufferance, or any other imperfect warrant	1	0
For wools, wool-fells, leather, hides, and prohibited goods, from the out-ports by cocket	1	0

Register of the king's majesty's warrants.

For every British warrant for the goods inwards	0	2
For every stranger's warrant	0	4
For every certificate foreign	0	4

For all goods not paying 20s. custom, whether in or out, there shall be but half fees taken, whether for warrants, cockets, transires, debentures, or certificates.

To the usher of the custom-house.

	s.	d.
For every oath administered by the king's officers outwards	0	2

Rules which may serve for the ports in general.

Whereas some societies and companies of merchants do trade in a joint-stock, and enter the whole lading and cargo of a ship inwards, in one single entry, when the adventurers therein concerned are many, the officers and waiters may take and receive such gratuity as the said company shall hereafter voluntarily consent to pay unto them; any thing in this order or table of fees, or any other act or provision to the contrary, notwithstanding.

All goods under the value of 5l. in the book of rates, paying subsidy the sum of 5s. or less, shall pass without payment of any fees.

No British merchant that shall have goods of his own, to be landed out of one ship or vessel at a time (although the receipt of the subsidy be distributed into several offices) shall be charged to pay any more or other fees than for a single entry.

Goods in partnership to pass as if the proprietors were a single person.

Fish by British, in British shipping, or vessels, inwards or outwards, or along the coast, to pay no fees.

Foreign coin and bullion, inwards, may be landed by any person, without warrant or fee.

Diamonds, precious stones, jewels, and pearls of all sorts, to pass* inwards and outwards without warrant or fee.

* 6 Geo. II. cap. 7. § 1.

Post entries inwards to pass without fee, under five shillings; if above five shillings, and under forty shillings, then sixpence: but, if the custom to be paid exceed forty shillings, then it shall pay the full fees as was paid for the first warrant.

The merchants shall pay for all goods opening that shall be short entered above ten shillings custom.

The

The merchant ſhall pay for weighing of all goods that ſhall be ſhort entered above twenty ſhillings cuſtom.
The merchant not to be at any charge, if duly entered.
Whereas by an act of parliament, intitled, * An act for encouraging and increaſing of ſhipping and navigation, there are granted unto the king's moſt excellent majeſty ſundry duties upon ſtrangers veſſels importing commodities not of their growth; and thereby it is ordered, That ſuch ſhipping as pretend to enjoy the privilege of Engliſh ſhipping, muſt be manned accordingly; whereby there is a neceſſity of an officer to be employed every tide, downwards towards Graveſend, to viſit all ſhips, whether they be manned according to the ſaid act; as alſo to gauge † French ſhips, and to take an account of their tonnage, and to give certificates for making of foreign ſhips free, and taking bond for ſuch as go to the plantations; for effecting of which buſineſs, the following fees are ſet and appointed by the authority aforeſaid, to be paid as well in all out-ports, as in the port of London, and creeks thereunto belonging, viz.

* 12 Car. II. cap. 18. §. 9, 10, 17, 19.

† The duty of five ſhillings the ton, for which French ſhips were to be gauged, ceaſed by the 11th article of the treaty of commerce with France, concluded at Utrecht { 31 March, / 11 April, } 1713.

	Collector. s.	d.	Comptroller. s.	d.
For gauging every French veſſel, in lieu of the like Fee paid in France for gauging Britiſh veſſels there, as long as they continue this duty	5	0	0	0
For making a certificate to make a foreign ſhip free, with ſealing and regiſtering the ſame	10	0	0	0
For a bond for ſhips going to the plantations	0	6	0	0
For every entry of French veſſels, and for bills to charge the five ſhillings the ton on ſuch veſſel	0	6	0	6
For a certificate of payment of tonnage	0	6	0	0
For every entry of goods liable to duties by the act of navigation, which this collector receives	0	4	0	4

The fees of the chief-ſearcher, and of his majeſty's five under-ſearchers in the port of London.

Duties between the chief-ſearcher and his majeſty's five under-ſearchers that attend at London.

	s.	d.
Spain, Portugal, the Streights, Weſt-Indies, Guinea, or the Weſtern Iſlands	6	0
Eaſt-India	10	0
All other Britiſh ſhips into foreign parts	4	0
For every ſtranger's ſhip or bottom	6	8

Duties of his majeſty's five under-ſearchers that attend at London.

		s.	d.
Britiſh and aliens	For every certificate for ſhipping out goods formerly imported	2	0
	But, if the half ſubſidy to be received back amounts but to 40 s. then	1	0
To be paid by Britiſh and aliens for goods that pay ſubſidy, and paſs out by cocket or warrant	Pipe, puncheon, or butt	0	4
	Hogſhead or bag	0	2
	Tin, the block or barrel	0	1
	Beer-eager, wood of all ſorts, copperas, allum, and ſuch groſs goods, the ton	0	4
	Corn the laſt, ſea-coal the chalder, beer the ton	0	2
	Lead, the fodder	0	2
	The maund, fat, or pack	0	6
	The bundle, bale, cheſt, or caſe	0	3
	Raiſins and figs, the 20 frails, or barrels	0	3
	Butter and ſuch goods, the barrel	0	2
	For every coaſt-certificate, or cocket	1	0
	Tranſires for the coaſt, free.		
	For every horſe, mare, or gelding	1	0
	For certifying every debenture for receiving back half-ſubſidy, &c.	0	6
	For every piece of ordnance	1	0
	For the endorſement of every cocket	1	0
	For every certificate out of their books of goods loſt at ſea, taken by the pirates, or returned, whereby ſo much may be ſhipped cuſtom-free	1	0
	For every bill of ſufferance, or ſtore, above 10 s. in the book of rates	1	0
	If under	0	6
	The fardel, or truſs, by Britiſh, of three hundred weight, or upwards	0	6
	Woollen cloth, the bale not exceeding five cloths, or three hundred weight ſtuffs, bays or ſays	0	3
	Merchants ſtrangers, unfreemen of London, or ſuch as ſhip on ſtrangers ſhips or veſſels — the fardel, or truſs	1	0
	— the bale	0	6

The fees of his majeſty's two ſearchers at Graveſend.

	s.	d.
For every ſhip that paſſeth over the ſeas for Spain, Portugal, the Streights, the Weſt-Indies, Guinea, or the Weſtern Iſlands	6	0
For every ſhip to the Eaſt-Indies	10	0
For all other ſhips into foreign parts	4	0
For every ſtranger's ſhip or bottom	8	0
For every ſhip having a coaſt-cocket	0	4
For paſſengers outwards, not being merchants or mariners	0	6

Signed by virtue of * an order of the houſe of commons, dated the 17th of May, 1662.

E. Turner.

* Confirmed and continued by 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. §. 1. and the other acts, which continue the branch of the cuſtoms and ſubſidy outwards.

Sabbati 17° Maii, 14° Caroli regis Secundi.

The general table of fees for the port of London, with the members and creeks thereunto belonging, being thus read,
The queſtion being put,
That, for all goods not paying one cuſtom in or out, there ſhall be but half fees taken for all cockets, warrants, debentures, tranſires, or certificates:
It was reſoved in the affirmative.
Reſolved upon the queſtion,
That the ſaid table of fees, as it was reported and read, with the alterations aforeſaid, be agreed to, and that the ſame be engroſſed, and that Mr Speaker is authorized to ſign the ſame.

Will. Goldeſbrough,
Cler' Dom' Com'.

A breviate of the fees of his majeſty's officers of the cuſtoms and ſubſidies in the port of London, reducing the particulars (as they are ſet in ſeveral paragraphs, under ſeveral titles) into totals, or intire ſums, viz.

For the officers of the petty cuſtoms outwards.

	s.	d.
For a cloth cocket by Britiſh freemen of London, paid to the principal officers and their clerks	2	6
For a ſtranger's cocket, or unfreeman	3	2
For a cloth certificate, by Britiſh or ſtrangers	2	8
For a ſhip's entry croſſing the ſeas	1	8
For a ſhip's entry to the Streights, Canaries, or Weſtern Iſlands	4	4
For clearing of ſhips, and examining the books	2	6
For every indorſement	0	4
For making a bond to the king's majeſty's uſe	0	6
For every entry in the certificate-book	0	2

Subſidy outwards.

	s.	d.
For every ſhip's entry within the Levant, or beyond the Streights mouth: to the officers and their clerk	4	4
For every ſhip's entry going to any other foreign parts	1	8
For every ſhip's entry going to the out-ports, and for a coaſt-cocket and bond	4	9
For clearing of every ſhip paſſing to foreign parts, and examining the ſhip's contents	2	6
For every Britiſh cocket by freemen	2	6
For every ſtranger's cocket, or unfreeman of London	3	4
For every certificate, cocket, &c.	2	6
For every certificate, upon warrant from his majeſty, or the lord-treaſurer, paying no duties	4	4
For endorſement of all warrants and licences	0	8
For a ſoaring-bill	2	0
For diſcharging a bond, and filing the certificate	0	4
For making a certificate of return	2	0
For a debenture for repayment of half ſubſidy, &c. to the principal officers two ſhillings, to the ſearchers ſix-pence, for the oath two-pence, examining four-pence, caſting up and paying the money eight-pence: in all	3	8
For making and entering a certificate, or let paſs	0	6
For a bill or ticket to the lord-mayor	0	4

Petty cuſtoms inwards.

	s.	d.
For every ſtranger's warrant inwards; vide ſubſidy inwards.		
For taking every bond	0	6
For every bill at ſight	2	0
For diſcharging every bond	0	6
For every great employment	2	6

Subſidy inwards.

	s.	d.
For every warrant by Britiſh freemen of London: to the principal officers, the king's waiters and regiſter	2	6
For every warrant for ſtrangers	4	6
——— for unfreemen	3	2

	s.	d.
For every certificate of foreign goods coming from the out-ports to London	2	4
For goods ſent by ſea, by the importer thereof, to any of the out-ports from London	1	0

All the reſt of the fees under this title of ſubſidy inwards are ſingle, and paid to particular perſons. See the Table.

Great cuſtoms.

For a cocket for calve-ſkins: to the officers and packer	3	6
For wools, wool-fells, ſkins, and hides	3	0
For a bond to his majeſty's uſe	1	0
For filing the return	0	6
For return and diſcharge outwards	3	4

Fees inwards and outwards concerning the clerks.

For every bill of portage	1	0
For a ſecond, or parcel cocket outwards	0	6
The packer	All theſe are reckoned together with the former entries.	
The king's waiters for the three firſt articles		
Regiſter of the king's warrants		
All others fees in the table not herein before comprized (except only two concerning the act of navigation)	See the table.	
The fees of the chief ſearcher, and his majeſty's five under-ſearchers at London, and two at Graveſend, are ſingle, and do not admit of abbreviation		

For all goods not paying twenty ſhillings cuſtom, whether in or out, there ſhall be but half fees taken.

All goods under the value of five pounds in the book of rates ſhall paſs without payment of any fees.

Coin and bullion inwards	Paſs without warrant or fee.
Precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls outwards	

The merchants ſhall pay for all goods opening that ſhall be ſhort entered above ten ſhillings cuſtom.

The merchants ſhall pay for weighing all goods that ſhall be ſhort entered above twenty ſhillings cuſtom.

The merchants not to be at any charge, if duly entered.

FEZ, a kingdom in Africa, is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt; the river Marbea divides it from Morocco on the ſouth; and has the kingdom of Alguir on the eaſt. It is fruitful in all ſorts grain, fruit, cattle, wax, and honey, and would be much more ſo, if duly cultivated; but ſuch is their indolence, that a great part of it's rich lands lie barren and neglected. They have here ſome good mines of iron, but ſo ignorant how to manufacture it, that they only make nails, and other ſuch coarſe utenſils of it.

This kingdom is divided into the ſeven provinces following, viz.

The province of FEZ PROPER, is parted on the weſt from that of Temeſna by the river Sala; has the province of Aſgar on the north; on the eaſt it extends itſelf to the river Gnavan; and on the ſouth to the province of Chauz. The ſoil is much the ſame with what we have ſaid of the kingdom in general, only being a capital province, better cultivated, and more populous and rich than the reſt. It produces plenty of corn, and other grain, and variety of fine fruits, as figs, olives, almonds, grapes, &c. flax, hemp, cotton, camels, horſes, oxen, ſheep, goats, deer, hare, and wild boars.

FEZ, the capital of the whole kingdom, is computed to have about 300,000 inhabitants; the houſes as well as ſtreets ſwarm with men of all profeſſions, and with merchants of all ſorts; this place being eſteemed the general magazine of Barbary, whither all European goods are brought and exchanged, and ſent into the other provinces, to be exchanged for thoſe of the country. The import commerce commonly conſiſts in cocheneal, vermilion, ſpices, iron ware, braſs, ſteel, drugs, watches, arms, ammunition, &c. Engliſh and other woollen and linen cloths and ſilk, muſlins, and other cotton cloths, toys of all ſorts, combs, variety of earthern ware, paper, quickſilver, tartar, opium, allum, gold wire, brocades, damaſks, velvets, fuſtians, and coarſe callicoes and linen, red woollen caps, and Guinea cowries. The goods exported are leather of ſeveral ſorts, particularly the fine Marroquin, the manufacture of the country, ſkins, hides, wool, oſtrich-feathers, copper, dates, almonds, figs, raiſins, olives, wax, honey, horſes, ſilks of their own manufacture, a ſort of cotton and flax cloth of the ſame, terraſs, ſtone, variety of kali, or pot-aſh for ſoap, gold ducats, &c. of all which the Jews, which are here above 5000, are the chief brokers, eſpecially between the Chriſtians and Mohammedans.

The province of TEMESNA. This is the moſt weſtern part of the kingdom of Fez. It was once eſteemed the fineſt ſpot in all Barbary, and is one continued fertile plain, which formerly had no leſs than forty cities or towns, very large and populous, but now ſcarce any footſteps of them are to be ſeen.

The province of ASGAR, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the weſt by the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt it extends to the mountains of Gomera, and on the ſouth to the river Bunazor. The country is fruitful in corn and other grain, horſes, flocks and herds, cotton, wool, butter, leather, and other ſuch commodities, with which they ſupply the city of Fez, and the canton of Larache in great abundance.

LARACHE, one of it's principal towns, is ſituate on the Atlantic coaſt, at the mouth of a river of it's name. The moſt part of it's inhabitants are employed, either in gathering or ſpinning of cotton, which grows about the country in great quantities, or in making of charcoal. The town hath a pretty convenient harbour for ſmall veſſels.

ALCASSAR-QUIVER, near the river Licus, is well peopled with merchants and tradeſmen.

There were ſeveral other conſiderable cities and towns in this province, which have been ſince deſtroyed by the wars, or gone to decay, becauſe the inhabitants have been forced to abandon them.

The province of HABAT is one of the moſt northern in this kingdom, beginning on the weſt ſide at the moraſſes of Aſgar, and extending eaſtward to the mountains of Errif and Gomera, on the north to the ſtreight of Gibraltar, and on the ſouth to the river Arguila. It is moſtly plain and fertile, and watered by ſeveral rivers, which run from the mountains through it into the ſea.

Moſt of the cities and towns in this province alſo are gone to decay.

The province of ERRIF is bounded on the eaſt by the river Notor, by the province of Habat on the weſt, by the Mediterranean on the north, and by the ridge of mountains that reaches the river Guarga on the ſouth. The country is very full of mountains, ſome of them very high, ſteep, and rugged, yielding only ſome oats and barley, and a few olives on the north ſide, but on the ſouth plenty of them, as well as grapes, almonds, figs, &c.

Among their many high mountains, that called Seucaſen is reckoned one of the moſt delightful; 'tis fruitful and well inhabited, having abundance of neat little towns and villages, in which live ſeveral ſorts of tradeſmen.

The province of GARET is bounded on the eaſt by the river Meluya, on the weſt by Errif, by the Mediterranean on the north, and on the ſouth by a ridge of mountains, which divides it from the deſert of Numidia. A great part of this province is rough, ſandy, dry, and barren land, like the deſert of Lybia; the very beſt part of it wanting ſeveral neceſſaries for the ſupport of human life, chiefly water.

MELILLA, at the bottom of a bay, called by mariners ENTREFOLCOS, was formerly the capital of the province, and is ſtill a large town.

About two leagues from it is the town of CAZAZA, near which is ſo convenient a harbour, that the Venetians drove a conſiderable trade there for ſome time with the people of Fez. But the town has been ſince razed to the ground, and the caſtle alone left ſtanding.

The province of CHAUS is bounded on the eaſt by the river Zha, on the weſt by that of Garaguira, on the north by mount Zucato, and on the ſouth by that of Atlas.

A great part of the province is ſtony, dry, and barren, but in certain ſpots very fertile; as that of Teza, which yields thirty for one; mount Matgara, which abounds with corn and paſture, and where the air is ſweet and wholſome, both in ſummer and winter; that of Garſis hath many gardens, which produce plenty of figs, grapes, and peaches; and the vallies about the town of Dubdu, are covered with vines, as are the plains about Megeza. Mount Beni-Jaſga feeds great flocks of ſheep, whoſe wool is ſo very fine and long, that they weave it into ſuperfine cloths, which are as light and neat as ſilk.

TEZA, ſituate in a fertile plain, 16 leagues eaſt of Fez, has a great concourſe of merchants from thence, Tremecen, and other places, becauſe it ſupplies moſt of the country about with corn, near 30 leagues round. They have the beſt wines in all Barbary, and the territory round it full of gardens, orchards, and noble vineyards.

SAFFOY, a ſmall town, built on an eminence at the foot of one of the mountains of Atlas; 'tis ſurrounded for near ſix miles with date, olive, and other fruit-trees, in which conſiſts it's chief wealth, eſpecially the vaſt quantities of oil it makes and ſends to Fez.

FIFESHIRE in Scotland. This ſhire is a fine peninſula, wedged in, as it were, between the Firth and the Tay, by which laſt 'tis bounded on the north, as by the Firth of Forth on the ſouth. It has the Ochil-hills, Kinroſsſhire, and part of Perthſhire on the weſt, and is waſhed by the German ocean on the eaſt. The eaſt part is much the plaineſt, and the weſt moſt mountainous. The north and ſouth parts are very fruitful in corn, and full of towns, with good bays and harbours; in the midlands are plenty of cattle, eſpecially ſheep, whoſe wool is much eſteemed, as are alſo the hides of their black cattle, deer, and goats, which turn much to the profit of the inhabitants. On the ſouth ſide alſo there is much coal, and many ſalt-pans, where very good ſalt is made. At Dalgete is a quarry of excellent free-ſtone, and

near the water of Ore they find lead, as alſo many fine cryſtals of ſeveral colours at the Bin and at Orrock. They have likewiſe ſeveral mineral waters, as the ſpaw at Kinghorn and Balgrigie. It's chief rivers, the Leven and the Edin, abound with ſalmon, &c. The coaſt is well planted with little towns, that are the nurſeries of ſeamen, and the ſea, beſides other fiſh, as herrings, which are taken in great quantities in Auguſt and September, yields abundance of oyſters and ſhell-fiſh.

DUMFERMLIN, a pretty town, ſituated in the weſt end of this ſhire, is chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of diaper, and the better ſort of linen, which employs abundance of hands in this and the neighbouring towns.

BRUNTISLAND is a market-town on the Forth, over-againſt Leith, to which a paſſage-boat goes from hence every day; it has a ſafe harbour, where ſhips lie cloſe to the houſes; ſo that when forced up the Frith by gales, or contrary winds, they come hither for ſafety; and ſhips trading on this coaſt often winter here, there being at ſpring-tides 26 feet water within the harbour, which will contain 100 ſail: here is a manufacture of linen, as there is upon all the coaſt of Fife, eſpecially for green cloth, as they call it, which has been for ſeveral years in great demand in England, for printing or ſtaining, in the room of the prohibited callicoes.

KINGHORN, on the ſame coaſt, is noted for a thread manufacture chiefly carried on by the women, the men being generally mariners upon all this coaſt, as high as Queen's-Ferry. There is a ferry here alſo to Leith.

KIRKALDY, on the ſame coaſt, where it turns north-eaſt, is larger, more populous, and better built, than any other on this coaſt; 'tis reckoned a place of good trade, here being ſome conſiderable merchants, beſides large dealers in corn, who export great quantities both to England and Holland; and others who trade in linen to England.

DYSERT, on the ſame ſhore, has a harbour and a good trade in coal and ſalt, which, with a few nail-makers and workers in hard ware, is it's only ſupport.

FIG. The fig of the ſhops is the fruit of the common fig-tree, gathered when moderately ripe, not too mellow, and carefully dried in the ſun before packed up. They ſhould be choſen large, of a pale browniſh colour, ſoft and mellow, heavy, and when broken, yellowiſh and ſweet, and of a ſoft glutinous texture.

They have been long known in medicine.

Figs, as well freſh as dry, are very wholſome food; they are nouriſhing and emollient; they are good alſo in diſorders of the breaſt and lungs; but it is to be obſerved, that a too free uſe of them has ſometimes brought on obſtructions of the viſcera, which are common complaints alſo where they are eaten as food, as they are with bread, by the poor people in many parts of the Levant. They are frequently made ingredients in our pectoral decoctions, and are by ſome greatly recommended in nephritic complaints. They are much uſed externally by way of cataplaſm, either roaſted or boiled in milk, for the ripening of humours, and for eaſing the pain of the piles.

The fig delights in the ſame ſoil with the vine, and may be propagated either from ſuckers or layers, and alſo from ſeeds. The ſuckers are beſt ſeparated from the old roots the beginning of March, and ſhould be then tranſplanted without cutting any of their tops; for this, above all other trees, ſuffers moſt by amputation, and indeed ſhould never be pruned but in July. The layer ſhould be ordered like thoſe of the vine, and the ſeeds, as I have been informed, will readily come up if they are ſown in rubbiſh, or ſuch-like ſoil, about March. It is moſt common in England to plant fig-trees againſt walls, becauſe it has been thought they will not otherwiſe ripen in our climate, but that is a miſtake; for in ſeveral gardens about London, I have ſeen them grow in ſtandards, and proſper and bear fruit in more abundance; and much better, in my opinion, than any I have yet ſeen againſt walls; for as they are endangered by pruning, ſo they like as little the confinement they are obliged to againſt walls.

I have been told of a fig-tree near Windſor, ſays Mr Bradley, (that grows wild, without culture, in an old gravel-pit) which is ſo extremely large, that many buſhels of figs are gathered yearly from it; and I know of ſome old fig-trees that have been neglected for many years, which bear more fruit than any I have ever ſeen dreſſed and ordered in gardens; and it is the common practice abroad to plant them in certain places of their vineyards, and let them grow after their own manner without any interruption, ſo that with a very little difficulty this tree may be cultivated. The only art required in it's management, is to preſerve the ſecond figs during the winter, that the ſevere weather do not make them fall from the tree, but that they may be maintained in health to ripen early in the ſummer. I remember to have ſeen, at Dr Compton's, late biſhop of London's gardens at Fulham, ripe figs in May; which were brought to that forward perfection by keeping them in pots, and ſheltering them all the winter in a green-houſe.

Though with us we have not many varieties of this kind of fruit, yet are there as many ſorts of figs as of any other fruit, which in Spain and Italy are held in great eſteem. The white figs chiefly are valued by the curious for their delicate flavour, and early ripening, and might be much more ſo than they are in various parts of the territories belonging to Great Britain.

FISCAL, or ſollicitor, in Spain, is the king's mouth in cauſes wherein he is concerned, a check upon thoſe that manage the revenue, a ſpy upon thoſe who embezzle it, an informer againſt thoſe that defraud it, an agent, to improve it; and laſtly, a two-edged ſword in a civil and criminal capacity, to defend the patrimony of the crown; and therefore, this employment is of no leſs importance than honour, and has in this court of trade, as well as in all others, an equal place with the judges of both chambers. And it being the duty of this fiſcal, or ſollicitor, to ſee all the laws and ordinances obſerved, he has certainly the greateſt ſhare of buſineſs; ſo that the preſident and he may be accounted as two poles the whole affairs of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies turn upon.

This employment was firſt eſtabliſhed by his majeſty's order in the year 1546, for 'till then the commiſſioners of direction had appointed one to perform the duty of that place. The fiſcal, or ſollicitor, is to be either with the judges, directors, or lawyers, according as the preſident ſhall order; his ſeat in either chamber is next to the youngeſt judge. It is left to his choice, whether he will be preſent or no, when the commiſſioners, or judges directors, ſit about fitting out the armada's, and buying in ſtores and proviſions. If he has any thing to lay to the charge of maſters of ſhips or pilots, it muſt be done as ſoon as they arrive in the port, and the buſineſs muſt be decided with ſpeed.

He is to keep a book to ſet down all licences, and other orders, upon which ſecurity is taken to ſee the covenants performed. And another book of all ſuits he manages for the king, which are to be tried before any others; and this book he is to deliver to his ſucceſſor, and take a receipt for it. When ſhips return from the Indies, he is to be preſent with the commiſſioner that receives them, that he may enquire into all frauds and other offences committed during the voyage; and 'till that time, lay his accuſations immediately, and ſee the buſineſs decided without delay. It is his particular charge to enquire whether the ſhips, that ſail from the Canary-Iſlands, perform their duty, and to ſee thoſe puniſhed that do not; to have a hand in all ſuits ariſing upon accounts, and not to plead in any buſineſs that does not concern the king and his revenue.

In trials where the king is not concerned, if there wants a judge, the fiſcal or ſollicitor is to ſupply his place, as was ſaid before. All ſuits ariſing on account of the haberia, or convoy-duty, are to be managed by him; and he has power to inſpect all books, papers, and accounts, in any office. In caſe of ſickneſs or other lawful impediment on his ſide, a counſellor, or the deputy-fiſcal or ſollicitor, goes down to viſit the galleons or flota's, but never both together, becauſe one muſt always remain with the court. It has happened, that the commiſſioners being ſick, or otherwiſe employed, the fiſcal has been commiſſioned either to receive home bound ſhips, or clear thoſe outward bound. This perſon having ſuch multiplicity of buſineſs, and that ſo weighty on his hands, has many privileges to ſupport him, and forward his going through them.

His cauſes are to be heard and determined before any others, to be diſpatched with all brevity; and he can act, and bring proceſs on holidays. He cannot be confined as to time, and the adverſe party may be obliged to produce writing in favour of his allegations. Beſides, he may be preſent when the judges give their opinions, and cannot be compelled to ſwear to, or make out his allegations, though he is bound not to lay his action, unleſs there be an evidence, or common fame make for him. No fees can be demanded of him, nor of any body in his name, on account of the cauſes he has tried; nor can he be adjudged to pay coſts; nor can any goods, plate, ſilver, or jewels, belonging to the king, be diſpoſed of, without he intervenes; and, in ſhort, he enjoys all the privileges belonging to thoſe that are under age.

It is a point much controverted, whether the fiſcal or ſollicitor may be excepted againſt; but D. Gaſpar de Eſcalona ſays, he ſaw it allowed at Lima, upon occaſion of private enmity, no way grounded on the execution of his office proved upon him. Being his majeſty's ſollicitor, though he cannot alienate nor paſs a grant, yet he has power to compound differences, where he has little proſpect of getting the better, yet ſo as he muſt acquaint the king with it; and it muſt be in civil caſes, for in the criminal any compoſition is forbidden. The fiſcal of this court, that he may the better go through ſo much buſineſs, has an agent allowed him, whom he chuſes himſelf, and his ſalary is paid out of the fines to the king. This agent's buſineſs is to gather up the proceſſes and other papers the fiſcal is to ſee, giving a receipt for them where they are delivered to him, to carry them to be diſpatched, and write what is dictated to him, but he may not lay an action without ſpecial order for it.

FISHERIES.

Sea-fiſhing.

By the ordonnance of November 1684, in France, fiſhing is declared common to all the king's ſubjects, whether in the

open ſea or on the ſhores, but only with nets and engines permitted by the ſaid ordonnance.

Thoſe who follow the great fiſhery, as the cod, herring, and mackarel, on the Iriſh, Scotch, Engliſh, and American coaſts, and on the banks of Newfoundland, &c. muſt have licence from the admiral, or the governor of the place they ſail from.

As to the fiſhers of freſh fiſh, with boats that carry ſails and rudder, they are only obliged to take a licence yearly, nor need give any account on their return, unleſs in important matters, as ſeeing any wreck, ſome fleet, or the like, which they are to declare to the proper officers.

Inſtructions for thoſe who would engage in the whale-fiſhery in France.

The ports from which they uſually embark for Greenland, are Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Enchuyſen, Hoorn, Hamburgh, London, Bayonne, St Jean de Luz, St Sebaſtian, Rochelle, and ſome others. London is mentioned among the reſt, though not a ſea-port, becauſe it's merchants are moſt intereſted in this fiſhery of any cities in England, and 'tis the place where moſt Engliſh aſſociations are formed.

The engagements are uſually about the 10th or 15th of April.

The wages, given by merchants in company, are 15 livres or florins a month the firſt time, which are increaſed according to the voyages already made.

After being muſtered, they are paid one month's wages in advance. But their wages don't commence 'till they are at ſea.

They require for the voyage good coarſe cloaths.

Two good woollen blankets, about half a dozen ſhirts, five or ſix pair of coarſe ſtockings, as many pair of mittins at leaſt, ſtrong and thick ſhoes, a pair of furred boots, a barrel of brandy, gingerbread, ſome lemons, oranges, and raiſins, with about a hundred or two of good apples: but above all, a good bottle of vinegar, and ſome antiſcorbutics; which proviſions are the more neceſſary, the leſs they have been uſed to the ſea and fatigues of the voyage.

As to their food they have every morning boiled barley with butter, with cheeſe and biſcuit; for dinner, peaſe with bacon, ſalt meat, or ſtock-fiſh.

They are forced to eat heartily, that the cold ſeize not on them; beſides, their work is hard.

The aſſociated merchants of Amſterdam are the moſt intereſted in the whale-fiſhery.

Whales are taken near Iceland and on the Norway coaſt, but 'tis not the true fiſhery, which is chiefly from the ſouth-weſt part of Greenland to Spitſbergen.

There is no part of the whale eatable but the tongue, and a little of the fleſh about the tail, which is ſaid to be as good as freſh bacon; they cut it in ſmall ſlices, and broil it on the coals, and eat it with butter, ſalt, and pepper. There is a ſeaſon for whales, as for ſeveral other animals, which is in May, June, and July, when they follow each other in ſhoals, but without quitting the north ſeas. There are ſometimes at this fiſhery 7 or 800 boats together, with ſix men in each, having ropes, harpoons, and cutlaſſes; the harpooner is in the boat's bow.

They get not a like quantity of fat and oil from all, ſome being fatter than others; ſome will yield even 128 barrels of fat, and ſometimes more. Theſe barrels are uſually four feet high and two and a half wide. One ſhip will carry about 8 or 900 of them, ſo that eight or nine fiſh is a good capture for a ſhip.

A whale of 100 barrels of oil may ſell for 8 or 9000 francs, and the reſt from 15 to 1800 livres: whence may be ſeen the immenſe profits of this fiſhery when it ſucceeds, but ſometimes they loſe their ſtock inſtead of gaining.

When the fiſhery has not been good on the Greenland coaſt, they ſtand away north-eaſt, and fiſh in the Iceland ſea; but the fiſh are neither ſo fat nor well eſteemed, nor of the ſame ſort. They don't yield commonly more than 50 or 60 barrels of oil.

We have already obſerved the wages are 15 livres a month for the firſt time, but, to be more exact, the rowers have from 15 to 20, the harpooners from 25 to 30, and the captain from 80 to 100 livres; beſides which wages, the crew has on every barrel or ton of fat 25 or 30 ſols.

There are ſome other more important fiſheries, in the Indian, American, and Mediterranean ſeas; as the pearl, coral, and tortoiſe-fiſheries. Beſide the freſh fiſhery carried on in boats with ſails, there are others on the ſhores, and in bays, and mouths of navigable rivers, with various ſorts of nets.

There are alſo ſmall fiſheries permitted at certain ſeaſons, and prohibited at others. Of which number are thoſe of cray-fiſh, ſhrimps, &c. The muſcle-fiiſhery has a place alſo in the French ordinance, and is under certain regulations.

Of river fiſhing and freſh water fiſh.

This is performed either with lines, nets, or engines. That with the line and hook is free, and allowed to every body in France. That with engines and a line, to thoſe only who have a right to fiſh on rivers.

None of theſe truly merit the name of fiſhing but that with an engine, angling being a mere diverſion. The engine fiſhing is, however, prohibited in France.

The time of river fiſhing is to be between ſun and ſun, that in the night being prohibited.

The makes of their nets are to be formed on a mould of an inch in diameter, but all ſorts of nets are not permitted.

FISHERY is uſed in particular of ſome parts of the eaſt or weſt ſea, and even ſome rivers where they fiſh for pearl-oyſters.

The eaſtern fiſheries are thoſe of the iſle of Bahren in the Perſian gulph, of Carifa in Arabia Fœlix, of Manar on the coaſts of the iſle of Ceylon, and ſome others of the Japan coaſts.

The Weſt-India fiſheries are all in the gulph of Mexico, along the coaſt of Terra Firma, amongſt others at Cutagna, Marguarita, Comogote, Rencherie, and St Martha. Laſtly, the European fiſheries, which are the leaſt conſiderable, are along the Scottiſh coaſts, and in a river in the dominions of the elector of Bavaria in Germany.

FISHERY. The word is meant alſo of the places appointed for fiſhing on the ſhores and coaſts of the ſea, and in bays and rivers mouths. They have different names according to their conſtruction, and the different nets uſed; and are all permitted by the ordinances of the marine of France in 1681 and 1684, but under certain conditions therein ſpecified.

The marine ordinances regulate the police of ſea-fiſhers, and thoſe of the waters and foreſts of Paris the river-fiſhers. The former are uſually diſtinguiſhed into three ſorts, namely, thoſe of the great fiſhery; thoſe of the freſh fiſhery, with boats having maſt, ſails, and rudder; thirdly, thoſe of the freſh fiſhery alſo, but on the ſhores and in bays, and inlets of rivers.

With regard to the freſh fiſhery with boats having maſt, ſails, and rudder. The fiſher, fiſhing in the night-time, is to ſhew a light three different times when he caſts his nets.

Dredger's boats that cannot lie by, becauſe of ſome accident, muſt ſhew a light while they are in the place where their nets are foul.

No fiſherman may caſt his nets, where he may prejudice thoſe who have been there before him.

Fiſhermen going in a fleet may not quit their ſtation to go elſewhere, when others of the fleet have caſt their nets.

Every maſter of a boat is to take a licence yearly, at the ſame time regiſtering the name, age, and abode of his boat's crew.

Laſtly, every fiſherman of the age of 18 years and upwards, going to ſea, is obliged on the 1ſt day of Lent every year to enliſt himſelf. And, in places where there are eight maſter fiſhermen, one is to be elected for warden of their company, who is ſworn, and daily inſpects the nets, reporting treſpaſſes againſt the ordinances.

The fiſhermen on the river of the city and ſuburbs of Paris, are not a ſworn body.

The regulation of the waters and foreſts for freſh water fiſhing.

'Tis comprized in the ordinance of 1669, and contains 26 articles, the moſt eſſential of which we ſhall inſert here.

1. None except maſter fiſhermen may fiſh in navigable rivers, on pain of 50 livres fine, forfeiture of the fiſh, nets, and other utenſils, for the firſt offence, 100 livres fine for the ſecond, with a like fine, and ſevere puniſhment.
2. None may be received maſter under 20 years of age.
3. The maſter fiſhermen of every city or port, if they are eight or more, are to elect yearly a maſter of the company, for prevention of abuſes. If not in ſufficient number, ſeveral maſters of neighbouring places unite to form the election.
4. None may fiſh on Sundays and holidays; to prevent which, every maſter muſt on the eve of thoſe days carry his nets and engines after ſun-ſet to the houſe of the company's maſter, whence he is not to have them 'till after ſun-riſe of the day following the feſtivals.
5. None may fiſh at any ſeaſon, but from riſing to ſetting of the ſun, except under bridges and mills.
6. None may fiſh in ſpawning time; to wit, in rivers where trout abound more than other fiſh, from the 1ſt of February to the middle of March: and in others from the 1ſt of April to the 1ſt of June, on pain of 20 livres fine and one month's impriſonment for the firſt offence, double fine and impriſonment for the ſecond, and for the third of pilloring, whipping, and baniſhment from the diſtrict for five years. But ſalmon, ſhad, and lamprey-fiſhing are excepted from this prohibition.
7. Fiſhermen are to caſt in again trouts, carp, bremes, that are under ſix inches between the eye and the tail, and all tench, perch, and roach, that are under five.
8. All the fiſhermen's gins are to be marked with lead, having the king's arms, and round the name of the freedom, the ſtamp of which is to be kept in the regiſtry of the reſpective freedoms.
9. None may throw into rivers chalk, nux vomica, mummy, or other drugs, on pain of corporal puniſhment.
10. None may break the ice on ponds and moats, or carry flambeaux and other fires thither, on pain of puniſhment as for theft.

11. The cognizance of the offences committed by maſter-fiſhermen and others on navigable rivers, ſhall belong to the officers of the waters and foreſts, and not to the judges.
12. The maſter, &c. of the waters and foreſts, may inſpect the veſſels of fiſhermen; and if they find any fiſh under ſize, they are to make verbal proceſs, and ſummon the fiſhermen to anſwer for the offence, but without expence.
13. The officers, finding prohibited engines, are to burn them, and fine thoſe on whom they are found.

FISHERS of whales. Is ſaid equally of the owners of the ſhips uſing that fiſhery, and of the ſailors that mann them.

The body of whale-fiſhers in Holland, are an aſſociation of the principal merchants of it's cities, or of the maſters and pilots who go thither in their own ſhips. They have no excluſive privilege, any being allowed to go or ſend others; but all, if they go in a fleet, are equally obliged to ſubmit to the orders of commiſſaries deputed by the aſſociation, to which they muſt ſwear to be conformable before their departure.

A general regulation for the whale-fiſhery in Holland.

It conſiſts of twelve articles.
1. When a ſhip is ſtranded, and the maſter and company ſaved, the firſt ſhip that finds them muſt take them. On meeting with a ſecond ſhip, this laſt is to take half the crew ſaved, unleſs they have already other ſhipwrecked men on board, in which caſe the diviſion is to be equal between the two ſhips; the like to be obſerved for all others they ſhall meet afterwards.
2. The victuals, brought by the ſhipwrecked men on board the veſſels that take them up, are to be conſumed by themſelves, and divided with thoſe of them who are paſſed into other ſhips; if they bring none with them, they are to be maintained out of charity for their work.
3. If a ſhip runs aſhore with her cargo, the maſter, pilot, or other repreſenting them, may ſave the ſhipwrecked effects, and treat with whom they pleaſe for ſalvage and charge of them: but 'tis free to the maſters of other ſhips to take or refuſe the ſaid effects.
4. Any maſter of a ſhip being where there is a ſhipwreck, and the effects abandoned, he may take the whole or part of what he finds, whether it be rigging, utenſils, fat, whales whiſkers, &c. And, on arriving at the port of Holland whence he ſailed, he is to deliver one moiety to the owners free of freight, and all other charges whatever.
5. If a ſhip ſtranded be left by her crew, they have no right to any of the effects ſaved.
6. But when the ſhip's crew are preſent and aiding in ſaving the effects, they are intitled to one fourth part; to wit, their wages agreed for, if hired by the month: and thoſe that are otherwiſe hired, at the rate of 20 florins. If the fourth part of the effects ſaved doth not ſuffice to pay this, both are to loſe their proportion; if any overplus, it goes to theſe armateurs.
7. The maſter of a ſhip, ſaving ſhipwrecked effects, partakes with thoſe of his crew who are hired differently than by the month, but thoſe of the crew who are hired by the month do not ſhare.
8. Goods and effects ſaved, being loaded in ſome other veſſel, are ſubject to loſs and damage, as the proper effects of the veſſel.
9. He who has killed a fiſh in the ice but can't get it alongſide, remains owner as long as ſome of his men watch it; but if left, the next maſter that comes may take it, though the fiſh be faſtened to a piece of ice.
10. If any one taking a fiſh be near the ſhore, he may faſten it to an anchor, and there leave it with a mark or buoy, and it ſhall belong to him alone.
11. If in going to, or returning from, the fiſhery in a fleet, any one be wounded or maimed in a defence againſt enemies, the commiſſioners of the fiſhery are to procure him reaſonable recompence, to which all the fleet muſt contribute.
12. Any caſe happening, not mentioned in the regulation, is to be determined by arbitration.

Beſide this general regulation, which all muſt ſwear to obſerve before their departure, there's another relating to each particular crew, which all the officers and ſailors are likewiſe ſworn to obſerve in preſence of one of the commiſſioners, who comes on board every ſhip for that purpoſe. The contract is is in the following terms.

A charter-party between the captains, whale-fiſhers, and their crews.

We the officers and ſailors are hired with capt. N. N. —— commander of the ſhip ——— to go this year ——— to the whale-fiſhery, at a price agreed on between us, promiſing to obey the ſaid captain in all things both at ſea and on ſhore, and to him who ſhall ſucceed him in caſe of death.
Firſt, We promiſe to attend morning and evening at prayers, with devotion and modeſty, on pain of ſuch fine as the captain ſhall think fit.
2. We promiſe not to get drunk, quarrel, or mutiny, nor to caſt any thing at another, nor to ſtrike, or draw a knife, on pain of loſing half the wages.
3. If any one, having a quarrel, comes to blows, and wounds another, he ſhall loſe his wages, and ſhall be put into the hands of a magiſtrate, according to the nature of the caſe.
4. None of the crew may lay wagers on the ſucceſs of their fiſhing.
5. If the captain think fit to fiſh in company with ſome other, the crew are to aſſiſt him with whom he aſſociates, as if he were their own captain, on pain of 25 florins.
6. The crew are to be content with the victuals diſtributed to them by the captain's order, on the ſame penalty.
7. If by the length of the voyage, or taking on board ſhipwrecked men, proviſions run ſhort, they are to be content with the allowance ordered by the captain, on the ſame penalty.
8. Promiſing likewiſe not to kindle fire, candle, or match, by day or night, without leave of the captain, on the ſame penalty.
9. The captain on his part promiſeth, that if any one be wounded and maimed in defending the ſhip, he ſhall have recompence according to the laws of the country, or by accommodation to the content of the parties.
10. Any of the crew giving uſeful notice of evil or prejudice intended the ſhip or goods, ſhall receive good recompence.
11. Caſes not ſpecified in this charter-party ſhall be determined according to the uſage and cuſtoms of the ſea.

Made on board the ſhip, &c.

After this is read, the commiſſioner and captain, ſitting in the cabbin, call in the crew to receive the uſual gratification, and an aſſurance of another ſum at their return, according as the fiſhery proves.

The captain receives for his gratification from 100 to 150 florins, even more according to his ſkill and reputation, beſides ſo much on the quantity of fat produced, according to the agreement made with thoſe who fit out the veſſels.

The pilot receives from 40 to 60 florins; and, on return, what is agreed on, in proportion to the ſucceſs of the voyage.

Every harpooner from 40 to 50 florins; and ſo much as agreed on in proportion to the ſucceſs.

Every cutter of the fat, who are commonly harpooners alſo, receive on return home 5 florins for every whale, beſide their proportion as harpooners.

The carpenter, who is by the month, has 36 florins.

The ſurgeon 28 florins.

The mate 26 florins.

The ſteward, who hath charge of the proviſions, 26 florins.

Every experienced ſailor, from 18 to 20 florins.

Every leſs experienced ſailor, from 12 to 13 florins.

The ſame is to be underſtood of thoſe who go by the month.

Thoſe who mann the boats, have, beſide their wages, 2 or 3 florins for every whale they take. Sometimes they have granted them in proportion to the fat, and from 16 to 20 florins gratification, but then they are by the month.

The ſailor who has the care of the line in the boat, receives, beſides his wages, 30 or 40 s. the whale.

Laſtly, ſailors who do not go by the month, receive for their gratification from 9 to 15 florins, and at their return for every whale 15 or 16 florins.

'Tis but ſince the middle of the 17th century, that the Dutch have ſeriouſly applied themſelves to the whale-fiſhery; but with ſuch great ſucceſs, that 'tis at preſent one of the chief branches of their commerce.

They attempted at firſt to make their ſettlements in Greenland, but not ſucceeding, they fixed their fiſhery on the coaſt of Spitſberg, which extends north and ſouth from 76 degrees 40 minutes, to 80 degrees of north latitude, and from eaſt to weſt about 89 leagues.

'Tis on the weſt coaſt of this country, within a compaſs of about 60 leagues, that they fiſh; the eaſt coaſt not being ſo proper, by reaſon 'tis almoſt always full of ice.

The rendezvous for the departure of their fleet, though not fixed, is commonly the bay of Kokbay, in which is Klokrinier.

Private adventurers ſending a ſhip in the fleet, having appointed an able commander, have both examined and inſpected by the commiſſaries of the cities that compoſe the body of whale-fiſhers, and have charge of that navigation.

When the fleet is ready for ſailing from the Texel, coaſting pilots are put on board every veſſel by the commiſſioners, to conduct them over the banks.

The fleet uſually takes it's courſe by the iſles of Iceland; after which, leaving them on the eaſt, they ſtand away north into 74 and 75 degrees of latitude, where they begin to meet with ice, and to ſee whales, ſo that moſt of the veſſels lie to here to fiſh. But as the whales are both larger and fatter further north, ſome captains will venture as far as 80 and 82 degrees.

We ſhall here add ſome particulars, concerning the cargo of a Dutch ſhip, and the ſtate of the produce of this fiſhery in 1697, the moſt conſiderable of any made in 60 years and upwards.

A veſſel of 300, or 320 tons, has ſix boats, with ſix harpooners to each, and five ſailors to row, with whom one of the harpooners rows in the bow, and another in the ſtern, theſe boats having no rudder. Every boat muſt have ſeven lines, of three inches circumference, five in the ſtern, and two in the bow, in readineſs for uſe. The five make together 600 fathoms, which added to the other two, the whole length is 880 fathoms. If the whale plunges further, or runs under the ice, they muſt cut to ſave themſelves.

Each boat has two cheſts, to lay their harpoons, lances, knives, and other implements in.

When a fiſh is ſtruck and taken, they cut off the tail and fins, and, laſhing a long rope in the place where the tail was, haul it to the ſhip.

As long as they ſee whales, they loſe no time in cutting up what they have taken, but keep fiſhing for others; when they ſee no more, or have taken enough, they begin with taking off the fat and whiſkers, in the following manner:

The whale being laſhed alongſide, they lay it on one ſide, and put two ropes, one at the head, and the other in the place of the tail, to keep thoſe extremities above water. On the off ſide of the whale are two boats, to receive the pieces of fat, utenſils, and men, that may fall into the water on that ſide. Theſe precautions being taken, three or four men, with irons at their feet, to prevent ſlipping, get on the whale, and begin to cut out pieces of about three feet thick, and eight long, which are hauled up at the capſtane, or windlaſs. When the fat is all got off, they cut off the whiſkers of the upper jaw with an ax. Before they cut, they are all laſhed, to keep them firm, which alſo facilitates the cutting, and prevents their falling into the ſea. When on board, five or ſix of them are bundled together, and properly ſtowed. After all is got off, they turn the carcaſs adrift, which is good food to the bears, who are very fond of it.

As the great pieces are hoiſted in, they are cut into ſmaller by them on board, and the lean, if any, taken off, and thrown into the hold, 'till they have leiſure, and all is got on board, when they ſtow them in the caſks very cloſe.

When all is ſtowed, and the decks cleaned and ſanded, the captain prepares for ſailing for Holland, if in time of peace; but if the United Provinces are engaged in war, they have private orders to meet at a certain place of rendezvous, appointed by the commiſſioners, where they find convoy ready to join them.

The cargo of a Dutch veſſel going to the whale-fiſhery.

They are commonly from 2 to 300 tons burden, carrying from 36 to 42 hands.

They are freighted at the rate of 2750 florins, if 250 tons, and in proportion, if of more or leſs burden. Every ſhip has 3, 4, or 6 boats, according to it's bulk. The boats have tarpaulins to cover them, in caſe of rain; they have compaſſes, in caſe of thick weather, and 10 horns to blow with; 20 or 30 little iron hammers to break the ice with; 50 oars; 65 lances, to attack the whale with when ſtruck.

70 or 80 harpoons.

8 leſſer ones of iron, and longer ones of wood.

6 knives, to cut the tail and whiſkers.

24 lances for the ſea-calves.

12 knives to cut the fat from the whale.

6 great knives, for the ſailors to defend themſelves from the bears with when they go on ſhore, or to kill the ſea-calves.

18 knives to cut the fat with on board.

12 little gaffes, with handles.

12 other larger ones, which the Dutch call malemokahaak.

8 chopping-knives.

12 leſſer knives for the boats.

2 large wooden mallets.

6 chandeliers, to lay the boat's maſt on.

12 grapples, to hang the fat on.

4 axes, to cut off the whiſkers, and ſeparate them from the jaw, by ſtriking on the head of the ax.

24 axes to cut the ice with.

6 pair of cramp-irons for the carver's ſhoes.

6 peculiar ancres, or ſort of inſtruments, uſed to hold the whiſkers when cut.

2 crows, to put in the whale's noſtrils, to keep the head above water.

12 axes, to adjuſt and cut the whiſkers.

18 hand-hooks, to take the pieces of fat with.

60 lines for the harpoons.

2 cheſts to ſtow the fiſhing utenſils in.

2 cheſts in each boat for the ſame utenſils:

3 carpenter's ſheers, to cut the whiſkers.

6 boat anchors with their painters.

6 iron wedges, to ſplit the whalebone and the ice, &c.

The produce of a whale-fiſhery.

We chuſe to inſtance in that of the Dutch in 1697; we ſhall alſo add that of other nations, that went to Spitſberg the ſame year; amongſt which we find no French ſhips, by reaſon of the war. There were, that year, 189 ſhips, of different nations, of which the Dutch muſtered 121; the fleet ſet ſail 129, but eight were loſt. The Hamburghers had 47, out of 51, the reſt being loſt. The Swedes had 2, the Danes 4, the Bremeners 12, thoſe of Embden 2, and the Lubeckers 1. The whales taken amounted to 1968; viz. 1255 by the Dutch, 449½ by the Hamburghers, the Swedes 113, the Danes 52, the Bremeners 96, and thoſe of Embden 2.

The Dutch had 41,344 quarteaux of fat, Hamburgh 16,414, Sweden 540, the Danes 1710, Bremen 3790, and Embden 68.

Of the laws of England with regard to fiſheries.

* If the ſalt deſigned for the curing of any fiſh for exportation, or of herrings for home conſumption, is, upon landing, and after weighing in the preſence of a proper officer, deſired to be accordingly ſecured in proper cellars or warehouſes, under the joint lock and key of the proprietor and the ſaid officer, there to remain during the ſeveral intervals of the reſpective fiſhing-ſeaſons; though ſuch ſalt is exempted from the new duty, and the additional impoſt of 5 s. the wey, yet after the landing and weighing, an entry of the exact quantity lodged muſt be made by the proprietor or his agent, and an account taken by the officer: and the ſaid new duty, and additional impoſt, muſt be particularly expreſſed on the bills and warrant, and charged in the ſeveral books, as if the money had been actually received.

* 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 1, 3, 10. 8 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 1, 2, 3, 6. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10, 16.

And as at the beginning of each fiſhing-ſeaſon, the ſalt is to be re-delivered to the fiſh-curers, or their agents, upon their oaths to the quantity, and that it is intended to be only ſo uſed, they are to be reſpectively charged with it by the collector and comptroller, as well as by the proper officer taking charge of the cellars. And ‡ the ſaid oath to be taken by the proprietor, or his agent, before the officer's lock is taken off, muſt be as follows:

‡ 5 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 1.

Edmund Trot, curer of fiſh [or his agent] maketh oath, That he hath lodged in his cellars, at ————, four thouſand buſhels of foreign ſalt, which is all intended to be uſed for the curing of fiſh for exportation only; and that no part ſhall, by his order, conſent, or connivance, directly or indirectly, be ſold, given away, or any ways delivered, but for the purpoſe aforeſaid, except ſo much as ſhall be uſed for curing ſuch herrings as ſhall be entered for home-conſumption, and be charged with the duty thereon.

Signed—Edmund Trot.

Jurat' 10° die Februarii, coram me A. B. Collector.

Whereupon the ſalt muſt be delivered to the proprietor, or his agent, and the oath regularly filed, and preſerved in the office.

† And the proper officer is, during the fiſhing-ſeaſon, frequently to viſit the cellars and warehouſes of fiſh-curers, to view and inſpect them, and to gauge the ſalt, if neceſſary, for diſcovery of any frauds.

† 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 2. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

‖ And, as ſoon as each fiſhing-ſeaſon is over, the officer who had care of the cellared ſalt is to take account of what remains in the hands of the fiſh-curers reſpectively; which, being weighed, muſt be locked up in the joint cuſtody of the ſaid officer and the proprietor, or his agent, who are, as ſoon as poſſible, to deliver an account in writing of the quantity of foreign ſalt received, of the fiſh exported, or entered, or red or white-herrings delivered for home-conſumption, and the duties paid, on which the ſalt has been uſed, with certificates by the proper officers where the fiſh were exported, verifying the account, to be affirmed alſo by the oath of the proprietor, or his agent, uſing the ſalt: ſo that the quantity of fiſh cured, and ſalt uſed, and remaining, may appear on oath:** which account muſt be made up within three months at fartheſt after Lady-day yearly, as follows; viz.

‖ 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1. 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 3. 8 Geo. I. cap. 16. §. 3. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10.
** 8 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 6.

Port of Southampton. No. 1.

Edmund Trot, curer of fiſh at ————, his account of the foreign ſalt received into his cuſtody, and of the quantities of fiſh exported, or entered and ſhipped to be exported, on which the ſaid foreign ſalt, taken away after it's delivery into his ſole cuſtody, has been uſed or conſumed, from the 25th day of March, 1730, to the 25th day of March, 1731.

Debtor.

Debtor.	For ſalt, at 84 lb. to the buſhel.	
	buſh.	lib.
Foreign ſalt delivered into his ſole cuſtody, viz.		
Foreign ſalt remaining in cellars at the end of laſt ſeaſon, viz.		
Clean - -	189	18
Returned -	54	7
Foreign ſalt imported ſince - - -	4000	—
Foreign ſalt brought coaſtwiſe, viz.		
From George Dale of Pool - - -	130	29
Foreign ſalt received from other curers within this port, viz.		
From Francis Dines. No. 2. - - -	210	57
	4584	27

Creditor.	For ſalt, at 84 lb. to the buſhel.	
	buſh.	lib.
Salt ſent coaſtwiſe, or delivered to other curers, viz.		
To Henry Ford at Weymouth - - -	384	57
To William Longcroft, No. 4. - -	394	71
Uſed or conſumed by him in curing of nine hundred and eighty barrels of ſalmon, three hundred and twenty barrels of white herrings exported, and of ten thouſand red, and twenty-five barrels and ſixteen gallons of white herrings, cured with foreign ſalt, and entered for home-conſumption, and duty paid as by certificates. The particulars of which are endorſed on this account, and the duty of the herrings charged on the 8th of March, 1730, No. 5. -	3115	38
Locked up by the officer 'till next ſeaſon, viz.		
Clean - -	582	16
Returned -	107	13
	4584	27

Edmund Trot [or his agent] who uſed the three thouſand, one hundred, and fifteen buſhels, and thirty-eight pounds, of foreign ſalt above-mentioned, maketh oath, That the account above written is true.

Signed—Edmund Trot.

Jurat' 18° die Martii 1730, coram me A. B. Collector.

Certificates of the exportation of the fiſh cured with foreign ſalt within mentioned.

No.	When ſhipped.	From what port.	Ship's name.	Maſter's name.	Whither bound.	Dates of the certificates.		Salmon.		White herrings.	
						Month.	Day.	Bar.	Gal.	Bar.	Gal.
1	3 March	Southampton	Henry and Anne	George Crew	Leghorn	March	8	980	——	320	——
	15	Ditto	James	Benjamin Jones	Liſbon	March	21	——	——	——	——

Port of Southampton.

Theſe are to certify, That the ſalmon and herrings above-mentioned are ſhipped for exportation, as above ſpecified. Witneſs our hands the 24th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Searcher.
B. C. Aſſiſtant-Searcher.

Port of Southampton.

Theſe are to certify, That the duties for ten thouſand red, and twenty-five barrels and ſixteen gallons of white herrings, within-mentioned to be entered for home-conſumption, are actually paid. Witneſs our hands this 24th day of March, 1730.

C. D. Collector.
D. E. Comptroller.

* And, if any of the aforeſaid ſalt be delivered to other fiſh-curers, and be uſed by them, the ſeveral quantities ſo delivered muſt be expreſſed in the account; and all thoſe to whom it has been delivered, are likewiſe upon oath to make another account of the particular quantity uſed by each in curing: which account, with the proper certificates, are to be ſent to the office, there to remain.

* 5 Geo. cap. 18. §. 1.

† And, when any ſalt, delivered out to the proprietors for the fiſhery, is by them, or agents, delivered to any other perſon, ſuch proprietor, or agent, is by oath, or otherwiſe, to make it appear to the ſatisfaction of the proper officer, that ſuch ſalt was uſed in curing of fiſh.

† 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. §. 4.

And the officer having care of the ſalt, and inſpection of the fiſh-curers cellars, is, at Midſummer yearly, or as ſoon as the fiſh-curers accounts are made up, to deliver to the collector his general account of all the ſalt received and delivered, &c. by each reſpective fiſh-curer, with the particular accounts of each of the ſaid curers, under his inſpection, regularly atteſted and vouched: the aſſiſtant-ſearcher's account muſt be in form following, viz.

Port of Southampton,

The aſſiſtant-ſearcher's annual abſtract of the ſeveral accounts of the curers of fiſh, from the 25th of December 1730, to the 25th of December 1731.

No.	The charge, being the ſalt deliverd into their ſole cuſtody.									No. referring to the curers account	Curers names and places of abode.	The diſcharge, being the ſalt uſed, &c.												
	Salt remaining laſt ſeaſon.		Salt imported in this year.		Salt brought coaſtwiſe in this year		Salt received of other curers in this port in this year.		Total.			Salt ſent coaſtwiſe.		Salt delivered to other curers within this port.		Salt uſed in curing of fiſh.		Salt deſtroyed in the preſence of an officer.		Salt waſted in cellars.		Salt remaining in cellars the 25th of Decem. 1731.		Total.	
	Buſh.	Gal.	Buſh.	Gal.	Buſh.	Gal.	Buſh.	Gal.	Buſh.	Gal.																
1	27	5	3380	3	18	6	59	7	3486	5	3	G. S. at D.	109	5	59	7	3152	3	46	—	15	2	109	4	3486	5
2	243	2	4000	—	130	3	210	6	4584	3	1	E. T. at R.	384	6	394	7	3115	4	——	—	——	—	689	2	4584	3
3	15	3	416	4	42	—	27	5	501	4	2	F. D. at K.	48	3	210	6	141	2	10	—	3	5	87	4	501	4
4	109	7	150	3	13	2	394	7	668	3	4	W. L. at R.	30	—	27	5	579	3	——	—	7	3	24	—	668	3
	396	1	7947	2	204	3	693	1	9240	7			572	6	693	1	6988	4	56	—	26	2	910	2	9240	7

And of the ſalt ſecured in cellars for the fiſhery, and re-delivered as aforeſaid, the collector is alſo, at Chriſtmas yearly, to ſtate a ſeparate account in the following form, viz.

Port

Port of Southampton.

The collector's annual account-current of ſalt imported for the fiſhery, from the 25th of December 1730, to the 25th of December 1731.

In what officer's ſtation.	No.	Charge.										No. referring to the curers account	Curers names and places of abode.	Diſcharge.													
		Salt remaining in cellars the 25th of Decem. 1730.		Salt imported in the time of this account.		Salt brought from other ports.		Salt received from other curers of fiſh in this port		Total.				Salt ſent to other ports.		Salt delivered to other curers within this port.		Salt deſtroyed in the preſence of an officer.		Salt waſted.		Salt uſed in curing of fiſh.		Salt remaining in cellars the 25th of Decem. 1731.		Total.	
		Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.			Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.	Buſh.	Gall.
A. B.	1	27	5	3380	3	18	6	59	7	3486	5	3	G. S. at D.	109	5	59	7	40	—	15	2	3152	3	109	4	3486	5
B. C.	2	243	2	4000	—	130	3	210	6	4584	3	1	E. T. at R.	384	6	394	7	—	—	—	—	3115	4	689	2	4584	3
C. D.	3	15	3	416	4	42	—	27	5	501	4	2	F. D. at K.	48	3	210	6	10	—	3	5	141	2	87	4	501	4
D. E.	4	109	7	150	3	13	2	394	7	668	3	4	W. L. at R.	30	—	27	5	—	—	7	3	579	3	24	—	668	3
		396	1	7947	2	204	3	693	1	9240	7			572	6	693	1	50	—	26	2	6988	4	910	2	9240	7

And on the back muſt be another ſtate, not only of the quantities of ſalt, but of the duties:
The debtor ſide to contain—The total amount of all ſalt imported for the fiſhery in that year; as alſo the duty for any foreign ſalt belonging to fiſh-curers, brought into the diſtricts of that collection, from any other port or collection.
The creditor ſide to contain—The ſalt uſed in curing of fiſh, or delivered to the charge of other collectors.

Fiſh of Britiſh taking and curing.

* As they may be exported duty free, proof muſt be made on the bill of entry that they are ſo taken; † and, as upon the exportation of ſuch as are well cured and merchantable, the exporter is intitled to an allowance or premium, to be paid out of the new duty on ſalt, &c. therefore, as a foundation for granting a debenture in order to obtain the ſame, proof muſt be likewiſe made on the bill of entry, that they are duly intitled thereto, as in the following example:

* 2 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 6. 8 Geo. I. cap. 15. §. 8.
† 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 16. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 6. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6. 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 8, 9.

27th of February 1730.———No. 33.
In the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights.

Thomas Fielding.

Sixty-eight barrel of Salmon, of Britiſh taking and curing.
Thomas Fielding maketh oath, That the ſixty-eight barrels of ſalmon above-mentioned, which are now to be exported in the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, are of Britiſh taking, and that all and every part thereof are well cured and merchantable.

Thomas Fielding.

Jurat' 27° die Febr. 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

And, before any cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, may be ſhipped for exportation, the ſearcher muſt cut out part of the tail of every ſuch fiſh with a punch; and alſo, before the ſhipping of pilchards, ſcads, herrings, ſalmon, and dried red ſprats, he muſt mark or brand every caſk with the letters E. A. on the middle of two ſeveral ſide ſtaves, to denote the exportation; having firſt carefully gauged the ſame, and examined whether they be well cured, merchantable, and full packed. And then they may be ſhipped off only at a lawful key, unleſs otherwiſe permitted by ſpecial ſufferance and leave, firſt had from the principal officers of the port.
Whilſt the fiſh are ſhipping, the ſearcher, or aſſiſtant-ſearcher, are to enter, in a particular book to be kept for that purpoſe, the number of hogſheads of pilchards, and barrels of ſalmon, herrings, and ſprats, and the number and weight of cod-fiſh, ling, and hake, expreſſing, in proper and diſtinct columns, their different ſizes and ſpecies, with the day of the months on which they were ſhipped, the names of the exporters, maſter, ſhip, and port, for which they are entered.
And, where pilchards and herrings are taken and cured, the officer appointed for that purpoſe muſt inſpect the quantity, quality, and ſize of ſuch fiſh, when they come to be barrelled, to prevent the ill and under packing of them, and to ſee that no bad or unmerchantable fiſh be barrelled up.
Fiſh, taken or imported by ſtrangers, may not be dried within Great-Britain to be ſold, upon forfeiture, or the value, to any perſon that will ſeize the fiſh, or ſue for the value; to be applied to the repair and maintenance of the port, &c. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 6.
Fiſh-herring, cod, pilchards, ſalmon, or ling, freſh, ſalted, dried, or bloated, gril, mackarel, whiting, haddock, ſprats, cole-fiſh, gull-fiſh, congers, any ſort of flat fiſh, and any other ſort of freſh fiſh; may not be imported into, or ſold in England, having been taken by, bought of, or received from foreigners, or out of a foreigner's ſhip (except Proteſtant ſtrangers inhabiting this kingdom) upon forfeiture thereof, and the ſhip and tackle, and alſo 100 l. by every offender herein. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 16. 18 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 2. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. §. 13. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.
Except eels, ſtock-fiſh, anchovies, ſturgeon, botargo, and cavear. 32 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. §. 13, 14. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 3.
Lobſters or turbets, which may be imported in any ſhip, and by any perſon, whether of Britiſh or foreign catching. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 10.
Maſters of ſmacks, hoys, &c. bringing in fiſh of foreign taking, &c. are to forfeit 50 l. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 2. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.
But proſecution muſt be commenced within twelve months after the offence be committed. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 9. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 2.
The forfeitures above may be recovered by any informer in any of the courts of Weſtminſter-Hall, and diſtributed, one moiety to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh where the offence is committed. 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1.
Herrings, pilchards, ſcads, cod-fiſh, ling, hake, ſalmon, or dried red ſprats, by whomſoever caught or cured, may not be imported, unleſs oath be made before the ſalt-officer, by the owner of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, that all the ſalt wherewith they were cured was taken on board in Great-Britain, mentioning the time and place, and that no drawback was, or is intended to be obtained for the ſame; upon forfeiture, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 14. 2 and 3 Ann. cap. 14. §. 13.
Herrings, white or red, to be packed in lawful barrels, juſtly and exactly laid by ſworn packers, who are to brand the caſk with a mark, denoting the gauge, quantity, quality, and condition of the herrings, and the place where packed. Magiſtrates, neglecting to appoint and ſwear ſuch packers yearly, forfeit 100 l. 15 Car. II. cap. 16. §. 1. 5 Ann. cap. 8. §. 8.
Herring-barrels to contain 32 gallons. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. §. 5.
Salmon-barrels to contain 42 gallons. 22 Edw. IV. cap. 2. §. 1. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 15.
Herring and ſalmon exported in barrels of any other ſize (except half-barrels) not intitled to the bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 15, 16.
Pilchards exported, the words ſeyn or drift muſt be burned with an iron, in ſome viſible part of the caſk, or hogſhead, with the number and ſirname of the owner, and the number of pilchards contained in each, upon forfeiture of double the value of the fiſh. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 31.
Pilchards, ſcads, cod-fiſh, ling, hake, red or white herrings, exported from Great-Britain, the exporter to make oath before the principal officers of the port, that they were Britiſh taken, and really exported for parts beyond ſeas, and not re-landed, or intended to be re-landed in Great-Britain.
The ſalt-officer is to pay the debenture within 30 days after demand, or, if he has not ſufficient money in his hands, to give a certificate thereof gratis, and without delay, upon penalty of the forfeiture of double the ſum to the party grieved; and, upon ſuch certificate, the commiſſioners of exciſe upon ſalt are chargeable with the payment.
But, if exported from Scotland, to be paid by the commiſſioners of exciſe or cuſtoms there, at the option of the merchant. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.
Laws in force in either kingdom, for preventing frauds in curing and packing of fiſh, extended to Scotland. 5 Ann. cap. 8. §. 1.
Cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, before laid on board for exportation, part of the tails to be cut off; and pilchards, ſcads, herrings, ſalmon,

ſalmon, or ſprats, the barrels or caſks to be marked by the ſalt-officer. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 16. 5 Ann. cap. 29. §. 6. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

Such fiſh, after exportation, fraudulently relanded or reimported, are forfeited, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. §. 17. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 6.

After ſuch fiſh are put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign parts, they may not be taken out, unleſs to be put into the ſhip wherein they are to be exported; nor landed in Great-Britain, except in the preſence of a ſalt-officer, upon forfeiture of boat, &c. goods, and 20l. by every perſon concerned, or ſix months impriſonment. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 2, 3.

The former allowance or bounty on exportation, granted by 5 and 6 W. and M. cap. 7. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 31. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. 1 Ann. cap 11. 5 Ann. cap. 8 and 29. 7 Ann. cap. 11. is taken away. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 1.

The preſent allowance or bounty, and the regulations of exportation.

Officers refuſing or neglecting to pay the bounty due on exportation, or to certify the want of money to the commiſſioners, are to forfeit double the ſum of the ſaid bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

White herrings fraudulently relanded, forfeited, and 20s. the barrel. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 7.

Duly entered and ſhipped for exportation, loſt or ſpoiled before the ſhip proceeds on her voyage, on due proof upon oath, to enjoy the ſame bounty as if really exported; provided the ſhip was ſunk in the ſea or port where the ſhip was loſt or deſtroyed, in ſight of the proper officer, where any of the ſaid fiſh ſhall come on ſhore, and that no uſe be made of the fiſh by proprietor or his agent; and the officer is to cauſe the fiſh to be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 8.

Red herrings or ſprats, conſumed in curing, to be taken as if actually exported. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 10.

Salmon and cod-fiſh cured in Scotland with foreign ſalt that has paid the duty, to be allowed the ſame bounty on exportation, as was payable before the 24th of June, 1719. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. §. 42.

White herrings, cured with ſalt made in Scotland, may be imported from thence to England, upon payment of 2s. 4d. for every barrel containing 32 Gallons, and in proportion for half barrels. 5 Geo II. cap. 6. §. 6.

The proprietor or his agent, before the departure of his veſſel, is to make entry with the collector of the cuſtoms there, of the number of barrels ſhipped, and give bond to the value of the herrings for the delivery thereof in England (the danger and accidents of the ſeas excepted) and to make oath that they were cured with ſalt made in Scotland, whereof the duty hath been paid, and are not intended to be exported to any place beyond ſeas.

The officer is to grant a certificate gratis of ſuch entry and oath; which is to be delivered, before landing the herrings, or putting them on board any other ſhip or boat, to the officer of the cuſtoms at the place, upon forfeiture of the herrings, and 40s. the barrel.

A certificate of the landing, under the hand and ſeal of the principal officer at the delivering port, is to be returned within ſix months after the date of the bond, to the officer where the ſecurity was given, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the bond.

Perſons counterfeiting or altering any of the cirtificates above required, or knowingly uſing ſuch counterfeit certificate, are to ſuffer as perſons convicted of forgery. 5 Geo. II. cap 6. §. 7.

A maſter of any boat or veſſel, bound on a fiſhing voyage to the North Seas or Iceland, may take on board in any port of Great Britain any quantity of Britiſh ſalt, paying or ſecuring the duty. 12 Ann. cap 2. §. 1.

The officer of the place is to give a certificate gratis of the quantity of ſalt taken on board, and that the duties have been paid or ſecured. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 2.

Cod-fiſh, ling, or hake, caught and cured there, may be imported and landed, upon oath being made by the proprietor of the fiſh or maſter of the veſſel, that they came from the North Seas or Iceland, and were caught and cured there; whereupon they are to be tendered at landing, and, before removing them, to have part of the tails cut off, that no allowance be obtained upon exportation, upon forfeiture, and double the value to be recovered of the importer or proprietor. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 3.

Foul ſalt ſo made uſe of, remaining, to be thrown overboard, in preſence of the officer. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 5.

Remaining unuſed, not entered, and the duties paid down within ten days after the ſhip's arrival into port (except in caſe of being driven in or detained by ſtreſs of weather, or other unavoidable neceſſity) is forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the proprietor or maſter of the veſſel. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 5.

The maſter of ſuch boat or veſſel, upon producing the certificate aforeſaid, to the collector of the ſalt duties, and making oath to the quantity of ſalt in ſuch certificate, and that the fiſh were cured and tendered as above, is to receive gratis, from the ſaid collector, a certificate of the ſame; which, with a certificate of the payment of the duty of the remainder of the ſalt being produced to the collector of the ſalt duties, where the duty was paid or ſecured, the ſecurity is to be diſcharged, and money repaid by the collector without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. §. 6.

Boats or veſſels having taken in ſuch ſalt, periſhed at ſea or taken by enemies, the proprietor upon proof at the quarter ſeſſions for the county, &c. where he inhabits, within nine months after ſuch loſs, is to receive a certificate of ſuch proof; which, being produced to the officer where the duty was paid or ſecured, the ſecurity is to be diſcharged, and money repaid by the officer, without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap 2. §. 5.

An ABSTRACT of the ordinances of the States of Holland and Weſt Friezland, concerning the managing of the great fiſhery.

No veſſel, ſailing out of Holland or Weſt Friezland, ſhall be allowed to go to the great fiſhery, without the conſent of the burgomaſter of the town from whence he ſails; and that he make oath, that he will not ſail, give in preſents at ſea, or cure on ſhore, any herrings, under penalty of 24 guilders for each barrel, and confiſcation of the fiſh: and further that he ſhall ſeparate the herrings caught in one night, from thoſe caught in another, and ſhall declare on what night each were taken, on forfeiture of the cargo and ſhip, and degradation of the maſter.

Nor ſhall any maſter deal for herring, with any but thoſe authorized by the chief magiſtrate in the place where the herring trade is eſtabliſhed. Further, they ſhall not, at ſea, ſhip herrings on board any other veſſel than thoſe ſo authorized, under penalty of the ſaid herrings, or their value, and a fine of 600 guilders, and the maſter rendered incapable of ever acting in that capacity for the future.

That the maſters of the jaggers make oath, that they will not take on board herring from any others but ſubject of Holland and Weſt Friezland; taking care to get a certificate from the maſter, ſigned by himſelf, and two or three ſailors, with the ſhip's name and port ſhe ſailed from, the quantity delivered, and that they were taken after St John's day, cured and laid in barrels in his ſhip, on penalty of the herrings, or value of them; nor ſhall any maſter ſhip them on board jaggers, after the 15th of July, penalty as above, and the money received for ſuch herrings.

That no inhabitant of Holland or Weſt Friezland ſhall be engaged with others living out of the ſaid provinces, in BUSSES or JAGGERS, under penalty of ſhip and cargo, and 600 guilders, to be recovered, though the fact has been committed 20 years paſt.

The firſt taken herrings are not to be ſold, unleſs they have been ten days in pickle; and not then, 'till marked by the inſpectors between the neck and belly hoop, on penalty of 300 guilders; and, in caſe of non-payment, to be confined to bread and water for a month; and all herrings brought into the ſaid provinces, without ſuch mark, to be publickly thrown into the ſea.

Each maſter of a Buss is to declare to the ſecretary of the port from whence he ſails, where he is going to fiſh, to what port he is to return, and what mark he is to uſe, that it may be regiſtered, under the penalty of 120 guilders.

The curing of the herring ſhall be compleated three weeks after they arrive, whether they be ſold or not, and ſhall be repacked more than once, according to the nature of the herring, and cuſtom of the place; if not in the above limited time, the buyer to have no redreſs.

Herrings ſhall not be repacked or heightened with freſh pickle, but in the public ſtreets or cuſtomary places, with open doors, where any may enter, under penalty of 240 groats.

No herrings to be packed or heightened to be ſent abroad, before the cure-maſter has inſpected them, and aſcertained that they are duly packed. Nor are ſmall herrings to be packed up with great, but each ſhall be filled up with thoſe of a like kind, and taken at the ſame time and branded with theirs and the city's mark.

No barrels ſent abroad ſhall have leſs than fourteen hoops.

The herrings caught after St James's day, and ſalted with fine ſalt, may be exported as wrack weſtward; the barrel to be bound with ſixteen hoops, having the date of the year on the belly, and mark of the purchaſer thereon.

No Spaniſh or Portugal ſalt ſhall be put in caſks, before the cure-maſter has examined it, on penalty of 25 guilders for every hundred weight; nor ſhall they carry to ſea any other but the above for the herring fiſhery, and that twice to be examined by the cure-maſter, who muſt open each barrel before it is ſhipped, and ſtamp them with his mark; in caſe of failure, the maſter to forfeit 36 guilders, and he is likewiſe to declare, that theſe herrings were cured with the ſaid ſalt.

Each cure-maſter may make the maſter of the Buss open his barrels twice in his view, to have two inſpections, and at each time to pay half a farthing, the one to be paid by the buyer, and the other by the ſeller.

Any perſon who cures herrings with French ſalt from St Martins, Olderdame, Borea, Browart, South France, the Weſt-Indies, or iſle of May, to forfeit the herrings.

Fiſh taken after St James's day, and Bartholomew-tide, may be ſalted with fine ſalt, boiled with ſea-water, according to agreement with the city of Cologn.

There ſhall not be ſent abroad to the weſtward, or France, Flanders, and Brabant, any herrings, but what have been taken and packed after Bartholomew-tide, and marked with the grand Rouen brand: nor ſhall any be ſent to Hamburgh, Bremen, Cologn, or other ports, that may be cured with coarſe ſalt, whether they be wrack, or refuſal fiſh, on penalty of ſix guilders each barrel, and naval correction.

Herrings, once exported, ſhall not be brought back, or cured anew, on pain of forfeiture of the fiſh.

A warning againſt the not handling, ſorting, ſalting, and laying of the herrings in a proper manner by the maſters.

The lords deputies of the great fiſhery of Holland and Weſt-Friezland, with the utmoſt indignation having been certainly informed, that ſome maſters, neglecting their duty, do not manage, ſort, ſalt, or lay in a proper manner the herrings, notwithſtanding the good orders given by the general placart, reſpecting the catching, ſalting, and management of the herrings, renewed by their high-mightineſſes the lords ſtates of Holland and Weſt-Friezland, dated the 10th of May, 1651, and amplified the 30th of May, 1656, eſpecially enjoined in the 12th, 13th, 14th, and 15th articles, and of which, purſuant to the 41ſt article of the ſaid ordinance, an exemplar is annually given to the maſters, and ſolemnly ſworn to, as a further warning to prevent all abuſes and neglects, decreed by the aforeſaid lords deputies, by virtue and authority of the ſaid placart; from whence it is to be apprehended, that the now already much leſſened foreign ſale of the Dutch herrings, and the good repute thereof, will entirely ceaſe, and, on the contrary, become in diſeſteem, to the great detriment and prejudice of the trade, and conſequently to the ruin of the great Herring fiſhery; being ſo apparent a loſs to the trade and welfare of the country, and the inhabitants thereof, in caſe it is not ſpeedily and rigorouſly examined into.—The lords deputies aforeſaid, by the advice and conſent of the committee, conſiſting of owners of ſhips, merchants, and herring-traders, for the prevention of thoſe enormous abuſes and neglect of duty, and for the conſervation and reſtoration of the great herring-fiſhery, have thought proper to deſire and ordain, and do hereby deſire and ordain, by way of renovation and amplification of the before-mentioned good orders, That the herring-maſters ſhall not mix different ſorts together or ſort them; as, firſt ſort (which is full, middle, and ſmall) by firſt, ſecond ditto by ſecond, third ſort by third; and on occaſion of an extraordinary great capture, the time not permitting to ſort them properly, the maſters, at their coming on ſhore, ſhall be obliged to report them as unſorted herrings to his owners: that, farther, the herrings ſhall be properly ſalted, and the large barrel herrings be ſalted in no leſs a proportion than four barrels of ſalt to every laſt (i. e. 12 barrels) the ſmalleſt ſort of barrels excepted; the herrings to be likewiſe properly gutted, and afterwards laid cloſe croſſways in the barrel; ordering all and every maſter to conform themſelves to this rule, under pain of 300 guilders, over and above the action, in caſe of perjury, at the charge of the maſters whoſe herrings ſhall not be properly ſorted, in manner as beforementioned; to whom likewiſe no further grant ſhall be given for the catching of herrings: but, with reſpect to the herrings not being laid cloſe croſſways in the barrel, a penalty ſhall be levied of ſix guilders per barrel; the aforeſaid penalties to be in conformity to the 40th article of the placart before mentioned; one third to the informer or informers, whether they be ſailors or other perſons; one third for the officer who makes the challenge; and the laſt third part for the poor. The herrings ſo improperly ſalted, viz. the firſt ſort mixed with the ſecond; item, the ſecond ſort mixed with the firſt, to be reckoned unſorted; and with reſpect to the mixed firſt and ſecond ſort, to be ſold with the third ſort as third ſort, and to be reckoned and paid in that manner by the buyer, likewiſe at the charge of the maſter. All the reſt of the before-mentioned given orders, and thereunto annexed penalties, remaining in their full force: and, to the end that no one ſhould be able to pretend ignorance thereof, the lords deputies aforeſaid order, that theſe ſhall be publiſhed and affixed in all proper places. Done at Delft, the 23d day of May, 1749. By order of the lords deputies.

M. L. Secretary.

1749. The burgomaſters and regents of the city of Schiedam give their conſent unto A, B, C, that he ſhall be permitted to go with his herring-ſhip to the North Sea, there to catch herrings, and hath ſolemnly ſworn to us by oath, that he is properly furniſhed, according to the ſize of his herring-ſhip, with tackle, ſalt, barrels, ſeamen, and all other neceſſaries required in the herring-trade: likewiſe, that he will not, before the 24th of of June, nor after the 31ſt of December next coming, caſt a herring-net in the ſea, to catch herring; that alſo he will not deliver over to any body, whomſoever it might be, any herrings whilſt at ſea, nor ſuffer that they be given over out of his ſhip by any other perſon directly or indirectly, in any manner whatſoever, but only to thoſe ſhips from Holland and Weſt Friezland, who produce the proper act of conſent, having on the top of a HERRING-BUSS, being the ſeal of the great fiſhery ſtamped thereon, and ſigned by the ſecretary of that city from whence he comes: to which reſpective ſhips he ſhall be impowered to deliver over his caught herring, until the 15th of July 1749 inclusive, and no longer: that he ſhall notify exactly upon the liſt of the marked barrels, in what night or nights the herrings thus delivered were caught: farther, that he ſhall not fill up the herring-barrels more than once with preſſed herrings, and take care, that as little of the bloody pickle thereof ſhall be ſpilt as poſſible: and further alſo, that he ſhall bring in all his caught herring into the provinces of Holland and Weſt-Friezland; and likewiſe, with three of his own ſailors, enter within three days at fartheſt after his arrival, the ſaid caught herrings faithfully; taking alſo all poſſible care, that the herring may be laid even in their lays, from the bottom to the top; and that the ſame be not caſt in with baſkets or buckets into the barrels, mixed, wrong laid, or adulterated: that he ſhall not ſell, change, or give away, by manner of gift, any ſalt, pickle, hoops, hoop-wood, rigging, thread, hook-lines, or any other fiſhing-tackle. Item, he ſhall not ſell, barter, or give away any ſort of merchandize, under what denomination ſoever might be in Zealand, Scotland, or any other land; taking likewiſe no ſort of goods for freight to this or that place, or ſuffer the ſame to be done directly or indirectly, on the penalty mentioned in the warning, and to regulate himſelf farther, according to the placarts and ordinances made with relation to the herring fiſhery, and which, for that intent, are given with him; ſo truly as he wiſhes God Almighty may help him.

The ſeal of the great fiſhery is hereon ſtamped, and ſigned by the ſecretary of the city the 10th day of June 1749.

Acts relating to fiſh, fiſheries, and fiſhing, in England, from Edward I. to the year 1750.

STATUTES.

13 Edw. I. cap. 47. Salmon, &c. in defence.

31 Edw. III. ſtat 2. cap. 1. Herrings ſold at ſea.

31 Edw. III. ſtat. 2. cap. 2. Herrings, Yarmouth, &c.

31 Edw. III. ſtat. 2. cap. 3. Stockfiſh of St Botolph, ſalmon of Berwick, fiſh and wines of Briſtuit, &c.

31 Edw. III. ſtat. 3. cap. 1. Fiſhery, Blakeney, and the coaſts of Satterly, Winton, in the county of ——

31 Edw. III. ſtat. 3. cap. 2. Fair at Blakeney, lob, ling, cod, orgies, ſelling, &c. their nets, &c. Norfolk.

35 Edw. III. about buying and ſelling herrings, Yarmouth.

4 Rich. II. Fiſhmongers trade laid open.

6 Rich. II. cap 10. Fiſh and victuals to be ſold by aliens, in London, enforced by Hen. I. cap. 17. 14 Hen. IV. cap. 4. Query, If not ſince repealed.

7 Rich. II. cap. 11. Fiſhers, vintners, and victuallers, coming to London, to be in the rule of the lord-mayor and aldermen of the ſaid city. 31 Edw. III. ſtat. 1. cap. 1. (N. B.) repeals the ſtatutes of 5 Rich. II. cap. 4. and 6 Rich. II. cap. 11 and 12. touching victuallers in London.

31 Rich. II. cap. 19. confirms ſtat. 13 Edw. I. cap. 47. and appoints conſervators of it, &c.

17 Rich. II. cap. 9. All juſtices of peace to be conſervators of 13 Edw. I. cap. 47. and 13 Rich. II. cap. 9. who are to appoint ſubconſervators under them, &c.

2 Hen. IV. cap. 15. Penalty on faſtening trinck, and other nets, over the Thames, or other rivers; trinckers may fiſh lawfully.

14 Hen. IV. cap. 4. Penalty on diſturbing aliens ſending their fiſh.

22 Edw. IV. cap. 5. Salmon-veſſels, ſalmon packed, gril packed, herrings packed, ſold in barrels, &c. eels barrelled, &c. length, &c. of barrelled fiſh, thokes, &c. tale-fiſh, their length, &c.

11 Hen. VII. cap. 23. What gaugers, packers, and ſearchers of barrelled ſalmon, herrings, eels, &c. are intitled to, with penalty on their offending, &c.

31 Hen. VIII. cap. 2. §. 2. Penalty on fiſhing in ponds, &c. againſt the will of the owners. See Eliz. cap. 21. 2 and 3 Edw. VI. cap. 6. §. 3. Penalty on admirals taking money, doles, &c. fiſhermen or merchants, for licences to paſs to voyages for fiſh, &c.

5 Eliz. cap. 17. A general proviſion for preſerving of the ſpawn, brood, and fry of fiſh, made perpetual by Car. II. cap. 4.

5 Eliz. cap. 5. No toll for ſea-fiſh, except on Kingſton upon Hull; penalty on herring or ſea-fiſh, and not well ſalted and packed, and cod, and ling, to be imported looſe, and not in barrels.

5 Eliz. cap. 1. Penalty on fiſhing in ponds, &c. againſt the owners conſent.

39 Eliz. cap. 10. Exporting of herrings bought in this realm; cuſtoms to be paid by aliens for ſelled fiſh and herrings; penalty

on importing or ſalting bad fiſh or herrings. See 43 Eliz. cap. 9.

1 Jac. I. cap. 23. §. 3. relates to the taking of herring, pilchard, and other ſea-fiſh in the counties of Somerſet, Devon, and Cornwall.

3 Jac. I. cap 11. No wears along the ſea-coaſt, and penalty on killing, &c. of the brood, &c. of ſea-fiſh, aſſize, &c. of ſea-nets.

13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 2. §. 36. relates to the exportation of fiſh into any ports of the Mediterranean.

13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 28. Penalty on fiſhing from June to November on the high ſea, or any bay, port, &c. of Cornwall or Devon, with any driſt, &c. not nearer than a league and a half to the ſhore, &c.

15 Car II. cap. 7. §. 16, 17. No freſh herring, cod, haddock, cole-fiſh or grill-fiſh, from the North Sea, Iceland, and Weſtinary fiſheries, ſhall be imported; penalty ſhip and fiſh; ſalted or dried cod, colefiſh, ling, white herrings, haddocks, and grill-fiſh, imported in foreign built ſhips, to pay cuſtom.

15 Car. II. cap. 16. How white or red herrings of Engliſh catching are to be packed, falted, dried; bailiffs of Yarmouth, &c. to appoint packers.

18 Car II. cap. 2. No ling, herring, &c. to be imported by foreigners. 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 25.

30 Car. II. cap 9. A general proviſion for preſerving the ſpawn, brood, and fry of fiſh in the river Severn.

32 Car. II. cap. 2. § 7. Stockfiſh and live eels may be imported.

4 and 5 W. and M. cap. 23. relates to private fiſheries, &c.

10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. concerning Billingſgate market duties, &c. aſſize of lobſters brought on ſhore and ſold; no fiſh, except ſtock-fiſh and live eels, to be imported or ſold by foreigners; inportation of anchovies, ſturgeon, botargo, and cavear alſo excepted.

10 Will. III. cap. 25. relates to the fiſheries of Newfoundland, and the iſlands adjoining, with the regulations thereof.

4 Ann. cap. 15. Fiſhery of the river Stower in Eſſex and Suffolk.

4 and 5 Ann. cap. 21. Conſervation, &c. of the fiſhers of the rivers, creeks, &c. in the counties of Southampton and the ſouthern parts of Wiltſhire; ſeaſons, aſſize of nets, &c.

1 Geo. I. cap 18. no herring, cod, pilchard, ſalmon, ling, freſh or ſalted, dried or bloated, nor grill, mackarel, whiting, haddock, ſprat, cole-fiſh, grill-fiſh, congor, or any ſort of flat fiſh or freſh fiſh, to be imported or ſold in England, that are taken by any foreigners, or of ſtrangers bottoms, except Proteſtant inhabitants; eels, ſtockfiſh, anchovies, ſturgeon, botargo, or cavear, excepted, aſſize of drag-nets uſed at ſea, &c. aſſize of turbot, brill, pearl, codlin, whiting, baſs, mullet, ſole, plaice, dab, and flounders, brought to ſhore, ſold, or exchanged with penalty; lobſters and turbots may be imborted by foreigners; aſſize of Salmon brought to London, &c. &c. rivers Dee, Severn, &c.

2 Geo. II. cap. 19. concerning the Rocheſter fiſhery.

5 Geo. II. An act for encouraging the Greenland fiſhery.

6 George II. An act for the further encouragement of the whale fiſhery carried on by his majeſty's Britiſh ſubjects.

9 Geo. II. cap. 33. confirming the firſt clauſe 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. about importation of ſtockfiſh by foreigners, Britiſh ſhips trading to the Mediterranean Sea, and lobſters, when in defence, on the coaſt of Scotland, &c.

13 Geo. I. An act for continuing the ſeveral laws therein mentioned, relating to the premiums upon the importation of maſts, yards, and bowſprits, tar, pitch, and turpentine, to Britiſh-made ſail-cloth, and the duties payable on foreign ſail-cloth, to the Greenland and to the Whale-fiſhery, for granting a further bounty for all ſhips employed in the whale-fiſhery, during the preſent war, and for exempting harpooners employed in the Greenland fiſhery, trade from being impreſſed, &c.

22 Geo. II. An act for the further encouragement and enlargement of the whale-fiſhery, and for continuing ſuch laws as are therein mentioned relating thereto; and for the naturalization of ſuch foreign Proteſtants as ſhall ſerve, for theti me therein mentioned, on board ſuch ſhips as ſhall be fitted out for the ſaid fiſhery.

REMARKS.

From theſe regulations of the fiſheries in Holland and France, we may, in ſome meaſure, judge of their importance to thoſe ſtates. The fiſheries in Holland are well known not only to have been the firſt riſe of that republic, but the grand prop and ſupport of all their commerce and navigation. This branch of trade is of ſuch unſpeakable concern to the Dutch, that, in their public prayers, it is appointed to be mentioned, when they pray to the Supreme Being, THAT IT WOULD PLEASE HIM TO BLESS THE GOVERNMENT, THE LORDS THE STATES, AND ALSO THEIR GREAT AND SMALL FISHERIES.

What the Dutch call the GREAT FISHERY, reſpects the whale-fiſhing at Spitſbergen, and in the ſeas of Greenland; with the catching of ſeals, fin-fiſh, and the other kinds, whereof they make train-oil; for which fiſhery they generally employ 150, or 200 ſail of ſhips every year; which being double manned, for the ſervice of killing the whales, as well as ſailing the ſhips, do not employ, one year with another, leſs than 10,000 ſeamen.

This was apparent in the years 1674 and 1675, when they had war with the Engliſh, and in the year 1695, when they declared war againſt France; on both which occaſions they laid aſide their Greenland trade, that they might take up the ſeamen to man their fleet: and, by this advantage, they had 10,000 men at hand, and were enabled to fit out their navy rather ſooner than their neighbours.

The ſmall fiſhery reſpects the herring, ling, and cod; the firſt of which they take on the ſhores of Shetland, Scotland, and England; the latter in the North Seas, on the coaſts of Norway and Jutland.

'Holland, ſays the great De Witt, grand penſioner of Hol-
'land, is very well ſituated to procure it's food out of the ſea,
'which is a common element; it lies not only on a ſtrand
'rich of fiſh, near the Dagger-Sand, where haddock, cod,
'and ling may in great abundance be taken and cured; but
'alſo near the herring-fiſhery, which is only to be found on
'the COAST of GREAT-BRITAIN, viz. from St John's
'to St James's, about Shetland, Pharil, and Boekneſs; from
'St James's to the elevation of the croſs about Boekelſton, or
'Seveniot; from the elevation of the croſs to St Katharine's,
'in the deep waters eaſtward of Yarmouth. And this her-
'ring-fiſhing, which it is now 250 years ago ſince William
'Beakelſon, of Biervliet, firſt learned to gill, ſalt, and pack
'them up in Barrels, together with the cod-fiſhery, is become
'ſo effectual a means of ſubſiſting for theſe lands, and eſpe-
'cially ſince ſo many neighbouring nations, by reaſon of their
'religion, are obliged, upon certain days and weeks of the
'year, wholly to refrain from eating of fleſh; that the Hol-
'landers alone do fiſh, in a time of peace, with more than
'1000 buſſes, from 24 to 30 laſts burden each, and with
'above 170 ſmaller veſſels that fiſh for herrings at the mouth
'of the texel; ſo that theſe 1000 buſſes being ſet to ſea for
'a year, wherein they make three voyages, do coſt above
'ten millions of guilders, accounting only the buſs, with
'it's tackle, at 4550 guilders, and the ſetting forth to ſea
'5500 guilders, there remaining nothing, of all it's victuals
'and furniture the ſecond year, but the bare veſſel, and that
'much worn and tattered, needing great reparation. So
'that, if theſe 1000 buſſes do take yearly 40,000 laſts of her-
'rings, counting them at leaſt worth 200 guilders per laſt,
'they would yield in Holland more than eight millions of
'guilders.

'And ſeeing that of late men have begun to make very much
'uſe of whale-oil and whale-fins, which are taken to the
'northward, not far from us, inſomuch that, with ſoutherly
'winds, which are common in this country, we can ſail thither
'within ſix or eight days; the trade of fiſhing and ſalt may
'eaſily be fixed and ſettled with us; for to fix theſe fiſheries,
'and ſeveral manufactures, and, conſequently, the trade and
'returns thereof depending on navigation, and ſhips let out
'to frieight, we ought duly to conſider, that the greateſt dif-
'ficulty for ſoinnumerable a people to ſubſiſt on their own
'product, proves the moſt powerful means to attract all fo-
'reign wares into Holland, not only to ſtore them up there,
'and afterwards to carry them up the country by the Maeſe,
'Waal, Yſſel, and the Rhine (making together one river)
'to very many cities, towns, and people, lying on the ſides
'of them (the moſt conſiderable in the world for conſump-
'tion of merchandize) but alſo to conſume the ſaid imported
'goods, or to have them manufactured: it being well known,
'that no country under heaven, of ſo ſmall a compaſs, has
'ſo many people and artificers as we have; to which may be
'added, that no country in the world is ſo wonderfully divided
'with rivers and canals, whereby merchandize may be car-
'ried up and down with ſo little charge.

'Emanuel Van Meteren ſays, That, in the ſpace of three
'days, in the year 1601, there ſailed out of Holland to the
'eaſtward, between 8 and 900 ſhips, and 1500 BUSSES, a
'herring fiſhing; which is eaſy to believe, if we may credit
'what the Engliſh authors mention, viz. Gerard Malines,
'in his Lex Mercatoria, and Sir Walter Ralegh, and which
'Lievin Van Aitzmar, anno 1653, pag. 863, doth in ſome
'meaſure confirm, viz. that there are yearly taken and ſpent
'by the Hollanders more than 300,000 laſt of herrings, and
'other ſalt fiſh: and that the whale fiſhing to the northward
'takes up above 12,000 men, which ſail out of theſe coun-
'tries: for ſince the Greenland company, or (to expreſs my-
'ſelf better) the monopolizing grant thereof, was annulled,
'and the whale-fiſhing ſet open in common, that fiſhery is
'increaſed from one to ten: ſo that, when we reckon that
'all theſe fiſhing veſſels are built here at home, and the ropes,
'ſails, nets, and caſks made here, and that ſalt is furniſhed
'from hence, we may eaſily imagine, that there muſt be
'an incredible number of people that live by this means,
'eſpecially when we and all thoſe people muſt have meat,
'drink, cloaths, and houſing; and that the fiſh, when caught,
'is tranſported by the Hollanders in their veſſels through the
'whole world.

'And, indeed, if that be true which Sir Walter Ralegh
'(who made diligent enquiry thereinto in the year 1618, to

'inform

'inform king James of it) affirms, that the Hollanders fiſhed 'on the coaſt of Great-Britain with no leſs than 3000 ſhips, 'and 50,000 men, and that they employed and ſet to ſea, to 'tranſport and ſell the fiſh ſo taken, and to make returns 'thereof, 9000 ſhips more, and 150,000 men beſides: and, if 'we hereunto add what he ſaith further, viz. that 20 BUSSES 'do maintain 8000 people, and that the Hollanders had, in 'all, no leſs than 20,000 ſhips at ſea; as alſo their fiſhing, 'navigation, and traffic by ſea, with it's dependencies ſince 'that time to the year 1667, is increaſed to one third more: 'I ſay, if that be ſo, we may then eaſily conclude, that the 'ſea is a ſpecial means of Holland's ſubſiſtence; ſeeing Hol-'land, by this means alone, yields, by it's own induſtry, 'above 300,000 laſts of ſalt fiſh: ſo that, if we add to this 'the whale-fin and whale-oil, and our Holland manufacture, 'with that which our own rivers afford us, it muſt be con-'feſſed, that no country in the world can make ſo many ſhips-'lading of merchandize by their own induſtry as the province 'of Holland alone.'

Of the FRENCH FISHERIES.

Nor has France been leſs ſolicitous in cultivating the fiſhing-trade, than all other branches which tend to increaſe their maritime power. When the French king was, in queen Anne's wars, moved to admit the Dutch and Engliſh fiſhing-boats into Dieppe, Dunkirk, St Vallery, and other ports, with their herrings, the king anſwered, No! BY NO MEANS; IF MY PEOPLE WILL HAVE HERRINGS, WHY DO THEY NOT CATCH THEM, AS THE ENGLISH AND DUTCH DO? Upon which, the merchants of thoſe parts immediately fitted out veſſels, and took herrings ſufficient for all the country.

From this time the French have taken every meaſure to improve their fiſheries; in which capital article of commerce, they have been increaſing ever ſince the treaty of Utrecht, and have become our moſt dangerous rivals herein. The French have a conſiderable whale fiſhery, and the French fiſhermen of St John le Luze, Bayonne, and other ports in that part of the bay of Biſcay, are become the moſt expert harpooners in the world, without excepting the Dutch and the Hamburghers.

But the French have not only increaſed in the whale-fiſhery, but, which is of far more conſequence to Great-Britain, they have exceedingly increaſed their fiſhery to Newfoundland, as well on the coaſt as on the great bank. The conſequence of this increaſe of their fiſhery we have, to our ſorrow, too ſenſibly felt for many years. Nor do they fiſh only on the great bank of Newfoundland for ſuch fiſh which are cured without drying, as the Dutch do in their white herring fiſhery in the open ſea, but have had the addreſs to obtain that the iſland of Cape Breton ſhould be yielded up to them, to fortify and do what they pleaſe with; where they may, and doubtleſs will, make another Dunkirk, as I have obſerved upon another occaſion, and where they may carry on their dry fiſhery, as well as at Placentia: for we have, for ſome time, had daily accounts that they are fortifying Cape Breton to the utmoſt.

But this is not all; the world is well amended with the French ſince the time that they paid a tribute for the liberty of curing and drying fiſh at Newfoundland, which was granted them by king Charles I. in the 10th year of his reign. At this time the French do not only pay no tribute, but, by their neighbourhood at Cape Breton, will oblige us to keep large garriſons as well at Nova Scotia as Newfoundland, if we will prevent our being ſurprized; where at Newfoundland they have the liberty of the fiſhing-ſeaſon equally with us, from Cape Bonaviſta northward to the northern point of the ſaid iſland, &c. by which ſituation they are alſo become our rivals in another branch of our fiſhery; that of ſalmon: for, at the harbour of Bonaviſta, which is to the northward of the Cape, and therefore within their limits, is an extraordinary good fiſhery of ſalmon.

Had the late king William granted the Dutch any one of the iſlands of the Orkneys, as heretofore intimated, in propriety to fortify, or a liberty of reſorting to, or erecting drying-houſes neceſſary to cure red herrings in any ſuch iſland, or in England or Scotland, it would have been remembered, with good reaſon, a thouſand and a thouſand times over. But the French have had the cunning to procure for their fiſhery ſuch liberties and privileges as can ſcarcely be conſiſtent with our ſafety or intereſt; and, therefore, the world may be left to judge who are our GREATEST and MOST DANGEROUS rivals in the FISHERY. They are now become ſo much our rivals in this trade, and are increaſed to ſuch a prodigious degree, that they employ yearly above 500 ſail of ſhipping from St Malo, Granville, Rochelle, St Martins, Iſle of Rea, Bayonne, St Jean de Luze, Sibour, &c. to carry on their fiſheries on the great bank of Newfoundland, and on the coaſt of that iſland; that is, in their wet and dry fiſh: nor do they now only ſupply themſelves with the fiſh they formerly had from us, but furniſh many parts of Spain and Italy therewith, to our prodigious loſs.

They have the propereſt ſalt of their own, which renders their voyages much ſhorter than ours; for we have been obliged to go from hence to Rochelle, Olleron, St Martin, &c. to fetch that commodity, which they have at their own doors; and thereby we have moſt frequently ſpent a month or ſix weeks more in our voyage than they do.

The French are ſo ſenſible of the prodigious advantage of this fiſhery, and ſo very intent upon purſuing it, that, from their firſt attempts to make themſelves conſiderable at ſea, they have had it perpetually in view.—They firſt obtained leave to fiſh at Newfoundland, upon paying a duty of 5 per cent. afterwards they got that acknowledgement relinquiſhed: but, at the treaty of Utrecht, they went far greater lenghts; for thereby they procured a ceſſion to be made to them of Cape Breton, a maiden fiſhery, that had ſcarce ever been touched; whereas Newfoundland was greatly exhauſted, and alſo ſeveral iſlands in the gulph of St Lawrence. Not content with that, they further obtained a liberty of curing and drying their fiſh, ſetting up ſtages, and reſorting to OUR iſland of Newfoundland, during all the time that it is of any uſe to reſort thither; which is during the fiſhing-ſeaſon.

They, indeed, delivered up to us the poſſeſſion of Placentia, and ſome other places in Newfoundland; but then they took care to have a much better place, for their fiſhery yielded to them, in lieu thereof; with this extraordinary favour to them, more than to us, that they have the liberty granted them to frequent OUR iſland of Newfoundland, and erect ſtages, &c. thereon, for curing and drying their fiſh; but we have not the privilege allowed us on doing the ſame on any of their iſlands, or on the iſland of Cape Breton, while they have expreſs permiſſion granted them to fortify as they pleaſe.

Thus the French are become our rivals in the FISHERY by our own conſent; which is the more wonderful, in that it is owing to this fiſhery, that they dared to contend for the maſtery at ſea with the maritime ſtrength of England and Holland united.

'Tis true, the Engliſh and Dutch are moſt frequently called the maritime powers; but we think it a jeſt, at this time of day, to appropriate the name of maritime powers to Great-Britain and Holland, excluſive of France, when we conſider what a figure that nation made at ſea before the battle of La Hogue in 1692, and what a figure they are able to make at preſent from the daily increaſe of their marine, ſince the late treaty of Aix la Chapelle. See the article FRANCE.

The hiſtory both of France and England will ſhew us, that ſince the former procured leave to fiſh at Newfoundland, and their ſettlement and fiſhery at Cape Breton, they have grown very formidable at ſea, and that their royal navy has augmented in proportion to the number of ſhips employed in theſe fiſheries.—What have we not to expect then, ſince they have obtained a right to a better place for their fiſhery, in the opinion, even of the French themſelves, as the reader will ſoon ſee by the incloſed letter, written by a miniſter of ſtate in France, to the duke de Gramond at Bayonne. The occaſion of it was, that the people of St Jean de Luze and Sibour, (two places in the county of Sibour) being under apprehenſions that their fiſhery at Newfoundland was to be delivered up wholly to Great-Britain, the duke wrote a letter to Paris to be rightly informed, and received the following anſwer.

Copy of a letter written by Monſ. de Pontchartrain, to Monſ. the duke de Gramond, from Fontainbleu, 19 September, 1713.

'I have received, Sir, the letter you did me the honour to 'write me the third of this month, with two letters that 'were directed to you by the inhabitants of St Jean de Luze 'and Sibour, upon the ſubject of their fiſhery of dry fiſh. 'From the account I have given the king of their demand, 'his majeſty directed me to write, by his order, to Monſ. 'the duke D'Aumont, his ambaſſador extraordinary at Lon-'don, to aſk of the queen of Great-Britain a permiſſion 'for them to go the next year to Placentia, and the liberty 'to continue their fiſhing in ALL the ports and harbours up-'on the coaſt of Newfoundland. I ſhall do myſelf the ho-'nour to acquaint you with Monſ. the duke D'Aumont's 'anſwer.

'I agree with you, Sir, that the country of La Bour will 'ſuffer much, ſhould they be deprived of their liberty of car-'rying on their fiſhery of dry fiſh; and you will be perſuaded 'of the attention I have to procure to the merchants that 'drive this commerce, the means to continue them in it, when 'I have informed you, that the king ſent from Rochford, in 'the month of May laſt, one frigate, to go and lay the firſt 'foundation of an eſtabliſhment in the iſland of CAPE BRE-'TON, where fiſh is MUCH MORE ABUNDANT than at 'the iſland of Newfoundland, and where one may make the 'fiſh, and manage the drying thereof eaſily. This frigate 'arrived June 26, at Placentia, from whence ſhe was to con-'tinue her courſe for CAPE BRETON, to which place I 'have cauſed to be tranſported 100 men, to begin the ſettle-'ment. His majeſty will ſend, the beginning of the year, three 'ſhips, to tranſport thither the garriſon of Placentia, and the 'inhabtants of the iſland of Newfoundland, and to put the 'laſt hand to the eſtabliſhment of that port. The mer-'chants of this kingdom may then ſend all ſuch ſhips as they

'ſhall

'shall think fit to order, for the fishing of dry fish, and for 'the oils that are made from the fish on the said island. This 'favour ought to animate the merchants that drive this com- 'merce, to carry it on with vigour, from the advantage they 'will draw from it. This is all I have been able to do in 'their favour. I desire you to be persuaded of the great sin- 'cerity wherewith I have the honour to be ———.'

From this letter it is plain the French never intended to quit the fishery of dry cod, and that they have, from this period, very much rivalled us therein, to our great detriment, and their unspeakable emolument, BY THE MEANS OF THEIR FAVOURITE AND VERY IMPORTANT SETTLEMENT OF CAPE-BRETON.—And with regard to their herring-fishery, we have frequent accounts of many hundreds of their busses being upon our coasts in the season; which may one day prove highly dangerous to this kingdom upon other occasions, as well as injurious to our own fisheries of that kind.

REMARKS, in consequence of the last war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, 1763.

From the preceeding account of the FRENCH FISHERIES at NEWFOUNDLAND, and the adjacent islands of CAPE-BRETON, it appears, that the French have reaped very great benefit and advantage thereby since the PEACE OF UTRECHT, and more especially by that new and maiden FISHERY, which they have so many years successfully carried on, by means of CAPE-BRETON, and it's COASTS, and also all their CANADIAN DEPENDENCIES in general: and indeed it must be confessed, that CAPE-BRETON has, ever since the French settled and fortified it, been a pungent thorn in the side of the BRITISH COLONIES in this part of the AMERICAN WORLD; but by the last DEFINITIVE TREATY, this severe thorn is plucked out and eradicated, as an annoyance to these kingdoms; and instead of this island and it's Louisbourg fortifications being longer a terror to GREAT-BRITAIN, they are now become so to FRANCE; instead of that nation being able, by means thereof, to awe and intimidate our adjacent colonies; the last treaty having annexed this valuable island for situation to the crown of England, it is now become our safeguard; we can fortify CAPE-BRETON again, and render it an IMPREGNABLE BARRIER to all our antient northern colonies; an effectual protection to CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES, and to all our other NEW ACQUISITIONS in these parts. This will prove of unspeakable benefit and advantage to this kingdom, by so curbing and restraining the power and conduct of the French in their fishery here, that by virtue of Cape-Breton, we shall be able to extirpate them from the islands of ST PETERS and MIGUELON, whenever they dare violate the stipulations of the treaty, and for ever after hinder them from catching a fish on any parts contiguous to Newfoundland.—This we are now in a condition to do, by virtue of the last peace; and if France thinks soon to quarrel with Great-Britain again, they will run the risk of being for ever, perhaps, deprived of the smallest share in the NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERIES. This we certainly have now in our power to do; and this we have reason to hope and expect will for some years prevent a rupture between the two nations. See also FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, &c. MEXICO.

Of the principles that are said, at present, to prevail at the court of SPAIN with regard to FISHERIES.

Under the article BISCAY, a principality in Old Spain, I have shewn, by a short quotation from the sage Spaniard Uztariz, whose system in regard to commerce is said to be adopted by his Catholic majesty's ministry, that Spain is about to diminish, and in effect absolutely obstruct and prohibit the importation of British-caught fish into their dominions, by establishing fisheries of their own.

This author, after shewing the advantages which the Dutch, French, and English have reaped from their fisheries, takes no little pains to animate the Spanish nation sanguinely to pursue the like commerce and policy: he goes so far as even to assert, that the Spaniards have a right to fish at Newfoundland: so that we are likely to have rival upon rival in this branch.

'It ought to be a principal concern of the government, says 'this politic Spaniard, to prevent foreigners from enervating 'the kingdom so much as they do, by the importation of 'salt fish, and the great consumption it meets with in Spain, 'that of bacalao in particular, which is known to be so con- 'siderable a part of the food of all it's provinces in general.

'In order to calculate the consumption, it is to be observed, 'that in the provinces of the crown of Castille, the fast- 'days amount to a hundred and twenty in a year, and that 'they exeeed a hundred and sixty in those of the crown of 'Arragon, and in Navarre, where flesh is prohibited on Sa- 'turdays, which is not the case in Castille. The computa- 'tion may be a little over or under, on account of some va- 'riation there is in the devotional fasts. But if we rate the 'number to be a hundred and thirty in the year, one king- 'dom with another, throughout Spain, upon a moderate 'supposition that ever family, one with another, shall ex- 'pend four ounces of bacalao every fast-day (which is not an 'ounce to one person) there will be consumed, in a million 'and a half of families, six millions of ounces, which amount 'to 3750 quintals per day; and, for the hundred and thirty 'fast-days in a year, 487,500 quintals; which, at the rate 'of five dollars, the current price, a little more or less, when 'foreigners sell it to us, amount to 2,437,500 dollars. And, 'if we add the great quantity of cured salmon, herrings, pil- 'chards, and other fish from abroad, which is also expended 'in these kingdoms, one may reasonably imagine, that the 'money they annually drain from us, by this article, is above 'three millions of dollars: and it is one of the principal 'causes of our unhappy situation.

'I am aware there is no small number of persons who, for 'want of health, are dispensed with eating fish upon days of 'abstinence; but there are also many convents of men and 'women, some of which live upon fish every day in the year, 'others the greatest part of it: so that what these societies 'exceed the hundred and thirty days of abstinence, may be 'a ballance for such as eat flesh on those days.

'This general calculation I have thought proper to give, in 'order to have it more clearly seen how much of our sub- 'stance other nations drain from us by the sale of cured fish; 'though I do it with some reluctance, because I am to draw 'precise conclusions from principles doubtful, and incapable 'of being ascertained. But should any one think I run far 'wide of the truth in my estimate, either exceeding or fall- 'ing short of it, every one will be at liberty to correct them, 'and form others more correct from better information, and 'clearer notions of this matter.

'I am also very sensible, that bacalao is a diet of great relief 'to those parts, where fresh fish is scarce; but we should 'not, on that account, throw off all thoughts of repairing 'the great injury they do us by the sale of this, and other 'salt fish, and neglect to avail ourselves of such measures as 'prudence shall dictate, in particular the advantages which 'our OWN SEAS afford, and some other prudent considera- 'tions invite us to, and flatter us with an easy way to sup- 'ply our wants, if not wholly, at least in a great measure; 'since it is well known what plenty of fish there is on the 'coast of Spain, especially that of Gallicia; as is also cer- 'tain, that on the coast of the Andalusia's, there is abun- 'dance of tunnies, sturgeon, lampreys, cuttle-fish, chevins, 'and several other sorts of wholesome fish, some of which 'salted, and others dried, are kept whole years, not only for 'a supply to those provinces, where there is a great consump- 'tion, but also to furnish us in the inland parts; and the only 'thing we want is to encourage a fishery, both on our own 'coasts and in other seas; and in this sort of commerce by his 'majesty's subjects I shall, therefore, proceed to point out 'such measures as seem to me most prudent, and likely to 'take effect.

'In chapters 73 and 74, I recommend the stationing of 'guarda costa's, and shew, that, among other great advan- 'tages, they would be a means to enlarge our fisheries on the 'coast of Spain and elsewhere. To their contents I refer for 'what concerns the encouragement and security of those 'fisheries, and intend only to add, that I esteem it a very 'prudent step to lay as heavy duties, as treaties of peace and 'commerce shall allow, upon the importation of bacalao, 'and other salt fish into Spain, without any abatement or 'indulgence whatever, not excepting the voluntary and ac- 'cidental allowances which of late years have been made to 'fish, and some other things in the customhouses of Catalo- 'nia, on their importation, besides their not being charged 'in that principality, or the kingdom of Valencia, with the 'duty of the million, which most part of the salt fish pays in 'the ports of Castille.

'It will also be proper for salt fish to pay intire the duties of 'the alcavala and ciento's, in all places where it should be 'sold, or the sale repeated, guarding it with necessary pre- 'cautions, whether the towns be under composition or ad- 'ministration. This is to be understood of the provinces 'where those duties are established.

'In chapter 23, giving examples from the French, I set forth 'some of the immunities which his most Christian majesty, 'in the year 1713, granted to bacalao, and oils proceeding 'from the fishery of his subjects; and also observe, that they 'were allowed to export stores, arms, ammunition, utensils, 'and provisions for the ships, or vessels, intended for the said 'fishery, and even the salt that should be wanted to cure the 'fish. To this I may add, that in several articles under tit. '15, of the ordinance of 1680, in respect to the settling of 'the gabel, or revenue of salt in that kingdom, are also 'found many indulgencies, and other encouragements granted 'for curing of bacalao, salmon, herrings, pilchards, and other 'sorts of fish; in particular the abatement of the price of it, 'and also the rules and precautions necessary to prevent frauds, 'set forth at large.

'The 24th chapter contains a prohibition, that was made in 'France, against the importation of pilchards from foreign

countries, in order to favour their own fiſhery, and the trade of his majeſty's ſubjects in this commodity.

In chapter 28, where I produce ſome examples taken from the Engliſh, it is obſerved, that the duty upon ſalt uſed in curing white herrings was taken off in that kingdom in the year 1722, as alſo what was charged upon the exportation of the ſame herrings.

In chapter 36, which treats of the meaſures employed by the Dutch, mention is alſo made of ſome indulgencies, and other encouragements, in favour of their fiſheries.

Upon the foundation of theſe examples, taken from three nations that beſt underſtand commerce, and moſt proſper in it, and what one's own reaſon ſuggeſts as proper to be done, I am of opinion we ſhould give leave to all his majeſty's ſubjects that go to the fiſhery in their own veſſels, whether on the coaſts of Spain, or in the Mediterranean, to carry out, free of all duty, at leaſt biſcuit, all ſorts of pulſe, dried or green, and ſalt fiſh caught in the Spaniſh fiſheries, and even a certain quantity of oil, vinegar, and brandy, in proportion to the number of hands and days a few over and under, that they ſhall be employed in the fiſhery, being fully convinced that the ſubjects of other powers, upon no pretence whatever, can fairly claim an equal privilege in this caſe with his majeſty's people. For all conventions, or treaties of commerce, even though they ſhould be ſtrictly obſerved, were made for very different purpoſes. Nor ſhall I ſtay to explain this matter, as the motives, caſes, and other circumſtances that diſtinguiſh the two things, are invariable and manifeſt. But it is further obſervable, that, for theſe indulgencies to the fiſhery, and his majeſty's ſubjects, there will be no reaſon to make an allowance to the farmers of the revenue, both on account of their trifling value, and becauſe they muſt experience, from the great improvement made by this means in the fiſhery, and trade of the towns, where the revenues are farmed, a conſiderable increaſe of them other ways, as has been already ſhewn in the caſe of manufactories. And, to take away from the farmers all pretence for it, there ſhould be an excluſive article to this effect in their contracts for the kingdoms of Murcia, Granada, Seville, Gallicia, the Aſturias, and the four towns; for, in the other provinces upon the coaſt, the provincial revenues are never farmed, nor the cuſtoms any where elſe.'

Thus have we given our readers an idea of the nature and importance of the fiſheries to Holland and France, as alſo of the meaſures that are likely to be taken in Spain in relation to the ſame branch of commerce. What ſeems to confirm this to be the real intention of the court of Spain, is their apparent endeavours to increaſe their royal navy, by enticing away numbers of our ſhip-builders for that purpoſe: and, if they are determined to increaſe the number of their men of war, and likewiſe to eſtabliſh fiſheries in order effectually to man them, is it not time that we ſhould be upon our guard, as well with reſpect to Spain as France? There are, it ſeems, alſo other powers that are attempting fiſheries, and aiming at the acquiſition of ſome ſhare in maritime commerce.

Theſe are facts, not groundleſs conjectures. In regard to the pretended claim of the Spaniards to fiſh upon our coaſts of Newfoundland, it may not be uſeleſs to obſerve, that there was no more care taken of that fiſhery in the Utrecht treaty than before; for they went ſo far, that they ſent one Gillingham, at this time an Iriſh papiſt, to our court, to get the liberty of fiſhing at Newfoundland. That this Gillingham was far from being ſnubbed by the then miniſtry, for coming about ſuch an impudent buſineſs, is well enough known. Nay, the lord Lexington, who had not refuſed the ambaſſy to Spain, when that monarchy and the Weſt-Indies were about to be raviſhed from the houſe of Auſtria and given to the duke of Anjou, thought this Iriſh papiſt was ſo welcome to the miniſtry, that, in his letter to the lord Dartmouth, then one of the ſecretaries of ſtate, he frequently excuſes himſelf for not writing upon that ſubject, becauſe they had full accounts of the matter from Gillingham. Nay, the queen's plenipotentiaries, the earl of Strafford and Dr Robinſon biſhop of Briſtol, went ſo far, as to ſuffer a clauſe to be inſerted at the end of the 15th article of the peace with Spain; whereby, to uſe the words of the ſecret committee, they gave a pretence to the Spaniards to claim a right to fiſh at NEWFOUNDLAND, contrary to the 7th and 8th articles of the treaty made with that crown by Sir William Godolphin.

The board of trade, being conſulted upon this occaſion, made the following anſwer to the lord Dartmouth, dated January 13, 1712-13:—'We have conſidered the extract of a memorial from the marquis de Monteleone, relating to a claim of the inhabitants of Guipuſcoa to fiſh on the coaſt of Newfoundland; and thereupon take leave to inform your lordſhip, that we have diſcourſed with ſuch perſons as are able to give us information in that matter, and we find that ſome Spaniards are come hither with paſſes from her majeſty, and others may have fiſhed there privately, but never any, that we can learn, did do it as of right belonging to them.' We ſee by this, that, even before the concluſion of that French peace, the queen's paſſes had been given to the Spaniards, to take the benefit of the moſt profitable branch of the Engliſh commerce; but the Spaniards have not carried their point in it; and, by the 4th article of the treaty which Mr Dodington made in December 1713, ſome of the ground loſt to them by the Utrecht peace was recovered, and all innovations made in trade were to be aboliſhed; the moſt ſcandalous of which was their fiſhing at Newfoundland.

Thus our Dictionary ſtood in the edition before the LAST WAR; and that theſe PRETENSIONS of the SPANIARDS, to the RIGHT OF A NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY was manifeſt by their CLAIM to it, when they joined FRANCE in the LAST WAR, as we foretold throughout our Dictionary that they might be judged to do.

But THIS POINT alſo is now finally ſettled between GREAT-BRITAIN and SPAIN, by the XVIIIth article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, wherein it is expreſsly ſtipulated, 'HIS CATHOLIC MAJESTY deſiſts, as well for himſelf, as his ſucceſſors, from all PRETENSIONS, which he may have formed in favour of the GUIPUSCOANS, and OTHER HIS SUBJECTS, to the RIGHT OF FISHING IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF NEWFOUNDLAND.'

The policy of other neighbouring nations who have long eſtabliſhed fiſheries, and others who are daily attempting the ſame, at the expence of Great-Britain, ſhould effectually rouſe and alarm us, not only to preſerve that ſhare in the fiſheries we already have, but to excite and animate us to make the utmoſt advancement in this invaluable branch of traffic that we are capable of; more eſpecially ſo, ſince we have it in our power, by a natural right, to fiſh upon our own coaſts, and perhaps have an equal right to hinder and prevent all other nations from doing ſo.

I ſhall not here, however, enter into the ſole right of Great-Britain to the ſovereignty of the Britiſh ſeas, though a great fund of argument might be urged on that head. What I ſhall obſerve at preſent is, that, although it may not be adviſeable, at this conjuncture, to attempt to put an abſolute ſtop to other nations from fiſhing upon our own coaſts, yet it is to be hoped, that this indulgence to others is not to prevent ourſelves from making the beſt advantages that God and nature have given us, by ſtoring our coaſts with ſuch immenſe plenty of fiſh!

Of the herring and herring-fiſhery, in the ſeas, and on the coaſts of Great-Britain and Ireland.

About the beginning of the month, ſignified by ſeveral tokens in the air and in the water, which the Shetlanders ſay they know it by, there appears coming from the north an incredible ſhoal of this ſpecies of fiſh, which is ſo well known throughout the world as to need no deſcription.

From whence they come, and where they may be ſaid to breed and increaſe, we know little of. That they are innumerable in quantity is matter of fact. Nor do they, as we can perceive, return from whence they came, to breed a farther ſupply for the next ſeaſon; on the contrary, they come from home, wherever that may be, big with young, as we may ſay, ſwelling with their prolific ſpawn, in which every fiſh may be ſaid to produce 10,000 others: and this ſpawn they caſt in theſe ſeas, for they come to us full, and are ſhotten long before they go from us.

They come up, as it may be ſaid, on the breadth of the ſea; and the bulk of the ſhoal, take it in the groſs, is probably greater than the whole land of Great-Britain and Ireland. They are doubtleſs greatly ſtraitened when they come ſouthward, by being obliged to paſs between the ſhores of Greenland and the North Cape; which to ſuch immenſe ſwarms muſt be called a ſtrait, though, on the ſurface of the globe, it be no leſs than 200 leagues in breadth.

When their ſurprizing body meets with an interruption from the ſituation of the iſland of Great-Britain, it divides them into two parts, whether equal, or how near ſo, is not to be determined. One part of them ſteer ſomething weſt or ſouth-weſt, and, leaving the iſlands of Orkney and Shetland to the left, paſs on towards Ireland. There meeting a ſecond interruption from the ſituation of that iſland, they divide themſelves again; one part, keeping to the coaſt of Britain, paſs away ſouth down that which we call St George's or the Iriſh channel; and ſo coming on between England and Ireland, they enter the Severn Sea, where they meet with their ſpecies again. The other part, edging off for want of room to the weſt and ſouth-weſt as before, go along the Hibernian ocean, and, ſtill keeping upon the coaſt, make about to the ſouth ſhore of Ireland; and then, ſteering ſouth-eaſt, meet with their ſpecies again, who come down the Iriſh channel.

The other part of the firſt diviſion made in the north, parting a little to the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, come down into the German ocean; and, keeping ſtill cloſe to the coaſt of Britain, they paſs by Shetland, and then make the point of Buchaneſs and the coaſt of Aberdeen; filling, as they paſs, all the bays, firths, river, and creeks, with their innumerable multitudes, as if directed by Heaven on purpoſe to preſent themſelves for the relief and employment of the poor, and the benefits of traffic. Hence they come away ſouth, paſs

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by Dunbar, and, rounding the high ſhores of St Tobbs and of Berwick, are ſeen again off of Scarborough, and not before, and not in bulk, 'till they come to Yarmouth Roads in England, and thence to the mouth of the Thames; from whence paſſing the Britiſh Channel, they are ſeen no more.

We come next to ſpeak of the fiſhing for them by the ſeveral nations in Europe, from which ſo great a profit in trade is raiſed, navigation ſo much improved, ſeamen nurſed and bred up, and ſo many thouſands, we may ſay millions, perhaps, of hands employed and maintained both at ſea and on ſhore.

Before the late eſtabliſhment of the ſociety of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery the DUTCH gave them the firſt ſalute, who were generally ready off Shetland at the firſt appearance of the fiſh, with above 1500 ſail of buſſes; and ſpreading their nets in the fair way, as they call it, of the fiſh, they are not long a loading all their veſſels; which, when done, they make home to cure, repack, and prepare them for the markets, which is chiefly at Dantzick and the eaſt country.

The herrings not miſſing the comparative few of their ſpecies, which are there taken, make on their way for the ſhores of Scotland, and ſpreading themſelves upon the ſands and ſhoals, in every creek, harbour, or bay, as it were, offering themſelves to the Scots nets, as well for food of the poor, as for the commerce of the merchants there: nor did the Scots, before the late eſtabliſhed fiſheries, neglect to take very great quantities, which they alſo cured, pickled up, and ſent to the ſame markets as the Dutch; and, conſidering the Dutch carry all their fiſh home, repack, pickle, and relade them on other ſhips, the Scots are frequently at the market before the Dutch, and ſell for as good a price.

After the Scots on the north-ſide the Tay have thus fiſhed, the Dunbar fiſhing-boats and the Fife-men fall in among the herrings; and they likewiſe take a conſiderable quantity, as well for carrying up the land for the uſe of the country, to Edinburgh, and other populous places, as for curing after the Yarmouth manner, and making what we call red herrings. From hence the ſhoal of fiſh, keeping in deeper water, are ſcarce ſeen any more, except, as obſerved, a little off Scarborough, 'till they come to Yarmouth; where, ſpreading themſelves upon the ſands in queſt of their food, they are again taken in prodigious quantities by the Engliſh, the Dutch, and the French; for as the Yarmouth and Leoſtoff men take and cure about 50,000 barrels of red herrings in a year, ſo they conſume an incredible number in the town of Yarmouth, the city of Norwich, and all the adjacent towns of thoſe populous counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, as well as in Eſſex, Cambridgeſhire, &c.

While they are fiſhing of them here, other branches of that ſhoal puſh themſelves forward to the mouth of the Thames, where the fiſhing-ſmacks of London, Folkſtone, Dover, Sandwich, and all that coaſt, take alſo innumerable quantities for London markets, and for all the populous towns on the river Thames. and near the ſea-coaſt of Kent and Suſſex.

All this while the Dutch, fitting out their buſſes again, lie on the back of Yarmouth-ſands; as do likewiſe the French, Flemings, Fluſhingers, Bremeners, and Hamburghers.

Laſtly, they come into the narrow ſeas, where the French on one ſide, and our weſt-country fiſhermen on the other, meet them again; and by this time they caſt their rows, and become ſhotten. After which they diſappear in theſe parts.

On the ſide of North Britain they fare no better; the merchants of Glaſgow, Aire, Dumfries, and on the coaſt of Galloway, are engaged more or leſs in the herring fiſheries; and the merchants of Londonderry, Belfaſt, Carrickfergus, Carlingford, and on to Dublin, meet them on that ſide; and, beginning upon them at the Lewes and Weſtern Iſlands, give them no reſt; 'till having run the gauntlot, as we may ſay, through the Iriſh channel, they come out into the Severn ſea, where again they are attacked by the Engliſh merchants of Devonſhire, from Minehead to Barnſtaple and Biddiford, and ſo on weſtward to the towns on the north ſhore of Cornwall, where many thouſands of tons are catched and cured for trade, and many ſhips loaded off with them for Spain and the Mediterranean (beſides an incredible number conſumed by the people on ſhore) the merchants of Pembroke, Swanſea, and all the coaſt of South Wales, from Milford-Haven to the mouth of Briſtol-River, above King's-Road, doing the ſame: after which being ſhotten, they march weſtward into deep waters to their own ſpecies, and are ſeen no more.

Thus we have brought this fiſh round the iſland, offering themſelves indifferently as they paſs to the nets of all the neighbouring nations; who for their own food, and for ſale to other countries, where the ſhoal does not come, take an inexpreſſible number. Whither they go afterwards is uncertain. As to the ſuggeſtion, that the quantity is by this time exhauſted, the contrary is ſo evident, from the mighty ſhoals which are ſeen in the Severn ſeas, and on the weſt and ſouth coaſts of England and Ireland, at their parting, that it rather ſeems the number taken bears but a very ſmall proportion to the whole that might be.

It is alſo certain, that theſe ſhoals of herrings are purſued and devoured in great quantities, by the more ravenous and larger fiſh, ſuch as the porpus, dog-fiſh, fin-fiſh, and other the divers ſorts of ſea-monſters, with which thoſe northern ſeas abound.

It is likewiſe true, that the herrings are found again upon the ſhores of North-America, though not in ſuch quantities as here; nor are they ſeen farther ſouth, even in that country, than the rivers of Carolina: whether theſe may be part of that mighty ſhoal, which, at their firſt coming by the coaſt of Greenland, might, inſtead of coming to the ſouth-eaſtward with the reſt, keep to the coaſts of America on the north-weſt ſide; or whether theſe may be the remainder of them that paſs our channels, is uncertain: but we know, that they are not ſeen in quantities in any of the ſouthern kingdoms, as Spain, Portugal, or the ſouth parts of France, on the ſide of the ocean, or in the Mediterranean, or the coaſt of Africa.

As this article of FISHERIES is pretty much ſwelled already, we ſhall not here enter into a very minute and particular conſideration of the herring fiſhery, as it is at preſent eſtabliſhed in this kingdom, by a ſociety of the FREE BRITISH FISHERY; becauſe, to do juſtice to a ſubject of that high concernment to the nation, requires a diſtinct deliberation, and not to be ſlurred over in a general and ſuperficial manner. Wherefore we ſhall only obſerve, at preſent, that ſince the divine providence has ſo eminently ſtored the coaſts of Great-Britain and Ireland, with this valuable ſpecies of fiſh; and ſince this branch of the Britiſh-fiſhery muſt, if it proves ſucceſsful, become an additional permanent nurſery for the brood of expert ſeamen; it is not only a duty we owe to the Supreme Being, not to diſpiſe that wonderful plenty of herrings he hath afforded us, by neglecting to extend this branch of trade to the utmoſt, but it is a duty we owe to our country, for it's natural ſecurity; for that depends upon royal navies, and no nation can have a navy, where there is not a fund of buſineſs to breed and employ ſeamen, without any expence to the public, but when they are actually employed in the ſervice of the public: a fleet depends upon navigation, navigation upon trade, and trade upon HOME MANUFACTURES and FISHERIES.

Our Fiſheries, of all others, may be rendered the greateſt nurſery for ſeamen. This buſineſs is now carried on more or leſs, in every part upon the coaſts of the whole iſland of Great-Britain, and upon the coaſts of all the iſlands that belong to it. Every man, who has been a few years in the practice of going to ſea to fiſh, makes a good ſeaman before the maſt, and moſt of them go to ſea when a good voyage comes in their way; and when it is over, return to their fiſhing again, until the like opportunity offers.

Another fiſhery, almoſt as peculiar to Great-Britain as the herrings, is that of pilchards. Theſe are a ſort of fiſh ſomething ſmaller than a herring, and which come in the ſame ſeaſon; they chiefly ſhew themſelves on the ſhores of the two weſtern counties of Devon and Cornwall, and are rarely ſeen any where elſe in the world, at leaſt not in the like quantities.

'Tis a ſaying of the Corniſh-men with regard to the pilchard, that 'tis the leaſt fiſh in ſize, moſt in number, and greateſt for gain, of any they take out of the ſea.

The mackarel fiſhing comes next. Theſe are a kind of fiſh, which the Engliſh are extremely fond of; the Scots ſee few of them, they being found in no quantities farther north than Yarmouth. They are not cured or exported as merchandize, except a few by the Yarmouth and Leoſtoff merchants; but are generally conſumed at home, eſpecially in the city of London, and the ſea-ports between the Thames and Yarmouth eaſt, and the Land's-end of Cornwall weſt. The Iriſh alſo have them on their coaſts on the weſt of Ireland, but not far north.

There are ſeveral other ſmall fiſheries on the ſea-coaſts of Great-Britain, which, however conſiderable in themſelves, are not much the ſubjects of merchandize, and yet employ great numbers both of ſhips and men.—As the oyſter fiſhing at Colcheſter, Feverſham *, the Iſle of Wight, and in the ſwales of the Medway.

* From Feverſham the Dutch ſometimes load 100 ſail of veſſels, or large hoys, with oyſters in a year: alſo oyſters are catched in very great quantities near Portſmouth, and in all the creeks and rivers between Southampton and Chicheſter; many of which are carried about by ſea to London and to Colcheſter, to be fed in the pits about Wavenhoe, and other places.

The lobſter fiſhing: theſe are taken all along the Britiſh channel, and brought to London for ſale; alſo in the Frith of Edinburgh, and on the coaſt of Northumberland. But of late the Britiſh fiſhermen find a better account in it, by fiſhing for them on the coaſt of Norway, from whence great quantities are brought to London.

It is to be obſerved in general, that the Britiſh fiſhermen have always one fiſhing or other in ſeaſon; for, as one ſort of fiſh goes out of ſeaſon, another comes in.

Before we cloſe this article of the Britiſh Fiſheries, we ſhould not forget to mention that of the whale fiſhing, or Greenland trade; a trade, though now little regarded by us, yet Great-

Britain has a title to by a kind of inheritance, the Engliſh being the firſt that ever made the bold attempt of attacking that terrible creature, and ſailed amongſt thoſe monſtrous iſlands of ice, in queſt of new diſcoveries, and traverſed the frozen zone to the latitude of 76, within the arctick circle, where they diſcovered Greenland, as we call it, or Spitſbergen, as other nations term it. And although they here found the land not capable of being cultivated or inhabited, yet they found the ſeas full of whales; and, finding the catching of them very beneficial, they ſoon became dextrous harpooners. From them the Hollanders, Bremers, and Hamburghers, learned the ſame; and in their firſt enterprizes were obliged to hire Engliſhmen for harpooners and ſteerſmen, as we are now (ſo unhappily are the tables turned) to hire Dutchmen and Germans, if we go about the ſame buſineſs.

Having thus run over, with what brevity we could, the nature of our own fiſheries, as well as thoſe of ſome of the principal trading countries of Europe, it requires no argument to inforce the neceſſity of exerting ourſelves conſtantly in this eſtimable branch of traffic; for, if other nations ſhall enjoy ſo certain, and ſo important a nurſery for the brood of ſeamen, and we ſhould wholly neglect the ſame, it does not require the gift of prophecy to foreſee, who muſt one day obtain the ſuperiority in maritime power.

Upon this point then ſeems to turn, in a great meaſure, the very being and ſalvation of this kingdom, with relation to it's freedom and independency: and what more need be urged to rouze the Britiſh nation to leave nothing undone, which ought to be otherwiſe, for the advancement of our fiſheries of every kind?

With reſpect to thoſe which are upon our own coaſt of Great Britain and Ireland, as likewiſe in thoſe in our American plantations, no nation can pretend to deprive us of our natural rights of fiſhing in theſe parts: and if we ſhall think proper to indulge other ſtates with the like privileges of fiſhing upon our own coaſts, and reaping unſpeakable advantages thereby, is it not the worſt of policy, is it not ſuperlative infatuation, to ſuffer other rival nations to grow rich and powerful by this commerce at our own doors, while we ſhamefully neglect it?

However adviſable, we ſay, it may be to tolerate and connive at the fiſheries of foreigners upon our coaſt, yet this, which is only a matter of FAVOUR AND INDULGENCE, ſhould not be conſtrued as a MATTER OF RIGHT; for it ſeems ſomething unjuſt and unreaſonable, that the fiſh of our own ſeas ſhould be caught and engroſſed by STRANGERS, in prejudice of our natural right, ſince it will appear, we apprehend, that his majeſty the king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the indulgence granted for a promiſcuous fiſhing in the Britiſh ſeas, has a RIGHT TO REASSUME HIS AUTHORITY, AND PERMIT NONE TO FISH THEREIN, WITHOUT HIS SPECIAL LICENCE, AS HATH BEEN HERETOFORE OBTAINED FROM HIS PREDECESSORS, FOR MANY AGES: nor can it be eſteemed unreaſonable, if, in conſequence of ſuch right in the crown of Great Britain, an abſolute interdiction ſhould be made, to prevent ſuch foreigners taking the bread out of our mouths, unleſs ſuch FOREIGNERS merit ſuch INDULGENCE by their CONDUCT TOWARDS THESE KINGDOMS.

It is greatly to be doubted, whether any nation would grant us the like privileges that we do to others, had nature given them the ſame advantages which we have in this reſpect. But it is a received truth, that the ſovereignty of the Britiſh ſeas is the moſt precious jewel of the Britiſh crown, and next, under God, the principal means of our wealth, and our ſecurity as a free people; and this certainly appertaineth to the kings of Great Britain by immemorable preſcription, continual uſage and poſſeſſion, the acknowlegement of all our neighbouring ſtates, and by the ſenſe of the municipal laws of the kingdom: and this right hath been inſiſted on many hundred years by the kings of England.

The famous Edgar, with a navy of 400 ſail, vindicated his dominion in the adjacent ſeas. Canutus exacted his tribute, called DANES GELDT, on them. Egbert, Alfred, and Ethelred, were acknowledged ſupreme governors of the ocean ſurrounding the Britiſh ſhore. In the year 1200, king John had the honour of the flag paid him, in acknowlegement of his dominion, ever ſince continued to his ſucceſſors, in the Britiſh ſeas, and ALL THE NETHERLANDS CRAVED PROTECTION AND LIBERTY TO FISH IN THEM of EDWARD I. The earl of Holland petitioned Edward III; he did the French king, Henry VI, for the like purpoſe: and our learned Camden affirms, that in his time, THE HOLLANDERS DURST NOT CAST A NET ON OUR NORTHERN COAST, 'till licence was firſt obtained at Scarborough Caſtle for ſo doing. Philip II. of Spain obtained licence of queen Mary, that his ſubjects might fiſh on the north coaſt of Ireland for the ſpace of 21 years; and it appears, by the records of that kingdom, that he yearly paid into the Exchequer 1000 l. ſterling. This right was ſtrenuouſly inſiſted on in the ſeventh year of king James I, as appears by the following proclamation.

A proclamation touching fiſhing.

'James, by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France and Ireland, defender of the faith, &c. to all and ſingular the perſons to whom it doth or may appertain, greeting. Although we do ſufficiently know, by our experience in the office of regal dignity (in which, by the favour of Almighty God, we have been placed and exerciſed theſe many years) as alſo of the obſervations we have made of other Chriſtian princes exemplary actions, how far the abſoluteneſs of ſovereign power extendeth itſelf; and that, in regard thereof, we need not yield account thereof to any perſon under God, for any actions of ours, which is lawfully grounded on that juſt prerogative; yet ſuch hath ever been, and will be our care and deſire, to give ſatisfaction to our neighbour princes in any action which may have the leaſt relation to their ſubjects and eſtates, as we have thought good (by way of friendly premonition) to declare unto them, and to whomſoever it may appertain, as followeth:

'Whereas we have been contented, ſince our coming to the crown, to tolerate and permit an indifferent and promiſcuous kind of fiſhing to all our friends whatſoever, to fiſh within our ſtreams, and upon any of our coaſts of Great-Britain, Ireland, and other adjacent iſlands: ſo far forth as the permiſſion and uſe thereof might not redound to the impeachment of prerogative royal, nor to the hurt and damage of our loving ſubjects, whoſe preſervation and flouriſhing eſtate we hold ourſelf principally bound to advance, before all worldly reſpects: ſo finding that our continuance therein hath not only given occaſion of great incroachments on our regalities, or rather queſtioning our right, but hath been a means of daily wrongs to our own people that exerciſe the trade of fiſhing: as (either by multitudes of ſtrangers that do pre-occupy theſe places, or by the injuries which they receive moſt commonly at their hands) our ſubjects are conſtrained to abandon their fiſhing, or at leaſt to become ſo diſcouraged in the ſame, as they hold it better for them to betake themſelves to ſome other courſe of living, whereby not only many of our coaſt-towns are much decayed, but the number of mariners daily diminiſhed, which is matter of great conſequence to our eſtate, conſidering how much the ſtrength thereof conſiſteth in the power of ſhipping, and uſe of navigation. We have thought it now both juſt and neceſſary (in reſpect that we are now, by God's favour, lineally and lawfully poſſeſſed, as well of the iſlands of Great-Britain as of Ireland, and the reſt of the iſles adjacent) to bethink ourſelves of good lawful means to prevent thoſe inconveniences, and many others depending upon the ſame.

'In conſideration whereof, as we are deſirous that the world may take notice, that we have no intention to deny our neighbours and allies thoſe fruits and benefits of peace and friendſhip, which may be juſtly expected at our hands in honour or reaſon, are afforded by other princes mutually in point of commerce and exchange of thoſe things which may not prove prejudicial to them: ſo becauſe ſome ſuch convenient order may be taken in this matter, as may ſufficiently provide for theſe important conſiderations, which do depend thereon, we have reſolved firſt to give notice to all the world, that our expreſs pleaſure is, That from the beginning of Auguſt next enſuing, no perſon, of what nation or quality ſoever (being not our natural-born ſubjects) be permitted to fiſh on any of our coaſts and ſeas of Great-Britain, Ireland, and the reſt of the iſles adjacent, where moſt uſually heretofore any fiſhing hath been, until they have orderly demanded and obtained licences from us, or of ſuch of our commiſſioners as we have authorized in that behalf, viz. at London, for our realms of England and Ireland; and at Edinburgh for our realm of Scotland; which licences, our intention is, ſhall be yearly demanded for ſo many veſſels and ſhips, and the tonnage thereof, as ſhall intend to fiſh for that whole year, or any part thereof, upon any of our coaſts or ſeas thereof, as aforeſaid, upon pain of ſuch chaſtiſement as ſhall be fit to be inflicted upon ſuch wilful offenders.

'Given at the palace of Weſtminſter, the 6th day of May, in the 7th year of our reign of Great-Britain, Anno Domini 1609.'

Notwithſtanding this proclamation, foreigners ſtill incroached upon our coaſts and ſeas; and, during the whole reign of king James, pretending, becauſe of the long connivance of himſelf and queen Elizabeth, that they had a right of their own, by immemorial poſſeſſion, which ſome Dutch commiſſaries pleaded (in terminis) before the king and council; and they made no other uſe of his majeſty's indulgence than to tire out his reign with evaſive anſwers; and all that the king at length gained, was only a verbal acknowlegement of thoſe rights; which, while they acknowleged, they equally evaded, abuſing the favour of the king's indulgence, whereby he permitted his allies to make uſe of his ſeas and ports according to treaties.

He gave our neighbours leave to gather wealth and ſtrength

on

on our coaſts; nay, they were once glad to invite our merchants reſidence, with what privileges they deſired; they likewiſe, at one time, offered us even the ſovereignty of their eſtates; they ſued to us for licence to fiſh on our coaſts, and obtained it under the great ſeal of Scotland, which they ſoon ſuppreſſed. When thus, by permiſſion and connivance, they had poſſeſſed themſelves of our fiſheries, not only in Scotland and it's iſles, as well in Ireland as in England, and by our ſtaple had raiſed their trade, they ſo increaſed their ſhipping and power by ſea, that they were not content to be kept within any bounds, the truth whereof is evident by a letter of ſecretary Naunton's to the lord ambaſſador Carlton, dated the 21ſt of January, 1618; which follows:

'I received directions from his majeſty to ſignify to the ſtates 'commiſſioners here, that albeit their earneſt intreaty, and 'his gracious conſideration of the preſent trouble of their 'church and ſtate, had moved his majeſty to conſent to de'lay the treaty of the great fiſhing 'till the time craved by the 'commiſſioners; yet, underſtanding by the new and freſh 'complaints of his mariners and fiſhers on the coaſt of Scot'land, that, within theſe four or five years paſt, the Low'Country fiſhers have taken ſo great advantage of his ma'jeſty's toleration, that they have grown nearer and nearer 'on his majeſty's coaſts, year by year, than they did in pre'ceding times, and oppreſſed ſome of his ſubjects, of intent 'to continue their pretended poſſeſſion, and driven ſome of 'their greateſt veſſels through their nets, to deter others, for 'fear of the like violence, from fiſhing near them, &c.

'His majeſty cannot forbear to tell them, that he is well per'ſuaded of the equity of the ſtates, and of the honourable re'ſpect they bear unto him, and his ſubjects for his ſake, that 'they will never allow ſuch unjuſt and intolerable oppreſſions: 'for reſtraint whereof, and to prevent the inconveniencies 'which muſt enſue upon continuation of the ſame, his ma'jeſty hath by me deſired, that you write to their ſuperiors, 'to cauſe proclamation to be made, prohibiting any of their 'ſubjects to fiſh within 14 miles of his majeſty's coaſt this 'year, or any time hereafter, 'till order be taken by com'miſſioners to be authorized on both ſides, for a final ſettling 'of the main buſineſs.

'His majeſty hath likewiſe directed me to command you from 'him, to make the like declaration and inſtances to the ſtates 'there, and to certify his majeſty of their anſwer with what 'convenient ſpeed you may.'

Thus far ſecretary Naunton to the ambaſſador: what effect the ambaſſador's negociation with the States had, appears by a letter of his from the Hague of the 6th of February, 1618, to king James himſelf, where, among other paſſages, he hath this:

'I find likewiſe, in the manner of proceeding, that, treating 'by way of propoſition, nothing can be expected but their 'wonted dilatory and evaſive anſwers; their manner being 'to refer ſuch propoſitions from the States-General to the 'States of Holland. The States of Holland take advice of a 'certain council reſiding at Delft, which they call the council 'of the fiſhery. From them ſuch an anſwer commonly 'comes as may be expected from ſuch an oracle. The way 'therefore (under correction) to effect your majeſty's intent, is 'to begin with the fiſheries themſelves, by publiſhing, againſt 'the time of their going out, your reſolution, at what di'ſtance you will permit them to fiſh; whereby they will be 'be forced to have recourſe to their council of fiſhery, that 'council to the States of Holland, and thoſe of Holland to 'the States-General: who then, inſtead of being ſought unto, 'will, for contentment of their ſubjects, ſeek unto your 'majeſty.'

During the whole reign of king James I, incroachments more and more increaſed, and the Netherlands, about the 12th year of the reign of king Charles I, were grown to ſuch a height of power and figure at ſea, that they had the confidence to keep ground upon our ſeas, and to project an office and company of aſſurance for advancement of trade, and alſo to prohibit us free commerce even within our own ſeas, and took our ſhips and goods, if we conformed not to their placarts, in all which our ſufferings may ſeem to be forgot, yet the great intereſt of his majeſty's honour, and the welfare of his ſubjects, occaſioned the following proclamation, which was backed with a gallant fleet, to refreſh the memories of thoſe bold incroachments on our right.

A proclamation by king Charles I, for reſtraint of fiſhing upon his ſeas and coaſts without licence.

'Whereas our father of bleſſed memory, king James, did, in 'the ſeventh year of his reign of Great-Britain, ſet forth a 'proclamation touching fiſhing, whereby, for the many im'portant reaſons therein expreſſed, all perſons, of what na'tion or quality ſoever (being not his natural-born ſubjects) 'were reſtrained from fiſhing upon any of the coaſts and ſeas 'of Great-Britain, Ireland, and the reſt of the iſles adja'cent, where moſt uſually heretofore fiſhing had been, un'til they had orderly demanded and obtained licences from 'our ſaid father, or his commiſſioners in that behalf, upon 'pain of ſuch chaſtiſement as ſhould be fit to be inflicted upon 'ſuch wilful offenders: ſince which time albeit, neither our 'ſaid father nor ourſelf have made any conſiderable execution 'of the ſaid proclamation, but have, with much patience, 'expected a voluntary conformity of our neighbours and al'lies to ſo juſt and reaſonable prohibitions and directions as 'are contained in the ſame.

'And now finding by experience, that all the inconveniencies 'which occaſioned that proclamation are rather increaſed than 'abated: we being very ſenſible of the premiſſes, and well 'knowing how far we are obliged in honour to maintain the 'rights of our crown, eſpecially of ſo great conſequence, 'have thought it neceſſary, by advice of our privy-council, 'to renew the aforeſaid reſtraint of fiſhing upon our aforeſaid 'coaſts and ſeas, without our licence firſt obtained from us; 'and by theſe preſents do make public declaration, that our 'reſolution is, at times convenient) to keep ſuch a competent 'ſtrength of ſhipping upon our ſeas, ar may (by God's bleſ'ſing) be ſufficient both to hinder ſuch further incroachments 'upon our regalities, and aſſiſt and protect thoſe our good 'friends and allies, who ſhall henceforth, by virtue of our li'cences (to be firſt obtained) endeavour to take the benefit of 'fiſhing on our coaſts and ſeas, in the places accuſtomed.

'Given at our palace of Weſtminſter, the 10th day of May, 'in the 12th year of our reign of England, Scotland, France, 'and Ireland.'

This ſecond proclamation, being ſet forth in the year 1636, ſerved to ſpeak the intent of thoſe naval preparations made in the year preceding, which were ſo numerous and well-provided, that our Netherland neighbours were apprehenſive of ſome great deſign in hand for the intereſt of England; and were let to know, that we hold it as a principle not to be denied, that the king of Great-Britain is a monarch at land and ſea, to the full extent of his dominions; and that it as much concerneth him to maintain his ſovereignty in the Britiſh ſeas, as in his three kingdoms; becauſe, without that, theſe cannot be kept ſafe, nor he preſerve his honour and due reſpect with other nations; but, by commanding the ſeas, commands the reſpect of his neighbours.

His majeſty's intention by that fleet was not a rupture with any prince or ſtate, nor to infringe any part of his treaties, but to continue and maintain peace, well-conſidering that peace muſt be maintained by the arm of power, which keeps down war by maintaining dominion. And his majeſty, being provoked, found it neceſſary, even for his own defence and ſafety, to reaſſume and keep his antient and undoubted rights in the dominion of the Britiſh ſeas, and to ſuffer no other prince or ſtate to incroach upon him, thereby aſſuming to themſelves, or their admirals, any ſovereign command.

But to force them to perform due homage to his admirals and ſhips, and to pay them acknowlegement as in former times they did; as alſo to ſet open and protect the free trade both for his ſubjects and allies, and give them ſuch ſafe-conduct as they might reaſonably require: nor would he ſuffer any men of war or free-booters to take prizes, or keep guard, to offer any violence, or give any interruption, to any lawful intercourſe upon his ſeas, being reſolved to do juſtice both to his ſubjects and friends within his dominion aforeſaid. True it is, that the indulgence of queen Elizabeth, king James, and king Charles I, to their neighbouring nations, eſpecially the Hollanders, by giving them too much liberty, did, in their times, encourage them to aſſume a privilege to themſelves; and what at the firſt was but a licence, they improved into a cuſtom, and made that cuſtom an authority; inſomuch that ſome of the buſieſt of them openly declared againſt the king's right of dominion in the Britiſh ſeas.

Remarks.

What is here ſuggeſted, in regard to the ſovereignty of our monarch over thoſe ſeas which belong, by nature, to the coaſts of his dominions, is not with the leaſt intent whatever to create any jealouſies or heart-burnings between Great-Britain and our natural ally, the States-General of the United Provinces; it being the reciprocal intereſts of both theſe ſtates to maintain the greateſt cordiality, and ſtricteſt union and friendſhip with each other: and this our intention, we humbly conceive, is ſufficiently evinced, from what we have urged under the article Britain [Great-Britain]. We cannot, however, but hold it neceſſary to aſſert our natural rights, that our beſt friends may be ſenſible of the obligation they lie under for thoſe extraordinary indulgences which they receive from us. But whether it may be conſiſtent with the intereſts of this kingdom to indulge the French or the Dutch to fiſh on our British or Irish coaſts, is a point that may merit one day the ſerious conſideration of the government.

Of the Society of the Free British Fishery.

The ſubſtance of the act of parliament, intitled, An act for the encouragement of the British White Herring Fishery, made in the year 1749.

1. From the paſt miſcarriages that have attended many joint-ſtock excluſive trading companies, the parliament have, in

their great wiſdom, been pleaſed to impower his majeſty to grant letters patent to an incorporated ſociety, under the name of THE FREE BRITISH FISHERY, who are not veſted with an excluſive power of trade.

2. The ſociety are impowered to make by-laws.

They are to direct what ſeals or marks ſhall be put on every barrel of fiſh. The penalty of counterfeiting ſuch ſeals or marks is five hundred pounds for each offence, to be recovered in any of his majeſty's courts of record at Weſtminſter, of in the court of ſeſſion in Scotland; the one moiety to be paid to the ſaid ſociety, and the other to ſuch as ſhall ſue for the ſame

3. The ſociety are impowered to raiſe a capital ſtock of 500,000 l. and make calls for payments of the ſubſcriptions.

4. The ſociety may ſell the ſhares of thoſe who refuſe to pay, after notice of call given in the Gazette.—Subſcriptions to be paid into the bank of England.

5. 3 l. per cent per annum, for the ſums employed in the fiſhery, to be paid to the ſociety for 14 years.

6. An account of the ſaid ſums to be given annually to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms.—The account to be atteſted upon oath.

7. 100,000 l. to be employed in the fiſheries within 18 months from the date of the ſubſcription.

8. The accounts to be laid before parliament.

9. All loſſes to be made good by the ſucceeding years gain, &c.

10. Sums contracted to be paid in 6 months, deemed to be employed as a capital ſtock.

11. No transfer to be made of the ſaid capital ſtock for 5 years.

12. Executors and aſſignees of bankrupts, &c. may tranſfer.

13. 30 ſhillings per ton bounty to be paid out of the cuſtoms, for decked veſſels, built for the fiſheries, after the commencement of this act.

14. Every ſuch buſs employed in the white herring fiſheries, that ſhall be intitled to the bounty of 30 s. per ton, ſhall be decked, built in Great-Britain, and proceed on the ſaid fiſhery from ſome port in Great-Britain, manned and navigated, as by the law now in force is directed.——See NAVIGATION.—Before ſuch buſs proceed on her voyage, and is intitled to the benefit of this act, ſhe ſhall be viſited by a proper officer of the cuſtoms of the port, who ſhall take an account of the tonnage by admeaſurement, and certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and that ſhe had ſuch a quantity of fiſhing-nets, and other ſtores to be uſed in the ſaid fiſhery as hereafter mentioned, and is otherwiſe a proper veſſel for the ſaid fiſhery.—And, upon it's appearing, by the oath of one or more owner or owners, or agent, by them appointed, or of a proper officer of the ſociety, and of the maſter of ſuch veſſel, written at the foot of the ſaid certificate, and made before the collector and comptroller of ſuch port, who are required and impowered to adminiſter the ſame, That it is their determined reſolution, that ſuch buſs ſhall proceed reſpectively, ſo manned, and otherwiſe furniſhed, either to Braſſey's ſound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous of the ſaid fiſhery there, on or before the 11th day of June, and ſhall not ſhoot their net before the 13th day of the ſaid month, and ſhall continue following and fiſhing among the ſhoals of herrings, as they move, ſouthward, to the 1ſt of October, or ſhall proceed to Campbeltown in Argyleſhire, and be at the rendezvous of the ſaid fiſheries, on or before the 1ſt day of December, unleſs they ſhall have ſooner compleated their loading of fiſh; and ſhall fiſh in a regular manner with other veſſels, which ſhall be employed in the ſaid fiſhery; and ſhall keep a journal of their proceedings.—And if, after ſuch certificate had, and oath made, ſuch owner or owners, or officer of the ſaid ſociety, and maſter of ſuch buſs, do alſo become bound, with two ſufficient ſureties, unto his majeſty, in the penalty of ſuch ſum as ſhall be equal to treble the bounty, on the tonnage of his veſſel, for the faithful dealing of the ſaid maſter, and ſhip's company, in regard to the ſaid veſſel and voyage, then it ſhall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of ſuch port to grant, to the maſter and owners of ſuch buſs or veſſel, full licence to proceed on ſuch voyage as aforeſaid.

15. And, to prevent diſputes which may ariſe, whether a veſſel be properly qualified for the herring fiſhery, according to the meaning of the act, and intitled to a certificate from the cuſtom-houſe officers; it is enacted, That every ſuch veſſel ſhall be a decked veſſel, built in Great-Britain, after the commencement of this act, and ſhall have on board 12 Wincheſter buſhels of ſalt, for every laſt of fiſh which ſuch veſſel is capable of holding, which ſalt ſhall be barrelled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as ſuch buſs is capable of carrying, and ſhall have two fleets of tanned nets, proper for the herring fiſhery.—That every ſuch buſs or veſſel, of the burthen of 70 tons, and deſigned for this fiſhery, ſhall, on proceeding to ſea, have on board one fleet of nets, each 30 yards full on the rope, and 17 fathoms deep, and ſo in proportion for any veſſels of a greater or leſſer tonnage, and be provided with one other fleet of 50 like nets, on board a jagger or tender, which is to attend the ſaid fiſhery, or left on ſhore in a proper place, for the uſe of the ſaid buſs.

16. All veſſels of 20 tons, to have on board, at the rendezvous, not leſs than 6 men, and every veſſel of greater burthen ſhall, over and above the 6 men, have one for every 5 tons, which ſhe ſhall exceed 20 tons.

17. Officers of the cuſtoms to go on board every veſſel at her return to Great-Britain, to view her condition and lading; who is to certify the ſame, with the tonnage, and names of the maſter and perſons on board.—The maſter to make oath, that his veſſel was at one of the places before-mentioned, at the time appointed by this act.—Certificates, &c. to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners from whence the veſſel departed,—who are to cauſe payment to be made to the owners thereof, after the rate of 30 s. per ton,—which bounty of 30 s. per ton is to be paid yearly for 14 years.

18. This act not to exclude any of his majeſty's ſubjects from carrying on the white herring fiſhery.

19. Perſons ſubſcribing 10,000 l. into the ſtock of the ſociety, under the name of the fiſhing chamber, and who ſhall carry on the fiſhery on their own account of profit and loſs, and ſhall ſend their accounts of monies expended in the ſaid fiſhery, atteſted by three of the committee, and ſigned by the accomptant of the chamber, to the ſociety of London, &c. ſhall be intitled to receive 3 l. per cent. per annum.

20. Fiſhing chambers not to have any profit, &c. from the trade of the ſociety.

21. Receiver-general to pay yearly the ſum of 3 l. per cent. to the ſociety of London, who are to pay over the ſame to the reſpective fiſhing chambers intitled thereto.

Further REMARKS upon the article of FISHERIES.

From this abſtract of the act of parliament for encouraging the Britiſh fiſhery, it appears, that this affair is put upon a footing the moſt likely to prove ſucceſsful to the ſociety, to the reſpective chambers, and to the public.

The ſociety is no monopoly, but every Briton has the liberty of carrying on this fiſhery, and is intitled to the ſame bounty and encouragement as the ſociety itſelf.

The beginnings of all great deſigns require extraordinary helps and encouragements from the public, before the can be effectually ſettled and eſtabliſhed: and ſo apparently beneficial to the kingdom, and to thoſe concerned, muſt this great undertaking prove, in it's conſequences, that it is to be ardently deſired it may be now eſtabliſhed upon ſuch a baſis, as to be even impoſſible to prove abortive.

When the Dutch were at war with England, and they wanted to mann twenty or thirty ſail of men of war, it was only having recourſe to their fiſhery, and, in a few days, they were in a condition to give us battle, the ſeamen being only tranſferred from a ſmaller to a larger veſſel on the ſame element.

What may we not expect from this ſcheme, a ſcheme ſo prudent in appearance, contrived by gentlemen of extraordinary ſkill and diſcernment, as well as of diſtinguiſhed probity and honour, and is carried into execution by ſuch opulent traders of this metropolis, whoſe genius for commerce is univerſally allowed, in conjunction with other perſonages of the firſt rank and fortune?

It is not to be doubted, but, while we have been raiſing money to carry on this deſign vigorouſly and proſperouſly, the Dutch have, from miſtaking their own intereſt, been raiſing large ſums alſo to defeat our intentions, and to hinder us from ever putting in in practice, by enabling the proprietors in Holland to underſell us at foreign markets.—But, ſince they find we are determined to carry it on in ſpite of all oppoſition, they are damped in their machinations, and ought rather to have a grateful ſenſe of our ſuffering them to enjoy any ſhare in our own coaſt-fiſheries, than to attempt to exclude us from thoſe benefits, which the divine providence hath ſo liberally beſtowed on us. Notwithſtanding the ſtart which the Dutch have had of us in this commerce, yet the diſadvantages they labour under are many, in compariſon to us, who are by nature ſituated in the midſt of one continued herring-ſhoal. The iſland indented, as it were, with bays and harbours, to retire to in boiſterous weather; the ſhore, whoſe inhabitants are ourſelves, to furniſh us daily with neceſſaries: the contiguity of the land whereon to dry our fiſh, and whoſe ſituation enables us, with due induſtry, care, and diſpatch, to be at moſt foreign markets, before the Dutch can have repacked their herrings in Holland: and if we are not, I am perſuaded that it muſt be owing to ſome kind of miſmanagement or other.

Here we cannot but obſerve, how favourable nature is to us; for, as the wind is above one half of the year weſterly, our head-lands and bays are good roads for our ſhips to ride in, we being on the weather, and the French and Dutch on the lee-ſhore; beſides, our ſhores are bold, our coaſts high and eaſily diſcovered, and our anchor-hold is much better, being for the moſt part ſtrong clay, hard gravel, or chalk, whilſt theirs are only hard rocks, mud or looſe ſands; and, when the eaſt wind blows, though it may block up the Thames ſhipping, yet we have many conſiderable ports whom

that

that favours likewiſe; ſuch as Portſmouth, Pool, Dartmouth, Plymouth, Briſtol, Liverpool, Whitehaven, Dumfries, Air, Glaſgow, Campbeltown, and Irwin, beſides many others of leſs note.

What a prodigious advantage is this! the wind through the whole year ſcarce ever interrupts us, while they don't enjoy the benefit of it above one half; nor are our harbours ever frozen or choaked up with ſand as the Dutch.

We ought not to regard Britain as an iſland only, abounding with the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, but as a trading iſland, that owes all it's wealth and grandeur to an extenſive commerce; which, if we ever loſe, muſt be either through ignorance or indolence; and, the day we loſe it, we may behold a ſuperior fleet riding triumphant in our channel, menacing our ſhores on every ſide, and the trembling inhabitants, with their wives and children, flying to the inward parts. —If this proſpect is ſo terrible, let it animate us with reſolution to prevent effectually ſo great an evil.

In many branches of trade, it is no eaſy matter to diſtinguiſh the nationally profitable from the diſadvantageous; but this of the fiſhery is an inexhauſtible mine, a mine, which every year is as full, if not fuller of treaſure, than it was the year preceding: gold and ſilver mines are attended with a far greater expence, and, the more they are wrought, the ſooner they are exhauſted; but this fiſhery mine of gold (for ſo we may juſtly call it) is liable to no ſuch accidents; it's expences will yearly diminiſh after it's firſt effectual opening and working, and treaſures increaſe.

Other commodities people may diſpenſe with, but meat they muſt have. And we may hope to ſee the day, that the papiſts of Europe will become greater tributaries to us for our fiſh, than to the church of Rome.'

Nor will it ſeem extraordinary, if we conſider the vaſt number of people to whom it gives daily bread: as ſeamen, fiſhermen, ſhip and houſe-carpenters, ſmiths, ſawyers, coopers, caulkers, butchers, bakers, brewers, carmen, boatmen, ſail-makers, net-makers *, block-makers, trinel-makers, rope-makers, pump-makers, compaſs-makers, baſket-makers, hook-makers, packers, dreſſers, ſorters, labourers, tanners, and ſpinners of net-work and ſails.—Several of which trades are effected by children, the lame, the blind, and the aged, as well as by thoſe who have hitherto been always the firſt in taking up arms againſt our lawful ſovereign. Nor, as an ingenious gentleman ſays, who has had frequent opportunities of dealing and converſing with them, can he believe, that the Scots heretofore aſſiſting in all rebellions is ſo much owing to inclination, as to the want of employment and ignorance, in not knowing the laws, language, and cuſtoms of England, many of them believing that their iſland, and a part of the main land, as they call it, oppoſite to them, is almoſt the whole world. Wherefore, if trade is once carried effectually among them, it is reaſonable to believe that they would be more ready to careſs that which would give them conſtant maintenance, than they would a pretender to his majeſty's crown and kingdoms, for a little temporary aſſiſtance. They are not a people at all averſe to arts and induſtry, nor do they want underſtanding for the comprehending of any ſcience; yet it may be ſaid of them as of the richeſt fields, that, if they are well cultivated, they'll produce the fineſt crops; but, if not, the worſt of thiſtles and the moſt hurtful thorns. Commerce is the ſureſt way to civilize countries; it is the ſovereign parent of all uſeful arts.

* The meaſure taken by the incorporated ſociety, as well as by the reſpective fiſhing chambers, in regard to the employment of the poor in the making of their nets, will not only prove the means of taking off a great burthen of expence from numbers of pariſhes, but will ſupply the fiſheries with this eſſential article, at a much cheaper rate than otherwiſe they could be.

At different times, 'tis true, we have endeavoured to recover the fiſhery; but, whether the miſcarriage has been owing to any wilful or inadvertent neglect, is difficult to determine. King Charles the Iſt began it, in conjunction with a company of merchants, but the civil war occaſioned it's being dropt. King Charles the IId made the like attempt; but, being preſſed for money, withdrew his ſhare; at which the merchants being diſſatisfied, 'tis no wonder they did the ſame. Whence 'tis evident, that neither want of fiſh, nor markets to vend them at, was the cauſe of laying this trade aſide, but the unhappy ſituation of public affairs, and want of due vigour and reſolution to combat a few obſtacles, which attend every new undertaking, as might be ſhewn in numberleſs important inſtances; and yet by perſeverance, and wiſe and ſteady meaſures, they have at length very happily ſucceeded.

'About ten miles below Aſtracan, ſays that ingenious and 'public-ſpirited gentleman Mr Jonas Hanway, merchant, in 'his Hiſtorical Account of the Britiſh Trade over the Caſ-'pian Sea, &c. † lately publiſhed, is a ſmall iſland, called 'Baſmakoff, remarkable for it's large ſtorehouſes of ſalt, 'which is made about twelve miles to the eaſtward of it, 'and, being brought hither in boats, is conveyed in large flat-'bottomed veſſels up the Volga. With this all the country 'is ſupplied, as far as Moſcow and Twere. They dig annu-'ally ſeveral millions of poods, the excluſive property of 'which is claimed by the crown, and brings in a conſider-'able revenue *; for the common food of the ſoldiery, and 'of the bulk of the people, is bread and ſalt. In this place 'alſo are large FISHERIES, to which the neighbourhood of 'the ſalt-works is of great advantage. Theſe extend even 'to the ſea, reaching ſouth-eaſtward as far as Yweik, and 'alſo 100 miles above Zaritzen. From theſe fiſheries all 'the country is ſupplied as far as St Peterſburg: the veſſels 'are loaded with ſalt fiſh, and ſent away in the ſpring; but, 'as freſh fiſh keeps good ſo long as it is frozen, the winter is 'no ſooner ſet in, than it is tranſported by land as far as 'Moſcow and St Peterſburg. The principal ſorts are ſtur-'geon, ſtarlet, beluga †, and aſſotra ‡.'

* In Aſtracan they ſell the ſalt at three copecks a pood, but in Ruſſia at 15 to 18, viz. about a farthing a pound. The revenue of Aſtracan is reckoned 140 to 160,000 rubles, or 35,500 l. of which the greateſt part ariſes from ſalt and fiſh.

† A large white fiſh.

‡ It reſembles ſturgeon.

† Vol. I. pag. 124.

But what induced me to quote this learned author upon the preſent occaſion, is what follows:

'The firſt eſtabliſher, adds he, of theſe fiſheries, was To-'KIN DEMEDOFFA, a carrier, who ſettled there about '50 years ago; his whole fortune then conſiſted in two 'horſes, but through his induſtry and abilities he became the 'greateſt merchant in that country. The crown, which 'before his time was a ſtranger to theſe advantages, has, of 'late years, beſides the ſalt, engroſſed ſome of the fiſheries 'alſo.'

What I would infer from hence is, that if a private perſon, a carrier too, with no larger a fortune than two horſes, ſhould, by his induſtry and abilities, become the great inſtrument of eſtabliſhing ſo conſiderable a fiſhery at Aſtracan; what may we not expect, in regard to the preſent fiſhery, from the wiſdom of a parliament of Great-Britain, and the general concurrence of the people to contribute every thing to it's ſucceſs!

And whereas the encouraging of the conſumption of fiſh in Great-Britain, as an ingenious gentleman has obſerved, would be of great advantage to the undertakers of this trade, and to the nation in general; therefore, if the commiſſioners for granting of wine and ale licences were to be impowered to grant, to every perſon that comes for ſuch licence, the ſaid licence for 5 s. leſs, upon condition that they take one barrel of the company's herrings; if two barrels, 7 s. 6 d. and, if three, at 10 s. leſs, upon condition the ſaid perſons make oath, that the ſaid herrings are for their uſe only: in which caſe it will be requiſite for thoſe who grant the ſaid licences, to take each perſon's name, with a direction, naming, at the ſame time, the number of barrels, and tranſmitting them to the proper office in London; each deficiency in the ſaid licences ſhall be made good by the company.

Was this the caſe, it is not to be doubted, but that every tavern and alehouſe-keeper, as well as their cuſtomers, are ſenſible, that a herring is ſo reliſhing to the palate, that it would not only be very wholſome, but often occaſion the ſelling of more liquor; by which ſuch publicans will enlarge their gains, and thereby increaſe the revenue.

And, to the end that an undertaking of ſuch important concernment to the nation ſhould not miſcarry, we do not ſee the unreaſonableneſs, if every perſon who rents a houſe of ——— per annum, ſhould be obliged, by act of parliament, to take one barrel of Britiſh herrings, at leaſt, every year, for their family conſumption; and thoſe who inhabited houſes that were higher rented, to be obliged to take two barrels, &c. ———

'Without primary encouragements, ſays a very judicious 'writer in the year 1680, who intitled his work BRITAN-'NIA LANGUENS, &c. and ſuperintendance of the go-'vernment, it will be hard to nouriſh up any new branch of 'trade, &c.—Amongſt the exportations, the fiſhing trade 'ought not to be forgotten, ſince, according to modern cal-'culations *, the mere fiſhing trade for HERRING and COD 'on the COAST of ENGLAND and SCOTLAND, employs 'above 8000 DUTCH ſhips or veſſels, 200,000 of their 'ſeamen and fiſhers; and the herrings and cod, ſold by the 'Dutch in foreign countries, do bring an annual profit of 'about 5,000,000 l. per ann. ſterling to that nation: beſides 'which, 'tis accounted that there are at leaſt 25,000 peo-'ple more employed and maintained at home about this par-'ticular navigation, as in making of fiſhing-nets, and the 'curing, ordering, and preparing of the fiſh, &c. beſides 'the Iceland, Newfoundland, and Greenland fiſhings, of 'very great advantage.'

* See Mr Smith of Improvements, &c. pag. 268, 269, 270, who computes the whole profit of this fiſhery to be, in his time, ten millions ſterling per ann. and in a manner all gained by other nations.

Remarks on the nature of herring, ling, and cod; with an account of the almoſt incredible increaſe of codfiſh.

The herring is in greater repute among other nations than in Britain (chiefly owing, I believe, to our endeavouring to vend our own ill-cured herring among ourſelves.) It is generally from 10 to 12 inches long, the ſides of a ſilver colour, the belly ſharp, like a wedge, the eyes red, the tail forked, large ſcales, and the lower jaw longer than the upper, and full of teeth.

It dies inſtantly when taken out of the water, from whence, I ſuppoſe, the proverb aroſe, As dead as a herring. The fiſh, when in perfection, is very delicious, if dreſſed when taken, which is about the autumnal equinox, before they ſpawn, are eaſily digeſted, and very nouriſhing.

They come yearly in vaſt ſhoals, as it were by divine appointment, from the north-weſt; not only for ſuſtenance, but to inrich us by our captures for others. Their voyage is performed with great exactneſs, and the tract known by the hovering of ſea-fowl, in expectation of prey, and the ſmoothneſs of the water; nor do they ever differ above 10 or 12 days in time, and that is always owing to ſtrong ſouth-eaſt winds.

When they come off the Lewis, the ſhoal divides, one half going to the Orkney and Shetland iſles, and the others ſtaying among the weſtern, where they immediately meet with nouriſhment: the number of rivers and loughs in thoſe parts daily carrying from the land an infinite variety of worms, and other inſects, on which they feed; and to this immediate ſuſtenance we may aſcribe the cauſe of their being always better than thoſe of Orkney and Shetland.

The ling is longer in proportion to it's thickneſs than a cod, is from 2 to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet long, covered with ſmall ſcales, of an aſh and grey colour, a round tail, and a barb on the lower jaw.

It is a delicious fiſh when freſh, and, when rightly dry-cured, is tranſparent, and is preferred before any other ſalt fiſh.

They are to be had all the year among the weſtern and northern iſles, and, at particular times, off Penzance in England.

The codfiſh is from 2 to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$ feet long; thoſe ſmaller are called codlings: it is a thick round fiſh, with a large head and belly, the back brown, and belly whitiſh, the eyes large, the ſcales ſmall, and the whole fiſh full of yellow ſpots.

They are diſtinguiſhed into ſix different ſorts, from the manner of curing, and places from whence it comes, viz. Aberdeen fiſh, Iceland fiſh, green fiſh, ſtockfiſh, North Sea cod, poor jack, and barrelled cod.

It is much eſteemed, and much uſed; the head of a large cod, when freſh, is reckoned a delicious diſh; when they are uſed ſalted, they are generally ſteeped in water before they are boiled, are eaſily digeſted, and very nouriſhing; they are taken in great quantities on the eaſtern and weſtern coaſts of Scotland.

Perhaps ſome may imagine, that, if we carry on this trade effectually, there would not be fiſh for all the fiſhers, for which reaſon I ſhall give an account of their prodigious and almoſt incredible increaſe, which is ſo great, that, if there were but two males and two females left in the ſea this ſeaſon, there would be as many the next as there were the preceding, providing there was none of their young to be devoured by other fiſh.

The number of animalcules ſuppoſed to be in the melt, or ſemen maſculinum of a cod.

Mr Leeuwenhouk, a very curious obſerver of nature, having viewed the melt, or ſemen maſculinum, of a codfiſh, found ſuch numbers of animalcules, with long tails, that he ſuppoſed there muſt be at leaſt 10,000 in the bulk of a grain of ſand; from whence he concludes there muſt be more animalcules in the melt of one cod-fiſh, than there are inhabitants alive upon the whole face of the earth at one and the ſame time.

He computes that 100 make the diameter of an inch, ſo that in an inch there muſt be 1,000,000 of ſuch particles of ſand: and, as he has found the melt of a cod-fiſh to be about 15 cubical inches, then of conſequence there muſt be 15,000,000 of quantities as big as a grain of ſand; now, if each of theſe quantities contain 10,000 animalcules, there muſt be in the whole 150,000,000.

A part of Sir Walter Ralegh's addreſs to king James, in regard to fiſheries.

The great ſea-buſineſs of fiſhing doth employ near 20,000 ſhips and veſſels, and 400,000 people are employed yearly upon your majeſty's coaſt of England, Scotland, and Ireland, with 60 ſhips of war, which may prove dangerous.

The Hollanders only have about 3000 ſhips to fiſh withal, and 50,000 people are employed yearly by them upon your majeſty's coaſts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Theſe 3000 fiſhing ſhips and veſſels of the Hollanders do employ near 9000 other ſhips and veſſels, and 150,000 perſons more by ſea and land, to make proviſion to dreſs and tranſport the fiſh they take, and return commodities, whereby they are enabled, and do build, yearly, 1000 ſhips and veſſels, having not one timber-tree growing in their own country, nor home-bred commodities to lade 100 ſhips, and yet they have 20,000 ſhips and veſſels, and all employed.

King Henry VII, deſirous to make his kingdoms powerful and rich, by increaſe of ſhips and mariners, and employment of his people, ſent unto his ſea-coaſt towns, moving them to ſet up the great and rich fiſhing, with promiſe to give them needful privileges, and to furniſh them with loans of money, if need were, to encourage them; yet this people were ſlack. Now ſince I have traced this buſineſs, and made mine endeavours known unto your majeſty, your noblemen, able merchants, and others who (having ſet down under their hands for more aſſurance) promiſed to diſburſe large ſums of money for the building up of this great and rich large ſea-city, which will increaſe more ſtrength to your land, give more comfort, and do more good to all your cities and towns, than all the companies of your kingdom, having fit and needful privileges for the upholding and ſtrengthening of ſo weighty and needful a buſineſs.

For example, 20 buſſes built and put into a ſea-coaſt town, where there is not one ſhip before, there muſt be, to carry, recarry, tranſport, and make proviſion for one buſs, three ſhips; likewiſe every ſhip ſetting on work 30 ſeveral trades and occupations, and 400,000 perſons by ſea and land, inſomuch as 300 perſons are not able to make one fleet of nets in four months for one buſs, which is no ſmall employment.

Thus by 20 buſſes are ſet on work near 8000 perſons, by ſea and land, and are an increaſe of above 1000 mariners, and a fleet of 80 ſail of ſhips, to belong to one town, where none were before, to take the wealth out of the ſea, to inrich and ſtrengthen the land, only by raiſing of 20 buſſes.

Then, what good 1000 or 2000 will do, I leave to your majeſty's conſideration.

It is worthy to be noted, how neceſſary fiſhermen are to the commonwealth, and how needful to be advanced and cheriſhed, &c.

1. For taking God's bleſſing out of the ſea to enrich the realm, which otherwiſe we loſe.
2. For ſetting the people on work.
3. For making plenty and cheapneſs in the realm.
4. For increaſing of ſhipping, to make the land powerful.
5. For a continual nurſery for breeding and increaſing our mariners.
6. For making employment for all ſorts of people, as blind, lame, and others, by ſea and land, from 10 to 12 years, and upwards.
7. For inriching your majeſty's coffers, by merchandizes returned from other countries for fiſh and herrings.
8. For the increaſing and enabling of merchants, which now droop and daily decay.

A convention renewed and enlarged between his Britannic majeſty and the city of Hamburgh, concerning the trade of herrings, February 8, 1719.

George by the grace of God, king of Great-Britain, France, and Ireland, defender of the faith, duke of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, arch-treaſurer and prince elector of the Holy Roman Empire, &c. to all and ſingular to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting. Whereas a certain convention for eſtabliſhing a regular and free trade for herrings, between our ſubjects and the city of Hamburgh, was firſt made in the year 1711, and was lately renewed, explained, and enlarged, and was concluded and ſigned on our part by Cyrill Wych, Eſq; our miniſter reſiding with the republic of Hamburgh, and on the part of the conſul and ſenate of the ſaid republic, by their deputies; being furniſhed on both ſides with ſufficient orders and authority, at Hamburgh, on the 8th day of this preſent month of February, in the form and words following:

That is to ſay, that between the moſt ſerene and moſt potent prince and lord, George, king of Great-Britain, &c. by his miniſter and reſident, M. Cyrill Wych, on the one part, and the laudable republic of Hamburgh, by the deputies of it's honourable ſenate, M. John Anderſon, ſyndic, Peter Burmeſter, and Henry Dieterick Wieſe, ſenators, on the other part, by virtue of their powers and commiſſions, the convention of the year 1711 is renewed, explained, and inlarged, in the following articles, which are to ſerve for a conſtant regulation of a free trade of herrings caught by the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty on the coaſts of his kingdoms.

I. The city of Hamburgh grants permiſſion for importing freely, to the ſaid city, herrings caught on the coaſts of Great-Britain, upon paying the ſame duties of entry as are uſually paid for Flemiſh or Dutch herrings.

II. The herrings, at their being brought in, ſhall all be put into the warehouſe, or warehouſes, which ſhall be judged moſt convenient and proper, there to be kept, the proprietors paying a reaſonable hire by the ton, as they can agree with the owner of the warehouſe.

III. The herrings ſhall be opened in the warehouſe-yard, in the ſame manner as thoſe of Holland are, in the view of all who have a mind to be preſent; the pickle ſhall be drawn out, and, after the barrel ſhall be filled up with good fiſh, the pickle ſhall be put in again, the fiſh remaining always in the ſame barrel, without being removed from one barrel to be repacked in another. Beſides, they ſhall be appraiſed or valued, and according to their quality, a proper mark, within a circle,

ſhall

ſhall be ſet at the head and on the middle of every barrel; and, to ſhew that they are not Flemiſh or Dutch herrings, but of Great-Britain, a crowned B ſhall be burned on the head of each barrel.

IV. For this purpoſe the ſenate oblige themſelves to chuſe and appoint two appraiſers, commonly called wraquers, and two packers; and, that they may not be ſuſpected of partiality, they ſhall not have any dependence upon, or concern with, the Schonen fahrers (or corporation of dealers in fiſh) and the ſaid wraquers and packers ſhall take a ſolemn oath, conformable to the ſenſe of this article, before the honourable ſenate; which oath ſhall be adminiſtered to them anew every year, the beginning of June, by the deputies of the ſenate.

V. If the proprietors, or their factors, come in perſon with their herrings, they ſhall have liberty to vend them to any burghers or inhabitants of the town indifferently, whom they ſhall think fit to deal with; but, if within the ſpace of eight days they cannot diſpoſe of them to the burghers or inhabitants, they ſhall be allowed to ſell them to whomſoever they will, or to ſend them out of the town, to ſuch place as they ſhall think fit.

VI. When the proprietors would ſend their herrings to factors, to diſpoſe of them, they ſhould be obliged to chuſe their factor either among the laudable Engliſh company reſiding in the town, or among the burghers, who may then ſell them to whomſoever they pleaſe, or ſend them out of the town whither they ſhall think fit.

VII. Beſides what is already agreed as above, the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty ſhall always enjoy the ſame privileges and advantages in the herring-trade as are already granted, or may hereafter be granted to the ſubjects of their High Mightineſſes the States General of the United Provinces.

VIII. It is likewiſe permitted to the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty to bring to Hamburgh, ſalmon, ſtockfiſh, cod, and all other ſorts of fiſh, either dried or ſmoaked, in barrels or ſalted, on condition they pay according to cuſtom the duty of entry, or moderate gabel. In the like manner it is ſtipulated for the inhabitants and burghers of Hamburgh, that they ſhall trade, according to their antient cuſtom, to the provinces of the Britiſh kingdoms, carry their merchandize thither, and truck or exchange the ſame for thoſe ſorts of fiſh, and other goods.

In witneſs whereof, and by virtue of the orders and full powers which we the abovementioned miniſter of Great-Britain on the one part, and from the honourable ſenate on the other, we have ſigned the preſent renewed convention, and cauſed the ſeals of our arms to be affixed thereto. Done at Hamburgh the 8th of February, 1719.

(L. S.) Cyrill Wych.
(L. S.) John Anderſon, Syndic.
(L. S.) Peter Burmeſter, Senator.
(L. S.) Henry Dieterick Wieſe, Senator.

We have ſeen and conſidered the above-written convention, have approved, ratified, and confirmed, as by theſe preſents we do for us, our heirs and ſucceſſors, approve, ratify, and confirm the ſame, in all and ſingular it's articles and clauſes; on condition, however, that what is ſaid in the eighth article of the antient cuſtom of the Hamburghers to trade to our kingdoms, be always underſtood according to the known and eſtabliſhed laws of our ſaid kingdoms; engaging and promiſing, on our royal word, ſincerely and bona fide to perform and obſerve all and ſingular the things contained in the ſaid convention, in the manner above explained; and never to ſuffer, as far as in us lies, any one to violate, or in any wiſe to act contrary to the ſame. In witneſs and confirmation of all which, we have cauſed our great ſeal of Great-Britain to be affixed to theſe preſents, ſigned with our royal hand. Given at our palace at St James's, the 16th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1718-19, and of our reign the fifth.

GEORGE R.

Extract from the Protocol of the ſenate of Hamburgh, the 3d of April, 1716.

Reſolved to depute the ſyndic, M. Sillem, and M. Van Sum, to communicate, to the reſident of his Britannic majeſty, an authentic copy of the treaty made with the ſtates of Holland; and to repreſent to him, that he will ſee by it how it has always been laid down for an unalterable principle, that no herring can come to it's maturity before Midſummer-Day; for which reaſon the ſenate cannot take upon them to change the eſtabliſhed rule. However, the ſenate does hereby give aſſurance to the reſident, that, if the ſubjects of his Britannic majeſty can give proof that there is no true ground for this principle which has obtained, and will bring hither, before Midſummer-Day, herrings in maturity, then the ſenate will not make any difficulty to let them be imported.

Nich. Luke Schaffshauſen, Secretary.

This permiſſion was confirmed by the ſenate, under the privy-ſeal of the city, on the 3d of July, 1716. See HERRING-FISHERY.

Remarks on Fisheries, ſince the laſt War, and the Definitive Treaty of Peace, 1763.

Under our article AMERICA, we have given the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763; the V, and VI, and XVIII articles of which being relative to the NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY. The article XVIII concerning the explicit diſavowal of Spain, to their pretended right of fiſhing in the neighbourhood of Newfoundland, we have already taken notice of under this head. At preſent we ſhall preſent the reader with the other articles which reſpects this matter, viz. articles the V, and VI. The former whereof is as follows, viz.

V. "The ſubjects of France ſhall have the liberty of fiſhing and "drying on a part of the coaſts of the iſland of Newfound-"land, ſuch as is ſpecified in the 13th article of the treaty of "Utrecht; which article is renewed and confirmed by the "preſent treaty (except what relates to the iſland of CAPE "BRETON, as well as to the other iſlands and coaſts in the "mouth and in the gulph of ST LAWRENCE;) and his Britannick majeſty conſents to leave the ſubjects of the moſt "chriſtian king, the liberty of fiſhing in the gulph of St "Lawrence, on condition that the ſubjects of France do not "exerciſe the ſaid fiſhery, but at the diſtance of THREE "LEAGUES from all the coaſts belonging to Great-Britain, "as well thoſe of the continent, as thoſe of the iſlands ſituated in the ſaid gulph of St Lawrence. And as to what "relates to the fiſhery on the coaſt of the ISLAND OF CAPE "BRETON out of the ſaid gulph, the ſubjects of the moſt "chriſtian king ſhall not be permitted to exerciſe the ſaid "fiſhery, but at the diſtance of FIFTEEN LEAGUES from the "coaſts of the ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON; and the fiſhery "on the coaſts of NOVA SCOTIA or ACADIA, and every "where elſe out of the ſaid gulph, ſhall remain on the foot "of former treaties.

VI. "The king of Great-Britain cedes the iſlands of ST "PIERRE and MIQUELON, in full right, to his moſt chriſ-"tian majeſty, to ſerve as a SHELTER TO THE FRENCH "FISHERMEN; and his ſaid chriſtian majeſty engages not to "fortify the ſaid iſlands, to erect no buildings upon them, but "merely for the convenience of the fiſhery, and to keep "upon them a GUARD OF FIFTY MEN ONLY FOR THE "POLICE."

By the foregoing articles, we ſee in what ſituation the treaty of 1763, has left the fiſhery of Newfoundland, with regard to Great-Britain and France; and as we have in our preceding REMARKS on this article, touched upon the riſk the French may run, by their infraction of the ſaid treaty, of being for ever exterminated from the liberty of this fiſhery; it may not be improper to conſider the conſequence of ſuch event. For if Great-Britain ſhall have power to do this, in a freſh rupture with France, ſhe will hardly want power to reconquer the FRENCH SUGAR-ISLANDS; and if ſhe does, can France flatter themſelves that Great-Britain will conſent to reſtore them as ſhe did by the laſt peace? if France does think ſo, we have reaſon to believe ſhe may find herſelf greatly miſtaken. For has it not been owing to the perfidy of that nation, and her other Catholic allies who have joined them againſt this nation, that we are now become ſaddled with ſo MANY MILLIONS OF PUBLIC DEBTS AND TAXES, that ſome of our greateſt ſtateſmen have heretofore judged it impoſſible for the kingdom to ſuſtain.

If France, therefore, ſhall venture again to quarrel with Great-Britain, muſt not the motive thereto be their ſuggeſtion of our incapacity to enter into a freſh war? Upon this point, I ſhall only at preſent obſerve, that if the court of France ſhall be actuated by ſuch view, ſhe is quite unacquainted with the reſources of this nation; and if ſhe dare hazard another war with it, the conſequences to her will be, as I humbly apprehend, that France will not only be ſoundly beat again, but that ſhe will never more enjoy the liberty of the Newfoundland fiſhery; which will prove no ſmall detriment to her maritime ſtrength, was this her only loſs ſhe ſhould ſuſtain by a freſh war with England. Nor can Britain longer afford to act the ſame farce over again to conquer and reſtore. Our conqueſts have coſt us too dear to give up in future, but upon the ſtrongeſt ſecurity that the beſt policy will adminiſter to us, for a long continuance of peace. See our article WAR.

FLANDERS is the firſt province, county, or earldom in the Netherlands. It has Hainault, Artois, and part of Picardy, on the ſouth; the north ſea on the weſt; on the north the ſame ſea, with a branch of the Scheld, called the Hond, which parts it from Zealand; and, on the eaſt, the marquiſate of the holy empire, Brabant, and part of Hainault. It's extant from S. W. to N. E. is about 75 miles, and from W. to E. about 55. Herein is included French, Auſtrian, and Dutch Flanders.

FRENCH FLANDERS is bounded on the north by part of the north ſea; on the north-eaſt by Auſtrian Flanders, and part of Hainault; on the eaſt and ſouth by the ſame province; on the S. W. and W. by Artois, and part of Picardy. This province, together with that part of Hainault, which has been yielded to the French, and the whole province of Cambreſis, are under the ſame governor-general.

LISLE, the capital city of French Flanders. There is here a conſiderable manufacture of ſerges, and other woollen ſtuffs; about half a century ago, they made above 300,000 pieces of ſtuffs; but the miſeries, which inſeparably attend war, have obliged vaſt numbers of workmen to retire to Ghent, Bruſſels, and into Germany; and, after the peace of Utrecht, ſeveral Proteſtant families alſo left this city.

The commerce of Liſle to France, by way of land carriage, or by the way of Dunkirk, is pretty conſiderable; but none much to the advantage of the inhabitants, becauſe they receive from France large quantities of wine and brandy, for which they pay in caſh.

Their trade with the Dutch is not more profitable, by reaſon the inhabitants of Liſle buy of them manufactures, which they might get much cheaper, if they could have them directly from places, from whence the Dutch themſelves have them.

Their moſt beneficial traffic is that which they carry on with Spain, and in the Weſt-Indies; buying up all ſuch commodities as they think proper for thoſe countries, either for their own account, or by commiſſion. But, by reaſon of their diſtance from the ſea, that trade is far leſs lucrative than it otherwiſe would be.

DOUAY is ſituate on the river Scarpe, on the borders of Artois, 13 miles from Arras to the eaſt, 16 from Liſle to the ſouth, 18 from Valenciennes to the weſt, and 14 from Cambray to the north. The chief trade hereof conſiſts in the making and vending of worſted camblets, which are bought by all the neighbouring people, eſpecially at the annual fair kept in September.

ST AMAND is ſituated on the river Scarpe, 9 miles from Tournay to the ſouth, 16 from Douay to the eaſt, and 19 from Liſle to the ſouth-eaſt. Here is no trade which deſerves our notice; and which is the caſe of ſeveral other places here, that we ſhall not mention at all, on that account.

MENIN ſtands on the Lys, about 4 miles diſtant from Courtray to the ſouth-weſt, 10 from Ypres to the ſouth-eaſt, and 9 from Liſle to the north. It was alſo one of the barrier towns, where the States General of the United Provinces kept a governor and a garriſon, and was pretty well fortified, but the French took it in 1744. There is ſome trade, which conſiſts in woollen ſtuffs, manufactured here, and in pale beer they brew here, which is in great eſteem. In the neighbouring meadows they bleach linen cloths.

YPRES is 20 miles diſtant from Liſle to the north, and 10 from Menin to the north-weſt. It is a rich trading town, the capital of a large diſtrict, called the Caſtellany, or Caſtle-ward of Ypres, which is a fruitful country: it's trade conſiſts in ſays, wrought ſilks, &c.—This city was given up to the houſe of Auſtria, by the treaty of Utrecht, and the Dutch kept a garriſon there, by virtue of the barrier treaty; yet this alſo was taken by the French in 1744, as well as Warneton and Menin, for which reaſon we place now theſe cities in French Flanders.

BERGEN ST WINOX, or WINOXBERGEN, ſtands at the foot of the hill on the little river Colone, which runs through the city; it is 18 miles diſtant from Ypres to the weſt, 6 from Dunkirk to the ſouth, and 12 from Gravelines to the eaſt. There is a manufactory of woollen cloth, but the trade of it was much more conſiderable formerly than it is at preſent.

CASSEL and GRAVELINES are not remarkable for any thing of trade.

DUNKIRK is ſituated at the mouth of the river Colone, on the coaſt of the north ſea, 10 leagues diſtant from Gavelines to the eaſt, 21 from Oſtend to the weſt, 36 from Liſle to the north-weſt, and about 16 from St Omer to the north. It was but at firſt a ſmall hamlet, conſiſting of fiſhers huts, built on the ſandy hills. The advantageous ſituation of this place engaged Baldwin the younger, earl of Flanders, to make a ſmall city of it. Since that time, it has undergone various revolutions, and been in divers hands, and at length fell into thoſe of the Engliſh; but, in 1662, king Charles the IId ſold Dunkirk to the French for five millions of livres, according to Monſ. La Martiniere.

Lewis the XIVth, having viſited that city, obſerved ſo many defects in the fortifications, that he employed 30,000 men conſtantly for many years, to render it impregnable, if poſſible. All theſe fortifications, together with the moles, and Fort Lewis, have been demoliſhed, and the harbour filled up, by virtue of the treaty of Utrecht. But, of late, the French have begun to fortify it again, and to repair the harbour, and it is now a very ſtrong place: however, they have not yet been able to reſtore the harbour, ſo as to make it capable to receive men of war of any conſiderable rate, though it is ſaid that ſhips of 20 guns, or larger, can eaſily enter in at high tide.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763.

By the XIIIth article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, 'The town and harbour of DUNKIRK ſhall be put into the ſtate fixed by the laſt treaty of AIX LA CHAPELLE, and by former TREATIES. The CUNETTE ſhall be deſtroyed immediately after the exchange of the ratifications of the PRESENT TREATY, as well as the FORTS and BATTERIES, which defend the entrance on the ſide of THE SEA, and proviſion ſhall be made, at the ſame time, for the wholeſomneſs of the air, and for the health of the inhabitants, by ſome other means TO THE SATISFACTION OF THE KING OF GREAT-BRITAIN.' See FRANCE.

AUSTRIAN FLANDERS. See the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

DUTCH FLANDERS is the moſt northern part of Flanders, which belongs to the States General of the United Provinces. It conſiſts chiefly of fortified towns, which made a part of the barrier to the other territories which belong to the Dutch. It is a perfect level, there being little or no riſing ground in it, and is watered with innumerable rivers and canals; Flanders in general is exceedingly fruitful, and pretty commodiouſly ſituated for trade. And, what trade there is in this part of Flanders, being a ſmall proportion of that of the like nature with what is in the Auſtrian Netherlands, as fine lace, linen, and tapeſtry, we ſhall refer to what we have ſaid under the article AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

REMARKS.

It has been ever allowed by the wiſeſt ſtateſmen and beſt friends to the preſent eſtabliſhment in the royal houſe of Hanover, that this kingdom can have no alliance ſo uſeful, in order to ſecure the Proteſtant ſucceſſion, as that of the States General; whether we conſider their ſituation, their ſtrength, their religion, or their intereſt: and, therefore, for our own ſafety, we are under the neceſſity of acting in concert with Holland, in order to preſerve to them a proper barrier in Flanders. And it was from this motive, we may reaſonably preſume, that the court of London readily gave up Cape Breton, with a view to expedite the re-eſtabliſhment of the Dutch barrier, which the French deſtroyed in the laſt war. But, as this matter does not ſeem to be carried on with that alacrity, honour, and punctuality, with which the court of Great-Britain has conſtantly acted on their part, it may not be mal-a-propos, at this juncture, to revive the ſentiments of our former patriots upon this occaſion: which we ſhall do by ſhewing,

1. That it is the true intereſt of England, that there ſhould be a ſufficient barrier againſt France on the ſide of the Netherlands.

2. That no barrier can be effectually defended againſt France, but by being put into the hands of the States.

3. That, for the defence of ſuch barrier, it is neceſſary the Dutch ſhould have a free communication with it; and reaſonable, that the barrier-country ſhould contribute towards the expence of maintaining it.

4. That the Dutch have a right to a ſufficient barrier, and to have the defence of it themſelves.

As to the firſt propoſition, it is a point ſo evident, and hath been ſo conſtantly received as the avowed ſenſe of the nation, that we are aſhamed to think, that any ſhould want that proved now, which has been allowed a ſtanding maxim of our government, and is at preſent become our intereſt more than ever. To have a good barrier againſt France in the Netherlands is as neceſſary for us, as to preſerve a ballance of power on the continent, and to prevent Europe's being enſlaved by France. For,

Such is the ſituation of the Netherlands, with reſpect to Holland and the empire, and even to Britain itſelf, that, if France be once ſuffered to prevent it, it will not be in the power of all Europe to ſet bounds to the progreſs of their arms.—The United Provinces muſt fall a prey to her.—The empire having loſt the aſſiſtance of the States, and being cut off from all communication with England, would ſoon follow the ſame fate. So that if France could accompliſh her long laid deſign upon the Netherlands, and have at the ſame time a marine powerful enough to deal with that of England, as ſhe is now certainly aiming at, ſhe might, without oppoſition, carry her conqueſts as far as ſhe pleaſed into Germany. —If France be once miſtreſs of thoſe provinces, ſhe will from that moment have the command of the narrow ſeas; ſo that our trade will neither be able to go out, nor to return with ſafety.—Was it not thought of the laſt conſequence by England, that the harbour of Dunkirk ſhould be ruined? And, may we not thence judge, how fatal it muſt prove to this nation, to let France get poſſeſſion of the other FLEMISH PORTS, with ſuch an increaſe of naval ſtrength as that acquiſition would give them? Would not our coaſts and rivers then be expoſed to perpetual inſults, and our TRADE in ſo much danger in the narrow ſeas, as to oblige us to give it over?

Should France be ſuffered to be miſtreſs of the Netherlands, it is not to be thought the United Provinces could maintain their independency: they muſt either become directly the ſubjects of France, or live in an abſolute ſubjection to that crown; and, would not the unavoidable conſequence of that be, that the naval force of the Dutch, which hath hitherto acted in conjunction with us, would be turned againſt us? Which would give France ſuch a ſuperiority at ſea, as no one can be ſanguine enough to think we could diſpute.

Let France, therefore, by her machinations, deprive the Dutch of a barrier, 'till ſhe puts her finances and her marine in order, and our ruin need not wait for that of other countries on the continent: if France can force the ſubmiſſion of the States, and have the uſe of their ports and fleets, England muſt truckle to France, if the reſt of Europe would be content to look on: and, if they ſhould not, all the efforts they could make would be of little ſervice to us. For, while we have no maritime power on our ſide, we can have no help at ſea, where it would be moſt wanted; nor any ſupport in caſe of an invaſion, though it's ſuddenneſs and ſtrength ſhould make it of the laſt neceſſity: and, as for any efforts made in our favour on the continent, when the States are either ſlaves to, or on the ſide of France, we may be ſure they would be too weak to make any great impreſſion, or to cauſe any extraordinary diverſion in our favour, conſidering the armies of France. So that the ruin of England ſeems to be the certain conſequence of the abſolute loſs of the Netherlands.

If it were ſufficient to have reaſon on one's ſide, we might think it needleſs to urge more to prove, that it is the true intereſt of England, that there ſhould be a good barrier againſt France on the ſide of the Netherlands: and that we, as well as the Dutch, are now in imminent danger, by having a matter of ſuch concernment delayed.

But, becauſe we write in times, when authority ſeems to have more weight than reaſon, we ſhall appeal to authority, and ſhew that the Netherlands have, in all times paſt, been looked on as the barrier to England; and that it was always thought our intereſt to hinder the growth of France on that ſide.—To prove this, we might go back to the time when the houſe of Burgundy governed thoſe countries. But we have not room for this, and therefore ſhall only quote one memorable paſſage in the excellent Hiſtory of Philip de Comines to this purpoſe; who, ſpeaking of the conqueſt of the dominions of the Houſe of Burgundy by Lewis XI, who laid the firſt foundation of the greatneſs of France, begins his ſecond chapter with theſe words—'Thoſe, ſays he, that here-'after ſhall read this hiſtory, will wonder that the Engliſh 'ſuffered the king to take the towns bordering ſo near upon 'them, namely, Arras, Bolloin, Ardes, and Hedin, with 'divers other caſtles, and to lie ſo long with his camp before 'St Omers.'

And the reaſons he gives for it, are ſuch as deſerve to be remembered, which are theſe: 'That the king of France in 'wiſdom and ſenſe ſurmounted far Edward IV. of England 'then reigning, who was a very corpulent man, and much 'given to pleaſures; and endeavoured, by all means poſ-'ſible, to content and entertain him by ambaſſadors, pre-'ſents, and ſmooth words, to the end he ſhould not in-'termeddle with his affairs.—That he knew well the Eng-'liſh, as well nobles and commons, as the clergy, to be na-'turally inclined to make war upon his realm; therefore he 'perceived, that he muſt in any wiſe keep the king of Eng-'land and his principal ſervants his friends, whom he ſaw 'altogether inclined to quietneſs, and very greedy of his 'money; for which cauſe he paid duly at LONDON the 'PENSION of 50,000 crowns, and farther gave yearly '16,000 crowns, beſides many goodly preſents to the ſaid 'king's principal ſervants; and THEIR ACQUITTANCES 'ARE YET TO BE SEEN IN THE CHAMBER OF AC-'COUNTS AT PARIS.

'Further, he gave goodly preſents to all the ambaſſadors that 'came to him, were their meſſages never ſo ſharp and bit-'ter; and ſent them home with goodly words and princely 'rewards, that they returned well contented; and, NOT-'WITHSTANDING THAT SOME OF THEM UNDER-'STOOD THAT HE DID ALL THIS ONLY TO GAIN 'TIME, THE BETTER TO ATCHIEVE HIS ENTERPRIZE 'IN THE CONQUEST OF THE DUKE OF BURGUNDY'S 'DOMINIONS, yet winked they at it, becauſe of the great 'riches they received at his hands; and ſo did the king of 'England himſelf, though ſome of his council told him 'plainly, it would be very prejudicial to his realm; and, in 'parliament, divers wiſe men that ſmelt the diſſimulation of 'France afar off, and received NO PENSION as the others 'did, were very deſirous, that the king ſhould ſend aid with-'out delay to the lady of Burgundy, daughter of duke 'Charles: and, undoubtedly, if the king had not been pre-'vailed upon by theſe and ſome other reaſons, he would never 'have ſuffered the king of France to take places bordering ſo 'near upon the Engliſh dominions, but have ſought to defend 'them; and, if at the beginning he had declared himſelf for 'the ſaid lady, the king had never weakened this houſe of 'Burgundy as he hath.'

The whole of this chapter is well worth reading, of which this is but an abſtract.—It may be obſerved from hence, that this hiſtory was written about 280 years ago, by a perſon of great credit, who was not only an eye-witneſs of theſe things, but had a principal hand in tranſacting them: which leaves no room to doubt the truth of what he ſays, that it was then looked on as the known intereſt of England, to hinder the growth of France in the Low Countries, even in thoſe days, when the French dominions were bounded by the Soam; when the duchy of Britain, with the port of Breſt, was no part of them; AND THE STRENGTH THEY HAVE NOW AT SEA, WAS NOT SO MUCH AS BEGUN.—That it was then a maxim in our government, to cheriſh a ſtrict alliance with the houſe of Burgundy, to prevent the French from extending their dominions on that ſide, and making nearer approaches towards us; the dangers being foreſeen at that diſtance, which we have ſince frequently felt from the neighbourhood of a power, which through our own fault we have ſuffered to grow ſo very formidable: and, laſtly, that this antient and uſeful alliance with the houſe of Burgundy, which England had before ſo ſtrictly cultivated, was loſt, and that great houſe ruined unaccountably; not by the ſtrength and policy of the enemy, ſo much as by the weakneſs and covetouſneſs of their friend king Edward, and the corruption of his great miniſters, who were all PENSIONERS OF FRANCE: that it was French gold well placed in Engliſh hands, that procured this acceſſion to their dominion then, and prevailed with the court of England to ſuffer them patiently to extend their conqueſts in Flanders: and they that will carefully look into our hiſtory, will find but too much reaſon to think, that all the additions that have been made to the power of France in later times, particularly the mighty increaſe of their colonies and plantations, and their naval power, and the extent of their conqueſts in the Low Countries, have been chiefly owing to the ſame cauſes, to the ill conduct and wrong meaſures of our princes, and the corrupt practices of their miniſters, ſacrificing the intereſt of their country to their own avarice; and, for FRENCH PENSIONS, ſelling both the preſent and future ſafety of the nation.

But, to come to better times, the days of good queen Elizabeth, a name that will be always dear to true Proteſtant Engliſhmen. Every body knows how much ſhe ventured to weaken the power of Spain in the Low Countries, upon the ſame principle, and in purſuit of the ſame intereſt, as ſhould teach us now to weaken that of France; the houſe of Auſtria aiming then at univerſal monarchy, as France hath done ſince; though their views were never grounded on ſo ſolid a foundation as thoſe of France have been; nor had their dominions the ſame advantage of compactneſs; nor was their ſcheme for empire built upon ſuch rules of policy, as thoſe of the two great maſters Richlieu and Mazarine, ſo that England then had much leſs reaſon to be alarmed at the greatneſs of the power of Spain, than our age has had to be at that of France.

And what courſe did this good queen take to weaken it? Was ſhe for increaſing the power of France in the Low Countries, in order to leſſen that of Spain? Would her kingdoms have been ſafer by thoſe countries changing maſters, by being transferred from Spain to France? By no means: ſhe was then jealous of the growth of France; ſhe did not think it good policy to humble one power by advancing another, which might prove as dangerous an enemy.—She therefore favoured the revolt of the United Provinces, and gave all ſupport to the Dutch in their infant ſtate.—She wiſely foreſaw this was the moſt ſenſible blow ſhe could give to Spain, and effectually remove, from her kingdoms, the dangers they were in from the nearneſs of ſo formidable a power; and, as ſhe judged rightly, ſo the meaſures ſhe took proved ſucceſsful.—This was the way that excellent princeſs took to pull down the houſe of Auſtria in the Low Countries, without building up that of France on it's ruins. For more matter on this head, ſee the article FRANCE, HOLLAND, NETHERLANDS.

FLAX is a plant having a ſlender, round, hollow ſtalk, about two feet high; it's bark is full of filaments like hemp; the leaves are long, narrow, and pointed; it bears a blue flower, to which ſucceeds a roundiſh fruit, about the bigneſs of a pea, containing ten little ſeeds, full of an oily ſubſtance or meal.

There are 33 known ſpecies of this plant, of which only two are in uſe for the linen manufacture.

The ſeed hath a great many properties. 'Tis in the compoſition of ſeveral medicines; they draw from it by expreſſion an oil, in quality not unlike the oils of nuts; for which 'tis ſometimes uſed in painting, and to burn. That which is drawn without the help of fire, is much eſteemed in medicine.

The trade herein is pretty conſiderable. Moſt of what is conſumed in Paris comes from Flanders, and from about Rouen, where they produce great quantities.

The culture of flax, and the ſeveral preparations of it for uſe, being pretty much the ſame as of hemp, we ſhall there make ſome additions to what we ſhall here obſerve.

There is, however, one circumſtance in the culture of this not to be omitted, and on which, in ſeveral provinces of France, it's whole beauty and goodneſs depend.

The ſeed is very apt to degenerate; and, in ſome parts, as in Normandy, Bretagne, and Picardy, it muſt be renewed at leaſt once in five years. The beſt grain for that purpoſe comes from the Baltic.

Moſt of the French provinces ſo abound in flax, their lands being ſo fit for the culture of it, that, if they would, they might outvie their neighbours in this traffic, notwithſtanding the great quantity uſed by them in many ſorts of works.

However,

However, they import great quantities from foreign parts; the Baltic, Holſtein, Ruſſia, and Flanders, chiefly ſupply their ſpinſters and weavers. 'Tis imported alſo from the Levant, and ſome comes from Egypt.

The Flanders lint is in great eſteem, that of Picardy comes near to it. Of others, thoſe of Riga and Konigſberg are in moſt repute.

Of the cultivation of flax.

You muſt firſt chuſe ſandy or loamy ground, and manure it well, and lay it as fine as poſſible you can; and then be ſure to chuſe good ſeed, and ſow at leaſt four buſhels of it upon an Engliſh acre, and chuſe ſuch a time to ſow it in, as probably, by ſigns of the wind or weather, you may, by God's bleſſing, have ſome rain within ten days after it is ſowed; for your ſeaſon will laſt in England to ſow it, from mid March until a week in June; albeit, April be the beſt ſeaſon of the year, in regard the nipping froſts are paſt by that time, and for that, in that month, you are likelieſt to have rain. When the flax is grown a handful high, you muſt weed it; and, although you tread or lie upon it at that height, it will riſe again: when the buttons of the flax begin to look brown, you muſt pull the flax, and then comb off the buttons, and lay them abroad, where they may dry; and, as the outſide withers, the flax-ſeed will ripen within; but that ſeed will only be fit to make oil, but not to ſow: for, if you will ſave any ſeed to ſow, you muſt let your flax ſtand until your ſeed be thorough ripe, and then you loſe very much in the weight of the flax, which is otherwiſe much more profitable to you than your ſeed. After you have combed off the buttons, you muſt preſently put your flax in water, but it muſt be ſtanding water, and ſuch as will not diſcolour it; where it muſt be about ſeven or eight days ordinarily; but that rule is ordered according as the weather proves hotter or colder. Then it muſt be ſeven or eight days laid out a drying, being now and then turned; and, when it is dry enough, it muſt be put into a barn, where it muſt lie in heaps ſeven or eight days more a ſweating, before you muſt do any thing elſe to it. But, to order the buſineſs well, you muſt be ſure to have one of experience, until you can come thoroughly to underſtand every particular yourſelf. When it hath ſweat enough in the barn, then it muſt be beaten, breaked, hackled, and then it is fit for the market.

After you have pulled your flax, you muſt then plow your ground for turnips. Two pounds and a half of turnip-ſeed will ſow an acre. After your turnips be off, in April following you may ſow the ſame ground with barley or oats, and with it ſow your clover-graſs, whereof nine pounds will ſow an acre; and, by that time you have mowed your oats, your ground will be ſtocked with clover-graſs.

We import yearly into Ireland, ſays an ingenious gentleman, about 11,000 hogſheads of flax-ſeed, which, at forty ſhillings the hogſhead, coſt 22,000 l. and in 1747 we imported 376 tons of undreſſed flax, which, at 40 l. the ton, come to 15,000 l. Theſe are articles of expence well worth the ſaving, and which may be put in the pockets of our own farmers, if they were duly encouraged to raiſe large quantities of flax and ſeed.

Moſt of the countries of Europe, viz. Germany, Holland, Flanders, France, England, and Scotland, have every year a freſh recruit of flax-ſeed from the Baltic, becauſe they find by experience their native ſeed and flax degenerate and grow worſe every year. This is alſo our own caſe, our home-raiſed ſeed and flax frequently degenerate, by reaſon of bad ſeaſons, bad huſbandry, or ſome other cauſe, which creates a neceſſity and makes it incumbent on us to encourage the importation of good foreign ſeed, that we may never be in want of ſo uſeful a commodity.

I am informed, that North America ſeed anſwers near as well with us as ſeed from the Baltic; the ſoil there being as rich and as natural for the growth of flax, and as much covered with ſnow in winter, and expoſed to as great a heat in ſummer, as any lands bordering on the Baltic; if this be the truth of the caſe, we ſhould not fail to encourage the importation of ſeed from North America, becauſe the ſeed we get from thence is paid for by the commodities we ſend thither in our own ſhips; but all the ſeed and flax we purchaſe from the Baltic are paid for in ready money, without our ſelling any of our commodities in exchange for them. But, whereever the beſt ſeed is to be got, we ſhould from thence ſupply ourſelves: and it is from frequent trials that we can judge which is beſt. But it is certain, that due care is taken by the magiſtrates in the ſeveral ſea-port towns in the Baltic from whence flax ſeed is exported, that no ſeed ſhall be ſuffered to be exported from thence in barrels marked with the arms, and other ſeals of the place, but what ſhall be found good and merchantable; ſuch caution they uſe to preſerve the credit of their goods, which is a great ſecurity to the buyer. But I do not hear that any ſuch care is taken in North America, to enſure the goodneſs of their ſeed. But, wherever the beſt ſeed is raiſed, this caution ſhould be uſed, to have it directly from thoſe countries where it grows, and not from thoſe places where it is afterwards ſown, as Holland and Flanders, from whence we can expect nothing but the ſecond or third crop of ſeed, which is then in a ſtate of degeneracy.

The nation receives much more benefit by flax-ſeed than from flax imported. A barrel of ſeed may coſt twenty ſhillings, and ſo may half a hundred of flax; but the produce of flax and ſeed from that barrel, if rightly managed (computed at 400 weight of flax, and three barrels of ſeed) may be worth at leaſt eight pounds ſterling, which is eight times the value of the prime coſt, and is 700 per cent. clear profit to the kingdom, though not ſo much to the farmer. This advantage we gain by ſeed, more than from flax imported. But, as to the profit ariſing from the ſubſequent management of foreign or home-raiſed flax, it may be equal in both, viz. 700 per cent. over and above the prime coſt, as is before ſet forth.

Since we may receive ſuch great benefit by making uſe of foreign ſeed (the prime coſt being very ſmall in compariſon of the profit that may accrue by the ſubſequent management thereof) and, in regard we cannot expect good flax or ſeed but from good flax-ſeed, it is manifeſtly our intereſt to encourage the importation of good ſeed; and, therefore, it is humbly recommended to the truſtees of the linen manufacture to give premiums, for one or two years to come, to ſuch merchants as ſhall import the greateſt quantities of good merchantable flax-ſeed from the Baltic or North America into Ireland; excluding ſlack ſeed, as it is called, of the Baltic, or any other country, from any ſhare in ſuch premiums, ſuch ſeed being light, lank, and poor, and fit only for oil-mills.

Though it is adviſed for the preſent to give premiums to encourage the importation of flax and ſeed, yet we have good reaſon to hope, that, if the methods herein recommended be carried into execution, we ſhall be able to raiſe flax and ſeed ourſelves, in ſuch quantities, and in ſuch perfection, as not to ſtand in need of a ſupply of either from any other country.

The laws of England with regard to FLAX and HEMP.

I. Stat. 33 Hen. VIII. cap. 17. §. 2. It ſhall not be lawful to water hemp or flax in any river, ſtream, or common pond, where beaſts be uſed to be watered, but only on the grounds, or in pits, or in their ſeveral ponds, on pain to forfeit 20 s. one half to the king, and the other to the party grieved, or to any that will ſue for the ſame in any court of record or leet.

II. Stat. 15 Car. II. cap. 15. §. 2. Any perſons in any place privileged or not, corporate or incorporate, may ſet up the trade of breaking, heckling, or dreſſing of hemp or flax; as alſo for making and whitening of thread; as alſo of ſpinning, weaving, making, whitening, or bleaching, of cloth made of hemp, or flax only; as alſo the trade of making twine, or nets for fiſhery, or of ſtoving of cordage; as alſo the trade of making tapeſtry-hangings.

III. §. 3. All foreigners ſetting up and uſing any of the trades aforeſaid three years in England, ſhall, taking the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy before two juſtices of peace near their dwellings, enjoy all privileges as natural-born ſubjects.

IV. §. 4. Foreigners exerciſing the aforeſaid trades ſhall not be liable to any other taxes than ſuch as ſhall be paid by natural-born ſubjects, unleſs they ſhall uſe merchandize into and from foreign parts, in which caſe they ſhall be liable to pay cuſtoms as aliens during five years, and no longer.

V. Stat. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. §. 1. Natives of England or Ireland may import into England, directly from Ireland, any ſorts of hemp or flax, and all the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, free of all duties, the maſter of the veſſel importing the ſame, bringing a certificate from the chief officer of the port in Ireland, expreſſing the marks, number, tale, or weight, of the ſpecies in each bale mentioned in the bills of lading, with the names and places of abode of the exporters from Ireland, and of ſuch perſons that ſhall have ſworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of the kingdom, and where and to whom in England conſigned; and the maſter of the ſhip, on arrival in England, making oath that the ſaid bales and goods are the bales and goods taken on board by virtue of the ſaid certificates.

VI. Stat. 1 Ann. ſtat. 2. cap. 8. §. 2. All hemp or flax, and the production thereof, as thread, yarn, and linen, imported directly from Ireland, by natives of England or Ireland, being of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, upon producing certificates, and making oath as by ſtat. 7 Will. III. cap. 39, ſhall be free from the additional ſubſidy of poundage, and all duties whatſoever.

REMARKS.

The quality and reputation of our linen manufactures, both in Scotland and Ireland, depending upon the goodneſs of the flax; and the improvement of our linen manufacture to the utmoſt, being a matter that nearly concerns the intereſts of our trade; we cannot have too minute and circumſtantial an idea of the methods of raiſing flax of the beſt quality for that purpoſe.

It is not long ſince the method of managing in general our home-grown flax in Scotland and Ireland was ſo bad, that it would have been much better for our linen manufacture if we had raiſed none at all; for every fault, every imperfection in the flax, is, as it were, an error in the firſt concoction, and not to be cured afterwards by the utmoſt labour, ſkill, and addreſs.

Yarn ſpun of unripe flax will never make good cloth; and, where it is mixed with other yarn, the cloth is ever diſliked. Flax ſpoiled or diſcoloured in the watering, cannot be brought to that delicate whiteneſs which is required in fine cloth, unleſs the cloth be ſo much thinned and emptied as to loſs it's eſſential quality of ſtrength; and where it is mixed with good yarn, the cloth can never be of the ſame colour.

Unleſs, therefore, we are at pains to reform our way of managing our lint in general, we had better purchaſe it intirely from the Baltic, Holland, and Flanders; but as we have been long in the practice of raiſing flax, it is weak and irreſolute to give it up; and if we can be at a little more trouble, and ſome ſmall expence, we ſhall reap, from the ſame ground, a third part, at leaſt, more flax than we do at preſent, and that too 30 per cent. or more, better in it's quality.

We ſhall therefore give a ſhort account of the method practiſed by the Flanders flax-dreſſer, who was ſome time ago introduced into Scotland by the truſtees, upon public encouragement, in order to inſtruct us in their way of preparing their ſoil, ſowing of flax-ſeed, raiſing, pulling, watering, and dreſſing their flax, and compare it with our own.

According to the Flanders method, the beſt ſoil for fine flax is the tender and mellow black mould, or any light ſoil, mixed with loam and a little ſand, that will not bind with any ſudden drought. The lower the ground lies, and the flatter it is, the better, provided it be dry enough to be ſown in the proper ſeaſon: it ſhould be fallow at leaſt two winters and a ſummer. The firſt plowing ſhould be as deep as the ſoil will admit of, and thereafter plowed with an ebb furrow, ſo often as the appearance of weeds makes it neceſſary.

In October or November, before the ground is to be ſown (or rather in October in the preceeding year after the firſt plowing, if they have then dung enough, becauſe the ſummer-plowing thereafter deſtroys the weeds that riſe with the dung) it ought to be well dunged, and as well dreſſed at ſowing as garden mould; and three buſhels Wincheſter meaſure of good ſeed, is ſufficient to ſow one acre of ground thus prepared. More is too much to be ſowed on one acre, becauſe our ſoil is not prepared as it ought to be: the effect of which is, if our ſeed be good, all comes up, and one half of it is under growth; this unripe lint is rotten in the watering, before the reſt is ready, and the whole is ſpoiled by it.

In ground prepared as before directed, the weeds are ſo very few, that one hand will clean as much lint-ground of weeds in a day, as eight can do in the ordinary way; and this is a conſiderable article of expence ſaved.

When flax thus prepared is fully ripe, and not 'till then, he pulls it, and, if any unripe ſtalks appear, he carefully ſeparates them from the reſt, and waters them by themſelves.

When his lint is pulled, he ties it up in ſmall bundles, or ſheaves, no bigger than one can graſp about with his two hands, and ties them up looſely with a few ſtalks of itſelf, a little below the ſeed, and then ſets them up on one end, two and two, like ſhocks of corn, in the air and ſun, until it be well dried, and then ſtrips the ſeed-boll from it, as we do. He then ties two and two of his ſheaves together, the ſeed end of the one always to the root end of the other.

Wherever he can find flat-lying ground, under level to any running water, there he digs his ponds for watering his lint, ſo large as the ground will allow, and near to three feet in depth: when his ponds are filled from the rivulet with water, he puts in his lint until the pond is full, but does not ſink it. The reaſon why he ties the ſeed-end of one ſheaf to the root-end of the other, is, that the roots, being heavier, would ſink in the water, and the ſeed-end would be intirely out of the water; but, when thus ballanced, the lint being much of the ſame ſpecific gravity with the water, it is juſt emmerſed, and no more, and never comes near the ground or the mud. He turns it in the water every day, and, if the water is very hot, twice in a day. He tries when it is enough watered, by breaking a few ſtalks; and, if the boon breaks freely, and parts eaſily with the flax, then he takes it out, and carries it to a clear running ſtream, and waſhes it very well from all it's filth and naſtineſs, and then ſpreads it upon graſs (very thin) as we do.

If the water appears to be very much diſcoloured in the pond before his lint is ſufficiently made, he lets off the water, waſhes his lint, and then fills his pond from the running brook, and puts it in again until it be enough done. When his firſt parcel is laid on the graſs, he puts another in the ſame pond, and continues to water his lint, ſo long as the ſeaſon is warm enough. He turns his lint on the graſs once a day, and keeps it on the graſs ſo long as the dews fall, which gives the lint a fine colour, without hurting it, and makes the yarn ſpun of it waſh and empty eaſily, without waſting or weakening it; and the cloth made of it comes ſoon to a fine colour, without being thinned in the leaſt.

So much of his lint as he intends for his beſt ſeed, he builds up in a ſtack, like corn, after it is thoroughly winnowed, with the bolls upon it, and ſtrips * it at ſowing-time; and, in the month of May thereafter, puts it into the water, and follows the ſame method with that watered in the autumn. So much of his lint as remains on his hands undreſſed after the middle of March, when the dews begin to fall, he lays out again upon the graſs for a good colour, and always takes up his lint from the graſs in dry weather, and about mid-day.

* The lint keeps all the winter in the ſtalk, and is for his beſt ſeed, which he takes from the bolls by beating them with a light timber hammer with one of his hands.

N. B. Care muſt be taken, in rainy weather, that the lint receives no damage by rotting on the graſs, but gentle ſhowers are as good as dews.

Our preſent general way is to ſow our lint on any ground, which puts us to a great expence to weed it. We ſow it thick (as we muſt do in ordinary ground) whereby one half of it is ripe before the other is ready; and thus the unripe ſeed, being mixed with the full ripe, ſpoils the whole, and the unripe lint is rotten in the water before the other is ready.

In the weſt of Scotland, where the fineſt ſpinning is, the people are rivetted in a moſt pernicious conceit, that unripe lint makes the fineſt flax; and, therefore, pull all their lint when the bloſſom falls. This kind of lint heckles away almoſt to nothing, and is indeed, in appearance, very fine; but then it has no ſubſtance, and the yarn ſpun of it is always weak and ouzy; it waſtes much in the waſhing, and cloth made of it grows as thin as a cobweb in the bleaching, before it can be brought to a full colour.

In the country of Cambray in French Flanders, &c. where the fineſt flax is raiſed for fine cambrics, thread, and lace, the ground is fallowed ſummer and winter for three years ſucceſſively, and very well dunged; and, at ſowing, ſtrewed over with human ordure, taken from their boghouſes, where it ferments. This is a very great expence, including the want of profits of the ground ſo long; but then, if the ſeaſon proves favourable for lint, they will have of dreſſed flax upon one acre from 800 to 1000 lb. weight, which is worth in Holland, even in good lint-years, two ſhillings ſterling per pound weight.

Our ſeaſons are too precarious to riſque an expence of this kind, for hard-blowing winds, heavy rains, or ſudden droughts in the beginning of ſummer, are all dangerous to the lint-crop: but it imports our manufacture much, that our preſent way of managing our flax ſhould be reformed, eſpecially now, when we make large parcels of fine cloth; for it is intirely owing to the miſmanagement of our flax, THAT WE HAVE ANY BAD CLOTH AT ALL; and every perſon who ſows lint, will find his account in practiſing the Flemiſh method, in managing of every part, from the firſt plowing to the bringing of the lint to the firſt heckle.

The half of our lint is, in many places, loſt in the watering; whenever it is pulled, it is ſtripped off the bolls, and bound up hard like ſheaves of corn, with bands of itſelf, and carried to the water-green, and then thrown into the neareſt pit, or large pool, in any ſmall river or burn.

The pool is dammed up with earth and ſtones, 'till the water ſwells to make the hole of a ſufficient depth, and then the lint is crammed into it, one ſheaf on the top of another, until it be quite full; and then ſods of earth and large ſtones are laid on the top of it, to prevent it's being carried away by land-floods, in caſe of a thunder ſhower, or ſudden fall of rain, which happen ſometimes in the autumn ſeaſon. If no running water is near, the lint is put in the ſame way into moſs-water pits, and ſtanding pools of ſtagnate water. In thoſe places it lies in this condition, full of mud, and it's own ſlime and naſtineſs, for a certain time, without regard to the weather, and is then taken out, and ſet up an end, with the band pulled up towards the top, and opened wide at the bottom to dry; and after all the black ſtuff on it is dried in, it is then laid out on the graſs, to little purpoſe; for it is by this management ſo much is ſpoiled, and the whole ſo diſcoloured, that it can never afterwards be recovered.

The Flemiſh way coſts more trouble and attendance, and ſome more expence, than ours does; but then, by their way, we ſhould have double the quantity of lint we now have, and all of it good, at leaſt 20 per cent. better in it's quality, than our beſt home-grown lint is now worth.

The right management of our flax then is of the greateſt importance to the linen manufacture, and we ought, with all poſſible expedition (be the coſt what it will) to have the Flemiſh method introduced, and univerſally practiſed over the whole country, that we may have no more cloth of any kind ſpoiled or diſliked by the miſmanagement of our home-grown flax.

An attentive and diligent perſon, who is kept cloſe to the dreſſing of flax, and carefully obſerves every part of the

Flanders method of management, may, in a few months, become fully inſtructed in the art; and when this is well known, and practiſed by a few who are ſituated near our linen manufactures, the method will be ſoon propagated, and become general: and when our home-grown flax becomes, in the general, as good in quality as that which comes from abroad, our flax-dreſſers, as well as manufacturers, and the nation in general, will find their account in it.

In Scotland, the truſtees for the advancement of manufactures, were at no ſmall expence to bring to perfection a machine for dreſſing of flax by water, and at length happily ſucceeded; and this proves a great benefit and ſaving to the country on this branch of the linen trade. The beſt flax-dreſſer, when he does his utmoſt, cannot finiſh of the beſt lint (for bad and unripe lint, or lint not fully watered, or ſpoiled in the watering, will not bear the expence of dreſſing, and is indeed not worth dreſſing, nor ought to be dreſſed) above 12 pounds weight in a day: but the lint-mill will dreſs, at the rate of every hand employed in it, 16 pounds in a day.

The cheapeſt that good lint can be dreſſed by the hand in Scotland, is 32 pence the long ſtone, and it is dreſſed at the mill for two ſhillings the ſtone.

The woollen manufacture of England never came to any perfection 'till the buſineſs of the woolſtapler became a trade; and it muſt fare ſo with the linen. Here then is a fine branch of buſineſs for any gentleman who has the conveniency of water for erecting a lint-mill; he may either raiſe lint himſelf, or buy it in the boon from others, and dreſs it by his mill for heckle; he may have his heckles in a convenient houſe near to it, for dreſſing and ſtapling the lint, by proper heckles, into fine dreſſed flax, fine dreſſed tow, common tow, backings and breads, for the ſervice of the country ſpinners.

This will greatly increaſe our ſpinning, when every perſon may be ſerved with their ſtaple of flax and tow they are moſt accuſtomed to ſpin; and which, by conſtant practice, they ſpin beſt, and with the greateſt expedition; and when ſo many days that are now miſpent by our ſpinners in heckling of lint (for very bad hecklers they generally are) ſhall be employed in ſpinning; for the article of ſpinning is the chief ſupport of the manufacture; and as this article requires and employs the greateſt number of hands, great care ſhould be taken to diffuſe and extend it over Scotland and Ireland.

The ſpinning-ſchools eſtabliſhed in Scotland and Ireland, on the public encouragement, have much improved the people in ſpinning, and in making of thread: but as thread can be ſubject to no ſtamp or check, to aſcertain it's ſufficiency at a foreign market, and that our yarn brings in more money to the country, when it is wrought into cloth, than when into thread only, the article of thread-making may be carried too far.

The French ſpinning-ſchool in Scotland has bred a great many good ſpinners of fine yarn; but many of them are perſons of condition, and when ſuch have gratified their curioſity in learning it, and ſpun as much as will make a piece of cambric for themſelves, they give over the practice, and are of no further uſe to the manufacture. Fine ſpinning is a trade in the weſt of Scotland; but as their yarn is made of unripe lint, and not ſpun in the Picardy way, although it be as ſmall and fine, yet it is weak, and cannot ſtand in the loom to be warp for cambric; all that can be made of it, in general, is only woof for cambric; and the cloth where it is, thins much in in the bleaching. See the article BLEACHING.

When the fine yarn comes in to contend for the prize, one can, at firſt view, diſtinguiſh the yarn ſpun by thoſe taught by the French, from that which comes from the weſt of Scotland. Their yarn is fully as fine as ours; but, when tried by a magnifying-glaſs, theirs appears rough and ouzy, and of a bad colour; whereas the yarn ſpun of the foreign lint, by the French ſcholars, appears, through a glaſs, ſmooth and clear, like a horſe-hair fiſhing-line, and is of a fine colour. It is fit for warp, as well as woof; and when it is made into fine cambric, comes to a fine colour ſoon, without thinning the cloth: if therefore the French method of ſpinning, which is, dreſſing their flax with bruſhes, as well as the Flemiſh method of flax-dreſſing, was univerſally introduced all over Scotland and Ireland, where the linen manufacture is carried on, we ſhould ſoon have plenty of yarn to advance the cambric trade.

We do not want to raiſe flax ſo much, as we want to raiſe good flax. The improvement of this branch to the utmoſt juſtly claims the preference, ſince we know from experience that all our bad cloth has been principally owing to the badneſs of our home-grown flax, and that ariſing merely from our miſmanagement of it.

When this Flemiſh method of flax-dreſſing ſhall be univerſally underſtood, application may be made for an act of parliament to prevent the management of flax by any other way, under proper penalties; for heedleſs perſons, of a lazy and indolent diſpoſition, and averſe to all reaſonable improvements, will ſuffer ſloth and eaſe always to gain the aſcendant, even over their own intereſt: wherefore, ſuch perſons muſt be reſtrained by good laws, from doing harm either to themſelves or others.

But notwithſtanding this method of flax-dreſſing is not ſo univerſally eſtabliſhed, according to the information I have received, as could be deſired, either in Scotland or Ireland; yet the perfection to which they have allowedly arrived in the linen manufacture, within a few years, is very extraordinary: and experiments demonſtrate, how well judged the premiums and encouragements have been, which they have given to create an emulation among thoſe who are concerned in the ſeveral branches of the manufacture.

But if, after all, we ſhould not be capable of raiſing a competency of good flax for our linen manufacture in England, Scotland and Ireland, we ſhould exert ourſelves in America. For the ſoil of many parts of Virginia and Maryland is exceeding rich, and fit for raiſing good hemp as well as fine flax: and the ſame hands which hough and dreſs their tobacco grounds, and cut and cure their plants, may be employed all the winter in breaking and dreſſing hemp and flax. Theſe commodities, being imported rough from our own plantations, may be manufactured at home, into cordage, ſail-duck, and linen of ſeveral ſorts, and will contribute to leſſen our demands for theſe goods from Ruſſia and Germany. Great quantities of hemp and flax may alſo be raiſed in Penſylvania, North Carolina, and in ſeveral other of our plantations; and all ſo near navigable rivers, that by ſaving the expence of a long carriage by land, to which theſe commodities are liable in Muſcovy, they may be imported cheaper than they can be had from thence, and, poſſibly too, of a better quality.

Several parts of our colonies lie in the latitude of Egypt; and as their ſoil in ſome places is equally fine and rich with the ſoil of Egypt, where the fineſt flax in the world is produced, and the ſeaſon for preparing of ground and ſowing of lint-ſeed is over, before the mulberry ſets out; and the time of reeling off the ſilk from the worm-bag, paſt before the flax is fully ripe; the ſame hands that may be employed in producing ſilk in our colonies of Virginia, Maryland, Penſylvania, and North and South Carolina, and Georgia, may be alſo employed in pulling and ſtripping off the ſeed from the flax, and watering and graſing it *, and the breaking and dreſſing the flax will keep the people in work 'till the ſowing ſeaſon returns. By theſe means we may be furniſhed with flax of a finer quality than any that grows in Europe, even preferable to that which is raiſed about St Amand, for yarn to make their fineſt cambrics, thread, and lace.

* The dews in theſe parts are exceeding rich, and, when the flax is lying on the graſs, it is thereby brought to an excellent colour, without impairing it's ſtrength in the leaſt.

Here is a fine field of buſineſs to enrich our planters in America, and to keep all their hands conſtantly employed in a very profitable manner: and if the ſilk, which they certainly may produce [ſee the article SILK] is ſent home raw, and their hemp and flax rough, and all our ſpare and idle hands at home employed in working up theſe materials into manufactured goods; ſince all theſe ſubjects of manufacture may be had from our own plantations, of a better quality, and at eaſier rates than they can be imported from foreign parts, what hinders but we may vie with the Hollanders, Flemings, Germans, in fine linens, cambries, thread, and lace, and with our great and only dangerous rivals the French, in the ſilk manufacture?

And if to the care of raiſing a competent quantity of good flax at home and in our plantations, we likewiſe add the care of performing to perfection every branch of operation, which relates to the linen manufacture: ſuch as to relate to ſkilful HECKLING for dreſſing of lint for ſpinning; the SPINNING of it according to the Picardy way; the purging and waſhing of YARN, and the WEAVING, the BLEACHING, &c.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

That Great Britain and Ireland have not long before now ſupplied themſelves from NORTH AMERICA with plenty of the beſt flax, has been aſtoniſhing to the whole world: but that now, when the laſt war and treaty of peace have made us maſters of ſuch extenſive new acquiſitions in that part of the world, if we ſhould not turn thoſe lands, without delay, to beneficial purpoſes, we may as well have remained without them. We have here ſuch a variety of climates, that it cannot longer be pretended that we, on that account, ſhall not be able to accompliſh this, for the advantage of our linen manufacture of the moſt delicate ſort: and it is to be hoped, that we ſhall no longer ſtand in need of being reminded to cultivate this article to the utmoſt perfection, and thereby vie with and emulate every other nation upon the earth.

FLINTSHIRE, in North-Wales. The Iriſh ſea, or rather a branch of it, viz. the great æſtuary of the Dee, into which that river runs, waſhes this ſhire on the north, and 'tis bounded

bounded on the eaſt by Cheſhire, on the ſouth-eaſt by Shropſhire, and on the ſouth-weſt by Denbighſhire. 'Tis the leaſt county of Wales, it's circumference being about forty miles only. The air is healthful, and it's vallies fruitful in corn and paſture, which feeds abundance of ſmall cattle, from which they make plenty of butter and cheeſe. They have alſo great ſtore of honey, of which they make metheglin, a liquor much drank in the Welſh counties. Some of it's mountains are very rich in lead-ore, and produce ſome mill-ſtones. There are alſo great quantities of pit-coal in this county.

FLINT, the ſhire-town, is ſeated on the æſtuary of the Dee, where it has a ſmall harbour.

REMARKS.

The principal manufacture carried on in this county is that of lead, which is ſmelted from the native ore with pit-coal. The chief of theſe works is that called the Quaker's Company, which is ſituated between the town of Flint and Holywell, a market-town. This company have leaſes of ſeveral of the capital lead-mines, within a few miles of their ſmelting-houſes. There are alſo divers ſmelting-houſes in this county belonging to private people, where the ore is melted, and the lead ſeparated therefrom by pit-coal fuel; and alſo the ſilver extracted from the lead by the ſame firing. See the articles LEAD, SILVER, SMELTING.

FLORENCE in Italy. This is the moſt conſiderable part of the duchy of Tuſcany, both in largeneſs and opulency. 'Tis bounded on the north by the Bologneſe and Romania, on the eaſt by the Eccleſiaſtical State, on the ſouth by the Sieneſe, and on the weſt by the territories of Lucca and Piſa, which laſt is often included within it.

The duke of Lorrain and Tuſcany is now ſovereign of Florence, which, with the dukedom of Tuſcany, was allotted him when he ceded the dukedom of Lorrain to France. The adjacent mountains yield mines of copper, iron, and allum, and ſome quarries of marble, porphyry, and other fine ſtone. The hills and dales are covered with grapes, which produce excellent wines, beſides citrons, lemons, oranges, olives, &c. and the plains with corn of various ſorts, rice, and ſaffron, honey, wax, wood, flax, hemp, ſilk, and, in ſome places, excellent mineral waters, which effectually cure many chronic diſeaſes. Several manufactures are carried on here, ſuch as ſerges, and various other kinds of woollen cloths; ſilks, linen, tapeſtries, gilt leather, earthen-ware, and perfumes; all which contribute more or leſs to the riches of it.

From England they take pepper, cloves, mace, indico, callicoes, lead, tin, cloths, bays, perpetuana's, herrings, white and red, pickled ſalmon, Newfoundland fiſh, pilchards, calve-ſkins, and divers other commodities.

REMARKS.

The duke of Florence, formerly, was not only a great lover and encourager of merchants, but carried on merchandiſing himſelf; nay, he was the greateſt merchant in his time, in all Europe, not forgetting that his anceſtors raiſed themſelves, by commerce, to that great dignity and ſplendor they enjoyed.

FLORIDA. This country lies on the eaſt-ſide of the Miſſiſſippi river, extending to the weſt frontiers of Carolina and Georgia, is ſeparated from New France on the north by the Apalachian mountains, and has the gulph of Mexico on the ſouth. But what is properly called the peninſula of Florida, has Georgia on the north, the gulph of Mexico on the ſouth-weſt, that of Florida on the ſouth, with the channel of Bahama and the Atlantic ocean on the eaſt.

The air is pure and temperate, and the country in general healthy; 'tis rather ſubject to heat than cold, but the heats are tempered by the ſea breezes.

The country abounds with all ſorts of timber and fruit-trees, and foreſts of mulberry-trees both white and red, logwood, and many other dyeing-woods, and ſhrubs, fuſtic, &c. And it produces abundance of ſaſſafras, which is exported yearly in great quantities. It's many rivers not only abound with fiſh, but render it inferior to no country, both for pleaſantneſs and fertility.

As to that part of Florida which borders on the gulph of Mexico, it appears by a memorial preſented to King William III. by Dr Daniel Cox, that England has had an undoubted title to it ſince the reign of Henry VII. by whoſe commiſſion Sebaſtian Cabot diſcovered all this coaſt from north latitude 28 to 50. The ſouth part, indeed, towards the gulph of Bahama, was viſited by the Spaniards under Juan Ponce de Leon, as it was ten years after by Vaſquez Aillon; but their cruelties ſo enraged the natives, that they expelled them all one after another. Nor have they ever ſince made any ſettlement on this part of the continent, except at St Auguſtin and St Mattheo.

REMARKS.

CAROLANA was granted by king Charles I. on the 30th of October, in the fifth year of his reign, to Sir Robert Heath, Knt. his attorney-general *. The extent of this grant ſet out in the charter was, all the continent on the weſt of Carolina, from the river St Mattheo, lying, according to the patent, in 31 degrees of north latitude (though, by later and more accurate obſervation, it is found to lie exactly in lat. 30. 10) to the river Paſſo Magno, in north latitude 36. extending in longitude from the Atlantic to the Pacific ſea, a tract which was not then poſſeſſed by any Chriſtian power; together with all the iſlands of Veanis and Bahama, and ſeveral adjacent iſlands lying ſouth from the continent, within the ſaid degrees of latitude, to be called by the name of the Carolana Iſlands.

* See a deſcription of the Engliſh province of Carolana, by the Spaniards called Florida, and by the French La Louiſiana. As alſo of the river Meſcacebe, or Miſſiſſippi, &c. by Daniel Cox, Eſq;

Sir Robert Heath conveyed Carolana to the earl of Arundel, who was at the expence of planting ſeveral parts of the country, and had effected much more, had he not been prevented by the war with Scotland, in which he was general for king Charles, and afterwards by the civil wars in England, and the lunacy of his eldeſt ſon. In the beginning of Cromwell's protectorate, Capt. Watts (whom king Charles II. knighted and made governot of St Chriſtophers) being upon the coaſt, one Leet, an Engliſhman, being intimate with the king of the country, by his influence, was allowed to trade, and incited to ſettle here. Not long after, this king ſent an ambaſſador to England, and the Engliſh had divers tracts of land given them by the Indians, and ſurveyed the continent (of which there is a map ſtill extant) for above 200 miles ſquare. It appears alſo from this memorial, that the FIVE NATIONS in the territory of NEW YORK, whom the French commonly call Iroquois, who have for almoſt eighty years voluntarily ſubjected themſelves to the crown of England, and who had conquered all the country from their own habitations to the MISSISSIPPI river, and even beyond it, made a ſale and ſurrender of all theſe their conqueſts and acquiſitions, in the reign of king James II, to the government of NEW YORK, which is another proof of their being the PROPERTY OF THE ENGLISH.

The memorial here mentioned was preſented to king William, as aforeſaid, by the late Dr Cox; who, by conveyances from one to another, after the death of the earl of Arundel, became proprietor of Carolana; and who ſets forth in the ſaid memorial, that, at the expence of ſeveral thouſand pounds, he diſcovered divers parts of it; firſt from Carolina, afterwards from Penſylvania, by the Suſquehanah river, and that then he made a diſcovery more to the ſouth, by the great river Ochequiton.

And here it is proper to obſerve, that, in September 1712, the late French king granted letters patent to M. Cozat his ſecretary, for the SOLE TRADE to this country, by the name of LOUISIANA, extending about 1000 miles along the gulph of NEW MEXICO, and almoſt as much from the ſaid gulph to Canada; and it appears by the patent, that the French ALTERED THE NAMES OF THE RIVERS, HARBOURS, &c. AS WELL AS OF THE COUNTRY ITSELF, which had been uſually called SPANISH FLORIDA; and that, under pretence of a NEW DISCOVERY of it, they declared themſelves poſſeſſors of this vaſt tract, which had been diſcovered and poſſeſſed for 200 years, partly by the Spaniards, and partly by the Engliſh; for, by comparing the patent with the MAPS, 'tis evident, that it incloſed and incompaſſed all the ENGLISH COLONIES of CAROLINA, MARYLAND, PENSYLVANIA, NEW ENGLAND, &c.——This is a freſh ſpecimen of FRENCH INCROACHMENT. For more inſtances of the like kind, ſee the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, FRANCE, and PLANTATIONS.

The ſon of the above memorialiſt (Daniel Cox, Eſq;) who was himſelf fourteen years reſident on the continent of America, has publiſhed a particular deſcription of this province of Carolana, as he all the way calls it; wherein he has given a ſuccinct detail of ſome of it's moſt uſeful animals, vegetables, metals, minerals, precious ſtones, &c. And, as he declares his account is compoſed chiefly from memoirs drawn by his father, from ſeveral journals and itineraries of the Engliſh, whom he ſent to diſcover it; and partly from the relations of other travellers and Indian traders of good underſtanding and veracity, who had paſſed through the heart of the country; we ſhall give our readers a ſhort abſtract of it, as the moſt ſatisfactory view of this country that has yet appeared.

There are almoſt every-where two, and in ſome parts of the country three, crops of Indian corn in a year. All along the coaſt, and 2 or 300 miles up the country from the ſea, they have the root mendihoca, of which the caſſavi flour and bread is made in the greateſt part of America, between the two tropics, is eſteemed as good as our manchet, and is conſiderably cheaper. Here is likewiſe another ſort of grain like our oats, and, when rightly prepared, it exceeds our oatmeal. It grows ſpontaneouſly in marſhy places, and by

the ſides of rivers. They have excellent limes and prunes growing wild, which they eat plentifully from the tree, and keep ſome dry for winter proviſion. Here is alſo the tunas, a delicious food, eſpecially in hot weather, and ſo wholſome, that, when 'tis ripe, the Europeans call it their cordial julap. Vines of different ſorts grow naturally in this country; and the ſoil is admirably adapted, for producing as good grapes as moſt countries of Europe.

Here is good beef, veal, and mutton, and plenty of hogs, acorns, cheſnuts, and other meats, abounding in this country. Here are horſes for the ſaddle as well as draught; the former ſo cheap, that they may be bought for five ſhillings worth of European commodities. Their cattle have a long black ſort of hair, or rather wool, ſo fine, that 'tis thought, with ſome ſmall mixture, it would be preferable to ordinary wool, for hats, cloathing, and other neceſſaries.

The wild animals of this country, are the elk or buffalo, panther, bear, wild cats, beaver, otter, fox, racoon, ſquirrel. Cotton grows wild here, and ſome of the moſt civilized nations in this country, eſpecially of the better ſort, are cloathed with a ſubſtance like good, coarſe, ſerviceable linen, very white, which is made of the inward bark of trees that abound here, is as becoming as moſt of the ordinary linen of Europe, and as durable: of the ſame, and other barks, they make thread, cords, and ropes.

Pearls are found here in great abundance, but the Indians value our beads more. On the whole coaſt of this province, for 200 leagues, there are vaſt beds of oyſters: and, in freſh water rivers and lakes, there is a ſort of ſhell between a muſcle and a pearl-oyſter, wherein are found abundance of pearls, and many larger than common. Here are two ſorts of cocheneal, one that grows wild, which is far inferior to what is cultivated: and the plant of which indico is made, is very common in moſt of the ſouth parts of this province. Ambergreaſe is often found upon the coaſt from Cape Florida to Mexico, the beſt of which is worth it's weight in gold; and on the ſame coaſt, both to the eaſt and weſt of the Miſſiſſippi, is to be found alſo, after high ſouth winds, eſpecially, a ſort of ſtone pitch, which the Spaniards, who call it copea, moiſten with greaſe, and uſe it for their veſſels in the nature of pitch; than which, they ſay, it is much better in hot countries, it not being apt to melt with the heat of the ſun.

On both ſides the Miſſiſſippi river, there are many ſprings and lakes producing excellent ſalt. The plants which produce hemp and flax are very common in this country, and that ſort of ſilk graſs, of which are made thoſe herba-ſtuffs that come from the Eaſt-Indies. Here are amethyſts, turquoiſes, and the lapis lazuli; copper in abundance, and ſo fine, that 'tis affirmed, ſome of their ore yields above 40 per cent. and here is lead whoſe ore yields 60 per cent. In many places there are mines of pit-coal, and iron ore is frequently found near the ſurface of the earth, from which a metal is extracted little inferior to ſteel. Here are alſo mines of quick-ſilver, or rather of it's mineral, of which the natives make no other uſe than to paint their faces and bodies, in a time of war, or in high feſtivals. In divers parts of this province, there are great quantities of orpiment and ſandarach.

Mr Cox ſays, that about 12 miles above the mouth of the river Miſſiſſippi, a branch runs out of it on the eaſt ſide, which, after a courſe of 160 miles, falls into the north-eaſt end of the great bay of Spirito Santo. About 60 leagues higher up on the eaſt ſide, is the river of Yaſoua, which comes into the Miſſiſſippi, 2 or 300 miles out of the country, and is inhabited by the nations of the Yaſoues, Tounicas, Kowrouas, &c. 60 leagues higher is the river and nation of Chouque, with ſome others to the eaſt of them. The river Oueſpere, which, about 30 leagues to the north-eaſt of the lake, divides into two branches, whereof the moſt ſouthern is called the Black River. The heads of this river are in that vaſt ridge of mountains that run on the back of Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland; through which mountains there is a ſhort paſſage to the ſources of the great river Polomack, on the eaſt ſide of them by the Indians, who are well acquainted therewith, and may poſſibly, one time or other, in conjunction with the French on the Miſſiſſippi, inſult and harraſs our colonies.

The river Oyo, or Hohio, more to the north, is a vaſt river, which comes from the back of New York, Maryland, and Virginia. Several nations dwelt formerly on this river, as the Chawanoes, a great people, who, with many other nations, were extirpated by the Iroquois Indians. Twenty-five leagues above the Hohio, is the great iſland of the Tomaroas, with a nation over-againſt it, that goes by it's name. Thirty leagues higher is the river of the Illinouecks, corruptly called by the French the river of the Illinois, which nation lived about this river, and conſiſted of 20,000 fighting men, before they were deſtroyed by the Iroquois, and driven to the weſt of the Miſſiſſippi.

There are divers other conſiderable rivers and Indian nations, too numerous for this place. We ſhall only obſerve, that, near the mouth of the great river Coza, the French have erected a ſettlement called Fort Louis (20 leagues north-eaſt of the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi) which is the uſual reſidence of the chief governor of Louiſiana, who is nevertheleſs ſubordinate to him of Canada. From this garriſon the French ſend detachments to ſecure their ſeveral ſtations among the Indians in the inland parts.

The Ulibalys, Chicazas, and Chattas, who are the moſt conſiderable nations upon and between the river Coza and the Miſſiſſippi, kindly entertained the Engliſh, who reſided among them ſeveral years, and carried on a ſafe and peaceable trade with them, 'till about the year 1715, when, BY THE INTRIGUES OF THE FRENCH, THEY WERE EITHER MURDERED, OR OBLIGED TO MAKE ROOM FOR THESE NEW INVADERS; who have ſince unjuſtly poſſeſſed and fortified the ſame ſtations, in order to curb the natives, and to cut off the communication with the Engliſh traders; whereby the FRENCH have ingroſſed a profitable trade for above 500 miles, of which the BRITISH SUBJECTS were a few years ago the ſole maſters.

A fine river enters the bay of Mexico, on the eaſt ſide of the harbour of Penſacola, which is the beſt upon all this coaſt of the gulph of Mexico, which comes about 100 miles out of the country. The land here produces pine-trees, fit for ſhip-maſts, of which many are cut down, and carried to Vera Cruz, by a ſhip which belongs to the SPANISH FLOTA that brings proviſions, and returns with timber. There is a communication from hence by land with Apalachy, which is inhabited with Spaniards.

The peninſula of Florida lies between the gulph of Mexico on the weſt, the Atlantic Ocean on the eaſt, and the Streights of Bahama on the ſouth. It is about 100 leagues in length, but not above 30 where broadeſt. The only towns which the Spaniards are poſſeſſed of are St Auguſtine and St Mattheo.

STAUGUSTINE, on the eaſtern coaſt of the peninſula, is about 70 leagues from the mouth of the gulph of Florida, or channel of Bahama, 30 ſouth of the river Alatamacha, or May, as the French call it, and 47 from the town and river Savannah. The port is formed by an iſland, and a long point of land, divided from the continent by a river, which falls into the ſea two miles above the fort.

This place was attacked by Sir Francis Drake, in 1586, by captain Davis, in 1665, by colonel Moor, in 1702, and laſtly by general Oglethorpe, in 1740, who was obliged, for want of competent force, to raiſe the ſiege; and thus were the high expectations blaſted which had been raiſed about this important enterprize; which, if it had ſucceeded, would have been attended with conſiderable advantages to the Engliſh, whoſe ſouthern ſettlements on the continent of America would have been hereby ſecured againſt any attempts of the Spaniards by land; beſides the great ſervice this place would have been to our trade, not only by depriving the Spaniards of a port, from whence they might annoy us on that ſide, but alſo by enabling us to annoy them upon occaſion, by cruizing on their homeward bound ſhips coming from the gulph of Florida and the ſtreights of Bahama.

According to the charter of king Charles II. in 1665, which fixes the limits of South Carolina at latitude 29, this town is, as well as Georgia, within the Engliſh dominions, and, conſequently, belongs to us as a forfeiture. The Spaniards ſay, indeed, that grant is an invaſion of their right, they pretending a right of poſſeſſion to all the coaſt as high as Virginia. But, if the firſt diſcovery gives a title, which is generally the foundation of the Spaniards pretenſions to their dominions in America, we ſhall find that it belongs to us: for Sebaſtian Cabot diſcovered it about the year 1497.

The ſea upon this coaſt, and off as far as the Bahama Iſlands, which lie oppoſite to it, is called the channel or gulph of Florida. And here that mighty current, which upon all the ſouth part of the gulph of Mexico, ſets conſtantly in with a ſtrong ſtream to the weſt, driving ſo all the way, to the very coaſt of Vera Cruz, turns again to the eaſt, between the iſle of Cuba and the ſouth coaſt of north America; and, finding no vent 'till it paſſes by Cape Florida, it then turns from ſouth to north, and runs through this gulph into the great Atlantic ocean. For this reaſon it is, that moſt ſhips from Jamaica, bound for England, come through this gulph to have the benefit of this current, though it is otherwiſe a hazardous paſſage, where many ſhips have been loſt; nor is it very long ago, that a whole fleet of Spaniſh galeons, with a great treaſure, juſt failed from the Havannah, which had not entered the gulph above three days, were all drove aſhore, and loſt, by a violent ſtorm at north-eaſt.

Theſe dangers oblige the navigators to make an allowance of about 5 points in the compaſs for the current, and to keep as near as poſſible to the Bahama ſide; it is by miſtaking this allowance, that ſhips are inſenſibly drove towards the coaſt of Florida. On the other hand, it is obſervable that ſhips, by keeping near the Bahama ſide of this gulph, run ſome hazard from the Spaniards, who are maſters of all theſe iſlands, except that of Providence. But as precarious as this paſſage is, for ſhips bound to Europe from Jamaica, there remains no other courſe for them to take, except that of the windward paſſage; and, in a courſe of above 160 leagues from Cape Morent, the eaſt point of Jamaica, to the north ſide of Crooked-Iſland, which is what is called the windward paſſage, the Engliſh traders are in continual danger of being taken,

by

by the Spaniſh guarda coſtas, beſides encountering the perils of the ſeas.

Before I leave this point, it will not be unſeaſonable to obſerve, that as the colony of GEORGIA may be rendered a powerful barrier, againſt both the French and Spaniards in Florida; it becomes the wiſdom of the nation, that it ſhould not be abandoned. [See the article BRITISH AMERICA, and FRENCH AMERICA.]

Lord Bacon ſays, 'IT IS A MOST HEINOUSLY WICKED 'THING TO FORSAKE AND ABANDON A PLANTA-'TION ONCE IN FORWARDNESS: FOR, BESIDES THE 'DISHONOUR, IT IS MERE TREACHERY, AND BEING 'GUILTY OF THE BLOOD OF MANY MISERABLE MEN.' And, in the ſame noble author's letter to king James, concerning the planting of Ireland, he ſays, 'It ſeems God has 'reſerved to your majeſty's times two works, which, among 'the works of kings, have the ſupreme pre-eminence, viz. the 'uniting and planting of kingdoms. For though it be 'great fortune for a king to deliver his kingdom from long 'calamities; yet, in the judgment of thoſe, who have diſ-'tinguiſhed the degrees of ſovereign honour, to be a founder 'of ſtates excels all the reſt. For, as in arts and ſciences, to 'be the firſt inventor is more than to illuſtrate and am-'plify; as, in the works of nature, the birth and nativity is 'more than the continuance: ſo, in kingdoms, the firſt 'foundation, or plantation, is of nobler dignity and merit, 'than all that follows.'

Now, as the colony of GEORGIA bears the name of our preſent moſt gracious and beloved ſovereign, can any thing be a greater inſult upon ſo auguſt a prince, as any way to neglect, much more to give up and abandon a colony, which is dedicated to his royal name; and which may be rendered a GRAND BARRIER to all our colonies on that ſide of the continent of America?

REMARKS.

Since what is ſaid above, FLORIDA has been annexed to the crown of Great-Britain, by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763; whereby we have obtained an additional barrier to our colonies on the continent of America; a barrier that has at the ſame time, furniſhed us with a maritime one, by intitling us to the ports of ST AUGUSTINE in the GULPH OF FLORIDA, and PENSACOLA and MOBILLE, in the GULPH OF MEXICO; which together with the freedom of navigation on the river MISSISSIPPI, will enable us to defend our colonies on this ſide, while our maritime power ſhall be duly maintained for that purpoſe. See BAHAMA ISLANDS.

FLOTA, in Spain. The Spaniards call ſimply the fleet, or flota, a certain number of veſſels belonging partly to the king, and partly to merchants, ſent every year to Vera Cruz, a port in New Spain. It conſiſts of the captains, admiral, and patach, or pinnace, which go on the king's account; and about 16 ſhips, from 400 to 1000 tons, belonging to particular perſons. They ſet out from Cadiz about the month of Auguſt, and make it 18 or 20 months before they return.

1. Armada, in former times, ſignified a ſmall number of fighting ſhips, and flota a great many, as appears by a law in the book called Las Partidas; but of late it is more properly decided, that Armada is a navy compoſed of fighting ſhips, and flota of merchants. Now, as to the particular buſineſs in hand, there is a royal armada, or navy, to ſecure the navigation to the Weſt-Indies (commonly known by the name of the galeons); there is that they call armada, belonging to the New Spain fleet, which conſiſts only of the admiral and vice-admiral ſhips, fitted and manned for ſervice, to convoy the merchants; there are flotas, or merchant fleets for New Spain, and the Firm-Land. There uſed to be armadas, or convoys to the fleet, for the Firm-Land, which there is not now.

2. In the year 1521, on account of the pirates that infeſted the coaſt of Andaluſia and Algarve, lying in wait for the ſhips homeward-bound from the Spaniſh Indies, it was ordered, that an armada, or convoy, conſiſting of four or five ſhips, ſhould be fitted out; the charge to be defrayed out of the gold, ſilver, and merchandize, brought to the ports of Andaluſia, from the Indies and Canary iſlands; whether belonging to the king or private perſons, at the rate of a ſhilling per pound, which was accordingly put in execution. The following year 1522, the ſeas being ſtill infeſted with pirates, it was reſolved, another ſquadron ſhould be fitted out, to be defrayed as the former, and to cruize, not only on the coaſt, but as far as the iſlands Acores, commonly called Terceras. This was the original, not only of the armada, appointed to ſecure the navigation of the Weſt-Indies, but of the Haberia, or duty of convoys, and other things relating to it: the firſt impoſition towards defraying this charge, was one in the hundred; but, that not anſwering, it came to five in the hundred.

3. One of the principal duties of the committee of war, formed out of the council of the Indies, is, to give the neceſſary orders for fitting out of armadas and flotas; and, as the dangers increaſe, ſo to make the more effectual proviſions againſt them. The laws of trade, in Spain, direct, that, provided there be no ſpecial order to the contrary, two flotas be ſent out, one for the Firm-Land, the other for New Spain, and the armada to convoy them; but this name of armada was meant of the admiral and vice-admiral only, which were fighting ſhips; and, at firſt, there was one man of war to convoy the reſt; her burthen 300 ton, and carrying eight braſs, and four iron guns; and, 'till that time, the merchant ſhips carried 100 ton leſs than their burthen, and 30 ſoldiers each, becauſe they had no convoy of men of war.

The time appointed for theſe flotas to ſail, was, that of New Spain in May, and that of the Firm-Land in Auguſt, both of them to go off with the firſt ſpring-tides: the galeons were appointed to be out in January, that they may coaſt along the Firm-Land, and come, about the middle of April, to Porto Bello; where, the fair being over, they might take aboard the plate, and be at Havannah with it, about the middle of June, where the New Spain fleet would ſoon join them, and they might come together ſafer to Spain: to which effect, the viceroy of Peru was to take care the plate ſhould be at Panama by the middle of March: the plate is 15 days carrying from Potoſi to Arica; eight days generally from thence, by ſea, to Callao, and 20 from Callao to Panama, taking in, by the way, the plate at Paita and Truxillo. To prevent the fleet being detained by contrary winds, as has happened, it was propoſed, to fit the galeons in the river of Seville, in Auguſt and September, and then ſend away to Cadiz, where they might go out with any wind, and need not expect ſpring-tides; and that, to ſecure the ports, two forts ſhould be built upon the points of Puntel and Matagorda. The reaſons why it was judged abſolutely neceſſary, that the flota for the Firm-Land ſhould ſail in September, were becauſe that was a ſafe ſeaſon to ſhip off the goods; they came to Porto Bello at a healthy ſeaſon of the year; the merchandizes were conveyed over to Panama at a cheaper rate, and with leſs danger of receiving damage; the merchants had leiſure to ſell their goods; the buyers had a fit ſeaſon to travel to Peru wirh ſafety; and the armadas and flotas to return to Carthagena and Havannah, to get clear of the channel of Bahama, and to return to Spain in the beſt month for the ſea. In fine, it is found by experience, that the month of September is the fitteſt for the fleets to ſail, and, though ſeveral accidents retard them 'till October or November, yet that ſeaſon is fitter than March.

4. As to the number of ſhips, whereof the armada is compoſed, it is not fixed. In the year 1568, there were 20, which were built galley faſhion, and carried oars, being about 200 ton burthen. Ever ſince that time, there are ſome frigates that can make uſe of oars, whence the name of galeons is derived; for as D. Sebaſtian de Covarrubias, in his treaſure of the Spaniſh tongue, obſerves, galeaſſe and galeon take their names from a galley, though they are ſtronger veſſels, and not ſo ſwift, but better to endure the ſea, becauſe of their high deck: afterwards, the charge increaſing, it was found neceſſary to leſſen the number, ſo that in the ordinances of Haberia, or duty for convoys in Spain, it was eſtabliſhed, there ſhould be 12 men of war, and five tenders fitted out every year; that is, for the armada of galeons, eight ſhips of 600 ton burthen each, and three tenders, one of 100 ton, for the iſland Margarita, and two of 80 each, to follow the armada. For the New Spain fleet, two ſhips of 600 ton each, and two tenders of 80 each; and, for the Honduras fleet, two ſhips of 500 ton each; and, in caſe no flota happened to ſail any year, three galeons and a tender ſhould be ſent to New Spain for the plate. This was the regular method, but, upon occaſion of wars, it has been altered; and ſo, in the year 1630, it was ordered, there ſhould be 20 galeons; in 1634, there were 16, and, in 1638, they were fixed at 15. As the number has increaſed, in time of war, ſo has it been diminiſhed in peace; and, accordingly, in 1653, there were but four galeons, and two tenders.

5. Although the time, after what manner, and in what place, the galeons are to be fitted and cleared, is ſettled: as alſo what ports they are to make in their return; yet ſeveral accidents, and ſometimes his majeſty's orders, have cauſed them to put into other harbours, as Liſbon, Corunna, Malaga, Gibraltar, and others; whence, for the moſt part, the plate has been conveyed to Seville by land. It has been much controverted, whether the galeons ought to be permitted to carry lading, entered at the India-houſe, or be abſolutely forbid it. In the year 1613, it was ordered, that five galeons, of 600 ton each, ſhould be fitted to ſail with the fleet for the Firm-Land, and each of them to carry 200 ton lading; two more for New Spain, and two for Honduras, with each 350 ton lading, which proved ſo beneficial, that the whole charge of them all, beſides the money made by freight, amounted but to 26,500 ducats: yet this order was recalled, upon application made by the corporation of ſailors, who petitioned his majeſty againſt it. Many reaſons have been offered to the council, both for the loading of galeons, and againſt it; but it has prevailed, that they ſhould not be admitted to take in any lading. Nevertheleſs, experience teaches, that, whatſoever endeavours have been uſed to the contrary, they are always full ſtowed, and, what is worſe, all their lading is cuſtom free, being put in by ſtealth, and never entered; whence follows another miſchief, which is, that thoſe perſons who have

their goods aboard the galeons, do, in the Indies, under-ſell thoſe that have entered theirs in Spain.

6. Though it has been ordered, in the general, that the galeons, flotas, and all ſhips whatſoever, bound for the Weſt-Indies, are to ſet out from S. Lucar, and return to that port; yet we will here, more at large, ſet down the words of his majeſty's order, of the year 1664, to that effect; which are as follow:—That the galeons, flotas, and any other ſhips whatſoever, for the time to come, ſet out for the Weſt-Indies, from the port of Bonança, of S. Lucar de Barrameda, and return to it upon pain of 6000 ducats plate, to be paid by the admiral, captain, or owner of the ſhip, that ſhall do the contrary. The which ſum is to be levied immediately upon their arrival, before they are admitted to ſhew the reaſons that obliged them to it: moreover, they are declared incapable of going that voyage again, and the ſhips of being employed in that trade; and that, beſides all this, they be conſtrained to go to S. Lucar, without unloading, referring it to further examination, to impoſe any heavier puniſhment on them, according to the malice that ſhall appear to have been in their putting by their ports. Yet, though this inhibition is ſo ſevere, and ought to be obſerved; it is to be conſidered, that ſometimes ſhips may be forced into the bay of Cadiz, by ſtreſs of weather, there being no other means left to ſave themſelves. Becauſe of many misfortunes that happened in getting over the bar of S. Lucar, it has been eſtabliſhed, by particular order of his majeſty, in the year 1665, that no ſhips be admitted to ſail to the Weſt-Indies, that exceed 18 cubits in breadth, and eight and a half in depth, which, allowing half a yard to a cubit, makes, of our meaſure, 27 feet in breadth, and 12 feet nine inches in depth. Another ordinance, of the year 1621, expreſſes, that they be not above 550 ton burthen.

7. Theſe ordinances are now out of date, for it is long ſince the galeons and flotas have been appointed to ſail from Cadiz, by reaſon of the great burthen of the ſhips: for, in the year 1588, the duke of Medina Sidonia repreſented to king Philip II. that it was requiſite the admiral and vice-admiral of the flota ſhould ſail in ballaſt, from S. Lucar to Cadiz, to take their lading there, becauſe they would be in danger to get over the bar loaden; and, in the year 1596, the preſident Peter Gutierrez Flores was taken by the Engliſh at Cadiz, being there diſpatching the galeons and flota, and ſo upon ſeveral other occaſions. There has been more ſtrictneſs obſerved, as to the returns of the fleets, becauſe the concern was greater, as the preventing the running of ſilver and gold, and defrauding the Haberia, or duty of convoys, and the king's other duties; and, therefore, as well as for the ſecurity of the port, in time of war, ſhips that have put into Cadiz, have always been obliged to reſort to S. Lucar without unloading. Before we quit this point, it is to be obſerved, that, as Cadiz is a place of acceſs, ſo it is of no ſecurity, being an open bay expoſed to the winds, and no leſs to enemies; but that called Bonança, at S. Lucar, is a ſure harbour, being incloſed on all ſides, and ſubject to no danger, but juſt in the entrance.

8. By the laws and ordinances appointed for the well governing the armadas and galeons, it is forbid to make any cabbins or hen-coops on the quarter-deck, or over the round-houſe, or keep any ſwine or ſheep there. The cook-room is to be in the fore-caſtle. The expence of making ſhips preſſed fit for fight, is not to be charged upon the owners. By order of the year 1616, it is prohibited to load wood, at the Havannah, on board the galeons: and though, in 1622, leave was given to bring ſome pieces of coava, to make carriages for guns, it was afterwards prohibited again, and ſo continues, upon pain of forfeiture of the wood ſo brought, and further puniſhment to the captains, that ſhould connive at it; the ſame inhibition is as to the loading any merchandize, or product of the country at the Havannah.

If a ſhip hired be caſt away, the king is not obliged to allow the owner any ſatisfaction, unleſs it be ſo ſtipulated in the contract. Formerly the maſters of the ſhips were tied to compleat their loading in 20 days after the ſecond ſearch, upon pain of being excluded the voyage: and the merchant who in that time did not enter the goods he had to ſhip, was not to load at all; and, in 1602, it was decreed, that no licences to load ſhould be given after the 6th of May for New Spain; but this was in time of great trade, when there was abundance of lading, inſomuch that the flotas carrying then 8 or 9000 ton in May; yet, in the year 1608, an extraordinary fleet was ſent out in January, whereas now it is a great matter if a fleet, carrying 3000 ton, can be ſent out once in two years.

9. Formerly the New Spain fleet, and that for the Firm-Land, uſed to ſail together and part at Dominica, the latter under the command of the admiral, and the other of the vice-admiral, and they ſet out twice a year, in January and April; but, in the year 1564, it was ordered, that they ſhould go out ſingle; that for New Spain in April, and that for the Firm-Land in Auguſt. Care has been always taken, that the fleet ſhould not be greater than might be convenient to make the lading turn to a good account; and, therefore, in the year 1620, news being brought that commodities had been ſold under-rate, at the time when a flota was fitting out for New Spain, two ſhips already appointed for the voyage were laid aſide, and ſatisfaction made the owners for the loſs, by thoſe that were to make the voyage; and in 1627, there being more fleet than lading, the biggeſt ſhip was laid aſide.

In 1633, there being no ſtore of cloathing in Seville, becauſe it came late from the north and Levant, and the ſeaſon being far advanced, leave was granted, for that time, to load in the bay, paying the duty there, without bringing the goods up to Seville, as was always uſed. It is worth obſerving, that, when it is found requiſite to reinforce a fleet, it ought to be by adding ſome men of war to it; not by putting men on board the merchants; for experience has taught, that reinforcing the merchant ſhips is only an additional charge without any benefit; and this the king and council have been made ſenſible of, which has moved them upon ſeveral occaſions, when the counſelſhip, or corporation of traders to the Weſt-Indies, have thought thoſe parts overſtocked with goods; and they have petitioned his majeſty, that no fleets may be ſent thither, which has ſometimes been granted, other times refuſed; and, upon other occaſions, ſome few galeons only have been ordered to be fitted out, to carry the quickſilver for the plate works, and bring home the plate of that year, yet with permiſſion to take in a third part of their burthen in goods.

10. When the commanders of galeons, whether they belong to the king or private perſons, undertake for the fitting of them out, they article to this effect: the commander obliges himſelf to do all the carpenters and caulkers work, either mentioned in the contract, or that ſhall appear to be requiſite afterwards; to maſt the veſſel, and furniſh all other ſorts of rigging, cables, and ſails, putting the galeon into a ſailing poſture. He is to make as many port-holes as are requiſite; to furniſh them with port-hooks, ſledges, pullies, port-ropes; to ſeparate the gun-room, bread-room, powder-room, and find ſtowage for ſhot, quick-ſilver, and ſcaled paper.

If it be requiſite, in the Indies, he ſhall new caulk the ſeams, and beſtow all other repairs, proper for the ſafe return of the ſhip. It is left to him to chuſe the maſter, mate, and handicrafts-men. It belongs to him to ballaſt the galeon. All ſtores belonging to the ſhip are to be duty free, and to be ſhipped in time. As ſoon as the ſhip is fitted, the commander is to have men allowed him to ſhip and ſtow proviſions, but he is to bring down the veſſel, from the dock into the port, at his own expence, and to return it when he comes home. The pay aſſigned is 3000 ducats for a ſhip of 100 ton, 5000 for one of 200, 7000 for one of 300, and after the rate of 2500 ducats for every hundred ton more, for a common voyage to the Firm-Land. This is in caſe the commander be owner of the veſſel; but, if it be another man's, 4000 ducats are allowed for the owner, that is to ſay, if the ſhip be above 400 ton, and 2000 for thoſe that are under. The payment to be made in the ſame place where the contract paſt, and this allowance mentioned to be for a common voyage of eight months; for, if they are to winter abroad, the method varies; but, though ſome have been two or three months above their time, no allowance has been made them.

11. The commander is allowed 3000 royals plate, for the charge of lading, for which ſum he is to pay, and give allowance to all the men employed on that account, 'till the men appointed for the voyage come on board; and he has bills for theſe 3000 royals, together with the charge of fitting, to be paid in the Indies by the king's officers at Panama; and, if they refuſe to pay it, any maſter of plate may do it, and the plate be brought without being entered. But, before the bills are given him, the captain and maſters of the workmen at the ſhip-yards, are to certify, that he has done all things compleatly, that are requiſite about the ſhip. It is to be obſerved, that, in the bills ſo drawn, 4000 pieces of eight are to be payable to one of the maſters of plate, by way of depoſitum, that is, not to be delivered to the commander they belong to, 'till the admiral and pay-maſters have inſpected his ſhip, to ſee whether it have all things neceſſary to return to Spain.

12. If the fleet happens, upon an extraordinary accident, to winter abroad, ſo as to make up the whole time allowed for wintering, which was twelve months, the commander articles to receive 4000 ducats plate, in that province; which is the ſame that was allowed when the ſhips wintered in the Indies, ſo as to require altogether new careening. Whatſoever accident the galeon is loſt by, after it is fitted out, whether it be by fire, enemies, or hazards of the ſea, it is declared the king, and revenue for convoys, run the hazard but of two thirds of the charge of fitting out, and of the wages; the other third, and all other loſſes, lie upon the owner and commander of the galeon, in whoſe charge it is before, after, and during the whole voyage.

It is alſo articled, that the maſter carpenters, and caulkers, who have the fitting of the galeons in Spain, ſhall go aboard the ſame, and not any others. It is declared alſo, that the owner and commander ſhall be punctually paid their contract, which they have performed on their part, and paſſed all the offices, that nothing may be miſſing. The ſame contract is made for admirals and vice-admirals of flotas, with only this

difference,

difference, that it being known they are to winter at Vera Cruz, they have bills for 60,000 royals plate, over and above the coſt in Spain, to careen compleatly in the Indies. The preſident of the India-houſe is charged to take care, that all ſhips of war, eſpecially admirals and vice-admirals, be ſtrong, well rigged, manned and armed, that every one be diſtinguiſhed by it's proper mark, the admiral carrying the flag at the main-top-maſt-head, the vice-admiral at the fore-top-maſt, and the rear-admiral at the mizzen, that the other ſhips may know, and pay reſpect to their commanders. The vice-admiral of any flota, or armada, may overſee the fitting or repairing of any men of war, but ſince there are maſters of the workmen, this is not much practiſed.

In the year 1720, the king of Spain iſſued an ordinance, in order to improve the commerce of his ſubjects in general between Old Spain and New, and to promote the fabrics of ſilk and wool, and other neceſſary manufactures, re-eſtabliſhed in the inland parts of Spain.—For the encouragement of which, it is declared in the ſaid ordinance, that nothing can ſo much conduce thereto, as that the galeons from the Terra Firma, and flota from New Spain, and regiſter and advice ſhips for both kingdoms, ſhould more frequently ſail and return: to which end he orders, that there ſhall be always in readineſs a ſufficient number of men of war, under ſuch proper regulations, as to aſcertain the diſpatch of frequent flotas and galeons, advice and other regiſter ſhips, deſtined for the Indies, that the fleets of both kingdoms and the regiſters may ſail in due time.

The ſubſtance of the regulations, made on this occaſion, may be reduced to the following particulars, viz.

1. The quality of the ſhips, both men of war and merchantmen that are to ſail to the Indies. 2. The choice of the ſupercargoes of the flotas and galeons. 3. The tariff of the duties to the king. 4. The paſſengers.

On the 20th of April 1720, his catholic majeſty iſſued another regulation for the encouragement of this commerce, both from the reduction of ſome, and the annihilation of other duties, and preventing diſputes and law-ſuits, by fixing the admeaſurement and other points therein.

May the 23d, 1720, a letter was iſſued from the ſecretary of ſtate's office to the intendants of the provinces of Spain, agreeable to the inſtructions of the royal ordinance, in order to inforce the due execution of the ſame.

June 23, 1720, his majeſty iſſued another ordinance, the inconveniencies of the high duties, and great abuſes that raiſed to an exceſſive price the goods and fruits manufactured and produced in Old Spain, to be ſold in New, to the end that other nations might be obſtructed in this trade, to make way for that of the Spaniards themſelves.

Remarks.

Theſe regulations in Spain, at this time of day, manifeſting the dawning of that ſpirit of commerce which now begins glaringly to ſhew itſelf; it may deſerve the attention of Britons to obſerve, by what gradations that kingdom have aroſe to that commercial ſyſtem, which they have now ſo ſanguinely adopted, to the ſurprize of other nations; who have been lulled aſleep by ſcandalous and dilatory negociations, while that nation has been laying the foundation of an active and extenſive commerce, ſo long ſince as the year 1720. This will, in a great meaſure, account for the conduct of that court towards ſome of it's neighbouring nations, which otherwiſe would appear very ſtrange and unaccountable.

'His Catholic majeſty ſays (in his letter abovementioned) 'out of his great zeal for the improvement of trade and 'navigation, whence ſo many vaſt advantages ariſe to his 'ſubjects, and eſpecially from that which is carried on, and 'is capable of being enlarged, between Spain and the In'dies, has reſolved and given proper inſtructions, that there 'ſail this ſummer, from Cadiz, a flota from 5 to 6000 'tons for New Spain; and October following, the galeons 'for the Terra Firma, beſides regiſter ſhips, that ſhall, at 'the ſame time, ſail for the other provinces, under a reform 'of the duties and other circumſtances provided for in the 'ſchedule annexed; and his majeſty reflecting, that neither 'this, nor any other branch of trade, will conſiderably en'rich his vaſſals, and improve his revenue, unleſs it be car'ried on, at leaſt in general, with the goods and fruits of 'theſe kingdoms; for the conſequence of doing it with fo'reign manufactures is, that bullion to the value of them 'will naturally ſeek for the proprietor of the merchandize, 'and paſs to thoſe foreign parts whence the ſupply comes; 'he orders me to tell your lordſhips, that for theſe reaſons 'you are, by a proper application to the manufacturers and 'traders of this kingdom, to encourage and diſpoſe them to 'ſend to Cadiz as large a quantity of fruits, woven goods, 'and other Spanish Commodities, as can poſſibly be 'procured, and to ſhip them for the Indies, either by their 'own Factors, or by conſignments to thoſe employed in 'the commerce of the Indies, or to diſpoſe of them to the 'merchants of Andaluſia, giving them at the ſame time to 'underſtand, that the duties upon ſilks exported, under the 'meaſure of a cubic palm, are ſo moderate, that they ſcarce 'amount to one per cent. of their value; that in the duty 'upon fruits, there has been alſo made a very conſiderable 'reduction; and that in ſhipping them, and every other oc'currence, ſhall be given all manner of protection and aſſiſt'ance, by the intendant Don Franciſco Varas y Valdas, who 'is charged with the diſpoſition of the cargo, and the diſ'patches of the flota, galeons, and regiſter ſhips for the In'dies, and particularly directed to give the utmoſt aſſiſtance 'to all, that ſhall go from the other provinces of Spain to 'Cadiz with merchandize, to enable them to ſucceed in this 'traffic. With the ſame intent his majeſty wills, that your 'lordſhips alſo give all the aſſiſtance in your power, and ſend 'letters with all ſuch as ſhall carry theſe goods to Cadiz, to 'the ſaid miniſter, who, by knowing whence they come, and 'the recommendations they bring, may be enabled to ſup'port and ſerve them in the manner it has been enjoined him, 'is convenient, and your lordſhips ſhall adviſe, in conſe'quence of this charge which his majeſty lays upon you, 'not doubting but your lordſhips will exert your utmoſt vi'gilance to effect what his majeſty deſires, and is ſo much 'for the intereſt of the kingdom, as has been already ſhewn; 'and if, for the eaſier and ſpeedier accompliſhment of this 'great purpoſe, of inducing the manufacturer and merchant 'to export Spanish Goods to America, your lordſhips 'ſhould think of any prudent meaſure, that may promote 'and render it effectual, his majeſty wills, that your lord'ſhips make a report of it. God preſerve, &c.'

Madrid, May 23, 1720.

Don Miguel Fernandez Durân.

A copy of this circular letter was ſent to the ſaid Don Franciſco Varas, along with the king's order, in the form following:

'His majeſty, in conſequence of what he was pleaſed to pub'liſh in the late diſpatch, an ordinance for the galeons and 'flotas, in reſpect to a revival and improvements of ſilks, 'cloths, and other manufactures in the inland parts of Spain, 'in order to lay a foundation for this great deſign, has com'manded the ordinance, of which a copy is annexed, to be 'diſpatched to all the intendants of the provinces of Spain; 'and as it has been already done, his majeſty directs your 'lordſhip fully and punctually to diſcharge every thing, that 'ſhall concern and is required of you in the above ordi'nance, by affording ſuch aſſiſtance to the manufacturers 'and traders, who ſhall from thence remit to that city any 'goods whatſoever of the fabrics of Spain to be ſhipped 'for America, that they may be ſenſible how deſirous his 'majeſty is to promote their intereſt, giving the preference to 'our own Goods above any other, whether belonging to 'foreigners or natives, who are not traders or manufacturers 'in the provinces of this kingdom, and granting them all 'the indulgences practicable; and that your lordſhip act in 'this affair with the neceſſary prudence and management, in 'order that the tenderneſs and concern which the Manu'facturers merit, in the diſpatch and embarkation of 'their goods to the Indies, and the profits they may gain in 'return, be an encouragement to them, to continue and ex'tend the commerce of their own goods to the Indies, as his 'majeſty deſires: and he alſo orders your lordſhip to continue 'an account of the fabrics of Spain, that, in conſequence of 'the ſaid ordinance, arrive from each province in that city, 'to be ſhipped for the Indies; your lordſhip being alſo ad'vertiſed, that, whenever the traders of that city, Seville, 'San Lucar, and el Puerto, ſhall pleaſe to ſhip Spaniſh goods, 'they are to be preferred before any foreign ones whatſo'ever. This I communicate to your lordſhip by his royal 'order, for your information and obſervance. God pre'ſerve, &c.'

Madrid, May 31, 1720.

Don Miguel Fernandez Durân.
Sennor Don Franciſco de Varas.

See the article Galloons.

Further Remarks.

Since by the Definitive Treaty of 1763, Great Britain has obtained Florida, and the Ports of St Auguſtine in the Gulph thereof; and alſo the Ports of Penſacola and Mobille, in the Gulph of Mexico, as likewiſe the freedom of navigation on the Miſſiſippi; the Spaniſh navigation of the Flota from La Vera Cruz is rendered far more precarious in times of war, than ever the ſame before was: for now it is far more liable to interception by the Engliſh, from the advantages reaped by their ſituation, derived from the Definitive Treaty before intimated.

FLOTSAM, JETSAM, and LAGAN, are in general, goods on or in the ſea, and belong to the king, who by charter hath granted them to the lord admiral. In particular, flotſam is, when a ſhip is ſunk, or otherwiſe caſt away, and the goods float upon the ſea. Jetſam is, where the ſhip is in danger of ſinking, and, for lightening the ſhip, the goods are thrown into the

the ſea, but notwithſtanding the ſhip periſheth. Lagan is, when heavy goods that ſink are caſt into the ſea before the periſhing of the ſhip; and the maſter and mariners, that they may find and have them again, faſten a buoy-cork, or other ſea-mark to them, whereby they may be the more eaſily directed to the place where they lie, if they ſhall be in a condition to retake them.

A man may have flotſam and jetſam by the king's grant, and lagan within the high and low water-mark by preſcription, as it appears in the weſt-country; where the lords of manors preſcribe to have wreck in the ſea, ſo far as they can ſee a Humber-barrel. And, by the grant of a wreck, will paſs flotſam, jetſam, and lagan, when they are caſt upon land; for then they are a wreck, and belong to the lord intitled to the ſame: but if they be not caſt on the land, the admiral hath juriſdiction, and ſhall have them, and they cannot be ſaid to be a wreck. 5 Rep. 106.

The king, or admiral, ſhall have flotſam, jetſam, and lagan, when the ſhip periſheth, and when the owners of the goods are not known; but if the ſhip doth not periſh, it is otherwiſe; and it is held, that where the proprietors of the goods may be known, they have a year and a day to claim flotſam. Fitz. N. B. 112. 1 Keb. Rep. 657. See the article WRECK.

FLUX, in metallurgy, is a certain matter added to an ore, or metalline ſubſtance, in order to make it melt, or fuſe the eaſier, and yield a greater quantity, or a purer, more tough, and malleable metal, either in the art of aſſaying in ſmall quantities, or ſmelting in large ones. See the articles ASSAY, SMELTING, and REFINING. Here follow ſome examples of certain fluxes.

We took four ounces of red-lead, an ounce of white ſand in powder, and two ounces of dry decrepitated ſalt, and mixed them all together in a mortar; then putting the mixture in a clean Heſſian crucible, fitted with a cover, we fuſed the matter in a wind-furnace for a quarter of an hour; when taking it out, and letting it cool, we afterwards broke the crucible, and found the ſalt at top, and a pure glaſs of lead at the bottom: this glaſs we carefully ſeparated, and kept apart, as a powerful flux.

The ſalt is of no other uſe in this operation, than to ſerve as a flux to the ſand, and make it more readily unite with the red-lead, ſo as to form a glaſs without any great violence of fire, or the neceſſity of being long detained therein: ſo that, by this means, a glaſs of lead may be readily prepared for the purpoſe of artificial gems, or other uſes. See GEMS.

This glaſs of lead is an extremely uſeful flux in the buſineſs of aſſaying; and when kept long in fuſion, paſſes through the pores of any common crucible, almoſt like water through a ſieve; ſo as, upon the teſt, readily to vitrify, or carry off, all ſorts of metalline and mineral matter, except gold and ſilver: on which property, therefore, the art of cupelling depends.

Fluxes ſeem reducible to two general kinds, viz. the vitreous and the ſaline. By the vitreous we underſtand all thoſe which have, either of themſelves, or readily aſſume, a glaſſy form in the fire; among the principal whereof we reckon the glaſs of lead, the glaſs of antimony, and borax.

By the ſaline kind of fluxes we underſtand all thoſe that are compoſed of ſalts, whether tartar, nitre, fixed alkali, or the like; and among the principal of this kind, we reckon the black flux; which we formerly ſhewed how to prepare; ſandiver, kelp, &c. See ASSAY.

The vitreous kind ſeem more immediately deſtined to act upon the ſtony, or vitreſcible matter, wherewith ſtubborn ores are frequently mixed; and the ſaline kind, to act more immediately upon the ore itſelf, for the due excluſion, or ſeparation, of the metal.

The more kindly ores require no flux to make them run thin, or to afford all the metal they contain; and ſometimes ores are ſo kindly, as to contain their own fluxes within themſelves. Thus we have met with copper ores, which being barely ground to powder, and melted, without any addition, in a common wind-furnace, have yielded as much, or even more pure metal, at the firſt operation, than we could obtain from them by means of the uſual fluxes. Whence we ſee that artificial fluxes are not always neceſſary, or that the principal uſe of them is for the ſtubborn or leſs tractable ores. And theſe are ſometimes ſo exceedingly hard to fuſe, and reduce to a metalline form, that it requires the utmoſt part of art to treat them advantageouſly in the larger way of buſineſs, where no conſiderable expence can uſually be allowed for fluxes. And on this account it is that many mines remain unwrought, as being intractable, without great charges: whence the improvement of the buſineſs of fluxes, ſo as to render them cheap and effectual, might greatly contribute to the improvement of metallurgy.

We would therefore recommend to farther enquiry what matter it is, in the more ſafe and tractable ores, which renders them ſo fuſible, and eaſy to part from their metal. Certain experiments we have made with this view, ſeem to ſhew, that, in copper ores, it is a kind of bituminous ſubſtance, capable of melting, by a ſtrong heat, into a ſoft and black kind of glaſs.

Some of the moſt powerful and cheap ſimple fluxes, hitherto known, are dried wine-lees, dried cow-dung and horſe-dung, dried river mud, fuller's earth, iron filings, common ſalt, glaſs, kelp, or pot-aſh, ſandiver, &c. which may be uſed in the larger works; as nitre, tartar, borax, ſal ammoniac, mercury ſublimate, &c. may in the ſmaller, or for the making of aſſays.

As for compound fluxes, they are numerous, almoſt every operator having his favourite flux; and certainly ſome fluxes are better adapted than others to certain ores. But, perhaps, a few general ones might be fixed upon, which ſhould ſerve inſtead of all thoſe hitherto commonly known and uſed. We will here recommend three, which are powerful, almoſt general, and not expenſive.

1. Take of nitre, prepared by long boiling it in lime-water, of ſea-ſalt, melted in the fire, ſandiver, and dry wine-lees, each one part; glaſs of lead three parts, and powdered glaſs eight parts: mix them all well together. This flux, added in an equal weight, will fuſe a very ſtubborn ore.

2. For a ſtill ſtronger, take equal parts of white tartar, common ſalt and nitre, prepared as above; calcine them to a white powder, and mix therewith it's own weight of glaſs and lead; and of this flux add two parts to one of the ſtubborneſt ore.

3. For a powerful ſaline flux, take of the ſtrongeſt ſoap-boiler's lees four pounds, white tartar and common ſalt, melted in the fire, each one pound; boil them together, each with five gallons of human urine, to a dry ſalt. This flux is particularly proper where ſulphur and cobalt abound, and render the ore very refractory.

But the great ſecret, in making and adapting of fluxes, is not only to ſeparate the metal already ripened in the ore, but even to mature and ripen the crude or immature part of the ore in the fire. Something of this kind, we apprehend, may be effected; as having reaſon to believe, that certain fluxes will obtain a larger yield of metal from certain ores, than other fluxes in common uſe, though eſteemed of the beſt, and though they are, perhaps, of the deareſt kind. Thus clean iron filings will often do more than borax; but as the ſcales and crocus, or ruſt of iron, have been commonly uſed, inſtead of pure and perfect iron itſelf, for a flux, few operators appear acquainted with the excellency of perfect iron employed for this purpoſe: and many advantages are now commonly reaped by a prudent mixture of one ore with another of the ſame denomination, and with the ſlags, or recrements, of metals, in the way of a flux.

FORESTALLERS, REGRATERS, and ENGROSSERS.

By ſtat. 5 and 6 Edw. VI. cap. 14. a foreſtaller is one who buys, or cauſeth to be bought, any corn, or other victuals, coming to fair, market, &c. or perſons diſſuading the owners from bringing them to market, or, when there, perſuading to advance the price, or ſhall make any bargain, &c. for having the ſame, or any part, before it be in the ſaid market, &c. ready to be ſold.

An engroſſer is one who buys ſtanding corn (otherwiſe than by demiſe or grant) or any butter, cheeſe, or other victuals, to ſell again for unreaſonable profit.

A regrator is one who, in open fair or market, buys up corn, &c. to ſell again in ſome other fair or market, within four miles.

All victuals are within theſe acts.

Offenders herein are puniſhed at the quarter-ſeſſions: and, for the firſt offence, forfeit the goods, or their value, and two months impriſonment: for the ſecond, double value and ſix months impriſonment; and, for the third, loſeth all his goods, is pillored, and muſt be impriſoned during the king's pleaſure.

The proſecution to be within two years of the offence; one moiety of the forfeiture goes to the king, and the other to the proſecutor.

Perſons buying barley or oats, for malt or oatmeal, purveyors of any city or town corporate, &c, fiſhmongers, innholders, &c. or people living within a mile of the ſea, retailing fiſh, badgers, carriers, &c. excepted.

Perſons tranſporting corn or cattle, and licenſed drovers, and things imported from beyond ſea, are excepted.

Corn bought and ſold in meal, contrary to law, is within the ſtatute, becauſe making meal of it is not an alteration of the corn; but meal bought, and made into ſtarch, has been held not within the ſtatute, being altered by a trade. C. Rep. 134, 135.

Apples, plums, and hops, are not within the ſtatute.

The indictment ſhould ſet forth, that the things bought were ſold again in the ſame market dearer.

And it muſt be certain, alledging how many loads of hay and ſtraw, and buſhels of wheat, &c. were ingroſſed.

By ſtat. 13 Eliz. cap. 25. the aforeſaid act is made perpetual; and, by ſtat. 22 and 23 Car. II. cap. 19. butchers in London and Weſtminſter, or within 10 miles, are prohibited to buy fat cattle, and ſell again to any other, dead or alive; and alſo all perſons from buying fat cattle in Smithfield, and ſelling the ſame again there; but, by 7 Ann. cap. 6. butchers may ſell to one another calves, ſheep, or lambs.

By

By 13 Eliz. cap. 25. the ſtatute of 5 and 6 Edw. VI. ſhall not extend to foreign victuals brought from beyond ſea, fiſh and ſalt only expected.

By ſtat. 21 Jac. I. cap. 22. it ſhall not extend to freemen of London buying butter and cheeſe, unleſs it be declared by juſtices they ſhall forbear to buy, &c.

By 1 Jac. I. cap. 22. no perſon ſhall regrate or ingroſs oak-bark, to ſell again, on pain of forfeiture; and none ſhall foreſtal hides but in market, or buy any but of him that kills the beaſt to ſpend in his houſe, on forfeiture of 6s. 8d. for every hide.

Salt is a victual, and ſo within the ſtatutes 5 and 6 Ed. VI. cap. 14. apples are not.

Davis was indicted and convicted for ingroſſing and ſelling ſalmons; for, though fiſhmongers may buy to carry on their trade, they muſt not ſell at unreaſonable prices.

Information for ingroſſing butter and cheeſe, ſets forth the quantity and value, and prays the double value, and good: for firſt, it is ſufficient to demand the value in general; ſecondly, the informer demanded his moiety, ſaying nothing of the king's, and well enough, for the informer is to have his firſt.

Whereas, by the laws and ſtatutes of this realm, all foreſtalling, &c. of corn is prohibited, and it is, by 5 and 6 Ed. VI. particularly enacted, That, when it is above the prices in that act mentioned, all perſons offending againſt the ſaid act ſhall be impriſoned for two months for the firſt offence, half a year for the ſecond, and for the third the pillory, and forfeiture of all goods and chattels, and be impriſoned during the king's pleaſure. And whereas their excellencies the lords juſtices have been informed, that, though the prices of corn are raiſed far beyond thoſe in the ſaid act mentioned, divers ill-diſpoſed perſons, for lucre, ingroſs great quantities, to export beyond ſea, contrary to the ſaid laws, and to the great oppreſſion of the poor: their excellencies have thought fit to order, that all the laws relating hereunto be ſtrictly and effectually executed. And, for diſcovery of all offenders, do order the officers of the cuſtoms at the ſeveral ports, to take care, when any corn, &c. is entered for exportation, to inform themſelves of the names and abode of the perſons bringing or entering it, and of the places from whence it is brought, and who is the owner, and if really the growth of the exporter's land, or bought of any other, immediately acquainting two or more juſtices therewith, where ſuch entry is made, that ſuch perſons may be proceeded againſt according to law, if they appear not to be within ſome of the excepted caſes of the act; and that commiſſioners do forthwith ſend their orders to the officers of the ſeveral ports of this kingdom for theſe purpoſes, and requiring to uſe their utmoſt endeavours in putting this order in execution. And the lords commiſſioners of the Treaſury order, That the keepers of the rolls of the ſeveral counties in England and Wales, do ſtrongly recommend it to the juſtices of the peace in their reſpective counties and diviſions, to cauſe the ſaid act, and all other the laws againſt the foreſtalling, &c. of corn and grain, to be ſpeedily and effectually carried into execution, and to take care that no licence be granted to any badger, lader, kidder, carrier, or buyer of corn or grain, but according to the directions of the ſaid act, and other acts relating thereto, and that all offenders be effectually proſecuted according to law.

W. CARY.

REMARKS.

The public debts of this nation being now near trebled to what they were at the latter end of queen Anne's reign, and our tax-incumbrances augmented proportionally, whereby the prices of the neceſſaries of life, and conſequently the price of labour in general is advanced, and thereby unavoidably the prices of our product and manufactures are increaſed; does it not more become the wiſdom of the nation, even than ever it before did, to put a ſtop to all foreſtallers, regraters and engroſſers in this kingdom, of proviſions of all kind, that they may not be enhanced a ſingle farthing beyond what the tax-incumbrances of the nation have rendered inevitable? It moſt certainly does. If we do not, it will always be in the power of foreſtallers to raiſe the prices of the neceſſaries of life by their arbitrary and oppreſſive taxations on the people, as may have a tendency to the utter ruin and deſtruction of our whole trade. See our articles LABOUR, DUTIES, IRELAND.

FORFARSHIRE, in Scotland. This ſhire is alſo called Angus; but, in the parliament rolls, it is always named the ſhire of Forfar. It is bounded on the north by the Binchinnin Mountains; has the Firth of Tay, and the Britiſh Ocean, on the ſouth; the water of Tarf, and a line drawn from thence to the water of North-Eſk, ſeparate it from Merns on the eaſt; and has Perthſhire on the weſt and north-weſt.

It produces wheat, and all other ſorts of grain; is diverſified with large hills, lakes, foreſts, and caſtles; has ſeveral quarries of free-ſtone and ſlate, in which the inhabitants drive a conſiderable trade. There are mines of lead near the caſtle of Inner-markie, and plenty of iron ore near the wood of Dalboge; and their ſalmon-fiſhery turns to a very good account.

DUNDEE, on the river Tay, has a good harbour, and is reckoned the beſt town in the ſhire for ſtrength, ſituation, and trade. It's harbour will contain 100 ſail of ſhips, but not of great burden. Though it is one of the beſt ports for trade in all Scotland, and particularly the foreign trade, it has alſo a conſiderable inland buſineſs, eſpecially for corn and linen cloth, which makes the country round both rich and populous, being maintained by the quantities of goods the merchants of Dundee buy up for exportation; it ſhips off particularly large quantities of corn, for London and Amſterdam. As the town is full of trade, ſo the port is full of ſhips, of which here are almoſt as many as at Leith; and there are the more here generally, becauſe the merchants ſhips of St Johnſtoun, or Perth, often ride here, waiting for a wind, or to load or unload, as well as for other occaſions.

MONTROSE, at the mouth of the river Southeſk, is well ſituated for trade, and has a harbour for ſhips of conſiderable burden, with a good foreign commerce, eſpecially to Norway. There are ſome merchants here who trade conſiderably abroad.

ABERBROTHOCK, or ARBROTH, on the ſame coaſt, is a market-town and royal burgh, and has a harbour conveniently ſituated for trade, near the promontory called Red-head, which is to be ſeen at a great diſtance.

FOSSILS, are natural bodies, found either in the bowels, or on the ſurface of the earth, of ſo ſimple a ſtructure, that the cloſeſt inſpection, even by the beſt microſcopes, has not always been able to diſcover any diverſity between the veſſels and their contents; but each part appears perfectly ſimilar to the whole, though, in many of them, there is certainly a compoſition of ſolid and fluid parts.

This character holds of foſſils, and of them alone: thus gold, ſilver, and other metals, antimony, ſalts, ſulphurs, ſtones, and other minerals, really grow fixed to the earth; and, if they be divided into the minuteſt parts, they will appear the ſame ſimilar ſolid matter. without any ſhew of veſſels and juices. And thus, ſhould it be urged, that ſpirit of wine muſt, on this footing, be a foſſil, becauſe homogeneous in all it's parts, and exhibiting no diſtinction of veſſels and juices, the anſwer is obvious: ſince ſpirit of wine, as ſuch, is not generated of, or under the earth; neither is it a vegetable, that denomination including the whole compages, or ſtructure, out of which ſpirit of wine is prepared. Or if it be ſaid, That antimony ſhould then be no foſſil, ſince it contains an homogeneous ſulphur: it may be anſwered, That, as to our ſenſes, it is, in all reſpects, a foſſil; ſince, whatever portion you take thereof, it is the ſame indiſtinguiſhable matter, and has all the characters of antimony.

Foſſils are either ſimple or compound: ſimple, are ſuch whoſe parts, whoſoever divided, are of all the ſame nature, that is, of the ſame gravity, magnitude, figure, hardneſs, and mobility: as quickſilver, though divided to infinity, is found every where the ſame in all theſe reſpects. Compound foſſils are thoſe which may be reſolved into different, or diſſimilar parts; or, whoſe parts are unlike in magnitude, figure, hardneſs, and mobility: as antimony, which may be reſolved by fire into ſulphur and a metallic part.

The ſimple foſſils are, (1.) Metals. (2.) Salts. (3.) Stones, both vulgar and precious, and, (4.) Earths.

The compound foſſils are, (1.) All ſulphurs. (2.) Semi-metals, or properly minerals. (3.) Bodies combined of the preceding foſſils, either ſimple or compound.

REMARKS.

The foſſil kingdom affording a great variety of materials for commerce, both in their ſimple, compounded, and applicable nature to divers arts and trades, we refer thoſe who would excel in this branch of knowledge to the peruſal of the works of the learned Drs. Liſter, Woodward, and Hill, who have profeſſedly wrote upon this delicate ſubject. With reſpect, however, to many particulars that make pretty capital articles of trade, we have repreſented their quality and uſes, ſo far as we have judged conſiſtent with the general deſign of this work.

FOUNDER, an artiſt who melts or caſts metals into various forms, for divers purpoſes, as bells, guns, bombs, printing-types, and other ſorts of works, as candleſticks, buckles, &c. From the different ſorts of works they are differently denominated, as bell-founders, gun-founders, letter-founders, &c. See FOUNDERY.

FOUNDERY, the art of caſting all ſorts of metals into divers forms. It likewiſe ſignifies the workhouſe, or ſmelting-hut, wherein theſe operations are performed.

The methods of caſting in ſand all ſorts of ſmall works in braſs.

The ſand uſed for caſt-work of this kind is, at firſt, of a pretty ſoft, yellowiſh, and clammy nature; but, it being neceſſary to ſtrew charcoal-duſt in the moulds, it, at length, becomes of a quite black colour. This ſand is worked over and over on a board, with a roller and a ſort of knife, and placed over a trough, to receive it, after it is thus ſufficiently prepared.

After this they take a wooden board, of a length and breadth ſuitable to what is to be caſt, and put a ledge round it, and

fill it with the ſand, a little moiſtened, to make it duly cohere. Then they take either wood or metal models of what they intend to caſt, and make their impreſſion on the ſand mould. Along the middle of the mould they lay half a ſmall braſs cylinder, as a chief canal for the metal to run through, when melted, into the models or patterns; and from this chief canal are placed ſeveral others, which extend to each model, or pattern, placed in the ſame frame. After this frame is finiſhed, they take out the patterns, by very gently looſening them, that the ſand may not give way. After this, they proceed to work the other half of the mould with the ſame patterns, in a ſuch-like frame, with pins, which, entering into holes correſponding with the other, make the two cavities of the model coincide.

The frame, thus prepared, is carried to the melter, who, after extending the chief canal of the counterpart, and adding the croſs canals to the divers models in both, and ſtrewing mill-duſt over them, dries them in a kind of oven for that purpoſe.

Both parts of the mould being dry, they are joined together by means of the pins, and, to prevent their giving way, by reaſon of the melted metal paſſing through the chief cylindrical canal, they are ſcrewed, or wedged up, like a kind of preſs.

While the moulds are thus preparing, the metal is fuſing, in a crucible of a ſize proportionate to the quantity of metal intended to be caſt. Some of thoſe ſmall work-founder's furnaces are like a ſmith's forge, others ſtand a few feet underground, for the more eaſily and ſafely taking out a weighty pot of metal, with circular tongs, which graſp round the top of the crucible. When the metal is melted, the workman pours it through the chief canal of each mould, which conveys it to every diſtinct pattern.

When the moulds are cooliſh, the frames are unſcrewed, or unwedged, and the caſt-work taken out of the ſand, which ſand is worked over and over for other caſtings.

Of the caſting of ſtatues.

The caſting hereof depends on the due preparation of the pit, the core, the wax, the outer mould, the inferior furnace, to melt off the wax, and the upper to fuſe the metal. The pit is a hole, dug in a dry place, ſomething deeper than the intended figure, and made according to the prominence of certain parts thereof. The inſide of the pit is commonly lined with ſtone or brick; or, when the figure is very large, they ſometimes work on the ground, and raiſe a proper fence to reſiſt the impulſion of the melted metal.

The inner mould, or core, is a rude maſs, to which is given the intended attitude and contours. It is raiſed on an iron grate, ſtrong enough to ſuſtain it, and is ſtrengthened within ſide by ſeveral bars of iron. It is generally made either of potter's clay, mixed with hair and horſe-dung, or of plaiſter of Paris, mixed with fine brick-duſt. The uſe of the core is, to ſupport the wax, the ſhell, and leſſen the weight of metal. The iron bars and the core are taken out of the braſs figure through an aperture left in the figure, which is ſoldered up afterwards. It is neceſſary to leave ſome of the iron bars of the core that contribute to the ſteadineſs of the projecting parts, within the braſs figure.

The wax is a repreſentation of the intended ſtatue. If it be a piece of ſculpture, the wax ſhould be all of the ſculptor's own hand, who uſually forms it on the core; though it may be wrought ſeparately, in cavities moulded on a model, and afterwards arranged on the ribs of iron, over the grate, filling the vacant ſpace in the middle with liquid plaiſter and brick-duſt, whereby the inner core is proportioned as the ſculptor carries on the wax.

When the wax, which is the intended thickneſs of the metal, is finiſhed, they fix ſmall waxen tubes perpendicularly to it, from top to bottom, to ſerve both as canals for the conveyance of the metal to all parts of the work, and as vent-holes, to give paſſage to the air, which would otherwiſe occaſion great diſorder, when the hot metal came to incompaſs it.

The work, brought thus far, muſt be covered with it's ſhell, which is a kind of cruſt laid over the wax, and which, being of a ſoft matter, eaſily receives the impreſſion of every part, which is afterwards communicated to the metal, upon it's taking the place of the wax between the ſhell and the mould.

The matter of this outer mould is varied according as different layers are applied. The firſt is generally a compoſition of clay and old white crucibles, well grounded and ſifted, and mixed up with water, to the conſiſtence of a colour fit for painting; accordingly they apply it with a pencil, laying it ſeven or eight times over, letting it dry between whiles. For the ſecond impreſſion they add horſe-dung, and naturally earth, to the former compoſition. The third impreſſion is only horſe-dung and earth. Laſtly, the ſhell is finiſhed, by laying on ſeveral more impreſſions of this laſt matter, made very thick with the hand.

The ſhell thus finiſhed, is ſecured by ſeveral iron girts, bound round it, at about half a foot's diſtance from each other, and faſtened at bottom to the grate under the ſtatue, and at top to a circle of iron, where they all terminate.

If the ſtatue be ſo big that it would not be eaſy to move the moulds with ſafety, they muſt be wrought on the ſpot, where it is to be caſt. This is performed two ways: in the firſt, a ſquare hole is dug under ground, much bigger than the mould to be made therein, and it's inſide lined with walls of free-ſtone, or brick. At the bottom is made a hole, of the ſame materials, with a kind of furnace, having it's aperture outwards. In this is a fire to be lighted, to dry the mould, and afterwards melt the wax. Over this furnace is placed the grate, and on this the mould, &c. framed as above. Laſtly, at one of the edges of the ſquare pit is made another large furnace, to melt the metal. In the other way, it is ſufficient to work the mould above ground, but with the like precaution of a furnace, and grate underneath. When finiſhed, four walls are to be run up around it, and, by the ſide thereof, a maſſive made for a melting-furnace. For the reſt, the method is the ſame in both.

The mould being finiſhed and incloſed, as deſcribed, whether under ground or above it, a moderate fire is lighted in the furnace under it, and the whole covered with planks, that the wax may melt gently down, and run out at pipes contrived for that purpoſe, at the foot of the mould, which are afterwards exactly cloſed with earth, ſo ſoon as the wax is carried off. This done, the hole is filled up with bricks, thrown in at random, and the fire in the furnace augmented, till ſuch time as both the bricks and mould become red-hot. After this, the fire being extinguiſhed, and every thing cold again, they take out the bricks, and fill up their place with earth, moiſtened, and a little beaten, to the top of the mould, in order to make it the more firm and ſteady.

Theſe preparatory meaſures being duly taken, there remains nothing but to melt the metal and run it into the mould.—This is the office of the furnace above deſcribed, which is commonly made in the form of an oven, with three apertures; one to put in the wood, another for a vent and a third to run the metal out at. From this laſt aperture, which is kept very cloſe while the metal is in fuſion, a ſmall tube is laid, whereby the melted metal is conveyed into a large earthen baſon over the mould, into the bottom of which all the big branches of the jets, or caſts, which are to convey the metal into all the parts of the mould are inſerted.

Theſe caſts, or jets, are all terminated with a kind of plugs, which are kept cloſe, that, upon opening the furnace, the braſs, which guſhes out with violence, may not enter any of them, 'till the baſon be full enough of matter to run into them all at once.—Upon which occaſion they pull out the plugs, which are long iron rods, with a head at one end capable of filling the whole diameter of each tube. The whole of the furnace is opened with a long piece of iron, fitted at the end of each pole, and the mould filled in an inſtant.—This completes the work with relation to the caſting part, the reſt being the ſculptor's or carver's buſineſs; who, taking the figure out of the mould and earth wherewith it is encompaſſed, ſaws off the jets with which it appears covered over, and repairs it with his chiſſels, gravers, puncheons, &c.

Of bell foundery.

Before we enter upon this branch, the reader is deſired to conſult what has been ſaid under the article BELLS. What has been ſhewn with reſpect to the caſting of ſtatues, holds, in proportion, with regard to the caſting of bells: what is particular in the latter follows.

1. The metal, it muſt be obſerved, is different for bells to what it is for ſtatues; there being no tin in the ſtatue-metal, but a fifth part, and ſometimes more, in the bell-metal.

2. The dimenſions of the core and the wax for bells, if a ring of bells eſpecially, are not left to chance; buſt muſt be meaſured on a ſcale, or diapaſon*, which gives the height, aperture, and thickneſs, neceſſary for the ſeveral tones required.

* Diapaſon, among muſical inſtrument-makers, is a kind of rule or ſcale, whereby they adjuſt the pipes of their organs, and cut the holes of their flutes, haut-bois, &c. in due proportion, for performing the tones, ſemi-tones, and concords, juſtly.—A ſquare being divided into eight equal parallellograms, the points wherein a diagonal interſects all theſe parallellograms, expreſs all the uſual intervals in muſic: and, on this principal it is, that the diapaſon is founded.—So the bell-founders have likewiſe a diapaſon, or ſcale, ſerving to regulate the ſize, thickneſs, weight, &c. of their bells.

It is on the wax that the ſeveral mouldings and other ornaments are formed, to be repreſented in relievo on the outſide of the bell.

The clapper, or tongue, is not properly a part of the bell, but is ſupplied from other hands. In Europe, it is uſually of iron, with a large knob at the end, and is ſuſpended in the middle of the bell. In China it is only a huge wooden mallet, ſtruck by force of arm againſt the bell: whence they can have but little of that conſonancy ſo much admired in ſome of our ſetts of bells. The Chineſe have an extraordinary way of increaſing the ſound of their bells, by leaving a hole under

under the cannon, which our bell-founders would reckon a defect.

The proportions of our bells differ very much from thoſe of the Chineſe. In ours, the modern proportions are to make the diameter fifteen times the thickneſs of the brim, and twelve times the height.

The buſineſs of bell-foundery is reducible to three particulars: 1. The proportion of a bell. 2. The forming of the mould. And 3. The melting of the metal.

There are two kinds of proportions, viz. the ſimple and the relative: the former are thoſe proportions only that are between the ſeveral parts of a bell to render it ſonorous. The relative proportions eſtabliſh a requiſite harmony between ſeveral bells.

The parts of a bell are the ſounding-bow, terminated by an inferior circle, which grows thinner and thinner. 2. The brim, or that part of the bell whereon the clapper ſtrikes, and which is thicker than the reſt. 3. The outward ſinking of the middle of the bell, or the point under which it grows wider to the brim. 4. The waiſt or furniture, or the part that grows wider and thicker quite to the brim. 5. The upper vaſe, or that part which is above the waiſt. 6. The paſſet or crown, which ſupports the ſtaple of the clapper within. 7. The bent and hallowed branches of metal uniteing with the cannons, to receive the iron keys, whereby the bell is hung up to the beam which is it's ſupport and counterpoiſe, when rung out.

The particulars neceſſary for making the mould of a bell are, 1. The earth; the moſt coheſive is the beſt, which ſhould be ground and well ſifted, to take away whatever might occaſion chinks. 2. Brick-ſtone, which is uſed for the mine, mould, or core, and for the furnace. 3. Horſe dung, hair, and hemp, mixed with the earth, to prevent crevices, and render the cement more binding. 4. The wax for inſcriptions, coats of arms, &c. 5. The tallow equally mixed with the wax, in order to put a ſlight lay of it upon the outer mould, before any letters are applied to it. 6. The coals to dry the mould.

For making the mould, they have a ſcaffold conſiſting of four boards, ranged upon treſſels. Upon this they carry the earth groſly diluted, to mix it with horſe dung, beating the whole with a large ſpatula.

The compaſſes of conſtruction is the chief inſtrument for making the mould; which conſiſts of two different legs, joined by a third piece. And laſt of all the founder's ſhelves, on which are the engravings of the letters, cartridges, coats of arms.

They firſt dig a hole of a ſufficient depth to contain the mould of the bell, together with the caſe or cannon under ground, and about ſix inches lower than the terreplain where the work is performed. The hole muſt be wide enough for a free paſſage between the mould and walls of the hole, or between one mould and another, when ſeveral bells are to be caſt.

At the center of the hole is a ſtake erected, that is ſtrongly faſtened in the ſolid ground. This ſupports an iron peg, on which the pivot of the ſecond branch of the compaſſes turns. The ſtake is encompaſſed with a ſolid brick work perfectly round, about half a foot high, and of the propoſed bell's diameter. This they call a mill-ſtone.

The parts of this mould are the core, the model of the bell, and the ſhell. When the ſurface of the core is formed, they raiſe the core; which is made of bricks, that are laid in courſes of equal height, upon a lay of plain earth. At the laying each brick, they bring near it the branch of the compaſſes on which the curve of the core is ſhaped, ſo as that there may remain between it and the curve the diſtance of a line, to be afterwards filled up with layers of cement. The work is continued to the top, only leaving an opening for the coals to bake the core. This work is covered with a layer of cement made of earth and horſe dung, on which they move the compaſſes of conſtruction, to make it of an even ſmoothneſs every-where.

The firſt layer being finiſhed, they put the fire to the core, by filling it half with coals, through an opening that is kept ſhut during the baking with a cake of earth that has been ſeparately baked. The firſt fire conſumes the ſtake, and is left in the core frequently an whole day. The firſt layer being thoroughly dry, they cover it with a ſecond, third, and fourth, each being ſmoothed by the board of the compaſſes, and thoroughly dried before they proceed to another. The core is judged to be well prepared, when the profile carries the freſh cement off, without leaving any upon the laſt dry layer. They likewiſe put tempered aſhes, ſmoothing them over the whole, by the circular motion of the compaſſes, in order to fill up the minuteſt chaſms, that no metal may run therein during the caſting.

The core being compleated, they take the compaſſes to pieces, with intent to cut off the thickneſs of the model, and the compaſſes are immediately put in their place to begin a ſecond piece of the mould.—It conſiſts of a mixture of earth and hair, applied with the hand on the core in ſeveral cakes that cloſe together. This work is finiſhed by ſeveral layers of a thinner cement of the ſame matter, ſmoothed by the compaſſes and thoroughly dried, before another is laid on The laſt layer of the model, is a mixture of wax and greaſe ſpread over the whole. After which are applied the inſcriptions, coats of arms, &c. beſmeared with a pencil dipped in a veſſel of wax on a chafing diſh; this is done for every letter. Before the ſhell is begun, the compaſſes are taken to pieces, to cut off all the wood that fills up the place of the thickneſs to be given the ſhell.

The firſt layer is of the ſame earth with the reſt, ſifted very fine. Whilſt it is tempering in water, it is mixed with cow's-hair to make it the better cohere. The whole, being a thin cullis, is gently poured upon the whole model, that fills exactly all the ſinuoſities of the figures, &c. This is repeated 'till the whole is two lines thick over the model. When this layer is thoroughly dried, they cover it with a ſecond of the ſame matter, but ſomething thicker. When this ſecond layer becomes of ſome conſiſtence, they apply the compaſſes again, and light a fire in the core, ſo as to melt off the wax of the inſcriptions, &c.

After this, they go on with the other layers of the ſhell, by means of the compaſſes. Here they add to the cow'-hair a quantity of hemp ſpread upon the layers, and afterwards ſmoothed by the board of the compaſſes.

The thickneſs of the ſhell comes four or five inches lower than the mill-ſtone, before obſerved, and ſurrounds it quite cloſe, which prevents the extravaſation of the metal. The wax ſhould be taken out before the melting of the metal.

The ear of the bell requires a ſeparate work, which is done during the drying of the ſeveral incruſtations of the cement. It has ſeven rings; the ſeventh is called the bridge, and unites the others, being a perpendicular ſupport to ſtrengthen the curves: it has an aperture at the top, to admit a large iron-peg bent at the bottom; and this is introduced into a couple of holes in the beam, faſtened with two ſtrong iron keys.

There are models made of the rings with maſſes of beaten earth, that are dried in the fire, in order to have the hollow of them. Theſe rings are gently preſſed upon a layer of earth and cow's-hair one half of it's depth, and then taken out, without breaking the mould. This operation is repeated 12 times for 12 half moulds, that 2 and 2 united may make the hollows of the ſix rings. The ſame they do for the hollow of the bridge, and bake them all to unite them together.

Upon the open place left for the coals to be put in, are placed the rings that conſtitute the ear. They firſt put in this open place the iron-ring to ſupport the clapper of the bell; then they make a round cake of clay, to fill up the diameter of the thickneſs of the core. This cake, after baking, is clapped upon the opening, and ſoldered with a thin mortar ſpread over it, which binds the cover cloſe to the core.

The hollow of the model is filled with an earth ſufficiently moiſt to mix on the place, which is ſtrewed at ſeveral times upon the cover of the core; and they bear it gently with a peſtile to a proper height, and a workman ſmooths the earth at top with a wooden trowel dipped in water.

Upon this cover, to be taken off afterwards, they aſſemble the hollows of the rings. When every thing is in it's proper place, they ſtrengthen the outſides of the hollows with mortar, in order to bind them with the bridge, and keep them ſteady at bottom, by means of a cake of the ſame mortar, which fills up the whole aperture of the ſhell. This they let dry, that it may be removed without breaking.

To make room for the metal, they pull off the hollows of the rings, through which the metal is to paſs, before it enters into the vacuity of the mould. The ſhell being unloaded of it's ear, they range under the mill-ſtone five or ſix pieces of wood about two feet long, and thick enough to reach almoſt the lower part of the ſhell. Between theſe and the mould they drive in wooden wedges with a mallet, to ſhake the ſhell off the model whereon it reſts, ſo as to be pulled up and got out of the pit.

When this and the wax are removed, they break the model and the layer of earth, through which the metal muſt run from the hollow of the rings between the ſhell and the core. They ſmoke the inſide of the ſhell by burning ſtraw under it, that helps to ſmooth the ſurface of the bell. Then they put the ſhell in it's place, ſo as to leave the ſame interval between that and the core, before the hollows of the rings or cap are put on again. They add two vents, that are united to the rings and to each other, by a maſs of baked cement.

After which they put on this maſs of the cap, the rings and vents over the ſhell, and ſolder it with thin cement, which is dried gradually, by covering it with burning coals. Then they fill up the pit with earth, beating it ſtrongly all the time round the mould.

The furnace has a place for the fire and another for the metal. The fire-place has a large chimney with a ſpacious aſh-hole.—The furnace which contains the metal is vaulted, whoſe bottom is made of earth rammed down, the reſt is built with brick. It has four apertures; the firſt through which the flame reverberates, the ſecond is cloſed with a ſtopple that is opened for the metal to run, the others are to ſeparate the droſs or ſcoria of the metal by wooden rakes. Through theſe laſt apertures paſſes the thick ſmoke.—The ground of the furnace is built ſloping, for the metal to run down.

Of the foundery of great guns and mortar-pieces of braſs.

The method of caſting theſe pieces of braſs ordnance, is little different from that of bells; they are run maſſy and without any core, being determined by the hollow of the ſhell, and they are bored with a ſteel trepan that is worked either by horſes or a water-mill.

As to the metal, it is ſomewhat different from that of ſtatues as well as bells; it having at the rate of ten pounds of tin to an hundred weight of copper. A cannon is always ſhaped a little conical, being thickeſt of metal at the breech, where the greateſt force of the gunpowder lies, and diminiſhing thence to the muzzle; ſo that, if the mouth be two inches thick of metal, the breech is ſix.—With reſpect to the length, that is meaſured in calibers, that is, in diameters of the muzzle. Six inches at the muzzle require twenty calibers, or ten feet in length; about one ſixth of an inch is allowed play for the ball.

The parts and proportions of a cannon about eleven feet long are, it's barrel, nine feet; its fulcrum fourteen, and it's axis ſeven; the bore, or diameter of the mouth, ſix inches, and two lines the play of the ball: the diameter of the ball therefore ſix inches, and it's weight 33 pounds $\frac{1}{3}$. The metal thick about the mouth 2 inches, and at the breech 6. It weighs about 5600 pounds; it's charge is from 18 to 20 pounds. It carries point blank 600 paces, and loads 10 times in an hour, ſometimes more. Larry makes braſs cannon the invention of J. Owen; and ſays, the firſt, known in England, were in 1535. He owns however, that cannon were known before; and obſerves, that at the battle of Creſſi in 1346, there were five pieces of cannon in the Engliſh army, which were the firſt that had been ſeen in France: Mezeray ſays, that king Edward ſtruck terror into the French army, by five or ſix pieces of cannon, it being the firſt time they had ſeen ſuch thundering machines. Cannon are made cylindrical, that the motion of the ball might not be retarded in it's paſſage; and that the powder, when on fire, might not ſlip between the ball and the ſurface of the cannon, which would hinder it's effect.

Wolfius would have the cannon always decreaſe towards the mouth or orifice: in regard, the force of the powder always decreaſes, in proportion to the ſpace through which it is expanded. The Spaniſh cannon have a cavity or chamber at the bottom of the barrel, which helps their effect. This ſort of cannon is found to recoil two or three paces after exploſion; which ſome account for from the air's ruſhing violently into the cavity, as ſoon as it is diſcharged of the ball: but the real cauſe is, the powder's acting equally on the breech of the cannon and the ball.—For battering-pieces, the proportion of their length to their diameter, depends rather on experience, than any reaſoning à priori; and has been accordingly various, in various times and places: the rule is, that the gun be of ſuch a length, as that the whole charge of powder be on fire, e're the ball quit the piece. If it be made too long, the quantity of air, to be driven out before the ball, will give too much reſiſtance to the impulſe; and, that impulſe ceaſing, the friction of the ball againſt the ſurface of the piece will take off ſome of it's motion. Formerly, cannon were made much larger than at preſent; till ſome by chance two feet and a half ſhorter than ordinary, taught them, that the ball moves with a greater impetus through leſs ſpace than a large.

The method of caſting iron-cannon differs very little from that of braſs. That the iron ore may melt the more eaſily, thoſe founders generally mixed it with a ſulphureous ſtone, that vitrifies a great deal of the groſs earth adhering to the native iron ore; but this very often occaſions the cannon not to ſtand proof; which might be eaſily prevented.

FRANCE, is ſeparated on the north from England by the Britiſh channel; on the north-eaſt it is contiguous to the Spaniſh Netherlands; on the eaſt it borders on Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Piedmont, from the laſt of which it is ſeparated by the Alps; on the ſouth it is bounded by the Mediterranean ſea, and by the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain; and on the weſt it is ſurrounded by the ocean.

The air is very temperate and wholſome, and not ſubject to the great cold of Germany, Sweden, and Muſcovy, nor to the exceſſive heats of Spain and Italy; but it is more or leſs hot or cold, according to the different ſituation of the ſeveral provinces.

The productions of Faance, as they are the ſubjects of trade, are,

I. Wines of { Champaigne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantz, and other places on the Loire. } II. The produce of the wines, { Brandy of Bourdeaux, Nants, and Rochelle, Vinegar, Lees of wine, &c.

III. Fruit, ſuch as prunes and prunelloes, dried grapes, pears and apples in Normandy, oranges and olives in Languedoc and Provence.

IV. Corn, ſalt, i.e. bay-ſalt, hemp, flax, ſilk, roſin, oil, cork.

V. Kid ſkins in abundance, perfumes, extracted oils, drugs, and chemical preparations, which are a produce rather than a manufacture, the growth being of their own.

VI. They have alſo minerals and metals of divers kinds, and are daily diſcovering others; and they are become great artiſts in the ſmelting and refining them, and perform thoſe operations to as great perfection as any other country.

The manufactures of France are,

I. Silks, as { Luteſtrings, Alamodes, Sarcenets, Broad flowered and brocaded ſilks, Velvets.

II. Woollen manufactures, in imitation of thoſe of England, which are chiefly carried on in Normandy, Poictou, Languedoc, Provence, Guienne, &c.

III. Linen, ſuch as Normandy canvas, ſail-cloth, at Vitry and other places; douliſſes at Morlaix, and fine linens and lace in the inland provinces.

IV. Paper of all ſorts.

V. Tapeſtry, which they make very rich and fine in Picardy and near Paris.

VI. Soap, which they chiefly make in Provence, and which is ſo conſiderable an article, that when their crop of oils fail, they fetch a prodigious quantity from the Levant, to ſupply the ſoap-makers*.

* The French have ſome years ſince obtained the ſecret from Spain of making Caſtille ſoap, as it is called; and have ſet up very large manufactures thereof both at Marſeilles and Toulon, and have thereby beat the Spaniards out of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit which France receives by this manufacture; for, as one of the chief ingredients of making this ſoap, is Levantine olive oil, together with the ingredients of ſoſa and barilla, their large vent for their ſoap gives them the advantage of conſtant back freights from the Levant, with theſe oils; which, it ſeems, has proved one great, if not the only means of the French advancing their Turky trade upon the ruins of our's; for, we having no ſuch manufacture of Caſtile ſoap, that will conſume ſuch quantities of Levant oil as the French, we can neither trade with the Turks ſo much to their advantage as the French do, nor ſo much to our own, as if our Turky traders had the like benefit by conſtant back freights.

France being extenſive in territory in Europe, and exceeding populous, they muſt neceſſarily drive a very great inland trade among themſelves: and, as they have many large navigable rivers, their home trade is carried on with great eaſe, and much leſs expence than is done in England.

Five rivers empty themſelves into the Seine, and this ſo near to Paris, that goods are brought thither from ſome of the remoteſt parts by theſe rivers. Theſe are the rivers Marn, Aiſne, Loign, Oyſe, Yonne. Beſides the canals of Orleans, and Briere, and by them from the Loire. Alſo up the Seine by Roan from the ſea.

So that, by means of theſe rivers, the traders of Paris can receive heavy goods from moſt of the northerly parts of France, alſo from Lorrain, Borgogne, Picardy, Normandy, and Bretagne, at very eaſy rates.

The Loire, without compariſon, the largeſt river in France, and the fartheſt navigable; and on which ſtand the largeſt and moſt capital cities of the kingdom, Paris excepted; conveys their wines down from all the wine-making provinces to Nantes, and, in return, furniſhes thoſe countries with all neceſſary goods for the merchants and traders of thoſe parts.

The Rhone, an inland river of a long courſe, takes in the Soan and the Douz from Burgundy, and the Durance from Dauphiné, and ſupplies all the province of Languedoc, as well as Burgundy, and the Swiſs cantons, with merchandize from all parts of the world, as we ſhall ſee preſently.

The Garonne does the ſame in Guienne, Gaſcoigne, Poictou, and French Navarre.

The home trade of France, which well deſerves our regard, is their coaſting trade by ſea, in order to bring the product of the ſouth parts of France to thoſe of the north, for the ſupply of the great city of Paris, and of all the northern provinces: and this, indeed, is a very conſiderable, as well as material part of their trade; and, next to the coal trade of England, is, perhaps, the greateſt article of its kind in Europe; and employs more ſhips and more people.

The principal ports for this commerce, are the cities of Bourdeaux aud Roan; but there are many other places which ſhare in the trade by the way, both in the out-loading, and in the returns.

The firſt ſhips are loaded at Bourdeaux with wines and fruits of all ſorts, as prunes, prunelloes, figs, and all the product of the ſouthern provinces; and there ſetting out in a fleet, and under convoy, in time of war, ſtop at St Martins, and the iſle of Rhee. Here they are joined by the ſhips from Rochelle, laden alſo with wines and fruits of all kinds, as well as with corn, which the adjacent country ſupplies. Hence they proceed to the coaſt of Bretagne, and anchoring at Belle-iſle, are joined by another fleet from Nantes, Sherrant, and St Malo, laden with white wines, brandy, and corn; though generally the ſhips from Nantes, &c. take care to be ready for the convoy, and to be at Bell-iſle before them.

Their

Their fleet thus gathered, and ſometimes, even during a war, they make up from 150 to 200 ſail, and they proceed to the mouth of the Seine; the ſhips deſigned for the trade of Paris put in at Havre, and taking the opportunity of winds and tides, make the beſt of their way up to Roan, while the reſt ſeparate for their reſpective ports, as Caen, Dieppe, St Valery, Bologne, Calais, Dunkirk, &c.

Theſe are the chief ports where they unload. The groſs of their loading is delivered in this manner; and from theſe places, the wines are diſperſed over all the northern provinces of France and the Netherlands; for, Dunkirk being a free port, all the merchandizes deſtined for Flanders, on board theſe coaſting veſſels, are diſperſed from Dunkirk by the canals and rivers, with which that country abounds.

Nor is this coaſting trade only thus conſiderable in one fleet, but is paſſing and repaſſing all the year, eſpecially in the autumn after the vintage.

Beſides this trade, which is thus carried on by ſea, the city of Paris receives, by the navigation of the canals of Orleans, and of Briarie, and by the navigation of the Upper Seine, a very extraordinary and conſtant ſupply of the wines and brandies produced in all the countries upon the river Loire, which are remarkable for lighter bodied wines, than thoſe of Bourdeaux; and which are very pleaſant, and in high eſteem at Paris.

By the ſame river the wines of Burgundy are brought to Paris, and all the great rivers which flow into the Seine, bring down the growth of their ſeveral provinces to that great city, and return with what other goods they may have occaſion for.

And as there is a great number of cities bordering on thoſe rivers, and many of them exceeding large, rich, and populous; ſo the communication of trade by theſe conveyances, and the returns made from Paris to theſe cities, muſt be very conſiderable.

It would be endleſs to enumerate the cities and towns, which ſupply Paris with their manufactures; (for which ſee the particular provinces, under their reſpective names) ſuch as fine linen from ſome provinces, coarſe from others; bone-lace from one province, fine druggets, &c. from another: theſe again circulating from Paris to the towns, cities, and provinces, where, other goods being made, the reſt are wanting.

Though the commerce of the royal city of Paris is mighty conſiderable, yet this capital city being no ſea-port, it is not the center of the trade of the whole country, as is the caſe of London, Amſterdam, &c. nor is it poſſible to be ſo, the extent of the country being ſo exceeding great.

Yet Paris being the moſt populous city in France, there being, as computed, near a million of people, and near half as many more in the adjacent towns, for 10 or 12 miles round it: this great confluence of people muſt neceſſarily cauſe a proportionable accumulation of proviſions and merchandizes, brought as well by the Seine, as by other rivers, from the remoteſt countries in France.

In conſequence of ſuch multitudes of people, it is ſcarce to be imagined, what numbers of boats and carriages, men, horſes, and other cattle, are employed in the ſingle article of bringing wood for firing to the city of Paris. This occaſions a vaſt conflux of trade, and a prodigious carriage by water from diſtant inland countries; and this, as well as their coaſting trade, is no inconſiderable nurſery to uſe people to live on the water, and ſoon fit them for ſailors. And as it is by their wines, brandies, and fewel, ſo it is by the innumerable throng of boats and barges, which come down or up continually to Paris, laden with corn for the ſupply of that great city.

And though there is no trade of malt in France, which makes ſo great an article in the corn trade in England, the French drinking little malt liquor throughout the kingdom; yet, as the French uſually eat more than double, if not treble the quantity of bread, in their ordinary way of diet, than the Engliſh do, ſo the quantity of wheat and barley * may riſe ſomething in proportion, and, perhaps, near equal to that of both wheat and malt in England, conſidering the number of people in both countries.

* Wheat and barley are mentioned here promiſcuouſly, the French making great part of their bread with a mixture of both, as in ſome parts of England they alſo do.

France being exceeding populous, as well as a far extended country, and the people univerſally eating much bread with all their food, the quantity of corn produced in France, in a plentiful year, muſt be extremely great, and then they ſupply Germany, Switzerland, Geneva, and ſeveral other parts with corn.

Yet, if either an extraordinary hot or wet ſummer happens, their crop is injured, and a ſcarcity enſues; and they are leſs able to ſupport the want of corn than other countries, and much more oppreſſed on ſuch occaſions than the Engliſh would be, who, having ſo plentiful a ſupply of fleſh, roots, and malt liquor, are able to live with the leaſt bread of any nation in Europe. In theſe times of ſcarcity in France, the greateſt quantity of corn brought to Paris comes up the Seine, being imported at Roan, and other ports not far from that river, from England or Holland; or elſe at Nantes, and brought up the Loire by the canals before-mentioned.

As France is certainly the moſt populous and largeſt kingdom in Europe, ſo it's inland traffic is proportionate, and, in many particulars, far beyond any country in Europe. The great cities, which hold any conſiderable inland correſpondence with Paris, are ſuch as theſe:

On the Seine: Chaſtillon, Troyes (manufactures of linen.), Montereau, Pont ſur Seine, Corbeil, Villeneuf, Paris, St. Denis, St. Germain, Poiſſy, Meulan, Mant, Pont de Larch, Rouen, Caudebec, Havre (great woollen manufactures ſet up here.)

On the Marne: Langreves, Joynville, St Denier, Vitrye, Chalons ſur Marne, Eſpernay, Caſtillon ſur Marne (here is a great product of corn for the city of Paris; alſo linen cloth made here in great quantities.), Chaſteau Thierry, La Ferte, Meaux, Lagny.

On the Aiſne: Attigny, Rhetel, Chaſteau Poſcien, Soiſſons, Rheims, on a ſmall river which runs into the Aiſne.

On the Loire, and near it, ſo as to have a navigation by the Loire: N. D. De Puy, Feures, Rouanne, Moulins, Nevers, La Charitie (great manufactures here of fine looking-glaſs, tin-ware, and earthen-ware as fine as Delft.), Sancerre, Bour, Pouily, Coſne, Chaſtillon ſur Loire, Sully, Jargeau, Orleans, Beaugency, Blois (ſilk manufactures here.), Tours, a fine manufacture of ſilk at this city. Saumur, Angers, Nantes, Le Mans (the beſt white wines in France at this city, and the country round it.), Poictiers, Bourges (manufacture of fine bone-lace, alſo paper in great quantity.), Rochelle.

On the Oyſe: La Capelle, Guiſe, La Fere, Chauny, Noyon, Campaign, Verberie, Beaumont, L'iſle Adam, Pontoyſe.

On the Yonne: Clamacy, Auxerre (a great thorough-fare city from Languedoc.), Loigny, Sens, Pont ſur Yonne, Mantereau faut Yonne.

On the canals of Briarie, and of Orleans: Briarie, Chaſtillon ſur Loing, Montargis, Nemours, Marette.

All theſe cities, and many more, have an immediate communication, by water, with the city of Paris, and many of them with the ſea.

The inland navigation of France, thus centering at Paris, for ſo great a part of France, neceſſarily cauſes a conflux, as well of people as of trade, in the capital city. Whether it was ſo contrived by the firſt founders of the city, or not, we can't ſay; but, if not, the chance of it is ſomething extraordinary; no city in the world being ſo happily ſituated for the univerſal commerce of the whole, and that in ſo extended a kingdom. For, what by ſea, and what by theſe rivers, the remoteſt part of France has a conveyance for their product to the capital city, upon eaſy terms: and there is ſcarce any ſuch thing as ſettled weekly or daily carriers for merchandizes by land, as is the caſe in England *, at a prodigious expence.

* Query.—Whether it would not be more for the benefit of trade, rather to promote navigable rivers throughout the kingdom, as much as poſſible, for the cheap carriage of merchandizes, than to turn our thoughts wholly, as it were, to turnpike road bills, for that purpoſe?

Two ports in particular ſerve for the reception of all ſuch goods, whether produced or made in the remoteſt parts of France, as may be brought to Paris by ſea, viz. Nantes, and Rouen. Hither the ſhips come from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, St Malo, and all the ports and iſlands of France, as well in the bay of Biſcay, as on the coaſt of Bretagne; as alſo from the ports of France in the Mediterranean (for we are now ſpeaking of the home trade of France only) and from all the navigating world.

By theſe water conveyances, Paris is made, as it were, a ſea-port; and there are many merchants, even in Paris, who carry on the foreign, as well as inland trade of that kingdom. But there is alſo another center of inland commerce in France, which has not an immediate communication with Paris by water, except by a very long circuit; and that is in the S. and S. E. parts of France: and the center of this trade may be placed at Lyons, For,

Lyons is ſeated, in ſome reſpects, in regard to commerce, like Paris: it is at near the ſame diſtance from the ſea, and upon as great, or rather greater river, though not ſo happily navigable as that part next the ſea, by reaſon of the violence of the current, and the weakneſs of the tides. As the navigation, however, reſpects inland commerce chiefly, it is happily ſupplied by the canal of Martigues, ſo that there is no want of larger ſhipping; and, for goods of foreign importation, they are conveyed by the ports of Marſeilles in Provence, and that of Cette in Languedoc, ſufficient for that part of the trade.

The confluence of the Soan aud the Rhoſne, which meet at Lyons, gives an advantage of inland navigation to that city, from a very great extent of the country round. The firſt receiving the river Doux from Burgundy, and even from the frontiers of Alſatia, commands all the trade of that part of France, till they come ſo near the Loire and the Seine, that a ſmall voiture by land makes a communication that way: and the manufactures of this part of France are conveyed, by either of theſe rivers, into the north parts of France, and to Paris itſelf. Nor on the weſt ſide is it above eight leagues, 'till meeting with the waters of the Lot, a navigable ſtream in the Gevandan, which runs into the Garonne, their goods are likewiſe conveyed to Bourdeaux by water, and from thence by ſea, not only to Paris, but to England, (when that trade was open) alſo to Holland, and moſt other parts of the world.

Next to the Soan and the Doux, which particularly maintain a trade with that part of Burgundy called the French-Comte, the navigation of the Rhoſne itſelf (which, as is deſcribed already, riſes in the mountains of St Goddart, in the fartheſt port of Switzerland, joining to the Griſons) brings to Lyons all the commerce of the city and lake of Geneva, and of all the adjacent cantons of the Swiſs; from whence there is a great and conſtant return of trade, eſpecially from the city of Geneva; who particularly manage the reſt of the trade from all the Swiſs cantons, and bring to Lyons abundance of manufactures, as well from Switzerland as from the Rhine, by the navigation of the Aar, and other rivers, by which they have a communication with the upper Alſace, Suabia, and other parts of Germany.

Alſo, by the Durance, a large river, and though very rapid, yet made uſeful for part of it's channel, the trade is ſupplied into Dauphiné and Provence, even to the mountains of Pignerol, and thence to the Po, and by that river into Piedmont and Italy.

It may be here obſerved, in regard to Lyons, that the diſtances from the river Soan and Rhoſne to the Loire, the Seine, and the Garonne, by which the communication is maintained with Bourdeaux, Nantes, Paris, and other parts of the kingdom of France, the trade of that city is not ſo difficult as it would otherwiſe be: and ſo again, Lyons receiving the Turky raw ſilk, and Italian thrown ſilk, &c. is likewiſe eaſy from Marſeilles to Avignon, where it is embarked on the Rhoſne, or from Marſeilles to Martigues.

This commodiouſneſs for inland commerce is exceeding beneficial to Lyons, and renders it a city of very great conſequence to the kingdom: for, as Paris is to the north of France, ſo is Lyons to all the ſouthern provinces, as Dauphine, Provence, all the Upper Languedoc, Burgundy, or the French Comte, Newfchatel, and alſo Geneva, Savoy, and the Swiſs cantons as above.

By the ſame inland navigation, the city of Lyons drives a very conſiderable trade in the woollen manufactures, made in Languedoc, about Niſmes, Beaucaire, and other places; and which are brought up the Rhoſne, at the proper ſeaſons, and ſold at the fair at Lyons. In like manner the wines of Burgundy, and of Champaigne alſo, are brought down the Soan and the Doux to Lyons, and ſent from thence to all the principal cities of Languedoc and Guienne.

We ſhall next conſider, how the kingdom of France is ſituated for foreign trade; and how extenſively ſhe carries the ſame on in Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America.

Of the coaſt of France in the Mediterranean ſea.

The French coaſt begins oppoſite to Perpignan, which is the firſt city on that ſide, under the French government; and the firſt port in France, on this ſide, though of no conſequence, is port Vendre.

PERPIGNAN, is a frontier of Rouſſillon by land, and of importance, in caſe of a war, againſt Spain: on which account the French have made it very ſtrong.

The ſea on the coaſt of Rouſſillon, and onward to Montpellier, is called the gulph of Narbonne. The city of NARBONNE is particularly famous for the finiſhing that great work of a navigation between the two ſeas, that is, the joining the Cantabrian and the Mediterranean ſeas together, by a canal. This great work was ſet on foot by the late Lewis XIV, a prince born for great undertakings. This work was 15 years in compleating, viz. from 1666 to 1681, and coſt an immenſe ſum. As they had the purſe of a prince to ſupply them, who ſpared no expence to finiſh whatever he undertook, all difficulties were ſurmounted; vallies were filled up, mountains and hills levelled, and the boats continue to paſs and repaſs with great eaſe, for the benefit of commerce.

Between the river Aude and the mouth of the Rhoſne, there lies, parallel with the ſea, a lake 30 miles long, and from 3 to 5 broad, extending from the river Eraut, and the city of Agde weſt, almoſt to the mouth of the Rhoſne eaſt. Agde is a ſmall city on the river Eraut. The port is ſmall; yet they have ſome ſhips, and they export wine and oil; and, within theſe 20 years, their trade has increaſed.

In the middle of this lake, there is an opening into the ſea, which makes a very good port, called CETTE. Here ſhips of burthen may come in: and, the royal canal being carried on from Narbonne to Agde, the merchandize, which is brought from Italy to be ſent by the canal to Bourdeaux, is generally landed at Cette; and thence carried, by the ſaid lake, to Agde, and put on board the barges for the canal.

Between Cette and Marſeilles, the great river Rhoſne empties itſelf into the ſea; of which we ſhall give a deſcription, after having viſited the port and city of MARSEILLES: which is the next port of conſequence to Narbonne, eaſt, about 50 leagues diſtance. The fame of this city for commerce is well known all over the world. It is, indeed, the only trading city of note in the South of France: the harbour is ſpacious and good, and receives the largeſt ſhips, though ſometimes the biggeſt are obliged to lighten their loading a little before they come in. It is a fine, large, populous, and rich city, and is rendered ſo particularly by its commerce; the whole Italian and Turky trade of France being carried on here.

Lewis XIV, as he well knew the importance of this city, ſo he took it into his particular favour, and gave ſuch directions for beautifying it, and for encouraging men of trade and buſineſs to reſort thither, that Marſeilles became quite a new city to what it had been. The key is ſaid to be one of the fineſt in the world, except that of Seville in Spain. The fortifications are ſo prodigiouſly ſtrong, that no others ſcarce equal them: by ſea nothing can hurt the city, and by land it would require 100,000 men to attack it in form. But, after it was viſited with a plague, 1723, this city ſuffered a great eclipſe, and it's commerce decayed, for near a twelvemonth, unſpeakably, not a ſhip being ſuffered to paſs or repaſs, nor would any nation admit them to come into their ports; ſo that the poor were left to ſtarve, and the ſailors periſhed miſerably at ſea: but it has ſurprizingly recovered itſelf, and daily advances in commerce.

The French trade to Turky and Ægypt, as alſo to the coaſt of Africa, and to all the iſlands of the arches, centers at Marſeilles. They have alſo a conſiderable trade to Venice, to Genoa, to Leghorn, to Naples, and Sicily; and they have conſuls at almoſt all the iſlands and ports in the Mediterranean [See the article CONSULS] Marſeilles being the only city of France for trading in thoſe ſeas, but above all for the Turky trade in general, wherein they, at preſent, exceed all other nations, and have ſurprizingly ſupplanted the Engliſh therein.

TOULON, a port town of Provence, ſituated on a bay of the Mediterranean ſea, 25 miles S. E. of Marſeilles. It has the moſt ſecure and capacious harbour of any port in France; here the largeſt ſhips of the royal navy of France are built, and ſtationed, and here vaſt magazines of all manner of naval ſtores and timber for ſhipping are repoſited. Here likewiſe are the fineſt docks and yards, for the fitting out and furniſhing

niſhing ſhips of war, in the whole world perhaps. In Toulon there are academies for the marine guards, where they are taught navigation; and there is a royal foundery for cannon and mortars, with all manner of utenſils for cannoneers and bombardeers. They had in the harbour of Toulon, when the confederates laid ſiege to it, in 1707, 16 firſt rate men of war, 8 ſecond rates, 24 third rates, and 6 fourth rates; all which the Engliſh had very probably taken, if the Germans had not detached 1500 men to Naples, which were intended to conſtitute part of the army to form that ſiege.

From hence to the coaſt of NICE, and the frontiers of the dominions of the duke of Savoy, France affords nothing conſiderable.

The iſles of HIERES lie off of the coaſt, under the weſt part of which there is a good road for the largeſt ſhips; and where the Engliſh fleet lay many months, anno 1744, and blocked up the French and Spaniſh Fleets in the harbour of Toulon; and, on their quitting that harbour, the combined fleets were engaged by admiral Matthews, before whom they fled to the coaſt of Spain, and would have been deſtroyed, if he had not been deſerted by one of the Engliſh admirals, and ſeveral of his captains: but, on the ſhore, no towns of note, or ports of trade, are found, 'till we come to the Antibes, on the eaſt ſide of which lies the city of ANTIBES, the laſt in France: It lies at the bottom of a ſmall gulph, but the harbour is not very good, nor is the trade conſiderable.

The river RHOSNE here ſeems to require our notice. It has it's fountain in the mountains of Switzerland, and in the very center of the Alps, in the higheſt parts, in the canton of Uſi, and on the weſt ſide of the great mountain of St Goddart, the largeſt in all the country, being a ſtage of mountains.

The Rhoſne begins to be navigable, for ſmall veſſels and barges, a little below Sion, and, 20 miles farther, enters the great lake near Chillon: It is the greateſt inland ſea, or lake, in this part of Europe,

GENEVA is the firſt city of note upon it. There is a great inland commerce here; for as it lies in the middle, between the cantons and the country of Piedmont, it is the center of trade between all thoſe countries and France.

There is no conſiderable town on the Rhoſne, from Geneva to Lyons. There are ſome forts on the frontiers, as at Pont Greſſin, and fort St Katherine. But as we are only deſcribing the courſe, commerce, and navigation of rivers, the other is not our buſineſs. Many rivers fall into the Rhoſne in this ſpace; but the only navigable ſtream is the Dain, which riſes in the Upper Burgogne, or French Comte, and brings ſome commerce with it, being able to carry boats up to Pont Dain, in the county of Breſſe, and falls into the Rhoſne at Gourdan.

LYONS, ſtands at the confluence of the Soane and the Rhoſne, in the point of land between them: and therefore, to bring the Rhoſne into it's perfect ſtate, we muſt conſider the Soan alſo, which is a very large river, and of a long courſe: it riſes on the frontiers of Champaigne and Burgundy; and, as the Rhoſne riſes in mount Goddart, among the ſources of ſo many other rivers, ſo the Soan riſes in the ſame country, and at a very little diſtance from, though not juſt in the ſame country, and at a very little diſtance from, though not juſt on the ſame hills with the Seine, the Marne, the Meuſe, and the Moſelle; and when joined with the Rhoſne, runs not a great way from the Loire alſo.

The SOAN, in it's courſe, paſſes through ſome of the moſt conſiderable cities of the eaſt parts of France, as particularly, Pont ſur Soan, Gray, Auſſone, St Jean de Loiſne, where it receives the Ouche from Dijon in Burgundy; Verdun, where it takes in the Doux from Dole and Benençon; Challons, Meſcon, Balle Ville, Ville Franche, Lyons.

At Lyons, there are three large ſtone bridges over the Soan, and one ſtately bridge over the Rhoſne, after the other is joined. This city is eſteemed the ſecond in France. It has innumerable advantages, by its ſituation, for people and commerce.

1. As it is on the great paſs, or high Road from France into Switzerland, into Lombardy, and into Italy. 2. As, by ſo many navigable rivers, it brings, as to a center, all the commerce of Burgundy, French Comte, Geneva, and the Swiſs cantons. 3. As, by the River Rhoſne, it maintains a communication with the ſea, by which it receives it's ſupply of ſilk, and exports again it's proper manufactures to all parts of the world. 4. As it has a very populous country round it, and at leaſt 200,000 people in it. 5. As, by this means, it carries on the greateſt, and once the moſt flouriſhing manufacture in France; and is the center of the like manufacture, in all the adjacent country, viz. Dauphine, Languedoc, Rovergne, Breſſe, Lyonnois, and Savoy.

In the city of Lyons, there are ſome things peculiar to it's commerce, and by which it is not a little aided, and which no other city in France poſſeſſes equal to this. As, 1. A bank. 2. A courſe of exchange. 3. A court-merchant.

Queen Anne's wars being extremely injurious to the commerce of France, it muſt neceſſarily affect the public credit of that nation, in the like degree; for public credit and commerce will not naturally proſper under tyrannical and arbitrary government, eſpecially when the tyrant is at war with his neighbours: at ſuch times every one, but eſpecially foreigners, will draw all their property out of banks.

The courſe of exchange, eſtabliſhed here, is as univerſal as that of Amſterdam, and affords extraordinary eaſe and convenience, with regard to the negociation of money, by bills, throughout Europe; which is of the laſt conſequence to the general commerce of this nation.

With regard to the COURT MERCHANT, it ſtill remains, and is an eſtabliſhment extremely wanted in many other parts of the world, to decide, amicably and ſummarily, all controverſies among traders, in reſpect to their traffic; which, without great injury to thoſe concerned, admit neither of delay or expence of tedious law-ſuits, and the formalities of the ordinary courts of juſtice: this court is very pertinently chriſtened THE TRIBUNAL OF COMMERCE. See the article MERCHANT, i. e. [COURT-MERCHANT.]

From Lyons, the Rhoſne paſſes to Vienne, the capital of Provence, part of Dauphiné. It ſtands at the influx of the ſmall river Gere. Here are ſome manufactures of paper, iron, and ſteel.

VALENCE, is the next city on the Rhoſne, which has no trade of ſignificancy. From hence the Rhoſne paſſes cloſe by the territory, and in view of the city of Orange, formerly the patrimony of the houſe of Naſſau, but unjuſtly and violently taken away by the French, under Lewis XIV.—From hence the Rhoſne paſſes on to AVIGNON, which is a very populous city, and enjoys a conſiderable trade, by the manufacture of ſilk, wherein the people are very profitably employed.

A little below this city, the Rhoſne is augmented by the river DURANCE, which brings with it all the waters of Dauphiné, and the north part of Provence.—The Durance running weſt, as the Po does eaſt, and taking in another, called Du ance alſo, they meet at Guilleſtre, and go together to Embrun, which is not a town of trade, but a mere frontier.

In paſſing towards the Rhoſne, the Durance almoſt ſees AIX, the capital of Provence, which, as it has no great commerce, I paſs on to the Rhoſne, that haſtens to the ſea, paſſing by between two oppoſite ſmall cities, called Terreſcon and Beaucaire; the firſt on the Languedoc ſide of the river, and the other on the ſide of Provence.

At BEAUCAIRE, on the Languedoc ſide, there is an extraordinary fair or mart held every year, about Michaelmas, which laſts eight days, being the greateſt in all the ſouth parts of France, and particularly for the vaſt quantity of ſilk ſold here, as well raw, which is the product of the country, within theſe 30 years, as alſo for thrown ſilk from Italy; and likewiſe for great quantities of woollen manufactures, made in the adjacent countries, and ſome foreign brought hither to be ſold.

Of the coaſt of France, from Dunkirk to St Malo's, and from thence to St Sebaſtian.

DUNKIRK, was once the moſt formidable place for ſtrength, and terrible to all Europe; but it's fortifications were deſtroyed by the treaty of Utrecht. Nothing ſupports this town at preſent, but it's being a free port, and the neighbourhood of the city of Liſle; which laſt being a rich and great city, and, for it's wealth and number of people, called Little Paris, has no other port but that of Dunkirk to carry on their trade at. [See the articles AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS and FLANDERS.]

As the treaty of Utrecht, made between England and France, obliged the latter to ruin this famous port, ſo the vigorous adhering to the conditions of the ſaid treaty obliged the French to diſcontinue their attempt, and even conſiderable progreſs, in forming a new port at Mardyke, between Dunkirk and Calais; and which, having a communication with Dunkirk, might have made them ſome amends for the loſs of the old pier-heads, which were deſtroyed; and Mardyke remains only a ſmall creek, with a large ſluice to carry off the waters of the flat country behind, being part of the province of Artois and the diſtrict of St Omer's, and is not navigable for veſſels of burthen.

CALAIS is the eaſtermoſt town of the antient kingdom of France. This was once a very conſiderable place, being long contended for between the two crowns of England and France; but the port, not being capable of receiving ſhips of burthen, has very little trade, unleſs in the ſmuggling way by ſmall craft.

BOULOGNE is a large town, and ſtands on the ſea-ſhore; but as the river is ſmall, it is no port of any conſequence. It lies in a large bay bearing it's own name. The channel is here 30 miles over, reckoning from about Romney in Kent to the bottom of the bay of Boulogne.

There are ſome merchants here, and it is particularly eminent for the manufacturing trade, but highly injurious to Great-Britain for one article of it, the bringing of Engliſh wool over from Romney-marſh in Kent; a trade, which the French find ſo much their account in, that they have long experienced it to be their intereſt to give great encouragement to the Engliſh ſmugglers; and all the vigilance of the government, which has been remarkably ſevere upon this occaſion

ſion during the preſent adminiſtration, has not been able to put a ſtop to it, though it is certainly very greatly checked within theſe few years.

As Romney-marſh is the place where it is ordinarily ſhipped off, ſo this town of Boulogne, and the coaſt all along the bay, from Boulogne to the mouth of the Soam, is the uſual place where it is brought on ſhore.

The river Soam is the principal river of the province of PICARDY; and running through ſeveral conſiderable cities and towns on the frontiers of this province, ſuch as Amiens, Monſtrevil, and Abbeville, empties itſelf in the Britiſh channel at St Vallery.

The ſmuggling wool trade from England hither, being carried on at the mouth of the Soam, and from thence to Dieppe, has occaſioned ſeveral conſiderable manufactories of WOOL to be erected in Picardy and Normandy, particularly at Amiens in the former, and at Rouen for the latter, in imitation of the Engliſh manufactures: nor have they the advantage of the Engliſh wool only, but it is obſervable that they have conſtantly many Engliſh workmen among them; eſpecially ſuch as we call in England maſter-manufacturers; and theſe being brought over from England by the influence of extraordinary rewards and encouragements, and having the Engliſh wool to work on, have brought the French to a proficiency in the woollen manufactory, that may in time prove the ruin of the like trade of this kingdom.

DIEPPE, is a fine town, 'tis the beſt for trade next to Dunkirk on this part of the French coaſt: they have in particular a conſiderable trade to Newfoundland, and to the French ſettlements in North America. Their ſhips often unlade at Havre in the Seine, for the convenience of ſending their cargoes up the river to Rouen and Paris. However, when they are unladen, they come with more eaſe into the haven of Dieppe to lay up, where they have water enough when they are in, and are laid ſafe. The ſeamen of Dieppe are accounted the beſt ſailors in France.

It is 17 leagues from Dieppe to the mouth of the head of the river Seine, which is a noble river, and of the longeſt courſe of any in France, except the Loire, and is navigable farther, paſſing through many, and the richeſt provinces in France: it riſes in the remoteſt part of Burgogne or Burgundy, and receives ſeveral very large and navigable rivers into it, as the Main, the Oyſe, the Eure, the Yonne, the Aubo, the Loyng, and divers others.

This river riſes in the mountains of Burgogne, near the city of Chanceaux; the river Tille riſing at South Seine, on the other ſide of the ſame ridge of hills, and running ſouth into the Soam, and thence into the Rhoſne. So that the rivers on one ſide this ridge of mountains run into the narrow ſeas, or Engliſh channel, and thoſe on the other ſide into the Mediterranean. Hence the Seine, taking its courſe north, paſſes through Chaſtillon ſur Seine, called ſo to diſtinguiſh it from two other cities of the ſame name; one ſur Main, and one ſur Loyng. From thence to Bar ſur Seine, as alſo diſtinguiſhed from Bar ſur Aube, a large town upon the Aube, about 12 miles eaſt from it, and thence to Troyes.

TROYES, is a large and populous city. All this part of the country is remarkable for the beſt wines in France, namely, Champaigne and Burgundy. But the city of Troyes is particularly inriched by the LINEN MANUFACTURE.

The SEINE is navigable here for barges of a middling ſize. About 20 miles north from Troyes, the Seine receives the river Aube; after which it's courſe turns to the weſt and north-weſt.—Hence the Seine, continuing it's courſe weſt, paſſes to Montereau faut Yonne.—This country is very populous, and they are employed in making of FINE LINEN, LACE, and divers other manufactures.

From hence it runs to Morett, where it receives the Loyng from the ſouth-weſt, which brings in the navigation of the canal de Briare, and the canal of Orleans, and joins the water of the Loire with thoſe of the Seine.—Hence the Seine runs to Melun, paſſing by the foreſt of Fontainbleau.—Here is a large trade by water to Paris for proviſions and all ſorts of other merchandize, which the merchants bring from Nantes, and import theſe by the ſea commerce.—Whence the Seine goes to Corbeil, a ſmall city, yet the Seine makes it a place of ſome trade; and being ſo near to Paris, it ſupplies it with fire-wood, corn, and poultry in abundance.

Here the Seine, enriched with theſe additions of water, paſſes through Paris itſelf, the glory of France, and capital of the whole kingdom; the greateſt city in Europe, London and Conſtantinople ſcarce excepted.—From Paris the Seine makes five ſuch long windings ſo near to each other, that no river in the world can ſhew the like.—In the laſt of theſe windings, the Seine takes in the united ſtreams of Aiſne and the Oyſe.—The latter of which is likewiſe a river of a long courſe, and which brings with it all the rivers of the north parts of France between the Maes and the Seine, and is at Point Oyſe near as great a river as the Seine.

Below Paris the Seine paſſes by St Cloud, St Germains en Lay, and Marly, all three royal palaces, and very magnificent. Meluan, Mante, Vernon, and Pont de l'Arch, are all populous towns upon the Seine. But the city of Rouen is the principal of them all, and is the ſea port of Paris.

The navigation of the Seine is joined with that of the Loire, by two large canals made by art at a great expence, the one called the canal of Orleans, the other that of Briare; by which a communication is made with all the chief cities upon the Loire, and with the metropolis, Paris, to the great benefit of the commerce of Paris in particular, as well as that of the whole country in general. By this navigation the wines of Bretagne and Burgundy, the brandies of Anjou and Poictou, the imports of Nantes and Rochelle, with all the manufactures of Saumur, Angers, Tours, Blois, Orleans, and other great towns and provinces on that ſide the country, are conveyed to Paris by water-carriages at an EASY EXPENCE.

Beſides the city of Paris, to which the navigation is eaſy, by reaſon of the tide running ſo great a part of the way, the famous city of Rouen lies on the northern bank of this river.

ROUEN, being the ſea-port to Paris, becomes of courſe a great, rich, and flouriſhing city. The trade of Rouen is extraordinary, as it lies midway between Paris and the ſea. It's trade conſiſts of divers branches, in reſpect both to it's foreign as well as home parts, eſpecially in the linen and woollen manufactures, and in the latter more eminently; which are here carried on with great induſtry and ſpirit, in imitation of the ENGLISH, and by the means of ENGLISH WOOL, which they obtain too eaſily from Dieppe and Havre, by the way of Romney-marſh, as before obſerved.

Rouen has alſo a great trade with Ireland, particularly for leather, butter, tallow, and other products of that country: they carry on beſides a great coaſting trade with Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, for the wines and brandies of that part of France, wherewith they ſupply the city of Paris, as alſo with olives, oil, prunes, raiſins, oranges, and lemons, which they bring from the ſouth parts of France, and they from Languedoc and from Spain.—Thus circumſtanced, this city is become very opulent by it's traffic only.

HAVRE DE GRACE, ſtands at the mouth of the Seine; it is ſaid to be the port of the city of Rouen, as Rouen is to the city of Paris, the merchants here laying up their ſhips, which are too large to go up ſo far in the river. There are a number of conſiderable merchants here, and eſpecially for the Newfoundland trade; and there is a conſtant communication and connection of commercial intereſts between Rouen and Paris.

Havre has alſo the moſt conſiderable ſhare in the FISHING TRADE, of any port in France; principally to the North Seas, and for the HERRING FISHERY, not only in the channel, but on the back of the ſands off YARMOUTH; and ſince the French king laid high duties on the Yarmouth fiſh, they have wonderfully improved in curing them, in the Yarmouth way, to our no little detriment.

CAEN, is the firſt port beyond the mouth of the Seine weſt: it is a ſmall port, but a pretty large city, and, having a communication with the Engliſh channel, does not want commerce, though not to the advantage of England.—The navigation of this coaſt, 'till you come to the iſland of Alderney, is ſafe and eaſy, afterwards there is need of good pilots. Alderney and Sark, Guernſey and Jerſey, being part of the dominions of Great-Britain, we ſhall not take notice of their trade under this article.

ST MALO, is a city of commerce, and inferior to none that France has in the ocean. The road for ſhipping, and the harbour, is ſafe and convenient, which, with the commodious ſituation, open to the Britiſh channel, make it a place of the beſt trade to France on this whole coaſt.

The merchants here, were, particularly in the wars of queen Anne, ſome of the richeſt in all France, they being deeply embarked in the South Sea trade at that time.—They had then ſome ſhips that returned with ſuch prodigious cargoes of bullion, that the like has not been known belonging to private merchants.—At this point of time, it has been ſaid, that ſome merchants there, were not worth leſs than a million ſterling.—They made abundance of prizes in the laſt war with England, which drew on our reſentment to little purpoſe; and this place will always prove a great grievance to us, on theſe unhappy occaſions.—It is at preſent a flouriſhing place of trade, eſpecially for the NEWFOUNDLAND FISHERY to MARTINICO, to QUEBECK, and, indeed, to moſt of the French colonies in America.

St Malo is ſituated at the bottom of a large bay, extending from Cape La Hogue to the Seven Iſles, after which the land falls away to Cape Uſhant.—Between theſe lies the town of MORLAIX, at the mouth of a river of the ſame name.—It is a large beautiful town, full of people and trade: the port is good, the channel deep, and ſhips of above 100 tons come up to the key. There are abundance of mercantile people here, who are the grand ſpring of trade. There are ſeveral conſiderable manufactures here, which enrich the place, eſpecially thoſe of linen and paper.—Of the firſt dowlas and buckrum are made in great quantities, as alſo canvas and ſail-cloth, and they are largely exported. The beſt printing paper in France is ſaid to be made here, eſpecially the demy and crown; as alſo writing poſt-paper, fine as the Genoa, yet not ſo thin, and finer than the Dutch, though not ſo thick.—This is no contemptible article in the French commerce to other nations. In fine, the increaſe of commerce here has greatly increaſed the wealth, the ſplendor, and happineſs

pineſs of the place, which are ever the invariable effects of it. Nothing remarkable to our purpoſe appears on this coaſt, from Norlaix till we come to Breſt, except St Paul de Leon, a ſmall city on the coaſt, between Treguier and Breſt; it has a good port, and ſome home trade.

BREST, is a place of conſequence upon this coaſt, being the largeſt and moſt capacious road and harbour that France is poſſeſſed of on the ocean.—When ſhips are here, it is the beſt defended, and ſafeſt harbour in France. Here the French fleets are oftentimes laid up, though the greateſt of their men of war generally go to Toulon.—Here are warehouſes and magazines to lay up naval ſtores for 100 ſail of ſhips of war of the line, and ſome of 80 and 90 guns have been built here. France, in the year 1690, had here a royal navy, equal, if not ſuperior, to all the naval power of England and Holland united, and which offered battle to them all, but they declined it: and may not France ſee thoſe days again?—The inlet of the ſea, which forms the harbour of Breſt, is very large, the waters every way deep, and the anchorage good; ſo that nature ſeems to have provided them againſt the time when the like powerful fleets may occupy them.

The next place of conſequence on this coaſt is the mouth of the river LOIRE, the greateſt in France for the length of it's courſe, the number of great cities it viſits by the way, and for the extent of it's commerce and navigation, as we have before briefly ſhewn. The Loire is navigable from the Lyonnois, and that ſide of Burgundy, to Nevers, and down to Briare, by large flat-bottom barges.—By this canal the glaſs-ware, tin-ware, and fine earthen-ware, for which manufactures the city of Nevers, and all the country about it, are ſo famous, are carried down to Paris, to the great advantage of the country.—By this canal the merchandizes of foreign countries imported at Nantes are alſo carried to Paris by water, to the great encouragement of the foreign trade, and inriching of the merchants at Nantes.—Alſo the wines and brandies of the country below Orleans, on the banks of the Loire, are carried to Paris the ſame way; and, indeed, the principal ſupply of that great city, as to wines and proviſions, comes from thoſe rich and fertile provinces on the banks of the Loire.

Towns of note on or near the Loire, below the canal of Orleans, and before it comes to Nantes, are Orleans, Blois, Amboiſe, Tours, Saumur, and Angers, all of them large cities: no country, except the Netherlands, can ſhew ſeven ſuch cities, on the bank of one river, under one ſovereign, and in ſo ſmall a compaſs of territory.—All this country produces what we call French white-wines, and the beſt of the kind; and, indeed, the beſt wines of all the weſt parts of France are in the country about Angers.

ROCHELLE is the next city of conſequence in France, upon the coaſt of the ocean, a conſiderable port of trade, though unfortified, for reaſons too well known.—This city was once the ſtrongeſt in the whole kingdom, and on account of it's opulence and ſplendor, for years the bulwark of the Haguenots. It ſupported their intereſt in the civil wars in France, during five kings reigns, and at length defended itſelf with almoſt incredible bravery and reſolution, againſt the whole power of France, the French king, Lewis XIII. beſieging them in perſon: nor had they been reduced at laſt, if we may credit hiſtory, had not the Dutch, though Proteſtants, and ſome Engliſh ſhips too, to the ignominy of our own country, been hired by the French to maſter the Rochellers fleet, and deprived them of aſſiſtance by ſea; whereas the Rochellers before were maſters of the ſea, and all the naval power of France was not able to match them.

But their fleet being beat, and the promiſed ſuccours of the Engliſh failing, cardinal Richlieu contrived a ſea-wall to be made, by an invincible induſtry, to block up their harbour; whereby being deprived of all relief, they were obliged to ſubmit, by the extremity of famine, 30,000 people having periſhed here, in the year 1628, for want of bread.—Upon which occaſion Rochelle not only loſt all it's privileges, and the Proteſtant religion was baniſhed the place, but it's fortifications demoliſhed, and the city erected into a Popiſh biſhopric.

Notwithſtanding which, it continues to be a place of conſiderable trade, full of wealthy merchants, whoſe commerce extends to moſt parts of the world, but eſpecially to the Weſt-Indies, Martinico, St Domingo, and Quebec: from hence alſo is a very great part of the Newfoundland trade carried on, and likewiſe that of their Miſſiſſippi.—The French Eaſt-India company too make uſe of Rochelle as a port, though not always, for the return of their ſhips from India, and for diſpoſing of their cargoes.

PORT-LEWIS is a harbour deſerving our notice, and, if it had ſtood on the north part of France, in Normandy or Picardy, would have been worth a kingdom itſelf; but, as it ſtands on the coaſt of Bretagne, to the South of Cape Uſhant, where France has many good harbours and ſafe roads for ſhipping, as well for war as commerce; ſuch as the harbours of Breſt, Rochelle, Nantes, Bourdeaux, &c. and the roads of Conqueſt, Belliſle, St Martin, and others; this makes Port-Lewis the leſs regarded: it is however, populous and rich, and has many wealthy merchants, eſpecially ſuch two trade pretty largely to the Weſt-Indies.—This, being a good harbour, is likewiſe a ſtation for part of the royal navy, and for the ſhips of the French Eaſt-India company.

NANTES, lying on the river Loire, requires mention. It ſtands 30 miles within the land, upon the north bank of the Loire, which is here a very ſpacious and noble river, has a deep and ſafe channel, and makes a fine harbour: it has a flouriſhing trade, both domeſtic and foreign, few towns in France outdoing it.—The trade of this city has greatly increaſed within theſe 30 years, as well from their manufactures as from the flux of all ſorts of merchandizes from the remoteſt inland provinces of France, and by means of the extraordinary induſtry of the inhabitants, and the navigation of the river Loire.—The great benefit of water-carriage between Nantes and Paris alſo, by means of the canal of Orleans joining the Loire and the Seine, as before intimated, is very ſenſibly experienced here; and all kinds of foreign merchandize imported here are carried at an eaſy expence to Paris, where the chief conſumption of the kingdom lies, to the unſpeakable profit of the merchants of this place.

But the great expertation of wines and brandies from hence are the capital conſtant articles upon which Nantes chiefly depends.—It is ſcarce credible to conceive how conſiderable this trade is, both of brandies and wines together; inſomuch that it has been ordinary to ſee 2 or 300 ſail of ſhips in the Loire at a time, taking in wines and brandies *.

* The name of the city of Nantes is well known over the whole Chriſtian world, for the famous edict of pacification, made by Henry IV. of France, for his Proteſtant ſubjects, anno 1598, by which their religious liberties were confirmed to them in the moſt ſolemn manner, the edict being ſigned by the king, regiſtered in all the parliaments of France, and declared in the ſtrongeſt and moſt expreſs words that could be invented, to be irrevocable, and was confirmed and ſolemnly ſworn to be obſerved by the ſon and ſucceſſor, Lewis XIII.—But, in contempt of God and man, and to the eternal infamy of Popery, and the very name and memory of the French grand monarch, Lewis XIV. it was diſowned, and revoked, by the command of that prince, in 1685, and the Proteſtants thereupon treated with ſuch cruelty and inhumanity, as is not in the power of language to expreſs.—Such, in particular, as the raviſhing children and women, in the preſence of their parents and huſbands, beſides innumerable other barbarities, as if ſtudied by the moſt refined undeſtandings, to pierce even the very ſouls of the ſufferers.—Is not this ſufficient to ſhew Proteſtants what they have to truſt to, if once Popery ſhould ever gain the aſcendant over theſe the happieſt of kingdoms, if we could but be truly ſenſible of our condition!

There is no port of any conſequence between Rochelle and the river Garonne, nor upon the Garonne, except Bourdeaux, which is 40 miles up that river.—This is an exceeding large and populous city, and is ſo ſpread by vineyards, as to be accounted not leſs than 20 miles long.—The tide flows quite up to the city of Bourdeaux, and brings ſhips of good burden to the very key. It ſtands on the ſouth of the river Garonne. The trade here is chiefly for wine, and that in ſuch prodigious quantities, that, when our trade with France was open, it has been ordinary to ſee 4 or 500 ſhips in the river at a time, loading wines for England only, and for other nations many more. Hence come the clarets and ſtrong white-wines of France, as that of Pontac, Graves, Frontiniac, Caveac, &c. being the names of the vineyards, or of the towns where the vineyards are, the wines taking their names from the towns, or from the perſons who own them.

Another branch of trade here is in prunes, which they export in great quantities.—They have a conſiderable traffic here to the Weſt-Indies, as particularly to the French ſugar-colonies in America, and they have many ſugar-bakers here to refine them, which has brought them a great trade for refined ſugars, both at home and abroad.—But they have ſtill a much greater trade than all this, the wine and brandy excepted: this conſiſts in goods brought from the Mediterranean Sea, by the royal canal from Narbonne to Toulouſe, and from thence down the Garonne in barges to Bourdeaux; by which, as the waters of the royal canal join the two ſeas, the ocean and the Mediterranean, ſo the commerce of both ſeas is carried on here, which makes Bourdeaux not only rich, but populous, and all the country round it. The key is noble and ſpacious, and ſhips of ordinary burden may come cloſe to it, the tide flowing a great height, up to the very wharfs. They have an exchange here for the merchants, ſome of whom almoſt from all the nations in Chriſtendom reſide here. They have alſo a great trading fair here, which is as conſiderable, and as much reſorted to by foreigners as any other in France. See the article FAIRS.

BAYONNE is the laſt conſiderable town in the French dominions. It is an antient, ſpacious, opulent, and populous city, has a great trade both in France and with Spain, and with many other parts of Europe. It has a very fine harbour in the mouth of the river Adour: the harbour reaches into the very heart of the city, and is ſo deep and ſafe, that the largeſt ſhips come up to the very merchants doors; and

the entrance into it is ſecured by a ſtrong caſtle, regularly fortified, Bayonne being a frontier both by land and ſea; for it is within 15 miles of the frontiers of Spain. There is a large trade driven here, and abundance of wealthy merchants reſide in this place. A great quantity of wine is exported here, and they have a trade as well into the whole province as into Navarre.

France, by ſituation, has the advantage of commerce of all the nations on this ſide the globe, Britain excepted. The great extent of their coaſt, we have ſeen, qualifies them for it; they are extended upon the ocean from Bayonne, in the bottom of the Bay of Biſcay to Dunkirk, a port that, leaving the Britiſh Channel behind it, looks into the German Ocean, and claims acquaintance with the northern commerce, as well as with the Weſer and the Elbe, the chief rivers of trade in the German Sea, and to the Baltic and the coaſt of Norway on one ſide, and North Britain on the other; and, laſtly, to the HERRING FISHERY in the Caledonian Ocean, and the WHALE FISHERY in the ſeas of Spitſbergen and Greenland.

The coaſt of France is above 400 miles in length, and there are in it, as we have ſeen, ſome as good harbours as any in Europe.

Add to this the Mediterranean Sea, lying full 60 leagues in length upon the ſhores of Rouſſillon, Languedoc, and Provence, which open to France the commerce of Barbary, Italy, and the Levant.

No leſs is France advantageouſly ſituated towards the land for an inland navigation and commerce with her neighbours of Swiſſerland, Upper and Lower Germany, Holland, and Flanders. The Rhine opens a trade for her on the ſide of Alſace, into Suabia and Franconia, and into the heart of the empire, by the additional navigation of the Neckar and the Maine, two rivers which convey her merchandize within a few miles of Ulm upon the Danube. By the laſt they trade into Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, and even to Vienna; on the other hand, the Rhoſne on the right, and the Upper Rhine on the left, give a communication of trade from Languedoc and the French Comte, into every part of Swiſſerland, as has been ſhewn.

On the north ſide of France, and through the country of Lorrain, France has the two great rivers of the Moſelle and the Maes, which give them a free commerce to the Lower Rhine, and into the United Provinces; as likewiſe the Sambre, the Scarpe, and the Schelde do into the Auſtrian Netherlands.—Add to all theſe, the extent of the kingdom of France, that it is the largeſt and the moſt populous of any country in the known world, except China.

To the prodigious number of their people muſt be joined the temper and genius of the nation: they are vigorous, active, induſtrious, and even (in trade as well as war) an enterprizing people.

So greatly have they increaſed their trade ſince the treaty of Utrecht, that they now carry their wines and their brandies into the Baltic, where formerly the Dutch ſent them in Holland bottoms; and the French bring their naval ſtores from Livonia, Pruſſia, and Peterſburg, in French ſhips, where, before that treaty, no French ſhips had ſcarce ever been ſeen. The Hanſe-Towns have little or no ſhare now in furniſhing France with iron and copper, with timber, with pitch, or tar.

The French alſo now trade with Sweden, as other nations do, and to Dantzic, and have greatly increaſed their commerce in Muſcovy, as well as their neighbours.

With all theſe advantages of ſituation, extent of land, and numbers of people, France has laboured, from the beginning of it's commerce, under two difficulties, which rendered it next to impoſſible to produce any conſiderable ſtaple manufactures, unleſs theſe difficulties could be effectually ſurmounted.—Theſe were the want of a competency of wool, and of ſilk, the two fundamental articles in the general manufactures of Europe, and ſuch too, which the French, from the activity and induſtry of their people, were well diſpoſed to fall into; but, wanting theſe fundamental natural productions in ample quantities, ſuffered the diſcouragement many years, with no little affliction; for they fell into the ſilk manufacture to a very great degree, encouraged by the Italians, when the French were maſters of the Milaneſe, in the reign of Francis I. and though they bought their ſilk in Italy and Turky, as they do ſtill in ſome quantities; yet all the ſouthern parts of France, eſpecially the Upper Languedoc, the Lyonnois, and part of Dauphiné, were employed in the manufacture of ſilk, and greatly improved in it, ſpreading it into Champaigne, and even to Paris itſelf. This was from about the year 1520.

But, at length, the French conquered this difficulty. By the means of ſome Piedmonteſe, who became ſubjects to France after the ſeizing of Pignerol, in the reign of Lewis XIII. they firſt began to plant the white mulberries in Languedoc, and part of Provence: and, nouriſhing the ſilk-worms with unſpeakable induſtry, and greatly encouraged by the court in the reign of the late Lewis XIV. they, after many years ſpent in the firſt experiments, at length brought the ſame to perfection, and produced the ſilk itſelf in good quantities, which is now become a natural produce of France, as it was before of Piedmont, and other parts of Italy, who originally borrowed it from the Aſiatics of Armenia and Georgia, as the French did from them, and as the Engliſh moſt certainly might from them both, and effectually eſtabliſh the ſame in our colonies on the continent of America. But it hath not proved the ſame in France with regard to the produce of wool, with reſpect both to the quantity and quality, being equal to thoſe of England and Ireland in general. The French, a vigilant and improving people, being deficient in the article of wool, have obtained ſheep from England and Ireland, as they have wool, in order to try the poſſibility of raiſing wool, by the means of our ſheep, as good in quality, and as large in quantity in general, as our wool is; but hitherto they have been diſappointed, though it is ſaid that there is, at preſent, another grand attempt to accompliſh this deſign; and, if it is poſſible in nature, the French are determined to have as good wool, and as much of their own production, as ever England or Ireland have had: and no one can ſay what art and induſtry, ſupported by the royal purſe, cannot effect.

We are apt to flatter ourſelves with the impoſſibility hereof; yet we may one day find ourſelves miſtaken. The examples brought from our bull-dogs, hounds, and maſtiffs, all which are ſaid to alter their nature upon change of climate, ſuppoſing theſe things to be matter of fact, do not, perhaps, afford any thing concluſive with reſpect to the article of ſheep. We ſhall not, however, enter into the philoſophy of this matter; nor would it become Britons to be inſtrumental to let ſuch rivals into a ſecret of that kind, was it in their power. Certain it is, that France ſtill labours under the want of this eſſential production, to the degree that we have it. They have wool, indeed of their own growth in great quantities, ſince the ſucceſs of their woollen manufactories; and in ſome places, as with us, it is better than in others, as in the Upper Languedoc, Poictou, Guienne, and thoſe provinces lying towards Burgundy; but the beſt has been ſaid not to be qualified for near ſo eſtimable a manufacture as ours is in general, neither will it mix or work with the foreign wools ſo well, the ſtaple being too ſhort, and the wool itſelf weak, and not ſufficiently ſtrong to bear the ſeveral needful operations of combing, carding, ſpinning, and weaving, to that perfection which ours does: ſo that the manufactures, when made of the beſt of it, are thin, ſlight, and not of that ſubſtance, duration, and beauty, as thoſe made of the Engliſh and Iriſh wool are.

Yet this diſadvantage by nature hath not diſcouraged this nation from attempting the woollen manufactures in every branch; for, ſince they have not wool ſo good in general as ours, they have been long determined to have our Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and which, being properly mixed with their own, or properly worked by itſelf, they have had art enough to impoſe their woollen manufactures upon ſeveral other parts of Europe, even for Engliſh fabrication, as we ſhall ſee preſently.—This ſupplying France with Engliſh and Iriſh wool was firſt brought about by the indefatigable endeavours and profound policy of their great miniſter Colbert, to whom we owe that pernicious trade of owling, as it is called, or the running of wool from this kingdom into France.—After that diſtinguiſhed miniſter had found out the means of ſupplying France with Britiſh wool, he was not long before he eſtabliſhed woollen manufactories of divers kinds in France, facon d'Angleterre, or of the Engliſh method of fabrication.—He firſt ſet the poor to work all over France, in combing, ſpinning, weaving, dyeing of wool, and woollen goods. And what was ſoon the conſequence of this? The French king ſaw all his ſubjects cloathed, however indifferently, with the manufactures of their own country, who, but a few years before, bought their cloaths from England, or, which was worſe, at ſecond-hand from Flanders and the Dutch. This was carried on with ſuch a prodigy of ſucceſs, that it would take up more room than we can ſpare to duly repreſent it.—This commercial miniſter decoyed, by rewards and encouragements, Engliſh artiſts into every part of France, where it was moſt eligible to eſtabliſh theſe manufactures, where they taught the people ſo well all the ſeveral parts of the manufacture, and the French were ſo apt to learn, and ſo dexterous and chearful in teaching each other, that, in a few years, they could do without Engliſh inſtructors, even in the facon d'Angleterre.

The French being thus able to furniſh their own people, to cloath the nobility and gentry, nay, even the king himſelf (for he would wear nothing that was not the MANUFACTURE OF HIS OWN SUBJECTS) they not only, in a few years, excluded the Engliſh woollen manufactures from their country by a law, but began to turn their eyes abroad, and prepare to rival the Engliſh in all the foreign markets of Europe, as in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, as alſo in Aſia and Africa, but eſpecially in Turky and Barbary. To effectuate which,

The great Colbert took theſe meaſures: he firſt informed himſelf of the ſeveral ſorts of the Britiſh manufactures ſold in every foreign market, whereof he had pieces and patterns brought him; and he erected particular works for the making thoſe very goods; and, what was another maſter-ſtroke in politics, he wiſely encouraged the merchants to export them,

by cauſing credit to be given them out of the public ſtock, that is, by the king, even 'till the RETURN FOR THESE GOODS CAME HOME. This was particularly done with the Turky merchants at Marſeilles, who had credit out of the ROYAL TREASURY 'till the return of their ſhips from Smyrna and Scanderoon: by which politic encouragement the Marſeillians firſt ſupplanted the Engliſh in the Levant trade, wherein, we are too ſenſible, they have ſurprizingly increaſed ever ſince *.

* It is not unlikely that the French might take this maxim from the wiſe prince, Ferdinand I. great duke of Tuſcany, who raiſed the trade of his ſubjects to an incredible height by the like policy. That prince, not content with having his royal coffers full for his private uſe only, was ambitious that his treaſure ſhould be ſubſervient to fill thoſe of his ſubjects alſo. Mr Mun (a) a very ſkilful and eminent Engliſh merchant, tells us, he himſelf experienced the duke's liberality, who lent him no leſs than forty thouſand crowns gratis, although he knew he ſhould ſend the whole away, and that in ſpecie too, to Turky, to purchaſe merchandize; the duke being well aſſured, ſaid he, that, in the courſe of trade, that the ſame would return again, according to the Italian proverb, with a duck in the mouth. The judicious old gentleman further tells us, that, by this policy, the duke encouraged trade to ſuch a degree, that, of his own knowlege, Leghorn, which was a poor little town, became, even in his time, a fair and ſtrong city, being one of the moſt famous places of trade in all Chriſtendom. How it has improved ſince, from that foundation, need not be ſaid.

(a) Vide England's Benefit and Advantage by Foreign Trade, by Mr Mun.

The ſame was likewiſe done at the famous manufactory near Niſmes in Languedoc, where the cloths by means of the inſtructions of our Engliſh woollen manufacturers and our Engliſh wool, are made ſo admirably well, that ſome have thought they have equalled, if not outdone the Engliſh: but the contrary of this the beſt judges allow.—Certain it is, they make very good cloths there, and dye and dreſs them to perfection; but many ſay that they fail of the ſubſtance, the firmneſs, and weight of the Engliſh.

They have likewiſe imitated the Britiſh ſerges, ſays, bays, long ells, perpetuana's, their druggets and ſtuffs; and they have extremely leſſened the demand for theſe goods from us in Italy, Spain, and Portugal.

It is not much above 80 years ago ſince Lewis XIV. the French king, encouraged the making of cloth in large quantities in his dominions.—The firſt place he began at was Languedoc, where they made cloths of about 9 or 10 s. ſterling per Engliſh yard; ſince which, they have made them here from 10 s. to 14 s. per Engliſh yard; and that prince raiſed a conſiderable fund for the carrying on this trade here with vigour. This ſort of cloth is about ſeven quarters wide, like our Glouceſterſhire cloths: ſince which they have ſet up ſeveral more woollen manufactories here, where they make divers ſorts of ſtuffs and ſtockings.

Before, as well as ſince the French king begun thoſe fabrics in his dominions, we ſent large quantities of woollen goods to France; but, ſince the clandeſtine exportation of our wool hath been carried on ſo vigorouſly to that country, the French king has prohibited the importation of all ſorts of our woollen manufactures.—So extraordinarily are their woollen fabrics increaſed, that it is indubitably true, that they many years have, and daily do, greatly ſupplant us in the woollen manufactures at Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Turky, and ſeveral other places, and underſel us in moſt, if not all places, wherever they come with their woollen goods.--This they have begun and accompliſhed, all within about 80 years; and, if they continue to have our wool, and other foreign wools, ſo cheap as they have, in exchange for their brandies and wines, &c. and to go on with the like rapidity in thoſe manufactures, the fate of this, the moſt lucrative branch of commerce belonging to the crown of Great-Britain, muſt certainly be deplorable; eſpecially if we add to this melancholy conſideration, that the woollen manufactories of many other countries, are ſo improved and increaſed, by the means of foreign wools, and which manufactures are ſaid to be impoſed on foreign nations for Engliſh woollen goods. This is the reaſon why our real Engliſh woollen goods go off ſo ſlowly in Holland, &c. If this is become the caſe, within theſe few years, what muſt we expect to be the conſequence a few years hence? Will not other places, that continue to take off our woollen fabrics, be ſupplied from other nations? For the French play theſe tricks with regard to their woollen manufactures; they counterfeit the marks and ſeals of the Engliſh woollen manufacturers, and actually impoſe them upon foreigners for our make.

That we may have a more particular idea of the woollen manufactures of France, it may be more acceptable to enter a little more into particulars, for ſpeaking in general cannot carry that weight.

At ABBEVILLE, a large town in Picardy, about 90 miles north of Paris, and 15 eaſt of the Britiſh Channel, is a manufacture of fine broad cloths, which Lewis XIV. firſt eſtabliſhed; and which he did by advancing 40,000 livres to Mynheer Van Robais, a Dutchman.—The king alſo erected him a ſpacious and commodious place wherein to carry on this manufactory, and a fine houſe to live in, and granted him a patent for the ſole making of ſuperfine broad cloths in that part of France. And, as Mynheer was a Proteſtant, the French king granted him a further patent, renewable every 20 years, for the free exerciſe of the Proteſtant religion, for himſelf and family, and to all the people that did then, or ſhould hereafter, work in any branch of the woollen fabrics at this town, &c.—Alſo, that if any woman, who was a Roman Catholic, ſhould marry a Proteſtant that belonged to this manufactory, ſhe ſhould have it in her option to turn Proteſtant or not.—And, in order at once effectually to eſtabliſh this manufactory, the king himſelf wore ſome of the firſt cloth that was made, and ordered all his court to do the ſame.—All theſe privileges are maintained to this day inviolably, and the factory is now carried on by three partners, that are nephews to old Van Robais, who firſt eſtabliſhed it, and are of the ſame name.

There is made here, at Van Robais's manufactory, nothing but ſuperfine broad cloths, wherein, it is aſſerted, that they uſe uſe no wool but Spaniſh.—The place where they carry on this fabric is very ſpacious and convenient, is walled in, and lies cloſe by a navigable river, not far from St Valery, a ſmall ſea-port town.—They here carry on every branch of this ſuperfine manufacture, except the fulling of the cloth, and the ſpinning of the wool.

There are 108 broad looms, and about 600 men, women, and children, employed upon the ſpot, in picking of wool, winding, warping, weaving, ſhearing, rowing, dyeing, burling, ſcribbling, fine-drawing, preſſing, packing, &c.—All employed are governed with extreme decorum and regularity. They all come to work, and leave it, at the beat of a drum. If any workman gets fuddled, or commits any offence, he is ſuſpended his work by the foreman of the branch to which he belongs, during pleaſure, but not exceeding a month's time; for every branch of the buſineſs, it muſt be obſerved, is under the conduct of a diſtinct foreman, who ſo diſciplines the workmen as to make them excel in every branch of the whole; which is management worthy of notice.

One Cole, that went rrom London, was the firſt man that taught them to dye proper colours, to make mixtures of wool, as we do in England, to make into cloth.—This manufacture hath ſo inriched the Van Robais's family, that, upon public days, they appear in their coach and ſix horſes, with half a dozen ſplendid valets to attend them, as grandly as any of the peers in France.

Though there is no Engliſh wool uſed in this ſuperfine manufacture, if I am rightly informed, yet there is a large quantity uſed in the town of Abbeville; for this fabric, being crowned with ſuch great ſucceſs, induced other people to fall into the way of making other different ſorts of ſtuff, as paragons, ſerge royal, druggets, ſhalloons, cloth-ſerge, &c. which are chiefly made of Engliſh and Iriſh wool alone. There are not leſs than 1000 looms going in this town on paragons, beſides a great many more that are employed in the making of druggets, ſerge, cloth-ſerge, &c.—Thoſe goods are chiefly ſent to Spain, Portugal, and Italy, and MOST OF THEM ARE ABSOLUTELY SOLD FOR ENGLISH WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES, they being FACON D'ANGLETERRE. 'I 'HAVE BEEN TOLD (ſays an eminent Engliſh woollen 'manufacturer, who took a tour to France to ſee the 'progreſs of the woollen fabrics in that kingdom) BY A 'MANUFACTURER OF THE TOWN OF ABBEVILLE, 'THAT HE HATH KNOWN AN ENGLISH SHIP LIE 'IN ST VALERY ROAD (the port before-mentioned) 'WHILE THEY HAVE SENT A BOAT UP TO ABBE-'VILLE, WHICH IS NEAR FOUR LEAGUES, TO FETCH 'DOWN BALES OF WOOLLEN MANUFACTORIES, AND 'HAVE SHIPPED THEM ON BOARD THE ENGLISH 'VESSEL, AND CARRIED THEM TO FOREIGN MAR-'KETS FOR ENGLISH GOODS, THE BALES BEING 'MARKED AND NUMBERED, AS IF THEY WERE MARK-'ED IN ENGLAND, AND ARE SOLD AMONGST OUR 'ENGLISH GOODS *.'

* See a quarto pamphlet, intitled, Obſervations on the Britiſh Wool, and the manufacturing it in this kingdom; with remarks on the wool and woollen manfuctories of France, Flanders, and Holland, &c. Printed by H. Kent, and ſold by Simon Virtue in Swithin's-Alley, near the Royal Exchange, 1738. By a manufacturer of Northamptonſhire.

And it is very much to be feared, that this to common a caſe, and has been an artifice of many years ſtanding, to impoſe theſe French woollen manufactures, made FACON D'ANGLETERRE, upon foreign nations for Engliſh: and thoſe too which have not been ſo good in quality may have been complained of by foreigners, and highly prejudiced the reputation of our manufactures in that reſpect alſo.—Nor could a more ſuperlative trick be contrived than this, let it be taken in any light whatever, for the abſolute ruin of our woollen manufactures, and the eſtabliſhment of the French; and ſuch Engliſhmen or Britons who are either merchants or maſters of ſhips, that will be thus concerned in

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a conſpiracy of ſuch deſtructive conſequence to the whole woollen manufactory of this kingdom, deſerve the gallows more meritoriouſly than any criminal, perhaps, that was ever exalted to it. And if this, upon due inquiry, ſhould be found to be a very common practice, it may deſerve the conſideration of the great repreſentative of the nation.

'But if I had the favour to know one of theſe gentlemen, continues the honeſt manufacturer before quoted, and ſhould aſk why he thus buys French goods, and ſhips them with our goods to be carried to foreign markets, I know it will be given for anſwer, That they can buy paragons, druggets, &c. cheaper at Abbeville than in England, which I know to be true. And the reaſon that goods are to be bought cheaper in France than in England is, becauſe the labour is above one third cheaper there than in England, where the ſame ſorts of goods are made; for there the poor people work hard, and fare hard, as to their food and cloathing. There is another pretty large manufactory carried on in this town, by four partners, two Dutch and two Frenchmen; the Dutchmen's names are Schalone, whoſe father was Van Robais's firſt foreman, when he ſet up this fine fabric that I have given ſome account of, which was done in Lewis the XIVth's time; the old gentleman was alive in 1732, when I had a great deal of diſcourſe with him; and I remember one day, as I was talking with him, the Paris Gazette was brought in and read to the old man, and there was a paragraph in it, that the manufacturers of Great Britain had applied to parliament, to get an act to ſtop the running of wool to France, &c. Upon the old man's hearing that read, he ſaid that he had remembered that there had been petitions of that kind for more than fifty years; and ſaid, let them petition, and make what laws they will in England, if we can find French gold, I am ſure we ſhall have Engliſh and Iriſh wool enough.

'And it is my opinion, that thoſe merchants that buy theſe goods at Abbeville, and ſend them to the foreign markets with our woollen goods, would not ſtop at ſending them our wool, if it lay in their power, if they do not do it at this time: however, that I muſt leave to themſelves. This fabric of the Schalonees is carried on with good ſucceſs; the ſort of goods that they make are ſerge royals, druggets, and ſome few ſhalloons and cloth ſerge; theſe goods are made moſtly with Iriſh and Engliſh wool: they have ſeveral workſhops in the town; they carried me to one of the comb-ſhops, where there were ſeven or eight men at work upon ENGLISH and IRISH wool; I combed a combful of it myſelf: they alſo ſhewed me their ſtock of wool, yarn, worſted, and goods wrought up, which was very large; I believe there was at leaſt 10,000 l. ſtock, wrought and unwrought; I brought ſeveral of their patterns away with me, ſome ſerge and ſome druggets; the ſerge is the fineſt I ever ſaw: I ſhewed them to ſome of the beſt judges of ſerge in England, who declared that they had never ſeen any like them, for fineneſs and beauty, made in England. I told you before, that Van Robais had a patent for the ſole making of ſuperfine broad cloth, with other advantages beſides; one of which was, that no perſon in that place ſhall uſe, or occupy, any fulling-mill, that goeth either by wind or water. So that when this factory was ſet up by the Schalonees, they were obliged to have a mill to go with horſes, which they call a gigg-mill, and is one of the beſt contrivances that ever I ſaw for that purpoſe, for it fulls the goods to perfection.

'When I was at Abbeville laſt, which was a little above ſix months ago, I found that theſe four partners had advanced their trade; and Mr Daniel Schalone told me, that they had good then in Italy and Meſſina, but was obliged to take off the town mark before they ſent them abroad, and ſo ſhip them on board ſome Engliſh veſſel; this he ſaid they did, becauſe there was a large duty on French woollen goods in thoſe parts; but that they had applied to the cardinal de Fleury to get that taken off, which he promiſed that he would, and in a ſhort time procure them the liberty of ſending the French woollen goods to Italy, &c. duty free; for that there is now a large duty on the French woollen manufactory, even almoſt to a prohibition; and that they could not ſend any goods thither, but under the notion of ENGLISH MANUFACTORIES: but the Engliſh, being kind neighbours, do the French that piece of ſervice, to carry their goods for them to other markets, where the French cannot go themſelves: theſe are true Britons, to be ſure, and have a great value for their native country!.'

Such is the ſeeming honeſty and ſimplicity of this our woollen manufacturer's account, that I judge it moſt acceptable to continue his narrative in his own words:

'At the ſame time, continues he, I was at another merchant's houſe, where they were all hands at work, in packing woollen manufactories to be ſhipped on board an Engliſh ſhip that they expected every day to come into St Valery road; this the maſter told me, and I ſaw the goods they were a packing: there were a great many bales, and were marked with Engliſh marks and numbers. I alſo ſaw ſome Iriſh worſted at Mr Schalone's, that they had got to make ſhalloons with; I brought two ſkeins of it away along with me. The price of Engliſh and Iriſh combing wool, was about 10 d. Engliſh money a pound; and ſome that was deep and a long fine ſtaple, was 10 d. ½ per pound. Of late years they have got the way of making good hoſe at this town in frames, which they chiefly conſume amongſt themſelves: I do not doubt but, in a ſhort time, this branch of the manufactory will find the way to foreign markets, along with the other goods, if they continue to have our wool: as to the method they have in mixing and managing of our wool with their own wool, it is as follows: in the fineſt ſerge druggets, &c. they put none of their own country wool; but, in the ſecond ſort of goods, they mix one third of theirs, with two thirds of ours; and ſo in proportion, as they would have their goods coarſer or finer; for in ſome goods they mix two thirds of their own, with a third of our wool; for with their own wool alone, they can only make coarſe cloth, cloth ſerge, hats, hoſe, &c. for the poor people of their own country.

'I was told by a manufacturer of this town, that he had received advice, that there was forty or fifty thouſand weight of my country wool landed at Nantes, and that he was to have part of it. And as near as I could learn, there are about 300 wool-combers in this town, and a great deal of the wool, combed here, is ſent to Amiens, to be ſpun into ſmall yarn or worſted, it being the beſt place in this country for good ſpinning.

'AMIENS is in Picardy, and is a large city, about ten leagues from Abbeville; at this place are made a great many ſorts of ſilk and worſted ſtuffs, in imitation of Norwich crapes, bombazines, Spaniſh popplines; and ſeveral ſorts of flowered, ſpotted, ſtriped and plain ſtuffs, mixed with ſilk and worſted, &c. which are the principal ſorts of goods that are made in this city; thoſe goods are generally mixed with our wool, and their own wool together: but the fineſt ſort is made of all either Engliſh or Iriſh wool, mixed with ſilk, mohair, &c. They alſo comb our wool alone in this city, and have it ſpun into worſted yarn, &c. and ſend it to Tournay, Bruſſels, and other places, with which is made the fineſt of tapeſtries and ſilk ſtuffs. They have in this town ſome thouſands of looms employed in making the ſeveral ſorts of ſilk and worſted ſtuffs; and, when dreſſed and finiſhed, they are all ſent over to France, Flanders, and Holland; and ſome of them are ſent to Spain, Portugal, &c. As to labour, it is above one third cheaper in this town, than it is in Norwich, London, &c. where the ſame ſortment of goods is made; they make their goods full breadths, let them be half yard, half ell, three quarters, or yard wide: and alſo make them thicker than we do in England, which makes them in greater eſteem in the Low Countries, than the Engliſh goods, which makes this manufactory daily increaſe.

'At Mondidire in Picardy, about eight leagues from Amiens, within theſe two years, there is a factory ſet up by Monſ. Chavilian, the intendant of Picardy. In this factory they make ſhalloons and cloth ſerge: this being a new fabric, I ſhall not enlarge upon it; only obſerve, that, as the trade of the woollen manufactory increaſeth at one place, they extend it to another, by giving encouragement to thoſe that will engage in it. I know an Engliſhman that was offered 40,000 livres, as a ſtock to carry on the trade at this place, by the perſon that had the management of thoſe affairs, beſides all the privileges that the woollen manufacturers enjoy at Abbeville. By this you may ſee how zealous the French are to promote and ſupport the carrying on theſe new woollen fabrics in their own country, when at the ſame time they cannot carry on thoſe old ones, if they were not furniſhed with Iriſh and Engliſh wool: for the wool of this part of France is fit only to make coarſe cloth, cloth ſerge, druggets, hoſe, hats, &c. which will ſerve for the poor peaſants: but now they have our wool, they make goods fit for a prince's palace. Abbeville, Amiens, and Mondidire, being the principal towns in France, where the woollen manufactory for ſtuffs, ſtockings, &c. are carried on.

'I will now proceed in my journey through Flanders, &c. I ſhall begin at St Omer. St Omer is a large town, 20 miles from Dunkirk, and about the ſame diſtance from Calais, and is in the province of Artois. At this place there is a manufactory of cloth, druggets, duroys, ſagathies, ſhalloons, and ſtockings; the cloth factory is carried on by the town ſtock, and is increaſed, within ſeven years, double to what it was before. The maſter of this factory's name is Mr Robiare, who lately bought a large parcel of Iriſh wool of one Mr Obrien, an Iriſhman, that was landed at Dunkirk; one of his weavers, an Iriſhman, whoſe name is Richark Dally, gave me an account of the ſame. There are in this town 350 looms employed in the making ſeveral ſorts of theſe goods, beſides a great many ſtocking-frames; they make their hoſe very good, ſome are made of all our wool, and ſome are mixed with about half their own wool and half our wool; they ſell thoſe by the name of Engliſh

'hoſe. In the year 1735, I was at Newport in Flanders, 'and an Engliſh gentleman, wanting a pair of hoſe, got me 'to go along with him to a ſhop to buy them; and, when we 'came into the ſhop, they perceived that we were Engliſh-'men, and ſo ſhewed us ſome Engliſh hoſe, as they called 'them. I knowing by the make of them that they were not 'made in England, cauſed me aſk, Where thoſe hoſe 'were made? To which the ſhopkeeper replied, That they 'were made at St Omers, and that he would aſſure me, that 'they were made of all Engliſh wool; they were good hoſe, 'but were made heavier than we generally make them in 'England; but the clocks not quite ſo curious as ſome of 'our's are.

'At St Omers in the making of their duroys, ſagathies, 'druggets, and ſerges, they mix about one third of our 'wool, and two thirds of their own wool, and make their 'goods much ſtronger and heavier, than we do our goods of 'the ſame kind in England, which makes them much 'eſteemed in that country.

'In making their broad cloths, they make them fine, mid-'dling, and coarſe; the fine cloth is made all of Spaniſh 'wool; the ſecond is about half Engliſh and half their own 'country wool; and the coarſe is made of all their own 'wool, which laſt ſort is wore by the poor of the neighbour-'hood. Proviſion is very cheap at this town, and labour 'cheap in proportion. Wages is much the ſame price here, 'as at Abbeville; if any thing, it is a little cheaper in the 'ſpinning: they take the ſame methods to keep labour low, '&c. as they do at Liſle. I was in the factory which is 'carried on by the town-ſtock: it is in a large houſe, built 'for that purpoſe; there I ſaw Richard Dally, an Iriſhman, 'a weaving of broad cloth, and had a boy that was appren-'tice to him, that worked with him in the ſame loom: this 'the magiſtrates do allow to the journeymen, to encourage 'and promote the increaſe of the manufacturers.

'The next places to St Omer, where the woollen manu-'factory is carried on, is at St Paul and Fruge, which are 'about 20 miles from St Omer, in the province of Artois: 'thoſe two towns lie near one another, and are about ſeven 'or eight miles on the right-hand, as we paſs from St Omer 'to Aire, Bethune, &c. and ſo to Liſle. But, as thoſe peo-'ple of Fruge and St Paul are principally employed by the 'merchants of Liſle, in combing, ſpinning, doubling, and 'twiſting of worſted, and in making it fit for the weaver, 'and the ſtocking-maker, I ſhall ſay no more about them 'here, but proceed to Liſle.

'Liſle is a large well fortified town in French Flanders, and 'is at this time in the hands of the French king. At this 'town they make ſome broad and narrow cloth, and a few 'druggets: but the principal aſſortments of goods that are 'made here, are divers ſorts of ſtuffs and ſtockings, of which 'they make large quantities. There are near a thouſand 'looms employed in making of camblets, ſome Engliſh ell 'wide, and ſome three quarters of a yard wide, all made of 'Engliſh or Iriſh wool; and a much greater number with 'mixed wool, in making the ſame ſorts of goods. Beſides, 'there are a great many hundred looms at work in the mak-'ing of callimancoes, figured, ſtriped, and plain, and ſeve-'ral ſorts of worſted ſtuffs, as cambletees, ſattenets, prunel-'loes, plain, ſtriped, and ſpotted ſtuffs, &c. with ſome ſtuffs 'that are mixed with ſilk and mohair, &c. There are alſo a 'great many ſtockings and caps made here, both knit and 'weaved. This branch is much increaſed within a few 'years; for, about twelve years ago, there were not above 'ten or twelve frames in this town; and now there are near '200 at work, and one half of thoſe frames are employed 'in making hoſe, and caps, of all Engliſh and Iriſh wool, 'and are ſold in all the ſhops for ſuch. The other frames are 'employed in the making hoſe and caps, with about half 'their own wool, and half our wool. The firſt man that 'put them in the way to make fine hoſe, was one Abraham 'Thomas, that went from Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, to learn them 'this art. There are no Engliſhmen at work in this town 'now, and but one Iriſhman, whoſe name is Stockin, and 'is a ſtocking-maker: they comb a great deal of wool in this 'town, but ſend more to St Paul and Fruge, &c. which is 'near forty miles diſtance from Liſle; they ſend this wool 'in the rough, ſo have it combed, ſpun, doubled, and twiſted, 'and made fit for the weaver and ſtocking-maker. I have 'ſeen, at thoſe places, great quantities of worſted made fit 'and ready for the merchants of Liſle: thoſe merchants at 'Tourcoin alſo have a great deal of worſted ſpun, &c. 'Tourcoin is about twelve miles from Liſle, and is a very 'large town for combing and ſpinning: I have ſeen a per-'ſon of Tourcoin bring a ſample of combed wool, and of-'fered it to ſale to a ſtocking-maker of Liſle, by the name 'of Engliſh wool; I had the top of the wool in my hand: 'and, at the ſame time, one Madam Diſlobbes, that is a 'great manufacturer at Liſle, told me, That, in all the calli-'mancoes and camblets they make, ſhe uſed more or leſs 'Engliſh wool, and could not do without our wool; in ſome 'half, and in ſome two thirds of our wool. I ſaw ſeveral 'pieces, ſome ſcarlet, blue, and ſome white, which were for 'the Spaniſh and Portugal trade.

'The reaſon that the Liſle merchants ſend their wool to St 'Paul, Fruge, Tourcoin, &c. to be combed, ſpun, doubled, 'and twiſted, is, becauſe labour is cheaper at thoſe places 'than at Liſle: and, upon the whole, labour is cheaper here 'by 30 per cent. at leaſt, than it is in any part of England, 'where the ſame ſorts of goods are made: as London and 'Norwich for camblets, callimancoes, crapes, and ſilk and 'worſted ſtuffs, &c. and London, Leiceſter, Derby and 'Nottinghamſhire, for hoſe.

'The poor people live hard at thoſe places, their chief diet 'is bread, fruit, herbs, and roots, with a little dried fiſh: as 'for fleſh, they eat very little. The magiſtrates take care, 'that the farmers and foreſtallers of markets ſhall not ſell the 'corn at market to make bread dear, in order to pinch the 'poor manufacturers. In order to prevent this evil, the 'magiſtrates have built a ſtore-houſe in a convenient part of 'the town, ten ſtories high; in the upper rooms of it they 'lay wheat, rye, and barley; and in the cellars they lay 'wine, oil, and brandy: thoſe goods are bought up when 'they are cheap, and ſo ſoon as the markets are ſhort, and 'goods begin to riſe in the price, then the ſtorehouſe is 'opened for the poor, that they may buy what they have 'occaſion for, at the old market price. This ſtore-houſe 'was built ſince the woollen manufactory hath ſo increaſed 'in this town, in order to ſupport that fabric, which is a 'great encouragement to the manufacturers, and a means to 'keep labour low; all other things that are needful for the 'poor are alſo cheap in proportion, as candles, ſoap, oil, '&c.

'They have all the proper methods imaginable, to help 'their facturers; they allow their poor journeymen that 'work in their own houſes, to take apprentices; and none 'are taken above two or three years at moſt, and then the 'boys may work for others, if they pleaſe; and, if a boy 'has learned his trade well, his maſter that he worked 'for, will give him eighteen pence or two ſhillings a week; 'according to his merit he is paid; for that is the method at 'this place, to agree with them for weekly wages. I knew 'an Iriſh ſtocking-maker of this town took an apprentice of 'near 20 years old, who, before he had been ſix months at 'the trade, ſet up to make goods for himſelf; by this me-'thod, giving liberty to thoſe boys to have a right to the 'trade for one, two, or three years ſervice, they have al-'ways hands enough at their command to ſupply their fac-'tories; and this makes them that have a good place of 'work, take all the care imaginable to pleaſe their maſters, 'that they may keep in work. For it is at this town, as at 'Abbeville; no man will employ another man's ſervant, 'without a good recommendation from his former maſter. 'There are a great many camblets, callimancoes, ſtuffs, ſtock-'ings, &c. that are made within a few miles of this town, 'which are brought and ſold to the merchants, which are 'dyed, dreſſed, preſſed, and packed here; and then ſent to 'Spain, Portugal, and Italy: nay, in every town in France, 'Flanders, Holland, and in the German dominions, you 'will find Liſle ſtuffs, &c. they make all their goods full 'breadth, whether half-yard, three quarters yard, or yard 'and quarter wide, and fill them well with ſhoot and warp, 'which are heavier and thicker in proportion, than we make 'our goods of the ſame quality, which makes the foreigners 'eſteem them better than ours; there is hardly a day in the 'year, but you may ſee carriages bringing of wool or wool-'len goods, to and from this famous trading town of Liſle. 'The magiſtrates of this town, as a further encouragement 'to the woollen manufacturers, obtained a grant from the 'king of France, to prohibit the wear of India callicoes, or 'linens, cottons, &c. that were printed, painted, ſtained, 'or dyed: and a proclamation was iſſued out accordingly, 'to prevent the wearing or ſelling any of the above goods, 'or in any part of French Flanders. This proclamation 'was iſſued out May the 6th, 1736, and gave but three 'weeks time to the merchants and ſhopkeepers to vend their 'goods; and now there is none of thoſe goods to be ſeen in 'any of thoſe towns in all French Flanders, &c. This law 'was in France before, but did not extend to French Flan-'ders: and now is punctually kept and obſerved throughout 'the French king's dominions. I could wiſh, for the ſake 'of the woollen manufactory of this kingdom, that we had 'a law made, to prohibit the wear of thoſe ſorts of goods in 'Great-Britain and Ireland, and that as juſtly obſerved and 'kept: notwithſtanding this law in France that prohibits the 'wear of thoſe printed callicoes, &c. the king of France 'hath an India company in his country, but all that he looks 'over, to ſupport the woollen manufactory of his own ter-'ritories. I brought with me ſeveral patterns of their calli-'mancoes, camblets, ſtuffs, and ſtockings, which I have 'now by me.

'A few years ago, a merchant that lived in Goodman's-'fields, perſuaded one George Gwin to go to Liſle, to 'teach the French to caſt and cut the braſs-rolls, and 'make the other parts of an engine, to water harrateens and 'cheneys withal. And, when I heard of it, I went to Liſle 'to perſuade him to return to England, and not to teach the 'French that art; at firſt he ſeemed to comply, and told me

'he would return in a ſhort time: but, when I left him, they 'ſtill perſuaded him to ſtay; and ſometime after I applied 'to the board of trade, to have ſome iron that was caſt at 'the bank-ſide, Southwark, ſtopped from going abroad to 'Mr Gwin; and, although I attended a great many times at 'the board of trade and the cuſtom-houſe, I could not pre-'vent thoſe pieces of iron being ſent abroad. This iron was 'to help to make another engine, that was to be ſent to 'Toulon. I having had a great deal of trouble to get Gwin 'to England, and to ſtop, if poſſible, this caſt iron from 'going abroad, but all was unſucceſsful. Then I applied 'to a certain honourable gentleman to have him recalled, 'who was pleaſed to comply with my requeſt, and wrote 'over to my lord Waldegrave, which is the king of Great-'Britain's ambaſſador at Paris; who immediately ſent an 'order to Mr. George Gwin at Liſle, by the hands of Mr. 'W—s, the meſſenger, and the purport of this order was, 'that Gwin ſhould return immediately to Great-Britain, 'his native country, or he ſhould be declared an alien, &c. 'as the law in that caſe directs. Upon Gwin's receiving of 'this letter, he immediately returned to London, his old 'place of abode; ſo that the rolls that were deſigned for 'Toulon were never finiſhed, neither had the French learned 'how to caſt them, and cut the figures on the rolls, &c. But, 'ſince the Liſle merchants have had thoſe rolls, &c. finiſhed, 'they have made, dyed, and watered a great many cheyneys 'and harrateens, both to ſerve themſelves, and other coun-'tries that we had uſed to ſerve. But I do humbly hope, 'when this engine is worn out, no man from Great-Britain 'will go over to make them another.

'Tourcoin is a large country market-town, about three 'leagues from Liſle, and is in the hands of the French 'king, and ſo is called French Flanders. This town is 'well ſtored with the woollen manufactory, there being 'many thouſand hands employed in the combing, ſpin-'ning, &c. and the greater part of the wool that is wrought 'up here is either Iriſh or Engliſh; and great part of it is 'brought to this place by the way of Holland. I was at this 'town in October 1736, when I bought a ſample of worſted, 'which is ſome of the beſt ſpinning I ever ſaw in my life; 'I bought it by the name of Engliſh worſted, it being made 'of all our wool. The reaſon that whatſoever goods are ſold 'in thoſe parts for Engliſh goods, though made on the ſpot, 'is, becauſe the Engliſh manufacturers formerly had the cha-'racter of making the beſt of goods; and, would we keep 'our wool at home, we ſtill ſhould bear the bell away; for 'this worſted that is made and ſold here by the name of 'Engliſh worſted, bears a better price, by 40 French pence 'a pound, than any worſted they do or can make of their 'own country wool: 40 French pence is about 20 pence 'Engliſh. They ſend this fine Engliſh worſted, as they call 'it, to Paris, Liſle, Holland, Flanders, &c. I have been 'at this town, when the roads were very bad from this place 'to Courtray, where the waggons come from Ghent to meet 'the waggons from this place; but the roads were ſo bad 'that the carriages could not paſs croſs the country, to carry 'the yarn that was ſpun here to Courtray, and bring from 'thence wool, as their cuſtom is conſtantly every week: the 'people of this town were ſo careful of their maſters trade, 'becauſe the waggons from Courtray ſhould not go away 'empty, hired men, and put the yarn upon large wheel-bar-'rows, and had them drawn along a foot cauſeway, that is 'paved from Tourcoin to Minnin, which is about five or ſix 'miles diſtant, and is about as far diſtant from Courtray 'as Tourcoin; but, when they come to Minnin, it is the 'high road from Liſle to Courtray, and is always very good. 'I only mention this to ſhew, how very careful thoſe people 'are of our wool when they have got it, and how careleſs we 'are at home, or they never would have it from us.

'All the worſted that is carried this way belongs to the Hol-'landers, as I ſhall ſhew in it's proper place. I was told by 'the riding-general of the cuſtoms of this town, that there 'are 14 perſons in the town that make wool-combs; though 'I ſuppoſe they do not wholly depend upon that particular 'branch of buſineſs; if they did, there muſt be a vaſt num-'ber of wool-combers in that neighbourhood, for there are but 'two wool-comb makers in this great city of London. The 'common neceſſaries of life are very plentiful and cheap at 'this town, viz. ſoap, oil, candles, and charcoal; four very 'uſeful things in the woollen manufactory. Both combing 'and ſpinning is cheaper here than at Liſle, which is the 'reaſon that the Liſle merchants have ſo much of their 'fine work done here. A gentleman of this town told me, 'that the fine ſpinning is, by the Dutch, ſent to Spain, Italy, '&c. The next town in this neighbourhood that is of note 'is Roubaix.

'Roubaix is about four or five miles from Tourcoin; at this 'place they employ many hundreds of hands in the making of 'fine callimancoes, camlets, and other fine ſtuffs; the fineſt 'of thoſe goods is made all with either Engliſh or Iriſh wool; 'but they do make a greater number of goods with our wool 'and their own country wool mixed together; theſe goods 'that are made here are chiefly made for the Liſle merchants, 'labour being lower here than at Liſle, and about the ſame 'price as at Tourcoin; proviſions, and other neceſſaries, 'are about the ſame price. The next town is Lannoy, which 'is another manufacturing town for woollen goods.

'Lannoy is about four miles from Roubaix; at this place 'they make great numbers of callimancoes, camlets, ſilks, 'and worſted ſtuffs mixed, &c. The proviſions, and other 'uſeful neceſſaries for trade, are about the ſame price here 'as at Tourcoin; ſo is the labour. I have named only three 'towns in this neighbourhood, that are famous for the woollen 'manufactories; but, if I would go to ſmall places, I might 'name a hundred villages round the country that have the 'woollen manufactory in them, for combers, ſpinners, weavers, '&c. and are as plenty here as at any part of the Weſt of Eng-'land. But, before I leave this country, I muſt juſt obſerve, 'that, notwithſtanding labour is ſo low in thoſe parts, the poorer 'people all round the country are well cloathed, and all their 'families (I wiſh I could ſay ſo by the great manufacturing 'towns in England) but, ſhould I be ſo happy as to ſee the 'day that the owling of wool from Great-Britain and Ireland 'to foreign parts was ſtopped, then we ſhould have our hands 'full of work, and our poor artificers once more be well fed 'and cloathed; then we ſhould ſee our poor once more have 'chearful looks, and pray for thoſe that put their hands to 'this great and good work, which I hope will ſpeedily be 'accompliſhed. As to the governing and managing their 'work-folks, they at this place take the ſame method as at 'Liſle.'—Thus much the honeſt Northamptonſhire manu-facturer.

Remarks on this manufacturer's foregoing narrative.

Although what this zealous manufacturer has related may not be abſolutely true in every circumſtance of his narrative, yet we apprehend that no one can make any doubt but (1.) That the French do import into that kingdom large quantities of Engliſh and Iriſh wool. (2.) That they work this wool up into manufactures for home-conſumption, as well as for foreign markets. (3.) That the French have, from time to time, allured over many of our moſt ingenious workmen, who have excelled in divers branches of the manufacture. (4.) That, if the French have our native wool, and our work-men, they may certainly make as good woollen fabricks of every kind as we are able to do. (5.) That as the reputation of our woollen fabrics of every kind has been much longer eſta-bliſhed than that of the French, it is no way improbable but the French have imitated the Engliſh manufactures as near as poſſible in every circumſtance: and, therefore, there does not appear an improbability but the French have alſo made uſe of the expedient of counterfeiting the Engliſh marks, ſeals, &c. as well as the façon d'Angleterre, or Engliſh manner, make, or faſhion, in fabricating of our various ſpecies of woollen goods.—And, therefore, (6.) It is very natural to believe, that, in order to introduce their woollen fabrics of every ſort into thoſe foreign countries where the Engliſh had been long eſtabliſhed before them, they made uſe of the expedient of impoſing their woollen fabrics, made in France after the Eng-liſh manner, upon foreign countries for Engliſh foreign goods, and continue this practice to this day, by counterfeiting our ſeals and marks, the lengths and breadths of our goods, and the ſame method of package, &c. with every other circum-ſtance that may be the more effectually deceiving.—And (7.) to the end that this may remain undiſcovered, can any thing be a more natural diſguiſe than to ſend French woollen goods to foreign markets with ſome Engliſh woollen goods, made and packed after the ſame manner; and, at the ſame time, to export them in Engliſh bottoms, and, by the confederacy of Engliſh captains of ſhips with Engliſh merchants, and con-ſigned alſo to factors abroad, who are in the ſecret?

All this is ſo very plauſible, and ſuch meaſures are ſo likely for the French to fall into, in order to ſupplant the Engliſh in the woollen manufacture in foreign countries, that we may, without any difficulty or ſtrain of belief, credit the ſame as matter of Fact: and eſpecially ſo, when this Northamp-tonſhire manufacturer aſſerts the ſame to be true, with ſuch circumſtances of truth and credibility.

And, if this matter ſhould ever come to be thoroughly ſcru-tinized into by authority, and proper meaſures are taken to get to the truth, we are inclinable to believe it will be found to have been the conſtant practice of the French for many years, and one of THEIR GRAND STROKES OF COMMER-CIAL POLICY, to worm us out of the woollen manufactures of the whole world, if poſſible: and, if they can have Engliſh and Iriſh wool very cheap in exchange for their bran-dies and wines, &c. which our wool-ſmugglers run into our country; and, if their labour is conſiderably cheaper than ours, what hinders but France may inevitably ruin all our woollen manufactures?

This being an affair that ſo nearly and importantly concerns the kingdom, I am willing to flatter myſelf my readers, my truly Britiſh readers, will excuſe it, if I dwell ſomething longer upon the ſubject of the woollen manufactures of France.

We are told, and there is too much reaſon to believe it true, that France practiſes the ſame arts with reſpect to other of our manufactures, eſpecially that of our ſilk; which is likely to turn all our Spitalfields weavers a grazing, if ſome wiſe and effectual meaſures are not ſoon taken by the legiſlature to prevent ſo great an evil. It would prove, perhaps, the eaſieſt method to diſcharge the practice of wearing French ſilks in this nation, if they were firſt rendered unfaſhionable at court; and yet I have been informed that there is ſome difficulty made to diſcover French from Engliſh ſilks; for that ſome of our own people, who ought to be, and doubtleſs are the beſt judges, have been ſuſpected, upon good grounds, if I am not miſinformed, to determine FRENCH SILKS to have been made at SPITALFIELDS, on purpoſe to cover them, and prevent their ſeizure. Should this prove true, are not theſe people to be ſuſpected to be inſtrumental, to be the chief private encouragers of a practice that they pretend loudly to complain of? Ought not every poſſible meaſure to be taken to detect a practice ſo highly detrimental to the manufactures of this kingdom?

The manufactures eſtabliſhed in PARIS, and other parts of FRANCE.

The woollen manufactures of France are, cloth, ſerges, ratines, baracans, camlets, callimancoes, tammies, crapes, bays, perpetuana's, flannels, &c. frizes, anacoſtes, druggets, &c. all of wool, or of wool and thread mixed.

It is to Monſ. Colbert, ſuperintendant-general of arts and manufactures, that this kingdom is indebted for the firſt eſtabliſhment of theſe manufactures, which are now, ſays Monſ. Savary, become the moſt flouriſhing in Europe.

There have been many good regulations made concerning them, viz. in Auguſt 1669, Auguſt 1700, March and May 1701, &c. A royal manufactory is one eſtabliſhed by letters patents from the king.

Several have been famous for the eſtabliſhing of manufactures in France, particularly ſince Henry IV. Two eſpecially have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in this way: 1. Nicholas Cadeau, who founded and brought to perfection the manufactory at Sedan. 2. Joſeph Van Robais, who eſtabliſhed that of Abbeville, which has been long in high reputation. The former obtained, for himſelf and company, by letters patents, the ſole making, for 20 years, of black and coloured cloths, like thoſe of Holland.—Theſe patentees, and their children, born, and to be born, were ennobled and honoured with all titles, &c. of the nobles of France. The French king gave not only each of the three partners a penſion of 500 livres yearly, during their lives, but alſo aſſiſted them with a ſtock of 8000 livres a year, during the term of their patent. The ſucceſs of this new manufactory exceeded all expectation. The cloths of Sedan, and thoſe of Abbeville, are eſteemed the fineſt of their kind in France.

Sieur Cadeau's excluſive privilege was near expiring, when Mynheer Van Robais, a Dutch merchant, deſired to erect a new manufactory of fine cloths, after the faſhion of Spain and Holland, which he propoſed to do at Abbeville in Picardy. His patent commenced October 1669, the principal clauſes of which were: for 30 looms; for a requiſite number of fulling-mills, and 50 workmen to be brought from Holland, with paſſports for the ſame; exemption from all taxes, &c. for their looms, cloth, wool, &c. In ſhort, to facilitate the eſtabliſhment, the king gave him, as a free gift, 12,000 livres, and lent him 2000 livres for every loom he ſhould ſet up, during the three firſt years, without intereſt.

Van Robais having fulfilled his engagement, had his patent renewed to him and his eldeſt ſon, in 1681, for 15 years more, on condition that he ſhould ſet up 50 looms, inſtead of 30. In conſideration whereof, the king remitted to him 20,000 livres, of the 80,000 that had been lent to him, with the three firſt years of his former grant.

In the year 1698 a third patent was granted to Iſaac and Joſ. Van Robais, two brothers, ſons of the firſt undertaker, who had now ſet up 80 looms; which number, in 1708, was increaſed to above 100: when the ſaid Joſ. Van Robais, in partnerſhip with his brother Iſaac's widow, being deſirous to erect ſtill more buildings, in order to extend this flouriſhing eſtabliſhment, the like whereof, perhaps, was not to be found, obtained that ſame year a fourth grant, with further privileges, for 15 years to come. One of which privileges was, a permiſſion to all noblemen to enter into partnerſhip, without derogation to their titles and honour.

Of the ſeveral ſorts of woollen fabrics eſtabliſhed in France.

Cloths are made of different qualities, ſome fine, ſome middling, ſome coarſe; ſome dyed in wool, of different colours, that is, the wool of which has been dyed and mixed, before it was ſpun and worked in the loom. Others are made white, to be dyed ſcarlet, ble, or black, &c. Their breadths and lengths are different.

The fine cloths are of three qualities; the firſt is made of the fine wool of Segovia in Spain, without any mixture; the ſecond of Segovia wool, with that of Albarazin, ſecond Segovia, and wool of Soris; the third, of other middle ſorts of Spaniſh wool.

Many manufactories of this kingdom, particularly thoſe of Languedoc, Dauphiné, and Provence, afford quantities for the Levant, from Marſeilles. Theſe cloths, whoſe names, qualities, lengths, breadths, &c. are different from thoſe in the kingdom, have been the ſubject of many excellent laws to uphold their reputation.

The cloth called Londrins premieres, are to be made of wool, prime Segovia, both warp and woof. Londrins ſeconds, muſt have for the warp wool Soria, or wool of equal quality; for the woof, ſecond Segovia. Londres larges muſt be made of the beſt wool of Languedoc, Lower Dauphiné, Gandié, Rouſſillon, grand Albarazin, and others of like quality. Londres muſt be made of le fleuret de laine de Languedoc, low Dauphiné, Gandié, petit Albarazin, or others of like quality. Draps ſeizans, of wool of Languedoc, low Dauphiné, or Spaniſh wool, of like quality.

They ſhall not employ in the manufactory of Romantin other than the wools of Berry, Sologne, and wools of Spain, prime Segovia, prime Soria, and prime Segovian only, without employing other Spaniſh wools of an inferior quality, or the wools of Navarre or Barbary, or any other wool.

Auguſt 21, 1718. Rules are laid down for the making of cloth in the provinces of Burgogne, Breſſie, Bugey, Valromey, and Gex, viz. of whites and of different colours, at Dijon, Selonges, Sommieres, Auxois, Auxerre, Montbard Avalon, Saulien, Chatillon upon the Seine, Montcenis Louans, Les Chante de Macon, Cluny, and Paſay le Monial. Alſo for common cloths, called ſardis, that are made at Bourge en Breſſe, Pondeveaux, Montluel, and other places.

Beſides full cloths, there is a manufacture of ſtuffs of wool, which are commonly uſed for linings, viz. ſerges of Aumale, of Beauvais, and others; frizes, frizons, feltins, &c.

Druggets are ſtuffs of wool, or of wool and thread, ſometimes broad, but moſtly narrow. They are often called pinchina's, though not like what comes from Toulon, and Chalons in Champagne, of that name. Druggets are made at Le Lude, Amboiſe, Partenay, Niort, Rheims, Rouen, Darnatal, Verneuil in Perche, Troyes, Chaumont in Baſſigny, Langres, and Chalons in Champagne. There are alſo very fine druggets made, of a particular ſort, at Badrieux in Languedoc, and many adjacent villages, which are ſold in Germany.

The druggets of Lude are of wool intirely, both warp and woof. At Amboiſe are made of two ſorts, of wool intirely, the one called croiſes, the other not croiſes. Thoſe of Partenay are made ſome of wool only; others, the warp of thread, the woof of wool. Niort affords druggets, all of wool, ſome croiſes, others not, half-ell wide. The croiſes are the moſt eſteemed, being cloſe wrought and ſtrong. The druggets of Rheims are not croiſes, half-ell wide, commonly made of nothing but wool, prime Segovia, ſpun very fine, which gives them a ſuperiority to all the other druggets manufactured in France, which are generally made of the wool of the country, coarſe ſpun.

At Roan are made three ſorts of druggets, not croiſes: the one made of wool only, half-ell wide, &c. another called barluche, or breluche, the woof wool, the warp thread. The ſecond ſort of druggets comes very near in quality and price to thoſe of Verneuil in Perche. The laſt, commonly called eſpagnolettes, are intirely of wool, hairy on one ſide, and ſometimes on both, which makes them very warm. Theſe druggets eſpagnolettes are made of different qualities; one very fine, of Spaniſh wool only; others leſs fine, of Spaniſh wool mixed with the wool of the country; others of the wool of the country only, which are the coarſer, and of leſs value. They are made white, and dyed, after that, of different colours.

The druggets of Darnetal are like to thoſe of Roan in goodneſs, length and breadth.

Verneuil in Perche affords druggets half-ell wide, from 42 to 65 ells long, the warp thread, the woof wool of the country, very coarſe, and about 13 or 14 ſols the ell. They are generally conſumed at Beauſſe, the Orleanois, and country adjacent to Paris, for cloathing the peaſants. The druggets of Troyes are croiſes on one ſide, and not on the other; the woof is of wool, the warp of thread: they are much better than thoſe of Verneuil. At Chaumont in Baſſigny, and at Langres, are druggets like thoſe of Troyes.

At Chalons in Champagne are made druggets, all of wool. They are called eſpagnolettes, and their quality is very good. There are few, except druggets eſpagnolettes of Roan and Darnetal, and ſome druggets with thread, that are dyed in the piece; the others are dyed in the wool, i. e. the wool of which they are made is dyed of ſeveral colours, before carded, ſpun, and weaved.

Serge is a ſtuff of wool, manufactured after a certain manner. They have different names, given by the merchants, and other makers, to diſtinguiſh and render them more eſteemed. Their price is different, according to the different ſorts and qualities, and places where made, viz. ſerge de ſeigneur, ſerge à la reigne, ſerge imperial, &c. ſerge raze, ſerge à poil, ſerge drapée, or cloth ſerge, both ſides alike, and ſerge de

Berry, de Beauvais, de Mercy, de St Lo, d'Aumale, de Crevecœur, de Blicour, de Chartres, &c. façon de Londres, d'Arſcot, de Rome, de Segovie. All of theſe, which are made in France, are ſubject to certain regulations, by divers arrets, according to the places where they are made.

France owes the manufacture of ſerge after the faſhion of London to Lewis Bezuet and Nicholas de la Coudre, partners. Theſe two able manufacturers began the fabric at Aumale, a little city in Normandy, in conſequence of an excluſive patent, for 15 years, of the 12th of September, 1665, granted upon the report of Monſ. Colbert. It has ſince been tranſferred to Siegnelay, Gournay, Auxerre, Sedan, Abbeville, Beauvais, Boufflers, &c.—That of Siegnelay has always preſerved the preference, either becauſe they make uſe of better wool, or are better workmen, or becauſe the earth and water are more proper.

As to the manner of making ſerges façon de Londres: the beſt wool for that purpoſe is that of England, viz. the longeſt for the warp, and the ſhorteſt for the woof. But as it is not eaſy to procure thoſe ſorts of wool, becauſe they are prohibited, they have recourſe for the warp to the longeſt and fineſt wool of Berry; and, for the woof, to the prime and ſecond of Spain and Portugal.

Perpetuana's, a ſtuff like the ſerges of Sommiere, and are commonly made at Colcheſter and Exeter in England, and other places thereabouts. Theſe are chiefly deſtined to Spain and Italy, but moſt to Spain, where there is a great demand for them. Of late years they make ſome alſo at Montpelier, Niſmes, Caſtres, and other cities of Lower Languedoc, in IMITATION OF THE ENGLISH PERPETUANA'S. Some are alſo made at Beauvais, which are much eſteemed at Cadiz, where the French merchants ſend them, dyed of different colours. The merchants of Languedoc alſo ſend a quantity of them into Italy, under the name of imperial ſerge, that are a little finer than thoſe deſigned for Spain. The perpetuana's deſigned for the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies are commonly ſent in aſſortments of 40 pieces, viz. 15 green paroquet, 15 pieces blue, 5 muſc-colour, 5 black. There is one ſpecies of perpetuana's, LESS FINE, which is moſtly made in England, whence it is ſent into Spain, chiefly for the Indies, commonly to the value of 200,000 livres a year. Here let the reader obſerve, how the Frenchman depreciates the Engliſh perpetuana's, without cauſe, in order to recommend thoſe of his country to the Spaniards!

Say is a kind of ſerge, very light, all of wool, ſomething like the ſerge of Caen. Some of the religious uſe them for ſhirts, other for linings, and hangings for furniture. They make abundance of them at Hanſcotte, Ypres, and Turcoing, in Flanders. Thoſe of Hanſcotte and Ypres are about ell wide. Thoſe of Turcoing, which are very fine, and all of wool, only of Segovia or ENGLAND, are $\frac{7}{8}$ wide. There are alſo ſome made in Artois, with the wool of the country.

Bays, a woollen ſtuff, not croiſée, very looſe made, with the hair on one ſide, a kind of flannel, very coarſe. A quantity of theſe are made in England. They make a conſiderable number of them in Flanders, eſpecially at Tournay and Liſle, and Neuf Egliſes. Of late years, the French have manufactured ſome with ſucceſs, eſpecially at Beauvais, de Caſtres, Montpelier, and Niſmes. The demand for them is very great in Spain and Portugal, and Italy.

The French begin to ſend abundance of them, white, black, and of all other colours, as did the ENGLISH and FLEMINGS heretofore.—A kind off ſtuff of the ſame name, but cheaper, is alſo made at Alba, and thereabouts.

Reveches, flannel. FORMERLY, ALMOST ALL THOSE THAT WERE SEEN IN FRANCE CAME FROM ENGLAND; BUT, SINCE THEY HAVE BEEN IMITATED AT BEAUVAIS AND AMIENS, THE ENGLISH HAVE SENT FEW OR NONE.

Crape, made only with two marches, all of wool. There are crapes made in different places, as well in France as elſewhere. Their length and breadth are different, according to the places where they are made. Sieur Paignon, a woollen draper of Paris, firſt ſet up this manufacture about the year 1687. His ſon Nicholas has ſince been more ſucceſsful in his undertakings: to him we owe the fine black cloths of Sedan, that are as much eſteemed, IF NOT MORE, THAN THOSE OF LEYDEN IN HOLLAND. At Amiens are made white crapes, with a mixture of thread. In Languedoc, particularly at Caſtres, certain ſlight crapes. In Flanders, and above all, at Turcoing and Liſle, a quantity of light crapes are made, and of different colours, for the Spaniſh trade. There are crapes which they call d'Angleterre, or ENGLISH CRAPES, made of ſilk and wool, chiefly at Alençon, Angers, and Amiens.

Blankets of wool are made in the ſuburbs of St Martin, Paris. There is at Ferte Gautier a ſmall manufactory of ſerge.

COMPEIGNE furniſhes a quantity of ſtockings, &c. The cloths, camlets, and pluſhes, that are made at Margny, a village in that diſtrict, are eſteemed. Theſe manufactories are not very antient, but are well conducted. The cloths of Senlis formerly were in great repute; but the workmen having made them ſlighter, the buſineſs is loſt, and the inhabitants are reduced to waſh and prepare the wool for the workmen at Beauvais.

PICARDY produces wool. They have manufactories of wool, &c. Beſides 5 or 600 milliers of wool, produced there, the conſumption there is almoſt as great of other wool, from Germany, Holland, England, Spain, and other provinces of France. In the city of Amiens only, are made 129,800 pieces of woollen ſtuff. The camlet-makers uſe about 80 milliers, half thereof wool of the country, half foreign wool. Beſides theſe, there are ſealed there 50,000 pieces brought from neighbouring parts, which, for that reaſon, are called etoffes foreignes. The cities of Picardy, which have the greateſt trade for woollen manufacture, next to Amiens, are Beauvais and Abbeville.

In the ſerge manufactories at Amiens they make ſerges after the faſhion of Arcot, Crevecœur, ſerge Cordeliers, of many ſorts; ſerges after the faſhion of Chalons, white and mixed; ſerges de ſeigneur, quinquettes, or ſlight camlets; camlets after the faſhion of Liſle and Arras; barracans and tammies, of wool only, others of wool and ſilk, &c.

The woollen ſtuffs made at Beauvais are ratines of different ſorts, as wide, ſtrong, fine, and common; tammies; ſerge, both ſides alike, or after the faſhion of England, or Arcot, or thoſe that go under the name of common ſerge; bays, others, after the faſhion of ENGLAND.

The manufactures of Abbeville, not to mention the fine cloths made after the faſhion of Spain, England, and Holland, whereof mention has been made elſewhere, and ſerge de LONDRES, razes de St Lo, ratines of Holland, ſerge de Mouy, bouracanes, after the faſhion of Valenciennes, druggets, thread and wool, tiretaines, belingues, pinchina's, &c.

The other places in Picardy where woollen ſtuffs are made, are Tilley, Fienville, Naours, Beauchamps, Gravilliers, Feuquiers, Aumale, Anvoille, Glatigny, and Seules. In all theſe places are made only ſerges and tiretaines. Mouy gives it's name to a ſerge that is well eſteemed; and Crevecœour, to others that are not leſs eſteemed; Tricot, and eleven villages dependent upon it, give alſo it's name to a very ſtrong ſerge.

The beſt ſpun wool of Picardy is at Abbeville, where vaſt numbers are employed in ſpinning, and a great quantity of the fineſt wool is conſumed, as well of the growth of the country, as Spaniſh wool. Theſe laſt are chiefly uſed for making the fineſt caps; the others, in the manufacture of cloth and other goods, of the make of Paris, Elbeuf, and Rouen. The Dutch, in the time of peace, take off a great quantity of it.

We muſt remark, that at Amiens they employ only wool of their country, England, Holland, and Germany, but eſpecially that of the country and England. It is computed that the woollen manufacture of Amiens amounts to near 1,600,000 livres yearly. The principal manufactory of Abbeville is that of Monſieur Van Robais, as obſerved before.

In general, the ſtuffs made at Beauvais are wide ratines of five quarters, fine ditto ell wide, ſtrong ratines alſo ell wide; the warp, wool of France; the woof, of the middle ſort of Spaniſh wool. Common ratines, eſtamet de bures, ſerge both ſides alike, of wool of France; ſerge a poll, ell wide, the warp, French, the woof, Spaniſh wool. Fine ſerge, of Engliſh wool $\frac{2}{3}$ wide; after the faſhion of Fricot, of the beſt wool of France $\frac{2}{3}$ wide; eſpagnolets $\frac{2}{3}$ wide; the warp, fine French, the woof, Spaniſh wool; ſommieres, half ell, and half ell half quarter, of fine French wool; reveches after the faſhion of ENGLAND, ^{3} wide, of French wool; flannels after the faſhion of ENGLAND, ell $\frac{3}{4}$ wide; others half the breadth, all of French wool; common ſerge, half ell half quarter, of the wool of the country. In fine, common reveches, of different breadths, of the ſame wool as before.

The maſters that make the fineſt ſtuffs, and are therefore ſtiled the great company, are about ſeventy. Thoſe of the leſſer company, i. e. who work but common ſtuffs, are above a hundred. About 500 looms are employed in both together.

It is computed that the great company employs in their fabric 115,000 pounds of Spaniſh wool, 2000 pounds of Engliſh wool, 160,000 pounds of French wool; the leſſer company conſumes 185,000 pounds of the common wool of France, the product of which is a third part leſs than of the others. In the whole department of Beauvais, are employed to the amount of 745,000 pounds of French wool, and 115,000 pounds of Spaniſh wool, of which they make 68,000 pieces of ſtuff. They have about 40 fulling mills.

Wool grown in the province of Picardy, viz. at Amiens and thereabouts, 80 milliers; at Abbeville 2, St Quintin 100, Peronne 40, Neſte 40, neighbouring villages 2, Ham 40, La Ferte Guiſe 30, Vervine 60, Laon 30, Vely pres de Laon 40, Chauny 20, Noyon 20. Total 524 milliers.

Of the generality of CHAMPAIGNE and SOISSONS.

The paſturage is admirable, maintaining 16 or 17,000 ſheep, which afford three or four millions of pounds of wool.

It is almoſt incredible how much of the woollen manufacture there is in theſe two provinces. At Rheims, they make cloth after the faſhion of Berry, etamines, razes, cordeliers, ſerges,

ſerges, &c. At Rhetel, the ſame as at Rheims, beſides eſtamets and crapes.

At Chateau-Portien, at Mezieres, Donchery, Mouzon, Fiſmes, Sainte Manehould, Sommepy, Ville on Tartanois, Soiſſons, Chateau-Thierry, Charly, Orbaye, S. Martin Dublois, Bar ſur Aube, Ferre en Tartanois, Neuilly, and S. Fond, they make only ſerges, etamines, and deſeverſins. At Sedan, they make a quantity of cloth, very fine and very good, alſo a great number of cloth ſerges, and ſerges after the faſhion of LONDON. At Bouts, Pertes, and Joinville, villages near Rheims, they make only white etamines, which they ſell to Rheims. At Montcornet, ratines, reveches, cloth ſerge, and eſtametes. At Vervins, Fontaine, Plumiere, the like, alſo ſome common cloth. At Montmirel, Langres, St Juſt, Anglure, Sezanne, La Ferte Gouchier, and La Ferte Sous-Jouars, cloth ell wide, and above, to five quarters, all of Spaniſh wool only. In ſhort, at Brienne, Chalons, Vitry, Joinville, Chaumont, Dionville, they make ſerge razes, ſerge after the faſhion of LONDON, cloth ſerge, eſtametes, everſins, etamines after the faſhion of Rheims, and druggets; beſides, they make cloth at Chaumont. The wool, employed in theſe ſeveral manufactories, is partly foreign, partly French. The foreign is common Spaniſh wool, as de Caſtille, and les Segovianes, and the like. The French wool is de l'Auxois, de Berry, de Champaigne, du Soiſſonnois, and de Picardy. They reckon 1400 looms.

At Rethel, they uſe the wool of Champaigne, Picardy, and Soiſſonnois. The mixture, which the workmen make of common wool with fine, lowers conſiderably the price and quality of them.

The cloths made at Sedan, are ſome after the faſhion of Holland, ſome after the faſhion of England, and others after the faſhion of Spain. The wool they make uſe of in the one and the other, are wool de Segovie, Segovianes, Albarazines, des Soris, and other of the better ſorts.

The fabric of ſerges is alſo very conſiderable at Sedan. The wool they uſe is that of Berry, Ardennes, Champaigne, Brie, and common Spaniſh wool. They are ſold in Holland, Poland, Germany, and within the kingdom.

At Donchery is made wide ſerge, cloth ſerge, ſerge DE LONDRES; the wool is that of Berry, Champaigne, and Brie.

At Mauſon and Autrecott, cloth ſerges, ſerge DE LONDRES, &c. they are all made of wool of the country. In the manufactory of St Manehould they uſe only wool of the country, with which they make ſerge after the faſhion of Chalons, cloth ſerges, eſtamets, and frizes. At Siuppe, or Suippe, the manufactory is conſiderable. All the ſtuffs are made of wool of the country, i. e. everſines, cloth ſerge, ſerge razes, and frizes. At Ville en Tartanois, wide ſerges, cloth ſerges, all of wool of the country. Routz Perthes, and Sunville, are three villages near Rheims, where they make only white etamines of the wool of the country. At Monteomet, are made ſerges, ratines, eſtamets, reveches, cloth ſerges, on which they employ only the wool of the country. Vervins, Fontaine, and Plumiers, afford common cloths, and ſerges, of the wool of the country. At Neville St Front, are employed the wool of Brie, Champaigne, and Soiſſons, in making ſerges de Berry, and cloth ſerge wide. At Ferre en Tartanois, the manufacture is wide ſerge, cloth ſerge, and ſerge after the faſhion of Mouy, the wool of the country only. At Charly, they make wide ſerges, cloth ſerges, &c. all of the wool of the country. Theſe above are in the department of Rheims (thoſe that follow, are in the department of Troyes and Chalons) where they make near 84,000 pieces of ſtuff, employing for that purpoſe 740,000 pounds weight of wool of Champaigne, Brie, Soiſſons, and Bourgogne, beſides above 530,000 pounds of Spaniſh wool, and above 50,000 of that of Berry. They keep there 14 or 15,000 ſheep, which produce 3,000,000 7 or 800,000 pounds of wool.

At Chalons, they make a quantity of ſerge razes, ſerge of Rheims, eſtamines, everſines, cloth ſerges, of the faſhion of LONDON. Of theſe laſt, they make about 2500 pieces a year; of all the others, about 2000. The wools they make uſe of for the one and other, are ſome of Champaigne, Brie, Soiſſonnois, and Bourgogne, and ſome Spaniſh wool. There are 325 maſter clothiers. Beſides, there are 30 or 35 other looms for a munufactory, that ſome cloth merchants of Paris have got eſtabliſhed by letters patent. They make alſo, in that manufactory, ſerge after the faſhion of LONDON, ratines, pinchinas; and employ in the one and the other, according to their quality, wool, prime Segovia, fine Albaraſin, and other Spaniſh wool, with that of Berry, l'Auxois, Champaigne, and Brie. The product of this manufactory is in proportion as great as the others. They ſell them throughout the kingdom, at Liege, and in Italy. Liege takes off a great number, they being well liked there. At Vitry, are made ſerge, razes, ſerge after the faſhion of LONDON, cloth ſerges, druggets, and eſtamets. The wools they employ are thoſe of Champaigne, Brie, and l'Auxois. At Chaumont, are made a quantity of cloths, ſerges croiſſees, druggets; of the laſt one is of wool only, the other of wool and thread. They uſe only the wool of the country.

Of the trade for Spaniſh wool at BAYONNE.

It is to be obſerved, that the wools which the merchants of Bayonne have from Spain, have ſome of them different names from thoſe given in the dictionary, under the article of WOOLS, but in truth they are the ſame, under different appellations.

It is computed, that the import of wool at Bayonne amounts to 15,000 bales, of all qualities, viz. ſegovies, leoneſes, ſuperfines, common ſegovies, ſories, ſogoviennes, burguletes, ſories de caballeros, ſories molines, grand albarazines, des cuencas, des etremenas, belchittes, compos d'Arragon, fleuretons de Navarre, and all ſorts of lamb's wool, fine and common, ſurge, and waſhed.

Many of the merchants of Bayonne give orders to have part of the wools bought en ſurge, and to have them waſhed upon the ſpot on their own account. Others have them from the Spaniards who are flock-maſters, or from the merchants of that nation, who trade in it, and every year ſend or carry them to Bayonne, all waſhed, and ſell them there themſelves: ſo that the people of Bayonne have always their wools at the firſt hand, and can afford them cheaper than others. Beſides, the beſt conveniences for waſhing are nearer that city than any other, even nearer than to Bilboa. The wool that comes from Bayonne, is moſt profitable and beſt triaged of all that comes from Spain. The weight they make uſe of at Bayonne, is ſixteen ounces to the pound.

The price of wool is different, according to the difference of exchange. We ſhall ſet it here upon the foot of the price they ſold at in November 1724, when the piſtole was at 16 livres. Upon that foot, the ſegovies leoneſes (R.) * were worth 52 ſols the pound; (F.) 6 ſols leſs; the common ſegovies 48 ſols; the ſegoviennes 46 ſols, ſories ſegoviennes, les burgales, les cavalleros, 44—45; les ſories, 41—42, with the ſame diminution of 6 and 12 ſols; for the (F.) and (S.) other wools in proportion to their quality.

* Theſe three letters of the alphabet, R, F, S, are uſed, in France, to diſtinguiſh the three ſorts into which every parcel of Spaniſh wool is divided by ſorting, and therefore called triage.

They load commonly at Bayonne every year 30 or 40 veſſels, which carry 200 or 350 bales of fine wool to Roan and Nantes, and 8 or 10 veſſels to Holland: Languedoc alſo takes off much wool of ſories ſegoviennes, and common ſories, that are the moſt proper for Londrines ſeconds, which are beſt for the Levant trade.

Of the commerce of LIMOSIN, POICTOU, &c.

At St Jean de Angelis, they make cloths ell wide, and etamines: at Nerac, commonly 1900 pieces of cloth, and 1250 ſerges: at Angouleſme, ſerges and etamines: La Rouchefaucault, only ſerge: Limoge, reveches: Tulle, reveches, or petits razes: Brieve, reveches: St Leonard, ſtrong and coarſe cloths for ſoldiers and peaſants.

The ſtuffs made at Poitiers are camblets, etamines, ſerges, and crapes. At Chaſtelleraud, they make ſerges and etamines, in which they employ only wool of the country. At Luſignan, they make two ſorts of ſerges, razes, and cloth ſerge, both of wool of the country. At St Maixant, they make ſerge razes, which are eſteemed for their fineneſs, although they uſe but the wool of the country, for which they chuſe the fineſt; and of the reſt make reveches, and other coarſe goods. They make abundance of double caps and ſtockings with wool of the country, and of Limoges. The ſerge made at La Mothe St Geraye, for quality, fineneſs, and the wool employed there, are the ſame as at Maixant.

At Niort, they employ only the wools of the country; the ſeveral ſorts of ſtuffs, there made, are druggets of wool only, others of wool and thread, ſerge razes, etamines buretes, and coarſe cloth ſerges. At Fontenay le Comte, they make cloth yard wide, and etamines, both of wool of the country. At La Chateigneraye, are made cadiſſes, ſergettes, and cloth ſerge: this, with the wool of the country, the others with fleuretons de Navarre. At Cheuffois, the ſame as the former. At La Meillerœge, they make only tiretaines and narrow druggets. At Pouzanges the ſame. At St Memin the ſame.

At Breſvire, is one of the moſt conſiderable manufactories in the department of the inſpector of Poitiers. The ſtuffs made there, are tiretaines, of thread and wool, ſerge razes and cloth ſerges, all of wool of the country only. At Moncontan, the ſtuffs are tiretaines of different faſhions, of the refuſe of wool, from Nicort, Bourdeaux, Xointes, and Senſa. At St Pierre, the ſtuffs are cadiſſes, druggets, of fleureton de Navarre, and cloth ſerges ell wide, of the wool of the country. At Thouan, cloth ſerge, ſerge razes, and ſome etamines. The druggets made at Partenay are much eſteemed, and have a great vent; ſome are of wool only, others of thread and wool. Theſe laſt are made of wool of the country, the firſt only of Spaniſh wool. At Azais are made druggets, ſome called imperial, others common; the laſt of wool only, or wool and thread; the firſt of wool and ſilk: to make the imperial, they employ only the wool of Campo; for the common, wool of the country. At Vivouſne are made

made coarſe ſerge, and ſome reveches of a low price. Meſſe ſerge razes of the wool of the country. Cuiray, coarſe ſerges. Gencay, ſome ſerges, ſome reveches, both of wool of the country. Coulognes druggets, all of wool.

They grow, in the generality of Poictiers, about 250 milliers of wool, which they employ in the above-mentioned fabrics, and of ſtockings and hats. They conſume beſides a great quantity of Spaniſh wool, called wool de Campo, and fleuretons de Navarre; which they have by the way of Rochelle and de Nantes, to the amount of 2000 bales, every bale weighing 300 pounds. They make, in that generality, from 25 to 30,000 pieces of ſtuff every year.

Of the commerce of the generality of ORLEANS.

They make capes of Spaniſh wool, wool of Berry, and of the country, beſides ſtockings. Their manufactories in cloth and other woollen ſtuffs, employ not only the wool of the country, but alſo a good quantity of the wool of Berry, Beaſſe, Brie, Soulogne. The principal manufactories of cloth are, thoſe of St Genoux, Clamecy, Chatillon ſur Loing, and Montargris. There are many more, of ſerges and other woollens, viz. at Orleans, ſerge tremieres, ſerges with two eſtains, frocs, and baguettes. At Baugeney the ſame, and moreover, cloth ſerge. At Blois at Baugeney, alſo crapes. At Vendome, and at Pierre Fitte, eſtamates, and ſerges of ſeveral ſorts. White ſerges, called tourangelles, and white cloth ſerges, are made at Montoir, Salbry, Soueſme, Nouan le Fuzilier, Vouzon, Jergeau, Chatres, St Fargean and Bron. There is at St Aignan a fabric of cordats, or cloth for the capuchins. The manufacture at Chateaunef and Brinont, are cloth ſerges, baguettes, and tiretaines: at Gien, cloth tremiers, white and grey, white friſons and eſtamines. At Charite and Penthieres, cloth ſerges, and thoſe called felins. At Pangoin, Chaudan, Razoches, and Illiers, only ſerge of two eſtains. At Anthoin, different ſorts of grey and white etamines, of wool of the country, etamines of Spaniſh wool, called langres; etamines, muſc colour, of wool of the country; and other etamines, whereof the warp is of the wool of Maine; whence they have it ready ſpun, and the woof of Spaniſh wool, or fine wool of Berry.

Romarantin is the moſt conſiderable manufactory of the whole generality; they make above 5500 pieces every year, viz. white cloths five quarters wide, other cloths leſs wide, of the ſame colour, white ſerge, white grey, and grey and ſerge croiſſee, partly of the wool of Berry, partly of the country. They have alſo ſettled there a fabric of white cloths, half of Spaniſh wool, half of fine wool of Berry, which cloths are fit to be dyed ſcarlet. The manufacturers of Romorantin having been uſed to employ the wool of Navarre and Barbary, they are forbid to do it, by an arret of council, April 1706, and again by the intendant of the generality, July 1716.

They conſume in this generality 200 milliers of wool, for the moſt part of the country. They make 25,000 pieces of cloth, &c. Foreign pieces, to the amount of 14,000, are brought from neighbouring places and marked there.

Of the commerce of TOURAINE, ANJOU, MAINE, and PERCHE.

The commerce at Amboiſe for etamines and druggets made there is much eſteemed, and a good many hands are there employed in them. In Touraine, they make little elſe but etamines, ſerges, razes, and druggets. The principal places where they are made, are Chinon, Richlieu, Loudun, Loches, Beauclieu, St. Chriſtophle, St Pater, and Laval, for etamines and ſerges. At Beaumont, La Roue, and Roziers, beſides theſe two ſorts of ſtuffs, they make alſo razes and ſerge tremieres; and at Montreſor, Villeloin, and Orbigny, only ſerge half ell, of wool of the country.

The druggets and tiretaines of Amboiſe, are partly wool of Touraine, partly wool of Berry. At Beugnay, they uſe wool of Beauſſe, inſtead of that of Berry. At Chateau, Renault, Neuville, Pontpierre, Maray, Neufay, and Loiſant, the razes, ſerge tremieres, etamines, and druggets, are made of the ſame wool as at Beugnay. In the fabrics of Montrichard, which conſiſts only of druggets and white ſerge, they employ but wool of the country.

At Angers, they make etamines of different prices, and ſerge tremiers, both of the wool of the country. At Chateau, Gontiers, etamines, and druggets after the faſhion of Lude, ſerge croiſees. At La Fleche, etamines, ſerges, druggets of the wool of the country. At Montreuil Bellay, the ſame. At Beaufort and Durtal, ſerges, etamine, druggets, all of wool of the country.

They make etamines and ſerge tremieres at Mayette, Chateau de Loir, Ferte, Bernard, Beaumont le Vicomte, Mayenne, and Laval.

At Le Mans, are made double etamines and camblets, which are commonly dyed black, three parts of wool of the country, the reſt of Poictou. At Manjette, ſtrong ſerge tremieres. Chateau de Loir, ſerge tremieres, all of wool of the country. Ferte Bernard, all of wool, others of wool and ſilk, and druggets, thread and wool of the country.

At Bonneſtable, the fabric is conſiderable; they make etamines like thoſe of Mans, except that they are all of the wool of the country, and that in the others a third is wool of Poictou. At Beaumont le Vicomte, they make much the ſame as at Bonneſtable. At Mayenne, ſerges tremiers, and druggets with thread. At La Valle, etamines, ſerge tremieres, and druggets of thread and wool of the country.

In the whole generality of Tours, viz. the provinces of Touraine, Anjou, and Maine, are made about 18,000 pieces of ſtuff, and above 11,000 foreign pieces are marked there. The wool they employ in thoſe fabrics, are almoſt all of the wool of the country, which is commonly ſold for 60 to 75 livres the quintal.

At Nogent are made etamines.

Of the commerce of the generality of BERRY.

Sheep and wool are the chief commodities of this diſtrict. The wool is good enough, but they employ only the worſt themſelves, the beſt and fineſt being bought up by the merchants at Roan; which is the reaſon why the manufacturers of Berry make only coarſe cloth, called cloth of Berry; they are excellent in their kind, but only fit for ſoldiers, ſervants, and common people. The other ſtuffs of wool of Berry, are coarſe ſerge, druggets, tiretaines, and pinchinate.

Bourges, Iſſouden, Chateroux, Vierſon, Selles, Aubigny, and Romorantin, are the places where the beſt manufactories are ſettled, among which that of Romorantin is moſt eſteemed.

The other places of manufacture of wool of Berry, are Le Blanc, S. Amant, La Chaſtres, Chaſtillon, Mehun, Aubigny, Dun le Roi, St Benoiſt du Sault, Buzancois, Leuroux, St Savin, Sancerre, Linieres, Leret, La Chapelle Danguillon, Aiſne le Chateau, St Gautier, Ivry le Pre, Argenton, Newvy, St Sepulchre, Argent, Valencay, Cinconet, Baugy, Sancergues, Les Aix, Blancafort, and Enrichemont.

Beſides what has been ſaid above, of the quantity of fine wool which the province of Berry furniſhes for Roan, for the fabric of cloth in Normandy, the merchants of that city (Roan) buy up others of the common wools of Berry for their manufacture of tapeſtry. What remains, is uſed for making caps of all ſorts, made in the province, eſpecially at Bourges.

In this generality, of 34 places where cloth and other woollen ſtuffs are made, there are ſeven, viz. Bourges, Iſſoudan, Chateau Roux, Romorantin, Verſon, Selles, and Aubigny, where they commonly make from 3 to 4000 pieces each; ſix, viz. Le Blanc, Sancerre, Chateauneuf, Liniere, Ivoy le Prey, Concoins, where they make from 2 to 3000 pieces; and 21 others, where they do not make above 8 or 900 pieces each.

The ſtuffs at Moulins and thereabout, are ſerges, etamines, and crapes. At Montlucon, Heriſſon, Decize, the ſame. Cercy la Tour, partly ſerges and partly etamines. Moulins Engilbert, cloths, and ſome other ſtuffs. The tapeſtry made in this generality amounts to 80,000 livres yearly.

In Auvergne, the manufacture of etamines, worſted camblets, burats, cadiſe, burailles, and other woollen manufacture, is very good.

Of the commerce of NORMANDY, as divided into three generalities, Rouen, Alençon, and Caen.

The principal commerce of the generality of Rouen conſiſts of cloth, ſerges, tapeſtry, wherein are employed 1200 looms. In the good manufactory, they uſe but Spaniſh wool, or the beſt of France; thoſe of Normandy, are for ſtuffs of an inferior kind. They import to Roan, communibus annis, 9000 bales, of which 5000 are Spaniſh, the reſt of the kingdom.

The principal fabric of the city of Roan, and which employed the greateſt number of hands, was the cloth of Uſſeau, ell wide, but now thoſe after the faſhion of Elbeuf have taken their place. This laſt is good, and improving daily, nevertheleſs it is not yet come up to the true cloths of Elbeuf. As to the cloths of Uſſeau, they keep them up yet, but make leſs of them ſince thoſe after the faſhion of Elbeuf have prevailed. The third ſort of cloth made at Rouen, after the faſhion of ENGLAND; but of this laſt, not ſo much as of the two former. Other woollens made there are, white druggets, commonly called eſpagniolettes; other druggets, of all colours, half-ell wide, and white ratines, five quarters wide. They make alſo barracans of thread and wool, $\frac{3}{4}$ wide, very coarſe, and berlucha's, or druggets, of a better ſort. Theſe two laſt fabrics employ about 60 looms, and the other near 200.

At Darnetal, the woollen manufactory is very antient: their firſt ſtatutes are in the reign of Henry III. (1587.) The different cloths there made are, after the faſhion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND; cloths after the faſhion of Elbœuf, Uſſeau, druggets, or pinchinats. Their manufacture of blankets is the ſecond branch of the trade of that town and it's valley.

At St Aubin la Riviere, the manufactory commenced in 1691, in vertue of letters patents of 1672, under the title of a ROYAL MANUFACTORY. They make cloths after the faſhion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND, with ſucceſs enough.

The manufactory of cloth at Elbœuf is an antient eſtabliſhment, and has always been in good credit for the ſorts of cloth

cloth undertaken there at different times. Before the great regulation of 1669, they made there only white coarſe cloths; but, all the manufactories of the kingdom having received encouragement from Lewis XIV. at the inſtance of Monſieur Colbert, thoſe of Elbœuf were the firſt that reaped the fruits thereof, by two conſiderable eſtabliſhments for fine cloths, after the faſhion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND, and by means of the perfection to which they are arrived in other cloths.

At Orival they make only cloths after the faſhion of Elbœuf.

At Louviers, there are two ſorts of cloth made; the one after the faſhion of England and Holland, the other after the faſhion of Elbœuf. At Pont de l'Arche, the cloth manufactory is in great reputation; it was eſtabliſhed in 1690: the drapery is after the faſhion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND.

At Gournay the manufacture is ſerge only, after the faſhion of LONDON, well made. Bolbec is one of the moſt conſiderable places in the country of Caux for manufacturing a ſort of ſtuff called frocs, which are eſteemed the beſt of the kind made in Normandy. They are of two ſorts; the one $\frac{2}{3}$ wide, the other half-ell $\frac{1}{16}$. They are both of pure wool of the country. Gruchet, the ſame as at Bolbec.

At Feſcamp the manufacture is diſtinguiſhed into old and new; the old are very ſtrong ſerges, ell-wide, and frocs, the ſame as at Bolbec; the new are, fine cloths, after the faſhion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND; the firſt all of wool of the country, the other partly of foreign wool, partly of the beſt wool of the kingdom. This manufactory met with difficulties in the beginning, by the fault of thoſe intruſted with it by the undertaker. But the dexterity of three foreigners who had afterwards the management of it, hath carried it to ſuch perfection, that cloth hath been produced there as fine, and in all reſpects as good, as thoſe of ENGLAND.

There are a great quantity of frocs and belinges made in ſeveral villages of the bailiwic of Caux, eſpecially between Feſcamp and Dieppe, but of an inferior ſort to thoſe of Bolbec, either for the making or the goodneſs of the wool.

Cloth, and other woollen ſtuffs, made at Caen, are cloths after the faſhion of ENGLAND and HOLLAND, ratines, ſerges called lingettes, frocs and reveches. The cloths and ratines of one manufactory, eſtabliſhed by Sieur Maſſieu, about the end of the ſeventeenth century, are only of Spaniſh wool. The other woollen ſtuffs made here employ near 700 looms.

St Lo is in reputation for the manufacture of ſtrong ſerge, to which it has given it's name. They make alſo there finettes and razes, very much eſteemed. Theſe different fabrics employ about 2000 workmen, 90 looms, &c. Theſe ſtuffs are excellent, eſpecially if they employ only the wool of Coutantin.

At Vire are made common cloths, yard wide, alſo ſerges linguettes; alſo in many villages thereabouts, eſpecially at Conde, Caligni, Monſegre, Cartemont, Ceriſy, and Frênes. Theſe manufactures employ above 300 looms; they make commonly 12,000 pieces a year. At Valogne is made ſtrong cloth, of the wool of the country. At Cherborough, the ſame, but in greater quantity.

Coutance, is very fit for a wool manufactory, having all proper accommodations for that purpoſe. The wools grown there are excellent; the water good for dyeing, eſpecially in ſcarlet. There are abundance of teazles. They were once famous; but the war of the league having diſperſed the chief manufacturers into other parts, they make only at preſent ſome petty druggets, called belinges, and other ſlight ſtuffs partly of thread, and partly of the wool of the country. The reſt of the wool is ſold to other fabrics of the province, eſpecially at St Lo, where the antient manufacture of ſerge of Coutance remains.

At Bayeux is made cloth, ſerges and ratines: they are good of their kind. At Freſne and St Pierre d'Antremont they make partly ſerge, like that of Caen, partly ſlight ſtuffs of thread and wool, all of wool of the country.

There is a great quantity of wool grown in the generality of Caen, but of different qualities, according to the place; thoſe that grow about the city of Caen are worſt; thoſe that grow from Bayeux as far as Cherborough, and all along the coaſt, are the beſt: theſe laſt are employed at St Lo, Vire, Valogne, and Cherborough.

The generality of Alençon is very conſiderable for the manufacture of cloth, and other drapery. They make there 50 or 52,000 pieces, and mark beſides 16,000. Beſides the wool of the country, they are ſupplied from neighbouring provinces.

At Alençon they make ſtrong ſerge, $\frac{2}{3}$ wide, etamines, $\frac{1}{2}$ ell, crapes the ſame. At Leez, ſome ſlight drapery, viz. ſerges, etamines. Argentan the ſame. Falais for the moſt part, ſerge ſur eſtain, ell wide; ſerge tremieres, $\frac{7}{8}$, &c. Liſieux, a quantity of woollen ſtuffs, called frocs. Vernevil, ſerge croiſsée, all of wool, druggets, thread, and wool. Dreux, cloth, ſtrong ſerges, ſerges after the faſhion of LONDON, eſtamats, and demi-eſtamats; theſe laſt are called linings, becauſe they are employed to line cloth.

Aumale gives it's name to a manufacture of ſerge much eſteemed; they reckon near 1200 looms at work there, and round about. It is the only fabric of the king in the kingdom; they reckon the commerce there amounts to 2,000,000 when wool is at a reaſonable price.

Nogent le Retrou is a town of the province of Perche, but of the department * of the manufactories of Alençon. The ſtuffs there made are of three ſorts, etamines, of wool, others of wool and ſilk; druggets, thread and wool; above 400 looms are employed there. The yarn made uſe of in etamines comes for the moſt part from Mortagne, to the value of 200,000 livres per annum.

* The kingdom of France, where is any woollen manufacture, is cantoned into ſeveral departments, or diſtricts, called generalities, with an inſpector to each, and ſuperintendant-general of the whole: and thus we come by this more particular account of the woollen manufacture in France than of any other kingdom beſides.

At Souence are made etamines, ſome all of wool, others of wool and ſilk. At Ecouchay, ſtrong ſerge, ell-wide, and ſerge tremieres, $\frac{7}{8}$. At Laigle, partly ſerges, partly etamines, and the light ſlight ſtuffs.

At Vitre, ſerges are made of thread and coarſe wool of the country, from 12 to 20 ſols the ell: there are alſo etamines, from 15 to 30 ſols per ell.

In Bretagne are employed 800 looms, in making ſlight ſtuffs of wool, viz. etamines, druggets, ſerges, moletons, crapes, and narrow cloths, of the wool of the country. The principal places are Nantes, Rennes, Bourg, Dinan, St Brieux, Lamballe, Chateau-Briant, Nozay, Redon, Joſſelin, Le Guay de Pletant, St Croix, Auvray, Vannes, Maleſtroit, Rochefort, Chateauneuf, Lengonna, and Raviliac.

Of the commerce of BOURGOGNE, and the generality.

As great numbers of ſheep are depaſtured in Burgundy, ſo wool is a very conſiderable commodity there: one part whereof is employed by the manufacturers of the province, who are numerous; the other part, which is not fit for their uſe, is bought up by the merchants of the neighbouring provinces.

In the room of which, ſome is alſo bought from Rheims and Troie, more proper for certain manufactures, viz. for ſerge, after the faſhion of London and Siegnelay, where they mix the wool of Troie and Rheims with thoſe of Auxerrois, which are the beſt in Burgundy. The principal manufacturers are, cloths of Beaune, Vitaux, Semur, Saulies, Montbart, Rovray, Avalon, Auxerrois, Nuits, Pont le Vauz, Autun, Joigny, Sens, Villeneuve, l'Archeveque, Bigny, and Ancy la Franc.

The manufactures of ſerges of all ſorts, eſpecially cloth-ſerges, and ſerges after the faſhion of London, are not leſs conſiderable; they make them at Dijon, Marcy, Auxerre, in the hoſpital, as well as in that of Beaune, at Siegnelay, Amay le Duc, Auxonne, Chatillon upon Scine, and Chaſſnelles. Druggets, tiretaines, tolanches, are made at Samur, Montbart, Auxerre, Nuitz, Beaune, Louhans, Clungy, Macon, and Montluet; alſo in ſome of thoſe cities, and eſpecially at Autun, crapes called frater and freilles, three quarters and half wide. The buſineſs of ſtockings, after the faſhion of Havre and England, is carried on at Dijon.

Of the ſtate of the woollen manufacture of DAUPHINY and PROVENCE.

Grenoble is the chief place of the fabrics round about; they make cloth: at Virin, and five pariſhes, are made druggets, and coarſe cloths: at Turio, and nine pariſhes, cloth only: St Marcellin, and four pariſhes, cloth only: at Roybon, and ſeven pariſhes, cloth, ratines, and ſerge. At Serre, and eight pariſhes, cloths only: At Beaurepaire, cloths, as alſo in three pariſhes belonging to it. At St Jean en Royans, and ſix pariſhes, ſtuffs, and above 1000 pieces of cloth. This place is very commodious for a manufactory, by reaſon of it's water.

At Romans, and in 12 pariſhes, the moſt conſiderable of the whole province, (except Dienlefit) are made of four ſorts of drapery, viz. cordelats 2000 pieces, ratines 1000, eſtameux 14 or 1500, cloths 15 or 1600. At Pont en Royans, and 17 pariſhes, are made cloths only; at Creſt, and 13 places, ratines and cordelats.

At Montelimat is the greateſt manufactory; they reckon up 25 places where ratines and ſergettes are made: Toliman, and nine pariſhes, make ſergettes: Dien de Fit, and 20 places, make ſergettes only: Buis, and three places, ſergettes and cordelets: Valence, cloths and ratines: Vienne, and 17 places, make druggets.

The wool of Provence is employed in different manufactures of ſtuffs and hats. Their woollen manufacture is, cloth made all of Spaniſh wool, and caps of the wool of the country.

At Toulon are made two ſorts of pinchinets; one all of Spaniſh wool, the other only of the wool of the country. The cadis, and cordelats are made of the wool of Provence, viz. in Aix, Gordes, Apt, Ayquires, Auriol, Signe, Colmars, Digne, La Roque, Mauve, Soleres, Cuers, Pequant, Camoulles, Lue, Draguman, Lorgnes. They make alſo in Colmart and Digne, and thereabouts, cloths three quarters

and half wide, which are ſold partly in the kingdom, and partly in Savoy.
In many places of the principality of Orange, they make ſerge ¾ wide. At Arles, narrow raze; at Grignan, ſergettes; all of wool of the country.

Of the commerce of LANGUEDOC.

The manufactures of wool eſtabliſhed in the two generalities of Languedoc are, cloth, cadis, burats, ſerges, ratines, cordelats, bays, crapes, razes, tiretaines, druggets; the greateſt part for the Levant, as the matrons and Londrins; the others for the Swiſs and Germans, &c.
The places where theſe are made are, Rieux, Granges des Pres, Lodever, Carcaſſone, Limoux, Caſtres, Alby, Alet, St Colombe, Lauclanet, Leiſſac, La Grace, Saptes, Chelabre, Mezanet, Ferriers, Caune, Bedarrieux, St Sivran, Quiſſac, St Hypolite, Bauzely, Vigan, Ganges, Saumennas, Anduze, Alais, St Gervais, Sommieres, Gardonnaque, Salle, Beziere, Aniane, and Beaucaire.
The wool employed in theſe manufactures is partly of the country, but the greateſt part is brought from Marſeilles, by the merchants of Montpelier, who buy them unwaſhed, and after they have dreſſed them, ſell them, at the fairs of Pezanes and Montagnac, to the manufacturers.
At Alby in High Languedoc are but two ſorts of manufactures, cordelats and bayettes, the former of the wool of the country. At Carcaſſone the cloths are made of wool of Bezier, Narbonne, and Spain. At Saptes the manufacture of cloth is very conſiderable, the wool Spaniſh, from the merchants of Toulonne, Bayonne, and Marſeilles. Limoux and Alet, the cloths there are made of the wool of the country, and of Rouſſillon. Saiſſac, a manufactory of common cloth. La Grape, cloths; Montagne de Carcaſſone, cloths of different colours and breadths; Caſtres, bayettes, burets, and coronines; Meizant, and it's dependencies, cordelats, white and muſc; Boiſſaſon, cordelats; Varres, ſerge; Ferrieres, ſerge; Caune, coarſe cloths; Bedarieux, two ſorts of manufacture, one of druggets, the other of cloths; St Ponts la Baſhde, white cloths; St Chiman, white cloths, from 3 livres 10 ſols, to 4 livres 10 ſols per ell.
The manufacture of cloth at Lodeve is very conſiderable, and in great eſteem; they make 45,000 pieces, white and grey. At Montpelier, ſtuffs, blankets, hats, fuſtians; the blanket-manufactory is very conſiderable. At Quiſſac is a conſiderable munufacture of cadis; Sauve the ſame; St Hipolite cadis, 75 looms; Bauzely ditto, 60 looms; Vigan cloths and cadis, a very conſiderable manufacture; Ganges, ſome cadis; Alais, ſerge, cadis, ratines, 90 looms; Uſez, ſerge, 60 or 70 looms; St Gignaix, cadis, 40 looms; Sommieres, cloth ſerge, ratines, and cadis; St Jean de Gardonnengue, cadis; La Salle, cadis, 30 looms; Niſmes, a conſiderable manufacture of cloth and ſtockings; Narbonne, knit ſtockings.
At Bezieres are different manufactures of wool, eſpecially of fine cloth and druggets, like thoſe of Badrieux, ſold chiefly to Germany. The royal manufactory of fine cloths, eſtabliſhed at Clermont, is very conſiderable: there are alſo private manufactures there. The manufacture of hats is alſo the moſt conſiderable in Languedoc. Aniane has a manufacture of cadis; Beaucaire, of cadis and ſtockings, and hats; St Andre de Val Borgne, cadis and hats; Marvais, cadis and hats.
The Sieur de Varenne, having brought workmen from Holland, undertook to make cloths for the Levant trade. Saptes, near Carcaſſione, was the place where he firſt eſtabliſhed it; and we may conſider it as the model and mother of all the others in the province of Languedoc. That of Clermont and Lodeve followed ſoon after, viz. in 1678. The ſtates of Languedoc lent them 130,000 livres for many years, without intereſt, and gave them beſides, by way of bounty, a piſtole for every piece of fine cloth made there *.

* Let it always be remembered, as it appears in a great variety of inſtances throughout this work, that when FRANCE has attempted to eſtabliſh any new manufacture, and to ſupplant other nations in any valuable branch of trade, they have ever given ſuch encouragements, in ſome ſhape or other, to effectuate it.

The third manufactory is that of Carcaſſone, eſtabliſhed and maintained by the Sieur Caſtenir, which has not ſucceeded leſs than that of Saptes, and Clermont Lodève. The province gave him the ſame advantages as to the two other royal manufactories. The eſtates of Languedoc have ſince added two others, with the ſame encouragements, one at Rieux, under the conduct of the Sieur Guiſe, a Dutchman; the other in the Caſtle de la Grange des Pres, near Penzenas, under the direction of the French manufacturers.
The laſt royal manufactory of Languedoc is that of Monſ. Chamberlin, eſtabliſhed alſo under the authority of the ſtates. It does not make for the Levant trade, but only woollen ſtuffs after the faſhion of England, for the Spaniſh trade.

The annual product and manufacture of LANGUEDOC in the following articles is,

	livres.
Sheep	1,000,000
Fuſtians and baſins	90,000
Blankets	230,000
Bergames and tapeſtry	20,000
Woollen ſtuffs, fine and coarſe	4,100,000
Cloths, fine and others	8,450,000
Woollen ſtockings	40,000
Hats	400,000
Total	14,330,000

They import wool of Spain, Conſtantinople, Salle, Algier, and other parts of Barbary, 40,000 quintals.

Of the commerce of LOW NAVARRE and BEARN, FLANDERS, the AUSTRIAN LOW COUNTRIES, LORRAINE and BAR.

The wool of Navarre is good, and paſſes for Spaniſh wool; the fineſt ſorts are bought by French merchants of different provinces; of the others they make ſome coarſe ſtuffs for cloathing of the common people.
The product of Flanders, is corn, cattle, wool, &c. Their manufacture, cloth, ſerges, ratines, and other woollen goods, and ſtuffs mixed with ſilk and thread; camlets, damaſks, tapeſtry, ſtockings and breeches, and other works of Bonneterie, knit and wove; burats, crapes, blankets, and the like; all theſe at Liſle.
At Roubais and Turcoing there are many looms for ſtuffs of wool, or ſilk and wool, made chiefly for the Spaniſh trade, and other foreign countries; ſome are brought to France, and even to Paris. At Menin they make hats of wool; at Tournay ſtockings of wool, moquettes (a kind of pluſh) the ſtockings are for Spain and the Weſt-Indies.
There are alſo a number of different manufactories; thoſe of fine cloths, that were once ſo flouriſhing throughout this province (where it was ſaid were 400 looms) are now only at Ypres, Baiteul, and Poperingue. Their dyeing in ſcarlet is very fine in the firſt of thoſe three cities; and they make alſo there, as well as at Hanſcotte and ſome other places, ſerge which is greatly eſteemed.
At Bruges is the great magazine of Spaniſh and Engliſh wool, &c. that ſerves to ſupply the manufactories of that important city. The ſtuffs made there, among others, are anacoſtes, lamparilles, and ſerges fit for Spain and the Spaniſh Indies, alſo bay and ſome camlets.
The woollen manufactures of Lorraine and Bar are only at St Nicholas and St Mary, and Aux Mines; the cloths are coarſe.

Of the commerce of the three biſhoprics, METZ, TOUL, and VERDUN, of ALSACE, ROUSILLON.

The beſt manufactures of wool in the three biſhoprics, are at Metz, and thereabouts; they are not very antient, eſpecially ſome of them, but have arrived to ſuch perfection, and the trade is ſo great, that the COUNCIL ROYAL * OF THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE thought it neceſſary, in the beginning of the 18th century, to eſtabliſh an INSPECTOR ‡ of them. They make ratines of all ſorts, different kinds of light ſerge for women's wear, cloth like pinchinats for the country people, and ſome druggets.

* The ROYAL COUNCIL OF COMMERCE for the advancement of the trade of the kingdom of France in general, as an inſtitution, we may preſume to ſay, ſuperior to any other of this kind throughout the whole world. It had it's commencement the 29th of June 1700, and from that time the trade of this nation has been wonderfully increaſed. For the nature and conſtitution of this royal council, and alſo of the DEPUTIES of the COUNCIL of TRADE in France, ſee the article FRENCH AMERICA.
‡ This is another admirable inſtitution for the encouragement of manufactures in France, which is not to be paralleled in Chriſtendom. See the article MANUFACTURES.

Toul and Verdun are leſs conſiderable in their manufactures; they knit woollen ſtockings in all their cities and round about; thoſe of Metz are moſt eſteemed.
At Straſburg, the capital of Alſace, the woollen manufacture is tapeſtry, narrow cloths, blankets, fuſtians.
The wool of Rouſillon is fine, almoſt of the ſame quality with Spaniſh wool; therefore the manufacturers of France buy there every year, for conſiderable ſums; and, though Rouſillon has no conſiderable manufactory, yet they make blankets, and ſome kind of bures or coarſe cloths.

Of other branches of the trade of FRANCE.

The principal produce of France is their wine and their brandy, and their vinegar. Beſides the quantity they conſume

ſume among themſelves, they ſend abroad to foreign countries, according to a moderate computation that has been made, above 40,000 ton of wine annually from Bourdeaux, Rochelle, and Nantes, and the leſſer ports thereabouts, and 25,000 ton of brandy and vinegar at leaſt.

This extraordinary exportation of itſelf is enough to enrich a country. Next to theſe are the exportation of linen from France, which has many years proved, and ſtill continues ſo to do, a very capital article in the commerce of that kingdom, by the exportation thereof to foreign countries: and the flax being of their own growth, as well as the workmanſhip the labour of their own people, this enhances the eſtimation of this great manufacture. Yet ſince Scotland and Ireland have made ſo exquiſite a proficiency in the linen manufactures, we have abated in our imports of the French linens; though, it is greatly to be feared, that the quantity which is ſmuggled into this nation, and ſold even for our own as well as thoſe of Sileſia, are very conſiderable. But as this is likely ſoon to come again before the conſideration of parliament, we hope that an entire ſtop will be put to ſo great an evil.

And, ſince the admirable improvement in the ſilk manufactures of this kingdom at Spittalfields, near the city of London, the importation of this manufacture from France has greatly declined.

Yet the wrought ſilks of France are ſtill extremely profitable to that nation, and are uſed for cloathing the ladies in moſt of the courts and countries of Europe. They have a vaſt trade for them in Germany, to which their frontiers join a great way up the Rhine, and from whence they ſend great quantities of manufactures quite thro' Swabia, Franconia, Bavaria, and even into Auſtria, Hungary, and Poland.

Nor is their commerce leſs in proportion into the Lower Germany, particularly upon the Meuſe and the Moſelle to the countries of Lorraine, Cologne, Munſter, and throughout all the circles of the Lower Saxony, the Upper Saxony, Mentz, Triers, and Weſtphalia.

The Normandy window-glaſs of France is the ſame for kind, of which ſo great a quantity is now made in England, and which we call crown-glaſs. England formerly had it only from France, and imported annually large quantities of it; whereas they now make ſo much in England, that they not only ſupply themſelves, but ſend it to other countries. The like is to be ſaid of all ſorts of plate-glaſs, for coaches, looking-glaſſes, &c. all which the Engliſh were formerly ſupplied with from France. However, the French have a very great trade for this glaſs ſtill, as well for their own uſe, as to ſend to Germany, Swiſſerland, and even into Italy itſelf.

Remarks before the last War.

Their fabric of glaſs, at St Gobin, is eſteemed one of the fineſt in all Europe. They are ſaid to run plate-glaſs to great perfection, and of larger extent than in any part of Europe. In confirmation of which, it may not be improper to mention an inſtance of my own knowlege, which happened a few years ago. An eminent merchant, of St Peterſburg in Ruſſia, ſent over a commiſſion to England for the purchaſe of a quantity of plate-glaſs, to be fixed in the manner of our wainſcot pannel, in ſome public room in the empreſs's royal palace; the exact dimenſions of which I do not recollect, but the commiſſion would not have amounted to much leſs than 2000 l. Accordingly I went to the glaſs-houſe at Vauxhall, belonging to Meſſ. Bowles and Dawſon; and, talking with Mr. Dawſon upon the occaſion, he told me, that they had not conveniencies ready built for the running of glaſs of ſuch large dimenſions; and that to erect proper conveniencies for that purpoſe would be ſo expenſive, that it would not anſwer; orders of that nature being ſo very uncommon, and perhaps they might never have another of the like kind, and therefore it could not be executed in England.—But this commiſſion, as I was afterwards informed, being ſent to France, was there executed.

They have alſo no inconſiderable ſhare in the fiſheries of various kinds [ſee the article Fisheries] which has greatly promoted their brood of ſeamen, and increaſed their maritime power.

Their ſcarcity of black cattle makes them ſcarce of leather; wherefore they drive a great trade to St Domingo for hides, and buy abundance alſo in Spain and Portugal; the Spaniards bringing them from Buenos Ayres, and the Portugueſe from the Braſils; notwithſtanding which, they have a pretty large quantity from England and Ireland, ſuch as calve's leather and neat's leather.

Their ſalt is partly a monopoly in the hands of the government, and is ſold out to the ſubjects in an arbitrary manner, and at an exceſſive price. [See the article Salt.] What they ſent abroad, is bought of the officers of the crown, and at a more tolerable price: this is what we call bay-ſalt principally, becauſe it is made at ſeveral places in the bay of Biſcay.

The colonies and plantations of France, like thoſe of other European nations, are chiefly in America; and next to thoſe of the Spaniards, are the greateſt in that part of the world, as to their extent on the continent, and the number of the iſlands. The Portugueſe colony in Braſil is perhaps richer with regard to gold and diamonds, than the French: but, for largeneſs of territory, the French in Canada, and in their Miſſiſſippi pretenſions, almoſt exceed any other nations. See the articles Canada and French America.

The French colony of Canada, is a very valuable and important ſettlement upon the river of Canada, and the great bay or gulph of St Laurence, in which the French have extended themſelves ſo far, as from within ten leagues of the Engliſh factory at Hudſon's-Bay [ſee the article Hudson's-Bay Company,] to within about two leagues of Hudſon's river, which runs into the ſea at New-York, being from latitude 41 ½, to latitude 51 ½ — But, to leave the deſcription of the extent of the French territories on the continent of America, we refer to the article Canada, and to the article French America; we ſhall, at preſent, only ſpeak to the trade of America in general, as connectively conſidered with the other commerce of France; leſt, it's being ſeparately and disjointedly viewed, the reader ſhould not take that comprehenſive ſurvey of the whole trade of France together, which may enable him to form a right judgment thereof, when compared with that of other nations.

The grand product of this colony is corn and furrs. This country chiefly ſupplies Cape Breton, and all the fiſhing veſſels which reſort thither, and which are very numerous, with grain in general, the iſland of Gaſpe not yielding any quantity of corn ſufficient for them.—Canada alſo ſupplies the French iſland colonies with corn, as we ſhall ſee preſently; but theſe exportations do not carry off a quantity equal to the growth of ſuch a vaſtly extended country as this of Canada.

The other exportations are peltry, viz. furrs and ſkins, of which the principal produce is the beaver. They have a great variety of ſkins of other wild creatures, which theſe countries produce in common with the reſt of North America: but the beaver is the chief, both as it is the moſt profitable and moſt numerous. See the article Beaver.

So great is the multitude of beavers here, that the French in Canada are ſaid to ſend over to France ſeveral hundred thouſands of their ſkins every year; and yet they do not find the plenty of beavers to abate, but they are rather ready to over-run the whole country.

Beſides beaver-ſkins, they take an immenſe quantity of other ſorts of creatures, whoſe furrs are valuable in Europe, and make a very large branch of commerce, conſidered as wrought up into divers general manufactures.—Such as the ſkins of oters, deer, bear, elk, buffaloe, mink, wild horſe, wild cat, muſquaſh, raccoon, fiſher, martin, fox, white, ditto black, very valuable, bullock, &c.

At the mouth of the great river St Laurence, the French carry on the great fiſhery, commonly known by the name of the white fiſhing, or cod fiſhing of Newfoundland: how highly injurious this is to Great-Britain, and beneficial to France, [ſee the article British America.] For, though the iſland of Newfoundland is now wholly a colony of Great-Britain, yet it is certain, that the French employ more ſhips in this fiſhing than the Engliſh, and catch a much greater quantity; the reaſon whereof is, that the French carry the fiſh not into Spain and Italy only, but alſo to their own country, to Marſeilles and Toulon, and to the ports of France in the ocean; the French themſelves eating much fiſh, eſpecially in Lent; whereas the Engliſh bring little or none from thence, but what they ſell to the Spaniards and the Portugueſe, or Italians: the Engliſh, who keep little Lent, and being no fiſh eaters, in compariſon to Roman Catholic countries.

Beſides, the whole coaſt of Britain ſupplies ſo great a quantity of the ſame ſort of fiſh, as well as of divers others, that they catch more by far at their own doors, than their home conſumption calls for.

Quebec, weſt long. 74. lat. 47, 35. the capital of the French colonies in North America, ſituate on the weſt ſide of the river St Laurence, 300 miles north-weſt of Boſton. This city is fortified, and defended by a caſtle: the Engliſh have made two or three unſucceſsful attempts to reduce it, and had probably effected it the laſt time, but they entered on this expedition too late in the year, and wanted good pilots to carry them up the river of St Laurence, which occaſioned the loſs of ſome tranſports, and ſeveral hundred ſoldiers, in the latter end of the reign of queen Anne. The viceroy of Canada who reſides at Quebec, ſtiles himſelf governor, and captain-general of New France and Louiſiana; which, according to the French, comprehends all Canada and Florida, of which the Britiſh colonies are a part; and no doubt they will attempt to drive our people into the ſea, in the language of a French writer, if we ſuffer them to continue their incroachments on our frontiers, and do not poſſeſs ourſelves of the lakes which lie between Canada and Florida.

There are two ſeaſons in which ſhips ſail from France to this country, viz. towards the end of April, or the beginning of May, and at the cloſe of Auguſt, or beginning of Septem-

ber, that they may arrive as the ice is juſt broke, or a little before it is formed, there being no going thither all the reſt of the year.

The French ſhips, employed in this trade, export all their goods cuſtom-free, neither are they liable to any duties in Canada, except for Braſil tobacco, upon which there is about 20 s. ſterling per hundred weight. The cargo of theſe veſſels is much the ſame with what is ſent to the French iſlands, and, as we ſhall mention that preſently, we need not do it here.—We ſhall obſerve, however, that tobacco, ſugar, and ſome other Weſt-Indian commodities, make a part of thoſe cargoes, the ſoil and climate of Canada not affording the like; and, for the ſame reaſon, there is a difference in the woollen goods exported thither, coarſe cloths being ſent to Canada, and thin and light ſtuffs to the French iſland colonies in America. The profits upon the goods are very large, ſeldom leſs than 50 per cent. and thoſe that go off beſt are of leaſt uſe, ſuch as ribbands, laces, ſnuff-boxes, watches, rings, necklaces, &c.

As ſoon as the veſſels arrive at Quebec, the merchants there ſend away the greateſt part of their cargoes that are fit for the Indian trade to Montreal, and the THREE RIVERS where they have factors; but the fineſt goods remain at Quebec, and are ſold among the French themſelves; all their merchandize is paid for in money, in bills of exchange upon the merchants of Rochelle, in furrs, or in lumber.

It ſeldom happens that theſe ſhips return full laden into France, the colony not producing roomy goods; and therefore, that their voyages may turn to the better account, they generally run down to Cape Breton, and there take in a large quantity of coal for the French ſugar iſlands.

The next point requiſite to be noticed in this part of America, poſſeſſed by the French, is Cape Breton, or the Iſle Royal, as the French have chriſtened it.—But having, under the article BRITISH AMERICA and FISHERIES, taken ſome notice hereof, and intending to make ſome addition thereto under the article FRENCH AMERICA, where we ſhall conſider theſe points more minutely, we ſhall only obſerve here for the preſent, that, according to Charlevoix, the climate of this iſland is much the ſame with that of Quebec. Indeed, all the lands here are not good, nevertheleſs they produce trees of all ſorts. There are oaks of a prodigious ſize, pines for maſts, and all ſorts of timber for carpentry work; the moſt common ſorts, beſides the oak, are the cedar, aſh, maple, plane-tree, and aſpin; fruits, particularly apples, pulſe, herbs, and roots; wheat and all other grain neceſſary for ſuſtenance; hemp and flax abound here leſs, but are every whit as good as in Canada.

All the domeſtic animals, ſuch as horſes, horned cattle, hogs, ſheep, goats, and poultry, thrive well here. What is got by hunting, ſhooting, and fiſhing, is able to maintain the inhabitants a good part of the year. This iſland abounds in coal-pits. There is no part of the world where more cod-fiſh are caught, nor where there is ſo good conveniency for drying it. The fiſhery alſo of ſea-pike, porpuſſes, &c. is in great abundance here, and carried on with great eaſe.

The harbour of Louiſbourg, called Engliſh Harbour, when this iſland was in Engliſh hands, is not above a league from the bay of Gaborie, and is, perhaps, one of the fineſt in America; it is near four leagues in circumference, and every where there are ſix or ſeven fathom water; the anchorage is very good, and you may, without danger, run a ſhip a-ground upon the mud.

After the ceſſion of Placentia and Acadia to the crown of England, it is certain, the French had no other place, where they could dry their fiſh, or even fiſh in ſafety, but the iſland of Cape Breton. They began by changing it's name, and called it the Royal Iſland. The cod-fiſhing here is very abundant; they fiſh there from the beginning of April to the end of December, which employs many hundred ſail of French ſhipping, and is a grand nurſery of their ſeamen. See the article FISHERIES.

From our map of NORTH AMERICA, and our notes and explanation thereof, together with what we have ſaid under the article BRITISH AMERICA, and what we ſhall alſo ſay under the article FRENCH AMERICA, the reader will be enabled to judge of the great deſigns of France upon the continent of America, from Canada to Florida, [ſee likewiſe the articles of CANADA and FLORIDA] comprehending all their ſettlements upon the Miſſiſſippi, and the country round about it, which is called Louiſiana. See LOUISIANA. Theſe French colonies being upon the borders of the whole range of Britiſh colonies upon the continent, and the French exerting their utmoſt policy to cement friendſhips, and making intereſting alliances with the Indian nations, who are as well neighbours to them as to us, and exciting theſe people frequently to commit hoſtilities againſt the Engliſh; the ſecurity of our northern colonies calls aloud for due attention to the meaſures of the French in this part of the world, and to keep a vigilant eye upon them, leſt they ſhould one day be capable of doing us unſpeakable injury in this part of America. [See the article FRENCH AMERICA.

REMARKS ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

Thus ſtood our work in the two laſt editions, before the laſt war; wherein it will appear, that we have not proved falſe prophets, and amuſed the public with viſionary ſpeculations, with relation to the late conduct of France towards this kingdom: on the contrary, our judgment being grounded on FACTS, the inferences we naturally and unbiaſſedly deduced therefrom, we have experienced to have come to paſs.

With regard to CANADA and all it's DEPENDENCIES, the ſame are ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, which has been the conſequence of the laſt war: and with reſpect to the Caribbee Iſlands, we have already noticed, under the article of AMERICA, where we have given the DEFINITIVE TREATY at large, in what manner the ſaid treaty has diſpoſed of them: we have likewiſe repreſented that matter under our article BRITISH AMERICA and FRENCH AMERICA, as was requiſite, in purſuance of the plan of this performance: and that the reader may not miſtake us, we are obliged, where neceſſary, to make our REMARKS, conſiſtent with the DEFINITIVE TREATY: to the end alſo, that the ſtate of public affairs may appear in their true light, we have rather choſe to let them ſtand as they were repreſented by us before the war, than only as they now are. For, by ſo doing, we ſhall be able the more impartially to make a truer judgment, how far the ſaid DEFINITIVE TREATY has removed thoſe COMPLAINTS on our ſide, that occaſioned the laſt war. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS.

Of the FRENCH ISLANDS in AMERICA, as they ſtood before the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, took place.

To begin with Granada: it is ſituate in 12 degrees north latitude, about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and about the like diſtance north of Caribbiana, or New Andaluſia: this iſland is 25 leagues in circumference, and has ſeveral good bays and harbours, ſome of which are fortified. It is eſteemed a fruitful ſoil, and well watered; producing ſugar, and ſuch other plants as are found in the reſt of the Caribbee-Iſlands; there are abundance of very ſmall iſlands that lie at the north end of Granada, which are called the GRANADILLAS, or GRANADINES. Martinico is ſituated between 14 and 15 degrees north latitude, and in 61 degrees of weſtern longitude, lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes. It is 20 leagues in length, but of an unequal breadth. There are ſeveral commodious bays and harbours on the coaſt, ſome of them ſo well fortified, that they bid defiance to the Engliſh, when they made a deſcent there with ſeveral thouſand men in the laſt war. The produce of this iſland is the ſame with the Engliſh iſland of Barbadoes, and has been the great inſtrument, in conjunction with Guardaloupe, of enabling the French to rival us in the ſugar trade at foreign markets.

Marigalante is ſituated in 16 degrees north latitude, a little to the ſouth-weſt of Guardaloupe, and is about five leagues in length and four in breadth. Du Pleſſis ſays, 'tis full of hills, and abounds with tobacco.

The iſland is covered with trees, among which is the cinnamon-tree, that is always verdant, and it's other products are the ſame with the reſt of the Caribbees.

Guardaloupe is ſituate in 16 degrees north latitude, and 61 degrees of weſtern longitude, about thirty leagues north of Martinico, and near as much ſouth of Antigua. It is ſaid to be the largeſt of all the Caribbee Iſlands, being 22 leagues in length, and half as much in breadth at each end. This, like Martinico, abounds in ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. and is in a very flouriſhing condition as well as Martinico; and agreeable to the conſequence it is of to the French, they have taken care to fortify it with ſeveral regular forts and redoubts. This iſland makes more ſugar now than any of the Britiſh Iſlands, except Jamaica.

Deſiada, or Diſerada, the Deſirable Iſland, ſo called by Columbus, it being the firſt land he diſcovered in his ſecond voyage to America, anno 1493. It lies 10 leagues north-eaſt of Guardaloupe. It is but a ſmall iſland, nor ſo fruitful as others that belong to the French.

St Bartholomew's is another ſmall iſland, about 10 leagues north of St Chriſtopher's. St Croix, or Santa Cruz, another ſmall iſland, lying 17 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, about 20 leagues eaſt of Chriſtopher's, and St Martin's, another ſmall iſland, of no great conſequence.

St Domingo belongs partly to the Spaniards, and partly to the French. It lies between Cuba and Jamaica on the north-weſt and ſouth-weſt, and Porto Rico on the eaſt, and ſeparated from the laſt by only a narrow channel. It extends from longitude 67 35, to longitude 74 15, and from latitude 17 37, to latitude 20, being near 400 miles from weſt to eaſt, and almoſt 120 where broadeſt from north to ſouth; and by ſome reckoned 400 leeagues in circumference, excluſive of it's bays, creeks, &c. which, 'tis ſaid, would make 200 more.

This iſland, which is the greateſt of all the Antilles, [ſee the article ANTILLES ISLANDS] is the moſt fruitful, and by much the pleaſanteſt in the Weſt Indies; having vaſt foreſts of palms, elms, oaks, pines, the juniper, caramite, acajou, &c.—In the meadows, there are innumerable heads of black cattle; horſes enough in the weſtern part, which belongs to the French, to ſupply all their neighbouring colonies.—There is ſcarce a country in the world better watered by navigable rivers full of fiſh, as the coaſt is of crocodiles and tortoiſes.

It has many mines of gold, ſilver, and copper, which, though wrought formerly to great profit, the Spaniards at preſent find themſelves too weak to carry them on for their own advantage, and take care to conceal them from the French.—The chief commodities of this iſland are hides, ſugar, indigo, cotton, cocoa, coffee, ginger, tobacco, ſalt, wax, honey, ambergreaſe, and various kinds of drugs and dyer's wood.—The French here are ſaid to out-number the Spaniards, though both together are ſhort of what the extent and fertility of the iſland is capable of maintaining.

It's principal trade conſiſted for many years in tobacco, in which, 'tis ſaid, there have been from 60 to 100 ſhips employed, but that ſunk to nothing on the eſtabliſhing an excluſive farm of this commodity in France, and ſugar afterwards became the ſtaple commodity of the iſland: ſome think 'tis the very beſt that is made in the Weſt-Indies, and generally it yields 3 or 4s. per hundred more than that of any of their other iſlands.—It was computed in 1726, that there were then 200 ſugar works in this iſland; that, one year with another, they made 400 hogſheads of ſugar, each of 500 weight, and that it brought in 200,000 l. ſterling per ann. to the French, and the indigo is reckoned to produce half as much. This French colony is allowed to be the moſt conſiderable and important that they have in theſe parts, and would be much more ſo, could they get a ceſſion of the other part from the Spaniards, which they have extremely at heart, but 'tis hoped will never obtain, they being already poſſeſſed of ſo many noble harbours and forts, as give them an opportunity of diſturbing and ruining the commerce of any nations which they happen to be at war with.

The iſland of Martinico is the chief of the French ſettlements: the governor-general and intendants reſide there; it is alſo the ſeat of the ſovereign council, which has juriſdiction, not only throughout the Antilles, but alſo over the French ſettlements in St Domingo and Tortuga. The number of people in this iſland are affirmed to be 10,000 whites, and 20,000 negroes. Whence it appears, that the French are very numerous in theſe iſlands; and, though they have been expoſed to many great difficulties in eſtabliſhing thoſe plantations, yet they are now brought to a very flouriſhing condition, and are daily improving them to the utmoſt.

The principal commodity the French raiſe at preſent in theſe iſlands, is ſugar, whereas formerly it was tobacco. Monſ. De Poincy was the firſt who taught them the art of raiſing the ſugar-cane, and curing the juice of it. He was a man of ſuch extraordinary genius, that he improved upon the method then in uſe at Braſil and the Madeiras; the mills he cauſed to be erected, were ſtronger, neater, and better fitted for uſe; and his furnaces likewiſe were contrived to much greater advantage; ſo that he not only introduced it, but carried the art of ſugar-making to a very high degree of perfection.

Beſides ſugar, the French raiſe a great deal of indigo.—They alſo cultivate cacao to great advantage, and draw conſiderable profit from the ginger, caſſia, and piemento, or what we call Jamaica pepper, or all-ſpice, of which they export conſiderable quantities.—They alſo manufacture rocou, for the uſe of the dyers, and ſend home variety of medicinal gums, and wet ſweet-meats of divers kinds.—Theſe iſlands produce two ſeveral ſorts of valuable woods, which are uſed for dyeing, inlaying, and cabinet-work; ſuch as roſe-wood, which, when wrought and poliſhed, has a very beautiful appearance, as well as a fine ſmell.—The Indian wood is alſo of the ſame nature, and the iron-wood, ſo called from it's exceſſive hardneſs, is eſteemed preferable either to cedar or cypreſs; Braſil wood they have in great quantities, and brazilletto, yellow wood, or fuſtic, and green ebony, which is uſed both by the cabinet-makers and dyers. We may add, to theſe commodities, raw hides and tortoiſe-ſhell, and then the reader will have a tolerable comprehenſion of the riches of the French in the Weſt-Indies; which added to their fiſheries at Newfoundland and Cape-Breton, their peltry trade in Canada, and all their commerce with the Indian nations in their immenſe territory of Louiſiana, muſt give us an extraordinary idea of the ſtate of their commercial intereſts in America.

But, that nothing eſſential may be omitted, to enable our readers to form a right judgment of the benefits of the American commerce to France, it is neceſſary to give an account of the trade of theſe iſlands with their mother country, and of the effects thereof to the kingdom in general.

To which end, it is to be conſidered, that, though theſe iſlands produce ſo many rich and eſtimable commodities, yet they ſtand in need of very large ſupplies of various kinds of neceſſaries, without which they could not ſubſiſt; ſuch as horſes, and cattle of all kinds; corn, roots, dry fiſh, and all ſorts of lumber, of which they receive conſiderable quantities from Canada, and the reſt from our northern colonies, in exchange for ſugar, tobacco, indigo, and other goods, which are ſent to Canada, and for melaſſes to our colonies, where it is diſtilled into rum, of which kind of commerce we ſhall ſpeak more largely under FRENCH AMERICA.

The inhabitants of theſe iſlands ſtand always in want of negroes, with which they were formerly ſupplied by their own African and Senegal companies, which have been long ago united to the French Eaſt-India company, by whom this ſlave-trade is now carried on with great regularity, and extraordinary advantage.—The negroes are ſent to Martinico, where they are purchaſed by the planters of the other iſlands, at a ſettled price of ſo many hogſheads of ſugar a-head, as in the Spaniſh ports they are bought for ſo many pieces of eight.

The quantities of ſugar, together with their other productions, that are raiſed in the French ſugar iſlands in America, employ in this trade about 400 ſhips, from the burden of 100 to 300 tons. The time in which they ſail from France is between September and February, that they may avoid as much as poſſible, the hurricanes, and arrive in a fit ſeaſon for compleating their cargoes.

The veſſels from Rochelle and Bourdeaux, are, generally ſpeaking, laden with ſalt beef and pork, flour, brandy, all ſorts of wine of the growth of that part of France, and alſo Madeira, which they take in that iſland; dried cod, pickled herrings oil, cheeſe, butter, tallow, iron, linen, and moſt ſorts of mercery goods. The ſhips from Roan ſeldom carry proviſions, but are freighted with woollen and linen goods, ſilk, ribbons, ſhoes, ſtockings of all ſorts, hats, tin, copper, and braſs ware, ſmall arms, and ſword blades, pewter, pins, needles, paper, pens, cards, and an infinite number of other things of the ſame kind. The ſhips from Marſeilles and Toulon are freighted with oil, dried fruit, wines, and ſeveral kinds of light ſtuffs, that are manufactured in Provence. Thus we ſee what prodigious advantages theſe ſettlements bring to France, by encouraging induſtry, employing a large number of ſhips, and conſequently, raiſing and maintaining many hundreds of ſeamen. It is no wonder, therefore, that the French government pay ſo much attention to this important branch of their traffic, and are ſo careful in taking every poſſible method to encourage theſe colonies, and to protect their trade, which, however, ſuffered conſiderably in the wars of king William and queen Anne, and ſtill more conſiderably at the beginning of the late war: which effectually convinced us that the commerce of the ſugar colonies of France was far greater than we ever imagined.

Before we quit this ſubject, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that on the ſouth ſide of the French part of St Domingo, there lies a little iſland, called Avache, at the diſtance of about 12 leagues from the continent; which is about nine leagues in compaſs, the ſoil very good, and there are two or three tolerable ports, one of which is capable of receiving ſhips of 300 tons. This iſland lies very convenient for carrying on a trade with the Spaniſh colonies on the continent of America; and, ſooner or later, the French will, in that reſpect, make it turn to good account.—It is alſo very commodious for maintaining an intercourſe with the only ſettlement they have on the coaſt of South America, the iſland of Cayenne.

This iſland has heen a French colony ever ſince the year 1625; it lies cloſe by the continent of Guiana, and only cut off, and made an iſland, by the rivers of Ovia on the eaſt, and Cayenne on the weſt, from which laſt it takes its name. The town and fort, where the great road is, at the mouth of the river Guiana, are exactly in 4 degrees, 50 minutes of north latitude, and 3 degrees 32 minutes of eaſt longitude, from Ferro. It is reckoned about 18 or 20 leagues in compaſs, ſtanding high on the coaſt, and looks, at a diſtance, like part of the continent.

The ſoil of Cayenne, by reaſon of the continual rains, produces plenty of ſugar-canes, which, though ſmall and ſhort-jointed, yield very plentifully; alſo mandioca, Indian wheat, rocou, cotton, acajou-apples, banellas, pete, ebony, letter, and violet-wood, anana's, tuberoſes, very fine and large papaia's, and ſeveral ſorts of American and European grain and ſeed, beſides lemons, oranges, indigo, and figs, &c.—The country abounds in wild boars, deer, agontils, woodcocks, ortelans, nightingales, anes, occo's, and other birds, remarkable chiefly for their delicious feathers.

The colony is partly ſubſiſted by proviſions brought from France in merchant ſhips, by way of trade, which commonly are wine, brandy, meal, and powdered or ſalt meat, for beef is very ſcarce there; beſides that, they are not allowed to kill any, nor calves neither, without leave of the governor, that cattle may multiply in the iſland. All ſorts of linen cloathing, ſtuffs, ſilks, ſhoes, and other wearing apparel, are alſo carried thither from France, for the uſe of men, women, and children; and all ſorts of tools and ſmall wares, either for the ſervice of the colony, or for the Amazons and Indian trade, are bartered for ſugar, rocou, indico, tortoiſe-ſhell, tyger-ſkins, and other conſiderable curioſities of the country, which turn to no inconſiderable profit to the traders there.

The other neceſſary proviſions of the product of the iſland are, manetada, and Indian wheat, of which each planter ſows large quantities, both for the ſubſiſtence of their own families and ſlaves, and to ſell to the other inhabitants.—The ſea and river-fiſh, poultry, pigeons, queſts, or ring doves, whereof there is great plenty, and delicate turkeys, hare, veniſon, agentils, hogs, and packs, are alſo a part of their ſubſiſtence.—The chief trade carried on here is an under-hand trade with the Dutch and the Portugueze, and chiefly by the Jews, who reſide

ſide here; and what quantity of gold and ſilver they have is in their hands.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, with relation to the FRENCH ISLANDS in AMERICA.

In the laſt war Great-Britain conquered the following FRENCH SUGAR ISLANDS in AMERICA, viz. The ISLAND OF GUARDALOUPE, MARIE GALANTE, DESIRADE, and MARTINICO, as well as CANADA on the CONTINENT, and CAPE BRETON. For the Definitive Treaty, ſee our articles AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FLORIDA.

At the peace, Great Britain gave up the ſaid ſugar iſlands, purſuant to the VIII article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, and by the IX article of the ſaid treaty, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty cedes and guaranties to his Britannic majeſty, in full right, the iſlands of GRENADA, and the GRANADINES; and the partition of the iſlands, called NEUTRAL, is agreed and fixed, ſo that thoſe of ST VINCENT, DOMINICA, and TOBAGO, ſhall remain in full right to Great Britain, and that of ST LUCIA, ſhall be delivered to France, to enjoy the ſame likewiſe in full right; and the contracting parties guaranty the partition ſtipulated. See our articles BRITISH AMERICA, AMERICA.

Of the EAST-INDIA and AFRICAN TRADES of FRANCE, as theſe articles ſtood before the laſt war.

It was under the reign of Henry IV. of France that this nation firſt attempted to ſhare in the commerce of the Indies, which met but with bad ſucceſs, till Monſ. Colbert, ſo much diſtinguiſhed by Lewis XIV. undertook the buſineſs. This active and intelligent miniſter conceived the deſign of reviving the French Eaſt-India company, notwithſtanding all the misfortunes that company had met with, and which had, over and over, diſappointed the ſkill and care of all his predeceſſors. But, before he made his intentions known to the public, he took care to make himſelf perfectly well inſtructed in the affair he undertook; which he did, by drawing to his acquaintance ſuch merchants and ſeamen as were held to underſtand the ſubject beſt. And, although this company wanted no encouragement from the crown and the miniſter, yet, upon ſtating a general account in 1684, it appeared, that inſtead of gaining one penny by their commerce, they had run out about 300,000 pounds ſterling, which was one half of their original capital ſtock.—Theſe, and the ſubſequent misfortunes of the company, occaſioned general clamours againſt it, and induced a general opinion, that it was abſolutely impoſſible for the French nation to carry on a trade to the Indies with advantage.

But all theſe vexatious circumſtances were nothing in compariſon of the loſs of their generous protector, Monſ. Colbert, who was ready, at all times, to exert his influence in their favour.—The ſucceſſor of Monſ. Colbert was Monſ. Pontchartrain, who neither wanted abilities or probity, but whoſe notions with reſpect to commerce were either crude or undigeſted, or, which was worſe, narrow and obſcure.—From the beginning of his adminiſtration he was no friend to this company, he croſſing every think they aſked, and countenancing every attempt to injure them.

After a ſeries of difficulties and diſcouragements, there ſtill aroſe a new ſpirit in France of curbing and diſtreſſing this almoſt bankrupt company, under colour of augmenting the royal revenues, and protecting the manufactures, which afforded bread to the people: under which pretext, the company was firſt reſtrained from ſelling chints, and other piece-goods to foreigners; which not only proved a great loſs to the company, but to the French nation in general, among whom the money would have circulated for which the manufactures had been ſold: whereas, by this prohibition, ſo much ready money was kept out of France, and not a thread more of their own manufactures vended.—They ſuffered many other obſtructions to their proſperity, too tedious to enumerate.—And it was in particular the misfortune of the company, that, while they were diſtreſſed and maltreated abroad, to drive them out of the Indies, they were envied and perſecuted at home, on account of the ſmall trade they carried on, under the appearance of public ſpirit and concern for the poor, but, in reality, from private views and ſelfiſh principles.

The firſt ſeat of government of this principle in the Indies was at Madagaſcar; but, after the firſt Dutch war, they removed to Surat, and, after that, to Pondicherry.—This was in the beginning of the year 1674; and as the company at that time, had an extraordinary demand for piece-goods, they could not have ſettled in a better place.—This place was immediately well fortified by order of the court; ſo that in the year 1710, this place was become one of the moſt conſiderable in the Indies; and, if their affairs in Europe had kept pace with their improvements made in the Indies, the French company would ſoon have been upon a level with their neighbours, the Engliſh and the Dutch.

The ſettlement of Pondicherry becoming the capital reſidence of the French Eaſt-India company, it will be neceſſary to give the reader ſome deſcription of the place, and of the French government eſtabliſhed there.—The town is ſituate in the province of Gingy, on the coaſt of Coromandel, in the latitude 12 degrees north, and in the longitude of 114 from the meridian of Paris.—It ſtands at a diſtance of 100 yards from the ſea ſhore. The magazines of the company, and of private perſons, are numerous and magnificent; a ſpacious and beautiful market-place, ſix fine gates, 11 baſtions, for the defence of the walls, a regular citadel well fortified; upwards of 400 cannon upon their works, beſides an excellent train of field pieces, bombs, mortars, and all ſorts of military ſtores in their arſenal.—The governor lives with great ſplendor and dignity, and has, beſides his own palace, another grand one, adjoining to a moſt beautiful garden, ſuperbly furniſhed, for the reception of foreign princes and ambaſſadors, who, whenever they reſort thither, are treated with infinite reſpect, all their expences defrayed by the company, which has been found by experience, of much greater conſequence to the intereſt of their commerce, than the expence it occaſions.

The governor general for the company, as he reſides in a fine palace, ſo he makes a figure equal thereto. He has 12 horſe-guards, cloathed in ſcarlet, laced with gold, and an officer with the title of captain, who commands them——He has alſo a foot-guard of 300 men, natives of the country, called peons; and, when he appears in public, he is carried into a palankin, richly adorned. This ſtate is diſplayed on the reception of princes and ambaſſadors; at other times his guards are employed in the neceſſary ſervice of the company, and earn to the full the wages they are paid; for there are few ſettlements, better regulated, or more wiſely governed, than this, which the reader will more eaſily believe, when he is told that according to the laſt account taken of the inhabitants of this place, there appear to be no leſs than 120,000 Chriſtians, Mahommedans, and Gentiles.

There cannot be a place better ſeated for trade than this, being in the midſt of the European ſettlements on the coaſt of Coromandel, and having all the bay of Bengal open before them; ſo that here the company's magazines are full of all the commodities and manufactures, not only of the coaſt of Coromandel, but of other parts of the Indies, ſuch as Bengal, Surat, and the coaſt of Malabar, as alſo of ſuch as are imported from Perſia, and the coaſt of the Red Sea.—Here likewiſe are their warehouſes for all ſorts of European commodities, which are conveniently tranſported from thence, as occaſion requires, to all the markets in the Indies.

However, the ſtaple trade of the place is piece-goods, of which the fineſt are made in Golconda, and the beſt painted here; they have likewiſe great quantities of ſilk, raw and manufactured, gold and ſilver brocades, perfumes, ſpices, and diamonds; in which laſt branch of trade they have made a great progreſs of late, and for which it is certain they are very conveniently ſituated, as being at a very ſmall diſtance from the fineſt mines in the Indies, and by having perſons amongſt them as well ſkilled in jewels as any in the world.

We ſhall now return to France, and view the ſtate of things at home, as well as in the Indies, with reſpect to the commerce of the company.—And here they ſtill laboured under ſuch a continued ſeries of miſchiefs and misfortunes, as not only cruſhed the trade, but almoſt broke the ſpirits of the company, which obliged them to have recourſe to expedients, which proved as little to their honour ar their profit.—In the year 1682, it muſt be obſerved, they had entered into a ſcheme for permitting private trade, upon certain conditions; but their affairs were now fallen into ſuch diſorder, that they were not only content to ſubmit to this, but even to reſign it to them upon eaſy conditions.—From which expedient they found ſome relief, which induced them to extend their ſcheme, and for the preſervation of their ſervants in the Indies, who, by this time, were above 10,000,000 in debt, they fairly ſacrificed themſelves. For,

In the year 1712, they entered into a treaty with ſome private traders at St Malo's, by which they yielded up to them all their privileges as a company, on the beſt terms they could obtain, with a view to furniſh ſuch as were employed by them in the Indies, with ſums ſufficient to keep under the intereſt of their debts, and thereby prevent all things from falling into confuſion. So that on the expiration of their privileges, about the time of the king's death, they earneſtly ſolicited a renewal of them, not from hopes of reviving their trade, but with intent to renew their agreement with the merchants of St Malo's, that they might gain enough thereby to preſerve their ſettlements, and not to ſuffer ſuch as they had employed to be utterly undone in their ſervice.

By this means the private merchants of St Malo's were enabled to increaſe their fortunes, and carry on a trade to the Eaſt-Indies with advantages, under the authority of a company that was in a manner, become bankrupt; and this, notwithſtanding they had conſiderable ſums out of their profits for participating in it's privileges; for, as private men, they could make an advantageous bargain with the company, with ſome reaſonable aſſurance of having the terms of their contract complied with, becauſe made only for a certain time; enjoying alſo the benefit of thoſe ſettlements which the company had made,

made, without contributing any thing to the expence which they originally coſt, or even to that by which they were ſupported; ſo that, conſidered in this light, the company ſtood between them and the government, and their private traders might be ſaid to enjoy, in France itſelf, thoſe advantages that could be expected only in a land of freedom, and by the enjoyment of which ſolely, their trade became advantageous*.

* It is clear from hence, that the injury, done to this time to the French Eaſt-India commerce, proceeded from the nature of the French government; for it muſt be obſerved, that the edicts for their eſtabliſhment, and the extenſive privileges granted by them, though they are neceſſary to the being and foundation of the company, yet are hurtful and diſadvantageous in another reſpect. For all men of ſenſe diſcern, that in a country where ſo much depends upon the mere will and pleaſure of the crown, NO COMMERCE CAN EVER BE SECURE; for as the ſame power that gives may take away, ſo it may likewiſe alter, abridge, and even deſtroy, by NEW EDICTS, any of thoſe privileges, though granted and confirmed in the ſtrongeſt terms that words can expreſs.
Beſides, as the company muſt be almoſt ſupported by acts of royal favour, ſo the obtaining theſe muſt always depend on the will of the prime miniſter for the time being, which is ſuch a precarious tenure, that no man who thinks at all can believe he has any property, while it depends thereupon. In the next place, the maxims of the government rendering it abſolutely neceſſary to prefer the intereſt of the royal revenue to any other intereſt whatever; this is ſuch a ſource of danger and diſquiet, as muſt neceſſarily baniſh all truſt and confidence in the faith of ſuch a government. Whence it may be obſerved, that ſuch as are engaged in the management of a company's concerns, under ſuch circumſtances, will look no farther than the time preſent; and, inſtead of placing their hopes in the future proſperity of ſuch a company, will confine their views to the making the moſt they can of immediate advantages, in order to ſecure their private fortunes, let what will become of the public.

There are in arbitrary governments certain ſeaſons, when, from a variety of accidents, there appears a ſtrong ſpirit of promoting the public welfare, not from any real principle of that kind, but to cover ſome other deſign, which could not otherwiſe be carried into execution, as in changes of adminiſtration, eſpecially in minorities, &c.—This happened to be the caſe at the time when the French Eaſt-India company were ſtruggling for a new grant of privileges, which they had enjoyed for 50 years, though ſometimes in a larger, ſometimes in a leſs degree.
The duke of Orleans, who defeated the old king's will, and eſtabliſhed a new kind of government, as it were, in France, found himſelf obliged to ſuſtain his authority, by endeavouring to acquire to his adminiſtration ſuch a reputation as had never attended all the victories and power of Lewis the Great. Therefore, from the time he took the reins of government into his hands, he affected to act on motives directly oppoſite to thoſe of his predeceſſors; he declared, that the great end of government was the good of the people; that it was impoſſible this ſhould be promoted by perpetual wars or quarrels with neighbouring ſtates; that peace was an univerſal bleſſing, to France as well as other nations; that commerce was the natural effect of tranquillity; and that the conſequences of an extenſive trade were more certain reſources of power than conqueſts or arbitrary dominion.—This gave the company great expectations; but the regent's ſcheme was diametrically oppoſite to what they expected; for his intent was to eſtabliſh what is called in France THE SYSTEM.* To give a ſpecious colouring to this profound project, the Eaſt- and Weſt-Indies companies were neceſſary to be made inſtrumental.

* This was the famous ſcheme of Mr. Law, to pay the national debts of France without money; which proved a ſuperlative bubble, called the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, like to that of our South-Sea company in the year 1720.—See the articles ACTIONS, BUBBLES, and SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

And, when the Eaſt-India company repreſented their condition, and ſued for aſſiſtance and protection, they found they had to do with thoſe who underſtood their affairs as well as themſelves; and, therefore, inſtead of governing them, as in many other reſpects they had done former miniſters, they were obliged to throw themſelves into the new miniſtry's hands, and ſubſiſt on their generoſity; which proved the diſſolution of the company, or, which is the ſame thing, its union with the Weſtern company, which had already ſwallowed up ſome others.—The edict of union extinguiſhed the title of both theſe companies, as well as the others comprized therein, and gave to the whole the comprehenſive and ſignificant name of the COMPANY OF THE INDIES.
In the preamble to this edict we have an excellent hiſtory of the tranſactions upon which this union of the compounded company was founded; for therein it is ſaid, that the king having principally applied himſelf to the reſtoring the commerce of the kingdom, and thereby repairing the loſſes and decays occaſioned by a very long and expenſive war, and having already had the pleaſure to ſee the circulation of money wonderfully quickened, by the eſtabliſhment of the WEST-INDIA COMPANY*; his majeſty had from thence been induced to look into the ſtate of the old companies, erected before his acceſſion to the throne; and, in particular, into the ſtate of the Eaſt-India company, which he found to be deplorable. For, in the ſpace of 50 years, they had, notwithſtanding repeated aſſiſtances from the crown, managed their affairs ſo indifferently, as to be obliged to abandon their commerce intirely, and to take up with ſuch trifling advantages as could be obtained by letting out their privileges to hire.

* It was with this view that the regent ſhewed ſo much favour to the Weſt India company, and eſtabliſhed it's capital at one hundred millions, and thereby he procured an opportunity of leſſening that immenſe quantity of paper-money which the long war had made requiſite, and which was of great injury to the public credit.

The king declared he was ſatisfied that this did not proceed at all from diſadvantages in the nature of that commerce, but from the miſtakes and ill conduct of ſuch as had been intruſted with the management of the company's affairs, who, in the firſt place, had made their bottom too narrow, and had undertaken the traffic of the Indies upon much too ſmall a capital.---That, to keep up the credit of their own adminiſtration, and to countenance their taking ſuch conſiderable ſalaries to themſelves, they had made large dividends, where there was no profit; and having, by this means, exhauſted the company's ſtock, they carried on their trade by borrowing as much money as they could, at very high intereſt.---That, however, the king his great grandfather having always protected and encouraged this company, and even granted them a new term towards the end of his life, they might have drawn profits from it, if their conduct had not become ſo flagrantly bad, that neither the glory of the king, nor the intereſt of his people, would permit him to overlook it any longer.---On the one hand, there were continual complaints from the Indies, that the company had borrowed vaſt ſums of the Gentiles, without paying them either capital or intereſt, having, in the ſpace of 16 years, not ſent ſo much as one ſingle ſhip to Surat.---On the other, the private merchants carrying on this commerce in the name, and under the authority, of the Eaſt-India company, were ſo oppreſſed by the duty, and other gratuities they paid to the company, that they are unable to purſue their trade with the ſame ſpirit and advantages which are enjoyed by the ſubjects of other nations; and moreover, being afraid to go to Surat, on account of the danger they were in of having their ſhips ſeized for the company's debts, they found themſelves obliged to purchaſe moſt of the Indian commodities and manufactures, which they brought into Europe, from foreigners, at a very high price, and this equally to their own and the nation's diſadvantage.
For theſe reaſons, and others of the like nature, alledged againſt the China and African companies, his majeſty declares, that the privileges of all theſe companies are, by this edict of his, dated in the month of May, 1719, revoked, extinguiſhed, and ſuppreſſed.---He granted, at the ſame time, to the new company of the INDIES, an excluſive privilege of trading from the Cape of Good Hope to the utmoſt extent of the Eaſt-Indies, as alſo to the iſlands of Madagaſcar, of Bourbon, and of France, the coaſt of Soffola in Africa, the Red Sea, Perſia, the dominions of the Mogul, of the king of Siam, and of the emperors of China and Japan, as alſo of the South Seas, from the Streights of Magellan, or La Maire, to the Eaſt-Indies that way, forbidding all the reſt of his ſubjects their ſeveral trades, under pain of the confiſcation of their veſſels and effects.
He likewiſe gives and grants to this company the poſſeſſions and effects of the other companies, at the ſame time charging them, however, with all the juſt debts which theſe companies had contracted.---The better to enable them to diſcharge which, and to carry on the extenſive trade granted them by this edict, he creates in their favour 25,000,000 of new actions, to be purchaſed for ready money, on the terms that the Weſt-India company poſſeſſed 100,000,000 of actions, and with the like privileges and advantages.---He alſo grants full licence and authority to import all ſorts of manufactures of ſilk, ſilk and cotton, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, dyed cottons, and alſo painted and ſtriped, on condition that none of theſe ſhall be vended in his dominions, but be ſold and diſpoſed of to foreign nations; for which reaſon they were to be depoſited in magazines, under double locks and keys, of one to be kept by the farmers-general, and the other by the directors of the company, for the better preventing frauds and colluſions.---He likewiſe grants them permiſſion to import all ſorts of white cottons, raw ſilks, coffee, drugs, ſpices, metals, and whatever elſe the Eaſt-India company might have imported under their privileges.
This edict had all the effect, and even more, than was expected; ſuch an eagerneſs appeared of ſubſcribing, that, inſtead of 25, the ſubſcriptions amounted to 50 millions; which encouraged the French miniſtry to venture upon ſome new regulations, that were made public by an edict of the month of

of June in the ſame year: the principal of which was, that they ſhould take off four times the number of old actions, in order to be intitled to the new: ſo that, in order to purchaſe 5000 livres of the new actions, the ſubſcribers were obliged to take 20,000 of the old.

The great end propoſed by all this was, to find the means of ſuppreſſing that immenſe quantity of paper-money, which was ſo heavy a burden on the ſtate. To which end, annuities to the value of 25 millions are created; which not anſwering that intention, the new company of the Indies offered their aſſiſtance, and undertook to diſcharge them at the rate of 50 millions in one month: ſo that the whole load of this paper-credit, amounting to near 60 millions of our money, was to be extinguiſhed by the end of July 1721.

In conſideration of the zeal and public ſpirit manifeſted by the company in this propoſal, the king, by his arret, dated in the month of July 1720, changed the terms on which the company held their privileges, and declared them perpetual, reſtraining himſelf and his ſucceſſors from ever treating them as other companies had been, in order to their eſtabliſhment: thus this company acquired the title in France of THE PERPETUAL COMPANY OF THE INDIES, with all the privileges of the other four companies confirmed to them for ever.—In two years time it was declared, that, in conſequence of the annuities granted and aſſigned to the company from the crown, they ſhould be able to divide annually the ſum of 10 per cent. which ſhould be paid duly and exactly for ever; in conſequence whereof, the directors were to be at full liberty to export and import what they thought proper, without being accountable annually to their conſtituents, becauſe the dividend was to be certain and regular, and they were to manage things ſo, as that the deficiencies of one year might be made good by the profits of another.

This courſe of management, though it had certainly one great convenience, in aſcertaining the intereſt as the proprietors were to receive it, yet the circumſtance of not accounting for the profits has proved of ſuch ill conſequence, that, notwithſtanding theſe dividends have been all along regularly paid till lately, yet the proprietors could never be cured of a ſuſpicion they entertained, that the Eaſt-India commerce has not been carried on to that advantage but in their name, for the king's; and this has contributed to keep their actions low, though they had ſuch extraordinary intereſt paid them, with ſuch regularity.

The grounds of this ſuſpicion lying in the annuities paid by the crown to the company, which are ſufficient for ſecuring ſuch a dividend, without the leaſt aſſiſtance from the profits of their trade, made the thing not altogether incredible; eſpecially when it was perceived, that, for 20 years together, the dividends remained fixed and ſettled, though the trade of the company has, for that time, been apparently increaſing.

But, to underſtand this matter rightly, as well as the true ſtate of the company's affairs in general, and how they came to have a fund capable of diſcharging regularly ſo high an intereſt for ſuch a number of years, as well as to clear up ſome things that may ſeem obſcure in the eſtabliſhment of the company now ſubſiſting, it will be requiſite to give as clear and conciſe a relation, as is poſſible, of the riſe and progreſs of the other companies that have been incorporate with this, by the edict beforementioned, and of the Weſt-India company in particular, in which abundance of curious and inſtructive particulars will occur.

The CHINA COMPANY in France was originally ſet on foot in the year 1660, but was very ſoon after abſorbed by that of the Eaſt-India company, which had the ſanction of royal authority given it in 1664; but, when the company began firſt to decline in it's affairs, thoſe who had the management were content, in ſome meaſure, to revive this old company, by granting their licence, which was likewiſe confirmed, by the crown, to one Mr Jourdan, a very rich merchant, who fitted out a very large ſhip for that voyage, which ſailed in March 1698, and returned ſafely to France on the third of Auguſt, 1700, very richly laden.

The ſucceſs of this voyage encouraged this great merchant, and thoſe who were intereſted with him, to fit out the ſame ſhip again, which they accordingly did in the following ſpring, and ſhe returned in the month of September, 1703, with as great profit as from her former voyage. This ſucceſs, one would have thought, might have eſtabliſhed this new company; but the general war in which France was then engaged againſt moſt of the powers of Europe, rendered it impracticable: and thus the company lay dormant, though ſtill poſſeſſed of it's rights, which extended to the coaſts of China, Tonquin, Cochin-China, and the iſles adjacent, till ſuch time as, for reaſons of ſtate which we have ſhewn, it was united to the Weſtern company.

The company of Senegal, though under another name, was one of the earlieſt in France, being carried on by a ſociety of merchants at Dieppe, though without the ſanction of any public authority. They fixed a little ſettlement in an iſland at the mouth of the great river Nigra, called alſo the river of Senegal in Africa, and carried on a conſiderable trade thither. This commerce came afterwards into the hands of the merchants of Rouen, who, in the month of November 1664, yielded it up to the Weſt-India company.

But, when that company was diſſolved about ten years afterwards, the old company of Senegal was revived, and three rich merchants undertook that commerce; which they carried on with great profit to themſelves till the year 1681; when the miniſter, M. Colbert, conceiving this traffic might be greatly enlarged, prevailed upon theſe merchants to accept of a valuable conſideration for their privileges, and to admit of it's going into the hands of a larger number of perſons, with new privileges, which they enjoyed for many years. But, it being diſcovered, that the excluſive rights they had, were by much too extenſive for their capital, it was thought, for the public benefit, to divide this company; and hence aroſe the Guinea company of France, to whom the greateſt part of their privileges were aſſigned, and the reſt remained to the old company of Senegal, which ſtill continued in a proſperous condition.

Yet, from variety of accidents, this company came to be ſo reduced, that they were obliged to give up their privileges to ſome rich merchants of Rouen, who carried on this trade with tolerable ſucceſs, when it was united, as we have ſeen, to the company of the Indies.

As to the company of Guinea, that alſo had ſeveral riſes and falls, till the acceſſion of Philip V. to the crown of Spain, who, in the year 1701, granted them the liberty of tranſporting negroes to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies; whence it took the title of the Aſſiento company [ſee ASSIENTO COMPANY] under which it continued to flouriſh; but it loſt it's being at the treaty of Utrecht, which revived the other branches of the French trade, and conveyed this to the Engliſh, which gave riſe to the Engliſh South Sea company; and, how large their gains have been upon this occaſion, will appear under the article SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

At this conjuncture the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme took place in France, in conſequence of the diſcoveries formerly made in America, by Monſ. de la Salle, a native of Rouen. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FRENCH AMERICA. The regent was conſidering, at this time, of the project offered him, by the famous Mr Law, a Scotch gentleman, whoſe name is well known to the preſent generation, whoſe abilities were extraordinary, and might have been rendered importantly uſeful to France, or any other kingdom, under proper controul.—The end, aimed at by his project, was to reduce all the public debts in France into ſome form; for which purpoſe, 'twas neceſſary to erect, under plauſible appearances, a new company in like manner, that, by the advice of Sir John Blount, the lord treaſurer Oxford had done in England, by eſtabliſhing the South Sea company; rejecting only that part of the project, which was cheating credulous people of their money, by running the actions of the new company into an exceſſive rate: but this part was accepted by the regent of France, and made that part of the deſign, which is ſtiled the ſyſtem in France, as before obſerved; and which was at once the moſt iniquitous contrivance that ever entered into the heart of man. See the articles ACTIONS and BUBBLES.

As it was neceſſary, to carry this ſcheme into execution, that a new company ſhould be ſet up, with ſuch privileges as might create probable hopes of extravagant gains to the proprietors, this new ſettlement was thought of for that purpoſe; whence the project is called the Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, though that was not the title of the company.—But I ſhall not here enter into the enormity of this infamous ſcheme, we having done that elſewhere.—All aimed at, at preſent, is to delineate the ſeveral ſteps, whereby a very conſiderable part of the foreign commerce of France was thrown into the hands of this great French company of the Indies. To complete this grand French ſyſtem,

The royal bank of France was likewiſe united to the company of the Indies.—This was the grand engine employed to bring about the great end of the ſyſtem; which being once effectuated, the regent and his miniſters turned their thoughts on the means of recovering the company from that dreadful confuſion into which it had been thrown, by undertaking the execution of a deſign equally prejudicial to the general commerce, and private property of the inhabitants of France; which had deſtroyed the public credit, and put it out of the company's power to carry on their trade.

The welfare of the kingdom was ſo cloſely connected with that of the company of the Indies, that it was not in the power of the government to neglect either, or to ſeparate their intereſts, which had been miniſterially conjoined, to anſwer more myſterious purpoſes than the world in general is acquainted with.

The company of the Indies, at this time of day, was conſidered as the center of the French commerce, it monopolizing ſo great a ſhare of it; or, in other words, the riſe and fall of that company's ſtocks might be then looked on as a political or commercial barometer, which pointed out the condition of the trade of France in general.

This company has for many years divided 10 per cent. annually on their capital, which, till the late war, was regularly paid.—But this dividend never aroſe from the profits made by the company in the way of trade, but was paid to the proprietors, as creditors of the public (as is done to the

proprietors

proprietors of our South Sea company) on ſettled FUNDS aſſigned them for that purpoſe: wherefore we can attribute the lowneſs of the French ſtocks, in times of peace, to nothing but the diffidence that the people had of their own government.

The regular dividends made by this company had a double effect; they ſuſtained the public credit, and that of the company.—The former was neceſſary to prevent thoſe confuſions, which happened on the ruin of the ſyſtem, which was near ruining the nation; the ſame regular payment of dividends was of unſpeakable ſervice to the company in their trading capacity, without which they could not have ſubſiſted; this policy keeping the proprietors from either enquiring, or receiving any GENERAL ACCOUNTS OF THEIR DEALINGS. This was one of the great ſecrets of the French councils, and the deſign of reſtoring the affairs of the company; and is what, of all others, they have conducted with the greateſt addreſs; for by this means they gained time for the company, and, by affording them monies in ſeaſon, they revived the Eaſt-India trade, put all the company's debts into a train of payment, replaced all her factories; and if the laſt war had not broke out, would have ſoon placed her, as a trading company, in as good condition in that capacity, as ſhe was as a corporation of public creditors.—And ſuch is the policy of France, that they have now conquered all things in regard to this company, and made it as ſubſtantial to their general commerce, as to their public credit.

The effectual eſtabliſhment of this great company may be juſtly attributed to the wiſe and peaceable adminiſtration of the late cardinal Fleury; but was no otherwiſe due to him, than as he continued the direction of theſe affairs in the hands of Monſ. Orry, who, perhaps, has done more ſervice to this nation, than all the ſtateſmen and generals that have been employed in this reign: and although his management was ſomewhat thwarted and thrown into diſorder a few years ſince, yet he has overcome the greateſt difficulties in regard to this company, and put her concerns into ſuch a channel, as will, in very few years, perhaps, render this trading company formidable in compariſon to any other in Europe.

The capital of the preſent company, as before obſerved, was compoſed of the original capital of the weſtern company, and of 25 millions added thereunto, upon the incorporation of the Eaſt-India company therewith; but after the ruin of Law's ſyſtem, and all things were in confuſion, it was found requiſite, that the king ſhould make a reviſion of the actions poſſeſſed by the proprietors, in order to diſtinguiſh between ſuch as had acquired their property fairly, and ſuch as had thruſt themſelves into the company's books, to ſerve the purpoſes of mere ſtockjobbing. In conſequence of this reviſion, the king fixed the actions of this company to 56,000, and which formed a capital of 112 millions; for their dividend upon which, they had a yearly revenue aſſigned them of eight millions four hundred thouſand livres.—By another arret in 1725, 5000 of theſe actions were cancelled and burnt; ſo that the capital of the company, by this means, was reduced to 51,000 ACTIONS, and their DIVIDENDS ſecured by the annual payment of eight millions from the farmers-general of the farm of tobacco; the excluſive, perpetual, and irrevocable privilege of vending which, was granted to the company in 1723, and confirmed to them in 1725, together with the profits ariſing from the furrs imported from Canada; ſo that the fund for the payment of their annual dividends was as effectually ſettled and ſecured, as it was poſſible a matter of that nature could be in France.—Yet the affairs of this company went on in a very precarious way for about fourteen years.—But in the year 1737, Monſ. Orry being at the head of the finances of France, which he managed with ſurprizing ſucceſs, the company fell under his care.—He ſaw that great ſupplies were neceſſary to extricate them from the difficulties under which they laboured, and therefore, having made a ſtrict ſcrutiny into their affairs, he furniſhed them with ſuch ſums as were neceſſary for augmenting their commerce; ſo that in the ſhort ſpace of two years he doubled their returns, and, in three years more, brought them to thrice as much as they had formerly been.

By the management of this able miniſter, the company's ſales at Port de l'Orient became regular and conſiderable, increaſing in ſuch a manner, that the public ſale in the year 1742 produced about a million ſterling; beſides which, they reſerved in their magazines goods, to the value of four millions of livres more; and the firſt ſhips that arrived in 1743, brought home ſtill a richer and more valuable cargo.—This ſudden and extraordinary change in the company's affairs alarmed all Europe, but more eſpecially the maritime powers, who ſaw, with unſpeakable concern, a company, that but a few years before was looked upon as annihilated as to it's commerce, now riſing into as high credit as any in Europe; which animated the northern powers to proſecute ſchemes of falling into the Eaſt-India trade likewiſe.

But what was ſtill more extraordinary than all the reſt, upon the firſt breaking out of the laſt war, the company did not ſeem to be affected ſo much as might have been expected, their dividends being ſtill regularly paid; and which kept up their credit to ſuch a degree, that at Chriſtmas 1744, their actions were at 2000.—But the war with Great-Britain increaſing the expences of France on the one hand, and leſſening her income on the other, the ſecret at laſt came out, that Monſ. Orry was obliged to acquaint the directors of the company, that the king's affairs were ſo circumſtanced, as not to permit him longer to ſupply the company in the manner he had hitherto done; ſo that now they were to ſtand upon their own bottom, and carry on the trade for the future as well as they could.—This unexpected ſtroke reduced the actions to 800.—And, during the time of the late war, their affairs were in a lamentable condition; for that occaſioned ſo high a demand for money in France, that it brought on a ſuſpenſion of their dividends, and thereby gave a ſevere ſtroke to their credit; and the blow ſtruck by commodore Barnet in the Indies, and the loſs of their ſhips we took at Cape Breton, went ſo far towards the ruin of their commerce abroad, that another ſuch ſtroke, from Great-Britain, would probably have abſolutely annihilated the company as a trading corporation, for one 20 or 30 years at leaſt.—But, ſince the peace, the company has ſurprizingly recovered itſelf.

That ſome tolerable judgment may be made of the progreſs of this company, the following account of the number of ſhips returning annually from Pondicherry, and the value of their cargoes, may be uſeful.

Of the commerce of the French company of the Indies, ſhewing the number of ſhips returning annually from Pondicherry, and the value of their cargoes *, from 1727 to 1742 incluſive.

		Ships.		Pagoda's.
In 1727	October			
1728	January	3	—	248,265
	September			
1729	January	3	—	20,032
	September			
1730	January	3	—	248,083
	October			
1731	January	4	—	600,711
	October			
1732	January	4	—	302,006
	September			
1733	January	4	—	260,640
	September			
1734	January	4	—	392,987
	September			
1735	January	4	—	375,341
	September			
1736	January	3	—	223,484
	October			
1737	January	5	—	351,691
	October			
1738	January	5	—	522,315
	October			
1739	January	5	—	586,156
	October			
1740	January	4	—	485,732
	October			
1741	January	4	—	555,643
	October			
1742	January	7	—	954,376

* The reader is deſired to obſerve, that the ſame number of ſhips were ſent annually from Bengal as from Pondicherry, and conſequently the number of this liſt are to be doubled. He is deſired to take notice alſo, that the ſums ſet down are the prime coſt of the goods in India.—And laſtly, that the value of a pagoda is about 9 French livres, or 7 s. 6 d. ſterling; by the help of which directions, this table will be found to compreſend a ſhort hiſtory of the progreſs of this company.

From what has been ſaid, 'tis apparent, that the French have ſpared no expence, nor left untried any point of policy, to uphold their company of the Indies; and, notwithſtanding what it ſuffered in the late war, of 1740, we find they are ſtill in a flouriſhing condition. Nor can it be otherwiſe; for this company is eſtabliſhed on ſo broad a bottom, that if one branch of trade proves temporarily bad, their other branches generally make them ſome compenſation: as the intereſt of this corporation is ſo intimately interwoven with that of the ſtate, we find, upon all critical emergencies, it ſtands in need of no aids which the ſtate can afford it.

REMARKS on the FRENCH EAST-INDIA TRADE, ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, article the XI. it is ſaid, that, "In the Eaſt-Indies, Great-Britain ſhall reſtore "to France, in the condition they are now in, the different "factories which that crown poſſeſſed, as well on the coaſt "of COROMANDEL and ORIXA, as on that of MALABAR, "as alſo in BENGAL, at the beginning of the year 1749. "And his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty renounces all pretenſions "to the acquiſitions which he had made on the coaſt of CORO-

" COROMANDEL and ORIXA, ſince the ſaid beginning of " the year 1749. His moſt Chriſtian Majeſty ſhall reſtore, " on his ſide, all that he may have conquered from Great- " Britain in the Eaſt-Indies, during the preſent war; and " will expreſsly cauſe NATTAL and TAPANOULLY, in the " ISLAND OF SUMATRA, to be reſtored; he engages fur- " ther, NOT TO ERECT FORTIFICATIONS, or to keep " troops in any part of the dominions of the SUBAH OF " BENGAL. And in order to preſerve future peace on the " coaſt of COROMANDEL and ORIXA, the Engliſh and " French ſhall acknowlege MAHOMET ALLY KHAN for the " lawful NABOB of the CARNATICK, and SALABAT JING " for lawful SUBAH of the DECAN; and both parties ſhall " renounce all demands and pretenſions of ſatisfaction, with " which they might charge each other, or their INDIAN " ALLIES, for the depredations, or pillage, committed, on " the one ſide or on the other, during the war."

Of the AFRICAN TRADE of FRANCE, AS THE SAME STOOD BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

One of the greateſt advantages that this company has been to France, ſeems to be the encouragement which has been given, by means thereof, to the French ſugar-iſlands and colonies in America; for the French Senegal company (which was the African company of that nation) being united to this India company; and this company having granted them ſuch bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements, as amount to above 40,000 l. ſterling per ann. [See the article FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE] in order to enable them to carry on their African commerce to the greater advantage of the company, as well as of their ſugar-colonies; 'tis not to be admired, that the French ſhould make ſo rapid a progreſs in the trade of America, as we experienced they had done in the lare war.

But what gives the French ſtill a greater weight of intereſt in Africa than the benefit of theſe encouragements, is the company's ſole privilege of this trade, excluſive of all the other ſubjects of France. For, by virtue of theſe powers and immunities, the French have ſupplied their colonies with 10,000 of the choiceſt and moſt robuſt negroes from Anamaboe on the coaſt of Africa, to 1000 that have been carried by all the Britiſh traders to our own plantations. They have alſo incroached on our trade at Wydah, from whence they have many years carried conſiderable numbers of negroes no way inferior to thoſe brought from Anamaboe; nay, they have abſolutely excluded us from the whole trade of the Gum Coaſt, which extends between 4 and 500 miles, from Cape Blanco to the north of the river Gambia.

Before the French got poſſeſſion of the forts in the river Senegal, and on the iſlands of Arguin and Goree on the north coaſt, the Engliſh traded freely and openly to all places on that coaſt, without any moleſtation whatever: ſince the French have been in poſſeſſion of theſe forts, they have aſſumed the right and authority to EXCLUDE the Britiſh nation from theſe ports, and have actually taken and confiſcated ſuch Britiſh ſhips and veſſels as ventured to go thither.—Nay, by the authority of two forts, the one in the river Senegal, and the other in the iſland of Goree, they not only claim the excluſive right of trade, as before obſerved, but carry on a conſiderable commerce in the river Gambia, within ſight of the Britiſh fort there, and alſo to Anamaboe, within ſight of Cape Coaſt Caſtle, the principal Britiſh fort on the Gold Coaſt. How beneficial this uncontroulable right to the whole African trade, as it were, the French have many years uſurped, has really proved to the French ſugar-colonies in America, will appear under the article FRENCH AMERICA, where we ſhall deſcend to particulars, more minutely than we can do under this head. And if they gain their point with regard to the iſlands of St Lucia, Dominico, St Vincent, and Tobago, the fate of the Britiſh ſugar-colonies muſt be depolorable.

Particular REMARKS on the trade of FRANCE in general, as before given, and the manifeſt tendency of the extent thereof, and their SCHEMES OF POWER to arrive at UNIVERSAL MONARCHY; as the ſame was given before the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE of 1763.

From the plain narrative which we have given of the trade of France (and which we have crowded into as few ſheets as poſſible) the following obſervations will naturally occur.

That for many years before, as well as ſince the treaty of Utrecht, the ſteady ſyſtem of the French court, under all adminiſtrations, has been the advancement of their commerce and navigation in general.—This is indubitably true, from the ſeries of facts we have laid before the reader, and more eſpecially with regard to the great point of the WOOLEN MANUFACTORIES of this nation: which, as they have met with ſuch unparalleled encouragement from the ſtate in their firſt eſtabliſhment, ſo their progreſs has been equally admirable, and the great perfection to which they have arofe in their fabrics, is no leſs extraordinary.

We have ſeen likewiſe, that the kingdom of France in Europe is very happily ſituated for commerce and navigation; and in order to leſſen the price of carriage of all merchandizes throughout their dominions, they have ſpared no expence to add artificial to their natural navigable rivers. In order alſo to keep down THE PRICE OF LABOUR AMOMG THEIR MANUFACTURERS, TO THE END THAT THEIR MERCHANDIZE MAY BE AFFORDED CHEAPER TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES THAN THOSE OF OTHER NATIONS, THEY BUY UP PLENTY OF GRAIN, WHEN CHEAP, TO SELL TO THE POOR, WHEN DEAR, AT THE ORDINARY PRICES.

From variety of inſtances throughout this work it further appears, that they have grudged no expence, nor left unpractiſed any meaſures, to obtain the moſt ingenious workmen and manufacturers from all countries, whence they could allure them, in order effectually to eſtabliſh the credit and reputation of their own manufactories.—They have, in particular, highly encouraged the imitation of the woollen fabrics of every kind in this nation, and have alſo invented no little variety of their own; which they have wiſely adapted to the taſte and climate of other nations, to encourage their exportation.—By the former, and the uſe of THE COUNTERFEIT ARTS OF PRACTISING THE MANNER AND CUSTOMS OF THE ENGLISH MANUFACTURERS, IN EVERY CIRCUMSTANCE RELATING TO THEIR MANUFACTURES; by theſe and other artifices before intimated, they at firſt deluded foreign nations into the purchaſe of their fabrics; and, by the quality and cheapneſs of them ſince, have ſupplanted this kingdom at foreign markets far more, I am afraid, than we are yet thoroughly ſenſible of, though the decay and complaints of our manufacturers too evidently manifeſt the truth thereof.

'Tis obſervable, throughout the regulations of the commerce of France, that the meaneſt trade, as well as the higheſt, is under ſome proper and rational rules for it's good government, and wiſe regulation, even from the BIRD-CATCHER to the greateſt manufacturer and artiſt, and to the ſupreme merchant: this is evident from manifold inſtances throughout our undertaking: and theſe regulations are ſo calculated, as to put theſe artiſts and manufacturers under the neceſſity of excelling in their reſpective employments; the ſtate well knowing, that their ingenuity is the ſoul of all their commerce and navigation; for that nation, which can beat all others in the quality, as well as the price of their commodities, will carry away the trade from the reſt.

That the meaſures taken by France for the raiſing of her commerce to the pitch it is now manifeſtly advanced, may appear; we ſhall cite ſome parts of various of their royal edicts and ordinances, which have been iſſued by authority for theſe ſalutary purpoſes, they being too little known in theſe kingdoms, even by our great ſtateſmen themſelves. See FRENCH AMERICA, alſo.

Of ſome of the meaſures taken in FRANCE for the promotion of COMMERCE, extracted from the introduction to the French TARIFF of 1664.

' But finding that theſe abatements [of taxes] would only ' leſſen the preſent miſeries, and give our people the oppor- ' tunity to live with more eaſe, but did not tend to bring in ' wealth from abroad, and that trade alone is capable of ' bringing this to paſs: for this purpoſe we have therefore ' from the beginning applied to the proper means to ſupport, ' encourage, and increaſe the ſame, and to give all poſſible ' eaſe to our ſubjects therein: and, in order thereunto, have ' cauſed a general inquiſition to be made into all the tolls ' which are raiſed upon all the rivers in our kingdom, which ' any way hinder the commerce, or the tranſporting goods ' and merchandizes from place to place; and having inquired ' into all the pretences every-where made for the raiſing and ' levying the ſaid tolls, we have ſuppreſſed ſo many of them, ' that the navigation of our rivers is thereby made extraor- ' dinary eaſy.

' At the ſame time we have eſtabliſhed commiſſaries in all ' our provinces, to examine the dues of all our communities ' or corporations; upon which we have made ſuch regula- ' tions as would reduce the ſame for the preſent, and after- ' wards intirely diſcharge them: and in the mean time, we ' have given a general liberty of trade to all people, which ' they have been deprived of by the violences aforeſaid.— ' After this, we have endeavoured to cauſe all our bridges, ' cauſeways, moles, banks, piers, and other public buildings, ' to be repaired; the bad condition whereof have been a great ' hindrance to trade, and to the carrying of merchandize from ' place to place. Alſo we have powerfully eſtabliſhed the ' ſafety and liberty of the highways, appointing ſeveral pu- ' niſhments to highwaymen, and obliging the provoſts of ' our couſins, the marſhals of France, to a careful diſcharge ' of their office.

' And, after having thus done every thing that was in our

' power

'power to reſtore trade within the kingdom, we have applied the greateſt of our care for the encouraging of navigation and commerce alſo without, as the only means to inrich our ſubjects. To this end, having found by experience that foreigners had made themſelves maſters of all the trade by ſea, nay even of the coaſting trade from port to port, of our kingdom; and yet the ſmall number of ſhips which remained in the poſſeſſion of our ſubjects, were every day taken juſt at our own doors, as well in the Levant Seas as in the Weſtern Ocean; we have eſtabliſhed the impoſition of 50 ſols per ton, on the freight of all foreign ſhips, at the ſame time diſcharging thoſe of our ſubjects; encouraging them thereby to build and fit out ſufficient numbers of ſhips for their coaſting trade. At the ſame time we have put to ſea ſo conſiderable a fleet both of ſhips and gallies, as ſhould oblige the coaſters of Barbary to keep their ports and places of retreat. And, the better to ſuppreſs all manner of piracy, we have reſolved to attack them in their own country; to the end that, having fortified ſome conſiderable ports, we might be able to keep the ſame in poſſeſſion.

'At the ſame time, we have ſecured the navigation of our ſubjects againſt all other pirates, by allowing them convoys of our men of war. We have fortified and augmented the French colonies ſettled in Canada, and the iſlands of America *, by having ſent our ſhips thither, making them acknowlege our authority, by ſettling our courts of juſtice among them. Alſo we have laid the foundation for the ſettlement of our Eaſt-India and Weſt-India companies, which are now ſet up in our kingdom, to our entire ſatisfaction.

* This was the firſt effectual eſtabliſhment of the French colonies in America.

'But, although theſe great things are very much to our ſatisfaction, yet the ſaid love which we have for our people, and it is every day ſtirring us up to forget what is paſſed, and to look forward to what may be further done, to the increaſe of their happineſs, we have reſolved to erect a COUNCIL OF TRADE *, to meet in our preſence, and to employ to that end one of the councils of the finances, which, for that purpoſe, we ſhall diſſolve: in which council of trade ſhall be conſidered all the means poſſible for the increaſe and encouragement of trade, both within and without our kingdom, and alſo of manufactures; which having been happily performed in the firſt day of their meeting, we have made known to all our companies, as well ſovereign as inferior, to all governors of provinces, and their intendants, how tender a regard we have to the proſperity of the ſaid commerce, with orders to them to employ all that authority which we have committed to them, for the protection of the merchants, and to do juſtice to them, even with preference to others, that they may not be injured or cheated, or any way diſcouraged in their buſineſs. And we have, by circular letters, invited the merchants to addreſs themſelves directly to us, upon all occaſions; and to depute ſome of their body near our perſon, to preſent to us their memorials and petitions; and in caſe of difficulty, we have appointed a perſon to receive all their petitions, and ſollicit for them at our expence. And we have ordained there ſhall always be a houſe appointed for that purpoſe. We have alſo reſolved to employ a million of livres yearly for the ſettling of manufactures, and the increaſe of navigation. But, as the moſt effectual means for the reſtoring of trade is the leſſening and regulating the duties upon goods and merchandize coming in and going out of the kingdom we have appointed our truſty and well-beloved the Sieur Colbert ‡, counſellor in our royal council, and intendant in our finances,' &c.

* This was another admirable eſtabliſhment, for the benefit of trade, and has been productive of unſpeakable advantages to France. This council conſiſted of ſome of the principal officers of ſtate (as the comptroller-general of the finances, ſecretary of ſtate, and other particular counſellors of ſtate) who communicate what paſſes at this council to the royal council, as occaſion may require. The council of commerce conſiſts of 12 of the principal merchants of the kingdom, or ſuch who have been a long time in trade: of this number two are of the town of Paris, and each of the other 10 are of the towns of Rouen, Bourdeaux, Lyons, Marſeilles, Rochelle, Nantes, St Malo, Liſle, Bayonne, and Dunkirk; and they are elected annually by the corporation and magiſtrates of the town; and the trading merchants in each of the ſaid towns; and every one of theſe towns has a chamber of commerce within itſelf, which hear repreſentations concerning abuſes and difficulties in trade, and alſo complaints concerning impoſitions in trade, by governors, and other public officers in the French plantations, which are repreſented by them to their reſpective deputies, elected as aforeſaid.

‡ This great miniſter of ſtate having been frequently mentioned throughout this work, it may be ſatisfactory to our readers to give ſome account of him.

John Baptiſt Colbert, born in 1625. He was the ſon of a wine-merchant at Rheims, in Champaigne, and roſe to be comptroller-general of the finances under Lewis XIV, who knew how to diſtinguiſh merit, and reward it. M. Colbert was equally able and fortunate; he had a prodigious genius, and to vaſt natural parts added indefatigable application. The diſcharge of his duty, the good of France, the glory of his maſter, were all the objects of his attention; and the toil he underwent, joined to his emulation of the famous marquis de Louvois, is ſaid to have occaſioned his death, on the 6th of September, 1683, at the age of 58.

To encourage the woollen manufactures of Languedoc, and facilitate their vent in the eaſt, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty, by an arret of October 3, 1712, granted the manufacturers and merchants of that province an exemption from the duty upon cocheneal imported, as far as 210 quintals annually, under certain reſtrictions.

Senſible of the bad quality of the ſilk brought to France from the Eaſt-Indies and China, and that the commodities made of it were very defective, and brought under diſreputation ſuch as were made in the kingdom of good French, Spaniſh, or Italian ſilk, the importation of ſilk from China or the Indies, as well as the ſilks from thoſe parts, was prohibited by an arret of March 13, 1714.

His moſt Chriſtian majeſty, deſirous that the province of Languedoc be well ſupplied with wool for their manufactories, by an arret of April 7, 1714, prohibited the buying up the wool in the ſaid province, to ſend abroad, under pain of confiſcation, and a fine of 250 l. ſterling.

His majeſty, in conſideration there was great quantity of grain in Languedoc the laſt harveſt, and a favourable proſpect of fine crops the next ſeaſon, by an arret of Auguſt 1703, permitted them to export grain to foreign countries free of all duty.

By an arret of September 9, 1713, his moſt Chriſtian majeſty granted an exemption from the duties of imports, for 10 years, upon bacalao, and oils that ſhould proceed from the fiſhery of his own ſubjects, in L'Iſle Royal, before called Cape Breton, in order to encourage the trade and fiſhery, but under certain reſtrictions.

And, by another arret of December 30, 1713, his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty permitted ſuch of his own ſubjects as were engaged in the fiſhery of bacalao, to export free of duty, the ſtores, arms, ammunition, utenſils, wine and proviſions, that ſhould be ſhipped on board the veſſels employed in the ſaid fiſhery, as alſo the ſalt neceſſary to cure their fiſh.

Several other very eſſential proviſions made by the moſt Chriſtian king Lewis XIV, both in favour of trade and navigation, and other points of civil government.

The reign of Lewis XIV. has left ſo many illuſtrious examples to future ages, to ſhew how to inſure the ſame ſucceſs he himſelf obtained in the grand affair of commerce, and other policies of civil government, that I have thought proper to ſubjoin a ſhort account, ſays the wiſe Spaniard Uztariz, which I gave myſelf of that great monarch, in my approbation of a book mentioned above, under the title of, The Commerce of Holland, and of the reaſons for the tranſlation of it at Madrid in the year 1717, and referred to me by the royal council of Caſtile.

'This monarch obſerving that the indulgences allowed to the 'people on pretence of fairs, to facilitate buying and ſelling, 'or the barter of the fruits and commodities of their own 'country, were abuſed and converted to the advantage of foreigners, and a great injury to the trade of his own ſubjects, he reformed alſo this diſorder, by ſeveral regulations 'and wiſe proviſions.

'In every province he appointed commiſſioners, to examine 'into the debts and charges upon every trading company; 'the condition, management, and diſpoſal of their revenues, 'and what charges and expences might be remitted. Thus, 'by a thorough acquaintance with the ſituation, he formed 'general and particular rules, to prevent diſorders, eaſe their 'charge and expence, pay off their debts, and ſettle regular 'payments for the future, appointing officers of zeal and 'abilities to do it annually; by which proviſions and relief, 'the people found themſelves in a condition to improve their 'commerce.

'He ordered the repair of bridges, cauſeways, pavements, 'and other public works, that were in ſo wretched a condition as to render travelling difficult, and the carriage of 'merchandize expenſive.

'He ordered his ports to be repaired, enlarged, and protected in both ſeas, and new ones to be made, and executed 'his ſchemes with all the ſucceſs and perfection the event 'manifeſts.

'He inſtituted ſeveral academies, under the direction of able 'engineers, to inſtruct youth in coſmography, the art of navigation, fortification, and the other branches of mathematics which have a reference to war, either by ſea or land, 'not omitting the architecture, or building of ſhips.

'He cauſed to be drawn up very preciſe and well-adjuſted 'ordinances, for the ſervice, diſcipline, polity, pay and fitting out of his fleet, the building of his ſhips, the government and preſervation of the ports, and for the eſtabliſhment and direction of the arſenals, docks, and magazines.

'He gave alſo ſtated rules for the navigation, freights, contracts, polity, fitting out, and other concerns of merchantmen, and the form of traffic in them, and deciding all their cauſes and diſputes in theſe and any other points, by a ſhort proceſs.

'He made ſome rivers navigable, and opened ſeveral canals, with the deſign of conveying, at the leaſt expence, both outwards and inwards, the merchandize and fruits of his ſeveral provinces, that they might mutually ſupply each other, without the heavy charge in tranſporting them from place to place by horſes and carriages; and laſtly, proved the greatneſs of his ſoul, as well as power, in uniting the two ſeas by means of long and expenſive canals.

'He invited and encouraged the nobles, either in ſingle or in partnerſhip, to embark in trade as merchants, by ſea and land, declaring that it ſhould never be any imputation upon their honour.

'He ordered theſe proviſions and maxims, ſuitable to his royal pleaſure, to be communicated to the tribunals, both in the capital and out of it, as alſo to the governors-general of the provinces, to the intendants, and trading companies of the principal cities and towns, ſhewing them the particular attention his majeſty gave to this great affair, and ſtrictly enjoining them to exert the authority he had inveſted in them, for the encouragement and protection of all traders and merchants, by adminiſtring juſtice to them in a brief manner in preference to all others, that they might not be drawn away from their buſineſs by the chicanery and tricks of the law.

'He baniſhed idleneſs, by employing the poor and vagabonds to advantage, and made ſeveral other ordinances and proviſions, that rendered his reign happy and glorious; but theſe I have not thought proper to mention here, as I confine myſelf to ſuch as relate to the point in hand.

'But what gave life and ſpirit to all theſe proviſions, was the reputation of the government, and the good faith he eſtabliſhed and maintained by a certain and punctual execution of his propoſals and reſolutions, and a ſacred obſervance of all contracts and agreements made with the trading companies, men of buſineſs, and others. And it was alſo a great encouragement, that his Majeſty's whole life was a continued and vigilant protection of commerce and navigation, and imitated by the miniſters he had choſen for this important direction, and whom he alſo encouraged not only with repeated favours, but alſo ſupported againſt the ſtruggles of envy and emulation; and without ſuch a powerful ſupport, all his eſtabliſhments, though ſolid, prudent, and intereſting, as the happy effects manifeſted, would have been defeated.'

The particular protection commerce has received from ſeveral great kings of FRANCE.

I think it alſo not unſeaſonable to inſert here the ſubſtance of what Lewis Morreri, in his Hiſtorical Dictionary, of the impreſſion 1718, ſays in regard to commerce, on which ſubject he has among others the following reflections:

'Commerce is carried on within a kingdom, and in foreign parts. This powerful means of enriching ſtates has engaged and become the care of moſt kings, ſovereign princes, and republics. Under the government of the firſt line of French kings, who reigned from the year 418 down to 751, it is not known what ſtate of trade was, becauſe thoſe princes, regarding only conqueſts, were more attentive to the profeſſion of arms, than to enrich the kingdom by traffic and commerce with foreigners. Charles the Great, the ſecond prince of the ſecond line, deſirous of having commerce flouriſh, created an office of king of the merchants, with an inſpection and ſuperintendency over all perſons of that denomination, whoſe juriſdiction was exerciſed by deputies in every province and city of note.

'The great chamberlain, an officer of the crown, and who had already the juriſdiction of arts and manufactories, was appointed in lieu of king of the merchants by Francis I. in 1544. The father of arts and letters was the firſt of our kings, that projected the introduction of trade into France by diſtant voyages into the remote parts of the world.

'By the orders he gave to admiral Chabot, Cape Breton was diſcovered, as far as Florida and Virginia, as alſo the Marannan, and Canada in America.

'He reſolved to fit out ſhips for the Eaſt-Indies, but his wars with Charles V. prevented it.

'In 1545, the employment of grand chamberlain of France was vacant by the death of Charles duke of Orleans, and his father king Francis I. annihilated the office, and revived that of king of the merchants, which continued till Henry the Great put an end to it, in 1587, and took upon himſelf the charge of commerce, and was very zealous in it, ſetting up a fabric of tapeſtry in the Gobelines, in the ſuburbs of St Marcel at Paris, and another of gilt leather-hangings in the ſuburbs of St Honoré and Jacques; the mills of Eſtampe to ſplit and cut iron; a manufacture of gold and ſilver ſtuffs in the royal palace; thoſe of gawſe, &c. in Mante; of glaſs at Paris and at Nevers, in imitation of thoſe at Venice, and ſeveral other uſeful manufactures.

'He formed alſo a council of commerce made up of miniſters out of ſeveral tribunals, in which was debated and decided every thing relating to trade.

'In 1607, he appointed a new officer of maſter viſitor and reformer-general, to inſpect all the manufactories, which made up the principal branches of commerce.

'Lewis XIV. has added, in his conqueſts, plenty and riches in the kingdom, making the commerce of the French flouriſh in all the four quarters of the world. The vigilance of Monſ. Colbert contributed very much to this grand point.'

I ſhall not dwell longer here upon repreſenting all the meaſures that this kingdom has uniformly and uninterruptedly taken for above this century paſt, in order to raiſe their trade and navigation to the height it is at preſent arrived to: this work will not admit of my ſaying all under one head; but the reader will pleaſe to obſerve, that under every capital branch of trade, we do not deal in generals, but ſo far deſcend, and in ſuch a manner, to particulars, as is requiſite to give a proper idea of the commercial policy of this nation, and that from facts that appear to be inconteſtible. But if our authorities are not authentic, or if our intelligence is erroneous, or if we are miſtaken in point of judgment, in the deduction of conſequences, we ſhall moſt thankfully be ſet to rights, by thoſe who are better informed and have ſuperior diſcernment; for we have no motives to induce us to impoſe viſionary things upon our readers, nor rancour to influence us to miſrepreſent any thing to ſerve temporary turns.

We have declared ourſelves not to have any glimmering of antipathy againſt the French, conſidered as a nation: on the contrary, we admire them as a wiſe, a judicious, an induſtrious people: their ſtateſmen, the world knows, do not want heads to contrive, or hearts and hands to execute, the greateſt deſigns. If they were in general as upright in their negociations with other nations, as they are ſanguine in promoting the intereſt and glory of their own, at the expence of, or on the ruin of others, their ſtateſmen would not be leſs admired for their honour, than the nation in general is for it's wiſdom and politeneſs.—But long experience hath convinced the whole world, as well as England in particular, that this is not the caſe; for, inſtead of acting upon the ſquare, they act upon the round of chicanery, upon principles that no nation can long maintain friendſhip with them.—In a word, their politicians ſeem to be ſucceſſively trained up in the grand arts of ———, and to ſo ſuperlative a degree, that they ſcarce ever fail to outwit or deceive thoſe of all other nations, as might be ſhewn in numberleſs inſtances; but that is not my buſineſs.—All that I aim at, is no more than to excite my countrymen to be as vigilant and zealous in advancing their own commerce and navigation, as the French have been to deſtroy them. If, indeed, they can fairly beat us out of the trade of the world by their ſuperior induſtry and ingenuity, not by ſuperior craft and Machivilian policy, they would deſerve to be our maſters, and we to become their vaſſals.—But this is far from the caſe. Our artiſts and manufacturers, properly encouraged, are a match for thoſe of any nation whatſoever; nor do our merchants want ſkill and penetration to extend our commerce to the remoteſt parts of the globe, nor our repreſentatives wiſdom and ſagacity to regulate and advance it to the utmoſt, when the true ſtate of any branch of trade is faithfully laid before them for their conſideration.

But let the wiſdom of the Britiſh legiſlature be ever ſo profound, and their zeal in the great cauſe of commerce ever ſo warm; let our ſtateſmen and our ambaſſadors be ever ſo ſagacious, yet, while this nation ſhall act towards France perfectly conſiſtent with the principles of reaſon, conſiſtent with her treaties and the national faith: while this ſhall be the irreproachable conduct of Great-Britain towards France, and all other nations, and a conduct the reverſe hereof is ſhewn towards this kingdom, are we not under theſe circumſtances, whenever this ſhall happen, obliged to be upon our guard in negociating with ſuch nations, that we may not be perfidiouſly tricked out of our commerce and poſſeſſions, which we have been ſo many centuries in raiſing?

That France, in particular, has not for many years acted by this nation as ſhe ought to have done, is apparent enough from what ſhe has done, and what ſhe is ſtill attempting to do, in North America, to the great injury of the Britiſh colonies there. For the truth of which, ſee our articles BRITISH AMERICA and FLORIDA.—And, for the further injury ſhe had endeavoured to do, and is ſtill attempting to do to our ſugar-colonies, ſee what we have under the former of theſe articles, with regard to St Lucia, St Vincent, Tobago, and Diminico.—For what incroachments alſo they have made upon our trade on the Gum Coaſt of Africa, and how they have uſurped the right of trade at the Britiſh ſettlement of Wydah, and in the river Gambia, and at Anamaboe; and how, in conſequence thereof, they have aggrandized their own ſugar-colonies at the expence of ours, by ſupplanting us in this capital branch of trade at foreign markets; ſee the articles ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AMERICA and GUINEA TRADE. See alſo our maps of NORTH AMERICA, of AFRICA, and our particular map

of

of the forts and ſettlements in Africa, belonging to the ſeveral European powers, as alſo that of the GOLD COAST. If theſe things are candidly and impartially examined into, we conceive it will appear, that no nation has ſuffered ſo much in her commerce, by French policy, as Great-Britain: and as it will alſo appear preſently, that this reſtleſs kingdom is ſtill ſteadily purſuing the ſame ſyſtem, which they have many years been governed by; is it not requiſite that we ſhould be duly apprized and alarmed of the danger?

In order to cheriſh and ſupport the ſpirit of trade in France, hear what one of their moſt judicious writers urges, and of which Britons ought to make a proper uſe: 'What would 'become of the nobility and eccleſiaſtical eſtates, ſays this 'gentleman *, were they not ſupported by labourers and 'traders? This is what we may learn from a noble lord, 'one of the firſt quality in France, a good patriot and great 'miniſter, I mean the duke of Sully; who, in his Oeconomies Royalis & Servitudes Loyales, expreſſes himſelf to this 'purpoſe. After having pleaded the cauſe of the nobility, 'he ſays, It will, however, be found true, if all circum'ſtances are minutely and well examined, that this body, 'with all it's pomp and ſplendor, whatever they may proudly 'boaſt, would become not only uſeleſs, but even dangerous 'to the ſtate, were they once deſtitute of the aid, ſupport, 'and aſſiſtance, which they derive from the merchants, ar'tiſts, ſhepherds, and labourers. Thus that great man lays 'out the advantages of the one and the other, and concludes, 'That, as to the bleſſings and conveniencies of human life, 'a ſovereign ſtate could more eaſily diſpenſe with the church'men, nobles, officers of juſtice, and all thoſe who are con'cerned in the management of the revenue, than with mer'chants, artiſts, ſhepherds, and labourers.

* Reflections politiques ſur les finances.

'Why not then give more honour, eſteem, and protection, 'to a profeſſion which is ſo beneficial to us? Why not an'nex to it degrees of diſtinction and preferment, ſuch as 'would hinder thoſe whoſe talents are moſt proper and uſeful 'for it, from leaving it, to buy titles and diſtinctions, which 'are not to be got in their body? This evil is not perceived 'by us, nor do we give ſufficient attention to it: it is, how'ever, an obſtacle to our trade, and conſequently to the 'power of the ſtate. If from the faint parallel I have drawn 'between the ſervices of the nobility, and thoſe of the trading 'part of the nation, we will balance them with equity and 'free from prejudice, both will be found uſeful and honour'able; we ſhall ſee that prudence and capacity are no leſs 'neceſſary to carry on a great trade and extenſive navigation 'with advantage, than valour and prudence to conduct a 'company or regiment. Nay, I know not whether the 'ſtate ought to make ſo great a diſtinction between the action 'of an officer, who defeats, either in perſon or by his orders, 'ſome troops of the enemy, and the action of a trader, who 'in time of war builds and fits out one or more ſhips at his 'own expence, commands them himſelf, or appoints cap'tains over them, to fall upon the enemies of the ſtate, pur'ſue them and conquer them, with the hazard of being van'quiſhed in a bloody and obſtinate engagement; if victori'ous, he brings his prize into France, frequently very richly 'loaden; from this the public reaps advantage as well as the 'trader: to me it would ſeem there is no leſs valour on the 'one ſide than on the other; they both weaken the enemies 'of the ſtate: why then are the honours and rewards ſo dif'ferent?

'In ſhort, maritime trade, and in wholeſale, has nothing in 'itſelf but what is honourable. Antiquity furniſhes us with 'illuſtrious teſtimonies, in favour of thoſe who practiſed it. 'Solomon, king of Iſrael, according to ſcripture hiſtory, 'carried on a great trade abroad. Solon, that great legiſla'tor of Athens *, who was of one of the nobleſt families in 'that flouriſhing republic, being by the father's ſide de'ſcended from Codrus, the laſt king of Athens †, in order 'to repair the decays of fortune, into which his family was 'fallen by the exceſſive liberality of his father, choſe rather 'to carry on trade, than to take money from rich perſons, 'who offered him large ſums, and promiſed never to allow 'him to be in want. Now, at that time, ſays Plutarch, ac'cording to Madam Dacier's tranſlation, after Heſiod, no 'handicraft was ſhameful, no art or trade made any diſ'tinction between men. Merchandice eſpecially was ho'nourable, becauſe it opens a communication with barba'rous nations, affords the means of making friendſhip and 'alliance with kings, and leads to the knowledge of an in'finite deal of things which would be unknown without it. 'There have been merchants founders of great cities, as 'Protus, who founded Marſeilles, after having gained the 'friendſhip and eſteem of the Gauls, who live upon the 'banks of the Rhone. We are told alſo, that the wiſe 'Thales and Hippocrates, the mathematicians, applied 'themſelves to commerce, and that Plato defrayed the 'charges of his journey into Egypt, by ſelling oil in that 'country.

* He lived 598 years before Chriſt.
† Plutarch's Life of Solon.

'Cato, the cenſor *, that Roman Demoſthenes, a man of 'ſuch rigid and delicate ſentiments of virtue and honour, 'thought it not below him to acquire an eſtate by commerce: 'wholeſale trade, he ſaid, depended chiefly upon the mind, 'whereas trade in retail gave only employment to the hands. 'As all the acts of the mind are noble, the laws, which have 'neglected the diſtinction and illuſtration of trade in retail 'for certain moral reaſons, have honoured and diſtinguiſhed 'wholeſale trade.

* Plutarch's Life of Cato. He lived 196 years before Chriſt.

'According to Cicero †, trade in retail is mean and ſordid, 'but wholeſale trade is not: this brings from all places in the 'world commodities and plenty; it requires genius and 'prudence, and 'tis as uſeful to the public as medicine, ar'chitecture, &c. which Cicero reckons honourable.

† Offic. lib. I. towards the end: he lived 78 years before Chriſt.

'As a proof that commerce had nothing in it baſe and dero'gatory among the Romans, the emperor Pertinax exerciſed 'it the greateſt part of his life, and even after he was em'peror ‡.

‡ Hiſtory of the commerce and navigation of the Antients, by M. Huet, chap. 57.

'Caracalla, in the cruel maſſacre he cauſed to be made at 'Alexandria, had great regard to the body of merchants, 'who were very numerous in that city: in giving orders to 'all foreigners to remove from it, he excepted the merchants, 'and allowed them to ſtay there at liberty. Alexander Se'verus, from a view to make trade flouriſh at Rome, and to 'bring in merchants thither, granted them large immunities. 'Maximinus himſelf carried on trade with the Goths, &c. 'We may find a great many other examples, had we a mind 'to ſeek after them, which would ſhew us, that great men 'have thought it no diſparagement to them to acquire eſtates 'by trading; ſuch examples are common among the Greeks 'and Romans, and theſe people had as delicate notions of 'honour as we. The Engliſh, the Dutch, &c. have the ſame 'ſentiments in this reſpect, as the old Greeks and Romans. 'Why we ſhould not imitate them, is what I cannot ac'count for. The Venetians, in order to train up the ſons 'of their nobility in the knowledge of the navy, oblige the 'merchant ſhips that ſail into foreign countries to take al'ways two of them, whom the captain is obliged to main'tain at his table, without being bound to any work, but 'only to take notice how the ſhip is wrought, and what ob'ſervations are made by the pilots.

'In fine, maritime trade was ſo honourable among the an'tients, that the emperors granted it a particular protection. 'They honoured the cities that ſignalized themſelves in com'merce, or in building ſhips, or that were famous for ſome 'conſiderable ſea-port. Theſe cities cauſed their medals to 'be ſtamped either with a ſhip, or with a prow, or ſome'times with a Neptune and his trident, or with a dolphin. 'Such were the medals of Tyre ‖ and Sidon, of Bizantium, 'of Leucate, Chelidonium, Syracuſe, &c. Hiſtory of the 'Commerce and Navigation of the Antients, chap. xlvi.

‖ The ſcripture, Ezek. xxvii. furniſhes us with a glorious teſtimony of the riches and maritime forces of the city of Tyre, which the prophet extols as well as her ſailors, her ſhipping, her great trade, &c. But this might be the old Tyre. The new city far ſurpaſſed it, according to the late M. Huet, in his Hiſtory of the Commerce and Navigation of the Antients, chap. viii. According to Herodotus, the Tyrians came from the Lydians.

'France, as well as the Roman empire, has maritime and 'trading towns that deſerve medals, and are undoubtedly of 'conſequence to be honoured and protected, becauſe they 'have ſignalized themſelves in trade, and by building of ſhips. 'Nay, ſhe has ſome that have done more, and, though they 'have neither lands nor manufacture, have found a way to 'carry on navigation. They are accuſtomed to hazards; 'their ſhips have braved the dangers of the main; they have 'grown formidable to their neighbours by harraſſing them 'continually, and by weakening them to ſuch a degree, that 'thoſe enemies, in revenge of their loſſes, ſwore the de'ſtruction of one of thoſe cities; and to that effect, invent'ed that formidable machine, ſo celebrated, which was to 'reduce it into aſhes. What wonders have been done by the 'courageous inhabitants of that city, equally diſtinguiſhed 'in it's warlike and trading capacity, in defiance to all the 'efforts of the enemies to the crown? Bounded to ſome 'rocks, they had found a way to render it inacceſſible on all 'ſides, to build fortreſſes, which ſecure their port; in a word, 'to make their rocks a prodigy of art, and an eternal monu'ment of a genius for war, matched with a genius for trade. 'How many excellent ſea-captains have been produced in 'that city, and ſome others like it, which cultivated trade! 'How many ſhips have they built and fitted out! what noble 'ſailors! what excellent artiſts! how many young com-

batants

'batants have they trained up! and then, how much gold 'and ſilver have they brought into the kingdom! Their ſhips, 'happily arriving from the South Sea in 1709, brought 'home gold and ſilver bullion to the amount of thirty mil-'lions, which were a ſupply to the ſtate of ſo much the more 'importance, as thoſe cities lent the king fifteen millions in 'a very preſſing exigence. This is what we are told by the 'maſter of the finances himſelf, in the 13th page of his Me-'moir. What ſpoils of the enemy have thoſe trading towns 'brought home, ruining the commerce of our neighbours, 'and ſecuring our own! Shall the nobility, then, moſt of 'them, live idly in their caſtles, be thought more ſerviceable 'to the ſtate, more brave, more warlike, than thoſe heroic 'citizens? How would the republics of Genoa and Rome 'have heaped honours and rewards upon citizens ſo worthy 'of that name!

'The maritime forces of the Romans contributed not a little 'to their great power. Accordingly we ſee in the digeſts 'ſome laws, which inform us how much they applied them-'ſelves to ſea affairs in certain conjunctures, even during 'the heat of their wars. The exemptions from all muni-'cipal charges, which they granted to the citizens to invite 'them to build ſhips and cultivate trade, are invincible proofs 'of their having been perfectly ſenſible, that maritime force 'and commerce were neceſſary to the preſervation and ad-'vancement of their power.

'Cardinal Richlieu, who had ſo extenſive views for aggran-'dizing the ſtate, found no way more effectual to promote 'the power of the king and the riches of the nation, than 'to improve navigation and trade; and indeed there is no 'other that can bring us in gold and ſilver. That great 'ſtateſman ſhews us, very well, the neceſſity and uſefulneſs 'of a power by ſea *. According to him, trade has a ne-'ceſſary dependence upon that maritime power.

* The Political Teſtament, chap. 9.

'After having ſhewn the advantages which the Engliſh 'would have over us [the French] if our weakneſs by ſea 'ſhould cut us off from all means of attempting any thing 'to their prejudice, he cites, by way of example, the inſult 'offered by that proud nation to the duke of Sully, ſent by 'Henry IV. into England, in quality of ambaſſador extra-'ordinary; and he counſels Lewis XIII. to put himſelf in 'ſuch a poſture, that he may not ſuffer the like again. He 'ſhews all the advantages of a powerful navy; he proves 'the uſefulneſs of it and of trade, by the example of the 'Dutch, who owe their power only to their navy and their 'trade. It was in time of his miniſtry, that Lewis XIII. 'made that glorious ſtatute of February the 1ſt, 1629; 'where, in order to induce the ſubjects to carry on ſea trade, 'he declared by the 452d article, That the gentlemen who 'ſhould apply themſelves to commerce in their own per-'ſons, or by ſubſtitution of others, ſhould derogate nothing 'from their nobility, &c.

'It was upon theſe ſame principles that the great Colbert, 'that faithful miniſter, protected arts and manufactures. 'There were at that time in France a great many factors 'and commiſſioners from foreign nations, and very few tra-'ders. He looked upon ſocieties or companies, as the moſt 'proper means at firſt to engage the French to carry on trade 'by themſelves: and as, among all the examples of com-'merce that are extant in ſeveral parts of the world, there is 'none richer nor more conſiderable than that of the Eaſt-'Indies, he diſcovered thereby the importance of naviga-'tion and of long voyages; he obſerved, that thoſe voyages 'not only were indications of the power of a ſtate, but alſo 'an infallible means of introducing plenty into it. He was 'of opinion, therefore, that it ſuited with the glory of the 'king and the intereſts of his people, to undertake that trade, 'which Henry IV. and Lewis XIII. could not carry to it's 'perfection. He determined the king to form the ſame de-'ſign in 1664, and to ſpare nothing for the accompliſhment 'of ſo great a work, which might be ranked among the moſt 'famous tranſactions of the reign of Lewis le Grand. He 'formed an Eaſt-India company, he protected it with all his 'power, aſſiſted it with his money, and took upon himſelf 'the heavieſt charges of the execution, though he would have 'no ſhare in the profits of the ſucceſs. You will even find, 'in Father Charlevoix the jeſuit's Hiſtory of Japan, that, 'knowing the Japaneſe received into their ports only Dutch 'ſhips, and would traffic neither with the Spaniards nor the 'Portugueſe, upon account of their profeſſing the Catholic 'religion, whereby they became odious to them, this mini-'ſter propoſed, that the emperor of Japan ſhould be told, 'that the king of France had a great many ſubjects who fol-'lowed the religion of the Dutch, and that, if he thought 'fit, the king would ſend ſhips to him manned by none but 'thoſe of that religion. This is called thinking like a mi-'niſter. The project, however, did not ſucceed, by reaſon 'of the prejudice of the Japaneſe government, which is ter-'ribly apprehenſive of foreigners, having got intelligence of 'what paſſed in the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies.

'In this manner did that great miniſter encourage traders to 'apply themſelves to maritime commerce, and to build ſhips 'proper for long voyages. That company was not the only 'one he formed; he eſtabliſhed one for the Weſt-Indies, for 'the trade in the Levant, and for that in the North Seas. 'He laid out himſelf for the improvement of our old manu-'factures, he eſtabliſhed new ones; in fine, he gave power-'ful protection to trade, arts, and manufactures, which he 'juſtly conſidered as the moſt effectual means to encreaſe the 'power of the king, and the riches of the kingdom. And, 'indeed, to ſay it over again, there is no other way that can 'bring us in gold and ſilver.

'Monſ. Colbert had the ſatisfaction to ſee that his endeavours 'were not uſeleſs; he left trade in a flouriſhing ſtate: and 'though, as we have ſeen, the Eaſt-India company, after 'his time, laboured under great difficulties, yet theſe are, 'ſince, ſurprizingly overcome.

'Navigation, ſays the ſame judicious French writer, which 'is the ſoul of commerce, procures always a vaſt profit to 'the ſtate. The building of ſhips, their victualling and ſtores, 'conſiderable articles of expence, which being laid out with-'in the ſtate, furniſh ſeveral inhabitants with the means of 'living and enriching themſelves. It employs all the inhabi-'tants of the ſea-coaſts, who can hardly be uſeful in any 'other capacity, and, for want of this navigation, are in a 'manner neceſſitated to ſerve in foreign countries *; this is 'what happened, whenever we gave over our ſea-trade. By 'loſing them we ſuſtain a double loſs; our coaſts become de-'ſolate, our navigation languiſhes, and that of our foreign 'neighbours encreaſes at our expence. Prohibitions againſt 'ſailors going out of the kingdom are uſeleſs: they are bred 'only to ſailing, the ſea is their element; if we do not em-'ploy them that way ourſelves, no prohibitions will prevent 'their going elſewhere to ſeek for employment.'

* It is obſervable, that there are fewer of French ſailors in the ſervice of other nations (though they are extremely numerous, as we ſhall ſhew under the article SAILORS) than of any maritime country whatſoever, they having full employment for them always in their own kingdom.

Then this author continues to ſhew, with great judgment, the ſtate of the French fleet in the year 1681, the moſt flouriſhing one that France ever had; but as entering into this matter would lead us too far at preſent, we ſhall conſider this point under the article of NAVAL POWER.

That the grand ſyſtem of policy in France, is ſtill to encreaſe her commerce, and raiſe her maritime power, beyond thoſe of England and Holland, appears from the concurring ſentiments of all their ableſt French writers themſelves, upon theſe topics.—Monſieur Deſlander ſays, in his addreſs to his late excellency the count de Maurepas, ſecretary of ſtate, and of the marine in France, 'I cannot help telling you, ſir, that ma-'ritime power is the pillar, the ſupport of the ſtate; and 'that when it ſhall be numerous, and under a proper regu-'lation, it will be able to give law to all the maritime pow-'ers in Europe, the ſtate itſelf will be ſecure, and have no-'thing to fear.'—And in another place, he ſays, 'All the 'nations of antiquity, that were deſirous of raiſing an univer-'ſal reputation, and to diſtinguiſh themſelves above others, 'have cultivated a maritime force; and the more they have 'cultivated it, the greater power and authority they ac-'quired. Amongſt the Greeks, Themiſtocles, and Pom-'pey amongſt the Romans, ſaid loudly, that whoever would 'command on the continent, muſt begin by gaining the 'command on the ſea.' And again he obſerves, in another place,

'That, from the beginning of this monarchy, we have al-'ways underſtood, in France, the utility of a maritime 'power not only under the more politic reigns, but even in 'the midſt of thoſe revolutions, with which it has been ſome-'times ſhaken, that our greateſt kings have ſought to eſtabliſh 'it, and that the moſt judicious of our miniſters have like-'wiſe bent all their ſtudy, all their induſtry that way; but 'divers obſtacles have, from time to time, riſen and prevent-'ed their councils taking effect. The honour of eſtabliſhing 'a maritime power ſeems to have been due to cardinal Rich-'lieu, as the perfecting of it was to Lewis XIV. ſeconded 'by the great Colbert, whom ſciences, arts, genius, and ma-'nufactures acknowledge for their creator.'

To keep up the ſpirit of commerce and maritime power, this author further urges, 'That, of all the kingdoms of Europe, 'France is that which has the greateſt reſources, and poſſeſſes 'more advantages than any other, for rendering a maritime 'power flouriſhing; and that it is likewiſe that kingdom, 'which, of all the reſt, ſtands moſt in need of ſuch a force, 'on account of the large extent of it's coaſts, and it's many 'ports and havens.' 'It is one of my old griefs, ſays the 'great cardinal d'Oſſat, and one of the moſt notorious and 'ſhameful failings in the firſt kingdom of Chriſtendom, 'flanked by two ſeas, and ſeated, by nature, in the faireſt 'and moſt advantageous part of Europe, for executing, 'aſſiſting, or thwarting all great enterprizes, either by ſea or 'land: it is, I ſay, one of my old griefs, to ſee that this 'kingdom is wanting to herſelf.'

'The

'The laſt of this gentleman's propoſitions is, that maritime power, ſupported by the royal authority, ſhould ſerve to protect commerce, to extend it, to gain it, every day, freſh acquiſitions, and that commerce ſhould ſerve to introduce abundance, and, by ſpreading riches through the whole kingdom, render it as powerful as it is poſſible it ſhould be. Never, ſays Maximilian de Bethune, duke of Sully, never ſhall the kings of France, ſupported by the brave and warlike people whom God has ſubjected to their authority, unleſs they place their principal delight in augmenting the grandeur, trade, reputation, and indiſputed pre-eminence of the French monarchy, arrive, without difficulty, at being ſole arbiters of Chriſtendom, and giving abſolute law to their neighbours, by their prudence, and by their alliances.'

'As to the advantages, ſays this author elſewhere, which regard the marine, and which France may find in her own proper boſom, they may be reduced to four; of which, the firſt, without contradiction, is her ſituation, the moſt commodious, and the moſt advantageous that can be in the world, as well for attacking as defending, for diſturbing the commerce of others, as for cultivating her own, ſending to all places, and receiving trading veſſels from all parts of the earth. Hence it was ſaid to the late Czar, Peter I, whoſe head was always full of vaſt projects, and to the king of Sweden, Charles XII, that, if any kingdom could aſpire to be the miſtreſs of all her neighbours, it muſt be France. In effect, ſhe is placed in the middle of Europe, nothing can impede, nothing can prove an obſtacle to her. She commands, on one ſide, over the ocean, and it ſeems, by the vaſt extent of her coaſts, by their turnings and windings, that the ſeas of Spain, Germany, and Flanders, ſtruggle to pay her homage *; on the other, ſhe is bounded by the Mediterranean, looking full upon Barbary, having on her right hand, Spain; at her left, Nice, Genoa. the dominions of the grand duke, and all the reſt of Italy. What a ſituation is this, if we knew how to make uſe of it, and of opening our eyes to our intereſt, we no longer languiſh in ſoft effeminate idleneſs!

* Hear, Britons, are not theſe alarming ſentiments?

'The Engliſh and the Dutch are forced to ſtrike out far for whatever is neceſſary to them, and are conſtrained to put out to ſea, in order to reconnoitre and attack their enemies; whereas France is able to attack them, as it were, hand in hand, to combat with advantage, and to retire with eaſe, which are advantages of no ſmall conſequence at ſea, where dangers are ſo frequent and ſo ſudden. But what is ſtill more, foreign veſſels, that return from long voyages, worn and beaten by the winds, and by the tempeſts, foul in themſelves, and weakly manned, paſs, as it were, under our eyes, before, in the view, and at the mercy of France, as cardinal d'Oſſat obſerves, and in ſpite of themſelves, muſt approach our coaſts. One may eaſily judge what a facility this gives, of carrying them off, or at leaſt diſturbing their navigation, which muſt turn, ſays the ſame cardinal, to the profit and commodity, to the ſafety, grandeur, and reputation of the crown.

'A wiſe prince, continues he, and one who has regard to his intereſt, ought to watch attentively over every thing that may contribute to the ſervice, or prejudice of his crown. He ought, with the ſame vigilance, to weigh daily the preſent ſituation of his own kingdom, and of the other kingdoms that ſurround him. While the ballance continues even, an eaſy and pleaſant union will certainly reign; but, as ſoon as this fails, quarrels, animoſities, and diſſentions will ariſe, and will encreaſe. France is too clear-ſighted ever to be ignorant of the extent of her power, and nothing can enrage her more ſenſibly, than to ſuſpect her being ignorant of it.

'The ſecond advantage in which we ought to think ourſelves happy, is the ſecurity of our coaſts, which, in a manner, defend themſelves, and which have hitherto defeated all the deſcents that ever were attempted on them. Witneſs thoſe that admiral Tromp would have made in 1674, not only at the mouths of the Loire, and of the Groyne, but along the coaſts of Bretagne, Poitou, Saintongue, and Guienne. He found that all was ſo well guarded, and that every-where ſo good orders were given, that he durſt attempt nothing conſiderable. Witneſs again, the deſcent attempted by my lord Berkley, in 1694, at Camaret, in which the Engliſh loſt upwards of 1200 men with general Talmaſh, who commanded the troops that were debarked. The French, however, oppoſed him with no more than two independent companies of marines, and the militia appointed for the defence of the coaſt. Piqued at this unfortunate expedition, lord Berkley attempted ſeveral other deſcents on Normandy and Flanders, none of which, however, were attended with any better ſucceſs.'—So much for the ſelf-ſecurity of the French. Theſe writers ſeem to think, that they have nought to do with the defenſive; their policy is only to act offenſively, and to bring other nations under their ſubjection! Theſe are the ſentiments of thoſe able French writers, within theſe few years; the one even ſince the late war, the other only a few years before it.

A man of genius, and one well acquainted with the intrigues of Lewis XIII, aſſures us, that the cardinal miniſter received with the beſt grace in the world, whatever propoſitions were made him on the ſubject of commerce; that he excited the principal merchants in the kingdom to travel into foreign countries, in order to examine there the moſt curious manufactures, and to penetrate the ſecrets of particular traders; that, beſides this, he brought, at his own expence, ſeveral rich traders into France, ſuch as Nicholas Witte, of Alcmaer in Holland; Francis Billoty of Bruſſels; John de Meurier, lord of St Remi de Redon, in Bretagne; with whom he was wont to retire, and to ſpend ſeveral hours together in a free converſation.—There he weighed all the forces of the kingdom, entered into the moſt perplexed calculations, and the moſt laborious enquiries; the principal deſign of which was, to bring over foreign manufactories, and naturalize them in France.—Theſe are the meaſures, by which France has aroſe aroſe to that greatneſs of commerce and maritime power, we now ſee, with aſtoniſhment, they poſſeſs.

That Britons may have a true idea of the grand ſyſtem of France, with reſpect to the increaſe of their commerce and maritime power, from the time of Richlieu to the preſent day, under every adminiſtration ſince; we cannot give it in ſo narrow a compaſs, as by quoting an excellent Engliſh author of authority, intitled, Britannia Languens, or a Diſcourſe of Trade, publiſhed in the year 1680; who lets us into the great ſecret of the cabinet councils of France; and their notorious conduct ſince, will ſhew this to be the great key to all their myſteries of ſtate, let the pretence be ever ſo much otherwiſe.

This author mentions a treatiſe, written by a gentleman bred under Monſ. Colbert, which he gave to the King in manuſcript, and which coming afterwards to be printed, about the year 1664, the gentleman fell into diſgrace, and was ſent to the Baſtile, and afterwards baniſhed *; out of which he quotes ſeveral paſſages, part whereof will be worth tranſcribing, to ſhew the projects entertained by the French, in order to eſtabliſh manufactories, and raiſe a naval power, and plain the way to an univerſal monarchy; ſuch as: 'The ſtate is no further powerful, than in proportion to it's public treaſure.—The foundation of the wealth of a ſtate conſiſts in the multitude of it's ſubjects; for it is men that till the ground; that produce manufactures; that manage trade; that go to war; that people colonies; and, in a word, that bring in money. There cannot be too great a number of huſbandmen in France ‡, by reaſon of the fertility of the country to produce corn, which may be tranſported, and therefore we ought to make great ſtores of it, and have it, as much as may be, in readineſs.—Handicrafts-men and artificers [See the article ARTIFICERS] are no leſs uſeful; for, beſides that manufactories do keep men at work, they are the cauſe that the ſilk, wool, ſkins, flax, timber, and other commodities that grow in France, are made uſe of; which being wrought up into wares, not made in foreign parts, the country people find a vent for them. And we may grow further into the making of more valuable manufactures, as we now do of hats for Spain, and ſtuffs for all Europe; a matter of great conſequence: for this quickens trade, and makes money paſs to and fro, which promotes the public, and therefore every one's private advantage †. There muſt be merchants ‖ alſo; for without their induſtry, our commodities might be locked up in warehouſes. All things conſpire to give France hopes of ſucceſs; the work, however, is ſuch as muſt be leiſurely carried on, and perfected by little and little, ſo great a deſign continually alarming Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America, friends and foes, the precipitation of it would be it's ruin: ſix or ten years time ought to be allowed for it.—The king may keep 100 gallies and 100 ſhips in the Mediterranean, and 200 ſail upon the ocean: the more veſſels he ſhall have, the more able he muſt be to recover the expences made about them: the ſea will yield maintenance for the ſea, by commerce or war: there is timber in France; there is cordage; there are ſails; there is iron and braſs, &c.

* This was for ſuffering ſo extraordinary an affair to become public.

‡ The French have wonderfully encouraged agriculture ſince Colbert's time.

† Have they not done this to admiration, as we have juſt ſeen in our narrative of the trade of France? and is not this demonſtrably confirmed, in numberleſs other parts of this work, from particular indubitable inſtances?

‖ Have we not ſeen what mighty encouragement they have given to merchants, as well as manufacturers, within this period?

'When things have taken their courſe, ſeamen will be had in time, and the profit that will increaſe, will afford ſtore, and bring them in from all the parts of the world [a]. The fleets which the king needs keep upon the ocean, will

'make him maſter of all the powers and trade of the north: 'yea, though Holland and England ſhould unite againſt 'France, they could not avoid their ruin in the end; for, 'how could the one or the other make good their commerce, '(which is all they have to truſt to) if they were forced to 'keep great armada's to continue it? The point of Britain 'is the gate to enter into, and go out of the channel; fifty 'ſhips of war at Breſt would keep thoſe gates faſt ſhut, and 'they would not open them but by the king's command. 'Thus there would need no war to be almoſt for all theſe 'things, nor his majeſty's forces hazarded: it will be ſuffi-'cient to give his orders to foreigners; nor will it be difficult 'to cut them out work in their own countries [b], and, by 'that means, ſtay their arms at home, and make them ſpend 'their ſtrength there. His majeſty's power being thus ſtrong-'ly ſettled in each ſea, it will be eaſy to ſecure the commerce 'of France, and even draw merchants thither from all parts; 'I ſay ſecure, for, 'till this be done, it will always be uncer-'tain and dangerous.—It muſt ſtudiouſly be prevented, that 'commerce introduce not, into the ſtate, ſuperfluity, exceſs, 'and luxury [c], which are often followed with ambition, 'avarice, and a dangerous corruption of manners.—It were 'to be wiſhed the king did add to this kingdom all the 'Low Countries [d] to the Rhine, which would make him 'maſter of the north ſeas. It would be convenient that he 'had Straſburg [e], to keep all Germany quiet. He had 'need to have Franche Comte [f], to lay a reſtraint upon the 'Switzers. Milan [g] is neceſſary, in reſpect of Italy. 'Genoa [h] would make the king maſter of the Mediter-'ranean ſea Sicily [i] might eaſily make an inſurrection. 'Portugal [k] is a perpetual inſtrument for weakening Spain. 'The Venetians [l] and people of Italy are wiſe; to reduce 'them to our intention, we muſt work by downright force. 'The pope will ever reſpect France, becauſe of the county 'of Avignon [m]. Holland will keep themſelves to our al-'liance, as much as poſſibly they may: they are rich, it is 'expedient the king did interpoſe in their affairs, and that 'ſome diviſions [n] were ſown among them. The Switzers 'are mercenary, who will always ſerve the king for his mo-'ney [o]. The king of Denmark [p] is a prince whoſe 'ſtate is but ſmall. The Swedes will never break off from 'the intereſt of France [q]. We ought to conſider all the 'inſtruments which, for our money [r], we may make uſe of 'to divert the forces of England and Holland, when his ma-'jeſty makes any enterprize which pleaſes them not. The 'friendſhip of Turkey [s] is very good for France. Laſtly, 'he ſpeaks of the Engliſh as eaſy to be conquered, having no 'friends, and is poſitive, that a war with France would ruin 'them in three or four years, and that no peace ſhould be 'made with them, but upon conditions of the greateſt ad-'vantage to France [t], unleſs the king thinks fit to defer the 'execution of his projects for another time. But that the 'league with Holland ſhould be renewed, and they put into 'a belief [u], that France ſhould give them all the trade ſtill, 'becauſe they have the knowledge of it, and are propor for 'it; but that the French (as it is to be ſuggeſted) have no in-'clination that way, and nature cannot be forced [w]: they 'muſt be told they are come to the happy time for advan-'cing their affairs, and ruining their competitors in the ſo-'vereignty of the northern ſeas.'

[a] A few years after this grand ſcheme of trade and maritime power had been hatched in France, they had a very flouriſhing navy, accordingly——This navy was as ſplendid and magnificent as it was powerful. It actually conſiſted of 115 ſhips, of the firſt, ſecond, third, fourth, and fifth rates; of 24 ſmall frigates, 8 fire-ſhips, 10 barcalongas, and 22 pinks; making, in all, 179 ſhips, conſiſting of 7080 pieces of cannon, 1028 major-officers, 7955 marine-officers, 20618, mariners, 10904 ſoldiers, the whole crew being 39477, (the 1028 major officers not included.)

[b] Are not the ſeeds of diſſention ſo effectually ſowed by ſomebody in Holland, that this republic is ſo ſinking, in it's commerce, as to implore the Almighty, in their daily public prayers, to proſper the ſame? And is not their marine in a languiſhing condition? And have not rebellions alſo been cheriſhed in Great Britain?

[c] France does not only, at preſent, ſupply themſelves with all thoſe woollen manufactures which they formerly took from England, and exclude the luxuries of other nations from their dominions, but they ſupply them with their own ſuperfluities; which are the greateſt luxuries to foreign countries.

[d] Have they not had this in their power, and how far are they off the ſame at this juncture?

[e] Straſburg was a city of Germany, before this ſcheme was formed, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, capital of Alſace, ſituate near the weſt bank of the river Rhine, 55 miles weſt of Stutgart, and 60 miles eaſt of Nancy in Lorrain, a free imperial city and ſovereign ſtate, till it was treacherouſly ſurprized by the French, anno 1682, in conſequence of the grand project. It had then a great and flouriſhing trade, and the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed there; but they have ever ſince been obliged to ſubmit to French tyranny and bigotry. Their new maſters have improved nothing but the fortifications, which are very formidable; and as long as the French are poſſeſſed of this capital (which, in a manner, commands Alſace, and gives the French an eaſy paſſage into Swabia) the Germans will never be at reſt long.

[f] Franche Comte, or the county of Burgundy, was part of the duchy of Burgundy, and ſubject to the Spaniſh branch of the houſe of Auſtria, before this ſcheme, but taken from them by Lewis XIV, and confirmed to France by the treaty of Nimeguen, anno 1678. It is now a principality of France, is bounded by Lorrain on the north, by Alſace and Switzerland on the eaſt, by La Braſſe and the Bugey on the ſouth, and by the duchy of Burgundy, and part of Champaigne, on the weſt.

[g] Milan, a duchy in Italy, bounded by Switzerland on the north, by the territory of Venice, and the duchies of Mantua and Parma, on the eaſt, by the Appenine mountains, which ſeparate it from Genoa, on the ſouth, and by Piedmont on the weſt, being about 80 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, well watered with lakes and rivers, a temperate air, and the whole country one fruitful plain, almoſt abounding with corn, wine, and delicious fruits, intermixed with great numbers of fine towns and villages, and ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.—This part of the grand ſyſtem the French have not hitherto accompliſhed: yet they have ſtruggled hard for it, but Italy has hitherto proved the grave of the French.

[h] Genoa, a republic in Italy, well enough known.——In order to perpetrate the grand French ſcheme, Lewis XIV. ordered the city to be beat about their ears, but it has been ſince rebuilt to great advantage, with reſpect both to beauty and ſtrength.—When the Spaniards poſſeſſed Milan and Naples, this republic was obliged to be governed by Spaniſh councils, and, when the Auſtrians poſſeſs thoſe countries, they influence their affairs, which frequently draws on them the reſentment of other powers, particularly the French, who have not only bombarded their towns, but obſtructed their foreign trade; and their formidable fleets, which heretofore gained ſo many victories over the Greeks, the Venetians, Turks, Spaniards, &c. and ſettled ſo many colonies in Aſia, and the Euxine ſea, are now dwindled, and chiefly by the power and policy of France, to a few paultry gallies; and when they would have increaſed them, it has been ſaid, that the French commanded them to forbear at their peril.—When the doge of this republic is elected, a crown of gold is ſet on his head, and a ſcepter in his right hand, as king of Corſica, which iſland is ſubject to this republic.—This iſland lies in the Mediterranean, between 8 and 10 degrees of eaſt longitude, from London, and between 41 and 43 degrees of north latitude, about 100 miles ſouth of Genoa.—As the wars and machinations of France have reduced this republic already to a very low condition, and as the French have got footing in the iſland of Corſica, we may reaſonably enough believe, that, as the grand ſcheme ſays, in order to become maſters of the Mediterranean ſea, they would be glad themſelves to be maſters of all the Genoeſe territories, let their pretenſions to the contrary be what they will.

[i] Sicily, the largeſt of the Italian iſlands, ſituate between 12 and 16 degrees of eaſt longitude, from London, and between 37 and 39 degrees of north latitude; it lies in a warm, but pleaſant, healthful climate, being conſtantly refreſhed by cool breezes from the ſea, or the mountains. It is exceeding fruitful, which has occaſioned it's being called the grainery of Rome.—It's produce is corn, wine, oil, ſilk, and excellent fruits, of which they export great quantities.—It lies very convenient for the Turky trade, and the preſent king has opened a trade thither, which they never had before to ſignify.—This iſland, doubtleſs, would be mighty convenient for the French, but it may occaſionally anſwer their purpoſe, to make inſurrections only, as the ſcheme ſays, to weaken Italy, when it ſuits their purpoſe. Portugal [k] is to be played againſt that crown, and the Venetians [l], it ſeems, they think to be too wiſe to bend, but by dint of force.

[m] Avignon, a large city of Provence in France, and the capital of the territory of Venaiſſine, ſubject to the pope.—Here is an univerſity, and an inquiſition, we may ſuppoſe, to pleaſure the pope, there being none in any other part of France.

[n] Whether diviſions have been ſowed by France in Holland, to diſtract their councils and ſink the ſtate, or no, we leave others to determine, who are acquainted with the myſteries of ſtate, and judges of the preſent condition of that republic. [See the articles FLANDERS and HOLLAND.]

[o] The French are ſeldom without many thouſands of theſe hired troops in their pay: and, to induce them to enter into the ſervice, they have, in France, extraordinary privileges and immunities.

[p] Though theſe great politicians ſeem to quite overlook the kingdom of Denmark, as an inſignificant ſtate; yet, the face of that kingdom is changed, ſince the firſt broaching of this ſcheme; and, being bleſſed with a wiſe prince on the throne, who is daily advancing the trading intereſt and power of his people, and has above 50,000 good troops at his command, Denmark may be made inſtrumental, in ſome ſhape, to thwart thoſe parts of this great deſign, which remain unexecuted.

[q] The French, perhaps, are too ſanguine, to imagine that they ſhall always be able to purchaſe the friendſhip of Sweden. The preſent prince is wiſe and good, and knows the true intereſt of his kingdom, as well as numbers of wiſe, brave, and incorrupt Swedes; who, however they may temporize occaſionally, will hardly deſert the proteſtant intereſt, when they find it in imminent danger.

[r] Engaging ſubſidies, and money otherwiſe properly applied, may, and certainly will, do mighty things towards the

the completion of this great deſign; and, very probably, the ſegacious application of Louiſdors has proved a bewitching charm to many mean and beggarly princes, to become the dupes of this enterprizing court. It is pity, however, but ſuch ſhould become eternal and ignominious ſlaves themſelves, who will fall in with ſchemes to enſlave all Chriſtendom.—But if the wiſe ſtates of Holland will act heartily and zealouſly, in concert with the meaſures of Great Britain, to ſupport their common trade and liberties, [See the article FISHERIES] the proteſtant-trading intereſt may ſtill be more than a match for that of the popiſh-trading-intereſt, which is ſurprizingly gaining ground every day. See the articles BISCAY, CASTILE, CATALONIA, and SPAIN, ITALY, PORTUGAL, and all the chief trading nations in EUROPE.

[s] The friendſhip of Turky is good for France, it ſeems, becauſe ſhe can play the Turks againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and the Muſcovites, when it ſuits her ſyſtem. Certain it is, that ſuch is the policy of this nation, that they have the art of inſinuating themſelves, ſome how, into the good liking of the great men of moſt courts, that they rarely miſcarry in their ſtate intrigues: whether it be owing to their ſuperior addreſs and urbanity of their public miniſters, or being better ſkilled, in general, in the pleaſing arts of b——y and in——gue, or more profuſe in their preſents, or living with more pomp and magnificence, than the appointments of the miniſters of other nations will admit them to do in foreign courts, which gives a more exalted idea of their monarch, we know not: true, however, it is, that they are, in the general, more ſucceſsful in their negociations, and commonly jockey their brethren of other countries; who are obliged, at length, to obtain that by mere dint of fighting, which the other can accompliſh by intrigue.

If this may be attributed to the extraordinary advantages of a French education, as a late French writer, with great vanity, would inſinuate (L'Eſprit des Nations), it is the beſt apology that can be made, perhaps, for the travel, at leaſt, of our nobility and gentry into that inchanting kingdom. But we rather aſcribe this to the great power of F——h G——d, than to judgment and addreſs ſo infinitely ſuperior to thoſe, which other public miniſters may be endowed with.

[t] However omnipotent we Britons may preſume to think ourſelves, it is certain that France thinks quite otherwiſe, and their conduct has often ſhewn it within theſe few years But, before ever the grand ſtroke of reducing this kingdom to a ſtate of vaſſalage to France is to be ſtruck, it is no bad policy to try our ſtrength, and effectualry to feel the pulſe of thoſe who pretend inviolable attachment to the French intereſt.—And, we may reaſonably enough ſuppoſe, the rebellions that have been excited, ſince the preſent eſtabliſhment took place, have been faint eſſays only, tending to try the experiment, at length, effectually: and, if ſome people, who are reckoned no ſmall fools, are not quite out in their politics, there is no intention, any more than occaſion, to make any freſh faint eſſays, but to ſtrike the grand ſtroke at laſt; for it is ſaid, it ſeems, by the Don Quixots of a neighbouring nation, Aut nunc, aut nunquam. —Is this the reaſon, why a certain perſon, that has made ſome noiſe in the world, plays at bo peep with us? Is this the reaſon too, that duſt is to be thrown in our eyes, by pretended diviſions at home while they are really dividing other nations abroad, in order the more ſucceſsfully to execute the grand ſyſtem?

[u] To this end, has Holland been ſome years made to believe only, that France would enter into alliance with them to give them the trade ſtill, by flattering them that they only have the knowledge of it, and are proper for it, and that the French (and as it is to be ſuggeſted, ſuggeſted only, indeed!) have no inclination to trade, and nature cannot be forced.

[w] Exquiſite policy truly! And, has not Holland been ſome years thus amuſed and cajoled, that they are come to the happy time for advancing their affairs, and ruining their competitors [meaning Great Britain] in the ſovereignty of the northern ſeas?

Let the eyes of Holland as well as Great Britain be at length opened! For they may both ſee clearly enough, if they will not obſtinately ſhut their eyes, the myſterious ſcheme revealed, that has been long contrived for the ruin of the trade and liberties of both nations! And, can any thing more effectually accompliſh this glorious plan, than diſtracting them in their domeſtic concerns, as well as dividing them both in friendſhip and alliance as nations? As theſe are ſome of the chief arts of conqueſt, ought not both nations moſt heartily to contemn them? The world will afford trade enough both for Holland and Britain; and, if they heartily and ſincerely unite againſt the common enemy to both, there is no great difficulty ſo to diſtreſs their trade, as to put all ſchemes for univerſal empire for ever out of their power: and nothing but this, we have reaſon to believe, will put them out of their intention.

Before we conclude theſe remarks upon this French ſyſtem, it may not be amiſs to put the reader in mind in few words, that, ſince it firſt took place, the new conqueſts and acquiſitions that France has made to her dominions are thoſe of Alſace and Lorrain on the ſide of Germany; thoſe of Artois, the Cambreſis, part of Flanders, Hainault, and Luxemburg, on the ſide of the Netherlands; and Rouſillon, formerly a part of Catalonia, on the ſide of Spain.—Beſides the mighty things they have done, and are ſtill attempting to do, in America. For confirmation of which, ſee the articles BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA: to all which may be added, to take in the whole at one view, the mighty trade they have ſettled in all parts of the world, as we have ſeen at large, and ſhall make appear more minutely in the ſequel of this work.

Further REMARKS on FRANCE.

We judging this article of the laſt importance to the commercial intereſts of Great Britain in particular, as well as Europe in general, is the reaſon we have dwelt ſo long thereupon; and, with reſpect to what may concern the practical merchant, with relation to the commerce of France, we ſhall give under the articles of thoſe provinces of France, wherein the chief trading cities of France are; as that of LYONS, under the article LYONNOIS; ROUEN, under the article NORMANDY; MARSEILLES, under the article PROVENCE; PARIS, under the article ISLE OF FRANCE, &c.

But, in order to judge ſtill more minutely of the trade and navigation of France, and of the extent of their territories, See, in particular, the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FRENCH AMERICA, and other heads, from theſe, to which we refer.

REMARKS on our article FRANCE, ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE, made in the year 1763.

We have here, with all brevity, traced the capital out-lines only of the conduct of France, both before and ſince the treaty of Utrecht, in relation to the incredible progreſs which that nation had ſucceſsfully made in their commerce and navigation before the laſt war, as well as their advances towards that UNIVERSAL EMPIRE, over Europe, with which they have been many years charged with attempting. Whether this imputation has been wrongfully laid, let the preceding ſhort ſtate of their affairs, as given before the laſt war, determine,—together with no little variety of other matter no leſs alarming, which has been interſperſed throughout the courſe of this work. See FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY, and ſuch other heads as we refer to from them.

Hence may be judged, whether it was become neceſſary to reſtrain the power and dominion of France within narrower bounds, as well for the greater ſecurity of Europe in general, as this kingdom in particular? And whether the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF 1763, has effectually done that, time will ſhew.

Moſt certain it is, that this nation has incurred an immenſe public debt by the laſt war; a debt near treble what the nation laboured under at the demiſe of queen Anne; and which has been thought inſupportable by ſome of our greater ſtateſmen.

Had the treaty of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE contributed to have lowered the creſt of our reſtleſs enemy, and reduced their power, as ought to have been done, in that war, France would not have dared inſtantly to prepare for a freſh rupture with this nation. Experiencing that they had ſuſtained little injury by ſuch a peace, and knowing that war had burthened us with a debt of THIRTY MILLIONS, and that from the weight of our additional taxes thereby occaſioned, our whole commerce was become burthened with proportionate additional incumbrances, they hoped afterwards to obtain THAT by dint of COMMERCE, which they, in that war, had not done by the SWORD.

The plan of commercial empire which they had laid for that purpoſe, appears throughout this work. They too ſuddenly attempted its execution; but judged, if they failed, by another rupture with Great Britain, that they ſhould ſtill more and more oblige her to augment their PUBLIC DEBTS, and thereby more and more compel her to load and incumber her commerce with a multiplicity of oppreſſive taxes; and in conſequence thereof, that they could not fail to gain in point of trade, what they ſhould loſe by war.—This ſeems to be the key that unlocks the political cabinet of France.—Nor can it be yet ſaid, that they are miſtaken in their ſyſtem.—For our military conqueſts ſeems to have afreſh animated them to exert and extend their commercial.—We have extended our territories, and contracted thoſe of France; we have near trebled our tax-incumbrances, and oppreſſed our trade in general.—Of this we muſt and will take advantage, ſay our politic rivals; on this we chiefly depend ſtill to beat the haughty iſlanders.

Let us not deceive ourſelves; let us not flatter ourſelves with ſecurity, when danger ſeems at hand. Are they the beſt friends to this kingdom, who point out the danger, or they who ſooth us with lethargic ſafety? To alarm the nation with falſe and viſionary fears, is what every well-intentioned man will deteſt. True it is, that for many years paſt, I have endeavoured to put my country upon it's guard.—Have not moſt of the eſſential points hitherto come to paſs, that have been prejudged by the writer hereof? and had many meaſures ſuggeſted by him, been duly adopted, they might have been inſtrumental to have prevented millions upon millions of the

the public debts we have contracted; and yet have been never the leſs victorious than we have been, nor leſs ſecure by conqueſt.—And would not our COMMERCIAL INTERESTS have been more ſecure, with many millions of leſs public debts and taxes that we at preſent labour under?

The danger we are at preſent in, lies in the weight, the great and oppreſſive weight of taxes, with which our whole trade and navigation are loaded. Does not this render the whole produce and manufactures of England ſo exceſſively dear to foreign nations, that they are not able; they cannot afford to purchaſe them, however they may be inclined to it? Is not this the great objection againſt our manufactures in general, in every foreign nation, with which we have dealings? Will not this give every commercial competing nation, whoſe commodities are cheaper, an advantage over England? Can we flatter ourſelves with the continuance of our antient cuſtomers, when they can buy the like commodities from 20 to 50 per cent. cheaper? Will the ſuppoſed ſuperior quality of an Engliſh commodity obtain the preference, though ſo great a difference in the price? Is there any thing magically captivating in the term Engliſh? Let us not be vain enough to flatter ourſelves, that old cuſtoms and uſages may not be ſo eaſily laid aſide in foreign countries; have we not ſeen how France has made their advantage hereof? Have they not politically imitated every capital Engliſh manufacture, and that not only in length, and breadth, &c. but in the very manner of package, &c. and have they not, and do they not daily continue to impoſe them more or leſs in foreign nations for Engliſh commodities? And while Engliſh factors or merchants in foreign countries can diſpoſe of French commodities, by reaſon of their price, preferably to Engliſh, under the counterfeit diſguiſe of being ſuch, will they not combine with the French to carry on the deception? We know they will not ſcruple any thing of this kind, the readier to ſell their wares. And provided the difference in PRICE is greatly in favour of the ſale of the French commodities, though their QUALITIES ſhall be ſomething inferior to the Engliſh, which may not be the caſe in the general; yet their greater cheapneſs will induce foreign nations to give them the preference to real Engliſh commodities.—And by what means can practices of this nature be prevented effectually? Certainly by none ſo effectual, as by thoſe of being able to ſell as good, or even better, a commodity for as little money as any foreign nation whatever ſhall be able to do.—This will not only preſerve our old foreign cuſtomers, but attract new; and without it, we ſhall loſe our old, and obtain no new to ſupply their place.—I could wiſh that our rulers would moſt ſeriouſly think of a matter, wherein the GREATEST INTERESTS of England is concerned; think of it ſo as to deviſe all poſſible meaſures to prevent an evil ſo abſolutely ruinous and deſtructive of our whole commercial proſperity.

'Tis true, we have beat both France and Spain in the field, and we have annexed very great and extenſive new territories to the Britiſh crown; but I deſire to be informed, whether France, in particular, is not likely to beat us in their turn in point of trade, by being able to ſell their commodities conſiderably cheaper than the Engliſh will ever be able to do, while their trade is oppreſſed with ſuch a multitude of Tax—Incumbrances as the laſt and our former wars have occaſioned? France muſt and will moſt certainiy gain the commercial conqueſt, though we have the military, unleſs our ſtateſmen take and execute vigorouſly the proper meaſures to prevent it: and this without delay. For, when France have eſtabliſhed a univerſal commerce over the world, by dint of the cheaper, and faſcinating modes of many of their commodities for which they are famed, will England be able ſoon or ever to ſupplant them? Should that be ever accompliſhed, muſt it not be by lowering the prices of our Engliſh wares in general, and yet not by depreciating their quality? Becauſe, if we degenerate in quality, in order to leſſen the price, that will totally ruin, inſtead of promote, the reputation of the Engliſh; and then it would be to the diſadvantage of a rival nation to counterfeit the Façon d'Angleterre. They would raiſe their own credit upon the ruin of ours.

Provided then the exceſſive dearneſs of our commodities, compared with thoſe in general of our foreign competitors, is likely to prove deſtructive of the Engliſh trade; and that this is occaſioned by the prodigious heighth and multiplicity of our Tax— Incumbrances, is it not the natural way to remove the cauſe, that the effect may ceaſe? It requires no depth of underſtanding to ſtart this policy.

If then we ſhall not be able to ſell our Engliſh commodities to foreigners, how long ſhall we be in a capacity to buy of other nations? Not long certainly. When this comes to be our caſe, how will THE REVENUE OF CUSTOMS BE AFFECTED? If our IMPORTS DWINDLE AS OUR EXPORTS SHALL, WILL NOT THIS GREAT BRANCH OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE DECLINE IN PROPORTION?

Should our cuſtoms diminiſh in yearly produce, from one to two millions, how will the legiſlature be able to ſupply ſuch deficiency? And are not our cuſtom-houſe funds mortgaged forthepa yment of intereſt to our public creditors, for as many millions of principal money, as the diminution of the revenue ſhall amount to? Nay, are they not mortgaged for the payment of the principal, as well as intereſt of our public creditors?—But if once their intereſt funds fail, by their annihilation, will not public credit inevitably ſink, and the alarm of A GENERAL BANKRUPTCY ENSUE? For we know not when it may ſtop, when ſuch a dread ſhould take place. When the cuſtom funds ſo diminiſh, in what plight can we expect to experience our exciſe ones? If our imports decline ſo ſenſibly, will not that be a ſure criterion that our exports do? And, if that be the caſe, how will the people be able to conſume exciſed commodities? Can we reſtrain our artiſts and manufacturers from ſtealing out of the nation? What will it avail us to detain them to ſtarve?

In what condition this nation is to get rid of a competent proportion of it's TAX-INCUMBRANCES, in order to prevent ſo melancholy a cataſtrophe, is conſidered under FUNDS. See LABOUR, DUTIES.

FRANCHE COMTE, or county of BURGUNDY in France. This province is bounded on the north by Lorrain, on the eaſt by mount Jura, on the ſouth it borders on the countries of Breſſe and Burgey, and has the county of Auſſonne on the weſt.

There are in this country mines of copper, lead, iron, and ſilver: alſo mineral waters, and quarries of all ſorts; in ſome of which, are very clear and white alabaſter, black marble, and jaſper of ſeveral colours; ſome blocks of which, about Salini, are large enough for columns 12 or 15 feet high.

The ſurface of the earth produces abundance of wheat, wine, hay, flax, walnut-trees, &c. and the hills feed great quantities of cattle.

Along the rivers Soan, Doux, and Lognon, are about thirty forges, where they make a vaſt quantity of excellent iron-works, as alſo bombs and bullets. And at Beſançon and Pontarlier are a great many armourers, who work extremely well. In the hilly parts they breed a great number of horſes, which is the moſt profitable trade of this province. They make alſo here about twelve hundred thouſand pounds weight of ſaltpetre yearly, and could even make more, if required.

GRAY, on the river Soan, drives a greater trade than any other city in the province, for here they load the veſſels which carry wheat and iron to Lyons.

SALINS, is a populous city, and famous for it's ſprings of ſalt water, which are the moſt profitable produce of this province.

FRANCONIA in Germany. This duchy, which is one of the chief circles of the empire, is bounded on the north by Thuringia, Saxony, and Heſſia, on the ſouth by Swabia, on the eaſt by the palatinate of Bavaria and part of Bohemia, and on the weſt by that of the Rhine, part of Heſſia and Watteravia.

The ſoil is in ſome parts mountainous and barren, but in others very fruitful, producing corn, wine, liquorice, ſaffron, and fruits.

ERLANGEN, is a well built town, though fifty years ago it was only a little village in a foreſt of fir-trees, but owes it's flouriſhing ſtate to a colony of French people flying hither from perſecution. They have ſet up all ſorts of manufactures here, and have made it one of the prettieſt towns in Germany.

ANSPACH, is a ſmall but pretty town, and has alſo good manufactures erected by the French refugees.

WERTHEIM, trades chiefly in making of wine, with which it drives a conſiderable trade on the Mayne.

NUREMBERG, is reckoned one of the largeſt, fineſt, and richeſt cities in the empire, and the glory of Germany; and, conſidering it's great diſtance from the ſea, is the wonder of Europe for trade and number of people.

No city in the world has a greater number of curious workmen, in metal of all ſorts, ivory, wood, &c. nor affords artificial commodities ſo cheap. The Nuremberg braſs is ſaid to be the moſt ductile, the brighteſt, and leaſt ſubject to flaws of any in Europe; and is made, chiefly, out of the Tyrol copper. They are particularly famous for clock-work. The citizens began to trade to foreign parts about the year 1300, and their merchandize was not only carried throughout Europe, but to the Eaſt-Indies and America; and they have a bank on the ſame regulation almoſt, as that of Venice. Here are two annual trading fairs, [ſee the article FAIRS;] and 'twas from this part of Germany, that thoſe we called Dutch toys, uſed to be imported hither.

The Dutch, particularly the merchants of Amſterdam, carry on a great trade to Nuremberg; 'tis from thence they have ſuch incredible quantities of mercery wares and toys, which are afterwards ſent all over the world, and at ſo low a price, that 'tis not eaſy to conceive, how they can make and export them. The Dutch, in return, ſend pepper, all ſorts of ſpicery, ginger, indigo, logwood, ſugar in powder, and refined, ivory, Ruſſia leather, thin woollen ſtuffs and camblets, cloths, ſerges, flannels, India goods, muſlins, &c. The duties of exports from Nuremberg are very moderate; their fairs every year hold three weeks, during which time, all goods, of whatever value or quality, are exempt from duties; for which reaſon, all merchants, at this time, take what foreign goods they may have occaſion for: this exemption begins on Eaſter day.

The bank in this city takes in only valuable coins; all bills of exchange ought to be paid into this bank, where exchange, or returns of cash, is as low as at Amsterdam; all bills of exchange have six days grace, exclusive of Sundays and holidays. The sixth day it should be protested, lest the bill be returned while the bank is shut up, for those six days are not reckoned, but as days of favour or grace; and though there intervenes a holiday during the six days of grace, it is payable at the expiration of them, if the bank is open. There is no constant open exchange between Amsterdam and Nuremberg; that is, Amsterdam rarely draws upon Nuremberg, but Nuremberg often does upon Amsterdam, upon paying in at Nuremberg from 130 to 140 rixdollars, to receive at Amsterdam 100 rixdollars bank money: Nuremberg bills are commonly drawn 14 days after sight. The pound of Amsterdam is two in the hundred lighter than Nuremberg; so that a hundred pound of Amsterdam is equivalent to ninety-eight of Nuremberg.

100 Ells Nuremberg is 104⅓ of Amsterdam.

ROTTEMBURG on the Tauber, in the marquisate of Anspach, is a very pretty trading city.

SCHWEINFURT, on the Mayne, is neither large nor populous, but the territory belonging to it is very fertile, and said to be the richest spot in Franconia; so that the inhabitants drive a great trade in corn, which they export by water, together with woollen and linen cloth, and goose feathers.

FREIGHT, is a term of naval commerce, signifying the hire of a ship, intirely or in part, to carry goods from one port to another. It is called Nolis in the Levant.

With regard to France.

When a ship is intirely hired, and the freighter does not load it, the master may not, without his consent, or accounting for the freight, take in other goods to load his ship up.

The merchant not loading the quantity specified in the charter-party [see CHARTER-PARTY] must pay the freight as if he did; and, if he load more, must pay for that overplus.

A master, reporting his vessel of greater burden than she is, is liable to pay damages and interest to the merchant, but not unless it exceed a fortieth part.

When a ship is laded by the hundred, or ton, the merchant may unlade before the ship's departure, paying the charges of unlading, and half the freight.

The master may put on shore any goods he finds on board, that were not mentioned to him, or take what freight for them he thinks fit.

A merchant, unlading his goods during the voyage, must pay the whole freight, provided it be not the master's fault.

If a ship be detained in her voyage, or at the delivering port, by the freighter's fault, or having been freighted out and home, is forced to return light, interest for delay, and the whole freight, are due to the master; but, if it were the master's fault, he must answer damages and interests to the freighter, to be settled by persons skilled in such matters.

If a master be forced to refit during the voyage, the merchant must wait, or pay the whole freight. If the vessel cannot be refitted, the master must hire another immediately; if he cannot, he is not to have freight but in proportion as the voyage shall be advanced. If the merchant can prove the vessel was not in a condition to sail when she departed, the master loses his freight, and must answer damages and interests to the merchant.

Freight is due for goods thrown over-board at sea for the common safety, at the charge of the contribution. Freight is also due for goods the master may be forced to sell for victuals, refitting, and other pressing necessities, accounting for their value at the price the rest shall sell for.

If trade be prohibited with the country to which a ship is bound, and the master be obliged to return laden, he can only expect his freight outwards, though he were freighted both out and home: and if the ship be stopped by sovereign order during her voyage, no freight is due for the time she is detained, if by the month, nor additional freight, if by the voyage, but an average is allowed for the sailors wages and maintenance during that time.

When the person named in the bill of lading refuses to receive the goods, the master may sell them to pay freight, and lay the rest in a warehouse, but must do it by authority of justice.

The master can claim no freight for goods lost by shipwreck, or taken by pirates or enemies, and must even restore any already advanced to him, unless it be otherwise agreed; but if the ship and goods were redeemed, the master must then be paid his freight to the time of capture, even the whole freight, if he hath carried them to the intended port, contributing to the ransom of them.

The contribution for ransom is to be at the current price of the goods at the place where delivered, deducting for charges; and on the ship and freight, deducting for provisions consumed, and advances to the sailors, who must also contribute to the discharge of the freight, proportionable to what is due of their wages.

The master is also to have freight for goods saved from shipwreck, conveying them to the intended port; and if he can find no vessel to convey them, he must have freight only for so much of the voyage as is made.

A master may not detain goods on board for freight, but only at delivering oppose the transporting them, or cause them to be seized in the lighters.

The master is preferred for his freight, whether the goods be on board, in barges, or on the quay, even 15 days after delivery, provided they are not in the hands of a third person.

A merchant may not oblige the master to take for his freight goods lessened in price, spoiled by his own fault, or by chance. But if goods in casks, as wine, oil, honey, and other liquors, have leaked almost out, merchants may leave them for the freight.

No person whatever may under-freight ships at a higher price than the first contractor, on pain of fine and imprisonment, according to the case; but the freighter may, to his own profit, take freight of other goods, to load up the vessel intirely freighted by him.

These regulations are all taken from the book of marine ordinances of August 1681.

Receipt of freight is limited to one year after finishing the voyage, and after that the master cannot demand it.

The custom of Amsterdam, and other ports of the United Provinces, in freighting ships.

The brokers usually transact these affairs, to whom the merchants apply, whether they have goods sufficient to freight entirely, or only part of a ship.

When the broker has produced a proper ship, the owners and freighters bargain about the price, either by the whole, or at so much the last or ton. When they freight a whole ship, it must be expressed whether she is to be laden out and home, or to return free, or, lastly, to go light, and return laden.

It must be observed, that if the cargo is intended for foreign countries, the price must be agreed for in money there current, as in livres Tournois, if for cities of France situated on the ocean; in piasters for Marseilles, and others in the Mediterranean; in pounds sterling for Great-Britain; in cruzados for Portugal; in piasters or ducats for Spain; in marcs lubs for Hamburgh; in rixdollars for almost all the Baltic; in rubles for Muscovy, and so of others.

When a ship is freighted out and home, the freight is in florins current at Amsterdam, or other loading port.

The freighter can oblige the captain freighted by him, to shew all his dispatches, letters of mark, passports, &c. necessary for the voyage.

In war time the freighter usually furnishes the passport, if he freight the whole vessel, otherwise the captain.

To avoid all disputes in general with regard to affreightments, the agreement must be for all the ship can carry, not what the captain says she can, which often exceeds the real burthen.

When a ship is freighted for foreign countries, a charter-party must be made by a notary, to be paid by the freighter and master equally: but the master must pay the broker.

The charter-party should contain, beside the price of freight, the averages and expences to be paid by the freighter, the days of demurrage on arrival at the delivering port, the allowance for every day after, if the ship be not laden within the time agreed on.

At Amsterdam, when the ships are of too deep draught of water to pass the Pampuis, either going out or on return, the owners must find lighters; but if they are got by reason of some accident happening to the ship at going out or in of the Texel, the charges are to be accounted as average.

The master, on return, may claim his freight before delivery of the goods, but the custom is to deliver them to those who come for them, with the bill of lading indorsed by the merchant, to whom they belong; and some days after the master, or broker, make out the account of freight and averages on the back of the bill of lading, subscribing their acquittance on receiving the amount.

At Amsterdam, when they freight boats or small vessels for the neighbouring cities or provinces, the agreement with the watermen is by the last, ton, piece, or bale, or for what the boat can take in. If the boats can strike their masts, and are not too big to pass the bridges, the watermen are obliged to take in their lading before the merchant's house or warehouse; or if too large, must come as near as possible; but the goods must be brought thither at the merchants cost, who must also find all the necessary passports, &c.

'Tis customary and proper to agree with the watermen for the time they are to lie at the delivering-port, without being paid more than the freight: these days of demurrage are settled in some places.

FREIGHT, signifies also in France, a certain due of 50 sols the sea ton, paid into the offices of the king's farms, by the masters of foreign vessels, at going in or out of the several ports of the kingdom, pursuant to the declaration of June 1659.

'Tis to be observed here, that vessels, not built in France, are

accounted foreign, though belonging to the king's ſubjects, and as ſuch are liable to the payment of it, unleſs otherwiſe exempt, and two thirds of the crew are French.

By the treaty of Utrecht in April 1713, between France and the States General, Dutch veſſels were freed from this tax, and a decree made the May following to ſecure the enjoyment of this exemption to them, in all ports of France, to or from what country ſoever bound, loaden or light, except only when conveying goods from one French port to another.

By the 11th article of the treaty concluded alſo at Utrecht, the Engliſh are exempted from it, on taking off at the ſame time in favour of the French the tax of five ſols; but the execution of this act was ſuſpended, as well as the tariff propoſed between the two nations.

The veſſels of the Hanſe-Towns were alſo freed from it, in as full and ample manner as the Dutch, conformable to the fourth article of the treaty concluded at Paris in September 1716, between France and the cities of Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Bremen.

An order of the council of ſtate in France, in April 1701, regulating the payment of the duty of freight.

The king, being informed of the frequent conteſts among the commiſſioners of his farms, merchants, and maſters of ſhips, concerning the freight of 50 ſols the ton, and deſiring to put an end to them, ordaineth as follows:

Art. 1. It ſhall be paid by maſters or owners of foreign ſhips, &c. which are liable according to the import of the declaration.

2. Maſters of veſſels muſt make true reports of the burden and contents of their veſſels, &c. within 24 hours of their arrival.

3. If the commiſſioners of the farms agree not as to the number of tons reported by the maſter, it may be amicably adjuſted between the parties by the gauge of the veſſels.

4. If they cannot ſo adjuſt it, it muſt go before the judges who have cognizance of this tax, and are to cauſe admeaſurement by perſons ſkilled, but without hindrance to the unlading or departure of the veſſel.

5. The charge of admeaſurement to be borne by the farmers or their deputies.

6. If the veſſel be found not to exceed the burthen declared by the maſter, above one tenth, he is to be no otherwiſe ſentenced than to payment according to the gauge.

7. If the veſſel's burden exceed the maſter's declaration more than a tenth, he ſhall pay the tax for that exceſs, and 50 livres fine for every ton ſo exceeding the number declared, and all expences.

8. If the veſſel be found not to exceed the burthen declared by the maſters, the farmers ſhall pay all coſts and damages.

9. Maſters of foreign veſſels, &c. liable to the tax, muſt pay it at the delivering-ports, unleſs ſpecified in the charter-party, bill of lading, &c. that part of the cargo is to be delivered in one port, and part in another, or ſeveral others of the kingdom, in which caſe it ſhall be all paid at the firſt of theſe ports.

10. If, however, a foreign veſſel enter any river of the kingdom laden, on which are ſeveral ports, ſhe ſhall not be reputed to have made more than one voyage, and pay but once, namely, at the firſt ſhe begins to unlade at, though in the bills of lading, &c. but one of thoſe ports be mentioned.

11. If the maſters of veſſels lade in the firſt or other of the ports mentioned in the bills of lading, &c. goods of the kingdom, to carry them with the reſt of their cargo to ſome other ports of the kingdom, the whole tax ſhall be due at every delivering-port, though it were thoſe ſignified in the bills of lading.

12. A foreign veſſel having unladed in one or more ports of the kingdom, and pay the tax, and proceeding afterwards to load in any other port or ports of the kingdom, for foreign parts, ſhall not pay again.

13. And moreover, the ſaid ordinance of the farms of July 1681, and other regulations, concerning the tax of freight, ſhall be executed according to their form and tenor.

We have already mentioned the foreign nations exempt from this tax by treaties of commerce made with them. But it may be noted that, in time of war, the French king often grants the ſame exemption to neutral nations, in order to facilitate the trade of his ſubjects with ſtrangers. Such are, amongſt others, the Swedes and Danes, in whoſe favour Lewis XIV. made ſeveral decrees.

It may alſo be obſerved, that foreign nations, though diſcharged of this tax by their treaties, and in particular the Dutch, are nevertheleſs to pay them, if at war with France, and obtain paſſports to load wine, brandy, and other goods permitted to be exported, to import thoſe permitted by their paſſports. For this purpoſe were the decrees of October 1704, of March 1705, and of Auguſt the ſame year.

Of FREIGHT according to the laws and uſages in England.

I. Reſpect is always had herein to the ſhip itſelf, or a certain part of it. Again, merchants freight either by the month, the voyage, or the ton; for to freight a ſhip, or to take certain tonnage to freight, are different things, as are alſo to be a cap-merchant, or under freighter.

II. There was of old another way of freighting, the merchant agreeing with the maſter for a ſum, to convey his goods inſured againſt all peril, being reſponſible for any loſs, but 'tis now out of uſe.

III. Freight is governed generally by the written agreement called a charter-party, executed between the owners or maſter and merchants, or elſe by parole.

The maſter or owners generally covenant to provide a pilot, and all neceſſaries for the voyage, and for lading and delivering.

If there be agreement and earneſt, but no writing, the merchant breaking off loſeth his earneſt, but the owners or maſter double the earneſt.

But by the common law of England, the party damnified may bring his action, and recover all damages on the agreement.

If a time be appointed by charter-party, and either the ſhip be not ready to take in, or the merchant to put on board, the parties are at liberty, with remedy by action, for the detriment. [See the article CHARTER-PARTY.]

If part be on board, and ſome misfortune prevent the merchant's ſending the whole in time, the maſter may contract with another, and have freight as damage for the time they were on board longer than limited. And though it be not prudent for every merchant or maſter to break the contract, though the agreement as to lading be not according to promiſe (ſeldom or ever done, if part be aboard) yet 'tis higheſt juſtice, that ſhips and maſters be unfettered and free: as, by the bare lading of a caſk or bale, they may loſe the paſſage or ſeaſon of the year.

So on the other hand, if the veſſel is not ready, the merchant may ſhip the remainder of his goods aboard another, and recover damages againſt the firſt maſter or owners. This is grounded on the like reaſon.

Therefore, by the law marine, chance, or other notorious neceſſity, will excuſe the maſter, but he loſes his freight till he breaks ground.

But if the merchant be in fault, he muſt anſwer the damage, or be liable to maintain the crew ten days; but if after that, the full freight: if damage afterwards, 'tis the merchant's riſque. But by the common law, while the goods are on board, the maſter muſt ſee them forth-coming.

IV. Charter-parties have always, by the common law, had a genuine conſtruction as near as may be, not according to the literal ſenſe of traders, yet muſt be regularly pleaded. Wherefore, in an action of covenant on indenture of charter-party, dated Sept. 8. 38 Eliz. between the plaintiff and Francis Cherry; whoſe ſhip the plaintiff hired for a voyage to Dantzick, where (on taking the ſhip) it was agreed ſhe ſh ,uld take in corn for Leghorn. By agreement the defendant was to have half of the corn, which then was, or afterwards ſhould be laden during the voyage, covenanting to pay half of the money for it, &c. and alledgeth in fact, that Oct. 9. 38 Eliz. the ſhip was laden with ſixty laſts of corn, and for not performing this covenant the action was brought; the defendant pleaded, the deed was ſealed and delivered, Oct. 28. 38 Eliz. and, as to then or after, there was not any corn laden there, and traverſeth the delivery Oct. 9. or at any time afterwards, before 28 Oct. 38 Eliz. And it was adjudged upon demurrer, That in regard the plaintiff declared upon a deed dated Oct. 9. 38 Eliz. it ſhall be intended to have it's eſſence and delivery at that time, and no other; and if he ſhould confeſs it to be delivered at any other time, it would be a departure from his declaration, and the word (then) is referred to the delivery, and not to the date; and, if delivered ten months after the date, he ſhould not have the benefit of the corn laden before the delivery: and therefore, the defendant was adjudged not to be charged with paying for any corn before delivery of the deed, the words of the deed being, to pay for the corn then laden, &c. which (then) is referred to the time of the eſſence of the deed by the delivery, and not to the date.

Atkinſon did contract with Buckle for carriage of 100 quarters of barley, and promiſed to deliver unto him the 100 quarters of barley, a ſhip-board at Barton haven, in the county of York, to carry them for him, and for the carriage did promiſe to pay him ſo much; and Buckle did promiſe carriage, and accordingly brought his ſhip to the ſaid haven, expecting there the delivery of the barley; but Atkinſon came not to deliver it, whereupon Buckle brought his action of the caſe upon the promiſe, and, upon non aſſumpſit pleaded, had a verdict and judgment, affirmed upon a writ of error. Charter-party (i. e. a deed or writing divided) is the ſame, in civil law, with an indenture at the common law. It ſettles the agreement and bills of lading, contents of the cargo, binding the maſter to deliver them well conditioned at the place of diſcharge; and, for performance, the maſter obliges himſelf, ſhip, tackle, and furniture.

Covenant on a charter-party between Bolton owner and Lee and Morgan merchants, freighters of a ſhip, by which Bolton put to freight the ſhip in a voyage to Guinea, at 48 l.

the

the month; and there was a mutual covenant between the parties, and every one of them in manner following; and then divers covenants follow, concerning the ſhip's tackle and performance of the voyage; and then a covenant for the payment of the freight, viz. when the ſhip arrived at Guinea, the freight then due was upon notice to be paid in England, and on arrival there, the reſidue from the time of the laſt payment was to be paid. And ſaith, that at ſuch a time the ſhip arrived, and that ſix months and ten days were then paſt, which came to ſo much, of which notice was given: and that after ſuch a time the ſhip arrived at England, and the freight for ſix months, from the time of the laſt payment, and the freight came to 287 l. 4 s. and that the defendant had not paid any of the ſums, upon which the fendant demurred, and took theſe exceptions to the declaration:

1. For this, that the action is brought againſt one of the defendants only, omitting the other.

2. For that it appears on computation, the plaintiff demanded more upon the firſt breach than is due by 30 s. and leſs than is due upon the ſecond by 16 s. and though the firſt may be cured by the jurors finding leſs, or the plaintiff's releaſing the overplus, yet where he demands leſs than due, 'tis incurable; and cited ſeveral books there quoted for that purpoſe in aſſumpſit; whereas, in this caſe, only damages are to be recovered; and on the other part was cited Cro. Jac. 498. Pemberton verſus Skelton, and 529, &c. Hale chief-juſtice took a difference between this caſe of covenant and debt, and held, that after verdict it had been cured without queſtion, but upon demurrer there may be ſome doubt, it being general; but, had it been ſpecial, it had been ill, and ruled judgment.

V. If goods are fully laded, and the ſhip hath broke ground, the merchant afterwards declines the adventure, and will unlade again; by the law marine the freight is due.

And if the ſhip on her voyage become unable without the maſter's fault, or he be arreſted by ſome prince or ſtate in her voyage, he may either mend his ſhip or freight another. But if the merchant will not agree to it, the freight becomes due for what the ſhip has earned, otherwiſe the maſter is liable for all damages that ſhall happen. If therefore the ſhip to which the goods were paſſed, periſhed, the maſter ſhall anſwer; but if both periſh, he is diſcharged. But if there be extreme neceſſity, as the ſhip a ſinking, and an empty ſhip paſs by, or at hand, he may tranſlate the goods; and if that ſhip periſh, he is excuſed: but it muſt appear the ſhip ſeemed probable and ſufficient.

VI. If a ſet time be agreed on between the merchant and maſter, to begin and end the voyage, it may not be altered by the ſupercargo, without ſpecial commiſſion.

If a maſter ſhall ſail on his voyage, after the time agreed on for his departure, if damage happen afterwards, he ſhall make it good. Yet if a charter-party is made, that the plaintiff ſhall ſail from London to Liſbon with the firſt opportunity, &c. in conſideration of which the merchant covenanted for ſo much freight; the ſhip departs not with the firſt wind, yet afterwards breaks ground, and arrives at her port, the freight here is due; for nothing can debar the ſhip of it but the not departure, which only is in law traverſable, being material to avoid payment of freight.

If it be agreed, the maſter ſhall ſail from London to Leghorn in two months, if he begins the voyage within that time, though he does not arrive at Leghorn in the time, the freight is due.

Where the Eaſt-India company by charter-party might keep the ſhip a long time in India, and did till ſhe was unfit for ſervice, and could not come home, they were obliged in Chancery to pay the damage, though by the charter-party it was payable at the ſhip's return.

So where no freight was to be paid for the cargo outwards but homewards, and the factor abroad had no goods to load her homewards, payment of freight was decreed.

So though the officers and mariners gave bond not to demand wages unleſs the ſhip returned to London, ſhe arrived at the delivering-port, and was afterwards taken by the enemy. They had their wages to the delivering-port.

VII. If the ſhip be freighted from one port to another, thence to a third, &c. and ſo home to the port whence ſhe firſt ſailed (commonly called a trading voyage) 'tis all but one and the ſame voyage, if in conformity to the charter-party.

A merchant agrees to pay a maſter a certain ſum for carrying his goods to ſuch a port; in the voyage the ſhip is aſſaulted and robbed by pirates of part of her lading, and the remainder is carried to the delivering-port, yet the ſum agreed on is not due, the agreement being not performed by the maſter. But, by the civil law, this is vis major, or caſus fortuitus, there being no default in the maſter or mariners, and the ſame is in danger of the ſea, which, if not expreſſed in naval agreements, is naturally implied: for, had thoſe goods which the pirates took, been in ſtreſs of weather thrown overboard, navis levandæ cauſa, it would not have diſabled receipt of the ſum agreed on; for, by both common and marine law, the act of God, or of any enemy, ſhall no ways work a wrong in actions private.

VIII. If a ſhip freighted by the ton be full laden according to the charter-party, the freight is payable for the whole, otherwiſe for the amount of the tons only.

If freight be contracted for lading certain cattle, or the like, from Dublin to Weſt-Cheſter, if ſome die before the ſhip's arrival, the whole freight is due as well for the dead as living.

But if contracted for tranſporting them, if death happens, freight is due on delivery for the living only.

If the cattle or ſlaves are ſent abroad, and no agreement made either for lading or tranſporting them, but generally, then freight ſhall be paid for both dead and living.

If freight be contracted for women, and in the voyage they be delivered of children, no freight is due for the infants.

The charter-party ſettles the agreement, and the bills of lading the contents of the cargo, and binds the maſter to deliver them well conditioned at the place of diſcharge, according to the agreements; and, for performance, the maſter obliges himſelf, ſhip, tackle, &c.

If goods are ſent aboard, generally the freight muſt be according to freight for like voyages.

If a ſhip be freighted for 200 tons, or thereabouts, this laſt word is meant of within five tons, more or leſs, as a moiety of the number ten, of which the whole number is compounded.

If a ſhip be freighted by the great, and the burden not expreſſed, yet the ſum certain is to be paid.

IX. If the ſhip, by any fault of the freighter, as lading aboard prohibited goods, be detained, he ſhall anſwer the freight contracted.

If a ſhip be freighted out and in, no freight is due till the voyage be performed: if, therefore, the ſhip periſh coming home, the whole freight is loſt.

13 July 1680, in Chancery, a part owner of a ſhip ſued the other owners, for his ſhare of freight of a voyage finiſhed; but he would not join with the other owners in the charge of fitting her out; on which they complained in the admiralty, and were ordered to give ſecurity for the plaintiff's ſhare, if the ſhip periſhed in the voyage; in ſuch a caſe, by the law marine, and courſe of the admiralty, the plaintiff was to have no ſhare of the freight. It was referred to Sir Lionel Jenkins, who certified, that it was ſo in all places, for otherwiſe there would be no navigation; ſo the plaintiff's bill was diſmiſſed.

X. A maſter freighting his ſhip, and afterwards ſecretly taking in other goods, loſes his freight; and if any of the freighter's goods ſhould, for the ſhip's ſafety, be caſt overboard, the reſt ſhall not be ſubject to average [ſee AVERAGE] but the maſter muſt make it good: but if the goods are ſhipped unknown to him, 'tis otherwiſe, and they are ſubject to what freight the maſter thinks fit. The ſhip putting into any other port than ſhe is freighted to, the maſter ſhall anſwer damage to the merchant; but if forced in by ſtorm, enemy or pirates, he then muſt ſail to the port conditioned at his own coſts.

Generally, the touching at ſeveral ports by agreement, imports not a diverſity, but a voyage entire.

XI. If paſſengers having goods die on ſhip-board, the maſter is to inventory their concerns, which if none claim within a year, he becomes proprietor defeaſible: but the bedding and furniture become the maſter's and his mates, and the cloathing muſt be brought to the maſt-head, and there appraiſed and diſtributed amongſt the crew, as a reward for their care in ſeeing the body put into the ſea.

The captain died leaving money on board, the mate became captain, and improved the money, he ſhall, on allowance for his care, account both for intereſt and profits.

XII. The ſhip's lading, in conſtruction of law, is tacitly obliged for the freight, it being, in point of payment, preferred before any other debts to which the goods laden are liable, though ſuch were precedent to the freight, for the goods remain as it were bailed for the ſame: nor can they be attached in the maſter's hands, though it is vulgarly conceived otherwiſe.

Ships deſerve wages like a labourer; and therefore, in the eye of the law, actions, touching them, are generally conſtrued favourably, for the Ship and owners: and therefore, if four part-owners of five account with freighters, and receive the proportions, yet the fifth man may ſue ſingly both by common and marine law.

XIII. A ſhip in her voyage is taken by an enemy, and retaken by a ſhip in amity, reſtitution is made and ſhe proceeds on, the contract is not determined, though taking by the enemy diveſted the owners of their property; yet by the law of war that poſſeſſion was defeaſible, and being recovered in battle, the owners became re-inveſted: ſo the contract, by fiction of law, became as if ſhe never had been taken, and ſo the whole freight is due. Covenant by charter-party, that the ſhip ſhall return within the river Thames by a certain time (dangers of the ſea excepted) within which time ſhe is taken on the ſea. Reſolved this impediment was within the exception, the words intending as well the danger of pirates and men of war, as of the ſea, by ſhipwreck, tempeſt, or the like. Pickering and Berkley's caſe.

XIV. If

XIV. If freight be taken for 100 tons of wine, and 20 leak out, ſo that there's not above 8 inches from the buge upwards, yet the freight is due; becauſe from that gauge the king is intitled to cuſtom; but, if under 8 inches, 'tis then conceived to be in the freighter's choice to fling them up to the maſter for freight, and the merchant is diſcharged. But moſt conceive otherwiſe; for if all had leaked out (if no fault in the maſter) 'tis no reaſon the ſhip ſhould loſe her freight, which ariſes from the tonnage taken; and if the leakage was occaſioned by ſtorm, the ſame may, perhaps, come into an average. Beſides, in Bourdeaux, the maſter ſtows not the goods, but officers appointed for the purpoſe, which note. A ſpecial convention may alter the caſe.

Certainly if a ſhip freighted be caſt away, the freight vaniſhes; but if by the ton or pieces of goods, and part be ſaved, doubted whether, pro rata, ſhe ought not to be anſwered a freight.

Debt on a charter-party on a penalty; the covenant was to pay ſo much a ton freight, and breach was aſſigned on non-payment of ſo many tons and an hogſhead, which came to ſo much: on demurrer, the declaration was held to be ill, the covenant being only ſo much a ton.

XV. A merchant freights by contracting with a mariner that is not a maſter; if loſs happens, he muſt be content without remedy againſt the owners; but the mariner, perhaps, ſubjects himſelf to an action.

But if the mariner were hired or put in by the maſter or owners, there for reparation the owners become liable.

XVI. The maſter is not bound to anſwer freight to the owners for paſſengers, if they are unable to pay.

If a ſhip by charter-party, reciting to be of 200 tons burden, is taken to freight for a ſum certain, to be paid at her return, it muſt be paid, though the ſhip amounts not to that burden.

If a ſhip freighted at 20 l. every month ſhe ſhall be out, payable on arrival at London, the ſhip is caſt away coming round from the Downs, but the lading all preſerved, the freight is due: for the money is due monthly by contract, and the place mentioned only to ſhew where payment is to be made. Beſides, 'tis due on bringing the goods to London, not the ſhip.

If a man freights a ſhip out, and covenants that, with the firſt wind, ſhe ſail to Cales, covenanting, that for the freight of all the premiſſes he would pay to the maſter 184 l. the maſter not averring, the ſhip did arrive at Cales, cannot maintain an action againſt the freighter.

The maſter, entering into a charter-party for himſelf and owners, in that caſe may releaſe the freighters without adviſing with the owners; but if they let out the ſhip to freight, though the maſter ſubſcribe the charter-party, his releaſe will not bind the owners, but theirs will conclude him: the reaſon is, for that the maſter is not made a proper party to the indenture. And ſo 'twas ruled in the caſe of Scudamore and other owners of the ſhip B, of which Robert Pitman was maſter on the one part, and Vandenſtone on the other; in which indenture, the plaintiff covenanted with Vandenſtone and Pitman, and bound themſelves to the plaintiff and Pitman for performance of covenants in 600 l. and the concluſion of the indenture was,—In witneſs whereof the ſaid Robert Pitman put his hand and ſeal, and delivered the ſame, in an action for not performing certain covenants in it; the defendant pleaded Pitman's releaſe, whereupon the plaintiff demurred: and it was adjudged, that Pitman's releaſe did not bar the plaintiff, he being no party.

If an indenture of charter-party be made between A and B owners of a ſhip of the one part, and C and D merchants of the other, and A only ſeals the deed of the one part, and C and D of the other; but in the indenture A and B covenant with C and D, and C and D covenant with A and B, who in this caſe may join in action againſt C and D, though B never ſealed the deed to which he is a party, and C and D have ſealed the other part to B as well as to A.

XVII. Covenant on a charter-party, by which the maſter is to ſail with the firſt fair wind to Barcelona, and the mariners to attend with a boat to relade the ſhip, and then return with the firſt fair wind to London and deliver the goods, and the merchants covenant for ſo much freight and demurrage every day; for which the maſter brought his action, and declares he ſailed with the firſt fair wind, and upon all the other points. The defendant as to the freight, that the ſhip did not return to London, but went to Alicant and Tangier, and by theſe delays the goods were ſpoiled, and that the demurrage was occaſioned by the mariner's negligence, in not attending with the boat to relade the ſhip; to which the plaintiff demurred, the covenants being mutual and reciprocal, on which each ſhall have his action againſt the other, but not plead the breach of one in bar of another; for, perhaps, the damages of the one and of the other, are not equal.

In covenant the plaintiff declared, he covenanted to ſail with a ſhip to D in Ireland, and there take 280 of the defendant's men, and carry them to Jamaica; and defendant covenanted to have them ready, and to pay 5 l. each for their paſſage; but there were only 180 whom he carried, but defendant had not paid for them; defendant pleaded he had the 280 men ready, and tendered to the plaintiff, who would not receive them, but ſaid nothing as to carrying the 180, nor to the payment; and, for that it was not a plea at all, judgment was given for the plaintiff on demurrer.

Some general allowed maxims, in regard to Freight.

I. All articles, for freighting of ſhips, ſhall be reduced to writing, and agreed to by the merchants that freight, and the maſter or owners of the ſhips freighted.

II. The maſter ſhall obſerve the owners orders, when he freights the ſhip at the place of their reſidence.

III. The charter-party ſhall contain the name and burthen of the veſſel, of the maſter and freighters, the place and time of lading and unlading, the freight, the time the veſſel is to ſtay at the reſpective ports, and the conventions about demurrage; to which the parties may add what other conditions they pleaſe.

IV. The time of lading and unlading the goods ſhall be regulated according to the cuſtom of the reſpective ports, unleſs determined by the charter-party.

V. If a ſhip be freighted by the month, and the time of freight be not regulated by the charter-party, it ſhall only commence from the day the ſhip ſhall ſail.

VI. He who having received a ſummons in writing, to fulfil a contract, refuſes, or delays it, ſhall make good all the loſs and damage.

VII. But if, before the ſhip's departure, there ſhould happen an embargo, occaſioned by war, repriſals, or otherwiſe, with the country whither the ſhip is bound, the charter-party ſhall be diſſolved, without any damages or charges on either ſide, and the merchant ſhall pay charges of lading and unlading his goods; but if the difference be with one another, the charter-party ſhall be valid in all it's points.

VIII. If the ports be only ſhut, and the veſſels ſtopped by force, for a time, the charter-party ſhall ſtill be valid, and the maſter and merchant reciprocally obliged to expect the opening of the ports, and liberty of the ſhips, without any pretenſions for damages on either ſide.

IX. However, the merchant may, at his own charge, unlade his goods, during the embargo, or ſhutting up of the port, on condition to lade them again, or indemnify the maſter.

X. The maſter ſhall be obliged, during the voyage, to have on board the charter-party, and the other neceſſary deeds concerning his lading.

XI. The ſhip, rigging and tackle, freight and goods laded, ſhall be reſpectively affected by the conventions of the charter-party.

XII. The freight of ſhips ſhall be regulated by the charter-party, or bill of lading, whether the ſhips be freighted in whole or in part, for the voyage or the month, expreſſing the burthen by the ton, the quintal, by parts, or any other way.

XIII. If the veſſel be hired for the whole, and the freighter does not put her full lading on board, the maſter ſhall not take on board any other goods, without his conſent, or rendering him an account of the freight.

XIV. A merchant, not lading the quantity of goods mentioned by the charter-party, ſhall, notwithſtanding, pay the freight, as if he had done it; and if he lades any more, he ſhall pay freight for them.

XV. A maſter, declaring his veſſel to be of greater burthen than ſhe is, ſhall ſuſtain the damages thereby happening to the merchant.

XVI. It ſhall not be deemed an error, in the declaration of the ſhip's burthen, if the difference exceed not one fortieth part.

XVII. If the veſſel be laden by parts, by the quintal, or ton, a merchant, being deſirous to take out his goods before her departure, may do it at his own charge, paying half freight.

XVIII. A maſter may likewiſe unlade, and lay down upon the ſhore, any goods found in his ſhip, and put on board there without his knowlege, or take the freight at the higheſt rate that any goods of that quality pay.

The maſter of a ſhip, letting her to freight to the merchants, ſhould ſhew them his cordage, ropes, and ſlings, for hoiſting the goods in or out: and if they need it, he is to repair them; for if a pipe, hogſhead, or other veſſel, ſhould, by default of ſuch cordage, be ſpoiled or loſt, the maſter and mariners ought to ſatisfy the merchants. So alſo, if the ropes or ſlings break, the maſter, not ſhewing them beforehand to the merchant, muſt make good the damage: but if the merchants ſay they are good and ſufficient, and they break, in that caſe they ſhould divide the damage between them; that is to ſay, the merchant, and the maſter with his mariners.

By the 12th article of the laws of Wiſbuy, and the 7th of king Philip's, the maſter, letting his ſhip to freight, muſt ſhew her to the merchant or his agents. The conſulate requires the ſame, and that the maſter ſhould let the merchants viſit, not only the ropes, but all the ſhip above decks and below, that they may ſee what is wanting, and have it mended; and if not mended, and the merchandize be damaged, the maſter ſhall make good the loſs. The 49th article of the laws of Wiſbuy enjoin the mariners to give the maſter notice of the

faults

faults and defects in the cordage, or they ſhall be reſponſible for all accidents: and if, after ſuch notice, the maſter does not take care to have them mended, he ſhall anſwer the damage.

The Rhodian laws ordain, That the merchant, loading a ſhip, ſhall inform himſelf exactly of every thing, enquiring of thoſe who have ſailed in her before; but that is of little uſe, except as to her ſailing, for ſhips grow daily more and more out of repair, and ſhould always be viewed by the perſon going to be concerned in them, not truſting to the information of others.

Of the validity of Charter-parties, with reſpect to Freight.

If there is a charter-party in being, between the merchant and the maſter, it ſhall be valid; and though the merchant does not completely lade the ſhip, he ſhall pay the freight, according to the contents of that inſtrument.

Theſe articles want no illuſtration.

Of Lets and Impediments in Voyages.

If, the maſter having received half of the freight, and ſetting ſail, the merchant will return, notwithſtanding the charter-party, he forfeits the ſum he has paid for that impediment. But the maſter, breaking the articles, forfeits the value of the whole freight to the merchant.

Illustration.

That the reader may not miſtake the true meaning hereof, he is deſired to obſerve, that where the breach of verbal bargains is ſpoken of, the caſe is otherwiſe; whereas the penalties here are for breach of charter-parties, which are written inſtruments, ſolemnly ſigned and ſealed. And beſides, it is more properly the impediments that may happen during the voyage, that are here treated of.

If a ſhip be detained by the merchant, ten days longer than appointed by charter-party to remain in any port, he ſhall find the company in victuals and drink; and if ten days more paſs, the maſter ſhall pay the freight, and quit the ſhip, except he be willing to add a reaſonable ſum to that before agreed to; on payment of which, he may ſail as he ſees convenient.

Of freighting ſhips, and giving earneſt.

If any perſon, hiring a ſhip, and giving earneſt, ſays afterwards he has no occaſion for her, he ſhall loſe his earneſt; but if the maſter recede from the agreement, he ſhall give double the earneſt.

This article needs no explication.

Of Charter-parties.

In hiring of ſhips, the charter-parties ſhall not be valid, except they be ſealed; and the penalties may be inſerted with the conſent of the parties. But if there be no charter-party, and either the maſter or freighter go from their word: as, ſuppoſe the merchant ſhould not give the money agreed to, he muſt pay half freight to the maſter; or, if the latter break his word, he ſhall pay to the merchant half of the freight. But if the merchant pretend entirely to recede from the bargain, he ſhall pay the maſter the whole freight, as a puniſhment for breach of promiſe.

This wants no illuſtration.

Of merchants freighting a whole ſhip.

If a merchant, freighting a ſhip, agreed to lade it entirely himſelf, the maſter ſhall carry nothing in it but water, proviſions, ropes, &c. and other ſhip's neceſſary tackle. However, if the maſter will put in other goods, he may, if ſhe can carry them. But if the merchant, in preſence of three witneſſes, proteſt againſt it, and an ejection happen at ſea, the maſter ſhall ſuffer the damage; but if the merchant do not forbid it, they ſhall contribute to the damage.

Some regulations, in regard to Freight, from Old Spain to New.

1. There are two ends in building and gauging of ſhips [See the article Gauging of Ships], the one to ſerve in war, the other to tranſport commodities from one country to another. Having therefore explained the manner of ſhip-gauging, and given an account what a ton is, and how much room it fills, the next thing of courſe to treat of, ſeems to be the freight for every ton carried to or from the Indies, and how they ſettle, what ſtowage every parcel will take up, that is ſent abroad, which the maſters or merchants in Spain call valuing or rating. Freight is the price paid to the maſter or owners of the ſhip, for the carriage of goods, from one port to another; ſome will have it to be derived from the Latin word fero, to bring or carry, and others from flando, from the winds blowing, becauſe there is no ſailing without wind; but this we will leave to be decided by others.

2. All the laws relating to the form of adjuſting the bulk of commodities, are derived from an ordinance of the year 1543, when it was thought convenient to preſcribe the bulk that ſhould be allowed for every ton, that the ſhips might never be over-loaded, nor under; but there was never any rate ſet upon the freight, that being always left to the will of the owners and maſters, for their greater encouragement. Thus, formerly, the bulk that went to make up a ton was fixed, but not the price that was to be paid for it; whereas, for many years laſt paſt, it falls out quite contrary; for there is a ſettled rate to pay for freight, which is 44 ducats ſtrong, for which the maſter obliges himſelf to deliver the goods, well conditioned, in the Indies, beſides 14 ducats down, or to make good the damage. And there is no rule for computing the bulk, but the maſter and merchant judge it by the eye, computing the parcels by twelve parts; and ſo many twelves as they make, ſo many tons freight they pay, and ſo much proportionally for the anſwering of damages, which they now call valuing, as has been ſaid; and this is practiſed with all ſorts of lading, except pipes of wine, which are taken according to the ordinance, for ſix twelfths, or half a ton each; but if there be little ſtowage, there is a conſideration, either in the price, or in the owner of the pipes, lending the maſter money to fit him out. Though, conſidering the preſent practice, it ſeems needleſs to give an account of the rules formerly preſcribed, for fixing the bulk of commodities to be ſhipped, yet I will briefly acquaint the reader with it, that he may make the better judgment of the goods he may have occaſion to ſhip off.

3. The law directs, that 5 buts be reckoned 3 ton, and 2 pipes 1 ton: and it is to be obſerved, that theſe pipes are to be of the ſize appointed by the ordinances of Seville, which are to hold 27 arroves a pipe, an arrove liquid being 32 pounds. As for cheſts, that which is nine ſpans in length, four in breadth, and three in depth, is accounted two thirds of a ton. Seven ſpans long, two and a half deep, and as broad, the ſame, obſerving that theſe ſpans are to be ſuch, as four make a yard. Bales of two cloths each, ſix to a ton, of French canvas, ſix to a ton, and ſo proportionably for bigger or leſſer; iron, in ſheets, 22 quintals, or one hundred and a half weight, to pay as a ton; barrels, of an hundred weight each, 15 of them to make a ton; four hogſheads, or eight half hogſheads, to pay as a ton, unleſs they be thoſe of Santo Domingo, which take up twice the ſtowage. Small barrels of olives, 40 to a ton, and proportionably if bigger or leſs; and though one of the laws expreſſes, that 56 arroves, or quarters of an hundred caſks or jars, make a ton, it is not to be underſtood of ſo many jars, but of ſo many arroves, or quarters of an hundred, as is expreſſed in the ordinance from which that law was derived. And if they are of oil, 40 jars make a ton; though they be in jars of half an arrove; and if wine, 46 jars of an arrove and a quarter, which is the ſize according to the ordinance of Seville, make a ton, and proportionably, if they are bigger or leſs.

4. Some of the laws appoint what bulk of flag-ſtones, bricks, tiles, and ſuch things then carried to the Indies, made a ton, but there being none carried now, it is needleſs to ſpeak of them. Sixteen quintals of pitch make a ton, the ſame quantity of rigging, wine, barrels of alquitran, a bituminous matter uſed in Spain, and three large bales of paper of 60 reams each. Many other things are mentioned, which are not now carried over, and therefore we paſs them by.

5. Under the ſame head of laws, we find the court of Panama is directed to ſettle a rate for carrying the king's plate from thence to Porto Bello; and it is prohibited to carry any gold or ſilver, either coined, or any way wrought, to the Indies; the penalty is the forfeiture of all that ſhall be ſo carried. Among other things prohibited to be carried over, without his majeſty's leave, are all ſorts of arms, particularly piſtols, and all ſorts of German iron, either wrought or in bar, but only that of Biſcay is to be tranſported. There is alſo a prohibition againſt carrying over any fabulous hiſtories, or profane, or immodeſt books; and there muſt be leave from the inquiſition, for all that are carried. Books pay no duty, but that for convoys; and the new prayer-books pay neither that nor freight.

6. That the maſters of ſhips may be at full liberty to agree the beſt they can, for their freight with the merchants, it is ordained, that no commiſſioner, or officer of the India-houſe, deſire, intreat, or oblige the ſaid maſters to take on board any merchandize they have not agreed for the freight of before-hand. In the year 1656, there aroſe a controverſy concerning freight, which was, that his majeſty took up a quantity of indigo in the cuſtom-houſe, and ſent it away to Flanders. The maſters demanded the freight of the owners of the ſaid indigo, who had recourſe to the council; where it was determined, that ſuch as had received as much of the king as made the value of the freight, ſhould pay, and thoſe that had received none ſhould be forborne; which ſhews that the freight is to be paid, though the whole product of the commodity ſhould be no more than the value of it.

7. All the expence of tranſporting the plate on the South-Sea, as the carriage from Lima to Callao, houſe-rent in Panama, and removing from port Perico to the ſhore, is paid out of the king's revenue, as well that of his own plate, as that

of private perſons; and theſe only pay the carriage to the water-ſide, in the ports of the South-Sea, and half the charge of loading and unloading the plate and goods at Panama, and carrying of it to the maſter's houſe, and the goods from thence to port Perico, the maſter paying the other half upon the king's account; for there the maſters are only ſtewards of the freight, which is not their own, but the king's, and therefore they are paid all the expence they are at in managing it, and are allowed a ſalary, or conſideration, for their labour. Therefore, the practice of the North-Sea can be no precedent for the South-Sea, becauſe, in the north, the maſters are at all the expence with the plate and commodities, 'till they deliver them to their owners, without reckoning any thing for the expence, becauſe the freight is their own, and they are obliged to anſwer all damage.

Remarks.

The article of freight or carriage of merchandizes by ſhipping, is, next to their fiſheries, the ſheet anchor of the commerce of the Hollanders, upon account of the great emoluments they derive from it, far beyond all other nations: and this is owing to the greater cheapneſs of their ſhip-carriage, than that of other countries; the cauſe whereof, is the great plenty of ſeamen, which their fiſheries and carriage trade breed, and the hard and parſimonious way of living of their ſailors, who ſail for leſs wages, and are maintained at leſs expence than thoſe of other ſtates.

The cheapneſs of freight being a very material article, with regard to the exportation of our Britiſh commodities to foreign countries, they being to be afforded cheaper by our merchants to foreigners, in proportion to the cheapneſs of our freights; it is certainly highly for the intereſt of Great Britain to embrace every occaſion of increaſing their ſeminaries of ſeamen. Our fiſheries, as well as our coaſting trade in general, having ſo apparent a tendency to augment the number of Britiſh ſeamen, to diminiſh the price of freights, and to ſtrengthen our royal navy (which we have more need of than ever); we muſt be enemies to our own commerce, our own ſecurity, and ſalvation, as a free people, if we neglect taking any meaſures whatever, that nature, or good policy, can put in our power, to advance every branch of our maritime trade and power. For we may diſcern, from what has been laid before the reader, under the article of France, to what a pitch the French trade is really increaſed, and what effectual meaſures they are actually taking, to render their naval power ſuperior to that of Great Britain and her allies. And under the articles Biscay, Castile, Spain, and the principal maritime provinces of that kingdom, will appear what effectual meaſures are taken to increaſe the trade and navigation of the Spaniards alſo, at the expence of Great-Britain in particular. For further confirmation, how irretrievably this nation is likely to loſe her trade, if ſhe does not exert herſelf therein, to the utmoſt, See likewiſe, all the chief ſtates and countries in Europe.

FRIEZLAND, one of the moſt northern provinces of the United Netherlands, bounded by the ocean on the north, by Groningen and Overyſſel on the eaſt, by the Zuyder-Sea and Overyſſel on the ſouth, and by the ocean on the weſt.

The air of this country is not unwholeſome, and the ſoil, in many places, affords good paſtures, and ſome arable lands, eſpecially in Ooſtergow. Weſtergow, which is the largeſt tract, is more level and fenny, but abounds with fiſh and fowl.

The province is divided into Ooſtergow, Weſtergow, and Seven Wolden, or Seven Foreſts.

I. Oostergow, the moſt northern part of the country, has the German Ocean on the north, part of the province of Groningen on the eaſt, Seven Wolden on the ſouth, and Weſtergow on the weſt.

Leewarden, the capital of this diviſion, is the largeſt, richeſt, beſt built, and moſt pupulous of the province. It ſtands in a fruitful ſoil; and, by it's navigable canals, the largeſt of which runs to the ocean, they have a good trade with Hamburgh, Bremen, Embden, and Holland; and are plentifully ſupplied with neceſſaries from the neighbouring countries.

II. Westergow, has Oſtergow on the eaſt, Seven Wolden on the ſouth, the Zuyder-Sea on the weſt, and the German Ocean on the north.

Francker, 10 miles weſtward of Leewarden, abounds with channels, two of which run through the length of the town, and, by their communication with others, make it very neat, and advance it's trade.

Harlingen, the largeſt city of this province, except Leewarden, is 4 miles weſt of Francker, at the mouth of the canal that comes from that city, and on the bank of the Zuyder-Sea. Though the harbour be large, and much frequented, it will not admit veſſels of great burthen, which muſt either lie off at a great diſtance, or lighten before they can get in. Their chief trade is in making ſails, and importing and exporting corn, pitch, tar, fir-trees, and deal.

Bolswort, had formerly a conſiderable trade by ſea, but now the inhabitants deal chiefly with the neighbouring towns, by means of the canals.

Sneek, ſituated on a lake of the ſame name, is a neat town. The inhabitants trade with the neighbouring towns, by means of the canals, in fiſh and other commodities, and are well furniſhed with freſh-water fiſh by the neighbouring lakes, both for conſumption and ſale.

Worcum, though it's harbour be choaked up, has a good trade alſo with the neighbouring country, by the canals, and is well ſupplied with fiſh from the lakes near it.

Staveren, was a flouriſhing place formerly, and prodigiouſly rich; but the harbour being choaked up, the trade is now very much decayed, and conſiſts chiefly in fiſhing, and paſſage-boats over the pools and lakes of the neighbourhood.

III. Seven Wolden, is ſituated between Weſtergow, Ooſtergow, Overyſſel, and the Zuyder-Sea. It is a barren, heathy, and marſhy country, but thinly peopled.

Sloot, or Slooten, the only town of any note, ſtands on a navigable current, which comes from a neighbouring lake, called the Slooten-meer, and falls into the ſea about 3 miles below the town, by which it has a trade with Holland, and other parts.

EAST-FRIEZLAND. This county or earldom belongs properly to Germany. It has the German Ocean on the north, the gulph Dollert, with the mouth of the river Ems, on the weſt, which parts it from the province of Groningen; the biſhoprick of Munſter on the ſouth, and the county of Oldenburg on the eaſt.

Embden, on the river Ems, and on the bay called Dollert, is a rich, large, and populous city. The iſland Veſſey, which lies in the Dollert bay, over-gainſt this city, makes the harbour as large and convenient as any on the German coaſt. They have alſo artificial canals, by which they can bring large veſſels into the heart of the town. The inhabitants are very induſtrious, and much addicted to trade.

The river Ems riſes in the biſhopric of Paderborn; and though it runs through a great part of the biſhopric of Munſter, the counties of Bentheim and Linghen, and divers others, and receives abundance of ſmall rivulets; yet it takes in no conſiderable river, nor ſees any city or town of note, 'till it comes into the dominions of Eaſt Friezland, where it viſits the city of Embden, capital of that province; a little below which, it opens into the ſea, among a throng of difficult ſands and iſlands.

This city of Embden is large, populous, and beautiful. It's friendſhip is very ſatisfactory to the Dutch, who have frequently taken the citizens into the protection of the United Provinces, even upon their own terms. The goodneſs of the harbour induces the Dutch merchants to direct many ſhips to load and unload here. By the inland navigation of this river, there is carried on a very conſiderable traffic, by veſſels of good burthen, into Germany, Weſtphalia, &c. and that a great way: this is no inconſiderable advantage to the city, by increaſing the commerce of the port, and filling it both with wealth and inhabitants.

The Engliſh merchants once kept their ſtaple here for woollen manufactures; but thinking themſelves not far enough out of the reach of the Spaniards, they removed to Hamburgh. The merchants of this city have a very good character for juſt and upright dealing, and are eſteemed for it abroad, wherever they correſpond.

The laſt count of Eaſt-Frieſland dying without iſſue, the king of Pruſſia claims that country, to which other princes have alſo pretenſions; the determination of which muſt be referred to time.

FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY.

Under the article France, we have given a ſtate of the commerce of that kingdom, in as ſuccinct a manner as we could, ſo as to give the reader a pretty ſtrong and adequate idea thereof: to this end, it was neceſſary to take notice of the African trade of France, in conjunction with it's other capital branches: but as under that general head, we could not ſo minutely deſcend to particulars, as to enable the reader to form a true judgment thereof, we ſhall here reſume the ſubject.—Previous to which, we deſire it may be obſerved, that, under the article France, where we ſpeak of their India-company, notice is taken of the French Weſt-India, Senegal, and Guinea companies, which are united to their India-company: ſo that the African trade of this kingdom is now carried on by their India-company, with privileges and immunities, excluſive of all other the ſubjects of France.

For diſtinction ſake, however, we ſhall treat of the French African trade, under the title of the Senegal company, from the year 1718, when it was incorporated with the India-company.

This company had then ſix departments, or diſtinct factories, viz. thoſe of Senegal, Galam, Goreé, Joal, Gambia, and Biſſeaux. The Senegal factory, at this time, ſupplies annually about 50 ſlaves, 4000 hides, 1200 quintals of gum, and 20 quintals of elephant's teeth; Galam, about 600 ſlaves, 20 quintals of teeth, and 50 marks of gold; Goreé, 400 ſlaves, and 2400 hides; Joal, 100 ſlaves, 400 hides, and 10 quintals of teeth; Gambia, 400 ſlaves, 200 quintals of wax, and 200 puintals of teeth; Biſſeaux, 250 ſlaves, 250 quintals of wax, and the like quantity of teeth.

REMARKS on the French trade of SENEGAL, AS THE SAME STOOD BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

The kingdoms of Ovals and Foules border upon the river Senegal, and have each their king, one called Le Brac, the other Seratic. It is always the intereſt of theſe petty princes to live in friendſhip with the company; but king Le Brac committed hoſtilities, and the company made repriſals; but the difference was pretty well accommodated by Damel, another of their petty princes, who interpoſed in behalf of the other Negroe king.

Le Seratic the king is powerful, and muſt be kept in ſome ſubjection, or he is frequently inclined to enhance the duties upon European commodities, when exchanged for theirs. The French commiſſaries, however, are very vigilant on theſe occaſions.

The gums are gathered twice a year, in December and March.

They begin to trade in February, before the firſt gathering, and continue 'till May; their ſecond trade begins in April, and holds till June.

The moors that ſell the gum, are called Auladelhagi, in the Arabic tongue, and Darmenios, in the Negroes; their chiefs are called Chems, who lay a duty, of an eighth, upon all the gums the French buy. They trade at theſe places, for 1200 quintals of gum, weighing 450lb. each.

The other goods ſold at theſe two principal ports, are about 300 oxen, and 400 ſheep, ſome ambergreaſe and oſtrich feathers. 50 packs of feathers are worth a quintal of gum.

At the neighbouring places of Senegal they purchaſe a quantity of millet, with which they feed the negroes, as well thoſe in the company's ſervice, as thoſe they tranſport, and even ſometimes the French are glad of it themſelves.

When the waters are out, they trade to the adjacent lakes, at ſome of which they get ebony, at others ivory, peas, hides, and ſometimes ambergreaſe.

There are fixed times and ſeaſons for buying ſalt, for the ſervice of the company of Senegal, as well as the curing the hides, and ſtated times for buying proviſions.

But the laſt obſervation, is the time and ſeaſon for going over the bar of the river, which is between April and July; after which, the bad ſeaſon begins, and the waters are out.

The Trade of GALAM.

The old company of Senegal had a fort at Galam, built in 1700, but was carried away by the rapidity of the river. The new company afterwards built another, a league lower where they now trade.

They trade chiefly, at Galam, in negroes, gold, and ivory. It is thought, that the countries inhabited by the negroes, who are in the French alliance, have mines of gold, ſilver, copper, precious ſtones, and ſaltpetre. That there is among them fine marble, and curious wood, both for ſcent and colours, is certain; but the negroes of this part are an untractable ſort of people, and their king is with difficulty brought to reaſon ſometimes, with regard to the price of his ſlaves, or the duty on them; yet upon the whole, the French purchaſe them upon very moderate terms.

The trade of GOREE.

The iſland of Goree is the center of the company's ſettlements, and it is there the ſlaves are kept, 'till they have a ſufficient number, or till they have ſhips ready to tranſport them to their Sugar-iſles.

The leather trade was formerly conſiderable in this iſle. They have had 50,000, and ſometimes 80,000 hides a year, which has diminiſhed of late years.

This was occaſioned by the uſurpation of a tyrannical prince, who raiſed the duties upon leather. But as the negroe trade is conſiderable, having 4 or 500 annually, the French connive at trivial things.

Their ſlaves are fine, but muſt be neither too young nor too old.

The hides are equally good, but muſt be ſalted and doubled together, and during the hot ſeaſon, beat every fortnight.

At Rufiſch and Portugal, they buy all the millet they have occaſion for, and always keep their graineries full, for fear of a famine; which often happens, their harveſts being deſtroyed by locuſts. The greateſt care imaginable muſt be taken of it, and often turned over for fear of heating.

The trade of JOAL.

This is the laſt ſettlement of the French company's, and was built to ſecure a port of trade, when this king firſt began his reign. The ſeveral branches of this commerce, are ſalt, millet, negroes, ivory, hides, wax, and rice.

The trade of GAMBIA.

The company has two ſettlements on the river Gambia, one at Albreda, and the laſt at Bintau, eſtabliſhed in the year 1718. This laſt place has great pleety of millet, rice, kids, oxen, and fowls, all which are very difficult to have at Albreda, but there are wax and ſlaves.

Their merchandizes are exchange for fire-arms, ſwords, powder, ball, and flints, they being a warlike people.

The Engliſh have ſettlements upon the river Gambia, as well as the French; but beſides them, there are Portugueſe, Dutch, Engliſh, and even French interlopers, that very much hinder the trade of the eſtabliſhed companies.

The Portugueſe have ſome ſettlements up the river, and are protected as natives, but in no eſteem with the companies.

The proper ſeaſon for the trade of negroes, is in the months of May and June. The Mercadois and Guineas bring down there 7 or 800 ſlaves yearly.

CANTOR, or CANTORY, a ſmall kingdom of Africa, upon the boders of the river Gambia. The inhabitants keep a good correſpondence with the Europeans, eſpecially the Dutch, who trade with them for ivory, gold, and raw hides; ſalt and iron are good commodities there: The French trade conſiderably on theſe coaſts, where they have a fort, for the defence of their ſettlements. Their chief trade is in furs and ſkins, of different ſorts, where they pay to the king 16 per cent. duty. Beſides this tax, every veſſel that comes into the port, pays three bars of iron: this king has a cuſtom-houſe to receive the duties.

The inhabitants are either ſmiths or weavers. They make a kind of blankets, which is their cloathing. The Europeans trade along the coaſt with them. There are different ſorts of theſe blankets.

The Portugueſe, who have a ſettlement in Cantor, have a number of ſlaves from thence. The moors of Barbary alſo trade there for gold duſt.

CASSAN, a ſmall kingdom in Africa, on the north of the river Gambia, called Great Caſſan, to diſtinguiſh it from another place, called Little Caſſan.

In theſe two places is the chief trade of this part of the country. At the laſt of theſe places is a market every Monday, and Great Caſſan has two fairs yearly, where there are, not only negroes from all places, as Rio Freſco, Porto-Dale, and Juda, but alſo Europeans, French, Portugueſe, Engliſh, and Dutch, and where the king of Caſſan has an open trade.

The merchandizes brought there are leather, ivory, oxen, and cows, cotton-dreſſes, tobacco, gold, ſlaves, ſalt, cotton, mats, pullets, and other productions of the country.

The trade of BISSEAUX.

This ſettlement was of the longeſt ſtanding of any the French company had; and there is to be ſeen, in the journals of the commiſſaries, 1685 and 1686, that they traded there yearly for 1800 ſlaves, and 300 quintals of wax; but, by interlopers, and the creole Portugueſe, it was diſcredited, that the French abandoned it, and ſettled and re-eſtabliſhed a factory in 1700. The ſeaſon for the trade of Biſſeaux, and the neighbouring iſles, is before the rains. It conſiſts in ſlaves, ivory, and wax. In the rainy ſeaſons, the negroes drink a great deal of brandy, becauſe they have no palm wines.

ABASSIN, or ABASSON, is about ſeven leagues in length; it's breadth, on land, uncertain. Trading veſſels rarely touch there for proviſions, becauſe almoſt all the gold coaſt is barren, are rarely cultivated. We can give no certain account of the inland countries along the gold coaſt, any farther than ſaying, that thoſe of the north, and north-eaſt of Vetteres, and the rivers Aſbini and Iſſini are fruitful and well cultivated, and not only ſupply themſelves with neceſſaries, but thoſe countries that are barren, as are all places that have rich gold mines, of which they have many among them. It is not certainly known in what manner they dig or work in their mines, but that there are great quantities of gold, ſufficiently appears from what they exchange continually for their proviſions, and merchandizes that are brought to them.

I ſhall not here give any particular account of a project which the French had formed, and actually put in execution, for eſtabliſhing a ſettlement among them, but through the jealouſy of the Dutch, they were deſtroyed for want of aſſiſtance; nevertheleſs, the negroes ſeemed greatly to like them. The villages of Albiani and Tabo, the one about 6, the other about 10 leagues off Iſſini, have generally trading ſhips that anchor, and hoiſt their colours, as ſignals of trade near them. The negroes, as ſoon as aſſured that they are friends, never fail to go on board and viſit them. As ſoon as they are preſented with a glaſs of brandy, it is cuſtomary to aſk, how long ſince they had any trading ſhips that way, it being a general rule with them, to ſet a value upon their commodities, more or leſs, according to their want of European merchandizes.

GUIOMERE, the nigheſt to cape Apollonia, though but ſmall, on the ſea coaſts, is conſiderable within land; the people are very numerous, rich, and trade largely. Whether their riches are the produce of their mines, or their induſtry and great commerce among themſelves, it is very certain they have much gold, and deal conſiderably in ſlaves and ivory.

About 8 leagues from St Apolline, is the village of Axim.

The French ſay, that the Portugueſe took this place from them, and built a fortification there, in 1515, under king Emanuel, and kept it 'till February 1642, when the Dutch beſieged and took it, and remain in poſſeſſion of it. This fort is on the eaſt of the river Axim, and is only remarkable for it's ſands, which have much gold in them, as before-mentioned.

Remarks.

It will not be unacceptable, perhaps, to give ſome account of their manner of diving, and finding theſe ſands.

The negroes of this country do nothing elſe but dive for this metal, and are brought up to it from their very infancy, and will ſtay under water ſo long, that it is ſcarce credible what is reported. In order to reach the bottom the ſooner, they plunge in, with their heads directly downwards: in their hands they have a flat piece of wood, and part of a calebaſſe, with which they dive, and keep themſelves under water, until they have filled it with the heavieſt part of the ſand, which, holding upon their heads with one hand, and ſwimming with the other, with incredible dexterity, they bring it above water.

After having got a ſufficient quantity, or well tired themſelves, they bring it on ſhore, where, in a bowl or platter, they waſh away the ſand, by a handful or two at a time, the metal always remaining at bottom, which they call gold duſt, and ſometimes it has grains of different ſizes.

Next Axim is cape Three Points, formed by three mountains, between which are three very convenient bays to anchor in. It lies about four degrees of north latitude. The Pruſſians had formerly a ſettlement and built a fort there, which they relinquiſhed in 1720, and the blacks took poſſeſſion of it, who acquainted the French, that they would deliver it up to them, and trade only with them; who miſtruſting their ſincerity, the Dutch made uſe of the opportunity, and, under the conduct of the captain of their mine, took poſſeſſion of it in 1725.

This port is the moſt conſiderable on this coaſt, has good anchorage and landing, the country is fruitful, and the people do not neglect the culture of their ground, like their idle neighbours, though they have much gold. Beſides gold, there is a great trade in ivory. The ſlaves that cannot dive, are employed in carrying European commodities to the inland parts of the country, who return with ivory and gold, which turns greatly to their advantage. The women work moſtly in the ſalt-pits, in which article they deal conſiderably. Theſe people, though negroes, are very ſincere, and, though ſomewhat near and hard in dealing, yet afford great ſatisfaction to all that trade with them.

The commerce of Grand Seſtre conſiſts chiefly in pepper, teeth, and proviſions, in great plenty, and extremely cheap. The king's dues are very trivial, and licence is granted for wood or water upon very eaſy terms. The negro prince has his reſidence about a league and half up the river. The negreſſes bring the water to the boats, and think themſelves well paid, when the caſks are all full, if you give each of them a necklace of glaſs-beads. There are ſometimes ſlaves, but 'tis rare; ſome were bought in 1704 and 1712, at 40 livres each, and ſome for two braſs trumpets a-piece. Pepper is the chief trade of theſe coaſts. This pepper is not ſo much valued as the Eaſt-India ſort, but turns to very good account, when the Dutch have brought but little, this being ſold for 3 livres per quintal, and that paid in merchandize. The whole coaſt of Malaguette has all ſorts of proviſions in great plenty, as fowl, ſheep, oxen, and cows, at a very ſmall expence; likewiſe rice, millet, peaſe, beans, &c. The fruits, which are very excellent, as citrons, oranges, plums, and other fruits, are at ſo very low a rate, as to be ſcarce worth mentioning at all.

The Tooth or Ivory-Coaſt, which is joining to Malaguette, and which extends as far as the river Suero da Coſta, that ſeparates it from the Gold Coaſt, has the name for it's inhabitants being very ſavage and uncivilized, for which reaſon the Europrans rarely go aſhore, but are upon their guard, and generally trade on board.

They trade in little elſe except elephant's teeth, but in ſuch abundance, that the great number of ſhips that come that way from all parts of Europe, can always load there; nor is it a thing extraordinary, to ſee teeth there of 200lb. weight. 'Tis reported, that theſe animals ſhed their teeth every three years, which is the reaſon partly that ivory is common upon theſe coaſts. The elephants are in ſuch numbers, that the negroes are obliged to have their habitations under ground, in order to preſerve themſelves from danger. There is likewiſe ſome gold upon this coaſt, yet not much traded in; but, in places that border upon it, that commodity is in greater abundance, and is called the Gold Coaſt. They take from this place a ſort of blue and white cotton, which is a good commodity for the Gold Coaſt, uſed by the natives to wear round the middle; alſo ſteel menacles or bracelets, and little bells and toys are wore almoſt all over the legs and arms of theſe wild ſort of people, and are the chief commodities with which the Europeans trade, in exchange for their ivory, &c. Proviſions are in great plenty in this place.

Gold Coast.

The Gold Coaſt begins at the river Suciro de Coſtas; 'tis about 130 leagues in length from eaſt to weſt, between 4 and 5 degrees of north latitude, and between 16 and 21 of longitude. This coaſt is the moſt frequented of any in Africa by Europeans; and none have ſettlements there, but the Engliſh, Dutch, and Danes. Yet the French have many years traded under the very noſe of our Engliſh forts at Anamaboe, and plentifully ſupplied their American colonies with the choiceſt negroes on the whole African coaſt.

Upon this coaſt, the gold of Axim is eſteemed the beſt, and is from 22 to 23 carats; that from other coaſts is leſs fine, and that from Jetu is coarſe enough. Some of it is found by the negroes on the banks or in the ſands of rivulets and currents, and 'tis that which we commonly call gold duſt, where there is more or leſs in quantity found, according as the rains have fell upon thoſe mountains, from whence theſe rivers, or currents, have their ſpring. There is another kind of gold, called mine gold, or gold from the mines; of which 'tis reported, there is a conſiderable one in the mountains of Tafou, about 30 leagues from Acara. It ſeems almoſt incredible what ſome who have traded on thoſe coaſts report, concerning the bigneſs of ſome pieces of gold found there. The third ſort is that from Acanis and Fetu, which is found in the earth, that muſt be deeply ſearched into, and dug up firſt, according to the veins. This gold is only from 20 to 21 carats. The gold that is taken out of the mines and the earth, is not refined nor waſhed thoroughly, when brought on board by the negroes to trade with the Europeans, but directly as 'tis found; which makes it neceſſary for a perſon to have judgment, not only of it's goodneſs, but of the richneſs of the ore, leſt he is cheated. He muſt not be unexperienced, that trades in gold duſt. Theſe negroes frequently mix with the duſt ſmall pieces of braſs and copper, or filings of pins, or mix them in melting, particularly at Comenda, who are the greateſt cheats of all on this coaſt; yet theſe are little dealers that muſt not be truſted; the conſiderable merchants, or even their brokers, are honourable enough.

Thoſe that come on board to traffic, are generally officers, or in power, who are all merchants. As they come from different parts of the country, ſo their methods are different in trade; thoſe ſettled upon the coaſt, trade for themſelves; they that reſide more diſtant, or inland, and are unacquainted with the language, as well as the manner of the Europeans dealing, are ſerved by brokers, who are commonly great merchants themſelves, but are glad of theſe opportunities of gaining brokerage. They are generally the merchants upon the coaſts, or within 10 or 12 leagues of it, that buy up all the goods from on board the ſhips which anchor in the road, who, after theſe ſhips have ſet ſail, ſell them again to the inland traders with a profit. The negroes have a cuſtom among them, when they deal with Europeans, to aſk for a preſent, and ſcarce ever conclude a bargain without it. The Dutch introduced this cuſtom, to diſengage the negroes from the Portugueſe; but what was firſt only voluntary, is by uſe become neceſſary; and, at preſent, no negro will conclude any buſineſs, without being aſſured of a preſent. They are utter ſtrangers to credit, and make their payments immediately in gold; for which reaſon they carry ſmall ſcales with them to weigh it, if a large quantity; otherwiſe gueſs at it, by taking a ſufficient quantity up with their fingers.

Their ſcales are only two ſmall plates, hung at each end of a ſmall ſtick, by a thread, and tied about the middle of the ſame with another thread. Inſtead of weights, they make uſe of little red grains, with which they weigh to the value of two pence in gold. Thus they weigh little by little, until it amounts to a marc of eight ounces; but this practice is only among the mean negroes and ordinary people; merchants and ſuch as trade largely, have ſcales and weights from Europe, and know perfectly well the uſe of them.

There is likewiſe an inland trade, which the negroes of the coaſt, and thoſe that live up the country, carry on with the Europeans that live among them on their market days, and fairs, kept once or twice a year. But they take care never to keep fairs on the ſame days, at two different places: at theſe places, they bring whatever they have got, that is curious and fine, whether from Europe, or bought up in their cities or villages, though 200 leagues off. They keep their markets generally in the middle of the villages, where they range themſelves every one, according to the merchandize he ſells, that they may be the more eaſily found, in great order and ſilence, each ſmoaking his pipe. At day-break the country people bring their ſugar-canes piled up in bundles, fruits, and all ſorts of proviſions, as rice, millet, melons, pepper, fowl, eggs, and bread; at noon palm wine is brought, and, between four and five, the fiſhermen bring what fiſh they have caught. At the fairs none but blacks are ſuffered to trade, but at their markets, if their villages are near the European ſettlements, the white people may deal in what they will.

REMARKS ON THE FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE IN GENERAL, AS THE SAME STOOD BEFORE THE LAST WAR.

The African trade is eſtimable to the French as well as other European nations, on account of the gold, the ivory, and the ſlave trade. The produce of this country in general, though it makes but few articles, in compariſon to thoſe of other countries, yet it is very valuable; and the more ſo, in that it is ſo neceſſary a commerce to the European nations, as things are at preſent circumſtanced. The returns of gold and ſilver were had formerly for trifles, ſuch as ſmall pieces of iron, painted glaſs, knives, hatchets, glaſs beads, and the like: ſo that one of the Engliſh ſhips, which traded thither in the time of queen Elizabeth, brought away 170 pounds weight of gold duſt; the goods, wherewith the ſame was purchaſed, not amounting, as then valued in England, beſides the charges on board, to above 250l. ſterling: whereas the gold, at that time, was worth above 14,000l. without reckoning the elephants teeth, and other things of great value, which they brought from thence beſides.

The negroes of Africa, as they are improved and made crafty by their long acquaintance in the trade, and by the envy and animoſities between the ſeparate Engliſh traders in particular, and the late Royal African company, the Europeans in general do not now trade with them upon ſuch advantageous conditions as formerly, but know how to trade with great art and ſubtlety. On the other hand, and which contributes to make ſome recompenſe for their wileineſs, they are brought to take off very large quantities of European commodities from the ſeveral nations with whom they traffic.

Nor is this commerce profitable only to the reſpective Europeans, in the direct way of trading from their reſpective countries to the coaſt of Africa, but is ſo much the more to thoſe nations, which have colonies and plantations in America to ſupport, by dint of the labour of negroes, for want as is pretended, of a competent number of white men, for the cultivation of their ſugars and tobacco, &c.

How extremely beneficial this commerce has proved to the French nation in this reſpect, we may judge from the very extraordinary increaſe of their ſugar-colonies in America. For it is not much above half a century, as will preſently appear from authentic vouchers, ſince they did not employ above 100 ſail of ſhips, for the ſupply of their own kingdom with ſugars; but in the late war of 1740, it was diſcovered, that they employed above 600 ſail; and have, by the wiſe management of their African trade for the benefit of thoſe colonies, ſupplanted us more or leſs, at moſt foreign markets, in this general article of traffic.

This is an indiſputable truth: and, although we very ſenſibly feel the effect, yet we do not ſeem to enter ſufficiently into the cauſe hereof; if we did, we ſhould not admire, that ſuch cauſes ſhould be productive of ſuch conſequences.

That the reader may have the real cauſes of the ſucceſs of France in their ſugar-iſlands laid before him, I ſhall make no further retroſpection in the French policy, in regard to their African trade, than from the year 1700, when the deputies of the council of trade in France, preſented a memorial to the royal council in the year 1701, concerning the commerce of that nation to their American iſlands, Guinea, the Levant, &c.

As I am, at preſent, confined to the African or Guinea trade of that nation, I ſhall not take into conſideration what is not directly pertinent thereunto.—And all that is neceſſary for that purpoſe, is only to take notice of the preamble to this memorial, and to ſhew the ſubſequent meaſures that were taken in conſequence thereof.

This memorial is introduced in the following manner, viz.

'The commerce of Guinea, ſay the French memorialiſts, 'has ſuch relation to that of the French iſlands in the Weſt-'Indies, that the one cannot ſubſiſt without the other. By 'thoſe trades, we have deprived our competitors in traffic of 'the great profits which they drew from us*, and may put 'ourſelves into a condition, by their example, to draw pro-'fit in our turn from them, and eſpecially from the Engliſh †. 'We may increaſe thoſe trades conſiderably, ſeeing that na-'tion in their iſlands, with leſs advantage than we, in territo-'ries of leſs extent, and in much leſs time, have found means 'to employ yearly above 500 ſhips, while we do not, without 'great difficulty, employ 100.

* Before the French were able to ſupply themſelves with ſugar, we had a conſiderable ſhare in their ſupply.

† Their drawing profit from us in their turn, may ſignify their view to ſupply us with ſugar in time, as well as to ſupplant us, as they have done from this time, at foreign markets; ſo that they ſeem, even then, to have had a view to the ruin of our ſugar-colonies.

'Every body is ſenſible of the benefit of navigation, and 'that the happineſs and glory of a ſtate very much depend 'upon it: there can be no commerce without it; it governs 'the fortunes of the merchants; it maintains a great num-'ber of ſubjects, ſeamen, and mechanics. No one is ig-'norant, that the navigation of France owes all it's increaſe 'and ſplendor to the commerce of it's iſlands, and that it 'cannot be kept up and enlarged, otherwiſe than by this 'commerce.

''Tis beyond all doubt, that this commerce is more beneficial 'to the ſtate, that all others (of long voyages) that are driven 'by the French; becauſe 'tis carried on without exporting any 'money, and without the help of any foreign goods and ma-'nufactures, ſo that none but the ſubjects of the king and 'kingdom have the profit of it,' &c.

In conſequence of this memorial, proper meaſures were taken to render the trade to Africa ſucceſsful; upon which, as the memorialiſts ſay, the proſperity of the French colonies and plantations in America abſolutely depend.

REMARKS.

As theſe meaſures, taken from time to time, cannot be ſo effectually repreſented, as by giving the authentic ordonnances, arrets, edicts, and patents, &c. which were iſſued on this occaſion, we ſhall lay before our readers ſome of the moſt eſſential, according to the order of time.

The king's letters patent for the liberty of trade upon the coaſt of Africa, publiſhed at Paris in January 1716.

Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to all to whom theſe preſents ſhall come, greeting: By letters patent of the late king, our truly honoured lord and great grandfather, dated January 1685, there was eſtabliſhed a company, by the name and the title of the Guinea Company, to continue for the ſpace of twenty years, excluding all others the trade of negroes, gold duſt, and all other merchandizes trafficked in upon the coaſt of Africa, from the river Serre Lionne, to the Cape of Good Hope; and likewiſe granting to this company divers privileges and immunities; and, among other grants, exempted them from half the duties of all merchandizes, brought from all places within their diſtrict and iſles of America upon their own account, although the time limited by thoſe letters patent ſhould be expired: the late king, our moſt honoured ſovereign, thought good on account of engagements this company had made, in order to ſupply the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes by the Aſſiento contract, to continue to them the ſame privileges and immunities, under the title of the Aſſiento treaty [ſee the article ASSIENTO] unto the month of November 1713. The merchants of our kingdom having repreſented at this time, how much it tended to the benefit of trade in general, and in particular to the improvement of the French iſlands in America, that the commerce of the Guinea coaſt ſhould be free and open to all his majeſty's ſubjects; the late king did not think it proper to form a new company, though there were many perſons ready to offer themſelves and enter into ſuch an aſſociation; and, as we are willing to encourage the freedom of commerce, and deal favourably with the merchants and traders who ſhall undertake this traffic, and afford them every thing neceſſary to render it more conſiderable than it has been, and by that means to provide for our ſubjects of the French iſles of America a ſufficient number of negroes, for the improving the cultivation of their lands: for theſe and other reaſons moving us hereunto, we have thought fit, by the advice of our moſt dear and truly beloved uncle the duke of Orleans regent, of our moſt dear and truly beloved couſin the duke of Bourbon, &c. and other peers of France, &c. we have declared, reſolved, and ordained, be it therefore declared, reſolved, and ordained, That

ARTICLE I.

We have permitted, and do permit, to all merchants of our kingdom for the time to come, to have a free trade for negroes, gold duſt, and all other merchandizes that may be brought from the coaſt of Africa, from the river Serra Lyonne to the Cape of Good Hope, provided their ſhips are fitted out in the harbours of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes.

II.

The maſters and captains who trade to the coaſt of Guinea, ſhall be obliged to declare at the ſecretary's of the admiralty office, eſtabliſhed at the place of their departure, and give ſecurity at the receipt of cuſtoms, to oblige them to return into one of the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes; except, nevertheleſs, thoſe ſhips which ſhall go out from Rouen, Rochelle, and Bourdeaux, ſhould be drove at their return into Nantes or St. Malo.

III.

The merchants of thoſe ſhips that ſhall tranſport to the French iſles of America negroes bought upon the coaſt of Guinea, ſhall pay, upon the arrival of their ſhips in the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, into the hands of the treaſurer-general of the marine in being, the ſum of 20 livres for every negro that ſhall be carried to the ſaid iſlands, for which they ſhall give ſecurity to the ſecretary of the admiralty, on their being permitted to take their leave of our moſt dear and truly beloved uncle, Lewis Alexander of Bourbon, count of Thouloufe, admiral of France: and

as to thoſe merchants, whoſe ſhips ſhall only trade for gold duſt, and other commodities upon the ſaid coaſt, they ſhall likewiſe be bound, upon the arrival of their ſaid ſhips in the ſaid ports, to pay, into the hands of the treaſurer of the marine, the ſum of three livres for every ton his ſhip's burden ſhall contain; which twenty livres aforeſaid, and three livres, ſhall be employed, by order of the council of the marine, for the keeping in repair the fortifications, factories, and cuſtom-houſes, which are or ſhall be ſettled on the ſaid coaſts of Guinea, which expences we will defray for the time to come.

IV.

Nevertheleſs, the payment of the ſaid three livres per ton duty is excuſed during the three next following years, from the day and date of theſe preſents, to all our ſubjects, whoſe ſhips ſhall trade to the Guinea coaſt, for gold and other merchandizes, ſlaves only excepted.

V.

Be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, that all manner of merchandizes that ſhall be brought from the coaſts of Guinea, by our ſubjects, directly to the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, we exempt from one half the duties of importation, that are farmed, or may be farmed; likewiſe our will is, that all ſugars, and other merchandizes of all our ſubjects that ſhall be brought from the French American Iſlands, ariſing from the ſale and truck of negroes, be equally exempted from the ſaid half duties of importation, on their producing a certificate from the ſuperintendant of the iſles, or commiſſary governor, or commiſſioner of the cuſtoms in the Weſt-Indies, that the goods ſhipped at the ſaid iſlands, aroſe from the ſale and barter of negroes, which the ſaid ſhips had there unloaded, the ſaid certificate ſpecifying the ſhips names, number of negroes that ſhall be ſhipped to the iſlands, and lodged in the receiver's office, who ſhall grant to the captains and maſters a duplicate of the ſame, without any expence.

All our receivers, commiſſioners, or deputies, are forbid to take more duties, upon pain of four times the value.

VI.

Linens of all ſorts, toys, mercery, glaſs ware, wrought and plain, iron-bars, plate-iron, guns, ſwords, and other arms, gun-flints, being the manufacture of this kingdom, ſhall be free from all duties of exportation, uſual both in our receiver's office, and all the offices in their paſſage, and the ports they are bound to, on condition it is proved they are intended for the Guinea trade; until which is confirmed, the ſaid goods ſhall be lodged in the cuſtom-houſe, under two different keys; one kept by the receiver-general of our cuſtoms, the other by whomſoever the merchants ſhall propoſe, at their own expence. As for the wines of Anjou, and other products of the river Loire, bound to Guinea, they ſhall be under the ſame reſtrictions as thoſe bound to the French American Iſlands, according to the arret of council 23 September 1710. And, with reſpect to the wines of Bourdeaux, we will and ordain, that they are regulated, as if ſhipped for the American Iſlands, on taking a bill of loading there of the ſaid wines, and giving them the uſual ſecurity.

VII.

We grant to the ſaid merchants leave to lodge, in the ports of Rouen, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, and Nantes, the goods called cowries, ſtriped blue and white India cottons, printed linnens, grain cryſtal, ſmall Dutch looking glaſſes, Dutch tobacco-pipes, and others from the north, coming only by ſea for the Guinea trade: we grant likewiſe the ſame room in our cuſtom-houſe for two years and no longer, from the date of theſe preſents, for Dutch knives, kettles, and other ſort of copper utenſils. Provided the aforeſaid foreign goods ſhall be ſpecified to the commiſſioner of the cuſtoms upon their arrival, and afterwards depoſited in the king's warehouſe for that purpoſe, locked with two keys, one to remain in the hands of the commiſſioner, the other with whom the merchant ſhall name, all at their own expence.

VIII.

The commiſſioner of the cuſtoms in each of the aforeſaid ports ſhall keep a regiſter, which ſhall be lettered and marked by the director of the cuſtoms, in which the aforeſaid commiſſioner ſhall regiſter in parcels the goods ſpecified in the two foregoing articles, as ſoon as they ſhall be depoſited in the warehouſe. The aforeſaid commiſſioner is forbid to give a certificate for their clearance, upon the ſecurity that was taken at the firſt office, until the proof, the regiſter, and the unloading of them, ſhall be examined into in the aforeſaid ſtaple warehouſe, from whence they ſhall not be taken until they are to be put on board the ſhips bound to the coaſt of Guinea. And, at the loading of the aforeſaid goods, both foreign and French, for the coaſt of Guinea: our will is, that there be mentioned in the margin of the regiſter, &c. the name of the ſhip they were put on board, and ſigned by the commiſſioner, the merchants they are conſigned to, and the captain who receives the goods on board, &c.

IX.

Nevertheleſs, we grant leave to the merchants and traders of the city of St. Malo to fit out and equip, in their ports, ſhips for the coaſt of Guinea, and for the French coaſts of America, and to make their returns to the aforeſaid ports on the foregoing clauſes, articles, and exemptions, already mentioned, paying us for the goods which ſhall come from the coaſt of Guinea, and the French iſles of America, the ſettled duties, according to the uſual cuſtom in the aforeſaid port of St. Malo, for the profit of our moſt dear and truly-beloved uncle Louis Alexander de Bourbon, count of Thouloufe, duke of Penthievre, admiral of France, and governor of Bretagne, &c.

Signed Lewis,
Duke of Orleans, regent,
Preſent Phelypeaux.

Letters patents, containing regulations for merchandizes, which traders of this kingdom import from Holland and the North, for the Guinea trade. Given at Fontainbleau, September 7, 1728.

Lewis, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre: to all our friends and faithful counſellors, members of our court of parliament of Paris, greeting: it being repreſented unto us, that our letters patents of the month of January 1716, for the liberty of commerce upon the coaſt of Africa; in the ſeventh article of which we have granted to all our merchants permiſſion to warehouſe in the ports therein mentioned, among other merchandizes, white, blue, and ſtriped cottons, printed linnens, which they ſhall import from Holland and the North, by ſea only, for the trade of Guinea: and being informed that, by the indulgence of this grant, they have introduced into our kingdom, to the prejudice of our eſtabliſhed manufactures, India cottons, of a finer quality than what need be ſent for that trade; we have provided againſt it by the arret of this day, given in our council of ſtate, we being there preſent; for the due execution of which, we have ordered all neceſſary letters to be diſpatched: for theſe, and other reaſons hereunto moving us, by the advice of our council, we have, by theſe preſents, ſigned with our own hand, ordained, and we do accordingly ordain, as follows:

I.

We expreſly forbid, and prohibit, all ſhips in the Guinea trade, or other kind of trade, to import from Holland, or any other country of the North, into our kingdom, to commence from the publication of theſe preſents, under the pretence of warehouſeing, any white India linen, called caladaris, painted India linnen, called chints, or ſtuffs of all ſilk, or half ſilk, upon pain of confiſcation of the ſaid goods, and a penalty of 3000 livres.

II.

We permit, nevertheleſs, all merchants and traders to import from Holland and the North all other ſorts of linnen and ſtuffs fit for the Guinea trade, except thoſe compriſed in the foregoing article, on condition they firſt acquaint the ſecretary of the admiralty of the place of their abode, the ſhip's name on board which they are laden, and the office of cuſtoms, of the quantity and quality of the linnens and ſtuffs which they ſhall require to be imported from the ſaid foreign countries.

III.

The captain who, in conſideration of the aforeſaid declarations, ſhall import merchandizes fit for the Guinea trade, and allowed by the above article, ſhall be obliged to load them on board the ſhip fitted out for that purpoſe, and ſend them, in ſix months at fartheſt, to the coaſt of Guinea, upon pain of confiſcation of the ſaid goods, and 1000 livres penalty.

IV.

If, nevertheleſs, the merchant-adventurers ſhould be, by any unforeſeen accident, obliged to alter the voyage of the ſhip which was intended for the coaſt of Guinea, he may, in the ſpace of ſix months, appoint another, on board of which he ſhall be obliged to load the ſaid goods, and, that time being expired, counting from the time of their goods being landed, they ſhall be confiſcated, and the adventurers ſhall be condemned in 1000 livres penalty.

V.

The owner of the goods ordered from Holland, or other country of the North, ſhall be obliged to ſend, by his factor or ſupercargo, the bills of loading, of which the captain is the bearer, the invoice of the ſaid goods, mentioning the particulars of their qualities and quantities, the bails, cheſts, or caſks, &c. in which they are contained.

VI.

In caſe the aforeſaid invoices are not according to the declaration beforementioned, we will and ordain that the merchandizes ſpecified in the invoice be ſeized and confiſcated, and the adventurers condemned in the penalty of 1000 livres.

VII.

We alſo forbid the adventurers to make any declarations, in ambiguous terms, of goods unknown, and the commiſſary to receive them, upon pain of confiſcation of the ſaid goods, and the commiſſary deprived of his place for receiving ſuch declarations.

VIII. We

VIII.

We further will and ordain, that our foreſaid letters patents, of the month of January 1716, be executed, according to their form and tenor, wherein they deviate from theſe preſents. Thus we will and ordain.

Signed LEWIS,
PHELYPEAUX.

The king's proclamation, concerning the commerce of GUINEA; ordering that three negro boys ſhould be paid for upon the footing of two negroes of maturity; and two negro girls for one negro. Given at Paris the 14th of December, 1716. Regiſtered in parliament.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, to all whom theſe preſents may concern, ſends greeting: the late king our moſt honoured lord and great-grandfather, having permitted, from the month of November 1713, to the traders of the kingdom to go, by virtue of paſſports, which were delivered to them, to contract for negroes at the coaſt of Guinea, and afterwards to export them to the American iſlands; on condition of paying, for each of thoſe as ſhall be ſent to St. Domingo, 30 livres, and 15 for thoſe which ſhall be carried to the Windward iſlands, according to which they are to ſubmit; we have judged it neceſſary, in the month of January in the preſent year, to grant, by our letters patents, the free liberty of commerce to that coaſt (of which the Guinea company had the excluſive right of trade) till the ſaid month of November 1713. And, in conſequence whereof, we have granted permiſſion, by the ſaid letters patents, to the traders of our kingdom, to ſend their veſſels thither, to agree for the purchaſe of negroes, and afterwards to tranſport them to the ſaid iſlands; for every one whereof that ſhould be diſembarked, we ordain that they ſhould pay to the treaſurer-general of the navy 20 livres. We alſo ordain, by an arret of the 28th of the ſaid month of January this year, that the merchants who have taken paſſports ſince the month of November 1713, ſhall pay to the ſaid treaſurer-general the ſums ſpecified purſuant to their obligations; but, the merchants having repreſented to us that the ſame duties were required for the boys and girls, as for the men and women negroes, although three negro boys coſt no more in Guinea than the price of two negroes of maturity, and are only ſold in the like proportion at the iſlands; and the ſame for two negro girls, who are bought and ſold for no more than one negro; whereupon we have reſolved to explain our intentions: for theſe and other reaſons moving us thereunto, and according to the advice of our moſt dear and well-beloved uncle of Orleans, regent, of our moſt dear and well-beloved couſin the duke of Bourbon, &c. we have by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, declared and ordained, and hereby we declare and ordain, That ſuch merchants who have ſent, or ſhall ſend their ſhips to the coaſt of Guinea, to contract for negroes, and afterwards tranſport them to the iſlands of America, ſhall not be obliged to pay for every negro boy of 12 years of age, or under, that ſhall be diſembarked at the ſaid iſlands by the paſſport-ſhips of the late king, only the two-thirds of the duties to which they are liable for each negro; and for every negro girl, alſo, of 12 years of age, and under, the moiety, or half part of the ſaid duties ſhall only be paid; and for every negro boy of the ſame age that ſhould have been, or ſhall be diſembarked at the ſaid iſlands, by virtue of the ſaid letters patents, the two-thirds of the duties ſhall be paid that is for each negro; and for every negro girl of the ſame age, the moiety of the ſaid duties, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
ORLEANS, regent,
PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the king's council of ſtate, concerning the commerce of Guinea, of the 13th of September, 1729. Extracted from the regiſter of the council of ſtate.

The arret of his council, of the 8th of September 1729, being laid before the king, and his letters patents diſpatched upon it the ſame day, containing regulations for merchandize imported from Holland and the North, for the Guinea trade; by the ſecond article of which, his majeſty has permitted to all merchants and traders to cauſe to be imported from Holland and the North all ſorts of linens or ſtuffs, excepting thoſe compriſed in the foregoing article; provided they firſt acquaint the ſecretary of the admiralty with the place of their abode, and the ſhips they are put on board of. His majeſty being informed, from the complaints of ſome merchants, that the officers of the admiralty retarded their voyages, but refuſing to receive their declarations, upon the terms of the ſaid ſecond article, by reaſon the ſaid letters patents were not addreſſed to the admiral of France, nor regiſtered: all which we being willing to remedy, the king being in council, and attending to the report of Sieur le Pelatier, counſellor of ſtate in ordinary, and comptroller-geral of the finances, hath ordered, and accordingly orders, that the ſaid letters patents of the 7th of September 1728, be executed, according to their form and tenor, to the intent that they may be regiſtered at the admiralty-board, eſtabliſhed in the ports, deſtined by the firſt article of his majeſty's letters patents, given the month of January, 1716, for the general freedom of commerce upon the coaſt of Africa: his majeſty commands and ordains Monſ. the count of Thouloufe, admiral of France, to ſee the preſent arret put in execution, which ſhall be regiſtered in the admiralty, eſtabliſhed in the ports deſtined for the general freedom of the commerce of Africa. Made at the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty being preſent, held at Verſailles, the 13th of September, 1729.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

The king's ordinance, prohibiting captains of ſhips that ſhall bring negroes to the iſlands, from landing, or ſending their crews and cargoes thither, without permiſſion from the governors. Of the 3d of April, 1718. By the king.

His majeſty being informed that the captains of ſhips that bring negroes into the iſlands of America, have communication with the inhabitants of the ſaid colonies, and ſuffer their crews, their negroes, and other parts of their cargoes, to be landed, although the negroes that they bring, and other parts of their cargoes, are infected with the plague, which it is of high importance to prevent. To the end that from the frequency of theſe practices the ſaid contagious diſtempers may not infect the inhabitants of the ſaid iſlands: his majeſty, by and with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans, regent, forbids all captains of ſhips who ſhall import negroes into the ſaid iſlands, from coming on ſhore, or to ſuffer their crews or cargoes to be landed; and likewiſe to have no correſpondence with the inhabitants, either by themſelves, or by any of their ſhip's crew or cargoes, without permiſſion firſt had and obtained from the commanding officer of the place where they ſhall arrive; which permiſſion ſhall be allowed them, provided there is no infectious diſeaſe on ſhip-board; and, in caſe there is, a place ſhall be provided for them, where they might land the infected, in order to have them cured before they have the leaſt communication with the ſaid inhabitants. His majeſty orders and commands Monſ. the count of Thouloufe, admiral of France, and all governors and lieutenant-generals in South America, particular governors, and other officers, to pay due regard hereunto, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the king's council of ſtate, for the payment of the bounty of 13 livres for each negro, and 20 livres for every mark of gold that the Senegal company from the African coaſt ſhall cauſe to be imported into France, coming from thoſe countries, granted to the ſaid company by the 24th article of his majeſty's letters patents of the month of March, 1696, during the eſtabliſhment of the ſaid company. Of the 22d of Auguſt, 1724. Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

Upon a petition preſented to the king in council, by the old directors of the royal Senegal company of the coaſt of Africa, eſtabliſhed by his majeſty's letters patents of the month of March, 1696, regiſtered where needful; containing that by the 24th article of the ſaid letters patents, his majeſty had granted to the ſaid company, by way of bounty, the ſum of 13 livres for every negro that the ſaid company ſhould import into the iſlands and colonies of America, and which ſhould be paid to the ſaid company by his royal treaſurer, in conſequence of certificates granted by the intendant of the ſaid iſlands, or the governors in his abſence; and, by the 25th article, his majeſty likewiſe granted to the ſaid company the ſum of 20 livres for every mark of gold that ſhould be imported into France, coming from thoſe countries within the company's charter, which ſhould be paid him by the royal treaſury, upon the certification of the director-general of the mint at Paris. In execution of theſe two articles, his majeſty granted two ordinances to the ſaid company, the one of the 13th of June, 1717, of the ſum of 34,374 livres, 7 ſols, and 6 deniers, in conſideration of the importation into Cape Francois, on the coaſt of St. Domingo, 2635 negroes, from the 17th of April, 1714, to the 27th of Auguſt, 1716, purſuant to the atteſtations of the captains of thoſe ſhips by which they were imported, as well as of the directors of the ſaid company eſtabliſhed at St. Domingo, and the certificates annexed, of Sieur de Boiſmorant, chief ſecretary of the marine of the 15th and 16th of November, 1716, and what the ſaid company had imported, from the 6th of October, 1715, being five marks, ſeven ounces, ſix groſs, of gold duſt, which were ſent to the mint of Paris, purſuant to the director's certificate of the ſaid mint: the other ordinance, of the 10th of June, 1718, the ſum of 14,963 livres, for 1151 negroes that the ſaid company imported to the ſaid Cape Francois, from the 2d of February, 1717, to the 22d of February, 1718, according to five certificates for that purpoſe; two of which are from the ſaid Sieur de Boiſmorant, one from Sieur Mithon, commiſſary-general of the marine, and two from Sieur Chaſtenoye,

Chaſtenoye, major and commander of the iſland of the ſaid Cape Francois, bearing date 2 February, 26 March, and 30 November, 1717, and 22 February, 1718; all theſe certificates being dated and atteſted in the ſaid two ordinances: but, as the ſaid company are not liable to produce theſe certificates to the Sieurs Gruyn and Turmenyes, they having been depoſited in the office of marine, where they were repreſented; that it is impoſſible to obtain duplicates, as well by reaſon of the death as of the exchange of officers who ſigned them; and moreover, becauſe it would be a great difficulty upon the ſaid company, under pretence that the ſaid certificates have not been given by the Sieurs intendants, governors of the ſaid iſlands, purſuant to the terms of the ſaid letters patents, but only by the principal officers, who were then on the ſpot: the company hope that his majeſty will be pleaſed to order the payment of the ſaid ſums of 34,374 livres, 7 ſols, and 6 deniers, on the one part, and of 14,963 livres on the other, in producing only, to the ſaid Sieurs Gruyn and de Turmenyes, the ſaid two ordinances, with the acquittances of the caſhier, atteſted by two of the directors, without being obliged to produce the ſaid certificates, which cannot be obtained, &c.

In conſequence of which petition of the company, the following patent paſſed the royal council; which ſhews how inviolably thoſe acts, in regard to trade, are obſerved:

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, &c. The old directors of the royal company of Senegal, and of the coaſts of Africa, eſtabliſhed by our letters patents of March 1696, regiſtered, where it was neceſſary, have repreſented to us, that by the 24th article of our ſaid letters patents, we have granted to the ſaid company, by way of bounty, the ſum of 13 livres for each negro that ſhall be imported into our iſles and colonies of America; which ſhould be paid to the ſaid company by our treaſurer, on the certificate of our intendant of the ſaid iſles, or our governors in his abſence. And, by the 25th article, we have likewiſe granted to the ſaid company the ſum of 20 livres for each mark of gold that they ſhall cauſe to be imported into France, coming from places within the limits of the company's charter, which ſhould likewiſe be paid by our treaſurer, upon the certificate of our director-general of our mint in Paris: that, in due performance of theſe two articles, we had granted two orders to the ſaid company, the one of the 13th of June, 1717, of 34,374 livres, 7 ſols, 6 deniers, in conſideration that they had ſent, from thoſe parts of Africa to Cape Francois on the coaſt of St. Domingo, 2635 negroes, from the 17th of April, 1714, to the 27th of Auguſt, 1716, according to the copies of the declarations of the captains of the ſhips who brought them, and the directors of the ſaid company, ſettled at the ſaid St. Domingo, and the certificates of le Sieur Boiſmorant, principal ſecretary of our marine, commiſſary of the port of Cape Francois, of the 15th and 16th of November, 1716, and that the ſaid company had cauſed to come from Africa, the 6th of October, 1715, five marks, ſeven ounces, ſix grains, of gold duſt, that they had remitted to the officer of our bank at Paris, according to the certificate of our director of the bank. The other order of the 10th of June, 1718, of the ſum of 14,963 livres, for 1151 negroes, which the ſaid company had cauſed to be brought from Africa to the ſaid Cape Francois, according to five certificates, two of which were of the aforeſaid Sieur Boiſmorant, one of the Sieur Mithon, commiſſary-general of our marine, governor of the ſaid counties, and two of the Sieur Chaſtenoye, major of the iſland, our commandant of the ſaid Cape Francois, dated the 2d of February, the 26th of March, and the 30th of November, 1717, and the 22d of February, 1718; all which certificates were examined and dated in our two ſaid orders: but as the ſaid company could not ſend them to the Sieurs Gruyn and Turmenyes, our royal treaſurers (as mentioned in the preceding petition) being ſent to the office of our marine, where they were exhibited and depoſited, it was not poſſible to bring duplicates of them, on account of the death of the officers that had ſigned them, and likewiſe would occaſion the company ſome difficulty, upon pretence that the certificates were not ſigned by our governors and intendants of our iſlands, in the terms of our letters patents, but only by our principal officers that were there; the ſaid company petitioned that we would have ordered the payment of the ſaid ſum of 34,374 livres, 7 ſols, 6 deniers, for the one, and 14,963 livres for the other, producing only, to the ſaid Sieurs Gruyn and de Turmenyes, our ſaid two orders, with the receipts of his caſhier, examined by the two directors of the ſame, without being obliged to produce the ſaid certificates, which they ſhould have done, if they had had them, &c. Upon which our orders were granted, which were ſufficient warrant and authority, to our treaſurer: whereupon we have, by our arret of council of the 22d of Auguſt laſt, provided in favour of the petitioners, and ordered all neceſſary letters to be diſpatched for the execution of the ſame; which the petitioners have moſt humbly accepted: for which reaſons, and by the advice of our council who have ſeen the arret, made the ſaid 22d of Auguſt laſt, an extract of which is hung to the ſeal of our chancery, we have, by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, conformably to the arret, ordered, and we do order, that the Sieur Rolland Pierre Gruyn, our treaſurer, and commiſſary in the office of his late father, Pierre Gruyn, ſhall pay unto the ſaid company, upon the caſhier's receipt, the ſum of 34,374 livres, 7 ſols, 6 deniers, expreſſed in our order of the 13th of June, 1717; and that le Sieur Turmenyes de Nointel, alſo our treaſurer, pay the ſum of 14,963 livres, mentioned in our order of the 10th of June, upon the receipt of the ſaid caſhier; which ſums ſhall be allowed in the accounts of the ſaid Sieurs Gruyn and Turmenyes, by virtue of the ſaid receipts, examined by the two directors of the ſaid company only, without being obliged to produce the certificates upon which our ſaid two orders were granted, which we have diſpenſed with, and do diſpenſe with the manner in which it was done, nevertheleſs not to be made a precedent, &c. This is our pleaſure. Given at Verſailles, the 2d of December, 1724, and the 10th of our reign.

Signed LEWIS,
PHELYPEAUX.

The king's declaration concerning negro ſlaves of the colonies. Given at Verſailles, 25 December, 1738. Regiſtered in the parliament of Paris.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, &c. to all that ſhall ſee theſe letters, greeting: the account we ordered to be laid before us, at our coming to the crown, touching the ſtate of our colonies, has made us ſenſible of the reaſonableneſs and neceſſity of thoſe orders, contained in the letters patent, in form of an edict, of the month of March 1685, relating to negro ſlaves. We ordered them to be put in execution, by the firſt article of our edict of the month of October 1716, and it being repreſented unto us, at the ſame time, that many of the inhabitants of our iſlands of America were deſirous to ſend into France ſome of their ſlaves, to be inſtructed in the principles of religion, and learn ſome art or trade, but were fearful leſt ſuch ſlaves, upon their arrival in France, ſhould pretend they were free, and not ſlaves; we have explained our intentions, upon this ſubject, by the articles of this edict, and have laid down regulations, which we have thought proper to be obſerved by maſters, who ſhall bring or ſend over ſlaves to France: We have been informed, that, ſince that time, there have been great numbers ſent over from thence; ſo that the inhabitants, who have choſe to leave the colonies, and are come to ſettle in the kingdom, keep their ſlaves with them, contrary to the meaning of the 15th article of the ſame edict, whereby many of the negroes there have contracted bad habits, and entertain notions of independency, which may be of dangerous conſequence; and beſides, their maſters have neglected to have them taught ſome uſeful trade; inſomuch that, among the numbers that are brought to France, there are but few that have been ſent back to the colonies, and thoſe that have, were of little ſervice, and of very dangerous principles. The care we have always had, to the ſupport and increaſe of our colonies, would not ſuffer us to let ſuch abuſes continue, which are ſo contrary to both; in order to put a ſtop to which, we have reſolved to make ſome alterations in our edict of the month of October, 1716, and to add others, that ſeem to us neceſſary: for theſe, and other reaſons of our own knowledge, full power, and royal authority, we have declared and ordained, and by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, we do declare and ordain, as follows:

ARTICLE I.

The inhabitants and officers of our colonies, who ſhall ſend over negroe ſlaves into France, of either ſex, for their improvement in the principles of religion, and inſtruſtion in ſome trade or employment, proper for the colonies, ſhall be obliged to have permiſſion for ſo doing, of the governor, general, or commanding officer of the iſland, where they ſhall be; which permiſſion ſhall expreſs the owner's name who ſends ſuch ſlaves, or the name of him to whoſe care they ſhall be committed; the names of the ſlaves, with their age and marks; and the owners of the ſaid ſlaves, and thoſe who ſhall be charged with their conduct, ſhall be obliged to regiſter the ſaid permiſſion, as well at the office of the place of their reſidence before their departure, as at the place of their embarkation, in 8 days after their arrival, in the manner as is expreſſed in the 2d, 3d, and 4th articles of our edict of October 1716.

II.

In the regiſters that ſhall be made of the ſaid permiſſion, in the admiralty of the ports of France, there ſhall be mention made, of the day of the arrival of the ſlaves in the harbours.

III.

The ſaid permiſſion ſhall be regiſtered again, at the marble table of the palais at Paris, deſigned for ſlaves that ſhall be brought into our ſaid city, or at the regiſter of the places where they ſhall be brought to reſide; and it ſhall ſpecify in the ſaid regiſter, the trade which the ſaid ſlaves ſhall learn, and the maſters who ſhall inſtruct them.

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The ſlaves, of either ſex, who ſhall be brought to France by their maſter, or by whomſoever ſent, ſhall not pretend they have their liberty, becauſe they are come into this kingdom; but ſhall be obliged to return into our colonies, whenever their maſters ſhall think proper: but, if the maſter does not obſerve the forms preſcribed in the foregoing articles, the ſaid ſlaves ſhall be confiſcated to our uſe, and ſent back to our colonies, and employed as we think fit.

V.

The officers employed, by our authority, in the colonies, who ſhall have leave to come to France, and ſhall have brought ſlaves to ſerve as domeſtics, ſhall not keep them longer than the time limited for their ſtay; but, at the expiration, ſhall be ſent back to the colonies; upon failure of which, they ſhall be confiſcated and employed there, to our ſervice, as we ſhall think proper.

VI.

The inhabitants, who ſhall bring or ſend ſlaves to France, to learn ſome trade, ſhall not retain them there longer than 3 years, reckoning from the day of their arrival in the port; ſuch ſlaves as are not ſent back, as aforeſaid, ſhall be confiſcated to our uſe, and employed in the colonies in our works.

VII.

The inhabitants of our colonies, that are willing to ſettle in our kingdom, cannot there keep, in their houſes, ſlaves of either ſex, when they have not diſpoſed of their habitations in the colonies; and the ſlaves which ſhall remain, ſhall be confiſcated, to be employed in the colonies for our uſe. They may, nevertheleſs, ſend them to France, obſerving the rules above preſcribed, leaving the colonies to learn ſome employment, in order to make them more uſeful, at their return, to the ſaid colonies; and in this caſe, they conform to the regulations preſcribed in the foregoing articles, under penalty of being carried there again.

VIII.

All who ſhall carry or ſend negro ſlaves into France, and ſhall not ſend them back, according as preſcribed in the 3 foregoing articles, ſhall be obliged, beſides the loſs of their ſlaves, to pay for each ſlave, not ſent back, the ſum of a thouſand livres, into the hands of the commiſſioner-general of the treaſury of the marine at the colonies, to be employed in the public works; and the licence, which they might otherwiſe have obtained from the governor-general, and the commanding officers, ſhall not be granted, until they have given ſecurity into the hands of the aforeſaid treaſurer of the marine, for the payment of the ſaid ſum, which ſecurity ſhall be mentioned in the ſaid licence.

IX.

All thoſe who have negro ſlaves in France, of either ſex, ſhall be obliged, in three months, reckoning from the day of the publiſhing theſe preſents, to make a declaration of them, to the board of admiralty neareſt their habitation, and give ſecurity to ſend back, in a year from the date hereof, the ſaid negroes into the ſaid colonies: upon failure of which, or not giving the aforeſaid ſecurity, the ſaid ſlaves ſhall be confiſcated, and employed in the colonies for our ſervice.

X.

The negro ſlaves who ſhall be brought to France, ſhall not marry there, without conſent of their maſters, notwithſtanding what is mentioned in the 7th article of our edict, of October 1716.

XI.

Maſters that ſhall have brought ſlaves, of either ſex, into France, ſhall not make them free, under any pretence whatſoever, only by will; and ſuch freedom, thus given, ſhall not be of force, unleſs the teſtator dies before the expiration of the time, in which ſlaves, brought into France, ought to be ſent back to the colonies.

XII.

All ſlaves brought into France to learn trades, as aforeſaid, their maſters, who are to inſtruct them therein, ſhall take care that they are brought up in the catholic religion.

XIII.

Our edict of October 1716 ſhall be in full force, where it does not derogate from theſe preſents.

Thus we give in command, to our friends and faithful counſellors, members of our court of parliament at Aix, ordering theſe regulations to be read, publiſhed, and regiſtered, and their contents kept, obſerved, and executed, according to their form and tenor, notwithſtanding all edicts, ordinances, declarations, arrets, regulations, and uſages to the contrary, wherein they differ from this.

This is our pleaſure. Signed LEWIS,
PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the king's council of ſtate, which prohibits GUM * from the river Senegal, being exported out of the kingdom, for one year, under pain of confiſcation, and three hundred livres penalty, 2d November, 1751. Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

The king in council being informed, the great quantity of gum from Senegal, that was exported to foreign countries, would occaſion a ſcarcity of the ſaid drug in his own kingdom, which his majeſty willing to prevent: the king being in council, and hearing the report, hath ordered, and does, by theſe preſents, order, that, reckoning from this preſent arret to the 1ſt November 1752, no gum Senegal ſhall be exported out of the kingdom to foreigners, on pain of confiſcation, and three hundred livres penalty. Therefore, his majeſty commands and enjoins the intendants and commiſſaries, in the ſeveral provinces of his kingdom, to have due regard that this arret of council be ſtrictly put in execution; which ſhall be read, publiſhed, and fixed up, wherever it ſhall be requiſite, that none may plead ignorance thereof. Done in the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty there preſent, held with regard to the finances, at Fontainbleau, 2d November 1751.

Signed M. P.
D'ARGENSEN.

* This gum is an exceeding uſeful material, in the ſilk manufacture of France; and therefore the French have engroſſed almoſt the whole gum trade of the coaſt of Africa, and even prohibited the exportation of the gum Senegal, leſt they themſelves ſhould have a ſcarcity, or rather other nations the benefit of the ſame, in their manufactures,

REMARKS.

We have been thus particular with reſpect to the meaſures that France has taken, in relation to their trade of Africa, in order to make a proper uſe thereof, occaſionally, in the ſubſequent parts of this work: but what gives the greateſt weight to the African trade of this kingdom, at preſent, is perhaps, their great India company, which has the right in this trade, excluſive of all other the ſubjects of France; to which privileges and immunities, they have alſo added the following.

An account of the bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements given by the French to their African company, taken from a memorial of the deputies of the council of trade in France, to the royal council of commerce there.

1. An exemption from all local and provincial inland duties of any kind, upon their goods and merchandize in France, as alſo from all duties for merchandize exported to Africa, wherewith to purchaſe negroes, gold, ivory, &c. which, conſidering the number of ſhips they employ in this trade, cannot be computed at near ſo ſmall a ſum as 150,000l. ſterling per annum; nor the whole exempted at ſo ſmall a rate as 3 per cent. thereon. — per ann. ſterl. 3000l.

2. An exemption from half the cuſtoms on all ſugars, and other merchandize imported from the French iſlands and colonies in America, being the produce of the ſale of negroes there: the amount of which will appear by the following moderate computation, viz.

Suppoſe 15000 negroes only, (whereas good judges reckon them not leſs than double that number) are imported into the French ſugar iſlands annually; and that 10000 of that number ſhould be ſold for ſugar to be returned to France, at the rate of forty hundred weight of ſugar only per head.

The duty on importation of ſugar into France is 3 per cent. on about two-thirds of the value; which is at the rate of 2 per cent. And there is alſo an inland duty of three livres, or 2s. 9d. ſterling per hundred weight.

Suppoſe the price of ſuch ſugar is computed at no more than 25s. per hundred; which, upon 10000 negroes, makes 400,000 weight of ſugar; and this, at 1 per cent. being one half of the duty upon importation, amounts to — — 5000l.

400,000 hundred weight of ſugar at 1s. 4d. per hundred, being half of the above inland duty of three livres, or 2s. 9d. ſterling per hundred weight, is — 27,500l.

3. A bounty of ten livres, or 9s. 2d. ſterling to be paid out of the king's revenue, for every negroe carried to the French iſlands and colonies in America; which upon the ſaid 15000 negroes only, amounts to — — — — 6875

4. A bounty of 9s. 2d for every ounce

	per ann. ſterl.
Brought over——	42,375
of gold duſt that ſhall be imported from Africa into France.	
Suppoſe only 5000 ounces of gold imported from Africa into France, which is quite trifling and inconſiderable, when we recollect how rich their ſhips in the Guinea trade are in gold, as hath appeared by ſome late captures, is — —	2296
The total is per ann. in ſterl. money —	44,671 l.

N. B. The exemption of duties on what the other five thouſand negroes produce in coffee, indigo, cotton, cocoa, &c. is left out in this account, leſt any exaggeration ſhould appear; and in every other article, things are extremely under-rated, which every one at all acquainted with the extent of the French trade to Africa and America, need not be apprized of.

So well calculated for the advance of the French trade of Africa, as well as of their ſugar-iſlands in America, do theſe meaſures appear, that the rapid increaſe of thoſe trades, in that kingdom, is not at all to be admired, and eſpecially ſo, ſince, from the treaty of Utrecht, they have had no competitors in thoſe trades, who have been able to do them any injury. Such has been the ſinking, and almoſt bankrupt ſtate of our late African company, from this æra, and ſuch the jarring intereſt between them and our ſeparate traders, that France has taken advantage of both; for they have ſome years ſince abſolutely excluded our ſeparate traders, as well as the company, from the whole trade of the Gum Coaſt; and from the impotent condition of the company to ſupport their dignity and authority, purſuant to their charter, in Africa; this nation has, by means of their great company to the Indies, traded uninterruptedly under the noſe of our Britiſh forts and ſettlements, while our traders have not been ſuffered to approach theirs with impunity.

Can we wonder then, that the French ſhould ſo well ſtock their ſugar colonies with negroe-labourers, as to be able not only amply to ſupply their own European dominions with ſugars, which they formerly took from us and the Portugueze, but to engroſs ſo conſiderable a ſhare of the ſugar-trade out of our hands in foreign markets?

Before the peace of Utrecht, the French had the Aſſiento for ſupplying the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with negroes; which proved the means of introducing immenſe quantities of the French manufactures into Spaniſh America; and, therefore, as the negro trade was carried on by France, it was extremely beneficial to that kingdom. But, when they had greatly enriched themſelves*, and had ſo overdone that trade, as to render it good for little to any ſucceſſor, they very wiſely parted with it; and by the treaty of Utrecht, transferred the Aſſiento to the Engliſh South-Sea company; and, what advantages they have made by it, is too well known to need explanation. See ASSIENTO.

* To ſuch a degree did the French trade in the South Seas in the reign of Lewis the XIVth, that they were enabled by a computation made from the ſeveral regiſters in Spain, and remittances otherwiſe made (according to authentic intelligence now before me in manuſcript) to import, into the French dominions, TWO HUNDRED AND FOUR MILLIONS OF PIECES OF EIGHT; which reduced the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies to ſuch a degree of miſery, as obliged the viceroy of Peru to preſent a memorial to his catholic majeſty, ſhewing the cauſes of the inexpreſſible grievance the trade laboured under by the French being permitted and countenanced in the carrying on ſuch a deſtructive trade in the South-Seas; which had, according to the words of the Spaniſh memorial, occaſioned—
The whole trade to be at a ſtand.
The treaſure of the kingdom to diſperſe different ways.
The negotiations of commerce to be embarraſſed.
The merchants to be ruined.
The ſubjects to be poor.
The quinto's (or king's duties of $\frac{1}{5}$) to be decreaſed.
The duties to be unjuſtly applied.
The public revenue to be diſſipated.
The traders in general to be without money:
And foreigners reaping the benefit.

By getting rid of the Aſſiento, at the time when they had made it worth nothing to any body elſe, they received this advantage by giving it up; they had greater plenty of negroes wherewith to ſtock their own colonies, and they came cheaper by them; whereas the acceptance of the Aſſiento, at that time of day, rendered them dearer to the Britiſh plantations, and they have continued ſo ever ſince: and yet the French have preſerved a great ſhare of the Spaniſh Weſt-India trade ever ſince likewiſe.

REMARKS ON THE FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE SINCE the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By the laſt war Great-Britain made conqueſts of the river SENEGAL, and the ISLAND OF GOREE in AFRICA; and by the Xth article of the DEFINITIVE TREATY, his Britannic majeſty reſtores to France the iſland of Goree, in the condition it was in when conquered: And his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty cedes, in full right, and guaranties to the king of Great-Britain the river Senegal, with the forts and factories of St Lewis, Podor, and Galam; and with all the rights and dependencies of the ſaid river Senegal. See ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY.

To what a degree, and by what meaſures, this nation has ſo greatly and ſo ſuddenly advanced their commerce and navigation in America, we ſhall next take into conſideration, under the article of FRENCH AMERICA.—See FRENCH AMERICA.

FRENCH AMERICA BEFORE THE LAST WAR. Although we have taken notice of this point under the general article of FRANCE, yet we have there only touched it in a general way, and in one peculiar light, as preparatory to what we have ſaid under the article BRITISH AMERICA, and what we ſhall further offer under the preſent head.

Under the foregoing article of FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, we have ſhewed, from the authority of the deputies of the council of trade in France, what neceſſary dependency and connection they have judged there is between the trade of Africa, and that of the French iſlands in America; and alſo of what high importance thoſe deputies thought thoſe colonies to be to the commerce and navigation of that kingdom in general.—This appears from a memorial of the ſaid deputies of the council of trade in France, to the royal council in 1701, &c. the preamble to which I have juſt quoted under the article of FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE.

That the commercial ſtate of the French iſlands in America may be duly repreſented as they really were at this time (1701.) we ſhall give the reader an authentic account thereof in as narrow a compaſs as we can, from the abovementioned memorial: and by comparing their paſt with their preſent ſtate, [that is before the laſt war] we ſhall be able to make a true judgment of the advancement of the trade and navigation of thoſe French American colonies.

After the deputies of the council of trade having repreſented to the royal council, in the aforeſaid memorial, THE DEPENDENCY OF THE COMMERCE OF THEIR AMERICAN ISLANDS UPON THAT OF AFRICA, they lay before them the then ſtate of their iſland colonies, which is as follows:

The ſmall iſland with the terra firma of CAYENNE, comes firſt in view. It's coaſts are about 60 leagues in extent, not above 10 or 12 of it are inhabited. It's ſoil is very good; the ſugars it produces, which are the brown, clayed, white, and middling ſorts, do near equal in goodneſs the white ſugars of Braſil. It affords rocou, which is a drug for dyeing red: it has not above 600 whites, men, women, and children, with about 2000 blacks of both ſexes; ſo that this large tract of land is almoſt uninhabited. And as this iſland is ſituated in very near the ſame parallel as the Moluccas, where the fine ſpices grow, 'tis believed that it might be eaſy to cultivate them there, and ſo ſpare the buying them of the Dutch; the rather, becauſe the Portugueſe on this ſide of the river Amazons, in a ſituation more diſtant from the line, have cinnamon.

The iſland of GRENADE, is in circuit about 15 leagues. The number of whites there is about 200, and of blacks of both ſexes about 600. There is a pretty good fort on it. It produces ſugar, indigo that is excellent; alſo rocou, cotton, and caſſet. The ſoil is very good, and the colony might be conſiderably augmented.

MARTINICO is the principal colony; the governor and the intendant of our American iſlands have their reſidence there. It's circuit is about 60 leagues. The ſoil is good, and very fertile in ſugars rough and white; cacao, caſſet, rocou; it affords likewiſe ſome indigo and cotton. It had formerly 3500 men bearing arms, and about 16,000 blacks of both ſexes. It has three good harbours, ſeveral good roads for ſhipping, and two ſmall towns unwalled. It has a good fort in the Cul de Sac Royal.

GUARDALOUPE, and the land belonging to it, are about 50 leagues in compaſs. The ſoil is pretty good, it's ſugars very fine, it affords cotton and ginger. 'Tis not peopled. It had formerly 1500 men bearing arms, and about 8000 blacks of both ſexes.

MARIE GALANTE. It's circuit is about 16 leagues. The ſoil is pretty good, it's ſugar ſomewhat of the finer ſort: it produces indigo, cotton, and ginger. It was taken the laſt war by the Engliſh, who afterwards abandoned it. It is not yet able to recover itſelf, having but three or four ſugar-plantations ſet up again. It has a ſmall fort, which the Engliſh demoliſhed: we have begun to rebuild it.

The iſland of ST CHRISTOPHER has 28 leagues in circuit. The ſoil is of an excellent quality. The French poſſeſs one half of it, and the Engliſh the other. In the laſt war we drove the Engliſh out of it, two years after they retook it: by the treaty of peace, we were reſtored to the poſſeſſion of our part. It will be difficult to re-eſtabliſh that colony in it's firſt condition: it would then have above 2000 whites bearing arms, and 12,000 blacks. 'Tis to be feared, that, the next rupture, the Engliſh will beat us out of it; the more

eaſily, becauſe they have the iſlands of Antigua, Montſerat, and Nevis, which lie very near, and are very well peopled. This came true, St Kitts being ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht.

SAINTE-CROIX is about 25 leagues round: formerly it had 600 men bearing arms, and many ſugar-plantations. During the laſt war the king cauſed it to be abandoned, becauſe of the difficulties of defending it: the inhabitants were tranſported to St Domingo. Yet this iſland is a very good one, and produces ſugars, indigo, cotton: it has a very good harbour, and a very good baſon, proper for careening ſhips: it's harbour is very ſafe, and ſheltered from hurricanes.

The laſt colony is ST DOMINGO. 'Tis about 500 leagues in circuit; the French poſſeſs one half of it, from Cape François to the iſland Vaches, and the Spaniards have the other half.

At CAPE FRANCOIS there is a good port: there are 900 men bearing arms, and about 2000 blacks of both ſexes. Southward is PORT DE PAIX, which the Engliſh have in part deſtroyed, after plundering it. The inhabitants are diſperſed, the place is almoſt abandoned. The diſtrict of LEOGANE is more conſiderable; there the governor lives, and the ſovereign council is held. It had about 2000 men bearing arms, and about 15,000 blacks of both ſexes.

PETIT-GUAVE has a good port, and had about 600 whites and 2000 blacks.

There are ſome other iſlands, as LA DOMINIQUE, LES XAINTES, ST MARTIN, and ST BARTHELEMY, which are of very little importance, and almoſt uninhabited.

The laſt war, and the ſickneſs known by the name of Siam, which a ſhip brought thither from that country, have much diminiſhed our colonies; this, and the neighbourhood of the iſlands which the Engliſh poſſeſs, are very preſſing motives io our ſtudying ſeriouſly the ſafety of thoſe iſlands and colonies. Nothing but the trade of blacks can furniſh us with hands enough to people and cultivate our iſlands.

After this the deputies go on in their memorial, repreſenting the diſadvantages of carrying on the Guinea trade by means of an excluſive company, which not being to my purpoſe at preſent, I ſhall wave.

When once, continue the deputies of the council of trade, this commerce ſhall be well eſtabliſhed, and our colonies ſhall be ſufficiently ſtocked, it will not be difficult for us to imitate the ENGLISH OF JAMAICA, IN THE TRAFFIC THEY HAVE WITH THE SPANIARDS. We may, by the way of ST DOMINGO, TRADE IN NEGROES: by favour of that trade, we might vend great quantities of our goods and manufactures to the Spaniards of the neighbouring iſlands, and on the coaſt of the continent, and might get of them a great deal of gold and ſilver in exchange *. The grand occurrence of the union of France and Spain gives us hopes of an open commerce, and an eaſy correſpondence, which may enable us to undertake any thing. We have a great many ſhips that lie uſeleſs in our ports, and are rotting for want of employment. The intendants of the maritime provinces can atteſt this truth: 'tis grievous to the king's ſubjects to ſee their ſhippinſt periſh thus, while they might make good uſe of them, had they the liberty which they deſire.

* This we have ſeen they did, from the memorial of the commerce of Peru to his Catholic majeſty, and have done ſo more or leſs ever ſince.

REMARKS.

Beſides the foregoing iſlands, except St. Chriſtophers, France poſſeſſed CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES, as well on the continent, as the gulph and river St Lawrence. See CANADA, AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA.—They poſſeſſed alſo CAPE BRETON.—By the laſt war we conquered CANADA, and CAPE BETON:—And by the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, CANADA and all its DEPENDENCIES are ceded to the crown of England, and alſo CAPE BRETON; and the ſmall iſlands of ST PETERS and MIGNOLEN, near Newfoundland, are ceded by Great-Britain to France, as a ſhelter for their fiſhermen only, it being ſtipulated, that they ſhall make therein no fortifications, nor have a guard of more than 50 men for the police. See AMERICA for the whole of the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, article VI.

We having alſo by the laſt war conquered the French Sugar-Iſlands of Martinico and Guardaloupe, Marie Galante, and Deſirade, and by the VIIIth article of the ſaid treaty, Great-Britain cedes them to France; and by the IXth article France cedes to Great-Britain the iſlands of Grenada, and of the Grenadines; and the partition of the iſlands, called Neutral, is agreed and fixed, ſo that thoſe of St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, ſhall remain in full right to Great-Britain; and that of St Lucra ſhall be delivered to France, to enjoy the ſame likewiſe in full right. See BRITISH AMERICA.

A CONTINUATION OF THE FRENCH DEPUTIES REPRESENTATION.

To omit nothing in a matter ſo important, [as that of the French colonies] it is neceſſary to repreſent, that the duties which were ſettled by the arret of the 20th of June 1698, on the white ſugars imported from the iſlands, at 15 livres the hundred weight, and on the brown ſugars at 3 livres, over and above the 3 per cent. duty to the domaine of the weſt, are too high, and prejudicial to the commerce of France, and advantageous to the trade of foreigners, for the reaſons following:

I. The Portugal ſugars which are imported into France, pay but 15 livres the hundred weight, and are exempted from the duty of 3 per cent. of the weſtern domaine, which thoſe of our colonies pay.

II. High duties hinder great conſumption; the dearer any thing is, the more ſparing are people in uſing it; this is contrary to the deſign of improving the colonies. Beſides, 'tis certain, that, when ſugars come to ſink in their price, they cannot bear ſo high a duty: it will therefore be expedient to reduce the duty of 15 livres to 8, and the duty on brown from 3 livres to 30 ſols; for, at this very time, white ſugars are worth but from 25 to 30 livres the hundred weight, and the brown from 12 to 13 livres

III. When the crop of ſugars ſhall be in any degree plentiful, the entrepoſt ought to be allowed, to favour the vending of it, and the carrying of the over-ſtock to foreigners. In Holland the brown ſugars pay but 20 ſols, and the white but 30 ſols; it would therefore be convenient to reduce the duties in France to ſuch a foot, that our ſugars might be carried out with the ſame advantages as thoſe of nations.

The royal council ſeems to have deſigned to remedy theſe inconveniences, by the arrêt of the 28th of June 1698, which allows the carrying directly to foreign parts clayed and refined ſugars, paying only the 3 per cent. duty on the weſtern domaine.

But the execution of this arret would be prejudicial to the ſtate, becauſe the French ſhips, going directly from the American iſlands to foreign ports, are neceſſitated, after they have unladen, to refit; this creates expence; money muſt be laid out in ſubſiſting the ſhips companies, and in re-victualing to return to France. This is conſuming foreign commodities; our carpenters, ſail-makers, rope-makers, and other mechanics who work tó the ſea, are deprived of the profits, which they would reap, if the ſhips made their voyage directly back to France.

The crews oblige the captains to pay them their wages; it cannot be avoided, the cargo being a ſecurity for the wages of the ſeamen; this money is diſſipated among foreigners in debauchery, and their families, which are in France, are deprived of their ſubſiſtence: in a word, this practice will ruin our navigation inſtead of increaſing it.

IV. The miſmanagement of the clerks (or agents) of the farmers, is very prejudical to this commerce; they make a difficulty to return the duties (or pay the drawbacks) which they are obliged to do, when the ſugars refined in France are ſent out of the kingdom: they take advantage of their authority, and of the protection with which the council honours them; the length and charge of the proceedings diſcourage the merchants.

V. Proviſion ſhould be made by proper regulations, againſt the frauds which the inhabitants of the iſlands are apt to commit. Care has been already taken to correct thoſe which they uſed in making of ſugars, by ordering every one to put his mark on the caſks with a hot marking-iron, in order to diſcover and proceed againſt the culpable: 'tis neceſſary to oblige every one of the inhabitants to keep in his houſe a good beam and ſcales, with weights of lead or iron, marked according to the ſtandard, and to forbid them to make uſe of ſtilliards and weights of ſtone. It is likewiſe neceſſary to oblige the director, who was paid a duty for weighing after the rate of one per cent. for all goods, though he does not weigh them, to ſend every year an expert maſter-weigher, with braſs weights, and other neceſſaries, for aſcertaining, and marking according to the ſtandard, all the weights of the inhabitants, making them pay for the materials added to defective weights, and this for remedying the frequent abuſes which are committed by falſe weights.

The deputies are obliged to obſerve further to the royal council, that, for three or four years paſt, a duty is levied at St Domingo of two ſols per livre on indigo ſhipped off there. This novelty is the more pernicious, becauſe that drug ſerves for dyeing our manufactures in blues or blacks, and becauſe we make a conſiderable traffic thereof to the north. 'Tis of great importance for the royal council to be pleaſed to take off this duty, which is capable of ruining the cultivation of this drug, which is very near as good as that of Guatamala.

VI. It might be proper to add to the regulation by which the council injoins every ſhip to carry a certain number of lads or fellows, who hire themſelves to ſervice for augmenting the colonies, which might be taken out of the Hôtel Diu, and maids brought up to, and expert in manufactures, to be married to the hired men-ſervants after they have ſerved out their times; and to forbear ſending the common proſtitutes, who are more likely to corrupt and infect the country, than to people it; and, as there are abundance of beggars in France able to work, who live in perfect idleneſs, it would be eſ-

ſential

ſential to order the juſtices to cauſe numbers of them to be taken up, and ſhipped off to our colonies.

VII. Laſtly, it would be convenient to eſtabliſh four conſular juriſdictions, in the iſlands of St Domingo, St Chriſtopher, Martinico, and Guardaloupe, in the nature of thoſe eſtabliſhed in France: they might be compoſed of one judge and four conſuls, who might decide ſovereignly all cauſes to the ſum of ———, and for greater ſums give a liberty of appeal to the ſovereign court of the place.

About ſixty years ago the French were little verſed in commerce, and little ſkilled in navigation. In thoſe days it was neceſſary to form companies, and to grant them privileges, in order to engage them to beat out, for the king's ſubjects, tracks of commerce which were unknown to them. 'Tis expedient and very beneficial to the ſtate to act in the like manner, as often as new ſettlements of colonies, clearing and cultivating of new diſcovered places, or new inventions are propoſed; yet, in theſe caſes, the privileges ought not to be granted but for a certain number of years: but, unleſs on ſuch occaſions, nothing is more deſtructive to a ſtate than excluſive privileges.

REMARKS with regard to the FRENCH LAWS, ORDINANCES and REGULATIONS of their American colonies before the laſt war.

No man of ſenſe, and acquainted with the nature of trade, can read theſe ſentiments of the French deputies of commerce, which they laid before the royal council, but muſt applaud them, they being ſo well adapted to the advancement of colonies, eſpecially in their infancy, as it were: nay, we find, from the ſenſe of theſe deputies themſelves, that the whole trade of France was then but in it's infant ſtate; for they acknowledge, that, about forty years before this, the French were little verſed in commerce, and little ſkilled in navigation: and, although England has had the ſtart of them in trade and navigation by ſome ages, yet we experience, that they have already overtaken us. Could they have poſſibly effectuated theſe great things, if the laws and regulations of their trade, and the encouragements they have conſtantly given within this century, were not exquiſitely well calculated to anſwer the end propoſed? They had the advantage, indeed, of our laws for their guidance; and they have ſhewed as much ſagacity in imitating the beſt, as in rejecting the worſe: whereby they have, in many reſpects, improved in their laws and regulations of commerce and navigation upon our's; and, if there is any thing importantly uſeful to be borrowed from them in our turn, 'tis to be hoped, that we ſhall not be ſo unwiſe as to condemn it, becauſe it is of French production.

There is one thing of which our readers ſhould be put in mind, eſpecially as it frequently occurs, not only in the memorials of the French deputies of trade, but in many of their beſt political writings; that is, not to be led away with the praiſes they often beſtow upon this nation, with relation to our laws for the regulation of trade, or pay too much regard to the profuſe encomiums they have given upon the wiſdom we have ſhewn in conducting our colonies, an inſtance of which we juſt now had from the French deputies. Theſe are not to be conſidered as genuine and candid repreſentations, flowing from the real ſentiments of their authors in general, but as artificial colourings, neceſſary to raiſe the jealouſy of thoſe to whom they write, and making them thereby the more keen for taking proper meaſures for the deſtruction of our trade. When the old Roman ſenator produced the fruits that came from the neighbourhood of Carthage, it was not ſo much to magnify the ſoil where they grew, as to warm his countrymen into a deſire of ſubduing the inhabitants of the region that produced them.

Nor ſhould it be leſs obſervable by the Britiſh reader, with what freedom, with what becoming, yet unreſtrained freedom, the deputies of commerce, choſen by the merchants *, addreſs themſelves to the king in council. What is ſtill more encouraging and extraordinary is, that the deputies of particular trading cities are permitted, and, indeed, frequently commanded by the royal council, to make their objections againſt what ſhall be urged by the deputies of other cities: nay, they ſuffer their replies and rejoinders to be laid before them, as long as either of the parties have any ſignificant matter to urge. By this means, they have the ſubject ſo effectually canvaſſed by the deputies, previouſly to their own determinations, that the royal council rarely fail to obtain ſo thorough an inſight into the caſe at laſt, as to enable them to take their reſolutions for the public intereſts. To ſhew the nature of which, is one reaſon for giving our readers a part of the memorial before repreſented. But it muſt be obſerved, that what theſe memorialiſts ſhall ſubmit to the conſideration of the royal council, is not to be taken as the real laws and regulations of the trade of France; theſe are only to be found in the arrets, edicts, ordinances, and letters patents; all which are the reſult of the determinations of the royal council, in conſequence of the information that has been laid before them by the deputies of commerce. I had taken no notice of this, had I not frequently obſerved, that the memorials of thoſe deputies had been quoted by ſome of our Engliſh writers upon trade, as French laws and regulations of validity: whereas they are to be no otherwiſe conſidered than in the light wherein we have repreſented them.

* For the nature of this inſtitution of the deputies of commerce in France, ſee the article CHAMBER of COMMERCE.

Another reaſon which induced me to cite ſo much of the beforementioned memorial as I have done, is to ſhew, from the pen of the deputies of commerce themſelves, what was the ſtate and condition of the French iſlands in America when this memorial was drawn up; and, by comparing their ſtate in 1701 with what it is at preſent, we ſhall be able to form a good judgment to what degree the commerce of their colonies has advanced in that number of years. This will an uſeful enquiry. Moreover.

As it will appear that theſe colonies have extraordinarily increaſed in their trade and navigation from the year 1701, and that to ſuch a degree as greatly ſurprized this nation in the late war of 1741, it may be further uſeful, and highly ſatisfactory, to have before us in miniature the real meaſures that have been taken by France, from time to time, to raiſe this commerce to the height they have done; and more eſpecially ſo, as thoſe French laws and regulations may afford many important hints for future conſideration, with reſpect to our own colonies in general.

Upon turning over the arrets, edicts, ordinances, declarations, and patents, iſſued by the royal council, in relation to the French colonies in America, I ſhall take notice of ſome of the eſſential, ſubſequent to the foregoing memorial.

Regulations concerning hired ſervants, and fire-arms, exported by merchantmen to the French colonies in America and New France. November 16, 1716, regiſtered in parliament.

The king, being informed that there were divers laws and ordinances which obliged merchants, at different times, to export, to the French colonies of America, cattle, hired ſervants, and as much flour as the colonies had occaſion for; and, by thoſe laws of the 19th of February 1698, the 8th of April 1699, the 26th of December 1703, the 17th of November 1706, the 3d of Auguſt 1707, and the 20th of March 1714, they were obliged to ſend, both to the ſaid iſlands and New France, a certain number of hired ſervants and buccaneer guns for hunting; which obligations were declared in his majeſty's paſſports: but thoſe merchants believing themſelves to be exempt from ſuch obligation, by an edict of February 1716, they deſiſted from ſending the particulars aforeſaid. His majeſty, never intending to free the merchants, by the ſaid edict, from the ſaid obligations, the inhabitants having now as much need of hired ſervants and thoſe guns as ever, has thought proper, by the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans, his uncle, regent, to explain his intentions, and make the preſent regulation, which he requires to be executed for the future.

TITLE I.

Of hired or articled ſervants.

ARTICLE I.

All captains of merchantmen that ſhall go to the French colonies of America, and New France, or Canada, excepting thoſe in the negro trade, ſhall be obliged to carry thither hired ſervants, viz. a ſhip of 60 tons, and under, ſhall carry three hired ſervants; from 60 to 100, four ditto; and, from 100 and upwards, ſix hired ſervants.

II.

The terms of carrying theſe ſervants ſhall be mentioned in the permiſſion given by the admiral to the captain for ſailing.

III.

Thoſe ſervants ſhall be between the age of 18 and 40, none leſs than four feet in ſtature, ſtrong, fit to work, and ſhall ſerve three years.

IV.

Such ſervants ſhall be examined by the officers of the admiralty at the port from whence the ſhips ſhall ſail, and thoſe ſhall be rejected who are not qualified according to the preceding article, and of a good conſtitution.

V.

Their particular characteriſtics of the ſervants ſhall be minuted in the ſhip's book.

VI.

Such of them that are handicraftſmen and mechanics, uſeful to the colonies, ſhall be accounted as two, and the trade each is of ſhall be ſpecified.

VII.

The captains of ſuch merchantmen, as ſoon as arrived, ſhall deliver them to the commiſſary appointed for the purpoſe, who ſhall examine whether they anſwer the deſcriptions required, and are the identical perſons who embarked.

VIII. The

VIII.

The captains and inhabitants of the colonies ſhall agree upon the price; but if they cannot agree, the commiſſaries ſhall oblige thoſe inhabitants that have not the number of hired ſervants required by the ordinances, to take them, and ſettle the price.

IX.

The captains ſhall bring a certificate from the commiſſioners, teſtifying the ſaid ſervants to be the ſame as embarked.

X.

The captains, on their return to France, ſhall produce the ſaid certificate to the officers of the admiralty.

XI.

The captains and owners of ſhips ſhall be abſolutely condemned in the penalty of 200 livres for every ſuch articled ſervant not carried to the colonies, without appeal.

TITLE II.

Of fire-arms.

ARTICLE I.

All captains of merchantmen who ſhall ſail to the French iſland colonies in America, and New France, or Canada, except thoſe who are concerned in the negro-trade, ſhall be obliged to carry thither in each veſſel four buccaneer-guns, or four fuſees for hunting, mounted with braſs.

II.

The condition upon which theſe guns may be carried, ſhall be inſerted in the permiſſion given by the admiral for ſuch ſhips to ſail.

III.

Theſe buccaneer-guns ſhall be four feet four inches long, light, and carry balls of 18 to the mark pound weight.

IV.

The fuſees for hunting ſhall be four feet long, and light.

V.

The ſaid captains ſhall, on arrival in the colonies, depoſit the ſaid arms into the king's arſenal where they ſhall land, in order to be examined and proved in the governor's preſence.

VI.

If any piece ſhall not hold in the proof, the captain ſhall be fined 30 livres.

VII.

The ſaid 30 livres ſhall be immediately laid out by the governor in buccaneer hunting-guns, and diſtributed to the poor inhabitants.

VIII.

The ſaid captains ſhall leave the ſaid arms 'till they are ſold, or 'till the governor ſhall have diſtributed them among the companies of the militia; in which caſe he, in concert with the intendant or commiſſary, ſhall order payment for the ſame.

IX.

The captains ſhall take a certificate from the governor, atteſted by the intendant, of the ſending back ſuch guns, and of the ſum paid on account of not ſtanding proof.

X.

They ſhall alſo be obliged, on their return to France, and in making their declaration, to carry with them the ſaid certificate to the officers of the admiralty.

XI.

The captains and owners of ſuch merchantmen ſhall be condemned by the officers of the admiralty in 50 livres fine for every ſuch gun that they ſhall omit to carry into the colonies, without appeal.

TITLE III.

Of proſecutions and fines.

ARTICLE I.

All proſecutions, occaſioned in diſregard to the ſaid regulations, ſhall be undertaken by the king's ſolicitor of the admiralty.

II.

The fines made to the admiralty ſhall belong to the admiral; and thoſe made by the marble-table, the one half ſhall go to the admiralty, the other to the king, according to the ordinance of 1681.

The governors, intendants, or commiſſaries in the colonies, ſhall jointly tranſmit an account every half-year to the council of marine, of the number of articled ſervants and guns that every merchant ſhall ſend to the colonies, of the ſums paid for defective arms, and how the arms have been employed.

Signed LEWIS.
PHELYPEAUX.

In conſequence of which, letters patents were granted by the king, in the manner we have before given inſtances of, to cauſe the ſaid regulations to be duly obſerved in his dominions.

REMARKS.

It is obvious enough from the leaſt reflection, that, (1.) The intention of the preceding regulations is, to people the French colonies with a number of Whites proportionate to that of Blacks, that the latter might not be an over-match for the former, and diſturb the plantations with inſurrections. (2.) That, by ſending over French workmen, as articled ſervants, is to render labour cheaper in the plantations, and ſo far to inſtruct the negroes in ſuch workmanſhip as may render them the more ſerviceable to the planters. And, (3.) To accuſtom the people to, and inſtruct them in, the uſe of arms, as well to defend their colonies at the leaſt expence to the crown, as to train them to hunting; and that not only to ſupply themſelves with food at the leaſt expence, but for the ſake of the peltry trade in New France, or Canada, which is the eſſential article of that commerce.

Nor are theſe regulations wiſely adapted only to thoſe good purpoſes, but ſo judiciouſly are the checks contrived among the officers, both in France and the colonies, who are to ſee thoſe regulations duly put in execution, that they are rarely neglected: and this is the caſe of moſt of the laws in France; they are as vigilantly executed, as properly accommodated to the ends thereby deſigned to be anſwered. Do not ſuch-like meaſures give ſpirit to the laws, and prevent their remaining a voluminous dead letter, or incumbrance upon the people, made uſe of only by iniquitous law-trappers, the greateſt peſt of ſociety, to fill the people with eternal diſquietudes, at length to ruin them, and unfit them to carry on their commerce?

Marine laws to be obſerved in all the ports of the iſlands and French colonies, wherever ſituated. Of January the 12th 1717.

The ordinances made by his majeſty in the year 1681, being repreſented to the king relating to the government of the marine, to be obſerved in all places of his dominions, and which have never yet been put in execution; and there being no court of admiralty at preſent eſtabliſhed in the colonies of America, nor in the Eaſt-Indies, which gives room to ignorant pretenders to ſet up for judges in maritime affairs, to the great detriment of trade and navigation, which the kings, his majeſty's predeceſſors, always looked upon of the utmoſt importance, and what cannot be well regulated but by wiſe and ſalutary laws, adapted to that purpoſe: his majeſty, by the advice of the duke of Orleans, his uncle, regent, &c. has reſolved on the preſent regulations:

TITLE I.

Of the judges of the admiralty, and their juriſdiction.

ARTICLE I.

There ſhall be, for the future, judges appointed, well ſkilled in MARITIME AFFAIRS in all the French colonies, and in all places where the French have ſettlements, called officers of the admiralty, diſtinct from the civil ones, who ſhall conform themſelves according to the ordinances made in 1681, and other marine laws.

The king's * lieutenants and ſollicitors cannot be admitted 'till 25 years of age; if they are not graduates, yet that ſhall be diſpenſed with, provided they have a competent knowlege of the maritime laws and ordinances, in which they ſhall undergo an examination before admittance.

* A lieutenant, in this ſenſe, is a magiſtrate that preſides in the courts of admiralty, to ſee that the royal edicts, ordinances, &c. are duly put in execution.

TITLE III.

Of the methods of proceeding in the courts of admiralty and their judgments.

Demands for the payment of part, or all a ſhip's cargo, ready to ſail to France from the colonies, ſhall be tried ſummarily, and executed, notwithſtanding an appeal, and the detainers of ſuch merchandizes ſhall be compelled, by the ſale of their effects, and even by the detention of their perſon, to diſcharge their obligation, &c.

TITLE IV.

Of granting permiſſion for ſailing, and reports relating thereunto.

No veſſel ſhall ſail from the ports and havens of the colonies, and other French eſtabliſhments, either to return into France, or to paſs from one colony to another, without permiſſion or licence from the admiral, on pain of confiſcation of ſhip and cargo, &c.

The maſters of ſhips whoſe ordinary navigation lies in carrying ſugars, or other merchandizes, from one port to another

ther in the ſame iſland, as alſo thoſe who navigate from iſland to iſland, and go from Martinico to the iſlands of Guardaloupe, Grenade, Grenadins, Tobago, Mary Galante, St Martin, St Bartholomew, St Alouzie, and St Vincent, St Dominico, and thoſe that go from the iſland of Cayenne to the province of Guiana, to the coaſt of St Domingo, and to the iſland of Tortuga, ſhall take licences from the admiralty, which ſhall be granted to them for one year.

Thoſe who carry on trade from the Iſle Royal, or Cape Breton, from port to port, or who go to the adjacent iſlands, as the iſland of Sable to that in the gulph of St Lawrence, and to the coaſts of the ſaid gulph, ſhall likewiſe take out licences from the admiralty, which ſhall be granted them for one year; but if they come to Quebec, they ſhall take out a new licence.

The maſters of the ſaid ſhips, before receiving their licences, ſhall give ſecurity not to go into any iſland, or to any foreign coaſt, on pain of confiſcation of ſhip and cargo, and a fine of 300 livres.

The maſters of ſhips, who ſhall trade in the river and gulph of St Lawrence, ſhall alſo take licences from the admiral, which ſhall be granted them for a year; and thoſe that ſhall go from Quebec to Cape Breton ſhall do the ſame.

Licences for fiſhing ſhall not be granted without the conſent of the governors, who ſhall take cognizance of that branch of trade, that it is not abuſed by trading with foreigners.

All maſters of ſhips arriving in the colonies and other French ſettlements, ſhall be obliged to make their report to the lieutenant-general of the admiralty, 24 hours after their arrival, on pain of ſuffering an arbitrary fine.

Excepting only thoſe who arriving at Cape Breton on the fiſhery account, for they may enter into the ports and havens where there is no admiralty; in which caſe they ſhall make their report at the neareſt place where there is a court of admiralty, and that within one month from the time of their arrival, under the ſame penalty.

His majeſty forbids all maſters of ſhips from unloading any merchandizes before making their report, unleſs in caſe of imminent danger, on pain as well of corporal puniſhment, as confiſcation of the merchandizes ſo unloaded.

The king's ſollicitor of every court of admiralty ſhall be obliged, at the end of every year, to ſend to the admiral a ſtate of the officers of the admiralty of their juriſdiction, and of whatever has occurred of importance, as likewiſe a liſt of the ſhips arrived there, with the day of their arrival, and of their departure, according to the manner that ſhall be preſcribed them.

All merchants, maſters, and captains of ſhips, are forbid navigating in the American ſeas, to carry on any commerce with foreigners, or to land with this intent on the coaſt or iſlands of their ſettlements, under pain the firſt time of confiſcation of ſhip and cargo; and in caſe of repetition, the maſter and ſailors ſhall be ſent to the gallies.

The maſters and pilots, in making their report, ſhall repreſent their licences, declare the time and place of their departure, and the loading of their ſhips, the courſe they have ſteered, the hazards they run, the accidents happened to their veſſel, and every circumſtance relating to their voyage.—They ſhall alſo repreſent the journal of their voyage, which ſhall be returned to them, if deſired by the officers of the admiralty, within eight days, and without any expence, after they ſhall have extracted whatever is requiſite to render the ſaid navigation more ſecure *, of which they ſhall take care to give an account to the admiralty every three months.

* This is certainly a very judicious regulation, and tends greatly to the ſecurity of navigation.

The captains and maſters of ſhips who arrive from the French colonies in the ports of France, ſhall be obliged, in making their report, in what manner they were received in the colonies, how juſtice was adminiſtered to them, and what charges and averages they were obliged to pay from their arrival to their departure: his majeſty commands the officers of the admiralty to interrogate the maſters and captains upon theſe particulars; to receive the complaints of the paſſengers and ſailors, who have any to make †, and to direct a verbal proceſs thereof, which ſhall be made, in order to be ſent to the admiral of France.

† This alſo is mighty well calculated for the regulation of navigation.

TITLE V.

Of the viſiting of ſhips.

On the arrival of ſhips, the officers of the admiralty ſhall viſit them, according to the edict of 1711. They ſhall take account with what merchandizes they are laden, what ſailors they have, what paſſengers they have brought, and they ſhall ſignify the day of the ſhip's arrival, and ſhall verbally give an account thereof.

The viſitation of ſhips intended to return to France, ſhall be made before their loading is taken in, by the officers of the admiralty, with an approved carpenter, and in preſence of the maſter, who ſhall be obliged to aſſiſt therein, under pain of an arbitrary fine, to examine if the veſſel is in fit condition for the voyage intended.—They ſhall likewiſe examine into all the ſhip's tackle, and every thing thereunto belonging, excepting the ſailors and the proviſions, and this before one or two captains appointed for that purpoſe by the officers of the admiralty, in order to know whether the ſhip is fit for the voyage in all reſpects; and the maſters of ſhips who are preparing for their loading, ſhall be obliged to apprize the officers of the admiralty thereof, two days before they begin ſo to do, under the penalty, for diſregard hereof, of the expence of unloading the ſaid ſhip, and reloading of another ‡.

‡ Is not this exquiſite policy, for many reaſons that will naturally occur to the judicious reader?

They ſhall alſo take the declaration of the maſter, with regard to the quantity and quality of the proviſions, in order to judge whether they are competent to the length of the voyage, and the number of ſailors and paſſengers.

If two thirds of the ſailors make declaration againſt the maſter of the ſhip and the purveyor, that the proviſions are not of good quality, or that there is not the quantity mentioned in the maſter's declaration, the officers of the admiralty ſhall teſtify the ſame; and in caſe the declaration proves falſe, the maſter and the purveyor ſhall be each condemned in the fine of 100 livres, and to take the proviſions themſelves as ſhall be ordered, which ſhall be proſecuted by the ſollicitor of the admiralty, and of another whom the ſailors ſhall nominate, &c.

The officers of the admiralty ſhall prepare a verbal proceſs of the condition of the ſhip, of the tackle and the proviſions; a copy of which ſhall be delivered to the maſters, who are obliged to repreſent the ſame to the admiralty at the place of their return, under the penalty of an arbitrary fine.

Done at Paris,
12 Jan. 1717. Signed LEWIS,
And below,
PHELYPEAUX.

Then follow letters patents of the ſame date, ratifying the foregoing, and ordering the ſtrict execution thereof; of the nature of which, as we have given inſtances before, ſo we ſhall not repeat the ſame.

The king's letters patents, concerning the regulations for the commerce of the French colonies, of the month of April, 1717.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, &c. The late king our moſt honoured lord and great-grandfather, having, by an edict of the month of December 1674, ſuppreſſed the Weſt-India company, before eſtabliſhed by an edict of May 1664, with an excluſive privilege of trade to the French iſlands of America, and having united the lands and countries thereunto belonging to the crown of France, and permitting all his ſubjects to trade freely to theſe parts: his majeſty being deſirous to render this commerce more flouriſhing, by additional favour: this conſideration excited him to iſſue divers arrets of the 4th of June, 25th of November 1671, the 15th of July 1673, the 1ſt of December 1674, the 10th of May 1677, and the 27th of Auguſt 1701; by which he exempted, from all duties of exportation whatſoever, all proviſions and merchandizes, being the product and manufactures of this kingdom bound to the French colonies; and by the arrets of the 10th of September 1668, the 19th of May 1670, and the 12th of Auguſt 1671, he granted them the liberty to admit, into the ports of his kingdom, merchandizes coming from the ſaid colonies: and we being informed, that the different ſituation of public affairs occaſioned a multiplicity of other arrets, irreconcileable with each other, and in conſequence thereof created litigations between merchants and our farmers-general of the revenues, and prevented our ſubjects from extending our commerce, proved a clog to trade, ſo uſeful and advantageous to our kingdoms: we have judged proper to provide againſt theſe litigations, by a fixed and ſtanding law, after having examined the memorials that have been preſented to us upon this head, by the merchants of our kingdom, the anſwers of our farmers of the revenue, and all edicts, declarations, and arrets, relating to this matter: theſe, and other reaſons moving us thereunto, we have by the advice of, &c. and we will and decree, &c. as follows:

ARTICLE I.

The armaments of ſhips intended to ſail to the ſaid iſland colonies, ſhall be made in the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, St Malo, Morlaix, Breſt, Nantes, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Cette.

II.

Merchants, who ſhall fit out ſhips in the ports of the cities aforeſaid, for the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall give ſecurity to the ſecretary of the admiralty, whereby they ſhall

be

be bound under the penalty of ten thouſand livres to cauſe their ſhips to return directly from the colonies into the ſame port from which they ſailed, unleſs otherwiſe compelled by ſtreſs of weather or ſhipwreck; and the merchants ſhall cauſe ſuch ſecurities to be depoſited in the farmer of the revenue's office.

III.

All proviſions and merchandizes, either of the production or fabrication of the kingdom of France, even ſilver plate, wines and brandies of Guyenne, or other provinces, deſigned to be exported to the French iſland colonies, ſhall be exempted from all duties of exportation and importation, as well from thoſe of the provinces of the five great farms, as of thoſe reputed foreign provinces; and likewiſe from all local duties, in carrying merchandizes from one province to another, and in general from all other duties, which tend to our advantage, thoſe only excepted, which relate to the general farm of aids, &c.

IV.

All warlike ammunition, proviſions, and other things neceſſary, bought in the kingdom for the victualling and fitting out of ſhips appointed for the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall enjoy the ſame exemption from duties.

V.

The proviſions and merchandizes of the kingdom, appointed for the French iſlands and colonies, and coming from one ſea-port to another in the kingdom, ſhall be, upon their arrival in the ports, where intended to be landed in the ſaid iſles and colonies, warehouſed, and not be moved from ſhip to ſhip, on pain of confiſcation, and a thouſand livres penalty.

VI.

Merchants who ſhall have brought proviſions and merchandizes of the kingdom into the port, appointed for embarkation, ſhall be obliged to declare, at the cuſtom-houſe of the place of their unloading, if there is any one; if not, at the neareſt to the ſaid place, the quantity, quality, weight, and meaſure of the proviſions and merchandizes deſigned for the French iſles and colonies, in order to have them viſited, leaded, or marked, by the commiſſioners of the farms, to have their ſecurity diſcharged, and be obliged to return, within three months, a certificate of their being taken from the depoſitory warehouſe for embarkation, as before declared; but ſuch embarkation may be made without warehouſing of proviſions and merchandizes brought by land or river-carriage.

VII.

Carriers ſhall be obliged to repreſent, and cauſe to be examined, thoſe diſcharges of ſecurity by the commiſſioners and directors of the farms in the cities, wherever they are eſtabliſhed; and the ſaid commiſſioners ſhall teſtify, without any delay or expence, the number of tons, caſes, &c. included in the ſaid diſcharge, and obſerve if the leads and marks affixed, &c. are intire and undefaced, without minutely examining into the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes, or opening the tons, bales, or caſes, &c. unleſs the leads, &c. ſhall be broken, defaced, or changed.—And if, on examination, any fraud appears, the goods ſhall be confiſcated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres penalty.

VIII.

The ſaid proviſions and merchandizes ſhall, before their embarkation, be viſited and weighed by the commiſſioners of the farm, in order to aſcertain the quantity, quality, weight, and meaſure thereof, and they ſhall not be laden in any veſſel without the ſaid commiſſioners being preſent.

IX.

Merchants ſhall give ſecurity to the officer of the farms at the port of embarkation, to report, in a twelvemonth or more, a certificate of the diſcharge of the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes in the French iſlands and colonies; and the ſaid certificate ſhall be wrote on the back of the diſcharge of the ſecurity, and ſigned by the governors and intendants, or by the commandants and commiſſioners ſubdelegated in their reſpective diſtricts, and by the commiſſioners of the farms of the weſtern domaine, on pain of paying four times the duties.

X.

Proviſions and merchandizes coming from foreign countries, whoſe conſumption is allowed in the kingdom, even thoſe which come from Marſeilles and Dunkirk, ſhall be liable to the duties of importation due to the firſt office of farms, by which they ſhall enter into the kingdom, notwithſtanding they ſhall have been declared to be intended for the French iſlands and colonies; but when they ſhall be exported to the ſaid iſlands and colonies, they ſhall be intitled to the exemptions mentioned by the third article.

XI.

We permit, notwithſtanding, to come from foreign countries, into the ports beforementioned in the firſt article, ſalt beef, to be ſent into the ſaid iſlands and colonies, and the ſame ſhall be free from all duties of importation and exportation, on condition that it ſhall be warehouſed as aforeſaid, on pain of confiſcation.

XII.

Merchants of our kingdom ſhall not load for the French iſlands and colonies any foreign merchandizes whoſe importation and conſumption are prohibited, on pain of confiſcation, and 3000 livres fine, which ſhall be impoſed by the officers of the admiralty.

XIII.

The ſilk, and other merchandizes of Avignon, and the county of Venaiſine, which ſhall be declared for the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall pay the duties required at importation, and be exempt from all duties of exportation, and all others, thoſe excepted which depend on the general farm of aids and domaines.

XIV.

Swiſs linens that are free from all duties of importation, ſhall not be allowed the exemptions mentioned by article the third, although deſigned for the French iſlands and colonies.

XV.

Merchandizes and proviſions of all ſorts, of the produce of the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be warehouſed at their arrival in the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Cette; to the end that, when they are unhouſed to be exported into foreign countries, they ſhall be intitled to the exemption of duties of importation and exportation; even to thoſe belonging to the farms of the weſtern domaine, with a reſerve only of three per cent. to which they ſhall be liable, &c.

XVI.

Merchants of the cities beforementioned, who ſhall export by ſea merchandizes which come from the ſaid iſlands and colonies, ſhall be obliged to make a declaration at the office of farms eſtabliſhed in the port from whence they ſhall depart, of the place where they are intended to be ſent into foreign countries, and to give ſecurity, within ſix months, or longer, to report a certificate in proper form of their unloading, ſigned by the French conſul, and, in caſe of his abſence, by the judges of the place, or other public perſons, on pain of paying four times the duties.

XVII.

Merchants belonging to the ports mentioned in the firſt article, ſhall be allowed to ſend by land, into foreign countries, raw ſugars, indigo, ginger, rocou, and cacao, which come from the French iſlands and colonies, and cauſe them to paſs, by tranſit, through the kingdom, without payment of duties of import or export, nor other duties, except thoſe depending on the general farm of aids and domaines, on condition of declaring to the office of farms, at the port of their departure, the quantities, qualities, weights, and meaſures, and of having them viſited and leaded, and taking the diſcharge of their ſecurity, and promiſe, within four months or later, to produce a certificate of the ſending ſuch merchandize out of the kingdom; which certificate ſhall be wrote and ſigned on the back of the ſaid diſcharge of the ſecurity, by the commiſſioners of the laſt office of farms at their going out of the kingdom, after the ſaid commiſſioners have allowed the leads, and viſited the ſaid merchandizes; and the carriers ſhall be obliged to cauſe the ſaid diſcharges to be inſpected by the ſaid commiſſioners of the farms of that rout, and by the directors of the farms, where ſuch are eſtabliſhed: all which muſt be done and performed on pain of paying four times the duties, and confiſcation of the carriages and horſes of ſuch who ſhall neglect or offend as carriers.—Theſe precautions taken, the ſaid merchandizes ſhall not be opened, and the ſaid directors and commiſſioners ſhall verify, without any delay or expence whatever, the number of tons, caſks, bales, &c. and examine if the leads thereunto affixed are whole and entire; but in caſe the ſaid leads are broke or altered, or any way defaced, then they are to viſit the ſaid merchandizes, and ſeize them in caſe of the laws being violated, the goods to be confiſcated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres fine.

XVIII.

The five following ſorts of merchandizes, which ſhall be ſent by tranſit into foreign countries, ſhall go out of the kingdom by no other places than thoſe hereafter named, viz. thoſe appointed for the ports of Spain, ſituate on the Mediterranean Sea, by the ports of Cette and Agde.

XIX.

Thoſe which ſhall go out of the kingdom by land for Spain, by the office of farms, from Bayonne, by the way of Beobie, Aſcaing, and Dainhoa.

XX.

Thoſe deſigned for Italy, by the ſaid ports of Cette and Agde.—Thoſe for Savoy and Piedmont, by the office of Pont de Beauvoiſin, and of Champarillan.—Thoſe for Geneva and Switzerland, by the office of Seiſſel and Colognes.—Thoſe for Franche Comte, by the office of d'Auxonne.—Thoſe deſigned for the three biſhoprics, and Lorraine and Alſace, by the office of St Minehould and Auxonne.—And thoſe deſigned for the Low Countries, belonging to foreign nations, by the office of Liſle and Maubeuge.

XXI.

We abſolutely forbid the ſaid merchandizes going out of the kingdom by other ports and offices, when they paſs by tranſit,

ſit, with exemption of duties, on pain of confiſcation of merchandizes, carriages, and horſes, and liable to 3000 livres penalty.

XXII.

The merchandizes hereafter ſpecified coming from the French iſlands and colonies, and allowed to be conſumed in the kingdom, ſhall pay, for the future, for duties of importation in the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Cette; viz.

Muſcavado, or raw ſugars, the hundred weight, 2 livres 10 ſols; 33 ſols 4 deniers of which ſhall be appropriated to the farmer-general of the weſtern domaine revenue, and 16 ſols 8 deniers to the farmer-general of the five great farms.—The clay or caſſonade ſugars, 8 livres per hundred weight; 2 of which ſhall be appropriated to the farmer-general of the five great farms.—Indigo, 100 ſols per hundred weight.—Ginger, 15 ſols per hundred weight.—Cotton-wool, 30 ſols per hundred.—Rocou, 2 livres 10 ſols per 100 weight. Sweet-meats and preſerves, 5 livres per hundred weight.—Caſſia, 1 livre per hundred weight. Cacao, 10 livres per hundred weight.—Dry raw hides, 5 ſols a piece.—Tortoiſe-ſhell of all ſorts, 7 livres per hundred weight.

XXIII.

The ſum total of the duties on the ſaid 9 laſt ſpecies of merchandizes ſhall be appropriated to the farmer-general of the five great farms of the revenue.

XXIV.

The merchandizes ſpecified in the preceding article, which ſhall be carried by ſea into the ports of St Malo, Morlaix, Breſt, and Nantes, may not be brought into the other provinces of the kingdom to be conſumed, but upon payment of the ſame duties.

XXV.

All merchandizes coming from the French iſlands and colonies ſhall pay, upon their arrival in the ſaid ports of Bretagne, above and beſides the ordinary duties, thoſe of provoſtſhip, ſuch as are done at Nantes, without any drawback thereof, when the ſaid merchandizes ſhall be exported to foreign countries, nor any diminution of the duties declared by the 19th article, when they are brought into the provinces of the five great farms, or other provinces of the kingdom.

XXVI.

White unrefined ſugars coming from the colony of Cayenne, and entering by the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Cette, and intended for home-conſumption, ſhall only pay 4 livres per 100 weight, in conformity to the arrets of the 19th of September, 1682, and the 12th of October 1700. And, with regard to thoſe which ſhall be carried into the ports of Bretagne, they ſhall three pay the ſame duties as the clay ſugars coming from the other French colonies; viz. at their arrival, the duties of the provoſtſhip of Nantes, and other local duties; and at their paſſing out of Bretagne to go into the province of the five great farms, and other provinces of the kingdom, for conſumption, the 8 livres mentioned in article 19.

XXVII.

Merchandizes coming from the French iſlands and colonies, and not mentioned in the 19th article, ſhall pay the duties fixed by the tariff of 1664, in the provinces of the five great farms, and the local duties, as has been heretofore done in the provinces reckoned foreign; excepting refined ſugars coming from the ſaid iſlands and colonies, which ſhall pay, at every entrance of the kingdom, even in the ports of the province of Bretagne and Bayonne, 22 livres 10 ſols per 100 weight, conformably to the arrets of the 25th of April, 1690, and the 20th of June, 1698.

XXVIII.

The duties required by the ſaid arret of the 25th of April, 1690, upon foreign ſugars of all qualities, ſhall be alſo paid in all the ports of the kingdom, even in the ports of Bretagne, and in thoſe of Marſeilles, Bayonne, and Dunkirk, notwithſtanding all privileges and exemptions before granted: and the ſaid ſugars need not be warehouſed, as required by the ſaid arret of the 25th of April, 1690, or other ſubſequent arrets, which ſhall be made null and void; except nevertheleſs with regard to the caſſonade ſugars of the Brazils, which ſhall be warehouſed in the ports only of Bayonne and Marſeilles, and ſhall not go out of the warehouſe with exemption from the duties required by the arret of the 25th of April, 1690, but to be exported into foreign countries, &c.

XXIX.

All merchandizes of the production of the French iſlands and colonies ſhall pay to the farmer-general of the revenues of the weſtern domaine, at their arrival in all the ports of the kingdom, even in the free ports, and in thoſe of the provinces reputed foreign, once for all, 3 per cent. ad valorem, when they ſhall be declared to be exported into foreign countries.

XXX.

We expreſsly forbid all the inhabitants of our iſlands and colonies, and all the merchants of our kingdom, to export from the ſaid iſlands and colonies, into foreign countries, or into the foreign neighbouring iſlands, any merchandizes of the produce of the French iſlands, on pain of confiſcation of ſhip and merchandize, and of 1000 livres penalty; which ſhall be inflicted by the officers of the admiralty, and the captains and maſters of ſhips to be anſwered in their own name, beſides impriſonment for a year, and alſo to be declared incapable of commanding or ſerving in the quality of an officer aboard of a ſhip: wherefore, all captains ſhall be obliged to repreſent, at their arrival in France, a ſtate of the merchandizes that ſhall have been loaded at the ſaid iſlands, ſigned by the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine.

XXXI.

We prohibit alſo, under the like penalties, all merchants of our kingdom, captains and maſters of ſhips deſigned for the French iſlands and colonies, from taking or loading in any foreign country, even in the iſland of Madeira, any wines, or other proviſions and merchandizes, to be carried into the ſaid colonies.

XXXII.

All ſorts of ſugars and ſyrups of the French iſlands and colonies ſhall be declared, at their arrival in all the ports of the kingdom, by the quantity of the caſks, without the merchants, captains or maſters of ſhips, being obliged to declare them by weight; but the declaration of other merchandizes ſhall be made according to cuſtom, by the quantity, quality, and weight; nor ſhall any merchandizes be unloaded but in the preſence of the commiſſioners of the farms of the revenue.

XXXIII.

The warehouſe wherein to depoſit the merchandizes and proviſions of the kingdom, intended for the French iſlands and colonies, as alſo thoſe of the produce of the ſaid iſlands, of ſalt beef from foreign countries, and of caſſonade ſugars of the Brazils, ſhall be choſen by the merchants themſelves, at their own expence, and locked with three different keys; one of which ſhall be given to the commiſſioners of the great farms of the revenue, the other to the commiſſioner of the farm of the weſtern domaine, and the third into the hands of an overſeer appointed by the merchant himſelf.

XXXIV.

The eaſineſs of the duties of importation, by theſe preſents laid upon all raw and muſcavado ſugars, coming from the French iſlands and colonies, the taking off the duties impoſed by the arrets of the council of September 1684, and the 1ſt of September, 1699, upon the footing of 9 livres, and 6 livres 15 ſols, ſhall remain, for the future, regulated at 5 livres, 12 ſols, 6 deniers, per 100 weight of refined ſugar, in the cities of Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Rouen, and Dieppe, which ſhall be exported into foreign countries; and, of the ſaid 5 livres, 12 ſols, 6 deniers, there ſhall be reſtored 3 livres 15 ſols by the farmer-general of the weſtern domaine, and 1 livre, 17 ſols, 6 deniers, by the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath, The Duke of ORLEANS, Regent,
Preſent PHELYPEAUX,
DAGUESSEAUX.

On April the 3d, 1718, a royal ordinance was made, prohibiting all captains of ſhips who ſhall carry negroes to the French iſlands, againſt landing them, or any of their cargo, without leave had and obtained from the governors, in order to prevent any contagious diſtemper being ſpread among the inhabitants.

Royal letters patents, containing regulations of trade between Marſeilles and the French iſlands of America, given at Paris in the month of February, 1719.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France, &c. greeting.—Whereas the maior, ſheriffs, and deputies of the council of commerce eſtabliſhed in the city of Marſeilles, have repreſented to us, that although this city lies further from the French iſlands of America, than the other cities of our kingdom ſituated upon the ocean, ſhe has heretofore ſupplied thoſe colonies with conſiderable quantities of neceſſaries; ſuch as wines, brandies, ſoap, wax, glaſs wares, oils, olives, draperies, ſilks, ſhoes, drugs from the Levant, and other proviſions and merchandizes, which are collected and fabricated in Provence, or that ariſe from the courſe of it's commerce; and which are requiſite for the ſubſiſtence of the inhabitants of thoſe colonies; and the merchants of Marſeilles have, in return, imported ſugars, indigo, cacao, ginger, and other ſpecies of merchandizes, which they have afterwards re-exported to Spain, Italy, Geneva, and to the ports of the Levant: and whereas the deceaſed king, our moſt honoured lord and great-grandfather, being deſirous to encourage them to undertake the navigation and trade of thoſe colonies, &c.—On theſe conſiderations, the maior, ſheriffs, and deputies of the council of commerce of Marſeilles, hope that we would permit the merchants of that city to continue a commerce, from which they ſeem to be excluded, the port of Marſeilles not being included in the number of thoſe deſigned by our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, which contain, indeed,

indeed, many regulations they cannot comply with, the port of Marſeilles being a general magazine for all ſorts of merchandizes, as well of the produce and fabrics of our own kingdom, as thoſe of other nations, which are ſold and conſumed according to the exigencies of their commerce; it would be impoſſible to diſtinguiſh thoſe which, on their arrival, may be required, for the French iſlands in America, or for other places; ſo that the uncertainty of their vent would ſubject all indiſcriminately to the entrepoſt, or warehouſing, appointed by the 5th, 6th, 7th, and 8th articles of the ſaid letters patents.—To theſe conſiderations may be added the freedom of commerce which that port enjoys, and which does not allow of the merchandizes coming from the ſaid iſlands to be houſed in a warehouſe of entrepoſt, nor that the merchants ſhould be obliged to give the ſecurities required, and certificates of unloading thoſe metchandizes in ſuch places whither they ſhall be exported.—Theſe precautions not having been appointed for the merchants of other places of our kingdom, with deſign to prevent being defrauded of our duties by ſpurious declarations, and can be of no benefit, with reſpect to the port of Marſeilles, where the importation and exportation of proviſions and merchandize of all kinds are exempted from our duties: we have therefore judged it neceſſary to enable the inhabitants of Marſeilles to recover a commerce, which they carried on ſucceſsfully before our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, wherein we have not comprehended them. The freedom of trade granted to the port, city, and territories of Marſeilles, is incompatible with many of our regulations contained in the ſaid letters patents for the maritime cities of our kingdom, which do not enjoy the ſame franchiſes: we have reſerved to eſtabliſh, by a diſtinct law, the manner in which the Marſeillians may be admitted to ſend from their port ſhips to the French American iſlands, without prejudice to our duties, nor to the ſale of the proviſions and merchandizes of our kingdom, or of thoſe which come from the ſaid American iſlands: from theſe conſiderations, and others hereunto moving us, with the advice, &c. We now have declared and ordained, by theſe preſents ſigned with our hand, and we do declare, ordain, and appoint, as follows:

ARTICLE I.

The fitting out of veſſels deſigned for the French iſlands and colonies of America, ſhall be done in the port of Marſeilles as in the ports mentioned by our letters patents of the month of April, 1717.

II.

Merchants, who fit out ſuch ſhips, ſhall be obliged to apply to the ſecretary of the admiralty of Marſeilles, to oblige themſelves, under the penalty of 10,000 livres, to cauſe ſuch ſhips to return directly into the port of Marſeilles, unleſs compelled by ſhipwreck, or other inevitable accident, juſtifiable by verbal proceſs. The merchants ſhall give ſuch obligation into the office of farms, and ſhall not embark in the ſaid ſhips any proviſions and merchandizes without permiſſion firſt had and obtained in writing, and in preſence of the commiſſioners of the farms of the revenue, under pain of confiſcation of the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes, and a penalty of 3000 livres, which ſhall be laid by the officers of the admiralty.

III.

All proviſions and merchandize of the produce or fabrication of the kingdom, even ſilver plate, wine, and brandies, of Provence, Guyenne, or other provinces of our kingdom, arms and ammunition, and all neceſſaries of our kingdom for the victualling and fitting out of ſhips, which ſhall come into the port of Marſeilles to be exported to the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be exempted from all duties of export or import, as well thoſe of the provinces of the five great farms, as thoſe reputed foreign provinces; and likewiſe from all local duties, in paſſing from one province to another, and generally from all other duties, which are to our advantage, except thoſe depending on the general farm of aids and domaines; which exemption the merchants of Marſeilles cannot be intitled to, without obſerving what is hereafter ordained.

IV.

The proviſions and merchandizes mentioned in the preceding article, coming by ſea from another port of the kingdom into that of Marſeilles, ſhall, at their arrival, be put into the warehouſe of entrepoſt, and ſhall not be moved from ſhip to ſhip, on pain of confiſcation, and of 1000 livres penalty.

V.

Merchants, who ſhall cauſe to be brought to Marſeilles, either by ſea or land, the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes deſigned for the French iſlands and colonies of America, ſhall be obliged to declare, at the office of farms at the place of their unloading, if ſuch office be there, if not, at the neareſt there is, the quantities, qualities, weights, and meaſures, to cauſe them to be viſited and leaded by the commiſſioners of the farms, to take their diſcharge of ſecurity, and to ſubmit to report, within three months, a certificate of their unloading into the warehouſe of entrepoſt, on their arrival at Marſeilles: we will and decree, that, in ſix months from the regiſtering of theſe preſents, the merchandizes manufactured in different provinces and places of our kingdom, except thoſe in the city and territory of Marſeilles, ſhall be reputed as foreign merchandizes, and ſhall not be ſhipped upon veſſels which ſhall depart from the port of Marſeilles for the French iſlands and colonies, without paying the duties that ſhall be hereby decreed, if, in the place the neareſt to their unlading, declaration has not been made, that they intended for the ſaid iſlands; and if, upon their arrival in Marſeilles, they have not been put into a warehouſe of entrepoſt.

VI.

The land-carriers ſhall be obliged to repreſent, and cauſe to be examined, their diſcharges of ſcurity by the commiſſioner of the office of farms, and by the directors of the farmers of the revenue, in thoſe cities wherein they are eſtabliſhed, through which the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes paſs; and the ſaid commiſſioners and directors ſhall certify, upon the ſpot, and without delay or expence, the number of tons, caſks, and bales, &c. contained in the ſaid diſcharge of ſecurity, and ſhall inſpect whether the leads affixed thereunto be whole, undefaced, and unchanged, without viſiting the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes, or opening the ſaid tons, caſes, or bales, unleſs the leads are broken or altered: and if, on examination, any fraud appears, the merchandize ſhall be confiſcated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres yearly.

VII.

The ſaid proviſions and merchandizes ſhall be, before their embarkation, viſited and weighed by the commiſſioners of the farms, in order to certify the quantity, quality, weight, and meaſure thereof, and they ſhall not be loaded in any veſſel, but in the preſence of the ſaid commiſſioners.

VIII.

Merchants ſhall make at the office of farms their report, within a twelvemonth or more, a certificate of the unloading of the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes in the French iſlands and colonies; and the ſaid certificate ſhall be wrote on the back of the diſcharge of the ſecurity, and ſigned by the governors and intendants, or by the commandants or commiſſaries, ſubdelegated by the commiſſioners of the office of farms of the weſtern domaine eſtabliſhed at Marſeilles, on pain of forfeiting four times the duties.

IX.

Proviſions and merchandizes coming from foreign countries, the conſumption of which is allowed in the country, and which ſhall be received in the port, city, or territory of Marſeilles, ſhall not be embarked to be exported to the French iſlands in America, 'till declaration has been made at the office of farms, of their quantity, quality, weight, and meaſure, and that the ſame duties have been paid at the office as required, when they were firſt imported into the kingdom.

X.

Foreign proviſions and merchandizes, which ſhall be conſumed in the kingdom, and which, after having paid the duties of import at another office of farms, and brought into the ſaid city of Marſeilles, to be exported into the French iſlands and colonies of America, ſhall be intitled to thoſe exemptions contained in article the 3d, by obſerving the ſame regulations, which have been before preſcribed for the original merchandizes of the kingdom.

XI.

We allow to be brought from foreign kingdoms into the port of Marſeilles ſalt beef, in order to be exported to the ſaid iſlands and colonies; and it ſhall be exempt from all duties, even that of 40 ſols, which is known by the farm of the gabelles, or exciſe duty, on condition that on it's arrival it ſhall be houſed in an entrepoſt, 'till embarkation, on pain of confiſcation.

XII.

There ſhall not be loaded in the port of Marſeilles, for the French iſlands and colonies, any merchandizes; which import and conſummation ſhall be prohibited in the kingdom, on pain of confiſcation, and a penalty of 3000 livres, that ſhall be inflicted by the officers of the admiralty.

XIII.

The ſilk and other merchandizes of Avignon, and the county of Venaiſſine, which ſhall be declared for the French iſlands and colonies, and which ſhall have paid the duties of the cuſtom-houſe of Lyons, with which they are charged in going out of the ſaid county, to come into the kingdom, ſhall be exempt from all duties, as well upon their entrance into the territory of Marſeilles, as on their embarkation; provided, on their arrival at Marſeilles, they ſhall be houſed in a warehouſe of entrepoſt, 'till their embarkation; and the ſame ſhall be obſerved, for the rate of the ſaid merchandizes, as has been before decreed in regard to thoſe fabricated in our kingdom.

XIV.

Swiſs linens, which are exempted from all duties at importation into the kingdom, ſhall pay to the offices of farms, upon the confines of the territories of Marſeilles, the ordinary duties of export, although deſigned for the French iſlands and colonies.

XV.

Merchandizes and proviſions of all ſorts, coming from the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall pay, on their arrival at

Marſeilles, once for all, the duty of 3 per cent. ad valorem to the farm of the weſtern domaine, and that when even they ſhall be intended to be exported into foreign countries.

XVI.

The merchants of Marſeilles may tranſport by land, into foreign countries, clay and caſſonade ſugars, ginger, and rocou, coming from the French iſlands and colonies, and cauſe them to paſs by tranſit acroſs the kingdom without paying any duties at importation and exportation, nor any other duties, excepting thoſe depending on the general farm of the aids and domaines; on condition of declaring, at the office of farms, the time of their departure, the quantity, quality, weight, and meaſure, in order to be viſited and leaded, to take a diſcharge of the ſecurity, and be obliged to report, within four months or longer, certificates of the exportation of the ſaid merchandizes out of the kingdom; which certificates ſhall be wrote and ſigned on the back of the ſaid diſcharges of ſecurity, by the commiſſioners of the laſt office of farms at the ſaid exportation, after the ſaid commiſſioners have inſpected the leads and viſited the ſaid merchandizes; and the land carriers ſhall be obliged to cauſe to be inſpected the ſaid diſcharges of ſecurity, by the commiſſioners of the offices of farms lying in the rout, and by the directors of the farms, where any are eſtabliſhed; the whole hereof to be done and performed on pain of paying four times the duties, and of confiſcation of the carriages and horſes of the carrier ſo offending; which precautions being taken, the ſaid merchandizes ſhall not be opened, and the ſaid directors and commiſſioners ſhall certify only, without any delay or expence, the number of tons, caſes, or bales, and examine if the leads thereunto affixed be whole and entire: in caſe the ſaid leads ſhall be broke, altered, or defaced, we do permit the ſaid commiſſioners, to viſit the ſaid merchandizes, and to ſeize them in caſe of violation of the laws, to be confiſcated, and the offenders condemned in 500 livres penalty.

XVII.

The ſaid three ſorts of merchandizes which ſhall be ſent by land from Marſeilles by tranſit into foreign countries, ſhall not be ſent out but by way of the places hereafter named; viz. thoſe deſtined for Savoy and Piedmont, by the office of farms at the bridge of Beauvoiſin and Champarillan.—Thoſe deſigned for Swiſſerland or Geneva, by the office of Seiſſel and Coulonges.——Thoſe for Franche Comte, by the office of Auxonne.—Thoſe for the three biſhoprics, Lorrain and Metz, by the office of St Menehoult and Auxonne.—And thoſe deſigned for the Low Countries, under foreign dominion, by the office of Liſle and Maubeuge.

We expreſsly prohibit the ſaid merchandizes from going out of our kingdom by any other offices, when they ſhall paſs by tranſit with exemption of duties, on pain of confiſcation of merchandizes, carriages, and horſes, and a fine of 3000 livres.

XVIII.

Merchandizes hereafter ſpecified, coming from the French iſlands and colonies, and which, after their arrival in the port of Marſeilles, ſhall be brought into the kingdom, accompanied with certificates of the commiſſioners of the offices of weights, &c. ſhall after pay only for the duties of entry, viz.

Raw or muſcovado ſugars, the hundred weight, 2 livres 10 ſols; 30 ſols 4 deniers of which ſhall be appropriated to the farmer of the weſtern domaine; and 16 ſols 8 deniers to the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Clay or caſſonade ſugars, 8 livres the hundred weight; two livres whereof ſhall be appropriated to the farmer of the weſtern domaine and ſix livres to the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Indigo, 100 ſols per hundred weight.—Ginger, 15 ſols per hundred weight.—Cotton in the wool, 30 ſols per hundred weight.—Rocou, 2 livres 10 ſols per hundred weight.—Sweetmeats, 5 livres per hundred weight.—Caſſia, one livre per hundred weight.—Hides, raw and dry, 5 ſols a piece.—Tortoiſe-ſhell of all ſorts, 7 livres per hundred weight.

The ſum total of the duties upon the ſaid nine laſts ſorts of merchandizes ſhall be raiſed for the benefit of the farmer-general of the five great farms.

Cacao, indigo, cotton-wool, and hides raw and dry, coming from the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be liable to thoſe eaſy duties before decreed, only on condition that they are houſed, on their arrival at Marſeilles, in a magazine of entrepoſt, from whence they ſhall not be moved, but in the preſence of the commiſſioners of the revenue-farms, to whom they ſhall deliver their certificates; in default whereof, the ſaid merchandizes ſhall pay, at their importation into the kingdom, the ſame duties as foreign merchandizes do.

XIX.

Cacao and indigo. produced in the ſaid iſlands and colonies, and which, on their arrival, have been houſed in a magazine of entrepoſt, and taken thence in preſence of commiſſioners of the farms, may be ſent into foreign countries, and paſs, by tranſit, over the kingdom, in obſerving what is required by the 16 and 17th articles.

XX.

White and unrefined ſugars of Cayenne, which ſhall be ware-

houſed as aforeſaid, on their arrival in the port of Marſeilles, and which ſhall afterwards be brought into the kingdom, ſhall pay only four livres per hundred weight.

XXI.

Merchandizes coming from the French iſlands and colonies, and not mentioned in the 18th article, ſhall pay, at entrance into the kingdom, ſuch duties as before known and uſual, except refined loaf ſugar, which ſhall pay at every place of entrance into the kingdom (when even they are intended for the conſumption of the city and territories of Marſeilles) 22 livres 10 ſols per hundred weight, in conformity to the arrets of our council of the 25th of April 1690, and 20th of June 1698.

XXII.

The duties required by the ſaid arret of the 25th of April 1690, on foreign ſugars of all ſorts, ſhall be paid in the port of Marſeilles, notwithſtanding all privileges and franchiſes before granted to that city; and the ſaid ſugars ſhall not be intitled to the benefit of the entrepoſt, granted either by the ſaid, or other ſubſequent arrets; excepting, however, the caſſonade ſugars of the Braſils, which ſhall be warehouſed in the port of Marſeilles, and ſhall not be taken out of the ſame with exemption of duties required by the ſaid arret of the 25th of April 1690, unleſs to be exported into foreign countries.

XXIII.

We expreſsly forbid the inhabitants of theſe iſlands and colonies, and all merchants of Marſeilles, to export from the ſaid iſlands and colonies into foreign countries, or into the neighbouring foreign colonies, either on French or foreign bottoms, any merchandizes of the produce of the French iſlands, on pain of confiſcation of ſhip and merchandize, and a fine of 1000 livres penalty; which ſhall be laid by the officers of the admiralty, and againſt the captains and maſters of ſhips, to anſwer the ſame in their own perſon, to ſuffer a year's impriſonment, and be rendered incapable of commanding, or ſerving again as an officer on ſhipboard: wherefore, all captains ſhall be obliged to repreſent, at their arrival in France, an account of the merchandize they have loaded in the ſaid iſlands, ſigned by the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine.

XXIV.

We expreſsly prohibit alſo, under the aforeſaid penalties, all merchants of Marſeilles, captains and maſters of ſhips, bound for the French iſlands and colonies, from lading, in any foreign country, even in the iſland of Madeira, any wines or other proviſions and merchandizes to carry them into the ſaid colonies.

XXV.

The duties of import which ſhall be paid upon merchandizes of the iſlands and colonies, ſhall not be drawn back, when even they ſhall be ſent to foreign countries, and they ſhall be liable to the duties of exportation; excepting, nevertheleſs, ſugars of all ſorts, indigo, ginger, caſſia, rocou, cacao, drugs, and ſpiceries.

XXVI.

Sugars of all ſorts, and ſyrups of the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be reported at their arrival, by the quantity of caſks or caſes, without ſubjecting the merchants, captains, and maſters of ſhips, to report them by weight; but the report of other merchandizes ſhall be made according to ordinary uſage, by the quantity, quality, and weight; nor ſhall any merchandize be unloaded, but in the preſence of the commiſſioners of the farms.

XXVII.

Warehouſes ſerving for the entrepoſt, required by the articles 4, 5, 6, 10, 11, 13, 18, 19, 20, and 22, ſhall be choſen by the merchants themſelves, at their expence, and locked with three different keys; one of which the commiſſioners of the five great farms ſhall have, another the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine, and the other any overſeer appointed by the merchants.—Thus we order and decree, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And a little lower, The Duke of ORLEANS, Regent,
PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordonnace, forbidding all governors, and lieutenant-generals, all particular governors, and intendants of colonies, from having plantations.—Paris, 7 November 1719.—By the king.

His majeſty being informed, that, among the governors and lieutenants-general, particular governors and intendants of the French colonies in South America, there are ſome who poſſeſs plantations of ſugar, indigo, cacao, and other proviſions and merchandizes of the ſaid colonies; and that ſome intend to ſettle new ones, which being inconſiſtent with his majeſty's ſervice, and, beſides, their reſidence in the ſaid colonies being only for a time, this may prove injurious to them in the conſequences, when his majeſty ſhall require them elſewhere for his ſervice: his majeſty has, with the advice of his uncle the duke of Orleans, regent, ordered, and does hereby order for the future, that no governors or lieutenants-general, &c. ſhall

purchaſe,

purchaſe, or otherwiſe eſtabliſh, any plantations of ſugar, indigo, tobacco, cacao, cotton, ginger, rocou, or other proviſions or merchandizes of the ſaid colonies; his majeſty, notwithſtanding, permits them to have gardens for fruits, pulſe, and herbage, for their own uſe only; and, with reſpect to thoſe who have plantations already, his majeſty forbids them to make any increaſe thereunto, upon any pretence whatſoever, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And a little lower, FLEURIAU.

A royal ordonnance, iſſued againſt captains and ſupercargoes of merchantmen, who ſhall carry on foreign trade to the French iſlands in America. Paris, 26 November 1719. By the king.

His majeſty being informed, that, notwithſtanding the great attention and care that he is deſirous of taking to prevent foreigners trading to the French iſlands of America, the captains and factors of the ſhips of his ſubjects that go to the ſaid iſlands, receive on board their veſſels, in the roads, proviſions and merchandizes, that are brought to them by foreign boats, and that they purchaſe them, either with ready money, or with French or Indian proviſions, from the facility they have to unload and ſell them to the inhabitants: it being of importance to prevent a contraband trade ſo prejudicial to the commerce of the kingdom, that it hinders the ſale of the merchandizes and proviſions brought from France, retards the vent of the cargoes of the ſaid ſhips, prolongs their ſtay in the iſlands, which occaſions mortality among the ſailors, and great expence to the merchants: all which being neceſſary to put a ſtop to, his majeſty, with the advice of the duke of Orleans regent, forbids all captains, factors, or ſupercargoes of French ſhips, from carrying on any commerce, directly or indirectly, with foreigners, on pain of the offenders being ſent to the gallies for ever. His majeſty orders and commands Monſ. the count of Toulouſe, admiral of France, and all governors and lieutenant-governors of the ſaid iſlands, all particular governors and officers of the ſuperior courts of the colonies, and other officers belonging thereto, to pay ſtrict obedience hereunto, &c.

Signed LEWIS
And underneath FLEURIAU.

Regulations by the king, concerning foreign or contraband commerce carried on in the French colonies.—Paris July 23, 1720.

The king being informed, that commerce with foreigners continues to be carried on in ſome of his colonies, notwithſtanding the prohibitions to the contrary that have been made by divers ordinances and regulations, and eſpecially by that of the 20th of Auguſt 1698. And being deſirous to prevent the continuance of this diſorder, and to ſecure to his ſubjects the whole commerce of all his colonies, his majeſty has judged it neceſſary, by and with the advice of Monſ. the duke of Orleans his uncle, regent, to make the preſent regulations.

ARTICLE I.

His majeſty orders all officers and captains of ſhips to ſeize all veſſels, barks, and others, as well French as foreign, carrying on contraband commerce with his colonies in America, and to reduce them by force of arms, and bring them into the neareſt iſland where the prize was taken.

II.

His majeſty permits all his ſubjects to ſteer the proper courſe for the taking of the ſaid ſhips and veſſels carrying on foreign commerce; and orders that, for the future, it ſhall be inſerted in the commiſſions of ſhips of war and merchantmen, that ſhall be granted by the admiral of France, that the bearers thereof ſhall be permitted to run upon thoſe ſhips, barks, and other veſſels, as well French as others, carrying on a foreign commerce to the French colonies of America, to reduce them by force, and carry them into the iſlands neareſt to the place where they were taken; the ſaid commiſſions however, ſhall not be granted without the ſame ſecurity being given as in times of war.

III.

The prizes thus made, either by his majeſty's ſhips, or thoſe of his ſubjects, ſhall be judged of by the officers of the admiralty, conformably to the ordonnances and regulations made for that purpoſe, without appeal to ſuperior courts; except in time of war, when the proceedings ſhall be ſent to the ſecretary-general of the marine, to be judged by the admiral as uſual; and, if the prize be condemned, one tenth ſhall go to the admiral, according to the ordonnance of 1681.

IV.

The produce of the prizes made by his majeſty's ſhips ſhall be divided, after the one tenth part thereof appropriated to the admiral; viz. one tenth to the commander of the ſhip that took the prize, one tenth to him who commanded the ſquadron, one tenth to the governor and lieutenant-general of the colony whither the prize ſhall be carried in, one tenth to the intendant; and one half of the ſurplus moiety to the ſailors, the other to the commiſſioners of the treaſury of the marine, for the maintenance of the colonies, according to his majeſty's orders.

V.

Prizes, made by the ſhips of his majeſty's ſubjects, ſhall be adjudged to him who took them; except the one tenth to the admiral, and upon the ſurplus of the produce there ſhall be raiſed one fifth; one half whereof ſhall be depoſited in the hands of the commiſſioners of the treaſury of the marine in the colonies, in order to be employed for the maintenance of the hoſpitals of the ſaid colonies, according to his majeſty's pleaſure; and the other moiety ſhall be divided thus, two thirds to the governor and lieutenant-general, and the other third to the intendant of the colony, where the ſaid veſſel making the capture ſhall have been fitted out: and, with regard to thoſe prizes, which ſhall be made by ſhips fitted out in France, the ſaid moiety ſhall be divided, as aforeſaid, between the governor and lieutenant-general, and the intendant of the colony where the prize ſhall be carried in.

VI.

His majeſty orders, that the particular governors of the colonies of Cayenne and Cape Breton ſhall enjoy, for the prizes which ſhall be brought into the ſaid colonies, either by his majeſty's ſhips, or by thoſe of his ſubjects, as alſo by thoſe fitted out in the ſaid colonies, ſuch proportions as ſpecified in art. the 4th and 5th of the preſent regulations made for the governors and lieutenants-general, and the commiſſioner of the ordinances of the ſaid colonies ſhall be intitled to thoſe parts allotted to the intendant.

VII.

His majeſty requires, that the preſent regulation ſhall be executed according to it's form and tenor, notwithſtanding all ordinances and regulations to the contrary, which his majeſty hereby makes null and void. His majeſty orders and commands Monſ. the count of Toulouſe, admiral of France, to have a ſtrict regard to the execution of the preſent regulations, to cauſe them to be made public wherever needful, &c.

Signed LEWIS.
And underneath FLEURIAU.

The king's declaration, with regard to merchandizes of the French colonies.—Paris, 14 March 1722.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, king of France and Navarre, greeting—Whereas by the 26th article of our letters patents of the month of April 1717, containing regulations for the commerce of the French iſlands and colonies, we have expreſsly forbid the inhabitants of the ſaid iſlands and colonies, and the merchants of our kingdom, to export into foreign countries, or into foreign neighbouring iſlands of the ſaid colonies, either by the means of French or foreign veſſels, any merchandizes of the produce of the French iſlands, on pain of confiſcation of ſhips and cargoes, and a penalty of 1000 livres; and, beſides the captains and maſters of ſuch ſhips being obliged to anſwer the ſaid confiſcation and penalties in their own perſon, to ſuffer a year's impriſonment, and alſo to be declared incapable of command, or of ſerving in the capacity of an officer on ſhipboard again: in conſequence whereof, the captains are obliged to repreſent, on their arrival in France, a ſtate, ſigned by the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine, of the merchandizes which they have laden at the ſaid iſlands and colonies. Although the laſt diſpoſition of the ſaid article is eſſential, and the greateſt ſecurity that can be taken againſt ſuch foreign trade, by the certification that ſhould be made of merchandizes, on the arrival of ſhips in France, from the ſtate of the loading made in the iſlands, yet we are informed, that the greateſt part of the maſters of ſhips returning from the ſaid iſlands, are diſpenſed with, in regard to their report of a ſtate of their loading, according to the form required; and that the commiſſioners of our farms in the ports of France cannot ſubject them thereunto, nor proceed ſecurely againſt them, apprehending that our judges will not have due regard thereunto, by reaſon that the ſaid 26th article of the regulations of 1717 does not inflict any penalty againſt thoſe, who ſhall neglect to make ſuch report, ſigned by the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine, but only againſt thoſe who ſhall carry on foreign trade; which renders the prohibitions in regard to this commerce ineffectual, from the impoſſibility of knowing in France, whether all the merchandizes which have been loaded in the ſaid iſlands are faithfully reported, at the ports of their return, and whether no part thereof has been unloaded in foreign countries: whereupon we judge neceſſary to remedy the ſame, by a certain diſpoſition which declares the penalties inflicted by the regulation of 1717, againſt the maſters of ſhips, who ſhall carry on foreign commerce; that the ſame penalties ſhall be incurred by thoſe, who ſhall neglect to report the ſtate of their loading, ſigned by the commiſſioners of the French iſlands and colonies, &c.—For theſe and other reaſons us hereunto moving, with the advice of, &c. &c.—We have, by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand;

hand; and we decree, will, and ordain, &c, that the 26th article of our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, ſhall be executed, according to the due form and tenor thereof, and, in conſequence of the ſame, that maſters of ſhips, returning from the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be obliged to repreſent, on their arrival in France, a ſtate, ſigned and certified by the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine, of the merchandizes which they ſhall have loaded at the ſaid iſlands and colonies.—We decree, that on failure of the ſaid maſters making a report within 24 hours of their arrival in the ports of France, to the commiſſioners of the office of our farms, the ſaid ſtate of their ſhip's loading, or on failure of reporting the merchandizes agreeably to the ſaid ſtate, ſuch maſters of ſhips ſhall be looked upon as having carried on a commerce at theſe iſlands with foreigners; in conſequence whereof their ſhips and merchandizes ſhall be confiſcated, the owners of the ſaid merchandize and the captains and maſters of the ſaid ſhips condemned in the whole fine of 1000 livres, and be liable to the other pains and penalties inflicted by the ſaid 26th article of our letters patent of the month of April 1717. Thus we give and command &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath Duke of ORLEANS, Regent,
PHELYPEAUX,
LE PELLETIER DE LA HOUSSAY.

Letters patents, upon the arret, which fixes the time of a year of the entrepoſt of merchandizes coming from the French iſlands and colonies into the ports therein mentioned, and of thoſe which ſhall be declared by the entrepoſt for the ſaid iſlands.—Verſailles, May 23, 1723.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—Whereas, by our declaration of the 19th of January laſt, we have, for the cauſes and conſiderations therein given, in confirmation of our letters patents of the month of April, 1717, for regulating the commerce of the French iſlands and colonies, ordered, that the merchants proprietors of the proviſions and merchandizes which ſhall be houſed according to the entrepoſt, and deſigned for the ſaid iſlands and colonies, ſhall be obliged, after one year's entrepoſt, to declare to the offices of farms at thoſe places, the quantities, qualities, weight, and meaſure of the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes, which ſhall remain in warehouſes; which declaration ſhall be certified by the adjudicatory commiſſioners of our farms, and, in caſe of neglect, and falſe declaration, that the merchants proprietors of the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes ſhall be condemned in 500 livres penalty, beſides the payment of the duties of the merchandizes which ſhall be found wanting in their declaration: and, in caſe of the ſale of the ſaid merchandizes ſo warehouſed the merchants proprietors thereof ſhall be obliged to diſcharge the duties thereupon, one month after ſale, on pain of the like penalty, and of 500 livres.—And being informed that it is yet neceſſary to limit the time of entrepoſt, as well for the proviſions and merchandizes declared and intended for the commerce of the French iſlands and colonies, as thoſe which come from the ſaid iſlands and colonies; in order to prevent the abuſes introduced, and which will always increaſe, by reaſon of thoſe entrepoſts, if they ſubſiſt for an unlimited time: we have provided, by an arret made in our council of ſtate, we being preſent, the 3d of the month and year of the date hereof, for execution of which, what we have ordered is requiſite.—For theſe reaſons, with the advice of our council, who have conſidered the ſaid arret hereunto annexed, under the counter-ſeal of our chancery, &c. we have decreed and ordained, and by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, we decree and ordain, that the time of the entrepoſt, as well with regard to merchandizes which ſhall come from the French iſlands and colonies into the ports of Calais, Dieppe, Havre, Rouen, Honfleur, Rochelle, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, Cette, Marſeilles, and Dunkirk, as thoſe which ſhall be declared and intended for the ſaid iſlands and colonies, and warehouſed in the ſame ports, and in thoſe of St. Malo, Morlaix, Breſt, and Nantes, ſhall be and remain fixed, for the future, to one year, to be accounted from the day that the ſaid merchandizes and proviſions ſhall have come into port. And, with reſpect to thoſe which are actually warehouſed, they ſhall be intitled to the benefit of the entrepoſt for one year, from the day of the publication of the ſaid arret, and of theſe preſents; after which time, the ſaid merchandizes ſhall be liable as follow, viz.—Thoſe declared and houſed for the French iſlands and colonies, to the ſame duties as they ſhould have paid, had they not been declared for the iſlands; and thoſe that come from the ſaid iſlands and colonies, ſhall be ſubject to the duties regulated according to our letters patents of the month of February, 1719, and according to thoſe of the month of October, 1721.—Thus we command, &c.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the king's council of ſtate, revoking thoſe permiſſions before granted to the merchants of the kingdom, to carry to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn, and Naples, directly from the French iſlands of America, merchandizes of the produce of the ſaid iſlands. June 14, 1723. Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

The king having been informed that to facilitate, during the time of the plague with which the city of Marſeilles, and ſome other places of the kingdom, have been afflicted, the exportation of merchandizes of the French iſlands of America into Spain and Italy, where the admittance of French ſhips coming directly from the ports of France was refuſed; it was allowed to all merchants of the kingdom, to ſend merchandizes to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn, and Naples, of the produce of the French iſlands of America, without putting them into entrepoſt warehouſes, required in the ports of France by virtue of the 15th article of letters patents of the month of April, 1717. But, the motives to this toleration ceaſing, it becomes neceſſary to re-eſtabliſh the execution ot the 2d article of the letters patents of the month of April, the intent of which is very important for the ſecurity of the duties of the farms, and to prevent the contraband exportation of the merchandizes of the French iſlands of America into foreign countries: againſt which his majeſty being willing to provide, and being preſent in council, having heard the report of the Sieur Dodun, counſellor in ordinary to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances, hath revoked and annulled the ſaid permiſſions granted to the merchants of his kingdom, to carry to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn, and Naples, directly from the French iſlands of America, merchandizes of the produce of the ſaid iſlands: wherefore his majeſty orders and decrees, that all ſhips which ſhall depart from the ports of France, deſigned, according to the firſt article of the ſaid letters patents, for the commerce of the French iſlands and colonies in America, as likewiſe thoſe which ſhall depart from the ports of Dunkirk and Marſeilles, in order to ſend the merchandizes of France to the ſaid French iſlands and colonies of America, ſhall be obliged to make their return directly into the port of their departure; and, to this end, the merchants who ſhall fit out the ſaid ſhips, ſhall make the ſubmiſſion required by the 2d article of the letters patents of the month of April, 1717, to the ſecretary of the admiralty, which ſhall be executed, for the time to come, according to their form and tenor. Done at the royal council of ſtate, held at Meudon, the 14th day of June, 1723.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

A royal ordinance, declaring Gilles Robin, captain of the ſhip St Michael, of Havre, incapable to ſail, for the future, in any ſhip intended for the colonies, for having carried on a contraband trade at St Domingo. The 25th of July 1724. By the king.

His majeſty being informed that, in violation of the prohibitions ſo often made and repeated, to prevent carrying on a contraband commerce with foreigners in the iſlands of Ameca, ſeveral captains and traders have occaſioned the loſs of their ſhips, by foreign merchandizes, which have been brought to them by foreign veſſels in the roads of the ſaid iſlands, which is not only contrary to the trade of the kingdom, but cauſes the ruin of thoſe who fit ſuch ſhips out, theſe captains conſuming, by the long ſtay they make in the colonies, in carrying on this fraudulent traffic, the advantages the proprietors might have reaped, if their voyage was ſhorter: the abovenamed Gilles Robin, commanding the ſhip called the St Michael, of Havre, fitted out for Leogane, upon the coaſt of St Domingo, was ſurprized, in the month of February laſt, carrying on, in the night-time, contraband or foreign trade, with a ſmall Engliſh ſhip; upon which, he being tried in the court of admiralty of the ſaid place, his merchandizes were confiſcated, and the ſaid Gilles Robin condemned in the penalty of 2000 livres, and ſix months impriſonment. His majeſty thinking it neceſſary to ſuppreſs the like abuſes, by examples which may include in their conſequence captains of merchantmen, who may fall under the like circumſtances, he hath declared, and does hereby declare, the ſaid Gilles Robin incapable of ſailing for the future in any ſhip bound for the colonies.—His majeſty orders and commands Monſ. the count of Toulouſe, admiral of France, the governors, and lieutenant-governors of America, intendants of the marine officiating in his ports and colonies, &c. to have ſtrict regard to the due execution of the preſent ordinance, which ſhall be regiſtered by the ſecretaries of the admiralties at the ports which have permiſſion to fit out ſhips for the ſaid iſlands and colonies; and alſo read, publiſhed, and fixed in the ſaid ports, &c.—Done at Chantilly, the 25th of July, 1724.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

Royal letters patents, in the form of an edict, concerning the foreign or contraband commerce to the iſlands and colonies of America.—Given at Fontainbleau, in the month of October, 1727.

LEWIS,

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—The care that the late king, our moſt honoured lord and great-grandfather, took for the advancement of the commerce of our iſlands and colonies, that which we alſo have taken by his example, ſince our acceſſion to the crown, the expence that has hitherto been for this purpoſe, and that we ſtill annually continue, have only in view the ſecurity and the increaſe of the trade and navigation of the ſaid iſlands and colonies: and herein we have had all the ſucceſs that could be expected; our ſaid colonies being very greatly augmented, and in condition to carry on a conſiderable trade and navigation, by the ſale of negroes, proviſions, and merchandizes, carried thither by the ſhips of our ſubjects, in exchange for ſugars, cacao, cotton, indigo, and other productions of the ſaid iſlands and colonies. But we have been informed, that a fraudulent contraband commerce has been introduced, which, beſides diminiſhing the commerce and navigation of our ſubjects, may prove of dangerous conſequence to the ſupport of our ſaid colonies.—The juſt meaſures we take that they may be ſupplied from France, and from our other colonies, with the negroes, proviſions, and merchandizes they need, and the protection we owe to the trade of our ſubjects, have determined us to fix, by a certain law, ſuch precautions, and lay ſuch ſevere pains and penalties upon the offenders, as may put a ſtop to ſuch fraudulent traffic; for theſe, and other reaſons us hereunto moving, with the advice of our council, and of our certain knowlege, full power, and royal authority, we have, by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, decreed and ordained, that there ſhall not be received, into the colonies ſubmitted to our obedience, any negroes, effects, proviſions, and merchandizes, unleſs carried thither in French ſhips or veſſels, which ſhall take in their lading in the ports of our kingdom, or in our ſaid colonies, and which ſhall belong to our ſubjects born in our kingdom, or our ſaid colonies: in conſequence whereof we will and decree as follow, viz.

TITLE I.

Of ſhips carrying on foreign or contraband commerce.

ARTICLE I.

We forbid all our ſubjects born in our kingdom, and in our colonies, to cauſe any negroes, effects, proviſions, and merchandizes to be brought into our ſaid colonies from foreign countries, or foreign colonies, except ſalt beef from Ireland, which ſhall be brought in French ſhips, and which have taken their loading in the ports of the kingdom, on pain of confiſcation of ſhip and cargo, and 1000 livres penalty againſt the captain, who ſhall alſo be condemned to the gallies for three years.

II.

We forbid, under the ſame penalties, all our ſubjects to export from our ſaid iſlands and colonies any negroes, effects, proviſions, and merchandizes into foreign countries, or into foreign colonies: we permit, nevertheleſs, our French merchants to carry directly, from our iſlands of America, into the ports of Spain, ſugars of all ſorts, excepting raw ſugars, together with all other merchandizes of the produce of the ſaid iſlands, according to the regulations made by the arret of our council of the 27th of January, 1726.

III.

Foreigners ſhall not land with their ſhips, or other veſſels, in the ports, roads, or havens of our iſlands and colonies, not even in our UNINHABITED iſlands, nor navigate their ſhips within a league round thoſe iſles and colonies, on pain of confiſcation of their ſhips and veſſels, and alſo of their loading, and 1000 livres penalty, &c.

IV.

We order all our officers, captains, commanders of our ſhips, &c. to purſue all foreign ſea veſſels which they ſhall find within the ſaid latitude, and even thoſe belonging to our own ſubjects carrying on foreign or contraband trade, and reduce them by force of arms, and bring them into the iſland neareſt to the place where ſuch prize has been taken.

V.

We permit all our ſubjects to purſue the ſaid ſhips and ſea veſſels, and thoſe belonging to our own ſubjects carrying on foreign or contraband commerce; and we decree, for the time to come, it ſhall be inſerted in the commiſſions granted, either for war or commerce, by the admiral of France, that thoſe who bear ſuch commiſſions may purſue the ſhips, and other ſea-veſſels, which they ſhall find under the beforementioned circumſtances, and reduce them by force of arms, and bring them into the iſland neareſt the place where the prize has been made; but theſe commiſſions ſhall not be delivered to them without giving the ſame ſecurity as is done in time of war.

VI.

Prizes made on theſe occaſions, either by our ſhips, or thoſe of our ſubjects, ſhall be adjudged by the officers of the admiralty, conſiſtently with the ordinances and regulations iſſued on this occaſion, without appeal to the ſuperior council of the iſlands or colonies where the prize ſhall be adjudged; with this exception, that, in time of war, the proceeding of the court, with regard to the prizes made upon thoſe nations with which we may be at war, ſhall be ſent to the ſecretary-general of the marine, in order that the caſe may be adjudicated by the admiral, as uſual on thoſe occaſions; and $\frac{1}{10}$ of the produce of thoſe prizes determined lawful ſhall be appropriated to the admiral, according to the ordinance of 1681.

VII.

The produce of prizes made by our ſhips ſhall be divided, after deduction of the admiral's tenth; viz. $\frac{1}{10}$ to the commander of the veſſel which makes the prize; $\frac{1}{10}$ to the governor, or lieutenant-general of the colony whither the prize ſhall be carried in; $\frac{1}{10}$ to the intendant; and the ſurplus of the moiety to the ſailors; and the remaining half part ſhall be depoſited in the hands of the commiſſioners of the treaſury of the marine in the ſaid colony, to be appropriated according to our orders, &c.

VIII.

Prizes made by the ſhips of our ſubjects ſhall be adjudged to him who made them, except the $\frac{1}{10}$ to the admiral, and he ſhall be intitled to $\frac{1}{3}$ upon the ſurpluſage of the produce; the half whereof ſhall be depoſited in the hands of the commiſſioner of the treaſury of the marine in the colonies, to be employed as we ſhall judge proper; and the other half ſhall be divided, the $\frac{2}{3}$ to the governor, our lieutenant-general, and the other third to the intendant of the colony where the ſhip taking the ſame ſhall have been fitted out: and, with reſpect to prizes made by ſhips fitted out in France, the ſaid moiety ſhall be divived, as before ſaid, between the governor, our lieutenant-general, and the intendant of the colony whither the prize ſhall have been carried in.

IX.

The particular governors of the colonies of Cayenne, Guardaloupe, and Cape Breton, ſhall be intitled, for prizes carried in thither, either by our ſhips, or thoſe of our ſubjects, fitted out in France, or in the ſaid colonies, to thoſe proportions ſettled by the 7th and 8th articles of the preſent edict, to the governor our lieutenant-general; and the commiſſioners of the ordinances of the ſaid colonies ſhall be intitled to thoſe appropriated to the intendant.

X.

We command all officers of our troops, or militia, commanding in the different parts of our colonies, even the captains of the militia in their diviſions, to arreſt ſuch foreign veſſels as ſhall be found in the ports, roads, and havens of their diſtrict, and alſo French ſhips carrying on a contraband trade in thoſe places: and $\frac{1}{10}$ of the produce thereof ſhall belong to the admiral, and $\frac{1}{3}$ to the officer who made the prize; $\frac{1}{3}$, which ſhall be divided into halves, between him that commands the detachment, and the ſoldiers or inhabitants who have compoſed the ſame. The remainder, or the whole, ſhall be depoſited in the hands of the commiſſioners of the treaſury of the marine, to be employed according to our order, &c.

XI.

Ships, or other foreign veſſels, either of war or merchantmen, which by ſtorm, or other urgent neceſſities, ſhall be forced into our colonies, ſhall not water, on pain of confiſcation of merchants ſhips and cargo, except in ports or roads where we have garriſons, viz. in the iſland of Martinico, Fort Royal, in the borough of St Pierre, and à la Trinité; in the iſland of Guardaloupe, at the road of La Beſſe Terre, at Little Cul-deſac, and at Fort Lewis; at Grenade, in the chief port, as well as at Marie Galante, and in the iſland of St Domingo, at Petit Goave, Leogane, St Lewis, St Marc, Port de Puiſé, and Cape François: at which places they ſhall not be ſtopped, provided they make appear they were not intended for our colonies; and, upon this appearing, all deſirable ſuccour and aid ſhall be given them. We order the governor, our lieutenant-general, or other commanding officers, to ſend a detachment of four ſoldiers and a ſerjeant on board the ſaid ſhips and veſſels, to prevent the imbarkation and debarkation of negroes, effects, proviſions, and merchandizes, under any pretence whatever; which detachment ſhall remain on board ſuch veſſels, at the expence of the proprietors thereof, ſo long as they ſhall remain in the ports and roads of our colonies.

XII.

Captains of the ſaid veſſels thus at liberty, who ſhall have occaſion for proviſions, rigging, or other utenſils, to enable them to continue their voyage, ſhall be obliged to aſk permiſſion of the governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander, in his abſence, and of the intendant, to embark them; which permiſſion ſhall not be granted 'till their requeſt is communicated to the director of the domaine; and theſe ſhall be granted by the ſaid governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander in his abſence, and the intendant, ſhall be tranſmitted, with a copy of the ſaid ordinance, to the ſecretary of ſtate for that department of the marine, to give us an account thereof: we require, however, that the ſaid ordinance be proviſionally executed, &c.

XIII.

It is abſolutely neceſſary to refit or careen the ſhips of foreigners thus at liberty, to unlade their effects, proviſions, and merchandizes, the captains thereof ſhall be obliged to aſk permiſſion of the governor, our lieutenant-general, or com-

mander in his abſence, and of the intendant; which permiſſion ſhall not be granted 'till the requeſt be communicated to the director of the domaine: and there ſhall be granted an ordinance importing the ſaid permiſſion. And, in caſe the director of the domaine oppoſes the ſaid permiſſion, his motives, as well as thoſe of the governor, our lieutenant-general, &c. ſhall be repreſented, together with a copy of the ordinance, to the ſecretary of ſtate of the marine, to acquaint us of the ſame: we require, however, that the ſaid ordinance be proviſionally executed; and, in caſe of the landing of the ſaid merchandizes, there ſhall be given a verbal account, in preſence of the director of the domaine, containing the quantity and quality thereof, ſigned by the captain of the ſhip, and by the ſaid director of the domaine; which account ſhall be ſent to the ſecretary of ſtate of the marine; and the ſaid governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander in his abſence, ſhall place a centinel at the gate of the warehouſe where the ſaid merchandize ſhall be depoſited, to prevent any being taken out, or ſold in the ſaid colonies; and, while the ſaid merchandize ſhall remain in the ſaid warehouſe, which ſhall be ſhut with three locks, one of which keys ſhall be given to the intendant, another to the director of the domaine, and the other to the captain of the ſaid ſhip. We require alſo, that, in caſe he has landed negroes, he ſhall draw up a liſt, wherein they ſhall be exactly characterized, who ſhall be ſequeſtered in the hands of ſome reſponſible perſon, that they may be reſtored again, &c. the whole hereof muſt be performed on pain of confiſcation of the value of the ſaid negroes, and alſo the ſhip and cargo.

XIV.

The expence of ſuch ſhips or veſſels in our iſlands and colonies ſhall be made there, and paid in caſh or bills of exchange: and, in caſe the captain has not money, nor can find any one in the ſaid iſlands and colonies, who will anſwer for the payment of the ſaid bills of exchange, permiſſion ſhall be granted by the governor, our lieutenant-general, or the commander in his abſence, and the intendant, on the requeſt of the captains of the ſaid ſhips (which ſhall likewiſe be communicated to the director of the domaine) for the ſale of a certain number of negroes and merchandizes, to make good the ſaid expence ONLY; and an ordonnance granting the ſaid permiſſion ſhall be made, ſignifying the ſaid expence, together with the quantity and quality of the negroes, and merchandizes ſold: and, in caſe the director of the domaine ſhould oppoſe ſuch ſale, his motives, together with thoſe of the governor, our lieutenant-general, or commander in his abſence, and the intendant, ſhall be repreſented to be ſent, with a copy of the ordonnance, to the ſecretary of ſtate of the marine: and we require that the ſaid ordonnance ſhall be executed proviſionally, and that the ſale, ſo permitted, ſhall not exceed the amount of the expence incurred, under any pretext whatſoever.

XV.

We require, that as ſoon as the ſaid foreign ſhips ſhall be at liberty, and in condition to take in again their loading of negroes and merchandizes ſo landed, there ſhall be a re-examination of the ſame, ſigned by the director of the domaine, a copy whereof ſhall be ſent to the ſecretary of ſtate for the marine, and after the ſaid embarkation the ſaid veſſels ſhall put to ſea.—We require alſo, that thoſe which ſhall be thus at liberty, depart the firſt favourable opportunity, after being in a condition for ſailing, on the penalty againſt the captain of 1000 livres, and confiſcation of ſhip and cargo: the governors, our lieutenant-governors, particular governors, or other officers commanding in our colonies, ſhall not permit the ſaid ſhip to make any longer ſtay, than what ſhall be abſolutely neceſſary to fit them for ſea.

XVI.

We forbid the captains of the ſaid foreign ſhips, ſupercargoes, and others thereunto belonging, to land or ſell any negroes, or other merchandizes brought by the ſaid ſhips, nor to ſhip any negroes or merchandizes of the French colonies, on pain of confiſcation of the ſaid ſhips and loading, and 1000 livres penalty beſides, which ſhall be paid without abatement by the captains and ſailors.

TITLE II.

Concerning negroes, effects, proviſions, and merchandizes, found on the ſea-ſhores, and in the ports and havens, brought as well in French ſhips carrying on contraband trade, as in foreign ones.

ARTICLE I.

Negroes and meachandizes found on the ſhores, ports, and havens, brought by French ſhips carrying on unlawful commerce, ſhall be confiſcated, together with the ſhip and loading, and a penalty of 1000 livres laid on the captain, beſides being condemned to the gallies for three years; the moiety of which penalty ſhall go to the informer.

II.

Negroes and merchandizes ſo found upon the ſhores, and in the ports and havens brought by foreign ſhips, ſhall alſo be confiſcated, together with the veſſel from whence they were unloaded, and the cargo, and the captain condemned in 1000 livres penalty, which ſhall be paid without deduction by him and the ſailors, and one moiety thereof ſhall go to the informer.

III.

The ſaid confiſcations, pains and penalties, ſhall be adjudged by the officer of the admiralty, without appeal to ſuperior courts.

TITLE III.

Of negroes, effects, proviſions, and merchandizes, found on land, coming as well in French ſhips carrying on contraband commerce, as in foreign ones.

ARTICLE I.

Negroes and merchandizes found on land, brought by ſhips belonging to our jubjects, carrying on illicit trade, ſhall be confiſcated, together with the ſhip and cargo, and the captain condemned in the penalty of 1000 livres, and ſent to the gallies for three years.

II.

Negroes and merchandizes which ſhall, in like manner, be diſcovered landed, brought by foreign ſhips, ſhall alſo be confiſcated, together with the ſhip and cargo, and the captain condemned in the penalty of 1000 livres, which ſhall be paid without abatement, by him and the ſailors.

III.

Thoſe in whoſe poſſeſſion ſuch negroes and merchandizes ſhall be found, brought by French ſhips carrying on illicit trade, and by foreign ſhips, ſhall be condemned in 500 livres penalty, and be ſent to the gallies for three years.

IV.

One moiety of the ſaid fines and confiſcation ſhall go to the informer, the other to the farmer of the revenue of our domaine.

V.

Proſecution of ſuch offenders ſhall be made before the judges in ordinary, without appeal to ſuperior courts.

TITLE IV.

Of appeals in regard to ſentences paſt, as well with reſpect to French ſhips carryinu on contraband commerce, as foreign ſhips doing the ſame.

ARTICLE I.

Appeal lodged in ſuperior courts, with reſpect to ſentences paſſed in the ordinary courts of law, or in thoſe of the admiralty, on occaſion of contraband trade being carried on by French ſhips and foreign ones, ſhall be adjudged in the following manner:

II.

Our ſuperior courts ſhall continue to aſſemble after the uſual manner.

III.

The ſittings which they commonly hold, and during which all cauſes are diſpatched that are ready to be heard, ſhall be divided into two parts.

IV.

At the firſt ſitting there ſhall be heard as well civil as criminal cauſes, which concern individuals, and others that concern foreign or contraband trade, or have any relation thereunto, as foreign ſhips, &c.

V.

All cauſes which concern the ſaid foreign or contraband trade, or have any relation thereunto, and alſo all thoſe concerning foreign ſhips, ſhall be heard at the ſecond ſitting, which ſhall be held immediately after the firſt.

VI.

The governor, our lieutenant-general, the intendant, major officers, only ſhall aſſiſt at the ſaid ſecond ſittings, and alſo five counſellors that we ſhall name for this purpoſe, the ſollicitor-general and the ſecretary: we require, that in caſe any of the ſaid counſellors ſhould not be at the ſaid ſittings, either by abſence, ſickneſs, or any other lawful cauſe, ſentence ſhall be paſſed, when there are but three of the ſaid counſellors only.

TITLE V.

Of merchandizes coming in foreign ſhips, and brought by means of French veſſels.

ARTICLE I.

Merchandizes coming in foreign ſhips that ſhall be found in ſhips belonging to our ſubjects, ſhall be confiſcated, and the captains of the ſaid veſſels, factors, &c. fined in three thouſand livres penalty without deduction, and moreover the captains to be ſent three years to the gallies, and the factors, &c.

ſuffer

ſuffer ſix months impriſonment: the ſaid confiſcations and penalties ſhall go, the one half to the informer, and the other part ſhall be depoſited in the hands of the commiſſioner of the treaſury of the marine in our colonies, to be employed as we ſhall direct, either for the increaſing or maintaining hoſpitals, buildings, or to other neceſſary works of the ſaid colonies.

II.

The ſaid captains, factors, &c. ſhall be obliged to juſtify by invoices, manifeſtos, charter-parties, bills of lading, &c. in regular form, and this before the intendant at the firſt requiſition, that the merchandizes ſold are the entire produce of thoſe laden in France; and, for want of thoſe, they ſhall be cenſured and reputed to have ſold merchandizes coming in foreign ſhips, or French ſhips trafficking in foreign or contraband trade, and as ſuch ſhall be condemned in the penalties contained in the preceding article.

III.

We refer the cognizance of cauſes that may require expedition, to the intendants of our colonies, and theſe we forbid to be tried in other courts.

IV.

We require, that, in caſes where the ſaid captains ſhall be convicted of the ſaid offence, the ſaid intendants ſhall place ſome reputable perſon on board ſuch ſhips, in order to be carried into France to their owners.

V.

We require, that all perſons of what rank or condition ſoever, who ſhall be convicted of contraband commerce by veſſels belonging to them, or that they have hired ſhips on freight that have favoured ſuch trade in foreign veſſels, or who have ſent, into foreign countries or colonies, negroes, effects, proviſions, or merchandizes of our colonies, may be condemned, beſides the penalties impoſed by theſe articles, to the gallies for three years.

VI.

We require, that ſuch foreigners who carry on foreign commerce, and import negroes, and foreign merchandizes into our colonies, and likewiſe thoſe who ſend negroes and merchandizes from our colonies into foreign countries, ſhall be liable to proſecution for the ſame, five years after commiſſion, and that the proof thereof may be made within that time.

VII.

All conteſts of this kind, either as plaintiffs or defendants, ſhall be referred to the juriſdiction and cognizance of the intendants of our colonies, and we forbid all other courts and judges from trying the ſame.

VIII.

We impower our commiſſaries of ordonnances, and our firſt counſellors in the iſlands and colonies, where there is no intendant, to ſupply their place.

TITLE VI.

Of foreigners ſettled in the colonies.

ARTICLE I.

Foreigners ſettled in our colonies, even thoſe who are naturalized, or who may be ſo hereafter, ſhall not act as merchants, brokers, and agents, in affairs of commerce, in any manner whatſoever, on pain of 3000 livres penalty to the informer, and be baniſhed for ever from our ſaid colonies; we permit them only to purchaſe lands and plantations, and to deal ſolely as planters in commodities produced therefrom.

II.

We grant, to thoſe who are at preſent engaged in trade, three months time, from the day of regiſtering theſe preſents, to lay the ſame aſide, and the offenders ſhall be condemned in the penalties laid by the preceding article.

III.

We forbid all merchants and traders in our colonies, from having any agents, factors, book-keepers, or other perſons concerned in this commerce, who are foreigners, although they be naturalized: we require them to be diſmiſſed within three months at the fartheſt, from the day of regiſtering theſe preſents, on the penalty of 3000 livres inflicted on ſuch merchants and traders, and againſt the ſaid agents, factors, book-keepers, or other perſons who ſhall be engaged in their affairs, and to be baniſhed for ever from the ſaid colonies.

IV.

We enjoin and command our ſollicitors-general and their ſubſtitutes, to attend duly to the execution of theſe three preceding articles, on pain of anſwering the ſame in their own perſons.

Thus we require and command all our faithful friends who enjoy ſuperior poſts in the ſaid iſlands and colonies, that theſe preſents may be known, publiſhed, and regiſtered, and the contents hereof ſtrictly obſerved according to their form and tenor, notwithſtanding all edicts, declarations, arrets, and ordonnances, to the contrary, which we have by theſe preſents made null and void. For ſuch is our pleaſure. And, to the end that this may be for ever in force, we have hereunto affixed our ſeal. Given at Fontainbleau in the month of October, in the year of our Lord 1727, and in the 13th year of our reign.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath, PHELYPEAUX,
CHAUVELIN.

And ſealed with the great ſeal with green wax.

An arret of the royal council of ſtate, containing regulations on the point of conteſts between the admiralty of France, and the farmers-general of the revenue, with regard to contraband and prohibited commerce made as well at ſea, and in the ports, havens, and water-ſide of the kingdom, as in the French iſlands and colonies of America.—Of the 25th of May, 1728. Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

The king being in council, and the memorials preſented as well by the admiral of France, as by the adjudicatory of the united body of farmers-general of the revenue, on the ſubject of controverſies ariſen between the admiralty of France, and the ſaid farmers-general, in regard to contraband and prohibited commerce, &c. And, in regard to the application of the penalties and confiſcations made, which have occaſioned conteſts between the judges of the admiralty, and the judges of the ſaid adjudicatory of farmers-general: his majeſty, to put an end to thoſe conteſts at preſent, and to prevent others, for the future, having determined by a certain regulation what are the rights, that belong to the one and the other, hath attended to the report of the Sieur Le Peletier, counſellor of ſtate in ordinary, and to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances: and his majeſty, being in council, has decreed, and doth decree, &c. what follows, viz.

ARTICLE I.

The knowledge of offences committed, and diſcovered in France, on the veſſels, and in the ports, roads, coaſts, and ſhores of the ſea, with reſpect to contraband and prohibited commerce, carried on by importation and exportation of merchandizes, ſhall appertain to the Sieurs intendants, and commiſſaries, reſident in the provinces and generalities of the kingdom, in conjunction with the officers of the admiralty, without appeal to the council in civil affairs, and ſhall be the dernier reſort in criminal caſes, &c.

II.

The produce of the penalties and confiſcations ſhall belong to his majeſty, or to the adjudicatory of his farms, at whoſe requeſt and expence all proſecutions ſhall be carried on, without the admiral of France pretending any thing thereto, under any pretext whatſoever.

III.

The officers of the admiralty ſhall have cognizance in the firſt inſtances of offences in regard to foreign commerce, as well in regard to affairs of a civil as criminal nature, and contraband or prohibited merchandizes, which ſhall be diſcovered to be carried on by ſhips, and in the ports, roads, coaſts, and ſhores of the ſea in the French iſlands and colonies, with appeal to ſuperior courts, except thoſe offences contained in title 5 of the letters patents of the month of October 1727; the cognizance whereof ſhall belong to the intendants and officers of the admiralty, in calling to their aſſiſtance, if need be, the number of graduates, or officers, required by the ordinances in caſes of pronouncing corporal puniſhment.

IV.

The produce of the penalties and confiſcations ariſing from ſuch offences which ſhall be diſcovered by the commiſſioners of the weſtern domaine, in the ports, coaſts, and ſhores of the ſea in the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be remitted to the account of caſh of the domaine, and belong one moiety to his majeſty, or to the adjudicatory of his farms, and one moiety to the informers, and employed by the domaine that ſhall have contributed to the diſcovery and the capture.

V.

The cognizance of ſuch offences as ſhall be diſcovered on land by the officers of the domaine to the ſaid iſlands and colonies, ſhall belong to the intendants, without appeal to the council, except where corporal puniſhment is inflicted; in which caſe, the cognizance in the dernier reſort ſhall be left to the ſaid Sieurs intendants, in calling to their aſſiſtance the number of graduates, or officers, required by the ordinance; and the produce of the penalties and confiſcations that ſhall ariſe, as well in civil as criminal caſes, ſhall be remitted to the caſh-account of the domaine, one moiety whereof ſhall belong to his majeſty, or to the adjudicatory of the farms, the other moiety to the informers, and the ſervants of the domaine who have contributed to the diſcovery and capture.

VI.

The product of the penalties and confiſcations, which ſhall ariſe from the prizes at ſea by the pinnaces and commiſſioners of the farm, authorized by commiſſions from the admiralty of France, ſhall be remitted to the domaine, and be appropriated ($\frac{1}{10}$ belonging to the admiral being deducted) one moiety to his majeſty, or the adjudicatory of his farms, the

other

other moiety to the informers, and thoſe employed by the domaine who have contributed to the capture.

VII.

The penalties and confiſcations, with regard to affairs undetermined in France and America, ſhall belong to his majeſty, or to the adjudicatory of his farms, according to articles 4, 5, and 6 of the preſent regulations.

VIII.

Effects and merchandizes ſeized, as well in France as in the French iſlands and colonies, by the commiſſioners of the adjudicatory of farms, ſhall be depoſited only in the office of farms; and, with relation to prizes taken at ſea ($\frac{1}{10}$ of which fall to the admiral of France) the adjudicatory of farms, or their commiſſioners, ſhall be obliged to ſecure them in a warehouſe, under two different keys, one of which ſhall remain with the officers of the admiralty, and the other with the receiver of the depoſitory of farms, 'till definitive judgment be given.

IX.

And, to indemnify the admiral of France for thoſe rights which may be pretended to belong to him, as well in reſpect of contraband trade in France, as that in the French iſlands and colonies, and to put an end to the litigations which ſuch pretenſions may occaſion, there ſhall be paid to him annually, on the firſt day of the year, by the adjudicatory of farms, to commence from the preſent year 1728, the ſum of 20,000 livres; which, for the future, ſhall put an end to all pretenſions of this nature in the preſent admiral and his ſucceſſors; nor ſhall the farmers of the revenue interfere with the determinations of the officers of the admiralty, with reſpect to confiſcations, nor any thing which does not immediately concern contraband and prohibited trade, and the care of the duties of the farms.

X.

The farmer of the revenue, under pretence of care thereof, be it either for the loading of ſalt, and to prevent contraband trade, or for whatever other reaſon, ſhall not have, or put to ſea, any veſſel of what ſize ſoever, without leave and commiſſion from the admiral of France, regiſtered at the admiralty of the place, under the penalty contained in the ordinance of 1681; except, however, ſmall boats requiſite to viſit ſhips in creeks, ports, and roads. With reſpect to the loading of ſalt, there ſhall be permiſſions granted for ſuch ſhips every voyage: and, in relation to veſſels and pinnaces that are always on the ſea for the ſervice of his majeſty's farmers of the revenue, their leave and commiſſion ſhall be granted them annually.

XI.

The adjudicatory of the farms ſhall be allowed to have upon the ſea and at the mouths or entrances of rivers, armed veſſels, pinnaces, and ſhalops, on condition of the ſaid veſſels tranſmitting, every ſix months, to the ſecretary of the admiralty of the province, an account, certified by the commiſſioner-general of the farms, of the ſur and chriſtian-names of all perſons therein employed.

XII.

The adjudicatory ſhall be permitted to fit out the ſaid veſſels, and to chuſe their ſailors, provided they are not in the ſervice of the royal marine.

XIII.

Licenſes ſhall be granted them from the admiral of France for ſuch veſſels and pinnaces which they may judge requiſite for their purpoſe, in order to be armed upon the coaſts of the kingdom; and theſe licences ſhall remain in force for one year, and be renewed annually at their expiration, under the penalties contained in the ordinance of 1681.

XIV.

With relation to thoſe pinnaces, boats, or other veſſels that the farmers of the revenue may think neceſſary to arm at the iſland-colonies in America, to go within the extent of the limits preſcribed by the regulations made in regard to veſſels carrying on contraband commerce, they ſhall be obliged to take out a commiſſion of the admiral of France, as required by article the 5th of the letters patents of the month of October, 1727, which commiſſion ſhall remain in full force for one year only.

XV.

If any veſſel, carrying on contraband commerce on the coaſts of the iſlands of America, ſhould be attacked by an armed veſſel commiſſioned by the admiralty of France, and alſo by a veſſel armed by the farmers of the revenue, under the like commiſſion from the admiralty, the prize ſhall be divided between them, according to the number of ſailors and cannon in the reſpective armed veſſels, conformably to the ordinance of 1681.

XVI.

There ſhall be no innovations made with regard to prizes and offenders, which concern damaged ſalt and tobacco, in the ports, and on the coaſts of the kingdom; the full power to judge of which remaining in the officer of the gabelles, and others who have cognizance thereof, according to the regulations iſſued for that purpoſe; all which ſhall be executed according to their form and tenor, without deviating from the preſent arret.

XVII.

Upon this occaſion, our letters patents of the month of October 1727, ſhall be taken into conſideration, as likewiſe other regulations concerning contraband and prohibited merchandizes. His majeſty injoins the Sieurs intendants and commiſſaries throughout the provinces and generalities of the kingdom, and the ſaid French iſlands and colonies, to be vigilant in the execution of the preſent arret, which ſhall be executed, notwithſtanding any obſtructions thereunto; of which, if any ariſe, the cognizance thereof ſhall be left to his majeſty in council, and all courts and ordinary judges are hereby forbid to interfere in theſe caſes.—Done at the royal council of ſtate, his majeſty being preſent, held at Verſailles the 25th of May, 1728.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—To our faithful friends and counſellors, concerned in our councils, maſters of requeſts of our houſhold, Sieurs intendants and commiſſaries throughout the provinces and generalities of our kingdom, and our French iſlands and colonies in America, greeting, &c.—We command and injoin you, by theſe preſents, ſigned with our hand, to be vigilant and attentive, each in his reſpective ſtation, to the due execution of the arret, the extract whereof is hereunto annexed, under the counter-ſeal of our chancery, iſſued this day in our council of ſtate, we being preſent, for the reaſons therein contained.—In the firſt place, we order and command our ſerjeant, on this requiſition, to ſignify and publiſh the ſaid arret, to all whom it may concern, that no one may be ignorant thereof, and to take all requiſite meaſures to put our commands in execution, without other permiſſion, notwithſtanding any impediments hereunto; the cognizance of which we reſerve to ourſelves and our council, and forbid all other courts or judges any way to interfere therein.—We will and ordain, &c.

Signed LEWIS.

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

Upon the 3d of October, 1730, a royal declaration was iſſued, concerning the regulation and collection of the capitation tax at the Windward iſlands of America: and, on October the 4th, 1731, inſtructions were alſo iſſued, to facilitate the execution of the ſaid declaration. In regard to the firſt of theſe, although there is every thing done that could be, to prevent the evaſion of the tax, and all frauds in the collection, yet there does not ſeem leſs judgment in joining moderation with rigour and ſeverity. Example: in article the 9th of the ſaid declaration it is ſaid, 'That ſuch who ſhall break up freſh land in the French iſlands and colonies ſhall be exempted, for two years, from the ſaid tax of capitation, not only for their own perſons, but for their domeſtics and negroes employed therein.—Likewiſe thoſe who ſhall eſtabliſh new plantations, either for cacao or indigo, ſhall be intitled to the ſame privileges.'—Theſe being the chief particulars which relate to traffic, we ſhall take no other notice of the beforementioned declaration than to obſerve, that the latter, viz. the inſtructions for execution of October the 4th, 1731, contain ſuch plain and intelligible rules for the execution of every diſtinct article of the former, that it is not poſſible either for the officers of the crown to miſtake their duty, or the people the intention of the legiſlator.

THE next eſſential particular that occurs, according to the order of time, with regard to the laws of France, in relation to their American iſlands and colonies, is a royal regulation with reſpect to the wheat-meal of Canada, which was iſſued by the king the 18th of May 1732; and which is introduced with the following preamble:

'His majeſty being informed, that the meal ſold in Canada, and which is exported thence to Cape Breton, and other of the French iſlands in America, is frequently of a bad quality, there being mixed therewith meal of other grain than that of wheat-corn, and that the ſame is barrelled up too moiſt, or in caſks not ſufficiently dried: his majeſty deſirous to prevent a continuation of the like abuſes, which will abſolutely ruin and annihilate the ſaid commerce of meal, which is highly beneficial to the ſaid colony of Canada: his majeſty has ordered, and does order, &c. as follows, viz.'

ARTICLE I.

Merchants and manufacturers of wheat-meal in the colony of Canada ſhall be obliged, from the day of the publication of the preſent ordinance, to mark with fire both ends of the barrels wherein ſuch meal ſhall be packed, before the ſail or embarkation of the ſaid barrels, on pain of three livres penalty for every barrel not ſo marked, that ſhall be offered to ſale, be ſold, or embarked.

II.

Merchants and others ſhall be obliged, on pain of 20 livres penalty, to depoſit the image or impreſſion of the ſaid firemark which they uſe (viz. thoſe merchants and other manufacturers of meal reſiding in the city of Quebec, or under it's government) in the rolls of the admiralty eſtabliſhed in the ſaid city; and thoſe dwelling in the cities of the three rivers,

and

and at Montreal, or under the government thereof, ſhall be depoſited in the rolls of the royal juriſdictions of the city, within the diſtricts of their habitation.

III.

Thoſe who ſhall embark the ſaid barrels, if meal, ſhall be obliged to mention, in their invoice of the ſaid barrels, the diſtinct mark thereof, and to mention the ſame likewiſe in the bills of lading, on pain of 20 livres penalty for every offence.

IV.

The captains of thoſe ſhips on which the ſaid barrels of meal ſhall be laden, ſhall be obliged, before their loading, to certify whether the ſaid barrels be marked; and, in caſe they are embarked without marking, they ſhall be condemned in the penalty of three livres for every barrel ſo embarked.

V.

Meal barrelled and offered to ſale in Canada, which ſhall be found to be of bad quality, ſhall be confiſcated, and the proprietor thereof condemned in four livres per barrel penalty.

VI.

Meal ſent from Canada to Cape Breton, and to other of the French iſlands in America, which ſhall be found to be of bad quality, ſhall likewiſe be confiſcated, and the proprietor thereof condemned in a penalty of four livres per barrel.

VII.

Cognizance of offences committed in Canada againſt the preſent ordinance, on account of barrels of meal being expoſed to ſale on the land, and before having been embarked, and which barrels ſhall not be marked, and on default alſo of not depoſiting the ſaid mark with the ſecretaries of the royal juriſdiction, together with the bad quality of the ſaid meal; ſhall belong to the intendant of New France, or to his ſubdelegates in his abſence; but, if the ſaid offences ſhall be diſcovered in other places than on the keys, and in the ſhips and veſſels, or in the warehouſes wherein they ſhall be put from the firſt time of their landing; and, in caſe the ſaid fire-mark hath not been duly depoſited, in conformity to the preſent ordinance, in the rolls of the admiralty of Quebec, the officers of the ſaid court ſhall take cognizance of the ſaid offences.

VIII.

The officers of the admiralty of Quebec, and thoſe of Cape Breton, and of other French iſlands in America, ſhall take cognizance, each within the extent of his diſtrict, of offences committed by neglect of the fire-mark required at both ends of the ſaid barrels, and alſo of the bad quality of the meal, provided the offence be diſcovered upon the key, or in the ſhips or other veſſels, or in the warehouſes where they ſhall be depoſited for the firſt time of their being landed: they likewiſe ſhall take cognizance of the default, in omitting to mention the mark of the ſaid barrels in the invoices and bills of lading of the concerned.

IX.

The officers of the admiralty of Cape Breton ſhall be obliged to direct a verbal proceſs, with reſpect to the bad meal; which proceſs ſhall be ſent to the intendant of New France, in order to be tranſmitted to the officers of the admiralty of Quebec: on which account the proprietors of the ſaid meal ſhall be condemned in the penalty of 4 livres per barrel, as aforeſaid.

X.

The officers of the admiralty of the other French iſlands in America ſhall, in like manner, be obliged to direct a verbal proceſs, with regard to the bad meal; which proceſs they ſhall ſend to the ſecretary of ſtate, having there the juriſdiction of the marine, to be tranſmitted by him to the officers of the admiralty of Quebec, to the end that the proprietor may be condemned in the penalty of 4 livres for every barrel of bad meal.

XI.

Cognizance of offences committed againſt the preſent ordinance, which ſhall be diſcovered after the landing of the ſaid meal at Cape Breton, or at other French iſlands in America, and after they ſhall have been bought up from the keys or warehouſes wherein they may have been put, ſhall belong to the intendant of the iſland where they ſhall have been landed, and, in his abſence, to his ſubdelegate.

XII.

The intendants of the ſaid iſlands, or their ſubdelegates in their abſence, ſhall be obliged to direct the like verbal proceſs, in relation to bad meal; which proceſs they ſhall ſend to the ſecretary of ſtate for that juriſdiction of the marine, to be tranſmitted by him to the intendant of New France, to the end that the proprietors may be condemned in the penalty of 4 livres per barrel which ſhall be found bad.

XIII.

Theſe verbal proceſſes, made on account of the bad quality of meal arriving at Cape Breton, and other the French iſlands in America, ſhall ſignify the quality and condition in which the meal ſhall be found, together with the mixture of what other grain ſhall be therein made; they ſhall mention likewiſe to what the bad quality of the ſaid meal is to be attributed.

XIV.

The penalties and confiſcations which ſhall have been adjudged by the intendant of New France, ſhall belong (viz. for offences committed in the government of Quebec) to the general hoſpital of the ſaid place; for thoſe committed in the government of the three rivers, to the Hotel-Dieu of the ſaid city; and, for thoſe committed in the government of Montreal, to the Hotel-Dieu there eſtabliſhed.

XV.

The penalties and codfiſcations decreed by the judge-commiſſary of Cape Breton, ſubdelegated by the intendent of New France, ſhall belong to the hoſpital of the ſaid iſland; and thoſe decreed by the intendant of the other French iſlands of America, or other ſubdelegates, ſhall be appropriated to the neareſt hoſpital.

XVI.

The penalties and confiſcations decreed by the officers of the admiralty, ſhall belong to the admiral of France.

His majeſty orders and commands Monſ. the count of Thoulouſe admiral of France, and the governors, his lieutenant-general, and intendants in America, to keep a vigilant eye, every one in his own perſon, to the due execution of the preſent ordinance, which ſhall be read, publiſhed, and fixed up in every place where needful, and regiſtered in the rolls of the admiralty of the reſpective colonies wherein they have juriſdiction.—Done at Compeigne, the 18th of May 1732.

Signed LEWIS,
And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

Upon the 21ſt of May following the count of Thoulouſe, admiral of France, iſſued his orders to all concerned, to have ſtrict regard to the execution of the preceding ordinance.

An arret of the royal council, forbidding all privateers and merchants, carrying on trade in the French iſlands and colonies, to ſend ſtuffs or painted linens of the Indies thither, or thoſe of Perſia, China, or the Levant.—May 9, 1733. Extracted from the regiſters, of the council of ſtate.

The king cauſing to be laid before him the letters patents of the month of April 1717, touching the regulation of the commerce of the French iſlands and colonies of America; by the 12th article of which it is declared, that the merchants of the kingdom ſhall not ſhip for the ſaid iſlands and colonies any foreign merchandizes, whoſe import and conſumption in the kingdom are prohibited, on pain of confiſcation, and a penalty of 3000 livres, which ſhould be decreed by the officers of the admiralty: alſo other letters patents, of the month of February 1719, including regulations of trade from Marſeilles to the ſaid iſlands and colonies, the 12th article of which contains the ſame diſpoſition: alſo thoſe of the month of October, 1721, by which his majeſty granted to the city of Dunkirk the privilege and liberty to carry on trade to the ſaid iſlands; and ordained, by article 14, that the general regulation of the month of April 1717, ſhould be executed in whatever was not repugnant to the diſpoſitions made by thoſe laſt letters patents: and his majeſty being informed that the merchants who carry on the commerce of the ſaid French iſlands and colonies, might export thither ſtuffs and painted linens of the Indies, Perſia, China, or of the Levant, under pretence that theſe ſorts of merchandizes (whoſe uſe and importation are nevertheleſs prohibited) are not expreſsly comprehended in the ſaid 12th article of the general regulation of 1717; againſt which his majeſty deſiring to provide, and conſidering the advice of the deputies of the council of commerce, heard the report of the Sieur Orry, counſellor of ſtate, and counſellor in ordinary to the royal council, and comptroller-general of the finances, the king, being preſent in council, has ordained, and does hereby ordain that the letters patents of the month of April 1717, of February 1719, and October 1721, ſhall be executed according to their form and tenor. In conſequence of which, his majeſty expreſsly forbids all privateers and merchants, carrying on trade to the French iſland and colonies of America, to carry thither ſtuffs or painted linens of the Indies, of Perſia, China, or the Levant, under what denomination ſoever, on pain of confiſcation, and a penalty of 3000 livres, and to be EXCLUDED from being concerned in the ſaid commerce for the future.—The like prohibitions are made to all captains, maſter-pilots, marine officers, ſailors, paſſengers and others who make up the crews of ſhips deſigned for the ſaid iſlands and colonies, to carry thither, in any ſhape whatſoever, any of the ſaid ſtuffs and painted linens, on pain of confiſcation, and of 3000 livres penalty againſt the captains, maſter-pilots, marine officers and paſſengers, beſides their being rendered incapable of commanding and ſerving in any veſſel whatſoever; and, with reſpect to ſailors, and others whereof the ſhip's crew conſiſts, on pain of one year's impriſonment, or more, according to the caſe: his majeſty commands and injoins the Sieurs intendants and commiſſaries in the marine provinces of the

kingdom, and the officers of the admiralty, and likewiſe the governors and intendants of the ſaid French iſlands and coloniés, or all commanders and commiſſaries ſubdelegated, to have a ſtrict regard, each for himſelf, to the execution of the preſent arret, which ſhall be read, publiſhed, and fixed up, wherever needful. Done at the king's council, his majeſty being preſent, held at Verſailles the 9th of May, 1733.

Signed PHELYPEAUX.

LEWIS, by the grace of God, &c.—To our friends and faithful counſellors, concerned in our councils, the Sieurs intendants and commiſſaries, diſperſed, for the execution of our orders, throughout our maritime provinces, and to the officers of the admiralty; alſo to the governors and intendants of the French iſlands and colonies, or to the commanders and commiſſaries ſubdelegated in their diſtricts, greeting: we command and injoin, by theſe preſents ſigned by us, to have a ſtrict regard, every one in his own perſon, to the execution of the arret hereunto annexed, under the counter-ſeal of our chancery, this day given in our council of ſtate, we being there preſent, for the reaſons therein contained, &c.

Signed LEWIS,

And underneath, PHELYPEAUX.

An arret of the royal council of ſtate, which grants the merchants of St Jean de Luz, for their whale and cod fiſheries at Canada and Cape Breton, the ſame rights, privileges, and exemptions granted by letters patents, of the month of April 1717, for the trade of the French iſlands and colonies of America.—July 20, 1734. Extracted from the regiſters of the royal council of ſtate.

Upon a petition preſented to the king in council, by the merchants of St Jean de Luz, containing, that as yet, with regard to the cod and whale fiſheries, which is the only commerce of that city, they are under the neceſſity of ſending ſhips, as well to the iſland of Terra Nova, which makes part of the French colonies of America, as to Davis's Streights in North America; notwithſtanding they have never enjoyed an exemption of duties on merchandizes deſigned for the French colonies, with reſpect both to the cargo or the victualling of their veſſels; of which they have always refuſed the acquittance of ſecurity at Bourdeaux, under pretence that there is no warehouſe of entrepoſt eſtabliſhed in their port; and that in the letters patents of the month of April 1717, containing regulations for the commerce of the French colonies, which ſignify the ports where veſſels are to be fitted out, that of St Jean de Luz hath been omitted: and, as that omiſſion makes it impoſſible for them to carry on the commerce of the colonies upon an equality with other merchants of the kingdom, included in the ſaid letters patents, they being liable to theſe duties, from which others are exempt; which have proved ſo burdenſome, that they have ſuſtained conſiderable loſſes for ſome years paſſed, in their cod and whale fiſheries: for theſe reaſons they requeſt, that his majeſty would pleaſe to order the eſtabliſhment of a warehouſe of entrepoſt in the ſaid city of St Jean de Luz, for fitting out ſhips for the French colonies of America, and that they may enjoy thoſe exemptions of duties, and other privileges and advantages, granted to the merchants, contained in the letters patents of the month of April 1717. His majeſty having ſeen the ſaid petition, heard the ſentiments of the deputies of commerce, and the report of the Sieur Orry, counſellor of ſtate, and comptroller-general of the finances; and the king being preſent in council, hath granted, and doth grant, to the merchants of St Jean de Luz, for their whale and cod-fiſheries at Canada and Cape Breton, the ſame rights, privileges, and exemptions which are granted for the commerce of the French colonies, to the merchants of the kingdom, included in the letters patents of the month of April 1717; to which end, his majeſty orders that there may be eſtabliſhed, in the ſaid city of St Jean de Luz, a warehouſe, wherein the merchandizes and proviſions deſigned for the victualling of ſhips fitted out for the ſaid fiſheries, ſhall be lodged, according to the entrepoſt, and in conformity to the 30th article of the ſaid letters patents.—Done at the council of ſtate, held at Verſailles, the 20th of July 1734.

Signed GUYOT.

An arret of the royal council of ſtate, and letters patents in conſequence thereof, concerning the entrepoſt, as well in reſpect to merchandizes, intended for the French iſlands and colonies, as thoſe which come from thence.—Of the 6th of May 1738. Regiſtered in the council of aids.

The letters patents of the month of April 1717, being repreſented to the king in council, containing regulations for the commerce of the French colonies, by which his majeſty hath ordered, by articles 5, 6, and 30, that the proviſions and merchandizes of the kingdom intended for the ſaid colonies, together with thoſe alſo of the ſaid colonies, ſhall be warehouſed, according to the entrepoſt in the ports therein deſigned, and that the warehouſes for that purpoſe ſhall be choſen by the merchants, at their expence, and locked with three different keys, one of which ſhall be depoſited with the commiſſioner of the five great farms, another with the commiſſioner of the weſtern domaine, and the third with the overſeer appointed for that purpoſe by the merchants: the declaration of his majeſty, of the 19th of January 1723, which orders that the merchants, the proprietors of the proviſions and merchandizes deſigned to be warehouſed, and intended for the French iſlands and colonies, ſhall be obliged, after one year's entrepoſt, to declare, at the offices of farms of thoſe places, the quantities, qualities, weights, and meaſures of the ſaid proviſions and merchandizes, which ſhall remain in the entrepoſt warehouſes; which declaration ſhall be certified by the commiſſioners of the adjudicatory of the farms; and, in caſe of offending thereagainſt, by a falſe declaration, the merchants proprietors of the ſaid interpoſed merchandize ſhall be condemned in the penalty of 500 livres, and likewiſe obliged to the payment of the duties of the merchandizes which ſhall be found wanting according to their declaration: and laſtly, in caſe of the ſale of the ſaid merchandizes, the merchants proprietors thereof ſhall be obliged to diſcharge the duties one month after ſale, on pain of the like penalty of 500 livres. The arret of the council of the 3d of May 1723, and letters patents, in conſequence thereof, of the 21ſt of the ſaid month, by which his majeſty hath fixed the time of entrepoſt, as well with reſpect to the merchandizes of the iſlands and colonies, as of thoſe declared and deſigned for the ſaid iſlands and colonies, ſhall be to one year, reckoning from the day that the ſaid merchandizes ſhall have been ſo warehouſed; which time being expired, they ſhall be liable to duties. And his majeſty being informed, that, in the caſes where the farmer of the revenue, on account of the difficulties which attend warehouſes under keys, permits the merchants to make the entrepoſt in their own warehouſes, many of whom lodge the ſaid merchandizes, or change the warehouſes, without making any declaration thereof to the farmer, which hath occaſioned divers abuſes: his majeſty, being reſolved to remedy the ſame, by adding to the aboveſaid regulations freſh precautions, which may, in ſome meaſure, ſupply the default of the keys, which, in the terms of the letters patents of April 1717, ſhould be depoſited with the farmer of the revenue, &c. The king having heard the report of the Sieur Orry, counſellor of ſtate, and comptroller-general of the finances, being preſent in council, hath ordered, and doth hereby order, that, in caſe where the farmer of the revenue ſhall permit merchants to put merchandizes in their own warehouſes, the ſaid merchants ſhall be obliged to declare to the commiſſioners of the farms, the warehouſe wherein they deſign to place them, and to give to the officer of farms ſecurity to repreſent them in the ſame quality and quantity, at the time required, under the pains and penalties hereafter mentioned.—His majeſty forbids the merchants to take out the ſaid merchandizes from the warehouſes wherein they ſhall be depoſited, or even to ſhift them from one warehouſe to another, 'till they have made a declaration thereof to the ſaid office, and taken out a licence for that purpoſe, &c. His majeſty orders that, in caſe of fraud, the ſaid merchants ſhall be condemned to the confiſcation of the value of the merchandizes wanting, and beſides in the penalty of 500 livres, &c. and, in caſe of a change of warehouſe without declaration made thereof, they ſhall be deprived of the benefit of the entrepoſt, and liable to the payment of all the duties, &c.

Signed DE VOUGNY.

Then follow letters patents to enforce the ſame.

Signed LEWIS.

And underneath PHELYPEAUX.

May the 21ſt, 1741, was iſſued an arret of the royal council of ſtate, permitting privateers for the French iſlands and colonies to load ſalt in Bretagne, or in other parts where cuſtomary, to be employed at Cape Verde, for the ſalting of beef deſigned for the ſaid iſlands, without paying any duties, &c.

On July the 19th, 1742, a royal ordinance was made, forbidding all captains of ſhips diſarmed in the ſaid iſlands of America, from paying, in the ſaid iſlands, the balance due to their ſhip's crew, and injoining them to make the diſcounts in preſence of the officers charged to take an account of ſeveral claſſes of the ſailors, and regulating the peculiar forms requiſite upon theſe occaſions, &c.

This ordinance being too long to introduce here, and yet having ſomething deſerving notice, we ſhall refer the ſame to the article SEAMEN.

The 13th of June 1743, a royal ordinance was publiſhed, concerning the regulation made on the reception of captains and maſters of ſhips in the French colonies of America.—Which we ſhall take notice of under the article PRIVATEERS.

June the 24th, 1743, an arret of the royal council of ſtate was iſſued, ordering that the merchandizes of the produce of the French iſlands of America, intended for Cape Breton, ſhall be diſcharged to the 1ſt of January, 1747, of the duty of weight of 1 per cent. and that thoſe merchandizes of the produce of the ſaid iſlands, deſigned as well for Cape Breton as for Canada, ſhall be diſcharged, during the ſaid time, of the

the duties of 3 per cent. of the weſtern domaine, together with the duty of 40 ſols per 100 weight upon ſugars of the ſaid iſlands, which ſhall be ſent there.

Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.
See the article SUGAR.

October the 29th, 1743, an arret of the royal council of ſtate, was iſſued, ordering that the merchants and privateers of Marſeilles ſhall be obliged to bring to the office of the weſtern domaine all merchandizes coming from the French iſlands of America, ſo well as thoſe which ſhall be embarked for the ſaid iſlands, to be there viſited, and the duties diſcharged.

Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

April the 20th, 1744, an arret of the royal council of ſtate was made, ſuſpending, during the late war, the execution of the 2d article of the letters patents of the month of April 1717, concerning the commerce of the French iſlands of America.

Extracted from the regiſters of the council of ſtate.

On the 22d of December, 1750, an arret of the royal council of ſtate was declared, containing an exemption of the duty of 3 per cent. of the weſtern domaine, on cottons brought from the French colonies of America, for home-conſumption, and to ſubject them to the ſame duties of exportation that they paid before the arret of the 12th of November, 1749. Alſo, Ordaining that the duty of 3 per cent. of the weſtern domaine ſhall continue to be collected upon cotton of the French colonies exported to other nations; that the duty of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. eſtabliſhed by the declaration of the 10th of November, 1727, ſhall continue to be collected upon the cotton of the ſaid colonies, in the ſame manner as collected upon other merchandizes which come from thence.

Extracted from the regiſters of the royal council of ſtate.

On the 17th of Auguſt 1751, an arret was iſſued by the royal council of ſtate, fixing at 8 livres per 100 weight the duties on the exportation of cotton-wool out of the kingdom, coming from the French iſland colonies, and thoſe on cotton-yarn at 10 livres per 100 weight, as well for the duties of the five great farms, as for thoſe of the weſtern domaine: ordaining, alſo, that the duty of $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. augmentation of the weſtern domaine ſhall remain to be collected at importation in the kingdom upon cottons coming from the ſaid iſlands.

REMARKS on FRENCH AMERICA in general, as the ſame ſtood before the laſt war.

We have dwelt the longer on the laws eſtabliſhed in France for the regulation of their trade of the American iſlands and colonies, becauſe theſe things ſeem to be little known in this kingdom, and becauſe they point out the meaſures which that nation has taken, from the year 1700 to the preſent time, for the advancement of the commerce of their iſlands and colonies in America: and, as the ſucceſs and proſperity of this neighbouring nation, in theſe iſlands and colonies, have been ſo remarkable and conſpicuous to the whole world, within a little above half a century, a knowledge of thoſe laws, whereby ſuch great things have been effected, one ſhould ſeem to think, muſt be acceptable to all who would enter into the cauſes of ſuch extraordinary, and, indeed, unparallelled conſequences.

That our readers may form a right judgment of theſe laws and regulations, we ſhall obſerve the following particulars, viz.

1. That they are grounded on the repreſentations of the DEPUTIES of COMMERCE, made, from time to time, to the ROYAL COUNCIL OF STATE: that thoſe deputies of commerce are perſons well ſkilled and experienced in thoſe branches of trade about which they lay their ſentiments before the royal council. See the article CHAMBERS of COMMERCE.

2. That theſe laws and regulations, in general, are extremely minute, and appear to be derived from a very exact and circumſtantial ſtate of the commerce, as carried on by the PRACTICAL MERCHANTS AND TRADERS; which indicates that THE LEGISLATORS IN ALL COUNTRIES CANNOT BE TOO FULLY AND PARTICULARLY INFORMED OF ALL THE VARIOUS METHODS AND ARTS MADE USE OF BY TRADERS in the proſecution of their reſpective branches, the better to enable them ſo to adapt and conform their laws to the nature of peculiar branches, that the national proſperity cannot fail of being promoted.

3. That the fines and penalties on traders violating thoſe laws are very rigorous and ſevere; and that the French nation are as ſtrict in the execution of thoſe laws, as they are circumſtantial and deliberate in the enacting them: witneſs the caſe of captain GILES ROBIN, for carrying on illicit trade with an Engliſh veſſel at ST. DOMINGO.

4. That the laws of trade in France ſhould ſeem, ſuitably to the nature of the conſtitution of their government, to be wiſely accommodated to preſerve the whole trade of their SUGAR ISLANDS AND COLONIES TO THEMSELVES, in order to render them abſolutely ſubſervient to the proſperity of their MOTHER-KINGDOM.—That, to this end, we find them, by their laws, extremely vigilant to prevent all contraband trade from being carried on with foreign nations in their colonies, they judging it highly detrimental to the intereſt of their colonies, as well as of the kingdom of France in general.

5. That, ſince the laws of France in general are ſo well calculated to prevent ſuch contraband trade, we may preſume that, whenever this nation permits, or winks, at ſuch trade with their AMERICAN COLONIES, they are certain to be GAINERS BY IT; otherwiſe we may reaſonably enough believe, that they would ſoon put an effectual ſtop thereto, AS THE DUE EXECUTION OF THEIR LAWS COULD NOT FAIL OF BEING EFFECTUAL TO THAT PURPOSE.

6. That as the French wink at, and countenance a trade being carried on between the BRITISH NORTHERN COLONIES AND THE FRENCH SUGAR-ISLANDS IN AMERICA, it is to be feared that the French are too ſenſibe of the advantages ariſing from that trade, or they would as little admit of that in particular as any other; and if that proves a gainful branch of trade to the French, does it not become the wiſdom of Great-Britain ſo thoroughly to examine into this commerce with the French colonies, as to determine WHETHER A COMMERCE BENEFICIAL TO FRANCE CAN BE SO IN IT'S CONSEQUENCES TO GREAT-BRITAIN?

7. That the French take all proper care to promote a trade between CANADA, OR NEW FRANCE, and their iſland colonies; and that it ſhould not ſeem to appear bad policy in Great-Britain to promote, as much as poſſible, the commerce of our NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES WITH OUR OWN SUGAR-ISLANDS, rather than to permit them to carry on a trade to the FRENCH SUGAR-ISLANDS.

8. That the French have ſurprizingly increaſed in their SUGAR-TRADE, AS WELL AS IN EVERY OTHER PART OF THE COMMERCE OF THEIR ISLANDS AND COLONIES IN AMERICA, is a fact uncontrovertable; and that their maritime power, in general, has augmented, in the like proportion, is as little to be diſputed.

9. The Engliſh nation are very apt to have too mean an opinion of the trade and navigation of other nations, particularly the French, notwithſtanding the ſuperiority they have inſenſibly gained over us in ſeveral branches of commerce ſince the peace of Utrecht.

10. The number of prizes that were taken from the French in the late war 1740, and the frequent arrivals of their numerous fleets, have rouzed and opened the eyes of many that would not be convinced before: and, ſince our indolence is at length awakened, our ſecurity alarmed, and every breaſt ſeems to be filled with thoſe paſſions which are inkindled by the love of our country, not only from this inſtance, but alſo from many other proofs that the French have of late years gained very great advantages over us in trade; ſurely no opportunity ought to be loſt to excite every Briton to the exertion of all his faculties to diſcover the cauſe of ſuch a ſurprizing change, and to find out ſuch expedients as may enable us to bear up againſt the flouriſhing ſtate and ambitious views of the common diſturbers of Europe.

11. In order to anſwer ſo deſirable an end, it will be neceſſary to ſearch narrowly into the preſent ſtate, laws, eſtabliſhments, and rules of commerce, as well foreign as domeſtic, and to retrench what is ſuperfluous and inconvenient in our own laws, and to ſupply what is inſufficient by prudent regulations.

12. In the arret for eſtabliſhing a council of commerce in France, done in the king's council of ſtate, his majeſty preſent, at Verſailles, the 29th of June, 1700, as obſerved on another occaſion, it is ſaid, 'Lewis XIV. king of France, 'having at all times been ſenſible of what importance it was 'to the welfare of the ſtate to favour and protect the com'merce of his people, as well within the kingdom as out of 'it: and being, in the year 1700, more diſpoſed than ever 'to grant a particular protection to commerce, to ſhew his 'eſteem for the good merchants and traders of his kingdom, 'and to facilitate to them the means of making trade flou'riſh, and extending it: and judging that nothing could be 'more capable of producing this effect than the forming a 'COUNCIL OF COMMERCE, to be wholly attentive to the 'examining and promoting whatever may be moſt advanta'geous thereto, and to the manufactures of France in gene'ral, eſtabliſhed a counеil accordingly,' which conſiſts of ſome of the principal *OFFICERS OF STATE, and 12 of the PRINCIPAL MERCHANTS of the kingdom, as I have elſewhere obſerved.

* The comptroller general of the finances, ſecretary of ſtate, and other particular counſellors of ſtate, who communicate what paſſes at this council to the ROYAL COUNCIL, as occaſion may require.

13. In this council of commerce, which ſits at leaſt once in every week at Paris, or where the court reſides, are diſcuſſed and

and examined ALL PROPOSITIONS AND MEMORIALS WHICH ARE SENT TO IT, together with the affairs and difficulties which may arife concerning commerce, as well by land as by ſea, within the kingdom and out of it, and alſo concerning FABRICS AND MANUFACTURES.

14. Immediately upon the eſtabliſhment of this council of commerce, the * deputies of the ſaid council applied diligently to the duty of their office, and the enſuing year preſented to the royal council no leſs than 20 memorials concerning the commerce of that nation to their American iſlands, Guinea, the Levant, Spain, England, Holland, and the North; the raiſing nominally the value of coin, and the effects that has upon commerce; the granting monopolies; the erecting of excluſive companies; and other chief points in trade.

* Theſe deputies have 10,000 livres per annum ſalary (which is about 400 l. ſterling) allowed by their reſpective towns that elect them.

15. In theſe MEMORIALS are contained ſeveral propoſitions for regulations and remedies in trade, many of which have ſince been thoroughly executed, to the honour of thoſe deputies, and to the great advantage and reputation of that nation, as they have, ſince the repreſentations of the ſaid memorials to the royal council*, extended their trade to the LEVANT, the NORTH, AFRICA, NORTH AMERICA, the SOUTH SEAS, and to the EAST AND WEST-INDIES, even ſo far as to make more than double the value in SUGAR, INDIGO, GINGER, and COTTON, in their WEST-ISLANDS, than what is now made by the ENGLISH, who, before that time, EXCEEDED THE FRENCH IN THIS BRANCH OF TRADE ABUNDANTLY.

* It is computed that, before the year 1720, there was no more than 30 ſail of ſhips annually employed in the AMERICAN trade from BOURDEAUX only, and thatthere are now 300ſail employed annually in that trade from that city only.

16. In the article of ſugar only, they have, within that time, increaſed, from the quantity of about * 30,000 Engliſh hogſheads per annum, to 120,000, or thereabouts, whereof about two thirds are ſhipped to Holland, Hamburgh, Spain, and tother foreign markets; and the Engliſh have increaſed from about 45,000 to no more than 70,000 hogſheads within that time, of which they now ſend but little to foreign markets, although they had formerly the beſt ſhare of that trade, and even ſupplied France with ſugars. This increaſe of the importation of ſugar into Europe from America, by the FRENCH and ENGLISH, is owing to the great increaſe of the general conſumption of ſugar in Europe, and the declenſion of the Portugueze ſugar-trade.—And, moreover, the French have already engroſſed the indigo-trade from the Engliſh, and have greatly increaſed in their fiſheries, and and beaver and other fur-trade in North America, ſince their ſettlement of CAPE BRETON, which they have fortified at a † vaſt expence; and it is from this laſt-mentioned trade, and their fiſheries, that they find a vent for moſt of their melaſſes and rum that the Engliſh do not take off their hands.

* A hogſhead of ſugar, including freight, and other charges home, may be computed, on an average, at 12l. to 18l. per hogſhead, according to the plenty or ſcarcity.

† The fortifications of Louiſburg, in the iſland of Cape Breton, coſt the French king ſome millions of livres, beſides a vaſt anuual expence in maintaining them and the garriſons there, before the late war; and that it has coſt them conſiderably ſince, is recent in every one's memory.

17. They have alſo gained a great ſuperiority over us in the fur-trade. It is computed they import into France from Canada only, to the value of * 135,000l. ſterling per annum in beaver and other furs, including deer-ſkins; and the Engliſh, from all our northern colonies, not above † 90,000l. ſterling. And the French are ſo tender of this branch of trade, and ſo ſenſible of the advantages that ariſe from the manufactory of theſe American commodities, that no one can re-export beaver from France unmanufactured, under the ſevereſt penalties. When theſe goods are munufactured, they exceed the value upon importation, in ſome caſes, ten fold, and have greatly improved this branch of trade, and ſupply moſt parts of Europe and Spaniſh America with hats.—In the late war of 1740, there was a ſhip taken, bound from France to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, in which was a quantity of white beaver, and other hats, which were ſold in London, and were ſo much ſuperior in quality to any thing of the like ſort, that our manufacturers were ſurprized at it, as they were much beyond what they could have imagined.

	In beaver.	In deer-ſkins.	In furs.	Total.
* The French import from † Canada -	l. 75,000	20,000	40,000	135,000
The Engliſh import from North America - -	37,000	25,000	28,000	90,000
	l. 112,000	45,000	68,000	225,000

18. The great advantages gained by the French from ſuch a ſurprizing increaſe in trade, is conſpicuous from the immenſe ſums they draw annually from other countries, in return for their American products, as well as for their cambrics, tea, brandy, wine, and other home manufactures.

19. It is from hence they chiefly maintain ſuch powerful armies, and afford ſuch plentiful ſubſidies and penſions to ſeveral powers in Europe, when ſubſervient to their views and intereſts: it is from hence they build their ſhips of war, and nouriſh and maintain ſeamen to ſupply them.

20. It is computed that they draw from two to three millions of pounds ſterling per annum from foreign countries, in return for ſugars, indigo, coffee, ginger, beaver (manufactured into hats) ſalt-fiſh, and other American products, and near one million more from Great-Britain and Ireland only, in wool and caſh, in return for cambrics, tea, brandy, and wine, and thereby fight us in trade, as well as in war, with our own weapons.

21. Whether this great increaſe of the French commerce is owing to the extent and fertility of their territories, or to their dent regulations and encouragements thereof, both at home and abroad, or to the experience and vigilance of the COUNCIL OF COMMERCE, we will not determine; though, perhaps, chiefly to the latter.

22. The French, for the encouragement of the American iſles and colonies, have, ſince the year 1698, laid little or no duties on the importation of their SUGAR, or any other of their American products, however preſſing the exigencies of the government might have been ſince then.

23. They pay but $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on a low valuation, which reduces it to about 2 per cent. on the importation of their ſugar into France, beſides an inland duty of 3 livres, or about 2s. 8d. ſterling per 100 weight; yet ſugars, and other effects of their African company, are exempted from half the impoſts payable at the cuſtomhouſe, and from all local duties on what is imported or exported by them [as obſerved under FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY.] The French planters pay but one per cent. on the exportation of their plantation products from their iſlands, whilſt the planters of Barbadoes, and the Leeward Iſlands, long paid $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on their exports.

24. The French king has many years ſince allowed his ſubjects that trade to Africa a bounty of 10 livres, or about 9s. ſterling a head for every negroe, and as much for every ounce of gold-duſt which they carry from the coaſt of Guinea.

25. Although the French king's edicts and arrets, or laws, are as ſtrict as our acts of trade and navigation, as to the prohibition of foreigners from trading in their iſlands and colonies in America, yet their great officers have diſcretionary power to diſpenſe with thoſe laws, where it ſhall appear for the benefit of their colonies, and without prejudice to the TRADE AND NAVIGATION OF FRANCE—Whence it is they are permitted to exchange their ſurplus rum and melaſſes with the Engliſh, for caſh, horſes, ſhipping, timber, and other plantation neceſſaries.

26. There is alſo a conſiderable traffic carried on between the French iſlands and the Spaniſh iſlands of Margueretta, Trinidado, Porto Rico, and other Spaniſh ports in America, whereby the French receive from the Spaniards money, horſes, mules, cacao, cocheneal, tobacco, and other American products, in return for French manufactures and negroes; and the French employ between 100 and 150 ſail of ſloops and other veſſels, in and about the iſland of Martinico.

27. The French king grants lands in his plantations gratis, to poor induſtrious people, ſent thither from France, and gives them other encouragements to go over and ſettle there; and moreover lends money to his AMERICAN SUBJECTS, in caſes of hurricanes, or other unavoidable misfortunes.

28. They check exorbitant fees, extravagant port-charges and extortions, and diſcountenance uſury and high intereſt in their colonies, and take the greateſt care that none of their planters eſtates are broke up by haſty creditors. In a word, they neglect ſcarce any meaſures that have a tendency to the advantage of all parties intereſted, as well as to the benefit of the colonies, in conjunction with that of their mother-nation.

29. The fortifications in the French ſugar iſlands are erected and maintained at the king's expence, which, in the Engliſh iſlands, is chiefly done by the inhabitants.—They pay wages to marines that are taken on board their private ſhips, which ſhips are at the expence of victuals only for ſuch marines; and they obſerve the moſt prudent regulations with regard to their marine in general; they puniſh defaulters, and reward the meritorious according to their deſerts. See the article MARINE LAWS.

30. They coin ſmall pieces of ſilver in France, for the particular uſes of their ſugar-colonies, and ſend them there to pay off their governors, and other public officers, and to eaſe their trade: on the other hand, the Britiſh ſugar-planters raiſe money to pay not only their own governors, and other public officers, but alſo the governors of Bermuda and the Bahama iſlands in America, as well as the governor of the iſland of Jerſey in Europe.

31. The tender care the French take of their trade is further evident from the following extract, taken from the before-mentioned

mentioned memorial, preſented by the deputies of the council of commerce to the royal council in 1701, viz.

'The deputies are obliged to obſerve further to the royal council, that, for three or four years paſſed, a duty is levied at St Domingo of 2 ſols [above 1d. $\frac{1}{10}$ ſterling] per pound weight on indigo, ſhipped off there. This novelty is the more pernicious, becauſe that drug ſerves for dyeing our manufactures into blues or blacks, and becauſe we make a conſiderable traffic thereof to the North. It is of great importance for the council to be pleaſed to take off this duty, which is capable of ruining the cultivation of this drug.'—How the French have advanced in the indigo-trade ſince this time, ſee INDIGO.

32. The French miniſters ſeem ſucceſſively, from the time of Richlieu, to have ſet their hearts on regulating commerce, and to turn every article thereof to the national emolument.

33. The French do not think their laws ought to remain unalterable, according to the maxim of the Medes and Perſians, for they at all times readily change their laws, when they experience the exigencies of commerce require it. We have a recent and remarkable inſtance of this during the late wars; they permitted Dutch ſhips to load ſugar, and other commodities, at their Weſt-India iſlands, and carry them directly to Holland, or to any other part of Europe.

34. By this meaſure the French encouraged their colonies in time of war, by eaſy inſurances and low freights, beſides getting early with their plantation-produce to foreign markets.

In regard to the important article of ſugar, melaſſes, rum, rice, &c. the productions of the Britiſh plantations, and the laws to which they are ſubject in England and France, comparatively conſidered, we ſhall take notice of them under their diſtinct heads.

35. In the mean time we ſhall obſerve, that, whatever practices among Britiſh traders have any tendency to promote and advance the proſperity of our rival American iſlands and colonies, and injure our own, they ought to be thoroughly enquired into, and a ſtop put to them. The practices, at preſent alluded to, are thoſe of our Britiſh northern colonies in America, carrying on a commerce with the French iſland colonies there.

Further REMARKS.

Whether the charge of our Weſt-India merchants againſt thoſe of the northern colonies be well grounded, we will not take upon us to ſay; but leave the deciſion thereof, after giving a ſhort ſtate of the argument on both ſides, to the impartial public; it being indifferent to us on which ſide the truth may lie, if we can but be inſtrumental to bring it to light.—According to the repreſentation of the Weſt-India merchants the caſe is as follows, viz.

By the act of navigation, paſſed 12 Car. II. cap. 18, it is enacted, That no goods ſhall be imported into, or exported out of, any territories belonging to the king in Aſia, Africa, or America, in other veſſels than ſuch only as belong to the people of England, Ireland, Wales, or town of Berwick upon Tweed, or are built in the Britiſh plantations, and owned by Britiſh ſubjects, and whereof the maſter and three-fourths of the mariners are Engliſh, on pain to loſe ſuch goods and veſſels; and commanders at ſea, having commiſſions from the king, are impowered and required to bring in, as prize, veſſels offending contrary to this act; and, in caſe of condemnation, one moiety ſhall be to the uſe of ſuch commanders and their companies, the other moiety to the king. And, by the ſame act, it is further enacted,

That no goods of foreign growth or manufacture, brought into England, Ireland, Wales, Guernſey, Jerſey, or Berwick, in Engliſh or other ſhipping, belonging to ſome of the ſaid places, and navigated as aforeſaid, ſhall be brought from other places than thoſe of the growth and manufacture, or from thoſe parts where they can only, or have uſually been ſhipped for tranſportation, on pain to forfeit ſuch goods and veſſels.

That, by another act of parliament, paſſed 15 Car. II. it is enacted, That no commodity of the growth or manufacture of Europe ſhall be imported into any of the king's plantations in Aſia, Africa, or America, but what ſhall have been ſhipped in England, Wales, or the town of Berwick, and in Engliſh-built ſhipping, navigated as aforeſaid, and carried directly thence to the ſaid plantations, upon pain of forfeiture of the goods and veſſels,.

In the making of theſe laws (always looked upon as the bulwark of the Engliſh commerce) Great-Britain had two vaſt objects in view, One, the increaſe of her naval power (by making her own people the ſole carriers of the whole Britiſh commerce:) the other, the appropriating and ſecuring to herſelf, and her own ſubjects, all the emoluments ariſing from the trade of her own colonies; well knowing the importance of theſe two great ſources of her wealth and power: and the nation has continued to enjoy the full fruits of theſe excellent proviſions, from the time of making theſe laws down to the peace of Utrecht.

Nor has this been the policy of Great-Britain only, but every other nation alſo ſees the advantages thereof, and think they have a right of preſerving the trade of their own colonies to themſelves. France, in particular, has been ſo watchful in this reſpect, that they ſeize every foreign veſſel (except thoſe concerned in the lumber-trade) coming within two leagues of their own ſhore; and ſeveral Britiſh veſſels have been confiſcated at Martinico, for approaching within that diſtance, looking on that as proof enough of an intention to trade, unleſs they, on the other hand, ſhewed that they were forced in by ſtreſs of weather.

But, ſoon after the peace of Utrecht, a pernicious commerce began to ſhew itſelf, between the Britiſh northern colonies and the French ſugar-colonies, which began with bartering the lumber of the former for French ſugar and melaſſes. The French, who before that time had no vent for their melaſſes, and could make no better uſe of it than to give it to their hogs and horſes, ſoon found the way (after they became acquainted with the northern traders) of diſtilling it into rum, which their new correſpondents were as ready to take off their hands, as they had before been to take their ſugar and melaſſes; and from hence they derived a new mine of profit, unknown to them before, and transferred to themſelves the benefit of a trade, which it was the chief deſign of theſe laws to preſerve to Great-Britain alone.

This being made appear to parliament, a further proviſion was made for putting a ſtop to this manifeſt ſubverſion of the fundamental maxims of the Britiſh policy, for preſerving her commercial intereſts, by an act in the 6th year of the reign of George II. intitled, An act for the better ſecuring and encouraging the trade of his majeſty's ſugar-colonies in America, whereby ſuch high duties were laid on all foreign ſugars, rum, and melaſſes, to be imported into any of his majeſty's colonies in America, as it was thought were equal to, and would anſwer all the ends of a prohibition.

But experience has ſhewn, that all theſe laws are too weak to anſwer the purpoſes for which they were deſigned, and that ſome more effectual remedies might be found to keep the Britiſh traders in North America within bounds, if Great-Britain reſolves to preſerve her right of controuling the trade of her own ſubjects in that part of the world, and turning it into ſuch channels only as her wiſdom ſhall direct, and think moſt conducive to the intereſts of the whole community: for it can be made appear, beyond contradiction, notwithſtanding all the laws which have hitherto been made,

I. That a ſettled courſe of traffick has been carried on for ſeveral years, by many of his majeſty's ſubjects in North America, to the ports of Marſeilles and Toulon, in which their ſhips have gone directly thither, laden with pitch, tar, train-oil, timber-trees, and planks, for building ſhips; ſpars, ſtaves, logwood, beaver, martins, deer, and elk-ſkins, furs, and naval ſtores; and have returned back again, without ever touching in Great-Britain, with goods of the growth and manufactures of France, and other foreign nations.

II. That they have carried on the like trade with Holland.

III. That, notwithſtanding the act made in the 6th year of his preſent majeſty's reign, the Britiſh northern colonies ſerve themſelves chiefly with foreign ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, without paying the duties impoſed by that act, and ſometimes import them in veſſels owned by foreigners; and that this trade is now carried to ſuch a height, that veſſels have been purchaſed for, and fixed in this commerce only, and conſtantly and regularly employed in trading backwards and forwards between the foreign ſugar-colonies and the Britiſh colonies in North America; and that, in order to facilitate it, they have ſettled correſpondents and factors in the French iſlands, and the French have done the like in our colonies in North America.

IV. That this trade is not only connived at, but cheriſhed and encouraged, by the foreigners with whom it is carried on, who well know how much it tends to inrich their own colonies, and impoveriſh ours.

Some of the many ILL CONSEQUENCES ariſing from this trade to GREAT-BRITAIN.

I. It will deeply affect the manufactures and products of Great-Britain, and in a much greater degree than is at preſent felt, if it be not timely ſtopped, cauſe a great declenſion in the trade of the kingdom, and not only deprive the nation of a profit to which they have a natural right, but many perſons now employed in theſe manufactures will be brought to want the means of ſubſiſtence.

II. The number of Engliſh ſhipping, and, conſequently, of ſailors, will decreaſe in proportion as this trade increaſes, which ſaps the very foundation of the naval power of the kingdom.—The deſign of the act 15 Car. II. forbidding the importation of any commodities or manufactures of Europe into the king's plantations in America, was intended to make a double voyage neceſſary, where theſe colonies uſed any commodities of the growth and manufactures of Europe, but Britiſh; for, if they could not be ſhipped but in Great-Britain, they muſt firſt be brought thither from the places of their growth or manufacture, and Great-Britain would conſequently have the benefit not only of that freight, but of as many

ſhips and ſailors as muſt be employed in bringing them from thence. But, if the northern colonies ſhould be allowed to carry them directly from the places where they grow or are manufactured, not only theſe benefits will be loſt to the nation, but likewiſe the profits ariſing to the importers, the duties retained by the crown, where the whole is not drawn-back, the warehouſe-rent, commiſſions, and many other incidental profits, not neceſſary to be enumerated.

III. If a ſtop is not put to the progreſs of this trade, it will leſſen the dependence of theſe colonies upon their mother-country, and, in time, produce ſuch connection of intereſts between them and foreigners; as will, by degrees, alienate them from Great-Britain.

Some of the many ILL CONSEQUENCES ariſing from this trade to the SUGAR-COLONIES.

I. It may be laid down as an undoubted truth, that, as the enlarging the vent of any commodity is one of the beſt means that can be uſed to encourage its growth, and the leſſening of it is the certain way to diſcourage it; and from thence it neceſſarily follows, that, as we have many rivals in this trade, nothing can be of more fatal conſequence to the Britiſh ſugar-colonies, than to ſuffer foreign ſugars to be conſumed in any of its own dominions; it being obvious, that this muſt check the growth of ſugar in our own iſlands, and increaſe it in theirs; and, therefore, would manifeſtly tend to the ſtrengthening their colonies, and weakening our own.

II. This trade, as carried on, raiſes the price of lumber to the Britiſh planters, and, as the northern traders often refuſe to take any thing from them but ready money, drains them ſo much of their gold and ſilver, that they are often brought into great diſtreſs for want of it.

III. All the money which theſe northern traders receive from the Britiſh planters, is carried to the foreign ſugar-colonies, and there laid out either in the purchaſe of foreign ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, or of foreign European and Eaſt-India commodities, which are carried to the Britiſh northern colonies, and there ſupply the place of Britiſh manufactures, and Britiſh ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, and, conſequently, rob the nation not only of the conſumption of ſo much of its own commodities, but of ſo much gold and ſilver too: whereas, if the foreign colonies (who cannot be ſupplied with lumber but from the Engliſh) were conſtrained to purchaſe it with ready money only, and not allowed to give their ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, in exchange for it, this would turn the tables upon them, and make the ballance of the lumber trade as much in our favour as it is now againſt us.

BENEFITS which GREAT-BRITAIN may derive to herſelf, and her SUGAR-COLONIES, by putting an effectual ſtop to this trade.

It is well known to every one concerned in the ſugar-trade, that the profits of the planter depend upon the vent which he finds for his rum and melaſſes; for, if ſugar only, and no rum or melaſſes, could be produced from the ſugar-cane, it would hardly pay the expence of the culture and making; conſequently, as the vent of rum and melaſſes is ſtopped or increaſed, the ſugar colonies (whether Engliſh or foreign) muſt reſpectively thrive or decline. And, as rum is not allowed to be imported into Old France, or any of its colonies (becauſe it inteferes with brandy, which is the product of the mother country) this evidently ſhews how much it is in the power of Great-Britain to check the progreſs of the French ſugar-iſlands and advance that of her own: for, if the bringing French rum and melaſſes into any of the Britiſh dominions were once effectually ſtopped, all the profits made by rum and melaſſes, in the French ſugar-colonies, would be loſt to them, as they could find no vent for it in any other part of the world. This point, therefore, ſtrictly attended and invariably adhered to, would, in its natural tendency, damp the growth of the ſugar in the French iſlands, and increaſe it in our own; and might, very probably, in the courſe of ſome years, be the means of enabling the Engliſh to beat them out of all the foreign markets in Europe, and confine them to their own conſumption.

It may not be improper to mention two things more, to ſhew that Great-Britain is now more concerned, than at any time heretofore, to give attention to the trade of her ſugar-colonies; becauſe the other trading nations in Europe ſeem now to be more intent than ever upon wreſting this trade out of her hands, and graſping it themſelves. Of theſe,

The firſt is, That the Danes have lately ſettled a ſugar colony at Santa Cruz, an iſland in the neighbourhood of the Britiſh Leeward Iſlands, and to which ſeveral of the Britiſh ſubjects in the Leeward Iſlands have lately gone to ſettle, upon the invitation and the encouragements offered them by the Danes. As the growth of ſugar will be conſiderably increaſed by this new ſettlement, the demand for a conſumption of Britiſh ſugars abroad, will in conſequence be leſſened; and there is therefore the greater neceſſity for obliging Britiſh ſubjects to conſume no ſugars but what are of Britiſh growth, leſt our own colonies ſhould not find a ſufficient vent for what they grow; for, if that ſhould ever be the caſe, they would ſoon dwindle to nothing.

The ſecond is, That all other nations, poſſeſſed of ſugar colonies, ſeem to be ſo ſenſible of the advantages ariſing from the ſugar-trade, that they are more intent than ever upon extending it, and uſe their utmoſt induſtry to introduce their own ſugars into Great-Britain; and it is but too notorious, that they have been ſo ſucceſsful as to find the way of corrupting the traders in our ſugar-colonies, and making them the inſtruments of introducing foreign ſugars, under the denomination and diſguiſe of Britiſh, into Great-Britain itſelf: from whence it is very apparent, that, without ſome vigorous efforts of parliament, a great part of that wealth, which Britain might and ought to derive to herſelf from the trade of her own colonies, will be raviſhed from her by the intrigues of foreigners, and the treachery of her own ſubjects.

It is humbly ſubmitted to the conſideration of parliament, Whether this ſmuggling trade (as the Weſt-India merchants are pleaſed to call it) ſo apparently deſtructive of the national intereſts of this kingdom, ought not to be ſtopped without delay, and the importation of foreign ſugar, rum, and melaſſes, into any of the Britiſh colonies in North America, PROHIBITED UNDER SUCH PENALTIES, AND WITH SUCH ENCOURAGEMENTS TO SEIZE AND INFORM, AS MAY BE ADEQUATE TO THE DISEASE, AND EFFECTUALLY CURB THIS LICENTIOUS COMMERCE.

In oppoſition to this, it was urged in favour of the northern colonies, That the trade carried on by them with the French and Dutch Weſt-India ſettlements, inſtead of being prejudicial to the intereſt of Great-Britain, the taking off the duties already laid thereon, would tend greatly to her advantage, by promoting the exports of her manufactures to the northern colonies; which, in conſequence of a prohibition, muſt ſenſibly decreaſe.—That, when the honourable the lords commiſſioners of trade, according to the advocates for the northern colonies, examined the evidences brought, reſpecting the quantity of melaſſes made in the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands, it appeared, all of them, together, did not export 12,000 hogſheads, and that they never had any left on their hands.—That a veſſel or two only went to Holland from the northern colonies, whoſe whole cargoes did not amount to a 1000l. each; and that 2 or 3 others, in the late war, that is of 1746, went as flags of truce to the French iſlands, under cover of which, they purchaſed a cargo of melaſſes for fiſh.—That now and then a veſſel from the northern colonies traded with the Britiſh iſland colonies, the maſters of which would not take rum, ſugar, or melaſſes, for their cargoes, but inſiſted on caſh, with which they would buy theſe commodities in the French ſugar-iſlands.—The true reaſon whereof, as acknowledged, was, becauſe thoſe perſons could go to theſe foreign iſlands, and purchaſe the ſame articles 10 or 15 per cent. cheaper; or, perhaps, to the next foreign iſland, and get them a third part cheaper, and not becauſe they did not want thoſe articles.—Then ſay our northern colonies again, that, within theſe 15 years, the Weſt-India planters have given above double the price for lumber that they do now, and yet ſold their rum and melaſſes for leſs than half what they get for it now; and that, at this preſent day, they do not give the northern colony people the firſt coſt for what they buy of them.

It was ſaid alſo, before the lords of trade, that the northern colony people ſent their veſſels to theſe foreign iſlands, under pretence of getting melaſſes, and there purchaſed Eaſt-India goods, &c. The place meant here was St Euſtatia, one of the leaſt of the Caribbee Iſlands in America, belonging to the Dutch.—To this it was anſwered, that the Weſt-India traders well know this not to be currently the caſe; for that there is not one veſſel in ten that goes from the northern colonies to the Britiſh iſland colonies in America, whoſe cargoes, neat, are ſufficient to purchaſe even a load of melaſſes, of the value of 4 or 500l. and not one out of twenty that ever purchaſes a pennyworth of dry goods; but if, by accident, a maſter of a veſſel has 40 or 50l. more than he can lay out in melaſſes, and ſhould purchaſe a few pieces of duck, or quoils of rigging, which is the moſt they do, what mighty ſmuggling is that? Yet, where one perſon lays out ſuch a ſum in dry goods, there are ten who carry home the produce of their cargoes in ſilver and gold.—And that they ſometimes cannot get rum, ſugar, and melaſſes, was allowed, it ſeems, before their lordſhips.

Much of the ſame nature with the above-mentioned trade is, that the northern colonies are ſaid to carry on to Marſeilles and Toulon; and that ten ſail of veſſels from theſe colonies had not been at either of theſe places for theſe ten years paſt; and when, by accident at any time, a veſſel was ſent with ſuch a cargo, as mentioned, of oil, pitch, tar, furs, timber, logwood, ſpars, oak, &c. yet the whole quantity, together, ſcarce ever produced 500l. out of which the charges of the veſſel was to be paid, and a load of ſalt to be purchaſed in the firſt place, and no great quantity of velvets, ſilks, gold and ſilver-lace, &c. could be purchaſed with the remainder of her cargo.—It may probably have happened, that

the maſters of ſome ſuch veſſels may have ſometimes, with their own private adventure, of the value, perhaps, of 40 or 50 l. purchaſed a piece of velvet, with the pattern of ſilk for a gown, and ſeveral of theſe ſmall articles enumerated by the Weſt-India traders, for ſome friend or other; and this is pretty near the extent of the mighty ſmuggling trade carried on from the northern colonies to Marſeilles and Toulon.

After this the northern colony agents retaliate upon the Weſt-India traders, and charge them with aiming at engroſſing the whole of the French trade by ſmuggling; for that they at preſent have a good ſhare thereof, by their own confeſſion; that great quantities of foreign ſugars are cleared out from the Engliſh iſlands as Britiſh manufactures, but that no ſuch ſugars are ever ſhipped in the northern colony veſſels, is a fact not to be gainſaid.

After a little flouriſh and aſperity againſt the Weſt-India traders, all which I paſs over, the advocates for the northern colonies reduce the matter to the following heads of enquiry, in juſtification of their cauſe. As,

Firſt, What ſort of manufactures, and what value, are exported from Great-Britain to the Britiſh ſugar iſlands, in proportion to what ſhe exports to the northern colonies?

Secondly, What returns does Great-Britain receive in lieu of what ſhe exports to the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands, and what becomes of theſe returns?

Thirdly, What ſort of manufactures, and what value, does Great-Britain export to the northern colonies, in proportion to what ſhe exports to the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands?

Fourthly, What returns does Great-Britain receive in lieu thereof, and what becomes of them?

Fifthly, How does the trade, carried on from the northern colonies to the French and Dutch Weſt-India ſettlements, affect Great-Britain?

Sixthly, What end will a prohibition of this trade carried on from the northern colonies to the French and Dutch ſettlements ſerve, and how will it affect Great-Britain?

Seventhly, What end will the taking off the duties already laid on this trade carried on from the northern colonies ſerve, and how would it affect Great-Britain?

Laſtly, Would the preventing the northern colonies from carrying on this trade to the French and Dutch Weſt-India ſettlements be of any real diſadvantage to their ſugar-trade, and could the French ſupply themſelves with fiſh and lumber without the aſſiſtance of the northern colonies?

In anſwer to the firſt of theſe enquiries it was ſaid, that at leaſt two-thirds of the manufactures, exported from Great-Britain to the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands, are what ſhe imports from foreigners; and that the whole, put together, does not amount to one half the value ſhe exports to the northern colonies.

To the ſecond it was ſaid, that they are chiefly ſugars, and the price of them ſo high, that none of them can be exported, but are all conſumed by herſelf.

To the third, that three quarter parts of the manufactures Great-Britain exports to the northern colonies are of her make, and that ſhe exports to thoſe colonies above double the value that ſhe does to the ſugar-iſlands.

Fourthly, it was anſwered, caſh, and bills of exchange, for almoſt all the fiſh exported to Spain and Portugal; together with naval ſtores, logwood, furs, &c. a conſiderable part of which Great-Britain exports again to her advantage.

Fifthly, inaſmuch as it ſerves to encourage the northern colonies in catching of fiſh, making oil, and cutting of lumber, &c. this ſupplies them, in a great meaſure, with returns to Great-Britain for her manufactures; for want of which, thoſe colonies could not take off near the quantity they now do, as they have no other way of paying for them; conſequently, if a ſtop ſhould be put to that trade of theirs with the French and Dutch Weſt-India ſettlements, they would be neceſſitated to SET UP THE MANUFACTORIES OF GREAT-BRITAIN AMONG THEMSELVES, TO HER VERY GREAT DETRIMENT.

Sixthly, only to encourage the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands, in diſtilling up all the coarſe ſugars they now ſend to Great-Britain into rum, which they will diſpoſe of to the northern colonies on their own terms; by which means, not above two thirds of the rum and ſugar will come to Great-Britain that now does; conſequently the price of what does come, will be proportionably inhanced.

Seventhly, this would give the northern colonies further encouragement to out-rival the French in the fiſh trade (eſpecially in the Weſt-Indies) and enable them to make larger remittances for the manufactures of Great-Britain, and thereby increaſe her trade.

Laſtly, it is a certain fact, ſay the northern colony advocates, that the French, in the Weſt-Indies, ſell their ſugars from 40 to 50 per cent. cheaper than the Engliſh do; therefore, if they had no vent for their melaſſes, but were obliged to throw it away, as the Weſt-India gentlemen pretend they would; although it was roundly aſſerted, that a great number of French veſſels GO YEARLY TO CANADA, WHOLLY LOADED WITH RUM, WHICH IS MADE OUT OF IT (for the northern colonies ſeldom or ever take any of their rum or ſugar) yet, as it produces them ſuch a trifle, they ſelling it for one third the price that it is ſold for in the Britiſh iſlands, the addition of 2 or 3 per cent. on their ſugars at the foreign markets (where they are not in any danger of being rivalled by the Engliſh, as it is not in our power ever to raiſe the quantities of ſugar the French do *) would fully make up for it; beſides, there needs no ſtronger argument to prove, that the French do not look upon the trade from the northern colonies as beneficial to them (notwithſtanding the Weſt-India gentlemen affirm, that the French do all in their power to encourage it) than their prohibiting it under the ſevereſt penalties †.

* This is a melancholy conſideration, and well deſerves conſideration to improve our ſugar-colonies to the utmoſt.

† This, we are afraid, is fallacious; for ſo rigorous are the laws of France in relation thereunto, that it would be impoſſible for a Britiſh ſhip to carry on any trade with them, WITHOUT THEIR OFFICERS HAVING ORDERS TO CONNIVE AT IT; and this they would not have done, without they were convinced of its being beneficial to them; and its being ſo likewiſe to our northern colonies, is their motive for carrying on trade with them; but, if our own northern and iſland colonies could reap the like mutual advantages by trade, it would be more eligible; AND THIS OUGHT TO BE THE STUDY OF THE NATION THAT THEY MIGHT.

With reſpect to the French being able to ſupply themſelves with lumber, it is beyond diſpute, ſay the advocates for the northern colonies, that they may (fiſh no body can deny but that they catch them at a cheaper rate than the Engliſh do) and the quantities of lumber they take from the Engliſh are trifling, as one of the Weſt-India gentlemen is ſaid to have declared before the lords of trade, they having the ſame ſorts of trees grow both in CANADA AND MISSISSIPPI, that do in the northern colonies; and the only reaſon they do not cut them, is on account of the navigation's being ſomething more difficult; which would, perhaps, make the lumber turn out at a higher price than they give the Engliſh; but, ſuppoſe the French planters were obliged to give double the price for it to what they do at preſent to the Engliſh, yet it would be giving it to their own people, and the addition of 2 or 3 per cent. more on their ſugars would make up for it; mill-timber, ſtaves, and heading, are the natural growth of Hiſpaniola, where they always uſe them; at Martinico, the moſt of the ſtaves and hoops they uſe there, are brought from Old France.

REMARKS on theſe different repreſentations, as ſtated before the laſt war.

The reaſons that induced me to introduce the heads of this debate are, (1.) To ſhew, that it is allowed on all hands, that the French ſugar-colonies are in a very flouriſhing condition, and have ſupplanted the Britiſh in that great article of traffic, at moſt of the foreign markets of Europe, to the very great and extraordinary advantage of the kingdom of France, and the proportionable detriment of Great-Britain. (2.) That theſe effects have been apparently owing to the exquiſite laws of France, for the regulation of the trade of their iſlands and colonies in America; and to that in particular among the reſt, which lays ſuch ſevere pains and penalties upon their own ſubjects, as well as thoſe of other nations, who carry on FOREIGN OR CONTRABAND COMMERCE WITH THE SAID ISLANDS. (3.) That the remarkable rigour of the French, in regard to this matter, ſhould ſeem to argue ſtrongly, that they would by no means ſuffer the Britiſh northern colonies to carry on trade with their ſugar-iſlands, if it was not to the advantage of theſe iſlands. (4.) That this, if true, therefore, muſt tend ſtill more and more to the benefit and ſplendor of the French colonies and kingdom. (5.) That, from the different and repugnant ſtates of the foregoing queſtion, by the parties therein intereſted, it muſt convince every one, how difficult it is for the Britiſh legiſlature to be rightly informed of the true ſtate of any branch of trade, when it ſhall come under the ſolemn conſideration of that auguſt aſſembly. (6.) That, to prevent any impoſitions of this nature, which may be attended with very injurious conſequences to the intereſts of the kingdom, it ſeems indiſpenſably neceſſary, that more effectual meaſures ſhould be taken, than hitherto ever have been in this nation, to prevent any miſrepreſentations of the ſtate and circumſtances of any branch of commerce; to the end that the repreſentative wiſdom of the nation ſhould not be miſled in their councils upon theſe occaſions. (7.) To which purpoſe we would, with all humility and deference, ſuggeſt, that nothing appears more naturally conducive hereto, than the authoritative eſtabliſhment of a ſpecial council of commerce, to conſiſt of experienced merchants, or ſuch who have been long engaged in the concerns of trade and colonies, and who ARE ABSOLUTELY DISENGAGED FROM THE PRACTICE OF TRADE, AND HAVE NO VISIBLE INTEREST IN DECEIVING THE LEGISLATURE IN WHATEVER THEY SHALL LAY BEFORE THEM. (8.) That ſuch members be properly elected by the principal trading cities and towns of Great-Britain and Ireland, together with deputies from our colonies in America, the intereſt of thoſe colonies being intimately interwoven with that of England;

England; and that ſuch a council be authorized and injoined to ſit at leaſt once in every week in London throughout the year, in order to receive, examine, and diſcuſs, all propoſitions and memorials relating to the colonies, and all branches of commerce and manufactures that ſhall be tranſmitted to them, and to conſider of adequate encouragements to ſuch who ſhall communicate any thing importantly uſeful to our trade and navigation. (10.) That the ſaid council of commerce ſhall be authorized to correſpond with all the conſuls, reſidents, and Britiſh factories in foreign countries, for due information into whatever may be requiſite in regard to trade, for them occaſionally to lay before his majeſty in council, to be referred to the lords of trade and plantations, in order finally to be laid before the parliament, when they ſhall require it.—And that the information, ſo collected by the council of commerce, ſhall be properly regiſtered, and ſo alphabeticated, that immediate reference may be had thereto on all emergencies. (11.) That the reports of ſuch a council of trade, from time to time, being made to his majeſty in council, and referred to the lords commiſſioners for trade and plantations in the uſual courſe: the parliament will, with far more eaſe, and leſs liability of deceit and impoſition, have the true and genuine ſtate of all branches of trade laid before them: nor ſhould any thing of this nature be laid before the parliament, but what had been previouſly examined, diſcuſſed, and reported, both by the lords of trade, and by this ſubordinate council.—Theſe proceedings would effectually lead to the diſcovery of truth, carry more weight, and be received with more attention by parliament, we humbly conceive, than the applications of any private man, or any particular ſet of men, as is done in the uſual manner; which are too frequently, I am afraid, attended with tedious delays, and ſuch artful oppoſitions, which not only give the legiſlature great fatigue, but often tend to miſguide, perplex, and confound them, in their deliberations.

Had theſe meaſures been effectually taken, and not made a matter of ſuperficial form only, we ſhould always have been properly apprized of whatever was doing, in regard to trade and navigation in foreign countries, and the intereſting advancements which they were therein making to the detriment of Great-Britain. By this means we ſhould have been able ſo to have promoted the proſperity of our own ſugar-colonies, that it would never have been in the power of the French to have raiſed theirs upon the deſtruction of ours, to their unſpeakable benefit, and our no leſs loſs and injury; for, as we had the ſtart of them ſo many years, we might eaſily have maintained our ground, and not have ſuffered them to have ſupplanted us at foreign markets as they have done, if our parliament had been rightly informed, from time to time, of the progreſs which they were making.—But 'tis the conſtant policy of that nation, as I have ſhewn in many inſtances, and ſhall ſhew in many more, to ſecrete, as much as poſſible, the progreſs of their trade; and, with reſpect to that of their ſugar-colonies, nothing ſhews it more conſpicuouſly, than their not ſuffering any foreigners in their iſlands to carry on trade, or even to act there in the capacity of a merchant's book-keeper, as we have ſeen by their royal arrets, edicts, and ordonnances, which were never made public in this kingdom till now.

Before we take leave of this article of FRENCH AMERICA, on which we have enlarged longer than ordinary, becauſe it ſo importantly concerns the trading intereſt of theſe kingdoms, and becauſe we look upon ſuch like capital articles as the ſtamina of our whole work; it may be neceſſary to refer the reader to what is ſaid upon this ſubject under other heads; for we do not confine ourſelves to the conſideration of eſſential ſubjects in one light only, that being to take a very ſuperficial and imperfect view of them. If the reader, therefore, will be pleaſed to conjoin what we have here ſaid, with what we have done alſo, under the articles of BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, COLONIES, and FLORIDA, and what we ſhall further urge under the article of PLANTATIONS, and divers others to which we have referred, and ſhall refer, he will be enabled to make a pretty good comparative judgment, perhaps, of the ſtate of the BRITISH and FRENCH TRADING INTERESTS in America: he will be enabled to diſcern, that, if the French carry the further great points which they at preſent aim at, in NORTH AMERICA and in the WEST-INDIES, the BALANCE of TRADE in AMERICA muſt paſs into French hands; and who will then hold the balance of trade in EUROPE, ASIA, and AFRICA, no one need be told. For the further increaſing trade and power of France, ſee alſo the articles FLANDERS, FRANCE, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE, FISHERIES, SEAMEN, MARITIME POWER.

REMARKS on this article FRENCH AMERICA, ſince the laſt war, and the Definitive Treaty of Peace of 1763.

The preceding obſervations made on this article before the laſt war, and ſoon after the peace of AIX LA CHAPELLE, ſhew the reaſons, amongſt numerous others, throughout this work, why we had cauſe to dread the riſing and formidable power of France in America; and that the fulneſs of time was come, that Great-Britain ſhould exert herſelf to the utmoſt, in order effectually to ſtop the career of our great competitors in the commerce of that part of the world; and this article, together with various other parts of our performance, will ſtand remaining monuments, ſhewing the neceſſity of the laſt war; and therefore we judge it proper to continue unaltered.

Whether the Definitive Treaty of 1763, has given ſuch a check to the power of France in America, as we could have deſired and expected, the reader will be able to judge by conſulting our article AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, CANADA, LOUISIANA, MISSISSIPPI, FLORIDA, BAHAMA ISLANDS, NEWFOUNDLAND, LEEWARD ISLANDS, INDIAN AFFAIRS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Certain it is, that the ceſſions made to Great-Britain of the French territories in North America, has at once annihilated all their foregoing laws, and royal edicts relative to their commercial intercourſe between their northern colonies and the French iſland.—They have likewiſe put an end to their long meditated enterprizes againſt the Britiſh colonies upon the Continent.—By our poſſeſſion of CANADA, and all its dependencies, eſpecially that of CAPE BRETON; and leaving the French no other territories in this part of America, than the ſmall iſlands of St Pierre and Miquelons for a ſhelter to their fiſhermen at Newfoundland, and theſe upon expreſs condition never to be fortified, nor have more than 50 men there for the police, ſhould ſeem to promiſe fair to keep that turbulent nation in awe for the future in theſe parts, leſt the government of England ſhould at length be compelled to deprive them of all ſhare in the Newfoundland fiſheries; in doing which, there does not appear any great difficulty at preſent, ſhould that nation attempt a freſh rupture with the crown of Great-Britain: and what would, in ſuch a caſe, be the fate again of their ſugar-iſlands, is eaſy to prejudge.

FULLER, a workman employed in the woollen manufactories, to mill, or ſcour, cloths, ſerges, and other ſtuffs, in order to render them more thick, compact, and durable.

Fullers, in conformity to the regulations of the manufactures in France, are obliged to mark their ſtuffs with a particular lead after fulling.—They are forbid, by the ſame regulations, to draw out or tenter-ſtretch their manufactures, that they may be made greater in length and narrower in breath, &c.

FULLERS-EARTH, a fat foſſil earth, abounding with a nitrous quality, ſerving to ſcour cloths, ſtuffs, &c. and imbibing all the greaſe and oil uſed in the preparing, dreſſing, &c. of the wool.

An account of fullers-earth in Bedfordſhire, as given by the Rev. Mr Hollaway, F. R. S. No. 379.

I went, ſays this obſerver of nature, to the fullers-earth pits at Wavendon near Wooburn, where there are ſeveral pits now open; but, as men were then at work only in one, and I underſtood the earth was diſpoſed in much the ſame manner in all, I did not trouble myſelf to go down into more than that wherein they were then digging, in which I found things diſpoſed thus:

From the ſurface, for about ſix yards depth, there are ſeveral layers of ſand, all reddiſh, but ſome lighter-coloured than others, under which there is a thin ſtratum of red ſand-ſtone which they break through; and then, for the depth of about ſeven or eight yards more, you have ſand again; and after that come to the fullers earth; the upper layer of which, being about a foot deep, they call the cledge; and this is by the diggers thrown by as uſeleſs, by reaſon of its too great mixture with the neighbouring ſand, which covers, and has inſinuated itſelf among it: after which they dig up earth for uſe, to the depth of about 8 feet more, the matter whereof is diſtinguiſhed into ſeveral layers, there being commonly about a foot and a half between one horizontal fiſſure and another.

Of theſe layers of fuller's-earth, the upper half, where the earth breaks itſelf, is tinged red, as it ſeems by the running of water from the ſandy ſtrata above, and this part they call the crop; betwixt which and the cledge above-mentioned, is a thin layer of matter not an inch in depth, in taſte, colour, and conſiſtency, not unlike to terra Japonica. The lower half of the layers of fuller's-earth, they call the wall-earth; this is untinged with that red above-mentioned, and ſeems to be the more pure and fitter for fulling; and underneath all is a ſtratum of white rough ſtone, of about two feet thick, which, if they dig through, as they very ſeldom do, they find ſand again, and then is an end of their works.

One thing is obſervable in the ſite of this earth, which is, that it ſeems to have every-where a pretty equal horizontal level; becauſe they ſay, when the ſand-ridges at the ſurface are higher, the fuller's-earth lies proportionably deeper.

In theſe works they ſeldom undermine the ground, but, as they dig away the earth below, others are employed to dig and carry off the ſurface, otherwiſe the matter above, being of ſo light and flitting a nature, would fall in and endanger the workmen: for, as was obſerved before, the ſtratum of ſand-ſtone, which occurs before they come to the fuller's-

earth,

earth, does not lie, as in coal-pits, immediately over the matter they dig for, like a cieling, but even in the midſt of the ſuperjacent ſtrata of ſand, and therefore can be no ſecurity to them, if they undermine.

The perpendicular fiſſures are frequent, and the earth in the ſtrata, beſides its apparent diſtinction into layers, like all other kinds of matter, by reaſon of its peculiar unctuouſneſs, or the running of the adjacent ſand imperceptibly among it, breaks itſelf into pieces of all angles and ſizes.

For the geographical ſituation of theſe pits, they are digged in that ridge of ſand-hills by Wooburn, which near Oxford is called Shotover, on which lies Newmarket-heath by Cambridge, and which extends itſelf from eaſt to weſt everywhere, at about the diſtance of eight or ten miles from the Chiltern-hills, which in Cambridgeſhire are called Gog-Magog; in Bucks and Oxon, the Chiltern-hills, from the chalky matter, of which they chiefly conſiſt: which two ridges you always paſs, in going from London into the north, north-eaſt, or north-weſt countries in the manner I before-mentioned: after which you come into that vaſt vale, which makes the greater part of the midland counties of Cambridge, Bedford, Bucks, Northampton, Oxford, and Glouceſter; in which are the rivers Cam, Ouſe, Nen, Avon, Iſis, and others; which I take notice of, becauſe it confirms what you ſay of the regular diſpoſition of the earth into like ſtrata, or layers of matter, commonly through vaſt tracts, and from whence I make a queſtion, whether fuller's earth may not probably be found in other parts of the ſame ridge of ſand-hills, among other like matter.

By 9 and 10 Will. III. it ſhall not be exported under the penalty of 1 s. for every pound weight, yet there are ſeveral ſpecies of earths in foreign countries, which we make no doubt but would ſerve for the ſame purpoſes that fullers-earth does in England.

Remarks.

Soap-earth, or a fullers earth, if you pleaſe, is found in two places near Duraclea, a large open village about ſix leagues to the eaſtward of Smyrna; and in a very flat plain, about a league weſt-ward of the river Hermus, and ſeveral leagues from the ſea. 'Tis a fine ſoap, and at the firſt gathering whitiſh earth, which boileth or ſhooteth up out of the earth. 'Tis gathered always before ſun-riſe, and in mornings where there falls no dew, ſo that a ſtock muſt be laid up for the whole year in the ſummer months. It comes up in ſome places an inch or two above the ſurface of the ground. But the ſun, riſing upon it, makes it fall down again. Every morning there is a new crop, though all be taken away which the preceding day afforded. The earth producing it lies low in both places, and is in the winter waſhy; 'tis covered, though but thinly, with graſs.

Three hundred drachms of this earth put into a retort in balneo arenæ for 12 hours, cum igne violento, gave between five and ſix ounces of an inſipid phlegma, the ſmell only ſuch as proceeds in the like operations from the fire.

Finding therefore no volatile ſalt, as what muſt have come over by the foregoing experiment, 200 drachms calcined at a bagnio fire, in a German crucible, were diſſolved in water. The compoſition of earth and water, boiled into a lixivium, made 500 drachms.

It was boiled for three hours, ſtill ſcumming off the froth, then filtrated, after evaporated over a gentle fire; it was kept to cryſtallize, and appeared of a fixed ſalt.

At the ſoap-houſes they mix ¾ of earth with ¼ of lime, and diſſolve the compoſition in boiling water; where, ſtirring it often with a ſtick, there floats a-top a thick browniſh ſubſtance; which ſcumming off, they preſerve in baſons apart, and this ſcum is much richer than the liquor underneath, yet both are uſed in making the ſoap. Into a large copper caldron they put 50 quintals of oil, applying a very hot fire, which burns continually until the ſoap is made. When the oil has boiled, they begin to throw in of the ſcum, and ſometimes of the liquor from which the ſcum was taken. They often repeat this throwing in of the ſcum and liquor for 13 or 14 days, in which time the ſoap is uſually perfected. The browniſh ſcum, and what is uſeful of the liquor, incorporating with the oil, what is uſeleſs ſinks to the bottom of the caldron, where it is let out, to make room for throwing in more. The water, thus let out, is again thrown upon a new compoſition of earth and lime; but, when the liquor becomes wholly inſipid, it is then judged to be exhauſted. After 13 or 14 days, when the ſoap is finiſhed, it is laded out of the boiler, and laid upon a lime-floor to dry.

They proportion two loads of earth, of five quintals each, to 50 quintals of oil, the produce is between 70 and 80 quintals of ſoap.

The earth is bought at a dollar a load, and the ſoap, when this account was made, at 6¾ a quintal. There are employed, in making ſoap yearly at Smyrna, 1000 quintals of oil.

Bringing ſoap-earth employs 1000 or 1500 camels daily, for eight months, the four ſummer months being too hot for camels to travel.

An ordinary ſoap-houſe produces 1000 dollars a year clear profit, communibus annis.

FULLING, the workmanſhip of ſcouring and preſſing cloths, ſtuffs, and ſtockings, &c. to render them more firm and ſtrong. It is performed by a water mill, which, except in what relates to the mill-ſtones and copper, is much like a corn-mill; and there are mills in France, according to Savary, that ſerve indifferently for either uſe, corn being ground, and cloths fulled by the ſame; and the like is done in England.

The principal parts of the fulling-mill are, the wheel, with its trundle, which gives motion to the tree, or ſpindle, whoſe teeth communicate it to the peſtles, or ſtampers, which are hereby raiſed and fallen alternately, according as its teeth catch on, or quit a kind of latch, in the middle of each peſtle. The peſtles and troughs are of wood, each having two or three peſtles, according to the force of the water.

In theſe troughs the cloth, ſtuffs, &c. are laid, which are intended to be fulled: after which, letting the current of water fall on the wheel, the peſtles are ſucceſſively let fall thereon, and, by their weight, preſs the ſtuffs very powerfully; which, by this means, become condenſed and thickened.

In this operation they uſe fullers earth, with ſome proportion of ſoap: proper ſoap alone would do much better, was it not dearer than fullers-earth.

Monſieur Colmet's method of fulling with ſoap, grounded on experiments made by order of the marquis de Louvois, then ſuperintendent of the arts and manufactures of France.

Of fulling cloths and woollen ſtuffs with ſoap.

Let a coloured cloth, of about 45 ells, be laid in the uſual manner, in the trough of a fulling-mill, without firſt ſoaking it in water, as commonly practiſed in moſt places.—To full this trough of cloth, 15 pounds of ſoap are required, one half of which is to be melted in two pails of river or ſpring-water, made as hot as the hand can bear. Let this ſolution be poured, by little and little, upon the cloth, in proportion as it is laid in the trough: thus it is to be fulled for at leaſt two hours; after which, let it be taken out and ſtretched.—This done, let the cloth be immediately returned into the ſame trough, without freſh ſoap, and there fulled two hours more. Then take it out, wring it well, and expreſs all the greaſe and filth.—After the ſecond fulling, diſſolve the remainder of the ſoap, as the former part, and throw it at four ſeveral times on the cloth, not forgetting to take it out every two hours, to undo the plaits and wrinkles it got in the trough.—When it is ſufficiently fulled, and brought to the requiſite quality and thickneſs, it is ſcoured out for good in hot water, keeping it in the trough till it be thoroughly clean.—White cloths fulling more eaſily than coloured ones, a third part of the ſoap may be ſpared.

Fulling of caps, ſtockings, &c. is performed either with the hands or feet, or a kind of wooden machine, either armed with wooden teeth, or thoſe of horſes or bullocks.—The ingredients generally uſed on this occaſion are urine, green ſoap, white ſoap, and fuller's-earth.—But a water ſoftened with chalk is far preferable.

FUNDS. This is a term adopted by the monied men, and thoſe who ſpeak of the public revenue of nations, to ſignify the ſeveral taxes that have been laid upon merchandizes, either by way of duties of cuſtom or exciſe, or in any other ſhape, to ſupply the exigencies of the ſtate, and to pay intereſt for what ſums of money it may have occaſion to borrow. Thus we ſay, Such a duty, or ſuch a tax, is a good fund to anſwer ſuch a purpoſe. The term is alſo applied to the ſtocks of great trading and monied corporations.

The funds, or taxes if you pleaſe, of this kingdom, are, to ſpeak in the language of parliament, either temporary or perpetual. Temporary ones are ſuch which are impoſed for a certain number of years, or annually, as the land and the malt-taxes; the perpetual funds are ſuch whereon monies have been borrowed for the public ſervice, and which are appropriated for the ſecure and certain payment of the intereſt of ſuch monies, till the diſcharge of the principal ſo borrowed.

Remarks.

The following ſtands as this article did before the laſt war, and the additional NATIONAL DEBTS and TAXES, we have accumulated ſince.

It is not within my intention to enter further into the cauſes of our various funds than to obſerve, that the three great wars in the reigns of king William, queen Anne, and his preſent majeſty, have given being and exiſtence to them: the more immediate concern of the nation is, what meaſures are eligible to get rid of theſe tax-funds?

The previous queſtion, indeed, with ſome is, whether it is needful at all for the ſtate to concern itſelf with the payment of its debts, and the annihilation of taxes in conſequence thereof?

thereof? Much pains have been employed by ſome, and very new doctrines deviſed, to render a great national debt leſs formidable than it really is in the general opinions of men. This may be pretty amuſement enough for ſtock-mongers and uſurers, over their cups, but a pernicious doctrine to be eſpouſed and propagated by the SAGE STATESMAN: and yet, I am ſorry to ſay, theſe things have been. I have now ſeveral papers before me, calculated for that purpoſe; two of which, in particular, I would only take notice of at preſent: the one called, A Defence of ſeveral Propoſals for raiſing three Millions, &c. for the year 1746, with a Poſtſcript, containing ſome notions relating to Public Credit; and a name prefixed to it, of great authority in mercantile and monied matters.—The other, An eſſay on Public Credit, by an anonymous author, publiſhed in 1748, occaſioned by the fall of ſtocks.

Before we remark any thing upon theſe pamphlets, it may not be uſeleſs to obſerve, that whatever is publiſhed in print upon TEMPORARY OCCASIONS, is too generally calculated to anſwer TEMPORARY PURPOSES ONLY; and, in theſe altercations, if the reader has judgment to diſcern and diſtinguiſh the ſolid and eſſential matter from that which is either of a perſonal or party complexion, or propagated to anſwer the turn of the day, much uſeful knowledge may be collected, that may be ever pertinently applied to the national intereſts. But the great difficulty, in the maze of controverſy of any kind, is to be able to ſeparate the good from the impertinent matter; the one leading to error and fallacy, the other to truth.

Whenever, therefore, we make uſe of any author, we endeavour, to the beſt of our ability, to collect ſuch principles and ſentiments as are national, and to apply them to national purpoſes only, we having no turn to ſerve but that of the PUBLIC INTERESTS. With this view we ſhall extract ſuch matter from the beforementioned pamphlets as we apprehend may be uſeful to ſhew the neceſſity of diſcharging our DEBTS AND TAXES, and on ſome other occaſions; for, if people are not convinced of the neceſſity thereof, it is fruitleſs to point out ways and means to effectuate it.

The laſt of the two writers, not contented with aſſerting, 'That, if 60 millions of our debt be the property of the people of Great-Britain, we are not the richer nor the poorer for that part of the debt, proceeds to affirm, That it is to the NATIONAL DEBT WE OWE OUR PUCLIC CREDIT; and that, if it were poſſible honeſtly to diſcharge the whole national debt, which would thereby annihilate the whole PUBLIC CREDIT, ſuch loſſes and inconveniencies would ariſe, from the loſs of it, to trade and commerce, as would GREATLY DIMINISH THE TRADE OF OUR COUNTRY.

And, what confirms him in this opinion is, that, notwithſtanding we have been engaged in two long and expenſive wars, ſince the commencement of the public debts, he verily believes that more riches have been accumulated to Great-Britain than any two centuries can boaſt of before that time.'

To which it was nationally replied, we apprehend, by another very judicious and anonymous reaſoner, in a tract intitled, Conſiderations upon a Reduction of the Land-Tax, in the year 1749,—'And no wonder, ſays he, it ſhould be ſo, in 'this author's hypotheſis; ſince according to his reaſoning, 'WAR AND EXPENCE ARE BLESSINGS, AS THEY ARE 'THE SOURCES OF DEBT: AN ENORMOUS DEBT IS A 'BLESSING, AS IT IS THE FOUNTAIN OF PUBLIC CREDIT; 'AND TAXES BRING NO DETRIMENT TO TRADE.'

The author of the Defence of the ſeveral Propoſals, &c. does not barefacedly go ſo far as the laſt mentioned. However, in his Poſtſcript, p. 63. 'He conceives, that the prices of funds do not in the leaſt depend upon the quantity of them, either taken in the groſs, or any particular ſort of them: that, if they were DOUBLE to what they are now, it would not neceſſarily follow that the prices would be lower; nor yet, if they conſiſted but of half what they do now, would the price be from thence increaſed.'

The high character of this author (the honourable and judicious Sir John Barnard, Knt.) acquired by many eſſential ſervices to his country, which I ſhall ſhew in its place, will excuſe our endeavours to confute him; ſince it becomes neceſſary to oppoſe his own words to his authority, which with multitudes, would have greater weight than the moſt ſubſtantial reaſons from any other.

However uſeful his doctrine might have been, when the exigencies of the times obliged the public to increaſe its debt, yet, the neceſſity of borrowing having now ceaſed, it becomes expedient to diſcover the errors of a doctrine, which, through inferences to be drawn from it, may tend to double our national incumbrances *. For,

* It is to be feared that the propagation of ſuch wrong principles as theſe are, have been the cauſe, why our rulers have never exerted them to raiſe the SUPPLIES, within the years, which would have prevented the INCREASE of our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES, to that enormous and dangerous ſize they have ariſen.

If a greater or leſs quantity of ſubſiſting funds be quite indifferent as to the raiſing or falling of their value, more remote conſequences will the eaſier give way to any new ſcheme of expence. Nor in this author's opinion are the moſt diſtant evils to be apprehended, even from an increaſe of our debt beyond what it now is: for 'It is the quantity, ſays he, brought to market, compared with the purchaſers, which riſes or falls the prices of funds.' And, p. 69, 'When funds 'are ſold directly by the government, to perſons who deſign to 'keep them, they are immediately put out of the market, and 'affect the price no more than all the quantity of the public 'funds which remains in the hands of perſons who never think 'of ſelling them.' Ibid. 'And, if timely notice were given 'every year, there would probably come in buyers, with 'a deſign to keep, ſufficient to take off all the funds created 'that year, provided they may come in freely at the original 'price.' Ibid.

If this probability be well founded, it ariſes not in a ſmall part, but almoſt in the whole, amongſt thoſe deſcribed in p. 71. 'Who live upon their income, whether by eſtates in 'land, or in the funds, or in mortgages: many of whom 'are always ſaving a part of their income, and want to lay 'out.' Ibid. And 'among people who thrive in trade, 'and who are willing, as they can ſpare money, to lay it out 'in ſomething to ſupport them more at their eaſe.' Ibid. 'And, laſtly, as war neceſſarily contracts trade, and, conſequently, ſo much money cannot be employed therein as in 'time of peace, thoſe who have large eſtates in trade muſt 'have money gradually coming in; which, when the funds 'are reaſonable, they may chuſe to lay out therein: and 'ſome, from this beginning, go on to draw all their money 'out of trade, to place it in the funds.' Ibid.

In anſwer to which it was ſaid,

From theſe ſeveral deſcriptions, deduction muſt be made of thoſe who, with their ſavings, purchaſe lands or houſes, or who lay out their money on private ſecurities; who increaſe their ſtock in trade in proportion as they thrive; who, in time of war, contract their trade, in order to enlarge it in time of peace, and who place their money in the funds for temporary advantage, till an opportunity ſerves of attaining ſome of theſe purpoſes; not one of whom is a buyer in the funds with a deſign to keep.

If to theſe we add, whoever in time of public diſtreſs withdrew their money out of the funds; and if the remaining number be clear ſufficient to take off every year all the funds created in that year (which, in the year immediately ſucceeding, amounted to 63 millions) we may pronounce the annual gains, through lands, mortgages, funds, and trade, immenſely higher than ever computed, and the parſimony of our people miſrepreſented by declaimers againſt luxury.

The poſition in page 74, 'That any quantity of new funds, 'to be created and ſold in any one year, will not occaſion 'there being leſs money the next year;' WAS FALSE IN THAT VERY YEAR, AND IN THE SUCCEEDING; as it ever will be, when new funds are created to defray foreign expence, which has been the caſe of almoſt all our funds.

The argument, therefore, to be true, ſhould rather have ſtood thus: 'Any quantity of new funds, to be created and 'ſold in any one year, will occaſion there being leſs money 'the next year; becauſe, as the government iſſues out all 'the money received (a great part of which is ſent into other 'countries) the ſame quantity will not be in private hands, 'as the year foregoing.'

If our author's calculation was true, it would not only juſtify the doctrine oppoſed by him under a former adminiſtration, That the creditors of the public could not bear to receive above an ANNUAL MILLION IN DISCHARGE OF OUR DEBTS; but would bid fair for proving, with the nameleſs author of the Eſſay upon Public Credit, that our debt IS AN ADVANTAGE, AND EVERY INCREASE a PUBLIC BLESSING; ſince it would be hard to ſay, how ſo much ſuperfluous wealth could be otherwiſe diſpoſed of.

Every increaſe of DEBT CAUSES AN INCREASE OF ANNUITY; and an increaſe of annuity muſt be either defrayed by NEW TAXES, or BY SUCH AN APPROPRIATION OF THE SINKING FUND AS WOULD RETARD, IF NOT TOTALLY EXTINGUISH, EVERY POSSIBILITY OF REMOVING ANY OF THE OLD.

Either of theſe would prejudice trade; and what prejudices trade muſt affect the value of the funds.

Yet our author aſſerts, 'If they were DOUBLE to what they 'now are, it would not neceſſarily follow that the prices 'would be lower; nor yet, if they conſiſted but of half what 'they do now, would the price be from thence increaſed.'

Experience hath taught us, when large ſums muſt be expended, and muſt be borrowed, how very ſoon a combination of monied men can raiſe the price to the borrower. Nor does the evil end here; for the ſame combination will after operate, probably more effectually, towards preventing its reduction; as it is found eaſier to advance the price of things upon thoſe who are in want of them, than to lower the price when once advanced.

Such combinations are great and powerful in proportion as THE DEBT IS GREAT: and, if it be raiſed to ſuch a ſize as to admit no probability of ever diſcharging it, or if the means for ſuch diſcharge be neglected or miſapplied, other men

may

may be deterred from releaſing the public out of this bondage to their creditors, by new loans; and CREDIT will be affected by an INCREASE OF PRINCIPAL, let the intereſt be never ſo well ſecured.

Whatever the advantages may be reſulting from the funds, through the facility of transfers, the punctuality of payments, and the certainty and ſufficiency of the ſecurity, yet they receive a conſiderable diminution from this ſingle circumſtance, that the creditor is not intitled to demand the principal in any future RISE OF INTEREST, but muſt, if called upon by neceſſity, ſell out AT LOSS.

This condition, as it was not felt, was not much attended to in ſettled times, when the price of money was likely to remain unaltered; but at other ſeaſons, we have ſeen it become an object of great importance; and it is now of weight and importance to thoſe who apprehend, that, if all poſſible means be not employed to LESSEN OUR DEBTS, future exigencies, poſſibly not far off, may ſeize us unprepared, ſufficient to ſwallow up the whole SINKING FUND IN ONE PERPETUAL MORTGAGE.

Extravagant as this apprehenſion may appear to ſome, it will not be ſo to thoſe who computed the debt accumulated by the late war, (that was the war in 1740) and find it amount to 32,818,220l. and lamentable will our ſituation be, if the only ſecurity againſt ſuch another be an improbability of ſupporting the expence.

In this ſituation, therefore, the apprehenſions of men may go farther, and tranſport them to a time when, after having appropriated every thing fundable, new expences may become neceſſary. What the effect would be, imports us all to conſider, for it regards us all: ruined credit, total ſtagnation, univerſal bankruptcy.

It is true, a nation cannot be powerful where the individuals are poor: but it is certain, on the other hand, that the individuals of a nation may be rich, and the community poor, and without reſources.

This was evident throughout the late war, in the caſe of the Dutch. And if, after being driven to an impoſſibility of raiſing the neceſſary ſupplies, we can reduce intereſt, this country will furniſh another inſtance of the ſame truth within the ſame period: for ſuch reduction will be an inconteſtable proof of the wealth of individuals, although that wealth was unavailing to the public in the time of trial.

But, wherever this caſe exiſts, it conſtantly proceeds from the ſame cauſe; from a load of debt, over-burdening the frame of public credit, frightening monied men from ſettling within its reach, while all uniform and general means are exhauſted of drawing further ſupplies from the drained bulk of the people.

Thus far it hath been endeavoured to ſhew how falſely and dangerouſly they reaſon who would center our whole concern in the reduction of intereſt, and regard the principal of our debt as an immaterial circumſtance.

Nothwithſtanding theſe inferences are apparently deducible from Sir John Barnard's tract, yet I cannot believe that honourable gentleman intended the propagation of the doctrine of non-payment of the public debts: we have great reaſon to judge otherwiſe: for, in another pamphlet of that gentleman's writing, now before me, in the year 1737, intitled Reaſons for the more ſpeedy leſſening the National Debt, and taking off the moſt burdenſome of the Taxes; we find theſe expreſs ſentiments:

'It is true, ſays Sir John, ſome modern politicians have run 'upon a notion, and ſeveral perſons are weak enough to 'believe, that the not paying off the public debt will en'gage people the more to preſerve the preſent government: 'this policy, indeed, of theirs would hold good, if it could 'be made out that the public creditors are ſtronger and more 'in number than thoſe concerned in the payments to the 'public. But it rather ſeems to hold in ſenſe and reaſon, 'THAT THE THRONE OF THAT PRINCE, IN A FREE 'NATION, MUST BE MOST FIRMLY ESTABLISHED, WHOSE 'AFFAIRS WILL PERMIT HIM TO ASK, AND WHO DE'SIRES TO COLLECT, THE FEWEST TAXES FROM HIS 'PEOPLE.'—And, with regard to the maxim quoted from Sir John's poſtſcript in the pamphlet beforementioned, which occaſioned the other learned author's reply, it ſhould be further obſerved, in juſtice to this great patriot, that, in the introduction to the ſaid poſtſcript, he has the following paragraph: 'I ſhall, ſays Sir John, now lay together ſome no'tions relating to public credit, for the conſideration of my 'readers. Many of them may be found ſcattered through 'the foregoing work, which I did not think a ſufficient rea'ſon for omitting them in this place, becauſe they may ſerve 'to exerciſe the thoughts of thoſe who are deſirous to be ac'quainted with theſe matters: I will not take upon me to 'ſay that they are all right, although they now appear to me 'to be ſo; but, when objections are ſtarted, I may find my'ſelf miſtaken.'—This is candid and ingenuous, and worthy the imitation of all who would not ſet up for infallibility; and thoſe who have been converſant with ſtudies of this, or indeed of any other nature, that will not admit of pure mathematical demonſtration, well know, that they ought rather to be modeſt than dogmatical.

But to reſume the topic of paying the national debts.—It has been a queſtion with ſeveral judicious gentlemen, Whether, upon the whole, the nation would be in ever the worſe condition, provided the national debts were never paid, and that a conſiderable proportion of the public creditors remained PERPETUAL ANNUITANTS ONLY? To which it may be obſerved, that the two principal national evils that attend the continuance of the public debts, to the degree they are at preſent advanced, are, (1.) The annuity we are conſtantly obliged to pay to foreigners, for the proportion of the principal money debt, which has been eſtimated by ſome at $\frac{1}{3}$, and by others at $\frac{1}{4}$, of the whole debt; and, (2.) The other evil is, the weight of our tax-funds, occaſioned by our debts, upon our trade in general. The firſt of theſe drains the nation annually of ſo much hard money; the latter renders our manufactures dearer to foreign countries, by the whole weight that our tax-funds bear upon commodities.

To exonerate the kingdom from evils of this nature is certainly very deſirable; and I can hardly believe that any one would undertake to prove the contrary. If our whole national debts were wholly owing among ourſelves, and the annuity paid for their intereſt circulated wholly among ourſelves, the former evil would be leſſened by all the ſaving to the nation; and, if the annuity for the debt due to ourſelves only was no clog or incumbrance upon our foreign commerce and navigation, it would not matter greatly, perhaps, to the kingdom in general, if the debt due to ourſelves only was never diſcharged.

But how can we pay foreigners off only, without affecting the public faith, and without precluding ourſelves for ever from the aid of a foreign purſe, whenever our affairs may require it? Theſe are difficulties eaſier raiſed than anſwered. For my own part, I can diſcern but one way of doing this; which is, by diſcharging the whole of our preſent debts with all poſſible expedition, and thoſe of foreigners will be gradually diſcharged with the reſt: and, if we have occaſion TO CONTRACT NEW DEBTS, WHILE THE OLD ARE GRADUALLY PAYING OFF, LET THEM BE CONTRACTED UPON NEW FUNDS, WHOLLY AMONG OURSELVES, IF THAT BE POSSIBLE AND PRACTICABLE. I am aware of the objection, that, while public ſecurities are transferable (and they cannot be otherwiſe) and while foreigners have an opinion of the ſtability of our public credit, they will become purchaſers in our funds, unleſs they were abſolutely excluded by act of parliament, which might be dangerous, when we ſtood in need of their money: and, when we did, the reſtraint might be taken off. This would be an effectual way to try the wealth of the nation among ourſelves; and, perhaps, prove a preſervative againſt running in debt to foreigners ever after. And foreigners would entertain ſo high an opinion of the public credit of the nation, when we ſhould be able to do without any of their money, that numbers of the more opulent would take up their abode among us, become naturalized, and they and their families become one with ourſelves, for the ſake of being proprietors in our public funds.

And if, in the courſe of payment of our old debts, and the contraction of new, the tax funds for the new debt ſhould be gradually and equally laid all over the nation, by ſome ſuch ſcheme as that of the late Sir Matthew Decker, or by ſome other that poſſibly might be thought of, this would be paving the way to take off all our old tax-funds, that now lie heavy upon our trade, and removing them, by reaſon of any new-contracted debt, in ſuch a manner as they might be no clog or incumbrance whatever upon our trade: and this, we humbly apprehend, carries nothing of the face of impracticability.

Let it be ſuppoſed, that the nation is not in a condition to pay off any of its preſent debts (which, for diſtinction-ſake, I will call old debts) and that, even as faſt as we pay off one million of old debt, we are are neceſſitated to borrow a million of new debt, yet if, by this means, we ſhall be enabled ſo to change the nature of our tax-funds, as to take them abſolutely off from our trade and navigation, and lay them equally all over the nation, this would anſwer the next good purpoſe to the abſolute diſcharge of our debts: for, if the annuity for the payment of intereſt of our new national debts was ſo univerſally equalized among the people, by gradual ſmall tax-funds being laid for that purpoſe, and as unexpenſively collected as the land-tax, this would in a few years, we humbly conceive, ſo effectually demonſtrate the efficacy of changing our OLD DEBTS, BY THE MEANS OF CONTRACTING NEW, and ſo effectually convince the nation that it is more eligible to raiſe the whole annuity for the intereſt of the public debts, BY ONE EQUAL AND GENERAL TAX, in the nature of Sir Matthew Decker's ſcheme, that, upon thus ſhifting and changing the principal money-debt from the old to new, upon new tax-funds, we ſhould experience, before we had thus changed ten millions of the debt, the reaſonableneſs and practicability of thus changing the whole of our OLD TAX-FUNDS, for one or more NEW GENERAL FUNDS, that would raiſe the annuity requiſite, without any burden to trade, and without putting the nation under the neceſſity, even in caſe of creating ſtill greater national debts than we now have, of laying any taxes upon commodities, except upon ſuch FOREIGN IMPORTS

PORTS OF LUXURY, &c. whoſe conſumption it may be good policy to check.

Here then ſeems to be a plain eaſy way chalked out, whereby to relieve our commerce from the burden of all its tax-fund incumbrances; and this without the leaſt injury, nay, with great advantage to the public credit.

The next point that obviouſly falls under conſideration is, how, and in what manner, this change of the national debt, and of the tax-funds to anſwer the ſame, may be effected? And this, the intelligent reader will pleaſe to obſerve, upon the ſuppoſition that we are under the neceſſity of contracting NEW DEBTS, as faſt as we diſcharge the OLD DEBT, or rather change it for a NEW, for the ſake of changing the OLD tax-funds for NEW tax-funds. I hope I am underſtood; for I regard plainneſs and ſimplicity of language more than pompous unintelligible elegancy.

With reſpect to the ways and means of paying the nation's debt, ſeveral very ingenious gentlemen, warm in their country's intereſt and glory, have offered to the public conſideration various expedients; but it is to be feared that none of thoſe propoſitions, none, however, that have fell in my way, ſeem to be immediately practicable; and the reaſon is plain, becauſe they have not been directly coincident with the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem and conſtitution of our public funds; but, being attended with two great innovations upon the eſtabliſhed ſyſtem, they have been apprehended, we may preſume, to be liable to endanger the public credit.

It is not my intention to enter into a critique upon thoſe divers propoſitions; every gentleman deſerves the thanks, the applauſe, and reward from the public, who communicates any thing, with candor and decency, for its real intereſts. Nor is it my deſign to depreciate the merit of any gentleman's propoſition of this kind, with the mean view to ſet off my own; for I have none of my own to propoſe there: I ſhall at preſent, only conſider the parliamentary meaſures that have obtained by the eſtabliſhment of a ſinking-fund, for near 50 years paſt.

What effect the invariable application of this fund would have had, by this time, upon the public debts, has been already ſhewn under the article DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS.] We have there ſhewed how efficacious this fund would have proved, had it been ſacredly and inviolably appropriated, as was certainly firſt intended by parliament, to the payment of the debts contracted before 1716.

But, as this fund has been differently applied, I ſhall not enter into the rectitude or the otherwiſe of that meaſure. I have ſome years ſince attended to what has been ſaid on both ſides of that important queſtion, both within doors and without; but retroſpection is not my buſineſs here; we muſt take things as they are, and make the beſt uſe of them now, as things are circumſtanced.

If, then, the ſtate of public affairs hath occaſioned us to run deeper into debt, inſtead of being favourable to their diſcharge, it behoves the wiſdom of the nation to conſider whether this fund [the SINKING FUND] can ſtill prove of any uſe towards the eaſement of the public in any ſhape, if it cannot be applied to the real diſcharge of its principal money-debt: for, if it cannot be applied to what it was originally deſigned, the next beſt uſe ought to be made of it that can. And,

Firſt, Let this fund be abſolutely redeemed, and ſet free, we will ſuppoſe, from every incumbrance, for it can be no way ſalutarily operative till it is ſo.

Secondly, The moſt eaſy way to do this ſhould ſeem to be by ſome general eaſy duty, laid equally throughout Great-Britain and Wales (called the general fund of REDEMPTION from all taxes on trade) upon the plan of that of Sir Matthew Decker, or any other that may no way effect our trade, commodities, and manufactures, and to collect the ſame as cheaply as the land-tax is. For, as the benefit of taxes to the public reſults only from the clear income, and the evil to individuals extends not only to the groſs produce, but to every other expence and loſs incident and conſequential; that tax is moſt beneficial to the public, and leaſt hurtful to the ſubject, which produces a large ſum through a cheap collection, and which is free from every other eventual charge. To uſe a familiar inſtance: he who attends to his own affairs, lives upon his own land, employs but one ſteward, at a ſmall ſalary, to receive his rents, and buys at the firſt hand, may, from a ſmall and compact eſtate, thus conducted, ſpend and ſave more than the lord of an immenſe rental, widely diſperſed, gathered by many hands, profuſely paid; he living at a diſtance, and purchaſing what he conſumes from the fourth or fifth retailer.

An eſſay being made (to carry on the ſuppoſition) by this GENERAL FUND OF REDEMPTION, the two following ends would be ſoon anſwered by it. (1.) It would redeem the ſinking fund. And, (2.) it would give the nation experience of the net produce of a general duty, laid equally throughout the kingdom,; and, being collected as cheaply as the land-tax is, it would prove ſo great a ſaving with regard to the collection, and of no incumbrance to trade, that the nation would ſoon be able to judge, whether one ſuch general fund of redemption would not effectually redeem them from all taxes on trade whatſoever. And, if it is once experienced that ſo ſimple and unexpenſive a fund of redemption, in the collection, will redeem the ſinking fund, we ſhall be certain that this fund of redemption, gradually increaſed, will abſolutely free us from all other tax-funds whatſoever.

And, when the ſinking fund ſhall be ſet free, by means of a general fund of redemption, what hinders but all our preſent national debts may be diſcharged by it, and thoſe of foreigners among the reſt? If the neceſſities of the ſtate require the borrowing of more monies, while the ſinking fund is operating in the payment of our preſent debts, let them be borrowed within our own nation only, upon the general fund of redemption, and let foreigners be excluded: ſuch meaſures would not obſtruct the payment of our preſent debts, by the inviolable application of the ſinking fund to that purpoſe. Nay, the gradual contraction of new debts, upon the new general fund of redemption, would prove the means of preventing ſome diſadvantageous conſequences to the old public creditors, while that debt was paying off by the ſinking fund: becauſe the ſubjects of Great-Britain would have freſh occaſions of laying out a part, if not the whole of the money received upon the new fund of redemption, by new debts: ſo that, by the invariable application of the ſinking fund to the payment of the old debts, all our preſent duties and taxes on trade in general would be in a certain ſtate of redemption, and the new contracted debts would be borrowed upon the new general fund of redemption, which would reduce all our tax-funds to that one general fund, as before obſerved, and put the whole kingdom into the moſt proſperous condition, with regard to its public credit, and all its other intereſts.

But, if it ſhould not be found practicable to keep out of debt to foreigners, eſpecially upon ſo advantageous a change in the whole ſyſtem of our funds and taxes (which, perhaps, will make it impoſſible, for all foreigners then, either in their own or borrowed names, would get into our funds, let whatever meaſures, perhaps, be taken to prevent it) yet, if we put our preſent debts into a certain way of payment, and were obliged to contract as much new debt upon the new fund of redemption, the public creditors need not be alarmed with ſuch apprehenſions of the payment of the national debt, as ſuggeſted by Eraſmus Philips, Eſq; and which, I am ſenſible, is the opinion of many other very judicious gentlemen. It may not be improper, therefore, to quote what this learned author obſerves, in order to ſhew that what I have offered to conſideration ſeems to obviate thoſe inconveniences of which that gentleman ſeems apprehenſive. The chapter I ſhall cite is intitled,

The poſſibility of paying the public debts depends on circulation.

'The paying the public debts, ſays Mr Philips, is a matter 'of the greateſt concern, and ſeems to be the chiefeſt care 'of the adminiſtration; the meaſures that have been already 'taken will, in all probability, in the year 1727, produce a 'ſinking fund of above a million of money.

'And, ſuppoſe we ſtate the debt at 53 millions, the fund at '1,200,000, it is no great diſcovery to ſay, that, in leſs than '26 years, this great debt may be paid off.

'But I muſt beg leave to obſerve, that, notwithſtanding this 'account is mathematically true, upon the ſuppoſition of ſo 'much money received annually, yet, upon the whole, ei'ther the creditor or the community muſt loſe ſo much of 'their principal before this debt can be paid off, or elſe they 'muſt acquire a new eſtate.

'For inſtance; A, the government, owes B, C, D, 200 l. 'E, F, G, H, have lands and goods to the value of 20,000 l. 'and the whole community have but 500 l. amongſt them 'in money, of which 100 l. a year are the revenues of A; 'if the debt is at 4 per cent. the revenues of A, in leſs than '20 years, will be ſufficient to pay. But how? It muſt be 'out of the eſtates of B, C, D, E, F, G, H; ſo that their 'eſtates muſt be diminiſhed by ſo much, or they muſt ac'quire a new eſtate, anſwerable for this debt.

'It is true, the loſs may not fall upon B, C, or D, the im'mediate creditor, becauſe any of them may purchaſe the 'lands or goods of E, F, G, or H: but then at laſt it muſt 'fall on him or them that have the money, becauſe that A 'has no other eſtate to pay with but the money of B, C, 'D, E, F, &c.

'If it could be ſuppoſed that B, C, D, ſtate creditors, 'ſhould keep all the money that was paid them by A, in five 'years time they muſt have all the money of the communi'ty; but, as this is unlikely, and their neceſſary expences 'muſt make a circulation, ſo of courſe it muſt come about 'to A, who has a part of almoſt every thing that is bought 'or ſold.

'Perhaps it may be aſked how ſo large a money-debt could 'grow out of ſo ſmall a capital? To which I anſwer, that, the 'annual charge of our fleets and armies chiefly conſiſting in 'commodities of our own growth, the creditors were ſatiſ'fied with an intereſt for their money, ſo that the annual 'payment of the eighteenth or twentieth part of the value

'of

'of their goods was ſatisfaction till the whole could be 'paid.

'And, as to the money, it was generally lent by the ſame 'people who ſold their ſecurities to others at an advanced 'price, and by this means were enabled every year to lend 'more, they being the reſervoirs of all thoſe little ſtreams or 'parcels of money which belonged to the multitude, who 'demanded an intereſt for them, the punctuality of pay-'ments, and ſacredneſs of the ſecurity, in ſome time making 'the intereſt more valuable than the principal.

'Hence it is that people, finding themſelves in a ſtate of 'ſafety, and that their intereſt is well paid, raiſe the price 'of their public ſecurities, which of neceſſity leſſens the va-'lue of money.

'If a million of the public debts were paid off, this money 'muſt come again to market, to look out for intereſt, and, 'conſequently, the remaining part of the debt would increaſe 'in its value from the difficulty of finding employment for 'that million elſewhere; but then it muſt be allowed, that 'there is a million leſs in circulation than there was before, 'becauſe this million, call it annuities or ſtock of any kind, 'did the office of ſo much money; the ſame thing muſt be 'ſaid of every million that is paid off.

'It may be a queſtion, whether, after ten millions paid off '(and, conſequently, ſo much leſs in circulation) there will 'be the ſame conſumption of commodities as there is at pre-'ſent; if not, the ſame annuity cannot be collected, and, 'conſequently, the debt will take a longer time in clearing 'off.

'It is demonſtrable, unleſs people ſpend out of their capital, 'the conſumption cannot be ſo great, becauſe, after ten mil-'lions paid, there muſt be ſo much principal and intereſt 'leſs in circulation than there was before, unleſs we ſuppoſe 'that, by the application of this money in trade, we get a 'ſum equal to the intereſt and principal.

'If, after 20 millions paid, the difficulty of employing mo-'ney will become ſo great as that half of it may become 'uſeleſs, that is, hoarded up, which may very well be the 'caſe; it is not then to be imagined the conſumption of goods 'can be ſo great as now; the duties then of neceſſity muſt 'be leſs.

'If the conſumption diminiſhes, who is it that is moſt likely 'to ſuffer? Why the trading man, mechanic, and landed 'man. For inſtance: if the monied man is reduced to live 'on three-fifths leſs than heretofore, or, which is the ſame 'thing, the monied eſtate is three-fifths worſe than it was 'before, the conſumption of the proprietors muſt abate in 'proportion; and, conſequently, this muſt fall on the trading 'man, mechanic, or landed man, becauſe under theſe three 'heads all the neceſſary expences of life almoſt muſt be 'ranged.

'The landed man will be very much ſurprized to find his 'rents diminiſh, and yet his land riſe in value, as to the pur-'chaſe of it; the merchant will wonder that, in a profound 'time of tranquility and plenty, he has not that vent for his 'commodities he was accuſtomed to have. The poor me-'chanic will pine for want of employment: and this muſt 'be the conſequence, if we have leſs to ſpend than we had 'before.

'But, perhaps, it would be thought adviſeable to leave open 'all the gates of circulation, that this alteration may come 'gradually, and not ſurprize us, that the advantages we 'may have from trade may fill up thoſe gaps which muſt be 'occaſioned by ſuch a ſtagnation as the payment of ten mil-'lions will make. If an annuity-office ſhould be open to 'all purchaſers for their lives, people would, doubtleſs, ra-'ther than have money lie idle, buy annuities for themſelves 'or their children; and this would be always money in cir-'culation; and I am certain, that, were this under a good 'regulation, at the price annuities are now; the govern-'ment would be gainers by the project, and, were it to con-'tinue, would, in the proceſs of time, raiſe a ſum of money 'for any emergency.

'One thing I am ſure of, it would greatly facilitate the cir-'culation of money, without which our debts can never be 'paid off.'

REMARKS.

When the preſent tax-funds upon trade ſhall be annihilated, by the payment of our preſent public debts, for which they are mortgaged; and when the general fund of redemption, before ſubmitted, ſhould become eſtabliſhed in their ſtead, our commerce in general will be ſo relieved, as to employ very great additional ſums of money therein; and, if every prudent meaſure, under ſuch circumſtances, ſhould be taken by the nation to advance our trade, as that increaſed, it would call for a proportionable increaſe of trading capital, wherewith to carry it on. But, if it was poſſible to pay off our public debts without an increaſe of our trade, the public creditors might be liable to thoſe diſadvantages which Mr Philips ſuggeſts; and to continue the public debts, which occaſion the continuance of all our taxes on trade, the nation muſt loſe its trade; and, if ſo, the taxes ariſing therefrom muſt ceaſe in their produce, the creditors in time have no intereſt for their money, and the principal become nothing worth. If trade, however, is relieved of its preſent taxes, and one eaſy general fund of redemption be ſubſtituted in their place, an unincumbered trade will ſupport every thing; it will either enable the nation gradually to pay its debts, with little diſadvantage to the public creditors, or that alone will enable the nation to pay duly the intereſt-money for our debts, without any incumbrance to trade, if it ſhould never be able to pay the principal. But, if it ſhould ever become indifferent to the nation, whether their debts are paid or no, and that the creditors ſhould be continued only as perpetual annuitants, then there is the greater neceſſity to alter the ſyſtem of tax-funds on trade, by converting them, at once, into one GENERAL FUND OF REDEMPTION, which may fall lightly and equally, according to the circumſtances of people, upon the whole nation, without any incumbrance whatſoever to our commerce. But, as the nation may be liable to increaſe its debts in time of war, the policy of making the public creditors perpetual annuitants is the way to increaſe the debt to ſuch an enormous degree, that the taxes to pay its intereſt muſt inevitably ruin the nation; becauſe further reductions of intereſt, beyond certain limits, defeat their own intentions: for, the leſs the creditors have to receive for intereſt, the leſs they muſt ſpend, and the leſs muſt thoſe taxes produce which are to pay their intereſt, and provide for the exigences of the government: ſo that, if the taxes, as at preſent conſtituted, decreaſe as much in their real produce as any future reduction of indereſt below 3 per cent. amounts to, where lies the advantage?

Our large national debt is fraught with numberleſs inconveniences.

Firſt, It has grievouſly injured our trade, by ſerving for a pretence to continue thoſe taxes on commodities, the deſtructive conſequences of which to trade are apparent to every man that will open his eyes.

Secondly, It deſtroys private credit. The annals of Europe for the year 1739, p. 444, juſtly remark, that theſe funds firſt drew out of private hands moſt of that money which ſhould, and otherwiſe would have been lent to our merchants and tradeſmen; this made it difficult for ſuch to borrow any money upon perſonal ſecurity; and this difficulty ſoon made it unſafe to lend money upon ſuch ſecurity, which of courſe deſtroyed all private credit, and greatly injured our trade in general.

Thirdly, It encourages idleneſs; for ſeveral people, making from 3 to 4 per cent. of their money ſleeping, are mere drones in the hive, improving no land, nor extending any trade.

Fourthly, It encourages luxury. Idleneſs is the mother of vice; and a mere ſtockholder, being the idleſt perſon upon earth, has nothing to ſtudy but how to kill time by vanities and luxuries, in which this nation has of late days made a great proficiency.

Fifthly, It waſtes the body politic; for a great part of our national debt belonging to foreigners not reſiding here, but whoſe intereſt is remitted abroad, they are in the ſame ſtate, with reſpect to the nation, as landholders-abſentees, thoſe cankers to the riches of a country. Suppoſing the intereſt remitted abroad to foreigners to be only 750,000 l. per annum. If our trade prove but a little beneficial, ſo large a ſum going out yearly will certainly keep us poor.

If our trade brings us in neither profit or loſs, and the current caſh of the nation is 12 millions, the intereſt paid foreigners, in 16 years, will run away with all.

But, if the general balance of our trade comes to be againſt us, the ſending abroad yearly money to pay that balance, joined to the above 750,000l. per annum intereſt, muſt bring deſtruction upon us like a whirlwind. So fine a ſituation have our debts brought us to!

Having thus made ourſelves tributaries to foreigners, poverty muſt be our portion: for a foreigner who for 50 years paſſed has received from us, for his dividend in our funds, 1000 l. yearly, computing the intereſt of money at 4 per cent. only, has drained us of 156,115 l. having his capital ſtill unſatiſfied. Nay this plunder, though monſtrous, is much underrated; for the intereſt of money, at the beginning of this term of years, was much greater than 4 per cent.

We owe above 30 millions more than we did at the commencement of the laſt war, (1740.) Who will believe that the preſent peace is likely to endure till this additional debt is diſcharged? And is it not as plain as experience can make it, that a new war, with this new debt upon us, muſt contribute to our undoing, if effectual means are not taken to leſſen our debts, if we cannot diſcharge the whole of them; or ſo to change the form of our tax-funds that lie heavy on trade, to that of one general fund, which may lie light and eaſy upon the whole people. This is in our power, if it is not ſo to diſcharge our debts or any part of them.

Was not trade prejudiced by taxes before the war in 1740? Did not our rivals gain advantages over us from this cauſe? Was not France become a great mercantile power by reaſon thereof? Was not our debt ſuch at the commencement of the ſaid war, as rendered the load unmanageable during its progreſs?

greſs? Did not national credit ſink, and intereſt of money riſe? Did not payment upon ſubſcriptions fail? And was not the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle concluded, becauſe we experienced it ſo difficult to carry on war?

If our taxes on trade were grievous, they are now multiplied: if our debt was heavy, it is now then found increaſed: if the ſinking fund was caſually applied to the current ſervice of the year, it is now deeply mortgaged: and, if France ſuffered in her trade during the war, ſhe is now at liberty to repair thoſe loſſes. She hath the ſame ſkill, the ſame induſtry and parſimony, the ſame good policy, the ſame poſſeſſions, and aiming at great additional ones in America, Aſia, and Africa: ſhe hath numbers, ſhe hath wealth; and a far more extenſive influence is derived to her ſince than ſhe had before the war. She hath experienced where ſhe hath been unſucceſsful, to improve the advantages of her ſucceſs. Is not every prince in Europe, that has it the leaſt in his power, encouraging trade by every poſſible meaſure? Is not Pruſſia taking large ſtrides to eſtabliſh a new commercial and maritime power; and is not———likely to fall a ſacrifice, either to ———, on the one ſide, or———, perhaps, on the other? And what a chance Great-Britain will then ſtand, is left to the judgment of others. [The whole of theſe REMARKS, the reader will obſerve was urged before the laſt war.]

Theſe are unaggravated facts. Theſe cannot, like general epithets, be applied to all times, and to all nations. They ſpeak our ſpecific ſituation; and they would ſpeak it as ſtrongly, were the words BANKRUPT and RUINED expunged out of the Engliſh language.

Some people ſeem to be unaffected with theſe clogs upon our trade, which are made by near an hundred different kinds of tax-funds. But,

In order to prove the evils ariſing to our trade from the heavy taxes with which it is incumbered, it were, perhaps, not juſt to conſult the opinions of actual merchants, who, upon this ſubject, are prejudiced judges.

But the teſtimony of thoſe who have withdrawn themſelves out of trade hath ever been deemed the beſt authority; and, as ſuch, the late Sir Matthew Decker's cannot be refuſed.

He tells us, in favour of this ſcheme, that 'It would ſet the 'merchant and ſhop-keeper free from a multitude of falſe 'and vexatious, or frivolous informations, which may now 'be lodged againſt them: that the charge upon the revenue 'is now computed at above one million: that, as the duty 'upon merchandize imported from abroad, as well as upon 'our own exciſeable goods, amounts, on an average, to 'about 50 per cent.' (And, ſince he wrote, it hath been greatly increaſed, by an immenſe additional duty on imports.) 'It would enable the merchant, as well as the ſhop 'and warehouſe-keeper, to trade with half the ſtock, and 'make his profit the ſame, or rather increaſe it, in proportion to the leſſer ſum for which he can purchaſe the ſame 'commodity. This would create a greater plenty of money, 'and, of conſequence, greatly help to reduce the national 'intereſt.

'It would alſo encourage the great merchants, when they 'buy any goods upon ſpeculation, as they call it, to keep 'the ſaid goods at home, and employ their own warehouſes; 'whereas, as the caſe now ſtands, they are, in prudence, 'obliged to ſhip off ſuch goods as are intitled to a drawback 'of 30, 40, and even more per cent. for Holland, or other 'places; whereby the Dutch are not only benefited, but 'we pay commiſſion, warehouſe-room, and other incidental 'charges, which our own people might put in their own pockets, and have the goods in their own poſſeſſion.'

Mr Wood, beſides much excellent reaſoning upon the ſame principle, refers us, for farther proof, to the cuſtoms, which, 'ſince the additional duties and impoſitions on ſo many ſpe'cies of goods, have not actually produced ſo much as before.'

It is computed by the Britiſh Merchant, that, out of 49,000,000 l. expended and conſumed by our people at home, not more than 4,000,000 l. are of foreign commodities.

There remain, therefore, 45,000,000 l. for an annual expence and conſumption in home product and manufactures. Of theſe the land-owner can expend and conſume no more than his rents, and they are computed at no more than 14,000,000 l. therefore above two parts in three of home product and manufactures are expended and conſumed by all other denominations of our people.

Whatever is conſumed and expended at home, or exported into other countries, whether of home or foreign commodities, is the fruit of our lands, of the labourer and artificer, or is purchaſed by theſe fruits.

In 1713, the Britiſh Merchant computed our imports at 5,000,000 l. and our exports at 7,000,000 l. of theſe, one million he ſuppoſes to be of foreign commodities. Therefore, even at that time, our home conſumption and foreign exportation amounted to 56,000,000 l.

But whatever is produced by land, by the labourer and artificer, is paid by thoſe who rent lands, and employ labourers and artificers: therefore the farmer and trader contribute three parts in four more than the land-owners can to the employment of our people, and to the wealth and expences of the nation.

REMARKS.

Since I have been upon this ſubject, a tract has fell in my way, which merits attention. It is intitled, an Eſſay on the National Debt and National Capital: or, The Account truly ſtated, Debtor and Creditor; by Andrew Hooke, Eſq; wherein the learned and ingenious author hath corrected ſome miſtakes committed by our two great maſters of political arithmetic, Sir William Petty and Dr Davenant, who differ from each other, and both, as Mr Hooke hath endeavoured to ſhew, from the truth, that we have little or no aſſiſtance from either of theſe gentlemen. At preſent, I am confined to obſerve only a ſcheme that I find this gentleman has propoſed for paying off the national debt; which, as it contains ſomething new and curious, it may deſerve the public regard, and, therefore, I ſhall give it in the author's own words.

The ſcheme for paying off the NATIONAL DEBT.

'It has been obſerved, in the courſe of this eſſay, that the national debt, reckoning it at 80 millions, is not a twelfth part of the national capital; nor the annual intereſt of it, at 4 per cent. a thirtieth part of the national income; and that the annual increment of ſtock, over and above the yearly expences of the people, is 11 millions and a half nearly. Now this being proved, as clearly as the nature of ſuch arguments will allow, and, in our opinion, ſhewn to be the preſent ſtate of the nation, beyond all reaſonable contradiction, we ſhall have very little trouble to demonſtrate the facility of diſcharging the principal ſum of 80 millions, not only without the leaſt inconvenience to the crown or people, but with great and immediate advantages both to the one and the other; viz. by an actual ſale, for a term of years only, of a leſs portion of the national income than is at preſent annually applied towards the diſcharge of the intereſt thereof.

As thus:

If but ſeven-eighths of the intereſt of 80 millions, or two millions eight hundred thouſand pounds (which is not a thirty-ſixth part of the national income, nor a fourth part of the annual increment of the national capital) were to be converted into annuities at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. and granted, in equal proportions, for a term of 99 years abſolute, unto a certain number of ſubſcribers, in manner as follows, the whole ſum of 80 millions might, in our opinion, be ſoon raiſed to diſcharge the like principal ſum of the national debt.

The method this:

Let the 80 millions debt be divided into 80 equal parts, of a million each, to be paid off ſeverally, by an equal number of ſeparate and independent claſſes of ſubſcribers, whoſe repective conſtituents ſhall, in conſideration of ſuch ſubſcriptions, be, jointly and ſeverally, intereſted in an equivalent annuity to be granted to each claſs, for the term aforeſaid, with benefit of ſurvivorſhip.

An inſtance of one claſs will ſerve for all.

Let it be enacted then, that the intereſt of one million, at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. be converted into a capital annuity of 35,000 l. and granted for 99 years abſolute, to any body or claſs of ſubſcribers, who, in conſideration thereof, will advance the ſum of one million towards diſcharging ſo much of the national debt.

That the one million, ſo to be ſubſcribed, be divided into four thouſand parts, or ſhares, of 250 l. and the capital annuity of 35,000 l. into four thouſand leſſer annuities of 8 l. 15 s. each, anſwerable to the ſaid number of ſhares, and veſted in the inviduals of each claſs, in proportion to the number of ſhares ſubſcribed by them ſeverally and reſpectively.

That every perſon ſubſcribing 250 l. or one ſhare, be intitled to one of the ſaid leſſer annuities, during the life of any perſon he ſhall nominate, ſubject to the limitation in the ſaid grant; and ſo in proportion to any greater number of ſhares, provided always, that the number of his nominees be ever equal to the number of his ſhares.

That in conſideration of his ſinking the principal money, every ſubſcriber be further intitled to ſuch annual augmentation of his annuity, or annuities, as ſhall from time to time accrue by caſualties of mortality among the nominees of ſuch claſs; ſo that before the expiration of the original term, the whole capital annuity of 35,000 l. may veſt in ſuch ſubſcriber, or ſubſcribers, or his or their repreſentatives, as the caſe ſhall happen, whoſe nominee, or nominees, ſhall be the laſt ſurvivor, or ſurvivors, of the ſaid claſs.

That the government creditors have the preference to all other ſubſcribers, for ſo much principal money as ſhall, at the time of ſuch ſubſcription, be actually and bona fide due to them from the crown; and that, notwitſtanding the claſſes, as ſuch, are, by this plan, to be independent of each other, yet, that individuals may become ſubſcribers in as many claſſes as they pleaſe, and their nominees in one claſs be

be nominees in every other claſs, if they ſhall think fit. And, laſtly,

That the government, on payment of the capital annuities of 35,000l. to the ſeveral claſſes, be abſolutely diſcharged from all future claims of individuals, touching their reſpective ſhares, proportions, and intereſt therein; and that all matters relating thereto be tranſacted among themſelves, and determined by a court of directors, to be elected and appointed in ſuch manner as ſhall be thought fit; who, by law, ſhall be fully authorized and impowered to make the reſpective dividends, and from time to time adjuſt all claims thereto: ſubject, nevertheleſs, to an appeal to the lords of the Treaſury, who, in a ſummary way, ſhall finally hear and determine the ſame.

The practicability of this ſcheme, ſays the author, will beſt appear by ſhewing the advantages of it to ſubſcribers.

A clear annuity, then, for 99 years abſolute, with government ſecurity, is worth, at leaſt, 30 years purchaſe, and, conſequently, every claſs, ſubſcribing a million, will gain 50,000 l. which is 5 per cent. on the whole ſum; of which gain the individuals will ſeverally have a ſhare, in proportion to their ſubſcriptions reſpectively: for, by multiplying the capital annuity of 35,000l. by 30, the rate of purchaſe, or value thereof, the product will be juſt, 1,050,000 l. as aforeſaid.

The ſingle conſideration, if people generally underſtood the real value of annuities, would be ſufficient to inſure the event; but, there being few who are much converſant with that ſubject, it is not probable ſo large a ſum as 80 millions could be raiſed without the addition of ſome more ſtriking and intereſting motives; for which reaſon, it was thought moſt proper to fall in with the popular paſſion of lotteries, and to erect one of ſo peculiar a kind, as might hit every taſte, and, upon the ſtricteſt examination, appear more advantageous to adventurers than any yet extant. For,

1. Every adventurer here will have a better intereſt for his money, with government ſecurity, during the life of his nominee, than he can reaſonably expect to make by laying out the ſame ſum in the purchaſe of lands in fee, in any part of the kingdom.

2. He will have a moral certainty of increaſing his income annually, for 30 years to come,* a probability of the like augmentation for many years afterwards, and a poſſibility of enjoying the whole capital annuity of 35,000l. before the expiration of the original term.

* By the London bills of mortality, taken at a medium of 10 ſucceſſive years, it appears that a life aged 4 is equal to a term abſolute of 38 years and a half; and one aged 19, to a like term of 27 years and a half: the mean of which two numbers is 33 years for the term abſolute, to which every life between thoſe two ages (which I ſuppoſe will comprize all the nominees) is actually equal. Now, as 30 is juſt three years leſs than his equal chance of life, ſuch perſon may properly enough be reputed morally certain of ſurviving that term.

3. The advance of ſo ſmall a ſum as 250l. by any one who ought to become an adventurer in this lottery, cannot be injurious to his private fortune or family in any degree, becauſe he hath immediately more than a valuable conſideration for his money, and may, if he pleaſes, appropriate the benefit of it to the uſes of his family after his deceaſe.

4. As the care of making proviſion for children and old age engroſſes the attention of the greater part of mankind, and is the main point on which the views of the wiſeſt terminate; ſo, by this ſcheme, a way is ſhewn of doing it, at an eaſier rate, and with more certainty, in caſe of life (and death provides for every body alike) that can poſſibly be done by any other known method whatſoever.

Theſe reaſons, taken together, are, in our opinion, ſufficient to convince the moſt cautious perſon that ſuch annuity, with benefit of ſurvivorſhip, though the adventurer, for want of knowledge, may not readily ſee a ſtrict arithmetical equivalent for his ſubſcription, yet politically conſidered, it will appear vaſtly more valuable; and there is little doubt but this ſcheme, when tendered properly to the public, will operate ſo ſtrongly on the ruling paſſion of human nature, that every thinking perſon in the kingdom, who has a child or near relation to provide for, and 250l. to ſpare, will gladly become an adventurer in this lottery.

The advantages accruing to the government and community by this ſcheme are theſe:

1. The national debt will be diſcharged at once, with leſs than the preſent intereſt thereof; and the intereſt itſelf be annihilated at the end of the term for which the annuities are to be granred.

2. The reduction will create an immediate annual ſaving of 400,000 l. which may be added to the ſinking fund, or applied to the current ſervice, as ſhall be thought moſt convenient.

3. The national capital may for ever remain untouched, ſince the annual increment of ſtock, as ſtated at 11 millions and an half, together with the ſinking fund, will be more than ſufficient, even in times of war, to anſwer all the demands of the government.

4. This ſcheme will be the beſt pattern for raiſing ſupplies for the future, without burdening the people with new taxes, or incurring any ſuch-like national debt; the ſinking fund itſelf, when converted into like annuities, being ſufficient to furniſh a million a year for 50 years together. And,

5. In which conſiſts its diſtinguiſhing excellency, this ſcheme obviates all political objections to the execution of it, by preſerving the ſame dependencies, and equally ſecuring the ſtability of the throne; is inimitable by the French, our natural enemy, or any other arbitrary government; executes itſelf; is infallible in its operation; and abſolutely puts it out of the power of any future miniſtry to defeat the event.

The only objection of weight to it, as far as we can foreſee, is this, viz. that, in this way of paying off the national debt, a heavy load of grievous taxes on the neceſſaries of life, ſuch as ſoap, candles, leather, ſalt, &c. muſt inevitably be fixed on the ſubject for a long term of years to come, irredeemable by parliament.

This objection, it muſt be owned, has a frightful aſpect, and, were it unanſwerable, ought to damn the whole; but, in our opinion, the force of it is very eaſily removed, by a ſhort proviſo in the act to this effect, viz. That whenever the circumſtances of the government will admit of a reduction of any of the more burdenſome taxes, appropriated to the payment of the ſaid debt, ſuch reduction may at any time take place, provided the funds annihilated thereby be, from time to time, replaced out of the ſinking fund (which with the additional ſavings upon this plan, will be near 1,800,000 l. per annum) or otherwiſe provided for by parliament.

It would be no difficult matter to enter into a particular detail of the great benefit the community might receive from the execution of this ſcheme, by ſhewing, in particular, which and how many of the more grievous and burdenſome taxes, during a time of peace, might be immediately repealed, without injury to the revenue; and in what manner an equivalent, in time of war, might be raiſed for the ſervice of the government, without a revival of thoſe taxes, or any new impoſitions on the people; but this being out of our province, which is only to give general hints, we ſhall leave the application of it to thoſe who are more immediately concerned and intereſted in that affair.' Here ends Mr Hooke's ſcheme.

Sir Matthew Decker's ſentiments with regard to the NATIONAL DEBT.

PROPOSALS.

'To pay off our debts by public bonds, bearing intereſt, negotiable by indorſement, and liquidating part of our debts yearly.

That books being opened at the Exchequer for receiving money from any perſon or perſons deſiring public bonds, which money is to be applied immediately to pay off our national redeemable debts; thoſe that bear the higheſt rate of intereſt, and are of the longeſt ſtanding, to be firſt paid off.

That the ſaid bonds, for the conveniency of trade, be for any ſums not leſs than 5l. nor exceeding 1000l.

That they be divided into claſſes, according to their rates of intereſt.

That the 1ſt claſs does not exceed	3 millions ſter.	at 3 per cent.
2	6 - - -	at $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
3	9 - - -	at 2 per cent.
4	12 - - -	at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.
5	15 - - -	at 1 per cent.
6 for the remainder of the debt	-	at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

That the bonds of every claſs be numbered, and the numbers never altered.

That the intereſt be payable at an office to be erected for that purpoſe, whenever it be called for, and a new bond given in the name of the perſon receiving it, with its original number, and the date the intereſt is paid to.

That the bonds be negotiable by indorſement to any creditor, and for any tax to the government.

That the bonds for the amount of both principal and intereſt by a legal tender for any tax, bill of exchange, note, or any debt whatſoever.

That a ſum equal to the amount of one ſubſidy be granted yearly by parliament, to pay off our redeemable debts and public bonds; thoſe that bear the higheſt rate of intereſt, and are of the longeſt ſtanding, to be the firſt paid off.

That public notice be given in the Gazette monthly, by the commiſſioners of the office, how far they can pay off the bonds, ſpecifying the number of the claſs, and the number of the bond they pay to: the intereſt on all the included numbers to ceaſe and determine at the expiration of three months after ſuch notice.

That

That accounts be delivered yearly to parliament by the commiſſioners.
That a curious ſtamp be added to the bonds; for, though their being negotiable, by indorſement only to creditors, may make forgery difficult, yet too much caution cannot be uſed to prevent it intirely, and give the bonds the greater credit.

Of the benefits ariſing by paying off our debts by public bonds.

1. It will increaſe trade.
By putting our debts, that have almoſt ruined us, on a footing of being ſpeedily paid off with honour.
By creating currency more valuable than our coin; money lying by brings in nothing, but all theſe bonds pay ſomething for keeping; and I preſume that no perſons (much leſs the bank or the bankers) would keep money by them lying dead, when they could have current bonds that bore only a half per cent. intereſt. Would the bank, who are computed to have always a dead caſh of above one million by them, refuſe making 5000l. per annum profit of it, at a half per cent. in bonds? Could the directors anſwer to the proprietors the neglect of not adding ſuch a ſum yearly to their uſual profits? Would any perſon take out a bank-note, that bore no intereſt, when he could have a bond carrying a half per cent. and equally convenient; for any trader would as ſoon give change for it as for a bank note!
By increaſing the currency of the nation: for, as trade always languiſhes where money is ſcarce, ſo the benefit by taking off all monopolies might be defeated, for want of a proper currency to carry on the flow of trade thereby cauſed; whereas, adding an increaſe of currency to an increaſe of trade, muſt carry it to a greater height than we ever yet knew.
By reducing the intereſt of money, which is a great encouragement to trade, by forcing people to induſtry, who would otherwiſe live idle on the high intereſt of their money; whereas, the intereſt of thoſe bonds ſinking gently to a degree too low to indulge people in idleneſs, the poſſeſſors of them, who have not lands to improve, muſt either find out new branches of trade, or ſtudy to improve the old; enter into partnerſhip with traders of experience, or lend them their money to trade with, whereby private credit will be increaſed, and our traders enabled to buy at home with ready money, and ſell at long credit abroad, which will make them ſteal away the trade of all thoſe nations whoſe high intereſt will not enable them to do the ſame; and, the lower the intereſt, the more moderate profits our traders can content themſelves with, whereby the vent of our goods muſt be increaſed: for, was the natural rate of intereſt at 2 per cent. a trader who borrowed money would think 4 per cent. good profit; whereas he who borrows money at 4 per cent. cannot be ſatisfied with leſs than 6 or 7, and muſt neglect all trades that will not give that profit, which the Dutch, by their low intereſt, are glad to undertake, and, when our caſe is the ſame, ſo ſhall we.
By making our people frugal: for, a low rate of intereſt forcing a low profit in trade, people's expences muſt grow more moderate, and, the leſs we conſume, the more we ſhall have to ſell, which is the moſt ſolid way to make a nation rich.
By gaining more experience: for, low profits raiſing eſtates ſlowly, men cannot quit buſineſs ſo ſoon for idle country-lives as they do now, but muſt bring up their children to their buſineſs, in order to aſſiſt them in their old age, which may go on to the fourth or fifth generation, before an eſtate is raiſed to turn country eſquires upon; whereby a foreign correſpondency with the beſt houſes, the knowledge of proper workmen, and the characters of maſters of ſhips, are ſecured to the ſon by the father's experience; conſequently, from ſuch a foundation, the utmoſt ſkill in trade muſt be attained.
2. It will employ our poor.
3. It will increaſe the ſtock of people.
Theſe having been already proved to be the conſequences of the increaſe of trade, the reader is referr'd back to theſe heads in the remarks on the foregoing propoſals.
4. It will increaſe our riches.
Not only as a conſequence of the above remarks, but alſo by reducing thoſe vaſt dividends the foreign proprietors of ſtocks have now remitted to them, whereby more money will be kept in the nation.
5. It will increaſe the value of our lands.
This is the conſequence of all the above remarks; for whatſoever cauſes trade, employs our poor, increaſes the ſtock of people, and increaſes our riches, muſt increaſe the value of our lands; for the proof of which, the reader is referred to what we ſhall hereafter ſay.
The paying off our debts by public bonds is proved to be the cauſe of trade, which is the cauſe of all the other remarks; therefore, the paying off our debts by public bonds is a great increaſer of the value of lands.
Beſides, where plenty of currency is to be had, there it will be borrowed by the land-holders, and employed in different cultures, plantations, new products, whereby yearly improvements will be made, and, when the corn-magazines are compleated, there being no other employment for money but in trade or lands, thoſe who did not underſtand trade, or care to truſt their money to thoſe who did, or who had raiſed ſufficient eſtates by it, muſt become purchaſers of land; which number, by increaſing, muſt increaſe their value.
Having thus attempted to ſhew that our natural advantages in trade are undoubtedly ſuperior to any nation's whatſoever; that, if properly cultivated, they would render us more formidable than France, conſequently, than any country in Europe; that, if we had no taxes but on the voluntary conſumers of luxuries, and if our trade was quite free, all fictitious value would be taken from our goods, whereby they might be afforded cheaper than any in Europe; and, if thoſe vaſt ſums that now lie dead in our funds were circulating in bonds, we ſhould raiſe an immenſe trade all over the world, a vaſt navigation for our protection, increaſe the number of our people, give employment to all our poor, accumulate riches yearly, and that all this cannot be done without vaſtly increaſing the value of lands, which, in the remarks on the ſeveral propoſals I have endeavoured fully to prove, to the conviction, I hope, of thoſe gentlemen for whoſe benefit this eſſay chiefly was intended, viz. our country-gentlemen, the land-holders of theſe three kingdoms.
Before concluding I muſt repeat, that my chief intent herein was to remove that deſtructive prejudice ariſing from the falſe diſtinction of landed and trading intereſts, by ſhewing that there neither is or can be any difference of intereſt between them; for, whatever clogs trade, muſt ſink the value of lands, and that any benefit to trade, how remote ſoever it may ſeem from land, will at laſt terminate in increaſing its value; therefore, I dare boldly affirm, that the giving trade the utmoſt freedoms and encouragements is the greateſt and moſt ſolid improvement of the value of lands. It muſt be evident, ſays the author of Britannia Languens, p. 290, that, were our trade eaſed as our neighbour nations, England would have the ſuperiority, ſince the ſame cauſes muſt produce greater effects in England, being invigorated with theſe our national advantages, which no other nation doth or can enjoy.
Was our trade eaſed and encouraged by the foregoing propoſals, beyond that of our neighbours, to what a height of riches and power would not our natural advantages carry us? The conſideration of which is hereby ſubmitted to the legiſlature, which can, whenever it pleaſes, make us the moſt flouriſhing people in the world.'

Sir Matthew Decker's Propoſition for one GENERAL FUND OF REDEMPTION, as I have called it, to anſwer the end of all taxes on trade.

'My propoſal in ſhort is this, that there be but one ſingle exciſe-duty over all Great-Britain, that upon houſes. As for England alone, excluſive of Scotland and Wales (to which I reſerve myſelf to ſay ſomething hereafter) the number of houſes, upon the ſtricteſt enquiry, amounts to no leſs than 1,200,000, and, according to the common computation, every houſe being reckoned at ſeven perſons, makes in all 8,400,000 ſouls.
Now conſider only what a number of things muſt be uſed by every one of theſe, for which high duties are paid, if imported from abraad; or high exciſes, if of our produce; and conſider to what an additional price the ſeller of every commodity will exact from the conſumer upon the ſcore of duty and exciſe; reflect, likewiſe, upon the numerous articles which every family actually pays for, ſuch as ſoap, candles, windows (and, what is the moſt conſiderable of all) malt and land: and then judge if I am miſtaken in my calculation, when I ſuppoſe that every one of the 8,400,000 perſons, above computed, pays, on an average, 40s. a year, without being a penny the better for it, either as to victuals or cloathing; and yet, according to this calculation, 16,800,000l. will, in effect, be raiſed upon the ſubject *.

* I have been told that many people object to this calculation, and think me miſtaken when I compute that every perſon pays, in the conſumption, 40 s. per annum towards the ſeveral taxes, and, by conſequence, every family, at ſeven in number, 14l; I ſhall, therefore, only ſubjoin a liſt of ſuch things as are either charged with high duties at their importation, or high exciſes at home, and ſuch as every family almoſt is either more or leſs obliged to make uſe of; and then leave it to the judgment of every conſidering man, whether I have over-rated this matter, or not. Velvets, and all foreign-wrought ſilks; lace, callicoes, muſlins, and all foreign linnen; all foreign wines, arrac, rum, brandy; all home-diſtilled ſpirits, beer, ale, cyder, mum, perry, ſweet wines, and vinegar; china ware, wrought plate, wire, cards, and dice; hides, leather, parchment, vellum, paper, paſteboard, whale fins, and oil; coffee, tea, and chocolate; cinnamon, cloves, nutmegs, mace, ginger, pepper; all manner of apothecaries drugs; almonds, raiſins, plums, and all ſorts of grocery-ware; melaſſes, ſugar, ſoap, candles, ſnuff, ſtarch, tobacco, ſalt, and hops. Now I ſay, when we take a view of this formidable liſt, and conſider the large

quantities of ſome of theſe things which are uſed and conſumed in the families of noblemen, gentry, merchants, ſhopkeepers, farmers, and that no family can ſubſiſt, however mean, without the uſe and conſumption of many others of them; I believe we ſhall be tempted to think that I have rather made my calculation too low, when I place it, on an average, at 40 s. per ann. each perſon, or 14 l. per ann. each family, taking one family with another.

That the moſt wealthy and moſt ſubſtantial part of any nation ſhould bear the greateſt part of the burden, is certainly moſt reaſonable, but as ſeldom put in practice; but it is a conſequence of the method I propoſe, and thus I prove it:
I will ſuppoſe, that, in the foregoing computation of 1,200,000 houſes, there may be 100,000 at ſeveral times uninhabited; it would not be reaſonable to expect that they ſhould pay duty, whilſt they remain ſuch.
Next, I would fix upon 500,000 houſes, which we may ſuppoſe inhabited by the loweſt and pooreſt ſort of people; from theſe I would expect no duty, that thereby their labour might become ſo much the cheaper, and the goods, which are the produce of their labour, might, by this means, be ſold at as low, or even a lower rate, than can be afforded by other nations; for I do not know any country in Europe where the pooreſt do not pay ſome tax or other; whereas, by the preſent ſcheme, thoſe of this kingdom would be abſolutely free.
After this deduction of houſes, there will ſtill remain 600,000, which are to pay the whole duty, not including parochial charges, or the poor's rate, which, being things of a different nature, belonging to every pariſh in particular, are not comprehended in the general ſcheme, but are left as they were.
Let us ſee now, whether from theſe 600,000 houſes may not be raiſed a ſufficient revenue to anſwer the uſes of the public: but, before we enter upon this, we muſt compute a little what the public really wants. I would be underſtood to make this computation, on ſuppoſition that providence may ſoon be pleaſed to bleſs us with an honourable peace, that, the intereſt of the houſe of Auſtria being once effectually ſettled, we may not in haſte be under a neceſſity of intermeddling ſo much again with the affairs of the continent, and be driven to find out funds for ſuch immenſe ſums of money as have lately been raiſed, and (to the great detriment of the nation) partly ſpent abroad.
The queſtion therefore is, what are the exigencies of the ſtate in times of peace?

I. His majeſty's civil liſt, amounting to - -	l. 800,000
II. Intereſt money to diſcharge the public debt, near, but not quite - - - - - - - -	2,000,000
III. Money for the current ſervice of the year -	2,200,000
In all	l. 5,000,000

In order to raiſe this money, I would propoſe, that a duty of 10 l. a year ſhould be laid upon every houſe, which, upon the 600,000 houſes, would amount to 6,000,000 l.
That I do not mean the ſame ſum of 10 l. to be laid upon every ſingle individual houſe, I preſume every body will underſtand; I ſuppoſe only, that ſo much money may be raiſed upon the whole.
There will be a difficulty in fixing the proportion for each houſe, but this difficulty might be got over by the government's procuring an eſtimate of the reſpective rent of theſe houſes. And as the inhabitants would, by this means, be diſcharged from paying any duties whatever, but ſuch as are merely parochial, they would have no reaſon to complain, if ſuch an eſtimate was made: for I believe they would find, that there would be a conſiderable ſaving to every family, by paying one duty only, in lieu of the many which they now pay.
The method I would point out for collecting this duty is, that every houſe in England which is either let for, or inhabited by its owners, worth 200 l. a year, or upwards, or where the inhabitant is in poſſeſſion of a real eſtate of 1000 l. a year, or more, let the houſe he liveth in be great or ſmall, ſhould pay 100 l. and that all houſes may be ranged in their ſeveral claſſes, the loweſt at 5 l. and the middle ones in proportion, with the addition of real eſtates annexed to them. This is, in general, my notion of laying this duty.
Thus 6,000,000 l. might be eaſily raiſed; and as the government, by the above computation, wants only 5,000,000 l. there would be an overplus of 1,000,000 l. This 1,000,000 l. therefore, together with what may hereafter be ſaved by the reduction of intereſt (which I have likewiſe in my preſent view) I would propoſe ſhould be applied to the ſinking fund *, towards diſcharging the national debt: and I am perſwaded that the plenty of money would ſoon of itſelf occaſion a reduction of intereſt, without any force or compulſion.

* Sir Matthew did not ſeem to be aware, that, if all other taxes are taken off, and his general fund ſubſtituted in their ſtead, the ſinking fund would ceaſe.

The ſame ſinking fund would have a very conſiderable addition, if the legiſlature ſhould think fit to charge all the houſes in Wales and Scotland, which have not been yet mentioned (after the ſame deduction of thoſe inhabited by the poor) with the half of what thoſe in England pay; which muſt amount to a conſiderable ſum; for, according to the beſt account, there are in Scotland about 250,000 houſes, and in Wales above 150,000. If all this was faithfully laid out in clearing the public debt, it would be ſurprizing to ſee how much it would be leſſened in the ſhort ſpace of 10 or 12 years.
If in future times the public ſhould want to raiſe a greater ſum for the current ſervices of the year, it might eaſily be procured by adding, for every million they wanted, one ſixth part upon every houſe; and ſuch an addition would be raiſed within the year, a thing greatly deſirable by every body, and the want of which has been the cauſe of our preſent debt.
Before I diſmiſs this ſubject, I think it incumbent upon me to remove one objection, which may probably, and with ſome ſhew of reaſon, be made, viz. that, by thus ſecuring ſix millions to be annually raiſed for any determinate number of years, we ſhall make it unneceſſary to have a ſeſſion of parliament every year; and, ſince this would be apparently detrimental to the ſubject, as it might prevent redreſs of grievances, and tend to make the crown more independent on the people than is conſiſtent with the conſtitution, I would propoſe (in order to obviate this inconvenience) that only 6 l. on a houſe ſhould be fixed, to be certainly raiſed every year, and the remaining 4 l. ſhould be annually granted by parliament, for anſwering the exigencies of the current year, in the ſame manner as the land and malt-tax are at preſent granted.
And now give me leave modeſtly to hint what I would have the legiſlature do towards the furtherance of this ſcheme.
I would humbly propoſe, that the parliament ſhould, firſt of all, in the moſt ſolemn manner, engage itſelf, that, if ever there ſhould be a deficiency in the duty upon houſes, the intereſt ſhould, previouſly and before any thing elſe, be faithfully paid to the ſeveral proprietors of the public debts, for which the whole revenue ſhould ſtand engaged.
Next I would have them provide, that all acts of parliament which ever paſſed, and laid any duty whatſoever; all penal laws, either upon goods imported or goods now under the burden of exciſe, and, conſequently, all forfeitures to be levied by any of the ſaid acts; ſhould be repealed.
The only act which I would have remain in force, is that moſt glorious bulwark of our trade, the act of navigation; and even here I would have a ſmall alteration made, the preſent practice being a hardſhip on the ſubject, by which many an innocent perſon has ſuffered wrongfully: I mean in relation to the clauſe by which owners of ſhips are liable to forfeiture for crimes committed by maſters or ſailors, which they themſelves know nothing of, or, if they did, would not be able to hinder. This is the only alteration which I think requiſite; for, ſuppoſing that clauſe to be left out, I look upon this act as the beſt which ever paſſed for the benefit of trade.'—So far Sir Matthew Decker.

REMARKS upon the whole of this article of FUNDS.

Before we conclude this article of the funds, it may be proper to obſerve, that, under the article of DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] it is ſaid a ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. inviolably applied to the payment of the public debts, would have diſcharged 50 millions of debts in 25 years and a half; and that, if the nation had contracted a freſh or new debt of the ſaid ſum of 1,200,000 l. annually upon new funds, provided for the payment of intereſt of theſe new loans, the nation would have been leſs in debt by the ſum of 19,400,000 l. But my meaning having been miſapprehended by ſome worthy and ingenious gentlemen, it may be neceſſary to explain myſelf further upon this matter.
The reader, therefore, is deſired to remark, that I am there ſpeaking of the efficacious operation of the ſinking fund, provided it had been annually and inviolably applied to the payment of the public debts. And if it be true that a ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. invariably applied (intereſt reckoned at 4 per cent.) would have diſcharged 50 millions of debt, and the nation had even borrowed the ſame ſum of 1,200,000 l. by a new-contracted principal debt, upon new-appropriated funds for the payment of intereſt, and the intereſt was duly paid for ſuch principal debts, it is very obvious, we apprehend, that the nation could be no more principal money in debt at the end of 25 years and a half, than 25 times and one half the ſaid ſum of 1,200,000 l. which is 30,600,000 l. and this ſum, being deducted from 50 millions, leaves the ſum of 19,400,000 l. which the nation would have been leſs in debt of principal money; becauſe it is taken for granted upon this ſuppoſition, that the intereſt was duly paid by new funds, raiſed annually for that purpoſe, for the new-contracted principal debt: and, if the intereſt be duly paid, that intereſt-money cannot be reckoned as a principal money-debt at the end of the ſaid 25

years and a half, when the nation does not owe one farthing of it.

The plain queſtion is, What the nation is really indebted of principal money, at the end of 25 years and a half, provided it inviolably applies a ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. to the diſcharge of 50 millions of debt, and borrows annually the ſame principal ſum of 1,200,000 l. where intereſt is annually provided for by new-appropriated effective funds? But if the ſimple intereſt, paid from year to year, or half-yearly, &c. may be reckoned, by an objector, as a new principal debt, when the nation does not really owe one ſhilling thereof, the intereſt of that intereſt may, with equal reaſon be added to that aggregate, and ſwelled into a principal money-debt, at the end of the ſaid term; all which is quite beſide the queſtion.

The attentive reader will eaſily diſcern, by connecting what is here ſaid with what has been alſo ſaid under the article DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] that, if the nation inviolably applies a ſinking fund of 1,200,000 l. to the payment of the preſent national debt, and is under the neceſſity to contract annually a new debt, upon new loans of no more than one half of the ſaid ſum of 1,200,000 l. the old national debt will be much ſooner diſcharged, and the nation ever after in a certain ſituation to pay off all its debts gradually, from this principle; for if, after the firſt old debt ſhall be abſolutely diſcharged, and all the funds appropriated for the ſame annihilated, the nation would be enabled to eſtabliſh a new ſinking fund for the payment of the new-contracted debt: and if, during the progreſs of payment of the new-contracted debt, the neceſſities of the ſtate required ſtill a further new-contracted debt, if the nation borrowed leſs from year to year than it paid off, all our debts and taxes would nevertheleſs be in a certain ſtate of redemption, and the public credit thereby wonderfully upheld. So that we may very clearly diſcern, that, if the funds of this kingdom were once happily bottomed upon the ſyſtem of paying off old debts, only by the means of contracting one half the quantity of new debts, by new loans, our funds would ever remain in a ſure and certain ſtate of redemption. Moreover,

By this ſyſtem of diminiſhing of old debts, by the means of contracting of leſs new debts, the nation will, from time to time, ever have it in its power to ſhift the tax-funds, ſo as to lay the eaſieſt upon the people, and to be of the leaſt burden poſſible to our trade, if they need be of any at all.—Theſe are the happy effects of preſerving an unincumbered ſinking fund, to pay off old debts, by the means of contracting new gradually, leſs in quantity than what ſhall be paid off: and, by ſuch an eſtabliſhed ſyſtem of borrowing one half, or three quarters of the ſame ſum paid off, by new debts upon new loans, the public creditors would never be great ſufferers by the thus gradual payment of old debts, becauſe they would gradually find a market for their money in the contracting of new debts; and from the eaſement of commerce, by ſhifting of the tax-funds, as before ſubmitted, and opening every channel of trade that ſhall be poſſible, the national trading capital will be ſo augmented, as to find conſtant employment for all the money the nation can raiſe! and, by this means, gradually convert the whole principal money-debt into a kind of a live-trading national ſtock: which will enable us to drive every branch of trade on for the loweſt profit, and thereby prevent other nations ſupplanting us in whatever branches of trade we judge proper to preſerve. But it is well enough known, that my opinion upon RAISING ALL SUPPLIES that may hereafter be neceſſary, is, that they ought to be raiſed WITHIN THE YEAR, without the further increaſe of our public debts *; though when I wrote upon that ſubject, I never thought, I muſt confeſs, that the SUPPLIES raiſed would ever have roſe to ſo high a pitch as they did in the laſt war. For more matter on this head, ſee the articles CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT,] DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS,] MERCANTILE ACCOMPTANSHIP, TAXES.

* See POSTLETHWAYT'S GREAT-BRITAIN'S TRUE SYSTEM.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued.

FEES——See our article FEES in particular, for the table thereof at the Cuſtom-houſe.

——Goods not paying 20 s. cuſtom, whether inwards or outwards, to pay but half fees.

——For butter, corn, grain, meal, and other goods which may be exported free, carried to or from any place within the port of London, to be 3 s. 5 d. and ſuch goods to paſs by tranſire, without cocket or bond. 1 Ann. cap. 26. § 1.

——For corn not exceeding 50 quarters, or hops not exceeding 50 bags, to be 1 s. 8 d. ½. 1 Ann. cap. 26. § 2.

——For a cocket or certificate outwards, to be paid in one ſum to the officer granting the ſame, Rule 25th, at the end of letter A, ſigned Harbottle Grimſtone, ſpeaker of the houſe of commons.

——In other ports than London, to be ſuch as were taken in the 4th year of the reign of Jac. I. till otherwiſe ſettled by parliament. Car. II. cap. 4. § 8.

——In London, copies of the Table of fees, and of the order of the houſe of commons, eſtabliſhing the ſame, to be ſet up to public view in the Cuſtom-houſe, in ſuch places where the fees are received. Ditto.

——Payable to the officers of the cuſtoms in any port.

——For a port entry, when the cuſtom is under 5 s. nothing; exceeding 5 s. and under 40 s. 6 d.; above 40 s. the ſame fees as for the prime entry.

——But one fee to be paid by Britiſh, for his own goods entered at one time in one ſhip, though the duty be diſtributed into ſeveral offices.

——The merchants are to pay for weighing all goods ſhort entered above 10 s. cuſtom; but if duly entered, not to be at any charge.

——Goods in partnerſhip to paſs as the property of one perſon.

——Societies or companies of merchants, trading with a joint-ſtock, and entering a whole ſhip's cargo inwards, in one entry, the officers may take ſuch gratuity as they ſhall voluntarily give them.

——Unlawful fees exacted by officers; penalty, loſs of employment, and incapacity to hold any office in the cuſtoms for the future, and to be liable to double coſts and damages. Rule 24, at the end of letter A. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. § 34.

——Legal, not paid, diſpatches may be ſtopped. Ditto.

——None to be paid for foreign coin and bullion inwards and outwards.

——Nor for diamonds, precious ſtones, jewels, and pearls, inwards and outwards.

——None to be paid for goods under the value of 5 l. in the book of rates, paying for ſubſidy 5 s. or leſs. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. § 8.

——Not for corn exported, nor corn debentures. 1 W. and M. cap. 12. § 2. 12 and 13 Will. III. cap. 44. § 1. and 7 Ann. cap. 11. § 2, 10.

——Not for gunpowder debentures or certificates. 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. § 1.

——Nor for ſalt debentures. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. § 13.

——Nor for the premium or naval ſtores. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. § 18. and 2 Geo. II. cap. 35. § 11.

——Nor for any entry, warrant, debenture, certificate, cocket, &c. in relation to the one-third or two-third ſubſidies only, upon forfeiture of 40 l. for each duty, one third to his majeſty, and two thirds, being coſts of ſuit, to the party grieved. 2 & 3 Ann. cap. 9. § 4. and 3 & 4 Ann. cap. 5. § 3.

——Nor for paſſing debentures for goods chargeable with any additional duties, more than was before payable for debentures, for repayment of the half ſubſidy; nor any fee for any oath adminiſtered upon this act. 4 & 5 W. & M. cap. 15. § 15.

FISH——taken or imported by ſtrangers, may not be dried within Great Britain, to be ſold, upon forfeiture, or the value, to any perſon that will ſeize the fiſh, or ſue for the value; to be applied to the repair and maintenance of the port, &c. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. § 6.

——Herring, cod, pilchards, ſalmon, or ling, freſh, ſalted, dried, or bloated; grill, mackerel, whiting, haddock, ſprats, colefiſh,

colefiſh, gullfiſh, congers, any ſort of flat-fiſh, and any ſort of freſh-fiſh, may not be imported in any foreign ſhip into, or ſold in England, having been taken by, bought of, or received from foreigners, or out of a foreigner's ſhip (except proteſtant ſtrangers inhabiting this kingdom) upon forfeiture thereof, and the ſhip and tackle; and alſo 100 pounds by every offender herein. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. § 16. 18 Car. II. cap. 2. § 2. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 24. § 13. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 1. and 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 1.

——Except eels, ſtockfiſh, anchovies, ſturgeon, botargo and cavear, and lobſters or turbots, which may be imported in any ſhip, and by any perſon, whether of Britiſh or foreign catching. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 10.

——Maſters of fiſhing-ſmacks, hoys, &c. bringing in fiſh of foreign taking, &c. are to forfeit 50 pounds. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 2. and 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 1.

——But proſecution muſt be commenced within 12 months after the offence committed. 1 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 9. and 9 Geo. II. cap. 33. § 2.

——The forfeitures above may be recovered by any informer, in any of the courts in Weſtminſter-hall, and diſtributed, one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh where the offence is committed. 9 Geo. II. cap 33. § 1.

——Herrings, pilchards, ſcads, codfiſh, ling, hake, ſalmon, or dried red-ſprats, by whomſoever caught or cured, may not be imported, unleſs oath be made before the ſalt-officer, by the owner of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, that all the ſalt wherewith they were cured, was taken on board in Great-Britain, mentioning the time and place; and that no drawback was, or is intended to be obtained for the ſame, upon forfeiture, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 14. and 2 & 3 Ann. cap. 14. § 13.

——Herrings, white or red, to be packed in lawful barrels, juſtly and exactly laid by ſworn packers, who are to brand the caſk with a mark denoting the gauge, quantity, quality, and condition of the herrings, and the place where packed. Magiſtrates neglecting to appoint and ſwear ſuch packers yearly, forfeit 100 pounds. 15 Car. II. cap. 16. § 1. and 5 Ann. cap. 8. art. 8.

——Herring barrels to contain 32 gallons. 13 Eliz. cap. 11. § 15. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 15.

——Salmon barrels to contain 42 gallons. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 15.

——Herrings and Salmon, exported in barrels of any other ſize (except half-barrels) not entitled to the bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 15 & 16.

——Pilchards, exported, the words SEYN or DRIFT muſt be burnt with an iron, in ſome viſible part of the caſk or hogſhead, with the name and ſurname of the owner, and the number of pilchards contained in each; upon forfeiture of double the value of the fiſh. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 31.

——Pilchards, ſcads, codfiſh, ling, hake, red or white herrings, exported from Great Britain, the exporter to make oath before the principal officer of the port, that they were Britiſh taken, and really exported for parts beyond the ſeas, and not relanded or intended to be relanded in Great Britain.

——The ſalt-officer is to pay the debenture within 30 days after demand, or, if he has not ſufficient money in his hands, to give a certificate thereof gratis, and without delay, upon penalty of the forfeiture of double the ſum to the party grieved; and upon ſuch certificate, the commiſſioners of exciſe upon ſalt are chargeable with the payment. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

——But if exported from Scotland, to be paid by the commiſſioners of exciſe or cuſtoms there, at the option of the merchant. Ditto.

——Laws in force in either kingdom, for preventing frauds in curing and packing of fiſh, extended to Scotland. Art. 8. 5 Ann. cap. 8. § 1.

——Codfiſh, ling, or hake, before laid on board for exportation, part of the tails to be cut off; and pilchards, ſcads, herrings, ſalmon, or ſprats, the barrels or caſks to be marked by the ſalt-officer. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 16. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 6. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

——Such fiſh, after exportation, fraudently relanded, or reimported, are forfeited, and double the value. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 17. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

——Such fiſh and congers, not well cured, or unmerchantable, not entitled to any bounty. 1 Ann. cap. 21. § 25. and 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

——After ſuch fiſh are put on board any boat, barge, &c. in order to be exported to foreign ports, may not be taken out, unleſs to be put into the ſhip wherein they are to be exported; nor landed in Great Britain, except in the preſence of the ſalt-officer: upon forfeiture thereof, and the veſſel, with her tackle and apparel, and 20 pound by every perſon concerned, or ſix months impriſonment. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 23.

——The former allowance or bounty on exportation, granted the 5 and 6 Will. and Mar. cap. 7. the 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 31. 8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 20. 9 and 10 Will. III. cap. 44. 1 Ann. cap. 11. 5 Ann. cap. 8, and 29. 7 Ann. cap. 11. is taken away. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 1.

——The preſent allowance or bounty, and the regulations of exportation. See the concluſion of the ſecond volume of this work.

——Officers refuſing or neglecting to pay the bounty due on exportation, or to certify the want of money to the commiſſioners, are to forfeit double the ſum of the ſaid bounty. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 6.

——White herrings fraudulently relanded, forfeited, and 20s. per barrel. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 7.

——Duly entered and ſhipped for exportation, loſt or ſpoiled before the ſhip proceeds on her voyage, upon due proof on oath, to enjoy the ſame bounty as if really exported; provided the fiſh was ſunk in the ſea or port, where the ſhip was loſt or deſtroyed, in ſight of the proper officer, where any of the ſaid fiſh ſhall come on ſhore, and that no uſe be made of the fiſh by the proprietor or his agent; and the officer is to cauſe the fiſh to be burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 8.

——Red herrings or ſprats, conſumed in curing, to be taken as if actually cured. 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. § 10.

——Salmon and codfiſh cured in Scotland with foreign ſalt, that has paid the duty, to be allowed the ſame bounty on exportation, as was payable before June 24, 1719. 11 Geo. I. cap. 30. § 42.

——White herrings cured with Britiſh or foreign ſalt, may be imported from Scotland into any port of England, for home-conſumption, the importer paying at the port to which they are brought, 3s. 4d. for every barrel containing 32 gallons, and ſo in proportion for half or quarter barrels. Alſo ſalmon, cod, ling, tuſk, and other white fiſh, cured with ſalt made in Scotland, for which the duty hath been paid or ſecured, may be ſo imported for home-conſumption, and the importer, paying at the port to which the ſame ſhall be brought 2s. 4d. for every barrel containing 32 gallons of ſuch fiſh wet, and 1s. 2d. for every hundred weight of ſuch fiſh dry; and ſo in proportion for a greater or leſs quantity. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 7 and 8.

——Herrings, ſalmon, cod, ling, tuſk, or other white fiſh, may be imported from any place of Scotland, or the iſlands thereunto belonging, to any port of England, for re-exportation, the owner of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, making oath that they were caught in North-Britain, or on the coaſts thereof, and cured with ſalt, delivered duty free, from ſome part of Great Britain, and when and where the ſame was ſo delivered: and ſuch fiſh ſhall be entitled, upon exportation, to the ſame allowance and bounties, as by 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. are allowed on exportation of fiſh cured in England, and be ſubject to the ſame rules and regulations. See laſt page of Vol. II. of this work. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 9, 10.

——Such fiſh ſhipped in Scotland for England, whether for home-conſumption or exportation, the proprietor or his agent muſt, before the veſſel departs, make an entry, with the collector or principal officer of the cuſtoms there, of the fiſh ſo ſhipped, expreſſing the number of barrels of wet fiſh, with the mark and numbers; and the number and weight of each ſpecies of the dry fiſh; and declare on oath, that the ſaid fiſh were cured in Scotland, or on the coaſts thereof, and whether they were cured with ſalt delivered duty-free, or with ſalt for which the duty has been paid or ſecured; and that the ſaid ſalt was taken on board from ſome port or place in Great Britain, and when and where it was put on board, and that no drawback for the ſame hath been had, or intended to be had, upon the exportation of the ſaid ſalt. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 12.

——The ſaid officer is to deliver to the maſter of the veſſel, without delay, fee, or reward, a certificate or cocket, under his hand, that ſuch entry and oath have been made; and the maſter of the veſſel, or the proprietor of the fiſh, or their reſpective agents, are, before landing any part of the ſaid fiſh, or putting it on board any other ſhip or boat, in any other port or place in England, to deliver the ſaid certificate or cocket to the proper officer of the cuſtoms in the port of importation, upon forfeiture of ſuch fiſh and double the value thereof, and alſo the caſks or veſſels in which ſuch fiſh ſhall be found; to be recovered of the importer, or proprietor, or maſter of the veſſel. To be ſued for, and levied in ſuch manner, and with ſuch power of mitigation, as any fine, penalty, or forfeiture, may, by any law of exciſe, or by any action of debt, &c. and ſeizure may be made by any officer of the cuſtoms or ſalt duties, &c. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 12.

——Any perſon, who ſhall counterfeit, raze, or alter, any certificate or cocket required by this act, or knowingly uſe ſuch a one, ſhall incur the pains by law inflicted on perſons found guilty of forgery; and any perſon legally convicted of falſely making oath required by this act, ſhall forfeit 200 pounds, and be impriſoned for 12 months. 29 Geo. II. cap. 23. § 14, 16.

——A maſter of any boat or veſſel, bound on a fiſhing-voyage to the North-ſea, or Iceland, may take on board, in any part of Great Britain, any quantity of Britiſh ſalt, paying or ſecuring the duty. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 2.

——Codfiſh, ling, or hake, may be imported and landed, upon oath being made, by the proprietor of the fiſh, or maſter of the veſſel, that they came from the North-ſeas, or Iceland, and were caught or cured there: but on landing, and before they are removed from the ſhore, they are to be tendered to the officer, to have part of the tails cut off, that no allowance be obtained

obtained upon exportation; upon forfeiture thereof, and double the value, to be recovered of the importer or proprietor. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 3.

——Foul ſalt, ſo made uſe of, remaining, to be throw overboard, in preſence of the officer. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 4.

——Salt remaining unuſed, to be entered, and the duties paid down within ten days after the ſhip's arrival into port, otherwiſe forfeited, and double the value to be recovered of the proprietor or maſter of the veſſel (except in caſe of being driven in or detained by ſtreſs of weather, or other unavoidable neceſſity. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 5.

——The maſter of ſuch boats or veſſels, upon producing the certificate aforeſaid to the collector of the ſalt duties, and making oath to the quantity of ſalt in ſuch certificate, and that the fiſh were cured and tendered as above, is to receive gratis, from the ſaid collector, a certificate of the payment of the duty of the remainder of the ſalt, being produced to the collector of the ſalt duties where the duty was paid or ſecured, the ſecurity is to be diſcharged, and the money repaid by the collector, without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 6.

——Boats or veſſels having taken in ſuch ſalt, periſhed at ſea, or taken by enemies, the proprietor, upon proof at the quarter ſeſſions for the county, &c. where he inhabits, within 9 months after ſuch loſs, is to receive a certificate of ſuch proof; which being produced to the officer where the duty was paid or ſecured, the ſecurity to be diſcharged, and money repaid by the officer, without fee or reward. 12 Ann. cap. 2. § 7. Vide HERRING FISHERY.

FLESH——viz. beef and pork, entitled to a bounty; before laid on board for exportation, the caſks to be marked by the ſalt officer. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 8.

——After exportation, fraudulently relanded, or re-imported, forfeited, and 40s. per barrel. 5 Ann. cap. 29. § 29.

——The allowance and bounty, vide laſt ſheet of Vol. II.

FORFEITURES——See the buſineſs of the cuſtoms, the latter end of letter I, INFORMATIONS.

GABEL

G.

GABEL, according to the French duties of cuſtoms, is a tax upon ſalt.

The gabel-duty is farmed, and makes the ſecond article in the king's revenue.

There are three farms of gabels; the firſt comprehends the greateſt part of the kingdom; the ſecond is that of the Lyonnois and Languedoc; and the third that of Dauphine and Provence. There are ſeveral provinces exempt from the gabel, having purchaſed the privilege of Henry II.

This tax had its riſe in France, in 1286, under Philip the Fair. Philip the Long took a double per livre on ſalt, by an edict in 1331, which he promiſed to remit when he was delivered from his enemies, and which he did accordingly in 1345. King John reſumed it in 1355; and it was granted the dauphin in 1358, to ranſom king John. Charles V. made it perpetual; Charles VII. raiſed it to 6 deniers; Lewis XI. to 12; and Francis I. to 24 livres per muid: it has been greatly augmented ſince. Philip de Valois firſt eſtabliſhed granaries and officers of the gabelles, and prohibited any perſons from ſelling ſalt: from which time the whole commerce of ſalt, for the inland conſumption, has lain only in the king's hands, who ſells the whole thereof by his farmers of the revenue.

The produce of this duty is computed to be no leſs than one fourth part of the whole revenue of the kingdom.

GALICIA, a kingdom in Spain, is waſhed on the weſt by the ocean; on the north by the Cantabrian Sea, or Bay of Biſcay; on the eaſt it borders upon Aſturias and Leon; and on the ſouth upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the ſea by the river Minho.

It produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of cattle, eſpecially hogs, whoſe bacon far exceeds that of Weſtphalia; ſtrong mules, good horſes, though not large: but is moſt famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. The country is by its ſituation one of the coldeſt in Spain; but is well ſheltered by its mountains, which alſo afford them plenty of firing, and timber for building houſes and ſhips, as they did formerly produce great quantities of gold, ſilver, and other metals; but thoſe mines are at preſent either exhauſted or neglected, and only ſome few of marble, which is here excellent, are now minded.

GALLOONS, GALLIONS, or GALLEONS, are a part of the ſhips employed in Spain, in the commerce of the Weſt-Indies. The Spaniards ſend yearly two fleets; the one for Mexico, which they call the flota; the other for Peru, which they call the galloons. See the article FLOTA.

Don Sebaſtian de Covarrubias, in his treatiſe of the Spaniſh tongue, obſerves, galeaſſe and galleon take their name from a galley, though they are ſtronger veſſels, and not ſo ſwift, but better to endure the ſea, becauſe of their high deck. Afterwards the charge increaſing, it was found neceſſary to leſſen the number; ſo that in the ordinances of the hiberia [See HIBERIA] or duty for convoys, it was eſtabliſhed there ſhould be 12 men of war and 5 tenders fitted out annually, for the armada of galleons; 8 ſhips, of 600 ton burthen each, and 3 tenders, one of 100 tons, for the iſland Margarita; and 2, of 80 each, to follow the armada. For the New Spain fleet, 2 ſhips, of 600 tons each, and 2 tenders, of 80 each; and, for the Honduras fleet, 2 ſhips, of 500 tons each: and, in caſe no flota happened to ſail any year, 3 galloons and a tender ſhould be ſent to New Spain for the plate.

This was the regular method; but, on occaſion of war, it has been altered. In the year 1630 it was ordered there ſhould be 20 galloons; in 1634 there were 16, and in 1638 they were fixed at 15. As the number has increaſed in time of war, ſo it has diminiſhed in time of peace; accordingly, in 1653, there were but 4 galloons and 2 tenders.

The galloons were appointed to be out in January, that they might coaſt along the Firm Land, and come about the middle of April to Porto-Bello, where, the fair being over, they might take aboard the plate, and be at Havanna with it about the middle of June, where the New Spain fleet would ſoon join them, and they might come together ſafer to Spain: to which end, the viceroy of Peru was to take care that the plate ſhould be at Panama by the middle of March: the plate is 15 days carrying from Potoſi to Arica; eight days generally from thence, by ſea, to Callao, and 20 from Callao to Panama, taking in, by the way, the plate at Paita and Truxillo.

To prevent the fleet being detained by contrary winds, as has happened, it was propoſed to fit the galloons in the river of Seville, in Auguſt and September, and then ſend them away to Cadiz, whence they might ſail with any wind; and need not wait for ſpring-tides.

The reaſons wherefore it was judged neceſſary that the flota from the Firm Land ſhould ſail in September were, becauſe that was a ſafe ſeaſon to ſhip off the goods; they came to Porto-Bello at a healthy time of the year; the merchandize was conveyed over to Panama at a cheaper rate, and with leſs danger of damage; the merchants had time to ſell their goods; the buyers a fit time to travel to Peru with ſafety; and the armada's and flota's to return to Carthagena and Havanna, to get clear of the channel of Bahama, and to return to Spain in the beſt month for the ſea. In fine, it is found by experience, that the month of September is the fitteſt for the fleets to ſail; and, though accidents retard them till October or November, yet that ſeaſon is fitter than March.

By the king's orders, the galloons have put into other ports than thoſe before mentioned, as Liſbon, Corunna, Malaga, Gibraltar, and others, where the plate has, for the moſt part, been conveyed by land to Seville.

Though it is requiſite in general that the galloons, flota's, and all ſhips whatſoever bound for the Weſt-Indies, are to ſet out from St. Lucar, and return to that port, yet there is an ordinance that the galloons, flota's, and any other ſhips whatſoever, for the time to come, ſet out for the Weſt-Indies from the port of Bonanca of St. Lucar de Barrameda, and return to it, on pain of 6000 ducats plate, to be paid by the admiral, captain, or owner of the ſhip that ſhould do the contrary: which ſum is to be levied immediately upon their arrival.—They are alſo declared incapable of going that voyage again, and the ſhips of being employed in that trade; and they are alſo conſtrained to go to St. Lucar without unloading, it being referred to further examination to inflict heavier puniſhments.

Though this inhibition is ſo ſevere, yet ſhips may be forced into the bay of Cadiz by ſtreſs of weather. By reaſon of many misfortunes that happened in getting over the bar of St. Lucar, it was eſtabliſhed in 1665, that no ſhip be admitted to ſail to the Weſt-Indies that exceeds 18 cubits in breadth, and 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ in depth, which, allowing half a yard to a cubit, makes, of our meaſure, 27 feet in breadth, and 12 feet 9 inches in depth.—Another ordinance, in the year 1621, expreſſes that they be not above 550 tons burden. See the article GAUGING of Ships.

Theſe ordinances are now out of date, the galloons and flota being appointed to ſail for Cadiz, by reaſon of the great burden of the ſhips. There has been more ſtrictneſs obſerved, as to the returns of the fleets, by reaſon the concern was greater, as the preventing the running of ſilver and gold, and defrauding the hiberia, or duty of convoy, and the king's other duties; and therefore, as well as for the ſecurity of the port, in time of war, ſhips that have put into Cadiz, have always been obliged to reſort to St. Lucar, without unloading.

Before we quit this point, it is to be obſerved, that, as Cadiz is a place of acceſs, ſo it is of no ſecurity, being an open bay, expoſed to the winds, and no leſs to enemies; but that called Bonanca at St. Lucar is a ſecure harbour, being incloſed on all ſides, and ſubject to no danger but in the entrance.

By the laws and ordinances appointed for the well governing the armada's and galloons, it is forbid making any cabbins or hen-coops on the quarter-deck, or over the round-houſe, or keeping any ſheep or ſwine there.

REMARKS.

In the year 1513, a council of commerce for the Indies was

erected in Spain, and the houſe where they ſat in Seville was called La Caſa de Contractation, for regulating this trade. In 1556 a royal court of juſtice was alſo erected, for determining all diſputes about that commerce, and all other things relating to it.

By virtue of theſe regulations, and their being ſtrictly obſerved, the ſtate of the trade is punctually kept up to the firſt intention, and is, perhaps, the beſt regulated commerce in the world. Some, among others, of thoſe prudent and politic regulations, are as follows:

1. No ſhips are allowed to go to any of the king of Spain's dominions in America, without ſpecial licence from him, which licences are directed out at this court, or chamber of commerce, at Seville.

2. No foreigner is allowed to go to the ſaid New Spaniſh dominions in America in any of the ſaid licenſed ſhips, upon any terms whatſoever, whether to ſettle in the ſaid Weſt-Indies, or only to trade there, Iriſhmen only excepted, and theſe to be all Roman Catholics.

3. No perſon whatever, though he were a Spaniard born, and the king of Spain's ſubject, can go to the Spaniſh Weſt-India dominions without ſpecial licence to be obtained at the ſaid contractation office.

Beſides theſe fundamentals, there are certain limitations to the number of ſhips, and the quantity of goods; that is to ſay, the tonnage or burden they ſhall carry, which is always in the breaſt of the aforeſaid council of commerce, becauſe the quantity of goods ſent ſhould not exceed the demand, and, conſequently, glut the markets, and alſo abate the price and the profits of the trade *: likewiſe it is regulated there, at what times the ſeveral fleets of ſhips ſhall go out, and to what ſeveral places, and when they ſhall be obliged to come away, in order to their return.

* This ſeems to be a very wiſe regulation.

It is alſo regulated, that all the ſilver, gold or jewels, which ſhall be brought over, for whoſe particular private intereſt ſo ever it be, ſhall be regiſtered and entered into the ſhip's books of every ſhip, and likewiſe in a general regiſter in the port from whence the ſhips come, where alſo it is to be ſeen, and duplicates thereof are tranſmitted to the council at Seville.

Some particular goods are not permitted to be loaden in Old-Spain in any of the ſhips, though theſe ſhips are licenſed to go, theſe goods being reſerved to the king to export thither in his own name, or to give licence to others to do it; without which licence the ſaid goods are forfeited, if taken.

The galloons may be increaſed in number, as the king or the council of commerce ſee fit. They go from Old Spain to and from Carthagena and Porto-Bello, and no where elſe. How often or ſeldom the galloons go out, the next fleet of galloons never go out till the laſt are returned.

The other ſhips that ſail from Old Spain to New, are the flota, and Azoga ſhips. See thoſe articles.

The galloons, on their return, go to the Havanna, where they meet with the flota; and then beating through the gulph of Florida till they come to the height of St. Auguſtine, or, perhaps, to South Carolina, they ſteer away for Old Spain.

Some have attempted to make calculations of the magnitude and value of the trade between Old Spain and New; and, if the account taken out of the regiſters of the ſaid council of trade may be depended on, it is a prodigy in itſelf, nor can we venture to vouch the truth of it: for they tell us, according to the regiſters of the council of commerce from the year 1519 to the year 1619 incluſive, being the firſt hundred years of the trade, the value entered or regiſtered, beſides all private trade, was 5000 millions in gold, ſilver, pearl, jewels, and other merchandizes, though, for the firſt 20 years, very little was brought: ſo that it may be called rather 80 than 100 years—There is now paſſed about another century; and, if the former account is true, we are certain that the amount muſt have been conſiderably more within the laſt hundred years.

But, as the merchandizes that have been thus ſent from Old Spain to New, have been conſiderably more for the account of the various other trading nations of Europe, this has tended to the inriching of other nations, rather than Spain.—But the commercial ſyſtem of Spain ſeems now to be intirely changed; and they are likely to become greater gainers by Spaniſh America than ever they were.—See the articles SPAIN and SPANISH AMERICA.

GASCONY, the moſt ſouth-weſt principality of France, is bordered on the eaſt by Armagnac; on the north by Bazadois; on the weſt by part of the ſea of Biſcay; and by Bearn on the ſouth.

It conſiſts of the territories of Landes, Chaloſſe and Turſan.

DAX, or ACQS, the capital city of Landes, drives a good trade, by means of the river, which falls into the ocean about nine leagues below it, and its neighbourhood to Spain.

ST. SEVER is reckoned the capital city of Gaſcony. They trade here in wine, which they ſend to Dax and Bayonne.

GAUGING. In caſk-gauging the officers ought to follow the moſt approved authors on that ſubject. The method which univerſally obtains, and is indeed the beſt for common uſe, is to reduce the caſk to a cylinder of equal content; and this is done by conſidering what is called the variety of the caſk. If you ſuppoſe a cylinder inſcribed in any caſk, and another cylinder circumſcribed about the caſk, there will be a cylindrical ſpace included between the ſuperficies of the two cylinders, the diameter or thickneſs whereof is equal to the difference between the bung and head diameters of the caſk; now the curvature of the ſtaves of the caſk takes in a certain proportion of this cylindrical ſpace; which is greater or leſs, according as the curvature, bend, or bulging of the ſtaves is more or leſs; and this is what determines, and is called, the variety: viz. firſt variety, if very much bulging; ſecond variety, if leſs, and ſo on. It is therefore evident, that the diameter of the inſcribed cylinder may be increaſed, ſo as to take in a portion of the interjacent cylindrical ſpace equal to that taken in by the curvature of the ſtaves of the caſk; and then the caſk and increaſed cylinder will be equal in content. The diameter of the inſcribed cylinder is the head-diameter of the caſk; the thickneſs of the cylindrical ſpace is equal to the difference between the bung and head diameters. All the difficulty, therefore, lies in determining what portion of this difference we muſt add to the head diameter of the caſk, in order to obtain the diameter of the mean cylinder, or the cylinder of equal content.

Now experience ſhews, that, if $\frac{7}{10}$ of the difference between the bung and head diameters of any caſk be added to the head diameter, the cylinder whoſe diameter is equal to this ſum, and whoſe length is equal to the length of the caſk, will contain as much or more than that caſk, though the ſtaves of the caſk have the greateſt degree of curvature that is ever given to them.

And as the difference between the bung and head diameters of caſks is ſeldom very great, the contents of a caſk whoſe ſtaves are quite ſtraight from bung to head, or of a caſk made up of two equal fruſtums of two equal cones, will generally be nearly equal to the contents of a cylinder, whoſe diameter is equal to the ſum of the head diameter of the caſk, and a little more than half the difference between the bung and head diameters, and whoſe length is equal to the length of the caſk. Therefore all the varieties whereof caſks are capable lie between $\frac{5}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$ of the difference between the bung and head diameters: and all that a gauger has to do, is to take ſuch a part of the difference between the bung and head diameters (but always between $\frac{5}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$) as his judgment and experience tell him ſuits beſt with the curvature of the caſk; this, added to the head-diameter, gives the diameter of the mean cylinder.

I think it not amiſs to note here, that the difference between the bung and head diameters may be very great, and yet the caſk have no bulging at all; for the bulging is the bend, or curvature of the half ſtave between the bung and head.

Mathematicians give us abſtruſe theorems for computing the contents of caſks, founded upon a ſuppoſed reſemblance between the curvature of the caſk and that of an ellipſis, parabola, or hyperbola; but they may be as much miſtaken in judging of the curvature, as an experienced gauger between $\frac{5}{10}$ and $\frac{7}{10}$: for, after all, the contents of caſks cannot be determined to a mathematical exactneſs, becauſe the forms of caſks do not exactly anſwer to any mathematical figures. The buſineſs of gauging is at beſt but gueſs-work; but it is ſuch a way of gueſſing as comes near enough to the truth for the common purpoſes of life.

I thought theſe obſervations properly belonged to the article I am upon, and might help to illuſtrate and explain the method of caſk-gauging, and remove that heap of hard words under which the rationale of it lies pretty much concealed at preſent. The reſt I leave to the authors who have treated the ſubject ex profeſſo.

Let me add here ſuch decimal multipliers, for the difference between bung and head diameters, as have been found by experience to be the trueſt, and beſt ſuited to the ſeveral varieties or curvatures of caſks.

Firſt variety, or ſtaves very much bulging -	,7 or 695
Second variety, or ſtaves not ſo much curved	,65 or 63
Third variety, or ſtaves ſtill leſs curved - -	,6 or 56
Fourth variety, or ſtaves almoſt ſtraight - -	,55 or 51

EXAMPLES of the practical methods to gauge caſks, both by pen and ſliding-rule.

RULE.

Take the difference of the bung and head diameters of any caſk, and multiply that difference by the number which ſtands againſt the name of the caſk given in the following table: add the product to the head diameter, ſo will the ſum be the diameter of a cylinder (which, being of the ſame length with the given caſk, will contain as much) ſquare the diameter thus found, and multiply that ſquare by the length, and divide that product by 359 for beer gallons, and 294 for wine.

The multipliers for a caſk, which is taken for varieties.

The middle fruſtum	1. Of a ſpheroid	.7	Greateſt bulge.
	2. Of a par. ſpind.	.63	Next leſs.
	3. Two conoids	.56	Next leſs to that.
	4. Two cones	.51	Next leſs to that.

EX-

EXAMPLE.

Let a cask be taken as the middle fruſtum of a ſpheroid, let the bung diameter be 32 inches, the head 26, and length 50 inches: what is the content in beer and wine gallons, according to this rule?

Bung's diameter 32 inches
26

Difference is 6
Multiplied by .7 as in the table

4.2
Add the head diameter 26

The mean diameter 30.2
Multiplied by itſelf 30.2

604
906

912.04
Multiplied by the length 50

Divided by 359)45602.00(127 beer gallons
And divided by 294)45602.00(155.1 wine gallons.

More examples of this kind would be ſuperfluous; for what is ſaid of a caſk taken as the middle fruſtum of a ſpheroid, may be underſtood of the other three, only, inſtead of multiplying the difference of the diameters by .7, as above, you muſt uſe .63, .56, or .51, according to the denomination of the caſk you are to gauge.

To gauge caſks by the ſliding-rule.

Upon the ſide of the ſliding-rule is placed a line of inches, and under it the three firſt varieties of caſks, viz.

The middle fruſtum of a ſpheroid,
The middle fruſtum of a parabolic ſpindle, and
The middle fruſtum of two conoids.

The uſe of theſe lines is, to reduce a caſk in any of the before-mentioned forms to a cylinder; for which purpoſe you may obſerve the directions following:

EXAMPLE.

Let a caſk be given to be gauged, in the form of the middle fruſtum of a ſpheroid, having the ſame dimenſions as before, viz.

Bung 32 inches
Head 26 inches } What is the content?
Length 50 inches

Firſt ſubſtract the head from the bung, and in this caſe you will find the difference to be 6 inches; find this difference in the line of inches, and againſt that (in the line for the firſt variety) you will find 4.2; which add to the head diameter, viz. 26, and the ſum will be 30.2, the mean diameter of an equal cylinder.

Then ſet 18.94 (the gauge-point for cylinders) on D to the caſk's length, viz. 50 upon C, then againſt the mean diameter, viz. 30.2 on D, you will find 127 on C, which is the content of the caſk in beer gallons.

For wine.

Set 17.14 on D, to the caſk's length, viz. 50 on C; then againſt the mean diameter, viz. 30.2 on D, you will find 155.1 on C, the content in wine gallons required.

To find the ullage of a ſtanding caſk.

RULE.

Divide the wet inches by the caſk's length, and, if the quotient exceeds .5000, add to the ſaid quotient one-tenth part of the exceſs; but, if it be under .5000, ſubſtract one-tenth part of the want; ſo will the ſum, or remainder, be a decimal number, by which if you multiply the content of the veſſel, the product will be the quantity of liquor therein.

EXAMPLE.

Length 50 inches,
Content 155.1 gallons,
Wet 18 inches.
Wet

Length 50)18.000(.3600 this wants .1400 of 5000
.0140 is one-tenth part of 1400

The remainder .3460
Caſk's whole content 155.1

3460
17300
17300
3460

Liquor in the caſk 53.66460

To find the ullage of a lying caſk.

RULE.

Divide the wet inches by the bung's diameter; if the quotient be above .5000, add to it one-fourth part of the exceſs, but, if it be under .5000; ſubſtract one-fourth part of the want; ſo will the ſum, or remainder, be a decimal number, by which if you multiply the content of the veſſel, the product will be the quantity of liquor therein.

EXAMPLE.

Bung 32 inches,
Content 155.1 gallons,
Wet 09. inches.

Bung 32)9.000(.2812 this wants .2188 of .5000
.0547 is one-fourth of .2188

Remainder .2265
Content of the caſk 155.1

2265
11325
11325
2265

Liquor in the caſk 35.13015

EXAMPLE II.

Bung 32 inches,
Content 140 gallons,
Wet 23 inches.

Bung 32)23.0000(.7187 this exceeds .5000 by .2187
.0544 is one-fourth of .2187

The ſum .7731
Whole content 140

309240
7731

Liquor in the caſk 108.2340

Note, If the quotient proves under .2000, or above .8000, inſtead of one-fourth part, add or ſubſtract one-fifth part.

EXAMPLE.

Bung 32 inches
Content 140 gallons,
Wet 04. inches.

Bung 32)4.000(.1250 this wants .3750 of .5000
.0750 is one-fifth of .3750

Remainder .0500
Whole content 140

20000
500

Liquor in the caſk 7.0000

If the caſk you are to ullage be a cylinder, or near that form, the preceding rule will be very near the truth; but, if the bung-diameter be much greater than the head-diameter, then, inſtead of one-fourth part (as above) you muſt add or ſubſtract but one-third part, and multiply the ſum, or remainder, by the content, ſo will the product be what is required.

EXAMPLE.

Let the content of a caſk that bulges much be 136 gallons,
Bung 31 inches,
Wet 11 inches.

Bung 31)11.0000(.3548 this wants .1452 of .5000
.0484 is one-third of .1452

Remainder .3064
Whole content 136

18384
9192
3064

Liquor in the caſk 41.6704

To ullage caſks by the ſliding-rule.

To anſwer this purpoſe, you have two lines of ſegments, which are noted at the right end with Seg. ly, and Seg. ſt, which ſignifies a line of ſegments of a lying caſk, and a line of ſegments for a ſtanding caſk. To theſe lines belong a line of numbers, marked at the right end with N: the uſes of which are as follows:

EXAMPLE.

EXAMPLE.

Let a caſk be in the form of the middle fruſtum of a ſpheroid,

Whoſe bung is 30 inches,
Content is 136 gallons,
Wet is - - 10 inches.

1. Set the bung-diameter, viz. 30 upon the line of numbers, to 100 on the line of ſegments; then againſt the wet inches, viz. 10 on the numbers, you will find 27.4 on the line of ſegments, which keep.
2. Then ſet 100 on B, to the caſk's content, viz. 136 on A, then againſt the number laſt found, viz. 27.4 on B. you will find 37 gallons on A, and ſo many gallons are now in the caſk.

EXAMPLE of a ſtanding cask.

Length 46.5 inches,
Content 138 gallons,
Wet 17.5 inches.

1. Set the length, viz. 46.5 on the line of numbers, to 100 on the line of ſegments ſtanding; then againſt the wet inches, viz. 17.5. you will find 36.5 on the line of ſegments, which keep.
2. Then ſet 100 upon B to the caſk's content, viz. 138 upon A; then againſt the number laſt found, viz. 36.5 on B, you will find 50.5 gallons on A; and ſo many gallons are now in the caſk.

A TABLE, ſhewing (by weight) the quantity of gallons any caſk of ſpirits contains, from one gallon to a tun.

C.	qr.	lb.	oz.	gal
		7	12	1
		15	8	2
		23	4	3
	1	3		4
	1	10	12	5
	1	18	8	6
	1	26	4	7
	2	6		8
	2	13	12	9
	2	21	8	10
	3	1	4	11
	3	9		12
	3	16	12	13
	3	24	8	14
1		4	4	15
1		12		16
1		19	12	17
1		27	8	18
1	1	7	4	19
1	1	15		20
1	1	22	12	21
1	2	2	8	22
1	2	10	4	23
1	2	18		24
1	2	25	12	25
1	3	5	8	26
1	3	13	4	27
1	3	21		28
2			12	29
2		8	8	30
2		16	4	31
2		24		32
2	1	3	12	33
2	1	11	8	34
2	1	19	4	35
2	1	27		36
2	2	6	12	37
2	2	14	8	38
2	2	22	4	39
2	3	2		40
2	3	9	12	41
2	3	17	8	42
2	3	25	4	43
3		5		44
3		12	12	45
3		20	8	46
3	1		4	47
3	1	8		48
3	1	15	12	49
3	1	23	8	50
3	2	3	4	51
3	2	11		52
3	2	18	12	53
3	2	26	8	54
3	3	6	4	55
3	3	14		56
3	3	21	12	57
4		1	8	58
4		9	4	59
4		17		60
4		24	12	61
4	1	4	8	62
4	1	12	4	63
4	1	20		64
4	1	27	12	65
4	2	7	8	66
4	2	15	4	67
4	2	23		68
4	3	2	12	69
4	3	10	8	70
4	3	18	4	71
4	3	26		72
5		5	12	73
5		13	8	74
5		21	4	75
5	1	1		76
5	1	8	12	77
5	1	16	8	78
5	1	24	4	79
5	2	4		80
5	2	11	12	81
5	2	19	8	82
5	2	27	4	83
5	3	7		84
5	3	14	12	85
5	3	22	8	86
6		2	4	87
6		10		88
6		17	12	89
6		25	8	90
6	1	5	4	91
6	1	13		92
6	1	20	12	93
6	2		8	94
6	2	8	4	95
6	2	16		96
6	2	23	12	97
6	3	3	8	98
6	3	11	4	99
6	3	19		100
6	3	26	12	101
7		6	8	102
7		14	4	103
7		22		104
7	1	1	12	105
7	1	9	8	106
7	1	17	4	107
7	1	25		108
7	2	4	12	109
7	2	12	8	110
7	2	20	4	111
7	3			112
7	3	7	12	113
7	3	15	8	114
7	3	23	4	115
8		3		116
8		10	12	117
8		18	8	118
8		26	4	119
8	1	6		120
8	1	13	12	121
8	1	21	8	122
8	2	1	4	123
8	2	9		124
8	2	16	12	125
8	2	24	8	126
8	3	4	4	127
8	3	12		128
8	3	19	12	129
8	3	27	8	130
9		7	4	131
9		15		132
9		22	12	133
9	1	2	8	134
9	1	10	4	135
9	1	18		136
9	1	25	12	137
9	2	5	8	138
9	2	13	4	139
9	2	21		140
9	3		12	141
9	3	8	8	142
9	3	16	4	143
9	3	24		144
10		3	12	145
10		11	8	146
10		19	4	147
10		27		148
10	1	6	12	149
10	1	14	8	150
10	1	22	4	151
10	2	2		152
10	2	9	12	153
10	2	17	8	154
10	2	25	4	155
10	3	5		156
10	3	12	12	157
10	3	20	8	158
11			4	159
11		8		160
11		15	12	161
11		23	8	162
11	1	3	4	163
11	1	11		164
11	1	18	12	165
11	1	26	8	166
11	2	6	4	167
11	2	14		168
11	2	21	12	169
11	3	1	8	170
11	3	9	4	171
11	3	17		172
11	3	24	12	173
12		4	8	174
12		12	4	175
12		20		176
12		27	2	177
12	1	7	8	178
12	1	15	4	179
12	1	23		180
12	2	2	12	181
12	2	10	8	182
12	2	18	4	183
12	2	26		184
12	3	5	12	185
12	3	13	8	186
12	3	21	4	187
13		1		188
13		8	12	189
13		16	8	190
13		24	4	191
13	1	4		192
13	1	11	12	193
13	1	19	8	194
13	1	27	4	195
13	2	7		196
13	2	14	12	197
13	2	22	8	198
13	3	2	4	199
13	3	10		200
13	3	17	12	201
13	3	25	8	202
14		5	4	203
14		13		204
14		20	12	205
14	1		8	206
14	1	8	4	207
14	1	16		208
14	1	23	12	209
14	2	3	8	210
14	2	11	4	211
14	2	19		212
14	2	26	12	213
14	3	6	8	214
14	3	14	4	215
14	3	22		216
15		1	12	217
15		9	8	218
15		17	4	219
15		25		220
15	1	4	12	221
15	1	12	8	222
15	1	20	4	223
15	2			224
15	2	7	12	225
15	2	15	8	226
15	2	23	4	227
15	3	3		228
15	3	10	12	229
15	3	18	8	230
15	3	26	4	231
16		6		232
16		13	12	233
16		21	8	234
16	1	1	4	235
16	1	9		236
16	1	16	12	237
16	1	24	8	238
16	2	4	4	239
16	2	12		240
16	2	19	12	241
16	2	27	8	242
16	3	7	4	243
16	3	15		244
16	3	22	12	245
17		2	8	246
17		10	4	247
17		18		248
17		25	12	249
17	1	5	8	250
17	1	13	4	251
17	1	21		252

GAUGING of ſhips in SPAIN.

1. Under the ſame head which treats of the builders and building of ſhips, in the abridgment of the laws, there are ſeveral relating to the gauging of ſhips: one of which ordains, that there be a gauger and meaſurer of ſhips belonging to the India-Houſe, who is to have 20 crowns a month ſalary.
In Spain the cuſtom is to reckon the contents of a ſhip by tons, each ton being the bigneſs of two pipes, or eight cubical cubits, meaſured by the royal ſtraight cubit of 33 inches, ſuch as a vara, or yard of Caſtille, has 48; or, as it is vulgarly expreſſed, of two-thirds of a yard of Caſtille, and one two-and-thirtieth part of the two thirds. The ſtandard of this cubit is kept in the India-Houſe, as is that of the yard of Caſtille at Burgos, that of wine-meaſure at Toledo, that of the peck and buſhel at Avila, and ſo of others. This meaſure of a cubit was formerly uſed, but was of ſeveral lengths; for, as Covarrubias writes, there was a cubit of ſix handfuls, another of a foot and a half, and another literally taken, which was from a man's elbow to his hand, which ſome pilots have made uſe of in ſounding the bar, which was forbid in the year 1666, and they were all ordered to make uſe of the royal cubit, ſent them for that purpoſe, made and marked by the coſmographer inſtrument-maker of the India-Houſe.
2. For many years the viſitors meaſured the merchant-ſhips, and ſome perſon, appointed by the preſident and commiſſioners, the men of war; afterwards it was found convenient there ſhould be a gauger, and accordingly the employment has been diſtinct ever ſince.

Of ſome of the principal particulars relating to gauging of ſhips, extracted from the ordinances of Spain.

3. It is there declared, that there are five principal parts in a ſhip to be conſidered as to its dimenſions, which are, the length upon deck, from the ſtern-poſt to the ſtern, the breadth at the deck, the depth, the length of the keel, and the breadth in the hold: for, before that time, they only took notice of the three firſt of theſe five dimenſions, but ſince they are ordered to take not only the five, but alſo the narrow of the ſhip both at head and ſtern, and the middle diſtance between the breadth and narrow at both ends; and the owners are to have certificates of the ſame from the ſuperintendant, overſeers, or comptrollers of the docks; or, where there are none, from the magiſtrates, to be drawn by the clerk of the common-council of the place, that by thoſe meaſures the council may compute the burden; and, in order to it, the directions are as follows:
4. The breadth is to be taken from ſtarboard to larboard, upon the upper ſuperficies of the main deck, in the clear, from ſide to ſide, whether the ſaid deck be in the broadeſt part of the ſhip, or above or below it.
5. The height is taken from the main deck, in the ſame part where the breadth was meaſured, to the flooring at the bottom of the hold, without taking up the planks at the bottom of hulks, or other veſſels, built abroad, to thruſt the pole down to the timber, unleſs there be any falſe floor, which ſhall be opened cloſe to the pump, to lay open the bottom plank, and, laying a board on it three fingers thick, the meaſure ſhall be taken there.
6. The length of the ſhip on the deck is to be taken from the ſtem to the ſtem-poſt, along the deck, in the clear, without including the thickneſs of any timbers in the head or ſtern, but from plank to plank.
7. The breadth in the hold is taken directly under the place where the breadth was taken on the deck.
8. The length of the keel, when the ſhip is upon the ſtocks, or careening, is taken from the points where the prow and

poop

poop begin to be formed; but, if the veſſel be in water, the ordinances appoint a method of taking it on the inſide, which has much of geometry and arithmetic, and therefore ſeldom uſed by the gauger.

9. Though the five principal dimenſions are ſufficient to work gauges by, whilſt the ſuperficies of the breadth, both on the deck and in the hold, diminiſh, or grow narrower, towards head and ſtern, according to the known and ſettled proportions, yet, when theſe vary, the computation muſt be altered. And it being rare for ſhips to diminiſh, or narrow away ſo regularly, the ordinances have, therefore, appointed how to adjuſt the difference, in caſe ſhips vary in proportions, and ſettled the matter in reſpect to a ſhip that is 16 cubits in breadth, which is to narrow a cubit in that part which is one-fourth part of the length on the deck, from the broadeſt part towards the head; and two cubits in the fourth part of the ſame length, from the broadeſt part towards the ſtern; and half the breadth of the bottom of the hold, at the fourth part of the ſame length, from the ſuperficies of the ſaid broadeſt part of the bottom towards head and ſtern, which are the places where the ſhip ſharpens, that the water may run the ſtronger to the helm; ſo that, if the greateſt breadth at the bottom be eight cubits, each diſtance of theſe towards head and ſtern ſhall be four cubits wide. And to the end the true proportion may be obſerved in the aforementioned lines, and frauds prevented, it is appointed, that when a veſſel is gauged, the meaſure of the lines along the upper or lower ſuperficies be taken at equal diſtances from the place where the wideſt part is found, and that they be the fourth part of the length upon deck from it, and the ſame in the bottom, obſerving the direction given for taking the greateſt breadth both above and below.

And, to try whether the two lines meaſured parallel to the line of the greateſt breadth are to be multiplied by 15, and the product divided by 16, and if the quotient, or fourth number, give the cubits found in the line meaſured towards the head, then it bears a due proportion to the greateſt breadth; but, if it produce more or leſs, the overplus or deficiency muſt be ſet aſide. The greateſt breadth ſhall alſo be multiplied by 14, and the product divided by 16; and, if the quotient be the number of cubits found towards the ſtern, the proportion is right; if not, what is over or under muſt be noted, and the cubits of half the greateſt breadth of the ſaid ſhips ſhall be divided by 8; and for every one of theſe 8 parts that is wanting in each of the four numbers of the two rules of three, to make up the cubits found in each of the ſaid two lines, there ſhall be added one and half in the hundred, to the burden or bulk aſſigned by the rule of gauging; and, for every one of the ſaid eight parts, the ſame four numbers exceed the cubits found in each of thoſe ſame lines, there ſhall be one and a half abated of what the rule allows.

10. As for the two narrow parts, the ordinance directs, that the two lines taken in the narrow of the hold be tried, to ſee what proportion they bear to the broadeſt part; and, if each of them makes half the line in the broadeſt part, they are right; if not, the cubits of the broadeſt part ſhall be divided by 8, and, for every eighth part each of the ſaid lines ſhall fall ſhort of half the broadeſt part, there ſhall be one and a quarter in the hundred abated of what the rule of gauging allows, and as much added for every eighth part there is over.

11. Having given theſe rules as to the dimenſions, the ordinances direct how to caſt them up three ſeveral ways. The firſt, and moſt uſed by the gaugers, is thus: if the breadth of the ſhip in the bottom of the hold be half the breadth upon deck (let the length above and below, and the depth be what it will) the whole number of cubits of the one is to be multiplied by half the cubits of the other, and the product by half the ſum of the length upon the deck and along the keel, which will produce the content in ſquare cubits, and that divided by 8 will give the content in tons. But, if the breadth in the hold be more, it is to be computed as above has been ſhewn; and the difference between that bottom breadth, and half the breadth above, ſhall be deducted, and, ſubſtracting this ſum from that which ought to be the aforeſaid half, the ſaid difference ſhall be multiplied by half the cubits of the height, and the product hereof by half the length upon deck, and at the keel, added together; and that ſum, if the breadth in hold be more than half that on the deck, ſhall be added, or deducted, if it be leſs, and there will remain the content.

The ſecond way is, when the breadth in hold is more or leſs than half the breadth upon deck, the difference be ſubſtracted, and the half of it deducted from the cubits of the breadth upon deck, if the half of it be more than the breadth in hold, or added, if leſs. When this is added, or ſubſtracted, what remains of the breadth upon deck is to be multiplied by half the depth, and the product by half the ſum of the length upon deck, and at the keel, added together.

The third way is, that when the ſhip, either great or ſmall, has the breadth in hold equal to half the breadth upon deck, three fourth parts of the breadth above be added to half the breadth below, and the product multiplied by half the depth, and that again by half the length upon deck, and at the keel, added together, and it will produce the ſame as the other ways. Which is to be underſtood, when all other dimenſions are regular; ſo if they vary, the difference muſt be adjuſted, as has been mentioned before, and ſhall be demonſtrated.

12. The ordinance declares, that either of theſe three methods above mentioned ſtands good, when the deck is in the broadeſt part of the ſhip; but, if the breadth be above it, there muſt be 3 per cent. deducted for every half cubit; or, if the breadth be below, ſo much muſt be added; to which purpoſe, the broadeſt part of the ſhip is to be obſerved; and when the whole ſum of what the ſaid three in the hundred amounts to, is added or deducted, five in the hundred are to be deducted, for the ſpace the maſts and pumps take up, and the remainder will be the clear content in merchant-ſhips: but, if they are gauged for men of war, and to be hired for that uſe, there muſt be 20 in the 100 added for all the ſpace between decks, and in the ſtern and forecaſtle; for there is different regard had to merchantmen and men of war, for, in the latter, all is conſidered that is for ſtrength and uſe, but, in the former, only that part which ſerves for ſtowage, and is called the hold.

13. Though we have ſet down the rules for taking the gauge of a ſhip, yet it being difficult to practiſe the ſame, by only reading the method and inſtructions preſcribed, we have thought it would not be amiſs to give an example of the manner of working this queſtion; the inſtance ſhall be from the galloon S. Joſeph, which ſerved for ſome years as admiral of the armada, or navy for ſecuring the navigation to the Indies, and afterwards as vice-admiral to the royal navy of the ocean.

14. The galloon S. Joſeph was 21 cubits in breadth upon the firſt deck, 10 cubits and a half in the hold, 10 in height; the broadeſt part of it was in the hold three quarters of a cubit below the deck; 60 cubits in length by the keel, 72 and two thirds along the deck, 20 and three quarters at the half was from the broadeſt part towards the head, 18 and a half at the half way from the broadeſt part towards the ſtern, and 14 and one ſixth in the narrowings at the bottom of the hold, half way towards ſtern and ſtern. Now working by the whole breadth at the deck, becauſe the breadth at the bottom of the hold is juſt half, the 21 cubits of the breadth above are multiplied by 5, which is half the depth, and produces 105 cubits; theſe again multiplied by 67 and one third, which is the half of 134 cubits, and two thirds the length of the keel and upon deck, 7070 cubits. Adding to this ſum 318 cubits, and 15 hundredth parts, to be allowed at the rate of 4 and half in the hundred, for three quarters of a cubit breadth, there is in the hold, under the firſt deck, more than upon it where the dimenſions are taken, after the rate of three in the hundred for every half cubit, as is appointed by the laſt ordinances; which ſame ought to be deducted, if the greater breadth were above the deck. Adding theſe two products, the total is 7388 cubits and 15 hundredth parts, and there being five in the hundred to be deducted for all the room the timbers take up in the hold, and 20 in the hundred to be added for all the ſpace betwixt decks in forecaſtle and poop, as is appointed by the ordinances, it turns to the ſame account, to avoid tedious working, to add to the laſt product 14 per cent. the ſaid 14 per cent. make 1034 cubits 34 hundredth parts, which, added to 7388 and 15 hundredth parts, make the ſum total of 8422 and 49 hundredth parts, produced by the dimenſions, and the breadth of the ſhips under the deck more than upon it.

The ordinances direct, that the proportion for 16 cubits breadth, in the wideſt place upon the deck, be 15 cubits breadth, half way from that towards the head, and 14 cubits half way towards the ſtern; this being known, we muſt add together the twenty cubits, and three quarters this galloon had in breadth, half way from the greateſt middle breadth towards the head, and 18 and half at the half way towards the ſtern, and they make 39 and a quarter: then ſay, if 16 cubits, in the greateſt breadth, give 29 cubits, that is, 15 half way forwards, and 14 half way towards the ſtern, what ſhould 21 the great breadth of this galloon give? The anſwer is 38 cubits and $\frac{1}{16}$, which is the due proportion to its greateſt breadth. Now, becauſe this galloon had 34 cubits and a quarter, in the two dimenſions half way forward, and half way towards the ſtern, the aforeſaid 38 cubits and $\frac{1}{16}$ are ſubſtracted, and the difference is one cubit and $\frac{3}{16}$, which this galloon was bigger in thoſe parts than the true proportion: then ſay, If 1 and $\frac{5}{6}$ come of the eighth part of half 21 cubits, the greateſt breadth of this galloon, and gain 1 and $\frac{5}{2}$ in the hundred, what will one cubit and $\frac{3}{16}$, this galloon was bigger than the proportion, gain? The product is 1 cubit and $\frac{11}{42}$, which muſt be multiplied by the laſt product of 8422 cubits and 49 $\frac{49}{100}$, and gives 114 cubits and $\frac{25}{100}$, the product of one and a half per cent. for the eighth part of half the greateſt breadth; which, added together, make 8536 cubits and $\frac{3}{4}$. The greateſt breadth, at the bottom of the hold, is 10 cubits and a half, which are ſubſtracted from 14 cubits and $\frac{1}{6}$, the breadth of the narrowing of the ſhip in the hold, half way towards the head and ſtern, and the remainder is 3 cubits and $\frac{2}{3}$, which the ſaid narrow parts are together more than the wideſt: then take the eighth part of 10 cubits and $\frac{1}{2}$,

the greateſt bottom breadth of this galloon, and the product is 1 $\frac{5}{100}$, and if theſe yield 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. what will 3 cubits and $\frac{2}{3}$, the exceſs of bigneſs of the leſſer breadths over the greateſt? and I find the 3 cubits and $\frac{31}{63}$; theſe are multiplied by the laſt product 8536 cubits and $\frac{3}{4}$, and it gives 298 cubits and $\frac{10}{100}$, which two ſums added, make 8834 cubits and $\frac{17}{20}$, which, divided by 8, give 1104 tons, and $\frac{57}{100}$, the fraction being the third part of a cubit, the content of the ſaid galloon, according to the given dimenſions, as appears by the following demonſtration:

Cubits produced by the five dimenſions of the breadth on the deck, and in the bottom of the hold, the length upon deck, and along the keel, and the depth - - -	8104 $\frac{34}{100}$
Cubits for the breadth, being more in the hold than upon the deck - - -	318 $\frac{15}{100}$
Cubits for the exceſs of the narrowing upon deck, half way towards ſtern and ſtern, above the proportion - - - - -	114 $\frac{26}{100}$
Cubits for the exceſs of the two narrow parts, half way forward, and towards the ſtern, at the bottom of the hold, above the breadth of the wideſt part - - -	298 $\frac{10}{100}$
	8834 $\frac{17}{20}$
Tuns 1104	$\frac{1}{8}$

To avoid the trouble of ſo many fractions as occur in caſting up of gauges, the beſt way is to reduce the cubits of every dimenſion into inches, ſuch as 33 make a royal cubit, ſo adding, multiplying, dividing, and ſubſtracting under that denomination, and then the total ſum produced is to be divided by 35937, the inches of a cubical cubit, and the product will be royal cubits, which, divided again by 8, will give the tons of the ſhip gauged.

15. The ſalary allowed at firſt to the gauger was 20 ducats a month, which ſoon after was cut off, and no ſalary allowed, but only that the perſon employed, who was therefore either the coſmographer or pilot of the India-houſe, when he was ſent to gauge any ſhip, ſhould have a preſent allowance for his trouble; which was only propoſed by the preſident and commiſſioner of the India-houſe, but never practiſed, and he that is now gauger ſerves the place without any ſalary, being at the ſame time chief pilot of the India-houſe.

The laws of England relating to GAUGING.

I. Stat. 27. Edw. III. ſtat. 1. cap. 8. All wines, red and white, which ſhall come into the realm to ſell, ſhall be gauged by the king's gaugers; and, if any will not ſuffer the ſame to be gauged, he ſhall forfeit the wines, and be puniſhed by impriſonment, and ranſomed at the king's will; and, if default be found in the gauger, that he be not ready to do his office, when required, or that he do fraud in doing his office, to the damage of the buyer or ſeller, he ſhall pay the party grieved his treble damages, and loſe his office, and be puniſhed by impriſonment, and ranſomed at the king's will; and, in caſe leſs be found in the tun or pipe than ought to be, the value of as much as ſhall lack ſhall be deducted in the payment.

II. Stat. 31 Edw. III. ſtat. cap. 5. If any ſell a tun or pipe of wine not gauged, the ſeller ſhall forfeit the wine, or the value, to the king.

III. Stat. 4 Rich. II. cap. 1. All veſſels of ſweet wines of the Rhine, and of other wine, and other veſſels of vinegar, oil, honey, and of all other liquors gaugeable, which ſhall come within this realm, ſhall be lawfully gauged; and, if any will not ſuffer the wines, &c. to be gauged, he ſhall incur the pain ordained by the other ſtatutes.

IV. Stat. 14 Rich. II. cap. 8. None ſhall be diſtrained nor grieved in the Exchequer, nor elſewhere, for not gauging of wines of the Rhine, otherwiſe than has been done of old times.

V. Stat. 18 Hen. VI. cap. 1. ſect. 1. Whereas every tun ought to contain 252 gallons, every pipe 126 gallons, every tertian 84 gallons, and every hogſhead 63 gallons; from henceforth all tuns, pipes, tertians, and hogſheads, as well of wine, as of oil, to be ſold within the realm, ſhall be gauged by the king's gauger before they be ſold, upon pain to forfeit to the king all the wine, &c. contrary ſold, or the value. And, in caſe any perſon ſell to any of the king's people, for any price in certain, any tun, &c. of wine, oil, or honey, which wanteth of the aſſize aforeſaid, he ſhall abate of the price as much as ſuch default ſhall amount unto, upon pain to forfeit to the king the value of all the wines, &c. contrary ſold; any privy covenant to be made betwixt the ſeller and buyer notwithſtanding: and every perſon that eſpieth any of the forfeitures aforeſaid, and doth inform the treaſurer or the barons of the Exchequer, ſhall have the half of the forfeitures.

VI. Sect. II. The gauger ſhall have for the gauging of every tun and pipe of oil and honey, as he hath of every tun and pipe of wine, and for every tertian and hogſhead after that rate.

VII. Stat. 23 Hen. VI. cap. 16. The gauge-penny ſhall not be paid to the gauger, till he or his deputies have gauged the wines, and then he to take his penny without increaſe; and he or his deputy ſhall be ready to do his office in all places, when required.

VIII. Stat. 1 Rich. III. cap. 13. No perſon ſhall bring into this realm any butt of malmſey to be ſold, unleſs it contain at leaſt 126 gallons, nor no veſſels with wines, nor of oil, unleſs the ſame contain the aſſize following, viz. every tun 252 gallons, and every pipe 126 gallons, every tertian 84 gallons, and every hogſhead 63 gallons, and every barrel 31 gallons and a half, and every rundlet 18 gallons and half; and veſſels of wine and oil ſhall not be put to ſale till they be gauged by the king's gauger, upon pain to forfeit to the king all the ſaid wines and oil ſold contrary to this ordinance, or the value. And in caſe any perſon ſell to any of the king's people, for any certain price, any butt, tun, pipe, tertian, hogſhead, barrel, or rundlet, of wine or oil, lacking of the aſſize, the ſeller ſhall rebate of the price to the buyer, as much as ſuch lacking ſhall amount to, upon pain to forfeit to the king the value of all the wine and oil ſo ſold; any privy contract to be made betwixt the buyer and ſeller notwithſtanding.

IX. Stat. 28 Hen. VIII. cap. 14. ſect. 5. All the ſtatutes for gauging of wine, oil, honey, or other liquors, ſhall be put in execution.

X. Sect. 6. Every gauger ſhall truly, within the limits of his office, gauge all tuns, butts, pipes, tierces, puncheons, tertians, hogſheads, barrels, and rundlets, and mark on the head of every veſſel the content; upon pain to forfeit to the party, to whoſe uſe the wine, &c. ſhall be ſold, four times the value of that which the veſſel marked ſhall lack of his content; the ſame forfeiture to be recovered, beſides coſts, by original writ, &c. And every perſon ſelling the wine, &c. in the veſſel marked, ſhall allow of the price, the value of the lack of gauge, or default of filling, upon pain of forfeiture to the buyer, double the value, to be recovered with coſts as before.

XI. Stat. 31 Eliz. cap. 8. ſect. 1. No brewer ſhall put to ſale any beer or ale in veſſels brought from beyond the ſea, within the city of London, or ſuburbs of the ſame, or within two miles compaſs without the ſuburbs, before the ſame be gauged, and the true content of every ſuch veſſel ſet upon the ſame, by the gallon appointed for beer and ale, according to the ſtandard by the maſter and wardens of the coopers of London; nor ſhall put to ſale any beer or ale in any ſuch veſſels, in any other place within England and Wales, before the ſame be gauged, and the content ſet upon the ſame, by ſuch as by ſtatute 23 Hen. VIII. cap. 4. are to have the gauging of barrels, kilderkins, and firkins, made for beer and ale in ſuch other place, upon pain to forfeit all ſuch veſſels, and the beer or ale therein contained, to them that will ſeize the ſame, and upon pain alſo to forfeit for every ſuch veſſel 10 s. the one moiety of which forfeitures ſhall be to the queen, and the other moiety to him that will ſue for the ſame. And there ſhall be taken for the gauging of every ſuch veſſel in London, and within two miles compaſs without the ſame, by the maſter and wardens of the coopers of London, for every butt one penny, for every pipe one penny, for every puncheon one halfpenny, for every hogſhead one halfpenny, and for every tierce one halfpenny, and for every other veſſel after like rates; and there ſhall be taken for the gauging of every ſuch veſſel in all other places, after ſuch rates as are herein appointed to be taken within the city of London.

GELDERLAND, a principality of the United Netherlands, bounded on the north-weſt by the Zuyder Sea, on the north by Over-Iſſel, on the eaſt by the biſhopric of Munſter, on the ſouth by part of the dutchy of Cleves and Dutch Brabant, and on the weſt by the provinces of Holland and Utrecht. The air is much healthier and cleaner than in Holland, and the maritime provinces; and the ſoil in general fruitful in corn and paſtures, and great droves of cattle are annually brought from Denmark to be fattened here.

This province is divided into three quarters, namely, thoſe of Nimeguen, Arnheim, and Zutphen.

I. The quarter of NIMEGUEN is bounded on the north by that of Arnheim, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine; on the eaſt by the dutchy of Cleves, on the ſouth the Maeſe parts it from Brabant, and it has Holland on the weſt.

NIMEGUEN, on the river Waal, is a large city. The citizens are addicted to trade, and make great profit by brewing of beer and feeding of cattle.

II. The quarter of ARNHEIM is bounded on the weſt by the province of Utrecht, on the north by the Zuyder Sea, on the eaſt the Iſſel divides it from Over-Iſſel, and from the country of Zutphen; and on the ſouth the Rhine parts it from the quarter of Nimeguen.

ARNHEIM, the capital of this quarter, is ſituated on the north bank of the Rhine.

WAGENINGEN is ſituated alſo on the Rhine. The chief riches of the inhabtants ariſe from their cattle, and the tobacco trade.

HARDEWYK ſtands on the banks of the Zuyder Sea. In the neighbouring woods they have ſuch plenty of blue berries in the

the ſeaſon, which continues but ſix weeks, that the very freight of what they ſell at Amſterdam, where they are much eſteemed, amounts to 400 crowns.

III. The county or earldom of ZUTPHEN, has Gelderland, properly ſo called, on the weſt, Over-Iſſel on the north, on the eaſt the biſhopric of Munſter, and on the ſouth the dutchy of Cleves.

ZUTPHEN, the capital of the earldom, on the eaſtern bank of the river Yſſel, is a rich and populous city.

The country called the HIGH QUARTER of GELDERLAND, and PRUSSIAN GELDERLAND, though it does not entirely belong to the king of Pruſſia, has Dutch Brabant, and part of the biſhopric of Liege, on the weſt; part of the dutchy of Cleves on the north; part of the ſame dutchy, and of the electorate of Cologne, on the eaſt; and part of the dutchy of Juliers on the ſouth; ſo that it is entirely divided from Dutch Gelderland.

GEMS, a common name for all precious ſtones or jewels.

The diamond, or adamant, is the hardeſt, and moſt tranſparent of all precious ſtones, as alſo the moſt ſimple and homogeneous; ſeeming to be, among ſtones, what gold is among metals. The pſeudo-diamond is ſufficiently pellucid, compact, and weighty, but not ſo hard, nor capable of the luſtre and poliſh of the true. See DIAMOND.

Some naturaliſts divide them more minutely: biſhop Wilkins, conſidering them in reſpect of their value, makes an intermediate kind, viz. middle-priz̀ed. He alſo divides them into more and leſs tranſparent, diſtinguiſhing theſe laſt, by their colours, into red, as the ſardin and cornelian, &c. the more tranſparent into ſuch as are colourleſs, as the diamond and white ſapphire; and coloured, as the ruby, carbuncle, &c.

Dr. Woodward, conſidering them in another light, the value being arbitrary and extrinſic, divides them into thoſe found in larger and in leſſer maſſes; ſubdividing into ſuch as do not exceed marble in hardneſs, and ſuch as do. Theſe laſt make the claſs of precious ſtones. He divides them more preciſely into (1) Opake, which are either of one colour, as the turquoiſe; or of various, as lazuli and jaſper. (2.) Semi-opake, of permanent colours, as the agate, chalcedony, &c. or varying, according to the poſition of light, as opal and cat's-eye. (3.) Tranſparent ſtones, coloured as the topaz, granate, ſapphire, &c. or uncoloured, as the cryſtal, white ſapphire, and diamond.

Dr. Slare ſeems to make the ſpecific gravity their adequate ſtandard, as many bodies appear in all reſpects like ſtones, but want the neceſſary weight; ſuch, e. gr. is chalk, and various other bodies, granted to be ſtones, ſome of them nearer to earths, and others nothing but earth, ſulphur, and metal. Of the former many fall ſhort of the ſtandard of ſtone, and others exceed it: whereas true ſtones, ſays he, though differing in hardneſs, whether pebbles, flints, petrified waters, &c. anſwer the ſame ſtandard of ſpecific gravity as a diamond does; which is to that of water as 2 ½ to 1 *.

* Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 182.

The hydroſtatical ballance, ſays Mr. Boyle, is of prime uſe in diſcerning genuine gems from counterfeit, which too often paſs for true; for, as no qualities are more eſſential to bodies than their ponderoſity, ſo there's ſcarce any more difficultly altered by impoſtors, without diſcovery. In ſeveral caſes, indeed, 'tis not ſo; yet it may be impracticable to make any conſiderable alterations in the quality, without a ſenſible alteration in ſome other qualities, ſubjecting the cheat to a diſcovery.

Many authors are full of the virtues and medicinal properties of gems, but their reputation in this reſpect is a little fallen. Yet, as the fragments are ſtill preſerved by the phyſicians, in ſome of the moſt celebrated compoſitions, and as ſeveral candid and curious perſons have related conſiderable effects of them, on their own obſervations, and laſtly, as 'tis no way improbable the ſofter ones may operate on the body, they are not indiſcriminately to be rejected.

On ſuch conſiderations, Mr. Boyle wrote of the origin and virtues of gems, to ſhew that ſuch ſtones were originally in a fluid ſtate, or made of ſubſtances that were ſo; and that many of their general virtues are probably derived from the mixture of metalline, and other mineral ſubſtances uſually incorporated with them: while the great variety and particular efficacy of their virtues ariſe from ſome happy concurrent ſubſtances of that commixture, e. gr. the peculiar nature of the impregnating liquor, the proportion in which 'tis mixed with the petreſcent juice, and the like.

To ſupport this hypotheſis, he ſhews that many of them are not concretions of any petreſcent liquors, but conſiſt alſo of other mineral adventitious parts; which he argues from their ſeparability in ſome ſtones, the ſpecific gravity in others; and the different tinctures in gems of the ſame ſpecies, as rubies, ſapphires, granates, and even diamonds, of which ſome are yellow, ſome of other colours, and ſome green, almoſt like emeralds. There may, therefore, be in ſome gems numberleſs adventitious corpuſcles, ſome of which may be indued with ſeveral medicinal virtues, and many gems are richly impregnated with them. This is the ſubſtance of what is directly alledged in behalf of gems.

The ſtreſs of the objection is this. The mineral ſubſtances in them are ſo cloſely locked up, that they can have no medicinal operation, being unconquerable by ſo ſmall a heat as that of the human body.

But there are ſeveral particulars which obviate this objection. For a vigorous load-ſtone, though frequently harder than many gems, is known to emit copious effluvia; and have ſometimes had a manifeſt and inconvenient operation on the body, being wore in the pocket, or long held in the hand. Mr. Boyle has found many tranſparent pebbles, which when cut reſembled diamonds, that would emit copious and ſtrong-ſcented ſteams. And, if electrical attractions be owing to the effluvia of bodies heated by rubbing, very ſlight alterations may procure expirations from tranſparent gems, many of which are electrical, even diamonds, one of which Mr. Boyle kept by him, that upon a little friction would attract vigorouſly.

To the objection of their not being digeſtable by the heat of the ſtomach, it may be replied, we know not how far digeſtion is owing to heat. Nor is it proved they can have no operation without digeſtion, as we know not what analogy may be between ſome juices in the body and the mineral parts of the gems. And tinctures have been obtained from hard bodies without heat.

If it be objected, that 'tis unlikely they ſhould part with any effluvia, as they loſe none of their weight, it may be anſwered, that the antimonial cup imparts a ſtrong emetic quality to wine or other liquors, without any ſenſible diminution of weight.

REMARKS.

Before we quit this ſubject of gems, as they are aggregates of the moſt perfect earth, it is to be obſerved, that a knowledge thereof depends upon two principal things, viz. their hardneſs and their colour.

Their hardneſs is commonly allowed to ſtand in this order; the diamond firſt, as moſt compact of all, next after which comes the ruby, then the ſapphire, the jacinth, the emerald, the amethyſt, the garnet, the carneol, the chalcedony, the onyx, the jaſper; and theſe ſucceed the agate, porphyry, and marble. This difference, however, is not regular and conſtant, but frequently varies. Good cryſtals may be allowed to ſucceed the onyx, but the whole family of metallic glaſſy fluors ſeem to be ſtill ſofter.

In point of colour, the diamond is valued for its tranſparency, the ruby for its purple, the ſapphire for its blue, the emerald for its green, the jacinth for its orange, the amethiſt carneol for its carnation, the onyx for its tawney, the jaſper, agate, and porphyry, for their vermillion, green, and variegated colours, and the garnet for its tranſparent blood-red.

All theſe gems, as they are ſometimes found coloured or ſpotted, along with their tranſparency, ſo are they ſometimes perfectly limpid and colourleſs; in which caſe, the diamond-cutter or poliſher knows how to diſtinguiſh their ſeveral ſpecies, from their different degrees of hardneſs upon the mill. For the cutting or poliſhing of gems, the fine powder of the fragments of thoſe that are next in degree of hardneſs, is always required to grind and wear away the ſofter; but, as none of them are harder than the diamond, this can only be poliſhed with its own powder.

Mr. Boyle has many curious obſervations upon this ſubject of gems, in ſpeaking of a diamond that ſhone in the dark; where he finds that ſuch diamonds as are left with ſmall aſperities or inequalities upon their ſurface, through an imperfection in the poliſhing, have all of them this faculty, viz. of ſhining luminous in the darkeſt place.*

* See Boyle's Abridgm. Vol. III. page 152—155.

As to the thing that gives the colour to gems, there are many different opinions, or rather bare conjectures. Thus much is certain, that, whatever it be, 'tis a real ſubſtance, or certain individual opake corpuſcles, that variouſly reflect the light in its motion. But that this body ſhould be copper, for inſtance, which gives the fine blue to the ſapphire, or to lapis lazuli, becauſe it gives the like colour to ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, ſeems the leſs probable, as this colour does not abſolutely depend upon the copper, but upon the property of the ſpirit united with it: for the ſame copper turns an acid ſpirit of a green colour, and with a glaſs ſometimes make a green, ſometimes a red, ſometimes a blue, and ſometimes a black. Upon no better foundation alſo ſtands that opinion of the garnet, as receiving its colour from iron, becauſe iron exhibits ſuch a colour in its glaſs; for iron does not produce ſuch effects as it is iron, but as iron differently prepared; and ſuch preparations thereof are no where to be found natural: for inſtance, the crocus martis made with vinegar*.

* See more of this apud Kunkel. in Neri Art. Vitrar. cap. 32 – 35. and Mr. Boyle of Gems, Abridgm. Vol. III. pag. 118, 119, 120, 126, 127, &c.

With reſpect to the making of artificial precious ſtones, ſee the heads of the ſeveral natural ſtones of that ſort.

Upon

Upon knowing the different methods, ſays Mr Boyle, of producing the adventitious colours of metals and minerals in bodies capable of vitrification, depends the art of making counterfeit gems: for whilſt pure ſand, or calcined cryſtal, gives the body in their preparation, 'tis, for the moſt part, ſome metalline or mineral calx, mixed in a ſmall proportion with it, that gives the colour. Calcined lead, fuſed with fine white ſand, or cryſtal, reduced by ignitions and ſubſequent extinctions in water, to a ſubtile powder, will, of itſelf, be brought, by a due decoction, to give a clear maſs, coloured like a German amethyſt. But this colour may be eaſily over-powered by thoſe of ſeveral other mineral pigments, ſo that with a glaſs of lead, you may emulate the freſh and lovely green of an emerald; though, in many caſes, the colour which the lead itſelf, upon vitrification, tends to, may vitiate that of the pigment deſigned to appear in the maſs. Theſe colours alſo depend ſo much upon the texture of the materials, that we have made the glaſs of lead itſelf, compoſed of about three parts of litharge, or minium, fuſed with one of cryſtal, or ſand, very finely powdered, paſs through different colours, according as we keep it more or leſs in fuſion. But the degrees of coction, and other circumſtances, may ſo vary the colour produced, that, in a ſmall crucible, I have had fragments of the ſame maſs: in ſome of which, perhaps not ſo big as a hazle-nut, four diſtinct colours might be diſcerned.

Beſides the three mentioned ſorts of adventitious colours in metals, there may be others reducible under the ſame head, of which I ſhall inſtance only in two.

The firſt is afforded us from the practice of ſcarlet dyers. A moſt famous maſter in this art aſſured me, that neither he, nor others, can ſtrike the lovely colour called the bow-dye, unleſs their materials be boiled in veſſels of a particular metal. Secondly, metals will afford uncommon colours, by imbuing ſeveral bodies with ſolutions of them, made in a proper menſtrua. Thus though copper, plentifully diſſolved in aqua fortis, will comunicate to ſeveral bodies the colour of that ſolution, yet ſome other metals will not, as I have often tried. Gold, diſſolved in aqua regia, dyes the nails and ſkin, the hafts of knives, and other things made of ivory, not with a yellow, but a purple colour; which, though it manifeſt itſelf but ſlowly, is very durable, and can ſcarce ever be waſhed out. Thus we formerly ſaid, that the purer cryſtals of fine ſilver made with aqua fortis, though they appear white, will preſently dye the ſkin and nails, of a black not to be waſhed off like ordinary ink. And many other bodies may, in the ſame manner, be dyed, ſome of a black, and others of a blackiſh colour.

GENEVA REPUBLIC, excluſive of the city of Geneva, is but of a ſmall extent, not containing above 11 pariſhes. The country in general is very fruitful and populous; it abounds with good fruit-trees, and produces wine, both white and red; the former ſmall, the latter excellent. The only corn ſowed here is wheat, which it's ſoil bears in great plenty; and the republic conſtantly keeps a great magazine of it, againſt a time of ſcarcity, when they ſell it out at reaſonable rates, and at all other times ſell it extremely reaſonable.

The city of GENEVA is conſiderable for its ſituation, as well as its commerce, it being the key and the moſt flouriſhing city of Switzerland. Its manufactures are chiefly gold and ſilver lace, thread-lace, ſilks, ſhamoy leather, piſtols, watches, and book-printing, of all which they have a good foreign trade. Dr. Burnet ſays, it is ſurprizing to ſee the learning there is here, not only among the profeſſors of it, but the very magiſtrates and trading citizens are well verſed in the Latin tongue, mighty well acquainted with hiſtory, and generally men of good ſenſe.—Mr. Addiſon ſays, that here are merchants reckoned worth two millions of crowns, though, perhaps, not one of them ſpends 500l. a year.—He alſo ſays, there are three of the little council deputed for this office, who are obliged to keep together ſufficient proviſion to feed the people at leaſt two years, in caſe of war or famine; that they muſt take care to fill their magazines in times of the greateſt plenty, that ſo they may afford them cheaper, and increaſe the public revenue at a ſmall expence of its members. They muſt not, upon any pretence, furniſh the granaries from their own fields, that ſo they may have no temptation to pay too great a price, or put any bad corn upon the public; and they muſt buy up no corn growing within 12 miles of the city, that the filling of their magazines may not prejudice their markets, and raiſe the price of their proviſions at home.

The lake of Geneva is very remarkable; it is the largeſt in this part of Europe, and, perhaps, in Chriſtendom, except Sweden and Muſcovy. It is navigable by greater veſſels than are ordinarily ſeen in rivers, which, by ſome, are called Geneva ſhips, by others the Rhone ſhips. This lake abounds with perch, and other excellent fiſh, eſpecially trout, ſo large that they are often ſent as preſents to princes, and perſons of the firſt quality.

GENEVA, a liquor commonly called GIN, a ſort of compound ſpirit, which is ſo denominated, as being extracted partly from juniper-berries, &c. It is a liquor common in Holland and England.

REMARKS.

The Dutch have an incredible trade to Straelſund, Stetin, Colberg, Dantzic, Elbing, Koningſberg, Memel, Riga, Revel, Narva, and Peterſburgh, for their geneva, which is only a malt-ſpirit tinctured with the juniper-berry.—And it is ſaid that the Engliſh have arrrived to ſo great perfection in the making of malt-ſpirits, that they thereby ſurpaſs the Dutch in the article of geneva, and rival the French even in their brandies. See the article DISTILLATION. If ſo, we may hope for an increaſe in the exports of our malt-ſpirits of every kind, that leſs may be conſumed at home, and more in other countries: for the Dutch buy large quantities of Engliſh malt for diſtilling, to ſupply other parts with their geneva.—It is ſcarce credible how this liquor is univerſally drank at this time in Muſcovy and Poland; and why may not the Engliſh come in for a conſiderable ſhare of this trade?

GENOA, a republic in Italy, whoſe territories lie in the creſcent, on the Mediterranean Sea, for 150 miles from the town of Ventimiglia on the weſt, almoſt to the territory of the republic of Lucca on the eaſt, and is called the Riviere, or coaſt of Genoa, their country no where extending 20 miles from the ſea, and in ſome parts not 10: the Appenine Mountains in a manner cover it on the land ſide, and ſeparate it from the countries of Milan, Piedmont, the Monferrat, the Milaneſe, and Parmeſan. The tops of theſe mountains are perfectly bare, having neither trees or herbage upon them; but, towards the bottom, they are well planted with vines, olives, and other fruit; but the ſoil yields ſcarce any corn, and their ſea not many fiſh.

GENOA CITY, the capital of this republic, is ſituate in 9 degrees 30 minutes eaſt longitude, and in 44 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, part of it on a level ſtrand near the ſea, but riſes gradually to the top of the hill. The harbour is large and deep, but expoſed to the ſouth-weſt wind, only there is a mole for the ſecurity of their gallies and ſmall veſſels, and the city lies pretty much expoſed to a bombardment, as they experienced in the year 1684, when Lewis XIV. ordered the town to be beat about their ears. See the article FRANCE. There are here large quantities of ſilk manufactured, alſo velvets, tabbies, ſattins, ſilver and gold brocades, &c. as likewiſe fine point, gloves, and ſweet-meats, which are in great requeſt, as well as their ſoap.

ST REMO is a ſmall, but neat ſea-port town, on the coaſts of Genoa, and belonging to that republic, and eſteemed a place of ſome importance. It ſtands on a fertile valley that produces vaſt quantities of oranges, citrons, olives, and other fruits, and particularly many plantations of palm-trees.

NOLI, NAULUM, NAULIUM, ſtands on a pleaſant fertile plain, on the coaſt of Genoa, and was founded by the inhabitants of that metropolis, and thoſe of Savona. It hath a very good harbour, and was once a free port, and very profitable to its citizens; but it hath ſince been ſtripped of that privilege, and much reduced from its ancient opulence, by the Genoeſe wars, ſince it hath been ſubject to their dominion.

SAVONA, or SANA, ſtands on the weſt coaſt, about 10 miles to the north-eaſt of Noli, and, next to Genoa, is the moſt conſiderable city in this ſtate. It appears, however, to have formerly made a much nobler figure than it does now, it having had a very good haven, which brought no ſmall trade thither, but which the republic hath cauſed to go to ruin, that the commerce of Genoa might not be impaired by it. Yet, here is a conſiderable ſilk manufacture carried on, and the place is famed for making the fineſt ſweet-meats. The territory about it is very well cultivated, and produces great variety of fruits, particularly lemons, limes, and bergamots.

PORT ST MAURICE, is another of thoſe places which the republic of Genoa has cauſed to be deſtroyed, to bring the greater trade to their metropolis; ſo that both it and the town are gone to decay.

REMARKS.

The trade of Genoa is in wrought ſilks, which was carried on here when all the ſilks made in the Milaneſe and the Mantuan were formerly negociated here (that is, ſilks were bought here by commiſſion from England and Holland) but this trade is extremely decayed, and both thoſe countries are grown wiſe enough to employ their own people in the ſilk manufacture, and make the goods at home which were formerly bought here.

But there is another trade carried on here, in which the Genoeſe have ſo great a ſhare, and have managed ſo well, that it is thought they have gained more by it than they did by all the commerce of the Milaneſe: this is, that they make moſt of the ſilks which they bought before, in their own little dominion, and employ their own ſubjects: and, as the trade they carry on in theſe goods to Liſbon and Cadiz is prodigiouſly increaſed, it is ſaid they flouriſh more in theſe branches of it, than they did before with all the reſt, not forgetting that they have ſtill a conſiderable commerce with Holland, and ſome with England.

They

They have likewiſe a very conſiderable traffic in paper, large quantities of which are brought to England, beſides what they ſend to Portugal and Spain, as well for their trades to America reſpectively, as for their own conſumption.

This republic, for near three centuries, rivalled Venice in the dominion of the Mediterranean, and the commerce to the Levant; but, after the memorable victory of Chiozza, the Venetians bore away the maritime empire; yet they ſtill maintain no inconſiderable ſhare in the commerce of the Levant, and by the medium of Genoa foreigners carry on the trade of Lombardy.

Their manufactures for foreign markets are, plain and flowered velvets, and others with gold and ſilver grounds; ſattins, tabbies, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and variety of other kinds of rich ſilks. Beſides theſe they traffic in all the produce of the Levant to a conſiderable advantage.

What figure the Genoeſe fleets have formerly made, by means of their commerce, may be eaſily conceived, by the many victories they have gained over the Saracens, Piſans, Venetians, Turks, Spaniards, &c. as well as from their many large conqueſts; ſuch as thoſe of the iſlands of Crete, Sardinia, Majorca, Minorca, Negropont, Leſbos, Malta, and their ſettlements in Scio, Smyrna, Achaia, Theodoſia, and other towns on the eaſtern confines of Europe; but, at preſent, their whole navy is reduced to a ſmall number of gallies, which ſerve only to fetch them ſome corn, wine, and other proviſions; inſomuch that when, in the late queen Anne's war, they had but ſix of theſe gallies in all, and had reſolved to build more, the French king ſent expreſsly to forbid it, telling them, that he knew better than they how many they had occaſion for. See the politic intentions hereof under the article FRANCE.

The great wire-draw to the traffic of Genoa is a kind of free, as well as a fine port; for, on the arrival of foreign ſhips, the merchandizes are depoſited in a grand free warehouſe, no duties of import or export being paid, except in proportion to the ſales that are made, and what remains unſold is re-imbarked without duty.

Of the BANK of GENOA.

The moſt conſiderable body in power in this republic, is that which is called St. George's Bank, and is conſtituted of ſuch branches of the public revenue as have been ſet apart by the government for the payment of ſuch ſums as have been borrowed during the exigencies of the commonwealth, and which hath never been violated, under the greateſt troubles and perplexities of the ſtate. The adminiſtration of this bank being for life, and partly in the hands of the citizens, gives this body a great authority in the ſtate, and a powerful influence over the people. This bank is generally thought a great load to the ſtate, and as a kind of inferior ſenate, which breaks the uniformity of their ariſtocratic government. The people, however, receive no ſmall benefit from it, both as it is a check to their ariſtocracy, and diſtributes the power among more private members of the republic; and, while the republic kept out of the broils of Europe, the bank maintained a circulation for the ſupport of the public credit and their commerce.

But this ſtate having unhappily taken part in a late war, wherein they exhauſted their public treaſure, on which foundation the bank was conſtituted, its credit has received ſo violent a ſhock, as not eaſily to admit of a flouriſhing revival.

Of CORSICA, conſidered as a part of the Genoeſe territories.

It is an iſland, ſituated between that of Sardinia and the ſouthern coaſts of Italy, extending itſelf in length from 41 to 43 degrees of latitude, and from 9 to 10 degrees of eaſt longitude. Its breadth, from the promontory called Capo di Faro, on the weſt, to Aleria Deſtrutta, on the eaſt coaſt, is about 80.—It hath the ſtate of Genoa on the north; Sardinia on the ſouth, from which it is ſeparated by the Streights of Bonifacio; the Tuſcan Sea, Patrimony of St. Peter, and Naples, towards the eaſt; and the Mediterranean on the weſt.

The iſland in general is woody and mountainous, and the ground ſo dry and ſtony, that few things grow on it, of fruits, corn, &c. but by dint of labour. Some parts, however, are more fertile, and produce, with leſs trouble, good corn, neat wines, figs, almonds, olives, cheſnuts, &c. and ſome paſture grounds breed quantities of cattle, as their foreſts do plenty of deer, and other game; and the fiſh that is caught about it's coaſts is in great plenty, and very good, particularly the ton, a kind of ſturgeon; and their ſmall fiſh called, from the neighbouring iſland, ſardines. Some good coral is found about the coaſt, eſpecially in the Streights of Bonifacio.

The people having endured ſo great hardſhips and oppreſſions from the Genoeſe, they revolted from them, and put themſelves under the protection and command of Theodore, baron Newhoff, whom they proclaimed king of Corſica, and who, in an extraordinary manner, maintained himſelf in that dignity for ſome time, and was not a little beloved by them.

The principal articles of king Theodore's propoſitions were,

I. That they ought, as ſoon as poſſible, to ſet about making ſalt-ponds, as the climate of the country promiſed ſo great a quantity of that commodity as might load an hundred ſhips annually; ſo that the crown and ſubjects might draw great advantages from this branch of commerce.

II. That they ought to encourage the working of the iron, copper, and lead-mines, which are diſcovered to extract not only iron for common uſes, but for cannon, bullets, and other things neceſſary to put an end to this tedious troubleſome war, and thereby ſave the groſs ſums ſent out of the iſle to purchaſe them.

III. And, as this iſland greatly abounds with brimſtone and ſalt-petre, they ought to erect gunpowder-mills on the moſt commodious river, to make what quantity they ſhall need in the kingdom, and repair the want under which they have hitherto laboured in this particular, and which has occaſioned vaſt expences to the ſtate.

IV. Agriculture alſo ſhould be ſtudiouſly cultivated, the majority of the beſt lands being neglected: to which end, there ſhould be eſtabliſhed in each pieve commiſſaries, intelligent in this art, who ſhall be particularly charged to take care that the peaſants till each a certain ſpot in their ſeveral diſtricts, for their own advantage; and, in parts improper for the plough, each peaſant ſhall be obliged to plant at leaſt 4000 vines, or 1000 olive-trees; and all ſorts of exemptions ſhall be granted during 10 years, for thoſe grounds ſo newly cultivated.

V. By an ordinance publiſhed throughout the kingdom, one conſtant and uniform meaſure ſhall be eſtabliſhed for all the fruits growing here, ſuch as oil, wine, honey, pitch, tar, and other caſked commodities; and, at the ſame time, one ell, one weight, and one buſhel, conformably to the ſtandards of other trading nations.

VI. All care ſhall be taken to advance the ſilk trade, as the kingdom is ſo well ſituated for it.

VII. And, as nothing can contribute more to the advantage of this nation than a regular foreign trade, and as our kingdom is better ſituated than any other for it, with ſo great a number of good ports and bays, we would have our good citizens accuſtom themſelves to it, by making them ſenſible of the advantages ariſing from ſuch an application. To which purpoſe, we have thought proper to eſtabliſh a council of commerce, at the expence of the crown; the commiſſioners of which ſhall be obliged to purchaſe of our ſubjects all the products of the country fit to be ſent abroad, at a market-price, paying them in manufactures, or our ſilver coin: but if the peaſant will not exchange his products at ſuch a price, he ſhall bring them into the crown-magazines, where a receipt ſhall be given him. The commiſſioners ſhall ſend theſe products with others, and their reſpective invoices, to the conſuls and correſpondents of the crown in foreign parts, with an order to draw out the particular accounts of the produce of theſe effects, in order that there be given to every one what belongs to him. The proprietors ſhall receive at the council of commerce the returns or import of their accounts, on paying (beſides the carriage) 5 per cent. on the capital, to defray the charges; and, if the peaſant be neceſſitous, and cannot wait for the returns unaſſiſted, he may receive from the council the half, or two-thirds of the value of what he delivers, for which he ſhall pay, on ballancing accounts, one half per cent. for ſix months, beſides the 4 per cent. above mentioned. And, to give a greater credit to the ſaid council, we engage ourſelf and crown for it. And we order our conſuls, reſidents, or correſpondents, to contract and negociate only with the ſaid council, and they ſhall ſend us whatever we cannot do without in our iſle. No veſſel ſhall be admitted without the permiſſion of the ſaid council; and our correſpondents abroad ſhall have the ſame credit as thoſe here, and, beſides that, the character of counſellor of commerce of this kingdom.

VIII. And whereas our kingdom abounds in wood, pitch, tar, hemp, and every thing neceſſary for the ſhip building, this article ſhould be taken ſeriouſly into conſideration, as alſo what concerns the fiſhery, &c.

MONIES of account and exchange in GENOA.

Books of accounts are kept in piaſters, ſols, and deniers, and in livres, or lira, ſols, and deniers bank, whoſe ſubdiviſions are by 20 and 12.

The piaſter is equal to 20 ſols d'or, or 100 ſols bank, or 5 lira.

The ſol d'or is equal to 12 deniers d'or, or 5 ſols bank.

The livre is equal to 20 ſols bank.

The ſol bank is equal to 12 deniers bank.

The current crown is equal to 4 liras, or 80 ſols bank.

The ſilver crown, or croiſat of Genoa, is equal to 7 liras 12 ſols bank.

According to Monſ. Larue's Bibliotheque des Jeunes Negocians, &c. publiſhed at Lions in 1747, this ſilver crown weighs in France 720 grains, and it is received at the ſtandard of 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ penny-weights.—The mark crown is equal to 9 liras, 6 ſols bank, or 186 ſols bank.—The piſtole of gold is equal to 18 $\frac{4}{5}$ liras current money, and is received in France at the ſtandard of 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ carats, and it there weighs 126 grains.

The eſtabliſhed courſes of exchange between theſe places which follow are,

GENOA.

Upon	Gives in bank		To receive	
Berlin	100 piaſtres of 5 liras	—	125 rixdollars	more or leſs
Breſlau	100 ditto		126 ditto	
Cologne	100 ditto		128 ditto	
Frankfort	100 ditto		130 ditto	
Lucca	113 ſols bank mon. more or leſs		1 crown of 7 ½ liras	
Novi	122 crowns of 7 ⅗ liras, idem		100 crowns mark	
St. Gall	1 lira		20 kreutz. more or leſs.	

Suppoſe that a merchant owed at Genoa, in bank money, the following ſums, and would remit them to his correſpondents.

		Courſe of exchange
	piaſt. ſols. den. d'or,	
Of Paris	297 11 10	at 99 ½ ſols Tournois per 1 piaſtre
Amſter.	574 12 10	at 92 ¼ deniers de gros per idem
London	1551 14 1	at 54 ¼ pence ſterling per idem
Liſbon	650 5 2	at 880 rees per idem
	liras. ſols. den. bank,	
Madrid	2040 3 6	at 673 marvedies per 1 crown mark.
Legho.	2000 — —	at 93½ ſols bank per 1 piaſt. of 2 os.'or
Rome	1500 — —	at 102 ſols per 1 crown of 10 julio's.
Milan	2500 — —	at 77 ſols exchange per 1 crown of 4 liras
Venice	1800 — —	at 103 marchetti per idem
Naples	1400 — —	at 82 ſols per 1 ducat of 10 carlins
Vienna	1200 — —	at 52 ſols per 1 florin of 60 kreutzers
Palermo	1700 — —	at 45 carlins per 1 crown mark

CASE I.

The exchange of GENOA upon FRANCE.

To reduce 297 piaſtres, 11 ſols, 10 deniers, bank money of Genoa, into livres, ſols, and deniers Tournois of France, exchange at 99 ½, as above.

OPERATION.

Piaſtres 297 : 11 : 10 ſum
The 99 ½ exchange

2673
2673
148 ſols 6 den. for ½ of the ſol
49 9 for 10 ſols, the ½ of the exchange
4 11 7/10 for 1 ſol, the 1/10 of 10
2 5 8/10 for 6 den. the ½ of a ſol
1 7 9/10 for 4 den. the ⅓ of a ſol

2|0)296|0 1 4/10(

livres 1480 : 10 : 4 4/10 Tournois of France, the anſwer.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 297 piaſtres 11 : 10, by the price of exchange of 99 ½ ſols, and take the aliquot parts, as above, and the ſum total will be ſols of exchange, becauſe you multiply the ſum of piaſtres thereby; which, being divided by 20, reduces them into livres, ſols, and deniers of France, and makes the ſum to be received at Paris 1480 livres, 10 ſols, 4 deniers, 4/10 Tournois.

Proof of the foregoing.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the French livres 1480 : 10 : 4 4/10 Tournois, into tenths of ſols, and the price of exchange into the ſame, and divide the ſum by the price of exchange, and you will have the anſwer in piaſtres. For what remains, multiply by the ſubdiviſions of the piaſtre, 20 and 12, and divide by the common diviſor (the tenths of ſols in the price of exchange) and you will have the fractional parts.

CASE II.

GENOA exchanges upon HOLLAND.

To reduce 574 piaſtres, 12 ſols, 10 deniers, bank money of Genoa into florins, ſtivers, and pennings, bank money of Amſterdam, exchange at 92 ¼ pence gros per piaſtre of 5 liras, or 20 ſols.

OPERATION.

Piaſtres 574 : 12 : 10
92 ¼ den. gros

1148
5166
143 ½ = 4/8 for the ¼
46 ½ of ¼ = 1/8 for the 10 ſols
9 2/8 near for 2 ſols the 1/5 of 10 } of the exchange
2 2/8 near for 6 deniers the ¼ of 2 ſols
1 1/8 for 3 deniers the ½ of 6 deniers
3/8 for 1 denier the ⅓ of 3 deniers

4|0)5301|0 5/8

Florins 325 : 10 gros = 5 ſols, or ſtivers, 5 pennings, bank money of Amſterdam, for which the draught ſhould be made upon Amſterdam.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the ſum of piaſtres, ſols, and deniers, by the price of exchange, 92 ¼, and take the aliquot parts as above, and the product will be gros of Amſterdam, 40 of which making a florin or guilder, you divide thereby, and the quotient gives guilders, ſtivers, and pennings, bank-money of Amſterdam.

N. B. As 2 gros is a ſol, or ſtiver of Amſterdam, for the remaining 10 gros, you may call it 5 ſtivers; and, as 1 gros is 8 pennings, the ⅝ of a groſs is five pennings.

For proof of the foregoing.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum of florins, ſtivers and pennings, and the price of exchange, into the ſame denomination of pennings, and divide the ſum by the price, and the quote gives the anſwer in piaſtres of Genoa.—To find the value of the fractional remainder, multiply by the ſubdenominations of the piaſtre, and divide by the common diviſor in the price of exchange, and that will give you the ſols and deniers.

CASE III.

Exchange of GENOA upon ENGLAND.

To reduce 1551 piaſtres, 14 ſols, 1 denier, bank-money of Genoa, into pounds, ſhillings and pence ſterling of England, exchange at 54 ¼ pence ſterling per piaſtre of 5 liras.

OPERATION.

Piaſtres 1551 : 14 : 1
54 ¼

6204
7755
387 ¾ = 6/8 for ¼ of 1551
27 ½ of ¼ = 1/8 for 10 ſols, the ½ of the price of exch.
10 near = 6/8 for 4 ſols, the 1/5 of 20 ſols
3/8 for 1 denier

12)84180(pence ſterling

2|0)701|5(10d.

l. 350 : 15 : 10 ſterling

For proof hereof.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum and price, being both ſterling money, into one denomination, and divide the product of the ſum by that of the price, and the quotient will give the piaſtres: for the remainder obſerve what has been ſaid already.

CASE IV.

Of the exchange of GENOA upon PORTUGAL.

To reduce 650 piaſtres, 5 ſols, 2 deniers, bank money of Genoa, into cruſadoes of Portugal (of 400 rees) exchange at 880 rees per piaſtre of 5 liras bank.

OPERATION.

Piaſtres 650 : 5 ſols, 2 deniers, bank money
880 rees, exchange

52000
5200
176 for 4 ſols the 1/5 of the exchange price
44 for 1 ſol the ¼ of 4 ſols
7 2/6 = ⅓ for 2 deniers the 1/6 of 1 ſol

Rees
4|00)5722|27 ⅓

Cruſ. 1430 : 227 rees, for which the draught ſhould be made on Liſbon.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the piaſtres by the Portugal price of exchange (880 rees) and take the fractional parts as directed. The ſum total being of the ſame denomination with the exchange, viz. rees, theſe muſt be reduced into cruſadoes, the ſpecies whereon Genoa exchanges with Liſbon: and, 400 rees being a cruſado, that is the diviſor.

For proof.

Reduce the cruſadoes into rees, and divide by the price of exchange, and you have the anſwer in piaſtres: for the remainder, proceed as in the foregoing caſes.

CASE V.

The exchange of GENOA upon SPAIN.

To reduce 2040 liras, 3 ſols, 6 deniers, bank money of Genoa, into piaſtres, rials, and marvedies of old plate of Spain, exchange at 673 marvedies for a crown mark of 186 ſols.

OPERA-

OPERATION.

2040 liras 3 ½ ſols
20

40803 ½ ſols, to be multiplied by
673 marvedies the price of exchange.

122409
285621
244818
336 ½ for the ½

186 ſols
34 marvedies

764
558

6344

27460755 ½ dividend ÷ 4342 rials, 10 marvedies, Quotient

which, divided by 8, gives piaſtres 542. 6 rials, 10 marvedies, old plate of Spain, for which the draught ſhould be made upon Madrid.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the liras into ſols, and take in the 3 ſols. Multiply the product by 673 marvedies, the price of exchange, it will produce 27460755 ½ for a dividend.—Multiply ſeparately the ſols in a crown mark, by the marvedies in a rial (34, and the quotient will give rials. The remainder 1947 ½ multiply by 34, and divide the product by the common diviſor, and it will produce 10 marvedies.—To reduce theſe rials into piaſtres, you divide by 8, ſo many rials making a piaſtre; and the quotient gives the piaſtres, &c.

N. B. If what has been ſaid, in relation to the preceding caſes, be attended to, the proof muſt be eaſy.

CASE VI.

The Exchange of GENOA upon LEGHORN.

To reduce 2000 liras, bank-money of GENOA, into piaſtres, ſols, and deniers of Leghorn, exchange at 39 ½ ſols per piaſtre of Leghorn.

OPERATION.

2000 liras
40 demi-ſols

80000 dividend ÷ 187

Piaſtres 427 : 16 ſols, 2 deniers, for which

93 ½ ſols
2 demi-ſols

187, diviſor

the draught muſt be made upon Leghorn.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 2000 liras of Genoa into half-ſols, and the price of exchange likewiſe; and divide the former by the latter product, the quotient will give 427 piaſtres; for the remainder 151, multiply and divide as directed in the foregoing caſes.—For proof attend alſo to what has been ſaid.

CASE VII.

The Exchange of GENOA upon ROME.

To reduce 1500 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into Roman crowns of 10 julio's exchange at 102 ſols per ſaid crown.

OPERATION.

1500 liras, multiplied by
20 ſols

30000 ſols, to be divided by the ſols in the price of exchange, viz. (102) gives 294 Roman crowns, 1 julio, 1 rayoc, for which the draught upon Rome ſhould be made.

INSTRUCTION.

The ſum and price of exchange being reduced into the like denomination, the former is divided by the latter, and conſequently gives the quantity of Roman crowns. For the remainder 12, multiply by 10 julio's, the value of the ſaid crown, and divide by the ſame, it gives 1 julio, and, for the remainder 18, multiply and divide as before.—The reaſon, and proof hereof is ſo plain, that no further explication can be needful.

CASE VIII.

The exchange of GENOA upon VENICE.

To reduce 1800 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into bank ducats of Venice of 24 groſſe, exchange at 103 marchetti, or ſols of Venice, per crown current of 4 lira bank money of GENOA.

OPERATION.

1800 liras, ¼ of which is 450 crowns of 4 liras, to be multiplied by the - - - 103 marchetti of exchange.

1350
4500

46350 To be divided by 124 marchetti, the value of a ducat, you will have a quotient of 373 ducats, 15 ſols; for which the draught on Venice ſhould be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Take the quarter of 1800 liras, and it will give 450 crowns of four liras. Theſe multiplied by the price of exchange of 103 marchetti, and divided by 124 marchetti, the number contained in a ducat, you will have 373 ducats, bank money, and 98 for a remainder, which multiply by 20, and divide by the ſame diviſor 124, it gives 15 ſols; and for what elſe remains, multiply by 12, and divide as before, and you have the money to be received at Venice.

CASE IX.

The Exchange of GENOA upon NAPLES.

To reduce 1400 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into ducats, carlins, and grains of the kingdom of Naples, exchange at 82 ſols of Genoa per ducat of 10 carlins.

OPERATION.

1400 liras, to be multiplied by
20 ſols

82)28000 ſols, (341 ducats, 4 carlins, 6 grains regno, for which the draught ſhould be made upon Naples.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 1400 lira into ſols, multiplying them by 20, the value of the lira, and divide the product 28000, by the price of exchange, (82 ſols) you will have a quotient of 341 ducats. The remainder 38 multiply by 10 carlins, the value of the ducat, and divide by the ſaid 82, it will produce 4 carlins, and 52 ſtill remaining; which multiply and divide as before, it will give 6 grains: ſo that 341 ducats, 4 carlins, and 6 grains, are to be received for the draught at Naples.

CASE X.

The Exchange of GENOA upon MILAN.

To reduce 2500 liras, bank-money of Genoa, into livres, ſols, and deniers, current money of Milan, exchange at 77 ſols exchange of Milan for a crown of 4 liras bank of Genoa.

OPERATION.

106 ſols exchange
4 liras

424 liras, for a diviſor

2500 liras bank, multiplied by 77 ſols exchange.

17500
17500

192500, to be multiplied by - 7 : 6 ſols current

1347500
48125, for 5 ſols the ¼
9625, for 1 — the ⅕ of 5

424)1405250 livres, for a dividend, will give 3314 livres, 5 ſols, 4 deniers, current money of Milan, for which the draught is to be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the 2500 liras, by the price of exchange of 77 ſols of Milan, and the product 192500 ſols, by 7 livres, 6 ſols (becauſe 7 livres, 6 ſols, or 146 ſols, current money of Milan, make 106 ſols of exchange money:) divide therefore the product, 1405250, by the ſaid 106 ſols, reduced into liras, viz. by 424, becauſe the exchange crown of Genoa is 4 liras, and you will have a quotient of 3314 livres, and a remainder of 124, which multiply by 20 ſols, the value of the livres of Milan, and divide by the ſaid diviſor, it gives 5 ſols, and a further remainder of 160; which being multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 4 deniers current; the ſum to be received at Milan for the ſaid 2500 liras of Genoa.

CASE

CASE XI.

The Exchange of GENOA upon VIENNA.

To reduce 1200 liras, bank money of Genoa, into florins, kreutzers, and fenins of Vienna, exchange at 52 ſols of Genoa, per florin, of 60 kreutzers.

OPERATION.

1200 liras, to be multiplied
by 20 ſols,

by the price of exchange 52)24000 ſols, to be divided, will produce 461 florins, 32 kreutzers, 1 fenin; for which ſum the draught ſhould be made upon Vienna.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 1200 liras into ſols, by 20, and divide the product 24000 by the price of exchange of 52 ſols, and you will have the quotient 461 florins, with a remainder of 28, which multiply by 60 kreutzers, the value of the Vienna florin, and divide by the ſaid diviſor, it gives 32 kreutzers, and alſo a remainder of 16; which multiply by 4 fenins, the value of the kreutzer, and divide as before, you will produce 1 fenin; which ſum muſt be received at Vienna.

CASE XII.

The Exchange of GENOA upon PALERMO.

To reduce 1700 liras, 12 ſols, bank-money of Genoa, into ounces, tarines, and grains of Palermo, Sicily, exchange at 45 carlins, per crown mark of Genoa.

OPERATION.

1700 liras $\frac{3}{5}$ bank, to be multiplied
by the 45 carlins of exchange

186 ſols	8500
3	6800
558 diviſor	27 for the $\frac{3}{5}$ or 12 ſols

558) 76527 dividend, (137 ounces, 4 tarines, 7 grains; for which the draught ſhould be made upon Palermo, or Sicily.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the ſum of 1700 liras, 12 ſols, by the price of exchange of 45 carlins, the product 76527 will be the dividend: multiply alſo ſeparately 186 ſols, the value of the crown mark, by 3, the product 558 will be the diviſor, which will give a quotient of 137 ounces, and a remainder of 81.—This multiplied by 30 tarines, the value of the ounce, and divided by the ſaid diviſor, will give four tarines, and another remainder of 198; which multiplied by 20 grains, the value of a tarine, and divided again by the ſame common diviſor, it gives 7 grains; which ſum muſt be received at Sicily.

The reaſon for multiplying by 3 the 186 ſols, which are the value of the mark, is becauſe the ounce of Sicily is compoſed of 60 carlins, and the lira of Genoa of 20 ſols, which is the $\frac{1}{3}$ of 60: the operation is expedited by this abridgment; without which, you muſt have reduced the ſum into ſols, by multiplying by 20, and multiplied afterwards the ſaid 186 ſols by 60, which is avoided by this abbreviation.

The USANCE of GENOA with regard to Bills of Exchange.

London is 3 months Liſbon, Cadiz, and Madrid, 2 months Amſterdam and Hamburgh, 2 months	From the date of the bills.
Rome and Venice, 15 days Florence, Leghorn, and Milan, 8 days Naples, 22 days	Sight.

They allow 30 days grace, after the expiration of the time of the bill, during which, the bearer may nevertheleſs proteſt the bill, and return it, if he will.

Of the Weights and Meaſures of Genoa.

Their meaſure is a cane, and that is of divers ſorts, viz. for woollen, the cane contains 9 palms; another for linen, containing 10 palms; and a brace of 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ palms for ſilk.

Genoeſe canes have been found to make 15 ells in Lyons. 100 Genoeſe canes make 328 ells of Holland, 245 $\frac{1}{4}$ yards in London, 392 ells in Leipſic, 438 ells in Breſlaw, and 367 in Dantzic.

Their weights are as follow, viz. 12 ounces to a lb. 18 ounces to a rotello, 25 lb. to a reve, and 6 reves to a quintal.

100 lb. of Genoa make in Holland 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ lb.; in Lyons 77 $\frac{1}{4}$ lb; in London 73 lb; in Hamburgh 68 lb; in Franckfort 64 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb; in Leipſic 70 lb; in Leghorn 96 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb; and in Venice 110 $\frac{3}{4}$ lb.

The Genoa weights for gold are reckoned thus: 24 grains to a denier, 24 deniers to an ounce; 8 ounces to a mark, of which 130 make about 100 pounds troy weight.

And 100 lb. troy weight is equal to 86 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of their weight of ſilver, wherein they reckon 12 ounces to the lb.

They ſell their wine by the miſerold, reckoning 2 barrels to a miſerold, and 5 miſerolds make a botta divina, which is about 100 pints.

Corn is ſold here by the mina; 20 minas make a tun of 40 buſhels, Wincheſter-meaſure.

Oil is ſold by the barrel; 14 whereof make a tun of 236 gallons of London civil gauge.

Of ſimple Arbitration of the Exchanges, by Orders and Commiſſions, given and received by Draughts and Remittances between Amſterdam and Genoa.

EXAMPLE.

An order comes to Amſterdam, to remit to Genoa at 82d. and to draw upon London for the value at 34 : 4. When the order came to hand, bills for Genoa were at 85d. I would know at what price Amſterdam muſt draw upon London, to compenſate the ſaid loſs by the remittance to Genoa?

33 4
85

166 3
2666 8

82)2833 4(34 6 $\frac{5}{8}$. The anſwer at 34 : 6 $\frac{5}{8}$ Amſterdam muſt draw upon London, to ſatisfy the loſs upon the remittance from Amſterdam to Genoa.

373
45
12

82)544(6
52
8

82)416($\frac{5}{8}$
6

Of compound Arbitration of Exchange.

Suppoſe Amſterdam has orders to remit a certain ſum to Genoa. At the time of this order, Amſterdam can remit at 76 $\frac{3}{4}$ to Genoa, and London to Genoa at 41d. The query is, Whether it will be moſt advantage to Amſterdam to remit directly to Genoa, or to do it by the way of London, the exchange between Amſterdam and London being at 34 : 6, and what is the difference per cent.

If 1 crown be 41d. ſterling.
20s. ſterling be 34 : 6 Flemiſh.
How much Flemiſh will 1 crown coſt?

34 : 6
41

1394
20 $\frac{1}{2}$

2|0)141|4 $\frac{1}{2}$

70 $\frac{29}{40}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$.

Then as 76 $\frac{3}{4}$: : 100 : 70 $\frac{3}{4}$ to 92. 182 decimals.

4 4

307 307)283. 00000(92.182 decimals, which ſubſtracted from 100

.670
.560
.2530
.740
.126

92. 182, &c.

7.817 or l. 7 : 16 : 4 per cent. It is better for Amſterdam to remit by the way of London than directly from Amſterdam to Genoa.

REMARKS.

The better to underſtand the nature of theſe ſort of queſtions in the exchanges, we refer our readers to the article ARBITRATION

TRATION of the Exchanges, the article ENGLAND, and the article EXCHANGE.

The Florentines, Genoeſe, and Venetians, are ſaid to have been the firſt trading countries who fell into the way of negociating money by bills of exchange, and firſt diſcovered the profits and advantages to be occaſionally made thereby. It was they alſo that diſcovered the admirable art of accountantſhip by charge and diſcharge, according to the method of double entry; the nature of which we have particularly ſhewn upon a ſingle ſheet, under the article BANKING.

GERMANY. The empire conſiſting of various ſtates, the reader will find their trade deſcribed under thoſe reſpective ſtates.

GEORGIA, in Aſia, is bounded on the N. by Circaſſia, on the E. by Dagheſtan and Shirvan, on the S. by Armenia, and on the W. by the Euxine, or Black Sea.

It abounds with woods and mountains, but hath alſo many fine and fertile plains, if rightly cultivated. It is but thinly peopled, and hath but few cities, in proportion to its extent and fertility, which muſt be aſcribed to their neglect of manufactures, and infamous traffic in boys and girls, which they diſpoſe of to the Turks, Perſians, &c. Their moſt noble product is their wine, inferior to none; great quantities of which they export into Media, Armenia, and particularly into Perſia, for the king's own table. Though excellent, it is cheap; a horſe-load, or 300 weight of the very beſt, ſelling at the rate of 8 or ten ſhillings of our money, and the middling ſort for half that price.

The country produces likewiſe a good deal of ſilk, which they ſcarce know how to manufacture, but chuſe rather to ſend it into Turkey, eſpecially to Erzerum, where it is wrought in great quantities.

TEFLIS is one of its chief cities; its trade is in furs, which are ſent to Conſtantinople by the way of Erzerum. They alſo ſend from this territory, and others of Georgia, above 2000 camel-loads of the root boya, into Diarbeck, for the uſe of the linnen-dyers, as alſo great quantities into the province of Indoſtan for the ſame uſe.

GORI is a ſmall and ill-built town, but very well peopled, and moſt of its inhabitants merchants, many of whom are rich.

GEORGIA, an Engliſh colony in North-America. See BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA, and SPANISH AMERICA.

GHILAN, with TABRISTAN, provinces in Perſia.

GHILAN is bounded on the E. by the Caſpian Sea and province of Tabriſtan, by Perſian Irac on the S. Aiderbeitzan on the W. and the heath of Mockan on the N.

The country is very beautiful and even, and watered by ſeveral fine rivers, that abound with fiſh, as does alſo the Caſpian Sea, into which they fall, and even to ſuch a degree, that the farming out the privilege of fiſhing there brings in a very conſiderable revenue to the king of Perſia.

This province is the fineſt and moſt fruitful of all Perſia, and produces ſilk, oil, wines, rice, tobacco, and all ſorts of the beſt fruits, ſo abundantly, that it furniſhes a great part of Perſia, and even ſeveral foreign countries, with them.

The province of Tabriſtan has the Caſpian Sea on the N. Ghilan on the W. Perſian Irac on the S. and Coraſan on the E. The country is fruitful, but the air unwholeſome.

AMOUL is a large town, and drives a conſiderable trade in proviſions to Bukara, and eſpecially in plums, which the ſoil of this city produces in abundance, and are delicious.

TABARISTAN is a conſiderable city for weaving and ſelling ſilks and velvets.

GINGER. This root was brought to us heretofore from the Eaſt-Indies, but what is cultivated in the Weſtern Iſlands is more uſed, and much better, being dried with more care, ſo that it is not parched and withered.

Chuſe ſuch as is new, dry, well fed, not eaſy to break, of a greyiſh colour, reſinous within, and of a hot piquant taſte.

Ginger is hot and drying; 'tis uſed in the theriaca, and other compoſitions. Great quantities are uſed in France by the country hawkers and chandlers, who mix it with their pepper.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, in Wales, is a maritime county, having on the ſouth the Severn Sea, or Britiſh Channel, Monmouthſhire on the eaſt, Carmarthenſhire on the weſt, and Brecknockſhire on the north. It is about 116 miles in circumference. The air and ſoil of it are various. Sheep and other cattle abound in all parts of it, there being fruitful vallies among the mountains, which produce very good paſture. Other commodities are lead, coals, fiſh, and butter. It has many ſmall harbours, from which they ſhip off their coals and proviſions, which they ſend in great quantities; the firſt to all the coaſts of Devon, Somerſet, and Cornwall, and ſome to Ireland; and the laſt they ſend to Briſtol, eſpecially butter.

CARDIFF, the capital town, is ſeated on the river Tauye, which falls into the ſea four miles below it, where is a commodious haven; but ſmall veſſels may come up to its very bridge to lade and unlade. 'Tis a pretty large town, is well frequented, and has a good trade with Briſtol, and plentiful markets and fairs for corn, cattle, ſheep, horſes, and ſwine.

Though the Welſh coaſt is generally foul and dangerous, and has never, it ſeems, been well ſurveyed, yet there is a good road before this place, and the courſe to it from the Flat Holmes, or Hungroad by Briſtol, is north-north-weſt.

COWBRIDGE, on the river Ewenny, not far from its entrance into the Severn Sea, has a market well frequented for cattle, ſheep, corn, and other proviſions, and a harbour for boats.

SWANSEY, a large, clean, well-built town, and drives the greateſt trade of any in the county, eſpecially in coals; holds a great correſpondence with Briſtol, and has an exceeding good harbour, where ſometimes a hundred ſhips at a time come in for coals and culm, there being ſeveral very large good coal works in and near it, from whence they are carried into Somerſetſhire, Devonſhire, and Cornwall, and alſo to Ireland, to the great enriching the town and country round.

GLASS. 'Tis controverted among naturaliſts, to what claſs of bodies glaſs ſhould be referred; ſome making it a concrete juice, others a ſtone, others again rank it among ſemi-metals; but Dr Merret obſerves, that theſe are all natural productions; whereas glaſs is a factitious compound, produced by fire, and never found in the earth, but only the ſand and ſtones that form it; but metals are perfectly formed by nature into certain ſpecies, and fire only produces them by its faculty of ſeparating heterogeneous, and uniting homogeneous bodies; whereas it produces glaſs by uniting heterogeneous matters, viz. ſalt and ſand; of both which it evidently conſiſts, 100 weight of ſand yielding above 150 pounds of glaſs.

The chief characters or properties of glaſs are, that it fuſes in a vehement fire; when fuſed, cleaves to iron; does not waſte in the fire, and is the laſt effect of it; is ductile and faſhionable into any form while red-hot, but not malleable; friable when cold; diaphanous, either hot or cold; flexible and elaſtic; diſunited, and broke by cold and moiſture, and eſpecially by ſaline liquors; is only cut by a diamond or emery; acid, or other juices, extract no quality from it; it does not wear by the longeſt uſe; nor will any liquor make it muſty, change its colour, or ruſt; it ſoftens metals, and makes them fuſible; receives all metallic colours, both externally and internally; will not calcine, and may be cemented, like ſtones and metals.

Making of glaſs.

The materials, as already ſaid, are ſalt and ſand, or ſtones. The ſalt is procured from the aſhes of a water plant called kali, cut down in ſummer, dried in the ſun, and burnt in heaps on the ground, or on iron-grates: the aſhes, called pulverine, falling into a pit, grow into a hard maſs fit for uſe. To extract the ſalt, they are powdered and ſifted, then kept in boiling water till one third be conſumed, ſtirring from time to time for the better extracting all the ſalts; then the veſſel is filled, and boiled again till half be conſumed; what remains is a ſort of lee, ſtrongly impregnated with ſalt. Which lee, boiled over again in freſh copperas, thickens, and in about 24 hours ſhoots its ſalt; which is to be laded out, as it ſhoots, into earthen pans, and thence into wooden vats to drain and dry. Then 'tis groſsly powdered, and dried in a ſort of oven. Other plants, beſides kali, yield a ſalt fit for glaſs, as alga, common thiſtle, bramble, hops, wormwood, woad, and the whole leguminous tribe, as peaſe, beans, &c. The ſand or ſtones, called tarſo, is the ſecond ingredient, and what gives it the body. They muſt be ſuch as will fuſe, and the whiteſt are the beſt, ſo that cryſtals are preferable to all others. At Venice they chiefly uſe a ſort of pebble, reſembling white marble. Flints are admirable, and make a pure cryſtalline metal, but the expence of preparing them makes the glaſſmen ſparing of their uſe. Where ſtones cannot conveniently be had, ſand is uſed; which is to be white, ſmall, and well waſhed before it is uſed. Our glaſs-houſes in England are furniſhed with a fine ſand from Maidſtone, the ſame as is uſed for ſand-boxes, and in ſcouring; and with a coarſer for green-glaſs, from Woolwich.

For cryſtal glaſs, to 200 pounds of tarſo, pounded fine, they put 130 of ſalt, mix them, and put into the oven or reverberatory furnace, firſt well heated. Here they are calcined for five hours, during which they are mixed with a rake: and, when taken out, 'tis called frit, or bollito, of which are three kinds; this is cryſtal frit: the ſecond, or ordinary frit, for the common white metal, is made of the bare aſhes: the third, for green glaſs, is made of common aſhes, unprepared, and a hard ſand above mentioned.

Now to proceed to the operation of making glaſs itſelf; they ſet off this frit in melting-pots in the working furnace, adding in each a due quantity of blackiſh ſtone, called manganeſe, which purges off that greeniſh caſt natural to all glaſs, making it more clear and azure. While 'tis in fuſion, the workman mixes the metal well together with his ſquare, ſkimming off the ſand, over which is a white ſalt, called ſandiver, continually caſt up from the metal, and ſwimming on it's ſurface; which, unleſs purged off, would make the glaſs brittle and unfit to work. When the vitrifaction is compleated, and the metal ſufficiently clear, 'tis formed into the works required, by dipping a hollow iron into the melting-pot, and taking out enough for the work intended. While red-hot,

the work-man rolls it to and fro on a marble, to unite it's parts more firmly; then blowing gently ſwells it, repeating till 'tis large enough; then whirling it about his head, he lengthens and cools the glaſs; moulds it in the ſtamp-irons, and flats the bottom, by preſſing it on the marble: 'tis afterwards further faſhioned as occaſion requires, being firſt broke from the blowing-iron. As faſt as the maſter finiſhes them, another takes them up with an iron fork, and places them in a tower over the melting furnace to anneal, and, having ſtood ſome time, they are put into iron pans, which by degrees are drawn further off, that they may cool gradually.

Though cryſtal, in not being fuſible, becomes unſuſceptible of dyes in ſubſtance, yet chemiſts have found means to make it ſerve for the baſis of precious ſtones. For, though it will not fuſe, it will calcine and make frit.

The art of making precious ſtones in glaſs is too curious to be paſſed over; we ſhall, therefore, briefly point out ſome of the leading compoſitions.

To make a ſea-green glaſs, take cryſtal frit, without manganeſe; melt it, and, when clear, a ſalt will be on the top like an oil, which ſkim off, while any riſes. Then mix calcined braſs and zaffer, and add it to the melted cryſtal. Let the whole ſtand three hours, to incorporate the colour; then ſtir and mix again; take a proof, and either heighten or lower the colour.

For an emerald-coloured glaſs, take the ſame frit as before, paſs it through water once or twice to get out all the ſalt; add half the quantity of common white metal; and, when the mixture is well purified, add braſs thrice calcined, and crocus martis calcined with brimſtone and reverberated: if any blueneſs remain, add more crocus.—For a turquoiſe-coloured glaſs, evaporate all the moiſture from ſea-ſalt, till it become white; then powder and add by degrees, to a ſea-green cryſtal metal, mentioned above, mixing well, till the green become opake, which the ſalt, now vitrified, effects. Upon this a little paleneſs ariſes, and by degrees the ſky-blue required.—To make chalcedonies, jaſpers, and agates, in glaſs; diſſolve ſilver in aqua fortis; mix it in a glaſs body, and add ſal armoniac; when diſſolved, add zaffer, maganeſe, ferretto, crocus martis, thrice calcined copper, blue ſmalt, and red lead, all in powder; keep the body ſtopped ten days, ſtirring daily: then ſet in a ſand-furnace; in 24 hours the aqua-fortis will be evaporated, leaving a powder at bottom. Laſtly, take very clear metal, adding to 20 pounds of it two ounces and a half of the powder, mix and let it ſtand in the fire 24 hours; and, when cold, waves and clouds of beautiful colours will begin to appear. Add tartar, vitrified ſoot, and crocus martis, calcined with brimſtone, all powdered and mixed: let it boil and ſettle 24 hours; and then make a glaſs body of it, putting it in the furnace again and again, till fine ſtreaks and ſhades of blue, red, ſea-green, and all other colours, appear; in which ſtate 'tis ready to be wrought into variegated veſſels, &c.

To make a gold yellow in glaſs, mix cryſtal frit with common glaſs frit, and add ſifted tartar and manganeſe; place them in a furnace four days, with an ordinary fire; when well purified and coloured, work it.—For a granate colour, to cryſtal and common frit mixed, add manganeſe and zaffer; put them in a pot, and keep them in the furnace 24 hours.—For an amethyſt colour, to cryſtal frit, add manganeſe and zaffer as before.—For a ſapphire colour, either to common or cryſtal frit, add zaffer and manganeſe; mix and melt them in a furnace, and, when well coloured, work it.—For a black colour, to cryſtal and common frit, add calx of lead and tin; mix, and ſet in a furnace: when melted and pure, add powder of calcined ſteel, and ſcales of iron; after boiling with the mixture, let it ſtand and ſettle 12 hours.—For a ſnow white, to cryſtal frit add calcined tin and manganeſe; mix and ſet it in the furnace to refine, for 18 hours: then caſt the matter into water, and make a proof: if too clear, add more tin.—For a marble colour, cryſta frit melted, and worked without purifying, ſuffices.—For a deep red, put cryſtal frit, broken white glaſs, and calcined tin in a pot to melt and purify; when in fuſion, add calcined ſteel, and ſcales of iron, well powdered, thereto; mix and let them incorporate five or ſix hours. Make an eſſay, and, if the metal be too black or opake, add braſs calcined to a redneſs; mix, refine, and make an eſſay as before, till it be of a blood-red; and work it ſpeedily, leſt it loſe it's colour.

It is no inconſiderable improvement of the art of imitating gems, to make uſe of glaſs of lead; the ſtones, ſo produced, far exceeding thoſe made of common glaſs, or even of cryſtal in point of colour. To pepare this glaſs, the lead is firſt fuſed and calcined in a kiln; then recalcined in a reverberatory fire; and, laſtly, pulverine or rochetta frit being mixed with it, and the whole ſet in the furnace for ten hours, 'tis caſt out into water, and the glaſs ſeparated from the lead. This glaſs may be blown or worked into veſſels, after the uſual manner.—It becomes of an emerald colour, by adding pulverine frit to purify it, and braſs thrice calcined, and crocus martis, made with vinegar.—A topaz colour, by uſing cryſtal frit inſtead of pulverine frit, and half the quantity of yellow glaſs.—A granate colour by adding cryſtal frit, manganeſe, and zaffer.—A gold colour, by adding cryſtal frit, braſs thrice calcined, and crocus martis.—Colour of lapis lazuli, by adding the ſnow white glaſs already mentioned, with the painters blue ſmalt.

REMARKS.

Neri traces the antiquity of glaſs as far back as the time of Job: that writer, ſpeaking of the value of wiſdom, chap. xxviii. ver. 17, ſays, that gold and glaſs are not to be equalled to it: ſo at leaſt our verſion has it, after the Septuagint, Vulgate, the Syriac, St. Jerom, &c. But in other tranſlations, as well as in the original Hebrew, the word glaſs is not ſeen: inſtead thereof, the Chaldee uſes cryſtal; the Arabic jacinth; the Italian, Spaniſh, French, Dutch, a diamond; the Targum, a looking glaſs; Pagninus, a precious ſtone; Vatable, a beryl, &c. The reaſon of all this diverſity ariſes hence, that the original word zechuchich comes from the root zacac, which ſignifies to purify, cleanſe, ſhine, be white, or tranſparent; whence the ſame word is applied to frankincenſe, Exod. xxx. 34. where the Septuagint renders it pellucid: ſo that the word may equally ſignify any thing beautiful and tranſparent, and is by no means peculiarly appropriated to expreſs what we now call glaſs*.

* Merret Obſerv. in Anth. Neri.

Pliny relates, that 'glaſs was firſt diſcoverd by accident in 'Syria, at the mouth of the river Belus, by certain mer-'chants driven thither by the fortune of the ſea, and obliged 'to continue there, and dreſs their victuals by making a fire 'on the ground; where there being great ſtore of the herb 'kali, that plant burning to aſhes, it's ſalt mixed and in-'corporated with ſand, or ſtones, vitrified †.'

† Hiſt. Nat. lib. 36.

Dr. Merret will have glaſs as antient as either pottery or making bricks; for that a kiln of bricks can ſcarce be burnt, or a batch of pottery be made, but ſome of the bricks and the ware will be at leaſt ſuperficially turned to glaſs: ſo that it muſt have been known at the building of Babel, and as long before as that art was uſed; and likewiſe by the Egyptians, among whom the Iſraelites were many years employed in making bricks*. Of this kind, no doubt, was that foſſil glaſs mentioned by Ferrant, Imperat. to be found under ground in places where great fires had been †.

* Obſerv. in Anth. Neri.
† Lib. 25. c. 7.

'Tis controverted among naturaliſts, to what claſs of bodies glaſs ought to be referred: Agricola, lib. xii. de re metall. makes it a concrete juice: Vin. Belluacenſis, lib. xi. calls it a ſtone; and Fallopius reckons it among the media mineralia, or ſemi-metals: but Dr. Merret obſerves, as intimated, that the fore-mentioned are all natural productions; whereas glaſs is factitious, a compound made by art, a production of the fire, and never found in the earth. To obviate this, Fallopius diſtinguiſhes between glaſs contained in it's own mine, or it's own ſtone, and true glaſs that is extracted from the ſame. Now, the latter, ſays he, is more artificial than a metal is, extracted from it's mineral; and as to the former, he urges, that as metal, by having its exiſtence in the ore, ſo glaſs, by having it in the ſtone out of which it is educed, is natural. But this argumentation Dr. Merret overturns, by ſhewing, that glaſs is never found in that form in any mine, but only the ſand and ſtone whereof it is formed; whereas metals are perfectly formed by nature into certain ſpecies, in proper veins, though frequently in ſuch ſmall parcels, that they lie hid till the fire has collected them together, by ſeparating from them the other matters wherewith they were mixed. Accordingly, fire only produces metals by it's faculty of ſeparating heterogeneous, and congregating homogeneous bodies; whereas it produces glaſs by uniting and mixing heterogeneous matters, viz. ſalt and ſand into one. Fallopius, indeed, denies this, and pleads that 'tis falſe to ſay that glaſs is at all made of aſhes: the aſhes are only added inſtead of the nitre uſed among the ancients, the better to extract the glaſs out of the ſubſtance of the ſtone: but this is eaſily refuted: for, if the glaſs were procured from the ſtone alone, the weight of the metal muſt be leſs than that of the ſtones; whereas in reality it far ſurpaſſes it, 100 weight of ſand yielding above 150 pounds of glaſs. Add, that the ſalts made uſe of are of the moſt fixed kind; which, therefore, we cannot ſuppoſe to be carried off by the fire; and that in the coarſer glaſſes, which are corroded by the air, one may diſcern, nay, pick out pieces of ſalt, diſcovering themſelves to be ſuch by their taſte.

Flint, ſand, ſtones, afford different ſpecies of glaſs; and the calces, according to the different manners wherein they are burnt and extinguiſhed, produce different degrees of

beauty

beauty in the glaſs. So the aſhes of plants uſed herein, alſo, vary the goodneſs of glaſs. A fixed alkaline ſalt, ſharp and well purified, mixed with a pure calx of flints, yields a glaſs clearer than amber itſelf. It muſt be owned, that by uſing a great deal of ſalt to a ſmall quantity of flints, the glaſs becomes very clear; but is weak and frail, apt to crack by fire and water, and by age grows dull; and even inſects liquors put into it, and ſometimes deſtroys them utterly. So tea remains uncorrupted in green glaſs, but in the clear kind is totally ſpoiled. Hence, for our art, we chuſe a green durable glaſs, made of a great proportion of earth and a leſs of ſalt, kept long in fuſion, and well elaborated by a ſtrong laſting fire. Conſult Anton. Neri de arte vitraria; the excellent Agricola in his book of metals; Chriſtopher Merret in his obſervations on Neri; and Jo. Kunkel, who, at the expence of that generous prince, the late elector of Brandenbourg, has brought the art of glaſs to its higheſt perfection, in a comment on Neri, Lipſ. 1679, 4to, and more eſpecially in a treatiſe of artificial gems annexed thereto.

There is another ſpecies of glaſs contrived by chemiſtry, which, though tranſparent, is at the ſame time adorned with a beautiful colour, ſo as almoſt to equal the brighteſt native gems. It is made of the pureſt and moſt perfect glaſs, intimately penetrated, and embodied with metals, which thus communicate to it a durable luſtre: in effect, there is ſcarce any gem or ſtone valuable for its colour, but may be imitated in glaſs prepared after this manner. If the art of glaſs-making ſhould once arrive at perfection, as that by means of fire, we might be able to make glaſs once and half heavier than at preſent, we ſhould then, with the aſſiſtance of metals, make artificial gems equally bright and beautiful as the natural ones; ſince, by how much the tranſparent matter is more denſe and ſolid, the more lively and glittering will the metal appear through it. But as art has not yet diſcovered any ſuch method of giving denſity to glaſs, the matter of factitious gems is too porous and rare, and thus produces a weaker and more languiſhing reflection of the rays, which renders them inferior to the native kind. Some have endeavoured to increaſe the weight of glaſs, by adding lead to it, but this at the ſame time increaſes it's ſoftneſs. There is, therefore, ſtill ground for thoſe who purſue chemical enquiries, to endeavour at a method of condenſing the ſubſtance of glaſs, which will amply reward them for their pains.

Decrees of his late majeſty the king of Spain, for ſettling a fabric of cryſtal and glaſs in Spain.

His majeſty, in conſideration of the great importance it is to eſtabliſh in this kingdom a fabric of cryſtal, which foreigners ſupply us with, and by that means drain us of great ſums of money, making uſe of our own ſoſa and barilla, the principal materials of the manufacture, of which there is great plenty in Spain, and in quality ſuperiour to that of all other countries; his majeſty has been pleaſed to grant, at ſeveral times, the three patents mentioned in the royal decree, which was diſpatched to the councils of Caſtile and the finances, January 30, 1720, and is as follows:

'Since the fabric of cryſtal has not taken effect, with which 'Don Thomas del Burgo, and company, charged themſelves 'in the year 1712, when I granted them a patent; and that 'alſo, which Don John Baptiſt Pomeraye, undertook by virtue of a patent I granted him two years ago, met with no 'better ſucceſs; and ſenſible of the great loſs my people and 'my own intereſt ſuſtain, from the decay of this manufacture, I have permitted Don John Goyeneche to collect together, in a place called New Baztan, maſters and 'workmen, that withdrew out of my kingdoms upon the 'diſappointment of the fabric ſet up by the ſaid Don Thomas del Burgo, though the other be not expired, in order 'to ſet up a new one in the ſaid place; in conſequence of 'which, he has collected to the number of twenty families 'of foreign workmen, built for them in the ſaid place a 'very ſpacious dwelling-houſe, together with ovens, and 'other workſhops, neceſſary for all the materials and inſtruments in this important undertaking, and ever ſince it's 'eſtabliſhment has maintained all the people at his own expence; and, having in view the great advantage that muſt 'accrue to my kingdoms from the eſtabliſhment of the ſaid fabric and others of the like kind; on which account, as it 'is my royal diſpoſition to cheriſh and encourage them as 'much as poſſible, I have granted the ſaid Don John de 'Goyeneche a patent for thirty years for the manufacture 'and free vending of cryſtals and glaſs, on the ſame favourable footing, which I granted to the ſaid Don Thomas 'del Burgo and Don John Baptiſt Pomeraye; and that, 'on no pretence whatever, he be taxed for the barilla, which 'under his own direction, or charge, ſhall be ſown, gathered and conſumed, in the quarter adjoining to the ſaid 'fabrics, nor for any other portions he ſhall be obliged to 'purchaſe, of the product of theſe kingdoms; impowering 'him alſo to have the firſt refuſal of theſe materials, at the 'uſual prices, and alſo of the wood which it ſhall be neceſſary for him to buy in the places adjoining to his fabric.

'It ſhall be examined in the council of the finances, and the 'inſtruments for putting this order in execution be ſpeedily 'diſpatched.'

From the face of this royal decree it is viſible, that neither the firſt nor ſecond co-partnerſhip, which undertook this fabric, could ſurmount the difficulties, or furniſh the conſiderable expences ſuch an eſtabliſhment uſually occaſions at it's ſetting out, eſpecially when the maſter-directors happen not to act with honour, a thing often experienced in new projects; or the hands employed in the ſeveral works are not equally dextrous, for the ſkill of ſome may be defeated by an ignorance in others, which is too often met with in thoſe foreigners that have come over on their own heads, (and are not procured) and who generally leave their own country and original buſineſs out of levity, or are rejected by the trade for their unſkilfulneſs.

And, even when the maſters and workmen are very capable and do their duty, theſe difficult and chargeable enterprizes too often miſcarry, as it has ſometimes been found in France, notwithſtanding they collected and brought over artificers from Venice to lay the foundation, and Lewis XIV. for their encouragement, had granted the directors and proprietors many privileges, immunities, and ſupplies of money; however, by perſeverance, and the application of his exalted meaſures, this intereſting project was at length ſo happily executed, that the cryſtals of that kingdom exceed thoſe of Venice both in quality and quantity; and in this inſtance is verified the maxim, that founding ſuch important eſtabliſhments reſembled but ſowing the ſeeds of plants, and wanted the ſteady and due cultivation of a miniſtry, as well as a firm and powerful protection of the prince, to ripen and gather the fruits.

And in every reſpect his moſt Chriſtian majeſty took alſo eſpecial care to facilitate and ſecure a good market for the cryſtal that was manufactured (a thing moſt material for the preſervation of manufactories) by an edict, that laid a duty upon foreign glaſs imported into France of 2000 Spaniſh reals per quintal, while that of French manufacture paid but 15 reals per quintal exported, with a view to encourage, as well the home conſumption of their own goods, as the exportation of them abroad, diſcouraging at the ſame time by ſuch heavy duties the importation of a foreign manufacture.

A few years after, the better to accompliſh theſe two intereſting points, he employed another meaſure, which was an abſolute prohibition of foreign glaſs; ſo that now France not only anſwers her own demands, but exports alſo to other countries; and by this means has drawn money into the kingdom, and put a ſtop to the extraction of conſiderable ſums that went to Venice, in payment for the great quantity of glaſs they formerly had from thence, as every perſon muſt think, who reflects upon the large conſumption there is of it in France, both for what is expended for coaches, windows, looking-glaſſes and other ornaments, and it's being ſo frail a commodity, that, as one blaſt of wind forms, another deſtroys it. Upon the ſame account it is alſo evident, that the conſumption of this commodity muſt be conſiderable in Spain, which calls upon us to employ the moſt vigorous and effectual meaſures, that are any ways practicable, for the encouragement and preſervation of ſuch a fabric, in imitation of his preſent majeſty's grandfather, ſays a learned Spaniard.

Though theſe difficulties, a prodigious expence, and the recent miſcarriage of the two partnerſhips above mentioned in Spain, that had charged themſelves with this undertaking, twice defeated within the compaſs of a few years, diſheartened, as it is natural to imagine, the generality of the kingdom, they were not ſufficient to damp the zeal and reſolution, with which Don Joſeph de Goyeneche, treaſurer of the kingdom, undertook and purſues every meaſure in this important project, which tends to his majeſty's ſervice, and the intereſt of the public; as is viſible from the contents of the ſame royal decree, and will appear farther from other decrees, that ſhall be produced hereafter, when we ſpeak of the many other uſeful manufactories that are ſet up by the ſame perſon, and ſtill ſubſiſt in his two towns of Yllana and Almeda, in New Baxtan, peopled at his own charge, and in other places, that ſhall hereafter be taken notice of. For, in ſpite of the above difficulties, the recent and repeated diſappointments of the project under two partnerſhip, he engaged in it at his own riſk, without any aſſociation; but his own induſtry and fortune laid the foundation, and maintains it at an immenſe charge in New Baztan, where glaſs is already manufactured fit for all uſes.

And though he might have been diſcouraged, by finding it could no longer be ſupported in that place for want of wood, great plenty of which is requiſite for ſuch a purpoſe; yet he has had the ſpirit to engage in the new enterprize of tranſplanting it to the new town of Coron, near the vaſt and ſpacious foreſts of Cuenca, and has ſucceeded in it with a new charge of rebuilding dwelling-houſes and work-ſhops; and alſo to great advantage, both for the goodneſs and plenty of the cryſtals, and the duration of the manufactory.

By the very ſame accident, a ſcarcity of wood, the like miſchance befel one of the partnerſhips that undertook this fabric in France; for, having ſet it up in the ſuburbs of Paris, they were obliged to remove into the neighbourhood of large foreſts, with the advantage of a river to eaſe the expence of carriage.

A memoir on the fabric of glaſſes at St. Gobin.

We have avoided in this memoir a too exact account of many meaſures and eſſential precautions, to be obſerved either in the ſtructure of the furnace, or in the work; becauſe it is juſt to let the undertakers of this manufacture keep to themſelves the knowledge of the particulars, to which they are intitled, excluſive of all others.

The building where the glaſſes are run is called the hall, which may be eleven fathoms long, and about ten and a half broad in the clear. The furnace is in the center, and is three fathoms long, and two and half wide. It is built of very good brick. We ſhall not determine the thickneſs any more than the height of its walls.

There are two doors three feet high on each of the ſides, of two fathoms and a half, and a door three feet and a half high on the longer ſide. The two former ſerve to throw wood continually into the furnace, and the laſt to get the pots and pans in and out, as will be taken notice of hereafter.

This furnace is upon ſolid foundations, and paved with ſquare tiles of a well-baked earth, of the ſame quality as that of the pots into which the matter is put to be melted. It is arched within to the height of ten feet. The tube for the venting of the ſmoke is in the center.

On one of the ſides of the length of the furnace, and at the height of three feet and a half, is the great arched aperture, ten feet wide and three feet high, and ſhaped like the mouth of an oven. They through this aperture put in the ſolder and ſand to be melted in the pots, and through it take out the melted matter which is carried into the pan, when they are ready to run it.

Round the furnace are the walls of the hall, well built with free-ſtone: there are, in theſe walls within, apertures like the mouth of a common oven: the hearth of theſe apertures, which are about four fathoms and a half deep, is two feet and a half from the ground floor. Theſe ſmall furnaces are called carquaiſſes, and ſerve to neal the glaſſes after they have been run.

Theſe furnaces make ſo many ſmall buildings round the hall, and much lower than the under part of the roof that covers it. There are without a like number of apertures of the ſame ſhape, right over-againſt thoſe that are within the hall, which makes a parallel arch three feet high. There are by the ſides of theſe apertures ſmall arched niches, with pipes to give vent to the ſmoke. They light the fire in them to heat the carquaiſſes. A large gallery terminates theſe ſmall buildings, and helps the outward ſervice of the carquaiſſes.

The manufacture is compoſed of many of theſe halls, and of a multitude of large rooms, the upper part of which ſerves to lodge the workmen. It has fine buildings to lodge the maſters, a very pretty chapel, and wide yards, many of which are full of ſtocks of wood of ſeveral kinds. The compaſs of the furnace is very large, and incloſed with good ſtrong walls. The whole is ſituated at the top of a ſmall hill, cloſe to the village of St. Gobin, near La Fere and Chauny, two towns of Picardy. The foreſt of St. Gobin, which is of a conſiderable extent, has given birth to the eſtabliſhment of this manufacture. There are fine ſprings in the foreſt, that ſupply on the declivities of the hill all the water neceſſary for the work. Stone is very good and very common there: they even now and then draw ſome out of the incloſure of the manufacture.

The matter of which the glaſſes are made, is a compoſition of ſolder, and of a very white ſand, which is fetched from the neighbourhood of Creil, a place 11 leagues diſtant from Paris. There are above 200 people employed round tables in the halls, about cleaning and picking the ſolder and ſand, to take all heterogeneous bodies out of them. After this, the whole is waſhed ſeveral times, and dried ſo as to be pulverized in a mill, conſiſting of many peſtles, which are moved by horſes that turn round with their eyes blindfold. This done, the ſand is ſifted through ſilk ſieves, and then carried to be dried in narrow places, contrived in the corners of the furnace, four feet and a half from the ground-floor, whence it is put into the pots to be melted, in the manner hereafter mentioned. The largeſt glaſſes are run; the middle-ſized and ſmall ones are blown. I ſhall begin with the deſcription of the running.

The aboveſaid furnace is not ſufficiently heated before it has conſumed 50 cords * of wood: it is able, after that, to melt the ſolder and ſand. It keeps the ſame degree of heat, by a continual ſupply of wood. This is done by two men in their ſhirts, who are relieved every ſix hours. The furnace is never extinguiſhed but at ſix months end, in order to be rebuilt. During this time, they rebuild that which was extinguiſhed before the furnace actually made uſe of was employed, and make the neceſſary repairs in both the hall and the carquaiſſes.

* The French cord is two cart loads.

The furnace contains many pots, formed like crucibles, three feet high, and about as much in diameter, of a well-baked earth, of a whitiſh colour, inclining to that of tripoly. Theſe pots may hold the quantity of a hogſhead of wine, and are very coſtly. Few of them will hold out the full ſix months of the furnace's being hot. It happens ſometimes that the pots break when full of matter, which is a conſiderable loſs to the manufacture.

Theſe pots being in the oven, the ſolder and ſand are put into them by the men who run the glaſſes, who have in hand an iron ſhovel, in form of the ſcoop that ſerves to take the water out of a boat, and which is full of either ſand or ſolder: they paſs one after another before the maſter-poker, who puts a ſmall quantity on each ſhovel-ful, to facilitate the melting of it, by repeating the ſame mixture till the pots are quite full. The ſolder and ſand remain in the pots for 36 hours together, after which the matter is fit to be run.

All hands are now ready for the running of the glaſſes. They begin by emptying, with a large iron ladle, the matter out of one of the pots into a pan, which is put into the furnace for that purpoſe. This pan is of the ſame earth as that of the pots, and may be 36 inches long, 18 inches wide, and as many deep: there are ſome 30 inches long, with the ſame depth and width as the reſt. There are in the length of theſe pans notches three inches wide, to ſtop them on the ſides of the ſledge, which is all iron, and very low: the tail of this ſledge forms a ſquare kind of pincers, which, when ſhut into the pan, takes off the notches. The two ſides of theſe pincers, ſtretched out in the form of an X, make the ſhaft of the ſledge. The motion of theſe pincers is made upon the axle-tree of the ſledge, where there is a large iron peg that croſſes it, and is ſtopped with a pin. They fix the pan upon the ſledge, with an iron chain on the ſide of the ſhaft.

Several workmen carry the ſledge over againſt one of the heated carquaiſſes, where the glaſs is to be run upon a table of caſt iron, which is horizontal, and level with the hearth of that carquaiſſe. This table is 10 feet long, and 5 feet wide, and ſtands ſolid upon a timber-ſupport.

They put, in a parallel direction upon this table, a couple of flat iron bars, or rulers, of the thickneſs intended in the glaſs, and which ſerve alſo to fix the width of it, by their diſtance from each other. They put on the right ſide of the table an engine, in form of a crane, which is faſtened to the wall at top, and ends at the bottom in a pivot, to make it turn as occaſion requires. This machine is full three fathoms high, its croſs-piece a fathom in length, and its upright beam 8 or 10 inches thick. This engine is moveable, and they carry it to all the carquaiſſes. It ſerves to lift the tub above the table, by means of a couple of iron bars, nine feet long, and forged ſo as to clip the whole tub, that it may be eaſily inclined, and the matter run out of it upon the table. There are four iron chains to ſupport the pincers, which unite at a big rope, that runs through a couple of pullies in the croſs-beam of the crane. The whole is lifted up or lowered with a cric*.

* Cric is the French word to be tranſlated here: it is the dented machine that ſerves wheel-wrights and coach-makers to lift up the wheel of a coach or cart from the ground, to make it turn freely upon its axle-tree when any thing is to be mended in it, and to ſupport the coach on the ſide. There are many iron teeth in a cric, which move up and down with a turning handle.

There is at the foot of the table a roller of caſt iron, five feet long, and a foot in diameter, reſting upon a couple of timber treſſels. This roller being laid upon the rulers, or bars on the table, that raiſe above the ſaid table the pan full of matter, led by two men, who holding the two ſides of the bars, they graſp it like pincers, cauſe the pan to ſwing in the manner of a ſweep, and pour down the matter before the roller, which is held by a couple of workmen. Theſe people make it roll ſwiftly, and in a parallel ſituation, over the matter towards the carquaiſſe, and roll it back the ſame way, to bring it to its place again. They have the upper half of their body, and their face, wrapped up in a thick ſarp cloth, to preſerve themſelves from the dartings of the fire.

There are on the three other ſides of the table ſmall wooden troughs, full of water, to receive the overplus of the matter juſt run. The men that run the glaſſes are 20 in number at leaſt, and act ſo perfectly in concert, that the work is done quickly, and without confuſion, every one having his peculiar province.

The running of the glaſſes is performed in preſence of the head of the glaſs-houſe, attended by the overſeer and the ſecretary. When the glaſs is run, theſe gentlemen examine it, whether there are any bubbles in it: theſe are ſmall places, ſhining like ſtars when the glaſs is hot. If any are perceived, the glaſs is cut directly in that place; if it is at the third or fourth part of the glaſs, the parts cut off ſerve to make ſmall glaſſes: when they are but ſhards, they are thrown among the waſte.

The glaſs being cooled, and declared good, or free from bubbles, by the approbation of the inſpectors, they puſh it off the table into the carquaiſſe level to it. This is done with an iron raker, as wide as the table, that has a handle two fathoms long.

There are on the other ſide of the carquaiſſe without workmen, who, with iron hooks, pull the glaſs to them, and range

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it in the carquaiſſe, which holds ſix large glaſſes. When it is full, they ſtop its apertures with the doors, which are of baked earth, and every chink of them with cement, that the glaſſes may be ſmothered and better heated. They remain in that condition for a fortnight, and then are drawn out with all imaginable caution, to be put in boxes, and ſent by water to Paris, where they are poliſhed.

It may be obſerved, that the oven-full, or the quantity of matter commonly prepared, ſupplies the running of 18 glaſſes, which is performed in 18 hours, being an hour for each glaſs. The workmen work but ſix hours, and are relieved by others, who perform the ſame operations, tranſporting both the crane and the table near another carquaiſſe.

The manufacture would make vaſt profits, if the 18 glaſſes did all ſucceed, and were all of their intended meaſure; but there are ſometimes runnings in which not one of the glaſſes will be able to preſerve the fineſt ſize, whith is 100 inches in length, and 50 in width: however, many of them ſucceed with theſe dimenſions.

The laſt glaſs being run, they ſcour the pots before they put into the furnace the matter of another running, which is to begin 36 hours after the foregoing: ſo that they put the matter into the furnace, and begin to run it, every 54 hours. The men who run the glaſs have nothing to do whilſt the matter is melting, except thoſe who are appointed to watch the fire.

Theſe are all the particulars belonging to the running: let us now ſee thoſe of the blowing of glaſſes.

The hall of the blown glaſſes is ſmaller than that of the running: it is made in the ſame manner, with this difference, that there are no carquaiſſes round it. But there is, over-againſt the furnace, a large covered gallery, 12 feet wide, in the middle of a building which is above 12 fathoms long: there are all along, and to both the right and left of this gallery, carquaiſſes, the hearth of which is raiſed four inches above the ground-floor: they are 15 feet deep, and their arches three feet high, like thoſe of the run glaſſes. The furnace here, as well as in the running, is not heated above ſix months together; ſo that there is a ſecond hall to perform the blowing, whilſt they are making all proper repairs in that at reſt: the pots are of the ſame earth as thoſe of the run glaſſes. They are ſcoured, and the matter put in the furnace in the ſame manner. The matter is melting the ſame ſpace of time, to be fit for the blowing of glaſſes, which are all of them leſs than 40 or 50 inches.

The workman who blows the glaſſes when the matter is melted, takes an iron cane, ſix feet long, and two inches in diameter, bored hollow quite through, ſharpened at the end which is put in the mouth, and widened at the other, that the matter may adhere to it. He dips this cane into one of the pots, through the mouth of the furnace, and by that means takes up a ſmall ball of matter, four inches in diameter, which ſticks to that end of the cane by conſtantly turning it. Then he takes it out, and blows a little into the cane, that the air may ſwell this ball of matter. Next to this, he carries his cane over a large round bucket, full of water, and reſting upon a three-footed ſupport, at the height of four feet; then with his hand he takes water and ſprinkles the end of the cane to which the ball of matter ſticks, ſtill turning the cane, that, by this cooling, the matter may coaleſce, and make but one body with the cane, ſo as that it may ſuſtain a greater weight.

This operation being over, he again dips the cane into the ſame pot, to take a greater quantity of matter, ſtill turning the cane as before: he takes it out, and cools it in the above-mentioned manner.

He, for the third and laſt time, takes in the ſame pot a quantity of matter ſufficient to make his glaſs. He takes the cane out of the pot, loaded with matter, and being of the ſhape of a large pear, which may be 10 inches in diameter, and a foot long, he goes to the bucket, and cools it at the tail: this cooling is performed more quickly than the other two, not to loſe the opportunity of the heat of this maſs of matter. He at the ſame time blows into his cane, and, with the aſſiſtance of one of the labourers, gives his cane a ballancing motion, which cauſes the matter to lengthen, and which, by being thus blown and lengthened ſeveral times over, aſſumes the form of a cylinder, ending like a ball at bottom, and in a point at top, which ſticks to the cane only by means of the ſeveral coolings already mentioned.

When the workman has blown ſufficiently, and lengthened his matter ſo as to make it become of an even thickneſs, he deſires his aſſiſtant to mount upon a ſtool, three feet and a half high, on which there are two ſmall upright pieces of timber, with a croſs beam of the ſame, to ſupport the weight of the glaſs and cane, which are kept ſomewhat obliquely by the aſſiſtant, that the maſter may, with a punchion ſet in a wooden handle, and with a mallet, make a hole into the maſs. This hole is drilled at the center of the ball that terminates the cylinder: it is an inch in diameter at moſt.

When the glaſs is pierced, if there are any defects in it, they are perceived after this operation: if it has too many, they break it directly, and throw the matter among the waſte: if there are none, or very few about the extremities, the workman goes and lays his cane horizontally on a little iron treſſel, placed on the ſupport of the aperture of the furnace. He expoſes the glaſs to the heat of it for about half a quarter of an hour, and then takes it away. In the mean time, the aſſiſtant mounts the foot-ſtool again, in the former ſituation, whilſt the maſter, with a pair of long and broad ſhears, extremely ſharp at the end, widens the glaſs, by inſinuating the ſhears into the hole already made with the punchion, and by thruſting them more and more into it, as it grows wider. Whilſt the aſſiſtant turns the maſs of glaſs, the maſter goes on with opening of it, till the opening is ſo large at laſt as to make a perfect cylinder at bottom.

Next to this, the workman lays his glaſs upon the treſſel at the mouth of the furnace, to heat it. Then he takes it, and gives it to his aſſiſtant on the foot-ſtool, and with large ſhears cuts the maſs of matter up to half its height. If there are any defects in the glaſs, it muſt be cut in that place, as this ſection makes the extremities of it.

There is at the mouth of the furnace an iron tool, called pointil, which is now heating, that it may unite and coaleſce with the glaſs juſt cut, and do the office which the cane did before it was ſeparated from the glaſs. This pointil is a piece of iron, ſix feet long, and much of the form of a cane: there is at the end of it a ſmall iron bar, a foot long, laid equally upon the long one, and making with it a T. This little bar is full of the matter of the glaſs, about four inches thick. This red-hot pointil is preſented to the diameter of the glaſs, which coaleſces directly with the matter round the pointil, ſo as to be able to ſupport the glaſs for the following operations. This done, they ſeparate the cane from the glaſs, by ſtriking a few blows with a chiſſel upon the end of the ſaid cane, which has been cooled; ſo that the glaſs breaks directly, and makes this ſeparation, the cane being unloaded of the glaſs now carried by the pointil.

This done, they preſent to the furnace the pointil of the glaſs, laying it on the treſſel to heat, and redden the end of that glaſs, that the workman may open it with his ſhears, as he has already opened one end of it, to complete the cylinder, the aſſiſtant holding it on his foot-ſtool as before.

They then again, and for the laſt time, put the pointil on the treſſel, that the glaſs may grow red-hot, and the workman cuts it quite open with his ſhears, right overagainſt the foregoing cut. This he does as before, taking care that the two cuts make but one and the ſame line.

In the mean time, the man who looks after the carquaiſſes comes to receive the glaſs upon an iron ſhovel, two feet and a half long without the handle, and two feet wide, with a ſmall border of an inch and a half to the right and left, and towards the handle of the ſhovel. They lay the glaſs upon it, flattening it a little with a ſmall ſtick, a foot and a half long, ſo that the cut of the glaſs is turned upwards. They ſeparate the glaſs from the pointil by ſtriking a few gentle blows between the two with a chiſſel. This done, they carry the glaſs on the ſhovel to the mouth of the hot carquaiſſe, where the glaſſes are to be nealed. They take away the ſhovel: the glaſs grows red-hot gradually, by the vaſt heat which is at the mouth of the carquaiſſe: the workman belonging to it takes an iron tool, ſix feet long, and widened at the end in form of a club at cards, four inches long, and two inches wide on each ſide, very flat, and not half an inch thick. With this tool he gradually lifts up the cut part of the glaſs, to unfold it out of its form of a flattened cylinder, and render it ſmooth by turning it down upon the hearth of the carquaiſſe. The ſaid club, being inſinuated within the cylinder, performs this operation, by being puſhed hard againſt all the parts of the glaſs.

This done, and the glaſs being quite ſmooth, the workman puſhes it to the bottom of the carquaiſſe with a ſmall iron raker. He ranges it with a little iron hook. When the carquaiſſe is full, they ſtop and cement it as they do the carquaiſſes of the run glaſſes; and the glaſſes remain there alſo for a fortnight, to be nealed. When this time is over, they take them out to poliſh them.

A workman can make but one glaſs in an hour, and he works but ſix together, after which he reſts ſix hours, to begin the ſame operation a-new. He is never at reſt but when the matter is melting in the pot.

Of the principal laws of England relating to GLASS.

By an act of the 19th of his late majeſty, intitled, An act for granting to his majeſty ſeveral rates and duties upon glaſs, it is enacted, That upon all crown, plate, and flint glaſs imported, a duty of 8d. per pound weight ſhall be laid; and on all green, or other glaſs imported, 2d. per pound weight; and on all quart bottles and flaſks imported, 2s. per dozen; and on all bottles and flaſks imported, containing more or leſs than a quart, 2s. per dozen quarts, be the bottles containing the ſame greater or leſſer, to be paid by the importers. Alſo,

The ſum of 9s. 4d. per 100 weight on all materials or metal, or other preparations made uſe of in the making of crown, plate, or flint glaſs, and all white glaſs, of what kind ſoever. And

Upon all the materials, or metal, or other preparations uſed in the making of common bottles, and all green glaſs, 2s. 4d. per 100 weight, and after that rate for a greater or leſſer quantity. Said duty to be paid by the maker.

In caſe any crown, plate, or flint glaſs, or ſuch bottles or flaſks ſo imported as aforeſaid, ſhall be landed before entry, and the duties paid, the ſame ſhall be forfeited, one moiety to the uſe of his majeſty, the other to ſuch who ſhall ſeize or inform.

After the 1ſt of May, 1746, no perſon ſhall import into Ireland any crown, plate, or white glaſs, or common bottles, or other green glaſs, or of any other kind, other than of the manufacture of Great-Britain. All other kinds ſhall be forfeited, and deſtroyed within 10 days after condemnation, and the veſſel wherein imported ſhall be alſo forfeited, with her tackle and furniture; and the maſter, and all others concerned in loading the ſame, ſhall forfeit 10s. for every pound weight, and ſo in proportion for any greater or leſſer quantity.

GLOCESTERSHIRE is an inland county, bordering on the eaſt on Warwickſhire, Oxfordſhire, and Berkſhire; on the ſouth on Somerſetſhire and Wiltſhire; on the north on Worceſterſhire; and on the weſt on Herefordſhire and Monmouthſhire; and is about 156 miles in circumference. It's chief rivers are the Severn, Wye, Avon, Iſis, Leden, Frome, Stroud, and Windruſh.

The air is wholeſome throughout, but the ſoil various. In the eaſt it is hilly; in the weſt woody; but the middle is inriched with a ſweet fruitful vale. The Severn, which waſhes the county for 40 miles together (70, including windings and turnings) brings neceſſaries to it from abroad, and conveys it's native commodities to foreign parts. This river is in ſome places two or three miles broad, and comes in with a violent tide, called the Boar, which rolls with a head from two to four feet high, carrying every thing before it, and overflowing it banks.

The county abounds with all ſorts of grain, cattle, fowl, and game, excellent bacon and cyder; and it's rivers afford great plenty of fiſh, eſpecially ſalmon from the Severn, with lampreys and conger-eels.

It is uſually divided into three parts, viz.

I. COTESWOULD, the hilly part, which is not very fertile, lying expoſed to the winds and cold, that it's corn is ſlow in coming out of the ground; hence the proverb among them, As long in coming as Coteſwould barley: but it is healthy, and feeds multitudes of ſheep, remarkable for the fineneſs of their wool. It has been computed that, before our wool began to be clandeſtinely exported to France, 50,000 cloths were made yearly in this ſhire, eſtimated at 10l. a cloth, the fine with the coarſe; and the number of ſheep kept in the county, moſt of which are fed here, is computed at 400,000.

II. The VALE. In this part moſt of their excellent cheeſe is made; though what is ſo called in London comes moſtly out of Wiltſhire, the real cheeſe of this county going more to Briſtol.

III. The FOREST of DEAN, which was formerly covered with wood for the ſpace of 20 miles long and 10 broad; but the many rich veins of iron diſcovered there, and forges eſtabliſhed by act of parliament for working it, the woods are not only reduced to a narrower compaſs, but many towns and villages have been built in the foreſt. Where the woods are ſtill preſerved, the oaks are reckoned the beſt in England.

GLOCESTER is ſeated on a branch of the Severn, which brings up ſhips to it. Here are 12 incorporated companies for it's trade, which was conſiderable till leſſened by the neighbourhood of Briſtol; but pin-making is now one of it's chief manufactures.

CIRENCESTER, vulgarly CICETER, has it's name from the Churn that paſſes by it. It's Friday market, which is chiefly for wool, that manufacture being the principal trade here, is reckoned one of the greateſt in the kingdom; and the weeks before Palm-Sunday and Bartholomew's are conſiderable fairs for cloth.

TEWKSBURY, on the conflux of the Severn and Avon, is a large, beautiful, and populous town, of which the chief manufacture is woollen cloth and ſtockings. The cloathing trade here is the better accommodated, by reaſon of it's nearneſs to Coteſwould Hills and Stroud Water, the former furniſhing the fleece, and the latter the dye. It has been long noted for muſtard-balls made here, and ſent into other parts.

CAMPDEN is famous for the manufacture of ſtockings.

DEAN, in the foreſt of that name. Cloth was once, but pins are now, it's chief manufacture; and the owners of lands here make good advantage by digging up iron cinders, which they ſell at a good price to the furnaces.

CHELTENHAM, on a brook that runs into the Severn, drives a conſiderable trade in malt, and is much frequented on account of its mineral waters.

STOW on the WOULD. It's fairs, which are on May-day and the 13th of October, are famous for hops, cheeſe, and ſheep, of which it is ſaid 20,000 were ſold in one October fair.

STROUD ſtands on a hill, at the foot of which runs the river Stroud, which is exceeding clear, and particularly famous for it's peculiar quality in dying ſcarlet broad cloth, and all other grain colours in the beſt manner: ſo that many clothiers live near, and along it's banks, for near 20 miles, who have erected many fulling-mills upon it.

DURRSLEY; it's chief manufacture is woollen cloth.

LECHLADE. The Thames begins here to be navigable, and barges come to it's quay to take in butter, cheeſe, and other goods for London, which makes Lechlade very populous.

WOTTON under EDGE, is a pretty town, and has been long noted for the making of cloth. Its pariſh, in which are abundance of the woollen manufacturers, is 12 miles in circuit.

TETBURY, a handſome populous town, has a trade in yarn; and great quantities of cheeſe, bacon, and other commodities, are ſold in it's markets.

CHIPPING-SUDBURY has a good market for corn, and other proviſions, but eſpecially cheeſe, for which it is reckoned the greateſt in England, except Atherſtone in Warwickſhire.

MARSHFIELD is a conſiderable cloathing town, and drives a good trade in malt.

KINGSWOOD is the name of a foreſt near the city of Briſtol, containing about 5000 acres. On the edge of it, at a place called Conham, are thoſe famous works for ſmelting copper, carried on by Mr. Wayne, &c. who ſupply the Eaſt-India and other companies with vaſt quantities yearly, beſides what is uſed by the braſs-work in that neighbourhood. The chief part of the ore is brought from Ireland and Cornwall, and the coals from pits in the neighbourhood.

GOLD, is the heavieſt, and moſt ſimple of all known bodies, and compoſed of two ſubſtances; the one extremely pure and ſimple matter, of the nature of mercury; the other, which is ſaid to fix it, is equally pure, and of the nature of ſulphur. It is the moſt malleable and ductile of all metals, wholly incapable of ruſt, and not ſonorous when ſtruck upon, requires a ſtrong fire to melt it, a greater degree than fuſes tin, but leſs than is neceſſary to fuſe iron or copper. It turns white before it runs, and when in fuſion it appears of a pale bluiſh green colour on the ſurface.

It amalgamates the readieſt of all metals with quickſilver; when in fuſion, eaſily and intimately blends itſelf with ſilver, with which, when mixed, it will alſo run into a maſs with iron. It more eaſily mixes with copper and the other metals, and with ſome of the ſemi-metals, as regulus of antimony. It will remain unaltered, and undiminiſhed in weight, in the fierceſt common fire. Expoſed to the ſtrongeſt burning glaſſes, it ſparkles and flies off in ſmall maſſes, which, examined, are found to be pure unaltered gold; but, if often expoſed, it is ſaid, that part will fly off in fumes, and the remaining ſubſtance be of a purpliſh deep blue, more of the nature of vitriol than of gold, as wanting the malleability and ſpecific gravity.

Gold is the moſt diviſible of all bodies; if melted with 100000 times it's weight of ſilver, it will be ſo perfectly blended with it, that any grain of the melted maſs is, on aſſaying, found to contain it's proportionate quantity of it; and a ſingle drop of its ſolution, in aqua regia, gives a metalline taſte to a pint of ſpirit of wine. It's ductility is ſuch, that the wire-drawers can extend a leaf of gold to the 12,000,000th part of an inch, in thinneſs, over a flatted ſilver wire, which will be perfectly covered, though viewed with a microſcope. It's ſpecific gravity is as 19420 to 1000.

It's peculiar ſolvent, aqua regia, owes it's power over it to the ſea-ſalt it contains, being almoſt the only ſalt that will act on gold. This ſolution affords one teſt for this metal, and fuſion, with antimony, gives another; for on keeping up the fire to a great height, the antimony will be driven off in fumes, and leave the gold, if pure, unaltered in weight; the antimony taking any other mixture away with it, ſilver not excepted.

If ſalt of tartar, or any other fixed alcali, be thrown into a ſolution of gold, it is precipitated in form of a powder, that has a greater exploſive power than gun-powder, and is called from its property aurum fulminans.

Gold is uſually found in the earth native, in it's own proper form, not in the ſtate of ore; but ſeldom quite pure, containing uſually ſome copper, and oftener ſome ſilver among it. Thus mixed with other metals, it is found ſometimes in ſmall granules among the ſands of rivers, ſometimes in larger maſſes, looſe and alone, or mixed with red or whitiſh marle, in the fiſſures of rocks. But it's moſt uſual form is that which is vulgarly, though improperly, called gold ore; that is in maſſes of a whitiſh opake ſtone, like cryſtal, in which the native gold lies like drops and threads, and ſometimes veins. It has many beautiful appearances, the ſtone itſelf being tinged with black, green, and other colours; ſome ſtones there are coarſer. In all theſe ores, the gold is in its proper form; but in ſome metalline ſubſtances it is reduced to the ſtate of ore, being reduced to a diſcoloured and brittle maſs, penetrated with ſulphur or arſenic, theſe two ſubſtances naturally debaſing the other metals into that ſtate. Whenever gold is found thus altered, it has always ſilver with it, and the maſſes are properly ſilver ores, or of ſome other metal in which there is ſilver, the gold being always in the ſmalleſt quantity.

Among

Among theſe gold ores, lapis lazuli is reckoned; ſome of them, beſide the gold-coloured marcaſite, containing alſo a little gold. Common ſand and clay may alſo be reckoned among the ores, few but containing ſome gold, though not enough to pay the expence of working, as is the caſe with orpiment.

The colour of our yellow marcaſites has tempted many to believe them almoſt all gold; but, on calcining them, they retain not their yellow colour, but turn red.

Gold reſiſting the action of lead, or glaſs of lead, and ſuſtaining the copel and teſt, in which other metals, except ſilver, turn to ſcoria, is eaſily ſeparated from its ore, by the common method of copelling and teſting.

When in it's native ſtate, it is alſo conveniently ſeparated by amalgamation with mercury, as mixing more readily with it than even ſilver does.

The ready way of ſeparating it from it's ore by the copel, is to mix a quantity of it in fine powder, with eight times it's weight of granulated lead, keeping it red-hot in the teſt, till the ſcoria on the ſurface are perfectly vitrified; after which, the lead and gold, thus ſeparated from the other particles, are to be put into a copel, and kept on the fire till all the lead is burnt into litharge and ſcoria, and the gold alone remains on the copel. When the ore is mixed with other ſubſtances, beſides ſtones or earths, as pyrites and the like, a little glaſs of lead is to be added, which makes them run thin, and more eaſily precipitate the metal. Theſe methods are to be uſed when it is in a ſtate of ore; but when in it's metallic form, though mixed, the ſhort way is by amalgamation. To do this, powder the ore, then waſh away the lighter and fouler part, infuſe the reſt in ſtrong vinegar, with a little allum diſſolved, pouring off the vinegar afterwards, and waſhing the ore with water; after which it is to be dried and rubbed with a mortar, with four times it's weight of mercury, till all the gold be taken up by it, ſeparating as much as can be of the looſe mercury, by ſtraining through a leather, ſqueezing well, and ſeparating the remainder by diſtillation or evaporation; and the metal left behind, is to be fuſed with borax, till it is quite pure.

When there is gold and ſilver together, in the remaining maſs, they are to be ſeparated by aqua regia, evaporating it when it has diſſolved all the gold, which muſt be melted in a crucible with borax: the undiſſolved ſilver is to be melted in another. Finally, gold mixed in a regulus, with any of the other metals, is readily ſeparated from them by fuſing the whole, with three or four times the weight of glaſs of lead.

Aqua regia, [ſee that article] though the common ſolvent of gold is not the only one, it being long ſince diſcovered, that the fumes ariſing from a mixture of the oils of tartar and vitriol will diſſolve it, and a common liquid menſtruum may be produced from theſe, which will have the ſame power. Mercury is alſo a true ſolvent by amalgamation; and the liver of ſulphur, fuſed with it, takes it up ſo perfectly, that it will be carried into a milk of ſulphur, by the common proceſſes afterwards with it.

It's virtues, in medicine, ſeem altogether imaginary; wherefore, preſent practice allows it's uſe as an ornament only to medicines. The only preparation of it, ever received as a medicine, by rational people, is the aurum fulminans, and that has been of late proved to be a very miſchievous one.

Aurum Fulminans.

Take four ounces of aqua fortis, and one of common ſalt, mix, and they will make an aqua regia of a yellowiſh colour. Set off this liquor, in a ſand-heat, and diſſolve in it as much gold as it will take up, which is ſomewhat more than a fifth part of it's own weight. When the gold is diſſolved, pour the ſolution from the black powder, which will remain at bottom, if any ſilver was in the gold, and drop into the liquor oil of tartar per deliquium, till there is no more ebullition. The gold will be found precipitated in form of a yellow powder; this is to be ſeparated from the liquor by decantation, waſhed ſeveral times with water, and dried by a gentle heat. This powder is one fourth more in quantity than the gold uſed. If heated beyond a certain, very mild degree of heat, it goes off with a loud exploſion, whether the heat be cauſed by fire, or only rubbing too violently. This effect is prevented, by adding a larger quantity of oil of tartar than neceſſary in the preparation, and if melted with flour of brimſtone, and the ſulphur burnt off, it alſo loſes this property, and turns of a purple colour.

This powder, given internally as a ſudorific and cordial, often occaſions violent cholics, and other fatal ſymptoms, and ought, perhaps, to be wholly baniſhed out of practice.

Tincture of gold, or aurum potabile.

There is no ſuch thing as a true tincture of gold; but thoſe who are deſirous of what is ſo called may make it thus:

Diſſolve any quantity of pure gold, refined with antimony, in 12 times it's weight of ſpirit of ſalt; add half the quantity of the eſſential oil of lavender, roſemary or the like: ſhake the two liquors together, and let it ſtand till the oil ſeparates to the top; it will have acquired the yellow colour the menſtruum had, and is to be then poured off, and mixed with four times the quantity of ſpirit of wine: let theſe ſtand together till they are of a purple colour.

This is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the virtues of a cordial and ſudorific, which, if it have, muſt be owing to the eſſential oil, not to the gold, which may be ſeparated in it's own proper form by mere evaporation.

Gold tinges tranſparent ſubſtances of a fine red colour: it is evident in the ruby, from the fragments of which gold may always be ſeparated. The ſame effect follows the artificial production of them: the fine filings of it, fuſed with borax, adding a ſmall quantity of ſalt of tartar and crude nitre, give a fine, though not a deep red, to the glaſſy matter reſulting from this, as from all other fuſions of borax. If one part of gold, and five of pure tin, be calcined together, they form a powder, a few grains of which, thrown into a compoſition of red lead and cryſtal, vitrify, give the glaſs the true colour of the ruby, and, if more be added, will be deeper and reſemble the paler amethyſts. The ſame effect will be alſo produced by a precipitation of gold from a ſolution in aqua regia, by adding a ſolution of tin.

Numberleſs have been the attempts to convert other metals into gold; but as they are all lighter, and as nothing is ſo hard to give by art as gravity, they have been hitherto, and are likely always to be without ſucceſs.

The degradation of it ſeems nearly as difficult as the making it. Some have gone ſo far towards this, as to bring it to a ſtate in which no reducing fluxes they were acquainted with would get it to itſelf again; but this is no proof others might not be invented that would. The vapour of phoſphorus calcines it indeed to a kind of calx, and ſo will a long and gentle calcination of gold that has been amalgamated with mercury; but we have been able to reduce gold in this ſtate, produced by either means, into pure and malleable gold again.

Of working Gold, &c. in the large way of Business.

In the large way of buſineſs, ſilver or gold ores are treated either by amalgamation with mercury, or by ſmelting and refining them with lead. The method by amalgamation is only uſed where the ore is exceeding rich, particularly at the ſilver mines at Potoſi: for, by grinding ſuch rich ores with mercury, the nobler metals will be drank up by it, and may be readily ſeparated from it again by diſtillation; which carries over the quickſilver, and leaves the nobler metals behind. Lead is uſed along with the poorer ores, in order to drink up the nobler metals they may contain; which it does much after the ſame manner by fuſion, as quickſilver does without; ſo as to ſeparate many heterogeneous parts, by keeping them floating, and afterwards reſtoring the nobler metals by cupellation.

The large way of ſmelting gold and ſilver ores is analogous to the ſmall one of aſſaying [ſee the article Assaying] all things being proportionably larger, the fire animated with bellows, and the blaſt directed upon the ſurface of the melted metal, ſo as to blow off the lead in the form of litharge, before it is fully vitrified. But here the ſilver is not perfectly refined at one operation; ſome proportion of lead ſtill remaining mixed among it, that requires to be burned out after the ſame manner in a ſtronger fire: and even thus it is with great difficulty that ſilver can be obtained pure, or totally ſeparated, either from lead or copper. This large way of working might, perhaps, be improved in reſpect of the veſſel, or teſt employed, and the management of the fire, ſo as to work by the means of flame, without the aſſiſtance of bellows. With regard to the teſt, we are to obſerve that bone-aſhes, though ever ſo well waſhed and ſifted, are not, perhaps, the fitteſt matter to make teſts of; the teſts ſo made being apt to crack in the fire, unleſs dried very gently for many days before they are uſed. But there is a particular kind of talc, or unvitrifiable ſperth-ſtone, that, being calcined to fine powder, as it readily may, and made up with a ſmall ſolution of vitriol in water, affords ſuch teſts as may be immediately uſed without danger of cracking.

Again, The flame of a wind-furnace may be made to play upon the ſurface of the melted metal, ſo as readily to perform this operation, without blowing with bellows, that violently tear away the ſilver along with the lead, in the form of litharge. And this farther convenience may be obtained, that not only ſmaller and cheaper wood, but even pit-coal, ſhall here ſerve for the fuel, provided the ſtructure of the furnace be well contrived for the purpoſe; and in ſome places they have of late advantageouſly uſed common pit-coal for teſting in the large way; and the ſame improvements might alſo be made in the ſmall way of aſſaying.

To amalgamate gold, or to mix it with mercury, which is of uſe to gilders.

Take a penny-weight of fine gold, beat into very thin ſmall plates; heat them in a crucible red-hot, then pour upon them 8 penny-weights of quick-ſilver, revived* from cinnabar; ſtir the matter with a little iron rod, and, when you ſee it begin to riſe in fumes, which quickly happens, caſt your mixture into an earthen pan, filled with water, it will coagulate, and become tractable; waſh it ſeveral times, to take away it's blackneſs:

blackneſs: thus you have an amalgama, from which ſeparate the mercury, which you will find is not united, by preſſing it between your fingers, after you have wrapped it up in a linnen cloth.

* Reviving of quickſilver from cinnabar is thus performed; take a pound of artificial cinnabar, powder it, and mix it exactly with three pounds of quick lime, alſo powdered; put the mixture into an earthen pot, or glaſs retort, whoſe third part at leaſt remains empty; place it into a reverberatory furnace, and, after having fitted to it a receiver filled with water, let it reſt 24 hours at leaſt; raiſe your fire by degrees, and at laſt increaſe it to the height, and the mercury will run in drops into the receiver; and having waſhed the mercury, to cleanſe it from the little portion of earth it might carry along with it, dry it with linnen, or the crumbs of bread, and keep it for uſe.

A particular method of gilding, which may be done more expeditiouſly than with quickſilver.

Take the fineſt gold, diſſolve it in aqua regia * [ſee the article AQUA REGIA] which has been prepared with ſalt; let the aqua regia be evaporated to half the quantity; then put the glaſs into a damp cellar, on ſand, and the gold will overnight ſhoot into cryſtals, which take out, and let them diſſolve again in diſtilled vinegar: put it again upon the fire, and let the half thereof evaporate; then put the glaſs again in the cellar, as before, in moiſt ſand, and over-night the gold will ſhoot into cryſtals. Diſſolve theſe in rain water, and evaporate that to half the quantity, and again it will ſhoot into cryſtals; when this is done, take the cryſtalline gold, grind it to powder with a knife; put that powder into the white of an hard-boiled egg, after the yolk has been taken out; ſet it in a cool and damp place, and over-night it will diſſolve into an oil; and what ſilver you anoint with it, though ever ſo thin, drying it gently, you will find the gilding of a perfectly high and fine colour.

* The preparation of this aqua regia only differs from the following receipt in uſing of ſalt inſtead of ſal ammoniac. The uſual way of making aqua regia, according to Lemery, is thus:

Powder four ounces of ſal ammoniac, and put it into a matraſs, or other glaſs veſſel, of a good bigneſs; pour upon it 16 ounces of ſpirit of nitre, place the veſſel in ſand a little warm, until the ſal ammoniac is all diſſolved; then pour the diſſolution into a bottle, and ſtop it with wax This is the right aqua regia.

REMARKS.

Among many things that are groſs enough to be the objects of touch, and to be managed with our hands, there are ſome which may help us to conceive a wonderful minuteneſs in the ſmall parts whereof they conſiſt. I procured ſilver, ſays Mr Boyle, whoſe ductility is very much inferior to that of gold, to be drawn out to ſo ſlender a wire, that, when it was accurately meaſured, nine yards thereof weighed but about a grain in a very tender ballance. And, ſince experience informs us that half an Engliſh inch may, by diagonal lines, be divided into 100 parts capable of being eaſily diſtinguiſhed for mechanical uſes, it follows, that a grain of this ſilver wire may be divided into 64,800 parts, and yet each of theſe will be a true metaline cylinder, which we may very well conceive to conſiſt of a multitude of minuter parts: for, though I could procure no gilt wire near ſo ſlender as our ſilver wire, yet a grain of ſome I had by me was 14 feet long; at which rate, an ounce would reach about a mile. And if we ſuppoſe the gilt wire, as in probability it might have been drawn, as ſlender as the ſilver-wire, the inſtance will be ſtill far more conſiderable: for, in this caſe, each of thoſe little cylinders, of which 64,800 go to make up one grain, will have a ſuperficial area, which, except at the baſes, is covered with a caſe of gold, that is not only ſeparable from it by a mental operation, but, perhaps, alſo by a chemical one. For,

I remember, that from very ſlender gilt wire, though I could procure none ſo ſlender as this of mere ſilver, I more than once got out the ſilver; ſo that the golden films, whilſt they were in a liquor that plumped them up, ſeemed to be ſolid wires of gold: but, when the liquor was withdrawn, they appeared oblong, and extremely thin double membranes of the metal; which, with a fine inſtrument, might have deen ripped open, diſplayed, and made capable of further diviſions and ſubdiviſions. But, though each of the little ſilver cylinders juſt mentioned muſt not only have it's little area, but it's ſolidity, yet I ſaw no reaſon to doubt that it might be very poſſible to have drawn the ſame quantity of metal to a much greater length; ſince even an animal ſubſtance is capable of being brought to a ſlenderneſs much ſurpaſſing that of our wire.

An ingenious gentlewoman of my acquaintance, who kept ſilk-worms, had once the curioſity to draw out one of the oval caſes they ſpin, into all the ſilken wire it was made up of; which appeared in meaſure to be much above 300 yards, yet weighed but two grains and a half; ſo that each cylindrical grain of ſilk may well be reckoned to be, at leaſt, 120 yards long.

We took ſix leaves of beaten gold, and ſingly meaſuring them with a rule, purpoſely made for nice experiments, we found them to have a greater equality in dimenſions, and to be nearer true ſquares, than could be well expected: the ſide of the ſquare was, in each of them, exactly three inches and a quarter; which number being reduced to a decimal fraction, viz. 3. 25, and multiplied by itſelf, affords 10. 5625 for the area of the ſix leaves. Theſe being carefully weighed, in a pair of tender ſcales, amounted all of them to one grain and a quarter; and ſo one grain of this leaf-gold was extended to ſomewhat above 50 inches; which differed but about a fifth part from an experiment of the like nature that I made many years ago, in a pair of exact ſcales: and ſo ſmall a difference may very well be imputed to that of the pains and diligence of the gold-beaters, who do not always work with equal ſtrength and ſkill, nor upon equally fine and ductile gold.

Now ſuppoſing an inch, divided into 100 ſenſible parts, to be applied to each ſide of a ſquare inch of this leaf-gold, it is manifeſt that, by fine parallel lines, drawn between all the oppoſite points, a grain of gold muſt be diviſible into 500,000 very minute ſquares, but yet diſcernible by a ſharp eye: and, if we ſuppoſe the inch divided into 200 parts, the number of the ſquares into which a ſingle grain is capable of being divided, will amount to no leſs than two millions.

There is yet another way to ſhew the great diviſibility of gold. A refiner, with whom I uſed to deal, informed me, that to an ounce of ſilver he commonly allowed eight grains of gold, when it was to be drawn into well-gilt wire, as ſlender as a hair; but that, if it were to be more ſlightly-gilt wire, ſix grains would ſerve the turn. He alſo ſhewed me a fair cylindrical bar of ſilver, as it was at firſt gilt, whereon the leaf-gold that overlaid the ſurface did not appear to be, by odds, ſo thick as fine Venetian paper; yet, comparing this with gilt wire, the wire appeared to be the better gilt of the two; poſſibly becauſe the gold, in paſſing through the various holes in the making, was, by the ſides of them, not only extended, but poliſhed, which made it look more vividly than the unpoliſhed leaves that gilt the ingot. So that, if we ſuppoſe an ounce of the gilt wire lately mentioned to have been gilt with ſix grains of leaf-gold, it will appear, by an eaſy calculation, that, at this rate, one ounce of gold, employed in gilding wire of that fineneſs, would reach between 90 and 100 miles.

But if we further ſuppoſe, that the ſlender ſilver wire firſt mentioned were gilt, though we ſhould allow it to have not ſix, but eight grains of leaf-gold to an ounce of ſilver, it muſt be acknowledged, that an hollow cylinder of gold, weighing but eight grains, may be ſtretched ſo as to reach as far as 60 times it's weight of ſilver wire, which it covers; and conſequently, a grain of that wire having been found to be 27 feet long, an ounce of gold would reach 155 miles and above an half; and, if we yet farther ſuppoſe this hollow cylinder of gold to be ſlit along, and cut into as ſlender liſts as poſſible, we cannot deny that the gold may be made to reach a ſtupendous length.

Of the extreme ductility of the conſtituent particles of gold. By the learned Dr. Edmund Halley.

It is evident, ſays he, from undoubted experiment, that gravity is in all bodies proportionable to the quantity of matter in each, and there is no ſuch thing as a propenſion of ſome more, others leſs, towards the earth's center; ſince, the impediment of the air being removed, all bodies deſcend, be they ever ſo looſe or compact in texture, with equal velocity. It follows, therefore, that there is ſeven times as much matter in gold as in a piece of glaſs of the ſame magnitude (their ſpecific gravities being nearly as ſeven to one) and, conſequently, that at leaſt ſix parts of ſeven in the bulk of glaſs muſt be pore, or vacuity. This ſome favourers of the atomical philoſophy have endeavoured to ſolve, by ſuppoſing the primary or conſtituent atoms of gold to be much larger than thoſe of other bodies, and, conſequently, the pores fewer.

In order to examine the magnitude of thoſe atoms, I informed myſelf among wire-drawers, that the very beſt double-gilt wire was made out of cylindric ingots, four inches in circumference, and 28 inches long, which weigh 16 pounds Troy; on theſe they beſtow four ounces of gold, that is, to every 48 ounces of ſilver one of gold; and that two yards of the ſuperfine wire weigh a grain. Hence at firſt ſight it appeared, that the length of 98 yards is in weight 49 grains, and that a ſingle grain of gold covers the ſaid 98 yards, and that the 10,000th part of a grain is above $\frac{1}{3}$ of an inch long, which yet may be actually divided into 10, and ſo the 100,000th part of a grain of gold be viſible without a microſcope. And, by means of the ſpecific gravities of the metals, viz. ſilver $10\frac{1}{3}$, and gold $18\frac{2}{3}$, I found the diameter of ſuch wire the $\frac{1}{3800}$ part of an inch, and it's circumference the $\frac{1}{11943}$ part: but the gold in thickneſs not to exceed the $\frac{1}{134300}$ part of an inch; whence it may be concluded, that the cube of an hundreth part of an inch would contain above 2,433,000,000 (or the cube of 1345) of ſuch atoms. And yet, though the gold be ſtretched to ſo great a degree as

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is here demonſtrated, it ſhews itſelf of ſo even and united a texture, as not to let the white colour of the ſilver under it appear (even with a microſcope) through any the leaſt pores; which argues, that, even in this exceeding thinneſs, very many of thoſe atoms may ſtill lie one over the other.

Gold and ſilver lace, thread or fringe, of their exportation.

* Theſe are, upon exportation into foreign parts by way of merchandize, intitled to a drawback; wherefore, not only an entry muſt be made as for other goods, but proof of the manufacture, by oath, upon the bill of entry, as in the following example:

* 10 Ann. cap. 26. §. 62.

3d of March 1730.—No. 35.
In the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica.

Roger Granger.

Twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, } valued at
Twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, } 200l. in
Ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, } all.

William Brooks [the maker] maketh oath, That the twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, and ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoiſe weight, above mentioned, were all made ſince the 1ſt day of July 1712, and were all made of plate wire ſpun upon ſilk.

William Brooks.

Jurat 3 die Martii 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector of the cuſtoms.

And before they are ſhipped off, ſufficient ſecurity muſt be given to the collector of the cuſtoms for the due exportation, as follows:

A bond for the exportation of gold and ſilver lace, thread, or fringe.

Noverint univerſi, &c.
Whereas the above-bounden Roger Granger hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Taviſtock of London, Daniel Bright maſter, for Jamaica, twenty-eight pounds ten ounces of gold thread, twenty-four pounds one ounce of ſilver lace, ten pounds five ounces of gold fringe, avoirdupoiſe weight, all made ſince the 1ſt day of July 1712, and made of plate wire ſpun upon ſilk: and whereas the ſaid Roger Granger, upon exportation of the ſaid gold thread, ſilver lace, and gold fringe for foreign parts, is to have an allowance or drawback according to an act of parliament of the tenth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne, on that behalf made:
Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if the ſaid gold thread, ſilver lace, and gold fringe, and every part thereof, ſhall be ſhipped, and really exported into parts beyond the ſeas, and that the ſame, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or unſhipped with intent to be relanded, or brought on ſhore again in any part or parts of Great Britain, then this obligation to be void, or elſe to remain and be in force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Roger Granger.
Daniel Bright.

Britiſh wrought plate, or manufactures of ſilver.

* As no molten ſilver whatſoever may be exported, but ſuch only as has been marked or ſtamped at Goldſmiths-Hall; and † as no manufactures of ſilver may be made leſs in fineneſs than of eleven ounces two pennyweights of fine ſilver in every pound Troy; therefore proof of ſuch marking and fineneſs muſt be made on the bill of entry, and likewiſe on the back of the cocket, as in the following example:

* 6 and 7 Will. III. cap. 17. §. 5.
† 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 40.

12th of January 1730.—No. 6.
In the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights.

Joel Criſp.

One hundred and fifty ounces of wrought plate, of the fineneſs of eleven ounces two pennyweights per pound Troy, valued at fifty pounds all.

Arthur Strong [goldſmith] maketh oath, That the one hundred and fifty ounces of wrought plate above [or within] mentioned, are all of the fineneſs of eleven ounces two pennyweights to each pound Troy, on which there is the Goldſmiths-Hall mark.

Arthur Strong.

Jurat 12 die Jan. 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector.

* But if 'tis exported by way of merchandize, and the exporter would have the duty repaid him, then, as a foundation for a debenture, proof muſt be made on the bill of entry, not only of the marking and fineneſs, but likewiſe of the making, as follows:

* 6 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 18, 40.

Arthur Strong [goldſmith] maketh oath, That the one hundred fifty ounces of ſilver plate wrought, above mentioned, were all made ſince the firſt day of June 1720, and marked with the mark or ſtamp denoting it not to be leſs in fineneſs than that of eleven ounces two pennyweights of fine ſilver in every pound Troy, on which there is the Goldſmiths-Hall mark.

Arthur Strong.

Jurat 12 die Jan. 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector of the Cuſtoms.

And, before it be ſhipped, ſufficient ſecurity muſt be given for the due exportation, as follows:

A bond for the exportation of wrought plate:

Noverint univerſi, &c.
Whereas the above-bounden Joel Criſp hath this day entered outwards in the port of Southampton, on board the Diligence of Briſtol, Henry Hopkins maſter, for the Streights, one hundred and fifty ounces of ſilver plate wrought, all made ſince the 1ſt day of June 1720, and marked with the mark or ſtamp denoting it not to be leſs in fineneſs than eleven ounces, and two pennyweights of fine ſilver in every pound Troy: and whereas the ſaid Joel Criſp, upon the exportation of the ſaid plate, according to an act of parliament of the ſixth year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the Iſt, on that behalf made, &c.
Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if the ſaid ſilver plate wrought, and every part thereof, ſhall be ſhipped, and really and truly exported into parts beyond the ſeas; and that the ſame, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or unſhipped with intent to be relanded, or brought on ſhore again in any part or parts of Great-Britain, then this obligation to be void, or elſe to remain and be in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Joel Criſp.
Arthur Strong.

Of the importation of gold or ſilver thread, lace, &c.

Gold or ſilver thread, lace, fringe, or other work made thereof, or any thread, lace, fringe, or other work made of copper, braſs, or any other inferior metal, or gold or ſilver wire or plate, imported, to be forfeited or burnt, and 100l. paid by the importer for every parcel ſo imported. 10 Ann. cap. 26. ſect. 65. And 15 Geo. II. cap. 26. ſect. 7.

Gold Mines.

'Among the ſeven mine-towns, ſays the learned Dr. Edward Brown, in Hungary (which are not far from one another, viz. Chremnitz, Schemnitz, Newſol, Koningſberg, Bochantz, Libeten, and Tiln) Chremnitz is the richeſt in gold. They have alſo, at preſent, gold mines at Bochantz and Koningſberg; and they report in that country, that there hath been formerly a rich gold mine at Glaſs Hitten, but loſt ſince that Bethlem Gahor overrun thoſe parts, when the undertakers ſtopped up the mine and fled.
They have worked in the gold mine at Chremnitz 900 years. This mine is ſeveral Engliſh miles in length, and about 160 fathoms deep. Many veins of the ore run to the north and to the eaſt. They work alſo towards one, two, and three of the clock, as they ſpeak; for the miners direct themſelves under ground by a compaſs, not of 32 points (ſuch as is uſed at ſea) but by one of 24: which they divide, as we do the hours of the day, into twice twelve.
Of the gold ore, ſome is white, and ſome black, red, or yellow: that with black ſpots in white is eſteemed the beſt, as alſo the ore which lieth next to the black veins. This ore is not rich enough to ſuffer any proof in ſmall parcels, like that in other mines, whereby to know what proportion of metal is contained in it; but they pound a very great quantity thereof, and waſh it in a little river, which runs nigh the town. The whole river being divided, and admitted into divers cuts, runs over the ore continually, and ſo waſheth away the earthy parts from the metalline. And, from a clear river above the town, by its running through ſo many works, and over ſo much pounded ore, it becomes below the town a dark yellow ſtream, of the colour of the earth of thoſe hills. See the article Assay.
There have been pieces of pure gold found in the mine; ſome of which I have ſeen in the emperor's treaſury, and in

the elector of Saxony's repository: one piece as broad as the palm of my hand, and others less; and upon a white stone many pieces of pure gold, but these are very rare.

The common yellow earth of the country near Chremnitz, although it be not esteemed ore, affords some gold: and in one place I saw a great part of a hill digged away, which hath been cast into the works, washed and wrought in the same manner as pounded ore, with considerable profit.

Some passages in this mine, cut through the rock, and long disused, have grown up again; and I observed the sides of some, which had been formerly wide enough to carry their ore through, to approach each other, so as we passed with difficulty. This happens in moist places. The passages unite not from the top to the bottom, but from one side to another.

There is vitriol in this mine, white, red, blue, and green; and also vitriol waters. There is a substance found, which sticks to the gold ore, of small pointed parts like needles, called by them antimony of gold. There are crystals found here, and some tinctured yellow.

The miners will not allow any quicksilver or brimstone to have been found here, yet, in the lately-mentioned antimony of gold, there is evidently sulphur, as I perceived by burning. The quicksilver mine, mentioned in the answer to Kircher's enquiries, Mund. Subter. is an Hungarian mile, or seven English miles distant from Chremnitz, and is not wrought in at present.

There is a vitriol mine in these hills near the gold mine: the earth or ore of it is reddish, and sometimes greenish. This earth is infused in water, and after three days the water is poured off, and boiled seven days in a leaden vessel, till it comes to a thick granulated whitish substance, which is afterwards reduced to a calx in an oven, and serveth in the making aqua fortis, or the separating water used at Schemnitz. See the article AQUA FORTIS.

Of the method of extracting gold out of the ore.

They have divers ways of taking the gold out of its ore, by burning the ore, by melting, by adding silver ore and other minerals, sand, and lead, as they find the ore fluid or fixed. But without lead they proceed thus:

They break and pound the ore in water very fine, then wash it often, and lay it in powder upon cloths, and by the gentle oblique descending of the water over it, and their continual stirring it, the earthy, clayish, and lighter parts are washed away, while the heavier and metalline remaineth in the cloths. Those cloths are afterwards washed clean in several tubs, and the water, after some settling, poured off from its sediment, which sediment is again washed, and stirred up in several vessels and troughs, till at length they sprinkle quicksilver upon it, and knead it well together for an hour: and then washing it again in a wooden vessel, after the separating of much of it which the quicksilver touches not, by striking this vessel against their leg, they bring the gold and quicksilver together, in an amalgama, to one corner of it. From this amalgama they strain as much of the quicksilver as they can, through coarse cloths first, and then through fine; then they put the mass remaining upon a perforated plate, which they set over a deep pan placed in the earth, in the bottom of which pan they also put quicksilver. This pan they cover, and lute the cover well; and then making a charcoal fire upon it, they drive down the quicksilver yet remaining in the gold, to the rest in the bottom of the pan; then taking out the gold, they cast it into the fire that it may become purer.

Concerning Cranach gold, I cannot learn that there is any such gold, or place where gold is digged, in Hungary; but in Germany I think there is, for Agricola mentions such a place as Golde-Cranacum, and another called Golde-Crona.'

Of the gold of the East-Indies.

The chief places, where it is found in any quantities, are (1.) Achim, the capital city of Sumatra, and is as a mere merchandize, not as money or coin, it being the chief return for goods carried thither for sale. (2.) In Pegu, whence it is brought to Achim to be sold to the merchants. (3.) In China and Japan: in the former they sell it for silver, and that to the great advantage of merchants, particularly at Canton, Amoy, and other places. (4.) At the Philippine Islands, particularly near Manilla, where it is found in mines, and where they say one mine yields the king of Spain 200,000 ducats a year in gold, besides several others which they do not work in. (5.) In the island of Borneo, where they sift it out of the sands of the rivers, in their search after diamonds. It has been disputed by some, whether gold be not found as well in mines and rocks in bulk, as in dust; but this is now out of all doubt, it being frequent to see lumps of gold taken out of mines that shall weigh several ounces, and contain very little impurity. A few years since, I remember to have seen a lump of such gold, which, if I recollect right, weighed four or five ounces, in the possession of Charles Hayes, Esq; the deputy-governor of the late Royal African company of England; which he assured me he brought from Guinea, as it was taken out of some of the mines by the negroes.

'I have seen, says an author of good credit, one entire lump of pure gold, as it came from the mine, of an ounce weight, though it is not usually found in such large pieces: not but that I have seen enough to convince me, that in some places it grows in the middle of the hardest stones.

A Madras supercargo, in his return to Fort St. George from the west coast, brought a stone of about a pound and half weight: it seemed to have been beaten off, or parted by violence from some other stone to which it formerly grew: it was full of crannies or clefts, was coloured or veined like marble, and was very ponderous: it had several small branches of pure gold lying in these chinks or crannies, and shooting out from them, and from other rough craggy parts of the stone; all which rendered it the greatest natural curiosity I ever met with: the gold it contained was valued at 5l. 10s. sterling, though there was scarce the worth of 1l. in sight. There is likewise rock gold at Achim, which is very fine, and is known by its brightness.'

It is an easy matter, in India, to cheat 5 or 6 per cent. in gold dust, by mixing small bits of other metal with it, which none but men of experience and judgment can detect: wherefore it is adviseable to have one of the money-changers or examiners in this country present at all receipts, who probably may discover these defects, which the Europeans frequently overlook.

At Fort St. George, the mint brings above a thousand pagoda's a month into the company's coffers, at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for coinage of gold, and 2 per cent for silver. Gold and silver in relation to their fineness are reckoned by matts, and even fractional parts; as in England by carats, grains, &c. ten matts being equal to 24 carats, full fine.

To receive a thousand pounds, says Mr. Lockyer in his time, at Achim, in gold mace, would be an endless trouble; counterfeit ones in silver, brass, and mixt metals, being so common, that it is impossible to avoid them, though we have one or two money-changers to examine them for us: they judge of them by the sound of a wooden dish, and are so nice, that in 100 they frequently refuse 60, which the next takes after the same manner, leaving above half for bad; though it may be, what he has made choice of, are not a jot better than the rest: however, if any are received by these fellows advice that prove so base as to be refused by every body, they are obliged to give good ones for them; in consideration of which, they are often honester than they otherwise would be. Tho' gold is found here [at Achim] adds he, in greater quantities than in any place I know of in India, yet the great demand for it keeps it at a very high rate. The current price, June 1704, was tale 7, 2 per buncle of 10 oz. 10 dwt. 21 gr. The current exchange from Fort St. George is 2 pagoda's a tale, which is not so much by 24 fanhams per buncle as the gold will produce in the mint, for it generally holds out above 9 $\frac{1}{3}$ matt, or 92 touch, and makes a buncle worth 14 pagoda's, 33 fanhams, 48 cash.

A merchant of Madras let out pagoda's 1000 at 16 per cent. respondentia, or on bottomry on the Stretham East Indiaman, for this place [Achim] which he received in gold dust at the above rate, and lost 18 per cent. on it in Malacca: betwixt which markets is often a greater disproportion in the value of gold.

Gold is a metal of such value, that a small mistake in its fineness may be 2 or 3 per cent. loss to the buyer. The Chinese reckon their gold by touches; 100 is full fine, and equal to 24 carats English; wherefore a sett of touches with silver allay, from 50 to 100 touch, rising gradually as you are able to discern the difference of colours on a touch-stone, would be a great help, though it must be a nice judgment to distinguish to a touch, or 100th part.

Our East-India company had formerly an assay-master, to try their gold at Amoy; but the merchants of Canton would allow of no such practice, though there is no absolute security in buying without an accurate assay.

Gold-makers at Canton (as they are commonly called) cast all the gold, that comes through their hands, into shoes of about 10 tale weight, or 12 oz. 2 dwt. 4 gr. of an equal fineness: as one makes them 93 touch, another is famous for 94, &c. A private mark is stamped in the sides, and a piece of printed paper pasted to the middle of them, by which every one's distinct make is known; as our cutlers and other mechanics do, in their respective trades.

Both ends of the shoes are alike, and bigger than in the middle, with thin brims arising above the rest, whence the upper side somewhat resembles a boat: from the middle, which in cooling sinks into a small pit, arise circles one within another, like the rings in the balls of a man's fingers, but bigger: the smaller and closer these are, the finer the gold is. When silver, copper, or other metal is inclosed in casting, as sometimes you may meet with it in small bits, the sides will be uneven, knobby, and a rising instead of sinking in the middle: sometimes they cast their gold in this form, not above 50 or 60 touch, and gild it four or five times over; so that, relying on our smooth stones, you are liable to be imposed on. Wherefore, experienced judges look on the rougher ones to

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be the beſt, that are uſed by the Banians of Indoſtan, with a ball of black wax: but, for want of theſe, raiſe the ſides with a graver, or cut the metal half through with a chiſſel, and break the reſt; whence you may diſcern the colour and grain, and detect their fraud, even by the ſight, when once the grain of gold of various degrees of fineneſs becomes familiar to a perſon. Should you cut it quite through, the chiſſel will ſo draw the gold over the allay [ſee article ALLAY] that you can learn nothing from it.

This they will not permit, but, on the contrary, be affronted at a requeſt, that ſhews ſo great a diſtruſt of them: therefore, the moſt eligible way is to make a bargain before you begin the trial, and you may manage them afterwards as you will.

The gold in this form is called after the makers names, or from the places whence it comes, but more commonly by the former; for there is a great deal thus caſt at Pekin, but none of that name; thoſe of Chuja and Chuckſa are 93 touch, Tingza, Shing, and Guanza, 94. Of theſe the former turn to the beſt account. Sinchupoa and Chuchepoa are reckoned 96 and 95 touch. The Chineſe, in gold and ſilver, always reckon one touch finer than it really is, and will allow you ſo in the receipt of money.

Gold in bars or ingots comes chiefly from Cochinchina and Tonquin, and differs in fineneſs from 75 to 100 touch. It is of ſeveral ſizes, and eaſier much than the ſhoes to be counterfeited, which the foregoing precautions may guard a perſon againſt.

Gold is a commodity as unſettled in its price in China, as any other.

Whatever you buy, as ſo much per piece, pecull, &c. you are to pay in ſilver 94 touch, which is really but 93, as traders will find in adjuſting their cuſtom accounts with the hoppos, who will not make the uſual allowance of a touch as the merchants do, except you pay in dollars, which he may take at 95.

Bargains for gold at Canton are always ſo many tale weight of current ſilver, 94 touch for 10 tale weight of gold, reckoning ſo many tale as it touches, and adding or deducting as you agree for the over or under touch.—As, a ſhoe weighing 10 tale, touch 97 at touch for touch, amounts to 97 tale of current ſilver of 94 touch. Ten tale weight, touch 93 at 7 above touch, amounts to 100 tale current ſilver. Tale 10, touch 94 at 3 under, amounts to 91 tale current ſilver of 94.

Formerly they uſed to ſell for Siſee, or ſilver full fine, but the method is altered. Ten tale of gold 93 fine, ſold for 94 tale weight of Siſee ſilver, is 7 above touch. Ten tale of gold 100 touch, ſold for 94 tale Siſee ſilver, is touch for touch. Ten tale of gold, touch 94 for 100 Siſee, is 12 $\frac{14}{47}$ above.

To reduce Siſee into current ſilver, multiply by 100, and divide by 94. The hoppos divide by 93. All the eaſtern people allay their gold with ſilver, therefore a copperiſh hue is grounds for ſuſpicion. The coarſeſt, or gold of the loweſt touch, is moſt adviſeable: for, in a particular aſſay, you get all the ſilver that is mixed with it for nothing, viz. 80 tale weight, touch 58, is 58 tale of pure gold, and 22 tale of ſilver allay, which you pay not a farthing for.

This is according to Mr. Lockyer; but, by a more modern account of the China trade, the names and touches of gold are as follows, with ſome little variation in the orthography of the names; as well as in the touches, viz.

		Touch.
Chaya	Gold ſhoes	93
Chroja	— —	93
Chugra	— —	93
Shinjepou	— —	94
Tinjee	— —	93
Poojee	Bar gold	96
Yangpohooes	— —	96
Cochinchina	— —	96
Samoy	Gold ſhoes - no chap	various touches
Pekin	Bars narrow	99
Shaja	Small ſhoes	97

N. B. At Chinchew they falſify Yangpohooes gold.

Rule to bring different touches of gold into one.

Multiply the fineneſs of each ſort by its particular weight, and adding their ſeveral products together, make a dividend of them; then adding the weights together, make that a diviſor, and the quotient will be the fineneſs or touch.

Tale	Touch	
10	94	940
10	92	920
20		2	0	1	8	6	0

93 Touch of the whole.

REMARKS.

Pure gold, in England, is reckoned that which by the aſſay is found to be 24 carats fine, though it is no eaſy matter to refine it to ſo great perfection; and that which is leſs pure, as the Engliſh ſtandard gold of 22 carats fine, is ſo many parts of 24 pure fine gold, and the remaining $\frac{2}{24}$ is allay. What is ſaid to be 18, 19, 20, or 21 carats fine, is ſo many parts in 24 fine gold, and the remaining part, that makes up the 24, is allay.—In China, their aſſay account is divided into 100 parts, and what is ſaid to be fine gold, without allay, is 100 waters, or touches, equal to our 24 carats fine. What is ſaid to be 94 or 95 touches fine, is ſo many parts pure fine, and the remainder that makes up the 100 parts is allay. The allay of China for gold ought to be all ſilver, but they ſometimes mix copper for that purpoſe with the ſilver; and ſometimes they unite all copper therewith inſtead of ſilver, which cauſes a great alteration in the colour of the gold; making it look and touch higher than is really it by 1 $\frac{1}{2}$, or 1 $\frac{1}{3}$, and ſometimes 2 per cent. yet thoſe who are conſtantly accuſtomed to deal in gold, will eaſily diſtinguiſh this by the ſight: for, the copper allay makes the gold look of a reddiſh yellow colour, whereas the ſilver makes it look of a more pure bright yellow, a little pale.

To know the goodneſs of gold or ſilver by the touch-ſtone, by comparing it to certain wires or needles of gold or ſilver of ſeveral allays; which was approved by Pliny, book 33. cap. 18. before the way of trial by aſſay with fire was known; though not with the accuracy it is at preſent performed by ſkilful modern aſſay-maſters and refiners, the method of aſſaying by fire and aqua fortis being far preferable to that by the way of touch. But, ſince the Indians do not rarely care to deal by ſuch a characteriſtic, it may be uſeful to give an account of the method by way of touch, viz.—Let theſe needles or wires, before mentioned, be made of four ſorts. (1.) Let them be made of gold and ſilver. (2.) Of gold and copper. (3.) Of gold, ſilver, and copper. And (4.) Of ſilver and copper. The three firſt ſorts are only for the trial of gold, and the latter for ſilver.

Let there be 24 needles of wire, made of the ſeveral mixtures or allays following:

The { 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 } of { 24, 23, 22, 21, 20 } carats, that is, of fine gold { 1, 2, 3, 4 } Carat of ſilver.
carats of fine gold, and

And ſo ſtill 1 carat worſe, till you have but one carat of fine gold, and 23 of fine ſilver, all marked of what fineneſs each needle or wire is of. There may alſo be made the like of the other two mixtures, viz. of gold and copper, likewiſe of gold, ſilver, and copper.

For the making theſe wires or needles for trial of ſilver, let the mixture or allay be as followeth:

The { 1, 2, 3, 4 } of { fine ſilver, 11, 10, 9 } ounces of fine ſilver, and { 1, 2, 3 } ounce of copper.

And ſo till you have 1 ounce of ſilver, and 11 ounces of copper, all marked of what fineneſs it is.

The uſe of theſe ſeveral needles

Is, if you deſire to know the goodneſs of any ingot, or piece of gold or ſilver by the ſtone, touch the ſaid ingot or piece upon your touch-ſtone, and by it touch ſuch of your needles as ſhall be moſt like the touch of your ingot, which will better appear by being wetted with your tongue, and that of your needle the gold or ſilver ingot, or piece, is beſt like unto, of that fineneſs it will be found.—This is eſteemed one of the beſt methods of judging of the ſuperior metals by the touch; but theſe are all very imperfect ways of knowing the qualities of gold and ſilver, in compariſon to that of an accurate aſſay. See the article ALLAY, ASSAY, AQUA FORTIS, AQUA REGIA, REFINING, SILVER, ORES.

REMARKS.

In purchaſing of gold by the touch, where there is no opportunity of having an aſſay, it requires very conſtant practice. Wherefore thoſe who do not daily deal therein, but only occaſionally in foreign countries, ſhould, during the time of their voyage, often practiſe their touches, according to what has been before obſerved, rubbing them on the touch-ſtone one by another, till they become familiarized to diſtinguiſh the qualities of the one from thoſe of the other; which conſtant practice will as eaſily enable the ſupercargo, &c. as the domeſtic goldſmith, to purchaſe with ſecurity.

Gold, by the laws of China, is forbidden to be exported; yet the mandarines themſelves will ſometimes help you to it.

Ten tale weight of gold, touch 92, bought at touch for touch (the moſt governing price) amounts to 111 oz. 8 dwt. 5 gr. current ſilver; at 5 s. 6 d. per ounce, is l. 30: 12: 8, for which you have 12 oz. 2 dwt. 4 gr. worth about 4 l. an ounce in London, amounting to l. 48: 8: 8, and makes upwards of 58 per cent. profit.

By reaſon of prohibiting the exportation of gold in China, the Europeans generally run privately moſt of their ſilver; not to avoid any duties payable thereon, but to conceal the amount of their imports, that thereby no conjectures may be made of the gold they export.

This valuable commodity is not altogether the produce of China, but is brought in great quantities by their junks from Cochinchina, in return for the goods ſent thither.

Of the vaſt quantities of European coins which the Chineſe receive, they preſerve none entire, but run all down in iron moulds, forming a ſhapeleſs lump from 5 mace to 10 tale weight; every man melts his own money at the goldſmith's; what is applied to the payment of ſance and emperor's duties muſt be Siſee, or 100 touch, no other being received into the emperor's treaſury.—For other uſes they make different touches, as they may ſerve their purpoſes of trade, in the different provinces of the empire.

Their weights for gold and ſilver.

		oz.	dwt.	gr.
10 Caſh is -	1 Candarine			
10 Candarines -	1 Mace			
10 Mace - -	1 Tale, hitherto reckoned but this is rather too much.	1:	4:	5

Theſe are the weights for ſilver and gold, and may be called by the names of their money, for under theſe denominations are their accounts kept.

Of the gold trade of AFRICA.

To what a degree this country abounds in gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueze, the Dutch, and the French, who have ſettlements on the continent of Africa as well as we, but we have numberleſs living witneſſes now among our own nation, and the vouchers of the moſt authentic hiſtorians; whoſe accounts, one would imagine, ſhould rouſe and animate us to puſh this traffic to the utmoſt degree and profit we are capable; for at preſent it is but in its infancy, which is no leſs true than extraordinary, notwithſtanding we have been in poſſeſſion of this trade ever ſince the reign of queen Elizabeth.

There are no countries in the world, ſays the celebrated hiſtorian Leo Africanus, richer in gold and ſilver than the kingdoms in Africa; as thoſe of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Butua, Quiticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Meheneinugi. By the means of ſettlements of ſtrength, adds he, upon the continent of Africa, Europeans may traffic with the bordering people of Guinea and Lybia, and get into their hands the gold of Mandingo, and its adjacent territories; among which are thoſe of the king of Congo, whoſe kingdom is one of the moſt flouriſhing and plentiful countries in Ethiopia.

From this country we might alſo eaſily have communication with that of Prete-Janny, which abounds with elephants, and ſuch proviſions and neceſſaries as would give ſingular eaſe and conveniency to facilitate ſuch intercourſes of commerce.

Upon the confines of the kingdom of Congo lies Angola, with the king of which Paulo Dias, a Portugueze captain, waged war; the principal reaſon whereof was, certain ſilver mines that the captain diſcovered in the mountains of Cambabe, no way inferior to thoſe of Potoſi in the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies.

The ſame hiſtorian, ſpeaking of the river Gambia *, obſerves, that, by the exchange of European merchandize with the natives, we may eaſily draw to us the gold of all thoſe countries: and about ninety leagues up this river, there is a place called the Iſland of Elephants, in regard to the prodigious number of thoſe creatures, which alſo affords a very advantageous branch of traffic.

* Our preſent African company of England have James Fort and Iſland in the river Gambia, on the north coaſt, with various factories, many leagues up the river; it formerly mounted 90, now 31 great guns, contains alſo ſmall arms and ſtores, ſeveral warehouſes for merchandize, a negro-houſe for 200 negroes, and apartments for the governors, factors, writers, officers, artificers, ſoldiers, and caſtle-ſlaves.

But it would be endleſs to tranſcribe all the paſſages in this hiſtorian, relating to the rich mines both of gold and ſilver, wherewith the Africans abound, and how eaſy a matter it is for Europeans to carry on a very extenſive and very beneficial commerce with thoſe people.

Ghana, or Guinea, ſays another eminent hiſtorian *, is the greateſt city in all the countries of Negroland, the moſt populous, and the moſt abounding with merchandize: and not only very wealthy merchants travel thither from all the neighbouring parts, but alſo from the moſt remote corners of the weſt. This country borders upon the land of Vancara, very famous for the plenty and excellency of its gold mines. The king hath a grand palace near the banks of the Niger, and a maſs of gold therein of thirty pounds weight, as it was naturally produced in the mines; but what is extraordinary is, that this maſs of gold is completely pure and malleable, without being at all ſmelted by the ordinary arts of refining and ſeparation: it is alſo ſo extremely fine and ſoft, as, naturally produced, to admit of being hammered out as a ſpacious canopy of the prince's royal throne: to ſo great a perfection has nature brought gold ore in many parts of Africa.

* Vide Geographia Nubienſis, &c. à Gabriele Stonita Syriacarum & Arabicarum literarum profeſſore, 1619, p. 10.

A modern hiſtorian †, whoſe credit I never heard impeached, hath alſo confirmed the great treaſures in this part of the world, and hath deſcended to a very minute ſpecification of great variety of their mines.

† Nouvelle relation de L'Afrique occidentale, par Le Pere Jean Baptiſte Labat.

The greateſt part of our lands, ſays our author, where the mines are, produces gold in ſuch plenty, that it is quite unneceſſary to dig for it; it is needful only to take the ſuperficies of the earth, and waſh it in a bowl, to come at the gold duſt, and very often pieces of gold of pretty good weight *, &c.—The earth, ſays he again, which produces it, is not very hard, or difficult to dig; it is generally of the clayey kind, of various colours, and mixed with ſome ſandy kind of ore; ſo that ten men in Africa may do more work generally than 200 can in the richeſt mines of Peru.

* Nouvelle relation de L'Afrique occidentale, par Le Pere Jean Baptiſte Labat. Vol. iv. p. 39.

The negroes, proceeds he, are totally ignorant of the peculiar nature of lands that yield gold; they have no art or methods of judging, which do or do not afford that metal: they have a general idea, that there is plenty of gold mines almoſt every where, and the drier the earth is, and more unkindly in the production of vegetables, the more reaſon they imagine there is to believe ſuch places yield gold: wherefore they ſcratch and dig almoſt every-where indiſcriminately; and, when by their rambling ſearches they happen to diſcover plenty in one place, they continue to work there ſo long only as a diminution of the firſt plenty does not diſcontinue, and this without any workman-like ſkill in ſinking any depth, or diſcovering the courſe of the vein: and, ſo ſoon as the mine remarkably diminiſhes from its firſt plenty, they immediately forſake that place, and go in queſt of a freſh one, without ſearching there any further *.

* Nouvelle relation de L'Afrique occidentale, par Le Pere Jean Baptiſte Labat. Vol. iv. p. 40, 41.

When they find the mine rich, and that they can, without much trouble, obtain a conſiderable quantity of gold, they ſometimes vouchſafe to remain digging at the ſame place, even ſix, or perhaps ſeven feet deep; but that extent generally determines their ſearch; not becauſe the mine ceaſes to be leſs plentiful (for they confeſs, the deeper they ſink, the greater quantity of gold they find) but becauſe they have no invention of ſhafts, nor any other knowledge in the methods and nature of mining, to prevent the earth from falling in upon them.

* Labat, Vol. iv. p. 46, 47.

After this general account of the riches of Africa, our author gives us a detail of variety of rich mines; the truth of which appears, by his repreſentation, to be well atteſted. As 1. A gold and ſilver mine at Fourquarenne. 2. Another at Sambanoura, where he ſays the negroes find gold only by mere waſhing of the earth, without digging at all; they only rake it together with their hands from the ſurface of the earth. 3. A mine at Sagolla, where alſo they find gold upon the ſurface of the earth, by ſimple waſhing of it, without ſinking at all. This gold is extremely pure, and very eaſy of fuſibility. It may be preſumed, he ſays, that thoſe metallic earths would afford conſiderably more gold than what is found upon the bare ſuperficies. 4. Guinguiua-Faranna is a place quite ſowed, as it were, with gold mines; where take the earth almoſt indifferently, and waſh it, you will find pure gold which melts with great eaſe *.

* Labat, Vol. iv. p. 47.

What indicates the riches of the land here ſtill more is, that the very rivulets of water that ariſe from it, and run into the river Falleme, carry with them ſo much gold, that the neighbouring negroes, when the mines are not waſhed by the permiſſion of their prince, come to theſe rivulets, and employ themſelves with waſhing the ſand, and find there conſiderable quantities of gold. Nor is this practice forbid them; and, if the negroes were not ſo indolent, they might greatly inrich themſelves, even by this peddling work *. 5. The mountains about Guinguiua-Faranna are of a ſoft earth, ſtrewed with gold ſand, which yields well in fine gold; as alſo there are golden marcaſites, which have proved of conſiderable value †.

* Labat, Vol. iv. p. 47, 48.
† Ditto, p. 47.

The mines likewiſe at Niaſanbona are very rich, and eaſy to be worked; but this ore ſhould be pounded and ſmelted. This requiring more art in refining than the negroes are maſters of, it would be eaſy to get poſſeſſion thereof *.

6. The moſt conſiderable mine that is at preſent open, and which the negroes work with more care, is that between the village of Tamba-oura and Nettico, about 30 leagues eaſt of the river Falemo, in the center of the country of Bombouco. This is ſurpriſingly rich, and produces a very fine gold; and, for 15 or 20 leagues round about, here is ſo great plenty of mines, that they cannot be well repreſented on the maps, by reaſon that ſo great a quantity would create confuſion: it may be ſaid, with great truth, that mines in this place are ſuperior to all others in thoſe parts of Africa †.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 50.
† Ibid. p. 51.

The want of almoſt all the conveniencies of life here has put the negroes under the neceſſity of working their mines with ſomething of more induſtry than is uſual among them. They have ſunk here even 10 feet deep, which is very extraordinary with them, and a matter of great difficulty to accompliſh, they wanting both materials and experience for matters of this nature.

7. They find, however, at this depth, gold in much greater abundance than by merely ſearching the ſuperficies of the earth, or by a little ſhallow digging, as they do in all other places. It happens ſometimes, that the veins they meet with are mixed with a kind of ſand, or ſome more congealed earth; and long experience has taught them to pound and waſh this ore, to ſeparate the gold from it; which then they find very plentiful, and very pure. But, if they were well acquainted with the arts of ſmelting and refining of ores, they would produce conſiderably more; but they have no knowledge thereof, nor have they ever yet come to the main vein of any of their mines *.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 52.

8. There are two gold mines at Naye. That which is on the brink of the river has been a long time left off working, only becauſe it is ſubject to be overflowed. But they have opened another a little diſtance from this, upon the right of the river, which is not liable to be overflowed, and, therefore, may be worked at all times *.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 54.

9. About 20 leagues above Coinoura, to the left of the river, there is a gold mine, in the land of Tomane Niacalen, which is very rich, and of a pure metal. It is very eaſy to work, and yet the negroes have left it, upon an idle ſuperſtition that prevails among them *.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 54, 55.

10. There are an infinite number of other places with evident ſignatures of mines of gold. Among others, there are many about 17 leagues from the mouth of the river Faleme, in the Niger, which are no way inferior in value to thoſe before mentioned in the mountains of Nettico and Tamba-oura *.

* Labat, vol. iv. p. 55.

REMARKS.

That the inland parts of Africa, which have been little frequented by traders, abound with gold, ſeems to be a point out of all doubt, if we pay any regard to human teſtimony, either by written or oral tradition; which might be ſhewn from great variety of other authorities, was it needful. That the article of gold alone, therefore, would ſupply the Africans wherewith to barter for European commodities to a far greater degree than has ever yet been experienced, is very reaſonable to believe: and, conſequently, thoſe nations who have ſo eſtabliſhed their trade to Africa, as to promote the greateſt inland traffic with thoſe people, are likely to be the greateſt gainers thereby. May it not, therefore, ſtill deſerve conſideration, whether the African trade of this nation is yet bottomed upon the moſt beneficial footing? The mere ſkimming a little of the coaſt-trade for gold, ivory, and ſlaves, ſeems to be but a very ſmall advance in this commerce, in compariſon to what it will certainly admit of.

By what means this traffic may be more honourably, and more humanely improved, ſee the articles AFRICAN TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN COMPANY.

Of the GOLD TRADE of AMERICA.

It is generally underſtood that ſilver is the peculiar wealth of Peru; and the Spaniards have alſo gold mines there.—There are alſo two waſhing-places for gold in the ſouth part of Peru, near the frontiers of Chili. About the year 1709 there were two ſurpriſing large lumps of virgin gold found in one of theſe places, one of which weighed 32 pounds complete, and was purchaſed by the count de Montcloa, then viceroy of Peru, and preſented to the king of Spain: the other was ſhaped ſomewhat like an ox's heart: it weighed 22 pounds and a half, and was bought by the corregidor of Africa.

To find theſe lavadero's, or waſhing-places, they dig in the corners of a little brook, where, by certain tokens, they judge the grains of gold to lie. To aſſiſt in carrying away the mud, they let a freſh ſtream into it, and keep turning it up, that the current may ſend it along.—When they are come to the golden ſand, they turn off the ſtream another way, and dig with their mattocks; and this earth they carry on mules to certain baſons, joined together by ſmall channels: into theſe they let a ſmart ſtream of water, to looſen the earth, and carry all the groſs part away. The Indians ſtanding in the baſons, and throwing out all the ſtones, the gold at bottom is ſtill mixed with a black ſand, and hardly to be ſeen, till it be farther ſeparated.

In theſe waſhing-places are found gold grains as big as bird-ſhot; and in one, belonging to the prieſts near Valparaiſo, ſome are found from two or three ounces to a pound and half weight.—This way of getting gold is much better than from the mines; here is no need of iron crows, mills, or quickſilver; ſo that both the trouble and expence are much leſs.

The moſt conſiderable port in Chili is that of Valparaiſo, which is eſteemed one of the beſt harbours in the South-Seas. It lies upon a river 15 leagues below St. Jago, the capital of Chili. To this port all the riches of the gold mines behind it, and on every ſide, are brought, particularly from thoſe of Tiltil, which are immenſely rich, and lie between this port and the city of St. Jago.

The gold here is found in a very hard ſtone, ſome of which ſparkles, and betrays the incloſed treaſure to the eye; but moſt of it has not the leaſt ſign of gold, but appears to be an hard harſh kind of ſtone, of very different colours, ſome white, ſome red, ſome black. This ore, broken to pieces, is ground in a mill, by the help of water, into a groſs powder, with which quickſilver is afterwards mixed: to this paſte they let in a ſharp ſtream of water, which having reduced it to a kind of mud, the earthy particles are carried off by the current, and the gold and quickſilver precipitated, by their own weight, to the bottom.—When this mud has ſettled a little, into a ſort of paſte, they put it into a linnen bag, and ſtrain it very hard, by which operation the mercury is driven out, or at leaſt the greateſt part of it, and the remainder they evaporate by the help of fire; ſo that they have all the gold together in a little wedge, like a pine-apple, whence it derives its name of pinna.—In order to clear the gold from the ſilver it is firſt impregnated with, the lump muſt be run, and then the exact weight is known, and the true fineneſs; it is not done otherwiſe there.—The weightineſs of the gold, and the facility of its amalgamation with mercury, makes the droſs eaſily ſeparate from it: this is an advantage the gold-miners have over thoſe of ſilver; they every day know what they get, which is not the caſe of the ſilver-miners.—See the article SILVER.

According to the nature of the mines, and the richneſs of the veins, every caxon, or 50 quintals, or 100 hundred weight, yields four, five, or ſix ounces.—When it yields but two, the miner does not make good his expence, which frequently happens; but he has ſometimes good amends made him, when he meets with rich veins; for the gold mines are, of all mines, thoſe which produce metals the moſt unequally.—They follow a vein, which grows wider, then narrower, and ſometimes ſeems to be loſt in a ſmall ſpace of ground. This ſport of nature makes the miners live in hopes of finding what they call the purſe, being the ends of veins, ſo rich, that they have ſometimes made a man wealthy at once: and this inequality ſometimes ruins them; which is the reaſon that it is more rare to ſee a gold-miner rich than a ſilver-miner, or of any other metal, though there be leſs expence in extracting it from the mineral. For this reaſon, alſo, the miners have peculiar privileges; for they cannot be ſued to execution on civil accounts, and gold pays only $\frac{1}{20}$ part to the king, which is called covo, from the name of the perſon to whom the king made the grant, becauſe they uſed before to pay the $\frac{1}{5}$, as they do of ſilver.

On the deſcent of this mountain there runs, during the winter, or rather during the rainy ſeaſon, a pretty briſk ſtream of water, which, paſſing through the gold ore, waſhes away abundance of that rich metal, as it ripens and breaks from its bed: and, therefore, for about four months in the year, this is accounted one of the richeſt lavadero's in Chili, ſince there are frequently found pellets of pure gold, of an ounce weight.

At Palma, which is but four leagues from Valparaiſo, there is another rich lavadero; and, every-where throughout the country, the fall of a brook or rivulet is attended, more or leſs, with theſe golden ſhowers, the richeſt whereof fall into the laps of the jeſuits, who farm, or purchaſe, abundance of mines and lavadero's, which are wrought for their benefit, by their ſervants.

Yet it is agreed, that a great part of the inhabitants do not ſeem to abound in wealth; which, however, may be very well accounted for, if we conſider that ſuch as deal in cattle, corn, and other the product of the country, acquire but moderate fortunes; and ſuch as are concerned in mines are frequently ruined, by launching into too great expence about them. But, after all, ſuch as are eaſy in their circumſtances, and, in conſequence of that eaſe, retire to St. Jago, live in ſuch a manner as ſufficiently demonſtrates the riches of Chili, ſince all their utenſils, even thoſe that are moſt common, are of pure gold; and it is believed that the wealth of this city alone cannot fall ſhort of 20,000,000l.—Add to this, that the gold mines are continually increaſing; and it is only for want of hands that they are not wrought to infinitely more advantage, thoſe already diſcovered, and neglected, being ſufficient to employ 40,000 men. It may be likewiſe obſerved, that the frauds practiſed for deceiving the king daily increaſe; and, as they meaſure the riches of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies by the ſtandard of the king's revenue, this muſt neceſſarily make them appear poorer than they really are. As the policy of the Spaniards has hitherto conſiſted chiefly in endeavouring, by all ways and means poſſible, to reſtrain the vaſt riches of theſe extenſive dominions from paſſing into other hands; ſo the knowledge that other nations have of the mighty wealth of theſe countries, on the one hand, and of the great demand for European manufactures among their inhabitants, on the other, has excited almoſt every nation in Europe to practiſe all methods poſſible, in order to gain a ſhare in them; and this with ſo good effect, that it is very doubtful whether any conſiderable part of the riches of the Weſt-Indies centers among the inhabitants of Old Spain. But the ſyſtem of Spain is now upon the change; and they ſeem determined to reap all the benefit in their power by the commerce of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, as well as by that in Europe. See the articles BISCAY, SPAIN, SPANISH AMERICA.

The gold trade of Brazil, belonging to the king of Portugal, being carried on in much the ſame manner as that of Spain, it is needleſs to ſay more at preſent, than to obſerve, that, in order to judge of the true value of gold belonging to the king of Spain, which there paſſes through the hands of the preſident and commiſſioners, it is all ſold upon condition to be aſſayed, and not judged of merely by the touch, as is done in ſeveral parts of the Eaſt-Indies. For,

Gold is ſo precious a metal, that any very ſmall difference, in the aſſay of ſilver or copper in every piece, will run up to a conſiderable ſum; and, therefore, the laws have ſettled the value of gold and ſilver, not by the touch, but by trial of aſſay, and this ſo exactly and demonſtrably, that what a very ſmall ſcale decides, is afterwards made out and proved by arithmetic. And becauſe not only money was to be made of this metal, but jewels, chains, utenſils, and other things; therefore the law appointed, that there ſhould be a head marker and toucher, to overlook and approve of the reſt of them, that, being expert at touching gold and trying ſilver, they might judge of the fineneſs of the goldſmiths work. And whereas, in order to make an aſſay, ſomewhat is to be taken of the ingot of gold or ſilver that is to be aſſayed, which cannot be done with jewels, chains, or rings, without ſpoiling the faſhion; therefore the only and univerſal method has always been to touch the gold, and mark the plate, relying only upon the exactneſs of the eye at certain times of the day, and on a ſtone, upon which the true fineneſs does not ſometimes appear ſuperficially, either becauſe the gold is ill coloured, or not ſo perfectly refined.

As for ſilver, they rely altogether upon the colour that appears after it is tried; both which methods are no better than conjectures or ſurmiſes, in compariſon of the certainty of the aſſays. For which reaſon, in criminal cauſes, againſt ſuch as do not work gold or ſilver according to the ſtandard, no caſe has been decided by the head aſſayer, or judges to whom it belongs, without making experiment by aſſay; and had the touch been ſecure, it would certainly have been relied on in ſome caſes; whereas, on the contrary, ſeveral perſons have been cleared by the aſſay, who have been ſuſpected for cheats by the touch. It follows, therefore, that merchants ought to be perſuaded it is much ſafer for them to diſpoſe of their gold by aſſay, than by touch; for otherwiſe there might be a vaſt trouble ſaved in aſſaying all the king's gold over again, as is done at Seville, though it has been all actually aſſayed in the Indies. This has been the practice of all times in Spain ever ſince gold was brought from the Indies, and touching was never yet admitted of.

A brief account of all the monies of gold and ſilver coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, with the true value thereof in current money.

	l.	s.	d.
Coined in ſterling ſilver money in the mints in the Tower of London, from the year 1558 to the year 1572, in the time of Tho. Stanley and Tho. Fleetwood, under-treaſurers, in weight 549,644 lb. 10 dwts. making at 3l. the pound weight — — —	1,648,932	2	6
More, from 1572 to 1581, in the time of John Loniſon, maſter and worker, in weight 255,338 lb. 2 oz. 8 dwt. 7 gr. making, at the ſame rate — —	766,014	12	—¾
More, from 1581 to 1601, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, maſter and worker, in weight 670,331lb. 2 oz. 10 dwt. making, at the ſame rate —	2,010,993	12	6
More, from September 1601, to 31 March, 1603, in the time of the ſame maſter, in weight 63,890lb. 7 oz. making, at 3l. 2s. the pound weight — —	198,060	16	2
Coined in March, 3 Eliz. in Iriſh money of 11 ounces fine, in weight 2,277 lb. making, at 3l. the pound weight — —	8,931	—	—
The whole ſum of ſterling ſilver coined in the queen's time was in weight 1,542,181 lb. 8 dwt. 7 gr. making in money —	4,632,932	3	2¾
Coined in baſe Iriſh money, in March, 1 Eliz. of 3 ounces fine ſilver, and 9 ounces of allay, in weight 19,828 lb. worth, in ſterling money — —	15,541	10	3¼
More of like baſe money, in the time of Sir Richard Martyn, in weight 89,844 lb. 10 oz. 15 dwt. worth, in ſterling money	70,105	9	2½
So that the whole value of the ſilver money coined in the queen's time amounted to — —	4,718,579	2	8½
Coined in fine gold money in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 12,201 lb. 8 oz. 22 gr. which made in current money, at 36l. the pound weight —	439,260	2	9
More, from 1601 to 1603, in weight 35 lb. 4 oz. 7 dwt. 8 gr. which made in current money, at 36l. 10s. the pound weight —	1,292	6	—¾
The ſum total of all the fine gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 12,237 lb. 18 dwt. 6 gr. and made in current money	440,552	8	9¾
Coined in crown gold money in the mint in the Tower of London, from 1558 to 1601, in weight 10,086 lb. 3 oz. 18 dwt. 17 gr. which made in current money, at 33l. the pound weight —	332,848	16	5½
More, from 1601 to 1603, in weight 643 lb. 10 oz. 8 dwt. 21 gr. which made in current money, at 33l. 10s. the pound weight — —	21,737	3	1½
The ſum total of all the crown gold coined in the queen's time, was in weight 10,730 lb. 2 oz. 7 dwt. 14 gr. and made in current money — — —	354,585	19	7
And the true value of all the gold and ſilver monies coined in the time of queen Elizabeth, amounted to — — —	5,513,717	11	1¼

'The whole quantity of the money coined (ſays the learned 'Martyn Folkes, Eſq; late preſident of the Royal Society of 'London *) in the reign of king James I. cannot, as Mr

* See his Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 71.

'Lowndes has obſerved in his Eſſay, be known directly from 'the books of the Mint, by reaſon that, many of the records 'and papers of that office having been deſtroyed or embezzled during the time of the great rebellion, the memorials of all tranſactions there, older than the reſtoration of 'king Charles II. are now either loſt, or remain in a very 'imperfect condition. Yet may a tolerable account be collected of this matter, by the aſſiſtance of other materials: 'and I have accordingly drawn out a memorandum, which 'will, I hope, be found ſufficiently exact; partly from a 'paper of archbiſhop Williams, wherein is an account 'given of the coinage during the firſt 13 years of the 'king; partly from a certificate delivered to the council 'the 27th of November, 1618, in which is contained an account

accoun t of the weight of the gold and ſilver coined in the ‘ ſeveral years from his 9th to his 15th; and partly from ſome ‘ extracts of the comptrollers accounts of his latter years, ‘ communicated to me formerly by the late John Conduit, ‘ Eſq; then maſter and worker of his majeſty's Mint. By ‘ which ſeveral particulars it appears, that there was coined, ‘ from the 31ſt of May, 1603, to the 31ſt of March, 1625,

	l.	s.	d.
‘ In angel gold, at the ſeveral rates ‘ of 36l. 10s. 40l. 10s. 44l. 11s. ‘ and 44l. 10s. the pound weight, ‘ to the value of — — —	32,093	17	9
‘ In crown gold, at the ſeveral rates ‘ of 33l. 10s. 37. 4s. 40l. 18s. ‘ 4d. ¾, and 41l. the pound ‘ weight, to the value of —	3,634,296	1	2
	3,666,389	18	11
‘ In ſterling ſilver, at 3l. 2s. the ‘ pound weight — — —	1,641,004	13	3
‘ In like ſilver for Ireland, to the ‘ ſterling value of — —	124,957	1	7
	1,765,961	14	10
‘ And the total value of all the gold ‘ and ſilver monies coined in the ‘ reign of king James, excluſive ‘ of ſome baſe monies coined for ‘ Ireland, and of which I have ‘ ſeen no account, amounted to ‘ the value of — — —	5,432,351	13	9

‘ By an account which Mr Lowndes has publiſhed in his Eſ- ‘ ſays, the ſilver money coined in the reign of king Charles ‘ I. and by which we muſt only underſtand the ſilver mo- ‘ ney regularly coined in the Tower of London, amounted ‘ to the ſum of 8,776,544l. 10s. 3d. but of the gold there ‘ alſo coined, during the ſame time, I am not able to give ſo ‘ exact an account. All I can ſay is, that, by a paper I ſaw ‘ in the hands of the late Mr Conduit, the weight of the an- ‘ gel gold coined from the beginning of the king's reign to ‘ the 25th of November, 1642, and which was coined into ‘ angels only, was that of 284 lb. 5 oz. 9 dwt. 9 gr. which ‘ made in money then current, at the rate of 44 l. 10 s. the ‘ pound weight, the ſum of 12,658 l. 5 s. 9 d. ob. And it ‘ appears, by the accounts of the pix, that there has been no ‘ angel gold coined in England ſince that time. It alſo fur- ‘ ther appeared, by the ſame paper, that there was coined in ‘ crown gold, from the king's acceſſion to the 31ſt of March, ‘ 1641, in weight 68,832 lb. 11 oz. 11 dwt. 4 gr. and by ‘ two other papers, purporting to be the accounts of Sir ‘ Ralph Freeman, and Sir Thomas Ayleſbury, from the 1ſt ‘ of Auguſt, 1641, to the 5th of May, 1643, and Sir Robert ‘ Harley, from the 6th of May, 1643, to the 31ſt of March, ‘ 1646, that there was coined, during that time, in crown ‘ gold, the weight of 7,052 lb. 2 oz. 11 dwt. 1 gr. to ‘ which laſt weight, if we add proportionably for the four ‘ months elapſed between the 31ſt of March and the 1ſt ‘ of Auguſt, 1641, and for the 34 months between the end of ‘ theſe accounts and the 30th of January, 1648, we cannot ‘ very greatly miſtake in ſuppoſing the weight of the crown ‘ gold, coined from the 1ſt of April, 1641, to the time of ‘ the king's death, to have been of about 11,826 lb. which, ‘ added to the former quantity, will make, for the whole ‘ weight of the crown gold coined in this reign, about ‘ 80,659 pounds; and which, reduced into money, at the ‘ rate of 41 l. to the pound weight, produces of the ſame ‘ 3,307,019 l. To which if we add the value before given ‘ of the angel gold, and of the ſilver coined in the ſame ‘ time, we ſhall find that the whole ſum in gold and ſilver ‘ coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king ‘ Charles I. did not, in current money, amount to leſs than ‘ about 12,096,220 l. ſterling *.’

* Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 78.

‘ What quantity of money was coined during the common- ‘ wealth, I have, ſays the ſame author, never been able to ‘ learn. All the papers I have ſeen relating to that ſubject ‘ were only ſome extracts Mr Conduit had of Dr Guer- ‘ dian's accounts, for about four years and a half elapſed ‘ between the 16th of May, 1649, when he entered upon ‘ his office, and the 30th day of November, 1653; by ‘ which it appeared that there was coined at the Tower, ‘ during that time, in crown gold, the weight of 1,768 lb. ‘ 7 oz. 17 dwt. 16 gr. making in tale, at 41 l. the pound ‘ weight, the ſum of 72,514 l. 18 s. 8 d. ¼: and, in ſterling ‘ ſilver, the weight of 123,644 lb. 1 oz. 8 dwt. 12 ‘ making in tale, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of ‘ 383,294 l. 15 s. 4 d. ¼: ſo that the whole coinage, both ‘ in gold and ſilver, during the ſaid time, amounted to the ‘ value of 455,809 l. 14 s. 0 d. ½ *.’

* Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 96.

By the duplicates and atteſted copies of the comptrolment-rolls, and other books remaining in his majeſty's Mint, it appears that there was coined in the Tower of London, du- ring the reign of king Charles II. and after his reſtoration, the ſeveral ſums mentioned in the following account, that is to ſay,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold of 22 carats fine, and 2 carats of allay, from the 20th of July, 1660, to the 31ſt day of December, 1662, the weight of 918 lb. 8 oz. 3dwt. the which, being coined into units, com- monly called broad-pieces, double crowns, and Britain crowns, and into milled units of the ſame weight as the others, made in money then current, at the rate of 41 l. the pound weight, the value of — — — —	37,665	16	11
In like gold, from the 1ſt of Janu- ary, 1662, to the 6th day of Fe- bruary, 1684, the weight of 93,024 lb. 6 oz. 8 dwt. 13 gr. the which being coined into 20 ſhil- ling pieces, commonly called guineas, pieces of 10 ſhillings, 40 ſhillings, and 5 pounds, made in money then and ſtill current, at 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of — — — —	4,139,588	2	6
Total of the gold in weight, 93,943 lb. 1 oz. 11 dwt. 13 gr. making in money — —	4,177,253	19	5

Note, That although the warrant for the cutting the pound weight of gold into 44 guineas and a half was not ſigned until the 24th of December, 1663, yet the weight of 27 lb. 8 oz. coined ſome time before, and which was the only gold minted ſince the laſt day of the preceding December, was really coined into guineas, and as ſuch delivered, on the 31ſt of the following December, 1663.

In ſterling ſilver, of 11 oz. 2 dwt. fine, and 18 dwt. of allay, from the 20th day of July, 1660, to the 5th day of February, 1662, the weight of 175,691 lb. 2 oz. 10 dwt. the which being coined into hammered money, at 3l. 2s. the pound weight, made, in the coins then current, the ſum of	544,642	14	11
In like ſilver, from Feb. 6, 1662, to Feb. 6, 1684, the weight of 1,025,012 lb. 14 dwt. 14 gr. the which being coined into milled money, at the ſame rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, made in the coins then and ſtill current, the ſum of — — —	3,177,537	7	9¼
Total of the ſilver in weight, 1,200,703 lb. 3 oz. 4 dwt. 14 gr. making in money — —	3,722,180	2	8½
And the total value of all the mo- nies, both of gold and ſilver, coined in this reign, according to the foregoing rates, amounted to the ſum of — — —	7,899,434	2	1¼

How far the accounts of this ingenious gentleman are to be relied on, may be gathered from his own words, where he ſays, ‘ It may be noted, that part of the ſilver above men- ‘ tioned was the produce of 1,500,000 French crowns, or ‘ 4,500,000 livres Tournois, received for the ſale of Dun- ‘ kirk; which produced, in ſtandard ſilver, the weight of ‘ 108,636 lb. 6 oz. 3 dwt. 2 gr. and made, in coined Eng- ‘ liſh money by tale, 336,773 l. 3 s. 9 d. ½; as alſo, that ‘ other part of the ſame ſilver was the produce of what were ‘ called the crown and harp monies, which Sir Thomas Vy- ‘ ner, Knt. and Bt. Francis Meynell, Eſq; then ſheriff of ‘ London, and Edward Backwell, Eſq; contracted with his majeſty

'majeſty on the 6th of December, 1651, to take in by tale, 'and to coin with all convenient expedition, at their own 'charge, into Engliſh current monies; receiving for the 'ſame a conſideration of 5 l. 10 s. for every 100 l. in the 'tale, in lieu of want of weight, and expence of coinage; 'upon which there was accordingly coined, of the croſs and 'harp monies, the ſum of about 500,000 l. in tale.

'And here I muſt acknowledge the particular favours of the 'honourable Richard Arundel, Eſq; now maſter and worker 'of his majeſty's mint; who, knowing that I was making 'enquiries of this ſort, was kindly pleaſed to direct I ſhould 'have free acceſs to any of the books or papers of his of-'fice; and by whoſe leave the ingenious and accurate Mr. 'Anthony Pollet, of the ſame, communicated to me his 'own extracts, drawn out with great labour and exactneſs 'from the original records, and wherein are contained the 'particular accounts of all the ſums, both of gold and ſilver, 'coined ſince the reſtoration of king Charles II. From theſe 'extracts the foregoing account was taken, as were alſo thoſe 'others of the ſame ſort, that I ſhall have occaſion to pro-'duce in the ſequel of theſe pages. Nor muſt I at the ſame 'time omit returning thanks to my friends Mr Joſeph Har-'ris, one of the aſſay-maſters, and Mr Charles Smyth, the 'deputy comptroller, who have, on all occaſions, been ready 'to favour me with any informations I wanted in relation 'to this affair; as indeed every officer of the mint has been 'that I have on any occaſion applied myſelf to, and from all 'which I have received particular inſtances of regard and 'great civility*.'

* Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 112.

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king James II. that is to ſay, from the 7th day of February, 1684, to the 13th day of February, 1688.

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 47,497lb. 6 oz. 1 dwt. which being coined into 20 ſhilling pieces, called guineas, &c. made at the rate of 44l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of — —	2,113,638	18	8½
In ſterling ſilver, the weight of 167,198 lb. 10 oz. 6 dwts. 20 gr. making in money, at the rate of 3l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of	518,316	9	5¼
Total value of both the gold and the ſilver* — — — —	2,631,955	8	1¾

* Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 114.

An abſtract of the accounts of the great recoinage.

	lb.	oz.	dwt.	gr.
Of the ſilver coined in the Tower of London, from the 30th day of September, 1695, to the 31ſt day of December, 1699, there was in 12 general remains of clipped hammered ſilver monies, taken in by the lords of the Treaſury, melted at Weſtminſter into 10 thouſand, 9 hundred, and 33 ingots, and then ſent to the Mint, the weight of — — —	790,860	1	19	8
There was likewiſe of hammered money and wrought plate imported into the Mint, and there melted, the weight of — —	696,971	—	16	19
The hammered money and wrought plate imported into the five country mints, made in weight,				
At Briſtol - - - - - - -	146,977	—	—	—
At Cheſter - - - - - - -	101,660	—	—	—
At Exeter - - - - - - -	147,296	—	—	—
At Norwich - - - - - - -	83,040	—	—	—
At York - - - - - - -	99,023	—	—	—
The total of the hammered and clipped ſilver money, and of the wrought plate imported, amounted to the weight of*	2,065,827	2	16	3

* Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 124.

	l.	s.	d.
Which makes, at 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the ſum of 6,404,064 l. 8 s. 6d. but which being coined ſomewhat lighter, though within the remedy allowed, produced really in tale the ſum of - -	6,435,039	14	9½
There was coined in the Tower of London, during the joint reigns of king William and queen Mary; that is to ſay, from the 14th day of February, 1688, to the 28th day of December, 1694,			
In crown gold, the weight of 9,962lb. 8 oz. 14 gr. making in money, at 44 l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of — — — —	443,338	15	6
In ſterling ſilver, during the ſame time, the weight of 25,492lb. 4 oz. 18 dwt. 8 gr. making in money, at 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of — —	79,026	9	4¾
Total value of all the money, both of gold and ſilver, coined during the joint reigns of king William and queen Mary — — —	522,365	4	10¾
There was coined, during the remaining part of the reign of king William, after the queen's death, in crown gold in the Tower of London, from the 29th of February, 1694, to the 8th day of March, 1701, the weight of 66,866lb. 3 oz. 14 dwt. 11 gr. making in money, at the aforeſaid rate of 44 l. 10 s. the pound weight, the value of —	2,975,550	16	1½
In ſterling ſilver, during the ſame time, in the Tower, the weight of 1,684,600 lb. 19 dwt. 6 gr. and in the five country mints the weight of 577,996lb. making together the weight of 2,262,596lb. 19dwt. 6gr. and which produced in money, at the aforeſaid rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of — —	7,014,047	16	11¾
Total value of all the monies, both of gold and ſilver, coined from the deceaſe of queen Mary to the deceaſe of the king - - -	9,989,598	13	1
And the whole value of all the ſame monies coined from the king's acceſſion to his death, amounted to the ſum of - - - - - - -	10,511,963	17	11¾

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of queen Anne, that is to ſay, from the 9th day of March, 1701, to the 1ſt day of Auguſt, 1714,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 55,832lb. 2oz. making in money, at the rate of 44l. 10s. the pound weight, the value of	2,484,531	8	4
And in ſterling ſilver the weight of 66,804 lb. 9 oz. 15 dwt. which produced in money, at the rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the ſum of - - - - - - - -	207,094	18	4½
Total value of both * ſorts —	2,691,626	6	8½

* It may be noted, that it appears by the particulars of the accounts from which the foregoing extract is taken, that, in the years 1709 and 1711, during which the greateſt coinages of ſilver were made in this reign, there was coined, out of wrought plate brought in upon encouragement, the weight of 46,156 lb. 11 oz. 2 dwt. 3 gr. making in value about 144,000 l. ſterling, which was more than two-thirds of all the ſilver coined in the Tower, from her majeſty's acceſſion to her deceaſe.

But there was further coined in this reign at Edinburgh, upon the union, and by the Engliſh moniers ſent down thither, the weight of 103,346 lb. making in tale, at the aforeſaid rate of 3 l. 2 s. the pound weight, the ſum of 320,372 l. 12 s. ſterling money, all which I take to have been of their firſt coinage in the year 1707, or the very beginning of 1708. Beſides which, there was again a ſecond coinage ſoon after, and, before the end of the laſt mentioned year, 1708, when ſome ſilver, that could not conveniently be minted before, was alſo, like the other, converted into current money of Great-Britain: but of this laſt coinage I have met with no particular account.

There was coined in the Tower of London, during the reign of king George I. that is to ſay, from the ſecond day of Auguſt, 1714, to the 11th day of June, 1727,

	l.	s.	d.
In crown gold, the weight of 184,763lb. which computed at 46l. 14s. 6d. the pound weight, guineas having been ſettled and made current at 21s. each, by his majeſty's proclamation of the 22d of December, 1717, and being therefore no longer eſteemed as pieces of 20s. but of 21s. each, in the Mint, produced after that rate in money, the value of -	8,492,876	3	6
In ſterling ſilver, the weight of 75,176lb. making in money, at the rate of 3l. 2s. the pound weight, the ſum of - -	233,054	12	—
And the total value both of the gold and the ſilver, amounted to -	8,725,921	15	6

The care of this learned author, in the collection of the foregoing, and various other delicate particulars, may ſeem of little import to thoſe who will not deliberately weigh the extent of his penetration. For, amidſt divers other national purpoſes that his judicious obſervations will anſwer, and which will naturally occur to every one that has a ſuperior reliſh for ſtudies of this kind, there is one that will be generally uſeful, and upon which ſome important principles, I apprehend, of political arithmetic, may be founded.—Let the gentleman ſpeak for himſelf.

'Having now, ſays he, gone through thoſe obſervations I 'had to make upon our Engliſh ſilver coins, from the Norman conqueſt to the preſent time, I ſhall here add, as a 'general abſtract of the foregoing pages, and of what I prin'cipally deſigned ſhould be contained in them, a ſhort table, 'exhibiting at one view the ſtandard of our ſilver money as 'to goodneſs, together with the true weight of 240 pennies, '60 groats, or 20 ſhillings, making the pound ſterling, at 'the ſeveral times there noted in the firſt column; to which 'I have alſo added, in the laſt column, the ſame intrinſic 'value of the nominal pound ſterling, expreſſed in decimals 'of our preſent ſterling pound: whereby the proportion of 'the intrinſic value of any former ſums of money, as is now 'called by the ſame appellation, may immediately be known, 'and the prices of proviſions, labour, and materials, in former times, may readily be compared with the different 'prices which the like proviſions, labour, and materials, are 'found to bear at this day.

Year of the king's reign, and A. D.	Standard of the ſilver.	Weight of 20 ſhillings in tale. oz.	dwt.	gr.	Value of the ſame in preſent mon. l.	s.	d.	Proportion.
Conqueſt 1066	Old ſter.	11	5	—	2	18	1½	2,906
28 Ed. I. 1300		11	3	5	2	17	5	2,871
18 Ed. III. 1344		10	2	—	2	12	5¼	2,622
20 Same 1346		10	—	—	2	11	8	2,583
27 Same 1353		9	—	—	2	6	6	2,325
13 Hen.IV. 1412		7	10	—	1	18	9	1,937
4 Ed. IV. 1464		6	—	—	1	11	—	1,55
18 H.VIII. 1527	oz dwt.	5	6	16	1	7	6¾	1,378
34 Same 1543	W. 1 2	5	—	—	1	3	3¼	1,163
36 Same 1545	W. 5 2	—	—	—	0	13	11½	0,698
37 Same 1546	W. 7 2	—	—	—	0	9	3¾	0,466
3 Ed.VI. 1549	W. 5 2	3	6	16	0	—	—	—
5 Same 1551	W. 8 2	—	—	—	0	4	7¾	0,232
6 Same 1552	W. 0 1	4	—	—	1	—	6¾	1,028
1 Mary 1553	W. 0 2	—	—	—	1	—	3¾	1,024
2 Eliz. 1560	Old ſter.	—	—	—	1	—	8	1,033
43 Same 1601		3	17	10	1	—	—	1,000

Now, by a compariſon of the foregoing table of ſilver coins, with a table of gold publiſhed by the ſame author, it appears, that in the 27th year of king Edward III. 1353, when the firſt conſiderable coinage of gold was made in England, fine gold was rated in our coins at eleven times and about one ſixth part, as much as fine ſilver. But even this value of gold was thought too great in the time of king Henry the IVth, and the ſame being complained of by the regulations made in his 13th year, 1412, gold came to be exchanged for ten times and about one third of an equal quantity of ſilver. In the fourth year of king Edward the IVth, 1464, gold was again valued at a little more than eleven times the price of ſilver. During the 140 years next following, there was ſcarce any alteration made in the proportional value of the two metals; excepting only in the times of confuſion between the 34th year of king Henry the VIIIth, and the laſt of king Edward the VIth: and, by the indentures of the 43d year of queen Elizabeth, and thoſe of the firſt of king James, 1603, the pound weight of fine gold in the coin was yet rated at ſomewhat leſs than eleven pounds weight of fine ſilver. But ſoon after that time the price of gold was very ſenſibly advanced, the pound weight of it being valued in the indentures of the 2d year of king James, at better than twelve pounds and an ounce; and, in the 17th of the ſame king, at more than thirteen pounds four ounces and three pennyweights of fine ſilver; when guineas came firſt to be coined for 20s. pieces in the 15th year of king Charles the IId, 1663, the pound of fine gold was therein made equivalent to fourteen pounds five ounces ſixteen pennyweights and nine grains of fine ſilver; which value, by the running of guineas as they now do for 21s. each, is yet further advanced to fifteen pounds two ounces ten pennyweights and ſeven grains of the ſame ſilver*.

* Table of Engliſh Gold Coins, p. 143.

GOLDEN RULE, in arithmetic, a rule, whereby we find a fourth number proportional to three others that are given. It is called alſo the Rule of Three and the Rule of Proportion. See the article ARITHMETIC, where it is exemplified, and its reaſon demonſtrated.

GRACE, days of grace, or days of favour or reſpite, are a certain number of days, allowed by cuſtom for the payment of bills of exchange, or promiſſory notes, after the ſame becomes due, i.e. after the time they were accepted for is expired. In England, three days of grace are allowed; ſo that a bill accepted in order to be paid, e. gr. ten days after ſight, is not to be paid till thirteen days. Throughout France, they allow ten days of grace; as many at Dantzic; eight at Naples; ſix at Venice, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Antwerp; four at Francfort; five at Leipſic; twelve at Hamburgh; ſix in Portugal; fourteen in Spain; thirty in Genoa, &c.

N. B. Sundays and holidays are included in the number of days of grace. See ACCEPTANCE, BILLS of EXCHANGE.

GRAFTING, GRAFFING, or INGRAFTING, in agriculture and gardening. See ENGRAFING.

GRATIAS, are allowances made by the king of Spain, and the farms of the cuſtoms, by way of abatement of the duties on importation of merchandizes into Spain, in conſideration of the ſeveral alterations of the coin in that country, which had raiſed our duties, contrary to treaties, without the allowances of thoſe gratias, or favours, if you pleaſe.

REMARKS.

In the making treaties of commerce between one nation and another, the negociators thereof cannot have too circumſtantial a ſtate of the nature of the trade between ſuch nations. For want of which, in relation to the duties laid on, and the gratias granted in favour of our merchandizes in Spain, the treaty of Utrecht has been ſhewn to be very deficient. It may, therefore, prove a uſeful memento, to ſhew how this nation may be impoſed upon, in regard to the tariffs and duties laid on our merchandizes in ſuch foreign countries, where their coin is liable to be raiſed and fallen in an arbitrary manner, and our own is kept fixed and invariable. This matter being put by the oppoſers of the Utrecht treaty in a very intelligible light, and being applicable to future occaſions of a ſimilar nature, we cannot do better, 'tis apprehended, than to quote their ſenſe.

An account of the cuſtoms and duties which were payable on our woollen manufactures at Cadiz and port St. Mary's, from the concluſion of the treaty of commerce in 1697 by the earl of Sandwich, to the commencement of queen Anne's war, and to what we were liable to pay by the treaty of Utrecht; together with ſome reaſons, which induced the kings of Spain, from time to time, to veſt the adminiſtrators or farmers of the royal duties, with power to make ſuch juſt and reaſonable allowances to our merchants, as were abſolutely neceſſary to preſerve their commerce, and ſupport the revenue.

'The ALMOXARISFARGO [ſee that article] or cuſtom, which was paid upon taking our goods out of the cuſtom-houſe of Spain; and the alcavalla, which was payable according to the laws of Caſtille, at the place where, and at the time when, they are ſold, as well as all the other duties, which were afterwards impoſed, were collected upon the eſtabliſhed rates, in the old arancels, or regiſters.

Theſe were originally made by the people in the chief trading cities and towns, but varied one from another one or two per cent. and ſometimes more; however, they were generally eſteemed moderate, never exceeding the prices our goods and merchandizes were ſold at in that kingdom, in a current time of trade.

In the year 1667, and from thence until 1686, our bays, ſerges, perpets, cloths, &c. were charged, according to their reſpective valuations, with

12 : 37 ½ per cent, almoxarisfargo, and
12 : 82 ½ per cent. alcav. cien. &c. &c.

In all 25 : $\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. including premio's and 4to plata.

And our ſays, ſtockings, hats, &c. with

5 : 62 ½ per cent. almoxarisfargo, and
17 : 32 ½ per cent. alcav. cien. &c.

In all 22 : $\frac{95}{100}$ per cent. including premio's and 4to plata.

And, in anno 1686, they were ſubject to an additional duty of 1 and $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. conſulado and lonja, which, with a premio of 5 per cent. amounted to 1 $\frac{40}{100}$ per cent. whereby the whole duty on bays, &c. were 26 $\frac{60}{100}$ per cent. and on ſays, &c. 24 $\frac{35}{100}$ per cent.

Theſe were ſuch exorbitant duties, that they formerly diſcouraged trade, and introduced clandeſtine importations: whereupon the adminiſtrators, who collected theſe duties for the king's account, or the farmers who received them for their own uſe, according to the power granted them, made it a conſtant practice in the cuſtom-houſe to allow 25 per cent. to the merchants upon making up their cuſtoms, which was called the king's gratia; and this effectually ſecured their trade, and augmented the revenue.

When this abatement was firſt ſettled is very uncertain, but it has probably been of a long ſtanding: it was an eſtabliſhed rule in 1667, and was regularly and conſtantly allowed by the farmers, until ſuperſeded by the late treaty.

Since, therefore, by the third article of the earl of Sandwich's treaty, no new cuſtom or duties whatſoever ſhall be taken or increaſed, other than thoſe which in like caſes the natives themſelves and all other ſtrangers are obliged to pay; and that the Spaniſh farmers never diſputed this deduction for ſo many years ſucceſſively with any foreign nation that traded into that kingdom, both before and after that treaty, or with the natives thereof; certainly, if this exemption had been inſiſted on, it muſt have been allowed us; for to be treated in the ſame manner as the moſt favoured nation was our right, and it is laid down as a baſis of the treaty.

Thus then we had a right to the king's gratia, or rather abatement of 25 per cent. by cuſtom or preſcription; and it will alſo appear, that we had as juſt, if not a juſter right to the farmers gratia, though this proceeds from another cauſe.

For the Spaniſh dollar or piece of eight paſſing current, ſometimes but for 12, and at other times for 15, 20, and 25 rials copper or vellon; therefore, as a greater or leſſer number of theſe rials copper paſſed for a piece of eight, the adminiſtrators or farmers were neceſſitated to increaſe or diminiſh their gratias to the merchants.

In the year 1670, when the piece of eight paſſed for 20 rials copper, the farmers gratia was then but 20 per cent. on all woollen goods; and though the pieces of eight, between 1670 and 1680, roſe by degrees to 25 rials copper, yet I cannot find that the farmers altered their gratias.

But after 1680, when the piece of eight, by the king's proclamation, paſſed for no more than 12 rials copper (whereby our cuſtoms were at once more than doubled) the adminiſtrators and farmers ſucceſſively increaſed their gratias.

As appears at large by the adjuſtments made at Seville by the deputies of the Engliſh, Flemiſh, and Dutch nations, with Don Franciſco Eminente, adminiſtrator general, and afterwards with Don Gaſper Ruiz Dias, who allowed us 50 per cent. on perpets, ſays, &c. and 40 per cent. on bays.

And, from 1686 to 1702, during which time the piece of eight paſſed by another proclamation for 15 rials copper, the farmers gratia was reduced to and ſettled at 45 per cent. on ſays and other goods, and 40 per cent. on bays, as all the merchants then reſident at Cadiz and Port St. Mary's muſt acknowledge.

By this management of the farmers, the king's revenue was not leſſened, nor the merchants injured. For example,

If a merchant in 1670 entered with the Spaniſh farmers 100 bays, though they allowed thereon but 20 per cent. gratia, (beſides the king's conſtant gratia) yet, the piece of eight then paſſing for 20 rials copper, the cuſtom and duties on the ſaid bays, at 25 $\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. amount to 222 $\frac{6}{17}$ pieces of eight.

And, if in 1686 he entered the ſame quantity of bays, whereon the farmers gratia, or allowance, was then 40 (inſtead of 20 per cent. as in 1670) yet the piece of eight paſſing but for 15 rials copper, the cuſtom and duties at the ſame rate of 25 $\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. will amount exactly to the ſame ſum of 222 $\frac{6}{17}$ pieces of eight.

So that it is very apparent, the difference occaſioned by the dollar, or piece of eight, paſſing but for 15 inſtead of 20 rials copper, was juſtly allowed the merchant by the increaſe of gratias from 20 to 40 per cent.

It is as obvious alſo by other accounts, that the adminiſtrators or farmers, upon every other conſiderable alteration of this copper money, either augmented or leſſened their gratia, according to the rules of equity and juſtice.

From whence it muſt be concluded, that the ſaid gratias did not proceed from a remiſſneſs, or a falſe ſuggeſted eaſineſs in the Spaniards, but were granted, becauſe reaſonable and juſt.

And, therefore, as they never deprived us of our undoubted right to theſe gratias or allowances, this alſo might probably have been fixed by the treaty, had it been well underſtood and ſtrenuouſly endeavoured; and in ſuch a caſe we ſhould have been effectually ſecured againſt paying any greater duties than before the war.

For though, as aforeſaid, the cuſtom and duties payable in the reign both of king Charles II. and his preſent majeſty, were,

On bays, perpets, &c. 26 $\frac{60}{100}$ per cent.
And on ſays, &c. 24 $\frac{35}{100}$ per cent.

Yet by the ſaid gratias allowed ſince 1686 on the eſtabliſhed rates in the Spaniſh arancel, they were reduced to

9 $\frac{97}{100}$ per cent. on perpets,
10 $\frac{4}{100}$ per cent. on ſays, and
11 $\frac{97}{100}$ per cent on bays.

And the valuation in the book of rates was ſo favourable, that all theſe duties upon their ſales came out but at

9 $\frac{3}{100}$ per cent. on perpets,
8 $\frac{44}{100}$ per cent. on ſays, and
8 $\frac{13}{100}$ per cent. on bays.

But by the three explanatory articles of the late treaty, we are liable to pay 10 per cent. on all goods and merchandize imported and exported; and this is not to extend to the alcavallas, cientos, and millones.

Thus thoſe goods which were charged with 12 $\frac{37\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. almoxariſfargo, are hereby to pay the ſaid duty of 10 per cent. and the alcav. and cient. 14 $\frac{22\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. thereon are, in all, 24 $\frac{22\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

And thoſe that paid 5 $\frac{62\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. almoxariſfargo, are alſo charged with the aforeſaid duty of 10 per cent.

And the alcavallas or cientos thereon amount to 18 $\frac{72\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. in all 28 $\frac{72\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

Which is really on the eſtabliſhed rates,

24 $\frac{22\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. inſtead of $\begin{cases} 9\frac{97}{100} \text{ per cent. on perpets, and} \\ 11\frac{79}{100} \text{ on bays, as aforeſaid.} \end{cases}$

And 28 $\frac{72\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent. inſtead of 10 $\frac{4}{100}$ per cent. on ſays.

Conſequently, therefore, the duties lately demanded in Spain, on the foot of the preſent treaty, amount to more than, or are over and above the old duties,

On perpets 14 $\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On bays 12 $\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On ſays 18 $\frac{68\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

REMARKS.

1. It may be obſerved, that 10l. cuſtom paid on goods, which are valued at 100 l. is leſs than 10 per cent. of the real value of the goods, if they can be ſold for 120l. or for any thing more than 100l.

It is apparent, from what has been ſaid, that our Engliſh perpets, by the valuation in the arancel, or Spaniſh book of rates, did not pay above 9 $\frac{97}{100}$, per cent.; ſays not above 10 $\frac{4}{100}$ per cent. and bays not above 11 $\frac{97}{100}$, per cent. But theſe goods uſually ſold for ſo much more than that valuation, that the real cuſtoms paid on the firſt did not exceed 9 $\frac{3}{100}$ per cent.; on the ſecond 8 $\frac{44}{100}$, on the third 8 $\frac{13}{100}$ per cent. of the real value.

2. It is true, by gratias of the king of Spain, and by the farmers of his cuſtoms, as they were called, the aforeſaid goods paid no more than the aforeſaid duties; but then, as the king's gratia was always the ſame, viz. an abatement of one fourth part of the whole cuſtoms, ever ſince the treaty, of 1667, and during that time the farmers of the cuſtoms, or the adminiſtrators of the king's revenue, made always ſuch an allowance in the tale of the goods, that notwithſtanding all the variations in the Spaniſh coin, yet the cuſtoms paid on the real value were ſtill the ſame; it is a violent preſumption we had a right to that moderate valuation in their old arancel, and alſo to their gratias or abatements of the king and his farmers, or the adminiſtrators of his public revenue.

3. But the very words, in the third article of the treaty of 1667, put this matter out of doubt, viz. 'That no new 'cuſtoms or duties whatſoever ſhall be taken or increaſed, 'other than thoſe which the natives themſelves, and all 'other ſtrangers, are obliged to pay.'

No new cuſtoms or duties to be taken by the treaty of 1667! But we ourſelves conſented by the Utrecht treaty, that the king of Spain may take more than have been levied ever ſince the former treaty, viz.

On perpets 14 $\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On bays 12 $\frac{25\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

On ſays 18 $\frac{68\frac{1}{2}}{100}$ per cent.

So that the duties were more than doubled in Spain by that treaty, and we conſented to ſuch duties as were inconſiſtent with any trade. But this was not the caſe of France at that time, for they were ſelling their goods, while ours lay periſhing in the Spaniſh cuſtom-houſe.

The treaty of 1667 was ſigned May 23, and the next day Sir William Godolphin, who was ſecretary to our ambaſſy, and who was the chief contriver of that treaty, wrote thus to my lord Arlington: 'The treaty of commerce, I dare promiſe your lordſhip, comprehends not only all the privileges and advantages which this crown hath ever granted to any other ſtate or people, but likewiſe ſome conveniences which it hath never yet permitted to any other; for the better ſecurity and perfection whereof, I have diligently peruſed all the treaties theſe people have made with others, and all the royal cedulas they have granted in favour of any particular factories, and have not received from our factories any grievance or proportion of advantage in their commerce to be either remedied or procured for them, which we think is not ſufficiently provided for in this treaty.'

And, in another letter to his brother, May 25th, he ſays, 'I will only ſay to you in general of the treaty of commerce, That beſides all the freedoms and advantages of trade, which the crown of Spain hath granted to any other ſtate, we have thereby ſeveral conceſſions and conveniencies whereof we find no example in their articles with any other. And, I think, they have not made any other theſe hundred years, which I have not learned as MY LESSON, in order to the treating and perfection of this.'

Sir William Godolphin might juſtly ſay this, and the world will believe him; ſince, after that treaty, we paid no more than the moderate duties above-mentioned; and ſince the privilege of a JUDGE-CONSERVATOR [ſee TREATISE OF COMMERCE] without which we cannot trade with any ſecurity in that country, and which was only granted before the royal cedulas to our merchants, and might have been revoked by the king, was confirmed to us by that treaty.

But no man can believe, that the contrivers of the Utrecht treaty had learned all former treaties as their leſſon, or that indeed they had ever read that of 1667, though it is recited in their firſt article: it is of almoſt no uſe in that place, but to ſhew the people what privileges they enjoyed before, which were taken from them by the Utrecht treaty.

This confirms what lord Bolingbroke ſays, in his letter to Sir William Wyndham, that the miniſtry of his days were little acquainted with commerce; and he lays the blame all upon one man in the miniſtry of his time; which is a moſt pitiful ſubterfuge, when he had ſo great a ſhare in it. For the nature and foundation of treaties of commerce between nation and nation, ſee our article TREATIES OF COMMERCE.

GRANAT, a precious ſtone, of a high red colour. They are either oriental or occidental; the former are brought from the Eaſt-Indies, the other from Spain and Germany. Thoſe of the Eaſt are diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, the deep brown red, of which there are ſome as large as an hen's egg; others are nearly of the hyacinth colour, with which it were eaſy to confound them, but for their ſuperior redneſs. The laſt, having a mixture of violet with their red, are called by the Italians rubina della rocha.

The occidental granats are of divers reds. Thoſe of Spain imitate the colour of the kernel of a pomegranate; thoſe of Bohemia have a golden caſt intermixed with their red, glittering like a live coal: thoſe of Sileſia are the darkeſt of all, and ſeldom thoroughly tranſparent.—Thoſe of Bohemia are the moſt valued; ſome give them the preference to the oriental kind.

REMARKS.

Of the imitation of the granat colour in glaſs.

Take of cryſtal frit, of frit of rochetta, each an equal quantity; mix them well, and to 100 pound of theſe materials add one pound of manganeſe of Piedmont *, one ounce of zaffer; mix them well with the frits, then put them, little by little, into an earthen-pot made red-hot in the furnace, becauſe the glaſs is apt to riſe and run over. After four days, the glaſs being well tinged and purified, you may work it: you may increaſe or diminiſh the colour at pleaſure, if the operation be performed with any judgment.

* Put the pieces of manganeſe into an iron ladle, and put them into a reverberatory fire, and, when it begins to whiten, ſprinkle it with good vinegar; afterwards beat it and waſh it while hot; after that dry it, and reduce it into powder, and ſift it, and keep it in a veſſel covered for uſe. The beſt is eaſy to break, and very ſhining, the great and leſs pieces of it full of rocky matter as can be.

To imitate a granat colour in glaſs of lead.

The vivacity of this colour appears no leſs in glaſs of lead than in cryſtal, if it be carefully made. To make it, take 20 pounds of cryſtal frit, with 16 pounds of calx of lead; and after having added three ounces of manganeſe of Piedmont to it, and half an ounce of zaffer *, both prepared as we have ſhewn, put the whole into a pot heated in the furnace: twelve hours after, caſt that melted matter into the water, and take out the lead that remains behind in the pot. Then put the matter again in the ſame pot, where it will be purified ten hours after. Mix it well, and let the fæces precipitate; then ſee if the colour pleaſes, and work it for what uſes you require, for you'll have a glaſs of lead of a fine granat colour.

* Take zaffer in the largeſt pieces you can get, put it into earthen pans, and let it ſtand one day in the furnace; then put it into an iron ladle to be heated red-hot in the furnace, take it thence, and ſprinkle it with ſtrong vinegar: being cooled, grind it fine on a marble ſtone, after which waſh it with warm water in earthen-pans, letting the zaffer ſettle to the bottom, and decanting off the water gently: this will ſeparate the impurity from the zaffer, which will remain at the bottom pure and clean, which you muſt dry and grind again, and keep it in veſſels well cloſed for uſe: this will tinge glaſs much better than at firſt.

Of making a paſte for oriental granat.

Take two ounces of natural cryſtal prepared, [ſee CRYSTAL] ſix ounces of minium, with ſixteen grains of zaffer, prepared as before; let the whole be well pulverized and mixed together, and put in a crucible into the furnace with its cover well luted, there to bake, with precaution, and you'll have a very fine granat, as reſplendent as the oriental, if the proceſs be dexterouſly managed.

A deep oriental granat.

This colour will be not only deeper, but alſo much fairer than the preceding. To make it, take two ounces of natural cryſtal prepared, five ounces and a half of minium: add fifteen grains of manganeſe of Piedmont prepared: having pulverized it, mix the whole well together. As this matter riſes more than the other, you muſt leave a greater empty ſpace in the crucible. Cover the crucible with an earthen cover, lute it well and dry it, then put it in the hotteſt place of a potter's furnace, and let it ſtand as long as their pots. You may take notice once for all, that you muſt not break the crucible before the matter be thoroughly baked and purified; for, if you do, and ſo are obliged to put the matter into another crucible, the paſte will be painted and full of bliſters. But, well conducted, you will have a deeper oriental granat than the former, which you may poliſh, &c.

GREECE. Modern Greece, in its preſent ſtate, is divided into Macedonia, Albania, Epirus, Theſſaly, and Achaia.

I. MACEDONIA hath for its preſent boundaries Servia and Bulgaria on the north, Bulgaria and the Archipelago on the eaſt, Achaia on the ſouth, and Albania on the weſt. It is rich in mines of gold, abounds with corn, paſtures, cattle, and veniſon, and in ſome parts produces wine and oil.

SALONICHI, the capital city, ſtands at the bottom of a gulph, to which it gives its name. It is a large and very populous city, and carries on a very conſiderable trade, both becauſe of the advantageous ſituation of it, and of the great quantity of ſilk, wool, leather of all ſorts, wax, powder, grains, cotton and iron, continually worked here. The trade is chiefly managed by the Jews, who alone have the monopoly of the manufactures of all the ſtuffs, made for the uſe of the Janiſaries.

II. ALBANIA, now called ARNAUT, lies between Macedonia on the eaſt, and the gulph of Venice on the weſt, having on the north and north-eaſt the Black Mountains, and on the ſouth it is bounded by Epirus. Its ſoil is fruitful, chiefly in the north parts, producing flax, cotton, and excellent wine; as alſo wax in the woods, and ſalt is dug out of the mountains. The inhabitants make tapeſtry, which, with the other commodities, they ſend abroad.

SCUTARI, the capital, is reckoned a conſiderable trading town, as is alſo

DULCIGNO, ſeated on the gulph of Venice, 20 miles ſouth-weſt of Scutari. The Franks have a conſul here.

III. EPIRUS is bounded on the north by Albania, by Theſſaly on the north-eaſt, Achaia on the ſouth, and the Ionian Sea on the weſt. Its ſoil is for the moſt part good, affording excellent paſturage.

LARTA, or rather ARTA, is ſeated at the bottom of a ſmall bay, formed by the mouth of a river. This city, and the country about it, drive a great trade in tobacco, botargo (a kind of ſauſage made of eggs and the blood of a ſea-mullet) and furrs.

IV. THESSALY, now called JANNA by the Turks, is almoſt entirely ſurrounded with high mountains, which ſeparate it on the north from Macedonia, on the weſt from Epirus, on the ſouth from Achaia; on the eaſt it has the Ægean Sea, and the gulph of Salonichi. This country produces very good horſes, and large buffaloes, reckoned the beſt in Greece, except thoſe of Santa Maura. The air is healthful, and the ſoil fertile in all ſorts of grain and delicious fruits, and they make excellent wine.

LARISSA, its chief city, ſeated on the river Pencus, is much fallen from its ancient grandeur, but has ſome trade ſtill, the moſt conſiderable branch of which is in Ruſſia leather. It is ſaid here are above two hundred Jewiſh families, moſt of them bankers, and extremely rich. Here is alſo an Engliſh conſul, who carries on, for the account of his nation, a conſiderable trade in corn, with which he loads ſeveral veſſels for different parts of the world, and to his own great profit.

V. ACHAIA, now LIVADIA, is bounded on the north by Epirus, Theſſaly, and the ſtrait of Negropont, on the eaſt by the Archipelago; on the ſouth it has the gulph of Egina, iſthmus of Corinth, and gulph of Lepanto, and on the weſt the Ionian Sea, and part of Epirus. It is a pleaſant and fruitful country.

LIVADIA, the capital of this province, ſituated on the river Hercyna, is a large and populous town, inhabited by many rich Turks. The trade conſiſts in ſome woollen ſtuffs made here, and in rice, which they ſell ready huſked, and prepared by the mills on the river, which comes with ſuch a plentiful ſource from the mountain, at the foot of which the city ſtands, that it turns twenty of them in the town, not a bow-ſhot off its riſe.

SALONA is ſituated upon a rock, in the inmoſt receſs of a fruitful valley. Its trade conſiſts in ſome cotton, but chiefly in tobacco.

DELPHOS has a ſmall trade in the ſame commodities, and their wine is exceeding good.

LEPANTO, the chief town on the gulph, to which it has lately given its name, has a ſmall harbour, but is too ſhallow for any large veſſels to enter. The trade of this place conſiſts in leather, oil, tobacco, rice, barley, and wheat; furrs are alſo pretty cheap here.

VI. The PELOPONNESUS, now MOREA, is a large peninſula joined to the main land of Greece, by the iſthmus of Corinth. On the ſouth it has the gulph of Lepanto and the ſea of Candia, on the north-weſt that of Patras, the Ionian Sea on the ſouth-weſt, the Ægean Sea on the eaſt, and the gulph of Engia on the ſouth-eaſt.

The ſoil is exceeding fertile, producing plenty of corn, wine, and oil, &c. and its mountains are filled with game and medicinal plants.

PATRAS is ſituated on a hill, not above a mile from the ſea. Their trade conſiſts of raw ſilks, made in the Morea in great quantities; leather alſo is cheap, and ſo is honey, wax, wood, and cheeſe.

MODON ſtands on a hill, which juts out into the ſea, and at the foot of which is a good harbour: it is a ſtrong, rich, and trading city.

CORON has no immediate port, but the gulph that bears its name is a ſafe harbour. The country about it affords good ſtore of fruits, grain, oil, and ſilks, which the inhabitants export to their great advantage.

NAPOLI DI ROMANIA has a capacious harbour, one of the beſt in the Morea, being capable of containing a large fleet, but ſo narrow at its entrance, that but one can paſs at a time. As its harbour is more ſecure and has better anchorage than any other on the weſt of this country, they drive here a conſiderable trade in corn, wine, oil, ſilks, cotton, and tobacco.

The Iſlands on the coaſt of GREECE.

St. MAURA is about forty miles in compaſs, it is fruitful in corn, oranges, lemons, almonds, and paſture for their cattle.

STRIVALI, SAPIENZA, are ſmall iſlands of no great note.

CANDIA is the largeſt and moſt celebrated on the coaſt of Greece, and is about 600 miles in compaſs.

They breed here abundance of poultry, pigeons, oxen, ſheep, and ſwine; the country abounds alſo in wine, and they export oil, wool, ſilk, honey, wax, cheeſe, and laudanum. Their wine and wheat are excellent, but their wool, like that of Greece, is fit only for coarſe ſtuffs. The ſilk would be exceeding good, if they knew how to manage it; the honey is excellent, and ſmells of the thyme, wherewith the whole country abounds.

This iſland has no rivers navigable, even for boats.

REMARKS.

With regard to the trade of Greece on the ſhore of the Ægean and Ionian Seas, it may be obſerved, that, were it a barren inhoſpitable ſoil and climate, that had neither production or people, or the people ignorant of traffic, we might eaſily account for the trifling trade carried on here, in compariſon to what was heretofore.

Here is a rich ſoil, a delicate climate, excellent havens and ports, well-fortified harbours, populous cities, and in ſome places a well-peopled country, and yet little trade. The reaſon given for it is the ill government of the Turks, who, being averſe to the improvement of uſeful arts, diſcourage commerce, leave nature to her rude ſelf, and yet oppreſs the people in the pittance they by unexcited induſtry acquire.—Whence it is that the famed Arcadian plains, the flowery meads of the antients, lie deſolate, without flocks of ſheep, herds of kine, without corn or wine, or oil in any quantity, ſuitable to the extent of the land, though able to produce all in great plenty.

The Morea, in antient times, maintained innumerable people, and could furniſh and ſupply competent quantities of cattle, corn, oil, wine, ſilk, flax, wool, wax, honey, figs, almonds, pomegranates, lemons, citrons, and every thing, requiſite to feed and employ two millions of people; here being a ſufficient fund of manufacture, either in ſilk, wool, or flax. But,

For want of trade, it is now ſcarce able to ſupply its own ſea coaſt towns, or ſupport its own government; the people being few, poor, diſcouraged, and ſcarce able to raiſe corn and grapes for their food, oil for their lights, and a little fruit for their ordinary ſpending.—They buy their wines from their iſlands, while their own wines periſh, and the grapes rot on the ground ungathered.—The land-owners call themſelves gentlemen, value themſelves on their alliances with ancient families, and lord it over the poor peaſants with inſufferable inſolence, but meanly cringe to the meaneſt Turk, who treats them with the baſtinado; ſo that all is tyranny and miſery, and how ſhould there be any trade?

If they have any thing to ſell, it is their corn, which the French, or the Venetians, or Tartans, come to purchaſe; nor does all that rich country, where once the cities of Thebes, Sparta, Athens, and Corinth were ſituate, afford at preſent any product more worth carrying away, though the people are incapable of conſuming a very ſmall part of what the land would produce. At the beſt of their ports and moſt populous of their cities, we ſee nothing to buy, nor buyers for what may be carried for ſale; the one for want of induſtry, the other for want of money.

They have two articles of trade here, which are found no where elſe in theſe parts of the world, not, however, in equal quantity or quality, which are wool and leather.—Here they dreſs the leather after the Turkiſh manner, very fine, and render it ſoft and pliable.

The wine of Theſſaly is eſteemed the beſt in all this part of the country; though that of Negropont, that is, of Attica and Achaia, is well accepted at Conſtantinople, keeping better than that of the other iſlands in the ſame latitude.

The great exportation at Lariſſa, the gulph of Volo, and along that coaſt, brings a conſiderable concourſe of merchants thither. 'Tis a conſiderable place, populous and rich, and the Turks treat the merchants there with more civility and juſtice than in other places. By this means, as the inhabitants are rich, and enjoy liberty, there is a ſuitable return of European goods brought thither, not from the Turkiſh territories only, but from Italy and France; eſpecially the French, who frequently bring many cargoes of manufactures of ſilk, wool, hair, and cotton, &c. by reaſon of their fetching hence ſo much corn.

Of the Italians, the Genoeſe moſtly viſit them, who come for corn, bringing cargoes of ſpices, paper, Braſil ſugars, lead, tin, and fire-arms, with ſeveral other goods.—Alſo the Venetians bring them wrought iron and braſs, and variety of other ſpecies of goods; and all carry back corn, but the Venetians alſo carry wine, oil, leather, wax, and honey.

North of this port is the city Salonichi, or Theſſalonica, which is well ſituated for trade, and is the greateſt city of buſineſs in theſe parts. No port of ſuch a magnitude and ſituation can be without trade, Conſtantinople being alſo ſo near: it is, beſides, the center of all the commerce of the three Macedonia's.

As the country behind it is extremely fruitful, rich, and populous, abounding with corn and cattle, and the product is almoſt all carried to Conſtantinople; ſo Salonichi is the medium of the trade, it being the port where all the corn, cattle, and wine are exported, and where all the returns of merchandizes are imported, as well from Conſtantinople and Smyrna, as from Venice, Genoa, and Marſeilles, &c.—It is, indeed, a mighty city for wealth, trade, and numbers of people: there are reckoned 300,000 people in it, whereof a great number are Jews.

There is nothing wanting to make this port a mart of commerce for all this part of the world, but a fine navigable river, to carry veſſels of burthen 200 miles into the country, and to bring back the growth and product of the countries which lie to the north and north-weſt of it, which are very large, populous, and opulent.—But, for want of navigable rivers, the inland trade here is carried on by land carriage with horſes and mules.

They have tolerable good wool here, and the French carry ſome of it away, but it is not to be had in any great quantities. They have ſeveral curious manufactures of cotton, but not ſo delicate as the callicoes and muſlins of the Indies.

As they carry corn, wine, fruit, leather, wax, &c. to Conſtantinople, and as they traffic with the Franks for the like kinds of goods; ſo they receive in return ſupplies of all the ſeveral ſorts of merchandizes, which their markets call for. From Conſtantinople they receive all the fine ſilks of Perſia and India, which are brought to that city by the navigation of the Black Sea, from Trapezond, and other ports of Armenia and Pontus, or by the caravans of Aleppo, [ſee the article

article CARAVANS] or by the Ægean and Levant from Alexandria. So that by this conveyance they have ſilks, callicoes, carpets, drugs, ſpices, coffee, and other rich goods, to a very great value; alſo all kinds of copper veſſels, which the Turks uſe in abundance. From Smyrna they have the like correſpondence, though only caſually. From France, Genoa, Leghorn, and Venice, they have all the Italian and French manufacture, ſuch as wrought ſilks, paper, fine woollen ſtuffs, and ſome Engliſh and Dutch manufactures, but theſe come chiefly by the way of Genoa and Leghorn. From theſe they have likewiſe tobacco, ſugars, dyers ſtuffs, wrought iron and braſs, lead, block-tin, fire-arms, ſhot, caſt iron and bar iron. So that this port is the general magazine of all that part of Europe, and is the greateſt city for wealth and trade that the Turks are any where maſters of in Europe, except Conſtantinople.

On entering the mouth of the Helleſpont, the great paſſage out of the Mediterranean into the Euxine Sea, which, did not the Turks ſhut up the paſſage from the European nations, would open new ſcenes of commerce to the world. Was our commercial intereſt more influentially cultivated with the Turks than it has ever yet been, this navigation might be opened, whereby our ſhips would have a free trade to the mouth of the Danube, and by that great river convey our manufactures up to Belgrade, and into Hungary, where we have no trade, and where probably a very conſiderable commerce might be raiſed. Alſo

By the Palus Mæotis and the river Don, a trade would be ſtruck out into the Wolga, and ſo directly to the center of the great empire of Muſcovy; likewiſe down that river to Aſtracan, thence into the Caſpian Sea, and to the coaſt of Guylan and Perſia.

By the ſouth ſhores of the ſame Black Sea, the trade would be opened to the coaſt of Pontus, to Tripoli, Sinope, and to Trapezond: all which were formerly cities of great trade, made ſo by the free correſpondence they held with the Mediterranean merchants, and by their trade to Corinth, to Venice, and principally to Genoa; for the Genoeſe had once the dominion of that whole coaſt as to trade. By this commerce a communication would be opened with all the northern part of the Leſſer Aſia, a part of the world wherewith England has little commercial correſpondence.

From Gallipoli to Conſtantinople, there is a tolerable trade for corn, and other proviſions to that city, as there is at all the towns upon that ſhore; but no buſineſs back again worth notice, except ſome few neceſſaries and coffee, brought from Conſtantinople to Gallipoli, for the Turks uſe, for the poor Greeks cannot afford the expence of it.

Wine is ſold pretty openly at Gallipoli, and is very cheap; and the Turks are ſaid to take more liberty in drinking it there, than they do in any other place. They have ſome ſmall cotton ſilk manufactures there, and in the country towns all the way to Conſtantinople: and their goods are ſold at Conſtantinople to good advantage. The Turks encourage the Greeks to weave and ſpin, but none of them meddle with it themſelves.

We now come to the Porte itſelf, the city of Conſtantinople, which is the center of trade of all that part of the world, as well of Europe as of Aſia: and yet it muſt be ſaid of Conſtantinople, that, except the city of Grand Cairo in Egypt, Conſtantinople is the largeſt city with the leaſt commerce in the world.

The general trade of the city is little more than the ſupply of proviſions and apparel; nor is the latter any thing conſiderable, compared to the other cities of Europe; the Turks not being like the Venetians or the French, who change their habits as often as they do their faſhions. The chief trade, which employs the moſt people, is that of furniſhing corn and cattle, and other proviſions for the ſupply of the multitude of people there. Another article of proviſions is that of rice, and next to that their coffee. The firſt comes chiefly out of Aſia by the Black Sea, and the latter from Egypt alſo by ſea, except in time of war, and then 'tis brought in caravans to Aleppo, and thence to Scutari by land.

As the Turks are not yet come into the drinking of tea, ſo they do not uſe any extraordinary quantity of ſugar: and, as they are forbid wine, and what they drink is, as it were, by ſtealth, ſo the conſumption is not ſo great as to be worth naming in trade.

The general ſupply of corn, except what comes from Theſſaly, Macedonia, and Thracia, which is very inſufficient for ſuch a city, is from the coaſts of the Black Sea, partly on the Aſian ſide, but principally on the ſide of Bulgaria and Servia, and the country on both ſides the Danube as high as Lemendria, and even to Belgrade. From theſe parts the quantity is ſo exceeding great, and ſometimes ſo much above the conſumption, that barley has been known to be ſold at Conſtantinople for 3 d. ſterling per buſhel. The Turks generally feed their horſes with barley, as we do ours in England with oats.

The ſhips from the Black Sea bring alſo fruits and roots, eſpecially onions, in great quantities. And, from the coaſt of Greece, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, figs, raiſins, and the like, as alſo ſalt. Before the conqueſt of that country by the Germans, the fleſh meat was chiefly ſupplied from Hungary; at preſent 'tis brought from Moldavia, Wallachia, Boſnia, and the ſeveral countries upon the banks of the Danube and the river Pruth: and the quantity of black cattle, brought every year from theſe countries, is very great. Their other branches of commerce conſiſt chiefly of, (1.) That of the Franks, or that carried on by the French, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the Italians.—The trade of England to Turkey conſiſts but of few articles for this city, viz. block-tin, and the woollen manufacture, chiefly of fine cloths, ſome gold watches, lead, and toys; beſides which, we carry little thither of conſequence. The trade of the Dutch here is ſtill leſs, being chiefly in cloth made in imitation of the Engliſh, whale-fins, train-oil, battery, with ſome dyeing ſtuffs and fine linen, but in no great quantities. The trade of France here, as well as to other parts of Turkey, is, perhaps, ſuperior to that of all other the European powers conſidered together. See the article LEVANT TRADE, ORIENTAL TRADE, and TURKEY TRADE.

The Italians, particularly the Venetians, have a pretty good trade thither, conſiſting in a great variety of goods of the growth and manufacture of other nations, not their own, as wrought iron, ſugar, tobacco, oil, wine, pepper, and whatever goods they can find vent for.

The commerce of the eaſt country, which we take to contain the importation of all ſuch goods as come by caravans from Perſia and India, either to Aleppo or Trapezond, conſiſting chiefly of fine wrought ſilks, plain and figured, of divers ſorts and values; ſuch as plain and ſtriped Perſian ſilks, taffeties, damaſks, ſattins, cloth of ſilver, and ſeveral of the richeſt kinds of ſuch goods for the ſeraglio's, and for the houſhold: alſo India damaſk, and other rich things, ſuch as atlaſſes, fine carpet-chints, and painted callicoes; beſides plain callicoes, muſlin, &c. All theſe, being a valuable product, are chiefly bought by the Jews, who do not keep ſhops in the bazars; but the Jew-women, making up their fardels, wait upon the ladies in their baths, and, like our pedlars, trade with them in their dwelling-houſes; they are admitted into the ſeraglio itſelf, where they make them pay a ſufficient price for moſt things they buy.

Another branch of their trade is from Egypt. There comes yearly a large fleet from Alexandria with corn, bringing alſo the Grand Seignior's money, or revenues, and his coffee; alſo a great quantity of coffee for private trade. The ſame ſhips bring ſeveral merchandizes, as well of India, which comes to Egypt by the way of the Red Sea, as of the country of Egypt itſelf, and of Africa. With theſe ſhips come in others from Cyprus and Smyrna, and ſome of the iſlands of the Arches, from whence they import to Conſtantinople ſeveral goods, ſuch as wine, corn, oil, and other merchandizes, and manufactures of cotton, ſilk, and hair.

All theſe articles furniſh conſiderable quantities of goods to Conſtantinople, which are the ſubjects of its commerce, and which are partly conſumed in the city, and partly carried from thence to the Black Sea, and to the city of Adrianople, for the conſumption of the inhabitants of that city, and the adjacent country; and alſo to all the ports on that ſide the Leſſer Aſia, they receiving all their European goods from this city. There is a conſiderable trade likewiſe in this city for naval affairs: all the Grand Seignor's fleet, whether of gallies or men of war, are laid up here in the royal arſenal. Here moſt of them are built, repaired, and refitted, and all the uſual trades are employed, and exceeding buſy, when the fleets are fitting out, juſt as they are in other parts of the world; ſuch as anchor-ſmiths, rope-makers, ſail-makers, painters, carvers, and innumerable others, who are all to be found here, and ready at call.

The quantity of naval ſtores for theſe occaſions muſt be exceeding great; and, as they are not to be found in the adjacent country, they muſt employ a conſiderable number of ſhips to fetch them from diſtant parts, as from the iſlands of the Archipelago, and the Adriatic Gulph.

The general apparatus of war makes no inconſiderable article in trade here, it being uſually all performed in or near Conſtantinople: for example, caſting their cannon, which is always very numerous, and the pieces exceeding large; caſting ſhells, mortars, granadoes, and ſmaller pieces, even to their fire-arms: in fine, in furniſhing the navy with ſtores, the troops with arms, and the men with proviſions and apparel. Likewiſe,

All the carriages, horſes, camels, &c. for any expedition, are ordinarily prepared here, eſpecially when the war is in Europe.—Yet there are many obſtructions to commerce: as, (1.) They have no courſe of exchange between the imperial city, however opulent, full of people, or commerce, and any other part of the world: ſo that if a merchant at Conſtantinople would buy a cargo of goods, ſuppoſe at Marſeilles, Leghorn, Cadiz, or Liſbon, he cannot remit the money for payment, but muſt ſend a ſupercargo with it in the ſhip, to buy, pay for, and bring away the lading. (2.) They have no correſpondence in diſtant parts of the world, or trading with the merchants any-where but ſuch as come directly to it: even the commerce of Salonichi, a city of their own, is carried on to Conſtantinople, but not from it, the merchants going from Salonichi with their ſhips, and

ſelling their goods to thoſe of Conſtantinople; but the merchants at Conſtantinople neither ſend to Salonichi, or go thither to buy.

Nor have they any poſt for carriage of letters from place to place; ſo that they may be ſaid to have no regular correſpondence (which is the life of commercial buſineſs) with any part of the world, nor with the parts of their own empire, and can ſcarce ſend any letters but by expreſs meſſengers.

They give no credit in trade; purchaſes in general are for ready caſh, and they borrow on pledges commonly. Theſe things cramp trade, and prevent its flouriſhing.

All their trade with the Armenians, Georgians, Perſians, and Egyptians, is managed by perſonal appearance: the Armenian, Perſian, and Georgian merchants come with the caravans to Aleppo, to Nicomedia, and Conſtantinople (as they do to Scanderoon and Smyrna) where they ſell their goods, and carry back the ſame way the money they receive, or the goods they buy.

From the nature of this commerce it is reaſonable to enquire, how it can ſubſiſt, where they receive a general import, and have no produce or manufacture to export in return? How do they diſcharge the balance, and whence comes all the money which muſt go out in ſpecie? For it is evident the Armenian and Perſian merchants carry away a great deal of money for their wrought and raw ſilks, manufactures, drugs, and India goods, and whatever elſe they bring. Some European cloths, indeed, and other goods, they take with them, as leather, paper, fine wrought iron, toys, &c. but not equal in value to the goods they ſell. Likewiſe,

All the trade of Salonichi, Lariſſa, and the coaſt of Greece to Conſtantinople, which conſiſts of the product of the adjacent countries, is chiefly paid for in money, and theſe countries are inriched by it. But whence comes all this money? The anſwer to which queſtion gives us the eclairciſſement, which is very ſingular, for there is not a city in the world, which, like Conſtantinople, has neither product or manufacture in or near it, and yet receives ſo much, and pays ſo well; for, as intimated, they neither give or take credit.

Now the ſource of money which ſupplies this commerce, and which flows, as it were, into one channel to Conſtantinople, is the Grand Seignior's revenues: here centers the public receipt: Conſtantinople is the grand exchequer of the whole empire, the money flowing hither in a full ſtream. The ſupply of money comes hither from all parts of the Turkiſh empire; hither the ſeveral governors, baſhaws, and, as we term them, intendants, bring in the taxes from the ſeveral provinces: hither the fleet, or convoy, from Alexandria, brings annually the taxes from the whole kingdom of Egypt, and the adjacent places. The gallies go annually round all the iſlands of the Ægean and Ionian Sea, to receive the taxes of thoſe that collect them; ſo much for the capitation, ſo much for the land-tax; 10,000 dollars from one, 5000 from another; and ſo more or leſs as the commerce, number of people, or produce of the iſlands direct. As this is the method throughout the whole empire, and all the treaſures of the ſtate comes to Conſtantinople, we need enquire no farther from whence the balance of their trade is ſupplied, without a return of merchandize.

This money, it is true, comes firſt into the Grand Seignior's coffers; but then, as the whole city, more or leſs, depends upon the Grand Seignior's houſhold, that is, the ſeraglio, or upon the great officers of ſtate, who receive their income from the government, or depend upon the naval affairs, or upon the army; ſo that money immediately circulates again, and all have a ſhare of it, more or leſs: and thus it goes back in a great meaſure to the places from whence it came. See the article LEVANT TRADE.

GREENLAND, or SPITZBERGEN, as the Dutch call it, is undiſcovered on the north; on the weſt it has the Northern Ocean, on the ſouth the ſame, between it and the Muſcovite Lapland, and the northernmoſt part of Norway, overagainſt which it lies; on the eaſt it has an undiſcovered country, to which it is joined by an iſthmus, which is by ſome called Eaſt, or New Greenland.

Spitzbergen lies neareſt to the pole of any country yet examined by ſeamen; that is, from 76 to 82 degrees north latitude, and perhaps much farther for aught we know.

There are no towns nor villages in this whole country, that we know of, it not being inhabited by the human ſpecies that is any way certainly known. Such of the mountains as are expoſed to the warm air and ſun-beams are covered with heath and moſs; and in the cliffs of theſe rocks there are infinite numbers of fowls, that reſt there all the year. The dung of theſe birds, with the moſs waſhed down by the melted ſnow, makes ſuch a mould, in ſome places near the ſhore, where it produces a kind of lettuce, ſcurvey-graſs, exceeding mild and pleaſant ſnake-weed, mouſe-ear, heart's-eaſe, ſtrawberries, houſeleek, wall-pepper, and ſome plants unknown to us.

The ſea is obſerved not to be ſo ſalt here as in other places, and changes its colour with the ſky. The air is ſo cold, that there is almoſt a continual froſt, which is ſtrongeſt in April and May. South or weſt winds bring ſnow or rain, and moderate the cold. In June, July, and Auguſt, the weather is uſually calm, and in the two laſt months, eſpecially in July, the ſun ſhines ſo hot as to melt the tar between the ſeams of a ſhip, if the wind cannot come at it.

This country abounds with a kind of white bear.--The largeſt are water-bears, which live upon what they can get at ſea. Their ſkins make very comfortable cloathing for ſuch as travel in winter, and are dreſſed in Spitzbergen by treading them in hot ſaw-duſt. They have a fine kind of deer in this country; they abound in ſeal, ſea-dogs, and horſes. There are few land-fowl, but water-fowl in abundance.

The fiſh on this coaſt require the moſt notice, the taking them being the ſole motive that brings ſhips into theſe ſeas, where the whale-fiſhing is carried on with great profit. The true large whale differs from the reſt of the fiſh ſo called, by his having no teeth; inſtead of which, on each ſide of the upper jaw grows the whale-bone, in 4 or 500 different blades, at equal diſtances, ſome exceeding 12 feet in length, and a foot broad at bottom, growing narrow upwards, like the ſtrokes of a fan inverted, the largeſt weighing about 20 pounds.

The head makes $\frac{1}{3}$ of the whole body; his tongue is about eight feet long, and 10 broad, weighing near 600 weight; his bones are hard, but, inſtead of a large cavity in the middle, are porous, and full of marrow; his belly and back are red; his fleſh coarſe and hard, mixed with many ſinews, and is very dry and lean, becauſe the fat lies between the fleſh and the ſkin. The fat is mixed with ſinews, which holds the oil as a ſponge does water: the other ſtrong ſinews are about the tail, with which he turns and winds himſelf as a ſhip is guided by a rudder. He ſwims as ſwift as a bird flies, and makes a track in the ſea like a large ſhip under ſail. Beſides the uppermoſt thin ſkin, there is another, almoſt an inch thick, but neither very ſtrong, which is thought the reaſon why the whale does not exert that force that might be expected from a fiſh of that ſize. The middle ſort of them are from 50 to 60 feet long, and yield from 70 to 100 barrels of blubber, though ſometimes they are much larger. Martens mentions one that yielded 130 hogſheads. This blubber lies immediately under the ſkin; they cut it into thin ſlices, which are put into hot coppers: the oil ſoon melting out, the ſkin is thrown away.

Of the manner of taking the whales in this trade.

As ſoon as the fiſhermen hear a whale blow, they cry out, Fall, fall! and every ſhip gets out its long boat, in each of which there are ſix or ſeven men; they row till they come pretty near the whale; then the harpooner ſtrikes it with his harpoon, which is a ſharp iron, reſembling the head of an arrow, fixed to a ſtick; and this requires great dexterity. Through the bone of his head there is no ſtriking, but near his ſpout there is a ſoft piece of fleſh, into which the iron ſinks with eaſe. As ſoon as he is ſtruck, they take care to give him rope enough, otherwiſe, when he goes down, as he frequently does, he would inevitably ſink the boat: this rope he draws with ſuch violence, that, if it were not well watered, it would, by its friction againſt the ſides of the boat, ſet fire to it. The line faſtened to the harpoon is ſix or ſeven fathoms long, and is called the forerunner: it is made of the fineſt and ſofteſt hemp, that it may ſlip the eaſier: to this they join a heap of lines, of 90 or 100 fathoms each; and, when there are not enough in one long boat, they borrow from another. The man at the helm obſerves which way the rope goes, and ſteers the boat accordingly, that it may run exactly out before; for the whale runs away with the line, with ſo great rapidity, that it would overſet the boat, if it were not kept ſtraight. When the whale is ſtruck, the other long boats row before, and obſerve which way the line ſtands, and ſometimes pull it: if they feel it ſtiff, it is a ſign the whale ſtill pulls in ſtrength; but if it hangs looſe, and the boat lies equally high, before and behind, upon the water, they pull it in gently, but take care to cover it ſo, that the whale may have it eaſily again, if he recovers ſtrength: they take care, however, not to give him too much line, becauſe he ſometimes entangles it about a rock, and pulls out the harpoon. The fat whales do not ſink as ſoon as dead, but the lean ones do, and come up ſome days afterwards. They ſink almoſt as ſoon as they expire.—When they ſpout, the fiſhermen know that he draws towards his end, and prepare for cutting him up. In order to which, they haul him cloſe to the ſhip's ſide, and with great knives ſlice his ſides, raiſing the blubber by a hook and a pulley, which they lift up as they cut. Many of theſe great flakes they ſtring upon a rope, and ſo drag them on ſhore, where they are heaved up by a crane, laid on the whale's tail, and afterwards hewed into pieces no bigger than trenchers, and ſo thrown into coppers.—So ſoon as they become brown, they are called fritters, taken out, and caſt away: the liquor is then laded into a boat half full of water, to cool and cleanſe it; and thence by long troughs, that it may be more cool, conveyed into hogſheads cloſe to the ſhore. In the mean time, the head is cut off, and drawn as near as can be to the ſhore, and hoiſted up by a crane, till the whale-bone is cut out, and tied by fifties; and then the reſt of the head is alſo boiled for oil. The tongue is craned up with great

care; that of a large whale yielding from ſeven to twelve hogſheads of oil; though there have been inſtances of their yielding 24 hogſheads: but this is extraordinary.

Within the body of the whale is found ſeldom any thing but 10 or 12 handfuls of a kind of ſmall black ſpiders, and ſome ſmall quantity of green herbs, torn up from the bottom of the ſea, and which are ſuppoſed to be the food upon which the whales chiefly ſubſiſt. The ſea hereabouts is ſo covered with theſe inſects, that it appears quite black; which is a ſign, to thoſe who go about catching of whales, that they are like to make a good booty, the whales delighting generally in that part of the ſea which produces theſe inſects.

All the requiſite fiſhing inſtruments, ſuch as harping-irons, or harpoons, lances, cutting-knives, noſe-hooks, lines, ſhallops, caſks, &c. muſt be provided, and the ſhips completely fitted, victualled, and manned before the end of March; when, every thing being on board, the ſhips muſt ſail at fartheſt by the beginning of April for Greenland.

The veſſels moſt proper for the whale-fiſhing are thoſe we call fly-boats, or cats, or hag-boats; they ſhould be very ſtrong-built, and particularly doubled at the bow, that they may reſiſt the ſhocks of the ice. The ſize of theſe ſhips commonly uſed is about 200 to 500 tons; and they are ſupplied with men and ſhallops in proportion to their burden, as follows:

	Tons.		Shallops.			
A ſhip of	200	muſt have	4	And	29	Men and boys.
	250	—	5		36	
	300	—	6		43	
	450	—	7		50	

The particular qualifications of the men for a ſhip of about 300 tons and ſix ſhallops, are generally as follow, viz.

The voyage to Greenland outwards is commonly performed in four or five weeks, allowing for variable winds and foul weather, the ſeaſon of the year being uſually ſtormy when they ſet out, and particularly ſubject to long eaſterly winds, otherwiſe they often run it, with a fair wind, in 18 or 20 days; and it is obſerved that they return home, from the time of beginning to ſail, in leſs time than they go out. The fiſhery begins in May, and continues all June and July; but, whether they have good or bad ſucceſs, they muſt come away, and get clear of the ice, by the end of Auguſt; ſo that, in the month of September at fartheſt, they may be expected home: but a ſhip that meets with a fortunate and early fiſhery in May, may return in June or July.

When the whale-fiſhers ſee ſeveral whales at a time, two or three veſſels generally agree to purſue their game in concert, and to aſſiſt one another in the catching; and they divide what they catch according to agreement.

If a dead whale be found floating upon the ſea, the property is theirs who find it, and take hold of it; and, to encourage the ſhip's crew to be always very watchful, he who diſcovers the dead whale has a premium of half a guinea. The train-oil of ſuch a dead whale, eſpecially if it died of itſelf, is of a reddiſh colour, and not ſo valuable as of a whale that is immediately killed; but the fins are of equal goodneſs.

There are, beſides the whales, ſeveral other monſtrous fiſh found and catched in theſe ſeas, namely, (1.) The pot-fiſh, or ſperma-ceti-fiſh: he is as big as the whale, having a monſtrous large head, from which they take from 12 to 20 barrels of brains; which being well cleanſed, they call (but falſly) ſperma-ceti: they cut alſo from the body of the fiſh ſeveral puncheons of blubber; but he is not near ſo fat as the whale.

The fin-fiſh is almoſt as big as the whale, and is diſtinguiſhed from it by a large fin on its back: he is not ſo fat, nor hath ſuch fins in his mouth, as a whale; ſo that they are ſeldom thought worth the trouble of killing, or to venture the harpoons and lines on, as, being more nimble, they are more likely to eſcape. Alſo,

There is ſometimes met with in theſe ſeas a fiſh called the unicorn, a creature beautifully ſpotted, with a horn growing out of his upper jaw, and pointing ſtraight forward, from three to 12 feet long, according to the growth of the fiſh, which is as eſtimable as ivory. The fiſh will yield one or two barrels of blubber, and the train-oil of it is whiter than that of the whale.

The merſe, or ſea-cow, called by ſome the ſea-horſe, is found here both in the water and on the ice: it is as big as a large bullock. From one that is pretty large they cut about a puncheon of blubber.

The ſeal, or dog-fiſh, are often upon the ice, and are eaſily taken. They afford very good train-oil; and the fat of about 12 or 20 ſeals will fill a puncheon. Their ſkin is uſed by the trunk-makers, or dreſſed as leather for divers uſes.

REMARKS.

Before we conclude this part of the trade of Great-Britain, it may be neceſſary to mention (though it be renovare dolorem) that the Engliſh were the firſt that ever made the bold attempt of attacking that terrible creature a whale; and, therefore, have a kind of title by inheritance to that trade, though we enjoy but a ſmall ſhare therein, in compariſon to thoſe who have ſupplanted us.

The Engliſh were the firſt that ever attempted to ſail among theſe iſlands of ice; and, in queſt of new diſcoveries, they traverſed the frozen zone to the latitude of 76, far within the arctic circle. Here they diſcovered Greenland, as we name it, or Spitzbergen, as others call it; and, though they found the land not capable of being cultivated or inhabited, yet they found the ſeas full of whales; and, finding them profitable, became dextrous harponiers. From them the Hollanders, Bremeners, and Hamburghers, learned it; and, in their firſt attempts, they were obliged to hire Engliſhmen for harponiers and ſteerſmen, as we now are (ſo unhappily are the tables turned) to hire Dutchmen and Germans, if we engage in the ſame trade.

About the year 1597, when the Engliſh nation thriving in trade, and encouraged by queen Elizabeth, ſpread the northern ſeas, in queſt of new diſcoveries; in 1598, they began this trade, though with two ſhips only. The firſt voyage they ſtruck ſeveral whales, and ſuch as would have made their voyage prodigiouſly profitable; but, by being unexperienced in the buſineſs when they ſtruck the whales, they tore all away, overſet their boats, drowned their men, and even ſometimes endangered their ſhips: however, they killed ſeveral ſmall whales, and made ſo gainful a voyage as to encourage further attempts. Accordingly in 1599, when they went with five ſhips, and furniſhing themſelves with ſuch neceſſaries as they had found needful, they made a good voyage; and boiling their blubber on ſhore, on the iſle of Spitzbergen, they brought home ſo much oil as turned to very great account. From that time they went on with great ſucceſs, for 10 or 12 years, particularly in 1608, which proved extremely fortunate: and ſo their trade continued till 1612.

In which year the Hollanders, hearing of the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, and in hope of the like advantages, ſent the firſt time to Spitzbergen, ſupplying themſelves with ſkilful pilots and harponiers from England. But the Engliſh claiming the property in this trade, as indeed was their due, forbid the Hollanders meddling with the fiſh, and ſent them home for the firſt time empty. The Dutch, however, not giving it over, ſent two ſhips the next year, 1613; and theſe, being ſhips of force, reſolved to defend themſelves. But the Engliſh attacked them and brought them to England, with all the oil, their ſhallops, fiſhing-tackle, &c. the Dutch ſhips being fully laden, and having made a good voyage; for the Dutch proved their loſs to be 130,000 guilders.

After this they had various bickerings, the Dutch puſhing into the trade, and the Engliſh attacking them, till at laſt, in the year 1617, the Dutch ſtrengthening their fiſhery with ſhips of force, and the Engliſh attacking them again, it came to a kind of general action, wherein the Engliſh were worſted, the Dutch taking one of their ſhips.—This they carried to Holland; but the ſtates general, being unwilling to give offence to king James I. then reigning, cauſed the ſhip to be very honeſtly reſtored, with all that was in her; and, in order to prevent the like for the future, ſent over a deputation to England, to treat upon the ſubject, and to ſettle a freedom of the fiſhery both for the Engliſh and Dutch. But the king did not decide the queſtion, nor encourage his ſubjects to diſturb the Dutch; ſo it remained undetermined, and both ſides went on fiſhing together.

The Engliſh had, indeed, poſſeſſion of the iſland of Spitzbergen, and of the harbours and bays where the ſhips uſually went for ſhelter, and where they built houſes and ſheds to lay up their caſks, to boil their blubber, &c. and which were the beſt in the place, viz. Clock-Bay, the Safe-Harbour, Engliſh Bay, Engliſh-Harbour, and the like.—Upon this the Hollanders went farther north, and ſettled by themſelves in ſeveral other places, as at North-Bay, South-Bay, Holland's-Bay, Amſterdam-Iſland, and the like.—The Danes, who came afterwards, ſettled likewiſe, and placed themſelves between the Engliſh and the Dutch, at a place ſtill called the Daniſh Bay.—The Hamburghers came after the Danes, and pitched farther weſt, calling their place Hamburgh Bay.—After theſe came the French and the Spaniards, and they were obliged to go ſtill farther north, and their ſettlement is called Biſcay Hook.

But, as the iſland became farther diſcovered, and ſeveral other bays and harbours found out, all thoſe nations ſhifted their ſtations, as they found the moſt for their convenience; the iſland and the fiſhery, alſo, being more than ſufficient for them all, had they been many more than they were.

At that time, the whales, having not been uſed to be diſturbed, frequently came near the ſhores, into the very bays, and were accordingly killed almoſt cloſe to the ſhore; ſo that the blubber, being cut off, was immediately carried on ſhore in the ſhallops, and boiled into oil on the ſpot. Thus the ſhips took in nothing but the pure oil and the fins, and all the buſineſs was executed there; whereby a ſhip could bring home the product of many more whales than ſhe can according to the preſent way of conducting this trade. The fiſhery alſo was then ſo plentiful, that they were obliged ſometimes to ſend other ſhips to fetch off the oil they had made,

the

the quantity being more than the fiſhing-ſhips could bring away.

Time and change of circumſtances have ſhifted the ſituation of this trade. The ſhips coming in ſuch numbers, the whales were diſturbed, and gradually, as other fiſh often do, forſaking the place, were not to be killed ſo near the ſhore as before, but are now found, and have been ſo ever ſince, in the openings and ſpaces among the ice, where they have deep water, and where they go ſometimes a great many leagues from the ſhore. This alteration has rendered all their warehouſes and cookeries on ſhore uſeleſs, their ruins only remaining to be ſeen; for it is above 80 years ſince they have been forſaken.

This fiſhery requiring to be managed after a new manner, and to be carried on in the high ſeas, and among the ice, became more difficult and dangerous than it had been before; ſeveral ſhips were loſt in the beginning of it, before they could ſo fully learn the nature and ſituation of the ice, as to know where it was, and was not ſafe to venture. Such as were over cautious in venturing among the ice, frequently came home without any cargo at all, to the great loſs of their owners; and thoſe who boldly followed the whales into the openings and hollows of the ice, not having had experience enough to judge where they might, or might not venture, were as often cruſhed to pieces in the ice. This ſo diſcouraged the merchants, who before that carried on the trade in companies, not only in England, but in Holland and other countries, that they diſſolved their ſocieties, and ſo the trade ſeemed to be abandoned for a time, and by the Engliſh for ever.

The Dutch, however, reſumed it, though not in a company, yet by their private merchants, about the year 1638, and ſoon ſubdued all thoſe difficulties which had before diſcouraged them, and carried on the trade with more ſhips than heretofore, and with far more emolument: and in this manner they have gone on ever ſince.

The growth and increaſe of this trade, and the extraordinary benefit thereof to the Hollanders, were minutely repreſented, ſome years ſince, by Mr Henry Elkin, a merchant of Bremen, in a memorial to the late Sir John Eyles, when ſubgovernor of the South-Sea company, to induce the company to engage vigorouſly in that fiſhery; wherein he made it appear, that, from the year 1675 to the year 1721, the Dutch only, had

Sent to the whale-fiſhery - 6,995 ſail of ſhips.
Thoſe ſhips killed - - 32,908 whales,
And brought home of train-oil 1,250,714 puncheons,
And of whale-fins at leaſt - 40,000,000 of pounds weight.

The value of oil and whale-fin, thus brought home by the Dutch, amounts to no leſs than 150 millions of guilders, or 14 millions of pounds ſterling.

Add to this account all the advantages which accrue to the Dutch by the building, fitting out, and furniſhing ſo many of their ſhips, the cooperage of ſo many caſks, and the employment of ſo great a number of their ſeamen; of which we ſhall take more particular notice under the article HOLLAND.

A melancholy article to be added to all this, as it relates to England, is, how great a quantity of this oil and fins the Britiſh nation have bought from the Dutch with their ready money, which they might otherwiſe have kept at home to ſo great an advantage; and, indeed, inſtead thereof, if they had been reſolute in the firſt eſtabliſhment of this trade, have ſold oil and fins to the Dutch themſelves, or at leaſt to thoſe nations whom the Dutch now ſupply with them.

Thus England has been obliged, ever ſince about the year 1638, to ſit down with the loſs of a trade which they were the firſt beginners of in the world. There was an attempt, indeed, to recover this trade in the year 1694, when a company of eminent merchants undertook it, and fitted out two ſhips the firſt year, having an act of parliament in their favour, particularly exempting them from any duties, and their men from being preſſed into the king's ſervice; which, at that time, was a valuable privilege.

But theſe gentlemen were ill ſerved, and, wanting due information of the proper methods for managing the whole affair, they were impoſed upon by almoſt all the people they employed, both at home and abroad, running them upon irregular meaſures and needleſs expences; ſo that it is no wonder they loſt by every ſtep they took, and at length annihilated their capital ſtock.

The next attempt was that made by the South-Sea company in conſequence of Mr Elkin's propoſition; but from what cauſes this, and other concerns of trade, have no better ſucceeded with that corporation, ſee the article SOUTH-SEA COMPANY.

It remains now only to enquire, whether England is not capable of carrying on this trade as much to advantage as any other nation whatſoever? See the article FISHERIES.

The laws that have been made in England, from time to time, to encourage this trade.

I. Stat. 25 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 1. It ſhall be lawful for all his majeſty's ſubjects, and for every other perſon reſiding here, to trade to Greenland, and thoſe ſeas, and there to take whales, and other fiſh, and to import oil, blubber, and fins; and it ſhall be lawful for any perſon to import train-oil, or blubber, of Greenland and thoſe ſeas, or of Newfoundland, or of any other his majeſty's plantations, made of fiſh, or other creature living in the ſeas, and whale-fins, caught in ſhips belonging to England, and imported in ſuch ſhips, without paying any duty; and for the tun of ſuch oil taken by any ſhipping belonging to his majeſty's plantations, and imported in ſuch ſhipping, there ſhall be paid 6 s. and for every tun of whale-fins taken and imported in ſuch ſhipping, 50 s. and for the tun of ſuch oil taken by the ſaid ſhipping, but imported in ſhipping belonging to England, &c. 3 s. and for every tun of whale-fins taken and imported in ſuch ſhipping, 25 s. and for the tun of all ſuch oil and blubber of foreign fiſhing, 9 l. and for every tun of whale-fins of foreign fiſhing, 18 l.

II. Sect. 2. No Engliſh ſhip importing whale-oil, or blubber, or other fiſh oil, or whale-fins of Greenland, ſhall enjoy any benefit by this act, unleſs ſuch ſhip did proceed on her voyage for Greenland and thoſe ſeas from England, Wales, or Berwick, and was victualled for the ſaid voyage in ſome of thoſe places, to be atteſted by the collector of the port.

III. Stat. 4 and 5 Will. and Mar. cap. 17. §. 9. The company of London merchants trading to Greenland ſhall during the continuance of the joint-ſtock hereby appointed (and ſince expired) enjoy the free trade of catching of whales, by ſea or otherwiſe, to and from Greenland, and the Greenland ſeas, and all other ſeas and places, except in the ſeas belonging to their majeſties plantations in America.

IV. Sect. 28. No ſhip belonging to England, Wales, or Berwick, employed in catching whales in the Greenland ſeas and other the places aforeſaid, and importing whale-oil or blubber, or other fiſh-oil, or whale-fins, of Greenland, &c. ſhall enjoy any benefit by this act, unleſs ſuch ſhip did proceed on her voyage for Greenland, &c. from England, Wales, or Berwick, and was victualled for the ſaid voyage in ſome of thoſe places, to be atteſted by the collector of the port.

V. Sect. 30. This act ſhall be a public act.

VI. Stat. 10 Will. III. cap. 25. §. 17. Whale-fins, oil, and blubber, taken and imported by the ſhips of the company of merchants of London trading to Greenland, were not intended to be made liable to the duty of 12d. for every 20 s. value of goods imported, charged in the act 9 Will. III. cap. 23. but ſhall be free of the ſaid duties, as all fiſh of Engliſh taking.

VII. Stat. 1 Ann. cap. 16. §. 1. It ſhall be lawful for any of her majeſty's ſubjects, that will adventure to Greenland for fiſhing of whales, to have all the privileges that were granted to the Greenland company by the act 4 Will. and Mar. cap. 17. and ſhall not pay any other duty than if they had been of the ſaid Greenland company.

VIII. Sect. 2. No harpooner ſhall be impreſſed for her majeſty's ſervice.

IX. Stat. 5 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 1. It ſhall be lawful for any perſons for nine years, from the 25th of December, 1731, to import whale-fins, oil, or blubber, ſeal-oil, ſeal-ſkins, or any other produce of ſeals, or other creatures taken in the Greenland Seas, or Davis's Streights, or other parts adjacent, in Britiſh ſhips, whereof the captain, and one part of the mariners, are Britiſh ſubjects, without paying any duty.

X. Sect. 2. Nothing in this act ſhall give liberty of importing any of the beforementioned commodities duty free, unleſs the captain of the ſhip ſhall make oath before one of the commiſſioners, or principal officer of the cuſtoms, in the port of importation, that all the whale-fins, &c. imported in ſuch ſhip, were really and bona fide the fins, &c. taken in the Greenland Seas, Davis's Streights, or other parts adjacent, by the crew of ſuch ſhips only, whereof the captain and one third part of the mariners were Britiſh ſubjects.

During the continuance of the act 5 Geo. II. for encouraging the Greenland fiſhery (which by 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 3. is continued to 25 December, 1750, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament) every Britiſh veſſel of 200 tons or upwards, bound to the whale-fiſhery to the Greenland ſeas, &c. ſhall be examined by the proper officers of the cuſtoms, and, if found to be duly qualified, certificate thereof to be made to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and on oath of the owners and chief officers of the ſaid ſhip, that it is their purpoſe that the ſhip ſhall proceed on a fiſhing voyage to thoſe ſeas, and on the maſters becoming bound with two ſureties in the penalties of treble the bounty, the commiſſioners are to grant a licence to proceed on ſuch voyage.

	l.	s.	d.
On the ſhip's return, the proper officers of the cuſtoms are to view her condition and lading, and take a ſchedule of the perſons on board, and to certify the ſame; the maſter and mate making oath that they did directly proceed on ſuch voyage as above, and no other, and uſed their utmoſt endeavours to take whales, and other creatures in thoſe ſeas, and that all the whale-fins, oil, and blubber (if any) imported in their ſhip, was taken by their crew in thoſe ſeas; there ſhall be paid by the receiver general of the cuſtoms the ſum of twenty ſhillings per ton, according to the admeaſurement of the ſhip - - -	1	0	0

6 Geo. II. cap. 33. §. 1. 3, 13 Geo. II. cap. 28. §. 4.
Note, during the late war [with Spain] over and above the afore-mentioned 20 s. per ton, the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms may, on demand, cauſe payment to be made of a further allowance of 10s. per ton.—13 Geo. II.

GREENWICH-HOSPITAL.

Duty of 6d. the month out of ſeamens wages, for the ſupport of Greenwich-Hoſpital.

By 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 21.—Firſt granted.
8 and 9 Will. III. cap. 23.—The former act enforced.
10 Ann. cap. 17. ————New regulations.
2 Geo. II. cap. 7.—— ——Further regulations.

Each man for every month employed - - o o 6 duty, and ſo in proportion for any leſſer time.

To be paid by every ſeaman or other perſon whatſoever, employed in any of his majeſty's ſhips, or of thoſe belonging to the ſubjects of Great-Britain or Ireland, &c. and by every maſter or owner navigating his own ſhip, except only ſuch boys as are actually put apprentices by pariſhes, till they are eighteen years of age; (who are exempted by 2 Ann. cap. 6.) which directs regiſtering their indentures, and that none be allowed without endorſement; but not to extend to any other ſervants, apprentices, or boys whatſoever; and alſo except thoſe employed in any coaſting boat employed in fiſhing, and boats or veſſels trading from place to place, within any river of Great-Britain and Ireland, or open boats on theſe coaſts; and perſons employed on board hoys, &c. belonging to London, and employed within the North Foreland in bringing corn, fiſh, or other proviſion for London.

But, that maſters of coaſting veſſels may not poſſibly evade the duty under pretence of having been employed formerly in the manner before exempted, the receiver of the port to which they belong, muſt, from time to time, call them to account.

And this duty may be deducted and detained by every maſter, &c. of ſhips liable to it, out of the wages, &c. of all employed, except apprentices, &c. as before exempted; to be paid by him to the receivers appointed, who in the out-ports are generally the collectors of the cuſtoms deputed from the commiſſioners appointed by the admiralty. In purſuance of which deputation, the collector is, on the firſt arrival of any ſhip or veſſel, ſubject to the duty from foreign parts, to require an account of the entries and diſcharges of all the men employed, ſince the laſt payment of it; for which muſt be produced regular receipts from ſome collector, under the office-ſeal, ſtampt in the margin; which muſt be ſent to the office, with the next return of accounts: in either of which if there appear any irregularity, it muſt be noticed to the commiſſioners: but, if the maſter pretend he has paid the duty at ſome other port, and will take oath that his laſt receipt is loſt or miſlaid, the collector muſt not accept it, but oblige him to produce it, or leave a depoſit for the duty till he can produce a duplicate. Which being produced, the receiver muſt carefully examine, that if he ſhall judge the number of men mentioned leſs than what the ſhip is uſually ſailed with, or ſuſpect any deceit in the times of entry or diſcharge of any of the ſhip's company, or any other fraud intended, he may examine the maſter or any other upon oath: and, when ſatisfied of the truth, he muſt then, to adjuſt the duty, compute the time of each man's ſervice, from the laſt payment, as mentioned in the receipt, to the time of the preſent computation: and, in caſe of ſhips loſt homeward bound, the duty muſt be paid only to the time the ſhips arrived at their laſt delivering ports abroad.

Note, That, though ſhips from foreign parts muſt pay every voyage, yet, for coaſting veſſels, the receiver of the port they belong to, needs not account every voyage, unleſs they are 30 days in arrear, or there be ſome particular reaſon: and that ſhips belonging to the iſles of Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or the Britiſh colonies in America, are to pay, in Great-Britain, that part of the duty due at their arrival, and during their ſtay; and ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, trading from thence to thoſe iſlands, &c. and back again, are to pay the whole duty in Great-Britain.

The form of the computation of the ſervice muſt be as follows:

Men's names.	Quality.	Time of Entry.	Time of Diſcharge.	No. of Mo.	No. of Days	Money due.
Jam. Bell	Maſter	3 Jan. 1730	*20 M. 1730	2	17	
Tho. Croſs	Mate	5 Ditto	16 Ditto	2	11	
W. Jones	Boatſwain	12 Ditto	5 Ditto	1	21	
Ro. Wells	Able	2 February	*20 Ditto	1	18	
J. Finch	Ordinary	8 March	18 Ditto	—	10	
				8 †	17	o 4 3½

The ſervice thus computed, the receiver muſt demand the duty of the maſter with whom alone the receiver ſhould account, and not with crimps, &c. unleſs the maſter is not to be found: the receipt to be given under the office-ſeal is as follows:

The twenty-third day of March, one thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty.

Tons	Men
80	5

(L. Sig.) Received of Mr. James Bell, maſter of the Providence of London, lately arrived from Rotterdam, the ſum of four ſhillings and three pence half-penny, for the uſe of Greenwich-Hoſpital, being ſix-pence a month from each of the five perſons belonging to his ſaid ſhip Providence; between the third of January laſt, and the * twentieth inſtant, in purſuance of an act of parliament made in the tenth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne, intitled, An act for the better collecting and recovering the duties granted for the ſupport of the royal hoſpital at Greenwich, &c. Paid laſt at Cowes the fifth of January 1730, amounting to ſix ſhillings and eight pence, as by receipt appears — o 4 3½

A. B. Receiver for the port of Southampton.

* The end of the voyage, or the time of the laſt man's diſcharge, ſo that the maſter and all the men muſt enter anew the next day, if the ſhip continues in pay, to account with the next receiver; but, if the ſhip be laid up, the beginning of the next voyage muſt be accounted from the time of the firſt man's entry for ſuch voyage.

† The days amount to 77, which being divided by 30 (the number of days at which the month is always computed) the quotient is two months 17 days; therefore the 17 days are ſet down in the column of days, and the two months are carried to the column of months.

And, if the maſter omit payment on his firſt arrival, it muſt be paid * before his veſſel may be cleared inwards by the officers of the cuſtoms; who are not, on forfeiture of twenty pounds, to clear ſuch veſſel, or ſuffer it to go out of the port, till the maſter produce an acquittance, and that he is not more than thirty days in arrear, or is exempted: but to prevent needleſs expence to the crown, by keeping tideſmen on board on account of non-payment only, the commiſſioners, by printed advertiſements, give notice of the penalties for refuſal of payment, in the following form, viz.

* Geo. II. cap. 7. §. 2.

Receiver's office for Greenwich-Hoſpital.

(L. Sig.) Notice is hereby given to all maſters of merchant-ſhips, That they are, by an act of parliament paſſed in the 2d year of the reign of his preſent majeſty, to pay the ſix-pence a month, deducted out of their men's wages, for the uſe of Greenwich-Hoſpital, before their ſhips are cleared inwards, by the officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, under a penalty of twenty pounds, for the uſe of the ſaid hoſpital, in caſe of refuſal or neglect to do the ſame: they are likewiſe to take notice, That if any officer of the cuſtoms ſhall be continued on board their reſpective ſhips (purely for want of their not paying the duty) they muſt expect to reimburſe the expence the crown may be at, on account of their negligence. Theſe are to be delivered to the tideſmen, when going on board any ſhip liable to the duty, to give one to the maſter: and the collector and comptroller are to apply to the receivers for payment, if any tideſman be kept on board by the maſter's not paying this duty.

Any maſter attempting to go to ſea, not having paid, his ſhip may be detained; as likewiſe on diſcovery of any fraud, till all dues and charges be duly paid: and, any maſter oppoſing the receiver ſtopping his ſhip, the vice-admiral of the county muſt be applied to for aſſiſtance.

But, if the maſter (or, if abſent, the owner) of any veſſel not in the king's ſervice, ſhall neglect or refuſe to deliver in the account, and pay the duty, the receiver may ſummon him to his office, if not above ten miles off, and may examine him in the needful particulars; and upon non-appearance, or refuſal to make full diſcovery upon oath, or on neglect of payment before cleared inwards by the officers of the cuſtoms, to forfeit twenty pounds; one half to the hoſpital, the other to the perſon ſuing: the form muſt be as follows:

(L. Sig.) Whereas by act of parliament made in the tenth year of the reign of her late majeſty queen Anne, intitled, An act for the better collecting and recovering the duties granted for the ſupport of the royal hoſpital at Greenwich, &c. it is enacted, That it ſhall and may be lawful for the receivers of the ſix-pence a month out of ſeamen's wages, or their deputies for the time being, for the better diſcovery of what ſhall be due, to examine all owners, maſters, or others concerned, upon oath, and to ſummon them for this purpoſe; to which they are obliged by the ſaid act to appear and anſwer accordingly, under penalty of twenty pounds for any neglect.

Theſe are, by virtue of the authority to me given in purſuance of the ſaid act, to require you to appear before me at my office at the cuſtom-houſe, in the port of Southampton, to give an account, and forthwith pay all ſuch money as ſhall appear due from your ſhip's company, during the time they

they have ſerved on board the ſhip, whereof you are maſter, as by the ſaid act is directed, to avoid the penalties in the ſaid act mentioned. Dated at my office at this port of Southampton, on the 24th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Receiver.

To James Bell, maſter
of the Providence.

Any maſter thus ſummoned, refuſing to appear or give account, and any officer of the cuſtoms offending in clearing any ſhip, the receiver muſt return their names to the commiſſioners, to take proper methods for recovery of the penalties.

And, beſides the aforeſaid duty, the ſeveral following penalties and forfeitures are to be paid, for the uſe of Greenwich-Hoſpital, to the officer at each port, who collects the ſaid duty.

1. Maſters or commanders of any ſhip, &c. belonging to Great-Britain, bound to parts beyond the ſeas, carrying any mariner, except his apprentice, without firſt entering into a contract for his wages in writing, ſpecifying the wages, voyage, &c. forfeit five pounds each man: recoverable upon information, on oath of one or more witneſſes, before a juſtice of the peace.

Which forfeiture the receiver muſt endeavour to get information of, and, on the maſter's return, apply to a juſtice for a warrant to recover it.

2. Marines abſenting themſelves from the ſhips they belong to, without the maſter's leave, forfeit for every day's abſence two days pay.

3. Mariners (not entering into the king's ſervice) leaving the ſhip they belong to, without a diſcharge in writing from the maſter, forfeit one month's pay.

Theſe penalties are to be deducted by the maſter out of any mariner's wages, who is to enter them in a book, and make oath before the collector to the truth of it; the book to be ſigned by the maſter, and two or more principal officers, ſetting forth that they are the whole ſtopt during the voyage. And, on arrival of every ſhip from abroad, the receiver muſt demand, of the maſter, an account of penalties incurred by, and ſtopt from his mariners during that voyage, and muſt ſee the maſter's book, and compare the account with it. And any maſter deducting the penalties, and not paying them to the officer appointed to receive them, within three months after the deduction, forfeits treble the value: to be recovered (with the deduction) as the penalties for not duly paying the ſix-pence a month.

Upon receipt of any money for this duty, or for penalties, an entry muſt be made in a proper book for that purpoſe; from which muſt be tranſcribed, every quarter, an account in the ſame form, to be ſent to the accountant for the out-ports, and the money, ſo received, muſt, from time to time, be remitted to the general-receiver of this duty.

And, in conſideration of the care and trouble in collecting, recovering, and accounting for this duty and penalties, the receiver is to be allowed 2 s. 6 d. in the pound, for the money received or recovered by him.

The form of the account to be as follows:

Port

Port of Southampton. } An account of the duty of six-pence a month, for the support of Greenwich-Hospital, collected in the quarter ending at Lady-day, 1731.

Number of entries.	Ships or vessels names.	Masters names.	Of what place.	Tons burthen.	No. of men usually sailed with.	From whence arrived, or of what trade.	To what time last paid.	Place where last paid.	Time when paid duty.	Time when cleared inwards.	Time of the first man's entry.	Time of the last man's discharge, or end of the voyage.	Number of months, &c. for a man.	Forfeitures or penalties. On masters for not coming to an agreement in writing with seamen for their wages, &c. being the penalty of 5 l. for every such seaman.	Forfeitures or penalties. On mariners absenting themselves from the ship without leave; being the forfeiture of two days pay for each day's absence.	Forfeitures or penalties. On mariners for leaving the ship before discharged, being the forfeiture of one month's pay.	Money received.	What receipts are sent up, or the reasons for such as are wanting.
							Y. M. D.		Y. M. D.	Y. M. D.	Y. M. D.	Y. M. D.	M D.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	l. s. d.	
1	Providence	James Bell	London	80	5	Rotterdam	1730 Jan. 2	Portsmouth	1730 Mar. 23	1730 Mar. 24	1730 Jan. 3	1730 Mar. 20	8 17				0 4 3½	Last receipt sent.
2	George	William Mills	Ditto	—	—	France	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 0 0		1 10 0	6 10 0	
3	Change	Charles Joy	Hull	100	9	Ostend	— Dec. 18	Chichester	— — 2	— — 23	— Dec. 19	— — 20	26 14				0 13 2¾	Last receipt sent.
4	Fame	Henry Ford	Pool	—	—	Rotterdam	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				0 15 0	
5	Dove	George Hall	Liverpool	140	12	Virginia	— Oct. 1	London	— — 24	— — 24	— Oct. 2	— — 21	63 18		0 15 0		1 11 9½	Last receipt sent.
6	Cato	David Hill	London	—	—	Leghorn	—	—	—	—	—	—	—				3 12 0	
7	George	Henry Fell	Bristol	150	14	Jamaica	— —	—	— — 24	— — 24	— Sept. 8	— — 22	90 8		0 12 0	3 0 0	2 5 1½	First voyage.
																	15 11 5¼	

And, at the bottom of the aforesaid account, in the book, must be formed an account current of the quarter's collection, as follows, viz.

The Commissioners of the Greenwich-Hospital duty	Dr.		
To remittance to W. A. Esq; during this quarter	14	10	0
To poundage on the receipt of this quarter	1	18	11
	16	8	11
To balance due from the receiver	0	1	3¼
	16	10	2¼

Per contra	Cr.		
By balance of last quarter's account	0	8	9
By receipt of this quarter	15	11	5¼
By deposits taken this quarter, for producing duplicates of receipts lost	0	10	0
	16	10	2¼

But on the transcript, or duplicate, which is to be sent to the office, the title must be changed, by making the receiver Dr. for what the commissioners are here made Crs. and Cr. for what they are made Drs.
And, at the foot of the aforesaid account, must likewise be inserted, what ships (if any belonging to that port) have been lost during the said quarter: and also a certificate as follows, viz.

I do hereby certify, That the master of every ship, mentioned in the above account, hath actually made oath before me, to the number of men and boys, and the times of their service on board their respective ships.
A. B. Receiver.

GRONINGEN, one of the ſeven United Provinces. This province, or lordſhip, is bounded on the north by the German Ocean; the country of Embden on the eaſt; Overiſſel on the ſouth; and Frieſland on the weſt. The air of this country is ſharp, and well purified by continual breezes; and it abounds with good paſtures, and large herds of great and ſmall cattle.

GRONINGEN, the capital of the province, is ſituated on the conflux of the rivers Hunnes, or Schutſen, and Aa. It has ſeveral natural and artificial canals. The river Aa is received into the city, and let out again by ſeveral large arches under the fortifications, and, where it goes out, receives the Hunnes, which encompaſs the eaſt and north parts of the city, and form an harbour capable of a great number of veſſels, by which means this city enjoys a pretty good trade.

DELFZYL, at the mouth of the river Ems, has a very good harbour, which, for ſituation, and other advantages, exceeds that of Embden.

GUINEA, in Africa. This great region is divided into two large countries, called Upper and Lower Guinea, the latter of which is commonly called Congo. Theſe two together extend above 2500 miles along the ſea coaſt.

The moſt general diviſion of Upper Guinea is into three parts, viz. Malagueta, Guinea Proper, and Benin; which together extend 500 leagues from weſt to eaſt.

I. MALAGUETA. This country is generally known under the name of the Grain Coaſt, from the paradiſe grain, or Guinea pepper, called malagueta in Spaniſh, which grows here plentifully.

This country is divided into the kingdoms of Sherbro, Quoja, and Sanguin, along the coaſt, and Manou inland. But theſe are little known, except near the coaſt.

The chief places frequented by the Europeans are SHERBRO, the capital of a petty kingdom of the ſame name. Sherbro River is navigable for canoes a great way up.—The chief trade here is in cham-wood.—Near the mouth of this river there is York Iſland, on which the Engliſh had once a factory, and good fort, which is now in ruins.—There is alſo another iſland, called Farellons, which abounds with poultry, rice, potatoes, banana's, orange and lemon-trees. About 25 leagues diſtant from the mouth of the river Sherbro, to the ſouth-eaſt, is Cape Monte. It is furniſhed with numerous villages, and the negroes on this part of the coaſt are extremely induſtrious: in planting of rice and boiling of ſalt they are indefatigable.

II. GUINEA PROPER. This country extends from Cape Palmas to the river Volta, about 140 leagues along the ſea-coaſt, which bounds it on the ſouth: it has the kingdom of Benin on the eaſt; Gago and Melli on the north; and Malagueta on the weſt. The Europeans divide it into two parts, the Tooth and the Gold Coaſt; the former extends from Cape Palmas to the river Sueira da Caſta; and the latter from thence to the river Volta.

The TOOTH, or IVORY, or QUAQUA COAST, is thus called from the great plenty of elephants-teeth traded in here. When they come to trade with any ſhip, the natives take ſome water into their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes, which is a kind of oath, by which they ſignify that they would rather loſe their eye-ſight than cheat thoſe they trade with. They are no leſs averſe to drunkenneſs than to fraud; and though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they drink no palm-wine, but only a certain ſmall liquor, which they mix with water. They have manufactures of cotton habits, which are called quaqua gowns. A fundamental law of the country is, that every one is obliged to continue all his life-time in the condition in which he was born: ſo that one whoſe father was a fiſherman, for inſtance, can never become any thing elſe but a fiſherman; and ſo of all other trades and profeſſions.

The GOLD COAST follows next: but why it is particularly ſo called cannot be well accounted for, ſince other countries in Guinea produce gold alſo. See the article GOLD.

Undoubtedly all the countries in Guinea abound with gold mines; and, though the natives are not artiſts enough to know where or how to follow a vein, yet they find great quantities of gold in ſeveral of their mines, which are all ſo ſacred to them, that they will not permit any European miner either to ſee their mines, or to ſearch for others. Nevertheleſs, they bring down good ſtores of what they find to the ſea-coaſt, to traffic with all. Beſides which, the natives near the ſea have another way of finding gold, thus: in the rainy ſeaſons, after a wet night, the ſea ſhore is covered with people, moſtly women, each having a couple of bowls, made of calabaſhes; the largeſt of which they fill with ſuch ſand and earth as is drove down from the mountains, by violent floods, into the rivers and brooks, &c. This they waſh with many waters, by often turning the bowl round, till it waſhes over the brim; the gold, if there be any, ſinks to the bottom, by reaſon of its weight; and thus they continue, till they have waſhed all the earth and ſand away, except two or three ſpoonfuls of the bottom, which they carefully take out, and lay by in the ſmall bowl, after filling of which they carry the dregs home, and ſearch it diligently for the gold.

The moſt remarkable places of trade are as follow, viz.

ASSINEE, a country abounding with gold, and formerly a conſiderable trade was carried on here; but, ſince the devaſtation made by a neighbouring nation, there is very little trade, in compariſon to what there was; and the little gold-duſt that is brought hither, is either ſophiſticated, or of very ſmall value. From the Aſſinee, to Cape Apollonia, there is a great deal of land cleared, and ſowed with Indian corn.

AXIM. The inhabitants here are generally pretty opulent, driving a great trade with the Europeans for gold, which they chiefly vend to the Engliſh or Dutch. The natives induſtriouſly employ themſelves either in trade, fiſhing, or agriculture; and the latter is chiefly exerciſed in the culture of rice, which grows here, above all other places, in an incredible abundance, and is tranſported hence all the Gold Coaſt over. The inhabitants, in lieu thereof, return fraught with millet, yams, potatoes, and palm-oil, all which are very ſcarce here; for the ſoil is generally moiſt, and, though fit to produce rice and ſome fruit trees, does not kindly yield other fruits.

The country upon all the Gold Coaſt abounds in hills, all adorned with extraordinary high and beautiful trees: the vallies between the hills are wide and extenſive, proper for the planting of all ſorts of fruits; and, if they were as well cultivated as watered, would ſupply half the coaſt with proviſions. The earth produces, in great abundance, very good rice, the richeſt ſort of millet, the grain of which is red; yams, potatoes, and other fruits, all good in their kind; nor is the ſoil deficient in fruit-trees. The ſugar-canes grow here in greater plenty, and larger, than any where elſe on the coaſt of Guinea. Palm-wine and oil are here in abundance, and very good: the country alſo abounds in all ſorts of tame and wild beaſts. For the ſtate of the fort and factories, ſee the articles ENGLISH, DUTCH, FRENCH, and PORTUGUESE AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANIES. See alſo our new MAP of AFRICA.

III. BENIN. This country, which comprehends alſo the Slave Coaſt, has Guinea Proper, or, more particularly, the Gold Coaſt, on the weſt; Gago, Brafera, with the deſert of Seth, on the north; Mujac and Makoko on the eaſt; and part of Congo, with the Ethiopic Ocean, on the ſouth. It is commonly divided into three parts, viz. Whydah and Ardah, which two contain the Slave Coaſt, and Benin Proper.

WHYDAH, as it is called by the Engliſh, is called JUDA by the French, and FIDA by the Dutch. It is bounded on the weſt by the river Volta; on the ſouth it has the gulph of Guinea; on the eaſt the kingdom of Ardah, and, on the north, the kingdom of Dahomy. Whydah is allowed to be a very delightful country; the number and variety of tall and beautiful trees ſeem as if planted in fine groves for ornament; the lands were in general well cultivated, till the king of Dahomy conquered it; before which, the natives were ſo induſtrious, that few places thought fertile eſcaped cultivation: they were ſo anxious in that particular, that, the day after they had reaped, they always ſowed again, without allowing the land time for reſt.

The Engliſh African company have a fort here, wherein are mounted ſeveral pieces of cannon; and a little diſtant there is alſo a French fort.

SABEE, the capital town of Whydah, is about four miles diſtant from the French fort, towards the north; but it was reduced to aſhes by the king of Dahomy. The town was very populous, and here were daily markets, wherein many ſorts of European, as well as African commodities, were exhibited to public ſale, as alſo great variety of proviſions. Near the European factories was a ſpacious place, where grew a parcel of fine tall ſhady trees, under which the Engliſh, French, and Portugueze governors, factors, and ſea-captains, walked and tranſacted buſineſs every day, as on an exchange. All theſe places were reduced to aſhes by the King of Dahomy's army.

Adjoining to the kingdom of Whydah are ſeveral ſmall royalties, as Coto, Little and Great, Popo, and Quahoe, ſituate on the Slave Coaſt. At Coto their land is flat, ſandy, and barren; they have indeed the palm and wild cacao-trees, in tolerable plenty.—Their trade is chiefly that of ſlaves and fiſh. Quahoe, according to Boſman, abounds with gold, which the inhabitants carry through Aquamboe to Acra.

DAHOMY COUNTRY is ſituated to the north of the Slave Coaſt, and extends greatly inland: its boundaries on the weſt, north, and eaſt, are unknown. This country is mighty healthy, lying high, and being refreſhed with cool breezes. Their commerce here is chiefly in ſlaves, and ſome gold.

BENIN PROPER has part of the Gulph of Guinea, and the Slave Coaſt, or Ludra, on the weſt; part of Gago, and Brafera, on the north; Mujac and Makoko on the eaſt; and Congo on the ſouth. Its extent, from weſt to eaſt, is about 600 miles; but that from ſouth to north remains unaſcertained.

The country abounds with wild beaſts, as elephants, tygers, leopards, boars, &c. as alſo with game, as harts, hares, partridges, pigeons, turtle-doves, &c. The ſoil alſo produces great variety of trees and plants, as orange, lemon, and eſpecially cotton-trees; pepper, but not in ſuch quantities as in the Eaſt-Indies.

The natives here are pretty well civilized, and, if humoured in their ceremonious way of traffic, they may be managed to pretty good advantage. They are very expert in buſineſs, though tedious; which, however, they manage with ſo much civility, that you cannot well be angry. The natives ſeem very

very obliging to each other; but this is only external grimace, for they repoſe little confidence in their countrymen: they are jealouſly prudent, and very reſerved, eſpecially in the management of their trade, which they conduct with the utmoſt ſecrecy, leſt they ſhould be repreſented as great traders to their governors; who, upon ſuch diſcovery, would certainly accuſe them of ſome crime or other, in order to poſſeſs themſelves, though ever ſo unjuſtly, of the effects of theſe rich merchants: wherefore, thoſe who have no ſhare in the government, always pretend to be poorer than they really are, to eſcape the rapacious hands of thoſe in authority. This obliges them to a cunning ſort of civility, to avoid accuſers; but thoſe European dealers who will conceal their tranſactions with them, and deal upon the ſquare, may do buſineſs with them to great profit.

Thoſe men who have any thing of ſtock apply to merchandizes; very few of the commonalty among the males are induſtrious; they lay the burden of labour on their wives and ſlaves, whether it be tilling of ground, ſpinning of cotton, weaving of cloth, or any other handicraft employ.—Here are very few manual arts, beſides weaving, practiſed or underſtood: the chief workmen are either ſmiths, carpenters, or leather-dreſſers; but all their workmanſhip is but mean, for want of proper inſtruction.

BENIN, which gives name to the empire, and is the king's reſidence, is ſituate about 60 miles from Agatton, a town at the entrance of the river Formoſa, near the ſea. Continual markets are kept here of kine, cotton, elephants teeth, and European wares.

The inhabitants of this city are all natives, foreigners not being permitted to live there. There are ſeveral rich men, who continually attend at court, not concerning themſelves with either trade, agriculture, or any thing elſe, but leaving all their affairs to their wives, who go to all the circumjacent villages, to trade in all ſorts of merchandizes, and are obliged to bring the greateſt part of their gains to their huſbands. All male ſlaves here are foreigners, for the inhabitants cannot be ſold for ſlaves, and only bear the name of the king's ſlaves. Nor is it allowed to export any male ſlaves that are ſold in this country, for they muſt remain there; but females may be dealt with at every one's pleaſure.

AWERRI is about 20 leagues from Benin to the ſouth, and is the capital of the kingdom of the ſame name, whoſe king is independent from the king of Benin.

AREBA, a common trading-place for the Europeans, ſituate above 50 miles higher up than the mouth of the river Formoſa. So far ſhips may conveniently come in their paſſage, ſailing by a great variety of branches of that river, beſides creeks. There were here formerly two factories, one of which belonged to the Engliſh, the other to the Dutch; but, the Engliſh not having traded here but very little for ſeveral years paſt, they have no fort or factory.

AGATTON has ſeveral circumjacent villages, whoſe inhabitants come hither at every conſiderable market, which is held here for five days.

At CAPE FORMOSA the trade conſiſts in elephants teeth, wax, and honey.

CONGO, or LOWER GUINEA. This large country has Upper Guinea, or the kingdom of Benin, on the north: the Ethiopic Ocean on the weſt; the kingdom of Mataman, reckoned part of Cafreria, on the ſouth; but its boundaries eaſt and north-eaſt are not well known. The extent of this country, from Cape Lopo, in the firſt degree of ſouth latitude, to Cape Negro, 23. 30. of the ſame latitude, is about 16 degrees 30 minutes, or about 990 Engliſh miles: how far it extends eaſtward is not known.

Congo is commonly divided into Loango, Congo Proper, Angola, and Benguela. The greateſt part of the copper that is here comes from an inland kingdom called Juſijeſſes. It is brought by ſtealth, becauſe that nation is always at war with the people of Loango. The Portugueze buy here great quantities of red-wood and elephants-teeth. It is ſaid there are ſilver mines in Loango, but the people are ſo lazy that they will not work them. In ſome places there grows pepper, like that of Benin, ginger, and ſome ſugar-canes, of which they make little or no account.

To the weſtward of Angola lies the kingdom of ANZICO, and the country of the JAGAS, whoſe inhabitants trade in the kingdom of Angola, whither they carry ſlaves from their own country, and from Nubia, which they exchange for ſalt, glaſs-beads, ſilk, knives, and other wares.

SONGO, or, as father Labat writes it, SOGNO, has the river Zaire on the north; Sundi and Pango on the eaſt; Bamba on the ſouth; and the ocean on the weſt. The ſoil is dry and ſandy. They are furniſhed wtth proviſions from the mouth of the river Zaire, and their principal returns are in ſalt.

SUNDI, an inland country, has the river Zaire on the north; on the ſouth-eaſt the countries of Batta and Pango; on the north-eaſt the kingdom of Makoko. The ſoil of this province is watered with ſo many rivers, that its fertility is no wonder. It requires only to be better cultivated; but nothing here, it is ſaid, can conquer the lazineſs of the negroes: they chuſe rather to live in want, than give themſelves the trouble to get a comfortable livelihood.

The mountains here abound with the moſt precious metals; but, by reaſon of the turbulent ſpirit of the inhabitants about them, they are not ſuffered to be wrought. None but the iron mines are worked, becauſe they want iron to make arms and inſtruments for agriculture. To the north of the Zaire there are mines of fine copper, which are worked; and here the people of Loango reſort to purchaſe copper.

ANGOLA. This kingdom has that of Congo Proper on the north; Malemba, or Majemba, on the eaſt; Benguela on the ſouth; and the ocean on the weſt. Here are a prodigious number of ſlaves. The Portugueze Jeſuits alone, who perform here the office of curates, and take care of the ſcholars, are ſaid to have above 12,000 ſlaves at Loando, which is the uſual reſidence of the Roman Catholic biſhop.

BENGUELA. This country has Angola on the north; the country of Jaga Caſanii on the eaſt; the kingdom of Matapan on the ſouth; and the ocean on the weſt. The inland countries are little known. Along the ſea-coaſt are ſeveral places, wherewith we are better acquainted. Theſe are, according to De Liſle, as follow: Old Benguela, or Benguela Viella, Manikicango, Fort Cabuto, St Philip de Benguela, Angra de Sancta Maria, Farſa Bay, Tortuga Bay, Angra de Negros, and Great Wiſſers Bay.

The Portugueze have built a fort at Old Benguela, with paliſadoes, and a ditch round it. The ſoil here is very fruitful, and the land low.—Here is plenty of black cattle, hogs, and Portugueze inhabitants, fine linnen and cotton cloths, gum, and gun-powder; and the European trade is here chiefly in ſlaves, ſome gold and ivory.

REMARKS.

The trade carried on here, whether by the Engliſh, or other European nations, conſiſts in but three capital articles, viz. ſlaves, teeth, and gold: a very gainful and advantageous commerce, eſpecially as it was once carried on, when theſe were all purchaſed at low rates from the negroes; and even thoſe low rates paid in trifles and toys, ſuch as knives and ſciſſars, kettles, glaſs-beads and cowries, things of little value; but even this part of the trade is greatly declined in profit, ſince by the ſtrife and envy among the traders, eſpecially between our late royal African company and the ſeparate traders, we have had the folly to inſtruct the negroes in the value of their own goods, and of the cheapneſs of ours; endeavouring to ſupplant one another, by underſelling and overbidding, by which we have taught the negroes to ſupplant both, by holding up the price of their own productions, and running down the rates of what we carry them for ſale.

Thus that gainful commerce, once ſuperior to all the trades in the world, which carried out the meaneſt of all exportations, and brought home the richeſt, is ſinking daily, and we are ſometimes ſaid to buy even the gold too dear.

But all this while here is not the leaſt uſe made of the land, the fruitful ſoil lies waſte, a vaſt extended country, pleaſant vallies, the banks of charming rivers, ſpacious plains, capable of improvement and cultivation to infinite advantage, barren and untouched.

Now, why is all this waſte? What mean the Europeans, and others to neglect ſuch advantages? Why do they not incloſe, fence, and ſet a-part ſuch lands for cultivation, as by their nature and ſituation appear to be proper for the moſt advantageous productions?

Let the ſame climates be examined in other parts of the world, and the ſoil in thoſe climates be compared with the ſoil in the ſame latitudes on this coaſt; and if it is the ſame, or ſo near the ſame, as no viſible difference is found in them, why ſhould they not produce the ſame harveſt, the ſame plants, fruits, drugs; or, whatever grows and is produced in one, why ſhould it not be planted, grow, and produce the ſame in another?

Let us reduce this to practice, and bring the latitude of places together, with the productions proper to thoſe places: for example.

1. The coffee-berry is the natural product of the earth at Mocha, on the eaſtern bank of the Red Sea, and the ſouth-weſt point of Arabia Fœlix, in the latitude of 13 to 14 deg. there it grows, thrives and is produced, as it were wild, and with the leaſt help of labour imaginable; what aſſiſtance of art is added to it, is after the fruit is ripened and gathered, viz. in the curing and drying the berry, and preſerving them for a market, and that is to be done in the ſame manner in any part of the world as well as there.

The diligent Dutch, ſeeing the eaſineſs of the managing and curing the berry, and how that part had no dependence, either upon the earth, the air, the water, or any thing elſe more there than in another place, took the hint, and planted the coffee-tree in the iſland of Java, near their city of Batavia; there it thrives, bears, and ripens every jot as well as at Mocha; and now they begin to leave off the Red Sea, and bring 20 to 30 tons of coffee at a time from Batavia, in the latitude of 5 degrees ſouth.

Not content with this happy improvement, others of the ſame nation have made the ſame experiment, in near the ſame latitude, in another quarter of the world, and with the

like ſucceſs; and now they begin to bring large quantities of coffee from Surinam, on the north coaſt of South America, lat. 6 ½ deg.

We are told likewiſe, though this, however probable, I do not affirm, that the leſs induſtrious Portugueze are planting it on the coaſt of Brazil, about the Rio de St Franciſco, in the latitude of 12 degrees.

And beſides theſe, we are aſſured the French have planted it without ſucceſs at the Cape de Bon Eſperanza: the reaſon is plain, the place was too cold, and it might as well be planted at our colonies of Virginia and Carolina, the cape lying, as we all know, in lat. 34 deg. 20 min. or thereabouts.

But if at Batavia and Surinam, in latitude 5 to 6 degrees; if at Mocha, in latitude 14 degrees; if at Port Dauphin, in latitude 23 ½ degrees; why not at Seraleon, under Cape de Verd, in latitude 13 to 15 degrees? Why not at Cape Coaſt, and at Accra, in latitude 5 to 6 degrees? And in a word, why not upon all the Grain Coaſt, Tooth Coaſt, Gold and Slave Coaſt, where we have a free poſſeſſion, ſtrength for protection, and ſoil for production?

2. The ſugar-cane. Our ſucceſs with the ſugar-canes is well known, it is produced to a very great advantage in our iſland colonies of America. From St Chriſtopher's in latitude 17 ½ deg. and Jamaica in latitude 18 deg. to Barbadoes, in latitude 13 deg. It is produced by the Portugueze in the Brazils, in the ſame latitude, ſouth of the line from the port of Fernambuco, in the latitude of 9 deg. to the Bay de Todos los Santos, or Bay of All Saints, in the latitude of 13 deg. 20 m. and it is produced by the Spaniards on the continent of North America, in the provinces of Guaxara, Guatimala, &c. in the latitude of 14 deg. And why not then by us on the coaſt of Africa, where we have the choice of the country in the very ſame latitude from the Gold Coaſt in the latitude 6, to the Cape de Verd in the latitude 15?

Add to this the particular advantages which offer themſelves to the planter in ſuch an attempt as this, on the coaſt of Africa, which he has not, nor can have, in any of thoſe parts where the ſugar is now planted, eſpecially by the Engliſh. For example,

1. The eaſineſs of procuring negro labourers, which here would not coſt above 4 or 5 l. per head, whereas they are at this time, in Barbadoes and Jamaica, worth from 25 to 30 l. a head; at the Brazils from 30 to 40 l. and to the Spaniards in the provinces of Guaxara, Guatimala, &c. 50 to 60 l. ſterling per head.

N. B. The difficulty of keeping the negroes from running away is not ſo great as ſome imagine, ſince as they are brought from diſtant provinces, though it be upon the ſame continent, they know nothing of their own country; nor do they underſtand the language of the next negroes, any more than they do Engliſh; and if they ſhould fly to theſe neighbouring negroes, they would but make ſlaves of them again, and ſell them to the ſhips; ſo that the ſlaves would not be apt to fly, and, if they did, the loſs would not be near ſo great as in Jamaica, &c.

2. The eaſineſs of getting proviſions, which they would be ſo far from fetching from Ireland or New England, as our colonies of Jamaica and Barbadoes do, and at a very monſtrous rate, that they would be always able to furniſh themſelves, as they do now, by the produce of the ſoil: as for rice, Indian corn, or maize, with roots, ſuch as potatoes, parſnips, carrots, plantanes, and innumerable other ſorts, they grow freely upon all the coaſt.

The ſhortneſs of the diſtance, and the ſafe paſſage between England and theſe colonies, is ſuch that the voyage is often performed in 15 or 20 days, whereas ſix or ten weeks is counted no bad voyage between Jamaica and London: the expence as well as other inconveniencies of which are exceeding great, and the difference would give the ſugars of Africa a great advantage at market.

3. Of the planting of tea. Every one that has been the length of Amoy or Chuſan on the coaſt of China, knows that the tea is produced chiefly in the provinces of Xantung, Nanquin, and Canton, as alſo in the iſlands of Japan, moſt of it between the latitudes of 30 deg. and 24 deg. north of the line. With how much greater advantage then of the climate, might the ſame plant be produced at Seraleon and on the Gold Coaſt of Africa, the plants being fetched from China, as well as the method of curing it? which, according to Mynheer Nieuhoft, is not difficult. See the article TEA.

I need ſay very little to the advantages of raiſing ſuch a profitable plant ſo near home; the thing explains itſelf, and the difficulty of making the experiment ſeems not to be great. Nay, I am told, that, in the governor's garden at Cape Coaſt Caſtle, there is, or at leaſt was in the time of the government of Sir Dalby Thomas, a large plant of tea planted, and that it grew and thrived to admiration: and why ſhould it not?

I ſhall conclude this head with one particular yet more conſiderable than all the reſt, and that is, the great article of the ſpices, ſuch as nutmegs, cloves, and cinnamon; the two laſt are found in the iſlands of Ternate, and others adjacent in the latitude of 2 to 4 deg. The nutmegs, indeed, are found only at Banda, and ſome ſmall iſlands adjoining and almoſt under the line; and ſo it may be doubtful except in the ſame latitude, which is farther ſouth than any of our ſettlements in Africa: but the trial might be made of that too.

But, as to the clove, it is found in the iſland of Borneo at Gilolo, and ſeveral other iſlands, from the latitudes of 2 to 7 deg. which is exactly the climate of our Gold Coaſt; likewiſe the cinnamon is found in Ceylon, in the latitude of 6 to 7 deg. and hits punctually with this coaſt; and we can ſee no reaſon why the ſame climate on the ſhore of Africa may not, by the help of art and induſtry, produce the ſame fruit.

I ſum up all with obſerving, that there is no reaſon to doubt, but all or moſt of the productions, either of the Eaſt or Weſt-Indies, might be produced here; ſuch as the cotton, ginger, ſugar, cacao, pimento, indigo, and ſeveral others known at Jamaica; as alſo the cocheneal, the vanelloes, and even the Peruvian bark, if induſtry and application were ſet on work to plant them.

Before we quit the improvements which might be made on the coaſt of Africa, without mentioning a great correſpondence carried on among the ſeveral nations in the northern part of that country, which, even as it is now, cauſes a great commerce over land, or taking notice withal how wonderfully it might be improved; this trade is ſaid to be carried on by the negro natives, upon the great river Nigris or Niger; or, as we call it, the river Gambia, in conjunction with the natives of ſeveral nations, upon the ſame river, eaſt from the ſhore; and by all theſe together, correſponding with the Moors on the north coaſt of Africa, at Fez, at Morocco, at Mequineſs, and other cities, where they now carry on a commerce, by vaſt annual caravans. They tell us, that it is already a very great trade; but how would our propoſal not only increaſe this trade itſelf, but quite change and alter the very people themſelves! while the north part of the country (being Chriſtians) the ſavage part would be ſoon civilized, and become ſo too, and the people learn to live, to be cloathed, and to be furniſhed with many things from Europe, which they now want; and, by conſequence, would, with their manners, change the very nature of their commerce, and fall in upon the conſumption of the European manufactures in general.

It would be needleſs to lay our ſchemes of commerce among the inhabitants of the nations with thoſe ſouthern lands: numbers of European people, being but once ſettled on the ſea coaſt, would ſoon ſpread the commerce into the inland nations, and employ and enrich the inhabitants, by inſtructing them in the arts of living, as well as of trade; and this brings me to a view of one of the greateſt ſcenes of improvement in the world, which is in ſhort this, viz.

That there needs little more than to inſtruct and inure the barbarous nations in all our colonies, factories, &c. in the arts of living: cloathing with decency, not ſhameleſs and naked; feeding with humanity, and not in a manner brutal; dwelling in towns and cities with œconomy and civil government, and not like ſavages.

It is the moſt unaccountable miſtake of its kind that can be imagined, that one ſhould ſuppoſe civilizing nations does not increaſe commerce; the contrary is evident in all our colonies: civilizing the American ſavages, who inhabited the countries on the back of the European colonies in North America, as well our own, as thoſe on the French ſide at Quebec and Canada, what has been the conſequence? Take it in the following particulars, which, though few and ſmall in the ſeveral articles, are yet conſiderable in the whole, and abundantly confirm the propoſition.

The Indians or natives, before the Europeans came among them, had neither houſes, cattle, clothes, tools, weapons, ammunition, or houſhold ſtuff; their cattle were the beaſts of the foreſt; their clothes were the ſkins of beaſts; their weapons bows, wooden ſwords, clubs, javelins, and darts, pointed with teeth and bones of fiſhes; their ammunition arrows and ſtones; their houſes were wigwams, hovels and huts; their houſhold ſtuff earthen-pans hardened in the ſun; their beds matts, and ſkins, laid on the ground: they could ſtrike no fire, but by rubbing two ſticks together; they had neither edged tools or other tools, for they had neither iron, ſteel, braſs, or lead; no grind-ſtone or mill-ſtone; their meat was fleſh dried in the ſun, and their drink no other than cold water.

The ſame Indians, even thoſe remaining wild and ſavage almoſt as before, yet being convinced by their conveniencies, and prompted by neceſſity, ſerve themſelves of us with an infinite number of things, for the abundant accommodation of life; and thoſe that are more civilized, do it more, and theſe altogether increaſe our trade; for example, take their own goods firſt, with which they purchaſe ours. They ſell the deer-ſkins, bear-ſkins, fox, beaver, and other furrs; all which, together, we call peltry: theſe, I ſay, they ſell to our people, and a very good merchandize they are, being an import that turns to very good account, when manufactured in theſe kingdoms.

With theſe they buy our woollen manufactures for their cloathing, ſuch as duffels, blankets, halfticks, kerſies, and ſuch coarſe goods; and others alſo of leather, with which

they dreſs and keep themſelves warm in the coldeſt ſeaſon; alſo they buy caps ſtockings, hats, ſhoes, gloves, for the ſame hard weather.

In order to provide fuel and food, they buy for the laſt fire-arms and ammunition, ſuch as powder and ſhot; and for the firſt, hatchets and axes, knives, bills, as alſo ſpades, ſhovels, pickaxes, and other tools fitted for their work: for the building and furniſhing houſes to dwell in, they buy all kinds of edged tools, as alſo nails, ſpikes, hammers, ſaws, chiſſels, &c. wrought iron for hooks, hinges, locks, bolts, and many other things: for their houſhold ſtuff likewiſe they ſometimes buy chairs, ſtools, benches, beds, bedſteads, and the like; alſo pots, caſks, and other veſſels of earth, pewter, braſs, and wood; and, in a word, every thing they want, which either art or trade can ſupply them with, according to their way of living: and, as they grow more civilized, and come more into the European way of life, the more of our product and manufactures will they ſtand in need of.

All theſe make trade, and as theſe demands increaſe, the trade and commerce of Europe muſt increaſe; for increaſe of the civilized people is an increaſe of commerce in its neceſſary conſequences, let the degree of their demands be more or leſs.

What then have the people of England more to do, but to increaſe the colonies of their own nation, in all the remote parts where it is proper and practicable, and to civilize and inſtruct the ſavages and natives of thoſe countries, wherever they plant, ſo as to bring them by the ſofteſt and gentleſt methods to fall into the cuſtoms and uſages of their own country, and incorporate among our people as one nation?

I ſay nothing of chriſtianizing the ſavages, 'tis remote from my preſent purpoſe; but I ſpeak of an incorporation of cuſtoms and uſages as may in time bring them to live like Chriſtians, whether they may turn ſuch or not.

To bring this home to the coaſt and country of Africa, of which we were juſt now ſpeaking: let the improvements propoſed with regard to this commerce be calculated, in planting, fiſhing, ſhipping, and all the neceſſary employments that would attend a public improved colony; and let them tell us, if the conſequence would not be a conſumption of manufacture among the people where there was none before, and in a place where we had no commerce to carry on before.

Nor let any weak-hearted Chriſtian ſuggeſt, that this would be to anticipate our Weſt-India trade, ſupplant our other colonies, and weaken us on the one hand, while it ſtrengthens us on another; let thoſe who talk ſo conſider, 1ſt, The great improvements propoſed, without meddling either with ſugar, ginger, or any of our iſland productions, and how great the improvement might be firſt made in theſe things. And, 2dly, Let us add, that as it is evident all our iſland colonies are not at this time ſufficient to ſupply our markets with ſugar, including the quantity that might be demanded for exportation; nor can the quantity, when our ſugar trade comes to be properly encouraged, eaſily be too great, nor indeed is there any danger of it, ſo that thoſe objections are eaſily to be anſwered: let us ſee the improvement begun, and let us ſee the danger begun, of overſtocking our markets, and hurting the trade of our iſlands, and let us hear if our iſlands complain; it will be then time enough to anſwer thoſe ſcruples: at preſent, they ſeem to merit no conſideration. But, if the production of our ſugars was three times, or, perhaps, twice three times more than it is, there is no great difficulty to find a vent for it, and to keep up the price to ſuch a pitch, as may be greatly to the advantage of the planter too. See the article SUGAR.

On the other hand, there is a vaſt ocean of improvement in view upon the African coaſt (though the ſingle planting of ſugar was omitted) and as there are, as well on this ſide of the country, as on the eaſtern ſhores, vaſtly populous nations, nay, empires, where there are millions of people yet to trade with, who were never traded with before the prevailing on theſe nations to civilize and govern themſelves, according as informed nature would ſoon direct them, would neceſſarily introduce trade, conſume manufactures, employ ſhipping and hands, and in time eſtabliſh ſuch a commerce, as would be more than equal to any foreign exportation we have yet to boaſt of.

There is but one conſiderable country in the world that we have any knowledge of upon the ſurface of the globe, to which the inhabitants of Europe have no commerce, or with whom they have no manner of converſe: and this is the great empire or claſs of kingdoms called Ethiopia, or the Abyſſines.

There are but three ways for us to come to any part of this country in a courſe of trade or correſpondence, and at preſent they are all made impracticable.

1. Over land from Tripoli and the coaſt of Barcan; and, were the Tripolins reduced by a proper confederacy for that purpoſe among the Chriſtian powers, this trade would certainly be ſet on foot by caravans, as is done in Aſia from Aleppo to Bagdat, to this day.

2. Up the Nile, from Grand Cairo into the lake of Dombea: but, though this is ſaid to be in uſe at ſome certain times, when the river is not ſwelled beyond its bounds and banks, yet thoſe that have examined it more nicely, tell us, that thoſe people are miſtaken, and that the cataracts or water-falls, which are frequent in the river, from within 160 miles of Grand Cairo ſouth, cut off all poſſibility of a navigation, or of any commerce by water farther that way.

3. The third way is by the coaſt of the Red Sea; and this alſo is cut off by the Turks, who have ſeized upon all the weſtern ſhores of the gulph or Red Sea, and, driving the Ethiopians from the coaſt, have either ſhut all the nations of the world out from the Ethiopians, or have ſhut up the Ethiopians from converſing with the reſt of the world.

The commerce, however, is apparently practicable from the coaſt of that gulph, farther ſouth than the Turks have yet poſſeſſed it; and there are two particular rivers on that coaſt, viz. Zeila and the Houache, that are navigable far within the country, and beyond the coaſt, which the Turks are poſſeſſed of; and that, by theſe rivers, a commerce may be eſtabliſhed into the very center of Ethiopia, which is indeed the richeſt and moſt populous part of it, and that the mouths of thoſe rivers are open for any nation to ſettle and fortify at; which ſettlements would be eaſily defended, by having but two ſhips of force, from 40 to 50 guns, always there, by whom alſo, going and returning, the trade would be carried on round the cape.

It may be ſuggeſted, that ſuch a trade would be within the circle of the Eaſt-India company's charter; to which it would be effectually anſwered, why then does not the company open the trade, and make a ſettlement themſelves? If they do not, no excluſive privilege of commerce is granted to any men, or company of men, to obſtruct or deſtroy a trade, but to improve and carry it on; and if they inſiſt on their charter to have the right of trading to Ethiopia, but will not trade, their right is ſo far void of courſe; otherwiſe they may as well tell us, they have a charter granted them, to ſhut out the kingdom of Great-Britain from the Ethiopian trade, which would be abſurd, and contrary to the nature of the thing.

Contrary to the whole tenor of our correſpondence in the Indies, this trade would be exceedingly much to the advantage of Great-Britain, becauſe they would both receive our growth and produce, and make to us returns in gold and ivory; whereas, in all the trade of India and China, our caſe is the reverſe; for there we cannot ſell our own goods at all, and cannot buy theirs, but with ready money. They will take off none, or but few of our manufactures, nor will they ſupply us with theirs, but for hard ſilver; to the detriment, not of England only, but, perhaps, of all Europe.

2. The people, though the country is hot, go all modeſtly and decently cloathed; and 'tis known by thoſe who have travelled among them, that they would buy our Engliſh fine cloths, in particular ſuch as are carried to Egypt and Perſia, if they could come at them; and ſome eſſays of that kind have been made from Grand Cairo by land, though not ſuch as are conſiderable enough to be called a trade.

Upon the whole, ſuch a trade would be infinitely advantageous; ſeeing the return for whatever of our manufactures could be ſold there, would be in gold, in ivory, ſulphur, civet, ſaltpetre, emeralds, and ſuch-like valuable goods: there are other productions, which we have ſeen from thence alſo, as deer-ſkins in exceeding great quantities; hides of black cattle; leopards and lions ſkins, and others of thoſe kinds; alſo fine copper, and ſome very rich gums and drugs, ſuch as frankincenſe, gum arabic, and aloes ſoccotrina.

In exchange for theſe, we ſhould, without fail, introduce our broad cloths, fine ſcarlet ſhalloons, ſayes, ſerges, and ſuch other thin ſtuffs as are uſually worn in hot climates; beſides a great quantity of hard-ware manufactures, wrought iron and braſs, edged tools, weapons, fire-arms, ammunition, lead, pewter, tin, fine linnen, and perhaps ſilks alſo: for we are well aſſured, they have no more trade with India, or any other parts of the world, than they have with England.

Thus you have three articles for the improvement of the Britiſh commerce on the coaſt of Africa only, all practicable, and all capable of raiſing an immenſe conſumption of our woollen manufactures, where there was little or no conſumption for them before: one of which articles, viz. that of Guinea, is actually in our own power, and ſo little to be ſaid againſt the experiment, that nothing of its kind is more wonderful, than that the attempt has never yet been made. See the articles AFRICA, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY, GOLD.

The ſecurity and extenſion of the trade to Guinea, and to all parts of Africa where Great-Britain has a right to trade, depends on keeping up forts and factories.

For near 300 years paſt, it has been the conſtant policy of all European nations, who have made new diſcoveries, and gained any eſtabliſhed power and authority in barbarous countries, to erect and maintain forts and caſtles; and, by virtue of ſuch poſſeſſions, to claim a right to whole kingdoms, and to EXCLUDE all other nations from trading with them.

By this means the Portugueze long enjoyed the whole trade to Africa and the Eaſt-Indies; the Spaniards claimed and engroſſed to themſelves almoſt the whole continent of America, and moſt of the iſlands adjacent thereunto: by this means alſo did the Hollanders become abſolute maſters of the Spice Iſlands, and now ſupply the whole world with them, by ſuch quantities, and at ſuch prices, as they think fit. We once ſhared the trade to India for nutmegs, cloves, and ſpice, with the Dutch and Portugueze; but, for want of due encouragement given to the old Eaſt-India company to preſerve that branch of trade, the Dutch ſupplanted us both, and have monopolized that valuable commerce to themſelves.

About 1660 the Dutch likewiſe attempted to gain the intire poſſeſſion of the moſt valuable parts of the coaſt of Africa, and to EXCLUDE Great-Britain from any ſhare or intereſt therein, as they have done in the ſpice trade, and thereby brought on themſelves a war with this kingdom in 1664.

Before the late Royal African Company of England had built a ſufficient number of forts and caſtles on the Gold Coaſt, the Dutch interrupted our trade, and ſeized and confiſcated our ſhips on that coaſt, and within its dependencies*: ſince the company have built and maintained a ſufficient number of forts and caſtles on the Gold Coaſt, the company's, and all other Britiſh ſhips and veſſels have traded freely to this coaſt, and all places dependent thereon, without moleſtation from the Dutch, or any other nation.

*Under the article ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, we have given a ſhort hiſtory of the African trade in general; and here it may be uſeful to obſerve more minutely, how this nation was annoyed by the Dutch in this branch of trade, and what ſtruggles we have had to preſerve any ſhare in it. Having given an account hereof in a tract I drew up in the year 1745, when I was concerned in the direction of the Royal African Company of England, I ſhall quote what I have there ſaid. It is an extract from a diſcourſe publiſhed by Sir George Downing, who was envoy extraordinary to the ſtates-general upon this occaſion. The liſt of ſhips taken, ſays Sir George, underwent the ſtricteſt examination of the parliament, and was made out upon ſo clear and undeniable proofs, that it was impoſſible to add any thing either to the ſolemnity of the debate, or to the weight of evidence (a).

(a) See a Reply of Sir George Downing, Bart. envoy extraordinary from his majeſty of Great-Britain, to the Remarks of the deputies of the ſtates-general upon his memorial of December 20, 1664, O. S. Printed in the year 1665.

The ſhip St. John Baptiſt, Emanuel Hart commander, who had taken on board negroes on the coaſt of Guinea, and bartered them for ſugars, and other commodities, at Bavia in Brazil, was ſeized in his return, in June 1661, by a Zealand man of war, called the Golden Port of Middleburgh, Cornelius Trumcap commander, belonging to the Dutch African company.

The Merchant's Delight, belonging to John Young, and Company of Engliſh merchants, John Bonner commander, having ſet ſail from Dover, was ſeized near Cape Corſo, in Guinea, about Auguſt 1661, by a ſhip called the Amſterdam, belonging to the Dutch African company.

The Paragon, belonging to Bernard Sparke, John Cooke, and company of Engliſh merchants, John Bariford commander, laden at Exeter, and bound for Guinea, was ſeized, October 15, 1661, by two ſhips belonging to the Dutch African company; the one called the Amſterdammer, of Amſterdam, Aaron Couzens commander; the other called the Arms of Amſterdam, Nicholas Yole commander.

The Daniel, belonging to John Knight, Thomas Knight, Henry Oakes, and company of Engliſh merchants, commanded by the ſaid Henry Oakes, ſet ſail from London about May 1661, from the coaſt of Guinea; was ſeized by the ſhip Amſterdam, belonging to the Dutch African company, Aaron Couzens commander.

The Brotherhood of London, belonging to Peter Caulier, Bartholomew Caulier, Abraham Caulier, John Beverly, and company of Engliſh merchants, was ſeized on the coaſt of Guinea in February 1665, by a frigate, called Gat, ——— Cox commander, and one Japoone, commander of a ſhip called the Kaler, both commiſſioned by the Dutch African company.

The Rappa Hannoeck, belonging to John Jeffrys, and company of Engliſh merchants, laden at London, bound for the Coaſt of Guinea, was ſeized near Cape Lopez, about the 11th of September, 1656, by two Dutch African company's ſhips; the one the Mary, of Amſterdam, the other the Unicorn, of Middleburgh, John Serael, of Munekedam, commander.

The Sarah, belonging to Anne Lewellin, adminiſtratrix of Robert Lewellin, merchant, Humphry Beane, and company of Engliſh merchants, Arthur Perkins commander, was ſeized on the coaſt of Guinea, Auguſt 1656, near Cape Lopez, by two Dutch ſhips, the Mary of Amſterdam, and the Unicorn, of Middleburgh, commanded by the foremen-tioned Serael, of Munekedam.

The Fortune, belonging to Conſtane Silveſter, and company of Engliſh merchants, was ſeized about Auguſt 1656, near Cape Lopez, on the coaſt of Guinea, by the ſaid Mary of Amſterdam, and the Unicorn of Middleburgh, John Serael, of Munekedam, commander.

The Black Boy of Dover, belonging to Arnold Breams, and company of Engliſh merchants, Ralph Wood commander, was ſeized, April 13, 1661, near to Commenda Fort, on the coaſt of Guinea, by a Dutch ſhip, called the Grafenna, which came from the Dutch caſtle of Del Mina, and carried the ſaid ſhip into that fort.

The St. John, Cornelius Van Ringen maſter, belonging to Vincent de la Barre, and company of Engliſh merchants, bought, by their order, at Middleburgh, April 1658, and there laden to Callibar for negroes, was taken near Port Callibar, by a ſhip belonging to the Dutch African company, and confiſcated at Callibar, although the Dutch company had granted permiſſion for the ſaid ſhip to go thither.

The Ethiopian, belonging to John Allen and Matthew Babb, Engliſh merchants, Peter Blake commander, conſigned to Bohuee, on the coaſt of Guinea, for negroes, was ſeized, in January 1661, by a ſhip belonging to the Dutch African company, called the Poſt-Horſe, and carried to the caſtle of Del Mina.

The Lyon Providence, of London, belonging to Sir William Thomſon and company of Engliſh merchants, laden at London for Guinea, was ſeized, in Auguſt 1656, near Cape Lopez, in Guinea, by two ſhips belonging to the Dutch African company; the one called the Mary, of Amſterdam, the other the Unicorn, of Middleburgh, John Serael commander.

The Bazil frigate, of London, belonging to John Buſhell, Edward Buſhell, and company of Engliſh merchants, was ſeized between Angola and Fernambuco, in 1675, by a ſhip from Fluſhing, called the Sluce, ——— Quaerts commander.

The Content, of London, William Jordan commander, ſet ſail from the Downs in October 1661, to trade on the coaſt of Guinea, was ſeized there by a ſhip belonging to the Dutch African company, called the Holy Barbara, and carried to the iſland of Gene.

The Charles, belonging to James Barkin, and company of Engliſh merchants, John Blacker commander, laden for the coaſt of Guinea, was ſeized on the ſaid coaſt, in Auguſt 1661, by a ſhip belonging to the Dutch African company, called the Amſterdammer, of Amſterdam, Aaron Couzens commander, and carried to their caſtle Del Mina in Africa.

The Conſtant Mary, belonging to Francis Bellars, Thomas Fowke, Richard Glove, and company of Engliſh merchants, Daniel Leſter maſter, laden at London, bound for Guinea, was ſeized on the 8th of May, 1654, 20 leagues from Cape St. Vincent, by a Dutch man of war, called the Holy Cicilia, Hauſe Alburge commander, belonging to the Dutch African company.

The Leopard, belonging to Nicholas Bouchart, of London, and company of Engliſh merchants, was ſeized near Cape Blanco, in October 1656, by the Challoup, a Dutch man of war belonging to the Dutch African Company, and carried to the caſtle of Arengeny in Africa, at Cape Blanco.

King Charles II. being acquainted that the nation rung with the outcries of our ſuffering merchants againſt the Dutch African company, judged it full time to think of effectual meaſures to protect this trade for the future, and to obtain reparation for depredations committed.

With regard to depredations, his majeſty cauſed an account of them to be tranſmitted to Sir George Downing, then his envoy at the Hague, with orders to inſiſt upon ſatisfaction; but none could be obtained: whereupon, April 1, 1664, both houſes of parliament came to a reſolution, viz. That the wrongs, diſhonours, and indignities, done by the ſubjects of the United Provinces by invading his rights in Africa, &c. and the damages, affronts, and injuries done by them to our merchants, were the greateſt obſtructions of our foreign trade; and that the ſame be humbly and ſpeedily preſented to his majeſty; and that he be moſt humbly moved to take ſome ſpeedy and effectual courſe for redreſs thereof, &c.

Upon this reſolution of parliament, his majeſty renewed his inſtances with the ſtates for ſatisfaction to our injured merchants; but their remonſtrances were treated with contempt: the loſſes of our merchants were too conſiderable to be eaſily reimburſed; and the benefits of the African trade, could they have monopolized the whole to themſelves, as they aimed at, were too important to be willingly parted with. Wherefore, inſtead of giving us ſatisfaction for the injuries ſuſtained, they renewed their depredations in Africa, with greater violence than before, under the conduct of their admiral De Ruyter; ſo that the injuries of our merchants, upon the whole, amounted to between 6 and 700,000 l. ſterling.

The king, having tried all other methods in vain, found himſelf at length under the neceſſity, upon firſt notice of De Ruyter's hoſtilities in Africa, of complying with the ſenſe of his parliament, and the general voice of the people; and accordingly, on the 22d of February, 1664-5, he declared war in form againſt the ſtates-general of the United Provinces: of ſuch high eſtimation and concern to the nation was the trade to Africa then adjudged.

Nothing is more evident than that the chief view of the Dutch, at this time, and for ſome years before, had been totally to exclude the Engliſh from the trade to Africa, and to engroſs the ſame wholly into their own hands. Rather than ſuffer this nation to enjoy a ſhare of it peaceably with them, though they were their predeceſſors therein, and had a prior right thereto, they choſe to bear all the hazards and inconveniencies of a war with England.

However, they were happily diſappointed; our African company maintained their footing in Africa, by the treaty of peace concluded at Breda, 1667 (a).

(a) See my tract, intitled, The National and Private Advantages of the African Trade conſidered, &c. Printed for John and Paul Knapton, in the year 1746.

REMARKS

REMARKS with regard to the incroachments of the FRENCH on our trade to AFRICA.

Before the French got poſſeſſion of the forts in the river Senegal, and on the iſlands of Arguin and Goree, on the north coaſt, the Engliſh traded freely and openly to all places on that coaſt, without obſtruction: ſince the French have been in poſſeſſion of thoſe forts, they have aſſumed the right and authority to EXCLUDE the Britiſh nation from thoſe parts, and have actually taken and confiſcated ſuch Britiſh ſhips and veſſels as venture to go thither.

Such is the incroaching policy of that nation, and ſuch their deſire to engroſs the African trade to themſelves, that, by virtue of one fort on the River Senegal, and another a little diſtance from the ſame, on the iſland of Gorée, they not only claim an excluſive right to all the coaſt, from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, extending along the ſhore above 400 miles, but carry on a conſiderable trade in the river Gambia, within ſight of the Britiſh fort there: and, on the Gold Coaſt, where, heretofore, they were never permitted, or ever preſumed to purchaſe a negro, they have, of late years, come in great numbers, and traded at a place called Anamaboe, within ſight of Cape Coaſt Caſtle, the principal Britiſh fort and factory on that coaſt, and carried off yearly from thence ten times more of the beſt negroes to their ſugar-colonies in America, than have gone to the Britiſh ſugar-iſlands; to the unſpeakable profit of the French ſugar-iſlands, and detriment of the Britiſh. Can we, therefore, admire that the French ſhould ſupplant us in a ſugar-trade as they have done, when we have ſuffered ſuch ſhameful incroachments on our rights of commerce in Africa, and the French are ſo tenacious of what is not their right there?

Have they not alſo incroached on our negro-trade of Whydah, as well as on the Gold Coaſt? And have they not, merely by our neglect and ſupineneſs, wonderfully improved their ſugar colonies, and prejudiced ours? And what right has this nation to exclude us from the whole trade of the Gum Coaſt of Africa? See GUM TRADE.

In thoſe places where our African company have forts, as in the river Gambia, on the Gold Coaſt, &c. all Britiſh private merchants now trade freely with the natives, under the protection of the forts and factories. In thoſe places where other nations have forts and factories, and our African company have none, there all Britiſh private traders are either abſolutely denied the liberty of trading, or their ſhips are actually taken and confiſcated. What greater conviction, therefore, can any reaſonable man require of the indiſpenſible neceſſity of Great-Britain's maintaining forts and ſettlements in Africa, while our rivals in that trade do the like?

It has been ſaid by ſome, that although forts and ſettlements may be neceſſary for the ſupport of the trade to Africa, yet they ought to be put ſolely under a military eſtabliſhment, that being more naturally adapted for the purpoſe than a trading company.

Let gentlemen, who make this objection to the management of a trading company, inform themſelves, by the example of the Eaſt-India company, how effectually a mere military government would ſupport their trade with the natives in India, who are more civilized than the negroes.—Long experience in India hath proved, that a conſiderable military force may be wiſely conducted by a trading company, when the former is abſolutely dependent on the latter; but what inſtance have we of a trading company and intereſt being conducted by a mere military government, independent thereon? They are quite incompatible, unleſs united under one and the ſame head; and, ſince the great end we intend to anſwer in Africa is the benefit of commerce with the natives, a trading intereſt certainly ſhould have the ſole controul of the forts and ſettlements.

As our rivals in this trade act upon theſe principles, ſhould we not be very impolitic to introduce any innovation in this reſpect; an innovation founded only on the conjectures of thoſe who ſeem unacquainted with the nature and circumſtances of this trade, in oppoſition to the experience of time immemorial? While we are, in every eſſential circumſtance, upon the ſame footing in the African trade with our competitors, we need be under no apprehenſion of danger from them or the natives; but if we change our long-experienced ſyſtem, and eſtabliſh a new-fangled imaginary one in its ſtead, different from that of all other nations, is there not reaſon to doubt the ſucceſsful event? Gentlemen are too apt to run into a great miſtake upon this occaſion: they judge of the African forts and ſettlements as they do of Gibraltar and Port-Mahon; but the caſe is widely different: for what inland trade do we draw from theſe places? None at all, as we do by virtue of the African ſettlements.—For more matter on this head, ſee the articles AFRICAN TRADE, ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE: ſee alſo FRENCH AMERICA, FRANCE, BRITISH AMERICA, where are ſhewn the incroachments which the French have made, and are ſtill attempting to make, on our trade to AMERICA, as well as on that of AFRICA, which has been the great ſupport of their American trade; wherein, if they had been checked in due time by Great-Britain, they could never have made ſuch rapid progreſs in their ſugar colonies which they have done. See alſo our MAPS of NORTH and SOUTH AMERICA, and our new MAP of the COAST of AFRICA from Cape Blanco to the coaſt of Angola.

The EXPORTS from ENGLAND to AFRICA.

Annabaſſes, arrangos, rough amber, braſs of all ſorts; blankets, bays, bells, amber beads, cryſtal beads, coral beads, all other beads, broad cloth, boyſadoes; carpets, camblets, copper of all ſorts, coral, cotton ſtuffs of many ſorts; worſted damaſks, druggets, durois; earthen ware; fringe, flints, fire-ſteels, fuzees, muſkets, carbines, blunderbuſſes, buccaneers, fowling-pieces, trading guns, piſtols, gun-powder. Goods from the Eaſt-Indies, viz. atlaſſes, atchabannies, allejars, allibannes, brawls, bafts, bejutepauts, Bombay ſtuffs; callicoes, carridarries, cherconnees, chelloes, chillas, chints, coopees, cowries, chucklaes, cuſhlaes, cuttanees; elatches; ginghams, Guinea cloths; jamewares; long-cloths, longees, herba longes, ſilk or phota longees, lemannes; muſlins, negannepauts, nillaes, niconees; pintadoes, photahs, poizees; romalls; ſalampores, ſattins, ſeerſuckers; tapſeels, taffaties herba, taffaties ſilk, tepoy's, ſouſees, and many other ſilks and callicoes. Fine hats, felt hats, handkerchiefs, hollands: iron bars, wrought iron, knives, lead bars, and lead ſhot. Liquors, viz. arrack, brandy, beer, rum, malt ſpirits, wine. Long-ells, looking-glaſſes; medicines; paper, padlocks, pewter, perpetuanoes, or ranters. Proviſions, viz. beef, bread, butter, cheeſe, flour, pork, ſuet, vinegar, oil, ſugar, raiſins, ſpices, tobacco. Shalloons, Sileſia linnen, and all other German, Scotch, and Iriſh linnens, ſealing-wax, ſwords of all ſorts, hangers, ſcymetars, cutlaſſes, ſoap, ſlops, tallow. Trimming, as lace, buttons, gold and ſilver thread, mohair-buttons, ſilk, thread. Ticking, ſtriped hollands and ſtriped linens, Welch plains. Coats, waiſtcoats, breeches-drawers, ſhifts, ſhoes, ſlippers, ſtockings, perukes, wool-cards, all coarſe woollen cloths, &c. &c.

The IMPORTS from AFRICA to ENGLAND.

Gold, bees-wax, elephants teeth, gums of various ſorts, cotton-wool, divers dying woods, and negroes, or labourers, for the plantations, &c.

GUIENNE, in France, is bounded on the north by Saintonge, Angoumois, and Limouſin; on the eaſt by Auvergne and Languedoc; on the ſouth by the Pyrenean Mountains, which ſeparate it from Spain; and on the weſt by the ocean. The government of Guienne is the greateſt of all in France, for it contains 13 diſtinct provinces, all under the ſame governor, and which are as follow:

GUIENNE, properly ſo called, is bounded on the north by Saintonge; on the eaſt by Perigord and Agenois; on the ſouth by Bazadois and Gaſcony; and on the weſt by the ocean.

BOURDEAUX, the capital of the whole government of Guienne, and a place of great traffic, being reſorted to by merchants from moſt parts of Europe, is ſituated on the banks of the river Garonne, in a very fruitful and well-manured country. Its haven is very capacious and ſafe; it is called the Port of the Moon, from its form, being like a creſcent, into which the tide flows very high, and brings ſhips of great burthen to the key.

BLAYES on the GIRONDA, is built on a rock; it is divided by a ſmall river into the upper and lower city, in which laſt the merchants live, and have their warehouſes. Here all the ſhips that go to Bourdeaux are obliged to leave their guns, and other arms. This port is very much frequented by foreign ſhips, and by veſſels from Britany, which come here to load wine of the growth of this diſtrict.

LIBOURNE, a ſmall city on the confluence of the rivers Lille and Dordogne, is very well peopled, and drives on a conſiderable trade, the tide bringing up pretty large veſſels. It is five leagues eaſt from Bourdeaux.

II. PERIGORD is bounded on the north by Angoumois; on the weſt by Saintonge and Bourdelois; on the ſouth by Agenois; and on the eaſt by Quercy and Limouſin. It is a mountainous country, in which are ſeveral mines of iron, and mineral ſprings.

BERGERAC, a ſmall city on the Dordogne, drove formerly a great trade, and was very populous. It is now the ſtaple-town between Lyons and Auvergne.

Here are no other towns of any note.

III. QUERCY is bounded on the weſt by Agenois and Perigord; on the north by Limouſin; on the eaſt by Auvergne and Rouvergne; and on the ſouth by Languedoc. This province abounds in corn, wine, and fruit.

CAHORS, the capital of the province, is a large and pretty-well peopled city, and has a conſiderable trade in wine; of which they ſell, one year with another, about 60,000 pipes: they ſend it by the Lot and the Garonne to Bourdeaux, from whence it is tranſported into England and Holland.

IV. ROUVERGNE is bounded on the weſt by part of Quercy, as alſo on the north; on the eaſt by the upper Sevennes and Languedoc; and on the ſouth by Albigeois.

RHODES is ſituated on a hill, ſurrounded with mountains. In the neighbourhood of this city they feed a vaſt number of mules, in which they drive a conſiderable trade: for it is ſaid

that, during the two fairs kept yearly at Rhodes, that trade brings them in about three hundred thouſand crowns. They make alſo here a great number of grey linnen cloths, ſerges, and other ſtuffs, which they ſell in Languedoc, and ſend even into Italy.

VILLE-FRANCHE is a large, well-built and populous town, on the river Aveirou. They have here a pretty good trade of hemp-cloth, which they ſend to Toulouſe and Narbonne.

V. BAZADOIS lies between Guienne Proper on the north and weſt; the Landes, or Sandy Grounds, on the ſouth; and Agenois and Condomois on the eaſt. It is a country very fertile in corn, wine, and fruit.

CASTEL-GELOUX, a ſmall city on the banks of the river Avance, contains about 1200 inhabitants, whoſe trade conſiſts chiefly in wine, honey and cattle.

NERAC, ſituated on the river Baiſe, which begins here to be navigable, ſo that the inhabitants drive a pretty good trade, for which reaſon they are richer than thoſe of the neighbouring cities.

VI. AGENOIS. This province has Condomois on the ſouth; Quercy on the eaſt; Perigord on the north; and Bazadois on the weſt. It is the moſt fruitful country of all Guienne, and furniſhes ſeveral provinces with corn, wine, and oil. The province is ſmall, and has not many towns.

CLERAC, a ſmall city on the river Lot, near the Garonne, is inhabited by rich merchants, who carry on a conſiderable trade in tobacco, wine, and brandy.

VII. CONDOMOIS lies between Armagnac on the ſouth; the Garonne on the eaſt, which parts it from Languedoc; Agenois and Bazadois on the north; and the Landes, or Sandy Grounds, on the weſt. The chief-towns are Condom, Gabaret, and Mont de-Marſan.

VIII. ARMAGNAC is bounded by Languedoc on the eaſt; by Agenois and Condomois on the north; by Gaſcony, properly ſo called, on the weſt; and by Comminges on the ſouth. In this province they make brandy, which they ſend to Bayonne and Bourdeaux: they trade alſo in wool and flax.

There is a mine of chalk in the town of Laverdan; and at Anch and Mauveſin they make about foreſcore or an hundred quintals of ſalt. The country beſides is very fruitful in corn and wine.

IX. COMMINGES is ſituated between Languedoc on the eaſt; Argmagnac on the north; the county of Bigorre on the weſt; and Conſerans on the ſouth. The chief trade of this province conſiſts in cattle and mules; Lower Comminges abounds in wheat and other corn, which they ſend to Toulouſe by the Garonne.

MONTERGEAU, a ſmall city near the Garonne, has a pretty flouriſhing trade.

X. CONSERANS has the county of Foix on the eaſt; Comminges on the north and weſt; and the Pyrenean Mountains on the ſouth. There is but one conſiderable city here, which is St Lizur.

XI. BIGORRE is almoſt intirely in the Pyrenean Mountains, which ſeparate it from Arragon on the ſouth; it is bounded on the eaſt by Conſerans and Comminges; on the north by the mountains of Armagnac; and on the weſt by Bearn. Its mountains are ſaid to have mines of copper, but they are not open.

XII. GASCONY. This duchy is bounded on the eaſt by Armagnac; on the north by Bazadois; on the weſt by part of the ſea of Biſcay; and by Bearn on the ſouth.

DAX, or ACQS, the capital city, drives a good trade by means of the river Adour, which runs by it, and falls into the ocean about nine leagues below it, and its neighbourhood to Spain. It is alſo famous for its baths of hot water.

ST SEVER, on the Adour likewiſe, has a trade in wine, which they ſend to Dax and Bayonne.

XIII. SOULES and LABOURD. The country of Soule is at the foot of the Pyrenean Hills, between Lower Navarre and Bearn. The woods here abound with timber proper for ſhipping.

The country of Labourd is bounded on the north by the river Adour, and the Landes, or Sandy Grounds; on the eaſt by Lower Navarre and Bearn; on the ſouth by the Pyrenean Hills, which ſeparate it from Biſcay, and Spaniſh, or Upper Navarre; and on the weſt by the ocean.

BAYONNE is ſituated near the ſea, on the banks of the river Adour. The trade carried on here is very conſiderable. This city is the only one in France which has the advantage of being ſituated on two rivers, into which the tide flows. The Nive runs through it, the Adour waſhes its walls, and they join their ſtreams a little lower. By means of theſe rivers the merchants here import all ſorts of foreign commodities, which they ſend into Arragon and Upper Navarre on mules, which come to Bayonne loaded with Spaniſh wool, which is afterwards exported into ſeveral countries of Europe. They have alſo a great quantity of maſts from the foreſts on the Pyrenean Hills, which they ſend to Breſt, and the other ports of France, where the king's ſhips are built. They ſend likewiſe a great number of ſhips to the whale and cod-fiſheries. They were the firſt who ſent veſſels, in the year 1605, to the coaſt of Finland and Greenland, to take whales; but, as they were at a great diſtance, the fiſh was corrupted before they could get home, which made them invent the ſecret of melting the fat, and making the oil at ſea.

GUM is a matter that exudes from certain trees and vegetables. They are ſomething between acid and oil, being an acid ſalt ſo fixed in earth, as that the greateſt part of it is changed to an alkali, the other into oil, ſo that the mixture ariſing from thence is an oily ſalt, reſembling the ſaponaceous concretes of the chemiſts, made of oil of olives and a lixivium of tartar, or the mucilaginous bodies formed of ſpirit of wine and the volatile ſpirit of urine. Thus we ſee that all ſeeds which are oily, when ripe, are in the beginning only a mucilage, or imperfect oil. Reſins conſiſt of oil and acid, and accordingly are artificially produced, by mixing ſpirit of vitriol with ſpirit of wine, or of turpentine. They are either ſolid or liquid; but theſe differ from one another only in the proportion of earth that enters their compoſition. Melleous juices, which either exude ſpontaneouſly from plants, ſuch as manna, or are obtained by art, as ſugar, are eſſential ſalts, conſiſting of a mixture of acid and alkali, with a large proportion of oil *.

* This gummous conſiſtency vegetables attract from their roots, and from thence it aſcends to the branches; but ſometimes it happens by the way to break out at the bark, where meeting with the cold air, it ſubſiſts and congeals to a gum. This congelation is not ſudden, but requires ſome ſmall time; for, if you find it, while it is freſh, it is an exceeding ſubtile moiſture, but glutinous, for it will ſpin into ſtrings as ſmall as any hair, and, had it paſſed up to the branches, it had been formed, in time, to a plumb or cherry.

If this then ſhould prove the true foundation of all vegetable philoſophy, there ſeems ſomething deducible from the nature and quality of gums, that has not, perhaps, been commonly obſerved; for, if this viſcous conſiſtency be the mother of all vegetables, ſome ſpecies of gums may be as nutritive to man, and other animals, as the fruits themſelves, which from thence are produced. The nearer, indeed, this gummous matter approximates to become the ſpecificated vegetable, the more it may probably participate of the peculiar virtues of ſuch vegetable. But, for illuſtration of my meaning by examples, ſee my NEW SYSTEM OF EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY, which will not be publiſhed till this work is completely finiſhed.

'In every plant, ſays the learned Boerhaave, is found one proper, or ſpecific juice, formed by the joint force, or reſult, of all the parts of the body, ſucceſſively applied to the crude juice imbibed; and, being thus ultimately prepared, contains the true properties of the plant, and the virtues ariſing from them. This can ſcarce be referred to any claſs of known things, but muſt be conſidered as a thing ſingular, and of its own kind.

If a leaf of the greater celandine be viewed as it grows on a living vigorous plant, the fibres may be ſeen iſſuing from the ſtalk of the leaf, and opening and diſperſing themſelves through the whole extent thereof. Theſe ramifications frequently unite together, and form, as it were, a kind of net-work, wherewith the whole area of the leaf is filled. Upon pricking one of theſe nerves, there immediately iſſues out of the wound plenty of a golden juice, which contains the genuine virtues of the plant celandine: ſo in the common aloes, in the ſpring time, we find a yellow bitter juice, lodged in proper ducts for the purpoſe, and capable of being drawn thence by art: ſo a wounded poppy emits a pure milky opium. But, if theſe juices be mixed with others of the ſame plant, there will ariſe from the mixture ſomething very different from what they are when ſeparate (a).

(a) Vegetable bodies are found more uniform, in reſpect of their elements, than foſſils: in the analyſis, they all afford ſalt, water, earth, and ſulphur; but then the ſalt is of three different ſorts, viz. acid, urinous, and lixiviate. Theſe principles are all more or leſs volatile, as a greater or leſſer fire is uſed, or as the plant has been fermented or not.

Hence appears the vanity of thoſe chemiſts who undertake to exhibit ſuch parts of vegetables ſeparate from the reſt, wherein the whole virtue of each plant is lodged. It is certain they muſt have ſome other means for obtaining this end, very different from any hitherto known, or all their endeavours will little avail, unleſs to deceive themſelves.

With the chemiſts leave, their diſtillation, fermentation, putrefaction, and calcination, make ſuch a change in the peculiar texture of each body, and the medicinal virtues depending thereon, that the utmoſt care muſt be uſed, before the cauſe of their action can be aſſigned.

It does not hence follow that ſo noble a ſcience ſhould be rejected, but rather cultivated with the more zeal, as being the only one that ſhews what may be drawn out of a body by any certain operations, and the only one that detects the failings of its profeſſors; two excellencies which enable it to produce an infinite number of beautiful and uſeful things. A ſpiritus rector, or preſiding ſpirit; a ſovereign oil, the true ſeat of this ſpirit; an acid ſalt, a neutral ſalt, an alcaline ſalt, either fixed or volatile; an oil mixed with ſalt, after the manner of a ſoap, and a ſaponaceous juice hence ariſeing; an oil firmly adhering to the earth, ſo as ſcarcely to be ſeparable therefrom; and, laſtly, earth itſelf, the genuine firm baſis of all the reſt: theſe are the principles, or matters, which a well-conducted chemiſtry has hitherto produced from plants. See the article VEGETATION.

GUM AMMONIAC is ſo called, becauſe it diſtils from a ſort of ferula, or fennil-giant, that grows near the place where the oracle of Jupiter Ammon ſtood heretofore: the beſt is in large

yellowiſh tears, and white within, dry, pure, having a bitter and diſagreeable taſte.

It is given inwardly, in deoppilative electuaries, for ſchirrous tumours of the liver, ſpleen, and meſentery; it is uſed in emollient and attractive plaiſters.

The way to purify it, is to diſſolve it in vinegar, then, paſſing it through a cloth, all the moiſture is evaporated away over the fire; by this means it is cleanſed from ſome ſtraws, or other little impurities that it contained. But ſome parts of its volatile ſpirits are evaporated at the ſame time, and in them conſiſts its greateſt virtue, while ſome others are fixed by the acid, which always hinders the motion of volatiles: wherefore I would never adviſe, ſays Lemery, this purification to be made; only powder it in a mortar, to mix it with what may be thought fit; for, though there ſhould be ſome little ſtraws in it, that would never be able to alter the nature of the remedy, or diminiſh its virtue ſo much as doth the deſtruction of its volatile ſalts by the vinegar.

The ſame thing may be conſidered in the uſe of all other gums; and, if ſome of them, as galbanum and opopanax, are too moiſt to be powdered, you may cut them into little ſlices, and dry them in the ſun.

Diſtillation of gum ammoniac.

This is a ſeparation of the oil and ſpirit of gum ammoniac from its earthy part.

Put a pound of gum ammoniac into an earthen retort, or glaſs one luted, great enough for two-thirds to remain empty; place this retort in a reverberatory furnace, and, fitting to it a receiver, begin the diſtillation with a very little fire, to warm gently the retort, and drive forth, drop by drop, a little phlegmatic water. When the vapours begin to appear, throw out that which is in the receiver, and refitting it, and luting cloſe the joints, increaſe the fire by degrees, and continue it until all is come forth. Then let the veſſels cool, and unlute them; pour out that which is in the receiver into a tunnel lined with brown paper, the ſpirit will paſs through, and leave the thick black oil in the filtre: keep it in a phial. It is good for the palſy and hyſterical diſeaſes: the diſeaſed parts are rubbed with it, and it is given to women to ſmell to.

Put the ſpirit into a glaſs alembic, and rectify it by diſtilling it in ſand. It is a good remedy againſt the plague, and all ſorts of malignant diſeaſes; it is uſed in the ſcurvy, and all manner of obſtructions; the doſe is from 8 to 16 drops, in ſome proper liquor.

The ſpirit of all other gums may be drawn after the ſame manner.

REMARKS.

Two-thirds of the retort muſt remain empty, becauſe the gum rarifies exceedingly as it heats, and would be apt to come forth in ſubſtance, if it had not room enough. There is no need of adding alkali's for the rectification of this ſpirit, as many authors would perſuade us; this circumſtance doth rather more hurt than good, becauſe alkali's ſpoil thoſe ſorts of ſpirits.

The phlegm is taken out of the receiver before the ſpirits come forth; in order to their being purer, you will have ſix drachms of phlegm, three ounces and ſeven drachms of ſpirit, ſix ounces of a black and ſtinking oil, and there remain in the retort four ounces and ſix drachms of a black, light, and very ſpongious matter, which is to be flung away, according to the common practice: it is likewiſe a little inflammable, by reaſon of fuliginoſities which have fallen upon it; and this is that which gave it the black colour; a great deal of the aſhes of this matter is requiſite to make a little ſalt, for, the ſalt of gums being commonly more volatile than fixed, it comes forth almoſt all of it in ſpirit.

The ſpirit of gum ammoniacum is nothing elſe but an eſſential or volatile ſalt, reſolved and raiſed by fire, with ſome portion of phlegm; it is ſomewhat harſh to taſte, and a little biting; it cauſes no ſenſible ebullition with oil of tartar, nor with the ſpirit of vitriol, but it renders the tincture of turnſole reddiſh, and thickens the diſſolution of corroſive ſublimate; which ſhews that it contains an acid and an alkali ſo weak, that they want force to deſtroy each other.

GUM DRAGON. 'Gum dragon, Mr More, in his Travels into the inland parts of Africa, comes out of a tree called pau de ſangue, which has a very rough bark; upon wounding of it, it ſweats out in drops like blood, which joining together, and being dried by the ſun, congeals into lumps: there are ſome as large as pullet's eggs. One Junco Sunco, a jolloiff of Yanimarew, up the river Gambia in Africa, a ſtirring man, having heard that I enquired much after gum, ſent me down a ſample of about a pound of very fine white gum, which proved to be gum arabic: I believe in all I ſent, at different times, about a tun of gum, from the factories I was at, to James Fort. I began now to hope that the gum-trade might be enlarged and made conſiderable, ſince Job's country, which is called Foota, lay on the edge of the foreſt, and was but four days journey from Fatatenda, and, by his bringing that people into a good opinion of the Engliſh, they might be prevailed upon to trade with us, and bring quantities of that commodity to Fatatenda, from whence it might be carried by water, with ſmall charge, to the fort. And this might not be only the making of the factors employed in it, but alſo of great ſervice to the royal African company, and to the nation itſelf; ſince there is a great deal of gum Senegal imported in a year to England, and almoſt all of it bought of the French, who make a very profitable trade of it, as appears by father Labat's New Account of Africa, printed in 1728, wherein he ſays,

'That country, quite bad as it is, and thoſe roads ſo dangerous for ſhipping, are nevertheleſs eagerly ſearched out by the French, Engliſh, Dutch, and Portugueze; they all ſtrive to ſettle there, becauſe they are the only places where a trade for gum can be had by thoſe who are not maſters of the Senegal river: a trade which ſeems a light matter in itſelf, but is, in effect, very conſiderable, whether we regard the price the Moors ſell the gum for, which is very moderate, or the price it yields, out of Africa, which is very advantageous; or, laſtly, the quantity of European merchandizes it takes off ready wrought, the vent of which makes manufactures ſpread, money circulate, and ſo finds work for abundance of hands, which is the main end of commerce.

No wonder, therefore, that the moſt experienced of European merchants have uſed all endeavours to hit into this branch of traffic, becauſe, the French being ſole maſters of the Niger*, on which thoſe other parts where a trade for gum may be had are ſituated, they find themſelves obliged to take it as it paſſes through their hands, ſince the time there has been no free trade at Arguin or Portendie. This is the true motive that has put them on ſo great expence to ſettle and ſecure a factory at Arguin, and, when they were driven from thence, to endeavour an eſtabliſhment among the Moors at Portendie. This was, in effect, their only way to come in for ſharers with the French in this commerce; in purſuit of which, they found means at length to engroſs it wholly to themſelves, by raiſing the gum to an exceſſive rate, and makeing bargains to their loſs, in order to engage the three nations of the Moors to bring their intire harveſt to their market.

* Senegal.

They make two yearly gatherings of the gum: the firſt in the month of December, which is the moſt plentiful, and they pretend the balls are larger, cleaner, and drier, which are all the good qualities to be wiſhed in gum. The ſecond gathering is in March: this is the leaſt, and they are convinced by long experience, that the gum of this gathering is more ſqueazy, droſſy, and not ſo clear.

They do not weigh the gum, but put it in a cubic meaſure, called a quantar, or quintal, of a ſize agreed upon with the Moors, the capacity of which the Europeans take care to augment, when occaſion offers.

That which the Dutch made uſe of, when they were maſters of Arguin, held 220 pounds Paris weight.

It coſt them a ſingle piece of eight, worth three livres each;
Or a dozen of padlocks;
Or two ounces of coral;
Or four ſatalas, or copper baſons;
Or half an ell of fine woollen cloth;
Or three quarters of an ell of ordinary cloth;
Or three bars of flat iron;
Or three ells of bays;
Or ſix ells and three quarters of baſtas linen, i. e. blue cutlin.
Or ſix ells of Sileſia's.

Note, The ells are Dutch meaſure, which is about half an ell French.'

Thus far Labat.

REMARKS.

Thus ſtood this article before the laſt war. But ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, SENEGAL and its DEPENDENCIES are ceded to Great Britain by the tenth article thereof, which ſays, "his Britannic Majeſty ſhall reſtore to France "the Iſland of Goree, in the condition it was in when con- "quered: and his Moſt Chriſtian Majeſty cedes in full "right, and guaranties to the king of Great Britain, the "RIVER SENEGAL, with the forts and factories of St "Lewis, Podor and Galam; and with all the rights and "dependencies of the ſaid River Senegal."—Thus Great Britain is become poſſeſſor of the gum-trade of this coaſt, by virtue of the ſaid article in the treaty of 1763.

GUM ARABIC is a dry and ſolid gum, brought in granules of various ſizes. Theſe granules being broke into ſeveral pieces, their ſurface is rough, their colour, when pureſt, perfectly limpid. Sometimes this gum is whitiſh, yellowiſh, or browniſh, though the darker pieces are ſuſpected of adulteration, the druggiſts too often mixing various gums together by art.

When this gum is pureſt, it is extremely pellucid, in the coarſeſt it is much ſo; it is hard to break, but not tough, and, when broke, reſembles the ſurface of broken cryſtal. It has ſcarce either ſmell or taſte; diſſolved in water, it becomes thick and viſcid.

It is brought from Arabia and Africa. It ſhould be choſen pale-coloured, hard and dry, and free from all admixtures of foulneſs.

foulneſs. There is ſome of a brown-reddiſh kind, found in large maſſes; which may be uſed by divers artificers, but not medicinally, as the other may.

The tree which produces this gum is large and ſpreading. Its trunk grows to a foot, or more, in diameter: it is armed on the branches with large and ſharp thorns. The leaves are pinnated, and about two inches long; the flowers yellow, of the ſhape of the pea-bloſſom, and ſtand in cluſters. The fruit is a pod, in ſhape of a lupine, four or five inches long: it contains ſix, eight, or more ſeeds, and ſwells to a conſiderable breadth where lodged, but is ſo narrow in the intermediate ſpaces, that the ſeeds look only threaded, as it were.

The Egyptians bruiſe the pods and ſeeds of this tree, while yet young, and expreſs from them a juice, which, when properly inſpiſſated, is the acacia of the ſhops. [See ACACIA.]

The bark of the trunk and large branches of the tree naturally crack in ſeveral places; from whence iſſues a thick liquor, as from our plumb and cherry-trees; which hardens in the air, and becomes what is called gum Arabic.

A pound of this gum, chemically analyſed, yields firſt about two ounces of an inſipid phlegm, about five ounces of a red acid liquor, after this about an ounce of an urinous alkaline liquor, and laſtly about three quarters of an ounce of oil, partly fluid, and partly as thick as butter. The reſidue in the retort is a black coal, weighing nearly four ounces. This calcined in an open fire, and lixiviated, yields near two drachms of a fixed alkaline ſalt.

This being ſimply a gum, and having nothing of the reſinous quality, is perfectly ſoluble in water, not in oil or ſpirit of wine. In the fire it does not flame at all, but burns to a black coal.

It is emollient and diuretic, and uſed in divers compoſitions for diſeaſes of the thorax, it ſheathing the ſharp part of the ſerum in the bronchia, by its mucilaginous parts; and, by the ſame means becomes uſeful in diſeaſes of the kidnies, uterus, and bladder. For which reaſon it is given in a dyſentery, ſtrangury, heat of urine, &c. Theſe are the principal gums.

GUM SENEGAL. It is ſo denominated from the river Senegal in Africa, belonging to the French, the foreſts bordering upon that river abounding with this gum. It greatly reſembles the gum Arabic, but the granules thereof are uſually larger than thoſe of the Arabic gum. They are commonly of an oval form; the ſurface is very rough, and does not appear near ſo bright as the inner ſubſtance, where broken. It is very hard, but not rough, conſiderably heavy, and of an extremely fine and even texture. When broke, it is moſt frequently of a pale brown colour, but, like the gum Arabic, it is ſometimes yellowiſh, reddiſh, or whitiſh. It is ſometimes artfully blended with the gum Arabic by ſome dealers: the fraud, however, is of no great conſequence, both being pretty much of the ſame nature and virtues; though that of Senegal is rarely uſed in medicine, unleſs as mixed with the Arabic: the dyers and other artificers conſume the greateſt quantities of it.

REMARKS.

The French find the gum Senegal ſo uſeful in their ſilk and linnen manufactures, that they occaſionally prohibit its exportation. [See FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE and COMPANY.] The gum trade upon the coaſt of Africa being one of the moſt beneficial branches there, the French have engroſſed the whole to themſelves, and excluded us from all the trade therein, to which we had a right, from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, extending along the ſhore about 400 miles; but they carry on a conſiderable trade in the river Gambia itſelf, within ſight of the Britiſh forts there; and alſo on the Gold Coaſt, where, heretofore, they were never permitted, or ever preſumed to purchaſe a negro, they have of late years come in great numbers, and traded to Anamaboe, within ſight of Cape Coaſt Caſtle, the principal Britiſh fort on that coaſt, and have carried off yearly, from thence, ten times more of the beſt negroes, to their ſugar colonies in America, than have gone to the Britiſh ſugar iſlands. See FRENCH AMERICA, FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE, GUINEA; ſee alſo our new map of Africa, of the GUM COAST, the GRAIN COAST, the IVORY COAST, and the GOLD COAST, together with an account of all the forts and ſettlements belonging to the ſeveral European powers intereſted in this commerce. See alſo the articles AFRICA, and ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, under all which particular heads, the whole of this trade is repreſented in various lights, both national and mercantile.

GUNPOWDER.

Of what it conſiſts, and how made.

It is a compoſition of ſaltpetre, ſulphur, and coal made with willow, or any other light wood, which, by means of vinegar and a ſieve, is made into greater or leſſer corns. It is made in many parts of the world, but moſt plentifully in France and England.

To make it, you muſt chuſe good and pure nitre, in large cryſtals. Set on a moderate furnace fire in a kettle, gradually increaſing the heat till the moiſture be evaporated, and it grow very white, ſtirring it continually with a wooden or iron ladle; then cover the nitre with water, and, when diſſolved and of a thick conſiſtence, keep conſtantly ſtirring, till all the moiſture be again evaporated, and it be reduced to a dry white meal. The ſulphur muſt be the pureſt and beſt, in very large lumps, perfectly yellow, porous, and not too ſhining. If, when ſet on the fire, it freely burns all away, it is good. As alſo if preſſed between two iron plates hot enough to make it run, if in running it be yellow, and the remainder reddiſh, it is excellent for the purpoſe; but, if foul, the powder-makers prepare it thus: melt the ſulphur in an iron veſſel over a gentle fire, well kindled, but not flaming; ſcum off what riſes on the top, then ſtrain leiſurely through a double linnen cloth. Powder this finely.

The charcoal muſt be large, clear, free from knots, well burnt, and cleaving; but if not to be had, you muſt make it thus: cut down hazel, aſh, or juniper, &c. in May or June, when it is apt to peel, cut into lengths of two or three feet long, taking off the rind and ſuperfluous branches. When dry, make them into bundles, which being ſet upright and piled, cover very cloſe with earth or turf, leaving only a few vent-holes; when it is well kindled and in a red burning heat, ſtop the vent-holes cloſe with moiſtened earth. The fire being thus extinguiſhed, the coals will be pure and whole, without aſhes, and may in 24 hours be taken out for uſe, reducing it to a fine powder.

Of theſe ingredients the country people in Poland, and the coſſacks, make it with their own hands thus: they put their proportions of nitre, ſulphur, and charcoal (all in fine powder) into an earthen pot, pouring fair water on it, then boiling till all is evaporated, and the matter be thick like paſte, which they dry in the ſun or a ſtove, till it is fit to corn; then they granulate it by paſſing through a hair ſieve.

But, in order to know and make it truly, it is fit to know the kinds of it, and their different ſtrength. The kinds are threefold, I. Cannon, II. Muſket, and III. Piſtol-powder; and of each of theſe are two ſeveral kinds, viz. a ſtronger and weaker, according to the proportions of the three ingredients.

	Cannon.	Muſket.	Piſtol.	
Nitre	10 0	10 0	10 0	Strong
Sulphur	2 5	1 8	1 2	
Coal	2 5	2 0	1 5	
Nitre	10 0	10 0	10 0	Weak.
Sulphur	2 0	1 5	1 0	
Coal	2 4	1 8	1 8	

The preparations declared, I. Cannon-powder; 1. The ſtronger; to every 100lb. nitre, there is ſulphur 25lb. charcoal 25lb. 2. The weaker; to every 100lb. of ſalt-petre, ſulphur 20lb. charcoal 24lb. and ſo of the other ſorts.

The way of making it.

The ingredients, all finely powdered, are to be moiſtened with water, vinegar, or urine, which is moſt uſual; then well beat together, 24 hours at leaſt, and afterwards granulated through a ſieve, with a bottom of thick parchment full of round holes, but the paſte muſt firſt be moiſtened with the following liquor, viz. brandy 10 lib. camphire 1 ounce, mix and diſſolve; the maſs being made into balls as big as eggs, put them into the ſieve, with a wooden ball, to break and paſs them through the holes.

But, as making vaſt quantities by hand would be tedious work, mills have been deviſed, which do more in one day than a man can in a hundred.

In making piſtol-powder, if deſired ſtronger, it muſt be ſtirred up ſeveral times while in the mortar, and moiſtened with water diſtilled from orange or lemon-peels in an alembic, and then beat 24 hours as aforeſaid.

Powder, when corned, is of much greater force than when in duſt; hence it is concluded, the larger grains are ſtronger than the ſmaller; for which reaſon, cannon-powder is granulated larger than muſket, and that than piſtol; and powder in charging ſhould not be forced ſo hard in, as to bruiſe the grains.

To know the goodneſs of gun-powder, it is tried three ways. Firſt, by ſight. If too black, it is too moiſt, or has too much charcoal in it; if it be of a duſky azure, inclining to red, it is a ſign of good powder.

Secondly, by touching; if the grains break eaſily, without feeling hard, it has too much coal in it. If, preſſing on a ſmooth hard board, ſome grains feel harder than others, the ſulphur is not well mixed, and the powder naught.

Thirdly, by burning; lay little heaps of powder, three or four inches aſunder, on white paper, and fire one of them; if it only fires and burns all away ſuddenly, without firing the others, and makes a ſmall thundering noiſe, with a clear circling ſmoke, it is good: but, if it leave black marks, it

has too much coal, or is not well burnt. If it leave a greaſineſs, the ſulphur or nitre are not well cleanſed. And, if two or three corns be laid upon paper an inch aſunder, and, one of them being fired, they all fire at once, leaving only a white ſmoaky colour in the place, and the paper not touched, the powder is good; as alſo, if fired in your hand, it burns it not; but, if black knots remain, it is not ſtrong enough, but wants nitre.

Of the exportation thereof.

*Being permitted to be exported, only when the price does not exceed five pounds the barrel; and, if exported as merchandize, being intitled to a bounty, oath muſt be made on the bill of entry, as follows:

* 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 12.

19th of March, 1730.——No. 45.

In the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers, maſter, for Guernſey.

Henry Hubbard.

Fifty barrels, containing five hundred weight, an half, and ſixteen pounds of gun-powder, under five pounds the barrel.

Henry Hubbard maketh oath, That the true value and price of gun-powder, at this time, do not exceed five pounds the barrel; * and that the gun-powder above mentioned is all of Britiſh manufacture, and is intended to be exported to Guernſey as merchandize, and not for the uſe of the ſhip in her voyage.

Henry Hubbard.

Jurat 19 die Martii 1730, coram me,
A. B. Collector.

* The part after this mark muſt be omitted, when the bounty is not intended to be obtained.

*And, moreover, ſecurity muſt be taken at the time of entry, in the penalty of five pounds each barrel, containing one hundred pounds net weight for the due exportation thereof, in form following:

* 4 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1.

A bond for the exportation of Britiſh-made gunpowder.

Noverint univerſi, &c.

Whereas by act of parliament made in the fourth vear of the reign of his preſent majeſty king George the IId. intitled, An act for granting an allowance upon the exportation of Britiſh-made gunpowder, it is enacted, that there ſhall be paid to every perſon or perſons, who at any time or times, within or during the term of five years, to be reckoned from the twenty-fourth day of June, one thouſand ſeven hundred and thirty-one, or at any time or times before the end of the then next ſeſſions of parliament, ſhall really and truly export out of this kingdom, as merchandize, any quantities of gunpowder of the manufacture of Great-Britain, an allowance of the ſum of four ſhillings and ſixpence for every barrel of ſuch gun-powder, containing one hundred pounds net weight, and ſo in proportion for greater or leſſer quantities; which allowance ſhall be paid and anſwered by the cuſtomer or collector of the cuſtoms, with the privity of the comptroller of the port from whence the ſame ſhall be exported, on a debenture to be made forth by the cuſtomer or collector, according to the entry of ſuch gunpowder, without fee or reward, and the ſhipping thereof verified by the ſearcher on oath; or, being of the people called Quakers, ſolemn affirmation, made by the exporter on the entry or debenture, before the cuſtomer or collector, or comptroller of ſuch port, that the gunpowder is of Britiſh manufacture; and is exported, or intended to be exported, to parts beyond the ſeas, by way of merchandize, and not for the uſe of the ſhip in her voyage, and not relanded, or intended to be relanded, in any part of Great-Britain, the exporter firſt giving ſecurity to the ſaid cuſtomer or collector of the port, in a penalty of five pounds for each barrel, containing one hundred pounds net weight (which ſecurity they are thereby impowered to take in the name, and to the uſe of his majeſty, his heirs and ſucceſſors) that the gunpowder ſo ſhipped, or intended to be ſhipped, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded or brought on ſhore again into any port or part of Great-Britain: and ſuch ſecurities ſhall be diſcharged in the manner therein and herein after mentioned, (that is to ſay) for ſo much of the ſaid gunpowder as ſhall be entered for, or landed in the kingdom of Ireland, the iſlands of Guernſey and Jerſey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or any of his majeſty's colonies or plantations abroad. The condition of the bond ſhall be, to bring certificates in diſcharge thereof from each place reſpectively, importing, that ſuch gunpowder was there landed, and teſtifying the landing thereof, which certificates ſhall be ſigned by the proper officer or officers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, as reſpectively reſide there; and for want of ſuch officers reſiding there, then by the governor of thoſe iſlands and colonies, or plantations, or the deputy-governor thereof reſpectively, who are thereby required to give the ſame without fee or reward. And, for ſuch gun-powder as ſhall be ſo entered for any foreign port or place, to bring a certificate under the hand of any of his majeſty's conſuls reſiding in ſuch port or place, or under the hands of two known Britiſh merchants, then being at ſuch port or place, that ſuch gunpowder was there landed. Or ſuch bond or bonds ſhall be diſcharged, upon proof in either of the ſaid caſes, that the ſame was taken by enemies, or periſhed in the ſeas; the examination and proof thereof being left to the judgment of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England or Scotland reſpectively, for the time being. And it is further enacted by the ſaid act, that whereas gunpowder, exported for Africa, is ſold and delivered in very ſmall parcels, and at places along the coaſt, where no certificates can be had; in every ſuch caſe, upon proof made upon oath, or, being of the people called Quakers, upon ſolemn affirmation, of the maſter, mate, purſer, or other perſon having charge of the ſhip during the voyage, importing that ſuch gunpowder was ſold and delivered upon the coaſt of Africa: and alſo of the oath, or ſolemn affirmation, as aforeſaid, of the merchant exporter, if living, that, to the beſt of his knowledge and belief, the ſaid goods have been diſpoſed of at the places to be mentioned in the reſpective oaths, affidavits, or affirmations of the maſter, mate, purſer, or other perſon, having the charge of the ſhip, during the voyage, and that they have not been relanded or brought on ſhore again in any port or part of Great-Britain: the ſame ſhall be taken in lieu of the certificates aforeſaid, and be allowed of in full diſcharge of the bonds to be given in purſuance of this act. Any thing in the ſaid Act contained, to the contrary thereof, in any wiſe notwithſtanding.

And whereas the above-bound Henry Hubbard did, on the 19th day of March 1730, enter for exportation on board the Swallow of Southampton, Benjamin Rogers maſter, bound for Guernſey, fifty barrels, containing forty-four hundred, and half, and ſixteen pounds weight of gunpowder as merchandize, and not for the uſe of the ſhip in her voyage. Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, that if the above-mentioned forty-four hundred, and half, and ſixteen pounds weight of gunpowder, and every part thereof, ſhall be exported into parts beyond the ſeas (the danger of the ſeas excepted) and that the ſaid gunpowder, or any part thereof, ſhall not be relanded, or brought on ſhore again into any port or part of Great-Britain; and that, if the above-bound Henry Hubbard and George Crowther ſhall bring and produce, or cauſe to be brought and produced, a certificate in diſcharge thereof, importing, that the above-mentioned gunpowder was there landed, and teſtifying the landing thereof, or make proof by oath or affirmation, as in and by the ſaid act of parliament, in the reſpective caſes, is directed and required; or if the ſaid gunpowder ſhall be taken by enemies, or periſh in the ſeas, and the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms ſhall be ſatisfied of the proof thereof, then this obligation to be void and of none effect, or elſe to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Sealed and delivered in
the preſence of
A. B. Collector.
B. C. Comptroller.

Henry Hubbard*.
Geo. Crowther*.

Some other principal laws relating thereto.

No perſon is to keep more than ſix hundred pounds of powder at a time in a ſtorehouſe, &c. in the cities of London and Weſtminſter, or the ſuburbs, within three miles of the Tower, St James's palace, &c. or two miles of any magazine. Perſons dealing in gunpowder, having greater quantities, forfeit 20s. for every hundred weight; and, refuſing to be examined, ſhall be committed to the county goal. 5 Geo. I. c. 26.

Storehouſes may be ſearched by warrant in the day-time; perſons oppoſing to forfeit 5 l. to any who will ſue within ſix months.

No more than twenty hundred weight of gunpowder to be carried at a time through London or Weſtminſter, &c. and ſhall be in covered carriages, and the barrels cloſe jointed and hooped, and put in leather or canvas bags, that it may not affect any of his majeſty's magazines, &c. Stat. 5 Geo. I. c. 26.

By ſtat. 11 Geo. I. it is enacted, that it ſhall not be lawful to keep within London or Weſtminſter, &c. more than 200 lb. weight at one time in any houſe, or other place under the ſame roof, or in any yard, above 24 hours, on forfeiture of all the gunpowder, and the value.

Any perſon uſing any iron hammer, ſhod or plated with iron or ſteel, in ſuch place, while gunpowder is there, on conviction in one month, forfeits 20s. to the informer, or be ſent to the houſe of correction, &c.

Not to extend to the magazines of the crown, or to hinder the king's officers proving gunpowder as uſual, or carrying it to and from ſuch magazines, &c.

The act 5 Geo. I. c. 26. and all clauſes therein not hereby altered, to be in full force, and both theſe acts to be deemed public acts.

By 22 Geo. II. after the 24th of June 1749, no perſon ſhall keep gunpowder more than 24 hours at one time, in greater quantity than four hundred weight in any city, &c. or within one hundred yards of the king's palaces, or one mile of the king's magazines; nor ſhall keep, above 24 hours at any time, more than 30 hundred weight, in any place whatſoever in England, except as hereafter.

That, after the 24th of June 1749, places wherein gunpowder is kept by perſons making or trading in it, may be ſearched by warrant, and if more than four hundred weight be found in any houſe, &c. city or ſuburbs, or within 100 yards of any market-town, or two miles of the king's palaces, or one mile of the magazines, or more than 30 hundred weight in any other place (except as is excepted) to be forfeited, to any who ſhall ſue within three months for it, or the value, with coſts; perſons detaining the ſame, on ſeizure, till determined if forfeited, ſhall not be liable to any action, other than for damage received during the time detained.

After the 24th of June 1749, none ſhall convey, in any carriage within England, more than 25 hundred weight, nor in any open barge or veſſel, within one mile from any city, or market-town, above 50 hundred weight; and all land conveyance ſhall be in covered carriages, and the barrels cloſe joined and ſecured; perſons offending forfeit their gunpowder to the informer.

After the 24th of June 1749, perſons employed in any ſtore-houſe, or in conveying powder, wilfully committing any act that may endanger its taking fire, on conviction ſhall pay to the informer 5s. for every hundred weight, or be impriſoned for ſix months. This act not to extend to the king's ſtorehouſes, &c. or to any mills, or the magazines now erected at Barking-creek's mouth in Eſſex, and Erith-level in Kent, or to the magazines near Liverpool.

Juſtices in every county may at their ſeſſions appoint convenient ground at two miles from any city or market-town, not above two acres in one place, with uſe of roads, to erect warehouſes for keeping gunpowder in any quantity.

No forfeiture on account of gunpowder kept in greater quantities than 30 hundred weight, within any warehouſe already built, unleſs adjudged dangerous by the juſtices at their ſeſſions, and until ſix months after ſuch adjudication, and provided ſuch warehouſe be not in any city or ſuburbs, or in, or within 100 yards of any market-town, or two miles of the king's palaces, or one mile of any magazine.

All ſuits to be tried in the court or place where the fact was committed, and within ſix months after the fact.

Nothing in this act to repeal any of the clauſes in 5 Geo. I. for preventing miſchiefs by gunpowder, or in 11 Geo. I. for making that act more effectual.

Of the PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE, continued from the end of letter F.

A brief abſtract of the chief general laws relative to the IMPORTATION OF GOODS from foreign parts, or

GOODS INWARDS.

GOODS INWARDS—brought from beyond the ſeas may not be taken up, or laid on land, out of any veſſel, lighter, or boat, being not in a leak or wreck (except fiſh taken by Britiſh beſtials, and ſalt) but at lawful hours, and only upon ſuch open places, keys, or wharfs, as ſhall be appointed by his majeſty's commiſſion out of the court of exchequer, without ſpecial ſufferance and leave from the officer of the cuſtoms, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and 100 l. by the maſter: offenders not revealing their offence within one month, are to forfeit 100 l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3, 7. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7, 14.

IMPORTED INTO THE PORT OF LONDON, may be unladen, or landed at any of the lawful keys between the Tower of London and London-bridge, and between ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the 10th day of September to the 10th day of March, and between the hours of ſix of the clock in the morning and ſix in the evening, from the 10th day of March to the 10th day of September, giving notice to the proper officers: officers refuſing to be preſent, to forfeit for every default 5 l. See RULES of the CUSTOMS, the latter end of letter A.

IMPORTED INTO OTHER PORTS, may not be taken up, diſcharged, and laid on land, out of any ſhip, lighter, &c. being not in a leak or wreck, except fiſh taken by Britiſh, and ſalt, but only in the day-light; that is, from the 1ſt of March to the 30th of September, betwixt ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, and from the 30th of September to the 1ſt of March, between the hours of ſeven in the morning and four in the afternoon. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2.

WHARFINGERS, or their ſervants, landing, or knowingly ſuffering to be landed, any goods or merchandizes, prohibited or uncuſtomed, without the preſence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours (except in the port of Hull) are to forfeit 100l. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCTION, OR MANUFACTURE OF MUSCOVY, OR RUSSIA, or of any of the dominions of the emperor thereof, all maſts, timber, boards, ſalt, pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, flax, raiſins, figs, prunes, olive oil, corn or grain, ſugar, pot-aſhes, wine vinegar, aqua vitæ or brandy, muſt be imported only in ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, or Ireland; and currants, and all goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of Turkey, in ſhips Britiſh-built; except ſuch ſhips as are of the built of the country whereof the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or of ſuch port where the ſaid goods can only, or moſt uſually are firſt ſhipped for tranſportation; on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 8.

But during the late war with France, this is not to extend to prevent any perſon importing the ſaid goods, in ſhipping built in Great Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, Jerſey, or any of the lands, iſlands, dominions, or territories belonging to his majeſty in Aſia, Africa, or America, provided the maſter and three fourths of the mariners are Britiſh, or of the country of which the ſaid goods are the growth, production, or manufacture: but if ſuch ſhips are the property of foreigners, although Britiſh-built, the goods are to pay aliens, and all other duties, in the ſame manner as if they were foreign built. 29 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 19, 20.

OF THE GROWTH, PRODUCTION, MANUFACTURE OF ASIA, AFRICA, OR AMERICA, may be imported only in Britiſh ſhips legally manned, or in ſhips belonging to his majeſty's plantations there, on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 3.

OF FOREIGN GROWTH, PRODUCTION, OR MANUFACTURE (that is, OF ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA ONLY, and not of Europe) may be ſhipped, and brought from no other country but that of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from ſuch ports where thoſe goods can only, or have moſt uſually been firſt ſhipped for tranſportation; and in Britiſh ſhips, or plantation ſhipping legally navigated; on forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 4.

But not to extend to goods of the STREIGHTS AND LEVANT SEAS, and EAST-INDIA GOODS, which may be brought from the uſual places of lading, in Britiſh ſhips duly manned, though thoſe places be not the very places of their growth, &c. but this exemption is repealed as to raw ſilk and mohair yarn of the product or manufacture of Aſia, which can be imported from no parts or places in the Streights or Levant Seas, but ſuch as are within the dominion of the Grand Seignor. 22 Car. II. c. 18. §. 12, 13. and 6 Geo. I. c. 14. §. 1.

Nor to goods of PERSIA brought through RUSSIA by perſons free of the RUSSIA COMPANY. 14 Geo. II. c. 36. §. 1.

Nor to GUM SENEGA imported from any place in Europe by Britiſh, in Britiſh-built ſhips legally navigated. 25 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

Nor to goods of the growth, &c. of the SPANISH OR PORTUGUESE PLANTATIONS; which may be brought by any perſon from Spain, Portugal, or Weſtern Iſlands, commonly called Azores or Madeira, or Canary Iſlands, reſpectively, in Britiſh ſhips. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 14. and 17 Geo. II. c. 36. §. 4.

Nor to BULLION, nor to goods taken as prize by any ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, &c. 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 15.

Nor to COCHINEAL, nor INDICO.

Nor to SPICE by licence, &c.

Of the PRODUCT AND MANUFACTURE OF JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, AND SARK, may, upon certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief, and oath before the magiſtrates of Jerſey and Guernſey, that they are of the growth, &c. of the ſaid iſlands, be imported into Great-Britain, duty-free, except

cept ſuch exciſe, or other duty, as is now, or ſhall hereafter for the time being be, due and payable for the like goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great-Britain. 3 Geo. I. c. 4. §. 5.

But goods of the product of any FOREIGN COUNTRY imported into thoſe iſlands, or foreign goods in part or fully manufactured there, are, upon importation into Great Britain, liable to the ſame duties as if imported directly from the place of that product. 3 Geo. II. c. 4. §. 7.

BULK MAY BE BROKEN in any lawful port, and cuſtom paid for no more goods than are entered and landed.

SMALL PARCELS OF FINE GOODS, OR OTHER GOODS found in cabbins, cheſts, trunks, or other ſmall package, or in any private place; and all other ſorts of goods, for which duties are not paid or ſecured within 20 days after the ſhips entry, may be brought on ſhore by the officers of the cuſtoms, and ſecured in his majeſty's ſtore-houſes till the duties be ſatisfied, unleſs the ſaid officers have a juſt cauſe to allow a longer time. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

The OFFICERS MAY STAY and remain on board till all the goods are delivered and diſcharged out of the ſaid ſhips. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

PERMITTED TO BE TAKEN up by bills at ſight or view, muſt be landed at the moſt convenient keys, and there, or in his majeſty's ſtore-houſe of the port, be meaſured, weighed, and numbered by the officers, who are to perfect the entry, and return the ſame under their hands, the next day, to the collector, &c. upon forfeiture of 100 l. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 21.

NOT REPORTED and found on board any ſhip without payment of duty, after clearing the ſhip by the proper officers, and diſcharging the tideſmen or watchmen from their attendance, are forfeited; and if ſuch goods have been concealed, the maſter, purſer, or other perſon taking charge of the ſhip, forfeits 100 l. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 5. and 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 14. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

NO PERSON, DENIZEN OR STRANGER, may enter any goods, inwards or outwards, in the name of any other perſon than the very owner, being not ſold, bargained or contracted for, to or with any perſon, before entry, or before the arrival of the goods in parts beyond the ſeas, upon forfeiture thereof, or their value; and offender to ſuffer impriſonment, and make fine thereof at the king's pleaſure. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. §. 1. and 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 6.

ONE BRITISH MAN may cuſtom in his own name the goods of another Britiſh man, and ſo may one merchant-ſtranger enter the goods of another merchant-ſtranger; but he that ſo enters the goods of other perſons, either inwards or outwards, that the king loſeth his duty, forfeits the goods to the king, and the value thereof to the party grieved; and likewiſe all his own goods and chattels perſonal for ever: the proſecution to be in three years after offence committed. 1 Hen. VIII. c. 5. §. 3, 4, 5. and 2 and 3 Edw. VI. c. 22. §. 4, 5. and 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 6.

IMPORTED, NOT RATED IN THE FIRST COLUMN OF THE BOOK OF RATES. The ſeveral proviſions and clauſes for aſcertaining their values according to the oaths or affirmations of the importers, are repealed after the 25th of March 1725, in regard to ſuch goods as are expreſſed and rated in the Additional Book of Rates. 11 Geo. I. c. 7. §. 1.

NOT ANY WHERE PARTICULARLY RATED and valued upon oath of the importer; for the regulations thereon, vide the 4th Rule of Additional Book of Rates.

LIABLE TO DUTIES—imported into any port, place, or creek of this realm, by way of merchandize; unſhipped, to be laid on land before the ſaid duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered to the collector thereof, or his deputy, with the conſent and agreement of the comptroller and ſurveyor there, or one of them at the leaſt, or agreed for in the cuſtom-houſe, are forfeited, 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 4. and 18 Car. II. c. 5. §. 7. and 1 Jac. II. c. 3. §. 5. and — c. 4. §. 1. and 2 W. and M. c. 4. §. 56. and 4 and 5 W. and M. c. 5. §. 4. and 5 and 6 W. and M. c. 7. §. 7. and 6 and 7 Will. III. c. 7. §. 4. and 7 and 8 Will. III. c. 10. §. 3. and 7 and 8 W. III. c. 20. §. 7. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 13. §. 8. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 23. §. 7. and 9 and 10 W. III. c. 45. §. 9. and 11 and 12 W. III. c. 3. §. 3. and 2 and 3 Anne, c. 9. §. 2. and 3 and 4 Anne, c. 5. §. 2. and 3 and 4 Anne, c. 4. §. 7. and 8 Anne, c. 7. §. 27. and 8 —— c. 9. §. 2. and 9 —— c. 6. §. 12. and 9 —— c. 11. §. 5. and 9 —— c. 12. §. 2. and 10 —— c. 19. §. 2, 3. and 10 —— c. 26. §. 4, 8, 47. and 12 —— c. 9. §. 14. and 12 —— c. 16. §. 1. and 6 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 5. and 8 Geo. I. c. 20. §. 47. and 19 Geo. II. c. 12. §. 7.

PORTERS, CARMEN, WATERMEN OR OTHERS, aſſiſting in the landing of goods without a warrant and an officer, may be apprehended by a warrant from a juſtice of the peace; and being convicted by the oath of two witneſſes, may, for the firſt offence, be committed to gaol, till they find ſurety for their good behaviour; and for the ſecond offence, to lie in priſon two months without bail, or till they be diſcharged by the court of Exchequer, &c. or pay 5 l. to the ſheriff. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

NOT ONLY GOODS LIABLE TO DUTIES, unſhipped, with intent to be laid on land before the ſaid duties are paid or ſecured, or prohibited goods imported, are forfeited; but likewiſe the boats, hoys, veſſels, horſes and carriages employed in removing them; and the perſons aſſiſting, or otherwiſe concerned in the unſhipping of the ſaid goods, or to whoſe hands they ſhall knowingly come, forfeit treble the value of the goods. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7. and 8 Anne, c. 7. §. 9.

THE SEIZURE OF SUCH VESSELS, if of the burthen of 15 tons, or under, and of the horſes or other carriages, may be adjuſted by two or more juſtices of the peace, in the ſame manner as brandy, &c. by 6 Geo. I. cap. 21. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 16, 17. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

CUSTOMABLE OR PROHIBITED found by an officer in the cuſtody of any perſon being in a boat, &c. on the water, or coming directly from the water-ſide, without the preſence of an officer, or found upon credible information in any houſe, &c. may be ſent to his majeſty's warehouſe, till proof be made by oath, before a juſtice of the peace, or other proper perſon, or otherwiſe (to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners in London, or of the principal officers in the outports, in order to be forthwith tranſmitted to the commiſſioners for their directions) of the payment of the duty, or that they were bought in a lawful way of trade, or compounded for, or condemned in the court of Exchequer. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 39, 42.

SUCH PROOF NOT MADE WITHIN TEN days after the ſtop, the goods to be ſeized and proſecuted. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 40.

UPON PROSECUTION, proof to lie on the claimer: verdict given for the claimer, he may recover reaſonable coſts of ſuit. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 41.

Damaged by ſuch ſtop, action may be brought againſt the officer. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 42.

MAY BE PROSECUTED by the officer, notwithſtanding the commiſſioners directions for delivery; or delivery not ordered, the proprietor may ſue for the recovery. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 43.

PERSONS, BEING MORE THAN FIVE in company, carrying arms, or wearing any diſguiſe, paſſing within 20 miles of the ſea-coaſts with foreign goods, landed without entry, and reſiſting officers, to be deemed felons, and to be tranſported to the Britiſh plantations for ſeven years. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 6. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

OFFENDERS DISCOVERING two or more of their accomplices, within two months, and before conviction, to be acquitted, and to receive of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe, 40 l. for each; provided the value of the goods recovered to his majeſty does exceed 50 l. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 7, 8, 9. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

THE LIKE REWARD, beſides former recompences, for others diſcovering within three months. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 7, 8, 9. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

PROHIBITED OR RUN GOODS, liable to cuſtoms, exciſe, or inland duty, knowingly harboured or concealed, forfeited with treble the value. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 16.

THE SINGLE VALUE, or worth of ſuch goods, is to be taken according to the price that the beſt ſort of that commodity is then ſold for in London. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 17.

CLANDESTINELY RUN or imported, knowingly received or bought, before legally condemned, the offenders, upon conviction, upon the oath or oaths of one or more credible witneſs or witneſſes, before one or more juſtice or juſtices of the peace, are to forfeit 20 l. one half to the poor of the pariſh, and the other half to the informer, or to ſuffer three months impriſonment. 7 Geo. I. c. 3. §. 19. and 8. Geo. I. c. 18. §. 10. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

PROHIBITED GOODS, or goods liable to duties, fraudulently and clandeſtinely imported, inſured to be delivered, the inſurers, their aiders, abettors, and aſſiſtants, and the perſons inſured, or receiving the ſaid goods, are for every offence to forfeit 500 l. each, beſides all other penalties.

THE INSURER, CONVEYER, or manager, diſcovering the fraud, is to keep the inſurance money, and be diſcharged of the penalties, and to have half the forfeiture of the inſured. 4 and 5 W. and M. c. 15. §. 14, 15, 16, 18. and 8 and 9 W. III. c. 36. §. 2.

THE INSURED, DISCOVERING, is to receive back the inſurance money, to have half the forfeiture of the inſurer, and be diſcharged of his own forfeiture.

PROSECUTIONS FOR THE SAID PENALTIES may be commenced by any perſons, within twelve months. 4 and 5 W. and M. c. 15. §. 14, 15, 16, 18.

PROHIBITED, or actually run, or pretended to have been run, offered to ſale, are forfeited, with treble the value, and the package; and may be ſeized by the perſon to whom offered, or by any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe. The goods to be ſecured in the neareſt warehouſe of the cuſtoms, exciſe, or inland duty, to which they are reſpectively ſubject; if within the bills of mortality, within 24 hours, or in any other place, 48 hours after ſeizure. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 18, 19.

SUCH

SUCH GOODS BOUGHT, are forfeited, with treble the value and the package; and may be ſeized by the ſeller, or any officer of the cuſtoms or exciſe, and muſt be ſecured in the like manner as ſuch goods offered to ſale. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 20, 21.

BUYER AND SELLER not to be proſecuted for the ſame goods, but the firſt proſecutor to be acquitted. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 21.

A proſecution for ſuch goods, not commenced by the ſeizer within one month, the warehouſe-keeper may proſecute. 11 Geo. I. c. 30. §. 12.

PERSONS GUILTY of the running of cuſtomable and prohibited goods, or of receiving ſuch goods, knowing them to have been run, may be proſecuted for the ſame by action, bill, plaint, or information; and thereupon a capias in the firſt proceſs (ſpecifying the ſum of the penalty ſued for) may iſſue, and the offenders muſt give ſufficient bail of natural-born ſubjects or denizens, to appear, &c. or yield their bodies to priſon. 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 15. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

ANY PERSONS ARRESTED and impriſoned by virtue of a writ of capias, or information relating to the cuſtoms, making affidavit before the judge of the court, where the action is brought, or before any perſon commiſſioned by ſuch court, that he is not worth five pounds, beſides his wearing apparel, and thereupon petitioning the court to be admitted to defend himſelf in forma pauperis, the judge may aſſign council, and appoint an attorney and clerk of the court to adviſe and carry on his legal defence, without fee or reward. 2 Geo. II. c. 28. §. 8.

THE TREASURY may compound and agree for debts incurred for the cuſtoms, or other duties of goods clandeſtinely imported, before the 12th day of May, 1723; and upon payment of the compoſition money, to cauſe the remainder of the debt to be diſcharged, and to apply the compoſition money paid, in proportion to the ſeveral branches to which it belongs. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 32.

SALVED OUT OF any ſtranded ſhips, except wrecked goods or jetſham, flotſham, or lagan, after the charges of ſalvage, &c. are paid, are liable to the ſame duties, and entitled to the ſame drawbacks, as if regularly imported. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 13.

BROUGHT INTO his majeſty's ſtore-houſes for ſecurity of the duties, and remaining there ſix months unentered, are to be ſold by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, by public auction, or inch of candle; the produce whereof is firſt to be applied to the payment of the freight, primage, and charges of warehouſe room; next the duties, and the overplus to be paid to the proprietor or his order. 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 8. §. 11. and 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 19.

ROBBED ON THE SEAS, and afterwards brought to Great-Britain, the owner may prove his property by the marks, or by his chart or cocket, or by good and lawful merchants; or if ſtranded, to be delivered upon the like proof, ſatisfying the ſalvers. 27 Edw. III. c. 13. §. 1.

UPON INFORMATION given upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, that three or more perſons are or have been aſſembled, in order to aſſiſt in the running of goods, &c. and armed with fire-arms or other offenſive weapons, the juſtice is to grant a warrant for apprehending them, and (if upon examination he find cauſe) to commit them to the county-gaol without bail or mainprize, till diſcharged by due courſe of law. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 10.

ANY SUCH PERSON, convicted of being ſo aſſembled and armed, in order to aſſiſt in the clandeſtine running, landing, reſcuing, or carrying away prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, is to be tranſported as a felon for ſeven years. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 10.

FOR APPREHENDING any of the ſaid offenders, the reward is fifty pounds for each perſon convicted. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 11.

ANY PERSON MAIMED or wounded in apprehending or endeavouring to apprehend, or purſuing any of the ſaid offenders, is to receive fifty pounds over and above any other reward he is by this act intitled to: if killed, it is to be paid to his executors, &c. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 11.

ANY OF THE SAID OFFENDERS, diſcovering, within three months after the offence, two or more of his accomplices to the commiſſioners of cuſtoms or exciſe, ſo that two at leaſt be convicted, is to be diſcharged of his offence, and receive fifty pounds reward. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 12.

TWO OR MORE perſons found paſſing together, within five miles of the ſea, or a navigable river, with a horſe, or any carriage, laden with more than ſix pounds weight of tea, or five gallons of brandy or other ſpirits, not having paid the duty, and without a permit, or with any other foreign goods above the value of thirty pounds ſterling, landed without entry and payment of the duty, and carrying any offenſive arms, or wearing a vizard maſk, &c. when paſſing with ſuch commodities, or forcibly obſtructing the officers, are to be deemed runners of foreign goods within the meaning of 8 Geo. I. c. 18.—9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 13.

THE ONUS PROBANDI to lie upon the perſons found with the goods.

EVERY PERSON convicted of any of the ſaid offences, is to be tranſported as a felon for ſeven years. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 13.

ALL THE GOODS ſo found, and the cheſts, bags, caſks, and other package thereof, the weapons and arms, with the furniture of the horſes and cattle, and of the carriages, are forfeited. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 14.

ANY PERSON MAIMED or wounded in apprehending, or endeavouring to apprehend, or in purſuing any ſuch offender, is to receive fifty pounds over and above any other reward he is by this act intitled to: if killed, it is to be paid to his executors, &c. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 15.

ANY PERSON DISCOVERING to the commiſſioners of cuſtoms or exciſe any of the ſaid offenders, within three months after the offence, is to receive fifty pounds for every one convicted, over and above any other reward he may, by any law now in being, be intitled to. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 16.

ANY PERSON LURKING, waiting or loitering within five miles of the ſea, or navigable river, may (upon information to be given upon oath before a juſtice of the peace, that there is reaſon to ſuſpect it is with intent to aſſiſt with the running, &c. of prohibited or uncuſtomed goods) be apprehended by a warrant, and carried before a juſtice of the peace; and not giving a ſatisfactory account of himſelf to the juſtice, he is to be committed to the houſe of correction, to be whipped, and kept to hard labour, for any time not exceeding one month. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 18.

BUT IF SUCH perſon deſire time to clear himſelf of the accuſation, he is to be committed to the common gaol till he gives a ſatisfactory account of himſelf, or finds ſufficient ſecurity, to the approbation of the juſtice, not to be guilty of any of the ſaid offences. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 19.

THE INFORMER is to be paid by the commiſſioners of cuſtoms or exciſe, 20s. per head for every offender taken. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 18.

ANY WATERMAN, carman, porter, or other perſons employed in carrying goods prohibited, run, or clandeſtinely imported, upon whom or in whoſe cuſtody the ſame are found, and being therefore convicted, upon oath of a credible witneſs or confeſſion of the party, before a juſtice of the peace of the county, &c. where the offence is committed, or offender found, is to forfeit treble the value; one moiety to the informer, and the other to the poor of the pariſh where the offence is committed; to be recovered by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods, by warrant from the juſtice. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 21.

FOR WANT OF DISTRESS, the offender is to be ſent to the houſe of correction, to be whipped, and kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding three months. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 21.

GOODS TAKEN IN AT SEA by any ſhip or veſſel, or put out of any ſhip or veſſel within four leagues from the coaſt, without payment of the duty (unleſs in caſe of neceſſity, or other lawful reaſon, notice whereof muſt be given to the chief officer of the port where they firſt arrive) are forfeited; and the maſter or perſon having charge of the veſſel into which they are taken, and alſo the veſſel out of which they are taken, and all perſons concerned, are to forfeit treble the value; and the veſſels into which the goods are unſhipped and taken in, are alſo forfeited, unleſs exceeding the burthen of 100 tons. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 23.

FOUND CONCEALED on board any ſhip after the maſter's making his report at the cuſtom-houſe, and not mentioned in his report, are forfeited.

THE MASTER, PURSER, or perſon having the charge of the veſſel (if it appears they were any ways conſenting, or privy to the concealment) are to forfeit treble the value. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 27.

ANY OFFICER ON BOARD a veſſel within the limits of any port of this kingdom, being forcibly obſtructed, wounded, or beaten in the execution of his duty, the offender and his aſſiſtants are to be tranſported as other felons, for any time not exceeding ſeven years. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 28.

KEEPER OF AN ALEHOUSE, tavern, &c. knowingly entertaining any perſon who abſconds for obſtructing or abuſing officers, or for any offence againſt the laws for preventing frauds in the cuſtoms or exciſe; or who has made his eſcape after having been committed to priſon for the ſaid offence, or flies from juſtice after conviction, is to forfeit one hundred pounds, and be rendered incapable of having a licence for the future: provided public notice has been given of the perſons abſconding ſix days before, in two ſucceſſive Gazettes, and in writeing upon the door of the pariſh church, where he laſt dwelt before his abſconding. 9 Geo. II. c. 31. §. 30, 31.

ANY PERSONS, to the number of three or more, armed with fire-arms or offenſive weapons, being aſſembled in order to aſſiſt, or being actually aſſiſting in the running, landing, or carrying away prohibited goods, or goods liable to any duties, which have not been paid or ſecured; or in relanding goods exported upon debenture or certificate; or in reſcuing the ſame after ſeizure from an officer of the revenue, or his aſſiſtant, or from the place where lodged by them; or in reſcuing any perſon apprehended for any offence made felony by any act relating to the revenue, or in preventing

the apprehending any ſuch perſon; or in the illegal exportation of wool, or other goods prohibited to be exported, or in the carrying them in order thereto; or any perſon having his face blacked, or wearing a vizard maſk, or other diſguiſe, when paſſing with ſuch goods, or aſſaulting or obſtructing any officer in the ſeizing ſuch goods; alſo every perſon maiming, or dangerouſly wounding any officer in his attempt to board any veſſel within the limits of any port, or ſhooting at, maiming or dangerouſly wounding him, when on board, are, if convicted thereof, to be adjudged guilty of felony, and ſhall ſuffer death; and if convicted in Scotland, to ſuffer death, and confiſcation of moveables. 9 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 1. and 9 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

IF ANY PERSON is charged with any of the ſaid offences, by information upon the oath of a credible perſon ſigned by him, before a juſtice of the peace, or one of the juſtices of the court of King's Bench, if committed in England, or before the lord juſtice general, or one of the lords of juſticiary, or a juſtice of the peace, if in Scotland; ſuch juſtice, &c. reſpectively, is to certify under his hand and ſeal, and return the information to one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate, who is to lay it before his majeſty in privy council, who may there make an order for the offender to ſurrender himſelf, within forty days after the firſt publication in the London Gazette, to one of the juſtices, &c. above mentioned, according as the offence was committed, in England or Scotland reſpectively. This order is to be publiſhed in the two ſucceſſive Gazettes, and to be ſent to the ſheriff of the county where the offence was committed, who is to cauſe it to be proclaimed within fourteen days in the market-place of two market-towns of the county near where the offence was committed, on the market days, between the hours of ten in the morning and two in the afternoon, and a copy to be fixed in ſome public place of the ſaid towns. The offender, upon his ſurrender, is to be committed to gaol without bail or mainprize, that he may be forthcoming to anſwer the charge; if he does not ſurrender, or eſcapes after ſurrender, he is to be deemed convicted, and attainted of felony without benefit of clergy, in England, or convicted of a capital crime in Scotland, and execution may be awarded accordingly. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 2. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

IF ANY PERSON ordered to ſurrender as above, ſhould be taken and ſecured before the time appointed for his ſurrender, no further proceedings are to be had upon the order made in council, but he is to be brought to trial by ordinary courſe of law. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 4. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

PERSONS KNOWINGLY harbouring, receiving, concealing, aiding, abetting, or ſuccouring any offender as above, after the time appointed for his ſurrender (and proſecuted within one year after the offence) are to be tranſported as felons for ſeven years; and returning into Great Britain or Ireland before the expiration thereof, to ſuffer as perſons attainted of felony, without benefit of clergy. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 3. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

BUT HIS MAJESTY'S court of King's Bench, or any of the judges thereof, or the court of juſticiary in Scotland, or any of the judges thereof, may bail any perſon committed for felony upon this act, and not convicted or attainted thereof, in ſuch manner as they may by law in other caſes of felony. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 12. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

OFFENCES MADE FELONY by any act relating to the revenue of cuſtoms or exciſe may be tried in any county of England, as if the fact had been committed therein; provided that no attainder for felony upon this act ſhall work corruption of blood, loſs of dower, or forfeiture of lands and tenements. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 5. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

WHOEVER APPREHENDS or diſcovers any offender in England, advertiſed as above, who has not ſurrendered himſelf within forty days, and cauſes him to be brought before a juſtice of the King's Bench, or a juſtice of the peace for London or Middleſex, is to be paid five hundred pounds for every offender (within one month after execution is awarded) by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe reſpectively, who are to divide the reward among the perſons concerned, in ſuch proportions as they think reaſonable; and if the diſcoverer is any ſuch offender (againſt whom no ſuch order of council has been made) he is, beſides his ſhare of reward, to be diſcharged from his offence, and all former like offences, for which no proſecution has been commenced. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 10. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

PERSONS LOSING a limb or an eye, or otherwiſe grievouſly maimed or wounded, in apprehending or endeavouring to apprehend, or making purſuit after ſuch offenders, to be paid fifty pounds, beſides any other reward they are entitled to, as apprehenders, by this act: and if ſuch perſons are killed, their executors or adminiſtrators (laying proof thereof before the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms or exciſe) are to be paid 100 l. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 10. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

ANY OFFENDER in England, before ſuch order in council is made, diſcovering his accomplices, and cauſing them to be apprehended, ſo as two at leaſt be convicted, is to be paid 50l. for each, beſides being diſcharged of his own offence, and all former offences of the like nature, for which no proſecution has been commenced. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 11. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

ALL WHICH REWARDS are to be paid by the receiver general of the cuſtoms, or caſhier of exciſe reſpectively, upon an order from the commiſſioners, and to be allowed of in their accounts as money paid to his majeſty. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 10, 11. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

IF ANY OFFICER of the revenue, or other perſon employed in ſeizing, conveying or ſecuring any wool, or other goods forfeited; or in endeavouring to apprehend any offender againſt this act, ſhall be beat, wounded, maimed, or killed by any offender againſt this act, or the goods reſcued by perſons ſo armed as aforeſaid (unleſs the offender is apprehended and convicted within ſix calendar months after the fact) the rape or lath, or hundred where the fact was committed in England, is to make ſatisfaction, not exceeding forty pounds, for the damages by beating, wounding, maiming, and not exceeding two hundred pounds for damages by loſs of goods; and to pay to the executors or adminiſtrators, for each perſon killed, one hundred pounds, to be levied upon the inhabitants by a proportionable tax; and actions to be proſecuted in the ſame manner as directed by 8 Geo. II. cap. 16. with reſpect to damages recovered upon hundreds in caſes of robbery. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 6, 8. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

NO PERSONS to recover ſuch damage unleſs he cauſe notice to be given of the offence, within four days, to two or more of the inhabitants of ſome town, village, or hamlet, near the place; and unleſs within eight days after, he declares upon oath, before a juſtice of the peace of the county, &c. where the fact was committed, whether he knows any perſon concerned, and is bound by recognizance to proſecute ſuch as he knows; and unleſs he alſo gives ſuch notice, and enters into ſuch recognizance, as is required by 8 Geo. II. c. 16. of perſons robbed; and unleſs the action is commenced within a year. 19 Geo. II. c. 34. §. 7, 9. and 26 Geo. II. c. 32. §. 1.

A ſhort abſtract of the chief laws relative to the EXPORTATION OF GOODS, or

GOODS OUTWARDS.

GOODS OUTWARDS may not be laden, or put off from any key or wharf, into any veſſel, lighter, or boat (except fiſh taken by Britiſh, ſea coal, ſtone and beſtial) in order to be exported, but at lawful hours, and at ſuch open places, keys, or wharfs, as ſhall be appointed by his majeſty's commiſſion out of the court of Exchequer, without ſpecial ſufferance and leave from the officers of the cuſtoms, upon forfeiture thereof or the value, and one hundred pounds by the maſter. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7, 14.

THE LAWFUL HOURS for exportation, the ſame as for importation; for which ſee GOODS INWARDS.

EXPORTED, in whoſe name to be entered; vide GOODS INWARDS.

LIABLE TO DUTIES, ſhipped or put into any boat or veſſel, with intent to be exported before the ſaid duties are duly paid, or lawfully tendered or agreed for in the cuſtom-houſe, are forfeited. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 4. and 6 Ann. c. 8. §. 2. and 12 Ann. c. 9. §. 14.

LIABLE TO DUTIES OUTWARDS, or prohibited to be exported, ſhipped without a warrant, or without the preſence of a proper officer of the cuſtoms, are forfeited, or the value. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7. and 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 18.

LIABLE TO DUTIES, ſhipped ſecretly, and before payment thereof, eſcaping the diſcovery of the officers, and exported to parts beyond the ſeas; the owner to forfeit double the value of ſuch goods, according to the Book of Rates, except for coals, which ſee. 13 and 14 Car. II. c 11. §. 9.

PROHIBITED or uncuſtomed, except jewels, may be brought on ſhore, from any ſhip, by the officers of the cuſtoms. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 4.

WHARFINGERS, or their ſervants, ſhipping off, or ſuffering to be water-born at or from their wharfs, &c. any goods or merchandizes prohibited or uncuſtomed, without the preſence of a proper officer, or at unlawful hours (except the port of Hull) or goods paſſing by certificate, waſte-cocket, or otherwiſe, without the preſence of, or notice given to one or more officers, are to forfeit one hundred pounds. 1 Eliz. c. 11. §. 2, 3. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

TAKEN IN from the ſhore into any bark, hoy, lighter, &c. in order to be carried on board any ſhip outward bound, without a warrant, and the preſence of one or more officers, ſuch bark, &c. is forfeited 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

PORTERS, CARMEN, &c. aſſiſting in the unlawful ſhipping of goods, ſubject to the ſame penalties as for the illegal landing; for which ſee GOODS INWARDS. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11 §. 7.

BEING THE PROPERTY of any merchant born denizen, taken by enemies or pirates, or periſhed at ſea; upon due proof before the treaſury, or chief baron of the Exchequer, and

certificate thereof, to the collector of the port, goods of the like value in cuſtom may be ſhipped off duty free. 12 Car. II. c. 4. §. 5.

FOREIGN GOODS OUTWARDS, having paid all duties inwards, and having been kept in the merchants hands in regard of bad ſales, after one year is elapſed, may be exported, without payment of any ſubſidy outward.

EXPORTED WITHIN THREE YEARS, for the drawback, ſee the reſpective branches in Book of Rates.

PROHIBITED to be worn here, and foreign goods ſhipped for exportation, and afterwards unſhipped or relanded, unleſs in diſtreſs, or in the preſence of an officer, are forfeited; and the maſter permitting the ſame, forfeits the value thereof; and the perſons to whoſe hands they ſhall come, knowing of the relanding, are to forfeit double the value, unleſs they make diſcovery to the officers of the cuſtoms within ſix days. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 6. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

WHEREON there is a drawback, bounty or premium, or goods prohibited to be uſed here, or pepper; after entry, and before or after ſhipping, the officers of the cuſtoms may open, and ſtrictly examine any bale, truſs, cheſt, or other package, to ſee if they are right entered. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 17.

IF FOUND to be right entered, the ſame muſt be repacked at the officers charge, which the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms are to allow if they think it reaſonable. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 17.

BUT IF FOUND to be leſs in quantity or value, than expreſſed in the exporter's indorſement upon his entry, or entered under a wrong denomination, whereby the king would have been defrauded, are forfeited, with the benefit of the drawback or bounty, and the value thereof. 12 Geo. I. c. 28. §. 17.

ANY PERSON who puts, or cauſes to be put, on board any veſſel or boat, not bound directly to ſome port in Great-Britain or Ireland, or in ſome other of the dominions of the crown of Great-Britain, any tools or utenſils commonly uſed in, or proper for the preparing, working up, or finiſhing the woollen or ſilk manufactures, forfeits the tools, &c. and two hundred pounds to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any court of record at Weſtminſter, court of ſeſſions in Scotland, or in any of the four courts at Dublin. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 3.

ANY MASTER of a veſſel or boat, knowingly permitting them to be put on board, forfeits one hundred pounds to be recovered in the ſame manner; and if the veſſel belongs to his majeſty, the captain to forfeit one hundred pounds and his employment, and to be incapable of ſerving the crown. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 5.

SUCH TOOLS, &c. may be ſeized by any officer of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, or officer of the revenue in Ireland; and after condemnation, publickly ſold to the beſt bidder. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 4.

ANY OFFICER of the cuſtoms in Great-Britain, or revenue in Ireland, ſuffering any entry outwards to be taken, or ſigning any cocket, warrant, or ſufferance for ſhipping, or exporting thereof, or permitting it to be done, forfeits one hundred pounds and his office, and is incapable of ſerving his majeſty. 23 Geo. II. c. 13. §. 6.

GOODS COASTWISE INWARDS, foreign goods imported into and entered at any port of Great-Britain, afterwards carried to any other port, muſt be accompanied with a certificate under the cuſtomer's ſeal, mentioning the natural colour, length and value, if they are meaſurable goods; or the natural weight, content, or value, if they are goods uſed to be weighed or valued; which certificate muſt be delivered to the cuſtomer, that he may examine whether the goods agree therewith. 3 Hen. VII. c. 7. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 8. §. 18. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

DISCHARGED or unpacked before the certificate be delivered, and without the preſence of an officer, ſuch goods, or their value, are forfeited. 3 Hen. VII. c. 7. §. 1. and 8 Geo. I. c. 8. §. 18. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

No goods coming into any one port of Great-Britain from any other, may be unſhipped before the coaſt-cocket, tranſire, let-paſs, or certificate, be delivered to the cuſtomer or collector and comptroller, and their warrant or ſufferance granted for the landing, upon forfeiture of the value of the goods by the maſter, knowing and conſenting thereto. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 8. and 8 Geo. I. c. 18. §. 18. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 5.

FOREIGN, taken in at ſea, or out of any ſhip or veſſel, by any coaſter, in order to be landed, or put on board another veſſel, within the limits of a port, without payment of duty, are forfeited with treble the value by the maſter of both veſſels, unleſs in caſe of neceſſity. 5 Geo. I. c. 11. §. 3. and 27 Geo. II. c. 18. §. 4.

FOREIGN, taken on board any coaſting veſſel in parts beyond the ſeas, or out of any ſhip at ſea, or in any port of this kingdom, other than the port from whence certified, are forfeited, with double the value, and the maſter of ſuch veſſel is to forfeit the value of the goods. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 8.

OFFENCE DISCOVERED to any officer of the cuſtoms by any perſon (except the owner or claimer of the goods) ſuch perſon is to have half of the officer's or proſecutor's ſhare of what ſhall be recovered, the charges of proſecution being firſt deducted: the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms are to cauſe ſuch charges to be equally paid by the crown and the proſecutor. Perſons aiding the owner or claimer, diſcovering their offence, are to be acquitted. 9 Geo. I. c. 21. §. 29.

ANY OFFICER, upon producing his warrant or deputation, may go on board any coaſting veſſel, within the limits of any port, and rummage for prohibited and uncuſtomed goods, and remain on board during the veſſel's ſtay in the port. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 9.

ANY PERSON, obſtructing or moleſting the officer in ſo doing, ſhall forfeit one hundred pounds. 9 Geo. II. c. 35. §. 9.

GOODS COASTWISE OUTWARDS, may not be laden, and carried from one port or creek of Great-Britain, Ireland, Guernſey, or Jerſey, to any other port or creek of the ſame, in any ſhip or veſſel, whereof any ſtranger born (unleſs ſuch as be denizens, or naturalized) are owners, part owners, or maſters, and whereof at leaſt three fourths of the mariners are not Britiſh, upon forfeiture of the ſhip and goods. 5 Eliz. c. 5. §. 8. and 12 Car. II. c. 18. §. 6.

SHIPPED, or put on board any ſhip, to be carried forth to the open ſea, from any one port, member or creek in Great-Britain, to be landed at any one place in this realm, without a ſufferance firſt obtained from the officers of the cuſtoms, are forfeited. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

AND BEFORE the departure of the ſhip out of port, the maſter muſt take out a cocket, and become bound to his majeſty with good ſecurity in the value of the goods, for the delivery thereof in ſome port within Great-Britain, and to return a certificate within ſix months, under the hands and ſeals of the officers of the port of diſcharge, upon forfeiture of the bond and ſecurity. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 7. §. 4. and 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 11. §. 7.

THE SUBSTANCE OF SUCH CERTIFICATES muſt be indorſed on the back of the bonds, and ſigned to by the officers tranſmitting them into the Exchequer, upon penalty of treble damages, and coſts of ſuit. 1 Ann. c. 26. §. 3.

OR IF A SHIP be laden with coals only, and the maſter pays the cuſtom, or overſea duty, in any port of Great-Britain, the cuſtomer and comptroller of ſuch port are to grant a certificate thereof; which being produced to the officers of the loading port, will diſcharge the coaſt-bond, in like manner, as if the coals had been landed in Great-Britain. 9 Ann. c. 28. §. 6.

H.

HADDINGTONSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the north and eaſt by the Firth, on the ſouth by the hills of Lammarmour, and by Mid-Lothian or Edinburghſhire on the weſt. It abounds with corn of all ſorts, and has good ſtore of graſs, coal, and lime-ſtone, with ſome conſiderable woods. It has many ſalt-pans, where much white ſalt is made. Here are ſeveral convenient harbours, with the advantage of ſome fiſhery towns; particularly there is a herring-fiſhery every year after Lammas at Dumbar, where they take enough both for home conſumption and exportation.

DUMBAR, or DUNBAR, has a good market, and generally a noble herring-fiſhery at the ſeaſon, which is their chief trade, tho' of late years much decayed. They cure the herrings here as they do at Yarmouth, but they are larger and fatter than thoſe. It is a handſome well-built town, and it's port of vaſt advantage to all ſhips in the river, in caſe of ſtreſs of weather; but the entrance being difficult, by reaſon of ſteep rocks at the mouth of the harbour, an act of parliament was made in 1718, to continue 'till 1763, for improving and preſerving it.

HALBERSTADT, a principality in Germany. This is a ſmall province, bounded on the north-eaſt by the duchy of Magdeburg, on the ſouth by the principality of Anhault, on the weſt by the archbiſhopric of Hildeſheim, on the eaſt by part of the electorate of Saxony, and on the north by Brunſwic Wolfembuttle. It has a good ſoil, yields plenty of corn, and the foreſts ſtore of veniſon.

HALBERSTADT, heretofore an imperial city, is it's principal town, but the trade here is inconſiderable, by reaſon of the ſmallneſs of the river.

HALLAGE, a fee paid at any public hall, where goods are meaſured or ſearched; as at Blackwell-Hall, where woollen cloths are inſpected, by proper officers appointed for that purpoſe.

HAMBURGH, a city in Germany. It ſtands on the north ſide of the river Elbe, 72 miles from the mouth of it, and is ſeated with very extraordinary advantages for trade, both foreign and domeſtic. It has ſuch a port and river as nothing in Europe excels, unleſs it be the Thames. Beſides the Elbe, which enters the German Ocean here, they have a channel opened to the river Trave, for the ſake of a communication with Lubec and the Baltic Sea, to avoid toll and other difficulties of the Sound: and veſſels lying in the Trave are within 40 miles of the Baltic, whereas it is upwards of 400 round the coaſt of Jutland by the Sound.

It's trade, in fact, exceeds that of any city in the world which has no kingdom or commonwealth annexed to it; and it's exports and imports are ſuperior to thoſe of many great kingdoms, even in Germany itſelf. The Elbe, and the many other great navigable rivers that fall into it after a courſe through ſome of the largeſt, richeſt, and moſt trading parts of Germany, furniſh it with all the product and manufactures of Auſtria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony.

By the Havel and Spree, it has a trade with the electorate of Brandenburgh; and, by a canal from the Spree to the Oder, it's commerce is extended into Sileſia, Moravia, and Poland, almoſt to Hungary.

The chief merchandize which it exports (to Great-Britain principally) is linen of ſeveral countries and ſorts; particularly Sileſia diapers, and the lawns of Miſnia and Luſatia, well known at London; Germany linen, called ſo in general from the counties of Oſnabrug, Lunenburg, &c. Hamburgh dowlas, and other linen from Lower Saxony; coarſe linen, barras, crocus, hinderlands, and many other ſorts from Lower Germany; linen yarn in great quantities from the ſame countries, eſpecially Sileſia and Luſatia; tin plates; and wire of iron, braſs and ſteel, chiefly from Upper Saxony; clap-boards, pipe and hogſhead ſtaves, wainſcot-boards, oak plank and timber, with kid-ſkins in great quantities, from Brandenburg; corn from many of the German provinces, but chiefly from Brandenburg and Saxony. Of the numerous articles which they import, the chief are the woollen manufactures of England. The value of which yearly ſent from Yorkſhire only, and generally ſhipped at Hull, is ſaid to be above 100,000l. the ſingle article of ſtockings, ſent hither, comes to above 20,000l. yearly, and in ſhort, all the Engliſh goods vended here amount to ſeveral hundred thouſand pounds a year. The Engliſh merchants in particular, having extraordinary privileges granted them from this city, make a great figure here, different from thoſe of all other nations: they appear as a body, with particular juriſdiction and powers among themſelves, and, as they are called in London the Hamburgh company, ſo they are called at Hamburgh the Engliſh hanſe, or ſociety. The Engliſh are pretty numerous here, this being really, as it was antiently called, the ſtaple of the Engliſh trade for this part of the world. They had a particular grant from the city by a treaty in queen Anne's reign, of the ſame privilege to import herrings, that was allowed to the Dutch. [See FISHERIES.] The Hamburghers drive a very great trade alſo to Ruſſia and Livonia; and, for the goods which they ſend to the north part of the empire and Poland, they have a great return, not only in linen yarn and fine flax, but in honey, wax, anniſeed, linſeed, drugs, &c. all which come by the navigation of the Oder into the Spree, and ſo into the Elbe in the marquiſate of Brandenburgh; and therefore the Danes cannot interrupt this trade, or obtain any part of it, nor hinder the great vent of Engliſh manufactures back into all the before-mentioned countries; which is the capital branch of all the Hamburgh trade, and has vaſtly enriched it. The number of veſſels of any conſiderable burden, belonging to the town, is computed at 400, of which 30 of the principal are employed in the trade to and from London. They have many in the French trade, particularly about 40, which bring wine and other commodities from Bourdeaux; 50 or 60 in the Greenland trade, beſides many which navigate the Baltic, and ſome alſo to Portugal, Spain, the Mediterranean, &c.

This city has alſo a good ſhare in the Greenland whale-fiſhery, to which they commonly ſend 50 or 60 ſhips every year, and have generally had good ſucceſs. See GREENLAND. Beſides the beer brewed here, of which great quantities are exported, they have not long ago erected ſeveral manufactures, which they carry on with great induſtry and ſucceſs: particularly, 1. The weaving of damaſks, brocades, velvets, and the richeſt kinds of ſilks. 2. Sugar-baking, here being as good loaf-ſugar as is made in London, but, having no colonies, they are obliged to buy their muſcovado ſugars from Great-Britain and France. 3. Callico-printing, which employs abundance of their people; and of late they have begun alſo to print linens, and make ſome gold and ſilver lace. By theſe and ſeveral other branches of it's trade, it is become a rich and powerful city, and, without diſpute, drives the greateſt inland trade at this time, of any city, at leaſt, in Europe, London and Amſterdam only excepted.

REMARKS.

The Britiſh factory, which is removed from Flanders to Hamburgh, are poſſeſſed of privileges ſince 1610, confirmed by a convention with the regency, as diſtinguiſhed as any body of foreigners enjoy in any part of the commercial world. The Hamburghers found it their intereſt to indulge them; inſomuch that, till the revolution, they had an exclu-ſive privilege of importing cloth; but this liberty is now free to any of the inhabitants of the city. This factory is incorporated into a company, conſiſting of 13 members, a governor, and deputy-governor. All diſputes among themſelves are referred to the final deciſion of a majority of voices. They alſo judge with regard to their demands on burghers, but in this caſe a deputation of two ſenators is required to act in concert with them. Their judgments are ſo juſt and ſummary, that the burghers generally make application to them, when they have demands upon any of the Britiſh factory, preferring their deciſions to any other court in the juriſdiction of the city.—The trade of this company is not ſo conſiderable as it was at the latter end of the laſt century.

Hamburgh is a hanſe-town [ſee the article HANSE-TOWNS] of more importance than any in Europe. This place may

be conſidered, with reſpect to Germany, what Amſterdam is to Europe, a magazine of the different produce and merchandize of the trading world. Commiſſion buſineſs made a very conſiderable article of the profits of Hamburgh, but a great part of this branch is fallen into the hands of the merchants of Altena, the Hamburghers having injudiciouſly charged a ſmall duty on them, which they have ſince taken off, and made it a free port for the tranſit of all merchandizes; but they cannot recover this buſineſs in the ſame manner as before; ſo difficult is it to alter the channel of trade from the current it has once obtained.

There are other branches of which the Hamburghers have been obliged to yield a part to other nations. The trade of Lubec, which was ſunk very low, has mended of late years: Stetin, which was hardly known as a trading town, now begins to make ſome figure in commerce; and we find the king of Pruſſia endeavouring to eſtabliſh Embden as a place of trade. [See PRUSSIA.] Copenhagen of late years is improved; and a vaſt trade is eſtabliſhed in St. Peterſburgh, which did not exiſt till this century; but, above all, France, ſince queen Anne's war, has made large ſtrides in the advancement of her commercial intereſt. See the article FRANCE, and FRENCH AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FLORIDA. Theſe concurring reaſons muſt neceſſarily diminiſh the trade of Hamburgh.

What has clipped the wings of the Hamburghers, though not in ſo great a degree as generally imagined, is the neighbourhood of Altena, as before intimated, which ſignifies much too near, as indeed it is for their intereſt, having the advantage of ſituation the ſame as Hamburgh; but it has no fortifications, nor is the Daniſh ſovereignty ſo great a ſecurity of it's commerce as the independency of a Hanſe-Town is to Hamburgh. Altena has been long conſidered by the Hamburghers as an object of great jealouſy. In the war with Sweden, in 1713, this town was burned to the ground, and now appears as new.

The continual loſſes ſuffered by the Algerine rovers, who thought it their intereſt to decline accommodation, have been a great obſtruction to the trade of Hamburgh; and the more as they can hardly, with any aſſurance, aſk the aſſiſtance of any ſovereighn prince, and particularly a maritime power, who is a competitor in point of commerce. During the laſt war, they had ſeveral ſhips on the Weſtern Ocean and the Mediterranean; but hoſtilities at ſea were no ſooner ended, than they were obliged to alter their meaſures.

The Algerines, finding the Spaniards meant to make war with them in good earneſt, entered lately into a treaty with the Hamburghers, not of friendſhip only, but of commerce alſo. This the Spaniards highly reſented, and put the Hamburghers under the neceſſity of annulling that treaty, or of being excluded from their trade with Spain. Being reduced to this alternative they have choſen the former.

This city ſeems to owe its ſafety to the jarring intereſts of the neighbouring powers. It is ſurrounded by the Danes on the north ſide, in Holſtein, Sleſwick, Deitmarſen, &c. who have often made pretenſions to it. It had the Swedes on the weſt ſide, in the duchies of Bremen and Verden; and both theſe had forts upon the Elbe, the one at Gluckſtadt, the other at Stadt, where, by their ſhips of war they could intercept the Hamburghers trade. They had the princes of the houſe of Lunenburgh on the ſouth, poſſeſſed of Láwenburg on the Elbe, above the city, and ſo able to ſtop all their navigation upwards, and of Harburg over againſt them. And, laſtly, they had the houſe of Brandenburg, now Pruſſia, on the eaſt.—All theſe princes have been ready enough to find pretenſions upon the city of Hamburgh, and were ſeverally able to puſh thoſe pretenſions; but none of them being willing that the Hamburghers ſhould fall into the hands of any but themſelves; this claſhing of intereſts has been the preſervation of the city, they having never failed of ſuccour on one ſide or other.

MONIES and EXCHANGES of HAMBURGH.

They keep their accounts at Hamburgh in rixdollars, ſols, and deneirs lubs, or in marks, ſols, and deniers lubs.

The rixdollar is worth three marks, or 48 ſols lubs, or 96 deniers gros*.

* In the year 1623, it was regulated that the ſtandard ſhould be 10 deniers 14 grains, and that it ſhould weigh 532 grains.

The dollar is equal to 2 marks, or 32 ſols lubs, or 64 deniers gros.

The mark is equal to 16 ſols lubs, or 32 deniers gros.

The livre gros is equal to 20 ſols gros, or 120 ſols lubs, or $7\frac{1}{2}$ marks lubs.

The ſol gros, or ſchelling, is equal to 12 deniers gros, or 6 ſols lubs.

The common ſol is equal to 2 gros, or 12 deniers, or penings.

To reduce marks lubs into dollars and rixdollars muſt be ſo eaſy, as to need no explication.

Suppoſe you owe the following ſums of Hamburgh money to your correſpondents at the following places, what ſums muſt be paid for the ſame in the monies of their reſpective countries.

		ſols lubs.		Courſe of exchange.
At Amſter.	1728 dollars	$16\frac{1}{2}$	at	$32\frac{7}{8}$ ſols banco per dollar of 32 ſols.
Paris	975 marks	$2\frac{1}{3}$	at	$27\frac{1}{2\,4}$ ſols lubs per crown of 60 ſols.
London	1541	$14\frac{1}{3}$	at	$32\frac{1}{3}$ ſols gros per pound ſterling.
Cadiz	2025	$12\frac{2}{3}$	at	$93\frac{1}{3}$ gros per ducat of 375 marvadees.
Liſbon	1030	1	at	$42\frac{4}{6}$ gros per cruſade of 400 rees.
Venice	1500		at	$86\frac{7}{8}$ gros per ducat banco of 24 gros.
Vienna	1200		at	139 rixdollars per 100 rixdollars banco.
Nurem.	600 rixdol.		at	135 rixdollars per 100 rixdollars banco.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon HOLLAND.

CASE I.

To reduce 1728 dollars, $16\frac{1}{2}$ ſols lubs banco,
Multiply by $32\frac{7}{8}$ ſols banco of exchange.

3456
5184
864 for $\frac{4}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{2}$
432 $\frac{2}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{4}$ } of 1728
216 $\frac{1}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{8}$
$16\frac{3}{8}$ 16 ſols the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the exchange
$\frac{5}{8}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ ſol the $\frac{1}{3\,2}$ of 16 ſols

$\frac{1}{2}$)5682|5 ſols

2841 florins, 5 ſols banco, for which the draught muſt be made on Amſterdam.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the ſum of dollars by the price of exchange of $32\frac{7}{8}$ ſols, and take the aliquot parts, as directed by the operation, and the ſum total will be ſols or ſtivers bank money, which, being divided by 20, gives for anſwer florins and ſtivers bank, to be received at Amſterdam.

PROOF.

OPERATION.

Florins 2841 : 5 at $32\frac{7}{8}$ per dollar
20 8

56825 263
8

263)454600(1728 dollars, $16\frac{1}{2}$.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum and price of exchange into the ſame denomination, viz. eights of ſtivers, and divide the ſum by the price, and the quote will give the number of times that the price is contained in the ſum, which is the anſwer in dollars: for the remainder, multiply by 32 (the ſols lubs in a dollar) and divide by the common diviſor, and you have the ſols equal to the fraction.

N. B. In ordinary practice, the deſcending to the eighth or ſixteenth of a ſol is reckoned ſufficient.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon FRANCE.

CASE II.

Reduce 975 marks, $2\frac{1}{3}$ ſols lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into livres, ſols, and deniers Tournois of France, exchange at $27\frac{1}{4}$ ſols lubs bank, per crown of 60 ſols Tournois of France.

OPERATION.

975 marks, $2\frac{1}{3}$ ſols lubs ban. ex. at $27\frac{1}{2\,4}$ ſols lubs
16 24

5852 109
975 54

15602 $\frac{1}{3} = \frac{8}{2\,4}$ 649—24ths diviſor
24

82416
31204

649)394456—24ths dividend (576 crowns, 58 ſols, 5 deniers,
3 livres

1730 livres, 18 ſols, 5 deniers Tournois, for which the draught muſt be made upon Paris.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum given, and the price of exchange, into the 24ths of ſols lubs (viz. by 16 s. the value of a mark) and for the $\frac{1}{3}$ of a ſol reckon $\frac{8}{2\,4}$, which is equal thereto. [See the article ARITHMETIC.] Divide the product of the ſum by the product of the price of exchange, and the quotient will ſhew how many times the price of exchange is contained in the ſum, or how many crowns are contained in the number of marks. For the remainder 632, multiply by 60 ſols (the value of the crown) and, dividing by the common diviſor, it

gives 58 ſols, and a further remainder of 278, which, multiplied by 12, and divided as before, gives 5 deniers.—To reduce the crowns into livres, multiply by 3 (ſo many livres making 1 crown) and add 2 livres, 18 ſols, and 5 deniers, for the 58 ſols 5 deniers. This gives 1730 livres, 18 ſols, 5 deniers Tournois of Paris, to be there received for the 975 marks 2 $\frac{1}{3}$ lubs banco of Hamburgh.

PROOF of the foregoing.

3) livres 1730 : 18 : 5 Tournois exchange, at 27 $\frac{1}{24}$ ſols [lubs per crown.

Crowns 576 : 58 : 5
$27\frac{1}{24}$

4032
1152
24 = $\frac{1}{24}$ of 576
13 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 30 ſols $\frac{1}{2}$ of } the exchange
9 for 20 ſols $\frac{1}{3}$ of } price
1 $\frac{3}{4}$ for 4 ſols $\frac{1}{5}$ of 20
1 $\frac{3}{4}$ for 4 ſols $\frac{1}{5}$ of 20
$\frac{1}{16}$ for 4 deniers $\frac{1}{12}$ of 4 ſols

ſols lubs 16)15602 $\frac{1}{16}$(975 marks, 2 ſols, and allowance for the fractional parts will make $\frac{1}{3}$.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon ENGLAND.

CASE III.

To reduce 1541 marks 14 ſols $\frac{1}{3}$ lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into ſterling money of England, exchange at 32 $\frac{1}{3}$ ſols gros per pound ſterling.

OPERATION.

1541 marks 14 $\frac{1}{3}$ lubs - - at 32 $\frac{1}{3}$ ſols
32 deniers de gros 12

3082 384
4623 4 den. = $\frac{1}{3}$
16 for 8 ſols lubs, $\frac{1}{2}$ of the 32
8 for 4 ſols lubs, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 8 388
4 for 2 ſols lubs, $\frac{1}{2}$ of 4 3
$\frac{2}{3}$ for $\frac{1}{3}$ of a ſol = $\frac{1}{6}$ of 2 ſols
Diviſor 1164 thirds of [deniers
493402/3
3

1164)148022 thirds of den. dividend (l. 127 : 3 : 4 ſterling) for which the draught is to be made on London.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum given, and the price of exchange, into thirds of deniers, by multiplying the marks by 32 deniers gros, the value of a mark, and taking the aliquot parts for the 14 $\frac{1}{3}$ ſols, as above directed.—After which, multiply the product by 3, which gives thirds of deniers gros.—Then multiplying the exchange ſols by 12, gives deniers.—For the $\frac{1}{3}$ of a ſol add 4 deniers, that being $\frac{1}{3}$ of 12—And multiply alſo the product by 3, gives thirds of deniers.—The ſum and price being both reduced into the like denomination, divide the ſum by the price, and you have the anſwer in pounds ſterling.—For the remainder 194, multiply by 20, and divide by the common diviſor, and you have the ſhillings; and for the ſecond remainder, 388, multiply by 12, and divide by the ſame diviſor, and you have the pence.

The PROOF.

l. 127 : 3 : 4 ſterling, exchange at 32 $\frac{1}{3}$
$32\frac{1}{3}$

254
381
42—4 deniers for the $\frac{1}{3}$
5—5 near, for 3 ſhillings 4 pence $\frac{1}{6}$ of the exchange

$\frac{1}{2}$) 411 | 1 ſ. 9 deniers gros,

liv. 205 : 11 ſols, 9 deniers gros, to be multiplied by
7 marks 8 ſols lubs, the value of a livre gros

1435
102 marks, 8 ſols, for 8 ſols, the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the livres
3 12 for 10 the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ marks
6 for 1 the $\frac{1}{10}$ of 10 ſols
3 for 6 den. the $\frac{1}{2}$ of a ſol
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 3 den. the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 6 den.

1541 marks 14 ſols $\frac{1}{2}$, for which the draught muſt be made on Hamburgh.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the l. 127 : 3 : 4 ſterling, by the price of exchange, 32 $\frac{1}{3}$ ſols gros, and divide the product of ſols by 20, gives livres, ſols, and deniers gros. Multiply the 205 livres, 11 ſols, and 9 deniers, by 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ marks, the value of a livre gros, and take the aliquot parts as above, and you will have the product 1541 marks 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols bank, as proof ſufficient of the preceding caſe.

Of the EXCHANGE of HAMBURGH upon CADIZ.

CASE IV.

To reduce 2025 marks 12 $\frac{2}{3}$ ſols lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into ducats, ſols, and deniers, and afterwards into rials and marvadees of Spain, exchange at 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros per ducat of 375 marvadees old plate.

OPERATION.

2025 marks 12 $\frac{2}{3}$, exchange at 93 $\frac{1}{2}$
Multiply by 32 deniers gros 6

4050 561 ſixths of den.
6075
25 $\frac{1}{2}$

64825 $\frac{1}{2}$

561)388952 ſixths of deniers (693 ducats, 6 ſols, 4 den. for which the draught ſhould be made upon Cadiz.

Theſe 693 ducats, 6 ſols, 4 deniers, multiplied
By 11 rials 1 marvadee

7623
20 rials, 13 marv. for 693 marv. divided by 34
2 25 for 5 ſols, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of 11 rials
18 for 1 the $\frac{1}{5}$ of 5 ſols
6 for 4 den. the $\frac{1}{3}$ of a ſol

7646 rials, 28 marvadees old plate, to receive in Spain.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum and the price of exchange into ſixths of deniers, by multiplying the former by 32 deniers gros, the value of a mark (adding 25 $\frac{1}{3}$ for the 12 $\frac{2}{3}$) and after by 6.—With regard to the exchange, multiply that by 6, and for the $\frac{1}{2}$ take in $\frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$, and divide the product of the ſum by that of the price of exchange, and the quotient will be 693 ducats, with the remainder of 179, which multiplied by 20, the value of a ducat in ſols, and divided by the ſame, it produces 6 ſols, and a further remainder of 214, which multiplied by 12 deniers; the value of a ſol, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 4 deniers; which quotients being multiplied by 11 rials 1 marvadee, value of a ducat, will produce 7646 rials, 28 marvadees, to be received at Cadiz.
But, if you would at once reduce the marks into rials and marvadees, and not into ducats, you muſt multiply by 375 marvadees, the value of a ducat, the 64825 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros, and divide the product 24309500 marvadees by 3179 marvadees, which is the exchange of 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros, multiplied by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial; and this will give you for quotient the ſame ſum of 7646 rials, with a remainder of 2866; which multiplied by 34 marvadees, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 30 marvadees, two more than the preceding method does.

PROOF.

Reduce 7646 rials 28 marvadees, old plate of Spain, into marks, ſols, and pence lubs, bank money, at the courſe of exchange of 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros per ducat of 375 marvadees of Spain.

OPERATION.

7646 rials 28 mar. 375 mar. multiplied by 32 gros,
34 32

30612 750
22938 1125

259992 12000 gros—Diviſor
Excha. 93 $\frac{1}{2}$

779976
2339928
129996

Quotient
24309252 gros—dividend (2025 marks, 12 ſols, 4 pence bank, for which the draught upon Hamburgh ſhould be made.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the 7646 rials, 28 marvadees, into marvadees, by multiplying them by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial, and multiply the product, 259992 marvadees, by the price of exchange of 93 $\frac{1}{2}$ gros, it gives 24309252 gros for dividend. Multiply alſo the 375 marvadees, the value of a ducat, by 32 gros, the value of a mark lubs, it gives 12000 gros for a diviſor, and 2025 marks lubs for a quotient, with a remainder of 9252; which multiplied by 16 ſols, the value of a mark, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 12 ſols lubs; and a further remainder of 4032, to be multiplied by 12 penings,

penings, the value of a ſol, and divided by the ſame, you will have four penings bank money of Hamburgh.

Of the Exchange of Hamburgh upon Lisbon.

Case V.

To reduce 1030 marks 1 ſol lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into cruſadoes of Portugal, exchange at 42 ¾ deniers gros, per cruſado of 400 rees.

Operation.

1030 Marks 1 ſol lubs at 42 ¾ deniers gros
32 deniers gros — 4

2060
3090
2 for the ſol

32962 — 4 quarters of gros

171) 131848 quarters of deniers gros (771 cruſadoes 16 rees, for which the draught upon Liſbon ſhould be made.

Instruction.

Multiply the ſum of 1030 marks 1 ſol by 32 gros, and afterwards by 4 for quarters of gros.—Reduce the price of exchange alſo into quarters of gros, and divide the one by the other, and you will have a quotient of 771 cruſadoes, with a remainder of 7; which multiply by 400 rees, the value of a cruſado, and divide by the ſame diviſor, you will have 16 rees. By multiplying the cruſadoes by 400 rees, and adding the 16 rees, the ſum total will be 308416 rees to be received at Liſbon.

Proof.

771 Cruſadoes 16 at 42 ¾
42 ¾

1542
3084
385 ½ for ½ of 771 cruſadoes
192 ¾ for ¼ of ditto
1 ¾ for 16 rees, the 1/240 of 400 marks

32) 32962—(1030—1 ſol of Liſbon.

Instruction.

Multiply 771 cruſadoes 16 rees by the price of exchange, and take the aliquot as above. The product being deniers gros (32 of which makes a mark) divide thereby, and the quotient gives marks 2/32, or 1/16, or ſol lubs.

Of the Exchange of Hamburgh upon Venice.

Case VI.

To reduce 1500 marks lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into ducats, ſols, and deniers, bank money of Venice, exchange at 86 ⅞ deniers gros of Hamburgh, per ducat of 24 gros.

Operation.

1500 marks lubs each at 68 ⅞ deniers gros
Multiply by 32 deniers gros — 8

3000
4500

48000 deniers gros
8

695 eighths of deniers gros

695) 384000 eighths of deniers gros (552 ducats 10 ſols 4 deniers, for which the draught muſt be made on Venice.

Instruction.

Reduce the ſum and price, according to the foregoing examples, into one denomination, the eighths of deniers gros, and dividing the former by the latter, the quotient gives ducats 552, with a remainder 360; which multiplying by 20 ſols, the value of a ducat, and dividing by the ſame diviſor, it gives 10 ſols, and 250 remaining.—This multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and divided again by the ſame, it gives 4 deniers bank money to be received at Venice.

Proof.

552 Ducats 10 ſols, 4 at 86 ⅞
86 ⅞

3312
4416
483 . . for ⅞
17 ⅜ . . for 4 ſols the 1/5 of the exchange 86 ⅞
17 ⅜ . . for 4 ditto, the 1/5
8 ⅝ and more for 2 ditto, the ½ of 4
1 ⅜ and more for 4 deniers, the 1/6 of 2 ſols

32) 4800—(1500 marks lubs, reckon ⅔ for the fractional parts remaining.

Instruction.

Multiply the ſum by the price, and, for the ⅞, multiply by the 7, cancel the product, and divide by 8 gives the value of the ⅞. For the ten ſols 4 deniers, take the aliquot parts as above, and the ſum total will be deniers gros; which, divided by 32, the value of a mark, the quotient gives 1500 marks, the proof.

Of the Exchange of Hamburgh upon Vienna.

Case VII.

To reduce 1200 marks 12 ſols lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into rixdollars, gros, and fenings of Vienna, exchange at 139 rixdollars of Vienna, of 90 kreutzers per 100 rixdollars, of 48 ſols lubs of Hamburgh, of the ſame money.

Operation.

If 100 rixdol. of Hamburgh give 139 rixdol. of Vienna, what will 400 ¼ of Hamburgh? 400 ¼

55600
34—22—6 for the ¼

Rixdollars 556|34—22—6
30

Gros 10|42
12

Fenings 5|10

Instruction.

Reduce the 1200 marks lubs into rixdollars, in taking ⅓ thereof, the rixdollar being worth 3 marks lubs, it produces 400 ¼ rixdollars (each making 48 ſols lubs, the 12 ſols make ¼): ſo that the proportion will run thus: as 100 rixdollars of Hamburgh is to 139 rixdollars of Vienna, ſo is 400 ¼ rixdollars of Hamburgh to 556 rixdollars, 10 gros, and 5 fenings of Vienna.

The product of the multiplication of the ſecond term by the laſt, is 55,634 rixdollars, 22 gros, 6 fenings, which being divided by the firſt term (100) 'tis only cutting off two figures to the right-hand; and the remainder being multiplied by 30 gros, the value of the rixdollars, and divided again by the 100, you have 10 gros; this further remainder alſo being multiplied by 12 fenings, the value of a gros, and divided again by 100, it gives 5 fenings to be received at Vienna.

Proof of the foregoing.

Operation.

If 139 rixdollars of Vienna give 100 of Hamburgh, what will 556 rixdollars, 10 gros, five fenings?
100

55600
33 : 16 for 10 gros the ½
1 : 18 for 5 fenings

Divide by 136) 55634 : 34 ſols (400 ¼ rixdollars, bank money.

Of the Exchange of Hamburgh upon Nuremberg.

Case VIII.

To reduce 600 rixdollars of 48 ſols lubs, bank money of Hamburgh, into rixdollars of 90 kreutzers, current money of Nuremberg, exchange at 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg per 100 of Hamburgh.

Operation.

If 100 rixdollars of Hamburgh give 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg, what will 600 of Hamburgh? 600

810|00

Anſwer 810, for which the draught ſhould be made upon Nuremberg, of rixdollars.

Instruction.

After ſtating the caſe according to the rule of proportion, you multiply the ſecond and third terms together, and divide the product by the firſt, by cutting off two figures on the right-hand, as in the preceding caſe, and you have the number of rixdollars to be received at Nuremberg.

If the remainder had been otherwiſe than cyphers, you muſt have multiplied by 90 kreutzers, the value of a rixdollar, and, ſeparating two figures to the right as before, you would have the kreutzers.—And if any further remainder ſhould occur, you ſhould multiply it by 4 fenings, the value of a kreutzer; and, ſeparating the ſame, it would give the fenings.

Proof.

PROOF.

If 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg give 100 of Hamburgh, what will 810 of Nuremberg?

100

135)81000(600 rixdollars bank, for which the draught upon Hamburgh ſhould be made.

INSTRUCTION.

From a direct rule of three, ſaying: if 135 rixdollars of Nuremberg give 100 of Hamburgh, how many will 810 give?

The product of the ſecond and third terms being multiplied is 81000, which being divided by the firſt 135, the quotient is 600 rixdollars of 48 ſols lubs, to be received in bank at Hamburgh.—If any thing had remained, you ſhould multiply by 48 ſols lubs, the value of the rixdollar, and divide by the 135, it gives ſols lubs.—And, if any further remainder had aroſe, it ſhould be multiplied by 2 gros, the value of the ſol, and divided by the ſame, it gives groſs to be received with theſe rixdollars.

Theſe are ſome of the principal places of Europe, with which Hamburgh has dealings by way of exchange.

Of the WEIGHTS and MEASURES of HAMBURGH.

In their weights they reckon as follows, viz. 2 loodt = 1 ounce, 16 ounces = 1 lb. 10 lb. = 1 ſtone of wool or feathers, 14 lb. = a diſpound, 20 lb. = 1 ſtone of flax, 8 diſpound = 1 center, about 120 lb. avoirdupoiſe of London, 16 lb. is a diſpound, 20 diſpound = a ſchippound of feathers or wool, and 16 diſpounds = 1 tun of butter or tallow. 100 lb. of Hamburgh = 98 in Amſterdam, 103 $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. of Antwerp, and 107 $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. in London.

Of the ordinary CLOTH MEASURES of HAMBURGH.

100 Ells = in Amſterdam 38 $\frac{1}{3}$ auns, in Breſlaw 104 $\frac{1}{3}$ auns, in Dantzic 92 $\frac{1}{2}$ auns, in London 62 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards, in Nuremberg 87 $\frac{1}{2}$ ells. The Lubec ell is $\frac{1}{10}$ ſhorter than the Hamburgh one.

All ſilken goods are for the moſt part bought and ſold in Hamburgh by the Brabant ell, 5 whereof = 6 Hamburgh ells.

In regard to corn, they reckon 90 ſcheppels to a laſt, and 83 ſcheppels = 10 quarters in London.

Of the BANK of HAMBURGH.

This bank is judged to be inferior to none in Europe, in point of ſecurity. It is under the direction and management of four of the moſt diſtinguiſhed perſons of the city, who are, at certain ſeaſons, elected by the whole body of the republic, who ſtand engaged to make good all deficiencies that may happen by fraud or embezzlement of any kind. However, to prevent theſe things, the officers are obliged to ſtate and clear all their accounts twice a week.

Here they receive only, as at Amſterdam, the fineſt and beſt of their current money into the bank, and will allow $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{3}{8}$ per cent. to thoſe who make payments there in rixdollars.

This bank is under much the ſame regulation as that of Amſterdam; and all perſons who do buſineſs therein, are ſubject to divers fines and penalties, as checks upon their conduct. For inſtance, no ſum under an 100 marks can be entered in the bank, and for every ſum that is under 300 marks, 2 ſtivers muſt be paid for entering the ſame.

The time for writing in the bank is from 7 to 10 in the morning. You may write therein at any hour from 10 to 1, or from 3 to five, but then you muſt pay 2 ſtivers for every ſum that ſhall be entered within theſe hours.

The time for enquiring if a ſum has been entered in the bank, is from 7 to ten in the morning; yet a perſon may be informed at any of the hours between 10 in the morning and 5 in the afternoon, if he pays 2 ſtivers, and then he may aſk divers other queſtions of the like nature, at the ſame time, without farther charge. But the merchants, and other conſiderable dealers in the bank, commonly give the bank bookkeepers from 20 to 40 marks per ann. for any extraordinary trouble they may give them at undue hours; but none but the inhabitants of the city have the privilege of keeping accounts in the bank: if a ſtranger is deſirous of keeping an account therein, he muſt purchaſe his freedom of the city for that purpoſe.

This bank, however, will lend money to foreigners, as well as citizens, upon their pledging to them the value in jewels, plate, or the like ſecurities, to reſtore the like ſum with intereſt, for ſix months time; and, if they fail in ſo doing, the effects are forthwith expoſed to ſale, upon a day ſpecified in a placart affixed at the bar, to give notice to any perſon who is inclined to purchaſe them.

The bank is generally ſhut up from the laſt of December, to the 15th of January.

The agio is often very high here, it amounting ſometimes from 30 to 40 per cent.

REMARKS.

All bills of exchange are paid in bank.

The value of the rixdollar being every-where known, and it's ſtandard invariable, it is uſed to the valuation of all ſorts of merchandizes, and of all coins, and alſo in exchange.—But the current money in many reſpects differs from the rixdollar, as well in the fineneſs as weight; every prince, and almoſt every city in Germany coining a different ſpecies: and, by theſe coins, the commerce is regulated in every province and city reſpectively.

The principal current coins in thoſe parts, are thoſe of Denmark and Holſtein, and the cities of Lubec and Hamburgh. 125 Dollars current money $\frac{2}{7}\frac{3}{7}$ths ought to make 100 crowns or rixdollars, or crowns of the empire: ſo that the mark ſilver of 16 lots, or 12 deniers, which is 9 rixdollars, make 11 $\frac{1}{3}$ dollars of this current coin: and, by this proportion, the city of Hamburgh has always governed itſelf in it's commerce.

But his Daniſh majeſty and the duke of Holſtein, after obſerving the ſame regulation for many years, as their anceſtors alſo did, at length changed the rate of their money, and coined ſixpenny pieces, about 18 per cent. inferior to the ancient money.

Here began all the confuſion that has happened in theſe parts, on account of the coin; theſe princes, and eſpecially the king of Denmark, endeavouring by ſeizing the Hamburghers ſhips, to compel them to receive theſe new coins according to ſuch rate or value, as he arbitrarily impoſed upon them, and without any regard to the difference of their intrinſic value.

This neceſſarily cauſed the agio of the current coin, which before was at but from 14 to 16 per cent. in exchange for crowns of the bank, to riſe in proportion; till at laſt, before the introduction of the new money at Hamburgh, the agio roſe to 43 per cent. and the falſe coiners made their market of this diſorder, picking up all ſorts of the old ſpecies of money, which was good according to the ſtandard, melting them down, and ſelling them to the managers of the mint, to coin into ſixpenny pieces of the new alloy; or, which was worſe, coining them for themſelves of a yet baſer kind: and thus gradually all the good money diſappeared, and the ſixpenny pieces ſpread over the whole country, but eſpecially in the city of Hamburgh, till it threatened the ruin of the citizens, and of their whole commerce: for that viſibly declined, the value of houſes and land, which, according to cuſtom, were always rated in rixdollars, fell, and the public revenues were almoſt annihilated.

In this extremity the city of Hamburgh, after many deliberate conſultations how to prevent the growing miſchief, reſolved to coin a conſiderable quantity of money of her own, according to the ancient ſtandard which ſhe had long adhered to, and ſuch a quantity as ſhould be ſufficient to anſwer the ordinary demands of her commerce.

This being done, they publiſhed ſuch conſtitutions under the authority of their government, as ſhould fix an invariable agio upon this money, agreeably to it's intrinſic value, and ſettle the difference in all payments between the new money, and the payments in bank. This agio was found to be 16 per cent. and it was then ſettled accordingly; ſo that any one might receive 100 crowns bank for 116 crowns of the new money, and ſo vice verſa, any one paying in 100 crowns bank might receive 116 crowns new ſpecie.

For the eſtabliſhing this new ſettlement with more ſecurity, laws againſt falſifiers of the coins being always inſufficient to prevent the evil, they erected a bank of this new money in particular, after the manner of a fund for circulation, and according to the method of their predeceſſors, to preſerve the currency of the new ſpecies; which new bank was obliged to correſpond on all occaſions with the old bank: by which means, beſides making the payments of money eaſy and current on all occaſions, the new coin is preſerved from being clipped, melted down, counterfeited, or otherwiſe defaced in any manner whatſoever; for now there was no more to do, than to lodge the new ſpecies in it's proper bank, and upon any occaſion of payment, either in one ſpecie or the other, to write off the money, or transfer it, as 'tis called, by a draught, or aſſignment, from one bank to the other, as the nature of the payment directed.

By this regulation, payment of money in Hamburgh is now made the certaineſt and plaineſt thing imaginable, and the advantages thereof are apparent to all the trading part of the world: for the commerce of the city of Hamburgh greatly encreaſed upon this occaſion, all foreign merchants becoming abundantly ſatisfied with their payment of any ſpecie; becauſe they are ſecure that they can never ſuffer any loſs upon a coin, whoſe value is always the ſame, unalterably eſtabliſhed by authority, and liable to no change in it's intrinſic value.

It cannot be wondered if this regulation of the money, ſo much to the public credit and advantage of the city of Hamburgh, gave for ſome time a blow to the currency of the foreign money of Denmark and Holſtein, and that the king of Denmark took great offence at it: nor is it to be wondered,

that, finding the ſpecies of Hamburgh immutably fixed, the king took all meaſures to mortify the Hamburghers in other parts of their commerce: and this may account for all the prohibitions and edicts of the Daniſh court, for excluding the Hamburghers from their trade in Denmark.

HAMPSHIRE, is bounded on the weſt by Dorſetſhire and Wiltſhire; on the north by Berkſhire; on the eaſt by Surrey and Suſſex; and on the ſouth by the Engliſh Channel, and is above 150 miles in circumference.

The air of this country is pure and piercing, eſpecially on the downs. The ſoil is various as to it's fertility, the hilly parts being barren, like other downs, and fit only for ſheep; but the lower grounds are fruitful in corn and herbage. This county is particularly famous for it's honey; and their bacon is allowed by all to be the beſt in England, the ſwine being plentifully ſupplied with acorns from the New Foreſt, and other woods, in which they run at large. Kerſey and cloth is made here; and, though not in ſo great plenty as in Wiltſhire, Somerſetſhire, and Glouceſterſhire, yet ſufficient not only for home-conſumption, but for a foreign trade, which the convenient ports and harbours it has have brought to it; and, in the war with France, Portſmouth was a ſure market for any of it's commodities, as it always will be on ſuch occaſions.

SOUTHAMPTON, the county town, has been formerly a place of great trade, and famous for the great reſort of merchants to it, for the number and neatneſs of it's buildings, and for the wealth of it's inhabitants; but having loſt much of it's trade by the late wars with France, and other accidents, it has alſo loſt many of it's inhabitants. There are ſome merchants here that carry on the Port and French wine trade; but their greateſt dealings are with Jerſey and Guernſey. There are, indeed, others who trade to Newfoundland for fiſh, which they carry to the Streights, &c.

PORTSMOUTH, the key of England, and it's only regular fortification, ſtands at the entrance of a creek of the iſland of Portſea, which is about 14 miles in compaſs. Since the revolution, this port has flouriſhed mightily, being the conſtant rendezvous of the grand fleets and ſquadrons, for convoy of merchant ſhips homeward and outward bound. By theſe means it is ſo increaſed and inriched, that the houſes and inhabitants are near double to what they were before, and the fortifications as regular as any in Europe. A thouſand ſail of ſhips may ride ſafe in this harbour. The entrance is ſecured on Goſport ſide by four forts, and a platform of above 20 great guns. Goſport is a large town of great trade, where the ſailors wives live for moſt part, and travellers generally lodge, every thing being cheaper and more convenient there than in Portſmouth, and boats continually paſſing from one to the other, it being as Southwark to London, only there is no bridge; but it is all called Portſmouth, though they are different pariſhes.

CHRIST-CHURCH, is a large, populous borough. Here are officers employed to take care of the cuſtoms; but it is rather to prevent the ſmuggling of goods, than in expectation of a receipt of duties, the foreign trade here not being worth the mentioning. It's chief manufacture is ſtockings and gloves.

LYMINGTON, is a ſmall but populous ſea-port town, on a hill oppoſite to the iſle of Wight. It's chief trade is in ſalt, of which great quantities are made here; and it is ſaid to exceed moſt in England for preſerving fleſh. The ſea comes within a mile of the town; and, though the river on which it ſtands is not navigable very far up, yet here it makes a very good and commodious port for ſhipping.

WHITCHURCH is but a ſmall mean town; it's principal trade is in ſhalloons, ſerges, and other woollen manufactures.

ANDOVER is a great malting town, and it's chief manufacture is ſhalloons. To the weſt of it is a village named Weyhill, where is only a deſolate church, on a riſing-ground, with hardly a houſe about it, yet it is of note for a fair, reckoned one of the biggeſt in England for hops, cheeſe, and ſeveral other commodities; and for ſheep there is none ſo big, which the farmers come or ſend for from ſeveral counties.

RINGWOOD is a large thriving place, on the river Avon. It has a pretty good manufacture in druggets and narrow cloths, ſtockings and leather.

BASINGSTOKE, is a large populous town, and has a great market for all ſorts of corn, eſpecially barley, there being a great malt trade carried on here. Of late years the manufactures of druggets, ſhalloons, and ſuch ſlight goods, have been carried on here with good ſucceſs.

The ISLE of WIGHT. This iſle is ſeparated from the Britiſh continent by ſo ſmall, though rapid a channel, that it ſeems to have been joined to it. It is about 60 miles in circumference. The air is very healthy, and the ſoil as fruitful, it being obſerved that one year's crop of corn is enough to ſerve the inhabitants ſeven. Through the middle of the iſland runs a ridge of hills, where is plenty of paſture for ſheep, whoſe wool is in great requeſt among the clothiers; and here is found the milk white tobacco-pipe clay, the beſt in it's kind, which they export, as alſo fine white ſand, of which drinking-glaſſes are made, as good as thoſe formerly at Venice.

NEWPORT, the principal town, ſeated near the middle of the iſland, on Cowes River, is a large populous town. Small veſſels can come up to the key here, but the bigger ſhips deliver at Cowes, and the merchandize is brought up hither in barges.

COWES is the name of two towns, one on the eaſt, the other on the weſt ſide of it's river. Theſe ports throve apace while the heavy duties lay on the plantation goods; for then ſhips from Virginia and the Weſt-Indies uſed to unload here, pay the cuſtoms, take in their cargoes, and then proceed to Holland, Hamburgh, and other markets; by which they were entitled to a drawback of the greateſt part of thoſe heavy impoſts. Here alſo maſters of ſhips, and merchants homeward or outward bound, are furniſhed with money for bills, and the ſhips ſupplied with ſtores of freſh proviſions. Several merchants live here, and good houſes have been built within theſe 50 years; but it lies low, and is not reckoned very healthy.

JERSEY. This iſland lies about 16 leagues from Carteret, or Port Bail, in Normandy: it's buildings may be diſcerned from either coaſt. It is not above 12 miles in length, nor much above ſix where broadeſt, which is at the two extremities.

In the weſt part of the iſland is a large track of land, once a very good ſoil, and cultivated, but now a barren deſert, cauſed by the weſt wind's continually throwing up of ſand to the top of the higheſt cliffs. The middle part is ſomewhat mountainous, but the vallies have a rich ſoil, and are finely watered with brooks, that drive near 40 corn-mills, beſides fulling-mills. It produces all manner of trees, roots, and herbs, but not corn enough for the inhabitants, who have it from England and France, and ſometimes, for cheapneſs, from Dantzic; for the increaſe of the ſtocking manufacture has cauſed a decay of tillage, to the improvement, however, of navigation and commerce, and to the culture of cyder, of which no place in the world, of the ſame extent, produces ſo much; they having made in ſome years 24,000 hogſheads. Their butter and honey is excellent, which laſt bears four times the price of what comes thither from France. They have ſtore of fiſh common to other places, beſides ſome peculiar to this iſland.

The air of the iſland is healthy, and the people live to a great age. There is ſuch a vaſt chain of rocks about it, and the tides ſo rapid, that there is never any ſtill water, and the navigation is extremely dangerous to thoſe who are not perfectly acquainted with the coaſt.

ST. HELIER is the capital of the iſland; it's market is more like a fair. The inhabitants are chiefly ſhopkeepers, artificers, and retailers of liquor.

ST. AUBIN is a town of merchants and maſters of ſhips, who firſt ſettled here for the ſake of it's port, the beſt and moſt frequented in the iſland. It's market is rather an exchange for the merchants.

Trade, which is the life of this iſland, was very much improved before the late war with France, tho', in the main, they did not loſe much by it; for, as they lie ſo convenient, their privateering did, and always will, turn to their advantage. They not only trade to England and France, but alſo to Spain and Newfoundland, to which laſt place they ſometimes ſend near 30 ſail of ſhips.

It's ſtaple manufacture is ſtockings, which are knit by the women and children; whereof 8 or 10,000 pair have been bought weekly in St. Helier's market for exportation; though, ſince Colbert the French miniſter laid ſo high a duty on this manufacture as amounted to a prohibition, London has been their chief market. The wool they are wrought with comes from England, 2000 tods uncombed being allowed them yearly, by act of parliament, for the ſupport of the ſaid manufacture, and employment of their poor.

GUERNSEY. This iſland, about 24 miles diſtant from Jerſey, is naturally much more rich and fertile than it, but does not yield ſo much, the inhabitants neglecting the culture of it for the ſake of commerce. However, they are ſufficiently ſupplied with corn and cattle, both for their own uſe and that of their ſhips. Here is a better harbour than any in Jerſey, which occaſions a greater concourſe to it of merchants. It is full of gardens and orchards, and cyder ſo plenty, that it is the common drink of the meaner people, the better ſort having French wine almoſt as cheap as beer is in England.

The only harbour here is ST. PETER LE PORT, a little market town on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the iſland. The mouth of the haven is well ſet with rocks, and defended by a caſtle on each ſide. It has a good road, from whence ſhips may go out with any wind.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs; it is a healthy iſland, and fruitful both in corn and paſture. The inhabitants here are all compact together, for the greater ſafety, in one town of the ſame name, of about 200 houſes, and 1000 inhabitants. This iſland is not ſo much incloſed as the others. It is ſaid there is a common field of about 500 acres, that bears excellent corn, and has not once lain fallow this hundred years, being always kept in heart by a ſea-weed called uraic. The iſland has but one harbour, to the ſouth, called Crabbie, which is a good diſtance from the town, and only capable of ſmall veſſels.

SARK is another ſmall iſland, not above five miles in length, and three where broadeſt. The ſoil is, for the moſt part, hot and ſandy, yet fruitful enough to afford all neceſſaries for it's inhabitrnts; and fiſh and wild fowl they have in great plenty.

The trade extends no farther than to Briſtol, and ſome of the weſt ports; and the chief, if not the only manufacture of the iſland, is knitting of ſtockings, gloves, caps, and waiſtcoats, in which the men, women, and children are employed; and theſe they trade with to the ports of England, and return with neceſſaries, for which purpoſe they have ſeveral ſmall veſſels.

HANOVER. This is a part of thoſe German dominions that belong immediately to his Britannic majeſty, as elector of Brunſwick Lunenburg, or Hanover. The extent of the particular dominions of the elector are repreſented by the author of the Preſent State of Germany.

	Miles long.	Miles broad.
The principality of Grubenhagen -	40	40
The duchy of Hanover, or Calenberg	40	12
The duchy of Lunenburg -	80	50
The duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg -	30	15
The duchy of Bremen, including Verden	60	40
The county of Hoya -	30	15
The county of Diepholt -	30	10

The principality of GRUBENHAGEN is interſected in two parts by the biſhopric of Hildeſheim: that on the eaſt is bounded on the north by the duchy of Wolfenbuttle; on the weſt by Hildeſheim; on the eaſt by Hart's Foreſt; and on the ſouth, by Eisfield. The weſt part is alſo bounded on the north by Wolfenbuttle; on the ſouth by Oberwaldt; and, both on the eaſt and weſt, by Hildeſheim. Both parts are almoſt overgrown with woods of fir and pine, that formerly belonged to the Grabes, and is of a barren ſoil, moſt of it's treaſure being hid under-ground, eſpecially in the eaſt part, where are moſt of the mines of ſilver, copper, and lead, beſides the numerous ſorts of minerals.

The eaſt part is generally inhabited by miners. The chief places are,

ARDREARBURGH, famous for it's rich mines of iron.

EYMBECK, the capital of Grubenhagen: it ſtands in a fine corn country, and carries on a conſiderable trade in beer, which is in great requeſt, but was more ſo before the ſweet malt liquor, called the brewan, came ſo much in vogue.

GOTTINGEN is of moſt note lately for an univerſity founded here, in 1734, by his late majeſty.

Duchy of HANOVER, is very fruitful, has fine meadows and fields, breeds excellent horſes, and affords ſheep and wool for export, and ſalt and tobacco ſufficient for home conſumption.

The chief town of this duchy is

HANOVER, the metropolis, and the ſeat of the preſent elector. It is pleaſantly ſituated, in a ſandy ſoil, on the river Leine, which is navigable here for ſmall boats. Here are four trading fairs a year, much frequented by foreigners. It was once a free imperial city, and a hanſe-town, when it had a flouriſhing commerce [ſee the article HANSE-TOWNS] but its chief trade is now in beer.

BRUNSWICK-LUNENBURG DUCHY, in which Zell is comprehended, and therefore called Lunenburg-Zell, has the dominions of Brandenburg and Mecklenburg on the eaſt; the county of Hoye, with the duchies of Bremen and Verden, on the weſt; the territories of Lubec and Hamburgh, and the duchy of Saxe-Lawenburg, on the north; the duchy of Brunſwick, the biſhopric of Hildeſheim, and the duchy of Calenberg, on the ſouth.—The duchy abounds with woods and foreſt, conſiſting of good fir, oak, and elm, which they ſell to the Hamburghers and the Dutch, together with wild ſwine, and all ſorts of deer, and other veniſon; of which there is ſuch plenty, that the neighbouring princes and nobility have an annual aſſembly here for hunting.—A great part of it conſiſts of vaſt heaths and waſtes, the largeſt of which is on the weſt ſide, between Lunenburg and Harburg, where it is deſert for ſeveral leagues; yet in the barren parts the inhabitants keep bees, and make great profit of their honey and wax.—Their lakes, pools, and rivers, abound with good fiſh, and breed great numbers of pheaſants.

ZELL lies on a ſandy plain, near the conflux of the Aller and Fuhſe, 24 miles north of Hanover, 32 north-eaſt from Brunſwick, 35 ſouth of Lunenburg, and 47 ſouth of Harburg. Between this town and Harburg it is a ſandy road, with ſcarce any thing but heath. Though there is a great deal of heath between this town and Hanover, yet the country is very well cultivated; for the inhabitants not only make turf of the heath for fuel, but it alſo ſerves for paſturage and manure.—There is a trade from hence to Bremen by the river Aller.

WALSTRADE, on the river Bohme, is a conſiderable town, with a good trade in honey, wax, wool, and beer. It ſtands in a pleaſant valley, encompaſſed with woods and mountains.

HARBURG, on the river Lotze, near it's influx into the Elbe, almoſt over againſt Hamburgh. It has great privileges, is populous, and enjoys a pretty good trade, having near as convenient a ſituation for it as Hamburgh, with a tolerable harbour, which has been much improved ſince it fell into the hands of a power able to protect it from the inſults that Hamburgh is liable to from it's neighbours. The iſlands between this and Hamburgh are all of them very agreeable, being ſurrounded with dykes, and by that means being recovered out of the Elbe, and made firm. They look much like the meadows in Holland, and bring the owners a good revenue.

LUNENBURG, which gives name to the duchy, and is it's metropolis, ſtands on the river Elmenaw, which is navigable here, and falls into the Elbe 13 miles below the town.—It's chief trade is in ſalt, made from ſprings that riſe within the walls: the water is greeniſh, but a mixture of lead purifies it, and makes it preferable to that of all other ſalt ſprings. The ſalt-houſes are fenced, and conſtantly guarded, as being the main ſupport of the city, a conſiderable branch of the elector's revenue, and an inceſſant employment for the poor. The ſalt is eſteemed the beſt in Germany for colour and taſte, and, therefore, much of it is exported.

DANNEBERG, which gave title to a branch of the family, ſtands in the moſt eaſtern part of the duchy, on the river Jetze, 6 miles from it's influx into the Elbe, and 33 ſouth-eaſt of Lunenburg. It is the chief town of the rich and fruitful country of this name.

SNECKENBURG, which belongs to this county, is a large trading town, at the conflux of the Elbe and the Weckt, or Beſſe, 65 miles ſouth-eaſt of Lunenburg.

SAXE-LAWENBURG DUCHY is the fartheſt province to the north-eaſt of the king of Great-Britain's dominions, and lies on the north and ſouth banks of the Elbe, between Holſtein on the weſt and north; Mecklenburg on the eaſt; and Lunenburg on the ſonth. It abounds in paſture and good cattle, is well ſupplied with wood and water, and is, in ſhort, much of the ſame nature with Holſtein, and has ſome ſmall, but populous trading towns on the Elbe, beſides it's capital.

LAWENBURG TOWN is well ſituated for trade, only that is moſt engroſſed by Hamburgh.

The DUCHY of BREMEN has the Weſer on the weſt; the Elbe, and part of Lawenburgh on the eaſt; the German Sea on the north; and part of Verden, and Oldenburg, on the ſouth. The Preſent State of Germany makes it 60 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, including Verden, Between Bremen and Stade the country is deſert, and either a barren ſand or a moraſs; but the other parts towards the rivers are very pleaſant, and abound with fields, meadows, and orchards. The ſituation of the country between two ſuch navigable rivers has turned the thoughts of it's inhabitants in general to trade.

REMARKS.

The Swedes continued their maſters till 1712, when this country, and Verden, was conquered by the king of Denmark. This prince mortgaged it ſoon to the late elector of Hanover; who, in 1715, had 250,000l. granted him by the parliament of England, to enable him to make the purchaſe of it. There was an oppoſition, indeed, made to it, in both houſes, and a clamour raiſed againſt it without doors; but, however convenient it might be for the elector of Hanover, whoſe family was poſſeſſed of Bremen once before, and to whoſe dominions it lay contiguous, the Britiſh legiſlature wiſely judged it might be of the moſt dangerous conſequence to the crown of Great-Britain that any foreign prince, eſpecially a maritime power, ſhould hold the key, which the king of Denmark then had, of the Elbe and the Weſer.

Any one who takes the pains to peruſe the maps of this part of the empire will perceive, that, whilſt that king was in poſſeſſion of the duchies of Bremen and Verden, he was maſter of the ſea-coaſt from Denmark almoſt to the Seven Provinces. The maps ſhew that the Elbe runs, for above 500 miles through Bohemia, Saxony, Brandenburg, and the reſt of Germany; and that the Weſer paſſes, for above 250 miles, through Heſſia, Weſtphalia, Oldenburg, and ſome other countries of the empire; and the vaſt importance of theſe rivers to the Britiſh trade will be confeſſed by every one who conſiders that all our woollen, and other Engliſh manufactures, and almoſt all our commodities, both domeſtic and foreign, to the value of above 300,000l. a year, are by thoſe ſtreams conveyed to innumerable markets; and that, by the ſame navigation, a great part of our riches flows continually home to us; a trade too precious to have lain at the mercy of any foreign power, either to lock it from us, or to lay what impoſitions they pleaſed thereon, as might have been the caſe, if his late Britannic majeſty had not got Bremen and Verden out of the hands of the king of Denmark. In 1720 the crown of Sweden conſented in form to the diſmemberment of this duchy from it's other dominions, and confirmed it to the houſe of Brunſwick.

STADE, the ſecond town in the duchy next to Bremen, has a good trade and air, in a fruitful country, on the river Zwinga, Schwingel, which falls into the Elbe two miles below it, 27 miles weſt of Hamburgh, and 44 north of Bremen. This, beſides it's having been a free imperial city, and one of the hanſe-towns, was formerly endowed with great privileges, with a right of toll for ſhips paſſing up the Elbe; but became ſo poor, by Hamburgh's outſtripping it, that it was forced to ſell it's ſtock to that city, and put itſelf under the

protection

protection of the archbiſhop of Bremen, it having formerly been the capital of a marquiſate of it's own name, which was annexed to that ſee by it's marquis, in the 13th century. After it's above-mentioned decay, our Engliſh merchants, upon ſome diſguſt taken at Hamburgh, removed hither; which revived the trade, ſo that it again became rich and populous, and is in good condition at preſent, though the Engliſh returned to Hamburgh.

Here is a large commodious haven, that will admit larger ſhips than Hamburgh: and, as it ſtands fairer for trade than Bremen, and 30 miles nearer the ſea, 'tis thought ſtrange that it has not more engaged the attention of the miniſtry of Hanover.

BRUNSHUSEN, at the mouth of the Schwing, a fort where our king has a conſiderable toll; all ſhips, except the Hamburghers, that come up the Elbe out of the ſea, being obliged to ſtop here, and give an account of their lading; for which, when they come to Hamburgh, they muſt pay a certain duty to a comptroller, placed there by the government of Hanover: and an Engliſh man of war, of 24 guns, rides at anchor on the Elbe, at the entrance into the Schwing, in order to oblige them to bring to; which veſſel is of great ſervice alſo to the Engliſh trade and navigation in theſe parts, for preventing clandeſtine practices, and preſerving the rights and freedom of our commerce.

RITZBUTTLE, a bailiwic, conſiſting of a caſtle with fourteen villages, belonging to the Hamburghers, and ſituate on the coaſt where the South Elbe falls into the North Sea, not ten miles from the utmoſt point of land of this country, and 32 north-weſt of Stade. Here the Hamburghers have a pretty good harbour, called Cuhaven, which is of great benefit to ſhips coming on the Elbe in winter, when the river is full of ice. Here likewiſe their ſhips often ſtop, at their arrival from long voyages, for orders and news, and to know whether all is well with the city, before they venture up. Here are their privileged pilots, who, by their ſtatutes, are obliged to have a yacht always at ſea, near the outermoſt buoy, ready to put a pilot or two, as occaſion ſhall require, on board of every ſhip coming into the Elbe.

BREMEN, the capital of the duchy, ſtands in a fruitful plain, 23 miles eaſt of Oldenburgh, 60 ſouth-weſt of Hamburgh, 55 eaſt of Embden, 83 north-weſt of Brunſwick, 80 weſt of Lunenburg, 65 weſt of Zell, 90 north of Munſter, and about 460 north-weſt of Vienna.

'Tis a great, populous, and flouriſhing town, a free imperial city, and the third in rank among the hanſe. The inhabitants have the privilege of fiſhing from the bridge of Hoye, four German miles above Bremen, down to the ſea, as likewiſe in divers rivers which flow into the Weſer. The city is well ſupplied with fiſh, both from it's rivers and the ſea; and they have every month ſeveral ſorts in ſeaſon. Among others, they catch great quantities of ſalmon and lampreys, the former of which, being dried and ſmoked, and the latter pickled, are in great eſteem throughout all Germany. It has a juriſdiction about 10 miles round, abounding with paſtures well ſtocked with cattle, and is bordered with territories belonging to his Britannic majeſty, for which reaſon it always courts his favours.

HANSE-TOWNS. The hanſeatic ſociety was a league between ſeveral maritime cities of Germany, for the mutual protection of their commerce. Bremen and Amſterdam were the firſt that formed it, whoſe trade received ſuch advantage, by their fitting out two men of war each, to convey their merchants ſhips, that more cities continually entered into their league: even kings and princes made treaties with them, and were often glad of their aſſiſtance and protection: by which means they grew ſo powerful, both by ſea and land, that they raiſed armies as well as navies, enjoyed countries in ſovereignty, and made peace and war, though always in defence of their TRADE, as if they had been a united ſtate, or commonwealth.

At this time alſo abundance of cities, though they had no great intereſt in trade, or intercourſe with the ocean, came into their alliance for the preſervation of their liberties; ſo that, in 1200, we find no leſs than 72 cities in the liſt of the towns of the hanſe; particularly Bremen, Amſterdam, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Dort, Bruges, Oſtend, Dunkirk, Middleburg, Calais, Rouen, Bourdeaux, Rochel, St. Malo, Bayonne, Bilboa, Liſbon, Seville, Cadiz, Carthagena, Barcelona, Marſeilles, Leghorn, Naples, Meſſina, London, Lubec, Roſtock, Stralſund, Stetin, Wiſmar, Koningſberg, Dantzic, Elbing, Marienburg.

This alliance of theirs was ſo powerful, that their ſhips of war were often hired by other princes, to aſſiſt them againſt their enemies. They not only awed, but frequently defeated, all that oppoſed their commerce; and particularly, in 1348, they took ſuch revenge of the Daniſh fleet in the Sound, for having interrupted their commerce, that Waldemar III, then king of Denmark, for the ſake of peace, gave them up all Schonen for 16 years, by which they commanded the paſſage of the Sound in their own right.

In 1428, they made war upon Erick king of Denmark, with 250 ſail, and 12,000 men on board, ſacking and plundering all the coaſt of Jutland, &c. ſo that he was glad to make peace with them. Many were the privileges granted and confirmed to them by the kings Lewis XI, Charles VIII, Lewis XII, and Francis I, of France, as well as by the emperor Charles V, who had divers loans of money from them; and by king Henry III, who alſo incorporated them into a trading body, in acknowledgment for money which they advanced to him, as well as for the good ſervice they did him by their naval forces in 1206.

They exerciſed a juriſdiction among themſelves, to which purpoſe they were divided into four colleges, or provinces, diſtinguiſhed by the names of their four principal cities, viz. Lubec, Cologn, Brunſwick, and Dantzic, wherein were held their courts of judicature. They had a common ſtock or treaſury of Lubec, and power to call an aſſembly as often as neceſſary.

They kept magazines or warehouſes for the ſale of their merchandizes in London, Bruges, Antwerp, Berg in Norway, Revel in Livonia, Novogrod in Muſcovy, which were exported to moſt parts of Europe in Engliſh, Dutch, and Flemiſh bottoms. One of their principal magazines was at London, where a ſociety of German merchants was formed, called the Steel-yard company, to which Edward I. had granted great privileges; which in 1552, in the reign of Edward VI, were revoked by act of parliament, on complaint of the Engliſh merchants, that this company had ſo engroſſed the cloth trade, that in the preceding year they had exported 50,000 pieces, while all the Engliſh together had ſhipped off but 1100.

Queen Mary, who aſcended the throne the year following, having reſolved to marry Philip the emperor's ſon, ſuſpended the execution of the act for three years: but after that term, whether by reaſon of ſome new ſtatute, or in purſuance of that of king Edward, the privileges of the ſaid company were no longer regarded, and all efforts of the hanſe-towns, to recover this loſs, were in vain.

Another accident that happened to their mortification, was while queen Elizabeth was at war with the Spaniards; when Sir Francis Drake, meeting with 60 ſhips in the Tagus, laden with corn, belonging to the hanſe-towns, took out all the corn as contraband goods, which they were forbid to carry by their original patent.

The hanſe-towns having complained of this to the diet of the empire, the queen ſent an ambaſſador thither to declare her reaſons. The king of Poland likewiſe intereſted himſelf in the affair, becauſe the city of Dantzic was under his protection. At laſt, though the queen ſtrove hard to preſerve the commerce of the Engliſh in Germany, the emperor excluded the Engliſh company of merchant-adventurers, who had conſiderable factories at Stade, Embden, Bremen, Hamburgh, and Elbing, from all trade in the empire. In ſhort, the hanſe-towns in Germany, in particular, were not only in ſo flouriſhing, but in ſo formidable a ſtate, from the 14th to the 16th centuries, that they gave umbrage to all the neighbouring princes, who threatened a ſtrong confederacy againſt them; and, as the firſt ſtep towards it, commanded all the cities within their dominion or juriſdiction, to withdraw from the union, or hanſe, and be not farther concerned therein. This immediatly ſeparated all the cities of England, France, Spain, and Italy, from them.

The hanſe, on the other hand, apprehending danger, prudently put themſelves under the protection of the empire. And, as the other cities juſt now mentioned, had withdrawn from them, ſo they withdrew from ſeveral more, excluding them from their ſociety; and made a decree among themſelves, that none ſhould be admitted to their confederacy, but ſuch cities as ſtood within the limits of the German empire, or were dependent thereon, except Dantzic, which continued a member, though in no wiſe dependent on the empire, only it had been ſummoned formerly to the imperial diet. By this means they maintained their confederacy for the protection of their trade, as it was begun, without being any more envied by their neighbours. Hereby, likewiſe, they were reduced to Lubec, Bremen, Hamburgh, and Dantzic; in the firſt of which they kept their regiſter, and held aſſemblies once in three years at leaſt. But this hanſe, or union, has been for ſome time diſſolved, and now they carry on a trade every one ſeparately for itſelf, according to the ſtipulation in ſuch treaties of peace, &c. as are made for the empire, betwixt the emperor and other potentates.

HARPINEER, or HARPONEER, a fiſherman, employed in the whale-fiſhery of Greenland, who manages and throws the harping-iron, which is a ſort of ſpear faſtened to a line, wherewith they catch whales and other large fiſh in the Greenland ſeas.

The harponeers are the moſt dextrous perſons among the ſhip's crew. Their place is at the end of the pinnace, and they direct the ſteerſman as well as the rowers. When they come within reach of the whale, they dart their harpoon with great vehemence into a part near his head, ſo as to penetrate the ſkin and fat, and enter deep into the fleſhy part. Upon which the whale dives with ſurprizing ſwiftneſs to the bottom, and, when he returns to the ſurface of the ſea to take breath,

breath, the harponeer ſtrikes him again with another harpoon. See the articles FISHERIES, GREENLAND FISHERY.

HARTFORDSHIRE, is bounded on the eaſt by Eſſex, on the ſouth by Middleſex, on the north by Cambridgeſhire, and on the weſt by Buckinghamſhire, and is about 130 miles in compaſs.

The fertility of it's ſoil is more owing to the culture beſtowed on it, than to it's own natural goodneſs, but the air is accounted very healthful.

It's chief rivers are the Lea, Coln, Stort, Ver, and New-River. As there is little or no manufacture in this ſhire, which is full of maltſters, millers, dealers in corn, &c. ſo the trade would be inconſiderable, but that it is a great thoroughfare, and for it's neighbourhood to London, which makes the chief market-towns much frequented, for the ſale of wheat, barley, and all ſorts of grain, the growth of this and ſeveral other ſhires.

HARTFORD, the ſhire-town, is pleaſantly ſeated on the river Lea. The chief commodities of it's market, are wheat, malt, and wool. 'Tis ſaid it ſends 5000 quarters of malt weekly to London, by the river Lea. It's fair on St. Simon and Jude is for all ſorts of cattle; as is alſo another on the Saturday fortnight after Eaſter, and the Monday following; and it's Midſummer fair is chiefly for horſes.

HITCHIN, is reputed the ſecond town in the ſhire for number of ſtreets, houſes, and inhabitants. Great ſtore of malt is made here, and the market at which great quantities of it and corn are ſold, is held by preſcription free from the payment of toll for any ſort of grain that is vended here.

WARE, is one of the moſt noted towns in the county, and a place of trade by means of it's market, and it's navigable river the Lea. The market is a very great one, eſpecially for corn; and the malt trade here and in the neighbourhood is ſo large, that 5000 quarters of malt and corn are often ſent in a week to London by the barges, which return chiefly with coals.

HEMPSTED is a pretty populous town, watered by the river Gade; the market is one of the greateſt in the county for wheat brought out of the neighbouring counties; and 'tis ſaid to exceed even that of Farnham in Surry, 20,000 l. a week having been frequently returned there for meal only, which is ground by eleven pair of mills, within four miles of the place. Beſides it's great corn market, ſome thouſand pounds are returned here every year, in the mean manufacture of ſtraw hats.

TRING is a pretty little town, and the market no inconſiderable one, eſpecially for corn, of which here are very large granaries.

BARNET is a famous market for corn and cattle, eſpecially ſwine.

HATS, make a conſiderable article in commerce. Thoſe moſt in eſteem are made of the pure hair of the caſtor or beaver, which are plentifully taken in Canada, and other provinces of North America. They are alſo made of the hair or wool of divers other animals.—The method of making all is much the ſame.—To make the beaver hats, they tear off the long and ſhort hair from the ſkin, with knives ſuitable to the occaſion. After which, they proportion the quantity of the divers ſorts of beaver hair, by mixing one third of the dry caſtor or two thirds of old coat, which is a term for a ſkin that has been worn ſometimes by the Indians of America, who catch and ſell them to the Europeans. This hair, ſo mixed, is carded and weighed out into parcels, according to the ſize and thickneſs of the hat intended. The ſtuff is now laid on the hurdle, with an inſtrument called a bow, reſembling that of a violin, but larger; whoſe ſtring being worked with a ſmall bow-ſtick, and made to play on the furrs, they fly and mix them together, the duſt and filth at the ſame time paſſing through the chinks. Inſtead of a bow, ſome hat-makers uſe a ſearce of hair, through which they paſs the ſtuff. Thus they form hats of an oval figure, ending in an acute angle at top. With what ſtuff remains, they ſtrengthen them where ſlendereſt.—Yet they deſignedly make them thicker in the brim, near the crown, than towards the circumference, or in the crown itſelf. They next harden the ſtuff ſo managed into more compact flakes, by preſſing down a hardened leather thereon. This done, they are carried to the baſon, upon which laying one of the hardened hats, ſprinkled over with water, and a ſort of mould applied thereto, the heat of a ſmall fire, with the water and preſſing, imbody the ſtuff into a ſlight hairy ſort of ſtuff, or felt: after which, turning up the edges all around over the mould, they lay it by, and thus proceed to another. This finiſhed, the two are joined together, ſo as to meet in an angle at top, forming one conical cap.—The next ſtep they take is to remove the baſoned hat to a trough, reſembling a mill hopper, which is a copper-kettle filled with water and grounds, kept hot for the purpoſe; and after being dipped in the kettle, the baſoned hat is laid on the ſloping ſide, called the plank. Here they proceed to work it, by rolling and unrolling it again and again, one part after another, firſt with the hand, and afterwards with a ſmall wooden roller, taking care to dip it from time to time: till at length, by thus fulling and thickening it four or five hours, it is brought to the dimenſions intended. To ſecure the hands from being injured by this frequent rolling, &c. they uſually guard them with a kind of thick leather gloves. The hat thus wrought, they give it the proper form, by laying the conical cap on a wooden block, of the crown ſize, and tying it round with a ſtring, called a commander. After which, with a bent iron called a ſtamper, they gradually beat down the commander all around, till it has reached the bottom of the block: thus the crown is formed; what remains at bottom belongs to the ſtring, below the brim.—Then it is ſet to dry, and, when ſufficiently ſo, they ſinge it, by holding it over a flair of ſtraw, or ſhavings, and afterwards rubbing it with pumice to take off the coarſer nap; then it is rubbed over afreſh with ſeal-ſkin, to lay the nap ſtill finer; and, laſtly, it is carded with a fine card, to raiſe the fine cotton; then fitting it to the block, they tie it cut round the edges, and ſend it to be dyed, which is done in a copper ſo large, as to hold 10 or 12 dozen of hats. The dye uſed for this purpoſe, is made of logwood, verdigreaſe, copperas, alder bark, galls, and ſumac. Thus the hat is kept boiling for about three quarters of an hour, then taken out to cool, and returned to the dye, for ten or twelve times ſucceſſively.—The dye being compleated, the hat is returned to the maker, who dries it, by hanging it on the roof of a kind of ſtove, heated with a charcoal fire. When dry, it is ſtiffened with melted glue, or rather GUM SENEGAL [ſee that article] applied thereon, by firſt ſmearing it, and beating it over with a bruſh, and rubbing it with the hand. Then it is ſteamed on the ſteaming-baſon, which is a little hearth or fire-place, raiſed about three feet high, with an iron plate laid over it, exactly covering the hearth, or fire-place. On this plate they firſt ſpread clothes, which being ſprinkled over with water to ſecure the hat from burning, it is placed thereon, brim downwards. When moderately hot, the workman ſtrikes gently on the brim with the flat of the hand, to make the jointings incorporate and bind, ſo as not to appear; turning it from time to time, and at laſt ſetting it on the crown.—When thus ſufficiently ſteamed and dried, it is put again on the block, bruſhed, ironed, and well ſmoothed, and fitted for lineing.

REMARKS before the laſt war.

The proceſs of hat-making, or indeed of any other general manufacture, may appear inſipid to thoſe who do not enter into the public utility of bringing every manufactural art to it's laſt perfection; for excelling in that, and the article of cheapneſs, are the great wiredraws to gain or advance any branch of trade. And, by means of the goodneſs and cheapneſs of this manufacture, we have taken this trade out of the hands of the French, for this was a very conſiderable manufacture once in France, hats being made in immenſe quantities at Caudebec on the river Seine, and exported in great quantities to England, Spain, Italy, and Germany: but we have not only left off wearing theſe French hats, but have fallen into the way of making light hats like theſe, ſo much better, and yet ſo cheap, that there are ſcarce any hats at preſent made at Caudebec; what they uſe being made now chiefly at Rouen and Paris, and very few exported in compariſon to what there uſed to be; for England now ſupplies Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Germany, with hats in extraordinary quantities: and this manufacture, conſidered as a merchandize for exportation, is, in a great meaſure, loſt to that kingdom. But,

As this general manufacture greatly depends on the furr trade of North America; and as the French at Canada, and on the river Miſſiſſippi, are uſing every endeavour to draw off the Indians from our alliances, from whom we have a conſiderable part of the furr trade; it behoves us to be on our guard, to protect our colonies from their incroachment, and to cultivate a commerce with the Indians to the utmoſt degree it will admit of, by bringing them into ſuch a civilized European way of living, as may occaſion the greater vent of our manufactures among them. See the articles BRITISH AMERICA, CANADA, FRENCH AMERICA, FLORIDA, MISSISSIPPI.

It is true, the northern parts of Europe, as well as of America, furniſh us with great variety of furrs, of great ſoftneſs and luſtre. Yet the leſs quantity we take from foreign countries, and the more we take by means of our own plantation-trade in return for our own manufactures, the greater will our exports thither be, and the more independent ſhall we be in regard to materials, which ſupport ſo many valuable manufactures, as the ſkin trade with foreigners in general does.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

CANADA, and all it's DEPENDENCIES, being ceded to the crown of Great-Britain by the definitive treaty, [ſee AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA], we ſhall, in time, very probably, be able to graſp into Britiſh hands, the whole furr and peltry trade of Canada: and this, added to that of Hudſon's Bay, and what other branches

thereof we may naturally be preſumed to derive from our other new acquiſitions on the continent of America, eſpecially, if we ſhall be able effectually to attach the Indians to our intereſt, will enable us to obtain great plenty of materials for the manufacture of HATS of the beſt quality: and if we can be able to make them of a price ſuitable to the abilities of our foreigners cuſtomers to buy them, we can never want a vent of that article; and may, at a reaſonable rate, ſupply our home conſumption with a very good commodity.

HAWKERS and PEDLARS, in a trading ſenſe, are ſuch, who go up and down the town and country on foot or on horſeback with packs, &c. to ſell goods by retail.

The principal laws of England relating to hawkers and pedlars.

By ſtat. 8 and 9 Will. III. c. 25. every hawker, pedlar, or petty chapman, or other trading perſon, going from town to town, or other men's houſes,

	l.	s.	d.
If on foot muſt pay — — —	4	0	0
If with horſe, aſs, or mule, for every one of them four pounds a-piece — —	4	0	0

Every hawker, &c. muſt take a licence; and, if he travels without, or contrary to his licence, he forfeits for every offence, to the informer and poor of the pariſh where diſcovered, 12 l.

And, if he refuſe to ſhew his licence, being demanded by any officer of the peace, he forfeits to the poor where the demand ſhall be made 5 l. and for non-payment of the ſame muſt ſuffer as a vagrant, and be ſent to the houſe of correction.

Whoſoever ſhall forge, or travel with any forged licence, forfeits 50 l. one moiety to the king, the other to the proſecutor, to be recovered in the courts of Weſtminſter, and be ſubject to the penalties for forgery.

Perſons ſued may plead the general iſſue, and give the act in evidence, and, if verdict for them, ſhall have treble coſts.

Conſtables, or other officers, neglecting or refuſing to aſſiſt in the execution of this act, convicted on oath before a juſtice of the peace, forfeit for every offence to the poor and proſecutor, to be levied by diſtreſs, &c. 2 l.

Any perſon may ſeize and detain ſuch hawker till he produce a licence, or, if trading without a licence, till notice be given to a pariſh officer, who is to carry him before a juſtice of peace, who, upon confeſſion of the party, or oath of one witneſs, that the offender had traded without a licence produced, ſhall by warrant levy 12 l.

Not to extend to ſellers of

Acts of parliament.	Markets, ſelling goods therein.
Almanacks licenſed.	Prayers, forms thereof.
Fairs, ſelling goods therein.	Papers licenſed.
Fiſh.	Proclamations.
Fruit.	Victuals.
Gazettes.	

Makers or their agents, apprentices, children, ſervants, of any goods or wares in this kingdom, and ſelling goods of their own making.

Artificers, coopers, glaziers, harneſs-makers, plumbers, tinkers, or other perſons trading in mending kettles, tubs, houſhold goods, or harneſs, going about and carrying with them proper materials for mending the ſame.

All perſons may ſell any ſorts of goods in any public market or fair, as they lawfully might have done before the making the ſaid act. And, by 9 and 10 Will. III. c. 27. the act is not to extend to licence any hawker, &c. to ſell any wares, &c. in any city, borough, town corporate, or market-town, otherwiſe than might have been done before the making the ſaid act.

By 3 and 4 Ann. c. 4. the ſaid acts are continued from 1710, for 96 years; and every perſon trading as a hawker, &c. is to produce his licence on demand, or elſe he ſhall be liable to the ſame penalties, as if he had traded without a licence. And, if any perſon lend a licence to hire, the lender or the trader ſhall forfeit 40 l. one moiety to the king, and the other to the informer, to be recovered by action of debt, information, &c. and the lender ſhall forfeit the licence. But traders in the woollen and linen manufactures, ſelling their goods at markets or fairs, are not to be deemed hawkers. And makers and ſellers of Engliſh bone-lace, going from houſe to houſe, &c. are not adjudged hawkers, by 4 Geo. I. c. 6.

A conviction of a hawker refuſing to produce his licence.

Memorandum, That on, &c. at, &c. A. B. came before me, and, as well for himſelf as the poor of the pariſh, exhibited an information on oath againſt E. F. of, &c. that he the ſaid E. F. not being the real worker or maker of any goods, wares, or merchandizes, within the kingdom of England, &c. and not being the apprentice or ſervant of any real worker or maker of goods, wares, or merchandizes, on, &c. in the pariſh of, &c. was found wandering abroad from houſe to houſe, and trading as a hawker, pedlar, and petty chapman, carrying about with him divers parcels of goods, viz. &c. and that, in ſuch wandering, he the ſaid E. F. did expoſe to ſale ſeveral goods, not being in any market or fair, without producing any licence for the ſame, contrary to the ſtatute in that caſe made. And the ſaid E. F. after having been firſt ſummoned, in his own proper perſon, appearing before me one of his majeſty's juſtices of, &c. (and the information being read to him and heard) he the ſaid E. F. did confeſs before me, that he did on, &c. ſell, &c. as in the information mentioned. Whereupon it doth manifeſtly appear, that he the ſaid E. F. is guilty of the offence laid to his charge in the information; and I do hereby declare him convicted thereof, &c. In witneſs, &c.

A warrant to levy 12 l. for hawking without a licence.

Eſſex, ſſ. Whereas information hath been given unto me, one of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace for the ſaid county, upon the oath of C. D. of, &c. that A. P. of, &c. labourer, did, on the 4th of May inſtant, trade and hawk without licenſe, in, &c. and carried about, and expoſed to ſale, three pieces of ſilks, called, &c. he not being the maker of ſuch ſilks, nor apprentice, agent, child, or ſervant, to the real worker or maker of ſuch ſilks he ſo carried abroad and expoſed to ſale as aforeſaid, which the ſaid A. P. hath confeſſed before me upon his examination, contrary to a late act of parliament for licenſing hawkers, &c. For which ſaid offence he the ſaid A. P. hath forfeited the ſum of 12 l. the one moiety to the informer, and the other moiety to the poor of the pariſh of, &c. where the ſaid offence was committed: theſe are therefore to authorize and require you, or any of you, upon ſight hereof, to demand of the ſaid A. P. the ſaid ſum of 12 l. and, in caſe he refuſe to pay the ſame, that then you levy the ſaid ſum by diſtreſs and ſale of the goods, wares, and merchandizes, of the ſaid A. P. (ſending to him the overplus, if any be, reaſonable charges for taking the ſaid diſtreſs being firſt deducted) to be employed to the uſe above-mentioned; and, in caſe of his inability for payment thereof, that then you forthwith bring the ſaid A. P. before me, or any other of his majeſty's juſtices of the peace of the county aforeſaid, to be farther dealt with as the laws in that caſe provided do direct. And hereof fail not. Given, &c. See the article FAIRS.

HEMP, may be ranked in the ſame claſs with flax. See the article FLAX. When the hemp and flax have been gathered, which is done by plucking them from the earth, the ſtalks are expoſed to the ſun, in order to ripen the ſeeds, which are afterwards threſhed out of the heads, and then the ſtalks are tied up in bundles, and ſteeped in a ſtanding water (the cleareſt is always the beſt) they are faſtened to poles, and left to ſoak about 15 days.

When the ſubſtance of the ſtalk is almoſt rotten, the bundles are taken out and well dried. But, inſtead of ſteeping the flax in a ſtanding water, it is uſually expoſed to the moiſt air of the night, and the heat of the ſun, alternately, by which it receives a finer colour. When the flax and hemp are well penetrated, and afterwards completely dried, they are bruiſed by handfuls on a block, with a kind of mallet; all the bullen, which is the inward ſubſtance of the ſtem, flies off in ſhivers, by the force of the blows, and nothing remains in the hand of the beater but the thin bark, diſengaged in large threads, through the whole length of the ſtem. This parcel of threads is afterwards hung on a perpendicular board, and bruiſed with a wooden beetle, in order to ſhake out all the little ſtraws that may happen to remain in the bullen. All the groſs parts are now ſeparated from the ſtem, and the threads of the bark that remain in the hand of the manufacturer are intirely pure, and receive their perfection from the comb; or, in other words, they are drawn firſt through large cards, or iron teeth, and afterwards through others that are finer, that they may be purified from whatever may be ſtill too thick and groſs. This refuſe is what they call tow, of which matches for the artillery are made, and likewiſe a thick yarn, for packing cloths, whoſe uſefulneſs is infinite, ſince they wrap up and preſerve the moſt valuable commodities in their tranſportation from one country to another.

When the hemp has been thus prepared, it is tied up in bundles, to be ſent to the rope-yards; but, if it prove fine and fit for the ſpinſter and weaver, it is formed into twiſts, and fitted for the diſtaff and ſpindle.

REMARKS before the laſt war.

Hemp and flax are the materials of variety of profitable manufactures; for, though weaving of linen is not ſo much uſed in South-Britain as of woollen, yet in North-Britain it is, and may be further improved, not ſo much by laws to direct the workmen in their making it, as by apt methods to encourage them: and even in South-Britain ſeveral counties are employed thereon, who not only ſupply themſelves, but furniſh thoſe bordering on them with ſuch cloth as anſwers the ends of foreign linens we were want to import: beſides which, great quantities of ticking, of all fineſſes, incle, tapes, ſacking, girtwip, and many other things, are made thereof: alſo cordage, twine, nets, with multitudes of other manufactures,

factures, which employ the poor, and bring, by their exports, profit to the nation; and, with regard to ſail-cloth, we have made a wonderful progreſs therein, at the expence of private ſtocks. But, as we are under the neceſſity of importing very large quantities of hemp from foreign countries, the production of this article among ourſelves, and in our plantations, cannot be too plentifully cultivated, nor too highly encouraged. See the article NAVAL STORES.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE, 1763.

However excuſable we might be before the laſt war, for not ſupplying ourſelves from our North American colonies with HEMP, which has coſt this nation ſuch large out-goings to Ruſſia for that purpoſe, it is to be hoped we ſhall now be no longer neglectful of a matter ſo apparently intereſting to the kingdom; otherwiſe, to what end have we made thoſe conqueſts, and to what end have ſuch extenſive territories been ceded to the crown of Great-Britain? We can no longer complain for want of variety of climates, wherein this article may be plentifully produced, and that of the beſt qualities, and to the beſt advantage, as well of thoſe engaged in it, as the kingdom in general. As our whole mercantile, as well royal maritime power, depends on ſupplying ourſelves at a reaſonable expence with cordage, we ſhall never longer diſregard a matter ſo manifeſtly lucrative to the kingdom, out of complaiſance to a nation we are not ſufficiently obligated to, as to throw away near a million a year, for what we can have in our own territories.

The LAWS of ENGLAND relating to HEMP and FLAX.

By ſtat. 15 Car. II. c. 15. Foreigners uſing the trades of breaking, hickling, or dreſſing hemp or flax, and of making and whitening thread, and ſpinning, weaving, making, whitening, and bleaching cloth, made of hemp or flax only, and making twine, or nets, for fiſhery or ſtores, cordage, or making tapeſtry hangings, and taking the oaths of allegiance and ſupremacy before two juſtices, ſhall enjoy all privileges whatſoever as the natural-born ſubjects of this kingdom, after having exerciſed the ſaid trades three years; nor ſhall they be liable to other impoſitions than natural-born ſubjects, unleſs they trade as merchants to and from foreign parts, in which caſe they ſhall pay aliens cuſtom for five years next enſuing, and no longer.

HEREFORDSHIRE, is bounded on the north by Glouceſterſhire; on the ſouth by Monmouthſhire; on the weſt by Brecknockſhire and Radnorſhire; and on the north by Worceſterſhire and Shropſhire; and is about 108 miles in circumference.

The air is accounted good, and the ſoil is very fruitful, abounding in good corn and paſture, wool, water, and wood; and their cyder, the general drink of the county, was generally eſteemed the beſt in the kingdom till of late years, that the rough has been preferred to the ſoft, and the Southam cyder of Devonſhire has juſtly got the preference; not but that there is a great quantity of rough cyder made of late years in this county.

The rivers which water this fruitful county are the Frome, Loden, Lug, Wye, Wadel, Arrow, Dare, and Monaw: they abound with ſalmon, eſpecially the Wye.

It's metropolis, and only city, is HEREFORD, ſeated on the Wye. It's chief manufacture is gloves, and other leather commodities.

LEOMINSTER, or LEMSTER, is a large, handſome, populous borough town. It lies in a rich valley, through which three rivers run ſwiftly, where the inhabitants have mills, and other machinery in the various branches of their trade, which is very conſiderable in wool, hat-making, leather-dreſſing, &c.

KYNETON, is inhabited chiefly by clothiers, who drive a good trade in narrow cloths, and it's market is one of the moſt conſiderable in the county. Some of the wool of this county is eſteemed as good as Spaniſh wool.

REMARKS.

This county is reputed the orchard of England, it excelling many other places, in general, in good huſbandry. It is obſervable, that here the wiſeſt and beſt of our gentry are remarkably careful in purſuing ſuch kind of huſbandry as beſt agrees with the nature of the ſoil where they inhabit. From perſonages of the firſt rank, even to the meaneſt cottager, every habitation is encompaſſed with orchards and gardens, and in moſt places the very hedges are inriched with numberleſs rows of fruit trees. For the breed of large flocks of ſheep, the ſhepherds of Lemſter-orer and Irchin-Field are incomparably more expert than thoſe of any other county in England, and therefore the wool is ſuperior. Upon the whole, this county ſeems to be an example to all others in the kingdom.

HERRING-FISHERY. Under the article FISHERIES we have given a pretty ample account of the white herring branch: wherefore here we ſhall only obſerve the extraordinary progreſs which has been made therein ſince the parliament has been pleaſed to encourage the ſame.

The Society of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery have now off Shetland 50 veſſels, among which is the Prince of Wales's ſtore-ſhip, burden 330 tons; the whole protected by his majeſty's ſloop the Grampus. Beſides the above veſſels, there are 4 buſſes from the chamber of Whitehaven, 2 from that of Edinburgh, 2 from Montroſe, and 2 from Inverneſs; the total (with thoſe of the ſociety) make 60 Britiſh veſſels; on board of which are above 1000 ſhipped men. There are not many apprentices on board yet; but it is aſſured that the ſociety will have a large number next year.—Beſides the above veſſels, there are many private adventurers.

June 25, 1753.

FREE BRITISH FISHERY OFFICE, Royal-Exchange.

To the Truſtees of the ſeveral Charity-Schools and Workhouſes.

The Society of the FREE BRITISH FISHERY, being deſirous of furniſhing employment for the POOR (particularly children from 8 to 14 years of age) throughout the kingdom, in order to eaſe the ſeveral pariſhes, to which they are now a burden, and to aſſiſt in training up the preſent growing generation to INDUSTRY, to prevent their falling into the vices now in faſhion, the bad conſequences of which are but too viſible at this time: do hereby propoſe to employ charity-ſchools and workhouſes in braiding of nets for their fiſhery, in manner following, viz.

The charity-ſchool, or workhouſe, hires a man or woman, by the quarter, the half, or whole year, to teach the children, &c. to braid; which is firſt done with an ordinary ſort of twine, till ſuch time as the children, &c. are capable of braiding the twine, ſo as to be fit for the ſociety's nets.

As ſoon as a number of children, &c. are become expert at braiding, then the ſociety will ſupply ſuch ſchool or workhouſe with a quantity of good twine, in proportion to the number of children, &c. qualified to braid. This twine is weighed out to the ſchool or workhouſe, for which the overſeer muſt give a receipt. The charge of carriage, out and home, is to be borne by the ſchool or workhouſe; and is weighed out, by the overſeer, on delivering it, when braided, to the ſociety (or their agent) who will make an equitable allowance for waſtage in the braiding.

The meſhes are of two kinds, viz. the Shetland, or large meſh, and the Yarmouth, or ſmall meſh. The dimenſions of theſe will be beſt known by the ſamples, which the ſociety give, at their office, to each ſchool or workhouſe (or their agents) where they may likewiſe have pinns, of the proper dimenſions, for the performing this work.

The prices paid by the ſociety for braiding are, 16 d. per ſcore yards for the Shetland meſh, and 18 d. per ſcore yards for the Yarmouth meſh.—Each yard (in length) both of the Shetland and Yarmouth netting, is to be 80 meſhes deep.

It may be obſerved, that this ſort of work (braiding) is better adapted to children than to grown perſons.

By order of the COUNCIL,

John Lockman, Secretary.

REMARKS.

The Dutch, to the number of ten or eleven hundred ſail, enter fiſhing upon the coaſt of Shetland the beginning of June, where they continue fiſhing till the beginning of September, during which ſpace they load ſundry times, carry the firſt to Holland, where they ſell them at an exorbitant rate, ſeeing a hundred dollars is reckoned but a ſmall price for a barrel of herrings at Amſterdam or Rotterdam, for the firſt that are caught upon this our coaſt; afterwards, when they are ſerved, they ſend the other loads all over Europe, up the Mediterranean, and all over Italy; and the Italians, who are great eaters of fiſh, on account of their many lents, readily barter their goods with the Dutch for their herrings, the product of our coaſts; the profit of which muſt, upon a moderate computation, bring the Dutch in a million ſterling annually; they even diſpoſe of them at our own markets, and we have been ſo weak as to pay them ready money for them; ſo that, in this great article, the Dutch have hitherto outdone us, both in induſtry and prudence. But 'tis to be hoped, that we have at length ſeen through our miſtake, and ſhall make the beſt advantage of this bleſſing, that the divine providence has thrown in our way.

The Dutch method of curing and laſting, or caſking the herrings, though they have been always very ſhy, and backward to let any of the natives of the iſland of Shetland into it, yet, in ſpite of all the arts they could make uſe of to conceal that ſecret, it has been diſcovered, and their method is this:

After they have hawled in their nets, which they drag in the ſterns of their veſſels, backwards and forwards in traverſing the coaſt, they throw them upon the ſhip's deck, which is cleared of every thing for that purpoſe; for they never carry any boats or yawls along with them, as they would be an incumbrance to them in dreſſing the herrings; they carry many hands on board, even to the number of thirty or forty

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in each veſſel, whom they ſeparate into ſundry diviſions, and each diviſion has a peculiar taſk; one part opens and guts the herrings, another cures and ſalts them, by lining or rubbing their inſides with ſalt (which is all done upon the deck) the next packs them, and, between each row or diviſion, they ſp[illegible]kle handfuls of ſalt; then the coopers put the finiſhing hand to all, by heading the caſks, and ſtowing them in the hold; thus they go on, while barrels and ſalt laſt, and, when that is exhauſted, then they retire; but the jaggers or ſtore-ſhips commonly provide them with every thing neceſſary, ſo that they ſeldom or never depart the coaſt before they are brimful; and really (to give them their due) they are the beſt fiſhermen in the world; for they are not only ingenious in every article of their tackling or materials, but alſo diligent, induſtrious, and endure the great fatigue to admiration. See FISHERIES.

Further REMARKS ſince the laſt edition.

It has greatly puzzled and confounded many men of ſenſe, candour, and integrity, how it has come to paſs, that this deſign has not ſucceeded to the degree it was at the firſt expected: it has not ſeemed to want any neceſſary encouragement, which makes it the more extraordinary. What avails the liberality of nature to us, in beſtowing upon us ſuch immenſe ſhoals of theſe excellent fiſh, if we will ſuffer our neighbour and rival nations to reap the benefits of our rights and property, and we not? However bountiful we may chuſe to be to others, does it not appear impolitic to make ſo little advantage of what foreigners do ſo great, at our expence? Where the fault lies, I am not able to conjecture, it being thought the gentlemen, who have had the management of this deſign, have not been leſs judicious than incorruptible. The only colourable reaſon, which I have ever heard for the ill-ſucceſs, has been, that we are not able to carry on theſe our own coaſt-fiſheries at ſo cheap a rate as foreigners are able to do, though it has received ſuch encouragement.—— If this is the only true cauſe, ſhould it not alarm us? If the extent of our public debts and taxes are the occaſion of this, may they not ſoon operate as fatally upon our other branches of traffic? For if our produce, as well as manufactures, come ſo dear to foreign countries, that they cannot purchaſe them, 'tis no wonder that they will give the preference to thoſe ſold by foreigners at a cheaper rate, although foreigners know thoſe very produce comes from our own coaſts? When foreigners experience this to be the caſe, in regard to our whole produce, no leſs than our manufactures in general, does it not become the wiſdom of the nation to remove the cauſe, with all poſſible expedition, leſt we irretrievably loſe gradually our other branches of trade?

See the encouragement given by parliament to this FREE BRITISH FISHERY, at the end of this letter H.—The BUSINESS OF THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

The landgravate of HESSE, in Germany, lies on the north ſide of the river Mayne. The whole country is bounded on the north by Weſtphalia; on the weſt by the duchy of Berg, and electorate of Triers; on the ſouth by the electorate of Mentz, and Franconia; and on the eaſt by the duchy of Weimar, and Thuringen.

The air is cold, but healthful, the water wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful, producing much corn, and, towards the banks of the Rhine and Lohn, grapes. Here are alſo large foreſts, with ſtore of deer, and other game: and mountains, in which are ſome mines of copper and lead.

The chief commodity of this country is wool, the vallies abounding with ſheep, which have the fineſt in Germany. It uſed to be bought by the Engliſh merchants, and made into cloth here, or in their factories abroad.

CASSEL, one of it's principal towns, ſeated in a rich pleaſant plain, on the river Fuld, is a place of good trade for wool, and other merchandizes. It is obſerved, as a reproach to the inhabitants, that, for want of induſtry, they ſuffer other nations to run away with the profit of manufacturing their wool. The ſtreets of this city are ſpacious, and full of ſhops, and here are ſeveral fine markets, with good proviſions of all ſorts.

SMALCALD, 50 miles ſouth-eaſt of Caſſel, has a good trade for iron ware, many mines of the neighbourhood furniſhing the inhabitants with plenty of that metal, which they work and ſend abroad to foreign parts. They alſo make and temper ſteel, from whence a village near it is called Stahlberg.

GISSEN is a fair town; it's trade is dreſſing and ſelling of cloth.

FRIEDBURG is a rich and imperial city; it hath four annual fairs, one of which is held on the firſt Sunday after Trinity, in remembrance of the dedication of their church on that day, which at firſt brought only pedlars thither with toys, but came at laſt to a ſubſtantial trade.

WALDECK is a ſmall city, the capital of a principality about 20 miles in extent, which is reckoned one of the moſt conſiderable and wealthieſt in the empire, for it's bigneſs, and fertility in corn, wine, and paſture, beſides mines of coal, iron, copper, lead, quickſilver, &c.

The biſhopric of HILDESHEIM, in Germany. This country lies between the rivers Leina and Ocker, with Halberſtadt, on the north-weſt; and Lunenburg, or Zell, on the north; Grubenhagen on the ſouth; and is elſewhere ſurrounded by the dominions of the duke of Brunſwic.

The city of HILDESHEIM, which was one of the hanſe-towns, ſtands on the river Innerſte, 15 miles ſouth-eaſt from Hanover: it's chief trade is in corn.

HOLLAND. This province, including North Holland, otherwiſe called Weſt Frieſeland, is bounded on the weſt by the German Ocean; on the north by the Zuyder Sea; on the eaſt by the ſame ſea, by the province of Utrecht, and part of Gelderland; and on the ſouth by Dutch Brabant and Zealand. The ſoil is low and marſhy; but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in draining out the waters with mills and canals, it is made to yield very good paſture, and ſome corn.

This province is divided into South Holland and North Holland, generally named Weſt Frieſeland.

AMSTERDAM, the capital city of South Holland, is ſituated on the conflux of the Y and the Amſtel.

The ſtrong ſituation of this city, ſeconded by all the advantages that art can furniſh, ſecures the town againſt the attempts of an enemy from without; and the popular government places the force and power of the city in the hands of her proper magiſtrates, who are too much intereſted in the happineſs of it to wiſh a revolution. Theſe circumſtances ought naturally to procure a very great credit to the BANK, but are ſtill inſufficient to make money depoſited there of greater value than what a man has in his own cuſtody, which is in reality the caſe, however; and bank money is worth a great deal more than current. This is expreſſed by the word agio, a term denoting the difference between bank money and common ſpecie. In 1690 the agio roſe to 17 per cent. on account of a baſe coinage then made current; which being afterwards reduced to near the intrinſic value, the agio has been ſince from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$, and ſometimes even 6 per cent. part of which may be accounted for thus: a ducatoon paſſes for 63 pence in current payment; but, when paid into the bank, it is only received for 60 pence, or 3 guilders, which is it's intrinſic value, the odd three-pence having been added to it to anſwer the charges of the mint. In the ſame manner wedges, bars, and ingots of gold and ſilver are received in the bank by their weight, and the ſum brought to the account of the proprietor. Thus there is a real difference of 5 per cent. between bank and current money; but the agio fluctuates with the exchange; ſo that it is not abſolutely determined by the difference of intrinſic value between one ſpecie and the other. This will be underſtood more perfectly, by obſerving that all bills of exchange drawn upon Holland muſt, if the proprietor pleaſes, by the cuſtoms and laws of the country, be paid in bank, which neceſſarily obliges every conſiderable merchant to keep an open account there: and thus bills of exchange drawn upon Amſterdam or Rotterdam are, after acceptance, frequently lodged in the bank; and the acceptor is obliged, at the time they become due, to make a transfer of bank money to the proprietor's account, for the amount of the bill, which would otherwiſe be liable to a proteſt, without ever preſenting it for payment, after it has been once accepted. Thus when large remittances are made upon the bankers of Amſterdam, and they are under a neceſſity from thence of having a great deal of money in bank, the agio riſes; it ſinks in proportion when, on the contrary, there are many ſellers and few buyers. But, when this happens, the directors have recourſe to ſtratagem, in order to keep up the value of the agio, by agreeing privately with ſome of the monied men to buy up ſuch a quantity of bank money as anſwers the immediate neceſſity of the ſellers. Thus appearances are ſaved; and, by ſupplying their agents with caſh in the moſt ſecret manner, they ſupport the common opinion, that the whole buſineſs of the bank of Amſterdam is managed by transfer, and that no money is ever iſſued thence upon any occaſion.

It coſts near a pound ſterling to open an account with the bank, and ſix-pence for each transfer; and there is a penalty on every perſon that draws upon the bank within about two pounds ſterling of the whole money he keeps there; and the advantage made upon all this is applied to pay the clerks, and defray other charges: whence it is evident, that every proprietor pays conſiderably for keeping his money in the bank, inſtead of drawing an intereſt upon it.

The reaſon of which is, a firm belief that it remains untouched, which opinion is induſtriouſly ſpread by thoſe concerned.

If the bank lends money occaſionally, it is certainly to the directors of the Lombard, an incorporated body, authorized to lend money upon pledges, at a moderate intereſt. This being granted, it will prove, indeed, that the bank traffics, in ſome proportion, as well as the other banks in Europe; but this can be no juſt cauſe of diſcredit, the money being advanced upon real ſecurity; for the Lombard lends ſufficiently within the intrinſic value of the pledge, and the intereſt is not ſuffered to accumulate. Thus the elector of Bavaria's jewels, pawned to the Lombard of Amſterdam, were more than once ordered for ſale, and would certainly have been ſold, had not the intereſt been diſcharged. Where a pawn is very conſiderable, and a large ſum demanded, probably the

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bank both advances the money, and receives the intereſt, under the borrowed name of the Lombard. Thus if a merchant has a commodity not periſhable, as tin or lead, for which there may poſſibly be no immediate demand, he may have two-thirds of the value advanced, on a very ſmall intereſt, which enables him to wait for his market. The uſe and advantage of ſuch practice, in a trading country eſpecially, is very obvious; but the reaſon of this conduct's being made a ſecret may be, that ſhould, the proprietors of treaſure there know it to be ſo, they would be apt to think they might employ it that way themſelves.

As to the government of the bank, it is very ſolemn and regular. The whole city is bound to make good the money there depoſited, and the treaſure is ſecured under four different locks, the keys of which are kept by four of the principal magiſtrates, one of whom is always the preſident burgomaſter for the time being.

The harbour of Amſterdam is one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe; but there is at the entrance of it a bar of mud and ſand, called the Pampus. It could have been eaſily removed, but the magiſtrates choſe rather to leave it, for very good reaſons: for, as the large veſſels cannot come into the harbour without being unloaded, or carried over the bar by what they call camels; ſo that ſame bar ſecures the city, no enemy's fleet being able to approach it; beſides, it affords a livelihood to vaſt numbers of people continually employed in loading and unloading the veſſels.

This city alone is in poſſeſſion of half that immenſe trade which the Dutch carry on to the Eaſt-Indies, and governs the whole. It's commerce with Spain and the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies is very great, nor is it leſs conſiderable to the Levant, Italy, and Portugal. It alone ingroſſes the whole Northern trade, which the Dutch carry on to Norway, and the countries ſituated on the Baltic, Denmark, Sweden, Pomerania, Livonia, Poliſh Pruſſia, and Muſcovy, together with the greateſt part of Germany. Navigation and general commerce between this city to France and England are not very great, but the correſpondence between the bankers, or money-negociators, of Amſterdam and thoſe of London and Paris, and the buſineſs of exchange, is very conſiderable.

To this prodigious extent of foreign commerce may be added the manufactures, which, though carried on in other towns of Holland, are alſo more or leſs practiſed here, excepting only Delft ware. A multitude of hands are employed in all kinds of tapeſtry: there are numbers of mills for ſawing all ſorts of wood; others to work and poliſh marble; powder-mills, ſnuff-mills, and for drawing oil from ſeed; refineries for ſugar, ſalt, cinnamon, borax, ſulphur, yellow wax, &c.

HAERLEM, 10 miles weſt of Amſterdam, is a large and populous city, and a place of good trade; for, beſides the fine linen wove here, they draw vaſt quantities from the neighing provinces of Groningen, Frieſeland, and Overyſſel, from the country of Cleves, and even from Sileſia; all which are bleached at Haerlem, and receive that beautiful white ſo generally admired, and for which the waters here have a particular quality hardly to be met with elſewhere. They alſo manufacture here plain and flowered velvets, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, rich and light ſilks, gauzes, &c.

LEYDEN is advantageouſly ſituated, in the middle of the other cities of Holland, and is ſurrounded with canals. There is here an annual fair, which begins on Aſcenſion-Day, and continues a whole week.

There is a woollen manufactory carried on here in all it's branches of broad and narrow cloth, camblets, ſerges, druggets, &c. but that of cloths is very much decayed of late, their trade to Turkey and the Levant being almoſt loſt, as well as that of England, and engroſſed by the French, their common rival.

DELFT is a large and ſtately city, and is famous for it's fine earthen ware, made in imitation of china, and called Delft ware. Here are alſo a great many brewers, who make a vaſt quantity of excellent beer, which is ſold in the villages round. They have likewiſe a few clothiers, employed in the woollen manufactory.

ROTTERDAM is ſeated on the north bank of the Maes. The canals which run through this city are ſo very broad and deep, that ſhips of the greateſt burden lade and unlade at the merchant's doors.

This city is in poſſeſſion of the trade to Great-Britain and Ireland, almoſt to the excluſion of all the reſt. It's commerce to France is likewiſe very conſiderable, and much ſuperior to that of any other town in the province; it's trade alſo to the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies; and to the Levant, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, is conſiderable.

The glaſs-houſe here is one of the beſt in the Seven Provinces: it makes abundance of glaſs toys and enamelled bowls, which are ſent to India, and exchanged for China ware, and other oriental commodities.

SCHIEDAM is a ſmall but populous town, where they make a vaſt quantity of fiſhing-nets for their herring buſſes.

The BRIEL ſtands in the iſland of Voorn, near the mouth of the Maes. This town has a convenient port, which brings it a pretty good trade, and makes it populous.

DORDRECHT, and by abbreviation DORT, is a large, rich, and populous city, and was formerly famous for the Engliſh trade, as it is now for Rheniſh wine, which is brought down the Rhine by a very cheap and commodious tranſport; and a vaſt quantity of timber is ſent from Germany in floats down that river, directly to this city, from whence it is diſtrbuted, into other parts of Holland. The beſt linen thread is ſpun here, and they have ſeveral refiners for ſalt, and now and then an Engliſh ſhip unloads at Dort; and the magiſtrates omit nothing that may poſſibly encourage our countrymen to return thither; but at preſent there is no appearance that they will ever recover the Engliſh trade from Rotterdam.

GORCUM is a neat well-built city. They have a daily market for corn, butter, cheeſe, fowls, wild ducks, and other proviſions, brought thither by the river Ling, on the mouth of which it ſtands, from the country of Betau in Gelderland, which they ſend by the Maes into Holland, Zealand, and adjacent countries.

SCHOONHOVEN ſtands on the river Lech, and is chiefly famous for the great quantity of ſalmon catched here, of which they have a very good trade; and they have conſiderable advantage by herring-fiſhing.

GOUDA, GAUDA, or TER-GOW, is ſeated on the ſmall river Gow, and the Yeſſel, which, about five miles lower, falls into the Maes. There were formerly here 350 brewhouſes, which furniſhed Zealand and a great part of Flanders with beer; but that branch of trade is dwindled almoſt to nothing; and their chief manufactures at preſent are of cordage, and particularly of pipes, which are the neateſt in the world, and of which they have a very extenſive trade. They make, alſo, in the neighbourhood of this city, a vaſt quantity of bricks and tiles.

In North Holland, or Weſt Frieſeland are

SARDAM, at the mouth of the river Saren; it is but a village, yet deſerves mentioning, for it is very populous and large, and ſo remarkable for ſhip-building, and well ſtored with ſhip-carpenters, that they build here above 300 veſſels a year: and theſe carpenters, if they have but two months notice, will undertake to build, during the whole year next following, a man of war every week ready to launch. This is their chief trade, by which their town is grown very rich.

EDAM, at a ſmall diſtance from the Zuyder Sea, to which it has a ſmall channel, which makes a pretty good haven. It's chief trade is ſhip-building, and making excellent cheeſe, with a red rind, much like our Cheſhire cheeſe.

ALCMAER is a beautiful town, ſurrounded with pleaſant gardens and rich paſtures. From the milk of their numerous herds of cows they make vaſt quantities of cheeſe and butter, which inriches the town.

HOORN, ſituated on a bay of the Zuyder Sea, is a pleaſant, rich, and large town; the trade of it conſiſts chiefly in butter and cheeſe, great quantities of which they export to Spain and Portugal, and other parts, eſpecially at their annual fair, in the month of May. They have alſo a conſiderable trade in Daniſh cattle, which, being brought lean here, are fattened in the adjacent paſtures, and then drove to the other places in Holland. They have alſo here a good trade in building ſhips, which makes it a rich and ſplendid town, having beſides a ſhare in the whale-fiſhery. Here is one of the ſix chambers of the Dutch Eaſt-India company: the chamber of North Holland for the Weſt-India company is alſo ſettled here.

ENCHUYSEN ſtands on the Zuyder Sea: the harbour is one of the beſt in this country. They build many ſhips here, drive a great trade in herring-fiſhing, and ſend large fleets into the Baltic, and other places; by which, as alſo by their refining ſalt from Britany in France, the city is in a very flouriſhing condition.

MEDENBLICK lies on the Zuyder Sea, ſeven miles north-weſt of Enchuyſen. The town is ſmall, but has a noble harbour, capable of containing 300 large veſſels. The chief trade of the inhabitants conſiſts in timber, which they fetch from Norway, and other places in the Baltic. The neighbouring country abounds in excellent paſtures, where they breed a prodigious number of cattle. See our articles FLANDERS, DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, DUTCH WEST-INDIA COMPANY, NETHERLANDS.

An account of the BANK of LOAN of Amſterdam, commonly called the LOMBARD.

This houſe was firſt built as a magazine for the uſe of the poor inhabitants, and was finiſhed in the year 1550, and made uſe of on the 19th of Auguſt, and in the year 1614; and then the following reſolution was taken by the magiſtrates of Amſterdam:

'Whereas the ſix-and-thirty lords of the council of Amſterdam have thought it fit and uſeful that the table of loans 'ſhall be ſupported by the city, and belong to it; and that 'alſo the houſe of the poor inhabitants, ſituated on the Old 'Side, ſhall be appropriated for this: therefore have the lords, 'the burghermaſters of this city, at the deſire of the maſters 'of the ſaid houſe, given 2000 guilders a year, during the 'time the aforeſaid houſe ſhall be made uſe of as before-men-'tioned: to begin on the firſt of May, 1614. And the lords 'burghermaſters promiſe, on the part of the city, to cauſe

'the ſaid 2000 guilders to be paid to the maſters of the afore-'named houſe. In witneſs of which, the ſeal of the city 'was hereunto affixed, January 19, 1615.'

The government of Amſterdam hearing daily the melancholy complaints of their poor inhabitants, and how they were forced, in time of want, and when oppreſſed by poverty, to pawn their goods to the pawnbrokers and lombards, and were vexed by large unreaſonable intereſt, have reſolved (in order to free them of ſuch a conſuming intereſt) to erect by the city ſuch a bank of loan, or Lombard, as the above-cited reſolution ſets forth.

This reſolution being taken by the thirty-ſix counſellors, they ordered the ſaid houſe to be fitted up for it on the 25th of April, 1614, and prohibited other perſons to lend in this manner, either in public or private, truſting the direction of this bank to two commiſſioners, the firſt of which were Mr. Francis Henry Oetjens, formerly burghermaſter, and Mr. Jonas Cornelius Witſen, formerly a judge. Theſe were choſen by the burghermaſters; and the ſaid commiſſioners were either yearly changed, or continued at the pleaſure of the magiſtrates.

The city increaſing in extent and number of inhabitants, there was another very large houſe built; and it was, in the year 1669, joined to the aboveſaid houſe. Since the enlargement of the buildings there is a place made on the ſide of the canal, where the goods that have been left a year are publicly ſold; and in the front of one of theſe building is wrote, On the 29th of April, 1514, was the firſt pawn brought in here.

The commiſſioners of the city ſit in the new building, and ſee none but the great pawns; the leſſer being managed by a ſervant appointed by them, at a building in the middle of the ſtreet, where a gate of ſtone is built, with a baſſe relief, repreſenting the manner of borrowing, &c. The lenders ſit every day in the morning, from eight till eleven, and, in the afternoon, from two till four o'clock, to lend on all pawns, and to releaſe them, except on Wedneſdays in the afternoon.

The above-named commiſſioners meet every morning, from nine till eleven o'clock, and no longer, and then enter into a book all the pawns on which a hundred guilders and upwards are lent, and which are called the great pawns. They alſo keep the account of the caſh themſelves, and keep all theſe large pawns in their own cuſtody, ſo that none can come at them without their conſent: they have alſo in their own keeping the great cheſt with money; and in their ſervice a perſon who has the direction over all the inferior ſervants; alſo a caſhier, who is called the great caſhier, and an appraiſer of the jewels, gold, and ſilver, who is obliged to appraiſe theſe treaſures at his own peril; for, if the bank ſhould hereafter loſe by it, then he muſt make it good, for which he gives ſufficient bail.

The above-named great caſhier gives ſecurity for 10,000 guilders. The ſervant who looks after the goods gives bail for 4000 guilders. There is, beſides this, an appraiſer of woollen goods that are valued at above 100 guilders; and the caſhier makes up his accounts with the commiſſioners every month. If he has then much money in his hands, he is obliged to deliver it up to the commiſſioners; if he has but little, then they give him what they think neceſſary; and theſe commiſſioners deliver up their accounts every year to the burghermaſters, who appoint alſo the under-ſervants; that is, as far as it regards the great bank of the pawns of above 1000 guilders each pawn.

The little bank has a caſhier; four lenders, who lend on all pawns that are not of gold or ſilver, according to their orders; three releaſers, to whom all who come to redeem their pawns muſt addreſs themſelves. Theſe have likewiſe a book-keeper, or comptroller, and each of them finds ſecurity for 400 guilders. Theſe lenders tax all ſmall pawns under 100 guilders; and thoſe who pawn their goods receive a note, on which the name of the owner, and the ſum, or the value, is wrote, as alſo the quantity of the things; and ſuch a note is alſo hung to the pawn. When this has been ſhewn to the caſhier, then he gives the money upon it, and enters it in the book, which he daily examines, and checks with the book-keeper's book. All theſe goods are ſet down by the book-keeper, and he makes each chamber (which are divided according to the values) debtor to the caſh. Here is alſo a chamber for ſilver, from 95 guilders to 25; and one from 25 guilders to one guilder.

The chamber of copper, pewter, and pictures, belong to the firſt chamber of ſilver; there are beſides chambers for woollen and linen goods, as one from ninety-one to twelve guilders; one from twelve to five; from five to three and to two guilders; and one from two guilders to two ſtivers, or pennies. Each of theſe chambers have a keeper of the pawns, or an overſeer, who, when any one comes to redeem his pawn, goes with the above deſcribed note to the redeemer, who ſends it up to the keeper of the pawns, who muſt then immediately deliver it up. The chamber or warehouſe-keepers muſt anſwer for all the pawns delivered into their cuſtody, and, if any are miſſing, then they muſt make them good. All theſe pawns lie in order, each in their proper chamber, and every one according to it's month and day, that ſo they may be the eaſier found.

All the notes for the pawns are wrote in cypher, or unknown characters, and none can read them but thoſe who have the key, that ſo all deceit and counterfeiting may be prevented. All theſe chambers are kept very neat and clean by the pawnkeepers, and they are every day aired by opening of the windows. This bank has twelve watchmen to prevent all thieving; theſe walk about all night, and the ſervant of the bank (who lies there) is the captain of them, becauſe the city muſt make good all that is ſtolen. All theſe ſervants are under oath of fidelity and ſecrecy.

This being the foundation of this very laudable work, it was neceſſary, in order to keep it up, to ſupport it by good decrees, which were made on the 25th of April 1614, and on the 8th of July 1616.

All pawns worth leſs than a hundred guilders, or about ten pounds, pay every week one ſixteenth part of a ſtiver, or one ſixteenth of a penny intereſt. Thoſe from a hundred to four hundred ſeventy-five guilders, at the rate of eight in the hundred in a year; and all pawns of five hundred guilders and upwards, ſix in the hundred in a year. To be thus underſtood, that, at all times when the owner will redeem his pawns, in that caſe, the weeks, months, and ſix weeks entered into ſhall be counted, and they do not lend by days.

This city is ſecurity for all pawns that are delivered into the hands of theſe managers, who are obliged to reſtore the pawns to thoſe who bring the notes, and pay the ſum borrowed with the intereſt, without taking any notice whether they be the real owners or no, unleſs it appeared to them that there was a manifeſt deceit; for, in that caſe, all ſtolen and intruſted goods are reſtored to the owners, provided they give ſecurity to the ſatisfaction of the directors.

If it ſhould happen that the pawns depoſited in this houſe ſhould be loſt by fire, or other ſtrange accidents, in ſuch a caſe, the owners of the pawns on which from a hundred guilders to five hundred guilders and upwards are lent, muſt bear and ſuffer the loſs, and they are beſides obliged to pay the ſum they have borrowed on them.

All pawns that are brought into this houſe, and have lain there a year and ſix weeks without paying the intereſt that is due, unleſs that the owners have agreed with the directors, are ſold either by auction before the door, or within by brokers, which is done four times in the year. Though the overplus money goes back to the proprietors, yet the intereſt goes on to the prejudice of the owner, 'till the money for which the pawns are ſold is received. Thoſe whoſe goods are thus ſold, are obliged to demand and to receive this money; out of which the charges of the ſales are deducted, within three years, according to the orders of the 24th of March 1616, elſe the ſaid ſurplus goes to the profit of the poor of the city. And thoſe who ſhall after that time demand the ſaid overplus money, ſhall be deprived of all right to it; nor ſhall the overſeers of the poor, who may receive this money, be obliged to reſtore it.

In order to prevent all damages or loſſes by ſales, an auctioneer is appointed, who is choſen out of the moſt ſkilful officers of this bank, and who gives ſecurity that the goods ſold ſhall be paid for, before he lets them go; and he has from the city five in the hundred for his trouble, on condition that he ſhall anſwer all loſſes.

If it ſhould happen that ſtolen goods were brought into this bank of loans, and money was advanced thereon, then the right owner cannot have his things back without returning back the money, unleſs he had given notice to the bank that ſuch goods were ſtolen before any money was lent on them: in that caſe, the goods are retained and reſtored to the owner; for which he is to give ſomething to the poor's box, of which the burghermaſters have the diſpoſal.

On the 30th of January 1682, all this was confirmed and explained by a placart, or ſort of proclamation.

When any perſon loſes his note, and comes to claim his pawn, then he muſt give ſecurity, to the ſatisfaction of the directors; and the bail is attacked by a ſudden execution, in caſe any fraud be diſcovered.

On the 24th of April 1682, it was ordered by the government, that none ſhould lend money on any moveable goods; and alſo that no private perſon ſhall be allowed to keep a lombard-houſe, (which anſwers to our pawn-brokers ſhops); and that no perſon whatever ſhould lend leſs than a hundred guilders on goods, nor then take more than four in the hundred for the intereſt of a whole year.

The government of the city having found, that, notwithſtanding their repeated orders, many perſons did ſecretly lend money on pawns at a high intereſt, and kept lombard-houſes to the great prejudice of the bank of loan, and alſo to poor people, who were quite exhauſted by them, therefore they publiſhed, on the 27th of January 1684, the following order:

I. That hereafter no perſons whatſoever ſhall be allowed to make it their buſineſs to lend money on moveables uſually brought into the bank of loan, at a higher intereſt than at the rate of four in the hundred in the year; and that thoſe who ſhall be convicted to have erected a lombard in their houſes ſhall not only be deprived of all right or action againſt

againſt the owners or givers of ſuch pawns, who ſhall have power to challenge them and retake them at any time, without reſtoring the money borrowed, or the intereſt; but ſuch lenders ſhall beſides be fined in a ſum equal to the ſum they ſhall have ſo lent; and, beſides that, according to the circumſtances, they ſhall undergo a farther puniſhment, according to the will and arbitration of the judges.

II. That thoſe who heretofore uſed to make ſuch loans, and continue to do it, be obliged, after the time for which the money is lent ſhall be expired, to reſtore all the pawns to the owners, and not continue them at a higher intereſt than at the rate of four in a hundred in a year, or to bring them to the bank of loan, where they will receive what is due. Thoſe who ſhall fail to follow this order, ſhall be ſubject to the penalties mentioned in the firſt article.

III. That hereafter no perſon whatſoever ſhall preſume to lend leſs than a hundred guilders on any pawn, be it at a high or at a low intereſt, on the above-named penalty.

IV. That this order may be the better obſerved and executed with greater vigour, the lords of the government and juſtice have ordered all the officers and ſervants of the juſtice, as alſo all the officers of the bank of loan of this city, to inform them from time to time, whether this order be in any manner infringed or broke, and, if they find it is not obſerved, they ſhall inform the lord high officer of this city of it, and he is to proſecute in that caſe; and thoſe who are convicted by half, or imperfect proofs, ſhall be obliged to clear themſelves by a ſolemn oath, and ſwear that they have not lent any thing in that manner; and, in default of this, or if they refuſe to take the ſaid oath, they ſhall be condemned into the penalties here above-mentioned. One third of all theſe forfeitures ſhall go to the informer, though he ſhould be the perſon that borrowed the money; one third to the lord high officer, and the other third to the hoſpital of the children ſupported by alms.

The bank was firſt erected by people who raiſed a ſum of money by ſubſcription, at ſix in the hundred; which was afterwards reduced to four, and then to three and a half in the hundred; and, in the year 1682, the city redeemed it, and became entire maſter of this bank of loan. It conſiſted in a fund of a million of guilders.

Two watchmen ſtand continually centinel in two centry-boxes before the warehouſes, and they have dark lanthorns. This bank appoints a good number of brokers, whoſe employment is wrote on a board before their door, and there thoſe who do not care to diſcover their want or poverty, can go and have their goods brought to the lombard by the ſaid brokers, who keep it ſecret, and do this ſervice for a ſmall matter, and ſecurity to the city for their fidelity.

Remarks.

What an advantage might it have proved to the city of London, if that had been bleſſed with a Charitable Corporation, as wiſely conſtituted and as equitably conducted, as the lombard of Amſterdam has been?

Of the Monies and Exchanges of Holland.

The Hollanders keep their accounts in florins or guilders, ſtivers and penings. The florin = 20 ſtivers, the ſtiver = 8 duits or 16 penings, or 2 deniers gros.

The rixdollar or patagon = 50 ſols, or deniers gros. It was regulated in 1606, that they ſhould be of the ſtandard of $10\frac{1}{2}$ deniers, and of the weight of 536 grains; and in 1721, that the ducat of gold ſhould be of the ſtandard of $23\frac{1}{32}$ carats, weighing 64 grains = 5 florins bank.

The pound gros = 6 florins, or 20 ſols gros.

The ſol gros or ſchelling = 6 common ſols, or 12 deniers gros, the gros = 8 penings.

There are two ſorts of money, current and bank; all bills of exchange are paid in the latter; the difference between them is from about 3 to 6 per cent. according to the ſtate of commerce and money tranſactions relating thereto, and this difference is called the agio.

Case I.

To reduce Current into Bank Money.

Suppoſe the agio 5 per cent. ſay,

Operation.

If 105 florins current give 100 bank, what will 1628 florins 6 ſols 4 penings current give?

100

162800

25 : 0 : 0 for 5 ſols = $\frac{1}{4}$.
5 : 0 : 0 for 1 ſol = $\frac{1}{5}$ of 5.
1 : 5 : 0 for 4 pen. = $\frac{1}{4}$ of a ſol.

105) 162831 : 5 : 0 (1550 florins 15 ſols 8 penings bank money, to which the ſaid 1628 florins 6 ſols and 4 penings are equal.

And, as there will be a remainder of 81, that muſt be multiplied by 20 ſols, the value of the florin, and divided by the ſame diviſor, and it will give 15 ſols, and a further remainder of 50, which being multiplied by 16, the penings in a ſol, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 8 penings.

To reduce Bank Money into Current.

State the queſtion according to the rule of proportion, thus: If 100 fl. bank give 5 advance, what will 1550 fl. 15 ſ. 8 p.

5

Flo. 77|53 : 17 : 8
20

	1550 flor.	15	ſols 8 p.	bank	Sols	10|77
Agio	77	10	12	added		16

Makes 1628 6 4 cur. Pen. 12|40

Money. The anſwer and proof to the foregoing is ſo eaſy to thoſe acquainted with common arithmetic, that 'tis needleſs to give further explanation, than what is done under the articles England, Exchanges, Genoa, Hamburgh.

Suppoſe a merchant of Holland owes the following ſums bank money of Amſterdam, to his foreign correſpondents at the reſpective places hereafter mentioned.

	Flo.	Sols.	P.	Courſe of Exchange.
At Paris	2133	2	—	at 55 $\frac{3}{8}$ den. gros per crown of 60 ſols Tournois.
London	2580	10	—	at 34 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols gros per pound ſterling.
Hamburgh	2841	5	—	at 32 $\frac{7}{8}$ ſols per dollar.
Madrid	1550	15	8	at 97 $\frac{1}{4}$ den. gros per ducat of 375 marvadees.
Liſbon	1242	14	—	at 44 $\frac{2}{8}$ den. gros per cruſado of 400 rees.
Genoa	1325	5	8	at 92 $\frac{1}{4}$ den. gros per piaſter of 5 livres bank.
Venice	2340	10	8	at 88 $\frac{1}{4}$ den. gros per ducat of 24 gros.
Leghorn	1832	7	—	at 86 $\frac{1}{2}$ den. gros per piaſter of 20 ſols d'or.
Geneva	1434	12	—	at 90 $\frac{1}{2}$ den. gros per crown of 60 ſols current

Of the Exchange of Holland on France.

To reduce 2133 florins 2 ſols bank money of Holland, into crowns, ſols, and deniers of France, exchange at 55 $\frac{3}{8}$ deniers gros, per crowns of 60 ſols Tournois.

Case II.

Operation.

Multiply by 2133 : 2 at - - - 55 $\frac{3}{8}$
40 deniers gros 8

85324 deniers gros
8

443 eighths

By 443) 682592 eighths (to be divided, give 1540 crowns, 50 ſols, 4 deniers.

Instruction.

Multiply the florins by 40 deniers gros, the value of a florin, adding 4 for the two ſols, the ſol being worth 2 deniers gros; and reduce the product into eighths, the ſame denomination with the price of exchange; and divide the ſum by the price, and the quotient will ſhow how often the one is contained in the other, which is the anſwer, 1540 crowns, with a remainder of 372; which multiplied by 60 ſols, the value of a crown, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 50 ſols, and a further remainder of 170, to be multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and divided by the like diviſor, it produces 4 deniers.

Proof.

1540 Crowns, 50 ſols, 4 den. at 55 $\frac{3}{8}$
55 $\frac{3}{8}$

7700
7700
385 for $\frac{2}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{4}$ of 1540
192 $\frac{1}{2}$ for $\frac{1}{8}$ the $\frac{1}{2}$ of $\frac{2}{8}$
27 $\frac{5}{8}$ for 30 ſols the $\frac{1}{2}$ of the exc. 55 $\frac{3}{8}$
9 $\frac{1}{8}$ for 10 ſols the $\frac{1}{3}$ of ditto
4 $\frac{4}{8}$ for 5 ſols the $\frac{1}{2}$ of 10
4 $\frac{4}{8}$ for 5 ſols ditto

4|0|8532|4

Fl. 2133 : 4 den. = 2 ſols $\frac{3}{8}$ for 4 deniers $\frac{1}{15}$ of 5 ſols

85324 $\frac{5}{8}$ with the other ſmall fractions [above, allow $\frac{3}{8}$ more.

Instruction.

Multiply the ſum by the price of exchange, 55 deniers, and for the $\frac{3}{8}$ take the aliquot parts as directed above. For the 50 ſols 4 deniers, make the diviſions alſo as explained in the operation.—Add the whole together, and the ſum will be deniers gros, the ſame denomination with the exchange, by which you multiply: this ſum divided by 40, the deniers gros in a florin, the quotient gives florins, 4 deniers = 2 ſtivers, the proof.

Of

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon LONDON.

CASE III.

To reduce 2580 florins 10 ſols bank of Amſterdam, into ſterling money of England, exchange at 34 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols gros of Holland, per pound ſterling.

OPERATION.

2580 Florins 10 ſols at 34 $\frac{1}{2}$
40 deniers gros 12

103200 — 414 deniers gros.
20 for the $\frac{1}{2}$

414) 103220 den. gros (l. 249 : 6 : 5 ſterling, for which the draught is made on London.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum and price of exchange into deniers gros, and divide the former product by the latter, and the quotient is the anſwer. 40 Deniers gros making a florin, as in the preceding caſe, you multiply thereby: for the 10 ſols you add 20 deniers gros, 2 being = 1 ſol: this gives the deniers gros contained in the ſum. For the $\frac{1}{2}$ ſol in the price of exchange take in 6 deniers, 12 deniers gros making 1 ſol, and divide the product of the ſum by that of the price: the remainder, 134, multiplied by 20, the ſhillings in a pound ſterling, and divided by the diviſor, gives 6 ſhillings, with a further remainder of 196, which multiplied by 12, the pence in a ſhilling, gives 5 pence ſterling.

PROOF.

l. 249 : 6 : 6 ſterling, exchange at 34 $\frac{1}{2}$
414 = 1 l. ſterling 12

996 — 414 deniers gros
249
996
103 $\frac{1}{2}$ for 5 ſhillings, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of 414
20 $\frac{3}{4}$ for 1 ſhilling, the $\frac{1}{3}$ of 5 ſ.
7 $\frac{3}{4}$ near for 4 pence, the $\frac{1}{3}$ of 1 ſ.
1 $\frac{3}{4}$ for 1 penny, the $\frac{1}{4}$ of 4 d.

4|10321|9(

Flor. 2580 : 19 = 9 $\frac{1}{2}$, and allowing for the ſmall fractions above, will make the other half ſol, near enough for practice, without deſcending, in theſe caſes, to larger fractions.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon HAMBURGH.

CASE IV.

To reduce 2841 florins 5 ſols, bank money of Amſterdam, into marks and ſols lubs of Hamburgh, bank money, exchange at 32 $\frac{7}{8}$ common ſols of Holland per dollar of 32 ſols lubs bank of Hamburgh.

OPERATION.

2841 $\frac{1}{4}$ florins bank, at - - 32 $\frac{7}{8}$
40 demi ſols 8

113640 — 263 eighths
10 for the $\frac{1}{2}$

113650
8

263)909200 eighths (3457 marks 6 deniers lubs bank, for which the draught muſt be made upon Hamburgh.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the ſum given by 40, becauſe the mark lubs is half one dollar, and reduce the ſame into eighths, and alſo the exchange of 32 $\frac{7}{8}$: then divide the product, 909200, by 263, which gives a quotient of 3457 marks: for the remainder, 9, multiply by 16 ſols, the value of a mark, and, as the product is leſs than the diviſor, multiply by 12 penings, and divide by the ſame diviſor, and you have 6 deniers, or penings, the anſwer, in Hamburgh money.
For proof hereof ſee the article HAMBURGH, the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon SPAIN.

CASE V.

To reduce 1550 florins, 15 ſols, 8 penings, bank money of Amſterdam, into ducats, ſols, and deniers, and afterwards into rials and marvadees, old plate, exchange at 97 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros, per ducat of Spain of 375 marvadees.

OPERATION.

1550 florins, 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols, at - - 97 $\frac{1}{4}$
40 4

62031 — 389 quart.
4

[muſt be made in Spain.
389)248124 quart. (637 ducats 17 ſols, for which the draught
11 rials 1 marvadee

637
637
18 rials 25 mar. for 637 mar. divided by 34
5 17 for 10 the ſols $\frac{1}{2}$ } of 11
2 25 for 5 the ſols $\frac{1}{4}$ } rials
1 3 for 2 the ſols $\frac{1}{10}$ }

7035 rials 2 mar. old plate.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply, by 40 deniers gros, the 1550 florins 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols, as in the former caſe, and take in 31 for the 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſols: reduce the product, 62031, into quarters, and alſo the price of exchange, 97 $\frac{1}{4}$; (if the fraction had been eighths, you muſt have reduced the ſame into eighths: divide the product of the ſum by that of the price, and the quote will be 637 ducats, with a remainder of 331; which being multiplied by 20 ſols, the imaginary ſubdiviſion of the ducat, and divided by the ſame diviſor, it gives 17 ſols, and a further remainder of 7.—This multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol; but the product, 84, being leſs than the diviſor, 389, it gives no deniers; for the proof whereof, ſee the article SPAIN, the exchange thereof on HOLLAND.
To reduce theſe 637 ducats 17 ſols, into rials, they muſt be multiplied by 11 rials 1 marvadee, the value of an exchange ducat, and it will produce 7035 rials 2 marvadees, old plate, to be received at Madrid.

ADVERTISEMENT.

Although the ſubdiviſions of the ducat are rials and marvadees, and not ſols and deniers, it is better, for the facility of computation, to multiply the remainder by 20 and 12, to obtain ſols and deniers; becauſe, if you multiply the remainder by 11 rials 1 marvadee, and by 34, the operation would be very troubleſome for diſpatch in buſineſs: but, when you may require a quotient of rials and marvadees, and not of ducats, the following is the method:
Take the preceding 62031 deniers gros, at 97 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros
multiplied by 375 mar. = 1 duc. 34 mar. = 1 rial

310155 — 388
434217 — 2918 $\frac{1}{2}$ for the $\frac{1}{4}$
186093

23261625 marvades — 3306 $\frac{1}{2}$ marvadees
2 — 2

6613 diviſor
6613)46523250 divid. (7035 rials 4 mar. old plate, the ſame as before produced.

INSTRUCTION.

Multiply the ſum, as above, by 375 marvadees, the value of a ducat, and afterwards by 2, for half marvadees.—Multiply alſo the exchange, 97 $\frac{1}{4}$, by 34 marvadees, the value of a rial, and afterwards by 2, to produce half rials, taking in the one half.—The quotient is 7035 rials, with a remainder of 795; which multiplied by 34, and divided as before, it gives 4 marvadees, two more than by the other method, which is with greater preciſion, though the other is accurate enough for buſineſs.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon GENOA.

CASE VI.

To reduce 1325 florins, 5 ſols, 8 penings, bank money of Amſterdam, into piaſters of 5 livres, or 20 ſols d'or, and afterwards into livres, ſols, and deniers, bank money of Genoa, exchange at 92 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers gros per piaſter.

OPERATION.

1325 florins, 5 ſols, 8 penings, or 11 demi-ſols
40 deniers gros, or demi-ſols

Exchange 92 $\frac{1}{4}$
53011 gros — 4
4

369 quarters—diviſor
369)212044 dividend (574 piaſters, 12 ſols, 10 deniers bank, for which the draught muſt be made.

IN-

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum and the price of exchange into quarters of deniers gros, and divide the product of one by that of the other, and you have a quote of 574 piaſters, with a remainder of 238; which multiplied by 20 ſols d'or, the value of the piaſter, and divided by the ſame, gives 12 ſols, and a remainder of 332; which multiplied by 12 deniers d'or, and divided by the like diviſor, you will have 10 deniers d'or to be received at Genoa.—For the proof whereof ſee the article GENOA, for the exchange of GENOA on HOLLAND.

But, if you would reduce the ſaid florins at once into liras, ſols, and deniers bank, inſtead of operating as above, and afterwards multiplying the 574 piaſters, 12 ſols, 10 deniers, by 5 liras, the value of a piaſter, to have 2873 liras, 4 ſols, and 5 deniers bank (which is too tedious) you may multiply the product, 53011 deniers gros contained in the ſum, by 5 liras, the value of a piaſter, and afterwards by 4, for the quarters, the product whereof, 1060220, being the dividend, and the quarters in the exchange, 369, the diviſor, the quotient will be the ſame, 2873 liras; and for the remainder, 83, multiply by 20 and 12, and divide by the common diviſor, 369, and you will have the 4 ſols 5 deniers.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon PORTUGAL.

CASE VII.

To reduce 1242 florins 14 ſols, bank money of Amſterdam, into cruſadoes and rees of Portugal, exchange at 44 $\frac{3}{8}$ deniers gros per cruſado of 400 rees.

OPERATION.

1242 flor. 14 ſols bank, at - 44 $\frac{3}{8}$
40 deniers gros - - 8

49708—Add 28 for the 14 ſols 355 eighths
8

355) 397664 (1120 cruſadoes 72 rees, for which the draught is made on Liſbon.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce both the ſum and the price of exchange into eighths of deniers gros, and divide the product of the ſum by that of the exchange-price, and you will have 1120 cruſadoes, with a remainder of 64; which being multiplied by 400 rees, the value of the cruſado, and divided by the 355, gives 72 rees, to be received at Liſbon. For proof hereof ſee PORTUGAL, for the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon LEGHORN.

CASE VIII.

To reduce 1832 florins 7 ſols, bank money of Amſterdam, into piaſters, ſols, and deniers of Leghorn, exchange at 86 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros per piaſter of 20 ſols d'or.

OPERATION.

1832 florins 7 ſols bank, at - 16 $\frac{1}{2}$
40 deniers gros 2

73294 deniers gros 173 demi-deniers
2

173) 146588 demi-deniers (847 piaſters, 6 ſols, 7 deniers, for which the draught ſhould be made upon Leghorn.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce into half deniers gros both the ſum and the price of the exchange, and divide the product of the former by that of the exchange-price, and you have the piaſters, with 57 for a remainder; which being multiplied by 20 ſols, the value of a piaſter, and divided by the ſame diviſor, you will have 6 ſols, and 102 remaining.—This multiplied by 12, and divided by the like, gives 7 deniers, to be received at Leghorn.—For proof hereof ſee LEGHORN, the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon VENICE.

CASE IX.

To reduce 2340 florins, 10 ſols, 8 penings, bank money of Amſterdam, into ducats, ſols, and deniers, bank money of Venice, and into liras, ſols, and deniers, of the ſaid money.

OPERATION.

2340 florins 10 ſols $\frac{1}{2}$, at - - 88 $\frac{1}{4}$ deniers
40 deniers gros, or demi-ſols 4

93621
4

353 quart.—diviſor

353) 374484 quart.--div. [the draught muſt be made upon Venice, (1060 duc. 17 ſols 3 den. for which
6

6360 [the ducat
212 : — : — for 4 ſoldi, the $\frac{1}{5}$ of
3 : 2 : — for 10 ſols $\frac{1}{2}$ } of 6 liras 4 ſoldi
1 : 11 : — for 5 ſols $\frac{1}{4}$ }
12 : 4 for 2 ſols $\frac{1}{10}$ }
1 : 6 for 3 den. $\frac{1}{5}$ of 2 ſols

6577 : 6 : 10 to be received at Venice in bank.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce the ſum and the price of exchange into quarters of deniers, and divide the product, 374484, by 353, and you will have a quote of 1060 ducats, with a remainder of 304: which multiplied by 20 imaginary ſols, by way of facility of operation, and divided by the ſaid diviſor, it gives 17 ſols, and 79 for a remainder; which multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of the ſaid ſol, and divided by the aforeſaid diviſor, produces 3 deniers; the proof whereof you will find under the article Venice, the exchange thereof upon HOLLAND.

To reduce the ducats into liras, multiply by 6 liras 4 ſoldi, the value of a ducat, as above, and you will have the 6577 liras, 6 ſols, 10 deniers bank.

Although the ducats are of 24 groſſi, I have nevertheleſs reduced them by 20 and 12, for reaſons given in the exchange of Holland upon Spain.

Of the EXCHANGE of HOLLAND upon GENEVA.

CASE X.

To reduce 1434 florins 12 ſols, bank money of Amſterdam, into crowns of 3 livres, ſols, and deniers, and alſo into livres, ſols, and deniers, current money of Geneva, exchange at 90 $\frac{1}{2}$ deniers gros per crown of 60 ſols of Geneva.

OPERATION.

1434 florins 12 ſols bank, at 90 $\frac{1}{2}$
mul. by 40 den. gros, or demi-ſols 2

57384
2

181 demi-den.—diviſor

181) 114768 demi. (634 crowns, 4 ſols, 8 den. for which the draught ſhould be made on Geneva. 3

1902 livres, 4 ſols, 8 deniers, current money of Geneva.

INSTRUCTION.

Reduce both the ſum and price of exchange into demi-deniers gros, and divide the former by the latter product, and you will have a quotient of 634 crowns, and 14 a remainder; which multiplied by 60 ſols, the value of the crown, and divided by the 181, you will have 4 ſols, with a further remainder of 116; which multiplied by 12 deniers, the value of a ſol, and divided by the ſaid diviſor, it gives near 8 deniers, to be received at Geneva; which may be eaſily proved, if the examples before given are underſtood.

To find the livres, you need only multiply them by their value of 3 livres; and, if you would reduce the ſaid florins directly into livres, they muſt be multiplied by 240 common deniers, the value of the livre of Geneva, and the product divided by the ſame diviſor, 181, the quotient will be the ſame ſum of 1902 livres, 4 ſols, 8 deniers, with the trifling difference of near a denier.

Of the WEIGHTS of HOLLAND.

24 grains = 1 drachm; 3 drachms, or 72 grains, = 1 gros; 30 grains = 1 engel; 10 engels, or 4 gros, and 2 grains = 1 loot; 16 loots, or 8 ounces, = 1 mark; 2 marks = 1 lb. 8 pounds = 1 ſtone; 165 pounds = 1 waggon, or wage; 400 pounds = 1 load; 15 pounds = 1 liſpond; 20 liſponds = 1 ſchippon.

The weights of Holland compared with foreign weights.

100 lb. of Amſterdam make in foreign places, viz.	lb.	100 lb. in the following places make in Amſterdam, viz.	lb.
In Antwerp -	105 $\frac{1}{3}$	In Antwerp -	94 $\frac{2}{3}$
Alicant - -	108	Alicant - -	92 $\frac{1}{2}$
Archangel -	125	Archangel -	80
Avignon -	125	Avignon - -	89
Audenard -	112	Audenard -	89

100 lb. of Amſterdam make in foreign places, viz.	lb.
In Auſburg -	103
Ancona -	149
Bremen -	103
Bergen and Norway	95 1/5
Bern -	111
Breſlau in Sileſia	125
Bourdeaux -	100
Bergam -	169
Burge in Breſſe	104
Bruges -	106
Copenhagen -	101 1/4
Coningſberg -	125
Cologn -	104
Cadiz - -	106
Conſtantinople, Rot.	88
Dantzic -	112 1/2
Dixmude -	114
Frankfort -	98
Florence -	152
Geneva -	89
Genoa { Great weight	90 4/5
Genoa { Small weight	66 2/3
Genoa { Common weig.	100
Genoa { Great ballance	144
Genoa { Small ballance	150
Ghent - -	112
Gelders -	105
Hamburgh -	102
Lyons -	116
London, Troy wt.	97
Ditto, avoirdupoiſe	109 1/2
Leipſic -	105
Leghorn -	145
Liege - -	105 1/4
Lubec -	105
Liſle -	114
Milan -	168
Marſeilles -	123 1/2
Mantua -	175
Meſſina -	164
Montpelier -	120
Mons - -	105
Middleburg -	105
Nantz -	99
Naples -	169
Norway -	95
Noremberg -	98
Paris -	98 2/3
Peterſburg -	125
Portugal -	114 1/2
Roan viſcompt wt.	96
Riga - -	121 1/2
Raconis -	151
Rochel -	99
Stockholm -	117
Stetin - -	101 1/4
Seville -	106
Sicily, Rot. -	62
Saragoſſa -	158
Straſburg -	100
Toulouſe -	118
Tortoſa -	161
Turin -	151
Tournay -	113
Venice, ſmall wt.	166
Valencia -	158
Ypres -	114

100 lb. in the following places make in Amſterdam, viz.	lb.
In Auſburg -	96
Ancona -	67
Bremen - -	96
Bregen, &c. -	105
Bern - -	90
Breſlau - -	80
Bourdeaux -	100
Bergam -	59
Burge, &c. -	96
Bruges -	94
Copenhagen -	98 3/4
Coningſberg -	80
Cologn - -	96
Cadiz - -	94 1/2
Conſtant. 100 Rot.	114
Dantzic - -	89
Dixmude -	88
Frankfort -	102
Florence -	65
Geneva - -	112
Genoa { Great weight	105 1/2
Genoa { Small weight	120
Genoa { Common wt.	100
Genoa { Great ballance	69 1/2
Genoa { Small ballance	66 2/3
Ghent - -	89
Gelders -	95
Hamburgh -	98
Lyons -	86
London, Troy wt.	103
Ditto, avoirdupoiſe	91 1/2
Leipſic -]	95
Leghorn -	69
Leige - -	95
Lubec -	95
Liſle - -	88
Milan -	60
Marſeilles -	81
Mantua -	57
Meſſina - -	65
Montpelier -	83
Mons - -	95
Middleburg -	95
Nantz - -	101
Naples -	59
Norway - -	105
Noremberg -	102
Paris - -	101 1/3
Peterſburg -	80
Portugal - -	87 1/2
Roan, &c. -	104
Riga - -	82 1/4
Raconis -	66
Rochel - -	101
Stockholm -	85 1/2
Stetin - -	98 3/4
Seville - -	95
Sicily -	162
Saragoſſa -	63
Straſburg -	100
Toulouſe -	85
Tortoſa - -	62
Turin - -	66
Tournay -	89
Venice - -	60
Valencia -	63
Ypres - -	88

Of the weights of Holland for gold and ſilver.

32 aces = an engel; 20 engels = 1 ounce; 8 ounces = 1 mark. Theſe weights are uſed for groſs gold; but, in the weighing of fine gold, 24 parts = to a grain, 12 grains = 1 carat, 24 carats = 1 mark; and the mark weights are about 1 per cent. lighter than the Troy weight of London.

Their long meaſure.

The common one is an aun, or ell, and is reckoned here 3/4 of a yard: it conſiſts of 2 feet, 1 inch, and 2 lines, of the pié du roy of France, and is divided into 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16; or into 1/3, 1/6, 1/12. This is found, by obſervation, to be ſomething more than 27 1/2 inches in length; ſo then an Engliſh ell is about 1 5/8 of a Dutch aun: and

100 auns of Amſterdam make in foreign places, viz.	auns.
In Antwerp, Brabant, &c.	98 3/4
Paris - -	58 1/2
London - ells	58 1/2
Hamb. and Lubec	120
Frankfort -	120

100 auns in foreign places make in Amſterdam, viz.	auns.
In Antwerp, Brab. &c.	101 1/4
Paris - -	171
London -	171
Hamburgh -	83 1/3
Frankfort -	83 1/3

100 auns of Amſterdam make in foreign places, viz.	auns.
Noremberg -	100
Leipſic Naumberg	120
Breſlau in Sileſia	125
Oſnaburg -	57 3/4
Dantzic - -	112 1/2
Bergen and Drontheim in Norway	111 1/9
Sweden or Stockholm	117
Denmark and Copenh.	109 1/2
Cologn -	120
St. Gall for linen	86
Ditto for woollen	112
Bern and Baſil -	120
Geneva - -	60
Marſeilles Canes	35
Toulouſe - -	37 1/2
Genoa -	30 1/2
Rome - -	33
Naples and Sicily -	30
Barcelona -	41 3/4
Seville Baras	80
Portugal Baras	61
Ditto Cavados	100
Venice, Bologna, Modena, and Mantua Braces	102
Bergam - -	105
Florence -	116 1/2
Leghorn - -	116 1/2
Lucca -	116 1/2
Milan for ſilk -	128 1/2
Ditto for cloth	102

100 auns in foreign places make in Amſterdam, viz.	auns.
Noremberg -	100
Leipſic -	83 1/3
Breſlau -	80
Oſnaburg - -	173
Dantzic -	89
Norway -	90
Sweden -	86
Denmark -	91 3/5
Cologn -	83 1/3
St. Gall for linen -	116
Ditto for woollen	89 4/3
Bern and Baſil -	83 1/3
Geneva -	166 1/3
100 Canes of Marſeilles	286
— — — Toulouſe	266 2/3
— — — Genoa	328
— — — Rome	303
— — — Naples	329
— — — Barcelona	226
100 Baras of Seville	125
Ditto of Portugal	164
Ditto of ditto - -	100
Ditto of Venice, Bologna, Modena, Mantua	98
Bergam -	95
Florence -	85 1/2
Leghorn - -	85 1/2
Lucca -	85 1/2
Milan for ſilk -	78
Ditto for cloth -	98

Their wine meaſure.

2 1/2 Virges or virtules = 1 ſteekon, 2 ſteekons = 1 anchor, 4 anchors = 1 aum, 14 aums of Amſterdam = 1 voedar.
N. B. The voedar is a veſſel uſed in Germany, for keeping the wines that grow upon the Rhine and the Moſelle.
2 Pints = 1 mingle, 2 mingles = 1 ſtoop, 8 ſtoops = 1 ſteekon, 6 mingles = 1 virge for wine, and 6 1/4 ditto = 1 virge for brandy, upon the Rhine and Moſelle.

Their brandy meaſures.

It is common to put French, Spaniſh, and Portugal wines into pipes, butts, and other pieces; ſome of which contain at Amſterdam, from 60 to 90 virges: therefore 'tis uſual with the Hollanders to reduce theſe meaſures into butts, by the following reckoning.
27 Virges of Coniac, Monguion, Rochelle, and the iſle of Rhé.
29 Ditto of Nantz, and other places in Britany and Anjou.
32 Ditto of Bourdeaux, and the other places in Guienne.
32 Ditto of Amſterdam, and other places in Holland.
30 Ditto of Hamburgh and Lubec.
27 Ditto of Embden.
At Bruges they call the virges feſtiers, reckoning 16 ſtoops to a feſtier, and they ſell it at ſo much a ſtoop.

Meaſure of ſalt.

Salt is ſold in Amſterdam by a great hundred of 404 ſcheppels, which is reckoned 7 laſts, or 14 tun, or 23,000 lb. weight, = 208 ſacks, and is ſold by the pound Flemiſh: 11 1/2 laſts of Amſterdam = the great hundred of the iſle of Rhé in France.

Meaſure for grain.

Three ſcheppels = 1 ſack, 4 ſcheppels = 1 muid, 36 ſacks, or 27 muids, = 1 laſt, weighing 4000 lb. weight, and in London is about 10 1/4 quarters.
The land laſt is not the ſame in all places, there being ſome difference introduced by cuſtom, in the ſeveral countries in Europe.
A laſt of wheat, in Amſterdam, commonly weighs between 4200 and 4300 lb.
Ditto of rye, between 4000 and 4200 lb. Ditto of barley, between 3200 and 3400 lb.
There is a duty upon wheat ſold for the uſe of the inhabitants of Amſterdam, of 131 florins 12 ſtivers per laſt, beſides brokerage and meetage, &c. which the citizens and bakers likewiſe pay. The above, and ſuch ſort of goods, are commonly bought and ſold in Amſterdam, by the gold florin of 28 ſtivers.
The laſt of Amſterdam = in Paris 19 ſextiers, in Bourdeaux 38 buſhels, and 3 laſts of Amſterdam = 4 laſts of Rouen; the laſt of North Holland is the ſame as that of Amſterdam. In Hoorn, Enchuyſen, Muyden, Naerden, and Weſop, a laſt is 22 muids, or 44 ſacks of 2 ſcheppels each.

In Haerlem they reckon 33 ſacks to the laſt; their ſack is 3 ſcheppels, 4 of which make the hoedt of Rotterdam, and 14 of thoſe ſacks make one hoedt of Delft.
In Alchmear, in North Holland, a laſt contains 26 ſacks.
In Leyden, they reckon 8 ſcheppels to a ſack, and 44 ſacks to a laſt.
In Rotterdam, Delft and Schedam, they reckon 29 ſacks to a laſt, 3 ſcheppels to a ſack, and 10 $\frac{2}{3}$ ſacks to a hoedt; the laſt of theſe places are two per cent. more than that of Amſterdam.
In Tergow, they reckon 28 ſacks to a laſt, 3 ſcheppels to a ſack, and 32 ſcheppels to the hoedt.
In Utrecht, they reckon 25 muids or ſacks to the laſt, and 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſacks to the hoedt of Rotterdam.
In Montfoort, Yſelſtain, and Vianen, &c. they reckon 2 ſacks to a muid, and 18 muids to a laſt.
In Frieſeland, Lewarden, Haerlingen, and in other towns in Weſt Frieſeland, and at Groningen in Eaſt Frieſeland, they reckon 33 muids to the laſt.
In Gelderland and the county of Cleves, viz. in Nimeguen, Arnheim, and Doerburgh, they reckon 4 ſcheppels to a mouver, and 22 mouvers to a laſt, and 8 mouvers make one hoedt of Rotterdam.
In Thiel, they reckon 33 ſcheppels to a laſt.
In Ruremond, they reckon 68 ſcheppels to a laſt.
In Haerderwick, they reckon 11 muids equal to 10 muids of Amſterdam.
In Over-Yſſel in Champen, 25 muids are equal to a laſt, and 9 muids = 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
In Zwell, 9 muids = 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
In Deventer, 4 ſcheppels = 1 muid, and 36 muids to a laſt.
The laſts of Zealand. In Middleburg 4 ſacks $\frac{1}{2}$ = to a laſt, the ſack being not much more than 2 ſcheppels.
In Fluſhing, Zurickſee, Brill, and ſome other places in the neighbourhood, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ ſcheppels = to a ſack.
In Liege, 12 ſextiers = 1 muid, 8 muids = 1 laſt.
In Tongres, 15 muids = 1 laſt of corn, and 14 muids = 1 laſt of oats.
The laſts of Brabant. At Antwerp, 30 virtules make a laſt, and 37 $\frac{1}{2}$ of their virtules make a laſt of Amſterdam; 4 mukens make a virtule, and 32 virtules make a ſack of oats.
In Bruſſels, 25 ſacks make a laſt of Amſterdam.
In Malines, 28 virtules make a laſt of Amſterdam.
In Lovain, 37 muids make a laſt, and 8 halſters make a muid.
In Breda and Steenberge, 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ virtules make a laſt of corn, 29 virtules a laſt of oats, and 13 of theſe virtules make 18 ſacks, or 1 hoedt of Amſterdam.
In Bregenopzoom, 34 virtules make a laſt of corn, and 28 $\frac{1}{4}$ virtules a laſt of oats.
In Boiſleduc, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ mouvers, 1 hoedt of Rotterdam.
The laſts of Flanders. In Ghent 2 halſters make a ſack, 6 ſacks a muid, 29 ſacks, or 58 halſters, a laſt of corn, and 19 ſacks, or 38 halſters, a laſt of oats.
In Bruges, 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ hoedt make a laſt of corn, and 14 $\frac{1}{2}$ hoedt a laſt of oats, the latter being equal to the laſt of Amſterdam.
In St. Omer's 2 ſcheppels make a razior, and 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziors a laſt.
In Dixmude, 30 $\frac{1}{2}$ raziors make a laſt of wheat, and 24 raziors a laſt of oats.
In Liſle, 41 raziors make a laſt of wheat, and 30 raziors a laſt of oats.
In Dunkirk, 18 raziors make one hoedt of Rotterdam.

Of oils and honey.

The oil olives are uſually kept in butts and pipes, containing from 20 to 25 ſteekens; 16 mingles make a ſteeken; 717 mingles, or 1434 pints, make a tun of oil in Amſterdam, which is there ſold at ſo many pounds Flemiſh per tun.
Coarſe fiſh oil is commonly kept in barrels, containing between 15 to 20 ſteekens, and is uſually ſold in Amſterdam at ſo many florins per barrel.
Honey is kept in various kinds of veſſels, both of wood and earth: in ſome places it is ſold by meaſure, in others by weight. In Amſterdam, they ſell it at ſo many pounds Flemiſh per tun, conſiſting of 6 tierces, or aums, and alſo by ſo many florins per barrel, or by the hundred weight. The duty of weighing is 43 ſtivers per 1000 weight; and this, as well as brokerage, is paid one half by the buyer, the other by the ſeller.

Of ſome curious caſes, exemplifying the arbitration of the foreign exchanges, wherein Holland is concerned.

Suppoſe that you are preſented with bills of exchange upon Naples, for which an exchange of 82 ſols per ducat of 10 carlins is required.
To this ſuppoſition let us add another, which is, that before you receive thoſe bills of exchange, you would know how many ſols you can afford to give for every ducat, after having circulated them through ſeveral places, and paying $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. proviſion to each correſpondent through whoſe hands the money ſo circulates.
Let it be further ſuppoſed, that Naples which is the chief object of conſideration, exchanges with Rome, by giving 124 ducats del regno for 100 Roman crowns:—that Rome retains a proviſion, and exchanges with Venice, by giving 62 crowns d'eſtampe for 100 ducats bank money:—that Venice exchanges with Amſterdam, by taking 90 deniers gros per the ſaid ducat, and alſo reſerves proviſion money:—that Amſterdam exchanges with Madrid at 96 deniers gros per ducat, of 375 marvadees, and retains the proviſion: and, laſtly, that Madrid exchanges with Lyons at 76 ſols per piaſter of 272 marvadees of plate, and retains proviſion money.
Theſe things previouſly ſuppoſed, the queſtion is to find the anſwer above required, according to that admirable rule of conjunction, practiſed by the moſt ſkilful money-negociators in Europe.
In order to judge of the rationale of this operation, the reader is deſired to conſult what I have ſaid under the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES; alſo the article EXCHANGES, and ſuch others to which I refer from thoſe heads.
The caſe, ſtated according to the reaſons there given, will ſtand as follows:

Antecedents.	Equality.	Conſequents.
1144 Ducats Naples	=	92 $\frac{1}{2}$ Roman crowns, proviſion deducted.
3 Roman crowns	=	4 Crowns d'eſtampe of Rome.
84 Crowns d'eſtampe	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ duc. bco. of Venice, proviſion deducted.
1 Ducat bco. of Venice	=	114 Marchetti bco. of Ven.
100 Marchetti bco.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Marchetti bco. proviſion deducted.
124 Marchetti bco.	=	90 3 Deniers gros bco. of Amſterdam.
1000 Den. gros bco. of Amſt.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Deniers gros bco. proviſion deducted.
90 Den. gros bco. of Amſt.	=	33 Marvadees of plate, at Madrid.
100 Marvadees of plate	=	99 Marvadees proviſ. ded.
272 Marvadees	=	76 19 Sols Tournois.

Then quere, How many of theſe laſt ſols will be equal to one ducat of Naples?

EXPLANATION.

The antecedents and conſequents, being thus ranged, are abridged and cancelled, according to the axioms given under the before-mentioned article of ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES; and the product of all the conſequents multiplied together for a dividend, and alſo the product of all the antecedents multiplied together for a diviſor, the quotient will give the anſwer 83 ſols Tournois of Lyons per ducat of Naples.
The advantage, propoſed to be reaped by this operation, is to diſcover if the profit of a ſol per ducat, that is ſuppoſed to be made, by the circulation of your money in this manner, will ſufficiently anſwer the negociator's end in being out of his money: that it will not, is apparent at firſt glance of the eye, if due attention be given to what I have ſaid under the before intimated articles; ſo that it may be obſerved, that the anſwer, produced by this operation, is a touchſtone to the foreign banker whereby to regulate his conduct, upon occaſions of the like nature.

Another EXAMPLE.

To know the profit, by circulating of money as follows, in divers foreign places.
Suppoſe you have 2000 florins bank money in a correſpondent's hands at Amſterdam, and would know if it is more profitable to draw directly at 56 deniers gros per crown of 60 ſols, or to paſs the net proceeds to Mr. Berens of London, at 34 ſols gros per pound ſterling, with order to remit to Mr. Deſtaundau of Liſbon, at 66 pence ſterling per milree, and he to remit to Nozzolini of Leghorn, at 770 rees per piaſter of 20 ſols d'or; and this latter to remit to Mr. Joyez of Madrid, at 128 piaſters of 8 royals old plate, per 100 of the ſaid piaſters of Leghorn, in order to make a remittance at 76 ſols Tournois per piaſter of 8 royals, in paying $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. proviſion to each correſpondent, excepting him at Liſbon, according to mutual agreement.

1 Florin bco.	=	40 Den. gros bco. of Amſterdam.
1000 Deniers gros	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto, proviſion deducted.
11 Deniers gros	=	1 Sol gros bco.
34 Sols gros bco.	=	1440 Pence ſterling.
1000 Pence ſterling.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto, proviſion deducted.
66 Ditto	=	1000 Rees of Liſbon.
770 Rees of Liſbon	=	1 Piaſter of Leghorn.
1000 Piaſters of Legh.	=	128 64 Piaſters of Madrid.
1000 Piaſters of Madr.	=	99 $\frac{1}{2}$ Ditto, proviſion deducted.
1 Ditto	=	76 19 Sols Tournois of Lyons.
1000 Sols Tournois	=	99 Sols ditto, proviſion deducted.
60 Ditto	=	3 Livres Tournois.

Quere, How many livres Tournois will 2000 florins bank money of Amſterdam make? Anſwer, 4414 livres 12 ſols 2 deniers Tournois.

EXPLA-

Explanation.

The antecedents and the conſequents of this numerical equation are alſo abridged, according to the axioms given, under the article of Arbitration of Exchanges, and the one divided by the other, as in the preceding example.

Example of another kind.

To know by time and rule, how much per cent. profit is to be made by arbitrating the exchanges, and the place through which the circulation ſhould be made preferably to another.

As the mercantile ſtudent cannot underſtand the true advantage, without computing what a ſum will produce, if drawn directly from one place upon another; to compare this way with that of the circulation through one or more places, to know what you have gained or loſt upon the 2000 florins that were due to you at Amſterdam, the operation ſhould be made firſt directly, according to the courſe of exchange of the day, upon which you have given your correſpondent orders: as for example, of 56 deniers gros per crown, by ſtating it by the rule of conjunction, thus:

1 Florin bco. = 40 Deniers gros bco.
100 Deniers gros = 99 ½ Deniers gros, proviſion deducted.
50 Ditto = 3 Livres Tournois.

Quere, How many livres Tournois will 2000 bco. make?

Explanation.

The antecedents and conſequents abbreviated, according to the foregoing direction, will give a product to the latter of 29850 for a dividend, and 7 will remain as an antecedent diviſor, which will produce a quotient of 4264 livres, 5 ſols, 8 deniers: but the ſum, produced from the foregoing inſtance by circulation, is 4414 livres, 12 ſols, 2 deniers: ſo that the former deducted from the latter affords a profit, by circulation, of 150 livres, 6 ſols, and 6 deniers.

Now, if you would know how much per cent. profit this produces, ſay, by the direct rule of proportion,

If 2000 florins give 150 livers, 6 ſols, 6 deniers, what will 100?

Anſwer, 7 ½ livres per cent. florins, which is the advantage, and ſomething more, that may be made by this procedure.

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The ſtudent ſhould be apprized, that he ought not to expect the returns of his funds after the circulation, in order to diſcover the profit or loſs; but his calculation ſhould be made before engagement, or he may be greatly diſappointed by this kind of banking.

Remarks before the laſt war.

Under the article France, we have ſhewn the general ſyſtem of French politics with regard chiefly to their commercial intereſts, ever ſince the time of Mazarine, and the glaring effects thereof to various powers in Europe, and more particularly with regard to the true intereſts of Great-Britain and Holland, in the deſtruction of the Dutch barrier: which, as it has continued in a very precarious ſtate, and does to this moment, notwithſtanding the concluſion of the late peace ſome years ſince, it behoves the public wiſdom to conſider, what was the general ſenſe of the nation, when this matter was before in a ſtate of the like uncertainty. See alſo the article Flanders, where we have ſpoke to this matter.

In reſpect to the houſe of commons, their ſenſe can no way be better ſeen than from their own journals, and therefore I ſhall give the reader the abſtract of them.

In the beginning of 1677, the commons in very preſſing terms repreſented to the king, that the minds of his people were very much diſquieted with the dangers ariſing from the manifeſt growth and power of the French king; eſpecially by the acquiſitions made, and like to be made by him, in the Spaniſh Netherlands. 'In the preſervation and ſecurity 'whereof, ſay they, we humbly conceive the intereſt of 'your majeſty, and the ſafety of your people, are highly 'concerned; and therefore we moſt humbly beſeech your 'majeſty to take the ſame into your royal care, and to 'ſtrengthen yourſelf with ſuch ſtricter alliances, as may ſe-'cure your majeſty's kingdoms, and preſerve the ſaid Spaniſh 'Netherlands, and thereby quiet the minds of your majeſty's 'people.'

And when the lords, who concurred with the commons in this addreſs, would have had particular mention likewiſe made of Sicily, it being of great importance to our trade, that Sicily be not in the hands of the French king; the commons diſagreed to it for this reaſon, becauſe 'the ſpecial 'mentioning of Sicily would ſeem to put leſs weight upon 'the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands; the conſerva-'tion of which they conceive to be of much more moment 'to his majeſty's kingdoms, than that of Sicily. For tho' 'it may be of great importance to our trade that Sicily be 'not in the hands of the French king, yet the ſafety of his 'majeſty's kingdoms is not ſo immediately endangered there-'by; and therefore it ought not to be equally inſiſted on.'

The king agreed with his parliament, in owning the great importance the conſervation of Flanders was of to England; but the reſt of his anſwer, which ſhewed his averſion to enter into a war for it's defence, was ſo little ſatisfactory, that a motion was immediately made for a ſecond addreſs to his majeſty, to enter into a ſtrict and ſpeedy alliance with the confederates; and, in purſuance of this motion, the houſe did about a fortnight after (March 30) in a ſecond addreſs, 'with moſt earneſt and repeated deſires, im-'plore his majeſty, that he would be pleaſed to take timely 'care to prevent thoſe dangers, that may ariſe to theſe king-'doms by the great power of the French king, and the pro-'greſs he daily makes in the Netherlands and other places; 'and that he would not defer the entering into ſuch alliances 'as may obtain thoſe ends, promiſing fully to aſſiſt his ma-'jeſty, if he ſhould be engaged in a war in purſuance of 'ſuch alliances.'

Within three days after the king's anſwer to this addreſs, April 13, the houſe made a third addreſs, to aſſure his majeſty, that 'they would with moſt chearful hearts proceed, 'both then and at all other times, to furniſh his majeſty 'with ſuch large ſupplies upon this occaſion (to preſerve the 'Netherlands and check the growth of France) as 'might enable him, by God's aſſiſtance, to maintain the al-'liances they had adviſed, againſt all oppoſition whatſoever.' This addreſs, upon the king's anſwer to it, was immediately followed by a fourth, April 16, aſſuring his majeſty of their duty and affection; and that he might not only depend upon the ſupply he deſired, but upon all ſuch aſſiſtances as the poſture of his affairs ſhould require: 'In confidence where-'of, ſay the commons, we hope your majeſty will be en-'couraged in the mean time to ſpeak and act ſuch things as 'your majeſty ſhall judge neceſſary, for attaining thoſe great 'ends we have formerly repreſented to your majeſty.'

Theſe repeated addreſſes from ſo loyal a houſe of commons ſufficiently ſhew how much the nation was alarmed upon the dangers to which they ſaw the Netherlands expoſed. The commons were ſo bent upon this point, as a matter of the laſt conſequence, that they would take no denial; which made the court reſolve upon adjourning them for 5 weeks. But what paſſed in this interval did not make the commons alter their ſentiments, or leſs earneſt in the purſuit of them. When they met again, May the 21ſt, they fell into very warm debates, and reſolved to advance ſtill one ſtep farther in a matter of ſo great concern, which was to addreſs his majeſty to enter into a league offensive and defensive with the States, and to make other fit alliances againſt the growth and power of France, and for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands: and in this addreſs they tell his majeſty, how highly ſenſible they are of the neceſſity of ſupporting, as well as making, the alliances deſired in their former addreſſes; 'which we ſtill conceive, ſay they, ſo important 'to the ſafety of your majeſty and your kingdoms, that we 'cannot, without unfaithfulneſs to your majeſty and thoſe 'we repreſent, omit upon all occaſions humbly to beſeech 'your majeſty, as we now do, to enter into a league offen-'ſive and defenſive with the States, &c.' And, that no time might be loſt in doing this, they gave his majeſty this reaſon amongſt others; 'the great danger and charge which muſt 'neceſſarily fall upon your majeſty's kingdoms, if, through 'want of timely encouragement and aſſiſtance, the States, 'or any other conſiderable part of the confederates, ſhould 'make a peace with the French king (the prevention where-'of hitherto, ſay they, muſt be acknowledged to be a ſingu-'lar effect of God's goodneſs to us;) which, if it ſhould 'happen, your majeſty would afterwards be neceſſiated 'with fewer, perhaps with no alliances, to withſtand the 'power of the French king, which has ſo long and ſo ſuc-'ceſsfully contended with ſo many and potent enemies; 'and, whilſt he continues his overbalancing greatneſs, muſt 'always be dangerous to his neighbours: ſince he would be 'able to oppreſs any one confederate, before the reſt could 'get together, and be in ſo good a poſture of offending him 'as they are now, being jointly engaged in a war; and if 'he ſhould be ſo ſucceſsful as to make a peace, or diſunite 'the preſent confederation againſt him, it is much to be 'feared, whether it would be poſſible ever to reunite it. At 'leaſt it would be a work of ſo much time and difficulty, 'as would leave your majeſty's kingdom expoſed to much 'miſery and danger. Having thus diſcharged our duty, in 'laying before your majeſty the dangers threatning your 'majeſty and your kingdoms, and the only remedy we can 'think of for preventing it, and quieting the minds of your 'people, we moſt humbly beſeech your majeſty to take ſuch 'reſolutions, as may not leave it in the power of any neigh-'bouring prince, to rob your people of that happineſs they 'enjoy under your majeſty's gracious government.' Then they oblige themſelves not only by their promiſes with great unanimity renewed in a full houſe, but by the zeal and deſires of thoſe they repreſent, and by the intereſt of all their ſafeties, moſt chearfully to give his majeſty ſpeedy and plentiful ſupplies.

This earneſt and importunate addreſs, which was preſented May the 26th, expreſſed not only the ſenſe of a very full houſe,

houſe, but, indeed, of the whole nation; which gave it ſo much weight that the court ſaw they ſhould be forced to comply with it, unleſs they betook themſelves to the laſt refuge in ſuch caſes, and immediately put an end to the ſeſſion. The parliament, therefore, was accordingly diſmiſſed, and not ſuffered to ſit again till the end of January 1677-8. But, though the court could interrupt the ſitting of the parliament as they pleaſed, it was not poſſible to change their ſentiments; and they no ſooner met again, but they reſumed their former debates with more earneſtneſs, if poſſible, than before. For, as that long interval, in which they had not been ſuffered to have any opportunity of interpoſing their counſels with his majeſty, had given the French ſo much farther leiſure to finiſh their deſign upon the Netherlands, the nation was ſo much the more alarmed; and, in a new addreſs, January 31, they 'humbly deſire his majeſty, with 'the higheſt zeal for his honour and the ſafety of his people, 'not to admit of any treaty of peace, whereby the French 'king ſhall be left in poſſeſſion of any larger dominions and 'territories, or of any greater power than what he retained 'by the Pyrenean treaty; leſs than which, they conceive, 'can't ſecure his majeſty's kingdoms and the reſt of Europe, 'from the growth and power of the ſaid king, but that he 'alone may be able to diſturb the peace thereof, whenſo-'ever he is inclined to attempt it.'—And they farther deſire, 'that, in all treaties in order to the obtaining that end, his 'majeſty would be pleaſed to provide, that none of the par-'ties that ſhall join with him in making war for that pur-'poſe may lay down their arms or depart for their alli-'ances, until the ſaid king be reduced at leaſt to the ſaid 'treaty.' The commons had reaſon to hope for a compliance with this addreſs; the king having in his ſpeech acquainted them, that he 'had made, according to their de-'ſire, ſuch alliances with Holland, as were neceſſary for 'the preſervation of FLANDERS; that, ſince a good peace 'could not be had by fair means, it ſhould not be his fault if 'it were not obtained by force of arms; that if he be ſup-'ported by them, he will not be weary, till Chriſtendom be 'reſtored to ſuch a peace, as it ſhall not be in the power of 'any prince alone to diſturb.'

But, whatever influenced the counſels of the court, this addreſs met with no better reception than their laſt. They had been then told, that 'what they did was an invaſion of the 'prerogative;' and now they were told, not only the ſame thing, but, what is more ſurprizing, that, 'the king, having 'aſked the advice of both houſes, can't act upon any that 'does not jointly come from both.' The commons, however, not rebutted by this treatment, perſevered; immediately voted a good ſupply, and, upon March 14, reſolved to addreſs his majeſty, 'That, to quiet the minds of his ſub-'jects, and encourage the confederates, he would be pleaſed 'immediately to proclaim and enter into an actual war 'againſt the French king, promiſing conſtantly to ſtand by 'and aſſiſt his majeſty with plentiful ſupplies:' to which addreſs they deſired the concurrence of the lords; but, before it could be entirely obtained, they were adjourned to the middle of April, and from thence to the 29th; when the lard chancellor acquaints them, in the king's name, 'that 'the States, whom he had long found weary of the war,' (and, indeed, had made ſo; for they were quite diſcouraged from expecting help from England, when they ſaw the zeal and ſpirit of the nation entirely defeated and eluded by the court;) 'were making haſte to get out of it, and were en-'tered upon conſiderations of accepting ſuch a peace, as 'France had thought fit to offer, though it be without his 'majeſty's conſent or privity; a peace as ill for themſelves 'and the reſt of Chriſtendom, as their enemies could wiſh.'

And, in this difficult conjuncture, the king deſires their advice, (when it is too late) and reſolves to purſue it now; though their giving it before in time, when it would have been of the greateſt conſequence, was made a high crime. It is not my buſineſs to expoſe the inſincerity of the court in this whole affair: they who would ſee this, need only read Sir William Temple's Letters and Memoirs; a perſon of undoubted reputation and authority, and who was in thoſe times his majeſty's ambaſſador in the Low Countries. But I cannot but obſerve from theſe words, what a character the king gives of that peace that was a little after concluded at Nimeguen; and, what made that peace ſo ill a one, was the leaving ſo much of Flanders in the poſſeſſion of France, and the remainder ſo much expoſed by a weak and inſecure BARRIER.

But to proceed: the commons, who were willing to hope, that if the court were ſincere, things might be yet retrieved, came May the 4th to two reſolutions, which they laid before the king, without ſtaying to put them into the uſual form of addreſs, by reaſon of the importance of the affair, and the exigency of the time. In the firſt, they 'declared the 'league made with the States to procure a peace between 'the two crowns upon certain terms therein ſpecified, not 'to be purſuant to their addreſſes, nor conſiſtent with the 'good and ſafety of the kingdom:' and yet by theſe terms (had France been obliged to accept them) Tournay, Conde, and Valenciennes, were to be reſtored, together with the dukedom of Lorrain. The other reſolution was, to deſire his majeſty 'forthwith to enter into the confederacy for the 'vigorous carrying on of the preſent war; and particularly, 'that effectual endeavours might be uſed for continuing the 'States in the confederacy; and that no peace might be 'made with France, without general conſent firſt had.'

And, upon the king's refuſing to give any anſwer till he had the concurrent advice of both houſes, they immediately reſolved to addreſs his majeſty to give a ſpeedy anſwer to their laſt addreſs, and to remove thoſe counſellors who adviſed the anſwers to the former addreſſes of the 26th of May and 31ſt of January, or either of them; 'by which anſwers, they 'ſay, his majeſty's good ſubjects had been infinitely diſcou-'raged, and the ſtate of his affairs reduced to a moſt deplo-'rable condition.' They mean the progreſs of the French in FLANDERS, and the great jealouſy and uneaſineſs which that gave the nation. And, notwithſtanding the king told them May the 23d, that things were driving violently on towards a peace, yet ſtill, to prevent ſo much of Flanders remaining in the hands of France, they reſolved, if his majeſty would then enter into a war againſt the French king, they were, and always would be, ready to aſſiſt him. But theſe, and all the other efforts the commons could make, could not force the court into right meaſures, or prevent an ill peace; and ſerved only to vindicate themſelves to poſterity from having any hand in it.

It is impoſſible to read this ſhort account of the proceedings of the commons, and not obſerve of how very great importance they thought the ſaving of Flanders was to the ſafety and ſecurity of this nation. This was ſo plainly the known and certain intereſt of England, that all the arts the court could uſe, could not divert them from purſuing this point. This was the firſt parliament that was choſen after the reſtoration, which continued ſitting above 17 years, and cannot be ſuſpected either of not having a true regard for the prerogative, or a due deference for the ſentiments of the court. But the intereſt and ſafety of their country was ſo much concerned in the preſervation of Flanders, that this conſideration carried them into theſe meaſures, in oppoſition to the miniſtry, in which they ſteadily and unalterably perſevered, and the nation was entirely with them; the point, they preſſed againſt the court, having apparently no other foundation than their hearty zeal and concern for it's true intereſt. And the king himſelf thought fit, when it was too late, to expreſs at leaſt the ſame concern they did, and to concur in the ſame ſentiments; as appears from his ſpeech to them not long after, in which he opens his heart freely to them, and tells them he was 'reſolved to ſave Flanders, either by a war or a peace, 'as the greateſt foreign intereſt of this nation: that things 'ſeem already to have determined in a peace, at leaſt as to 'Spain and Holland; that he is reſolved to give his guaran-'ty to it in the ſtrongeſt manner he is able; but that he 'could not tell how far that would go, for that they had 'already ſent him word, that unleſs England and Holland 'will both join in the charge of maintaining Flanders, even 'after the peace, the Spaniards will not be in a condition of 'ſupporting it alone, and muſt fall into other meaſures: that 'France on the other hand will be left ſo great, that nothing 'abroad can treat them hereafter upon an equal foot, with-'out the hopes of being ſupported by this crown: that 'though after the ſupplies they had given towards a war, 'they may think the peace an ill bargain; perhaps they 'won't believe it ſo, if they conſider that by it ſo great a 'part of Flanders is likely to be ſaved; whereas, without 'the paces made towards a war, there is nothing ſo certain 'as that the whole of it would have been abſolutely loſt that 'campaign. And I believe you would, ſays the king, give 'much greater ſums than this will coſt you, rather than the 'ſingle town of Oſtend ſhould be in the French hands, and 'forty of their men of war in ſo good a haven over-againſt 'the river's mouth.'

If a nation will ever be allowed to ſpeak it's own ſenſe, it muſt be owned the Engliſh nation did ſo on this occaſion; and the reader will obſerve, that the king in this ſpeech, where he opens his heart to them, juſtifies their ſentiments. Here then is the voice of the nation, declaring in the fulleſt and moſt unexceptionable manner, that it is the true intereſt of England, that there ſhould be preſerved a good barrier in the Netherlands; and in order thereunto, that France ſhould on that ſide be reduced, at leaſt, to the terms of the Pyrenean treaty. And, it adds to the weight of this authority, that in this concurrence of prince and people in the ſame ſentiments, the people don't concur with the prince (in which they might be thought to be influenced or overawed) but the prince with his people; which it is certain could proceed from nothing in this caſe, but that they had moſt evident reaſon on their ſide, which was too manifeſt to be denied, however their deſires were eluded or refuſed. See our article FRANCE, FLANDERS, NETHERLANDS.

REMARKS on HOLLAND ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

Since the treaty of Utrecht, the Dutch have declined acting in concert with Great-Britain againſt France in the two laſt great

great wars. In the year 1742, the court of London ſent the earl of Stair to Holland, to influence them to join in Britiſh meaſures; and afterwards the earl of Cheſterfield, then principal ſecretary of ſtate, was ſent by his Britannic majeſty, with freſh applications to the States General. His firſt propoſition was, that the republic ſhould join with England and her allies in declaring war againſt France. The ſecond was, that they ſhould garriſon the ſtrong places belonging to the queen of Hungary in Flanders, that ſhe might be at liberty to employ her troops in the field. Thirdly, that Great-Britain ſhould take into pay 30,000 of the republic's troops, who were to be lent to the queen of Hungary, who was then likely to be greatly diſtreſſed. The fourth and laſt, was an offer of a new TREATY of COMMERCE between Great-Britain and Holland.

Their High Mightineſſes declined all theſe propoſitions, and left Great-Britain alone to ſuſtain the expence of that war againſt Spain and France; yet, at the peace of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, all their BARRIER TOWNS were reſtored to them by the VIth article of that treaty, at our expence, we giving France up CAPE BRETON, the only valuable conqueſt we then made.

In the laſt war, as well as the former, the Dutch reaped the full advantages of a neutrality in trade, and encouraged that of our enemies, to our great diſadvantage; whereby their gains became ſo extravagantly great, that they were enabled to lend us MILLIONS UPON MILLIONS, to carry on theſe wars; and we are now tributaries to them as our public creditors, for above one fourth part of our whole PUBLIC DEBTS thereby contracted; which, with what we were before indebted to them by the wars of king William and queen Anne, we now pay them near a million a year intereſt money: a prodigious drain from the wealth of this kingdom, and enables them ſtill more and more to ruin our trade and navigation, by extending that of our competitors; for the commodities of France are now become ſo much CHEAPER than OURS, that the Dutch give them the preference, and purchaſe and carry them to all parts of the world; while they experience Engliſh commodities to be ſo exceſſively DEAR, that foreign nations are not able to purchaſe them of the Dutch, who formerly were wont to buy them, and tranſport them to all parts of the commercial globe. See our articles DUTIES and LABOUR. And, Till the TAX-INCUMBRANCES of this nation are greatly reduced, and the general prices of our commodities are ſo lowered that we ſhall be able to ſell them as cheap as our rivals in trade, neither HOLLAND nor other nations can, or will be capable of dealing with us at all: and what increaſes this national evil daily, is, that while we grow more and more unable to vend our own commodities in foreign countries, foreigners will intrude theirs upon us, becauſe they here find a better market for them than in any other country; for the magnitude of public debts, and in conſequence the increaſe of the circulation of paper credit, adds a higher value to foreign commodities as well as our native.—Thus, while we are rendered leſs and leſs able to ſell our own wares, traders will deal in foreign, till the nation becomes unable to buy them becauſe they cannot ſell their own.

The duchy of HOLSTEIN in Germany. It is the moſt northern part of Germany, on the confines of Denmark, being ſeparated from the duchy of Sleſwic by the river Eider. It has the German Ocean on the weſt, the Baltic, or the gulph of Lubec, on the eaſt, and Lawenburg, with the territory of Hamburgh on the ſouth.

The country in general is fruitful, abounds with corn, orchards, black cattle, and hogs, and is well ſeated for trade.

LUBEC is an imperial city, and chief of the hanſe-towns, at the conflux of ſeveral rivers, the largeſt of which is the Trave, which brings ſhips of burden into the very heart of the city, 8 or 10 miles from the ſea. It employs about 150 ſail of it's own ſhips, for it has a conſiderable trade with Riga, Revel, Narva, and Peterſburg, and with this laſt more immediately than any other country.

As the Lubeckers have ſuch an immediate commerce with the ports of Livonia and the Eaſt Sea, ſo they have always great magazines of the merchandize of thoſe countries at Lubec; and large warehouſes again at thoſe ports reſpectively, with the manufactures and other goods of England, France, Spain, the Eaſt and Weſt-Indies, &c. Here they are able to ſupply the neighbouring countries with naval ſtores, and with iron, copper, beer, and all ſorts of goods, ſupplied by the Baltic trade.

Their chief home commodity, beſides corn, is beer, which is highly valued; much of it is tranſported, and uſed medicinally for wounds and bruiſes.

KIEL, at the mouth of the river Swentin, on a bay of the Baltic, is the capital of all Holſtein. It has a good harbour, well frequented by ſhips from Germany, Sweden, &c. is populous and wealthy. It is much enriched by it's yearly fair, which is kept for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and frequented by multitudes of all ranks. Vaſt ſums of money are here negotiated, and payments made of ſums contracted before-hand, as punctually as by an Amſterdam banker upon the exchange; inſomuch that the man who does not preſerve his credit at this fair, is looked upon as a bankrupt, and ſubjected to puniſhment, beſide the ſcandal. During this fair Hamburgh looks like a deſert, becauſe every body hurries hither to pay their rents, or to renew their leaſes, or to let out money, &c.

ITZEHO, on the river Stoer, is a ſmall town at the foot of a mountain, and has ſome trade by it's river, which falls about 7 miles below it into the Elbe.

HOPS, a plant of the reptile kind, whoſe flower is an eſſential ingredient in the brewing of malt-liquors. See BREWING.

Of the land fit for the planting of hops.

A rich, deep, mellow, dry ſoil, more inclining to ſand than clay, is in general, the fitteſt for hops; and, in particular, a black garden mould is excellent.

The beſt ſituation for hop-grounds, is ſuch as inclines to, or lies open to the ſouth, ſo that they may have the benefit of the ſun the greateſt part of the day.

Having pitched upon your ground and ſituation, the next buſineſs is to prepare it for the planting. In many parts of England, where they break up ground for this purpoſe, the plough goes firſt, and men follow it with their ſpades, and dig one ſpit in the furrow where the plough has gone, and throw it on the ſwerd, and ſo plough and dig till the whole be done.—Continue the ſame tillage which is practiſed on land for corn; or, rather, which is preferable, croſs-plough and harrow it well in ſummer; and, in the end of July or beginning of Auguſt, ſow it with turnip-ſeed, which being hoed twice, at the diſtance of 8 inches from each other, will make the ground fine, deſtroy the weeds, and make the turnips large.—When the turnips are off, give it another ploughing, which, with the winter mellowing, will make it fit for hop-planting in the ſpring; but, if your ground be rich, mellow, and dry, whether it be lay or fallow, begin to plough it in October as deep as you can, and let it lie all the winter to mellow by the froſts, rains, and ſnows; and, in the beginning of ſpring, harrow it well and plough it again, and in March harrow it fine, and lay it as even as you can.

When your ground is thus prepared, then on a ſtraight ſide of the field, at 15 or 30 feet diſtance from the hedge, ſtretch a line parallel to the hedge, with knots or rags tied in it, at ſuch diſtance as you deſign your hills, and ſtick in the ground a ſharp-pointed ſtick at every knot, as marks where the hills are to be; continue the line in the ſame manner the whole length of your ground; and from this firſt row you may mark out the reſt of the ground either in ſquares, chequer-wiſe, by making parallel lines at the diſtance the hills are to be, or in the quincunx form, where the hills of every row lie oppoſite to the middle of the firſt, in a triangular form.

The diſtance of the hills ſhould be according to the nature and goodneſs of your ſoil; if it be dry and ſhallow, about ſix or ſeven feet will be a convenient diſtance; if rich, moiſt, and ſubject to bear large hops and leaves, then eight or nine feet is the proper diſtance. But, in old ground, if your hills are too far aſunder, that inconveniency may be remedied by enlarging the hills, and increaſing the number of roots and poles: if your hills be too near, then leſſen the roots and number of poles, for over-poling is more injurious than the contrary.

The ſeaſon for planting is from the end of February to the 10th of April, at the time when the hop begins to ſprout.

There are ſeverals kinds of hops; thoſe moſt eſteemed are, the long white, the oval, and the long ſquare garlic hop; which differ from one another in the colour and ſhape of the bells, or hops, in their degree of bearing, and time of ripening.—The long white is a great bearer; the beauty of hops conſiſts in their pale bright green colour. The oval hop is beautiful, but does not produce ſo great a quantity: there is a ſort of this kind of white hop, called the earthy, or rath hop, which is ripe a week or 10 days before the common; but it is more tender, and bears but a thin crop: the chief advantage therefore is, that it comes firſt to market.—The long and ſquare garlic hop is the greater bearer, more hardy, and ſomething later ripe than the former; but, by reaſon of the redneſs round the ſtalk, is not ſo beautiful to the eye, and, therefore, not ſo much eſteemed.

There is a hop called the female hop, and, by ſome, the wild hop, which puts out a great number of branches of ſmall flowers about the beginning of July, not like the true hop; but in the latter end of that month, juſt before the true hop begins to flower, they are ripe, and then, with the leaſt motion of the wind, they ſhed a farina, which diſperſes itſelf quite round about, and poſſibly may be of uſe to impregnate other hops; and, therefore, ſome adviſe to leave one or two hills of them ſtanding in the hop-ground, till farther trial be made whether they are of any, or what uſe; but the ordinary practice is to mark them at their firſt appearance, and to root them out afterwards, becauſe they bear no bells or hops, and being commonly the ſtrongeſt plants, without care in marking them, ſetts may by miſtake be taken from them.

There is a poor ſtarved hop, called a wild hop; but this is not judged to be a diſtinct ſort, but a hop which has degenerated for want of culture.

The ſeveral kinds and goodneſs of hops may be known alſo by the colour of the vines, binds, or ſtalks: the whitiſh binds produce the white hop, both the long and the oval; the grey or greeniſh binds commonly yield the large ſquare hop; but the red binds produce the brown hop, which is leaſt of all eſteemed.

You ought to be very curious in the choice of your plants, or ſetts, as to the kind of hop, for it is a great trouble and loſs to the planter when his garden proves a mixture of ſeveral ſorts of hops, ripening at different times. He that plants the three ſorts of hops before-mentioned, viz. the early, the long white, and ſquare hop, in three diſtinct parts of his ground, will have the conveniency of picking them ſucceſſively as they become ripe.

Hop-ſetts are cuttings from the roots or branches which grow from the main root or ſtock.—Procure ſetts, if poſſible, out of ground, of the ſame ſort you would propogate; let them be 6, 7, or 8 inches long, with three or more joints, or buds, on them, all the old bind, and hollow part of the ſett, being cut off.

The ground being prepared, as obſerved, then in the latter end of February, if your ground be light, or late in March, if the ground be ſtrong and moiſt, in the places where you laid your ſticks, make holes, about a foot or 16 inches over, but their depth muſt be according to the nature of the ground; 10 or 12 inches depth in general is ſufficient.—But, if the ground be ſhallow, and you meet with hard clay or gravel, by no means enter into it, for then you make a baſon to retain water; but, in ſuch caſe, inſtead of going deeper, raiſe up a ſmall hill of good mould. If there is a good depth of rich mellow mould, then dig the hole a foot and a half, or two feet deep, and you will find the hops thrive better, for the top roots naturally run downwards.

When all things are ready for planting, fill up the holes with the mould which you threw out, if the ſame be naturally good, having firſt broke it fine with a ſpade; but, if the ſame be not rich enough, then make uſe of fine freſh mould, or compoſt provided for that purpoſe, about a peck or two to a hill, but by no means put any dung into it.

Then with a dibble make 5 or 6 holes, the depth of your ſetts, one in the middle perpendicular, and the reſt round about ſloping, and meeting at the top near the centre; put your ſetts therein, and let them ſtand even with the ſurface; preſs the mould cloſe to them, and cover them with fine mould, two or three inches thick.

Be careful to ſet the ends of every ſett upwards which grew ſo before, and let no part of the dead ſtalk remain on the upper joint.—If the ſetts have begun to ſhoot before you have time to plant them, by no means cover the young buds with mould, for that would deſtroy them.

The ground firſt planted, the ſummer following keep the hills and alleys clear from weeds; in the month of May raiſe a ſmall hill round about the plants, and throw ſome fine mould on the roots in the latter end of May, or beginning of June, and twiſt all the vines or branches together into a bunch, or looſe knot, and lay them thus twiſted on the top of the hill.—Some chuſe to put one or two ſticks, of three or four feet long, to each hill, for the vines to twiſt about; as more agreeable to the hop, eſpecially if the vines be vigorous; but care muſt be taken to prevent the hop from bearing the firſt year, for that would weaken the plant.

The hop-ground being kept clear from weeds in ſummer, the Michaelmas following lay on the alleys, between the hills, rotten dung, or that mixed with earth, or other manure, about 60 or 80 cart-loads to an acre, more or leſs, according to the goodneſs of the land. In November or December following plough it in, that it may the better incorporate with the ſoil.

The latter end of February, in the ſecond year, when the weather is kindly, open the hills, and with a ſharp knife cut off the ſhoots of the firſt year to within an inch of the old ſtock, together with all the young ſuckers that have ſprung from the ſetts, and cover the ſtock with the fine earth.—In the third and fourth years, when you dig your hop-ground in February, let the earth be taken away with a ſpade, or hoe, round about the hills very near them, that you may the more conveniently come at the ſtock to cut it.—Then in fair weather, towards the beginning of March, will be the beſt time, for late dreſſing reſtrains their too early ſpringing, which is the cauſe of many injuries to the hop.—If your hops are old, or worn out of heart, in the beginning of winter, or at fartheſt in January or February, if the weather be open, dig about them, and take away as much of the old barren earth as you can, and apply good fat mould, or compoſt, to their roots; ſuch winter-dreſſing will recover your hops, and deſtroy the weeds.

When you have dreſſed your hops, pole them.—In the firſt year of planting poles are not required; you need only twiſt the binds together into a knot on the top of the hill about the end of May, and let them lie ſo all the ſeaſon; but ſome think it better to give them ſhort poles or ſticks, of four or five feet long.

The ſecond year provide poles of 10 or 12 feet long, or more; the third year they come to their full bearing ſtate, and then require poles of full ſize, according to the vigour of the ground.

When the poles are ſet, and the vines are grown two or three feet high, ſuch as have not taken to poles of themſelves ſhould be guided by hand ſo to do; the ſtrongeſt vines always to the talleſt poles: be extremely cautious of breaking the tender ſhoots in doing this.

Having dreſſed and poled your hops judiciouſly, then ſome time in May, eſpecially after rain, give the ground the ſummer's digging, and throw ſome of the fine earth on the hills, and enlarge their breadth, cutting away and burying all ſuperfluous roots of hops and weeds you find on the hills or alleys, whereby you will hinder the weeds from impoveriſhing your hops, and keep your hills moiſt: by no means make up and finiſh your hills all at once, but by degrees, and at different times.

Hops are greatly checked in growth by a very dry ſpring; in ſuch caſe, when the hop is branching, or in bloſſom, you ſhould have the command of a ſtream, to give them a thorough watering; flowing the allies will be ſufficient, provided you throw the pareings on the hills immediately.—If the weather continues very dry, repeat this watering three or four times in the ſeaſon, and be ſure, after each watering, to throw ſome of the pareings of your alleys on your hills, to keep them cool and moiſt.

About the latter end of July hops begin to bloſſom; about the beginning of Auguſt they bell, and are ſometimes ripe, in forward years, at the end of Auguſt, or beginning of September.—When the hops begin to change colour, or are eaſily pulled to pieces, or ſmell fragrantly, and the ſeeds begin to look brown and grow hard, you may conclude them ripe; then pick them with all expedition, for a ſtorm of wind will do them great miſchief at this time; and hops picked green and bright, without bruiſing or diſcolouring, will ſell for a third part more than thoſe that are otherwiſe.

As faſt as you pick your hops, dry them on a kiln, or they will change colour; but, if you cannot thus immediately dry them, ſpread them on ſome floor, not too thick, and by that means the damage may not be great.

Great care ſhould be taken that your hops be thoroughly and evenly dried: this is a great delicacy in the management of hops; for, if they are over-dried, they will change colour, look brown, and be judged to be burned, and ſo greatly loſe in their value; and, if they be under-dried, they will loſe their colour and flavour.—It has been experienced, that even an handful of under-dried, hops has ſpoiled many pounds of others, by depriving them of their pleaſant ſmell and colour.

The beſt way of drying them is with a charcoal fire, on a kiln covered with hair-cloth, as they dry malt.—Lay the hair-cloth very even on the floor of the kiln, and ſpread the green hops thereon, about ſix inches thick, laying them with a rake as ſmooth as poſſible, not thicker in one place than another.—Let the kiln be firſt moderately warmed before you lay on the hops; then keep an even and ſteady fire under them; let not your heat be too fierce at firſt, leſt you ſcorch them; and let not your fire ſlacken, but rather increaſe, till the hops be near dried, leſt the expelled humidity ſhould return, and diſcolour the hops.—If they do not dry in one place ſo much as in the reſt, which may be perceived by touching them with a wand, and obſerving whether they rattle or no, then make them thinner in ſuch places where they do not rattle ſo much.

Hops are fully dried when the inner ſtalks become brittle, and break ſhort on rubbing, and when the hop-leaves eaſily fall off, and feel very criſp: when you find them to crackle and leap a little, as they will do upon burſting of the ſeeds, then it is time to take them off the kiln.

The fire ought to be gentle, and of a due heat, and, that it may be conſtantly the ſame, it may be of ſervice to make uſe of a thermometer: this inſtrument has a long, ſlender, hollow glaſs tube, with a round ball at bottom, cloſed at both ends, quite empty of air, but partly filled with ſpirit of wine tinged; which liquor riſes or falls in the tube in proportion as the outward air is either hot or cold.

When you have once found the degree of heat which is proper for drying of hops, and marked it on the thermometer, you may always after know how to regulate your fire with great exactneſs; for, putting the thermometer within-ſide the kiln for ſome ſhort time, you may obſerve, by the height of the liquor, when the heat is come to a right pitch, and when it is either too high or low, and ſo increaſe or ſlacken the fire accordingly.—Any ſervant may, by help of this inſtrument, be able to correct the degree of heat with great certainty, and not be liable to commit miſtakes, which often prove extremely detrimental to hops.—When you begin drying, loſe no time in that work, but employ people night and day, with the utmoſt care, till all be dried.

Hops break all to powder, if they are bagged hot from the kiln; to prevent which, they ſhould be laid in a heap, to ſweat and grow tough.—There is no certain time for their ſweating, that varying according to the weather; three or four days are commonly ſufficient; but it is a certain rule, that,

that, when you find the hops feel moiſt and clammy, and that they can be ſqueezed in your hand, or trodden cloſe without breaking, then they are fit for bagging; and the harder they are trodden, the better they will keep.

The bags proper for this occaſion are made of coarſe linen cloth. They are commonly about 11 feet long, and near two yards and a half round, and contain about 2 C. $\frac{1}{2}$; ſmall bags, or pockets, contain about half that weight: the thicker and cloſer the bag is, the better it will keep the hops.—When they are bagged, lay them upon a boarded floor, and in a dry place, for dampneſs will injure them much.—Take alſo care of rats and mice, which are apt to ſpoil them, not by eating them, but by making neſts and lodging in them.

Some, in treading the hops, uſe a 50 pound weight, faſtened to a rope, and place it in the middle of the bag; the man in the bag treads about it with his feet, and lifts it up now and then, to preſs them cloſer together.

As ſoon as the hops are picked, ſtrip off the vines from the poles; then take care, as your laſt work, to preſerve the poles during winter, which is done either by ſtacking, pileing, or houſing.

From October to March there is nothing to be done but to provide manure for the hop-ground, and to give the alleys a winter's digging or ploughing.

Ground that is fit for the raiſing of hops is generally ſo for the raiſing of poles. Ground that lies low, wet, cold, marſhy, boggy, or near rivers, is fit for all the aquatic kind, ſuch as poplars, abeles, alders, willows, oziers, and ſallows, which will produce hop-poles in four or five years time from their planting, and are raiſed in great quantities, at ſmall expence.

If your ſoil be dry, or a ſtrong, mellow, rich loam, aſh and cheſnut, which make the beſt poles for hops, will thrive greatly, and be fit for poles, from their firſt planting, in about 9 or 10 years; and, if they are planted about your hop-ground, they will both ſhelter your ground, and ſupply you with poles, without the expence of carriage.—Elms alſo are quick growers, and when planted cloſe together, grow tall and ſtraight.

The charge of an acre of hop-ground, in ſome parts of England, is computed thus: 3l. for the huſbandry, 4l. for the wear of poles, 5l. for picking and drying, 1l. 10s. for dung, 1l. for rent, and 10s. for tythe; in all, 15l. a year; and, in ſome places, they pay 4 or 5l. an acre yearly for the rent of the land.

The hop planters in England commonly agree with hop-dreſſers, to do all the huſbandry part, for 3l. to 3l. 10s. per acre, which takes in the ſummer and winter dreſſing of the ground, and pruning and dreſſing the hops and hills, and poling and tying, ſeveral hoeings, and making up the hills from time to time; they laying the dung on the ground, and doing all other work, except the bringing the dung to the ground, and the picking and drying the hops, which work is performed by others.—So that a gentleman has little trouble with his hop-ground; he need only take care that the undertaker does every part of the work in it's proper ſeaſon; and it is ſo much the intereſt of the undertaker to do ſo, that if he neglects hoeing when the weeds appear, he will, by ſuch neglect, greatly multiply his trouble and labour in rooting them out afterwards.

Remarks.

An Engliſh acre requires about 3000 poles; their price varies according to their ſize: it is uſual in ſeveral places to give as many ſhillings for 100 poles as the poles are feet long; ſo that, for 100 poles of 20 feet long, they give 20s. but where poles are in plenty, they give but 15s. for ſuch. It is computed that a recruit of 500 poles yearly will keep an Engliſh acre of hop-ground in conſtant repair: ſo that poles are about a third part of the yearly charge, and picking and drying another third, and the reſt is laid out in the managing of the ground.

The hop-planters in England reckon that they have but a moderate return, when the produce of an Engliſh acre of hops ſells for no more than 30l. They frequently have 50, 60, 80, or 100l. for an acre; nay, ſome have got conſiderably more for every acre of their hop-ground, at a time when other hops have generally failed, and theirs have ſucceeded. Such extraordinary profit, being very uncertain, is not to be depended on, but may be reckoned to make amends for failing years.

But if the whole charge of an acre is computed as above, at 15l. a year, and it's produce, at an average of years, at 30l. only, the clear profit per acre will be 15l. per annum.

We muſt take notice, that, when we ſpeak of the profit or quantity of hops growing on an acre, we ſuppoſe all along the hop-ground to be rich, and due care taken both in the culture of the ground and management of the hops; for, if they ſhould be miſmanaged or neglected, or the ſoil be poor, inſtead of yielding profit, they will be a certain loſs.

It is requiſite here to give this farther caution, that it is not proper for poor farmers, or men of ſmall fortunes, to engage far in this improvement, for it requires a pretty conſiderable ſtock at firſt to cultivate a large plantation, to furniſh poles, and to perform every other neceſſary: the expence will be great, and the undertaker muſt expect to lie out of his money for two or three years, before he can have any return of profit: and even when his hops come to their bearing ſtate, and he is in hopes of making good the charges he has been at, he may be diſappointed by a bad ſeaſon: theſe are riſques and expences which a perſon who has not a tolerable fund ſhould not in prudence venture upon.

It is not hereby intended to diſcourage any one from planting ſmall parcels of hops, ſuitable to his abilities; for the pooreſt farmer may eaſily ſpare time and labour to plant a few hops in a corner of his garden, and ſallows, willows, or aſh for poles in his hedges; which will yield him a conſiderable profit, without laying out any money for the ſame.

A large hop-plantation is an undertaking fit for gentlemen who live upon their eſtates, or for rich ſubſtantial farmers. Where ſuch are willing to engage herein, and find, upon trial of a ſmall plot of ground, that their land is fit for hops, it is adviſed that they employ ſeveral acres of their beſt land this way, make early proviſion for poles, by planting coppices of trees fit for that purpoſe, and making this their chief care and buſineſs: whereas, if they content themſelves with a ſmall hop-yard, as it will not be worth their attention, it will ſoon come to be neglected. A gentleman who ſhall lay out 10 acres on hop-plantations, and employ ſkilful hands, and ſpare no coſt in the right management thereof, may get as much profit by thoſe 10 acres, as by 500 acres, perhaps, otherwiſe employed.

The hops of 10 acres, rightly managed, may very well be ſuppoſed to ſell for 500l. and, allowing even 200l. for all expences, there will remain 300l. clear profit, which is more than could be got by 500 acres in other ways of ordinary huſbandry.

It is common in England to ſee 10, 20, or 30 acres of hops, or more, in the hands of one man; and ſome receive 2000l. a year for their hops, notwithſtanding the high price of labour, manure, and every other article relating to the management of hops; but then no care, induſtry, or expence is wanting, to make the plantation flouriſh.

It may be urged, as a diſcouragement to the hop-planter, that hops are a very tender plant, and an uncertain commodity to deal in; that they are very apt to ſuffer by winds, blights, mildews, rains, droughts, and inſects; and, when they wholly fail, the loſs is intolerable; and, if there be a general good crop, the price will be ſo low that it will hardly anſwer the charge.

It muſt be acknowledged, that hops often fail, by ſome one or other of the cauſes before-mentioned; yet we find by experience in England, that they are not diſcouraged by accidents of thoſe kinds from keeping up and inlarging their plantations of hops: though they fail in one place, they may, and do thrive in another; they may ſucceed in higher grounds, when they fail in lower; and in failing years, if your quantity be ſmall, they are ſure to ſell at a high price: it may be your good fortune, by careful and judicious management, that, when other hop-grounds generally fail, yours may proſper: and, if this ſhould happen, you may gain more by ſuch a crop in one year, than others may in three; and, if we ſhould ſuppoſe a general ſcarcity, which happens frequently in three or four years time, yet this is frequently a benefit to the planter, becauſe it will ſerve to conſume the old ſtock of hops, and keep up the price of new hops for ſeveral years following, which will make ample compenſation for the failing years; and it muſt be obſerved, that, in years when hops fail, you avoid a great part of the charge, which is that of picking and drying: but, if they ſhould be every-where in plenty, and their price very low, if you can forbear ſelling, lay up your hops, and you may, in a failing year, which may follow a plentiful one, be well repaid for your forbearance.

HUDSON'S STREIGHTS and BAY. The mouth of the ſtreight, which is in about 61 degrees of north latitude, is ſix leagues over, or, according to Mr. Dobbs, 12 or 13 leagues. At the mouth is an iſland called Reſolution: Charles Iſland, Saliſbury Iſland, and Nottingham, are in the ſtreights; and Manfeld Iſland in the mouth of the bay. The ſtreight, from Reſolution Iſland to Cape Diggs, at the entrance of the bay, is about 140 leagues in length: the land on both ſides, namely, Labrador and North Main, are inhabited by ſavages, of whom we have very little knowledge. The bay is about 300 leagues wide, from ſouth to north, or rather above 530, if we reckon from the cod of James Bay, in about latitude 51, to that of Repulſe Bay, in latitude 67. 10. but it's breadth is unequal, being 130 leagues where broadeſt; but it grows narrower, both to the ſouthward and the northward, being not above 35 leagues broad in ſome places. That part of the bay on the weſt ſide, in latitude 57, is called Button's Bay; and the eaſtern part, from latitude 55. 15. to 51, and the moſt ſouthern part, is called James's Bay. The coaſt, ftom Cape Henrietta Maria, in latitude 55. 15. where James's Bay begins, to the bottom of the bay, is about 100 leagues, and of much the ſame breadth all the way, being 50 and 60 leagues over.

On the eaſtern ſhore or coaſt of Labrador, lie ſeveral iſlands, called the North Sleepers, the Weſt Sleepers, Bakers Dozen, Belchier's Iſles; and, in James's Bay, Bear Iſland, Vineſs's Iſland,

Iſland, Charlton Iſland, Cape Hope Iſland, &c. All the country from Button's Bay, ſouthward and eaſtward, as far as Labrador, is called New South Wales. This country is of very great extent, lying all round the ſouthern part of Hudſon's Bay, which make above 100 leagues or 300 miles, from the north-weſt to the ſouth-eaſt. It has New France, or Canada, on the eaſt and ſouth; on the weſt a vaſt track of unknown countries, inhabited by ſeveral Indian nations, who come and trade here; but how far it may be ſuppoſed to extend towards theſe ſeveral countries cannot yet be aſcertained; ſince the Engliſh, who are the only Europeans, at preſent, who trade here, have no plantations or ſettlements within land, but live near the coaſt, within their forts, in little huts, wherein the builders conſider nothing but how to defend themſelves from the cold and rain, though they are not ſo much diſturbed by the latter as by the former. The continent at the bottom of the bay, is by the French pretended to be part of New France, and, indeed, to croſs the country, from St. Margaret's River, which runs into the river of St. Lawrence, to Rupert's River, at the bottom of Hudſon's Bay, which is not above 150 miles. The country of Labrador is called the Eaſt Main, and that of New Wales the Weſt Main.

The Hudſon's Bay company have ſeveral forts and ſettlements on the latter, namely, 1. At the mouth of Churchill River, in about latitude 59. and longitude 95 weſt from London. 2. York Fort, at the mouth of Nelſon's River. 3. At the New Severn. 4. At Albany River. 5. At Hayes's Iſland, And, 6. At Rupert's River.

The air, even at the bottom of the bay, though, by the latitude, it is nearer the ſun than London, being in 51 degrees latitude, is exceſſive cold for nine months, the other three months very hot, except on a north-weſt wind. The ſoil on the Eaſt Main, as well as the Weſt, bears no manner of grain, according to ſome; but others ſay the contrary.

Of the Hudson's Bay Company.

This company was erected in king Charles the IId's time, upon the following occaſion: Mr. Radiſſon and Mr. Des Groſelliers, two French gentlemen, meeting with ſome ſavages in the lake of Aſſimponels in Canada, they learned of them that they might go by land to the bottom of the bay, where the Engliſh had not yet been; upon which, the Frenchmen deſired the Indians to conduct them thither, which the ſavages accordingly did. The Frenchmen returned to the Upper Lake the ſame way they came, and from thence to Quebec, the capital of Canada, where they offered the principal merchants to carry ſhips to Hudſon's Bay; but their project was rejected. Hence they went to France, in hopes of a more favourable hearing at court; but, after preſenting ſeveral memorials, and ſpending a great deal of time and money, they were anſwered as they had been at Quebec, and the project was looked upon as chimerical †.

† The incredulity of men in power, in regard to matters of this nature, has been, in many nations, attended with conſequences highly diſadvantageous: but, although one of many projects of this kind ſhould prove ſucceſsful, yet that might very amply compenſate the nation for the expence of thoſe which might prove abortive.

The king of England's ambaſſador at Paris, hearing what propoſal they had made, imagined he ſhould do his country good ſervice, by engaging the above-mentioned Frenchmen to ſerve the Engliſh, who had already ſome claim to the bay. He perſuaded them to go to London, where they met with a favourable reception from ſome perſons of quality, merchants and others, who entruſted Mr. Gillam, a perſon long uſed to the Newfoundland trade, to perfect this diſcovery.

He ſailed in the Nonſuch catch, in the year 1667, into Baffin's Bay, to the height of 75 degrees, and from thence ſouthwards to 51 degrees, where he entered a river, to which he gave the name of Prince Rupert River; and, finding the ſavages diſpoſed to a friendly commerce, he erected a ſmall fortreſs there, which he called Charles Fort. The ſucceſs of this expedition was ſo remarkable, that the perſons concerned in fitting out the veſſel, upon the return of Gillam, applied themſelves to king Charles II. for a patent; who accordingly granted them one, dated the 2d of May, in the 22d year of his reign, A. D. 1670.

The commodities for trade here are gun-powder, ſhot, cloth, hatchets, kettles, tobacco, &c. which the Engliſh exchange with the Indians for furrs, beavers, martens, foxes, mooſe, and other ſkins and furrs. The great profits acquired by this trade, and the proſpect of engroſſing it wholly, engaged the new company to proſecute their meaſures vigorouſly, to ſettle a good correſpondence with the natives, whom they found very tractable, and willing to traffic with them on reaſonable terms: for the Indians about Rupert's River, and other places in the bay, are leſs ſubtle than the Canadians, who have had long commerce with the Europeans. They are generally peaceable and not given to quarrel, either among themſelves or with others, except the Nodways, a wild barbarous nation, on the borders of Hudſon's Streights; who ſometimes, in ſlight parties, make excurſions on the other Indians, and, having murdered 8 or 10, return in triumph.

In the year 1670, the Hudſon's Bay company ſent over Charles Bailey, Eſq; as their governor, who, with Mr. Radiſſon, ſettled at Rupert's River; and another factory was eſtabliſhed at Fort Nelſon. In the year 1683, Henry Sergeant, Eſq; was made governor at Rupert's River, with orders to be very careful of the French, who began now to ſhew themſelves very jealous of the trade carried on by the Engliſh company with the natives. At the ſame time the company was not a little perplexed, by ſome bad practices among their own ſervants; who, conſidering the hardſhips they endured in that cold country, thought they might make bold with part of the profits, which were intirely owing to their labour, and negociations with the natives: for the company, by their governors and agents, made ſuch contracts with the captains, or kings of thoſe people, where they had ſettlements, for the freedom of trade there, excluſive of all others, that the Indians could not pretend they had incroached upon them.—Theſe contracts were as firm as the Indians could make them, by ſuch ceremonies as were moſt ſacred and obligatory among them. In the year 1686, we find the company in poſſeſſion of five ſettlements, viz. Albany River, Hayes's Iſland, Rupert's River, Fort Nelſon, or York, and New Severn.

Their trade at each of them was very conſiderable. From Albany River they had generally 3500 beavers a year; and, by governor Sergeant's great care and fidelity, their commerce increaſed ſo much, that the French began to be afraid that all the upland Indians might be drawn down to the bay.

They knew they could do any thing with king James II, who then reigned in England; and, therefore, they reſolved to drive the Engliſh out of all their places in the bottom of the bay. They firſt took Hayes's Iſland, and, after that, the fort on Rupert's River. The French company procured a detachment of ſoldiers to be ſent, under the chevalier de Troyes, who came over-land from Quebec, and, in a time of profound peace, committed thoſe acts of hoſtility. It is to be obſerved, ſays our author, that the French have ſo good an opinion of the great work of their American colonies, as to take not only all lawful, but even all unlawful meaſures, to preſerve and enlarge them: whereas, obſerves the ſame gentleman, the Engliſh, who, next to the Spaniards, have the richeſt plantations in that part of the world, have been as negligent of them as if they were not worth keeping.

The 8th of July, 1686, the chevalier de Troyes came before the fort at Albany River, where the governor, Mr. Sergeant, then reſided. Two Indians having informed him, that the French had ſurprized the forts at Hayes's Iſland and Rupert's River, and had brought with them the great guns from theſe places, the governor did all that was in his power to defend the fort, but was not able to defend it above a week, as appears by the articles of ſurrender, dated July 16, 1686, which articles were but indifferently kept. In 1693 the Hudſon's Bay company, being aſſiſted by the government, retook all the forts and factories of which the French had deprived them in time of peace: but, ſoon after, they were driven out of them again by the French.

In the year 1696, the company applied to king William, repreſenting their own incapacity to maintain themſelves againſt the French, and praying the aſſiſtance of the crown for their ſupport.—Upon which, two men of war were ordered for their aſſiſtance, under the command of captain Allen; who, coming to Hayes's Iſland, ſent to ſummon all the forts to ſurrender. The French governor, finding that he could not defend them againſt the Engliſh, capitulated; and, on the 2d of Auguſt in the ſame year, ſurrendered Albany Fort, upon certain articles. The other forts ſuffered the fate of Albany. After this time, the trade of the Hudſon's Bay company declined extremely; and, in the next general war, the French renewed their attacks upon the ſettlements of the Hudſon's Bay company with ſuch ſucceſs, that they left them nothing but Fort Albany; which accounts for the low ſtate of their trade to the end of the war, and ſome time after. At the treaty of Utrecht great care was taken of this company, who, by the 10th and 11th articles, have every thing reſtored to them that had been taken from them, and an equitable ſatisfaction was ſtipulated for their loſſes; ſince which time, the trade of the company has wonderfully increaſed; inſomuch, that it became, at leaſt, treble to what it was at the time that peace was made, and continues ſtill in a very flouriſhing condition.

In regard to the product and commerce of this part of the world, the moſt authentic account is as follows: The Indians being obliged to go aſhore every day to hunt for proviſions, delays them very much in their voyages; for their canoes are ſo very ſmall, holding only two men, and a pack of 100 beaver-ſkins, that they can't carry proviſions for any time. If they had larger canoes, they would make their voyages ſhorter, and carry a greater quantity of beaver ſkins to market, beſides other ſkins of value, which are too heavy for their preſent canoes. This, and the high price of European goods, ſays Capt. Dobbs, given by the company in exchange, diſcourages the natives ſo much, that if they were not abſolutely under a neceſſity of having guns, powder, and ſhot, hatchets, and other iron tools for hunting; and tobacco, brandy, and ſome paint, for luxury; they would not go down to the factory with what they now carry.—At

preſent they leave great numbers of furrs and ſkins behind them. A good hunter among the Indians can kill 600 beavers in a ſeaſon, and can carry down but 100; the reſt he uſes at home, or hangs them upon branches of trees, upon the death of his children, as an offering to them, or uſes them for bedding and coverings. They ſometimes burn off the furr, and roaſt the beavers like pigs, upon any entertainments; and they often let them rot, having no farther uſe for them. See the article BEAVER.

The Indians on the weſt of the bay, living an erratic life, can have no benefit by tame fowl or cattle; they ſeldom ſtay above a fortnight at a place, unleſs they find plenty of game.

The natives, according to the ſame author, are ſo diſcouraged in their trade with the company, that no ſhips are worth the carriage: and the fineſt furrs were ſold for very little, when they came to the factory in June 1742. The prices they took for the European goods, were much higher than the ſettled prices fixed by the company, which the governor had thus raiſed, to ſhew the company how zealous they were to improve their trade, and ſell their goods to advantage. They gave but a pound of gunpowder for 4 beavers; a fathom of tobacco for 7 beavers; a pound of ſhot for 1; an ell of coarſe cloth for 15; a blanket for 12; two fiſh-hooks, or three flints, for one; a gun for 25; a piſtol for 10; a common hat, with white lace, for 7; an ax for 4; and a chequered ſhirt for 7; a bill-hook for one; a gallon of brandy for 4; all which, ſays Mr. Dobbs, are ſold at a monſtrous profit, even to 2000 PER CENT.—Notwithſtanding this diſcouragement, the two fleets went down with Joſeph de la France, from whom Mr. Dobbs had this account, carried back 200 packs, 100 in each pack, making in all 20,000 beavers; and the other Indians who arrived that year, carried down 300 packs, of 100 each, making 30,000 beavers, in all 50,000 beavers, and above 9000 martens. The martens are taken in traps, for, if they are ſhot, their ſkins would be ſpoiled. They have generally 5 or 6 at a litter.

The furrs there are much more valuable than thoſe upon the Canada lakes ſold at New York; [ſee CANADA] for theſe will fetch 5 or 6 s. per pound, when the latter ſell at 3s. 6d.

—If a fort was built at the Great Fork, 60 leagues above York fort towards the ſouth-weſt, and a factory, with the European goods fixed there, and a reaſonable price put upon them, the trade would be wonderfully increaſed. The Great Fork is that part where the rivers Nelſon and Hayes join; and, having run a little way together, ſeparate again, forming an iſland, which is called Hayes's Iſland. The northernmoſt branch is ſtill called Nelſon River, near the mouth of which ſtands fort York; the ſouthernmoſt branch is called Hayes's River by the Engliſh, and St. Thereſa by the French; who call Nelſon River the river of Bourbon, which name they alſo give to fort York. If ſuch a factory were ſettled, as juſt mentioned, the natives from the ſouth-weſt of the lake Pachegoia could make, at leaſt, two returns in a ſummer; and thoſe at greater diſtances could make one, who cannot now come at all; and above double the number would be employed in hunting, and many more ſkins would be brought to market, than they can now afford to bring, for the expence and low price given for them. The ſtream is ſo gentle from the Fork to York fort, on either branch, that large veſſels and ſhallops may be built there, and carry down the bulky goods, and alſo return againſt the ſtream.

The climate there is good, and fit to produce grain, pulſe, &c. and very good graſs for cattle. And if afterwards any ſettlements were made upon the lake Pachegoia, which is not more northerly than the latitude of 52 degrees, and veſſels built to navigate that lake, the trade would be ſtill vaſtly enlarged and improved: it would ſpread not only up the river and lakes, as far as the lakes Du Bois and Du Puis; but alſo among the Aſſinibouels, and nations beyond them; and the nation Des Vieux Hommes, or old Men, who are 200 leagues weſtward of Pachegoia. The nations who go up the above-mentioned river, with preſents to confirm the peace, are three months in going, and ſay they live behind a range of mountains, beyond the Aſſinibouels.

Mr. Dobbs further obſerves, from the account of Mr. Froſt, that the factory is built near the mouth of the river, in latitude 51. 28. upon a navigable river, which, at twelve miles diſtant from the fort, is divided into two branches; one comes from the ſouthward, the other from the ſouth-weſt. Upon the ſouthern branch all ſorts of grain thrive; as barley, beans, and peaſe do at the factory, though expoſed to all the chilling winds which come from the ice in the bay. Upon the ſouthern part, above the falls, there grows naturally along the river a kind of wild oats and rye, the huſk being black, but the grain perfectly white and clear, like rice. The Indians beat it off, when ripe, into their canoes, as they paſs along the river, it growing in the water, like rice. In the woods, at the bottom of the bay of Mooſe and Albany, as well as at Rupert's River, are very large timber-trees of all kinds; oak, aſh, &c. as well as pine, cedar, and ſpruce. They have exceeding good graſs to make hay, which improves every day as they cut, and feed it; and they may have every-where, within land, all ſorts of pulſe and grain, and all ſorts of fruit-trees, as in the ſame climate in Europe, for all ſorts they have tried thrive very well.

The French have got a ſettlement for trade, near the ſouthern branch, about 100 miles above the factory, where they ſell their goods cheaper than the company do; although it be very difficult and expenſive to carry them ſo far from Canada. They give as much for a marten-ſkin, as we do for a beaver, when we inſiſt upon three for one: ſo that the French get all the choice ſkins, and leave only the refuſe for the company. The French have alſo got another ſettlement pretty high up, upon Rupert's River, by which they have gained all the trade upon the eaſt main, except a little the company get at Slude River, the mouth of which is about 30 leagues to the north of Rupert's River.

On the ſouth-ſide of the great inland ſea lately diſcovered upon the eaſt main, there is an exceeding rich lead mine, from which the natives have brought very good ore, which might turn to great advantage, as well as the furrs upon that coaſt; which might be greatly increaſed, if the trade was laid open, and ſettlements made in proper places.

When Mr. Froſt was at Churchill, he travelled a conſiderable way in the country, north-weſt of the river of Seals. He was acquainted there with an Indian chief, who traded at Churchill, and had often been at a fine copper mine, which they ſtruck off from the rocks with ſharp ſtones. He ſaid it was upon iſlands at the mouth of a river, and lay to the northward of that country, where they had no night in ſummer.

The trade at Churchill is increaſing, being at too great diſtance from the French for them to interfere therein. In the year 1742, it amounted to 20,000 beavers. There were about 100 upland Indians, who came in their canoes to trade; and about 200 northern Indians, who brought their furrs and ſkins on ſledges: ſome of them came down the river Seals, 15 leagues northwards of Churchill in canoes, and brought their furrs from thence by land. They have no beavers to the northward of Churchill, not having there ſuch ponds and woods as thoſe animals chooſe to live in, or feed upon: but they have great numbers of martens, foxes, bears, reindeer, buffaloes, and other beaſts of rich furrs.

There is a great deal of the ſpruce, or fir kind of wood, near the old factory; but the wood improves as it is farther up the river from the bay; where they have juniper, birch, and poplar: and more ſoutherly the timber is larger, and there are great variety of trees.

They are under great inconveniencies at the new fort, which is upon an elevated ſituation upon a rock, without ſhelter, cloſe by the ſhore, ſurrounded with ſnow and ice for eight months of the year, expoſed to all the winds and ſtorms that happen, and is very barren. But, if a ſettlement were made higher up the river, ſouthwards, ſome leagues from the bay, in ſhelter, without the reach of chilling winds, they would have graſs and hay ſufficient, and might alſo have gardens and proper greens and roots, propagated there. 'Tis affirmed, that there is a communication between Churchill and Nelſon's Rivers, at a great diſtance within land, or a very ſhort land-carriage between them: for the Indians who trade here tell them what chiefs, with their followers, go down to Nelſon or Albany River.

We may juſtly wonder, that we never had till lately any clear account of theſe matters, conſidering how long we have had factories in theſe parts; and that, on the contrary, all the accounts, hitherto given, repreſent the coaſts of Hudſon's Bay, as the moſt forlorn part of the univerſe, hitherto diſcovered. But for this the ſame gentleman whom we quoted, has fully accounted; and it is requiſite that the public ſhould be well acquainted with the account that he has given; for, ſince the great council of the nation has thought fit to encourage an attempt to diſcover a paſſage this way into the South Seas, it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that endeavours will not be wanting to puſh that attempt to the utmoſt; to facilitate which, there is nothing of ſo great importance, as the proving that the diſcouragements which have been hitherto repreſented as inſuperable, have been over-rated; and that, notwithſtanding all that has been ſaid of them, it is not only poſſible, but probable, that they may be overcome: towards which, nothing can contribute more than the pointing out the motives, upon which they have hitherto been repreſented, in ſo ſtrong a light, which is very effectually done, in the following paſſage from the ſame author; who, as he has ſtudied this point, ſo it muſt be allowed he has made it as clear as with reaſon could well be expected.

'The company, ſays he, avoid all they can making diſcoveries 'to the northward of Churchill, or extending their trade that 'way, for fear they ſhould diſcover a paſſage to the weſtern 'ocean of America, and tempt, by that means, the reſt of 'the Engliſh merchants to lay open their trade, which they 'know they have no legal right to; which, if the paſſage 'was found, would not only animate the reſt of the mer-'chants to purſue the trade through that paſſage, but alſo to 'find out the great advantages that might be made of the 'trade of the rivers and countries adjoining to the bay, by 'which means they would loſe their beloved monopoly. But 'the proſpect they have of gain to be made by trading with

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'the Eſkimaux Indians, for whale-fin, whale and ſea oil, 'and ſea-horſe teeth, induces them to venture a ſloop annu- 'ally, as far as 62 deg. 30 min. to Whale Cove, where 'theſe Indians meet them, and truck their fins and oil with 'them. But though they are fully informed of a fine cop- 'per mine on a navigable arm of the ſea, north-weſtward 'of Whale Cove, and the Indians have offered to carry 'their ſloops to it; yet their fear of diſcovering the paſſage 'puts bounds to their avarice, and prevents their going to 'the mine, which by all accounts is very rich. Yet thoſe 'who have been at Whale Cove own, that from thence 'northwards is all broken land; and that, after paſſing ſome 'iſlands, they from the hills ſee the ſea open, leading to the 'weſtward. And the Indians who have been often at the 'mine, ſay it is upon a navigable arm of the ſea, of great 'depth, leading to the ſouth-weſt, where are great num- 'bers of large black fiſh ſpouting water, which confirms the 'opinion that all the whales ſeen between Whale Cove and 'Wager River, all come there from the weſtern ocean, ſince 'none are ſeen any where elſe in Hudſon's Bay or Streight. 'All along this coaſt from the latitude 62 degrees to 65 de- 'grees, a very beneficial fiſhery of whales may be carried on 'with theſe Eſkimaux Indians; who, even without the uſe 'of iron, can harpoon and kill whales; and if they were 'ſupplied with iron harpoons, and proper cordage, they 'might be brought to kill great numbers of them. At pre- 'ſent all their nets, lines, and ſnares, are made of whale- 'bone, and moſt of their boats and other neceſſaries of the 'ſeal-ſkins, fiſh-bones, and ſea-horſe teeth, and, in making 'all things neceſſary for them, they are very neat and inge- 'nious.'

The ſame judicious perſon, from whom we have borrowed ſo much already, has taken the pains to give, from very authentic relations, a very clear, as well as a very copious account, of moſt of the Indian nations that lie at the back of our northern colonies, and between the French ſettlements in Canada, and on the Miſſiſſippi River; with the countries they inhabited, and the product of thoſe countries, which I eſteem a thing of very great conſequence, and as material a ſervice to this nation, as has been rendered for many years; the account is too long for me to inſert, but the inferences he draws from it are ſo juſt, and of ſo high conſequence, that I think it would be an injury done the reader not to report them, as it would certainly be doing both him and the ſubject great wrong, to report them in any other than his own words, which without farther preface I ſhall uſe; only it is neceſſary to premiſe, at the time this gentleman publiſhed his book, the war with France was not actually broke out.

'How glorious, ſays he, would it be for us at the ſame time 'to civilize ſo many nations, and improve ſo large and ſpa- 'cious a country, by communicating our conſtitution and 'liberties, both civil and religious, to ſo many numbers, 'whoſe happineſs and pleaſure would increaſe at the ſame 'time, that an increaſe of wealth and power would be added 'to Britain!

'There is, at preſent, a beginning of this ſcheme, by the 'zeal of Mr. Barclay, who is inſtructing and civilizing the 'Mowhawks, among the Iroquois, who from a warlike na- 'tion have embarked in trade, and entered into alliances 'with all nations round the lakes Huron and Errie, and to 'the weſtward as far as the Miſſiſſippi, which is firmly eſta- 'bliſhed by the gain they make by the trade. The Engliſh 'from New York have fixed at Oſwego, in their country, 'upon equitable terms with all the Indians, who come now 'to trade there, whoſe names were never before known to 'the Engliſh. This therefore ſeems to be the critical time 'to begin this ſettlement, on the banks of Conde River. If 'there be a war with France, as we are at a great expence 'to ſave the liberties of Europe, and ſupport the houſe of 'Auſtria, ſince we can have nothing in Europe beneficial 'for us, in caſe we are ſucceſsful at the concluſion of the 'war, we ought to ſtipulate for ſomething advantageous in 'America; and the leaſt we ought to claim is our right to 'the American lakes, and ſecuring the navigation of them.

See the article CANADA.

'The French have, at preſent, two little forts, and about 'thirty men in each, at Niagara, and the ſtreights of St. 'Joſeph; and a few men at Miſſiliackinac, and at the bottom 'of the Illineſe lake. Theſe we ought to have from them, 'either by force or treaty, which would ſecure the inland 'trade to us, and prevent their future incroachments, either 'there or in Hudſon's Bay; and to do this effectually 'would be to make a ſettlement near the lake Errie, which 'may be done with little or no expence, conſidering our 'preſent barrier and alliance, and trade with the natives; 'and, whenever our troops are diſbanded, ſome of them may 'be ſent over upon half-pay, to fix in proper places, and 'make good our poſſeſſions; which would be a fine retreat to 'our ſoldiers, who can't ſo eaſily, after being diſbanded, bring 'themſelves again to hard labour, being ſo long diſuſed to it. 'By theſe ſettlements, and thoſe adjoining to Hudſon's Bay, 'and by opening the trade to the bay, many thouſands more 'would be employed in trade, and a much greater vent 'would be opened to our manufactures: whereas all the 'trade we have at preſent, whilſt it is thus confined to the 'company, is the employment of one hundred and twenty 'men in all their factories; and two or three ſhips in that 'trade, manned perhaps with one hundred and twenty men 'in time of war, to enrich nine or ten merchants at their 'country's expence, at the ſame time betraying the nation, 'by allowing the French to incroach upon us at the bottom 'of the bay, having given up by that means the greateſt 'part of their trade there to the French. It is therefore hum- 'bly ſubmitted to the government, whether it is not juſt, 'as well as prudent, to open the trade to all the Britiſh mer- 'chants, and reſume, at the ſame time, the charter, ſo far 'as to take from them all the lands they have not reclaimed 'or occupied, after ſeventy years poſſeſſion, leaving them 'only their factories, and ſuch lands as they have reclaimed, 'adjoining to them; and to give grants as uſual, in other 'colonies, to all who ſhall go over to trade, and make ſet- 'tlements in the country; for no grant was ever intended to 'be made to them, to enable them to prevent other ſubjects 'of Britain from planting thoſe colonies, which they them- 'ſelves would not plant or occupy; for ſuch a power, in- 'ſtead of being beneficial, would be the greateſt preju- 'dice to Britain. It is therefore become a general law in 'all the colonies, that thoſe who take grants of land, and 'don't plant them in a reaſonable limited time, forfeit their 'right to thoſe lands, and a new grant is made out to ſuch 'others as ſhall plant and improve them; and, if this grant 'be not immediately reſumed ſo far, and the trade laid open, 'and ſome force be not ſent to ſecure our ſouthern planta- 'tions in the bay by the government, in caſe there ſhould be 'a French war, we ſhall ſee the French immediately diſ- 'poſſeſs the company of all their factories but Churchill, 'and all theſe countries and that trade will be in poſſeſſion 'of the French.

'To the making ſuch ſettlements ſome objections have been 'made by the friends of the company: as the great difficulty 'of getting people to go to ſettle and plant in ſo cold a coun- 'try, and the difficulty and danger attending the making ſet- 'tlements higher up upon the rivers, and navigating them, as 'they are ſo full of falls and rapids, that can only be navi- 'gated by the natives in ſmall canoes, made of birch-bark, 'which cannot contain above two men with any cargo; and 'in theſe they are often overſet, and are in ſuch danger of 'being drowned, and of ſpoiling their goods, that they are 'often obliged to carry their canoes and cargo from place to 'place, which obſtructs greatly, and delays the navigation; 'and that ſcarce five men out of 120, which the company 'now have in the bay, will venture themſelves in, or can 'conduct ſuch canoes, without imminent danger of being 'drowned; and, conſequently, theſe hardſhips and difficul- 'ties will counterballance the profit to be made of ſettling 'higher up in the country, upon the rivers, in pleaſanter 'and warmer climates.

'To this I anſwer, That, by the accounts already given 'here of theſe climates and countries, by impartial perſons, 'who do not want to diſguiſe the truth, it appears that the 'cold is tolerable, even at theſe diſadvantageous ſettlements 'at preſent in the bay; and that, upon paſſing only five or 'ſix leagues up the rivers into the country, the climate is ſo 'altered as to be equal to thoſe of the ſame latitudes in Eu- 'rope; and that theſe prodigious accounts of the effects of 'cold are calculated only to ſerve the company, in order to 'prevent people from going there to ſettle, and incroach up- 'on the company's monopoly of trade. And to the difficulty 'they make about navigating theſe rivers in thoſe ſmall ca- 'noes, and the ſmall number employed by the company who 'will venture in them, or can conduct them, I anſwer, 'That their ſervants, being at preſent no gainers by trade, 'will not endeavour to learn to navigate theſe canoes, where 'there is any riſque and care neceſſary to prevent the danger. 'Beſides, the company allows them no time to learn, by 'confining them to their factories, whilſt the Indian trade 'continues, and the navigation is open; and at other times 'keeps them employed in cutting wood for firing, bringing 'it home, ſhooting, fiſhing, and digging in their gardens, 'to ſupply themſeves with proviſions, to leſſen the compa- 'ny's expence; ſo that they are allowed no time to learn to 'navigate theſe boats, or to go up the rivers to obſerve the 'ſoil and climate, or what improvements might be made in 'the country. But, if they were maſters of their own time, 'and could advance their wealth by trade, and found a con- 'ſiderable profit to ariſe to them by their dexterity in ma- 'naging theſe canoes, and the great pleaſure and ſatisfaction 'they would have by living in a fine climate, among theſe 'lakes and rivers, they would be as enterprizing and dextrous 'as the Coureur de Bois, and be as able to navigate among 'theſe water-falls, as the French. Neither is it impracti- 'cable to prevent even thoſe canoes from overſetting, by out- 'lagers, or blown bladders, fixed to their ſides; or other 'kind of boats may be uſed, ſuch as are made at Torneo in 'Sweden, upon the rivers falling into the Bothnic Gulph; 'and Laplanders might be prevailed upon to go there to teach 'them how to make and manage theſe boats, and train up

'rein-deer to draw in ſledges in winter, and alſo to uſe Lapland ſhoes, which are better than thoſe uſed in America.
'If the trade was once made free, the profit made upon it would induce many to go and ſettle upon thoſe rivers, when not only horſes, and other conveniencies, would be had near the water-falls, to aſſiſt the land-carriage in ſummer, but alſo horſes and rein-deer to draw their ſledges in winter, as in Ruſſia, which is almoſt as cheap a carriage as by water, when the proper roads are made through the woods: ſo that objection muſt be of no force to prevent our opening the trade, and ſettling theſe countries. But ſuppoſing the worſt, that we could not manage theſe canoes, that could not prevent our ſettling to advantage upon theſe rivers and lakes above the falls, for the natives might ſtill be our carriers, in navigating thoſe dangerous places, and taking our goods from one ſettlement to another, whilſt we ſhould be employed in navigation and trade among the lakes and rivers where there are no falls, in larger veſſels, and puſh our commerce ſouthward, into better climates and richer ſoils, and put the natives upon improvements in trade, by civilizing and inſtructing them in building convenient houſes, and aſſociating in towns, making gardens, and tilling their lands; providing them with horſes and tame cattle, and fowl, for their uſe, and proper tools, which our trade would furniſh them with.
'Another objection is, that it is a difficult and dangerous navigation into the bay, and the trade is not worth the riſque.
'To this I anſwer, That the navigation is not ſo dangerous as it is apprehended to be, but appears to be more ſo by the inſinuations and report of the company, and their friends, who gave it out in order to deter others from venturing and interfering in their trade; and for that reaſon they oblige their captains, under a penalty, not to publiſh any charts of the bay and ſtreight. Captain Middleton, who was in their ſervice, made above 20 voyages, to different parts of the bay, and never loſt a ſhip, nor had any accident in theſe voyages; nor have I heard that the company, in about 23 years, have loſt any ſhips in that trade but two, and the men and cargo were ſaved by captain Middleton. Where captains are careful in the ice, there is not much danger; it is of great advantage to them that there is no night at that ſeaſon they enter the bay, where the quantity of ice is greateſt; and when they return in September, or even in October, all the ice is in a manner diſſolved, or paſſed out of the ſtreight into the ocean, and none ſeen that can hinder their paſſage.
'It is probable that, during the whole winter, from October to March, there is no ice in the ſtreight to obſtruct their paſſage into or out of the bay; for a ſhip which chanced to be cloſed up with ice in an inlet, by breaking of the ice got out, and came through the ice at Chriſtmas, without finding any ice in the ſtreight to prevent her paſſage: for the ice which is formed in bays and rivers in winter, does not break up and get into the channel or ſtreight until it begins to thaw upon the ſhore, in March or April; at which time it is carried by the winds and tide into the ſtreight, and obſtructs the paſſage in May or June, until it is diſſolved; yet, even then, good pilots know how to avoid it, and get into the eddy-tide, out of the current, where the ice is more open, and not drove together by the winds and current, as it is in the channel. But theſe difficulties would leſſen every day, if the trade were opened, and the voyages more frequent, by the great number of ſhips, which would make many more experienced pilots.
'And as there is now a more accurate chart publiſhed of the ſtreight and bay, by captain Middleton, with the iſlands, ſoundings, tides, and variation, the navigation will become leſs dangerous daily, and coves, and places of ſhelter for ſhips, will be found out, by the number of ſhips which would then paſs, and be trading in thoſe ſeas which are now unknown. I therefore apprehend that the danger of the ice is more in imagination than reality, when care and judgment are employed; for ſhips are moſtly incloſed in ice in calm weather and fogs, when the ice prevents the motion of the ſea; ſtormy weather diſperſes and breaks the ice, unleſs they get under the lee of a large iſland of ice, and then they faſten to it, and drive along with it, whilſt the ſmaller ice to leeward is drove from them by the wind, and the large iſlands, being many fathoms deep in the water, come on ground before the ſhips are in danger of being forced on ſhore in ſhallow water.
'The greateſt danger and delay from the ice is in the entrance into the ſtreights; for the firſt 40 leagues from thence the quantity is leſs, and they paſs on with leſs difficulty; and after getting into the bay, the north-weſt ſide is the freeſt from ice; the bottom of the bay is full of low flat ice, which is all diſſolved in the latter end of ſummer.
'Upon the whole, except two ſhips, which were loſt in king William's reign, and a French ſhip, after an engagement with our ſhips, when they attacked fort Nelſon, I have heard of none, except the ſhips already mentioned, which have been loſt in the voyage. The two ſhips which went out with Barlow, in 1719, to find the north-weſt paſſage, contrary to the inclinations of the company, if they did not make the paſſage, were probably in the winter ſurprized by 'the natives, and were not loſt in the ice; for they ſay that 'the natives, in about latitude 63 degrees, where they ſuppoſe they were loſt, are ſhier, ſince that time, in trading 'with the company's ſloops; which they apprehend to be 'from a conſciouſneſs of guilt, fearing that, if it were known, 'they ſhould ſtill be puniſhed for it. Since, therefore, the 'greateſt danger from the ice is in paſſing the ſtreight, and 'ſo few accidents have happened in ſo many years, the navi-'gation, I think, cannot be called dangerous, though it has 'been ſo apprehended, and not equal to the whale-fiſhers, 'who go annually to Spitſberg and Davis's Streights, to lati-'tudes 78 and 80 degrees, without any objection to that 'navigation, either by the Dutch, Hamburghers, Danes, 'Biſcayners, or Engliſh.'

He concludes from thence, that the opening the trade, and ſettling in the bay, would prove a great benefit to, and great improvement of, our trade, which might be vaſtly increaſed, as well in reſpect to furrs as to mines, and the whale-fiſhery; all which might be carried on with the aſſiſtance of the Indians, and would turn to a very high profit, even ſuppoſing that no paſſage to the north-weſt ſhould ever be found; but, ſhould future experience demonſtrate that this gentleman's notions are, in this reſpect, well founded, and this long-ſought-for paſſage ſhould actually be diſcovered, it would then certainly follow that this country, ſo little known, and ſo much deſpiſed till very lately, would become of more conſequence to us than almoſt any colony in America. Here let me take the liberty of obſerving, what hitherto, as far as I know, has never yet been conſidered: that, if ſuch a paſſage to the north-weſt ſhould be diſcovered before theſe countries are tolerably planted, the French would have a fair opportunity of ſupplanting us in the advantages expected from that important attempt; and, perhaps, we ſhould then be forced to fight for the poſſeſſion of countries that are now thought not worth the having.

It may likewiſe deſerve ſome thought, whether it be not better to attempt ſuch ſettlements without loſs of time, as muſt at all events be highly uſeful and ſerviceable to this nation, by dividing the French ſettlements in Canada, and on the Miſſiſſippi, from each other, than to wait till the importance of ſuch ſettlements ſhall appear in ſo glaring a light, as they muſt immediately do, if ſuch a paſſage ſhould be diſcovered; for we ought to remember, from the famous inſtance of our being diſappointed in our deſign of ſettling the iſlands of St. Lucia and St. Vincent, that it is a very difficult matter, in a time of full peace, for us to acquire any advantage in point of commerce, at the expence of the French, who, in ſuch a caſe, would not fail to take the ſame vigorous meaſures that they did in the caſe before-mentioned. I have taken the more pains to place this matter in a fair and true light, becauſe I am perſuaded this is the time in which only it can be conſidered to advantage; for if the caſe now in view (I mean the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage) ſhould ever come, as I am convinced, ſooner or later, it will come to be the caſe in fact, the face of affairs will be quite changed, and this new rout to the South-Seas and Eaſt-Indies will produce ſuch an alteration in the whole commercial ſyſtem of Europe, that things will be ſeen to be then of the utmoſt conſequence, which at preſent moſt people look upon as dreams and viſions, notwithſtanding the late ſanction given them by the wiſdom of the parliament.

But it becomes a prudent and ſenſible people, and above all it imports a maritime power, to conſider things in time, and while what is propoſed for their benefit is eaſy, or at leaſt practicable, and not to defer and delay things, till, from being troubleſome and difficult, they come to be abſolutely impoſſible. We know what ſharp and cutting remarks have been made on the meanneſs of king James's ſpirit, in ſuffering the Dutch to deſpoil us of the ſpice trade: we cannot but remember the ſevere reflections on queen Anne's miniſtry, for not ſecuring to us Cape Breton; and, therefore, we ſhould be cautious of falling a third time into the ſame miſtake, and of running the hazard of making a great diſcovery, ſuch as all the world allows that of the north-weſt paſſage would be, rather for other people's benefit than our own, ſince it muſt paſs for a blunder, greater than ever was made by our anceſtors, and would render us effectually ridiculous in the eyes of lateſt poſterity.

Remarks before the laſt war.

The accounts given by the company being repugnant to what has been ſaid by others in relation to the country in general, and the commerce of the company in particular, we ſhall conclude with what has lately been publiſhed with regard to this matter, by Mr. Joſeph Robſon, in his Account of ſix years reſidence in Hudſon's Bay, from the year 1733 to 1736, and from 1744 to 1747, late ſurveyor and ſupervifor of the buildings to the Hudſon's Bay company, &c. and, if there are any falſehoods and miſrepreſentations contained therein, only to injure the company, and no way to ſerve the public, let the author anſwer for them, for the public can only depend upon the reports of thoſe who have been in theſe countries.

'I ſhall now proceed, ſays Mr. Robſon, page 62, to ſum up 'the material part of the evidence produced againſt the com-

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'pany [before the committee of the honourable houſe of 'commons] relative to their miſconduct, and to the country, 'climate, trade, fiſheries, and navigation of the bay.

'Firſt, It appears that the countries about the bay are ca-'pable of great improvement; that the lands ſouthward and 'weſtward of the bay are in good climates, equal, in their 'ſeveral latitudes, to thoſe of Aſia and Europe, and that the 'climate improves farther within land, the ſpring being 'earlier, and the winter ſhorter; that by Kelſey's Journal, 'produced by the company, and by Joſeph de la France's, 'which they have not controverted, the country abounds 'with woods, champaigns, plains, ponds, rivers and lakes, 'ſeveral hundred leagues weſt from the bay, that the land 'is covered with beavers, buffaloes, deer, martens, and 'other valuable furrs; and the rivers and lakes are full of 'ſturgeon, and other excellent fiſh.—It appears, alſo, that 'theſe fine rivers are navigable every-where with canoes, 'and in moſt places with larger veſſels, having but in-'conſiderable falls, up which canoes can be towed againſt the 'ſtreams, and that the lakes are navigable by larger veſſels.—'That upon theſe rivers, and about the lakes, are many 'nations, or tribes, of docile and humane Indians, willing 'to be inſtructed, and eager to engage in trade.—That the 'lands are capable of tillage, affording good paſture for horſes 'and cattle in the ſummer, and good hay for their ſubſiſtence 'in winter.—That at Churchill, the moſt northerly factory, 'horſes and cows have been kept in winter, though greatly 'expoſed to the froſt and cold.—That all ſorts of garden-ſtuff 'flouriſh at the factories; and, where barley and oats have 'been ſown, they come to perfection: at Mooſe factory, at 'the bottom of the bay, ſown wheat has ſtood the winter 'froſts, and grown very well the ſummer following, though 'the cold and froſt is greater, and continues longer here than 'within land: black cherries alſo planted here have grown 'and borne fruit, as would other trees, if propagated.—That 'the rivers upon the bay abound with white whales, and 'other valuable fiſh; and the ſea to the northward with black 'whales, ſea-horſes, ſeals, and white bears, which afford 'whale-fin, oil, ivory, and ſkins; the weſtern coaſt being 'no way mountainous, as in Davis's and Hudſon's Streights. 'That the ſeas and navigation are not dangerous, there be-'ing few inſtances of the loſs of ſhips in the bay, or in the 'paſſage thither.

'Secondly, It appears that, notwithſtanding the unſpeakable 'advantages to be obtained by planting and ſettling theſe 'countries, the climates of which are not worſe than Sweden, 'Denmark, Ruſſia, Poland, and North Germany, yet the 'company have not made, nor encouraged to be made, any 'one ſettlement or colony, having only four ſmall factories, 'in which they keep about 130 ſervants, and two ſmall 'houſes with only eight men in each, which is all the force 'they have provided to keep the poſſeſſion, and protect the 'trade of a country, equal to one-third of Europe.—That 'they have not, in 50 years, ſent above one perſon to make 'diſcoveries within land, which was Norton, who, by 'Brown's evidence, had been at the copper mine, though 'his journal was not produced to the committee; but none 'to make friendſhips and alliances with the natives, diſcourag-'ing even their ſervants from going up into the inlands to 'trade, though for their own benefit, nor even to prevent 'the natives from trading with the French, though they are 'ſenſible of their PERPETUAL INCROACHMENTS, and that 'they daily carry away the richer furrs——That, not-'withſtanding there are inconteſtable evidences of rich cop-'per and lead mines, and even of cinnabar, out of which 'mercury has been extracted, yet no encouragement has been 'given, or attempts made to ſearch after them, with a view 'to their improvement.—That the annual exports of the 'company have not exceeded 4000 l. and, in time of peace, 'their navigation has been confined to three ſhips, of 150 or '200 tons, with two or three ſmall ſloops ſtationed in the 'bay, that ſome years are not ſent out of harbour.—That no 'means have been uſed to civilize or convert the natives, 'nor even a clergyman ſent over to inſtruct and take care of 'the ſouls of their own ſervants; on the contrary, the learn-'ing the Indian language, or keeping up any correſpondence 'with the people, is ſeverely prohibited, under penalty of loſs 'of wages, and bodily correction.—And that none but plau-'ſible and inſincere attempts have been made to find out a 'paſſage to the weſtern ocean of America, though the pro-'bability of there being ſuch a paſſage is more and more 'ſtrengthened from the late diſcovery of bays, inlets, and 'broken lands, the weſtern ends of which are not yet diſco-'vered, and from there having been no rivers yet obſerved 'on the north-weſt coaſt.

'And what have the company and it's friends been able to 'advance, in oppoſition to theſe accumulated proofs of ne-'glect and folly? Why no more than this,—"That, if the "country and trade could have been improved to the degree "that is alledged, merely by making freſh diſcoveries, and "carrying on an induſtrious cultivation, it is not to be ſup-"poſed that the taking ſuch practicable ſteps would have been "omitted by the company, which, without doubt, is compoſed "of men of experience, who are wiſe enough to purſue their "own intereſts."—'This was the fundamental point with 'regard to which the committee ventured to croſs-examine 'the petitioners witneſſes againſt the company; moſt of whom 'were men of inferior ſtations, unqualified to aſſign the true 'reaſon why the company have acted ſo manifeſtly againſt the 'intereſt of the public, and ſo apparently againſt their own. 'But the true reaſon is obvious: "they had no legal right "to their excluſive trade ſince the year 1698, at which time "the act expired that confirmed their charter only for ſeven "years: if, therefore, at this period the leaſt evidence had "been ſuffered to tranſpire that the climate of Hudſon's Bay "is very habitable; that the ſoil is rich and fruitful, fit for "growing corn, and raiſing ſtocks of cattle, and abounds "alſo with valuable mines; that the fiſheries are capable of "great improvement, and the navigation not more danger-"ous than in other countries; that the trade may even be "extended by means of a navigable paſſage, or at leaſt by a "ſhort land paſſage, to the Weſtern Ocean; and that the "company, from theſe diſcoveries and improvements, are "grown immenſely rich and powerful:" 'I ſay, had ſuch 'proofs of a fine country and beneficial trade ſtolen abroad in 'the world, as they muſt unavoidably have done, if proper 'experiments had been made, "the company knew that the "legiſlature would have taken the right into its own hands, "and ſettled the country, and laid the trade open, for the "benefit of Britain." 'They have, therefore, contented 'themſelves with dividing among 100 perſons a large profit 'upon a ſmall capital; have not only endeavoured to keep 'the true ſtate of the trade and country an impenetrable ſe-'cret, but induſtriouſly propagated the worſt impreſſions of 'them; and, rather than enjoy the inconceivable advan-'tages of a general cultivation, in common with their fel-'low ſubjects, have, even to the hazard of their own ſepa-'rate intereſt, expoſed both country and trade to the in-'croachments of the French.

'The French, who are graſping at univerſal dominion, 'watch every opportunity for extending their trade, and ſe-'curing all thoſe countries which we abandon. But tamely 'to ſuffer them to diſpoſſeſs us of this important ſource of 'wealth and power, is, beſides the loſs, a diſgrace not to be 'borne by Britain; though borne it muſt be, if the com-'pany are permitted any longer to ſacrifice the good of the 'nation to their private intereſt. The legiſlature only can 'prevent the one, by putting an immediate ſtop to the other; 'and the legiſlature has but two methods to make choice of; 'either,

'Firſt, To purchaſe the company's right to any lands they 'have a legal title to; to lay the trade open, with the cuſto-'mary privileges and immunities; to ſettle the rivers, and 'coaſts adjoining, with European Proteſtants, who are 'now in great numbers ſeeking for places of ſhelter, in which 'they may enjoy their civil and religious liberties with ſafety; 'and, laſtly, to civilize the natives, treat them with gentle-'neſs and humanity, inſtruct them in the knowledge of uſe-'ful arts, and encourage their induſtry, by allowing them an 'equitable trade, and thus lay a foundation for their conver-'ſion to Chriſtianity. Or,

'Secondly, To confirm the ſole property of theſe extenſive 'countries, with all the royalties, powers, and privileges ori-'ginally granted by the charter to the company for ever. For, 'As by this they would become lords paramount, like the 'Dutch company in the Indies, and but barely ſubordinate 'to the crown of Great-Britain; ſo by this, and by this 'only, they will be induced to purſue thoſe meaſures that 'can produce any advantages to the company.'

REMARKS on HUDSON'S BAY ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE 1763.

This company having been deemed a monopoly of an injurious nature to the commerce of this part of the world, and has greatly tended to obſtruct the advances that private traders would have made therein, had it been laid entirely open, or been conſtituted a well-regulated company; and as there appears grounds ſufficient to induce the legiſlature to think of altering the preſent ſtate of the trade; and more eſpecially ſo, ſince this is ſo contiguous to CANADA, and may be ſaid to fall under it's DEPENDENCIES; for otherwiſe this company may ſpread itſelf, and prove detrimental to the free trade of our new acquiſitions.—And as our PUBLIC DEBTS and TAXES are ſwelled to ſuch an enormous bulk, ſhould we not attempt to open and extend every vein of commerce that promiſes any benefit to the kingdom, and bring in riches that will enable us to leſſen our commercial incumbrances?

HUNGARY, a kingdom ſituate between 16 and 23 degrees of eaſt longitude from London, and between 45 and 49 degrees of north latitude, bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north, by Tranſilvania and Walachia on the eaſt, by the river Drave, which ſeparates it from Sclavonia on the ſouth, and by Auſtria and Moravia on the weſt.

The country abounds with mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals, as alſo pits of ſalt. No ſoil is ſcarce more fruitful in the general. It produces good corn in ſuch plenty, that it is ſix times as cheap as in England. Their grapes are large and luſcious,

luſcious, and their wines, particularly thoſe of Tockay, preferred to any in Europe. They have as great plenty of graſs and cattle, of which latter they ſell incredible numbers to Germany, not leſs than 80,000 a year to Auſtria alone.

Among other medicinal plants, they have rhubarb. Their breed of buffaloes is very good, which ſerve them in ploughing and huſbandry. Their horſes are ſwift, but not large, and therefore more uſed for riding than draught. They have ſuch numbers, that their kings have brought 50,000 into the field. Here's abundance of deer, wild fowl, and other game, which every body has the privilege of taking, ſo that they are the common food of the very boors.

They have no great foreign commerce, beſides the exportation of their cattle and wines; and no other manufactures of conſequence, beſides thoſe of copper, and other hard wares, though the queen of Hungary at preſent, is greatly encouraging divers capital manufactures, which are likely to prove very proſperous. No country produces ſo many metals as this, tin excepted; and in ſome parts are found even diamonds, and other precious ſtones. The peaſants, even as they till the ground, ſometimes find grains of gold. They have likewiſe great plenty of white, red, and black marble, and ſome fine porphyry.

It's air is temperate, but in the ſummer the days are exceſſive hot, and the nights as cold. It's many marſhes and lakes render it frequently unwholeſome: and it's waters, except thoſe of the Danube, are ſtinking, but they are all well ſtocked with fiſh, eſpecially the Theyſſe, or Tibiſcus, where 1000 carp have been ſold for a crown, and in ſome places they throw their fiſh to the hogs: which prolific quality of the rivers is aſcribed to the hot exhalations that riſe everywhere out of the ſulphureous ſoil, eſpecially in the ſouth part. It's other noted rivers are, the Danube, Drave, Save, Raab, the Vag, or Waag, and the Gran. The Theyſſe riſes at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, and, after running weſt, and paſſing by Tockay, it turns ſouth, and falls into the Danube over-againſt Salankemen. The Danube, entering Hungary on the weſt ſide, runs to the ſouth-eaſt as far as Belgrade, and, in a courſe of near 300 miles through this country, forms ſeveral iſlands. The Drave, which enters Hungary on the weſt ſide, runs almoſt directly eaſt, till it falls into the Danube, a little below Eſſeck. The Raab, riſing in Stiria, enters this country alſo on the weſt ſide, and, running north-eaſt, falls into the Danube near the city of it's own name. The Waag riſes alſo in the north of Hungary, and falls into the Danube, a little below Kommora. This country abounds with ſalutary hot baths and fountains, of vitriolic, petrifying, and other peculiar qualities.

CHREMNITZ, or KREMNITZ, on the frontiers of Nitra, is the chief, and moſt ancient of mine-towns. Dr. Brown ſays, it's gold mine [ſee the article GOLD] has been wrought near 950 years; that 'tis the richeſt of the ſeven mines in theſe parts; that the entrance into it through an horizontal paſſage, called the Erbſtal, is 170 fathom deep, and that the vein runs 9 or 10 miles in length. Some of the paſſages cut long ago through the rocks are, by diſuſe, grown up again, and hardly paſſable.—It has 6 perpendicular ſhafts or pits, one of them 150 fathom deep, and lined with planks, to prevent the earth from falling in upon the miners, who direct themſelves by a compaſs to trace the veins, of which moſt part run to the north-eaſt.

The gold ore is of divers colours, of which the white, variegated with black ſpots, proves the beſt. They try or aſſay the ore [ſee the article ASSAY] by waſhing it, after 'tis pounded, in a ſmall river that runs by the town, and is divided into ſeveral artificial channels, which paſs continually over the ore, and waſh the earthy parts from the metal.—They convey the ore from the places where 'tis dug to that part of the pit, from whence 'tis drawn up in a four-wheeled cart, with a tongue of iron at the bottom; which, being fitted to a trough of wood cut in the middle of each paſſage, cannot alter it's courſe, ſo that a boy eaſily draws it. Theſe carts carry 3 or 4 hundred weight of ore.—So rich is this mine, that they have ſometimes found lumps of pure gold, of which ſpecimens are preſerved in the emperor's repoſitory at Vienna; and even the common earth, on the neighbouring hills, affords gold duſt. There is a mint in the town for the coinage of gold ducats, &c.

Not far from the gold mine is another of vitriol, 80 fathom deep, the earth of which, purified and reduced to a calx, is uſed in making aqua fortis. See the article AQUA FORTIS.

SCHEMNITZ, lies 28 miles ſouth-eaſt of Nitra, 10 eaſt from Koniſberg, 21 from the city of Bars, 36 from Newhawſel to the north-eaſt, 20 ſouth of Chremnitz, and 36 north of the Danube. This is ſaid to be the largeſt of all the mine-towns. 'Tis famous for fine medicinal baths, but more for ſix rich mines of ſilver; of which, that, called the Trinity, is 70 fathom deep; and another, called Windſchat, is much deeper. 'Tis in ſome places very cold, and in others ſo wonderfully hot, that the miners are forced to work naked.—Moſt of the ore holds ſome gold. There are alſo found in thoſe mines cryſtals, amethyſts, and vitriol, naturally cryſtallized. The country being rocky, 'tis difficult to bring proviſions to the town; ſo that, if it were not for the ſilver mines, it would have but few inhabitants.—Not far from it there is a rock, where is found a red ſubſtance, which grows to the ore, called cinnabar of ſilver, which makes as fine a vermilion for paint as the cinnabar itſelf.

Dr. Brown went down into one of the ſilver mines by a ladder of 300 ſteps, at the foot of which was an engine that pumped up the water by a wheel, which moved ſeveral other engines, and carried up the water to a neighbouring valley. Here are 200 men conſtantly at work.—This learned naturaliſt ſays, the ore is covered with a white clay, which he calls, according to ſome ancient chemiſts, lac lunæ; and that ſome of it yields half ſilver, though in other parts of it they think it well, if it yields 20 ounces upon the hundred weight.

He ſays, that black ore is the richeſt, mixed with a ſhining yellow marcaſite [ſee the article MARCASITE] which makes the ore fluid; but, if it exceeds in quantity, preys upon the ſilver*. [See the article SILVER.] He adds, that near the town there is a high perpendicular rock, part of which is a ſhining blue, mixed with beautiful green and yellow ſpots, ſo that it looks like an entire maſs of lapis lazuli, finely poliſhed.

* This is a very uſeful intimation to thoſe who may diſcover any kind of ores upon their eſtates; for they may contain ſuch a proportion of the nobler metals, as might well anſwer the extraction; but if the ſulphureous, or marcaſitical quality of the ore is not duly conſidered in the aſſay, and the large way of working, it will ſo embody and entangle itſelf with the purer metals, as well as the inferior, as to diſguiſe them, and conceal their true value from the artiſt. See the articles ASSAY, GOLD, SILVER, ORES, METALLURGY, REFINING.

HEWSOL, the capital of the county of Newſol (which lies eaſt from thoſe of Nitra and Bars, and is about 28 miles each way) is alſo called Biſtricia, and ſtands on the river Gran, 10 miles north of Novogrod, and 80 north-weſt of Hermanſtadt. 'Tis reckoned the third of the mine-towns, and is plentifully ſupplied with proviſions. It has not only ſilver, but the beſt copper mines in Hungary, with convenient furnaces, and other requiſites for the extraction of the ſilver from copper, the ore affording it. The ore is here ſo firmly incorporated with it's ſtone-bed, that the ſeparation cannot be made without great difficulty, the ore being ſometimes melted 14 times, according to Dr. Brown, before it produces copper fit for uſe. [See the article SMELTING, where theſe tedious and expenſive operations will be ſhewn to be greatly ſhortened.]

PAGGANTZ, KONINGSBERG, TILLEN, and LIBETEN, have been capital mine-towns, but what with the incurſions of the Turks, and the failure of the veins, they are pretty much abandoned. But,

HERMGRANT, about 7 miles from Newſol, has copper-mines ſo rich, that an hundred weight of ore yields from 20 to 60 pounds weight of copper. The ore is either yellow or black; the former of which yields moſt metal, but the latter contains ſome ſilver.—There are alſo ſeveral ſorts of vitriol found in theſe mines, as white, green, blue, and a tranſparent red, beſides a green earth, called Berg-green, uſed in painting. Here are ſaid alſo to be two ſprings of vitriolic water, which in 14 days turn iron into copper. They tell us theſe fountains are highly eſteemed, becauſe thereby the worſt old iron is made pure copper †, more ductile and malleable than the other made of the ore, which muſt be often melted, before it can be uſeful. Dr. Brown ſays, that this mine, for the number of paſſages and workmen, looks like a ſubterranean city; and that it yields the emperor 120,000 l. ſterling per annum.

† We cannot believe this to be true, but rather judge that the deception ariſes from this; that the vitriolate water, as it is called, is a water ſo ſtrongly impregnated with the natural nitrous and mineral fumes of the earth, as to be capable of diſſolving the copper in the manner of common aqua fortis, and of ſuſpending the copper ſo diſſolved in it's belly; and, when the iron is applied hereunto, the ſame nitrous mineral water lays hold of the iron, diſſolves that, and precipitates the copper, according to the ordinary principles of diſſolutions with aqua fortis. For confirmation hereof, ſee the articles MINES and MINERALS.

GLASHITTEN, or TEPLITZ, was formerly noted for a rich mine of gold. This place, at preſent, is much reſorted to for it's hot baths: among which is a ſweating-bath, the hot ſprings of which drain through a hill, and fall into a bagnio, built on purpoſe to receive them, at one end of which there's a noble ſtove, heated by the ſteams of thoſe waters, where the degrees of heat are more or leſs, according to the higher or lower ſeats. The ſprings of theſe baths, which are 40 or 50 in number, are tranſparent, yield ſilver, have red and green ſediment, and leave a ſtrong cruſt on the ſeats under water.

ESPERIES, a ſtrong town on the river Tarza, 4 miles from the frontiers of Poland, 15 north of Carchaw, 60 north of the Theyſſe, and 150 eaſt of Preſburg, is capital of the country

country of Scaros, and famous for it's fairs and ſalt-mines, particularly one 180 fathom deep, out of which have been dug pieces of pure ſalt of 1000 pounds weight. 'Tis of ſeveral colours, ſome greyiſh, and of delicate blue, ſome of a tranſparent yellow, and ſome ſo clear and hard, that they cut it into divers ſhapes like cryſtal. The water of the mine, when boiled, produces a blue ſalt which they give to the cattle.

LEUTSCHE, the capital of the county of Zips, or Czepus, ſtands near the Poliſh frontiers, 20 miles weſt of Eſperies, and 24 north of Torna. 'Tis a handſome large fortified town, with a conſiderable annual trading fair, inhabited chiefly by German Lutherans. They trade with all the neighbouring places, and are remarkable for their courteſy and plain dealing.

TOCKAY, a ſtrong town and citadel, on a marſhy plain, formed by the conflux of the Theyſſe and the Bodrock, 47 miles eaſt from Agria, 33 ſouth from Caſchaw, and 60 from Ungwar, 72 north from Zolnock, and 76 from great Woradin, and 90 eaſt from Buda. 'Tis famous for it's wine, reckoned the beſt in Hungary, much eſteemed all over Europe, and ſold at a great price; and alſo for a ſort of earth found in the neighbourhood, called Bolus Tockavienſis, noted for it's medicinal virtues.

Theſe are the chief places of trade in the UPPER HUNGARY, we proceed now to

LOWER HUNGARY, whoſe productions are much the ſame as thoſe of the Upper Hungary, though of infinitely leſs value in the general.

BUDA, and it's adjacent country, is pleaſant and fruitful, and produces rich wines, though in ſome places they have a ſulphureous reliſh.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, has Northamptonſhire on the weſt and north, Bedfordſhire on the ſouth, and Cambridgeſhire on the eaſt, and is not above 70 miles in circumference. The many meers and fens in it prevent the air's being pleaſant or wholeſome in general.

'Tis a great corn country, and, though the hilly parts don't produce ſo much as the others, yet the goodneſs of the air, and the paſture they afford for ſheep, make amends.

HUNTINGDON, the ſhire-town, is a populous trading place, and has ſeveral good inns.

RAMSEY, has one of the beſt and cheapeſt markets in England for fat cattle, and water-fowl.

HUSBANDRY, is the art of improving lands.

Our late accounts from Italy having informed us, that a public academy is eſtabliſhed at Florence, for the advancement of the art of agriculture, it may be uſeful to urge a word in favour of the like inſtitution in Great-Britain; all improvements of this nature being left wholly, as it were, to the farmer, who rarely has philoſophy, leiſure, or fortune ſufficient for the purpoſe.

As there is no ſubject of more general advantage than the cultivation of lands, and improvement of the vegetable kingdom; ſo there is none which has been more copiouſly treated of, nor none wherein the public have been more diſappointed in their expectation. And how ſhould it be otherwiſe, when the undertakers have either been covetous and illiterate gardeners and planters; or ſuch, that, if they acquired any thing new and curious, have not had public ſpirit enough to communicate it: others have jogged on in the old beaten track, without ambition to excel their predeceſſors. We have had now and then, indeed, a gentleman ſtudious and capable of obliging the world, free from thoſe narrow ſelf-intereſted views. An Evelyn, a Nourſe, a Lawrence, a Bradley, a Tull, have given us ſomething equally new and juſt, founded on experiment; but theſe are few, when compared to that uſeleſs tribe of unimproving writers.

In ancient times, nothing was eſteemed more honourable than paſturage and tillage, for even princes themſelves did not think them unworthy of their ſtudy and application.

Without entering into any detail of the progreſs this art ſeems to have made in the different ages of the world, it may be ſufficient to obſerve, that, in proportion as either private families or nations have applied themſelves to this neceſſary art, they have accordingly proſpered, and increaſed in number and power, and made the greateſt figure in the world. But,

As we judge it needleſs to ſay any thing in behalf of what is ſo generally allowed, we ſhall only recommend to the public regard the moſt recent improvements that have been made in this important art; which are to be met with in the before mentioned authors, and more particularly in an excellent tract, written by that ingenious gentleman Jethro Tull, Eſq; of Shelborne in Berkſhire: intitled, Horſe-Hoeing Huſbandry: Or, An Eſſay on the Principles of Vegetation and Tillage. Deſigned to introduce a new method of culture, whereby the produce of land will be increaſed, and the uſual expence leſſened.

As this eſſay has been publiſhed ſome years, a pretty good judgment may be formed of the performance. Every man who has conſidered the principles upon which our author's method of culture is founded, may diſcern how far his theory is conſiſtent with nature; though few, as yet, have made ſufficient experiments to be fully informed of it's worth.

How it has happened, that what propoſes ſuch advantages, hath been ſo long neglected in this country, may be matter of ſurprize to thoſe only who are acquainted with the characters of the men, on whom the practice thereof depends; but to thoſe who know them thoroughly it can be none. For 'tis certain, that very few of them can be prevailed on to alter their uſual methods; though their continuing therein diſables them from maintaining their families, and paying their rents. And, what is ſtill more to be lamented, thoſe who are averſe to improvements themſelves, diſſuade others alſo from thinking of them. This accounts for Mr. Tull's huſbandry being ſo little practiſed.

But, as the methods commonly uſed, together with the mean price of grain for ſome years paſt, have reduced the farmers every-where ſo low, that they pay their rents very ill, and in many places have thrown up their farms; the cure of theſe evils is certainly an object worthy of the public attention; for, if the proprietor muſt be reduced to cultivate his own land, which cannot be done but by the hands of theſe obſtinate and indocile people, it is eaſy to diſcern on which ſide his ballance of profit and loſs will turn*.

* If a public academy was eſtabliſhed by authority, for the improvement of the art of huſbandry, as is ſaid to be done in Florence; and the general practice of the experimental improvements, made by ſuch a body, was inforced by authority, by ſuitable rewards, &c. this would tend to render the diſcoveries of learned and public-ſpirited men generally uſeful; which are now too generally neglected, for want of being duly propagated and encouraged among the people. And if the improvements, made from time to time by ſuch an academy, were, after divine ſervice, obliged to be read in all places of public worſhip, it is humbly ſubmitted, whether ſuch a general practice may not tend as much to the temporal intereſt of all concerned in huſbandry, as public praying and preaching may to their ſpiritual?

This conſideration, together with many others which might be urged, hath induced us to recommend this treatiſe to the ſerious attention of all who wiſh well to their country; in hopes that ſome may be prevailed on, from regard either to the public good, or their own intereſt, to give the method therein propoſed a fair and impartial trial: for, could it be introduced into ſeveral parts of Great-Britain, by men of generous and benevolent principles, their example might, in time, eſtabliſh the practice thereof, and bring it into general uſe; which is ſcarce to be expected by any other means, unleſs by ſuch as we have humbly ſuggeſted.

It is therefore to ſuch only, as are qualified to judge of a theory from the principles whereon it is founded, that we do ourſelves the honour to addreſs them, to give this eſſay an attentive reading, craving leave to remind them, how unqualified the common practiſers of huſbandry are to paſs a judgment, either on the theory or practice of this method; for which reaſon it is hoped that none will be influenced by ſuch, but try the experiments themſelves with proper care.

As a motive to this it is to be obſerved, that, although the method of culture propoſed by Mr. Tull has made little progreſs in England, it is not like to meet with the ſame neglect abroad, eſpecially in France; where a tranſlation of Mr. Tull's book was undertaken, at one and at the ſame time, by three different perſons of conſideration, without the privity of each other: but, afterwards, two of them put their papers into the hands of the third, Monſ. Du Hamel du Monceau, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, and of the Royal Society at London, who has publiſhed a book, intitled a Treatiſe of tillage, on the principles of Mr. Tull. The ingenious author has, indeed, in ſome meaſure, altered the method obſerved by Mr. Tull in his book, yet has very exactly given his principles and rules: but, as he had only ſeen the firſt edition of the Horſe-Hoeing Huſbandry, ſo he is very defective in his deſcriptions of the ploughs and drills, which in that were very imperfect, and were afterwards amended by Mr. Tull, in his additions to that eſſay.

One of the principal reaſons for taking notice of this book is, to ſhew the compariſon this author has made between the old method of huſbandry and the new. By his calculation, the profits ariſing from the new are conſiderably more than double thoſe of the old. For, according to him, the profits of 20 acres of land, for 10 years, amount, at 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$ per livre,

By the old method, to 3000 livres, or l. 131 : 5 : 0 } ſter-
By the new method, to 7650 livres, or 334 : 13 : 9 } ling.

Which makes a prodigious difference in favour of the latter. As this computation was made by one who cannot be ſuppoſed to have any prejudice in favour of Mr. Tull's ſcheme, it will naturally find more credit with the public than any compariſon made by Mr. Tull himſelf, or by ſuch who approve his principles.

There have appeared no objections againſt Mr. Tull's principles or practice, which may not be equally urged againſt every ſort of improvement. One of the principal, it ſeems, is it's being impracticable in common fields, which make a great part of this country, without the concurrence of every one who occupies land in the ſame field. But doth not this equally affect the old huſbandry? For every ſuch perſon is obliged to keep the turns of ploughing, fallowing, &c. with the

the other occupiers; ſo that if any of them were inclinable to improve their lands, by ſowing graſs-ſeed, or any other method of culture, they are now under the ſame difficulties as they would be, were they to practiſe Mr. Tull's method. This, therefore, is rather to be lamented as a public misfortune, than to be brought as an objection to the practicableneſs of that method. Others object, that the introducing this ſort of huſbandry is unneceſſary, ſeeing the improvements which are made by graſs-ſeeds are ſo conſiderable: beſides that the returns made by the fold and dairy, being much quicker than by grain, engage the farmer to mix ploughing and grazing together. But,

When this is conſidered, it can have no ſort of weight: for is it not well known, that, in thoſe farms where the greateſt improvements have been made by graſs-ſeeds, the quantity of dreſſing, required for the arable land often runs away with moſt of the profit of the whole farm? eſpecially when the price of grain is low. If this be the ſituation of the moſt improved farms, what muſt be the caſe of thoſe which chiefly conſiſt of arable land; where moſt of the dreſſing muſt be purchaſed at a great price, and often fetched from a conſiderable diſtance? Add to this the great expence of ſervants and horſes, unavoidable in arable farms; and it will appear, how great the advantages are, which the grazier hath over the ploughing farmer. Wherefore it is much to be wiſhed, that the practice of mixing the two ſorts of huſbandry were more generally uſed in every part of the kingdom; which would be far from rendering Mr. Tull's method of culture uſeleſs, ſeeing that, when it is well underſtood, it will be found, we apprehend, the ſureſt method to improve both. For,

Although Mr. Tull chiefly confined the practice of his method to the production of grain, which is a pity, yet it may be extended to every vegetable which is the object of culture in the fields, gardens, woods, &c. and, perhaps, may be applied to many other crops, to equal, if not greater advantage, than to corn.

In the vineyard it hath been long practiſed with ſucceſs, and may be uſed in the hop ground with no leſs advantage. For the culture of beans, peaſe, woad, madder, and other large-growing vegetables, as alſo for lucern, ſaint-foin, and the larger graſſes, we conceive it the only method of culture for profit to the farmer, ſeeing that, in all theſe crops, one ſixth part of the ſeeds now commonly ſown will be ſufficient for the ſame quantity of land, and the crop, in return, will be much greater; which, when the expence of ſeeds is duly conſidered, will be found no ſmall ſaving to the farmer.

Nor ſhould this method of culture be confined to England, Scotland, and Ireland: for it may be practiſed to as great advantage in the Britiſh colonies in America, where, in the culture of ſugar-canes, indigo, cotton, rice, and almoſt all the crops of that country, it will certainly ſave a great expence of labour, and improve the growth of every plant more than can be imagined by ſuch as are ignorant of the benefit ariſing from this culture. And, ſhould the ſubjects of Great-Britain neglect to introduce this method into the colonies, it may be preſumed our neighbours will take care not to be blameable on this head; for they ſeem to be as intent upon extending every branch of trade, and making the greateſt improvements of their lands, as we are indifferent to both: ſo that, unleſs a contrary ſpirit be ſoon exerted in this nation, the ballance of trade, power, and every other advantage, muſt be againſt us.

There have been objections made by ſome to Mr. Tull's method, as if it were practicable only on ſuch lands as are ſoft and light, and not at all on ſtiff or ſtony ground. We have not learned that it has, as yet, been practiſed on either of theſe lands in England; but the impoſſibility thereof muſt not from thence be inferred: for the hoe-plough has been very long uſed in the vineyards in many countries, where the ſoil is ſtronger, and abounds with ſtones full as much as any part of this country. Though the uſe, however, of this plough may be attended with ſome difficulties upon ſuch land, for wheat, or plants of low growth, whoſe roots may be in danger of being turned out of the ground, or their tops buried by the clods or ſtones; yet none of the larger-growing plants are ſubject to the like inconveniencies. Beſide, the ſtronger the ſoil is, the more benefit will it receive from this method of culture, if the land be thereby more pulverized; which will certainly be the conſequence where the method laid down by Mr. Tull is duly obſerved.

But as moſt inſtruments, in their firſt uſe, are attended with ſome difficulty, eſpecially in the hands of ſuch as are indocile, the hoe-plough has been complained of, as cumberſome and unweildy to the horſe and ploughman. But, perhaps, this ariſes chiefly from the unwillingneſs of the workmen to introduce any new inſtrument. It is proper to obſerve here, that the ſwing-plough, which is commonly uſed in the land about London, will do the buſineſs of the hoe-plough in all ground that is not very ſtrong or very ſtony; and that, where it is ſo, the foot plough, made proportionably ſtrong, will completely anſwer all purpoſes. But it muſt be remembered, that, when theſe are uſed to hoe corn, the board on the left-hand of the plough, anſwering the mould-board, muſt be taken off; otherwiſe ſo much earth will run to the left-ſide as to injure the crop, when it is low.

The drills are excellent inſtruments; yet we imagine them capable of further improvement, Parallel grooves, at about an inch aſunder, round the inſide of the hopper, would ſhew the man who follows the drill whether or no both boxes vent the ſeed equally.—By an hitch from the plank to the harrow, the latter may be lifted to a proper height, ſo as not to be in the way when the ploughman turns at the head-land. Two light handles on the plank, like thoſe of the common plough, would enable the perſon who follows the drill to keep it from falling off the middle of the ridge; it may alſo be uſeful, in wet weather, to double the drill; by which means two ridges may be ſown at the ſame time, the horſe going between them: for the planks of two drills, each plank having one of the ſhafts fixed to it, may be joined end for end, by two flat bars of iron, one on each ſide, well ſecured by iron pins and ſcrews; and, by correſponding holes in the planks and bars, the diſtance between the drills may be altered, according to the different ſpaces between the ridges.

As Mr. Tull has endeavoured to recommend his theory, by making a compariſon between the old method of culture and the new, ſo we ſhall annex a computation of the expence and profit of each; both of which, it ſeems, hath been experimentally tried, by a gentleman of veracity, in a country where the ſoil was of the ſame nature with that from whence Mr. Tull drew his obſervations, viz. light and chalky; and we chuſe to give this the rather, as it comes from one who has no attachment to Mr. Tull's method, farther than that he found it ſucceſsful by his own experience: and experience may be appealed to, whether every article in this calculation is not eſtimated in favour of the common huſbandry; whether the expence be not rated lower than moſt farmers find it, and the crop ſuch as they would rejoice to ſee, but ſeldom do, in the country where this computation was made.

In the new huſbandry, every article is put at it's full value, and the crop of each year is four buſhels ſhort of the other; though, in ſeveral years experience, it has equalled, and generally exceeded, thoſe of the neighbourhood in the old way.

An eſtimate of the expence and profit of 10 acres of land in twenty years.

I. In the old way.

	l.	s.	d.	l.	s.	d.
Firſt year, for wheat coſts 33 l. 5 s. viz.						
Firſt ploughing, at 6 s. per acre -	3	—	—			
Second and third ditto, at 8 s. per acre -	4	—	—			
Manure, 30 s. per acre -	15	—	—			
				22	—	—
Two harrowings and ſowings, at 2 s. 6 d. per acre	1	5	—			
Seed, 3 buſhels per acre, at 4 s. per buſhel -	6	—	—			
Weeding, at 2 s. per acre -	1	—	—			
Reaping, binding, and carrying, at 6 s. per acre -	3	—	—			
				11	5	—
				33	5	—
Second year, for barley, coſts l. 11 : 6 : 8, viz.						
Once ploughing, at 6 s. per acre	3	—	—			
Harrowing and ſowing, at 1 s. 6 d. per acre -	—	15	—			
Seed, 4 buſhels per acre, at 2 s. per buſhel -	4	—	—			
Weeding, at 1 s. per acre -	—	10	—			
Cutting, raking, and carrying, at 3 s. 2 d. per acre	1	11	8			
Graſs-ſeed, at 3 s. per acre	1	10	—			
				11	6	8
				44	11	8
Third and fourth years, lying in graſs, coſts nothing:						
So that the expence of 10 acres, in four years, comes to l. 44 : 11 : 8, and, in 20 years, to				222	18	4
Firſt year's produce is half a load of wheat per acre, at 7 l. per acre -				35	—	—
Second year's produce is two quarters of barley per acre, at 1 l. per acre -				20	—	—
Third and fourth year's graſs is valued at 1 l. 10 s. per acre - -				15	—	—
So that the produce of 10 acres, in 4 years, is				70	—	—
And in 20 years it will be - -				350	—	—
Deduct the expence, and there remains clear profit on 10 acres, in 20 years, by the old way - -				170	1	—

II. In

II. In the new way.

		l. s. d.
First year's extraordinary expence is,		
For ploughing and manuring the land, the same as in the old way - -		22 : — : —
Ploughing once more, at 4s. per acre -	l. 2 : — : —	
Seed, 9 gallons per acre, at 4s. per bushel -	2 : 5 : —	
Drilling, at 7d. per acre	— : 5 : 10	
Hand-hoeing and weeding, at 2s. 6d. per acre	1 : 5 : —	
Horse-hoeing six times, at 10s. per acre -	5 : — : —	
Reaping, binding, and carrying, at 6s. per acre	3 : — : —	
The standing annual charge on 10 acres is -	13 : 15 : 10	
Therefore the expence on 10 acres, in 20 years, is - -		275 : 16 : 8
Add the extraordinaries of the first year, and the sum is - -		297 : 16 : 8
The yearly produce is at least two quarters of wheat per acre, at 1 l. 8s. per quarter, which on 10 acres, in 20 years, amounts to - - - -		560 : — : —
Therefore all things paid, there remains clear profit on 10 acres, in 20 years, by the new way - -		262 : 3 : 4

So that the profit on 10 acres of land, in 20 years, in the new way, exceeds that in the old way by l. 135 : 1 : 8, and, consequently, is considerably more than double thereof: an ample encouragement to practise a scheme, whereby so great advantage will arise from so small a quantity of land, in the compass of a 21 years lease, one year being allowed, both in the old and new way, for preparing the ground.

It ought withal to be observed, that Mr. Tull's husbandry requires no manure at all, though we have here, to prevent objections, allowed the charge thereof for the first year; and moreover, that, though the crop of wheat from the drilling-plough is here put only at two quarters on an acre, yet Mr. Tull himself, by actual experiment and measure, found the produce of this drilled wheat-crop amounted to almost four quarters on an acre: and, as he has delivered this fact upon his own knowledge, so there is no reason to doubt his veracity, which has never yet been called in question.—But, that we might not be supposed to have any prejudice in favour of this practice, we have chosen to take the calculations of others rather than his, having no other view in what we have said than to promote the cause of truth, and the public welfare. For more matter on this subject, see the articles LAND, SOIL.

REMARKS.

We would not be thought, by recommending Mr. Tull's theory of husbandry to trial, as if it contained the greatest advance that might be made in the art of husbandry; there are various other particulars requisite to be taken into consideration, in a matter of this importance, by those who would excel herein; a variety of which have been shewn in this work already, with regard to many of the capital productions of nature, which are the foundation of commerce; and the same will likewise appear in the future part of this work, we having endeavoured to reduce the principles and experiments of the greatest philosophers into the narrowest compass, and in the plainest language, in order to render them intelligible to ordinary practisers. See FARMING, MANURE.

HYPOTHECATION of ships and salvage. To hypothecate a ship, is to pawn or pledge the same for necessaries: and into whose hands soever the ship comes it is liable, 'tis the same if goods be hypothecated.

REMARKS.

By the common law of England, a master could not impawn ship or goods; for no such authority, general or special, is given to him by appointing him master: but, by the civil law, in cases of necessity he may, that the voyage be not lost: and the common law hath held the law of Oleron reasonable, that, in extreme necessity, the master may impawn for money, or other things.

But, for any debt of his own, he may not pawn the ship, nor sell or dispose of her, without special licence from the owners; and, when he doth, should have consent and advice of his mariners; but, when the ship is well engaged, she's for ever obliged, and the owners concluded till redemption. But the master may not impawn in every case of necessity.

If a vessel in her voyage be cast away, and the mariners by great pains recover some of the wreck and lading, the master in that case may pledge the same, and distribute the produce amongst his distressed crew, to carry them home: but, if they no way contributed to the salvage, their reward is lost. And, if considerable part of the lading be saved, the

master should not dismiss his men, till he knows the owners or freighters will, or he may be liable to damage.

Merchants freighting a ship at their own charges, which entering some harbour is there wind-bound, and the master detained till he wants necessaries, he is not only to write home for supplies, but may impawn the ship or lading at pleasure, or at least what he can most conveniently raise money on: and, if he cannot pawn the lading, he may sell what's necessary. However, orders and instructions are carefully to be followed.

A ship being greatly distressed at sea, and wanting a cable, the master contracted for one, which was delivered to him, &c. In an action for the money it was held, that, by maritime law, every contract of the master implies an hypothecation; but it is not so at common law, unless expresly agreed.

In the case of Johnson against Shippen, a ship in distress on the high sea put into Boston in New England, where the master took up necessaries, and, by bill of sale, hypothecated the ship: suit being in the admiralty against ship and owners for repayment, on a motion for prohibition, the court held, that the master's contract could not make the owners personally liable, but the suit against the ship was good; and to hypothecate is necessary to preserve navigation, for the master can have no other credit. If a ship in harbour in England be pawned, the party shall not sue for it in the admiralty.

A master may also subject part of the ship and cargo, to save the whole, and redemption is a kind of salvage: the master represents the owners and freighters, and may detain the goods for freight; and it is reasonable that a master compounding for goods, under the circumstances of a capture, should be satisfied by the owners.

By the naval laws of Oleron, if a ship laden be in the course of her voyage rendered unfit to proceed, and the seamen save what they can of the lading, the master may deliver the goods to the merchants requiring them, if he pleases, they paying freight in proportion to the part of the voyage performed, and costs of the salvage; but, if the master can readily refit, he may; and, though he has promised those who helped to save the ship the third or half of the goods saved, for their hazard, in a court of judicature their pains will be considered, and the reward be accordingly, without regard to the promises made them by the parties concerned, in their distress.

If a laden ship put to sea, and there perish, through the fault of the master or his men, the goods saved shall be secured: but, if it be proved the misfortune was caused by tempest, the remainder of ship and goods shall be brought to contribution, and the master retain half the value of freight, by the laws of Rhodes; which also ordain, to any person saving any part of a wreck, one fifth part of what he saves.

And for charges of salvage very great allowances have been made; as to the divers and salvers, the half, third, or tenth of the things saved, according to the depth of water, whether 15, 8, or 1 fathom; also a tenth for salvage on the coast, and the fifth to him, who, saving himself, carries something with him. If the ship only perishes, and the goods be saved, then they to pay the tenth or fifth, as the difficulty of saving requires; and gold, silver, silk, and the like, shall pay less than heavier and more burthensome goods, which are in greater danger.

In France they allow one third part for salvage; but, by the common custom of countries, every lord of the manor, &c. claims all his own, if it comes upon his land; contrary to some sea laws, which give it to the finder; though, by the opinion of lawyers, the finders should do as with other goods found on land; they should proclaim the things to be forthcoming to the true owner, and, none claiming, the finder to keep them to himself.

By stat. 12 Ann. cap. 18. All persons required by constables, &c. who shall act in saving any ship in distress on our seacoasts, or the cargoes, shall, within 30 days, be paid a reasonable reward by the master or merchant; in default, the ship and goods to remain in custody of the officers of the customs, till payment be made; and, if any difference arise about salvage, three justices of the peace shall adjust the quantum, which shall be binding to all parties, and recoverable in an action at law.

And, if goods thus saved are not claimed in 12 months, they shall be sold, the justices taking an account in writing, signed by the officer to whom they are intrusted; and, if perishable, must be forthwith sold, and, after charges deducted, the money arising to be transmitted to the Exchequer, with a fair account of the whole, for the use of the owner, who on proof of his property before one of the barons of Exchequer, shall, upon his order, receive the same.

If any persons shall molest any one in saving the ship or goods, or, when saved, shall deface the marks of any, before they are entered in a book for that purpose, such persons shall, in twenty days, make double satisfaction to the party grieved, at the discretion of the two next justices; or, in default thereof, shall be sent to the house of correction for twelve months.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE
continued from the end of letter G.

BOUNTY for the ENCOURAGEMENT of the BRITISH WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

BY 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6. was granted to the ſociety of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery, for fourteen years, from the 11th of October 1750, the date of their charter.

And by 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 4. was further continued for three years; and is,

For every hundred pounds actually employed in the ſaid fiſhery, 3 l. per ann. to be paid to the proprietors of the ſtock out of the cuſtoms, by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms, by equal half-yearly payments; provided the ſociety ſhall employ 100,000 l. at leaſt in the ſaid fiſhery, within eighteen months after the date of their ſubſcription. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6, 7.

In order to aſcertain the ſums from time to time actually expended and employed by the ſociety in the ſaid fiſhery, the account thereof muſt be delivered to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, ſigned by three, at leaſt, of the council of the ſociety, as an atteſtation that they have examined it, and believe it to be juſt, and atteſted by the oath of the accountant of the ſociety at the foot of the account; upon which, the commiſſioners are to order payment accordingly. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 6.

The ſociety are alſo to lay their accounts annually before parliament; and if loſs ſhould ariſe by one year's adventure, and there ſhould be gain by ſucceeding years, the gain muſt be applied to make good the original ſtock of 100,000 l. before any dividend is made. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 7.

By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 1, 2. this bounty is allowed to the ſociety on the ſum of 104,509 l. for two years, to October 22, 1752, and all future intereſt on that ſum is to be computed from that day; and all future computations of intereſt on any additional ſum paid in by the ſociety, in order to be employed in the ſaid fiſhery, are to be made from the day on which each ſum reſpectively is paid into the bank of England.

Any number of perſons ſubſcribing 10,000 l. or upwards, into the ſtock of the ſaid ſociety, and carrying on the ſaid fiſhery under their own management, and on their own account, from the port named by them; conformably, nevertheleſs, to this act and the charter (except as to being obliged to uſe the marks of the ſaid ſociety) and ſubſcribing under the name of the fiſhing-chamber of ſuch city, port, or town, are entitled to the ſame bounty. But their account of expences, atteſted by three of their committee, ſigned by their accountant, and verified by his oath, and alſo the vouchers, if required, is to be tranſmitted to the ſociety in London, whoſe accountant is to enter it in their account, delivered to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, as a ſum expended in the ſaid fiſhery by the ſaid ſociety. The bounty is to be paid to the ſociety in London, and by them paid over to the fiſhing-chamber, after deducting the neceſſary charges of receiving. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 18, 20.

BOUNTY on SHIPS built for, and employed in the BRITISH WHITE-HERRING FISHERY.

By 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 11, 12, 16. was granted for fourteen years, from the commencement of this act.

By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 4. further continued for three years; and is, for

Every decked buſs or veſſel, from 20 to 80 tons burthen, built in Great-Britain after the commencement of this act, for the uſe of the ſaid fiſhery, and proceeding thereon from ſome port of Great-Britain, and fitted out and employed therein by the ſociety of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery, or any other perſon, manned and navigated according to law, for every ton burthen 1 l. 10 s. BOUNTY, to be paid annually to the owners thereof, out of the produce of the cuſtoms, ſubject to the following regulations.

Every ſuch veſſel muſt have on board twelve Wincheſter-buſhels of ſalt for every laſt of fiſh ſhe is capable of holding, barrelled up in new barrels, and as many more new barrels as ſhe can carry, and two fleets of tanned nets, viz. for a veſſel of 70 tons, one fleet of 50 nets on board, each 30 yards upon the rope, and ſeven fathoms deep; and another fleet of 50 nets in a tender, or proper place on ſhore, each 30 yards upon the rope, and not under 5 fathoms deep, and ſo in proportion. And muſt have on board at the rendezvous ſix men for a veſſel of 20 tons, and one man more for every five tons above 20; and muſt return into port with the ſame number, unleſs reduced by death, ſickneſs, or deſertion, without fraud or colluſion. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 13, 14. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 3, 4.

Before ſhe proceeds on ſuch voyage, ſhe muſt be viſited by the proper officer of the cuſtoms, who is to examine if ſhe is qualified as above, and take account of her tonnage by admeaſurement, and certify the ſame to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, and whether ſhe is a proper veſſel to be employed in the fiſhery.

And further, upon one of the owners, or their agents, or a proper officer or agents of the ſociety, and the maſter of the veſſel making oath at the foot of the certificate, before the collector and comptroller of the port, that it is their firm purpoſe, and determined reſolution, that veſſel ſhall proceed, ſo manned, furniſhed, and accoutered, either to Braſſey's ſound in Shetland, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 22d of June, and not ſhoot or wet their nets before the 24th of June, and ſhall continue fiſhing among the ſhoals of herrings as they move ſouthward, unleſs prevented by loſs of maſts, or other unavoidable accidents, to the 12th of October; or ſhall proceed to Campbell-town in Argyleſhire, or Kirkwall in the Orkney Iſlands, and be at the rendezvous on or before the 12th of September, and continue fiſhing among the ſhoals of herrings as they move to the 11th day of January, unleſs they ſhall ſooner have compleated their loading *; and fiſh in an orderly manner, without obſtructing others; and ſhall keep a journal of their proceedings, and an account of the quantities of fiſh diſpatched to foreign markets, before they came into port, and the quantity they ſhall bring into port with them; and upon the ſame perſons giving ſecurity, in treble the value of the bounty, for the faithful dealings of the maſter and ſhip's company, the collector and comptroller of the port are to give them a licence to proceed on the voyage. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 12. and 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 2, 7.

* By 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 5, 6. the ſociety may follow the White-Herring Fiſhery in any part of the Britiſh ſeas; and are not to forfeit this bounty, though the buſſes ſhould not arrive at one of theſe places of their rendezvous on the reſpective days appointed, provided ſhe took her departure from one of thoſe at leaſt five days before the day appointed for their being there.

But in the interval, between the SHETLAND and YARMOUTH FISHERIES, the veſſels may put into any port of Great-Britain, or Ireland, to change their nets, or otherwiſe prepare for the YARMOUTH FISHERY; and are not obliged to carry more than one fleet of nets to the latter fiſhing. 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. §. 3, 8.

Upon the return of the veſſel to her port of diſcharge, the chief officer of the cuſtoms, or one appointed by him, muſt go on board and examine her condition and lading, and certify the ſame, with their obſervations thereon, and alſo the tonnage and names of the maſter, and other perſons on board *; and the maſter muſt make oath, before the collector and comptroller of the port, on the back of the licence, or to be annexed to it, that the veſſel was at one of the places before-mentioned at the time appointed, and has not ſince been on any other voyage, or purſued any other deſign, or view of profit; and that they did remain fiſhing according to the directions of this act, and had at the time of their rendezvous, the quantity of nets and other ſtores, and number of men, as above directed †. The licence is to be delivered up, with an account of what was done in purſuance of it; and the certificate, ſchedule, licence, and oath, together with the account of the fiſh taken, are to be tranſmitted, by the collector and comptroller of the port, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms for that part of Great-Britain, from whence ſhe is departed with her licence; who, being ſatisfied of their faithful dealings, are (upon the owners producing a proper certificate, from the receiver of the duty of ſix-pence per month from all ſeamen, for the uſe of Greenwich-hoſpital, that all money due on that account for every ſeamen on board ſuch veſſel has been paid) to cauſe payment of the bounty to be made by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms. 23 Geo. II. cap. 24. §. 15.

* A true copy of this certificate muſt be tranſmitted by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms with all convenient ſpeed, to the receiver of the duty of ſix-pence per month from all ſeamen for the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital, in London. 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 10.

† If, by virtue of the liberty granted, any buſs quits her ſtation, appointed by 26 Geo. II. cap. 9. in order for fiſhing at other ſtations, or does not arrive at one of the ſtations there mentioned on the day appointed, this oath is to be varied, and made conformable to the circumſtances attending ſuch reſpective buſs. 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 7.

The ſociety may lett out to hire any of their buſſes to be uſed and employed in the ſaid fiſhery only, and ſubject to the ſame regulations and reſtrictions as if employed by the ſociety. 28 Geo. II. cap. 14. §. 5.

I.

JAP

JAPON, or JAPAN. This great country conſiſts of ſeveral large iſlands, beſides a great number of ſmall ones, all making but one empire, called by the name of the largeſt in it, and which, excluſive of the ſmall iſlands, that lie ſcattered at a diſtance, conſiſts of the three principal ones, viz. Japon, or, as the inhabitants call it, Niphon, Ximo, the next in bigneſs, and Xi-Coco.

The ſoil produces great plenty of the fineſt and whiteſt ſort of rice, yearly exported hence in vaſt quantities by the Dutch. It produces a great variety of other fruits, and breeds vaſt numbers of cattle of all ſorts. It's mountains are enriched with mines of gold and ſilver, copper, tin, lead, and iron.

The commodities they export are chiefly rice, ſilks, cotton, &c. the fineſt of porcelane, varniſh, gold and ſilver, copper and ſteel, both excellent in their kinds, elephant's-teeth, and very rich furrs; tea of all ſorts, ſome kinds of ſuch excellent flavour and taſte, that it is ſold at a prodigious rate, even above that of gold, weight for weight; a great variety of medicinal herbs, roots, gums, &c. all of which, as well as the tea, are ſold genuine, without the adulterations committed by the Chineſe in theirs: ambergreaſe, pearls, coral, &c. In exchange for which, the Dutch bring them not only glaſſes of all ſorts, woollen and linen cloths, &c. from Holland, but furniſh them likewiſe with many other commodities from Siam, China, and other parts of India. In the carrying on which commerce is this further encouragement, that no cuſtom is paid for goods, either imported or exported; only care muſt be taken to deal with the ſame fairneſs and honeſty that the Japoneſe uſe, for thoſe who treſpaſs herein are ſure to be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

In the iſland of NIPHON is

MEACO, once the metropolis of the whole empire. It is ſituated near the middle of the ſouth coaſt, in a ſpacious and fertile plain. It is ſtill the grand ſtorehouſe of all the manufactures of the empire, and a place of the greateſt commerce for all ſorts of merchandize that come from abroad. But the moſt valuable wares in it are either thoſe which are wrought in gold and ſilver, the fineſt of ſilk, Japon cabinets, &c. the richeſt porcelane, and the beſt ſteel blades of all ſorts; all of them, eſpecially the laſt, greatly exceeding thoſe wrought in China.

JEDDO, the other, or new metropolis, ſtands at the end of a bay, famed for it's great plenty of fiſh, but ſo ſhallow as not to admit ſhips of bulk, which they are forced to unload about a league below the city.

OSACCA and SACCAI are ſituate on each ſide of a large river, near the mouth of it. The former is reckoned one of the chief ſea-ports in the whole empire. It ſwarms with artificers of all kinds, beſides rich merchants, and much nobility and gentry.

SURUNGA is another maritime city, but it is at preſent in a great meaſure abandoned. The Engliſh were once allowed to trade here.

In the iſland of XIMO, are CANGOXUMA, ſituate on the ſouthern coaſt of the iſland, and which was made the center of commerce by the Portugueze, on account of it's commodious ſituation and harbour, though the entrance be ſomewhat dangerous, on account of the many rocks near it.

NANGAZAKI is ſituate on the weſtern coaſt, at the end of a deep convenient bay. The Dutch are lodged on a ſmall iſland, facing the town, where they are confined and watched all the time they ſtay.

The town is well filled with merchants, and artiſts in all trades and manufactures, which bear here a greater price than in other parts of Japan. The haven, which is long, deep, and commodious, is ſeldom without 50 or 60 merchant-ſhips, beſides ſmaller veſſels, and a great number of fiſhing-boats.

The laſt conſiderable iſland in the whole empire is

XICOKO, lying between Ximo on the weſt, and Niphon on the eaſt and north.

It hath ſeveral good ports round it; AWA is the principal city.

Round about the coaſts of theſe three principal iſlands are a vaſt number of ſmaller ones, of different ſizes and natures, ſome inhabited, others deſert. Some few of them are large,

JAV

and fertile enough to maintain a governor, and produce not only corn, cattle, ſugar, and other ſuch commodities, but likewiſe, variety of metals and minerals, and, among them, gold and ſilver, beſides ſeveral of precious ſtones, quarries of marble, &c.

One of them, called FIRANDO, was the firſt on which the Dutch choſe to make their head ſettlement.

JAVA, an iſland in the Eaſt-Indies, in Aſia, the greateſt part of it under the dominion of the Dutch. It extends from longitude 105 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 116; and from ſouth latitude 5 to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$. It is ſeparated from the ſouth eaſt part of Sumatra by the ſtreights of Sunda, where they are not above five or ſix leagues over; is about 120 miles off Borneo, to which there is a convenient paſſage for ſmall veſſels; and has the ocean on the ſouth: it ſtretches almoſt due eaſt and weſt, only the eaſt end declines a little to the ſouth.

The air is not very hot, and about Batavia eſpecially it is temperate and healthy. The eaſt and weſt winds blow all the year along the ſhore, beſides the ordinary land and ſea winds. Their ſummer begins in May, but June is reckoned the pleaſanteſt month; and here is a continual clear ſky till November, when the winter comes on with hard rains, that hold ſometimes three or four days together, without intermiſſion. In December the winds are ſo violent, that there is no paſſing by ſea. In February it is changeable weather, with ſudden thunder-ſtorms. In March they begin to ſow; in July the ſugar and rice begin to ripen; in September they gather them; and in October they have plenty of all ſorts of fruits, flowers, and herbs. The low lands near the ſhore are generally marſhy, and over-run with reeds and bamboes, except about Batavia and Bantam, and a few other towns, where the meadows, being drained, are fitted for tillage; and their rice-fields and kitchen-gardens are well ſupplied with water, from the numerous rivulets which run through the country.

Great part of the iſland, indeed, is ſtill unknown, by reaſon of the ſeveral high mountains and unpaſſable foreſts. The north part, between Bantam and Batavia, is populous; and, beſides the Indian fruits and rice (the only corn that grows here) produces pulſe, and all ſorts of European garden-ſtuff, with ſome tobacco, ſalt and pepper; the laſt of which, though by ſome reckoned the beſt, is not ſo good as that of Malabar. The inland people, being ſuffered to traffic with no other nation, are forced to ſell this, and their other merchandize, to the Dutch, at their own price. It abounds ſo greatly with pepper, that it can export 10,000 tons a year. It alſo produces bees-wax and benzoin, and has mines of gold and ſilver, copper and iron, and ſome diamonds, rubies, emeralds, &c. beſides ſtone-quarries near Batavia, and good earth for bricks.

Their paſture is rank and ſour, and, conſequently, the fleſh of their cattle is coarſe. The Dutch have introduced vines about Batavia, which will bear ſeven times within two years, yet they can make no wine, and have none but what comes from Europe or Perſia, which is valued at four or five ſhillings a bottle.

The Javans on the coaſt drive a conſiderable trade from port to port, and from one iſland to another in this Indian Archipelago, and particularly to Borneo, exchanging goods in one place for ſuch as they can ſell in another; but they are ſuch a cheating people that no body cares to deal with them, except in public. They carry with them ſtrings of coral, and coral-beads; and ſometimes the Dutch buy diamonds of them, which they get at Borneo.

The trade being here wholly in the hands of the Dutch, and, indeed, ſo much of the iſland itſelf as they require, they have the benefit of the product, &c. as much as if the natives were their ſubjects: for they not only ſubmit to trade with them, but come freely with their commodities, eſpecially pepper, to Batavia, where the Dutch buy it ready cured, ſo that they are at no trouble to make it marketable.

The Dutch have planted ſo many ſugar-canes in the country, eſpecially about Batavia, that, beſides ſupplying that large and populous colony, and their factories in the Spice Iſlands, &c. we ſee large entries of ſugar in Holland by all their fleets from Batavia.

Coffee is another addition which the Dutch have made to the produce of Java, the quality of which is ſaid to improve as the quantity increaſes; ſo that, though it be not altogether ſo good as that of Mocha, they ſend conſiderable quantities of it every year to Europe.

As for their rice, they ſell it to the Chineſe and Malayan merchants, who export it. They have alſo a very great trade among themſelves, in the conſumption of European commodities, of which they bring greater quantities to the Indies than the Engliſh, it being computed that, ſince the vaſt conflux of ſtrangers to Batavia, the Dutch have not leſs than half a million of people under their government, here and in the Spice Iſlands.

They have naval ſtores, partly the product and manufacture of this iſland, and partly imported as copper from China and Japan; iron from Pegu; damer, or pitch from Malacca; brimſtone from Formoſa; ſalt-petre from Surat, and that coaſt of India; and wheat from Bengal, though the Europeans, &c. prefer boiled rice to bread.

They have timber of their own ſufficient for building, particularly good oak, and a red wood like cedar, beſide cacao's and bamboo's; and the only military ſtores they can want is ſmall arms, of which they bring great quantities from Europe; though, as they have very good iron enough, they might make them on the ſpot.

BANTAM, is the firſt place of commerce, at the weſt end of Java, and was the metropolis of a great kingdom, till the Dutch deſtroyed it, and depoſed the king. It ſtands in a plain at the foot of a mountain, from whence iſſues a river that divides itſelf into three ſtreams, two of which ſurround the town, and the third paſſes through it. When in it's glory, it was reckoned 12 miles in compaſs, very populous, well fortified and adorned with ſeveral grand buildings and palaces; one of the greateſt ports in theſe ſeas, to which all nations reſorted, and where the Engliſh and Danes alſo had flouriſhing factories, till the Dutch, by a pretended authority from the new king, whom they had aſſiſted the rebel natives in placing on the throne, after they had taken his father priſoner, and ſent him to Batavia, obliged them both to quit the place, which they afterwards fortified for their own intereſt. But the natives and the king too, who was in his turn ſtripped of all regal power, by his ally the Dutch, have ever ſince lamented the loſs of the Engliſh trade in particular, and, how well they like the Dutch, may be learnt from Capt. Hamilton, who ſays, that, if a Hollander ſtrays but a muſket-ſhot from their fort, 'tis five to one if ever he returns, the natives being ſo dextrous at throwing a lance, or ſhooting a poiſoned arrow from a trunk unknown. Bantam, in ſhort, is become a ruinous place, being without trade, and therefore without gentry, which are both engroſſed by Batavia; yet Bantam has a good ſafe road and a pleaſant bay, where are ſeveral little iſlands that ſtill retain their Engliſh names. But,

BATAVIA is the glory of this iſland, and of all the European ſettlements in theſe Indies. This city is the center of all the ſtrength and commerce of the Dutch in this part of the world, and the ſeat of their governor-general and council of the Indies; where they are ſo powerful, and have ſo many ſubjects, ſo many dominions dependent on them, and are ſo able to ſupport, protect, and employ them, that ſome think it a wonder, they do not ſupplant or drive all the other European factories out of the country; for they can fit out ſo many ſhips, and raiſe ſo many ſeamen, that no European nation can produce a force at a diſtance, able to cope with them.

When the Dutch firſt came to it, which was in the year 1619, it was but a village, ſurrounded with a kind of palliſade of bamboo-canes, in a flat country, encompaſſed with fenny grounds, and liable to inundations; a ſituation which might have diſcouraged the Europeans from making a ſettlement on it, but the Dutch, being accuſtomed to provide againſt the like inconveniencies in their own country, demoliſhed the old place, and built a new one by the name of Batavia.—For this purpoſe, they cut canals and drains to carry off the water upon any land floods, ſo that they can turn the currents which way they will: and, as to ſtorms from the ſea there are 17 or 18 ſmall iſlands in the offing, which ſo break the violence of the winds and waves, that 1000 ſail of ſhips may ride ſafe in it at a time, beſides ſmall craft, which go into the river, and lie with their heads cloſe under the ſhore, faſtened to piles. Two large piers run out half a mile into the ſea, between which 100 ſlaves are conſtantly employed in taking up the ſoil, which is waſhed out of the town, or the mouth of the river would ſoon be choaked up. Here all veſſels pay toll. A ſea-gale riſes every morning at ten o'clock, to bring veſſels into the bar, and a land one at 10 at night, to carry them out: the one comes from the north, the other from the ſouth.

The Dutch have erected ſo many works for the ſervice of their factory, that they have rendered themſelves able to ſubſiſt, though their communication with Europe ſhould, for a time, be cut off, and even to carry on not only trade, but war; for in the iſlands of Ormus and Onroſt, in the bay, two leagues from Batavia, where ſeveral good platforms of guns lie level with the water, they have yards and docks for ſhips, with plenty of timber, and all other materials; large rope-walks, forges for anchors, &c. and founderies for iron and braſs cannon, mortars, bombs, ſhells bullets, &c. And this city is ſaid to be the beſt ſupplied with fleſh meat of any European factory in all the Indies, though the beef is generally lean, and the mutton dear, becauſe it is hard to raiſe it, and it ſoon rots. The regular troops with which this city and neighbouring forts are garriſoned, are 10 or 12,000; about 1000 of which are upon guard every day, and they are formed out of the native Javans, the Chineſe, Malayans, Amboyneſſes, Topaſſes, Bugaſſes, Tymoreans, and many other people, who have been brought from many diſtant countries and iſlands by the Dutch, beſides their European forces to keep their ſubjects in awe.

This city being the great magazine of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, they import hither not only what Europe affords, but the merchandizes of Japan, the Spice Iſlands, Perſia, Surat, Bengal, the coaſts of Malabar and Coromandel, &c. Though the Dutch ſuffer no Europeans to trade hither, yet 15 or 20 ſail of Chineſe junks come hither every November or December, from 3 to 500 tons each, and return the beginning of June; by which means the Dutch are furniſhed with the goods of China, much cheaper than if they ſent their fleets thither.

MADURA ISLAND, is oppoſite to the eaſtermoſt point of Java, and produces nothing for a foreign market but deer-ſkins, which may be had here very cheap.

PATAMBOAN, the capital of a kingdom or principality, independent of the Dutch, ſtands on a bay at the ſouth-eaſt end of Java, in a pleaſant country, watered with ſeveral rivulets, which fall on each ſide of the town into the neighbouring ſtreights of Bally. This part produces gold, pepper, and cotton in abundance, rice, Indian corn, roots and garden-ſtuff.

TIMOR, is another place of ſome account for trade. It is an iſland which produces ſandal wood, the beſt and largeſt in the world, which is a valuable commodity in China; alſo gold and bees-wax, and plenty of all kinds of proviſions, but the coaſt is ſubject to frequent thunder and tornadoes. This iſland lies almoſt north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt, betwixt 124 and 128 degrees of longitude eaſt from London, and the middle of it is 9 degrees of ſouth latitude. It has no navigable rivers or harbours, but ſeveral bays, where ſhips may ride ſafe at ſome ſeaſons of the year, it being a bold ſhore, free from rocks and ſhoals.

REMARKS.

From the ſtate of the Dutch affairs at Batavia, they have ſuch a fleet of men of war in their ports, that they can command all the coaſt of Aſia, and give law to the Europeans, who have any ſhare in the commerce of thoſe ſeas, as well as to the natives.—They have abſolutely excluded the Engliſh, and all other Europeans, from the commerce of the Spice Iſlands, which is one of the moſt eſtimable branches of the trade of the Indies, and from that of the iſlands of Java and Maccaſſar, or Celebes, and Malacca: and, by their fleets and garriſons near the ſtreights of Malacca and Sunda, they can exclude all countries from the traffic of China.—They levy what taxes they pleaſe on the inhabitants; the Chineſe, who were the moſt expert merchants in theſe parts, brought them in the moſt conſiderable revenues, by the duties and cuſtoms they paid, and yet grew very rich and powerful.—The Dutch propagated, that they entered into conſpiracies to diſpoſſeſs them of the iſland, and pretend they had no way to ſecure themſelves, but by a general maſſacre of the Chineſe, which they put in execution in the year 1740, when 30,000 Chineſe were murdered at Batavia.

The whole commerce of the Dutch in India is divided into governments and directions, viz.

I. BATAVIA is the chief and capital place, where reſide the governor-general, and council in ordinary of India, to whom all other governments and directions are ſubordinate, tranſmitting their accounts to them; the ballance whereof is entered into the accounts general of India, and kept there. Beſides which, there are ſeveral places immediately under the government and direction of the governor and council of Batavia, viz.
   1. Japan, a chief-ſhip.
   2. Tonqueen, a chief-ſhip.
   3. Maccaſſar, a commandant.
   4. Siam, a chief-ſhip.
   5. Bantam, a factory.
   6. Japera, a factory.
   7. Jambee, a chief-ſhip.
   8. Pullambam, a chief-ſhip.
   9. Arrakan, a chief-ſhip.

II. AMBOYNA, a government, under which are certain iſlands, where they pay a yearly rent, not to ſuffer cloves or other ſpices to grow.

III. BANDA, is a government, and under it are ſeveral iſlands; to the natives of which, they pay money yearly to deſtroy the ſpice.

IV. TERNAT, is a government.

V. MALACCA, is a government.

VI. CEY-

VI. CEYLON, a government, where they have many factories, whoſe accounts are ſent to Columbo, the principal place.
VII. COCHEEN, is a government, and under it is the Malabar coaſt.
VIII. POLICAT, a government, under which are the coaſt of Coromandel and Pegu.
IX. BENGAL is a direction, and under it are all the Dutch factories in that bay: Hugly is the chief, from whence they ſend their accounts to Batavia.
X. SURAT, another direction, under which are many factories.
XI. PERSIA, a direction, the chief reſidence Gombroon, and under it are Iſpahan and Baſſora.
XII. CAPE of GOOD HOPE, a government, and under it the Mauritias.

N. B. Governments are, when the places are their own.
Directions are, when they are under a foreign prince, and have no garriſons.
Batavia excepted, no government, direction, or command, hath precedence of place; but the perſons in thoſe places, and all other degrees and qualities, take place according to their ſeniority in ſtanding. See DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The manner of ſtating and keeping their accounts.

In all governments and directions of great buſineſs, as at Batavia, Columbo, Policat, Hugly, &c. they keep three ſetts of books, journal and ledger, with all the auxiliaries.
The firſt ſett contains the general accounts, wherein is entered the ballance of all books of accounts under the place; and thoſe at Batavia, are called accounts general of India; at Columbo, accounts general of Ceylon; at Policat, of Coromandel; at Hugly, of Bengal, &c.
The ſecond ſett, commonly called the negotia books, contains the particular traffic of buying and ſelling, and theſe are called accounts of the place where they are kept.
The third ſett only contains the wages, paid and due to their ſervants. Accounts in all parts of India, are generally kept in guilders, ſtivers, and pennings, as in moſt part of the United Provinces in Europe; and, in an inward column, the coins of each place: for inſtance, Policat, viz.
In the firſt ſett of books, called accounts Coromandel; if any goods be ſent to, or received from Batavia, they D^r. to C^r. account general of India to, or by account gildria for it, if the goods be directly to or from Policat; if not, Metchelpatan, or ſuch other place to, or from which the goods are ſent or received.
In the ſecond ſett, or negotia books, called accounts geldria: if any goods be ſent to, or received from Batavia, or other places, they D^r. and C^r. account Coromandel for the ſame. And, when ſuch entries and invoices are made in the general books, called account Coromandel, they muſt ſpecify the particulars of each ſpecies of goods in the journal, but not give every particular ſort of goods in the ledger.—When the books of accounts of ſubordinate factories are entered into the general books, they mention the letter and mark of ſuch ſubordinate books, the debts of their ballance, and the debts upon ballance amounting in guilders, &c.—That the C^r. upon ballance amounts to guilders—And that the reſt upon ballance amount to guilders.
The books ſtiled accounts geldria, are cleared and entered into the books ſtiled accounts Coromandel, as the books of ſubordinate factories are.
The ſubordinate factories are obliged, every three months, to ſend a copy of their journal to Policat, and a copy of their account Coromandel out of their ledger.
The general books, or thoſe ſtiled accounts Coromandel, are always kept by the ſecond, at Policat, and an under-copeman, in ſubordination to him, to poſt the journal into the ledger, according to the principle of D^r. and C^r. by double entry. See the article ACCOUNTANTSHIP. The like is done at Bengal, Surat, &c.
The accounts geldria, are kept by a copeman, or under-copeman, at Policat.
The accounts of their ſervants wages are kept in two or three ſetts of books for that purpoſe, at Batavia; thoſe at Policat are kept by an under-copeman.
At Batavia, the books of accounts of India are ſeverally audited; and, if any errors be diſcovered, the perſon who kept them is fined for every error a certain ſum of money, which is accordingly deducted out of his ſalary.
The accounts general of India, are kept by an upper-copeman. And the negotia books, ſtiled accounts caſtle of Batavia, are kept by the firſt upper-copeman of the two that are under the director-general; and they have the aſſiſtance of able copeman, under-copemen and book-keepers, to examine, inſpect, and copy under them.
The books of accounts at Policat and Hugly are ballanced the laſt of July, thoſe at Surat the laſt of May, and at Batavia the laſt of October.

The government, order, and proviſion, for the Dutch Eaſt-India company's ſhips and fleets, viz.

All their ſhips are the company's own, and the men belonging to them are all in their pay, ſworn to ſerve them, either by ſea or land, as occaſion ſhall require.

They have two perſons who have the ſtile of admirals, and are of the ordinary council of India.
For the care of their ſhipping at Batavia, they have one called equipage-maſter, who is of the quality and pay of an under-copeman, and vulgarly called a commandore: he hath the care of fitting all their ſhips, and is conſtantly viſiting them in the road, and ſupplying them with all requiſites.
There is a ſmall iſland about three miles from Batavia, where they have a fort, which ſerves them as a ſtorehouſe for all manner of neceſſaries for ſhips, under the charge of a maſter ſhipwright, who has alſo command of the fort and iſland: he is of the quality of upper-copeman, and has large pay and allowances.
When they ſend out a fleet for war, they make a MERCHANT of the quality of upper-copeman, and ſometimes of the extraordinary council, admiral or general, who has a council of merchants, and military officers to aſſiſt him as occaſion requires.
The admirals of the fleet that go from Batavia to Europe, are ſuch as have ſerved the company as governors, directors, commandores, or upper-copemen.—As to their admirals out of Europe, the flag is worn by turns. Amſterdam ſquadron carries it three years, and the Zealand ſquadron every fourth year. The Amſterdamers having two parts of the ſtock, the other leſſer chambers add theirs to it, and the Zealanders have one quarter of their own. The MERCHANT, who is ſent admiral, muſt either take his paſſage on the Amſterdam, or Zealand ſquadron.
If a copeman, or under-copeman, goes from port to port on any ſhip, they have the command of her, and alſo of the whole fleet in company.
When there is a fleet under the command of a commandore, the council is to conſiſt of copemen and ſkippers. When a ſhip is ſingle, the council is to be a copeman, ſkipper, under-copeman, book-keeper, and ſteerſman; and they are always to ſteer their courſe by the printed directions, and to ſet off their work every day upon charts, which are delivered up, when they come to Batavia or Holland. For more matter relating to this great trading company, ſee the article DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

The COINS of BATAVIA.

8 Doits make	—	—	1 Caſh, or double kye.
3 Caſh	—	—	1 Satallie.
6 Caſh (or 2 ſatallies)	—		1 Sooka.
9 Caſh	—	—	1 Sooka ſatallie.
15 Ditto	—	—	1 Rupee.
24 Ditto (or 48 ſtivers)	—		1 Pardáo, or rixdollar.
39 Ditto (or 13 ſatallies)	—		1 Ducatoon.

Accounts are kept as well in rixdollars and ſtivers, as in guilders, ſtivers, &c.

Of the COINS, WEIGHTS, and MEASURES, of the chief factories and governments belonging to the Dutch, under the government of BATAVIA.

Variety of coins are current here; that in which accounts are kept, is rixdollars, an imaginary coin; but the money moſt current in the ſhops and bazaars, are rupees, ſkillings, double keys, and doits.

4 Doits make	-	1 Stiver.
6 Stivers	- -	1 Skilling.
8 Skillings	-	1 Rixdollar.
1 Ducatoon in curr. for		13 Skillings.
1 Engliſh crown-piece		10 Ditto.
1 Bombay or Surat rupee		5 Ditto.
1 Madras rupee (though of the value with Bombay)	-	4 Ditto.
1 Arcat rupee (tho' but 1 per cent. worſe than that of Surat)	-	4 Ditto.

} Becauſe they are not ſo broad as the Bombay, or Surat rupees.

WEIGHTS.

16 Tales make	1 Catty.
100 Cattys -	1 Pecul, equal to 135 lb. avoirdupoiſe.
3 Pecul -	1 Baaker.

All goods are weighed by the company's dotchin, for which you pay the captain of the Chineſe, who is the dotchin-keeper, 1 per cent.

GOLD WEIGHTS.

	oz.	dwt.	grs.
16 Miams ≙ 1 Boncal, equal to Troy weight	1	9	$18\frac{7}{12}$
20 Boncals = 1 Catty - -		29	16

MEASURES.

A Malacca quoing is 3200 chupas, or 800 cantins, equal to 5000 Dutch lb. or 5475 lb. Engliſh; or Canton peculs (according to the Dutch calculation of 125 lb. to a pecul) 40 peculs.
A laſt is 2000 chupas, 500 cantins, 3000 Dutch lb. 24 peculs, 3285 lb. Engliſh.

Of the Coins, Weights, and Measures of Siam.

Their coins are tuals, miams, tuangs, and ſamporſs.

2 Samporſs make	—	—	—	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs	—	—	—	1 Miam
4 Miams	—	—	—	1 Tual.

Their accounts are kept in cattys, tales, tuals, miams, tuangs, and cowries.

800 Cowries make	—	—	—	1 Tuang
2 Tuangs	—	—	—	1 Miam
4 Miams	—	—	—	1 Tual
4 Tuals	—	—	—	1 Tale
20 Tales	—	—	—	1 Catty

10 Miams paſs for a tale China, and 85 tales Siam make always 8 tale China.

Gold and Silver Weights

Are by tual, which weighs neareſt 9 dwts. 10 grs. and is 9 ½ dwts. better than ſtandard ſilver.

Great Weights.

Are from their coins likewiſe, as		lb.	oz.	dr.
80 Tuals	— make 1 Catty, or	2	9	4¾ Avoir.
50 Catty	— 1 Pecul, or	129	0	13 ditto.

But 50 cattys Siam ſhould make 1 pecul China of 132 lb. for they weigh all their goods by the China dotchin; but it is never found that the king's dotchin at Siam gives more than 129 lb. which ſhould be 132 lb.

Customs.

The Chineſe, Moors, and Banians, pay 8 per cent. cuſtoms. The Engliſh, at preſent, pay only meaſurage for their ſhips; a ſhip of 200 tons pay from 1150 to 1200 rupees meaſurage; and ſo for other veſſels in proportion to their burden.

Of the Coins, Weights, and Customs of Tonquin.

They have no other coin than copper caſh, accounting 600 great, and 1000 ſmall } Caſh to one maradoe.

The price of ſilver is always variable here, which they riſe and fall according to the quantity brought in, by which the Chineſe make great advantage.

In the year 1739 they allowed 28 ½ maradoes for one barry, or 10 tale ſilver; and, in 1748, but 21 maradoes. They run all the Mexico and pillar dollars, without diſtinction, into bar-ſilver, which ought to weigh 10 tale each, and into which they frequently put alloy; ſo that they are ſeldom ſo good as the dollar ſilver, though in payments you are obliged to allow them 3 per cent. to make it their ſtandard.

		oz.	dwt.	gr.
10 Tale weigh, with the 3 per cent. included		12	6	2 8/24 Troy
1 Ditto, ditto	— — —	1	4	14 15/24
Which is more than the China tale	—	0	0	9 6/24

Their accounts are kept in tales, mace, and candarines, which are regulated according to the price of their maradoes and copper caſh.

Weights.

Their weights are by the Chineſe dotchin, and the king's weight holds out full 132 lb. to the pecul; however, it is neceſſary to have a true dotchin of one's own.

Customs.

The Engliſh pay no cuſtoms inwards; but the preſents they are obliged to make to the king and his officers are very conſiderable.

Upon goods exported, as ſilk and lacquered wares, the Engliſh pay 5 per cent. See the articles East-India Trade in general, East-India Company, and Dutch East-India Company.

ICELAND, an iſland belonging to Denmark, ſituate between 10 and 26 degrees weſt longitude, and between 64 and 67 degrees of north latitude, about 480 miles diſtant from the coaſt of Norway to the weſt, and 400 from Scotland to the north. It was formerly reputed fruitful in wheat, and covered with large foreſts, of the timber whereof the Icelanders built fine and large veſſels. The country at preſent is now ſo barren, that wheat will not grow there, and they have no trees but a few indifferent birch and ſhrubs.

Their fuel is turf. Beſides which, vaſt trunks of trees are frequently brought thither on ſhoals of ice, from countries which ſtill lie nearer to the pole. Theſe alſo ſerve them not only for firing, but for building their huts. At this ſeaſon, about May, the inhabitants flock to the ſhore, in queſt of theſe ſhoals, which bring them not only trees, but alſo ſtags, foxes of ſeveral ſorts, bears, wolves, and what they call unicorns: theſe animals, being too far advanced upon the ice, are drove away with it, when it comes to be looſened from the ſhore by the thaw.

This country is ſtony and mountainous; but their paſtures are ſo excellent, that they are obliged to drive their cattle out of them after they have fed ſufficient, otherwiſe they would eat till they are burſted; and the graſs is of ſuch an agreeable ſcent, that foreigners tranſport and dry it, to put among their cloaths *: yet their beef is not good, and their mutton is rankiſh, but they dry their meat in the ſun and wind, which takes off the ill taſte.

* This may be worth the conſideration of philoſophers; and the truth hereof may ſeem to be confirmed from the following experiment: the ſnow that falls in hard froſts, which being taken up, while it is freſh, and digeſted in a blind glaſs in aſhes, for 24 hours, if then you open the glaſs, whilſt the ſolution is warm, you ſhall perceive in the breath of the water all the odours in the world, and certainly far more pleaſant than they are in the flowers at May.

They make great quantities of butter, which they lay up in caſks, or, for want of them, they pile it up in their huts, like heaps of mortar. Their ordinary drink is milk and whey, which they mix with water. They have pretty good horſes, which, in winter, they feed with dried fiſh, when the hay fails them, as they alſo do their other cattle. Foreigners bring them meal; and when that is gone, and the rigour of the ſeaſon prevents veſſels from coming to their iſland, they make meal and bread of their dried fiſh.

They have abundance of cold ſprings, the water whereof is very clear and palatable, and ſome as nouriſhing as beer *. Here are alſo ſeveral hot ſprings, very wholſome to bathe in; divers ponds and lakes full of fiſh, and various large and navigable rivers.

* This alſo may deſerve ſerious conſideration; but in my Experimental Philoſophy I ſhall demonſtrate the reaſons hereof, where will be ſhewn how nature dictates to expeperiment, and experiment confirms the truth of nature.

As the Icelanders have no ſort of money, their trade conſiſts only in bartering one commodity for another; namely, their own product, which is dried fiſh, butter, tallow, brimſtone in very large quantities, foxes, bears, ſtags, and wolves-ſkins, for flour, beer, wine, ſtrong waters, iron, woollen, and linen cloths, &c. The Germans, when they arrive, ſet up their tents near the harbours, where they exchange cloaks, ſhoes, looking-glaſſes, knives, and ſeveral toys, for the Iceland commodities.

SKALHOLT is a good town or port, on the ſouth of the iſland. The town is populous, and the port well frequenred with ſhips; for the produce of both the land and the ſea is conſiderable, and, conſequently, the conſumption of other merchandizes here brings many ſhips and merchants to the place. The whole ſhore of the iſland, except on the ſide of Mount Heckela *, is full of very deep inlets and bays, affording good ports and harbours. The king of Denmark maintains a governor and a garriſon always here, to defend the place againſt ſtrangers. His Daniſh majeſty is ſo far a merchant, that he receives yearly a quantity of brimſtone from hence, for the ſupply of his magazines of gunpowder.

* Of all parts of the globe ſome would not expect to find ſubterranean fires here, and yet Iceland is famous for the vulcano, or burning mountain, called Heckela, or Heckla, the largeſt and moſt furious one in Europe, except Ætna, and far exceeding Veſuvius. Upon what principles of reaſon and philoſophy this may ſeem to be accounted for, ſee the article Sulphur.

The chief employment of the inhabitants is fiſhing, and making a coarſe ſort of cloth of their ſheep's-wool, or rather hair. They make their breeches, boots, and ſtockings, of ſheep-ſkins, and their ſhoes of ſeal-ſkins.

The king's revenue is raiſed in fleſh, oil, fiſh, coarſe cloth, and brimſtone; for which he ſends about eight ſhips every year, who carry them neceſſaries in exchange for their commodities.

The Icelanders are expert harponiers in the open ſea, and dextrous in catching the ſmaller fiſh about the American ſhores, where they go as far as Davis's Streights; but they rarely venture in among the ice, or meddle with the whale-fiſhery, which they leave to the Dutch.

As they are a Daniſh colony, ſo their trade is confined chiefly to Denmark, from whence they receive back all the neceſſaries of life which their own country does not produce. See Denmark.

JERQUE. After a ſhip is unloaded, the ſurveyor, or ſome other officer of the cuſtoms, goes on board, and ſearches to ſee if there be no unentered goods concealed: this is called jerquing the ſhip.

The form of the Cuſtom-Houſe account relating thereto.

A JERQUE ACCOUNT of the COASTING VESSELS entered inwards, in the quarter ending at Lady-Day, 1731, where there is any variation in the quantities or qualities of the goods from what is mentioned in the cockets.

Date of importation.	Ships names, and of what places.	From whence.	Date of the cocket.	Quantities. Taken in as per cocket. Chal.	Ton	Delivered as per meter's or weigher's cert. Chal.	Bu.	Ton.	Hu.	Duties. Paid. l.	s.	d.	Secured. l.	s.	d.
7 Jan. 1730	George of Pool	Newcaſtle	2 Jan. 1730	50	—	104	18	—	—	25	10	7½			
9 Ditto	Henry of London	Ditto	4 Ditto	23	23	44	—	23	15	14	11	8¼			
12 Ditto	Swift of Sunderland	Sunderland	6 Ditto	55	—	119	27	—	—	29	3	9½			
19 February	Neptune of Hull	Newcaſtle	11 February	31	—	20	—	—	—	5	—	—			
21 March	Anne of Whitby	Ditto	8 March	70	—	33	—	—	—	8	—	10¾			
22 Ditto	Hope of Lanelly	Lanelly	17 Ditto	37	—	43	27	—	—	—	—	—	10	18	9
21 December	Rachel of Rocheſter	Newcaſtle	16 December	60	—	131	—	—	—	32	15	—			
				326	23	496	—	23	15	115	2	—	10	18	9

And, beſides the before-mentioned quarterly accounts of coals, culm, and cinders, there muſt be likewiſe ſent to the regiſter-general * monthly accounts of all ſhips entering inwards, and clearing outwards coaſtwiſe, with the particulars of their cargoes.

* Though it is the practice of moſt ports to tranſmit theſe accounts for each calendar month, yet from Briſtol they are ſent weekly, and from ſome ports every fortnight.

The FORM of a JERQUE ACCOUNT outwards, by the proper officers of the cuſtoms.

When debentures made out.	Date of entry.	No. of entry.		Exportation in Lady-Day quarter, 1731.
				8 lb. Rhubarb, 14 lb. Gentian, 7 lb. Scammony } from the place of their growth, by Samuel Hurſt, the 18th of April and 16th of November laſt.
				2. 3. 14. Battery, 5. 1. 7. Metal prepared } by Ralph Snow, the 3d of Auguſt and the 19th of November laſt.
23 March	1730 18 March	7	Joſhua Wright	544 lb. of tea, by the united company, the 18th of Auguſt laſt, as per certificate and land-carriage cocket from London in the name of Andrew Bell, dated the 3d inſtant. In the Goodfellow, prædict.
	23 March	8	Joel Thornton	20 Taffaties, 40 cuſhtaes, 10 photaes, 15 damaſks, 12 pelongs, came hither by land-carriage from London, per cocket, in the name of A. Bell, dated the 3d inſtant.

N. B. Beſides the aforeſaid account of goods exported, which is to be tranſmitted by the collector, cuſtomer, and comptroller of the cuſtoms, there muſt be likewiſe an account ſent by the ſurveyor, to the regiſter-general of all ſhips belonging to Great-Britain, in the following form:

Port

JER

Port of Southampton. } A JERQUE ACCOUNT of all ships and vessels cleared outwards, in the quarter ending at Lady-day, 1731.

Dates of clearing.	Ships names and places.	Whither bound	British goods, and such foreign goods as pay duty outwards, or are exported out of time.								Duties paid.			Foreign goods, for which debentures are to be allowed.
24 March	Tavistock of London	Jamaica	Bone lace Yards 740	Shoes lb. 249	Saddles 4 Great 6 Small	Leather gloves 25 Dozen	Earthen ware 3500 Pcs.	Silver watches 4	Woollen stuffs 150 lb.	Gold thread 28 lb. 10 oz.				7 C. 2 Narrow Germany linen, 10 lb. nutmegs. 147 Ells Holland linen, 8 lb. rhubarb. 3 C. 2 qr. Currants, 14 lb. gentian.
			Silver lace lb. oz. 24 1	Go. fringe lb. oz. 10 5	Worsted hose 10 Dozen	British linen 20 Pieces	British wrt. silk 20 lb.	Swedish iron 77 C. 2	For cordage. 18 C.					20 Reams of ordinary paper, 7 lb. of scammony. 4 C. 0 18 lb. Raisins solis. 2 C. 3 qr. 14 lb. Battery, 72 callicoes.
12 March	Hope of Dublin	Ireland	British copperas 50 C.	Fustic 100 C.	Pease 12 Quarters.	Pewter 10 C.	English salt 450 Bush.	Hops 175 C.			1	3	9	5 C. 1 qr. 7 lb. Metal prepared. 87 C. 3 qr. 14 lb. Cacao-nuts. 45728 lb. Tobacco.
			The total of the two ships exemplified								1	3	9	
			The total of the other ships not exemplified								121	12	3	
			The total, agreeable to the collector's quarter-book								122	16	0	

N. B. As we thought the lading of two ships sufficient fully to exemplify the method of a jerque account, we have purposely omitted the other ships whereon goods have been laden, and which have been cleared in the aforesaid quarter; but to make the total of the duties agree with the collector's quarter-book (which in practice must be carefully observed) we have added the amount of the duties of the remaining ships, not exemplified.

D. E. Surveyor.
E. F. Searcher.
F. G. } Land-waiters.
G. H. }

REMARKS.

INWARDS.

A JERQUE ACCOUNT of all ships and vessels discharged in the quarter ending at Lady-day, 1731.

JER

Date of importation.	Ships names and places.	From whence.	When cleared.	The total quantities of the several species of goods.							Duties. Paid.	Duties. Secured.	Dam. &c. allowed.	Over-entries allow.
1730 28 January	Olive Branch of Liverpool	Virginia	19 February	Tobacco lb. 93000	Rad. serpent. 90 lb.	Wax candles 50 lb.	Staves C. 20.	— — —	— — —	— — —	345 6 11	1700 0 0	Tobac. destroy. 1359 lb.	— —
20 January	Swallow of Ipswich	Norway	3 February	Deals C. 40 0 0	Mid.balks C. 3 2 0	Ro. wood C. 1 2 0	Smallspars C. 2 0 12	Oars C. 1 0 0	Middle mast 10	Lath wood 2 Fathom	56 2 7	— — —	— — —	Deals C. 1 1 16
1 March	Welcome of London	Leghorn	22 March	Brimstone C. 356 2 14	Paper Reams 170	Worm-seeds 200 lb.	Capers lb. 1096	Ancho-vies 100 Barr.	Soap C. 58 3 7	Wine 84 Gallons.	243 11 11½	— — —	Soap dam. ⅔ C. 41 3 7	— —
				The total of the three ships exemplified							645 2 5¼	1700 0 0		
				The total of the other ships not exemplified							7554 4 11¼	1028 18 4½		
				The total agreeable to the collector's quarter-book							8199 7 4½	2728 18 4½		

N. B. As we thought the loadings of the above ships were sufficient fully to exemplify the method of a JERQUE ACCOUNT, we purposely omitted the other ships, wherein goods have been imported, and which have been discharged in the aforesaid quarter; but, to make the total of the duties agree with the collector's quarter-book, we have added the amount of the remaining ships: though in practice there will be frequently found a variation of a few shillings and pence, by reason that the discounts are deducted out of each duty on the several warrants from whence this account is taken; and in the quarter-books they are deducted from the total only, of each duty collected during the whole quarter.

A. B. Surveyor.
B. C. } Land-waiters.
C. D. }

REMARKS.

The merchandizes imported by each ſhip, having been duly delivered, and all requiſites relating thereto performed, and the ſhips having been cleared, and all port-entries duly made, the land-waiters are to make up the accounts in their books, [ſee the article LAND-WAITER] and the ſeveral warrants granted for the delivery of the goods are to be filed together, and a paper prefixed to them with a title, after the following manner:

The Providence of London, James Bell, maſter, from Rotterdam.

Reported the 8th day of January, 1730.

A. B. } Land-waiters.
B. C. }

And the ſaid warrants are to be carried to the warehouſe-keeper, who muſt, on the title-page, certify if any goods, landed out of ſuch ſhip, are remaining in his cuſtody unentered, thus:

4th of March, 1730.

There are * not any goods, landed out of the above ſhip, remaining in the king's warehouſe.

C. D. Warehouſe-keeper.

* But, if there are any goods remaining in the warehouſe unentered, the marks, numbers, and package, muſt be ſpecified.

Which being performed, the ſaid books and warrants are to be delivered to the ſurveyor or jerquer, within three days after the clearing of the ſhip: and, in order to keep the land-waiters punctually to the delivery of their books, the ſurveyor muſt lay before the collector, the firſt cuſtom-houſe day of every month, a liſt of all books then ſtanding out, for ſuch ſhips as are then cleared, with the reaſons from the land-waiters, why they are not delivered in: and, if the ſurveyor neglects to deliver in ſuch liſt, the collector is to call upon him for the ſame.

The land-waiters books, and the ſeveral warrants, being delivered to the ſurveyor or jerquer, he is firſt of all carefully to examine the ſeveral operations, as the additions of the ſeveral weights, meaſures, and gauges, the computation and ſubtraction of all draughts and tares, and likewiſe the computations of the contents of the goods paying duty, either by running, ſquare, or ſolid meaſure, and the contents of every caſk, according to the dimenſions inſerted in the books: and he is alſo to obſerve, that there are proper warrants for the delivery of all goods, and that ſuch warrants are duly entered in each book before the execution; and that, where goods have been ſhort-entered, there be likewiſe poſt or additional entries for ſuch deficiency; and that the land-waiters books do exactly agree with each other, and that all other requiſites, relating to the landing and delivering of the goods, are punctually performed. See LAND-WAITER.

The execution of the land-waiters duty being carefully examined into, the ſurveyor or jerquer is next to compare the ſaid land-waiter's accounts of the landing and delivering, with the tideſmen's account of the unlading of the goods [ſee the article TIDESMAN] to ſee that they have been all duly accounted for; and, in caſe of any difference, to acquaint the collector therewith; who, after examination, is to lay the caſe before the commiſſioners, provided there be any appearance of fraud or wilful negligence: and laſtly, the ſaid land-waiter's and tideſmen's accounts are to be compared with the maſter's report of his cargo, in order to diſcover whether the ſame be juſt, ſo as to intitle him to the allowance of portage [ſee the article PORTAGE] (which in caſe of any variation is not to be allowed) as that he may be proſecuted for a falſe report, and for that purpoſe the commiſſioners muſt have ſpeedy notice: and, in order thus to compare and adjuſt the officers accounts, and the maſter's report, the ſaid ſurveyor or jerquer muſt keep a particular book, wherein every ſhip muſt be ſeparately entered.

JERSEY, an iſland in the Engliſh channel.—See the article HAMPSHIRE, where this iſland, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, and SARK, are taken notice of. To which we ſhall here add what is neceſſary to be done at the cuſtom-houſe of England, in regard to the importation of goods from Jerſey, Guernſey, Sark, and Alderney.

Goods of the growth, product, or manufacture of the above-ſaid places, may be imported from thence free of all duties * (except ſuch as are due for the like goods of the growth, &c. of Great-Britain, and except † ſalt, and ‡ brandy, aqua vitæ, ſtrong waters, or ſpirits, vinegar, cyder, perry, beer, ale, and mum) upon producing a proper certificate from the governor, lieutenant, or deputy-governor, or commander in chief: the tenor of which certificate is uſually as follows:

* 3 Geo. I. cap. 4. §. 5.
† 5 Geo. I. cap. 18. §. 11.
‡ 3 Geo. II. cap. 20. §. 10.

Guernſey. By the Hon. A. B. Eſq; lieutenant-governor and commander in chief of his majeſty's caſtle and iſland of Guernſey, &c.

Theſe are to certify, That B. C. hath here ſhipped and laden on board the Delight of Newcaſtle, whereof Mark Low is maſter, for Southampton, two bales, containing 50 dozen pair of hoſe, and 30 waiſtcoats, and 20 tons of pebble-ſtones, of the product and manufacture of this iſland, as per oath made before the royal court: therefore are to paſs cuſtom-free.

Given under may hand and ſeal at St. Peter's port, this 2d of March 1730.

Jurat coram nobis
C. D. Judge-delegate.
D. E.——————— A. B.

Which certificate muſt be produced to the principal officers of the cuſtoms at the port of importation; and the truth thereof confirmed by oath, made on the warrant, to which it muſt be annexed: the form of which oath may be as follows:

12th of March 1730.——No. 68.
In the Delight of Newcaſtle, Mark Low from Guernſey.

William Fell.

Twenty tons of pebble-ſtones, 50 dozen pair of hoſe, 30 waiſtcoats, of the product and manufacture of Guernſey, as per certificate from thence dated the ſecond inſtant, and hereunto annexed.

Mark Low, maſter of the above ſhip, maketh oath, That the goods above-mentioned were actually laden on board his ſaid ſhip in the iſland of Guernſey; and that they are the ſame which are mentioned in, and for which the annexed certificate from thence, bearing date the ſecond inſtant, was granted; and that he verily believes and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the ſaid goods are of the product and manufacture of the iſland of Guernſey. Signed

Mark Low.

Jurat 12 die Martii 1730, coram me
A. B. Collector.

JETSAM. See FLOTSAM, and LOGAN.

JEWELS. See the articles DIAMOND, and PEARL.

IMPORTATION; the bringing into a kingdom merchandizes from foreign countries, and is uſed in oppoſition to exportation.

REMARKS.

The true intereſt of trading nations depends upon having a vigilant eye over their imports and exports, that their foreign traffic may not drain them of their treaſure, inſtead of enriching them. That our readers may make a good judgment, whether our own nation gains or loſes by it's commerce with other countries; or in other words, whether our imports of merchandize exceed our exports; we have already conſidered this matter very fully, under the three following articles, to which we refer.

1. Under that of BALLANCE of TRADE.
2. Under that of BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN.]
3. Under that of EXCHANGE.

The principal points taken into conſideration under the preceding heads are, viz.

1. That the price of exchange between one nation and another which has commercial dealings together, is a more certain characteriſtic to know whether the ballance of trade, and money tranſactions of all kinds included, is for or againſt the nation than any other. And,
2. That it is the ſhorteſt and eaſieſt way of determining a point of this conſequence at all times.
3. That, if a nation has no eſtabliſhed courſes of exchange with another wherewith it trades, the ſhorteſt way to determine whether the ballance of trade is in favour or otherwiſe of the nation, is to compute the exchanges according to the mercantile principles of arbitrating the exchanges. See the article ARBITRATION of EXCHANGES.
4. In conſequence of what has been ſaid under the ſeveral before-mentioned heads, we have ſhewn with what principal countries the ballance of trade is either for or againſt Great-Britain; and alſo how to judge and determine the general ballance with all, as well as the particular ballance with any diſtinct ſtate. And laſtly,
5. It is alſo ſhewn how, and by what means, this ballance may be preſerved in equilibrio, if not turned to our advantage with ſuch nations, where it is at preſent againſt us; which in the general, is by leſſening thoſe IMPORTS from foreign countries, with which we can the beſt do without, and increaſing our EXPORTS that we can the beſt ſpare. To accompliſh which great end, we have further endeavoured to ſhew,

1. That it depends upon improvements made on our land, either at home or in our plantations, in all the arts of huſbandry and agriculture; and more eſpecially in ſuch productions as we are under the neceſſity of importing from other nations, ſuch as FLAX, HEMP, PITCH and TAR, POT-ASH, INDICO, SILK, &c. &c.

And, how theſe things may, in all probability, be brought about and effectuated, we have endeavoured to point out, under thoſe reſpective articles, and in divers other parts of our work.

2. That it depends likewiſe upon improvements made by our artificers, mechanics, and manufacturers in every branch of traffic whatſoever: upon the invention of new arts and manufactures, as well as the improvement of the old.

3. That theſe great things depend as much upon the application and ſagacity of thinking ſtudious men, who delight in the contemplations of nature and philoſophy, as upon the judgment and dexterity of the artificers and manufacturers themſelves. That therefore,

4. All reaſonable public encouragement ought to be given to both, that the one may be always upon the wing of invention, and the other advancing in the delicacy of execution; and delighting in the reſidence of our own country, from the encouragement they meet with, inſtead of ſuffering themſelves to be decoyed into other nations, to the ruin of our trade, and the advancement of theirs. See the articles ARTIFICERS, MECHANICS, MANUFACTURERS, ROYAL SOCIETY of LONDON.

Theſe are the outlines of what we have particularly ſuggeſted throughout this whole work, in order to increaſe our exports, employ our people, and diminiſh our foreign imports. For, all countries thrive or decline by trade, as they well or ill manage their product and manufactures: and wiſe nations obſerve carefully every part, where they think to have any probable advantage. If they excel in product and manufacture, wiſe governments will bend themſelves to encourage the people in the purſuit of what is beneficial to the public in theſe reſpects.—If they have little product of their own, as in Holland, they turn carriers of the world, and buy goods in one place to vend to advantage in others, whereby the bulk of their riches has been gained. See the article FREIGHT. Great-Britain has excellent products of her own, wherewith to ſuſtain it's inhabitants; the woollen manufacture, if accommodated to the taſte of foreign nations, and can be afforded as cheap as any rivals therein can do, is a wealth, in ſome meaſure, peculiar to ourſelves. We have beſides the product of other countries ſubject to our dominion, the Weſt-Indies. The Eaſt-Indies are an inexhauſtible mine of vanities, to barter for the vanities of other countries, which a rich nation will always covet, and whoſe export and import improve our navigation and breed experienced ſeamen.—See EAST-INDIA TRADE and COMPANY. We have ports and ſituation, and every thing that can contribute to make us the greateſt people in the commercial world; and, if public encouragement is not wanting, there is not likely to be want of induſtry and ingenuity on the ſide of the people.

REMARKS ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE of 1763.

By the DEFINITIVE TREATY, and the extenſive poſſeſſions thereby ceded to the crown of Great-Britain, it is to be hoped, that we ſhall be able in the moſt effectual manner to leſſen our IMPORTS from foreign nations. For certainly NORTH AMERICA will now be able to furniſh us with all the TIMBER we have hitherto taken from NORWAY, and every ſpecies of NAVAL STORES we have taken from the eaſt countries. Can we, at preſent, want competent territories, in their variety of climates, to ſupply us amply with HEMP and FLAX in abundance, or pitch and tar, or every ſpecies of timber for SHIP-BUILDING? Can we now ſtand in need of INDICO or COCHENEAL, or SILK, or even WINE and POT-ASH, from our colonies, if we conſider them in their extent from ſouth to north? Now, all CANADA and it's DEPENDENCIES are become BRITISH, we certainly can never have occaſion to import FURRS or PELTRY of any kind, except from our own continent plantations.

We aſſuredly can never want longer to purchaſe from other nations, what our colonies will moſt amply ſupply us with; provided right, vigorous, and effectual meaſures are taken by Great Britain to people theſe prodigious territories with plenty of induſtrious foreign proteſtants, duly encouraged for thoſe purpoſes. For it cannot be imagined, that it will be thought better policy to drain the mother-kingdom of people.

For the encouragement hitherto given ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE, ſee his majeſty's proclamation under our article BRITISH AMERICA.

Some of the principal LAWS of ENGLAND, with regard to the importation of merchandizes.

If goods imported are conveyed away without entry, and paying cuſtoms, or ſecuring the ſame to be paid, the lord treaſurer, barons of the Exchequer, or chief magiſtrates of the place where the offence was committed, or next adjoining thereunto, may grant a warrant to any perſon, who, with the aſſiſtance of a conſtable, may break open any houſe in the day-time, in caſe of a reſiſtance; and may break open doors, cheſts, trunks, or other package, and take thence any prohibited or unaccuſtomed goods, to which all officers are to be aiding and aſſiſting: but no proceeding ſhall be upon this act, unleſs within one month after the offence is committed.—And, if falſe information is given, the perſon wrongfully accuſed may recover coſt and damages, 12 Car. II. cap. 19. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. Sect. 5. revived, 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

No ſhip, or veſſel arriving from beyond ſea, ſhall be above three days ſailing, from Graveſend to the place of diſcharge, in the river of Thames, unleſs apparently hindered by contrary wind, or other juſt impediment, by 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

No ſhip, bound for the port of London, ſhall touch or ſtay at any place, adjoining to any ſhore, between Graveſend and Cheſter kay; and true entries ſhall be made of all ſuch ſhip's lading, upon oath of the maſter or purſer, for that voyage, to the beſt of their knowledge: alſo, where ſhe took in her lading, of what country built, how manned, who was maſter during the voyage, and who were owners thereof. And in all out-ports, to come directly to the place of unlading, and make true entries as aforeſaid, upon penalty of forfeiture of 100l. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

After any ſhip is cleared, and the watchmen and tideſmen diſcharged from their attendance, if there be found on board ſuch ſhip any goods which have been concealed, and not paid duty inward, then the maſter, or other perſon taking charge of ſuch ſhip, ſhall forfeit 100l. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

Porters, carmen, watermen, &c. aſſiſting in carrying on board, or landing uncuſtomed or prohibited goods, being convicted by the oath of two witneſſes, ſhall, for the firſt offence be committed to the next gaol, until he find ſecurity for his good behaviour; and for his ſecond offence to be committed for two months, without bail or mainprize, or until he be diſcharged by the court of Exchequer, or pays to the ſheriff of the county 5l. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary.

No merchant denizen ſhall cover a ſtranger's goods, but ſhall by himſelf, or known agent, ſign one of his bills of every entry, with the mark, number, and contents, of every parcel of goods, as are rated to pay by the piece, meaſure, or weight, of ſuch as are rated duty by weight, without which no entry ſhall paſs. And no children of aliens, under 21 years, ſhall have entry made in their names, nor be permitted to trade. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

Merchants, trading into the port of London, ſhall have free liberty to lade and unlade their goods at any of the lawful kays, between the Tower and London-Bridge, ſun-riſing and ſun-ſetting, from the 10th of September to the 10th of March; and between 6 o'clock in the morning and 6 in the evening, from the 10th of March to the 10th of September: giving notice thereof to the reſpective officers, appointed to attend the lading and unlading of goods. And ſuch officers as ſhall refuſe, upon due calling, to be preſent, ſhall forfeit 5l. for every default: half to the king, and half to the informer or proſecutor; by the thirteenth article of the book of rates, made 12 Car. II. cap. 4. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

No goods (fiſh taken by his majeſty's ſubjects, ſea-coal, ſtone and beſtial excepted) ſhall be landed or laden on board, but at lawful kays and places (except Hull, 1 Eliz. cap. 11.) or ſuch other places as his majeſty ſhall appoint, by commiſſioners out of the court of Exchequer, upon forfeiture of ſuch goods. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11. revived 6 Will. and Mary, cap. 1.

To prevent combination between importers and ſeizers of goods, unlawfully imported or exported, none ſhall ſeize the ſame but the officers of the cuſtoms, or ſuch as ſhall be authorized ſo to do, by the lord-treaſurer, under-treaſurer, or a ſpecial commiſſion from his majeſty, under the great or privy-ſeal, notwithſtanding any law to the contrary. Stat. 14 Car. II. cap. 11.

If any ſeizer of prohibitted or uncuſtomed goods ſhall not make due proſecution thereof, it is lawful for the cuſtom-houſe officers, or others deputed thereto, to make ſeizure of ſuch goods, and bring his action by way of devenerunt; and they ſhall be in law adjudged the firſt true informers and ſeizers, and have the benefit thereof, notwithſtanding any law and ſtatute, &c. to the contrary.

All foreign goods permitted to be landed, by bills at ſight, bills at view or ſufferance, ſhall be landed at the moſt convenient kays and wharfs, as the officers of the cuſtoms ſhall direct; and there, or at the king's ſtorehouſe of the reſpective ports, ſhall be meaſured, weighed, numbered, &c. by the officers appointed, who ſhall perfect the entry, and thereunto ſubſcribe their names; and the next day make their re-

port to the cuſtomer, collector, or comptroller; or, in default thereof, ſhall forfeit 100l.

No ſort of wine (except Rheniſh) ſpicery, grocery, tobacco, pitch, tar, pot-aſhes, ſalt, roſin, deal-boards, fir, timber, or olive oil, ſhall be imported into England, Wales, or town of Berwick, from the Netherlands, or Germany, upon the penalty of forfeiting ſhip and goods.

Any merchant who ſhall import goods, ſhall have liberty to break bulk in any lawful port or kay; the maſter or purſer firſt making oath of the true contents of the ſhip's lading, as by the firſt article of the book of rates.

Brandy in any veſſel leſs than ſixty gallons, or in ſhips leſs than fifteen tons burthen, is forfeited by 4 and 5 Will. and Mary, cap. 5.

After December the 1ſt 1696, no one ſhall put on ſhore, in Scotland or Ireland, any merchandize of the growth or product of any of his majeſty's plantations, unleſs the ſame have been firſt landed in England, Wales, or Berwick, and paid the duties wherewith the ſame be chargeable, under penalty of forfeiting ſhip and goods: three-fourths to the king, and one fourth to the informer, or him that ſhall ſue for the ſame: except ſhips being diſabled or driven into any part of Ireland, and unable to proceed on her voyage, her goods may be put on ſhore under the hands of the principal officers of the cuſtoms there reſiding, until the goods can be put on board ſome other veſſel or ſhip, to be tranſported to ſome part of England, Wales, or Berwick.

After the 1ſt of Auguſt 1696, natives of England or Ireland may import into England, directly from Ireland, any hemp, flax, thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, cuſtom-free, the chief officer ſo importing, bringing a certificate from the chief officer in Ireland, expreſſing the particulars of the goods, with the names and places of abode of the exporters thence, and of ſuch as have ſworn the ſaid goods to be bona fide of the growth and manufacture of that kingdom, and who they are conſigned to in England: and the chief officer of the ſaid veſſel ſhall make oath, that the ſaid goods are the ſame that are on board, by virtue of that certificate.

Wool may be imported from Ireland to the ports of Whitehaven, Liverpool, Cheſter, Briſtol, Bridgewater, Minehead, Barnſtaple, and Biddeford, and no other, 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28.

Of goods prohibited importation.

No cloths, made beyond ſea, ſhall be brought into England, Ireland, Wales, or Scotland, upon penalty of forfeiture, and further puniſhment at the king's pleaſure.

No woollen cloths, woollen caps, laces, croſſes, ribbands, fringes of ſilk or thread, thread-laces, ſilk twined, ſilk any wiſe embroidered, or gold-laces, ſaddles, ſtirrups, or any harneſs pertaining to ſaddles; ſpurs, boſſes for bridles, hand irons, grid-irons, no manner of locks, hammers, pincers, fire-tongs, dripping-pans, dice, tennis-balls, purſes, gloves, girdles, harneſſes for girdles of iron, lattin, ſteel, tin or alcamine: nothing that is wrought of any tanned leather; corks, knives, daggers, ſword-blades, bodkins, ſheers, razors, ſciſſars, cheſſmen, playing-cards, combs, pattins, packneedles; no painted wares, forcers, caſkets, rings of copper, or lattin gilt, chafing-diſhes, chafing-balls, hanging-candleſticks, curtain-rings, ladles, ſcummers, counterfeit baſons, ewers, hats, bruſhes, wool-cards: nor any of theſe wares or chaffers ſhall be imported, uttered, and ſold within England or Wales, upon penalty of forfeiting half to the king, and half to the informer; excepting wares taken in the ſea by a wreck. 3 Edw. IV. cap. 4.

No girdlers, point-makers, purſers, glovers, joiners, card-makers, wire-mongers, weavers, bottle-makers, or copperſmiths wares, ſhall be imported by merchants or ſtrangers, 1 Rich. III. cap. 12.

No great cattle, ſheep, or ſwine, or any beef, pork, or bacon, ſhall be imported into England, or town of Berwick (except for the neceſſary proviſion of the ſhips in which they are imported, and except from the iſle of Man) nor any ling, cod, or pilchards, freſh or ſalted, dried or bloated; nor any ſalmon, eel or conger, taken by any foreigners, ſhall be imported, upon penalty of forfeiting the ſame, one half to the poor of the pariſh where the ſame ſhall be found, and half to the ſeizer: but that part relating to bacon is repealed, 18 Car. II. cap. 32.

No foreign wool-cards, card-wire, or iron-wire for wool-card, ſhall be imported into England or Wales under the penalty of forfeiture; one half to the king, and half to the informer. No foreign bone-lace, cut-work, embroidery, fringe, button, or needle-work, ſhall be imported into England or Wales, upon the penalty of forfeiting the goods, and 100l. one half to the king, and the other to the informer, or proſecutor, 14 Car. II. cap. 13.

No foreign hair-buttons, or other buttons whatſoever, ſhall be imported into England or Wales, or town of Berwick, under penalty of forfeiting the ſame, one half to the king, and the other to the proſecutor, 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 13.

No thrown ſilk of the product or manufacture of Italy, Sicily, Naples, that is to ſay, Italian, coarſer than third; Bologna, Sicilian, coarſer than ſecond orny, except as in 3 Annæ, until the 29th of September, 1705, nor thrames, or thrown ſilk, of the production of Turkey, China, Perſia, or the Eaſt-Indies, ſhall be imported under the penalty of forfeiture.

No whale-fins, cut into ſhort lengths, ſhall be imported, under the penalty of forfeiture, and double the value thereof, 9 and 10 Will. III.

An additional duty of one ſhilling in the pound is laid on all goods and merchandize imported, except goods allowed by former acts to be imported duty-free, and goods imported by the Eaſt-India company. And a drawback of this duty ſhall be allowed on re-exportation of them within three years, except ſuch goods on which no drawback is allowed by former acts, 21 Geo. II.

A drawback of three ſhillings in the hundred weight ſhall be allowed on all ſugars refined and exported.

Any perſon reſiding in his majeſty's dominions may import thrown ſilk of the growth of Italy or Sicily, as ſhall be the produce of the effects of Engliſh merchants trading thither, in Engliſh ſhipping for Leghorn, 1 Annæ, cap. 27.

IMPOST, ſignifies a tax, or duty, laid by the ſovereign authority upon ſuch merchandizes as are brought from foreign countries: it is ſometimes applied to a tax impoſed upon domeſtic productions and manufactures. See the articles Customs, Duties, Excises.

INAMELLING. See Enamelling.

INDIA TRADE. See East-India Trade, East-India Company, Dutch East-India Company, Java, and ſuch other heads as we from thoſe refer to.

INDIA-HOUSE of Spain, for the management of the Spaniſh Weſt-India trade and navigation of that kingdom.

Upon the diſcovery of the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies, the affairs and tranſactions that occurred in thoſe countries and iſlands, as they became known, were adminiſtred by ſeveral commiſſions, which their Catholic majeſty's directed, from time to time, to private perſons ſucceſſively.

In the firſt Weſt-India fleet that was diſpatched by queen Joanna of Spain, in the year 1501, ſhe gives commiſſioners appointed to manage the ſame to underſtand, that, with the concurrence of the king, ſhe had ordered a houſe to be built in the ſhip-yards of the city of Seville, for the conduct of the trade and commerce of the Weſt-Indies, Canaries, and other iſlands, which were already, or ſhould be for the future diſcovered. To which houſe were to be brought all merchandizes, and other things neceſſary for the trade, and ſuch as were carried to the ſaid iſlands, and brought from them. That in the ſaid houſe there was to be appointed a factor, a treaſurer, and an eſcrivano, regiſter, or clerk, who were to take charge of all the ſaid trade, as would appear to them more fully, by an inſtruction their majeſty's had ordered to be drawn up to that purpoſe, ſigned with their names, and ſuperſcribed by their chief contadores and comptrollers, &c.—That their majeſties, relying on the great abilities and integrity of the perſons mentioned in the ſaid commiſſion, had thought fit to name and appoint them for that ſervice; that is to ſay, &c.—Charging and commanding them to accept of the ſaid employments, and to execute them with all poſſible care and diligence, according to the aforeſaid inſtruction.—That they ſhould, from time to time, write their majeſties an account of all ſuch things as they thought convenient for the execution of the ſaid inſtruction, or otherwiſe, that they might give the neceſſary orders, as were moſt for their ſervice, and the advancement of the ſaid trade.

To which effect ſhe gave them full powers, during their majeſties will and pleaſure, and that ſhe would order their ſalaries to be appointed.

This was the foundation of inſtituting the firſt judges, or commiſſioners, in Spain, whoſe power was expreſſed in the inſtruction therein mentioned, which contains in ſubſtance as follows:

In regard that the employment of eſcrivano was not inſtituted only for keeping and ſtating of accounts, but alſo to ſecure and preſerve the books, papers, and records of the houſe (as is done to this day) therefore he was called eſcrivano, or regiſter, and is ſo named in the firſt warrant, but ever after contador or comptroller.

From the firſt inſtitution of the commiſſioners it ſeems to have been her Catholic majeſty's will, that the three judges, or commiſſioners, ſhould live in the India-Houſe, as appears by the order of the 14th of February, 1503; till afterwards, in the year 1518, the emperor Charles V. ſent orders that none of them ſhould live there, but leave it all for the buſineſs of trade, and to hold their meetings as the hiſtorigrapher Anthony de Herrera mentions; and this was the occaſion of a new ordinance, by which the comptroller, treaſurer, and factor are, for the future, obliged to live in the India-Houſe, in which, as appears, the treaſurer's deputy had an apartment, and afterwards it was given to the eldeſt judge that was a lawyer, when the chamber of juſtice was erected.

The Spaniſh hiſtorian, Anthony de Herrera, ſays alſo, that, in the year 1510, the buſineſs relating to the Weſt-Indies daily increaſing, and the king conceiving the good management of it depended on the India-Houſe at Seville, he reſolved

ſolved to honour it, and therefore commanded the admiral to ſend an account to thoſe officers of all things he thought fit to acquaint his majeſty with, and to keep conſtant correſpondence with them: and, at the ſame time, he ordered the officers of the houſe, that, whenſoever they iſſued any orders for the Weſt-Indies, they ſhould conſult with, and receive information from ſuch perſons as were acquainted with the countries diſcovered, for the better giving ſuch directions as were proper, and for diſcovering the ſecrets of thoſe parts. He charged alſo the judges of the court of Grados not to intrench upon the juriſdiction of the ſaid houſe.

To ſhew how much their Catholic majeſties, and the emperor Charles V. relied upon the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe at Seville, for what related to the improvement of the Weſt-India commerce, it is material to obſerve what Anthony de Herrera writes, when mentioning his imperial majeſty's care about building of ſhips for thoſe parts, and having ſhipwrights to go over to Hiſpaniola, to ſtay there ſome time, and thence paſs over to the continent, and other parts; and that this method ſhould be obſerved for the future, not only as to ſhip-wrights, but all other perſons that were to go over into thoſe countries, becauſe at Hiſpaniola they would become acquainted with the food, air, and other things of that country, and would then go with more ſafety into any other parts of the Weſt-Indies: he ſays his majeſty writ then to the commiſſioners, telling them, He wondered they had not thought of this particular, ſince they had nothing elſe to mind but the trade of the Indies; that, for the future, they ought to be more attentive to it, and take care to find out methods to advance thoſe parts, ſince he relied on them, as he had at other times given them to underſtand, becauſe the miniſters about him had multiplicity of buſineſs to attend, whereas they had none but that, and were always ſettled, which the court was not.

The hiſtorian tells us further, That his majeſty ſaid ſo in regard that, till then, there was no particular council appointed for the affairs of the Indies: for, though, as he ſays, there had been one during a ſhort time, his majeſty had ſuſpended it on account of the biſhop of Burgos's diſguſt, who by means of his friendſhip with the commendary Francis de los Cobos, in the year 1517, obtained of the king the reeſtabliſhment of the council of the Indies, where he mentions the perſons then admitted to it; though D. John de Solorçano does not aſſign the inſtitution of it till 1524, becauſe it was then the emperor named a preſident and counſellors for that ſupreme royal council, and looks upon thoſe which Anthony de Herrera took for a council only as particular aſſemblies, to conſult upon occaſion. And thus we hence infer, in honour of the Spaniſh India-Houſe, that, in a great meaſure, it ſupplied the defect of that council during that interim, and has ever ſince continued a ſovereign court, as erected by that great emperor.

The more the wealth, buſineſs, and authority of the India-Houſe increaſed, the more it was attacked by the civil magiſtrate, who took it ill that affairs of ſuch conſequence ſhould run through other hands; but their Catholic majeſties judged that the affairs of a new world, of ſuch vaſt extent and conſequence, ſhould run through a particular channel of their own eſtabliſhment. In ſhort, it ſeems from Herrera, that, in the year 1518, there had happened ſome diſputes at Seville about juriſdiction, and the king ordered D. Francis Fernandes de Quinones, earl of Luna, then ſupreme magiſtrate of Seville, not to intermeddle, on any account, with what concerned the juriſdiction of the India-Houſe, but rather diligently to ſupport and maintain it in the privileges granted by his majeſty.

The ſame order was given to Sancho Martinez, who ſucceeded the earl, for that the king did not only deſign to ſupport what he had done, but even to add other authorities to it, if neceſſary. The ſame hiſtorian, in another place, acquaints us, that the ſupreme magiſtrates of Seville received a ſevere reprimand, becauſe they refuſed to aid and aſſiſt the treaſurer of the India-Houſe, Sancho de Martinez, who demanded their aſſiſtance againſt an alcaide beloning to the admiral of Caſtille's deputy, who hindered Ferdinand Magallanes from ſetting up his colours where other captains uſed to do; and the king commiſſioned the judges of the houſe to make inquiry into the matter, in order to puniſh thoſe ſeverely who were found guilty.

Herrera further tells us, That, the contador, or comptroller, John Lopez de Recalde, who was a commiſſioner, or judge-officer, being ſuſpended in the year 1523, that buſineſs might not be obſtructed, whilſt his cauſe was in debate, his majeſty ordered the earl of Oſorno, then chief magiſtrate of Seville, to act in conjunction with the treaſurer and factor: but, it being hard to reconcile different juriſdictions, there happened ſeveral conteſts.

King Philip II. made ſuch account of this India-Houſe, that he would not only have it be the repoſitory of all his treaſures brought from the Weſt-Indies, but the treaſury of all his revenues ariſing by tolls, cuſtoms, ſalt pits, and cards, in Andaluſia, which was begun in 1579; and in 1580, it ſeems his majeſty ordered the revenue ſhould run through the hands of the preſident of the houſe, then the licentiate, James Gaſca de Salazar, the earl of Villar, chief magiſtrate of Seville, and the treaſurer, D. Francis Tello; and it appears, that the preſident of the India-Houſe took place of the chief magiſtrate, and ſigned before him.

King Philip II. did not only make uſe of the preſident and commiſſioners of the India-Houſe, in what directly belonged to their employment, but in things remote, and of vaſt conſequence; and they, together with the duke of Medina Sidonia, who commanded it, had the care of fitting out that grand armada againſt England in 1588: and, in 1582, the ſame king appointed them to chuſe a founder for the mint, that place being then vacant.

And here it may not be amiſs to mention an occurrence, which ſhews the ſtate of his Catholic majeſty's finances at that time, and how ready the India-Houſe was to ſerve the city of Seville. In the year 1590, that city begged of king Philip II. that he would lend them 150,000 ducats out of his returns in the laſt fleet, till they could raiſe that ſum at intereſt. His majeſty ordered the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe to inform him whether he might grant that favour without preſent miſs of the money. They anſwered, That, the city of Seville having of late fallen under many diſappointments, and being always ready to ſerve his majeſty, they thought it expedient he ſhould lend them as far as 100,000 ducats, of which ſum there would be no great want.

There was then not only a conſiderable bank in ſpecie, but the public credit was good; for, in the year 1611, we find a letter ſent to his majeſty, wherein the commiſſioners of the India-Houſe acquaint him, that his punctual payments had ſo advanced his credit, that he might take up as much money as he pleaſed, at eaſier intereſt than private perſons. And, in the year 1629, another letter, acquainting the council, that, for fitting out of galleons, it would be eaſier to take up money on his majeſty's credit, and by his commiſſioners, in his name, than on the fund of haberias, or duty of convoys.

It will not therefore be improper, in this place, to obſerve the greatneſs of this court, whoſe juriſdiction is as large as it's territory is boundleſs; whoſe authority is ſo extraordinary, that it has ſupplied the place of a council, and acted as ſuch, not only in reference to the Indies, but to the public revenue and military affairs of the kingdom, when orders paſſed immediately from the king to it; whoſe wealth is ſuch, that none in Europe can compare with it; whoſe credit is ſo high, that no private perſon could equal it; whoſe preheminences were ſuch, that they had the appointing of all officers, even to the admirals of fleets, and civil magiſtrates; the giving paſſes to ſhips to all parts, and ſending advice-boats with only their own orders; one of whoſe judges, or commiſſioners, being wanting at the board, the place has been ſupplied by the chief magiſtrate of Seville, being a nobleman of Caſtille; the appointing of whoſe officers the emperor Charles V. reſerved to himſelf, together with viceroys and archbiſhops, when he went into Flanders, leaving the diſpoſal of all other places to the prince his ſon, afterwards king Philip II. though the viciſſitude of times has of late deprived it of the privilege of chooſing officers, thoſe places being ſince ſold.

Notwithſtanding the decay which time, and ſeveral accidents, have occaſioned in the greatneſs of this India-Houſe, there is not in all the Spaniſh monarchy a nobler court, next to the king's council; for the commiſſioners of both the chambers of direction and juſtice enjoy all the ſame privileges and immunities with the judges in chancery, and other courts, and may be termed a council, inaſmuch as their advice is aſked upon ſeveral occaſions by his majeſty.

The licentiate Alonzo Morgado ſays, that the treaſure of the India-Houſe has been ſo great, as would ſuffice to pave the ſtreets of Seville with tiles of ſilver and gold. Roderick Caro alſo ſays, that it was part of the palace and royal apartments, and it's authority is ſo great, that no ſhip can ſail to the Weſt-Indies without it's leave. And again, that, for this reaſon, authors juſtly called Seville queen of the ocean. And D. John de Solorçano and Anthony de Herrera ſay, that it is a tribunal of great power, having to do with all buſineſs concerning the commerce and trade of the Spaniſh Indies, and whatever ariſes conſequentially therefrom, and no magiſtrate can intermeddle in what concerns it.

From what has been ſaid, we find that queen Joanna, at the time ſhe appointed the three firſt commiſſioners, or judges, aſſigned the juriſdiction, but how far it extended, or under what laws and ordinances, is not extant; only we find the rules then preſcribed were given in two ſheets of parchment, hung up in frames.

This is further to be made out, by ſeveral orders from the emperor Charles V. wherein mention is made of thoſe ordinances; and more lately, in the year 1539, by an order of council, which allows them privative juriſdiction, civil and criminal, in all cauſes belonging to owners and maſters of ſhips, ſeafaring people, and ſuch as loſe ſhips, or are the cauſe of loſing them; to factors and merchants; to them that intercept, and open letters or inſtructions, relating to the Weſt-Indies: and to the obſervation of all laws and ordinances made for regulating the trade and commerce of thoſe parts.

And they are hereby authorized to take cognizance of all crimes, thefts, or other offences, committed in ſailing to or from the Weſt-Indies; and, after that, till the gold and ſilver, or merchandizes, are delivered at Seville; and to enquire into, and puniſh the tranſgreſſors they ſhall find, ſo that no other judge ſhall intermeddle therein; and their ſentences ſhall be executed in the uſual places for that purpoſe; and, though the prohibition to other judges to intermeddle be general, yet thoſe of Cadiz, St. Lucar, and other ports, are particularly named, and the captains-general of the coaſts of Andaluſia, thoſe being the places where this juriſdiction is uſually exerciſed.

By an order ſigned at Valladolid, the 14th of June, 1558, it is appointed that the ſame method be practiſed in trying of cauſes in the India-Houſe, as is uſed in the royal courts of Valladolid and Granada; and, beſides this, in ſeveral other warrants, it is ſtiled his majeſty's court, even before there was a chamber of juſtice.

The trade of the Weſt-Indies increaſing, this, like other courts, received ſeveral new laws and ordinances, for the better management thereof, and the execution of juſtice; and to the three commiſſioners and judges, by their offices, there were added a preſident, three oydores, that is, lawyer-judges, ſo called from the word oyr, to hear; an alcaide, a head alguazile, much like our judges tipſtaff; a fiſcal, or ſolicitor, and ſeveral other officers. To this court are ſubordinate thoſe of the prior and conſuls of the trade of Seville and it's territory, of the contadores, or auditors of haberias, or the duty for convoys, the tribunal for affairs of India at Cadiz, the judges of regiſters in the Canary Iſlands, and many others.

This court, beſides the privative, enjoys an ordinary juriſdiction, with all the preheminences annexed to it. Now to leave the canvaſſing of theſe two juriſdictions to the learned, the laws of Spain informing us, that juriſdiction may be called ordinary which is immediately granted by the prince, or by the law; beſides the perpetuity of the offices in a tribunal that has juriſdiction, renders them ordinary. This court, being eſtabliſhed by the prince, cannot be denied to be thus qualified; and it is privative, by reaſon of it's juriſdiction without any particular territory, which yet does not obſtruct it's being ordinary: for though, by it's ordinances, it ſeems confined only to perſons and cauſes, yet the perſons offending being ordered to be brought to it from any parts, tho' at never ſo great a diſtance, it appears that it's territory is as large as his majeſty's dominions.

It further appears to have full juriſdiction and authority over it's own officers, as has been evident from ſeveral caſes, and particularly in the conteſt that aroſe in the year 1655, when Thomas de Arenas killed D. Alonſo de Villa Corta, both of them being contadores of haberias, that is, comptrollers of the duty for convoys; which murder, though committed in a ſtreet at Seville, and far from the India-Houſe, yet the city judges inſiſting that the cognizance of that affair belonged to them, and the determination being remitted to Madrid, it was given in favour of this court.

By an order from the emperor Charles V. whereof mention has been made before, it appears his majeſty's deſign was not only to maintain the India-Houſe in it's original privileges and juriſdiction, but to increaſe them, as was afterwards done upon ſeveral occaſions, by deciding ſundry diſputes and controverſies in favour of it, whereof I will give ſome inſtances.

And here we ſhall obſerve, that the method practiſed by this court for preſerving it's authority, before theſe conteſts were regulated, was to ſummon the plaintiff, who had entered his action in another court, againſt any perſon ſubject to the juriſdiction of the India-Houſe, to appear there, and make good his aſſertions, and this upon pain of impriſonment and forfeiture of goods; which was the occaſion of erecting the chamber of competition, in the year 1621; and this form has been followed ever ſince.

At other times the eſcrivanos, or regiſters, were ſummoned to lay before the court the proceedings of the parties; if they refuſed, they were proceeded againſt upon contempt, and if, upon complying, the cauſe was found to belong to the India-Houſe, they were obliged to leave all the original proceſs, and the parties were ordered to follow their ſuit in that court.

The kings of Spain have not only ſupported the authority of this court, by exempting it from any ſubordination to others, but have alſo made it independent of all other councils, except that of the Indies, as appears by ſeveral grants and orders; and, laſtly, by one of king Philip IV, in the year 1647, forbidding the preſident and commiſſioners to obey any orders ſent them by any court or council, except only that of the Indies.

The commiſſary-general, under-commiſſary, and ſub-delegates of the croiſade, have often attempted to intermeddle with merchandizes coming from the Weſt-Indies, but the preſident and commiſſioners ever carried it againſt them, as they have done againſt all other magiſtrates; inſtances whereof are too tedious to inſert, and not material, it being our buſineſs only to repreſent how far the authority of the court extends. Nor has this court been leſs peremptory in refuſing to obey orders ſent down from any councils, except that of the Weſt-Indies, only in particular caſes, ſuch as delivering of the revenue, by order of the council de Hazienda, or of the revenue, and the money ariſing by the croiſade, by order from the commiſſary, and council belonging to it; but, in other caſes, only his majeſty's order, and that of the council of the Weſt-Indies, were obeyed. Yet the council de Hazienda, or of the revenue, cannot draw bills upon the plate that is aboard the galleons, flota, or other veſſels coming up the river, nor upon plate-maſters, they having no command over any but what is actually brought into the treaſury of the India-Houſe, becauſe the council of the Indies is firſt to declare what part falls to their diſpoſal. The judges or commiſſioners for contraband goods, pretending to ſeize Weſt-India goods, upon any account whatſoever, have been ordered to deſiſt; and the governors of St. Lucar and Cadiz, endeavouring to incroach upon the juriſdiction of the ſupreme court of the India-Houſe, have been ſeverely reprimanded.

This court of the India-trade has not only power to inſpect the gold and ſilver brought from the Weſt-Indies, and to take care it be effectually delivered in the kingdom of Spain, but to provide and ſee it be not carried out to other nations; for, though this ſeems to be the charge of the ordinary magiſtrates, or commiſſioners for the export, when once the plate is delivered out of the mints, yet this court has an accumulative power in this particular, granted by the council of ſtate the 3d of April, 1608. In relation to the inquiſition at Seville in the year 1663, it was reſolved, that, when the ſaid tribunal required any papers to be delivered, or certificate to be made, a ſecretary be ſent with the meſſage, who comes into court with his ſword and hat on, ſits down on one of the ſide-benches, and, having delivered his meſſage, the preſident anſwers, They will take the demands of the inquiſition into conſideration, and, in the mean while, he may wait without. When they are come to a reſolution, he is called in, and orders are given for putting their decree in execution.

To conclude, this court, by an order of the 21ſt of June, 1574, is authorized to take cognizance, independent of any other court, of all cauſes mentioned in the ordinances, and to proceed againſt all perſons that ſhall any way contradict them; to ſee them obſerved and kept, and to perform all things relating to, and depending on them. And this court accordingly has proceeded to give judgment, independent of all other courts, in criminal matters, to impriſonment, ſending to the gallies, baniſhment, and hanging; of which nature many inſtances might be mentioned, as alſo of the impriſonment of generals, and other perſons in high poſts, for offences within it's juriſdiction. It is but reaſonable, ſays our author, that this court of trade ſhould exerciſe juriſdiction over it's own officers, it being a curb and check upon them, to know their own tribunal will puniſh the crimes they ſhall commit, without being neceſſitated to carry them before any other magiſtrate. In Seville, beſides the officers of the India-Houſe, all thoſe belonging to the artillery, gunners, pilots, owners of ſhips, and ſailors, are independent of the civil magiſtrate, and only ſubordinate to the court of the India-Houſe, called in Spaniſh, Caſa de la Contratracion; that is, The Houſe of trade. See the articles ANDALUSIA, FLOTA, GALLEONS, SPANISH AMERICA.

REMARKS.

We have ſeen, from the foregoing narrative, with what great power and authority the India-Houſe of Spain is inveſted, in order to preſerve and maintain the commerce of the Spaniſh-Indies. The immenſe treaſures which have been drawn from Spaniſh America are too well known to need intimation; [ſee our article AMERICA, ACAPULCO] but the Spaniards experiencing that theſe treaſures have been chiefly diſſeminated among the European nations, and but a ſmall proportion of the whole has remained in Spain, they have, for above theſe 30 years paſt, ſet about a reform of the manner of carrying on this trade. [See the articles FLOTA, GALLEONS, REGISTER-SHIPS, and SPANISH AMERICA.]

That the trade of England, as well as France and Holland, has, for many years paſt, depended greatly on our exports to Spaniſh America, by the way of Old Spain, is certain: that the dominions of the new world which are ſubject to his Catholic majeſty may no longer depend upon being ſupplied with the fabrics of other European nations, the Spaniards have been many years endeavouring, and ſtill zealouſly continue to endeavour to raiſe, within themſelves, whatever produce, and to manufacture whatever fabrics they can, in order to ſupply their own American colonies therewith, that other nations may not ingroſs the greateſt ſhare of thoſe advantages.—This is the commercial ſyſtem which, at preſent, prevails at the court of Madrid, and is founded on the ſame principles as that of other nations is, to the end that the mother kingdom may reap all advantages ſhe can by their colonies and plantations.

That Spain is really making theſe efforts in her commerce, we have already ſhewn in great variety of inſtances through-

out this work, and ſhall further ſhew the ſame in the ſequel: and whether this ought not ſo to alarm this nation as to excite a reſolution to compenſate ourſelves for thoſe evils we muſt certainly hereby ſuſtain, is ſubmitted to thoſe who have candidly attended to what we have hitherto urged, and ſhall continue to do through the whole of our public ſervice.

But, as the court of Spain could never effectuate theſe great things without the aid of artificers and manufacturers, they are daily decoying them from all nations whence they are to be had; and many more perhaps, are gone from this nation in particular, within a few years, than we are apprized of.

That this may appear to our traders from the actual meaſures which have been ſome years ſince taken by Spain, we judge it moſt ſatisfactory to produce our teſtimonials, which we ſhall do from

Copies of letters, ſent by order of his late Catholic majeſty, December 12, 1718, to the captain-general and intendants of the Spaniſh provinces, charging them with the kind treatment of foreigners, and other inſtructions in favour of thoſe that ſhall come into Spain, either to work or ſerve in the army.

The following order has been ſent by the captain-general, and commanding officers on the frontiers.

'Complaints being made that there has not been ſhewn to 'foreigners, who have come into Spain by ſea or land, that 'kind treatment which his majeſty deſires, and is fitting, 'he has reſolved that orders be ſent by the captain-general, 'to the governors of the fortreſſes on the frontiers, or ſea-'ports, that kind reception ſhould be given to the foreigners 'that ſhall come thither; and that, if any of them pleaſe 'to go into the inland parts of theſe kingdoms, either to 'ſerve in the army, or exerciſe any MECHANIC TRADE, 'or other occupation whatſoever, according as it ſhall be 'the inclination or ability of each perſon, that they be al-'lowed to paſs freely, and without interruption; and that, 'to all ſuch as ſhall come on foot, be granted paſſports for 'the inland parts, for ſuch term of time as ſhall be ſufficient 'for their arrival at the place deſired, uſing ſuch precaution, 'that the ſaid term inſerted in the paſs may not ſerve them 'for a return back to their own country; and the ſaid tra-'velling paſſes are to have the following general clauſes, 'that no obſtruction be given them, but all the relief that 'ſhall be neceſſary in their journey, and an eſpecial charge, 'that, in all places they ſhall paſs through in the direct road, 'there be provided for each perſon a lodging and bed, for 'one night only, at the expence of the ſaid places, and all 'other neceſſaries for money at the cuſtomary prices, with-'out any exceeding whatſoever: and in order that ſtrangers, 'who ſhall come into theſe dominions, may find ſuch fa-'vourable treatment and kind reception, the governors of 'the fortreſſes and ports ſhall inform themſelves of all ſuch 'as ſhall arrive there, and be inclined to ſettle in Spain, 'and uſe all their addreſs to prevail with thoſe that under-'ſtand any MECHANIC ARTS, to be ſent to the places 'where the FABRICS, MANUFACTURES, or other CRAFTS 'are carried on, according to the inclination and abilities of 'each perſon, more eſpecially to the chief town of the diſ-'trict, where the intendants reſide: and that all ſuch as be 'willing to ſerve in the army, &c. &c.—All theſe things I 'communicate to your excellency, by his majeſty's com-'mand, that you may diſpatch the neceſſary inſtructions for 'the execution and obſervation of them, as far as ſhall con-'cern you; your excellency, giving alſo an eſpecial charge 'to the governors not to ſuffer their ſecretaries to demand 'any fee for ſuch travelling paſſports, or upon any other 'pretence. God preſerve, &c.

'And his majeſty orders, that, as ſoon as the intendants are 'made acquainted with this reſolution, that they uſe alſo the 'utmoſt of their power to procure kind treatment for foreign-'ers that ſhall come into the kingdom; and direct, in thoſe 'provinces where there ſhall be no military commanding of-'ficers, that lodging be found them, in the ſame manner as 'has been already provided for ſuch as ſhall come on foot, 'it being underſtood only when they are travelling into the 'inland parts of Spain, but not when they ſhall be returning 'towards their own, or other foreign countries, for at that 'time they ſhall bear their own charges; and, in caſe of 'their labouring under any infirmity or ſickneſs, that they 'take care to ſee them cured in the hoſpitals of that juriſ-'diction, and, upon their recovery, to furniſh them with 'ſuch travelling paſſes as are already directed, for the proſe-'cuting of their journey, if it be not to go out of the kingdom: 'moreover, it is his majeſty's pleaſure, that the intendants uſe 'their influence to prevail upon them to ſerve in the army; 'and that ſuch as ſhall be MANUFACTURERS, be directed 'and ſettled in the places of their reſpective fabrics, letters 'being ſent along with them to the corregidors and juſtices, 'to receive and introduce them into the ſaid fabrics, the cul-'tivation of lands, or other occupations advantageous to the 'community; but without any violence, or ſuffering them 'to be diſtreſſed, and rather aſſiſting and favouring of them 'to the utmoſt of their power; and, in caſe of it's being 'diſcovered that there are amongſt them any ſkilful MAS-'TERS or WORKMEN for the MANUFACTORIES, and other 'occupations uſeful to the public, and they ſhall be de-'ſirous of ſettling in any city, or other place, it is his ma-'jeſty's intention, that the intendants, their deputies, the cor-'regidors, and other juſtices be diligent in ſettling and pro-'curing them a convenient HABITATION, at the charge of 'the ſame places, together with an exemption from the 'EXCISES and other TAXES, that ſhall be the property of 'the ſaid towns, equivalent to what THEY or their WORK-'MEN can conſume, but both of them for a limited number 'of years, while they ſhall labour at their fabrics, or other 'occupations, which ſhall be amicably adjuſted between the 'parties concerned; it being underſtood, that, for what con-'cerns the royal duties, or revenues, there be no immunity 'granted them, without a previous order from his majeſty; 'for the obtaining of which, the intendant ſhall preſent a 'memorial, at ſuch times as there ſhall be any inducement 'to ſuch an indulgence: it is alſo his majeſty's pleaſure, for 'the better ſecuring this important purpoſe, that the inten-'dants, and their deputies, be vigilant in the execution of 'every thing, provided with this intent in the inſtructions 'to the intendants, and particularly in the 43d article, and 'that they regularly tranſmit an account of the progreſs that 'has been made therein: all which I communicate to your 'lordſhip by his majeſty's command, for your obſervance of 'that part which concerns, &c. God preſerve, &c. The 'Pardo, December 12, 1718.

Don MIGUEL FERNANDES DURAN.'

Again:

Certain articles in the inſtructions to the intendants, that are calculated to cheriſh trade and manufactures, iſſued by the late king, the 4th of July, 1718, &c.

ARTICLE XLII.

'As to the vagabonds and poor, that ſhall not be fit to bear 'arms, or for the culture of lands, or other ſorts of hard 'labour, you ſhall ſee that houſes be provided for them in 'cities and villages, at their charge, where they ſhall be col-'lected together, and made to work, either in ſpinning or 'preparing wool, ſilk, and other materials for the fabrics, 'and mechanic trades, each of them employed in that ſort 'of labour that ſhall beſt ſuit his age, health, and genius: 'ſo that by theſe, and other proviſions which you ſhall judge 'proper to make, no perſon may be idle, and every one gain 'a livelihood without begging, or uſing other unlawful means; 'and that only thoſe that by their age and infirmities ſhall be 'unable to work, ſhall be maintained by the alms that ſhall 'be collected, and other reliefs which the community ſhall 'provide: and becauſe there are many that work only on 'certain days of the week, and are idle the reſt, though there 'be no want of work, ye ſhall alſo take care to correct this 'miſdemeanour, by cauſing them to be mortified by confine-'ment, and other means prudence ſhall dictate, and their 'ſeveral caſes require, and alſo forbid their aſſembling in ta-'verns, or entertaining themſelves with unlawful ſports, eſpe-'cially on WORKING DAYS.

XLIII.

'To the ſame end it ſhall be your eſpecial charge to encourage, 'in all towns fit and qualified for them, all FABRICS of 'CLOTH, STUFFS, PAPER, GLASS, SOAP, any ſort of 'WOVEN GOODS, the growth of SILK, LOOMS, and all 'other MECHANIC ARTS, TRADES, and CRAFTS what-'ſoever, which can with moſt eaſe be ſet on foot; for, be-'ſides the numbers maintained by the labour of the MANU-'FACTORIES, and employed in the conduct of them, com-'merce is by this means promoted, and the provinces in-'riched, ſince the exporting of any ſort of goods whatever, 'MANUFACTURED, will yield a far greater advantage than 'that of the materials or ſimple commodities of our own 'growth, ſuch as wool, ſilk, flax, wood, ſoſa, barilla, 'ore, &c.

'Ye ſhall alſo lay before me the moſt practicable and likely 'means to gain this end of inducing the common people to 'labour and induſtry, on which depend their own eaſe and 'the public intereſt. And ſhould it be neceſſary to aſſiſt them 'in any ſhape, or to grant them SUMS OF MONEY, not too 'large, it ſhall be freely diſpenſed to them as the advantage 'reſulting from it is manifeſt; and, in caſe private perſons 'ſhall not have ſufficient means to ſet them on foot, by form-'ing an aſſociation, or company, of ſome of the moſt pro-'per perſons, or when the public cheſt fails; and the want 'of MASTERS, owing to the ruin of ſo many manufactories, 'mechanic trades and crafts, ſhould clog it; you ſhall conſider 'of methods to draw them from other parts of the kingdom, 'or from ABROAD, into the places under your juriſdiction; 'or, according to the ſorts of fabrics to be eſtabliſhed, you 'ſhall ſend youth and children to the places where they are, 'to learn, and by this means, in time, accompliſh a ſcheme 'ſo IMPORTANT and INTERESTING: and as we are ſen-

ſible

'ſible that one great cauſe of the ruin of the Spaniſh manu-
'factures, is the vaſt improvement foreigners have made in
'theirs, whoſe cloths, ſtuffs, &c. are finer and more beau-
'tiful, made with fewer materials, and with leſs charge, and
'yet have ſufficient ſtrength, I ſhall order a ſtandard for the
'MEASURE, NUMBER of THREADS, form of the COMBS,
'PRESSES, FULLING-MILLS, and other RULES to be ob-
'ſerved by the MANUFACTURERS of WOOL, SILK*, &c.
'that, having the ſubſtance and prime quality which is pro-
'per, they may riſe in eſteem, and their vent and conſump-
'tion be facilitated both at home and abroad. To this end,
'I ſhall cauſe to be reduced, or taken off, all the DUTIES
'now charged at their exportation out of my dominions, as
'alſo the INLAND DUTY at the ſale of them, &c.—You
'ſhall alſo take care that the colours for dyeing cloths and
'ſilks be good and laſting, and puniſh all ſuch as offend in
'this way: and I order, that, in all theſe and other caſes which
'may occur, you encourage and favour TRADE, and, con-
'quently, the TRADERS, MANUFACTURERS, their WORK-
'MEN, and other DEPENDENTS, as it is my intention,
'that they be all ſupported and aſſiſted by my TRIBU-
'NALS, MINISTERS, CAPTAINS-GENERAL, and other com-
'manders and perſons whom it ſhall concern, as it has
'been directed and given them in charge, more eſpecially
'taking care that they be involved in no vexatious affairs;
'and if any LAW-SUITS of their own, or their fami-
'lies, ſhould happen, that they be DISPATCHED quickly,
'and in PREFERENCE TO ALL OTHERS, doing them juſ-
'tice, and ſhewing all the favour that can be, without in-
'convenience.'

* The utmoſt care has lately been taken that theſe ordinances ſhould be duly regarded.

REMARKS before the laſt war.

This is the grand ſyſtem that at preſent prevails in Spain, with regard to the intereſt of commerce, and which muſt inevitably, in a few years, enable them to ſupply the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies with their own manufactures, which they at preſent export thither in greater abundance than they ever did: and, how the trade of Great-Britain muſt be affected thereby, we leave every man of ſenſe to judge. For further confirmation hereof, ſee the articles AMERICA, ACAPULCO, BISCAYANEERS, CASTILE, CATALONIA, CONSULS, FACTORS, SPAIN.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of PEACE 1763.

In what manner our late conqueſt of the Havanna, and the ceſſion of Florida, in conſequence of our reſtoring the ſame to the king of Spain again may operate at the court of Madrid, with reſpect to the increaſe of BRITISH EXPORTS to Old Spain, and from thence to the Spaniſh-Indies, may be rather too early for us to make any pre-judgment of. Should the peace have an effect rather to diminiſh than augment our EXPORTS to Spain, and they ſhould exerciſe every politic art to ſhew their reſentment, 'tis to be hoped, that we ſhall retaliate the treatment in a commercial way, by leſſening our importations from Spain, in return for their civility; and take leſs of their wines and other fruit, with which we may be able, perhaps, ſoon to do without, by means of the new acquiſitions we have obtained from them and France together, in America. See AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, COLONIES, FRENCH AMERICA, SPANISH AMERICA, SPAIN.

INDIAN AFFAIRS in NORTH AMERICA.

The furr and peltry trade of our North American colonies depending upon the Indians on this continent, it has always made an eſſential part in the government of thoſe colonies, to cultivate an amicable underſtanding with theſe people, who look upon themſelves as the aborigines. In effecting this, and keeping thoſe Indians ſteady in their friendſhip and alliances with us, has been a matter of difficulty, and attended with a conſtant expence in preſents to thoſe people, which are frequently no ſooner received than forgot. This has been attributed to various cauſes. One of which the Indians themſelves have often complained, that is to ſay, their ſachems, or their wiſeſt men among them have complained, has been, that our traders in their dealings with them, take opportunities to intoxicate them with ſpirituous liquors, and then to impoſe upon and over-reach them in their commercial barters.

That this charge brought againſt our people is not groundleſs, has been too notorious to be gainſaid. To remedy practices of this nature, effectual meaſures muſt be taken by every diſtinct provincial government; and every wiſe regulation for the purpoſe, ſhould be ſo enforced as to execute itſelf, by proper rewards and puniſhments.

Another cauſe has been the intrigues and machinations of the French to poiſon and irritate the ſavages againſt us, by repreſenting thoſe trafficable impoſitions upon them on our ſide, in the moſt aggravated and enormous light, the more effectually to alienate their attachment for us, and engroſs their good-will and friendſhip wholly to themſelves. To this end, the French have practiſed every cunning, every artifice and policy they could deviſe; and particularly by acting by them in their dealings, exchange, and barters, with ſtrict juſtice; and never ſo impoſing on them, as to make an impreſſion to their diſadvantage: and to ſtrengthen them in their good opinion of the French, and the contrary of our people, they have encouraged intermarriages among them with their people, and ſent numbers of artful miſſionaries among them, who enter into all their cuſtoms and manners, and become reſident always with them, to ſooth them in their regard for our enemies, and influence them to our detriment.

Meaſures of this kind having been unpractiſed on our ſide, it has been no wonder that we have had, and ſtill continue to have, broils and miſunderſtandings with theſe ſavages; and we muſt reaſonably expect, that the notions the French have, for many years, endeavoured to inſtil into them againſt us, cannot ſuddenly be obliterated. But ſince the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763, has aſcertained the boundaries of territory between Great-Britain and France, and given us ſo great advantages over the French to what we before had, it will be our own faults, if we do not gain the aſcendancy over the affections of the Indians, and attach all thoſe tribes, within the Britiſh limits, to the Britiſh intereſt for the future. For now we have Canada and it's dependencies annexed to the crown of England, and thereby obtained the navigation of the gulph and river of St. Lawrence, it is in our power to cut off all ſupplies by the French, of arms and ammunition to the Indian nations, ſettled any way contiguous to our new acquiſitions in thoſe parts. If we cannot obtain their friendſhip, by all fair, upright, amicable, and humane meaſures, which muſt be effectually tried, we muſt over-awe them, and make them our friends by force and compulſion; we muſt be at length obliged to erect ſuch a chain of forts as the French have been many years deviſing, from the north to the ſouth of that continent, at the proper places, which will contribute greatly to compel them to adhere to the treaties and alliances which they ſhall make with us.

And as we are intitled to the navigation of the Miſſiſſippi, while we preſerve a maritime force able to cope with our enemies there, we ſhall by that means be able to diſtreſs the refractory Indians; and by our ſettlements in Eaſt and Weſt Florida and Georgia, and by our ports of Mobille, Penſacola, and St. Auguſtine, and all the aid and aſſiſtance that can be brought by means of a happy union of our colonies, which we hope will take place now, from the eaſt, weſt, north and ſouth of the whole continent to the Miſſiſſippi, we ſhall be able to ſecure the laſting friendſhip of the Indians, and for evermore defeat the machinations of enemies to annoy us; which we, perhaps, ſhould never have been able to have done, had not the laſt definitive treaty taken place. See our article MISSISSIPPI, AMERICA, BRITISH AMERICA, FRENCH AMERICA.

INDIAN ISLANDS. Although we have been obliged to take notice already of theſe iſlands, as particularly under the DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, &c. and under the diſtinct head of JAVA, in order to ſhew more fully the nature of the Dutch commerce in Aſia; yet having occaſion to refer to theſe iſlands, as conſidered united, we have judged proper to give a ſummary view of their commerce all together. And firſt,

Of CEYLON ISLAND, which is about 62 leagues from Cape Comorin, is nearly 300 miles in circumference.

The air is temperate, and the ſoil fruitful. It ſupplies Coromandel with rice, has all the fruits of the Indies, and produces grapes all the year, except in the three rainy months of the winter; has plenty of ginger, pepper, cardamum, ſugar-cane, mulberry-trees, palm, calabaſſes, cotton, and arch-trees, &c. but it's moſt valuable produce, and ſtaple-commodity, for which the Dutch have been ſo careful to exclude all other Europeans, is a particular ſort of CINNAMON, that grows here and no where elſe. Here are mines of gold, ſilver, and other metals; but it does not appear that they work any except thoſe of iron, of which they have great plenty, and make pretty good ſteel. Beſides the Dutch, who poſſeſs the coaſt, at leaſt all the havens of this iſland, there are great numbers of Moors, Portugueze, and Malabars, but are tributary to the Dutch.

The natives ſell for exportation cardamum, jaggory, oil, black-lead, turmeric, ſalt, rice, betel-nuts, muſk, wax, pepper, black coral, and amber. The commodities they import are velvets, ſilks, red caps, porcelane, ſpices, opium, China-roots, camphire, ſandal-wood, lead, copper, tin, gilt looking-glaſſes, glaſs-bottles, and printed callicoes. They make braſs, copper, and earthen veſſels, ſwords, knives, and other manufactures of iron and ſteel, in which they work very well, as they do alſo in goldſmiths wares, painting and carving; but moſt of the people are employed in huſbandry.

The coaſts, generally poſſeſſed by the Dutch, being moſt known, we ſhall take notice of the moſt remarkable places round it.

MANAAR,

MANAAR, is a fruitful iſland, ſeven miles in compaſs. The Dutch took it from the Portugueze in 1658.

COLUMBO, is the capital of the Dutch ſettlements in the iſle of Ceylon, and which they took alſo from the Portugueze in 1656. The town being too large to be defended with a few forces, the Dutch have contracted it to a fourth of it's ancient bounds, and have ſtrongly fortified it.

The Dutch have a fort alſo at Galture, 8 leagues from Columbo.

POINT DE GALLE, is a fort and harbour on the ſouth-weſt point of the iſland, 20 leagues from Columbo. The Dutch company have 15,000 crowns a year from the juriſdiction of this town.

JAFFNAPATAM, is a town in the north part of Ceylon, taken by the Dutch from the Portugueze by capitulation in 1658, after they had kept it forty years. It exports great quantities of tobacco, and ſome elephants; and, when the Dutch took it, they diſcharged the duties on tobacco, to encourage the country to ſettle in it.

Here are two markets, one for fiſh, the other for ſilks, linen, pearls, gold, ſilver, ſpices, ſalt, butter, allum, tobacco, herbs, &c.

The MALDIVE ISLANDS, lie 200 leagues in length, and are ſaid to be above 1000 in number, each of a circular form, and about 80 leagues in circumference. They are generally flat low land, ſo that ſome of them are overflowed at high water: they are ſaid to produce cacaos, and all the uſual Indian fruits, and now and then ſome ambergreaſe. There are only four channels betwixt theſe iſlands navigable by large ſhips, and thoſe not without danger, unleſs they have natives for their pilots. The inhabitants are ingenious in manufactures, eſpecially of ſilk and cotton.

Above a hundred ſhip-loads of cacao are exported hence in a year. The natives make oil, cordage and ſails. Their other manufactures are fine reed mats, and cloths of cotton and ſilk. The goods imported hither, are ſome cotton and ſilk, iron, ſteel, ſpices, China ware, rice, &c. all which are engroſſed by the king, who ſells them to his ſubjects at his own price, for what he wants.

The iſland of SUMATRA, is about 480 leagues in compaſs, and conſequently one of the greateſt iſlands in the world. 'Tis the firſt of the noted iſlands, which form the great Archipelago of the eaſt; the entrance whereof is, as it were, blocked up by this and the iſle of Java, the opening between which two iſlands is called the Streight of Sunda, and is about ſix leagues over. Through this ſtreight paſs the European ſhips bound to Batavia or China, without touching in the Indies, ſtretching away at once eaſt from the Cape of Good Hope, and making no land, till, having traverſed the whole Indian Ocean, they make the point called Java-Head.

The air of Sumatra is reckoned very unwholeſome. Yet 'tis very populous, eſpecially in the north parts, where they have all neceſſaries.

Gold they have in good quantities out of the rivers and mountains in the north part of the iſland, and the trade of Achem depends on that valuable commodity; which brings them ſupplies of ſhips and merchandize from all parts of Aſia, and ſome from Europe. There are alſo mines of ſilver, tin, iron, braſs, copper, &c. and ſulphur. It has no wheat or rye, but vaſt quantities of barley, honey, wax, ſugar, ginger, pepper, with which they load many veſſels every year; and ſend their pepper and gold in exchange for rice and opium, which is ſent them from Bengal and other parts.

ACHEM, the capital, is a large populous city, on the north-weſt point of the iſland. The harbour is good and capacious. 'Tis a very conſiderable port, for the great quantities of goods ſent yearly to it from all parts of India, for which returns are chiefly made in gold duſt. The commodities imported, are opium, ſaltpetre, rice, gee, i. e. buffaloes butter turned to oil; all ſorts of cotton and ſilk manufactures from Bengal; tobacco, onions, callico and muſlin, eſpecially brown and blue long cloths and ſallampores, with ſeveral ſorts of chints for clothes, and ſometimes gunpowder from Madraſs. The Moors employ two large ſhips a year, to fetch the product of Cambaya from Surat, whoſe merchants buy up elephants teeth here. The Chineſe alſo glut the markets with their commodities, and the Malayans here trade with large prows to Pegu, Quedah, Jehore, and all their own coaſts; from whence they are ſupplied with ivory, bees-wax, mortivan, and ſmall jars; as alſo with pepper, which grows, indeed, in this iſland, but not in this part of it.

BENCOOLEN, is an Engliſh colony and factory for pepper, but the European inhabitants are not very numerous.

The iſland of JAVA lies ſouth-eaſt of Sumatra, and is computed to be about 300 leagues in compaſs. It has abundance of commodious creeks, bays, harbours, and good towns, on the north coaſt, with many ſmall iſlands near the ſhore. The air is ſaid to be not very hot, and, about Batavia eſpecially, it is temperate and healthy. Great part of the iſland is ſtill unknown, for it does not appear that the Dutch have any towns or forts above 20 miles from the coaſt; but the north part, betwixt Bantam and Batavia, is populous; and, beſides the Indian fruits and rice (the only corn that grows here) produces pulſe, and all ſorts of European garden-ſtuff, with ſome tobacco, ſalt, and pepper, bees-wax and benzoin, and has mines of gold, ſilver, copper, and iron, and ſome diamonds, rubies, &c.

The Javans on the coaſt drive a conſiderable trade from port to port, and from one iſland to another; particularly to Borneo, exchanging goods in one place, for ſuch as they know they can ſell in another. But they are ſuch a theiving, cheating, murdering race, that nobody cares to deal with them, but in public, and in company with others.

The trade here being wholly in the hands of the Dutch, and indeed ſo much of the iſland itſelf as they require, they have the benefit of the product, &c. as much as if the natives were their ſubjects: for they not only ſubmit to trade with them, but come freely with their commodities, eſpecially pepper, to Batavia, where the Dutch buy it ready cured, ſo that they are at no trouble to make it marketable. The Dutch have planted ſo many ſugar-canes, eſpecially about Batavia, that, beſides ſupplying that large and populous colony, and their factories in the Spice Iſlands, &c. we ſee large entries of ſugar in Holland, by all their fleets from Batavia. Coffee is another addition they have made to the produce of Java, the quality of which is ſaid to improve as the quantity increaſes; ſo that, though it be not altogether ſo good as that of Mocha, they ſend conſiderable quantities of it every year to Europe. As for their rice, they ſell it to the Chineſe and Malayan merchants, who export it. They have alſo a very great trade among themſelves in the conſumption of European goods, whereof they bring much more to the Indies than the Engliſh; it being computed, that, ſince the vaſt conflux of ſtrangers to Batavia, the Dutch have not leſs than half a million of people under their government, here and in the Spice Iſlands. They have naval ſtores, partly the product and manufacture of this iſland, and partly imported; as copper from China and Japan, iron from Pegu, damer, or pitch from Malacca, &c. They have timber of their own ſufficient for building, particularly good oak, and a red wood like cedar, beſides cacaos and bamboos.

BANTAM, is the firſt place of commerce at the weſt end of Java, and was the metropolis of a great kingdom till the Dutch deſtroyed it, and depoſed the king. The Engliſh and Danes had flouriſhing factories here, till diſpoſſeſſed by the Dutch. It is now become a poor ruinous place, without trade or gentry, which are both engroſſed by

BATAVIA, the glory of this iſland, and of all the European ſettlements in the Indies. A city which is the center of all the ſtrength and commerce of the Dutch in this part of the world, and the ſeat of their governor-general and council of the Indies, where they are ſo powerful, and have ſo many ſubjects and dominions dependent on them, that ſome think it a wonder they do not ſupplant or drive all the European factories out of the country.

This city being the great magazine of the Dutch Eaſt-India company, they import hither not only what Europe affords, but the merchandize of Japan, the Spice Iſlands, Perſia, Surat, Bengal, the coaſts of Malabar and Coromandel, &c. Though they ſuffer no Europeans to trade hither, yet 15 or 20 ſail of Chineſe junks come hither every November or December, from 3 to 500 tons each, and return the beginning of June; by which means the Dutch are furniſhed with the goods much cheaper, than if they ſent their fleets thither.

The other Dutch forts and factories on the north ſide of this iſland, which is both pleaſant and fruitful all the way along ſhore, are Cheriboa, Toagal, Samarang, Japara, where was once an Engliſh factory, Tampeira, and Rambang.

The iſland of MADURA, oppoſite to the eaſtermoſt point of Java, produces nothing for a foreign market but deer-ſkins, which are very cheap.

BORNEO, is a pretty round iſland, the laſt of thoſe called the Sunda Iſlands, and is in compaſs about 250 leagues. It produces many ſorts of fruits in great plenty, excellent maſtic, and other gums, wax, rice, caſſia, honey, cotton, the beſt camphire in the world, frankincenſe, muſk, aloes, agaric, braſil wood, ſapan, pepper, cinnamon, and other ſpice; excellent diamonds are found in the rivers, and gold duſt in their ſands, and the richeſt bezoar ſtones in the ſtomach of the wild ape. Here are alſo mines of iron, tin, and very good load-ſtone.

The towns and factories here, are built for the moſt part on floats of timber in their rivers, forming one long ſtreet, and faſtened to trees near the ſhore, by cables made of rattans.

The trading nations here beſides the Dutch, are the Chineſe, Malayans, Japoneſe, Siameſe, Macaſſars, Javans, and ſome from Mogul, Portugal, and England, who all have their different views in trade. The Chineſe and Japoneſe buy ſpices, the Malayans gold, and ſo of others. There are pepper, cloves, and cinnamon, ſold at Bendermaſſin, without interruption from the Dutch, becauſe they reckon them inferior to the product of their Spice Iſlands. The Dutch ſupply the natives with the manufactures of India and of Europe, particularly cloth of cotton and flax, for which trifles they receive in return diamonds, gold, and other the moſt valuable goods of the place. The chief articles our merchants import hence, are pepper, gold, and precious ſtones. The goods proper for exportation to it are, beſides dollars, ſmall

cannon,

cannon, blunderbuſſes, ſmall arms with braſs mountings, gunpowder, ſheet lead, hangers, and knives, and other cutler's wares, iron and ſteel bars, nails, red leather boots, ſpectacles, &c. The purchaſing of gold here, which is giving a certain number of ſilver dollars for the weight of one dollar in gold, turns to the beſt account next to pepper; and diamonds may be bought to advantage, though there's ſeldom any to be had at Banjar of above three carats. Some think the trade to Borneo might, with good management, be rendered as beneficial to the Engliſh as any, becauſe here they meet the China ſhips, and might be ſupplied here with China goods very near as cheap, and perhaps at a better hand than in the country itſelf, all circumſtances conſidered. Beſides, about Michaelmas, the Macaſſar prows come hither, which, in ſpite of the Dutch, will bring cloves, nutmegs, mace, gamboge, lignum aloes, caſſia, and other rich merchandize. The dragon's-blood, produced here, is reckoned the fineſt in the world; the beſt is ſold at about forty dollars the pecul, which is 132lb. Jambec canes are ſold for about four dollars a hundred, and their fine monkey bezoar for about five times the weight in ſilver. The beſt are of a greeniſh colour, and are from a pennyweight to an ounce; but, if larger, they are thought to be goat bezoar. The pepper is commonly ſold at the rate of 4 or 5 dollars the pecul. There are three ſorts of black pepper here: 1. The Molucca, or Lout pepper, which is the beſt. 2. The Caytongee pepper, which is a middling ſort. 3. Negaree pepper, of which they have the greateſt quantity. This is a ſmall, hollow, light pepper, and uſually very full of duſt. The white pepper, brought from this country, is twice as clear as the black, though ſaid to be the produce of the ſame tree, and to acquire that colour by dropping from it, and lying for ſome time on the ground, from whence 'tis gathered by the poor people, and carried to the merchants: 'tis ſo much dearer, not only becauſe there's ſo little of it to be had, but becauſe 'tis really the beſt fruit, having the fire taken out by lying on the ground.

They have no coin but dollars, half dollars, and quarter dollars, except their caſh, which are rings of baſe metal ſtrung, that ſerve for ſmall matters. The Benjareens will ſcarce take any dollars under 17 pennyweights 9 grains.

On the ſouth ſide of Borneo, lies an iſland called PULLO-LOUT, about 20 leagues in length, and 12 where broadeſt; it has an excellent harbour, but is not very populous, and produces nothing but rice. The north end lies near many rivers, that come out of the pepper country.

We enter Borneo on this ſide more to the weſt by the river Benjar, towards the ſource of which grows the greateſt quantity of pepper: twelve miles up this river was formerly an Engliſh factory, called Benjar-maſſem, as alſo another at a place called Succadaana, but they have quitted both. There are found ſmall diamonds hereabouts, but, their water being of a yellowiſh caſt, they are not ſo much eſteemed as thoſe of Golconda [ſee DIAMONDS.] The fineſt in this country are found at the port of Landa, in the ſouth part, and therefore is frequented by lapidaries and jewellers of ſeveral nations, as Golconda is, and who often get a prize, which they endeavour to conceal and make off with.

Borneo city ſtands among fens, near a great ſalt-water lake, at the north-weſt corner of the iſland, and is ſituate upon ſmall iſles like Venice. There is a ſafe deep harbour on the eaſt ſide of it, at the mouth of a great river, capable of the biggeſt ſhips. It is the chief mart or ſeat of commerce for the iſland, and ſometimes the port is thronged with ſhips and ſloops of all ſorts, from China, Cambodia, Siam, and Malacca, and boats of ſundry kinds from the Philippine, and other iſlands; ſo that here are Dutch, Spaniards, Portugueze, and Engliſh, all at a time loading and unloading. The Dutch import hither glaſs, cinnabar, cloths, woollen ſtuffs, and iron, which is much valued here, beſides other European and Indian goods, and have camphire, gold, diamonds, and pepper, in exchange. The Portugueze and Engliſh alſo have ſome trade here, though no ſettled factory; but there are merchants of both nations who correſpond with the companies factors on the coaſt of Coromandel and elſewhere, and have ſometimes ſhips running between.

The iſland of CELEBES is a large populous country, divided by the ſtreights of Macaſſar from Borneo, 30 leagues to the weſt, as it is by the ocean from the Molucca Iſlands on the eaſt, and the Philippines on the north.

The air is hot and moiſt, and ſubject to great rains during the north-weſt winds, that blow from November to March, when the coaſt is very unſafe, and the country overflowed.

The chief vegetables of this, and indeed all the eaſtern iſlands, are rice and cacaos, but they have ebony, Calambac ſanders, and other dyeing woods. They have pepper, ſugar, betel, and arac, the fineſt cotton and opium, and very delicious fruits.

The only towns of any note here, are, 1. JAMPANDAM, where is as commodious a harbour as any in the Indian ſea. This was the firſt place of conſequence taken here by the Dutch, who have a fort here, whence they expelled the Portugueze.

MACASSAR, is a city near the ſouth-weſt corner of the iſland, where the Dutch have a fort alſo, mounted with 70 guns, and garriſoned by 700 men, to awe the king of the country, and have made it a place of good trade.

The MOLUCCAS, are a cluſter of iſlands, betwixt Celebes on the weſt, and New Guinea on the eaſt. They are called alſo the Spice Iſlands, from the ſpices they abound with, and which grow no where elſe in the known world. The Banda Iſlands alone produce nutmegs: and Ternate, Tidor, Amboyna, Ceram, and a few other ſmall iſlands, furniſh the whole world with cloves; which they produce in ſuch abundance, that great quantities drop from the trees ungathered, and are ſuffered to rot on the ground; and, of nutmegs, millions are often deſtroyed on the ſpot by the Dutch, who are the engroſſers of theſe commodities, to prevent the markets being overſtocked, and to keep up the price of them.

BANDA, the principal and largeſt of the Nutmeg Iſlands, is a ſmall iſland, not above 20 miles long and 10 broad, but is exceeding fertile, yielding oranges, and other fruits, beſides whole foreſts of nutmeg-trees and cloves, without cultivation. The commodities chiefly imported here are rice, cloths of Coromandel, Cambaya, and Malacca; broad cloth, flannel, damaſks, taffaties, velvets, gold chains, and coins, ſilver cups gilt, China boxes, baſons, head-pieces, guns, and damaſked ſword-blades.

There are 5 or 6 other very ſmall iſlands, which produce nutmegs, and lie all round about Banda, at a few leagues diſtance, all which the Dutch have in ſubjection. They lie 30 leagues ſouth-eaſt of Amboyna.

TERNATE, TIDORE, MOTIR, MACHIAM, and BACHIAN Iſlands, are of as much note for the clove-trade, as the Banda Iſlands are for the nutmeg.

TERNATE, the chief, though not the biggeſt of them, is not above 8 leagues in extent, and affords but little proviſions, except goats and ſome poultry: but it's chief product is the clove-tree, which grows ſpontaneous, and bears fruit the eighth year to ſo great increaſe, that the Dutch have cut down whole woods of them.

Though theſe only be the real or proper Molucca Iſlands, and produce both cloves and nutmegs in the greateſt quantities, there are ſome others, the largeſt and moſt noted of which are,

1. BOURO, about 50 leagues in compaſs. The blacks, belonging to the Dutch company, have fine plantations here. The product is cacaos and other Indian fruits, rice, millet, barley, beans, pot-herbs, and tobacco.

2. AMBOYNA, 25 leagues weſt, 6 north from Banda, is about 24 leagues in circumference, producing nutmegs, cloves, oranges, lemons, citrons, ſugar-canes, cacao, potatoes, millet, tobacco, bamboes, &c. The chief town has to the weſt of it a very fair bay, where is good anchorage and ſhelter for ſhips. This bay enters deep, ſo as almoſt to divide the country in two. The caſtle or fort of Victory, built by the Dutch, and made the ſtaple of the company, ſtands about 2 leagues up in the bay eaſt from the harbour, and is defended by 4 bulwarks, and a conſiderable garriſon. This caſtle was the ſcene of the maſſacre of the Engliſh factory by the Dutch in 1623. The Dutch have ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which are reckoned their beſt ſettlements in the Eaſt-Indies next to Batavia.

CERAM ISLAND, a little to the north of Amboyna, bears both cloves and nutmegs. The Dutch factory here is called Ambay.

The PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, are computed at 1200 in number, of which 5 or 600 are pretty conſiderable.

The Spaniards made their firſt ſettlement in them in the reign of Philip II. in honour of whom they are ſo called.

The air is very hot, with little difference of ſeaſons. Their chief product is gold, rice, the uſual Indian fruits, beaſts, fowl, fiſh, and inſects, with good large nutmegs, which they don't cultivate however, leſt it ſhould tempt the Dutch to attack them. They neither allow the Engliſh nor Dutch to trade here, leſt they ſhould diſcover their riches and weakneſs.

Their chief iſlands are, 1. MINDANAO. It has many deep bays, affording good harbours for ſhipping.

It's chief trade is with the iſland Manilla, but partly with Borneo. The Dutch come hither in ſloops from Ternate and Tidor, for rice, bees-wax, and tobacco, which laſt grows plentifully here, and is of an excellent ſort.

Several other iſlands lie about this, with good harbours.

BOHOL, about 40 leagues in compaſs, lies north of Mindanao. The ſoil yields cacaos, and divers roots, much cattle and fiſh, and is rich in gold mines.

LAYTE, is above 90 leagues in compaſs. It's plains are very fruitful, and yield plentiful crops of rice, grain, cacao trees, and good timber for ſhipping. The commodities for trade are, rice, bees-wax, and cotton quilts.

XOLO is an iſland where all the ſhips of Borneo touch, and may be called the mart of all the Mooriſh kingdoms in the eaſt. It abounds with rice, and the ſea throws abundance of ambergreaſe on it's ſhore, and yields pearl as well as amber.

But the biggeſt and richeſt of all the Philippine Iſlands, is LUCONIA, which the Portugueze call MANILLA from it's chief town, and the Spaniards NEW CASTILLE. It is a plentiful

plentiful iſland, and able to furniſh good materials for carrying on a conſiderable commerce, only the Spaniſh inhabitants are ſo rich, lazy, and proud, that they rather diſcourage than improve it.

MANILA, or MANILLA, the chief city, is the ſeat of the Spaniſh viceroy. The Chineſe, who inhabit the ſuburbs, are the only mechanics among them, the Spaniards and Indians ſeldom applying to any buſineſs, unleſs compelled by neceſſity.

This iſland has the liberty of ſending two ſhips every year to New Spain, but, being limited to that number, they build them very large. Theſe carry the ſpices and rich commodities of India to Acapulco, a port in the South Sea, in the kingdom of Mexico, and bring back the valuable commodities of America and Europe, by which trade the gain is ſaid to be 400 per cent.

The harbour of Manilla is ſpacious, ſafe, and commodious; and they admit of trade to it from India and China, but not with any European nation. See our article ACAPULCO.

The tobacco of this iſland is very pleaſant to ſmoke. The people ſell it all over India at a great price, while that of Mindanao, which is really as good, if it were as well managed, is ſold ſo cheap, that a rial will purchaſe 10 or 12 pounds of it.

The Spaniards build very good ſhips here, at leaſt the Portugueze do for them, with which they trade to China, Siam, Sumatra, and all parts of the country round; beſides the junks which are built for the Chineſe traders, who employ abundance of ſhips of all ſhapes and ſizes.

The LADRONES ISLANDS belong alſo to Spain, and were diſcovered in 1565. They are about 20 in number.

The ſoil of GUAM, or GUANA, the chief of them, yields pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, &c. They have excellent pork, their hogs being fed with cacao-nuts, of which here are large groves.

The Acapulco ſhip which touches here, both outward and homeward bound, ſeldom carries leſs than 1100 people from Old Spain (beſides her crew of 400) whom ſhe leaves at the Philippine Iſlands, to recruit the Spaniſh plantations there: ſhe has no leſs than ſeven decks, and carries the cargo of ſeven ſhips from Manilla to Acapulco, and in return brings abundance of ſilver from the Philippine Iſlands.

The Spaniards have a ſmall fort at Guam.

INDICO, is a plant which grows about two feet high, with round leaves, of a green, inclining towards brown on the upper ſide of the leaf, and ſilver-coloured underneath, and pretty thick; after which come flowers, almoſt like thoſe of peaſe, of a reddiſh colour, from whence come long crooked pods, reſembling a ſickle, which incloſe a little ſeed in them, like radiſh-ſeed, of an olive colour.

Of the method of cultivating indico in America.

When the Americans ſow this plant, they firſt dreſs the ground, and afterwards make holes in it, about a foot diſtance one from another, and into each hole they throw ten or twelve of theſe ſeeds, which they cover lightly with earth, and in three or four days time, this little ſeed will be ſure to appear, eſpecially in a wet ſeaſon; and in two months, or ſix weeks ſometimes, this plant will be ready to cut and make indico, as the ſequel will ſhew; and, if it is left in the ground, in three months time it will yield both the flower and the ſeed: what they fear moſt, upon account of this plant, is a kind of caterpillar, which in St. Chriſtopher's they find ſometimes to breed in a night, and ruin all the promiſing hopes of the inhabitants: the way they have to remedy this is, immediately to cut down all the plant, and throw it into a vat, or tub, with the caterpillars and all, which alſo are of ſome ſervice. The other way to remedy this misfortune is, to clear a large place betwixt what they have eat, and what they have not touched: this havock is not ſeen in Martinico.

Indico is a fecula, or ſettling, made by means of water and oil-olive, out of the leaves of the anil, or indico plant: there is a difference between that made of the leaves only, and that which is made of the leaves and ſmall branches. The choiceſt of the former ſort, is that which bears the ſurname of Serquiſſe, from a village of that name, which is 24 leagues from Surat, and near Amadabat in the Eaſt-Indies. It is made likewiſe about Biana and Coffa near Agra, alſo in the kingdom of Golconda: the Dutch bring ſome of it from Brampour and Bengal, but that is the leaſt valuable of all.

When the inhabitants of the places above-named would make the feculæ of anil, in order to make indico of it, they cut the ſaid herb with a ſickle, when the leaves begin to fall upon touching them; and, after they have ſtripped them from the branches, they put them into a ſufficient quantity of water, which is in a veſſel called the ſteeping-vat, there letting them infuſe thirty or thirty-five hours; after which they turn the cock, in order to let the water run off, which is become of a green colour, inclining towards blue, into a veſſel of the nature of a churn, where it is worked by a negro, by means of a roller, or turner of wood, the ends of which are pointed and faced with iron: this they work till the water abounds with a lather, then they caſt into it a little oil-olive; to wit, one pound into ſuch a quantity of the liquor as will yield ſeventy pounds of indico, ſuch as is ſaleable; and, as ſoon as the ſaid oil is thrown in, the lather ſeparates into two parts, ſo that you may obſerve a quantity curdled, as milk is when ready to break; then they ceaſe working, and let it ſtand to ſettle; which, when it has done ſome time, they open the pipe or cock of the veſſel, in order to let the water clear off, that the fecula which is ſubſided may remain behind, at the bottom of the veſſel, like the lees of wine: then taking it out, they put it into ſtraining bags of cloth, to ſeparate what water was left; after which they convey it into cheſts or boxes that are ſhallow, to dry it; and, being dried, it is what we call indico; and that name is given to this, in all appearance, becauſe it comes from India. Sometimes the Indians make their indico in a ſort of ponds, in form of a baſon, which they prepare with lime, that becomes of an equal hardneſs almoſt to marble.

Chuſe the indico of Serquiſſe, in flat cakes, of a moderate thickneſs, neither too ſoft nor too hard, of a deep violet colour, light, and ſuch as ſwims on water, and, when broken, has no white ſpots in it; and laſtly, ſuch as is copperiſh or reddiſh, on being rubbed with one's nail, and has the leaſt duſt or broken pieces among it.

Of the adulteration of indico.

We have no ſort of commodity liable to more various ways of being ſophiſticated or counterfeited, than indico, when it bears a good price; which, if we ſhould attempt to relate, it would make a ſmall volume of itſelf; but we do not think it neceſſary, ſince it is eaſy to diſtinguiſh that which is good from the bad, from what has been ſaid in relation to the choice of it.

There is another ſort called cheſnut indico, or Agra indico, which is almoſt as good as the Serquiſſe; but, as the form does not recommend it to all the world, it is only in uſe with the dyers. There come to us, beſides this, ſeveral other ſorts of indico, which have no other difference, than what ariſes from the places where they are made, and the different ſeaſons and age of the herb from which they are made; for the indico made of the plant of the firſt gathering, is better than that of the ſecond, and the ſecond better than the third; the younger the leaf is which is uſed, the finer the indico is, being of a more lively, ſhining, violet colour.

Of the uſe of indico.

The uſe of the indico is for the dyers and laundreſſes, ſerving the laſt to put among their linen. The painters uſe it to grind with white, for painting in blue; for, if it is uſed alone and neat, it turns black; ground with yellow, it makes a green. Some confectioners and apothecaries very prepoſterouſly employ this to colour ſugars to make conſerves with, and ſyrup of violets, by adding ſome orrice.

Of the other ſort thereof.

This indico is alſo the feculæ, made from the anil, which differs not from the former, but as it is made of the whole plant, ſtalk and leaf; the beſt of which kind is that which bears the name of Guatimala, which comes from the Weſt-Indies. It ought to be light, moderately hard, reddiſh upon one's nail, ſuch as will ſwim upon water; and, in ſhort, to come as near the other kind as may be. The ſureſt proof of it's goodneſs is, it's burning upon the fire like wax, and leaving only a little aſhes behind.

The ſecond ſort of this indico is that of St. Domingo, which differs not from the Guatimala, only that it is not of ſo lively a colour. The third is the Jamaica indico, that is brought to England. The fourth is that of the Leeward Iſles; all the ſorts are better or worſe, according as they are more or leſs neat and pure; for thoſe who make this, mix it ſometimes with ſand or dirt; but the cheat is eaſy to diſcover, in that the indico, which is fine and neat, will burn like wax; and, when this is burnt, the earth or ſand will be left behind.

Monſ. Tavernier obſerves in his book, page 242, that the indico-duſt is ſo ſubtle and ſo penetrating, that thoſe who ſift it are obliged to have their face covered, and drink whey very often: and to confirm this, and make good the penetration of the indico-powder, he ſays, having put ſeveral times an egg in the morning, near the ſifters of indico, and at night breaking it, the inſide has been all ſtained through with a blue colour. This is uſed only by the dyers.

The laws of England, in order to encourage the growth and manufacture of indico in the Britiſh plantations.

From and after the 25th of March 1749, all perſons who ſhall import into this kingdom, directly from any of the Britiſh colonies in America, in veſſels that may legally trade, and are manned as by law required, any good and merchantable indico, free from any falſe mixtures, and fit for dyers uſe; being the product of the colony from whence the ſame is imported, ſhall be intitled to ſix-pence for every pound thereof, to be paid out of the cuſtoms, upon demand, by the collector

lector of the port where the ſame ſhall be imported; and, for want of ſufficient money in his hands, he ſhall certify the ſame to the commmiſſioners of the cuſtoms, who ſhall cauſe the bounty of the indico imported into England, to be paid by the receiver-general of the cuſtoms in England; and of that imported into Scotland by the receiver-general there.

If any perſon ſhall make entry of foreign made indico, under the name of Britiſh plantation made, or ſhall mix any foreign indico, or other falſe mixture with that made in the Britiſh plantations, in order to claim the premium, he ſhall forfeit all ſuch indico, and, in caſe of ſuch mixture, the quantity ſo mixed, both foreign and Britiſh plantation made, and double the value thereof, ſhall be forfeited by the perſon making ſuch mixture.

An ACT concerning INDICO, anno tertio Georgii III. regis.

An act to continue and amend two acts made in the twenty-firſt and twenty-eighth years of his late majeſty's reign, for encouraging the making of INDICO in the Britiſh plantations in America; and for extending the proviſions of an act of the thirteenth year of his late majeſty's reign, with reſpect to bringing prize goods into this kingdom, to Spaniſh prize goods taken ſince the late declaration of war with Spain.

Whereas the law for encouraging the making of indico in the Britiſh plantations in America, has been found to be very uſeful and beneficial to the public, and ſo near expiring, that it is fit it ſhould be continued; be it therefore enacted, by the king's moſt excellent majeſty, by and with the advice and conſent of the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, and by the authority of the ſame, That an act made in the twenty-firſt year of the reign of his late majeſty king George the Second, intituled, An act for encouraging the making of indico in the Britiſh plantations in America, which was to continue in force for ſeven years, from the twenty-fifth day of March, one thouſand ſeven hundred and forty-nine, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament; and which, by another act of the twenty-eighth year of his ſaid late majeſty's reign, is further continued, from the twenty-fifth day of March, one thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-ſix, until the twenty-fifth day of March one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſixty-three, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament; ſhall be, and the ſame is hereby further continued, from the expiration thereof, until the twenty-fifth day of March, one thouſand ſeven hundred and ſeventy, and from thence to the end of the then next ſeſſion of parliament.

Provided always, and be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That from and after the time limited by the ſaid act, of the twenty-eighth year of his late majeſty's reign, no more than four-pence on the pound weight ſhall be paid and allowed as a bounty on indico imported from his majeſty's colonies, under the regulations and reſtrictions mentioned in the ſaid act of the twenty firſt year of the reign of king George the Second; and that no part of the ſaid bounty of four-pence on the pound weight ſhall be repaid upon the exportation of ſuch indico.

Provided alſo, and be it enacted, That in caſe any doubt or diſpute ſhall ariſe between the ſurveyors or officers of the cuſtoms, and the owners or importers of indico imported into any of the out-ports of Great-Britain, as to the quality of the ſame, it ſhall and may be lawful for the collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms in any ſuch out port, to call two or more dyers, dry ſalters, brokers, or others, well ſkilled in that commodity, who ſhall declare upon oath, if required, their opinion as to the quality of the ſame; and, according to the beſt of their judgment, determine whether the ſaid indico is or is not intitled to the premium granted by the above recited act.

Provided nevertheleſs, That if a competent number of perſons, well ſkilled in that commodity, to be approved of by the collector of the cuſtoms in any out-port where indico is imported, cannot be found in ſuch out-port, then, and in ſuch caſe only, where any doubt or diſpute ſhall ariſe as aforeſaid, ſamples of ſuch indico, if imported into any out-port in England, ſhall be taken and ſent to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms of London: and if imported into any out-port at Scotland, to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms at Edinburgh, in ſuch manner as the reſpective commiſſioners ſhall direct, in order to be inſpected and adjudged by ſuch perſons, and in ſuch manner as are preſcribed by law for indico imported into the port of London.

And be it enacted by the authority aforeſaid, That all the proviſions of an act paſſed in the thirteenth year of his late majeſty's reign, intituled, An act for the relief and encouragement of the captors of prizes, with reſpect to the bringing and landing prize goods in this kingdom, be extended to Spaniſh prize goods taken ſince the late declaration of war with Spain.

INDOSTAN, or the EMPIRE of the GREAT MOGUL.

It's bounds are Tartary on the north, the peninſula of India within Ganges, and the bay of Bengal on the ſouth, India beyond Ganges on the eaſt, and Perſia on the weſt. The greateſt breadth eaſt and weſt, from the frontier of Perſia to the kingdom of Ava, is 1400 miles; but 'tis much contracted towards the ſouth, and much indented by Tartary towards the ſouth-weſt. Excepting ſome Indian ſovereigns on the Malabar coaſt, and others in the heart of India, the Mogul may be ſaid to be maſter of all the open country as far as it's ſouthern extremity Cape Comoiſi; but, as ſcarce any geographers have extended his dominions farther ſouth than latitude 20, we ſhall conform to the tables of the Sanſons and Luyts, and reſtrain Indoſtan to it's forty kingdoms.

The tropic of Cancer runs through the middle of it. The longeſt day in the north is about 14 hours and $\frac{1}{4}$, and in the ſouth about 12 $\frac{1}{2}$; the ſouth part lies within the torrid zone, and is generally very hot, but, in the hotteſt part of the year, the rains refreſh the earth and cool the air. The beſt account of the winds which blow in thoſe ſeas, as well the conſtant trade winds as the monſoons, has been publiſhed by Dr. Halley, to whom we refer the curious.

The rains keep the earth in ſo due a temperament, that vegetables ſpring with incredible ſpeed. Rice, being the corn of moſt general uſe, is the chief grain cultivated; they have wheat alſo, which is finer than any in Europe; eſpecially in Bengal, [ſee BENGAL] and in the north part of this country. In this part alſo, are variety of the European fruits.—Their chief Aſiatic fruits are dates, figs, prunelloes, pomegranates, plantains, tamarinds, guavas, jaccas, ananas, brindoins, jambos, cayans, mirabolans, mangoes, almonds, cacaos, limes, oranges, and lemons; and the pepper-plant, ſugar-canes, indico, cotton, the arac and betel-trees, melons, cardamums, ſaffron, turmeric, opium, ginger.—The ſoil in general is fat and rich, yet light: it alſo produces all the beautiful flowers that can be expected in the climate: and, as for it's ſundry barren mountains, theſe produce jaſper, agate, granates, chryſolites, amethyſts, rubies, and diamonds.

Of the cotton-ſhrub, whereof they make their callicoes, muſlins, ginghams, &c. they plant large fields with the ſeed, which grows up as high as a roſe-buſh. See COTTON. The valuable plant of indico, alſo, is a ſhrub that grows here to the ſize of a gooſeberry-buſh. See INDICO. Abundance of theſe ſhrubs are planted about Amadabat and Agra, but the beſt ſort comes from Biana near Agra. They have great quantities of fine woods and groves, which afford timber for building, either houſes or ſhipping, and good quantities of red-wood for dyeing; but their moſt remarkable trees are the banyan, palm, and toddy-trees. As for their mulberry-trees and their ſilk-worms, they are as fine as in any part of the world.

Here is plenty both of wild and tame beaſts. They have oxen, camels, dromedaries, aſſes, mules, but their oxen are the moſt ſerviceable, either for draught or carriage. 'Tis common to meet a caravan [ſee the article CARAVAN] of 8 or 10,000 of them, employed in the carrying ſalt, rice, and other grain. Their drivers have no other employment, nor any fixed abode, ſo that they carry their families with them. There is a captain of every caravan, who carries a ſtring of pearl about his neck, and affects the ſtate of a prince.—Theſe carriers are divided into four tribes, of about 100,000 ſouls each, and live always in tents. The firſt carries only corn, the ſecond rice, the third peaſe and beans, and the fourth ſalt, and are diſtinguiſhed by certain marks made in the foreheads of every tribe.

The fleſh of the Indian hogs is reckoned the beſt butcher's meat in this country, of which there is great plenty; theſe, together with the antelopes, not being the property of any particular perſon, all are at liberty to hunt and kill them; ſo that, though the people have no lands which they can call their own, yet the privileges they enjoy are almoſt an equivalent, the lion being the only beaſt of the foreſt, the hunting of which the Mogul reſerves to himſelf.

Towards Perſia and Tartary they have fine large ſheep, whereas thoſe in the ſouth are thin and long-ſhanked, with red hair on their backs inſtead of wool, and their fleſh is lean and dry. They have great variety of tame and wild fowl, as well as plenty of poultry, whoſe fleſh is generally lean and dry.

They have great plenty of excellent fiſh in their rivers and ſeas, both ſcale and ſhell fiſh; and of the latter there are as good at Fort St. George as we have in England.

Beſides cotton, which is the prime and ſtaple commodity of this country, it yields alſo for exportation indico, ſugar, opium, aſſa fœtida, cardamums, aloes, borax, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, allum, lacque, and other gums; caſſia, camphor, ſandal-wood; and beſides diamonds and other precious ſtones, as the bezoar, the ſerpentine ſtone, as alſo civet, ginger, Malabar pepper, and a great variety of drugs.

The manufactures which are therewith exported to Europe, are callicoes and muſlins of all the fineſt ſorts and ſtains; raw and wrought ſilks of many kinds; cabinets, eſcrutores, and other curious wood works, very finely lacquered; the fineſt canes, of which many are moſt curiouſly caſed with tortoiſe-ſhell, and abundance of other toys.

The merchandizes brought hitherto from Europe, are Engliſh cloth and ſtuffs, of which our merchants ſend ſeveral bales up to the great Mogul's court, to Agra, Laker, and other places;

places; likewiſe lead, looking-glaſſes, ſword-blades, knives, haberdaſhery wares, gold and ſilver lace, tin-wares, wine, brandy, beer, and ſome other proviſions, taken off chiefly by our own factories.

Upon the whole, it has been ſaid, that there are not greater merchants in the world than the Mogul's ſubjects: for though their ſhipping never paſſes the Cape of Good Hope, they drive a very great trade to Perſia and Turkey, with all the rich merchandizes of India: in return for which, they bring back carpets, pearl, and other Perſian commodities, but chiefly treaſure, which they often put on board Engliſh and Dutch veſſels. And the freight hereof is obſerved by Mr. Lockyer to be one great branch of our Eaſt-India company's profit, and is all clear gain to this nation; for a ſhip ſeldom comes to Surat from Perſia, but ſhe is as deeply loaded as ſhe can ſwim with paſſengers, and vaſt quantities of pearl and treaſure on board, to the amount ſometimes of 2 or 3,000,000 l. ſterling.

The Mogul's ſubjects, indeed, have ſhips of their own of 4 or 500 tons burden, built after the Engliſh model; but they judge it ſafer to make uſe of the European ſhips and commanders againſt the dangers of the pirates, with which thoſe ſeas are often infeſted, their own natives being but very indifferent ſoldiers or ſailors. There is not a man of war, or any ſhip of force belonging to the Mogul, in all India.

They build their merchant-ſhips with teak, a firm laſting timber; and, inſtead of caulking the ſeams, the planks are rabbeted, and let one into the other; which with oakham, and a ſort of pitch called dammer, brought from the Maldive Iſlands, make them very tight.

Their cables and other cordage, are made of the cacao-tree, and they have their anchors and guns from Europe: they have flat-bottomed veſſels, whoſe ſides are five or ſix feet high; the planks of which are very thin, and ſewed together with their cordage, ſo that they will yield like paſteboard, and are in no danger of ſplitting when they ſtrike, as they muſt do ſeveral times on many parts of their ſhores; for which reaſon, the Engliſh ſeldom attempt to ſend any thing aſhore in their own boats.

Of the chief provinces or kingdoms for trade.

KAKARES; the country in the general is barren, but has a good trade from Tartary and China.

SIBA, it's country is pretty fertile, and it enjoys a pretty good trade.

NAUGRACUT, or NAGRACAT, is a mountainous kingdom. The chief city of the ſame name, is a place of good trade for drugs, and other commodities brought from Tartary.

CASSIMERE, enjoys a clear healthy air, as temperate as any in Europe, and a ſoil well cultivated, abounding with all the conveniencies of life, and ſo far exceeding all the neighbouring ſun-burnt provinces, that Catrou ſays, 'tis ſtiled the paradiſe of India.

It is ſurrounded by mountains, riſing one above another, the lower covered with cattle, and all kind of game creatures, without any noxious animals; and the higher covered with ſnow, which, melting, forms the many rivulets that water the country, beſides ſeveral ſmall lakes, and render it ſo fruitful, that it looks like a large garden of ever-greens, cut through with canals, and abounding with all ſorts of pulſe, rice, corn, ſaffron, hemp, apricots, peaches, apples, pears, plums, vines, &c. and the ſame pot-herbs as the Europeans, but not ſo good, for want of ſkilful gardeners. The woods alſo abound with bees; ſo that it may be truly called a land flowing with milk and honey. The waters of it's pleaſant ſtreams join, and form the river Tehenas, which breaks through a mountain, and carries goods through the greateſt part of the kingdom, into the Indus, or Sinde, at Attock.

The people in this country make houſhold furniture, which they ſend over all the Indies, and they excel in the delicacy of their varniſh; but their chief trade is in the ſtuffs called chales, wherein they employ their children. Both ſexes wear them in winter, on their heads, and throw one end over their ſhoulders. They make one ſort of their own wool, which is finer than Spaniſh; and another of wild goats-hair, which they have from Tibet: they are finer and ſofter than caſtor, and more valued than the former, but muſt be often aired, to prevent their being worm-eaten.

Some of theſe coſt 150 roupies, but the others not above 50. They are about an ell and a half long, and an ell broad, and are embroidered about a foot at the ends. They are made in other parts of the Indies, but not ſo fine as here, which is aſcribed to their water.

The Caſſimere merchants, that go every year from one mountain to another, to gather wool, ſay, that, between thoſe mountains which are independent on this province, there are ſeveral vallies of good land, which pay annual tribute to the government in leather and wool, and abound with corn, rice, apricots, melons, and grapes that afford very good wine.

CABUL, or CABOULISTAN, a province abounding with plenty of proviſions, a good trade with Perſia, Tartary, China, and the Indies, buy 60,000 horſes annually of the Uſbec Tartars, which they ſend to the greateſt part of India, and deal much in drugs that grow in the mountains, where they have iron-mines and canes, which ſupply their manufacture for halberds and lances.

HACHACAN: the people of this province ſubſiſt chiefly by letting out camels, and conducting the caravans laden with merchandize. See the article CARAVANS.

MULTIN, a province that produces vaſt quantities of ſugar, of which they ſend a great deal to Tatty and Lahor; galls, opium, brimſtone, and ſome ſpices.

Their manufactures are good white cloths and napkins, cotton, thread, ſilk of Bengal, [ſee the article BENGAL] painted callicoes, which they ſell to Agra, Tatta, &c. with red ſtuffs and turbands. They vend alſo great numbers of camels into Perſia, and divers parts of the Indies.

It once had a great trade, when they ſend merchandizes at an eaſy rate to Tatta, by the Indus, as well as other rivers from the mountains of Caſſimere; but, ſince the mouth of the Indus has been ſtopped up with ſand, they ſend their goods by land-carriage to Agra, and thence to Surat, which has leſſened their trade and number of people. It has many good towns in it's dependence, and is the chief rendezvous of wealthy Banians that trade into Perſia.

BUCKOR, a province through which the river Indus runs, and, dividing it into two parts, renders it both rich and fruitful: ſo that it's banks abound with corn and cattle; but the weſt part is deſert.

BUCKOR TOWN, which lies on an iſland of the Indus, has a conſiderable traffic in Indian cloths, and other commodities.

SUCKER, is another town of ſome note for it's trade and agriculture on the river Damiad, or Dimtudee; and Rawree, on the ſame river, near it's mouth, is a place likewiſe of good trade, and ſends barks down the river, which trade as far as Mozambique, and other parts of Africa.

TATTA, or SINDI. This province, which is the weſtern boundary of the Mogul empire, is very conveniently ſituated for trade, and was very much inriched by it, before ſo great a ſhare thereof was drawn away by Surat.

The river Indus ſupplies it with great variety and plenty of fiſh. Here are alſo ſtore of peacocks, pidgeons, partridges, plovers, wild geeſe, ducks, and other wild fowl, which are free to every body. The country abounds with wheat, rice, pulſe, and with provender for cattle. They never have a dearth of proviſions, becauſe the Indus overflows all the low grounds, and leaves a fat ſlime, which never fails to produce a good crop. It's other productions are ſaltpetre, ſal ammoniac, borax, opopanax, aſſa fœtida, bezoar, lapis-tutiæ, lapis-lazuli, and raw ſilk, but not fine. The wood lignum-dulce grows only in this country; the root is chiefly uſeful, called putchcock, or radix-dulcis, which is a good ingredient in perfumes; ſo that great quantities of it are exported to Surat, and from thence to China, where it bears a good price, it being burned in their incenſe-pots before their images.

They manufacture both cotton and ſilks, make chints, very fine and cheap, alſo beautiful coverlets for beds, fine cabinets, both lacquered, and inlaid with ivory, and japanned wooden diſhes and tables. They export great quantities of butter, which they melt and put in jars, made of the hides of cattle, in the form of a globe, with a neck and mouth on one ſide.

The capital, of the ſame name, and the chief trading town of the province, ſtands in an iſland formed by the Indus. The chief commodities here are fine cotton, linen, turbands, carpets, leather-work, boxes, cabinets, and other curious utenſils of wood, inlaid with mother of pearl. Here is alſo oil of cacao-nuts, butter, ſugar, pitch, roſin, ſtuffs of all ſorts, anniſeed, &c. which are brought down the Indus in veſſels from the other provinces.

LARRIBANDAR, at the mouth of the river, is the port of the city, and will receive ſhips of 200 tons.

DIUL, or DOBIL, is another port, and is the moſt commodious and celebrated harbour in the kingdom, and is the place where ſhips uſually touch that ſail from India to Ormus.

JESSELMERE PROVINCE. The north parts are mountainous, but the ſouth are watered by the river Padder, and the greateſt part of the country is fruitful in corn and cattle, eſpecially ſheep.

JESSELMERE TOWN, it's capital ſtands on the north part, within land, but has a very good trade for indico, cotton, and woollen cloths.

SORET PROVINCE, the laſt on the weſtern claſs, is a very rich and fruitful province, well furniſhed with all the neceſſaries of life.

JANAGAT, it's chief city, is populous and rich, by reaſon of it's commodious ſituation near the river Padder, which falls, a little below it, into the gulph of Indus, and renders it a place of good trade.

The chief midland provinces for trade are,

CHITOR: the chief product for which it is noted is ſtone, ſalt, and aſſa fœtida, which grows on mountains and barren places. The Banians mix aſſa fœtida with their ſauces, reckoning no diſh good without it.

CHETIPORE, or CHITPOUR, is the only place of note here. It ſtands on the banks of a river, and is inhabited by Banians, who make cotton-yarn, and weave great quantities of thoſe callicoes called chints.

MALVAY PROVINCE, produces all that grows in the other provinces, and has a great many trading towns, of which the capital, and that of the greateſt traffic, is

RATISPORE, or RANTIPORE, or RATIBOR; and alſo

SEROG, which lies between Surat and Agra. This is a great city, chiefly inhabited by Banian merchants and handicraftſmen, who drive a great trade in callicoes, both white and painted, called chites, which, the more they are waſhed, the brighter are the colours. They are worn by the common people of Perſia and Turkey, and are uſed in other countries for bed quilts and napkins. They make another ſort of linenhere, ſo very fine that the body is plainly ſeen through it. This the merchants are not allowed to export; for the government ſends it all to the Mogul's court, for the ſultaneſſes of the ſeraglio, and the ladies of quality, who dance in the very hot weather with nothing on them but ſhifts, or robes, made of this linen. It is computed to be about 100 leagues of this country from hence to Brampour, through fine fields of corn and rice; the ſoil is of much the ſame nature from hence to Agra, and the villages are very thick all the way.

NADER is a great city here: the inhabitants make great quantities of quilted coverlets, ſome white, others embroidered with gold, ſilk, and ſattin flowers.

NARVAR, a province abounding with wool and cotton, and with ſuch quantities of ſugar-canes and mangoes, that they feed their horſes with them. Here are vaſt flocks of ſheep, whoſe wool is eſteemed no way inferior to that of Spain.

The chief towns of any trade are HANDEE, remarkable for rhinoceros's-horns, which are much valued in India.

SANDAYE, or SANDAGE, noted for manufactures of wool, cotton, and fire-arms, and much frequented by merchants.

BARANDON, a thoroughfare for caravans, and remarkable for a great trade in arms, hart's and elephant's-teeth.

GUALEOR PROVINCE. It's capital of the ſame name is a large city, but not diſtinguiſhable for any ſort of commerce.

AGRA, or INDOSTAN PROPER, is called ſo from being the principal kingdom of the Mogul empire. It is a plain country, and, though not ſo fruitful of wheat and other corn as Dely, abounds with oranges, lemons, and many other fruits, beſides rice, indico, and cotton; and it's manufactures of white cloth, ſtuffs of ſilk, ſilver and gold lace, &c. render it one of the richeſt countries in the Indies. It is one of the largeſt provinces in the Mogul's dominions, according to Thevenot, though it does not appear ſo by the ordinary maps.

AGRA, it's capital city, whither a great number of Popiſh merchants reſort, becauſe Eckbar, the emperor who founded it, in 1566, allowed the Jeſuits a ſettlement and penſion here, which they enjoy to this day *. This is a place of great traffic, being reſorted to by merchants from China, Perſia, all parts of India, and by the Engliſh and Dutch. Our nation once had a factory here; but the long diſtance from Surat, and the hazards and difficulties they ſuſtained in paſſing thro' the countries of many rajas and raſboutes, made them withdraw it, though they ſtill continue to trade here.

* It is remarkable, that the religious miſſionaries of Popiſh countries have been greatly inſtrumental to promote the trade of their countries, eſpecially thoſe of France; which being done under the diſguiſe of religion, it is the leſs perceptible. The religious have been remarkably buſy on theſe occaſions among the Indians of North America, and have moulded and faſhioned them to the form of the court, to anſwer the intereſts of commerce, and to make ſuch alliances with the French as may the better enable them to advance their trade, and increaſe their poſſeſſions at the expence of thoſe of Great-Britain; but what TRADING MISSIONARIES has England to promote it's commerce and navigation?

The Dutch have ſtill a factory in this city, and trade chiefly in ſcarlet cloth, looking-glaſſes, ſilver, gold, and white lace, hard-ware, indico, cloth of Jelapour, and ſpices. They have houſes at ſeveral other towns, to which they ſend factors annually, and have always ſome perſons near the court, to prevent being impoſed on by the covetous tyrannical governors at the ſettlements on the coaſt of Bengal.

Here are above 60 very large caravanſera's, nobly built [ſee CARAVANSERA] ſome of which have ſix large courts, with their portico's, and moſt commodious apartments for the merchants.

FETTIPORE, or FATAPOUR, a town about 17 miles weſt of Agra. The emperor Eckbar, before-mentioned, built here a ſtately palace, and a noble bazar for trade [ſee BAZAR:] they have here a grand manufacture for taffata's. The bazar, whoſe top is full of little pyramids, is 500 paces in length, well built, and neatly paved. The court within is ſix times larger than the Royal Exchange of London, and the whole ſupported with beautiful columns, each of one ſtone.

BIANA, another town about 35 miles weſt of the former: they have here, and at Scanderbad, the beſt indico in the whole country. See INDICO.

There are many other towns in this province, where they have manufactures of painted callicoes, chints, &c. but they do not merit a particular deſcription.

BANDO, a province, which produces opium, azure, ſalt petre, and muſk.

GODAH, a town, ſtands in the moſt fruitful part of this province for cotton, corn, paſture, and in a great plain, where there is a village almoſt at every mile's end, with gardens of mangoes, tamarinds, and other fruit-trees. The ſtreets are full of rich tradeſmen's ſhops.

HENDOWNS PROVINCE. It's chief town, of the like name, is large, populous, and opulent, with a conſiderable trade in cotton and callicoes, and in flatting the round indico, which they make far better than any other, and ſell for twice the money.

MEARTA, another town in this province, has a great trade in indico, callico, and woollen cloth.

LAHOR PROVINCE, produces rice, corn, pulſe of all ſorts, fruit, ſugar, wine; and in their towns are manufactures of every thing made in the empire, particularly fine linen, ſilks of all colours, embroideries, tapeſtry, plain and flowered, and coarſe woollen ſtuffs.

LAHOR, it's chief town, was formerly very ſplendid and opulent, and the chief of all Indoſtan for trade, when the Armenians and Indians traded from the Indies by land to Aleppo, and was the ſtaple for indico, which was formerly called the indico of Lahor, till the Europeans found out a way by ſea to the Eaſt-Indies; ſince which the trade is ſo fallen off, that the place could ſcarce ſubſiſt *, were it not for the reſidence of the court here for five or ſix months in the year, during the cold ſeaſon, the air being pure and reſtorative. The inhabitants here ſtill make the coarſeſt and cheapeſt ſort of painted callicoes.

* This is the fate of all great towns and cities, when once they loſe their trade; which ought to convince every one, from fact and experience, of the unſpeakable benefits of commerce to a nation, and to peculiar towns and cities.

DEHLI PROVINCE, lies in the heart of the whole empire. Though cultivation of the land is neglected in many parts, yet in others it produces plenty of wheat, rice, millet, excellent ſugar, good indico, pulſe, and fruitsof all ſorts, eſpecially extraordinary anana's [ſee ANANA's.] They have melons cheap enough in ſummer, but not very good, except they have the ſeed from Perſia, which none but the quality are able to purchaſe. They have pretty good fleſh-meat, though it will not keep above a day. They have good fiſh, but in no great plenty, becauſe none but the omrahs may catch them, when they pleaſe. They have no wine but what is imported from Perſia, or the Canary Iſlands, for ſtrangers, the Mahometans and Gentiles too, in this country, not being allowed to drink either that or arac. See the article ARAC.

DEHLI CITY. The rich goods here are ſold in the warehouſes, ſo that in the common ſhops there is little beſides proviſions, ſuch as rice, barley, wheat, oil, butter, &c. Many of the inhabitants, eſpecially the raja's, are very rich, particularly in jewels, which they preſerve from father to ſon. There are no handicraftſmen in this city; not that they want ſkill, but becauſe they are maltreated by the omrahs and manſederars, who compel them to work for them, and pay them as they pleaſe.

The caravanſera here is a magnificent ſtructure, in a very large ſquare, ſurrounded with arches that ſupport open galleries, where the Perſian, Uſbec, and other foreign merchants, lodge in very commodious apartments, which are alſo warehouſes for their merchandizes.

Of the eaſtern provinces.

PATNA PROVINCE is very fruitful.—It's chief city, of the ſame name, ſtands on the river Perſely, but ſo far inland, that it is never reſorted to by foreigners, ſo that we have no account of it; though ſome geographers have confounded this with Patna, on the weſt ſide of the Ganges, in the kingdom of Bengal [ſee BENGAL;] nor is there any conſiderable place of trade in this eaſtern diviſion.

In regard to the ſouthern diviſion,

Having already taken notice of Bengal, under the article BENGAL, by reaſon of the trade that our Eaſt-India company has there, we ſhall paſs that over here, and refer to Bengal. The next province in this diviſion is that of

ORIXA, or ORISTAN, a province ſeparated from Bengal, on the north, by the river Guenga; has the bay on the eaſt; the mountains of Ballagate and Berar on the weſt, and Golconda on the ſouth. The ſoil is fruitful in rice. It's other commodities are white cloth, bengals, oil, butter, mirabolans, bees-wax, lacque, ginger, and pepper, anniſe and cummin-ſeeds; of which commodities, when it was governed by it's own king, Mr. Frederick ſays they uſed to export 25 or 30 ſhip-loads a year; but ſuch impoſts have been laid on them by the Mogul, as have much leſſened the trade. Iron here is very plentiful, and they caſt anchors in moulds; but thoſe made of their caſt iron are not near ſo good as thoſe made in Europe of hammered bar-iron.

The places on this coaſt which travellers and navigators have moſt noted are,

CUNNACA RIVER, capable of receiving a ſhip of 200 tons. The north ſide of this river is ſubject to the nabob of Cattack, and the ſouth ſide to a rajah, which makes them both court the merchants that come hither, for the ſake of the cuſtom which is paid only to that ſovereign on whoſe ſide of the river the veſſels lie.

RAYPORE, on the banks of the river Cattack. It has a fine bay, which, at ſpring-tides, has ſeven fathom water, but is little frequented by traders at preſent, though otherwiſe formerly, and ſtill abounds with corn, butter, oil, and fine cloth. The harbour though convenient, is the leſs frequented, becauſe many rajahs, of different intereſts, have their countries on the ſides of the river, who overburthen the trade with impoſts, which ever ruins commerce.

CATTACK TOWN ſtands on an iſland of this river. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company had once a fine factory here. It's manufactory is cotton cloths of all ſorts, very cheap.

BADNECK, about 50 miles from Cattack. The chief employment of it's inhabitants is huſbandry, ſpinning, weaving, and churning; and butter is ſo cheap, that a penny per pound is reckoned dear.

ASIPORE has a fine river, which invites foreigners to frequent it for cotton, cloth, and rice, which this country affords in great plenty. At

ORIXA TOWN, they make a great deal of cotton cloth, and of the herb or graſs of Bengal.

BEZAR is one of the moſt fruitful provinces of the Mogul empire, in corn, rice, pulſe, and poppy, from which opium is extracted; and ſugar-canes thrive here almoſt without cultivation.

CANDISH PROVINCE is mighty populous, and has not only plenty of rice and indico, but abounds more with cotton than any of the provinces of the Indies, and drives a great trade in cotton-cloth; and they manufacture callicoes, both white and painted; the former of which are much eſteemed for their ſtripes of gold, ſilver, and ſilk, intermixed with flowers, which render them very dear: and, indeed, they are only uſed by the richer ſort, for veils, ſcarves, handkerchiefs, and coverlets. They are tranſported to Perſia, Turkey, Muſcovy, Poland, Arabia, Grand Cairo, &c.

It's chief towns are,

BRAMPOUR, the capital. Here is a large caravanſera. The Dutch, who have a factory here, barter pepper for opium. The Engliſh, who alſo had a factory here once, ſold cloths, lead, quickſilver, ſabres, ſattins, velvets, and gold ſtuffs; for which they returned money, by bills of exchange, to Agra and Surat.

CANOW, is a large city, which drives a great trade in cloth, ſwords, muſkets, and a certain fruit for dyeing.

CAMBAYA, or GUZURATTE KINGDOM. See CAMBAYA.

The PENINSULA of the INDIES within GANGES, has the two coaſts of Malabar and Coromandel, where the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Portugueze, and Danes, have forts and factories, the former on the weſt ſide of it, and the latter on the eaſt.

DECAN PROVINCE, in general, bears many excellent fruits, and much cotton, of which the inhabitants make very fine cloth; and ſome parts of it yield diamonds, and other precious ſtones, beſide an excellent paſture for variety of cattle, which are ſold at Goa, and other places. The inhabitants of Decan Proper are chiefly employed in carrying wheat and rice, in caravans of 1000 beaſts at a time, into the neighbouring countries. The moſt remarkable places on the coaſt, are the iſlands of Salſet and Bombay.

SALSET ISLAND abounds with game of all kinds, and has herbage and fruit in great plenty, and a manufacture of ſtuffs of ſilk and cotton. The Portugueze have no trade here, becauſe the channel belongs to the Engliſh, and all cuſtoms of goods imported and exported are paid to the cuſtom-houſe of Mahim. Trombay is a ſmall iſland here, which pays cuſtom to the Engliſh.

BOMBAY is an iſland to the ſouth of Salſet. It's harbour is capable of containing 1000 ſhips. The iſland is about eight miles long, and 20 in circumference. The ſoil is barren, and the climate unhealthful, but it lies convenient for trade. The government here is ſubject to the preſident and council of Surat, who have a juſticiary, with a court of pleas, and a committee for regulating affairs, and preſenting complaints, all which are determined by the laws of England.

CUNCAN PROVINCE is, in general, fertile, rich, and plain, except towards the ſea, where it is mountainous, and covered with woods, but the latter abound in cattle. The vallies yield plenty of rice and cocoa-nuts, and they have many rivers, both freſh and ſalt.

DUNDEE RAJAPORE, the firſt town on the coaſt belonging to the Mogul, has a good harbour, and the adjacent country feeds great numbers of black cattle, with which the factory at Bombay is moſtly ſupplied, when they keep on good terms with the Mogul general; otherwiſe they are obliged to ſubſiſt on their fiſh alone, wherewith that iſland is plentifully ſtored.

GOA is the metropolis of India under the dominion of the crown of Portugal, the ſeat of it's viceroy, the ſee of an archbiſhop, who is primate of all the Eaſt, and the ſupreme court of judicature for all the Portugueze in Aſia, as well as the ſtaple of their trade. The banks of the river are capable of receiving the largeſt ſhips within a mile of the town.

The chief trade of the city of Goa is in arac [ſee ARAC.] This liquor is made in ſuch quantities, that though the Engliſh are ſuppoſed to be the beſt cuſtomers for it of any one nation of Europe, yet all India is ſupplied with it as far as the ſtreights of Malacca. The double-diſtilled, which is commonly ſent abroad, is but a weak ſpirit, in compariſon of Batavia arac, yet it has a flavour ſo peculiar to itſelf, that it is with juſtice preferred to all other aracs in India. The treble-diſtilled is worth about 21. 5s. a hogſhead.

CARWAR, or COROUAL, 36 miles ſouth from Goa, where the Engliſh have a factory and ſmall fort. The factory ſtands on the ſouth ſide of a bay, and a river capable of receiving ſhips of 300 tons, overagainſt a pleaſant iſland, full of game. Here is a chief and council, to manage the trade for the company. Mr. Lockyer ſays, the beſt pepper in the world grows hereabouts, for which alone the Eaſt-India company are at the charge of the factory. In the neighbourhood there is abundance of caſſia-lignum, or baſtard cinnamon, and nux. Carwar is ſaid to be the moſt healthful and pleaſant place on the Malabar coaſt. Ships ride about two miles from the factory, in Battee Cove, ſafe from the ſouth-weſt wind, and the river is navigable by the largeſt veſſels, but the entry difficult. Here is abundance of red deer, and other game.

The rajah has one half per cent. for goods imported by the Engliſh, which is ſeldom demanded, however, for ſmall parcels, and they account with him only once a year. They have conſiderable markets for diamonds, rubies, and other precious ſtones.

GOLCONDA KINGDOM abounds with black cattle, ſheep, poultry, and all ſorts of proviſions, and has many lakes, full of fiſh: it has plenty of grapes, of which they make white-wine. The country produces indico, bezoar, two crops of rice a year, and other grain; and, in ſhort, all neceſſaries of life. Here are no mines of gold, ſilver, or copper, but many of ſalt, iron, and ſeveral of diamonds, and other precious ſtones. See the article DIAMOND, where the diamond-mines of Golconda are deſcribed.

BAGNAGAR. The Engliſh and Dutch have factories here only for the ſake of the diamond-trade, it being too far inland to be engaged in maritime traffic. It has whole ſtreets of gold-ſmiths, as the jewellers and bankers of Europe are here termed, as alſo of Jews, Armenians, and Greeks, who are the moſt expert cutters of diamonds, and the beſt judges of their worth.

GANJAM, an Engliſh factory on this coaſt, and the moſt eaſtern town in the province, abounding with rice and ſugar-canes, where they make good ſugar, both white and brown. The woods produce timber for building, together with bees-wax, ſtick-lack, and pretty good iron.—The inland country manufactures cotton cloth for exportation.

There are ſeveral places on the coaſt which drive a pretty good trade in corn.

BINLIPATAN is where the Dutch have a ſmall factory, and a trade in rice, cloth, iron, wax, lacque, as they have alſo at Paticole and Dacheron, on the ſame coaſt; as they import copper, tin, lead, and pepper. The country people manufacture cloth, both coarſe and fine, which the Dutch buy up for Batavia.

VIZAGAPATAM is a factory belonging to the Engliſh. The adjacent country affords cotton-cloth, both coarſe and fine, and the beſt dureas, or ſtriped muſlins, in India.

NARSIPORE NARAPOUR, is a place where the Dutch have, and the Engliſh had, a factory for long cloth, for the uſe of their factory at Maſulipatan, when they manufactured chints there.

ANGERANG, a little way up Carrengo-Bay, has the beſt and fineſt cloth in India, and is ſold cheap; but ſuch are the impoſitions and exactions on all cloth, which comes down the river, by the rajahs of the ſeveral inland countries laying near it, that they ruin that beneficial trade, and make the harbour little frequented.

MASULIPATAN. Here the Dutch have a factory for carrying on the chints trade.

The adjacent country and iſlands are fruitful in grain, timber for building, and the beſt tobacco in India: and the iſlands of Diu produce not only the beſt of butter, but the famous dye called ſhaii, a ſhrub growing in grounds that are overflown with the ſpring-tides, which ſtains their callicoes with the moſt beautiful and lively colours in the world. They paint callicoes here the beſt of any in the Indies; and the very children of the pagans do it nicely with their pencils.

MALABAR. The inland part of this country not being much known, we ſhall deſcribe the coaſt chiefly, which has many commodious bays and harbours, abounding with fiſh, and mountains that produce iron. It affords timber for maſts, as good as that of Norway; alſo pepper, cardamums, borboris, canders, wild cinnamon, nux-vomica, ginger, aloes, bezoar-ſtones, gum-lacque, caſſia-fiſtula, oculus Indiæ, ſaltpetre, wax and honey, areka, cotton and cocoa-trees; with the oil and bark of which they carry on a conſiderable commerce. They have little wheat, but plenty of maize, and other grain, and

precious ſtones. The natural produce of this country is ſo rich and profitable to the merchants, that the Engliſh, Dutch, French, Portugueze, Danes, &c. have made large ſettlements on theſe coaſts, ſince the diſcovery of the paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.

CANARA, or the kingdom of the CHATINS. Dr. Fryer calls all the track from Guzuratte to Malabar by the name of the Canatic country; but ſays, that Proper Canara begins at the town of Gongola, from whence it extends along the ſea to Malabar, and within land as far as the Sunda rajah's Pepper Mountains.

Baldæus ſays, the country is very fertile in rice, and other neceſſaries, and produces wild nutmegs, uſed in dyeing, betel-nuts, and pepper, which is called Carwar pepper. The plains bear two crops of corn in a year, and the higher grounds produce ſandal-wood and iron.

BARCELOAR, or BASSELORE. There are two crops of rice here, owing to the advantages of ſome lakes at the feet of the mountains Gatti, whoſe waters, being confined by ſluices, are let out frequently to water the fields. The Dutch have a factory here, to buy up rice for their factories on the Malabar coaſt. The Portugueze alſo get ſupplies of it for Goa; and they have ſix or eight ſhips belonging to Barceloar, which carry their cargoes of rice to Muſkat, and bring back horſes, dates, pearl, and other Arabian products. Here is a conſiderable trade likewiſe, for pepper, ginger, and drugs. The Engliſh have a fort here, called Moor's Fort, to the ſouth-eaſt of the Dutch fort; and the Danes have a factory on the ſame river.

MANGULOR, or MANGALOR, a ſmall town, ſaid to be the greateſt mart for trade in all this country. The Portugueze have a factory here for rice, and the French and Dutch have factories here.

RAOLCONDA, 50 leagues eaſt of Goa, is noted for a diamond-mine. Tavernier places it five days journey from Golconda, and eight or nine from Viſapour, and in the kingdom of that name; he ſays, the diamonds found here are the cleareſt, and of the whiteſt water. The king has 2 per cent. for all that are ſold, beſides a duty from the merchants, according to the number of hands employed in digging. The miners have ſo little pay, that they ſometimes hide a ſtone, notwithſtanding all the care to prevent it, they being quite naked, with only a rag about their privities; ſo that they often ſwallow them: and our author ſays, he ſaw one detected, who had put a ſtone into the corner of his eye; but he obſerves, that, if they meet with a ſtone of 15 or 16 carats, they are allowed a reward.

The merchants, who are Moors, have lodgings about the mines, and every morning the maſters of the miners, who are Pagans, bring their diamonds, which are bargained for by ſigns, without one word ſpoke. The buyer and ſeller ſitting croſs-legged, facing one another, the ſeller takes hold of the buyer's right-hand, and covers them both with his girdle, under which they ſecretly agree, without diſcovering what it is to the merchants, who are at the ſame time in the hall, for the buyer and ſeller underſtand each other by the motion of the fingers only; and the perſon who weighs the ſtones is appointed by the king.

The chief provinces on the Malabar coaſt are,

CANANOR, or CONONAR, province and town. It abounds with elephants, camels, buffaloes, lions, tygers, wolves, black cattle, ſheep, antelopes, civet-cats, large partridges, &c. There is a mine of ſtone in this country, called azazimit, of the ſame virtue as the terra ſigillata, valued all over the Indies for being an antidote againſt poiſon, and for the cure of fevers, bloody-fluxes, and indigeſtions. Here are good trees for maſts; choice fruits, ſuch as the anana's, banana's, &c. and ſuch plenty of cocoa-trees, that they ſerve for fuel.

The town of the ſame name lies on the coaſt, about 240 miles ſouth-eaſt of Goa, and 140 north of Cochin. The Dutch have a fort here, which they took from the Portugueze in 1663; but their trade is very ſmall. The town is populous, and chiefly inhabitted by Mahometan merchants. It has a ſpacious ſafe harbour. The commodities here are pepper, cardamums, ginger, mirobolans, tamarinds, caſſia, ambergreaſe, hyacinths, granates, ſapphires, and rubies. The inhabitants drove a great trade formerly to Surat, Cambaya, and even to the Red Sea; but it is much decayed.

TILLICHERY is an Engliſh factory, 10 miles ſouth from Cananor. The Engliſh Eaſt-India company have a fort here, to defend their trade, which is chiefly in pepper and cardamums; ſometimes they have ambergreaſe, coire, cowries, and chank from the Maldive Iſlands: the beſt opium of a deep purple colour, is made hereabouts.

PANOLA, five miles ſouth of Tillichery, is a French factory for pepper.

BURGARA, three miles ſouth of Cananor. The country produces pepper, and the beſt cardamums in the world.

CALLICUT, the next country towards the ſouth. It abounds with pepper, betel, and cacao-trees, ſandal-wood, iron, caſſia-lignum, and timber for building. They have much cotton, plenty of precious ſtones, and make cotton-cloth and tapeſtry. This place is as conſiderable for trade as any port between Surat and Cape Comorin.

The goods that turn to account here from other parts of India, are ſugar, ſugar-candy, China ſilks, lacquered wares; Bengal callicoes, white and blue, roſe-water, and all ſorts of fruit from Perſia, cotton-wool, &c. from Surat, broadſword-blades, and neceſſaries for Europeans from England. All goods are rated for cuſtom according to the ſorts, not ad valorem, as at Surat and Carwar; but ſtrangers who deal with the Engliſh and French factories are never charged with it.

COCHIN KINGDOM, produces coarſe cinnamon, good ſtore of cacao, and great quantities of pepper. The woods afford good teak for building, and pawheat and angelique, or angeline, a timber harder and more durable than iron; of this, and the pawheat, they make large cheſts and cabinets, and ſmall veſſels, that will carry 20 or 30 pipes of wine. It abounds alſo with great quantities of black cattle; and the great number of it's canals afford plenty of fiſh, and the mountains are well ſtored with wild game.—Here are alſo ſugar-canes, and bamboes, with iron in plenty, and bees-wax for exportation.

COCHIN CITY has a Dutch factory; it is a place of great trade, and the beſt of the ſettlements the Dutch have on the Malabar coaſt.

PORCA KINGDOM.—At the town of it's name, the Dutch have a ſmall factory here for rice and pepper chiefly.

MARTA KINGDOM abounds with pepper, peaſe, beans, rice, and ſalt fiſh.—The Dutch have a large factory here. And at

CERNOPOLY, where the king reſides, and exacts cuſtoms for all ſorts of goods exported, they have another ſmall factory.

Alſo at PENDERAROUTE and PESSE, further ſouth, near the ſhore, the Dutch have a factory for weighing their pepper.

COILCOILOAN, or CALECOULAN, another ſmall kingdom, with a town a little to the ſouth of Porca, where the Dutch have another factory, that buys a great quantity of pepper, which they carry to Surat and the Red Sea, and make their return to Batavia in the product of thoſe places.

COLOAN, a ſmall principality, and a pleaſant and fruitful country, ſubject to the Dutch; and the Danes have a ſmall factory here.

TRAVANCOUR, the moſt ſouthern province of Malabar, abounds with pepper, rice, and other grain, and the beſt cinnamon; it affords as fine long cloth as any made in India. The chief places of trade on the coaſt are,

ANJENGO, which is the moſt ſoutherly ſettlement that belongs to the Engliſh on the Malabar coaſt. The chief trade is in pepper, though not ſo good in quality as that about Carwar, more to the north. Here is a manufacture of ſeveral ſorts of cotton, of which great quantities are ſent to Madraſpatan.

TEGNAPATAM, where the Dutch have a ſmall fort and factory. The chief trade here is in cordage of cocoas, and brown ſugar-candy, which they ſend to Cochin; yet the country produces pepper, and a coarſe cloth called catches.

On the eaſt ſide of the peninſula is BISNAGAR KINGDOM.

BISNAGAR PROPER. The ſoil is fruitful, well watered, and abounds in cattle and wild beaſts. The inhabitants are ingenious in watering and painting callicoes, which is the chief trade of the country.

BISNAGAR CITY is the ſecond in the kingdom for grandeur, wealth, and it's trade, which is in Arabian horſes, velvets, damaſks, ſattins, chints, ſaffron, ſcarlets, Turkey jewels, and gold ducats.

COROMANDEL COAST ſtretches ſouth-weſt from the bay of Bengal, or the limits of Golconda, to thoſe of Madura. This country is very fruitful in rice. They have here multitudes of ſheep, with no wool, but a little hair: their cotton cloth is the fineſt in the Indies. Not only European goods are in requeſt here, but all ſorts of ſpice, and gold, which they underſtand very well.

The Engliſh and Dutch have ſo many forts and factories, and other ſettlements, on the coaſt, that they may be ſaid truly enough to poſſeſs the whole; yet they are under ſubjection to the Mogul, who has numbers of his ſubjects alſo in all the places they poſſeſs; whereas the Portugueze at Goa have poſſeſſion thereof in ſovereignity.

POLIACATE, or POLICAT: at the mouth of a river of that name, 9 leagues from Fort St. George, and 140 miles ſouth from Pettipoly, lies the chief factory on this coaſt belonging to the Dutch Eaſt-India company, to which all their others on this coaſt, and in the dominion of Golconda, are ſubordinate. The Pagans here trade in painted and white callicoes, and other linens. The market is well ſtored with rice, and other grain; and a caravan comes hither every month from Agra. The Banians and Jews are the chief traders. Here the Dutch refine what ſaltpetre they bring from Bengal, and make gunpowder for their other factories; they have great warehouſes for cotton-cloth. The gold pagodas, coined here by the Dutch, paſs beſt at the diamond-mines of Golconda. Great quantities of cotton ſtockings are knit here, and exported to all the European factories in India.

FORT ST. GEORGE, or MADRASPATAN, which ſignifies the town of Madras.

The Engliſh Eaſt-India company were put in poſſeſſion hereof by one of the Pagan princes above 120 years ago, and had it ratified by the king of Golconda, to whom the company pays 7000 pagodas (worth about 9 ſhillings a piece) per ann. for the royalties and cuſtoms; but they gain four times that

ſum

ſum by them. This is a place of the utmoſt importance to the company for it's ſtrength, wealth, and the great annual returns it makes in callicoes and muſlins. The governor is not only ſo of Fort St. George, but of all the ſettlements on the Coromandel coaſt, and the weſt coaſt of Sumatra, the perſon who is ſent to Bencoolen being but a deputy-governor there.

The chief revenues of the company ariſe from cuſtoms of 5 per cent. on goods imported and exported by ſea; choultry, or land-cuſtom, of 2 ½ per cent. on cloth, proviſions, &c. brought in from the country, which, when exported, pay 2½ per cent. more; anchorage-duty, paſſes, coinage; which all together are very conſiderable, for the mint alone brings above 1000 pagodas a month into the company's coffers, at ½ per cent. for coinage of gold, and 2 per cent. for ſilver. The bullion that comes from Europe, &c. is coined into roupees, which are ſtamped with Perſian characters, declaring the Mogul's name, year of his reign, and ſome of his epithets. They alſo coin gold into pagodas of different denominations and value. Mr. Lockyer ſays, the Moors have alſo ſeveral toll-houſes round the city, where they receive about 7 per cent. cuſtom on all goods that paſs by them, except what is for the Engliſh, who pay no other than the choultry. Beſides the neighbouring villages, which the merchants or others farm of the company, at certain rents, the ſcavenger, fiſhing-farm, wine-licence, &c. are equally advantageous to it.—Another conſiderable branch of the company's profit is the tobacco and betel-farm, which is a ſmall duty laid on thoſe commodities, and leaſed out to the Black merchants for 8000 pagodas per annum. Another branch is the arac farm, or the ſole licence of making pariar arac, for which they are paid 3600 pagodas a year. The common people prefer this to the beſt Batavia or Goa arac, only becauſe it is more heating. Theſe three laſt mentioned commodities, from whence ſuch conſiderable profit ariſes, are all conſumed by the inhabitants, who were not leſs, according to Mr. Lockyer, than 300,000 ſouls; but Capt. Hamilton makes the inhabitants in the town and villages to be but 80,000, and of them no more than 500 Europeans.

They trade from hence to all parts eaſt of the Cape of Good Hope; but the greateſt ſhips uſe the Mocha, Perſia, and Surat market, with Bengal and China commodities; and touch, by the way, on the Malabar coaſt, for pepper, cacao-nuts, coire, and ſeveral drugs, the produce of that coaſt. As there are partners in almoſt every ſhip and ſtock, both veſſel and cargo are ſold at her return from a voyage, either by outcry or auction. Merchants, acquainted with the place, have their goods diſpoſed of by the inhabitants, at 2, and ſometimes 1 per cent. diſcount; 5 per cent. is allowed to ſupercargoes, and married women trade as well as the men. Land intereſt is ſettled by order of council, at 10 per cent. but money may be had of the church at 8 or 9. Money is alſo lent here on bottomree, from 16 to 45 per cent. according to the length of the voyage.

The bullion here that is not coined into roupees, is bought up for the China market, where pillar dollars are moſt eſteemed, and therefore bear the higheſt price here. See the article EAST-INDIA TRADE, and EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

Mr. Lockyer ſays, that, as the Engliſh company's ſettlements here ſurpaſs all their others in grandeur, ſo the orders and members of the council are more regarded.

The European goods that ſell beſt here, are lead, wine, beer in caſks or bottles, ale, cyder, cheeſe, cloth-hats, fine ribbands, gold and ſilver lace, thread and worſted ſtockings, flint ware, looking-glaſſes light coloured wigs, ſtuffs for coats, with trimmings, caſes of ſpirits, cherry brandy, caſe-knives, tin-ware, tobacco-pipes, and all other ſorts of haberdaſhery.

Returns are made to Europe in all the product of the Indies, particularly cotton cloth and muſlins, which are cheaper here than at Surat, but dearer than in Bengal.

The colony produces very little of it's own growth or manufacture for foreign markets; the good trade which it formerly had to Pegu, is now removed into the hands of the Armenians, Moors, and Pagans; the Engliſh trade to China is divided betwixt them and Surat; the gold and ſome copper being for their own markets, and the groſs of their own cargo, which conſiſts in ſugar, ſugar-candy, alum, China ware, and ſome drugs, as China root, galengal, &c. being all for the Surat market. As the trading articles from hence to Perſia muſt firſt be brought down the Ganges before they come hither; and as Fort St. David ſupplies the product and manufactures of Coromandel, which are ſent from hence to Mocha; Fort St. George is, therefore, an emblem of Holland, in ſupplying foreign markets with foreign goods. Their rice is brought by ſea from Ganjain and Orixa, their wheat from Surat and Bengal, and their fire-wood from the iſlands of Diu near Maſulipatan.

COBELON, or COBLON, 6 leagues ſouth of Fort St. George, is the place where the Oſtend company ſettled their factory in a fruitful ſoil with good water, and the conveniency of a point of rocks, to facilitate the landing of boats. See OSTEND EAST-INDIA COMPANY.

SADRASPATAN, 30 miles ſouth of Fort St. George, and 8 leagues north of Pondicherry, is a ſmall factory belonging to the Dutch to buy up long cloths.

CANYMERE was of note many years for an Engliſh factory, 'till, on their purchaſing Fort St. David, they transferred it thither.

PONDICHERRY is 5 leagues north of St. David, is one of the eminent factories belonging to the French Eaſt-India company. See the article FRANCE, of the EAST-INDIA TRADE of FRANCE.

GINGI principally abounds in rice, ſalt, and fruits, but is ſo ſtocked with people, that they are forced to have proviſions from other countries. It's chief manufactures are linen and woollen ſtuffs, which it exports to other parts of the Indies; and the chief goods which it imports are ſpices, ſandal-wood, Chineſe ſilks, velvets, ſattins, embroidered carpets, raw ſilk, Patana girdles, muſk, quickſilver, braſs, tin, lead, and copper. It's ſovereign is tributary to the Great Mogul.

TANJAOER principality. This kingdom is enriched by it's great trade with the Europeans in rice, painted callico, dye-wood, and other commodities, for which they have bars of ſilver in exchange.

FORT ST. DAVID, called by the Indians TEGAPATAN, is a ſtrong fort and factory of the Engliſh. Mr. Yale, governor of Fort St. George, having bought it of a prince of the royal family here, in 1686, for 90,000 pagodas, for the Eaſt-India company. This is of great advantage to the company, becauſe of the rents they have here, and the great quantities of callicoes and muſlins that are carried home to Europe.

When the Engliſh bought this fort, the Dutch had a little factory about a mile from it, where the Engliſh, whoſe bounds reach above 8 miles along the ſhore, and 4 miles within land, permit them ſtill to trade, on paying cuſtoms to the company. This colony produces large quantities of good long cloths, brown, white, or blue dyed; alſo ſalampores, morees, dimitties, ginghams, ſuccatoons, &c. And Capt. Hamilton gives it as his opinion, that, were it not for this colony, Fort St. George would not make near ſo good a figure as it does in trade.

PORTO NOVO, 18 miles ſouth of Fort. St David. The country is fertile, pleaſant, and healthful, and produces good cotton cloth, which is either ſold at home, or exported to Pegu, Tanaceiſm, Queda, Jehore, and Atcheen, or Sumatra.

TRANQUEBAR, a fortreſs and colony belonging to the Danes, in a country whoſe produce is cloth, both white and dyed. The Daniſh miſſionaries, who arrived here about 1706, ſay 'tis 36 German miles from Fort St. George; and that, next to Batavia, 'tis one of the largeſt towns in the Indies. The chief ſupport of this place, according to Capt. Hamilton, is the hire for which they freight their ſhips to Achem, Malacca, and Jehore; and ſometimes, though rarely, to Perſia.

NEGAPATAN. The adjacent country abounds with rice; it affords alſo ſome tobacco, and long cloth. There is good anchoring in the road before the town, but no haven.

MADURA extends from Cape Callimere to Cape Comorin. 'Tis commonly called the Fiſhing-Coaſt, becauſe of the oyſter-fiſhery here, which produces great quantities of pearl, but they are ſmall, not comparable to the true original pearl at Baharan, in the gulph of Perſia; and 'tis alſo called the Pearl-Coaſt, from the pearl-banks, as they call them, which lie off at ſome diſtance, almoſt all along the ſhore, betwixt that and the iſle of Ceylon. They are certain rocks of white coral ſtone, to which the oyſters are found ſticking or growing, nobody knows which. 'Tis ſaid, that no leſs than 60,000 people are employed in this fiſhery, and guarding the veſſels.

The banks are ſearched every year in October, when the weather is calmeſt, to ſee whether the ſhells are come to maturity, of which proclamation is made through the country immediately; when the merchants, who reſort from all parts, even from Arabia and Turkey itſelf, ſet up tents on the ſhore, and hire boats and divers.

When the fiſhery is ended, the oyſters are opened before commiſſioners, that come from the iſland of Ceylon to preſide over it. [See FISHERIES and INDIAN ISLANDS.]

TUTUTCORIN. The Dutch have a factory here, whoſe juriſdiction extends over ſix villages on the eaſt. A great quantity of cloth is wove in this town, which has the better trade, becauſe it furniſhes the inhabitants along the coaſt with foreign commodities. Proviſions are ſold here, to the great advantage of the Dutch. Capt. Hamilton ſays, this country produces much cotton cloth, though not fine, but they both ſtain and dye it for exportation; and the Dutch colony here ſuperintends the pearl-fiſhery, which is ſaid to bring their company 20,000l. a year.

MARAPAAR has another Dutch factory.

MARAVA kingdom. The greateſt trade they have here is in fiſh, which they carry up the country, to exchange for rice and other neceſſary proviſions, of which the fiſhing-coaſt is quite deſtitute. See our NEW MAPS of ASIA.

INDULTO, a term uſed in the Spaniſh commerce.

As ſoon as the galleons [ſee GALLEONS] and merchant-ſhips in Spain come to an anchor, a waiter is ſent aboard each of them,

them, though the plate and merchandize be upon indulto, that is, compoſition, that none may be carried aſhore, but in the boats appointed for unloading, or with ſpecial licence, and guide aſſigned to bring it up to Seville. This is to be punctually obſerved as to gold and plate uncoined, for, ſince the new way of contribution, the pieces of eight are allowed to be left at the ports, and the ſame is practiſed with ſuch commodities as are not exported.

The deducting of as much money as will ſuffice to pay the ſoldiers and ſailors aboard the galleons, belongs to the admiral, but, if he be dead, the vice-admiral, unleſs he have the title of royal, or particular commiſſion from the king to command the galleons, has no right to it. But this, and all things elſe, are to be managed by the commiſſioner of the India-Houſe [ſee INDIA-HOUSE of Spain;] but the admiral of the flota [ſee FLOTA] cannot take up any ſum of money, either at ſea or in the port, to pay the men. Before any payments are made, the admirals, vice-admirals, and other commanders of armada's and flota's, are to take care that no ſailors or ſoldiers go aſhore (if the plate be unloaden in the bay of Cadiz) 'till all the plate is unſhipped, and the boats are out of that port; that the ſoldiers ſtay aboard 'till their colours are carried aſhore, and the ſailors 'till the ſhips be moored at the dock. But the gunners may be allowed to go aſhore, as ſoon as the guns and gunners ſtores are landed, to ſave the charge of unrigging; and, if any be, the captains pay it, ſince it muſt be through their neglect that the ſailors go off.

Since the new method of contribution has been brought into practice, which has taken off the duty of convoys from plate and gold, and all other commodities, and all other cuſtoms formerly paid for bringing them into the kingdoms of Spain, very little of what comes over is entered; and, therefore, the better to diſcover what parcels are to have the benefit of the indulto, or compoſition, it is convenient, that, when the viſitation is made, the maſters give an account, upon oath, of the quantity of goods they have aboard, ſpecifying the ſeveral ſorts, but without mentioning who are the owners, that they may have guides for as much as they have given an account of. The main end of bringing the galleons and flotas back to St. Lucar, being to prevent the exportation of plate, and other precious commodities, it will be of good conſequence to appoint men of note and reputation, ſays our Spaniſh author, to command the boats that go round to obſerve the veſſels, that they may do it very ſtrictly: and it will not be againſt the indulto, to oblige the maſters of plate, upon oath to declare, what quantity of bars of ſilver and gold each of them brings for private perſons, without declaring their names, that they may have guides to conduct them up to Seville; and that proclamation be made aboard every galleon, for thoſe who bring any gold, or ſilver, in ingots, that is not in the cuſtody of the maſters, to make it known, without telling whoſe it is, that it may be brought to Seville, upon penalty, that, if they fail, within a ſhort limited time, it ſhall be taken as forfeited. See the article MEXICO, PERU, FLOTA, GALLEONS.

INSOLVENT. See the article BANKRUPT, where the laws of England, with great variety of caſes adjudged in our courts of law, are briefly ſtated: alſo the laws and regulations of other nations, in relation to bankruptcy.

INSURANCE. See the article ASSURANCE of ſhipping and merchandizes, where this matter is treated of in a very copious manner.

INTEREST, of money, is the uſe paid for the loan thereof, and is either ſimple or compound.

Simple intereſt is that which is paid for the loan of any principal or ſum of money, lent out for ſome time, at any rate per cent. agreed on between the borrower and the lender; which, according to 12 Ann. ſeſſ. 2. c. 6. no perſon is to take for loan of monies, &c. above 5 l. for the forbearance of 100 l. a year. Bonds, contracts, &c. made for money, let at a greater intereſt, to be void, and the offender to forfeit treble value.

Thoſe who are any thing ſkilled in common arithmetic, do not require to be ſhewn the ordinary method of computing the intereſt of money. See, however, our article ARITHMETIC.

It may be uſeful, nevertheleſs, to lay down the ſeveral theorems algebraically, relating to ſimple intereſt, from whence the reaſon of the rules uſually given are deducible.

All computations which relate to ſimple intereſt, are grounded upon arithmetic progreſſion; from whence are raiſed ſuch general theorems, as will ſuit with all caſes. In order to which,

Let
- P = any principal ſum put to intereſt.
- R = the rate of intereſt per cent. per ann.
- t = the time of the principal's continuance at intereſt.
- A = the amount of the principal, and it's intereſt.

N. B. The rate, above ſignified, is only the ſimple intereſt of 1 l. for one year, at any given rate, which is thus found, viz. 100 : 5 :: 1 : 0,05, the rate decimally expreſſed at 5 per cent. per ann.

And, if the given time be whole years, then t = the number of whole years: but, if the time given be either pure parts of

a year, or parts of a year mixed with years, theſe parts muſt be turned into decimals: and then t = thoſe decimals, &c.— The common parts of a year may be eaſily reduced into decimal parts, if it be conſidered,

That one
- Day is the $\frac{1}{365}$ part of a year = 0.00274 fere.
- Month is the $\frac{1}{12}$ part of a year = .0833333, &c.
- Quarter is the $\frac{1}{4}$ part of a year = .25

Theſe particulars premiſed, the theorems may be eaſily raiſed.

Let R = the intereſt of 1 l. for one year, as before.
Then 2 R = the intereſt of 1 l. for two years.
And 3 R = the intereſt of 1 l. for three years.
4 R = the intereſt of 1 l. for four years, and ſo on for any number of years propoſed.

Hence 'tis obvious, that the ſimple intereſt of one pound is a ſeries of terms in arithmetic progreſſion increaſing; whoſe firſt term and common difference is R, and the number of all the terms is t; therefore the laſt term will always be tR = the intereſt of pounds for any given term ſignified by t.

Then, As one pound : is to the intereſt of l. 1 : : ſo is any principal or given ſum : to it's intereſt.

That is, l. 1 : tR : : P : tRP = the intereſt of P.— Then, the principal being added to the intereſt, their ſum will be = A, the amount required: which gives this general theorem,

(1.) Theorem tRP = A.

From whence the three following theorems are eaſily deducible.

Theorem (2.) $\frac{A}{tR+1} = P$. Theorem (3.) $\frac{A-P}{tP} = R$.

Theorem (4.) $\frac{A-P}{RP} = t$.

Theſe four theorems reſolve all queſtions about ſimple intereſt, which any one may apply, who is acquainted with the reduction of ſimple equations algebraically.

Of SIMPLE INTEREST.

The annual intereſt of any ſum of money is found, by multiplying the principal ſum decimally, by the hundredth part of the rate of intereſt, the product being the anſwer.

If the rate of intereſt be 2 per cent. the hundredth part is .02; if 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. .025; if 3 per cent. .03; if 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. .035, &c.

EXAMPLES.

What is the intereſt of 75 l. for one year, at 3 per cent.?

75
.03

2.25 Anſwer, 2 l. 5 s.

What is the intereſt of 157 l. 17 s. 6 d. at 5 per cent.?

157.875
.05

7.89375 Anſwer, 7 l. 17 s. 10 d. $\frac{1}{2}$

What is the intereſt of 3635 l. at 4 per cent.?

3635.
.04

145.40 Anſwer, 145 l. 8 s.

Thus the yearly intereſt of any ſum is found by one multiplication.

Daily intereſt is found, by dividing the annual intereſt by 365, the quotient being the anſwer.

Thus .05 being the intereſt of 1 pound for 1 year at 5 per cent. divided by 365, the quotient will be, .0001,3698,6301, &c. which is the intereſt of one pound for one day at the ſame rate.

The intereſt for one day being thus found, that intereſt multiplied by 2,3,4,5,6, &c. gives the intereſt of one pound for any number of days.

EXAMPLE, at the ſaid rate of 5 per cent.

The intereſt of 1 pound for 1 day, is	—	.0001,3699 *
Which mult. by 2. gives the int. for 2 days		.0002,7397
3.	— — — 3 —	.0004,1096 *
4.	— — — 4 —	.0005,4795 *
5.	— — — 5 —	.0006,8493
6.	— — — 6 —	.0008,2192 *
7.	— — — 7 —	.0009,5890
8.	— — — 8 —	.0010,9589
9.	— — — 9 —	.0012,3288 *
10.	— — — 10 —	.0013,6986
100.	— — — 100 —	.0136,9863, &c.

And thus the following table of ſimple intereſt is made.

Note, That in contracting a decimal fraction, from many to fewer places, it is proper to add one to the laſt figure retained, if the next figure omitted exceed 5. This is obſerved in all the following tables, as it is above, where marked *.

A TABLE of SIMPLE INTEREST.

The intereſt of one pound for any number of days, &c.

Days.	3 per cent	3 ½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4 ½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Days.
1	.0000,821	.0000,958	.0001,095	.0001,232	.0001,369	1
2	.0001,64	.0001,917	.0002,191	.0002,465	.0002,739	2
3	.0002,46	.0002,876	.0003,287	.0003,698	.0004,109	3
4	.0003,28	.0003,835	.0004,383	.0004,931	.0005,479	4
5	.0004,10	.0004,794	.0005,479	.0006,164	.0006,849	5
6	.0004,931	.0005,753	.0006,575	.0007,397	.0008,219	6
7	.0005,753	.0006,712	.0007,671	.0008,630	.0009,589	7
8	.0006,575	.0007,671	.0008,767	.0009,863	.0010,958	8
9	.0007,397	.0008,630	.0009,863	.0011,095	.0012,328	9
10	.0008,219	.0009,589	.0010,958	.0012,328	.0013,698	10
11	.0009,041	.0010,547	.0012,054	.0013,561	.0015,068	11
12	.0009,863	.0011,506	.0013,150	.0014,794	.0016,438	12
13	.0010,684	.0012,465	.0014,246	.0016,027	.0017,808	13
14	.0011,506	.0013,424	.0015,342	.0017,260	.0019,178	14
15	.0012,328	.0014,383	.0016,438	.0018,493	.0020,547	15
16	.0013,150	.0015,342	.0017,534	.0019,726	.0021,917	16
17	.0013,972	.0016,301	.0018,630	.0020,958	.0023,287	17
18	.0014,794	.0017,260	.0019,726	.0022,191	.0024,657	18
19	.0015,616	.0018,219	.0020,821	.0023,424	.0026,027	19
20	.0016,438	.0019,178	.0021,917	.0024,657	.0027,397	20
21	.0017,260	.0020,137	.0023,013	.0025,890	.0028,767	21
22	.0018,082	.0021,095	.0024,109	.0027,123	.0030,137	22
23	.0018,904	.0022,054	.0025,205	.0028,356	.0031,506	23
24	.0019,726	.0023,013	.0026,301	.0029,589	.0032,876	24
25	.0020,547	.0023,972	.0027,397	.0030,821	.0034,246	25
26	.0021,369	.0024,931	.0028,493	.0032,054	.0035,616	26
27	.0022,191	.0025,890	.0029,589	.0033,287	.0036,986	27
28	.0023,013	.0026,849	.0030,684	.0034,520	.0038,356	28
29	.0023,835	.0027,808	.0031,780	.0035,753	.0039,726	29
30	.0024,657	.0028,767	.0032,876	.0036,986	.0041,095	30
31	.0025,479	.0029,726	.0033,972	.0038,219	.0042,465	31
32	.0026,301	.0030,684	.0035,068	.0039,452	.0043,835	32
33	.0027,123	.0031,643	.0036,164	.0040,684	.0045,205	33
34	.0027,945	.0032,602	.0037,260	.0041,917	.0046,575	34
35	.0028,767	.0033,561	.0038,356	.0043,150	.0047,945	35
36	.0029,589	.0034,520	.0039,452	.0044,383	.0049,315	36
37	.0030,411	.0035,479	.0040,547	.0045,616	.0050,684	37
38	.0031,232	.0036,438	.0041,643	.0046,849	.0052,054	38
39	.0032,054	.0037,397	.0042,739	.0048,082	.0053,424	39
40	.0032,876	.0038,356	.0043,835	.0049,315	.0054,794	40
41	.0033,698	.0039,315	.0044,931	.0050,547	.0056,164	41
42	.0034,520	.0040,274	.0046,027	.0051,780	.0057,534	42
43	.0035,342	.0041,232	.0047,123	.0053,013	.0058,904	43
44	.0036,164	.0042,191	.0048,219	.0054,246	.0060,274	44
45	.0036,986	.0043,150	.0049,315	.0055,479	.0061,643	45
46	.0037,808	.0044,109	.0050,411	.0056,712	.0063,013	46
47	.0038,630	.0045,068	.0051,506	.0057,945	.0064,383	47
48	.0039,452	.0046,027	.0052,602	.0059,178	.0065,753	48
49	.0040,274	.0046,986	.0053,698	.0060,411	.0067,123	49
50	.0041,095	.0047,945	.0054,794	.0061,643	.0068,493	50
51	.0041,917	.0048,904	.0055,890	.0062,876	.0069,863	51
52	.0042,739	.0049,863	.0056,986	.0064,109	.0071,232	52
53	.0043,561	.0050,821	.0058,082	.0065,342	.0072,602	53
54	.0044,383	.0051,780	.0059,178	.0066,575	.0073,972	54
55	.0045,205	.0052,739	.0060,274	.0067,808	.0075,342	55
56	.0046,027	.0053,698	.0061,369	.0069,041	.0076,712	56
57	.0046,849	.0054,657	.0062,465	.0070,274	.0078,082	57
58	.0047,671	.0055,616	.0063,561	.0071,506	.0079,452	58
59	.0048,493	.0056,575	.0064,657	.0072,739	.0080,821	59
60	.0049,315	.0057,534	.0065,753	.0073,972	.0082,191	60
61	.0050,137	.0058,493	.0066,849	.0075,205	.0083,561	61
62	.0050,958	.0059,452	.0067,945	.0076,438	.0084,931	62
63	.0051,780	.0060,411	.0069,041	.0077,671	.0086,301	63
64	.0052,602	.0061,369	.0070,137	.0078,904	.0087,671	64
65	.0053,424	.0062,328	.0071,232	.0080,137	.0089,041	65
66	.0054,246	.0063,287	.0072,328	.0081,369	.0090,411	66
67	.0055,068	.0064,246	.0073,424	.0082,602	.0091,780	67
68	.0055,890	.0065,205	.0074,520	.0083,835	.0093,150	68
69	.0056,712	.0066,164	.0075,616	.0085,068	.0094,520	69
70	.0057,534	.0067,123	.0076,712	.0086,301	.0095,890	70
71	.0058,356	.0068,082	.0077,808	.0087,534	.0097,260	71
72	.0059,178	.0069,041	.0078,904	.0088,767	.0098,630	72
73	.0060,000	.0070,000	.0080,000	.0090,000	.0100,000	73
74	.0060,821	.0070,958	.0081,095	.0091,232	.0101,369	74
75	.0061,643	.0071,917	.0082,191	.0092,465	.0102,739	75
76	.0062,465	.0072,876	.0083,287	.0093,698	.0104,109	76
77	.0063,287	.0073,835	.0084,383	.0094,931	.0105,479	77
78	.0064,109	.0074,794	.0085,479	.0096,164	.0106,849	78
79	.0064,931	.0075,753	.0086,575	.0097,397	.0108,219	79
80	.0065,753	.0076,712	.0087,671	.0098,630	.0109,589	80
81	.0066,575	.0077,671	.0088,767	.0099,863	.0110,958	81
82	.0067,397	.0078,630	.0089,863	.0101,095	.0112,328	82
83	.0068,219	.0079,589	.0090,958	.0102,328	.0113,698	83
84	.0069,041	.0080,547	.0092,054	.0103,561	.0115,068	84
85	.0069,863	.0081,506	.0093,150	.0104,794	.0116,438	85
86	.0070,684	.0082,465	.0094,246	.0106,027	.0117,808	86
87	.0071,506	.0083,424	.0095,342	.0107,260	.0119,178	87
88	.0072,328	.0084,383	.0096,438	.0108,493	.0120,547	88
89	.0073,150	.0085,342	.0097,534	.0109,726	.0121,917	89
90	.0073,972	.0086,301	.0098,630	.0110,958	.0123,287	90
91	.0074,794	.0087,260	.0099,726	.0112,191	.0124,657	91
92	.0075,616	.0088,219	.0100,821	.0113,424	.0126,027	92
93	.0076,438	.0089,178	.0101,917	.0114,657	.0127,397	93
94	.0077,260	.0090,137	.0103,013	.0115,890	.0128,767	94
95	.0078,082	.0091,095	.0104,109	.0117,123	.0130,137	95
96	.0078,904	.0092,054	.0105,205	.0118,356	.0131,506	96
97	.0079,726	.0093,013	.0106,301	.0119,589	.0132,876	97
98	.0080,547	.0093,972	.0107,397	.0120,821	.0134,246	98
99	.0081,369	.0094,931	.0108,493	.0122,054	.0135,616	99
100	.0082,191	.0095,890	.0109,589	.0123,287	.0136,986	100

A TABLE of SIMPLE INTEREST.

The intereſt of one pound for a number of years.

Years.	At 3 per cent.	3 ½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4 ½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Years.
1	.03	.035	.04	.045	.05	1
2	.06	.07	.08	.09	.1	2
3	.09	.105	.12	.135	.15	3
4	.12	.14	.16	.18	.2	4
5	.15	.175	.2	.225	.25	5
6	.18	.21	.24	.27	.3	6
7	.21	.245	.28	.315	.35	7
8	.24	.28	.32	.36	.4	8
9	.27	.315	.36	.405	.45	9
10	.3	.35	.4	.45	.5	10
11	.33	.385	.44	.495	.55	11
12	.36	.42	.48	.54	.6	12
13	.39	.455	.52	.585	.65	13
14	.42	.49	.56	.63	.7	14
15	.45	.525	.6	.675	.75	15
16	.48	.56	.64	.72	.8	16
17	.51	.595	.68	.765	.85	17
18	.54	.63	.72	.81	.9	18
19	.57	.665	.76	.855	.95	19
20	.6	.7	.8	.9	1.	20
21	.63	.735	.84	.945	1.05	21
22	.66	.77	.88	.99	1.1	22
23	.69	.805	.92	1.035	1.15	23
24	.72	.84	.96	1.08	1.2	24
25	.75	.875	1.	1.125	1.25	25

The Use of the preceding Table.

When the intereſt of any ſum of money is required for any number of days, look in the tables for the number of days, and even with that number, under the given rate of intereſt, will be found the intereſt of one pound, for that time, and at that rate; which intereſt, ſo found, being multiplied by the principal ſum, the product anſwers the queſtion.

Example.

What is the intereſt of 462 l. for 85 days, at 5 per cent. per annum?

In the table, even with 85 days, and under 5 per cent. you find the intereſt of 1 l. to be — .0116,438

Which multiplied by the principal 462, the product will be l. 5 : 7 : 7.

N. B. If the principal ſums contains ſhillings and pence, you muſt reduce them into decimal parts.—[See Arithmetic,] and multiply accordingly.

When the intereſt of any ſum is required for a number of years and days together, as it frequently happens upon paying off a bond or mortgage, add the intereſt of one pound for the years at the end of the foregoing tables, to the intereſt of one pound for the odd days; multiply that by the principal ſum, and the product will anſwer the queſtion.

For the method of calculating annuities, ſee Annuities.

Compound Intereſt is that which ariſes from any principal ſum, and it's intereſt added together, as the intereſt becomes due; ſo that at every payment, or at the time when the payment becomes due, there is created a new principal, and for that reaſon it is called intereſt upon intereſt, or compound intereſt.

And, although it be not lawful to let out money at compound intereſt, yet in purchaſing annuities or penſions, &c. and taking leaſes in reverſion, it is very uſual to allow compound intereſt to the purchaſer for his ready money, and therefore it is requiſite to underſtand it.

In order, therefore, to raiſe the theorems algebraically, which are neceſſary in all caſes relating to compound intereſt,

Let $\left\{\begin{array}{l} P = \text{the principal put to intereſt,} \\ t = \text{the time of it's continuance,} \\ A = \text{the amount of the princ. and inter.} \end{array}\right\}$ as in the caſe of ſimp. int.

R { the amount of 1 l. and it's intereſt for 1 year, at any given rate.

viz. 100 : 105 :: 1 : 1.05, the amount of 1 l. at 5 per cent. and ſo for any other aſſigned rate of intereſt.

Then if R = the amount of 1 l. for one year, at any rate.

RR = the amount of 1 l. for two years.

RRR = the amount of 1 l. for three years.

R^4 = the amount of 1 l. for four years.

R^5 = the amount of 1 l. for five years.—Here $t = 5$.

For $1 : R :: R : RR : R :: RR : RRR :: RRR : R^4 :: R^5 : R^6$: &c. in $\div$.

That is, to read the ſame verbally, as one pound : is to the amount of one pound, at one year's end :: ſo is that amount : to the amount of one pound at two years end, &c.

Whence it is plain, that compound intereſt is grounded upon a ſeries of geometrical proportions continued; wherein t (viz. the number of years) always aſſigns the index of the laſt and higheſt term of the ſeries, viz. the power of R, which is R^t.

Again, as $1 : R^t :: P : RRt = A$ the amount of P for the time, that R^t = the amount of 1 l.

That is, as one pound : is to the amount of one pound for any given time :: ſo is any propoſed principal ſum to it's amount for the ſame time.

Hence the reaſon of the following theorem will be very eaſily underſtood by a tolerable algebraiſt.

Theorem

Theorem (1.) $R\,R\,t = A$, as above.
Whence the following theorems are easily deduced.

$\because$ Theorem (2.) $\frac{A}{R\,t} = P$. $\because$ Theorem (3.) $\frac{A}{P} = R\,t$.

By these three theorems, some of the principal questions, about compound interest, may be truly resolved by the pen only, without tables, though not so readily as by the help of tables calculated on purpose.
But all the variety of cases in compound interest, if for any considerable number of years, being answered with great difficulty, by those who are strangers to algebra and the use of logarithms, by reason of the continued multiplications or divisions, which in many respects must be performed: therefore, the following tables will answer all questions relating to compound interest, provided the rate of interest, either given or sought for, be any of the several rates mentioned at the head of the tables, and the time given, or sought, be any of those times for which the tables are made.

Of the construction of these tables.

The first table shews the amount of one pound in any number of years, &c. and is made by the continued multiplication of the amount in half a year, and in one year by 1.03, if 3 per cent. by 1.05, if 5 per cent, &c.

EXAMPLE at 5 per cent.

The amount of 1 l. in		Multiplied by 1.05, the amount will be,		At the end of
$\frac{1}{2}$ year	1.0246,9508		1.0759,2983	$1\frac{1}{2}$ year
1 - -	1.05		1.1025	2 - -
$1\frac{1}{2}$ - -	1.0759,2983		1.1297,2632	$2\frac{1}{2}$ - -
2 - -	1.1025		1.1576,25	3 - -
$2\frac{1}{2}$ - -	1.1297,2632		1.1862,1264	$3\frac{1}{2}$ - -
3 - -	1.1576,25		1.2155,0625	4 - -
$3\frac{1}{2}$ - -	1.1862,1264		1.2455,2327	$4\frac{1}{2}$ - -
4 - -	1.2155,0625		1.2762,8156	5, &c.

Note, The amount of one pound, in half a year, is known by extracting the square root of the amount of one pound in one year, at a given rate; which root, when found, will be the amount in half a year at the same rate: so, in the foregoing example, the square root of 1.05 is found to be 1.0246,9508, and is the amount of one pound in half a year at 5 per cent.

1.0246,9508 the amount in $\frac{1}{2}$ a year.
Being multiplied by 1.0246,9508

The product will be 1.0500,0000 the amount in 1 year.
Which multiplied by 1.0246,9508

The product will be 1.0759,2983 the amount in $\frac{1}{2}$ year.
Which multiplied by 1.0246,9508

The product will be 1.1025,0000 the amount in 2 years, &c.
This is another way of constructing the first table.

REMARKS.

It may not be improper here to observe, That as compound interest, as before intimated, is a series of geometrical proportions, and the ratio given being always so much per cent. per ann. the interest or amount, therefore, of any sum of money, for any time less than a year, will not come to so much at compound, as it doth at simple interest. For,
If l. 100. at compound interest were to amount to l. 102 : 10 in half a year, then the ratio would not be at 5 per cent. but

at l. 5 : 1 : 3 per cent. per ann. and, if l. 100 were to amount to l. 101 : 5 in a quarter of a year, then the ratio would be very near l. 5 : 1 : 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. per ann.
The second table shews the present value of one pound, &c. and may be made after this manner. Find the amount of one pound in the first table, at any given rate, and for any given time; then divide unity by the amount so found, and the quotient will be the present value of one pound, at the same rate, for the same time.

EXAMPLE at 5 per cent.

Unity, or 1. divided by the several amounts in the first table, viz. by —	The quotient will be		$\frac{1}{2}$ a year
1.0246,9508		·9759,0007	$\frac{1}{2}$ a year
1.05		·9523,8095	1 - -
1.0759,2983		·9294,2864	$1\frac{1}{2}$ - -
1.1025,		·9070,2948	2 - -
1.1297,2632		·8851,7013	$2\frac{1}{2}$ - -
1.1576,25		·8638,3760	3 - -
1.1862,1264		·8430,1918	$3\frac{1}{2}$ - -
1.2155,0625		·8227,0247	4 - -
1.2455,2327		·8028,7540	$4\frac{1}{2}$ - -
1.2762,8156		·7835,2616	5 - -

The third table shews the amount of one pound per annum, &c. and is easily made from the first table, thus: to 1 l. being the first year of the third table, add the first year of the first table, the amount will be the second year of the third table; to which add the second year of the first table, the amount will be the third year of the third table, &c.
The fourth table shews the present value of one pound per annum, &c. and is easily made from the second, thus,
The present value of the first year, in the second table, is the same in the fourth table; the first and second years in the second table, added together, make the second year in the fourth table; and the third year in the second table, added to the second year in the fourth table, make the third year in the fourth, &c.
The fifth table shews the annuity which one pound will purchase, &c. and is made in this manner. Find the present value of one pound per ann. in the fourth table, at any given rate, and for any given time; then divide unity by the present value so found, and the quotient will be the annuity which one pound will purchase at the same rate, for the same time.

REMARKS.

The reader is desired to take notice, that principal and present value are synonymous terms; and, therefore, by present value in the second table, is to be understood a certain principal sum, of which one pound is the amount, at the rate, and in the time given; and that by present value in the fourth table, is to be understood such a principal sum as will purchase an annuity of one pound per ann. at the rate, and for the time given.
Although these tables seem to be calculated only to answer such cases as relate to sterling money, yet they are of equal use in calculations respecting any other species of money whatever; and, therefore, if a question is put, to know the amount, present value, &c. of any principal sum, or of any annuity in crowns, guilders, florins, livres, &c. the answer will be the same as if the question had been put in pounds sterling; observing only that the fraction, if any, will not be the decimal part of a pound, but the decimal part of that particular species mentioned in the question.

The FIRST TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The amount of one pound in any number of years, &c.

Years.	3 per cent.	3 ½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4 ½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Years.
½	1.0148,891	1.0173,495	1.0198,039	1.0222,524	1.0246,950	½
1	1.0300,000	1.0350,000	1.0400,000	1.0450,000	1.0500,000	1
1½	1.0453,358	1.0529,567	1.0605,960	1.0682,537	1.0759,298	1½
2	1.0609,000	1.0712,250	1.1816,000	1.0920,250	1.1025,000	2
2½	1.0766,959	1.0898,102	1.1030,199	1.1163,251	1.1297,263	2½
3	1.0927,270	1.1087,178	1.1248,640	1.1411,661	1.1576,250	3
3½	1.1089,967	1.1279,535	1.1471,407	1.1665,598	1.1862,126	3½
4	1.1255,088	1.1475,230	1.1698,585	1.1925,186	1.2155,062	4
4½	1.1422,666	1.1674,319	1.1930,263	1.2190,550	1.2455,232	4½
5	1.1592,740	1.1876,863	1.2166,529	1.2461,819	1.2762,815	5
5½	1.1765,346	1.2082,920	1.2407,473	1.2739,125	1.3077,994	5½
6	1.1940,523	1.2292,553	1.2653,190	1.3022,601	1.3400,956	6
6½	1.2118,307	1.2505,822	1.2903,772	1.3312,385	1.3731,894	6½
7	1.2298,738	1.2722,792	1.3159,317	1.3608,618	1.4071,004	7
7½	1.2481,856	1.2943,526	1.3419,923	1.3911,442	1.4418,488	7½
8	1.2667,700	1.3168,090	1.3685,690	1.4221,006	1.4774,554	8
8½	1.2856,312	1.3396,550	1.3956,720	1.4537,457	1.5139,413	8½
9	1.3047,731	1.3628,973	1.4233,118	1.4860,951	1.5513,282	9
9½	1.3242,001	1.3865,429	1.4514,989	1.5191,643	1.5896,383	9½
10	1.3439,163	1.4105,987	1.4802,442	1.5529,694	1.6288,946	10
10½	1.3639,261	1.4350,719	1.5095,589	1.5875,267	1.6691,203	10½
11	1.3842,338	1.4599,697	1.5394,540	1.6228,530	1.7103,393	11
11½	1.4048,439	1.4852,994	1.5699,412	1.6589,654	1.7525,763	11½
12	1.4257,608	1.5110,686	1.6010,322	1.6958,814	1.7958,563	12
12½	1.4469,892	1.5372,849	1.6327,389	1.7336,188	1.8402,051	12½
13	1.4685,337	1.5639,560	1.6650,735	1.7721,961	1.8856,491	13
13½	1.4903,989	1.5910,899	1.6980,484	1.8116,317	1.9322,153	13½
14	1.5125,897	1.6186,945	1.7316,764	1.8519,449	1.9799,316	14
14½	1.5351,109	1.6467,780	1.7659,704	1.8931,551	2.0288,261	14½
15	1.5579,674	1.6753,488	1.8009,435	1.9352,824	2.0789,281	15
15½	1.5811,642	1.7044,152	1.8366,092	1.9783,471	2.1302,674	15½
16	1.6047,064	1.7339,860	1.8729,812	2.0223,751	2.1828,745	16
16½	1.6285,991	1.7640,698	1.9100,735	2.0673,727	2.2367,808	16½
17	1.6528,476	1.7946,755	1.9479,005	2.1133,768	2.2920,183	17
17½	1.6774,571	1.8258,122	1.9864,765	2.1604,045	2.3486,198	17½
18	1.7024,330	1.8574,892	2.0258,165	2.2084,787	2.4066,192	18
18½	1.7277,808	1.8897,157	2.0659,355	2.2576,227	2.4660,508	18½
19	1.7535,060	1.9225,013	2.1068,491	2.3078,603	2.5269,502	19
19½	1.7796,142	1.9558,557	2.1485,730	2.3592,157	2.5893,534	19½
20	1.8061,112	1.9897,888	2.1911,231	2.4117,140	2.6532,977	20
20½	1.8330,027	2.0243,107	2.2345,159	2.4653,804	2.7188,211	20½
21	1.8602,945	2.0594,314	2.2787,680	2.5202,411	2.7859,625	21
21½	1.8879,927	2.0951,615	2.3238,965	2.5763,226	2.8547,621	21½
22	1.9161,034	2.1315,115	2.3699,187	2.6336,520	2.9252,607	22
22½	1.9446,325	2.1684,922	2.4168,524	2.6922,571	2.9975,002	22½
23	1.9735,865	2.2061,144	2.4647,155	2.7521,663	3.0715,237	23
23½	2.0029,715	2.2443,894	2.5135,265	2.8134,087	3.1473,752	23½
24	2.0327,941	2.2833,284	2.5633,041	2.8760,138	3.2250,999	24
24½	2.0630,607	2.3229,430	2.6140,675	2.9400,120	3.3047,440	24½
25	2.0937,779	2.3632,449	2.6658,363	3.0054,344	3.3863,549	25
25½	2.1249,525	2.4042,461	2.7186,303	3.0723,126	3.4699,812	25½
26	2.1565,912	2.4459,585	2.7724,697	3.1406,790	3.5556,726	26
26½	2.1887,010	2.4883,947	2.8273,755	3.2105,667	3.6434,803	26½
27	2.2212,890	2.5315,671	2.8833,685	3.2820,095	3.7334,563	27
27½	2.2543,621	2.5754,885	2.9404,705	3.3550,422	3.8256,543	27½
28	2.2879,276	2.6201,719	2.9987,033	3.4296,999	3.9201,291	28
28½	2.3219,929	2.6656,306	3.0580,893	3.5060,191	4.0169,370	28½
29	2.3565,655	2.7118,779	3.1186,514	3.5840,364	4.1161,356	29
29½	2.3916,527	2.7589,277	3.1804,129	3.6637,899	4.2177,838	29½
30	2.4272,624	2.8067,937	3.2433,975	3.7453,181	4.3219,423	30
30½	2.4634,023	2.8554,901	3.3076,294	3.8286,605	4.4286,730	30½
31	2.5000,803	2.9050,314	3.3731,334	3.9138,574	4.5380,394	31
31½	2.5373,044	2.9554,323	3.4399,346	4.0009,502	4.6501,067	31½
32	2.5750,827	3.0067,075	3.5080,587	4.0899,810	4.7649,414	32
32½	2.6134,235	3.0588,724	3.5775,320	4.1809,930	4.8826,120	32½
33	2.6523,352	3.1119,423	3.6483,811	4.2740,301	5.0031,885	33
33½	2.6918,262	3.1659,329	3.7206,332	4.3691,376	5.1267,426	33½
34	2.7319,053	3.2208,603	3.7943,163	4.4663,615	5.2533,479	34
34½	2.7725,810	3.2767,406	3.8694,586	4.5657,488	5.3830,798	34½
35	2.8138,624	3.3335,904	3.9460,889	4.6673,478	5.5160,153	35
35½	2.8557,584	3.3914,265	4.0242,369	4.7712,075	5.6522,337	35½
36	2.8982,783	3.4502,661	4.1039,325	4.8773,784	5.7918,161	36
36½	2.9414,312	3.5101,265	4.1852,064	4.9859,119	5.9348,454	36½
37	2.9852,266	3.5710,254	4.2680,898	5.0968,604	6.0814,069	37
37½	3.0296,741	3.6329,809	4.3526,146	5.2102,779	6.2315,877	37½
38	3.0747,834	3.6960,113	4.4388,134	5.3262,192	6.3854,772	38
38½	3.1205,644	3.7601,352	4.5267,192	5.4447,404	6.5431,671	38½
39	3.1670,269	3.8253,717	4.6163,659	5.5658,990	6.7047,511	39
39½	3.2141,813	3.8917,399	4.7077,880	5.6897,537	6.8703,255	39½
40	3.2620,377	3.9592,597	4.8010,206	5.8163,645	7.0399,887	40
40½	3.3106,067	4.0279,508	4.8960,995	5.9457,927	7.2138,417	40½
41	3.3598,989	4.0978,338	4.9930,614	6.0781,009	7.3919,881	41
41½	3.4099,249	4.1689,291	5.0919,435	6.2133,533	7.5745,338	41½
42	3.4606,958	4.2412,579	5.1927,839	6.3516,154	7.7615,875	42
42½	3.5122,227	4.3148,416	5.2956,213	6.4929,542	7.9532,605	42½
43	3.5645,167	4.3897,020	5.4004,952	6.6374,381	8.1496,669	43
43½	3.6175,894	4.4658,611	5.5074,461	6.7851,372	8.3509,235	43½
44	3.6714,522	4.5433,416	5.6165,150	6.9361,229	8.5571,502	44
44½	3.7261,171	4.6221,662	5.7277,440	7.0904,683	8.7684,697	44½
45	3.7815,958	4.7023,585	5.8411,756	7.2482,484	8.9850,077	45
45½	3.8379,006	4.7839,421	5.9568,537	7.4095,394	9.2068,932	45½
46	3.8950,437	4.8669,411	6.0748,227	7.5744,196	9.4342,581	46
46½	3.9530,376	4.9513,800	6.1951,279	7.7429,687	9.6672,379	46½
47	4.0118,950	5.0372,840	6.3178,156	7.9152,684	9.9059,710	47
47½	4.0716,287	5.1246,783	6.4429,330	8.0914,023	10.1505,998	47½
48	4.1322,518	5.2135,889	6.5705,282	8.2714,555	10.4012,696	48
48½	4.1937,776	5.3040,421	6.7006,503	8.4555,154	10.6581,298	48½
49	4.2562,194	5.3960,645	6.8333,493	8.6436,710	10.9213,331	49
49½	4.3195,909	5.4896,836	6.9686,763	8.8360,136	11.1910,362	49½
50	4.3839,060	5.5849,268	7.1066,833	9.0326,362	11.4673,997	50

INT

The SECOND TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The present value of 1l. payable at the end of any number of years, &c.

Years.	3 per cent.	3 ½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4 ½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Years.
½	.9853,292	.9829,463	.9805,806	.9782,319	.9759,000	½
1	.9708.737	.9661,835	.9615,384	.9569,378	.9523,809	1
1½	.9566,303	.9497,066	.9428,660	.9361,071	.9294,286	1½
2	.9425,959	.9335,107	.9245,562	.9157,299	.9070,294	2
2½	.9287,673	.9175,909	.9066,019	.8957,963	.8851,701	2½
3	.9151,416	.9019,427	.8889,963	.8762,966	.8638,376	3
3½	.9017,158	.8865,631	.8717,326	.8572,213	.8430,191	3½
4	.8884,870	.8714,422	.8548,041	.8385,613	.8227,024	4
4½	.8754,523	.8565,809	.8382,044	.8203,075	.8028,754	4½
5	.8626,087	.8419,731	.8219,271	.8024,510	.7835,261	5
5½	.8499,536	.8276,144	.8059,658	.7849,832	.7646,432	5½
6	.8374,842	.8135,006	.7903,145	.7678,957	.7462,154	6
6½	.8251,977	.7996,275	.7749,671	.7511,801	.7282,316	6½
7	.8130,915	.7859,909	.7599,178	.7348,284	.7106,813	7
7½	.8011,628	.7725,869	.7451,607	.7188,326	.6935,539	7½
8	.7894,092	.7594,115	.7306,902	.7031,851	.6768,393	8
8½	.7778,280	.7464,608	.7165,007	.6878,781	.6605,275	8½
9	.7664,167	.7337,309	.7025,867	.6729,044	.6446,089	9
9½	.7551,728	.7212,182	.6889,429	.6582,566	.6290,738	9½
10	.7440,939	.7089,188	.6755,641	.6439,276	.6139,132	10
10½	.7331,775	.6968,291	.6624,451	.6299,106	.5991,179	10½
11	.7224,212	.6849,457	.6495,809	.6161,987	.5846,792	11
11½	.7118,228	.6732,649	.6369,665	.6027,853	.5705,885	11½
12	.7013,798	.6617,883	.6245,970	.5896,638	.5568,374	12
12½	.6910,901	.6504,974	.6124,678	.5768,280	.5434,176	12½
13	.6809,513	.6394,041	.6005,740	.5642,716	.5303,213	13
13½	.6709,612	.6284,999	.5889,113	.5519,885	.5175,406	13½
14	.6611,178	.6177,817	.5774,750	.5399,728	.5050,679	14
14½	.6514,187	.6072,463	.5662,609	.5282,187	.4928,958	14½
15	.6418,619	.5968,906	.5552,645	.5167,204	.4810,171	15
15½	.6324,453	.5867,114	.5444,816	.5054,724	.4694,246	15½
16	.6231,669	.5767,059	.5339,081	.4944,693	.4581,115	16
16½	.6140,246	.5668,709	.5235,400	.4837,057	.4470,710	16½
17	.6050,164	.5572,037	.5133,732	.4731,763	.4362,966	17
17½	.5961,404	.5477,014	.5034,038	.4628,762	.4257,819	17½
18	.5873,946	.5833,611	.4936,281	.4528,003	.4155,206	18
18½	.5787,771	.5291,801	.4840,422	.4429,438	.4055,066	18½
19	.5702,860	.5201,556	.4746,424	.4333,017	.3957,339	19
19½	.5619,195	.5112,851	.4654,251	.4238,696	.3861,968	19½
20	.5536,757	.5025.658	.4563,869	.4146,428	.3768,894	20
20½	.5455,529	.4939,953	.4475,242	.4056,169	.3678,064	20½
21	.5375,492	.4855,709	.4388,336	.3967,874	.3589,423	21
21½	.5296,630	.4772,901	.4303,117	.3881,501	.3502,918	21½
22	.5218,925	.4691,506	.4219,553	.3797,008	.3418,498	22
22½	.5142,359	.4611,499	.4137,613	.3714,355	.3336,113	22½
23	.5066,917	.4532,856	.4057,263	.3633,501	.3255,713	23
23½	.4992,582	.4455,554	.3978,474	.3554,407	.3177,250	23½
24	.4919,337	.4379,571	.3901,214	.3477,034	.3100,679	24
24½	.4847,167	.4304,883	.3825,455	.3401,346	.3025,953	24½
25	.4776,055	.4231,469	.3751,168	.3327,306	.3953,027	25
25½	.4705,987	.4159,308	.3678,322	.3254,877	.2881,860	25½
26	.4636,947	.4088,376	.3606,892	.3184,024	.2812,407	26
26½	.4568,919	.4018,655	.3536,848	.3114,714	.2744,628	26½
27	.4501,890	.3950,122	.3468,165	.3046,913	.2678,483	27
27½	.4435,844	.3882,758	.3400,816	.2980,588	.2613,031	27½
28	.4370,767	.3816,543	.3334,774	.2915,706	.2550,936	28
28½	.4306,645	.3751,457	.3270,015	.2852,237	.2489,459	28½
29	.4243,463	.3687,481	.3206,514	.2790,150	.2429,463	29
29½	.4181,209	.3624,596	.3144,245	.2729,414	.2370,913	29½
30	.4119.867	.3562,784	.3083,186	.2670,000	.2313,774	30
30½	.4059,426	.3502,025	.3023,313	.2611,879	.2258,012	30½
31	.3999,871	.3442,303	.2964,602	.2555,024	.2203,594	31
31½	.3941,190	.3383,599	.2907,032	.2499,406	.2150,488	31½
32	.3883,370	.3325,897	.2850,579	.2444,999	.2098,661	32
32½	.3826,398	.3269,178	.2795,223	.2391,776	.2048,084	32½
33	.3770,262	.3213,427	.2740,941	.2339,712	.1998,725	33
33½	.3714,950	.3158,626	.2687,714	.2288,781	.1950,556	33½
34	.3660,449	.3104,760	.2635,520	.2238,958	.1903,548	34
34½	.3606,747	.3051,813	.2584,340	.2190,221	.1857,672	34½
35	.3553,834	.2999,768	.2534,154	.2142,544	.1812,902	35
35½	.3501,696	.2948,611	.2484,943	.2095,905	.1769,212	35½
36	.3450,324	.2898,327	.2436,687	.2050,281	.1726,574	36
36½	.3399,705	.2848,900	.2389,368	.2005,651	.1684,963	36½
37	.3349,829	.2800,316	.2342,968	.1961,992	.1644,356	37
37½	.3300,685	.2752,560	.2297,469	.1919,283	.1604,727	37½
38	.3252,261	.2705,619	.2252,854	.1877,504	.1566,053	38
38½	.3204,548	.2659,478	.2209,105	.1836,634	.1528,311	38½
39	.3157,535	.2614,125	.2166,206	.1796,654	.1491,479	39
39½	.3111,212	.2569,544	.2124,139	.1757,545	.1455,535	39½
40	.3065,568	.2525,724	.2082,890	.1719,287	.1420,456	40
40½	.3020,594	.2482,651	.2042,442	.1681,861	.1386,223	40½
41	.2976,280	.2440,313	.2002,779	.1645,250	.1352,816	41
41½	.2932,615	.2398,697	.1963,886	.1609,436	.1320,213	41½
42	.2889,592	.2357,791	.1925,749	.1574,402	.1288,396	42
42½	.2847,199	.2317,582	.1888,352	.1540,131	.1257,346	42½
43	.2805,429	.2278,059	.1851,682	.1506,605	.1227,044	43
43½	.2764,271	.2239,209	.1815,723	.1473,809	.1197,472	43½
44	.2723,717	.2201,023	.1780,463	.1441,727	.1168,613	44
44½	.2683,758	.2163,487	.1745,888	.1410,344	.1140,449	44½
45	.2644,386	.2126,592	.1711,984	.1379,643	.1112,965	45
45½	.2605,591	.2090,326	.1678,738	.1349,611	.1086,142	45½
46	.2567,365	.2054,678	.1646,138	.1320,233	.1059,966	46
46½	.2529,700	.2019,638	.1614,171	.1291,494	.1034,421	46½
47	.2492,587	.1985,196	.1582,825	.1263,381	.1009,492	47
47½	.2456,019	.1951,342	.1552,088	.1235,879	.0985,163	47½
48	.2419,988	.1918,064	.1521,947	.1208.977	.0961,521	48
48½	.2384,485	.1885,354	.1492,392	.1182,660	.0938,250	48½
49	.2349,502	.1853,202	.1463,411	.1156,915	.0915,639	49
49½	.2315,034	.1821,598	.1434,992	.1131,732	.0893,572	49½
50	.2281,070	.1790,335	.1407,126	.1107,096	.0872,037	50

The THIRD TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The amount of one pound per annum in any number of years, &c.

Years.	3 per cent.	3 ½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4 ½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Years.
½	.4963,052	.4956,999	.4950,975	.4944,981	.4939,015	½
1	1.0000,000	1.0000,000	1.0000,000	1.0000,000	1.0000,000	1
1½	1.5111,943	1.5130,494	1.5149,014	1.5167,505	1.5185,966	1½
2	2.0300,000	2.0350,000	2.0500,000	2.0450,000	2.0500,000	2
2½	2.5565,302	2.5660,061	2.5754,975	2.5850,043	2.5945,264	2½
3	3.0909,000	3.1062,250	3.1216,000	3.1370,250	3.1525,000	3
3½	3.6332,261	3.6558,163	3.6785,174	3.7013,295	3.7242,527	3½
4	4.1836,270	4.2149,428	4.2464,640	4.2781,911	4.3101,250	4
4½	4.7422,229	4.7837,699	4.8256,581	4.8678,893	4.9104,654	4½
5	5.3091,358	5.3624,658	5.4163,225	5.4707,097	5.5256,312	5
5½	5.8844,896	5.9512,019	6.0186,844	6.0869,443	6.1559,886	5½
6	6.4684,098	6.5501,521	6.6329,754	6.7168,916	6.8019,128	6
6½	7.0610,242	7.1594,939	7.2594,318	7.3608,568	7.4637,881	6½
7	7.6624,621	7.7794,075	7.8982,944	8.0191,517	8.1420,084	7
7½	8.6728,550	8.4100,762	8.5498,091	8.6920,954	8.8369,775	7½
8	8.8923,360	9.0516,867	9.2142,262	9.3800,136	9.5491,088	8
8½	9.5210,406	9 7044,289	9.8918,014	10.0832,397	10.2788,263	8½
9	10.1591,061	10.3684,958	10.5827,953	10.8021,142	11.0265,643	9
9½	10.8066,718	11.0440,839	11.2874,735	11.5369,855	11.7927,677	9½
10	11.4638,793	11.7313,931	12.0061,071	12.2882,093	12.5778,925	10
10½	12.1308,720	12.4306,268	12.7389,724	13.0561,498	13.3824,061	10½
11	12.8077,956	13.1419,919	13.4863,514	13.8411,787	14.2067,871	11
11½	13.4947,982	13.8656,988	14.2485,313	14.6436,765	15.0515,264	11½
12	14.1920,295	14.6019,616	15.0258,054	15.4640,318	15.9171,265	12
12½	14.8996,421	15.3509,982	15.8184,726	16.3026,420	16.8041,027	12½
13	15.6177,904	16.1130,303	16.6268,376	17.1599,132	17.7129,828	13
13½	16.3466,314	16.8882,832	17.4512,115	18.0362,609	18.6443,078	13½
14	17.0863,241	17.6769,863	18.2919,111	18.9321,093	19.5986,319	14
14½	17.8370,303	18.4793,731	19.1492,600	19.8478,926	20.5765,232	14½
15	18.5989,138	19.2956,808	20.0235,876	20.7840,542	21.5785,635	15
15½	19.3721,412	20.1261,512	20.9152,304	21.7410,478	22.6053,494	15½
16	20.1568,813	20.9710,297	21.8245,311	22.7193,367	23.6574,917	16
16½	20.9533,055	21.8305,664	22.7518,396	23.7193,950	24.7356,168	16½
17	21.7615,877	22.7050,157	23.6975,123	24.7417,068	25.8403,663	17
17½	22.5819,046	23.5946,363	24.6619,132	25.7867,677	26.9723,977	17½
18	23.4144,353	24.4996,913	25.6454,128	26.8550,837	28.1323,846	18
18½	24.2593,618	25.4204,485	26.6483,897	27.9471,723	29.3210,176	18½
19	25.1168,684	26.3571,805	27.6712,294	29.0635,624	30.5390,039	19
19½	25.9871,426	27.3101,642	28.7143,253	30.2047,950	31.7870,685	19½
20	26.8703,744	28.2796,818	29.7780,785	31.3714,227	33.0659,541	20
20½	27.7667,569	29.2660,200	30.8628,983	32.5640,108	34.3764,219	20½
21	28.6764,857	30.2694,706	31.9692,017	33.7831,368	35.7192,518	21
21½	29.5997,596	31.2903,307	33.0974,142	35.0293,913	37.0952,430	21½
22	30.5367,803	32.3289,021	34.2479,697	36.3033,779	38.5052,144	22
22½	31.4877,524	33.3854,923	35.4213,108	37.6057,139	39.9500,051	22½
23	32.4528,837	34.4604,137	36.6178,885	38.9370,299	41.4304,751	23
23½	33.4323,850	35.5539,845	37.8381,632	40.2979,710	42.9475,054	23½
24	34.4264,702	36.6665,282	39.0826,041	41.6891,963	44.5019,988	24
24½	35.4353,565	37.7983,740	40.3516,898	43.1113,797	46.0948,807	24½
25	36.4592,643	38.9498,566	41.6459,083	44.5652,101	47.7270,988	25
25½	37.4984,172	40.1213,171	42.9657,573	46.0513,918	49.3990,247	25½
26	38.5530,422	41.3131,016	44.3117,446	47.5706,446	51.1134,537	26
26½	39.6233,697	42.5255,632	45.6843,876	49.1237,045	52.8696,059	26½
27	40.7096,335	43.7590,602	47.0842,144	50.7113,236	54.6691,264	27
27½	41.8120,708	45.0139,579	48.5117,631	52.3342,712	56.5130,862	27½
28	42.9309,225	46.2906,273	49.9675,829	53.9933,331	58.4025,827	28
28½	44.0664,330	47.5894,464	51.4522,337	55.6893,134	60.3387,405	28½
29	45.2188,502	48.9107,993	52.9662,863	57.4230,331	62.3227,119	29
29½	46.3884,259	50.2550,770	54.5103,230	59.1953,325	64.3556,776	29½
30	47.5754,157	51.6226,772	56.0849,377	61.0070,696	66.4388,475	30
30½	48.7800,787	53.0140,047	57.6907,359	62.8591,224	68.5734,615	30½
31	50.0026,781	54.4294,709	59.3283,352	64.7523,877	70.7607,898	31
31½	51.2434,811	55.8694,949	60.9983,654	66.6877,830	73.0021,345	31½
32	52.5027,585	57.3345,024	62.7014,686	68.6662,452	75.2988,293	32
32½	53.7807,855	58.8249,272	64.4383,000	70.6887,332	77.6522,413	32½
33	55.0778,412	60.3412,100	66.2095,274	72.7562,262	80.0637,708	33
33½	56.3942,091	61.8837,997	68.0158,320	74.8697,262	82.5348,533	33½
34	57.7301,765	63.4531,524	69.8579,085	77.0302,564	85.0669,593	34
34½	59.0860,354	65.0497,326	71.7364,653	79.2388,639	87.6615,960	34½
35	60.4620,818	66.6740,127	73.6522,248	81.4966,180	90.3203,073	35
35½	61.8586,164	68.3264,733	75.6059,239	83.8046,127	93.0446,758	35½
36	63.2759,442	70.0076,031	77.5983,138	86.1639,658	95.8363,227	36
36½	64.7143,749	71.7178,999	79.6301,609	88.5758,203	98.6969,096	36½
37	66.1742,225	73.4578,693	81.7022,464	91.0413,442	101.6281,388	37
37½	67.6558,062	75.2280,264	83.8153,673	93.5617,322	104.6317,551	37½
38	69.1594,492	77.0288,947	85.9703,362	96.1382,047	107.7095,457	38
38½	70.6854,804	78.8610,073	88.1679,820	98.7720,102	110.8633,428	38½
39	72.2342,327	80.7249,060	90.4091,497	101.4644,239	114.0950,230	39
39½	73.8060,448	82.6211,425	92.6947,013	104.2167,506	117.4065,100	39½
40	75.4012,597	84.5502,777	95.0255,157	107.0303,230	120.7997,742	40
40½	77.0202,261	86.5128,825	97.4024,893	109.9065,044	124.2768,355	40½
41	78.6632,975	88.5095,374	99.8265,363	112.8466,875	127.8397,629	41
41½	80.3308,329	90.5408,334	102.2985,889	115.8522,971	131.4906,772	41½
42	82.0231,964	92.6073,712	104.8195,978	118.9247,885	135.2317,510	42
42½	83.7407,579	94.7097,626	107.3905,325	122.0656,505	139.0652,111	42½
43	85.4838,923	96.8486,292	110.0123,817	125.2764,040	142.9933,386	43
43½	87.2529,806	99.0246,043	112.6861,538	128.5586,048	147.0184,717	43½
44	89.0484,091	101.2383,313	115.4128,769	131.9138,422	151.1430,055	44
44½	90.8705,700	103.4904,654	118.1935,999	135.3437,420	155.3693,952	44½
45	92.7198,613	105.7816,729	121.0293,920	138.8499,651	159.7001,558	45
45½	94.5966,871	108.1126,317	123.9213,439	142.4342,104	164.1378,650	45½
46	96.5014,572	110.4840,314	126.8705,677	146.0982,135	168.6851,636	46
46½	98.4345,878	112.8965,738	129.8781,977	149.8437,498	173.3447,583	46½
47	100.3965,009	115.3509,725	132.9453,904	153.6726,331	178.1194,218	47
47½	102.3876,254	117.8479,539	136.0733,256	157.5867,186	183.0119,962	47½
48	104.4083,959	120.3882,565	139.2632,060	161.5879,016	188.0253,929	48
48½	106.4592,542	122.9726,323	142.5162,586	165.6781,209	193.1625,960	48½
49	108 5406,478	125.6018,455	145.8337,343	169.8593,572	198.4266,625	49
49½	110.6530,318	128.2766,744	149.2169,089	174.1336,364	203.8207,258	49½
50	112.7968,672	130.9979,101	152.6670,836	178.5030,282	209.3479,957	50

The FOURTH TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The prefent value of 1 l. per ann. for any number of years to come, &c.

Years.	3 per cent.	3 ½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4 ½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Years.
½	.4890,240	.4872,464	.4854,831	.4837,338	.4819,985	½
1	.9708,737	.9661,835	.9615,384	.9569,378	.9523,809	1
1½	1.4456,544	1.4369,531	1.4283,491	1.4198,410	1.4114,271	1½
2	1.9134,696	1.8996,942	1.8860,946	1.8726,677	1.8594,104	2
2½	2.3744,217	2.3545,440	2.3349,510	2.3156,373	2.2965,973	2½
3	2.8286,113	2.8016,369	2.7750,910	2.7489,643	2.7232,480	3
3½	3.2761,376	3.2411,053	3.2066,837	3.1728,587	3.1396,164	3½
4	3.7170,984	3.6730,792	3.6298,952	3.5875,257	3.5459,505	4
4½	4.1515,899	4.0976,863	4.0448,882	3.9931,662	3.9424,919	4½
5	4.5797,071	4.5150,523	4.4518,223	4.3899,767	4.3294,766	5
5½	5.0015,436	4.9253,008	4.8508,540	4.7781,494	4.7071,351	5½
6	5.4171,914	5.3285,530	5.2421,368	5.1578,724	5.0756,920	6
6½	5.8267,414	5.7249,283	5.6258,212	5.5293,296	5.4353,668	6½
7	6.2302,829	6.1145,439	6.0020,546	5.8927,009	5.7863,734	7
7½	6.6279,042	6.4975,153	6.3709,811	6.2481,623	6.1289,207	7½
8	7.0196,921	6.8739,555	6.7327,448	6.5958,860	6.4632,127	8
8½	7.4057,323	7.2439,761	7.0874,826	6.9360,405	6.7894,483	8½
9	7.7861,089	7.6076,865	7.4353,316	7.2687,904	7.1078,216	9
9½	8.1609,051	7.9651,943	7.7764,255	7.5942,971	7.4185,222	9½
10	8.5302,028	8.3166,053	8.1108,957	7.9127,181	7.7217,349	10
10½	8.8940,826	8.6620,235	8.4388,707	8.2242,078	8.0176,402	10½
11	9.2526,241	9.0015,510	8.7604,767	8.5289,169	8.3064,142	11
11½	9.6059,055	9.3352,884	9.0758,372	8.8269,931	8.5882,287	11½
12	9.9540,039	9.6633,343	9.3850,737	9.1185,807	8.8632,516	12
12½	10.2969,956	9.9857,859	9.6883,050	9.4038,211	9.1316,464	12½
13	10.6349,553	10.3027,384	9.9856,478	9.6828,524	9.3935,729	13
13½	10.9679,569	10.6142,858	10.2772,164	9.9558,097	9.6491,871	13½
14	11.2960,731	10.9205,202	10.5631,229	10.2228,252	9.8986,409	14
14½	11.6193,756	11.2215,322	10.8434,773	10.4840,284	10.1420,829	14½
15	11.9379,350	11.5174,108	11.1183,874	10.7395,457	10.3796,580	15
15½	12.2518,210	11.8082,437	11.3879,589	10.9895,009	10.6115,075	15½
16	12.5611,020	12.0941,168	11.6522,956	11.2340,150	10.8377,695	16
16½	12.8658,456	12.3751,147	11.9114,990	11.4732,066	11.0585,786	16½
17	13.1661,184	12.6513,205	12.1656,688	11.7071,914	11.2740,662	17
17½	13.4619,860	12.9228,161	12.4149,028	11.9360,828	11.4843,606	17½
18	13.7535,130	13.1896,817	12.6592,969	12.1599,918	11.6895,869	18
18½	14.0407,631	13.4519,963	12.8989,450	12.3790,266	11.8898,672	18½
19	14.3237,990	13.7098,374	13.1339,394	12.5932,935	12.0853,208	19
19½	14.6026,827	13.9632,814	13.3643,702	12.8028,963	12.2760,640	19½
20	14.8774,748	14.2124,033	13.5903,263	13.0079,364	12.4622,103	20
20½	15.1482,356	14.4572,767	13.8118,944	13.2085,132	12.6438,705	20½
21	15.4150,241	14.6979,742	14.0291,599	13.4047,238	12.8211,527	21
21½	15.6778,986	14.9345,669	14.2422,062	13.5966,634	12.9941,624	21½
22	15.9369,166	15.1671,248	14.4511,153	13.7844,247	13.1630,025	22
22½	16.1921,346	15.3957,168	14.6559,675	13.9680,989	13.3277,737	22½
23	16.4436,083	15.6204,104	14.8568,416	14.1477,748	13.4885,738	23
23½	16.6913,928	15.8412,723	15.0538,149	14.3235,396	13.6454,987	23½
24	16.9355,421	16.0583,676	15.2469,631	14.4954,783	13.7986,417	24
24½	17.1761,095	16.2717,606	15.4363,605	14.6636,743	13.9480,940	24½
25	17.4131,476	16.4815,145	15.6220,799	14.8282,089	14.0939,445	25
25½	17.6467,083	16.6876,914	15.8041,928	14.9891,620	14.2362,800	25½
26	17.8768,423	16.8903,522	15.9827,691	15.1466,114	14.3751,853	26
26½	18.1036,003	17.0895,569	16.1578,776	15.3006,335	14.5107,429	26½
27	18.3270,314	17.2853,645	16.3295,857	15.4513,028	14.6430,336	27
27½	18.5471,847	17.4778,328	16.4979,593	15.5986,923	14.7721,361	27½
28	18.7641,082	17.6670,188	16.6630,632	15.7428,735	14.8981,272	28
28½	18.9778,492	17.8529,785	16.8249,608	15.8839,161	15.0210,820	28½
29	19.1884,545	18.0357,670	16.9837,146	16.0218,885	15.1410,735	29
29½	19.3959,701	18.2154,382	17.1393,854	16.1568,575	15.2581,733	29½
30	19.6004,413	18.3920,454	17.2920,333	16.2888,885	15.3724,510	30
30½	19.8019,128	18.5656,408	17.4417,167	16.4180,455	15.4839,746	30½
31	20.0004,284	18.7362,757	17.5884,935	16.5443,909	15.5928,105	31
31½	20.1960,318	18.9040,007	17.7324,199	16.6679,861	15.6990,234	31½
32	20.3887,655	19.0688,654	17.8735,515	16.7888,908	15.8026,766	32
32½	20.5786,717	19.2309,186	18.0119,423	16.9071,637	15.9038,318	32½
33	20.7657,917	19.3902,081	18.1476,456	17.0228,620	16.0025,492	33
33½	20.9501,667	19.5467,812	18.2807,137	17.1360,418	16.0988,874	33½
34	21.1318,366	19.7006,842	18.4111,977	17.2467,579	16.1929,040	34
34½	21.3108,414	19.8519,626	18.5391,478	17.3550,639	16.2846,547	34½
35	21.4872,200	20.0006,610	18.6646,132	17.4610,124	16.3741,942	35
35½	21.6610,111	20.1468,237	18.7876,421	17.5646,545	16.4615,759	35½
36	21.8322,524	20.2904,938	18.9082,819	17.6660,405	16.5468,517	36
36½	22.0009,816	20.4317,137	19.0265,789	17.7652,196	16.6300,723	36½
37	22.1672,354	20.5705,254	19.1425,788	17.8622,397	16.7112,873	37
37½	22.3310,501	20.7069,698	19.2563,259	17.9571,479	16.7905,450	37½
38	22.4924,615	20.8410,873	19.3678,642	18.0499,902	16.8678,927	38
38½	22.6515,050	20.9729,177	19.4772,364	18.1408,114	16.9433,762	38½
39	22.8082,151	21.1024,998	19.5844,848	18.2296,557	17.0170,406	39
39½	22.9626,262	21.2298,722	19.6896,504	18.3165,660	17.0889,297	39½
40	23.1147,719	21.3550,723	19.7927,738	18.4015,844	17.1590,863	40
40½	23.2646,856	21.4781,373	19.8938,946	18.4847,521	17.2275,521	40½
41	23.4123,999	21.5991,037	19.9930,518	18.5661,094	17.2943,679	41
41½	23.5579,472	21.7180,071	20.0902,833	18.6456,958	17.3595,734	41½
42	23.7013,591	21.8348,828	20.1856,267	18.7235,497	17.4232,075	42
42½	23.8426,672	21.9497,653	20.2791,186	18.7997,089	17.4853,080	42½
43	23.9819,021	22.0626,887	20.3707,949	18.8742,102	17.5459,119	43
43½	24.1190,944	22.1736,863	20.4606,909	18.9470,899	17.6050,553	43½
44	24.2542,738	22.2827,910	20.5488,412	19.0183,830	17.6627,733	44
44½	24.3874,702	22.3900,351	20.6352,797	19.0881,243	17.7191,603	44½
45	24.5187,125	22.4954,502	20.7200,397	19.1563,474	17.7740,698	45
45½	24.6480,294	22.5990,677	20.8031,536	19.2230,854	17.8277,145	45½
46	24.7754,490	22.7009,181	20.8846,535	19.2883,707	17.8800,665	46
46½	24.9009,994	22.8010,316	20.9645,707	19.3522,348	17.9311,567	46½
47	25.0247,078	22.8994,378	21.0429,361	19.4147,088	17.9810,157	47
47½	25.1466,013	22.9961,658	21.1197,796	19.4758,228	18.0296,730	47½
48	25.2667,066	23.0912,442	21.1951,308	19.5356,065	18.0771,578	48
48½	25.3850,498	23.1847,012	21.2690,188	19.5940,888	18.1234,981	48½
49	25.5016,568	23.2765,644	21.3414,720	19.6512,981	18.1687,217	49
49½	25.6165,532	23.3668,611	21.4125,181	19.7072,620	18.2128,554	49½
50	25.7297,639	23.4556,178	21.4821,846	19.7620,077	18.2559,254	50

The FIFTH TABLE of COMPOUND INTEREST.

The annuity which 1 l. will purchase for any number of years to come, &c.

Years.	3 per cent.	3½ per cent.	4 per cent.	4½ per cent.	5 per cent.	Years.
1	1.0300,000	1.0350,000	1.0400,000	1.0450,000	1.0500,000	1
1½	.6917,282	.6959,169	.7001,089	.7043,042	.7085,027	1½
2	.5226,108	.5264,004	.5301,960	.5339,975	.5378,048	2
2½	.4211,551	.4247,106	.4282,745	.4318,465	.4354,267	2½
3	.3535,303	.3569,341	.3603,485	.3637,733	.3672,085	3
3½	.3052,374	.3085,367	.3118,486	.3151,731	.3185,102	3½
4	.2690,270	.2722,511	.2754,900	.2787,436	.2820,118	4
4½	.2408,716	.2440,401	.2472,256	.2504,278	.2536,466	4½
5	.2183,545	.2214,813	.2246,271	.2277,916	.2309,748	5
5½	.1999,382	.2030,332	.2061,492	.2092,860	.2124,434	5½
6	.1845,975	.1876,682	.1907,619	.1938,783	.1970,174	6
6½	.1716,225	.1746,746	.1777,518	.1808,537	.1839,802	6½
7	.1605,063	.1635,444	.1666,096	.1697,014	.1728,198	7
7½	.1508,772	.1539,049	.1569,616	.1600,470	.1631,608	7½
8	.1424,563	.1454,766	.1485,278	.1516,096	.1547,218	8
8½	.1350,305	.1380,457	.1410,938	.1441,744	.1472,873	8½
9	.1284,338	.1314,460	.1344,929	.1375,744	.1406,900	9
9½	.1225,354	.1255,462	.1285,937	.1316,777	.1347,977	9½
10	.1172,305	.1202,413	.1232,909	.1263,788	.1295,045	10
10½	.1124,343	.1154,464	.1184,992	.1215,922	.1247,249	10½
11	.1080,774	.1110,919	.1141,490	.1172,481	.1203,888	11
11½	.1041,026	.1071,204	.1101,826	.1132,888	.1164,384	11½
12	.1004,620	.1034,839	.1065,521	.1096,661	.1128,254	12
12½	.0971,157	.1001,423	.1032,172	.1063,397	.1095,092	12½
13	.0940,295	.0970,615	.1001,437	.1032,753	.1064,557	13
13½	.0911,746	.0942,126	.0973,026	.1004,438	.1036,356	13½
14	.0885,263	.0915,707	.0946,689	.0978,203	.1010,239	14
14½	.0860,631	.0891,143	.0922,213	.0953,831	.0985,990	14½
15	.0837,665	.0868,250	.0899,411	.0931,138	.0963,422	15
15½	.0816,205	.0846,866	.0878,120	.0909,959	.0942,373	15½
16	.0796,108	.0826,848	.0858,200	.0890,153	.0922,699	16
16½	.0777,251	.0808,073	.0839,524	.0871,595	.0904,275	16½
17	.0759,525	.0790,431	.0821,985	.0854,175	.0886,991	17
17½	.0742,832	.0773,825	.0805,483	.0837,795	.0870,749	17½
18	.0727,087	.0758,168	.0789,933	.0822,369	.0855,462	18
18½	.0712,212	.0743.384	.0775,257	.0807,818	.0841,052	18½
19	.0698,138	.0729,403	.0761,386	.0794,073	.0827,450	19
19½	.0684,805	.0716,164	.0748,258	.0781,073	.0814,593	19½
20	.0672,157	.0703,610	.0735,817	.0768,761	.0802,425	20
20½	.0660,142	.0691,693	.0724,013	.0757,087	.0790,897	20½
21	.0648,717	.0680,365	.0712,801	.0746,005	.0779,961	21
21½	.0637,840	.0669,587	.0702,138	.0735,474	.0769,576	21½
22	.0627,473	.0659,320	.0691,988	.0725,456	.0759,705	22
22½	.0617,583	.0649,531	.0682,315	.0715,917	.0750,312	22½
23	.0608,139	.0640,188	.0673,090	.0706,824	.0741,368	23
23½	.0599,111	.0631,262	.0664,283	.0698,151	.0732,842	23½
24	.0590,474	.0622,728	.0655,868	.0689,870	.0724,709	24
24½	.0582,204	.0614,561	.0647,821	.0681,957	.0716,943	24½
25	.0574,278	.0606,740	.0640,119	.0674,390	.0709,524	25
25½	.0566,677	.0599,244	.0632,743	.0667,148	.0702,430	25½
26	.0559,382	.0592,054	.0625,673	.0660,213	.0695,643	26
26½	.0552,376	.0585,152	.0618,893	.0653,567	.0689,144	26½
27	.0545,642	.0578,524	.0612,385	.0647,194	.0682,918	27
27½	.0539,165	.0572,153	.0606,135	.0641,079	.0676,950	27½
28	.0532,932	.0566,026	.0600,129	.0635,208	.0671,225	28
28½	.0526,930	.0560,130	.0594,355	.0629,567	.0665,731	28½
29	.0521,146	.0554,453	.0588,799	.0624,146	.0660,455	29
29½	.0515,571	.0548,984	.0583,451	.0618,932	.0655,386	29½
30	.0510,192	.0543,713	.0578,301	.0613,915	.0650,514	30
30½	.0505,001	.0538,629	.0573,338	.0609,085	.0645,829	30½
31	.0499,989	.0533,724	.0568,553	.0604,434	.0641,321	31
31½	.0495,146	.0528,988	.0563,938	.0599,952	.0636,982	31½
32	.0490,466	.0524,415	.0559,485	.0595,632	.0632,804	32
32½	.0485,940	.0519,996	.0555,187	.0591,465	.0628,779	32½
33	.0481,561	.0515,724	.0551,035	.0587,445	.0624,900	33
33½	.0477,323	.0511,593	.0547,024	.0583,565	.0621,160	33½
34	.0473,219	.0507,596	.0543,147	.0579,819	.0617,554	34
34½	.0469,244	.0503,728	.0539,399	.0576,200	.0614,075	34½
35	.0465,392	.0499,983	.0535,773	.0572,704	.0610,717	35
35½	.0461,659	.0496,356	.0532,264	.0569,325	.0607,475	35½
36	.0458,037	.0492,841	.0528,868	.0566,057	.0604,344	36
36½	.0454,525	.0489,435	.0525,580	.0562,897	.0601,320	36½
37	.0451,116	.0486,132	.0522,395	.0559,840	.0598,397	37
37½	.0447,807	.0482,929	.0519,309	.0556,881	.0595,573	37½
38	.0444,593	.0479,821	.0516,319	.0554,016	.0592,842	38
38½	.0441,471	.0476,805	.0513,419	.0551,243	.0590,201	38½
39	.0438,438	.0473,877	.0510,608	.0548,556	.0587,646	39
39½	.0435,490	.0471,034	.0507,881	.0545,953	.0585,174	39½
40	.0432,623	.0468,272	.0505,234	.0543,431	.0582,781	40
40½	.0429,836	.0465,589	.0502,666	.0540,986	.0580,465	40½
41	.0427,124	.0462,982	.0500,173	.0538,615	.0578,222	41
41½	.0424,485	.0460,447	.0497,753	.0536,316	.0576,051	41½
42	.0421,916	.0457,982	.0495,402	.0534,086	.0573,947	42
42½	.0419,416	.0455,585	.0493,118	.0531,923	.0571,908	42½
43	.0416,981	.0453,253	.0490,898	.0529,823	.0569,933	43
43½	.0414,609	.0450,985	.0488,742	.0527,785	.0568,018	43½
44	.0412,298	.0448,776	.0486,645	.0525,807	.0566,162	44
44½	.0410,046	.0446,627	.0484,607	.0523,885	.0564,362	44½
45	.0407,851	.0444,534	.0482,624	.0522,020	.0562,617	45
45½	.0405,712	.0442,496	.0480,696	.0520,207	.0560,924	45½
46	.0403,625	.0440,510	.0478,820	.0518,447	.0559,282	46
46½	.0401,590	.0438,576	.0476,995	.0516,736	.0557,688	46½
47	.0399,605	.0436,691	.0475,218	.0515,073	.0556,142	47
47½	.0397.668	.0434,855	.0473,489	.0513,457	.0554,641	47½
48	.0395,777	.0433,064	.0471,806	.0511,885	.0553,184	48
48½	.0393,932	.0431,318	.0470,167	.0510,358	.0551,769	48½
49	.0392,131	.0429,616	.0468,571	.0508,872	.0550,396	49
49½	.0390,372	.0427,956	.0467,016	.0507,427	.0549,062	49½
50	.0388,654	.0426.337	.0465,502	.0506,021	.0547,767	50

The USE of the preceding TABLES.

The amount, or present value of any sum of money, for any number of years, not exceeding 50, at any of the rates of interest in the tables, is thus found:

Look in the first and second table for the given number of years, and even with that number, under the given rate of interest, is the amount or present value of one pound; which amount or present value, so found, being multiplied by any given principal sum, the product will be the amount or present value required.

After the same manner, the amount, or present value of any annuity, or yearly payment, is found, by the third or fourth table.

And the annuity, which any sum of money will purchase, by the fifth table.

So that most useful questions in compound interest are answered by one multiplication.

The variety of CASES resolvable by these TABLES.

CASE I.

Any principal rate, and time being given, to find the amount.

The Rule. Find in the first table the amount of 1 l. at the rate and for the time given; which being multiplied by the principal, the product answers the question.

Example. What will 523 l. amount to in 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The amount of 1 l. in 15 years at 5 per cent. is found in the first table to be 2.0789, &c. which being multiplied by 523, the product will be 1087.2794, &c. = l. 1087 : 5 : 7.

CASE II.

Any principal, rate, and amount being given, to find the time.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the principal, and the quotient will be the amount of 1 l. at the given rate; which look for in the first table under that rate, and it will be found even with the time required.

Example. In what time will 523 l. amount to l. 1087 : 5 : 7, at the rate of 3 per cent per ann.?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 523, the quotient will be 2.0789, &c. which under 5 per cent. in the first table, is found to be even with 15 years, and answers the question.

CASE III.

Any principal, time, and amount being given, to find the rate of interest.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the principal, and the quotient will be the amount of 1 l. in the given time; which look for in the first table, even with that time, and it will be found under the rate required.

Example. At what rate per cent. per ann. will 523 l. amount to l. 1087 : 5 : 7 in 15 years?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 523, the quotient will be 2.0789, &c. which, even with 15 years in the first table, is found to be under 5 per cent. and answers the question.

CASE IV.

Any amount, rate, and time being given, to find the principal.

The Rule. Divide the amount, by the amount of 1 l. in the first table, at the rate and for the time given, and the quotient will be the principal required.

Example. What principal sum will amount to l. 1087 : 5 : 7 in 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 2.0789, &c. being the amount of 1 l. at the rate, and in the time given, the quotient will be 523.

N. B. This question is easier answered by the second table, as you will find by case 13.

CASE V.

Any principal, rate, and time being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find in the fifth table, the annuity which 1 l. will purchase, at the rate, and for the time given; multiply the annuity so found by the principal, and the product will be the annuity required.

Example. What annuity, to continue 15 years, will 523 l. purchase, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The annuity which 1 l. will purchase for 15 years at 5 per cent. is found in the fifth table to be .0963, &c. which multiplied by 523, the product will be 50.3870, &c. or l. 50 : 7 : 9 per ann.

If the question had been, What annuity, to continue 15 years, will gay off a debt of 523 l. computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann. the answer had been the same.

CASE VI.

Any principal, annuity, and rate being given, to find the time.

The Rule. Divide the annuity by the principal, and the quotient will be the annuity which 1 l. will purchase at the given rate; which look for in the fifth table under that rate, and it will be found even with the time required.

Example. An annuity of l. 50 : 7 : 9, is purchased with 523 l. at the rate of 5 l. per cent. per ann. what time ought that annuity to continue?

Divide

Divide 50.3870, &c. by 523, the quotient will be .0963, &c. which, under 5 per cent. in the fifth table, is found to be even with 15 years, and anſwers the queſtion.

Note, If the queſtion had been, in what time will an annuity of l. 50 : 7 : 9 pay off a debt of 523 l. computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann. the anſwer had been the ſame.

Case VII.

Any principal, annuity, and time being given, to find the rate.

The Rule. Divide the annuity by the principal, and the quotient will be the annuity, that 1 l. will purchaſe for the given time; which look for in the fifth table, even with that time, and it will be found under the rate required.

Example. If an annuity of l. 50 : 7 : 9, to continue 15 years, is purchaſed with 523 l. what rate of intereſt per cent. per ann. is made of the purchaſe money?

Divide 50.3870, &c. by 523, the quotient will be .0963, &c. which, even with 15 years in the fifth table, is found to be under 5 per cent. and anſwers the queſtion.

Case VIII.

Note, This queſtion is eaſier anſwered by the fourth table, thus: multiply 50.3870, &c. the annuity, by 10.3796, &c. the preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in the fourth table, at the rate and for the time given, the product will be 523.

Case IX.

Any annuity, rate, and time being given, to find the amount.

The Rule. Find in the third table, the amount of 1 l. per ann. at the rate and for the time given; by which multiply the annuity, and the product will be the amount required.

Example. What will an annuity of l. 50 : 7 : 9, being forborne 15 years, amount unto at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The amount of 1 l. per ann. in 15 years at 5 per cent. is found in the third table to be 21.5785, &c. which being multiplied by 50.3870, &c. the product will be 1087.2794, &c. = l. 1087 : 5 : 7.

Case X.

Any annuity, rate, and amount being given, to find the time.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the annuity, and the quotient will be the amount of 1 l. per ann. at the given rate; which look for in the third table under that rate, and it will be found even with the time required.

Example. In what time will an annuity of l. 50 : 7 : 9 amount to l. 1087 : 5 : 7, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 50.3870, &c. the quotient will be 21.5785, &c. which, under 5 per cent. in the third table, is found to be even with 15 years, and anſwers the queſtion.

Case XI.

Any annuity, time, and amount being given, to find the rate.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the annuity, and the quotient will be the amount of 1 l. per ann. for the given time; which look for in the third table even with the time, and it will be found under the rate required.

Example. At what rate per cent. per ann. will an annuity of l. 50 : 7 : 9 amount to l. 1087 : 5 : 7, in 15 years?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 50.3870, &c. the quotient will be 21.5785, &c. which, even with 15 years in the third table, is found to be under 5 per cent. and anſwers the queſtion.

Case XII.

Any amount, rate, and time being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Divide the amount by the amount of 1 l. per ann. in the third table, at the rate and for the time given, and the quotient will be the annuity required.

Example. What annuity will amount to l. 1087 : 5 : 7 in 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

Divide 1087.2794, &c. by 21.5785, &c. being the amount of 1 l. per ann. in the time, and at the rate given, the quotient will be 50.3870, &c. = l. 50 : 7 : 9.

Case XIII.

Any principal ſum in reverſion, rate, and time being given, to find the preſent value.

The Rule. Find in the ſecond table the preſent value of 1 l. at the rate and for the time given, which being multiplied by the principal, the product anſwers the queſtion.

Example. What is the preſent value of l. 1087 : 5 : 7, payable at the end of 15 years, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum?

The preſent value of 1 l. payable at the end of 15 years, at 5 per cent. is found in the ſecond table to be .4810, &c. which being multiplied by 1087.2794, &c. the product will be 523, the anſwer.

Note, This is the ſame with caſe the 4th, only the queſtion is put in different terms, and the anſwer given by a different table.

Case XIV.

Any annuity, time in reverſion, and rate being given, to find the preſent value.

The Rule. Find in the fourth table the preſent value of 1 l. per ann. at the given rate, both for the time in being, and the time in being and time in reverſion added together; ſubtract the one from the other, and multiply the remainder by the annuity, the product anſwers the queſtion.

Example. What is it worth in preſent money to add 14 years to a term of 7 years in being, and thereby make up the term 21 years, the annuity or rent being 35 l. per ann. computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in the 4th table, for 2 years, is — —	12.8211,527
For 7 years, is	5.7863,734
Remainder —	7.0347,793
Multiplied by —	35
The product —	246.2172

&c. or l. 246 : 4 : 4.

Case XV.

Any annuity, ſeveral times in reverſion, and rate being given, to find the ſeveral preſent values.

The Rule. Find the preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in the fourth table, at the given rate, and for the ſeveral given times; which being ſeverally multiplied by the annuity, the products will be the ſeveral preſent values of that annuity for theſe ſeveral times: ſubtract the ſeveral preſent values the one from the other, and the ſeveral remainders anſwer the queſtion.

Example. A has a term of 7 years in an eſtate of 35 l. per annum; B has a term of 14 years in the ſame eſtate in reverſion, after the expiration of 7 years; and C has a farther term of 20 years in reverſion after the 21 years; it is required to know, what is the preſent value of the ſeveral terms, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The preſent value of 35 l. per ann. for	41	years will be found	l. 605 : 6 : $0\frac{1}{2}$
See caſe 8.	21	— —	448 : 14 : $9\frac{1}{2}$
	7	— —	202 : 10 : $5\frac{1}{2}$

Which being ſubtracted one from the other, it will appear,

That the preſent value of A's term is	202 : 10 : $5\frac{1}{2}$
B's —	246 : 4 : 4
C's —	156 : 11 : 3
Which anſwers the queſtion	605 : 6 : $0\frac{1}{2}$

Case XVI.

Any annuity in fee ſimple, ſee caſe 20, and rate being given, to find the preſent value.

The Rule. Find the preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in fee ſimple by means of the fourth table at the given rate; which multiplied by the annuity, the product anſwers the queſtion.

Example. What is the value of an eſtate of 35 l. per ann. in fee ſimple, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per ann.?

The preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in fee ſimple, is found to be 20; which multiplied by 35, the product will be 700 l. the anſwer.

Case XVII.

Any preſent value, time in reverſion, and rate being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find by caſe the 1ſt, what the preſent value will amount to, in the time preceding the commencement of the annuity; then find by caſe the 5th what annuity that amount will purchaſe, which anſwers the queſtion.

Example. What annuity to continue 14 years, after the expiration of 7 years, will 246 l. 4 s. 4 d. purchaſe, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum?

By caſe the 1ſt I find l. 246 : 4 : 4 will, at that rate in 7 years, amount to l. 346 : 9 : $0\frac{1}{2}$; and by caſe the 5th I find, that l. 346 : 9 : $0\frac{1}{2}$ will, at the ſame rate, purchaſe an annuity of 35 l. per ann. to continue 14 years.

Case XVIII.

An annuity in reverſion, preſent value, and rate being given, to find the time.

The Rule. Find the amount of the preſent value as above, by caſe the 1ſt; then, by caſe the 6th, find the time the annuity ought to continue.

Example. An annuity of 35 l. per ann. to commence after the expiration of 7 years, is purchaſed with l. 246 : 4 : 4, what time ought that annuity to continue, computing at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum?

I find by caſe the 1ſt, that l. 246 : 4 : 4 will, in 7 years, amount to l. 346 : 9 : $0\frac{1}{2}$ as above; by which divide the annuity, the quotient will be .1010.2397, which in the fifth table under 5 per cent. will be found even with 14 years, as by caſe the 6th, and anſwers the queſtion.

Case XIX.

Any annuity in reverſion, preſent value, and time being given, to find the rate.

The Rule. Find the amount of the preſent value as above, by caſe 1; then, by caſe the 7th, find the rate of intereſt.

Example. An annuity of 35 l. per ann. to continue 14 years, after the expiration of 7 years, is purchaſed with l. 246 : 4 : 4. What rate of intereſt per cent. per ann. is made of the purchaſe money?

I find by caſe the 1ſt, that l. 246 : 4 : 4 will, in 7 years, amount to l. 346 : 9 : $0\frac{1}{2}$ as above; by which divide the annuity, the quotient will be .1010,2397, which in the fifth table, even with 14 years, will be found under 5 per cent. as by caſe the 7th, and anſwers the queſtion.

Case XX.

Any principal and rate being given, to find the annuity in fee ſimple.

The Rule. Divide the principal by the preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in fee ſimple*, and the quotient anſwers the queſtion.

* Compound intereſt is a ſeries of geometrical proportions, as was before obſerved; and, therefore, the amount in any one time given, being multiplied into itſelf, the product will be the amount in double that time; and the amount of any two ſeveral times given, multiplied one into the other, the product will be the amount in thoſe two ſeveral times added together.
This the reader may eaſily prove: for if he multiplies the amount of 1 l. in 50 years, at any given rate, into itſelf, he will find the product to be the amount of 1 l. in 100 years at the ſame rate, &c. ſo that the fee ſimple being reckoned at 100 years, you may eaſily calculate it's value, by the tables of 50 years only.

Example. What annuity in fee ſimple will 700 l. purchaſe, at the rate of 5 l. per cent. per annum?

700 l. the principal, divided by 20, the preſent value of 1 l. per ann. in fee ſimple, the quotient will be 35 l.

Case XXI.

Any principal, annuity, and rate being given, to find the amount.

The Rule. Find the time by caſe 6, then having principal, annuity, rate, and time, find the amount as before, either by caſe the 1ſt or 9th.

Case XXII.

Any principal, annuity, and time being given, to find the amount.

The Rule. Find the rate by caſe 7, then having principal, annuity, rate, and time, find the amount as before, either by caſe the 1ſt or 9th.

Case XXIII.

Any annuity, amount, and time being given, to find the principal.

The Rule. Find the rate by caſe the 11th, then having annuity, amount, rate, and time, find the principal, either by caſe the 4th or 8th.

Case XXIV.

Any annuity, amount, and rate, being given, to find the principal.

The Rule. Find the time by caſe the 10th, then having annuity, amount, rate, and time, find the principal as before, either by caſe the 4th or 8th.

Case XXV.

Any amount, principal, and time being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find the rate by caſe the 3d, then having amount, principal, rate, and time, find the annuity either by caſe the 5th or 12th.

Case XXVI.

Any amount, principal, and rate being given, to find the annuity.

The Rule. Find the time by caſe the 2d, then having amount, principal, rate, and time, find the annuity as before, either by caſe the 5th or 12th.

Case XXVII.

Any amount, principal, and annuity being given, to find the time.

The Rule. This is found, either by dividing the amount by the principal, as in caſe the 2d, or by dividing the annuity by the principal, as in caſe the 6th.

Case XXVIII.

Any amount, principal, and annuity being given, to find the rate.

The Rule. This is likewiſe found, either by dividing the amount by the principal, as in caſe the 3d, or by dividing the annuity by the principal, as in caſe the 7th.

Note, In theſe tables we have carried the decimal fractions to ſeven places, though four or five would have been ſufficient to have anſwered moſt queſtions: and millions may be computed by them with exactneſs, of which we will give an example by caſe the 5th.

Theſe Tables applied to the National Debts.

What annual ſum is ſufficient to pay off a national debt of 50 millions in 30 years, computing at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum?

By the fifth table, the annuity, which will diſcharge a debt of 1 l. in 30 years at 4 per cent. is found to be .0578,301
Which being multiplied by —— 50.000,000

The product will be —— —— 2.891,505
Or 2,891,505 l. per ann.

So that ſuppoſe a national debt to be 50 millions, and the intereſt paid 2 millions per ann. or 4 per cent. then will a ſinking fund of 891,505 l. per ann. diſcharge the whole debt in 30 years.

Another example by Case the 8th, in proof of the preceding.

What is the preſent value of 2,891,505 l. per ann. for 30 years to come, at the rate of 4 l. per cent. per annum?

By the 4th table, 1 l. per ann. 30 years to come, at 4 per cent. is found to be worth } 17.2920,333
Which being multiplied by —— —— 2.891,505

The product will be —— —— 50,000,000

In like manner it will be found, that a ſinking fund of 1,200,598 l. per ann. will pay off a debt of 50 millions in 25 years; that 1,679,087 : 10 per ann. will do the ſame in 20 years, &c.

Another Example, by Case VI.

Suppoſe ten millions were borrowed, at the rate of 6 l. per cent. per annum, then the fund for payment of the intereſt muſt be 600,000 l. per annum. Suppoſe, after ſome time, by agreement, the intereſt ſhould be reduced to 4 l. per cent. per annum,

Quere, In what time will the ſaid fund of 600,000 l. per annum pay off the ſaid debt of ten millions, after the intereſt is ſo reduced?

The annuity of 600,000 l. being divided by the principal, 10,000,000, the quotient will be .0600,000, which look for in the Fifth Table, under 4 per cent. and you will find .0600,1298, which is very near what was looked for, even with 28 years.

By the Fourth Table, 1 l. per annum, 28 years to come, at 4 per cent. is found to be worth —— —— } 16.6630,632
Which being multiplied by the annuity of — 600,000

The product will be the exact principal, which will be paid off in that time —— } 9.999,838
Which wants about 2162 l. of the ten millions.

And, therefore, two days more than the 28 years will be ſufficient to overpay the whole debt.

This ſhews the great difference between paying a large or a moderate intereſt for money, ſince by ſinking only 2 per cent. as you find by this example, ten millions are paid off in 28 years, which otherwiſe would have remained a debt for ever.

N. B. The greater the rate of intereſt, the ſooner, by ſuch reduction, will the debt be paid off: for inſtance, reducing the intereſt from 10 to 8 per cent. will diſcharge a debt in leſs than 21 years; from 8 to 6, in leſs than 24 years; whereas, if it be from 6 to 4, it will require ſomething more than 28 years, as above.

For the further application of the tables, and the principles here laid down, ſee the articles Credit [Public Credit], Debts [National Debts], Funds.

Remarks.

This article being pretty large already, and yet containing nothing but what is abſolutely neceſſary, I muſt defer making ſuch obſervations on the ordinary methods of computation of Interest, which I intended to have done 'till I come to the article Money, where we ſhall endeavour to point out ſome vulgar errors practiſed upon theſe occaſions. See alſo the articles Annuity, Lease, Lottery.

Of the Interest of Money, conſidered in a national and political view.

Under the article Barter we have, from the plaineſt principles of reaſon, ſhewed the nature of money and commodities, conſidered by way of exchange for each other; alſo under the articles Cash and Circulation of Money, as well as the article Silver, we have purſued this point, upon one conſiſtent plan of reaſoning, we apprehend. And,

Agreeably

Agreeably to the ſame principles, we ſhall now inquire into the intereſt of money.

Under the preceding articles, we have ſuppoſed a fixed quantity of money, and conſidered the nature of it's circulation, as it is given and received in pledge and barter for all other commodities, between which it fixes a par and proportion of value.

Of the INTEREST of MONEY.

It does not appear that money begets an intereſt by paſſing for a pledge in barter, nor that it's exchange for other commodities produces a great quantity of it in a ſtate.

If we conſider a proprietor, who keeps his land in his own hands, and employs ſlaves to procure him the neceſſaries and conveniencies of life, and ſets overſeers to inſpect them, it does not appear, in that œconomy, that money is neceſſary to carry it on, ſince he can attribute ſo much meat, drink, and cloaths, to maintain them and their children, as he thinks fit, out of the produce of the land and their own labour; as alſo what he pleaſes to the overſeers, to maintain them on a better foot than the ſlaves.

But, if the buſineſs be carried on by undertakers, money ſeems abſolutely neceſſary to fix the par and proportion of values; ſince, in that caſe, they muſt barter abſolutely their commodities one with another: and it appears, from the inductions made under the foregoing articles, that money, and it's circulation, is only neceſſary for barters with undertakers.

Now it is plain that the undertakers get a ſubſiſtence and profit by the buſineſs they undertake (whereby they correſpond to the overſeers of ſlaves) and that the ſaid profit is naturally proportionable to the quantity of the buſineſs that is carried on under their inſpection, and the number of workmen and journeymen they employ; and, ſince they carry on their buſineſs by advances of money for the materials they purchaſe to work upon, and for the maintenance of their ſervants, their profits are naturally proportionable to the quantities of money they advance in their buſineſs.

A maſter hatter, who ſets up for an undertaker, hires a workhouſe of a proprietor for his work, buys wool, poil de caſtor, &c. buys utenſils and inſtruments fit for the work, hires ſeveral journeymen for daily wages, and makes all advances of money neceſſary in that buſineſs: as he correſponds to the overſeer of ſlaves, and is the maſter and inſpector of his journeymen; as he lays out his money at an uncertainty, and runs the hazard of loſing it; he muſt get, in the price of his hats, a profit proportionable to his riſque, expence, and ſituation; and ſo he commonly does, lives pretty well, and maintains a family, and breeds up children; and, if he computes what his advances of money amount to, and what money he has by his profits, which he ſpends in his family, he will find that he has made 30 or 40 per cent. of his money; he will have ſold 10,000 hats, or more, in a year, to a haberdaſher of hats, who has paid him money for them, which reimburſes his advance, and leaves the ſaid profit, and enables him to go on with his employment, and advance for the enſuing year.

The haberdaſher of hats hires a ſhop from the proprietor of land, advances to the hatter, at one or different times, the value of 10,000 hats, hires ſervants to attend the ſale by retail, and ſells his hats gradually to 10,000 different perſons: he is alſo an undertarker, who advances his money at an uncertainty, depends on his cuſtomers, pays his ſervants, and maintains his family, by ſelling his hats at an advanced price, which alſo may anſwer from 10 to 20 per cent. advantage on the money he advances in his undertaking: ſo that the profits of the hatter, as well as of the haberdaſher, are found in the price the conſumers give for the hats. Other petty undertakers make cent. per cent. of their money, otherwiſe they cannot ſubſiſt; and, if cuſtomers will employ them, they muſt give them ſuch advanced prices as will enable them to ſubſiſt.

Now, if any one who has ſaved a ſum of money, offers to lend it to a journeyman hatter, who earns but his ſmall daily wages, by which the ſaid journeyman may be enabled to ſet up for a maſter hatter, and turn undertaker, he would gladly promiſe him a ſhare of his profits; for, though he were not to clear ſo much as the maſter hatter above-mentioned, who had money of his own to ſet up with, yet it would mend his condition to be an undertaker; and a little experience would determine how much this journeyman, now maſter hatter, might well allow out of his profits to the perſon who lends the money, and enables him to ſet up; and his ſhare of profit would be proportionable to the ſum lent, and be called INTEREST of the money.

If this new maſter hatter, by his ſkill, induſtry, and aſſiduity, works himſelf into good buſineſs, and has many cuſtomers, he will be able to increaſe and augment his undertakings; he will borrow more money to carry them on, out of which he will give a ſhare of profit or an intereſt; or, if he can buy wool and other materials, payable at a long term, he will give a higher price for them than the current, which is in effect, to give a ſhare of his profit, or an intereſt.

This ſeems to be the ſource and original cauſe of intereſt in a ſtate. The wool merchant, or undertaker, gets an intereſt for the price of his wool from the hatter, in the term he gives him for payment; he himſelf borrows money, at a ſmaller intereſt, from ſome richer undertaker, and takes alſo time for payment; and this undertaker again gives a ſmaller intereſt to the monied-man, who commonly lends it to the moſt ſolvable and conſiderable undertakers.

The monied man, who has no hire to pay for workhouſes, nor ſhops, nor no care of the labour, which originally produces intereſt or profit, gets leſs for lending, or advancing his money.

As the proprietor of land ſets and farms out his land, ſo the proprietor of money farms out his money, to avoid the trouble of managing it himſelf, and turning undertaker.

From theſe conſiderations it may be inferred, that all commodities which have gone through the hands of undertakers, include in their price an INTEREST of money. That all bills, bonds, and notes, payable at a remote term, ſuppoſe an intereſt, and the proportion of intereſt is grounded upon the ſhare of profit given by undertakers, and that all intereſt falls ultimately upon the conſumers.

The quantity of money which circulates in a ſtate (regard being always had to the quickneſs of it's circulation) fixes the price of commodities; and, where there is moſt money in circulation, or paper that anſwers the end of money, commodities are deareſt, and vice verſa; but the quantity of money does not fix the price of intereſt, which is often higher in countries where commodities are dear, and lower in others where they are cheap: higher in London, and lower in Genoa. In the South-Sea time, all the ready money almoſt in England was brought to London, and the paper credit vaſtly accelerated in motion and circulation. Commodities were indeed grown dearer, ſo far as more money was brought into that channel of barter; yet the intereſt of money aroſe to 50 per cent. per annum, inſtead of falling; the reaſon was, that almoſt every body turned undertaker in the South-Sea ſtock and bubbles; there were more borrowers than lenders. Thoſe undertakers offered a ſhare of the profits they expected to make, to the lenders, juſt as the journeyman hatter to him who ſets him up. This ſhews, that the greater or leſſer quantity of money is not the eſſential cauſe of the fall or riſe of intereſt, according to the notion commonly received.

There are two circumſtances which ſeem moſtly to contribute to the keeping intereſt high in a ſtate: the firſt and principal one is, where noblemen and wealthy proprietors ſpend their incomes upon tick, and pay the butcher, baker, wine-merchant, &c. ſlowly. In this circumſtance, theſe undertakers and tradeſmen ſell their commodities at an advanced price, and get commonly 20 per cent. more than if they ſold for ready money: ſo they not only can afford to pay a good intereſt, but they want alſo to borrow money to go on with their undertakings, 'till they are paid by the proprietors. The ſecond circumſtance is, when the proprietors run out, and pay a great intereſt to ſupply their extravagancies; this is the ſource of mortgages; but the price they give undertakers for what they conſume upon credit, is the ſource of higher intereſt; but, where the ſtate itſelf anticipates it's revenues, as in caſes of war, then intereſt will naturally riſe ſtill higher: and this is the ſource of public debts.

The contrary reaſons fall intereſt; as when a ſtate is ſmall and frugal, and has but few proprietors in it who are expenſive, and where every undertaker has money enough of his own to carry on his buſineſs, as in Genoa, Holland, &c.

It ſeems pretty extraordinary that the intereſt of money is commonly in China at 30 per cent. It is allowed, that the workmen and labourers in China are ſatisfied to work for what barely ſubſiſts them, at the loweſt expence. It is probable that the farmer in China gives the landlord, or proprietor there, five parts in ſix of the produce of his land: the Chineſe are ſo hardy and ſkilful naturally, that the learning of trades is little or no expence, and the undertakers and tradeſmen, if they get but little more than common labourers, are contented; ſo that they probably allow the proprietors of the land, and the proprietors of money the moſt part of their gains; and, as they are all very induſtrious and intelligent, they are all able and ready to turn undertakers, and the number of borrowers to lenders is probably ſo great, as to keep up that high intereſt. It is allowed that almoſt every thing in China is carried on by undertakers; the very labourers dinners are carried to them by undertakers, into the ſtreets and the fields where they work. But to return to the Europeans.

When the wealthy expenſive proprietors of land do not buy every thing of the butcher, baker, &c. for ready money, though they be punctual in paying them afterwards, yet it is eaſy to conceive they loſe 20 per cent. more or leſs of their revenues, by that method of living upon credit; and this ſum naturally goes to the undertakers and money-lenders, who have each their ſhare of it.

But, when the proprietors exceed their income, they ſpend their eſtates, and the money-lenders, or undertakers, get them.

From whence it is apparent, that, though there be a fixed quantity of money in a ſtate, yet the intereſt of it, which is accumulated conſtantly, will be found real by mortgages on the ſaid eſtates, or the abſolute poſſeſſion or property of them.

And ſo it may happen that particular people may be proprietors of more money than there is actually in the ſtate; but, in that caſe, they may be conſidered as ſubaltern proprietors of a proportionable quantity of the LAND, or of the GOODS and COMMODITIES that are in the ſtate; otherwiſe their pretenſions will end in bankruptcies. The proprietors alſo of the public debts may be eſteemed ſubaltern proprietors of ſuch part of the public revenues as are appropriated for the payment of their intereſt; and if theſe revenues were, through any exigencies of that ſtate, to be applied to other uſes, they would find that their money was loſt, though, in reality, the money of the nation was not diminiſhed one farthing.

It may be further obſerved, that the higheſt price of intereſt is offered by the loweſt undertakers and tradeſmen, whoſe buſineſs and payment is moſt uncertain; and this high intereſt commonly comes out of the extravagant price they gave for commodities, payable at time; but, where the undertakers are men of ſubſtance, the lenders let them have money at leſs intereſt, in regard to the greater confidence in the payment; and where the payment is certain, by mortgages in land, or ſecurity in goods and effects, the intereſt is loweſt; and it is this intereſt is called common intereſt, and it riſes and falls in ſome proportion with that of money lent upon uncertainty; and, in theſe ſeveral channels of loans upon intereſt, the price of it always riſes or falls in proportion to the number of lenders and borrowers.

The undertakings in a ſtate which are concerned in ſupplying meat, drink, and cloaths, and other conveniencies of life, are the principal channels of the circulation of hard money; as they are all branched into as many minute parts of conſumption as there are inhabitants to maintain, they require hard money to circulate them.

There ſeems no more hard money neceſſary for the circulation of the ſales and purchaſes of funds, than what pays the intereſt of them, which commonly goes to the ſubſiſtence of the proprietors of them; the reſt may be carried on by evaluation and paper credit. See the articles CREDIT [PAPER CREDIT] CURRENCY [PAPER CURRENCY;] ſee alſo the article MONEY, and thoſe others to which we have before referred.

Of LEGAL INTEREST.

After the baniſhment of the Jews there were, from time to time, many laws and ordinances made in this kingdom, as well by the church as ſtate, againſt uſury; but all to little purpoſe; for perſons who wanted money, and were willing to give great intereſt, always found thoſe who would lend enough to ſupply their wants, upon good ſecurity.

Wherefore, as the practice could not be prevented, the parliament, anno 37 Hen. VIII. cap. 9. made an act to prohibit the taking more than 10 per cent. and great penalties were to be inflicted on thoſe who ſhould take above that rate. This act commenced from the 31ſt of January, 1545, and is the firſt act of parliament in which we find any rate of intereſt mentioned. In this act, USURY was declared to be a thing unlawful.

In leſs than ſeven years, anno 5 Edw. VI. cap. 20. the foregoing ſtatute was repealed; and it was enacted, That no perſon, by any means, ſhould lend or forbear any ſum of money, for any manner of uſury or increaſe, or to be received or hoped for, above the ſum lent, and this under ſevere penalties.

Anno 13 Eliz. cap. 8. the ſtatute of Edw. VI. was repealed, and that of Henry VIII. was revived, with additional clauſes, ſtill prohibiting the taking above 10 per cent. This act commenced from the 25th of June, 1715, and in it are theſe words, That all uſury, being forbidden by the law of God, is ſin, and deteſtable.

When this act was depending in the houſe of commons, there were warm debates about it, in which uſury had a great many hard names given it. It was ſaid to be præter naturam, idem ac hominem occidere, proxima homicidio, malum in ſe, and damnable; as may be ſeen at large in D'Ewe's Journal of queen Elizabeth's parliaments, p. 171, & ſeq.

Anno 21 Jac. I. cap. 17. it was made penal to take above 8 per cent. This act commenced from the 24th of June, 1625, and concludes thus: Provided that no words in this law contained ſhall be conſtrued or expounded to allow the practice of uſury in point of religion or conſcience.

Anno 12 Car. II. cap. 13. it was made penal to take above 6 per cent. This act commenced from the 29th of September, 1660. Note, the intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. nine years before, by an ordinance paſſed the 8th of Auguſt, 1651, and which commenced the 29th of September following; but this, being made in the time of the uſurpation, could be of no force after the reſtoration of king Charles II.

Anno 12 Annæ, cap. 16. it was made penal to take above 5 per cent. as before obſerved. This act commenced from the 29th of September, 1714, and remains in force at this time.

REMARKS.

From this ſhort account of legal intereſt, it will not be improper to add, that there is likewiſe a natural intereſt of money which may be compared to the market price of other commodities; for money itſelf may be looked upon as a commodity which, like others, riſes and falls, as there is a demand for it; and, therefore, when the legal intereſt has been 6 per cent. money enough might be had at 5 or 4½ per cent. on the contrary, ſince the legal intereſt has been 5 per cent. 10 per cent. and more, has been given for the loan of money, not for a year, but for a very few days. This ſeems to ſhew, that no law can abſolutely fix the intereſt of money.

It is to be obſerved, that, till the year 1625, the legal intereſt of money was never under 10 per cent. and that, within the ſpace of ninety years after that time, it was reduced to 5 per cent.

Of the REDUCTION of the INTEREST of MONEY in the PUBLIC FUNDS, made before the laſt war.

Though we have treated pretty amply of this matter under the heads of CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT] DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] FUNDS, and MONEY; yet, as this is a point of great concernment to the intereſt of the nation in general, nothing ſhould be omitted that tends to elucidate the ſame more fully: and what we have further to urge, ſhall be only by way of quere, which, we apprehend, can give offence to none.

Quere 1. Whether the great plea for the reductions of the intereſt of the public creditors from 6 per cent to 5, and from 5 to 4 per cent. has not been in order to eſtabliſh a SINKING FUND, for the ſure and certain payment, or redemption, of the principal debt; and whether this is not the obvious meaning of thoſe acts of parliament, as well as the ſenſe and ſpirit of all the debates within doors and without, which relate thereunto, till the alineation of the SINKING FUNDS took place?

2. Whether this fund for the ſecurity of payment of the principal debt, was not many years the ſupport of the public credit of the kingdom?

3. Whether the inviolable application of the ſinking fund to the primary purpoſe for which it was intended by parliament, would not, from what has been ſaid under the preceding articles, have put the national debt in a certain way of redemption; and if we had occaſion to have contracted ſome proportion of NEW DEBTS while the OLD was diſcharging, would it not have proved far more to the intereſt of the nation to have provided for ſuch proportion of new debt, by new funds, rather than to have alienated the ſinking fund, as has been the caſe?

4. Whether the contrary conduct, according to the ſentiments of that ingenious gentleman, the late Archibald Hutcheſon, Eſq; member of parliament for Haſtings in Suſſex, does not give juſt reaſon to ſuſpect, that there is nothing leſs in view than the diſcharge of the public debts? And that all that is intended by leſſening of intereſt, is only to provide NEW FUNDS for ſuch NEW DEBTS as the ill management of the public affairs ſhall require? And ſo a fund of three millions, which, at the rate of 6l. per cent. per annum, is ſufficient to anſwer the intereſt of a debt of fifty millions, at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum, will be ſufficient to anſwer the intereſt of a debt of ſixty millions; and at the rate of 4l. per cent. per annum, to anſwer a debt of ſeventy-five millions, &c.—And may not, adds this gentleman, the national debt be increaſed to a moiety * more than it at preſent is, without raiſing any new taxes on the people? But, if the debt ſhould once increaſe to ſo monſtrous a bulk, by reduction only of intereſt to ſo low a rate, and without any new proviſion of funds, will there be afterwards a poſſibility for the diſcharge thereof? And it is very eaſy to gueſs what the conſequence would be, if the nation once ſaw that they were to groan, not for a FEW YEARS, but for EVER, under ſo inſupportable a load: therefore it is impoſſible to hope, that the proprietors of the funds would concur in the leſſening their preſent income, if they have any grounds left them to ſuſpect that this will be ſo far from ſecuring to them the repayment of their principal, that, inſtead thereof, it may be a moſt effectual method intirely to defeat the ſame?

* What the national debt was at the time when Mr. Hutcheſon wrote, appears by the following letter, which he addreſſed to his late majeſty, January the 14th, 1714.

'May it pleaſe your MAJESTY,

'The ſtate of the nation with relation to the public debts 'and funds, is a ſubject of great importance to your ma'jeſty and your people, and in the very firſt rank of things 'which claim a ſhare in your royal majeſty's thoughts.

'From the revolution to this time, the public debts have 'been continually increaſing, and now amount to upwards 'of forty-five millions: and the funds appropriated for pay'ment of the ſame do little, if any thing, exceed the yearly 'intereſt; and thereby there is a neceſſity, even in time of 'peace, of providing yearly for the fleet, guards, and gar'riſons, by a a tax on land and malt; the revenues formerly 'applicable to thoſe purpoſes being in mortgage for the 'aforeſaid debt.

'Had the nation at firſt raiſed, within the year, thoſe ſums 'which they afterwards did, the expence of the laſt two 'wars had been annually diſcharged; no debt had ever 'been contracted; all the grievous new impoſitions might 'now have ceaſed; nor had there been any further need ei'ther of land or malt tax, the revenue only exiſting at the 'revolution being fully ſufficient for all the ſervices of the 'government in a time of peace.

'Theſe

'These, and many other, had been the happy effects of 'such a management; and no leſs fatal has the contrary 'conduct been; for we run in debt to ſubſiſt, even in a 'time of peace, and, by any future war muſt become in-'tirely bankrupt: and, to prevent this, it ſeems abſolutely 'neceſſary to raiſe, for the future, within the year, the 'ſupplies which are wanted in it, and to repair, with all 'poſſible diſpatch, the misfortunes which are brought upon 'us by the unhappy expedient of mortgaging, which has 'been ſo much reſorted to for theſe laſt twenty years.

'In the laſt parliament I expreſſed myſelf fully on this im-'portant ſubject; and do moſt humbly beg leave to lay 'before your majeſty the thoughts I have had thereon. I 'am ſenſible that in this, and all other weighty affairs, 'your majeſty will have the moſt proper intimations, from 'thoſe who have ſo juſtly the honour to ſerve your majeſty 'in the chief parts of the adminiſtration: but, although the 'great and rich, out of the abundance of their knowledge 'and experience, will bring into your treaſury preſents 'worthy of themſelves, and ſuch as ſuperſede the need of 'any other, yet I perſuade myſelf, from your majeſty's 'goodneſs, that this poor mite of mine, being offered with 'a heart full of loyalty, will alſo meet with your majeſty's 'gracious acceptance.

'May the accompliſhment of this great work lay a ſolid 'foundation for the future glories of your majeſty's moſt 'happy reign; a foundation, and the only one, on which 'the wealth and honour of the nation can be firmly built, 'and raiſed to the higheſt pinnacle of perfection, and where-'by your majeſty will be enabled to give laws to Europe, 'and to make ſuch a figure therein as no Britiſh monarch 'ever did.

'These, great Sir, are the moſt paſſionate wiſhes of my 'ſoul, having the welfare of my country nearly at heart, 'and being, as I am obliged to be by the ſtrongeſt ties of 'duty, gratitude, and inclination,

May it pleaſe your MAJESTY,

Your MAJESTY's

Moſt loyal, moſt obedient, and

Moſt devoted ſubject and ſervant.

5. Whether the reductions of intereſt on the public debts have not tended to have the effect this gentleman ſo long ſince has foretold, is notorious enough?

6. Whether future reductions, even below 3 per cent. which ſome people affect to give out, may not, if procured upon the like principles as the former, tend more and more to the in-creaſe, rather than the diſcharge of the national debts, is ſub-mitted to every man of common ſenſe in the kingdom, who takes experience for his guide?

7. Whether the alienation and anticipation of the ſinking fund to other purpoſes than thoſe originally intended by parliament, has not proved very detrimental to the PUBLIC CREDIT, and contributed to intail ſuch taxes upon our trade and navigation as we are never likely to get rid of, unleſs that ſinking fund, which was propoſed to have been the redemption of the na-tion, is ſome how ſpeedily redeemed itſelf, and applied to the primary intention of the legiſlature?

8. Whether one general equal tax, or duty, laid ſomething in the nature of that ſo zealouſly propoſed by the late Sir Matthew Decker, Bart. might not be inſtrumental gradually to redeem all other funds and taxes, may deſerve the public conſideration? For, if THE FUNDS ARE SUFFERED TO CON-TINUE IN THE STATE AND CONDITION THEY AT PRESENT ARE, AND NO SALUTARY AND EFFECTUAL MEASURES ARE TAKEN TO MAKE PROVISION AGAINST OUR RUNNING FUR-THER IN DEBT ON FUTURE EXIGENCIES OF THE STATE, MAY NOT THE CONSEQUENCE BE MORE FATAL AND CALA-MITOUS THAN ANY FRIEND TO HIS COUNTRY WILL CARE TO REFLECT ON?

9. Will not further reduction of intereſt take away ſo much of the SPENDING MONEY of the nation; and may not theſe funds, which conſtitute the ſinking fund, be annihilated? What a blow this might give to the public credit we leave others to conſider.

10. Whether, before farther reductions of the intereſt-money of the public funds are thought of, in order to force people more into trade, as is pretended by ſome, it does not become the wiſdom of the nation ſo to advance and encourage it's com-merce and navigation, as to admit of the beneficial employ-ment therein of MANY MORE MILLIONS OF THE NATIONAL CAPITAL?

11. Why have we not public colleges for the improvement of all the commercial arts and ſciences, as long ſince pointed out by the great lord Bacon? Why are private perſons left to themſelves to advance trade, at their private expence, unaided and unencouraged by the public in numberleſs reſpects? Why have we not well-encouraged eſtabliſhments for the promotion of new mechanical and manufactural arts, which are one great ſource of commerce?

It is the old thread-bare argument, indeed, that low intereſt raiſes the price of lands; but Mr. Locke has ſo long ſince ſhewed the fallacy of this ſuggeſtion, that it is needleſs to repeat it here but briefly: for, when the landholder has transformed himſelf into the monied-man, and he finds that a large ſum at a lower intereſt is really of no more advantage to him than a ſmaller ſum at a greater intereſt, where will be his benefit? If lands will ſell for 20 years purchaſe, when intereſt is at 5 per cent. can it be ſuppoſed, was intereſt reduced to 1 per cent. or ½ per cent. that the price of land would riſe to 100 or 200 years purchaſe? However the value of land might riſe upon the NA-TURAL reduction of intereſt, the increaſe of money, and high price of commodities, and without the reduction of their con-ſumption, does it follow that lands will riſe at all from the UNNATURAL reduction of all theſe particulars? Nay, unleſs it can be proved that diminiſhing the conſumption will make the farmer ſell more of the produce of his lands, and forcing down the intereſt of money, by compulſive meaſures, will produce greater plenty of money, and lowering the price of our goods will turn the ballance of commerce more in our favour; un-leſs, I ſay, theſe can be demonſtratively proved, lands muſt neceſſarily fall, and the landholder experience a REAL loſs for his IMAGINARY gain. Provided money ſhould become ſo plen-ty as to yield but 1 or ½ per cent. intereſt, will not the price of labour, and all ſorts of materials neceſſary for land improve-ments, riſe in proportion? So that any improvement of an eſtate would then coſt five or ten times as much as when the money was at 5 per cent. and if, in conformity to the ſcheme of fur-ther reduction, the landholder muſt reduce the price of his com-modities as the expence of his produce increaſed, will this be any encouragement to the culture and melioration of land?

To ſuch land proprietors, indeed, who have contracted debts, the lowering of intereſt ſeems to be ſome advantage; but is not this advantage exactly ballanced in the public accounts, by an equal loſs to the mortgagees? And, if one fourth part of the uſual profits of the perſonal eſtates, lent upon mortgages, be deducted from the whole of their ordinary annual expence, muſt not this occaſion a conſiderable diminution in the con-ſumption and value of the mortgager's commodities? And will not the public loſe as much, or more, in their revenues ariſing from the conſumption of commodities among us, as may be ſaved by the reduction of intereſt? may not likewiſe the pro-prietors of lands be obliged to furniſh from their own revenues thoſe ſupplies for the ſervice of the government which they hitherto have been furniſhed by our expences?

Suppoſe this wonderful expedient of reduction of intereſt would really help the landholder the more eaſily to get rid of his debts, which does not appear to be the caſe; for what he gained on the one hand he muſt loſe on the other: ſuppoſe, however, that the landholder, from ſuch a motive, ſhould be decoyed into further projects of this nature, how would it encourage him to induſtry, and the improvement of his lands? A politic project to help him off with his debts may rather make him indolent and ſupine than induſtrious; for, the eaſier men pay their debts, the eaſier they contract freſh; and, therefore, this may be a good expedient to run the landholder further in debt, but can have no tendency to encourage him to improve his eſtate.

That this faſhionable doctrine of plundering the public credi-tors, to eaſe the landholder, is a miſtake in our politics, hence further appears. I will ſuppoſe myſelf to have lent the public a ſum of money, when intereſt was at 6 per cent. which brought me an annual income of 500 pounds, and now I am reduced to 3 per cent. and receive but 250l. a year, inſtead of 500l. and the other 250l. goes to pay myſelf my principal. In this caſe, it will be allowed that I muſt ſpend 250l. a year leſs, or be ruined by breaking into my capital; and, if ſo, I can take but one half of what I could have done before, of the butcher, baker, brewer, clothier, and all thoſe who take of the farmer the produce of his land could do no more: if ſo, the farmer cannot poſſibly ſell the ſame quantity of his produce as before, conſequently his profit cannot be ſo much upon that leſſer, as it would have been upon a greater quan-tity; whereby he becomes incapable of paying the ſame rent to his landlord.

But money and goods muſt always meet, otherwiſe dealings of all kinds muſt ceaſe; and this is the reaſon why markets riſe and fall. A ſhort inſtance will illuſtrate my meaning: ſuppoſe that two buſhels of corn are brought to market to be ſold, and there come ten ſhillings in money to buy corn, it will there ſell for five ſhillings a buſhel; but, if there come but five ſhillings to market, corn muſt ſell for half a crown a buſhel, or the farmer carry home his corn, and the other his money. But this ceſſation of dealing cannot be of continu-ance: for the farmer will ſoon find himſelf under a neceſſity of complying, when he wants thoſe other neceſſaries of life his farm will not afford him, nor can be had without money, or when his landlord's preſſing occaſions will not admit longer forbearance of rent.

Experience evinces that the reductions hitherto made have greatly affected land; and, if we carry them further, we ſhall certainly repent of our policy.

This leſſening the circulating money of the nation will ſoon bring down the price of all commodities; for, according to the conſumption of all goods, and the occaſion there is for them, the price will riſe. When money is wanting, men conſume leſs; they are better œconomiſts, and make every thing laſt longer, which leſſens the conſumption of the native commodities, and makes the price of them to fall; and, if the price of native commodities fall, the rents of the lands will ſink: for the tenants cannot pay the ſame rent when the

corn

corn and wool, and other commodities which are the produce of land, fall to half the value.

As the wealth and power of a nation depend on trade, and trade on money, ſo, to be powerful and wealthy in proportion to other nations, we muſt have money in proportion to them; for the beſt laws, without money, can neither employ the people, improve the product, or advance trade and manufactures. The ſpecie of this kingdom bearing little proportion to the magnitude of our commerce, we have been obliged to have recourſe to it's repreſentative, credit, which ſecures the payment of money. Had we therefore, no paper effects in circulation, we muſt have more money, or trade muſt be cramped for want of it. If credit in all reſpects anſwers the purpoſes of money, it cannot be of unequal eſtimation, and lands and trade muſt be equally advantaged by it.

Many have ſuggeſted that ſtocks are chimerical riches, becauſe of an equivalent of real ſpecie, to anſwer them, not exiſting in the ſtate. To this it may be anſwered, the value of all the houſes in London, put together in one aggregate total, exceeds, perhaps, the value of all the ſpecie in the kingdom: and all the gold which ſtill lies hid in Peru would not be ſufficient to anſwer the value of all the lands in England: yet does it follow from thence that the value of houſes and lands is chimerical? It may with equal reaſon be urged, that houſes, lands, and commodities, are imaginary riches, as ſtocks are, becauſe they can never be realized and converted into money. What is it keeps up lands to their juſt value, be they ever ſo high, but becauſe people never ſell them, in order to realize or hoard up, but only to make ſettlements? They generally content themſelves with enjoying the income of their lands, which, therefore, are ſo rarely put to ſale, that there are always as many buyers as ſellers. Wherefore ought we not to entertain the ſame notion of ſtocks and annuities as we do about other eſtates? Nay, thoſe who are proprietors of more money than there is actually in the ſtate, may juſtly be conſidered as ſubaltern proprietors of a proportionate quantity of the lands, their produce, and all commodities in the nation, as before intimated.

And the proprietors of the public debts may be juſtly eſteemed as ſubaltern proprietors of ſuch parts of the public revenues, as are appropriated for the payment of their intereſt; and, therefore, both principal and annuity of the national creditors are as real riches to the individuals, and conſequently to the nation, as it's lands and houſes, and their annual produce, and the value of all commodities are. For theſe are abſolutely mortgaged by the public for their intereſt, till the redemption of the principal. Miſtake me not, that I would inſinuate that our national debts are ſo much additional wealth to the nation; for, then, the more we increaſed our debts, the more we increaſed our riches: no, what I would be underſtood to mean is no more, than that, as the whole property of land and commodities of the public are abſolutely engaged for the principal and intereſt of our debts, ſo, in the eſtimate of national wealth, the value of the former muſt be diminiſhed by that of the latter: but ſo far as theſe riches are due from the public to the creditors of the public, and the creditors, as members of the public, are alſo indebted to themſelves as creditors of the public, this debt is no diminution of the wealth of the nation: what indeed is due to foreigners, muſt be deducted to find the net ballance of our riches. Whence it follows, that the properties of our ſtockholders ought to be conſidered as ſo much REAL property as well as that of the landholders; and, therefore, they are intitled to an equal regard from the legiſlature.

REMARKS ſince the laſt war, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY OF PEACE in 1763.

Every one will diſcern, who attends to what he reads, that all we have urged under this article of intereſt, in relation to the neceſſity of leſſening the public debts and taxes before the commencement of the laſt war, will hold good ſtill far more ſtrongly at preſent, ſeeing that war has ſo greatly increaſed them. And if any thing ſhould induce SPAIN and FRANCE to a contravention of the peace, ſo ſuddenly as ſome are inclined to believe, muſt not the motive be, the conception which thoſe potentates entertain of the bad ſtate of our finances? If they were convinced that this kingdom was in a condition to enter into a freſh war with them ſo ſoon after the peace, they would hardly be ſo much their own enemy, as to provoke us to another rupture. But their conduct, if it has not been miſrepreſented, ſeeming to ſignify, that they do not think us in a capacity to reſume the war, it is no way impoſſible but they might be tempted to draw the ſword ſoon again: and as ſure as they do, I will preſume to ſay, ſo ſure will they again experience themſelves miſtaken. When we made the peace of AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, it was ſaid to be, becauſe that we were unable to carry on the war longer; and had not this been credited by France and Spain, they would hardly have ſo ſoon again prepared for, and forced us into another. What deceived them then was, their ignorance of the reſources of this nation, wherein all their ſpies and emiſſaries were not able to give them right information: and I will venture now to declare, and inform France and Spain, that SUCH A CHANGE MAY BE IN THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REVENUES OF ENGLAND, AND HER PAST CONDUCT, AND THOSE VERY SOON AND EASILY ACCOMPLISHED, as will put this nation into a capacity to enter into another war; a war that will prove more fatal to them than the laſt; for I will venture to foretel, that WHATEVER CONQUESTS WE SHALL MAKE FROM SPAIN AND FRANCE, THEY WILL FOR EVER MORE BE DEPRIVED OF, and THE PRACTICE OF RESTORATION WILL END WITH ANOTHER WAR.—Whether we are credited in this or no, let it be remembered, that our prejudgment, with relation to what has happened, ought to give them no mean opinion of our preſent pre-cognition, and the warning we have hereby given.

INVERNESSHIRE in Scotland. It contains that part of Murray-Land which lies near the town of Inverneſs, together with Badenoch, Lochaber, and the fourth part of Roſs: ſo that 'tis bounded with Roſs and Cromarty on the north, Murray Land on the eaſt, the Weſtern Sea on the weſt, and Lorn, Broadalbin, and Athol on the ſouth. It has plenty of iron ore, ſome woods of fir ten miles long, and large woods of oak.

The country of BADENOCH has part of Murray-Land on the north, Lochaber on the weſt, Athol on the ſouth, and part of Murray-Land and the Braes of Mar on the eaſt.

This tract abounds with deer.

That part of the ſhire, called LOCHABER, has Badenoch on the north, Athol and part of Badenoch on the ſouth, and a mountainous tract on the weſt towards the coaſt. It abounds with paſturage, woods, goats and deer; and has ſome veins of iron, but not much corn, being reckoned one of the moſt barren countries in Scotland, yet 'tis very pleaſant; and for multitudes of fiſh, both ſalt and freſh, ſcarce any country in Scotland can compare with it.

INVERNESS, the ſhire-town, is ſeated at the bottom of the Frith of Murray, where it receives the river Neſs from Lochneſs. It lies conveniently for trade, of which it has a conſiderable ſhare, with a harbour for ſmall ſhips open to the Frith. It is a clean, well built, and pleaſant town, has two very good ſtreets, with coffee-houſes and taverns, and the people are more polite than in moſt towns of Scotland.

INVOICE, or INVOYCE, an account of merchandizes, with their value, cuſtoms, proviſions, charges, &c. ſent by one merchant to another in foreign countries. See the article BOOKS [MERCHANTS BOOKS.]

REMARKS.

The goods, for which an invoice is made, are either for the ſender's own account, and the account of the perſon to whom they are ſent and conſigned, or for his account in company. In which ever caſe it happens to be, all care ſhould be taken to purchaſe ſuch goods at the beſt hand; and the nearer that is done to the maker or the manufacturer, the cheaper they are bought; by reaſon that every one through whoſe hands ſuch commodities paſs, will have a profit upon them; which enhances the price, and brings them dearer to foreign markets.

The leſs time of credit alſo, for which they are bought, or, if for ready money, at proper ſeaſons, they are generally bought at a cheaper rate, and are more likely to turn to a better account.

The invoice is made out in the money of the country where the merchandizes are purchaſed, or from what country they are ſent.

This account is intended for the government of the ſeller, that he may ſo diſpoſe of ſuch commodities as to leave a reaſonable profit, ſuitably to the time that principals for whoſe account they are, may be out of their money.

'Tis cuſtomary, however, for an additional charge to be made upon invoices, in order to procure a larger profit upon their ſales.

If they are for the perſons own account, who ſends theſe goods to foreign countries to be ſold by commiſſion; this ſometimes has a good effect, eſpecially if the goods are well bought at firſt hand, and for ready money, or for ſmall credit, and of the maker, &c. And on the other hand,

If this is done injudiciouſly, it ſometimes retards the ſales of ſuch goods, becauſe the factor, not being able to make ſuch a profit as his principal may expect from the face of the invoice, he lets them lie by frequently till he can; which is too often rather attended with loſs than gain: for ſmall profits and quick returns, ſay the moſt experienced traders, is the life of commerce, and the ſupport of a trader's credit, let him deal at home either for time or otherwiſe.

And if ſuch merchandizes be bought, by commiſſion, for the account of a foreign correſpondent, the cheaper they are bought, and the more moderate the invoice appears, the more commiſſions ſuch a factor is likely to obtain; for, by not attempting to grow rich too ſoon, he is the more certain to become ſo. Or, if ſuch goods be for account in company,

the better they are bought, and the nearer the invoice is made out to the truth, the greater credit, and conſequently the greater gain, in time is brought to the agent.

If a merchant buys goods for his own account and riſque, and conſigns them to foreign correſpodents for ſales, he ſhould likewiſe conſider, when he may certainly expect his returns of the net proceeds. And, unleſs a trader thoroughly knows his correſpondent, and can abſolutely depend upon his honour and punctuality in buſineſs, he runs great hazards; he may irrecoverably ſtrain his credit; for one of the greateſt delicacies, in conducting foreign traffic, is to make a proper choice of your correſpondents: and this is no eaſy matter.

The young and unexperienced trader, by over confidence, may ſoon be undone. During the time of his clerkſhip or apprenticeſhip, a young man cannot be too attentive to the conduct of his maſter's correſpondents; to diſcern whether they are men of punctuality, and take wiſe meaſures to uphold their commercial honour and credit, for ſuch are fit for them to have dealings with, after the expiration of their ſervitude.

Skilful traders, who have large concerns in the ſame way, with divers correſpondents, will eaſily diſcover whether they are impoſed upon by an invoice; and thoſe who promote their intereſt the moſt, may be ſure to have the greater ſhare of their commiſſion-buſineſs.

For more matter on this eſſential particular, ſee the articles ACCOUNTANT, ACCOUNT of SALES, APPRENTICESHIP, BOOK-KEEPER, MERCANTILE COLLEGE, where abundance of matter very intereſting both to the foreign and inland trader will be found; and more, in this work in general, than is to be met with, we will humbly preſume to ſay, in any other whatſoever: for we have endeavoured to reduce the doctrine of commercial buſineſs to a regular ſcience; and as ſuch it ought to be ſtudied, before young gentlemen hazard their fortunes therein.

I have now before me a ſurprizing variety of invoices and accounts of ſales, from the greateſt houſes of trade throughout Europe; together alſo with an extraordinary variety of real mercantile letters, wrote to and from the moſt judicious and experienced merchants in the world: I have likewiſe before me the JOURNAL and the LEDGER of the moſt univerſal merchants, that this, or perhaps any other, nation ever produced: they are the books of ſeveral of the moſt eminently diſtinguiſhed merchants; and thoſe in particular of old Sir John Lambert, Bart. whoſe mercantile negotiations are almoſt beyond the pitch of credit: he had alſo the remittances of a conſiderable proportion of the money expended by this kingdom, in the wars of queen Anne. Nor was there ſcarce a merchant in all Europe, any thing conſpicuous for his dealings, who was contemporary with him, that he had not accounts with. And this great merchant ſeems to have excelled in one art above all the reſt, which is the art of inventing, contriving, and forming advantageous buſineſs for himſelf, when others, leſs profound in mercantile negotiations, could ſcarce find any thing to do. This appears as well from his invoices, as other parts of his accounts. See alſo the CONTENTS of our Dictionary, printed at the beginning of the firſt volume, and our General Preface to the ſecond volume.

IRELAND, lies between longitude 5. 40, and 10. 37 weſt from London; and betwixt north latitude 51. 16, and 55. 20. 'Tis an iſland, ſeparated from part of England and Scotland, by St. George's, or the Iriſh channel on the eaſt; has the Scots Weſtern Iſlands on the north and north-eaſt, the mouth of St. George's channel on the ſouth, and the Atlantic ocean on the weſt.

Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth but 159, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles. Sir James Ware makes it above 200 from north to ſouth, and 120 from eaſt to weſt. 'Tis of an oblong form, ſomewhat oval, and near as long as 'tis broad; but, if we conſider all the various windings and turnings, ſcarce any thing can be imagined to be more irregular. 'Tis reckoned to be about half as large as England.

The air is much the ſame with thoſe parts of Britain that lie under the ſame parallel, only in ſeveral parts of this kingdom 'tis more groſs and impure, by reaſon of the many lakes and marſhes; yet 'tis ſaid that no frogs, moles, ſnakes, nor any venomous animal, can live in it, and that the wood of it's foreſts breeds neither worms nor ſpiders. 'Tis, however, generally ſpeaking, ſo temperate a climate, that the inhabitants are not forced to fly to the ſhade in the ſummer, or to the fire in the winter; but being ſo much cooler in the ſummer, and warmer in the winter than England, 'tis therefore judged not ſo proper for ripening the corn and fruits.

The ſoil, according to Dr. Beale, phyſician to the ſtate, who publiſhed his account in 1657, is naturally fitter for paſturage than tillage, the graſs in ſome places being ſo long and ſweet withal, as would ſurfeit their cattle, if they were not reſtrained; and in other places their ſoil is ſo very fat, as not to admit of being dunged. Though a great deal of wood has been cut down to make charcoal for the iron works, and many hundred acres of bogs drained of late years, yet ſeveral large woods are ſtill remaining in Ulſter, &c. and other parts are ſtill incumbered with various bogs of different ſorts, the deepeſt of which are not paſſable in ſummer, except ſuch as have ſome paths of firm ground, which are known only to the natives.

Here are a great many iron mines, but they have been chiefly worked by the Engliſh, who have been great gainers by them ſince the reign of queen Elizabeth. Of theſe there are three ſorts, the rock mine, the bog mine, and the mountain mine. The firſt, lying near the ſurface, is dug out with little charge; the ore is full of good tough metal, but in melting 'tis mixed with other ſorts of ore, becauſe 'tis too harſh of itſelf, melts too ſuddenly, and choaks the furnace. The ſecond ſort is hewn with little trouble from the rocks; 'tis not ſo rich as the former, and the iron is ſo brittle, that 'tis ſcarce fit for any thing but plough-ſhares, unleſs it be mixed with other ſorts. The mountain ore is tough, of a middle ſubſtance between the other two, and, when the iron is well ſmelted and refined, 'tis frequently as good as Spaniſh iron.

Here are many quarries of free-ſtone, marble, ſlates, flint, and ſea-coal, but their principal fuel is turf; in towns near the coaſt, indeed, they are ſupplied with coal from England and Scotland. Their chief commodities for export are cattle, hides, furrs, tallow, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, ſalt, linen cloth, timber, pipe-ſtaves, wool, and woollen cloth, coarſe rugs, and ſhag mantles, freezes, ratteens, camblets, fowl, variety of fiſh, as ſalmon, herring, &c. ſome lead, tin, and iron. Here are alſo ſome glaſs-works, but they have their ſand for making it from England.

There are many medicinal ſprings near Dublin, of the nature of ſpaws. There are others, which the ſuperſtitious vulgar call holy-wells, and aſcribe great cures to them, becauſe dedicated to their Romiſh ſaints.

The chief of their rivers are, 1. The noble Shannon, which riſes in the province of Connaught, divides it from Leinſter and Munſter, and, after running through various lakes, falls into the ſea betwixt Kerry-Point and Loch-Head, after a courſe of 145 miles, beſides turnings. The bay, at it's mouth, is about 10 miles broad. The river is in moſt parts wide and deep, but not navigable by ſhips above 50 miles, by reaſon of a cataract 6 miles above Limerick. It has ſeveral fruitful pleaſant iſlands in it, a fertile ſoil on both banks, and receives ſeveral leſſer rivers.

The Liffie, though not near ſo conſiderable as the former, yet, becauſe it graces the capital city of the kingdom, it is called the princeſs of the Iriſh rivers. It riſes in mountains about 10 miles ſouth of Dublin, but has ſo many windings, that the courſe of it is betwixt 40 and 50 miles before it falls into the bay of Ringſend.

The next river that deſerves mention is the Boyne, celebrated for the victory gained on it's bank by king William III. of immortal remembrance. It riſes in King's County, not far from the fountains of the Barrow; falls into the ſea at Drogheda Bay, but it's navigation far into the country is ſtopped by wears.

The Barrow and Ouze, two rivers in the province of Leinſter; the former navigable by large boats, the latter by ſmall ones, join a little above the town of Roſs, and afterwards mixing with the Sure, fall into Waterford-Haven. The Slane falls into the harbour of Wexford. The principal river in Ulſter that falls into the ſea, is the Band or Baſin, which is not navigable many miles, becauſe of a cataract within three miles of Loughneagh, from whence this river falls into the ſea a little below Coleraine.

There are alſo numerous loughs in Ireland, both of ſalt and freſh water, of which the latter are properly inlets of the ſea at the mouths of rivers. The chief of theſe are, (1.) Lough-Ern, in the province of Ulſter, which is formed of two ſpacious loughs, with a channel or river betwixt them, and runs into Donnegal-Bay, below Bailly-Shannon. In this lough there are ſeveral iſlands that are inhabited, and contain eight or nine hundred acres of land, where is good fowling and fiſhing, and others are left for paſture.

(2.) Loughneagh in the north-eaſt part of Ulſter, falls into the ſeas by the river Bann below Coleraine.

MUNSTER, is in form of a long ſquare, extending 130 miles in length from Waterford-Haven in St. George's channel, to the weſt point in Kerry near Dingle; and 120 in breadth from the north of Tipperary to Baltimore in Cork, but, from Baltimore to the north of Kerry, 'tis but 68 miles.

It enjoys a mild temperate air, has many excellent bays and havens, and opulent towns, and the ſoil in ſome parts hilly and woody, but the vallies are adorned with pleaſant meadows and fruitful fields of corn. The moſt plentiful commodities are cattle, wood, wool, and fiſh.

It is divided into 5 counties, which are ſubdivided into 52 baronies.

WATERFORD COUNTY, is 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and, though in ſome parts 'tis pleaſant and fruitful, yet 'tis for the moſt part mountainous.

WATERFORD, the only city of the county, was reckoned the ſecond in the kingdom before Cork outvied it. 'Tis as conveniently ſituated for trade as moſt ports; it has a good harbour, and ſhips of burden come cloſe to it's kay. Galway

contends with this city for it's priority, and claims the preference in point of trade, though others think Waterford exceeds it, as driving a conſiderable trade with England, which Galway cannot have, by reaſon of it's ſituation.

TALLAGH, or TALLOO, near the borders of Cork, ſituate in a fruitful vale, near the river Bride, which, being navigable from hence to Youghall, renders this a place of good trade.

CORK COUNTY, has Waterford on the eaſt, Kerry on the weſt, Limerick on the north, and the Vergivian Ocean ſouth and ſouth-eaſt. 'Tis divided into 15 baronies, and is partly woody, mountainous, and fenny; yet it has many good towns, abounds in fine rivers and good harbours, is both rich and populous, and the inhabitants induſtrious. A copper mine has lately been diſcovered near Cork, which is likely to turn to very good account.

YOUGHALL, or YOUGHILL, is the firſt conſiderable ſea-port next to Waterford, lies at the mouth of the Broadwater, and is a place of good trade. The convenience of the harbour, which has a good well-fenced kay, and the fertility of the adjacent country, draws ſo many merchants hither, that the town is well inhabited and rich.

CORK CITY, is large, populous, and wealthy. The river Lee paſſes by it. The people here have ſo greatly improved their eſtates by trade, ſince the former troubles to which this place was liable, that it is judged to be the richeſt city in Ireland, except Dublin. 'Tis the chief port for mercantile buſineſs in the kingdom; there being more beef, butter, and tallow, ſhipped off here, perhaps, than in all the other ports of the kingdom put together, as well for France as the Britiſh colonies, and butter in particular for Flanders and Holland. This commerce occaſions a great reſort of ſhipping always to this port, particularly thoſe bound from England to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee Iſlands, which put in here to complete their lading.

KINSALE, is a neat, handſome, and wealthy town, in a fruitful ſoil, near the mouth of the river Bandon, with a trade the moſt conſiderable of any on this ſide of the iſland, next to Cork. Many good ſhips belong to it, and a great quantity of proviſions is exported from hence to Flanders, Holland, France, and the Britiſh Iſlands in the Weſt-Indies. It has an admirable harbour, and a good bay, with a light-houſe that guides the ſhips in the night to the mouth of the river.

CAPE CLEAR is an iſland, where a caſtle is kept for the ſecurity of ſhips, which ſhelter themſelves under it's cannon, with theſe peculiar advantages, becauſe of it's being far advanced into the ſea, and becauſe 'tis alſo an opening to the ſouth coaſt, from whence the principal trade of Ireland by ſea is carried on.

DOWNHAM'S, or DUNMANUS-BAY, is a large and commodious retreat for ſhips in a ſtorm. So likewiſe is BANTRY-BAY.

KERRY COUNTY, has that of Cork on the ſouth and eaſt, Limerick on the north, and the Atlantic Ocean on the weſt. Though in many places there is good corn and graſs, 'tis in general a woody and mountainous county. 'Tis divided into eight baronies.

DINGLE ſtands near the end of a peninſula, near a bay of it's own name, with ſeveral good harbours, very convenient for trade.

SMERWIC, or ST. MARY-WIC, has a ſafe road for ſhips. So alſo has

CASTLEMAIN, a town with a tolerable harbour on the river Mana.

MAIR, or KILMAIRE RIVER, is a bay on the ſouth-eaſt corner of the county, and has a ſafe harbour for the greateſt ſhips.

LIMERICK COUNTY, has that of Tipperary on the eaſt, Cork on the ſouth, a part of Tipperary and the Shannon river, which parts it from Clare at Thomond, on the north, and Kerry on the weſt. 'Tis fruitful, even without the charge of manure, in all ſorts of corn and rape, has a large breed of cattle, and is well inhabited, but has few remarkable towns. 'Tis divided into 11 baronies.

LIMERICK CITY, is elegant, rich, and populous. Though here are ſome merchants to whom ſhipping belongs, yet 'tis not ſo famous for it's wealth as it's ſtrength. The chief trade it uſed to drive was to France, but a pernicious one to the fair trader, is the carrying out wool to be manufactured in France, and importing wine and brandy by ſtealth.

TIPPERARY COUNTY, is bounded on the weſt with that of Limerick and the river Shannon, on the eaſt with the Queen's County and that of Kilkenny, on the ſouth with thoſe of Cork and Waterford, and on the north and north-eaſt with King's County, and the territory of the O-Carols. The ſouth part is very fruitful, produces much corn, and is well inhabited. The weſt part is watered by the long courſe of the river Glaſon. Theſe two parts abound in good paſtures and fine ſheep-walks, and are furniſhed with the largeſt and beſt flocks in Ireland. The north part is but barren and mountainous.

CASSIL, or CASHEL, is the chief town or city of this county.

CONNAUGHT PROVINCE, is ſeparated from that of Leinſter on the eaſt by the Shannon, which alſo parts it from Munſter on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, has the province of Ulſter, and a part of the Weſtern Ocean on the north and north-weſt, and the main ocean on the weſt. In ſome places 'tis verdant and pleaſant, in others gloomy and dangerous, being pretty thick ſet with bogs and woods. The ſoil, however, is fruitful enough, and abounds with cattle, deer, hawks, and honey. It has many convenient bays and creeks for navigation, but few rivers of conſiderable note, beſides the Shannon. 'Tis divided into ſix counties, and ſubdivided into 51 baronies.

THOMOND, or the county of CLARE, is one of the ſix. 'Tis hilly and irregular, but not deficient in good paſture, either for feeding or breeding, and produces the beſt horſes in the kingdom. The ſoil is likewiſe good in tillage for corn and rape. It's trade is much promoted by the river Shannon.

GALLWAY COUNTY, has part of Roſcommon, King's County, and Tipperary on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt, the main ocean on the weſt, Mayo, Meath, and Roſcommon on the north and north-eaſt, and Thomond on the ſouth. 'Tis the largeſt county but one in Ireland. It is divided into 17 baronies. It being much of a warm limeſtone ſoil, it abounds in general with corn, paſture, and cattle.

GALLWAY TOWN, or CITY, ſtands on an iſland by the fall of the Lough Corbes, into a bay of it's own name. 'Tis a ſtrong, elegant, and opulent city, the capital of the weſt part of Ireland; 'tis not inferior to any of the reſt in wealth, it being ſo well ſituated for commerce, not only to France and Spain, but to the Weſt-Indies, on a large, ſafe, and delicate harbour, called the Bay of Gallway, capable of containing a large fleet of ſhipping, that it has been eſteemed as the greateſt place of trade in all the kingdom. Gallway Bay has numberleſs harbours and roads on every ſide, and is one of the nobleſt entrances in the world, were there a ſuitable conflux of ſhips and trading towns; but there ſeems no occaſion for more than what belongs to Gallway itſelf. 'Tis ſheltered at the mouth of the ſouth iſles of Arran, through which there are three paſſages for ſhips, beſides the north paſſage at the mouth of the bay. In the ſeaſon here is a very conſiderable herring-fiſhery.

BATTERBAY HARBOUR, is as fine a one as moſt in Europe for it's extent, and has good anchorage without rock or ſhoal; but here are no towns, ſhips, or commerce, which is the fate of all this coaſt.

EYRE'S COURT, is a pretty thriving Engliſh plantation.

MAYO COUNTY, has the ſea upon the weſt and north, is bounded on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt by the county of Gallway, by Roſcommon on the eaſt, and on the north-eaſt by Slego. On the ſide next the ſea 'tis mountainous and rough, but on other parts has paſturage, and is well ſtocked with cattle, deer, honey, and watered with variety of large and delightful lakes.

In the north-weſt corner of the county, there's a good ſalmon-fiſhery.

ROSCOMMON COUNTY, has Mayo and Gallway with the river Sue betwixt them on the weſt, King's County and part of Gallway on the ſouth and ſouth-eaſt, Slego and Leitrim on the north and north-eaſt, and Longford, Eaſt Meath, and part of King's County on the eaſt, with part of Leitrim, from which it is ſeparated by the Shannon. 'Tis for the moſt part a champaign and fruitful country, which, with little cultivation, yields plenty of corn, graſs, and is well ſtocked with cattle. It is divided into 6 baronies.

CASTLEREAGH is a very improving plantation, and a good market-town.

SLEGO, or SLIGO, lies full upon the ſea to the north and north-weſt, where it is alſo bounded by the river Trobis, which ſprings from the Lough-Ern in Ulſter. It has Mayo on the weſt, part of that county and Roſcommon on the ſouth, and the county of Leitrim on the eaſt. Great part of this county is mountainous and boggy, but it's lower grounds and vallies have a good ſoil, both for the ploughman and grazier.

SLEGO, a borough and market-town, lies on a bay of the ſame name, and is the only town of note in the county. It has a very commodious harbour, and ſhips of 200 tons may come up to the town-kay. The trade here is not conſiderable, though much better than in any of the other places beyond it.

LEITRIM COUNTY, has Slego and part of Roſcommon on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, Donnegal-Bay on the north, Longford in Leinſter on the ſouth-eaſt, and the counties of Fermannagh and Caven in Ulſter, on the eaſt and north-eaſt. 'Tis a wild mountainous country, and full of rank graſs, which feeds an infinite number of cattle: Camden ſays, that above 120,000 have been grazing in this narrow county at one time. 'Tis divided into 5 baronies.

LEITRIM, reckoned the chief town, ſtands near the Shannon, which has it's head in this county, but 'tis decayed.

ULSTER PROVINCE, is encompaſſed on three ſides with the ſea, having St. George's Channel and the Iriſh Sea on the eaſt, the main Atlantic on the weſt, and the Deucalidonian Ocean on the north: on the ſouth it is bounded by the province of Leinſter, and on the ſouth-weſt with that of Connaught.

It's air is healthful and temperate, being cooled with various winds in ſummer, and qualified by moderate rains in winter. It has many lakes and rivers that abound with fiſh, many thick woods, plenty of corn and graſs, and ſtore of ſheep and black cattle. Here are more ſalmon in ſome rivers of this province, than in any other in Europe.

It's principal counties, remarkable for any thing of trade, are,

DONNEGAL, which has ſome mountains, and a coarſe ſoil, but is generally plain and fertile. It abounds with harbours, and has 5 baronies.

LOUGH-SWILLY, has an iſland called Inch, and abounds with fiſh.—Here 1000 ſail of good ſhips may ride ſafe for 20 miles together, yet here is no trade; they have, indeed, a few fiſhing boats, for catching herrings and ſalmon, of which they have great plenty.

SHEEP-HAVEN, is alſo a bay with a very good harbour to the weſt. All the north-weſt part of Ireland is full of excellent bays, roads, and harbours, but yet have little commerce.

LONDONDERRY COUNTY, is a pretty champaign country, and very fruitful. It has the river Bann, famous for it's ſalmon.

LONDONDERRY, the capital of the county, is the center of trade for this part of the country, and is a good port; for ſhips of the greateſt burden go up without interruption, which renders it one of the moſt commodious harbours in Ireland. There is abundance of ſhipping belonging to this city, whoſe merchants not only drive a great trade in the herring-fiſhery, but have a conſiderable ſhare in many other branches of foreign trade, eſpecially to the Weſt-Indies, for which they are very advantageouſly ſituated, being open to the Northern and Weſtern Ocean: and with regard to the city of London itſelf, 'tis judged, that Londonderry is more than half way on the voyage to the Weſt-Indies, but eſpecially to Newfoundland or New-England, conſidering the difficulty of the paſſage, the uncertainty of winds, the hazards of ſhoals and ſhores, the danger from enemies in time of war, the waiting for convoys and other accidents; ſo that, conſidering ſuch almoſt unavoidable remoras, a ſhip from Londonderry bound to America, ſuppoſing it to ſet out exactly at the ſame time as another bound from London, ſhall often arrive there before the London ſhip is got clear of the ſoundings, and arrive in the latitude of Londonderry: for from hence a ſhip is no ſooner out of the river, but ſhe is immediately in the open ſea, and has but one courſe to the banks of Newfoundland, or to New-England, and ſo to any other part of North America, with very little variation.

LOUGH-FOYL, which ſerves it inſtead of a road, is a bay of the ſea 14 miles long, and 7 where broadeſt. There is a channel broad enough for ſhips to paſs in 14 or 15 fathom water, and it has 8 or 10 fathom at the mouth.

COLERAIN, on the eaſt ſide of the mouth of the river called the Great Bann, near the borders of Antrim. It has very little trade, except for it's ſalmon-fiſhery, which is very beneficial.

ANTRIM COUNTY, has that of Londonderry on the weſt, part of Armagh on the ſouth, the county of Down on the ſouth-eaſt, the Deucaledonian Ocean on the north, and St. George's Channel on the eaſt. 'Tis pretty fruitful and populous, though incumbered to the north with bogs and marſhes. 'Tis divided into 9 baronies.

BELFAST, is the chief town and port of all this part of Ireland, as well for the elegancy of the place and number of it's inhabitants, as for it's wealth, trade, and ſhipping. Ships come up to Cormoyl-Road, which is a ſafe commodious harbour, below the town, with a good depth of water. There is a very conſiderable trade from this port to Scotland, particularly to Glaſgow.

TYRONE, or TIR-OEN COUNTY, has Londonderry on the north, the river Liffer and part of Fermannah on the weſt, part of Antrim and part of Fermannah and Armagh on the ſouth and ſouth-weſt. Though great part of it is rough and mountainous, yet in other parts 'tis not inferior to many counties in the kingdom for richneſs of ſoil and good paſtures. 'Tis divided into 4 baronies.

LOUGH-EAUGH, is a beautiful place in this county. 'Tis about 30 miles in extent, and full of fiſh, and the banks are variegated with ſhady groves, meadows always verdant, and rich corn fields adorned with gentle hills and pleaſant brooks.

FERMANNAGH COUNTY, has Leitrim on the ſouth-weſt, Donnegal on the north-weſt, Tir-Oen on the north and north-eaſt, Monaghan on the eaſt, and Cavan on the ſouth. 'Tis full of large well inhabited iſlands, ſhaded with thick woods, and ſo abounds with ſalmon, trout, and pike, of a ſize incredibly large, that the fiſhermen's nets are not able to hold the draught which they ſometimes take.

CAVEN COUNTY, has Fermannagh on the north, Longford and Weſt Meath on the ſouth, Leitrim on the weſt, part of Monaghan, Meath, and Louth on the eaſt. 'Tis divided into 7 baronies. It has ſeveral pleaſant lakes, and though much fenny paſture and coarſe land, yet has a rich fertile ſoil in other parts, well planted and improved.

ARMAGH COUNTY, is ſeparated in part from that of Down, on the eaſt by the river Newry, has Tyrone and Monaghan on the weſt, the Lough-Neath on the north, and Louth on the ſouth. It's ſoil is ſaid to be richer and more fruitful than any in Ireland, and as well improved in all parts, except a ridge of coarſe mountains, called the Fews.

SURGAN, has a thriving plantation, noted for a linen manufacture.

DOWN COUNTY, is bounded on the eaſt and ſouth by St. George's Channel, on the weſt by the county of Armagh, and on the north by that of Antrim.

NEWRY, a borough and market-town. Since the ſettlement of the kingdom of Ireland, it is ſo improved in trade, and conſequently wealth and buildings, that 'tis the largeſt and moſt trading town in the county, to which the increaſe of the linen manufacture hath greatly contributed; and it is likely to receive additional advantages, by means of the new navigable canal, lately promoted by parliamentary encouragement, for the benefit of the inland navigation.

ROSS TREVOR, a village on the north ſide of Carlingford-Harbour, has a kay for ſhips, which ſafely ride at anchor near the ſhore, a ſalt-houſe, and a pottery for white earthenware, made of the noted fine potter's clay found near Carrickfergus, and exported from thence to foreign parts.

KIRKEEL, a village extending ſome miles along the coaſt, has a good ſoil, the country well inhabited, and ſhoals of herrings.

RATHFRYLAND, is one of the greateſt marts for linen in this county.

KILLOGH, or PORT ST. ANNE, on the north ſide of St. John's Point. There is a ſecure paſſage either to the eaſt or weſt of it. Oppoſite to Coney Iſland, the harbour on both ſides affords good lying for ſhipping of 150 tons or under. Here is a charter-ſchool for the advancement of the linen manufacture and ſalt-works: but it's principal traffic is, at preſent, in the exportation of barley, and importation of moſt ſorts of commodities conſumed in the adjacent country.

At INCH ISLAND, the linen manufacture ſpreads, as it does in moſt other principal places of this county.

STRANGFORD, an ancient town. Though, for the conveniency of trade, the collector of the cuſtoms is removed to Down, yet he is obliged to keep a clerk here, who makes entries of all ſhips that do not proceed to Down. The lake here abounds with various kinds of excellent fiſh, as baſs, mullet, whiteing, large ſea-trout, oyſters, lobſters, ſhrimps, &c. and there are great quantities of kelp burnt on the iſlands in the lakes, and on the ſtony flat coaſts.

CASTLEWARD-BAY, is particularly famous for the diſcovery of the firſt marle in the county, which hath proved of extraordinary benefit in the cultivation of their lands here.

PORTAFERRY, is a town of ſome trade, and abounds with excellent fiſh.

DONAGHADEE, is the port where the Scotch packets land. By the confluence of paſſengers, it hath obtained ſome ſhare of trade, and has a collector of the cuſtoms and exciſe.

BANGOR, ſpins conſiderable quantities of fine linen yarn.

NEW-TOWN, pleaſantly ſituated at the north-end of the lake Strangford. 'Tis famous for it's fine diaper, and has a tolerable harbour.

KILLELEAGH, a town ſituate over an arm of the lake of Strangford. Here the linen manufacture has ſpread to advantage, and the delicate white thread made in it is remarkable.

BALLYNAHINCH, ſtands on a ſmall river, near the center of the county. The papiſts, being numerous here, induced the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant ſchools to ſettle a charter working-ſchool at this place, for the education of poor Popiſh children of both ſexes in the Proteſtant religion, who are conſtantly employed in labour, chiefly in the linen manufacture.

MARALIN, a town, part of the land whereof, and of the ſoil leading to the county of Antrim, abounds with a flinty white lime-ſtone, with a mixture of chalk; and the ſprings which burſt from the riſing grounds are extremely ſoft and well taſted, and particularly noted for whitening linen. Marle-pits are opening in this neighbourhood, and in moſt other places of this county: here are linen-weavers and bleach-yards, and ſcarce a farmer but carries on ſome branch of the linen buſineſs.

WARINGSTOWN, a neat village, where the linen manufacture has ſpread ſo conſiderably, that a colony of weavers have gone from hence and ſettled at Dundalk.

GILFORD and BANN-BRIDGE, abound with bleach-yards, for carrying on the linen manufacture, the Bann-water being proper for that uſe.—The greateſt fairs for linen cloth in the kingdom are held here.

LOUGHBRICKLAND. Marle has been lately diſcovered here, which has greatly inriched the farmer's lands; and the linen manufacture enables them to pay their rents well.—In ſhort, the ſtaple commodity of this county is the linen cloth, of which the northern commonalty already experience the benefit; being freed from much of that wretchedneſs, too viſible among the lower ſort in other parts of the kingdom, where this branch of trade has not yet been improved to purpoſe. The county in general is populous and flouriſhing, and daily increaſes in wealth and inhabitants.

LEINSTER, or LEMSTER PROVINCE, is waſhed on the ſouth and eaſt by the ſea, and is indented by thoſe of Munſter, Connaught,

Connaught, and Ulſter, the two former bounding it on the weſt and ſouth-weſt, the latter on the north. 'Tis ſeparated from Connaught by the Shannon, and from a part of Munſter by the Shure. It has a temperate clear air, a ſoil fruitful in corn and paſture; and, although ſome parts are woody, it abounds in general with cattle, fowl, milk, butter, cheeſe, fiſh, &c. and alſo thoſe ſmall ambling horſes, called hobbies.—The principal counties, which have any trade deſerving our notice, are as follow:

LOUTH COUNTY, which, though the leaſt in the kingdom, is fruitful in corn, and a ſweet herbage.

CARLINGTON, is one of the beſt harbours in Ireland, at the mouth of the river Newry; but, the town lying a little out of the way, the commerce is not equal to the goodneſs of the harbour. Yet it has a well-frequented market, and is far from a deſpicable place, there being ſome merchants who have good ſhips built here, and which uſe the coal trade to Whitehaven; as alſo the fiſhing in the ſeaſon, which is the life of trade on all this ſide of Ireland, eſpecially north.

DROGHEDA, is the chief town of the county, on a bay of it's own name. They have a tolerable trade here to the north parts of England, and are ſupplied with large quantities of coals from Whitehaven, which they again ſend by land to all the country round, as well as up the Boyn.

EAST MEATH COUNTY, is a plain, fruitful, and populous country, feeding many herd of cattle, and abounding in corn.

WEST MEATH COUNTY, ſo called, in reſpect of it's ſituation from the former, runs weſt to the Shannon, and lies betwixt King's County on the ſouth, and Longford on the north, to neither of which it is inferior in fertility, number of inhabitants, or any other advantage.

LONGFORD COUNTY, though ſmall, and has ſome bogs and fenny places, yet, in the main, 'tis a rich pleaſant county.

DUBLIN, or DEVELIN COUNTY. The ſouth parts are but little cultivated, being ſomewhat mountainous; but the reſt is level and fruitful in graſs, corn, and abounds with fiſh, tame and wild fowl; but the wood is ſo cut down, that their fuel is turf or ſea-coal. Theſe parts are alſo well inhabited, and diſtinguiſhed for a peculiar neatneſs and elegance, and, indeed, improvements of all kinds, beyond the other provinces. 'Tis divided into 6 baronies.

This is truly, what the learned Camden juſtly calls it, a royal city, and a moſt noble emporium, it being, without diſpute, the largeſt, the beſt built, and the moſt populous of all the cities in the king's dominions, London only excepted; the ſuburbs are to this day ſo increaſing on every ſide in additional buildings, beſides alterations, that like London, which it reſembles alſo in the manner of building, and names of ſtreets, &c. it would require a new deſcription every year.

It is the grand mart, and the center of commerce for the whole kingdom, eſpecially for the communication of trade with England; and though Cork, as before obſerved, is the chief port for the trade to foreign parts, and for the exportation of proviſions to the Weſt-Indies, a trade of great importance to Ireland, yet the trade of Dublin is unſpeakably beyond that of Cork in this particular, viz. that, by it's great import of all kinds of merchandize from all the countries in the world, either directly, or by the way of England, it has the chief part of the inland trade; and from hence thoſe goods are again conveyed, in the ordinary method of trade, to all the inland cities and towns of the kingdom; by which means Dublin is the mart, or center, of the whole trade of the kingdom, with exception to thoſe parts only which we have obſerved to be eminent for this or that peculiar branch of commerce, as Cork or Kinſale for the Weſt-India trade, Limerick and Gallway for that to France and Spain, and Londonderry and Belfaſt for the fiſhery and trade to Scotland.

The only misfortune of this city is the deficiency of it's harbour, occaſioned by the bar at the mouth of the river Liffy, where there are ſuch heaps of ſand brought in by the tides, that it is difficult for loaden ſhips to come in, except at ſpring-tides; and even then ſhips of great burden dare not venture in, the bar being ſo ſhoal, that, at low water, it is but ſix feet, and at high water not above 16 or 18 feet deep, except in extraordinary high tides; nor when they are in the haven, can any ſhip come to the kay, if they draw above ſeven or eight feet of water, all the reſt being obliged to lie below in the river, and deliver their goods by lighters, and other veſſels, at Ringſend, about three miles from the bar. There is, however, very good riding in all parts of the bay, on the north ſide for ſome winds, and on the ſouth for others; alſo on the north ſide of the Hoath, a promontory of land that forms the north point of the bay, there is a very convenient road for large ſhips, near an iſland called Ireland's-Eye; ſo that the merchants of Dublin are not without a convenient ſecure retreat for their great ſhips on all occaſions, unleſs in violent ſtorms of wind from the ſouth-weſt, which often drive them from their anchors out at ſea,

The city is ſupplied with coals by ſhipping from Whitehaven in Cumberland, and Swanſey in Wales, in ſuch large fleets, that it is common to ſee 200 ſail of colliers in the road at a time.

KILDARE COUNTY is an open, pleaſant, and plentiful county, abounds in corn and paſturage, and is well watered with the Barrow, Liffy, and other rivers. It is divided into ten baronies.

KING'S COUNTY was formerly boggy, but is now a populous well-improved county.—It has ſeveral good market-towns; and at Bally-Bay is a well-ſituate thriving plantation, near the center of the county.

QUEEN'S COUNTY has alſo ſeveral good market-towns, and flouriſhing plantations.

WICKLOW COUNTY is pretty mountainous, but fruitful in the low lands, and has been ſo much improved ſince the ſuffering by the Popiſh maſſacre, that it is inferior to few counties in Ireland. A copper-mine was a few years ſince diſcovered here, which is likely to turn to very good account.

WICKLOW, the chief, or ſhire town, has a narrow haven at the mouth of the river Leitrim. It has no great trade, unleſs in carrying proviſions to the city of Dublin, for the haven is good for little. This place is remarkable for the beſt ale in Ireland.—At Dunlavin is a fine Engliſh plantation, and a good market.

CATHERLAGH COUNTY is very fruitful and woody, and divided into 5 baronies.

KILKENNY COUNTY is a plentiful country, ſo populous as to be adorned with more towns and caſtles than any county in the kingdom; and, though it is mountainous in the ſouth part, yet it is ſaid to have fire without ſmoke, earth without bog, water without mud, and air without fog; ſo that, having all the four elements in ſuch perfection, it is juſtly reputed a healthful, as well as a pleaſant county. It comprehends 10 baronies.

KILKENNY Town is a large, populous, neat, well-built, wealthy city, with as good a trade as any inland town of that kingdom.

WEXFORD COUNTY is, in ſome places, very fruitful in corn and paſture, though in others it has a coarſe and barren ſoil.

Ross is a town of good trade, by means of it's own river, formed by the conjunction of the Nure and Barrow, which brings up ſhips of very conſiderable burden to it's kay.

WEXFORD TOWN ſtands at the mouth of the river Slane. It is a large corporation, as well as ſhire-town, and has a very good harbour for veſſels that draw about 12 or 15 feet water; and all which draw more water are obliged to lade and unlade in a creek, near the mouth of the haven on the ſouth ſide three miles from the town, where is water enough, but no ſhelter from the ſouth-weſt winds that come overland.

REMARKS.

If the reader will pleaſe to conſult the article BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN] he will there find the commercial ſtate of England comparatively conſidered with that of Ireland and Scotland, with an impartial view to the mutual intereſt of the three kingdoms, and not to the diſtinct and ſeparate intereſt of either, independent of the other two. See alſo the articles LINEN and WOOL.

In addition to what we have there urged, we ſhall further obſerve,

That if the linen trade of Ireland had not ſuffered ſome checks from the jealouſy of England, Ireland might have anſwered every end of a beneficial colony to the kingdom, by making this branch it's peculiar or local manufacture, and reſtraining their attempts in ſuch other branches as are more injurious to England. The diſcouragement on their linens has compelled them to take up other manufactures, as well as to return to their old buſineſs of victualling, in which their ſale being chiefly to France, or the Streights, and all merchants being apt to buy where they ſell, they are induced to bring back many commodities ſimilar to thoſe they would receive from hence, if their linen-trade was greater, and their others leſs.

Laws to prevent the importation of cattle, butter, &c. from Ireland into England, ſeem to give a monopoly, to a few breeding counties to impoſe upon the reſt of the people high prices for cattle, &c. to the ruin of our manufactures, and force the labourer to live dear, and of courſe to raiſe wages. This is greatly detrimental to our navigation; for whatever enhances the expences of a ſhip, enhances it's freight and gives opportunity to foreigners to victual cheaper in Ireland than we can do at home.

To this it has been objected, That this is done to keep up or raiſe the value of our lands.—To which it has been anſwered,

That there is always a great clamour about encouraging the domeſtic conſumption, which, making neceſſaries bear a great price, can ariſe only from a miſtake in the knowledge of trade; for this is ſo far from beneficial, that it has the contrary effect, becauſe, the leſs is conſumed within, the more will be left to export; the cheaper things are, the more of them will be exported, and it is exportation only that makes a nation rich.

This

I R E

This monopoly, with reſpect to the people, is unjuſt, and the benefit to the landholders only imaginary: for inſtance, A hath a grazing eſtate, to raiſe the value of which, all cattle from Ireland are to be prohibited: A, having the ſole market, raiſes the price of his cattle upon the reſt of the people, B, C, D, down to Z, and their pockets are to be emptied to fill his. Is this dealing equally by the nation in general? Though theſe people were as blind as puppies, yet neceſſity, and the natural courſe of things, will force them to retaliate upon him; for as a monopoly raiſes the price of cattle, their dearneſs raiſes the price of labour; dear labour makes dear goods; ſo that the food, cloathing, utenſils, labour, every thing A wants, come dearer to him; an inhanced, imaginary value is given to every thing: ſo that, though A ſhould have more rent for a time (which yet the decline of foreign trade muſt bring down afterwards) the money he receives is of leſs value, not going ſo far, or being able to purchaſe ſo much, as when goods bore their natural value only: wherefore what he thinks he gains on the one hand is loſt on the other; it is a deceptio viſus, ſetting people to prey upon one another, and letting foreigners in the mean while eat the bread out of their mouths; for a nation that adds an artificial value to it's commodities, by monopolies, cannot export them in ſuch quantities to foreign parts, where they are rivalled by thoſe that bear only their natural value; and their home-conſumption in general will ſink in price, by the nation's having leſs money brought in by foreign trade: ſuch a two-edged ſword are like the monopolies to lands.

Every home commodity, in a free trade, will find it's natural value; for, though that fluctates, as of neceſſity it muſt, according to the plenty or ſcarcity of ſeaſons, yet, for the home-conſumption, every home commodity muſt have great advantages over the foreign, as being upon the ſpot, and free from freight, inſurance, commiſſion, and charges; which, on the produce of lands, being all bulky commodities, muſt, in the general, be about 15 per cent. and a greater advantage cannot be given without prejudice; for 15 per cent. makes a great difference in the price of neceſſaries, between the nation ſelling and the nation buying, and is a great difficulty on the latter, but, ariſing from the natural courſe of things, cannot be helped; though it is ſufficient ſecurity to the landholders, that foreigners can never import more neceſſaries than are abſolutely required; and it is preſumed, in ſuch caſes, they have more charity than to ſtarve the people, merely for an imaginary profit, which yet would prove their ruin in the end; for it is an egregious fallacy, and an abſurdity, to think to raiſe or keep up the value of lands by oppreſſions on the people, that cramp the commerce of the nation; for, if trade declines, the common people muſt either come upon the pariſh, or fly for buſineſs to other trading nations. In the firſt caſe, they become a heavy tax upon the rich, and, inſtead of purchaſing the produce of the lands, muſt have it given them: and, in the other caſe, when the conſumers are gone, what price will the produce of land bear?

A ſmall conſumption makes a ſmall demand, and a ſmall demand makes a ſmall price for any commodity: ſo that when in converſation the wiſdom of our laws is magnified to prevent the importation of cattle, &c. from Ireland, how would a Hollander or Frenchman ſmile when he reflected, that, in his country, the poor, getting proviſions from any place where they can be had the cheapeſt, are thereby enabled to work at prices the Engliſh cannot live on, and, by working cheaper, run away with their trade, their money, and their working people; and, when theſe are gone, we may as well give them the land into the bargain, for any value it will be of.

After the fear that the value of our lands ſhould be leſſened by the improvement of Ireland, had produced a deſtructive prohibition of Iriſh cattle, the people of that country, being neceſſitated to find out ſome other employment for their lands, turned their thoughts to the breeding of ſheep, and raiſed a growth of wool. No ſooner was this effected, but a prohibition enſued on our part, to export the manufactures made of that wool.

This prohibition on the Iriſh, it is to be greatly feared, has much contributed to the ruin of the woollen trade of Great-Britain, and raiſed that of France; for, unleſs the Engliſh take off the Iriſh wool, and manufacture it themſelves, or unleſs the Iriſh are ſuffered to export woollen goods, they will ſell their wool to the beſt bidder, and that is France; and they have and will work the ſame up into fabrics, façon d'Angleterre, i. e. according to the ſame make of the Engliſh, in length, breadth, and all other peculiarities, and have deceived foreigners, by paſſing them for the Britiſh woollen manufactures. See the article FRANCE, with regard to their woollen manufactures.

As, therefore, the woollen trade of France has increaſed, that of Britain has declined: ſo that ſuch reſtraints as theſe have not only hurt the Iriſh, and injured ourſelves, but inriches France; for, as the caſe now ſtands, with regard to the article of cheapneſs, it ſhould ſeem that either Ireland or France muſt, at length, have the woollen manufacture, unleſs Ireland is effectually encouraged by England in the linen manufacture, &c. and England can herſelf work up the wool of Ireland as cheap as France or Ireland can do. The Iriſh export clandeſtinely ſome camblets to Liſbon, and underſell the French; therefore it ſeems very probable that the Iriſh might ſome how be made inſtrumental to recover the woollen trade out of French hands, which the Engliſh do not ſeem capable of, till it's heavy taxes upon trade, and ſome monopolies, are removed. And ſhall we compliment the French with a trade that we deny to our own ſubjects? Nay, one third of what Ireland gets centers here at laſt; and ſhall we refuſe ſuch a ſum, which the Iriſh would draw from the hands of our rivals, and put into our own? See the article BRITAIN [GREAT-BRITAIN] DEBTS [NATIONAL DEBTS] FUNDS, LINEN and WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES.

Further REMARKS on IRELAND, ſince the laſt WAR, and the DEFINITIVE TREATY of 1763.

By our prohibiting, by a perpetual law, 32 Car. II. cap. 2. the importation of black cattle, ſheep, or ſwine; or beef, mutton, lamb, pork, bacon, butter, or cheeſe from Ireland, we forced the people of that iſland into the curing of all ſorts of ſalt proviſions, which they exported to France, whereby the French were enabled to furniſh their infant colonies in the Weſt-Indies, at a much cheaper rate than they could otherwiſe have done; and, at the ſame time, by prohibiting the exportation of ſugars, cotton, indico, &c. from the Britiſh colonies, directly to any place but England, we kept the price of all thoſe commodities at ſo high a rate, that the planters in the French colonies found a ready ſale, and conſiderable profit upon every thing they could produce in their plantations; which they could not have done, had our colonies been indulged, under more eligible reſtrictions, with a direct exportation to every market in Europe.

By theſe means we contributed to the eſtabliſhment of the French colonies; and to ſhew how we contributed to their woollen manufactures, it may be obſerved, that by prohibiting the importation of black cattle, &c. from Ireland, we put the people there upon keeping numerous flocks of ſheep, and producing large quantities of wool they ſent to England, which we ſtill allowed; but another part they began to work up in a coarſe ſort of manufacture for themſelves: this eſtabliſhed a ſort of woollen manufacture among them, which increaſed ſo faſt, that, before the year 1699, they had begun to export conſiderable quantities, eſpecially of the coarſer ſort; but in that year a ſelfiſh monopolizing ſpirit again ſeized England, and by an act 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. we prohibited the exporting or conveying out of Ireland, into any foreign parts, other than into England and Wales, any worſted, bay, or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerge, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, cloth-ſerges, ſhalloons, or any other drapery ſtuffs, or woollen manufactures whatſoever. What was the conſequence? An immediate ſtop was put to many of the woollen manufactures of Ireland, and moſt of the poor manufacturers made ſhift to get over to France, where they were kindly received, and ſet to work as faſt as poſſible; and for this purpoſe, a clandeſtine intercourſe was ſet on foot for running wool from Ireland to France; which has continued ever ſince, notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the puniſhment; ſo that inſtead of having our fellow-ſubjects of Ireland for our rivals, we have had our enemies, the French, for ſuch, in the whole of our woollen manufactures: and this will always be the caſe, when we give a monopoly of any trade or manufacture to any ſet of people, or to any part of our own dominions: we may prevent the reſt of our own people from interfering, but we cannot prevent foreign ſtates; and our monopoly will probably enable them to interfere.

To apply what has been ſaid to our AMERICAN COLONIES: If we could prevent them from ſupplying themſelves at FOREIGN PORTS with FOREIGN MANUFACTURES, it would be the intereſt of Great-Britain to allow them a free and direct importation of every commodity they can produce, or manufacture, to every foreign port, where it can be diſpoſed of to advantage: but if we have, by our miſconduct, unhappily raiſed the manufactures of this kingdom to an extravagant price, [ſee DUTIES and LABOUR] I muſt think, that this might be done by ſuch a ſmall duty upon importation, as cannot make it worth a man's while to run the riſk of clandeſtine importation of any ſort of foreign manufacture, into any of our colonies.—But, if our manufactures have been, or ſhould be, raiſed to ſuch a high price, as cannot be counter-ballanced by ſuch a ſmall duty upon the importation of foreign, it may be ſafely enough propheſied, that it will be impoſſible to confine our colonies to the uſe of our manufactures, by any reſtraint we can lay upon their trade: they will, by degrees, ſet up every ſort of manufacture within themſelves, and ſoon become our rivals, as Ireland did, at the foreign markets; in which caſe, it will not, we hope, be ſaid, that we ought to do by them as we have done by Ireland; for we ſhould then be juſtly compared to the dog in the manger, who cannot eat his oats himſelf,

nor allow the horſe to eat them that can. And till they could ſupply themſelves, they would be chiefly ſupplied by foreign manufactures; for foreigners would imitate our manufactures ſo exactly, that it would be impoſſible to diſtinguiſh them, after being landed and lodged in the merchant's warehouſe, or retailer's ſhop, and equally impoſſible to prevent ſmuggling them aſhore, upon ſuch extenſive coaſts as we now have in America. See the article FRANCE.

Therefore, if we can keep the manufactures of this kingdom at a moderate price, which, conſidering the extent and fertility of this iſland, it will be our own fault if we do not, [ſee AGRICULTURE] we have no occaſion for laying reſtraints upon the trade of any part of the Britiſh dominions: if we cannot do this, we ought, we muſt, at length, encourage manufactures in other parts of our dominions, in order to prevent a clandeſtine importation of foreign manufactures even into this iſland itſelf. Let us, therefore, aboliſh all thoſe reſtraints which a miſapprehenſion of the nature of trade has induced us to lay upon our diſtant ſettlements, and content ouſelves with the profits that muſt accrue to this iſland from dominion alone: for whilſt the ſeat of government is here, we may be convinced from hiſtory as well as experience, that the riches of all our dominions, how remote ſoever, will center in this iſland. Rome was never remarkable for trade or manufactures; nor was there a city in Italy, famous for trade during the time of the Romans; yet the riches of the conquered world centered in Italy, and chiefly in the city of Rome. Thither every man in the empire repaired, as ſoon as he had got a fortune ſufficient for ſupporting him with grandeur and magnificence in that city. Madrid has no trade, yet all the riches of Spain, and as much of the riches of America as their pride and lazineſs will allow them to retain, center in Madrid. Paris has no trade, nor any great manufacture for export, yet all the riches of France center at Paris. It ſeems, therefore, to be our intereſt, as well as our duty, to promote, as much as we can, the trade and manufactures of every part of our dominions, without being ſcared by that old and fooliſh jealouſy of their interfering with the trade and manufactures of their mother-country; for if they can, foreign nations will and may; and if we muſt loſe any trade or manufacture we are now poſſeſſed of, ſurely we ought to wiſh that it may be gained by our fellow-ſubjects, who will bring moſt of their riches hither as ſoon as acquired, rather than that it ſhould be gained by foreigners, who will never bring a ſhilling of their riches into this iſland, and whoſe riches may the very next year be employed for our deſtruction.

Of linen, hemp, flax, thread, or yarn, imported from Ireland.

* Hemp or flax, thread, yarn, and linen, of the growth and manufacture of Ireland, being permitted to be imported directly from thence by Britiſh or Iriſh, duty-free, the maſter of the veſſel, in order to exempt them from duty, muſt bring a certificate from the chief officers of the port of Ireland where ſhipped, expreſſing the marks, numbers, weights, or tale of the ſpecies of each bale, or parcel, mentioned in the bill of lading, with the names and places of abode of the perſons that have ſworn the goods to be of the growth and manufacture of that kingdom, and where, and to whom in Great-Britain conſigned. The form of which certificate is uſually as follows:

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. ſect. 1. 1 Ann. cap. 8. ſect. 2. 12 Ann. cap. 16. ſect. 1. 5 Geo. I. cap. 25. ſect. 2. 10 Geo. I. cap. 17. ſect. 4. 16 Geo. I. cap. 26. ſect. 6.

Port of Dublin.

Theſe are to certify, that A. B. of this city hath entered here 310 pieces, being 7580 yards of plain Iriſh linen cloth, duty free; to be ſhipped on board the Hope of London, Wilſon maſter, for Southampton; which ſaid linen cloth is the product and manufacture of this kingdom, as appears by the affidavit of B. C. of this city, taken before us the 5th inſtant.

Witneſs our hands and ſeals of office, this 10th day of February, 1730.

C. D. Collector, D. E. Cuſtomer, E. F. Comptroller.

Which certificate muſt be produced to the principal officers of the cuſtoms at the port of importation, and the truth thereof be confirmed by oath made on warrant, to which it muſt be annexed. The form of which oath muſt be as follows:

25th of February, 1730.——No. 54.

In the Hope of London, William Wilſon maſter, from Dublin.

Francis Willis.

F. W. No. 1 a 5. Five bales, containing 7580 yards plain Iriſh linen, as per certificate dated the 10th inſtant, hereunto annexed.

William Wilſon, maſter of the above ſhip, maketh oath, That the five bales of linen above-mentioned were actually laden on board his ſaid ſhip at Dublin in Ireland, and that the ſaid bales, and linen therein contained, are the ſame which are mentioned in, and were taken on board, by virtue of the certificate from thence, dated the 10th inſtant, now produced: and that he verily believes, and knows nothing to the contrary, but that the ſaid linen is of the product and manufacture of the kingdom of Ireland.

Signed—William Wilſon.

Jurat 25° die Februarii, 1730,
coram me A. B. Collector.

Wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland.

* Wool, wool-fells, ſhortlings, mortlings, wooll-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhalloons, ſtuffs, cloth ſerges, or any other drapery made of, or mixed with, wool or wooilen-flocks, and manufactured in the kingdom of Ireland, may be imported from Dublin, Waterford, Youghall, Kinſale, Cork, Droghеda, and New Roſs, into Biddeford, Barnſtaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Milford Haven, Cheſter, or Liverpool, provided notice be firſt give to the cuſtomer or collector, &c. of the port into which the ſame are intended to be brought, of the quality, quantity, and package, with the marks and numbers, and the name of the ſhip and maſter, and the port into which they are to be imported; and bond muſt be entered into with one or more ſufficient ſureties, in treble the value of the goods, for the due landing of the ſame.

* 1 Will. and Mary, cap. 32. ſect. 6. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. ſect. 5. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 10, 14. 4 Ann. cap. 7. ſect. 1.

The form of which bond muſt be as follows:

Noverint univerſi, &c.

Whereas the above-bounden Benjamin Forward hath given notice, to the cuſtomer or collector of his majeſty's cuſtoms in the port of Cheſter, of his intentions of lading at the port of Dublin, in the kingdom of Ireland, 80 packs, containing 1800 ſtone of Iriſh wool (marked and numbered as in the margin) on board the ſhip Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is maſter, in order to be imported into the port of Cheſter, and for which he hath deſired a licence accordingly.

Now the condition of this obligation is ſuch, That if the ſaid Benjamin Forward, or his aſſigns, or any of them, ſhall not carry the ſaid wool, ſo laden at Dublin in the kingdom of Ireland, into any port beyond the ſea, but ſhall duly and truly import the ſame in the aforeſaid veſſel, into the port of Cheſter, or into ſome of the following ports of Great-Britain, viz. Biddeford, Barnſtaple, Minehead, Bridgewater, Briſtol, Milford Haven, or Liverpool, and ſhall there unlade, and put on ſhore the ſame, the dangers of the ſeas excepted: then this preſent obligation to be void, and of none effect, or elſe to remain in full force, effect, and virtue.

Benjamin Forward,
James Hopkins.

Sealed and delivered in the preſence of
A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller.

And, when bond is thus given, the chief cuſtomer or collector, &c. of the port, muſt grant a licence under their hands and ſeals of office, for the importation of the goods therein ſpecified; which licence muſt be in the following form:

Port of Cheſter.

In purſuance of an act of parliament made in the tenth and eleventh years of the reign of king William the Third, intitled, An act to prevent the exportation of wool out of the kingdoms of Ireland and England into foreign parts, and for the encouragement of the woollen manufactures in the kingdom of England:

B. F. No. 1 a 80. We do hereby certify, That Benjamin Forward, of Cheſter, hath given us notice of his intention of lading, at the port of Dublin, in the kingdom of Ireland, 80 packs, containing 1800 ſtone of Iriſh wool, marked and numbered as in the margin, on board the ſhip Fortune of Liverpool, whereof James Hopkins is maſter, to be imported into the port of Cheſter; and hath here given ſecurity, according to the ſaid act, for the landing thereof accordingly, the danger of the ſeas excepted: therefore he ſaid the Benjamin Forward is hereby licenſed to lade and import the ſame

ſame, according to the ſaid act. Witneſs our Loc. * Sig. hands and ſeals of office, the 27th day of January, 1730.

A. B. Collector, C. D. Comptroller.

* And when, by virtue of the aforeſaid licence, ſuch wool, &c. arrives at the intended port of Great-Britain, it muſt be obſerved whether the cockets granted in Ireland for the exportation thereof, are wrote on paper (and not on parchment) and are ſigned by three of the chief officers of the port; and whether the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers, are indorſed thereon as the law directs, otherwiſe the landing muſt not be permitted: but, if the ſaid requiſites are duly performed, entries are to be made, and warrants granted for the landing, as for other goods; and, at the landing the ſaid goods, they are to be carefully viewed and examined by the ſurveyor and land-waiters, in order that the landing may be certified to the officers of the loading-port in Ireland, after the following manner:

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. ſect. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 7.

Port of Cheſter.

Know ye, that Benjamin Forward hath landed in this port, out of the ſhip Fortune of Liverpool, James Hopkins maſter, from Dublin, 80 packs, containing 1800 ſtone of Iriſh wool, as appears by the endorſed particulars; which came by cocket from thence, dated the 18th day of February, 1730, mentioning to have there laden 80 packs, containing 1800 ſtone of Iriſh wool, and for which a licence was granted at this port the 27th day of January, 1730; which ſaid goods were conſigned to Benjamin Forward, and delivered by D. E. land-waiter.

Certified the 15th day of March, 1730.

A. B. Collector,
B. C. Comptroller,
C. D. Surveyor.

* This certificate to be made on paper, not parchment, and to expreſs the exact quantities, qualities, marks, and numbers of the goods, which are not to be obliterated or interlined.

* 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. ſect. 7. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect. 7, 9.

Duplicates of which certificates, with the endorſements thereon, are likewiſe from time to time to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in London.

* And it is required that a regiſter be kept, at the Cuſtom-Houſe in London, of all the wool, wool-fells, &c. imported from Ireland; wherein are to be ſpecified the particular qualities and quantities thereof, the maſter's and owner's names, and to whom conſigned, in order to be compared with an account that is to be ſent from the commiſſioners of the revenue in Ireland every half year: therefore, beſides the aforeſaid duplicates, on account of all wool, &c. imported into the reſpective ports, muſt be tranſmitted every half-year to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, in the following form:

* 1 Will. and Mary, cap. 32. ſect. 11. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 28. ſect. 6. 10 and 11 Will. III. cap. 10. ſect 6.

Port of Cheſter.

An account of wool, wool-fells, ſhortlings, mortlings, wool-flocks, worſted, bay or woollen yarn, cloth, ſerges, bays, kerſeys, ſays, frizes, druggets, ſhallons, ſtuffs, cloth-ſerges, &c. imported from Ireland into this port, between the 25th of December, 1730, and the 24th of June, 1731.

Loading ports.	Date of cockets.	Ships names.	Maſters names.	Owners names.	To whom conſigned.	Marks and numbers.	Quality of the packs.	Quantities of wool.	Quantities of wool-flocks.	Quantities of woollen.	Yarn worſted.	Numb. of wool-fells.
Dublin.	18 Feb. 1730	Fortune	Ja. Hopkins	J. Dod	B. Forward	B. F. 1 a 80	80 packs	1800 ſtone	———	———	———	———

☞ The circumſtances are much the ſame in regard to what other ports are permitted to import the aforeſaid particulars from Ireland into England.

Wrought ſilks, ſtuffs, &c. muſlins and callicoes, of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China, or Perſia, may not be imported into Ireland but from Great-Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ſhip, furniture, &c. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 12.

Officers of the cuſtoms of Ireland conniving thereat, &c. forfeit 500l. and are rendered incapable.

No ſugars, paneles, ſyrups, or melaſſes, of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or ſpirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his majeſty's colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great-Britain, in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip, and all her furniture; and may be ſeized by the lord-lieutenant, lord deputy, lords juſtices, or any perſon authorized by them, or by warrant of a juſtice of the peace, or other magiſtrate, or by any cuſtom or exciſe officer, or their aſſiſtants. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4.

Any perſon aſſiſting in the unlawful landing, or receiving any of the aforeſaid goods ſo landed, are to forfeit treble their value; and, for obſtructing officers, 50l. and to ſuffer three months impriſonment. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

Any officer conniving at ſuch illegal landing, or making colluſive ſeizures, is to forfeit 50l. and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty. Maſters of ſhips (being his majeſty's ſubjects) receiving any of the aforeſaid goods on board, in order to land the ſame contrary to the true intent of this act, are to forfeit 100l. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 7.

Such offences and forfeitures may be proſecuted and recovered in any of the courts of record at Weſtminſter, or in Dublin, at the option of the informer or proſecutor, within two years after the offence. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4, 11.

The onus probandi to lie upon the claimer, or owner, of the goods. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 8.

Theſe are ſome of the principal laws of England for the regulation of the trade of Ireland.

IRON, is the leaſt heavy of all metals, except tin, but conſiderably the hardeſt of them all; when pure, and well wrought, is very tough, malleable, and ductile, but leſs ſo than either gold, ſilver, lead or copper; when wrought into ſteel, it is leſs malleable: or in the impure ſtate from it's firſt fuſion, called caſt iron, it is very friable; and the moſt ductile, if only heated, and ſuddenly quenched in cold water, loſes much of this quality.

It is extremely capable of ruſt, more than any other metal; it is very ſonorous, and requires the ſtrongeſt fire of all the metals to melt it.

Iron is of leſs ſimple compoſition than any of the heavier metals, containing a ſulphur ſo imperfectly blended with it's other conſtituent parts, that it will readily get looſe, and, in a ſtrong heat, appear in viſible flames.

It is the moſt difficultly of all metals amalgamated with mercury, and is leſs fixed in the fire than moſt others, loſing part of it's weight in a moderate degree, and much more when in fuſion. Fire renders it more ductile, being moſt of all malleable when neareſt to fuſion, the ſigns of which are, it's becoming whiter, and ſparkling; if kept long in fuſion, it's ſulphur diſſipates, it becomes much more brittle, and at laſt runs into a bluiſh glaſs.

Expoſed to a great burning-glaſs, it inſtantly grows red-hot, then turns whitiſh, ſparkles, flames, and melts; after which, moſt part flies off in ſparks; the remainder turns to a bluiſh glaſs, which expoſed again to the ſame focus, on a piece of charcoal, takes up the ſulphur it had loſt, and becomes true iron again.

It's ſpecific gravity to that of water, is as 7632 to 1000; it is the only known ſubſtance attracted by the load ſtone. When perfectly pure, it readily melts, and unites in fuſion with gold and ſilver; but, if impure, it ſeparates, and forms a diſtinct regulus on the ſurface.

Heated, it increaſes in bulk and weight, but, when cold, returns to it's former gravity and dimenſions. All the ſtronger acids diſſolve it; ſpirit of nitre, or aqua fortis, moſt readily; but by lying long, even in common water, it gives a taſte to it, contracts a ruſt, and throws off a yellow ochre. All ſalts, except alkaline, diſſolve it. It is alſo moſt eaſily deſtroyed by many other means: neither reſiſting the force of lead or antimony, but, fuſed with them, preſently vitrifies, and goes off in ſcoriæ.

It's great teſt is attraction by the magnet; but it muſt be in it's true metalline ſtate, for many of the ores will not anſwer the trial. It may be produced by art, out of almoſt every thing we know. Many earths afford it by calcination; all the parts of animals and vegetables, in the aſhes of all which it will be found ſo perfect, as readily to anſwer the magnet.

In the bowels of the earth, when it enters the compoſition of cryſtals and ſpars, it ſometimes determines their figure; at others only their colour. Among gems, the amethyſt, garnet, and hyacinth, owe their colours to iron.

The iron ores are extremely various in form and colour, diſcovering themſelves by their reſemblance to wrought iron in ſtructure and look, or by their yellowiſh or purpliſh tinge: the richeſt have moſt of all the appearance of the metal they contain. The poorer ores are generally of a more lax and friable texture, and of a yellowiſh or reddiſh hue, or of a mixed colour between theſe, with a brown or blackiſh caſt in it. The common ochres, both yellow and red, are very rich in the metal, and worked for in ſome places to great advantage.

REMARKS.

Remarks.

Since this nation has given encouragement to the making of iron in our American plantations, we have experienced the benefit of it; and we hope it will prove true, that new iron works are about to be eſtabliſhed in Canada, ſince the late French colonies have been in our hands. Thus we are likely to ſave that money that we uſed to pay for iron, to our great diſadvantage: nor can it be long, we hope, before we alſo experience the benefits of ſupplying ourſelves from America, with every kind of naval ſtores we ſtand in need of, which will prove of no little additional emolument to theſe kingdoms. See our articles Hemp, Pitch and Tar, and Naval Stores, and Business of the Customs at the End of Letter I.

Iron, as applied to medicinal uſes.

It has greater medicinal virtues than any of the other metals, being alone any way ſoluble in the human body; for even it's crude filings, taken inwardly, are always ſo much acted upon by the juices, as to produce conſiderable effects.
The preparations of it in moſt frequent uſe are, beſide the crude filings reduced to an impalpable powder, the following, viz.

Salt of iron.

Process.

Mix together a quart of water, and eight ounces of oil of vitriol; pour the oil of vitriol in by little at a time; put the mixed liquor into a glaſs veſſel, and add four ounces of filings of iron; when the ebulition is over, evaporate the liquor to a pellicle, and ſet it to ſhoot; there will be a green vitriol, or ſalt, in fair cryſtals; dry them for uſe.
This is one of the moſt powerful preparations of this metal in uſe; it opens all obſtructions, and ſtrengthens the viſcera, and is good againſt worms. The beſt manner of giving it is in ſolution, half an ounce in a quart of water; the doſe four ounces, drank as chalybeate waters, will be found to exceed moſt of them in it's good effects. But, in many caſes, the crude filings ſucceed better than any other form. When taken in female diſorders, in which the body is weak, and full of acidities, the juices are themſelves the beſt menſtruum for it; the natural heat, before wanting, being always excited by this means, and more good found than from all the laboured preparations ever invented.

Aperient crocus of iron.

Process.

Expoſe a quantity of pure iron filings to the air in the ſpring, till by dews and rains they are perfectly converted into a reddiſh ruſt; powder, and keep them for uſe.
There is another preparation of it with ſulphur, thus; mix together equal quantities of iron filings and powder of common brimſtone; make them into a ſtiff paſte with water, roll it into a ball, and lay it by for five or ſix hours, it will half calcine with the heat it acquires; then put it into an earthen pan, ſet it over the fire, and burn away the ſulphur, and there will remain a red powder for uſe.
The doſe of either of theſe is from 10 to 30 grains, in caſes of obſtructions; but the firſt is moſt eſteemed.

Tincture of iron with ſpirit of ſalt.

Process.

Take filings of iron half a pound, Glauber's ſpirit of ſea ſalt three pounds, rectified ſpirit of wine three pints; digeſt the ſpirit of ſalt and filings without heat, as long as the ſpirit will work upon them; let the fæces ſubſide, and pour off the clear liquor; evaporate to one pound, and add the ſpirit of wine. This is preferable to any tincture hitherto in common uſe: it is good in all caſes in which the ſalt or crocus are.

Flowers of iron.

Process.

Take of iron filings, or of the colcothar of common green vitriol waſhed, one pound, of crude ſal armoniac two pounds; mix together, and ſublime in a retort; mix the flowers again with the reſiduum, and repeat the proceſs till they are of a beautiful yellow colour. To the remainder may be added freſh ſal armoniac half a pound, and, repeating the proceſs, more flowers will ariſe, like the former. This is the ſame with the ens veneris of Mr. Boyle, except that he uſed blue vitriol: both, however, are good medicines.

Steel wine.

Process.

Take filings of iron four ounces, cinnamon and mace of each half an ounce, of Rheniſh wine two quarts; infuſe a month without heat, often ſhaking the veſſel; then filter off for uſe.
This wine is an excellent ſtomachic and aperient: it may be drank a glaſs once or twice a day, or mixed in apozems of the aperient vegetables.

Aſtringent crocus of iron.

Process.

Expoſe a quantity of clean and fine iron filings to the air, and ſprinkle them at times with vinegar; let them remain thus till almoſt converted into ruſt, then ſet the whole in a ſtrong reverberatory fire, till it be of a deep purple colour; when cold, levigate it to an impalpable powder for uſe.
This is a good medicine in hæmorrhages, and in obſtinate diarrhœas and dyſenteries: the doſe is from 10 grains to 30. It muſt be given in a bolus or pills, for in any liquid it ſinks to the bottom too ſuddenly to be taken without waſte.

Antiphthyſic tincture.

Process.

Take ſugar of lead and green vitriol, of each three ounces; rectified ſpirit of wine a quart; powder the ſalts ſeparately, and digeſt them in the ſpirit, without heat, and there will be a fine purple tincture.
It is the moſt powerful aſtringent and ſtyptic tincture we are yet acquainted with; it's doſe is from 15 to 40 drops.

Remarks.

As we pay to Sweden, Ruſſia, and Spain, between 3 and 400,000 l. a year for bar iron, does it not become the wiſdom of the nation to offer a parliamentary reward to any one or more who ſhall diſcover the ſecret of making bar-iron by the means of pit-coal fuel, that the kingdom may be enabled to ſupply itſelf with a commodity that carries ſo much money annually out of it?
2. Whether alſo the art of making of caſt iron more pure, tough, and malleable than is done at preſent, whereby it may be applied to various uſes that hammered bar-iron itſelf is, does not merit ſome public reward and encouragement? See the article Foundery.

The PRACTICAL BUSINESS of the CUSTOM-HOUSE continued from the end of letter H.

INFORMATIONS, with reſpect to violating the laws of the cuſtoms, &c.

INFORMATIONS.—Every informer, upon a penal ſtatute, muſt exhibit his ſuit in proper perſon, and purſue the ſame only by himſelf, or by his attorney in court; which purſuit muſt be by way of information, or original action; upon which information, the time of exhibiting muſt be noted.—No proceſs to be ſued out upon ſuch information, till exhibited in due form; upon which proceſs muſt be indorſed the party's name that purſueth, and the ſtatute whereon grounded. 18 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 1. and 27 Eliz. cap. 10. §. 2.

The offence not to be laid in the information, to be done in any other county, than where really committed. 31 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 2. and 21 Jac. I. cap. 4. §. 2.

Actions, ſuits, bills, or indictments for frauds relating to the cuſtoms, may be laid in any county; and on actions for forfeitures upon penal ſtatutes, any officer, &c. may ſue within a year; which being expired, the king may ſue within two years more, unleſs ſhorter time be appointed by any other ſtatute. 31 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 5, 6. and 21 Jac. I. cap. 4. §. 3, 5.

But for DRAWBACK-GOODS relanded, ſuit may be within five years after offence committed. 8 Ann. cap. 13. §. 16.

Informer or plaintiff may not compound or agree with the offender, but after anſwer made in court to the information; nor after anſwer, but by order and conſent of the court: and if the informer, &c. delay, or diſcontinue his ſuit, or is non ſuited, or has verdict paſſed againſt him, he muſt pay the defendant his coſts, charges, and damages. 18 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 4. and 27 Eliz. cap. 10. §. 2.

Informers offending in ſuing out of proceſs, making of compoſitions, &c. without order or conſent of the court, upon conviction, are to ſtand in the pillory for two hours, and to forfeit 10l. 18 Eliz. cap. 5. §. 4. and 27 Eliz. cap. 10. §. 2.

Bills or plaints not to be filed till the informer has ſworn before ſome of the judges of the court, that the offence was committed in the county alledged in the information, and that he believes it was committed within a year. 21 Jac. I. cap. 4. §. 3.

May not be entered in any of the courts in Weſtminſter, or Edinburgh, againſt any perſon for the recovery of penalties inflicted by the laws of the cuſtoms, exciſe, and ſalt duties, unleſs in the name of the attorney-general, or an officer of the ſaid revenues. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 28.

Perſons taken up by capias, in priſon for want of bail on any information relating to the cuſtoms, &c. not pleading for the ſpace of one term, judgment muſt be entered by default, and execution awarded againſt body and eſtate. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 27.

And ſuits for forfeitures and penalties relating to the cuſtoms, &c. incurred to his majeſty, may be commenced in any of the courts of record at Weſtminſter, and in the court of exchequer in Scotland; unleſs in ſome few caſes, where the juſtice of the peace or the commiſſioner of the cuſtoms and exciſe, may, in a ſummary way, proceed to condemnation of goods ſeized: for which, ſee the ſeveral heads referred to, under the article of SEIZURES and forfeitures of goods, and penalties pecuniary. 6 Ann. cap. 26. §. 6. at the end of letter S.

Or indictments being commenced or proſecuted for aſſaults upon officers, the offence may be tried in any county of England. 9 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 26.

Sheriffs, mayors, or bailiffs, or other perſons, having the execution of any proceſs againſt any offender in relation to the cuſtoms or exciſe, are upon requeſt (indorſed upon the back of the ſaid proceſs, ſigned by the ſollicitor of the cuſtoms or exciſe) to grant a ſpecial warrant to ſuch perſon as is named by the ſaid ſollicitor, for apprehending the offender; and in default thereof, are ſubject to ſuch penalties, &c. as they are now liable to, for refuſing or neglecting to execute ſuch proceſs. 9 Geo. II. cap. 35. §. 32.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, with regard to the RESTRICTIONS of the TRADE of IRELAND.

IRELAND.—Hemp, or flax, and any manufacture made thereof in Ireland, may be imported by Britiſh or Iriſh directly into Great-Britain, FREE OF ALL DUTIES, upon certificate of the officers of the port where ſhipped, expreſſing the marks, number, tale, or weight of the ſpecies in each bale or parcel, mentioned in the bill of lading, with the name and place of abode of the exporter from Ireland, and of the perſon who ſhall have ſworn that the goods are the manufacture of Ireland, and where, and to whom in England conſigned; and oath of the maſter, that the goods are the ſame mentioned in ſuch certificate. 7 and 8 Will. III. cap. 39. §. 1. and 16 Geo. II. cap. 26. §. 6.

Wrought ſilks, ſtuffs, &c. muſlins and callicoes of the manufacture of Eaſt-India, China, or Perſia, may not be imported there, but from Great-Britain, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, and the ſhip, furniture, &c. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 12.

Officers of the cuſtoms in Ireland conniving thereat, &c. forfeits 500l. and are rendered incapable. 5 Geo. I. cap. 11. §. 12.

No ſugars, panelles, ſyrups, or molaſſes of the product of any of the plantations in America, nor any rum or ſpirits of America (except of the growth and manufacture of his majeſty's ſugar colonies there) may be imported into Ireland, unleſs ſhipped in Great-Britain in ſhips legally navigated, upon forfeiture thereof, or the value, together with the ſhip and all her furniture: — But not to extend to reſtrain the importation of ſugars of the produce of any of the dominions of the king of Spain or Portugal, from any place from whence they might have been lawfully imported before. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4, 13.

Any perſon aſſiſting in the unlawful landing or receiving any of the aforeſaid goods ſo landed, are to forfeit treble their value; and for obſtructing officers, 50l. and to ſuffer three months impriſonment. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

Any officer conniving at ſuch illegal landing, or making colluſive ſeizures, is to forfeit 50l. and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 5, 6.

Maſters of ſhips (being his majeſty's ſubjects) receiving any of the aforeſaid goods on board, in order to land the ſame contrary to the true intent of this act, to forfeit 100l. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 7.

Such offences and forfeitures may be proſecuted and recovered in any of the courts of record at Weſtminſter, or in Dublin, at the option of the informer, or proſecutor, within two years after offence. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 4, 11.

The ONUS PROBANDI to lie upon the claimer or owner of the goods. 6 Geo. II. cap. 13. §. 8.

No glaſs of any kind or denomination, other than the manufacture of Great-Britain, may be imported into Ireland, upon forfeiture thereof, and of the ſhip, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and 10s. for every pound weight by the maſter of the ſhip, and every other perſon concerned or aſſiſting in importing or landing it, and the glaſs to be deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation. 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 22.

The maſter of every ſhip which ſhall carry any kind of glaſs to Ireland, muſt, before he is permitted to ſail out of the port of Great-Britain, take from, and under the hands and ſeals of, the collector or comptroller thereof, a duplicate of his contents in writing, of all the glaſs taken on board, which is to be delivered him without fee; and upon his arrival at the port in Ireland, where he intends to unlade, he muſt deliver upon oath, ſuch duplicate to the collector, comptroller, or other officer of the cuſtoms there, before he is permitted to land ſuch glaſs; for landing ſuch glaſs, before the duplicate is ſo produced, the penalty is the ſame as in the foregoing article. 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 23.

No glaſs of any kind may be exported from Ireland, or laden upon any horſe, cart, or other carriage, or on board any veſſel, in any place belonging to the kingdom of Ireland, with intent to be exported, upon forfeiture of the glaſs, and 10s. for every pound weight, by every perſon concerned or aſſiſting therein; and alſo of every ſhip or veſſel, barge, boat, or other bottom, on board which it was laden, with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the glaſs to be deſtroyed within ten days after condemnation. 19 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 24.

Offences againſt this act, relating to the exportation of glaſs, and importation, are to be heard and determined by the commiſſioners, and ſub-commiſſioners of exciſe, in their reſpective diſtricts in Ireland; who may proceed in a ſummary way, and give judgment, and levy the penalties and forfeitures in ſuch manner, as they may in caſes of exciſe in Ireland. 16 Geo. II. cap. 12. §. 25.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, reſpecting IRON.

IRON, notwithſtanding the act of 28 Edw. III. cap. 5. may be exported by any perſon. 5 and 6 Will. III. cap. 17. §. 2.

Armour, bandeliers, bridle-bits, halbert-heads, and ſharps, holſters, muſquets, carbines, fowling-pieces, piſtols, pike-heads, ſword or rapier-blades, ſaddles, ſnaffles, ſtirrups, calve-ſkins dreſſed or undreſſed, geldings, oxen, ſheep-ſkins dreſſed without

without the wool, and all ſorts of manufactures of leather may be exported by any perſons. 12 Car. II. cap. 4. §. 11.

Pig-iron, made in, and imported from, the Britiſh colonies in America, may be imported into any port of Great-Britain; and bar-iron, made in and imported from the ſaid colonies, may be imported into the port of London, FREE OF ALL DUTIES, under the following regulations. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 1.

The perſon ſhipping the pig or bar-iron in America muſt, before clearing out the veſſel for Great-Britain, make oath before the governor, collector and comptroller of the cuſtoms, and naval officer, or any two of them, that the iron ſo ſhipped, expreſſing the true weight, was made at ——— within the colony of ———, with the name of the perſon to whom ſold or conſigned. Thereupon the ſaid officers are to grant a certificate, under the hands and ſeals of office, of ſuch oath having been made before them. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 5.

The ſaid pig or bar-iron muſt alſo be ſtamped with a mark, denoting the colony where it was made, and the certificate above-mentioned muſt be produced to the chief officer of the cuſtoms at the place of importation, and oath made before him by the commander of the veſſel, that the iron ſo imported is the ſame mentioned in the certificate, otherwiſe to be chargeable with the DUTIES as before. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 6, 7.

For falſely making ſuch certificate, the penalty is, forfeiture of 200l. loſs of office, and being incapable of ſerving his majeſty; for falſely making the oaths above-mentioned, the offender incurs the puniſhment by law for wilful and corrupt perjury; and for counterfeiting the ſtamp or certificate, the puniſhment by law for forgery.—The penalties for falſely making ſuch ſtamps or certificates recoverable in any court of record at Weſtminſter or America, or in the exchequer in Scotland reſpectively, where the offender ſhall dwell when the offence was committed, or information, &c. brought; and every information, &c. brought in Great-Britain, is to be laid either in the county where the offence was committed, or where the offender dwells when the information, &c. is brought. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 8, 11.

Bar-iron imported into the port of London by virtue of this act, is to be entered at the cuſtom-houſe, and ſtamped with ſuch mark as the commiſſioners ſhall direct in three different parts of each bar; that is, two at the diſtance of a yard from each end, and one in the middle. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 13.

Such bar-iron may not be exported or carried coaſt-wiſe, except for the uſe of his majeſty's dock-yards, on forfeiture thereof, together with the veſſel; and the perſon exporting or ſending it coaſt-wiſe, the maſter of the veſſel and mariners are ſubject to the ſame penalties as in caſe of being laden with prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, or goods clandeſtinely imported or exported: and any officer of the cuſtoms granting a cocket, or other warrant for ſuch purpoſe, forfeits 200l. and is to loſe his office, and be rendered incapable of ſerving his majeſty, and the cocket, &c. to be void. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 2.

Such bar-iron may not be conveyed by land to any place beyond ten miles from any part of the port of London, except to his majeſty's dock-yards and for his uſe, on forfeiture of 20s. per hundred weight by the perſon conveying it, or cauſing it ſo to be conveyed. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 4.

For counterfeiting, deſtroying, or defacing the ſtamps, with intent to convey the iron ten miles from the port of London, the penalty is 100l. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 14.

No bar-iron may be carried coaſt-wiſe, unleſs mention is made in the certificate of the day on which the duties were paid at importation, and by whom. 23 Geo. II. cap. 29. §. 3.

BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS with reſpect to the ISLE of MAN.

ISLE OF MAN.—Corn of the growth thereof may be imported into Great-Britain. 15 Car. II. cap. 7. §. 21.

No goods but ſuch as are of the growth, produce and manufacture of the ſaid iſle, may be imported from thence into Great-Britain, or within the limits of any port thereof. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 22.

Veſſels found, or diſcovered to have been with ſuch goods within the limits of any port of Great-Britain or Ireland, whether bulk has been broke or not, are forfeited, with the tackle, &c. and likewiſe the goods or their value. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 22.

Perſons concerned in landing or conveying away ſuch goods, forfeit 100l. or ſix months impriſonment, at the diſcretion of the court. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 22.

Foreign goods entered outwards for any other parts than the Iſle of Man, and yet carried thither and landed; the exporter is to forfeit the drawback, or the amount thereof, as alſo treble the value of the goods. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 23.

Maſters of the veſſels ſubject to the like penalties, and to ſuffer ſix months impriſonment, without bail or main-prize. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 23.

To be added to, and included in, the oath of the exporter, upon all debentures for foreign goods exported. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 24.

The treaſury, in behalf of the crown, may treat for the abſolute purchaſe thereof. 12 Geo. I. cap. 28. §. 25.

With reſpect to JURIES.

JURIES, in caſes relating to the cuſtoms, to conſiſt of free-born ſubjects only. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 11.

The BUSINESS of the CUSTOMS, with reſpect to JUSTICES of the PEACE.

JUSTICES of the peace, magiſtrates, and all other his majeſty's officers and ſubjects, are to be aiding and aſſiſting to the officers of the cuſtoms in the execution of this act, and for ſuch aid, &c. ſhall be thereby defended and ſaved harmleſs. 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 32.

K.

KAY

KALI, is a grey ſalt, which we bring from Alicant and Carthagena in Spain, in loaves or cakes of different ſizes. It is made from a plant that grows along the ſea-coaſt, which the botaniſts call kali, and we ſalt-wort, ſoap-wort, glaſs-weed, kelp, and many other names. This plant bears a ſtalk a foot and a half high, or thereabouts, furniſhed with ſmall narrow leaves. They ſow this herb, and, when it is come to a due height, they cut and manage it like hay.

When it is dried, the Spaniards make large holes or pits in the ground, in the nature of lime-kilns, into which they throw a bundle of the dried herb, to which they put fire; and, when it is well lighted, they throw in other bundles, till they fill it full of the dried herb; when they have filled it, they ſtop it up, and leave it all together for ſome time, that it may not only be reduced the better to aſhes, but likewiſe incorporate, and be capable to form into a ſtone or cake, in which form it is now brought to market: when they have opened the pit, they find the ſaid herb burnt into a hard ſtone, which they are obliged to break and raiſe up, juſt as they do ſtone out of the quarry.

There are ſold at Paris four ſorts of pot-aſhes; the firſt and moſt valuable of which, is that of Alicant: which, when they are right, ought to be dry and clean, of bluiſh grey without and within, having little holes made like partridge's eyes, and, when ſpit upon and held to the noſe, have no offenſive ſmell. And beware the ſtones be not incloſed with a greeniſh cruſt, or full of pebbles; for the firſt will ſtain and ſpot, and entirely ſpoil linen, according to the nature of the ſtones that are found within. Likewiſe take heed that the bales be not opened, and the commodity that was good, exchanged for that which is naught, and chuſe ſuch as is in ſmall pieces. This is very much uſed by the glaſs-makers, to make the beſt glaſs; and the ſoap-boilers likewiſe uſe it conſiderably, drawing it's ſalt from it, which they uſe in the making of white and marbled ſoap; but the greateſt part of that which comes from Spain is conſumed at Paris and the neighbouring villages, by the ſcourers or whiteners, who uſe it to whiten their linen.

They make from this ſalt, which the French call ſoude, by the aſſiſtance of common water, a white ſalt, called ſalt of kali, or alkali; which is as much as to ſay, ſoude ſalt, becauſe al is an Arabian word that ſignifies ſalt, and kali, ſoude. It is to be obſerved, that this ſalt is only properly called alkali ſalt; though the fixed ſalts of other plants may be alſo called alkali ſalts, with the addition of the name of the plant they are made from, as the alkali ſalt of wormwood.

The ſecond ſort is that of Carthagena, which only differs from that of Alicant in not being ſo good, neither is it of the bluiſh caſt, but more cruſted, and the bales are much larger. The third ſort of pot-aſhes is that named the Bourde kind, which ought to be entirely rejected, as being ſo bad, that it is fit for nothing but to deceive thoſe that buy it. This is uſually moiſt, of a blackiſh green colour, and very fœtid. The fourth ſort is that of Cherbourg, which is made of an herb found along the ſea coaſts of Normandy. This is likewiſe a very bad kind, being extremely humid, of the ſame colour and ſmell with the laſt ſort, and filled with ſtones. Theſe two ſorts are good for nothing, but to impoſe upon the unwary buyer, and cheat the whitſters, and damage their linen. See the article BLEACHING, GLASS-MAKING.

KAY, or KEY, or QUAY, a wharf for ſhipping and landing of goods in the port of London.

In rotulo ſcaccarii, anno 19 Car. II. In purſuance of * an act of parliament, it is there ordained, That † the kays, wharfs, and places hereafter named, and no others, be aſſigned, appointed, and allowed by his majeſty, to be lawful kays, wharfs, or places, for the ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods: that is to ſay, the kays or wharfs called,

* 13 and 14 Car. II. cap. 11. §. 14.

† 13th Rule, page 178.

1. Brewer's-kay, bounded on the eaſt with Tower-dock, containing from eaſt to weſt 73 feet, and in breadth from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

KAY

Cheſter's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 51 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

3. Gally-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 101 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

4. Wool-dock, containing from eaſt to weſt 61 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

5. Cuſtom-houſe-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 202 feet, beſides 6 feet more at the eaſt end thereof, betwixt that and Wool-dock, being a common ſewer arched over; and, from the river of Thames northward, all the extent of ground which ſhall not be employed or uſed in the building of his majeſty's cuſtom-houſe and offices thereunto belonging.

But the ſtone-ſtairs on the weſt ſide thereof, containing 15 feet in breadth, is declared to be a place for wherries and paſſengers, and fetching of water only, and not for any goods or merchandize.

6. Porter's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 103 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

7. Bear-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 62 feet 4 inches, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

8. Sab's-dock, excluding the ſtairs there (which are hereby declared no lawful place of ſhipping or landing of goods or merchandize) containing from eaſt to weſt 30 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet.

9. Wiggon's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 52½ feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

10. Young's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 46 feet 4 inches, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

11. Ralph's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 81 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

12. Dice-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 111 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet: and if the ſtairs on the eaſt ſide thereof be taken away, and the paſſage leading thereunto be laid into the ſaid kay, then to contain 6 feet more from eaſt to weſt, and, northward from the river of Thames, the ſaid paſſage to contain 40 feet: but, in the mean time, the ſaid ſtairs are declared unlawful for the landing, lading, or ſhipping of goods or merchandize.

13. Smart's-kay, at the ſouth end thereof, containing from eaſt to weſt 27 feet 2 inches, and extending northward along the ſide of Billinſgate-dock 176 feet 6 inches, and in all other parts extending from the ſaid dock eaſtward 40 feet.

14. Somer's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt, and including the paſſage leading to the ſtairs on the eaſt ſide thereof, 73½ feet, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet: but the place where the ſaid ſtairs now ſtand, is hereby declared to be no lawful place of landing or ſhipping of goods and merchandize, until the ſtairs be taken away.

15. Lyon-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 36 feet 9 inches, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet: but no ſtairs, as formerly, to be erected thereupon, or thereunto.

16. Botolph-wharf, containing from eaſt to weſt 78 feet, and from the river of Thames northwards, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

17. Hammon's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 23 feet, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet.

18. Gaunt's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 31 feet, including the ſmall ſtairs on the eaſt ſide thereof, and from the river of Thames northward 40 feet: but the ſtairs are hereby declared unlawful for ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods and merchandize.

19. Cock's-kay, containing from eaſt to weſt 40 feet 8 inches, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

20. One place betwixt Cock's-kay and Freſh-wharf, commonly called Part of Freſh-wharf, containing from eaſt to weſt 25 feet, including the ſtairs at the eaſt ſide thereof, and

northwards from the river of Thames 40 feet in the narroweſt place: but the ſaid ſtairs are hereby declared unlawful for ſhipping or landing of goods.

21. Freſh-wharf, containing from eaſt to weſt 115 feet, and from the river of Thames northward, 40 feet in the narroweſt place.

22. Billinſgate, containing from north to ſouth 171½ feet, and in breadth from eaſt to weſt 40 feet; to be a common open place, for the landing or bringing in of fiſh, ſalt, victual or fuel of all ſorts, and all native materials for building, and for fruit, (all manner of grocery excepted) and for carrying out the ſame, and for no other wares or merchandize. And if the lord mayor and aldermen of the city ſhall think fit to fill up any part of the ſaid dock, at the north end thereof, not exceeding 40 feet in length, the ſame ground, ſo filled up, may have the ſame privilege as the reſt of the wharf before preſcribed.

Bridge-houſe in Southwark may be allowed as a place convenient for the landing of any kind of corn, bought or provided for the proviſion or victualling of the city, and not upon any private or particular perſon's account, and for no other goods or merchandize.

It may be lawful for any perſon to ſhip or lade into any ſhip or veſſel, on the river of Thames, bound over ſeas, and lying between London and Woolwich, any of the goods or merchandize hereafter mentioned, viz. horſes, coals, beer, ordinary ſtones for building, fiſh taken by any of his majeſty's ſubjects, corn or grain: provided that the cuſtom and duties of ſuch goods be duly paid, and cockets or other lawful warrants paſſed for the ſame, and delivered to the ſearcher, or one of his majeſty's under-ſearchers, and ſhipped in the preſence of ſome of them, and in the preſence of a deputy, to ſuch perſons as ſhall be appointed, from time to time, to manage or receive the cuſtoms in the port of London, and not otherwiſe.

It may be lawful for any perſon, or perſons, to unſhip and lay on land deal-boards, balks, and all ſorts of maſts, and great timber, at any place of the river of Thames betwixt Weſtminſter and Limehouſe-dock: provided the owners of ſuch goods do firſt pay or compound for the cuſtom and other duties, and declare the place at which they will land them (before they unſhip any of the goods) to the officers or farmers of the cuſtoms thereof for the time being, and receive ſufferance or permiſſion from them ſo to do; and that they unſhip none of the ſaid goods, but in the preſence of a waiter or officer appointed thereunto, unleſs by a ſpecial licence of the ſaid officers or farmers of the cuſtoms for the time being, otherwiſe the ſaid goods to be liable to forfeiture according to law.

It may be lawful for the owners or poſſeſſors of the ſeveral wharfs, called Lyon-kay, Somer's-kay, Dice-kay, and Sab's-dock, to fill up, or wharf over and enlarge into the river of Thames, ſo much as will make the front of their wall or campſhot range equally with the adjoining kays or wharfs.

If any of the houſes or buildings be intended for warehouſes upon the wharf, or hereafter ſo employed, the two upper ſtories and garrets of the ſaid houſes to be made, and from time to time continued with glazed windows.

The number of cranes upon the ſaid ſeveral wharfs to be at the election of the owners or poſſeſſors of the ground, provided they exceed not the dimenſions following, viz. A ſingle crane with one wheel, 12 feet in breadth, and a double crane with two wheels 20 feet, and each of them in depth or length from the wall or campſhot, 21 feet at the moſt; and that the ſaid cranes, as well ſingle as double, be kept open and free, for common paſſage from the ground to the floor under the wheels, without any other incloſure, partition, ſeparation, or hindrance by poſts or ſpurs, than the neceſſary poſts and timbers, which ſupport the ſame at both ends, and that the open height of the ſaid crane be at leaſt 10½ feet from the ground to the floor under the wheels, that carts and carriages may freely paſs under them.

It ſhall not be lawful for any perſon to build any outſetts, jets, penthouſes, warehouſes, rooms, lodgings, or any manner of poſts, ſheds, or buildings, contiguous or annexed to the ſaid cranes, or any part of the open wharf of 40 feet in breadth, deſcribed as aforeſaid, more than what is convenient about the cranes, for the wheels to work in and upon, and ſufficient covering thereunto, not exceeding the height, breadth, and length aforeſaid. And, for further ornament, thoſe cranes to be laid in oil and coloured blue, and, in the front thereof towards the Thames, be placed the king's arms, painted and ſet in an eſcutcheon, or other frame, with a decent moulding about it, of at leaſt 4½ feet diameter.

That all the paſſages, lanes, or cartways, leading to the ſaid kays or wharfs from Thames-ſtreet, and every of them, be made of the breadth of 11 feet at the leaſt: but, if any was of a larger breadth or dimenſion heretofore, this ſhall not be conſtrued or meant to leſſen or ſtreighten it, but that it continue at the ancient or larger dimenſion.

The ſeveral kays and wharfs deſcribed, and allowed to be free places for ſhipping and landing of goods and merchandizes as aforeſaid, and which according to the tenor of the ſaid act of parliament for rebuilding the ſaid city, is and ought to be left open and free at the diſtance of 40 feet from the water-ſide, ſhall not be ſeparated or divided one from another by any houſe, wall, pail, poſt, rail, or other impediment whatſoever, but only by mere ſtones or marks in the pavement, for the diſtinction of property, and not otherwiſe.

If any wharfinger or owner of any of the wharfs or grounds allowed for ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandizes as aforeſaid, do not conform to the preſent form, rules, and method, hereby preſcribed and directed, for their wharfs, cranes, or buildings, or hereafter ſhall diſcontinue or alter the ſame, or make new encroachments thereupon, after public notice given by any three or more of the principal officers or farmers of his majeſty's cuſtoms, by fixing up a writing under their hands, upon the wharf where the fault ſhall be committed, declaring the offence and limiting a day and time for the amendment thereof; which if not amended or performed accordingly, that then ſuch wharf, or crane, ſhall from thenceforward be no more reputed or taken, to have the benefit or privilege as a lawful place of ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandize; but be thenceforward utterly debarred thereof, unleſs reſtored by his majeſty's ſpecial warrant; and nevertheleſs the ſaid buildings, alterations and encroachments, to be demoliſhed and removed, as the law in that caſe hath directed.

If at any time it ſhall ſeem reaſonable to the principal officers or farmers of the cuſtoms for the time being, and conſiſtent with his majeſty's ſervice, to give ſufferance or permiſſion for the ſhipping, lading, or landing, of any goods or merchandize, at any other place or places, or in any other manner than is herein before nominated and adviſed, or aſſigned to be lawful kays and wharfs; it ſhall and may be lawful for them ſo to do, and ſuch ſufferance and permiſſion ſhall be good and warrantable, without any forfeiture or advantage to be taken againſt the goods ſo landed, notwithſtanding any thing herein before declared to the contrary.

Whoſoever ſhall accept of, or from henceforward employ any of thoſe kays or wharfs, by virtue of ſuch conceſſions, to the uſe of ſhipping, lading, or landing of goods or merchandize, it is to be underſtood, and it is declared to be with this covenant and condition, that they perform all and ſingular the orders, aſſignments, and appointments, which on their parts and behalfs is before declared to be performed and done, and not otherwiſe.

The ſeveral wharfingers or poſſeſſors of any of the ſaid kays or wharfs, or their ſervants, ſhall not ſuffer to ſtand or remain upon their wharfs, or paſſages leading to them from Thames-ſtreet, any more than ſuch cars or carts as ſhall be immediately called to lade or take up goods, wares, or merchandize there.

To prevent all future differences and diſputes touching the extent and limits of the port of London, and the many frauds and abuſes which have been acted and committed, as well upon and within the river of Thames, as without the mouth thereof upon the ſea, the ſaid port is declared to extend and be accounted from the promontory or point called the North Foreland, in the iſle of Thanet, and from thence northward in a ſuppoſed right line, to the oppoſite promontory or point called the Naes, beyond the Gunfleet, upon the coaſt of Eſſex, and ſo continued weſtward through the river of Thames, and the ſeveral channels, ſtreams, and rivers falling into it, to London-bridge: ſaving the uſual and known right, liberty, and privilege, to the ports of Sandwich and Ipſwich, and either of them, and the known members thereof, and of the cuſtomers, comptrollers, ſearchers and their deputies, of and within the ſaid ports of Sandwich and Ipſwich, and the ſeveral creeks, harbours, and havens to them, or either of them reſpectively belonging, within the counties of Kent or Eſſex: but that every part and place of the river Thames, and ſea, within the limits and bounds aforeſaid, not included or belonging to the ſaid ports of Sandwich or Ipſwich, or the ſeveral creeks, harbours, or havens, to them, or one of them, reſpectively belonging, within the ſaid counties of Kent or Eſſex, ſhall be deemed and taken to be within, and part and parcel of the port of London.

No further or other paſſage to be made or enlarged to the wharfs, or any part of the river of Thames from Thames-ſtreet, within the limits aforeſaid, other than the ancient and common paſſages to the ſame.

KENT, is bounded with Suſſex on the ſouth-weſt; Surrey on the weſt; the Engliſh Channel on the ſouth; Dover Streights on the ſouth-eaſt; the Downs on the eaſt; and it is divided from Eſſex and Middleſex on the north, by the river Thames; and is about 166 miles in circumference. Both the air and ſoil of it are various. The ſhore from Woolwich to Graveſend, is low, and ſpread with marſhes and unhealthy grounds, excepting about Erith, Greenhithe, Northfleet, &c. where the chalk-hills almoſt join the river; and from thence the city of London, and parts adjacent, and even Holland and Flanders are ſupplied with chalk; which is alſo carried by lighters and hoys to all the ports and creeks in Eſſex, Suffolk, and Norfolk, where it is ſold to the farmers, who give from half a crown to four ſhillings a load for it, according to the diſtances.

The country, in general, abounds with plantations of hops, corn-fields, paſtures, and woods of oak, beech, cheſnuts, &c. and many woods of birch, whence the broom-makers, who live in Kent-ſtreet, Southwark, are ſupplied. They have mines of iron, pits of marl and chalk, woad and madder for dyers; wool, flax, ſaintfoin; and on the cliffs between Folkſtone and Dover, is plenty of ſamphire.

CANTERBURY, the chief city, is ſeated on the Stour, which runs through it.

Here are computed to be about 2 or 3000 French proteſtants, who, with ſome others that came hither before them, brought over the art of weaving broad ſilks, which is now arrived to ſuch perfection, that the ſilks woven here are as good, if not better, than any foreign ſilks, and are ſent to London in great quantities.

But what has added moſt to the advantage of this city, is the hop grounds all round it, to the amount of ſeveral thouſand acres; ſo that, till it was equalled by Farnham, it was reckoned the only great plantation of hops in the whole iſland. This city and Shrewſbury are the two moſt noted places in England for brawn.

ROCHESTER, lies in a valley on the eaſt ſide of the Medway, in ſeveral creeks and branches of which, within the juriſdiction of this city, is an oyſter-fiſhery, which is free to every one who has ſerved ſeven years apprenticeſhip to any fiſherman or dredger that is free of the ſaid fiſhery; for regulation of which, an admiralty-court, as they call it, is held by the mayor and citizens, as occaſion requires; at which they appoint what quantities ſhall be taken, and when. Every licenſed dredger pays 6 s. 8 d. yearly, to the ſupport of the courts.

MAIDSTONE, the county town, is ſeated on the Medway alſo. It's chief trade is in linen-thread, and in hops, of which are great plantations about the town, as well as orchards of cherries. This town, and country about, is ſo eminent for it's plenty of proviſions and rich lands, that London is ſupplied from hence with more commodities than from any ſingle market-town in England; as alſo with a ſort of paving-ſtone, about 8 or 10 inches ſquare, exceeding durable, and with a fine white ſand for the gláſs-houſes and ſtationers.

RUMNEY, is one of the Cinque Ports, the ſea having deſerted it's haven; the chief trade it has now is grazing cattle in the marſh, which is reckoned ſome of the richeſt paſture in England. This marſh is the place from whence the owlers have for ſo many ages exported our wool to France.

HYTHE, is another of the Cinque Ports, but a place of no trade, it's harbour being choaked up.

DOVER, another Cinque Port, is a large populous place, and noted for it's tide, harbour, and the ſtation of the packet-boats, which go twice a week to France and Flanders.

SANDWICH, is the laſt and moſt eaſterly of all the Cinque Ports. This port has for many years paſt been ſo choaked up with ſands, that it will receive only ſmall veſſels. It's chief trade at preſent is in ſhipping and malting.

On the weſt point of the iſland of Sheppey, lies SHEERNESS, a regular fortification, with a line of heavy cannon to guard the mouth of the Medway. Here is alſo a yard for building ſhips, and a dock for repairing.

CHATHAM is, as it were, a ſuburb to Rocheſter; it was built by king Charles II. and has been noted ever ſince as the ſtation for the royal navy. The dock was begun by queen Elizabeth, but ſo much improved ſince, that there is not a more complete arſenal in the whole world; the warehouſes, or rather ſtreets of them, being the largeſt that ever were.

TUNBRIDGE, is of chief note for the wells near it.

DEAL, is a handſome large town, and carries on ſome foreign trade.

FEVERSHAM, is a populous flouriſhing place, ſituated in ſo fruitful a part of the county, that it may be called it's garden, and has the conveniency of a creek from the Thames, which is navigable by hoys, lighters, &c. 'Tis one of the towns that ſupply London markets with abundance of fruit, and the largeſt and beſt oyſters for ſtewing, which the Dutch alſo fetch away in great quantities, that a prodigious number of men and boats are employed here in the winter in dredging for them.

MILTON, is a large town, and has a conſiderable market for corn, fruit, and other proviſions; which with oyſters taken in the creeks, among which it is ſituated, are ſent moſtly to London.

GRAVESEND, has ſo much gardening about it, that they not only ſupply the towns for ſeveral miles round with garden-ſtuff, but ſend great quantities to London, where the aſparagus in particular is preferred even to that of Batterſea.

WOOLWICH, is of note for the yards and works erected here for the naval ſervice.

DEPTFORD has alſo a large yard, and noble dock.

KINCARDINSHIRE, in Scotland, is bounded on the eaſt with the German Ocean, on the ſouth with the water of North Eſke, on the weſt with the Granſbain-Hills, and on the north with the river Dee and Aberdeenſhire.

The ſoil is fruitful in corn and paſturage, and on the ſea-coaſts are ſeveral convenient creeks and ſome good harbours.

STONEHIVE, the county-town, is one of it's beſt harbours, and, for it's greater ſafety, the late earl marſhal, having a ſalmon-fiſhing on the north ſide of it, raiſed a pier of ſtone.

PALDYKIRK, is noted for a yearly fair, which laſt three days, when great quantities of coarſe cloth are bought up here and exported to the Netherlands.

The ſtewarty of KIRCUDBRIGHT in Scotland. 'Tis one of the two diſtricts or diviſions of Galloway. It begins at the middle of the bridge of Dumfries, lies between the water of Cree on the weſt, and Nithſdale on the eaſt; is bounded by part of Kyle on the north, and has the Iriſh Sea on the ſouth. There's ſuch plenty of paſture in it, that vaſt flocks of ſmall cattle and ſheep grazed here are ſent into England.

KIRCUDBRIGHT, ſtands on a bay of the ſame name in the Iriſh Sea, at the mouth of the river Dee, in which it has a good ſalmon-fiſhing. Here is a commodious harbour, with depth of water, and room enough to hold the Engliſh navy. Yet it is a place of no great trade.

NEW GALLOWAY, on the river Ken, has a good weekly market, well frequented for corn and other proviſions; and a good ſalmon-fiſhing in Lochken, which abounds not only with ſalmon, but other fiſh; contains ſeveral iſlands, is about five miles long, and in ſome places about one mile broad.

AN INDEX OF THE MATERIAL ARTICLES,

Contained in the FIRST VOLUME of the UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY of TRADE and COMMERCE.

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CENSAL, a trading term, uſed in the Levant and Provence, in France.

CENT, a commercial term, uſed in divers ſenſes.

CERUSE, or CERUSSE, a calx of lead, for various purpoſes prepared.

CESSION, a mercantile term uſed in France, in caſes of bankruptcy, when a trader gives up to his creditors all his effects, both moveable or immoveable, either voluntarily, or by a ſentence of a court of juſtice, to avoid a warrant for ſeizing his perſon; the French laws and regulations relating thereto, not incurious.

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COBALT, a kind of marcaſite; it's uſes and preparation.

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CONVOYS and CRUIZERS at ſea; with the laws relating thereto, and ſome adjudged controverted caſes determined in our courts of judicature.

COPIES of authors, the defence of literary property.

COPPER-MINES, where they are generally met with; of ſmelting and refining copper ore; with uſeful philoſophical remarks.

COPPERAS, COPPERAS STONES, where found; the operation for making copperas; it's uſes in various particulars.

CORAL, where to be had; of the coral fiſhery.

CORAZAN, or KHORASSAN; it's ſituation, produce and trade.

CORDAGE, how made for ſhipping. See CABLE.

COREA, a kingdom in Aſia; it's ſituation, produce and trade.

CORN, lands that produce the beſt and largeſt quantity. Of the method of preſerving corn. Of the political maxims of France and other parts concerning corn. Laws of England relating to corn. Of the bounty granted on the exportation of corn. The bounty on ſpirits, drawn from barley, malt, or other corn exported. An account of the ſeveral ſorts and quantities of corn, which were exported from Chriſtmas 1734, to Chriſtmas 1735: as alſo from what places and ports of England, and in what quantities they were exported; together with an account of the bounty that was paid on ſuch exportation. An account of the true market price of wheat and malt at Windſor, for above one hundred years paſt. With political remarks on the bounty granted on corn.

CORNWALL, in England, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

COROMANDEL, in the Mogul empire; it's ſituation, produce and trade.

CORSICA, in Italy; it's ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks.

COTTON-TREE, it's nature, growth, and management, and the trade therein; with remarks.

COURLAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

CREDIT, of private credit in trade; with remarks on the conſequences of long credit in private trade, uſeful.

CREDIT [PUBLIC CREDIT,] explained and illuſtrated; with computations on the efficacious operation of a ſinking fund, inviolably applied to the payment of the national debt, if it had

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had ſo been; with political obſervations on the paſt reductions of intereſt.

CROATIA, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

CUMBERLAND, in England, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

CURRENCY, PAPER CURRENCY, of the Britiſh plantations; an explanation thereof, with political obſervations thereon.

CUSTOMS, the numerous cuſtom-houſe duties in Great-Britain; with remarks. Of ſome determined diſputable caſes that have been determined in our courts of law, relating to the buſineſs of the cuſtom-houſe.

CYDER, a liquor, it's manufacture, and laſt act relating thereto, 1763.

Of the Buſineſs of the Cuſtoms, continued from the end of Letter B.

LETTER D.

DAALDER, a coin.

DACZAJIE, ditto.

DALLE, a nominal money of account.

DALLER, a coin of various value in different countries.

DALMATIA, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with political remarks.

DAMASK, a ſilk manufacture.

DAMASKEENING, or DAMASKING, an art applied to iron and ſteel, to beautify them in divers manners.

DAMASSE, or PETITE VENISE, a ſpecies of wrought linen.

DANCING-MASTER, in France, their regulations; with political remarks, not unworthy attention.

DANK, or DANCK, a coin.

DANK, a weight.

DATES, a fruit; it's uſe.

DAUPHINEE, in France; it's ſituation, produce and trade.

DEBENTURE, a term in trade uſed at the cuſtom-houſe; it's nature and form in divers inſtances, drawn from real buſineſs.

DEBTOR and CREDITOR, the art of book-keeping, illuſtrated in a new and brief manner.

DEBT, ſome of the principal laws of England, relating to debt and debtors.

DEBTS TO THE KING, laws relating thereto.

DEBTS OF THE NATION, or the NATIONAL DEBT; the ſame conſidered in divers political lights, as the ſame affects trade; with remarks both before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763, very intereſting.

DECLARATION, a term in commerce.

DEMURRAGE, ditto.

DENBIGHSHIRE, in Wales; it's ſituation, produce and trade.

DENIER TOURNOIS, a coin.

DENMARK, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with political remarks, before and ſince the laſt war, and the peace of 1763.

DERBYSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks.

DESIGN, or DESIGNING, the art of, it's utility to trade; with political remarks intereſting.

DEVONSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

DIAMOND, a precious ſtone, it's properties; how to diſtinguiſh their qualities and worths. Of the chief diamond mines of Aſia. Of the value of diamonds at the mines. Of the general method of ſearching for diamonds in the mines. Of the Brazil diamond mines belonging to the king of Portugal. Of the moſt eſtimable diamonds in the world. Of the cutting of diamonds, and the choice of them rough. Of artificial diamonds, and the various pretended methods of making them. Of the manner of eſtimating diamonds. Of the ſpecific gravity of diamonds. The late Honourable Mr. Boyle's account of diamonds.

DIRECTION CHAMBER, an inſtitution in Old Spain, reſpecting their commerce to the Spaniſh Weſt-Indies.

DIRECTION, in divers lights.

DIRECTOR, directors of trading companies; directors of the chambers of commerce in France. See article CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE; with political intereſting remarks.

DIRECTORS OF CREDITORS, in France, who, and their methods of proceeding on the failure of traders.

DISCOUNT, a term among traders, miſtake therein rectified.

DISCREDIT, what.

DISTILLATION, the art illuſtrated by ſome experiments.

DISTILLER, their regulation in France; and abſtract of the laws of England relating thereto,

DORSETSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

DOVER-PIER and RYE-HARBOUR, conſidered, as the ſame have connection with trade.

DOWNS, ditto, with proper remarks; law caſes relating thereto.

DRAWBACKS, on exportation of goods from Great-Britain to foreign parts; with remarks illuſtrative.

DROGMAN, or DRAGOMAN, or DRUGGERMAN, it's explanation, with proper remarks.

DRUGGET, a manufacture, the divers ſorts in France. See the article PORTUGAL.

DRUGS, thoſe for dyers, and medicine; the ſignification of drugs in other lights; laws of England reſpecting drugs.

DUMBARTONSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

DUMFRIESHIRE, ditto.

DURHAM, ditto.

DUTCH AMERICA, of the trade carried on by the Dutch in America; with remarks. Of the trade of the European nations, with the Spaniards in particular, in America; with further political remarks on this article. Of the illicit trade ſaid to be carried on by the Engliſh with the Spaniards in America, before the laſt war, and peace of 1763.

DUTCH WEST INDIA COMPANY, it's conſtitution and commerce. Of the Dutch company at Surinam; merchandize from Surinam.

DUTCH COMPANY OF THE NORTH, ditto.

DUTCH LEVANT COMPANY, ditto.

DUTCH EAST-INDIA COMPANY, a ſuccinct account thereof; with political remarks. Alſo remarks in different lights, intereſting to Great-Britain.

DUTIES, thoſe impoſts, or taxes laid on merchandizes under different names; with intereſting political remarks thereon, before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763.

DWINA, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

DYEING, the art of dyeing manufactures of divers kinds; with philoſophical obſervations thereon. The regulation of this art in France. Laws of England in regard to dyers.

The Practical Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe, continued from the end of Letter C.

LETTER E.

EARTH, philoſophically conſidered, as being the parent of original matter, adminiſtering to all objects of traffic throughout the world. Divers experiments thereon; with illuſtrative remarks. Of the knowledge of all kinds of Earths to landed-men, and country gentlemen in general, for the benefit of their eſtates.

EAST-INDIA COMPANY. The conſtitution of that in England. The laws of England relating thereto. It's ſuccinct hiſtory; with political intereſting remarks. Conſiderations how far the Eaſt-India Company may conduce to increaſe the trade of the nation more than it yet has ever done. A curious law caſe concerning the Eaſt-India Company, tried in the Exchequer and the Houſe of Lords. With further remarks, intereſting to the whole body of merchant importers of the Britiſh nations, relating to the public revenue.

EAST-INDIA TRADE IN GENERAL, with intereſting national conſiderations. Of the pearl fiſhery in the Eaſt-Indies; alſo farther uſeful illuſtrative remarks on this article of divers kinds, worthy public attention. Of the weights, meaſures, exchanges, cuſtoms, duties, and port charges at Fort St. George, Bengal, Callicut and Tellicherry, Bombay, Surat; and of the frauds and impoſitions practiſed by the natives in the Eaſt-India trade.

ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, in Italy; it's ſituation, produce and trade.

EDINBURGSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

EGYPT, it's ditto; with intereſting political remarks.

ELGLN, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

EMBARGOES ON SHIPPING and QUARANTINE, Engliſh laws concerning the ſame.

EMERALDS, precious ſtones; their nature and factitious imitation; with philoſophical remarks.

ENAMEL, what, and it's uſes; enamel painting; enamel for painting; enamel of goldſmiths; enamellers, and other workers in enamel.

ENAMELLER, a worker in enamel; laws relating thereto; with philoſophical remarks.

ENGLAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade, as well foreign as domeſtic; with political intereſting remarks, both before and ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763. Of the monies of England, real and imaginary, as they regard practical trade. Of the weights of England of divers ſorts. Of meaſures ditto. A table of the conformity, which the weights of the principal trading cities of Europe have with each other. A table of the long meaſures of the ſame nature; with their methods of computation. Of the foreign exchanges of England, with other the principal places of Europe, and their method of calculation; with intereſting political remarks, for the general advancement of the whole Britiſh trade.

ENGLISH AFRICAN COMPANY, a ſhort account of the late Royal African company. Of the encouragement given by France to their African Company; with intereſting political remarks for the increaſe of this branch of trade. An account of the caſtles, ſlaves, canoe men, military ſtores, canoes and veſſels, belonging to the late Royal African company of England, at their ſeveral forts on the coaſt of Africa, according to the ſurveys made by the order of parliament by Thomas Pye, Eſq; commander of his majeſty's ſhip Humber, in the year 1749, and which are delivered up

up to the preſent new company of merchants trading to Africa, according to the act of parliament made in the year 1751; with other explanatory remarks, as well before, as ſince the laſt war and treaty of peace 1763.

ENGRAFFING, in vegetation, of it's general improvement, and benefit for the landed intereſt.

ENGRAVING, the art of; with intereſting political remarks. Of the accompliſhments of the engraver. Of the merits of our modern engravers. Of the art of deſigning, as the ſame is connected with that of engraving and commerce.

ENTRE DUERO E MINHO, in Portugal, it's ſituation, produce, and trade.

ESSEX, in England, ditto

ESTRAMADURA, in Portugal, ditto

EUROPE; of it's commerce, conſidered with relation to the other quarters of the world; with remarks politically intereſting.

EXCHANGE, both in a practical and a political light conſidered; with variety of uſeful remarks. The ſtate of money and exchange in France in 1709, before, and at the end of the recoinage. Examination of the French courſe of exchange, from the 1ſt of January 1709, to the end of September 1713. The effects of lowering the ſpecie in France. The effects on the prices of gold and ſilver, occaſioned thereby. Of raiſing the old ſpecie in France. Of lowering of the old ſpecie there, from 1709 to 1713; with intereſting remarks, ſhewing the fatal conſequences that flowed from the frequent variations in the French coin, by raiſing and falling it, under Lewis XIV. and in other reigns. Alſo national obſervations againſt ſuch practices in Great-Britain.

EXCHEQUER, an idea of it's conſtitution. Some of the principal laws relating to the Exchequer; with intereſting remarks, ſhewing in what manner the conſtitution of the Exchequer is the great check upon all other public offices; which concern all receipts and payments of the public money. Of the imminent danger of ſhutting up the Exchequer, as was done in the reign of king Charles II. with ſuitable reflections for the honourable ſupport of the public credit at all times; and of the uſes that may be made of Exchequer bills.

EXCISE; a ſhort hiſtory of exciſes in this nation; with remarks on this article, ſhewing it's injurious tendency.

EXPORTATION; a ſeries of national political maxims, inducing to the encouragement of the exportation of our native wares and manufactures, and to abate the importation of foreign; the one inriching, the other impoveriſhing ſtates; with remarks thereto adapted.

Of the Practical Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe, continued from the end of Letter D.

LETTER F.

FACTORS, AGENTS, or SUPERCARGOES; the principal laws of England in regard to factors and ſupercargoes. Some eſſential law caſes determined in our courts of judicature; with illuſtrative remarks. The ſpirit of the Spaniards with regard to mercantile factors, in order to improve and extend their foreign commerce, worthy attention.

FAIR, trading fairs of divers kinds, and in divers places. Various trading fairs in France. Free fairs in France. Free fairs of Champagne and Brie; the franchiſes; wardens of the privileges; the time that goods muſt be in the fair to have the franchiſe; inſpections, &c. The police of exchanges, bonds and payments, made at foreign fairs. The fair of St. Lawrence. The fair of St. Germaine. The fair of Lyons. The fair of Rheims. The fair of Rouen. The fair of Bourdeaux. The fair of Troyes. The fair of St. Dennis. The fair of Caen. The fair of Dieppe. The fair of Toulon. The inſpectors of fairs in France. Beaſt and horſe-fairs. The fairs of Germany; Franckfort on the Main, Leipſic. The fairs of Novi. The principal fairs of England. Some of the chief laws of England relating to trading fairs and markets; with remarks.

FARMING, neceſſary points to be taken into conſideration with regard to farming in general. Agriculture preferred to many, if not moſt other ſort of employments, that men rather prefer.

FEES of the cuſtom-houſe officers, as ſettled by act of parliament, as relative to the various claſſes and orders.

FEZ, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

FIFESHIRE, ditto.

FIG, a vegetable production; how to propagate them.

FISCAL, a chief officer in Spain, with regard to regulating the affairs of the Spaniſh Weſt Indies.

FISHERIES; of thoſe in France. Inſtructions for thoſe who engage in the whale-fiſhery in France. Of river-fiſhing, and freſh-water fiſh. The regulation of the waters and foreſts for freſh-water fiſhing. A general regulation for the whale-fiſhery in Holland. A charter-party between the captains, whale-fiſhers, and the crews. The cargo of a Dutch veſſel going to the whale-fiſhery. The produce of a whale-fiſhery. The laws of England with regard to fiſheries. The cuſtom-houſe buſineſs with reſpect to fiſheries. The preſent allowance, or bounty, and the regulation of exportation. An abſtract of the ordinances of the States of Holland and Weſt-Frieſland, concerning the managing of the great fiſhery. A warning againſt the not handling, ſorting, ſalting, and laying of the herrings in a proper manner for the maſters. Acts relating to fiſh, fiſheries, and fiſhing in England, from Edward I. to 1750; with political intereſting remarks. Conſiderations on the French fiſheries. Copy of a letter written by Monſ. Pontchartrain, to Monſ. the duke de Gramond, from Fontainbleau, September 19, 1713, contained in this work before the laſt war, and peace of 1763. Remarks hereon, in conſequence of the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of peace 1763. Of the principles that prevailed at the court of Spain with reſpect to fiſheries, before the laſt war, and the laſt peace of 1763; and our remarks on this point ſince the laſt war, and the ſaid peace of 1763. Of the herring-fiſhery in the ſeas, and on the coaſts of Great-Britain and Ireland; with intereſting political remarks on this article. A proclamation by king Charles the Iſt, for reſtraining of fiſhing upon his ſeas and coaſts without licence; with further remarks thereon. Of the ſociety of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery eſtabliſhed in England; with ſuitable remarks on the high importance this fiſhery might be rendered. Sir Walter Raleigh's addreſs to king James in regard to fiſheries. Of a convention renewed and enlarged between his Britannic majeſty and the city of Hamburgh, concerning the trade of herrings, February 18, 1719; with general intereſting political remarks on this point, ſince the treaty of peace of 1763.

FLANDERS, it's ſituation, produce, and trade; with intereſting political remarks on this article, both before and ſince the laſt treaty of peace, 1763.

FLAX, an eſtimable vegetable production. Of the cultivation of flax. The laws of England with reſpect to flax and hemp; with political remarks on this article before and ſince the laſt treaty of peace, 1763.

FLINTSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks.

FLORENCE, ditto.

FLORIDA, ditto; with intereſting remarks before the laſt war, and the peace of 1763; and likewiſe ſince the laſt peace of 1763.

FLOTA, belonging to Spain. Of what the Spaniſh flota conſiſts, and of the regulations of the Spaniſh Weſt-India trade carried on by means thereof; with uſeful remarks relative to Great-Britain, before and ſince the laſt war and treaty of peace of 1763.

FLOTSAM, JETSAM, and LAGAN, mercantile terms, when ſhips are in danger at ſea.

FLUX, in metallurgy, to make ores or metals melt the ſooner and the cleaner.

FORESTALLERS, REGRATORS, and ENGROSSERS; laws to prevent ſuch perſons; with remarks thereon ſince the laſt war and peace of 1763.

FORFARSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

FOSSILS, natural productions in the bowels, or on the ſurface of the earth; with proper remarks.

FOUNDER, a practiſer of metallic caſtings.

FOUNDERY, the art of metal caſting. The method of caſting in ſand all ſorts of ſmall works made of braſs. Of caſting of ſtatues. Of bell-foundery. Of caſting of cannon and braſs mortar-pieces. Of iron cannon.

FRANCE, it's ſituation, produce and trade. Of the productions of France, as ſuch are the objects of commerce. Of the coaſt of France in the Mediterranean. Of the coaſt from Dunkirk to St. Malo, and from thence to St. Sebaſtian. The riſe and progreſs of their trade and navigation; with the remarkable artifices of France in propagating their manufactures for Engliſh at foreign markets. Of the manufactures eſtabliſhed in France, and by what commercial policy they have ſucceeded therein. Of the ſeveral ſorts of woollen fabrics eſtabliſhed in France, and where. Of the generality of Champagne and Soiſſons. Of the trade of Limoſin, Poictou, &c. Of the trade of the generality of Orleans. Of the commerce of Touraine, Anjou, Maine and Perche. Of the commerce of the generality of Berry. Of the commerce of Normandy, as divided into the generalities of Rouen, Alençon, and Caen. Of the commerce of Burgogne, and the generality. Of the ſtate of the manufacture of Dauphiny and Provence. Of the commerce of Languedoc. Of the commerce of Low Navarre and Bearne, Flanders, Lorrain and Bar. Of the commerce of the three biſhoprics, Metz, Toul, and Verdun; of Alſace and Rouſillon. Of the other branches of the trade of France; with remarks thereon before the laſt war, when they were in poſſeſſion of all their late territories in North America. Of the trade of the French iſlands in America, as it ſtood before the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of peace in 1763 took place; with remarks thereon ſince the laſt war, and the ſaid laſt treaty of peace of 1763. Of the Eaſt-India and African trades of France, as thoſe articles

ſtood before the laſt war, and treaty of 1763. Of the commerce of the French company of the Eaſt-Indies, ſhewing the number of ſhips returning annually from Pondicherry, and the value of their cargoes, from the year 1727 to 1742 incluſive; with remarks on the French Eaſt-India trade ſince the laſt war, and the peace of 1763. Of the African trade of France, as the ſame ſtood before the laſt war, and peace of 1763. Particular remarks on the trade of France in general, as before given, and the manifeſt tendency of the extent thereof, and their political ſchemes of power to arrive at univerſal monarchy, as the ſame appeared in this work before the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of 1763; alſo remarks on our article FRANCE, ſince the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of peace made in the year 1763.

FRANCHE COMTE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

FRANCONIA, ditto.

FREIGHT, with regard to France. The cuſtom of Amſterdam, and other parts of the United Provinces, in freighting ſhips. An order of the council of ſtate in France in 1701, regulating the payment of the duty of freight. Of the article freight according to the laws and uſages of England; with ſome eſſential caſes litigated and determined in our courts of law. Of ſome generally allowed maxims in Europe, in regard to freight. Of the validity of charter-parties in regard to freight, according to Wiſbey laws of ſea affairs. Of lets and impediments in voyages. Of freighting ſhips, and giving earneſt. Of ſome regulations in regard to freight from Old Spain to New, in the trade of Spaniſh America; with political remarks.

FRENCH AFRICAN TRADE AND COMPANY, as the ſame ſtood before the laſt war and peace of 1763. Of the trade of Senegal ditto. Of the trade of Gallam ditto. Of the trade of Goree. The trade of Joal. The trade of Gambia. The trade of Biſſeaux; with illuſtrative remarks. Of the Gold Coaſt; with political remarks on the French African trade in general, as the ſame ſtood before the laſt war, and treaty of peace of 1763. The French king's letters patents for the liberty of trade upon the coaſt in Africa in 1716. Letters patents, containing regulations for merchandizes which the traders of France import from Holland and the North for the Guinea trade, in 1728. The French king's proclamation, concerning the commerce of Guinea; ordering that three negro boys ſhould be paid for upon the footing of two negroes of maturity; and two negro girls for one negro, in 1716. An arret of the king's council of ſtate, concerning the commerce of Guinea in 1729, extracted from the regiſter of the council of ſtate. The king's ordonnance, prohibiting captains of ſhips that ſhall bring negroes to the iſlands, from landing, or ſending their crews and cargoes thither, without permiſſion from the governors, 1718. An arret of the king's council of ſtate, for the payment of the bounty of 13 livres for each negro, and 20 livres for every mark of gold that the Senegal company from the African coaſt ſhall cauſe to be imported into France, coming from thoſe countries, granted to the ſaid company by the twenty-fourth article of his majeſty's letters patents of the month of March 1696, during the eſtabliſhment of the ſaid company, 1724: ſhewing how inviolably the French have obſerved their acts relating to their trade. The king's declaration concerning negro ſlaves of the colonies, 1738. An arret of the king's council of ſtate, which prohibits gum from the river Senegal, being exported out of the kingdom for one year, under pain of confiſcation, and 300 livres penalty, 1751; with remarks ſuitable to the whole of the French laws relating to their African trade, before the laſt peace of 1763: ſhewing the bounties, exemptions, privileges, and encouragements given by the French to their African Company; taken from a memorial of the deputies of the Council of Trade in France, to the Royal Council of Commerce there; with remarks on the French African trade ſince the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of 1763.

FRENCH AMERICA, as the ſame ſtood before the laſt war, and definitive treaty of 1763; with remarks ſince the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of 1763. A continuation of the French deputies of trade's repreſentation concerning their African trade and ſugar iſlands; with remarks thereon, in regard to the French laws, ordinances, and regulations of their American colonies, before the laſt war, and peace of 1763. Regulations concerning hired ſervants and fire-arms, exported by merchantmen to the French colonies in America and New France, in 1716; with illuſtrative remarks thereon. Marine laws to be obſerved in all the ports of the iſlands and French colonies, wherever ſituated, in 1717. The French king's letters patents, concerning the regulations for commerce of the French colonies, in 1717. In the year 1718 a royal ordannance was made, prohibiting all captains of ſhips who ſhall carry negroes to the French iſlands, againſt landing them, or any of their cargo, without leave had and obtained from the governors, in order to prevent any contagious diſtemper being thereby ſpread among the inhabitants. Royal letters patents, containing regulations of trade between Marſeilles and the French iſlands in America, in the year 1719. A royal ordonnance, forbidding all governors and lieutenants general, all particular governors, and intendants of colonies, from having plantations, in the year 1719. A royal ordonnance iſſued againſt captains and ſupercargoes of merchantmen, who ſhall carry on foreign trade to the French iſlands in America, in 1719. Regulations by the king, concerning foreign or contraband trade carried on in the French colonies, 1720. The king's declaration with regard to merchandizes of the French colonies, 1722. Letters patents upon the arrets, which fix the times of the year of the entrepoſt of merchandizes coming from the French iſlands and colonies, into the ports therein mentioned, and of thoſe which ſhall be declared by the entrepoſt for the ſaid iſlands, 1726. An arret of the king's council of ſtate, revoking thoſe permiſſions before granted to the merchants of the kingdom, to carry to Cadiz, Genoa, Leghorn and Naples, directly from the French iſlands of America, merchandizes of the produce of the ſaid iſlands, 1723. A remarkable royal ordonnance, declaring Gilles Robin, captain of the ſhip St. Michael, of Havre, incapable to ſail for the future, in any ſhip intended for the colonies, on account of his having carried on a CONTRABAND TRADE to St. Domingo, in 1724. Royal letters patents, in the form of an edict, concerning the foreign or contraband commerce to the iſlands and colonies of America, 1727. An arret of the royal council of ſtate, containing regulations on the point of conteſts, between the admiralty of France and the farmers-general of the revenue, with regard to contraband and prohibited trade made as well at ſea, and in the ports, havens, and creeks of the ſaid kingdom, as in the French iſlands and colonies of America, 1728. In the year 1730, a royal declaration was iſſued, concerning the regulation and collection of the capitation-tax at the windward iſlands in America: and in the year 1731, inſtructions were iſſued, to facilitate the execution of the ſaid declaration. In regard to the firſt of theſe, although there is every thing done that could be to prevent the evaſion of the tax, and all frauds in the collection; yet there does not ſeem leſs judgment in joining moderation with rigour and ſeverity. A royal regulation with reſpect to the wheat-meal of Canada, iſſued 1732, to preſerve the trade of Canada with the French iſlands. An arret of the Royal Council, forbidding all privateers and merchants carrying on trade in the French iſlands and colonies, to ſend ſtuffs or painted linens of the Indies thither, or thoſe of Perſia, China, or the Levant, 1733. An arret of the Royal Council of State, granting the merchants of St. Jean de Luz, for their whale and cod-fiſheries at Canada and Cape-Breton, the ſame rights, privileges and exemptions, granted by letters patents of the month of April 1717, for the trade of the French iſlands and colonies of America, 1734. An arret of the Royal Council of State, and letters patents in conſequence thereof, concerning the entrepoſt as well in reſpect to merchandize intended for the French iſlands and colonies, as thoſe which came from thence, 1738. In 1741 was iſſued an arret of the Royal Council of State, permitting privateers for the French iſlands and colonies to load ſalt in Bretagne, or in any other cuſtomary port, to be employed at Cape Verde, for the ſalting of beef deſigned for the ſaid iſlands, without paying any duties, &c. In 1742 a royal ordonnance was made, forbidding all captains of ſhips diſarmed in the ſaid iſlands, paying the balance due to their ſhip's crew, and injoining them to make the diſcounts in preſence of the officers charged to take an account of the ſeveral claſſes of ſailors, and regulating the peculiar forms requiſite upon theſe occaſions, &c. In the year 1743 a royal ordonnance was iſſued, concerning the regulation made on the reception of captains and maſters of ſhips in the French colonies of America. Alſo in the year 1743 an arret of the Royal Council of State was iſſued, ordering that merchandizes of the produce of the French iſlands in America, intended for Cape-Breton, ſhall be diſcharged, the 1ſt of January 1747, of the duty of weight of 1 per cent. and that thoſe merchandizes of the produce of the ſaid iſlands, deſigned as well for Cape-Breton as for Canada, ſhall be diſcharged, during the ſaid time, of the duties of 3 per cent. of the weſtern domaine, together with the duty of 40 ſols per 100 weight upon ſugars of the ſaid iſlands, which ſhall be ſent there. In 1743 an arret of the Royal Council of State was iſſued, ordering that the merchants and privateers of Marſeilles ſhall be obliged to bring to the office of the weſtern domaine, all merchandizes coming from the French iſlands in America, as well as thoſe which ſhall be embarked for the ſaid iſlands, to be there viſited, and the duties diſcharged. In the year 1744 an arret of the Royal Council of State was made, ſuſpending, during the late war, the execution of the ſecond article of the letters patents of the month of April 1717, concerning the commerce of the French iſlands of America. In the year 1750 an arret of the Royal Council was declared, containing an exemption of the duties of 3 per cent. of the weſtern domaine, on cottons brought from the French colonies of America for home-conſumption, and to ſubject them to the ſame duties of exportation that they paid before the arret of November 1749: alſo, ordaining that the duty of 3 per cent.

cent. of the weſtern domaine ſhall continue to be collected upon the cotton of the French colonies exported to other nations; that the duty of half per cent. eſtabliſhed by the declaration of the 1ſt of November 1727, ſhall continue to be collected upon the cotton of the ſaid colonies, in the ſame manner as collected upon other merchandizes which come from thence. In the year 1751, an arret was iſſued by the Royal Council, fixing at 8 livres per 100 weight the duties on the exportation of cotton-wool out of the kingdom, coming from the French iſland colonies; and thoſe on cotton-yarn at 10 livres per 100 weight, as well for the duties of the five farms, as for thoſe of the weſtern domaine: ordaining, likewiſe, that the duty of half per cent. augmentation of the weſtern domaine, ſhall remain to be collected at importation into the kingdom, upon cottons coming from the ſaid iſlands; with remarks on this article FRENCH AMERICA before the laſt war, and the peace of 1763: alſo, at the concluſion of this article, remarks ſince the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of 1763.

FRIEZLAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

EAST FRIEZLAND, ditto.

FULLER, a workman in the woollen manufacture.

FULLERS-EARTH, an earth almoſt peculiar to England. Of it's utility in the ſaid woollen manufacture; alſo philoſophical obſervations thereon, with remarks.

FULLING, the art of it as practiſed in manufactures. Of fulling cloths and woollen ſtuffs with ſoap.

FUNDS; of the funds or taxes of Great-Britain, with explanatory remarks thereon, as they ſtood before the laſt war, and the definitive treaty of peace of 1763; with further remarks thereon.

For the Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe at the end of the Letter F, ſee the article FEES of the Officers of the Cuſtoms, as ſettled by act of parliament; alſo relating to fiſh, ſee the article FISHERIES, wherein the ſeveral acts concerning the ſame are referred to.

LETTER G.

GABEL, a tax in France.

GALICIA, in Spain, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GALLOONS, GALLIONS, or GALLEONS; Spaniſh galloons, how regulated to carry on the commerce of Spaniſh America; with remarks.

GASCONY, in France, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GAUGING; the art explained, with variety of practical examples, arithmetically illuſtrated; alſo tables, ſhewing by weight the quantity of gallons any caſk of ſpirits contains, from one gallon to a ton. Of gauging of ſhips in Spain. The laws of England relating to gauging.

GELDERLAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GEMS, precious ſtones; with philoſophical illuſtrations and remarks.

GENEVA REPUBLIC, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GENEVA, a liquor ſo called; with remarks.

GENOA, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks. Of the bank of Genoa. Of Corſica, conſidered as a part of Genoa. Monies of account and exchange of Genoa. The foreign exchanges of Genoa upon moſt parts of Europe.

GERMANY. See the ſeveral ſtates and electorates contained therein.

GEORGIA, in Aſia, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GEORGIA, an Engliſh colony. See BRITISH AMERICA.

GHILAN, a province in Perſia, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GINGER, it's quality and uſe.

GLAMORGANSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GLASS, a manufacture, deſcribed; with philoſophical remarks. Decrees of his late majeſty the king of Spain, for ſettling a fabric of cryſtal and glaſs in Spain. A memoir on the fabric of glaſs at St. Gobin in France. The principal laws of England relating to glaſs.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GOLD, a metal; the moſt curious operations relating thereto, in the great and ſmall way; with philoſophical remarks. Of gold and ſilver lace. Of gold-mines. Of extracting the gold out of the ore. Of the gold of the Eaſt-Indies; with remarks of various kinds. Of the gold-trade of Africa; with remarks political. The gold-trade of America. A brief account of the gold and ſilver coined in the reign of queen Elizabeth, with the true value in current money. Account of the money coined in the reign of James I. Ditto in Charles the Iſt and IId's time. Ditto in James the IId's reign. Abſtract of account of the great recoinage in king William's reign. In queen Anne's reign. In the reign of George I. Of the uſe of the foregoing accounts.

GOLDEN RULE IN ARITHMETIC, what.

GRACE, a term in trade, explained.

GRAFTING, GRAFFING, or INGRAFTING. See ENGRAFFING.

GRATIAS, a term in commerce in Spain; with remarks relating to the treaties of commerce ſubſiſting between Great-Britain and Spain.

GRANET, a precious ſtone; with philoſophical remarks.

GREECE, [MODERN GREECE], it's ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks.

GREENLAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade. Of the whale-fiſhery.

GREENWICH-HOSPITAL; with political remarks. What ſeamen pay to the ſupport of that hoſpital.

GRONINGEN, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GUINEA, in Africa, ditto; with political remarks.

GUIENNE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

GUMS, of their nature and quality; with philoſophical and political remarks thereon.

GUNPOWDER, it's compoſition; how made. Of the exportation thereof. The principal laws of England relating thereto.

Of the Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe continued.

LETTER H.

HADDINGTONSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

HALBERSTADT, ditto.

HALLAGE, what.

HAMBURGH, it's ſituation and trade; with political remarks. Monies of exchange of Hamburgh; and their computations with other parts of Europe. Of their weights and meaſures. Of the bank of Hamburgh; with remarks.

HAMPSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

HANOVER, ditto; with remarks.

HANSE-TOWNS; of the Hanſeatic league, &c.

HARPINEER, or HARPONEER, who.

HARTFORDSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

HATS, a manufacture; with remarks thereon before and ſince the laſt war, and treaty of 1763.

HAWKERS and PEDLARS, the principal laws of England relating thereto.

HEMP, a vegetable, how prepared for uſe; with remarks before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763. Laws of England relating to hemp and flax.

HEREFORDSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with remarks.

HERRING-FISHERY; with remarks before and ſince the late war, and peace of 1763.

HESSE LANDGRAVIATE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

HILDESHEIM, ditto.

HOLLAND, ditto. The bank of loan of Amſterdam, called the Lombard. Of the monies of exchange of Holland, and computation, as they relate to other European nations. Of the weights and meaſures; with political remarks before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763.

HOLSTEIN DUCHY, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

HOPS, a plant. Of lands fit for planting hops; with remarks.

HUDSON'S-BAY AND STREIGHTS, it's ſituation, produce and trade repreſented; with remarks before the laſt war, and ſince the peace of 1763.

HUNGARY, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE, ditto.

HUSBANDRY repreſented, with remarks.

HYPOTHECATION, in mercantile commerce, explained; with remarks.

The Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe continued.

LETTER I.

JAPON, or JAPAN, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

JAVA, ditto; with remarks relating to the commerce of the Dutch in the Eaſt-Indies.

ICELAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

JERQUE, a term uſed at the cuſtom-houſe; with remarks.

JERSEY, it's ſituation, produce and trade.

JETSAM, what. See FLOTSAM and LAGAN.

JEWELS. See DIAMOND, PEARL and GEMS.

IMPORTATION; with political remarks before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763. Principal laws of England relating to importation of merchandize. Of goods prohibited importation.

IMPOST, what.

INDIA TRADE. See EAST-INDIA TRADE, EAST-INDIA COMPANY, JAVA, &c. &c.

INDIA-HOUSE OF SPAIN. Explanation of the Spaniſh Weſt-India trade and navigation; with political remarks before the laſt war, and peace of 1763.

INDIAN AFFAIRS IN NORTH AMERICA repreſented.

INDIAN ISLANDS, in Aſia, their ſituation, produce and trade.

INDICO, a plant; method of cultivating indico in America.

Of

Of the adulteration of indico. Of the uſe of indico. Laws of England in regard to indico.
INDOSTAN, or EMPIRE OF THE GREAT MOGUL, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with obſervations interſperſed.
INSURANCE. See ASSURANCE, as relative to mercantile trade.
INTEREST OF MONEY; various caſes of computation thereon, with tables of intereſt ſimple and compound. The ſeveral uſes thereof, as applied in buſineſs of divers kinds. Of the intereſt of money, conſidered in a national and political view. Of legal intereſt. Of the reduction of intereſt in the public funds, before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763.
INVERNESSHIRE, it's ſituation, produce and trade.
INVOICE, a mercantile account; with remarks.
IRELAND, it's ſituation, produce and trade; with political remarks before and ſince the laſt war, and peace of 1763.
IRON, it's manufacture and trade; with remarks. Iron as applied to medicine.
The Buſineſs of the Cuſtom-houſe continued.

LETTER K.

KALI, a ſalt, it's nature and trade.
KAY, or KEY, or QUAY, deſcribed. The laws relating thereto.
KENT, it's ſituation, produce and trade.
KINCARDINSHIRE, ditto.
The Stewarty of KIRCUDBRIGHT, ditto.

The END of the FIRST VOLUME.

A Correct MAP of EUROPE

Divided into its

EMPIRES KINGDOMS &c

Drawn from the most approved MAPS and CHARTS regulated by Astron.l Observat.ns

By Thos. Kitchin Geogr.r

THE ICY SEA

NORWEGIAN SEA

NORTH SEA OR BRITISH OCEAN

WESTERN OR ATLANTIC

BRITISH ISLANDS

Arctic Circle

Meridian of London

FERRO Is.

SHETLAND Is.

ORKNEY Is.

WESTERN ISLANDS

IRELAND

SCOTLAND

Province of NORTH ISLAND

Province of SOUTH ISLAND

Province of EAST LAND

NORWAY

GOVERNMENT OF BERGEN

GOVERNMENT OF DRONTHEIM

GOVERNMENT OF AGERHUS

SWEDISH LAPLAND

ANGERMANIA

JEMTERLAND

MEDALPADIA

HELSINGIA

DALEKARLIA

WERMELAND

WESTERMANIA

DALA

W. GOTHLAND

GOTHLAND

S. GOTHLAND

BLEKING

SCHONEN

DENMARK

Zeeland

COPENHAGEN

Deg.rs West Longit. from London

Deg.rs E. Longit.s from London

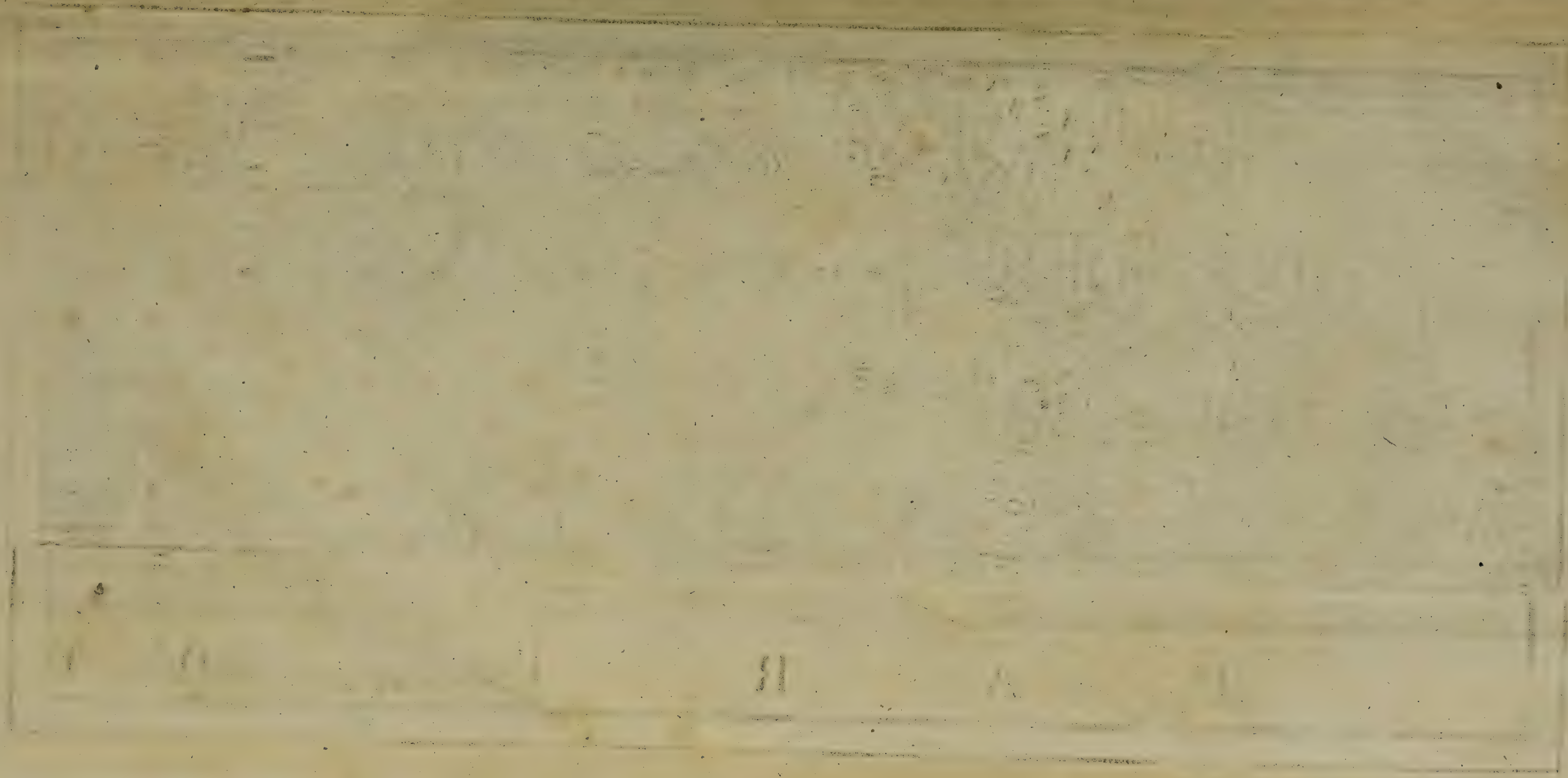
EUROPE, Plate I.



EUROPE Plate II.

EUROPE *Plate III.*

EUROPE Plate III.



Part 1.

North Arabia,

ASIA, *Plate* I. *including the* Turkish Dominions *with most of* Persia. *Revised and Examined by* Mr BOLTON.

ASIA Pl: II. Part of INDIA, PERSIA, TIBET, and TARTARY. Examined & Rectified by Mr. BOLTON. *Part 1.*

Plate III. South ARABIA: *Examined and Improved by M.R BOLTON.*

Part 1.

J. Smith sculp.

Tropic of Cancer

ARABIA

Very Dry DESERTS from Mekka to the Persian Gulf

Bargebal between Yabrin and Yemen

The TERRITORIES of MEKKA and MEDINA compose the State of Mekka, whose King or Sherif is a Descendant of MAHOMET.

AKAF, great Sandy Space

HAPPY ARABIA

MAHRA barren Land whose People use a particular Dialect

Land of the Ahad Arabs

Suaken is the best Port belonging to the Turk on this Coast. Tis an Islet in a Lake, no bigger than the Town it contains.

RED SEA

ABESSINIA

ADEL

AJAN

ARABIAN SEA

Sherah of Beralam

Hamdan

Nehem

Haulan

Saba

Mareb

Shibam

Macula

Sahar

Aden

BABEL MANDEB

Zeyla

Brown Isle

I. Meta

C. Gardafy

Bay of Bola

C. Orfy

Bandel Cuas

Delgado

Bandel Agoa

Morro or Highland of Cobir

SOCOTERA

East Cape

two Brothers

two Sisters

British Miles 69 to a Degree.

45 50 100 150 200 250 300 350 400 450 500 550 600

Genuin Sea Liegues, 20 to a Degree.

10 20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180 200

Roman Mile, being 4845 English Foot, or 755 Toise and half, 75 to a Degree.

50 100 200 300 400 500 600

Greek Mile used in Turky, 88 in a Degree.

50 100 200 300 400 500 600

Common Miles of Arabia 56 to a Degree: one Mile and quarter English.

50 100 200 300 400 500

Parseng of Persia, 25 to a Degree, which the Turks call Agash: Some are 20 to a Degree.

20 40 60 80 100 120 140 160 180 200

Giam, a Marine Measure of Arabia, near 4 Liegues each, or eleven Miles.

5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50

Koss, an Indian Measure 37 to a Degree [Hanway says 30, being two Geographic Miles.]

25 50 100 150 200 250 300

Gosh, a Sea Measure about Bengal, equal to four Kosses.

5 10 25 50 75

The Japan Liegue is very short, hardly two English Miles.

25 50 100 150 200 250

FIRST PART OF

ASIA,

being

TURKY, ARABIA, PERSIA,

most of

INDIA AND TARTARY.

Performed by the S.R D'ANVILLE

under the Patronage of the

DUKE OF ORLEANS.

Revised and Improved by

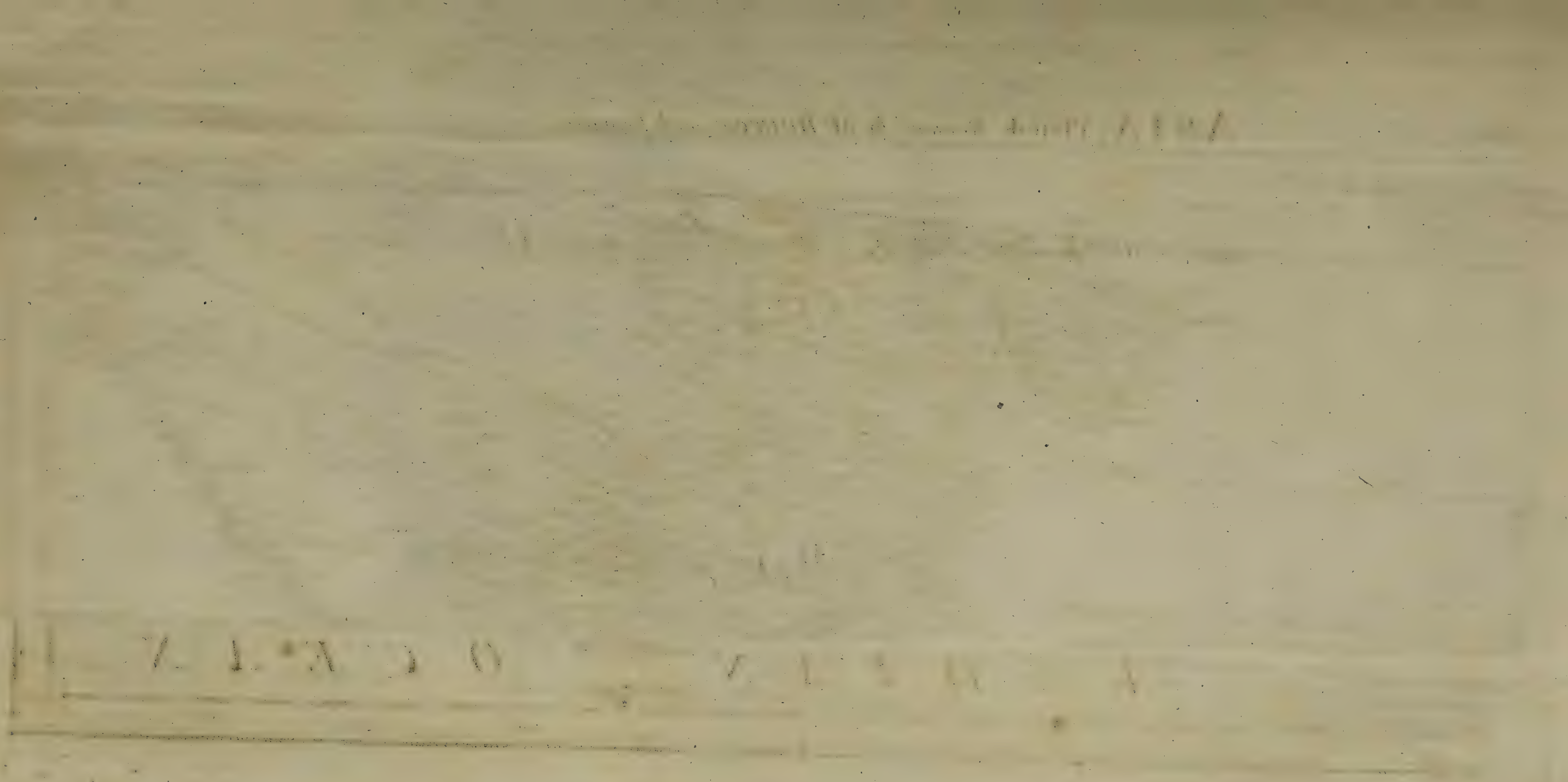
M.R BOLTON.

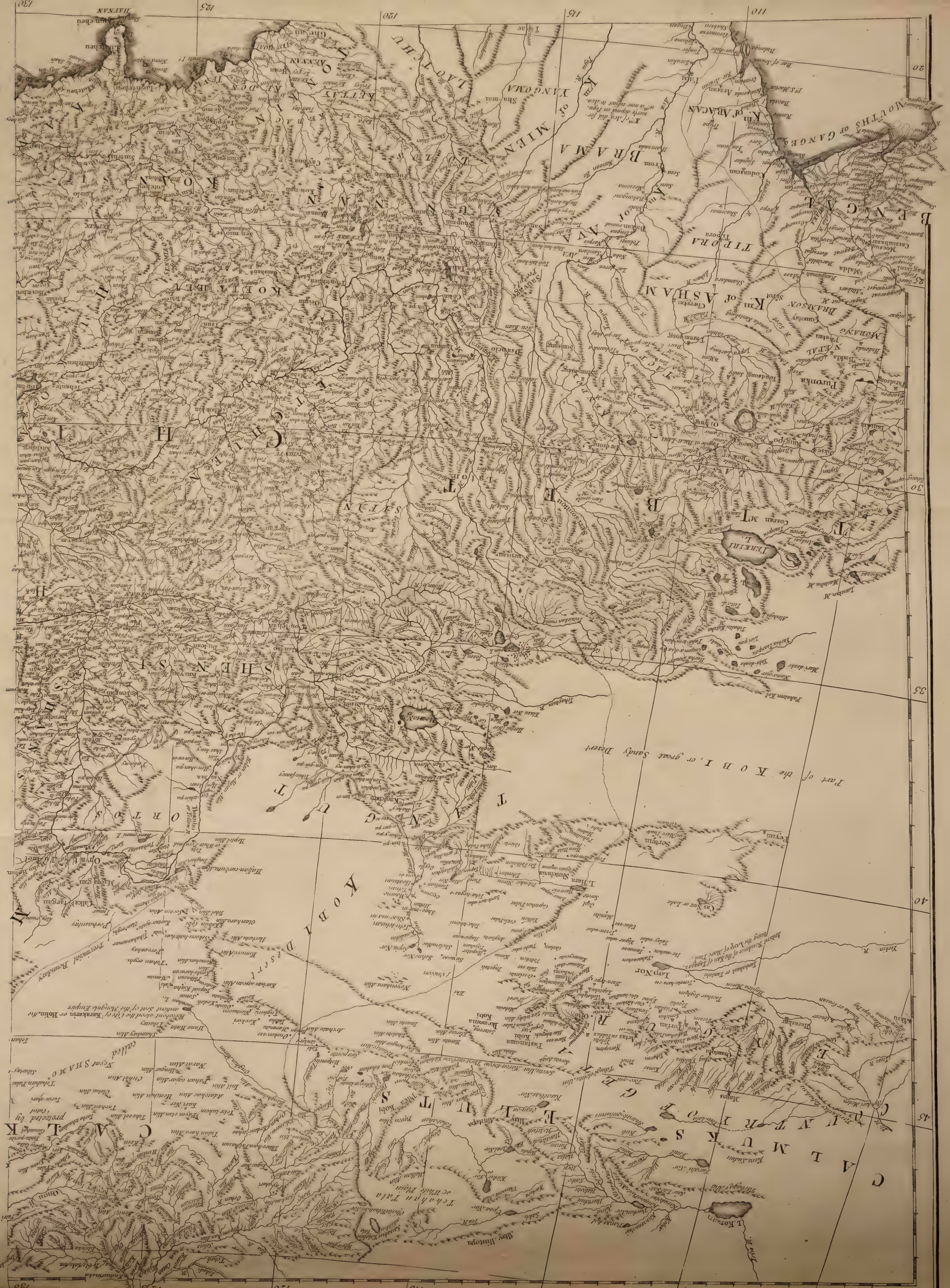
MDCCLV.

ASIA, Plate 4. *Revised by Mr BOLTON, with Remarks.*

R.W. Seale sculp.






BENGAL
Kingdom of ASHAM
Kingdom of ARACAN
BRAMA
MIEN
LAO
TIPORA
JAVA
KOBI or great Sandy Desert
Part of the KOBI, or great Sandy Desert
CHINESE EMPIRE
CALMUCKS
TARTARY
SHENSI
KOKONOR
KOKONOR DESERT
SIAN
CHUEN
KIANG
KOEI TCHEOU
YUNNAN
KOUANSI
KOUANTONG
CANTON
CHANTOU
FOKIEN
CHEKIANG
KIANGNAN
HONAN
SHANTONG
PETCHELI
Great Wall of China
Yellow River
Blue River
Red River
Mekong
Irrawaddy
Ganges
Brahmaputra
Tonquin
Cochin China
Siam
Pegu
Ava
Arracan
Bengal
Delhi
Agra
Lahore
Cashmire
Tibet
Lhassa
Nanking
Pekin
Canton
Macao
Formosa
Japan
Corea
Tartary
Great Desert
Lake Baikal
Lake Aral
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Persia
Turkey
Arabia
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Mediterranean Sea
Africa
Europe
Asia
Indian Ocean
Pacific Ocean
Atlantic Ocean
Arctic Ocean
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Meridian of Pekin
Meridian of Ferro
Meridian of Greenwich
Meridian of Paris
Meridian of Peak of Teneriffe
Meridian of Cape Verd Islands
Meridian of Cape Lopez
Meridian of Cape of Good Hope
Meridian of Cape Corrientes
Meridian of Cape Horn
Meridian of Cape Blanco
Meridian of Cape Gracias a Dios
Meridian of Cape Florida
Meridian of Cape Hatteras
Meridian of Cape Henlopen
Meridian of Cape Cod
Meridian of Cape Sable
Meridian of Cape Race
Meridian of Cape Farewell
Meridian of Cape North
Meridian of Cape Wrath
Meridian of Cape Finisterre
Meridian of Cape St. Vincent
Meridian of Cape Spartel
Meridian of Cape Bon
Meridian of Cape Matapan
Meridian of Cape Malea
Meridian of Cape Colonna
Meridian of Cape Passaro
Meridian of Cape Carbonara
Meridian of Cape Corse
Meridian of Cape Spada
Meridian of Cape Teulada
Meridian of Cape Bougaroni
Meridian of Cape Bona
Meridian of Cape Blanco
Meridian of Cape Verd
Meridian of Cape Lopez
Meridian of Cape of Good Hope
Meridian of Cape Corrientes
Meridian of Cape Horn
Meridian of Cape Blanco
Meridian of Cape Gracias a Dios
Meridian of Cape Florida
Meridian of Cape Hatteras
Meridian of Cape Henlopen
Meridian of Cape Cod
Meridian of Cape Sable
Meridian of Cape Race
Meridian of Cape Farewell
Meridian of Cape North
Meridian of Cape Wrath
Meridian of Cape Finisterre
Meridian of Cape St. Vincent
Meridian of Cape Spartel
Meridian of Cape Bon
Meridian of Cape Matapan
Meridian of Cape Malea
Meridian of Cape Colonna
Meridian of Cape Passaro
Meridian of Cape Carbonara
Meridian of Cape Corse
Meridian of Cape Spada
Meridian of Cape Teulada
Meridian of Cape Bougaroni
Meridian of Cape Bona

Thuna Lucis, a quarter mile each age in a Degree.

Japan Leagues, 34 in a Degree.

Miles of Siam called Rommia, about one mile & half English.

Common Leagues, 20 in a Degree.

Tropic of Cancer

TARTARY belong to the K. of Ledcyo

Under the Dominion of China

The MANCHEU Tartars

LEKEYO ISLES

JAPAN

CORREA

GULF OF

SEA of KAMTSCHATKA

STRAIT OF JAPAN

HOANG HAY or Yellow Sea

CHINA

MONGUL TARTARY

KOREA

YESO or JESO

Marks for CHINA.

a Ft. Capital Cities.
b Their second Rank.
c Their Principal Towns.

Sina or Xina in Japanese, means Island.

ASIA, Plate VII. The EAST PENINSULA of INDIA.

SECOND PART OF ASIA.

BEING

CHINA, PART OF INDIA AND TARTARY:

THE ISLANDS OF

SONDA, MOLUCKA, PHILIPPIN, JAPAN &c.

Performed by Mr DANVILLE, under the Noble Favor of the DUKE of ORLEANS.

Revised and Improved by Mr BOLTON,

MDCCLV.

R.W. Seale sculp.

The chief Sonda Isles are Sumatra, Banca, Java, Balli, Madura, Borneo.

[Pulo means Island]

BAY OF BENGAL

KINGDOM OF PEGU

KINGDOM OF SIAM

KINGm OF LAO

KINGm OF CAMBOJA

GULF OF TONKIN

HAINAN

CORAIN

CHAMPA

Quanhia

Quinhon

Ranran

Fumoy

Pracel

Great Andaman

ANDAMAN ISLES

Small Andaman

Car Nicobar

Sombrero Chanel

St George Nicobar

Chanel Nicobar

Hog Island

Cocos Is.

Diamond

Pulo Minton

Priaman

Andragiri

Jambi

Palimban

Junsolan

Queda

Patani

Perak

Malacka

Pahang

Tiom

Columpi

Lingan

Sambas

Hormata

Natuna

Anamba

Timolan

Condor Is.

Pulo Ubi

Pulo Panjang

Pulo Sapata

Middleburg Sand

Andradas Rock

Lone I.

Sable

Bane de roche

West Tigan

Mompracem

Comado Is.

Pulo Capas

Pulo Ridang

Pulo Aor

Pulo Timon

Pulo Tioman

Pulo Varela

Pulo Lozin

Pulo Rou

Pulo Cara

Pulo Cornom

Pulo Bardia

Pulo Samorri

Pulo Way

Pulo Condore

Pulo Taya

Pulo Ciampelo

Pulo Catan

Pulo Cecer da Terra

Pulo Cecer do Mar

Three Brothers

Two Brothers

Two Sisters

Three Islands

Nine Islands

Seven Islands

Barren I.

Flat I.

Tower I.

Middle I.

Rock

Kings I.

Prince I.

Java Head

Cape of Sumatra

Strait of Malacca

Strait of Sincapor

Strait of Banca

Strait of Sunda

Gulf of Siam

Gulf of Cambodia

Gulf of Martaban

Gulf of Tonkin

Mouth of the Ganges

Mouth of the Menam

Mouth of the Mecon

Mouth of the Cambodia

Mouth of the Indragiri

Mouth of the Palimban

Mouth of the Jambi

Mouth of the Siak

Mouth of the Queda

Mouth of the Patani

Mouth of the Perak

Mouth of the Pahang

Mouth of the Tiom

Mouth of the Columpi

Mouth of the Lingan

Mouth of the Sambas

Mouth of the Hormata

Mouth of the Natuna

Mouth of the Anamba

Mouth of the Timolan

Mouth of the Condor Is.

Mouth of the Pulo Ubi

Mouth of the Pulo Panjang

Mouth of the Pulo Sapata

Mouth of the Middleburg Sand

Mouth of the Andradas Rock

Mouth of the Lone I.

Mouth of the Sable

Mouth of the Bane de roche

Mouth of the West Tigan

Mouth of the Mompracem

Mouth of the Comado Is.

Mouth of the Pulo Capas

Mouth of the Pulo Ridang

Mouth of the Pulo Aor

Mouth of the Pulo Timon

Mouth of the Pulo Tioman

Mouth of the Pulo Varela

Mouth of the Pulo Lozin

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Mouth of the Pulo Cara

Mouth of the Pulo Cornom

Mouth of the Pulo Bardia

Mouth of the Pulo Samorri

Mouth of the Pulo Way

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Mouth of the Pulo Ciampelo

Mouth of the Pulo Catan

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ASIA, The PHILIPPIN, CAROLIN, MOLUCKA, and SPICE ISLANDS. Revised and Improved by Mr. BOLTON. Engraved by R.W. Seale. Part 2.

Plate VIII.



